1	Changes in species composition and diversity of a montane beetle
2	community over the last millennium in the High Tatras, Slovakia:
3	implications for forest conservation and management
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#### 31 Abstract

32 Montane biomes are niche environments high in biodiversity with a variety of 33 habitats. Often isolated, these non-continuous remnant ecosystems inhabit narrow 34 ecological zones putting them under threat from changing climatic conditions and 35 anthropogenic pressure. Twelve sediment cores were retrieved from a peat bog in Tatra 36 National Park, Slovakia, and correlated to each other by wiggle-matching geochemical 37 signals derived from micro-XRF scanning, to make a reconstruction of past conditions. A 38 fossil beetle (Coleoptera) record, covering the last 1000 years at 50- to 100-year resolution, 39 gives a new insight into changing flora and fauna in this region. Our findings reveal a diverse 40 beetle community with varied ecological groups inhabiting a range of forest, meadow and 41 synanthropic habitats. Changes in the beetle community were related to changes in the 42 landscape, driven by anthropogenic activities. The first clear evidence for human activity in 43 the area occurs c. 1250 CE and coincides with the arrival of beetle species living on the 44 dung of domesticated animals (e.g. Aphodius spp.). From 1500 CE, human (re)settlement, 45 and activities such as pasturing and charcoal burning, appear to have had a pronounced 46 effect on the beetle community. Local beetle diversity declined steadily towards the present 47 day, likely due to an infilling of the forest hollow leading to a decrease in moisture level. We conclude that beetle communities are directly affected by anthropogenic intensity and land 48 49 use change. When aiming to preserve or restore natural forest conditions, recording their 50 past changes in diversity can help guide conservation and restoration. In doing so, it is 51 important to look back beyond the time of significant human impact, and for this, information 52 contained in paleoecological records is irreplaceable.

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54 Key words: Coleoptera; nature conservation; biodiversity; human impact; Central Europe;55 climate change.

56

57 **1. Introduction** 

58 Montane biomes are diverse multi-functional environments with a variety of habitats 59 often occupied by specific, endemic animal and plant communities constrained by 60 environmental conditions (Kessler and Kluge, 2008; Dimitrov et al., 2012; Amori et al., 2019). 61 Humans have progressively modified these ecosystems by altering land-use to their 62 requirements, resulting in the decline of many plant and animal species. The establishment of national parks during the 20<sup>th</sup> century serves to preserve the remaining biodiversity in 63 64 remote mountain areas, yet these montane forests are increasingly impacted by extreme 65 climate events and their ecosystems are changing rapidly (McCain and Colwell, 2011; Elsen 66 and Tingly, 2015). In particular, the frequency of extreme events disturbing forest 67 ecosystems, such as drought and windstorms, have increased significantly in North America 68 and Europe during the last 50 years (Schelhaas et al., 2003; Allen et al., 2010). However, 69 historical recordings of disturbance agents are rare in some regions (Schelhaas et al., 2003). 70 Paleoecological reconstructions can be used to understand the long-term effects of changing 71 climate and anthropogenic pressure on the landscape structure and the flora and fauna in 72 montane regions (La Sorte and Jetz, 2010; McCain and Colwell, 2011). In the last decades it 73 has become apparent that linking paleoecology with conservation management is key to 74 understand the effects of current conservation efforts (Froyd and Willis, 2008). Ecological 75 data on longer time scales allow for a better reconstruction of natural variability in a 76 landscape and give clearer results about ecological thresholds and resilience within a natural 77 system. Furthermore, by addressing ecological data on longer time scales it can be argued if 78 the current disturbance events in montane forests are unprecedented (Froyd and Willis, 79 2008; Kidwell, 2015).

80

Fossil pollen and botanical macrofossils are the most commonly used proxies for
reconstructing paleoenvironment and vegetation structure (e.g. Magyari et al., 2012).
Subfossil beetle (Coleoptera) remains are a valuable additional proxy to pollen as these can
often be identified to species level and provide detailed information about past beetle
habitats (e.g. van Geel et al., 1989). Many beetle species live in specific niche environments

86 because of their preferences for certain temperature and moisture levels, landscape 87 openness and host plants (Elias, 2010). Local communities (< 400 m; Smith et al., 2010) are 88 the source area for beetle remains at fossil sites. In previous studies, the comparison of 89 fossil beetle assemblages with modern beetle communities provided valuable information 90 about the timing and drivers of local beetle taxa extinctions (e.g. Whitehouse, 2006). 91 Therefore, fossil beetle records provide not only detailed information to reconstruct 92 landscape composition through time, but also contribute to solve issues in conservation and 93 management (e.g. Buckland and Kenward, 1973; Gustavsson et al., 2009). Lindbladh et al. 94 (2013) highlight fossil beetle remains as an underused, yet valuable proxy in forested 95 landscape reconstructions as fossil beetles can contribute to the reconstruction of forest 96 composition, (relative) amounts of old trees and coarse woody debris, and to reconstruct 97 natural disturbances. Even insect outbreaks could potentially be quantified from fossil beetle 98 remains.

99

100 Central Europe has a diverse landscape with high flora and fauna species diversity, 101 and is currently under pressure from intensive land use (Turnock, 2002). The High Tatra 102 Mountains are located on the border between Slovakia and Poland and are part of the 103 Western Carpathian range, the highest range of the Carpathian Mountains. The area is a 104 prominent UNESCO biosphere reserve with species such as brown bear (Ursus arctos), 105 Eurasian lynx (Lynx lynx) and wolf (Canis lupus), and many endemic plant and animal 106 species (<u>unesco.org</u>). In the last decades, extreme events such as windthrows and droughts 107 have increased significantly in this region (e.g. Fleischer et al., 2017). Consequently, the 108 Tatra Mountains are an ideal region to investigate long-term (millennial) changes in the local 109 flora and fauna, based on pollen and beetle remains. In this study, we aim to 1) Reconstruct 110 changes in diversity of the local forest beetle community and 2) Identify the drivers behind 111 changes in beetle community and vegetation diversity. Understanding the drivers behind 112 species composition and diversity change over the last 1000 years can be used as a

potential analogue to help understand the response and resilience of these ecosystems tofuture climate and anthropogenic changes.

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#### 116 2. Methods

117 2.1 Site area

118 Diera Hollow is a small forest hollow of 30 m x 80 m in size and located at 982 m 119 a.s.l. on a former end moraine of the High Tatra Mountains near the village Tatranská 120 Lomnica, Slovakia (49.09885° N, 20.15814° E; Figure 1). The region has a sub-continental 121 climate with an average minimum temperature of -5.3 °C and an average maximum 122 temperature of 15.4 °C. The mean annual rainfall is 830 mm (Tatranská Lomnica weather 123 station, 830 m a.s.l.). Forest hollows are waterlogged anoxic peat depressions within a forest 124 canopy. Due to their small to moderate size ( $\sim 100 - 2000 \text{ m}^2$ ) their sediments reflect a local 125 environmental signal. The pollen signal is representative of the vegetation recorded within a 126 radius approximately 100 m of the site (Overballe-Petersen and Bradshaw, 2011), and 127 comparable to the source area radius of 400 m for beetle remains (Smith et al., 2010). The 128 site was heavily damaged by the autumnal storm Alžbeta in 2004 and is currently 129 surrounded by pine (Pinus), spruce (Picea abies), larch (Larix decidua), birch (Betula) and 130 bilberry (Vaccinium myrtillus). Seedlings of birch, bedstraw (Galium sp.), rosebay willowherb 131 (Epilobium angustifolium) and sedges (Carex spp.) are present at the site. Prior to the 132 windstorm in 2004, the area surrounding the study site was densely forested, with spruce as 133 the dominant species.

134

135 2.2 Field methods

A master sediment core was extracted from Diera Hollow in 2016, with a 5 x 50 cm D-section corer (Jowsey, 1965; Aaby and Digerfeldt, 1986). To provide the volumes of material required for analysis of fossil beetles, a further 12 proximal sediment cores were sampled in 2017 using a gridded system, with a 10 x 50 cm D-section corer. To minimize the disturbance of the sampling site inside the nature reserve, sampling was performed by

collecting multiple parallel cores instead of digging trenches, a sampling method often used
in paleoentomological studies (e.g. Forbes et al., 2020). Cores measured between 50 cm
and 78 cm in total length due to variable moraine deposits and bedrock. The master core (88
cm in length) was radiocarbon dated and analyzed for geochemistry (Energy-Dispersive XRay Fluorescence: ED-XRF), subfossil beetles and pollen, while the additional cores were
analyzed for beetle remains.

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#### 148 2.3 Chronology, geochemistry and core correlation

149 Four botanical macrofossil samples from the master core were dated in the Poznan 150 radiocarbon laboratory (see supplementary data Table S1) and were used to establish a site 151 chronology. The <sup>14</sup>C ages were calibrated with the IntCal13 curve (Reimer et al., 2013) 152 within a Bayesian age-depth modelling routine 'BACON' (Blaauw and Christen, 2011), which 153 modelled all age information, including the sediment surface, using a Student-t distribution 154 that accounted for scatter and allowed statistical outliers (Figure 2). The Bayesian analysis 155 (Christen and Perez, 2009) partitioned the core into three sections (31.3 cm thick) estimating 156 the accumulation rate for each segment using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) 157 approach. The modelling was constrained by a prior model of sediment accumulation rate.

158

159 All 13 cores, including the master profile, were analyzed for geochemistry on a wet-160 sediment basis using an Olympus Delta Professional ED-XRF mounted on the University of 161 Liverpool Geotek Multi-Sensor Core Logger (MSCL). XRF core scanning is a non-162 destructive, rapid approach for quantifying elemental concentrations in a sediment core 163 (Croudace et al., 2006) and has been used frequently in paleolimnological studies (Davies et 164 al., 2015) and, to lesser extent, studies on peat cores (Poto et al., 2015; Longman et al., 165 2019). Patterns in geochemistry were comparable between the master profile and the 12 166 proximal cores; patterns in concentration of the atmospheric fallout pollutant Pb (Renburg et 167 al., 2000) displayed a strongly repeatable signal. Profiles for conservative lithogenic 168 elements, e.g. Rb, also showed strongly repeatable stratigraphic records. The strong

169 matches between the cores (Figures S1 – S4) facilitated the transfer of the age-depth model 170 between cores and provided a basis for subsampling the 12 cores. These cores were pooled 171 into 18 samples with total volumes 400 - 1600 ml, with narrower 1 – 4 cm intervals to 172 provide greater detail for the last 100 years (400 - 500 ml) and the remainder in 4 – 7 cm 173 depth intervals (800 - 1600 ml). Details on the subsampling can be found in figure S4.

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#### 175 2.4 Fossil beetle analysis

176 Fossil beetle preparation of the 18 samples followed the methods described in detail 177 by Elias (2010). Samples were wet sieved at 250 µm and the organic remains were soaked 178 in paraffin oil and floated in water. Isolated floats were sieved and rinsed before being stored 179 in ethanol (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH). Beetle remains were picked under a binocular light microscope with 180 10x magnification and were identified to family, genus and species level with the use of 181 online databases (Kerbtier.de, Cassidae.uni.wroc.pl) and museum collections in United 182 Kingdom (Plymouth City Museum and Oxford Museum of National History) and Czechia 183 (Czech National Museum in Prague, Regional Museum Roztoky u Prahy and the Moravian 184 Museum in Brno). The minimum number of individuals (MNI) was calculated by adding up all 185 elytra, heads and dorsal plates(pronota) identified as Coleoptera.

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## 187 2.5 Ecological attributes

188 Specific ecological attributes of beetle genera and species were derived from 189 literature through online databases; BugsCEP (Buckland and Buckland, 2006) and Biomap 190 (2019), which contained full species descriptions. According to their ecological preferences, 191 species or genera were divided into 20 functional groups to facilitate interpretation. 192 Functional groups are personal interpretations used to summarize the ecology of beetle taxa 193 and can vary to certain degree according to the type of study they are used for (e.g. 194 archaeological vs. paleoecological). The functional groups in this study are based on previous work from the United Kingdom (e.g. Whitehouse, 2004). Many beetle species can 195 196 be found in more than one type of landscape, and the ecology of taxa is as well often

197 constrained by their feeding strategies. Unless beetle taxa were clearly eurytopic, the most 198 dominant ecological feature was chosen for each beetle taxon: Eurytopic (appearing in a 199 wide variety of biotopes); Aquatic (living at least partially in water bodies); Aquatic standing 200 water (living in stagnant bodies of water); Aquatic running water (living in flowing water 201 bodies); Marsh/wetland (hygrophilous species living in marshes or wetlands); Bank 202 vegetation (living on vegetation at the banks of water bodies); Hygrophilous (living in a 203 variety of biotopes, with a high humidity as common factor); Heathland/moorland (living in 204 moderately wet, open landscape); Meadow (living in open landscape, often feeding on 205 meadow vegetation); Disturbed/arable (living on disturbed soils, often disturbed by 206 anthropogenic activities); Foul/dung (living in dung and rotting vegetation or other materials); 207 Dung (only living in dung); Dry decomposer (fungivore in dry environments); Wet 208 decomposer (mostly fungivores; found in moist places); Shaded woodland (living in shaded 209 woodland but in the understory); Trees (living on trees); Deciduous trees (living on 210 deciduous trees); Coniferous trees (living on coniferous trees); Deadwood (living in dying 211 trees and decaying wood) and Conifer pest (colonizing healthy trees). The category Conifer 212 pest was added as large quantities of conifer bark beetles (Curculionidae: Scolytinae) were 213 found and these could provide additional information about past disturbances. Beetle data 214 was displayed using the program Tilia (Grimm, 1990), zonation was performed by D-chord 215 cluster analysis (see section 2.7).

216

# 217 2.6 Pollen analysis

Pollen analysis of the 2016 master core was performed in continuous 1 cm resolution
between 1 – 70 cm and in 2 cm interval for the rest of the core, amounting to a total of 78
samples. Subsamples of 0.5 cm<sup>3</sup> were prepared with standard procedures of KOH-,
acetolysis- and HF-treatment (Fægri and Iversen, 1989). The samples were mounted in
glycerine and a minimum of 500 terrestrial pollen grains were identified under a light
microscope using a 400x magnification. Pollen identification was based on standard pollen
keys (Punt 1976, 2003; Beug, 2004), microtopographic atlases (Reille, 1992 – 1998), and a

reference collection in the Institute of Botany, CAS, Průhonice. Pollen data was plotted using
the program C2 (Juggins, 2003). The full pollen dataset can be accessed upon personal
request to the authors and will be published elsewhere.

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# 229 2.7 Statistical analysis

Shannon's diversity index (Shannon and Weaver, 1949) takes both the number of individuals and the number of taxa into account, by calculating the natural log from the proportion of an individual species of the total sum of individuals. This diversity index is used commonly in ecology as well as archeology and paleoecology (Pielou, 1967; Liu et al., 2015). Both beetle diversity and pollen diversity were plotted against time to compare forest beetle community dynamics with forest vegetation dynamics.

236

237 To emphasize changes in the terrestrial beetle community, aquatic species were 238 excluded from the following analyses; 266 out of 313 taxa remained. Raw counts were 239 converted to percentages to account for differences in total sum of individuals per sample 240 (Legendre and Legendre, 2012). The square-chord method (Overpeck et al., 1985) was 241 used to calculate dissimilarities between all samples. A hierarchical cluster analysis was 242 then performed on the resulting square-chord dissimilarity (SQD) matrix to identify patterns 243 in the beetle assemblages. Ward's minimum variance criterion (Ward, 1963) was used to 244 implement the hierarchical clustering, to define beetle zones. This technique produces 245 compact, equal-sized dendrograms by minimizing the total within-cluster variance (Mirkin, 246 2005). Furthermore, a PCA (Gabriel, 1971) was performed on the samples according to their 247 dissimilarity matrix, to explore which components (species) attributed most to the variance 248 throughout the section. All statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software 249 R (R core team, 2018) and different packages: vegan (Oksanen et al., 2019), usedist 250 (Bittinger, 2017), factoextra (Kassambara and Mundt, 2017), ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016), dplyr 251 (Wickham et al., 2019) and tidyverse (Wickham, 2017).

252

#### 253 3. Results

## 254 3.1 Beetle assemblages

A total of 2860 individuals were identified from 313 taxa and 38 families (Table S2). The number of individuals per sample ranged between 58 and 279 (Table S2, Figure 3). In figure 3, depths are according to core 11, which matched best with the master core from 2016 and was used to correlate all other cores to (see Figure S1 – S4). The beetle record was divided into five distinctive zones according to the hierarchical cluster analysis (Figure 4): Zone 1 (930 – 1080 CE), Zone 2 (1080 – 1500 CE), Zone 3 (1500 – 1740 CE), Zone 4 (1740 – 1950 CE) and Zone 5 (1950 CE – present).

262

263 Zone 1 (930 – 1080 CE) has a high abundance of aquatic species (21.8 – 24.4%). 264 Especially species living in standing water (e.g. the diving beetle Hydroporus tristis and the 265 water scavenger beetle Anacaena lutescens) were found but also species living in running 266 water such as Limnius perrisi, which feeds on moss from stones in mountain streams (Koch, 267 1989a; 1989b). Marsh/wetland species (4.4 - 6%) consist mostly of species in the families 268 Carabidae and Staphylinidae. Species living on or hunting within bank vegetation (6.8 - 10.1 269 %) consist primarily of Cyphon spp. and Stenus spp (Koch, 1989b). Species living in rotting 270 materials (Foul/dung; 9 – 12.2 %) primarily consist of a variety of rove beetles, among which 271 many species of the subfamily Aleocharinae. This zone contains a high proportion of species living on deciduous trees (6 - 10 %) which consists almost entirely of the species 272 273 Rhynchaenus fagi, a leaf-mining weevil which colonizes beech trees (Koch, 1989a). The proportion of conifer pests is high in this zone as well (6 - 11.5 %), consisting mostly of the 274 275 species Polygraphus poligraphus, a species which attacks depressed stands of spruce 276 (Pfeffer, 1989). Species living in meadows or glades, such as *Eusphalerum alpinum*, which 277 visit flowers in mountain meadows (Koch, 1989a), are also abundant (5.9 - 10.5 %). 278 Arpedium quadrum, a predator in heathlands and alluvial meadows and an indicator of 279 heathland/moorland (Koch, 1989a), is the most abundant species (5.3 %) from the remaining 280 ecological groups.

282 In Zone 2 (1080 – 1500 CE), common species are Stenus spp. (16.1 %), A. quadrum (9%), Pityogenes chalcographus (7.5%), Pityophthorus pityographus (5.8%), Cyphon spp. 283 284 (4.7 %) and Eusphalerum anale (3.1 %). The proportion of aquatic beetles declines while 285 marsh/wetland species such as Trechus spp. and Olophrum piceum increase (Koch, 1989a). 286 Bank species (primarily Stenus spp. and Cyphon spp.) increase significantly. Pit. 287 chalcographus and P. pityographus replace P. poligraphus as abundant conifer pests 288 (Pfeffer, 1989), but species indicative for shaded woodland, deciduous trees and deadwood 289 species all decline to values below 4 %. Dung species, such as Aphodius abdominalis 290 (Koch, 1989b), start to appear in this zone. In the upper part of Zone 2, species living in 291 meadows (such as Eusphalerum spp.) increase to 15.3 %. 292

293 Zone 3 (1500 – 1740 CE) shows a shift in dominant species: Cyphon spp. (8.7 %), 294 Anotylus tetracarinatus (6.9%), Stenus spp. (5.5%), Pit. chalcographus (5%), Gabrius 295 pennatus (4.3%), Enochrus quadripunctatus (3.8%), A. quadrum (3.1%), and Platystethus 296 arenarius (3.1 %). A. tetracarinatus, G. pennatus and P. arenarius are found in dung or other 297 rotting substances (Koch, 1989a) while E. quadripunctatus is an aquatic generalist (Koch, 298 1989a). Heathland/moorland species and meadow species decrease in number. Different 299 classes related to woodland do not change significantly in this zone but shaded woodland 300 species such as *Molops piceus* increase slightly to 5.4 % (Koch, 1989a). Dung species 301 (Koch 1989a, 1989b), such as Aphodius spp., Onthophagus cf. joannae and Sphaeridium 302 *lunatum/scarabaeoides*, increase to about 5 % of the total beetle assemblage.

303

Zone 4 (1740 – 1950 CE) contains mainly dominant species connected to the
inundated site and its (bank) vegetation: *Cyphon* spp. (18.1 %), *Hydroporus erythrocephalus*(living in a wide range of still water habitats (Koch 1989a; 4.9 %), *Phyllotreta* spp. (4.2 %), *A. lutescens* (3.9 %), *E. quadripunctatus* (3.5 %), *Donacia* spp. (3.5 %) and *Coelostoma orbiculare* (3.4 %). *Cyphon* spp., *Phyllotreta* spp. and *Donacia* spp. feed on bank vegetation

while the other taxa are all aquatic (Koch 1989a, 1989b, 1992). This zone contains a lower
amount of species living in running water (0.7 – 2.6 %) as well as lower amounts of conifer
pests (2.6 – 4.1 %). Heathland/moorland species decline even further. Sample 6 in this zone
(1780 CE) has the highest proportion of dung species (e.g. *Aphodius* spp., *Onthophagus* cf. *joannae* and *Sphaeridium lunatum/scarabaeoides*; 7.4 %) of all samples.

314

315 Zone 5 (1950 CE – present) has the lowest number of individuals recorded. Aquatic 316 species decline rapidly (down to 5 %) and aquatic beetles living in running water are absent. 317 Marsh species remain between 8.6 – 15.3 % but bank vegetation species decline to levels 318 similar to Zone 2 and 3 (13.8 – 16.7 %). Meadow species and species living in 319 disturbed/arable areas remain consistent. Foul/dung species increase (27.8 %) and dung 320 species are absent between 1970 CE and present. Shaded woodland species such as 321 Anoplotrupus stercorosus (Koch, 1989b) increase in the bottom sample of this zone (6.9 %) 322 while conifer pests (e.g. Pit. chalcographus) (24%) and species living in deadwood (8%) 323 peak between 2000 CE - present. Conifer pest *Pit. chalcographus* reaches high values of 13 324 % of the total assemblage in this zone.

325

## 326 3.2 Pollen assemblages

327 In order to compare the changes in the beetle community to changes in the 328 vegetation, the zonation of the pollen diagram (Figure 5) follows the zonation used for beetle 329 communities. Zone 1 (< 1080 CE) is dominated by pollen from *Picea, Abies* and *Fagus*, with 330 Pinus contributing to 10 % of the total pollen sum. Zone 2 (1080 – 1500 CE) consists of two 331 phases: in the first phase there is a maximum of Abies and Picea pollen, which decline 332 around 1350 CE. Maximum values of Fagus pollen occur between 1250 – 1350 CE. 333 Between 1250 – 1500 CE, there are peaks in Poaceae and Cyperaceae, after which Pinus 334 pollen increase considerably and Betula pollen starts to increase. In contrast, Fagus pollen 335 decrease. From 1250 CE, there are notable increases in human indicator taxa, including 336 cultivated plants such as Secale cereale and Triticum avellana and plants growing on open

337 mineral soil connected to human settlements such *Plantago lanceolata* (Behre, 1981; 338 Gaillard, 2013). The green alga Botryococcus neglectus, indicative for oligotrophic or 339 mesotrophic reservoirs (Komárek and Fott, 1983), increases around 1250 CE. In Zone 3 340 (1500 – 1740 CE), the peak in *Pinus* pollen is followed by a peak in *Betula* pollen. When the 341 Betula pollen peak declines around 1600 CE, Picea and Cyperaceae pollen increase, while 342 Abies and Fagus pollen continue to decrease. Quercus and Corylus pollen also increase in 343 Zone 3. In Zone 4 (1740 – 1950 CE) Picea pollen values reach their second maximum, while 344 Pinus pollen gradually increases. Green alga B. neglectus decreases to very low values. 345 From 1950 CE (Zone 5), Pinus pollen values are as high as in Zone 2. There is also a 346 decrease recorded in Cyperaceae and human indicator pollen taxa.

347

# 348 3.3 Beetle and vegetation diversity

349 The pollen diversity data extends from 590 CE to present, and the beetle diversity 350 data extends from 930 CE to present (Figure 6). Beetle diversity fluctuates until the highest 351 Shannon diversity occurs around 1500 CE. After this period, beetle diversity declines 352 steadily, with a rapid decline to the lowest Shannon Index values in the most recent samples 353 (from 1950 CE). Pollen diversity fluctuates until a notable increase between 1200 – 1300 CE, followed by a decline until 1500 CE. Pollen diversity then rises into a consecutive steady 354 355 phase until 1800 CE. After that, pollen diversity drops to minimum values. There is a rapid 356 increase in pollen diversity in the last sample (2004 CE).

357

## 358 3.4 Patterns in beetle diversity

The PCA biplot (Figure 7) shows the 10 beetle taxa that contribute most to the total variance. The first principal component (PC1) explains 34.3 % of the variance whereas the second rotated factors PC2 contribute to 17.9 %. PC1 has the highest loadings from *Cyphon* spp. (bank species, positive loadings), *Stenus* spp. and *A. quadrum* (marsh/wetland and heathland species, respectively, negative loadings). PC2 has the highest loadings of *Pit. chalcographus* (forest pest, positive loadings), *P. poligraphus*, *E. alpinum* and *R. fagi* (forest

pest, meadow species and deciduous tree indicator, respectively, negative loadings). The
oldest samples (930 – 1030 CE) are located within the negative portion of PC2; younger
samples are located in the positive portion of PC2. The positive portion of PC1 groups the
other, with highest values for samples from Zone 4 (1740 – 1900 CE). Samples from Zone 2
(1080 – 1390 CE) and Zone 5 (1950 – 2000 CE) overlap in the PCA biplot.

370

#### 371 4. Discussion

372 *4.1.* Forest diversity and ecosystem dynamics over the last millennium

A variety of functional beetle communities enabled the reconstruction of past changes in forest composition and biodiversity at Diera Hollow. The high abundances of tree/forest beetle taxa are indicative of a closed forest ecosystem (Robinson, 1991, 2000; Smith et al., 2010), with Norway spruce as the dominant species at the site over the past 1000 years. However, despite relatively consistent dominant forest cover, different beetle communities have succeeded one another, many of which can be related to changes in the local vegetation.

380

#### 381 4.1.1. Montane spruce-dominated forest (930 – 1080 CE)

382 At the beginning of the last millennium, the dominance of forest/tree beetle taxa 383 suggests a predominantly forested environment. Dominant species R. fagi and P. 384 poligraphus indicate the presence of beech and spruce trees at the site, respectively (Koch, 385 1992; Pfeffer, 1989). Low abundances of Pityokteines vorontzowi indicate the presence of fir 386 trees (Pfeffer, 1989). This is further supported by the pollen record with the presence of 387 Abies, Picea and Fagus pollen. The dominance of dytiscid H. tristis, together with an 388 abundance of other diving beetles typically living in peaty pools (Koch, 1989a), suggests that 389 the site was a shallow peat bog. The high abundance of the species A. quadrum and Stenus 390 spp. suggest that the banks of the peat bog were not densely covered with vegetation 391 (Brundin, 1934; Koch 1989a). Besides, a variety of species populating open areas was 392 present, such as Eusphalerum spp. living on flowers in (alpine) meadows (Koch, 1989a), but

also *Silpha tristis*, known to feed on carrion (Koch, 1989a), *Limonius aeneoniger* living at
forest edges (Laibner, 2000) and various species of flea beetles living on herbs in open
areas (e.g. *Chaetocnema* sp.; Koch, 1989b).

396

397 4.1.2. Increased beetle diversity associated with landscape openness and floristic diversity
398 (1080 – 1500 CE)

399 From around 1250 CE, increasing changes in the species composition of the beetle 400 community indicate landscape openness and an increase in human activity in the region. 401 Beetle diversity appears to be closely linked to floristic diversity in this period, with an 402 increase of taxa living in open landscapes (Figure 4). There is a decline in species living on 403 deadwood (e.g. Rhizophagus spp. and Anobium sp.) and shaded woodland species (e.g. 404 ground beetle Pterostichus foveolatus; Koch, 1989a), suggesting a decline of old-growth forest directly around the forest hollow. R. fagi indicates that beech trees remain present but 405 406 in low numbers. Several taxa living in forest clearings or at open water edges (e.g. 407 Eusphalerum spp. and A. guadrum) increase to become the dominant taxa and are 408 indicative of landscape openness (Koch, 1989a). Additionally, the presence of Hydrobius 409 fuscipes indicates that the peat bog was sun-exposed at this time (Fossen et al., 2016). The 410 increased presence of conifer pests; Pit. chalcographus and P. pityographus between 1430 411 - 1500 CE to 7.5 % of the total beetle assemblage, indicates an abundance of their primary 412 host, Norway spruce (Pfeffer, 1989). However, the pollen record shows lower amounts of 413 Picea pollen, suggesting a lower presence of trees. As these bark beetle species are known 414 to colonize thin branches or otherwise young trees, the high presence of these species might 415 have delayed the establishment of mature spruce trees around the site. The presence of Ips 416 acuminatus and Pityogenes quadridens colonizing Pinus spp. (Pfeffer, 1989) coincides with 417 an increase in *Pinus* pollen values, suggesting that pine became the dominant tree species 418 at Diera Hollow during this time. The increase of dung beetles living on dung from sheep, 419 cattle and horses (P. arenarius, S. lunatum/ scarabaeoides, Onthophagus cf. joannae, 420 Aphodius mixtus, A. rufipes, A. prodromus; Koch, 1989b) from 1500 CE suggests an

increase in herding activities. Since both *S. lunatulum/ scarabaeoides* and *O. joannae* prefer
horse, cattle or sheep dung (Koch 1989b), it is likely that the increase of dung beetles near
the site was caused by the presence of dung from domesticated animals. However, values
of dung beetles between 0.4 and 5 % does not suggest pasturing (Robinson, 1991, 2000)
and therefore, the site was likely located near routes where cattle and sheep were herded to
alpine meadows higher up in the mountains (as hypothesized by Zámečniková, 2008).

427

428 4.1.3. Mixed deciduous-coniferous forest with patchy landscape openness (1500 – 1740 CE) 429 From 1500 CE onward Cyphon spp., Donacia spp. and Phyllotreta spp., all known to 430 live on bank vegetation (Koch, 1989b; 1992), start to increase and become the dominant 431 taxa. An increase in species living on bank vegetation around 1700 CE coincides with a 432 pronounced increase of Cyperaceae, the general food source for these species. The 433 presence of high amounts of Quercus pollen suggests an increase in light availability (e.g. 434 Annighöfer et al., 2015). Therefore, it is likely that the landscape openness increased during 435 this time. Low occurrences of the weevil R. fagi together with Fagus pollen indicate that 436 beech trees remained present near to the site until the end of the 19th century. The 437 presence of A. stercorosus, which is found in semi-humid deciduous and mixed forest (Koch, 438 1989b), confirms the occurrence of deciduous trees around the site, while the presence of 439 conifer pests and species living on conifer trees (e.g. Polydrusus pallidus; Koch, 1992) 440 suggests that conifer trees were still present. As dung beetle species continue to occur in the 441 record, the area likely remained impacted by herding activities.

- 442
- 443

3 4.1.4. Semi-natural closed forest and decline in beetle diversity (1740 CE – present)

Conifer pests and shaded woodland taxa start to increase from approximately 1800 CE, suggesting that the vicinity of Diera Hollow became dominated by Spruce-Pine forest during this time. This process coincides with human abandonment of the region in the 19th century (Olah et al., 2009). Tatra National park was established in 1949 CE and the effects of forest management such as reforestation in the area are visible in the beetle record with

449 shaded woodland species increasing and dung beetles no longer present. Although the PCA 450 biplot (Figure 6) shows that samples after 1950 CE are mostly similar to samples between 451 1080 – 1500 cal CE (Zone 4), many forest beetle species did not reappear, and the original 452 Spruce-Fir-Beech woodland was not restored. The decline in beetle diversity according to 453 the Shannon Index started around 1500 CE and continued before a rapid decrease from 454 1950 CE. Partitioning of the Shannon Index for different functional groups (see Figure S6) 455 shows that from 1500 CE, the diversity of the beetle assemblages becomes increasingly 456 driven by aquatic taxa. The rapid decline of beetle diversity between 1950 – 2017 CE could 457 be attributed to the infilling or drying out of Diera Hollow, due to the sharp decline of the total 458 amount of aquatic species and the disappearance of species living in running water. Decline 459 of the alga *B. neglectus* from ~1750 CE is also an indication that the pool was decreasing in 460 size (Jankovská and Komárek, 1982). Apart from the slow infilling of the basin, both climatic and anthropogenic changes could have contributed to the drying out of Diera Hollow. During 461 462 the period 1881–2008, the average annual precipitation in Slovakia decreased by 3.4% 463 (Ministry of Environment of the Slovak Republic, 2005). However, it has been argued that 464 forest plantations can have a negative effect on forest hydrology and affect surface water 465 generation and groundwater recharge, as young forests demand large amounts of water in 466 order to grow (van Dijk and Keenan, 2007).

467

468 *4.2. Drivers behind changes in the local beetle community and vegetation* 

469 Climatic conditions, especially moisture fluctuations, are likely to have played a 470 significant role in the changes in the local vegetation and beetle community. In a study on 471 the Little Ice Age in the High Tatra Mountains (Niedźwiedź, 2004), the highest decrease in 472 temperature and increase in moisture was identified between 1575 - 1676 CE. An increase 473 in pollen from cultivated plants co-occurs with appearances of beetle species living on 474 animal dung from 1250 CE onwards (Figure 2) suggesting farming in the surrounding area. 475 Moreover, an increase in vegetation and beetle diversity associated with landscape 476 openness can be correlated to regional human activity. Even though limited sources are

477 available, one describes a village called Maklar or Matrei. This was a settlement for livestock 478 herders that was inhabited until 1360 CE (Greb, 1934). From 1400 CE onward, several wars 479 resulted in abandonment of a large part of the region (Cichocki, 2003; Pavercsik, 2003), 480 enabling forest succession (Figure 2, Figure 4). As soon as the region became more stable 481 from ~1500 CE, human recolonization started. Many settlements were founded as mining 482 communities in search for ore and metals, similar to villages in nearby mountain ranges 483 (Jambrich, 2007). A well-recorded example of recolonization in the area itself is Ždiar, 484 located ten kilometres north of Diera Hollow at an altitude of 850 m a.s.l. and founded in the 485 16th century (Hreško et al., 2015). Socio-economic activities in the village were mainly 486 related to agriculture, farming, logging and charcoal burning, activities which had a 487 pronounced effect on the surrounding landscape (Rączkowska, 2019). As the onset of 488 increased anthropogenic activities around 1500 CE coincides with the changing patterns in 489 beetle diversity compared to vegetation diversity (Figure 6), it is plausible that the decline in 490 local beetle diversity was related to anthropogenic activity. However, as there are no 491 archaeological evidence or historical documents of human settlement in the vicinity of the 492 sampling site, these indications should be considered with caution.

493

# 494 4.3. Implications for nature conservation

495 This study recorded several saproxylic beetles (European Red List, Nieto and 496 Alexander, 2010), as well as the rare species Dapsa denticollis and Graphoderus zonatus. 497 The cryptic endomychid *D. denticollis* has been collected in xerothermic grassland and forest 498 steppe habitats in eastern and south-eastern Europe (Franc and Hemala, 2013) and a single 499 individual was found in sample 16 (1080 CE). G. zonatus is a large diving beetle which 500 inhabits peaty pools (Koch, 1989a) and was found in samples up to 1840 CE. This species is 501 currently rare in many regions in Europe due to a decline of its habitat (Knoblauch and 502 Gander, 2019). The identified saproxylic species in our study were only identified 503 sporadically and no trend in their occurrence was found. A study by Majzlan (2015) confirms 504 that all identified saproxylic species are currently found within 5 – 10 kilometres from the

505 sampling site Diera Hollow. However, several of the beetle species identified in this study 506 have a mostly unknown ecology and distribution. This especially concerns species with a 507 strictly montane habitat, living in or near peat bogs and marshes (e.g. the leaf beetle 508 Chrysolina lichenis; Burakowski et al., 1990). It gives reason to look beyond the 509 standardized red-list saproxylic species (Nieto and Alexander, 2010) and consider the beetle 510 community as a whole. At Diera Hollow, not only beetle taxa indicative for (old-growth) forest 511 changed drastically over the last millennium but also taxa living in the forest hollow. Our 512 findings suggest that the current forest ecosystem and forest beetle species composition 513 remain affected by changes in the landscape that started centuries ago, possibly by the 514 legacy of previous human impact in the area as was found in other European montane 515 regions (e.g. Valsecchi et al., 2010). As argued by Froyd and Willis (2018), the identification 516 of these past baselines and ecological thresholds would contribute to the conservation of insects and other groups of plants and animals in Tatra National Park. Based on our results, 517 518 we recommend stakeholders of the national park to 1) look further back in time than only a 519 few hundreds of years when considering restoration strategies (e.g. before 1080 CE), 2) 520 include insect diversity in the targets and monitoring of restauration efforts; and 3) include 521 forest hollows and other inundated depressions in conservation strategies for the national 522 park.

523

## 524 **5. Conclusions**

525 The fossil beetle and pollen record from Diera Hollow suggest that changes in the 526 local beetle and vegetation record were linked to regional changes, most likely driven by 527 anthropogenic activity. The site developed from a semi-closed to closed montane Spruce-528 Fir-Beech forest at 930 CE, to a more open landscape from 1080 CE onward. Human 529 activities in the region were first recorded in the beetle and pollen record around 1250 CE. 530 From around 1740 CE, human abandonment of the region and subsequently, the establishment of Tatra National Park in 1949 CE resulted in the reestablishment of a closed 531 532 woodland, but of a different composition than the ancient woodland. While climate was an

533 important driver behind changes in the vegetation and beetle community, anthropogenic 534 activity likely played a significant role in determining the beetle and floristic diversity during 535 the past millennium. Our results suggest that diversity indices such as the Shannon Index 536 can be used to assess ecological thresholds of local flora and fauna through time. Based on 537 our findings, initiatives to restore the original landscape of this region should compare with 538 the situation before 1080 CE. Furthermore, we recommend including beetles and other 539 insect communities in the monitoring of restoration efforts of flora and fauna biodiversity in 540 montane nature reserves as they could contribute to understanding the baselines and 541 ecological thresholds in these regions. Due to the recorded historical presence of rare beetle 542 species connected to peat bogs, we also advise to include mountain peat bogs in studies on 543 biodiversity and nature conservation.

544

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556

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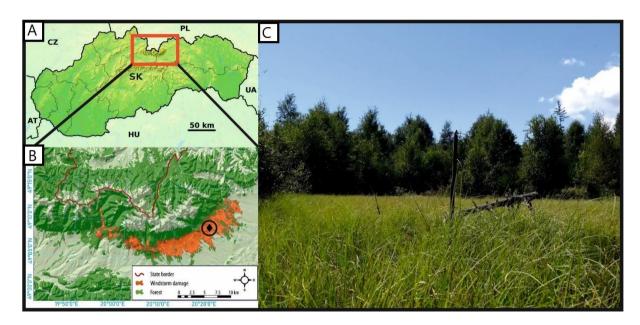
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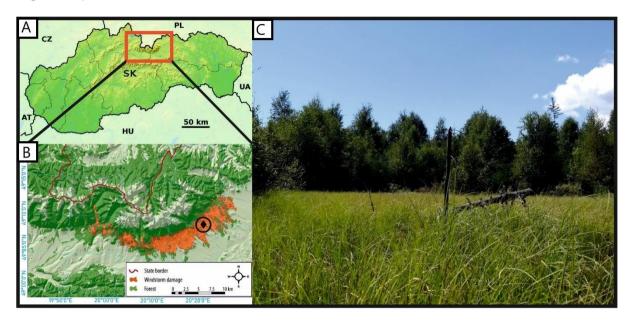
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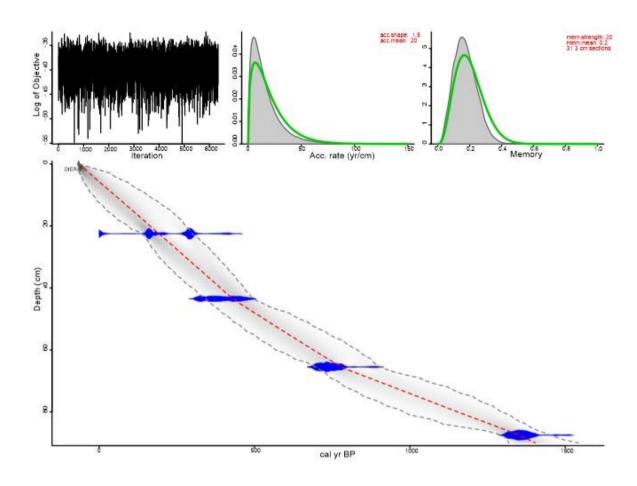
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# 875 Figure captions



876

- 878 Figure 1A The study site Diera Hollow, located in the High Tatra Mountains on the Slovak-Polish border.
- 879 Depicted countries are Slovakia (SK), Czechia (CZ), Poland (PL), Ukraine (UA), Hungary (HU) and Austria
- 880 (AT). Figure 1B Terrain map after Nikolov et al. (2004), highlighting the area affected by the 2004
- 881 windstorm Alžbeta, with the black diamond marking the location of Diera Hollow (49.09885° N, 20.15814°
- E). Figure 1C shows the sample site during fieldwork in 2017.



884 Figure 2 Age-depth model based on four radiocarbon dates (Table S1) of master core DIE-16. Calibrated 885 with the IntCal13 curve (Reimer et al., 2013) within a Bayesian age-depth modelling routine 'BACON' 886 (Blaauw and Christen, 2011), which modelled all age information, including the sediment surface, using a 887 Student-t distribution that accounted for scatter and allowed statistical outliers. The Bayesian analysis 888 (Christen and Perez, 2009) partitioned the core into three sections (31.3 cm thick) estimating the 889 accumulation rate for each segment using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach. The modelling 890 was constrained by a prior model of sediment accumulation rate (a gamma distribution with mean 20-891 year cm-1 and shape 1.5) and its variability (memory, a beta distribution with mean 0.2 and shape 20).

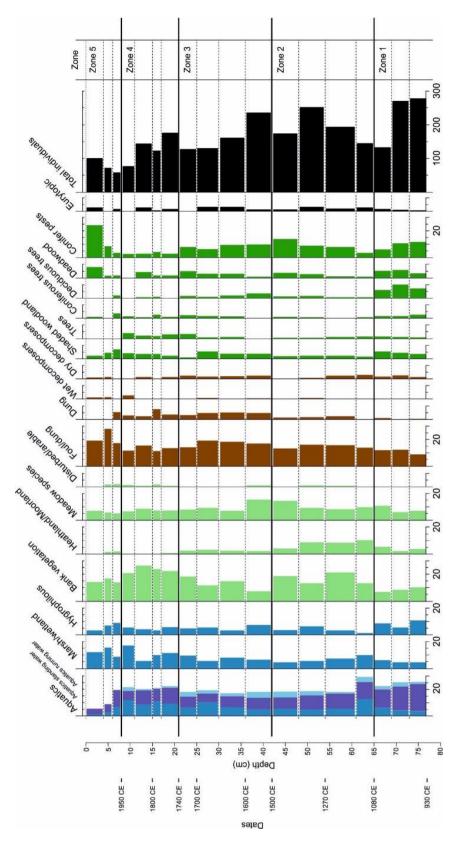
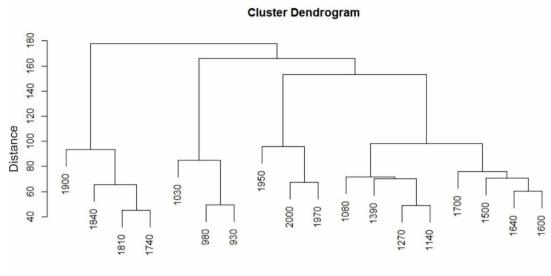




Figure 3 Coleoptera functional groups (in percentage of the total number of individuals) from Diera
Hollow. According to a D-chord cluster analysis, the section was divided into five zones. Depth and age
are presented on the y-axis according to chronology based on a Bacon age-depth model (Figure S1).





Squ\_Cho.per hclust (\*, "ward.D2")

901 Figure 4 Cluster diagram of the 18 samples of Diera Hollow, based on the terrestrial beetle taxa of the

902 assemblages. A square-chord distance matrix was calculated in the program R, after which Ward's

903 minimum variance criterion was used to implement hierarchical clustering.

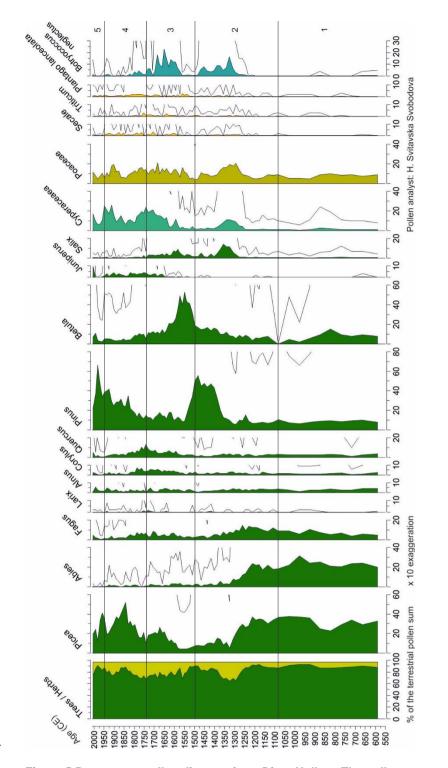
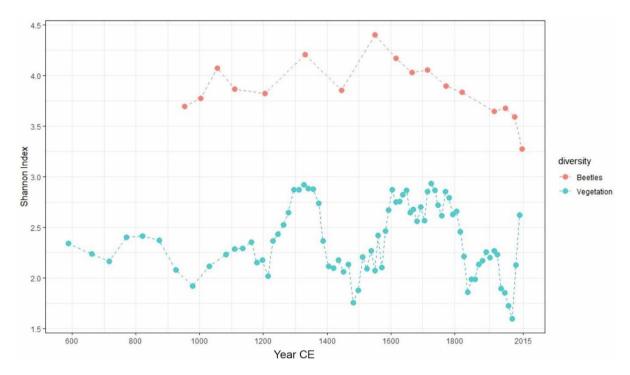


Figure 5 Percentage pollen diagram from Diera Hollow. The pollen curves show the percentages of each
 taxa calculated from the terrestrial pollen sum, with trees/shrubs and herb taxa pooled together in the
 most-left column. Zonation is based on the cluster analysis of the fossil beetle assemblage from the
 same site.

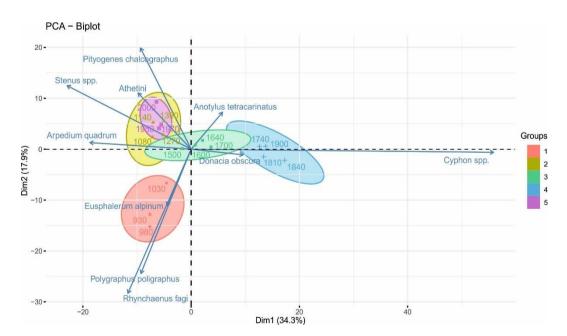




910 Figure 6 Shannon diversity index of beetle data and vegetation data (pollen) from Diera Hollow, with

911 added trend lines. Samples run between 590 CE and 2004 CE for the vegetation data and between 930 CE

- 912 and 2011 CE for the beetle data.
- 913
- 914



915

Figure 7 PCA biplot of the beetle data from Diera Hollow. Samples (defined by sample age CE) are
divided into five zones according to a D-chord cluster analysis performed on percentage-transformed
data. The vectors of the ten species which contribute most to the variance in the data are displayed.

Sample depth (cm)	Lab code	Dated material	Measured C <sup>14</sup> age (BP)	Calibrated age (yr BP)	Mean (yr BP)
22-23	Poz-91232	Botanical macrofossils	230 ± 30	278-94	164
43-44	Poz-91233	Botanical macrofossils	335 ± 30	491-336	426
65-66	Poz-91235	Botanical macrofossils	830 ± 30	894-688	772
87-88	Poz-91236	Botanical macrofossils	1470 ± 30	1440-1280	1340

921 Table S1 Radiocarbon dates from core DIE-16, taken in 2016 from Diera Hollow, High Tatra Mountains,

922 Slovakia.

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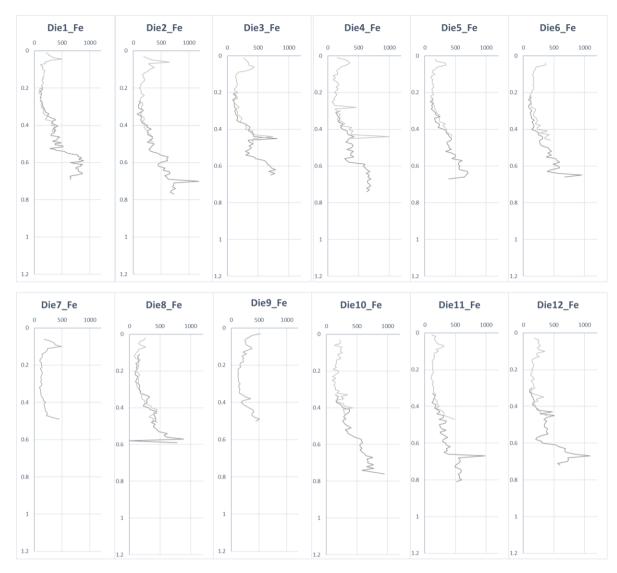
924 Table S2 Full species list of identified Coleoptera remains at Diera Hollow.



926

927 Figure S1 XRF curves for atmospheric lead (Pb) for the 12 cores taken from Diera Hollow, together with

928 the XRF curve of master core DIE-16.



930

931 Figure S2 XRF curves for rubidium (Rb) for the 12 cores taken from Diera Hollow, together with the XRF

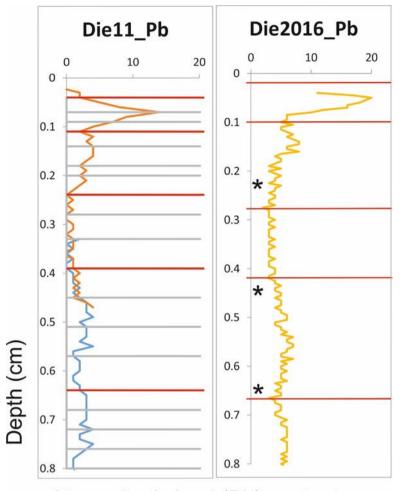
932 curve of master core DIE-16.



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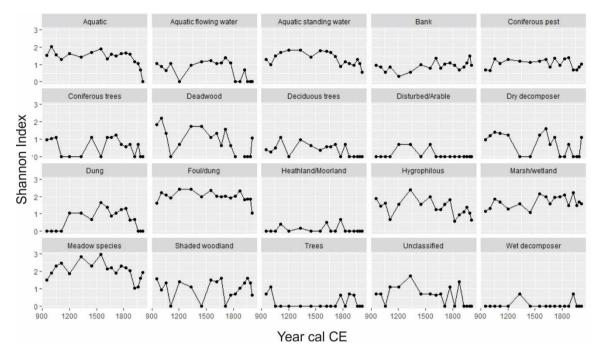
935 Figure S3 XRF curves for iron (Fe) for the 12 cores taken from Diera Hollow, together with the XRF curve

936 of master core DIE-16.



# Atmospheric lead (Pb) content

939 Figure S4 Comparison of the atmospheric lead (Pb) signals of core Die11 with the master core Die2016 940 which was radiocarbon dated at four different depths (Table S1, black asterixis; three depicted). The 941 cores were divided into five zones (red lines) according to the atmospheric lead signal and, primarily for 942 the lower part of the cores, according to iron (Fe) and rubidium (Rb) concentrations. Cores Die1-Die10 943 and Die12 were correlated to Die11 in a similar way by wiggle-matching. Zones were divided in three or 944 four samples, where possible in accordance with their geochemical signals. The lowest two zones were 945 often less straightforward to distinguish and evenly divided in four samples. This resulted in 18 samples 946 of unequal size. Depths of the upper and lower boundaries of each sample (red and grey bars in core 947 Die11) were extrapolated to the depths of the master core and then compared to the age-depth model. 948 from the master core (See figure S1) in order to determine the upper and lower age boundary of each 949 sample.



951 Figure S5 Shannon Index partitioning for the different beetle ecological groups.