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The Holocene

# **Changes in the vegetation and water cycle of the Ecuadorian páramo during the last 5000 years**



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# **Introduction**

 Páramo (or páramos) is a widespread treeless grassland neotropical ecosystem located in the wetter northern Andes (Borrelli et al., 2015) between the upper limit of the cloud forest (*c.* 3,000 m asl) and the upper limit of plant life (*c.* 4,700 m asl; Luteyn 1999; Körner and Paulsen, 2004). Páramos play an important ecological role in regional water storage (Buytaert et al., 2006) and in the global carbon balance and host high biodiversity (Zúñiga-Escobar et al., 2013). Water drains from the wetlands into the thick volcanic soils that form the "sponge" of the páramo, where the precipitation is stored. Currently, tussock grassland (*Calamagrostis* sp or/and *Festuca* sp), acaulescent rosettes and cushions, the dominant growth forms of the páramo (Ramsay and Oxley, 1997), are undergoing severe degradation due to burning and grazing (Grub et al., 2020). Degraded areas only recover slowly due to the high elevation as well as the effects of the oxygen level, high radiation and drying wind; as a result, the high biodiversity of this ecosystem is under threat. An additional issue is ongoing and future climate change with increasing temperatures and the associated glacier retreat and an increase in drought events and in fire frequency due to enhanced precipitation seasonality (Urrutia and Vuille, 2009). 

m is under threat. An additional issue is ongois<br>s and the associated glacier retreat and an incr<br>ced precipitation seasonality (Urrutia and Vuil<br>to of the páramo requires a detailed unders<br>002). While the grasslands are h The long-term management of the páramo requires a detailed understanding of the role of fire (Sarmiento and Frohlich, 2002). While the grasslands are highly flammable, their ability to sprout and germinate after fires can be viewed as is considered as an adaptation to disturbance by fire (Borrelli et al., 2015; Horn and Kapelle, 2009). Accordingly, direct observations of lightning strikes and palaeoecological evidence of fires both clearly demonstrate that fires occur in neotropical páramo without human intervention (Horn and Kapelle 2009). However, the extent to which the páramo can be viewed as a fire-dependent ecosystem is still a matter of debate (Horn and Kappelle, 2009). Today, fire frequency in the páramo is higher than before, probably due to human-set fires that are used to remove the dead standing biomass of native grasses and promote the growth of young grass shoots that are easier to stock (Matson and Bart 2013). 

 Long-term palaeoecological records from natural archives (lacustrine sediments, peat) make it possible to document vegetation responses to climate and fire-regime changes under environmental conditions that differ substantially from those that occurred during the historical period. For instance, in Colombia, the upper tree line shifted in conjunction with glacier advances and retreats during the glacial- interglacial cycles over the Quaternary (Hooghiemstra and Flantua, 2019). During the Holocene, at millennial time scales, the South American Summer Monsoon (SASM) gradually intensified in response to increasing southern hemisphere summer insolation. Thus, during the mid-Holocene (7000 to 5000 yr BP), a weaker SASM system produced drier conditions in large parts of the neotropics south of the equator (Prado et al., 2013; Valencia et al., 2018). Further north, near the Pacific coast of Ecuador, the strengthening of the cold Humboldt current led to cooler climatic conditions between 4200 and 2850 cal BP (Seillès et al., 2015) and drier conditions in the Ecuadorian Andes between 5500 and 2500 cal yr BP (Rodbell et al., 1999) when the InterTropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) was in its northernmost position. Andean pollen records for the late Holocene rather centered on changes in the upper forest 

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 limit, with the highest position reached around 4900 cal yr BP in conjunction with wetter climate 64 conditions and the lowermost altitude reached between  $\sim$ 910 and 520 cal yr BP in conjunction with drier climate conditions (Bakker et al., 2008; Jansen et al., 2013). Similarly, little is known about the floristic changes of the páramo.

 Here we present new high-resolution pollen and macroscopic charcoal records spanning the past 5,000 years from a peat bog (Papallacta) located in the páramo of Antisana, one of the main hydrological basins for Quito, the capital city of Ecuador (Buytaert et al., 2006). The pollen record from this site for the last 1,000 years showed that vegetation was highly sensitive to moisture from two main sources, one the annual amount of rainfall retained in the soil, and the other from the upslope cloud convection that delivers moisture from the Amazon basin to the summits (Ledru et al., 2013). By extending the Papallacta record further back in time, we explore the longer-term drivers of changes in hydrological conditions, fire and vegetation in a high elevation ecosystem in the tropics.

### **Study area**

on in a high elevation ecosystem in the tropics<br>eat bog is located on the eastern part of the Ch<br>lope of the Antisana volcano at an elevation<br>1 Cordillera range (EC) (Fig. 1A). The Antisana<br>orian Eastern Cordillera, whose The Papallacta (or Sucus) peat bog is located on the eastern part of the Chacana volcanic complex, and at 12-14 km to the north slope of the Antisana volcano at an elevation of 3,815 m asl (00º2'30" S, 80 78°11'37" W) on the Eastern Cordillera range (EC) (Fig. 1A). The Antisana (5,704 m asl) is a potentially active volcano in the Ecuadorian Eastern Cordillera, whose most recent fumarolic activity was reported 82 by Humboldt at the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Hall et al., 2017). Antisana's base diameter is ca. 14 km, running north-south. There, glaciers descend to approximately 4,600 m (eastern side) and 4,800 m (western side), while older moraines dated to the Younger Dryas cold event indicate glaciers about 1,200 m lower on the eastern side (Hastenrath, 1981; Clapperton et al., 1997). Average annual temperature is between 7.5 ºC (at 3,500 m asl) and 5 ºC (at 4,000 m asl) (Jorgensen and Leon-Yanez, 1999).

 The climate in the equatorial Andes is influenced by complex and heterogeneous atmospheric mechanisms (Segura et al., 2019). Currently, both the Eastern (EC) and the Western Cordillera (WC) are under the seasonal influence of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), a zone of deep convection that produces heavy precipitation due to the convergence of the trade winds at low latitudes between February and April (Garreaud, 2009). The EC receives year-round rainfall fed by moist air resulting from evapotranspiration of the trees in the Amazon basin (Bendix et al., 2006a, 2006b). Upon meeting the Andes, these moist air masses ascend, cool, and lose a substantial portion of their humidity (orographic rain) thereby attenuating the dry season. As a result, large parts of the EC are currently characterized by the absence of a dry season (Fig. 1B). However, extreme monthly wet (dry) events are associated with anomalous southward (northward) shifts of the eastern pacific ITCZ during the rainy season (Segura et al., 2019).

 Today, at the high elevation of the Papallacata bog on the north-western slope of the Antisana, two main mechanisms are responsible for the year-round precipitation: regular SASM activity observed every 

 year and variable El Niño activity (Vuille and Werner 2005). First, the South American Summer Monsoon (SASM) is paced by the southward migration of the ITCZ over the tropical Atlantic and Pacific Oceans during austral summer and causes precipitation during the austral summer (Fig. 1A; Ledru et al., 2013). Second, the interannual variability in precipitation related to ENSO (El Niño Southern Oscillation) with El Niño (La Niña) episodes associated with warmer (cooler) and below (above) average rainfall in the Amazon Basin (Marengo and Nobre, 2001; Marengo, 2009) as well as glacier regression (expansion) in Ecuador (Caceres et al., 2006). At millennial scale, paleoclimatic records reconstructed mean-state variations in ENSO-like behavior, for instance, in the lacustrine sediment of the Galapagos with an increase in ENSO variability in the Late Holocene (Moy et al., 2002; Conroy et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2014). 

Patches of *Polylepis* forest grow on the slopes<br>
eloud forest (or upper montane rain forest) occurs<br>
and is mainly dominated by *Weinmannia*<br> *Hedyosmum* cumbalense, *H. luteynii*,<br>
nd *Weinmannia fagaroides.* Between 3,6 Sucus bog, located close to the town of Papallacta, hereafter named Papallacta bog, is a wetland area located within the páramo. Patches of *Polylepis* forest grow on the slopes above the bog (Fig. 1C). In the region of Antisana, the cloud forest (or upper montane rain forest) occurs between *ca.* 2,500 m a.s.l. and 3,400-3,600 m a.s.l. and is mainly dominated by *Weinmannia pinata, Schefflera sodiroi, Myrcianthes rhopaloides, Hedyosmum cumbalense, H. luteynii, Oreopanax ecuadoriensis, Hesperomeles ferruginea,* and *Weinmannia fagaroides.* Between 3,600 and 4,300 m asl, in the Páramo, *Gynoxys acostae, Escallonia myrtilloides, Buddleia, Polylepis* are observed and, high elevation, or super páramo extends between 4,200 and 4,600 m on the eastern side. Shrubby vegetation dominated by *Loricaria antisanensis* grows on the eastern humid side at *ca.* 4,200 m (Sklenar and Jorgensen, 1999) (Table 1).



Table 1. Description of the vegetation cover around Papallacta bog (from Ledru et al., 2013).

 

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 dating and measured at the *Laboratoire de Mesure du Carbone14* (LMC14)–UMS 2572 (CEA/DSM – CNRS–IRD–IRSN–*Ministère de la Culture et de la Communication*, Saclay, France), and at the BetaAnalytics laboratory (USA). In addition to radiocarbon dating, we used tephrochronology when tephra layers resulting from known volcanic eruptions were available. Tephrochronology is used to determine the age of a volcanic eruption based either on evidence from a historical archive or from prior dating of tephras in other sediment records (Turney and Lowe, 2001). The geochemical and mineralogical composition of the main of the tephra layers makes it possible to identify the origin of the uppermost ash layers (Table 3). However, our knowledge of the origin of the eruption and its corresponding ages become uncertain as one goes deeper in time (Table S1). We classified the tephra layers recognized in PA1-08 in three categories, from 0 for no uncertainty to 3 for maximum uncertainty, and only the three most recent tephra layers were usable for our age model (Table S2).

The chronology of the core was determined using rBacon v2.5.6 (Blaauw et al., 2021). It is constrained by 35 control points:  $31<sup>14</sup>C$  dates, the estimated age of the sediment surface (Table 2), and the ages of the three most recent tephra layers identified (Fig. 2). Three  $^{14}C$  dates that were taken near sediment- drive ends were rejected as they reported much younger ages than expected based on adjacent dates. We excised sediments identified as tephra layers before age-modeling (and added them after age-modeling) as these sections are assumed to be abrupt accumulations. All <sup>14</sup>C dates were calibrated with a mixed

 calibration curve (50% IntCal20 and 50% SHCal20) as the study site receives a mixture of northern and southern air masses (Hogg et al., 2020).

### *Charcoal analysis*

d (Finsinger et al., 2014) and identified charce 5-60x magnifications based on the following f<br>brittle at low less pressure (Whitlock and Lars<br>the fuel source (Jensen et al., 2007; Feurdean,<br>ensen et al., 2007; Courtney-M We took a total of 322 samples, 69 of which originated from tephra layers, from the contiguous 2-cm thick sediment slices down to a depth of 700 cm, measured sample volumes by water displacement 159 (median volume = 1 cm<sup>3</sup>; range:  $0.1-4$  cm<sup>3</sup>), and then soaked the samples in a 7.5% hydrogen peroxide solution for at least 24 hours (Schlachter and Horn, 2010) before gently washing them through a sieve 161 with a 125 um screen. To quantify charcoal abundances, we transferred the sieving residues into a white porcelain evaporating dish to facilitate the identification and counting of charcoal particles against the white background (Finsinger et al., 2014) and identified charcoal particles under a Leica M80 stereomicroscope at 7.5-60x magnifications based on the following features: dark, shiny and geometric particles that are brittle at low less pressure (Whitlock and Larsen, 2001). As charcoal morphology helps interpret the fuel source (Jensen et al., 2007; Feurdean, 2021), we counted charcoal pieces of Poaceae tissues (Jensen et al., 2007; Courtney-Mustaphi and Pisaric, 2014), wood and bark (types C and S in Enache and Cumming, 2006), and other charcoal morphologies ('undiff. charcoal') in 178 samples (34 of which were included in tephra layers). In addition, we scanned the samples at 7.5x magnification with a CMEX-5000 camera using the winSEEDLE™ software v2009 (Regent Instruments Canada Inc.) to measure both the total charcoal abundance and the cumulative sum of charcoal-particle areas (i.e., total charcoal per area) (Finsinger et al., 2014). To account for varying 173 sediment accumulation rates, we selected the samples that were not included in tephra layers and 174 calculated the charcoal accumulation rates (CHAR, pieces  $\text{cm}^2 \text{yr}^1$ ) based on the chronology (Whitlock and Larsen, 2001). 

 To determine the centennial-scale trends in CHAR, which was interpreted as reflecting the amount of biomass burned over time (Marlon et al. 2008; Higuera et al. 2010), and to identify peaks, which were interpreted as fire episodes, we analyzed the CHAR data using CharAnalysis v1.1 (Higuera et al., 2009). The analysis involved binning the charcoal record to a constant sampling resolution (here, the 3rd quartile value of the records' sampling resolution = 23 years sample-1), decomposing that record into a background trend and a peak component using a lowess smoother robust to outliers (with a 500- year smoothing window), and evaluating peak samples using the 99th percentile of the modeled noise distribution obtained with a Gaussian mixture model and a peak-screening test (Higuera et al., 2009). The suitability of the record for peak detection was assessed with the signal-to-noise index (SNI; Kelly et al. 2011). We calculated fire return intervals (FRI) using the screened peak record. 

 

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# *Pollen analysis*

ing the method of Cour (1974). Pollen asseml<br>
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don, 1985) and for all pollen samples, include<br>
cant zones were assessed by comparison w<br>
Pollen diagrams and zonation were prep A total of 200 pollen samples were taken from the 2-cm thick sediment slices down to a depth of 700 cm, 37 of which were taken from tephra layers. We measured both their wet and dry weights before processing the samples using a standard protocol (Faegri and Iversen, 1989). We mounted the residue in silicone oil on microscope slides and identified and counted a minimum of 300 terrestrial pollen grains in each sample under 630x magnification. Pollen grains and spores were identified using the ISEM reference pollen collection and pollen keys (Hooghiemstra, 1984; Ortuño, 2008; Kuentz, 2009; Herrera, 2010). Pollen taxa assignments to ecological groups (bog, Andean forest, páramo) were based on published classifications of páramo pollen records (Moscol Olivera et al., 2009; Moscol Olivera and Hooghiemstra, 2010) and on our own botanical survey (Ledru et al., 2013). To calculate percentages fern spores and aquatic or water level-related taxa were excluded from the total sum. The concentration of pollen was calculated using the method of Cour (1974). Pollen assemblage zones were determined by optimal partitioning with square-root transformed percentage values for pollen types included in the pollen sum (Birks and Gordon, 1985) and for all pollen samples, including those taken from tephra layers. Statistically significant zones were assessed by comparison with the broken-stick model, following Bennett (1996). Pollen diagrams and zonation were prepared with Psimpoll v4.26 (Bennett 2008).

 To qualitatively estimate variations in convective wind activity over time we used the log-transformed Transported pollen: Poaceae pollen ratio (Ledru et al., 2013). According to our modern pollen survey, the pollen produced by three tree taxa that occur in the upper montane cloud forest (*Alnus, Hedyosmum, Podocarpus)* is transported upslope and characterizes the convective wind activity (Bendix et al., 2006c). Poaceae pollen frequency is related to the soil moisture of the páramo as plants of this family (*Calamagrostis, Festuca*) grow mainly on humid organic clayey soils (Liu et al 2005).







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216 **Table 3** Description of the tephra layers observed in PA1-08 and reported in figure 3 together with the 217 origin and the year of the eruption re-calculated from our age model (see also supplementary Tables 1 218 and 2). WC Western Cordillera, EC Eastern Cordillera.



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# 222 **Results**

223 *Lithology and chronology*

224 The core was mostly composed of brown peat intercalated with 18 tephra layers, M1 to M18, 225 corresponding to fine-to-medium sized distal ash deposits reported in Fig 2 and Table 3. The six 226 radiocarbon dates below a depth of 700 cm are incoherent for regular sedimentation because they report 227 similar ages (Table 2, Fig. 2). For this reason and based on evidence of a two-meter-thick homogeneous 228 sediment layer composed of reworked organic mud and tephra, we interpreted these 2 m-layers of 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

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 sediment as a fluvio-glacial deposit. While this interpretation is weakly constrained, the chronology of the sediments above a depth of 700 cm is better constrained. The depth-age model shows that sediments accumulated at least over the past 5,000 years with relatively high sediment deposition times (1.5-20 yr cm-1). Comparison of the age distributions of the tephras resulting from the depth-age model and published radiocarbon dates from within the tephra and/or paleosoils located below or above the tephras in the area of the volcanoes shows good coherence except when two different eruptions occurred within a short time interval (Table 3, Table S1).

*Vegetation dynamics and fire history*

 The results of the pollen record are presented in a synthetic diagram along a depth scale (Fig. 3) and an age scale (Fig. 4). A total of 189 taxa were identified, including 56 tree pollen taxa, 84 non-arboreal pollen taxa, 27 fern taxa, 2 Algae and 22 unknown types. The Papallacta pollen diagram contains eight statistically significant pollen assemblage zones (Fig. 3 and 4). The signal-to-noise index (SNI) values 242 (median SNI = 10.07, minimum SNI  $\geq$  3) show that the charcoal-accumulation rate (CHAR) record is suitable for peak analysis and for the detection of fire events.

*Pollen zone P1, (700-630 cm, 4960-4600 cal yr BP, 25 samples, resolution 14 years / sample)* 

Algae and 22 unknown types. The Papallacta per assemblage zones (Fig. 3 and 4). The signa<br>mum SNI > 3) show that the charcoal-accumu<br>ad for the detection of fire events.<br>m, 4960-4600 cal yr BP, 25 samples, resolutio.<br>J-cm This zone contained one 10-cm thick tephra deposit M18 (668-658 cm) dated to 4790 cal yr BP. The vegetation was dominated by Poaceae (35-72 %) with low pollen frequencies of cloud forest taxa *Alnus* (0.5 – 4.5%), *Hedyosmum* (1-8%), *Podocarpus* (0-1%). Among the non-arboreal taxa, *Ambrosia* (0- 5%), *Gentianella* (0.2 – 1.5%) Ericaceae (0.2-5%) *Gunnera* (0.2 – 4%), *Acalypha* (0.3 – 5%), Cyperaceae (7-166%) with the highest frequencies at the top of the zone between 658 and 630 cm and the fern *Huperzia* (10- 95%). The quantity of burned biomass increased and two fire events were detected (Fig. 5). Charcoal morphotypes indicate that fires were fed by a mixture of wood and Poaceae fuel.

 The beginning of the record, between 700 and 658 cm, was characterized by the presence of *Ambrosia*, bog plant assemblages and a few Cyperaceae, an assemblage that documents sufficent soil moisture. After the M18 tephra were deposited, Poaceae pollen frequency decreased while that of Cyperaceae increased .

 *Pollen Zone P2, 630-614 cm, 4600 – 4475 cal yr BP, 5 samples, resolution 25 years / sample* 

 No tephra was deposited in this zone. Pollen assemblages were characterized by low frequency of Poaceae (6%), and high frequency of Ast *Senecio* (67%). *Melastomataceae* and *Polylepis* peaked towards the beginning of the zone (14% and 8%, respectively), while Apiaceae pollen values peaked towards the end of zone (20%). The upper montane cloud forest taxa (*Alnus, Hedyosmum, Podocarpus*) were well represented. The decrease in bog moisture-related taxa that started at the end of P1 (*Piper, Gunnera, Gentianella, Cyathea* and *Huperzia*) suggest drier conditions in the bog. Cyperaceae almost 264 disappeared  $(-8%)$ . Less biomass was burned and the fire-return interval (FRI) was slightly higher than in the previous zone. 

# *Pollen Zone P3, 614-353 cm, 4475 – 2440 cal yr BP, 49 samples, resolution 41 years /sample*

 Seven tephra layers (M17 to M11) were deposited on the bog during this zone (Fig. 2, Table 3). Poaceae pollen was frequent but a sharp decrease was observed at 490 cm (3450 cal yr BP) (53% to 14%), and 

 remained low up to 416 cm (2800 cal yr BP). This event lasted ~650 years then increased progressively to 68% (2575 cal yr BP) at the end of the zone, reaching 53% at 2440 cal yr BP. Poaceae (25-85%), Ast liguliflorae (0-6%) (Apiaceae 0-8%) *Alnus* (0-5%) *Hedyosmum* (0-4.5%) were the main taxa in pollen zone P3. While burned biomass was mostly low in this zone, distinct charcoal peaks point to the occurrence of fire events. The lowest FRI values (50 years) occurred around 3100-3050 cal yr BP when Poaceae pollen decreased. Charcoal morphotypes indicate that fire events around 4400-3800 and at 2600 cal BP were predominantly fuelled by Poaceae. The fire events at 4100 and 2550 cal yr BP occurred 276 after tephra deposition (the ~40 cm thick M16 tephra and the 8 cm thick M11 tephra, respectively). 

 *Pollen zone P4, 353- 280 cm, 2440-1685 cal yr BP, 24 samples, 31 years / sample* 

*n, 2440-1685 cal yr BP, 24 samples, 31 years ns* (M9 and M8) were deposited in a short tim was characterized by a sharp decrease in Poa wugh the decrease in *Alnus* (0-3%) is masked *b*. *Senecio* (6-25%) including a d Two 4-cm thick tephra layers (M9 and M8) were deposited in a short time interval between 2290 and 2230 cal yr BP. The zone was characterized by a sharp decrease in Poaceae (16-42%) and in cloud forest-related tree taxa although the decrease in *Alnus* (0-3%) is masked by an increase in *Hedyosmum* (3-11%), an increase in Ast. *Senecio* (6-25%) including a decrease during the eruptions and at the end of the zone (0-3%). Cyperaceae disappeared progressively while *Thalictrum* (%), an herb of the paramo, increased. *Ambrosia* began to increase at the end of the zone (0-1% to 4-12%) while *Huperzia* increased right after the volcanic eruptions. The quantity of burned biomass remained low throughout the period and no fire event occurred. During this 750 yr interval, the convective activity index increased (Fig. 5) and *Polylepis* was well represented. This suggests no changes in the cloud and *Polylepis* forests but rather in the local assemblages with drier soil conditions after the two ash fallout deposits, as indicated by the increase in Apiaceae, which ranged from 0-1% before ash deposits and from 6-21% after the ash deposits, by the decrease in Ast. *Senecio* (25-3%), *Gunnera* frequency which was notable (6-3%) before the eruption and absent after the eruption (0-1%), by the increase in *Gentianella* (1-18%) which started just before the volcanic eruption, and by a brief increase in Poaceae during the interval of the volcanic eruption. 

 *Pollen Zone P5, 280-200 cm, 1685 - 1155 cal yr BP, 22 samples, resolution 24 years / sample* 

 Zone 5 lasted 530 years and included four tephra layers M7 (264-257 cm) and M6 (236-232 cm), M5 (226-208 cm) and M4 (206-202 cm) dated to 1460, 1235, 1180 and 1165 cal yr BP, respectively. No major changes in the ecology of the páramo occurred during and after the ash fallout deposits. 

- Pollen content was characterized by *Ambrosia* (5-20%), a decrease in Apiaceae (17-1%), a progressive
- decrease in *Huperzia* (62-4%), two peaks of *Gunnera* 33-36% at 248-246 cm (~1350 cal yr BP) and 11-
- 20% at 208-210 cm (1180 cal yr BP), the second located above the M4 tephra deposition.
- The sharp decrease in convective activity that started at the beginning of P5 was accentuated by the

 decrease in *Hedyosmum* (7-1%) observed at 250 cm (1375 cal yr BP). While burned biomass remained 

 low, FRI dropped sharply to around 150-200 years. 

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 *Pollen Zone P6, 200-141 cm, 1155 – 770 cal yr BP, 21 samples, resolution 18 years / sample*  $\overline{4}$  Two tephra layers were deposited, M3 (181 cm) dated to 975 AD and the beginning of M2 (148-130 cm) dated to? 1150 AD. The pollen assemblages were characterized by *Ambrosia* (6-18%) and Poaceae  $\overline{7}$  (12-42%) both well represented throughout the zone, a decrease in Apiaceae (4-0%) and *Gentianella* (5-1%), a peak in Urticales (32 and 18%) before and after M3. Charcoal particles remained low with a decrease in the middle of the P6 zone. The convective activity index first increased in zone 6 before stabilizing. No changes occurred in the pollen assemblages of the páramo during or after the ash deposit episodes. This zone provides evidence for high moisture and warm temperatures on the páramo. *Pollen Zone P7, 141-74 cm, 770 - 325 cal yr BP, 25 samples, 18 years / sample* With two tephra layers, M2, which ended at the beginning of zone 7 (130 cm), and M1, which ended at 115-110 cm (1600 AD), zone 7 was characterized by the disappearence of *Ambrosia* (3,5-0%), an increase in *Gentianella* (1-12%), Poaceae (17-36%) and Ast liguliflorae (from 1-7% to 15-25% at the 

 end of the zone). The convective activity index decreased abruptly at the beginning of the zone with the decrease in *Alnus* and *Hedyosmum* up to 105 cm when it again started to increase. A 11-35% peak in Urticales occurred at 122-112 cm. Charcoal particle abundance remained low with a peak at the end of zone P7. This zone shows drier conditions than the previous zone. Burned biomass was low and no fire events were detected. 

 *Pollen Zone P8, 74-0 cm, 325 -0 cal yr BP, 29 samples, resolution 3 years / sample* 

12%), Poaceae (17-36%) and Ast liguliflorae (<br>ctive activity index decreased abruptly at the b<br>*osmum* up to 105 cm when it again started to<br>12 cm. Charcoal particle abundance remained<br>rier conditions than the previous zo No tephra deposition occurred in the sediment in the last 340 years. Zone 8 was characterized by an increase in Apiaceae and *Ambrosia* (2-11%), the highest convective index of the record (0.25), the absence of charcoal particles except for a peak in the last decade, high *Huperzia* frequency (19-405%), a sharp decrease in Poaceae (from 30 to 8%), a 10-22% increase followed by a 22-1% decrease in Apiaceae throughout the zone. High convective activity and low soil moisture characterized the hydrological pattern of this zone. Burned biomass was low and only one fire event was detected. 

 For a detailed description of the last 700 years, i.e. 1300 AD to 2008 AD, see Ledru et al. (2013). 

#### **Interpretation and Discussion**

 To analyze how the forcing factors, climate, fire and tephra deposition, alternately influenced the landscape of the páramo, we compared the convective activity index with published palaeoclimate records that are representative of ENSO variability and SASM activity (Figs. 1A, 6). ENSO variability refers to the changes in equatorial Pacific Sea Surface Temperature (SST) that impacted high elevation rainfall variability at interdecadal scales (Morales et al., 2012; Garreaud et al., 2009; Ledru et al., 2013). To characterize El Niño activity, we used the record of El Junco in the Galapagos where blooms of the algae *Botryococcus* that are associated with high rainfall recorded weak El Niño activity until 3500 cal yr BP (Fig. 6) (Zhang et al., 2014). Further south, at Guayaquil, Uk′37-based SST changes were reconstructed from a marine core and revealed several fluctuations in SST during the early and mid- Holocene until 2500 yr BP when the ITCZ reached the latitude of Guayaquil (Mollier-Vogel et al., 2013; 

 Seillès et al., 2015). SASM activity at pluridecadal scale was characterized by changes in the oxygen isotope ratio measured in speleothems located in the Eastern Cordillera. Both Shatuca (1960 m asl) and Huagapo (further south at 3850 m asl) records show a synchronous decrease in moisture along the EC until 2500 yr BP (Bustamante et al., 2013; Kanner et al., 2013). After this date, an out-of-phase evolution can be observed between the records (Fig. 6), suggesting that the increase in ENSO activity is well detected at high elevations while at Shatuca, the SASM forcing became dominant after 2500 yr BP. At Papallacta, two main increases in the convective index reflecting higher monsoon activity occurred at ~2500 BP and at 400 BP while the lowest values of the index occurred at 2600, 1200 and 600 cal yr BP (Fig. 6). *Polylepis* pollen is permanently present in the area of Papallacta, with some peaks in the bottom of the core followed by full expansion from 3500 cal yr BP until today (Fig. 4). 

#### *Fires and tephra deposition*

en present at the elevation of Papallacta for the<br>in its floristic assemblages, e.g., shifts from 1<br>o, suggest high sensitivity either to climate or c<br>in the páramo, frequent burning can be either<br>nd Kapelle, 2009). Fires Although the páramo has been present at the elevation of Papallacta for the last 5,000 years (Di Pasquale et al., 2008), some changes in its floristic assemblages, e.g*.,* shifts from Poaceae dominant páramo to Asteraceae dominant páramo, suggest high sensitivity either to climate or other disturbances such as fire or tephra deposition. Today in the páramo, frequent burning can be either natural, or linked to volcanic or human activities (Horn and Kapelle, 2009). Fires do not appear to have been a common disturbance at Papallacta in the last 5,000 years as only four major episodes can be distinguished. Charcoal peaks may appear at Papallacta due to the long-distance transport of charcoal particles from volcanic eruptions and the associated increase in dry and highly flammable fuels due to tephra-induced plant mortality (Horn and Kapelle, 2009). Thus, when charcoal abundances increased shortly after a tephra deposition, we infer a potentially tephra-induced fire event occurred. Soil moisture is characterized by the frequency of Poaceae pollen (Ledru et al., 2013) and changes can be caused either by climate or tephra deposition (Horn and Kapelle, 2009). Three abrupt changes in soil moisture content evidenced by drops in Poaceae pollen percentages can be seen in Figs. 3 and 4. The first drop (from 53% to 6%) at ~4700 cal BP follows the 10-cm-thick M18 tephra deposition and is associated with higher quantities of burned biomass and low FRI values (Fig. 5). Thus, in a scenario where tephra deposition enhances soil and fuel drought, the Poaceae drop could have been triggered by fires. This event lasted for 260 years and the vegetation took 60 years to fully recover. Due to the relatively long duration of this drier event (260 years), we infer that, during this interval, a volcanic effect on the soil was coupled with dry climate conditions. Although of less amplitude than the ones described above, another fire event at 4100 cal yr BP associated with a drop in Poaceae could result from the effect of the M16 tephra deposition. The second drop in the frequency of Poaceae pollen occurred between 3450 and 2900 cal yr BP. No 

 tephra deposition was observed during this event but the FRI was low (50 yr at ~3100 yr BP). When FRI increased again, the recovery of the vegetation lasted less than 50 years and was chararcterized by 

 the expansion of two taxa, which, according to our modern survey, are indicators of drier and cooler 

 climate conditions, Apiaceae and Asteraceae liguliflorae (Ledru et al, 2013). The third drop in Poaceae 

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250 and 150 cal yr, the expansion of the Apiaceae pollen percentages,

In the following section, we discuss the climate patterns.



- igh moisture level at Papallacta at the beginning of the record. 000 years showed statistically significant vegetation changes (pollen ding fluctutations of transported tree pollen, *Ambrosia*, and Apiaceae Inchronous with Sea Surface Temperature changes during the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA) and the Little Ice Age (LIA) (Ledru et al., 2013). An intermediate dry period, characterized by low tree frequencies and the regression of *Ambrosia* between the MCA and the LIA (zone P-7), also identified by Apaéstegui et al. (2018), highlights the response of páramo biodiversity under both low ENSO variability and low convective activity. Thus, the pollen record spanning the last
- 1000 years shows how the two sources of moisture, namely the year-round adiabatic cloud dripping linked to SASM activity and the ENSO variability at decadal scale, influenced the vegetation cover around Papallacta. Here our aim was to understand how these moisture sources behaved during the late Holocene with an additional driver represented by summer insolation and including the regional
- volcanic activity with 18 tephras deposited over the course of the last 5,000 years.

sheen 2600 and 2400 cal yr BP right after the M11 tephra deposition and by Poaceae observed at the beginning of this episode (Fig. 5).

 At millennial scale, the progressive increase in convective moisture mirrors the long-term trend toward more intense SASM driven by higher austral summer insolation in agreement with other records (e.g., Seillès et al., 2015). The increase in insolation drove a progressive increase in adiabatic moisture to higher elevation that today represents its highest index in the last 5,000 years (Fig. 6).

 The first interval, between 5000 and 2450 cal yr BP, was characterized by high soil moisture, low adiabatic moisture and four increases in the number of charcoal particles associated with fire events (Fig. 4 and 5). The abrupt changes in environmental conditions that occurred between 4600 and 4475 cal yr BP (corresponding to pollen zone 2) lasted 150 years and were associated with less adiabatic moisture along the eastern cordillera and low rainfall on the páramo, in agreement with the weakening of the SASM in the Amazon basin and the low frequency of El Niño on the Pacific side (Bustamante et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). The northernmost position of the ITCZ and the weaker SASM activity (Maksic et al., 2019) also resulted in drier climate conditions further east, in northeastern Brazil (Montade et al., 2014; Utida et al., 2020), thus confirming similar responses to climate changes by the high tropical Andes and Northeastern Brazil and possible links between the two regions (Vuille et al., 1999; Mollier-Vogel et al., 2013; Sulca et al., 2016). Another simulation showed that during this interval, northern Ecuador was under the influence of the northern hemisphere cooling but does not exclude the possibility of cooling caused by a huge volcanic eruption (Ning et al., 2019). 

resulted in drier climate conditions further<br>a et al., 2020), thus confirming similar respons<br>ortheastern Brazil and possible links between t<br>a 2013; Sulca et al., 2016). Another simulat<br>was under the influence of the nor Between 3450 and 2900 cal yr BP, the dry soil conditions, the increase in adiabatic moisture and the cooler temperature are consistent with the lacustrine record of Pallcacocha in Peru (4200 m asl) (Moy et al., 2002) as well as with the speleothem records, Tigre Perdido (1000 m asl), Shatuca (1960 m asl) and Huagapo (3850 m asl) (Fig. 6). This period of increased humidity in the Amazon basin was interpreted as changing SST gradients in the tropical Atlantic (Bustamante et al., 2016; van Beukelen et al., 2008; Kanner et al., 2013). At the same time, ~3500 to 2600 cal yr BP, El Niño became both more frequent and more intense (Fig. 6) and, near the Ecuadorian coast area, the interval between 4200 and 2850 cal yr BP was marked by the coolest and driest climate conditions of the Holocene, due to the weak influence of the ITCZ and strengthening of the Humboldt Current in the Pacific Ocean (Fig.1A) (Seillès et al., 2015). Thus, our results show that the increase in El Niño frequency was superimposed on the strengthening of the Humboldt Current able to maintain drier conditions on the paramó, thus hampering the high monsoon activity recorded in the Amazon basin. 

- The progressive uplift in adiabatic moisture and in the upper forest limit started after 2450 cal yr BP and was characterized by an abrupt change in Poaceae and fire activity on the paramo (Fig. 4, 5). On the Pacific side, the date of ~2500 cal yr BP marks the time when the ITCZ reached the latitude of Papallacta and the beginning of the bimodal precipitation regime observed today along the coast (Mollier-Vogel et al., 2013). At higher elevations, this bimodal regime is hampered by permanent moisture originating from the Amazon basin, also related to the southern shift of the ITCZ and SASM activity, which is superimposed on moisture linked to the Pacific-SST. Within these two intervals separated by 2450 cal
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 yr BP and superimposed on the long-term influence of insolation on the Andean records, centennial- or multidecadal-scale environmental changes occurred at Papallacta and are described below (Fig. 6).

 During the second interval of the record, between 2450 and 0 cal yr BP, lower Poaceae frequencies (~30%), there was no - or only weak - fire activity (Fig. 4, 5). In addition, the progressive increase in the convective index (Fig. 5) suggests upslope expansion of the upper forest limit synchronous with a southward shift of the the ITCZ (Seillès et al., 2015) and enhanced SASM on the Amazon side, as also reported at Lake La Cocha (2,780 m asl) near Papallacta (González-Carranza et al., 2012; van Boxel et al., 2014). From 2300 to 1900 cal yr BP, drier soil conditions and colder temperatures were followed by a warmer episode that lasted until 1550 cal yr BP, synchronous with an increase in ENSO activity between 2000 and 1500 cal yr BP (Rein et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2014). Changes in the convective index point to two drier episodes at 2550 and 1300 cal yr BP (Fig 6). At about 500 km south of Papallacta and at 3,800 m asl, two drier episods, between 2700 and 2000 cal yr BP and between 1700 and 1000 cal yr BP, were also observed in the lacustrine record of Tres Lagunas (Frederick et al., 2018) and can be attributed to abrupt changes in SASM activity at centennial scale.

r episods, between 2700 and 2000 cal yr BP an<br>n the lacustrine record of Tres Lagunas (Fred<br>in SASM activity at centennial scale.<br>itions are characterized by a weaker monsoor<br>eratures on the páramo with the reverse situati Modern-day El Niño conditions are characterized by a weaker monsoon and reduced transport of moisture and warmer temperatures on the páramo with the reverse situation under La Niña conditions (Garreaud, 2009). The wet climate episodes observed at Papallacta before 2450 cal yr BP and in the last 500 years were both characterized by low El Niño frequency while the dry episode with low soil moisture between 2450 and 1300 cal yr BP was characterized by high El Niño frequency between 2400 and 2000 cal yr BP and low El Niño frequency after 2000 cal yr BP (Zhang et al., 2014) (Fig. 6). Between 1500 and 1000 cal yr BP, the low El Niño frequency (Fig. 6) probably impacted the SASM activity as a marked decrease in adiabatic moisture was observed at Papallacta during this interval (Vuille et al 2000). High SASM activity (high convective index) was observed up to the elevation of Papallacta at 4600 cal yr BP, 4400 cal yr BP, between 2400 and 1500 cal yr BP and during the last 500 years, while low SASM activity (low convective index) was observed at ~4550, 2550, 1200 and 700 cal yr BP (Fig. 6). 

 Thus, our results show that the influences of the long-term insolation (precession-scale) forcing and of the multi-century fluctuations in SASM activity on precipitation over the high summits of the Andes are stronger than the influence of ENSO variability at multi-centennial to multi-decadal scales. Differences in the intensity and/or amplitude of the signal are also observed between the Andean records emphasizing the considerable spatial variability associated with SASM activity. For instance, at Shatuca and Tigre Perdido, the long dry period that lasted ~200 years at about 2300 cal yr BP (Bustamante et al., 2016; van Breukelen et al., 2008) does not correspond to the driest period at Papallacta. The multi- decadal changes observed in the speleothem records, for instance, the increase in moisture between 3500 and 2900 cal yr BP, are not observed at Papallacta or in the lacustrine record of Tres Lagunas (Frederick et al., 2018), suggesting that the vegetation was not impacted and/or that the amplitude of the event was smaller at higher elevations. The influence of the intensity of the SASM on precipitation variability over 

 the high summits of the Andes after 2500 yr BP is also visible in the Ti/Ca sediment record of Mollier- Vogel et al. (2013) from the Gulf of Guayaquil (4°S) (Fig. 6). However, during the late Holocene, at both low and high elevations, the influence of the precession cycle on the gradual increase in moisture was punctuated by centennial-scale deviations, indicating other influences triggered the considerable

spatial variability associated with the SASM (Kanner et al.2013; Vuille and Werner, 2005).

# **Conclusion**

and the high summits of the Eastern Cordillera<br>mit never reached the elevation of the Sucus bosits had almost no impact on the biodiversity<br>owever, in the long term, at precession scale, a<br>tti-decadal climate events stron Our results show that the páramo is a very sensitive ecosystem to long-term insolation and to the series of multi-centennial to multi-decadal-scale events in the late Holocene. We found two types of responses of the vegetation cover depending on the origin of the moisture: soil with the expansion/regression of Poaceae / Ast. *Senecio,* and atmospheric moisture with cloud dripping enhanced by the adiabatic upslope between the Amazon basin and the high summits of the Eastern Cordillera. During the last 5,000 years, the Andean forest upper limit never reached the elevation of the Sucus bog at Papallacta and the 18 regional tephra fallout deposits had almost no impact on the biodiversity of the páramo, only on the local drainage of the bog. However, in the long term, at precession scale, and superimposed on the short term, multi-centenial to multi-decadal climate events strongly modified the floristic composition of the páramo with frequent fires before 2450 cal yr BP. The driest event in the last 5,000 years characterized by the lowest convective index occurred at ~4500 cal yr BP, when both mean annual precipitation decreased and convective moisture abruptly stopped reaching the elevation of Papallacta. In the last century, the adiabatic moisture upslope reached its strongest amplitude. By comparing our results with marine, speleothem, lake or bog records, we also emphasize how in the Tropics, a single climate event may be manifest in a wide range of effects depending on the elevation and location of the site, confirming the influence of the SASM on precipitation variability over the high summits of the Andes. 

 

 

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 **Figure 1:** A) Map of western South America showing the tropical Andes (in red), the location of 844 Papallacta bog (white star), the location of some of the records cited in the text (C Cariaco (Haug et al., 2001), LC Lake La Cocha (González-Carranza et al., 2012), TL Tres Laguna (Frederick et al., 2018), S Shatuca (Bustamante et al., 2016), TP Tigre Perdido (van Breukelen et al., 2008), H Huagapo (Kanner 847 et al., 2013)) and the main climatic features discussed in the text (ITCZw is the position of the 848 InterTropical Convergence Zone in winter, ITCZs in summer, HC the Humboldt Current, SASM South American Summer Monsoon). B) Climate information represented on a Walter diagram (Luteyn, 1999). Temperature is shown by the bottom curve, precipitation by the upper curve. C) The bog at Papallacta with patches of *Polylepis* forest on the background slopes. D) View of the M2 tephra in core PA1-08 (©MP Ledru)







 $P-5$  $P-6$ 

P-7

 $P-8$ 

 $P_4$ 

 $P-3$ 

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 (Bustamante et al., 2016); F) changes in ∂18O at Huagapo (Peru): a record of SASM intensity (Kanner et al., 2013).





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911 **Table S2** Age of the tephra layers calculated from the age model based on the identification 912 of the origin of the ash deposit reported in Table S1. Only three tephras showed no or little

913 identification uncertainty and were included in the final age model (Fig. 2).

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**Table 1.** Description of the vegetation cover around Papallacta bog (from Ledru et al., 2013).

Depth	Age <sup>14</sup> C yr BP	Lab number	Depth	Age <sup>14</sup> C yr BP
				3305±30
				3180±40
				3790±35
				3690±30
160-162	$1005 \pm 30$	SacA-18858	554-556	3790±30
186-188	$1000 \pm 30$	SacA-14677	568-570	3950±40
208-210	1105±30	SacA-11052	594-596	3570±30**
254-256	1540±35	Beta-243043	602-604	3440±40**
284-286	1860±30	SacA-14678	636-638	4475 ±40
322-324	2225±40	SacA-18859	680-682	4330±30
338-340	2470±30	SacA-14679	712-714	$4600 \pm 50$
350-352	2440±30	SacA-18860	742-744	4560±40
386-388	2885±35	SacA-11053	766-768	4380±30
404-406	$2520 \pm 35$	SacA-18861	788-790	4460±35
438-440	$2950 \pm 30$	SacA-14729	806-808	4430±40
450-452	2885±30	SacA-14680	832-834	4290±40
476-478	$2935 \pm 35$	SacA-11054	862-863	3620±30**
	cm $0 - 2$ $22 - 24$ $50 - 52$ 80-82 114-116	$-60 \pm 10*$ $0 \pm 30$ 175±30 270±40 $530 \pm 30$	SacA-11050 SacA-18857 SacA-14728 SacA-11051	$\,\rm cm$ 494-496 516-518 524-526 548-550

**Table 2.** Radiocarbon dates of core PA1-08. Radiocarbon ages were measured on total organic matter.  $* =$  calendar age:  $** =$  rejected 14C dates

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 $\overline{1}$  $\overline{2}$  $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$  $\overline{4}$  $\overline{5}$ 6  $\overline{7}$ 8  $\overline{9}$ 





**Supplementary table** Radiocarbon ages of the eruptions dated in situ by the volcanologists with the location of the dated material I inside U under the tephra O above the tephra, the link with the tephra layers observed at Papallacta and the associated references.

![](_page_38_Picture_332.jpeg)

![](_page_39_Picture_371.jpeg)

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 $\overline{1}$  $\overline{2}$  $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$  $\overline{4}$  $\overline{5}$ 6  $\overline{7}$ 8  $\overline{9}$ 

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![](_page_40_Picture_340.jpeg)

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**Table S2** Age of the tephra layers calculated from the age model based on the identification of the origin of the ash deposit reported in Table S1. Only three tephras showed no or little identification uncertainty and were included in the final age model (Fig. 2).

![](_page_42_Picture_949.jpeg)

![](_page_43_Picture_385.jpeg)

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