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1 **Assessing environmental controls on the distribution of long-chain alkenones in the**  
2 **Canadian Prairies**

3

4 **Julien Plancq<sup>a\*</sup>, Bianca Cavazzin<sup>a</sup>, Steve Juggins<sup>b</sup>, Heather A. Haig<sup>c</sup>, Peter R. Leavitt<sup>c</sup>,**  
5 **Jaime L. Toney<sup>a</sup>**

6

7 <sup>a</sup> School of Geographical and Earth Sciences, University of Glasgow, Glasgow G12 8QQ,  
8 Scotland, UK

9 <sup>b</sup> School of Geography, Politics and Sociology, Newcastle University, Newcastle-upon-Tyne,  
10 NE1 7RU, UK

11 <sup>c</sup> Limnology Laboratory, Department of Biology, University of Regina, Regina, SK, Canada  
12 S4S 0A2

13

14 \* Corresponding author. E-mail address: julien.plancq@glasgow.ac.uk; tel.: +44 (0) 141 330  
15 5449.

16

17

18 **Abstract**

19 Long-chain alkenones (LCAs) have been used for decades to reconstruct quantitative sea-  
20 surface temperature records, but they also have a great potential for paleotemperature  
21 reconstructions in lacustrine settings. Here, we investigated how the presence and abundance  
22 of LCAs in surface sediments from 106 lakes varied with environmental conditions in lakes  
23 of the Northern Great Plains (Canadian Prairies) in southern Saskatchewan, Canada.  
24 Consistent with preliminary research, we found LCAs in 55% of surveyed lakes, with mean  
25 concentrations of 143 µg/g dry sediment, but very high concentrations (up to 2.3 mg/g dry

26 sediment) in 7% of lakes. Statistical analyses indicate that salinity and stratification play key  
27 roles in determining LCA presence and abundance supporting previous research in Spain and  
28 the Northern Great Plains, US. Overall, the alkenone unsaturation index ( $U_{37}^K$ ) was not  
29 correlated significantly with average summer water temperature, probably because the timing  
30 of maximum LCA production occurs during spring season. We conclude that improved  
31 seasonal sampling is required within the study lakes to better identify the timing and habitat  
32 of haptophyte production, and allow development of environmental temperature  
33 reconstruction tools.

34

35 Keywords: alkenones, lakes, haptophyte, salinity, stratification,  $U_{37}^K$ .

36

## 37 **1. Introduction**

38 Long-chain alkenones (LCAs) are  $C_{35}$ - $C_{42}$  di-, tri- and tetra-unsaturated methyl and ethyl  
39 ketones whose biosynthesis in modern oceans is restricted to a few unicellular haptophyte  
40 algae of the Isochrysidale Order, including the calcifying species (coccolithophores)  
41 *Emiliania huxleyi* and *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* (Marlowe et al., 1984; Volkman et al., 1980,  
42 1995), and the coastal non-calcifying species *Ruttenella lamellosa* (formerly *Chrysotila*  
43 *lamellosa*) and *Isochrysis galbana* (Marlowe et al., 1984, 1990). The degree of unsaturation  
44 of  $C_{37}$  alkenones has been shown to vary as a function of the environmental temperature  
45 experienced during haptophyte growth (Brassell et al., 1986; Prahl and Wakeham, 1987), and  
46 the so-called alkenone unsaturation indices ( $U_{37}^K$ ,  $U_{37}^{K'}$ ) have been developed in both  
47 laboratory cultures and marine surface sediments as proxies for sea surface temperature  
48 (Prahl et al., 1988; Müller et al., 1998; Conte et al., 2006). During the last three decades, the  
49  $U_{37}^{K'}$  proxy has been successfully applied to reconstruct past marine temperature records at

50 various sites and timescales (e.g., Rosell-Melé et al., 1995; Müller et al., 1998; Pahnke and  
51 Sachs, 2006).

52 More recently, LCAs have been reported worldwide in continental lakes (e.g., Cranwell,  
53 1985; Zink et al., 2001; Chu et al., 2005; Longo et al., 2016). Unlike the open oceans, where  
54 the LCA production is believed to be limited to *E. huxleyi* and *G. oceanica*, genomic analyses  
55 from lacustrine sediments and particulate organic matter in lake water have shown the  
56 existence of multiple LCA-producing haptophyte species within and among lakes (e.g.,  
57 Coolen et al., 2004; D’Andrea et al., 2006; Theroux et al., 2010; Toney et al., 2012). Theroux  
58 et al. (2010) identified three distinct phylogenetic groups within the Isochrysidale Order.  
59 Group I (aka “Greenland phylotype”, D’Andrea et al., 2006) seems to include haptophyte  
60 species restricted to freshwater and oligohaline lakes, whereas Group II includes *R. lamellosa*  
61 and *I. galbana*, as well as, related species found in brackish waters and saline lakes. Group III  
62 includes the marine producers *E. huxleyi* and *G. oceanica*. In principle, the presence of  
63 multiple species complicates development of biogeochemical metrics of past lake  
64 temperatures as the relationship between temperature and the alkenone unsaturation index  
65 could differ between haptophyte species (Theroux et al., 2010; Toney et al., 2010; Randlett et  
66 al., 2014).

67 Moreover, the environmental parameters controlling alkenone distribution in inland waters  
68 remain unclear as LCAs have been found in freshwater (e.g., Zink et al., 2001; D’Andrea and  
69 Huang, 2005; Longo et al., 2013, 2016; D’Andrea et al., 2016) and saline lakes (e.g., Pearson  
70 et al., 2008; Toney et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2008, 2011; Zhao et al., 2014; Song et al., 2016),  
71 with ionic composition varying from sulfate- (e.g., Pearson et al., 2008; Toney et al., 2010) to  
72 carbonate-rich solutions (e.g., Chu et al., 2005; D’Andrea and Huang, 2005). Salinity has  
73 been suggested as an important factor on the occurrence and concentration of LCAs  
74 (D’Andrea and Huang, 2005; Lopez et al., 2005; Pearson et al., 2008; Toney et al., 2010; Liu

75 et al., 2011; Chivall et al., 2014), with thresholds of salinity (<3 g/L and >100 g/L)  
76 considered unsuitable for LCA producers to prosper (Liu et al., 2011; Song et al., 2016). In  
77 addition, seasonality of environmental variables (e.g., temperature, salinity, nutrient),  
78 especially in high latitude regions where lakes are ice covered during winter, may have a  
79 strong effect on phytoplankton succession (e.g., Lampert and Sommer, 1997; Wetzel, 2001;  
80 Korkonen et al., 2017). In fact, lacustrine haptophytes experience sudden increase in  
81 abundance (bloom events), likely linked to seasonal changes in nutrient loading and  
82 irradiance levels (D'Andrea et al., 2011; Toney et al., 2010; Huguet et al., 2011; Theroux,  
83 2012).

84 Despite these potential complications, LCAs have been demonstrated to vary with lake  
85 temperature in some sites, and a number of calibrations of the  $U_{37}^K$ ,  $U_{37}^{K'}$ , and  $U_{37}^{K''}$  indices have  
86 been established in cultures (e.g., Sun et al., 2007; Toney et al., 2012; Theroux et al., 2013;  
87 Zheng et al., 2016) and *in-situ* in freshwater (e.g., Zink et al., 2001; D'Andrea et al., 2011,  
88 2016; Theroux et al., 2013; Longo et al., 2016) and saline lakes (e.g., Chu et al., 2005; Toney  
89 et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2016). Together, these findings suggest that quantitative  
90 reconstruction of environmental temperature is possible.

91 The development of LCAs as metrics for past lacustrine temperatures may be important  
92 for the Great Plains of North America. This region is sensitive to temperature and moisture  
93 changes and often experiences prolonged periods of drought and floods that have major  
94 impacts on agriculture production and ecosystem function. Although lacustrine proxies for  
95 past droughts and pluvial intervals have been developed (e.g., diatom- and ostracod-inferred  
96 salinity; e.g., Cywinska and Delorme, 1995; Michels et al., 2007), there are few unambiguous  
97 proxies of past temperature in inland waters before the instrumental period. Quantitative  
98 paleotemperature reconstructions are thus crucial to help decipher the climate mechanisms  
99 responsible for drought occurrences. Studies from Northern Great Plains, USA, (Theroux et

100 al., 2010; Toney et al., 2010, 2012) suggest that LCA and haptophyte distributions may be  
101 suitable for quantitative temperature reconstruction, particularly in well-studied sites. Toney  
102 et al. (2011) reported the presence of LCAs in 13 lakes in the Canadian Prairies, southern  
103 Saskatchewan, where the development of an alkenone paleothermometer is particularly  
104 promising, because they appear to have only one haptophyte species based on the LCA  
105 distribution. However, the low sample size (n=19) was insufficient to conclusively determine  
106 which environmental parameters control the presence of LCA-producing haptophytes, or to  
107 derive a temperature calibration based on lacustrine surface sediments.

108 Here, we assess LCA presence and distributions in surface sediments collected from a  
109 broader survey of 87 additional lakes in the Canadian Prairies. Water chemistry data  
110 measured at the time of sampling for each lake allows us to better statistically constrain the  
111 environmental parameters favouring LCA presence and concentration in these 106 lakes. We  
112 also investigated the relationship between LCA and environmental temperature to further  
113 develop potential applications of an alkenone unsaturation index, such as  $U_{37}^K$ .

114

## 115 **2. Methods**

116

### 117 **2.1. Sites and sampling**

118 Between July 29<sup>th</sup> and August 30<sup>th</sup> 2013, 106 lakes from the Canadian Prairies (southern  
119 Saskatchewan, Canada) (Fig. 1) were sampled during a field campaign for studies on modern  
120 drought risks and ecosystem sustainability. These lakes occur in the sub-humid (north east)  
121 to the semi-arid (south-west) areas of the Canadian Prairies, a region where evaporation  
122 exceeds precipitation by 20-60 cm/year and lakes are sustained by the influx of snowmelt and  
123 groundwater (Pham et al., 2008, 2009). Climate data for the study region, obtained from the  
124 WorldClim database, indicate mean (+ SD) air temperatures and precipitation of;  $2.5 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$

125 and  $27.9 \pm 2.5$  mm in spring,  $16.9 \pm 0.7^\circ\text{C}$  and  $56.9 \pm 6.0$  mm in summer,  $3.6 \pm 0.8^\circ\text{C}$  and  
126  $23.6 \pm 4.1$  mm in autumn and  $-14.2 \pm 2.0^\circ\text{C}$  and  $16.9 \pm 1.9$  mm in winter. Survey lakes span a  
127 wide spatial extent of  $4^\circ$  latitudinal gradient (Fig. 1) and a large range of salinity from fresh  
128 (0.1 g/L) to hyper-saline (102 g/L), with diverse ionic composition.

129 *In-situ* lake parameters, including salinity, conductivity, pH, depth and temperature, were  
130 measured at 0.5-m depth intervals (lakes <10 m depth) or 1-m depth intervals (lakes >10 m  
131 depth) for the entire water column using a YSI Pro Plus meter (YSI Inc., Yellow Springs,  
132 Ohio, USA) following Pham et al. (2008). Major ions including sodium ( $\text{Na}^+$ ), chloride ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ),  
133 calcium ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ), magnesium ( $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ), sulfate ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ), bicarbonate ( $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ), and carbonate  
134 ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) were determined for each lake and analysed at the University of Alberta Water  
135 Chemistry Laboratory using standard procedures (Stainton et al., 1977). Water chemistry,  
136 especially surface salinity, of saline lakes may undergo significant changes over the seasonal  
137 cycles, and our *in-situ*, one-time measurements of salinity may not capture the seasonal  
138 variation of ionic content in these lakes (Pham et al., 2009). However, while extremely dry  
139 years lead to spatially coherent increases in lake salinity from spring to later summer in the  
140 Canadian prairie lakes (Pham et al. 2009), there is little evidence of progressive increases in  
141 salinity in years with elevated precipitation despite a net precipitation deficit (Pham et al.  
142 2009), such as those which preceded our 2013 survey. These patterns are described in detail  
143 as part of the Energy-mass flux framework, outlined in Leavitt et al. (2009). Thus, it is likely  
144 that salinity does not significantly change from spring to summer in most of our survey  
145 lakes.

146 Surface sediments were collected from each lake using an Ekman grab sampler.  
147 Subsamples of sediments (top centimetre of the collected sediments) were freeze-dried at  
148 0.01 Pa for 36 hours before use for analyses of organic constituents.

149

## 150 2.2 LCA analyses

151 Freeze-dried sediments were homogenized and extracted with dichloromethane  
152 (DCM):methanol (MeOH) (9:1, v:v) using a Dionex model ASE350 accelerated solvent  
153 extractor. Following evaporation of the solvent, the total lipid extracts were separated into  
154 neutral and acid fractions by elution through a LC-NH<sub>2</sub> SPE column using DCM:isopropyl  
155 alcohol (1:1, v/v) followed by ether with 4% acetic acid (v/v) as eluents, respectively. The  
156 neutral fractions were further separated into four fractions of increasing polarity by  
157 chromatography over a silica gel column packed with 35-70 µm particles using hexane,  
158 DCM, ethyl acetate:hexane (1:3, v/v) and MeOH as eluents.

159 LCAs are contained in the second fraction (DCM) and were detected and quantified using  
160 gas chromatography with a flame-ionization detector (GC-FID). To remove compounds that  
161 can co-elute with LCAs such as alkenoates, LCA fractions were saponified by heating at  
162 60°C overnight in 1N KOH in MeOH:H<sub>2</sub>O (95:5, by volume). After heating, the reaction  
163 mixture was cooled to room temperature, quenched with NaCl (5% by volume), extracted  
164 using hexane, and rerun on the GC-FID.

165 GC-FID analyses were performed on an Agilent 7890B Series GC system configured with  
166 an Agilent VF-200 ms capillary column (60 m length, 0.25 mm internal diameter, 0.10 µm  
167 film thickness) (Longo et al., 2013). Hydrogen was used as the carrier gas at a 36 cm/s  
168 column flow rate. The GC method used splitless injection (320°C), and the oven temperature  
169 was programmed from 50°C (hold for 1 min) to 255°C at 20°C/min, then to 300°C at  
170 3°C/min, followed to 10°C/min increase to 320°C and hold for 10 min. Samples were also  
171 run with the same temperature program on an Agilent 7890B Series GC coupled with a  
172 5977A GC-EI Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS) to confirm the identity the LCAs using the  
173 known ion chromatograms and by comparison of mass spectral data and GC retention times  
174 with published data (de Leeuw et al., 1980; Marlowe et al., 1984). LCAs were quantified



175 using hexatriacontane ( $n$ -C<sub>36</sub> alkane) as an internal standard added to the sample before  
176 injection. The reproducibility achieved for duplicate LCA quantifications was estimated to be  
177 better than  $\pm 10\%$  (coefficient of variation). The alkenone unsaturation index  $U_{37}^K$  and other  
178 indices (for example  $U_{37}^{K'}$ ,  $U_{37}^{K''}$ ,  $U_{38}^K$ ) were calculated for all lakes following Brassell et al.  
179 (1986), Pearson et al. (2008), and Zheng et al. (2016). LCA distribution parameters such as  
180  $C_{37}/C_{38}$  (Volkman et al., 1995),  $\%C_{37:4}$  (Rosell-Melé, 1998), and  $RIK_{37}$  (Longo et al., 2016)  
181 were also computed.

182

### 183 2.3 Statistical analyses

184 Approximately 45% of the lakes sampled had LCAs below detection limit and where  
185 present, LCAs showed a strong right-skewed distribution. Consequently, the relationships  
186 between LCAs and environmental parameters were modelled using a two-stage hurdle  
187 process (Zuur et al., 2012) that models the presence-absence of LCAs and LCA concentration  
188 as two distinct processes. For the first part, or “hurdle”, we used a binomial generalised  
189 linear model based on the full dataset to model the presence and absence of LCAs  
190 above/below the detection limit. For observations with LCAs above the detection limit (i.e.,  
191 those that crossed the hurdle), we modelled LCA concentration as a function of selected  
192 environmental variables using a lognormal model. The hurdle model considers  
193 presence/absence and concentration of LCAs separately, which is appropriate as  
194 environmental factors controlling LCA presence may be different from those controlling  
195 LCA concentration once observed (Taranu et al., 2017). Limnological datasets such as ours  
196 contain large numbers of potential predictors which are often highly intercorrelated. Variable  
197 selection is often used to find the “minimum adequate model” that contains a small subset of  
198 variables that explains, in a statistical sense, the data as well as the full set. However,  
199 variable selection with highly correlation predictors is problematic (Whittingham et al.,

200 2006), and it is increasingly recognised that there is no “best” model, but often a series of  
201 models that explain the data equally well.

202 Predictive models were developed to account for the observation that many limnological  
203 variables are potentially correlated. For both parts of the hurdle model, we tested the  
204 significance of each variable (water chemistry, limnological, climatic, landscape) separately  
205 using a chi-squared or F test for the presence-absence and concentration models, respectively.  
206 We then fitted a large set of models using all combinations of the subset of significant  
207 variables (Calcagno and Mazancourt, 2010). Using this set of models we then used Akaike’s  
208 Information Criterion (AIC) to identify (a) the best model, and (b) all other models within 2  
209 AIC units of the best model, as these are effectively indistinguishable from the best model  
210 and are equally plausible. We then fitted a final model using the list of predictor variables  
211 that appear in any of the selected models.

212 Variance partitioning of either the variance explained for the lognormal model or pseudo-  
213 R-squared (binomial model; Nagelkerke, 1991) was used to quantify the importance or  
214 explanatory power of each predictor in the final model and to decompose the explained  
215 variance into independent and shared components (Borcard et al., 1992). To provide an  
216 additional visualisation of the relationship between LCAs and environmental factors, we used  
217 classification and regression trees (CARTs) to model LCA presence and absence, and  
218 concentration, respectively. CARTs are binary recursive tree-based models that identify a set  
219 of decision rules that best predicts either a binary outcome (classification trees) or  
220 quantitative variable (regression tree). At each stage of fitting a CART tree, the algorithm  
221 identifies a variable and threshold value that best predicts the response variable. Since our  
222 interest here is in explanation rather than prediction, we used AIC to identify the best tree  
223 rather than cross-validation (Hothorn and Zeileis, 2015). CARTs have the disadvantage that  
224 they can only display a single model, when there may be several best models, but have the

225 advantage that they can reveal interactions between variables not easily visualised using other  
226 methods (Hastie et al., 2009).

227 The relationships between various alkenone-based indices ( $\%C_{37:4}$ ,  $C_{37}/C_{38}$ ;  $U_{37}^K$ ,  $U_{37}^{K'}$ ,  
228  $U_{37}^{K''}$ ), alkenone isomer composition, and environmental factors were further explored using  
229 linear regressions and constrained ordinations. For the latter, we assessed the significance  
230 and importance of each predictor with a Monte Carlo permutation test and variance  
231 partitioning respectively (Borcard et al., 2011).

232 The distribution of LCA concentration and many of the explanatory variables showed a  
233 right-skewed distribution: these were either  $\log_{10}$  (all water chemistry, lake area, LCA  
234 concentration) or square-root- (sample depth) transformed prior to analysis to normalize their  
235 distributions. We also included average air temperature, obtained from the WorldClim  
236 database with a spatial resolution of approximately  $1 \text{ km}^2$ .

237 All statistical analyses were performed using R software for statistical computing and  
238 graphics (R Development Core Team, 2017) with the following packages: *glmulti* (Calcagno  
239 and Mazancourt, 2010), *vegan* (Oksanen et al., 2017), and *partykit* (Hothorn and Zeileis,  
240 2015).

241

### 242 **3. Results**

243

#### 244 3.1. Environmental data

245 Survey lakes exhibited large gradients for most environmental parameters (Table 1 and  
246 supplementary Table S1) including depth (0.1-28.5 m), salinity (0.1-102.2 g/L) and mean  
247 water temperature (8.6-23.7°C). In general, individual lakes had higher concentrations of  
248 sulfate ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) (31.5-120,223 mg/L) than bicarbonate ( $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) (156-5625 mg/L), carbonate  
249 ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ) (<0.01- 5528 mg/L) or chloride ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ) (3.1-45,022 mg/L). In addition, lakes exhibited

250 different degrees of thermal and chemical stratification, ranging from polymixis to permanent  
251 stratification (meromixis). Chemistry and hydrology of about two-thirds of these lakes has  
252 been discussed in Pham et al. (2009). Elevated sulfate concentration in the Saskatchewan  
253 region is mostly derived from oxidation of the underlying bedrock (Last and Ginn, 2005;  
254 Hayashi and van der Kamp, 2009).

255

### 256 3.2. LCA occurrence and abundances

257 Of the 106 lake surface sediments examined in this study, 58 (55%) contained detectable  
258 concentrations of LCAs (Fig. 1; Table 1). Total concentrations of LCAs range from 2.5 to  
259 27,625  $\mu\text{g/g}$  TOC (0.02-2312  $\mu\text{g/g}$  dry sediment), with very high concentrations ( $> 1000$   $\mu\text{g/g}$   
260 TOC or 100  $\mu\text{g/g}$  dry sediment) recorded in 9 of the LCA-containing lakes (15% of basins)  
261 (Table 1). The highest concentrations of LCAs generally occurred in the northern section of  
262 the sampling area ( $> 51^\circ\text{N}$ ; Fig. 1).

263 The majority of LCA-containing surface sediments (53%) featured high  $\%C_{37:4}$ , with  
264 values  $> 60\%$ . Five lakes featured a profile mainly composed of the  $C_{37:3}$  alkenone ( $\%C_{37:4} <$   
265  $40\%$ ) (Fig. 2). In addition, one lake displayed a predominance of  $C_{38}$  alkenones over  $C_{37}$   
266 alkenones, with particularly elevated concentrations of the  $C_{38:3}$  alkenone (Fig. 2). Among the  
267 lakes, four of them showed the presence of the  $C_{37:3b}$  alkenone isomer, including one  
268 freshwater ( $< 0.5$  g/L) and three oligohaline (0.5-5 g/L) lakes (Table 1 and Fig. 2).  $\text{RIK}_{37}$   
269 (ratio between  $C_{37:3a}$  and  $C_{37:3b}$  isomers; Longo et al., 2016) values ranged 0.47-0.57 (Table  
270 1).  $C_{37}/C_{38}$  ratios varied between 0.4 and 7.7, with a mean value of  $2.7 \pm 1.7$  (Table 1). No  
271 significant correlation was found between the  $U_{37}^K$  unsaturation index and depth-integrated  
272 water-column temperature or surface water temperature at the time of sampling (August  
273 2013), or with air (spring or summer) temperature. No significant correlation was found

274 using other indices (such as the  $U_{37}^{K'}$ ,  $U_{37}^{K''}$ , or the  $U_{38}^K$ ), or through regression analysis of  
275 individual LCAs with air (spring or summer) and water temperature.

276

### 277 3.3. Factors influencing LCA presence and concentration

278 Figure 3 shows the significant predictor variables explaining the presence/absence of  
279 LCAs, the explanatory power (variance) of each variable, and the explained variance  
280 decomposed into independent and shared components. Salinity, water pH, depth, water  
281 temperature and stratified (stratification of the lake) were the most significant predictor  
282 variables explaining the occurrence of LCAs in the Canadian prairie lakes (supplementary  
283 Table S2). Salinity was the most important variable (24% of variance explained), and most  
284 of the variation explained by salinity (20%) was independent of other variables. Water pH  
285 explained a small part (3.5%), but its explanatory power was mostly independent of other  
286 parameters. Stratified, depth and water temperature explained moderate amounts of  
287 variability (5%, 11% and 14%, respectively) but their explanatory powers were largely  
288 confounded with each other.

289 To provide an additional visualisation of the relationship between LCAs and  
290 environmental factors, we used a classification tree (Fig. 4). A split in salinity at 2.4 g/L was  
291 observed, representing a threshold for the presence of LCAs. At low salinity (<2.4 g/L),  
292 stratification was important for the presence, but LCAs were rare in lakes with high pH (>  
293 8.5). At higher salinity (>2.4 g/L), LCAs were rare in shallow lakes (<0.6 m). LCAs occurred  
294 mainly in deeper lakes (>0.6 m), but they were slightly less common in very saline lakes  
295 (>44.4 g/L).

296 Salinity, depth, water temperature and presence of stratification were the most significant  
297 predictor variables of modelled LCA concentrations (Fig. 5 and supplementary Table S2).  
298 Salinity was the most important variable (31% of variance explained), and most of the

299 variation explained by salinity was independent of other variables. Depth explained a much  
300 smaller proportion of variance (7%) and its explanatory power was entirely confounded with  
301 other variables. Stratification and water temperature explained moderate amounts (16% and  
302 24%, respectively), although their explanatory powers were largely confounded with each  
303 other. The regression tree (Fig. 6) showed a salinity threshold of 4.9 g/L. A further distinction  
304 was noted at low salinities (<4.9 g/L), with slightly higher LCA concentrations between 0.8  
305 and 4.9 g/L than in less saline waters. At higher salinities (>4.9 g/L), LCAs showed higher  
306 concentrations in stratified lakes than in unstratified basins.

307 Relative (%) importance of carbonate and sulfate and metrics of total salinity were  
308 identified as the main predictors of alkenone isomer compositions, but explained variances  
309 were generally low (8.2%, 5% and 2.5%, respectively). Most variation explained by  
310 carbonate (4.6%) was independent of other variables, whereas the explanatory power of  
311 sulfate (4.8%) and salinity (1.4%) was largely confounded with other variables.

312 Statistical analyses between various LCA-based indices and environmental factors showed  
313 a significant but weak relationship between % carbonate (among anions) and %C<sub>37:4</sub>, U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup>,  
314 U<sub>37</sub><sup>K''</sup>, or C<sub>37</sub>/C<sub>38</sub> (supplementary Table S2). No significant relationship was found between  
315 salinity and %C<sub>37:4</sub>, or between salinity and U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup>, U<sub>37</sub><sup>K''</sup>, or C<sub>37</sub>/C<sub>38</sub> (supplementary Table S2).  
316 For the U<sub>37</sub><sup>K'</sup> index, no significant correlation was observed with any environmental variables.

317

## 318 4. Discussion

319

### 320 4.1. LCA distribution and haptophyte taxonomy

321 The majority of LCA-containing lakes showed high proportion of C<sub>37:4</sub> alkenone (Fig. 2),  
322 which is a common feature of lacustrine systems (e.g., Sun et al., 2004; D'Andrea et al.,  
323 2011; Longo et al., 2016). A large variation in C<sub>37</sub>/C<sub>38</sub> ratio values (0.5-7.7; mean value =

324 3.3) was observed in these lakes, but values were in the same range as those recorded for  
325 *Isochrysis galbana* and *Ruttnera lamellosa* (Marlowe et al., 1984; Rontani et al., 2004) and  
326 lakes within the US Great Plain sites (Toney et al., 2010). In contrast, five Canadian lakes  
327 were characterized by elevated  $C_{37:3}$  alkenone content (Fig. 2), a profile typical of offshore  
328 marine environments (e.g., Prahl et al., 1988; Sikes and Volkman, 1993) and rarely reported  
329 in lacustrine sediments (e.g., Li et al., 1996; Theissen et al., 2005; Toney et al., 2010; Hou et  
330 al., 2016). These lakes present lower  $C_{37}/C_{38}$  ratio variations and values (1.4-2.4; mean value  
331 = 1.8) similar to those recorded for *Emiliana huxleyi* (Marlowe et al., 1984), from Chinese  
332 lakes (Sun et al., 2004; Chu et al., 2005), and in US sites with  $C_{37:3}$ -dominant profiles (Toney  
333 et al., 2010). Finally, a single lake displayed a predominance of  $C_{38}$  over  $C_{37}$  LCAs, with  
334 especially elevated levels of tri-unsaturated components. A few lacustrine studies have  
335 reported such a profile in alkaline, evaporitic or saline settings (Thiel et al., 1997; Sun et al.,  
336 2004; Chu et al., 2005; Pearson et al., 2008).  $C_{37}/C_{38}$  ratio for this particular lake was low  
337 (0.4) and very similar to that of the Spanish lakes (mean value = 0.1) studied by Pearson et al.  
338 (2008). Pearson et al. (2008) suggested that salinity may play a role in LCA composition,  
339 with a salinity threshold of 40 g/L for  $C_{37}$  LCAs and  $C_{38}$ -dominated LCA profiles being  
340 characteristic of hypersaline lakes. In contrast, the sole basin with  $C_{38}$  LCAs reported here  
341 was not hypersaline (10 g/L) and we report that  $C_{37}$  LCAs were also present in one lake with  
342 salinity >40 g/L (Table 1), suggesting that salinity, per se, is not the sole factor influencing  
343 the dominance of  $C_{38}$  alkenones.

344 Differences in LCA profiles among basins may reflect variation in the community  
345 composition of LCA-producing haptophyte species in the studied Canadian lakes. Studies in  
346 the US Great Plains (Toney et al., 2010; Theroux et al., 2010; Toney et al., 2012) showed the  
347 presence of two haptophyte species from Group II among and within saline lakes, with OTU7  
348 haptophyte or Hap B producing mainly  $C_{37:3}$  alkenones, while OTU8 haptophyte or Hap A

349 produces predominantly C<sub>37:4</sub> alkenones. Part of the reason for this difference in distribution  
350 can be attributed to the offset in the timing of their bloom, where Hap A blooms in the early  
351 spring during low temperatures (2-12°C) and Hap B blooms nearly a month later with a  
352 temperature range of (12-18°C) (Theroux, 2012). In addition, Toney et al. (2012) showed that  
353 Hap A species dominates LCA production in sulfate-rich lakes (sulfate:carbonate ratio SCR  
354 >1), while production is dominated by Hap B in carbonate-dominated lakes with SCR<1.  
355 Here, the majority of the study lakes were sulfate-rich with SCR values much greater than  
356 one, except for Reflex Lake (Table 1 and supplementary Table S1). All together, these  
357 observations would suggest that Hap A and Hap B are mainly responsible for the sedimentary  
358 LCA profile in the Canadian lakes, with few exceptions.

359 The Group I phylotype also thrived in some of the Canadian freshwater (< 0.5 g/L) and  
360 oligohaline (0.5-5 g/L) lakes, as suggested by Longo et al. (2016) based on the presence of  
361 the alkenone isomer C<sub>37:3b</sub>. The RIK<sub>37</sub> index (ratio between C<sub>37:3a</sub> and C<sub>37:3b</sub> isomers) has also  
362 been proposed as a taxonomic indicator for multi-species effect, with RIK<sub>37</sub> values of 0.51-  
363 0.60 indicating lakes hosting only Group I haptophytes and RIK<sub>37</sub> values between 0.60 and  
364 1.0 for lakes containing both Group I and Group II haptophytes (Longo et al., 2016). In this  
365 study, we found the C<sub>37:3b</sub> isomer in four lakes (Fig. 2), including one freshwater and three  
366 oligohaline lakes, and RIK<sub>37</sub> values ranging 0.47-0.57 (Table 1), indicating the exclusive  
367 presence of Group I haptophytes in these lakes. In all other sites, RIK<sub>37</sub> values of 1 (C<sub>37:3b</sub>  
368 isomer absent) suggest the exclusive presence of Group II haptophytes. Given these patterns,  
369 we will conduct genomic analyses in the future to confirm the presence of Hap A, Hap B, and  
370 Group I haptophytes in these Canadian lakes.

371

372 4.2. Relationship between LCAs and environmental parameters



373 Overall, our statistical analyses of the relationship between LCA distribution and major  
374 environmental gradients showed that LCA occurrence and abundance was influenced by a  
375 combination of salinity, water temperature, basin morphometry (depth), and water-column  
376 stratification (Figs. 3-6). These results are consistent with previous studies that have shown  
377 that LCA abundance is generally higher in lakes with elevated sulfate content and salinity  
378 (e.g., Pearson et al., 2008; Toney et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2014). Sulfate  
379 content does not appear as a main variable for LCA distribution in our statistical analyses,  
380 likely because most of our study lakes are actually sulfate-rich. In contrast, salinity appears as  
381 a main factor on LCA presence and abundance. Salinity thresholds highlighted in our  
382 statistical analyses (2.4-44.4 g/L) support the observation that higher LCA concentrations  
383 occur in brackish/saline lakes rather than in fresh and hypersaline lakes (e.g., Liu et al, 2011;  
384 Song et al., 2016).

385 While salinity is was the main variable regulating LCAs in this study, it was more difficult  
386 to separate the unique effects of water temperature (more LCAs with lower temperature),  
387 depth and stratification, likely because the thermal regime varied with the degree of lake  
388 stratification. In fact, highest LCA concentrations are generally recorded in lakes exhibiting  
389 permanent stratification and deep-water anoxia (Table 1). Stratification and deep-water  
390 anoxia have been suggested to play a role in LCA abundance in relation with the life cycle of  
391 lacustrine haptophytes (Toney et al., 2010). In the US Great Plains, the movement of LCAs  
392 within the water column is affected mainly by the degree of mixing and stratification  
393 experienced during the haptophyte bloom (Toney et al., 2010). Indeed, it appears that  
394 lacustrine haptophytes include a benthic vegetative stage within their life cycle (Toney et al.,  
395 2010), like recently evidenced for the marine haptophyte *Isochrysis galbana* (Ellegaard et al.,  
396 2016). In addition, some lacustrine phytoplankton cells survive during winter season as  
397 resting cells in the bottom sediment (Salmi and Salonen, 2016). Thus, we conclude that

398 bottom waters could represent a physical “refuge” for haptophyte cells during times of the  
399 year when conditions are unsuitable for population growth, such as winter.

400 In the Canadian Prairies, elevated sulfate content, derived from oxidation of pyrite in the  
401 underlying bedrock, is common in lakes that have significant groundwater contribution (Last  
402 and Ginn, 2005; Hayashi and van der Kamp, 2009). This environmental sulfur (as sulfate) is  
403 an essential element for all photosynthetic algae (e.g., Takahashi et al., 2011; Giordano and  
404 Prioretti, 2015); however, the influx of sulfate-rich groundwater could also favor chemical  
405 stratification (meromixis) and deep-water anoxia (Pham et al., 2008, 2009). Thus, at present,  
406 it is unclear how biotic demand and abiotic factors may interact to favour haptophytes and  
407 LCA production or preservation. In particular, further studies will be thus needed to further  
408 assess the influence of sulfate on LCAs and determine whether high LCA concentration in  
409 these Canadian lakes is the result of increased production or merely improved post-  
410 depositional preservation in the anoxic, aphotic bottom waters (Leavitt, 1993).

411 While the vast majority of our Canadian study lakes are saline, our survey also included  
412 25 freshwater lakes (Table 1). Only 6 of these freshwater lakes contained detectable LCAs  
413 and our statistical analyses showed that LCAs occurred mainly in stratified alkaline  
414 freshwater lakes with pH up to 8.5 (Fig. 4). These observations are consistent with those in  
415 Alaskan freshwater lakes, where high LCA concentration was found in deep lakes with high  
416 pH, alkalinity and conductivity (Longo et al., 2016). Interestingly, these patterns suggest that  
417 the main environmental parameters influencing LCA occurrence and abundance may differ  
418 between freshwater and saline lakes, although it is still unclear how salinity, morphology, and  
419 stratification may interact with the basic biology of LCA-producing haptophytes.

420

#### 421 4.3. Relationship between LCA-based indices and environmental parameters

422 The %C<sub>37:4</sub> has been suggested as a salinity proxy as the relative proportion of the C<sub>37:4</sub>  
423 alkenone has been reported to vary inversely with salinity in marine (e.g., Rosell-Melé, 1998;  
424 Schulz et al., 2000; Kaiser et al., 2017) and lacustrine environments (e.g., Liu et al., 2008;  
425 2011; Song et al., 2016). As with some previous works (e.g., Sikes and Sicre, 2002; Toney et  
426 al., 2010), we found no significant relationship of %C<sub>37:4</sub> with salinity (supplementary Table  
427 S2), possibly because the production of C<sub>37:4</sub> alkenone varies among haptophyte species and  
428 strains (Theroux et al., 2010). The U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup> and U<sub>37</sub><sup>K''</sup> indices, which include the C<sub>37:4</sub> alkenone in  
429 their definition, are also not influenced by salinity variation (supplementary Table S2),  
430 conversely to what has been observed in Chinese lakes (Liu et al., 2011; Song et al., 2016).  
431 On the other hand, a significant but weak correlation was observed between the relative  
432 abundance of C<sub>37:4</sub> alkenone and relative importance of carbonate among anions  
433 (supplementary Table S2). Similarly, a significant but weak correlation was found between  
434 U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup>, U<sub>37</sub><sup>K''</sup> and the % carbonate (supplementary Table S2). The effect of carbonate on the  
435 proportion of C<sub>37:4</sub> alkenone, if any, remains unknown.

436

#### 437 4.4. Relationship between LCA unsaturation indices and temperature

438 Although temperature was a substantial (24%) predictor of variation in LCA  
439 concentrations in the statistical analyses of lake survey data, there was no significant  
440 relationship between mean water-column temperature at the time of sampling (August 2013)  
441 and common indices of environmental temperature (U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup>, U<sub>37</sub><sup>K'</sup>, U<sub>37</sub><sup>K''</sup>, or U<sub>38</sub><sup>K</sup>). This lack of  
442 correlation may reflect the fact that temperature data was estimated on only a single date in  
443 August, while 1-cm deep sediment samples integrate historical haptophyte populations at the  
444 scale from seasons to years. Furthermore, late summer does not necessarily correspond to the  
445 time of maximum haptophyte production. For example, Toney et al. (2011) obtained a weak  
446 but positive and statistically significant correlation ( $R^2 = 0.30$ ,  $p = 0.067$ ), with average

447 surface temperature recorded in spring in some of these lakes, suggesting a predominantly  
448 cool-season life cycle of haptophytes. The slope of the relationship was also similar to that  
449 derived from site-specific calibration of the  $U_{37}^K$  index in Lake George, North Dakota,  
450 suggesting that the change in LCA unsaturation as a function of temperature is similar  
451 between Great Plains lakes in the US and Canada. In fact, when we apply the temperature  
452 calibration of Lake George (Toney et al., 2010) at one site for which we have measured water  
453 temperature data for 20-years (Diefenbaker Lake), the LCA-inferred temperature is 11.9°C,  
454 which is very close to the average water temperature in June (11.2°C) and the average air  
455 temperature in the preceding month (May) recorded at a nearby weather station (10.9°C;  
456 Elbow Cs weather station).

457 As the LCA profile at Lake Diefenbaker suggests the presence of Group I haptophyte, we  
458 also applied the three *in-situ* temperature calibrations currently developed for lakes where the  
459 presence of Group I phylotype has been confirmed (D'Andrea et al., 2011, 2016; Longo et  
460 al., 2016). Here, the LCA-inferred temperature varied between 6.2°C and 12.1°C, values  
461 which were close to the average water temperature in May (6.8°C) or June (11.2°C).  
462 Together, these data support the idea that haptophyte bloom occurs in spring after ice-out  
463 (Toney et al., 2010). Unfortunately, year-round estimates of water temperature were not  
464 available for study lakes and we did not find any correlation with air temperature data for the  
465 spring season from weather stations close to the studied lakes.

466 Weak correlation between the LCA unsaturation indices and environmental temperature  
467 may also reflect the presence of multiple haptophyte species with different thermal optima  
468 (e.g., Hap A and Hap B), in a single lake. For example, Hap A produces mainly  $C_{37:4}$   
469 alkenones and blooms during spring, whereas Hap B produces mainly  $C_{37:3}$  alkenones and  
470 blooms during summer (Theroux, 2012). However, we did not find any significant  
471 correlations with spring air temperature for lakes with high  $\%C_{37:4}$  and with summer air

472 temperature for lakes with low %C<sub>37:4</sub>. This is likely because the temperature calibration  
473 throughout the bloom events, which combines Hap A and Hap B temperature calibrations, is  
474 actually very similar to the *in-situ* lake calibration of Toney et al. (2010) (Theroux, 2012).  
475 Instead, we suggest that establishment of a valid calibration of environmental conditions and  
476 the U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup> index may require more intensive field sampling during the haptophyte bloom in  
477 select candidate lakes to quantify the seasonality of LCA production and the appropriate  
478 environmental temperature for comparison (Toney et al., 2010).

479

#### 480 **4. Conclusion**

481

482 We conclude that long-chain alkenones are common in the Canadian lakes of the Northern  
483 Great Plains, and that their presence and abundance is influenced by a combination of  
484 salinity, water temperature, depth, and degree of water-column stratification. Based on this  
485 study, sulfate may play a role in LCA distribution, even though it is unclear if its effect is  
486 related to biological requirements or to change in the aquatic environment (groundwater,  
487 stratification, etc.). While these environmental parameters clearly play a role in regulating the  
488 life cycle of the LCA-producing haptophytes, further studies will be essential to define how  
489 haptophyte ecology varies with seasonal and interannual changes in lake conditions. LCA  
490 profiles suggested that most lakes contained haptophyte species from the Group II phylotype,  
491 likely closely related to OTU8 haptophyte (Hap A) and OTU7 haptophyte (Hap B) found in  
492 the US Great Plains. However while the presence of other species from Group I phylotype  
493 was also confirmed, we note that they were not particularly common. Unexpectedly, we were  
494 not able to calibrate the LCA unsaturation ratios (U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup>, U<sub>37</sub><sup>K'</sup>, U<sub>37</sub><sup>K''</sup> or U<sub>38</sub><sup>K</sup>) with environmental  
495 conditions at this time. Instead, further studies with a more intensive sampling at different  
496 depths and seasons will be needed to calibrate the U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup> index *in-situ* with the appropriate

497 environmental temperature. Genomic analyses will also be important to precisely determine  
498 the haptophyte species present in these Canadian lakes.

499

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501

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507

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724

## 725 **Figure captions**

726

727 Fig. 1. Map of the southern Saskatchewan, Canada showing the location of the studied lakes.  
728 Individual lakes are plotted as “+” (no LCAs) or circles scaled to LCA concentration ( $\mu\text{g}$   
729  $\text{gTOC}^{-1}$ ). The different LCA profiles found in this study are indicated by a colour code  
730 (white: high % $C_{37:4}$ ; grey:  $C_{37:3}$ -dominated; black:  $C_{38}$ -dominated).

731

732 Fig. 2. Signature sedimentary LCA profiles for the Canadian lakes. The profile with high (>  
733 60%) % $C_{37:4}$  (A) is observed in the great majority of the studied lakes, while the  $C_{37:3}$ -  
734 dominated (B) and  $C_{38}$ -dominated (C) profiles are only found in five lakes and a single lake,  
735 respectively. Four freshwater/oligohaline lakes also exhibit profile typical of Group I  
736 haptophyte (D), with the presence of tri-unsaturated isomers.

737

738 Fig. 3. Probability of LCA occurrence, showing (A)–(D) logistic (binomial model) regression  
739 plots, (E) mosaic plot of LCA occurrence vs. thermal regime for raw data (left) and model

740 fitted values (right), and (F) the shared and independent fraction of variance explained by  
741 each predictor in the final LCA model. Shaded areas show 95% CIs (confidence intervals)  
742 and ticks on the upper and lower axes indicate original observations. Statistics (r-square,  $p$   
743 value) for the regression plots (A)-(D) are presented in the supplementary Table S2.

744

745 Fig. 4. Classification tree of LCA occurrence. Splits indicate thresholds for occurrence at  
746 particular environmental values. Bars at each node show proportions of observations where  
747 LCAs are present (dark grey) or absent (light grey).

748

749 Fig. 5. LCA concentration as a function of selected significant environmental variables,  
750 showing (A)-(C) scatter plots and fitted regression lines (lognormal model), (D) boxplot of  
751 LCA concentration as a function of thermal regime, and (E) the shared and independent  
752 fraction of variance explained by each predictor in the final LCA model. Shaded areas show  
753 95% CIs and ticks on the upper and lower axes indicate original observations. Error bars in  
754 (D) indicate model fitted values and 95% CIs (confidence intervals). Statistics (r-square,  $p$   
755 value) for the scatter plots (A)-(C) are presented in the supplementary Table S2.

756

757 Fig. 6. Regression tree of LCA occurrence. Splits indicate thresholds for occurrence at  
758 particular environmental values. Boxplots summarise LCA concentration for observations in  
759 that node. Note that boxplot scale is in  $\log_{10}$  units ( $\log_{10}$  of LCA concentration in  $\mu\text{g/gTOC}$ ).

760

761 Table 1. Location, characteristics and organic geochemistry data for the studied Canadian  
762 lakes. N.D. = not determined.



Lake Name	Lat. (°N)	Long. (°W)	Stratif. a	Depth (m)	Salinity (g/L)	Temp. (°C)	pH	SCR b	TOC (%)	LCAs (µg/gTOC)	LCAs (µg/gsed)	%C <sub>37:4</sub> c	C <sub>37</sub> /C <sub>38</sub> d	RIK <sub>37</sub> e	U <sub>37</sub> <sup>K</sup> f	U <sub>37</sub> <sup>K'</sup> g	U <sub>37</sub> <sup>K''</sup> h
<i>LCAs present</i>																	
Alsask	51.34	109.88	N	3.2	74.8	19.6	9.35	17.7	3.21	135	4.33	29.6	1.59	1.00	-0.18	0.16	0.67
Antelope	50.28	108.39	N	7.7	7.87	21.4	9.40	91.1	7.89	799	63.0	70.5	5.17	1.00	-0.66	0.17	0.26
Arthur	52.56	105.44	T, M	6.7	8.29	15.1	8.88	N.D.	8.71	3296	287	69.9	2.83	1.00	-0.64	0.19	0.26
Bitter	50.10	109.79	N	0.9	15.1	19.1	8.69	510	2.15	609	13.1	46.9	1.28	1.00	-0.33	0.25	0.46
Blackstrap	51.79	106.44	N	7.9	0.43	19.1	8.84	47.2	8.22	26.9	2.21	52.0	2.59	1.00	-0.46	0.12	0.45
Bullkin	49.25	105.07	N	0.7	2.01	19.4	9.06	25.5	1.24	49.8	0.62	76.5	2.57	1.00	-0.70	0.26	0.18
Charron	52.40	104.31	T	8.8	4.9	16.9	10.5	125	14.6	927	135	58.2	2.82	1.00	-0.50	0.19	0.37
Clair	51.99	104.06	N	3.0	0.78	22.1	9.20	25.3	8.33	23.9	2.00	55.8	N.D.	1.00	-0.51	0.11	0.41
Coldspring	52.35	108.59	N	2.4	5.86	19.1	8.62	88.3	5.03	178	8.95	73.0	3.50	1.00	-0.62	0.40	0.18
Deadmoose	52.30	105.17	T, M	15.1	12.3	12.6	8.87	99.8	8.24	383	31.6	53.3	1.73	1.00	-0.41	0.27	0.39
Dewey	50.58	107.07	N	2.3	8.54	18.8	8.40	216	7.87	144	11.4	38.2	2.14	1.00	-0.26	0.19	0.57
Diefenbaker	51.10	106.62	N	28.5	0.22	19.3	8.27	19.8	3.11	87.6	2.72	52.1	1.38	0.47	-0.48	0.17	0.28
Eaglehill	52.36	108.97	N	1.1	2.64	18.7	9.03	1.92	4.61	37.5	1.73	79.5	N.D.	1.00	-0.76	0.17	0.18
Farewell	52.47	109.38	N	0.4	3.57	22.4	9.40	13.4	1.45	92.4	1.34	45.5	N.D.	1.00	-0.34	0.22	0.48
Fife	49.22	105.86	N	2.4	1.47	19.9	9.06	4.31	2.88	10.4	0.30	72.4	2.56	1.00	-0.63	0.33	0.20
Fishing	51.82	103.47	N	11.5	1.31	20.1	9.17	66.2	12.3	39.9	4.90	50.9	1.29	0.44	-0.45	0.23	0.27
Freefight	50.40	109.11	T, M	15	40.8	17.6	8.33	89.2	1.14	135	1.54	46.3	1.63	1.00	-0.29	0.32	0.44
Greenwater	52.52	103.50	N	7.5	0.33	20.1	8.23	153	17.2	2.48	0.43	43.3	N.D.	1.00	-0.23	0.36	0.46
Humboldt	52.14	105.12	N	6.3	0.84	20.8	9.13	31.8	9.89	23.7	2.34	55.5	7.05	1.00	-0.53	0.06	0.43
Junction	49.96	109.51	N	9.0	0.66	19.3	8.92	57.9	3.49	148	5.17	N.D.	N.D.	1.00	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Katepwa	50.71	103.65	T	22.4	0.8	15.6	8.29	237	6.38	14.7	0.94	47.7	6.35	1.00	-0.43	0.09	0.50
Kenosee	49.82	102.30	N	7.4	1.32	19.1	8.79	26.6	8.92	82.7	7.38	62.2	6.33	1.00	-0.59	0.08	0.36
L. Manitou	51.74	105.52	N	6.7	44.4	19.6	9.15	475	13.1	5063	662	55.6	2.24	1.00	-0.46	0.21	0.39
Lenore SB	52.45	105.00	T	9.1	4.43	21.1	9.38	39.9	16.1	143	22.9	39.4	0.88	0.54	-0.29	0.28	0.41
Little Manitou	52.62	109.62	N	3.8	3.62	21.5	9.19	4.56	13.1	50.1	6.55	48.7	4.00	0.49	-0.43	0.22	0.31
Luck	51.07	107.10	N	0.8	4.55	18.2	9.64	47.7	3.00	27.5	1.91	66.7	1.99	1.00	-0.57	0.28	0.26
Madge	51.65	101.63	N	12.3	0.38	19.4	8.36	235	8.61	11.0	0.95	51.3	1.66	1.00	-0.42	0.20	0.43
Manitou	52.76	109.75	T	15.9	29.1	8.75	9.56	13.2	8.37	27,575	2308	66.4	2.14	1.00	-0.59	0.22	0.28
Mason	50.36	109.35	N	1.9	4.97	19.3	9.25	21.2	5.02	12.4	0.62	72.3	3.04	1.00	-0.61	0.41	0.19

McLean	52.62	109.37	N	6.5	46.2	21.1	9.27	552	1.71	77.9	1.33	44.2	1.63	1.00	-0.39	0.10	0.53
Middle	52.56	105.19	T	10.0	5.14	16.8	8.93	88.7	6.40	11,522	737	72.9	1.29	1.00	-0.68	0.18	0.23
Montague	49.47	105.83	N	1.4	1.07	19.6	9.06	15.6	1.38	135	1.87	72.9	2.58	1.00	-0.67	0.22	0.22
Old Wives	50.10	105.99	N	1.7	1.51	18.9	9.29	6.78	0.10	17.9	0.02	N.D.	N.D.	1.00	N.D.	N.D.	0.33
Opuntia	51.81	108.57	N	1.6	2.98	21.4	9.02	35.6	2.41	603	14.5	75.8	7.73	1.00	-0.73	0.12	0.22
Porter	52.19	106.29	N	4.0	2.78	19.2	8.48	5.31	4.62	819	37.8	66.9	2.56	1.00	-0.59	0.25	0.27
Quill	51.86	104.37	N	6.4	7.29	19.1	8.78	189	8.05	383	30.8	65.1	4.13	1.00	-0.51	0.41	0.24
Rabbit	52.61	107.02	S	6.5	4.23	19.3	9.21	80.5	11.8	72.6	8.60	70.0	4.49	1.00	-0.64	0.19	0.26
Redberry	52.62	107.02	T	14.8	8.61	12.1	9.09	22.8	4.40	11,143	490	69.4	2.15	1.00	-0.64	0.16	0.27
Reesor	49.66	110.11	N	5.0	0.14	18.9	8.48	N.D.	9.15	10.3	0.41	72.5	1.64	1.00	N.D.	N.D.	0.28
Richmond	52.01	108.02	N	1.8	10.0	18.8	8.62	3634	12.1	73.3	8.88	34.1	0.38	1.00	-0.24	0.16	0.62
Shannon	52.65	105.43	T	11.2	1.67	15.8	9.06	53.4	9.53	445	42.4	61.6	2.80	1.00	-0.55	0.18	0.34
Shoe	49.72	105.36	N	3.8	25.1	19.9	8.90	266	6.94	110	7.64	41.4	1.71	1.00	-0.28	0.23	0.52
Sink	52.44	109.19	N	2.8	2.83	20.9	8.66	12.2	14.7	175	25.8	79.2	2.78	1.00	-0.76	0.18	0.18
Snakehole	50.50	108.49	N	2.4	50.2	23.2	8.96	N.D.	4.16	191	7.96	45.6	1.97	1.00	-0.38	0.13	0.51
Springwater	52.01	108.39	N	3.1	6.56	22.4	8.62	47.5	4.40	797	35.1	37.5	2.17	1.00	-0.21	0.26	0.55
Success	50.49	108.02	T, M	17.4	34.9	11.3	8.62	43.4	4.66	94.2	4.39	45.1	1.50	1.00	-0.30	0.28	0.47
Sufferin	52.64	109.90	N	8	0.22	19.7	8.18	N.D.	12.7	31.8	4.03	37.3	1.64	1.00	-0.28	0.14	0.59
Summercove	49.32	107.04	N	5	0.98	20.0	8.97	13.1	5.24	31.5	1.65	67.8	6.97	1.00	-0.65	0.09	0.30
Sunny	52.02	108.52	T, M	15	11.6	8.63	8.50	43.3	7.94	3143	249	63.5	2.27	1.00	-0.56	0.21	0.31
Tramping	52.03	108.82	N	3.4	11.6	23.7	9.14	121	12.6	99.3	12.5	67.3	0.49	1.00	-0.63	0.13	0.30
Unknown 1	51.55	104.27	N	1.8	1.27	21.7	8.73	N.D.	5.24	53.3	2.79	69.8	0.93	1.00	-0.60	0.32	0.23
Van Scoy	52.08	107.55	N	0.9	6.44	20.6	8.82	N.D.	7.03	17.6	1.24	28.9	1.40	1.00	-0.05	0.33	0.62
Wakaw	52.66	105.60	T	10.3	1.5	19.7	8.54	5.06	12.2	132	16.1	68.6	N.D.	1.00	-0.67	0.05	0.30
Waldsea	52.26	105.18	T, M	19.9	12.8	9.85	8.45	165	8.51	24,494	2084	71.9	2.81	1.00	-0.67	0.16	0.25
White Heron	51.89	109.05	N	0.8	1.88	21.9	8.94	12.7	6.46	29.5	1.91	67.7	N.D.	1.00	-0.62	0.17	0.28
Willow Bunch	49.45	105.46	N	1.1	2.58	21.1	9.16	19.1	1.30	108	1.40	76.8	3.37	1.00	-0.71	0.27	0.18
Wolverine	52.03	105.22	N	3.1	0.8	21.2	8.93	2.05	12.5	21.2	2.65	76.9	4.31	1.00	-0.67	0.44	0.14
X5	52.67	110.08	T	4.1	13.6	17.9	9.04	20.8	12.2	6064	741	65.1	2.91	1.00	-0.59	0.18	0.31
<i>LCAAs absent</i>																	
Adrian	49.69	102.87	N	1.2	0.79	19.8	9.13	1.98	5.37	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Alioth	52.51	109.55	N	0.6	13.9	21.2	10.3	179	9.14	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Annie Laurie	51.97	102.67	N	1.3	0.25	22.1	8.78	23.3	20.0	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Barber	51.37	107.66	N	1.6	1.26	20.4	8.57	34.1	3.87	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Buffalo Pound	50.61	105.43	N	4.1	0.31	22.2	8.85	1.27	4.94	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Chapleau	50.18	103.34	N	1.4	0.41	22.1	9.00	15.3	9.75	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Clearwater	50.87	107.93	N	7.0	0.68	19.1	9.18	15.8	9.27	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Crooked	50.61	102.72	N	10.2	0.82	21.0	8.72	49.8	5.70	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Cutbank	50.53	107.00	S	2.4	2.41	20.4	9.13	23.1	5.87	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Cypress	49.47	109.47	N	5.6	0.3	19.1	8.82	115	2.85	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Deep	50.42	103.68	N	2.2	1.53	21.8	8.88	62.9	6.56	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Edouard	52.38	104.35	N	5.6	0.34	19.9	11.1	98.6	13.4	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Elkwater	49.67	110.29	N	7.9	0.18	18.7	8.65	67.6	4.25	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Eyebrow	50.96	106.19	N	0.9	0.21	17.9	8.36	N.D.	1.34	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Good Spirt	51.55	102.67	S	5.2	0.47	19.8	8.62	1.22	11.2	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Gouverneur	49.76	107.65	N	7.2	1.38	19.8	8.73	35.9	2.37	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Grassy	51.24	104.63	N	2.0	0.64	21.2	8.98	9.40	12.6	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Gull	50.11	108.50	N	5.0	2.04	20.1	8.96	38.3	N.D.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Handsome	50.49	107.38	N	1.9	2.19	18.4	9.04	28.1	6.89	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Harris	49.82	109.50	N	5.1	0.35	18.9	8.83	133	0.86	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Horse	51.39	103.56	N	3.3	0.72	20.7	8.78	8.20	22.1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Island	49.13	108.23	N	2.0	0.18	21.7	8.87	7.31	6.62	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Kindersley	51.42	109.10	N	1.6	0.42	17.6	9.66	37.7	2.02	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Kipabiskau	52.57	104.18	N	6.8	0.78	21.7	8.90	N.D.	16.6	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Lac Pelletier	49.99	107.94	N	8.8	0.41	20.9	9.46	1.04	12.1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Last Mountain	51.10	105.26	N	18.5	1.05	19.2	8.84	1.80	9.25	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Lenore	52.51	104.97	T	10.1	2.26	17.7	8.97	168	7.77	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Lewis Creek South	51.44	105.53	N	1.9	1.36	21.1	8.74	N.D.	8.21	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Lonetree	49.08	108.26	N	4.0	0.19	20.2	9.05	7.09	7.32	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Macklin	52.32	109.95	N	2.8	0.8	20.2	8.38	N.D.	12.3	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
McDonald	49.19	103.24	N	14.5	0.25	20.0	8.48	N.D.	2.60	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Newton	49.32	107.83	N	4.2	0.38	20.6	8.95	32.0	1.54	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Nickle	49.59	103.78	N	5.7	0.25	19.2	8.17	37.6	2.27	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Pasqua	50.79	103.94	T	12.5	0.77	21.2	8.78	23.7	5.59	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Peter	51.46	104.91	N	0.5	2.78	22.4	9.49	165	12.6	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Pike	51.90	106.82	N	2.5	0.26	19.6	8.66	2.47	12.8	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Reflex	52.66	110.01	N	2.8	102	22.2	9.40	0.95	4.22	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Round	50.54	102.37	N	10.4	0.83	21.4	8.82	26.6	4.31	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Shrimp	51.59	108.45	N	3.0	0.41	22.6	9.05	23.9	11.8	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Snipe	51.23	108.86	N	1.2	1.67	18.6	8.85	35.4	3.40	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Stony Beach	50.50	105.19	S	2.7	0.35	22.1	9.53	1.08	6.00	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Thackeray	52.54	108.69	N	1.6	1.17	19.6	9.42	24.7	8.17	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Thomson	49.77	106.60	N	8.3	1.01	20.3	8.87	40.0	N.D.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Unknown 3	50.65	108.97	N	0.1	57.8	21.5	8.57	N.D.	0.23	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Vincent	50.22	108.94	N	0.1	49.9	22.0	9.42	N.D.	2.61	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
WhiteBear	49.77	102.26	N	8.5	2.03	19.2	8.67	16.3	7.75	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
X3	51.94	107.58	N	0.6	3.08	19.8	9.76	457	7.34	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
York	51.16	102.48	N	3.0	1.09	22.8	8.97	21.6	14.2	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

<sup>a</sup> Stratification: none (N), stratified (S), thermal (T), meromictic (M)

<sup>b</sup> SCR: Sulfate to Carbonate Ratio (Toney et al., 2010)

<sup>c</sup> %C<sub>37:4</sub> = 100\*([C<sub>37:4</sub>]/[C<sub>37</sub> LCAs]) (Rosell-Melé, 1998)

<sup>d</sup> C<sub>37</sub>/C<sub>38</sub> = [C<sub>37</sub> LCAs]/[C<sub>38</sub> LCAs] (Volkman et al., 1995)

<sup>e</sup> RIK<sub>37</sub> = [C<sub>37:3a</sub>]/[C<sub>37:3a</sub> + C<sub>37:3b</sub>] (Longo et al., 2016)

<sup>f</sup> U<sub>37</sub><sup>K</sup> = [C<sub>37:2</sub> - C<sub>37:4</sub>]/[C<sub>37:2</sub> + C<sub>37:3</sub> + C<sub>37:4</sub>] (Brassell et al., 1986)

<sup>g</sup> U<sub>37</sub><sup>K'</sup> = [C<sub>37:2</sub>]/[C<sub>37:2</sub> + C<sub>37:3</sub>] (Brassell et al., 1986)

<sup>h</sup> U<sub>37</sub><sup>K''</sup> = [C<sub>37:3</sub>]/[C<sub>37:3</sub> + C<sub>37:4</sub>] (Zheng et al., 2016)

Fig. 1

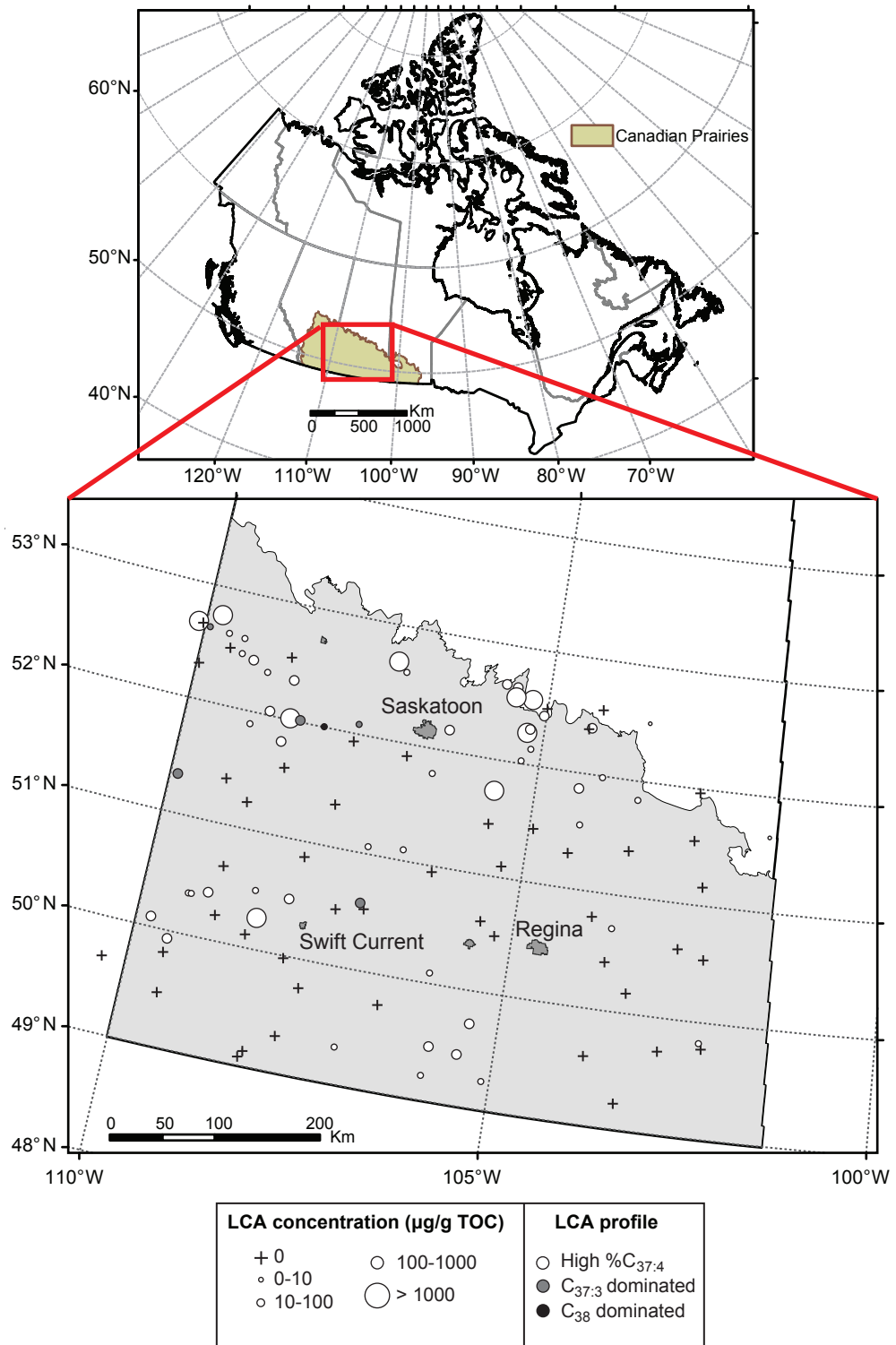
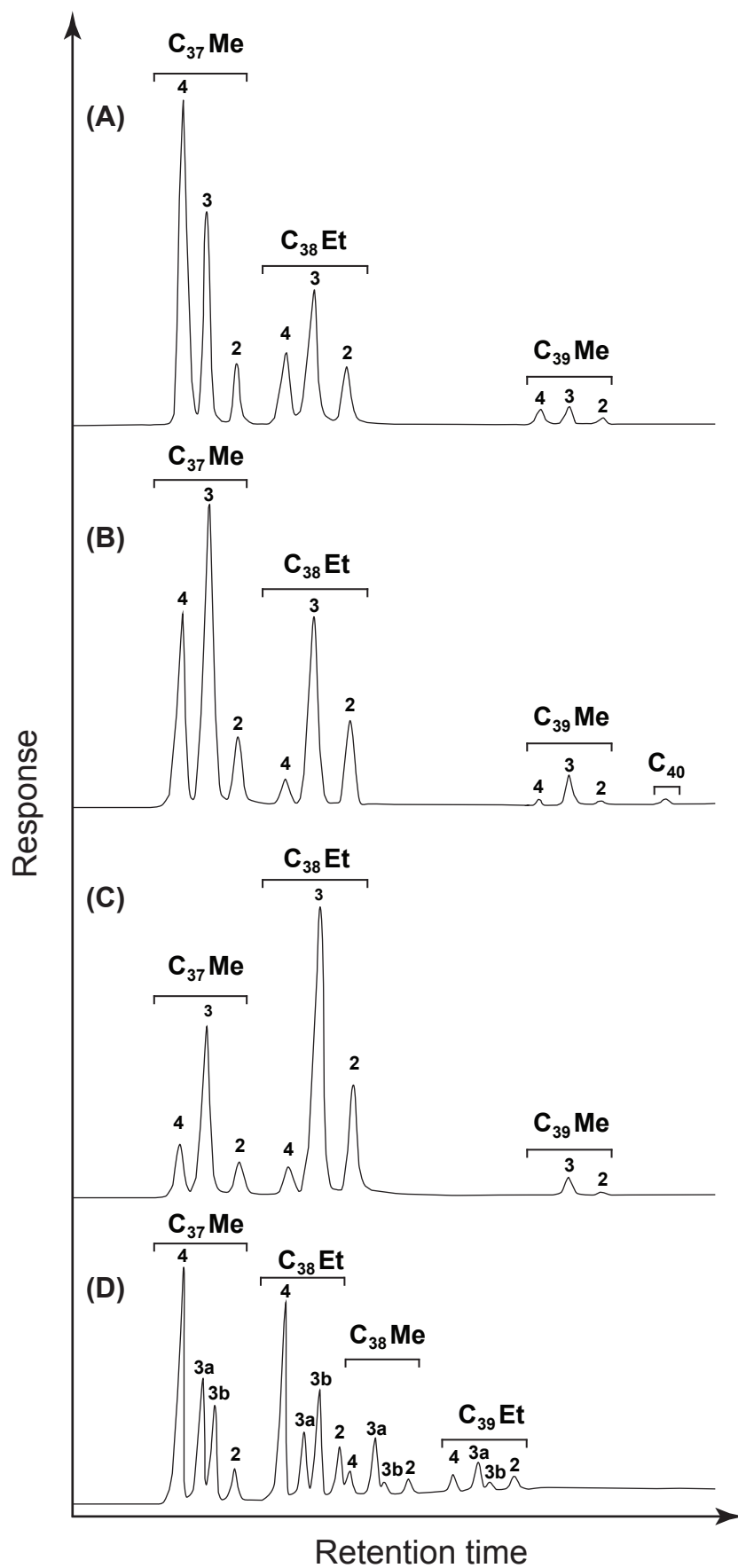


Fig. 2



**Fig. 3**

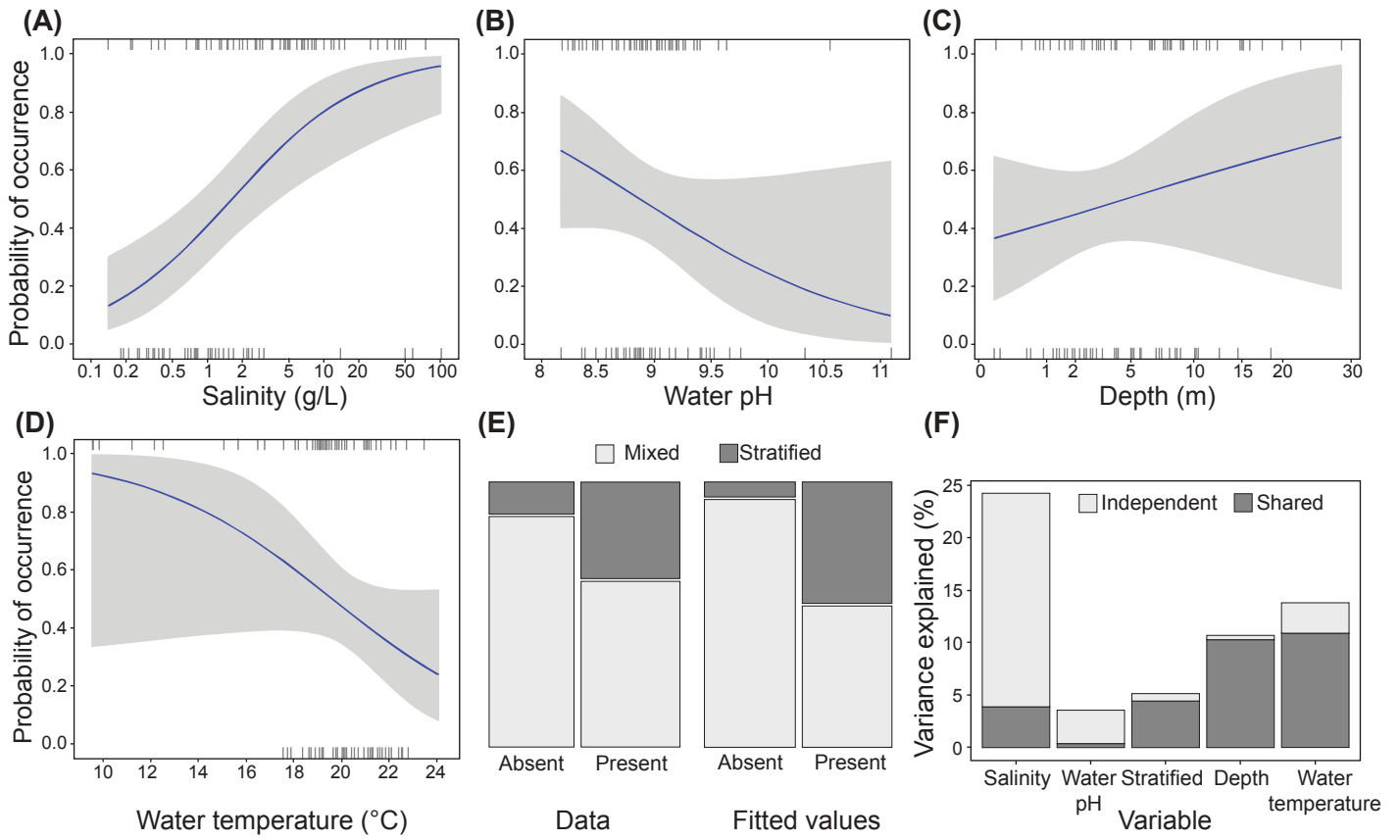


Fig. 4

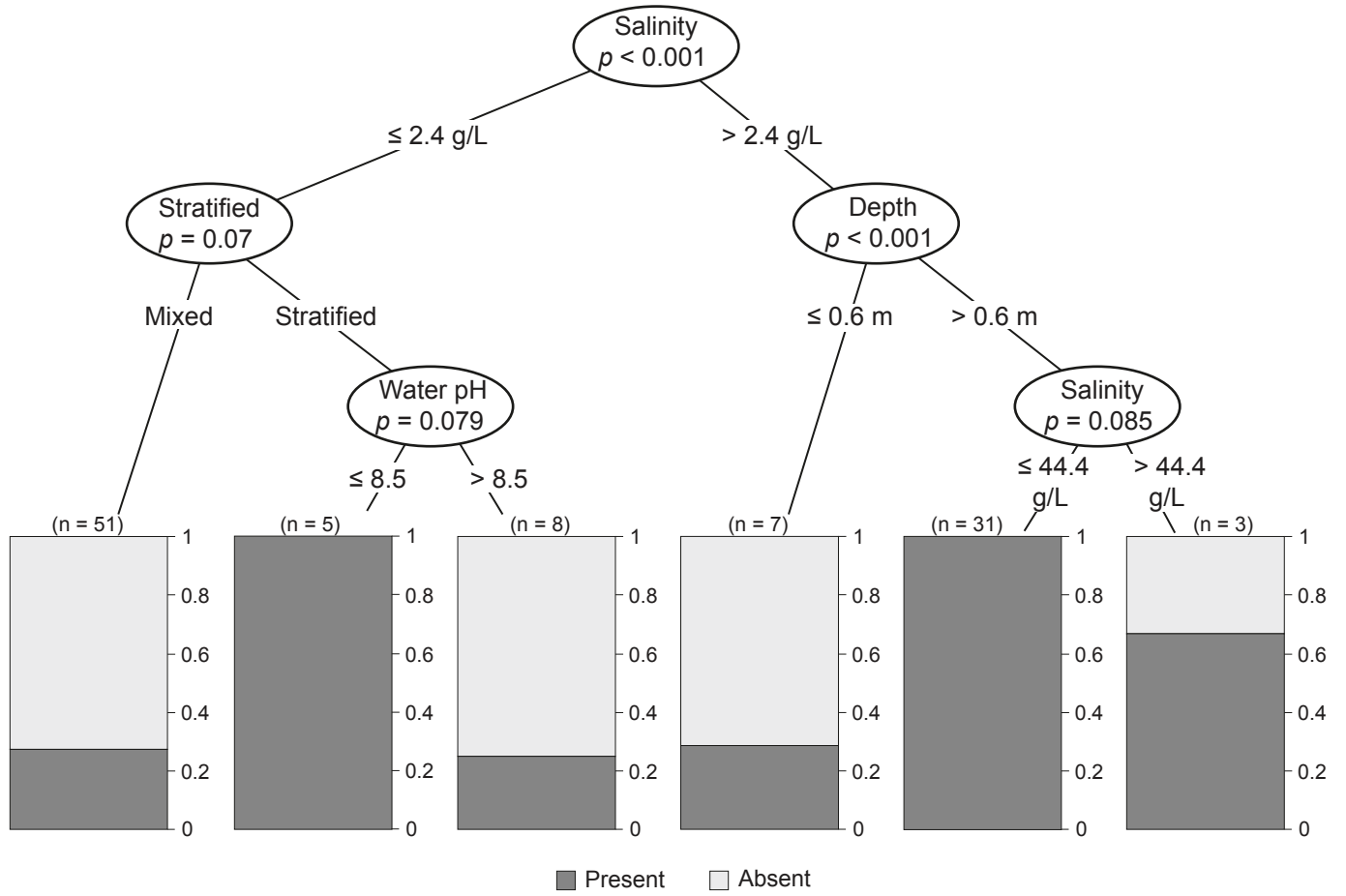




Fig. 5

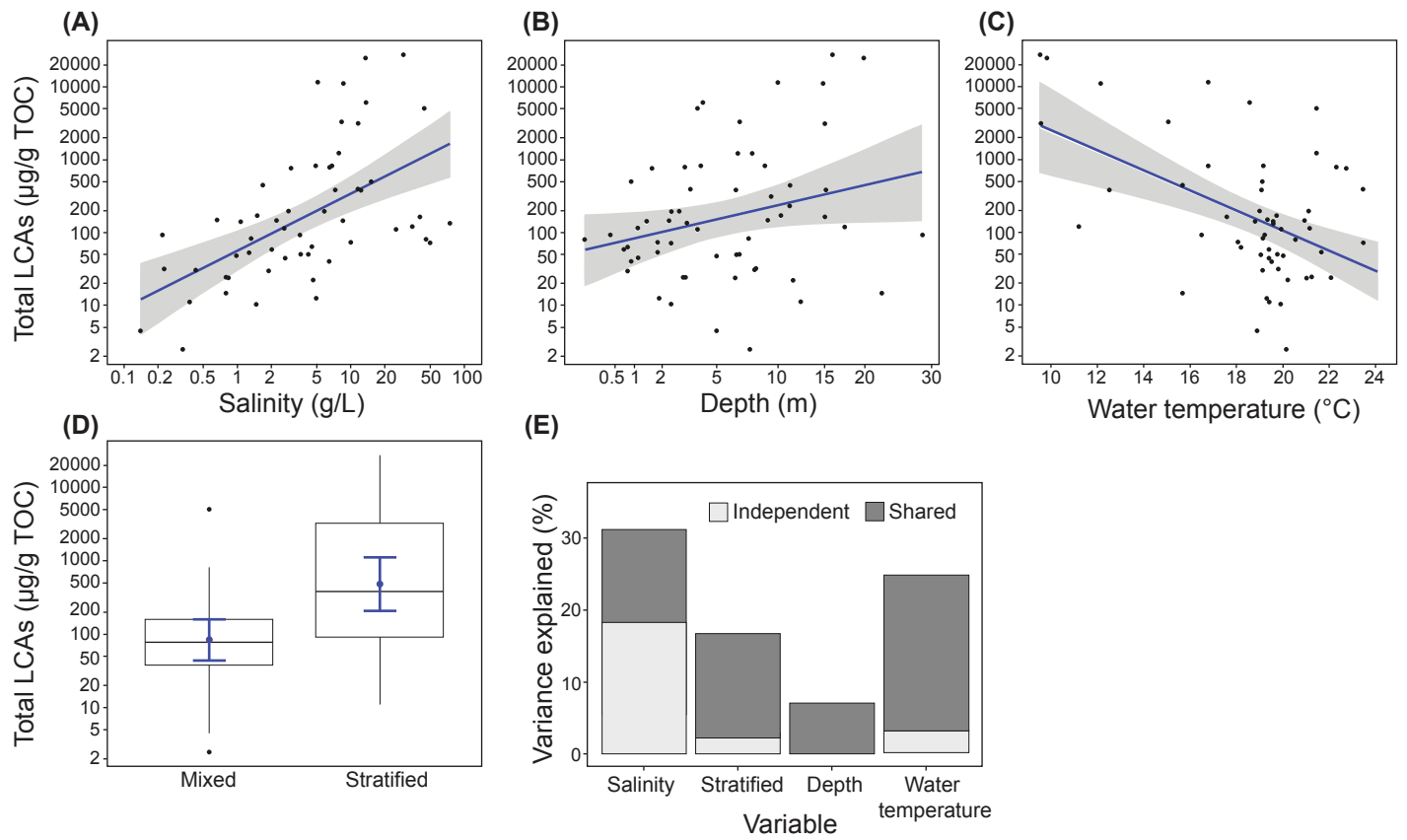


Fig. 6

