- 1 Understanding past climatic and hydrological variability in the Mediterranean from
- 2 Lake Prespa sediment isotope and geochemical record over the last glacial cycle

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31 Abstract 32 Here we present stable isotope and geochemical data from Lake Prespa 33 (Macedonia/Albania border) over the last glacial cycle (Marine Isotope Stages 5-1) and discuss past lake hydrology and climate (TIC, oxygen and carbon isotopes), as well as 34 responses to climate of terrestrial and aquatic vegetation (TOC, Rock Eval pyrolysis, 35 carbon isotopes, pollen). The Lake Prespa sediments broadly fall into 5 zones based on their sedimentology, geochemistry, palynology and the existing chronology. The Glacial 37 sediments suggest low supply of carbon to the lake, but high summer productivity; 39 intermittent siderite layers suggest that although the lake was likely to have mixed 40 regularly leading to enhanced oxidation of organic matter, there must have been within sediment reducing conditions and methanogenesis. MIS 5 and 1 sediments suggest 41 much more productivity, higher rates of organic material preservation possibly due to 42 43 more limited mixing with longer periods of oxygen-depleted bottom waters. We also calculated lakewater δ^{18} O from siderite (authigenic/Glacial) and calcite 44 (endogenic/Holocene) and show much lower lakewater δ^{18} O values in the Glacial when 45 compared to the Holocene, suggesting the lake was less evaporative in the Glacial, 46 probably as a consequence of cooler summers and longer winter ice cover. In the 47 Holocene the oxygen isotope data suggests general humidity, with just 2 marked arid 48 phases, features observed in other Eastern and Central Mediterranean lakes. 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 Keywords: Late Quaternary, Mediterranean, lake, stable isotopes, Rock Eval pyrolysis, 56 geochemistry 57 58

1. Introduction

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Understanding past climatic (including hydrological) variability is a particular issue in the Mediterranean region because there is an acute link between water resource and socio-63 economic impacts (e.g. Bolle, 2003; Lionello et al., 2006). Also for future predictions it is 64 necessary to investigate the past response of the region to global climate fluctuations. 65 Today's effective management of groundwater and lake catchment areas, as well as the 66 need to understand and monitor human-induced trends affecting water resources, can be 67 helped by understanding how past variations in climate impact lake water resources 68 (Roberts et al., 2008). Stable isotope data from lacustrine carbonates and organic matter 69 through time can define local climatic and hydrological change (e.g., Leng and Marshall, 70 2004) and when lake records are combined across regions these data can be used to 71 assess the spatial coherency of climate and hydrology (Roberts et al., 2008). There are 72 numerous lacustrine carbonate stable isotope records from the Mediterranean (Leng et 73 al., 1999; Frogley et al., 2001; Roberts et al., 2008), including in the Balkans, Lake 74 Prespa (described here) and the neighbouring Lake Ohrid (Leng et al., 2010). The former 75 records are mainly limited to a few tens of thousands of years, and all have imperfect 76 77 chronologies. The previous lake isotope records from Prespa and Ohrid are at low resolution and given their mostly relatively long time spans (back to 130 ka) also have 78 79 significant chronological issues. Here, we discuss new stable isotope and geochemical data from Lake Prespa through the last 4 or 5 Marine Isotope Stages (MIS) and discuss 80 81 past lake hydrology and climate (TIC, oxygen and carbon isotopes), as well as responses to climate of terrestrial and aquatic vegetation (TOC, Rock Eval pyrolysis, carbon 82 83 isotopes, pollen).

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2. General setting

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Lake Prespa is situated in SE Europe between Albania, Macedonia and Greece (Fig. 1).
The lake drains into the larger Lake Ohrid through a karst system within the Mali Thate
(2,287 meters above sea level (m.a.s.l.)) and Galicica (2,262 m.a.s.l.) mountains, which
form the topographical divide between the two lakes. The lake is thought to have been
formed within a tectonic graben during the Alpine Orogeny in the Pliocene (Aliaj et al.,
2001). Owing to the lakes position within the rain shadow of the surrounding mountains
and the proximity to the Adriatic Sea, the lake catchment is under the influence of a sub-

Mediterranean climate with continental influences (Watzin et al., 2002; Panagiotopoulos, 94 in press). Mean July and January temperatures are +21°C and +1°C respectively, with a 95 mean annual temperature of +11°C. Precipitation peaks in winter (when snowfalls are 96 frequent) and drops in summer, varying from 750 mm in the lowlands to over 1,200 mm 97 on the mountains (Hollis and Stevenson, 1997). The diverse topography, the exposure of slopes and valleys, as well as the presence of a large water body create a complex 99 100 patchwork of microclimates in the catchment that is also reflected in the vegetation. As such we expect that Mediterranean type changes seen across the circum-Mediterranean 101 102 will also be recorded in Lake Prespa (Roberts et al., 2008).

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Lake Prespa (Megali Prespa) is located at 849 m a.s.l., ca. 150 m above Lake Ohrid, and 104 has a volume of ca. 3.6 km³ (see Table 1). To the south, the lake is connected to a 105 smaller lake, called Mikri Prespa, by a controllable man-made channel with a current 106 hydraulic head of 3 m (Hollis and Stevenson, 1997). The total inflow into Lake Prespa is 107 estimated to be 16.9 m³s⁻¹, with 56% originating from river runoff from numerous small 108 streams, 35% from direct precipitation, and 9% from Mikri Prespa to the south (Matzinger 109 et al., 2006b). Lake Prespa has no natural surface outlet, water loss is through 110 111 evaporation (52%), irrigation (2%) and outflow through the karst aquifer (46%); the latter leading to springs, some of which flow into Lake Ohrid (Matzinger et al., 2006b). The lake 113 water residence time in Lake Prespa is estimated to be ca. 11 years. Significant lake level lowering in response to climate and exploitation for human use has been recorded 114 115 in the past (Popovska and Bonacci, 2007; Stefouli et al., 2008). As Lake Prespa is relatively shallow with respect to the large surface area, wind-induced mixing leads to a 116 117 complete destratification of the water column from autumn to spring (Matzinger et al., 118 2006b), meaning that the isotope composition of the lake water will be fairly homogeneous and at steady state on a decadal time scale. Summer bottom water anoxia 119 and an average total phosphorus concentration of 31 mg m⁻³ in the water column 120 characterise the modern lake as mesotrophic, although previous work has shown that the 121 lake has been more oligotrophic in the past (Wagner et al., 2010). 122

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3. Material and Methods

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126 The sediment core described here from Lake Prespa was retrieved using a floating
127 platform, gravity and piston corers (UWITEC Corp. Austria). The coring site is an area of

flat lying, largely undisturbed sediment, identified during a hydroacoustic survey (Wagner 128 et al., in press). Core composite records were obtained by correlation of individual 3 m 129 long core sections using a variety of methods including visual inspection of the sediment 130 131 composition, as well as aligning optical, magnetic and geochemical marker horizons 132 (Wagner et al., in press). The sediment record (core Co1215) forms the best dated and longest sediment record from Lake Prespa to date. Detailed core descriptions, 133 134 chronology and geochemical measurements back to 17,000 years (except stable isotopes) are discussed in Aufgebauer et al. (in press), while the full record is described 135 in Wagner et al. (in press). The core was sampled continuously at 2 cm intervals 136 (correlated core depth = 1,575 cm), a sample aliquot from each level was freeze-dried 137 and homogenized to <63 µm using an agate ball mill. Total carbon (TC) and total 138 inorganic carbon (TIC) concentrations were determined with a DIMATOC 200 (DIMATEC 139 Co.). Concentrations of total carbon (TC) and total nitrogen (N) were measured with a 140 VARIO MICROCUBE elemental analyzer. Total organic carbon (TOC) was quantified 141 from the difference between total carbon (TC) and total inorganic carbon (TIC), which 142 were measured with a DIMATOC 200 (DIMATEC Co.). 143 144

Here we present: new stable isotope data from the modern waters ($\delta^{18}O$, δD , $\delta^{13}C$ from NIGL); stable isotope data from organic matter (δ^{13} C, from IGG) supported by %TOC and 146 %N (from which we calculate TOC/N, Cologne), Rock Eval data (BGS), pollen data 147 (Cologne); and stable isotope data from carbonates (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C from both calcite and 148 149 siderite, from NIGL). The combined data set within the existing chronology are used to interpret the past environment and climate and some comparisons are made with lakes 150 151 on a more regional basis.

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3.1. Stable isotope analysis of modern waters

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155 Water isotope data include data from a monitoring period between 1984-2000 published by Anovski et al. (1992) and Anovski (2001) and data from waters reported in Matzinger 156 et al. (2006a), data collected between August 2008 – October 2009 (Leng et al., 2010), 157 and new data from June 2011 (Fig. 2a). The new data (June 2011) were measured at 158 159 NIGL, the waters were equilibrated with CO₂ using an Isoprep 18 device for oxygen isotope analysis with mass spectrometry using a VG SIRA. For hydrogen isotope 160

analysis, an on-line Cr reduction method was used with a EuroPyrOH-3110 system

162 coupled to a Micromass Isoprime mass spectrometer. Isotopic ratios (18O/16O and 2H/1H)

are expressed in delta units, δ^{18} O and δ D (‰, parts per mille), and defined in relation to

the international standard, VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water). Analytical

precision is typically <0.2% for δ^{18} O and $\pm 1.0\%$ for δ D.

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- 167 Total dissolved inorganic carbonate (TDIC) was precipitated from the June 2011 water
- 168 collection (Fig. 2b), ca. 85 ml of water was reacted with c. 15 ml of NaOH-BaCl₂ solution
- 169 soon after collection. The resultant barium carbonate was filtered in the laboratory under
- N_2 , and rinsed with deionised water. The carbon isotope analysis ($\delta^{13}C_{TDIC}$) followed the
- 171 method described below for the sedimentary calcite.

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173 3.2. Stable isotope and Rock Eval analysis of organic matter

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- 175 The core from Lake Prespa was sampled for carbon isotopes on organic matter at 2 cm
- intervals from the surface to a correlated depth of 168 cm, and ca. 10 cm from 170 cm to
- 177 the base at 1,575 cm. The samples were dried at 40°C and powdered. The powders
- were treated with 10% HCl to remove calcite, washed several times with distilled water to
- neutral pH, and then dried again at 40°C. CO₂ was evolved by combustion using a Carlo
- 180 Erba 1108 elemental analyser, interfaced to a Finnigan DeltaPlusXL via the Finnigan
- 181 MAT Conflo II interface. Organic carbon isotope values $(\delta^{13}C_{org})$ are reported as per
- mille (‰) deviations of the isotopic ratios (¹³C/¹²C) calculated to the VPDB scale using a
- 183 within-run laboratory standards (graphite and ANU-sucrose) and international NBS
- standards. Overall analytical reproducibility for the standards was <0.1% for δ^{13} C. Note
- that any siderite (see section 3.4) present below 168 cm would not be removed with 10%
- 186 HCl. In any case, the TIC spikes seen in the TIC data do not correspond to spikes in the
- $187 \quad \delta^{13}C_{org}$ data, the calculated 1-2% of siderite with an $\delta^{13}C$ composition of ca. +10%
- 188 changes the $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ data by <1%, and within the high frequency (not interpreted)
- variability of the $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ record (Fig. 3).

- 191 Samples for Rock Eval analysis were selected at 5 cm resolution from correlated depths
- ranging from 10 to 1563 cm. Pyrolysis was performed on approximately 60 mg of
- 193 powdered sediment (dry/wt) using a Rock-Eval 6 analyser (Vinci Technologies) in

194 standard configuration (pyrolysis and oxidation as a serial process). Samples were heated from 300°C to 650°C at 25°C/min in an inert atmosphere of N₂. The residual 195 196 carbon was then oxidised at 300°C to 850°C at 20°C/min (hold 5 min). Hydrocarbons 197 released during the two stage pyrolysis were measured using a flame ionization detector. The CO and CO₂ released during thermal cracking of the bound organic matter (OM) 198 were monitored using an IR cell. The performance of the instrument was checked every 199 200 10 samples against the accepted values of Institut Français du Pétrole (IFP) standard 201 (IFP 160 000, S/N1 5-081840). Classical Rock-Eval parameters were calculated by integration of the amounts of HC (Thermo-vaporized free hydrocarbons) expressed in 202 mg/HC/g rock (S1) and hydrocarbons released from cracking of bound OM expressed in 203 204 mg/HC/g rock (S2) as well as CO and CO₂. During analysis thirteen acquisition parameters are determined from integration of the amounts of OM, CO and CO₂. Here 205 the data presented are the Hydrogen Index (HI) calculated from S2x100/TOC and the 206 Oxygen Index (OI), S3x100/TOC (Fig. 3 and 4). 207

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3.3. Pollen data

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For pollen analysis 163 subsamples taken at 2-16 cm (average = 10 cm) intervals, and 211 212 prepared using standard palynological techniques (Faegri et al., 2000). An exotic spike (Lycopodium tablets; Stockmarr, 1971) was added to each subsample of a known 213 214 volume before processing them in order to calculate concentrations. Identification of pollen and other palynomorphs was performed with relevant keys and atlases, as well as 215 216 the reference collection of the Laboratory of Palynology of the University of Cologne (Panagiotopoulos, in press references therein). The relative percentages of the 217 218 presented taxa are based upon the sum of terrestrial pollen (excluding obligate aquatics, 219 spores and algae). An average of 500 terrestrial pollen grains were counted per sample 220 (Fig. 4).

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3.4. Stable isotope and XRD analysis of carbonates

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The core from Lake Prespa was sampled for oxygen and carbon isotopes on carbonate at 2 cm intervals from the surface to a correlated depth of 168 cm, where after carbonate content becomes negligible, although small (0.5-2%) TIC spikes occur (Fig. 3). The identification of carbonate species was undertaken using X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) using a Bruker D8 Advance powder diffractometer equipped with a LynxEye linear position

sensitive detector and using CuK_α radiation over the scan range 4 to 90° 2θ. The step 229 size was 0.015° 2θ, with 0.8s per step. Phase identification (calcite and siderite) was 230 performed using Bruker DIFFRAC EVA search/match software interfaced with the 231 PDF-4+ database from the International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD). The Ca,Mg-232 substituted siderite pattern 04-009-7660 (Heiss, 1988) offers a better match than pure 233 234 siderite. Calcite is the only carbonate mineral present above 168 cm, thereafter the carbonate is substituted siderite, except for a layer at depth 1458 - 1463 cm which 235 contains shelly fragments (and no siderite). 236 237 1cm³ subsamples (from 0-168 cm and from the TIC spikes below 168 cm) were 238 239 disaggregated in 5% sodium hypochlorite solution for 24 hours to oxidise reactive organic material. Samples were then washed three times in distilled water and sieved at 85 µm to 240 remove any potential biogenic carbonate. The <85µm fraction was filtered, washed with 241 deionised water and dried at 40°C and ground in agate. Prior to the carbonate isotope 242 analysis, the form of the carbonate was investigated using SEM. Calcite crystals in Lake 243 Prespa are of mixed form, some fragments are platy while others are in the form of fine 244 (partially redissolved) calcite rhombs. The siderite crystals were not found using SEM. 245 For the calcite isotope analysis (0-168 cm and 1,462 cm) the CO₂ was evolved by 246 reaction with anhydrous phosphoric acid within a vacuum overnight at a constant 25°C. 247 248 For the siderite isotope analysis (TIC spikes between 170 – 1,575 cm, except 1,462 cm) the CO₂ was evolved by reaction with anhydrous phosphoric acid within a vacuum for 72 249 hours at 90°C. For both the calcite and siderite, the CO₂ was cryogenically separated 250 from water vapour under vacuum and collected for analysis using a VG Optima dual inlet 251 mass spectrometer. The mineral-gas fractionation factors for calcite and siderite used 252 253 were 1.01025 and 1.01006 (derived from Rosenbaum and Sheppard, 1986). Carbon and oxygen isotope values ($\delta^{13}C_{\text{calcite/siderite}}$, $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite/siderite}}$) are reported as per mille (%) 254

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4. Chronology

 δ^{18} O.

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deviations of the isotopic ratios (13C/12C, 18O/16O) calculated to the VPDB scale using

within-run laboratory standards (calcite = MCS, siderite = CHH8) and international NBS

standards. Overall analytical reproducibility for MCS and CHH8 was <0.1% for δ^{13} C and

Radiocarbon, tephrochronology and ESR dating have all been used to obtain 262 chronological information for the core Co1215 (Fig. 3). The chronological tie points are 263 presented and discussed in detail in Aufgebauer et al. (in press) and Wagner et al. (in 264 press). The chronology of the lower part of the core is poorly constrained. ESR dating of 265 a shell layer at 1458-1463 cm depth provides a minimum age of 73.9±11.4 ka BP. 266 suggesting deposition at the end of the marine isotope stage (MIS) 5 (cf. Bassinot et al., 267 1994), which is supported by relatively high, but decreasing organic matter content (Fig. 268 4). Above the shell horizon, tephras at 1079 and 901 cm depth are difficult to correlate 269 270 with known tephras, but those at 856, 844, 770, 692, and 617 cm depth have been correlated with the Y-6, SMP1a, Y-5, Codola(?), and Y-3 tephras (Wagner et al., in 271 272 press). The tephrostratigraphy, radiocarbon ages, and the characteristics of the sediments (grey colour, high clastic matter, high K, low TOC, low TIC and spikes in Mn; 273 274 c.f., Wagner et al., 2010), indicate that this part of the core (>292 cm) was deposited during the last Glacial (Wagner et al., in press). Above a transition between ca. 292 and 275 204 cm, radiocarbon ages, tephras, and the sediments (browner, lack of coarse grains, 276 gradual increase of TOC and TIC, and the decreasing K) indicate that the topmost part 277 278 (204 cm) was deposited during the Holocene. Based on these sedimentological and 279 geochemical variations we suggest that core Co1215 covers MIS 5 to 1, from here on we 280 describe these zones within the MIS framework (Fig. 3).

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282 **5. Results**

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5.1. Modern waters

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286 The oxygen and hydrogen isotope composition of present day waters from a variety of 287 springs around Lakes' Prespa (Mikri and Megali), as well as the lakes themselves are given in Figure 2a (alongside the Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL) and 288 Mediterranean Meteoric Water Line (MMWL)). In addition there are 3 spot rainfall 289 samples which fall on or close to the MMWL. These data are from samples taken 290 between 1984 and 2009 (described in Leng et al., 2010), and new data (from 291 springs/rivers entering Lake Prespa as well as the lake itself) from June 2011. Also 292 plotted are monthly modelled rainfall isotope compositions (using 41.17°N, 20.75°E, 293 average altitude of precipitation 1500 m) and mean weighted annual rainfall isotope 294 composition (from G.J. Bowen's on-line calculator at Waterisotopes.org; Bowen et al., 295

297 The range in spring/river δ^{18} O and δ D overlaps with the calculated isotope composition of 298 299 monthly precipitation, although most of the measured spring water isotope data concentrate in the lower isotope range. The calculated mean weighted annual isotope 300 composition of precipitation is $\delta^{18}O$ –8.8% and δD –57% (Bowen et al., 2005) and is 301 above the vast majority of the spring/river data. Therefore the data suggests that the 302 springs/rivers are likely to be recharged by higher altitude and/or cold season 303 304 snow/rainfall around the calculated winter rainfall isotope composition (November to 305 March). As such the recharge of the springs/rivers by winter precipitation is very 306 important to the lake levels and the isotope composition of the Prespa lakes (c.f. Hollis 307 and Stevenson, 1997). 308 The isotopic composition of the present day lake waters fall on a Local Evaporation Line 309 (LEL) away from both the GMWL and the MMWL between –10.9 and +1.2% for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and 310 -69.4 and -12.9% for δD . Both Megali and Mikri Prespa are evaporated and the 311 intersection of the LEL with the MMWL at around $\delta^{18}O = -8.8\%$ and $\delta D = -60.6\%$, is ca. 312 2% in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ lower than the mean rainfall value, confirming the dominantly spring water 313 recharge (from high altitude and/or cold season snow/rain). 314 315 316 5.2. Prespa core Co1215 data 317 Although the chronology is currently limited and does not allow the establishment of a 318 319 robust age-depth model, the chronological, sedimentological, palynology and 320 geochemical data allows broad palaeoenvironmental information in comparison with 321 Marine Isotope Stages (Fig. 3). In general, the MIS 5 sediments are brown, have relatively high TOC, TOC/N, HI while TIC, OI, are low. Arboreal pollen dominates during 322 MIS 5. The glacial sediments (MIS 4 to 2) are greyish in colour, contain low TOC and 323 TOC/N (except for a slight increase around 45-55 ka), and high δ^{13} C_{organic} (possibly MIS 324

2005) and 3 spot rainfall samples from around Lake Prespa.

several individual peaks of AP values exceed 70%, pollen from aquatic macrophytes and

3). Through this period there are spikes in TIC and OI. The TIC spikes were identified as

siderite and measured for their isotope composition; both $\delta^{13}C_{\text{siderite}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{siderite}}$ are

generally high in comparison to the majority of calcite δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O. During MIS 4-2

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329 algae are present but in low numbers. The Pleistocene/Holocene transition is likely between 292 and 204 cm based on dating and a change in the proxies, i.e. a return to 330 brown sediments, increasing HI, TOC, TOC/N, TIC, and decreasing OI, $\delta^{13}C_{\text{organic}}$. The 331 Holocene (MIS 1) sediments in the upper 204 cm have high HI, TOC, TOC/N, TIC and 332 low OI, δ^{13} C_{organic}. High TIC is due to calcite precipitation, δ^{13} C is consistent around +1.1 333 \pm 0.4%, while δ^{18} O is generally low (-4.6 \pm 0.8%) except for two high phases in the early 334 and late Holocene. Arboreal pollen as well as aquatic macrophytes and algae dominate 335 in the Holocene. 336

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6. Discussion

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340 6.1. Modern water oxygen and hydrogen isotope composition

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Over the lakewater collection period (1984 - 2011) the two Prespa lakes (Megali and 342 Mikri Prespa) had an almost identical range in water isotope composition (δ^{18} O ca. –7 to 343 +1‰; δD ca. –47 to –13‰). $\delta^{18}O$ and δD fall on a Local Evaporation Line (LEL) and as 344 such are evaporated (compared to spring waters), the similarity in the isotope data for the 345 two lakes reflects their hydrological connection (Fig. 2a). The range in isotope data for 346 the lakes suggests that the Prespa lakes are very sensitive to moisture balance (winter 347 precipitation versus summer evaporation) and as such respond dramatically too 348 seasonally (i.e. their isotope composition changes through the season due to winter 349 350 recharge and summer evaporation). However, large seasonal ranges in lake level (up to 1.5 m) have been recorded (Hollis and Stephenson, 1997), so another explanation is that 351 352 the samples with the intermediary isotope compositions were collected close to rivers or subaqueous springs that flow into the lake (Matzinger 2006a). We know from Lake Ohrid 353 354 that subaqueous springs result in lakewaters with intermediary isotope compositions (Leng et al., 2010), and that lakes at steady state change very gradually in their isotope 355 composition based on successive, seasonally averaged, either dry or wet conditions at 356 time scales longer than the residence time of the lake water. In addition, Megali Prespa 357 358 has no surface outlet, although there is subaqueous water outflow through the karst aguifer into Lake Ohrid (Matzinger et al., 2006b). The isotope composition of Lake Ohrid 359 which is very stable with δ^{18} O and δ D values around –4 and –32% since 1989 (Leng et 360 361 al., 2010). The difference in the isotope composition of Ohrid and Prespa lake water is

probably a function of lake size. The volumetrically much larger Lake Ohrid (55.4 km³ 362 compared to 3.6km³ of Lake Prespa, Matzinger et al., 2006a) with its longer residence 363 364 time (70 and 11 years respectively, Matzinger et al., 2006a) makes Lake Ohrid much better buffered and less responsive (on a decadal scale) against high frequency 365 hydrological change compared to Lake Prespa. Overall, in terms of understanding past 366 lake water balance from the oxygen isotope composition of lacustrine carbonates, the 367 modern water isotope data suggest that we should interpret δ^{18} O variation in Lake 368 Prespa as mainly representing changes of the amount of winter rainfall water contribution 369 (recharge), winter ice cover (reducing winter evaporation), summer aridity (enhancing 370 371 evaporation), and changes in lake water residence time at a decadal resolution.

 $\delta^{13}C_{TDIC}$ of bicarbonate from the Lake Prespa springs, inflowing rivers, and lake waters

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6.2. Modern water carbon isotope composition

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taken in June 2011 provide a range in $\delta^{13}C_{TDIC}$ values between –15.7% and –4.7% (Fig. 376 2b). Dissolved bicarbonate is derived from dissolution and weathering of catchment 377 rocks, soils and atmospheric CO₂. The geology around Prespa is largely old basement 378 rocks and Triassic limestones although there are large areas with Quaternary glacial and 379 volcanic deposits (Aufgebauer et al., in press). Geological sources of bicarbonate tend to 380 have high δ^{13} C (Andrews et al., 1993; 1997; Hammarlund, 1993) and so are not likely the 381 major source of the isotopically light ion in the springs and rivers. In contrast organic 382 derived C has δ^{13} C values generally between –25 and –35% (higher up to –16% where 383 there is a greater contribution from C4 taxa). Isotopically light CO₂ liberated by decay of 384 385 terrestrial organic matter in the soil infiltrates springs and rivers by shallow groundwater flow. Under alkaline conditions, and mid range annual temperatures (+10°C), HCO₃⁻ 386 derived solely from soil CO₂ with δ^{13} C_{organic} of ca. –25% should have δ^{13} C_{TDIC} of ~ –15%. 387 This is remarkably consistent with the measured spring and river water δ^{13} C (-15.7%. 388 see also Leng et al., 2001), although once the bicarbonate enters rivers and lakes other 389 processes change δ^{13} C. Prespa lakewater has high δ^{13} C_{TDIC} (Fig. 2b). High δ^{13} C_{TDIC} is 390 common in lakes which do not have a surface outlet (so called closed lakes) where 391 392 dissolved bicarbonate has time to exchange with atmospheric CO₂ (Leng and Marshall, 393 2004) or in lakes with a large biomass, so long as there is sedimentation of organic

matter (ie removal of ¹²C, and not recycling of ¹²C) (Meyers and Teranes, 2001). Both 395 processes (exchange and productivity) are likely in Lake Prespa. 396 397 6.3. Sources of organic matter in the Lake Prespa sedimentary record 398 Several measurements through the core profile show similar fluctuations in the organic 399 matter (HI, TOC, N, TOC/N) (Fig. 3) while others (OI and $\delta^{13}C_{TOC}$) have an almost 400 inverse relationship being high when the other organic proxies are mostly low. These 401 broad changes in the organic matter broadly fall within zones, which approximate to MIS 402 5 to MIS 1 (Fig. 3) based on our limited chronology. In general, the amount of organic 403 matter in lake sediments is a function of changes in organic production in the lake, 404 catchment vegetation changes and transfer of terrestrial particulate and dissolved 405 406 organic matter to the lake, loss processes, and dilution effects (by varying inorganic 407 inputs). These processes can sometimes be disentangled by a combination of organic proxy data (Meyers and Teranes, 2001). Sources of organic matter can be estimated 408 409 from their TOC/N ratio as well as HI versus OI. Organic nitrogen occurs preferentially in proteins and nucleic acids which are relatively abundant in aquatic plants (Talbot and 410 Johannessen, 1992). Here we assume that the term aquatic plants refers both to 411 412 macrophytes and phytoplankton; in Lake Prespa the aquatic plants mainly comprise green algae (eg. Pediastrum, Botryococcus) and Dinoflagellates. 413 414 Phytoplankton have low TOC/N, typically ~<10 (Meyers and Teranes, 2001) whereas vascular (cellulose rich) plants tend to have high TOC/N, usually greatly in excess of 10, 415 macrophytes generally sit in between. In Co1215, the TOC/N fluctuates but overall the 416 417 mean TOC/N = 4.9 (SD = 2.0), varying between 1.3 and 10.4. This range in TOC/N would be interpreted as organic material mostly from plankton, although very low values ≤6 418 suggest that there are decompositional processes (cf. Meyers and Ishiwatari, 1995), so 419 the ratio is not unequivocal and needs supporting evidence. 420 421 422 The van Krevelen-type HI-OI diagram distinguishes three main types of organic matter 423 (Types I, II, III) but also can provide information on the amount of oxidation and 424 diagenetic alteration of the organic matter (Talbot and Livingstone, 1989). The data from Lake Prespa shows both Type II and Type III organic matter, which is either a source 425

function or an oxidation artefact (Fig. 4). Type II organic matter corresponds to

moderately rich hydrocarbons, and suggests that the sedimentary organic matter is 427 predominantly derived from algae, whereas Type III is poor in hydrocarbon-generating 428 429 materials and more typical of woody plant material. However, the data fall on a curve of 430 changing OI suggesting that the organic matter has undergone differential amounts of 431 oxidation (which is climate or hydrology related and not time dependent). The down core HI, TOC and N data show that Lake Prespa sediments have changed in their Rock Eval 432 433 and elemental characteristics through time. Type II sediments with high HI are more typical of the sediments from the Holocene, MIS 3 and MIS 5; whereas Type III with low 434 435 HI are more common in MIS 2 and 4. 436 437 At the end of MIS 5, initial high HI values decrease towards MIS 4, commensurate with a decrease in TOC and low OI and suggest initially high but declining lacustrine 438 439 productivity. In MIS 4 (and MIS 2) relatively low HI and TOC are more typical of vascular plant organic material (kerogen Type III) although the variable OI values suggests that 440 the organic matter has undergone more extensive oxidation, this is supported by the very 441 low TOC/N perhaps being more likely a function of degradation than source (Talbot and 442 443 Livingstone, 1989). High rates of oxidation and reduced TOC are more likely in a lake 444 with dimictic or polymictic conditions, although Type III organic matter and high organic oxidation can be found in degraded woody tissues mediated by various types of fungi 445 446 which cause abiotic diagenetic alterations (Vane and Abbott, 1999; Vane et al., 2003). 447 448 In MIS 3, HI and TOC are intermediary between MIS 1 and 2/4, while OI is generally low apart from some spikes. The most likely explanation of the intermediary values is that of 449 450 a mixed source (samples from this interval also span the kerogen Type II and III 451 boundary), likely being partially altered terrestrial plant matter but also containing a 452 component of aquatic organic matter which is reflected in the rise in TOC and TOC/N. In MIS 1, HI, and TOC peak, and suggest lake sediments containing significant amounts of 453 aquatic organic material (Jacob et al., 2004; Hetényi et al., 2005; Lojka et al., 2009). High 454 455 algal productivity is indicated by high TIC, which is fine grained calcium carbonate. Similar <30 µm idiomorphic calcite crystals occur in Lake Ohrid and are typical of 456 457 photosynthetic phytoplankton endogenic precipitation (Leng et al., 2010; Matter et al., 2010). The high rates of organic material preservation suggest more limited mixing with 458 459 longer periods of O-depleted bottom waters and might imply less seasonal (i.e. from dimictic to monomictic) overturning. Within MIS 1 there are spikes to lower HI, TOC, TIC 460

(i.e. at 140 cm) which might suggest short perturbations back to cold conditions and
 better lake mixing. The highest TOC/N ratios of the entire profile occur in MIS 1 (up to 9)
 but are still suggestive of aquatic productivity and perhaps less

464 decomposition/degradation.

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466 6.4. Carbon isotope composition of organic matter from Lake Prespa

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It is possible that most of the organic matter in Lake Prespa is planktonic in origin as high 468 summer water temperatures and the large surface area of the lake promote algal activity. 469 470 Moreover, there are only a few inlets to Lake Prespa and those that do occur have 471 relatively low discharge. Therefore the carbon isotope signal should act as a tracer for 472 past changes in the aquatic carbon cycle. Even if the sediments have undergone some selective diagenesis the primary isotope signature of organic matter incorporated during 473 burial is often not significantly altered and most importantly relative isotope variations are 474 often preserved (Hodell and Schelske, 1998; Meyers and Lalier-Verges, 1999). 475 Lacustrine algae utilise dissolved HCO₃ in hard water lakes so variations in the isotope 476 composition of the dissolved HCO_3^- and changes in $\delta^{13}C$ related to productivity and 477 nutrient supply are both possible. The modern TDIC data suggest that the main source of 478 479 carbon ions to the lakes is soil derived CO₂. The ion will be utilised by the plants growing in the lake. Phytoplankton tend to have $\delta^{13}C$ that is 20% lower than the $\delta^{13}C$ of the 480 bicarbonate ion (Leng et al., 2005). In Lake Prespa δ^{13} C_{org} is consistent around –25‰ 481 and so could be derived from $\delta^{13}C_{TDIC}$ with a value similar to the modern lake (of ca. – 482 4.7%) through MIS 5, 4, 3, 2. These stages also have low TOC, except MIS 5. In contrast 483 the Holocene has lower $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ (–28‰) and high TOC relative to the other stages. The 484 higher $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ in the pre-Holocene sediments suggests high productivity, but in the 485 presence of low TOC suggests productivity under a more limited carbon input, possibly 486 due to more limited recharge of soil-CO₂ leached from the catchment. If soil development 487 is critical that it would follow that the lower δ^{13} C in the Holocene could just be a function 488 489 of greater supply of soil derived CO₂ and an improving climate. Pollen evidence suggests well developed soils during the Holocene inferred from rising amounts of AP pollen types 490 and increasing total pollen concentration values culminating during the Middle and Late 491 492 Holocene (Fig. 5; Panagiotopoulos et al., in press). Other pollen data from the region 493 suggest a cold climate during MIS 4 and 2 (e.g. Allen et al., 1999, 2000; Wagner et al.,

494 2009; Lézine et al., 2010). During MIS 5 (and to a lesser extend during MIS 3) the total 495 pollen concentration and percentages of AP suggest favourable climate conditions for 496 plant growth (warmer and/or sufficient moisture). 497 498 6.5. Oxygen and carbon isotope composition of carbonate from Lake Prespa: MIS 5-1 499 500 The TIC spike at 1458-1463 cm is calcite, and investigation of the sediments revealed 501 small (<0.5 mm) shelly fragments of *Dreissena* sp. (Wagner et al., in press), no siderite was evident from the XRD analysis. This is the only shelly layer in Co1215 and has been 502 interpreted as a period of low lake level although macrophyte remains were not 503 recovered suggesting the shells may have transported by wave action rather than 504 representing a desiccation horizon (Wagner et al., in press). The δ^{13} C from the shell 505 fragments is low (-2.0%) while the δ^{18} O is high (+0.6%) in comparison to the isotope 506 composition of the endogenic calcites in the Holocene. Low $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in shell calcite is 507 common as a result of mollusc diet and their microenvironments. Molluscs tend to be 508 509 most abundant in highly vegetative parts of lakes where there maybe greater recycling of 12 C (Leng and Marshall, 2004). High δ^{18} O supports the conclusion that lake levels were 510 low driven by a significant arid phase (similar to the δ^{18} O highs seen on the Holocene). 511 512 This arid phase is also recorded in the hydro-acoustic data from Lake Prespa (Wagner et al., in press) and as a decrease in total pollen concentration and a rise in NAP pollen 513 values. Interestingly though there is no endogenic calcite at this level. 514 515 The modern water isotope composition of Lake Prespa shows that the lake is sensitive to 516 517 the winter recharge (input) versus the summer evaporation ratio (I/E). We assume that the oxygen isotope composition of the lakewater is captured in the carbonates that are 518 519 precipitated within the lake (Leng and Marshall, 2004). The TIC spikes through MIS 4-2 comprise siderite. Siderite is a common early diagenetic mineral in many lake sediments, 520 forming in porewaters close to the sediment-water interface (Giresse et al., 1991), its 521 geochemistry is often used as a indicator of sediment water redox. Siderite precipitation 522 523 usually occurs under reducing conditions (Berner, 1971) in slightly to strongly reducing methanogenic zones because of relatively low sulphate and high organic carbon 524

sporadically, although the siderite spikes correlate with highs in the OI and low values in

concentrations (Coleman, 1985). We do not know why the siderite only occurs

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the HI, so perhaps the siderite forms under particular environmental conditions, likely involving a more acidic environment where oxides and hydroxyl ferric-oxides are 528 529 dissolved (Giresse et al., 1991). The formation of siderite over other carbonates suggests low Ca and Mg. The mean δ^{13} C values for the Prespa siderites is +11.9%. Similar high 530 δ¹³C values have been reported elsewhere for other lake carbonates (Mozley and 531 Wersin, 1992) and their formation is described as a function of low sulphate 532 concentrations being consumed at shallower levels in the sediments fairly rapidly leaving 533 a greater quantity of organic matter for decomposition by methanogenic bacteria. The 534 heavy δ^{13} C forms as a result of 13 C enriched bicarbonate derived from methanogenesis 535 (Berner, 1980). Indeed methane and/or CO₂ gas occur trapped within the Lake Prespa 536 sediments because when the cores were retrieved there was core swelling due to gas 537 expansion and release. There is no evidence to support other causes of high δ^{13} C, for 538 example ¹³C-enriched volcanic gas, dissolution of ¹³C enriched carbonate, and high 539 planktonic productivity (Bahrig, 1988). 540 541 The δ^{18} O of the Prespa siderites is, like calcite, a function of lakewater (input vs542 evaporation; I/E) and temperature. However calcite δ^{18} O cannot be directly compared to 543 siderite δ^{18} O because of the different equilibration fractionations between the two 544 545 minerals. The temperature dependent mineral-water fractionation for calcite has been extensively investigated (Epstein et al., 1953; Craig, 1965; O'Neil et al., 1969 etc.) while 546 547 there are less empirical studies on the siderite-water fractionation (Carothers et al., 1988; Zhang et al., 2001). To compare the two carbonate minerals and their δ^{18} O composition 548 549 we have to use specific mineral fractionation equations and estimate the temperature at the time of the mineral precipitation. For the Holocene aged calcite we use the equation 550 of O'Neil et al. (1969), and assume that the calcite precipitated in the photic zone during 551 the spring and summer months and that the average temperature during these months in 552 553 the photic zone is ca. 21°C (maximum summer temperature of surface waters can be 554 27°C; Kocev et al., 2010). For those periods containing siderites (in the glacial) we use the equation of Zhang et al. (2001). The estimation of formation temperature for siderite 555 is more difficult, but assuming it is an early diagenetic mineral formed within the sediment 556 during the glacial period then we might assume cold bottom water temperatures of 4°C 557

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minimum. The calculated δ^{18} O of the lakewater using the different minerals-formation

temperatures are given in Figure 3. Just comparing the glacial-Holocene shows much

lower modelled lakewater δ^{18} O values in the glacial when compared to the Holocene.

561 Even allowing for lower glacial $\delta^{18}O_{precipiation}$ it seems likely that the lake was less

562 evaporative in the glacial, probably as a consequence of cooler summers and longer

563 winter ice cover.

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anoxia.

Within the Holocene we assume that the mechanism for calcite precipitation is likely the same as described for Ohrid whereby phytoplankton productivity assimilate CO_2 as long as there is a supply of bicarbonate (Matzinger et al., 2006b) which will be replenished via surface run-off into the lake and concentrated by evaporation. There is likely some seasonal dissolution of calcite in the bottom waters triggered by aerobic decomposition of organic matter, higher CO_2 and lower pH (Vogel et al., 2010b). Indeed, Löffler et al. (1998) have shown that pH in the surface waters (pH = 8.3) is generally higher than at depth (pH = 7.3). Endogenic calcite preservation is coincident with high organic matter and suggests high primary productivity likely as a result of the transition from the former glacial to interglacial together with more ion input due to soil development and weathering. In addition the OI, HI and TOC/N suggest better preservation of organic

matter possibly due to less lakewater mixing and due to longer periods of bottom water

Overall, the δ^{18} O_{calcite} data are low (mean = -3.1%) except for 2 significant δ^{18} O_{calcite} high

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phases between 10-8 ka and 2-0.5 ka. If we interpret these highs in $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ as a 580 581 function of hydrological balance (less winter rainfall, greater summer aridity) as 582 suggested by the modern data, then these changes should be also seen in the other 583 Lake Prespa and Lake Ohrid cores, within the limitations of the dating. However, generally high amounts of AP between 10-8 ka indicate a positive water balance 584 (sufficient annual precipitation) and forest growth in the catchment of lake Prespa. There 585 is only one exception visible in the pollen data: during the 8.2 ka event. During the last 2 586 ka human impact has masked possible climatic interpretation of the vegetational proxies. 587 Although we would expect any change should be significantly damped in the Lake Ohrid 588 due to its greater size and residence time. 589

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Lake Prespa δ^{18} O_{calcite} shows similarities to δ^{18} O_{calcite} from Lake Ohrid cores (Leng et al., 2010). The basal portions of Co1215 from Prespa and Co1202 from Ohrid show higher

values, although the highest values in Prespa between 10 and 8 ka are not evident in 593 Co1202. From ca 6 ka the Ohrid cores show a general trend toward higher δ^{18} O, 594 although Lake Prespa has low and fairly consistent δ^{18} O between 8-2 ka. High δ^{18} O 595 between 2 to 0.5 ka appear in both cores although the magnitude of variation is 596

significantly different. Prespa δ^{18} O_{calcite} range is -7 to +6%, while Ohrid is -7 to -3%. The 597

enhanced response to lakes level changes in Lake Prespa is not surprising given the 598

difference in water volumes and residence between the lakes. 599

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Lakes that are sensitive to moisture balance (I/E) often have some hydrological closure and/or longer residence time and precipitate carbonates with high $\delta^{13}C_{\text{calcite}}$, despite 602 having much more ¹²C-enriched inflowing waters (Andrews et al., 1993). Evaporating lakes tend to have a covariant relationship between $\delta^{13}C_{\text{calcite}}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}}$ (Talbot, 1990; Leng and Marshall, 2004), this is not the case for Lake Prespa ($r^2 = 0.25$). $\delta^{13}C_{calcite}$

composition of aquatic organic material the $\delta^{13}C_{TDIC}$ is likely a function of equilibration of 607

values in Prespa will reflect $\delta^{13}C_{TDIC}$ at the time of calcite formation, and like the

the bicarbonate ion with atmospheric CO₂. High algal productivity is unlikely to explain 608

these values because during MIS 2-4 the algae peaks in our diagram are not 609

synchronous with peaks in TIC (Fig. 3). However, during MIS 1 and 5 algal and TIC 610

611 peaks are synchronous. Isotopic equilibrium with atmospheric CO₂ will result in lake

water δ^{13} C having values between +1 to +3% (Usdowski and Hoefs, 1990), values similar

to the core values within Lake Prespa ($\delta^{13}C_{calcite}$ values through the Holocene = +1.1% +/-613

0.4‰) perhaps suggesting the bicarbonate has reached a steady state due to the long 614

water residence time. One explanation for the lack of a co-variation between $\delta^{13}C_{\text{calcite}}$ 615

and $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ is perhaps low bicarbonate concentration, unlike changes in $\delta^{18}O$ which will 616

be driven by hydrological balance. 617

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6.6. Comparison of δ^{18} O between Prespa, Ohrid and other lakes in the region from 15 ka 619

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6.6.1. Late Glacial to Holocene transition 621

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The Late Glacial to Holocene transition in Prespa Co1215 initiates at ca.15 ka (Fig. 2) 623

with a gradual increase in organic matter content (interpreted as increased productivity; 624

Aufgebauer et al., in press), increased TOC/N (less decomposition). There is little or poor 625

evidence that a similar change occurs in the existing Lake Ohrid cores. This gradual 626 transition to the Younger Dryas is often marked in Mediterranean lake records by an 627 increase in δ¹⁸O_{calcite} (Roberts et al., 2008), this phase and other Pleistocene carbonate 628 isotopic enrichment events seen in Mediterranean lakes may be linked to the North 629 Atlantic Heinrich cold events (Roberts et al., 2008), although chronological imprecision 630 means this suggestion is currently not verifiable. In Lake Prespa the low carbonate 631 632 content prior to 10 ka cannot confirm this transition from the isotope perspective (the carbonate is too low to analyse for isotopes), although the absence of significant 633 amounts of carbonate perhaps implies a lake with low evaporation. Within this transition, 634 immediately post the harsh climate of the Lateglacial/Oldest Dryas, the pollen show a 635 retreat of steppe herb communities (eg. Artemisia and Chenopodiaceae) coupled with a 636 gradual rise of pine and oak suggest rising moisture availability within the Prespa 637 catchment. This trend is interrupted by an abrupt millennial vegetational setback (likely 638 the Younger Dryas chronozone) which is characterized by increasing aridity and lower 639 temperatures. Around Prespa this is marked by a major restructuring of the vegetation 640 including a descending treeline and/or a thinning of existing tree stands (Panagiotopoulos 641 642 et al., in press).

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6.6.2. Early Holocene

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In the early Holocene, Lake Prespa shows a small peak in δ^{18} O_{calcite} between 10-8 ka 646 while Lake Ohrid shows a small δ^{18} O_{calcite} peak between 10-9 ka. Other lakes in the 647 Eastern and Central Mediterranean show that the early Holocene carbonates are 648 isotopically depleted at this time (Roberts et al., 2008; their figure 5; Fig. 6). The 649 magnitude of evaporative enrichment in Lake Prespa during the early Holocene is less 650 than the later Holocene (see below). It is difficult to compare directly the $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ from 651 the early and late Holocene because there are isotope complications, for example, the 652 653 source composition of precipitation would have likely been different partly because of changes in the Mediterranean Sea at that time. Other lakes around the Eastern 654 Mediterranean show an early Holocene oxygen isotope depletion, which Roberts et al. 655 (2008) ascribe as most likely a function of regional water balance and a difference in the 656 source isotope composition of precipitation due to the formation of sapropel in the 657 Mediterranean Sea. The sapropel formation was thought to be initiated by increased 658

659 rainfall and runoff from the Nile into the Eastern Mediterranean Sea, which would have contributed significantly to the creation of a freshwater lid and subsequently bottom water 660 661 anoxia between 9.5 ka and 6.5 ka (Rohling, 1994; Ariztegui et al., 2000). The pollen record shows the gradual formation of closed oak forests and their diversification, with 662 the establishment of thermophilous and drought-sensitive trees after approximately 10 ka 663 which suggests the absence of summer droughts and thus confirms sufficient 664 665 precipitation for forest growth during this period. Moreover, the parallel appearance and establishment of important maquis constituents exclude the existence of intense late 666 667 winter and spring droughts. In light of the above, the pollen record suggests a rather even distribution of annual precipitation, which appears to be in agreement with the sapropel 668 formation in the eastern Mediterranean (Panagiotopoulos et al., in press). 669

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6.6.3. Middle Holocene humidity

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Lake Prespa records the lowest δ^{18} O_{calcite} values for the period (8-2 ka), while Lake Ohrid 673 clearly shows a progressive enrichment in δ^{18} O_{calcite} over this time interval (Fig. 6). This 674 675 difference could be a function of hydrology and the different lake sizes. Recharge into Lake Prespa was presumably sufficient to counter summer evaporation, whereas in Ohrid 676 677 with its much larger lake water volume to surface area in comparison to catchment area 678 may mean that Lake Ohrid may be less responsive to winter recharge. The pollen records from the two sites (Wagner et al., 2009; Panagiotopoulos et al., in press) are 679 almost identical during the Holocene implying similar climate regimes in both catchments. 680 Overall, the low and stable δ^{18} O values in both Prespa and Ohrid through the middle 681 Holocene is a general feature observed in other eastern and central Mediterranean lakes 682 and speleothems (Bar-Matthews et al., 2000; Zanchetta et al., 2007b; Roberts et al., 683 2008; Develle et al., 2010), although not always over exactly the same time periods 684 notwithstanding dating issues. Lakes Van and Frassino have a low and stable δ^{18} O 685 period from 9-4 ka (Baroni et al., 2006), while Eski is low only till about 6 ka (Roberts et 686 687 al., 2001). The much smaller Golhisar Golu appears to respond very rapidly to moisture balance although values are generally low between 7-5 ka (Eastwood et al., 2007; Fig. 688 689 6). This mid-Holocene humidity has been interpreted in different ways, for example it has 690 been attributed to increased amounts of precipitation related to an increase in winter precipitation of Atlantic origin (Zanchetta et al., 2007; Zhornyak et al., 2011) or a 691

significant (especially for eastern Mediterranean) freshening of surface marine water of
 the eastern Mediterranean at that time resulting in lower δ¹⁸O of precipitation (e.g.,
 Kolodny et al., 2005; Develle et al., 2010). The Middle Holocene Prespa pollen record
 suggests similar climatic and environmental conditions to the early Holocene.

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6.6.4. Late Holocene

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The higher $\delta^{18} O_{calcite}$ in Lake Prespa (and Lake Ohrid) from 2 ka suggests drier 699 conditions, and probably a significant lake level drop in Prespa, as δ^{18} O_{calcite} values are 700 the highest of the entire record. Over this time there is a general trend towards higher 701 δ^{18} O_{calcite} in many other Mediterranean isotopic records both in lakes (e.g. Roberts et al., 702 703 2008; Develle et al., 2010) and in speleothems (e.g., Bar-Mattews et al., 2000; Zanchetta 704 et al., 2007b; Verheyden et al., 2008). Lake Van, Eski and Frassino show consistently 705 high values from 4 ka (the latter 2 showing hiati from between 2-1 ka; Fig. 6). In Golhisar Golu there are high values also from 4 ka but the hydrology likely changes around 3 ka 706 707 with the effect of the Santorini tephra on the lake catchment (Eastwood et al., 2007; Fig. 6). This regional drying has previously been described as related to progressive 708 709 reduction in moisture advection from the Atlantic linked to a reduction in summer 710 insolation, which also resulted in a decrease in monsoon activity on tropical Africa and 711 progressive aridification of the Sahara (e.g. Gasse, 2000). Isotopically this increase could also be related to progressive increase in isotopic composition in the Mediterranean Sea 712 (Emeis et al., 2000) and the related effect on rainfall amount. Very low lake levels (and 713 714 highest $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$) at Lake Prespa occur around ca. 1 ka and are thought to correspond with the courrence of ruins of several buildings at 840-842 m.a.s.l. (Sibinovic, 1987). 715 These buildings were constructed at the end of the 10th/beginning of the 11th century AD 716 and it is unlikely that they were formed in the water. There is a rapid reversal in the last 717 500 years as δ^{18} O_{calcite} declines to some of the lowest values (-7%) in the most recent 718 sediments (also seen in Ohrid core Lz1120; Leng et al., 2010; Fig. 6). Why Co1215 719 shows a consistent wet phase (low δ^{18} O) in the last 500 years is unclear but there is 720 some evidence in Lake Ohrid for very recent (apparent) freshening driven by 721 anthropogenic change including the Roman and recent forest clearance (Wagner et al., 722 723 2009).

725 Finally, in the modern lakewater, assuming peak precipitation of calcite occurs during the warmer summer months when mean monthly temperatures are high (summer 726 727 temperatures between 2001 and 2004 averaged between +20 and +22°C, Matzinger et al., 2007), calcite precipitating in Lake Prespa with a lakewater value of -1% will have a 728 $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ of around -2%, i.e. an oxygen isotope composition that is higher than most of 729 the Holocene calcite δ^{18} O except for the early and late Holocene arid phases. However, 730 731 the isotopic composition of modern lake water is perhaps as much to do with anthropogenic activities as climate. Indeed the recent receding woodlands and the 732 development of agriculture (cereals and crop trees) occurring alongside the increased 733 734 accumulation rates of algae suggests that Lake Prespa is undergoing substantial 735 changes that point to intensive anthropogenic activities (Panagiotopoulos et al., in press). In Lake Prespa as with in many other lakes disentangling natural from human impact 736 737 over the very recent past is challenging.

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7. Conclusions

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The current Lake Prespa waters are evaporated compared to the inflowing spring waters.

The hydrological balance in Lake Prespa is a function of summer aridity and winter

743 precipitation, on a decadal scale. The spring water bicarbonate ion is likely derived from

soil CO₂ which once incorporated into the lakewater likely equilibrates with atmospheric

745 CO₂.

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747 The Lake Prespa sediments broadly fall into zones based on their sedimentology,

748 geochemistry, palynology and the existing chronology; these zones roughly equate to

749 Marine Isotope Stages 5 to 1. The Glacial sediments are grey, contain low TOC and

TOC/N and high δ^{13} C_{organic} suggesting low supply of carbon to the lake, but high summer

751 productivity. Through this period there are spikes in OI and siderite, which suggest that

although the lake was likely to have mixed regularly leading to enhanced oxidation of

753 organic matter, there must have been within sediment reducing conditions and

754 methanogenesis. In contrast the MIS 5 sediments have relatively high TOC, TOC/N, HI

755 while TIC, OI, and δ^{13} C_{org} are low, similar to MIS 1 although the Holocene sediments

756 contain high calcite. MIS 5 and 1 sediment suggest much more productivity, higher rates

757 of organic material preservation possibly due to more limited mixing with longer periods of O-depleted bottom waters. 758

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The δ^{18} O of the glacial siderites is, like calcite, a function of lakewater input:evaporation balance and temperature. However calcite δ^{18} O cannot be directly compared to siderite δ^{18} O because of the different equilibration fractionations between the two minerals. Here we recalculate lakewater δ^{18} O from siderite and calcite, estimating the temperature of formation. The calculated δ^{18} O of the lakewater using the different minerals shows much lower modelled lakewater δ^{18} O values in the glacial when compared to the Holocene. Even allowing for lower glacial δ^{18} O_{precipiation} it seems likely that the lake was less evaporative in the glacial, probably as a consequence of cooler summers and longer winter ice cover.

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The oxygen isotope composition of calcites and palynology from the Holocene show a generally humid Holocene, a feature observed in other Eastern and Central 772 Mediterranean lakes and speleothems and can be attributed to increased amounts of precipitation related to an increase in winter precipitation of Atlantic origin together with a freshening of the surface of the Mediterranean Sea (lower δ^{18} O in rainfall) at that time. 774 Ours and other pollen records and climate reconstructions from this region indicate the importance of seasonality in precipitation regime during the Holocene (Panagiotopoulos et al., in press and references therein). Regional drying in the late Holocene has been 777 ascribed to progressive reduction in moisture advection from the Atlantic linked to a reduction in summer insolation, a decrease in monsoon activity on tropical Africa and progressive aridification of the Sahara leading to regional aridity and an increase in isotopic composition in the Mediterranean Sea (Emeis et al., 2000).

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Acknowledgements

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800 Figures 801 802 Figure 1. Lake Prespa in SE Europe, situated between Albania, Macedonia and Greece. 803 Coring location of Co1215 is marked. 804 Figure 2. The isotopic (a: δ^{18} O and δ D; b: δ^{13} C_{TDIC} and δ^{18} O) composition of present day 805 waters from Lake Prespa and springs. The Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL) and the 806 807 Mediterranean Meteoric Water Line (MMWL) (c.f. Anovsky et al. (1991) and Eftimi and Zoto (1997)) are also given on (a) with the calculated Local Evaporation Line (LEL). All 808 but the June 2011 data are from data compiled in Leng et al. (2010). 809 810 Figure 3. Multi-proxy data from Lake Prespa core Co1215. The data fall into zones which 811 812 roughly equate to Marine Isotope Stages which are marked. The chronology is based on published dates given on the left hand side of the figure. (The oxygen isotope 813 814 composition of carbonate was obtained from calcite in MIS 1 and siderite in all other 815 zones). 816 Figure 4. Lake Prespa organic matter on a van Krevelen-type discrimination plot (after 817 818 Meyers and Lallier-Verges, 1999). 819 820 Figure 5. A composite pollen diagram including concentration curves of green algae (Pediastrum and Botryococcus), dinocysts, aquatics (macrophytes) total pollen (including 821 822 fern spores) and percentage curve of aboreal (AP) versus non-arboreal pollen (NAP). 823 824 Figure 6. Comparison of oxygen isotope profiles form Lake Prespa core Co1215, to cores from Lake Ohrid and other lakes from around the Mediterranean over the Holocene 825 826 where carbonate data can be compared (data in Roberts et al. 2008 and references 827 therein). 828 Table 1. Characteristics of Lake Prespa (data from Matzinger et al., 2006a; Wilke et al., 829 830 2010). 831

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Property	Prespa
Altitude (masl) Catchment area (km²)	849 1300
Lake area (km²)	254
Mean lake depth (m)	14-19
Volume (km²)	3.6
pH (surface/bottom)	8.4-7.3

Table 1. Characteristics of Lake Prespa (data from Matzinger et al., 2006a; Wilke et al., 1130 2010)













