

The climate of Europe 6000 years ago

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Abstract. Palaeoclimates across Europe for 6000 y BP were estimated from pollen data using the modern pollen analogue technique constrained with lake-level data. The constraint consists of restricting the set of modern pollen samples considered as analogues of the fossil samples to those locations where the implied change in annual precipitation minus evapotranspiration ($P-E$) is consistent with the regional change in moisture balance as indicated by lakes. An artificial neural network was used for the spatial interpolation of lake-level changes to the pollen sites, and for mapping palaeoclimate anomalies. The climate variables reconstructed were mean temperature of the coldest month (T_c), growing degree days above 5°C (GDD), moisture availability expressed as the ratio of actual to equilibrium evapotranspiration (α), and $P-E$. The constraint improved the spatial coherency of the reconstructed palaeoclimate anomalies, especially for $P-E$. The reconstructions indicate clear spatial and seasonal patterns of Holocene climate change, which can provide a quantitative benchmark for the evaluation of palaeoclimate model simulations. Winter temperatures (T_c) were 1–3 K greater than present in the far N and NE of Europe, but 2–4 K less than present in the Mediterranean region. Summer warmth (GDD) was greater than present in NW Europe (by 400–800 K day at the highest elevations) and in the Alps, but >400 K day less than present at lower elevations in S Europe. $P-E$ was 50–250 mm less than present in NW Europe and the Alps, but α was 10–15% greater than present in S Europe and $P-E$ was 50–200 mm greater than present in S and E Europe.

Introduction

Palaeoclimatic proxy data offer the possibility of evaluating the performance of climate models under

changed boundary conditions. This insight has spurred attempts to synthesize available proxy data for key times for which climate model experiments have been performed, and to develop reliable tools to translate proxy data into quantitative estimates of climate variables that can be compared with model predictions. Particular interest has focused on the interval around 6000 y BP (^{14}C time scale) (e.g. COHMAP Members 1988; Wright et al. 1993). The millenium around 6000 y BP was approximately the time of maximum summer warmth in many Northern Hemisphere mid- to high-latitude regions, and 6000 y BP lies within the interval of greater than present summer rainfall (monsoon expansion) in northern subtropical regions (Kutzbach and Street-Perrott 1985; COHMAP Members 1988). The time of 6000 y BP is a clear choice from a modelling perspective too, because the conditions of the time can be approximated as a pure orbital forcing experiment, in which continental ice sheet distributions and atmospheric CO_2 concentration are held at their modern or pre-industrial states.

In the present study, pollen data are used to estimate palaeoclimate variables. Pollen data inherently reflect those aspects of climate that influence vegetation, and modern pollen assemblages from Europe are more closely related both causally and statistically to “bioclimatic” variables (such as growing degree days, GDD , and the ratio of actual and equilibrium evapotranspiration, (α) than to conventional variables such as annual precipitation that influence vegetation only indirectly (Guiot et al. 1993). In humid temperate regions including much of northern and western Europe, α approaches its maximum value and the vegetation is insensitive or only slightly sensitive to further increases in precipitation. Lake levels by contrast respond to the annual water balance (precipitation minus actual evapotranspiration, $P-E$) over the catchment, and remain sensitive to changes in precipitation even in wet climates (Evans and Trevisan 1995; see Appendix). Guiot et al. (1993) showed that application of a constraint based on lake-level changes gave rise to a decrease in variance and an increase in the spatial coher-

ency of Holocene palaeoclimate reconstructions based on pollen data.

Using a method similar to that established by Guiot et al. (1993), we now present a palaeoclimatic reconstruction of Europe at 6000 y BP based on a substantially expanded data set of pollen assemblages and lake level records. The area considered ranges from 10°W to 60°E and 35°N to 75°N, encompassing Western and Central Europe, the northern part of the Mediterranean Basin and the western part of the former Soviet Union. The results are intended to represent a state-of-the-art reconstruction based on most of the currently available data, and to be used as a target data set with which model predictions can be compared; for example within the framework of the Paleoclimate Modelling Intercomparison Project (PMIP), for which 6000 y BP is an important focus.

Data

Lake level data

The lake databases covering this area are the European Lake Status Data Base (ELSDB.1: Yu and Harrison 1995a), the Former Soviet Union and Mongolia Lake Status Data Base (FSUDB.1: Tarasov et al. 1994) and the Oxford Lake-level Data Base (OLLDB: Street-Perrott et al. 1989). The documentation for each database includes detailed analysis of the various proxy records used to make the reconstructions and explanations of the logic used to generate the codes entered in the database. Basins with records that show signs of having been influenced by neotectonism, changes in the course of a river, changes in the threshold of the lake overflow, or glacier fluctuations are not included.

Within the European study area, 134 sites in the relevant data bases have records for 6000 y BP. From these we have selected only those sites which are lakes today, thereby excluding 13 sites where the recent part of the record appears to reflect infilling and/or hydrosere development. We have used the dating control and dating method information in the data bases to exclude sites where either: (a) dating control is poor (dating control >4, i.e. sites where there is only a single radiocarbon date, it is more than 1000 y from the 6000 y BP target date, or, in situations of continuous sedimentation with bracketing radiocarbon dates, both radiocarbon dates are further than 4000 y from the target date); or (b) the dating is based entirely on correlation with regional stratigraphic, biostratigraphic or archaeological schemes (dating method control >3). Finally 110 sites were retained. For each site, lake level was expressed as a semi-quantitative anomaly variable (lake status) taking integer values from -2 (much lower than present) to +2 (much higher than present) (Fig. 1). Low lake levels occur in the region around the Baltic and North Sea, in the Alps and in the Middle East, while high lake levels occur along the northern and western seaboard, in Northern Europe

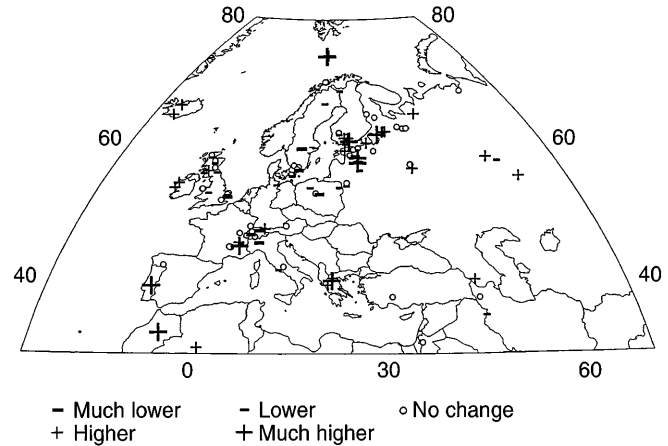


Fig. 1. Lake status anomalies, 6000 y BP minus present

east of the Baltic, and in the mountains of Southern Europe.

Modern pollen data

The modern pollen data consist of 1331 pollen assemblages from surface deposits from Europe, N Asia and N Africa between 10°W and 100°E, and 30°N and 80°N, i.e. the surface pollen spectra used in Guiot (1990) with supplementary data from Huntley and Birks (1983) and Peterson (1983), plus 148 pollen assemblages from tundra and cool steppe vegetation in North America (P. J. Bartlein, personal communication 1995). The inclusion of data from a wider area than is considered for 6000 y BP is important in order to increase the possibilities of finding appropriate analogues for past climates. Pollen percentages were calculated relative to the sum of 44 pollen types [*Abies*, *Acer*, *Alnus*, *Betula*, *Buxus*, *Carpinus*, *Castanea*, *Cedrus*, *Corylus*, *Ephedra*, *Fagus*, *Frangula*, *Fraxinus excelsior*, *F. ornus*, *Hippophae*, *Ilex*, *Hedera*, *Juglans*, *Juniperus*, *Larix*, *Lonicera*, *Olea*, *Ostrya*, *Phillyrea*, *Picea*, *Pinus* (Diploxylon), *Pinus* (Haploxylon), *Pistacia*, *Platanus*, *Populus*, *Quercus* (deciduous), *Quercus* (evergreen), *Rhus*, *Salix*, *Taxus*, *Tilia*, *Ulmus*, *Viscum*, *Vitis*, *Artemisia*, *Chenopodiaceae*, *Cyperaceae*, *Ericaceae*, *Poaceae*].

6000 y BP pollen data

The 6000 y BP pollen data consist of the 310 pollen spectra of Huntley and Birks (1983) used in Guiot et al. (1993), and an additional 93 from the European Pollen Database (EPD) (Fig. 2). Among these sites, the 6000 y BP time marker was assigned based on interpolating between ¹⁴C dates or by biostratigraphic correlation with nearby ¹⁴C-dated sites. The EPD sites fill important gaps especially in the Mediterranean basin, which was poorly represented in the Huntley and Birks (1983) compilation. Pollen percentages were cal-

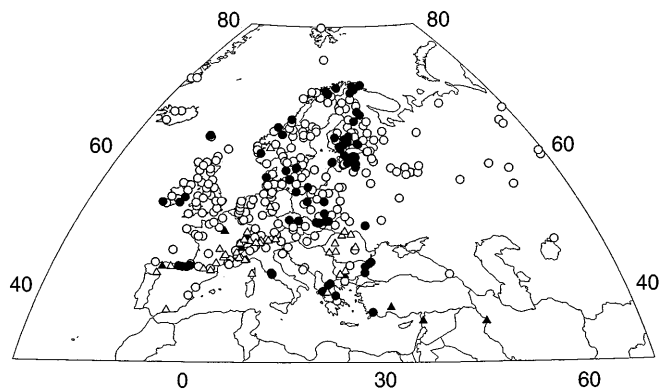


Fig. 2. Pollen sites at 6000 y BP. *Open symbols* represent sites from Huntley and Birks (1983), *closed symbols* sites from the European Pollen Database. Sites at over 1000 m elevation are indicated with *triangles*, other sites with *circles*

culated relative to the same 44 pollen types as were used for the modern data.

Modern climate data

The following modern climate variables were estimated for each modern and 6000 y BP pollen site: mean temperature of the coldest month (T_c), growing-degree days above 5 °C (GDD), the ratio of annual actual to annual equilibrium evapotranspiration (α), and total annual precipitation minus actual evapotranspiration ($P-E$). These variables were selected in preference to a standard set of variables, such as mean July and January temperature and precipitation, because of their more direct relationships to the factors governing vegetation composition or lake levels. Their values were calculated by B. Huntley (personal communication 1993) from the latitude, longitude and elevation of each site. This calculation involved a two-step procedure, first using the climate data set and interpolation procedure of Leemans and Cramer (1991) in order to obtain long-term monthly means of temperature, precipitation and fractional sunshine hours, then applying algorithms from the BIOME model of Prentice et al. (1992a) to compute GDD and actual to equilibrium evapotranspiration. All of the bioclimatic variables were calculated from monthly means and then interpolated between the mid-months to yield quasi-daily values, as in Prentice et al. (1992a). Soil water capacity was specified from gridded soil texture class data as in Prentice et al. (1992a).

Methods

The analogue technique

The techniques now in use to translate quantitative terrestrial proxy data (such as pollen and beetle assemblages) into quantitative palaeoclimatic estimates are all variants of the modern analogue approach. The de-

Table 1. Correlations between modern pollen-inferred and observed values of climate variables at the modern pollen sampling sites

Variable	Correlation (r)
T_c	0.90
GDD	0.83
α	0.86
$P-E$	0.75

gree of analogy between modern and 6000 y BP pollen assemblages was measured with chord distance (Overpeck et al. 1985; Guiot 1990; Prentice et al. 1991), i.e. the Euclidean distance between pollen assemblages after square-root transformation of the pollen percentages. For each fossil pollen assemblage, the eight most similar modern assemblages were taken as “best analogues” provided their distance was less than 0.4, a threshold value obtained by Monte Carlo simulation (Guiot 1990).

The quality of the reconstructions was assessed by using modern pollen assemblages to estimate the climatic variables and comparing the results to the true values for each assemblage (Table 1). All the correlations were acceptable, but $P-E$ had a lower correlation (0.75) than the other variables (>0.80).

Interpolation of lake status anomalies

As the lake sites are generally at different locations from the pollen sites, it was necessary to develop an interpolation method to estimate lake status at the pollen sites. We used an artificial neural network (ANN). An ANN consists of a number of simple interconnected processors called neurodes (Caudill and Butler 1992). A signal coming from input variables passes through these neurodes to reach the output variables. The architecture of the ANN is composed of a set of layers, each layer consisting of a number of neurodes. At each neurode, the incoming signal is transformed by a non-linear function. The interconnections among neurodes are defined by coefficients that are iteratively adjusted until they optimally fit the output variables, through a process called “training” for which various algorithms exist. We used the backpropagation algorithm as in Guiot et al. (1996) with geographic coordinates as the input variables, and the lake status anomaly for 6000 y BP as the output variable. The ANN was developed using the 110 observations. A stable sum of squared errors was reached after 20000 iterations. The correlation between estimated and observed values of the lake status anomaly was then 0.73. Elevation was not taken into account in this interpolation (a) because some pollen sites are at a very high elevation, implying a risk of spurious extrapolation when there is no lake site at an equivalent elevation, and (b) because lakes (especially in mountain regions) commonly reflect catchment water balance at higher elevations.

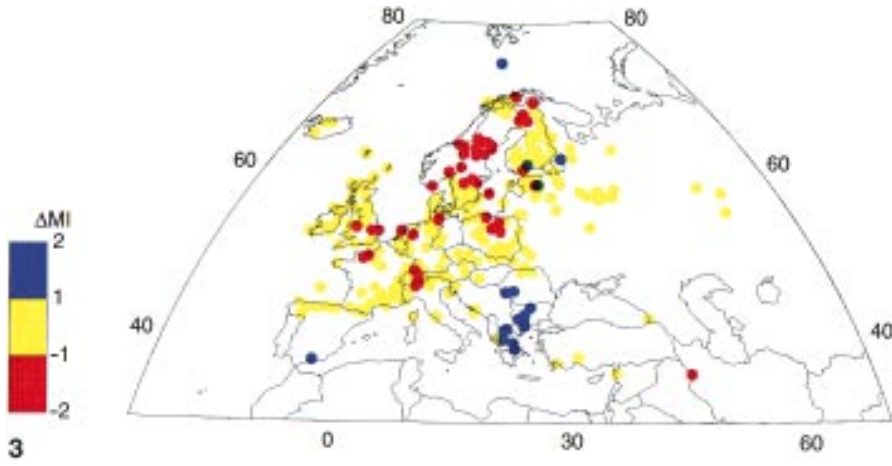


Fig. 3. Lake status anomalies (ΔMI) interpolated to the pollen sites, 6000 y BP minus present

Lake status anomalies were estimated for the 403 sites with 6000 y BP pollen data (Fig. 3). However, 61 pollen sites were found to be more than 5° from a lake site. For these pollen sites it was assumed that the lake status anomaly remains unknown, and no constraint could be applied. The interpolated lake status anomalies are referred to below as ΔMI (change in moisture index), following Guiot et al. (1993).

Rationale and application of the constraint

The method of constraining the analogue reconstruction differs only in a few small ways from that explained in detail by Guiot et al. (1993). The most important change is that the lake status anomalies are now compared with $P-E$, rather than with precipitation minus potential evaporation ($P-E_p$) as in Guiot et al. (1993). This change was made because lake level changes, especially in humid regions, are expected theoretically to reflect changes in $P-E$ more closely and monotonically than changes in $P-E_p$ (see Appendix). The presence of an outlet in overflowing lakes reduces but does not eliminate the sensitivity of lake level to further increases in $P-E$.

The procedure summarized next was carried out for each of the 403 pollen assemblages from 6000 y BP:

1. Select as analogues all modern pollen assemblages with chord distance < 0.4 , based on the pollen data alone.
2. Compute $\Delta(P-E)$ for each of these modern assemblages, as the difference between their $P-E$ values and the modern $P-E$ value interpolated to the location of the 6000 y BP pollen site.
3. Reject those modern pollen assemblages with $\Delta(P-E)$ values inconsistent with the lake-derived value of ΔMI , according to the following consistency criteria:

$$-1 < \Delta MI < 1 \Rightarrow \Delta(P-E) \in [-150, 150 \text{ mm}]$$

$$\Delta MI > 1 \Rightarrow \Delta(P-E) > 50 \text{ mm}$$

$$\Delta MI < -1 \Rightarrow \Delta(P-E) < -50 \text{ mm}$$

The constrained analogues are those that remain after modern pollen assemblages that do not satisfy these criteria have been rejected.

4. Use the eight best constrained analogues to reconstruct the climatic variables of interest. If there are fewer than eight analogues with chord distance values lower than 0.4, the estimates are based on a reduced number of analogues.

Coherency analysis

It is impossible to check directly with the modern data which method (constrained or unconstrained) is better for each climatic variable, because the constraints are not specified for the present day. Instead we assume that the more reliable method will be the one that yields the more *spatially coherent* palaeoclimate anomaly pattern. We therefore calculated correlations (for each climate variable) between (a) the reconstructed palaeoclimate anomaly values at the 403 sites, and (b) interpolated anomaly values, obtained by averaging the anomaly values for surrounding sites weighted by the inverse of the distances between the sites (Table 2). GDD , T_c and α showed modest increases (< 0.1) in coherency due to the constraint. $P-E$ showed a much larger increase (0.25), as might be expected since this variable relates more closely to lake-level changes than to vegetation changes.

Table 2. Spatial coherency (correlation between individual site reconstructions and inverse-distance weighted averages for the surrounding sites) for constrained and unconstrained 6000 y BP climate reconstructions

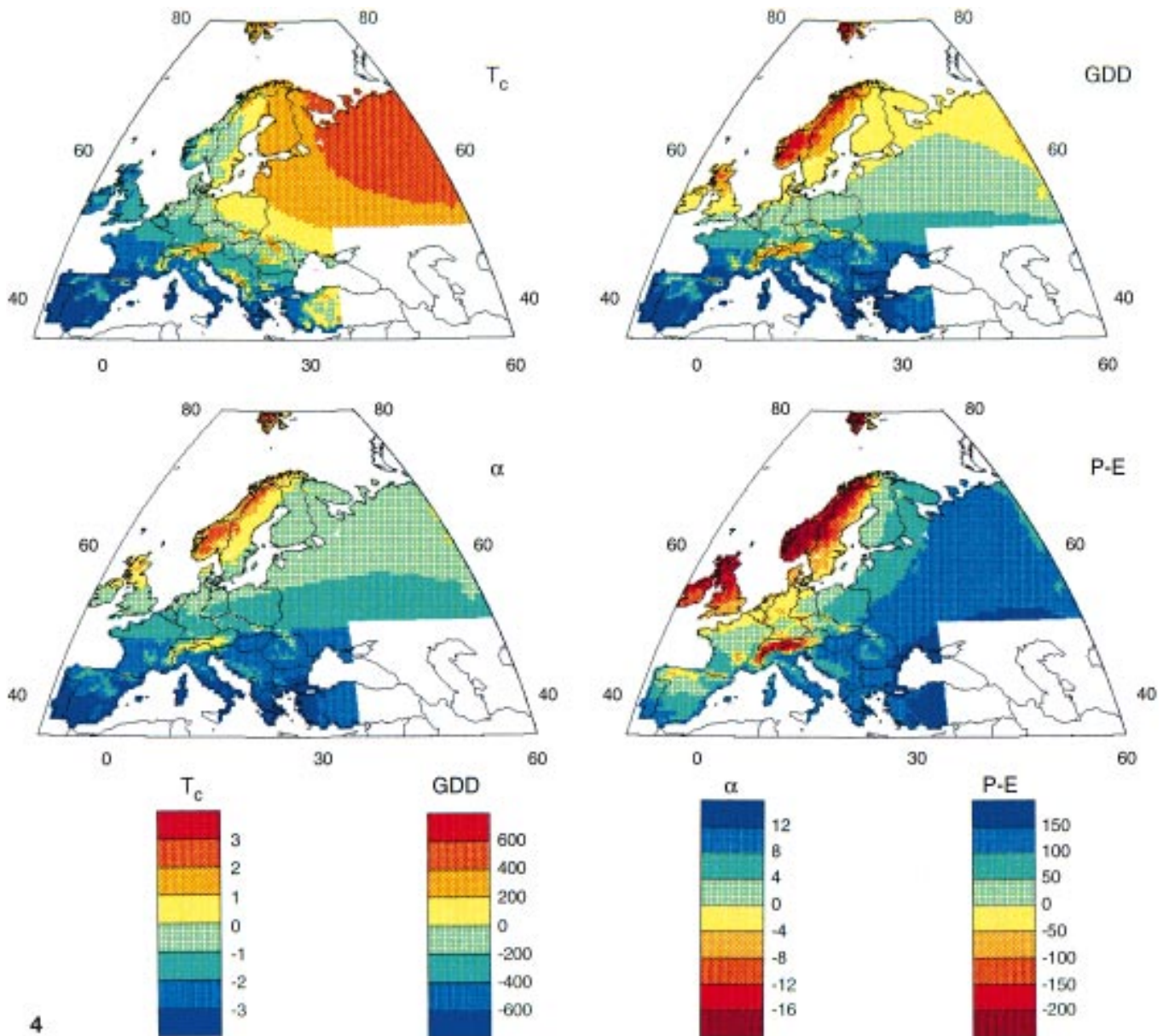
Variable	Pollen (unconstrained)	Pollen + lakes (constrained)
T_c	0.55	0.60
GDD	0.55	0.60
α	0.60	0.69
$P-E$	0.47	0.72

Table 3. Modern pollen-inferred minus observed values of climate variables for modern pollen sampling sites in different elevation bands

Elevation (m)	T_c (K)	GDD (K day)	α (%)	$P-E$ (mm)	Sample size
0–500	–0.1	– 72	+0.2	+ 6	879
500–1000	–0	–206	+1.1	– 4	171
1000–1500	–0	+ 91	–0.6	– 15	136
1500–2000	+0.7	+242	–1.7	– 64	95
2000–2500	+1.3	+449	–6.3	–163	32
>2500	+2.1	+409	+3.6	– 45	18

Removal of elevation bias

Table 3 indicates that there is an elevation-related bias in climate reconstructions from the modern assemblages. This may be partly a statistical artefact (the method is more likely to choose analogue samples that are from climates warmer and drier than those at high elevations simply because such climates are better represented in the data set) and partly due to the problem of upslope pollen transport, which may make pollen assemblages from mountains more reflective of down-slope conditions (Huntley 1994). To correct for this bias we recalculated anomalies relative to the reconstructed modern climates, instead of actual modern climates, for all pollen sites above 1000 m.

**Fig. 4.** Constrained-analogue reconstruction of climate anomalies, 6000 y PB minus present. T_c in K, GDD in K day, α in % and $P-E$ in mm

Mapping anomaly values and their significance

The anomaly values (relative to actual modern climate for sites below 1000 m, relative to reconstructed modern climate for sites above 1000 m) were interpolated three-dimensionally using the ANN method, with input variables latitude, longitude and elevation (Fig. 4). A non-parametric measure of the significance of each anomaly value was calculated as follows:

$$\Delta^*y(i) = 2\Delta y(i) / [y_{\max}(i) - y_{\min}(i)]$$

where $\Delta y(i)$ is the estimated anomaly of climate variable y at site i , and $y_{\max}(i)$ and $y_{\min}(i)$ are the largest and smallest values of climate variable y associated with the set of best constrained analogues for site i . $\Delta^*y(i)$ takes values outside the range $[-2, 2]$ whenever the absolute magnitude of the estimated climate anomaly exceeds the total climatic range of the analogues. This is a conservative criterion for the significance of the anomalies.

Values of $\Delta^*y(i)$ were interpolated to the 0.5° grid using the ANN. Figure 5 shows regions with interpolated values lying outside the range $[-2, 2]$. In Fig. 6, the reconstructed anomalies are shown only for these regions. Figure 6 thus highlights the anomaly values for those regions where a high degree of confidence can be placed in the existence of a *change* in climate between 6000 y BP and present.

Results

Reconstructed winter temperatures (T_c) were up to 3 K greater than present in the far north (northernmost Fennoscandia, Svalbard) and also in northern Russia, implying a reduced west-east gradient across Northern Europe. In contrast, winters were 2–4 K colder than present in the Iberian peninsula, S France and generally around the northern Mediterranean seaboard.

Growing degree days (GDD) show a distinctly different pattern, with values greater than present across NW Europe (N Britain and Scandinavia) and in the Alps. The largest positive anomalies (400–800 K day) occur at high elevations in both regions. High GDD values in NW Europe, combined with small and non-significant changes in winter temperature, imply that summer temperatures must have been greater than present. High GDD values in the far north may also in part reflect longer growing seasons, consistent with the reconstructed relative mildness of the winters. On the other hand, with the exception of the highest mountain regions, GDD values in S Europe generally were >400 K day lower than present. Low GDD in S Europe may have been due to low summer temperatures and/or shorter thermal growing seasons, consistent with the reconstructed coldness of the winters.

Both precipitation minus evapotranspiration ($P-E$) and the moisture availability index α show a pattern of wetter than present conditions at lower elevations across S and E Europe, contrasting with drier

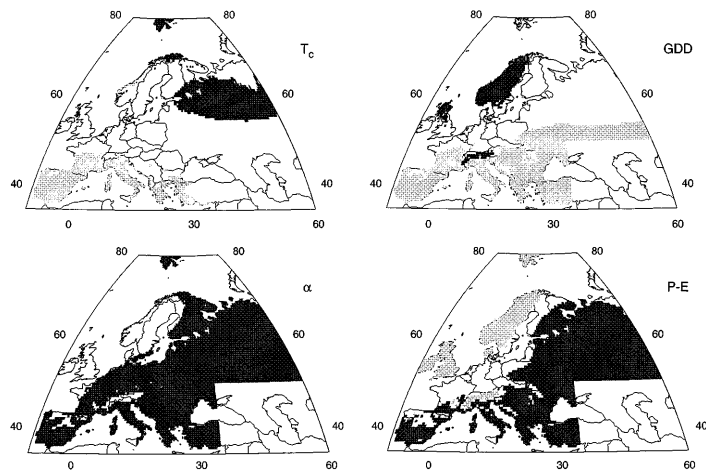


Fig. 5. Regions with significant climate anomalies, 6000 y BP minus present. *Dark shading* indicates regions with significant positive anomalies; *light shading* indicates regions with significant negative anomalies

than present conditions in the far north and northwest of Europe and in the Alps. The indication of dry land-surface conditions (low α) however is significant only in certain regions (NE Fennoscandia, Svalbard) that have very low precipitation today. α was 10–15% greater than present in S Europe and $P-E$ was 50–200 mm greater than present in most of S and E Europe, while $P-E$ was 50–250 mm less than present in most of NW Europe and in the high Alps.

Discussion

We have obtained these results using a form of statistical inverse modelling. The same general approach has been widely used in palaeoclimatology during the last two decades (see e.g. Webb and Clark 1977; Huntley and Prentice 1988; Guiot et al. 1989; Bonnefille et al. 1990; Prentice et al. 1991; Webb et al. 1993). Proxy data (in this case, pollen data) are used to infer anomalies of climate variables, which can then be compared with simulated palaeoclimate anomalies. We have overcome a number of persistent methodological problems with this approach by means of several innovations, including the use of lake-level data as a constraint on modern pollen analogue selection, the choice of climate variables that relate to the causal determinants of changes in vegetation and lakes, a correction for bias due to upward pollen transport in high-elevation sampling sites, and the use of a topographically sensitive interpolation method to construct palaeoclimate anomaly maps.

The results agree for the most part with the qualitative climatic inferences drawn by Huntley and Prentice (1993) and Prentice et al. (1996). The present work goes further by providing spatially coherent, quantitative estimates of 6000 y BP anomalies for the bioclimatic variables reflecting each of the major determinants of vegetation, namely winter cold, growing-sea-

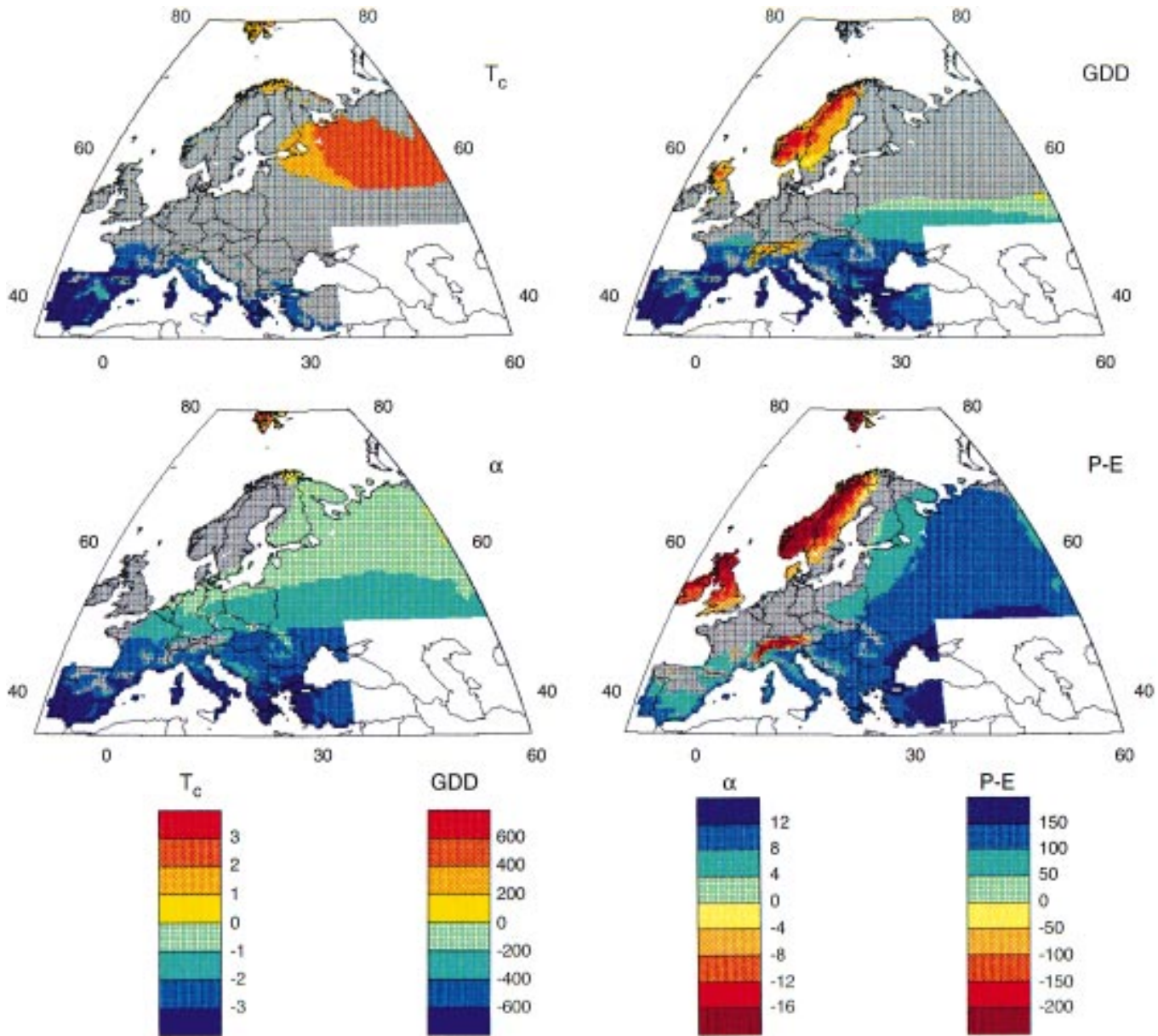


Fig. 6. Patterns of significant climate anomalies, 6000 y BP minus present: as Fig. 4, but regions shown as non-significant in Fig. 5 are shown by *grey shading*

son warmth, and moisture availability for vegetation (Woodward 1987; Prentice et al. 1992a). Furthermore, these results allow a firmly based reconstruction of palaeohydrological conditions, thanks to the existence of a strong spatial pattern of lake-level changes (Yu and Harrison 1995b; Harrison et al. 1996).

The inferred winter temperature anomaly patterns are consistent with the features inferred by Huntley and Prentice (1993) and Prentice et al. (1996). There is also a general correspondence between the pattern of *GDD* anomalies shown here and the pattern of July temperature anomalies reconstructed by Huntley and Prentice (1988) using a transfer function method, although Huntley and Prentice (1988) showed a greater area of summer warming in central Europe. The *GDD* anomaly map expresses the classical idea of the “cli-

matic optimum” (thermal maximum) in the regions in which this was first identified (Scandinavia, the Alps and Britain), but it also provides a warning about the dangers of extrapolating climate change scenarios to different regions.

The variable α is an index of drought stress on vegetation, and is an important predictor of vegetation patterns in the Mediterranean regions where the drought season lasts several months. In the northern Mediterranean region, α is estimated here to have been ca 15% higher than the present. At values of $\alpha > 65\%$, open vegetation types (xerophytic woodland, shrubland or steppe) are replaced by forest (Prentice et al. 1992a). Present values of α in the Mediterranean region are generally $< 65\%$ (Huntley et al. 1995). The reconstructed α values for 6000 y BP are $> 65\%$, as

would be expected given the predominance of temperate deciduous forests at that time (Prentice et al. 1996).

The anomaly map for $P - E$ highlights the west-east pattern in lake-level anomalies that was shown by Yu and Harrison (1995b) for N Europe. $P - E$ and α reflect different aspects of the water balance, and they do not vary together. Other things being equal, changes in the absolute amount of precipitation will cause both indices to change in the same direction because E is ultimately limited by moisture supply, except in the wettest regions. On the other hand, changes in the *partitioning* of precipitation between evapotranspiration and runoff (for example, due to a change in the seasonal distribution of precipitation) will change the two indices in opposite directions (Prentice et al. 1992b). The broad similarity of the reconstructions for $P - E$ and α at 6000 y BP supports the conclusion of Guiot et al. (1993) that Holocene water-balance changes across Europe were driven primarily by changes in the amount of precipitation reaching different parts of the continent.

Huntley and Prentice (1988) did not correct for the “warm bias” (Table 3) in pollen-based temperature reconstructions from high elevations. Summer temperature anomalies >4 K, shown by Huntley and Prentice (1988) for high elevations in the Alps, may have been overestimated. Nevertheless, we show here that GDD anomalies in the Alps and surrounding regions were negative at low elevations and positive at high anomalies. GDD anomalies were also greatest at high elevations in NW Europe. The present results thus support the inference of Huntley and Prentice (1988), that environmental temperature lapse rates at 6000 y BP were less steep than present. The present results also indicate changes in the relationship between $P - E$ and elevation, with high-elevation sites in the Alps registering drier than present while the lowlands to the south were wetter than present. Simulating such aspects of the three-dimensional structure of palaeoclimate anomalies will be a challenge for high-resolution (regional) climate models.

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Appendix: lake level changes in humid climates

The water balance of a lake is given by

$$R + A(L)P = A(L)E_p + D + \Delta V \quad (\text{A1})$$

where R is runoff from the catchment, $A(L)$ is lake area, P is precipitation, E_p is evaporation from the lake surface (equated potential evaporation), D is discharge (outflow), and ΔV is net change in lake volume (Szesztay 1974; Street-Perrott and Harrison 1985). Runoff is given by

$$R = A(C)(P - E) \quad (\text{A2})$$

where $A(C)$ is catchment area and E is actual evapotranspiration over the catchment. Dividing through by basin (catchment and lake) area A , we have

$$(1 - \theta)(P - E) + \theta P = \theta E_p + (D + \Delta V)/A \quad (\text{A3})$$

where θ is the fraction of A that is occupied by the lake. D is a monotonically increasing function of lake level, which in turn is (except in very unusual topographies) a monotonically increasing function of $A(L)$.

We are interested in the equilibrium lake area, such that $\Delta V = 0$. Linearizing D about the point of equilibrium we can write

$$D = A f(\theta - \theta_1) \quad (\text{A4})$$

where f is the slope of a function relating discharge to θ , and θ_1 is the θ -intercept obtained by extrapolating this slope back to $D = 0$. Equations A3 and A4 then give the equilibrium lake area ratio θ^* as

$$\theta^* = \frac{(P - E) + f\theta_1}{(E_p - E) + f} \quad (\text{A5})$$

For closed lakes this simplifies to

$$\theta^* = (P - E)/(E_p - E) \quad (\text{A6})$$

However, closed lakes can exist only if $E_p \geq P$, which is not so today over most of Europe.

Equations A5 and A6 can be used to examine the response of θ^* to climate change, and in particular to changes in $P - E$. $P - E$ may increase due to an increase in P or a decrease in E . Increasing P increases θ^* since P appears in the numerator only. Decreasing E increases both the numerator and the denominator, but because $\theta^* < 1$, the effect on the numerator is dominant. Thus, both overflowing and closed lakes respond monotonically to changes in $P - E$.

Equation A5 shows that the level of an overflowing lake depends not only on climate, but also on aspects of the basin and outlet morphometry that govern how steeply discharge increases with lake area as expressed in the parameters f and θ_1 . The larger f , the smaller the sensitivity to changes in climate. Experiments with a coupled catchment and lake hydrology model (Vassiljev et al. 1995) suggest that this sensitivity can vary considerably according to basin size and morphometry (Vassiljev and Harrison, unpublished results), such that not all overflowing lakes would be expected to show a measurable response to further increases in $P - E$. On the other hand many regions of Europe to-

day have $E_p \approx P$, and may have supported lakes that were closed during times with less than present precipitation.

This analysis neglects the possible groundwater contribution to lake water inputs and outputs. In humid regions the groundwater contribution is usually small, and furthermore groundwater input will usually respond to climate changes in a qualitatively similar way to $P - E$.

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