Supplementary Information for:

Rapid range shifts and megafaunal extinctions associated with late Pleistocene climate change

Seersholm et al. 2020

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1. DNA concentration in Bulk Bone samples. Concentrations were estimated from Ctvalues using the Mam16S and 12Sv5 assay.

Supplementary Figure 2. DNA concentration in sediment samples. Concentrations were estimated from Ctvalues using the trnL assay, for the two excavated sequences, sequence A and sequence B.

Supplementary Figure 3. 2016 Hall's Cave Excavation for aDNA. View looking East. Depths are relative to the Toomey Datum (cm BDT). The modern cave floor at the excavation square is 0 cm. Younger Dryas (YD) sediments dating ca. 10,900 to 10,200 RC yr BP are designated by the white bar. Photo by T.W. Stafford, Jr., September 8, 2016

Supplementary Figure 4. Age-depth model.

Total number of mammal genera: 63

Identified by both morphology and DNA: 36

Supplementary Figure 5. Comparison of mammal genera found by morphology and DNA. Pink colour indicates genera that cannot be detected by our assay because no relevant reference sequence is available. Crosses (†) indicate extinct genera.

Supplementary Figure 6. Most common plant ASV's. Comparison of the top two-to-six most abundant ASV's for each plant assay excluding the highly abundant *Celtis* read (ASV1). Legend is sorted with the most abundant ASV at the top. The label is the taxonomic assignment of the given ASV. For each assay, biologically independent samples are compared between three time periods: Bølling-Allerød (n=15), YD (n=8) and Early Holocene (n=9). Center line: median. Box limits: upper and lower quartiles. Whiskers extends to 1.5xIQR (inter quartile range), no data points were excluded. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

Supplementary Figure 7. Taxonomy-independent ordination analysis based on ASV diversity. The two upper panels represent bulk bone data analysed with mitochondrial assays targeting vertebrates (Mam16S and 12Sv5; subsampled to 7247 reads per sample), whereas the two lower panels represent sediment samples analysed with chloroplast assays targeting plants (rbcL and trnL; subsampled to 5374 reads per sample). As opposed to figures 3b and 4b in the main text which are based on the taxonomic record inferred from the DNA data, these ordination analyses are based on ASVs (amplicon sequence variants). Hence, this approach compares DNA sequences across samples without assigning these to taxa first. Accordingly, unknown sequences without matches in the database can be taken into account.

Supplementary Figure 8. Species accumulation curves for bulk bone data in each of the analysed time periods. One bulk bone pool represents 2x50 bone fragments.

Supplementary Figure 9. Alpha diversity compared between different groups of species. Biologically independent samples compared between the four time periods: LGM (n=11), Bølling-Allerød (n=5), YD (n=3) and Early Holocene (n=11). Center line: median. Box limits: upper and lower quartiles. No data points were excluded. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

Supplementary Figure 10. Species accumulation curves for plant aDNA data in each of the analysed time periods.

Supplementary Figure 11. *Lepus* **spp. climate niche limits based on their modern habitats.** Climatic niche limits levels were based on geographic ranges for relevant species from the *The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species* (https://www.iucnredlist.org) and precipitation and temperature data in a resolution of 10 minutes from WorldClim version 2 (http://worldclim.org/version2)¹.

Supplementary Figure 12. *Onychomys* **spp. climate niche limits based on their modern habitats.** Climatic niche limits levels were based on geographic ranges for relevant species from the *The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species* (https://www.iucnredlist.org) and precipitation and temperature data in a resolution of 10 minutes from WorldClim version 2 (http://worldclim.org/version2)¹.

Supplementary Figure 13. *Sigmodon* **spp. climate niche limits based on their modern habitats.** Climatic niche limits levels were based on geographic ranges for relevant species from the *The IUCN Red List of Threatened Species* (https://www.iucnredlist.org) and precipitation and temperature data in a resolution of 10 minutes from WorldClim version 2 (http://worldclim.org/version2)¹.

Supplementary Figure 14. Interpretation of past climate and ecology around Hall's Cave.

Supplementary Figure 15. sedaDNA studies from North America. Coolen and Overman 1998², Pollard et al. 2003³, Poulain et al. 2015⁴, Wooler et al. 2015⁵, Pedersen et al. 2016⁶, Pal et al. 2015⁷, Stager et al. 2015⁸, Anderson-Carpenter et al. 2011⁹, Hofreiter et al. 2003¹⁰, Epp et al. 2015¹¹, Hebsgaard et al. 2009¹², Pedersen et al. 201313, Seersholm et al. 201614, Porter et al. 201315, Wang et al. 201716, Graham et al. 201617, Haile et al. 2009¹⁸, Willerslev et al. 2014¹⁹

Supplementary Figure 16. Schematic layout of the existing pit. Samples for this study were excavated from the eastern face of excavation pit 1d/E (highlighted in red).

Supplementary Figure 17. Contamination. Number of contaminant taxa in samples excavated following ancient DNA guidelines (bulk bone data from this study, n=72, and sediment data from this study, n=15) compared with laboratory controls (n=10) and material that was excavated for morphological analyses by Toomey (n=10). Contaminant taxa include human (*Homo* sp.), dog/wolf (*Canis* sp.), sheep (*Ovis* sp.)*,* cattle (*Bos* sp.)*,* goat (*Capra* sp.)*,* cat (*Felis* sp.)*,* chicken (*Gallus gallus*) and pig (*Sus scrofa*). Center line: median. Box limits: upper and lower quartiles. Whiskers extends to 1.5xIQR (inter quartile range), no data points were excluded. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Bulk bone sample information. cm BD_S: cm below datum (this study). cm BD_T: cm below datum established by Toomey. Elev. m. ASL: Elevation in meters above sea level. The last six samples represent large fragmentary fossils excavated by Toomey in 1993. As these samples were not excavated as part of this study there is no information on excavation interval or depth measured from the datum line of this study. Furthermore, the exact number of bones analysed for these samples is not known as they were recorded as 'approximately 100 bone fragments'. As 1C_240_245 was excavated from pit 1c and not composite pit 1d/E, it does not have a precise date. Similarly, sample 1E_350_355 (excavated from 352.5 cm BD _T) does not have precise dates as the earliest date from the age-depth model is from 347.5 cm BD _T.

Supplementary Table 2. Primers

Supplementary Table 3. Sequencing counts for bulk bone samples. Roman numerals represent different PCR amplifications from the same extract.

Supplementary Table 4. Sediment sample information. cm BD_S: cm below datum (this study). cm BD_T: cm below datum established by Toomey. Elev. m. ASL: Elevation in meters above sea level.

Supplementary Table 5. Sequencing counts for sediment samples and sediment blanks.

Supplementary Table 6. Mammal species identified. Only lowest taxonomic nodes detected are shown. Some taxonomic nodes were either upgraded (\wedge ; family -> species) or downgraded (\vee ; species -> family) based on database coverage and species distribution. EH: Early Holocene, YD: Younger Dryas, BA: Bølling-Allerød, LGM: Last Glacial Maximum. (x) signifies that the genus was identified before, but that the taxa could not be resolved to species level by morphology. * Common laboratory contaminants. C: carnivore (of terrestrial vertebrates), I: Insectivore, H: Herbivore. Dietary preference was sourced from: https://animaldiversity.org.

Supplementary Table 7. Bird species identified. Only lowest taxonomic nodes detected are shown. Some taxonomic nodes were either upgraded (\wedge ; family -> species) or downgraded (\vee ; species -> family) based on database coverage and species distribution. EH: Early Holocene, YD: Younger Dryas, BA: Bølling-Allerød, LGM: Last Glacial Maximum. (x) signifies that the genus was identified before, but that the taxa could not be resolved to species level by morphology. Habitat type is from https://www.allaboutbirds.org. Habitat type 'lakes and ponds', 'shorelines' and 'marshes' are all categorized as 'wetlands'. * Common laboratory contaminants.

Supplementary Table 8. Reptiles, amphibians and fish species identified. Only lowest taxonomic nodes detected are shown. Some taxonomic nodes were either upgraded (\wedge ; family -> species) or downgraded (\vee ; species -> family) based on database coverage and species distribution. EH: Early Holocene, YD: Younger Dryas, BA: Bølling-Allerød, LGM: Last Glacial Maximum.

Supplementary Table 9. Vertebrate sequencing counts for Sediment samples and bulk bone blanks. Latin letters (A,B) specify separate extractions, whereas Roman numerals represent different PCR amplifications from the same extract. EB: Extraction blank, PB: PCR blank.

Supplementary Table 10. Plant taxa identified. Only lowest taxonomic nodes detected are shown. Some taxonomic nodes were either upgraded (\wedge ; family -> species) or downgraded (\vee ; species -> family) based on database coverage and species distribution. EH: Early Holocene, YD: Younger Dryas, BA: Bølling/Allerød.

Supplementary Table 11. Primary radiocarbon dates from Cooke et al. 2003. *Samples were not included in the final age-depth model.

Supplementary Notes

Supplementary Note 1. DNA preservation and other taphonomic biases

Unlike other caves in North America, Hall's cave exhibits exceptional DNA preservation across the chronosequence. There are several lines of evidence for a uniform level of DNA preservation throughout the sequence that we investigated: (1) Both the bulk bone and the sediment samples all contained amplifiable endogenous DNA. (2) As opposed to what would be expected in a setting of increasing DNA damage through time, diversity is positively correlated with sample age for bulk bone assays (Figure 3c) and while diversity drops in the Younger Dryas for sediment samples, it increases in the Pleistocene (Figure 4c). (3) The presence of certain taxa throughout the sequence, such as *Sylvilagus* sp. and *Peromyscus* sp., serves as taphonomic controls, illustrating that there is no detectable decrease in DNA preservation over time. (4) There is no evidence of systematic changes in the relative DNA content when comparing qPCR results across assays and sample type. As depicted in Supplementary Figure 1, the 16S assay does appear to display higher relative DNA concentrations at depths 100 to 150 cm BD_T , however, if this pattern represented variable DNA preservation in the cave, we would expect the same pattern to be present in the 12S assay, which is not the case. Similarly, for the sediment samples (Supplementary Figure 2), sequence A displays a small increase in DNA concentration around 140 cm BD_T , but this pattern is not reflected in sequence B. Hence, we do not find evidence of any significant changes in DNA preservation over time that would affect the interpretation of our results.

The depositional processes of a faunal assemblage, such as Hall's Cave, must be understood to correctly infer paleoenvironmental changes from each accumulation. In Hall's Cave, the taphonomic processes were thoroughly investigated by Toomey²⁴, who found that the assemblage was mainly accumulated by predation or bone gathering. Raptors, in particular large owls, were found to be an important contributor to the assemblage, preying mainly on small mammals the size of rabbits and smaller. Furthermore, both small and large mammalian carnivores contributed to the assemblage by dragging prey into the cave. In our data, the presence of lagomorphs and rodents in all time periods indicate that raptor accumulation most likely occurred throughout the sequence, while the disappearance of most carnivores and large mammals at the beginning of the Younger Dryas period indicates that accumulation by large carnivores diminished over time. This change is unlikely to be a result of a change in the shape of the cave entrance as large animals such as *Odocoileus* and *Canis latrans* are found in Holocene layers (though infrequently). Furthermore, as carnivores represents the top of the food chain, their disappearance is unlikely to be a result of a change in deposition but must reflect a change in the surrounding ecosystem. The disappearance of large herbivores at the onset of the Younger Dryas, on the other hand, could be linked to the disappearance of carnivores. Still, the continued presence of raptors in the cave suggests that the loss of diversity in frogs and reptiles in the Holocene reflects a loss of these species in the area surrounding the cave. Compared to the faunal assemblage, the plant data are less affected by taphonomic processes. As noted by Toomey, hackberry seeds might have been washed into the cave from the surrounding land surface, but other dispersal routes, such as wind or transportation on birds, insects and other animals would also have contributed to the plant assemblage²⁵. However, as the depositional processes for the plant and animal assemblages are very different, the two assemblages serve as important validations of each other.

In combination, data from pollen, plytholiths, sedimentary DNA, bulk bone DNA and morphological bone identifications details how the landscape changed around Hall's Cave from the Pleistocene to the Holocene. While certain species groups could be affected by a change in depositional processes, it is very unlikely that all species are.

Supplementary Note 2. Sampling and laboratory contamination

To monitor contamination from sampling through to sequencing, we included non-template controls at each stage of laboratory processing. For both bulk bone and sediment samples, at least one extraction blank and one PCR-blank was included in each batch of sample preparation. For bulk bone samples, a total of 10 blanks were sequenced. From these we identified *Homo sapiens*, *Sus scrofa* and *Canis* sp., which were marked as laboratory or field contaminants and excluded from downstream data analysis. Moreover, although not identified in the controls, we identified a number of other common contaminants in the data. These include: *Gallus gallus*, *Bos* sp., *Ovis* sp., *Capra* sp. and *Felis* sp. Although some of these identifications could be from endogenous DNA (e.g. *Capra*), they are widely reported as common laboratory contaminants in ancient DNA studies $14,26,27$ and were therefore marked as possible contamination and excluded from downstream analyses. Furthermore, the identification of turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*) and caballine horse (*Equus caballus/lambei/scotti*) could represent contamination because these species are often associated with human everyday life (although rarely reported as contaminants in the literature). Hence, to confirm that these identifications represented endogenous DNA, we re-extracted and amplified the samples in which they were detected. Reassuringly, all re-processed samples confirmed their presence. Lastly, as we have marked *Canis* sp. as contamination in our data, the identification of *Canis latrans* could pose a problem. Hence, we confirmed that sequences assigned to *C. latrans*, were in fact distinguishable from the contaminant sequences from *Canis* (most likely *Canis lupus familiaris*) that we detected. In cases where reads could not be distinguished between different *Canis* species, the reads were marked as possible contamination and excluded from downstream analysis.

From the bulk bone samples, we did not find any evidence of cross contamination between samples, however, in one sample (HCB23 B) we identified significant contamination from fauna of New Zealand, which could stem from samples processed in the same laboratory for a different project. To identify the source of this contamination, we re-extracted and amplified the bone powder from HCB23_A and HCB23_B, which confirmed the presence of significant DNA contamination in the bone powder of both of these samples. Next, we returned to the original bulk bone samples, sampled and processed another 2x50 bones each. These samples contained only species from Texas and were comparable to other samples from the surrounding layers. Hence, we conclude that the bulk bone powder from the two subsamples of HCB23, was contaminated during the bone grinding stage. Most likely, this contamination stems from the reuse of a grinding pot that had not been cleaned properly. To confirm that this contamination event was a single incidence, we processed two 'grinding blanks' in which 15 mL of ultrapure water was run in the ball mill under the same configuration as the bulk bone samples. After grinding, the water sample was concentrated to 500 µL in an Amicon®Ultra-4 Centrifugal Filter (Millipore) and processed as a bulk bone sample. From these samples, we only identified background contamination from *Homo sapiens*.

This study includes samples that were excavated following strict ancient DNA guidelines (excavated for this study), and samples that were excavated solely for morphological analyses where no measures were taken to limit DNA contamination (Toomey et al. 1993). Hence, our dataset offers a unique opportunity to compare the level of contamination between the two. Not surprisingly, we found that the fossils excavated by Toomey exhibited a higher number of contaminant taxa (mean: 3.0 contaminant taxa per sample) than those excavated for this study (mean: 1.3 contaminant taxa per sample; Supplementary Figure 3). The level of contaminant taxa for the data excavated for this study is comparable to that of the controls (mean: 1.3 contaminant taxa per sample) and the sediment samples analysed with vertebrate assays (mean: 0.8 contaminant taxa per sample), indicating that the only source of contamination for these samples is background laboratory contamination. The higher level of contamination for the samples excavated by Toomey, on the other hand, suggests that excavations that do not follow ancient DNA guidelines have significantly increased risk of contamination. For example, the two contaminants *Felis* sp. and *Gallus gallus* are only detected in the Toomey samples. Fortunately, this level of contamination does not affect the interpretation of the data, as the common contaminants are easily distinguishable from the local fauna in Texas. This does, however, highlight the need for secondary authentication in metabarcoding studies where

domesticates are detected – in particular, in ancient DNA studies on samples excavated for other purposes than ancient DNA.

For the plant data, a total of three extraction blanks were sequenced. From these we identified three contaminant reads (taxa: *Cicer* sp., Brassicaceae, and 'no blast hit'), which were abundant in the extraction blanks, and present in low concentrations in some of the test samples—these reads were excluded from downstream analysis. Furthermore, in sediment extraction blank 3 we identify 9 copies of the *Celtis* read that is present in high numbers in all of the test samples. This most likely represents cross contamination during the PCR-reaction. However, this low level of cross contamination is unlikely to affect the sediment samples, as they all exhibit high concentrations of endogenous DNA. Extraction and PCR blanks are likely to overestimate cross contamination levels as low-level background contamination is more likely to amplify in samples with no endogenous DNA.

Supplementary References

- 1. Fick, S. E. & Hijmans, R. J. WorldClim 2: new 1-km spatial resolution climate surfaces for global land areas. *Int. J. Climatol.* **37**, 4302–4315 (2017).
- 2. Coolen, M. J. L. & Overmann, J. Analysis of Subfossil Molecular Remains of Purple Sulfur Bacteria in a Lake Sediment. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **64**, 4513–4521 (1998).
- 3. Pollard, H. G., Colbourne, J. K. & Keller, W. (Bill). Reconstruction of Centuries-old Daphnia Communities in a Lake Recovering from Acidification and Metal Contamination. *Ambio* **32**, 214–218 (2003).
- 4. Poulain, A. J. *et al.* Microbial DNA records historical delivery of anthropogenic mercury. *ISME J.* **9**, 2541–2550 (2015).
- 5. Wooller, M. J., Gaglioti, B., Fulton, T. L. & Lopez, A. Post-glacial dispersal patterns of Northern pike inferred from an 8800 year old pike (Esox cf . lucius) skull from interior Alaska. *Quat. Sci. Rev.* **120**, 118–125 (2015).
- 6. Pedersen, M. W. *et al.* Postglacial viability and colonization in North America's ice-free corridor. *Nature* **537**, 45–49 (2016).
- 7. Pal, S., Gregory-Eaves, I. & Pick, F. R. Temporal trends in cyanobacteria revealed through DNA and pigment analyses of temperate lake sediment cores. *J. Paleolimnol.* **54**, 87–101 (2015).
- 8. Stager, J. C., Sporn, L. A., Johnson, M. & Regalado, S. Of Paleo-Genes and Perch: What if an "Alien" Is Actually a Native? *PLoS One* 1–9 (2015). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0119071
- 9. Anderson-Carpenter, L. L. *et al.* Ancient DNA from lake sediments: bridging the gap between paleoecology and genetics. *BMC Evol. Biol.* **11**, 30 (2011).
- 10. Hofreiter, M., Mead, J. I., Martin, P. & Poinar, H. N. Molecular caving. *Curr. Biol.* **13**, 693–695 (2003).
- 11. Epp, L. S. *et al.* Lake sediment multi-taxon DNA from North Greenland records early post-glacial appearance of vascular plants and accurately tracks environmental changes. *Quat. Sci. Rev.* **117**, 152–163 (2015).
- 12. Hebsgaard, M. B. *et al.* 'The Farm Beneath the Sand'- an archaeological case study on ancient 'dirt' DNA. *Antiquity* **83**, 430–444 (2009).
- 13. Pedersen, M. W. *et al.* A comparative study of ancient environmental DNA to pollen and macrofossils from lake sediments reveals taxonomic overlap and additional plant taxa. *Quat. Sci. Rev.* **75**, 161–168 (2013).
- 14. Seersholm, F. V. *et al.* DNA evidence of bowhead whale exploitation by Greenlandic Paleo-Inuit 4000 years ago. *Nat. Commun.* (2016). doi:10.1038/ncomms13389
- 15. Porter, T. M. *et al.* Amplicon pyrosequencing late Pleistocene permafrost : the removal of putative contaminant sequences and small-scale reproducibility. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.* **13**, 798–810 (2013).
- 16. Wang, Y. *et al.* The southern coastal Beringian land bridge: cryptic refugium or pseudorefugium for woody plants during the Last Glacial Maximum? *J. Biogeogr.* **44**, 1559–1571 (2017).
- 17. Graham, R. W. *et al.* Timing and causes of mid-Holocene mammoth extinction on St. Paul Island, Alaska. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **113**, 201604903 (2016).
- 18. Haile, J. *et al.* Ancient DNA reveals late survival of mammoth and horse in interior Alaska. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **106**, 22352–22357 (2009).
- 19. Willerslev, E. *et al.* Fifty thousand years of Arctic vegetation and megafaunal diet. *Nature* **506**, 47–51 (2014).
- 20. Riaz, T. *et al.* ecoPrimers: inference of new DNA barcode markers from whole genome sequence analysis. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **39**, e145 (2011).
- 21. Taylor, P. G. Reproducibility of Ancient DNA Sequences from Extinct Pleistocene Fauna. *Mol. Biol. Evol* **13**, 283–285 (1996).
- 22. Poinar, H. N. *et al.* Molecular Coproscopy: Dung and Diet of the Extinct Ground Sloth. *Science (80-.).* **281**, 402–406 (1998).
- 23. Taberlet, P. *et al.* Power and limitations of the chloroplast trnL (UAA) intron for plant DNA barcoding. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **35**, (2007).
- 24. Toomey, R. S., Blum, M. D. & Valastro, S. Late Quaternary climates and environments of the Edwards Plateau, Texas. *Glob. Planet. Change* **7**, 299–320 (1993).
- 25. Hunt, C. O. & Fiacconi, M. Pollen taphonomy of cave sediments: What does the pollen record in caves tell us about external environments and how do we assess its reliability? *Quat. Int.* **485**, 68–75 (2017).
- 26. Seersholm, F. V. *et al.* Subsistence practices, past biodiversity, and anthropogenic impacts revealed by New Zealand-wide ancient DNA survey. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 201803573 (2018). doi:10.1073/pnas.1803573115
- 27. Leonard, J. A. *et al.* Animal DNA in PCR reagents plagues ancient DNA research. *J. Archaeol. Sci.* **34**, 1361–1366 (2007).