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10 **Abrupt Arctic Warming Repeatedly Led to Prolonged Drought and Glacial Retreat in**  
11 **the Tropical Andes During the Last Glacial Cycle**

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13 Arielle Woods<sup>1\*</sup>, Donald T. Rodbell<sup>2</sup>, Mark B. Abbott<sup>1</sup>, Robert G. Hatfield<sup>3, 4</sup>, Christine Y.  
14 Chen<sup>5</sup>, Sophie B. Lehmann<sup>1</sup>, David McGee<sup>5</sup>, Nicholas C. Weidhaas<sup>1</sup>, Pedro M. Tapia<sup>6</sup>, Blas  
15 L. Valero-Garcés<sup>7</sup>, Mark B. Bush<sup>8</sup>, Joseph S. Stoner<sup>3</sup>

16  
17 <sup>1</sup>Department of Geology and Environmental Science, University of Pittsburgh, PA, USA.

18 <sup>2</sup>Geology Department, Union College, Schenectady, NY, USA.

19 <sup>3</sup>College of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Science, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR,  
20 USA.

21 <sup>4</sup>Department of Geological Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA.

22 <sup>5</sup>Department of Earth, Atmospheric, and Planetary Sciences, Massachusetts Institute of  
23 Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA.

24 <sup>6</sup>Instituto Nacional de Investigación en Glaciares y Ecosistemas de Montaña, Ancash, Peru.

25 <sup>7</sup>Pyrenean Institute of Ecology, Spanish National Research Council, Zaragoza, Spain.

26 <sup>8</sup>Florida Institute of Technology, Melbourne, FL, USA.

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28 \*Correspondence to: asw65@pitt.edu  
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30  
31 *A sediment core spanning the last ~50 ka from Lake Junín (Peru) in the tropical Andes reveals*  
32 *abrupt climatic events on a centennial-millennial time scale. These events, which involved the*  
33 *near-complete disappearance of glaciers below 4700 masl in the eastern Andean cordillera*  
34 *and major reductions in the level of Peru's second largest lake, occurred during the abrupt*  
35 *warmings recorded in Greenland ice cores known as Dansgaard-Oeschger (DO) interstadials.*  
36 *Lake Junín is the first record to document the response of Andean glaciers to serial DO events,*  
37 *and also reveals the magnitude of the hydroclimatic disruptions in the highest reaches of the*  
38 *Amazon Basin that were caused by a weakening of the South American summer monsoon*  
39 *during abrupt arctic warming. Ongoing warming in the Arctic could lead to significant*  
40 *reductions in the precipitation-evaporation balance in the tropical Andes with deleterious*  
41 *effects on the sustainability of a densely populated region of South America.*  
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45 Variations in Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) during the last glacial cycle  
46 drove abrupt changes in the thermal gradient of the North Atlantic sector, altering the  
47 interhemispheric distribution of tropical heat, the mean position of the intertropical  
48 convergence zone (ITCZ), and trade wind strength (1–3). Low-latitude paleoclimate proxy  
49 records are sensitive to high-latitude forcing via the strength of the South American summer  
50 monsoon (SASM), which increased during cold stadial periods such as Heinrich events (4–6),  
51 and weakened during the abrupt warmings recorded in Greenland ice cores associated with  
52 Dansgaard-Oeschger (DO) interstadials (7–9).

53  
54 While DO cycles appear to have large impacts on the SASM, little is known about DO-related  
55 precipitation anomalies in tropical South America or the effects on Andean glacier mass  
56 balance. Much of the paleoclimatic evidence documenting changes in South American  
57 hydroclimate relies on the interpretation of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variations in speleothems from the Amazon  
58 Basin and surrounding regions (5, 6, 8). Similarities among these speleothem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records  
59 reflect the regional impact of variations in convective activity and upstream rainout in the core  
60 monsoon region of Amazonia (10). However, records from several localities do not reveal a  
61 tight coupling between independent proxies of local precipitation amount and the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of that

62 precipitation ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$ ) (11, 12), indicating that factors other than the “amount effect” (13) may  
63 dominate  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  at some locations. The inability to isolate local precipitation variations from  
64 the composite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signal (14, 15) makes it difficult to assess the specific impact of abrupt  
65 warming on water availability and glacial mass balance in the tropical Andes, and it highlights  
66 the need for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -independent records of hydroclimate.

67  
68 Here we show that the DO interstadials between 50 and 15 ka, which are recorded isotopically  
69 both in Greenland ice (16, 17) and speleothem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from Pacupahuain Cave in the upper  
70 Amazon Basin (5), were associated with rapid and large reductions in Andean precipitation  
71 amount recorded by multiple independent proxies in Lake Junín sediments. Many of these  
72 perturbations were sufficient to deglaciate the adjacent portion of the eastern Andean  
73 cordillera up to at least 4700 masl and profoundly shrink Lake Junín, Peru’s second largest  
74 lake located at 4100 masl and ~25 km from Pacupahuain Cave (Fig. 1). This record documents  
75 for the first time the unambiguous impact on glacier mass balance and hydroclimate of the  
76 climatic teleconnection linking the Atlantic meridional thermal gradient with the strength of the  
77 SASM.

78  
79 Lake Junín (11°S) is a seasonally closed-basin lake located between the eastern and western  
80 cordilleras of the central Peruvian Andes (Fig. 1). With a surface area of ~280 km<sup>2</sup> and a  
81 seasonally variable water depth of ~8-12 m, Lake Junín is especially sensitive to changes in  
82 precipitation-evaporation balance (P-E). The watershed occupies the Puna grasslands  
83 ecoregion where groundwater-fed peatlands (*bofedales*), characterized by organic-rich  
84 sediment, occupy the shallow water lake margins. Glacial outwash fans and lateral moraines  
85 form the basin’s eastern and northern edges (Fig. 1), and <sup>10</sup>Be exposure ages from these  
86 moraines indicate they span multiple glacial cycles (18, 19), but at no time during at least the  
87 last 50 ka has the lake been overridden by glacial ice. Thus, Lake Junín is ideally situated to  
88 record the last glacial cycle in the adjacent eastern cordillera. During the local last glacial  
89 maximum (LLGM; ~28.5-22.5 ka) alpine glaciers descended from headwall elevations as high  
90 as ~4700 masl to ~4160 masl, within several km of the modern shoreline (20). Whereas  
91 glaciers in the inner tropics of the Andes are especially temperature sensitive because of  
92 sustained precipitation year-round, glaciers in the outer tropics, such as those at the latitude  
93 of the Junín basin, experience greater seasonality of precipitation and are twice as sensitive  
94 to changes in precipitation as those in the inner tropics (21, 22). The Junín region receives  
95 most of its moisture through the SASM during the austral summer (DJF) with less than 7%  
96 falling during the winter (JJA), making variations in the SASM a principal driver of changes in  
97 paleoglacier mass balance.

98  
99 Most records of glaciation in the tropical Andes rely on moraine exposure ages to infer the  
100 timing and extent of advances (19, 23). However, such records have age uncertainties of  
101 ~±5%, an unknown temporal relationship between the timing of moraine stabilization and ice  
102 advance, and the tendency for larger advances to erase evidence of prior glacial cycles.  
103 Continuous proxy records from well-dated glacier-fed lakes such as Junín can compensate  
104 for such limitations, with clastic sediment flux and high-resolution X-ray fluorescence (XRF)  
105 scans being well-established proxies for glacial erosion of bedrock that, in turn, reflect relative  
106 changes in paleoglacier activity and mass balance (24, 25). Accordingly, complete and final  
107 deglaciation of the Junín watershed by 18 ka was marked by a near total cessation of clastic  
108 sediment input to the lake (25, 26) (Fig. 2A-C).

109  
110 The Junín sediment cores were obtained from the lake depocenter (Fig. 1) in 8.2 m of water.  
111 The age model for the last 50 ka (cal yr BP, 1950 CE) is based on 79 radiocarbon  
112 measurements from terrestrial macrofossils and charcoal (Fig. 2F, Table S1). Sediment  
113 deposited from 50-22.5 ka is dominated by fine-grained glacial flour characterized by high Ti

114 and Si counts per second (cps), high density, and low total organic carbon (TOC) (Fig. 2A-E).  
115 Glacigenic sediment input to Lake Junín was especially high from 28.5-22.5 ka (Fig. 2A-C),  
116 which corresponds to the age of moraines deposited during the maximum extent of ice in the  
117 last 50 ka in the adjacent eastern cordillera (19). Glacigenic sediment deposition was  
118 punctuated by a series of distinct 1 to 20 cm-thick peat layers (Fig. 2) containing 5-35% TOC  
119 (Fig. 2D) with abundant macrofossils that are similar to the sediment accumulating today in  
120 the fringing peatlands around the lake. These peat layers span intervals from ~25-500 years  
121 based on mean sedimentation rates and are interpreted to reflect lake low stands that were  
122 marked by encroachment of the basin-fringing wetlands toward the center of the lake,  
123 indicating that water level repeatedly fluctuated up to ~8 m. There is no evidence in the  
124 sedimentology or the radiocarbon age-depth relationship (Fig. 2F) for unconformities, so while  
125 these peat layers represent considerably lower water level, the drill site remained submerged,  
126 at least seasonally, for the duration of our record. The absence of any shoreline features above  
127 modern lake level indicates that during the longer-duration high stands, lake level was not  
128 significantly higher than today. Sediment deposited after ~20 ka reveals a rapid decline in  
129 clastic input and a lake increasingly dominated by authigenic CaCO<sub>3</sub> separated by occasional  
130 organic-rich intervals (Fig. 2C-E).

131  
132 The Junín record exhibits a reduced input of glacigenic sediment during DO interstadials 3-13  
133 (Fig. 3A), with all but two of these intervals marked by enhanced peat accumulation,  
134 associated higher TOC, and lower density (Fig. 2D-E). Declines in siliciclastic sediment flux  
135 (Fig. 2C) indicate that simple dilution effects were not responsible for the reductions in  
136 glacigenic sediment concentration. The timing of DO interstadials was thus marked by  
137 widespread glacial retreat and lake level lowering up to ~8 m, within the chronologic  
138 uncertainty of our age model (Fig. S1). The absence of evidence for lowered lake level during  
139 the regional warming associated with the late glacial-to-Holocene transition, when snow lines  
140 rose 200-1200 m (20, 26), indicates that Lake Junín is especially sensitive to P-E changes  
141 that are driven by precipitation amount rather than by variations in temperature. The close  
142 association between lake low stands and reduced glacial sediment flux during DO events  
143 suggests that reductions in paleoglacier mass balance were primarily driven by decreases in  
144 precipitation. The declines in lake level associated with the DO events noted here corroborates  
145 evidence of water level reductions associated with DO interstadial events 11, 10, and 8 at  
146 1360 masl in southern Peru (14°S) (27). The documented changes in hydroclimate in the Junín  
147 region may thus have affected a large region of the westernmost Amazon Basin, which is  
148 consistent with the Fe/Ca record of Amazon River discharge (9) (Fig. 3E).

149  
150 On millennial timescales, multiple independent proxies measured on Junín sediments bear a  
151 strong resemblance to the precisely-dated speleothem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records from both the nearby  
152 Pacupahuain Cave (5) (Fig. 3C) and from El Condor Cave (Fig. 3D), a lower elevation site  
153 (800 masl) in the western Amazon Basin of northern Peru (8). This concurrence indicates that  
154 regional hydrologic processes were a first-order control on all records. Such similarity  
155 suggests that  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$ , which has been interpreted to reflect upstream convection and rainout  
156 (10, 28), also reflects some degree of variable local precipitation amount in the tropical Andes.  
157 However, the magnitude of Junín's response to individual DO warmings is often not to scale  
158 with that of Pacupahuain, only 25 km away. For example, DO interstadials 11 and 13 register  
159 as profoundly dry intervals at Junín but only minimally so in Pacupahuain, contrary to the  
160 signal that would be predicted by a simple amount effect (13). A similar mismatch occurs  
161 during DO interstadial 8, which is a relatively weak dry period at Junín with moderate  
162 reductions in Ti and Si and only a multi-decadal interval of peat accumulation, yet DO 8 in the  
163 Pacupahuain record is marked by the most positive  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  excursion in the entire speleothem  
164 sequence, lasting nearly a millennium. These observations indicate that the local moisture  
165 response at Junín can be disproportional to, and possibly even decoupled from, the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$

166 signal that is thought to be recording millennial-scale SASM intensity. This finding confirms  
167 earlier work showing that atmospheric transport of water vapor from the tropical Atlantic across  
168 the Amazon lowlands involves numerous isotopic controls, in addition to precipitation amount,  
169 which influence the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  signal of geologic archives (14, 15, 28).

170  
171 The early onset of deglaciation in the tropical Andes, ~22.5 ka based on lake sediment records  
172 (29) (Fig. 3A), is consistent with moraine ages that reflect retreating ice margins at this time  
173 (19, 23). This onset was several millennia prior to the onset of global deglaciation as recorded  
174 by sea level rise (30) (Fig. 3G), and was initially interpreted as evidence for early tropical  
175 warming because of the lack of evidence for drying at this time (29). The Junín peat record,  
176 however, reveals that two prolonged droughts, lasting a total of ~1300 yr, occurred in quick  
177 succession (22.5-21.9 ka and 20.8-20.1 ka), just prior to the onset of warming ~20 ka in the  
178 high latitudes of the Southern Hemisphere (Fig. 3H). We suggest that these prolonged dry  
179 intervals were responsible for the early onset of glacial retreat in this region of the tropical  
180 Andes. These abrupt reductions in P-E at Junín are evident, though subtle, in the Pacupahuain  
181 record, yet they do not appear as pronounced individual excursions in AMOC (1) or Amazon  
182 discharge (9) (Fig. 3E,F). It is notable, however, that the latter two records indicate that the  
183 period from ~24 to 19 ka was characterized by a relatively strong AMOC and overall drier  
184 conditions in the Amazon Basin, respectively. These observations, along with records of  
185 tropical Atlantic mixed layer depth (3), indicate that the 24-19 ka interval was not marked by  
186 the large southward ITCZ displacements that characterized HS 2 and 1, and this may explain  
187 why Junín experienced extended droughts and early deglaciation during this interval.  
188 Alternately, modeling studies have pointed to a thermodynamically-driven contraction of the  
189 tropical rainbelt associated with global cooling during the global LGM (31), which may have  
190 contributed to reductions in SASM rainfall and early deglaciation in the tropical Andes.

191  
192 The significant disruption to glaciers and hydroclimate in the tropical Andes in response to  
193 perturbations in the meridional temperature gradient of the North Atlantic documented here  
194 demonstrates the sensitivity of tropical P-E balance to Northern Hemisphere climatic  
195 perturbations. There are multiple possible scenarios for regional hydroclimatic change in the  
196 Amazon Basin in response to 21<sup>st</sup> century warming. One scenario posits that accentuated  
197 warming in the Arctic will result in a northward shift in the mean position of the ITCZ (32), while  
198 another projects a stable mean position of the ITCZ, but reductions in both width and strength  
199 (33). Either scenario would lead to significant reductions in P-E in the tropical Andes with  
200 impacts on glaciers, water supplies, hydropower, and the resultant sustainability of a densely  
201 populated region of South America.

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343 **Supplementary Materials:**

344 Materials and Methods

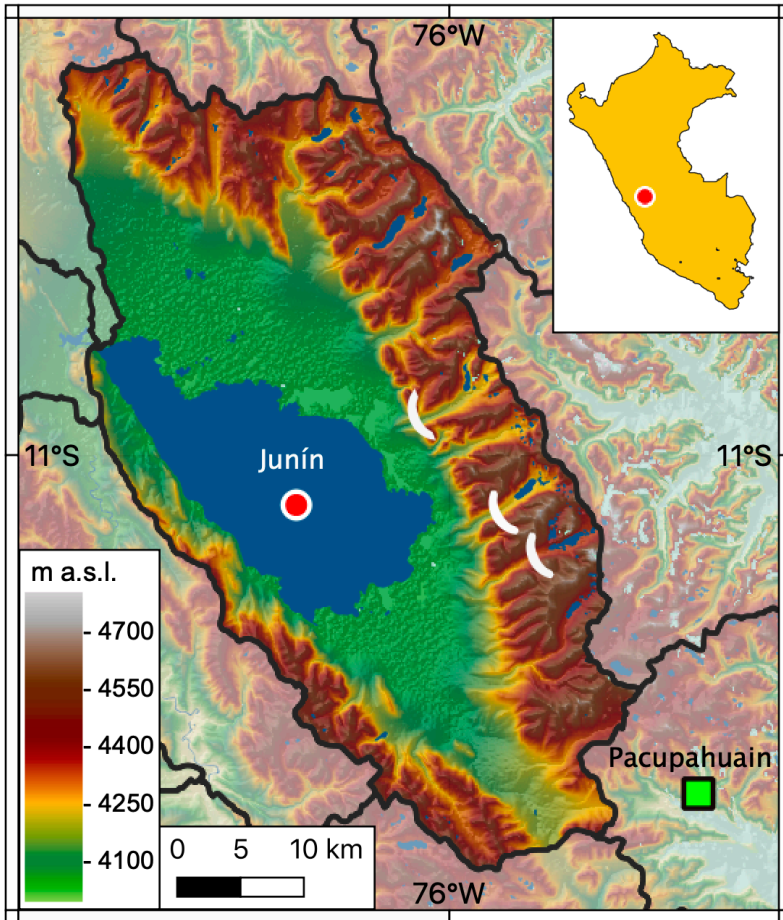
345 Figure S1

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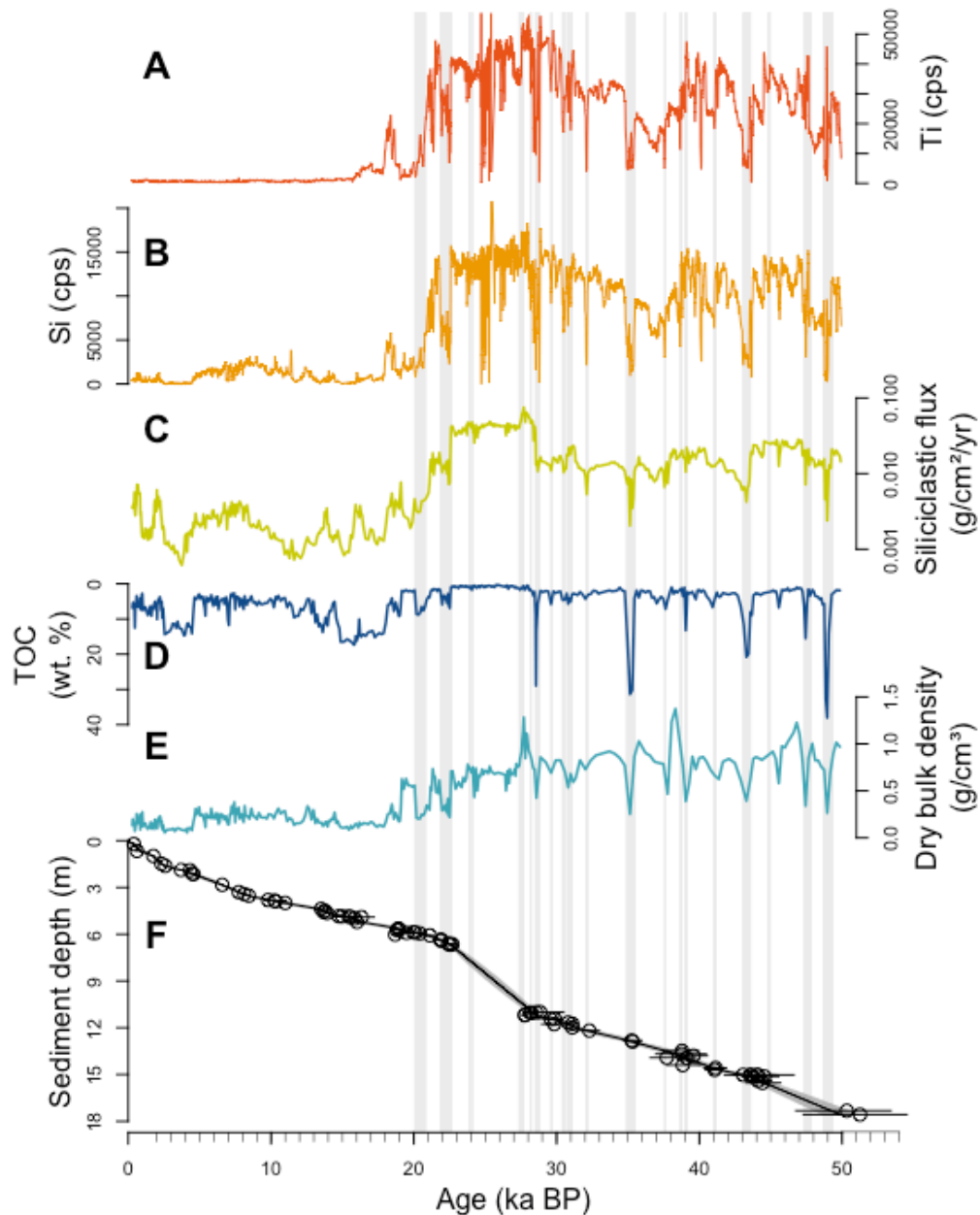
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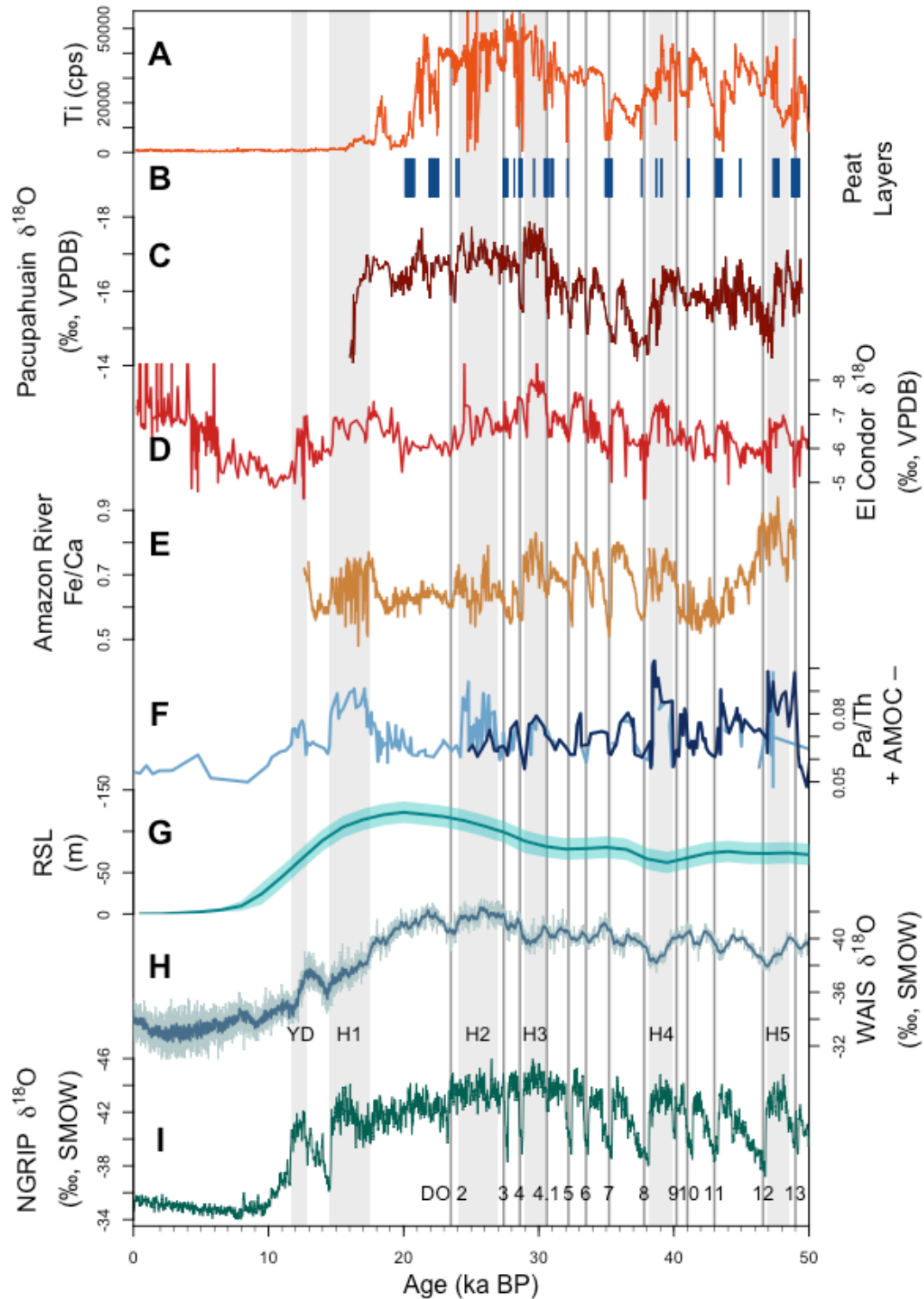
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**Fig. 1.** Location of the Lake Junín (4100 masl) drainage basin and Pacupahuain cave in central Peru. White lines in three valleys east of Lake Junín indicate the downvalley extent of glaciers during the local LGM, after (19).



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**Fig. 2.** Physical and geochemical sediment properties from the Junín drill core. The similar XRF profiles of (A) Ti and (B) Si indicate both elements primarily represent clastic inputs, with slight differences attributable to different bedrock mineralogy and grain size. (C) Siliciclastic sediment flux (log scale). (D) Total organic carbon (TOC). (E) Dry bulk density. (F) Bacon age-depth model of 79 AMS radiocarbon ages on terrestrial macrofossils. Grey vertical bars show the distribution of peat layers.



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**Fig. 3.** Comparison of regional and global proxy paleoclimatic records. **(A)** Junín glaciation (Ti from Fig. 2A). **(B)** Junín low stands (peat layers). **(C)** Pacupahuain speleothem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (5). **(D)** El Condor speleothem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (8). **(E)** Amazon Discharge (9). **(F)** AMOC strength (dark blue curve is Pa/Th data reported in (1), and light blue curve is a compilation of previously reported Pa/Th records as presented in (1)). **(G)** Relative sea level (30). **(H)** WAIS Divide  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (34). **(I)** NGRIP  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (16, 17). Vertical grey boxes denote the Younger Dryas and Heinrich stadials H1-H5, and numbered vertical lines are DO warming events 2-13.