

1 **A major hydrobiological change in Dasht-e Arjan Wetland (SW**
2 **Iran) during the late glacial-early Holocene transition revealed by**
3 **subfossil chironomids**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 The late glacial-early Holocene transition is a key period in the Earth's history. However, although this transition is
18 well studied in Europe, it is not well constrained in the Middle East and palaeohydrological records with robust chronologies
19 remain scarce from this region. Here we present an interesting hydrobiological record showing a major environmental change
20 occurring in the Dasht-e Arjan Wetland (SW Iran, near to Persepolis) during the late glacial-early Holocene transition (*ca.*
21 11,650 years cal BP). We use subfossil chironomids (Insecta: Diptera) as a proxy for hydrological changes and to reconstruct
22 lake-level fluctuations. The Arjan wetland was a deep lake during the Younger Dryas (YD) marked by a dominance of
23 *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type, taxa adapted to anoxic conditions of deep waters. At the beginning of the Holocene a
24 drastic decrease (more than 80% to less than 10%) of *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type, combined with diversification
25 of littoral taxa such as *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type, *Dicrotendipes nervosus*-type and *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type suggest
26 a lake-level decrease and a more vegetalized aquatic environment. We compare and contrast the chironomid record of Arjan
27 with a similar record from northwestern Iran. The palaeoclimatic significance of the record, at a local and regional scale, is
28 subsequently discussed. The increase in northern hemisphere temperatures, inferred by geochemical data from NGRIP, at the
29 beginning of the Holocene best explains the change from the YD highstand to early Holocene lowstand conditions in the Dasht-
30 e Arjan wetland. However, a contribution of the melt-water inflow from small local glaciers in the catchment basin is not
31 excluded.

32

33 **Key words:** Younger Dryas, Climate change, Karst, Lake-level change, Zagros, late glacial-early Holocene transition, Iran,
34 Middle East.

35

36

37 Introduction

38

39 The late Pleistocene to early Holocene transition marks the final part of the “Last Glacial-
40 Interglacial Transition” (LGIT) or “Last Termination” (Lowe and Walker 1997; Hoek 2008). It is a key
41 event in the Earth’s history characterized by a series of climatic changes of high magnitude that provide
42 the possibility to investigate the mechanisms responsible for abrupt climatic changes (Hoek 2008). In
43 the North Atlantic region, a detailed spatio-temporal framework is now available for the patterns of
44 hydroclimatic and biotic changes during this transition (e.g. Ammann et al. 2000; Rasmussen et al.
45 2006). The biotic responses to late glacial-early Holocene climatic changes display many spatial
46 discrepancies highlighting the important role of local ecological conditions such as lake topography and
47 the composition of aquatic macrophyte communities (Engels and Cwynar, 2011). In the low temperate
48 to subtropical latitudes of SW Asia, the late glacial hydroclimatic changes are still poorly understood
49 compared to Europe and the Mediterranean. In the Middle East, for instance, the more complex
50 interactions between climatic systems can potentially cause more multifaceted responses of biomes to
51 hydroclimatic variations (Djamali et al. 2010). Furthermore, this is a key period during which nomadic
52 hunter-gatherers sedenterized to form the first farming communities (Blockley and Pinhasi 2011;
53 Willcox 2012). In this regard, the Zagros-Taurus Mountains in western Iran and southeastern Turkey is
54 a key region in understanding the Neolithisation process (Matthews and Fazeli 2013). A recent discovery
55 of the cultivation of wild cereals in the foothills of the Zagros Mountains in Iran (Riehl et al. 2013), at
56 the very onset of the Holocene, suggests that this area should also be considered as one of the earliest
57 centers for cereal and pulse domestication in the Middle East. In addition, the study of ancient DNA of
58 human remains dating to Early Holocene suggests that the Zagros Mountains constitute the major center
59 of eastward expansion of early farming communities (Broushaki et al. 2016). Unraveling the
60 hydroclimatic changes associated with these events is thus important in understanding and in
61 contextualizing the possible environmental changes responsible for the early Neolithisation of the
62 region.

63 In the Middle East, although palaeohydrological records are available from NW Zagros, E
64 Anatolia, Caucasus and the Talesh Mountains (e.g. Stevens et al. 2006; Sharifi et al. 2015; Aubert et al.
65 2017), no high-resolution record is available from the central-southern Zagros for the late glacial-early
66 Holocene transition. The present study provides a hydrological record for this transition in the southern
67 Zagros based on lacustrine deposits of the Dasht-e Arjan Wetland. Chironomid head capsules, which
68 have been demonstrated to be good palaeo-temperature and palaeosalinity indicators (Heiri et al. 2011;
69 Eggermont et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2007), are also powerful proxies to reconstruct lake-level
70 fluctuations (Eggermont et al. 2007). Recently, they have further been suggested as a promising proxy
71 to reconstruct changes in precipitation seasonality in the semi-arid region of the Middle-East (Aubert et
72 al. 2017). We place the new Arjan record in a regional context. We compare and contrast it with
73 hydroclimatic changes of central Asia and Eastern Mediterranean, to further our regional understanding
74 of ecosystem responses to this key climatic transition.

75

76 Materials and methods

77

78 *Study area*

79 Very little information is available from the wetland of Dasht-e Arjan (Plain of Arjan). The wetland (N
80 29°36'38", E 51°59'04", 1,984 m asl; Fig. 1) is located *ca.* 50 km to the west of Shiraz. It is a relatively
81 large, moderately saline lake located near Lake Parishan with which it forms a Wetland of International
82 Importance (Ramsar Site no. 37; <https://www.ramsar.org>). The climate of Shiraz (1,540 m asl) is of
83 continental Mediterranean-type (Djamali et al. 2011) with most of the precipitation falling during the
84 winter months (Fig 1C). Apart from the direct precipitation in its catchment basin, a major source for
85 Dasht-e Arjan Wetland is the Arjan spring, which has a discharge rate fluctuating between 750 l/s and
86 100 l/s (Milanovic and Aghili 1990).

87 Although located within the Zagros Fold Belt, the Dasht-e Arjan region is situated in a local extensional
88 tectonic setting which has created a subsiding sedimentary basin. The subsidence is controlled by the
89 activity of two normal faults called the West Arjan Fault (N45°, 78°SE) and the East Arjan Fault (N55°,

90 70NW) which have created the 100-500 m high and ~10 km long SW-NE trended almost vertical cliffs
91 composed mainly of Oligocene-Miocene Asmari Limestone formation to the west and east of the
92 wetland (Fig. 1B; Seyrafian et al. 2011). Hydrogeologically, the Dasht-e Arjan Wetland seems to be
93 located in a “polje” (a flat karstic plain) whose waters are evacuated through a “ponor” (an opening in
94 the bottom of a polje), of 10-15 meter diameter, into a karstic subterranean system during highstands
95 with possible hydrological connection to the Kazerun (Lake Parishan) basin (Milanovic and Aghili
96 1990).

97 **Fig. 1**

98

99 *Coring, lithostratigraphy and radiocarbon dating*

100 Coring was performed using a Cobra vibracorer, allowing to gather 10 successive core sections of 1-m
101 length and 5-cm width from the southeastern corner of the lake (29°35'33"N, 51°59'03"E, 1,992m asl)
102 near the location of the “ponor” (Fig. 1B). The maximum depth attained was 960 cm. The
103 lithostratigraphy comprises three major units: (1) a basal unit dominated by calcareous clayey mud with
104 traces of pedogenesis; (2) middle section dominated by bioclastic calcareous mud; and (3) the upper unit
105 dominated by organic-rich calcareous mud (Fig. 2; upper right). Six samples composed of bulk (peat
106 and gyttja) and plant remains (fibers) were AMS radiocarbon dated at Poznan Radiocarbon Laboratory
107 (Table 1). The radiocarbon ages were calibrated using Intcal13 calibration curve (Reimer et al. 2013) in
108 the Clam package (Blaauw 2010) run in R software version 3.2.2 (R Core Team 2012). The age-depth
109 model is based on linear interpolation taking into account the probability distribution of the calibrated
110 ages (Fig. 2). Two radiocarbon ages were excluded from the age-depth model (sample Poz-Arj478 at
111 478 cm and sample Poz-Arj756 at 756 cm depth; Table 1). These two samples are outliers. The first
112 sample is too old, possibly because of the old carbon found in the bulk sediment composed of calcareous
113 mud, a sediment composition which tends to yield “older” ages (Table 1). The second sample is too
114 young, most probably because it is composed of root and rootlets penetrating into old sediment from the
115 much younger plants. The palustrine sedimentary facies which incorporates this sample display

116 abundant root traces, corroborating this assumption (Fig. 2). A recent publication by Djamali et al.
117 (2018) has shown that similar age inversions (too young ages) have also been reported from a palustrine
118 carbonate facies in the western Persepolis basin. We have retained the ages provided by the samples
119 Poz-Arj503, Poz-Arj614 and Poz-Arj671 because they are composed of *in situ* organic matter (gyttja to
120 very fine grained peat), formed within the aquatic environments through biological processes. All
121 carbonate content was removed through a chemical treatment at the radiocarbon laboratory of Poznan
122 (T. Goslar, personal communication) diminishing the possible contamination by old carbon originating
123 from geological formations. We consider that the age Poz-Arj614 giving a 2- σ range age of 11 631-12
124 060 is a very reliable age and marks the second part of the Younger Dryas, just before the onset of the
125 Holocene. This age range is also displayed in the chironomid diagram of Fig. 3 (see discussion).

126 *Chironomid analysis*

127 Sixteen sediment samples weighing between 40 to 90 g were analyzed for chironomids, every
128 5 cm, along the fossiliferous interval of 630 to 550 cm. The laboratory methods used for extraction and
129 identification of the chironomid subfossil head capsules are described in Gandouin et al. (2005). To
130 summarize, the extraction consisted of KOH-deflocculation, water-washing over a 100 μ m sieve and oil
131 flotation. A minimum of 50 head capsules per sample is required to provide statistically significant
132 estimates of ecological conditions (Heiri and Lotter 2001). Identification criteria of head capsules are
133 based on a Palearctic dichotomous key developed by Brooks et al. (2007). The chironomid abundance
134 diagram was created using C2 software version 1.7.2 (Juggins 2007).

135

136 *Multivariate analyses of sub-fossil chironomid data*

137 A constrained sum-of-squares cluster analysis (CONISS) for percentage data was performed with R
138 (version 3.2.2) and the package “rioja” (Juggins 2017) to highlight major changes in chironomid
139 assemblage composition throughout the stratigraphy (Grimm 1987). Principal Component Analysis
140 (PCA) (Fig. 3) was performed on a data percentage matrix of 9 taxa for 16 samples. The PCA was
141 carried out with “ade4” and “vegan” packages in R software (R Core Team 2012). Beforehand, data

142 were square-root transformed with the aim of stabilizing the variance. Rare taxa (present in only one
143 sample or with a relative abundance always <5 %) were excluded from analyses.

144

145 Results and interpretation

146 For the chironomid analysis, only the section between 630 and 550 cm was used because it corresponds
147 to the late glacial-early Holocene transition and presents almost the only interval with sufficient
148 chironomid head capsules for statistical analyses. Interestingly, this sequence of 0.80 meter corresponds
149 to the end of the Younger Dryas and the onset of the Holocene (6.30-5.50 m: 12,380 to 10,103 years cal
150 BP; Fig. 2). Fig. 3 presents a simplified diagram of chironomid relative abundances (in %). CONISS
151 analysis revealed three faunal assemblage zones that we designate as Ach1: 630-605 cm (12,380-11,650
152 years cal BP), Ach2: 605-563 cm (~11,650-10,470 years cal BP) and Ach3: 563-555 cm (10,470-10,100
153 years cal BP). To the right of the chironomid diagram, percentage variations of a selection of pollen taxa
154 have also been presented, based on a recently published pollen diagram from the same study core
155 (Hosseini et al. 2017).

156 **Fig. 2**

157

158 *Ach1: 630-605 cm (12,380-11,650 years cal BP):*

159 This zone is dominated by *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type and significant presence of
160 *Psectrocladius psilopterus*-type (Fig. 3). Together, these two chironomid taxa constitute up to 90% of
161 the chironomid assemblage (Fig. 3). PCA scores for these chironomid taxa and the samples containing
162 them are both positioned on the positive side of the PCA axis1 between 0.5 and 1 (Fig. 4).

163 The Ach1 upper boundary closely mirrors the ARJp1 pollen assemblage zone (Fig. 3, right
164 panel). This pollen zone is characterized by the dominance of pollen produced by very dry steppe plants
165 (Amaranthaceae, *Artemisia*) low values of *grasses* (Poaceae) and the total absence of trees. Only towards
166 its end do aquatic plants (Cyperaceae) and algae increase (*Botryococcus* and *Pediastrum*).

167

168 *Ach2: 605-563 cm (~11,650-10,470 years cal BP):*

169 A remarkable faunal change occurs in this zone with a drastic reduction in *Chironomus*
170 *plumosus/anthracinus*-type (Fig. 3) and, to a lesser extent, in *Psectrocladius psilopterus*-type
171 percentages (from 80-90% to below 10% for the latter taxa). By contrast, other taxa such as *Polypedilum*
172 *nubeculosum*-type, *Dicrotendipes nervosus*-type and *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type previously absent or
173 in low abundances in the record, become the dominant chironomid assemblages. *Procladius* spp.
174 percentages also increase during this zone. PCA axis1 scores follow the same trend as for *Chironomus*
175 *plumosus/anthracinus*-type and decrease markedly to around -1 during most of the upper part of the
176 zone (see Fig. 3).

177 Ach2 chironomid zone mostly correlates with ARJp2 pollen assemblage zone, characterized by
178 a sudden drop and then low values of Amaranthaceae and the dominance of grasses and semi-continuous
179 presence of aquatic plants (Cyperaceae and *Sparganium*-type) and algae (*Botryococcus* and
180 *Pediastrum*). Tree pollen appear in the diagram although with low values. A treeless grass-dominated
181 steppe with moderately developed aquatic vegetation is inferred (Hosseini et al., 2017).

182

183 *Ach3: 563-555 cm (10,470-10,100 years cal BP):*

184 During this zone, a slight rise of *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type and *Psectrocladius*
185 *psilopterus*-type and a decrease of *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type is observed (Fig. 3). Other littoral
186 taxa such as *Dicrotendipes nervosus*-type and *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type are also present.
187 Furthermore, we note the emergence of *Xenochironomus* spp. from 565 cm. During Ach3 zone, PCA
188 axis1 scores increase slightly but remain negative (-0.5) at the top of sequence (Fig. 3).

189 Ach3 chironomid zone correlates with ARJp3 pollen assemblage zone in which grass pollen
190 abundances decrease while *Pediastrum* shows a peak. At the regional scale, a dry mountain steppe
191 vegetation and nutrient-rich mesotrophic conditions are inferred (based on *Pediastrum*).

192 **Fig. 3**

193

194 Statistically-based ecological groups of subfossil chironomids

195 PCA axis1 (56.2% of the total variance) opposes *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type on the positive
196 side (Fig. 4) to *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type, *Procladius* spp., *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type,
197 *Tanytarsus* spp. and *Dicrotendipes nervosus*-type on the negative side. PCA axis 2 (17.3% of the total
198 variance) is characterized by a segregation between *Xenochironomus* spp. and *Psectrocladius*
199 *psilopterus*-type.

200 **Fig. 4**

201

202 Discussion

203 Chironomids as bathymetric bio-indicators

204 The PCA axis 1 clearly shows an opposition between *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type mostly
205 confined to the profundal zone of lakes (Brooks et al. 2007) against the inhabitants of littoral zone and
206 shallower water environments such as *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type and *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type.
207 *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type is most often associated with aquatic macrophytes (Brooks et al. 2007;
208 Langdon et al. 2010). In fact, *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type indicates relatively clear waters with
209 variable macrophyte density and/or high plant species richness (Langdon et al. 2010). *Chironomus*
210 *plumosus/anthracinus*-type are often associated with loose and fine-grained sediments such as mud and
211 silt (Henrikson et al. 1982; Brodin 1986). Among the *Chironomus* genera, many species are also adapted
212 to live and survive in deep waters, possibly hypoxic or anoxic conditions by producing a large amount
213 of hemoglobin (Brooks et al. 2007). It is well established elsewhere that chironomids are influenced by
214 lake bathymetry (Verneaux and Aleya 1998) and several transfer functions have been successfully
215 developed to reconstruct Holocene lake-level changes in Scandinavia (Luoto et al. 2018), in Canada
216 (Barley et al. 2006) and in China (Chang et al. 2017 and Wang et al. 2018).

217 Hence, PCA axis1 (Fig 4) may represent a bathymetric gradient with more positive scores
218 indicating higher lake levels, whereas more negative scores indicate a shallower lake and marshy
219 environments. Alternatively, the same trend may also indicate a transition from deep-water conditions
220 to marsh environments that is not necessarily related to lake-level fluctuations but to the development
221 of aquatic vegetation, from the littoral zone into the central lake basin. Either way, we consider the PCA
222 axis1 scores as an indicator for lake-level changes for the Arjan wetland (Fig 3). In this way, we find a
223 similar chironomid inferred hydrological dynamic already observed in Lake Neor (Fig. 5) located in
224 northwestern Iran (Aubert et al. 2017). At this latter site, high wetland moisture indicating more
225 permanent aquatic conditions are observed between 12,000 and 11,500 years cal BP. The wetland
226 moisture became low between 11,500 and 10,300 years cal BP (Aubert et al. 2017) with the increase in
227 semi-terrestrial taxa indicating ephemeral aquatic conditions on the lake margins.

228 The early Holocene section of our chironomid record shows a drastic fall in lake levels. This
229 suggests a major environmental change in less than 100 years (Fig. 3 and 5); indeed, the Arjan wetland
230 which was a deep lake during the Younger Dryas suddenly transformed into a shallow lake/marsh
231 environment with a well-developed aquatic vegetation at the onset of the Holocene, from *ca.* 11,600
232 years (see aquatic pollen increase in Fig. 3). Increase of *Procladius* spp. is compatible with lower lake
233 levels, since the members of this genus are carnivorous species (Brooks et al. 2007). In fact, in the
234 shrinking lake water bodies, the higher prey concentration may favor the predation regime. Later, a
235 decrease of *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type and slight rise of *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type
236 at the very end of our chironomid record suggest a slight increase in lake levels between 10,350-10,100
237 years cal BP. The persistence of other lacustrine littoral taxa e.g. *Psectrocladius psilopterus*-type.,
238 *Dicrotendipes nervosus*-type and *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type confirms the presence of a well-
239 established aquatic vegetation, suggesting a relatively shallow lake/marsh environment. This notion is
240 supported by higher total organic content (TOC), higher carbon accumulation rates and lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TOC}}$
241 at Lake Neor, NW Iran (Sharifi et al. 2015). The appearance of *Xenochironomus* spp. (Fig. 3) is
242 imperatively associated with freshwater sponge (Pinder and Reiss 1983) also supporting the hypothesis
243 of lake level increase during this period. Higher annual temperatures could explain the higher organic

244 productivity in the Arjan wetland due to development of aquatic vegetation and its associated fauna (e.g.
245 *Dicrotendipes nervosus*-type, *Glyptotendipes pallens*-type) at the very beginning of the Holocene.

246

247 Palaeoclimatic implications

248 In summary, the dominance of *Chironomus plumosus/anthracinus*-type indicates the presence of a deep
249 and most probably stratified lake during Younger-Dryas in Dasht-e Arjan. Several hypotheses could
250 explain such a highstand in Arjan during the YD:

251 (i) The intensity of the Siberian High during the YD was higher compared to the early Holocene
252 (Mayewski et al. 1997; Sharifi et al. 2015). This would have pushed the westerlies to the south providing
253 precipitation over the central and southern Zagros (Sharifi et al. 2018). However, YD pollen
254 assemblages in Arjan are dominated by Amaranthaceae (Chenopodiaceae) with very low relative
255 abundances of Poaceae (Fig. 3), indicating the presence of a typical dry steppe developed under a dry
256 continental climate, exclude this first hypothesis.

257 (ii) Cooler summers during the YD in Northern Hemisphere could also explain higher moisture
258 levels in both Arjan and Neor wetlands. Low YD temperatures would have decreased annual lake water
259 evaporation. Evapo-transpiration was definitely lower under the generally colder temperatures of YD in
260 southern Iran. Fig. 5 compares the chironomid-based lake-level variations of Arjan Wetland (right) with
261 the NGRIP temperature record (North Greenland Ice Core Project members. 2004), and the Ti intensity
262 curve, dust flux concentration curve and the chironomid-based lake-level variations in Lake Neor in
263 northwestern Iran. It is interesting to note that the lake-level records in both Lake Neor and Arjan follow
264 the same trend, which inversely correlates with NGRIP temperature record, suggesting the significance
265 of low temperatures in maintaining high lake levels during the YD.

266

267 **Fig. 5**

268

269 (iii) Changes in the seasonality of precipitation, with increased rainfall during spring/summer
270 months, could also lead to more permanent lake conditions during summer months (Aubert et al. 2017).

271 Indeed, late spring precipitation will permit maintaining higher lake levels during summer and greater
272 humidity on lake margins. Nowadays, in the Arjan region, spring precipitation is lower than in
273 northwestern Iran (Djamali et al. 2012) and regional palaeoclimatic records do not suggest increased
274 spring/summer precipitation brought in by stronger monsoon conditions. They show that increased
275 summer precipitation only began around 11,000 years cal BP peaking at 10,000-6,500 years cal BP and
276 thus postdating the YD (Fleitmann et al. 2007). The hypothesis of a different precipitation seasonality
277 is not satisfactory in explaining the high lake levels at Arjan during the YD.

278 (iv) A further hypothesis, is the presence of small glaciers in the catchment area of Arjan due to
279 significant snowfall during the YD. Melt-waters would have maintained high lake levels during
280 summers. Although no study has so far reported the glacier extensions in the area, the available studies
281 on the last glacial maximum (LGM) glaciers in central Zagros suggest that the maximum descent of
282 glaciers has been at around 2,400 m elevation during the LGM (Ebrahimi & Seif 2016). Presence of
283 high mountains exceeding 2,600 m elevation in the lake catchment basin reinforces this hypothesis.
284 Indeed, glaciers at higher elevations could lead to year-round inflow, or at least summer round inflow
285 as they melt. This would be a distinct difference to Holocene conditions and would not necessitate a
286 change in rainfall seasonality, but would change inflow seasonality. It may also explain why the lake
287 levels fall after the transition to the Holocene, when all glaciers had already melted. A glacio-
288 geomorphological survey to attest the evidence of glacier extension in the Arjan area would be helpful
289 to investigate this. We therefore propose that a combination of lower evaporation due to lower annual
290 temperatures, still significant precipitation due to the occasional penetration of southward-pushed
291 westerlies into the southern Zagros (see Sharifi et al. 2018) and continuous glacier melting in the vicinity
292 of the wetland could explain the high lake levels of Arjan during the YD.

293 (v) Finally, the hydroclimatic processes may not have been the only factor controlling the lake-
294 level changes in Dasht-e Arjan. The complex karstic network of sinkholes in the southern part of the
295 wetland basin could also have played a role in water-level fluctuations. Today, during the highstands,
296 lake water is discharged through these karstic underground galleries preventing the lake level from
297 exceeding a certain altitude corresponding to the sinkhole system in the southeast corner of the basin.
298 The development of this karstic system and its connectivity to adjacent basins (e.g. Lake Parishan basin)

299 possibly accelerated at the beginning of the Holocene. If such a hypothesis is correct, it can be proposed
300 that the early Holocene lake levels would have been much higher if this karstic system had not
301 developed. High-resolution lake level fluctuations at Lake Parishan during the YD-early Holocene may
302 help to test this hypothesis e.g. by the detection of a synchronicity between the lake level fall in Arjan
303 and a lake level rise in Parishan.

304

305 Whatever the case, the YD lake highstand in Arjan adds to the complex hydrological history of
306 the Middle East at the late glacial-early Holocene transition. The hydrological history of each lake basin
307 should be studied by taking into consideration a number of different factors of which climatic change
308 constitutes just one component. For instance, comparing the hydrological evolution of two lake systems
309 in central Anatolia, both located in the same climatic context and most probably experiencing the same
310 hydroclimatic history, shows contrasting trends suggesting that climate was not the only factor
311 controlling lake-level changes. Site-specific factors should also be taken into account when interpreting
312 multi-proxy lake-level reconstructions (Roberts et al. 2016).

313 Dasht-e Arjan Wetland is located in a different climatic context compared to Anatolia and
314 Europe from which numerous lake level reconstructions are available. Moreover, it would have possibly
315 experienced a different climatic history due to its proximity to the monsoonal zone of southern Asia. It
316 is not thus surprising that it presents a different late glacial-Holocene hydrological evolution when
317 compared to the Eastern Mediterranean and Central Asia. Furthermore, as suggested by Roberts et al.
318 (2016), more than one lake record is required to disentangle the changes related to climate change from
319 those related to lake ontogeny. Before a general conclusion on lake hydrological changes in southern
320 Zagros can be drawn, other lake records should thus be established and compared and contrasted with
321 that of Arjan.

322 Southwest Asia shows a more complex hydroclimatic history compared to Europe, best
323 exemplified by the ‘early Holocene precipitation paradox’. Indeed, the geochemical and pollen proxies
324 suggest different hydrological regimes dominated during the early Holocene. While geochemical data
325 suggest generally higher effective moisture, the pollen records indicate a limited expansion of deciduous
326 forest and thus generally drier conditions. A number of hypotheses have been evoked by different

327 scholars to explain this ‘paradox’ including a different precipitation seasonality in the early compared
328 to the late Holocene, a strong early human impact on forest and steppe forest ecosystems, or a mixture
329 of both (e.g. Stevens et al. 2001; Roberts 2002; Jones and Roberts 2008; Djamali et al. 2010). Part of
330 such conflicting interpretations stems from the fact that the current interpretations are mainly based only
331 on pollen and isotopic proxies. The new palaeohydrological indicators (fossil chironomid assemblages)
332 presented in this study furnish additional data on lake-level changes and can help in explaining the
333 hydrological paradoxes outlined above. The sensitivity of proxy records to local versus regional climate
334 variabilities also needs to be investigated to supplement the high potential of chironomids, which may
335 reflect changes in climate and hydrology at the local scale. The capacity of chironomid-based lake level
336 reconstructions to detect high frequency events during the Holocene should therefore be evaluated in
337 future palaeolimnological investigations.

338

339 Conclusions

340 The palaeoecological analysis of subfossil chironomid head capsules revealed a major change
341 in the hydrology of Dasht-e Arjan Wetland at the transition of the Younger Dryas to the onset of the
342 Holocene. In the absence of geochemical proxies from the studied sediment core, the chironomid data
343 helped to reconcile the palaeohydrology of this low-latitude wetland situated in the southern Zagros
344 Mountains. In the Zagros and adjacent highlands, although annual precipitation decreased in a similar
345 manner as the rest of the Northern Hemisphere, the hydrological consequences of lower annual
346 temperatures appear to have maintained higher amounts of water in the wetlands. During the YD, the
347 possible contribution of melt-water from local glaciers to Arjan wetland hydrology shows the necessity
348 to probe the late Quaternary history of glaciers in the Zagros Mountains. At present, it is unclear if such
349 glaciers provided significant water resources during the late glacial period. More late glacial records are
350 still required to understand the spatial patterns of hydrological change in the late Pleistocene-Holocene
351 transition before a regional picture of the hydroclimatic mechanisms driving these changes can be
352 drawn. Although the possible impacts of high effective moisture (high lake levels and aquifers) in the
353 Iranian highlands on the early Neolithic communities was not discussed in the present paper, the data

354 provided in this study, and similar investigations in the Fertile Crescent, will help to better understand
355 the possible roles and explanatory mechanisms in the processes of Neolithisation. In particular,
356 providing a palaeoenvironmental/palaeoclimate context for the beginning of plant/animal domestication
357 and the establishment of the first Neolithic sedentary populations is extremely important.

358 The chironomid-based hydrological reconstruction from Lake Arjan is encouraging. In the
359 future, more quantified data are required for comparisons with regional palaeoclimatic records e.g. the
360 Sea Surface Temperatures of the Arabian Sea or the speleothem records from Southern Asia, Northern
361 Iran, Arabia, and Turkey.

362

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509 **Table:**

510

511 Table 1. ¹⁴C ages obtained and the type of corresponding material (Lake Arjan). Calibrated ages are reported with
512 2-σ ranges. Excluded ages are marked in *italics*.

Laboratory code	Depth (cm)	Material	Age years BP (¹⁴ C)	Age years cal BP (2σ interval)
Poz-Arj148	148	Organic mud	6430 ± 50	7356 (7274-7429)
<i>Poz-Arj478</i>	<i>478</i>	<i>Calcareous mud (bulk)</i>	<i>9280 ± 50</i>	<i>10455 (10287-10612)</i>
Poz-Arj503	503	Gyttja (bulk)	7940 ± 50	10715 (10573-10844)
Poz-Arj614	614	Gyttja (bulk)	10180 ± 50	11869 (11631-12060)
Poz-Arj671	671	Gyttja (bulk)	11880 ± 60	12408 (12255-12536)
<i>Poz-Arj756</i>	<i>756</i>	Plant remains	<i>11370 ± 60</i>	<i>13212 (13099-13332)</i>

513

514 **Figure captions:**

515

516 Figure 1: A. Location of Dasht-e Arjan Wetland and Lake Neor in Iranian plateau. B. The fault system
517 controlling the subsidence of the Arjan Basin with the position of the coring site. C. Climate diagram of
518 Shiraz. D. Dasht-e Arjan during a lowstand with the position of coring site (Source: Google Earth;
519 Landsat/Copernicus (B dating to 12/1987) and CNES/Airbus (C dating to 12/2016)).

520

521 Figure 2. Lithostratigraphic log and age-depth model for the whole core (upper right) with a detailed
522 focus on the studied section from Dasht-e Arjan Wetland. The chironomid record presented here
523 corresponds to the depths of 630 to 550 cm (12 000 to 11 200 years cal BP).

524

525 Figure 3. Synthetic subfossil chironomid diagram from the Lake Arjan record (left) compared to pollen
526 records for the same section of the same core (see Hosseini et al., 2017 for a detailed pollen diagram).
527 The zonation pollen diagram was made visually. Profundal taxa: inhabit profundal zones of lake. Littoral
528 taxa: inhabit littorals margins of lake. Other taxa: indifferent to depth or no documented ecological
529 affinities.

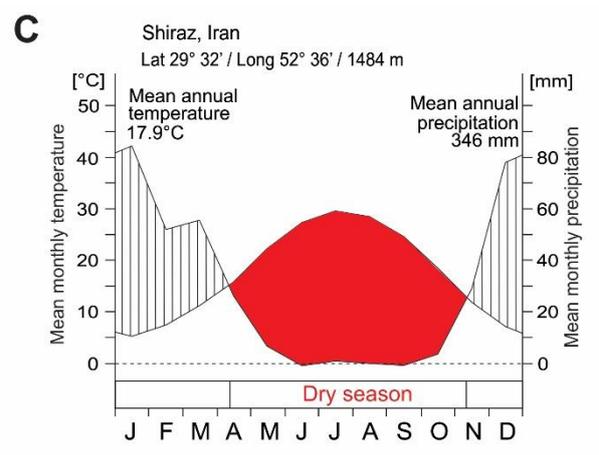
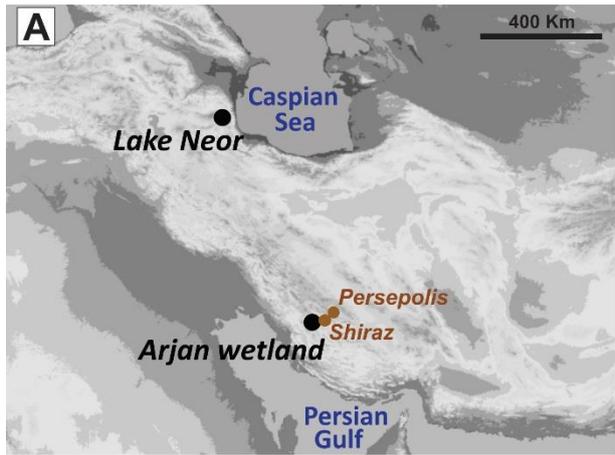
530

531 Figure 4. Scatter plots for PCA scores of chironomid assemblages in the late glacial-Early Holocene
532 transition sediments of Dasht-e Arjan Wetland core showing the variable factor map of PCA (A) and
533 contribution of different variables (taxa) to axis 1 (B) and axis 2 (C).

534

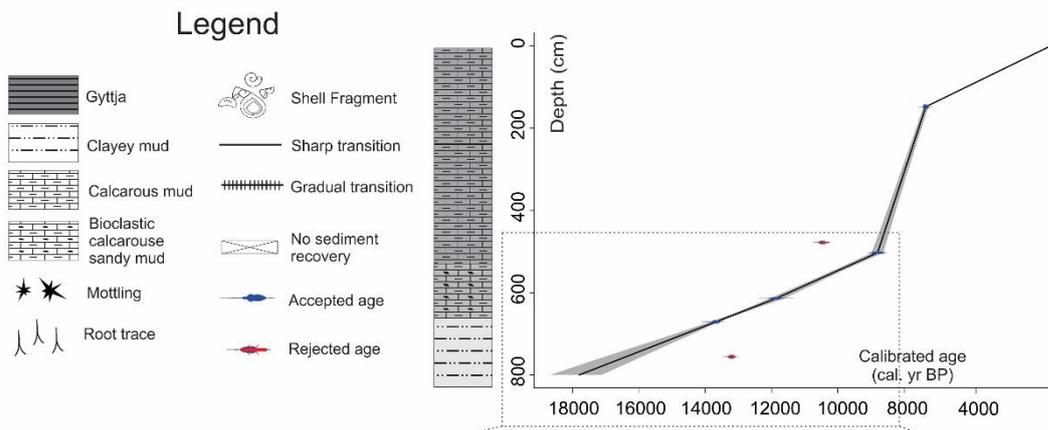
535 Figure 5. Comparison of the abundance of the sum of the deep water chironomid taxa between Lake
536 Arjan and Lake Neor (Aubert et al. 2017) compared with temperature variations in Greenland (NGRIP
537 record: North Greenland Ice Core Project members (2004) and aeolian activity in Lake Neor (Sharifi et
538 al. 2015).

539

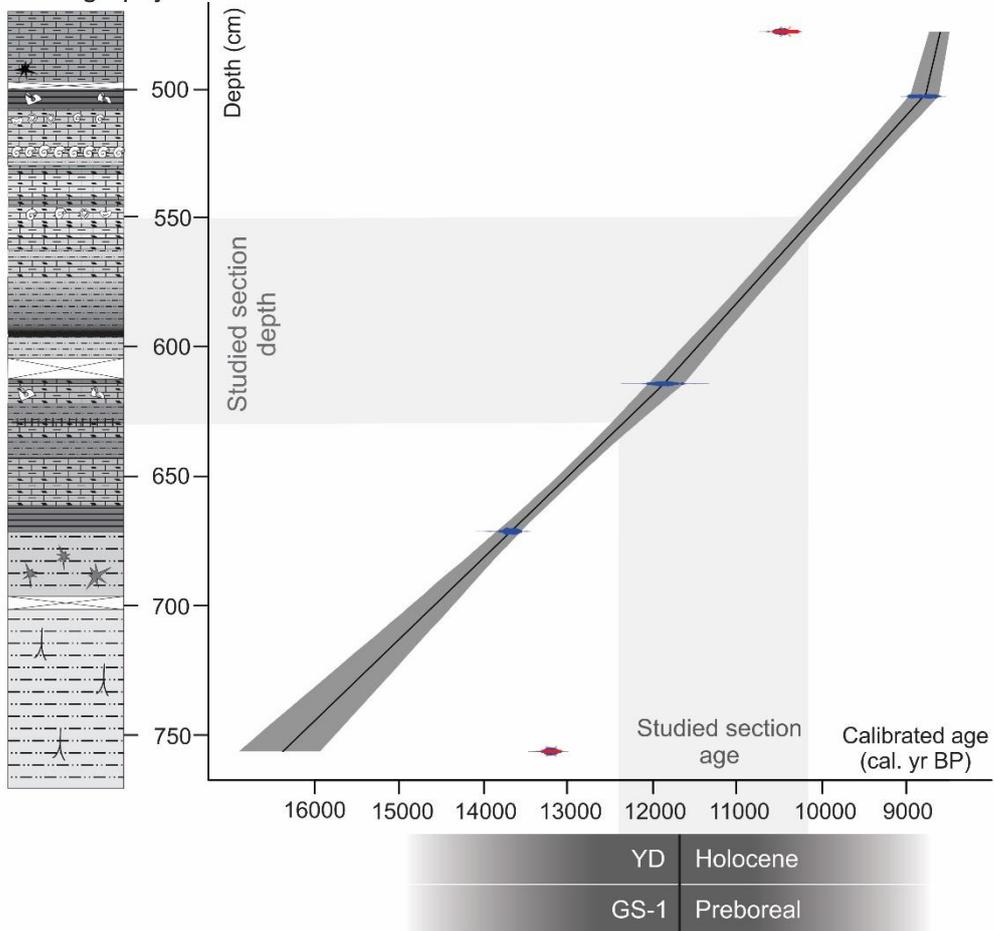


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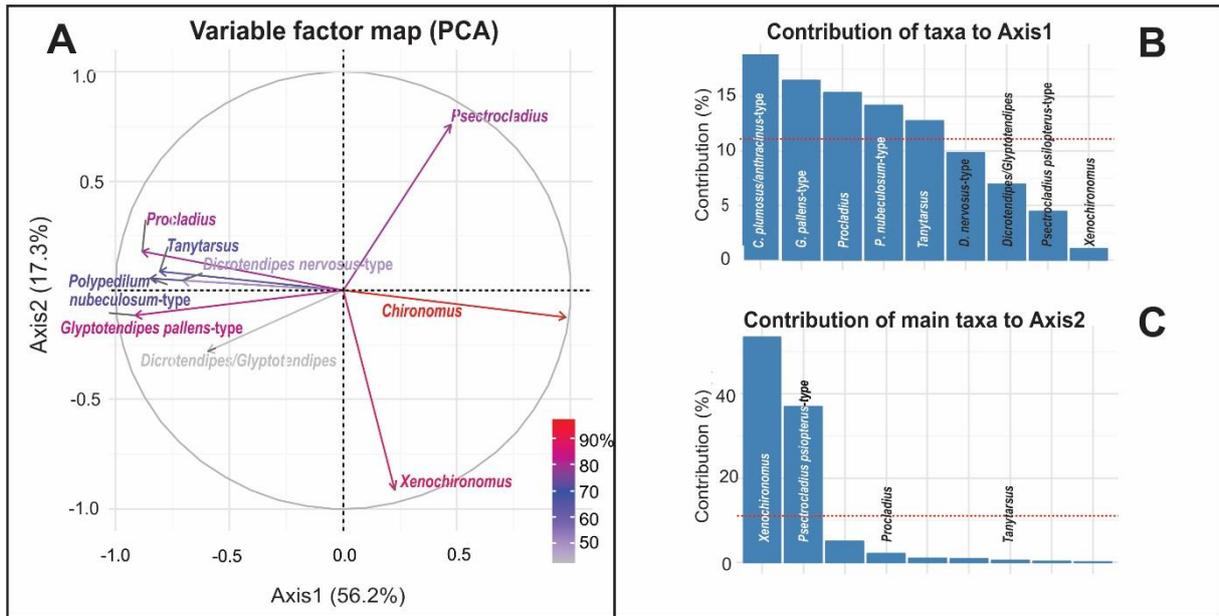


Lithostratigraphy



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