1	Local and regional drivers of environmental changes in two subtropical montane
2	ponds (central China) over the last two centuries
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13	HIGHLIGHTS
14	Primary producers of two subtropical montane ponds exhibited changes from the 1900s.
15 16	The drainage versus seepage hydrologies of each pond were important modulators of primary production.
17	Temperature and nitrogen deposition interacted with local catchment conditions to
18	influence ecosystem response
19	
20	Authors Contributions: XC and SM conceived and designed the study. XC, SM, JP,

21 TZ, XB, and LZ collected and analysed the data. XC and SM wrote the manuscript.

22 Abstract: Central China, one of the Earth's distinctive ecoregions due to its endemic 23 subtropical biota, has been subjected to enhanced nitrogen deposition and climate warming during recent decades. However, the extent and timescale of ecological 24 25 changes are largely unexplored. Multiproxy analyses (diatoms, photosynthetic pigments and geochemistry) of ²¹⁰Pb-dated sediment cores from two shallow ponds 26 within an alpine basin (central China) were used to investigate the response of primary 27 28 producer communities to external stressors during the last two centuries. The study sites include one drainage pond and one seepage pond. Both ponds exhibited unambiguous 29 30 changes in production and composition of photoautotrophs since the early 20th century, which are linked to climate warming, nitrogen deposition and local factors (e.g. lake 31 morphometry, desiccation and macrophyte). Although primary producers responded to 32 33 regional warming and nitrogen deposition, the ecological responses differed among 34 ponds due to local factors. In the deeper seepage pond, light attenuation due to terrestrial organic matter input caused recent decreases in carotenoids and small fragilarioid taxa. 35 36 In contrast, the co-occurrence of euterrestrial and tychoplanktonic diatoms in the shallower drainage pond was indicative of its hydrological instability. Our results 37 indicate that subtropical montane ponds in the East Asian monsoon region appear to be 38 strongly influenced by the combined effects of local (e.g. catchment-lake connectivity) 39 40 and regional driving forces (e.g. warming and nitrogen deposition).

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42 Key words: diatom; pigment; nitrogen deposition; climate warming; lake morphometry;
43 palaeolimnology

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44 INTRODUCTION

Montane lakes are remote aquatic ecosystems characterized by prolonged ice 45 cover, short growing seasons, dilute water chemistry and low primary production 46 47 (Catalan and others 2013; Wolfe and others 2013). As such, montane lakes may act as sentinels for a variety of environmental stressors, such as climate warming, 48 hydrological alteration, and nitrogen deposition (Moser and others 2019). Algae, the 49 50 dominant primary producers in aquatic ecosystems, are of global significance for biogeochemical cycling, and are an invaluable bioindicators of ongoing global change 51 52 due to their wide distribution, high diversity, and sensitivity to habitat alteration (Rühland and others 2015). Local and regional driving forces may induce shifts in 53 primary producers of montane water bodies, with substantial implications for higher 54 55 trophic levels and ecosystem structure and function (Catalan and others 2013; Rühland 56 and others 2015; Hobbs and others 2016).

A number of processes have been proposed as contributors to observed changes in 57 primary producer communities of alpine lakes. Firstly, the elevated inorganic nitrogen 58 concentrations due to atmospheric deposition has increased primary production in lakes 59 (Bergström and Jansson 2006). Secondly, climate warming is proposed to enhance 60 primary production by prolonging the growing season (Rühland and others 2015). 61 Thirdly, changes in local factors, such as catchment-lake hydrological connection, are 62 63 important driving forces for shifts in primary producers (Hu and others 2018; Moorhouse and others 2018; Hadley and others 2019). For example, vegetation and soil 64 development can increase the influx of terrestrial coloured dissolved organic matter 65 (CDOM) to lakes (McGowan and others 2018a), imposing a dual effect on primary 66 producers, via nutrients (positively) and light (negatively) (Bergström and Karlsson 67 2019). Due to the complexities of these processes, the ecological responses of small 68

and shallow montane lakes may vary spatially and temporally (Catalan and others 2013;Rühland and others 2015).

Present knowledge on the effects of multiple stressors on primary producers mainly 71 72 derives from Arctic, European and North American montane lakes (Binford and others1987; Caballero-Miranda 1996; Saros and others 2005; Catalan and others 2013; 73 Rühland and others 2015; Hobbs and others 2016; Smol 2016; Moorhouse and others 74 75 2018), while there is a paucity of information on montane lakes in subtropical East Asia (Hu and others 2018; Wang and others 2020). Montane lakes are considered to be 76 77 relatively pristine, nutrient-limited and seasonally frozen, and hence more sensitive to 78 influxes of energy or mass from atmospheric changes (Vogt and others 2011; Smol 79 2016; Hadley and others 2019). Small and shallow lakes may show more pronounced 80 biological responses to global environmental changes than deep lakes, due to their 81 unique features of low water volumes and hydrological sensitivity resulting from high catchment: lake area ratios (Spaulding and others 2015; Rantala and others 2017; Giles 82 and others 2018). 83

In monsoonal regions where rainfall patterns are generally intense and highly 84 seasonal, the transfer of carbon and nutrients between the watershed and lake is likely 85 to be highly efficient. However, the ecological responses of shallow lakes to 86 eutrophication and hydrological changes are known to be complex because of strong 87 88 benthic-pelagic interactions, which can result in distinctive macrophyte-dominated and turbid states (Squires and others 2002; Vadeboncoeur and others 2003; Scheffer and 89 Jeppesen 2007). Long-term (millennial-scale) changes in lake level of montane lakes 90 are associated with shifts in monsoonal cycles, and lake level variability has been linked 91 92 to changes in ecosystem state in shallow lakes (REFS). Strong potential exists, therefore,

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for abrupt ecosystem transitions in subtropical montane ponds which may be detectable
in longer term records as recovered by palaeolimnology (Briddon and others 2020).

Recently there has been increasing interest in environmental changes in montane 95 lakes of China (Hu and others 2014; Chen and others 2018; Yan and others 2018; Kang 96 and others 2019). In northern China, Chen and others (2018) found that rising primary 97 production was consistent with enhanced nitrogen deposition in a montane lake after 98 99 the 1980s. In contrast, the responses of algal communities to atmospheric deposition are more muted in alpine lakes of southwestern China, probably mediated by catchment 100 101 processes (Hu and others 2014, 2018; Kang and others 2019). Algal communities of deeper stratified lakes shift mainly due to weak mixing and strong stratification caused 102 by warming in both northern and southern China (Chen and others 2014; Yan and others 103 104 2018). For achieving a deeper understanding of the combined effects of local and 105 regional driving forces, there is a necessity to decipher the response of primary producer communities across a broader geographic area. Central China, located in the East Asian 106 monsoon region with synchronous changes in seasonal rainfall and temperature, 107 displays a rapid warming trend of 1.5 °C/100 years during the last century (Wang and 108 others 2009). In Central China, nitrogen deposition is dominated by wet deposition and 109 demonstrates the world's greatest increase rate (Ackerman and others 2019). The 110 combination of local and regional drivers may cause substantial shifts in primary 111 112 producer communities of montane lakes in central China.

In this study, we present fossil diatoms, preserved pigments and geochemical data (δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, total organic carbon and total nitrogen) in sediment cores from two shallow but hydrologically different montane ponds (a seepage pond and a drainage pond with an outlet) in an alpine basin located in central China. Seepage ponds without surface outlets should enhance the accumulation of organic matter due to prolonged water 118 residence times, in comparison with drainage ponds (Spaulding and others 2015). We hypothesize that light attenuation due to enhanced CDOM accumulation in the slightly 119 deeper seepage pond will inhibit the growth of some benthic algae, whereas primary 120 producers (including macrophytes and phytobenthos) in the very shallow drainage pond 121 would be free of light limitation and so probably more directly responsive to changing 122 nutrient fluxes. The objectives of this study were to (1) investigate changes in primary 123 124 producer communities of two montane ponds during the last two centuries; (2) evaluate potential effects of local (e.g. catchment-lake hydrological connectivity) and regional 125 126 (e.g. climate warming, rainfall and nitrogen deposition) drivers on primary producer communities. 127

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129 MATERIALS AND METHODS

130 Study area

Congping Basin (31°24'12"N, 110°03'25"E, 2080 m a.s.l.) is located in the Three 131 Gorges Area (central China) that is a transition zone between the western mountains 132 and the eastern plain of China (Fig. 1A). Bedrock within the basin is Triassic limestone, 133 while the surrounding highlands feature Permian sandstone and sandy shale. The 134 regional climate is strongly influenced by the subtropical monsoon, with cold, dry 135 winters and cool, wet summers. There is a weather station at the nearby Dajiuhu 136 137 Wetland (31°28'50"N, 110°00'09"E, 1758 m a.s.l.; 10 km away from Congping Basin). Mean annual air temperature is \sim 8°C, and mean annual precipitation is \sim 1700 mm at 138 Dajiuhu weather station (Fig. 2a; Li and others 2019). According to the vertical lapse 139 rate of temperature of 0.5 °C/100 m, air temperature at Congping would be ~1.5°C 140 colder than at Dajiuhu. Mean monthly air temperature at Congping Basin is estimated 141 to range from -6 °C to -2 °C between December and February (Fig. 2a), and hence water 142

143 bodies are ice-covered during the winter. Over the last century, temperature increased remarkably from the early 20th century, followed by a slight decrease until recent 144 warming since the 1980s (Fig. 2b; Wang and others 2009). In contrast, seasonal 145 precipitation displayed fluctuant trends over the last century, with an increasing trend 146 in winter precipitation after 1980 (Fig. 2c). The mountains around the basin are 147 characterized by montane conifers (e.g. Pinus, Picea and Abies), while the lowland 148 vegetation within the basin is alpine meadow scattered with more than ten shallow 149 ponds (Fig. 1B). The alpine meadow is dominated by *Carex*, Allium and Sphagnum. 150 151 Surface soil in the basin is Alfisol, which is characterized by high proportions of SiO₂ (57%), Al₂O₃ (13%) and organic matter (18%, estimated by loss on ignition at 550°C), 152 low contents of MgO (1.7%), CaO (0.6%) and Na₂O (0.8%), and relatively low pH (5.4) 153 154 (Mo 2019).

These small ponds are developed from karst depressions, and there is no knowledge 155 of these lakes drying within the last ~50 years. Humans have had relatively little direct 156 effect on the landscape, with the exception of the expedition. Congping (CP) and 157 Mulong (ML) ponds are selected as study sites (two unnamed ponds on published maps, 158 Fig.1), and both of them are weakly-acidic, humic, oligotrophic, electrolyte-poor and 159 fishless (Table 1). CP is a much shallower (20cm depth) drainage pond, covered with 160 Sparganium stoloniferum (coverage of ~30%) with an outlet at the east, while ML is a 161 deeper (1.5m depth) seepage pond with Sphagnum development around lake margins 162 163 (Fig. 1).

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165 Sample collection and laboratory analysis

166 Parallel sediment cores were retrieved from CP using a Russian corer in June 2016,

and from ML using a Kajak gravity corer in September 2017, respectively. The gravity

168 corer was most suitable for collecting short cores from soft sediments in the deeper ML
Pond. The length of sediment cores collected from CP and ML was 50 cm and 33 cm,
respectively. The sediment cores were sectioned immediately in field at 1-cm intervals.
The samples were stored at <4 °C until analysis; pigment sub-samples were stored
frozen at -20 °C prior to laboratory analysis. Sediment samples were analysed for
radioactive isotopes (²¹⁰Pb, ²²⁶Ra and ¹³⁷Cs), total organic carbon (TOC), total nitrogen
(TN), carbon and nitrogen isotopes, particle size spectra, diatoms and pigments.

The radioactivities of ²¹⁰Pb, ²²⁶Ra and ¹³⁷Cs were measured at 2-cm intervals in ML 175 176 and at 4-cm intervals in CP on a gamma spectrometer (Ortec HPGe GWL) following the procedures described in Appleby (2001). Following treatment with 10% HCl to 177 remove carbonate, the samples were rinsed 3 times in distilled water and oven dried at 178 179 45°C. All dried samples were powdered in preparation for measurement of TOC, TN, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N. TOC and TN were measured by combustion with an elemental analyser 180 (vario EL cube), with reference to standard samples (precision of $\pm 0.1\%$). δ^{13} C and 181 δ^{15} N of organic matter were determined using a Thermo Fisher Scientific stable isotope 182 mass spectrometer (DELTA V advantage), with reference to standard samples 183 (precision of $\pm 0.3\%$). TOC, TN, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N were analysed at intervals of every 2-184 cm. Measured δ^{13} C values were corrected for the Suess effect (the decrease in δ^{13} C of 185 the atmosphere due to the release of CO_2 with low ¹³C content by fossil fuel burning) 186 187 following the polynomial correction factor described by Neumann and others (2002). Particle size spectra of samples were measured at 1-cm intervals using a Malven 188 automated laser optical particle-size analyser (Mastersizer-3000) after the removal of 189 190 carbonates by 10% HCl and organic matter by 30% H₂O₂.

191 Diatom samples were treated with HCl (10%) and H_2O_2 (30%) following the 192 standard procedures (Battarbee and others 2001), and diatoms were counted using an

Olympus BX53 microscope with an oil immersion objective at 1000×. A minimum of 193 300 valves were counted in each sample. Diatom taxonomy mainly followed Krammer 194 195 and Lange-Bertalot (1986-1991). For pigment analyses, freeze-dried weighed sediments (~ 200 mg) were extracted in a mixture of acetone: methanol: water (80: 15: 196 5) by leaving in a -20 °C freezer for 24 h. Extracts were filtered with a 0.22-um-pore 197 PTFE filter, dried under N₂ gas, re-dissolved in an acetone: ion-pairing reagent: 198 199 methanol mixture (70: 25: 5) and then injected into an Agilent 1200 series highperformance liquid chromatography unit. Pigments were identified and quantified 200 based on their retention time and absorption spectra, compared with pigment standards 201 (Leavitt and Hodgson 2001; McGowan 2013). To calculate pigment concentrations, 202 chromatogram peak areas were calibrated using commercial standards (DHI Denmark). 203 204 Linear regressions (r > 0.99) of mass pigment injected (as volume × concentration) and 205 peak area were used for calibration (Leavitt and Hodgson 2001). Lutein and zeaxanthin did not separate in this study and so were reported here together. All concentrations 206 were expressed as nmol g⁻¹ organic carbon. 207

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209 Data analysis

Zonation schemes were developed for diatoms and pigments using the broken-stick 210 model (Bennett 1996) using stratigraphically constrained cluster analysis (CONISS) in 211 the Tilia program (Grimm 1991). Seasonal climate anomalies in the study area were 212 213 collected from Atlas of Seasonal Temperature and Precipitation Anomalies over China (1880-2007) (Wang and others 2009). An early detrended correspondence analysis 214 215 (DCA) showed that the gradient lengths of the diatom and pigment data from both ponds were less than 2 standard deviations, and hence principal component analysis 216 (PCA) was used to summarise the major trends and a linear model (redundancy analysis, 217

218 RDA) was used to reveal the correlations between primary producer communities and explanatory variables. Considering the uncertainty of the ²¹⁰Pb chronologies prior to ca. 219 1850 and the timescale of available paleoclimate data, only data from ca. 1880 were 220 221 used in the RDAs. In the RDAs, diatoms and pigments were used as response variables, and the explanatory factors included TOC, TN, δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N, anomalies in seasonal 222 temperature and precipitation. Forward selection, with the false discovery rate 223 correction and the Monte Carlo tests (p<0.05, n=999 unrestricted permutations) was 224 used to reduce the explanatory factors to those correlating significantly with response 225 226 variables. Ordination analyses were performed using CANOCO 5.0 (Šmilauer and Lepš 2014). 227

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229 **RESULTS**

230 Lithology and chronology

Sediments in the CP core consisted of grey silty gyttja between 50 and 40 cm, 231 vellow-grey gyttja between 40 and 22 cm, vellow gyttja with many plant remains in the 232 uppermost 22 cm. Sediments in the ML core were mainly composed of black gyttja, 233 with many plant remains in the bottom layers (below 26 cm). Sedimentary particle size 234 spectra, i.e. clay (< 4 μ m), silt (4 - 64 μ m) and sand (> 64 μ m), are shown in Fig. 3. 235 Sediments were dominated by silt and clay in the drainage pond CP, and by silt and 236 sand in ML, the seepage pond. Concentrations of excess ²¹⁰Pb (²¹⁰Pb_{ex}) were calculated 237 by subtracting the ²²⁶Ra supported ²¹⁰Pb concentrations from the total ²¹⁰Pb activities 238 (Appleby 2001). The ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} profile is non-monotonic in both ponds (Fig. 3). One 239 240 possible explanation is that hydrological changes due to monsoonal climate variability have influenced soil erosion and so sedimentation rates in these alpine ponds. 241 Alterations in initial concentrations of ²¹⁰Pb and sedimentation rates indicate that both 242

243 the constant initial concentration (CIC) and constant flux constant sedimentation (CFCS) models fail to yield a reliable chronology (Appleby 2001). The constant rate of 244 supply (CRS) allows changes in the initial concentrations and the sedimentation rates 245 at different layers, and hence the CRS model yields more realistic results than the CIC 246 and CFCS models (Appleby 2001). The ¹³⁷Cs activities reached a peak at 11.5 cm in 247 CP core (Fig. 3a) and at 12.5 cm in ML core (Fig. 3b), which can be assigned to the 248 1963 maximum atmospheric global fallout as a result of nuclear weapons testing 249 (Appleby 2001). In order to improve the accuracy of the chronology, the ¹³⁷Cs 1963 250 251 peak was used as an independent dated reference level. The final age-depth model was calculated using the CRS model, together with the ¹³⁷Cs 1963 peak as a reference level. 252 Mass accumulation rate (MAR) in CP core increased to a peak around the 1880s, and 253 254 reached consistently low rates from the 1970s onwards after a visible decrease between the 1880s and the 1970s. In contrast, MAR in ML core displayed a rising trend toward 255 the core tops. 256

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Diatom stratigraphy

Over 143 diatom taxa were identified from the two sediment cores, with a relatively 259 high species richness of taxa which prefer oligotrophic conditions. The diatom 260 assemblages were dominated by benthic taxa, such as *Staurosira construens* var. *venter* 261 262 (Ehrenberg) Hamilton, Navicula cryptotenella Lange-Bertalot, Sellaphora pupula (Kützing) Mereschkowsky, and Pinnularia microstauron (Ehrenberg) Cleve, with 263 frequent occurrences of Aulacoseira alpigena (Grunow) Krammer (Fig. 4). The two 264 ponds had different taxonomic and temporal changes in diatom composition, in spite of 265 their adjacent locations. 266

267 In CP, diatom assemblages were characterized by euterrestrial species before ca.1910 (Fig. 4a), such as *Hantzschia amphioxys* (Ehrenberg) Grunow and *Pinnularia* 268 borealis Ehrenberg. The most pronounced changes occurred between 1910 and 1922, 269 270 with the replacement of euterrestrial species by opportunistic species (i.e. S. construens var. venter and Achnanthidium minutissimum (Kützing) Czarnecki). Between 1922 and 271 1980, A. alpigena, Cymbopleura naviculiformis (Auerswald) Krammer, Eunotia 272 mucophila (Lange-Bertalot et Nörpel) Lange-Bertalot increased gradually at the 273 expense of a visible decrease in S. construents var. venter. The subdominant species 274 275 Gomphonema parvulum (Kützing) Kützing and S. pupula increased to a peak at around 1930, and gradually decreased thereafter. After 1980, diatom communities were co-276 277 dominated by S. construens var. venter and A. alpigena, and remained relatively stable. 278 In ML, epiphytic or epipelic species were dominant throughout the record, including S. construens var. venter, N. cryptotenella, S. pupula and P. microstauron 279 (Fig. 4b). After 1955, epiphytic diatoms increased towards the core tops, such as 280 Brachysira brebissonii Ross, Eunotia bilunaris (Ehrenberg) Schaarschmidt and 281 Eunotia exigua (Brébisson) Rabenhorst. S. construens var. venter remained the 282 dominant species, despite its recent decrease. The subdominant species N. cryptotenella 283 increased to a peak at around 1963, followed by a gradual decrease. 284

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286 **Pigment stratigraphy**

In CP, all pigments exhibited similar patterns with low concentrations before 1925. Thereafter they all began to increase, with further visible increases after 1960 (Fig.5a). In ML, there were two obvious shifts in pigment composition (Fig. 5b). Before 1948, pigment composition was characterized by high concentrations of alloxanthin (cryptophytes), fucoxanthin and diatoxanthin (siliceous algae), lutein-zeaxanthin (from plants, chlorophytes and cyanobacteria), pheophytin b (plants and chlorophytes), pheophorbide a (grazing or degradation of Chl a). Lutein-zeaxanthin increased to a peak between 1948 and 1980, concurrent with relatively stable concentrations of other pigments. Chl a and Chl b increased exponentially after 1980, with concurrent decreases in carotenoid pigments.

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298 Geochemistry records

The changing TOC and TN contents are accompanied by significant variations in 299 the isotopic composition of organic matter (Fig. 6). Sedimentary δ^{15} N values became 300 significantly lighter towards the sediment surface in the two lakes, i.e. from 0.3% to -301 1.5% in ML and from 6.4% to 1.6% in CP. Sedimentary TN showed a linear increase 302 303 in both lakes after the 1900s, especially a recent acceleration since the 1980s. The Suess-corrected δ^{13} C changed in the opposite directions in the two lakes, i.e. an increase 304 in ML but a decrease in CP. TOC gradually increased by ca. 10% in CP, whereas it 305 decreased slightly before the 1970s, followed by a rebound in ML. The molar ratios of 306 carbon to nitrogen (C/N) ranged from 11 to 20 in both lakes. C/N ratios in CP were 307 variable, but generally increased before 1960 and decreased thereafter; while the ratios 308 were more stable and exhibited a gradual decrease in ML. 309

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311 Multivariate analysis

In CP, diatom PCA 1 and pigment PCA 1 captured 47% and 81% of the total variance in diatoms and pigments, respectively. Diatom PCA 1 represented a shift from euterrestrial (e.g. *H. amphioxys* and *P. borealis*) to aquatic taxa, while all the pigment types were positively correlated with pigment PCA 1. In ML, diatom PCA 1 and pigment PCA 1 explained 64% and 40% of the total variance in diatoms and pigments, 317 respectively. Diatom PCA 1 was most strongly correlated with changes in small fragilarioid and moss-attached taxa, while pigment PCA 1 in ML was positively 318 correlated with changes in chlorophylls. Diatom and pigment PCA 1 sample scores of 319 320 the two lakes displayed obvious changes from the early 1900s, broadly corresponding to the δ^{15} N depletion in the two sediment cores, the nitrate enrichment in the Himalayan 321 ice core (Thompson and others 2000), the rising nitrogen content and the $\delta^{15}N$ (NO₃⁻) 322 depletion in the Greenland ice core (Geng and others 2014) (Fig. 7). In the RDA 323 analyses of environment-diatom and -pigment correlations at CP and ML ponds, both 324 325 diatom and pigment assemblages were significantly correlated with seasonal temperature and δ^{15} N but not with changes in total annual rainfall (Fig. 8). 326

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328 DISCUSSION

The Congping basin receives water from the surrounding mountains (local relief ca. 329 300m) and is an interconnected mosaic of alpine meadows, wetlands and ponds. Such 330 heterogeneity is driven by localised conditions across the basin and is important in 331 supporting terrestrial and aquatic biodiversity of this region (Chen and others 2012). 332 Our results indicate different conditions in water bodies located within a few hundred 333 metres of one another. Although primary producers responded to the same regional 334 drivers of nitrogen deposition and warming, the ecological consequences differed 335 336 among ponds (Fig. 9). Differences in hydrological setting, water depth and macrophyte communities between the drainage and seepage ponds are useful in helping to 337 understand the divergent ecological responses. 338

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340 Lake-specific factors

341 Before the 1900s, high abundances of euterrestrial diatom species (e.g. H. amphioxys and P. borealis) were concomitant with occasional occurrence of 342 343 tychoplanktonic species (i.e. A. alpigena) in the very shallow drainage pond CP, suggesting that it was ephemeral (seasonally dried out) during the dry season (winter), 344 with episodic flooding and water-level rises in the wet season (summer). The near 345 absence of pigments apart from alteration products of chlorophylls a and b (pheophytin 346 347 a and b) corroborates the idea of seasonal desiccation because exposure to oxygen and light accelerates pigment degradation (Leavitt and Hodgson 2001). A seasonally 348 349 desiccated wetland would most likely be dominated by wetland plants such as sedges, rushes and mosses which produce chlorophylls a and b, consistent with the pheo-350 pigments recorded. Due to water table drawdown in the dry season and wind-driven 351 352 mixing, kinetic isotope fraction during protein hydrolysis likely contributed to the ¹⁵Nenrichment in oxic conditions (Lehmann and others 2002) before the 1900s. Our 353 evidence suggests, therefore, that there were pronounced hydrological changes in CP, 354 the drainage pond, from ephemeral to more permanently inundated after the 1900s, 355 leading to a rise in the production and preservation of algae-derived carotenoids more 356 commonly associated with shallow freshwater communities (McGowan 2013). 357

The pronounced increase in temperature at this time (Fig. 2b) could be associated 358 with this shift in hydrology. Warmer temperatures can promote the development of 359 360 vegetation and soil, which could act as giant sponges retaining moisture during the rainy season and steadily supplying water to the ponds during the dry season (Giles and others 361 2018). This could buffer against increased evapotranspiration caused by higher 362 temperatures. Vegetation growth may also restrict drainage pathways, increasing the 363 residence time of the pond, indicating the potential for localised geomorphic effects 364 within the basin (Gurnell 2014). Local changes in hydrology most likely explain the 365

non-significant relationship between rainfall and pigment responses (Fig. 8). Rising
abundance of *A. alpigena* in CP after the 1930s indicated an increase in water depth
(Fig. 4); in particular, the subdominance of *A. alpigena* and low C/N ratios after the
1980s indicated a status of permanent inundation during the ice-free season.
Hydrological changes were also evidenced by an increase in coarse particles (Fig. 3).
The coarsening grain size may indicate fine suspended particles would be washed out,
as rising water levels caused water discharge through the outlet (Fig. 1).

In contrast to CP, the deeper seepage pond ML displayed clear decreases in 373 374 carotenoid pigments and small fragilarioid taxa (i.e. S. construens var. venter) after the 1980s (Figs. 4 and 5). Recent changes in diatom assemblages were significantly 375 correlated with higher δ^{13} C (Fig. 8b), suggestive of a linkage to carbon cycling. The 376 ranges of Suess-corrected δ^{13} C (between -29.7‰ and -25.7‰) and C/N ratios (from 11 377 to 20) in both ponds are within the range of allochthonous soil organic matter (Meyers 378 and Teranes 2001) and C3 plants (e.g. Carex and Sphagnum) in the nearby Dajiuhu 379 Wetland (δ^{13} C ranging from -29.3% to -22.8%; Liu and others 2018), suggesting that 380 organic matter is mainly sourced from terrigenous inputs, with some contributions from 381 algae. In ML, an increase in δ^{13} C after the early 1900s may imply that littoral *Sphagnum* 382 made a larger contribution to the carbon pool, since *Sphagnum* mosses have relatively 383 heavier δ^{13} C values than other plants (e.g. Juncus, Polytrichum and Sanguisorba) (Liu 384 385 and others 2018).

Continuous inputs of CDOM attenuate light and may restrict light penetration and inhibit benthic primary productivity (McGowan and others 2018a; Bergström and Karlsson 2019). Higher sedimentary TN and TOC contents in the seepage pond ML may suggest enhanced organic matter accumulation (Fig. 6). Shallowing of the euphotic zone due to terrestrial CDOM inputs, may thus have impeded the growth of benthic algae beneath the euphotic zone (Fig. 9). This is consistent with recent decreases in
fossil carotenoids and small fragilarioid species after 1955. After 1980, changes to more
diverse periphytic taxa that are associated with littoral habitats and mossy substrates
(e.g. *Brachysira*, *Frustulia* and *Eunotia* species) (Chen and others 2016), are inferred
to reflect increased littoral habitat availability with longer growing seasons. Such shifts
were not observed in CP because CDOM additions could not have a significant effect
on light attenuation at the bottom of such a shallow pond (20cm depth).

Differences among the pond diatom assemblages are consistent with the 398 399 hydrological characteristics. For example, A. minutissimum and the planktonic A. alpigena successively increased in the drainage pond CP since water level increased, 400 and are common in snowmelt-fed Swiss alpine basins, whereas T. flocculosa was 401 402 present in the seepage pond ML and may be more common in lakes which are 403 disconnected from riverine influence (Robinson and Kawecka 2005). The diatom assemblages of both ponds were dominated by benthic taxa, including some motile 404 species (e.g. N. cryptotenella, S. pupula, P. microstauron and A. minutissimum) that 405 can migrate within biofilms (McGowan and others 2018b). Migration of motile diatoms 406 enables the avoidance of unfavourable conditions (e.g. desiccation, excessive light 407 exposure, grazing and nutrient limitation), to maximise overall fitness and productivity 408 of the biofilm (Consalvey and others 2004). 409

Nutrients may be delivered in pulses to lake margins during snowmelt, which may offer benthic diatoms living at lake margins a competitive advantage over planktonic taxa in these seasonally frozen ponds (McGowan and other 2018b). However, in this region summer monsoon rains deliver the majority of rainfall, supplying benthic diatoms with a regular supply of catchment-delivered nutrients (Hu and others 2018). The majority of the benthic taxa in both ponds would be considered epipelic or periphytic species, suggesting that shifts in the diatom assemblages in the ponds were
not strongly associated with changes in macrophyte abundance (Scheffer and Jeppesen
2007), but instead driven by changes in water level and nutrients in the drainage pond
CP where light was not limiting, and water browning and seasonal water level
fluctuations in the seepage pond ML where the relative availability of benthic: pelagic
habitat was regulated by light limitation.

422

423 The linkage to climate variability

424 Pigment and diatom data were significantly correlated with seasonal temperature, but not with rainfall in both ponds (Fig. 8), suggesting that climate warming stimulates 425 changes in primary producer communities. In shallow water bodies, light penetration 426 427 to the bottom allows the development of complex benthic communities which respond 428 to warming differently (Spaulding and others 2015). The increasing primary production (inferred from chlorophylls and their derivatives) in both ponds in the early 1900s was 429 compatible with a persistent rise in regional temperature between 1900 and 1920 (Figs. 430 5 and 7). The shortened ice-cover duration under warmer climate is an important factor 431 influencing the growth of primary producers in the study ponds (Fig. 9). Firstly, a longer 432 ice-free season would enhance the terrestrial-aquatic linkage (i.e. runoff and nutrients 433 from land to lake). Secondly, a longer growing season allows more time for the 434 435 development of primary producer communities, including macrophytes which provide substrates for epiphytes, thus accelerating annual biomass accumulation (Rühland and 436 others 2015). Taken together, warming-related processes may promote primary 437 production of the study ponds, indicated by rising pigment concentrations in the early 438 1900s. 439

440 Seasonal precipitation was not significantly correlated with pigments and diatoms 441 of both ponds, indicating that precipitation effects were probably mediated by local hydrological factors. For example, groundwater is an important component of the water 442 cycle in limestone areas, and there are lags between rainfall and groundwater recharge 443 which may have been particularly important in the seepage lake (ML). In contrast, it 444 appears that local vegetation development might have influenced the drainage of CP 445 and increased the complexity of the relationship between rainfall and ecological 446 response. For example, lower rainfall before the 1900s probably caused periodic 447 448 desiccation, subsequently increasing phosphorus availability by mineralization processes of inorganic and organic phosphorus in lake sediment (Reddy and other 2005). 449 An increasing supply of soluble phosphorus would facilitate the growth of eutrophic 450 451 species (e.g. C. naviculiformis, G. parvulum, Stauroneis phoenicenteron Nitzsch) (cf. Van Dam and others 1994) in CP Pond (Fig. 4a). In addition, an increase in winter 452 rainfall after the 1980s (Fig. 2c) would provide habitats suited to small fragilarioid taxa 453 454 that can compete well under ice during the winter (Laing and Smol 2000; Lotter and Bigler 2000). This explanation probably accounted for the proliferation of S. construens 455 var. *venter* in the upper strata of CP core (Fig. 4a). 456

457

458 The linkage to nitrogen enrichment

Sediment δ^{15} N has declined progressively in both lakes since the early 20th century, and, despite considerable local heterogeneity and ecological complexity in these ponds, this trend parallels the records of nitrogen deposition observed in other remote Northern Hemisphere lakes (Holtgrieve and others 2011), a Himalayan ice core (Thompson and others 2000), and the Greenland Ice Sheet (Geng and others 2014) (Fig. 7). Although fertilizer use was limited before 1950, inputs from animal manure from the fast-growing 465 animal stocks, and human excreta from the expanding population have increased during the early 20th century (Bouwman and others 2013). Average nitrogen deposition rates 466 over forests in East Asia have increased from less than 2 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the mid-19th 467 century to more than 3 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in the mid-20th century (Wang and others 2017). 468 Remote montane lakes are often N-limited, which renders them susceptible to the 469 enrichment effects of nitrogen deposition (Bergström and Jansson 2006; Baron and 470 471 others 2011). Enhanced nitrogen deposition elicits mesotrophic species as N-deposition rates cross a critical load (Saros and others 2011). 472

473 Carotenoids (e.g. lutein-zeaxanthin) increased gradually in both ponds from the 1920s (Fig. 5), suggesting that rising N inputs may have caused nutrient enrichment 474 with higher primary production. Meanwhile, synchronous increases in chlorophylls and 475 476 their derivatives (e.g. Chl a and pheophytin a) implied that nutrient enrichment might also promote the growth of macrophytes that contain chlorophylls and their derivatives 477 (McGowan 2013). However, gradual decreases in carotenoids in the seepage pond ML 478 after the 1980s indicated that algal growth might be inhibited by local factors (Fig. 9). 479 Meanwhile, nutrient inputs promoted the development of aquatic plants in the littoral 480 zone, probably accounting for rising concentrations of chlorophylls and their 481 derivatives in ML Pond (McGowan 2013). Although most dominant diatom taxa in 482 both ponds are thought to use inorganic forms of nitrogen, some taxa that can utilise 483 organically bound nitrogen increased obviously after the early-1900s (Tuchman and 484 others 2006), such as the increase of *E. mucophila*, *S. pupula* and *C. naviculiformis* in 485 CP, and the expansion of *E. exigua* and *E. bilunaris* in ML. 486

487

488 CONCLUSIONS

489 This study investigates the response of primary producer communities to local and regional driving forces in two subtropical montane ponds (central China) during the last 490 two centuries. Climate warming and nitrogen deposition have altered biomass and 491 492 community composition of primary producers, probably mediated by local factors (e.g. lake morphometry and catchment-lake connections). Further warming and nitrogen 493 deposition would possibly increase autotrophic biomass (especially nitrophilous taxa) 494 495 in these subtropical montane ponds, probably influencing ecosystem structure and function through aquatic food web. The effects of warming and nitrogen deposition on 496 497 primary producers are mainly deduced from correlational statistical analyses, and previous knowledge of the autoecology of dominant taxa. In order to disentangle the 498 effects of warming and nitrogen deposition, further seasonal monitoring of primary 499 500 producers are needed in the study region. Therefore, it is essential to conduct 501 palaeolimnological and seasonal monitoring studies in order to track the ecological responses of subtropical montane lakes to changes in local and regional drivers over 502 subtropical East Asia. 503

504

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703 TABLE AND FIGURE CAPTIONS

Table 1 Summaries of environmental conditions in the two study ponds.

705

706 Figure 1 Maps showing the location of study sites in Asia (A) and local topography 707 (B), and photos of Congping (C) and Mulong (D) ponds. The inserted maps in Figure 708 B show local topography of Congping (the upper) and Mulong (the lower). Congping is dominated by Sparganium stoloniferum, with coverage of ~30%. Maps A and B 709 710 have been modified from the downloaded from maps 711 http://www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/asia.html and Google Earth, respectively. Figure 2 Mean monthly temperature and precipitation between 2016 and 2017 (a) at 712 713 Dajiuhu Wetland (31°28'50"N, 110°00'09"E, 1758 m a.s.l.; 10 km away from 714 Congping Basin). Mean monthly temperature at Congping (blue line) was calculated based on the vertical lapse rate of temperature of 0.5°C/100 m. Anomalies in 715 seasonal temperature (b) and precipitation (c) in the study area since 1880 were 716 717 sourced from Wang and others (2009). Figure 3 Particle size spectra and chronology of sediment cores in Congping (a) and 718 Mulong (b), with mass accumulation rate (MAR, orange line) shown. 719 Figure 4 Diatom assemblages in Congping (a) and Mulong (b). 720 721 Figure 5 Fossil pigment diagrams of Congping (a) and Mulong (b). 722 Figure 6 Multiple proxies in sediment cores collected from Congping (a) and Mulong (b). Original and Suess effect corrected $\delta^{13}C$ values are indicated by filled circles 723 and open squares, respectively. 724 **Figure 7** Synthesis of sedimentary records (a-f) with (g) δ^{15} N (NO₃⁻) and (h) nitrate 725 concentration from the Summit, Greenland ice core (Geng and others 2014), (i) 726

nitrate concentration from the Himalayan ice core (Thompson and others 2000), (j)

winter temperature anomalies based on reconstruction (Wang and others 2009). Diatom PCA1 sample scores, pigment PCA1 sample scores, and δ^{15} N in Congping

730 (a, c, e) and Mulong (b, d, f) are shown.

- 731 Figure 8 Biplots of redundancy analyses, main diatom species and significant variables
- in CP (a) and ML (b), pigments and significant variables in CP (c) and ML (d).
- 733 Diatom species abbreviations: Bra bre: *B. brebissonii*, Cym gra: *Cymbella gracilis*,
- T34 Enc ces: *Encyonopsis cesatii*, Eun bil: *E. bilunaris*, Eun exi: *E. exigua*, Eun muc: *E.*
- 735 mucophila, Fru rho: Frustulia rhomboides, Gom par: G. parvulum, Han amp: H.
- 736 *amphioxys*, Nav cry: *N. cryptotenella*, Nei amp: *Neidium ampliatum*, Pin bor: *P.*
- 737 *borealis*, Pin mic: *P. microstauron*, Pin vir: *Pinnularia viridis*, Sel pup: *S. pupula*,
- 738 Sta ven: S. construens var. venter, Sta pho: Stauroneis phoenicenteron, Tab flo:
- 739 *Tabellaria flocculosa*.
- Figure 9 Schematic diagram of some possible effects of climate warming and nitrogen
 deposition on primary producer communities. Effects of nitrogen deposition and
 warming either inhibit (-) or stimulate (+) response variables.
- 743

744

	Congping	Mulong	Congping	Mulong
Sampling date	June 2016	June 2016	Sep. 2017	Sep. 2017
Latitude (N)	31°24′13.58″	31°24′10.03″	31°24′13.58″	31°24′10.03″
Longitude(E)	110°03′35.83″	110°03′17.89″	110°03′35.83″	110°03′17.89″
Altitude (m a.s.l.)	2073	2078	2073	2078
Water depth (m)	0.2	1.5	0.2	1.5
Secchi depth (m)	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.5
Area (m ²)	360	380	360	380
рН	6.17	5.17	6.43	5.83
Conductivity (μ S cm ⁻¹)	12	9	23	12
PO_4^{3-} (µg L ⁻¹)	4	2	3	2
DOC (mg L ⁻¹)	18.0	12.3	n.a.	n.a.
NO ₃ ⁻ (µg L ⁻¹)	73	22	115	25
K^{+} (mg L ⁻¹)	0.4	-	1.39	0.13
Ca ²⁺ (mg L ⁻¹)	1.04	0.86	1.22	0.69

Na ⁺ (mg L ⁻¹)	0.71	0.26	0.78	0.07
Mg^{2+} (mg L ⁻¹)	0.27	0.19	0.25	0.12
Si (mg L ⁻¹)	0.17	0.43	0.87	0.52

-The value was below detection limit. n.a. Environmental factors were not measured.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4



Figure 5



Figure 6



Figure 7





Figure 9