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1 **Human practices behind the aquatic and terrestrial ecological decoupling to climate change in the**  
2 **tropical Andes**

3 Running title: novel agropastoralism driven lake system

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Anthropogenic climate change and landscape alteration are two of the most important threats to the  
26 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems of the tropical Americas, thus jeopardizing water and soil resources for  
27 millions of people in the Andean nations. Understanding how aquatic ecosystems will respond to  
28 anthropogenic stressors and accelerated warming requires shifting from short-term and static to long-  
29 term, dynamic characterizations of human-terrestrial-aquatic relationships. Here we use sediment records  
30 from Lake Llaviucu, a tropical mountain Andean lake long accessed by Indigenous and post-European  
31 societies, and hypothesize that under natural historical conditions (i.e., low human pressure) vegetation  
32 and aquatic ecosystems' responses to change are coupled through indirect climate influences—that is,  
33 past climate-driven vegetation changes dictated limnological trajectories. We used a multi-proxy  
34 paleoecological approach including drivers of terrestrial vegetation change (pollen), soil erosion  
35 (Titanium), human activity (agropastoralism indicators), and aquatic responses (diatoms) to estimate  
36 assemblage-wide rates of change and model their synchronous and asynchronous (lagged) relationships  
37 using Generalized Additive Models. Assemblage-wide rate of change results showed that between *ca.*  
38 3000-400 cal years BP terrestrial vegetation, agropastoralism and diatoms fluctuated along their mean  
39 regimes of rate of change without consistent periods of synchronous rapid change. In contrast, positive  
40 lagged relationships (i.e., asynchrony) between climate-driven terrestrial pollen changes and diatom  
41 responses (i.e., asynchrony) were in operation until *ca.* 750 cal years BP. Thereafter, positive lagged  
42 relationships between agropastoralism and diatom rates of changes dictated the lake trajectory, reflecting  
43 the primary control of human practices over the aquatic ecosystem prior European occupation. We  
44 interpret that shifts in Indigenous practices (e.g., valley terracing) curtailed nutrient inputs into the lake  
45 decoupling the links between climate-driven vegetation changes and the aquatic community. Our results  
46 demonstrate how rates of change of anthropogenic and climatic influences can guide dynamic ecological  
47 baselines for managing water ecosystem services in the Andes.

48

49 Keywords: tropical lakes, diatoms, pollen, paleolimnology, asynchrony, rate of change

## 50 **1. Introduction**

51           In the tropical Andes, climate warming is accelerating twice the global average (Vuille et al.,  
52 2003), and overprints the threats from multiple human stressors such as agriculture, grazing, urban  
53 expansion, and mining. The attendant effects of anthropogenic climate change on lakes which act as  
54 sensors of global change impacts such as pollution, warming, and biochemical cycle alteration (Fritz et  
55 al., 2019) requires the understanding of: i) the complex ecological influences on the dynamics of  
56 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, ii) the time-varying (dynamic) human impacts on aquatic and  
57 terrestrial ecosystems, and iii) the sensitivity of coupled human-environmental systems to climate change  
58 (Dearing et al., 2015). A standing challenge in paleoenvironmental reconstructions is shifting from static,  
59 reference historical characterizations of ecosystems to dynamic, rate of change-centered approaches  
60 (Williams et al., 2020). In this vein, the concept of ecological coupling, or how different abiotic and biotic  
61 components are connected in an ordered fashion across space or time (Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2021), has  
62 received little attention in paleolimnology, thus limiting our predictive capacity of ecological impacts  
63 under changing environments. By studying a long-term paleolimnological record of the Andean Lake  
64 Llaviucu (Ecuador), our study shows how the temporal dependencies between terrestrial and aquatic  
65 components were sensitive to varied rates of human impacts over the last *ca* 3000 years and provides new  
66 insights of the multiple impacts inducing lake transitions at centennial and millennial time scales.

67

68           Most mountain tropical research is focused on the overriding effect of climate as the sole driver  
69 of aquatic change at centennial (Michelutti et al., 2015) and millennial time scales (Bird et al., 2018;  
70 McGlynn et al., 2019). Growing evidence indicates that Indigenous (e.g., Incan Empire; 480-420 cal years  
71 BP, 1480-1532 CE) and post-European (i.e., following the 1492 CE Columbus arrival; 523 cal years  
72 before present; hereafter cal years BP) people had also attendant ecological effects on Andean lakes via  
73 agropastoralism practices (e.g. cultivation, fires, camelid domestication) (Nascimento et al., 2020). For  
74 instance, land-use change, and fish stocking were widespread in many parts of the high Andes leading to  
75 excess nutrient loads (cultural eutrophication, oxygen depletion), and phytoplankton community

76 composition changes (e.g. shift from low to high-nutrient sensitive algal communities) (Van Colen et al.,  
77 2018). In Amazonian landscapes, cycles of deforestation and recovery followed waves of heterogeneous  
78 occupational human histories, depending on social and economic contexts (Hamilton et al., 2021). Unlike  
79 the lowlands, a fully environmental retrospective assessment is only available for a small suite of  
80 mountain tropical lakes (Vélez et al., 2021) despite their crucial role in water ecosystem services for  
81 millions of people (Buytaert et al., 2006). Therefore, there is a need to investigate rates and magnitudes of  
82 shared climate and human influences, and the dependencies between the two, on lake ecosystems if we  
83 are to predict how coupled terrestrial-aquatic ecosystems respond to the abrupt climate change the tropical  
84 regions will be experiencing in the next decades (Trisos et al., 2020).

85  
86 Under increasing human activities in the catchment (e.g. terraces for agriculture, fire)  
87 biogeochemical fluxes from terrestrial to aquatic systems can increase or decrease the input of detrital  
88 sediments, nutrients, and organic matter with attendant indirect, and often lagged effects, on the aquatic  
89 community (Beck et al., 2018b). Human effects can also indirectly amplify the sensitivity of lakes to  
90 record climatic changes in the catchment that otherwise would be buffered by natural vegetation (Bush et  
91 al., 2017). Moreover, lakes can respond directly to climate via changes in water temperature and  
92 stratification (Fritz, 2008), and aquatic changes can be either independent of (Leavitt et al., 2009) or  
93 synchronous with those in the catchment (Bracht-Flyears & Fritz, 2012). Factors explaining synchronous  
94 responses include a shared climatic and geological template (Riera et al., 2000), whereas intrinsic  
95 sensitivities to external forcing (Schneider et al., 2018) or varied signs of human activities (Bush et al.,  
96 2021) can explain the decoupling of terrestrial-lake interactions to climate change.

97  
98 In tropical mountain ecosystems, abundant literature revolving around the “ecological resilience”  
99 concept have associated the lack of human activities as the main factor for ecosystems to remain stable,  
100 even with documented climatic changes such as the Medieval Climate Anomaly (900-1100 cal years BP)  
101 or the Little Ice Age (270–670 cal years BP) (Lüning et al., 2019). This notion has been supported by

102 study cases documenting forest and aquatic structure recovery after the cessation of deforestation (Norden  
103 et al., 2009). However, existing analytical approaches prevent quantification of the relative strength of  
104 such variable climate-lake-human interactions. Our study uses a combination of advanced time-series  
105 methods to shed light on the long-term trajectories of vegetation, humans, and aquatic communities in  
106 Lake Llaviucu (Ecuador), part of an important ancient 80 km-long Amazonia-Andean trade route  
107 connecting the highlands in the Paramo (Tomebamba, today Cuenca) with the Amazon lowlands, in  
108 Paredones. The humid environment of the Paramo and Andean moist forest catchments develop thick  
109 organic soils, resulting in a tight coupling between vegetation and water chemistry (Catalan and Rondón,  
110 2016). We hypothesize that such terrestrial-aquatic dynamics are an intrinsic feature of Lake Llaviucu  
111 conferring ecological resilience at long temporal scales and under certain climate regimes. Under natural  
112 conditions (i.e., low human pressure), past vegetation rate of change would predict diatom rate of change—  
113 that is, terrestrial vegetation and lake dynamics would have been temporally coupled. Alternatively, when  
114 humans began impacting the lake-catchment system, agropastoralism indicators (i.e. crop and disturbance  
115 pollen taxa, cattle grazing, and charcoal) would have had a greater predictive power on diatom changes  
116 over climate—that is, the terrestrial-aquatic dynamics would have become uncoupled.

117

## 118 **2. Methods**

### 119 **2.1 Study site**

120 Lake Llaviucu is located at 3150 m asl. in the Cajas National Park, in Ecuador: it lies below the Paramo,  
121 and is surrounded by moist montane forest (Fig. 1). Lake Llaviucu is of special economic and ecological  
122 interest for the city of Cuenca (old Tomebamba) because it provides 30% of the drinking water supply  
123 (Mosquera et al., 2017). The lake housed a fish hatchery and a brewery from 1978 to 1998, which resulted  
124 in lake eutrophication during this time (Barros et al., 2015). In the 1960s, a small weir was constructed,  
125 which raised the lake level ca. 2 m (Raczka et al., 2019). Once the fish farm was closed with the creation  
126 of Cajas National Park (1996), the lake recovered to the meso-oligotrophic conditions of today, showing  
127 nutrient concentrations comparable to other lakes in the region (Van Colen et al., 2017). An ancient road

128 close to the Lake Llaviucu indicates that this catchment was long accessed for the trade by pre-Incan  
129 (Cañari) (*ca.* 3700-470 cal years BP) and Inca societies (480-420 cal years BP) (Prado Mogrovejo, 2009).

130

## 131 **2.2 Core collection and sediment indicator analyses**

132 Two sediment cores were retrieved from the deepest basin of the lake (~15m depth): Llav-2009 is  
133 11.5 m length and was collected using a Colinvaux-Vohnout piston corer; and Llav-2014, 1.95 m long,  
134 collected with a UWITEC gravity corer. Both cores were previously studied to decipher terrestrial  
135 vegetation (Llav-2009; Nascimento et al., 2020), and limnology (Llav-2014; Benito et al., 2021) histories  
136 of Lake Llaviucu over the last 12,000 years. Here, the Llav-2019 core was analyzed for the pollen dataset  
137 (thereafter ‘native pollen’), while indicators of human activity were extracted as single data set–  
138 ‘agropastoralism dataset’– including: *Sporiormella* spores (presence of herbivores), charcoal (fire) and  
139 *Hedyosmum*, *Rumex*, *Begoniaceae*, *Alnus*, *Cyperaceae*, *Cecropia*, *Asteracea*, *Zea mays*, *Phaseolus*,  
140 *Ipomoea* (disturbance and crops such as maize, common sorrel, beans, or sweet potato) (Flantua et al.,  
141 2016). Samples were processed following standard methods (Faegri and Iversen, 1989) by counting 300  
142 terrestrial pollen grains for each sample and identified using the pollen database from Florida Institute of  
143 Technology (Bush and Weng, 2007). *Sporiormella* spores were counted until a total of 300 pollen grains  
144 was reached and are expressed as a percentage of the pollen sum. Charcoal fragments were based on  
145 macro fragment counts (>100 µm) hence indicating local fires (Whitlock and Larsen, 2001). See  
146 Nascimento et al. (2020) for additional pollen information. The Llav-2014 core was processed for diatom  
147 analysis following standard procedures (Battarbee et al., 2002). See Benito et al. (2021) for further  
148 information on diatom data processing and species identification. Diatom, pollen, and agropastoralism  
149 taxa were included in all the analyses if they occurred in more than 2 samples with a relative abundance  
150 greater than 1%. The Llav-2009 was analyzed for µXRF using a ITRAX core scanner at 1 mm resolution  
151 (Nascimento et al., 2020). Of the µXRF data, Titanium (Ti) was used to represent changes in terrigenous  
152 erosion. The diatom core (LLav-2014) was further analyzed for Si/Ti (silica to titanium ratio) and Mn/Fe

153 (iron to magnesium) (Benito et al., 2021). These elemental ratios are commonly used as indicators of  
154 aquatic paleo-productivity and paleo-redox conditions, respectively (Davies et al., 2015).

155

### 156 **2.3 Core chronologies**

157 See supplementary figures 1 and 2 for the original Bayesian age-depth models and Table S1 for summary  
158 of radiocarbon and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  data (Arcusa et al., 2020; Benito et al., 2021; Nascimento et al., 2020). The  
159 entire inventory of unsupported  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  was contained in the top 20 cm of the two cores.  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages were  
160 calibrated with the IntCal13 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2013). Here, we compared the original  
161 IntCal13 calibrated ages with the IntCal20 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2020) using R *Bchron*  
162 package (Haslett and Parnell 2008) (Fig. S3-4). Results showed no differences between the two sets of  
163 calibrated ages. Thereby we refer the numerical analyses to the original age-depth models to allow for  
164 comparison with the present study.

165

### 166 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

167 Each dataset (native pollen, agropastoralism indicators, and diatoms) was Hellinger-transformed to meet  
168 normality assumptions. Sub-samples for diatom and pollen analyses were extracted at ca. 25-year and 40-  
169 year resolution, respectively. To overcome discrepancy between 2009 and 2014 cores related to temporal  
170 resolution, we applied two complementary approaches. First, we estimated a Principal Curve (PrC) on  
171 relative abundance data of diatoms, native pollen, agropastoralism indicators, and Ti datasets separately  
172 using the R analogue's *prcurve* function (Simpson and Oksanen, 2016). PrC is a nonlinear ordination  
173 technique that extracts a single gradient of variation from multivariate data. Subsequently, we modelled  
174 temporal trends of PrCs with a Generalized Additive Model (GAM) with a smoothing basis of cubic  
175 regression splines, and simulated GAM-inferred values to obtain a multiproxy dataset in a common time  
176 series for the response variable (diatoms) using the *mgcv* package (Wood, 2017). Second, we linearly  
177 interpolated the PrCs of diatoms to the pollen sample ages using the R's base function *approx*. The  
178 rationale was to infer values from the finer (diatoms) to the coarser (pollen) temporal resolution dataset.



179 Different tie-points (n=8) between the 2009 and 2014 cores were visually identified using Ti data, and  
180 correlation was calculated to determine strength of tie-points ( $r$  Pearson=0.81) to support the linear  
181 interpolation of datasets (Fig. S5). To visually explore relationships among aquatic and terrestrial  
182 variables, the PrCs of diatom, pollen, and agropastoralism indicators, and titanium were analyzed using an  
183 indirect gradient analysis (Detrended Correspondence Analysis; DCA). This plot shows the main  
184 temporal trajectories of change in aquatic and terrestrial assemblages, representing the lake-catchment  
185 links through time.

186

187         We applied a three-step analytical procedure to test for the relationship between Lake Llaviucu's  
188 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystem trajectories (Fig. 2). First, a multivariate GAM was fitted to the diatom  
189 PrCs using the mgcv's *gam* function, with pollen and agropastoralism PrCs, and Ti as covariates. This  
190 allowed to identify the important trends in the aquatic ecosystem as it responds to changes in the  
191 catchment by extracting the contributions of the individual model covariates (pollen, agropastoralism, Ti)  
192 to the fitted values of the response variable (diatom PrCs) (*Covariates model* in Fig. 2). By including both  
193 agropastoralism PrC and Ti in the model, we are partially factoring out the additive effect of climate (i.e.,  
194 soil erosion, Ti plus native pollen) from human practices (i.e., agropastoralism) destabilizing the soil  
195 surrounding Lake Llaviucu. *Age* was also included as covariate in the model to control against spurious  
196 temporal correlation. We would expect covariates to have a significant effect on the response after  
197 considering the passage of time alone. The number of years accumulated per sample (i.e., time difference  
198 between two consecutive samples) from the coarser dataset was included in *gam*'s *weights* argument as a  
199 measure to account for change in variance over time.

200

201         Second, we modelled assemblage-wide and estimated average rate of change among species  
202 using Hierarchical GAMs to quantify the extent to which different lake-catchment components (pollen,  
203 agropastoralism, diatoms) exhibit synchronous fluctuations over time (*Synchronous model* in Fig. 2). We  
204 applied a HGAM type that consists of fitting separate temporal models for each species of the

205 assemblages (i.e. diatoms, natural pollen, agropastoralism) while allowing each group-specific smoother  
206 (i.e., species) have its own shape and complexity (model I in Pedersen et al., 2019). Because of the likely  
207 differences in sensitivities between pollen and diatoms time series detecting local and regional changes,  
208 we allowed smoothing functions of covariates to freely capture temporal variance in these time series. In  
209 practice, this is achieved via the use of the *by* argument within the smooth term in the function *gam* of the  
210 *mgcv* package. Models were fitted with a negative binomial distribution to guard against overdispersion  
211 of the data and including lake years per sample to account for changes in variance due to sediment  
212 compaction. We used Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML) for parameter estimation fitted with a  
213 thin plate smoother and  $k = 20-30$  basis functions depending on each assemblage (Table 1) and after  
214 checking if  $k$  is too low with *gam.check* function. To account for detectability across samples, we added  
215 an offset equal to the log of the total count of diatom valves and pollen grains in each sample. We  
216 estimated species-specific rates of change for each species of the assemblages in each year from the  
217 model posterior distribution by simulating 250 estimates of counts for each species and aggregating  
218 across simulations, using the methods detailed in Pedersen et al. (2020). We then calculated the average  
219 rate of change of relative log-abundances (mean richness) and associated 95% confidence intervals for  
220 25-years evenly spaced time series to match with the median temporal resolution of the diatom record,  
221 following Pedersen et al. (2020). Finally, we compared the rate of change among all assemblage-wide  
222 time series. The observed mutual information value “shared” (representing the amount of information  
223 between two time series) was compared against a null expectation, using the *muti* R package (Scheuerell,  
224 2017).

225

226 Third, we generated 100 lagged predictor time series of assemblage-wide rate of change of pollen  
227 and agropastoralism indicators to test for asynchrony relationships between time-delayed samples of  
228 pollen and agropastoralism indicators (predictors) and diatoms (response) (*Asynchronous model* in Fig.  
229 2). Titanium time series was not included in the asynchronous model because it is a single variable.  
230 Replicating the recent analytical approach by Gil-Romera et al. (2019), we fitted generalized least squares

231 on diatom rate of change and predictors once per *lag* (100 x 25 ‘years’ sample age = 2500 years) using  
232 the *gls* function of the R package *nlme*. To test for the goodness of fit of the asynchronous models, pseudo  
233 R<sup>2</sup> and standardized coefficient with associated 95% confidence intervals were extracted. All numerical  
234 analyses were performed using the R software version 3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2020)

235

### 236 **3. Results**

237 *Proxy trends and covariates model*—The diatom PrC trend modelled against pollen and  
238 agropastoralism PrCs, and Ti using GAMs indicates that only agropastoralism indicators have an overall  
239 significant effect on the response (*Covariates model*, Fig. 3; Table 1). The covariates pollen PrC and Ti  
240 fitted to diatom PrC were not significant over the range of each smooth (i.e., within the 95% pointwise  
241 confidence intervals; Fig. 3). Similar results, i.e., agropastoralism as the solely significant covariable  
242 affecting diatom PrCs trend, are also found in the PrC-GAM inferred dataset, indicating that the  
243 interpolation method did not influence the results (Table 1). The fitted GAM captures two distinct phases  
244 of agropastoralism influences on diatom PrC with a shift from positive to negative contributions at *ca.*  
245 1400 cal years BP (Fig. 3). This change is likely due to the disappearance of the diatom *Nupela* sp.  
246 following a marked increase in *Sporormiella* and charcoal and decrease in Si/Ti values (as a proxy of  
247 nutrient availability) (Fig. 4 and Fig. S7). Before *ca.* 1400 cal years BP there was a relationship between  
248 pollen taxa indicative of cultivation and crop-related herbs (e.g. *Zea mays*, *Rumex*) and the diatom species  
249 *Nupela*, sp. *Encyonopsis* sp., *Denticula kuetzingii*, *Gomphonema* sp. (up to 55% of the total assemblage;  
250 Fig. 4). This relationship between agropastoralism indicators and diatoms is indicated by the significant  
251 positive contributions in the fitted trend that occurred *ca.* 2000 cal years BP (Fig. 3), and it is coincident  
252 with low Mn/Fe ratio values (a proxy of hypoxia at the bottom waters), and high Si/Ti values (Fig. 4 and  
253 Fig. S7). Between 1400 and 200 cal years BP, agropastoralism effects were manifested with increase in  
254 abundance of diatom taxa *Achnantheidium minutissimum*, *Fragilaria* cf. *capucina*, and *Cymbella*  
255 *cymbiformis* (Fig. 4). Mn/Fe and Si/Ti exhibited increase and decrease trends, respectively (Fig. 4). A  
256 positive increasing trend, albeit not significant, in the fitted diatom PrC occurred in the most recent period

257 (last 200 years; Fig. 3). The temporal sequence of PrCs and Ti within the DCA multivariate space shows  
258 that natural pollen and agropastoralism indicators are positively correlated and opposed to diatoms along  
259 the first axis, suggesting a lake-catchment gradient (Fig. S6). DCA axis 1 separates the samples in two  
260 groups: one *ca.* 200-3000 cal years BP and another one 200 cal years BP-present. DCA axis 2 is  
261 correlated with Ti (soil erosion).

262 *Synchronous model*—Average rates of change modelled using HGAMs indicate that there is no  
263 substantial period when the time-series of pollen and agropastoralism rates of change differed  
264 significantly from zero (at 95% level) between *ca.* 3000 and 1000 cal years BP (Fig. 5b, c). At *ca.* 1000  
265 cal years BP an abrupt decrease in the three proxy's rate of change occurred and remained negative until  
266 present day (Fig. 5b, c). The average rate of change of diatoms fluctuated significantly between 3000 and  
267 1400 cal years BP, yet the most rapid and persistent decline began *ca.* 500 cal years BP and continued  
268 until present day (Fig. 5a). Mutual information values—representing the amount of shared information—  
269 were statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) at lag -4 only between past agropastoralism values and concurrent  
270 diatom rates of change (Table S3).

271 *Asynchronous model*—The asynchronous model fitted on past natural pollen rate of change  
272 predicting current diatom values shows a maximum effect at *ca.* 1000 cal years BP with a decreasing  
273 effect until 750 cal years BP, hence converging with the asynchronous model of agropastoralism  
274 indicators (Fig. 6a-b). The agropastoralism asynchronous model (i.e. the effect of time-delayed  
275 agropastoralism indicators on current rate of change of diatoms) shows two periods of statistically  
276 significant increasing influence of agropastoralism indicators on diatoms, one between 750-500 ( $R^2=0.3$ ),  
277 and another one 250-200 cal years BP ( $R^2=0.15$ ) (Fig. 6b). These two asynchronous peaks show opposite  
278 influences on diatoms, negative between 750-500 cal years BP, and positive between 250-200 cal years  
279 BP (Fig. 6b).

280

## 281 **4. Discussion**

282 The historical role of humans and climate on aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems in the tropical Andes have  
283 been largely described in the literature, but independently in most cases (de Souza et al., 2019; Ekdahl et  
284 al., 2008; Flantua et al., 2016; Lombardo et al., 2020), including earlier publications from Lake Llaviucu.  
285 Here, we investigated when and how human activities could have disrupted the links between terrestrial  
286 and aquatic responses to climate change over the last three millennia. Our results supported the hypothesis  
287 of the reconstructed human activities via livestock grazing, cultivation, and burning (i.e. agropastoralism  
288 indicators) being stronger influences than climate-driven vegetation changes predicting post-disturbance  
289 diatom trajectory over the last three millennia. Diatom ecological change and human practices were in  
290 operation before the European contact through positive and negative feedbacks resulting in  
291 agropastoralism lagged effects at *ca.* 750 and 200 cal years BP. These results suggest that the aquatic  
292 ecosystem is also responding to the cycle of deforestation (Indigenous land-use), abandonment (European  
293 contact), and re-use (regained modern impacts), like documented in Pan-tropical terrestrial vegetation  
294 records (Hamilton et al., 2021). Our study advances the notion that shifts to novel diatom assemblages  
295 were driven by varied, historical rates of change of anthropogenic forcings even in remote areas (i.e.,  
296 high-elevation lakes).

297

#### 298 4.1 Terrestrial-aquatic dynamics and ecological decoupling

299 Titanium concentrations in lake sediments can be associated with catchment disturbances (e.g.  
300 deforestation) or climate (e.g. precipitation changes). For instance, Schneider (2018) found an increased  
301 precipitation frequency after 1300 AD (*ca.* 700 cal years BP) coinciding with Inca occupation of the Lake  
302 Llaviucu's catchment. In mountain and lowland tropical lakes, human activities amplified subtle climatic  
303 signal that otherwise could have been buffered by natural vegetation (Åkesson et al., 2020; Bush et al.,  
304 2017). In our study, the difficulty in teasing apart sources of natural and human factors on long-term  
305 limnological change has been partially resolved by two lines of independent evidence. First, our results  
306 indicated that agropastoralism effects are independent from climate change, here interpreted as the  
307 additive effects of soil erosion and native pollen in the GAM covariates model (Fig. 3). Second, the DCA

308 analysis showed that terrestrial vegetation changes (i.e., pollen and agropastoralism PrCs) are highly  
309 correlated but independently associated with soil erosion (Ti) (Fig. S6). Taken together, we interpret that  
310 soil erosion is likely not sourced from precipitation changes but originated from human-driven catchment  
311 disturbances (i.e., agropastoralism). Here, we must acknowledge that the lack of statistically significant  
312 temporal contributions of native pollen and Ti on the diatom trajectory could well be because of the data  
313 origin (i.e., diatom and pollen proxies come from two different records), and data were interpolated.  
314 Nevertheless, our results are robust because we attempted two independent cross-core correlation  
315 methods yielding similar results (Table 1). Previous studies in South America in general, and in Lake  
316 Llaviucu in particular, also demonstrated the overriding effect of human practices on ecosystem dynamics  
317 (Nascimento et al., 2019). On longer time scales and despite harsh climate events for historical societies  
318 to thrive such as droughts during the Mid Holocene Dry Event (*ca.* 9000-4000 cal years BP),  
319 agropastoralism spread along with exponential human population growth (Goldberg et al., 2016; Riris and  
320 Arroyo-Kalin 2019).

321         Between ~3000 and 500 cal years BP, the diatom trajectory (PrC) suggests a complex ecological  
322 history due to varied contributions of terrestrial vegetation and agropastoralism indicators. The  
323 dominance of the benthic diatoms *Nupela* sp., *Encyonopsis* sp., *Denticula kuetzingii*, and *Gomphonema*  
324 sp. between *ca.* 3000-1400 cal years BP, suggest a stable benthic habitat characterized by light limitation,  
325 slightly acidic and mesotrophic waters (Wojtal, 2009). The coeval dominance of upper forest montane  
326 taxa and Poaceae (up to 90% of the total pollen assemblage) (Fig. 4 and Fig. S8) indicates a catchment  
327 covered with native forest and grasses and well-developed soils that potentially provided a large supply of  
328 nutrients and dissolved organic matter into the lake reducing light availability conditions while likely  
329 enhancing lake productivity and acidity (Beck et al., 2018a). These trends are supported by higher  
330 nutrient availability, as indicated by higher Si/Ti ratios (Fig. 4). Subsequently, prominent peaks in  
331 *Sporiormella* (proxy of herbivory presence) and charcoal (proxy of local fires) at *ca.* 1400 cal years BP  
332 were coincident with a diatom shift towards an assemblage of less acidophilus, disturbance tolerant and  
333 oligotrophic species (*Achnantheidium minutissimum*, *Fragilaria cf. capucina*, *Cymbella cymbiformis*)

334 (Tapia et al., 2006; Vélez et al., 2011), which is interpreted as evidence for a reduced nutrient availability  
335 in the lake. Reduced nutrient inputs were likely driven by greater slope stability associated with human  
336 practices (i.e. terracing). These are consistent with changing land use practices across the tropical Andes  
337 at that time as seen in the Peruvian Andes (Matthews-Bird et al., 2017), highlands of Colombia (Vélez et  
338 al., 2021), and Bolivian Altiplano (Marsh, 2015). Fire could be another human-associated disrupting  
339 factor on terrestrial material inputs. Natural fires rarely occur in moist forest lake-catchments such as  
340 Llaviucu. Fires derive terrestrially derived organic compounds out of the combustion into the lake,  
341 leading to less penetration of light and ultimately a less productive system (Beck et al., 2018). This could  
342 also be the case here because of the high relative increase in *Achnantheidium minutissimum* as a  
343 characteristic disturbance, opportunistic taxon in the Ecuadorean Andes (Benito et al., 2019). Overall, our  
344 data suggest a strong link between terrestrial vegetation and aquatic systems likely driven by nutrient  
345 changes. Accurately interpreting such links require attention to factors that could influence lake nutrient  
346 status, which might include direct climate effects via thermal stratification, indirect climate-driven  
347 vegetation changes (as discussed above), or both.

348

349         Despite its deep waters, dominance of benthic diatoms between *ca.* 3000 and 500 cal years BP in  
350 Lake Llaviucu supports the view of an aquatic basin characterized by sunlit gradual slopes covered by  
351 macrophyte vegetation. Shifts in benthic vs planktic diatoms have been widely attributed to lake level  
352 changes resulting from precipitation variability under warm/dry climates (Weide et al., 2017). For  
353 instance, the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA) triggered lower lake levels and was recorded on many  
354 different tropical Andean paleolimnological records (Lüning et al., 2019). Although the signal of MCA on  
355 Lake Llaviucu's sediments is inconclusive (Benito et al., 2021), one consequence of potential  
356 warming/drying is an enhanced lake productivity promoted by less mixing within the water column, as  
357 seen in analogous moist forest Andean lakes (Loughlin et al., 2018). Lake Llaviucu's mesotrophic diatom  
358 assemblages between *ca.* 3000-1400 cal years BP were supported by low Mn/Fe ratio values, which could  
359 reflect reduced oxygenation because of a gradual trend towards a reduced mixing (Boyle, 2001) (Fig. 4).

360 Our data suggest that an increase in nutrient cycling towards mesotrophic conditions is a plausible  
361 alternative explanation to indirect climate-driven vegetation cover changes (Jenny et al., 2016).  
362 Nonetheless, either forcing is suggested to be in operation under natural conditions: climate-driven  
363 terrestrial vegetation change preceded change in diatom assemblages.

364

#### 365 4.2 Time-varying aquatic responses to human impacts

366 The asynchronous model of pollen and agropastoralism indicators converged at 750-years lag,  
367 and time-delayed pollen effects on current rate of change of diatoms did not resume after, indicating a  
368 decoupling once Indigenous activities began to insensitively impact the catchment. It may seem  
369 counterintuitive that such a large time interval (750-years lag) characterized the time-delayed diatom  
370 responses, but for instance, Beck et al. (2018b) identified a 1600-year lag of aquatic (cladoceran)  
371 responses to pollen changes in a Tasmanian lake. Here, one potential explanation could be a non-analogue  
372 situation between the type of responses of diatoms and the disturbance regime: there are no equivalent  
373 current benthic dominated assemblages responding to cumulative human pressures in the catchment with  
374 slow processes and small variability (e.g., Williams and Jackson, 2007). Benthic diatoms respond in more  
375 complex ways to axes of trophic conditions (i.e., organic matter, acid-base conditions, cation exchanges)  
376 as opposed to planktic species that are more subjected to water column variability such as light regimes or  
377 mixing (Juggins et al., 2013; Rivera-Rondón and Catalan, 2020). Another explanation could be found in  
378 the variability of Indigenous land-use. Terracing practices may have begun earlier downstream than  
379 upstream because of more favorable terrain or different societal needs (Kendall, 2013). As consequence,  
380 agropastoralism effects on lake diatoms were delayed until a larger portion the Llaviucu's catchment was  
381 occupied with more sophisticated systems to control runoff and slope stabilization for cultivation  
382 (Chepstow-Lusty & Jonsson, 2000). We cannot discard the possibility that diatoms or pollen records were  
383 not accurately responding to forcing drivers in the catchment, and therefore, additional aquatic  
384 geochemical proxies (e.g., organic matter, nutrient isotopes, sedimentary pigments) could help to generate  
385 a stronger inference from multiproxy paleoenvironmental records.



386 Certain tropical Andean Lakes have suffered recent physical habitat changes coinciding with the  
387 onset of wind speed reductions and rising temperatures (Michelutti et al., 2016). Associated changes in  
388 thermal structure led to biotic regime shifts favoring proliferation of planktic assemblages (Giles et al.,  
389 2018; Labaj et al., 2017). In this study, the rate of change of diatoms for the last 500 years were  
390 unprecedented, characterized by a dominance (40% of the total assemblage) of the oligo-mesotrophic  
391 planktic species *Discostella stelligera*, *Tabellaria flocculosa*, and *Diatoma tenuis* (Fig.4 and Fig S7).  
392 Model predictions suggest that lake mixing regimes will be impacted in the upcoming decades with  
393 continued warming (Woolway et al., 2020). In high latitude lakes, climate-driven biological regime shifts  
394 responded to reduced duration and extent of ice cover (Smol et al., 2005). However, the same mechanism  
395 does not apply in the tropical Andes because of constant growing conditions around the year. In the  
396 Ecuadorean Andes, pre-industrial (<1950) meteorological records are inexistent, which hampers the  
397 assessment of climatic drivers of thermal stratification. In Lake Llaviucu, one potential confounding  
398 effect on thermal stratification through human activity was the trout farm operating between the 1980s  
399 and 1990s. Trout stocking could have enhanced heat penetration because of top-down control effects that  
400 cleared the water column (Chraïbi and Fritz, 2020). Fecal matter and slaughtering wastes from the fish  
401 farm and the construction of the weir could further explain via increase in dissolved organic carbon the  
402 rapid increase in planktic mesotrophic ecological niches irrespective of warming (Saros and Anderson,  
403 2015). Moreover, heavy metal influx and dust deposition from rubber tires, vehicle breaks, and industrial  
404 emissions to Lake Llaviucu, caused by contemporary heavy traffic on the nearby main highway, may  
405 have indirectly influenced the assemblages additionally (Schneider et al., 2021). Overall, our study sheds  
406 light into the multivariate nature of changes, both climate and human, explaining the relationship between  
407 recent warming and lake physical changes (Winslow et al., 2017), and emphasizes the importance of  
408 long-term perspectives in deciphering anthropogenic climate warming.

409

410 A thought-provoking result is the two opposite (i.e. negative and positive) periods of lagged  
411 agropastoralism on current diatoms after humans began to alter Lake Llaviucu significantly (Fig. 6). We

412 interpret these as a cycle of impact by Incan societies and abandonment following European contact (750  
413 cal years BP, ~1250-1300 CE), and a regained human impact with the establishment of European-style  
414 agricultural practices (250 cal years BP, ~1800 CE). How generalizable is this pattern within the human  
415 history of the tropical Andes? Although not referencing attending impacts on aquatic ecosystems, the  
416 most recent and comprehensive review of widespread reforestation of Amazonian landscapes after the  
417 arrival of the Europeans in South America indicate that human practices largely followed the cycle of  
418 deforestation, use, and reforestation, all beginning before the conquest (*ca.* 550 cal years BP, 1492 CE;  
419 Bush et al., 2021). In ecologically analogous lakes of the Northern Andes of Colombia and Ecuador,  
420 aquatic indicators (including diatoms and pollen) were also responding to human-driven vegetation  
421 changes (González-Carranza et al., 2012; Loughlin et al., 2018; Vélez et al., 2021). However, previous  
422 studies did not quantify time-varying past effects of human practices on aquatic responses. Decoupling  
423 between natural and human-associated pollen effects on diatoms is difficult to discern because their  
424 drivers might be temporally correlated (i.e. humans and climate). Our numerical approach is important in  
425 the sense that it shows key temporal periods when drivers (native pollen, and agropastoralism indicators)  
426 and responses (diatoms) are fluctuating within or move outside their long-term rates of change, the  
427 uncertainty of covariate's constitutions, and their lagged effects; all of this without assuming any specific  
428 dynamics in the time-series (i.e., GAM). This is a critical analytical step to provide nuances in  
429 paleoenvironmental reconstructions, with potential to complement with other drivers of change such as  
430 archaeology-based radiocarbon time-series that infer human population changes in South America  
431 (Marsh, 2015).

432

## 433 **5. Conclusion**

434 Our findings describe the dynamic aquatic transitions of the Lake Llaviucu best explained by  
435 time-delayed human practices in the catchment that triggered shifts in lake diatoms mediated by nutrient  
436 changes. The current Lake Llaviucu's ecological integrity may be compared with past waves of human  
437 practices in the catchment of different intensity and nature. For instance, albeit located in a protected area,

438 current Lake Llaviucu's vicinity in the Cajas Natural Park is managed under traditional burning practices  
439 to stimulate growth of grass for cattle grazing, and herds use the lake as a water source potentially leading  
440 to lake's primary production increases. Nevertheless, current rates of livestock grazing could not have  
441 surpassed nutrient-associated baseline thresholds to alter the lake diatom assemblages as in *ca.* 1400 and  
442 500 cal years BP. While the decrease in nutrient status can be associated with diatom changes for most of  
443 the record, anthropogenic stressors via climate change and direct in-lake impacts (i.e., weir, fish farm)  
444 appear to be the most important drivers of the lake state (i.e., the unique rapid change in assemblage-wide  
445 rate of change) after Indigenous practices long decoupled the natural aquatic-terrestrial links. Whenever  
446 similar time series are available, our framework can be used in similar settings to shed light into  
447 ecological couplings and baselines of tropical aquatic ecosystems. Our paleoecological record provided a  
448 long-term perspective on the interactive effects of human and climate stressors that may support policy  
449 addressing current global change issues, such a water quality and availability, and land-use practices.

450

#### 451 **Data availability statement**

452 All fossil pollen, diatom and XRF datasets, and R scripts to perform statistical analyses and generate plots  
453 are available from GitHub (<https://github.com/xbenitogranell/DiatPollSync>).

454

#### 455 **Acknowledgements**

456 This work was supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF) - DEB 1260983 and EAR 1338694  
457 and 1624207. XB has received funding from the postdoctoral fellowships programme Beatriu de Pinós,  
458 funded by the Secretary of Universities and Research (Government of Catalonia) and by the Horizon  
459 2020 programme of research and innovation of the European Union under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie  
460 grant agreement No 801370. The authors are indebted to Bryan Valencia and Eric Mosblech for  
461 assistance and support during the field work, as well as Cajas National Park personnel for permitting to  
462 conduct this research.

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707

708 **Tables**

709

710 **Table 1** Generalized Additive Models (GAM) parameters and summary statistics for the models used.

711 Covariable: time series used for each model; K-index: diagnostic parameter to check if k is too low ( $k < 1$ );

712 bs: smoothing basis; K: basis dimensions for the smooth term; edf: estimated degrees of freedom.

713

<b>Model</b>	<b>Covariable</b>	<b>bs</b>	<b>k</b>	<b>k-index</b>	<b>edf</b>	<b>p-value</b>
<b>Covariates model</b>						
<i>Interpolated data</i>						
Response variable: diatom PrC	Age	adaptative	20	0.65	11.1	$p < 0.05$
	Agropastoralism PrC	cubic spline	10	1.03	1.20	0.03
	Pollen PrC	cubic spline	10	0.95	0.71	0.09
	Titanium	cubic spline	10	1.06	0.55	0.11
<i>GAM-simulated data</i>						
Response variable: diatom PrC	Age	cubic spline	-	0.82	6.38	$p < 0.05$
	Agropastoralism PrC	cubic spline	-	0.93	7.94	$p < 0.05$
	Pollen PrC	cubic spline	-	0.83	7.92	0.32
	Titanium	cubic spline	-	1.05	6.75	0.10
<b>Hierarchical GAM</b>						

<i>Response</i> : Diatom counts (n species=22)	Age	Factor smooth (age, species)	20	0.96	242. 8	$p < 0.05$
Pollen counts (n species=26)	Age	Factor smooth (age, species)	20	0.99	137. 5	$p < 0.05$
Agropastoralism indicator counts (n species=12)	Age	Factor smooth (age, species)	20	0.97	61.7 2	$p < 0.05$

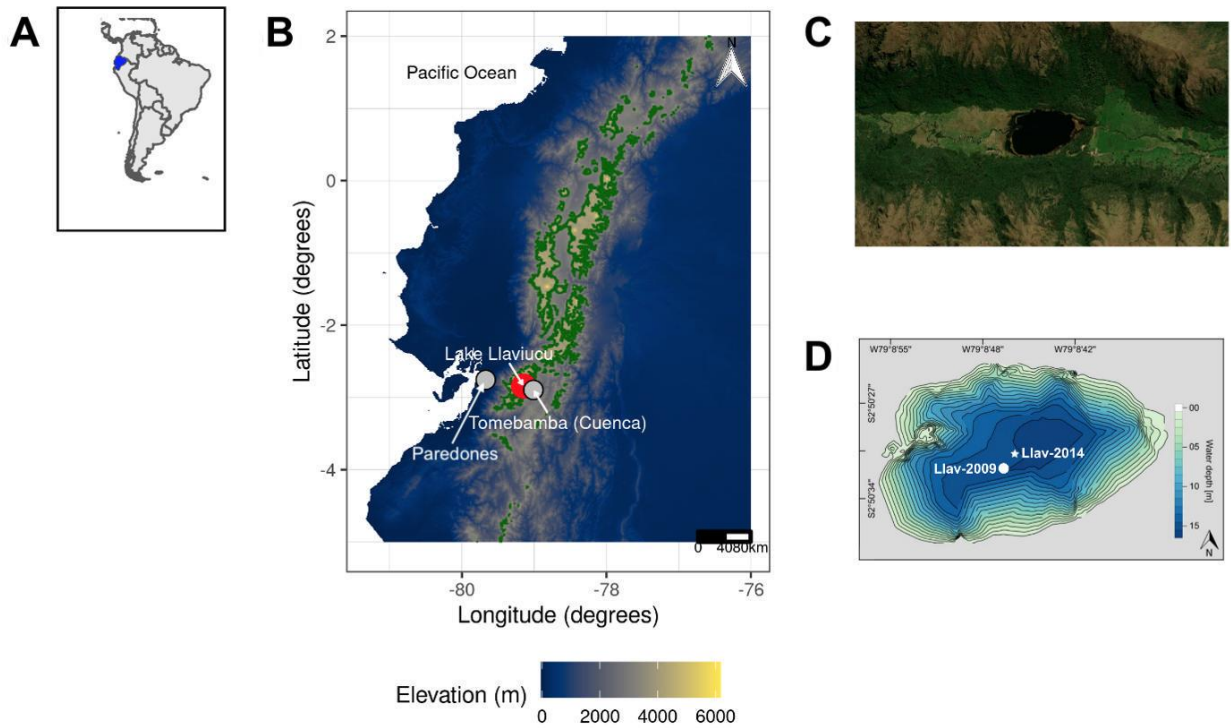
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717 **Figures**

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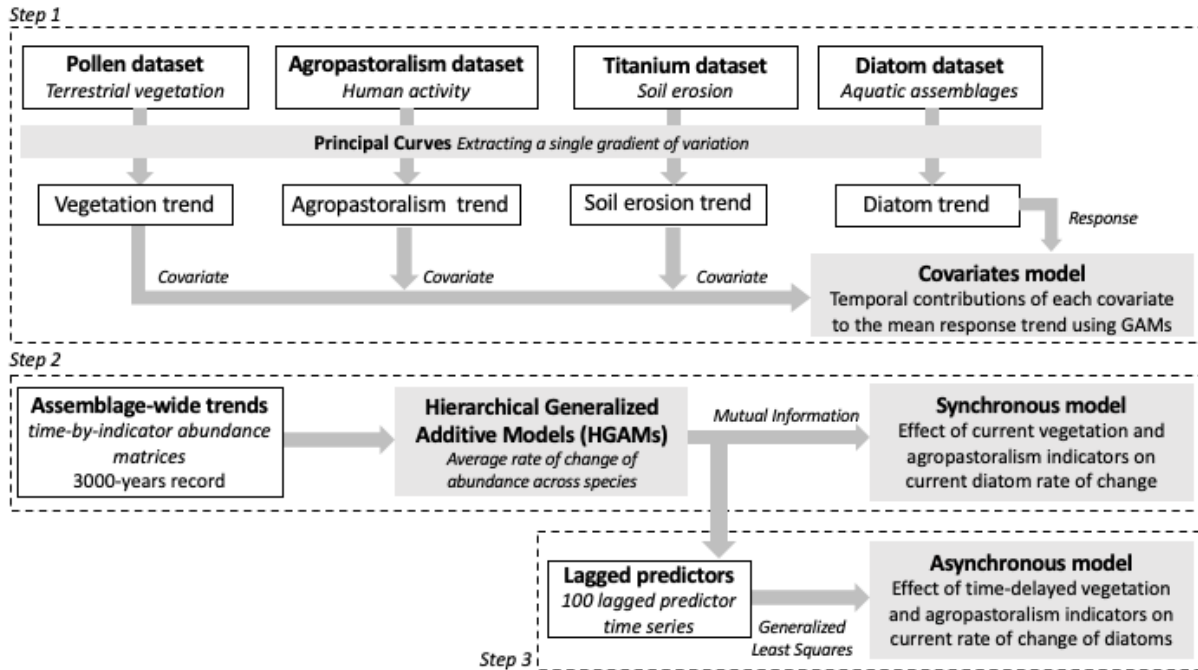
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720 **Fig. 1** Geographical location of Lake Llaviucu in Ecuador, South America (a) in relation to elevation  
721 showing the distribution of Paramo (>3500 m; green lines), the location of Tomebamba (today Cuenca)  
722 and the archaeological region of Paredones in the lowlands (b). Lake Llaviucu's aerial photography  
723 (Google Earth) showing the moist montane forest surrounding the lake and the Paramo up in the  
724 mountains (c). Lake Llaviucu's bathymetry showing the position of the diatom (Llav-2014) and pollen  
725 (Llav-2009) cores (d).

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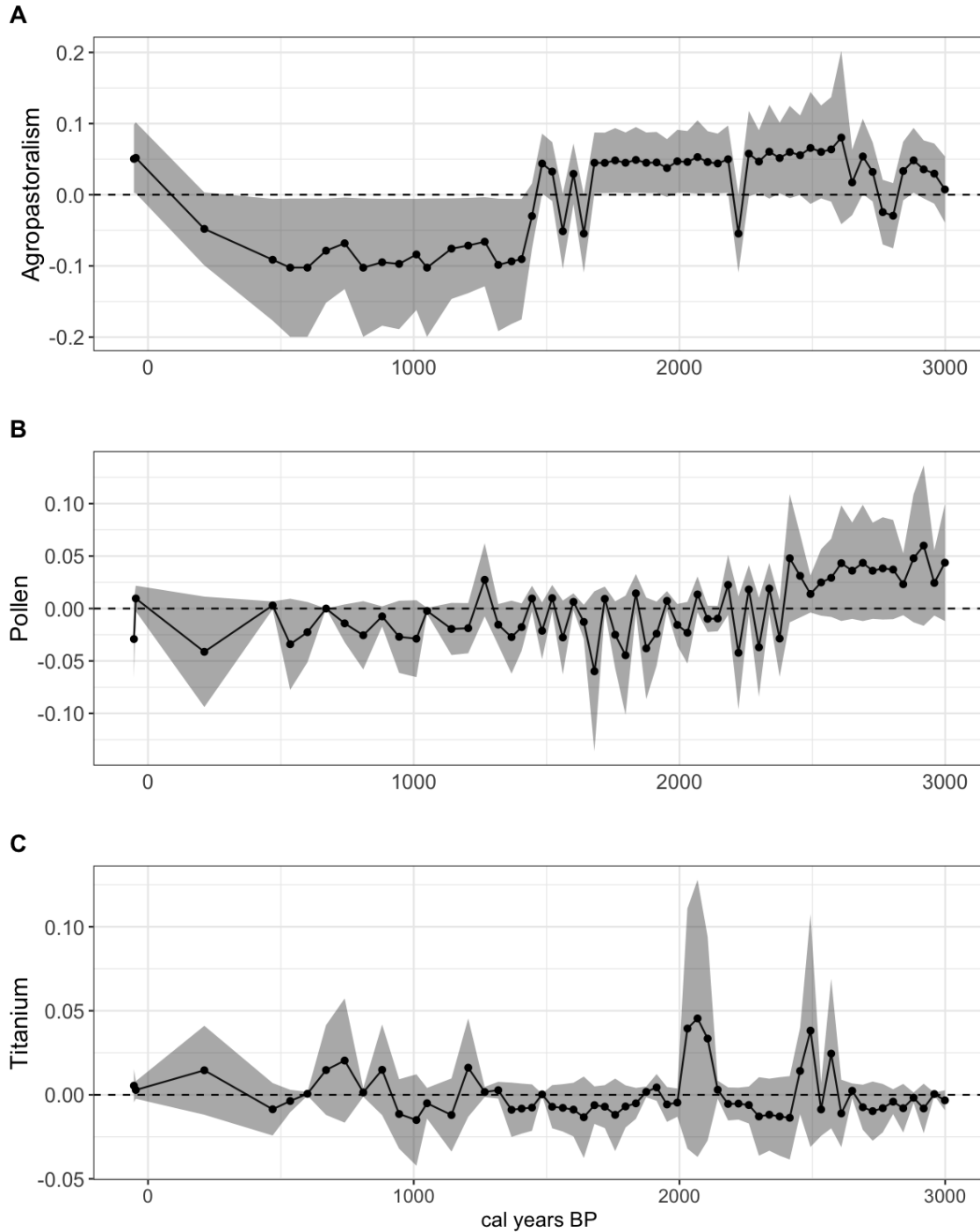


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730 **Fig. 2** Flow diagram illustrating the numerical analyses carried out in the present study, which consists in  
 731 three main steps: extracting trends in temporal contributions of terrestrial vegetation, human activities and  
 732 soil erosion on diatom trajectory (*Covariates model, step 1*); modeling assemblage-wide rates of change,  
 733 and analyzing their coherent temporal fluctuations over time (*Synchronous model, step 2*); and generating  
 734 lagged time series of predictors (pollen, agropastoralism) to test for asynchronous effects in current rate of  
 735 change of diatoms (*Asynchronous model, step 3*). See text for details.

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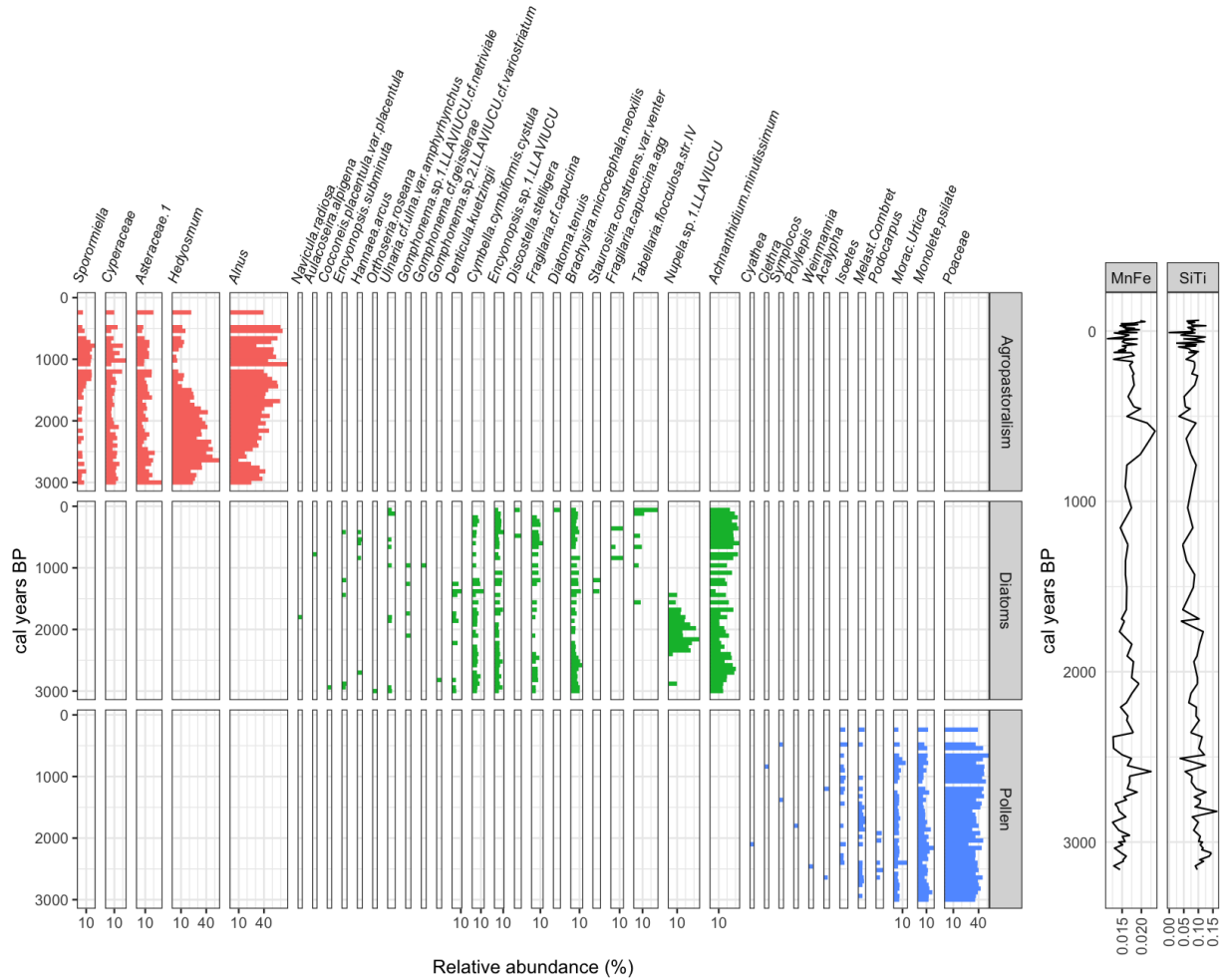
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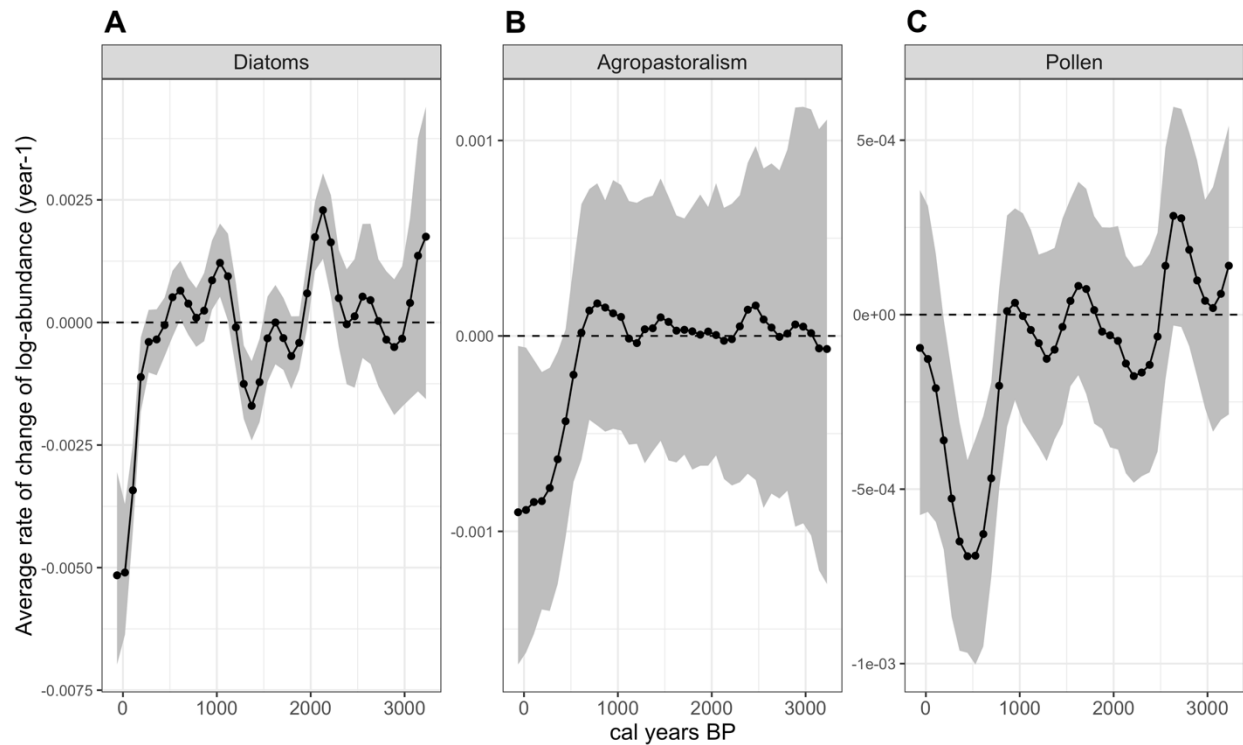
740 **Fig. 3** The temporal contributions of a) agropastoralism, b) pollen, and c) Titanium in Generalized  
 741 Additive Models (GAMs) fitted to the diatom PrC of the Lake Llaviucu (*Covariates model* in step 1 of  
 742 Fig. 2). The agropastoralism PrC is the solely significant covariate (Table 1). Grey ribbon is 95%

743 confidence interval. Where the grey envelope includes zero line there is no statistically significant  
 744 contribution of the covariate to the response. Cal years BP=calibrated years before present.  
 745



746  
 747 **Fig. 4** Summary stratigraphic plots of the Lake Llaviucu, showing (from left) the relative abundance (%)  
 748 of selected taxa (i.e., those occurring having more than 3% relative abundance) of agropastoralism,  
 749 diatom, and native pollen assemblages arranged by increased abundance (x-axis) over time (y-axis), and  
 750 downcore distribution of Mn/Fe and Si/Ti ratios (Llav-2014 core).

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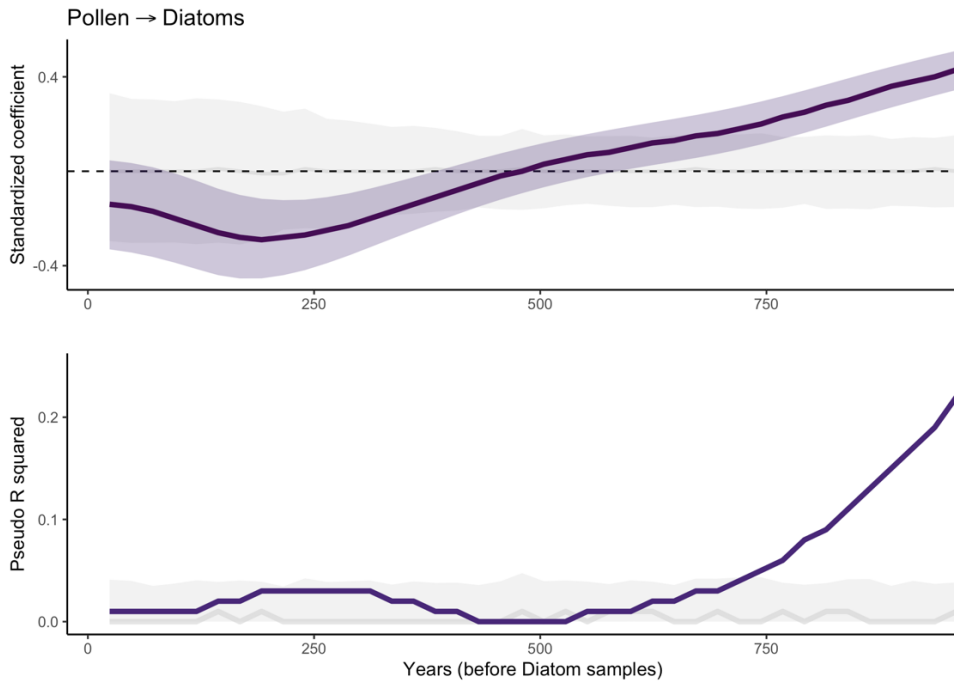
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755 **Fig. 5** Assemblage-wide rate of change (y-axis) over time (calibrated years before present; x-axis),  
 756 estimated from Hierarchical generalized additive models (HGAMs) fitted to the most common taxa (those  
 757 present in more than 2 samples): diatoms (a), agropastoralism (b), and native pollen (c). Zero dashed line  
 758 represents mean rate of change of abundance, averaged across species. Where the grey ribbon (95%  
 759 pointwise confidence intervals on the fitted models) includes the zero dashed line, there is no significant  
 760 increase or decrease in abundances at that time.

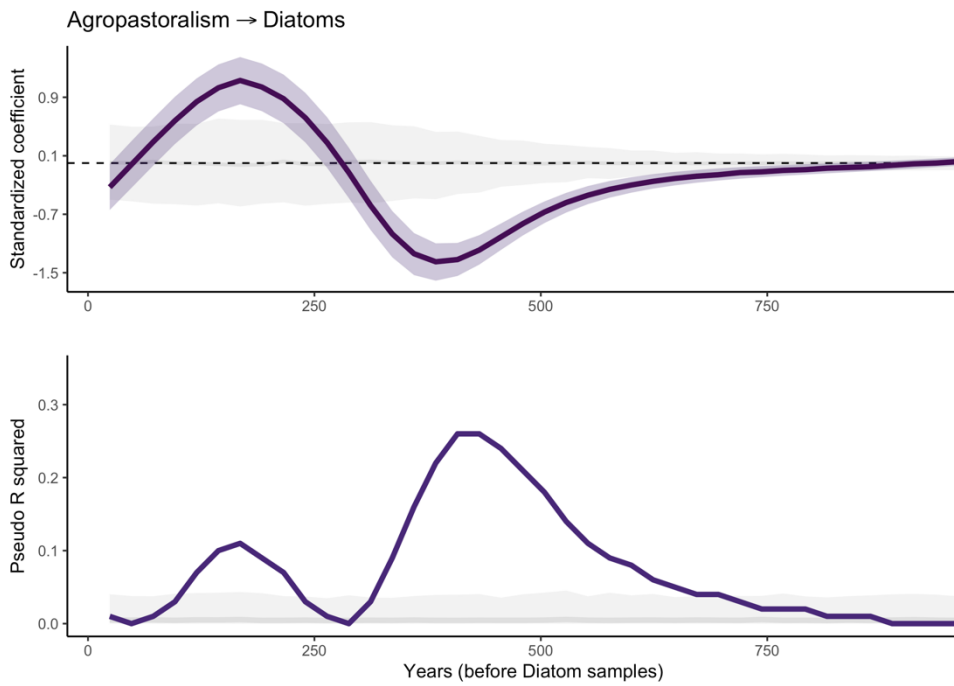
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**A**



**B**



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**Fig. 6** Asynchrony models (standardized coefficients and pseudo  $R^2$ ) fitted on lagged predictors to assess the effect of past pollen (a) and agropastoralism (b) rate of change on diatom rate of change. Grey ribbons

765 represent standardized coefficients and pseudo  $R^2$  for the null model. Standardized coefficients indicate  
766 the direction (positive or negative) of the relationship between the lagged predictors and current diatom  
767 rate of change. Pseudo  $R^2$  indicates the predictive accuracy (i.e., goodness of fit) of the regression  
768 asynchronous model between lagged predictors and the response. Where lines intersect the grey ribbon,  
769 there is no statistically significant effect of past predictor values (pollen or agropastoralism) on the  
770 response (diatoms).