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1 **Ecosystem responses to climate-related changes in a Mediterranean alpine**  
2 **environment over the last ~180 years**

3 Running head: Ecosystem responses to climate-related changes

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21 Footnote: L.J. and C.P.-M. conceived of or designed the study; L.J., A.G.-A., J.L.T., O.H., R.S.A., JM  
22 C.P. and C.P.-M. performed the research; L.J., A.G.-A., O.H., JM C.P. and C.P.-M. analyzed the data;  
23 and L.J., A.G.-A., J.L.T., O.H., R.S.A., JM.C.-P. and C.P.-M. wrote the paper.

24

25 **ABSTRACT**

26           The effect of recent climatic warming is significant in the Mediterranean region, especially in  
27 high mountain areas. This study uses multiple sedimentary proxies from Río Seco Lake, a remote alpine  
28 lake in the Sierra Nevada, southeastern Spain, to reconstruct recent environmental and ecological changes  
29 in the lake and catchment. Two main climatic periods can be distinguished during the past 180 years:  
30 Period One (1820- ~1920s) characterized by colder and wetter conditions than the more recent Period  
31 Two (~1920s to the present), characterized by warmer and drier conditions. Independent proxies such as  
32 subfossil chironomid assemblages, *n*-alkane indices, pollen data and/or spectrally-inferred chlorophyll-*a*  
33 concentrations indicate a longer ice-cover period, colder water temperature and more pronounced  
34 accumulation of snow in the catchment during Period One than in Period Two, likely producing water  
35 stress for catchment plant growth because of the low rate of ice melting in Period One. As temperatures  
36 increase and precipitation decreases from the 1920s onwards, a wider development of wetland plants  
37 observed, which is associated with the longer warm season that contributed to snow and ice melting in  
38 the catchment. This continuing temperature rise and precipitation decrease over the past 60-years by ~0.24  
39 °C per decade and -0.92 mm/yr, respectively, lead to an important increase in chlorophyll-*a* and changes  
40 in lake biotic assemblages. Major chironomid community structure changes to warmer water taxa were  
41 recorded, resulting in a 2 °C increase in mean July air temperature inferred by chironomids from ~1950  
42 onwards. An inferred increase in primary production for the past few decades is consistent with higher  
43 temperatures, whilst wider development of wetland plants is associated to longer warm season. The  
44 coherence between independent environmental proxies, each associated with distinct mechanistic  
45 linkages to climatic shifts, strengthens our interpretations of a recent warming trend and an intensification  
46 of summer drought in this high mountain area leading to distinct changes in the lake and its catchment.  
47 The impact of this climate change on the summits of Sierra Nevada and its influence transcends its

48 geographical limits because these systems provide ecosystem services to a vast area.

49

50 Keywords: alpine lakes, Sierra Nevada, warming, chironomids, *n*-alkanes, chlorophyll-*a*, primary  
51 production

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## 54 INTRODUCTION

55 Over the last 150 years, the global average air temperature at the Earth's surface has increased by  
56 ~0.8 °C, while in the Northern Hemisphere the last 30-year period was the warmest period on record  
57 (IPCC 2013). High mountain areas are among the most sensitive to anthropogenic climate change and are  
58 experiencing some of the highest rates of warming due to the elevation-dependent warming (EDW), i.e.  
59 the rate of warming is amplified with altitude (Pepin and others 2015). The Mediterranean region is  
60 considered to be the largest "climate change hot-spot" in the world (Giorgi 2006). In particular,  
61 Mediterranean high mountain ecosystems have been identified as especially susceptible to global  
62 warming (Lionello, 2012; Pauli and others, 2012). This susceptibility is partially associated to the  
63 increased risk of summer drought in this region, caused by the rise in average summer air temperature  
64 and the reduction in annual rainfall (Nogués-Bravo and others, 2012).

65 Remote areas, referred as unpopulated high altitude regions above the tree line as well as high  
66 latitude areas, are excellent sites to study climate change effects because the climate signal is not as  
67 strongly obscured by other human impacts as in more populated areas (Battarbee and others 2002) and  
68 because they are sensitive to both natural and anthropogenic factors (Pauli and others 1996; Adrian and  
69 others, 2009; Smol, 2008). High mountain ecosystems are strongly influenced by physical conditions and  
70 strongly limited by nutrients, exhibiting steep ecological gradients and narrow ecotonal boundaries.  
71 Therefore, changes in environmental conditions (e.g. temperature patterns, ice-free period duration, water

72 thermal regime, habitat and water availability) are expected to have great effects in them (Beniston 2003;  
73 Rühland and others 2015).

74 One way to assess the pressures influencing these remote sites is through the study of lake  
75 sediments, which are excellent archives of long-term environmental changes and allow environmental  
76 and ecosystem conditions to be reconstructed from limnological, ecological and geochemical lake-  
77 sediment proxies (Smol 2008). Ecosystem responses to warming are complex and show many direct and  
78 indirect interactions, with numerous climate-related processes affecting to different biotic and abiotic  
79 parameters. The analysis of independent proxies allows for the tracking of processes within lakes and  
80 their catchment. Since individual proxies can have different mechanistic links that determine their  
81 response to external stressors, studies based on multiple proxies offer a holistic approach to interpreting  
82 past lake and catchment-related changes.

83 The Sierra Nevada of southernmost Spain is a protected high-mountain area situated where alpine  
84 conditions and the influence of Mediterranean climate coexists. It is one of the most important  
85 biodiversity hotspots in Europe and plant species loss in its summits attributed to climate change in the  
86 last decades has been reported (Pauli and others 2012). This Mediterranean mountain range has shown a  
87 rapid response to the recent warming with the disappearance of permanent ice from the highest north-  
88 facing cirques (Oliva and others 2016). A trend in declining mean annual rainfall (Ruiz-Sinoga and others  
89 2011) and a reduction of snow and ice cover since the 1960s (Pérez-Palazón and others 2015) has become  
90 more pronounced since the onset of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Bonet and others 2016). In addition, climate models  
91 project an ongoing warming trend in this region for the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Pérez-Luque and others  
92 2016).

93 With this background, alpine ecosystems in the Sierra Nevada have become the focus of several  
94 paleoecological research projects over the Holocene in order to understand their post-glacial

95 environmental responses. Most of the wetlands and peatlands in the Sierra Nevada developed in  
96 depressions carved during glacial times. Actually, the studied site, Río Seco Lake, bears the longest  
97 sedimentary record in Sierra Nevada, registering the Pleistocene-Holocene transition (between ~11000-  
98 12000 cal yr BP) (Anderson and others 2011). All the paleoenvironmental studies in Sierra Nevada alpine  
99 wetlands agree with the Holocene climatic evolution of the western Mediterranean region, with an humid  
100 early-middle Holocene that changes towards more arid conditions in the middle-late Holocene. Saharan  
101 dust inputs in the Sierra Nevada after 6000 cal yr BP affected alpine aquatic primary production (Jiménez-  
102 Espejo and others 2014; García-Alix and others 2017), as well as local vegetation and landscape  
103 (Anderson and others 2011; Jiménez-Moreno and Anderson 2012; García-Alix and others 2017). Most  
104 of the available long-term studies are not available at high resolution for the last hundred years, more  
105 specifically for the period after the end of the Little Ice Age, when the current environmental conditions  
106 of Sierra Nevada were established (García-Alix and others 2017; Oliva and others 2018). Some short-  
107 term surveys (~150 years) based on biological proxies, such as cladocerans, diatoms and sedimentary  
108 algal pigments (Jiménez and others 2015; Pérez-Martínez 2016; Jiménez and others 2018), have shown  
109 significant response of biotic assemblages to direct and indirect effects of temperature increases at the  
110 turn of 20<sup>th</sup> century, and especially over the past ~50 years. As yet, detailed comparisons of the communal  
111 response of chironomids to climate variability have not been conducted in the Sierra Nevada.  
112 Paleolimnological studies combining chironomids with organic geochemical indices may further our  
113 understanding of climate and landscape processes in this alpine ecosystem.

114         This study aims to provide a high-resolution multi-proxy reconstruction of recent  
115 palaeoenvironmental conditions from an alpine Mediterranean environment of the Sierra Nevada for the  
116 first time, helping to understand past changes and constrain future environmental scenarios. The aim is to  
117 put effects of recent climate changes in the context of a record extending back over the last 180 years to

118 assess the extent that lake and catchment-related processes are linked to direct and indirect climate-driven  
119 changes. To accomplish this, we use a combination of stratigraphic records of sub-fossil chironomid  
120 assemblages, leaf wax biomarkers (*n*-alkanes), spectrally-inferred chlorophyll-*a* concentrations, pollen,  
121 cladocera, diatoms, organic matter content, organic matter C/N ratio and organic carbon isotopic  
122 composition (Online Appendix 3).

## 123 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 124 **Study site**

125 Sierra Nevada (SE Spain, maximum altitude 3482 masl) is the highest mountain range of the  
126 Southern Europe. Sierra Nevada summits experience a high mountain Mediterranean semi-arid climate  
127 characterized by a warm and dry season (from ~June to October). The meteorological station at the  
128 summit (2507 masl) reports a mean annual temperature of 3.9 °C and total precipitation of 693 mm, with  
129 80% occurring as snow between October and April (Worldwide Bioclimatic Classification System, 1996-  
130 2018). There are ~50 small lakes of glacial origin and many alpine meadows around lakes, streams and  
131 depressions. These high-mountain meadow ecosystems represents a small area of the mountain range but  
132 have a high rate of plant endemism and host many threatened taxa (Pérez-Luque and others 2015).

133 Río Seco (RS) Lake (37° 03'N, 3° 20'W) is a small, low primary production and shallow lake of  
134 glacial origin located above tree line at 3020 masl in the Sierra Nevada (southern Spain) (Fig. 1). The  
135 catchment bedrock is siliceous and largely comprised of mica-schist with graphite and/or feldspar. The  
136 soil is poorly developed and does not support agriculture or forestry. The catchment area is partially  
137 covered (~15%) by alpine meadows, consisting primarily of sedges (Cyperaceae) and grasses (Poaceae).  
138 The lake has no clearly differentiated littoral zone, but its shoreline is covered by bryophytes. With the  
139 exception of the meadows, most of the catchment vegetation consists of scarce xerophytic shrubland (see  
140 Anderson and others 2011).

141           The lake has diffuse inflows that provide water to the basin, and a small outlet. The inflow and  
142 outflow of water can disappear as the ice-free season progresses. The lake is ice covered from around  
143 October-November until June-July with a large interannual variability. Further details of physicochemical  
144 and biological features are shown in Online Appendix 1. During the ice-free period, Secchi disk visibility  
145 exceeds the water depth, the lake is not thermally stratified, and the maximum temperature is 16–18 °C.  
146 It is a fishless lake, with low plankton diversity. Among chironomids, the species *Psectrocladius*  
147 *limbatellus* and *Micropsectra radialis* (as *M. coracina*) have been recorded in RS Lake (Laville and  
148 Vílchez-Quero 1986).

149           There are a few signs of significant human activity in the area. RS Lake is relatively remote, with  
150 local human activity currently limited to infrequent sheep herding around surrounding meadows during  
151 summer months. A dirt road, constructed between 1964 and 1965 and lying upgradient from RS Lake,  
152 experiences only foot traffic since the establishment of the Sierra Nevada National Park in 1999. A  
153 mountain hut was situated close to the shoreline and operated for three decades (1967-1997). The  
154 demolition of the hut at 1997 produced a large amount of inorganic material, which clouded the lake and  
155 had a major effect on biota and geochemical variables (Jiménez and others 2015).

#### 156 **Sediment sampling, analyses and dating**

157           A sediment core was collected from the deepest part of the lake in September 2008 using a slide-  
158 hammer gravity corer (Aquatic Research Instruments, Hope, Idaho, USA) with an inner core-tube  
159 diameter of 6.8 cm. The core (16 cm long), was extracted in a methacrylate cylinder and immediately  
160 wrapped in a dark bag to keep it protected from the light, sectioned into 0.5 cm slices using an extruder,  
161 and sealed in sterile Whirlpak® bags, which were stored and transported in a cold box to the laboratory.  
162 Subsamples were collected at each interval in the laboratory and kept in a cold (4 °C) and dark room until  
163 analysis. The sediment was dated by gamma ( $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , and  $^{226}\text{Ra}$ ) and alpha spectroscopy ( $^{210}\text{Pb}$  in

164 deepest part of core) (Eakins and Morrison 1978) establishing a chronology for the past ~180 years. The  
165 dating and sedimentation rate were calculated by using the constant flux: constant sedimentation (cf:cs)  
166 model (Appleby and Oldfield 1983). The core was analyzed at the Center for Research, Innovation and  
167 Technology (CITIUS) of the University of Sevilla, Spain.

#### 168 **Instrumental climate data**

169 We use MAAT Madrid (mean annual air temperature series from Madrid station) and AP San  
170 Fernando (annual precipitation series from San Fernando station) as representative of air temperature and  
171 precipitation tendencies of the larger region around the Sierra Nevada during the last 170 years throughout  
172 the analyses. Geographical distance between Madrid and San Fernando climate stations from RS Lake  
173 are 376 and 262 km, respectively, while altitude differences are 2356 and 2992 m, respectively (Online  
174 Appendix 2).

#### 175 **Sedimentary proxy record**

176 Sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* was inferred by visible reflectance spectroscopy using a FOSS  
177 NIRSystems Model 6500 series Rapid Content Analyzer (Tidestone Technologies, Inc.) to measure  
178 spectral reflectance of sediments that had been freeze-dried and sieved through a 125 µm-mesh, following  
179 the methods described by Michelutti and others (2005). The chlorophyll-*a* concentration includes native  
180 chlorophyll-*a*, as well as all chlorophyll isomers and its major derivatives (pheophytin *a* and  
181 pheophorbide *a*), and therefore accounts for the major diagenetic products (Michelutti and Smol 2016).

182 Loss on ignition (LOI) was measured to calculate the organic matter and carbonate content in the  
183 sediments (Heiri and others 2001). LOI was assessed sequentially on all core intervals (every 0.5 cm)  
184 using a muffle furnace. Samples were dried in an oven at 105 °C for 24 h and weighed. The content of  
185 the organic and carbonate matter was analysed by incinerating the samples at 550 °C for 4 h and at 900

186 °C for 2 h, respectively (see detailed methods in Dean 1974 and Heiri and others 2001).

187 Total and inorganic carbon, and nitrogen content were analyzed with a CARLO ERBA EA 1108  
188 CHNSO Elemental Analyzer system. The organic fraction was determined as the difference between the  
189 total and the inorganic carbon fraction (Meyers and Teranes 2001). The carbon/nitrogen (C/N) ratio was  
190 calculated from the mass data and expressed as atomic ratio.

191 Prior to the carbon isotope analysis from the bulk sediment organic matter ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ), 1 g of freeze-  
192 dried sediment was extracted by drying the samples (50 °C) for 24h. The carbonate fraction was then  
193 removed by addition of 10% HCl to the solution. The C isotopic composition ( $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ) of acid-treated  
194 samples was analyzed using a mass multicollector spectrometer (Isoprime; GV Instruments) equipped  
195 with a EuroVector elemental analyzer (mod. Euro EA 3000) and continuous flow inlet. The results are  
196 expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  in the conventional delta ( $\delta$ ) notation versus Vienna PeeDee Belemnite (V-PDB).  
197 Reproducibility measured for working standards during each run was better than  $\pm 0.15$  ‰.

198 The total lipid extract (TLE) from 32 freeze-dried sediment samples was extracted with a Thermo  
199 Scientific™ Dionex™ ASE™ 350 Accelerated Solvent Extractor system using 9:1 DCM:methanol. The  
200 obtained TLE was separated in neutral and acid fractions by aminopropyl-silica gel chromatography using  
201 1:1 DCM:isopropanol and ether with 4% acetic acid, respectively. Afterwards, the *n*-alkanes were  
202 obtained by eluting the neutral fraction with hexane through a 230-400 mesh/35-70 micron silica-gel  
203 chromatographic column and analyzed using a GC-FID (Shimadzu 2010) and a GC-MS (Shimadzu  
204 QP2010-Plus Mass Spectrometer interfaced with a Shimadzu 2010 GC). To check the reproducibility of  
205 the measurements and to quantify the *n*-alkane content, a mixture of *n*-alkanes ( $\text{C}_{16}$ ,  $\text{C}_{18}$ ,  $\text{C}_{19}$ ,  $\text{C}_{20}$ ,  $\text{C}_{23}$ ,  
206  $\text{C}_{25}$ ,  $\text{C}_{26}$ ,  $\text{C}_{28}$ ,  $\text{C}_{30}$ ,  $\text{C}_{32}$ , and  $\text{C}_{37}$ ) was measured every five samples. The measurement error was lower than  
207 1.5%.

208 For fossil pollen, a modified Faegri and Iversen (1989) procedure was followed using 1 cm<sup>3</sup> of

209 sediment. Pre-treatment included  $(\text{NaPO}_3)_6$  to deflocculate clays and the addition of *Lycopodium* spores  
210 for calculation of pollen concentration. Sediments were suspended in  $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$  and sieved, then treated  
211 with HCl, HF and acetolysis solution. Samples were stained and suspended in silicone oil and identified  
212 at 400-1,000x to their lowest taxonomic level – mostly genus, sometimes family or other grouping – using  
213 a light microscope. For more details on the methodology see Anderson and others (2011).

214 For chironomid analysis, samples (~0.3 g dry weight) for each analysed interval of sediment were  
215 immersed in 10% KOH for 2-3 hours and subsequently sieved through a 100  $\mu\text{m}$  fraction. The head  
216 capsules were sorted from other sieve residue under a dissection microscope. Chironomids were prepared  
217 in Eurapal mounting medium and identified at 100-400x magnification with a compound microscope.  
218 The minimum count threshold was 40 (range 43-83.5), except for the uppermost sample, which only  
219 consisted of 32 head capsules. Taxonomy mainly followed Oliver and Roussel (1983) and Brooks and  
220 others (2007). Comparatively, fewer intervals were counted for chironomids (10 samples) than for the  
221 other proxies (32 samples). Chironomid samples were analyzed every 2 cm from 0 to 16 cm.

222 Cladoceran and diatom assemblages from the sediment core of RS Lake were previously analyzed  
223 and published in Pérez-Martínez (2016) and Jiménez and others (2018). In this study we use the PCA  
224 axis 1 sample scores of both assemblages to compare with the rest of the proxies.

225 Interpretation of selected sedimentary proxies in RS Lake can be found in Online Appendix 3.

## 226 **Data analyses**

227 Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to summarize the dominant pattern of assemblage  
228 variability in chironomid, cladocera and diatom assemblages, as detrended correspondence analysis  
229 (DCA) indicated relatively short lengths of the first two compositional gradients (1.43 and 0.73 standard  
230 deviation units on the DCA axis 1 and 2, respectively). Chironomid relative abundances were square root

231 transformed prior to analyses to equalize variance among taxa. Ordinations were conducted using the  
232 vegan package (Oksanen and others 2015) for the R software environment (R Development Core Team,  
233 2015). The annually resolved climate series (MAAT Madrid and AP San Fernando) were averaged over  
234 the period of accumulation for each dated interval, thereby integrating the instrumental data with the  
235 paleolimnological data (Sorvari and others 2002). The relationships between sedimentary proxies  
236 (downcore PCA axis 1 sample scores, organic geochemical proxies and sedimentary chlorophyll-*a*  
237 record) and changes in climatic series (MAAT Madrid and AP San Fernando) were then examined.  
238 STATISTICA v.7 (Statsoft) software was used to test the data normality and calculate Pearson  
239 correlations. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with Lilliefors's correction was performed to determine the  
240 normality of the data distribution. Pearson correlation coefficients were used to provide an indication of  
241 the strength of the relationships between parameters. For the sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* record, the  
242 uppermost sedimentary interval (0-0.5 cm) was excluded because it could not be reliably identified as  
243 exclusively representing sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* due to the presence of algal mat material. Lake  
244 sediment records can be affected by bioturbation and other factors which can to some extent smooth out  
245 short-term variability (e.g. between year variability). We therefore do not report *p* values for correlations  
246 between lake sediment records as well as between lake sediment records and instrumental data series,  
247 since statistical testing of correlation coefficients assumes statistical independence of the data points.  
248 However, all of the discussed relationships would have been statistically significant if tested using  
249 standard tests for statistical significance of *p* values.

250 A stratigraphically constrained cluster analysis was carried out in the R software environment (R  
251 Development Core Team 2015), using the Rioja package (Juggins, 2012) to identify the periods with  
252 homogeneous response of the different proxies. Stratigraphic zonation was done by a cluster analysis with  
253 a constrained incremental sum of squares (coniss method), using the chclust() function (method='coniss')

254 of the Rioja package. The cluster analysis was applied using the combination of all biogeochemical  
255 proxies. To characterize the timing of largest change in MAAT Madrid and AP San Fernando series data,  
256 breakpoint analyses using a two-segment piecewise linear regression were applied to each series to  
257 identify where the slope changes (Toms and Lesperance 2003).

258 Zonation of the stratigraphic profiles of chironomid data was performed by a cluster analysis with  
259 a constrained incremental sum of squares (CONISS), square root transformation of data and chord  
260 distance as the dissimilarity coefficient, using Tiliagraph View (TGView) version 2.02 (Grimm 2004)  
261 and determining the number of significant zones by means of the broken stick model (Bennett 1996).  
262 Chironomid-inferred mean July air temperature (MJAT) reconstruction was performed using the program  
263 C2 (Juggins 2007) based on a 274-lake chironomid-temperature calibration dataset from Switzerland and  
264 Norway (Heiri and others 2011) and a temperature inference model (transfer function) developed from  
265 these data. The calibration dataset covers a mean July air temperature gradient from 4 to 18.4°C and a  
266 wide range of arctic, alpine, subalpine and temperate lowland lakes. The applied transfer function was  
267 based on weighted averaging-partial least squares regression (WA-PLS; ter Braak and Juggins 1993; ter  
268 Braak and others 1993). The model featured a cross-validated  $r^2$  of 0.84 and a root mean square error of  
269 prediction (RMSEP) of 1.55°C. RMSEP,  $r^2$ , and sample-specific errors of prediction (eSEPs) were  
270 calculated based on 9999 bootstrapping cycles in C2. Chironomid assemblage percentage data were  
271 square root transformed before calculation of WA-PLS and distance metrics. To assess the trajectory of  
272 RS chironomid assemblages relative to summer temperature, we compare the RS data to mountain lakes  
273 in the Swiss Alps, see details in Online Appendix 4 (Fig S2).

## 274 **RESULTS**

### 275 **Chronology**

276 The  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating of the sediment core from RS Lake shows sedimentation rates of 0.9-1.1 mm

277 year<sup>-1</sup> from 0 to 6 cm depth (from ca. 2008 to 1948) and 0.7-0.8 mm year<sup>-1</sup> from 6 cm to 15.5 cm depth  
278 (from ca. 1948 to 1821) (Jiménez and others 2018). For further details see Online Appendix 5.

### 279 **Instrumental climate data**

280 Over the 143-year record, mean annual air temperature (MAAT) from the Madrid climate station  
281 indicates a warming trend beginning at the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Fig. 2 and Fig. S1 in Online Appendix  
282 2). Total annual precipitation (AP) from the San Fernando climate station indicates that over the 172-year  
283 record, the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century was wet, reaching a maximum around 1860-70 and then  
284 decreasing from the late 19<sup>th</sup> century to the present, interrupted only by positive anomalies in the 1960s  
285 (Fig. 2 and Fig. S1 in Online Appendix 2). The last 40 years of the AP San Fernando record exhibit  
286 persistent low precipitation values that were particularly low from 1985-1995.

287 According to main shifts in climatic data, consistent with noticeable changes in direction,  
288 magnitude and timing in the major paleoenvironmental proxies in the present study, two distinct climatic  
289 periods are indicated for the climate data: Period One from 1820 to ~1920s, a period of relatively high  
290 precipitation and low and decreasing temperature; and Period Two from ~1920s to the present, a warmer  
291 and drier period, particularly since the mid-70s (Fig. 2).

### 292 **Sedimentary proxy record**

293 A similar trend is observed in % organic matter content (estimated by Loss on ignition; LOI<sub>550</sub>)  
294 and sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* through the entire profile (Pearson  $r=0.52$ ,  $n=32$ ). The two variables show  
295 a progressive decrease from 1820 to ~1920s followed by an increase to the present, except for the abrupt  
296 decrease of LOI<sub>550</sub> in the 1990s (Fig. 2). The trend of sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* is parallel to MAAT  
297 Madrid for the entire record (Pearson  $r=0.76$ ,  $n=24$ ), and also similar between LOI<sub>550</sub> and MAAT Madrid  
298 until the late 1980s (Pearson  $r=0.46$ ,  $n=20$ ). The abrupt decrease of LOI<sub>550</sub> values from ~1990s is

299 responsible for the decoupling of trends between LOI<sub>550</sub> and sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* record and MAAT  
300 Madrid, and is associated with the demolition of the mountain hut in 1998, altering sediment composition  
301 as is also apparent in the <sup>210</sup>Pb activity profile (Jiménez and others 2015) (Fig. S3; Online Appendix 5).

302 From 1860 to the ~1920s, the C/N ratio shows the lowest values of the entire period (11.7±2.1,  
303 mean±SD), coincident with high values of AP San Fernando and low values of MAAT Madrid, while  
304 higher values are recorded from ~1920s to the present (15.6±2.6) coincident with a warmer and drier  
305 period. C/N ratio and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  show opposite tendencies for almost all the record. C/N peaks in the mid-  
306 19<sup>th</sup> century (1860-1870s) and ~1920s, associated with  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  decreases, except for the last four decades  
307 (from mid-1970s to the present), a period in which the C/N ratio shows the highest persistent values and  
308  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  exhibits a decreasing trend after maximum values (Fig. 2).

309 The RS Lake record shows a predominance of *n*-alkanes with odd carbon chains. The CPI ranges  
310 from 3.6 to 4.4 and P<sub>aq</sub> values are higher than 0.28 for the whole period (Fig. 2). From 1820 to ~1920, P<sub>aq</sub>  
311 shows the lowest and very homogeneous (~0.3) values, while ACL shows the highest values of the record.  
312 ACL values show an opposite trend than P<sub>aq</sub> values (Pearson  $r=-0.97$ ,  $n=32$ ) for the entire record. The  
313 main difference between ACL and P<sub>aq</sub> values is observed during the first period, between ~1850 and  
314 ~1880, with a small increase (0.32) of P<sub>aq</sub> in the 1860s, agreeing with decreasing ACL values during this  
315 period (~1850-1880) and coincident with the highest persistent precipitation. CPI and P<sub>aq</sub> do not show  
316 any correspondence before ~1915, but from ~1920s to the present CPI and P<sub>aq</sub> have an opposite trend.  
317 The most important change in the *n*-alkane record is indicated by the maximum P<sub>aq</sub> value (~0.48) and  
318 minimum ACL values (~28.30) recorded at ~1963, agreeing with increase in the AP San Fernando record,  
319 followed by a P<sub>aq</sub> decrease and ACL increase after ~1970s (Fig. 2). This P<sub>aq</sub> decrease is coeval with the  
320 drop of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  and increase of the C/N ratio of bulk sediment around 1978. Just after ~1988, the increase  
321 in CPI and ACL values, as well as the decrease in P<sub>aq</sub> agrees with the MAAT Madrid increase and AP

322 San Fernando decrease which reflects a severe and long drought period from the late 1980s to mid-1990  
323 (Fig. 2).

324 In the pollen assemblages, the Cyperaceae/Poaceae (C/P) ratio shows low values ( $0.17\pm 0.04$ )  
325 from 1820 to 1920s coincident with low values of  $P_{aq}$  and MAAT Madrid, together with high values of  
326 AP San Fernando. Higher values ( $0.27\pm 0.1$ ) are recorded from ~1920s to the present, agreeing with  
327 MAAT Madrid increase and AP San Fernando decrease. A similar trend is observed between C/P ratio  
328 and  $P_{aq}$  (Pearson  $r=0.41$ ,  $n=31$ ). In addition, the appearance of the green alga *Pediastrum* from ca. 1950  
329 onwards is noticeable (Fig 2).

330 Major changes in aquatic organism groups are observed for the last 60 years preceded by a period  
331 of minor changes. A total number of 7 morphotypes of chironomids were identified. The taxa  
332 *Micropsectra radialis*-type and *Psectrocladius sordidellus*-type are abundant throughout the sedimentary  
333 intervals (Fig. 3). Based on cluster analysis, the most significant change is observed around 1950s and  
334 consists in the new arrival of *Chironomus plumosus*-type, *Heterotrissocladius marcidus*-type and  
335 *Micropsectra insignilobus*-type (Fig. 3). One major significant zone boundary in the chironomid record  
336 ~1940-1950 was identified based on comparison with the broken-stick model, coincident with a major  
337 change of PCA axis 1 sample scores for chironomids (which explain 51% of the variance). The  
338 chironomid-based MJAT reconstruction suggests a trend of increasing MJAT from ~1940-1950s  
339 onwards, presumably driven by increasing summer water temperature in RS from this period onwards  
340 (Fig. 3 and 4, and Fig. S2 in Online Appendix 4).

341 Cladoceran PCA axis 1 sample scores identified the greatest change at ~1990, while a  
342 significantly shift in diatom PCA axis 1 sample scores is observed from ~1960 onwards (Fig. 4). These  
343 changes consisted in changes in species relative abundance but also in appearance and disappearance of  
344 certain species. The taxon-specific cladoceran and diatom changes (not shown) started at the turn of the

345 20<sup>th</sup> century (~1920s), but became especially striking in the last five decades (Pérez-Martínez and others  
346 2012; Jiménez and others 2018). The first PCA axis explained 38% (cladocera) and 26% (diatoms) of the  
347 variance of the biological assemblage data. Cladoceran and diatom PCA axis 1 sample scores are  
348 consistent with major changes observed for MAAT Madrid (increasing trend) and AP San Fernando  
349 (decreasing trend).

350 Overall, major changes for geochemical proxies started after the ~1920s consistent with the rise  
351 in temperature and preceded by a period of minor changes; however the main changes in biological  
352 proxies seem to be delayed, and their response intensified after the ~1940-1950s onwards, consistent with  
353 recent intensification of warming.

## 354 **DISCUSSION**

355 The combination of analysis of C/N ratio,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values and *n*-alkanes indices from the sediments  
356 from the RS Lake core provides an opportunity to identify the main sources of organic matter in the study  
357 area. The values of C/N ratio (9.5 to 19.7),  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  (-23.63 to -20.57 ‰) and CPI (~3.6 to 4.5) indicate the  
358 deposition of a mixed source of algal-derived and terrestrial organic matter for the entire record. This is  
359 expected for this system due to the small lake size (0.42 ha) and catchment area (9.9 ha), together with  
360 its partial coverage (~15%) by alpine meadows. It is worth noting that the mixed sources that led to the  
361 observed  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values in RS Lake are also in accordance with a water-column study of this system  
362 (Pulido-Villena and others 2005), and with long-term and modern surveys of plants and lacustrine algae  
363 in other alpine lakes of the Sierra Nevada (García-Alix and others 2012; Jiménez-Moreno and others  
364 2013).

365 Three factors suggest a predominance of wet environments in the catchment basin, in agreement  
366 with the previously discussed C/N ratio values. These include the low CPI values (<4.5), which show a  
367 dominance of *n*-alkanes with odd carbon chains indicating vascular plant input (Bush and McInerney

368 2013) and algal contributions (Han and Calvin 1969) and the  $P_{aq}$  values, which exceed 0.28 pointing to  
369 an emergent aquatic plant predominance (Ficken and others 2000) for the entire record. In RS Lake there  
370 are no emergent aquatic plants, but this  $P_{aq}$  value likely indicates bryophyte and others semi-aquatic  
371 vegetation, that formed the alpine meadows and surrounded the catchment (García-Alix and others 2017).  
372 However, variations in the different proxies indicate differences in the degree of wet conditions in the RS  
373 catchment basin over the study period (discussed below).

374         Related to biological proxies, the observed low taxonomic richness in chironomids is consistent  
375 with an oligotrophic alpine lake, and is similar to conditions found in other alpine lakes (Heiri and others  
376 2011). The chironomid assemblages were heavily dominated by the two taxa: *Psectrocladius sordidellus*-  
377 type (~77%), which often dominates in alpine lakes (Heiri and Lotter 2010) and *Micropsectra radialis*  
378 (~15%), which in small lakes is restricted to cold arctic and alpine habitats (Heiri and others 2011).  
379 However, the arrival of chironomid groups and the most marked changes in chironomid community  
380 composition are observed for the last 60 years, coincident with the main observed changes in cladoceran  
381 and diatom assemblages. The similar timing in changes indicates a parallel response of the lacustrine  
382 biota to the effects related to climate change. Most of the chironomid taxa are typical for cold, nutrient  
383 poor and oxygen rich environments (Lotter and others 1998; Heiri and others 2011). However,  
384 *Chironomus plumosus*-type is typically found in more nutrient rich, warmer and oxygen poor  
385 environments (Lotter and others 1998; Heiri and others 2011). The appearance of this taxon agrees with  
386 higher nutrient availability and higher oxygen depletion (e.g. in the sediments) in RS Lake from ~1960  
387 onwards.

388         The general environmental trends deduced from RS Lake organic proxies follow the long-term  
389 late Holocene changes described in the same site and in neighbor alpine wetlands (Anderson and others  
390 2011; Jiménez-Moreno and Anderson 2012; Jiménez-Moreno and others 2013; García-Alix and others

391 2017). The Period One, from 1820 to the 1920s, with colder and wetter conditions, registers the  
392 environmental response to the warming after the LIA conditions, and Period Two, from 1920s to the  
393 present, with drier and warmer conditions, records the response of RS Lake to the recent and ongoing  
394 climate change. The identification of these two different environmental periods agrees with an abrupt  
395 environmental change registered in other alpine peatlands in the region (Borreguil de la Virgen and  
396 Borreguil de la Caldera) that occurred at ~1920s (García-Alix and others, 2017). Furthermore, high-  
397 resolution cladoceran records from 6 lakes of the Sierra Nevada region, including RS Lake (Jiménez and  
398 others 2018), indicate that the onset cladoceran changes also occurred at the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and  
399 intensified in the past 50 years. All these results indicate a regional-scale response to climate change.

400 Period One: *period between 1820 and ~1920s*

401 The paleolimnological changes observed in Period One may have been promoted by the seasonal  
402 character of the Mediterranean precipitation, mainly concentrated during winter, as well as a longer cold  
403 season in southern Iberia coeval with lower temperature than experienced during Period Two. Hence,  
404 because precipitation occurs mainly during the cold winter season, the combined effects of relatively high  
405 precipitation and decreasing air temperatures (Fig. S1; Online Appendix 2) during the Period One  
406 probably led to later seasonal lake ice-off period, colder water temperatures and larger accumulation of  
407 snow in the catchment basin, and as a consequence, the reduction of aquatic and/or terrestrial primary  
408 production, as can be observed by the gradual decrease of LOI<sub>550</sub> and sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* in  
409 parallel with MAAT Madrid. However, despite the overall decrease of aquatic primary production during  
410 Period One, the C/N ratio indicates a higher contribution of algae to the bulk organic matter than in the  
411 most recent climatic period, which agrees with the homogeneous P<sub>aq</sub> values (~0.3), which indicate there  
412 is a predominance of emergent aquatic plants (Ficken and others 2000). This is probably the consequence  
413 of a reduced catchment surface and growing season for wetland plants (lower C/N values) and a reduced

414 water availability (lower  $P_{aq}$  values in Period One than in Period Two). This may have been caused by  
415 delayed ice and snow melting in the catchment basin and higher snow accumulation by the precipitation  
416 increase and the presumably low temperatures. Besides, any shortening of the ice-free period in the  
417 catchment may also hinder input of terrestrial organic matter into the lake.

418 The highest ACL and lowest C/P ratio values of the entire record also indicate less water  
419 availability (Fig. 2). The main difference in Period One between  $P_{aq}$  and ACL values is characterized by  
420 a small increase (0.32) of  $P_{aq}$  in the decade of 1860, concomitant with the ACL decrease (average of  
421 28.93) from 1850 to 1880, indicating a preponderance of *n*-alkanes with lower chain length. This response  
422 of  $P_{aq}$  and ACL can be read as indicating relatively wetter environment compared to the rest of Period  
423 One, likely induced by the combination of persistent high precipitation coeval with milder temperature.

424 This scenario (cold and wet conditions) presumably fostered the maintenance of glacial and other  
425 perennial ice banks in the highest north-facing cirque of Sierra Nevada during the final periods of the  
426 Little Ice Age (LIA) (Oliva and Gómez-Ortiz 2012), which began to disappear around the ~1920s  
427 (Grunewald and Scheithauer 2010). Colder water conditions would explain the chironomid community  
428 composition in Period One (Fig. 3), with a high abundance of cold-tolerant taxa such as *M. radialis*-type  
429 and *P. sordidellus*-type, a very low diversity and the absence of warm-water chironomids. This is also  
430 supported by the dominance of the cladoceran species *Chydorus sphaericus*, which has been mainly  
431 associated with long ice cover period in the Sierra Nevada (Jiménez and others 2018). PCA axis 1 sample  
432 scores of cladocerans, diatoms and chironomids show minor changes during this period (Fig. 4).

433 *Period Two: period from ~1920s to the present*

434 Warmer and drier climate conditions during Period Two produced substantial changes in  
435 biological and organic geochemical proxies. The increasing values of the sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* and  
436 LOI<sub>550</sub> may indicate a progressive increase of aquatic and terrestrial primary production probably

437 associated with longer growing seasons and higher water temperatures with the onset of the 20<sup>th</sup> century  
438 rise in air temperature (Fig. 2). An increase in aquatic primary production in remote lakes by warming  
439 has been reported (Adrian and others 2009). Warming may cause a longer ice-free season which increases  
440 light availability and mean water temperature, while also increasing water lake residence time through  
441 reduced inflows and increasing evaporation but enhanced melting of snow and weathering (increasing  
442 lake solute inputs; Preston and others 2016). These processes may enhance biological production in lakes,  
443 and a longer growing season could also increase annual biomass accumulation (Fee and others 1992) in  
444 lakes and catchment. This effect may have been enhanced by atmospheric deposition of Saharan dust at  
445 these low-productive lakes. For example, the delivery of atmospheric P-rich Saharan dust during the last  
446 50 years may partially explain the trends in the sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* record in RS Lake, a  
447 phenomenon that has been demonstrated in Sierra Nevada lakes (Morales-Baquero and others 2006;  
448 Jiménez and others 2018). Hence, it is likely that the combination of warmer temperatures, longer growing  
449 seasons and increased delivery of P-laden dust has resulted in notable increases in chlorophyll-*a* in RS  
450 Lake. These observations are consistent with the appearance of the green alga *Pediastrum* from ~1950  
451 onwards and the chironomid *Chironomus plumosus*-type from ~1960 onwards, also agreeing with an  
452 increase of primary production (Lotter and others 1998; Weckström and others 2010).

453           The previous findings are consistent with the higher C/N values from the entire period indicating  
454 a higher contribution of vascular land plants to bulk organic matter. A longer warm season with increased  
455 temperatures probably enhanced snow and ice melting in the catchment basin and, as a consequence, the  
456 catchment surface and growing season for wetland plants. This is supported by the increasing values of  
457  $P_{aq}$  after ~1921, reaching 0.38 at ~1928 simultaneous to the decreasing values of ACL. The maximum  $P_{aq}$   
458 value (~0.48) and minimum ACL values (~28.30) are recorded by ~1963, agreeing with recorded periods  
459 of elevated precipitation (Fig. 2). Unlike conditions with higher precipitation and colder temperatures

460 around ~1850 and the 1880s, climate during the 1960s shows high precipitation with higher temperatures,  
461 thereby enhancing the melting season and providing more net water availability. This combination of a  
462 longer growing season and greater water availability triggered the development of larger wetland areas,  
463 as shown by higher C/P ratio values. This is in concordance with Pérez-Palazón and others (2015)  
464 indicating a decreasing extent and persistence of the ice and snow covered area over the Sierra Nevada  
465 from the 1960s onwards.

466 Warmer conditions are likely responsible for the transition in cladocera, diatoms and chironomid  
467 assemblages from the 1940-1950s onwards, following the shifts in  $P_{aq}$  and ACL values after the 1920s.  
468 Assemblage shifts as a consequence of the rise of temperature in the first part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century have  
469 been observed in many others remote areas (Sorvari and others 2002; Rühland and others 2015). Over  
470 the last ~60 years the most notable changes in lacustrine biota are shown by the trend of PCA axis 1  
471 scores coincident with major shift in MAAT Madrid and AP San Fernando (Fig. 4). Lacustrine biota  
472 apparently exhibited a delayed response to changes in air temperatures and precipitation, and significant  
473 responses to climate change are observed when the climatic shift intensified for the last ~60 years.

474 Temperature is particularly important in determining shifts in chironomid assemblage  
475 composition (Heiri and others 2003; Bigler and others 2006). Cluster and PCA analyses indicate that the  
476 most relevant changes were characterized by the reduction of cold-tolerant taxa *P. sordidellus*-type and  
477 *M. radialis*-type and the increase of taxa better adapted to warmer condition such as *C. plumosus*-type,  
478 *H. marcidus*-type, *M. insignilobus*-type in the uppermost section of the sediment core. The taxon *C.*  
479 *plumosus*-type includes a number of species, and is generally considered to be thermophilic and indicative  
480 of relatively warm lakes (Brooks and Heiri 2013), although it can also occur in lakes in the subalpine  
481 vegetation belt at low abundances (Heiri and Lotter 2010). Hence, the new arrival and increase of *C.*  
482 *plumosus*-type in RS Lake is probably, at least partially, related to water temperature rise and possibly

483 promoted by the increase in in-lake nutrient availability discussed above. This represents the first  
484 occurrence of the genus *Chironomus* in alpine lakes of Sierra Nevada (Laville and Vélchez-Quero 1986;  
485 Real and others 2000), yet it does occur in subalpine lakes of Central Europe (Heiri and Lotter 2010).  
486 Similarly, *M. insignilobus*-type has its maximum abundances at lower altitudes in the Alps (Bigler and  
487 others 2006). Overall, the timing of appearance and major contribution to change of these two taxa in RS  
488 Lake suggest warmer summer water temperature, which is also reflected in a warming of chironomid-  
489 inferred mean July air temperatures by about 2 °C from ~1950s onwards. This warming in climatic  
490 conditions is consistent with changes in cladoceran and diatom community composition at RS Lake  
491 (Pérez-Martínez and others 2012; Jiménez and others 2018). The similar timing and direction of changes  
492 in chironomid community composition as observed for cladoceran and diatom assemblages, coincident  
493 with changes in other Sierra Nevada lakes (Jiménez and others 2018), corroborate the hypothesis of  
494 climate-driven shifts in the ecological status of distinct trophic levels in these alpine lakes. These changes  
495 are also in good agreement with changes in aquatic community structure in others remote ecosystems  
496 (Rühland and others 2014), coinciding with recent warming.

497         Maximum values of C/N ratio and decreasing  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  values from mid-1970s to the end of the 80s  
498 are interpreted as a major vascular land plant contribution to bulk organic matter. There was a decrease  
499 in this time in the  $\text{P}_{\text{aq}}$  values (simultaneous with ACL values increase), and therefore apparently a decrease  
500 in the water availability in the catchment, agreeing with unprecedented high temperatures and a  
501 precipitation decrease. This suggests lesser water availability induced by greater evaporation rates,  
502 enhanced by higher frequency of intense summer droughts as a consequence of intensified warming in  
503 the Mediterranean area (Giorgi 2006). Even though this warming promoted a longer growing season and  
504 increased lake primary production (more *Pediastrum*, higher sedimentary chlorophyll-*a* and  $\text{LOI}_{550}$ ), the  
505 C/N ratio suggests a higher vascular land plant contribution to the bulk organic matter.

506 After ~1988, CPI and ACL values sharply increase and  $P_{aq}$  decreases, which agrees with the  
507 extreme droughts of the early 1990s in the Mediterranean region, and is in concordance with the  
508 temperature rise and precipitation decrease. It suggest less water availability in the catchment likely  
509 affecting those meadow plant species with highest water requirements. These observations, together with  
510 the decrease of the C/N ratio values, point towards a relative decrease in terrestrial vegetation production  
511 in the catchment, probably related to the regional drought. By contrast, these conditions of increasing  
512 temperatures and less water availability in the catchment likely enhanced biological production in the  
513 lake by different processes such as longer ice-free season, higher mean water temperature and higher  
514 solute concentrations. Cladocera results strongly support this findings considering that the main shift  
515 within the sedimentary cladoceran assemblages occurred at the 90s in RS Lake (Jiménez and others 2018)  
516 and is coincident with the severe periods of drought during the late-1980s and 1990s in Southern Spain  
517 (Udelhoven and others 2009).

518 This short-core multiproxy study provides a valuable high-resolution record of  
519 paleoenvironmental and paleolimnological change for the last ~180 years. The climate-driven changes  
520 from Period One to Period Two – shorter duration of ice-cover period, higher summer water temperature  
521 and greater water availability for catchment plant growth – are responsible for the primary changes in  
522 lake and catchment history between both distinguished periods. From ~1970 forward the steep rising in  
523 temperature and decrease in precipitation likely lead to a drier ambient in the catchment, with less water  
524 availability for plant growth and increasing drought as the summer advances. Pauli and others (2012)  
525 evidence that flora species richness has declined on the southern European summits (including Sierra  
526 Nevada) within the 2000s but increased in European boreal-temperate mountain regions. Differences are  
527 attributed to the decrease of the availability of water in the European south. In this study, we show a  
528 tendency to increased aridity in the Sierra Nevada, starting at the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and intensified

529 from the 70s onward. Consequences for the vegetation are serious in terms of species loss considering  
530 that the flora of Sierra Nevada summits comprises a sizable percentage of endemic species in Europe,  
531 implying therefore an important loss of endemic European species.

532           Consequences of the changes observed in climate for lakes are also pronounced. We show an  
533 increase in chlorophyll-*a* and changes in biota assemblages from the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century onward, mainly  
534 governed by different processes as longer growing season, increasing water temperature and reduced  
535 water level because of higher evaporation rates and reduced water inflow. All these processes, and the  
536 additional P enrichment due to Saharan dust affecting this region, may lead to further trophic state changes  
537 of the Sierra Nevada lakes. An increase in algal biomass and the appearance and disappearance of lake  
538 species signify deep changes in the ecosystem functioning as both primary producer biomass and lake  
539 trophic web are major components of the ecosystem structure. The similar timing and direction of changes  
540 in chironomid community composition as observed for cladoceran and diatom assemblages, coincident  
541 with changes in other Sierra Nevada lakes (Jiménez and others 2018), corroborate the hypothesis of  
542 climate-driven shifts in the ecological status of distinct trophic levels in these alpine lakes. Hence, it is  
543 likely the ecological thresholds for biotic communities were crossed after the intensification of  
544 temperature and precipitation changes since the last decades.

545           If, as predicted by climate models, the rising of temperature and decrease in rainfall continue in  
546 the Sierra Nevada region and drought processes observed in this study intensify, physical and biological  
547 transformations can be expected in the catchment ecosystem of RS Lake and in other glacial valleys of  
548 Sierra Nevada, even modifying the Sierra Nevada summits' image of glacier valleys with clear water  
549 lakes and green alpine meadows. The impact of this climate change on the summits of Sierra Nevada and  
550 its influence transcends its geographical limits because these systems provide ecosystem services as  
551 important as being the largest source of water for the population living in the lowlands, for agricultural

552 uses, for the generation of hydroelectric power, habitat for the species (many of them endemic),  
553 ecotourism, and the aesthetic value and source of scientific knowledge (Palomo and others 2013). The  
554 beneficiaries of water resources are primarily the inhabitants of the large cities near Sierra Nevada  
555 (Granada and Almería) and many other smaller towns since this is a very populated area. Moreover, South  
556 East of Spain is a preeminently agricultural and tourist area and the numerous rivers whose sources are  
557 in Sierra Nevada supply water for these activities. For millennia, humans have inhabited the Sierra  
558 Nevada environment and have benefited from these services, however the magnitude of human pressures,  
559 including climate change, could exceed the resilience of these ecosystems.

560           This is the first study at short-time scale (180 years) to use multiples proxies to provide an  
561 integrated view of how this and similar alpine ecosystems are responding to climate change. Because so  
562 little is known concerning the effects of recent warming on these alpine ecosystems, further investigations  
563 on similar lakes in the region are needed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the effect of  
564 climate change on these vulnerable ecosystems and their surroundings.

565

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## 762 **FIGURES**

763 **Figure 1.** Geographical location of the study site. A) Inset map: Contour map of Iberian Peninsula  
764 showing the location of the study area; Contour of Sierra Nevada National Park indicating the study area;  
765 B) map of the Sierra Nevada mountain range showing locations of Río Seco (RS) Lake (circle) and highest  
766 mountain peaks (white triangles); C) RS Lake bathymetry (digitized map of bathymetry report from  
767 Egmasa S.A.); D) photo of RS Lake (August 2012).

768 **Figure 2.** Comparison of the downcore sedimentary proxies. Profiles of organic matter content (LOI<sub>550</sub>),  
769 sedimentary chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) (mg g<sup>-1</sup> DW);  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$  (V-PDB), atomic C/N ratio, biomarkers (CPI, P<sub>aq</sub>

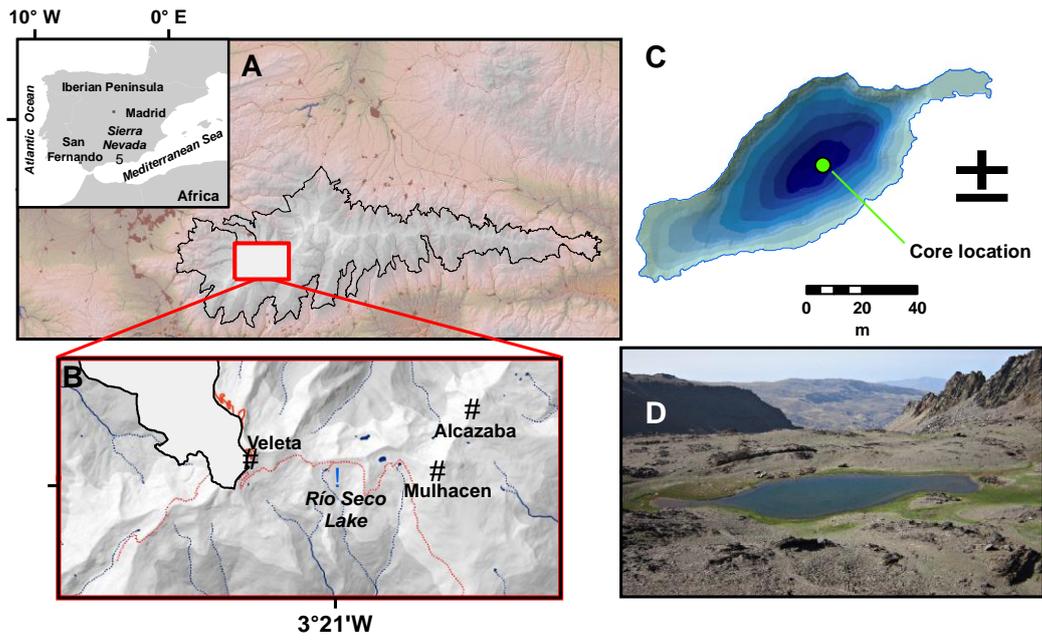
770 and ACL) and pollen data (C/P ratio and *Pediastrum* %) from 1820 to 2008 A.D. Two distinct climatic  
771 period are defined based on the climate data: Period One (from 1820 to ~1920s) and Period Two (from  
772 ~1920s to the present). Stratigraphically constrained cluster analyses using biological and geochemical  
773 proxies is also shown. The mean annual air temperature anomaly from Madrid climate station (MAAT  
774 Madrid) and annual precipitation anomaly from San Fernando climate station (AP San Fernando) is  
775 shown since 1860 and 1840, respectively. Temperature anomalies are related to the period 1961-1990  
776 and precipitation anomalies are related to the whole period. A LOESS smoother (span = 0.2) was applied  
777 to all the variables (bold line). Applying a two-segment, piecewise linear regression to the MAAT Madrid  
778 series identified a threshold change to higher mean temperatures in the early 1970s (breakpoint= 1972 ±  
779 4.7,  $p < 0.0001$ ), while a potential additional breakpoint, not considered statistically significant, is also  
780 identified in the time interval of 1912-1915. For precipitation data, no significant breakpoint was  
781 identified.

782 **Figure 3.** Chironomid remains in the sediment core from RS Lake, together with a cluster analysis of  
783 assemblage data using Constrained Incremental Sum of Squares (CONISS). Light grey silhouettes show  
784 ×10 exaggeration. The horizontal grey-shaded area represent the period post-1820 A.D.

785 **Figure 4.** Comparison of Cladocera, diatom and chironomid PCA axis 1 sample scores for RS Lake  
786 sediment core, together with chironomid-inferred mean July air temperatures based on the chironomid  
787 records (see text for details). The error bar lines indicate the sample-specific estimated standard error of  
788 prediction. Note the inverted scales in the axis scores for Cladocera and chironomids.

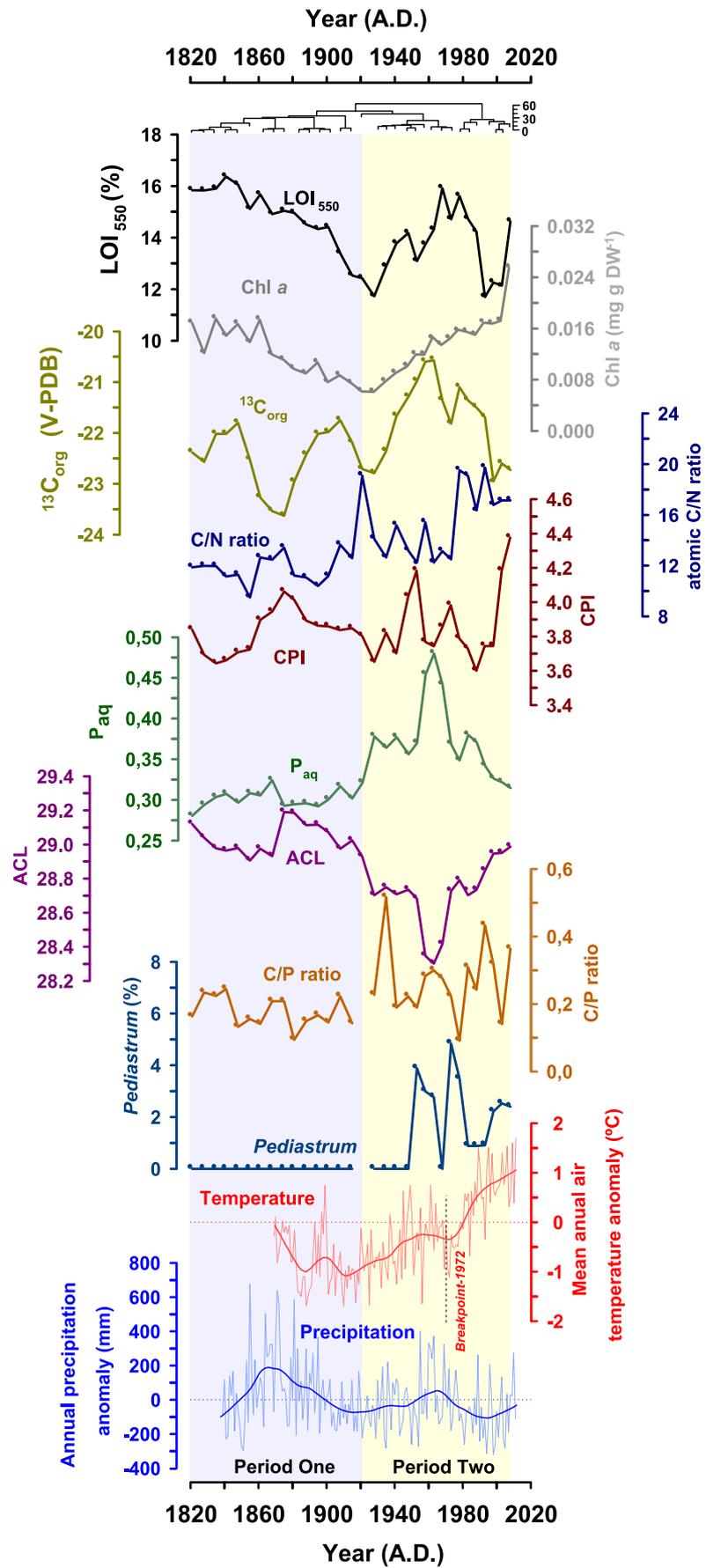
789 **Fig 1.**

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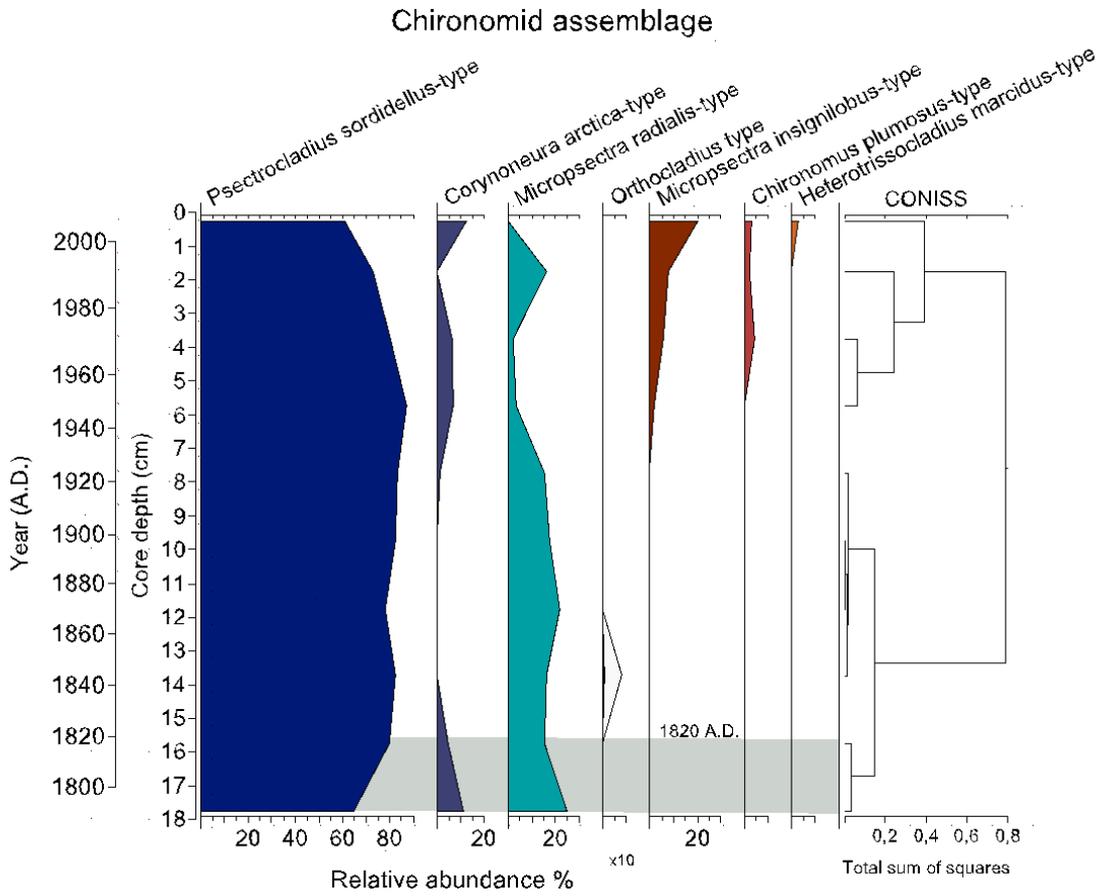
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792 Fig 2.



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795 **Fig 3.**



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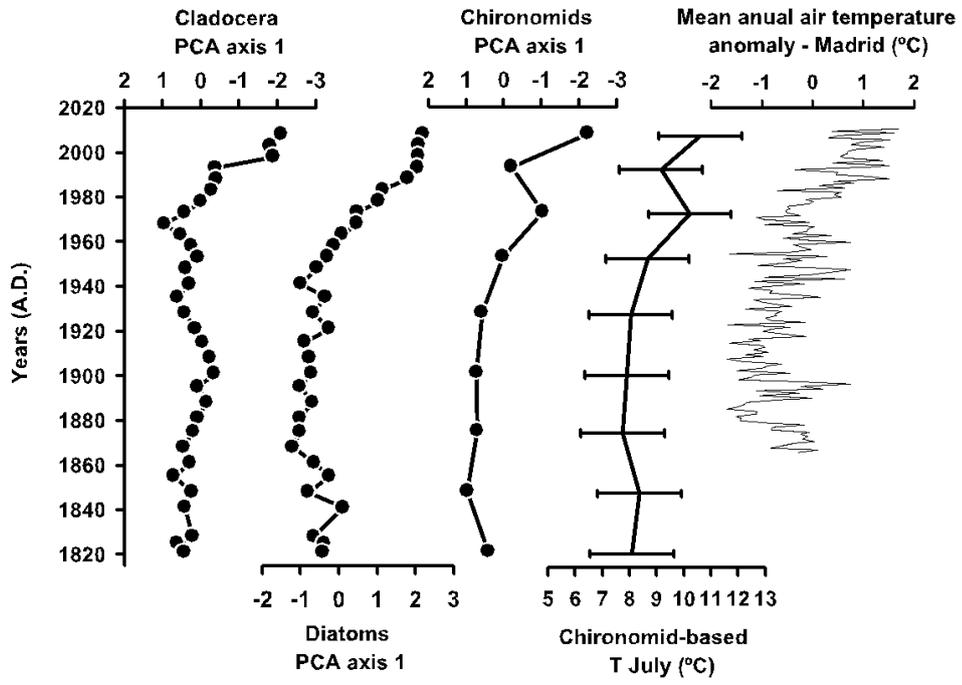
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803 **Fig 4.**



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