

1 **The First Holocene Varve Chronology for the UK: based on the integration of varve**
2 **counting, radiocarbon dating and tephrostratigraphy from Diss Mere (UK).**

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29 **Abstract**

30 The British Isles lack long high-precision and independent chronologies to reconstruct
31 Holocene environmental and climatic conditions at sub-decadal timescales. This paper reports
32 the first Holocene varved chronology for the lacustrine sediment record of Diss Mere in the
33 UK. The record of Diss Mere is 15 m long, and shows 4.2 m of finely-laminated sediments,
34 which are present between ca. 9 and 13 m of core depth. The microfacies analysis identified
35 three major seasonal patterns of deposition (microfacies 1 – 3), which corroborate the annual
36 nature of sedimentation throughout the whole interval. The sediments are diatomaceous
37 organic and carbonate varves with an average thickness of 0.45 mm. Microfacies 1 consists
38 of a pale layer of authigenic calcite crystals and diatom frustules, and a dark layer composed
39 of a planktonic diatoms and filaments of organic matter. Microfacies 2 is similar but includes
40 a mono-specific diatom bloom layer preceding the calcite layer. Microfacies 3 consists of
41 varves with an occasional very thin calcite layer and mono-specific diatom blooms in spring
42 and autumn. A total of 8473 varves were counted with maximum counting error of up to ± 40
43 varves by the bottom of the varved sequence. To tie the resulting floating varve chronology to
44 the IntCal 2020 radiocarbon timescale, we used a Bayesian Deposition model (*P_Sequence*
45 with outlier detection) on all available chronological data from the core. The data included five
46 radiocarbon dates, two known tephra layers (Glen Garry and OMH-185) with calendar ages
47 based on Bayesian modelling of sequences of radiocarbon ages, and the relative varve counts
48 between dated points. The resulting age-depth model (DISSV-2020) dates the varved
49 sequence between ca. 2100 and 10,300 cal BP and age uncertainties are decadal in scale
50 (95% confidence). The immediate implication of this new UK Holocene chronology is the
51 updated precise ages for the Glen Garry tephra at 2073 ± 39 cal BP and the OMH-185 tephra
52 at 2617 ± 29 cal BP. DISSV-2020 will also enable Holocene research at high time resolution
53 and comparisons to other annually-resolved records on absolute timescales supporting
54 climatic investigations at the regional level.

55 **Keywords:** Holocene varve chronology; varve counting; Glen Garry and OMH-185 tephra
56 layers; tephrochronology; Bayesian age modelling

57 **1. Introduction**

58 Holocene palaeoenvironmental and palaeoclimatological studies require precise and accurate
59 chronologies as major changes or transitions between states can occur in less than ten years
60 (Steffensen et al., 2008). Annually-laminated (varved) lake sediments provide an excellent
61 archive to generate varve-based chronologies with age uncertainties usually ranging between
62 1 to 10% (Ojala et al., 2012). Over short time periods these chronologies can resolve annual-
63 to-decadal scale climatic events that can be detected across, for example, Europe (e.g.
64 Brauer et al., 2008; Martin-Puertas et al., 2012a; Lane et al., 2013; Rach et al., 2014; Martin-
65 Puertas et al., 2019; Palmer et al., 2020). However, varve chronologies for long Holocene
66 records are rare, with sixteen European varved lakes covering the first ~8.5 ka of the
67 Interglacial and only five extending over the last ~10.2 ka (O'Sullivan, 1983; Ojala et al., 2012;
68 Zolitschka et al., 2015; Ramisch et al., 2020). Holocene varve sequences from the British Isles
69 have been reported at only three sites: Loe Pool in Cornwall (Simola et al., 1981); Rostherne
70 Mere in Cheshire (Farr et al., 1991); and Diss Mere in East Anglia (Peglar et al., 1984),
71 although no varve chronology has been published from any of these sites. Consequently,
72 there is significant potential to re-examine varve records from the British Isles to complement
73 those European Holocene varved sequences.

74 A varve represents one year's sedimentation in former and extant lacustrine and marine
75 environments and is made of, at least, two different sub-layers representing the seasonal
76 pattern of deposition. For any varve study, the development of a process model for the
77 formation of the sub-annual layers is essential. This requires a detailed knowledge of the lake
78 system, its catchment and the climate of the region where the lake is located (Sturm and
79 Lotter, 1995). The seasonal origin of the laminated sediments can be verified by either lake
80 monitoring using sediment traps and / or annual coring of recent sediments at the sediment-
81 water interface, or micro-facies analyses of the laminated sediments identifying seasonal cycle
82 events (e.g. monospecific diatom blooms, layers of authigenic mineral precipitation, detrital
83 deposits associated with spring snow melt, etc). If varves are continuously deposited and
84 preserved from the top of the lake sediment record, varve chronologies provide independent

85 dating of the sediments; otherwise floating varve chronologies need to be anchored to a
86 calendrical timescale using additional independent dating methods such as radiocarbon and
87 tephrochronology (e.g. Brauer et al., 2000; Wulf et al., 2012).

88 Tephrochronology requires volcanic ash (tephra) horizons to be identified and then
89 characterised using both their physical properties, and their geochemical and/or mineralogical
90 compositions (Lowe, 2011). The key principle for using tephra as stratigraphic markers and
91 isochrons is that they are erupted and deposited instantaneously (from hours to months), even
92 in marine and lake sediments (Lowe, 2011). Recent improvements in the identification of non-
93 visible, distal tephra layers (cryptotephra) deposited in peat bogs, lakes, marine and aeolian
94 sediments, and ice cores, allow sequences to be linked at distances of hundreds to several
95 thousands of kilometres from the source, greatly extending the tephra's known geographical
96 limit (Blockley et al., 2005, 2007; Davies, 2015). The identification of tephra and cryptotephra
97 deposited in annually-laminated lake records also has advantages by allowing independent
98 varve-dating of tephra layers with errors lower than the original age estimates, and the direct
99 correlation between annually-resolved records (Zolitschka et al., 2000; Lane et al., 2015).

100 Further reductions in age uncertainties can be achieved when radiocarbon, tephrochronology
101 and varve chronologies are integrated within a Bayesian age modelling framework. This
102 approach has been successfully used to anchor varve chronologies in the Late Glacial at
103 European sites, and generating reliable calendar-age models for lake archives that utilise the
104 additional precision provided by the annual timescale (Bronk Ramsey, 2008; Blockley et al.,
105 2008; Palmer et al., 2020).

106 Currently the Diss Mere sequence reported by Peglar et al. (1984) is assigned to the Holocene
107 through correlation of the Diss Mere pollen stratigraphy to the radiocarbon-dated pollen
108 stratigraphy of central East Anglia (Peglar et al., 1989). The varve sediments at Diss Mere are
109 reported to form from ~2.5 to 5 ka BP (where BP denotes "before AD 1950") through the
110 comparison of the Holocene pollen stratigraphy that cover that varved interval. Consequently,
111 the Diss Mere varved sediments have not been directly dated and it is also unclear what the
112 age interval is for the entire sequence despite the rich palaeoclimate and palaeoecological

113 value of the Diss sediment record (Peglar et al., 1984, 1989; Peglar, 1993a, 1993b; Bailey,
114 2005). Our main goal in this paper is to generate the most precise and accurate chronology
115 possible, which provides the basis for developing the Diss Mere proxy archive at decadal to
116 annual scales. This study presents new data from a coring campaign in 2016 and reports the
117 first varve chronology from the British Isles, which covers most of the Holocene period. This
118 focusses on chronological information from varve counts, radiocarbon dates and cryptotephra
119 horizons along the 5 m long section of continuously, annually-laminated sediments from Diss
120 Mere.

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122 **2. Regional settings**

123 Diss Mere (52° 22'N, 1° 6'E, 29 m a.s.l.) is a small oval lake (area of 3.4 ha) located in the
124 town of Diss, central East Anglia (England) (Fig. 1a, b). The mere is a eutrophic lake, has a
125 small catchment area (1.5 km²), without surface inflows and outflows, and a maximum water
126 depth of 6 m. The lake is situated in the River Waveney valley, which was formed during the
127 melting of the Anglian Ice sheet (MIS 12), and the basin is superimposed in places upon the
128 pre-glacial Bytham River valley (Rose, 1994), that is itself cut into the Chalk bedrock and
129 extends, in the region of Diss down to ca 5 m a.s.l.(Lee et al., 2020). The area is mapped as
130 chalky till (Bennett, 1983), which forms a slope to the north and the remainder of the
131 hydrological catchment is encircled by river floodplain and terrace deposits (Wilcox and
132 Stanczszyn, 1983) associated with the River Waveney (Bailey, 2005). Drainage is poor
133 resulting in calcareous groundwater gley soils. The origin of the Mere is unclear, but a possible
134 explanation is related to thermokarst processes during the Younger Dryas (West, 1991). The
135 high water-level in East Anglia during the Late Devensian (West, 1991) combined with a cold
136 climate could have triggered the solution of the Chalk bedrock and led to the formation of the
137 depression. This hypothesis is supported by a 25 m deep borehole at the edge of the mere
138 that shows Lateglacial sediments in the basal 5 m of the sediment sequence. However, the

139 full thickness of basin infill is unknown, and it is possible that Diss Mere may have formed any
140 time since the Anglian cold stage (Bailey, 2005).

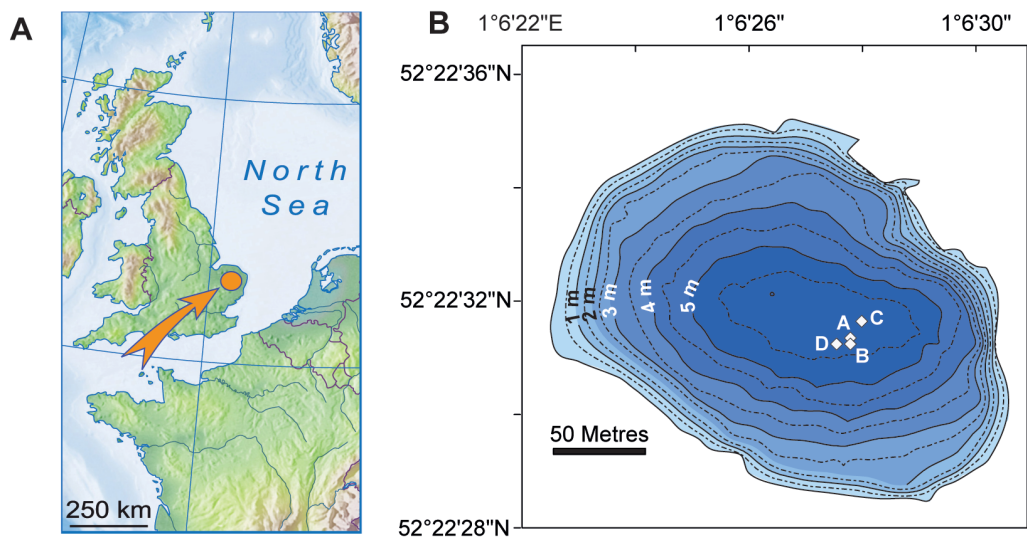


Figure 1. Physical setting of Diss Mere. **(A)** Geographical location of Diss Mere. **(B)** Bathymetry of the lake and coring sites: DISS16-A, 52° 22.523' N, 1° 06.463' E, 5.9 m water depth; DISS16-B, 52° 22.521' N, 1° 06.463' E, 5.9 m water depth; DISS16-C, 52° 22.527' N, 1° 06.466' E, 5.8 m water depth; DISS16-D, 52° 22.521' N, 1° 06.460' E, 5.7 m water depth

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142 3. Previous models of varve formation at Diss Mere

143 Peglar et al. (1984) identified finely laminated sediments deposited between 9 and 12 m of
144 sediment depth, which were interpreted as varves. These varves are composed of two sub-
145 layers, a pale layer made of calcium carbonate and a dark lamina rich in organic material and
146 sand-sized silica grains. Diatom and chrysophyceae cyst compositions as well as the pollen
147 assemblage was described in detail for fourteen individual pale and dark laminae at 10.85 m
148 of sediment depth. Sediments are rich in diatoms with *Lindavia comta* (Kützing) (Nakov et al.,
149 2015) (previously *Cyclotella comta*) varying between 63-99% of the total diatom assemblage
150 in both the pale and the dark layers. This suggests either *L. comta* having blooms in discrete
151 periods associated with the formation of the pale and dark layers, or a single bloom of sufficient
152 duration that is present in both layers (Peglar et al., 1984). Chrysophyceae cysts are, however,
153 more abundant in the dark layers than in the pale layers suggesting that the formation of the
154 dark laminae starts in late summer and autumn, when the cysts are commonly produced
155 (Tippett, 1964). The pollen composition of the pale (*Tilia* and *gramineae*) and dark (*Corylus*,

156 *Alnus*, *Ulmus* and *Taxus*) layers show a clear pattern of the phenological season
157 distinguishing between plants flowering from May to July and in early spring, respectively. The
158 combination of pollen and chrysophyceae cyst information reveal that the pale (calcite) layer
159 represents lake deposition in late spring and summer (May – July), while the dark (organic)
160 layer indicates accumulation from late summer to late spring (August – April) (Peglar et al.,
161 1984).

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163 **4. Methods**

164 4.1. Coring and sampling

165 Four parallel sediment cores were obtained in September 2016 from the deepest part of Diss
166 Mere (Fig. 1b, Fig. 2a), using a 90 mm diameter UWITEC piston corer (DISS16-A, B, C and
167 D). Additionally, two gravity cores of 1 m length (DISS16-1S and 2S) were collected from the
168 same area in order to record the present sediments at the sediment-water interface. The
169 maximum distance between cores is 5 m. Core DISS16-A (15.2 m of length) is composed of
170 eight continuous core sections of ca 2 m length and core DISS16-B (13.28 m of length) is
171 made of seven continuous core sections of ca 2 m. Core A was recovered from the
172 water/sediment interface whereas core B starts 100 cm below core A to create an overlap.
173 Cores DISS16-C (7.72 m of length, 4 cores sections of 2 m long) and DISS16-D (5.81 m of
174 length, 3 core sections of 2 m long) start at 6 m and 7 m of sediment depth, respectively.
175 These cores provide two additional parallel sequences of the varved sediment (Fig. 2a). One
176 half of the cores was sub-sampled for sedimentology, cryptotephra investigation and terrestrial
177 macrofossils sampling for radiocarbon dating. The cores were correlated using a total of 67
178 macroscopically visible marker layers and the best-preserved sections were combined to
179 construct the continuous composite profile DISS-16 of 14.5 m length (Fig. 2b).

180 4.2. Varve counting

181 Samples for thin sections were taken from the four piston cores along the finely-laminated
182 sequence (8.88 – 13.15 m of sediment depth). Fresh sediment blocks (10 × 2 × 1 cm) were

183 extracted from the open, split core surface with 2 cm overlaps to enable continuous
184 microfacies analysis, including correlation of marker layers. Thin sections were prepared
185 according to a standard procedure including freeze-drying and impregnation with epoxy resin
186 (Brauer and Casanova, 2001). Detailed microfacies analysis, varve counting, and varve
187 thickness measurements were performed on the petrographic thin sections using a Leica
188 (M205C) stereo-zoom petrological microscope with plane- and cross-polarised light, at 80x.
189 A total of 129 microscopic marker layers were identified in thin sections along the ca 4.2 m
190 long sequence of finely laminated sediments, which were used as tie-points for thin section
191 correlation on a varve-to-varve basis. Varve counting was developed following different steps.
192 First, an overview count of varve numbers between marker layers on the four sediment cores
193 by one counter was carried out. This allowed detection of local disturbances and assigning a
194 varve quality index (VQI) ranging from 4 to 0 (4 = outstanding varve preservation, 3 = good
195 preservation, 2 = preserved varves with changing thickness along the thin section, 1= poor
196 varve preservation, 0 = not laminated sediments). This helped to identify the best-preserved
197 sequences for varve counts and improve the composite profile DISS-16. More precise
198 counting based on thickness measurements for each seasonal layer along the 57 thin sections
199 of the varved composite profile was undertaken by three different counters. A total of four
200 replicate varve-count records were selected to calculate varve count uncertainties (standard
201 deviation and maximum and minimum deviation from the master count record).

202 4.3. Tephra investigation

203 Preliminary investigations through the varved section of the record used contiguous 10 cm
204 'rangefinder' scan samples to ascertain the presence of tephra. Where tephra was identified,
205 higher resolution (1 - 0.5 cm) contiguous samples were analysed to refine the stratigraphic
206 shard profile. All samples were combusted at 550 °C to remove organic matter. Residue
207 material was treated with 10% hydrochloric acid to dissolve calcium carbonate and sieved
208 through 125 and 15 µm mesh. The resulting 125-15 µm fraction was processed for tephra
209 analyses following the method outlined in Blockley et al. (2005) with some minor modifications.
210 To suit the carbonate-rich nature of the sediments, the material was treated with two cleaning

211 floats of sodium polytungstate (4 ml, density of 2.2 g cm⁻³) and two extraction floats (4 ml,
212 density of 2.55 g cm⁻³). The extraction float material was mounted in Canada balsam before
213 optical examination at both 100 x - and 400 x to quantify concentrations as the number of
214 shards per gram of sediment dry weight (Blockley et al., 2005; Timms et al., 2017). Glass-
215 shard major element geochemical analyses were conducted on carbon-coated stubs at the
216 WDS-EPMA (Cameca SX-100) microprobe facility in Edinburgh. The operating conditions for
217 this system used a 3 µm beam size and at 15 keV voltage the following beam currents were
218 employed: 0.5 nA for Al, Na; 2 nA for Mg, Si, K, Ca, Fe and 60 nA for P and Ti (Hayward,
219 2012). Appropriate internal standards (Lipari and BCR-2G) were analysed to ensure
220 calibration of the microprobe and assess for accuracy and drift.

221 4.4 Radiocarbon dating and Bayesian age modelling

222 Radiocarbon dating of the Diss Mere sediments have not been done previously (Peglar et al.,
223 1989; Bailey, 2005). The calcareous nature of the Diss Mere sediments makes the dating of
224 bulk samples unsuitable for radiocarbon dating and good-quality terrestrial macrofossils are
225 scarce. Nonetheless, a total of six samples of terrestrial plant macrofossils from the laminated
226 sequences of the new cores DISS16-A, DISS16-B, DISS16-C and DISS16-D were found and
227 analysed by AMS for ¹⁴C dating at Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre
228 (SUERC) (Table 1). The radiocarbon dates were calibrated with OxCal v4.4.2 (Bronk Ramsey,
229 2017) using the IntCal20 atmospheric curve (Reimer et al., 2020). Where calendar – year
230 tephra ages of the correlative tephra layers have not been updated since 2020, the original
231 radiocarbon dates have been recalibrated and an age model has been developed using a *P*
232 *Sequence* deposition model in Oxcal v4.4.2 with a variable K factor (Bronk Ramsey, 2009,
233 2008; Ramsey and Lee, 2013) (Supplementary information).

234 Two different deposition models were developed following the approaches outlined in Bronk
235 Ramsey (2008) and Blockley et al. (2008). Both used the selected radiocarbon dates (Table
236 1) and calendar tephra ages, and the relative varve age between these fixed points as z values
237 within the model, but with slightly different assumptions about the rigidity with which to
238 constrain the varve years between fixed points. The most constrained model used a

239 *U_Sequence* deposition model that assumed there was a uniform rate of deposition of varves
240 between fixed points. The second model that we applied was a *P_Sequence* age model with
241 a fixed K value (0.5 in this case), which allows slightly more variability in the rate of varve
242 deposition but is more rigid than would be the case if a variable K factor was applied. In both
243 models Bayesian outlier detection was applied using the 'general model' at 95% confidence.
244 The 0.5 K value was selected to allow maximum rigidity while not down-weighting any
245 proportion of the dates as outliers.

246

247 **5. Results**

248 5.1. Sedimentology and microfacies analyses

249 New high-quality sediment cores cover the first 15 m of the sediment record of Diss Mere. The
250 basal 2 m are composed of calcareous silt and sand with carbonate concretions, shell
251 fragments and pebble-sized clasts derived from the surrounding diamicton. This unit proved
252 to be impenetrable with this coring system and therefore this was the maximum depth
253 achieved. Three major sediment units are identified in the core material and are broadly
254 comparable to that reported by Peglar et al. (1989). These units are: Unit 1 (0 – 8.90 m)
255 composed of organic-rich mud (lake-gyttja) with intermittent parallel micrite carbonate laminae
256 horizons prevalent at irregular intervals (1 – 2.45 m; 3.72 – 5.48 m; 6.32 – 7 m); Unit 2 (8.90
257 – 13.15 m) is made of finely-laminated sediments with some cm-scale dark greenish massive
258 deposits intercalated. Unit 3 (13.15 – 15 m) is the basal 2 m described above (Fig. 2). The
259 length of the continuous finely laminated sequences (4.27 m) is longer in the composite profile
260 DISS-16 than previously reported by Peglar et al. (1989) and Bailey (2005). It should be noted
261 that Bailey (2005) reports two varved sequences, lithozone B (13.78 – 14.82 m) and lithozone
262 E (9.09 – 11.78 m), which are included in Unit 2 of the DISS-16 stratigraphy through the
263 comparison of core photos. The visual clarity or varve quality and the thickness of the massive
264 deposits is variable between cores (Fig. 2c) that might explain the lack of varve identification
265 by Bailey (2005) between 11.78 and 13.78 m. For example, Bailey (2005) identifies a
266 lithozone C as a 1.27 m-thick peat deposit; we found the same peat deposit in core

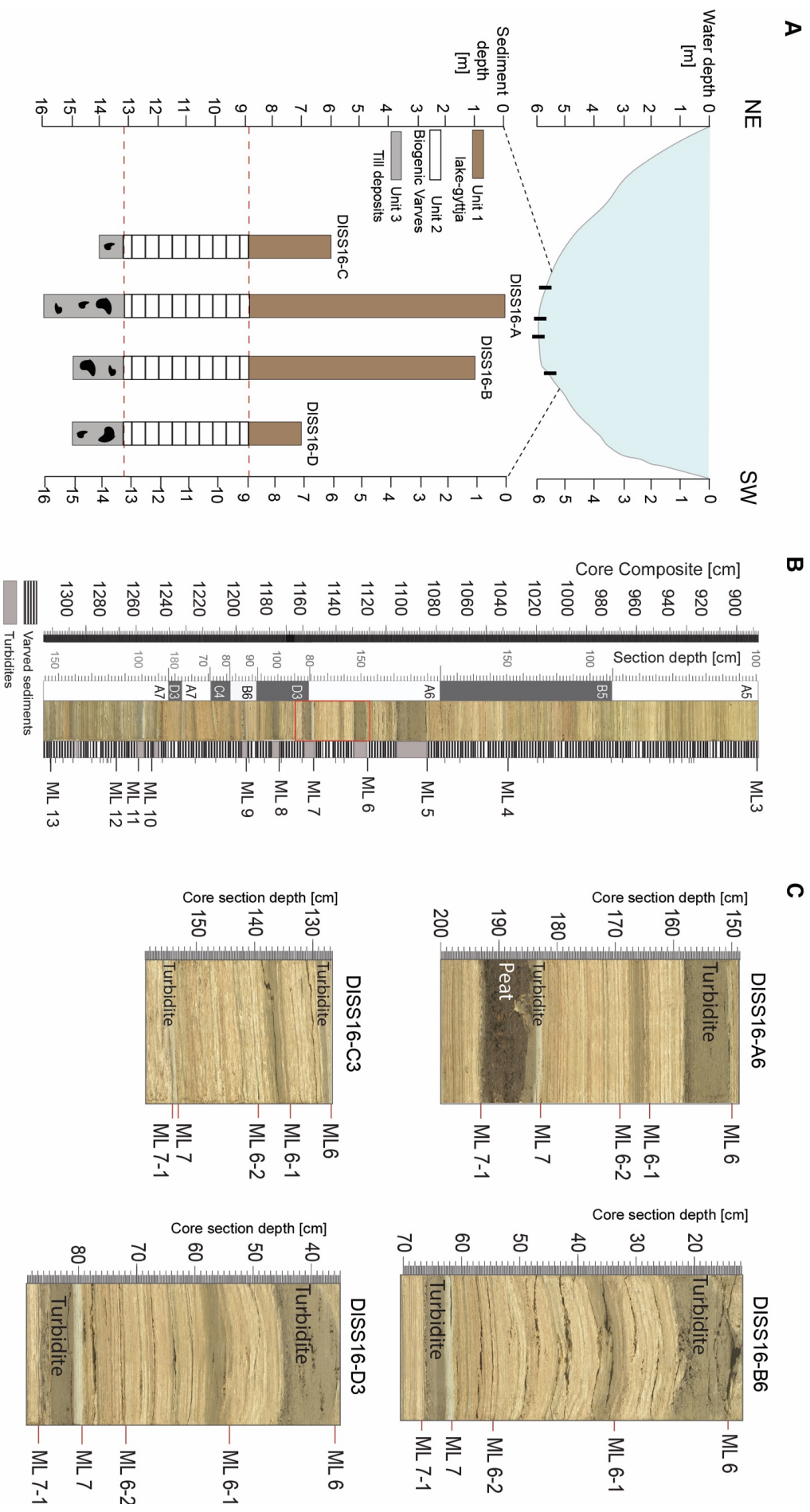


Figure 2. Diss Mere stratigraphy. **(A)** Stratigraphic correlation of the Diss Mere cores and sedimentary units. Cores are shown in a NE-SW section through the lake. **(B)** Core photo and stratigraphy of the DISS-16 composite profile showing the varved sequence of the record. Marker layers used for core correlation are shown. **(C)** Core photos of a min-section (11.22 – 11.6 m) of the sediment record in the four different cores. Macroscopically visible marker layers (ML6 to ML 7-1) used for core correlation are shown.

268 DISS16-A but it is only 10-cm thick (between marker layer ML 7 and ML 7-1, Fig. 2c) and is
269 not present in the other cores. Fortunately, the combination of our four parallel cores into a
270 composite profile has allowed the identification of a continuous laminated sequence of 4.2 m
271 in length (unit 2, Fig. 2b). The transition between unit 3 and 2 is sharp, however there are
272 slumps that show distorted laminated sediments at the top of unit 3 that might indicate
273 lamination preservation earlier in the lake's history. The transition between unit 2 and unit 1 is
274 diffuse and the lamination fades out over the last four laminae. This could suggest a change
275 in the lake system from meromictic to monomictic (present) conditions caused by the infilling
276 and therefore shallowing of the lake (Boehrer and Schultze, 2008).

277 Microfacies analyses of the laminated sediments confirm the presence of varves (pale-dark
278 couplets) along the whole Unit 2 (Fig. 3) that are comparable to the model proposed by Peglar
279 et al. (1984). We have also identified three different varve microfacies that reflect interannual
280 variability in the varve composition (Fig. 3a). Microfacies 1 consists of a pale layer made of
281 authigenic calcite crystals and diatom frustules, and a dark layer composed of, primarily,
282 planktonic centric diatoms and filaments of organic matter (Microfacies 1a). Occasionally, an
283 additional layer made of unstructured organic matter only occurs following the dark layer
284 (Microfacies 1b). Microfacies 2 is similar to microfacies 1 but includes a mono-specific diatom
285 bloom layer preceding the calcite layer. Microfacies 3 are varves with an occasional very thin
286 calcite layer and mono-specific diatom blooms in spring and autumn. While the composition
287 of diatom species varies across the varved section, the two blooms can be distinguished
288 because the size of the diatoms in the spring blooms are smaller than the diatoms in the
289 autumn bloom. The size of the authigenic calcite crystals in microfacies 1 and microfacies 2
290 also shows interannual variability. The two types of calcite layers are described as follows: a
291 calcite lamina composed of micritic calcite crystals ($< 4 \mu\text{m}$; Bailey, 2005) (Fig. 3b) and a
292 calcite layer with coarser crystal at the bottom with the size of the crystals decreasing upward
293 through the lamina ($62 - 5 \mu\text{m}$; Bailey, 2005) (Fig. 3b). The occurrence of one type of calcite
294 layer or another is quite random along the whole record and we have not found a clear
295 relationship to specific microfacies.

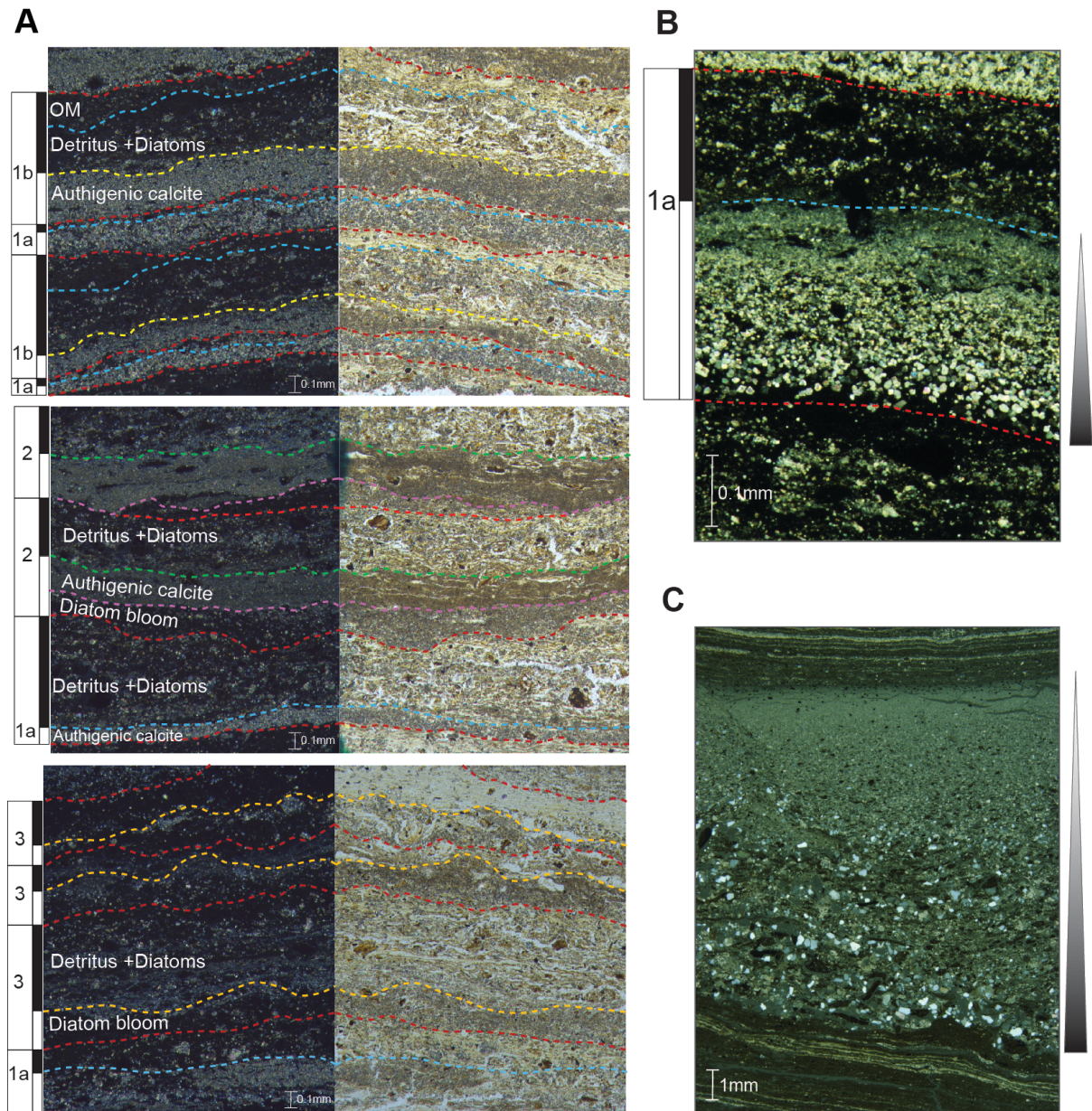


Figure 3. A. Microscope images of the varved sediments showing the pale (calcite) - dark (diatoms and organic matter) couplet, normal light (left) and polarised light (right). **(B)** Microscope image of a varve showing the gradual decrease of the calcite grains within the pale layer. **(C)** Microscope image of a lake turbidite deposited in the varved sediments (ML 12-7).

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297 The varve sequence is occasionally interrupted by a total of 31 massive deposits (0.5 mm -
 298 200 mm thick) between 10.35 and 13.15 m. These deposits are graded layers composed of
 299 quartz grains in a matrix of calcite mud with sharp contacts to the succeeding varve (Fig. 3c).
 300 These sediments are interpreted as lake turbidites, either from high discharge events or
 301 sediment instability at the sub-aerial margins. Inter-core comparison of these deposits

302 suggests that the thickness of the lake turbidites is variable over short distances (e.g Fig. 2c),
 303 but varve thickness measurements are consistent between cores.
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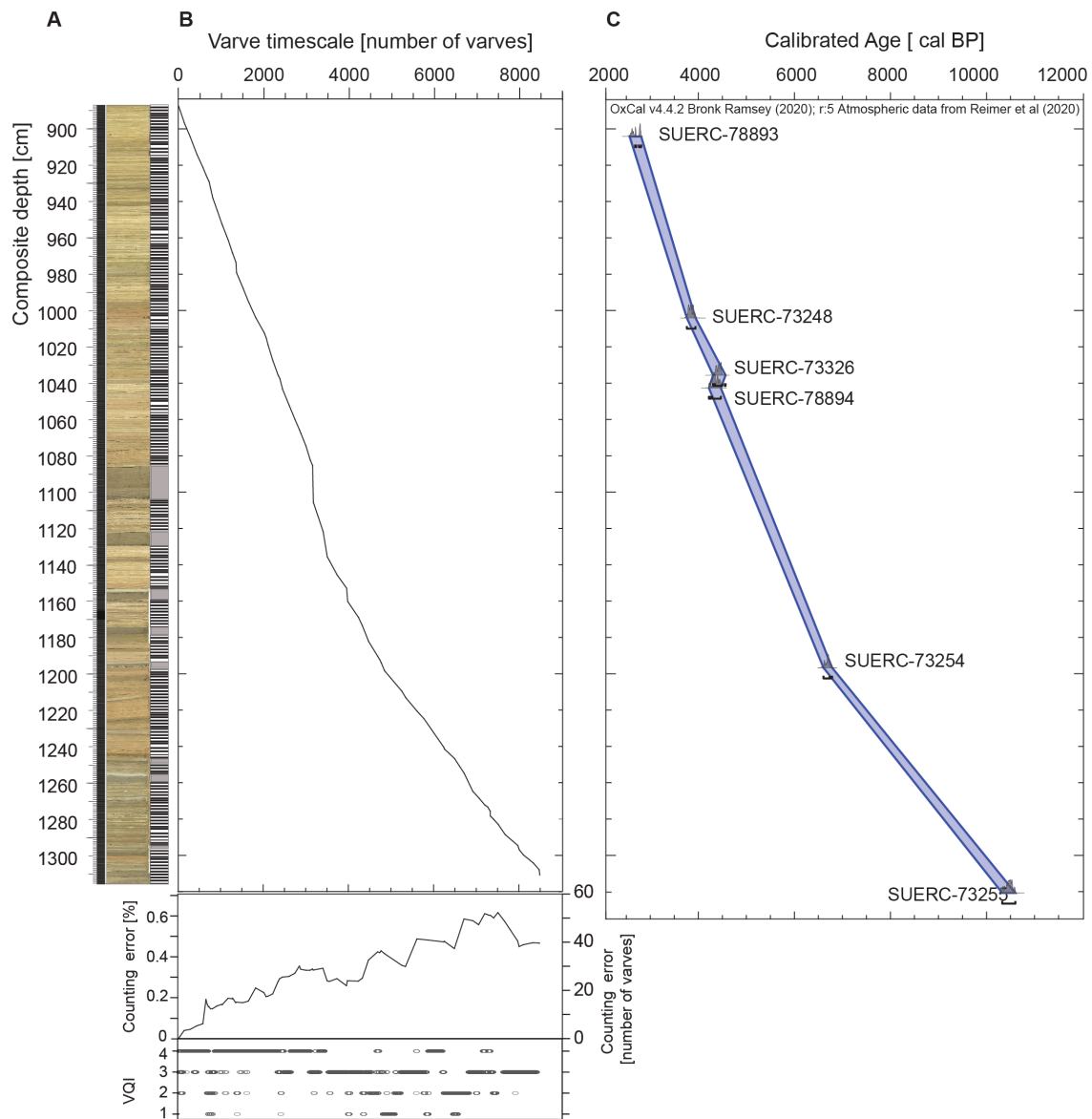


Figure 4. Diss Mere varve chronology. **(A)** DISS-16 composite profile. **(B)** Varve chronology: the black line is the master varve count record with the associated counting error in orange; below, the cumulative counting error (2σ standard deviation) is shown as both percentage and number of varves; Varve Quality Index (VQI) ranging the varve preservation from 4 (very well preservation) to 1 (poor preservation). **(C)** Radiocarbon age-depth model for Diss Mere; depth model output for the dates listed in Table 1 (P_Sequence, where z is defined as sediment depth; OxCal v4.4.2, Bronk Ramsey, 2008; r:5 Atmospheric data from Reimer et al. 2020). In grey, the likelihood distribution for the single calibrated dates. In blue, the 95.4% highest probability density range plotted as an age-depth model.

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309 **Table 1.** Radiocarbon dates. List of the terrestrial macrofossils dated with the AMS radiocarbon method. The
 310 calibrated dates were calculated according to the IntCal20 curve (Reimer et al., 2020).

Lab code	Material	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ relative to VPDB (‰)	Composite Depth (cm)	Radiocarbon BP	Age	Calibrated BP	date
SUERC-78893 (GU47750)	Bud and Wood	-28.3	904.6	2538 ± 24		2621 ± 121	
SUERC-73248 (GU43847)*	Fruit	-24.1	1004.5	3519 ± 29		3788 ± 89	
SUERC-73326 (GU43848R)*	Acorn	-24.4	1036	3927 ± 29		4376 ± 129	
SUERC-78894 (GU47751)*	Wood	-27	1043	3863 ± 24		4282 ± 124	
SUERC-73254 (GU43850)*	Fruit	-25.2	1197	5826 ± 24		6644 ± 90	
SUERC-73255 (GU43852)*	Seeds, leaves	-25	1321	9262 ± 34		10429 ± 137	

311 *Selected dates for Bayesian age modelling

312

313 5.2. Varve chronology

314 A total of 8473 varves have been counted downcore along 427 cm in the composite profile
 315 DISS-16, 888 – 1315 cm (Fig. 4a, b). The average VQI is 3.13, which indicates that the varves
 316 are well-preserved along the study interval (Fig. 4b). In sections where VQI is 1 (Fig. 4b), 976
 317 of the 8473 varves were counted but varve thickness was not measured. Microfacies
 318 observations show that these intervals correspond to laminated sediments (microfacies 3) with
 319 an average varve thickness of 0.125 mm. The thin varves and the absence of the pale lamina
 320 precluded a precise varve counting within these intervals. Despite this varve interpolation, the
 321 varve chronology has varve counting errors below 0.62 % (Fig. 4b). The sedimentation rates
 322 within the study interval are rather uniform with an average varve thickness of 0.425 mm.
 323 There are, however, a few abrupt but not significant changes in the sedimentation rate, which
 324 are linked to the deposition of thick lake turbidite layers up to a cm scale (Fig. 2b, c, 3c).
 325 The AMS¹⁴C dates were initially compared to the varve chronology. Radiocarbon dating of the
 326 Diss Mere sediments places the varved sequence between ca 2500 and 10,500 cal BP,
 327 covering much of the Holocene period (Fig. 4c).

328

329 5.3. Tephrochronology

330 The results of cryptotephra investigations throughout the varved record of Diss Mere show
 331 two discrete tephra layers at the top of the sequence corresponding to known volcanic

332 eruptions in the Late Holocene (Fig. 4d), which can be used as stratigraphic isochrones to
333 validate the varve chronology.

334 *DISS16_T888.5, Glen Garry tephra (888.3 – 888.8 cm)*

335 A peak of this tephra layer was found in a 0.5 cm interval at the composite depth of 888.5 cm.

336 This layer is predominantly comprised of colourless, cusped, fluted and open vesicular glass

337 shards (4,035 shards g⁻¹). A few intermediate, blocky glass shards were encountered (63

338 shards g⁻¹) (Fig. 4d). Thirteen geochemical analyses classify this tephra layer as a sub-alkali

339 rhyolite. The geochemical characteristics of this layer suggest a correlation to the Glen Garry

340 (GGT) with diagnostic potassium, calcium, magnesium and iron contents which distinguish it

341 from other silicic tephra of this provisional time interval (Dugmore et al., 1995) (Fig. 5, Table

342 S.1). First detected in peat deposits in central Scotland (Dugmore et al., 1995), the GGT is

343 widely reported from sites in northern Britain (Pilcher and Hall, 1996; Barber et al., 2008). In

344 northern Germany, van den Bogaard and Schmincke (2002) attribute the DOM-5 tephra,

345 which has been identified within a series of peat deposits to the GGT, and Wulf et al. (2016)

346 report the tephra within the annually-laminated (varved) sediment section of Lake Tiefer See.

347 An age of 2170 ± 110 cal BP for this tephra horizon has been derived from the varve-based

348 chronology by Dräger et al. (2017). The volcanic source of the GGT is uncertain, however,

349 (Gudmundsdóttir et al., 2016) have recently deemed it indistinguishable from a rhyolitic tephra

350 associated with the A~2000 eruption of the Askja volcano and identified in two sites around

351 the Vatnajökull ice cap in Iceland (Óladóttir et al., 2011).

352 *DISS16_T921.5, OMH-185 tephra (921.3-921.8 cm)*

353 This discrete tephra layer was confined within 0.5 cm at a composite depth of 921.5 cm (Fig.

354 4d). The dense, colourless glass shards encountered at this layer were typically cusped with

355 large, open, rounded vesicles (1,742 shards g⁻¹) and a defining feature of many is the presence

356 of microlitic inclusions. Small quantities of intermediate, blocky glass shards were also

357 identified (33 shards g⁻¹) (Fig. 4d). According to fifteen geochemical analyses shown in Figure

358 6 and Table S.1, the layer can be classified as a sub-alkali rhyolite and is correlated with the

359 OMH-185 ('Barnsmore') tephra layer (Hall and Pilcher, 2002). The OMH-185 has been

360 identified in peat profiles within Ireland where it has been dated to 755–680 cal BC (2705–
 361 2630 cal. BP) (Plunkett et al., 2004) and in south-west Britain at Roman Lode, Devon
 362 (Matthews, 2008). In Scotland, the tephra layer has been recognised as the BGMT-3
 363 (Langdon and Barber, 2001) whilst in Germany it has been termed the DOM-6 microlite (van
 364 den Bogaard and Schmincke, 2002). Plunkett and Pilcher (2018) highlight a reported
 365 compositional match to a rhyolitic tephra termed the SAU-65, which is thought to have been
 366 produced by an unidentified source beneath the Vatnajökull ice cap in Iceland (Larsen and
 367 Eiríksson, 2008).

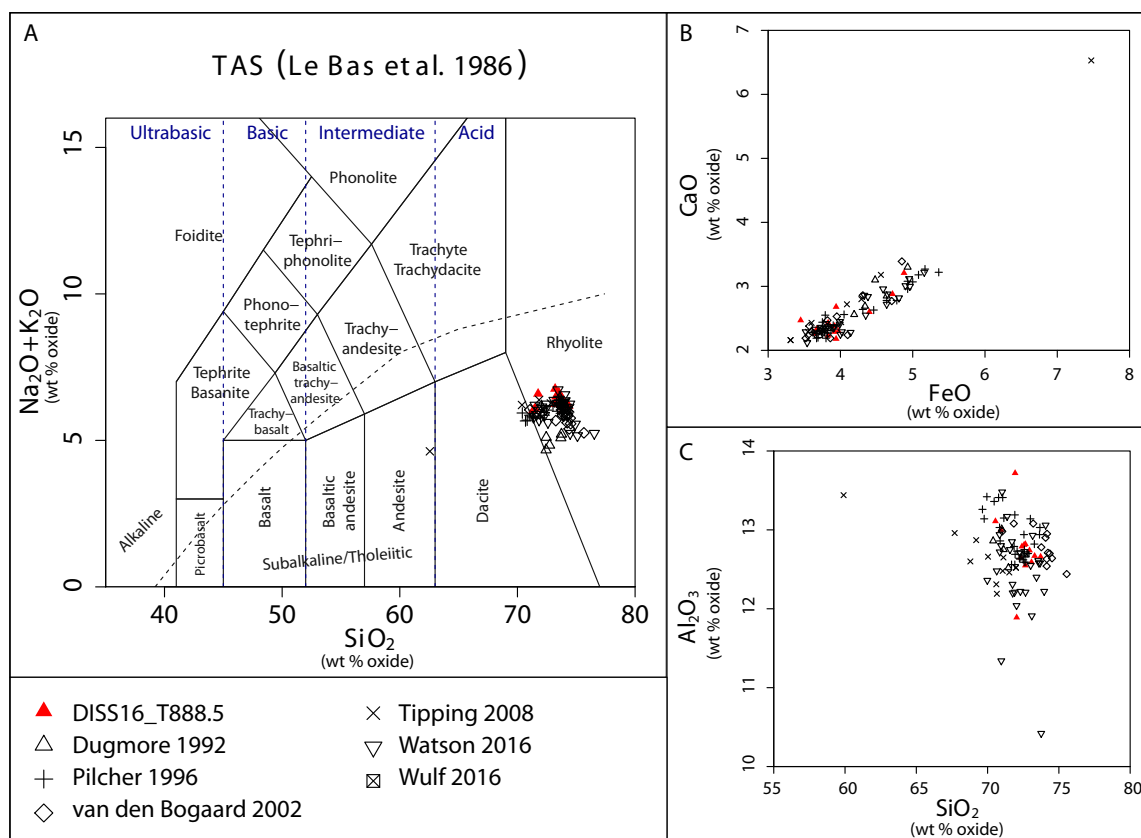


Figure 5. Chemical bi-plots of EPMA-derived major element chemical data from DISS16_T888.5 data are plotted as non-normalised wt% oxides with a cut off of 95% analytical total, see supplementary information for all data. These are compared against reference data from the RESET database (<http://c14.arch.ox.ac.uk/reset/>) and Tephabase (www.tephrabase.org) (Newton et al., 2007). (A) Total alkali versus silica (TAS) classification (Le Bas et al., 1986). (B) FeO vs CaO. (C) SiO_2 vs Al_2O_3 .

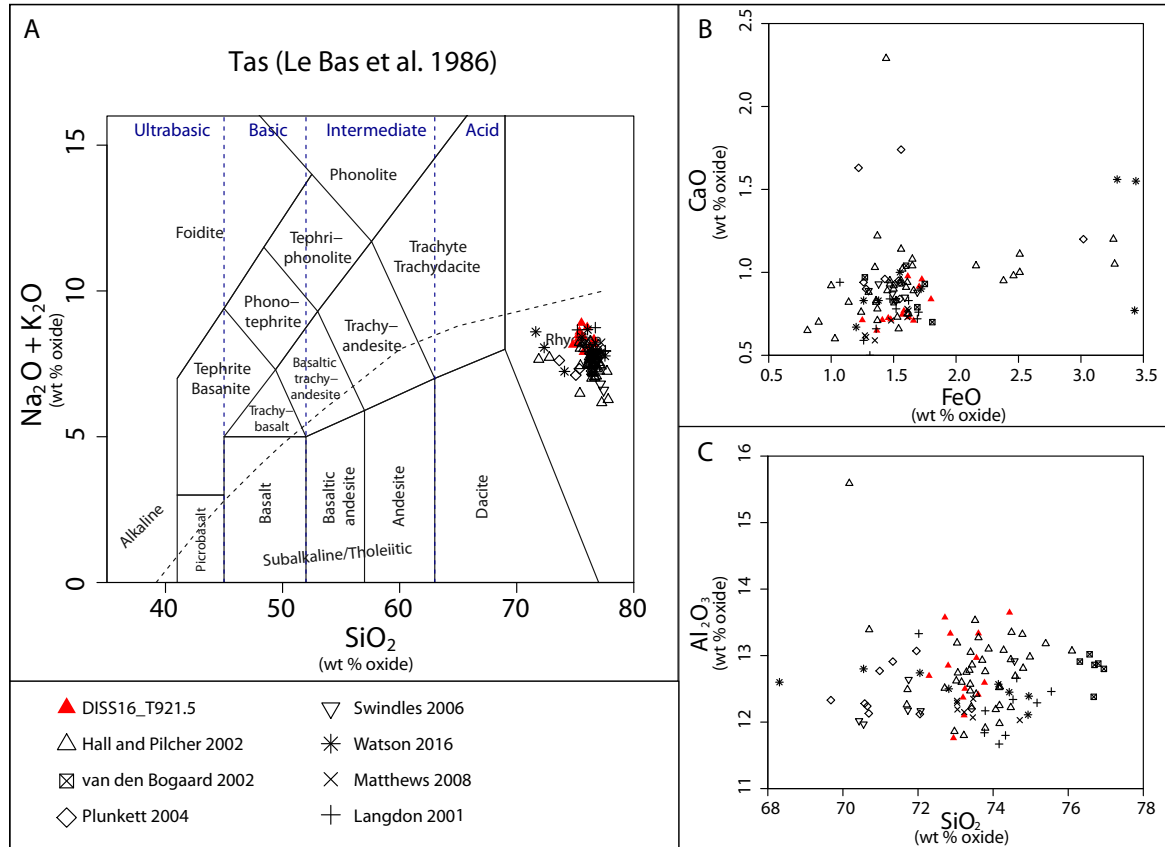


Figure 6. Chemical bi-plots of EPMA-derived major element chemical data from DISS16_T921.5 data are plotted as non-normalised wt% oxides with a cut off of 95% analytical total, see supplementary information for all data. These are compared against reference data from the RESET database (<http://c14.arch.ox.ac.uk/reset/>) and Tephabase (www.tephrabase.org) (Newton et al., 2007). (A) Total alkali versus silica (TAS) classification (Le Bas et al., 1986). (B) FeO vs CaO. (C) SiO₂ vs Al₂O₃.

369 **5.5. Bayesian age modelling: integration of different dating methods**

370 The six radiocarbon dates from the varve section of Diss Mere were combined with dating
 371 information from the two identified tephra layers. For the Glen Garry tephra radiocarbon ages
 372 associated with this tephra are reported in Barber et al. (2008), with a Bayesian wiggle match
 373 age from the BPEAT software of 2174 cal BP (with a range of 224 years, 2210-1966 cal BP
 374 at 95%), using the IntCal04 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2004). Recently, as mentioned
 375 earlier, the age for the Glen Garry has been refined by its identification in varved Tiefer See
 376 in northern Germany to 2170 ± 110 cal BP (Dräger et al., 2017). For the OMH-185 tephra the
 377 age was again based on a wiggle match estimate, in this case through a sequence of
 378 radiocarbon dates from Irish peat deposits as Glen West, county Fermanagh (Plunket et al.,
 379 2004). At Glen West the OMH-185 was part of a suite of tephra constrained by five radiocarbon
 380 dates. The radiocarbon ages were wiggle matched to the IntCal98 calibration curve using a

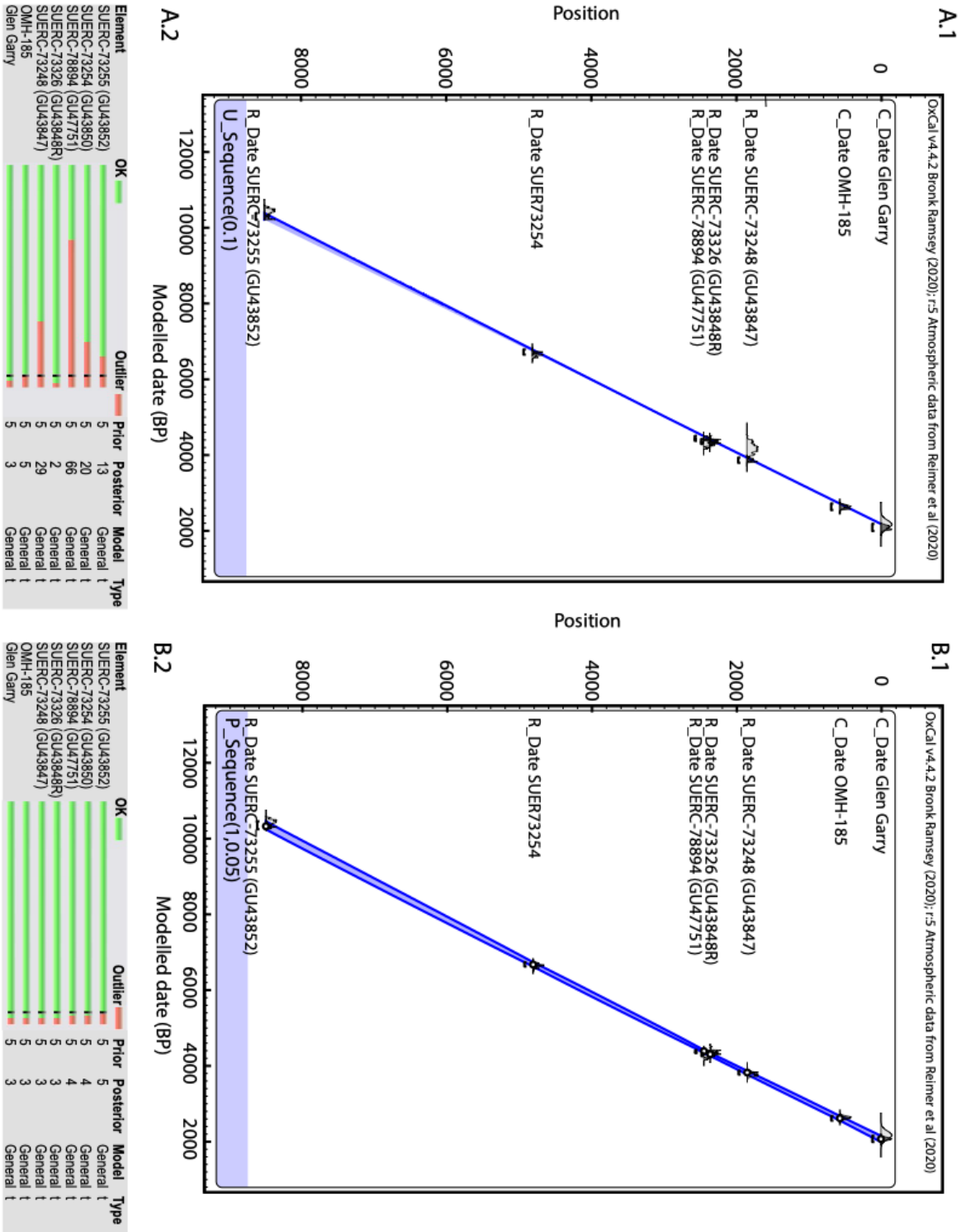


Figure 7. Bayesian age-depth models for Diss Mere: A.1 is a *U_Sequence* deposition model and A.2 shows outlier model results; B.1 is a *P_Sequence* deposition model and B.2. shows outlier model results using OxCal 4.3 (Bronk-Ramsey, 2008). For details of the model construction see text.

382 variable or *V-Sequence* age model, with the age spacing between dates being based on a
383 linear regression through the mid-point of the calibrated age ranges. In order to develop an
384 IntCal20 age for the OMH-185 tephra the original radiocarbon dates have been recalibrated,
385 yielding an updated age for this tephra of 2651 ± 27 cal. BP (Supplementary information).

386 In order to combine the radiocarbon dates and the calendar ages for the tephra two slightly
387 different age modelling experiments were attempted, based on approaches derived from
388 Bayesian deposition modelling of other varved sequences (Bronk Ramsey, 2008; Blockley et
389 al., 2008; Lane et al., 2011). The aim was to find a deposition modelling approach that was
390 sufficiently constrained to reflect the fact that Diss Mere is annually resolved, but at the same
391 time to allow for the uncertainty in anchoring the floating varve chronology to the IntCal20
392 (Reimer et al., 2020) calibration curve. This includes the depositional processes within lakes
393 that mean that there is the potential for missing varves or occasionally disturbed varves that
394 require interpolation. The two Bayesian deposition models for Diss Mere are shown in Figure
395 7 and the full model is available as supplementary information. The topmost radiocarbon date
396 SUERC 78893 was rejected by both models because it is 99% outlying from the deposition
397 models. This date (2621 ± 121 cal BP) is located 17 cm above the tephra layer OMH-185
398 (2651 ± 27 cal. BP). The two time-markers are separated by 312 varve years, which suggests
399 this radiocarbon date might provide older ages than expected. We have, thus, excluded this
400 from the final age-depth model.

401 The *U-Sequence* model (Fig. 7a) with maximum rigidity assumes a linear rate of varve
402 formation between fixed points. This model is very precise, with errors at 95% confidence
403 between 11 and 37 years. However, the model suggests that SUERC 73248 (18%) and 78894
404 (6%) are both partial outliers and has down-weighted both proportionally. As there is no prior
405 reason to assume these dates are suspect it is likely that the model assumptions are slightly
406 too constrained to fully reflect the periods of uncertain varve preservation ($VQI \leq 2$).

407 The *P-Sequence* model (Fig. 7b) with a fixed K value (0.5) is plotted alongside the outlier
408 evaluation. This model is almost as precise as the *U-Sequence* with errors at 95.4%
409 confidence of 16 to 55 years. Crucially this level of chronological precision allows decadal to

410 centennial scale events to be resolved but all of the dates fully contribute to the model and no
411 outliers are detected, except for the radiocarbon date SUERC 78893 mentioned above. The
412 *P_Sequence* model is thus accepted as the best approach for anchoring the floating varve
413 chronology to the calendar - year timescale. The model begins at varve year 8 (the position of
414 the Glen Garry tephra) and runs until the position of the lowest radiocarbon date at 132.1 cm
415 of sediment depth (Fig. 7b). This gives a basal age for the onset of varve formation (131.5 cm
416 of sediment depth) in Diss Mere of $10,290 \pm 55$ cal BP. There is, however, a difference of 252
417 years between the floating varve chronology (8473 ± 41 varves) and the *P_Sequence* model
418 (8221 ± 55 modelled years) that could be explained by overcounted varves. As mentioned
419 above 976 varves (type 3) were estimated in sections where the VQI is 1. The comparison of
420 the two timescales suggests that 252 of these 976 varves may have been overcounted, and
421 demonstrates that the *P_Sequence* model is the most robust chronology for the Diss Mere
422 record.

423

424 **6. Final considerations and Conclusions**

425 The final chronology for the varved sediments of Diss Mere (DISSV-2020) integrates Bayesian
426 age modelling and varve counting for the time period between 2069 ± 39 and $10,290 \pm 55$ cal
427 BP. DISSV-2020 represents the most precise Holocene age model available from annually-
428 resolved lake sediments in the British Isles, and is matched by only a very few records around
429 the world.

430 Given this robust chronology, we presume that further research into the Diss Mere record may
431 have significant implications in the following research areas:

- 432 • Palaeoclimatology. The potential for the Diss Mere record as a high-resolution
433 palaeoclimate archive for the British Isles, in particular, and the North Atlantic region,
434 in general, is enhanced by the location of the Glen Garry (2073 ± 39 cal BP) and the
435 OMH-185, (2617 ± 29 cal BP), which allows cross correlation between records from
436 different geographical locations in Europe during the period around 2.0 – 3.0 cal. ka
437 BP. This is highly significant as this period contains the Homeric climate oscillation (ca.

438 2.75 ka BP), one of the most significant abrupt climate change of the Late Holocene,
439 coinciding with the Homeric grand solar minimum and the radiocarbon calibration
440 Hallstatt plateau (ca. 750 – 400 cal BC) (van Geel et al., 1999), and only a few
441 independently-dated climate records provide evidence to test forcing mechanisms
442 behind this climate change (Martin-Puertas et al., 2012). Moreover, within the period
443 of varved sediments in Diss Mere, there are also Mid- and Early Holocene short-lived
444 climatic fluctuations that have been recognised in lake, peat, ice-core and speleothem
445 records, such as the 4.2, the 8.2, the 9.3 and the 10.3 ka BP climatic fluctuations, with
446 different proposed drivers (e.g. Blockley et al., 2018), and the possibility that some of
447 these events may be blurred by the chronological uncertainty inherent in many records.
448 The DISSV-2020 chronology offers the possibility to examine the expression of these
449 events at very high resolution within Britain, and to explore seasonal changes, as well
450 as shifting environmental responses across the abrupt oscillations.

- 451 • Tephrochronology. The potential for additional tephra layers deposited within the
452 varves will contribute to the development of a Holocene European-wide
453 tephrostratigraphic and tephrochronological framework. For example, the annual
454 resolution of the sediments may allow multiple eruptions from the same or different
455 sources and that occur over short time intervals to be distinguished. In turn this will
456 generate improved precision on the time intervals between eruptions, an approach
457 currently limited to rare examples in the Late Glacial (Lane et al., 2013).
- 458 • Archaeology. The Diss Mere varved sequence has the potential to refine the picture of
459 the interaction between humans and their environment in East Anglia from the
460 Mesolithic onwards. Sub-decadal scale palaeolimnological and palaeoecological
461 studies are key to evaluate and understand the late development of farming and
462 sedentism in Norfolk, the duration of the Bronze Age in this region and human impacts
463 on the landscape into the Late Iron Age (Medlycott, 2011).

464

465

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479

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