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1 **Paleolimnological response of Ecuadorian páramo lakes reflect both local and**
2 **regional influences during the last two millennia**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Increasing surface air temperatures and human influences (e.g., agriculture, grazing, mining,
22 urbanization, tourism) are altering lakes on the Andean páramo of South America, as illustrated
23 by changes in diatom species composition in sediment cores from the region that span the last
24 ~150 years. Previous studies were limited by their relatively short temporal scales and limited
25 spatial coverage. We analyzed sediment cores from the northern (Laguna Piñan) and southern
26 (Laguna Fondococha) Andean páramos of Ecuador. The deposits span the last two millennia and
27 provide a longer-term perspective on past changes in lake ecological and geochemical dynamics.
28 Both lakes show shifts in dominant diatoms through time. Dominant diatom taxa in Fondococha
29 shifted between two *Aulacoseira* species, and there was a change in the planktic to benthic ratio,
30 a proxy for open-water versus shallow-water habitats. Both changes are interpreted as evidence
31 of fluctuating lake level. The inferred lake-level changes are corroborated by stratigraphic
32 variations in the concentration of Ti, an erosional proxy, indicating changes in clastic input as a
33 function of wetter or drier conditions. Piñan shows a directional shift in the diatom assemblage
34 over the period of the record, from benthic diatoms tolerant of high dissolved organic carbon
35 (DOC), low pH, and low nutrients, to an assemblage characteristic of lower DOC, higher pH,
36 higher nutrients, and higher lake levels. Shifts in Piñan's diatoms are correlated with tephra
37 layers in the sediment, suggesting that local volcanic ash deposition may have altered both the
38 catchment and lake geochemistry. This is supported by relatively higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in organic
39 matter associated with tephra layers, which become more negative up-section. Our data suggest
40 that remote lakes in spatially heterogeneous montane regions are sentinels of environmental
41 change, and the records from Piñan and Fondococha provide insights into Andean ecosystem
42 responses to past environmental perturbations.

43 **Key Words:** Paleolimnology, Diatoms, Tropical Andes, Ecuador, Lakes, Páramo,
44 Environmental change

45 **Introduction**

46 Tropical Andean páramos are wet alpine grassland and shrub ecosystems that lie above the tree
47 line and below the permanent snow line (~2800-4700 m asl). Páramos extend from 11°N to 8°S
48 latitude and are concentrated in the northern Andes of Venezuela, Colombia, and Ecuador.
49 Despite their small areal extent, they contain exceptionally high levels of biodiversity and
50 endemism, in association with large variations in topography and climate (Sklenář et al. 2014).
51 The páramo landscape consists of many glacially formed valleys and plains, with scattered lakes,
52 temporary ponds, peat bogs, and wetlands (Buytaert et al. 2006). The combination of a cool and
53 humid climate and porous humic soils makes páramos important regulators of the regional
54 hydrologic cycle (Buytaert et al. 2006), and they supply nearly all the water used for drinking,
55 irrigation, and hydroelectricity in many parts of the northern Andes and adjacent Amazon
56 lowlands.

57 Páramo ecosystems are currently threatened by several ecological stressors. In the Andes,
58 accelerated warming within the last few decades (Vuille and Bradley 2000; Vuille et al. 2003)
59 has resulted in the retreat of glaciers, alteration of the hydrologic cycle, and shifting ranges of
60 plant and animal species (Vuille et al. 2008; Rabatel et al. 2013; Morueta-Holme et al. 2015).
61 Simultaneously, human activities including agriculture, grazing, mining, urban expansion, and
62 tourism have increased (Buytaert et al. 2006). Understanding how these ecosystems respond to
63 climate change and human activities is important for regional conservation planning, climate
64 change adaptation, and water security (Ochoa-Tocachi et al. 2019).

65 The Ecuadorian Andean páramos contain a high density of lakes (Mosquera et al. 2017)
66 that are ideal ecosystems for evaluating regional environmental change. Paleolimnological
67 studies of Ecuadorian lakes have investigated the ecological and biological responses of such
68 lakes to recent climate-related changes, such as increasing air temperature and decreasing wind
69 speed (Michelutti et al. 2015a; Giles et al. 2017; Frederick et al. 2018). For example, increases in
70 the diatom species *Discostella stelligera* (Cleve and Grunow) Houk and Klee 2004 were
71 associated with changes in lake thermal regime (Michelutti et al. 2015a). Those studies,
72 however, were restricted spatially (mainly southern Ecuador) and investigated only the last
73 century or two and may not be representative of longer-term trends or the broader Ecuadorian
74 páramos. Furthermore, a recent landscape-scale paleolimnological analysis of Ecuadorian lakes

75 demonstrated that limnological change induced by climatic and/or anthropogenic stressors was
76 not spatially widespread during the last ~150 years, suggesting that diatom communities, and
77 lakes by inference, were ecologically resilient over a broad geographic range and over time
78 scales longer than the last century (Benito et al. 2019).

79 We investigated the paleolimnology of two páramo lakes located in the north (Laguna
80 Piñan) and south (Laguna Fondococha) of Ecuador (Fig. 1) to infer their ecological responses to
81 external drivers over the last two millennia. We chose two spatially distant, relatively deep (z_{\max}
82 >9 m) lakes and used stratigraphic changes in the diatom flora and sediment geochemistry to
83 explore whether the two responded synchronously to past environmental changes. The
84 contemporary diatom flora and the lake physico-chemical variables were sampled to use as a
85 baseline for comparison to paleolimnological changes. We hypothesized that if the lakes showed
86 synchronous stratigraphic changes, then the driver(s) were likely regional, i.e., climatic.
87 Alternatively, if detected paleolimnological changes were asynchronous, either local catchment
88 processes mediated climate influences or the drivers themselves were local (i.e., land use,
89 catchment geochemistry and/or geomorphology).

90

91 Site description

92

93 Fondococha (S02°45.6', W79°14.16'; 4130 m asl) and Piñan (N00°31.054', W78°26.292'; 3183
94 m asl) were chosen for their remote locations and limited local human influences. Fondococha
95 (Figs. 1 and 2A) is in Cajas National Park in the southern Ecuadorian Andes. Pleistocene glacial
96 deposits cover the volcanic bedrock, producing organic-rich Andisol and Histosol soils (Harden
97 et al. 2006). The lake has a surface area of 3.4 ha, with a maximum water depth of 9.9 m. The
98 lake is exorheic and polymictic. Piñan (Figs. 1 and 2B) is in the Cotacachi Cayapas Ecological
99 Reserve in the northern Ecuadorian Andes. It is one of ~35 glacially formed lakes in the region.
100 The landscape, bedrock, and soil are like that of Cajas. The lake area is 195 ha, with a maximum
101 water depth of 32.1 m. The lake is exorheic and polymictic.

102 Climate in both areas is generally wet and humid. Temperature shows little seasonal
103 variation. In Cajas National Park, where Fondococha is located, temperature varies diurnally

104 between 3 and 6°C, and annual precipitation ranges from 829 to 1343 mm (Michelutti et al.
105 2015a). In Cotacachi Cayapas Reserve, the location of Piñan, temperature varies diurnally
106 between 4 and 10°C, and the region has an average annual rainfall of 906 mm. Precipitation for
107 the region originates from easterly flow across the Amazon Basin (Kalnay et al. 1996; ETAPA
108 2016; Schneider et al. 2018). Both areas have two pronounced rainy seasons, from February to
109 May and October to December, related to the seasonal migration of the Intertropical
110 Convergence Zone (ITCZ; Vuille et al. 2000).

111 Both Cajas National Park and Cotacachi Cayapas Ecological Reserve are protected
112 natural regions of Ecuador. Cotacachi Cayapas Ecological Reserve was established in 1968, and
113 Cajas National Park in 1996. Like other areas of the páramo, humans have influenced these
114 regions for at least hundreds of years (Hansen et al. 2003; Sarmiento 2012). However, since their
115 establishment as protected areas, human practices, such as grazing, have decreased (Bandowe et
116 al. 2018). Today, these areas are attractive tourist destinations for nature treks, sport fishing, and
117 camping. These tourist activities have resulted in changes in vegetation cover, introduction of
118 invasive species, and pollution of waterbodies (Barros et al. 2015; Bandowe et al. 2018;
119 Schneider et al. 2021).

120

121 **Materials and methods**

122 Field work

123

124 Short cores (~1 m long) were retrieved during two field seasons, using a percussion gravity-corer
125 with 6-cm-diameter liners (UWITEC, Austria). The sediment-water interfaces were preserved
126 using wet floral foam. Fondococha was cored in July 2014 (Fig. 2). The core was transported to
127 the Institute of Geography, University of Bern, Switzerland, stored in a dark cold room (4°C),
128 and after a sedimentological description (Schnurrenberger et al. 2003) and measurement of the
129 semi-quantitative elemental composition, sampled contiguously at 1-cm intervals. Piñan was
130 cored in July 2017 (Fig. 2). The core was sliced every 1 cm in the field and transported to the
131 Earth and Atmospheric Sciences Department, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, USA. The core
132 was subsampled for chronology, geochemistry, and diatom analysis. Water samples were taken

133 30 cm below the water surface during July 2017 from both lakes and sent to the Water Sciences
134 Lab (University of Nebraska-Lincoln) for analysis of cations, anions, and major nutrients (TN,
135 TP).

136 Samples for analysis of contemporary diatom assemblages were collected to provide
137 reference material on the major taxa and their habitat distribution in the modern lakes.
138 Periphyton samples were collected from both lakes along their margins by scraping rocky
139 substrate with a brush and collecting macrophyte plant matter. In each lake, a surface sediment
140 samples (0-1 cm) was collected from the top of each core in the field to represent planktic
141 habitats.

142

143 Laboratory methods

144

145 Cations in water samples were measured using Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometry. Anions
146 were measured using Ion Chromatography. Total Kjeldahl phosphorus (TP) and nitrogen (TN)
147 were measured using colorimetry following, respectively, acid and alkaline persulfate digestion.
148 Additional modern lake physico-chemical characteristics were obtained from the local water
149 utility company (ETAPA EP) of Cuenca (Ecuador) and Laboratory of Aquatic Biology at
150 Campus Kulak Kortrijk (Belgium). Each sediment core was analyzed for basic sedimentological
151 characteristics, geochemistry, and diatom species abundance and composition.

152 For diatom analysis, approximately 1 g of wet sediment was weighed and freeze dried.
153 Organic matter was removed with 30% hydrogen peroxide. Samples were rinsed with distilled
154 water and then permanently mounted on slides using Naphrax. At least 300 diatom valves were
155 counted at 1000x on a Zeiss Axioskop light microscope with differential interference contrast.
156 Diatoms were identified to species level using both cosmopolitan and regional (Manguin 1964;
157 Servant-Vildary 1986; Metzeltin and Lange-Bertalot 1998) floras. For each sample, diatoms
158 were grouped based on their habitat preferences: planktic (P, free-floating in littoral zone),
159 tychoplanktic (attached to substrates but able to survive in the plankton), and benthic (B,
160 attached to surfaces, such as macrophytes, sand rocks, mud). The ratio of planktic (P) to benthic

161 (B) diatoms was calculated as a simple metric of changes in open water to shallow water habitat
162 driven by lake level variation (Wolin and Stone 2010).

163 For Piñan, measurements of TN, TC, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ were made at the Department of
164 Geological Sciences Mass Spectrometry Laboratory, University of Florida, using a Thermo
165 Electron DeltaV Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer coupled with a ConFlo II interface
166 linked to a Carlo Erba NA 1500 CNHS Elemental Analyzer (Electronic Supplementary Material
167 [ESM] Fig. S1). All carbon isotope results are expressed in standard delta notation relative to
168 Vienna Pee Dee belemnite (VPDB). Geochemical methods on Fondococha are described in
169 Bandowe et al. (2018) and Schneider et al. (2021). Semi-quantitative elemental composition
170 (here, Ti) was measured at 1-mm resolution using a micro-X-ray fluorescence scanner (μXRF ,
171 ITRAX) equipped with a Mo-tube (exposure time: 10 s; voltage: 30 kV, current: 35 mA). In the
172 absence of a direct comparison with the Piñan geochemistry record (i.e., C/N ratios), a Ti time-
173 series is included here as an indicator of detrital input from the catchment (Davies et al. 2015).

174

175 Statistical analysis

176

177 Statistical analyses were performed using R (R Core Team 2019) and C2 software (Version
178 1.7.7). Diatom relative abundances (%) were calculated and plotted. Diatom zones were
179 identified through hierarchically constrained cluster analysis (CONISS), using the *coniss*
180 function in the *rioja* package, and evaluated for statistical significance with the broken stick
181 model using the *bstick* function in the *rioja* package (Juggins 2017). Diatom rarefied species
182 richness was calculated using the *rarefy* function in the *vegan* package. A principal component
183 analysis (PCA), using diatom species relative abundance data, was run on each lake core using
184 the *prcomp* function in the base *stats* package (R Core Team 2019). Prior to PCA, the diatom
185 data were Hellinger transformed to accommodate linear assumptions (Legendre and Gallagher
186 2001). Principal components axes PC1 and PC2 were extracted and subsequently plotted against
187 and correlated to geochemical variables using the *cor.test* function in the base *stats* package (R
188 Core Team 2019).

189

190 Age-depth models

191

192 Core chronologies were established using ^{210}Pb and radiocarbon dating (^{14}C) techniques. The
193 age-depth model of Fondococha was adapted from previous studies. Details about the ^{210}Pb -
194 chronology (CRS, with missing inventory correction, Tylmann et al. 2014) can be found in
195 Bandowe et al. (2018), and information about the age-depth model is specified in Arcusa et al.
196 (2020) and Schneider et al. (2018). Five radiocarbon dates were included in the Fondococha age
197 model. Instantaneously deposited event layers (e.g., tephra layers, flood layers) were masked
198 (omitted) for the age calculations and reinserted in the combined age-depth model. Core
199 correlation between the Fondococha master core (FON-14-1-A) and the cores used for this
200 research (FON-14-2-1-A) was done by visual identification of distinctive strata in the cores, and
201 projection of the associated ages in FON-14-1-A onto our cores.

202 The ^{210}Pb analyses for Piñan were completed at the St. Croix Watershed Research Station
203 using alpha spectrometry, and a chronology was modeled using the constant-rate-of-supply
204 (CRS) model (Appleby and Oldfield 1978). The entire inventory of unsupported ^{210}Pb was
205 contained within the top 20 cm. Three ^{14}C ages were determined on plant macrofossil remains
206 and were calibrated with the IntCal13 calibration curve (Reimer et al. 2013). A Bayesian age-
207 depth model was constructed using the *rbacon* R package (Blaauw and Christen 2019). Two
208 tephra layers in Piñan (39-43 cm, 52-55 cm) were identified from smear slides under a light
209 microscope and were masked (omitted) for the age calculation and reinserted in the age-depth
210 model.

211

212 **Results**

213 Modern lake characteristics

214

215 Both lakes have broadly similar limnological characteristics with a few exceptions (Table 1).
216 Fondococha is shallower ($z_{\text{max}} = 9.9$ m) than Piñan ($z_{\text{max}} = 32.1$ m), and its surface water

217 temperature (11.05 °C) was cooler than Piñan (16.5 °C) at the time of measurement. Fondococha
218 is circum-neutral (pH=7.3), whereas Piñan is slightly alkaline (pH=8.7). Conductivity is low
219 (<100 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$) in both lakes, and ionic composition is similar, although Ca concentration is
220 higher in Fondococha. Both lakes have relatively low TN values. After laboratory analysis of
221 samples collected in 2017, TP values were compared to those collected by colleagues at ETAPA-
222 EP. Our TP values were inconsistent with ETAPA-EP measurements on multiple samples (Van
223 Colen et al. 2017; Mosquera pers. commun.) and were therefore discarded.

224

225 Modern diatoms

226

227 Diatoms from periphyton samples taken along the lake margin and the core surface sediment (0-
228 1 cm) were counted from both lakes to characterize the modern diatom communities (Fig. 3).
229 The Fondococha periphyton sample (Fig. 3A) was dominated by *Aulacoseira alpigena* (Grunow)
230 Krammer 1991, *Cavinula pseudoscutiformis* (Hustedt) D.G. Mann and A.J. Stickle 1990,
231 *Psammothidium* cf. *grischunum*, and *Achnanthydium macrocephalum* (Hustedt) Round and
232 Bukhtiyarova 1996. In contrast, the surface sediment (Fig. 3B) was dominated by *Aulacoseira*
233 *distans* var. *septentrionalis* K.E. Camburn and D.F. Charles 2000 (referred to in this manuscript
234 as *A. distans*), *A. alpigena*, and *Achnanthydium minutissimum* (Kützing) Czarnecki 1994.

235 The Piñan periphyton sample (Fig 3C) consisted of *A. minutissimum*, *Fragilaria*
236 *capucina* Desmazières 1830, *Fragilaria gracilis* Østrup 1910, and *Fragilaria tenera* (W. Smith)
237 Lange-Bertalot 1980. The surface sediment (Fig. 3D) consisted of diverse benthic species,
238 dominated by *Nitzschia* cf. *clandestina* Manguin 1964, *Navicula radiosa* Kützing 1844,
239 *Nitzschia* cf. *oberheimiana* U. Rumrich and Lange-Bertalot, *A. minutissimum*, and *Staurosirella*
240 *pinnata sensu lato* (Ehrenberg) D.M. Williams and Round 1988. Planktic species in the surface
241 sediment were limited and include *A. alpigena* and *Tabellaria fenestrata* (Lyngbye) Kützing
242 1844.

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244 Age-depth models

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The radiocarbon measurements used in the age-depth models are reported in ESM Table S1. For the Fondococha age-depth model (ESM Fig. S1), the top 9 cm contained unsupported ^{210}Pb , yielding an oldest reliable date of AD 1870 (Bandowe et al., 2018). Mass accumulation rate (MAR) ranged between 0.005 and 0.025 $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ and was constant prior to AD 1960; after AD 1960, MAR increased.

For the Piñan age-depth model (ESM Fig. S2), a total of 15 samples contained unsupported ^{210}Pb , yielding an oldest reliable date of AD 1870 at a depth of 16 cm. Since AD 1900, the lake has had a mean linear sedimentation rate of 0.13 cm yr^{-1} and a MAR of 0.009 $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$. The low mean sediment accumulation rate and relatively high unsupported ^{210}Pb activities compared to cores from other South American lakes suggests that the dates are reliable. A near-constant average sedimentation rate of $\sim 0.1 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$, similar to that calculated from the ^{210}Pb data, was recorded in the rbacon model. Below the first tephra (52-55 cm), the mean linear sediment accumulation rate was higher, at $\sim 0.3 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$.

Fondococha diatom stratigraphy

The subfossil Fondococha diatom assemblage contains a total of 134 diatom species. It is characterized by shifts in dominance between *A. alpigena* and *A. distans*, which are coincident with shifts in the planktic to benthic ratio (P:B ratio) (Fig. 4). The benthos includes the genera *Achnantheidium*, *Amphora*, *Brachysira*, *Caloneis*, *Craticula*, *Encyonema*, *Encyonopsis*, *Eunotia*, *Gomphonema*, *Navicula*, *Neidium*, *Nitzschia*, *Pinnularia*, *Pseudostaurosira*, *Sellaphora*, *Staurosirella*, and *Tabellaria* (ESM Figs. S3-S6). Four stratigraphic diatom zones (FDZ) were identified.

FDZ-1 (96-83 cm, 649-302 BC)

272 FDZ-1 is numerically dominated by *A. alpigena*, with variable contributions from *A. distans* and
273 benthic taxa (Fig. 4). The interval 99-89 cm (649-302 BC) has a steady abundance of *A.*
274 *alpigena*. The relative abundance of *A. distans* reaches >40%. The abundance and diversity of
275 benthic species is low. From 88-83 cm (473-302 BC) *A. alpigena* remains dominant, but the
276 abundance of *A. distans* declines. Secondary components include planktic species *F. capucina*
277 *sensu lato* and benthic species *A. minutissimum*, *N. cryptotenella*, *N. radiosa*, *Sellaphora*
278 *disjuncta* (Hustedt) D.G. Mann 1989, and *S. laevissima*. Minor contributions from *Amphora*,
279 *Brachysira*, *Encyonopsis*, *Eunotia*, *Gomphonema*, *Neidium*, *Pinnularia*, and *Staurosirella* make
280 this a very taxonomically diverse zone, as supported by high rarefied species richness.

281

282 *FDZ-2 (82-51 cm, 265 BC - AD 768)*

283

284 FDZ-2 is dominated by *A. distans* (>50%), with *A. alpigena* accounting for <40% (Fig. 4). The
285 interval from 82-60 cm (265 BC - AD 371) has high P:B ratios and is dominated by *A. distans*,
286 which accounts for >70% of the total assemblage in most samples. The relative abundance of *A.*
287 *alpigena* is low. Relative abundance and diversity of benthic species is also low, except in
288 samples at 80 cm (188 BC) and 67 cm (AD 135) and. At 80 cm, planktic *F. capucina sensu lato*
289 is present. At 67 cm, planktic *Cyclotella* is present. Relative abundance and the composition of
290 benthic species fluctuates from 59 to 51 cm (AD 398-768). *A. distans* peaks (>70%) at 56 cm
291 (AD 541) and 52 cm (AD 718). These peaks coincide with low relative abundance and diversity
292 of benthic species. In contrast, samples with low abundance (<25%) of *A. distans* are observed at
293 59-58 cm (AD 398-438) and 54 cm (AD 622). These lows coincide with increases in benthic
294 species.

295

296 *FDZ-3 (50-15 cm, AD 821-1767)*

297

298 FDZ-3 (Fig. 4) is dominated by *A. alpigena*. From 33 to 15 cm (AD 1472-1767), *F. capucina*
299 *sensu lato* increases in abundance. *A. distans* abundance varies, ranging from 1% to 57%.

300 Extreme lows in *A. distans* occur from 50-42 cm (AD 821-1140) and from 33 to 29 cm (AD
301 1472-1544). When the relative abundance of *A. distans* is lower, benthic species richness
302 increases and the P:B ratio decreases. Benthic species present include *A. minutissimum*, *Amphora*
303 *copulata* (Kützing) Schoeman and R.E.M. Archibald 1986, *Brachysira neoexilis* Lange-Bertalot
304 1994, *Gomphonema gracile* Ehrenberg 1838, *Navicula cryptotenella* Lange-Bertalot 1985, *N.*
305 *radiosa*, *Navicula viridulicalcis* Lange-Bertalot 2000, *N. cf. clandestina*, *N. cf. oberheimiana*,
306 *Sellaphora laevissima* (Kützing) D.G. Mann 1989, and *Sellaphora pupula* (Kützing)
307 Mereschkovsky 1902.

308

309 *FDZ-4 (14-0 cm, AD 1751-2014)*

310

311 FDZ-4 (Fig. 4) is dominated by the planktic taxa *A. distans*. Secondary components in the
312 plankton include *A. alpigena* and *F. capucina*. The benthic assemblage has low species diversity
313 and low relative abundance (<10%). One peak in *A. alpigena* occurs at AD 1907, coincident with
314 lower values of *A. distans* and higher values of *A. minutissimum* and other benthic species.

315

316 *Fondococha diatom principal components analysis (PCA)*

317

318 The first two principal components account for ~75% of the total variability (PC1 = 64.74%,
319 PC2 = 10.35%; Fig 5A). Samples with positive PC1 scores correlated to higher abundances of *A.*
320 *distans*, whereas samples with negative PC1 scores correlated to higher abundances of *A.*
321 *alpigena*. Samples with more positive scores on the PC2 axis have higher abundances of *A.*
322 *minutissimum*, whereas more negative scores are associated with higher abundances of other
323 benthic species. Samples belonging to diatom zones FDZ-1 to FDZ-4 exhibit overlap on the PCA
324 biplot.

325

326 *Fondococha geochemistry*

327

328 More complete Fondococha geochemistry results are presented and interpreted in detail in
329 Schneider et al. 2018. Here, we describe the values of Ti (counts per second, cps), and how they
330 fluctuate throughout the core. In FDZ-1 mean values are relatively low (mean Ti = 516.3 cps),
331 which is followed by an increase in FDZ-2 (mean Ti = 720.7 cps). Values then decrease again in
332 FDZ-3 (mean Ti = 573.2 cps) and remain relatively constant throughout FDZ-4 (mean Ti = 587.5
333 cps). The elemental concentration of Ti is positively correlated with the P:B ratio ($r=0.568$,
334 $p=0.001$, ESM Fig. S7A), with PC1 ($r=0.505$, $p=0.01$, ESM Fig. S7B), and with *A. distans*
335 relative abundance ($r=0.531$, $p=0.005$, ESM Fig. S7C), and it is negatively correlated with *A.*
336 *alpigena* relative abundance ($r=-0.544$, $p=0.003$, ESM Fig. S7D).

337

338 Piñan diatom stratigraphy

339

340 The Piñan diatom assemblage contains a total of 144 diatom species and has a highly diverse
341 benthic assemblage, with contributions from planktic species increasing up-section (Fig. 6, ESM
342 Figs. S8-S11). Planktic species account for <10% of the total assemblage and include *A.*
343 *alpigena*, *F. capucina sensu lato*, and *T. fenestrata*. Tychoplankton include the endemic Andean
344 *Pseudostaurosira santaremensis* (Metzeltin and Lange-Bertalot) E. Morales, L. Grana and N.I.
345 Maidana 2018, and *S. pinnata sensu lato*. Benthic diatoms include members from the genera
346 *Achnantheidium*, *Brachysira*, *Encyonema*, *Encyonopsis*, *Frustulia*, *Gomphonema*, *Kobayasiella*,
347 *Navicula*, *Nitzschia*, *Sellaphora*, *Stauroneis*, and *Stenopterobia*. The dominant benthic taxa shift
348 through time, and three diatom zones (PDZ) were identified.

349

350 *PDZ-1 (74-38 cm, AD 506-1203)*

351

352 PDZ-1 is a predominantly benthic diatom assemblage as indicated by the low P:B ratio (Fig. 6).
353 This zone is interrupted by a layer of tephra at 55-52 cm (AD 1004) and contains an interval
354 devoid of diatoms from 58 to 55 cm (AD 925 to 1004). Below the tephra, from 73 to 58 cm (AD

355 534 to 925), the assemblage contains higher abundances of *Brachysira* and *Nitzschia*, with lesser
356 amounts of *Frustulia*, *Kobayasiella*, and *Navicula*. At 62 cm (AD 794), rarefied species richness
357 increases from a mean of 34 (73-63 cm, AD 506 to 768) to a mean of 39 (62-58 cm, AD 794 to
358 898). Above the tephra and coarse sand devoid of diatoms, from 52-38 cm (AD 1004 to 1185),
359 the abundance of *F. capucina sensu lato* (~3%) increases slightly. Benthic diatoms are similar to
360 those below the tephra, with the exception of an increase in *Stauroneis* species. A second layer of
361 tephra is deposited at the top of this zone, from 43 to 39 cm (AD 1185).

362

363 *PDZ-2 (37-26 cm, AD 1221-1423)*

364

365 In PDZ-2, the P:B ratio increases, indicating a higher contribution of planktic diatoms. This
366 coincides with an increase in tycho planktic species (>3%) (Fig. 6). In the benthos, *Nitzschia* is
367 the most dominant taxon. Increases in the abundance of *A. minutissimum*, *Gomphonema*, and
368 *Navicula* are also observed. Notably, *Frustulia*, *Kobayasiella*, and *Stauroneis* are drastically
369 reduced or absent. Rarefied species richness gradually increases in this zone, with a mean of 40.

370

371 *PDZ-3 (25-0 cm, AD 1442-2017)*

372

373 PDZ-3 has the highest P:B ratio and rarefied species richness in the record (Fig. 6). Members of
374 the plankton consist mainly of *A. alpigena*, *F. capucina sensu lato*, and *T. fenestrata* (Fig. 6).
375 *Cyclotella sensu lato* is absent from the core, except for the top 4 cm, and *T. fenestrata* is found
376 in the greatest abundance in the upper ~7 cm. Tycho planktic species also increase in this zone.
377 The benthic assemblage is dominated by *Nitzschia* and *Navicula*. Other members of the benthos
378 include *Achnanthisidium*, *Brachysira*, *Encyonopsis*, and *Stenopterobia densestriata* (Hustedt)
379 Krammer 1987.

380

381 *Piñan diatom principal components analysis (PCA)*

382

383 The first two principal components account for ~47% of the total variability (PC1 = 32.2%, PC2
384 = 14.9%; Fig. 5B). Samples with more positive PC1 scores correlated with higher abundances of
385 *Brachysira*, *Encyonema*, *Frustulia*, *Kobayasiella*, and *Stauroneis*. More negative PC1 scores
386 correlated with higher abundances of *A. minutissimum*, *N. viridulicalcis*, *N. cf. clandestina*, *N.*
387 *oberheimiana*, *P. santaremensis*, *S. pinnata*, and *T. fenestrata*. Samples with more positive
388 scores on the PC2 are associated with *N. sp. 1*, and *F. tenera*, while more negative scores are
389 associated with *A. minutissimum*, *E. krammeroides*, *N. notha*, *S. pinnata*, and *T. fenestrata*.

390

391 Piñan geochemistry

392

393 TN ranges from 0 to 1.18 wt. %N (mean=0.49 wt. %N; Fig. 6). TC ranges from 0.07 to 11.82 wt.
394 %C (mean=5.39 wt. %C; Fig. 6). The C/N atomic ratio ranges from 0.07 to 11.68 (mean=5.33;
395 Fig. 6). Finally, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ranges from -18.92‰ to -11.93‰ (mean=-16.97‰; Fig. 6). The C/N
396 atomic ratio values from 60 to 53 cm (AD 925-1004) and 43 to 39 cm (AD 1185-1203) are low
397 in comparison to the mean value (Fig. 6). The former coincides with a layer of tephra (55-52
398 cm), and the latter occurs in association with a second layer of tephra at 43-39 cm. From 56 to 54
399 cm, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are less negative than the mean. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ has less negative values prior to the first
400 tephra layer at 55-52 cm and afterward has more negative values. The C/N ratio is negatively
401 correlated with the PC1 ($r=-0.566$; $p=0.01$; ESM Fig. S12A) and PC2 ($r=-0.574$; $p=0.01$; ESM
402 Fig. S12B) axes from the diatom PCA. Likewise, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are positively correlated with
403 the PC1 ($r=0.707$; $p < 0.001$; ESM Fig. S12C) axis.

404

405 Discussion

406 Fondococha paleolimnology

407

408 Laguna Fondococha's diatom record contains two distinct conditions that alternate through time.
409 The overlap of CONISS clusters when superimposed on the PCA indicates that diatom
410 community shifts correspond to alternation of species rather than complete turnover, and thus do
411 not suggest a shift to a new community state within the investigated period. The first lake
412 condition has a higher abundance of small *A. distans*, lower species richness, higher P:B ratios,
413 and relatively higher values of Ti. The second consists of a higher abundance of the larger *A.*
414 *alpigena*, higher species richness, lower P:B ratio, and relatively lower values of Ti. The benthic
415 component of the second assemblage varies, but consistently has high relative abundances of *A.*
416 *minutissimum*, *Navicula* spp., *Nitzschia* spp., and *Sellaphora* spp. The correspondence of the
417 higher Ti values and higher P:B ratios with higher abundances of *A. distans*, and lower Ti values
418 and lower P:B ratios with higher abundances of *A. alpigena* suggests that the two species occupy
419 different habitats.

420 The contemporary diatom data give insight into what the two *Aulacoseira* species
421 indicators may infer. *A. distans* var. *septentrionalis* is distinguished from the nominate variety of
422 *A. distans* by its smaller valve size (Genkal et al. 2009). In Fondococha, *A. distans* valve
423 diameter is <6 μm , whereas valve diameters of *A. alpigena* reached >15 μm (ESM Fig. S3). *A.*
424 *distans* var. *septentrionalis* is a rare taxon that has mainly been reported in the Northern
425 Hemisphere in acidic, low-nutrient, and low-conductivity lakes (Kocioleck 2005; Kharitonov and
426 Genkal 2010). *A. alpigena* is often found living contemporaneously with *A. distans* var.
427 *septentrionalis*, also characteristic of slightly acidic, low-nutrient, and low-conductivity
428 conditions (Kocioleck 2005; Kharitonov and Genkal 2010). In the Andes, both taxa are
429 distributed in Ecuador and Peru and are associated with low conductivity (Fritz et al. 2019). In
430 Fondococha, only valves of *A. alpigena* were observed in a contemporary periphyton sample,
431 whereas both diatoms are observed in the surface sediment collected from the deepest part of the
432 lake, with *A. distans* being the more abundant species (Fig. 3). *A. alpigena* was found in the
433 Quelccaya ice cap, likely originating from wetland pools near the ice cap base, which further
434 suggests it prefers shallow water (Fritz et al. 2015). The distribution of *A. alpigena* in lakes of
435 Ecuador is restricted to shallow páramo lakes (<13 m). In addition to Fondococha, *A. distans* was
436 found in surface sediment of Cajas National Park Lake Dos Chorreras ($z_{\text{max}}=18$ m) (Benito et al.
437 2019). The contemporary data support that these two species prefer different habitats, with *A.*
438 *alpigena* in shallower lake areas, and *A. distans* in the deeper central portion of the lake.

439 Other factors may be responsible for shifts between *A. alpigena* and *A. distans*. For
440 instance, two morphotypes of *A. granulata* found in Spanish reservoirs were differentiated based
441 on light and turbulence (Gómez et al. 1994). Growth strategies in response to nutrient availability
442 could also be influencing the relative abundance of *A. alpigena*. In a study on *Aulacoseira* valves
443 from Finnish lakes of different trophic states, *A. alpigena* was negatively correlated with TP
444 (Turkia and Lepistö 1999). In contrast, in Cajas National Park lakes, TP is higher in shallow
445 lakes (Mosquera pers. commun.), where *A. alpigena* is more abundant. Likely, these shifts
446 between *Aulacoseira* species may be induced by a combination of factors (e.g., nutrient
447 availability, light availability) influenced by lake depth.

448 Diatom valve size and morphology can affect sinking rates, grazing vulnerability, and
449 nutrient uptake (Rühland et al. 2015). Thus, a reduction in the shallow-water zone would limit
450 the relative abundance of *A. alpigena*, which because of its larger valve size requires greater
451 strength of mixing to remain in the water column. Fondococha has a modern maximum depth of
452 ~10 m (Fig. 2), and its morphometry suggests that under modern or higher lake level, the
453 abundance of planktic diatoms would increase as the area of open water habitat increases (Stone
454 and Fritz 2004). Thus, we interpret times of higher relative abundance of *A. distans* and lower
455 species richness as periods of higher lake level. As lake level decreases, benthic habitat expands
456 and encroaches on the center of the lake, causing greater relative deposition of benthic species.
457 Thus, we interpret higher abundance of *A. alpigena*, higher benthic abundance, and higher
458 species richness as indicating lower lake level.

459 The geochemistry adds additional support to this interpretation. Ti is commonly used as
460 indicator of detrital input into the lake from the lake catchment (Davies et al. 2015). Higher
461 concentrations may result from increased erosion and catchment runoff as a result of generally
462 wetter conditions or extreme precipitation events (Davies et al. 2015). The overall positive
463 correlation of higher Ti values and *A. distans*, and the strong negative correlations between
464 concentrations of these elements and *A. alpigena* suggests that lake level fluctuations were
465 induced by wet/dry climate phases.

466 Fluctuations between *A. alpigena* and *A. distans* suggest that lake level varied over the
467 last >2500 calendar years. In FDZ-1, lake level was relatively lower than modern, as inferred
468 from increases in benthic species and low Ti values. Low lake levels were found between 88 and

469 83 cm (473 to 302 BC). FDZ-2 represents higher lake levels, as inferred from the P:B ratio and
470 the monospecific dominance of *A. distans*. The sedimentology indicates that paleo-flood events
471 increased from ~AD 1020 to 950 (Schneider et al. 2018), and this is further supported by higher
472 values of Ti. We suggest that increased precipitation led to increased lake levels in this interval.
473 FDZ-3 is dominated by *A. alpigena*, representing a period of lower lake level. Decreases in the
474 P:B ratio and subsequent decreases in the values of Ti from 50-42 cm (AD 821 to 1140) and 33-
475 29 cm (AD 1472 to 1544) indicate the shallowest lake levels. FDZ-4 (AD 1767 to 2014) consists
476 of a diatom assemblage similar to modern, with sufficient planktic habitat to support populations
477 of *A. distans*.

478

479 Piñan paleolimnology

480

481 Laguna Piñan's diatom record exhibits a gradual increase in planktic species through time as
482 indicated by the P:B ratio and the differentiation of benthic and tychoplanktic-dominated
483 CONISS clusters along the PC1 axis. Benthic species in the lake shift after tephra deposition,
484 coincident with shifts in the C/N ratio and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$. Throughout the core, C/N values fluctuate
485 around a mean value of 5.33, suggesting that the majority of sediment organic matter is
486 autochthonous and associated with algal productivity (Meyers and Teranes 2001). Associated
487 fluctuations in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ are relatively small. Typical $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values for lacustrine algae range from
488 -20‰ to -30‰ (Meyers and Teranes 2001); our values are higher (>-19.2‰, Fig. 6), which
489 suggests a significant, but varying macrophyte contribution (Cross et al. 2000). The small
490 decrease in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values up-section may indicate an increased contribution of planktic algae in
491 relation to the macrobenthos, corresponding to an increase in the P:B ratio.

492 PDZ-1 has a relatively high abundance of *Brachysira*, *Frustulia*, and *Kobayasiella*, which
493 are commonly found in acidic (pH = 5-6), low-nutrient, high dissolved organic carbon (DOC),
494 and low-conductivity lake waters (De Nicola 2000; Wolfe and Kling 2001; Küttim et al. 2017).
495 PDZ-1 is separated by an interval devoid of diatoms from 58-55 cm (AD 925 to 1004), which is
496 adjacent to a tephra layer at 55-52 cm (AD 1004). Above the tephra, higher percentages of
497 *Navicula* and *Stauroneis* species occur. Simultaneously, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ becomes more negative and

498 remains low to the present day. This shift could be associated with a small increase in the input
499 of pelagic carbon, perhaps associated with increased water clarity and lower DOC.

500 The interface between PDZ-1 to PDZ-2 is marked by another tephra layer at 43-39 cm
501 (AD 1185). PDZ-2 transitions from an acidic to a circum-neutral/alkaline diatom assemblage, as
502 indicated by the enhanced presence of *N. viridulicalcis*, which has been found in higher pH
503 waters (pH>8; Bahls et al. 2018). The P:B ratio indicates an increase in planktic species.
504 Tycho planktic species also increase in abundance along with *Nitzschia* spp., including *N. cf.*
505 *clandestina* and *N. cf. oberheimiana*. Increases in abundance of *Nitzschia* spp. were also
506 observed in shallow lakes Apicocha and Estrellascocha in Cajas National Park (Giles et al.
507 2018), possibly linked to grazing and burning of the páramo landscape, suggesting increases in
508 lake nutrients. Thus, PDZ-2 marks the beginning of a gradual increase in lake level, as inferred
509 from higher abundance of plankton, and a potential shift towards higher nutrient concentrations.

510 PDZ-3 consists of a higher abundance of nutrient-tolerant, planktic *F. capucina sensu*
511 *lato* and tycho planktic *Pseudostaurosira* and *Staurosirella* species. Increases in planktic and
512 tycho planktic taxa likely reflect an increase in planktic habitat resulting from a gradual increase
513 in lake level, or alternatively, draining of surrounding wetland areas. This is supported by an
514 increase in the P:B ratio and a decrease in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ values up-section, indicating a reduction in
515 macrophyte habitat and an increase in planktic algal productivity.

516 From 9 to 0 cm (AD 1916 to 2017), *T. fenestrata* becomes increasingly abundant. In the
517 Northern Hemisphere, both *F. capucina* and *T. fenestrata* have been found in the plankton of
518 circum-neutral, mesotrophic to eutrophic waters and are indicators of moderate nutrient
519 concentrations (Lowe 1974; Pappas 2010). The coincident depletion in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ is consistent with
520 an interpretation of higher lake levels and a rise in algal productivity. The increase in the C/N
521 ratio suggests higher inputs from terrestrial organic matter. The village in Piñan has been
522 occupied for ~100 years, which may have resulted in the relative increase in nutrient-tolerant
523 species along the lake margins, because of land-use changes or other anthropogenic influences.
524 One possible explanation is drainage of nearby wetlands, which would alter the lake catchment
525 vegetation and geochemistry, affecting nutrient and macrophyte inputs. Our results point to long-
526 term páramo landscape alterations by humans and lake responses to these processes, even in
527 these remote lake-catchment systems (Sarmiento 2012).

528 Interpretations between the Piñan core and the Fondococha core are mildly complicated
529 by the littoral coring location of Piñan. Cores taken from the littoral shallow margin of lakes may
530 be more sensitive to factors independent of climate such as macrophyte colonization or erosional
531 inputs from human land-use changes as observed. Further, within the littoral zone, benthic
532 invertebrates have potential to rework the sediment influencing the taphonomy, specifically time
533 averaging, of samples. Despite these issues, the increase in planktic and tychoplanktic species
534 increases towards present indicative of lake level rise. Presumably, if the margin can record this
535 signal, it would be able to record a signal related to climatically induced lake level changes.

536

537 Regional comparison

538

539 Centennial- to millennial-scale records of climatic change are sparse in South America.
540 Millennial archives spanning the middle to late Holocene document increasing precipitation in
541 several regions of South America, associated with changes in the South American Summer
542 Monsoon (SASM; Tapia et al. 2003; Ekdahl et al. 2008; Vélez et al. 2005; Bird et al. 2011;
543 Cardozo et al. 2014). Centennial variability in moisture and temperature is superimposed on this
544 middle to late Holocene trend (Villota et al. 2017; Frederick et al. 2018; Schneider et al. 2018).

545 Laguna Pumacocha in the central Peruvian Andes (Fig. 1) has an annually resolved
546 record of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$ that spans the last ~2 ka and reflects intensification or weakening of the
547 SASM (Bird et al. 2011). Higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from AD 900 to 1000 coincide with the Medieval
548 Climate Anomaly (MCA) and a weaker SASM, whereas lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values from AD 1400 to
549 1820 coincide with the Little Ice Age (LIA) and wetter conditions (Bird et al. 2011). Similar
550 trends are evident in the diatom record from Lake Titicaca (Weide et al. 2017) and in regional
551 speleothem records (Deininger et al. 2019).

552 Multiple paleolimnological records from the Colombian, Ecuadorian, and Peruvian
553 Andes suggest warmer and/or drier conditions during parts of the MCA (Luning et al. 2019).
554 These include pollen records from Laguna Pindo, Guandera Peat Bog, and Lagunas de Mojanda
555 (Fig. 1), which show upward movement of the tree line from ~AD 500 to 1600 (Giraldo-Giraldo
556 et al. 2018; Moscol Olivera and Hooghiemstra 2010; Velásquez-Ruiz and Hooghiemstra 2013;

557 Villota et al. 2017). Geochemical records also suggest retreat of glaciers during that time,
558 resulting from warmer and/or drier conditions (Stansell et al. 2013). Our data from Fondococha
559 suggest that the lake was shallower throughout the MCA (AD 900 to 1100) and for several
560 centuries longer, including its shallowest phases between ~AD 1350 and 1500. This was
561 followed by a shift to a deeper lake assemblage in the latter part of the LIA interval, after AD
562 1750, which persisted until present.

563 Overall, shifts in the Piñan diatom flora are more unidirectional than those in
564 Fondococha. From AD 506 to 1029, Piñan's diatom assemblage is typical of a shallower, acidic,
565 low-nutrient lake with moderate to high DOC. After that period (AD 1029 to 2017), the
566 dominant diatom species suggest deeper conditions with higher pH, higher nutrients, and lower
567 DOC. These changes coincided with decreases in $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, indicating an increase in algal input to
568 the sediment. The change in the diatom flora could be a function of drier conditions and reduced
569 humic input, but the unidirectional shift in the diatom assemblage regarding lake level, organic
570 matter content, and pH is inconsistent with other regional climate reconstructions (see above)
571 and the lake level changes observed in Fondococha. For example, in nearby Lagunas de Mojanda
572 (Fig. 1), changes in vegetation suggest relatively warmer conditions from ~AD 500 to 1350 and
573 cooler conditions before and after (Villota et al. 2017). This suggests that regional climate had
574 limited influence on the limnology of Piñan, and the influence of local factors appear to have
575 predominated. Piñan's sediment core was taken closer to the lake margin than Fondococha's
576 (Fig. 2), where evidence of local watershed influence may be more pronounced than in deeper
577 lake environments.

578 The correlation between diatom assemblage shifts and tephra layers offers a secondary
579 explanation for the changes in the Piñan diatom flora. Local ash deposition may have caused a
580 change in soil chemistry and even terrestrial vegetation, which would have altered the ion
581 content, as well as nutrient and organic matter concentrations of the surface and subsurface
582 inflow to the lake (Michelutti et al. 2015b). That, in turn, would have altered lake water
583 chemistry and the composition of the diatom assemblage. Shifts in diatom composition,
584 associated with tephra deposition, were documented previously in Andean lakes (Cruces et al.
585 2006; Michelutti et al. 2015b).

586 Increases in diatoms characteristic of planktic and mesotrophic conditions (*F. capucina*,
587 *T. fenestrata*) within the last ~100 years coincide with the permanent settlement of the nearby
588 village of Piñan. Grazing practices have been documented in the area for >200 years. Grazing of
589 local vegetation could alter the lake catchment and affect runoff to the lake, as found in other
590 lakes in the Ecuadorian Andes. For example, planktic *Fragilaria* species typical of mesotrophic
591 to eutrophic conditions also increased in the top 10 cm of sediment in nearby Huarmicocha (Fig.
592 1), which was interpreted as reflecting a period of human disturbance near the site (Reidinger
593 1993). Similarly, in Amazonian Lake Sauce (Fig. 1), increases in *Nitzschia* and *Ulnaria* (an
594 ecologically similar species to *Fragilaria*) corresponded with increased lake nutrients that
595 resulted from agriculture (Bush et al. 2016). This suggests recent human impacts have altered
596 local landscapes and hence the diatom flora.

597 In contrast to widespread evidence of regional precipitation variation throughout the
598 Andes during the MCA and LIA, with consequent impacts on lake ecosystems, as described
599 above, our data suggest that diatoms in Fondococha and Piñan did not respond simultaneously to
600 climatic influences. Fondococha, the southernmost site, contains a record of fluctuating lake
601 level, likely a regional signal of weakening and strengthening of the SASM. In contrast, Piñan
602 apparently responded most strongly to local catchment changes, possibly related to volcanic
603 tephra deposition, and more recently, to increasing anthropogenic influence. Neither of our
604 records show evidence of pre-Columbian human impacts on the lakes, in contrast to some
605 forested locations in the Andes, where forest clearance and cultivation occurred (Matthews-Bird
606 et al. 2017).

607 Interpretations of these paleo-records would be strengthened by additional modern
608 studies on diatom ecological and habitat preferences, which are sparse. For example, the
609 Fondococha interpretation would be strengthened by understanding the underlying cause of
610 shifts between the dominant *Aulacoseira* species. Also, spatial factors associated with lake
611 connectivity and landscape position should be considered when studying both modern and
612 paleolimnological diatom assemblages (Anderson 2014; Benito et al. 2018). Further research on
613 the modern limnology of high-mountain tropical lakes may provide additional insights into the
614 differential sensitivity of lakes to changes in surface temperatures, wind speed and direction,
615 precipitation, and vegetation with respect to the lake sediment record.

616

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618

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Tables

Table 1 Modern physico-chemical characteristics from Lagunas Fondococha and Piñan

Parameter	Fondococha	Piñan
Latitude (°N)	-2.760	0.506
Longitude (°E)	-79.236	-78.444
Elevation (m asl)	4130	3183
z_{\max} (m)	9.8	32.14
Core H ₂ O Depth (m)	9.8	6
Core Length (cm)	105	70
Temperature (°C)	11.05	16.2
Secchi Depth (m)	2	3.5
pH	7.3	8.7
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$)	52.8	23.2
Ca (mg/L)	7.25	0.92
Mg (mg/L)	0.43	0.36
K (mg/L)	0.27	0.62
Na (mg/L)	0.8	1.08
Cl (mg/L)	0.13	0.08
SO ₄ (mg/L)	0.42	0.54
TN (mg/L)	0.2	0.239

Figure Captions

Fig. 1 Digital elevation model (DEM) of the northern Andes and adjoining regions of South America, displaying site locations mentioned in the text. Black circles indicate lakes in this study, white circles indicate lake locations in the discussion, white squares are major cities, and the white star is the capital city

Fig. 2 Bathymetric maps of Fondococha (left), and Piñan (right). Coring locations are indicated by black squares.

Fig. 3 Relative abundance of the dominant diatom species in the **A)** Fondococha periphyton, **B)** Fondococha surface sediment, **C)** Piñan periphyton, and **D)** Piñan surface sediment. Ac.mac = *A. macrocephalum*, Ac.min = *A. minutissimum*, Au.alp = *A. alpigena*, Au.amb = *A. ambigua*, Au.d.s = *A. distans* var. *septentrionalis*, Au.gra = *A. granulata* var. *angustissima*, Au.sub = *A. subarctica*, Cv.pse = *C. pseudoscutiformis*, Na.rad = *N. radiosa*, Ni.cla = *N. cf. clandestina*, Ni.ob = *N. cf. oberheimiana*, Psa.gris = *P. grischunum*, and Stla.pin = *S. pinnata sensu lato*

Fig. 4 Stratigraphic diagram of diatom relative abundance of the two dominant planktic species, the tychoplankton, and benthon plotted against core depth (cm), and age (BC/AD) for Fondococha. Also included are the ratio of planktic to benthic diatoms (P:B Ratio), the rarefied species richness, the first two principal components axes (PC1, PC2), and the elemental concentration of Ti (cps). Diatom CONISS zones are described in the text. Orange bars indicate intervals of very low relative abundances of *A. distans*, low P:B ratios, and high rarefied species richness simultaneously

Fig. 5 Principal components analysis (PCA) biplots for the Fondococha (top) and Piñan (bottom) diatom data. CONISS clusters indicated by the 95% confidence ellipses

Fig. 6 Stratigraphic diagram of diatom relative abundance of notable species plotted against core depth (cm) and age (BC/AD) for Piñan. Also included are the ratio of planktic to benthic diatoms (P:B), the rarefied species richness, the carbon to nitrogen ratio (C/N), $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$, and the first two principal components axes (PC1, PC2). Diatom CONISS zones are described in the text. Gray bars indicate tephras or periods of diatom absence in the short core

Fig. 1

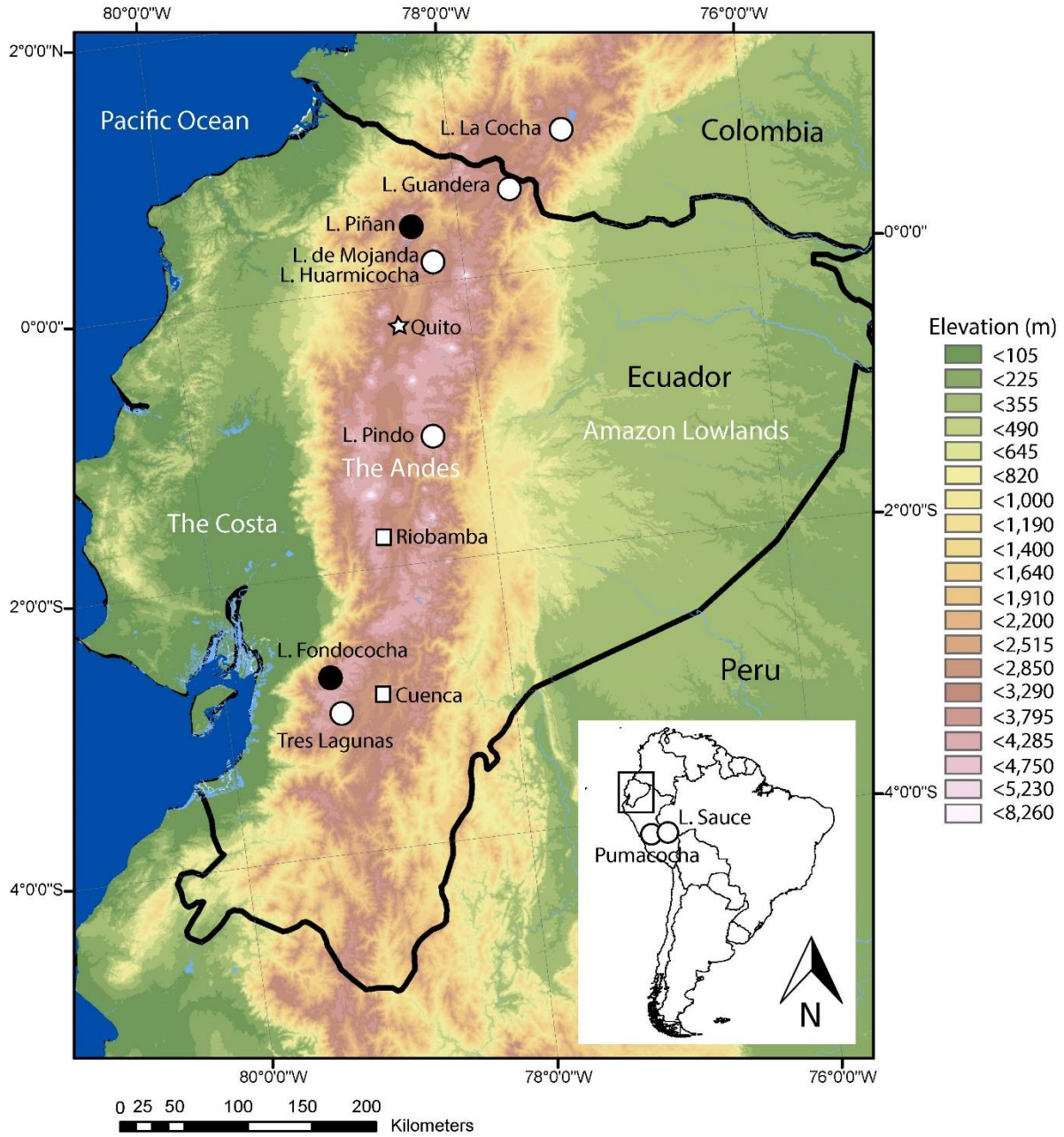


Figure 2

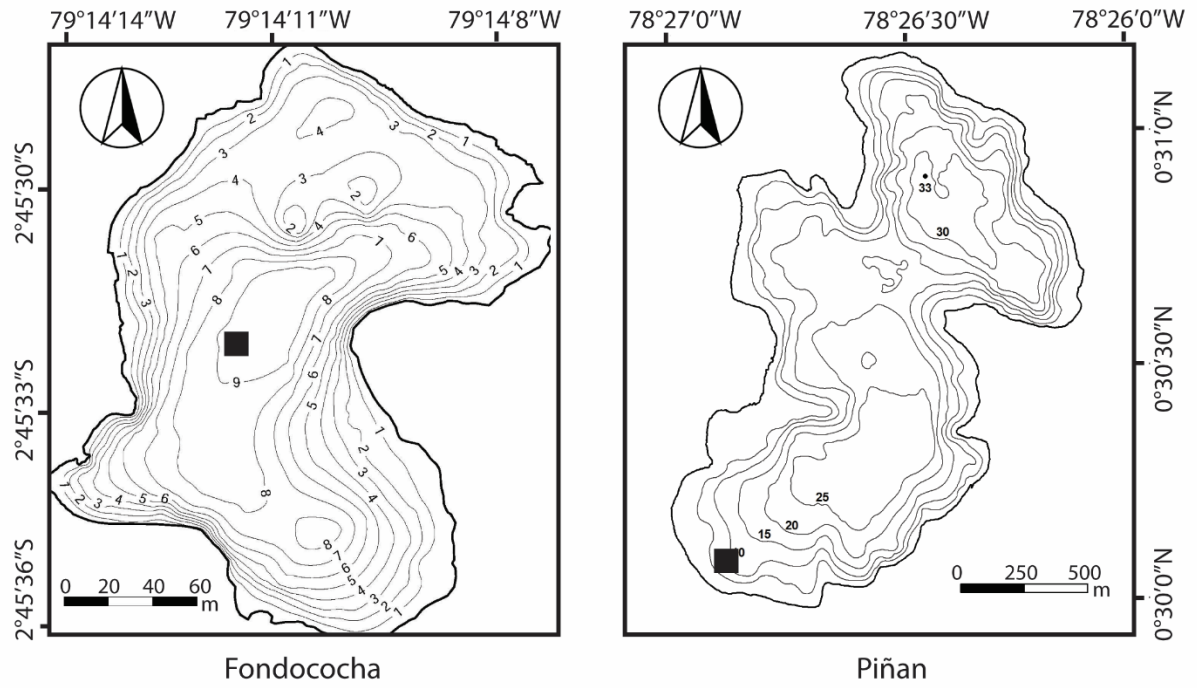


Figure 3

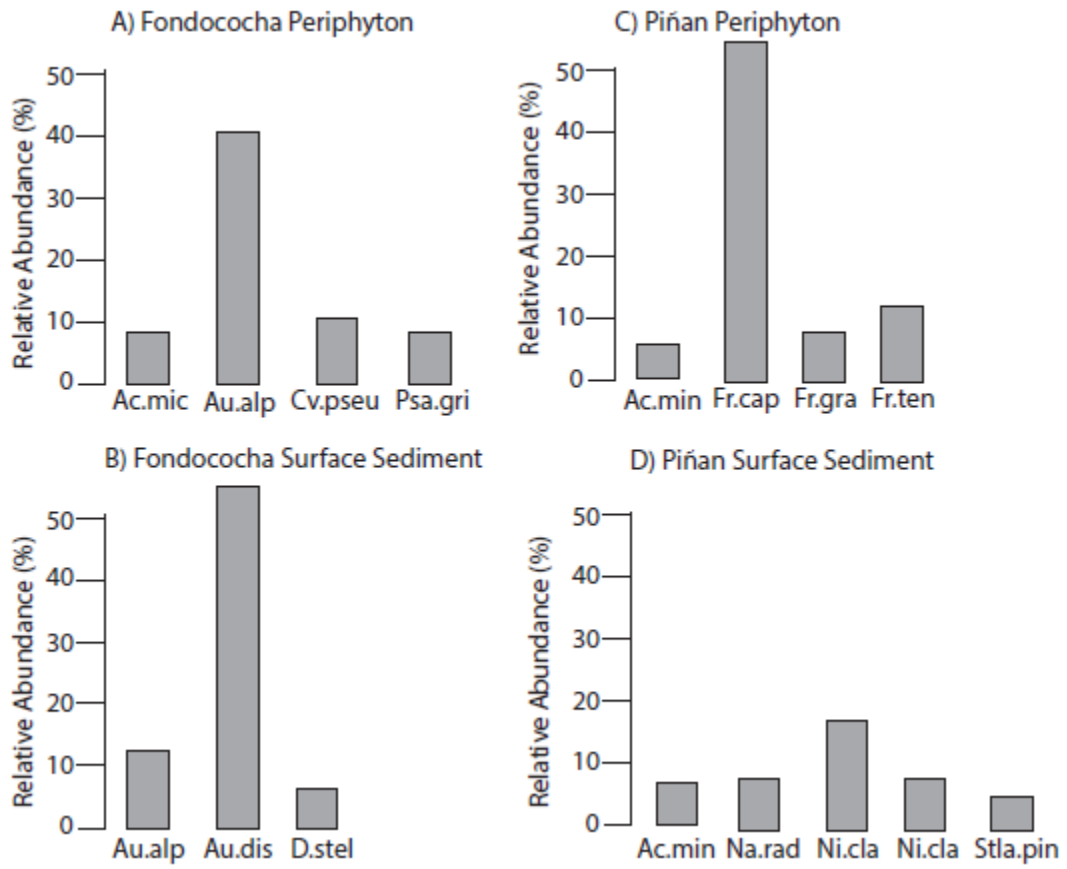


Figure 4

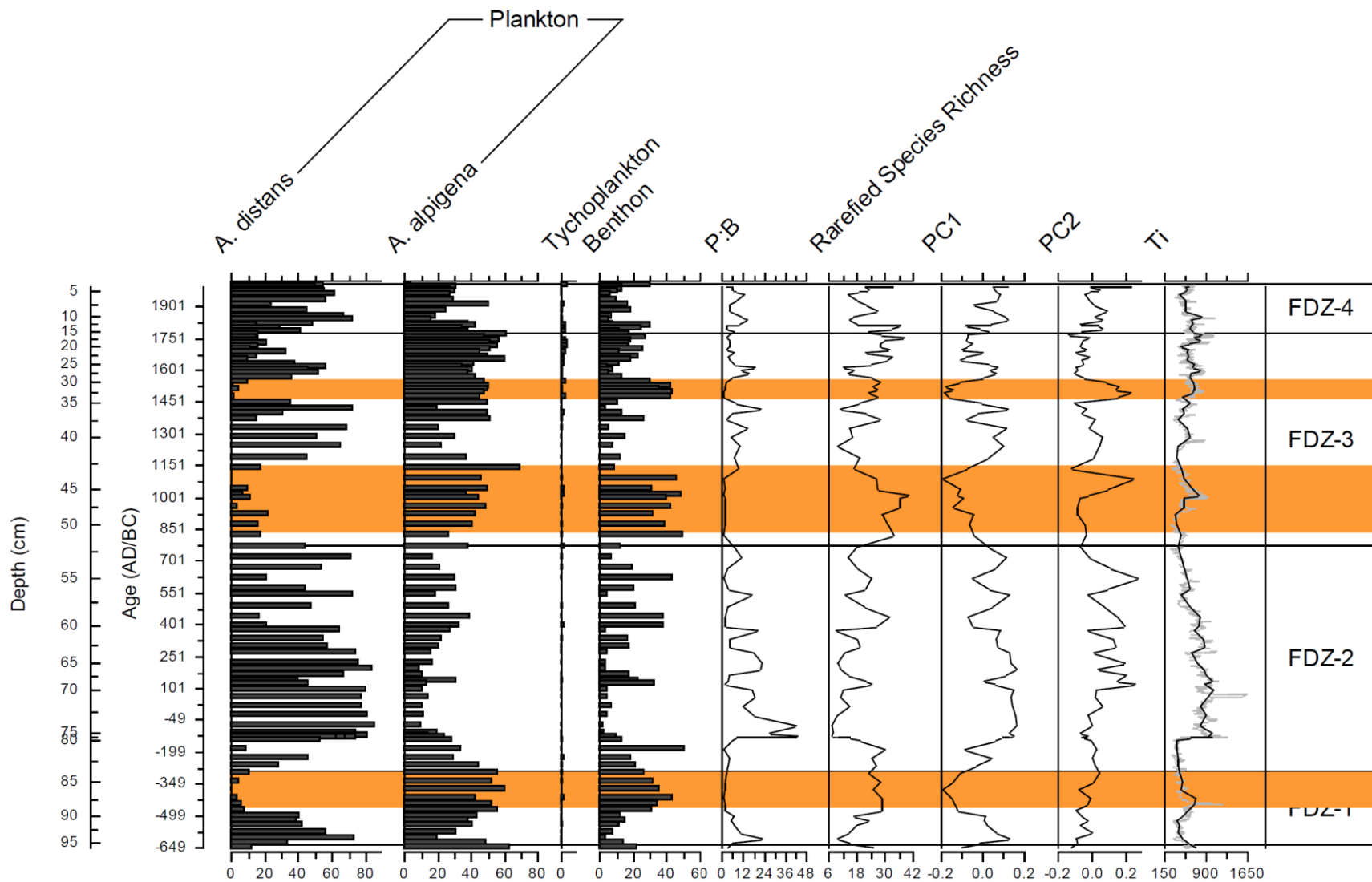


Figure 5

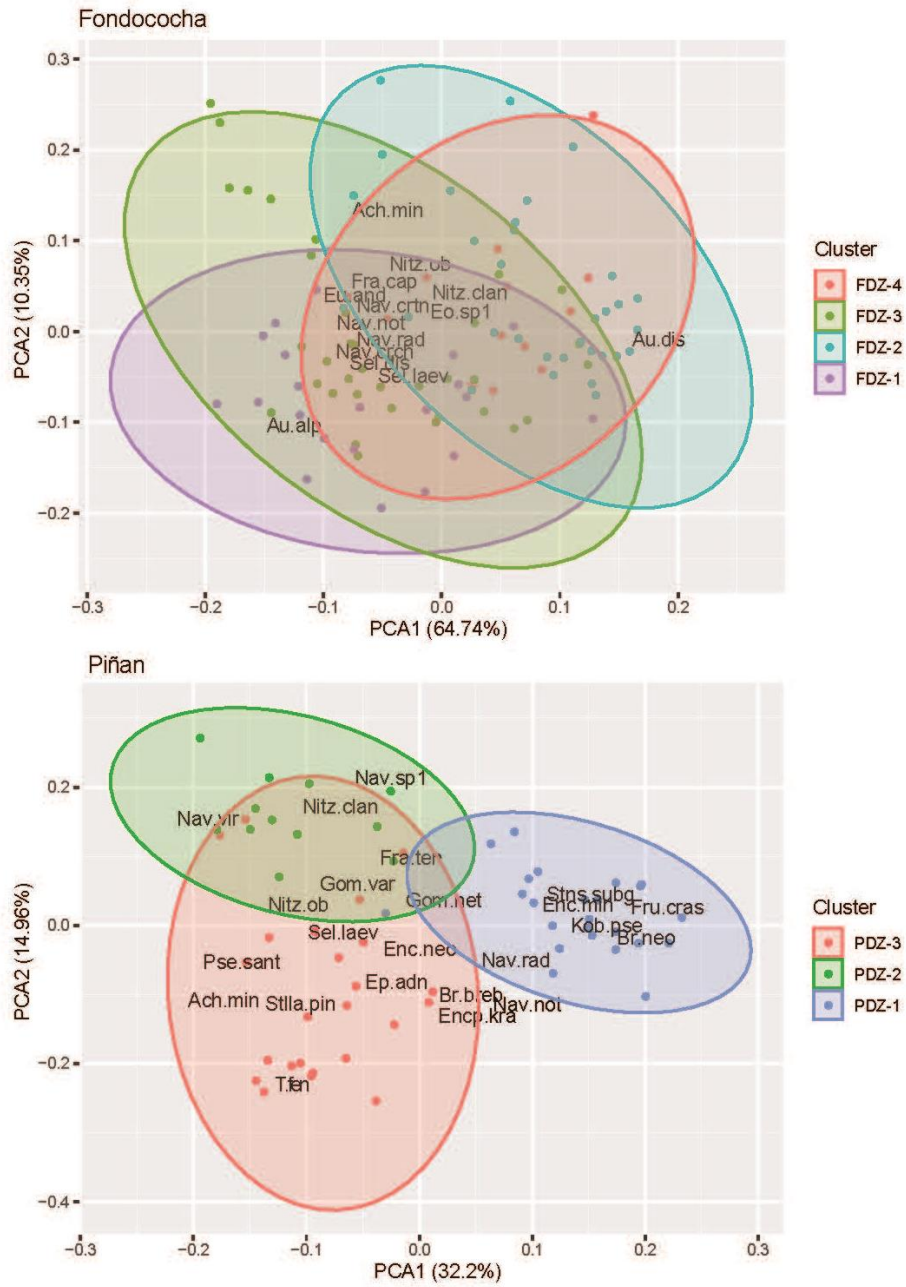


Figure 6

