

A high-altitude peatland record of environmental changes in the NW Argentine Andes (24° S) over the last 2100 years

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Abstract

High-altitude cushion peatlands are versatile archives for high-resolution palaeoenvironmental studies, due to their high accumulation rates, range of proxies and sensitivity to climatic and/or human-induced changes. Especially within the central Andes, the knowledge about climate conditions during the Holocene is limited. In this study, we present the environmental and climatic history for the last 2100 years of Cerro Tuzgle peatland (CTP), located in the dry Puna of NW Argentina, based on a multi-proxy approach. X-ray fluorescence (XRF), stable isotope and element content analyses ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, TN and TOC) were conducted to analyse the inorganic geochemistry throughout the sequence, revealing changes in the peatlands' past redox conditions. Pollen assemblages give an insight into substantial environmental changes on a regional scale. The palaeoclimate varied significantly during the last 2100 years. The results reflect prominent late Holocene climate anomalies and provide evidence that in situ moisture changes were coupled to the migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). A period of sustained dry conditions prevailed from around 150 BC to around AD 150. A more humid phase dominated between AD 200 and AD 550. Afterwards, the climate was characterised by changes between drier and wetter

1 conditions, with droughts at around AD 650-800 and AD 1000-1100. Volcanic forcing at the
2 beginning of the 19th century (1815 Tambora eruption) seems to have had an impact on
3 climatic settings in the central Andes. In the past, the peatland recovered from climatic
4 perturbations. Nowadays, CTP is heavily degraded by human interventions, and the peat
5 deposit becomes increasingly susceptible to erosion and incision.

6

7 **1 Introduction**

8 Peatlands respond to climatic changes and anthropogenic disturbances in a very sensitive
9 way, and therefore, can represent valuable archives for palaeoenvironmental studies. High-
10 altitude cushion-plant peatlands are among the most unique and characteristic ecosystems of
11 the Andes, but still remain relatively unexploited within palaeoenvironmental studies (Squeo
12 et al., 2006; Schitteck, 2014). They are capable of accumulating peat, although they are located
13 near known hydrological and biological limits for plant growth (Earle et al., 2003).

14 Climatic changes affect the peatlands' hydrological regimes and the physiognomy of their
15 natural surface. Fluctuations in water tables and redox conditions control the accumulation
16 and mobilisation of heavy and semi-metals, which can serve as climate-sensitive proxies
17 (Shotyk, 1988). When the peatland's surface is drying, increased decomposition provokes
18 changes in organic geochemistry, which can be effectively measured. Further, micro- and
19 macrofossils, archived in peat, represent a record of environmental changes in and around the
20 catchment. Although, there still is a lack of knowledge concerning their ecological
21 functioning, high-Andean peatlands can exhibit sensitive records of past moisture variations
22 and offer the opportunity for multi-proxy palaeoenvironmental research.

23 Especially in the central Andes, the available information on palaeoenvironments clearly
24 illustrates that the database for late Holocene palaeoclimatic reconstructions is yet not
25 sufficient to draw valid conclusions for understanding the cause of climatic changes and its
26 potential impact on ecosystems. Determining the mechanisms behind late Holocene climate
27 variability will contribute to the understanding of present-day and future climates in the water
28 stressed central Andes (Stroup et al., 2014). Climate and water availability are fundamental
29 factors in sustaining these unique ecosystems (Squeo et al., 2006; Ruthsatz, 2008).

30

1 Much previous research has been at lower temporal resolutions and overly focused on a single
2 proxy, the level of Lake Titicaca (e.g. Binford et al., 1997). However, palaeoclimate data with
3 low temporal resolution is not directly relevant to human decisions and cultural change, which
4 can be very rapid (Calaway, 2005). In order to gap between micro and macro scales, we
5 propose targeting peat accumulations from climate-sensitive settings. Andean peatlands have
6 been proven to offer high resolute multi-proxy palaeoclimate data, especially for the younger
7 part of the Holocene (Schitteck et al., 2015; Engel et al., 2014; Kuentz et al., 2011; Earle et al.,
8 2003).

9 The investigated Cerro Tuzgle peatland (CTP) is one of the few archives in the central
10 Andean region to provide a highly resolved, continuous peat record of the Holocene, allowing
11 sub-centennial to decadal precision scales. CTP is an extraordinary site, because of its
12 sheltered location and constant water supply, guaranteed by the large catchment area, which
13 prevented dehydration during prolonged dry periods. Such homogeneous and continuous
14 Holocene peat archives are a rare feature in the southern central Andes. In most cases, central
15 Andean peatlands are characterized by a heterogeneous stratigraphy, due to repeated debris
16 input and incision, in response to drought and geomorphodynamic instability (Schitteck et al.
17 2012).

18 Here, we present first results of geochemical and micro-/macrofossil analyses spanning over
19 the past 2100 years and compare these with regional and global high-resolution records of late
20 Holocene climate variability. The aims of the presented study were to obtain a continuous
21 palaeoclimate record to reconstruct late Holocene climate and landscape changes for the
22 central Andes, to identify the timing and character of high-frequency shifts in the climate
23 system and to explore the linkages between climate and human impact. We further aim to
24 examine if variabilities in in situ-processes are indicative of large-scale precipitation changes.

25

26 **2 The study area**

27 **2.1 Geographical setting, regional climate and high-Andean vegetation**

28 Located in the central Puna of northwest Argentina, the investigated CTP (24° 09' S, 66° 24'
29 W; 4350 m a.s.l.) comprises an extended and diverse high-altitude peatland – shallow lake
30 complex (Fig. 1). Cerro Tuzgle is an isolated, 5500 m a.s.l.-high stratovolcano, which is
31 situated in a north-south trending, thrust faults-bounded, intramontane depression, close to the

1 “Calama-Olacapato-El Toro”-fault system (Norini et al., 2014). Here, the longitudinal
2 stretching of the Puna depressions is less pronounced and chambered by various watersheds
3 of volcanic origin (Werner, 1974). Several studies exhibit young volcanic activity (<0.5 Ma
4 BP) up to a possible lava flow unit of late Pleistocene/early Holocene age (Coira and Kay,
5 1993; Giordano et al., 2013; Norini et al., 2014).

6 The CTP is located in a tributary valley of Quebrada de Pircas, about 10 km to the southeast
7 of Cerro Tuzgle, at the border between Jujuy and Salta provinces. The closest village is San
8 Antonio de los Cobres (Salta province), about 15 km further to the southeast. The peatland is
9 situated within an area dominated by outcropping Ordovician volcanic and sedimentary units
10 and Cretaceous conglomerates. The catchment area of CTP is markedly small. As part of the
11 Río San Antonio de los Cobres watershed, waters drain into the endorheic Salinas Grandes
12 basin.

13 The Andes’ meridional extension and their massively uprising mountain ranges constitute a
14 distinct obstacle for moisture-bearing winds that are driven towards the eastern or western
15 flanks of the orogeny. In the northwest Argentine Andes, the ranges of the eastern cordillera
16 act as a climatic barrier, which block moist air masses that are transported by upper-level
17 tropical easterly flow. This results in a very pronounced humidity gradient with increasing
18 aridity towards the Puna plateau in the west. In mid-latitudes, the pattern reverses at
19 approximately 37° S, where the western flanks of the principal cordillera receive extratropical
20 rainfall originating from the Southern Hemisphere westerlies, leading to increased aridity in
21 the lee towards the east. This distinct precipitation pattern characterises the position of the
22 South American “Arid Diagonal”. Its driest zone crosses the Andes at 28-32° S, where
23 semiarid to arid conditions prevail (Garreaud et al., 2009).

24 In the study area, about 90% of total precipitation is concentrated between November and
25 March (Garreaud, 2000). Being located in the “dry Puna” (Troll, 1968) at the north-eastern
26 margin of the “Arid Diagonal”, the climate setting reflects a significant precipitation decrease
27 towards the southwest. On average, 300-500 mm of annual precipitation falls along the
28 eastern cordillera about 50 km to the northeast, while the annual mean decreases to values
29 below 100 mm at about 50 km to the southwest. At CTP, annual precipitation varies between
30 100-300 mm (based on ERA-Interim climate data 1979-2013). The austral winter is
31 characterised by a high insolation regime with little precipitation and cloud cover, cool
32 temperatures and strong winds blowing from the west (Prohaska, 1976). Seasonal variability

1 is driven by the southward shift of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) during austral
2 spring/summer, the strength of the South American Summer Monsoon (SASM) and the
3 resulting convection intensity in the tropical lowlands (Zhou and Lau, 1998; Vera et al., 2006;
4 Vuille et al., 2012). Interannual climate variability is mainly related to El Niño Southern
5 Oscillation. Circulation anomalies show a tendency for wet conditions during La Niña years
6 and dry conditions during El Niño years in the central Andes (Lenters and Cook, 1999;
7 Garreaud and Aceituno, 2001; Garreaud et al., 2009).

8 CTP is fed by several hillside springs, which might have emerged due to a thrust that crosses
9 the peatland's headwater zone. The springs' discharge is permanent and increases during the
10 rainy season. Ionic concentrations of the springwater have been measured since 2004
11 (Ruthsatz, 2008; Schitteck, unpublished data). Low electrical conductivity of the spring water
12 ranging between 200 and 300 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}^3$ lead to the presumption that the local aquifer is
13 maintained by precipitation and shallow groundwater(s) with short residence times.

14 In contrast to many high-altitude peatlands in central-western Andean mountain areas, which
15 are exposed to repeated allochthonous sediment input through tributary stream channels
16 during extreme rainfall events (Schitteck et al., 2012), CTP represents a rather protected, and
17 therefore, seldom found feature. It receives minor colluvial sediment input from the steep
18 slopes to the north and south. A southern tributary valley currently does not transport water or
19 sediment to the peatland area, but had formed an alluvial fan in the past, which enters the
20 southernmost section.

21 The peatland is characterised by three main sections. 1) The headwater section, which is the
22 only part with a very slight inclination. It is dominated by the Juncaceae *Distichia muscoides*,
23 which forms mighty cushions within the spring water areas. The Cyperaceae *Zameioscirpus*
24 *muticus* prevails areas, which are exposed to more frequent water-level changes. 2) A shallow
25 lake occupies the middle section, with lowstands in winter and during dry years, surrounded
26 by *Deyeuxia eminens* reeds and partially densely colonised by stonewort (*Chara spec.*). 3)
27 The lower and most extensive section is dominated by the Juncaceae *Oxychloe andina*, which
28 is forming large, stable mats. *Oxychloe* effectively accumulates peat as its shoots continue to
29 grow at their tops but die off from the bottom (Schitteck et al., 2015).

30 CTP is surrounded by stands of *Festuca argentinensis* and *Parastrephia phyllicaeformis*. The
31 characteristic regional vegetation of the Altoandean altitudinal belt (Ruthsatz, 1977; Werner,
32 1978), here, is dominated by *Festuca orthophylla* var. *eriostoma*, a tussock grass, which

1 inhabits the dry and sandy plains at the foot of the mountains and the less debris-covered
2 slopes (Werner, 1974). The overall vegetation cover, nowadays, usually is below 30%.

3

4 **2.2 The impact of human occupation**

5 In the Argentine Puna, only few investigations focus on the ecological interrelationships
6 between human strategies and their natural environment, especially concerning the past 2000
7 years (Kulemeyer, 2005; Morales et al., 2009). Evidence of first sedentary village societies
8 appears by 100 BC. In the dry Puna, their economy was largely based on llama pastoralism,
9 and was typically located in direct physical association with productive resources (Leonie and
10 Acuto, 2008; Ledru et al., 2013). Olivera et al. (2004) suggest a strong relationship between
11 residence placement and the availability of water and pastures. Regional dry periods triggered
12 the temporal abandonment of many sites, which is very noticeable during the timeframe
13 coinciding with the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA) (Rivolta, 2007; Morales et al., 2009).
14 The inclusion of the area into the Inca Empire, after AD 1400, introduced improved
15 techniques of agriculture and led to a population growth (Braun Wilke et al., 1999). The
16 Spanish conquest, after AD 1536, ended the Inca realm. The introduced European hoofed
17 animals induced an intensified damage on pasture grounds compared to the llamas with their
18 soft footpads (Ruthsatz, 1983). Overgrazing results in increasing erosion due to the
19 destruction of the protective vegetation as an effect of trampling by the animals (Schitteck et
20 al., 2012; Schitteck, 2014). CTP is continuously exposed to overgrazing by llamas, which has
21 resulted in vegetation loss and the consequent erosional effects. In the lower section, the
22 peatland is in danger to become incised due to an increase of channelled water runoff. A
23 further contemporary severe thread is an earth road (ruta 40), which laterally affects the
24 sensitive ecosystem by causing a heavy input of sediment. The most destructive impact was
25 the laying of a glass-fibre cable sideways to the road directly into the peat sediments in 2014,
26 which, to a huge extent, destroyed the peatland's surface. The cable duct was re-filled with
27 loose dugout peat material, lacking measures against erosion to protect the fragile water
28 resource.

29

1 **3 Methods**

2 The fieldwork was conducted in late December 2012. For selecting a suitable coring site,
3 areas with thick peat accumulation and little through-flow in the peatland's lower section
4 were chosen. Four sediment long-cores were recovered by using a percussion coring
5 equipment. The retrieved sediment was immediately sealed in plastic tubes with a diameter of
6 4 cm. Several short-cores with a length of 20 cm were extracted to measure the water content
7 of the peat.

8 This study focuses on the upper 2 m of the deepest core (Tuz 694), which reached a depth of 8
9 m and covers the past 8400 years. In the Palaeoecology Laboratory of the Institute of
10 Geography and Geographical Education (University of Cologne), the core was split into two
11 core halves, photographed and described sedimentologically. One core half was subsampled
12 at 1 cm intervals. To obtain qualitative element counts for major and trace elements, the other
13 core half was analysed in 2 mm resolution using an ITRAX X-ray fluorescence (XRF) core
14 scanner (Cox Analytical Systems; Croudace et al., 2006) at GEOPOLAR (University of
15 Bremen). XRF-scanning was performed with a molybdenum (Mo) tube at 30 kV and 10 mA,
16 using an exposure time of 10 s per measurement.

17 For stable isotope and element content analyses, subsamples at 2 cm intervals were selected.
18 Subsamples were freeze-dried and milled with a high-speed mill grinder (Retsch, MM 400).
19 Element contents and stable isotope composition were determined within the same run
20 separately for carbon and nitrogen at the Stable Isotope Laboratory of IBG-3 (Research
21 Center Jülich). For the analyses of the stable isotope ratios of nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and organic
22 carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and nitrogen (TN) and carbon content (TC), samples were weighed into tin
23 capsules and combusted at 1080 °C in an elemental analyser (EuroEA, Eurovector) with
24 automated sample supply linked to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime, Micromass).
25 Isotope results are reported as δ values [‰] according to the equation

$$26 \quad \delta = (R_S / R_{St} - 1) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

27 where R_S is the isotope value ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$, $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$) of the sample and R_{St} is the isotope value of
28 the international standard. Calibrated laboratory standards were used to control the quality of
29 the analyses and to relate the raw values to the isotopic reference scales (VPDB for carbon,
30 AIR for nitrogen). The analytical uncertainty (standard deviation based on replicate analyses
31 of samples) is lower than 0.1 ‰ for both ^{15}N and ^{13}C .

1 Total carbon (TC) and total nitrogen (TN) contents were calculated according to the amounts
2 of CO₂ and N₂ released after sample combustion (peak integration) and calibrated against
3 elemental standards. As stated in Ruthsatz (1993), the amounts of inorganic carbon and
4 nitrogen in peats from the high Andes typically are very low. Indeed, various own tests for the
5 occurrence of carbonates in the CTP core samples with 5% HCl proved that decarbonisation
6 was not necessary, neither for the determination of organic carbon content nor for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
7 measurements. Therefore, the TC content is treated as an equivalent of the apparent total
8 organic carbon content (TOC*) and is used for the calculation of the TOC*/TN ratio.

9 Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to describe the parameter relations.
10 Correlation coefficients are always based on N = 65 and the level of significance always is p
11 ≤ 0.05 .

12 For macrofossil and microfossil sample preparation, subsamples at 8 cm intervals were
13 selected. After KOH treatment for deflocculation, the samples were sieved in order to separate
14 three size fractions (>2 mm, 2 mm-250 μm , >125 μm) for the study of macrofossils. After
15 spiking with *Lycopodium* markers, the further pollen preparation followed standard
16 techniques described in Faegri et al. (1989). Microfossil samples (<112 μm) were mounted in
17 glycerine and pollen was counted under x400 and x1000 magnification. For pollen
18 identification, own reference collections and published atlases and keys were used (Heusser,
19 1971; Markgraf and D'Antoni, 1978; Torres et al., 2012). Regional pollen types were counted
20 to sums of 300 in each sample. Macrofossils were disaggregated in deionised water. Plant
21 tissues were determined in the 2 mm-fraction under a dissecting microscope, while seeds,
22 charred particles and zoological remains were determined in the 2 mm-250 μm and >125 μm -
23 fractions (Schitteck, 2014).

24 Microfossil and macrofossil data were subjected to numerical zonation using binary splitting
25 techniques (Hammer et al., 2001), which highlighted three main zones. Principal component
26 analysis (PCA) was used to decipher the main components of variability of the geochemical
27 data after standardisation of the data to omit rows with missing values (see supplementary
28 material).

29 For age control within the first 2 m of the core, a total of 6 bulk sediment samples were AMS
30 radiocarbon-dated at Poznan Radiocarbon Laboratory (Table 1). All radiocarbon dates were
31 calibrated using CALIB 7.0.4 and the IntCal13 data set for Northern Hemisphere calibration
32 (Reimer et al., 2013). The Northern Hemisphere calibration was used because during the

1 austral spring and summer seasons, the south shift of the ITCZ brings atmospheric CO₂ from
2 the Northern Hemisphere to the Andes, which is taken up by the vegetation during the
3 growing season. Southern Hemisphere calibration is therefore more applicable for regions
4 south of the thermal equator (McCormac et al., 2004). The age-depth model was plotted by
5 applying the MCAgeDepth software (Higuera et al., 2009), which is based on a Monte Carlo
6 approach to generate confidence intervals that incorporate the probabilistic nature of
7 calibrated radiocarbon dates. Through a multitude of simulations, the program generates a
8 cubic spline through all the dates. The final probability age-depth model is based on the
9 median of all simulations. The software was modified to calculate values at 1 mm-resolution.
10 All reported ages are calibrated ages, if not mentioned otherwise.

11 For numerical analyses, prior to cross-correlation analysis with the ‘astsa’ package ver. 1.3
12 (Stoffer, 2014), the data has been resampled using the ‘zoo’ package (Zeileis and
13 Grothendieck, 2005). Smoothing of time series by gaussian weights have been performed
14 following the procedure presented by Rehfeld et al. (2011).

15

16 **4 Results**

17 **4.1 Peat characteristics and chronology**

18 The sedimentary deposits of the upper 2 m of the CTP sequence consist of homogeneous peat,
19 showing a faint layering with regular changes between dark-brown and greyish dark-brown
20 strata. Throughout the sequence, the peat matrix shows variable contents of embedded silt.

21 The retrieved 20 cm short-cores show that the water content of *Oxychloe* peat in the section 0-
22 10 cm is 87% ($\sigma = 0.91\%$, $n = 5$) and 73% ($\sigma = 3.2\%$, $n = 5$) in the section 10-20 cm. Due to
23 the high water content, the retrieved peat cores were compacted by the coring procedure.
24 Apparently, compaction does not significantly render uncertainties in the stratigraphic
25 sequence, as high Andean Juncaceae peats are characterised by a more or less flaky texture.
26 For developing an age-depth model, core depth was adjusted for compaction by multiplying
27 the compacted length by a correction factor (core length/compacted length). The age-depth
28 model is based on six AMS radiocarbon dates (Fig. 2). Sample resolution is between 7-18
29 years per cm and is highest at AD 400-850.

1 **4.2 Inorganic geochemistry**

2 Periods with enhanced allochthonous sediment input are considered to be outlined by high
3 ratios of titanium (Ti) and the coherent (coh) scatter peaks of Mo (Ohlendorf et al., 2014). For
4 this purpose, the intensities of the coh-peak are used as denominator, because it represents
5 effects arising from sediment matrix variations (Rothwell et al., 2006; Guyard et al., 2007). Ti
6 is considered to be immobile in peat (Muller et al., 2006, 2008). Therefore, following
7 Thomson et al. (2006), the presented XRF-scanning data of iron (Fe), manganese (Mn) and
8 calcium (Ca) were normalised to Ti to better reflect the variations in autochthonous in-
9 peatland dynamics.

10 The Ti/coh ratio (Fig. 3) reflects very well the layering of the sequence, with the more greyish
11 layers enriched with detrital minerogenic matter. Especially between AD 800 and AD 1600,
12 the Ti/coh ratio shows a significant variability on sub-centennial time scale. Maxima occur at
13 around AD 0, 350, 450, 1000, 1350, 1475 and 1800. The Ca/Ti ratio shows distinct peaks at
14 AD 250 and generally higher values between AD 550 and AD 775. After AD 950, Ca/Ti
15 values remain at a lower level.

16 Peaks in Fe/Ti and Mn/Ti ratios are interpreted as indicators of changes in *in situ* redox
17 conditions due to water table fluctuations. Periods of significant enrichment in Fe are
18 observed at around 50 BC to AD 50, AD 825, AD 1000-1100, AD 1250-1350, AD 1500 and
19 AD 1600-1700. Mn shows high values at AD 800-1000, AD 1625-1725 and AD 1800-1850.
20 A sustained period of low values in both Fe and Mn is found at AD 250-550.

21 Changes in the Mn/Fe ratio are mainly linked to the strong precipitation of Fe³⁺-oxide in the
22 upper aerated layers under oxic conditions. High values, indicating a stable water table and
23 prevailing anoxic conditions, are observed at around AD 250-550, AD 850-900, AD 950-
24 1000, AD 1100-1150 and AD 1700-1950. During the period of AD 1150-1700, Mn/Fe values
25 remain highly variable.

26 **4.3 Organic geochemistry**

27 TOC* contents range between 21% and 41%, reflecting the variable dilution effect of *in situ*-
28 grown plant material with input of allochthonous sediment (Fig. 3). Investigations of living
29 *Oxychloe andina* specimens, sampled in February and October 2013, revealed a mean carbon
30 content of the whole plant (leaves and roots) of about 41%. Thus, values of 40% TOC* found
31 in the archive already represent the upper boundary of carbon content for the Tuzgle cushion

1 peat. Maximum values of >30% are reached episodically between 150 BC and AD 50, as well
2 as between AD 700 and AD 1750. Lowest values of <25% prevailed at AD 300-600 and
3 during the past 100 years. TN values range between 1.6% and 2.8% and are closely related to
4 TOC* values with an apparent correlation of $r = 0.85$. Accordingly, TN contents show their
5 maxima and minima during the same periods as outlined for TOC*. TOC*/TN ratios vary
6 between 12.0 and 19.0 with a mean value of 14.4. In comparison, TOC/TN values of leaves
7 and roots of living *Oxychloe andina* showed ratios of about 20 and 65, respectively.
8 TOC*/TN ratios in the core remained relatively stable between 150 BC and AD 600 with
9 values mainly between 12 and 14. Peaks are observed at AD 800-900 and at around AD 1150
10 with values larger than 15. Between about AD 1450-1700, TOC*/TN values are frequently
11 higher than 15, but afterwards constantly decline towards the present.

12 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the peat core range between -26.4‰ and -24.5‰ with a mean value of
13 -25.3‰. The topmost $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of the core (-25.8‰) fits well with the respective value of
14 -25.9‰ for living *Oxychloe andina*. Between AD 200-600, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values almost constantly
15 remain at a level higher than -25.0‰. Minimum $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values around -26.0 are observed at
16 around AD 850, AD 1125, AD 1300, AD 1375, AD 1500 and since the past ~50 years, where
17 the latter phase of depleted values can be due to the fossil fuel effect. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values vary in
18 a range between 1.2‰ and 3.7‰ with a mean value of 2.4‰. Leaves of modern *Oxychloe*
19 *andina* show values between 1.9‰ and 3.9‰, whereas roots seem to be comparably depleted
20 with values of about 1.4‰. In the peat core, values below 2‰ are observed at 125 BC-0 AD,
21 repeatedly at AD 600-900, around AD 1500 and around AD 1950, while maxima with values
22 >3‰ occur repeatedly at AD 100-550, at AD 950, AD 1200, AD 1275 and at AD 1850.

23 Between the stable isotope variables $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, we observe only a weak correlation ($r =$
24 0.22). Still weak but stronger is the negative correlation between the TOC*/TN ratio and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
25 ($r = -0.35$) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ($r = -0.34$). In addition, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is correlated with TOC* ($r = -0.36$) whereas
26 no correlation is evident for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, respectively. In this context, the strongest correlation is
27 observed between TOC* and TOC*/TN ($r = 0.69$), while the respective correlation with TN is
28 weak ($r = 0.21$).

29 **4.4 Micro- and macrofossil analysis**

30 All samples within the past 2100 years yielded sufficient pollen for counting (Fig. 4). Overall,
31 the diversity of pollen is very low, reflecting the relatively simple, grass-dominated vegetation

1 structure of the Altoandean vegetational belt (4150-4950 m a.s.l.; Cabrera, 1957; Werner
2 1974; Ruthsatz, 1977). In total, 26 different pollen types were observed. Poaceae dominate
3 the pollen spectrum and make up 30-95% of the regional pollen assemblage. The second most
4 abundant pollen types are *Senecio*-type Asteraceae and Chenopodiaceae with percentages
5 exceeding 20%. The remaining pollen flora is composed of herbaceous taxa in the families of
6 Apiaceae (including *Azorella* and *Mulinum*) and Caryophyllaceae (including *Pycnophyllum*
7 and *Melandryum*), besides the Asteraceae *Perezia*. Werner (1974) had described these species
8 as typical elements of the flora in the Cerro Tuzgle area. *Ephedra* and Chenopodiaceae
9 represent the Puna vegetational belt (3350-4150 m a.s.l.), with the later (mainly represented
10 by *Atriplex*) dominating the shores of closed basin lakes. Cyperaceae (including *Carex* and
11 *Zameioscirpus*), *Hypochoeris*, Gentianaceae and *Plantago* represent local peatland vegetation
12 (Ruthsatz, 2008) and were excluded from the pollen sum. Other pollen types comprise
13 Brassicaceae, Cactaceae, Fabaceae, Malvaceae, Portulacaceae, Solanaceae and extra-regional
14 tree species (*Alnus*, *Celtis*, *Podocarpus* and *Polylepis*) from the eastern Andean forests below
15 3500 m a.s.l., which occurred only sporadically in low abundances. Green algae (*Pediastrum*
16 spec.), testate amoebae shells (*Arcella* spec.) and the coprophilous fungal spores IBB-15
17 (Montoya et al., 2012, 2010) and RVV-69 (Rull and Vegas-Vilarúbia, 1999) represent further
18 microfossils other than pollen.

19 Charred particles were counted in microfossil preparations (<112 µm), as well as in the sieved
20 macrofossil samples (>125 µm). *Oxychloe* and *Zameioscirpus* remains represented the most
21 abundant plant macrofossils. *Oxychloe* is abundant throughout the record. Zoological
22 macrofossils comprise egg capsules of flatworms (Neorhabdocoela), chironomids and oribatid
23 mites, which were counted in total, but still not determined to species level.

24 Zone CTP-1 (150 BC-AD 700) is characterised by high percentages of Poaceae, which prevail
25 at about 90% between 150 BC and AD 400. A decrease to 60% at around AD 550 coincides
26 with an increase of *Senecio*-type Asteraceae. From here, *Zameioscirpus* remains become
27 evident in the macrofossil samples. Zoological macrofossils show high abundances at around
28 AD 300-500. The concentrations of charred particles, both in the <112 µm and >125 µm
29 fraction are highest of the whole record, and only since AD 650 remain at significantly lower
30 values.

31 Zone CTP-2 (AD 700-1450) is marked by a steady decline of Poaceae and a coinciding rise of
32 *Senecio*-type Asteraceae percentages. Chenopodiaceae first peak at around AD 950 and then

1 decline. Cyperaceae show their highest values at around AD 1150-1250. Fungal spores
2 remain highly abundant within the zone. *Zameioscirpus* remains are not evident after AD 950.
3 Within the transition from zone CTP-1 to CTP-2, zoological macrofossils, *Pediastrum*
4 palynomorphs and *Oxychloe* seeds show their highest concentrations in the record. Charred
5 particles diminish after AD 800 to constant low levels.

6 Zone CTP-3 (AD 1450-1900) begins with an increase of Poaceae pollen, while *Senecio*-type
7 Asteraceae stay at medium percentages. Chenopodiaceae percentages significantly decline
8 during this period, while Cyperaceae reach their highest abundance of the record at around
9 AD 1900. Neorhabdozoela and chironomids also show an increase at the same time.

10

11 **5 Discussion**

12 **5.1 Geochemical proxies for tracking palaeoredox conditions**

13 With the investigation of Cerro Llamoca peatland in the high Andes of southern Peru
14 (Schitteck et al., 2015), it has been shown that high-Andean peats are effective collectors of
15 inorganic components. For CTP, this can be confirmed also, and especially the Mn/Fe and
16 Fe/Ti ratios are proved as applicable palaeoredox indicators (Lopez et al., 2006). High Fe/Ti
17 ratios indicate an upward movement of Fe^{2+} from the anoxic peat to the upper aerated layers,
18 followed by precipitation as Fe^{3+} -oxide (Damman et al., 1992). Thus, Fe is enriched and
19 precipitates in the zone of water table fluctuations under oxic conditions, and therefore, is
20 indicative for climatic conditions with the occurrence of episodic droughts, which affect the
21 saturation of the peatland (Shotyk, 1988; Margalef et al., 2013). Under any naturally
22 occurring pH-Eh conditions, ferrous ions are more easily oxidised than manganous ions
23 (Krauskopf, 1957). At the expected pH ranges, Fe compounds are much more insoluble than
24 Mn compounds. Further, a high concentration of Fe ions within the zone of water table
25 fluctuations results in a displacement of Mn ions from exchange sites on the peat matrix
26 (Kelman Wieder and Lang, 1986). Whereas Fe accumulates, Mn decreases rapidly under an
27 unstable water table regime (Damman, 1978). Hence, the Mn/Fe ratio lowers during more
28 oxic conditions, being mainly linked to the autochthonous precipitation of Fe-oxides. A
29 higher presence of Mn might be related to increased leaching from the catchment zone, due to
30 enhanced weathering under a wetter and colder climate (Kabata-Pendias, 2011). Krauskopf

1 (1957) mentions that Mn in solution may be deposited as carbonate or silicate where the
2 environment is reducing.

3 Nonetheless, any presumption on the complex behaviour of especially Mn and its compounds
4 must remain speculative pending the collection of more geochemical and ecological data.
5 Furthermore, Mn is highly associated with activities of microbes and plays a key role in the
6 transformation and degradation of organic and inorganic compounds (Megonigal et al., 2003;
7 Tebo et al., 2004).

8 Well-saturated, undisturbed high-Andean peatlands, dominated by Juncaceae like *Oxychloe*,
9 *Distichia* and *Patosia*, are characterised by an interspersal with clusters of small and shallow
10 pools (Coronel et al., 2004). This is also the case for CTP, but the degradation of the
11 vegetation due to grazing and trampling by animals led to a levelling of the peatland's
12 superficial structure, which results in a loss of structural diversity. With a higher abundance of
13 shallow pools, a higher biological productivity in pools, which depends on climate conditions,
14 can lead to a higher consumption of CO₂, which increases pH, and hence, triggers the
15 precipitation of calcium carbonate (Boyle, 2001). At CTP, higher Ca/Ti ratio values (Fig. 3)
16 are contemporaneous with higher abundances of *Pediastrum* and *Neorhabdocoela*, which
17 typically inhabit small water bodies (Pinto Mendieta, 1991). Therefore, it is presumed that,
18 under certain environmental conditions, a high Ca/Ti ratio might indicate the presence of
19 shallow water bodies on the peatland's surface.

20 The carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of vascular plants like *Oxychloe* and *Zameioscirpus*
21 principally depends on the concentration and the isotopic composition of their inorganic
22 carbon source, i.e. atmospheric carbon dioxide, and the fractionation occurring during the
23 assimilation of CO₂. This biological fractionation is strongly controlled by the opening and
24 closure of the stomata regulating the ratio between the intracellular to extracellular pCO₂
25 (Farquhar et al., 1982), and in general, leads to depleted values in the plant relative to the
26 inorganic source. The aperture of the stomata is regulated according to the plant-available
27 moisture. Therefore, the water table level in the cushion peatland is a key variable where a
28 low water table could induce water stress for the cushion plants, leading to a reduction of the
29 aperture and comparably enriched carbon isotope composition of assimilates and plant
30 biomass. In this respect, local precipitation and air temperature are determinants for the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
31 composition of the cushion plants because they regulate the water inflow, respectively the
32 amount of evaporation and transpiration. Thus, it has been suggested by Skrzypek et al.

1 (2011) and Engel et al. (2014) that growing season temperature might be a determining factor
2 for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in a high-Andean peatland in Peru. In the CTP record, we observe a basic pattern of
3 increased TOC* and increased TOC*/TN coupled with decreased $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. This could be
4 interpreted as a pattern representing favourable conditions for cushion plants where high
5 water availability fostered plant growth with less water stress, thus, high biomass production
6 and low carbon isotope composition. This finding is opposite to the positive correlation
7 between carbon content and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ reported by Engel et al. (2014) for their Andean peat record.

8 The plant nitrogen isotopic composition ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) is determined by the isotopic composition of
9 the nitrogen input and peatland-internal processes. Fractionation processes during plant
10 uptake and assimilation are presumably less important (Evans et al., 1996). The difference
11 between the depleted plant $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ composition and the enriched inorganic N-source is generally
12 small and can be less than 1‰ (Evans et al., 1996; Reinhardt et al., 2006). Besides nitrogen
13 from chemical weathering and biomass decomposition, the inorganic nitrogen pool of the
14 catchment is fed by wet and dry atmospheric deposition. This nitrogen reaches the peatland
15 via direct deposition or through surficial and groundwater transport. Precipitation contains
16 nitrogen as co-existing ammonium and nitrate with $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of NH_4^+ being depleted by
17 several per mil (4-5‰) compared to NO_3^- (Kendall, 1998). A further nitrogen source for plant
18 growth in the peatland is mineralisation of organic matter and formation of NH_4^+ and,
19 subsequently, NO_3^- with a $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature equal or similar to that of the source material
20 (Reinhardt et al., 2006). The peatland internal nitrogen pool can be altered via denitrification
21 occurring under anoxic conditions leading to an isotopic enrichment of the remaining NO_3^- .
22 Further peatland internal processes that could impact the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of peatland plants are
23 mycorrhizal relationships and uptake of organic forms of nitrogen (DON) (Marshall et al.,
24 1997).

25 Peatlands can be considered as N-limited ecosystems (Bragazza et al., 2005) under pre-
26 industrial conditions, and therefore, are excellent scavengers for available nitrogen (Aldous,
27 2002). We argue that on our timescales the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal of the Cerro Tuzgle peatland reflects
28 the isotopic composition of the plant available inorganic nitrogen pool and, thus, of peat
29 plants, in spite of concomitant recalcitrant N-bearing organic compounds (Marshall et al.,
30 1997). Variations in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{peat}}$ composition, thus, can be induced by variations in deposition
31 (wet and dry) and inflow, denitrification, and the availability of ammonium relative to nitrate.
32 However, under N-limiting conditions, the impact of denitrification should be negligible.

1 Thus, we suggest that our $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{peat}}$ record is driven mainly by changes in nitrogen deposition,
2 presumably precipitation, since this would result in increased inflow, better availability of
3 nutrients, fostering plant growth in general, and an alteration of the $\text{NH}_4^+ / \text{NO}_3^-$ ratio in the
4 internal N pool in favour of the isotopically depleted ammonium. In peatland ecosystems of
5 the northern Hemisphere, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of peat plants were negatively related to the
6 proportion of NH_4^+ in atmospheric deposition (Bragazza et al., 2005) and to a hummock-lawn
7 gradient (Asada et al., 2005), with hummock plants having lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures potentially
8 due to better ammonium availability.

9

10 **5.2 Indicators of human-environment interactions**

11 Morales et al. (2009) hypothesise that the MCA provoked changes in human organisational
12 strategies, accompanied with an intensification of land use. The effective population growth
13 during the “Late Ceramic Period” (AD 900-1470; Leonie and Acuto, 2008) fostered soil
14 degradation and erosion, which affected the natural vegetation composition (Ruthsatz, 1983).
15 Kulemeyer (2005) highlighted the onset of valley incision in the Puna highlands during that
16 period, because of increased grazing. Especially during the past 2000 years, human land use
17 must be considered as a significantly disturbing factor concerning vegetation cover and
18 geomorphodynamics. Hence, signals in the pollen and/or geochemical record might
19 potentially change (e.g. Flantua et al., 2016).

20 With the near disappearance of charred particles after AD 900 (Fig. 4), the CTP record gives
21 evidence of a significant reduction in fire activity. A more fragmented vegetation structure,
22 due to the impact of grazing, generally reduces the amount of burnable biomass, and hence,
23 limits fire to spread in the high-Andean grasslands. Schitteck (2014) proved a
24 contemporaneous, ultimate decrease in fire activity, deduced from a peatland site in the
25 eastern cordillera of Jujuy (Fig. 6).

26 Kuentz et al. (2011) use the ratio of Poaceae/Asteraceae and Schitteck et al. (2015) focus on
27 the abundance of Poaceae as an indicator of moisture availability. However, if the vegetation
28 cover in high-Andean environments (dominated by grasses) is degraded by grazing, the
29 indicator value of grass pollen loses reliability. The Poaceae/Asteraceae ratio of the CTP
30 record (Fig. 4), in correspondence to the reducing amounts of charred particles, indicates a
31 significant reduction of grass pollen after AD 900, which is partially in contrary to the

1 evidence by the geochemical proxies. This underlines the importance to use multiple proxies
2 for resolving key details in human-environment interactions. Only by comparing changes in
3 several proxies in the context of evidence from multiple sites can the most probable driver of
4 any change be suggested (see also Flantua et al., 2016).

5 Currently, overgrazing is a severe thread to the structural integrity of CTP, which causes an
6 increase in erosion due to the destruction of the protective vegetation. The drying of the
7 surface peat layer leads to heavy degradation and mineralisation. Where the vegetation cover
8 once is destroyed, water run-off is rapidly bundled (Schitteck et al., 2012). Human activities,
9 therefore, might have also changed the amplitude and the reliability of geochemical proxies,
10 especially during the last recent 200 years, as probably indicated by permanently elevated
11 values in Ti/coh (Fig. 3). The laying of a glass-fibre cable longitudinally through the peatland
12 in 2014 demonstrates shockingly, that environmental policy-makers still not give sufficient
13 attention to the important water storing and regulating capacities of high-Andean peatlands.
14 The effects of global warming and the growing exploitation by mining companies increase the
15 intensity of stress factors on these sensitive ecosystems. If the destruction of high-altitude
16 water resources continues, this will severely affect the economic development of certain
17 regions in the near future.

18

19 **5.3 Palaeoenvironmental changes during the past 2100 years**

20 The CTP record of the last 2100 years provides valuable information on climate variability
21 and environmental changes in the high Andes of northwest Argentina. In Fig. 6, the past
22 fluctuations of Mn/Fe ratio values are compared with Mn/Fe ratio values of Cerro Llamoca
23 peatland in southern Peru (Schitteck et al., 2015) and charcoal accumulation rates of Lizoite
24 peatland in northwestern Argentina (Schitteck, 2014). A precipitation reconstruction from the
25 western Altiplano, based on *Polylepis tarapacana* tree-rings (Morales et al., 2012), represents
26 a further regional record. Changes in Ti values of the Cariaco Basin marine record (Haug et
27 al., 2001) and a Northern Hemisphere temperature reconstruction (Moberg et al., 2005)
28 represent supra-regional records of climate change. An additional map comprises all
29 discussed palaeorecords following in this chapter (see supplementary material, Fig. S2).

30 The investigation of glacier fluctuations in southern Peru has shown that the onset of cold
31 conditions was widespread in the mid- and low-latitude regions of both the Northern and the

1 Southern Hemispheres during the Late Holocene period (Licciardi et al., 2009; Stroup et al.,
2 2014). An increasing number of palaeoclimatic studies in the tropical/subtropical Andes
3 underlines that changes in precipitation relate to shifts in the mean latitude of the ITCZ (Haug
4 et al., 2001; Bird et al., 2011; Vuille et al., 2012). A cooling of the North Atlantic provokes a
5 southward migration of the ITCZ, which can be explained as a thermodynamic adjustment in
6 response to the enhanced northward heat transport required to balance the greater high latitude
7 cooling (Broccoli et al., 2006). A more southerly position of the ITCZ triggers moisture flux
8 into the tropical lowlands, which strengthens convection in the Amazon basin, and hence,
9 intensifies the SASM. According to Vuille et al. (2012), SASM intensity is suggested to
10 respond in a very sensitive way to changes in Northern Hemisphere temperature.

11 To test if the variation of Mn/Fe ratios at CTP, representing local moisture availability, is
12 coupled to more southward positions of the ITCZ (Haug et al., 2001), we applied correlation
13 analysis, taking into account chronological uncertainties (Zeileis and Grothendieck, 2005).
14 The Mn/Fe ratio of the CTP dataset shows significant medium to strong correlations ($r > 0.3$,
15 $p < 0.001$) to reversed Ti values (Haug et al., 2001) at cross-correlation values $> 95\%$ CI for
16 lags between 30-304 years. The highest correlation ($r = 0.50$, $F(1, 601) = 202.54$, $p < 0.001$,
17 $R^2 = 0,25$) was found at a lag of 174 years (Fig. 5), which supports a coupling of local
18 moisture conditions with the position of the ITCZ. However, statistically significant
19 correlations between records with chronological uncertainties are difficult to be calculated, as
20 older records allow for a multitude of correlation coefficients (Kennett et al., 2012).
21 Therefore, a definite linkage of the presented records is not possible, but similar trends are
22 visually evident (Fig. 6).

23 Concerning the evolution of late Holocene environments in the Argentine Puna, earlier
24 investigations, mainly based on palynological and sedimentological investigations (Markgraf,
25 1985; Zipprich et al., 2000; Schäbitz et al., 2001), revealed that palaeoclimatic patterns
26 basically agree with the Lake Titicaca records (e.g. Baker et al., 2001). Schitteck (2014)
27 offered a 2200 year-spanning record of variations in local fire regimes, based on the analysis
28 of charred particles extracted from a high-altitude peatland in the eastern cordillera of Jujuy
29 province. Here, fire susceptibility at high altitude pointed to an upward shift of altitudinal
30 vegetation belts due to a pronounced warm period at around 150 BC to AD 150. At CTP, low
31 Mn/Fe ratios and elevated Fe/Ti ratios point to sustained oxic conditions during the same
32 period. Drier conditions during that period have also been found by Schitteck et al. (2015) and

1 Chepstow-Lusty et al. (2003) in the Peruvian Andes. Increasing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, after a low at
2 around 75 BC, might point to a constant increase in precipitation until AD 175.

3 After AD 150, Mn/Fe ratios also constantly increase and remain at a high level until about
4 AD 550, which is concurrent with glacier expansions observed in the Peruvian and Bolivian
5 Andes (Wright, 1984; Thompson et al., 1995; Abbott et al., 1997). According to Haug et al.
6 (2001), the ITCZ continuously succeeded southward during that period. Higher Poaceae
7 percentages at CTP suggest conditions that were more humid and point to a generally higher
8 vegetation coverage in the surrounding area. More precipitation can also be suggested from
9 higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values. This might have triggered the formation of more water bodies upon the
10 peatland's surface, as evidenced by repeated peaks of Ca/Ti. The higher abundance of water
11 bodies and higher levels of introduced detrital minerogenic matter might be the main reason
12 for lower TOC* contents.

13 Starting at about AD 550, conditions begin to fluctuate between oxic and anoxic conditions,
14 showing high amplitude changes especially from AD 800 to AD 1000. Sustained drier
15 conditions prevail at AD 1000 to AD 1100, as indicated by low Mn/Fe ratios, peaks in Fe/Ti
16 ratios and low Poaceae percentages. *Zameioscirpus*, which is better adapted to frequent water
17 level changes, becomes abundant in the macrofossil assemblages. For this time interval,
18 Schitteck et al. (2015), Schitteck (2014) and Binford et al. (1997) also observed a period of
19 drought in the central Andes. Furthermore, Bird et al. (2011) evidenced drier conditions at
20 Laguna Pumacocha in the Peruvian Andes at AD 900-1100 and linked this event with the
21 Northern Hemisphere Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA) and a considerable weakening of
22 the SASM at the same time. Considering a lag of 174 years (Fig. 5), this period corresponds
23 to a prolonged northward position of the ITCZ (Fig. 6).

24 At CTP, a return to more humid conditions is evident at AD 1100-1150. Afterwards,
25 conditions repeatedly fluctuated until the onset of a marked dry phase at around AD 1250-
26 1330, evidenced by increasing Fe/Ti ratios and decreasing Poaceae pollen percentages. The
27 timing is concurrent with a retreat of glaciers in the Cordillera Blanca in Peru (Jomelli et al.,
28 2008). The climate history of the following centuries, as evidenced at CTP, tends to support to
29 the findings of Morales et al. (2012) (Fig. 6), although the reliability of the CTP data might be
30 increasingly disturbed by human influence.

31 Stroup et al. (2014) report re-advances of Qori Kalis outlet glacier at Quelccaya ice cap
32 during the first decade of the 17th century and during the first half of the 18th century, which is

1 time-equal with high Mn/Fe ratios at CTP and pluvial periods detected by the tree-ring record
2 of Morales et al. (2012).

3 At around AD 1810-1830, the Mn/Fe data signify an abrupt increase, concurrent with the
4 onset of a long-term wetter period, evidenced in tree-ring data (Morales et al., 2012). An
5 extraordinary pluvial period in the early 1800s was further implied from fossil rodent midden
6 data at Quebrada La Higuera (northern Chile) and increasing growth of the human population
7 in the northern Chilean Andes (Mujica et al., 2015). The timing and the sudden onset of this
8 climatic shift give reason to assume that increased volcanic forcing, most apparently by the
9 AD 1815 eruption of Tambora volcano, could have modulated climate patterns within the
10 monsoon-belt, which obviously affected site conditions at CTP. Until about AD 1870, Mn/Fe
11 values remain highest, and afterwards, a persistent trend to significantly less anoxic
12 conditions is observed towards the present. This trend is well comparable to the
13 contemporaneous rise of temperatures in the Northern Hemisphere as modelled by Moberg et
14 al. (2005) (Fig. 6).

15

16 **6 Conclusions**

17 High-Andean peatlands offer unique opportunities to investigate the timing and character of
18 climatic shifts in the central Andes. The investigated CTP represents a new, high-resolute
19 palaeoclimate record for the central Andes, which furthermore explores linkages between
20 environmental change and human impact.

21 With the application of XRF-analyses, it is possible to detect past fluctuations of the
22 peatland's redox conditions at a high temporal resolution. Here, in particular, the Mn/Fe ratio
23 is a valuable indicator of past water table changes. Stable isotope values of organic carbon
24 and nitrogen, as well as organic carbon and nitrogen contents, give further information to
25 reconstruct relationships between the peatland's surface wetness and climate. Plant
26 macrofossils indicate the local occurrence of the main peat-forming plant species. The
27 macrofossil assemblages bear further information on the presence of fungal and invertebrate
28 taxa. With the study of microfossils it was shown that climate variations and human activities
29 had an influence on the abundance of dominating taxa, particularly on grasses.

30 Vuille et al. (2012) and Bird et al. (2011) hypothesised that Northern Hemisphere climate
31 oscillations affect the SASM activity of the tropical/subtropical southern hemisphere. Our

1 data show that moisture fluctuations at CTP can be correlated to shifts in the position of the
2 ITCZ (Haug et al., 2001). The concomitant shifts in SASM intensity might have altered the
3 redox conditions of CTP during the past 2100 years. Uncertainties appear during the last
4 recent 2100 years, when changes in geomorphodynamic processes, due to increased human
5 impact, might have reduced the reliability of the peat record.

6 A period of sustained dry conditions prevailed from around 150 BC to around AD 150. A
7 more humid phase dominated between AD 200 and AD 550. From AD 550 to AD 1250, the
8 climate was characterised by several distinct changes between drier and wetter conditions,
9 showing droughts at around AD 650-800 and AD 1000-1100. Afterwards, the climate
10 repeatedly fluctuated. Volcanic forcing in the beginning of the 19th century seems to have had
11 a major influence on climatic settings in the central Andes, as evidenced by a sudden change
12 in redox conditions at that time.

13 For a sound interpretation of past processes and past environments, based on high-Andean
14 peat archives, a better understanding of the contemporary ecological processes of these fragile
15 ecosystems is highly needed.

16

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28

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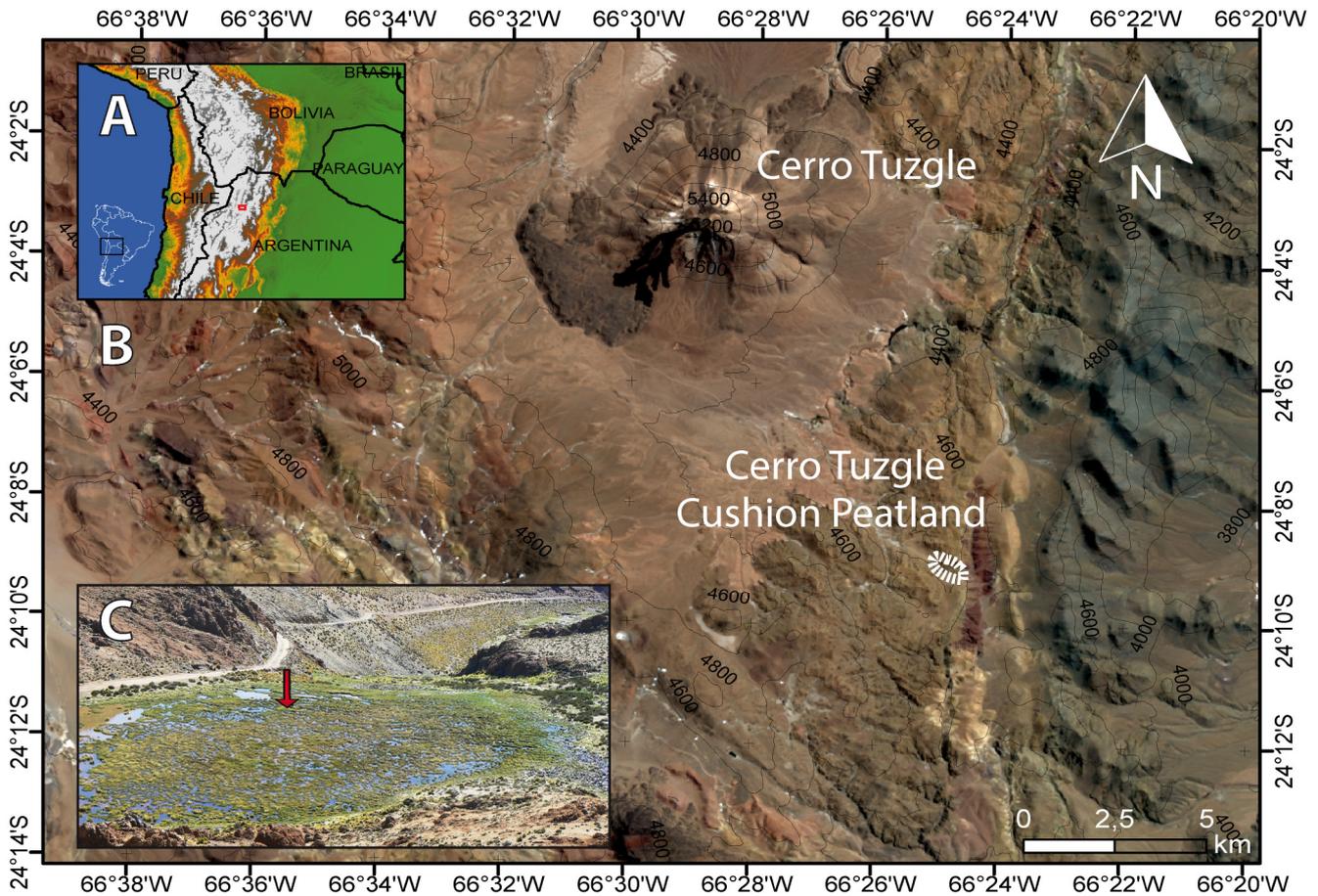
1 Table 1. Radiocarbon ages of core Tuz 694 of Cerro Tuzgle peatland. The calibrated age
 2 ranges were calculated using CALIB 7.0.4 and the IntCal13 data set (Reimer et al., 2013).
 3 The modelled ages are the result of a probabilistic age-depth model using MCAgeDepth
 4 (Higuera et al., 2009). The range represents the 2σ values, and the median ages are in
 5 parentheses.

6

| Lab # | core depth (cm) | compacted depth (cm) | measured ^{14}C | measured error (\pm) | 2 σ calibrated age (cal yr BP) | MCAgeDepth modelled age (cal yr BP) |
|-----------|-----------------|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Poz-56032 | 37,5 | 50,5 | 600 | 35 | 541-(603)-654 | 541-(602)-654 |
| Poz-56034 | 77,5 | 82,5 | 1095 | 30 | 938-(1001)-1060 | 941-(1000)-1061 |
| Poz-56035 | 103,5 | 152,5 | 1245 | 25 | 1082-(1211)-1268 | 1084-(1210)-1264 |
| Poz-66440 | 144,5 | 172,5 | 1620 | 30 | 1412-(1514)-1591 | 1419-(1514)-1588 |
| Poz-56036 | 160,5 | 180,5 | 1715 | 30 | 1557-(1620)-1700 | 1558-(1619)-1700 |
| Poz-66442 | 187,5 | 193,5 | 1960 | 30 | 1830-(1911)-1988 | 1836-(1910)-1984 |

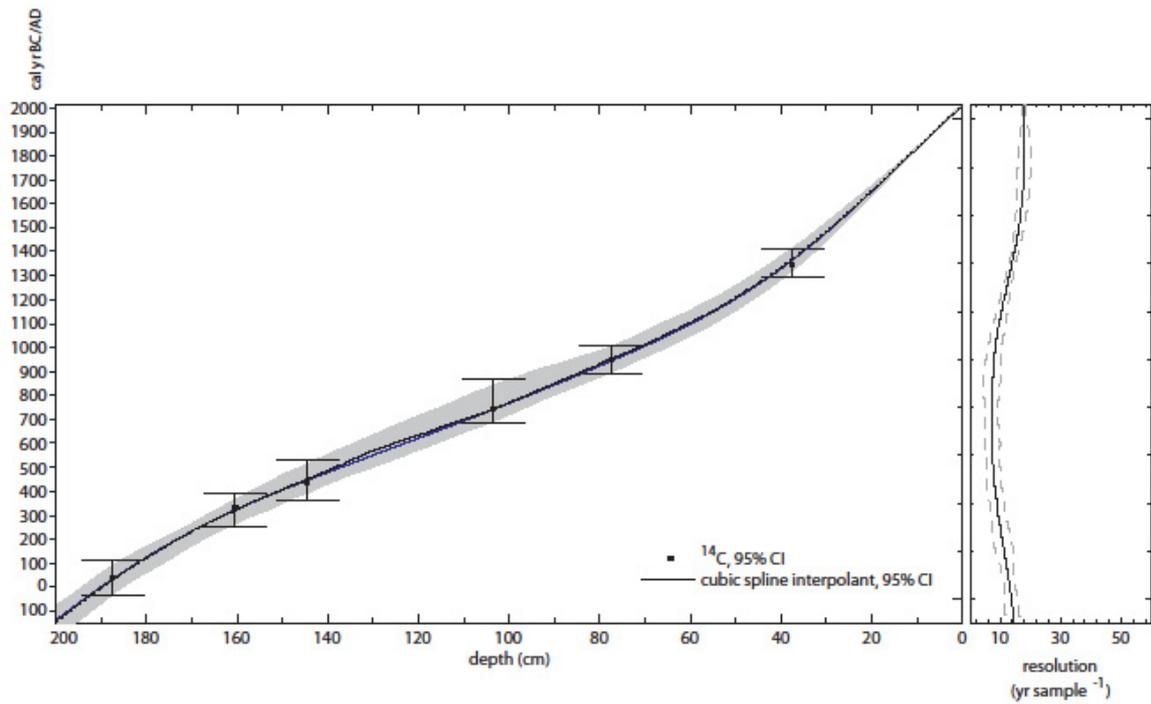
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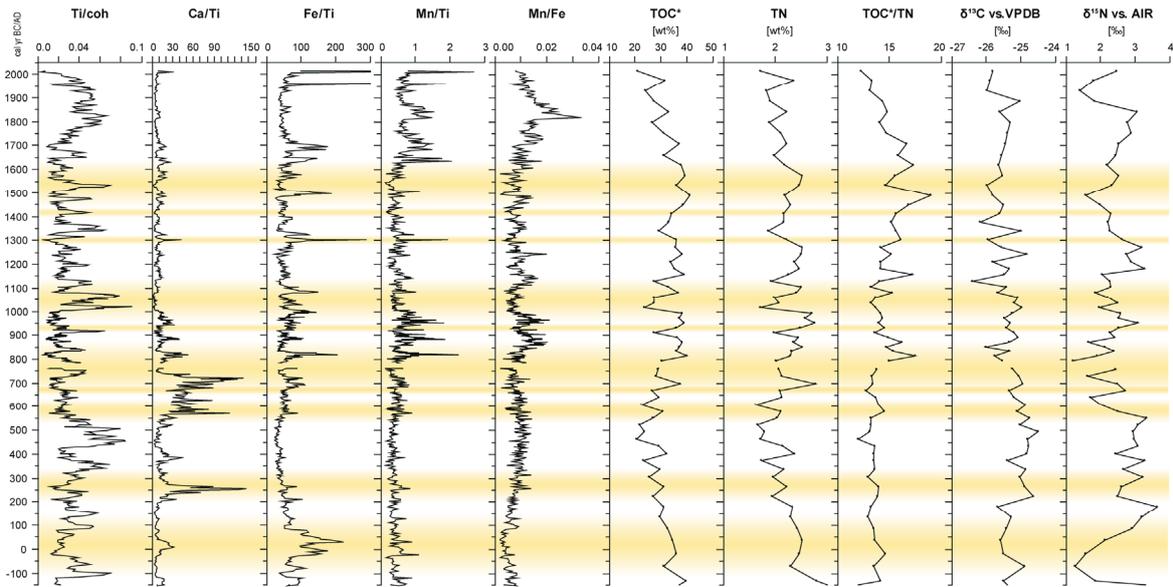
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Fig. 1. A. Map of NW Argentina and adjacent countries (data source: GLCF World Data). B. The location of Cerro Tuzgle peatland (CTP) south of Cerro Tuzgle volcano in the NW Argentine Puna plateau (data source: DGM-GTOPO30). C. Panorama of the *Oxychloe andina*-dominated part of CTP and the location of the coring site (February 2013).



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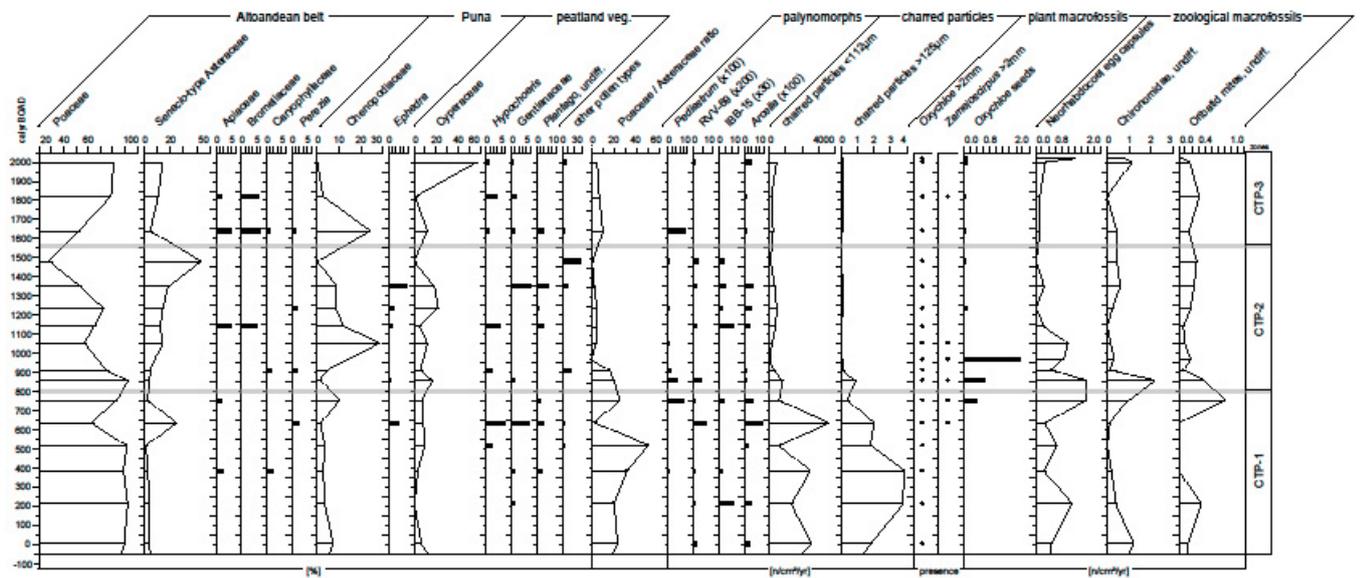
Fig. 2. Age-versus-depth model for core Tuz 694 retrieved from CTP based on 6 ^{14}C dates. The grey band represents the modelled range of dates and the black line the 50th percentile of all runs.



1

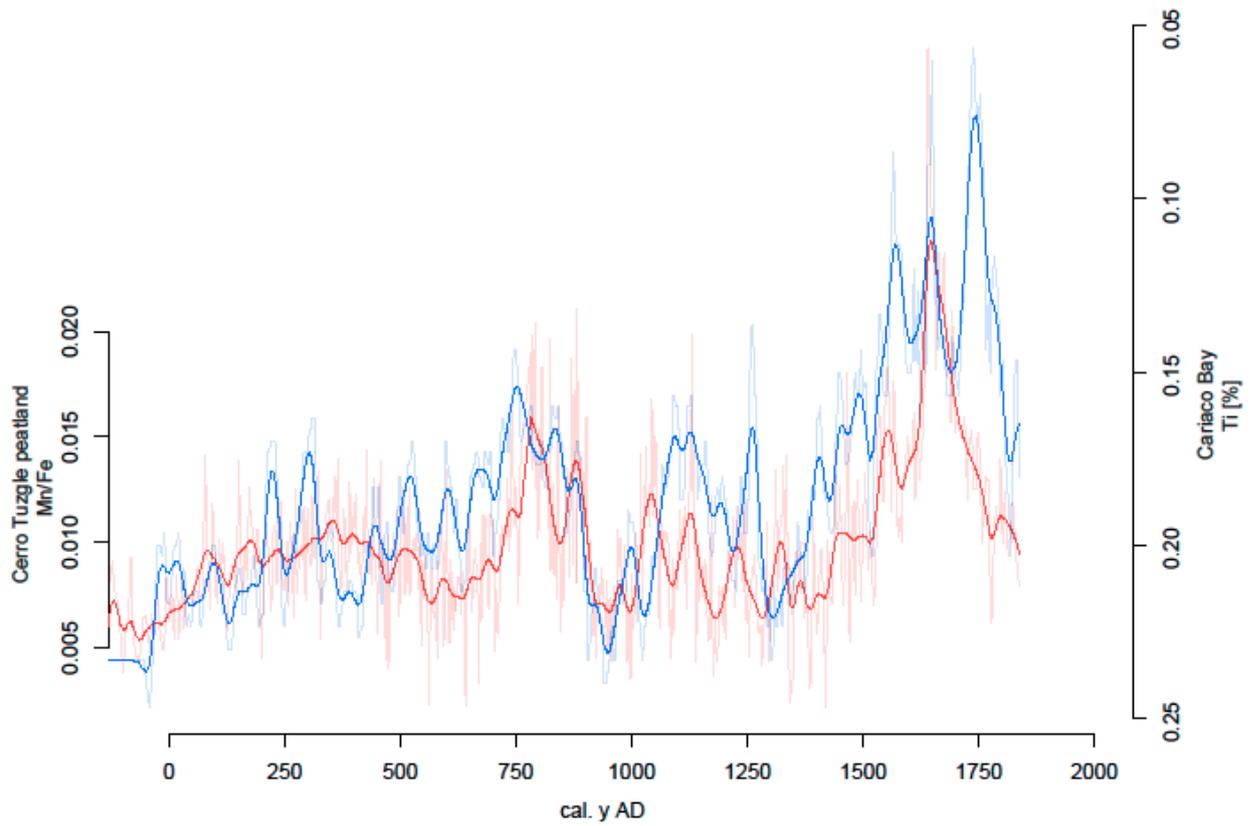
2 Fig. 3. XRF-measured element ratios, elemental and stable isotope contents for core Tuz 694
 3 of Cerro Tuzgle peatland, plotted against age. Yellow bars represent dry periods.

4



1
 2 Fig. 4. Pollen, palynomorphs, charred particles and macrofossils diagram for core Tuz 694 of
 3 Cerro Tuzgle peatland. Peatland vegetation was excluded from the pollen sum.

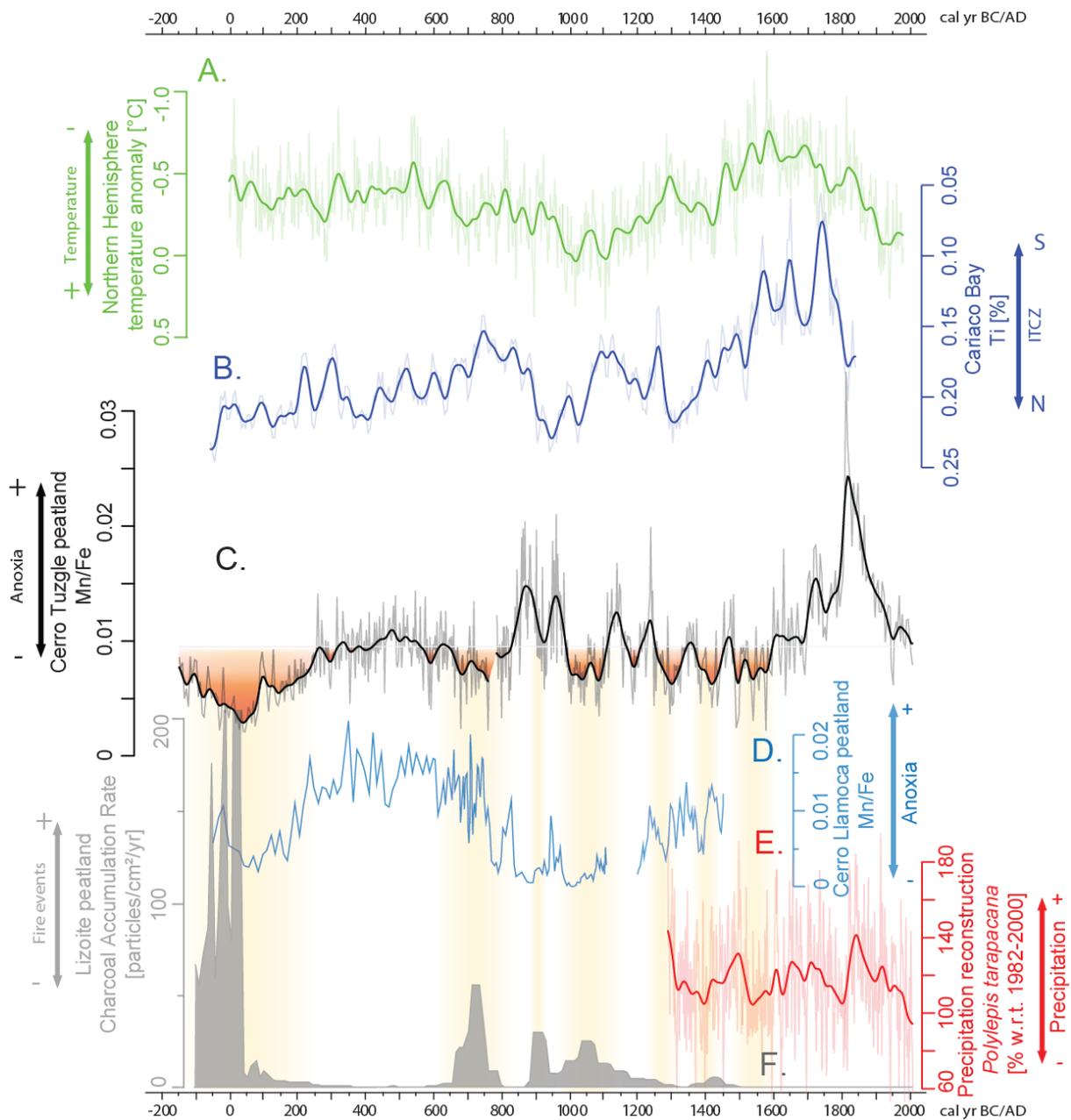
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3 Fig. 5. Comparison of the Mn/Fe ratio sequence of the CTP dataset with reversed Ti values
4 (Haug et al., 2001) at cross-correlation values > 95% CI at a lag of 174 years, showing a
5 correlation of $r = 0.50$.

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 2 Fig. 6. The late Holocene Mn/Fe ratio sequence of Cerro Tuzgle peatland compared with
 3 regional and supra-regional records. A. Northern Hemisphere temperature reconstruction
 4 (Moberg et al., 2005). B. Bulk Ti content of Cariaco Basin sediments (Haug et al., 2001). C.
 5 Mn/Fe ratio sequence of CTP. Drier-than-average conditions are shown in orange. D. Mn/Fe
 6 ratio sequence of Cerro Llamoca peatland (Schitteck et al., 2015). E. Precipitation
 7 reconstruction for the central Andes based on *Polylepis tarapacana* tree-rings (Morales et al.,
 8 2012). F. Lizoite peatland charcoal accumulation rates (Schitteck, 2014).