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1 **Characterization of lacustrine harmful algal blooms using multiple biomarkers:**
2 **Historical processes, driving synergy, and ecological shifts**

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18 **ABSTRACT**

19 Harmful algal blooms (HABs) producing toxic metabolites are increasingly
20 threatening environmental and human health worldwide. Unfortunately, long-term
21 process and mechanism triggering HABs remain largely unclear due to the scarcity of
22 temporal monitoring. Retrospective analysis of sedimentary biomarkers using
23 up-to-date chromatography and mass spectrometry techniques provide a potential
24 means to reconstruct the past occurrence of HABs. By combining aliphatic
25 hydrocarbons, photosynthetic pigments, and cyanotoxins, we quantified herein
26 century-long changes in abundance, composition, and variability of phototrophs,
27 particularly toxigenic algal blooms, in China's third largest freshwater Lake Taihu.
28 Our multi-proxy limnological reconstruction revealed an abrupt ecological shift in the
29 1980s characterized by elevated primary production, *Microcystis*-dominated
30 cyanobacterial blooms, and exponential microcystin production, in response to
31 nutrient enrichment, climate change, and trophic cascades. The empirical results from
32 ordination analysis and generalized additive models support climate warming and
33 eutrophication synergy through nutrient recycling and their feedback through buoyant
34 cyanobacterial proliferation, which sustain bloom-forming potential and further
35 promote the occurrence of increasingly-toxic cyanotoxins (e.g., microcystin-LR) in
36 Lake Taihu. Moreover, temporal variability of the lake ecosystem quantified using
37 variance and rate of change metrics rose continuously after state change, indicating
38 increased ecological vulnerability and declined resilience following blooms and

39 warming. With the persistent legacy effects of lake eutrophication, nutrient reduction
40 efforts mitigating toxic HABs probably be overwhelmed by climate change effects,
41 emphasizing the need for more aggressive and integrated environmental strategies.

42 **KEYWORDS:** *harmful cyanobacterial bloom; cyanotoxin; critical transition;*
43 *variability; climate warming; lake paleoecology*

44 **1. Introduction**

45 Cultural eutrophication has resulted in a worldwide proliferation of harmful
46 (toxic, food-web altering, hypoxia-generating) algal blooms (HABs) in freshwaters
47 (Ho et al., 2019), threatening global water security and biodiversity (Huisman et al.,
48 2018). In particular, the coupling of nutrient enrichment and climate warming favors
49 cyanobacterial dominance and toxin-producing blooms which have risen through the
50 20th and 21st centuries (Kosten et al., 2012; Taranu et al., 2015; Kakouei et al., 2021;
51 Meerhoff et al., 2022), with a significant occurrence of cyanotoxins in water
52 environments (Taranu et al., 2019; Hayes et al., 2020). Management and mitigation of
53 HABs are of tremendous concern due to their detrimental effects on ecosystem and
54 human health (Havens and Paerl, 2015; Taranu et al., 2017). Systematic monitoring
55 programs are typically initiated once environmental problems have emerged and they
56 rarely capture the full spectrum of aquatic ecosystem deterioration (Battarbee et al.,
57 2005; Qin et al., 2019). One key challenge we face, therefore, is to determine the
58 historical baseline conditions and ecological processes (particularly decadal to
59 centennial) of toxic cyanobacterial blooms in freshwater lakes (Huisman et al., 2018;

60 Ryo et al., 2019; Cao et al., 2020), and what might be the underlying mechanisms of
61 multiple interacting drivers through time (Leavitt et al., 2009; Bruel et al., 2021; Huo
62 et al., 2022).

63 Retrospective assessment using well-dated sediment archives, promisingly,
64 provide past information on ecosystem features prior to monitoring, thus allowing
65 reconstruction of high-resolution eco-environmental trajectories (Smol, 2010; Perga et
66 al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2023). Traditional paleolimnological techniques for micro-algae
67 are mostly based on microscopic identification, and use morphological remains to
68 infer long-term changes of diatoms and a few cyanobacteria (Battarbee et al., 2005;
69 Bunting et al., 2016). Recent advances in molecular techniques enable the analysis of
70 sedimentary DNA to provide a broader taxonomic specificity (Monchamp et al., 2018;
71 Cao et al., 2020; Ibrahim et al., 2020; Huo et al., 2022). Meanwhile, these techniques
72 can be either time/labor-consuming, inadequate, or limited by undefined taphonomic
73 and analytical issues (e.g., cumulative degradation, insufficiency of targeted reference
74 library) (Domaizon et al., 2017). Alternatively, the rapid developments of
75 high-performance chromatography and mass spectrometry technologies have laid a
76 solid foundation for highly efficient and reliable approaches for analyzing multiple
77 molecular biomarkers of photoautotrophs. In particular, a combination of aliphatic
78 hydrocarbons (Meyers, 2003), photosynthetic pigments (Leavitt, 1993; McGowan,
79 2013), and cyanotoxins (Henao et al., 2019) applied to lake sediments can achieve
80 unprecedented information on past dynamics of primary producer communities (e.g.
81 phytoplankton versus macrophyte dominance), HABs, and toxin production (Waters

82 et al., 2021).

83 Impacts of multiple stressors on freshwater ecosystems, such as climate change,
84 eutrophication, hydrological alterations, and trophic cascades, may (i) complicate the
85 identification of drivers and their interactions that are responsible for key changes
86 (Leavitt et al., 2009; Deng et al., 2014), (ii) increase the risk of catastrophic shifts
87 (e.g., macrophyte extinction, HABs) (Scheffer et al., 2001), and (iii) compromise the
88 potency of restoration measures by changing the baseline conditions (Battarbee et al.,
89 2005; Bruel et al., 2021). In lake ecosystems, temporal variability in primary
90 production can rise due to persistent increases in nutrient influx (e.g., the paradox of
91 enrichment) (Cottingham et al., 2000; Bunting et al., 2016), after which the state shift
92 to prolific cyanobacteria is triggered by relative minor forcing (eg., warming) that
93 push lakes beyond critical thresholds (Dakos et al., 2015). The complexity and
94 interactivity of stressors on ecosystems further hamper our understanding of how
95 reducing local pressures may increase ecosystem resilience to climate change
96 (Monchamp et al., 2018; Bruel et al., 2021; Carpenter et al., 2022). Retrospective
97 examination of past ecological shifts and variability characteristics using long-term
98 records, therefore, may provide critical insights on how nonlinear and abrupt HABs in
99 response to environmental change may improve lake management and mitigation
100 strategies (Bunting et al., 2016; Ryo et al., 2019; Bjorndahl et al., 2022).

101 In this study, we quantified one-century long changes in the production,
102 composition, variance, and rate of change of phototrophic assemblages, particularly
103 toxigenic cyanobacteria and their toxic metabolites, in a typical eutrophic lake (Lake

104 Taihu, China) suffering from increasingly frequent cyanobacterial HABs.
105 High-resolution time series of sedimentary biomarkers (*n*-alkanes, chlorophyll and
106 carotenoid pigments, microcystins) and geochemistry (organic carbon, nutrients,
107 metals) were quantitatively integrated with monitoring data and historical archives
108 using ordination analysis and generalized additive models. We address two key
109 questions: (i) what are the dynamic trajectories of photoautotrophic succession
110 (macrophyte versus phytoplankton), HABs, and cyanotoxin production, and how were
111 catastrophic shifts shaped by multiple stressors interacting through time? (ii) whether
112 current HABs and historical changes in ecological variability were consistent with the
113 establishment of an alternative stable state in Lake Taihu, and what are the
114 implications for ecosystem resilience and baselines? Our methodology has
115 considerable potential application globally to provide evolutionary insights into the
116 mechanisms of freshwater ecosystem degradation and to open new management
117 perspectives for ecological adaptation (Perga et al., 2015) to climate warming.

118 **2. Materials and methods**

119 **2.1. Study area and sampling**

120 Lake Taihu, China's third largest freshwater lake (~2,338 km²), is located in the
121 rapidly developing and highly urbanized Yangtze River Delta (Fig. S1). Currently, the
122 catchment area is dominated by agricultural land (47.9%), urban land (24.3%), and
123 water bodies (13.6%) that supports 4.8% (~65 million) of China's population and
124 produces 11.6% of national GDP, despite occupying only 0.4% (~36,500 km²) of

125 China's land area. There are approximately 219 rivers, with inflows going to the
126 northern and western lake sides, and outflows occurring on the eastern sides. Due to
127 nutrient supply and climate warming, this shallow (<3 m) lake has experienced
128 accelerated eutrophication accompanied by potentially toxic cyanobacterial blooms
129 (*Microcystis* spp.) (Guo et al., 2019). Coupled with southerly or southeasterly winds,
130 annual cyanobacterial HABs occur earlier and persist longer in the northern and
131 western lake (Shi et al., 2019), threatening the water security of approximately 30
132 millions of inhabitants (Qin et al., 2019). However, continuous water quality
133 monitoring and remote sensing observations are limited to recent ~30 years.

134 In order to reconstruct longer-term history of lake eutrophication and HABs for
135 assessing ecosystem state dynamics and optimizing management strategies, two
136 duplicate sediment cores (~40 cm) with intact sediment-water interfaces were
137 retrieved (Smol, 2010) from one typical, relatively sedimentation-stable area of Lake
138 Taihu (central west, N31.11623°, E120.06152°) in March 2017 and July 2020 (Fig. S1)
139 (Lin et al., 2020). The cores were cut into 0.5-cm contiguous intervals, and
140 subsamples were refrigerated at -4 °C. Modern samples including cultured
141 cyanobacterium *Microcystis* (n=5), predominant macrophytes (6 species), and surface
142 forest soil (n=5) in and around the lake were also collected (Table S1). In the
143 laboratory, all the samples were freeze-dried, and core sediment subsamples were
144 processed for radiochronology, physicochemical parameters, and biomarker analyses.
145 The sediment core collected in 2020 was specifically for the measurement of
146 microcystins, and other proxy analyses were conducted on the previous core. These

147 cores from the increasingly blooming area were taken as an analytical test for
148 multi-biomarker reconstruction in this study.

149 **2.2. Radiochronology**

150 Isotopes of ^{210}Pb , ^{226}Ra and ^{137}Cs for sediment dating were measured using a
151 gamma spectrometer (ORTEC., USA), which provides an absolute detection
152 efficiency ($\geq 95\%$) according to calibrated sources and standard samples. The age
153 model of the sediment core collected in 2017 was computed with *serac* R package
154 (Bruel and Sabatier, 2020). We have previously reported detailed protocols of
155 geochronology and reliable results that suggested mean sedimentation rates of 0.38
156 cm yr^{-1} for the lake area over the past hundred years (Lin et al., 2020). The age for
157 another core was thus determined through core matching based on lithology and
158 geochemical parameters (Cheng et al., 2023).

159 **2.3. Sediment physicochemical analysis**

160 The analytical determination of major sediment physicochemical parameters,
161 including grain size, mass magnetic susceptibility, metal elements (e.g., Al, Ti, Fe,
162 Mn), total phosphorus (P), total nitrogen (N), organic carbon (OC), and nutrient
163 stoichiometry (molar ratios of C/N and N/P) have been well described in our previous
164 studies (Lin et al., 2020, 2021). The temporal changes of these paleovariabls are
165 shown in detail in Fig. S2.

166 **2.4. Multi-biomarker analysis**

167 Three kinds of sedimentary molecular biomarkers were analyzed

168 comprehensively in Lake Taihu cores to characterize the integral historical processes
169 of HABs. First, aliphatic hydrocarbons (particularly *n*-alkanes) were used to
170 distinguish the relative contributions of organic matter from algae, macrophytes, and
171 terrestrial plants, reflecting major succession of photoautotrophic communities
172 (Meyers, 2003). Second, photosynthetic subfossil pigments are reliable indicators to
173 track the past changes in lake primary productivity and algal community (McGowan,
174 2013), particularly the abundance and composition of bloom-forming algae
175 (Bjorndahl et al., 2022). On this basis, concentrations of cyanotoxins were measured
176 in the sediments to infer the magnitude of past HABs and their toxin production
177 through time (Waters et al., 2021).

178 *Aliphatic hydrocarbons.* Sediment core subsamples, samples of cultured
179 cyanobacterium *Microcystis*, collected aquatic macrophytes, and surface forest soil
180 were all analyzed for *n*-alkanes following standard procedures (Zhang et al., 2019). In
181 brief, homogenized dry samples were ultrasonically extracted four times using the
182 dichloromethane/methanol (9:1, v/v) mixture. Total lipids were concentrated to dry
183 with pure nitrogen and saponified with 6% KOH in methanol at room temperature for
184 12 h. The neutral lipids containing *n*-alkanes were further extracted with *n*-hexane
185 through silica gel column chromatography. Finally, *n*-alkanes were measured using an
186 Agilent 7890 Gas Chromatograph (GC) equipped with an Agilent 5975 mass
187 spectrometer (MS) with an external C16 standard for identification and quantification.
188 A set of proxies (ACL, TAR, P_{aq} , and S/M) were calculated based on odd-carbon
189 *n*-alkanes to identify the composition and sources of sedimentary organic matter

190 (Ficken et al., 2000; Meyers, 2003), which are explicitly described in the Supporting
191 Information (Text S1).

192 *Photosynthetic subfossil pigments.* Sedimentary chlorophyll and carotenoid
193 pigments were extracted and purified following the standard method with optimal
194 mixtures of acetone, methanol, and deionized water at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 12 h (McGowan,
195 2013). After filtering, nitrogen blowing, and re-dissolution, individual chlorophyll and
196 carotenoid compounds were isolated and quantified using an Agilent 1200 series
197 high-performance liquid chromatography unit (HPLC, Canada) with an ODS Hypersil
198 column (250×4.6 mm; 5 μm particle size) and photo-diode array detector. Pigment
199 concentrations were calibrated with authentic standards (DHI Lab, Denmark) and are
200 expressed as nmol pigment g^{-1} OC because the degradation of organic pool can partly
201 compensate for bias of pigment diagenesis (Leavitt, 1993; McGowan, 2013). An
202 ultraviolet radiation (UVR) index was calculated by dividing UVR-absorbing pigment
203 (scytonemin derivative) relative to the sum of key carotenoids (diatoxanthin,
204 lutein-zeaxanthin, and alloxanthin) and multiplying by 100 (Leavitt et al., 1997).
205 Calibration in whole-lake experiments revealed that this index increases as a linear
206 function of the depth of UVR penetration (Leavitt et al., 1997), such that higher index
207 values indicate greater exposure to potentially damaging UVR, namely better light
208 conditions and higher water clarity (McGowan et al., 2012).

209 *Cyanotoxins.* Sedimentary microcystins (MCs) were analyzed following
210 previously published procedures (Cheng et al., 2023). Briefly, homogenized sediment
211 subsamples were ultrasonically extracted three times using 0.1 mol EDTA/ $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$

212 (1:1, v/v, pH=3) mixture. The extracts were loaded into hydrophilic-lipophilic balance
213 cartridges previously activated with methanol and washed with deionized water. After
214 a further washing step and elution with methanol, the toxin eluent was dried using
215 pure nitrogen at 40 °C. Finally, three dominant MC congeners (MC-LR, MC-YR,
216 MC-RR) (Henaio et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2023) were measured using a Waters H-class
217 ultra HPLC tandem triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (USA) with an Acquity
218 UPLC BEH C18 column (100×1 mm, 1.7 μm particle size). The calibration ranges
219 were 0–200 μg L⁻¹ (R²≥0.99) using MC standards from Sigma-Aldrich (≥95%,
220 Germany), and the relative standard deviations were less than 5% as quantified from
221 external standards and blanks. The MCs were reported as ng toxin g⁻¹ OC to
222 compensate for diagenetic degradation (Waters et al., 2021).

223 **2.5. Historical data**

224 Time series of major environmental variables from the study area were collected
225 for the past ~120 years to quantify the statistical relationships between the
226 paleorecords of lake ecosystem status (*n*-alkanes, pigments, cyanotoxins, OC, total
227 nitrogen and phosphorus) and identify potential causal effects associated with regional
228 changes in climate, agriculture, and urbanization (Fig. S3). Climate records including
229 annual mean air temperature, wind speed, and total precipitation were obtained from a
230 nearby meteorological station #58358 of China (<https://data.cma.cn/>) with
231 supplements from the global historical climatology network (<https://cdiac.ornl.gov/>).
232 Estimates of agricultural intensity referring to total fertilizer and pesticide
233 consumption and rice yield (Bunting et al., 2016) were compiled from official

234 statistical data of nearby cities (<https://www.stats.gov.cn/>) and previous documents
235 (Ellis and Wang, 1997). Historical records of urbanization (mainly urban sewage) as
236 mirrored by total wastewater effluent, local population (dominated by urban
237 inhabitants) and GDP (McGowan et al., 2012) were obtained from Taihu Basin
238 Authority of Ministry of Water Resources and official statistical documents (Fig. S3).
239 Although too short for our statistical analysis, limnological variables monitored
240 during 2005–2020 were obtained from the Taihu Laboratory for Lake Ecosystem
241 Research for data integration.

242 **2.6. Numerical analysis**

243 Temporal variations of historical document data, lake geochemical variables and
244 biomarkers were visualized using Grapher 14 and R software. Sedimentary
245 paleorecord time series (*n*-alkanes, pigments, total MCs, OC, nitrogen, and
246 phosphorus) were log-transformed if needed, then centered (mean=0), standardized
247 (variance=1.0), and harmonized to equivalent sampling intervals prior to statistical
248 analyses (Bunting et al., 2016).

249 *Change phase analysis.* The timings of paleorecord changes were determined
250 using stratigraphically constrained incremental sum of squares (CONISS) cluster
251 analysis in the Tilia program. Sequential T-test algorithm based on variance analysis
252 with prewhitening ($p < 0.05$, cut-off length=10) and calculation of cumulative sum of
253 differences were also performed to identify significant change points and the main
254 phases of past ecological dynamics (Andersen et al., 2009; Cao et al., 2020).

255 *Ordination analysis.* The gradient length of <1 total standard deviation unit for

256 the paleorecords suggested that a linear model was suitable for unconstrained and
257 constrained ordinations using Canoco 5 program (ter Braak and Šmilauer, 2012).
258 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis based on Bray–Curtis
259 distances was performed to identify structural changes in paleorecords through time in
260 a reduced two-dimensional space. For technical purposes, the scores of both NMDS
261 axes (NMDS1, NMDS2) were taken as the main representative variation indices of
262 ecological dynamics (Ibrahim et al., 2020). Up to ten environmental variables
263 referring to regional climate, agriculture, and urbanization (Fig. S3) were included in
264 the initial analysis to evaluate their significance and collinearity, via a series of
265 forward selection and restricted Monte Carlo permutation tests ($n = 999$) (ter Braak
266 and Šmilauer, 2012). Four runs of redundancy analysis (RDA) were then conducted to
267 explore potential relationships between paleorecords and individual categories of
268 significant environmental variables of agriculture (fertilizer consumption),
269 urbanization sewage (population), and climate (air temperature, wind speed),
270 respectively. Variance partitioning analysis (VPA) was used to estimate the fractions
271 of historical variances in the paleorecord time series explained by all categories of
272 significant environmental variables and their interactions (Bunting et al., 2016).

273 *Generalized additive model analysis.* Generalized additive models (GAMs)
274 analysis were performed to distinguish and quantify the impacts of local human
275 activity and regional climate change on Lake Taihu ecosystem dynamics through time.
276 The inferred human index (i.e., weighted averages of z-score normalized population
277 and fertilizer consumption) and climate index (i.e., ratios of annual mean air

278 temperature to wind speed) were chosen as representative predictor variables, while
279 the response variables were scores of both NMDS axes calculated from the dataset
280 collating multiple paleorecords (details in Text S2). The functions *gam* and
281 *predict.gam* from “mgcv” package in R software (Wood, 2017) were used, and GAMs
282 analyses were conducted following standard procedures (Simpson, 2018) and our
283 previous descriptions (Lin et al., 2021).

284 *Temporal variability analysis.* Sedimentary pigments and other biomarkers can
285 accurately record the variability of algal communities following fertilization through
286 time (Cottingham et al., 2000; Meyers, 2003), and thus reliably reflect changes in
287 ecosystem variability during state shifts (Carpenter et al., 2011; Bunting et al., 2016).
288 Historical changes in the temporal variability of total autotrophic production (Chl *a* +
289 echinenone), bloom-forming algal abundance (sum of canthaxanthin and
290 lutein-zeaxanthin) (Bunting et al., 2016; Bjorndahl et al., 2022), cyanotoxins (total
291 MCs) (Waters et al., 2021), and the scores representing paleorecord structure
292 (NMDS1) were estimated by the numerical simulation of both variance and rate of
293 change (RoC) following standard technical recommendations (Simpson, 2018;
294 Bjorndahl et al., 2022). The variances were extracted by calculating the standard
295 deviations performed with the “earlywarnings” packages in R (Dakos et al., 2015).
296 The RoCs were generated from the posterior simulations of the fitted GAMs using the
297 first derivative of a spline. All models fitting the selected time series contained a
298 continuous-time first-order autoregressive [CAR(1)] process to account for temporal
299 autocorrelation. These analyses were performed using R software with the “mgcv”

300 and “vegan” packages (Wood, 2017; Simpson, 2018).

301 **3. Results**

302 Multiple analyses of sediment cores from Lake Taihu revealed distinct dynamics
303 of lake primary producers following fertilization and climate change. Proxies for
304 organic matter, nutrients, autotrophic production, and cyanobacterial HABs showed
305 particularly prominent changes, which exhibited three similar phases since the 1900s.

306 **3.1. Sedimentary OC, nutrients and *n*-alkanes**

307 Sediments were mainly composed of coarse silt (16–63 μm), accounting
308 for >50% prior to 1950. Peaks of OC, C/N ratios (>12), total phosphorus and nitrogen
309 in the mid-1910s and -1930s, coeval with higher sand content and lithogenic elements
310 (e.g., Al, Ti) (Fig. 1A and Fig. S2), probably showed enhanced inputs of terrigenous
311 nutrients and organic matter (Meyers, 2003). Sedimentary *n*-alkanes before the 1950s
312 were dominated by middle-chain (*n*-C₂₁, *n*-C₂₃, *n*-C₂₅) and long-chain (*n*-C₂₇, *n*-C₂₉,
313 *n*-C₃₁, *n*-C₃₃) components (averaged 87.5%) (Fig. 1A and Fig. S4) similar to that of
314 macrophytes and surface soil (Fig. S5). These characteristics together with relatively
315 high values of TAR and P_{aq} (>0.4), and low S/M ratios suggested dominant
316 contributions of organic matter from submerged/floating macrophytes and
317 allochthonous origin (Ficken et al., 2000; Meyers, 2003).

318 During the 1950s–1980s, content of fine silt (4–16 μm) and lithogenic elements
319 increased slightly while OC and nutrients remained stable (Fig. 1A and Fig. S2). The
320 C/N ratios decreased continuously to <10 and proportions of short-chain *n*-alkanes

321 (*n*-C₁₇, *n*-C₁₉) increased sharply since the mid-1970s, reflecting substantially higher
322 algal organic matter contribution, as algal communities (particularly cyanobacteria)
323 have been identified as main contributors of short-chain *n*-alkanes in our survey (Fig.
324 S5) and previous analyses (Zhang et al., 2017). Middle-chain *n*-alkanes and P_{aq}
325 decreased and remained at low levels while S/M ratios fluctuated and increased to a
326 high level, suggesting a potential transition toward an algae-dominated lake state.
327 Meanwhile, long-chain *n*-alkanes, ACL, and TAR as indicators of allochthonous
328 organic matter input (Meyers, 2003) showed coeval decreases and relatively low
329 values from ~1970.

330 Since the 1990s, sediments were dominated by fine particles (<16 μm) enriched
331 with magnetic mineral and lithogenic elements (Fig. S2) relating to well-weathered
332 terrigenous detritus (Lin et al., 2020). Sedimentary phosphorus, nitrogen, and OC
333 showed ~1.5-fold increases while C/N ratios fluctuated around 10. Short-chain
334 *n*-alkanes from algae maintained a relatively high abundance followed by a decrease,
335 whereas middle-chain *n*-alkanes and P_{aq} values remained relatively low and stable
336 (Fig. 1A). These results along with relatively high S/M ratios suggested an
337 algae-dominated organic matter source and a lake ecological regime that has greatly
338 deviated from the historical conditions prior to 1950.

339 **3.2. Subfossil pigments and cyanotoxins**

340 Analyses of subfossil chlorophylls, carotenoids, and cyanotoxins revealed main
341 shifts of algal communities are consistent with pronounced lake eutrophication (Figs.
342 1B and 2). An increase in the ratios of labile to chemically-stable chlorophylls (Chl *a* :

343 Pheophytin *a*) in the upper core (Fig. S6) reflected slightly improved pigment
344 preservation when algal production increases as expected (Leavitt, 1993; Waters et al.,
345 2021). Additionally, ratios of total carotenoids to total identified pigments did not
346 change with depth, indicating a relatively constant preservation environment since the
347 1900s. This phenomenon coincided with generally stable redox conditions since the
348 1950s as inferred from Fe/Mn ratios (Fig. 2). Thus, the molecular biomarkers were
349 well-preserved in recent sediments of Lake Taihu beyond similar human-impacted
350 waters elsewhere (Bunting et al., 2016; Zastepa et al., 2017; Waters et al., 2021;
351 Huang et al., 2022; Zeng et al., 2023).

352 Cluster analysis of pigment assemblages identified the most significant turning
353 points around the 1950s and 1980s, and that algal communities showed two main
354 patterns of change (Fig. 1B). First, concentrations of pigments from siliceous algae
355 (diatoxanthin) and cryptophytes (alloxanthin) that commonly grow in the spring
356 (Deng et al., 2014), were too low to be detected before ~1995, then generally
357 increased in recent sediments. Second, subfossil biomarkers from summer
358 bloom-forming colonial cyanobacteria and chlorophytes (canthaxanthin,
359 lutein-zeaxanthin, pheophytin *b* and *b'*) (Guo et al., 2019), together with
360 chemically-stable indicators of total algal abundance (β -carotene, total carotenoids),
361 were relatively constant during most of the 20th century, increased 300–700% to high
362 levels during the 1980s–1990s, then showed few fluctuations or lower trends in the
363 recent decade. The echinenone (cyanobacterial pigment) that is often found to be
364 extremely enriched in *Microcystis* (Hesse et al., 2001) was coeluted with labile Chl *a*

365 (all phototrophs) in HPLC, which collectively showed a ~9-fold increase similar to
366 β -carotene. Correspondingly, a sharp decrease of the UVR index occurred during the
367 1980s–2000s, indicating a marked decline in UV exposure and water clarity (Leavitt
368 et al., 1997). Taken together, these results demonstrate that algal production increased
369 ~3- to 7-fold since the 1980s when an ecosystem state shift was initiated. Recent
370 modification of algal communities inferred from pigments is basically consistent with
371 modern monitoring and molecular genetic results that showed a >50% phytoplankton
372 biomass contribution from *Microcystis*-dominated cyanobacteria (Zhang et al., 2018a;
373 Guo et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2023).

374 Cyanotoxins (three microcystin congeners) were detected throughout the
375 century-long sediment record, and their production showed historical variations
376 corresponding to bloom-forming cyanobacterial proliferation (Fig. 2). In general,
377 concentrations of total MCs fluctuated without clear directional trends before ~1950,
378 peaked between the 1960s (514 ng g⁻¹ OC) and the 1980s (1,752 ng g⁻¹ OC), then
379 increased exponentially since the 1990s to the highest value (~40,000 ng g⁻¹ OC) in
380 the surface sediments. Elevated production of total MCs was mainly sourced from
381 increased contributions of highly toxic MC-YR (averaged 45%) and MC-LR
382 (averaged 36%), whereas contribution of hypotoxic MC-RR (averaged 19%)
383 generally decreased since the 1950s. Moreover, rapid growth of cyanotoxin
384 production was in pace with enriched nitrogen, phosphorus, elevated N/P ratios, and
385 decreased C/N ratios, indicating a combined effect of nutrient inputs and
386 stoichiometry changes (Xue et al., 2023).

387 **3.3. Driver-response relationships**

388 NMDS analysis tracked three distinguishable groups from biomarker and
389 geochemistry assemblages since the 1900s (Fig. S7), as also observed from the
390 stratigraphic temporal cluster (Fig. 1). The main gradient of paleorecord changes was
391 associated with increased levels of autotrophic production, bloom-forming
392 cyanobacterial proliferation, cyanotoxin occurrence, and loss of macrophytes and
393 water clarity as nutrient enrichment led to changes in trophic state. This ecological
394 gradient was highly correlated with NMDS1 and explained 81.3% of variation
395 compared to 18.7% from NMDS2. Further statistical analyses using sequential T-test
396 and cumulative sum of differences for NMDS1 scores confirmed shifting points of the
397 lake ecosystem around the 1950s and 1980s (Fig. S8).

398 RDA with the agriculture predictor (fertilizer) alone explained 32.1% of
399 variation in geochemistry and biomarkers during the past hundred years, similar to the
400 variation explained by the sewage predictor (population, 30.9%) alone (Fig. 3A and
401 Fig. S9). In contrast, RDA using climate variables either elevated air temperature
402 (23.6%) or declined wind speed (30.6%) alone explained fewer changes in the
403 paleorecords. VPA showed that environmental variation associated with agriculture,
404 sewage, and climate totally explained 61.4% of past dynamics in lake ecosystem (Fig.
405 S9). Comparison of individual and interactive categories suggested that most of the
406 explained variance arose from total interactions between agriculture, sewage, and
407 climate change (20.1%), followed by that from sewage (17.5%) and that from
408 agriculture (10.4%) alone (Fig. 3A). The remaining unexplained variance (38.6%)

409 may be related to other environmental factors, particularly precipitation, hydrological
410 fluctuations, and extreme weather events, which are important but usually hard to
411 statistically quantify in long-term driver-response analysis (McGowan et al., 2012;
412 Bunting et al., 2016).

413 GAMs estimated when and to what extent human activities and climate change
414 contributed to the past ecological dynamics of Lake Taihu, as indicated by the
415 NMDS1 and NMDS2 scores of the paleorecords (Fig. 3). Documentary data-inferred
416 human and climate indices (Text S2, Fig. S7) were considered as representative
417 predictor variables according to our RDA results and previous investigations at Lake
418 Taihu (Zhang et al., 2018b; Lin et al., 2021). Human and climate indices together
419 explained 94.4% of variation in NMDS1 and 91.3% in NMDS2, respectively (Table
420 S2). The smooth functions (Fig. 3B) illustrated a nonlinear response of NMDS1 to
421 human index and a significantly linear response to climate. NMDS2 also responded
422 significantly to human and climate indices with nonlinear trends. From a temporal
423 perspective, the simultaneous effects of changing human activity and climate were
424 detected for both NMDS axis scores since the 1980s when simultaneous positive
425 effects on the NMDS1 prevailed (Fig. 3C). As lake trophic status deteriorated, the
426 contribution of climate increased and even surpassed that of anthropogenic nutrient
427 influx in recent decades.

428 **3.4. Historical changes in ecological variability**

429 The fitted GAMs were significant ($p < 0.001$) for dominant biomarker time series
430 of primary producers, community turnover, and cyanotoxins (Table S3), allowing

431 estimation of historical patterns of lake ecosystem variability. Temporal trends in
432 variance and RoC were similar for specific variables (Fig. 4A). Variance of time series
433 in total and bloom-forming algae (particularly cyanobacteria) started to increase from
434 the early 1990s, and the corresponding RoCs increased significantly since the
435 mid-1980s. In contrast, cyanotoxins showed sharp increases in variance and RoC after
436 ~2010, lagging behind the initial *Microcystis* blooms. Changes in variance and RoC
437 of the scores of NMDS1 axis were particularly coherent in recent three decades,
438 manifesting as a significant increase followed by a decline. Notably, temporal
439 variability of these key ecosystem components increased to varying degrees following
440 the apparent ecosystem state change.

441 **4. Discussion**

442 This work shows that integrated application of multi-biomarkers and
443 geochemistry proxies on lake sediment sequences provides a powerful means to
444 retrospectively assess long-term dynamics in HABs, cyanotoxin production, and
445 ecosystem variability in response to multiple stressors and their interactions. Our
446 results revealed critical processes of eutrophication and primary production
447 culminating in an abrupt ecological shift, characterized by increasingly-toxic
448 cyanobacterial blooms (*Microcystis*) from the 1980s in Lake Taihu. Thereafter
449 increasing ecological variability suggested that Lake Taihu was probably subjected to
450 elevated variation in the forcing mechanism (Dakos et al., 2015), and/or exhibited a
451 paradox of enrichment (Cottingham et al., 2000; Bunting et al., 2016) with nutrient

452 cyclic loops (Scheffer et al., 2001; Xu et al., 2021), which failed to establish an
453 alternative stable state (Carpenter et al., 2011). Our findings have demonstrated
454 increased ecological vulnerability and reduced predictability of cyanobacterial HABs
455 following state change and climate warming, which has profound environmental
456 implications.

457 **4.1. Multiple stressors underlying HABs and cyanotoxin production**

458 Freshwater ecosystems are widely experiencing the “allied attack” of climate
459 change and eutrophication (Moss et al., 2011), particularly for degrading shallow
460 lakes (Zhou et al., 2022), given their potential driving synergy (Paerl and Scott, 2010;
461 Meerhoff et al., 2022). As shown in previous investigations (Kosten et al., 2012),
462 experiments (Richardson et al., 2019), modelling (Taranu et al., 2017; Kakouei et al.,
463 2021), and syntheses (Havens and Paerl, 2015; Taranu et al., 2015; Jeppesen et al.,
464 2020), eutrophic conditions and warmer climate contribute to higher phytoplankton
465 biomass and cyanobacterial dominance, thus increase the risk of toxic HABs and
466 water quality degradation (Huisman et al., 2018). This phenomenon is extremely true
467 for large, shallow Lake Taihu, similar to lakes Okeechobee (USA), Winnipeg
468 (Canada), Võrtsjärv (Estonia), Kasumigaura (Japan), Chaohu (China), and shallow
469 parts of other large lakes worldwide (Qin et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2022). Accelerated
470 climate warming and nutrients influx (N, P) from the watershed due to rapid
471 agricultural expansion and urbanization (Fig. S3) are widely recognized as the driving
472 factors (Xu et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2023). Our paleolimnological reconstruction and
473 ordination results (Figs. 2 and 3A) offered empirical complement of lake

474 eutrophication from long-term perspective, associating largely with agricultural
475 practices and urban sewage.

476 Moreover, interactions between climate change (warming, wind stilling) and
477 anthropogenic nutrients in VPA explained a large part of the historical dynamics in the
478 Taihu ecosystem (Fig. 3A). This is consistent with theoretical and empirical
479 expectations that environmental effects work on lakes via coupled influxes of energy
480 (temperature, irradiance, wind) and mass (precipitation, nutrients, particles) (Leavitt
481 et al., 2009). According to the GAM results (Fig. 3C), the majority of the forcing
482 interactions through time were cumulative with simultaneous positive effects since
483 intensified fertilization and cyanobacterial blooms in the 1980s. Thus, our empirical
484 results highlight the synergistic effects of eutrophication and climate change on
485 cyanobacterial temporal dynamics.

486 As previously and newly-loaded nutrients are effectively retained and recycled in
487 Lake Taihu (Zhu et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2021), warming effects have produced a suite
488 of favorable environmental conditions to sustain the HAB potential. First,
489 phytoplankton universally optimize growth as temperatures increase to a certain
490 extent, notably for cyanobacteria and other bloom-forming algae that prefer warming
491 conditions (Carey et al., 2012; Havens and Paerl, 2015). Second, enhanced water
492 column stability and thermal stratification following joint regional warming and
493 atmospheric stilling (Fig. S3) modify phytoplankton communities by favoring surface
494 bloom-forming cyanobacteria through buoyancy regulation (Kosten et al., 2012). The
495 consequent accumulation of detrital organic matter from algae in summer and autumn

496 usually enhances deoxygenation of subsurface water layers, stimulates the release of
497 internal phosphorus (Yin et al., 2022), and inhibits nitrification-denitrification
498 coupling in Lake Taihu (Zhu et al., 2020). This is also indicated by the shifts in the
499 sediment nutrient stoichiometry, such as elevated N/P ratios and fluctuated C/N ratios
500 following blooms (Fig. 2). Bloom-induced underwater light attenuation (Fig. 1B)
501 further reinforce buoyant cyanobacteria dominance (Carey et al., 2012; Guo et al.,
502 2019). Third, rising temperature can not only increase the mineralization rate of
503 watershed soils, but also be accompanied by more extreme rainstorms, both of which
504 could enhance diffuse and legacy nutrient delivery to waters. Tropical cyclones and
505 extreme weather have been reported to play an important role in stimulating
506 cyanobacterial bloom formation in Lake Taihu (Zhu et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2016).
507 Furthermore, human and climate-driven hydrological alterations (e.g., ~20% rise of
508 Taihu lake-level since 1992) (Zhang et al., 2018b), combined with projected warming
509 and drought (Woolway et al., 2020), are expected to extend vertical stratification and
510 water residence time, which will likely promote HABs and complicate eutrophication
511 management (Havens and Paerl, 2015; Yang et al., 2017; Meerhoff et al., 2022).

512 In turn, the interactive effects also strongly stimulate the production of hazardous
513 cyanotoxins, particularly microcystins, as found in microcosm experiments (Lürling
514 et al., 2018). Our biomarker reconstruction revealed that significant increases in MCs
515 lagged behind the initial blooms by over a decade in Lake Taihu (Fig. 2), until the
516 shift to and formation of toxic *Microcystis* blooms (Hu et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2019)
517 as climate change and eutrophication intensified in the 1990s. In particular, this

518 process promoted the strains producing more toxic MC-LR and MC-YR and
519 exacerbated the ecological risk, as similarly observed in other degraded freshwaters
520 (Zastepa et al., 2017; Henao et al., 2019). Increasing temperature and nutrient
521 concentrations are corroborated as major predictors of large increases in regional MC
522 maxima (e.g., North America) (Taranu et al., 2017; Hayes et al., 2020) and even
523 global patterns of MC congeners (Taranu et al., 2019). Despite faster
524 photodegradation in some environments (e.g., the tropics), surface freshwaters like
525 Lake Taihu in the warming future might experience a predicted higher occurrence of
526 highly-toxic MCs, with increasing risks to environmental and human health.

527 Multiple stressors can further provoke large changes in food webs with potential
528 cascading effects, in particular weakening top-down control in regulating
529 phytoplankton biomass and HABs (Meerhoff et al., 2022). In Lake Taihu, long-term
530 loss of macrophytes (Fig. 1A) probably have caused less refuge available for
531 phytoplankton competitors, such as grazer macroinvertebrates and zooplankton (Moss
532 et al., 2011; Janssen et al., 2014). Over-fishing and extensive stocking have altered
533 lake fish community diversity and structure by favoring large amounts of small
534 zooplanktivorous species (notably anchovy) (Mao et al., 2020). These shifts in aquatic
535 communities substantially reduced algal grazing by zooplankton in the lake.
536 Furthermore, fewer piscivorous fish, more omnivorous and herbivorous species, and
537 decreased body size of zooplankton are expected in warmer waters (Jeppesen et al.,
538 2020). Such changes are likely to reinforce the positive interaction between climate
539 change and eutrophication, given the projected algal proliferation, toxin-producing

540 cyanobacterial dominance, and less intensive top-down effects.

541 **4.2. Ecosystem state shift and baseline implications**

542 Studies on shallow lakes suggest that increased variations in phytoplankton
543 parameters and regulatory mechanisms are reliable indicators of ecosystem state
544 change from clear-water to turbid-water dominated by prolific, nuisance
545 cyanobacteria (Scheffer et al., 2001; Janssen et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2017). This
546 catastrophic shift may arise from abrupt but persistent changes in external forcing
547 (e.g., climate change, nutrient enrichment) and/or gradual variation in intrinsic factors
548 (e.g., trophic cascades) (Bunting et al., 2016; Carpenter et al., 2022). Ecological
549 theory predicts that during the transitions among alternate stable states, lake
550 ecosystems may exhibit transient (rising then decreasing) variability in focal
551 parameters (Carpenter et al., 2011; Dakos et al., 2015) following the re-establishment
552 of internal feedback mechanisms (e.g., internal nutrient cycling, loss of macrophytes,
553 shading) (Scheffer and van Nes 2007; Janssen et al., 2014). However, both temporal
554 variance and RoC analyses in Lake Taihu explicitly demonstrated increasing
555 phytoplankton variability after the ecological shift (Fig. S8 and Fig. 4A), suggesting
556 that a stable state has not yet been established. In particular, the persistent rise in
557 variability of total algae, bloom-forming taxa, and cyanotoxins is more consistent
558 with the paradox of enrichment wherein ecological resilience and predictability
559 declined (Cottingham et al., 2000; Bunting et al., 2016; Carpenter et al., 2022).

560 The rising variability of primary producers probably reflects persistent increases
561 in external forcing (Dakos et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2022) or the constraints of

562 similar large lakes to establish alternative stable states (Scheffer and van Nes, 2007;
563 Janssen et al., 2014; Bruel et al., 2021). Although a series of measures costing
564 ~US\$30 billion have been implemented to address wastewater discharge and improve
565 water quality in Lake Taihu watershed (Qin et al., 2019), recent warming climate and
566 extreme weather continue to exacerbate non-point nutrient loading (Xu et al., 2021)
567 and internal release from sediments (Yin et al., 2022). Meanwhile, growing evidence
568 indicates that cyanobacterial dominance is exerting a positive feedback with climate
569 warming (Huisman et al., 2018; Meerhoff et al., 2022), as blooms usually promote the
570 release of nutrients (Xu et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2022) and greenhouse gases (Yan et al.,
571 2017) that increase the warming potential. Under these circumstances, cyanobacterial
572 dominance may thus be a self-perpetuating phenomenon (Havens and Paerl, 2015;
573 Meerhoff et al., 2022), and toxic HABs are predicted to increase continuously in Lake
574 Taihu with climate change. Outside of the littoral habitats and east bays of Lake Taihu,
575 it is arguable that the pelagic areas have always lacked enough macrophytes as a
576 result of strong winds (Zhang et al., 2018b), therefore alternative stable states are
577 unlikely to occur there.

578 It is particularly noteworthy that the synergistic effects of eutrophication and
579 climate change can reduce ecosystem resilience and cause unexpected collapse (e.g.,
580 cyanobacterial HABs), even when individual stressors remain at levels that are
581 considered to be safe (Ryo et al., 2019; Meerhoff et al., 2022). Since long-term
582 eutrophication altered the nutrient cycling and reorganized the configurations of
583 primary producers and food webs in Lake Taihu and beyond, as discussed above, the

584 ecosystems are likely more responsive to warming than before state shift (Fig. 4B).
585 Ecological resistance and vulnerability to climate change thus inherited the legacy of
586 local human pressure similar to previous observations (Battarbee et al., 2005; Bruel et
587 al., 2021). As a consequence, if local pressures (e.g., nutrients) must be reduced to
588 build resilience and mitigate blooms, reduction strategies may be overwhelmed by
589 climate change impacts on the ecosystems, unless more costly and aggressive
590 approaches are employed. Furthermore, the current and future managers should
591 acknowledge that the ecosystem changed permanently to different configurations with
592 shifting baselines beyond the pre-disturbance reference (Fig. 4B) (Battarbee et al.,
593 2005; Ryo et al., 2019). It is important to realize the contemporary process (e.g.,
594 re-oligotrophication), the hysteresis of ecological response (Scheffer et al., 2001), and
595 the integral eutrophication history when setting appropriate eco-environmental
596 baselines. Our study underlines the complexity and interactivity of multiple stressors
597 on lake ecosystems and HABs, and the necessity of long-term perspectives to
598 contextualize modern ecological conditions and inform integrated management.

599 **4.3. Integrated biomarker reconstruction: merits and prospects**

600 In contrast to *in-situ* monitoring and remote sensing observations of lake surface,
601 our novel analysis produces a longer-term, continuous record of lake primary
602 productivity and HABs, which integrates phytoplankton from both surface and deeper
603 waters (McGowan, 2013; Waters et al., 2021). This supplement allows to assess the
604 complete trajectory, magnitude, and decadal variability of ecosystem deterioration,
605 particularly covering a time span where abrupt ecological shifts and toxic HABs occur.

606 The paleo-reconstruction can further shed light on the dynamics of algal community
607 composition, toxin-producing taxa, and toxicity risk of cyanobacterial HABs through
608 time, which may facilitate the development of effective control and restoration
609 strategies.

610 However, specific taxa and biodiversity changes of harmful algae particularly
611 cyanobacteria are still difficult to be determined using biogeochemical tools. The
612 next-generation high-throughput sequencing of environmental DNA is increasingly
613 recognized as an effective complementary means (Domaizon et al., 2017; Monchamp
614 et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2023). A combined application of molecular biomarkers and
615 DNA techniques to well-dated sediment sequences is thus very promising in
616 deepening our understanding of long-term lake ecosystem dynamics, biodiversity,
617 functioning, and their linkages to environmental forcing. Meanwhile, the
618 spatiotemporal heterogeneity of limnological characteristics, sedimentation, and
619 anthropogenic disturbances in most large lakes like Taihu requires future research
620 with multiple, well-placed cores (Lin et al., 2020, 2021) to improve the assessment of
621 HABs and eco-environmental risk on the whole-lake scale.

622 **5. Conclusions**

623 We applied molecular biomarkers of aliphatic hydrocarbons, photosynthetic
624 pigments, and cyanotoxins on lake sediment sequences to successfully reconstruct the
625 long-term trajectories and variability of cyanobacterial HABs, which provided
626 empirical evidence on the abrupt regime shifts and causes underlying aquatic

627 ecosystem degradation. The biomarker reconstruction in China's Lake Taihu revealed
628 that significant increases in cyanotoxins lagged behind the initial blooms by over a
629 decade, until the formation of toxic *Microcystis* blooms in the 1990s. This process
630 was accompanied with the shift to and the occurrence of more toxic microcystins
631 (MC-LR and MC-YR), leading to exacerbated harmful effects. Our ordination and
632 numerical modelling results emphasize the synergy of climate warming and
633 eutrophication through nutrient recycling and their feedback through buoyant
634 cyanobacterial proliferation, which sustain bloom-forming potential and promote the
635 occurrence of increasingly-toxic cyanotoxins. Cyanobacterial dominance particularly
636 in shallow lakes may become a self-perpetuating phenomenon, and toxic HAB
637 outbreaks are likely to occur continuously with climate change.

638 The increasing variance and rate of change metrics of phytoplankton
639 (particularly bloom-forming taxa) in Lake Taihu probably indicated increased
640 ecosystem vulnerability and resilience loss with potential risk to shift to another
641 undesirable state. We deduce that an alternative stable state has not yet been
642 established there. Current ecological resistance and vulnerability to climate warming
643 inherited the legacy of local human pressure (e.g., lake eutrophication and alterations
644 of food web), with shifting baseline beyond the pre-disturbance reference. To build
645 resilience and reverse blooms, therefore, more aggressive and integrated strategies
646 dealing with legacy nutrients and global warming are imperative. Taken together, our
647 work provides novel approach and long-term evolutionary perspective for studying
648 the underlying mechanisms triggering HABs with critical insights on water resource

649 management.

650 **Declaration of competing interest**

651 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
652 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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665 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

666 **Qi Lin:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing –
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668 Conceptualization, Data curation, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project
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670 review & editing. **Shixin Huang:** Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing.
671 **Qingju Xue:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Eric Capo:**
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674 Conceptualization, Supervision, Project administration.

675 **Appendix A. Supporting information**

676 Supporting information to this article include additional analytical methods (Text
677 S1–S2), tables (Tables S1–S3) and figures (Figs. S1–S9) as noted in the text.

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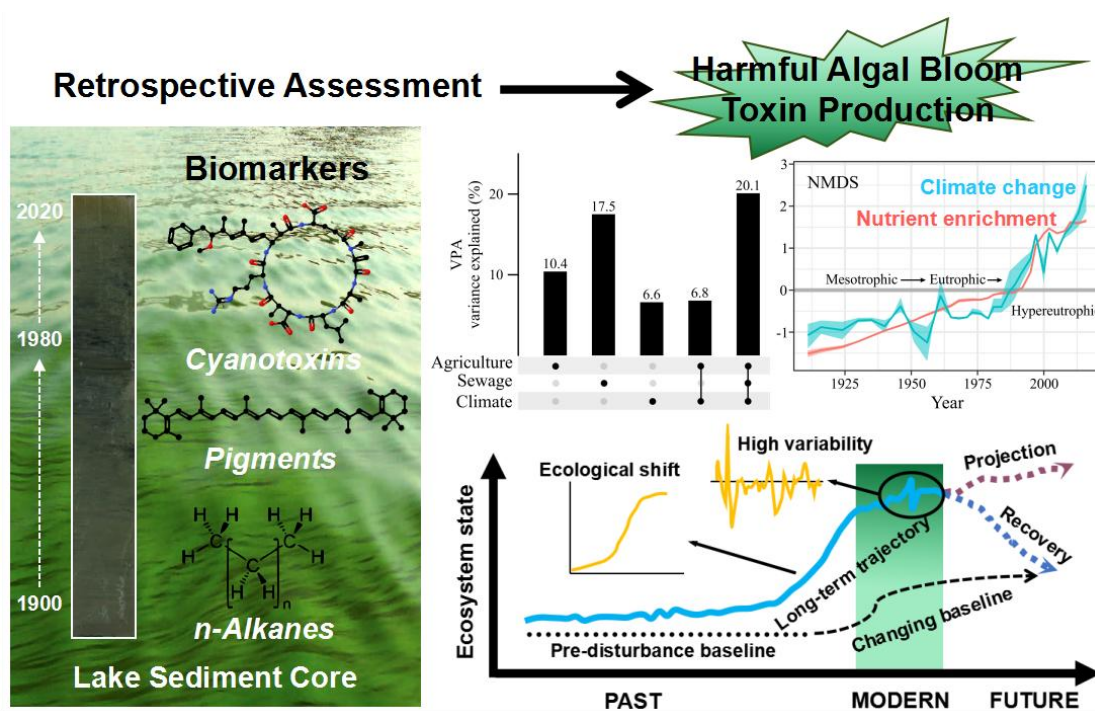
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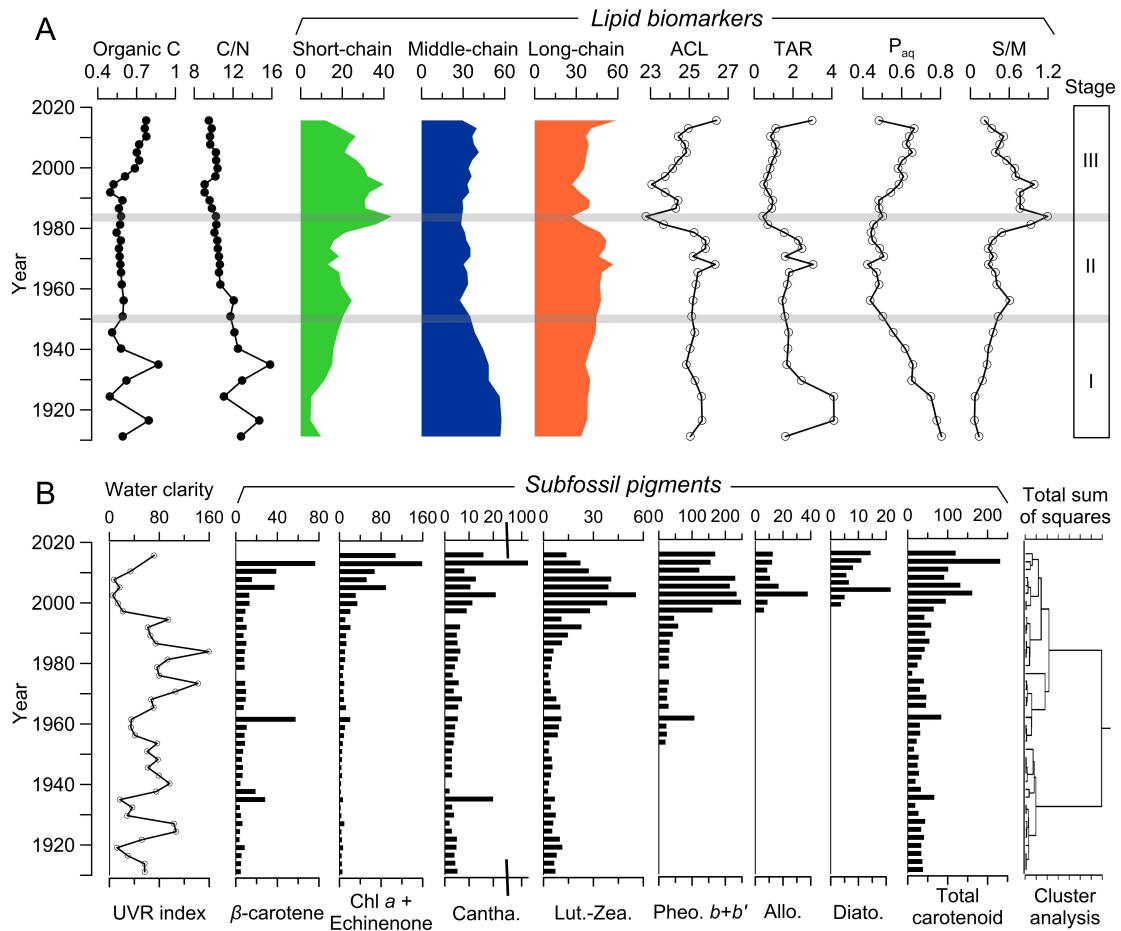
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971 **Graphical Abstract**



972

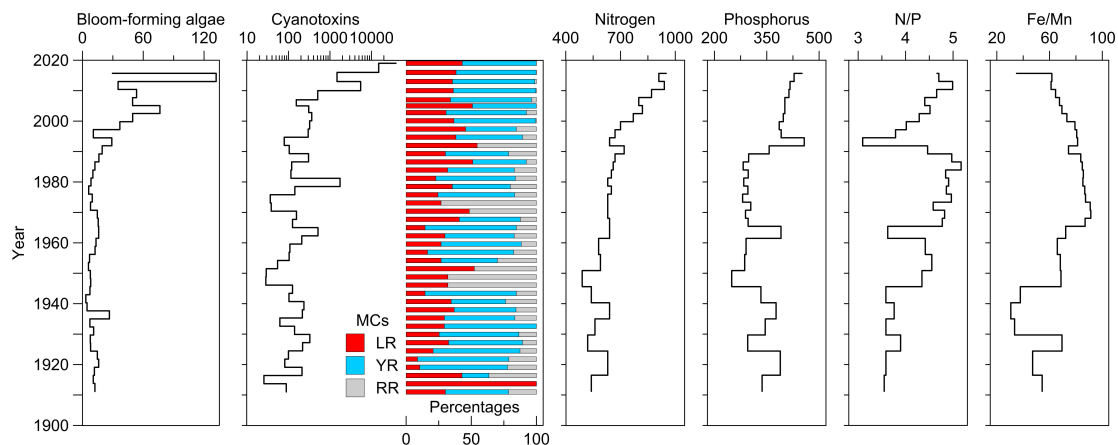
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976 **Fig. 1. Temporal changes of lipid and subfossil pigment biomarkers in Lake**977 **Taihu sediment cores. (A) Profiles of sedimentary organic C (%), molar ratios of**978 **C/N, total *n*-alkanes within different length of chains (%), and selected *n*-alkane**979 **proxies (ACL, TAR, P_{aq} , and S/M) (Text S1). The grey horizontal bars partition three**980 **potential change phases for lipid biomarkers. (B) Profiles of sedimentary chlorophyll**981 **and carotenoid pigments (nmol g^{-1} OC) and UVR index along with the CONISS**982 **cluster analysis. Cantha. = canthaxanthin (colonial cyanobacteria), Lut.-Zea. =**983 **lutein-zeaxanthin (chlorophytes and cyanobacteria pigments, i.e., “bloom-forming”**984 **taxa), Pheo. *b+b'* = pheophytin *b+b'* (chlorophytes), Allo. = alloxanthin**

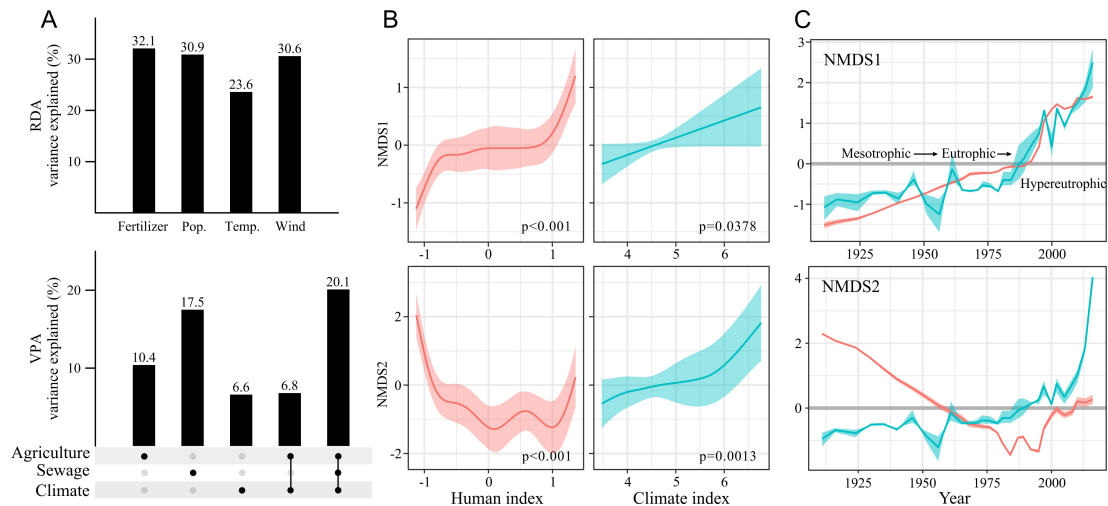
985 (cryptophytes), Diato. = diatoxanthin (primarily diatoms), Chl *a* + Echinenone (all
 986 phototrophs and total cyanobacteria), and β -carotene or total carotenoid (total
 987 autotrophic production).



988

989 **Fig. 2. Historical reconstruction of harmful algal blooms and cyanotoxin**
 990 **production associated with sedimentary nutrient and redox variables in Lake**
 991 **Taihu.** Bloom-forming algae is indicated by the sum of canthaxanthin and
 992 lutein-zeaxanthin pigments ($\text{nmol g}^{-1} \text{OC}$). Cyanotoxins are reported as the sum of
 993 three dominant microcystin congeners (MC-LR, MC-YR, MC-RR) ($\text{ng g}^{-1} \text{OC}$) and
 994 their relative percentages. Total sediment nitrogen (mg kg^{-1}), phosphorus (mg kg^{-1}),
 995 and molar ratios of N/P and Fe/Mn are also shown.

996



997

998 **Fig. 3. Multivariate statistical analysis illustrating the dynamic relationships**

999 **between paleorecords and forward selected environmental variables. (A)**

1000 Century-long variation in geochemical variables and multi-biomarkers explained by

1001 categories of agriculture (fertilizer consumption), sewage (population), climate (air

1002 temperature, wind speed) via four individual runs of redundancy analysis (RDA) and

1003 one run of variance partitioning analysis (VPA) (Fig. S9). All categories of significant

1004 environmental variables and their interactions are included in VPA. (B) Generalized

1005 additive model (GAM) analysis of the fitted smooth functions between the inferred

1006 human index, climate index, and scores of both NMDS axes of paleorecords (NMDS1,

1007 NMDS2) (Fig. S7). (C) GAM results indicating the contributions (curves with 95%

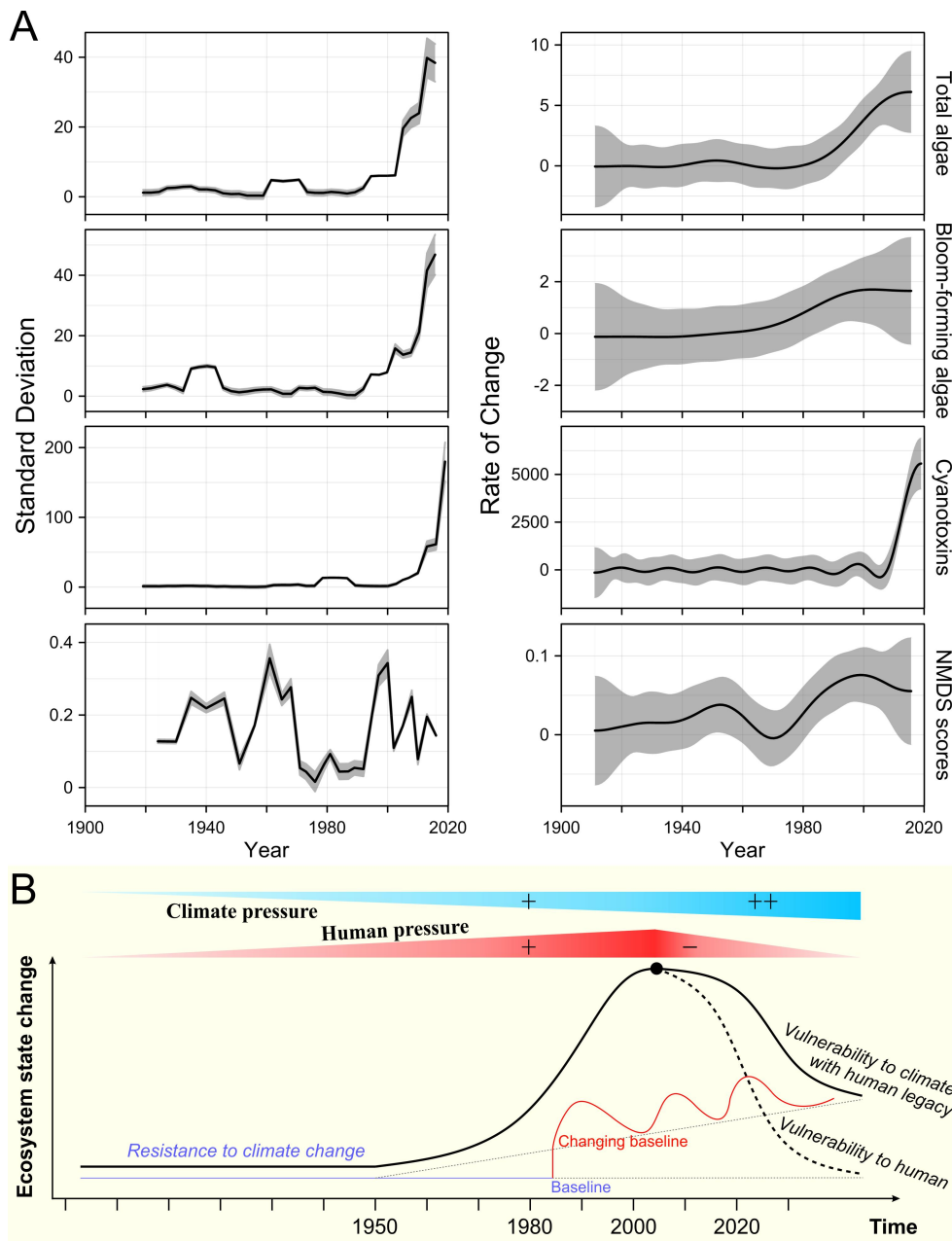
1008 pointwise confidence intervals) of human (red) and climate (blue) variables to

1009 NMDS1 and NMDS2 through time. The relative importance of each predictor

1010 (increase/decrease) is deduced from the centered-scaled values on y-axis scale except

1011 zero, and significant correlations with predictors are shown for each response variable

1012 in Table S2.



1013

1014 **Fig. 4. Temporal changes in ecological variability and conceptual diagram**

1015 **illustrating the response of Lake Taihu ecosystem to multiple changing stressors**

1016 **through time.** (A) Lake ecosystem variability inferred from variance (standard

1017 deviation, left) and RoC (rate of change, right) metrics of time series of total

1018 autotrophic production (Chl *a* + echinenone), bloom-forming algal abundance (sum of

1019 canthaxanthin and lutein-zeaxanthin), cyanotoxins (total MCs), and the scores of

1020 NMDS1 axis. The gray ribbons are 95% pointwise confidence intervals on the fitted

1021 models. Where the simulation value does not include zero, the models detect increase
1022 or decrease in the ecological variability. (B) Under multiple interactive stressors, the
1023 ecosystem changed through time to different configurations with shifting baseline
1024 beyond pre-disturbance reference (Battarbee et al., 2005; Ryo et al., 2019), and
1025 ecological vulnerability to climate change inherited the human legacy (e.g.,
1026 anthropogenic eutrophication and alterations of food web) with lower resilience.