

1 **Paleoclimate support for a persistent dry island effect in the Colombian Andes during the**  
2 **last 4700 years**

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19  
20 **Abstract**

21 We investigated middle and late Holocene hydroclimate patterns in the Colombian Andes using  
22 indicators of watershed erosion (lithic abundance), precipitation intensity (% silt), lake-level  
23 variability (organic carbon and nitrogen, % sand, and diatoms), and fire frequency (fossil

24 charcoal) from a ~4700-year-long sediment archive from Laguna de Ubaque, a small sub-alpine  
25 lake on the eastern flank of the eastern Colombian Andes. Our results indicate reduced  
26 precipitation, low lake levels and increased fire occurrence at Ubaque between 4700 and 3500  
27 cal yr BP (hereafter BP). Precipitation increased and lake levels rose abruptly while fire  
28 occurrence decreased between 3500 and 2100 BP, with the exception of a 300-year dry phase  
29 between 2800 and 2500 BP. Although wetter than the 4700-3500 BP interval, precipitation  
30 decreased, lake levels fell, and fire occurrence increased after 2100 BP, but with high-frequency  
31 variability. Comparison of the Ubaque results with other Colombian paleoclimate records (e.g.,  
32 Lakes Fúquene and La Cocha) supports an antiphase pattern of precipitation between the  
33 high/interior Andes and frontal slope sites. This spatial pattern of variability is consistent with  
34 modern responses to changes in terrestrial atmospheric convection associated with the so-called  
35 “dry island” effect. Further comparison with paleoclimate records from Venezuela suggest that  
36 the millennial trend toward increasing frontal slope precipitation is consistent with orbitally  
37 induced increases in Andean atmospheric convection. Sub-orbital dry island-like hydroclimate  
38 variability suggests other mechanisms that affect Northern Hemisphere convection may act to  
39 enhance or diminish this effect on centennial and shorter timescales.

40

41 **Key Words**

42 Paleolimnology, Sedimentology, Sediment geochemistry, Middle and late Holocene, Colombia,  
43 Paleoclimate

44

45 **Introduction**

46 Northern Hemisphere (NH) South American monsoon (SAM) variability is not as well  
47 characterized as its Southern Hemisphere (SH) counterpart because there are comparatively  
48 fewer paleo-hydroclimate records from the northern Andes ( $>0^\circ$  latitude). Initially, the Cariaco  
49 Basin %Ti (titanium) record supported the idea that Holocene monsoon variability was  
50 antiphased between the hemispheres (Haug et al., 2001). Peak early Holocene NH monsoon  
51 intensity was attributed to a northerly position of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) in  
52 response to maximum NH insolation during the boreal summer, which reduced monsoonal  
53 intensity in the SH (Thompson et al., 1995; Haug et al., 2001; Cruz et al., 2005; Bird et al., 2011).  
54 Monsoonal precipitation in the NH subsequently diminished increased to the present and SH  
55 monsoon precipitation increased as the ITCZ migrated southward in response to waning NH and  
56 increasing SH summer insolation. As an increasing number of paleoclimate records have become  
57 available from the NH Andes, however, a more complex pattern of Andean monsoon variability  
58 is emerging. Specifically, some regions in both Hemispheres (e.g., Venezuela, Peru, Bolivia, and  
59 northern Chile) experienced low lake levels during the middle Holocene between 8000 and 2000  
60 BP (calendar years before present; present = AD 1950), with wetter conditions and higher lake  
61 levels from  $\sim 2000$  BP to the present (Polissar et al., 2013). This suggests that at least some  
62 portions of the northern and southern ( $<0^\circ$  latitude) tropical Andes experienced similar and in-  
63 phase hydroclimate variability, which is counter to the ITCZ paradigm. Spatial patterns of NH  
64 Andean hydroclimate variability are complicated, however, with lake-level reconstructions from  
65 La Cocha ( $1.1^\circ$  N,  $77.2^\circ$  W) (González-Carranza et al., 2012) and Fúquene ( $05.5^\circ$  N,  $73.8^\circ$  W)  
66 (Vélez et al., 2006), both in Colombia, showing high lake levels from about 8000 to 3000 BP and  
67 lower lake levels to the present. While the Colombian lake level trends appear to be opposite of

68 those in other parts of the NH and SH Andes and contradict the idea that Holocene Andean  
69 hydroclimate variability was interhemispherically coherent, the spatiotemporal responses of the  
70 Colombian Andes to insolation, ITCZ, and other forcings are not well characterized on  
71 paleoclimate timescales.

72         Precipitation in mountainous regions often displays complex spatial patterns associated  
73 with orographic controls on local atmospheric circulation (Roe, 2005; Garreaud et al., 2009). In  
74 Colombia, land-surface heating over the Andes modifies local atmospheric circulation during the  
75 boreal summer wet season (May-August), creating what has been described as a “dry island” (the  
76 highland and interior Andes) in a “sea of rain” (the frontal slopes; Snow, 1976). Strong  
77 convection induced by maximum mid-summer insolation enhances precipitation along frontal  
78 slopes, which strips moisture from the atmosphere and induces near-surface subsidence over the  
79 high and interior Andes (west of the Eastern Cordillera), creating a mid-summer precipitation  
80 minimum in these regions. Although changes in the strength of this so-called dry island effect  
81 have been suggested as an influence on the long-term altitudinal distribution of precipitation  
82 (Snow, 1976), instrumental and paleoclimate records are too short or lack sufficient temporal and  
83 spatial distributions to evaluate dry island variability on decadal to centennial timescales during  
84 the Holocene.

85         The stability of the dry island effect through time and its response to changes in climatic  
86 boundary conditions may be important for interpreting paleoclimate records from the Colombian  
87 Andes, including lake-level reconstructions, and their relationship with paleoclimate records  
88 from other parts of the northern and southern tropical Andes. For example, if convective  
89 atmospheric circulation over the Andes was reduced during the middle Holocene as suggested by  
90 model simulations and paleoclimate studies (Cruz et al., 2009), we may expect Andean regions

91 of Colombia to become wetter relative to other Andean regions, which could account for the  
92 apparently antiphased lake level changes in the Colombian Andes compared to other regions in  
93 the NH and SH Andes (González-Carranza et al., 2012; Polissar et al., 2013).

94 Here, we use a well-dated lake sediment record from Laguna de Ubaque, a frontal slope  
95 lake in the eastern Colombian Andes, to investigate local hydroclimate variability during the  
96 middle and late Holocene. Past hydroclimatic conditions, including lake levels, watershed  
97 erosion, runoff energy, and fire occurrence, are reconstructed on decadal to multi-decadal  
98 timescales using a multi-proxy approach that integrates lithologic changes, grain size variability,  
99 measurements of the elemental abundances and isotopic composition of organic carbon and  
100 nitrogen, diatom composition, and charcoal abundances. Together with paleoclimate records  
101 from the eastern and central Colombian Andes, we investigate spatial relationships in  
102 hydroclimate variability between frontal slopes and the high/interior Andes during the last 4700  
103 years to assess the stability and expression of the dry island effect. We further compare these  
104 results with paleoclimate records from Venezuela and Ecuador to investigate broader-scale  
105 hydroclimate patterns in NH South America.

106

## 107 **Study Area**

108 Laguna de Ubaque (hereafter Ubaque) is a small (0.093 km<sup>2</sup>), 14-meter-deep sub-alpine  
109 lake located on the eastern flank of the Eastern Cordillera of the Colombian Andes at 2070 m asl  
110 (4.5° N, 73.9° W; Figs. 1 & 2). Today, the lake is at least seasonally stratified with anoxic  
111 conditions below 8 m depth. Ubaques's bathymetry is characterized by a flat profundal area that  
112 shallows gradually to the south and east, and steeply to the west and north. The lake's watershed  
113 measures 1.056 km<sup>2</sup> with headwalls that reach 2600 m asl. The local geology, as observed during

114 field visits, is comprised of siliclastic sedimentary bedrock overlain by regolith, soils, and  
115 glacial deposits, including the terminal moraine damming the lake. These glacial deposits are  
116 likely pre-Holocene in age because the catchment's headwall elevation is too low to have  
117 supported glaciations during the last ~10,000 years (Porter, 2000). Runoff from the watershed is  
118 focused by a small drainage on Ubaque's northwestern shore before entering the lake. Deposition  
119 from fluvial inputs has created a delta in this region that extends into the lake (Fig. 2). Although  
120 the lake level is high today, a small, manmade dam constructed within the last ~50 years at the  
121 low point in the lake's moraine dam (eastern shore) regulates flow in order to control the lake's  
122 level and minimize flooding of the houses that surround Ubaque (Fig. 2). This suggests that if  
123 unmodified, the modern lake might be at least seasonally open, but also that periods of aridity  
124 could create closed hydrologic conditions.

125         The annual distribution of precipitation in the Colombian Andes is broadly characterized  
126 by two distinct spatial patterns that are expressed over the Andean frontal slopes and high and  
127 interior Andes (Snow, 1976). The interior region west of the Eastern Cordillera's frontal slopes  
128 has two wet seasons—March, April, May (MAM) and September, October, November (SON)—  
129 and two dry seasons—June, July, August (JJA) and December, January, February (DJF; Fig. 3).  
130 In contrast, the eastern slopes of the Eastern Cordillera feature a broad JJA precipitation  
131 maximum, even in sites within as little as 30 km of the high Andes. This spatial pattern has been  
132 attributed to the so-called dry island effect (Snow, 1976). Through this effect, summer heating  
133 results in large-scale convection over the Andes that advects lowland moisture up Andean frontal  
134 slopes, enhancing mid-summer precipitation in this region, but decreasing moisture delivery to  
135 the interior. Increased frontal slope precipitation and upper atmosphere divergence further causes  
136 non-precipitation producing air masses to descend over the high Andes, leading to elevated

137 surface pressure, the formation of non-precipitation bearing clouds, and a mid-summer  
138 precipitation minimum, i.e., a dry island (Snow, 1976). Two frontal slope weather stations close  
139 to Ubaque, Fomeque (4.3° N, 73.5° W, 1900 m asl) and Choachi (4.3° N, 73.6° W, 1950 m asl;  
140 Fig. 3), are consistent with this climate pattern, showing peak precipitation between April and  
141 July, with elevated precipitation through October. This contrasts with the distribution of  
142 precipitation at nearby high Andean sites, such as near Bogota, which show reduced mid-  
143 summer precipitation characteristic of the dry island (Fig. 3).

144         Wet-season moisture in the Eastern Cordillera is primarily derived from the tropical  
145 Atlantic (Gu and Zhang, 2001; Hastenrath, 2002; Poveda et al., 2005; Poveda et al., 2006) and  
146 transported by easterly trade winds, which are at a maximum along the Eastern Cordillera at 850  
147 mb (~1.5 km; Saylor et al., 2009). These trade winds converge over the Atlantic, which then  
148 follow an easterly path over South America. This trajectory oscillates between a zonal  
149 orientation during the boreal summer, channeling Atlantic moisture into northern South America,  
150 and a meridional orientation during the boreal winter, channeling Atlantic moisture into the  
151 Amazon and away from northern South America. Amazonian moisture can also influence the  
152 Eastern Cordillera as a result of interactions between the Amazon-sourced South American low  
153 level jet (Marengo et al., 2004; Poveda et al., 2005) and mesoscale convective systems that  
154 develop over the Amazon and Orinoco basins, which lead to a June-July-August (JJA)  
155 precipitation peak over the eastern piedmont of the Andes (Bonner, 1966; Maddox, 1980;  
156 Velasco and Fritsch, 1987; Poveda et al., 2006; Garreaud et al., 2009). This effect, however,  
157 diminishes northward. Isotopic analyses from a transect of sites from Bogota to the east shared  
158 an Atlantic signature, suggesting that modern precipitation at Ubaque is almost entirely Atlantic  
159 sourced (Saylor et al., 2009).

160           Temperature in the Colombian Andes exhibits little variability throughout the year due to  
161 its tropical setting (Poveda et al., 2007) and is strongly linked to elevation. Instrumental  
162 temperature records are not directly available from Ubaque, but the largely uniform annual  
163 temperature profile is exemplified by average annual temperatures at a nearby weather station in  
164 Tibacuy, Colombia (4.4° N, 74.5° W; 1550 m asl), which is at a similar elevation. Temperatures  
165 here averaged 19.2° C and varied by a maximum of 0.8°C between 1952 and 1980 (Peterson and  
166 Vose, 1997).

167           At interannual scales, the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is the primary driver of  
168 tropical South American hydroclimate (Poveda et al., 2005). In Colombia, El Niño events are  
169 typically associated with reduced precipitation and increased temperature whereas precipitation  
170 increases and temperatures are cooler during La Niña events (Poveda et al., 2005; Garreaud et al.,  
171 2009; Poveda et al., 2011). Decadal to centennial SAM precipitation variability is not well  
172 understood because long-term instrumental data are limited. Pacific decadal variability (PDV),  
173 however, has been identified as an influence on Colombian and northern South American climate  
174 in ways similar to ENSO. Positive PDV conditions result in diminished precipitation and  
175 increased temperatures across Colombia, and negative PDV conditions result in increased  
176 precipitation and decreased temperatures (Evans et al., 2001). The strength of ENSO events are  
177 also enhanced when they are of the same sign as the PDV phase (Andreoli and Kayano, 2005;  
178 Kayano and Andreoli, 2007).

179

## 180 **Materials and Methods**

### 181 *Sediment collection*



182           Seven sediment cores were collected from Ubaque in July 2013 (Fig. 2b). The sediment  
183 water interface was collected in three surface cores using a modified piston corer. Four long  
184 cores were collected with a modified Livingstone piston corer (Wright Jr et al., 1984). Individual  
185 1-meter drives were collected sequentially with 30 cm overlap between drives to ensure  
186 complete sediment recovery. A 445-cm-long composite core was constructed by visually  
187 matching distinct stratigraphic units between cores. Refusal was reached at 445 cm due to stiff  
188 sediments. Eleven surface sediment samples were collected using an Ekman grab sampler along  
189 a northwest-southeast transect in 2015 (Fig. 2b). All samples were transported to the Indiana-  
190 University-Purdue-University Indianapolis (IUPUI) Paleoclimatology and Sedimentology  
191 Laboratory and stored at 4° C.

192

#### 193 *Sediment core processing, dry bulk density and loss-on-ignition*

194           Sediment cores were split, photographed, described, and volumetrically sub-sampled (1  
195 cm<sup>3</sup>) at 2-cm intervals for dry bulk density and loss-on-ignition (LOI) analysis. These samples  
196 were weighed wet, dried for 24 hours at 60°C, and reweighed to determine dry bulk density ( $\rho_{\text{dry}}$ ;  
197 g cm<sup>-3</sup>). Total organic matter (% TOM) and carbonate (% TC) abundances were determined by  
198 LOI after combustion at 550° C (4 hr) and 1000° C (2 hr), respectively (modified from Boyle,  
199 2001; Heiri et al., 2001). The bulk density and loss-on-ignition results are described in the  
200 supplemental materials (Fig. S1).

201

#### 202 *Dating and age control*

203           Age control for the Ubaque record was established by accelerator mass spectrometry  
204 radiocarbon analysis of 10 samples at the University of California, Irvine, Keck AMS Laboratory

205 (Table 1). Charcoal and macroscopic terrestrial organic material > 63 $\mu$ m was picked from a wet  
206 sieve after a brief disaggregation in a 7% hydrogen peroxide solution. Samples were physically  
207 cleaned and chemically pretreated following acid-base-acid protocols. Ages are reported as the  
208 median probability and 1 $\sigma$  error after calibration to calendar years before present using the  
209 Bayesian age modeling software package Bacon (Blaauw and Christen, 2011) and the IntCal13  
210 data set (Reimer et al., 2013). All dates referred to in the text are in cal yr B.P. unless otherwise  
211 noted. Dating of the upper most sediment was attempted with  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , but concentrations  
212 of these radionuclides were below detection limits.

213

#### 214 *Lithics and grain size*

215         Approximately 1 g of wet sediment was collected at 1 cm intervals from the composite  
216 core (n = 445 samples) for grain size analysis. Samples were dried for 24 hr at 60° C, weighed,  
217 and then treated with 30-35% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to remove organic matter (Gray et al., 2010). Biogenic silica  
218 was removed from each sample with a 20 ml 1N NaOH digestion (6 hr at 60° C). Carbonates  
219 were digested with an acid-washing procedure (20 ml of 1 N HCl for 1 hr). Samples were then  
220 freeze-dried and reweighed to determine lithic abundance (% lithics). Grain size measurements  
221 were made using a Malvern Mastersizer 2000 with reported values being the average of three  
222 replicate measurements. Grain size results were parsed into 49 particle size diameter bins  
223 between 0.2 and 2000 microns.

224

#### 225 *Elemental abundance and isotopic composition of organic carbon and total nitrogen*

226         The elemental abundance and isotopic composition of organic carbon (C<sub>org</sub> &  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ) and  
227 total nitrogen (N &  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) were determined by combustion with an elemental analyzer (Costech

228 Analytical) coupled with a Delta IRMS. Approximately 6 mg of freeze-dried sample was  
229 weighed into tin capsules for isotopic analysis for both acidified ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and un-acidified ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ )  
230 replicates. The elemental standard acetanilide (C = 71.09%, and N = 10.36%) was used to correct  
231 elemental abundances based on the peak area response of the TCD detector. Carbon ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) and  
232 nitrogen ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) isotopic data are reported in the supplemental materials (Fig. S1).

233

#### 234 *Charcoal*

235 Charcoal concentrations were determined for 86 samples ( $0.5\text{ cm}^3$ ) of the Ubaque  
236 composite sediment core. Sediment samples were deflocculated using hot  $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$  (10%) for  
237 over 20 minutes, and charcoal particles were separated by hand under 40x magnification (Clark,  
238 1988). A digital photograph of the recovered particles from each sample was analyzed using  
239 ImageJ (Rasband et al., 2005) to determine the area covered by each piece of charcoal. Charcoal  
240 area was then standardized by volume analyzed and expressed as concentration ( $\text{mm}^2\text{ cm}^{-3}$ ).

241

#### 242 *Diatoms*

243 Sediment samples were collected at  $\sim 5\text{ cm}$  intervals ( $n = 100$ ) from the Ubaque  
244 composite core for diatom analysis. Each sample was treated for 24 hours at room temperature  
245 with 30 mL  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (30%), 10 mL of HCl were added to the sample and later washed with distilled  
246 water. Permanent slides were prepared with Naphrax, and a minimum of 350 diatoms were  
247 counted at 100x magnification. Diatom identification and ecology were described following  
248 literature (Patrick and Reiner, 1966; Krammer et al., 1986; Krammer and Lange-Bertalot, 1991;  
249 Torgan and Biancamano, 1991; Moro and Fürstenberger, 1997; Gaiser and Johansen, 2000;  
250 Lange-Bertalot and Krammer, 2000).

251

252 **Results**

253 The original data presented here are archived online at the NOAA Paleoclimatology Database

254 (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/paleo-search/study/22275>)

255

256 *Modern grain size distributions*

257 Surface sediment grab samples were used to characterize grain size distributions in  
258 littoral (samples 5, 6, 7, and 15), transitional (samples 8, 13, and 14) and profundal regions  
259 (samples 9-12) at Ubaque (Fig. 2b & c). Sand abundances were highly correlated with water  
260 depth ( $r = 0.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), showing the highest abundances in littoral regions (17.6%) and lower  
261 abundances in transitional (6.5%) profundal zones (2.7%). Clay was also highly correlated with  
262 depth ( $-0.94$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), with high abundances in the profundal zone (50.1%) and lower  
263 abundances in intermediate (47.0%) and littoral (29.6%) zones. Silt showed no correlation with  
264 water depth and was instead evenly distributed across the littoral (52.8%), transitional (46.5%)  
265 and profundal zones (47.2%).

266

267 *Stratigraphy*

268 The Ubaque sediment core was divided into 7 sections based on visible stratigraphy (Fig.  
269 4). Between 445 and 390 cm, Ubaque sediments are largely massive and organic rich, but with  
270 occasional banding. A transition to finely laminated sediments occurs between 390-360 cm, with  
271 mm-scale laminae alternating in color between yellow-green and dark brown. Between 360-315  
272 cm, sediments become more finely laminated and finer grained with an overall light gray to  
273 brown color. From 315 to 285 cm, the sediments abruptly become massive and darker brown, but

274 with some banding. This section also contains two notable gritty white layers at 311 cm  
275 comprised of angular glass fragments consistent with volcanic tephra. Between 285-215 cm the  
276 sediments revert abruptly to light gray-brown laminae. From 215-51 cm, laminae are observed,  
277 but the sediments darken to a brown color. Above 51 cm, laminae are intermittent, becoming  
278 indiscernible above 35 cm.

279

### 280 *Chronology*

281 Nine of the ten AMS <sup>14</sup>C ages are in stratigraphic order with only one sample  
282 (KCCAMS# 132264) returning an older than expected age (Fig. 4). Given that it is bracketed by  
283 ages in chronostratigraphic order, we assigned this sample a 50% probability of being outlier  
284 during the age model construction. The age model shows generally steady accumulation with  
285 slightly higher rates of accumulation between 3200 and 2000 BP and slightly lower rates of  
286 accumulation from the bottom of the core from 4650 to 3200 BP and after 2000 BP.

287

### 288 *Lithics and grain size*

289 Lithic abundances (% lithics, hereafter lithics) exhibited considerable variability, with a  
290 maximum of 95%, a minimum of 10% and a mean of 57% during the record (Fig. 5). Average  
291 lithics were low between 4650-3450 BP, but with increasing variability and average values  
292 (mean = 40.3%). Lithics were generally high between 3450-2050 BP (3450-2850 BP mean =  
293 78.4%; 2600-2050 BP mean = 79.6%), except for the period between 2820-2600 BP when they  
294 fell to an average of 54.9%. After 2050 BP lithics varied about a mean of 49.9% with lower  
295 values between 2050-1050 and 600 BP to the present and high values between 1050-600 BP.  
296 Clay and silt are the two most abundant grain size fractions, together accounting for 92.5% of the

297 lithic fraction, and demonstrate a strong anti-correlation throughout the record ( $r = -0.84$ ) as  
298 expected from the sum-to-one constraint. Clay abundance varied between 15% and 80%, with a  
299 mean of 46% while the silt fraction ranged between 18% and 73%, with a mean of 46% (Fig. 5  
300 & 6). Grain size results for silt and clay are described in terms of silt, with the understanding that  
301 the opposite trends occurred in clay abundances.

302 From 4650-3700 BP, silt varied around a mean of 54.7% (Fig. 5). At 3700 BP, silt  
303 declined sharply, averaging 36% between 3700-3440 BP. Silt then increased to an average of  
304 58.5% between 3440-2760 BP, after which, silt decreased to 39% until ~2600 BP. After ~2600  
305 BP, silt increased sharply to an average of 63% between ~2600-2000 BP. From 2000 to present,  
306 silt was generally lower than before 2000 BP, but with considerable variability. Periods with  
307 elevated silt are noted between 1050-730, 620-500, and after 280 BP with low silt during the  
308 intervening periods.

309 Sand is the least abundant sediment constituent, generally comprising less than 20% of  
310 the lithics with an average of 6.5% and a range from 0 to 38% (Fig. 5). The sand record displays  
311 considerable variability that shares some similarities with silt and clay, but also contains distinct  
312 variability. Sand was generally high, but variable, between 4650-3370 BP, after which point, it  
313 decreased to less than 0.5% between 3300-2830 BP. After 2830 BP, sand increased to an average  
314 of 8% between 2800-2500 BP with peak values reaching ~30% at 2600 BP. Sand then abruptly  
315 decreased again between 2500-2080 BP, after which point it increased and maintained an  
316 average of approximately 8%. After ~300 BP, sand shows a decreasing trend to modern values  
317 averaging ~2%.

318

319 *Organic Carbon to Nitrogen ratio ( $C_{org}:N$ )*

320 Down core organic carbon to nitrogen ratio ( $C_{org}:N$ ) measurements were divided into  
321 three intervals (Fig. 5). From 4650-3500 BP,  $C_{org}:N$  was at a maximum, averaging 17.5 with a  
322 peak of 24.7. Between 3500-2100 BP,  $C_{org}:N$  exhibited considerable variability with two lows,  
323 each reaching 6.7 between 3400-2860 and 2480-2100 BP that were separated by a peak of 19.7  
324 between 2800-2500 BP. After 2100 BP,  $C_{org}:N$  values were intermediate (~13), with minor  
325 fluctuations.

326

327 *Diatoms*

328 Modern diatoms recovered from the surface samples are composed mainly of benthic  
329 *Achnantheidiums minutissimum*, found in the shallow platform of the lake and *A. lanceolatum*  
330 found predominantly in the pelagic region, between 7 and 12 m along with Tychoplanktonic  
331 *Fragilaria nanana*. Benthic *Encyonospis cf krammeri*, *Encyonema silesiacum* and *Nitzschia*  
332 *amphibia* dominate in the mouth of the inlet. Fossil diatom preservation and/or occurrence were  
333 generally poor with only 39% samples being suitable for analysis (Fig. 6; Fig. S2). Preservation  
334 was especially poor before 1660 BP with only 9 of 61 samples containing diatoms (14.75%) with  
335 abundant broken valves showing mechanical damage. Diatoms were abundant at 3920, from  
336 3320-3180 BP, 2570-2490 BP, and after 1660 BP. From 3920 to 2530 BP, *Synedra ulna*,  
337 *Fragilaria nanana*, *Aulacoseira ambigua*, *Navicula radiosa* and *Craticula* sp. peak with values  
338 around 70%. After 1660 BP, valve preservation improved, but was still sporadic with ~30% of  
339 samples lacking diatoms. *A. ambigua* became dominant (20-98%) after 1660 BP, but with other  
340 species also present, including *Craticula* sp. (25-30%), *Staurosirella pinnata* (two peaks of 20

341 and 87%), *Eunotia minor* (3-33%) and *Gomphonema* sp. (2-54%). Aerophil diatoms, mainly  
342 *Luticola mutica*, *Hantzschia amphioxys*, *Diadesmis confervacea* and *Orthoseira* sp. were present  
343 at 3920 (93%), 2500 (78%) and between 1425-300 BP (22%). After 300 BP, the assemblage was  
344 dominated by *A. ambigua* (20-98%), but *Nitzschia amphibia* also increased (20% max) as did  
345 *Cyclotella meneghiniana* and *Achnantheidium* sp. (40 and 28% respectively).

346

#### 347 *Charcoal*

348 Charcoal concentrations at Ubaque ranged from  $9 \times 10^{-3}$  to  $39 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , with a mean and  
349 standard deviation of 4.3 and  $5.4 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , respectively. Between 4650-3900 BP, charcoal  
350 concentrations were low, remaining below  $3 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , and increasing to  $21 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  between  
351 3900-3300 BP (Fig. 5). Charcoal concentrations dropped to  $1.5 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  between 3250-2870 BP,  
352 after which they reached maximum values, increasing to  $13 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  at 2770 BP and then to  $39$   
353  $\text{mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  at 2630 BP. After 2630 BP, charcoal concentrations dropped to below 3 between 2460-  
354 2140 BP, after which they again increased to an average of  $5 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  between 2140 and 520.  
355 From 520-140 BP, charcoal concentrations remained below  $3 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , representing the minima  
356 throughout the record.

357

## 358 **Discussion**

359

### 360 *Sediment Grain Size*

361 In lacustrine settings, grain size can reflect a variety of transport and depositional  
362 processes including changes in the runoff energy transporting sediment to the lake and/or the  
363 depositional energy at the core site (Håkanson, 1982; Bird and Kirby, 2006; Conroy et al., 2008;



364 Shuman et al., 2009; Bird et al., 2014). In order to better interpret down core sedimentological  
365 changes, we first connect grain size distributions to modern depositional environments (i.e.,  
366 littoral, transitional and profundal zones) using the surface sediment grab samples (Fig. 2b). The  
367 surface sample grain size data demonstrate that sand abundances vary as a function of water  
368 depth (Fig. 6). This is consistent with previous studies that demonstrate littoral regions are  
369 dominated by coarse sediment fractions in response to rapid settling of coarser grains once runoff  
370 loses competence as it enters a standing body of water and redistribution through near-shore  
371 wave action (Digerfeldt, 1986; Dearing, 1997; Newby et al., 2000; Shuman et al., 2001; Shuman,  
372 2003).

373 At Ubaque, we suggest that periods with little or no sand content represent lake high  
374 stands, which increased the distance between the core site and the littoral zone, thereby reducing  
375 the delivery of sand to more profundal reaches. Conversely, high sand content indicates periods  
376 when the littoral zone encroached toward the core site in the profundal zone, delivering more  
377 sand to the deeper parts of the lake. As a semi-quantitative estimate of past lake levels at Ubaque,  
378 we derived a transfer function between % sand and depth utilizing the modern depth-sand  
379 relationship constrained by the surface sample transect (Fig. 2d; delta sample #15 not included;  
380  $\text{Depth} = 0.4 * [\% \text{ Sand}] - 12.9; r^2 = 0.89$ )

381 Elevated sand from 4650-3400 BP suggests that lake levels during this period were likely  
382 lower than those captured by the modern sediment samples (Fig. 5). As a result, the modern  
383 relationship between sand and lake depth likely is not analogous and so the transfer function  
384 does not apply for this time interval.

385 After 3400 BP, sand decreased rapidly with minima between 3360-2830 and 2530-2060  
386 BP suggesting high lake stands equivalent to modern conditions (~13 m). These lake high stands

387 are separated by a ~300 year low stand between 2820-2550 BP, during which lake levels fell to  
388 as low as 2 m. Elevated sand percentages after 2060 BP suggest average lake levels around 9 m,  
389 with slightly elevated lake levels from 2100-1100 and after 200 BP and slightly lower lake levels  
390 between 1100-200 BP.

391 Like sand, clay abundances vary strongly with depth in the modern surface samples (Fig.  
392 2). Despite this modern correlation with depth, down-core measurements of clay are not  
393 significantly correlated with sand abundances ( $r = -.075$ ,  $p = 0.12$ ) (Fig. 5). Instead, clay is  
394 strongly antiphased with silt ( $r = -0.84$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This indicates that clay abundances in the  
395 down core record were controlled by variations in the abundance of silt, not lake depth. As such,  
396 we interpret down core changes in clay and silt as indicators of the intensity/energy of runoff  
397 such that higher intensity runoff would increase the amount of silt in the water column relative to  
398 clay, and vice versa (Bird et al., 2016).

399 This interpretation is less clear for the period prior to ~3500 BP due to the likelihood that  
400 grain size distributions in a shallow, marsh-like system that possibly desiccated at times may not  
401 reflect the same processes as those acting in deeper, permanent lake systems. Wave action and  
402 bioturbation as a result of low water levels and possible pedogenesis (indicated by massive  
403 sedimentology and high C:N and organic matter) may additionally homogenize silt layers  
404 deposited during discrete events, thereby increasing silt's apparent overall abundance. For these  
405 reasons, silt results prior to ~3500 BP should be interpreted cautiously and we refrain from  
406 interpreting silt as an indicator of runoff energy during this period.

407 After ~3500 BP, silt abundances show two maxima from 3440-2760 and ~2600-2000 BP,  
408 suggesting high-energy runoff during these periods of intense precipitation and deep lake  
409 conditions as indicated by finely laminated sediments. The intervening silt minimum between

410 2760-2600 BP coincides with a return to massive sediments, suggesting reduced runoff intensity  
411 during this interval when precipitation was reduced and lake levels fell sharply. Lower average  
412 silt after 2000 BP suggests less intense runoff at a time when lake levels were lower, but still  
413 deep enough to support potentially anoxic hypolimnetic conditions as suggested by the  
414 preservation of fine laminations. Increased silt between 1050-730, 620-500 and after 280 BP,  
415 however, suggests periods of greater runoff intensity within this drier mean state. Low silt  
416 abundances between ~2000 and 1050 BP and 500 to 280 BP, suggest intervening periods of low  
417 intensity runoff.

418

#### 419 *Lithic Abundances*

420 The abundance of lithic material deposited in lake systems reflects the relative  
421 contribution of clastic material to the sediment fraction. At Ubaque, the lake's surficial  
422 unconsolidated glacial deposits and steep watershed topography provide ample sediment and  
423 potential energy for runoff to erode material during the wet season and transport it directly to the  
424 lake. We interpret increased lithics to represent periods when precipitation was greater and  
425 watershed erosion was enhanced, and vice versa. From 4690-3500 BP, average lithics was lower  
426 than at any other period in the record (mean = 41%), but with a positive trend and increasing  
427 variability, suggesting increasing precipitation with punctuated periods of watershed erosion (Fig.  
428 5) The increase to maximum lithics between 3500-2100 BP coincides with the transition to  
429 laminated, organic poor sediments, reflecting a marked increase in watershed erosion that we  
430 attribute to increased precipitation. This period was briefly interrupted by a ~200-year dry  
431 interval between 2800-2600 BP, during which massive, organic rich sediments were deposited.

432 Reduced lithics after 2100 BP suggests decreased erosion, but with slightly increased erosion  
433 between 1050-600 BP that was followed by decreasing, but variable, erosion to the present.

434  
435 *C<sub>org</sub>:N ratio*

436 Atomic carbon and nitrogen ratios is used to distinguish the relative contribution of  
437 terrestrial ( $C_{org}:N > 15$ ) and aquatic ( $C_{org}:N < 15$ ) organic matter to the lake sediment (Meyers  
438 and Ishiwatari, 1993). We suggest that low  $C_{org}:N$  values reflect expanded lake surface areas  
439 during high stands, which both limited terrestrial organic matter deposition to the littoral zone  
440 and increased in-lake productivity and deposition of aquatic organic matter in the profundal zone.  
441 The opposite is proposed for low lake stands.

442 Within the above interpretive framework, the  $C_{org}:N$  data indicate that the Ubaque record  
443 is broadly characterized by two distinct end-member depositional settings. Between 4650-3500  
444 BP,  $C_{org}:N$  ratios averaged 17.7 with a peak of 24.7, and % OM averaged 50%, indicating a  
445 significant contribution of terrestrial organic matter that suggests extremely low lake levels  
446 and/or marsh-like conditions during this time (Fig. 5; Fig. S1). Sediments during this interval  
447 were also massive with high sand abundances, suggesting a shallow, oxygenated water column  
448 and sediment bioturbation/mixing. After 3500 BP, decreasing  $C_{org}:N$  values were accompanied  
449 by a transition to finely laminated sediments and low sand abundances, indicating a shift to  
450 persistent deep-lake conditions. Variability in  $C_{org}:N$  after 3500 BP, however, suggests  
451 fluctuating lake levels with especially deep-lake conditions from 3400-2860 (11.4) and 2470-  
452 2100 BP (9.0). Separating these intervals, a pronounced low stand occurred between 2800-2500  
453 BP (14.4). These inferred lake level fluctuations are consistent with lithologic indicators of high  
454 stands (i.e., laminations) and low stands (i.e., massive sediments indicating bioturbation).  
455 Although somewhat elevated  $C_{org}:N$  values after 2100 BP (13.1) suggest lower lake levels, the

456 presence of laminated sediment indicates that lake levels were deep enough to support a stratified  
457 water column with anoxic bottom waters that precluded bioturbation. Variability in  $C_{org}:N$  values,  
458 however, suggests lake levels still fluctuated during this time, but with less amplitude than before  
459 2100 BP. Relative low stands are suggested by  $C_{org}:N$  peaks between 1400-1240 (~16) and at  
460 600 (16.2) and 260 BP (15.9). Relative high stands are suggested by  $C_{org}:N$  lows between 1150-  
461 850 (~12.1), 530-300 (~11.8) and from 160 BP to the present (~11.3).

462

#### 463 *Diatoms*

464 Diatom valve preservation is discontinuous in the record to 1660 BP (Fig. 6). Between  
465 4690 and ~3300 BP, the general lack of diatoms is attributed to the persistence of marsh-like  
466 conditions at Ubaque and/or periods of sub-areal exposure that limited diatom preservation in the  
467 sediment archive. Between 3300-1660 BP, we interpret the low abundance of diatoms to have  
468 resulted from high water column turbidity, which inhibited photosynthesis, as a result of  
469 increased lithic influx to the lake when precipitation was at a maximum (e.g., Bird et al., 2014).  
470 A rapid increase in lake level occurred after ~3330 BP is indicated by increased abundances of  
471 Tychoplanktonic species *S. ulna*, *F. nanana*, which are found today in the pelagic area of the  
472 lake. Benthic species *Craticula* sp. and *N. radiosa*, and shallow planktic *A. ambigua*, indicate the  
473 presence of a developed littoral at this time. Although not very common at Ubaque today, this  
474 species lives in the transitional zone between 5 and 7 m depth. Fluctuating, but diminished,  
475 precipitation intensity after 1660 BP lead to stable lake conditions, and the development of a  
476 stable littoral area, which promoted the long-term proliferation and preservation of diatom  
477 communities. The general dominance of shallow planktic and benthic communities after 1660  
478 BP supports persistent, but somewhat lower lake levels during the late Holocene. Notably,

479 increases in *A. ambigua*, *Nitzschia amphibia*, and *Fragilaria pinnata* between 1070 and 610 BP  
480 and after 300 BP indicates an increase in the nutrient content of the lake. This agrees well with  
481  $C_{org}:N$  and silt and sand, which suggest wetter conditions during these times (despite low lithic  
482 abundance for the post 300 BP period), that either brought more nutrients to the water or re-  
483 suspended them from the littoral zone.

484

#### 485 *Charcoal as a proxy for watershed moisture conditions*

486 Charcoal concentration in lacustrine settings reflects both local and regional fire  
487 frequency, which in turn reflect hydroclimatic conditions, as well as fuel availability (Clark et al.,  
488 1988). Higher charcoal concentrations indicate increased biomass burning and vice versa. Here,  
489 total charcoal trends largely track inferred changes in precipitation and lake levels (Fig. 5).  
490 During times when indicators suggest wetter conditions and high lake stands, e.g. the dual  
491 precipitation peaks between 3500-2000 BP, charcoal abundances were at a minimum.  
492 Conversely, when hydroclimate indicators suggest drier conditions, charcoal concentrations  
493 increase, e.g., the period of drought centered around ~2700 and again after 2100 BP. The  
494 antiphased relationship between charcoal and moisture availability suggests that although dry  
495 episodes were recurrent, conditions were never sufficiently dry so as to suppress fire because of a  
496 lack of biomass to burn. Notably, charcoal abundances decreased after approximately 550 BP  
497 when other hydroclimate indicators suggest dry conditions. One possibility is that cooling during  
498 the Little Ice Age contributed to reduced fire occurrence (e.g., Polissar et al., 2006) despite  
499 evidence for drier conditions at Ubaque.

500

501 *Lake-level and hydroclimate interpretation of the Ubaque record*

502         The multi-proxy Ubaque record suggests a series of significant hydroclimate changes  
503 over the past ~4700 years. In general, dry conditions characterized by periods of low lake levels,  
504 marsh-like conditions and possibly intervals of terrestrialization predominated from ~4650 to  
505 3500 BP. After 3500 BP, precipitation increased and lake levels rose with two periods at 3500-  
506 2800 and at 2500-2100 BP being the wettest intervals during the last ~5000 years. These wet  
507 intervals were interrupted by a ~300-year-long drought, during which lake levels fell to as low as  
508 2 m. After ~2100 BP, the climate became drier, but was still wetter than before 3500 BP, with  
509 shallower, but persistent deep lake conditions. Within this period, wet phases occurred at ~1100-  
510 550 and after ~300 BP with intervening dry periods.

511

512 *A persistent dry island effect in the Colombian Andes*

513         Although there are few Colombian paleo-hydroclimate records, those available show  
514 climatically similar results when compared with the Ubaque record that are consistent with  
515 modern Colombian hydroclimate processes. The most proximal record to Ubaque is from El  
516 Triunfo mire, which is located in the central Colombian Andes at 3800 m asl about 160 km west  
517 of Ubaque (4.98° N, 75.33° W; Vélez et al., in prep.). Although both El Triunfo and Ubaque  
518 were relatively dry between ~4700 and 3500, they demonstrate consistent opposite hydroclimate  
519 trends after 3500 BP. Increased precipitation at Ubaque from 3500 to 2100 BP coincided with  
520 continued low water levels at El Triunfo. After ~2300 BP, water levels rose at El Triunfo but  
521 decreased at Ubaque. Although the results from Triunfo are relatively low resolution, their

522 antiphased relationship with Ubaque is consistent with that predicted between interior and/or  
523 high elevation sites and those on the frontal slopes (i.e., Ubaque).

524         This antiphased relationship between frontal slopes and interior sites is additionally  
525 supported by the relationships between Ubaque and a pollen-based lake-level reconstruction  
526 from La Cocha in southern Colombia (González-Carranza et al., 2012). The La Cocha lake-level  
527 curve, which is constrained by six <sup>14</sup>C ages during the past 4800 years, exhibits a consistent  
528 antiphased relationship with Ubaque over the last ~4700 years (Fig. 7). Reduced precipitation at  
529 Ubaque from ~4700 to 3500 BP, for example, corresponds to high lake levels and precipitation  
530 at La Cocha. The alternating wet-dry-wet period at Ubaque from 3500 to 2100 BP similarly  
531 corresponds to a dry-wet-dry sequence at La Cocha (i.e., low-high-low lake levels). Drier  
532 conditions at Ubaque during the last 2100 years were generally wetter at La Cocha, but with  
533 variability that continued to be antiphased with Ubaque, supporting a continued hydroclimate  
534 antiphasing relationship between Andean and frontal slope sites through the late Holocene.

535         The La Cocha trends are largely similar to first order lake level changes documented at  
536 Lake Fúquene on the western side of the eastern Colombian Andes at 2540 m asl (Vélez et al.,  
537 2006). Minimum Holocene lake levels at Fúquene occurred at 4230-1770 BP with generally  
538 wetter conditions before and after this time. The timing of the Fúquene low stand is similar with  
539 increasing precipitation and lake levels at Ubaque at 3500-2100 BP, further supporting an  
540 antiphased hydroclimate relationship between frontal slopes and high/interior Andean sites.

541         The antiphased relationship between Ubaque, as a frontal slope site on eastern Colombian  
542 Andes, with interior/high-altitude sites represented by La Cocha, Fúquene, and El Triunfo is  
543 consistent with modern day seasonal variations in the distribution of precipitation across the  
544 Colombian Andes related to the dry island effect (Snow, 1976). This suggests that the dry island



545 effect is not only important on seasonal timescales during the modern instrumental period, but  
546 has been an important component of multi-decadal to multi-centennial-scale Colombian  
547 hydroclimate during at least the last ~4700 years.

548         The modern dry island effect observed on seasonal timescales is attributed to 1) strong  
549 convection during the midsummer insolation maximum that enhances rainout along the Andean  
550 flanks, which depletes air masses of moisture prior to their reaching higher elevations and  
551 interior locations over the Colombian Andes, and 2) upper atmosphere divergence that causes  
552 non-precipitation air masses to descend over the high Andes, elevating surface pressure and  
553 causing the formation of non-precipitation bearing clouds.

554         The elevational distribution and geographical location of the Ubaque (2067 m asl; eastern  
555 Colombian Andes frontal slope), El Triunfo (3800 m asl; central Colombian Andes) and La  
556 Cocha (2780 m asl; interior southern Colombian Andes) records and their opposing hydroclimate  
557 trends is consistent with the dry island phenomenon and suggests that pluvial phases at Ubaque  
558 represent periods of strong convection and rainout with correspondingly drier conditions at high  
559 elevation and interior sites like El Triunfo and La Cocha as a result of air mass moisture  
560 depletion during transport and atmospheric subsidence.

561

#### 562 *Comparison with northern South America hydroclimate records*

563         When considered in the context of other regional paleoclimate records from northern  
564 South America, the Ubaque record suggests complex, but explainable, hydroclimate variability  
565 during the middle and late Holocene (Fig. 7). Comparison between Ubaque and a lake level  
566 reconstruction from Laguna Blanca in the Venezuelan Merida Andes (8.3° N, 71.8° W; 1615 m  
567 asl), whose age model consists of six <sup>14</sup>C ages over the last 4800 years, shows that both sites

568 were drier from ~4700 to 3500 BP (Polissar et al., 2013). Lake levels at Blanca began to increase  
569 by ~3500 BP, but with considerable variability, whereas Ubaque became abruptly wetter at  
570 ~3500 BP. Lake levels at Blanca subsequently increased stepwise at 2100 and at ~600 BP, while  
571 lake levels and precipitation decreased at Ubaque at 2100 BP and subsequently varied about a  
572 mean until 600 BP, after which time wetter conditions are indicated by silt and diatom results.  
573 Still, conditions at Ubaque were wetter after 2100 BP than before 3500 BP.

574         Despite some differences in centennial-scale hydroclimate variability at Ubaque and  
575 Blanca, the millennial-scale trend toward generally wetter conditions at Blanca and Ubaque  
576 during the late Holocene (after ~3500 BP) relative to the middle Holocene (before ~3500 BP) is  
577 similar. Given that hydroclimate variability at Ubaque is reflective of the intensity of convective  
578 precipitation, generally wetter late Holocene conditions at Ubaque and Blanca may suggest  
579 increasing convective precipitation at these sites after ~3500 BP. That Ubaque became much  
580 wetter than Blanca between ~3500 and 2100 BP and then dried slightly after 2100 BP, whereas  
581 Blanca shows a steady increase in lake levels, may reflect their different geographic settings,  
582 whereby Ubaque is a true frontal slope site influenced by the dry island effect and Blanca is  
583 intermediate between a frontal slope and high Andean environments as it is at relatively low  
584 elevation (1615 m), but situated on the down-wind side of the Andes from the dominant moisture  
585 transport direction. Regardless, the basic pattern of increased late Holocene Andean convection  
586 suggested by the Ubaque and Blanca records is consistent with orbital configurations that would  
587 have increased overall convection across the Andes (Cruz et al., 2009).

588         Comparison of Ubaque with a carbonate abundance record (interpreted as relative lake  
589 level) from Lake Valencia, Venezuela (10.2° N, 67.7° W; 410 m asl), shows that wet conditions  
590 at Valencia at ~5000-3500 BP coincided with low lake levels and reduced precipitation at

591 Ubaque and Blanca (Curtis et al., 1999). It is possible that as a site located longitudinally in the  
592 middle of northern South America, Valencia was affected earlier by the westward migration of  
593 terrestrial atmospheric convection over tropical South America (e.g., Cruz et al., 2009), while  
594 sites located further west in the Venezuelan (Blanca) and Colombian (Ubaque) Andes responded  
595 later (~3500 BP). Additional records from Venezuela and Colombia that span different  
596 elevations are needed, however, to better test this idea.

597         After ~3500 BP, wet and dry periods were broadly in phase at Ubaque and Valencia.  
598 Both records also show a drying trend after ~2000, although Valencia continues to become drier  
599 while Ubaque varies about a generally drier mean state (Fig. 7). The shift to drier conditions at  
600 lower elevation sites (Ubaque & Valencia) and wetter conditions at altitude (Blanca, La Cocha &  
601 Triunfo) after ~2000 BP may suggest weakened convective atmospheric circulation that reduced  
602 rainout on frontal slopes and at lower elevation, but increased moisture delivery to higher  
603 elevation sites. Although the dry island effect has not been explicitly described in Venezuela, the  
604 Venezuelan Andes do experience a mid-summer precipitation minimum, similar to the  
605 Colombian Andes, which has been linked in part to topographic influences and strengthened  
606 upper-level easterly winds (Pulwarty et al., 1998). The region surrounding Valencia, likewise,  
607 experiences a mid-summer precipitation maximum, similar to Colombian frontal slope sites. It is  
608 possible, therefore, that the antiphased high and low elevation hydroclimate trends on millennial  
609 timescales, could reflect broadly similar dry island-like variability on paleoclimate timescales in  
610 northern South America, but with some modification from regional factors.

611         Because reductions in atmospheric convective activity after ~2100 BP suggested by the  
612 Ubaque and other records occurred during an orbital configuration that would have increased  
613 overall convection across the Andes relative to the middle Holocene (e.g., Cruz et al., 2009),

614 other influences on convective activity must be considered. One possibility is that the onset of  
615 modern ENSO variability at ~2000 BP (Rodbell et al., 1999; Moy et al., 2002) and a more  
616 persistent El Niño-like mean state in the tropical Pacific (Koutavas et al., 2006), likely in  
617 response to orbital forcing (Emile-Geay et al., 2007), could have increased synoptic-scale  
618 atmospheric subsidence that somewhat suppressed convection over northern tropical South  
619 America. This in turn would weaken the dry island effect, decreasing frontal slope precipitation,  
620 and increasing moisture delivery to higher elevation and interior sites.

621

## 622 **Conclusions**

623 The Ubaque sediment record reflects variations in local hydroclimate on the frontal  
624 slopes of the eastern Colombian Andes during the last ~4700 years. Comparison with  
625 interior/high-elevation paleoclimate records from the eastern and central Colombian Andes  
626 indicates that the so-called dry island effect, whereby increased atmospheric convection  
627 enhances precipitation over frontal slope regions while reducing it at interior and high altitude  
628 sites, and vice versa, has been an integral component of Colombian hydroclimate variability  
629 since at least the middle Holocene. Reduced convection over the Colombian Andes is suggested  
630 for the middle Holocene until ~3500 BP when Ubaque was relatively dry, but high Andean sites  
631 in Colombia were wet with generally high lake levels (e.g., Lakes Fúquene and La Cocha).  
632 Increasing precipitation and higher lake levels at Ubaque after ~3500 BP with peak pluvial  
633 conditions between ~3500-2100 BP and corresponding lake level and precipitation decreases at  
634 high/interior Andean sites indicate strong convective activity and an enhanced dry island effect.  
635 After 2100 BP, reduced precipitation and lower lake levels at Ubaque and correspondingly higher

636 lake levels at interior/high Andean sites indicate weakening late Holocene convection (although  
637 it was still stronger than during the middle Holocene).

638         The millennial scale trend at Ubaque from a drier middle Holocene (before ~3500 BP) to  
639 a wetter late Holocene (after ~3500 BP) is consistent with an increase in orbitally forced  
640 convective activity over western South America. Despite generally increasing convective  
641 precipitation over western South America from the middle to late Holocene, slightly reduced  
642 precipitation at Ubaque and increasingly wet conditions at high Andean sites after ~2100 BP  
643 suggests some suppression of atmospheric convection that reduced precipitation at frontal sites  
644 and increased it at interior/Andean sites. This shift may be due in part to the onset of modern  
645 ENSO variability and a more persistent El Niño-like sea surface temperature pattern in the  
646 tropical Pacific during the late Holocene, which served to increase atmospheric subsidence over  
647 northern South America, despite more westerly located convection in response to orbital forcing.

648         While intriguing, additional high-resolution Holocene hydroclimate records are needed  
649 from the Colombian Andes (frontal and high Andean sites) to test the idea that the dry island  
650 effect was an important mode of Andean climate variability through the Holocene. The  
651 persistence of dry island-like variability could potentially reconcile differences between  
652 hydroclimate records from the Colombian Andes and those from other parts of the Andes, which  
653 show different Holocene trends. For example, higher lake levels and increased precipitation in  
654 the Colombian Andes (e.g., La Cocha) during the middle Holocene (8000-3000 BP) may reflect  
655 a dry island response to reduced Andean convection during this time, which manifested as drier  
656 conditions in other parts of the Andes as indicated by low lake levels in the Venezuelan and  
657 Peruvian/Chilean Andes (e.g., Lake Titicaca). One implication for a persistent dry island effect is  
658 that a common driver of interhemispheric tropical Andean hydroclimate variability, i.e., changes

659 in large-scale atmospheric convection, could be invoked to explain the generally synchronous,  
660 but complex, Holocene hydroclimate changes observed in the NH and SH Andes. That abrupt  
661 and sustained Holocene hydroclimate variability in the NH and SH Andes does not closely  
662 resemble the gradual changes in the position of the ITCZ inferred from the Cariaco Basin, or the  
663 oxygen and hydrogen isotope records of monsoon variability from South American lakes,  
664 speleothems and ice cores, may suggest that local Andean climate is more, or additionally,  
665 sensitive to large-scale Andean atmospheric convection. The close correspondence between the  
666 Cariaco Basin ITCZ record and South American isotope-based monsoon records could  
667 additionally suggest that ITCZ variability is more influential in the core South American  
668 monsoon region over the Amazon Basin. In order to test these ideas, additional high-resolution  
669 paleoclimate records of local Andean hydroclimate variability (at high and low elevations) are  
670 needed from the NH and SH Andes. For Colombia specifically, understanding how changes in  
671 Andean convection may affect the spatial distribution of precipitation in mountains regions,  
672 where the majority of water retention systems are located, is important for assessing the stability  
673 of water resources.

674

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681

682 **Figure Captions**

683

684 **Figure 1:** Map of northern South America showing the location of the study site (Ubaque; red  
685 circle) and other paleoclimate records discussed in the text (white circles).

686

687 **Figure 2:** (A) Digital elevation map of the Ubaque watershed (outlined in gray) with inflows and  
688 outflows (labeled blue arrows) and the location of the moraine dam indicated (labeled white  
689 dashed line). (B) Bathymetric map of the Ubaque basin with the location from where sediment  
690 cores (red circles) and surface grab samples (green squares) were collected. The delta located on  
691 the lakes western shore is indicated with a large gray triangle. (C) Grain size abundance results  
692 from the surface sample transect. Littoral, transition, profundal and delta regions are indicated.  
693 (D) Linear regression between water depth and % sand from the surface sample transect.

694

695 **Figure 3:** Map of the Colombian Andes showing the location of selected weather stations.  
696 Monthly average precipitation profiles for the individual weather stations are shown for  
697 interior/Andean sites (red open diamonds) and frontal slope sites (blue open diamonds). Data are  
698 from the Global Historical Climate Network with the data set duration shown below the station  
699 name. The location of Colombian paleoclimate records discussed in the text are also shown with  
700 light blue circles.

701

702 **Figure 4:** Age-depth model constructed with Bacon for the Ubaque core showing the location  
703 and probability curves of dated positions (black curves and associated horizontal lines) and the  
704 95% confidence interval (CI) range of the age model (gray shading). One outlier is indicated with

705 the red curve. Visual stratigraphy of the Ubaque composite core is also shown with brief  
706 descriptions of the lithostratigraphic units.

707

708 **Figure 5:** Results from the Ubaque sediment record for (A) % lithics with a simplified  
709 stratigraphic profile at left, (B) % sand, (C) % silt, (D) % clay, (E)  $C_{org}:N$  (reversed axis), and (F)  
710 charcoal concentration ( $mm^2 cm^{-3}$ ). Colored horizontal boxes represent periods of drier (red) and  
711 wetter (blue) conditions. Dry conditions during the earliest part of the record are primarily  
712 inferred from high  $C_{org}:N$  whereas the most recent wet phase is based primarily on decreased  
713  $C_{org}:N$  and increased % silt. The question mark at the top of the lithics plot indicates the  
714 divergent trend in lithics compared to other hydroclimate indicators that suggest wetter  
715 conditions after 300 BP.

716

717 **Figure 6:** (A) Shaded histogram showing temporal variations in abundance of grain sizes in the  
718 Ubaque sediment record. Abundance variations in (B) benthic, (C) planktic, (D) tychoplanktonic,  
719 and (E) aerophilic diatoms in the Ubaque sediment record.

720

721 **Figure 7:** Correlations of regional hydroclimate records. (A) % sand (black line) is overlaid with  
722 ~40 year average lake levels estimated using the modern lake depth-% sand relationship shown  
723 in Fig. 2 (red line). Qualitative lake levels are represented with a dashed red line for the part of  
724 the Ubaque record when marsh-like/terrestrial conditions are inferred from the  $C_{org}:N$  data. The  
725 vertical black dashed line indicates the minimum lake depth represented by the modern  
726 calibration samples. (B)  $C_{org}:N$  as a proxy for lake levels at Ubaque. (C) % lithics at Ubaque as a  
727 proxy for watershed erosion related to wetter (higher lithics) or drier (lower lithics) conditions.



728 The question mark indicates the divergent trend in lithics compared to other hydroclimate  
729 indicators that suggest wetter conditions after 300 BP. (D) % silt at Ubaque as a proxy for the  
730 energy of runoff from the lake's watershed whereby increased silt reflects wetter conditions and  
731 lower silt reflect drier conditions. (E) La Cocha, CO, diatom derived lake-level index. Black  
732 circles indicate the position of  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages. (F) Laguna Blanca, VZ, lake-level reconstruction. Black  
733 squares indicate the position of  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages. (G) Lake Valencia, VZ, %  $\text{CaCO}_3$  as an indicator of  
734 wetter (higher %  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ) or drier (lower %  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ) conditions. The gray arrow between  
735 Ubaque % silt and the La Cocha lake level reconstruction indicates what we interpret to be  
736 correlative wet and dry periods, respectively.

737

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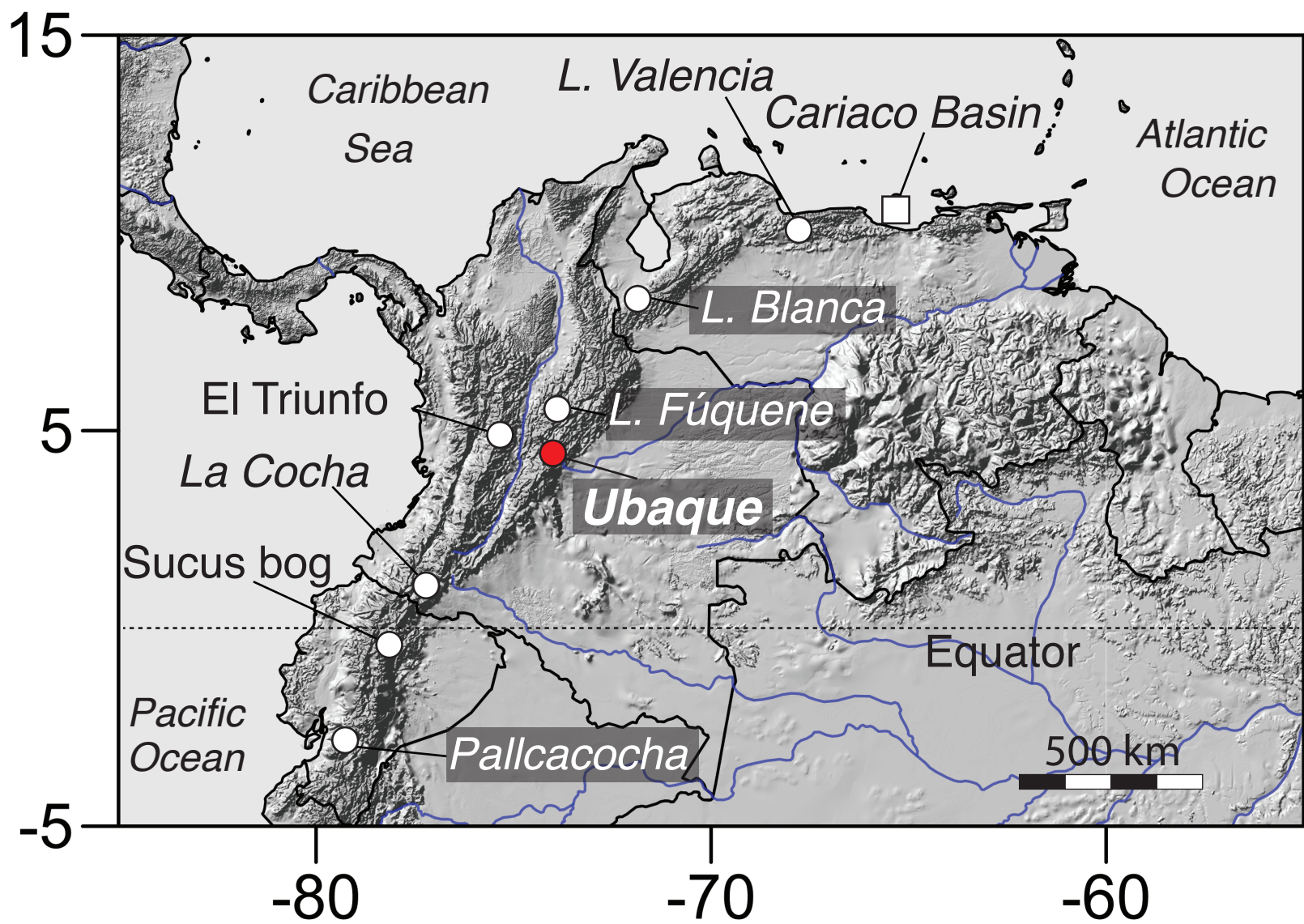
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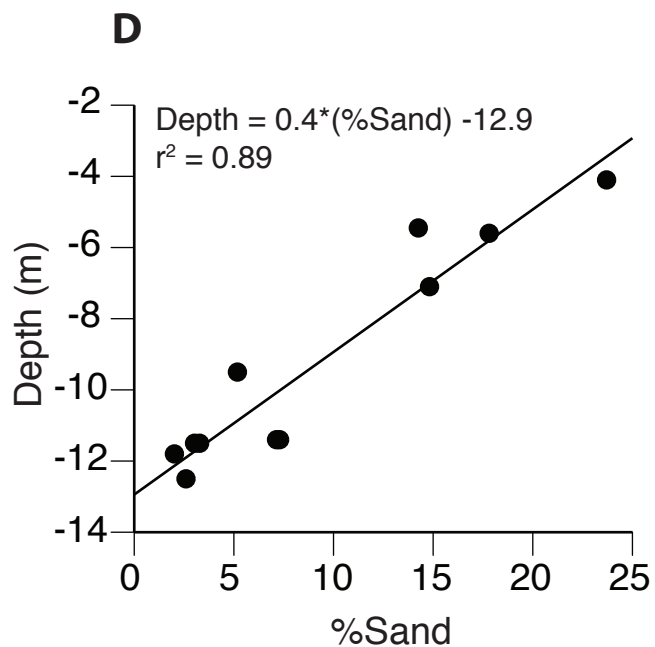
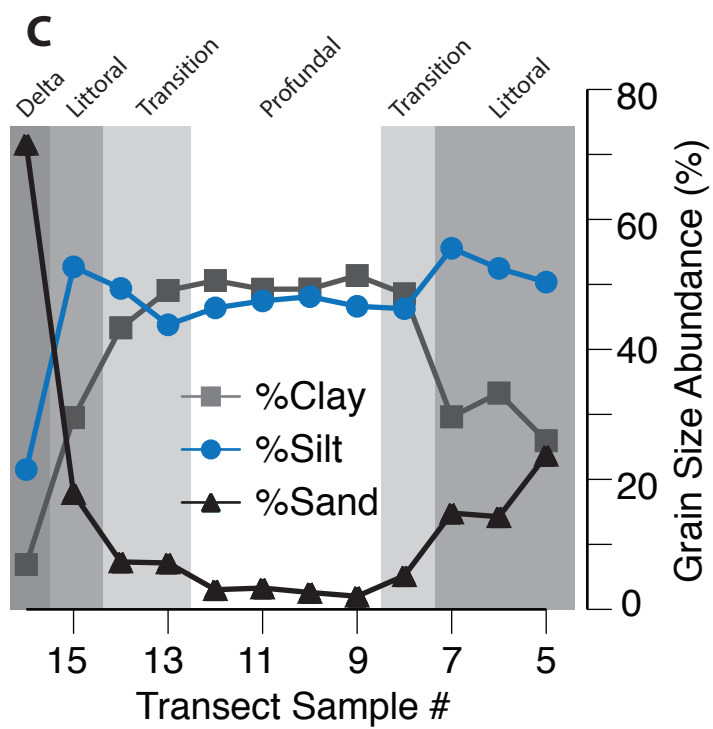
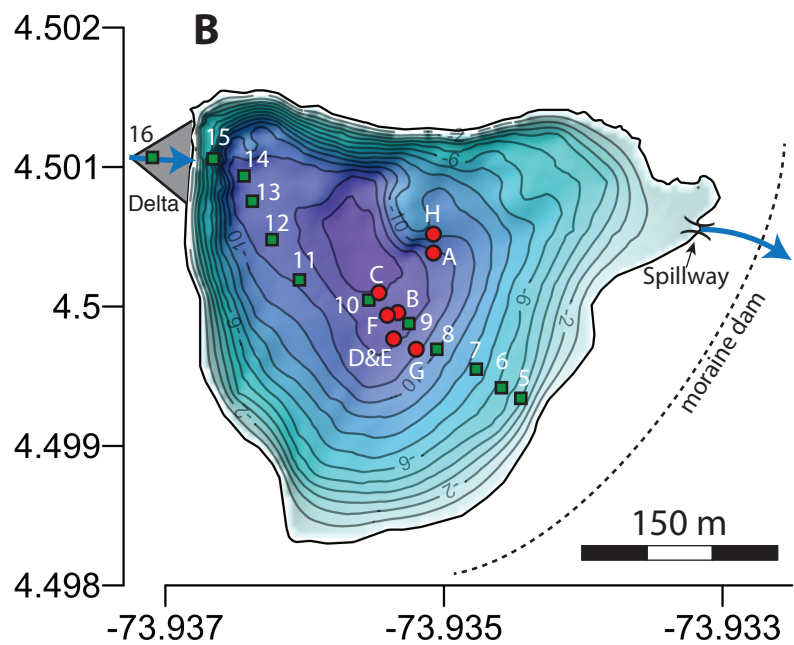
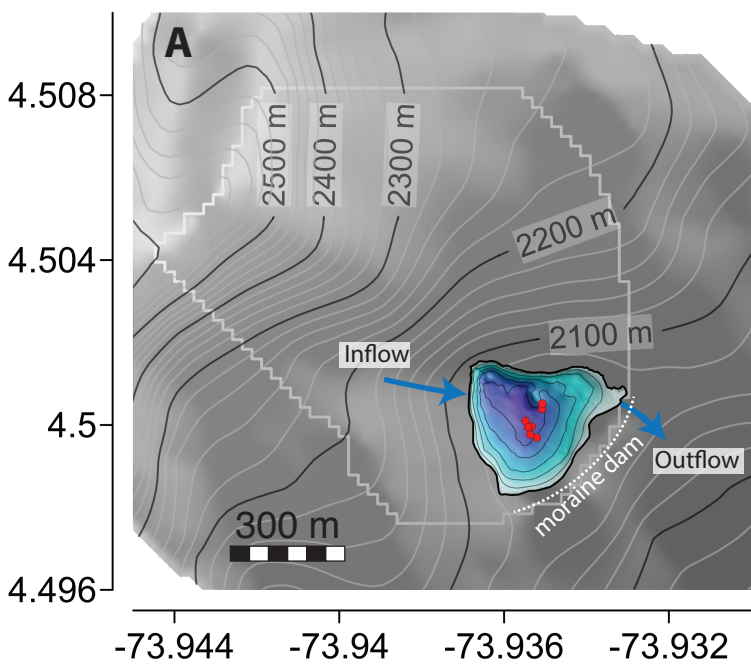
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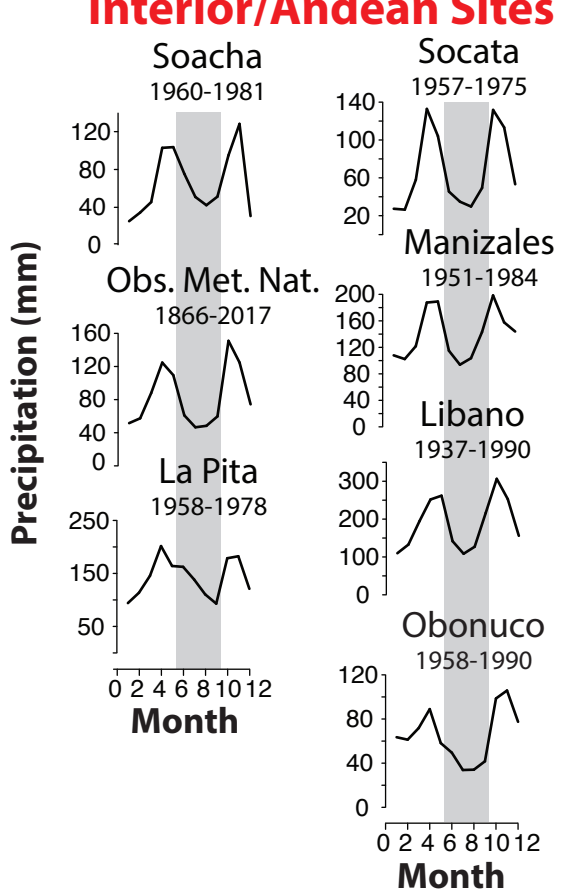
Bird et al. (2017) Figure 1



Bird et al. (2017) Figure 2

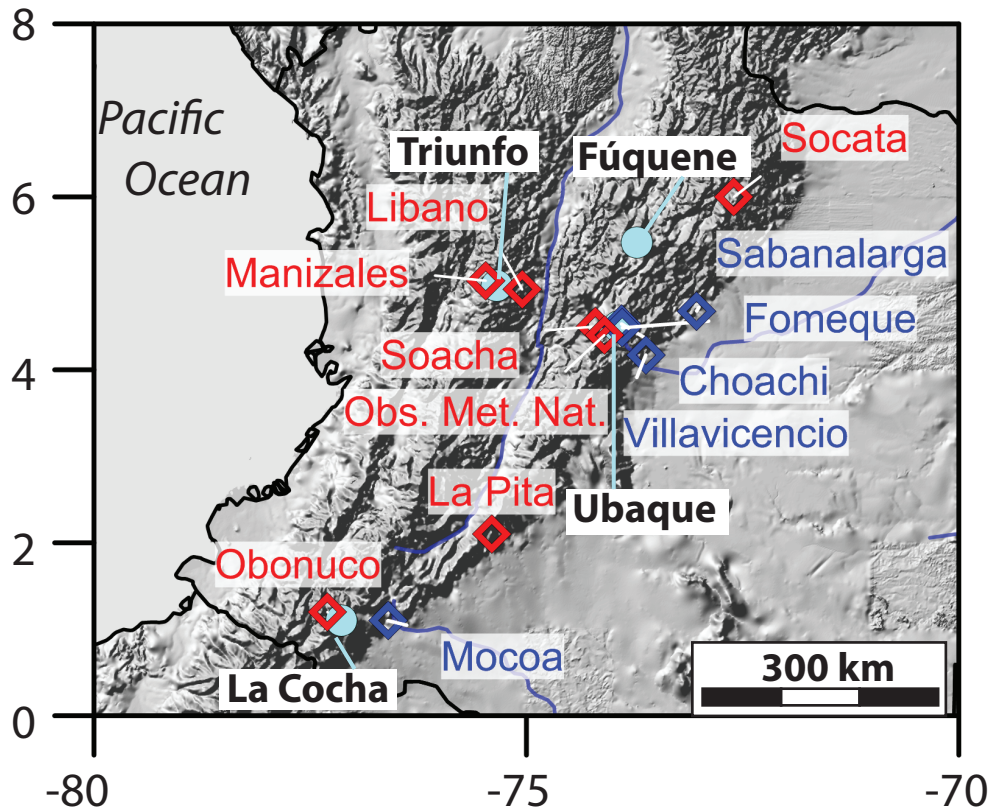
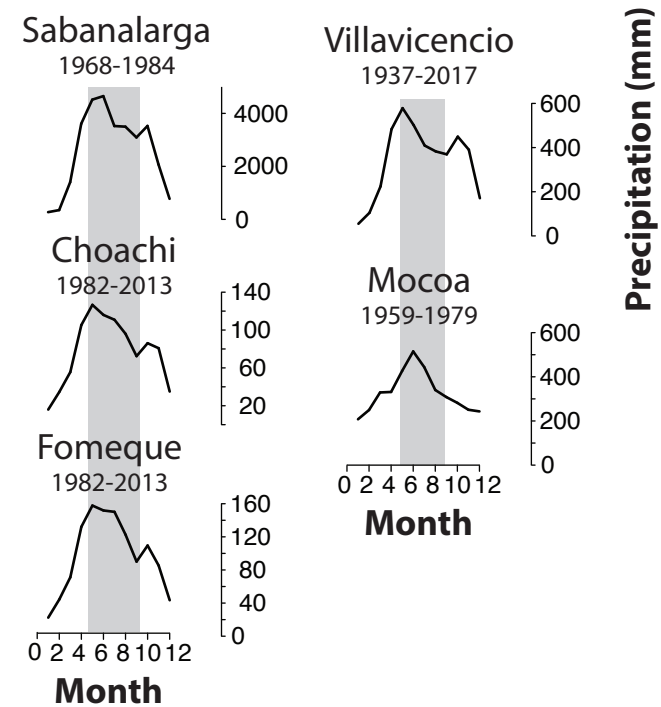
## “Dry Island”

### Interior/Andean Sites



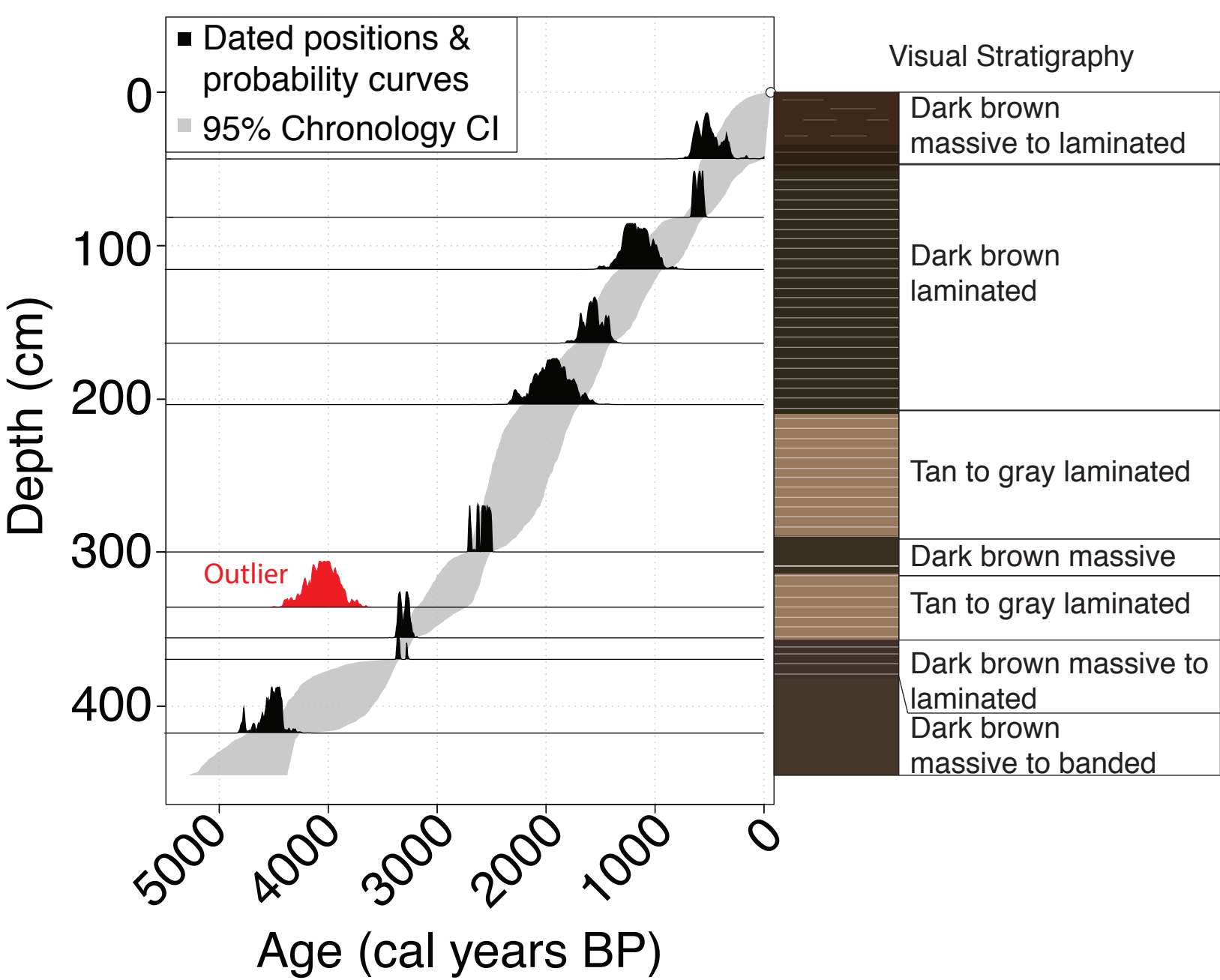
## “Sea of Rain”

### Frontal Sites

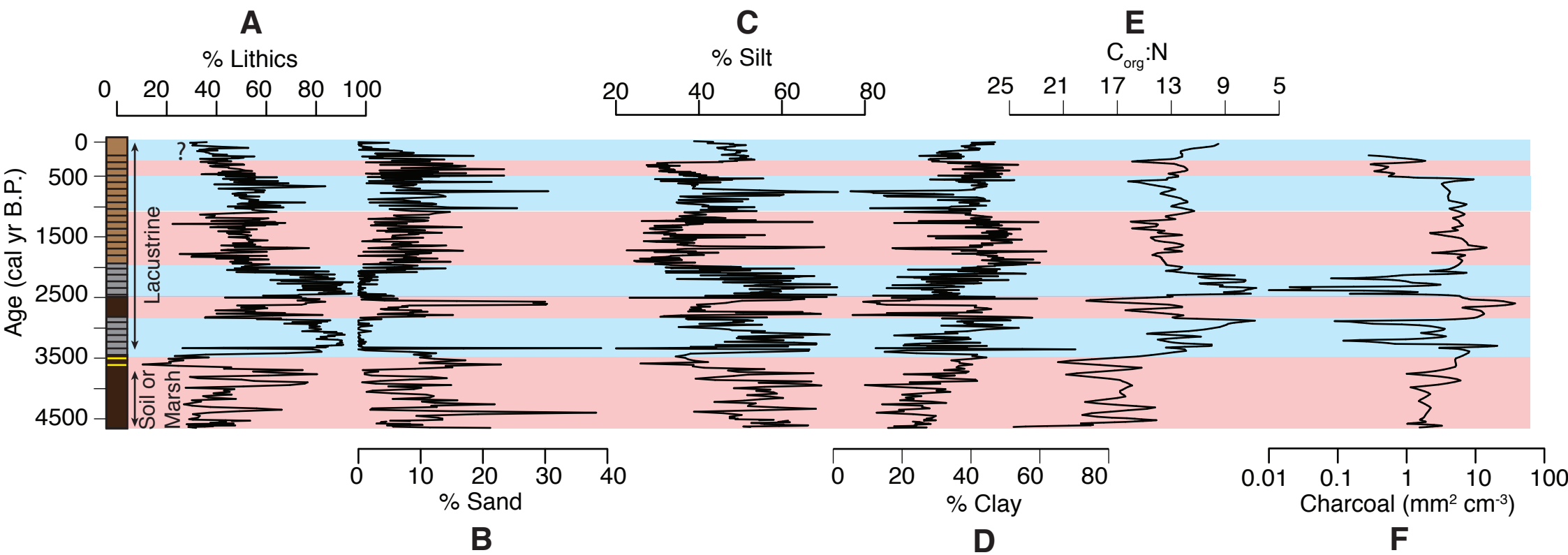


Bird et al. (2017) Figure 3

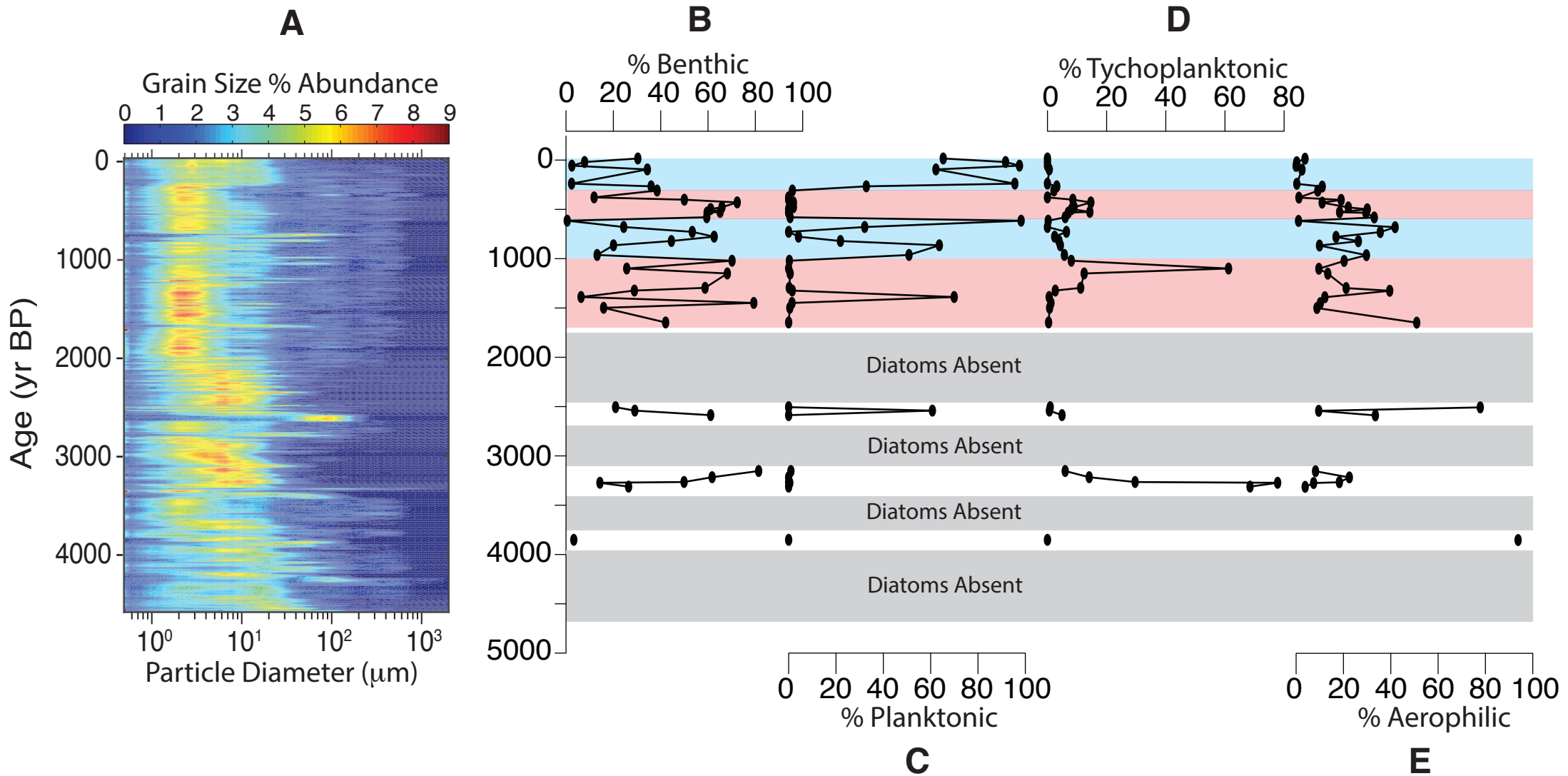




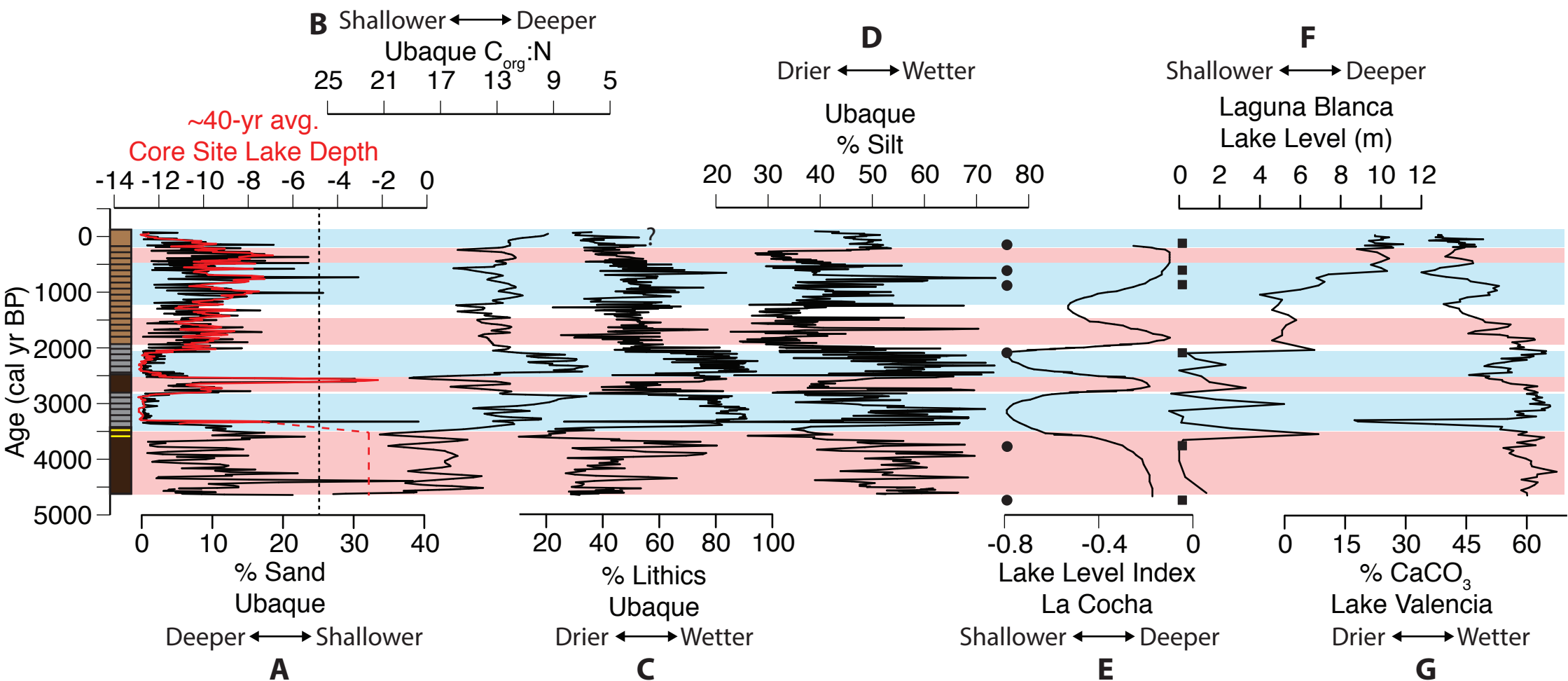
Bird et al. (2017) Figure 4



Bird et al. (2017) Figure 5



Bird et al. (2017) Figure 6



Bird et al. (2017) Figure 7