

1 **Hydro-climatic variation drives the long-term ecological evolution of neotropical**  
2 **floodplain lakes: an example from the Magdalena River system, Colombia**

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## 16 **Abstract**

17 The Magdalena River in Colombia and its floodplain lakes are key ecosystems for the subsistence  
18 of Colombian society. Yet, hydrologic regulation, pollution, deforestation and climate change are  
19 threatening its ecological integrity. To understand how these floodplain lakes respond over  
20 decadal-centennial scales to natural and anthropogenic stressors, we selected two shallow lakes  
21 with varying degree of connectivity to the River and assessed their historical ecological and  
22 limnological change through a multi-proxy analysis of diatoms, geochemistry and lake's  
23 morphometric variation resulting from extreme periods of high floods and droughts. The  
24 reconstruction of the more isolated San Juana Lake covered the last c.500 years. It showed  
25 riverine-flooded conditions from c.1555-1741 characterised by high detrital inputs, reductive  
26 conditions, and dominance of planktonic diatoms. From c.1758-1954, the riverine meander  
27 became disconnected, conveying into a marsh-like environment rich in aerophil diatoms and  
28 organic matter. The current lake was then formed around the mid 1960s and a diverse lake-  
29 associated diatom flora developed. Lake waters became more oxygenated, while sedimentation  
30 and nutrients increased through time since the lake formation. The reconstruction for Barbacoas  
31 Lake, a waterbody directly connected to the Magdalena River, spanned the last 60 years and  
32 showed alternating riverine-wetland-lake conditions dominated by planktonic and benthic diatoms  
33 respectively. An exception was however observed, during a prolonged period of low rainfall  
34 between 1989-1992, where the lake almost desiccated and where aerophil diatoms prevailed.  
35 Inferences of flood magnitudes and river connectivity in the lakes were supported by parallel  
36 increases in Zr/Fe (flooding) and detrital inputs (Ti/Ca) along with decreases in sedimentary OM.  
37 We proposed that lake hydrological connectivity to the Magdalena River is a main factor  
38 controlling lake long-term responses to human pressures. Highly connected lakes may respond

39 more acutely to ENSO events while isolated lakes might be more sensitive to local land-use  
40 changes.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Tropical floodplain lakes are subject to natural hydrological dynamics imposed by the river, and thus are exposed to natural extreme climate events such as floods and droughts (Death, 2010; Poff & Ward, 1989; Resh et al., 1988). These are known to influence primary productivity, community assembly (Junk, Bayley, & Sparks, 1989), increase or interruption of physical ecological connectivity (Amoros & Bornette, 2002), which in turn impacts habitat quality (Lake, 2000). However, natural hydrological dynamics of tropical floodplains can be affected by long-term (decades-centuries) human-derived modifications such as river damming, deforestation, land use change and climate change (Salgado et al., 2020; Van Looy et al., 2019; Angarita et al., 2017).

The Magdalena River in Colombia is one of the largest rivers (1540 km) of South America (Best, 2019) discharging over 7.100 m<sup>3</sup>/s into the Caribbean Sea (Figure 1). It dissects the country from South to North, as it runs between the Central and Eastern Andean Cordilleras. The river contains the largest floodplain areas of the country (320.000 Ha, 67%; Montoya-Moreno & Aguirre, 2009), hosting over 70% of the nation population and Gross Domestic Product- GDP (Mojica et al., 2006). Local human communities also depend on this riverine ecosystem as it contains one of the largest fish provisions in the region, with key economic species such as the Magdalena catfish (*Pseudoplatystoma magdaleniatum*) or the Bocachico (*Prochilodus magdalenae*) (Caballero et al., 2001). Its floodplains, lakes, wetlands and primary riparian forests are considered a biodiversity hotspot home to endemic birds such as the Critically Endangered blue-billed curassow

62 (*Crax alberti*) and other migratory bird species such as the fishing eagle (*Pandion*  
63 *haliaetus*), the Yellow-billed Cuckoo (*Coccyzus americanus*) and the Eastern Kingbird  
64 (*Tyrannus tyrannus*) (Angel-Escobar et al., 2014). Other endangered and charismatic  
65 vertebrates found in the region, include the brown spider monkeys (*Ateles hybridus*), the  
66 American manatee (*Trichechus manatus*), the lowland tapir (*Tapirus terrestris*) and the  
67 river otter (*Lontra longicauda*) (Angel-Escobar et al., 2014).

68 Deforestation in the Magdalena River basin has been steadily increasing over the last six  
69 decades, with current rates being three-fold higher than those from the 1950s (Ayram et  
70 al., 2020; Restrepo et al., 2018; Etter et al., 2008). This profound transformation of the  
71 landscape has come with a great environmental burden as the river and associated lakes  
72 have experienced excess in sediment yields, water pollution, habitat fragmentation, and  
73 freshwater fish population declines (Best, 2019; Restrepo et al., 2018; Restrepo, 2015). In  
74 addition, more than 20 large dam projects (> 20 MW hydropower capacity) across the  
75 Magdalena River and tributaries have been constructed or are on their way of  
76 implementation resulting in higher fish extinction risks and severe river flow reduction  
77 (Angarita et al., 2019; Carvajal-Quintero et al., 2017).

78 The growing interplay between human-caused stressors in the Magdalena river is  
79 therefore, bringing new challenges to the management and conservation of these tropical  
80 riverine ecosystems, highlighting the need for a better understanding of the historical  
81 trajectory of change in response to natural causes and to our past and present actions to  
82 promote adaptive management approaches (Van Looy et al., 2019). However, limnological

instrumental records for floodplain lakes are mostly inexistent in the catchment area of the river. The study of lake sediments through the use of palaeoecological techniques have shown to provide continuous data on sedimentological changes and aquatic communities over time allowing to track back in time the effects of land use change and its hydrological and limnological effects (Zeng et al., 2018; Salgado et al., 2020).

By focusing on two floodplain lakes (Barbacoas and San Juana) that differ in degree of hydrological connectivity to the Magdalena River and that have been subjected to frequent changes in land use over the last decades, this study aims to provide information on the long-term ecological responses of these systems to both natural hydrological and human-induced stressors. In particular we wanted to respond the following questions: (1) how have the San Juana and Barbacoas lakes evolved over time in response to natural and human-induced factors? And (2) how does the varying degree of hydrological connectivity to the Magdalena River affect the dynamics and stability of these ecosystems?

We hypothesize that the more connected ecosystem (Barbacoas) would have been more dependent on the hydrological dynamics imposed by the Magdalena River, and that the more isolated ecosystem (San Juana), would have been more dependent of changes in the local environment (Salgado et al., 2019; Swan & Brown, 2011). We used a multi-proxy analysis (fossil diatom, organic matter content, and sediment geochemistry) on sediment cores taken at each lake to reconstruct environmental and ecosystem change over the last few centuries.

## 2. METHODS

## 2.1 Study Area

Barbacoas Lake (6°44'26''N 74°14'36''W) is located on the western margin of the Magdalena River, and is directly connected to it via the Barbacoas creek, which has an approximate length of 6.3 km long (Figure 1). Barbacoas is a shallow lake (average depth= 1.2 meters) with a superficial area of 10 km<sup>2</sup>, brown-stained waters (mean secchi depth= 0.39 ±0.47 cm), pH of 7.25 ±0.26 and mean daily surface water temperature of 33.7 ±0.35°C (Table 1). San Juana Lake is located (6°38'32''N 74°09'24''W) on the eastern margin of the Magdalena River (Figure 1). It has a superficial area of 1.05 km<sup>2</sup> and is characterised by average water depths of 2.2 meters, brown-stained waters (mean secchi depth= 53 ±0.55 cm), and a mean daily surface temperature of 30.15 ±0.93 °C (Table 1). The lake is fed by the San Juan River on the south that outflows on the west joining later the Carare River before spilling into the Magdalena River near the town of Bocas del Carare (6°46'48''N 74°06'14''W). The hydrological river distance between the Magdalena and the San Juana Lake is approximately of 18.5 km.

## 2.2 Core sampling

In an attempt to collect information from both river-borne and in-lake processes we retrieved single-short sediment cores from semi-littoral areas near the mouth of the outflow of each lake using a wide-bore (diameter of 10 cm) corer (Aquatic Instruments inc.). The core from the San Juana Lake (LSAN-1) was collected at a water depth of 100 cm (6°38'32''N 74°09'24''W). The core from Barbacoas Lake (LBARB-1) was retrieved at a water depth of 90 cm (6°44'26''N 74°14'36''W). Each core was subsampled in the field at 1

125 cm intervals; changes in lithostratigraphy were recorded prior to extrusion. The sediments  
126 were then kept refrigerated at the Tropical Palynology and Paleoecology Laboratory,  
127 Universidad de Los Andes for further analyses.

### 128 **2.3 Dating and age-depth model**

129 The L-SAN1 and LBARB-1 cores were dated using radionuclide measurements of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ,  
130  $^{226}\text{Ra}$ ,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{241}\text{Am}$  by direct gamma assay (Appleby et al., 2001) in the Environmental  
131 Radiometric Facility at University College London, UK. For LSAN-1 the top 20 cm of the  
132 core were dated and the age of the remaining core sediment samples (20-50 cm) were  
133 extrapolated following Zeng et al., (2018) by using linear regression analysis according to  
134 the four older dated sediment samples, i.e. 14.5 cm, 15.5 cm, 17.5 and 18.5 cm. For  
135 LBARB-1, the sediment samples were dated every three centimetres, along the core.

### 136 **2.4 Geochemical analysis**

137 The organic matter (OM) content of each core was measured using the method of loss-on-  
138 ignition (LOI; Dean 1974). Sampling resolution for LSAN-1 core was at 1 cm for the top 20  
139 cm samples, and at every 2 cm for the remaining 30 cm of the core samples. For LBARB-1  
140 core, sampling resolution was at 1 cm throughout the core. Shifts in OM content were  
141 used as a proxy of flooding (river influence) following Schillereff et al., (2014). During high  
142 floods OM is expected to decline through dilution from a greater deposition of terrigenous  
143 sediments associated with the river flow (Rapuc et al., 2019). In turn, OM is expected to  
144 increase during dry periods through increased in-lake primary production and decreased  
145 allochthonous input (Schillereff et al., 2014).



146 Sediment geochemistry was measured using X-ray fluorescence (XRF) with an Xmet 7500  
147 portable analyser spectrometer (Oxford instruments Inc.). Around 3 grams of dry  
148 sediment, 1 cm thick sample was analysed for XRF. A sampling resolution of every 1 cm  
149 was used for the top 18 cm sediment samples in both cores, and of every 3 cm for the  
150 remaining bottom samples of both cores. We obtained two XRF readings (1 minute of  
151 length) for each sediment sample and the median value of both readings was used for  
152 statistical analysis. The XRF portable analyser spectrometer was calibrated against  
153 certified material prior to analysis (Conrey et al., 2014) and all XRF measurements were  
154 run using the Mining method, which detects elements occurring in very low (<0.01 ppm)  
155 concentrations (Gasdia-Cochrane, 2017). A total of 31 samples for LSAN-1 and of 29  
156 samples for LBARB-1 were analysed for phosphorus (P), iron (Fe), manganese (Mn),  
157 titanium (Ti), calcium (Ca), and zirconium (Zr). The ratios of these elements (excluding P)  
158 were used as proxies for river-borne and in-lake processes as follow: flooding Zr/Fe  
159 (Schillereff et al., 2014; Davies et al., 2015), detrital input Ti/Ca (Salgado et al. 2020; Davies  
160 et al., 2015), and oxygenation of the water column Mn/Fe (Davies et al., 2015). Generally  
161 rivers during low flow periods deliver comparatively less sediments to lakes, and these are  
162 normally fine-grained silts; during slightly elevated flows, clays and Fe commonly occur  
163 (Schillereff et al., 2014). During peaks of high floods, coarse-grained (Zr) sediments are  
164 expected to increase (Schillereff et al., 2014). Ti is an unambiguous indicator of  
165 allochthonous coarser inputs from the catchment (Cohen, 2003), while Ca is often  
166 associated with in-lake production (Tjallingii et al., 2007). As such, higher values of Ti/Ca  
167 ratio may indicate greater detrital input (Salgado et al., 2020). Iron (Fe) and manganese

(Mn) provide information about changing redox conditions (Davies, 2015). In a reducing (low oxygen) environment, the solubility of Fe and Mn increases, being Mn more readily affected (Boyle, 2002). An increase in Mn/Fe ratio can thus indicate the onset of aerobic conditions. As so, greater river influences into the lakes were inferred by increases in flooding, sedimentation rates, detrital inputs and concomitant reductions in OM.

## **2.5 Diatoms**

Approximately 0.3 gr of dry sediment per sample were used for diatom analyses following Battarbee (1986). Each sample was placed in a beaker with 30 mL of hydrogen peroxide (10%) for approximately 24 hours, or until the reaction stopped. After, 100 mL of distilled water was added to each of the samples and they were left until the water column was clear. Then, 0.6 mL of each sample was placed on a microscope slide and allowed to dry after which it was mounted using Naphrax and then 400 diatoms were counted and classified. For LSAN-1 core sampling resolution was every 1 cm in the top 20 cm, and every 4 cm for the remaining of the core, for a total of 27 samples. For LBARB-1 core, we used a sampling resolution of 2 cm throughout the core, for a total of 22 samples. The differential lake sampling resolution was due to the differences in sedimentation rates and the temporal resolution we wanted to achieve for the recent decades. The diatom species were identified using (Lange-Bertalot & Meltzelin, 2007; Kramer & Lange-Bertalot, 1986, 1991a, 1991b; Diatoms of North America database; diatoms.org) and then grouped into the following functional groups according to their ecological preference: Aerophil, Benthic and Planktonic (Table 2). For the Benthic category ecological preferences related to

189 productive and acidic/dystrophic waters were also included (Viktória et al., 2017). Species  
190 of the genus *Eunotia*, *Pinnularia*, *Nitzschia*, *Encyonema* and *Gomphonema* had very low  
191 counts and therefore they were aggregated into a single category according to their  
192 respective genus.

## 193 **2.6 Data Analysis**

194 Statistical analyses were performed following four logical steps:

### 195 **2.6.1 Changes in diatom assemblages**

196 To detect major zones of temporal diatom change, and assess main compositional  
197 changes, we used a combination of stratigraphically Constrained Hierarchical Clustering  
198 (Coniss) analysis and Rank Clocks Analyses (RCA; Collins et al., 2008). Coniss analysis was  
199 performed using the *Rioja* package in R (Juggins & Juggins, 2019). RCAs were performed  
200 with the *Codyn* package in R (Hallet et al., 2016). RCA identifies which species show the  
201 greatest change in abundance at each temporal zone revealed by clustering analysis on a  
202 clock-like diagram, where 12 o'clock on the vertical axis is the starting point of the data  
203 (Collins et al., 2000). Prior to Coniss and RCA analyses, diatom counts were square root  
204 transformed in order to weight the varying relative abundances of the different diatom  
205 species (Okansen et al., 2010).

### 206 **2.6.2 Changes in sediment geochemistry**

207 Temporal trends of change in the selected geochemical indices (detrital inputs, erosion,  
208 flooding, and oxygenation of the water column) were modelled using Generalised Additive

209 Models (GAM) on the *mcgv* package in R (Wood & Wood, 2015). GAMs were run using the  
210 default settings on each geochemical index ratio as the response variable and core depth  
211 as the predictor variable using the method “REML”.

### 212 2.6.3 Trajectories of ecological and geochemical change

213 The main trajectories of ecological and geochemical change over time for each lake were  
214 then assessed using Multiple factor analysis–MFA (Pagès, 2002). MFA allows incorporating  
215 simultaneously the amount of variation explained by the different diatom functional  
216 groups and geochemical index ratios, while visually assessing trends in trajectory of  
217 change in the multidimensional space. We standardised the diatom, LOI, sedimentation  
218 rates and geochemical index ratios by applying a weight equal to the inverse of the first  
219 eigenvalue of the analysis of the group (Pagès, 2002). The MFAs were performed in R  
220 using the package *FactoMineR* (Pagès, 2002).

### 221 2.6.4 Hydro-climatic variation and lake responses

222 To quantify how lakes have responded to extreme long-term climatic events (ENSO) we  
223 run a Standardised Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index–SPEI analysis (Vicente-Serrano  
224 et al., 2010). This analysis uses historical climatic data to generate a drought index based  
225 on the difference between precipitation and potential evapotranspiration across a given  
226 area, allowing the identification of years with extreme drought or excess water (Vicente-  
227 Serrano et al., 2010). The SPEI index data were downloaded from

228 <https://spei.csic.es/map/maps.html#months=1#month=3#year=2020> for the interval

229 [between 1985 and 2016](#). Years with severe drought or excess precipitation were obtained

230 using the annual mean data (i.e. 12-month time scale). The Global SPEI database is fed by  
231 worldwide monthly drought conditions data with a spatial resolution is of 0.5 degrees  
232 (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010).

233 Years with SPEI index values between -0.5 and 0.5 are considered to fall within a normal  
234 climatic variability (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010), whereas years with values  $< -2$  are  
235 considered as extremely wet, and values  $> 2$  are considered as extremely dry (Vicente-  
236 Serrano et al., 2010). Extreme wet and dry years were thus identified for our study area  
237 and then, the total surface area of each lakes was measured during these extreme events.  
238 To calculate the total surface area of each lake at a given time-period we used a  
239 supervised image classification analysis in Qgis desktop 3.10.5. The SPEI index data was  
240 further correlated against the geochemical index Zr/Fe to test the feasibility of this ratio as  
241 a reliable proxy for river influence (flooding). Correlation patterns and significance  
242 between ZR/Fe and SPEI index data were again achieved via GAM using the above  
243 mentioned protocols for the geochemical indices.

## 244 **1. RESULTS**

### 245 **3.1 Age model and sedimentation rates**

246 The LSAN-1 core was of 50 cm long with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{241}\text{Am}$  activities indicating the 1963  
247 maximum fallout of the atmospheric nuclear bomb around the top 19 cm section (Figure  
248 S1a). The resulting  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating model indicates that the top 20 cm spanned the last c. 120  
249 years with the extrapolating  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dates bellow this core depth suggesting a sediment  
250 record covering approximately the last 500 years (Figure 2a). Sedimentation rates within

the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dated portion of the core (top 19 cm) gradually increased from  $0.024 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at 18 cm to  $0.49 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at the top of the core with two marked peaks of  $0.12 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and  $0.23 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  corresponding at around the years 1930 and 1990 respectively.

The LBARB-1 core was 40 cm long with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity showing a peak at 36.5 cm indicating the maximum fallout level in 1963 (Figure S1b). Since the CRS model placed 1963 at a shallower depth (29.5 cm), the chronology was corrected by placing the year 1963 at a depth of 36.5 cm (Figure S1b). The resulting  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating model spanned therefore the last c. 60 years; i.e. 2016- 1959 (Figure 2b). Sedimentation rates were generally high across the sediment record, ranging between  $0.3 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at 30 cm to  $3 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at 6 cm (2016-2014). Very low  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  activities within the top first centimetres of the core indicates possible sediment mixing, and thus the top 3.5 cm sediments were assumed to be formed within the same year.

### 3.2 Diatom community change

#### *San Juana Lake*

A total of 19 diatom taxa were found in LSAN-1 (Figure 3). Clustering analysis and RCA revealed the following major zones of change in the diatom assemblages:

#### *Zone 1 (48.5-36.5 cm; c. 1555-1747 CE)*

This zone was characterised by dominance of *Aulacoseira ambigua* (Figure 3). The diatoms *Pinnularia* spp. *A. granulata*, *Neidium saccoense*, *Capartogramma crucicola*, and *Caloneis amphisbaena* also occurred but with lower abundances.

271 Zone 2 (35.5-12.5 cm; c. 1758-1965 CE)

272 This zone was characterised by a co-dominance of *Pinnularia* spp., *A. granulata*, and *A.*  
273 *alpigena* (Figure 3). The species *Diadesmis confervacea* and *Staurosirella pinnata* were  
274 also present in low abundances.

275 Zone 3 (22.5-0.5 cm; c. 1967-2016 CE)

276 This zone was dominated by *Pinnularia* spp., and *A. granulate* (Figure 3). The diatom  
277 species *A. alpigena* was present but with lower abundances compared to the previous  
278 zone. *D. confervacea*, *Eunotia* spp., and *Sellaphora alastos* increased while other diatoms  
279 present, but in lower abundances included *Stauroneis neohyalina*, *Gomphoneis erienne*  
280 and *Encyonema minutum* var. *pseudogracilis*.

281 Barbacoas Lake

282 A total of 21 diatom taxa were found in LBARB-1 core (Figure 4). Clustering analysis and  
283 RCA indicated three main temporal zones of diatom assemblage change:

284 Zone 1 (38.5-24.5 cm; c. 1959-1984 CE)

285 In this zone *A. granulata*, *Aulacoseira* sp., *A. alpigena* and *Actinella disjuncta* dominated  
286 the assemblages (Figure 4). In minor proportions and mainly restricted to this zone were  
287 *A. distans* and *D. confervacea*. *A. herzogii* peaked around 22 cm. Other taxa occurring  
288 with lower abundances included *Eunotia* spp., *Pinnularia* spp., and *Cyclotella*  
289 *meneghiniana*.

290 Zone 2 (29-22 cm; c. 1989-1992 CE)

291 During this time *A. granulata*, *A. granulata* var. *angustissima*, *Aulacoseira* sp., *A. alpigena*  
292 and *D. confervacea* dominated (Figure 4). It is important to notice that between 21-22 cm  
293 (1989 and 1992 respectively) species such as *A. herzogii* and *C. menenghiana* disappeared  
294 from the fossil record but reappeared post-1992. Also, *Luticola mutica* appeared around  
295 22 cm (1989) peaking around 21 cm (1992). *Pinnularia* spp., *Encyonema* spp., and *Eunotia*  
296 spp., were present in lower proportions and remained constant through this interval.

297 Zone 3 (21-0 cm; c. 1989-1992 CE)

298 This zone was marked by dominance of *A. granulata* var. *angustissima* along with  
299 increases in *A. herzogii*, *Frustulia crassinerva*, and *Pinnularia* spp., (Figure 4). At the core  
300 depths 15 cm and 5 cm (2011 and 2015 respectively), all diatoms disappeared from the  
301 fossil record.

### 302 3.3 SPEI Analysis

303 The SPEI analysis (Figure S2) identified extreme dry periods during 1992, 1997, 1998 and  
304 2015 and extremely wet periods in 1951, 1999, and 2011. Accordingly, each lake surface  
305 area was calculated for regular years when there were no extreme events (1985 and  
306 2016), for an extreme El Niño draught in 1992, and for an extreme wet La Niña event in  
307 2011 (Figure 5). Calculated lake surface area values for the San Jana Lake were of 0.64 Km<sup>2</sup>  
308 in 1985, of 0.56 Km<sup>2</sup> in 1992, of 0.59 Km<sup>2</sup> in 2011 and of 0.52 Km<sup>2</sup> in 2016 (Figure 5a).



309 Lake surface area for Barbacoas Lake was of 8.7 Km<sup>2</sup> in 1985), of 2.8 Km<sup>2</sup> in 1992, of 2011  
310 8.4 Km<sup>2</sup> in 2011 and of 10.37 Km<sup>2</sup> in 2016 (Figure 5b).

### 311 **3.4 Geochemical analysis**

#### 312 *San Juana Lake*

313 The GAM on LOI explained a significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) 96.8% of the temporal variation in OM  
314 content (Figure 6a). The analysis revealed that OM was relatively low (10%-18%) between  
315 50 and 22 cm (c. 1531-1867 CE). A subsequent increase (28-29%) in OM was observed  
316 within the upper 21 cm of the core (c. 1879-2016 CE). The analysis further explained a  
317 significant ( $p > 0.002$ ) 37.5% of the temporal variation in Mn/Fe (oxygenation of the water  
318 column) with values increasing gradually over time (0.0021 to 0.005) and being more  
319 pronounced from 21 cm upwards. The GAM models for the ratios Ti/Ca (detrital inputs)  
320 and Zr/Fe (flooding) explained a significant ( $p < 0.001$  in both cases) 82% and 50% of the  
321 total temporal variation respectively. Both indices gradually declined (1.30 to 0.98 and  
322 0.033 to 0.016 respectively) within the top 21 cm of the core. The GAM model for P  
323 concentrations in the lake sediments, also explained a significant ( $p = 0.02$ ) 16.5% of the  
324 temporal variation showing a gradual increase (0.12 to 0.18) over time that became more  
325 pronounced since 1967.

#### 326 *Barbacoas Lake*

327 The GAM on LOI explained a significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) 88% of the temporal variation in OM  
328 content (Figure 6b). The analysis revealed that between 40-30 cm, OM content was

329 relatively high, ranging between 20%-30%. A marked subsequent decreased in OM was  
330 observed within the top 29 cm of the core (c. 1981-2016 CE) reaching values of 5-6%  
331 towards recent times. The analysis for the Mn/Fe ratio explained a significant ( $p > 0.001$ )  
332 53% of the temporal variation showing a marked increase in ratio values (0.00092 to  
333 0.0012) since around the 25 cm sample. GAM on the Ti/Ca ratio also explained a  
334 significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) 62% of the temporal variation showing a gradual increase (0.5 to 0.8)  
335 within the top 30 cm of the core from values. The analysis for Zr/Fe ratio explained a  
336 significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) 77% of the total temporal variation. Zr/Fe values were relatively low  
337 (0.0001) between 40-30 cm (c. 1959-1975 CE) with a subsequent increase (0.0003)  
338 between 26 cm and 8 cm (c. 1983-2013 CE) and a subsequent reduction (0.00025) in Zr/Fe  
339 from 7-0 cm (c. 2014-2016 CE).

340 The GAM analysis for the SPEI data and the flooding proxy (Zr/Fe ratio) explained a  
341 significant ( $p = 0.003$ ) 60% of the temporal variation in the San Juana Lake and a significant  
342 ( $p = 0.001$ ) 36% in Barbacoas Lake (Figure 5c). The analysis revealed a negative correlation  
343 between SPEI and flooding. Wet years ( $\text{SPEI} > 0$ ) were correlated with low Zr/Fe ratios and  
344 dry years ( $\text{SPEI} < 0$ ) with higher Zr/Fe ratio values.

### 345 **3.5 Shifts and rates of diatom community and environmental change**

346 The MFA for San Juana Lake showed that Dimension 1 (D1) explained 31.5% of the total  
347 diatom and geochemical variation, whereas dimension 2 (D2) explained 17.5% (Figure 7a).  
348 The group categories contributing the most to D1 included acidic/dystrophic diatoms  
349 (27%), geochemical processes (24%) and benthic/productive diatom species (22%).

350 Planktonic (48%) and aerophil diatoms (30%) explained most of the variation of D2. Three  
351 different temporal categories were distinguished in the ordination plot. Historical times (c.  
352 1500s-1750 CE) were placed on the left hand side of the diagram and were characterised  
353 by high flooding, low OM content, and low sedimentation rates. The planktonic diatom *A.*  
354 *ambigua* and the acidic/dystrophic *Pinnularia* spp., *C. amphisbaena*, *C. crucicola*, and *N.*  
355 *sacoense* dominated during this early category. The second category (c. 1783-1954 CE)  
356 was placed on the top centre of the diagram with the planktonics *A. alpigena*, and *A.*  
357 *granulata* and the aerophil *S. pinnata* dominating the assemblages. Samples moved then  
358 towards the right hand side of the multivariate diagram forming the third group (1961-  
359 2016 CE; Figure 6a). This group was characterised by low flooding, greater OM content  
360 and high sedimentation rates. Diatom species occurring in this group included the aerophil  
361 *D. confervacea*, the benthic/productive *Nitzschia* spp., *G. erienne*, and *C. cuspidata*, and  
362 the acidic/dystrophic, *Eunotia* spp., *S. alastos*, and *S. supergracilis*.

363 The MFA for Barbacoas Lake showed that D1 explained 19.6% of the total diatom and  
364 geochemical variation, while D2, explained 15.8% (Figure 7b). The diatom functional  
365 groups contributing the most to D1 variation were planktonic (29%) and  
366 benthic/productive diatoms (24%), whilst geochemical proxies accounted for 22%. The  
367 diatom functional groups contributing the most to D2 were acidic/dystrophic (32%),  
368 planktonic (24%) and aerophil (22%) diatoms. Three temporal categories were  
369 distinguished in the ordination plot. Historical times (1980-1960) were placed on the right  
370 hand side of the plot and characterised by small flooding events, low sedimentation and  
371 high OM content (Figure 7b). Diatom species within this historical cluster included the

planktonic *A. distans*, *Fragilaria* spp., and *A. alpigena*, the benthic/productive *A. disjuncta* and *H. elongata* and the acidic *Eunotia* spp. The second association included the years 1985, 1986, 1999, 2012, and 2014 and was placed on the left-down side of the diagram. Oxygenated water column conditions prevailed during these years along with a dominance of the aerophil *L. mutica* and the planktonic *A. granulata* var. *angustissima*. The third temporal category included the years 1989, 1992, 2003, 2006, 2010 and 2015 was placed on the centre of the plot. This temporal association was characterised by high detrital inputs, high flooding and high sedimentation rates along with a prevalence of the planktonic *A. herzogii*, the benthic/productive *Nitzschia* spp. and *Gomphonema* spp., and the acidic/dystrophic *Encyonema* spp., *Stauroneis* spp., *F. crassinervia*.

#### 4. DISCUSSION

Tropical floodplain ecosystems are rapidly deteriorating across the globe due to multiple stressors including changing hydrology, climate and human disturbance (Tockner et al., 2010). Yet little is known, in particular in the neotropics, about how these valuable ecosystems are responding on a long-term (decades-centuries) scale to these stressors. As we discuss below, the palaeolimnological multi-proxy approach on Barbacoas and San Juana Lakes used in this study provides a first approximation on how neotropical lowland floodplain lakes may respond through time according to variable degrees of connectivity to the main river and human induced stressors.

##### 4.1 Long-term evolution of lakes and their response to extreme events

*San Juana Lake*

Over the last c. 500 years San Juana Lake transitioned from a river-governed system, to a wetland, and eventually to the lake it is today, probably as a consequence of a progressive disconnection to the Carare River, tributary of the Magdalena River. This is interpreted from the dominance in planktonic species such as *A. ambigua* and *A. granulata*, and *C. amphisbaena* around c.1555-1747 CE (Zone 1) that reflect water mixing and river influence (Table 2). This is in accordance with the geochemical data that indicate low concentration of OM, high detrital inputs and flooding. After this period, an isolated wetland-like system formed between c. 1758 and c. 1954 CE (Zone 2) as indicated by the decrease in *A. ambigua* and the increase in *A. alpigena*, a species associated with low waters levels in tropical freshwater lakes (Table 2). The prevalence of *S. pinnata* and the presence of the aerophil *D. confervacea* further support a very shallow, wetland-like environment (Table 2). The decline in flooding and detrital inputs suggests a disconnection to the river.

Permanent modern lake conditions were established after c. 1967, with moderately water acidic conditions (Zone 3) as indicated by the dominance of benthic/tychoplanktonic rather than planktonic diatoms including *Stauroneis neohyalina*, *Sellaphora alastos*, *Gomphoneis erienne* and *Encyonema minutum* var. *pseudogracilis*. The further isolation of the wetland and its transition to a lake after the 1960s is further supported by a marked decline in detrital inputs and flooding along with an increase in autochthonous productivity (OM content) and water column oxygenation. A recent palaeolimnological study by Salgado et al., (2020) in the Panama Canal (Panama) similarly found that detrital inputs that characterised historical riverine-wetland conditions declined after the

415 construction of Gatun Dam, while sediment reductive conditions shifted towards a more  
416 oxygenated environment in response to a macrophyte expansion with creation of Gatun  
417 Lake. Increases in organic matter and reduction in coarse sediment material associated  
418 with lake production after artificial damming, or as in our case, after the fluvial input  
419 declined, have been similarly described in floodplain lakes in the Yangtze River (Zeng et al.,  
420 2018; Liu et al., 2012).

421 The suggested long-term transition from river, to a wetland-like environment and to a lake  
422 fits other ontological process of South American floodplain lakes (Fayó et al., 2018;  
423 Amoros & Bornette, 2002). These commonly, originate from a natural cutting off the  
424 meandering neck of a river (Gaiser & Rühland, 2010), likely assisted by pronounced shifts  
425 in precipitation regimes and sediment load that alter connectivity (Amoros & Bornette,  
426 2002). In Colombia, ENSO brings extreme dry periods and the change from a river-  
427 dominated system to a wetland-like environment in La San Juana presumably correlates  
428 with a strong El Niño phase reported around c. 1750 CE (Li et al., 2011). Such dry climatic  
429 conditions would have promoted a disconnection of a meander from the main river  
430 channel (Fayó et al., 2018). The increase in P since the lake formation along with the  
431 observed low responses to other ENSO events such as the 1992 El Niño or the 2011 La  
432 Niña suggests that the lake is gradually becoming more productive and hence, likely more  
433 sensitive to local environmental factors, such as nutrient and sediment runoff, than to  
434 hydro-climatic events.

435

436 *Barbacoas Lake*

437 Temporal changes in diatom communities in Barbacoas Lake were mostly related to  
438 variations in their relative abundances rather than to a succession of species. The MFA  
439 analysis suggests that these long-term ecological changes were related to different  
440 periods of varying degree of connectivity to the main river: first, a riverine-wetland-like  
441 environment followed by periods of extreme drought and high flooding from the main  
442 river. For instance, between c. 1959-1986 CE, the high OM content coupled with the  
443 dominance of *A. distans*, *A. alpigena*, *Pinnularia* spp., *Eunotia* spp., and *C. meneghiniana*,  
444 indicates shallow, productive, and turbid water conditions (Table 2). These geochemical  
445 and diatom associations have been similarly described as characteristic of a wetland phase  
446 during the evolution of a floodplain lake in the Colorado River, Argentina (Fayó et. al  
447 2018). Wetland areas today in Barbacoas Lake are composed of large mats of floating and  
448 emergent macrophytes thus that the water is rich in humic substances and poor in oxygen  
449 (dissolved oxygen < 3 ppm; Table 1); such wetland conditions would have provided  
450 suitable habitats for the dominant aerophil *D. confervacea* at 1960-1980 CE.

451 According to the MFA analysis, the lake and its connectivity to the Magdalena River have  
452 been sensitive to extreme drier and wetter events post-1980. Extreme drought between  
453 1989-1992 (Zone 2) inferred from the diatom composition, and confirmed by SPEI,  
454 resulted in the reduction to almost a quarter of its original surface water area. This dry  
455 spell concurs with the strong El Niño from 1992 that caused the partial desiccation of most  
456 shallow water bodies in the country (Pestana Calderín & Mejía Arroyo, 2011). Drier

conditions not only would have diminished the lake-river connectivity, promoting disconnection from the Magdalena river, but also must have increased evaporation rates resulting in the partial desiccation of littoral areas; a process that regularly occurs during the dry season across the lakes in the study area (personal observation by Lopera L & Salgado J). In such smaller surface area lake with greater exposed littoral areas, aerophil species such as *L. mutica* and *D. confervacea*, would have thrived (Table 2). Once the intense ENSO dry climatic conditions ceased, the direct connection to the Magdalena River is suggested to would have been re-established and the lake recovered its original surface area. In 2011 the country experienced one of the greatest La Niña events of the last century, where most of the Magdalena River catchment experienced unforeseen floods (Euscategui & Hurtado, 2011). Our record shows that at the time, diatom counts were barely legible in the fossil record while sedimentation rates increased significantly. Such large increases in river sediment inputs would have affected diatom preservation and/or dilute the diatom concentrations (Salgado et al., 2020; Reed, 1998).

#### *Ecological interpretation*

How aquatic communities are organised and respond to climatic or human-derived stressors in tropical floodplain lakes largely depends on the degree and magnitude of the disturbance, and on the spatial arrangement of lakes within the main hydrological network (Erös, Olden, Schick, Schmera, & Fortin, 2012; Grant, Lowe, & Fagan, 2007). Connected lakes for instance, are more dependent on the hydrological dynamics of the main river, and hence that their aquatic communities often show a greater diversity and



low species turnover (through frequent organisms recruitment) than in isolated lakes (Salgado et al., 2019; Swan & Brown, 2011). Isolated lakes on the other hand are likely to present fewer organisms recruitment events, and thus local environmental factors such as nutrient inputs (eutrophication) are likely to control community structure through temporal species turnover (Salgado et al., 2019; Swan & Brown, 2011). Our reconstructions are in general agreement with this framework of river metacommunities. Since the establishment of modern conditions, the San Juana Lake has been less dependent on the hydro-climatic variations, and thus less vulnerable to inter-annual climate variability. As discussed, the extreme events of 1992 and 2011 did not greatly affect the lake's surface area or its physical-chemical conditions. However, the marked temporal successional trend in diatom species and the more recent (post 1960s) increases in diatom species associated with productive environments (*Nitzschia spp.*, *C. cuspidata* and *G. erdense*; Table 2), coupled with gradual increases in P, OM and sedimentation rates, all indicates greater importance of in-lake factors in driving the diatom communities. The more enclosed nature of the San Juana Lake may therefore facilitate a quicker response to localised stressors such as changes in land use e.g. deforestation, and nutrient runoff from agriculture and husbandry (Salgado et al., 2019; Bennion, Fluin & Simpson, 2004). In the more connected Barbacoas Lake, diatom turnover was relatively low while diversity and sediment yield were generally higher than those found at the more isolated San Juana Lake. We also found that this lake is prone to be more affected by hydroclimatic events such as ENSO than the San Juana Lake. In 1992 the diatom species composition (aerophil

499 *D. confervacea* and *L. mutica*) indicates a reduction in the water level of the lake; also  
500 confirmed by the SPEI analysis.

501 During the last four decades, the Magdalena River basin has witnessed unprecedented  
502 transformations in land cover (Restrepo et al., 2018; Suescún et al., 2017; Etter et al.,  
503 2006). Forest clearance has greatly promoted erosion, increasing sediment loads and  
504 nutrients into the Magdalena River (Restrepo et al., 2018). The latter likely promoting  
505 eutrophication in associated water bodies (Suescún et al., 2017). Both of our study lakes  
506 have recorded these marked increases in sedimentation, and suggests that land use  
507 change and higher erosion is among one of the main drivers of anthropogenic stress in  
508 these lakes. Connected lakes (in this case Barbacoas) in particular, seem to be more  
509 susceptible to these increases in sedimentation rates.

#### 510 **4.2 Palaeoflood interpretation**

511 Overall, we were able to discern the level of connectivity and river influence on the lakes  
512 through the Zr/Fe ratio (a proxy for flooding). During dry years (SPEI values <0), the Zr/Fe  
513 ratio was high; this could be explained by the droughts: coarser littoral sediments are  
514 exposed during low water stands are reflected on coarser materials being transported  
515 (Schillereff et al., 2014). As seen in Barbacoas Lake, the increasing river influence is  
516 reflected by a decrease in OM being deposited by the river and by an increase in detrital  
517 inputs (Rapuc et al., 2019); an opposite trend to what was observed in the San Juana Lake  
518 since its formation. In accordance, the proxy for detrital inputs (Ti/Ca) showed a similar  
519 behaviour to as the Zr/Fe ratio, while the opposite was observed for OM content. It is

expected that with a lower river influence, the OM in the systems increase through in-lake primary productivity (Schillereff et al., 2014). These trend in the geochemical ratios allow us to infer flood magnitudes and river connectivity with confidence, as it is consistent and in accordance with the diatom interpretation.

## 5. Concluding remarks

In regards to our questions, 1 and 2, we show that these two lakes have had a very different ontological histories controlled by the degree of connectivity to the Magdalena River, and that this connectivity makes the more connected lake (Barbacoas) far more sensitive to ENSO events than the more isolated lake San Juana, which in turn is far more sensitive to local changes in the watershed. Future climate change scenarios suggest that drier conditions will prevail in our study area (IDEAM, 2017). As indicated here, drier conditions for the more isolated lakes, will likely increase water retention times and promote in-lake productivity generating cascade effects such as anoxia and eutrophication (Chislock et al., 2013). The degradation of these smaller and more isolated lakes is of great concern. These lakes play key roles in water regulation and in offering temporal refuge for the aquatic biota including endangered large mammals such as the river otter (*Lontra longicauda*) and the American manatee (*T. manatus*; WCS Colombia, 2015), and key economic species such as the Magdalena catfish (*P. magdaleniatum*) or the Bocachico (*P. magdalenae*). As observed in Barbacoas, drier climates will inevitably lead to reductions in lake size which will diminish habitats and the hydrologic regulatory capacity of these lakes (Amoros & Bornette, 2002). These processes will likely have a positive feedback as more

541 sediment will be accumulated allowing for emergent plants to colonize newly formed  
542 habitats which in turn, will promote the lake disconnection (Amoros & Bornette, 2002).  
543 This, with the added concern of the increased sedimentation rates will put the lake at risk  
544 of rapid clogging, and disappearance.

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561

562 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

563 We declare no conflict of interest regarding patent or stock ownership, membership of a  
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566 **AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION:** J.S. conceived the ideas; J.S., and A.L., collected the sediment  
567 cores; L.L., and J.S., collected the limnological data; L.L., and M.I.V., analysed the diatom  
568 data and L.L., analysed the XRF data. L.L., and J.S., performed statistical analysis and L.L.,  
569 wrote the first manuscript; J.S., M.I.V., C.G., and A.L., contributed essentially to the  
570 interpretation and wording of the final version.

571 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

572 Should the manuscript be accepted, the data supporting the results will be archived in an  
573 appropriate public repository (Dryad, Figshare or Hal) and the data DOI will be included at  
574 the end of the article.

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815

816 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

817 **FIGURE 1** (A) map of Colombia showing the locations of the Magdalena River and the  
818 study area (red square); (B) zoom into Barbacoas Lake and San Juana Lake showing the  
819 coring locations of LBARB1 core (red circle) and LSAN1 core (red star) respectively; (C)  
820 example of littoral areas in the lakes during the dry season.

821 **FIGURE 2** Radiometric chronology of the cores (a) LSAN1 (San Juana Lake) and (b) LBARB1  
822 (Barbacoas Lake), showing the CRS model  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dates (solid line) and sedimentation rates  
823 (dash blue line). Black dash line in (a) indicates the modelled age beyond the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dates,  
824 through lineal regression analysis assuming a constant sedimentation rate of  $0.087 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$   
825 that corresponds to the mean value of the last four adjacent dated sediment samples.

826 **FIGURE 3** (a) Stratigraphy of diatoms assemblages found in the sediment record of the  
827 LSAN1 core (San Juana Lake); and (b) Results of Rank Clock Analysis (RCA) on diatoms  
828 assemblages of LSAN1 core. RCA identifies which species show the greatest change in  
829 abundance (i.e. those distancing from the centre of the diagram) at temporal zones of  
830 change revealed by clustering analysis on a clock-like diagram, where 12 o'clock on the  
831 vertical axis is the starting point of the data.

832 **FIGURE 4** (a) Stratigraphy of diatoms assemblages found in the sediment record of the  
833 LBARB1 core (Barbacoas Lake); and (b) Results of Rank Clock Analysis (RCA) on diatoms  
834 assemblages of LBARB1 core. RCA identifies which species show the greatest change in  
835 abundance (i.e. those distancing from the centre of the diagram) at temporal zones of

836 change revealed by clustering analysis on a clock-like diagram, where 12 o'clock on the  
837 vertical axis is the starting point of the data.

838 **FIGURE 5** Surface area (km<sup>2</sup>) of the two study lakes during the years 1985 (A; Barbacoas  
839 Lake 8.7 Km<sup>2</sup>; San Juana Lake 0.64 Km<sup>2</sup>), 1992 (B; Barbacoas Lake 2.8 Km<sup>2</sup>; San Juana Lake  
840 0.56 Km<sup>2</sup>), 2011 (C; Barbacoas Lake 8.4 Km<sup>2</sup>; San Juana Lake 0.59 Km<sup>2</sup>) and 2016 (D;  
841 Barbacoas Lake 10.37 Km<sup>2</sup>; San Juana Lake 0.52 Km<sup>2</sup>).

842 **FIGURE 6** Generalised Additive Model (GAM) plots on temporal changes in organic matter  
843 content (LOI), Mn/Fe ratios (proxy for oxygenation in the water column), Ti/Ca ratios  
844 (proxy for detrital input), Zr/Fe ratios (proxy for flooding) and phosphorus concentrations  
845 (proxy for increases in productivity) in the cores (a) LSAN1–San Juana Lake; (b) LBARB1–  
846 Barbacoas Lake; and (c) GAM results on temporal Zr/Fe ratios and SPEI index data and in  
847 LSAN1 and LBARB1 cores respectively.

848 **FIGURE 7** Multiple Factor Analysis (MFA) plots for the cores (a) LSAN1 and (b) LBARB1  
849 showing the variation in diatoms functional groups (Plankton in green, Acidic/dystrophic  
850 in yellow and Benthic/productive in grey), and selected geochemical ratios and elements  
851 (purple) Fe/Mn, Ti/Ca, Zr/Fe and P, organic matter content (LOI) and sedimentation rates.  
852 The contribution of each variable is indicated according to a colour scale, being red the  
853 highest value and green the lowest. Black dash arrows indicate temporal trajectory of  
854 sediment sample change. The contribution of each group at dimensions 1 and 2 are  
855 indicated.

856

857 **Table 1.** Mean values of physical-chemical parameters measured in situ at the littoral and  
 858 open water areas of the San Juana Lake and Barbacoas Lake during 2018.

Lake	Depth (m)	Secchi depth (m)	Temperature (°C)	pH	Dissolved oxygen/surface (ppm)	Dissolved oxygen/bottom (ppm)
<u>Barbacoas</u>						
Littoral	0.62	0.29 ±0.40	33.6 ±0.59	7.2 ±0.34	4.84 ±0.57	2.81 ±1.23
In-lake	1.5	0.49 ±0.54	33.6 ±0.35	7.3 ±0.18	5.11 ±0.64	2.34 ±1.45
<u>San Juana</u>						
Littoral	2.2	0.57 ±0.79	29.9 ±1.18	7.5	-	-
In-lake	2.4	0.5 ±0.31	30.4 ±0.68	7.2	-	-

859

**Table 2.** Diatom species recorded in the sediment record of the San Juana Lake and Barbacoas Lake. The ecology, associated functional group, reference and ecological preference suggested by our data is presented.

Species	Ecology	Functional group	Reference	Ecological interpretation in our study †
<i>Aulacoseira ambigua</i>	Preference for productive waters, water mixing and low light conditions.	Plankton	Bicudo <i>et al.</i> , 2016	Mixing conditions, increased turbidity
<i>Aulacoseira alpigena</i>	Mixing of the water column, adapted to low light conditions and low pH. Also associated with an increase in runoff. Found in 50 cm of water in the waters from a Paramo mire in Colombia (Velez, personal observation)	Plankton	Bradbury & Van Metre, 1997	Mixing conditions, increased turbidity
<i>Aulacoseira granulata</i>	Riverine species commonly found on floodplain	Plankton	Hernández-Atilano <i>et al.</i> , 2008	River influence/mixing conditions

	lakes. Common in flooding areas (floodplains); reported on similar floodplains in Ayapel, Colombia			
<i>Aulacoseira granulata</i> var. <i>angustissima</i>	Eutrophic lakes and rivers	Plankton	Bicudo <i>et al.</i> , 2016	River influence/mixing conditions
<i>Aulacoseira herzogii</i>	Mesotrophic to eutrophic lakes; Slightly acidic waters.	Plankton	Bicudo <i>et al.</i> , 2016  Velez, 2005	River influence/mixing conditions/higher turbidity nutrients
<i>Aulacoseira distans</i>	Turbid freshwater. Alkaline and eutrophic ecosystems.	Plankton	Tuji, 2015	River influence/mixing conditions
<i>Cyclotella menenghiana</i>	Shallow, nutrient rich waters.	Plankton	Lowe & Kheiri, 2015	River influence/higher turbidity
<i>Fragilaria</i>	Mesotrophic to eutrophic lakes	Plankton	Ekdahl, Teranes, Guilderson, Turton, McAndrews, Wittkop, & Stoermer, 2004	
<i>Diadesmis confervacea</i>	Aerophil, Shallow still water	Aerophil	Raupp, S. V., Torgan, L. C., & Melo, S. (2009)	In-Lake conditions

<i>Staurosira pinnata</i>	Shallow water and high quality indicator, high tolerance to dissolved inorganic carbon	Aerophil	Bona <i>et al.</i> , 2007	Shallow waters
<i>Luticola mutica</i>	Mosses, stones, wet walls and exposed soil	Aerophil	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Shallow waters/exposed soil
<i>Encyonema minutum</i>	Freshwater species commonly found on weakly acidic environments.	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Bishop <i>et al.</i> , 2017	In-lake/dystrophic
<i>Eunotia</i>	Low pH conditions	Benthic (Dystrophic)	La Heé & Gaiser, 2012	In-lake/dystrophic
<i>Gomphonema augur</i>	Lakes with moderately acidic pH; reported on the Amazon floodplains	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Metzeltin & Lange-Bertalot, 1998	
<i>Neidium saccoense</i>	Low pH conditions; Abundant in wetlands	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Burge <i>et al.</i> , 2017	Shallow waters/marsh
<i>Pinnularia</i>	Low pH conditions; lakes and wet soil	Benthic (Dystrophic)	La Heé & Gaiser, 2012	In-lake/dystrophic

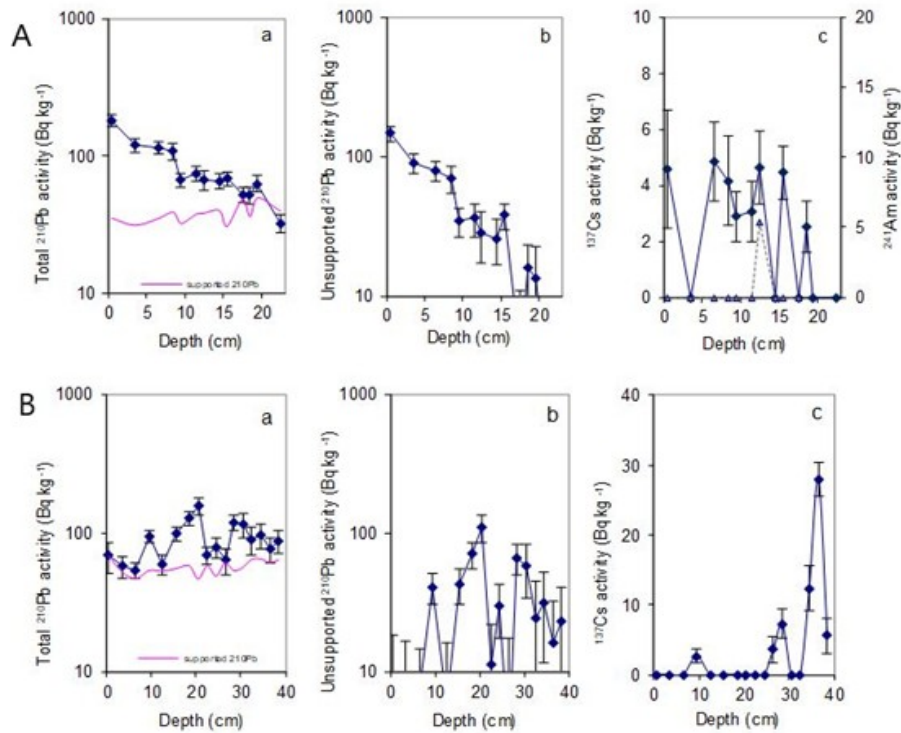


<i>Placoneis cf. tersa</i>	Shallow, low alkalinity and meso-eutrophic lakes	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Pouličková, Špačková, Kelly, Duchoslav, & Mann, (2008)	
<i>Sellaphora alastos</i>	Ponds and small lakes, oligo-dystrophic environments	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Bahls, 2014	
<i>Sellaphora laevisissima</i>	Lakes and rivers, mildly acidic environments	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Burge, Edlund & Spaulding ,2017	
<i>Stauroneis fluminopsis</i>	Lakes and wetlands	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Bahls, 2010	
<i>Stauroneis neohyalina</i>	Preference for small humic-rich lakes and wetlands.	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Cantonati, M., Kelly, M. G., & Lange-Bertalot, H. (2017)	
<i>Fristulia crassinervia</i>	Oligotrophic habitats	Benthic (Dystrophic)	Kulichová & Fialová, 2016	
<i>Gomphoneis erienne</i>	Found on lakes; sensitive to human disturbance; tolerant to turbulence	Benthic (productive)	Kociolek & Stoermer, 1998	
<i>Nitzschia</i>	Tolerant to pollution and high dissolved carbon	Benthic (productive)	Ramírez & Plata-Díaz, 2008	
<i>Actinella disjuncta</i>	Environments rich in humic	Benthic (productive)	Lange-Bertalot &	Productivity/river influence

	acids. Bog flora.		Metzeltin,2007
<i>Hantzschia elongata</i>	Ponds and wetlands, eutrophication	Benthic (productive)	Loganathan, Pruhantheen, Humane & Hussain, 2014

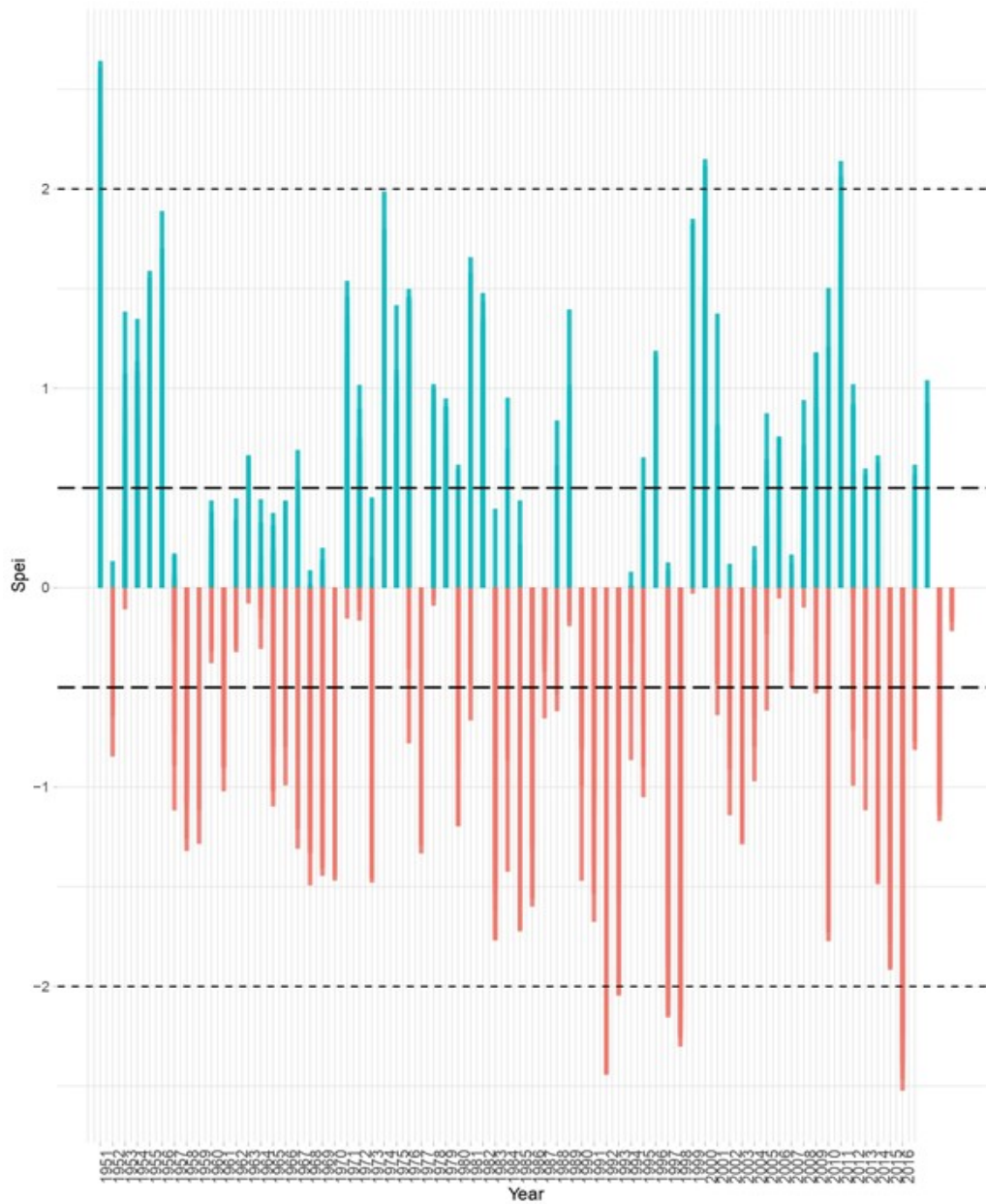
863 †The ecological interpretations of were done only for the most relevant species por the  
864 paleo reconstruction of the lakes.

865



867

868 **Figure S1.** Fallout radionuclide concentrations in (A) core LSAN1 (San Juana Lake); and (B)  
869 LBARB1 (Barbacoas Lake), showing (a) total  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , (b) unsupported  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ , and (c)  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  
870  $^{241}\text{Am}$  concentrations versus depth.



**Figure S2.** SPEI analysis data for the identification of dry and wet years during 1959-2016.