

1 **Patterns and drivers of development in a west Amazonian peatland**

2 **during the late Holocene**

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13 **Abstract**

14 Amazonian peatlands sequester and store large amounts of carbon below ground and contribute
15 to regional biodiversity. They also present an outstanding opportunity for palaeoecological
16 research. This study uses multiple peat cores to improve our understanding of the long-term
17 development of a peatland (Quistococha) in Peruvian Amazonia, by providing a reconstruction
18 of the spatial patterns of vegetation change and peat accumulation over time across the site.
19 Peat cores taken along transects totalling c. 5 km were used to establish the peat thickness and
20 visible stratigraphy. Of 29 new peat cores, four were selected for pollen analysis, supported by
21 15 radiocarbon dates. These complement two existing published pollen records from the site,
22 from a peat core and a lake sediment core. Our study shows that peat initiation occurred across
23 the site in the form of primary mire formation between 2,400 and 1,900 cal yr BP. Following
24 peat initiation, five broadly similar phases of vegetation development are recorded in all the
25 pollen sequences: Amazon floodplain, herbaceous sedge fen, mixed angiosperm flooded forest,
26 mixed palm swamp, *Mauritia*-dominated palm swamp. In detail, there are differences in the
27 pattern and timing of vegetation change between the sequences. Much of this spatial variation
28 is likely to be the result of the underlying substrate topography. In addition, we find that the
29 difference in vegetation composition between core sites was greater during the early stages of
30 peat accumulation at Quistococha than it is today. Such spatial and temporal variability has

31 significant implications for computer modelling of carbon accumulation in tropical peatlands
32 and, consequently, our understanding of their role in the global carbon cycle. Our findings
33 highlight key challenges for numerical modelling on Holocene timescales, namely the
34 difficulty in quantifying long-term variations in primary productivity, the variable influence of
35 sediment input on carbon accumulation during the early stages of peatland formation, and the
36 difficulty of modelling water tables in sites with variable underlying topography.

37 **Key words:** palaeoecology, mire formation, Peru, palynology, vegetation succession.

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Peatlands within the tropical latitudes are estimated to cover 441,000 km² and store about 120
40 Pg of carbon (Page et al., 2011; Dargie et al. 2017), which makes them one of the largest stores
41 of terrestrial carbon in the tropics, about half as large as the carbon storage of biomass in *terra*
42 *firme* forests (c. 247 Pg C; Saatchi et al., 2011). The largest and deepest peatlands occurring at
43 tropical latitudes are in Southeast Asia (Page et al., 2011), but recent research has shown that
44 there are substantial peat accumulations throughout the tropics. In Amazonia, the largest area
45 of peatlands yet identified is the Pastaza-Marañón Foreland Basin (PMFB), northeast Peru
46 (Lähteenoja et al., 2009, 2011, 2012; Draper et al., 2014). The PMFB peatlands are estimated
47 to cover an area of c. 35,600 km², and store c. 3.14 Pg of carbon (Draper et al., 2014), which
48 is equivalent to about half of the total carbon stored above ground in forests throughout the
49 whole of Peru. Although they are often regionally important emitters of methane, and peatlands
50 in the Amazon are no exception, under natural conditions undisturbed peatlands are net carbon
51 sinks (Teh et al., 2017). For this reason, Amazonian peatlands are becoming a focus for carbon
52 conservation, although there is also a strong case to be made for protecting them for their socio-
53 cultural and biodiversity values (Roucoux et al., 2017). Palaeoecology has an important role to
54 play in the PMFB and in intact tropical peatlands more generally, in helping to build the science
55 base needed to understand (i) how and why peat carbon is distributed (unevenly) across the
56 landscape, (ii) the robustness of different types of peatlands as carbon stores and sinks, and (iii)
57 how plant and animal species of conservation or socio-cultural value come to have their
58 present-day distribution. Understanding successional change is of primary importance in
59 modelling future peatland carbon dynamics; due to the connection with net primary production,
60 succession is a key element to include in peatland models (e.g. Baird et al., 2012). Where
61 models fail to simulate observed changes in peatland carbon accumulation during the Holocene
62 in Amazonia, the long-term view of ecohydrological dynamics given by palaeoecology has the
63 potential to provide explanations (Wang et al., 2018).

64 With these wider aims in mind we have undertaken a series of studies of PMFB peatlands. This
65 paper reports a multiple-core study from a palm swamp, Quistococha. This 490 ha forested
66 peatland, which contains peat up to 4.1 m thick (Lähteenoja et al., 2009a), is thought to occupy
67 an abandoned arm of the Amazon river (Räsänen et al. 1991), the main stem of which has since
68 migrated 12 km to the east across its floodplain. Quistococha has increasingly become a focus
69 for research, with more published papers on its present and past environment than any other
70 peatland site in the region. Recent studies have measured greenhouse gas emissions (Teh et al.
71 2017), examined the testate amoebae found in the present-day lake (Patterson et al., 2015), and
72 assessed the impact of *Mauritia flexuosa* harvesting on aboveground carbon stocks (Bhomia et
73 al., 2018). The first numerical models for Amazonian peatlands have also been validated using
74 data from Quistococha (Wang et al., 2018). An initial appraisal of peat carbon storage and
75 chemistry at Quistococha was made by Lähteenoja et al. (2009a,b), followed by more detailed
76 multiple-proxy analyses of a single peat core by Roucoux et al. (2013) and Lawson et al.
77 (2014). Previous work has also been undertaken on sediment sequences from the lake at the
78 centre of the site by Räsänen et al. (1991) and Aniceto et al. (2014a,b), providing estimates of
79 when the site was abandoned by the Amazon river channel, and of carbon accumulation rates
80 in the lake sediments. A palaeoecological study of a lake sequence by Kelly et al. (2018) has
81 also provided a pollen record covering the last c. 4500 years of the site's history, and refined
82 earlier radiocarbon chronologies. However, while our understanding of this peatland (and other
83 peatlands like it) has improved considerably in the last ten years, much remains unknown. An
84 important gap in our knowledge is the spatial pattern of peatland development and vegetation
85 change since this is essential if we are to understand the mechanisms and drivers of peatland
86 development and associated carbon accumulation. The classical model of peat bog formation
87 in a shallow aquatic basin is characterised in outline by strong directionality from open water,
88 through minerotrophic fen, and potentially to ombrotrophic bog communities, as the
89 accumulation of sediment and peat raises the surface above the local groundwater table (e.g.
90 Walker 1970). This pattern and its drivers, autogenic and allogenic, have been widely studied
91 in temperate and boreal peatlands (e.g. Klinger, 1996; Bunting and Warner, 1998; Bauer et al.,
92 2003; Ireland et al., 2012). However, the extent to which the classical model (and variations on
93 it) apply in Amazonian peatlands is not yet known as spatial patterns in vegetation change,
94 their relationship to basin mire development, and the role of autogenic and allogenic factors,
95 remain to be examined in detail in these systems.

96 Here we integrate the existing data from Quistococha with new datasets, including four new
97 pollen records from cores taken across the peatland and a substantial set of new down-core and
98 basal dates, to improve our understanding of peatland development, specifically: (1) How did
99 the mire form, and (2) how did the mire and its vegetation then develop over time and space?
100 Our analysis adds to the existing reconstruction of vegetation development at this site because
101 it includes patterns of spatial heterogeneity that are not registered in the pollen signal from the
102 existing single cores; one from the lake and one from the peatland. Typically low wind speeds
103 within the forest mean that each peatland core has a small effective pollen source area and a
104 highly local vegetation signal. Thus, the analysis of several cores taken across the forested site
105 enables patterns of spatial heterogeneity in the vegetation to be registered. The pollen record
106 from the lake (Kelly et al., 2018), with its much larger effective pollen source area, provides
107 an integrated picture of the peatland and of the *terra firme* beyond, but of course does not
108 provide spatial detail. In this paper, we use the pollen signal in four new peat core pollen
109 sequences, in addition to the published records, to show how the peatland and its vegetation
110 developed over time and space.

111

112 **2. Site description**

113 The peatland at Quistococha is situated on the floodplain of the River Amazon 8 km south of
114 the city of Iquitos (Figure 1). The Landsat imagery indicates that there may be peatland areas
115 to the northeast (red colour), but these are separated from the main Quistococha peatland by a
116 levee. The site was chosen for detailed study both for its ease of access and because, on floristic
117 grounds, it represents one of the most common types of peatland ecosystem in western
118 Amazonia (Lähteenoja et al., 2009a; Roucoux et al., 2013; Honorio et al., 2015; Draper et al.,
119 2017). The vegetation is closed canopy palm swamp, dominated by three tree species, *Mauritia*
120 *flexuosa*, *Mauritiella armata* (both Arecaceae) and *Tabebuia insignis* (Bignoniaceae)
121 (Roucoux et al., 2013). A (0.5 ha) plot-based census showed that the average height of all tree
122 species was > 10 m, with *Mauritia flexuosa* the tallest species present (average 21 m). The
123 three most common saplings (2.5–10 cm diameter) in the understorey were *Tabebuia insignis*,
124 *Virola surinamensis* (Myristicaceae), and *Brosimum utile* (Moraceae) (Roucoux et al., 2013).
125 While there is likely to be some variation in floristic composition across the site, remote sensing
126 imagery shows that the prominent crowns of *Mauritia flexuosa* are present throughout the
127 peatland. Aquatic plants on the lake today occupy small areas mostly within 10 m of the
128 shoreline. There are small (c. 5 x 5 m) floating mats of Cyperaceae and Poaceae near the eastern

129 shoreline, and areas of floating Nymphaeaceae (aff. *Nymphaea amazonum*) around the lake
130 margin.

131 The lake and peats lie on an impermeable substrate of clayey silt, thought to have been laid
132 down by the Amazon (Räsänen et al. 1992; Lawson et al. 2014). The eastern margin of the
133 peatland is bordered by a clay ridge which creates a low hydrological barrier between the
134 peatland and the rest of the floodplain (Figure 2); to the west the peatland is bounded by a
135 terrace of Miocene freshwater sands and silts. Artefacts found by archaeological excavations
136 on the terrace northwest of the peatland suggest at least two periods of prehistoric occupation,
137 between 1740-1880 and 2350-2690 cal yr BP (Rivas Panduro et al., 2006; Rivas Panduro,
138 2006). This is a site of regional archaeological importance and one of the few in Western
139 Amazonia to have *terra preta* (anthropogenic dark earth) soils (Rivas Panduro et al., 2006)

140 Lähteenoja et al. (2009a) reported a basal radiocarbon age for the peat of 2320–2350 cal yr BP
141 (1σ) (in core QT3 of that study at a depth of 3.90–4.00 m). Roucoux et al. (2013) obtained a
142 statistically indistinguishable basal date of 2308-2056 cal yr BP (2σ) from 4.00 m depth in core
143 QT-2010-1, taken at approximately the same location in the peatland. Lähteenoja et al. (2009b)
144 and Lawson et al. (2014) showed that the inorganic chemistry of the upper peats (0–1.50 m) is
145 consistent with a dominantly rain-fed system, with some groundwater input. We have observed
146 two springs in the terrace that drain into the western edge of the peatland, and other
147 groundwater flow may be occurring below the surface.

148 **3. Material and Methods**

149 **3.1 Peat sampling**

150 For this study, the peatland was sampled at 29 locations along c. 5 km of transect using a
151 Russian-type corer (Jowsey, 1966), using parallel boreholes c. 2 m apart to collect a continuous
152 sequence. The terrain on the southern part of the site was impassable due to c. 1 m deep standing
153 water at the time of the survey, limiting the extent of the north-south transect. At each core site,
154 coring continued downwards until the contact with the underlying clay was sampled. Cores
155 were sub-sampled in the field at 16 cm intervals and stored in polythene bags; core sections
156 containing the contact between the peat and the underlying clay were kept intact and wrapped
157 in clingfilm and thick plastic sheeting. Core locations were recorded using a Garmin handheld
158 GPS. Despite several attempts using various types of equipment, it was not possible to generate
159 a precise estimate of elevation; SRTM and other remotely sensed data show no significant

160 variation in surface topography. All cores were stored under license at 4°C while awaiting
161 analysis (Geography Department, University of Leeds; License held by T.R).

162 **3.2 Sedimentological analysis**

163 The peat and sediment composition was described in the field following Troels-Smith (1955),
164 supported by additional laboratory checks for each of the 29 cores; those cores sampled for
165 radiocarbon analysis were also examined using a low power stereo microscope.

166 Peat has varying definitions (Kelly et al., 2017a), but in this paper we discuss ‘peat’ as
167 commonly operationally defined in the existing literature on tropical peatlands (i.e. >65%
168 organic matter, thicker than 30cm; Dargie et al., 2017). However, as we will show, some of
169 this ‘peat’ is in actual fact better described as gyttja (fine grained organic lake mud), deposited
170 under fully aquatic conditions in open water.

171 For carbon and nitrogen analyses, samples of 1 cm³ were dried at 105°C, milled, then weighed
172 into tin caps prior to analysis with a Eurovector Turboflash CNS combustion analyser.
173 Vanadium pentoxide was used as a catalyst. The peat standard NJV942 was used with all
174 sample batches. The experimental values for carbon and nitrogen were within 95% of the
175 certified value for NJV942 for all sample runs. Loss-on-ignition was carried out to calculate
176 the organic matter content; samples were dried overnight at 105°C and dry weight calculated
177 before combustion at 550 °C for two hours.

178 **3.3 Pollen analysis**

179 Fifteen pollen samples were analysed from core QT-2011-2, 24 from QT-2012-9, 12 from QT-
180 2012-10 and 12 from QT-2012-18. Cores were selected to represent three different areas of the
181 site, as well as to contrast cores with different peat thicknesses. Sampling resolution was
182 typically 16 cm, with a finer resolution of 8 cm across the peat-clay contact, where variation in
183 pollen assemblages between samples suggested that finer resolution was needed to register the
184 pattern of vegetation change.

185 Sample preparation followed standard methods, including acetolysis and HF digestion where
186 necessary (Faegri and Iversen, 1989). *Lycopodium* spore tablets were added as a "spike" to
187 allow concentrations to be calculated (Stockmarr, 1971). Samples were mounted using silicone
188 oil. Pollen, phytolith and charcoal analysis was undertaken using a Leica DMLS binocular
189 microscope, routinely at 1000x under oil immersion. A minimum of 300 pollen sum grains
190 were counted. The pollen sum excluded spores of the Pteridophyta and the pollen of the aquatic

191 plants such as *Pistia stratiotes* but included unknown pollen types (which make up only c. 5%
192 of the total on average).

193 Identifications were based on modern reference material, the pollen atlases of Roubik and
194 Moreno (1991) and Colinvaux et al. (1999), the Neotropical Pollen Database (Bush and Weng,
195 2006) and other literature (Absy, 1979; Nowicke and Takahashi, 2002; Van Geel, 2001; Burn
196 and Mayle, 2008; Weber et al., 1999; Anderson, 1993; Walker and Walker, 1979; Dias Saba,
197 2007; Kelly et al, 2016). Optimal splitting by sum of squares was applied to produce
198 independent pollen zonation schemes for each sequence in Psimpoll (Bennett, 2007) and the
199 key taxa defining each zone were identified using indicator analysis (Dufrene and Legendre,
200 1997). Only pollen taxa that exceeded 5% in one or more samples were included in the analysis;
201 all spores and aquatic taxa were excluded. The pollen data from all sequences were compiled
202 and analysed using non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS: Minchin, 1987), to help
203 identify common patterns among, and differences between, sequences. NMDS was performed
204 on an abundance matrix of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities. NMDS and indicator analysis were
205 undertaken in R 3.1.2 using the metaMDS function in vegan 2.3-2 and the indval function in
206 labdsv 1.9-0 respectively (R Core Team, 2014; Oksanen et al., 2015; Roberts 2016).

207 **3.4 Dating**

208 For the new radiocarbon dates, bulk samples of 1–2 cm³ in volume were prepared by sieving
209 at 180 µm to ensure the removal of visible roots. The δ¹⁴C and δ¹³C content of the samples was
210 determined by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) at the NERC Radiocarbon Facility in East
211 Kilbride. Dates were calibrated using the INTCAL13 dataset (Reimer et al. 2013) in OxCal
212 (Bronk Ramsey, 1995; Bronk Ramsey & Lee, 2013).

213 **4. Results**

214 **4.1 Sedimentology and peat depth**

215 The peat thicknesses along the four transects across the site are shown in Figure 2. The
216 maximum peat thickness recorded anywhere on the site was 4.25 m, close to the location of
217 QT-2010-1. Peat thickness varied considerably along, and between, the different transects. The
218 present peat surface is gently undulating with occasional pools and, although we were not able
219 to survey the elevation of the peat surface accurately, it seems likely that the basal topography
220 undulates more than the peat surface because the differences in peat thickness are larger than
221 the differences in surface height. Along transect A–A', peat thickness is consistently more than
222 1 m and the southernmost margin of the peatland was not reached. Along transect B–B' there

223 are two deeper parts to the basin separated by a buried ridge of clay. The minimum peat
224 thickness sampled was 42 cm, close to the western margin of the peatland. Along transect C–
225 C' peat thickness gradually decreases away from the lake (Figure 2) before meeting the levee
226 which we inferred to represent the eastern boundary of the Quistococha peatland (Figure 1).
227 However, a core beyond the levee confirms that this is not the limit of the peat accumulations
228 in this area on the Amazon floodplain. Accumulations of peat consistently >3.0 m thick were
229 found along Transect D–D' which runs approximately north-south along the eastern lake
230 margin. Troels-Smith sediment logs for the four cores analysed in detail (QT-2011-2, QT-
231 2012-9, QT-2012-10 and QT-2012) are presented in Figure 3. Five main types of material were
232 observed:

- 233 • *Type 1*: Clayey silt with little organic content; underlies the peat at all locations sampled
234 (Typically As3Ag1 or As4Ag+ using the Troels-Smith classification).
- 235 • *Type 2*: A mixture of clay, silt and organic matter ('muck' sensu Wüst et al. 2003);
236 characterises the transition from clayey silt to peat (Typically As2Dg1Th1 or similar).
- 237 • *Type 3*: Organic material with few roots, typically slightly greenish in colour, and
238 occasionally containing visible leaf fragments (typically Th1Sh1Ld2 or similar). This
239 unit was similar to the material found accumulating in the lake close to its margin at the
240 present day (Patterson et al., 2015).
- 241 • *Type 4*: Fibrous peat composed mainly of coarse palm and woody roots, with a well-
242 humified matrix (typically Tl2 Sh2 Dh+).
- 243 • *Type 5*: Fibrous peat, as type 4 but markedly less humified material (typically Tl2 Dh1
244 Sh1); found in the upper part (< 1m depth) of all sequences.

245 Loss-on-ignition data, carbon and nitrogen concentrations are presented for four cores
246 alongside the Troels-Smith logs in Figure 3. All four sequences exhibit a similar pattern of
247 changing sediment type up-core. The transition from the underlying clayey silt to peat is
248 gradual in three of the four cores (QT-2011-2, QT-2012-10, QT-2012-18), with organic content
249 increasing over 20-30 cm. In core QT-2012-9 there is a relatively thick (91 cm) layer of mixed
250 clay and organic matter (Type 2 above) with varying LOI values (50-90%). The upper part of
251 the cores consisted of low-ash peat, typically >94% loss-on-ignition and >45wt% carbon; QT-
252 2012-18 showed lower loss-on-ignition values (c. 85%). Nitrogen concentrations increase in
253 the top 32 cm of all the cores; the increase in nitrogen concentration in the upper part of the
254 sequences drives a reduction in C/N values.

255 4.2 Palynology

256 The pollen diagrams for selected taxa are presented in Figure 4, and are given in full in the
257 supplementary information. Pollen preservation in the peat cores was good; the largest
258 proportion of indeterminable pollen (13%) was found in the basal peat sample of QT-2011-2.
259 There is an increase in damaged but identifiable grains towards the top of each sequence. Pollen
260 concentrations (Figure 5) ranged from 17,700 to 1,376,000 grains cm⁻³; the highest
261 concentrations occur at 128 cm in QT-2012-10, attributable to an abundance of *Cecropia*
262 pollen. Charcoal was largely absent from the peat sequences, and was present only as
263 occasional fragments (see Supplementary Data). The pollen zones are described in Tables 4-7,
264 and the main patterns are outlined here.

265 In QT-2011-2, zone Q2-A constitutes the sedimentological transition zone with increasing
266 LOI, and the transition into the basal peats coincides with an abundance of *Symmeria*
267 *paniculata* pollen (>40%) and moderately abundant Cyperaceae (11%). Zone Q2-B features
268 peaks in Myrtaceae, Melastomataceae/Combretaceae, Rubiaceae, and Dalbergia. *Iriartea*
269 *deltoideae* pollen is most abundant in this zone, although palms in general remain <10%.
270 Cyperaceae also declines towards the top of zone Q2-B. Zones Q2-C and Q2-D are marked by
271 increased palm pollen abundance – mixed *Euterpe-t.* and *Mauritia-t.* in zone Q2-C and
272 predominantly *Mauritia-t.* in Q2-D.

273 In QT-2012-18, zone Q18-A is characterised as mixed clay and organics, and the transition to
274 peat coincides with an interval of abundant *Symmeria paniculata* pollen (35% in the lower-
275 most pollen sample), with Cyperaceae also persistently present (5-10%). Zone Q18-B includes
276 peaks in Poaceae and Rubiaceae. In Q18-C, palms increase in abundance with a mixed *Euterpe-t.*
277 *t.* and *Mauritia-t.* assemblage, and in Q18-D *Euterpe-t.* declines, leaving *Mauritia-t.* as the
278 dominant pollen taxon.

279 In QT-2012-10, the lowermost pollen zone Q10-A lies above the pure clay layer and includes
280 the transition to peat (LOI >65%); it is characterised by persistent *Euterpe-t.* and *Mauritia-t.*
281 palm pollen and a single peak in Myrtaceae. Zone Q10-B is defined by a single sample peak in
282 *Cecropia* pollen (64%). Q10-C is characterised by an increase in palm pollen, with *Euterpe-t.*
283 dominant in most samples in this zone (peak: 63%). In Q10-D, *Euterpe-t.* pollen declines to
284 <5% and *Mauritia-t.* pollen dominates the assemblage, with *Alchornea* also consistently
285 present.

286 In QT-2012-9, the basal sample in zone Q9-A lies just above the contact with the underlying
287 clay in a part of the core characterised by low LOI (<25%). The pollen assemblage in this
288 sample is comprised almost entirely of *Cecropia*, with some Cyperaceae and other taxa present
289 in small quantities. The overlying pollen sample in Q9-A, taken from a section of the core
290 where LOI >70%, is comprised predominantly of Cyperaceae pollen. In zone Q9-B,
291 Cyperaceae is the dominant taxon in several samples (max.: 57%), with *Cecropia* remaining
292 moderately abundant (>10% in most samples). Poaceae is also moderately abundant throughout
293 this zone (>10%). In Q9-C, Cyperaceae initially declines in the basal zone and remains <10%,
294 with the exception of a peak of 53% at 160 cm. This zone contains peaks in Myrtaceae, *Ilex*
295 sp., Asteraceae, and *Psychotria-t*, and Poaceae is persistently present in low abundance
296 (<10%). Zone Q9-D is defined by a single sample peak in *Ficus* pollen and is overlain by zone
297 Q9-E where there is a small peak in *Euterpe-t*. pollen and *Mauritia-t*. gradually increases to
298 become the dominant pollen taxon at the top of the core.

299 Some consistent patterns emerge among these cores. All four cores contain a high proportion
300 of palm pollen in the top two zones, with *Mauritia-t*. typically increasing, then decreasing again
301 as *Euterpe-t*. increases, before *Mauritia-t*. becomes increasingly abundant in the uppermost
302 zone. Pollen grain size data suggest that the *Mauritia-t*. count includes an increasing proportion
303 of *Mauritiella armata* pollen, which typically has smaller grains than the otherwise similar
304 *Mauritia flexuosa* (Kelly et al., 2017b), in the upper 50 cm of cores QT-2011-2, QT-2012-9,
305 and QT-2012-10. The persistent presence of *Tabebuia*-type pollen in these uppermost zones in
306 most sequences probably reflects the taxon *T. insignis*, which is abundant at the site today
307 (Roucoux et al., 2013).

308 The spinulose palm phytoliths counted down core can broadly be categorised as the ‘globular
309 echinate variant 1’ type in the scheme developed for Andean phytoliths by Huisman et al.
310 (2018). A representative SEM image is given in the Supplementary Information. Peaks in palm
311 phytolith concentration (Figure 5) occur in all of the peat cores between 96 and 112 cm depth
312 down core. This coincides with an increase in *Mauritia*-type pollen to >25 % of the pollen sum,
313 and also with the main peak in *Mauritia-t*. pollen concentration in most of the cores. The
314 highest concentration of palm phytoliths (1.86×10^6 phytoliths cm^{-3}) is in QT-2012-10.

315 There are, however, some notable differences between the four new pollen sequences, as also
316 illustrated by their trajectories in the NMDS plots (Figure 7). *Symmeria paniculata* pollen is
317 abundant in the basal zones of QT-2011-2 and QT-2012-18, and present but less abundant in

318 the other two cores. There are two distinct Myrtaceae peaks in core QT-2012-9, but only one
319 in QT-2011-2 and QT-2012-10, and no peak in QT-2012-18 where Myrtaceae pollen was
320 sparse throughout. A single-sample *Ficus* peak defines zone D of QT-2012-9, with no
321 counterpart in any of the other cores. *Euterpe-t.* pollen is most abundant in QT-2012-10 and
322 QT-2012-18, where it exceeds 50%; a clear *Euterpe-t.* peak is also visible in both QT-2012-9
323 and QT-2011-2 but at lower abundance (up to 13% in both cases). Poaceae sometimes exceeds
324 10% in the lower zones of QT-2012-9 and QT-2012-18 but is never abundant in the other two
325 cores. In core QT-2012-10 there is a high single-sample peak in *Cecropia* just prior to the
326 increase in palm pollen types.

327 **4.3 Radiocarbon dates**

328 The results of radiocarbon age determinations are presented in Table 2, and probability density
329 functions for the calibrated peat basal dates are shown in Figure 8. The 15 new radiocarbon
330 dates presented here include ten peat basal dates, and five further radiocarbon dates which were
331 used to determine the peat accumulation rate and the timing of vegetation changes as recorded
332 by the pollen. These add to the existing five dates from QT-3 (Lähteenoja et al., 2009), seven
333 from QT-2010-1 (Roucoux et al. 2013) and 12 from QT-2010-3 (Kelly et al., 2018). The
334 average maximum peat accumulation rate, as determined using peat basal dates, was 1.15
335 mm/yr, and the average minimum was 1.06 mm/yr (Table 3).

336 A basal sample from the shortest of the dated sequences (QT-2011-1) returned a date which, at
337 709-891 cal yr BP, is substantially younger than the ten other basal peat ages from the present
338 study as well as the previously published dates (Lahteenoja et al., 2009; Roucoux et al., 2013).
339 With this exception, the calibrated basal peat date ranges overlap substantially, with the overall
340 2σ range being 1897-2352 cal yr BP. The main expansion of *Mauritia-t.* is dated to 916-1174
341 cal yr BP in three sequences, and to 566-676 cal yr BP in QT-2012-9.

342 **5. Discussion**

343 **5.1 Palaeoenvironmental reconstruction**

344 *Phase I: River channel to shallow water swamp*

345 The history of the lake that remains today at the site has now been studied in detail in three
346 separate palaeoenvironmental studies. The most recent work by Kelly et al. (2018), applied
347 small-sample radiocarbon dating techniques using picked macrofossils and charcoal to
348 overcome the reservoir effects that have affected bulk dates on minerogenic sediment in
349 previous studies, producing older apparent ages for the abandonment of Quistococha (Räsänen

350 et al. 1992). The new dates suggested that the Quistococha basin was abandoned as an active
351 meander of the Amazon sometime before 4500 cal yr BP, but that regular flooding by the
352 Amazon continued to dominate deposition until c. 2400 cal yr BP (Kelly et al., 2018). These
353 floodwater deposits, in the lake and under the peat across the site (QT1-A), consist of clayey
354 silts, occasionally intercalated with more organic layers. In the lake core, pollen assemblages
355 in the sediments deposited before c. 2,400 cal yr BP are overwhelmingly dominated by the
356 pollen of *Cecropia* with Cyperaceae also an important component (Q3-A), and the clayey silts
357 underlying the peatland have a similar pollen composition, but with less abundant Cyperaceae
358 in the basal pollen zone (Roucoux et al., 2013). The two pollen records build a picture that
359 resembles the shallow water swamps typical of recently abandoned meanders described by
360 Kalliola et al. (1991b), with large areas of open water. *Cecropia* is abundant in disturbed
361 riparian environments and its small, well-transported pollen grains are typically over-
362 represented in lake contexts (Bush and Rivera, 1998, 2001; Gosling et al., 2009). Taken
363 together, the evidence indicates that until c. 2400 cal yr BP the Quistococha basin was regularly
364 flooded by the River Amazon. Aniceto et al. (2014) make the point that although carbon
365 concentrations by weight in the clayey silts are low, the rapid sedimentation means that the
366 clayey silts store a substantial amount of carbon. The available geochemical data (Aniceto et
367 al., 2014; Lawson et al., 2014; Kelly et al., 2018) suggest that the organic matter preserved in
368 the clayey silts largely came from fluvial sources, reworked from upland soils; *in situ* organic
369 production seems to have been relatively unimportant during this period in terms of the overall
370 carbon budget of the sediments.

371 *Phase II: Herbaceous sedge fen and wooded swamp*

372 The intercalated mineral and organic sediments at the base of several peat cores suggest a
373 transitional period during which organic matter from overlying vegetation began to accumulate
374 but with continued inputs of inorganic sediment from the Amazon. As the Amazon retreated
375 and mineral inputs diminished, almost pure organic matter (>90% LOI) began to accumulate.
376 This peat initiation began across the majority of the site between 2400-1900 yr BP, occurring
377 slightly earlier in areas closer to the lake (2400-2100 yr BP) and later further from the lake
378 (2100-1900) as indicated by the probability density functions generated for the radiocarbon
379 dates (Figure 8). The relatively young date from the shallowest dated site (QT-2011-1) may
380 also indicate that peat began to accumulate somewhat later on topographic highs in the
381 substrate, e.g. on top of old meander ridges. Alternatively it is possible that this sample was
382 contaminated by young carbon, despite efforts to remove roots by sieving.

383 The phase of abundant Cyperaceae recorded in QT-2012-9 and QT-2010-1 was interpreted as
384 indicating either marginal fen or floating mat vegetation by Roucoux et al. (2013). Sedge
385 communities are widespread in the PMFB and can occur on grounded peats as well as on
386 floating mats (Draper et al., 2014; Draper, 2015); little is known of their ecology or precise
387 palynological signature. This phase lasted for c. 100 years at QT-2010-1 (Roucoux et al., 2013).
388 In the two shallowest peat cores studied here, the palynology of the basal peat layers suggests
389 they were laid down under a less open, more wooded vegetation (e.g. Q2-A, Q18-A). In QT-
390 2011-2, for example, entomophilous (Bawa et al., 1985) and therefore probably locally-derived
391 Anacardiaceae pollen is very abundant in the basal sample (see Supplementary Data). Towards
392 the base of QT-2012-10 (Q10-A) *Symmeria paniculata*, Myrtaceae, *Pouzolzia*, and Asteraceae
393 pollen are all found at low percentages. *Symmeria* in particular is indicative of deep and
394 persistent flooding with nutrient-poor water, while the low abundance of herbaceous taxa such
395 as Cyperaceae, Poaceae and ferns, imply that this part of the site probably had a closed forest
396 canopy at this time.

397 Patches of suitable habitat for *Mauritia* and/or *Mauritiella* were likely available near the lake
398 from the onset of peat initiation. The transition from sporadic to continuous presence occurs c.
399 2000-2300 cal yr BP in the lake core which is approximately contemporaneous with peat
400 initiation at ten of the eleven dated sites, but earlier than the local *Mauritia*-t. expansions
401 recorded in the five peat pollen records. *Mauritia* and/or *Mauritiella* may not have been
402 occupying areas of active peat accumulation, but other areas such as those around the western
403 margin where *Mauritia* is still found at the present day growing on the slopes leading down to
404 the lake, and in areas of clay substrate within 1 m elevation of the lake surface.

405 *Phase III: Flooded forest*

406 Both to the east and south of the lake, the pollen records indicate the expansion of forest at four
407 of the core sites after the first c. 500 years of peat accumulation (the possible exception is QT-
408 2012-18; see below). Most cores show an increase in the pollen of trees and shrubs typical of
409 flooded forest such as *Alchornea*, Myrtaceae, and *Ilex* (Parodi and Freitas, 1990; Kalliola et
410 al., 1991; Campbell et al., 1992; Wittman et al., 2006). In the longer cores (QT-2012-9 and
411 QT-2010-1) there appear to be two Myrtaceae phases (e.g. Q9-C), separated by a phase with
412 increased herbaceous vegetation such as Cyperaceae, Pteridophyte spores and, in QT-2012-9,
413 an increase in *Mauritia*-t. The absence of a definite double peak in Myrtaceae and/or *Mauritia*-
414 t. at some core sites is unlikely to be an artefact of the sampling resolution. This variation
415 between sites may indicate that hydrological changes imposed on the site as a whole (e.g.

416 changes in flood amplitude) crossed ecologically-important thresholds at some locations but
417 not others; for example, undulations in the peatland surface topography would create areas of
418 varying flood depth. In support of this argument, for the earlier peak in *Mauritia-t.*, where it
419 occurs, grain size data suggest more variation in the ratios of *Mauritia* to *Mauritiella* in the
420 different sequences for this earlier peak than for the later one. The differences in the ecology
421 of these taxa are not well understood but our field observations suggest that they have subtly
422 different edaphic and/or hydrological preferences. In particular, observations made by the
423 authors in the field suggest that *Mauritiella armata* is more abundant in more deeply flooded
424 environments than those in which *Mauritia flexuosa* is dominant; it has been suggested that
425 *Mauritiella* occurs where flood amplitude is greater than 1–2 m (Junk et al., 2015).

426 At the southernmost site, QT-2012-18, which returned a relatively late date for peat initiation
427 (1952–2111 cal yr BP), loss-on-ignition values remain below 90% in zone Q18-B indicating
428 that there may also have been some continued sediment input, and perhaps deep/prolonged
429 flooding. The vegetation during this phase remained more open than in the other records, with
430 e.g. *Psychotria* (shrubs and small trees; Gentry, 1993) and Poaceae. In contrast to QT-2010-1,
431 there is no strong evidence in this sequence for a separate seasonally flooded hard-wood forest
432 phase; if one occurred, it must have been brief.

433 *Phase IV: Mixed palm swamp*

434 During this phase peat accumulation occurred under vegetation dominated by mixed palm trees
435 or, at the location of QT-2010-1, mixed *Mauritia-t.* and *Ilex*. The occurrence of mixed *Mauritia*
436 *flexuosa* and *Euterpe precatoria* forest is common today in permanently waterlogged areas
437 flooded by black water (Parodi and Freitas, 1990; Kvist and Nebel, 2001). The expansion of
438 *Mauritia-t.* appears more gradual in the lake core than in most of the peat cores but it shares a
439 step-like expansion from c. 10% to 20%, dated to 541–707 cal yr BP, with an expansion dated
440 to 566–676 cal yr BP recorded in QT-2012-9, the closest peat core to the present lake margin.
441 This *Mauritia* expansion is later than that recorded in the other peat cores from the site (Figure
442 8), which centres around c. 1000 cal yr BP, and may mean that the increase in *Mauritia-t.*
443 pollen in the lake record most closely reflects an expansion of *Mauritia* directly around the
444 lake margins and resulting direct pollen deposition.

445 Elsewhere in Amazonia increased *Mauritia* abundance has been attributed to deliberate
446 burning, such as in the Gran Sabana (Rull and Montoya, 2014). At Quistococha the very low
447 concentrations of charcoal in the peat profiles suggest there was no *in situ* burning and that fire

448 did not play a role in the rise of *Mauritia* in this peatland (also see Roucoux et al., 2013), despite
449 its potential resource value for those inhabiting the adjacent archaeological site (Hiraoka,
450 1999). However, to the east of the lake there is some evidence that the expansion of palms (e.g.
451 Q10-D) may have followed a brief period of natural disturbance (e.g. Q10-C), as evidenced by
452 the abundance of *Cecropia* and *Ficus*, both associated with early stages of riparian succession
453 (Salo et al., 1986; Weng et al., 2004). In all of the peat cores, the increase in *Mauritia*-t.
454 coincides with a peak in pollen and phytolith concentrations (Fig. 4), a feature also seen at
455 another peatland in the region (at San Jorge, c. 30 km to the SSE of here) at about the same
456 time (Kelly et al., 2017b). This may indicate a period of slow organic matter accumulation, as
457 identified in the San Jorge sequence, but higher resolution dating will be required to test this
458 proposal. Towards the latter part of this stage *Tabebuia* t. pollen becomes consistently present
459 in several of the records probably representing *T. insignis* which today is very abundant at the
460 site but which appears to be a poor pollen producer as it is under-represented in core-top and
461 surface sample pollen assemblages (Kelly, 2015).

462 There is a difference in the forest composition between the shallow and deep peat areas, with
463 *Mauritia*-t. being less abundant and *Euterpe*-t. more abundant on the areas of thinner peat (cf.
464 Q9-E and Q10-C). There are two potential explanations. Firstly, the thin peat areas may have
465 been more poorly drained; peat pools may have been more extensive in areas where the peat
466 was thin and the surface was in closer proximity to the impermeable substrate (e.g. Comas et
467 al., 2004). Secondly, the difference could be explained by greater nutrient availability in
468 shallow peat (Frolking et al., 2010). For example, in QT-2012-10, a maximum of c. 70 cm of
469 peat (not accounting for subsequent decay and compression) would have underlain the mixed
470 palm swamp when it became established. The peat may have been shallow enough (<1 m) to
471 allow nutrients transported in groundwater or leached from the mineral substrate to have
472 reached the root-zone (Comas et al., 2004; Frolking et al., 2010).

473 *Phase V: Mauritia flexuosa*-dominated palm swamp (*Aguajal*)

474 In the final phase the pollen records all show a degree of consistency with *Mauritia*-t., likely
475 representing mixed populations of *Mauritia* and *Mauritiella* in most cases, becoming
476 increasingly dominant over other taxa such as *Euterpe* and *Ilex* (e.g. QT10-D, QT18-D). By
477 this point (c. 400 cal yr BP onwards; Table 1), the accumulation of peat had progressed to the
478 point where the topographic variation across most of the site had probably been subdued – as
479 seen at the site today – and the vegetation was everywhere isolated from the mineral substrate.
480 It is possible that this autogenic process has led to the convergence of vegetation composition

481 across the site which, at least along the transects we walked, is now dominated by *Mauritia*
482 *flexuosa*, *Mauritiella armata*- and *Tabebuia insignis*.

483 In the lake sediment core there is an increase in *Cecropia* pollen from c. 20% to > 40% in the
484 uppermost pollen zone which is not seen across the five records from the peatland itself. This
485 feature likely reflects human impact and forest clearance on the terrace above the lake in recent
486 decades (Kelly et al., 2018).

487 **5.2 Implications for Amazonian peatland formation**

488 The multi-core study of Quistococha provides important insights into the spatial development
489 of the peatland and its vegetation; a feature of tropical peatlands that has only rarely been
490 examined (e.g. Anderson, 1961; Phillips and Bustin, 1996). Following abandonment of the site
491 by the Amazon, at least three scenarios for the infilling of the Quistococha basin with peat
492 could be advanced: (i) Establishment of an oxbow lake and its gradual infilling by
493 terrestrialization, from the edges towards the centre (as envisaged by Kalliola et al. 1991a on
494 the basis of modern analogues); (ii) peat initiation at one site (perhaps the deepest), followed
495 by slow lateral spread through paludification; (iii) primary mire formation across a waterlogged
496 surface (see Sjörs, 1983). As discussed above, the basal peat dates indicate that at all but one
497 of the locations we have sampled, peat began to accumulate within a window of c. 500 years.
498 Unless peat could spread laterally over two kilometres within this interval, this would suggest
499 that the third scenario is most likely. It seems that as soon as regular flooding from the Amazon
500 ceased, organic material began to accumulate everywhere in the basin within 500 years, albeit
501 with a slight lag towards the southern part of the site relative to areas closer to the lake. C/N
502 ratios, lignin concentrations (Lawson et al., 2014; Kelly et al., 2018) and palynology all indicate
503 that the organic material was dominantly terrestrial in origin from the outset, rather than
504 organic-rich lake sediment (gyttja).

505 Many northern peatlands studies have shown continued, gradual (if episodic) expansion over
506 the course of thousands of years (e.g. Bauer et al., 2003; Anderson et al., 2003; Ireland and
507 Booth, 2011; Ireland et al., 2013). In some cases this expansion occurs across distances of 100–
508 200 metres in around ten thousand years (e.g. Anderson et al., 2003). By contrast, the narrow
509 window of peat initiation at Quistococha suggests that lateral expansion in the transects we
510 studied was limited to the southern part of the site (across a distance of c. 500 m) and lasted no
511 more than a few centuries. This suggests that primary mire formation is a more likely
512 mechanism of peatland development in this case, with peat accumulation ‘switching on’ almost

513 simultaneously (within a 500 year window) in different areas. The persistence of the lake to
514 the present day remains unexplained. It may occupy the deepest part of the basin, though this
515 requires confirmation. Apart from a small area of sedge mat vegetation there is no evidence
516 that it is undergoing terrestrialization; its shore consists in most places of a low cliff in the peat,
517 bound by tree roots. It is possible that the lake has been kept open by a combination of a lack
518 of macrophytic vegetation and by wave erosion (cf. Heinselman, 1963).

519 As a palm swamp peatland, Quistococha falls within the most abundant category (by area) of
520 peatland in the PMFB recognised by Draper et al. (2014), but the extent to which the history
521 of Quistococha is typical of other PMFB floodplain peatlands remains to be fully explored.
522 Similar multiple-core palaeoenvironmental studies are also needed for raised mires, which are
523 *a priori* likely to show different long-term spatial patterns. The pollen data from a single core
524 from the domed site of San Jorge peatland, 30 km south of Quistococha, showed an
525 unexpectedly complex pattern of change through time, including apparent ‘reversals’ in the
526 succession (Kelly et al. 2017). Further work is needed to clarify the roles of fluvial action and
527 regional climate change in the development of PMFB peatland ecosystems, particularly in
528 terms of understanding the sensitivity of their carbon storage function. Reconstructions of
529 water table changes based on testate amoebae transfer functions have suggested that at least
530 one Peruvian peatland has responded substantially to recent climatically-driven hydrological
531 changes (Swindles et al., 2018).

532 ***5.3 The influence of peatland substrate topography on vegetation***

533 In regions where the ratio of precipitation to evaporation is not extremely high, peatlands are
534 typically ‘depressional’ (Ireland et al., 2013), i.e. a waterlogged basin is required for peat to
535 begin accumulating (Lähteenoja et al., 2009, 2012; Householder et al., 2012). To date, peat in
536 lowland Amazonia has only been observed in depressional settings such as floodplains or forest
537 hollows (Lähteenoja et al., 2009, 2013; Householder et al., 2012). In depressional peatlands
538 elsewhere, basin shape has been shown to exert a strong influence on the development of the
539 peatland and its associated vegetation (e.g. Walker, 1970; Anderson et al., 2003; Lavoie et al.,
540 2013; Ireland et al., 2013).

541 Householder et al. (2012) argued that the underlying substrate topography of peatlands
542 covering abandoned channels, swales and ridges in Madre de Dios, Peru, likely contributes to
543 spatial variation in vegetation communities. For example, palm forest on deep peat often grades
544 into open swamp on shallow peat. The pollen data from Quistococha show that deeper areas of

545 the site have been occupied by different vegetation to shallow areas through time, which is
546 consistent with the observation of Householder et al. (2012). For example, shallower areas of
547 peat have a more prominent mixed Arecaceae phase (e.g. QT-2012-10, QT-2012-18). As the
548 basin fills with peat, topographic variations should be largely smoothed out, potentially driving
549 a long-term trend towards greater homogeneity (with a decreasing variety of vegetation
550 assemblages across different parts of the site). This seems to have occurred during Phase IV at
551 Quistococha.

552 Although there are pronounced similarities in the pollen records from the different peat cores
553 (NMDS biplots (Figure 7) show that all the sequences show a similar change from samples
554 dominated by Cecropiaceae and Cyperaceae, to Myrtaceae-dominated samples, to samples rich
555 in *Mauritia-t* pollen), there are also variations in vegetation communities between cores. These
556 can be seen in the varied trajectories of the NMDS plots. Palynological differences between
557 cores are greater in the lower and middle pollen zones than in the upper-most zones; examples
558 include the peak in Melastomataceae/Combretaceae in QT-2011-2 (Q2-B), and the pronounced
559 peaks in *Euterpe-t.* pollen in QT-2012-10 and QT-2012-18 relative to QT-2010-1 where
560 *Euterpe-t.* pollen remains <10% throughout. Similarly, Myrtaceae pollen remains <5%
561 throughout QT-2012-18, whereas all of the other cores contain a Myrtaceae phase.

562 The transport distance for the pollen entering the peat cores was likely low except during the
563 initial phases of site development (Phase I & II), where the presence of herbaceous taxa
564 (Poaceae, Cyperaceae) suggests a more open canopy. The lake core (QT-2010-3) contains high
565 percentages of *Cecropia* (15-25%) and Moraceae (15-30%) pollen throughout the last 2500
566 years, likely representing the abundance of these pollen types in the regional pollen rain (Kelly
567 et al., 2018). The absence of these in similar quantities in the later pollen zones from the peat
568 cores suggests that the canopy was closed at this time, and therefore that the pollen source area
569 for the peat cores was relatively low (10s of metres). Thus, the palynological differences
570 between cores likely reflect genuinely greater spatial heterogeneity in the vegetation during the
571 earlier history of the peatland than in the last 200 years to the present day. This in part reflects
572 the increasing palynological dominance of *Mauritia-t.* at all sites through time. Today, the
573 vegetation across the site is dominated by *M. flexuosa*, *M. armata* and *T. insignis* var.
574 *monophylla*, and appears in remote sensing imagery to be rather uniform at the 100 m scale
575 across most of the site.

576 One potential mechanism linking peat depth to vegetation composition is the declining access
577 of plant roots to the nutrient resources of mineral substrate as the peat thickens. This mechanism
578 is used in, for example, the Holocene Peat Model (Frolking et al., 2010) to drive plant
579 succession as the peat accumulates. The contribution of the mineral substrate to peatland
580 nutrient budgets has not been studied in tropical contexts, although geochemical analysis of the
581 sediments at Quistococha has shown that they contain an abundance of essential plant nutrients
582 such as potassium (Lawson et al., 2014). However, even if this substrate nutrient pool is
583 important, peatland hydrology, which controls the flux of nutrients to and within the peatland,
584 is likely to be affected by the subsurface and surface topographies in complex ways that involve
585 feedbacks between the peat and the vegetation operating over multiple temporal and spatial
586 scales. Subsurface flow will be affected by buried features such as the curvilinear ridges typical
587 of fossilized meanders (Kalliola et al., 1991a), and by variations in the hydraulic conductivity
588 of the peat, which in turn is likely to depend on its botanical composition and degree of
589 decomposition (Kelly et al., 2014). The topography of the peat surface may be partly inherited
590 from the substrate, and further modified by (*inter alia*) tree buttresses, coarse litter fall, and
591 tree tip-ups (Dommain et al., 2014). In broad terms, complex surface topography translates to
592 heterogeneity in hydrological and geochemical environments, but it also affects the hydrology
593 of the site as a whole by e.g. reducing the rate of surface runoff. At a finer scale,
594 microtopographic variation, such as the leaf hummocks produced by *Mauritia*, is likely to
595 affect succession in tropical peatlands, just as it does in peatlands elsewhere in the world (e.g.
596 Økland et al., 2008; Harris and Baird, 2019). The significance of these different processes in
597 driving ecological patterning in time and space, and thereby in driving trends in alpha and beta
598 diversity through time, should be a focus for future tropical peatland research.

599 ***5.4 Challenges with modelling peat carbon accumulation***

600 The present study has highlighted three specific challenges for the numerical modelling of
601 long-term carbon accumulation rates in Amazonian peatlands:

- 602 i) Variation in vegetation types across the site through time means that net primary
603 productivity (NPP), the main input for carbon accumulation equations, may also
604 vary substantially (Lawson et al., 2015). Detailed field measurements from a range
605 of vegetation types will be needed to assess the extent of this variation.
- 606 ii) The undulating substrate topography means that modelling water table depth, one
607 of the main factors affecting aerobic respiration rates (and hence peat decay), is
608 more complicated than if the basin had a simpler geometry.

609 iii) Different parts of the site were subject to varying sediment input, particularly during
610 the early stages of peat accumulation. This has the effect of increasing carbon
611 accumulation rates during the period before pure peat initiation (Lähteenoja et al.,
612 2009) through incorporation and rapid burial of organic matter at low percentages
613 but higher accumulation rates.

614 The past carbon accumulation of the peatland at Quistococha and four others (San Jorge,
615 Aucayacu, Charo, Riñon) was modelled by Wang et al. (2018) as a means of testing the
616 capacity of peat models to predict future carbon accumulation. Of the five peatlands, the model
617 for Quistococha appears to compare most favourably with the palaeoenvironmental data, with
618 relatively little divergence between modelled and measured soil organic carbon accumulation
619 rates. The other peatlands diverge substantially in the early part of their development (0-500
620 years after peat initiation), with models generally underestimating carbon accumulation. The
621 divergence between the modelled and the observed carbon accumulation at San Jorge is likely
622 to be explained by the input of sediment in the lower part of the core, which appears to result
623 in a higher C accumulation rate prior to start of pure peat accumulation (see Lähteenoja et al.,
624 2009; Kelly et al., 2016). As such, the data from the present study suggest that the agreement
625 between the modelled and observed carbon accumulation rate at Quistococha may be largely
626 coincidental, as cores taken from across the site have varying peat accumulation rates (Table
627 3). A similar mis-match to that found for San Jorge may be found for points across Quistococha,
628 such as core QT-2012-9, which also has a thick layer of ‘muck’ (<65% LOI) underlying the
629 peat above.

630 The present study illustrates the problem with building one-dimensional models which treat a
631 large peatland, around 500 hectares in area (or larger in many cases), as though it were a single
632 point, with uniform vegetation and hydrology that do not change through time. These
633 assumptions are proved to be incorrect by palaeoecological data which indicate that, for
634 example at San Jorge or Quistococha, a point in the peatland which is occupied by palm swamp
635 vegetation at the present day can easily have been a sedge-fern fen or a seasonally-flooded
636 forest in the past (Kelly et al., 2017b). Such spatial and temporal variation may explain much
637 of the divergence between simulated and observed soil carbon accumulation rates (Wang et al.,
638 2018). Further research on spatio-temporal patterns in Amazonian peatland development will
639 help to quantify the inevitable uncertainties in model outputs, and may provide insights (e.g.
640 identification of common developmental patterns) which help to refine our ability to
641 reconstruct and predict carbon accumulation through numerical modelling.

642 **6. Conclusions**

643 Our multiple-core study from Quistococha indicates that, at this site, the multiple-core
644 approach yields greater certainty over the pattern of vegetation change observed in previous
645 studies, provides considerable additional detail on spatial variations through time, enables us
646 to discriminate between different models of peatland development, and indicates the challenges
647 associated with computer modelling of peat accumulation. Following abandonment of a
648 meander bend by the River Amazon before c. 3500 cal yr BP, clayey silts were deposited across
649 the site by floodwaters presumably originating from the Amazon. Peat began to accumulate at
650 our sampling points across the present-day peatland between 1900-2400 cal yr BP. The
651 vegetation at the site was apparently more heterogeneous during earlier phases (Phase III &
652 IV) of the peatland history than it is today; the modern peatland forest is currently dominated
653 by three tree species. It is however possible that heterogeneity in vegetation across the site may
654 increase again in the future if the site becomes domed, with vegetation zones like those seen at
655 sites such as San Jorge establishing themselves. In contrast to previously published models of
656 tropical peatland development in more geomorphologically stable contexts, our results
657 emphasize the varying influence of the Amazon as a major control on vegetation development
658 and, by extension, carbon storage on this floodplain peatland. We recommend that future
659 palaeoecological studies on PMFB peatlands, and beyond, should take seriously the need for
660 replication and exploit the rich potential of spatially-explicit palaeoecology by using a
661 multiple-core approach. This is particularly so in tropical peatlands, where the forest canopy
662 limits long distance transport of pollen to the core site. There are obvious additional costs in
663 terms of time and money, but these can be mitigated by reducing the sampling resolution or
664 counting fewer pollen grains per sample in secondary sequences. Future work should seek to
665 test whether peatlands elsewhere on tropical floodplains show similar developmental patterns,
666 and should investigate in more detail the interactions between substrate and surface
667 topography, hydrology, geochemistry, and vegetation, in the course of tropical peatland
668 development. Within-site heterogeneity has important implications for modelling future carbon
669 accumulation which cannot be ignored.

670

671 **Supporting Information**

672 Additional supporting information can be found in the online version of this article.

673 **Data Availability**

674 Datasets related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/fw2fn6z25p.1> an
675 open-source online data repository hosted at Mendeley Data (Kelly et al., 2020).

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837 Plukenetieae (Haematostemon, Astrococcus, Angostyles, Romanoa, Eleutherostigma,
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915 **Tables**

916 **Table 1:** Key details of the developmental phases reconstructed for the Quistococha lake and
 917 peatland from the six palaeoecological records for the site and the basal dates on six other cores.
 918 Chr. = the basis for the chronology of each phase (symbols given beneath table). Pollen zones
 919 with a ‘QT1’ prefix refer to Roucoux et al. (2013). In contrast to normal geological convention,
 920 the oldest phase is given at the top.

Phase	Summary	Timing
I. Amazon floodplain	The Quistococha basin was abandoned as an active meander of the Amazon sometime before 4500 cal yr BP, but regular flooding by the Amazon continued to dominate deposition until c. 2400 cal yr BP. Indicator taxa: <i>Cecropia</i> , Cyperaceae Pollen zones: Q9-A, QT1-A (Q3-A in lake core).	4,500–2,400 cal yr BP Chr.: R, L
II. Herbaceous sedge fen	Peat initiated in the area within 800 m of the lake aided by the impermeable clay substrate. Pollen evidence indicates largely herbaceous vegetation with abundant Cyperaceae at this time. Some cores contain pollen which suggests the presence of taller trees (e.g. Anacardiaceae in QT-2011-2). The peatland expanded to cover the southern part of the site through ‘primary mire formation’ as the influence of the river declined. <i>Symmeria paniculata</i> , a small tree tolerant of deep flooding, was prevalent across large parts of the site. Indicator taxa: <i>Symmeria paniculata</i> , <i>Adelobotrys-t.</i> , <i>Begonia</i> , <i>Cecropia</i> , Cyperaceae, <i>Brosimum</i> , Moraceae, <i>Maquira-t.</i> Pollen zones: Q2-A, Q9-B, Q10-A, Q18-A, QT1-B, QT-3	1,900–2,400 cal yr BP Chr.: P, R
III. Mixed angiosperm flooded forest	The site continued to be flooded annually, as indicated by the presence of Myrtaceae. Shrubby taxa were prevalent across the site, especially Rubiaceae types such as <i>Psychotria</i> . Increase of <i>Mauritia-t.</i> in the lake core is interpreted as the result of <i>Mauritia</i> stands along the western lake margin. Indicator taxa: Myrtaceae, <i>Coussapoa</i> , Rubiaceae, Rubiaceae (type 2), Mel./Comb., <i>Adelobotrys-t.</i> , <i>Psychotria-t.</i> , <i>Brosimum</i> . Pollen zones: Q2-B, Q9-C, Q10-A, Q18-B, QT1-C, QT1-D	1,900–1,100 cal yr BP [remnant around the lake until 566-678 cal yr BP] Chr.: P, R

IV. Mixed palm swamp	<p><i>Euterpe</i>-t. pollen phases are seen across the site, particularly in shallow peat areas (e.g. QT-2012-10, QT-2012-18). <i>Mauritia</i> and <i>Mauritiella</i> are both abundant across the site, especially in deeper peat areas (e.g. QT-2010-1). A second expansion of mixed palm swamp along the eastern lake margin was related to the delayed terrestrialisation of this area, and it is inferred that Myrtaceae and other flood tolerant taxa also lingered until this transition (Myrtaceae, although low in abundance, declines in the lake core c. 650 cal yr BP).</p> <p>Indicator taxa: <i>Euterpe</i>-t., <i>Symphonia globulifera</i>, <i>Alchornea</i>, <i>Ilex</i>.</p> <p>Pollen zones: Q2-C, Q9-D & Q9-E, Q10-C, Q18-C, QT1-E</p>	<p>1,100–400 cal yr BP [second expansion: 566-678 cal yr BP] Chr.: P, R</p>
V. Mauritia-dominated palm swamp	<p>The site approached its present day form, with <i>Mauritia</i> and <i>Mauritiella</i> both very abundant. <i>Tabebuia</i> is found during Phase IV, but becomes more abundant in some cores during Phase V. There is less variation in the vegetation between shallow and deep peat areas.</p> <p>Indicator taxa: <i>Mauritia</i>-t., <i>Tabebuia</i>-t., Bombacaceae.</p> <p>Pollen zones: Q2-D, Q9-E, Q10-D, Q18-D, QT1-F</p>	<p>400 cal yr BP – present Chr.: R, L</p>

L: Lake core R: QT-2010-1 (Roucoux et al., 2013) P: Peat cores, this study

922 **Table 2:** Radiocarbon age determinations for Quistococha peat cores. AMS radiocarbon dates
 923 were obtained from the NERC facility at East Kilbride. Calibration was undertaken using the
 924 INTCAL13 curve. All samples are the < 180 µm peat fraction. (*Sample inferred to have been
 925 affected by young carbon contamination from root penetration.) Four dates were targeted
 926 specifically at dating the main increase in *Mauritia-t.* pollen, and three at the lower peak in
 927 *Mauritia-t* (marked ψ) seen in some of the cores studied (see Figure 4).

928

Core	Laboratory code	Depth (cm)	¹⁴ C age (yrs BP)	s.d.	δ ¹³ C	Calibrated age (cal yr BP)
Peat basal dates						
QT-2011-1*	SUERC-44988	130	859	37	-30.3	709-891
QT-2011-2 ψ	SUERC-44989	196	2155	35	-30.1	2067-2301
QT-2011-3	SUERC-44990	178	2234	37	-16.1	2159-2325
QT-2011-4	SUERC-44991	352	2253	35	-29.8	2181-2337
QT-2011-5	SUERC-44992	226	1988	37	-30.7	1897-1987
QT-2011-6	SUERC-44995	320	2061	37	-30.2	1953-2109
QT-2011-7	SUERC-44996	262	2228	35	-29.7	2159-2315
QT-2012-9	SUERC-54428	256	2,324	41	-29.6	2209-2315
QT-2012-10 ψ	SUERC-54429	180	2,290	41	-30.8	2186-2352
QT-2012-18	SUERC-54432	144	2,059	41	-30.3	1952-2111
Main <i>Mauritia-t.</i> increase						
QT-2011-2	SUERC-54423	130	1,164	40	-30.0	1008-1174
QT-2012-9	SUERC-54424	96	684	39	-30.1	566-676
QT-2012-10	SUERC-54425	112	1,144	40	-31.2	978-1172
QT-2012-18	SUERC-54426	96	1,030	41	-30.7	916-980
Lower <i>Mauritia-t.</i> peak (also ψ above)						
QT-2012-9	SUERC-54427	192	1,771	41	-29.5	1615-1733

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930

931 **Table 3:** Peat accumulation rates derived from peat basal dates

Core	Peat accumulation rate (mm/yr)	
	Maximum	Minimum
QT-2011-1	1.69	1.37
QT-2011-2	0.92	0.83
QT-2011-3	0.80	0.75
QT-2011-4	1.57	1.47
QT-2011-5	1.15	1.10
QT-2011-6	1.59	1.47
QT-2011-7	1.18	1.10
QT-2012-9	1.13	1.08
QT-2012-10	0.80	0.75
QT-2012-18	0.71	0.66
Average	1.15	1.06
Standard deviation	0.357	0.306

932

933 **Table 4:** Pollen assemblage zone summary descriptions for QT-2011-2. A summary of the
 934 palm phytolith data has also been provided. Zones have been shown in stratigraphic order (i.e.
 935 the uppermost pollen zone is at the top of the table). A summary of the palm phytolith data has
 936 also been provided. Indications of abundance refer to the maximum phytolith concentrations
 937 in a given zone, where ‘extremely abundant’ corresponds to >200,000 phytoliths cm⁻³,
 938 ‘present’ corresponds to >5,000 phytoliths cm⁻³, and ‘rare’ corresponds to < 1,000 phytoliths
 939 cm⁻³. Phytoliths were not recorded in the basal zone due to HF treatment.

940

Zone (depths)	Pollen assemblage zone characteristics
Q2-D (91-16 cm)	<i>Mauritia</i> t. peaks in this zone (79%) and is the dominant taxon. <i>Alchornea</i> sp. declines to ≤ 10% from its peak values in the zone below. Amongst the minor taxa, <i>Amanoa</i> sp. peaks in this zone (4%). <i>Tabebuia</i> t. is consistently present, but remains uncommon (max. 2%). Spores: <i>Nephrolepis</i> sp. is abundant and increases towards to the top of this zone where it peaks at 70%. Palm phytoliths: extremely abundant
Q2-C (138-91 cm)	<i>Euterpe</i> t. increases to its peak at the base of the zone (20%) before declining to 10% at the top of the zone. <i>Mauritia</i> t. exceeds 25%. Amongst the minor types, <i>Symphonia globulifera</i> is consistently present. Moraceae undiff declines to ≤ 5% from its peak in the zone below. Spores: <i>Selaginella</i> sp. peaks in this zone 8%. Palm phytoliths: extremely abundant
Q2-B (220-138 cm)	<i>Dalbergia/Machaerium</i> t. (12%), Melastomataceae/Combretaceae undiff (30%), Moraceae undiff. (11%), Myrtaceae undiff (10%), Psychotria t. (14%), and Rubiaceae Type I-34 (8%) all peak in this zone. <i>Mauritia</i> t. pollen exceeds 5% for the first time (10%). Amongst the rare types, <i>Alibertia</i> t. peaks at the base of this zone (5%). <i>Ilex</i> sp. and <i>Macrolobium</i> sp. also peak in this zone but do not exceed 5%. Spores: Monolete fern spores peak in this zone (25%). Algal spores are present in low numbers towards the base of the zone. Palm phytoliths: present
Q2-A (232-220 cm)	<i>Symmeria paniculata</i> (44%), <i>Ficus</i> sp. (15%), Cyperaceae (11%), and Anacardiaceae (36%) all peak in this zone. <i>Cecropia</i> sp. increases from 2% to 18% at the top of this zone. Spores: Fern spores are all low in abundance (< 6%). Palm phytoliths: all samples in zone HF treated

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942 **Table 5:** Pollen assemblage zone summary descriptions for QT-2012-9. A summary of the
 943 palm phytolith data has also been provided (see caption for Table 4).

Zone (depths)	Pollen assemblage zone characteristics
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Q9-E (16-104 cm)	<p><i>Mauritia</i> t. expands from 5% in the zone below to its peak of 63% at 32 cm. <i>Euterpe</i> t. peaks at the base of this zone (13%) before declining to < 1% towards the surface. <i>Alchornea</i> sp. is also abundant and peaks at 64 cm (15%). <i>Luehea</i> t. (max. 6%) and Type Z-9 (max. 10%) also peak in the lower part of this zone. <i>Ficus</i> sp. is abundant in the lowermost sample in this zone (max. 16%) but declines to less than 1% at 16 cm. Spores: <i>Nephrolepis</i> sp. expands markedly towards the top of this zone (max. 43%). <i>Selaginella</i> sp. peaks towards the base of this zone (23%). Palm phytoliths: extremely abundant</p>
Q9-D (104-120 cm)	<p>This zone consists of a single sample and is characterised by a peak in <i>Ficus</i> sp. (70%). <i>Mauritia</i> t. is also present but in relatively low proportions (< 10%), and <i>Euterpe</i> t. is also present (max. 9%). Palm phytoliths: present</p>
Q9-C (120-232 cm)	<p>Myrtaceae has two definable peaks in this zone at 224 cm (28%) and 144 cm (15%). Several Rubiaceae types are moderately abundant in this zone; <i>Psychotria</i> t. peaks at 144 cm (13%), <i>Sabicea</i> t. peaks at 224 cm (16%), and Type I-34 peaks at 128 cm (16%). Cyperaceae is present but generally remains below 10%, except for a peak at 160 cm (53%). Poaceae remains moderately abundant (max. 8%). <i>Alchornea</i> sp. is consistently present (5-10%). Amongst the minor taxa, Malpighiaceae (5%) and <i>Pouzolzia</i> t. (5%) both peak in this zone. <i>Pistia stratiotes</i> is most common in this zone but does not exceed 10%. Spores: Both monolete spores and <i>Nephrolepis</i> sp. peak in this zone (70% and 64% respectively). Palm phytoliths: present</p>
Q9-B (232-340)	<p>Cyperaceae peaks in this zone and exceeds 10% throughout, but its abundance is variable (10-57%). Poaceae is also moderately abundant and peaks in this zone (17%). <i>Alibertia</i> t. is generally low in abundance but peaks in this zone (11%). Amongst the minor types, <i>Mimosa</i> sp. is present in low number (max 4.5%) towards the top of this zone. Spores: The fern <i>Pityrogramma</i> sp. peaks and is consistently present. Algal spores remain abundant throughout the lower half of this zone. Palm phytoliths: present</p>
Q9-A (340-344)	<p>This zone consists of a single sample and is dominated by the pollen of <i>Cecropia</i> sp., which peaks in this zone (91%). Poaceae, Asteraceae, Cyperaceae and <i>Alchornea</i> sp. are all present but in low abundance (< 5%). Spores: Algal spores are most abundant in this zone. Palm phytoliths: Sample HF treated (no data)</p>

944

945 **Table 6:** Pollen assemblage zone summary descriptions for QT-2012-10. A summary of the
 946 palm phytolith data has also been provided (see caption for Table 4).

947

Zone (depths)	Pollen assemblage zone characteristics
Q10-D (16-72 cm)	<p><i>Mauritia</i> t. peaks in this zone (77%) and is the dominant taxon. <i>Cecropia</i> sp. and <i>Alchornea</i> sp. are moderately abundant throughout, but do not exceed 10% and 13% respectively. <i>Euterpe</i> t. declines from its peak in the zone below to < 5%. Amongst the rare types, <i>Tabebuia</i> t. is consistently present and peaks at the top of this zone (5%). Spores: Trilete spores are abundant throughout and reach their peak of 12%. Palm phytoliths: extremely abundant</p>
Q10-C (72-120 cm)	<p><i>Euterpe</i> t. increases from 26% to its peak (63%) at the top of this zone and is the dominant taxon. <i>Mauritia</i> t. exceeds 25% for the first time (max. 41%). <i>Luehea</i> t. peaks at 7%, and there is also a peak in Type Z-9 (24%). Palm phytoliths: extremely abundant</p>

Q10-B (120-136 cm) This zone consists of a single sample and is marked by the high abundance of *Cecropia* sp., which peaks in this zone (64%). *Psychotria* t. peaks in this zone (6%), and Type I-34 (max. 7%) is also moderately abundant. Amongst the minor taxa, Myrtaceae (max. 2%) and Asteraceae (max. 3%) are also present.
Palm phytoliths: present

Q10-A (136-192 cm) Myrtaceae increases from < 5% to its peak of 20%. *Alchornea* sp. peaks in this zone (14%) and *Psychotria* type is also moderately abundant (6%). *Cecropia* sp. is fairly abundant towards the base of this zone (max. 18%). There is a small peak in *Mauritia* t. at 176 cm (14%). There are also a number of peaks amongst the rarer taxa, such as *Pouzolzia* t. (7%), *Symmeria paniculata* (7%), Asteraceae (6%), and *Adelobotrys* sp. (4%). *Brosimum* sp. and *Ficus* sp. are consistently present but remain ≤ 6% and ≤ 3% respectively. **Spores:** Algal spores are low in abundance but consistently present throughout this zone.
Palm phytoliths: present (note: basal sample HF treated)

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949

950 Table 7: Pollen assemblage zone descriptions for QT-2012-18. Pollen assemblage zone
951 summary descriptions for QT-2012-10. A summary of the palm phytolith data has also been
952 provided (see caption for Table 4). Phytoliths were not recorded in the basal zone due to HF
953 treatment.

Zone (depths)	Pollen assemblage zone characteristics
Q18-D (56-16 cm)	<i>Mauritia</i> t. peaks in the top two samples of this zone (70%), but <i>Euterpe</i> t. pollen declines from its high values in the zone below to < 3%. Both <i>Alchornea</i> sp. and <i>Cecropia</i> sp. remain present but do not exceed 10%. Amongst the more minor taxa both <i>Amanoa</i> sp. (4%) and <i>Tabebuia</i> t. (3%) attain their peak abundance. Spores: Trilete spores peak in this zone (8%). Palm phytoliths: extremely abundant
Q18-C (104-56 cm)	<i>Euterpe</i> t. peaks in this zone, and <i>Mauritia</i> t. exceeds 25% for the first time (max. 55%). <i>Alchornea</i> sp. also peaks at the top of this zone (19%). Amongst the minor taxa, <i>Ficus</i> sp. exceeds 1% throughout. <i>Cecropia</i> sp. attains its lowest value in the whole of the core at the base of this zone. Palm phytoliths: extremely abundant
Q18-B (140-104 cm)	Poaceae (18%), <i>Psychotria</i> t. (23%), <i>Dalbergia/Machaerium</i> t. (8%), small < 12 um Solanaceae (24%) and Solanaceae undiff (30%) all peak within this zone. Cyperaceae is present but declines from its peak in the zone below and remains < 5%. <i>Adelobotrys</i> sp. also declines from its peak in the zone below but remains abundant (max. 10%). Amongst the minor types, this zone sees a peak in <i>Macrolobium</i> sp. (3%). Palm phytoliths: present
Q18-A (160-140 cm)	<i>Symmeria paniculata</i> peaks at the base of this zone (35 %), and is consistently abundant throughout (> 10 %). <i>Adelobotrys</i> (18%), <i>Cecropia</i> sp. (10%), <i>Ficus</i> sp. (7%) And Cyperaceae (9%) also peak in this zone. <i>Mauritia</i> t. and <i>Euterpe</i> t. pollen are present but remain low in abundance. Poaceae is consistently present but remains < 5%. Amongst the minor types, <i>Bactris</i> aff. <i>riparia</i> (3%), <i>Begonia</i> sp. (2%), and Asteraceae (3%) all peak in this zone. Spores: The ferns <i>Nephrolepis</i> sp. and <i>Polypodium</i> t. are most abundant in this zone but both remain < 5%. Algal spores are most abundant in this pollen zone. Palm phytoliths: all samples in zone HF treated

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962 **Figure captions**

963 **Figure 1:** Location of sites discussed in the text. (a) Location of the the Pastaza Maranon
964 Foreland Basin in South America. (b) False-colour Landsat TM image indicating the location
965 of the two lowland Amazonian peatland sites mentioned in the text, Quistococha (Roucoux et
966 al., 2013; present study) and San Jorge (Kelly et al., 2016). The town of Tamshiyacu and city
967 of Iquitos (filled circles) are shown for reference. (c) Inferred Quistococha peatland margins
968 based on Landsat imagery and field observations (dashed line). Dark grey shading shows land
969 over 100 m above sea level, and light grey shading shows the floodplain (elevation c. 90m)
970 inferred from Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) data (<http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org>).

971 **Figure 2:** Core transects indicating peat depth for the peatland at Quistococha. Core points are
972 shown with arrows and those points selected for pollen analysis are labelled. The peatland is
973 underlain by minerogenic sediments (silty clays) as discussed in the text and in Lawson et al.
974 (2014). The surface of the peatland is assumed to be flat.

975 **Figure 3:** Sedimentology of cores QT-2011-2, QT-2012-9, QT-2012-10 and QT-2012-18.
976 Pollen assemblage zones (PAZ) are indicated. See Figure 4 for legend to Troels-Smith
977 symbology.

978 **Figure 4:** Pollen percentage for selected taxa from cores QT-2011-2, QT-2012-9, QT-2012-
979 10 and QT-2012-18. Abbreviations: Comb., Combretaceae; Pap., Papilionaceae; PAZ, pollen
980 assemblage zones; t., type; undiff., undifferentiated.

981 **Figure 5:** *Mauritia*-type grain sizes and pollen and phytolith concentrations for cores QT-
982 2011-2, QT-2012-9, QT-2012-10 and QT-2012-18. The number of *Mauritia*-type grains
983 measured in each sequence (n) is indicated; where more than four grains were measured in a
984 sample, the standard error of the mean is indicated by a horizontal bar. Pollen assemblage zones
985 (PAZ) are indicated. See Figure 4 for legend to Troels-Smith symbology.

986 **Figure 6:** Pollen percentage for selected taxa from cores QT-2010-1 (Roucoux et al., 2013)
987 and QT-2010-3 (Kelly et al., 2018). Abbreviations: Comb., Combretaceae; Pap.,
988 Papilionaceae; PAZ, pollen assemblage zones; t., type; undiff., undifferentiated.

989 **Figure 7:** NMDS biplots for the six pollen records from Quistococha, and the location of taxa
990 in the same space. In each biplot the lowermost sample is indicated by a circle and the

991 uppermost by a square; the samples are linked in stratigraphic order by a line. The taxa shown
992 in Figures 4 and 6 were amalgamated to family level before analysis, except members of the
993 Arecaceae. Abbreviations: Cecrop., Cecropiaceae; Melastom.,
994 Melastomataceae/Combretaceae undifferentiated.

995 **Figure 8:** Probability density functions for basal radiocarbon dates (grey) and for the main
996 increase in *Mauritia-t* pollen (black) for the Quistococha peat cores (including core QT-2010-
997 1 of Roucoux et al., 2013), plotted using OxCal (Bronk Ramsey, 1995; Bronk Ramsey & Lee,
998 2013). Dates have been arranged as a transect, with basal dates from the north of the site at the
999 top and from the south of the site at the bottom. The grey band shows the range of the initiation
1000 dates for the area within 800 m of the lake (Phase I), and the blue band shows the (Phase II)
1001 dates from cores on the more southerly parts of the site. Inset map shows the position of all the
1002 cores taken, with radiocarbon-dated cores marked in black. The green band encompasses the
1003 period of *Mauritia-t* expansion.

1004

Figures

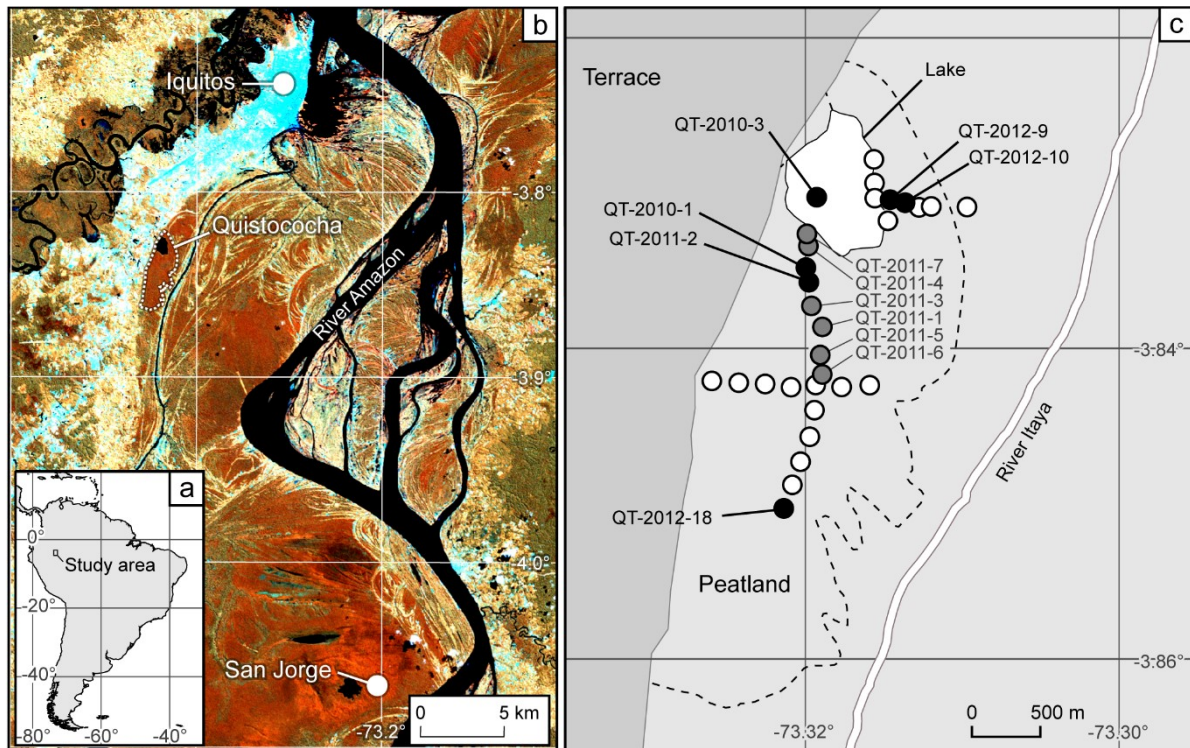


Figure 1

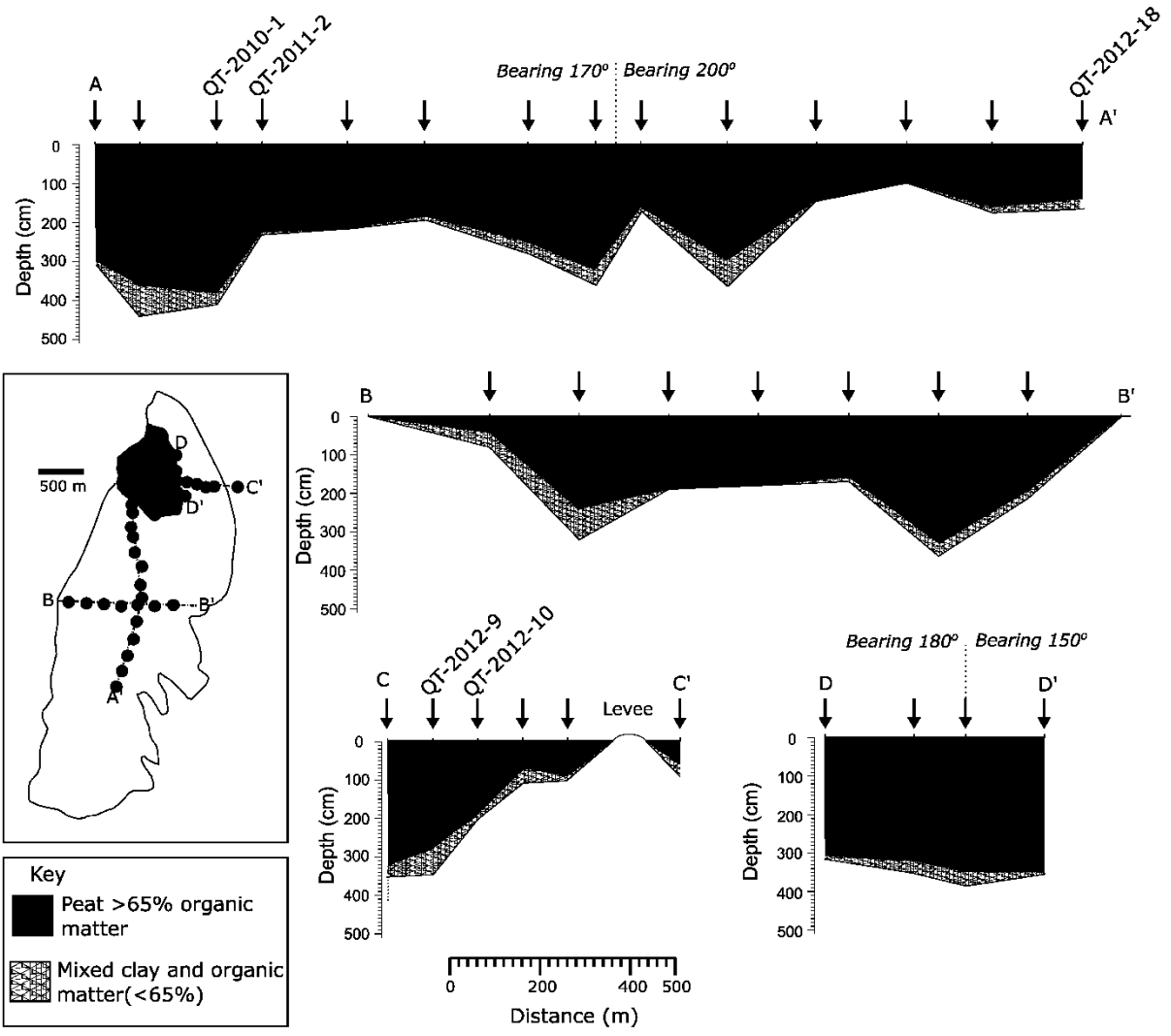


Figure 2

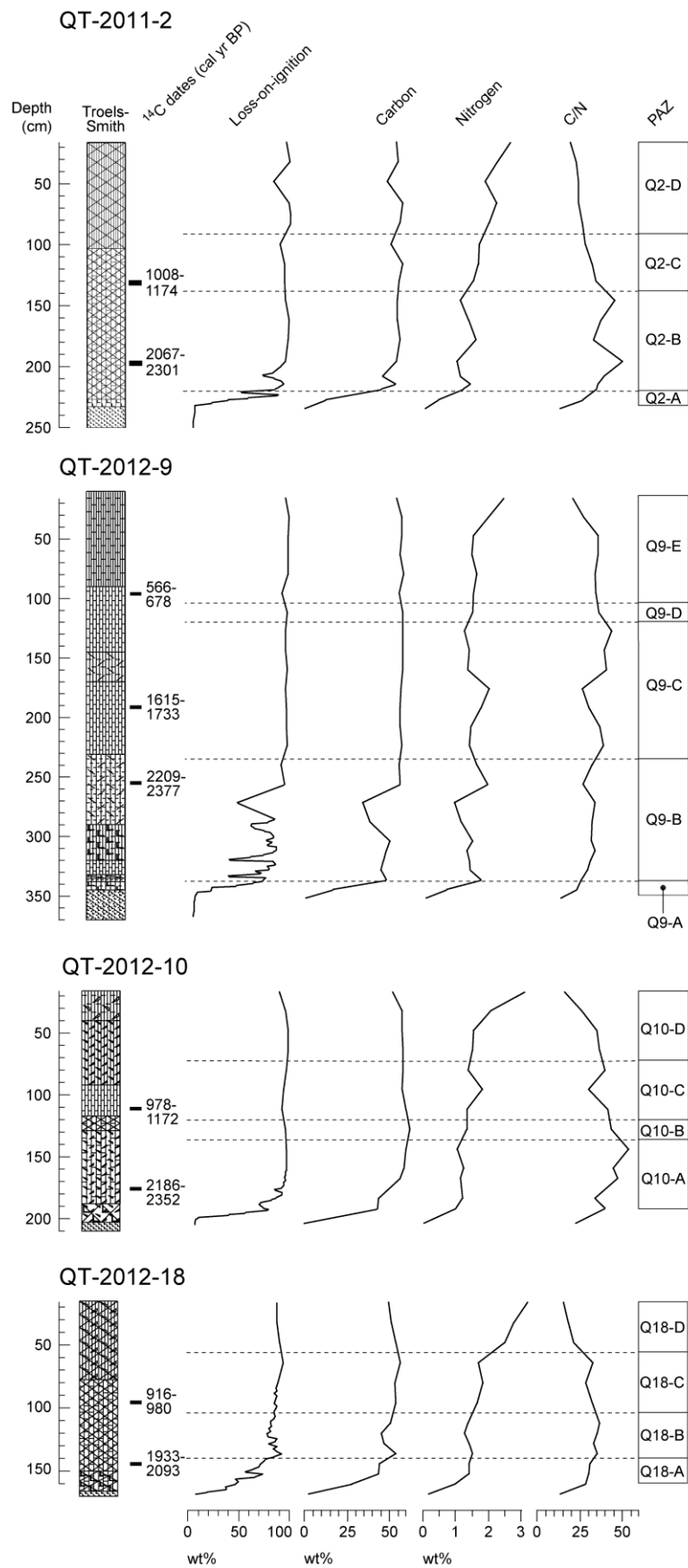


Figure 3

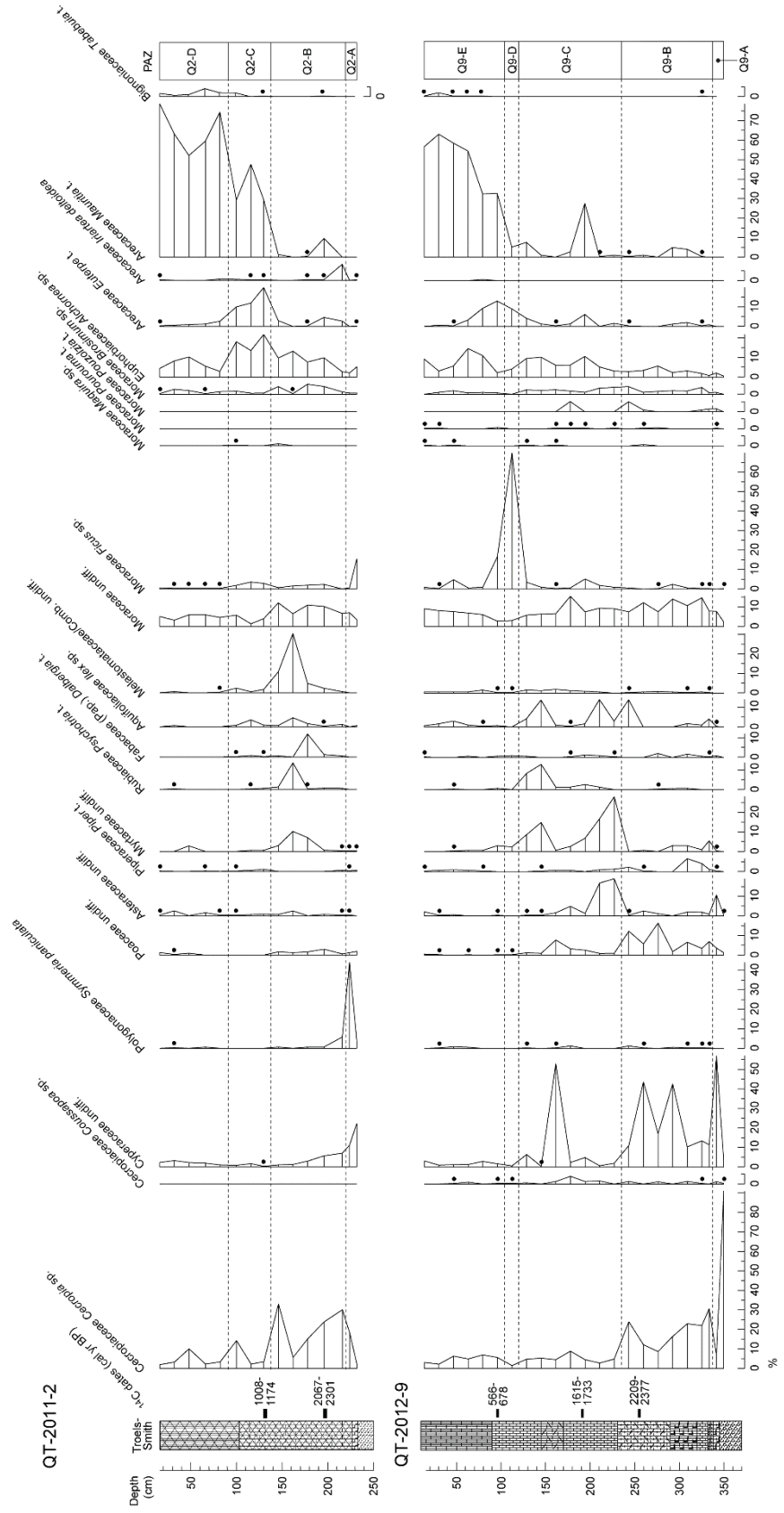


Figure 4 (part 1)

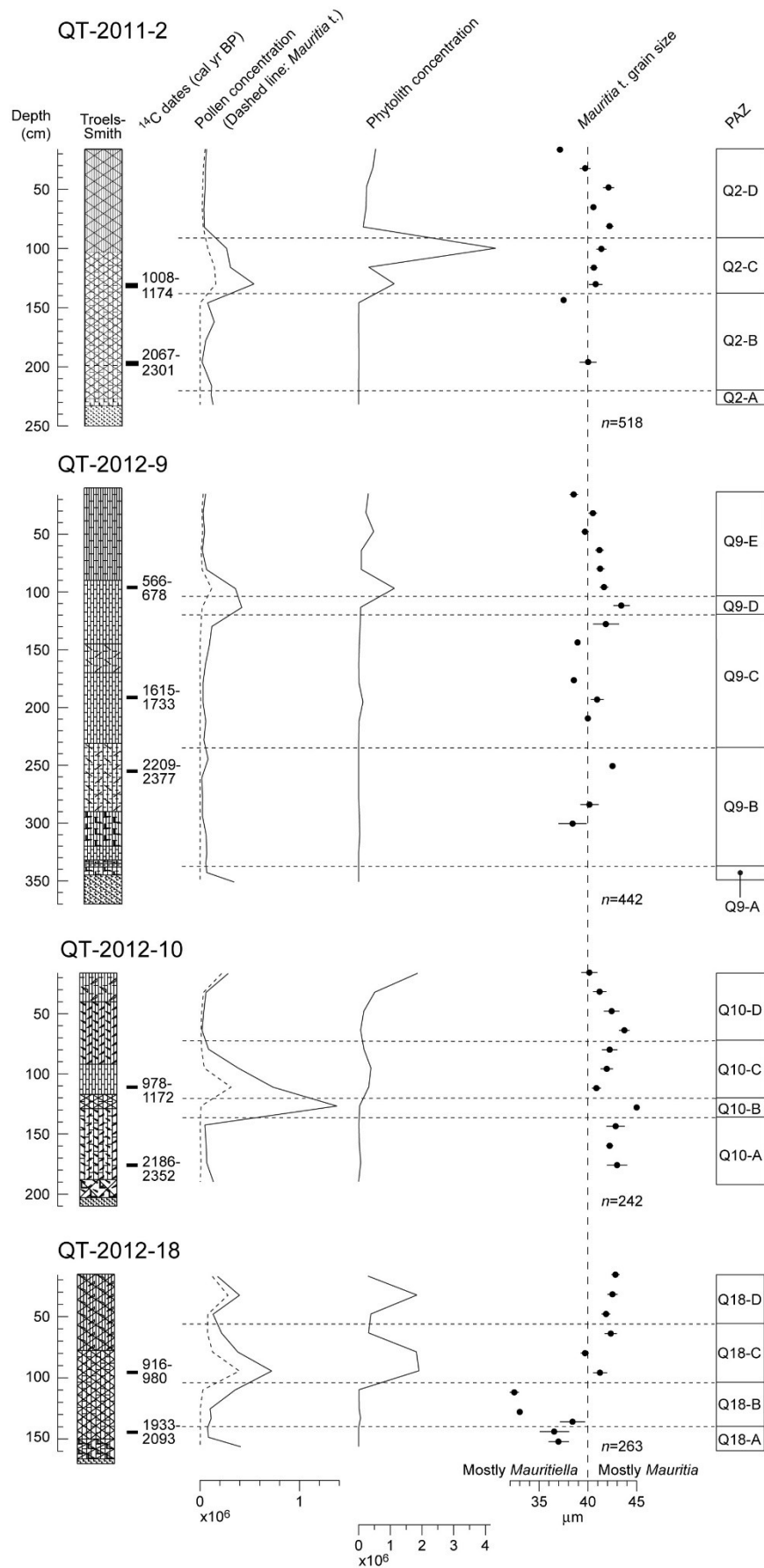


Figure 5

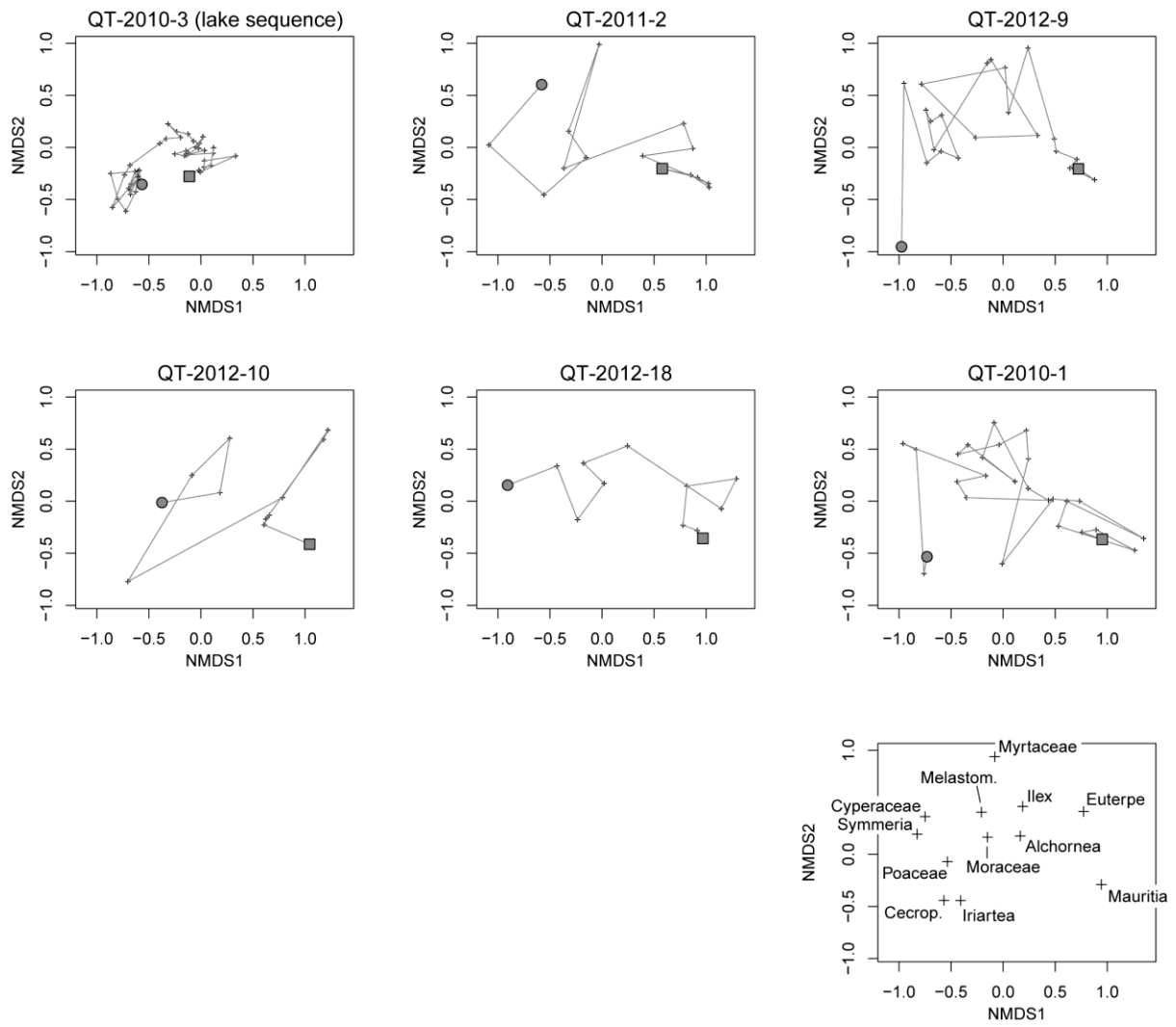


Figure 7

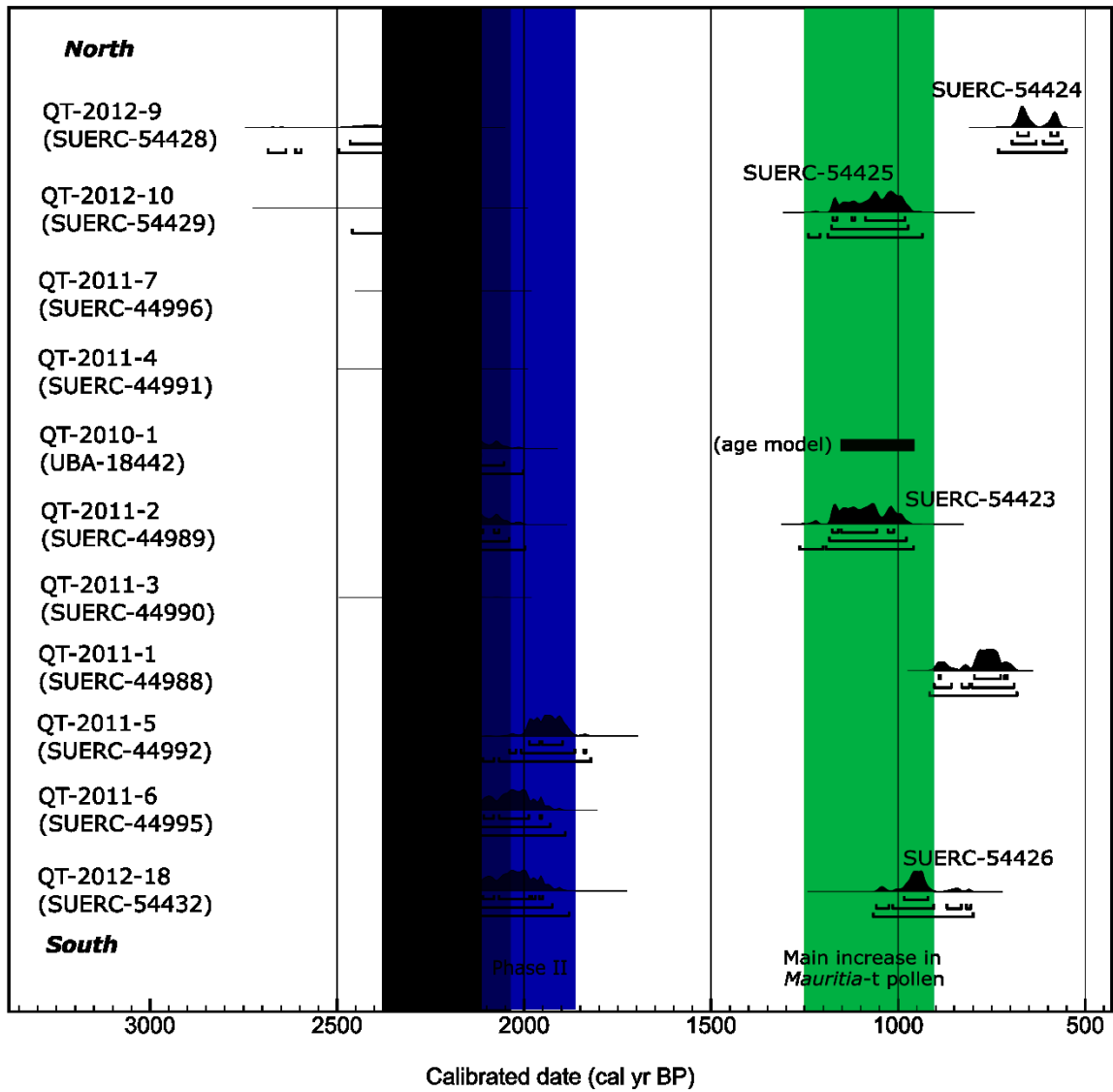


Figure 8