- Reconstructing land temperaturehydroclimate changes of
- 2 the past 2,500 years using speleothems from Pyrenean
- 3 caves (NE Spain)
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Abstract. Reconstructing of past temperatureshydroclimates at regional scales during the Common Era (CE) is necessary to place the current warming in the context of natural climate variability. Here we present a composite record of oxygen isotope variations during last 2500 years based on eight stalagmites from four caves in the central Pyrenees (NE Spain) dominated by temperature variations, with precipitation playing a minor role. The dataset is compared with other Iberian reconstructions that show a high degree of internal coherence with respect to variability at the centennial scale. The Roman Period (RP) (especially 0-200 ADCE), the Medieval Climate Anomaly, (MCA), and part of the Little Ice Age (LIA) represent the warmest periods, while the coldest decades occurred during the Dark Ages (DA) and most of the Little Ice AgeLIA intervals (e.g., 520-550 ADCE and 1800-1850 ADCE). Importantly, the LIA cooling or the MCA warming were not continuous or uniform and exhibited high decadal variability. The Industrial Era (IE) shows an overall warming trend although with marked cycles and partial stabilization during the last two

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- decades (1990-2010). The strong coherence between the speleothem data, European temperature reconstructions and global tree-ring data informs about the regional representativeness of this new record as Pyrenean past temperatureclimate variations. Solar variability, likely through its impact on the North Atlantic Oscillation, and major volcanic eruptions appear to be the two main drivers of climate in southwestern Europe during the past 2.5 millennia.
- 53 Keywords. Iberian Peninsula, Central Pyrenees, late Holocene, stalagmite, temperature reconstruction

1. Introduction

Global surface temperatures in the first two decades of the 21^{st} century (2001–2020) were 0.84 to 1.10 °C warmer than 1850–1900 ADCE (IPCC, 2021). There is strong evidence that anthropogenic global warming is unprecedented in terms of absolute temperatures and spatial consistency over the past 2000 yr (Ahmed et al., 2013; Konecky et al., 2020)(Ahmed et al., 2013; Konecky et al., 2020). On the contrary, pre-industrial temperatures were less spatially coherent, and further work is needed to explain the regional expression of climate change (Mann, 2021; Neukom et al., 2019)(Mann, 2021; Neukom et al., 2019). Obtaining new and high-quality records in terms of resolution, dating and regional representativeness is thus critical for characterizing natural climate variability on decadal to centennial scales (PAGES2k Consortium et al., 2017).

High mountains are particularly sensitive regions to climate change and among them the Pyrenees occupy a crucial frontier position in southern Europe, influenced by both Mediterranean and Atlantic climates. In the Pyrenees, the temperature has increased by more than 1.5°C since 1882, as shown by the longest time series from the Pic du Midi observatory (Bücher and Dessens, 1991; Dessens and Bücher, 1995). Recent studies confirm this warming trend, showing an increase of 0.1 °C per decade during the last century in Central Pyrenees (Pérez-Zanón et al., 2017), or even 0.28°C per decade if only the 1959-2015 period is considered (Observatorio Pirenaico de Cambio Global, 2018). Long-term snow depth observations (starting in 1955) show a statistically significant decline, especially at elevations above 2000 m a.s.l. (López-Moreno et al., 2020). This fact, together with the increase in temperature, has caused the glaciated area in the Pyrenees to decrease by 21.9% in the last decade (Vidaller et al., 2021), changing from 2060 ha during the Little Ice Age (LIA) to 242 ha in 2016 (Rico et al., 2017). Recent studies on one of the emblematic glaciers in the Pyrenees, the Monte Perdido glacier, show that the current ice retreat is unprecedent in the last 2000 years, as this glacier survived previous warm periods such as the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA) and the Roman Period (RP) (Moreno et al., 2021b).

The study of sediment records from lakes in the Pyrenees, where considerable variations in water level, water chemistry, and biological processes have occurred due to changes in effective moisture and temperature, is an excellent approach to reconstruct past climate variability (González-Sampériz et al., 2017). Recently, a comprehensive study in six high altitude Pyrenean lakes indicates unprecedented changes in the lithogenic and organic carbon fluxes since 1950 CE, suggesting an increase in algal productivity likely favoured by warmer temperatures and higher nutrient deposition associated to the Great Acceleration (Vicente de Vera García et al., 2023). Atlantie, a period when human-driven global, social, technological, and environmental changes intensifying dramatically (Steffen et al., 2015). Marine records off the Iberian coast show a clear long-term cooling trend, from 0 CE to the beginning of the 20th century, probably reflecting the decline in Northern Hemisphere summer insolation that began after the Holocene optimum (Abrantes et al., 2017). Unfortunately, it is not possible to record decadal temperature—decadal changes from the studied proxies of these lake or marine records, so other archives allowing higher chronological robustness and larger resolution are required.

The Central Pyrenees are largely composed of limestones and host numerous caves, some of which are rich in speleothems, thus making it possible to reconstruct the past climate by studying stalagmites from different caves. Unfortunately, despite the high potential of stalagmite with annually to sub-annual resolution in the Common Era (CE)₁₂, it is extremely difficult to obtain high-resolution and well-replicated records. In most cases, the CE period spans only a few centimetres, limiting the number of samples drilled

- 96 for high-precision U-Th dating (PAGES Hydro2k Consortium, 2017). In addition to this chronological 97 challenge, the interpretation of oxygen isotopes of speleothems ($\delta^{18}O_c$) from southern Europe is also 98 complex (Moreno et al., 2021a)(Moreno et al., 2021a). Recent studies of Pyrenean stalagmites covering the 99 last deglaciation indicate the important role of changes in annual temperature in the variability of $d^{+8}O_{e}\delta^{18}O_{e}$ 100 (Bartolomé et al., 2015a; Bernal-Wormull et al., 2021). However, correct interpretation of $e^{\frac{1}{2}}\Theta_{e}\delta^{18}O_{e}$ 101 proxies requires a sound understanding of the influence of climate variables on carbonate deposition in caves through monitoring (e.g. Pérez-Mejías et al., 2018) and calibration to the instrumental period 102 103 (Mangini et al., 2005; Tadros et al., 2022).
- 104 In this study, we provide high-resolution $d^{18}\Theta_{e}\delta^{18}O_{c}$ data for eight stalagmites from four different caves in 105 the Central Pyrenees, allowing us to construct a stacked curve of climate variability for the last 2500 years 106 with potential regional representativeness. These eight stalagmites allow climate changes during the CE to 107 be studied in reasonably robust chronological framework. Monitoring and calibration of $e^{HS}O_{c}$ with 108 instrumental data for the two youngest stalagmites suggests that the $d^{18}O_{c}\underline{\delta}^{18}\underline{O}_{c}$ variability—as primarily 109 reflects annual temperatures, while precipitation played a role during certain periods. This new record 110 represents an excellent opportunity to characterize natural temperature changes in this region on decadal to 111 centennial scales for the last 2500 years and compare them with other approaches to examine their regional 112 representativeness.

113 2. Study sites

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2.1. Geological setting, climate and vegetation

- 115 This study of speleothems is located in the central sector of the Pyrenees, in northeastern Iberia (Fig.
- 117 Monte Perdido National Park, formed in Mesozoic and Cenozoic limestones and at different altitudes (Fig.
- 118 +C1c). This area has a steep topography due to the high altitudinal gradient and constitutes the largest
- limestone massif in Europe (with 22 peaks above 3000 m a.s.l.).
- 120 The climate is Mediterranean according to the Köppen classification. However, the high relief influences
- 121 the climate of this high-altitude area which is accurately described as humid sub-Mediterranean because of
- $122 \qquad \text{higher rainfall than the typically Mediterranean climate, particularly for the caves above } 1000\,\text{m}\,\text{a.s.l.} \text{ where}$
- 123 annual precipitation is above 1000-1200mm and falls mostly as snow. In lower altitude caves (e.g. Seso
- 124 Cave) mean annual precipitation is 900 mm, concentrated in spring and fall. Mean air temperatures range
- from 0.5 to 15°C, depending on the altitude.
- Around the caves, in the valleys, there are mid-mountain forests dominated by *Pinus sylvestris* and *Quercus*
- ilex, as well as shrublands, whereas the highlands are characterized by exposed rock with sparse vegetation
- such as meadows.

2.2. Cave locations

- 130 Seso cave (42°27'23.08''N; 0°02'23.18"E, 794 m a.s.l.) is formed in the eastern flank of the Boltaña
- Anticline, close to Boltaña village. The cave developed in unsoluble marly strata between limestone beds
- of Eocene age. The cave system consists of two longitudinal shallow galleries (2-33m of limestone
- thickness over the cave) controlled by the bedding and the main set of joints. Formation of this shallow
- 134 cave involved the mechanical removal of large amounts of marl under vadose conditions which took place
- about 60-40 ka BP (Bartolomé et al., 2015b). Subsequently, calcite speleothems formed which became
- more abundant during the Holocene. Average annual temperature inside Seso cave is ~11.8°C.
- Las Gloces cave (42°35'40" N, 0°1'41'W, 14001243 m a.s.l.) is located on the border of the Ordesa
- National Park, next to Fanlo village. The cave formed in limestones of Early Eocene age. The limestone's
- thickness above the cave is ~20-30 m. Two galleries form the cave. The upper one preserves phreatic

- 140 features and hosts the majority of speleothems located in a small room, while vadose morphologies
- 141 characterize the lower gallery. Average annual temperature where the stalagmites were taken is ~ 9.8 °C
- 142 B-1 cave (42°36'0.2"N; 0°7'46"E; 1090 m a.s.l.) is the lower entrance of the Las Fuentes de Escuaín
- 143 karstic system, and acts as the collector of all water drained by the system. This system comprises more
- 144 than 40 km of galleries and shows a vertical extension of -1150 m. It drains an area of ~15 km² and
- developed mostly in Eocene limestones. Since a river runs through the cave, several detrital sequences 145
- 146 appear, as well as, speleothems, affected by floods. The cave is then well ventilated and shows annual
- 147 temperature variations in response to the seasonal ventilation changes and seasonal flooding. The studied
- 148 sample was obtained in a fossil gallery, not currently influenced by flooding- and with an average annual
- 149 temperature of ~9.5°C.
- 150 Pot au Feu cave (42°31.48' N; 0°14.26' W; 996 m a.s.l.) is located in the Irués river valley in the Cotiella
- 151 massif. The host rock is an Upper Cretaceous limestone, Hydrogeologically, the cave belongs to the high
- 152 mountain unconfined karst Cotiella-Turbón aquifer but located in a non-active level. The cave comprises
- 153 horizontal galleries and small rooms connected by shafts formed by phreatic circulation. Some rooms are
- 154 well-decorated by large speleothems. The limestone thickness over the gallery where the stalagmite was
- 155 collected is approximately 800 m.

2.3. Cave climate

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- 157 Understanding the modern microclimatic and hydrological conditions of caves is import for a sound
- 158 interpretation of speleothem proxy data (Genty et al., 2014; Lachniet, 2009; Moreno et al., 2014).
- 159 Particularly, the transfer of the stable isotopic signal from the rainfall to the dripwater and, eventually, to
- 160 the studied stalagmite is influenced by different processes in the atmosphere, soil and epikarst. Our
- 161 preliminary results for the Pyrenees show a seasonal pattern of precipitation isotopes consistent with the
- 162 annual temperature cycle (Moreno et al., 2021b). Moreno et al., 2021b). These data also suggest an
- 163 interannual temperature-δ¹⁸O relationship of 0.47%/°C (Giménez et al., 2021) that is only partially
- 164 compensated by the -0.18 %/°C due to the water-calcite isotope fractionation (Tremaine et al., 2011) thus
- 165 allowing to use $\delta^{18}O$ in speleothems as a temperature indicator in this region (see also Bartolomé et al.,
- 166 2015a; Bernal-Wormull et al., 2021).
- 167 From the four studied caves, the best monitored one is Seso cave where a detailed monitoring survey was
- 168 conducted including analyses of $\delta^{18}O$ variability in rainfall, soil water, dripwater and farmed calcite
- 169 (Bartolomé, 2016). Seso cave developed under just few metres of rock, while the other caves are much
- 170 deeper, allowing a faster response to rainfall variability in Seso dripwaters and speleothems. Monitoring
- 171 carried out in Seso cave indicates a relationship -between temperature and $\delta^{18}O$ of rainfall observed at
- 172 seasonal scale and while rainfall isotopic composition is slightly modulated by the precipitation (Bartolomé
- 173 et al., 2015a).

174 3. Methods

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3.1. Speleothem samples

- 176 This study is based on eight stalagmites from four different caves in Central Pyrenees (Fig. 4-1c, Table 1).
- 177 The specimens were cut parallel to the growth axis and the central segment was sampled for U-Th dating,
- 178 stable isotopes (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) and Mg/Ca. Furthermore, the 14 C-activity of multiple samples from the top
- 179 of stalagmites MIC and XEV (both from Seso cave and underneath active drips) was determined in order
- 180 to detect the atmospheric bomb peak induced by the nuclear tests in 1945-1963.
- 181 Four small stalagmites were obtained from Seso cave, all showing fine laminations consisting of pairs of
- 182 dark-compact and light-porous laminae, but difficult to count due to their irregular pattern. The four Seso
- 183 stalagmites show medium to high porosity in some intervals, usually more frequent towards the top. MIC
- 184 (8.5 cm long) and XEV (26 cm long, composed of two stacked stalagmites — Appendix Fig. \$1.AA1.a)
- 185 were sampled from base to top. In stalagmites CHA (8.5 cm long) and in CLA (10.5 cm long), the

- 186 uppermost interval was discarded due to the poor chronological control and associated to a possible hiatus
- 187 above a macroscopic discontinuity (Fig. S1.AA1.a).
- 188 Stalagmites ISA (13.5 cm long, with a visual hiatus at 7 cm above the base) and LUC (23.3 cm long, also
- 189 with a hiatus at 12.5 cm above the base) were sampled in Las Gloces cave (Fig. S1.BA1.b). Both are candle-
- 190 shaped with a slight tilt in the growth axis above their respective hiatus. One stalagmite, TAR, was obtained
- from B1 cave which is an overgrowth over an older stalagmite composed of 7.5 cm of white carbonate that 191
- 192 is slightly laminated towards the top (Fig. S1.CA1.c). Finally, a 80 cm-long stalagmite (JAR) was obtained
- 193 from Pot au Feu cave. It is candle-shaped, laminated and lacklacks macroscopic hiatuses (Fig. \$1.DA1.d).

3.2. Stable isotope and Mg/Ca analyses

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- 195 Samples for stable isotopic (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) analyses were microdrilled at 1-mm resolution along the growth
- 196 axis of seven of the eight speleothems (JAR from Pot au Feu was sampled every 5 mm) using a 0.5 mm
- 197 tungsten carbide dental bur. One The first batch of the isotopic analyses was analysed at the University of
- 198 Barcelona (Scientific-Technical Services), Spain, using a Finnigan-MAT 252 mass spectrometer, linked to
- 199 a Kiel Carbonate Device III, with a reproducibility of 0.02% for $\delta^{13}C$ and 0.06% for $\delta^{18}O$. Calibration to
- 200 Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) was carried out by means of the NBS-19 standard. A second batch was
- 201 analysed at the University of Innsbruck using a ThermoFisher Delta V Plus isotope ratio mass spectrometer
- 202 coupled to a ThermoFisher GasBench II. Calibration of the instrument was accomplished using
- 203 international reference materials and the results are also reported relative to VPDB. Long-term precision
- 204 on the 1-sigma level is 0.06% and 0.08% for $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$, respectively (Spötl, 2011).
- 205 The elemental chemical composition was analysed in the eight stalagmites (every 1 mm in Las Gloces,
- 206 Seso and B1 stalagmites and every 5 mm in JAR from Pot au Feu cave) using matrix-matched standards on
- 207 an inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometer (Thermo ICAP DUO 6300 at the Pyrenean
- 208 Institute of Ecology) following the procedure described in Moreno et al. (2010). Reported ratios are from
- 209 measurement of Ca (315.8 nm) and Mg (279.5 nm), all in radial mode.

3.3. U-Th dating and ¹⁴C bomb peak

- 211 A total of 55 samples were prepared for U-Th dating, according to the U and Th chemical procedures
- 212 described in Edwards et al. (1987). Sample portions characterized by high porosity and voids were avoided
- 213 to minimize the effect of open system behaviour and possible age inversions. From those 55 samples, 45
- 214 were measured at the University of Minnesota (USA) and at the Xian' Jiaotong University (China) while
- 215 10 samples were analysed at the University of Melbourne (Australia) (samples of JAR) using the
- 216 methodology described in Hellstrom (2006). In the three laboratories, measurements were performed using
- 217 a MC-ICP-MS (Thermo-Finnigan Neptune or Nu Instruments) following previously described methods
- 218 (Cheng et al., 2013).
- 219 Due to the low U content (Table 2), the U-Th ages are not precise enough to obtain an accurate chronology
- 220 for the recent speleothem growth (see large errors in top samples in Fig. \$\frac{\$+A1}{}). Therefore, the ¹⁴C "bomb
- 221 peak" method was applied to the MIC and XEV stalagmites that were actively growing in Seso cave at the
- 222 time of collection (2010 and 2013, respectively), confirmed by U/Th ages, albeit of low precision. We
- 223 drilled 10 and 8 subsamples for MIC and XEV, respectively (Fig. 2a and b), and 14C activities were
- 224 measured using a novel online sampling and analysis method combining laser ablation with accelerator
- 225 mass spectrometry (LA-AMS) at the ETH Zurich (Welte et al., 2016). LA-AMS allows to produce spatially
- 226 resolved 14C profiles of carbonate minerals with a precision of 1% for modern samples. The background
- measured on ^{14}C -free marble (F $^{14}\text{C} = 0.011 \pm 0.002$) is low and reference carbonate material is well 227
- 228
- reproduced. This method relies on the exploitation of the global anthropogenic increase in atmospheric 14C 229 resulting from nuclear testing predominately in the 1950s and 1960s CE as a chronological marker in the
- 230 mid to late 20th Century (e.g., Genty et al., 1998; Hua et al., 2012). Atmospheric 14C concentrations began
- 231 to rise in 1955 CE, peaking in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) in 1963 AD. Atmospheric 14C concentrations
- 232 began to rise in 1955 CE, peaking in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) in 1963 CE (Reimer, 2004). Because

80 to 90% of the carbon found in most speleothems comes from soil CO₂, this being linked to atmosphere CO₂, it is likely that speleothem ¹⁴C activity is close to the atmospheric ¹⁴C activity or at least to the soil activity (Markowska et al., 2019). Thus, the point where the ¹⁴C concentration begins to rise, the highest concentration point, and the date when the speleothem was removed from the cave (if actively dripping) waswere used as chronological anchor points (Fig. 2a and b).

3.4. Age model

Age models were produced using StalAge software (Scholz and Hoffmann, 2011) for the eight speleothems (Fig. S+A1) using the U-Th dates presented in Table 2. In the ISA stalagmite, one date was discarded due to the large error (indicated in red in Table 2). During several intervals, two or more stalagmites grew contemporaneously, allowing to test the reproducibility of the proxy records. We made the a priori assumption that the δ^{18} O data of the selected stalagmites record a common rainfall and temperature signal, given that these caves arewere only 20 km apart (Fig.+C1c). Then, the records are combined with *Iscam* (Fohlmeister, 2012), a method that correlates dated proxy signals from several stalagmites, determines the most probable age-depth model, and calculates the age uncertainty for the combined record.

In order to minimize the effect of different absolute isotopic values and ranges of individual stalagmite data series, we detrended and normalized the δ^{18} O series using *Iscam*. Doing so, the interpretation of absolute values will be precluded. Regarding the other parameters that can be changed in *Iscam*, we used point-wise linear interpolation, 1000 Monte Carlo simulations and the smoothing window was fixed at 10 years. The stalagmites were included in the *Iscam* composite record from the oldest to the youngest one as was the order that provided the highest correlation coefficients: JAR- LUC – ISA -TAR – CHA – CLA -XEV and MIC. The ISA sample was treated as two parts (ISA top and ISA base) to account for the hiatus, while LUC was regarded as only one as StalAge does not suggest a hiatus in this stalagmite (Fig. S+A1.b). For the two stalagmites that were active when collected, MIC and XEV, we also produced a composite record for the last 200 years using *Iscam* (Fig. 2c).

In order to explore correlations among stalagmites from the same caves, we repeated the procedure to obtain a composite record for the four stalagmites from Seso cave (CHA, CLA, XEV and MIC) (Fig. S2) and the two from Las Gloces cave (ISA and LUC) (Fig. S3). In those two cases, we did not detrend or normalize the individual records since they belong to the same cave and show the same range of δ^{18} O values. These four records (composite records from Las Gloces and Seso caves, and individual stalagmites from Pot au Feu and B1 caves) are show in Fig. 3 and compared to the final composite record. The composite δ^{18} O record is used in this article as a proxy record for the Central Pyrenees climate of last 2500 years. A2) and the two from Las Gloces cave (ISA and LUC) (Fig. A3). In those two cases, we did not detrend or normalize the individual records since they belong to the same cave and show the same range of δ^{18} O values. These four records (composite records from Las Gloces and Seso caves, and individual stalagmites from Pot au Feu and B1 caves) are show in Fig. 3 and compared to the final composite record. The composite δ^{18} O record is used in this article as a proxy record for the Central Pyrenees climate of last 2500 years. We have used approximate onset and end of five time subperiods, following previous literature (eg. Sánchez-López et al., 2016); the end of the RP at 450 CE; DA (450-850 CE), MCA (850-1250 CE), LIA (1250-1950 CE) and IE (since 1850 CE).

3.5. Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were carried out using PAST software (Hammer et al., 2001). The δ^{18} O series and the instrumental climatic series were first resampled (linear interpolation) to obtain the same regular spacing (annual). Then, correlation was computed using Spearman's rank correlation analysis, a nonparametric measure as an alternative to Pearson correlation analysis. This analysis was preferred to account for nonlinear relationships, with r indicating the correlation coefficient and p-value, the probability value of that correlation. The Bonferroni test was applied to prevent data from spuriously appearing as statistically significant by making an adjustment during comparison testing (PAST software; Hammer et al., 2001).

4. Results

4.1. Age models and composite record

4.1.1. Detection of the bomb peak and composite record of the last 200 years

Stalagmites MIC and XEV from Seso cave were actively dripping when removed from the cave (in 2010 and 2013, respectively). Calcite deposited on glass plates placed below the two dripping points and collected seasonally until 2021 demonstrates that the drip water is supersaturated with respect to calcite and suggests that the top layer of both stalagmites was formed during the respective collection year (Fig. 2). Therefore, these two stalagmites were analysed for their ¹⁴C activity to identify the "bomb peak" and improve the age model.

A strong increase in the ¹⁴C activity is registered in the MIC and XEV stalagmites at 16 mm and 40 mm depth from top (dft), respectively (Fig. 2a and b) with a rise in the fraction modern F¹⁴C, interpreted as the start of the mid-20th century atmospheric bomb peak. This allows to definedefining the year 1955 ADCE, within ±2yr uncertainties, at 16 mm dft in MIC and 40 mm dft in XEV (Fig. 2). All radiocarbon bomb peaks published from speleothems show that the response of speleothem ¹⁴C activity to the increase in atmospheric radiocarbon activity occurred nearly simultaneously. However, whether the ¹⁴C activity peak in a speleothem can be assigned to the year 1963 ADCE depends on the soil properties and the thickness of the rock above the cave, as well as the delay in the transfer of the atmospheric ¹⁴C signal to the speleothem (Fohlmeister et al., 2011; Hua et al., 2017). In the case of Seso cave, which is just 2-3 m below the surface and the soils are patchy and thin (Bartolomé, 2016), the transfer of the ¹⁴C signal was likely fast. We therefore place the year 1963 ADCE, within ±2yr uncertainties, at 11 mm dft in MIC and at 25 mm dft in XEV (Fig. 2a and b).

Since the two stalagmites MIC and XEV are the only ones in this study whose records extend to modern times, we compare them with the instrumental record in order to improve the interpretation of the stable isotope data. Thus, MIC and XEV $\delta^{18}O$ data were first combined using *Iscam* (Fig. 2c). Using the parameters indicated in Methods (section 3.3), but without normalizing the records (both stalagmites belong to the same cave and show the same range of $\delta^{18}O$ values) the correlation of stalagmites MIC and XEV provided by *Iscam* software (r) is 0.81 (95% significance). This composite $\delta^{18}O$ record covers the last 200 years and has an amplitude of 0.9 %. The main feature (Fig. 2c) is a trend towards less negative values (indicated by a polynomial line in Fig. 2c).

4.1.2. StalAge models and Iscam stack

- Age models obtained by StalAge for individual stalagmites indicate that the growth rate was quite stable,
 except of ISA and LUC, both from Las Gloces cave, where the growth rate changed after hiatuses (Fig.
 S+A1.B). The temporal resolution of the stable isotope data allows to explore changes occurring on a
 decadal scale (Table 1).
- Using the parameters for constructing a composite record using Iscam (see Methods), correlation (r) value (95% significance) of stalagmite JAR and LUC is 0.48, 0.67 between ISA_base and the combined stack of JAR-LUC, 0.65 between ISA_top and the previous stack, 0.74 between TAR and the previous stack, 0.79 between CHA and the previous stack, 0.95 between CLA and the previous stack, 0.71 between XEV and the previous stack and finally, 0.53 between MIC and the previous stack. These values demonstrate a statistically significant correlation among the individual stalagmites and a higher correlation than between the original time series. The composite δ^{18} O record was compared to the composite records from Seso (Fig. \$3A3) and Las Gloces (Fig. \$4A4) caves and the two individual stalagmites from the other two caves (Fig. 3). This comparison shows that many of the main features of the original records are also well recorded in the composite (Fig. 3). One example is the interval 530-550 ADCE during the Dark Ages characterized by relatively low $\delta^{18}O$ values in Las Gloces and Pot au Feu cave records (black arrows in Fig. 3), or the interval

at the end of the LIA (1675-1750 ADCE) with less negative δ^{18} O values in Seso, B1 and Las Gloces cave records (this interval is recorded in five stalagmites: CHA, XEV, TAR, LUC and ISA, Figs. S+A1).

4.2. Individual isotopic and Mg/Ca profiles and composite δ¹⁸O record

The isotopic ($\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$) and Mg/Ca profiles are shown for the eight stalagmites, using their StalAge models (Fig. S1A1) for the four caves studied (Seso, Las Gloces, B1 and Pot au Feu). In general, $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ are not well correlated (r=~0.23-0.34; p-values indicating no significant correlation) with the exception of TAR (r > 0.8) and CHA (r=0.5). Generally, $\delta^{13}C$ is better correlated with Mg/Ca pointing to a hydrological link of these proxies, via changes in prior calcite precipitation (PCP) associated with the longer residence time of the water in the soil and epikarst during dry periods (Genty et al., 2006; Moreno et al., 2010). A similar interpretation was suggested for other Holocene records from northeastern Spanish caves, such as speleothems from Molinos Ejulve caves in the Iberian Range (Moreno et al., 2017)A similar interpretation was suggested for other Holocene records from northeastern Spanish caves, such as speleothems from Molinos-Ejulve caves in the Iberian Range (Moreno et al., 2017) and records covering the last deglaciation in the Pyrenees (Bartolomé et al., 2015a). However, $\delta^{13}C$ and Mg/Ca are highly variable in absolute values and patterns among caves, and further studies are required to better constrain the climate-proxy transfer functions for two parameters. Therefore, we base our paleoclimate interpretations on the oxygen isotopes which are known to show a more robust response to regional climate change.

The composite $\delta^{18}O$ record for the Central Pyrenees of the last 2500 years is shown in Fig. 3. The highest $\delta^{18}O$ values of last 2500 years were reached during the Roman Period (RP) (50 BCBCE-250 ADCE). The MCA is characterized by two intervals of relatively high values (900-950 ADCE and 1150-1250 ADCE) and also the LIA shows a one such interval (1675-1750 ADCE). In contrast, the Dark Ages are characterised by consistently low values. In fact, the most negative interval of last 2500 years is reached at ~520 ADCE, a well-known cold episode related to volcanic eruptions (see section 5.2). A long interval with low $\delta^{18}O$ values corresponds to the onset of the LIA (1250-1500 ADCE, with two very negative excursions) as well as the end of the LIA (1750-1850 ADCE). The most remarkable feature of the MCA and LIA is the large centennial-scale variability. In fact, the LIA has a clear tripartite pattern, with two intervals of low values at the onset and end and less negative values in between. In contrast, the MCA pattern, although also tripartite, it is characterized by two intervals of less negative values at the onset and end, and a short period of low values in between. An interval with high $\delta^{18}O$ values is observed since 1950 ADCE (Fig. 3).

356 5. Discussion

5.1. Interpretation of δ¹⁸O data

Under equilibrium conditions, the $\delta^{18}O$ value of speleothem carbonate is related to just two variables: the $\delta^{18}O$ value of the drip water, and the cave temperature through its control on equilibrium isotope fractionation between water and calcite (Lachniet, 2009). Over the CE, air temperature in a given cave likely changed very little (< 1 °C corresponding to ~0.18‰ in stalagmite $\delta^{18}O$, following Tremaine et al., 2011) (PAGES Hydro2k Consortium, 2017) such that the observed $\delta^{18}O$ variations in these Pyrenean speleothems of more than 1‰ are governed primarily by the $\delta^{18}O$ variability of the drip water.

For a constant sea-surface $d^{18}O_{sw}$ value, as it is expected for this time period, event-scale monitoring of the isotopic composition of oxygen in the rainwater ($\delta^{18}O_{e}$) in different areas of the Iberian Peninsula constrains some of the drivers of rainfall isotopic fractionation (Moreno et al., 2021b). Recent rainfall monitoring surveys in the Central Pyrenees indicate that the values of $\delta^{48}O_{e}$ show a dependence on temperature equivalent to 0.47–0.52‰/°C, depending on the station (Giménez et al., 2021; Moreno et al., 2021a). This dependence is only partially offset by the empirical value of isotope fractionation during calcite precipitation (-0.18‰/°C; Tremaine et al., 2011) thus allowing to consider temperature as one important factor controlling $\delta^{18}O$ variability over the last 2500 years. Thus, we consider that $\delta^{18}O_{ew}$ is driven the $\delta^{18}O_{e}$

signal in the stalagmites and, very likely, air temperature is the dominant factor in modulating its variability along last 2500 years due to the $\delta^{48}O_r$ large dependence on temperature in this region.

The $\delta^{18}O$ composite record, based on the combination of MIC and XEV $\delta^{18}O$ data, provides the opportunity to correlate with instrumental temperature data (Fig. S4). TemperatureFor a constant sea-surface $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ value, as it is expected for this time period, event-scale monitoring of the isotopic composition of oxygen in the rainwater ($\delta^{18}O_r$) in different areas of the Iberian Peninsula constrains some of the drivers of rainfall isotopic fractionation (Moreno et al., 2021b). Recent rainfall monitoring surveys in the Central Pyrenees indicate that the values of $\delta^{18}O_r$ show an interannual dependence on temperature equivalent to 0.47–0.52‰/°C, depending on the site (Giménez et al., 2021; Moreno et al., 2021a). This dependence is only partially offset by the empirical value of isotope fractionation during calcite precipitation (-0.18%/°C; Tremaine et al., 2011) thus allowing to consider temperature as one important factor driving $\delta^{18}O$ variability. Apparently, the rainfall amount does not strongly control the isotopic values at event-scale, but analysing the $\delta^{18}O_r$ variation through time, added to the strong dependence on air temperature, it is clearly observed how the most intense rainfall events together with the longest lasting rain events (several days) resulted in an isotopic lightening (Giménez et al., 2021). Thus, we consider that dripwater $\delta^{18}O_{dw}$ is driving the $\delta^{18}O_c$ signal in the stalagmites and, very likely, air temperature and precipitation amount will be modulating its variability along last 2500 years.

The $\delta^{18}O$ composite record, based on the combination of MIC and XEV $\delta^{18}O$ data, provides the opportunity to correlate with instrumental temperature and precipitation data (Fig. A4 and A5). It is worth to note that the chronological control of $\delta^{18}O$ data is robust at decadal-scale, thus limiting an annual accurate correlation. In spite temperature records in the region of the studied caves are, unfortunately, scarce and short (e.g., the Goriz hut station covers only the last 50 years, Fig. S4b). ThereA4b) there are two exceptions, however. First, the homogenized MAAT dataset since 1882 from the Pic du Midi de Bigorre meteorological station (2860 m a.s.l. in the French Pyrenees) (Bücher and Dessens, 1991; Dessens and Bücher, 1995), which started in 1882 ADCE, is the currently longest one from the Pyrenees (Fig. S4eA4c). And, second, the temperature and precipitation reconstruction by Pérez-Zanón et al. (2017) based on 155 stations from the Central Pyrenees starting in 1910 ADCE (Fig. S4dA4d). Comparing the MIC and XEV $\delta^{18}O$ data with those temperature datasets a significant correlation is found with Pic du Midi de Bigorre mean annual minima temperature (σ_s =0.32; p-value<0.005). Likely, the other temperature records were too short to generate a significant correlation.

Additionally, when comparing our $\delta^{18}O$ stack with the HadCRU5 reconstruction for the mean Northern Hemisphere temperatures (Morice et al., 2021) (Fig. \$4eA4e), the correlation is higher and significant (σ_s =0.49; p-value<0.005). We suspect that the length of this last series (150 years) together with a large spatial scale leads to a better correlation with the speleothem composite. However, a large part of the variance remains to be explained by other factors (i.e. precipitation changes in source, seasonality or amount). Using these relationships as a guide, a change and considering all the isotopic change related to temperature change, the observed variation of 0.30 – 0.32 ‰ in $\delta^{18}O$ of our composite would represent a change of 1°C (Fig. \$4) whatA4), that appears quite plausible for the studied period. Still, at least a small part of the isotopic change in the studied speleothems could be related to precipitation and thus reducing the temperature effect.

The influence of precipitation variability on the $\delta^{18}O$ speleothem composite is evident from $\frac{1965\,1970}{1985\,AD\,1980\,CE}$, a relatively cool interval in the Pyrenees but characterized by $\frac{1}{1985\,AD\,1980\,CE}$, a relatively cool interval in the Pyrenees but characterized by $\frac{1}{1985\,AD\,1980\,CE}$, a relatively cool interval in the Pyrenees but characterized by $\frac{1}{1985\,AD\,1980\,CE}$, a relatively cool interval in the Pyrenees but characterized by $\frac{1}{1985\,AD\,1980\,CE}$, a relatively cool interval in the Pyrenees, other processes such as the amount of precipitation or even its source(s) may be also a significant controlling factor, especially when extreme values are reached (very dry or very wet time intervals). In any

ease, MIC and XEV 8¹⁸O data are not significantly correlated with any of the precipitation data from Fig. S5.

Finally, it is important to note that (Fig. A5, note reversed axis for precipitation). For this interval, the relationship between the $\delta^{18}O$ composite and temperature series is reversed, as the low precipitation leads to higher $\delta^{18}O$ values (as if they represented higher air temperatures). On the contrary, a rapid increase in precipitation at ca. 1960 without any important change in temperature, results in a negative peak on the $\delta^{18}O$ speleothem composite (Fig. A5). This shows that, in spite air temperature being an important factor influencing $\delta^{18}O$ variability in speleothems from the Pyrenees, other processes such as the amount of precipitation or even its source(s) may be also a significant controlling factor (Priestley et al., 2023; Treble et al., 2022), especially when extreme values are reached (very dry or very wet time intervals), as was indicated by rainfall studies in the Pyrenees (Giménez et al., 2021; Moreno et al., 2021a). In any case, MIC and XEV $\delta^{18}O$ data are not significantly correlated with any of the precipitation data from Fig. A5.

Finally, it is important to note that the $\delta^{18}O$ values in the different caves varied at distinct range (Fig. 3). Thus, when producing the composite record, the $\delta^{18}O$ profiles of the eight stalagmites were normalized and detrended with the aim of combining different caves where $\delta^{18}O$ from the speleothems varies at distinct range (Fig. 3). With such a procedure, it is really complicated to compare comparing relative temperature changes coming from different time periods is not possible. Thus, for example, comparing the warming magnitude of the RP with the MCA or with the IE is not feasible since data were obtained from different caves and were previously normalized and detrended. Unfortunately, none of our stalagmites cover continuously from a warm period, i.e. the MCA, to current conditions to compare values. Therefore, the ability of current data to accurately quantify changes in temperature for last 2500 years in the Central Pyrenees is limited. Normalized $\delta^{18}O$ composite record is evaluated in the context of previous local, regional and global information.

5.2 TemperatureClimate reconstruction for the last 2500 years

The Pyrenees is a region threatened by global warming, where the impact on biodiversity, elements of the mountain cryosphere such as glaciers or ice caves, and water resources has been increasing in recent decades (https://www.opcc-ctp.org). In this context, it is of great importance to analyse archives of past temperature to reconstruct natural variability and disentangle main driving mechanisms. The δ^{18} O composite constructed using eight speleothems represents the first climate reconstruction based on speleothems for this region covering the last 2500 years; and provides an excellent opportunity to reconstruct natural variability and disentangle main driving mechanisms. We compare it first with other climate series from the Pyrenees and northern Iberia (section 5.2.1) and, then, with available speleothems from Europe and western Mediterranean to obtain a regional overview (section 5.2.2). Finally, a short discussion about the potential drivers of main observed changes is provided (section 5.2.3).

5.2.1. The last 2500 years in the context of the Iberian Peninsula

Previous climate reconstructions for the CE from the Pyrenees were mostly based on lake records (e.g., González-Sampériz et al., 2017), tree-ring data (e.g., Büntgen et al., 2017), and few data from glaciers or ice caves (Moreno et al., 2021b; Oliva et al., 2018; Sancho et al., 2018; Leunda et al., 2019). Despite large variability, these records reveal a clear distinction between relatively cold (DA, LIA) and warm (RP, MCA) periods, which were generally characterized by high and low lake levels, respectively. The differences and similarities among Pyrenean records merit a more detailed evaluation, organized by chronological periods. (Moreno et al., 2021b; Oliva et al., 2018; Sancho et al., 2018). Observations from four of the best studied lakes in the Southern Pyrenees (Basa de la Mora, 1914 m a.s.l., Pérez-Sanz et al., 2011; Estanya, 670 m a.s.l., Morellón et al., 2011; Riera et al., 2006; Redon, 2240 m a.s.l., Pla and Catalan, 2005 and Monteortès, 1027 m a.s.l., (Corella et al., 2016, 2014, 2012, 2011; Rull et al., 2011; Scussolini et al., 2011; Vegas Vilarrúbia et al., 2022) were compiled by González Sampériz et al. (2017). Despite large variability, these records reveal a clear distinction between relatively cold (Dark Ages, LIA) and warm (RP, MCA)

periods, which were generally characterized by high and low lake levels, respectively. Interestingly, a record of heavy precipitation obtained from the abundance of detrital layers in the laminated record of Montcortés lake shows a good correspondence with the Pyrenean speleothems during some intervals (Fig. 4b), highlighting the link between precipitation and δ^{18} O. This similarity is specially marked during the MCA and the LIA where, although with a slight asynchrony (likely related to age model uncertainties), low values in δ^{18} O correlate with higher precipitation and vice versa. Therefore, it is expected that an increase in precipitation in the Pyrenecs, as deduced from the Montcortés lake record, would have had a significant influence on the δ^{18} O values. The other lake record we compared to the speleothem record is Estanya lake, whose palaeo-salinity data provide a clue to the hydroclimate in the Pre-Pyrenees (Morellón et al., 2012, 2009) (Fig. 4c). The Estanya record indicates a general increase in salinity during the second part of the MCA (and thus a comparably warm and dry climate), while low salinity prevailed during the LIA (corresponding to a cooler and more humid climate). This pattern is also well reproduced in the speleothems, albeit with a different short-term variability.

There are no data from ice caves in the Pyrenees spanning the CE, with the exception of the last ice accumulation phase in the A298 ice cave (Cotiella massif) (Fig. 4d) (Sancho et al., 2018) that stopped at the thermal maximum of the Roman Period, in spite it may continue growing during following cold periods. Tree-ring records spans the period 1186–2014 AD and reveal overall warmer conditions around 1200 AD (Büntgen et al., 2017) coinciding with the spelcothem composite presented here, and again around 1400 AD (Fig. 4c). The differences and similarities among Pyrenean records merit a more detailed evaluation, organized by chronological periods.

A. The Iberian - Roman period in the Pyrenees. Considering the last 2500 years, the Roman Period (RP) stands out as the warmesta clear warm period from the speleothem composite record (Fig. 4a). In the Eastern Pyrenees, Redon Lake records low winter-spring temperatures with a warming trend at the end (Pla and Catalan, 2005; Pla-Rabes and Catalan, 2011), whereas the summer-autumn temperatures show a transition from cold to warm (Catalan et al., 2009). Only very few Not many high-resolution Pyrenean temperaturelake records exist, because lacustrine proxies are more sensitive to humidity than in temperature changes for this period (e.g. Corella et al., 2016; Vegas-Vilarrúbia et al., 2022) and dendrochronological studies in this mountain range do not cover this time period. Thus, an interesting record to compare with is the A294 ice cave in the Cotiella massif (Sancho et al., 2018). This 9-m thick ice is divided into intervals of low and high snow accumulation, requiring moist and cold conditions to form. The fourth (and last) stage of this ice deposit indicates a high accumulation rate (Fig. 4d), thus a relatively humid and cold period, from 500 BC to 62 ADCE. Afterwards, the record stopped reflecting the onset of a warmer and drier climate (Sancho et al., 2018) associated with the RP thermal maximum (Fig 4a), in spite recent). Recently, not yet published observations indicate the ice deposit grew during the cold/wet years associated to the DA (M. Bartolomé, personal communication). In our speleothem composite, the RP is represented by Las Gloces and Pot au Feu stalagmites that show less negative values (Fig. 3), which suggest rather warm, and probably dry conditions in the Central Pyrenees during the RP, particularly during frombetween 0 to 200 ADCE (Fig. 4). This is supported by data showing retreating glaciers in the Pyrenees at that time (Moreno et al., 2021b).

B. The Dark Ages in the Pyrenees. This period after the fall of the Western Roman Empire (Helama et al., 2017) is characterized in our speleothem composite by cold temperatures starting ca. 300 AD, with two particular cold events at 500 650 AD and 750 850 AD and a warmer interval in between (650 750 AD) (Fig. This period is characterized in our speleothem composite by cold-wet climates starting ca. 300 CE, with two particular cold events at 500-650 CE and 750-850 CE and a warmer-drier interval in between (650-750 CE) (Fig. 4a). Pyrenean lake records also point to cold and wet conditions but with a high heterogeneity and low resolution, thus preventing a detailed characterization of this time period (González-Sampériz et al., 2017). For example, Estanya Lake recorded a dominant dry climate between 500 and 750 ADCE (Fig. 4c), changing to higher lake levels afterwards (Morellón et al., 2009), a pattern that is quite coherent with the speleothem composite. Proxy data from Redon Lake suggest cold winter-spring temperatures in the Eastern Pyrenees during the DA (Pla and Catalan, 2005, 2011).

C. The Medieval Climate Anomaly in the Pyrenees. The large centennial-scale temperature variability recorded by the speleothem composite is particularly well expressed for the MCA and the LIA, with three distinct intervals of temperature changes (yellow and blue bands in Fig. 4a), thus revealing a more complex pattern as previously inferred by lower resolution records (e.g., Moreno et al., 2012; Sánchez-López et al., 2016). The MCA has been interpreted as a "warm and dry" climate regime in the Southern Pyrenees (Morellón et al., 2012) (Fig. 4c), characterized by low lake levels and more abundant xerophytic vegetation. Our new data show, however, that a colder (maybe wetter) interval between 950 and 1050 ADCE separated two clear warm periods before (900-950 ADCE) and after (1150-1250 ADCE; Fig. 3); this intervening cold phase was one of the coldest ones in the last 2500 years (Fig. 4a). This cold interval was also identified in the Redon Lake record as a sudden cooling about 1000 years ago (Pla and Catalan, 2005). Interestingly, this cold century was not observed by an increase in precipitation in the Montcortés lake record (Fig. 4b).

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D. The Little Ice Age in the Pyrenees. The LIA climate variability is well-characterized in the Pyrenees thanks to records from glaciers, such as moraines associated with glacier advances, but also due to historical documents such as pictures or old photographs (Oliva et al., 2018). The available information indicates that the LIA glaciers in the Pyrenees occupied 3366 ha in 1876, just 810 ha in 1984 and these glaciers have lost 23.2% of their volume considering only from 2011 to 2020 (Hughes, 2018; Vidaller et al., 2021). In many Pyrenean valleys, more than one moraine belt was assigned to the LIA (García-Ruiz et al., 2014) but, unfortunately, the discontinuous character of these landforms and difficulties in dating them does not allow to resolve the internal pattern of the LIA in the Pyrenees. A recent compilation of records across the Iberian mountains proposed several climate phases during the LIA (Oliva et al., 2018), which are well-correlated with our speleothem composite (Fig. 4a): A first cooling phase lasted from the onset of the LIA (ca. 1200 ADCE) until 1480 ADCE, followed by relatively warmer conditions from 1480 to 1570 ADCE. A second phase of gradual cooling occurred until 1600 ADCE followed by very cool conditions lasting until 1715 ADCE and coinciding with the Maunder Minimum (1645 - 1715AD1715CE). In our speleothern composite, this interval is well defined as a cold period but it was not the eoldest one one with minimum δ^{18} O values of the LIA (Fig. 4a). The first half of the 18^{th} century was characterized by warm conditions, supported by many records compiled by Oliva et al. (2018). After 1760 and until the end of the LIA (ca. 1850 ADCE), a climate deterioration and more frequent extreme climate events were described. This last cold phase is also captured by the speleothem composite and may correspond to the Dalton Minimum (1790 - 1830 ADCE). It is characterised by highlarge climate variability and lasted until about 1850 ADCE.

E. The Industrial Era in the Pyrenees. The Industrial Era (IE), defined as the last 150 years, is characterized in the Pyrenean speleothem composite by low temperatures that started to increase at about 1950 ADCE (Fig. 4a), in response to the Great Acceleration (Steffen et al., 2015) (yellow band in Fig.4). This increase of temperature is well recorded in other Pyrenean climate archives, such as glaciers or lake records. Thus, the last 150 years were marked by a gradual glacier retreat since 1850 ADCE that accelerated specially after 1980 ADCE, considered as a "tipping point" in glacier retreat not only on a Pyrenean scale (López-Moreno et al., 2016) but also on a global scale (Beniston et al., 2018). For the last 150 years, in spite it is difficult to disentangle among climate change and human impact on the lacustrine records, aA decrease in heavy rainfall (Fig. 4b) and an increase in salinity (Fig. 4c) are well defined in Montcortés and Estanya lake records, respectively-, during the IE, indicating a decrease in precipitation in a, likely, drier scenario. Besides, recent high-resolution these two lake records obtained from, high-altitude lakes indicates how a significant increase in lake-primary productivity during the last decades as the result of combined impacts of climate change and increased human pressure in the Pyrenees (Vicente de Vera García et al., 2023). In spiteThese recent results demonstrate the combined impacts of climate change and increased human pressure in the Pyrenees. Coherently, last 50 years are characterized as one of the warmest intervals by generally enriched δ^{18} O values in our speleothem record (yellow bands in Fig. 4), However, the last two decades (our record ends in 2013, the year XEV sample was collected) are not the ones with the highest δ^{18} O values (Fig. 4a) as also observed in tree-ring data from the Spanish Central Pyrenees (Büntgen et al., 2017) (Fig. 4e). In general, all available records from the Pyrenees isolate last 70-80 years as a period with a notable increase in temperature in the context of last 2500 years One potential explanation for the lack of exceptionally high δ^{18} O values would be a slight increase in precipitation amount. Thus, precipitation reconstruction for the Pyrenees during the last two decades indicate slightly higher values than those of previous decades (Pérez-Zanón et al., 2017, Fig. A.5). Other factors, such as changes in the precipitation source or type (eg. dominance of Atlantic frontal rainfall versus Mediterranean convective episodes) may be also behind the recorded δ^{18} O values of last decades.

5.2.2. Temperature variability in W Europe and the W Mediterranean during last 2500 years

The PAGES2k European temperature record is the most recent compilation of the last two millennia at European scale (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013) and it is coherent with our speleothem composite for the Central Pyrenees (Fig. 6). This comparison shows a synchronicity for several of the warmest intervals of the CE, such as the first centuries CE in the RP, the 1150-1250 CE period within the MCA, and the last decades (marked as orange bars in Fig. 6). There are very few high-resolution speleothem records in Europe covering the CE (Comas-Bru et al., 2020). We compare the Central Pyrenean speleothem composite with nine selected; we selected nine speleothems records in Europe and northern Africa which cover with robust chronology and decadal resolution the last 2500 years (Fig. 5). One of these records is interpreted as NAO variability (Baker et al., 2015), three are paleo-precipitation reconstructions (Ait Brahim et al., 2019; Cisneros et al., 2021; Thatcher et al., 2022) and the other five are reflecting paleo-temperature variations (Affolter et al., 2019; Fohlmeister et al., 2012; Mangini et al., 2005; Martín-Chivelet et al., 2011; Sundqvist et al., 2010). Considering these differences in the interpretation and the fact these records are from different regions with different climates (from Sweden to Morocco), dissimilar profiles of paleoclimate variability can be expected. Still, some features are comparable and can be discussed to obtain a super-regional picture.

A. The Roman period in Europe-W Mediterranean. In Europe, and particularly in the Mediterranean region, the RP is well-known as a warm period (e.g., McCormick et al., 2012). The average sea-surface temperature in the western Mediterranean Sea was 2°C higher than the average temperature of the late centuries (Margaritelli et al., 2020). Our composite, with high values of normalized δ¹⁸O values during the whole RP, and particularly from 0-200 ADCE, agrees with the scenario of warm temperatures (Fig. 5i). Speleothem data from the Balearic Islands (Cisneros et al., 2021) indicate a transition from humid to dry conditions along the Iberian-RP (Fig. 5c). The dry period at the end of the RP in the Balearic record, appears in agreement with a new speleothem record from northern Italy (Hu et al., 2022), suggesting that the observed drying trend was a possible contribution to the collapse of the Roman Empire in 476 ADCE. Record from Morocco (Ait Brahim et al., 2019), contrarily, marks a humid trend at the end of the RP (Fig. 5d). Similarly, an increase in humidity was observed in southern Iberia during the Iberian Roman PeriodRP (Jiménez-Moreno et al., 2013; Martín-Puertas et al., 2009) thus reflecting a large spatial heterogeneity in precipitation during the RP when comparing records from the north and south of the Mediterranean basin.

B. The Dark Ages in Europe-W Mediterranean. After the RP, the cold Dark Ages started (450-850 ADCE). Part of this period is known as the "Late Antique Little Ice Age" (LALIA), lasting from 536 ADCE to 670 ADCE, characterized by specially cold conditions in Europe (Büntgen et al., 2016). Our speleothem composite shows in general cold—wet conditions, but with centennial-scale variability during the DA (Fig. 5). Three clear intervals can be defined in terms of temperature, following the δ¹8O pattern of our composite, as well as speleothem records from the Alps (Mangini et al., 2005) and Central Europe (Affolter et al., 2019; Fohlmeister et al., 2012): an initial cooling phase corresponding to the LALIA (ca. 500-650 ADCE), a warming phase (ca. 650-750 ADCE) and a final cooling phase right before the onset of the warming associated with the MCA (ca 750-850 ADCE). A δ¹3C speleothem record from three N Iberian caves (Martín-Chivelet et al., 2011) shows a warming trend in the DA period but with internal variability that, within dating uncertainties, can be related to the three phases defined above (Fig. 5i). It is worth noting that the coldest-period with the most negative δ¹8O values recorded in the speleothem composite from the Pyrenees corresponds to the LALIA decades, a cooling period which provoked widespread social disruption in Europe, famine, and episodes of epidemic diseases (Peregrine, 2020).

C. The Medieval Climate Anomaly in Europe-W Mediterranean. The MCA was one of the warmest periods in continental Europe (and the W Mediterranean, Lüning et al., 2019) of the CE, usually dated to 900 ADCE

to 1300 ADCE and characterized by warm (Goosse et al., 2012) and relatively dry conditions (Helama et al., 2009). The MCA was also characterized by a general glacier retreat, mainly associated with a decline in precipitation in the Alps (Holzhauser et al., 2016) and the Pyrenees (Moreno et al., 2021b). This scenario is supported by speleothem records from Europe and the W Mediterranean (Fig. 5), which all point to generally warm (Affolter et al., 2019; Fohlmeister et al., 2012; Mangini et al., 2005; Martín-Chivelet et al., 2011; Sundqvist et al., 2010) and/or dry conditions (Ait Brahim et al., 2019; Baker et al., 2015; Thatcher et al., 2022), even leading to speleothem growth stops as for example seen in the Balearic record (Cisneros et al., 2021). Previous studies have emphasized the complexity of the spatial and seasonal structure of the MCA in Europe (Goosse et al., 2012). The selected speleothem records underscore this complexity, particularly considering that in our Pyrenean composite one of the coldest periods of the last 2500 yearsmarked as cold-wet occurred during the MCA, ca. 950-1050 ADCE (Fig. 5). We propose that this cold interval represents the climate response to the Oort solar minimum in the Pyrenees, a time period characterized by low number of sunspots covering spanning 1010 to 1050 ADCE (Bard et al., 2000).

It has been widely debated if the MCA was warmer than current conditions. This controversy has not totally been resolved using proxy records, especially since comparisons with modern conditions are difficult due to the small number of high quality records covering continuously the last 1500 years (e.g., Bradley et al., 2003). In our case, none of the studied spelcothems cover continuously from the MCA to current times (Fig. 3) and, since records were detrended and normalized to construct the composite profile, that comparison among the MCA and the IE is precluded.

D. The Little Ice Age in Europe-W Mediterranean. The LIA is well known in Europe and the W Mediterranean region, characterized by cold temperatures and relatively humid conditions as recorded, for example, in chironomid-inferred summer temperatures (Ilyashuk et al., 2019), Mediterranean SSTs (Cisneros et al., 2016), the advance of alpine glaciers (Holzhauser et al., 2016) and the rise of lake levels (Magny, 2013). The LIA cooling, however, was not continuous and uniform in space and time. Regarding temperatures, many of the available reconstructions from the Alps (Trachsel et al., 2012). Scandinavia (Zawiska et al., 2017), and other regions of Europe (Luterbacher et al., 2016), provide evidence for a main LIA cooling phase which was divided into three parts: two cold intervals with a slightly warmer episode in between, with the most severe cooling during the 18th century (Ilyashuk et al., 2019). This pattern is also found in the two temperature records from Iberian speleothems (this study and the one from Martín-Chivelet et al., 2011) and a temperature record from the Alps (Mangini et al., 2005) (Fig. 5, marked by arrows). The other European speleothem records show only two phases during the LIA: a longer and intense cooling period followed by a warming (Fig. 5, Affolter et al., 2019; Fohlmeister et al., 2012; Sundqvist et al., 2010). A tripartite pattern is recorded by humidity-sensitive speleothems from Portugal, with wet-drywet conditions in excellent agreement with the cold-warm-cold pattern in the Pyrenean record (this study), supporting the concept that this pattern is controlled by changes in intensity and N-S migration of the Azores High (Thatcher et al., 2022).

E. The Industrial Era in Europe-W Mediterranean. Between about 1870 ADCE and today, an increase in temperature is detected by European speleothem records (Fig. 5), as previously shown by the retreat of European glaciers (Beniston et al., 2018) and tree-ring summer temperature records (Büntgen et al., 2011) as well as drought reconstructions (Büntgen et al., 2021). The impacts in Europe and the W Mediterranean of the current global warming trend, accelerated during last 50 years, are becoming more and more evident (Jacob et al., 2018; Naumann et al., 2021).

5.2.3 Drivers of past temperature variability in the Pyrenees

Although there is a good agreement among the continental records of the last two millennia in terms of temperature variability, providing widespread evidence of a warm RP and MCA and a cold DA and LIA, a detailed comparison highlights regional differences at multi-decadal to centennial time scales (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013). As an example, by using an extended proxy data set, the PAGES 2k Consortium confirmed that the MCA was not globally synchronous (PAGES2k Consortium et al., 2017). Still, in

Europe, the record produced in the PAGES2k exercise is coherent with our spelcothem composite for the Central Pyrenees, particularly for some periods (Fig. 6).

This comparison shows a synchronicity between the PAGES2k European record and the Pyrenean composite for several of the warmest intervals of the CE, such as the first centuries AD in the RP, the 1150-1250 AD period within the MCA, and the last decades (marked as orange bars in Fig. 6). The good correlation and synchronicity between the PAGES2k European record and the Pyrenean composite (marked as orange bars in Fig. 6) supports the interpretation of temperature being the dominant factor in controlling the speleothem record. This centennial-scale correlation can be extended to a worldwide tree-ring compilation (Sigl et al., 2015) pointing to the presence of common warm periods in the Central Pyrenees. SimilarlyInterestingly, if precipitation was the dominant factor controlling the δ^{18} O speleothem composite, it would be difficult to find a common signal at regional or even continental scale, as indicated by the overall good correlation shown in Fig. 6.

It is worth to mention also the good correlation with several especially cold periods at decadal scale (blue bars in Fig. 6), such as the event at 540-550 ADCE (registered at 520 ADCE in the speleothem record) or two cold spikes at 800-850 ADCE at the end of the DA. The We proposed that the cold event at ca. 540 ADCE (the coldest of the speleothem record) may beis related to a cataclysmic volcanic eruption that took place in Iceland in 536 ADCE and spewed ash across the Northern Hemisphere, together with the effect of two other massive eruptions in 540 and 547 AD (Sigl et al., 2015). CE (Fig. 6b, Sigl et al., 2015). An unprecedented, long-lasting and spatially synchronized cooling was observed in European tree-ring records associated with these large volcanic eruptions, corresponding to the LALIA period (Büntgen et al., 2016). Therefore, volcanic events, at least the large ones such that from 536 CE in Iceland, have an effect driving temperature variations in the Pyrenean region.

ides, thereThere is also an evident synchrony between the European record and the Pyrenean speleothems in several of the more recent coldest intervals of the MCA and the LIA (dark blue bars in Fig. 6), probably a regional response to minima in solar irradiance as these events correspond to minima in sunspot numbers: 1010 1050 AD (Oort minimum), 1280 1350 AD (Wolf minimum), 1450 1550 AD (Spörer minimum), 1645-1715 AD (Maunder minimum) and 1790-1820 AD (Dalton minimum). (Fig. 6c, (Usoskin et al., 2014, 2016): 1010-1050 CE (Oort minimum), 1280-1350 CE (Wolf minimum), 1450-1550 CE (Spörer minimum), 1645-1715 CE (Maunder minimum) and 1790-1820 CE (Dalton minimum). Because variations in total solar irradiance are relatively small, on the order of a few tenths of Wm⁻², the mechanism that could result in a detectable cooling remains uncertain (Gray et al., 2010). The most likely connection is via changes in the large-scale atmospheric circulation of the Northern Hemisphere While some studies discarded the idea that there has been a strong direct radiative influence of solar forcing on Northern Hemisphere temperatures in the past millennium (Schurer et al., 2014), other authors demonstrated a connection among solar variability and climate throughout changes in the large-scale atmospheric circulation of the Northern Hemisphere, such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) (Martin-Puertas et al., 2012). These circulation changes occur primarily through a forced shift toward the low index state of the Arctic Oscillation/North Atlantic Oscillation as solar irradiance decreases, leading to colder temperatures over the Northern Hemisphere continents. The NAO was proposed as a plausible mechanism to explain climate changes in Europe during the MCA vs LIA periods through the study in combination of proxy records and model simulations (Trouet et al., 2009; Mann et al., 2009). Thus, it was postulated that the MCA/LIA transition included a weakening of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) and a transition to more negative NAO conditions, resulting in a strong cooling of the North Atlantic region and an increase in the storm intensity (Trouet et al., 2012).

Such a connection among solar irradiance and temperature over Europe is then manifested through a change in the pressure gradient in the Atlantic that resembles a negative phase of the NAO and results in lower temperatures over Europe but also in a southward shift of the storm tracks enhancing precipitation over central and southern Europe (Swingedouw et al., 2011). As solar irradiance decreases, colder temperatures over the Northern Hemisphere continents are observed, especially in winter (1° to 2°C), in agreement with

- 712 historical records and proxy data for surface temperatures (Shindell et al., 2001). A low NAO index may
- 713 also be the driver of variations in the abundance and magnitude of floods in EuropeCoherently, most
- 714 episodes of flooding in northwest and northern Europe region match with multi-decadal periods of grand
- 715 solar minima and are thus also associated to the negative phase in the NAO index (Benito et al., 2015) (Fig.
- 716 6d), thus being also consistent with).
- 717 In Iberia, the solar irradiance record and NAO forcing was embraced to explain the dryness during the MCA
- 718 as observed in low resolution records (Moreno et al., 2012). Further studies based on proxy reconstructions
- 719 in Iberia explained those MCA - LIA differences by using interactions between the NAO and the East
- 720 Atlantic (EA) phases (Sánchez-López et al., 2016). In that line, the persistence of NAO phases, for example,
- 721 the dominance of positive index during Medieval times, has been questioned (Ortega et al., 2015) and the
- 722 interactions with other atmospheric modes, together with the non-stationary character of these atmospheric
- 723 patterns, are nowadays important issues to contemplate when providing a NAO reconstruction (Comas-Bru
- 724 and Hernández, 2018). In Fig. 6g, the NAO reconstruction provided using a lake record in NW Iberia
- 725 (Hernández et al., 2020) is compared with the speleothem Pyrenean speleothems (Fig. 6)-record
- 726 demonstrating a good connection. Not surprisingly, the lack of correlation for some periods could be
- 727 associated to i) chronological uncertainties of both records, ii) different season recorded by the analyzed
- 728 proxies and iii) distinct influence of NAO in W and E of the IP.

729 6. Conclusions

- 730 The eight stalagmites presented in this study document for the first-time significant climate changes on the
- 731 decadal scale in the Central Pyrenees during the last 2500 years. The $\delta^{18}O$ composite record is dominated
- 732 by regional temperature changes, as suggested by monitoring data and by the correlation with observational
- 733 temperature data from the Pyrenees and at a hemispheric scale. The precipitation amount may also play a
- 734 role as shown by the comparison with Pyrenean lake records.
- 735 On a regional scale, there is a good agreement with other Pyrenean and Iberian records (lake levels, tree
- 736 rings and glacier advances) indicating a regional representativity of this new record. The RP stands out as
- 737 one of the warmest periods of the last 2500 years a clear warm period, while the DA, MCA and LIA exhibit
- 738 a high centennial-scale variability with cold (e.g., 520-540 ADCE and 1750-1850 ADCE) and warm
- intervals (e.g., 900-950 ADCE and 1150-1250 AD).CE) modulated by increases and decreases in the 739
- 740 precipitation amount, respectively. In spite temperature increases since 1950 ADCE, known as the Great
- 741 Acceleration within the IE, the last two decades are not the ones with higher the highest δ^{18} O values in the
- 742 composite record, likely pointing to the secondary role played by precipitation amount.
- 743 On a European scale, the Pyrenean composite is in robust agreement with the PAGES2k temperature
- 744 reconstructions-and, particularly during warm events. It shows some similarities with other speleothem
- 745 reconstructions from the Alps, Central and Northern Europe, pointing to coherent patterns all over the
- 746 continent for cold/wet and warm/dry periods of last 2500 years. This coherence is supported by synchronous
- 747 changes with the sunspot number (low temperatures during solar minima), the North Atlantic Oscillation
- 748 index (low NAO correlates with cold and wet decades) and major volcanic eruptions (e.g., several eruptions
- 749
- 750 Author contribution. MB, AM and CS designed the study; MB, AB and CS carried out the field work;
- 751 MB, JH, IC, HS and NH did the analyses. LE and HC provided the U-Th facilities. MB and AM prepared
- 752 the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.
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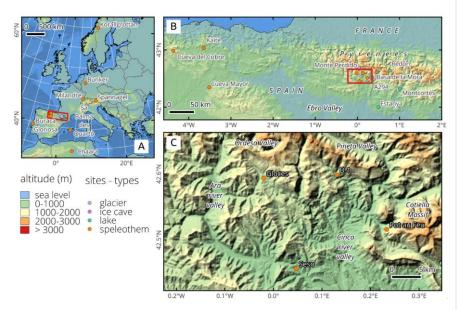
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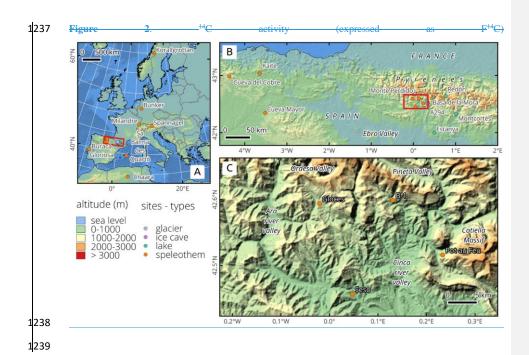
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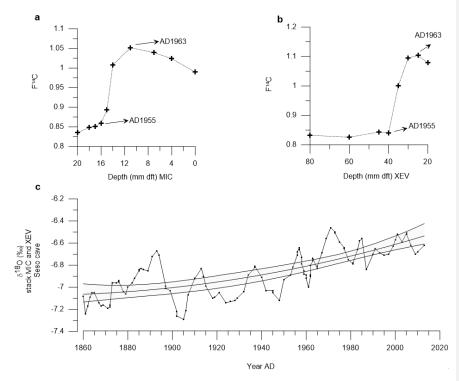
Figure captions

Figure 1. Aa) Location of regional speleothem records covering last 2500 years to be compared with the samples studied in the Pyrenees (red rectangle, enlarged in Fig. 1B). Bb) Location of caves (orange circles) and other nearby records from northern Spain. See legend for the different types of available paleoclimate archives. Cc) Location of the four studied caves in the Central Pyrenees of NE Spain in the vicinity of the Ordesa and Monte Perdido National Park. Source base map: digital elevation model and hillshade derived from Mapzen Global Terrain, coastline, boundaries and geographic lines from NaturalEarthData.com





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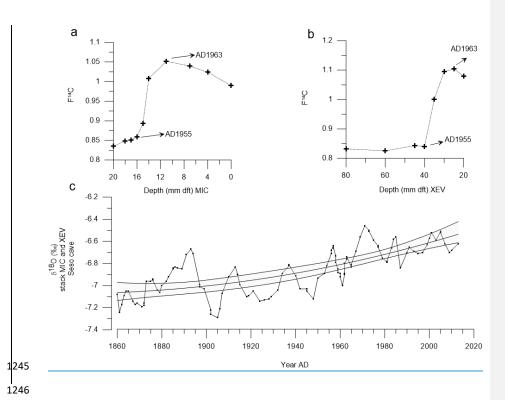
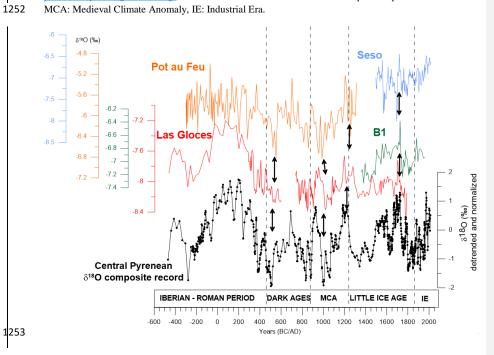


Figure 3. Comparison of individual $\delta^{18}O$ records from four Pyrenean caves (orange, (a) Seso; (b) Pot au Feu; blue, Seso; red,(c) B1 and (d) Las Gloces caves, and green, B1 cave) and(e) the composite $\delta^{18}O$ record produced using Iscam (black curve) for the last 2500 years. Generating Seso and Las Gloces curves required Iscam age modelling while Pot au Feu and B1 curves represent only one stalagmite, which age model was produced by StalAge modelling. Black double arrows indicate intervals with patterns present in all records. MCA: Medieval Climate Anomaly, IE: Industrial Era.



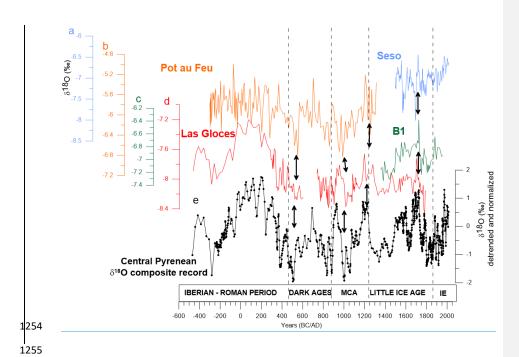
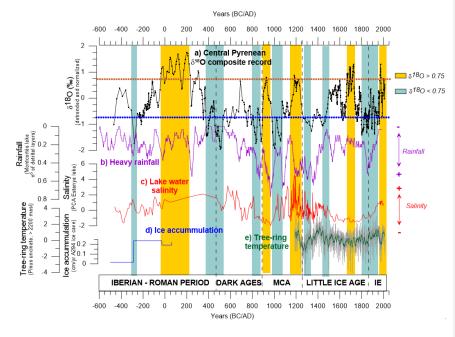


Figure 4. a) Central Pyrenean $\delta^{18}O$ composite record for the last 2500 years based on eight stalagmites from four caves. Blue bars mark intervals of $\delta^{18}O$ values below -0.75, while yellow bars mark those with $\delta^{18}O$ values above +0.75 (note this composite record was obtained from normalized records, so it varies among – 3 and 3 without possibility of direct translation to absolute $\delta^{18}O$ values). b) Rainfall reconstructed from calcite layers from Montcortés lake in the Pre-Pyrenees (Corella et al., 2016). c) Salinity reconstructed from geochemical data from Estanya lake in the Pre-Pyrenees (González-Sampériz et al., 2017; Morellón et al., 2012, 2011). d) Snow and ice accumulation in ice cave A294 in the Cotiella massif of the Central Pyrenees (Sancho et al., 2018), and e) Pyrenean temperature reconstruction based on tree-ring data (Büntgen et al., 2017). MCA: Medieval Climate Anomaly, IE: Industrial Era.



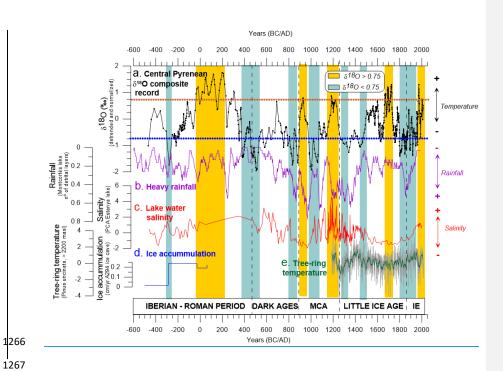
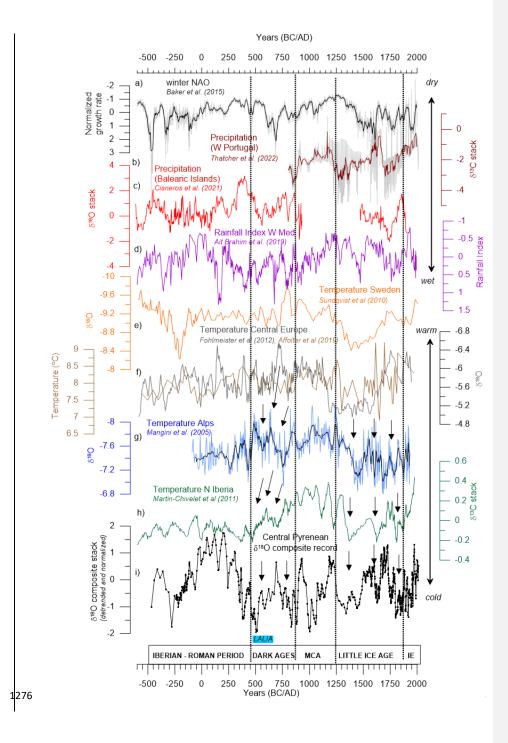


Figure 5. Comparison of European and W Mediterranean speleothem records covering the last 2500 years. a) winter NAO reconstruction based on growth rate of Irish speleothems (Baker et al., 2015); b) precipitation variability reconstructed for W Portugal (Thatcher et al., 2022), c) Balearic Islands (Cisneros et al., 2021), and d) Morocco (Ait Brahim et al., 2019); temperature variation reconstructed from e) Sweden (Sundqvist et al., 2010), f) Central Europe (Affolter et al., 2019; Fohlmeister et al., 2012), g) Alps (Mangini et al., 2005) and h) Northern Iberia (Martín-Chivelet et al., 2011); i) Central Pyrenean δ¹⁸O composite record (this study). Black arrows indicate intervals of well-reproduced patterns during the Dark Ages and the Little Ice Age cold intervals. MCA: Medieval Climate Anomaly, IE: Industrial Era.



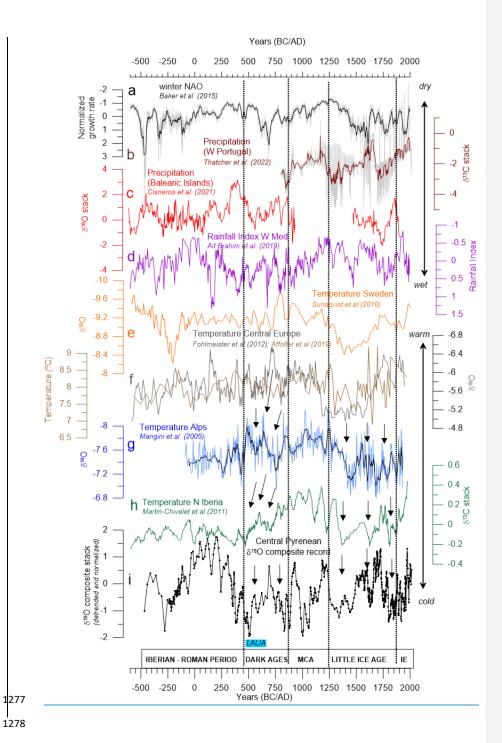
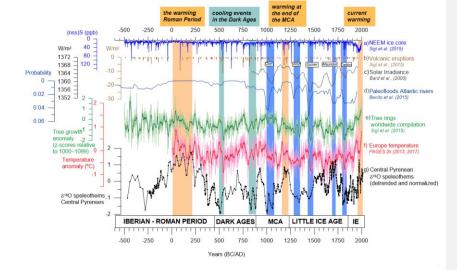
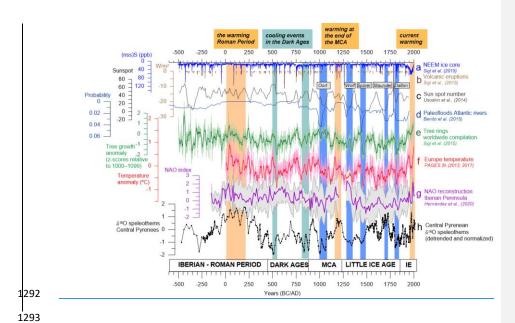


Figure 6. Global records and forcing mechanisms. a) volcanic forcing represented by the (nss)S (ppb) in the NEEM ice core (blue line); b) changes in the irradiance as a consequence of Northern Hemisphere volcanic eruptions (Sigl et al., 2015), (brown bars); c) solar irradiance (Bard et al., 2000)sunspot numbers (Usoskin et al., 2014); d) probability of paleofloods in European temperate regions (Benito et al., 2015); e) worldwide tree-ring compilation (green line, running average width window = 15) (Sigl et al., 2015); f) temperature reconstruction from Europe, compiled by the PAGES2k group (red line, running average width window = 15) (PAGES 2k Consortium, 2013); g) the NAO reconstruction for the Central Iberian Peninsula (purple line) and gthe 95% (light grey band) uncertainty intervals and h) Central Pyrenean δ¹⁸O composite record (this study). Light brown bars indicate warming periods during the Roman Period, the end of the MCA and in recent decades. Light blue bands mark cooling events during the DA while dark blue bands mark solar minima (Oort, Wolf, Spörer, Maunder and Dalton). MCA: Medieval Climate Anomaly, IE: Industrial Era.



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1294 Table 1. Sample characteristics

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Cave	Sample ID	Length (cm)	Number of U-Th dates (used in StalAge)	Interval covered (years BC/ADBCE/CE in StalAge)	Sampling resolution (average years per isotope sample)	Comments
	MIC	8.5	8	1718- 2010AD2010 CE	3.8 years	Growth to present
	XEV	26	9	1501- 2013AD2013 CE	1.9 years	Two growth periods, no hiatus. Growth to present
Seso	СНА	8.5	3	1573- 1779AD 1779 CE	3.5 years	The uppermost 7 mm are not sampled
	CLA	10.5 (a hiatus at 8.5 cm)	4	1826- 1935AD <u>1935 CE</u>	1.5 years	The uppermost 2 cm are not sampled
Las	ISA	13.5 (a hiatus at 7 cm)	7	346- <u>607AD607</u> <u>CE</u> 845- <u>634AD634</u> <u>CE</u>	11.4 years	In StalAge, one date is not included due to high error
Gloces	LUC	23.3 (a hiatus at 12.5 cm)	6	471BC-504AD 471BCE-504 CE 547-1991AD1991 CE	11.2 years	Really short hiatus
B-1	TAR	7.5 cm	8	1355- 1959AD 1959 CE	10.5 years	
Pot au Feu	JAR	80 cm	10	299BC- 1314AD299BCE- 1314 CE	10 years	

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Tabla con formato

Table 2. 230 Th dating results of the eight stalagmites examined in this study (data from the University of Minnesota, University of Xi'an and University of Melbourne). Analytical errors are 2σ of the mean. The sample marked by a red asterisk was discarded due to the high error.

Sample ID	U_{8t2}	$^{232}\mathrm{Th}$	^{2 30} Th / ²³² Th (b)	8 ²³⁴ U	$^{230}\mathrm{Th}$ / $^{238}\mathrm{U}$ (a)
	(ppb)	(bpd)	(atomic x10 ⁻⁶)	(measured)	(activity)
					Seso cave
Xev-0	451 ±1	12292 ±248	4.0 ±0.1	4543±3.1	0.0066 ±0.0001
Xev-55	355 ±1	2875 ±58	4.2 ±0.2	434.3 ±2.9	0.0021 ±0.0001
Xev-85	299 ±1	1557 ±31	8 ±0	424.6 ±3.1	0.0027 ±0.0001
Xev-110	308 ±1	798 ±16	18 ±1	410.5 ±2.4	0.0029 ±0.0001
Xev-145	267 ±1	535 ±11	25 ±1	404.7 ±2.7	0.0030 ±0.0001
Xev-190	261 ±1	340 ±7	\$4 ±2	419.0 ±2.8	0.0043 ±0.0001
Xev-210	299 ±1	1445 ±29	20 ±1	420.8 ±3.5	0.0059 ±0.0002
Xev-240	277 ±1	1758 ±35	19 ±1	436.4 ±2.7	0.0072 ±0.0002
Xev-280	339 ±1	2459 ±50	20 ±0	414.7 ±3.8	0.0086 ±0.0001
Mic -0	503 ±1	4623 ±93	5 ±0	485.9 ±2.4	0.0027 ±0.0001
Mic-5	441 ±1	1166 ±23	6 ±1	487.3 ±2.3	0.0009 ±0.0002
Mic -20	412 ±1	127 ±3	73 ±6	477.0 ±2.3	0.0014 ±0.0001
Mic -35	427 ±1	708 ±14	25 ±1	455.2 ±2.3	0.0025 ±0.0001
Mic-48	417 ±1	603 ±12	34 ±1	455.7 ±3.0	0.0030 ±0.0001
Mic-60	393 ±1	1049 ±21	23 ±1	461.4 ±3.8	0.0037 ±0.0001
Mic -67	413 ±1	3812 ±777	9 ±0	458.7 ±2.9	0.0051 ±0.0001
Mic-75	389 ±1	25715 ±517	4 ±0	458.0 ±2.5	0.0144 ±0.0002
Cla-0	346 ±1	332 ±7	34 ±2	371.5 ±3.1	0.0020 ±0.0001
Cla-25	368 ±1	493 ±10	32 ±1	367.1 ±2.9	0.0026 ±0.0001
Cla-70	346±1	1262 ±25	17 ±1	367.8 ±2.4	0.0037 ±0.0001
Cla-74	319 ±1	226 ±5	70 ±3	368.6 ±2.7	0.0030 ±0.0001
Cha-0	393.0 ±0.7	1	116 ±6	381.0 ±2.0	0.0030 ±0.0001
Cha-30	3429 ±1.0	609 ±12	47±2	381.2 ±3.0	0.0050 ±0.0001
Cha-58	348.1 ±0.8	396 ±8	84 ±2	387.3 ±2.7	0.0058 ±0.0001
Goo	1671 -0.2	451 +0	722 +5	14652 ±24	Las Gloces cave
Tsa4	1199 +0.2	¥ 1	221 +5	14870 ±5.4	0.0325 +0.0000
Isa4.5	115.0 ±0.1	905 ±18	61 ±2	1510.8 ±3.1	0.0289 ± 0.0004
Isa-6	107.7 ±0.2	8522 ±171	5 ±1	1504.8 ±4.5	0.0253 ±0.0004
Isa-8	108.4 ±0.1	261 ±5	142 ±4	1504.6 ±3.6	0.0207 ±0.0004
Isa-11	69.5 ±0.1	2977 ±60	8 ±1	1505.3 ±3.7	0.0201 ±0.0006
Luc-0	113 ±1	2350 ±47	56 ±1	1859 ±4	0.0699 ±0.0006
Luc-5.5	88 ±1	539 ±11	127 ±3	1848 ±4	0.0469 ±0.0005
Luc 10	131 ±0.2	388 ±8	213 ±5	1721.6 ±3.2	0.0382 ±0.0003
Luc-11	81 ±1	955 ±19	50 ±1	1796 ±5	0.0359 ± 0.0006
Luc-15.5	73 ±0	282 ±6	118 ±3	1783 ±6	0.0279 ±0.0006
Luc-18:5	0± 2/	1477 ±30	16 ±1	1/05 ±5	0.000.0± 2020.0
Luc-22.5	139 ±0	287 ±6	47 ±2	1554 ±3	0.0058 ±0.0002
B1-12-5′.56 n	6083 ±27	797 ±16	49 ±2	-288.5 ±2.5	0.00039 ±0.00002
B1-12-5′.44 n	6492 ±32	201 ±4	630 ±14	-295.8 ±1.8	0.000.0± 0.100.0
B1-12-5′.37 n	10036 ±47	616 ±12	392 ±9	-290.2 ±2.3	0.00146 ±0.00001
B1-12-5′.31 n	8347 ±31	10930 ±219	20 ±1	-295.1 ±1.4	0.00159 ±0.00002
B1-12-5′. 26 n	7424 ±27	1633 ±33	156 ±3	-294.3 ±1.5	0.00208 ±0.00002
B1-12-5′. 16 n	8318 ±31	385 ±8	1052 ±23	-295.2 ±2.0	0.00295 ±0.00002
B1-12-5′.10 n	9499 ±41	551 ±11	961 ±20	-290.9 ±1.5	0.00338 ±0.00002
			81+188	-2902 +1 9	COORD OF SCHOOL

U decay constants: $\lambda_{238} = 1.55125 \times 10^{-10}$ (Jaffey et al., 1971) and $\lambda_{234} = 2.82206 \times 10^{-6}$ (Cheng et al., 2013).

Th decay constant: λ_{230} = 9.1705×10-6 (Cheng et al., 2013). $\pm 8^{234}$ U = { $[^{234}$ U/ 238 U] $_{activity}$ = 1)×1000.

** δ^{224} U_{initial} was calculated based on ²³⁰Th age (T), i.e., δ^{234} U_{initial} = δ^{234} U_{measured} × $e^{1.234 MT}$.

Corrected 230 Th ages assume the initial 220 Th/ 222 Th atomic ratio of 4.4 $\pm 2.2 \times 10^{-6}$. Those are the values

for a material at secular equilibrium, with the bulk earth-²³²Th/²³⁸U value of 3.8. The errors are

arbitrarily assumed to be 50%.

***B.P. stands for "Before Present" where the "Present" is defined as the year 1950 A.D.

					A OF STREET AND STREET					
Connection	238	O.88.2/4LIvez	214218	$^{252}\mathrm{Th}/^{258}\mathrm{U}$	Th. ATIO	²³⁰ Th Age (yr)	Age			234U/238U
Sample	- (Opp)	(a)	- (V- (III)	(a)	(a)	unc orrected	(yr BP) (b)	erron		Initial (c)
CT-PF7.5	109	0.022	1.570	0.0084	2.6	1508	746			1.572
CT-PF 47	NR	0.013	1.563	0.0017	7.3	884	733		±79	1.565
CT-PF 95	NR	0.014	1.580	0.0015	9.1	956	822		±82	1.581
CT-PF 205	8	0.019	1.565	0.0017	11.0	1330	1176		±68	1.567
CT-PF 335	NR	0.030	1.533	0.0051	5.8	2117	1652		±253	1.536
CT-PF 400	131	0.029	1.533	0.0033	8.6	2041	1739		±140	1.535
CT-PF 510	NR	0.033	1.534	0.0046	7.1	2347	1934		±145	1.537
CT-PF 640	103	0.036	1.600	0.0052	7.1	2503	2060		±146	1.604
CT-PF 740	109	0.022	1.570	0.0084	2.6	1508	2221		±237	1.572
CT-PF 790	¥	0.013	1.563	0.0017	7.3	884	2099		±463	1.565

1	313
1	314
1	315
	316

(a) Activity ratios determined after (Hellstrom, 2003) using the decay constants of (Cheng et al., 2000) (b) Age in kyr before present corrected for initial 220 Th using eqn. 1 of (Hellstrom, 2006) and $[^{220}$ Th/ 232 Th/ 132 Th/ 132 Th/ 132 U/ 238 U/calculated using corrected age

HHUe	 	7	0] C	ан	cu	at	ec	-u	sin	g	cor	re	Cto	ea	aε	je																												
earth ²² Th/ ²⁸ U value of 3.8. The errors are arbitrarily assumed to be 50%. ***B.P. stands for "Before Present" where the "Present" is defined as the year 1950 A.D.	8 C ²⁴ U = $[(^{24}$ U/ 24 U] _{scrioty} = 1 Xx1000. ** 325 U _{scrioty} was calculated based on ²³⁵ Th age (T), i.e., 324 U _{scrioty} = 324 U _{scrioty} X e ^{2,224} T Corrected 235 Th ages assume the initial 126 Th/ 327 Th atomic ratio of 4.4 ±2.2 XtO ⁶ . Tho	U decay constants: _\tag = 1.55125x10 \infty et al., \(19/1\) and \(\tag \) = 2.82206x10 \(\tag \) (Cheng et al., \(2013\). In decay constant: \(\tag \) = 9.1705x10 \(\tag \) (cheng et al., \(2013\).		B1-12-5 . 10 mm	B1-12-5'. 16 mm	B1-12-5'. 26 mm	B1-12-5', 31 mm	B1-12-5: 44 mm B1-12-5: 37 mm	B1-12-5'. 56 mm		Luc-18.5 Luc-22.5	Luc-15.5	Luc-11	Luc 10	Luc-0	Isa-11	Isa-8	Isa-6	Isa-4	Isa-0		Cha-58	Cha -0	Cla-74	Cla-70	Cla-25	Mic-/5	Mic -67	Mic-60	Mic-48	Mir 35	Mic-5	Mic-0	Xev-280	Xev-240	Xev-190	Xev-145	Xev-110	Xer-85	Xev-55			Sample III	;
value of 3.8. or "Before Pi	"U] _{activity} – 1) calculated b iges assume	IS: 1.5						10036 ±47			72 ±0 139 ±0							107.7 ±0.2				348.1 ±0.8				368 ±1				417 ±1				-	299 ±1 277 ±1				299 ±1	355 ±1		(ppb)	Je-	316**
The errors a resent" where	x1000. lased on ²³⁰ Th the initial ²³⁰	2172×10 0						201 ±4 616 ±12			1477 ±30 287 ±6							8522 ±171				396 ±8	169	226 ±5	1262 ±25	493 ±10	77 CT/C7	3812 ±77	1049 ±21	603 ±12					1758 ±35		53.5 ±11	798 ±16	1557 ±31			(ppt)	I h	733
re arbitrarily a the "Present	age (T), i.e., č Th/ ²²² Th atom	атеу ет ат., 19			1052 ±23			392 ±9	49 ±2		16 ±1 47 ±2			213 ±5				5 ± £				84 ±2			17 ±1	32 ±1	3.4 to	9 ±0		34 ±1					20 ±1 19 ±1		25 ±1	18 ±1	0± 8	4.0 ±0.		(atomic x10-5)	(b)	Table : mage
" is defined as	5 ²³⁴ U _{initial} = δ^{234} ic ratio of 4.4	/1) and /234 =	;		295.2	-294.3	-295.1	-290.2 ±2.3	-288.5		1705 ±5 1554 ±3			1721.6 ±3.2			1504.6 ±3.6	1504.8 ±4.5	1487.0 ±4.1			387.3 ±2	381.0 ±2	368.6 ±2	367.8 ±2	367.1 ±2	408.0 ±2.5	458.7 ±2.9	461.4 ±3.8	455.7 ±3.0	4//.0 ±2.5			414.7 ±3.8	420.8 ±3	419.0 ±2.8		410.5 ±2	. 4	2 4343 ±2		(measured)	(*)	
s the year 195	*Umeasured X e ^{2,2}	7.8720ex10		0.00428	0.00293	0.00208	0.00159	0.00119	0.00039	B-1 cave	0.0202 ±0.0005 0.0058 ±0.0002	0.0279	0.0359	0.0382	0.0699	0.0201		.5 0.0253 ±0.0004		0.0382	as Gloce	.7 0.0058 ±	.0 0.0030	.7 0.0030 =	.4 0.0037	.9 0.0026 ±0.0001	0.0144		.8 0.0037 ±0.0001		0.0014	0.0009	0.0027	0.0086	7 0.0072	0.0043	0.0030		1 0.0027	9 0.0021	Seso cav) (activity)	(a) Derry (HIver	The part of
50 A.D.	ਲਕਾਂ Those are th	Cneng et a		0 00002	±0.00002	±0.00002	±0.00002	±0.00001	±0.00002					±0.0003								±0.0001	±0.0001	±0.0001	±0.0001	±0.0001					10000	±0.0002	±0.0001	±0.0001	±0.0002	±0.0001	±0.0001	±0.0001	±0.0001	±0.0001	· e	L		
	e values for	il., 2013). In						224 ±2			818 ±22 250 ±11							1107 ±20				457 ±9						380 ±8							548 ±12					159 ±8		(uncorrected)	(yr)	
	Uncount X $e^{2.2kr!}$ $\pm 2.2 \times 10^6$. Those are the values for a material at secular equilibrium, with the bulk	decay constant	. !					182 ±2 222 ±3			597 ±158 226 ±20			1/44 ±4/				185 ±653		1668 ±26		434 ±19				176 ±22			242 ±24		154 551 6∓ 66		16 ±128		353 ±/1 420 ±92				97 ±76			(corrected)	"In Age (yr)	
	cular equilibri	[: /230 = 9.1/0		291	296	-295	-295	290 H	-289		158 1708 ±5 10 1555 ±3	1789	1803	1729	1872	1507	1508	1506	1493	1472		19 388 ±3	381	369	368	367	273	459	462	456	4//	487	486	415	421	419	405	411	425	434	è	(corrected)		
	ium, with the	extu "(Cheng		504				159			534 163	994	1221	1445	2420	316	814	122	1343	1605		372			158							45			357	238	132			-69-) (corrected)	3	2
	bulk	g et al.,		t, 1	± ±	±7	±38	E #	. 5		±158 ±20	±36	±90	±27	±150	±353	±26	±653(*)	±25	±26		±19	±13	#	±56	±22	±17	±130	±24	±15	+25	+38	±128	±106	±92	±22	±31	±39	±76	±116	1007	eted)	(VI BP)	

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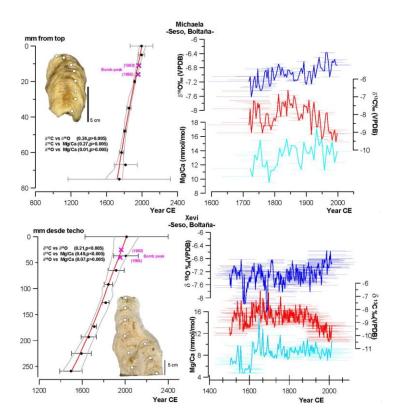
Samula	28[[(mnh)	OAll I		/HI	U.L /U.L	In Age (yr)	Age	10440
оашрк	o (ppo)	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)	uncorrected	(yr BP) (b)	01101
CT-PF 7.5	109	0.022	1.570	0.0084	2.6	1508	746	±193
T-PF 47	NR	0.013	1.563	0.0017	7.3	884	733	±79
T-PF 95	NR	0.014	1.580	0.0015	9.1	956	822	±82
T-PF 205	95	0.019	1.565	0.0017	11.0	1330	1176	±68
T-PF 335	NR	0.030	1.533	0.0051	5.8	2117	1652	±253
T-PF 400	131	0.029	1.533	0.0033	8.6	2041	1739	±140
T-PF 510	NR	0.033	1.534	0.0046	7.1	2347	1934	±145
T-PF 640	103	0.036	1.600	0.0052	7.1	2503	2060	±146
T-PF 740	109	0.022	1.570	0.0084	2.6	1508	2221	±237
T-PE 700	NR.				1			+463

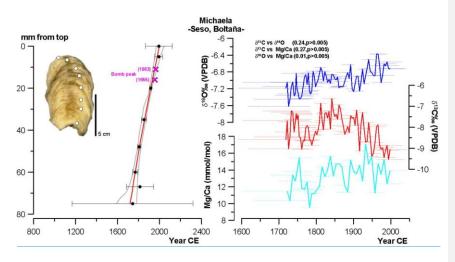
(c) Initial $[^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}]$ calculated using corrected age

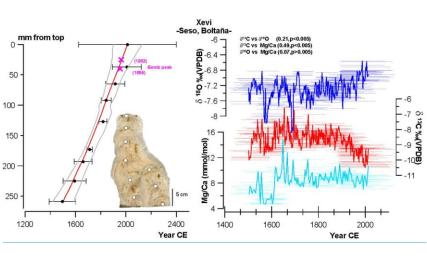
Appendix A

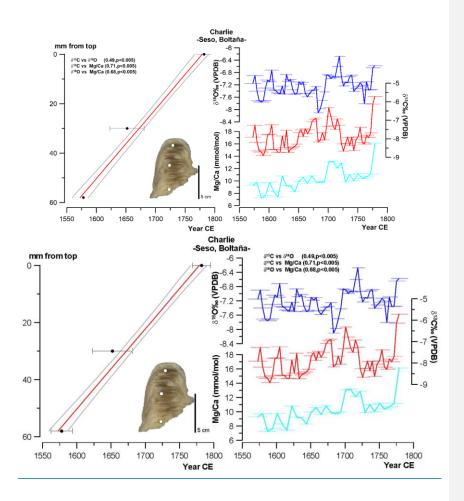
Figure A1. Polished slabs, age-depth model using StalAge (<u>left</u>) and proxy profiles versus age (<u>right</u>) for the stalagmites used in this study arranged by cave (<u>Aa</u>. Seso, <u>Bb</u>. Las Gloces, <u>Cc</u>. B1, and <u>Dd</u>. Pot au Feu caves). Correlation coefficients among the three proxies are indicated based on Pearson correlation. Horizontal lines represent the age error for every data point, following StalAge uncertainty.

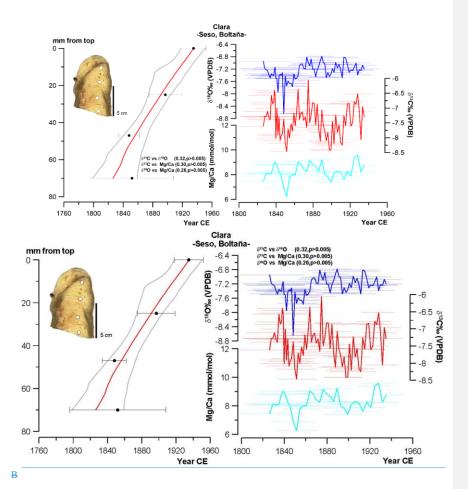
Aa- Seso cave



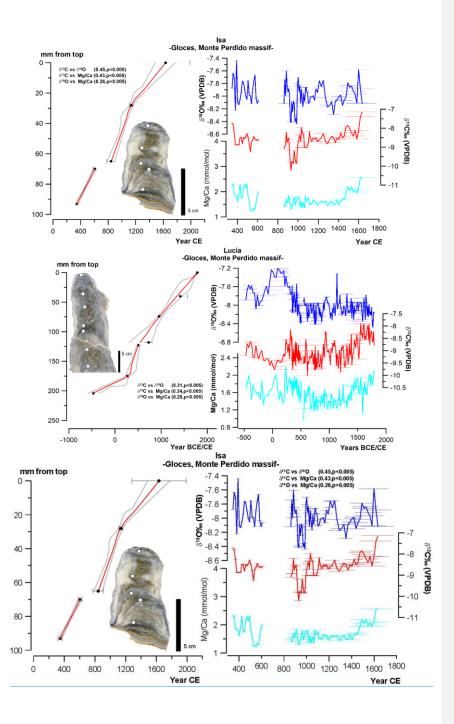


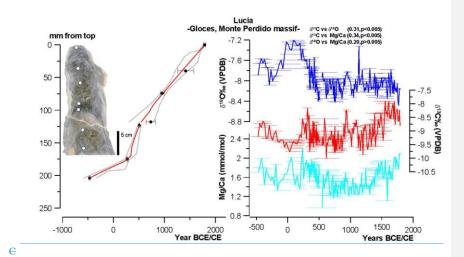




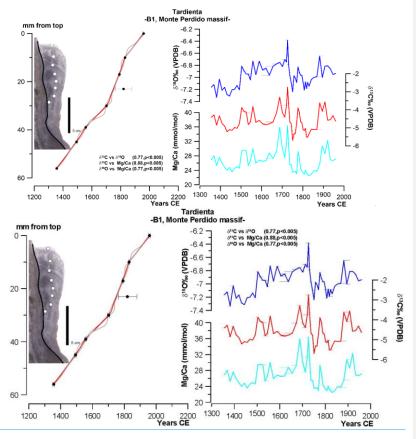


b. Las Gloces cave



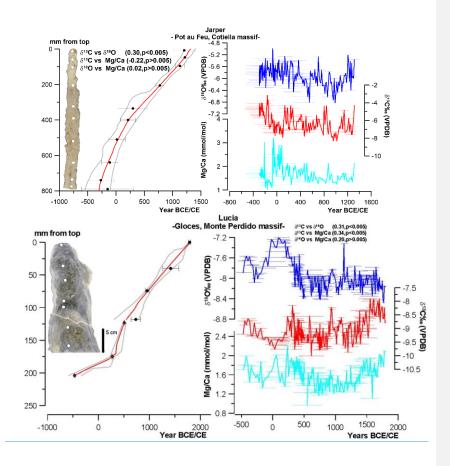


c. B1 cave



1349 Dd. Pot au Feu cave

Con formato: Francés (Francia)





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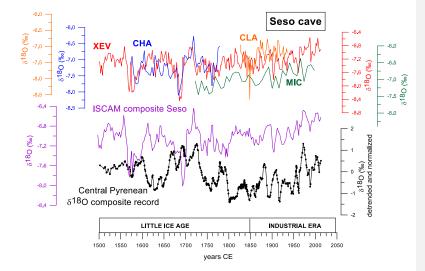


Figure A3. Construction of the composite $\delta^{18}O$ record for Las Gloces cave. In the upper graph, the $\delta^{18}O$ profiles of the two Las Gloces stalagmites are presented, using their StalAge models (ISA in red and LUC in blue). The composite $\delta^{18}O$ record for this cave is shown in purple curve on the same y-axis as the individual curves. The Central Pyrenees $\delta^{18}O$ composite record is shown at the bottom of the graph. MCA: Medieval Climate Anomaly, IE: Industrial Era.

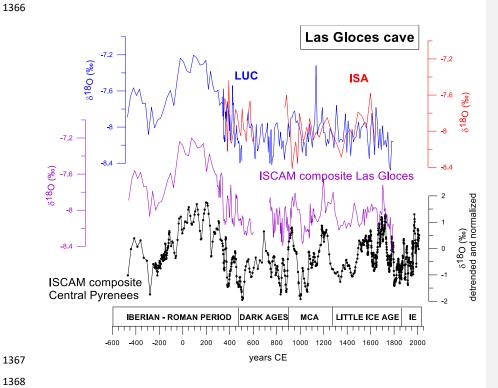
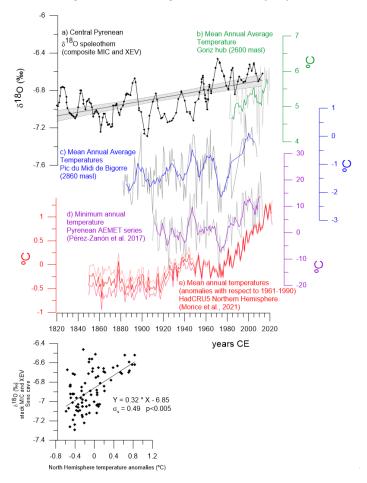
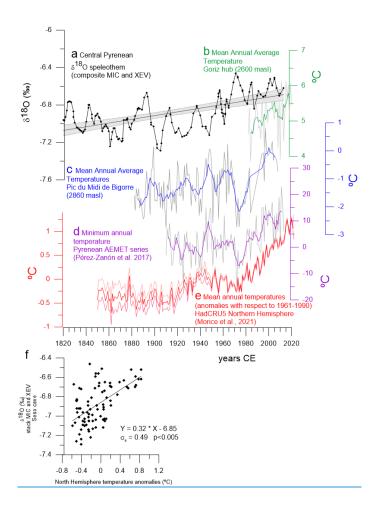


Figure A4. Correlation of (a) composite $\delta^{18}O$ record from MIC and XEV stalagmites with instrumental temperature records at local, regional and global levels. (b) Mean Annual Average Temperature (MAAT) from Goriz hub (AEMET data); (c) MAAT from Pic du Midi de Bigorre (Bücher and Dessens, 1991; Dessens and Bücher, 1995); (d) Minimum Annual Temperature from the Pyrenees from AEMET series (Pérez-Zanón et al., 2017) and (e) MAAT anomalies (respect to 1961-1990 years) using the HadCRUT 5.0.1.0. dataset (Morice et al., 2021). At the bottom, $\int \int \delta^{18}O$ values of the Pyrenees composite record (in a) compared to North Hemisphere mean annual temperatures (in e) showing a significant correlation.







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