

1 **Disentangling the environmental signals recorded in Holocene calcite varves**  
2 **based on modern lake observations and annual sedimentary processes in**  
3 **Diss Mere, England.**

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18 **Key Words**

19 Lake monitoring, Calcite varves, Modern analogue, Lake seasonality, Palaeolimnology.

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26 **Abstract**

27

28 Diss Mere is a small natural lake located in the centre of the town Diss in Norfolk (England).  
29 The lake, which has been exposed to different stressors including climate variability and  
30 changing land use, has significant recreational, historical, and environmental value. The Diss  
31 Mere sediments are annually-laminated for most of the Holocene (2.1 – 10.3 ka BP), which  
32 allows the study of the lake evolution and its response to changing environmental conditions  
33 at an exceptionally high resolution. As with many mid-latitude, alkaline lakes, Diss Mere's  
34 sediments are formed of biogenic-calcite varves. We have conducted a 3.5-year lake  
35 monitoring survey including sediment trapping to identify the main drivers and seasonal  
36 processes contributing to lake sedimentation. Our results demonstrate that the modern lake is  
37 still producing seasonally-differentiated sediments today, however, are unable to be preserved  
38 as varves due to the permanent oxygenation of the lake bottom through gradual lake  
39 shallowing. Seasonal sediment fluxes follow a general pattern of i) an early spring diatom  
40 bloom ii) spring precipitation of medium-coarse calcite grains; iii) summer precipitation of  
41 smaller endogenic calcite grains; and iv) an autumn algal bloom and endogenic calcite  
42 precipitation intermixed with benthic diatoms and micrite. Whilst calcite precipitates  
43 throughout the whole year, peaks are observed in the epilimnion during the summer. This study  
44 shows that a modern analogue approach can be applied to the varves revealing their potential  
45 for environmental and climate reconstruction and highlights the significance of monitoring  
46 surveys for modern analogue approaches to palaeolimnological research.

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## 51 **Introduction**

52

53 Palaeoenvironmental and palaeoclimate research based on annually laminated (varved)  
54 lacustrine and marine records has increased over the last few decades. When well preserved,  
55 varved records can provide robust chronologies and have yielded evidence for past  
56 environments at very high temporal resolutions. Such records have been applied to reconstruct,  
57 for example, the frequency and magnitude of extreme weather events (Czymzik et al. 2016;  
58 Corella et al. 2014), abrupt climate changes (Brauer et al. 2008; Martin-Puertas et al. 2012),  
59 decadal climate variability (Lapointe et al. 2020; 2021), ecological responses to changing  
60 climate (Lücke and Brauer, 2004) and interactions between humans and environments (Dräger  
61 et al. 2017, Sear et al. 2020).

62 Advantages of lacustrine varves as a palaeoenvironmental archive is that they are  
63 globally distributed and preserve high-resolution (seasonal to annual) palaeoenvironmental  
64 information. Palaeoenvironmental proxies require careful interpretation as archives act as  
65 filters between external environmental variables such as climate, and proxies themselves. In  
66 lacustrine settings, this is termed the hydroclimate filter (Cohen et al. 2003). The hydroclimate  
67 filter integrates the physical, chemical, and biological processes in lakes, which control and  
68 modify the climate and environmental signal recorded in the sediments. Thus, the  
69 environmental and climatic interpretation of lacustrine proxies requires both an understanding  
70 of the lake system and its catchment (Sturm and Lotter, 1995), and cross-validation with other  
71 indicators from the same record through a multi-proxy approach. Based on the composition  
72 and structure of laminations, varves are commonly sorted into three types: clastic, organic, and  
73 evaporitic varves, according to conceptual models based on general lake response to  
74 seasonality in different climatic regions; cold, temperate, and (semi) arid climates, respectively  
75 (Zolitschka et al., 2015 and references therein). However, the annual nature of the laminations

76 and the seasonal succession of layers need validation for each individual lake. The most  
77 common practice is microscopic analysis of the laminations to identify seasonally cyclic  
78 events, such as monospecific diatom blooms, layers of authigenic mineral precipitation, or  
79 detrital deposits associated with spring snow melt and increased discharge into the catchment  
80 (Brauer et al., 2004). In lakes where varves are preserved at present, it is possible to compare  
81 sediments deposited at the lake/sediment interface with observational data of the modern  
82 limnology and sediment trapping, providing a deeper understanding of the complex  
83 interactions between the internal lake processes controlling the sediment flux (Tylmann et al.,  
84 2011; Ojala et al., 2013; Żarczyński et al., 2022). This modern analogue approach provides  
85 new insights into varve formation and the calibration of the proxy record from varved  
86 sediments (Trapote et al., 2018; Vegas-Villarrubia et al., 2020; Żarczyński et al., 2022). Special  
87 emphasis has been put on the study of biogenic-calcite varves, the most common varve type  
88 preserved in temperate, alkaline lakes. Although only a few study cases have been published  
89 (Tylmann et al. 2011; Bonk et al. 2015; Kienel et al. 2017; Trapote et al. 2018; Apolinarska et  
90 al. 2020; Roeser et al. 2021; Zander et al. 2021; Żarczyński et al. 2022), they all provide  
91 evidence of a more differentiated view of the classic light calcite/dark organic couplet  
92 reflecting the complexity of the biogeochemical annual lake cycle. This emphasises the need  
93 to better connect varve formation, the annual limnological cycle, and the external  
94 environmental conditions.

95         One example of a biogenic-calcite varved record is Diss Mere, UK. This site holds the  
96 only lake record in the UK published to date that preserves a continuous varved sequence  
97 through most of the Holocene from 2.1 – 10.3 ka BP (Martin-Puertas et al. 2021). From 2.1 ka  
98 BP at 9 m of sediment depth, varves stop preserving and the sediment record experienced a  
99 huge increase in sedimentation rate from 0.4 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> to 5 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> (Martin-Puertas et al. 2021).

100 The end of the varved sequence is diffuse and laminations fade out over the last four varves.

101           The uppermost 9 m of sediments are characterised by massive deposits intercalated by  
102 ~1.5 m-thick deposits of fairly-preserved 0.5 cm-thick laminations at 7-6.3 m, 5.5-3.8 m and  
103 2.4-1 m of sediment depth (Martin-Puertas et al., 2021). The laminations might have an annual  
104 origin according to the sedimentation rate (Yang et al., 2010; Martin-Puertas et al., 2021),  
105 which suggests that the environmental and limnological processes triggering the varve  
106 formation in the past may still be controlling the lake sedimentation today but varve  
107 preservation conditions are unfavourable and changing through time. This study reports the  
108 findings of a 3.5-year lake monitoring survey, including 4 spring-summer, and 3 autumn-winter  
109 seasons in Diss Mere, in an attempt to apply a modern analogue approach to the  
110 palaeolimnological study of this lake. Our main objectives are to: i) describe the annual lake  
111 cycle and identify the environmental processes governing the seasonality of the modern  
112 limnology and sedimentation; ii) confirm whether the seasonal material deposited today  
113 resembles the composition of the varve sub-layers in the past; and iii) discuss factors limiting  
114 varve preservation.

115

116 Study site and sediment accumulation process

117 *Regional settings of the modern lake*

118

119 Diss Mere (52°22'N, 1°6'E, 29 m a.s.l.) is a small freshwater, eutrophic, lake located in the  
120 town of Diss, East Anglia, England (Fig. 1a). The lake has a maximum water depth of 6 m with  
121 a lake surface area of 0.034 km<sup>2</sup> and a catchment of 1.5 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 1b, c). There are no surface  
122 inflows or outflows. The mere is situated in the River Waveney Valley, an area formed of  
123 chalky till. Drainage is poor around the mere which has resulted in waterlogged calcareous  
124 soils. The lake is located 7 km east of a major drainage divide (source of both the River  
125 Waveney and Little Ouse), but the topography does not reveal the current lake to be part of any

126 surface water system and it is unclear how much modern surface drainage enters the lake  
127 (Bailey, 2005). Local groundwater data from the Waveney Catchment is presented in  
128 Supplementary Table 1.

129 East Anglia is characterised by a relative continental climate (Mayes, 2000). The  
130 average climatology records maximum monthly air temperatures in July (17.4 °C) and  
131 minimum temperatures in January of 4.4 °C. Total annual precipitation for this region is 626.9  
132 mm with the wettest and driest months being October (64.6 mm) and March (39.3 mm),  
133 respectively (Fig. 1d).

134

### 135 *The Diss Mere varve models*

136

137 The Diss Mere varves are shown in Figure 2. One varve typically consists of a pale lamina  
138 made of endogenic calcite crystals, and a dark lamina composed of, primarily, chrysophyceae  
139 cysts, planktonic centric diatoms, filaments of organic matter and micrite (Peglar et al. 1984).  
140 Coarse grains of endogenic calcite also occur in these laminae (Fig. 2b). The calcite layer is  
141 made of coarser grains at the bottom and crystal size decreases upwards through the lamina  
142 (Bailey, 2005) (Fig. 2b).

143 Diatom, pollen and chrysophyceae cyst content were described in detail for fourteen  
144 individual pale and dark laminae at 10.85 m of sediment depth (ca. 6 ka BP) to identify the  
145 phenology of biological cycles and help identify the seasonal succession of layers within a  
146 varve (Peglar et al., 1984). The diatom palaeo-community in these sediments is mainly  
147 represented (63-99%) by *Lindavia comta* (Kützing) Nakov et al., (2015). Diatoms occur in both  
148 the pale and dark layers, but with the greatest concentration in the dark-organic layer, alongside  
149 the highest abundance of chrysophyceae cysts. This suggests the formation of the dark lamina  
150 begins in late summer and autumn, when the cysts are commonly produced (Tippett, 1964).

151 The pollen composition of the pale layers is characterised by *Tilia* and Gramineae, whilst  
152 *Corylus*, *Alnus*, *Ulmus* and *Taxus* pollen is found in the dark layer reflecting a pattern of the  
153 phenological season distinguishing between plants flowering from May to July and in early  
154 spring, respectively (Peglar et al., 1984). The combination of pollen and chrysophyceae cyst  
155 observations reveal that the pale calcite layer might represent lake deposition in late spring and  
156 summer (May-July approx.), while the dark organic layer indicates accumulation from late  
157 summer to late spring (August-April approx.) (Peglar et al. 1984).

158 A microscopic sedimentological study of the varve structure through the entire varved  
159 sequence reveals, however, changing varve composition (Fig. 2a) possibly reflecting  
160 interannual variability of limnological processes inducing calcite precipitation and biological  
161 productivity. Three varve types have been recorded in Martin-Puertas et al. (2021). Varve type  
162 1 is the light/dark couplet described above; varve type 2 includes a diatom layer prior to the  
163 light calcite layer; and varve type 3 is a couplet of diatom and organic dark layers with no (or  
164 very thin) calcite layers (Fig. 2c).

165

## 166 **Methods**

### 167 Lake monitoring survey

168 This lake monitoring survey at Diss Mere has been carried out monthly between June 2018 and  
169 November 2021 to study the modern sediments using sediment traps and physicochemical  
170 (temperature, pH, alkalinity, conductivity, dissolved oxygen, major ions) profiles of the lake's  
171 water column.

172

### 173 *Physical and chemical properties*

174

175 The water column physicochemical characteristics were obtained using a Multi 3320  
176 WTW meter equipped with a Tetracon<sup>®</sup> 325 probe for temperature, conductivity, dissolved  
177 oxygen (DO), and pH. Measurements were recorded at 1 m intervals from the lake surface to  
178 lake bottom. At each interval, water samples were collected using a Niskin bottle for further  
179 chemical analyses: alkalinity was measured in situ with a HACH digital titrator model AL-DT;  
180 major cations (Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) and anions (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) were analysed  
181 by ion chromatography with a Metrohm 930 Compact IC Flex equipped with a 919 IC  
182 Autosampler after 0.2 µm filtration. Analysis for cations began in May 2019, and anions in  
183 September 2019. Total reactive phosphates and acid-hydrolysable phosphorous (TP) were  
184 analysed by colorimetry with a Skalar Segmented Flow Analyser following digestion by  
185 Microwave assisted method in potassium persulfate/sulphuric acid mixture (Eaton et al, 1995).

186 Two nKe thermistors were attached to the sediment traps at 1 m and 5.5 m (Fig. 1b).  
187 Temperature was recorded every 10 minutes from June 2018 to June 2021 at 1m, and between  
188 June 2018 and June 2020 at 6m.

189

#### 190 *Sediment analyses*

191 Two sets of PVC sediment traps were placed in the lake with the trap openings at 1m  
192 (epilimnion) and 5 m (hypolimnion) of lake water depth to analyse the sediment flux and  
193 composition (Fig. 1e). Each set of traps contained two PVC tubes each with an active area of  
194 6.3 cm and length of 1 m, and a tap near the base to drain some of the lake water and suspended  
195 material collected during trap retrieval. The traps were emptied at each monitoring campaign  
196 and content, including the remaining lake water, and settled material in the trap, was stored in  
197 plastic bottles at 4 °C prior to analysis for sediment and diatom composition. In the lab, the  
198 content from each trap was homogenised and divided for diatom and chemical analysis.



199 An aliquot of the homogenised sample was filtered at 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$ , dried, and scaled up to  
200 the whole volume of the water in the trap and the total mass flux (TMF:  $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) was calculated  
201 following equation 1.

202 (Equation 1)

$$203 \quad TMF (\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}) = \frac{\text{Dry net weight of sediments (g)}}{\text{Active area (m}^2) \times \text{Time between trap collection (d)}}$$

204

205 Samples for chemical analysis, including organic and inorganic carbon, were filtered  
206 with a 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  GC fibreglass filter using a vacuum pump and then dried. Smear slides and  
207 sediment samples for scanning electron microscope (SEM) analysis were carried out to  
208 characterise the main components of the sediments. Sediment samples were mounted on  
209 aluminium stubs and carbon coated to 6  $\mu\text{m}$  and observed under a Hitachi SU9000 SEM with  
210 backscatter and secondary electron modes. Organic and inorganic carbon were quantified using  
211 a Thermo Electron Corporation Flash EA 112 Series nitrogen and carbon soil analyser with  
212 carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen and sulphur (CHNS) configuration. Amino acid cystine (29.5 %C)  
213 was used as a quality control throughout the analysis, returning an overall SD of 1.94 (%C)  
214 and a bias of 0.35 (%C). For inorganic carbon, the sediment samples were previously treated  
215 with 10% hydrochloric acid overnight to remove the carbonates, they were then rinsed and  
216 dried. As carbonates were removed, the measured C can be considered total organic carbon  
217 (TOC).

218 The calcite saturation index (SI) is used here as an indication of favourable conditions  
219 for calcite to precipitate in the lake water.  $\text{SI} \geq 0$  indicates supersaturation and thus favourable  
220 conditions for precipitation (Roeser et al. 2021).

221 The SI was calculated using Equation 3 (Langmuir, 1971).

222 (Equation 2)

223 
$$SI_{calcite} = \log \frac{[Ca^{2+}] \times [CO_3^{2-}]}{K_c}$$

224

225 Where [] is the activity of the free ion and  $K_c$  is the solubility constant of the calcite at a given  
226 temperature. The activity of the free ions was calculated by the products of the specific activity  
227 coefficients and concentrations. The activity coefficients were obtained using the conductivity  
228 measurements. The carbonate concentration was calculated using the alkalinity, pH and  
229 temperature.

230 To assess the role that phosphates have on the precipitation of calcite in Diss Mere, we  
231 sequentially extracted both apatite (phosphorous bound to calcite) and non-apatite (inorganic)  
232 phosphorous from the sediments. We followed the Williams method with adaptations  
233 recommended by Ruban et al., (1998). Five months were selected from different seasons  
234 (October 2019, February, March, July, and October 2020) from both sediment traps to reveal  
235 seasonal changes through one year.

236 Diatom analysis

237

238 All water samples from the sediment traps were studied for diatom composition. To  
239 concentrate the diatoms, 50 cm<sup>3</sup> of lake water from the traps were first spun down, allowing  
240 ~0.1 g sample to be extracted for analysis. Preparation followed an adapted version of the  
241 digestion procedure of Battarbee et al., (2001), where organics were removed using H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>,  
242 carbonates removed using several drops of 50% HCl, and samples were rinsed at least 4 times,  
243 to neutralise the medium. Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) was added in the final stages to prevent diatoms  
244 clumping. Concentrations were determined with the addition of divinylbenzene (DVB)  
245 microspheres, added following the final rinse (Equation 3). Fluxes were calculated to account  
246 for varying numbers of days between samples being collected. Samples were pipetted onto  
247 cover slips and left to dry before being mounted in Naphrax<sup>TM</sup> mounting resin (refraction index

248 1.73). Samples were examined at 1000 x magnification using a Leica DMBL, and where  
249 possible, a minimum of 300 diatom valves were counted per sample. Identifications were made  
250 following Krammer and Lange-Bertalot (1986; 1991), Lange-Bertalot, (2001), and Krammer  
251 (2002), Fritz (1989) and online resources (<http://craticula.ncl.ac.uk> and <https://diatoms.org>).

252

253 To determine the concentration the following equation was used:

254 (Equation 3)

$$255 \quad \text{Diatom Concentration} = \frac{(\text{Total Microspheres Added} \times \text{Total Diatoms Counted})}{\text{Total Microspheres Counted}}$$

256 Diatom dissolution has been quantified across the samples to produce an  $F$ -index to  
257 estimate the diatom preservation state and the influence of dissolution on the sample and  
258 assemblage (Supplementary Information).

259

260 Meteorological data

261 Meteorological data was obtained from the Tibenham Airfield meteorological station  
262 (13 km from Diss Mere). The data collected includes daily mean values for air temperature  
263 ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and total precipitation (mm).

264

## 265 **Results**

266 Physico-chemical properties of the water column: the annual lake cycle

267

268 Diss Mere is characterised by summer thermal stratification and winter mixing reflecting a  
269 monomictic mixing pattern (Fig. 3a). Surface temperatures ranged between 3–25  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  through  
270 the monitored years with the coldest water (3–5  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) in February and warmest water (>21  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )  
271 in summer (June-August). Water column mixing began to slow in March, and complete  
272 stratification was reached by April (Fig. 3a). Mean surface and bottom waters were 22.7  $^{\circ}\text{C}$

273 and 12.0 °C, respectively during July, where the maximum thermal gradient was reached,  
274 sustaining a thermocline between 2–4 m (Figure 3a). By late August, the thermocline deepened,  
275 and intermittent periods of mixing continued until October, when mixing persisted until the  
276 following spring.

277 The annual lake turnover helps to regulate the chemical composition of the lake, where  
278 the chemical homogenisation of the water column coincides with the onset of lake mixing (Fig.  
279 3). However, the stratification of different chemical parameters (the differences between the  
280 chemical composition of the epi- and hypolimnion) occurred at the same time as the  
281 intermittent and weak temperature gradients in March, occurring one month prior to complete  
282 thermal stratification (Fig. 3). During lake stratification, surface waters had the highest  
283 concentrations of DO ranging between 11 – 15 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in the epilimnion and 0.9 – 2.8 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  
284 in the hypolimnion (Fig. 3b). The oxycline (the depth at which DO = 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) was located  
285 between 4 – 5 m during stratification. The duration of the hypolimnetic hypoxia showed high  
286 interannual variability, within one month in 2019 and 2020 to five months in 2021 (Fig. 3b).

287 Anoxic conditions in the hypolimnion (<1 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, Nürnberg, 1995) were only observed  
288 once in June 2018 (0.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). In the epilimnion, discrete peaks of DO occurred in April and  
289 September (Fig. 3b). The beginning of mixing in October marked the full oxygenation of the  
290 water column, with an increase from October (4 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) to March (13 mg L<sup>-1</sup>).

291 The equilibrium pH for carbonate lake systems at 8.3 (Ito, 2002) was usually reached  
292 in February in Diss Mere, coinciding with the end of the mixing season (Fig. 3c). During  
293 stratification, pH remained high in the epilimnion (pH values ~9) coinciding with peaks in DO  
294 and drops in alkalinity (Fig. 4a). In the hypolimnion, pH remained stable at 7, and increased  
295 slightly towards the end of summer. At lake overturn, pH increased with maxima in  
296 September/October (9.3) and March (8.9) (Fig. 3c). The alkalinity ranged 140 – 194 mg L<sup>-1</sup> as  
297 CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the epilimnion and 153 – 233 mg L<sup>-1</sup> as CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the hypolimnion (Fig. 4a).

298 Conductivity remained mostly consistent through the water column, and across most of the  
299 year (Fig. 3d) with values ranging between  $\sim 600 - 720 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ . Values increased to  $> 800 \mu\text{S}$   
300  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  below 5 m of depth during the stratified season coinciding with the hypoxic layer.

301 The most abundant cation was  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Supplementary Table 2). The vertical distribution  
302 of this ion was not as heterogenous as other dissolved substances in the water column (Fig 3  
303 and 4); however, some variability was observed across the year. Maximum concentrations were  
304 reached in February and March ( $> 65 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) which then decreased until the lowest  
305 concentration ( $55 - 43 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) between June to August (Fig. 4b; Supplementary Table 2). The  
306 concentration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increased gradually during the mixed season.

307 Nutrient concentrations of both dissolved phosphate ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) and total phosphate  
308 decreased in February and March with the complete absence of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  at certain depths in March  
309 2021 (Fig. 4c-d). The highest  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations were in February ( $3.9 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) but were  
310 rapidly depleted by March ( $0.7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ). During stratification  $\text{NO}_3^-$  remained depleted and was  
311 replenished following lake overturn in October with an average of  $1.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (Supplementary  
312 Table 2).

313

#### 314 Deposition of modern sediment components

315

316 Smear slides and SEM images revealed that the main component of the sediments in the traps  
317 was calcite and organic matter remains (Fig. 5, left panel). Calcite grain size varied through the  
318 year with larger grains ( $5 - 15 \mu\text{m}$ ) collected in spring and summer compared to those in  
319 autumn ( $< 5 \mu\text{m}$ ) (Fig. 5c, e). During the autumn-winter samples, *Pediastrum* (green algae)  
320 was the dominant component of the sediments forming a matrix together with fine micrite  
321 calcite crystals (Fig. 5g, h). Some rhombohedral calcite grains ( $< 5 \mu\text{m}$ ) were present and were  
322 typically attached to diatom valves in the autumn and winter samples (Fig. 5h, i).

323 *Total Mass Flux (TMF)*

324

325 Figure 6 displays the changes in both the timing and composition of sediment collected in the  
326 traps, revealing evidence of seasonal and interannual variability. TMF in the epilimnion and  
327 hypolimnion followed the same general pattern, however the amount of material collected at  
328 the hypolimnion was greater (Fig 6a). Increases in TMF occurred in Spring (March–May) when  
329 the lake began to stratify, a higher flux was recorded in the hypolimnion recording a maximum  
330 seasonal flux of  $8.1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in April 2021. A gradual decline in TMF occurred during the  
331 summer until August. The largest flux of sediment was recorded at the point of lake mixing in  
332 September or October (Fig. 6a). The traps in October 2021 collected the highest flux of the  
333 monitoring period ( $22.2 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ).

334 *Organic Matter (OM) flux*

335

336 Clear seasonal differences exist in the amount of OM collected within the traps (Fig. 6b).  
337 During the stratified period OM flux remained stable and low with mean values of  $0.8 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$   
338 <sup>1</sup> in the epilimnion, and  $1.3 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in the hypolimnion. It reached its annual maximum in  
339 September/October following lake overturn, with the highest flux recorded in October 2021  
340 ( $7.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ). Whilst not as substantial as in autumn, there was a secondary flux in spring  
341 reaching maximum values of  $2.0 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and  $2.9 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in the epi- and hypolimnion,  
342 respectively. This seasonal pattern of changes in OM flux was consistent through the monitored  
343 period except for 2018 when OM remained low consistently through the year (Fig. 6b).

344 *Calcite flux*

345

346 Similar to OM, calcite flux also demonstrated a seasonal component to its deposition.  
347 An initial primary flux was recorded with mean values of  $2.4 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  and  $3.3 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in the

348 epi- and hypolimnion, respectively in spring (March–May) (Fig. 6c). Through the summer  
349 months (June–August), calcite flux increased to a maximum of  $6.6 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in July 2020.  
350 Calcite flux decreased towards the end of summer and a further peak occurred following the  
351 demise of thermal stratification at beginning of lake mixing in both the epilimnion ( $3.4 \text{ g m}^{-2}$   
352  $\text{d}^{-1}$ ) and hypolimnion ( $4.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ). Calcite flux was typically greater in the hypolimnion traps  
353 through most of the year, except in summer when most of the calcite was collected in the  
354 epilimnion (Fig. 6c).

355 In all the monitored years, except 2018, peaks of calcite precipitation occurred both  
356 during the stratified period, and again following lake turnover in autumn. In 2018, the main  
357 calcite flux occurred only during lake stratification with no clear increase in autumn (Fig. 6c).  
358 The year 2019 was an anomaly with exceptionally low calcite in the traps – the lowest calcite  
359 flux of the monitored period was  $0.2 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$  in February 2019, and very low calcite  
360 precipitation in summer ( $0.7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ). Most of the calcite flux collected during this year was  
361 in October (Fig. 6c). The amount of apatite phosphate found in the sediments was greatest in  
362 the October samples, with a maximum of  $17.8 \text{ g Kg}^{-1}$  in the hypolimnion (Supplementary Table  
363 3). July recorded the lowest amount of apatite phosphate with  $2.2 \text{ g Kg}^{-1}$  and  $3.2 \text{ g Kg}^{-1}$  in the  
364 epi- and hypolimnion, respectively.

365 SI in the epilimnion remained mostly above zero ( $-0.6$  to  $1.5$ ), except for September  
366 2020 ( $-0.6$ ), and November 2021 ( $-0.1$ ). Peaks of epilimnion SI occurred in early spring and  
367 autumn (Fig. 6c). Hypolimnion SI values ranged between  $-0.6$  to  $0.9$ .

### 368 *Diatoms*

369

370 Diatom blooms occurred in early spring (February–March) and in autumn (September–  
371 November), the latter following lake overturn. Concentrations were generally lower during the  
372 summer, especially in July and August 2019 (Fig. 6d). The Diss Mere assemblage consists of

373 128 diatom species (Supplementary Table 4 and 5). The dominant species is *Cyclostephanos*  
374 *dubius* (Hustedt) Round, 1988, a generally small, but morphologically variable, planktonic,  
375 centric species (Bradshaw and Anderson, 2003) (Fig. 5i). The highest concentrations of  
376 diatoms were recorded in the epilimnion in spring/early summer, and in autumn for the  
377 hypolimnion (Fig. 6d). In general, both the spring and autumn blooms were dominated by *C.*  
378 *dubius*, but smaller fluctuations of other species characterised the seasonal blooms. Short-lived  
379 peaks in *Stephanodiscus hantzschii* Grunow, occurred in the spring only, while small  
380 concentrations of benthic taxa were observed in the autumn, including *Amphora* species,  
381 Naviculoid species and *Achnanthes* species. Diatom preservation varied throughout the  
382 samples (Supplementary Information Fig. 1).

383

#### 384 Meteorological Data

385

386 Air temperatures between 2018 to 2021 followed a seasonal pattern (Fig. 7b). Maximum  
387 average monthly temperatures peaked in July/August (19.0 °C), and minimum monthly  
388 average temperatures in January (4.3 °C). January 2019 and February 2021 were the coldest  
389 months of the monitoring period with the coldest day of the monitoring period recording a daily  
390 average of -2.9 °C in February 2021, despite negative temperatures, ice cover on the lake did  
391 not occur. Wind speeds during the summer months (June-August) were the lowest, with a mean  
392 of 3.7 m s<sup>-1</sup> which then increased in autumn (September–November) to 4.1 m s<sup>-1</sup>. February had  
393 the highest overall mean at 5.1 m s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 7c). Monthly precipitation during the monitored  
394 period showed no clear seasonal pattern, but in general there was an increase in the autumn and  
395 winter months, compared to the spring and summer (Fig. 7d).

396

#### 397 Discussion



398 Meteorological impact on the dominant limnological processes

399

400 The monomictic mixing regime in Diss Mere is strongly driven by air temperature and windy  
401 conditions. Water temperatures closely follow the annual variability of air temperature with  
402 thermal stratification driven by spring temperature increases and the decline of temperatures,  
403 alongside a general increase in winds in autumn result in lake overturn. The large volume of  
404 Diss Mere in relation to its relatively small watershed suggests that the lake ecosystem  
405 dynamics might be mainly controlled by the annual water cycle rather than catchment processes  
406 such as terrestrial runoff. In addition, the high conductivity of the lake water ( $\sim 720 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ )  
407 accounts for approximately 90% that of ground water from this locality ( $\sim 810 \mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ ,  
408 Supplementary Table 2), suggesting groundwater is the main inflow into the lake and only a  
409 small proportion of lake water comes from either direct precipitation, or through runoff (Bailey,  
410 2005).

411

412 *Lake productivity*

413

414 Peaks in productivity occur twice in the year at Diss Mere, with the first in spring. This is  
415 characterised by a diatom bloom and peak in organic matter flux following maximum  
416 windspeeds in February and a general increase in surface water temperatures. Despite *C. dubius*  
417 remaining the dominant species of the bloom, the springtime diatom assemblage includes  
418 higher concentrations of *S. hantzschii*, likely because water temperatures are cooler ( $< 12 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ )  
419 throughout February and March (Jung et al., 2009). The presence of *S. hantzschii* and *C. dubius*  
420 would explain the depletion of dissolved phosphates in early spring (February and March),  
421 followed by the depletion of nitrates in April, a nutrient commonly associated with *C. dubius*  
422 (Bradshaw and Anderson, 2003).

423 During the summer, concentrations of nutrients in the epilimnion are low, with an accumulation  
424 of phosphates in the hypolimnion at the sediment-water interface, and very low concentrations  
425 of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> throughout the water column. The breakdown of thermal stratification in September  
426 permits diatom-limiting nutrients to reach the photic zone (Bradshaw and Anderson, 2003;  
427 Roeser et al., 2021), and temperatures are still warm enough to allow the occurrence of a diatom  
428 bloom, specifically *C. dubius*. The second peak in productivity occurs in autumn, coinciding  
429 with the onset of the lake turnover. This peak in productivity is larger than the spring peak,  
430 evidenced by the highest OM flux, diatom concentration and presence of *Pediastrum* from  
431 September to November.

432 Both the spring and autumn diatom blooms are influenced by wind-induced lake  
433 mixing, recirculating nutrients to the photic zone and allowing smaller planktonic species, such  
434 as *C. dubius*, to outcompete others due to its preference for eutrophic conditions and its ability  
435 to tolerate low light levels through greater turbidity (Bradshaw and Anderson, 2003). This  
436 suggests a lake response encouraged by windy activity and a potential signal in the sediment  
437 represented by the deposition of a diatom layer.

438

#### 439 *Calcite precipitation*

440

441 Calcite is deposited throughout the year at Diss Mere, however, similarly to the diatom  
442 concentrations, calcite precipitation also reveals a seasonal pattern. The annual variability of  
443 dissolved Ca<sup>2+</sup> and the decrease in concentration in the epilimnion between May and October  
444 suggests calcite is precipitating during these months. Primary calcite peaks occur during the  
445 stratified seasons from late spring to late summer in the epilimnion followed by secondary  
446 peaks in autumn, mainly recorded in the hypolimnion. The permanent calcite precipitation in  
447 the lake during the whole year is likely a result of calcium oversaturation throughout the water

448 column. Given the composition of the local bedrock and groundwater analyses from the  
449 Waveney Catchment (Supplementary Table 2), the water of Diss Mere is likely to be a dilute  
450 solution of calcium bicarbonate. This is complimented by almost consistent positive values of  
451 SI in the epilimnion, reporting oversaturation, hence favourable conditions for persistent  
452 precipitation.

453         Seasonal calcite peaks, however, could be accentuated by either pH increases,  
454 displacing the carbonate equilibrium from organism activity, favourable temperatures, or both  
455 (Kelts and Hsü, 1978; Dittrich and Obst, 2004). In Diss Mere, the increases in pH, driven by  
456 diatom blooms in early spring, and the general increase in air temperatures, in turn warming  
457 the epilimnion, triggers the oversaturation of  $\text{CaCO}_3$  and facilitates calcite precipitation (Stabel,  
458 1986; Trapote et al., 2019; Żarczyński et al., 2022). It is notable that in years where spring  
459 diatom concentrations are higher (April 2019; May 2021), early spring calcite precipitation  
460 events occur.

461         The calcite collected during spring presents large well-developed calcite grains (5-  
462  $15\mu\text{m}$ ) (Fig. 5c). High concentrations of dissolved phosphates have been shown to limit calcite  
463 precipitation leading to the supersaturation of lake water (Kunz and Stumm, 1984; Lotter et al.,  
464 1997). Once consumed, the rapid precipitation of large calcite grains can occur (Lotter et al.,  
465 1997). This is likely the cause of the larger spring calcite crystals at Diss Mere during these  
466 months as the concentration of dissolved  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  from Autumn through the winter remain high  
467 ( $0.7\text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and are then rapidly depleted in February or March ( $0.05\text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) coinciding with  
468 the first algal bloom of the year.

469         The summer months are when calcite precipitation is more pronounced at Diss Mere,  
470 reflected by the dip in epilimnion  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and alkalinity, and the higher amount of calcite collected  
471 in the traps, coinciding with the warmest air temperatures. Saturation index in the epilimnion

472 is also highest, likely from warmer waters. Calcite crystals here are still well-developed from  
473 the slow precipitation maintained by temperature (Fig. 5).

474 The second calcite peak is in autumn and is collected mostly in the hypolimnion and  
475 the calcite in the trap is largely dominated by micrite (Fig. 5). However, the autumn is the most  
476 productive period of the year, and both the saturation index, and relatively low epilimnion  
477 concentrations of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , suggest that endogenic calcite is still precipitating during this period.  
478 The endogenic calcite crystals collected during these months are smaller ( $< 5\mu\text{m}$ ), likely  
479 resulting from the increase in dissolved  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  compared to the spring and summer seasons. The  
480 relationship between changing crystals size and phosphate is complimented by the greatest  
481 amount of apatite phosphate found in the October sediment samples (Supplementary Table 3).  
482 This suggests more phosphate is absorbed into the active growth sites during precipitation,  
483 limiting grain size growth (House, 1980; Plant and House, 2002, Lotter et al., 1997). This is  
484 not the case however, for the calcite precipitation in the summer when there is much lower  
485 apatite phosphate present in the sediments (Supplementary Table 3).

#### 486 *Resuspension*

487

488 Despite clear evidence showing that the sediment trapped during a single year represents the  
489 limnological processes occurring in the water column, some evidence suggests the sediments  
490 collected from October to February could also include resuspended material from both the  
491 littoral zone and lake bottom (Roeser et al., 2021). This is demonstrated by greater amount of  
492 calcite in the hypolimnion trap, as well as minerogenic particles and plant remains deposited  
493 during the lake mixing season (Fig. 5g). Whilst this could also be the accumulation of calcite  
494 from other depths of the water column below the epilimnion trap opening, the presence of  
495 several benthic diatom species in autumn including *Amphora* species, Naviculoids and  
496 *Achnanthes* species supports this interpretation (Supplementary Table 5). Layers of

497 resuspended material in organic-calcite varves have been described in other European lakes  
498 and associated with site-specific lake morphology promoting the erosion of littoral parts of  
499 lakes from surface currents and waves (Roeser et al., 2021). The seasonal resuspension during  
500 lake turnover might be also accompanied by an autumn diatom bloom as it has been observed  
501 in Lake Czechowskie, which is driven by the redistribution of water column nutrients into the  
502 photic zone (Roeser et al., 2021). In Diss Mere the shallow waters (max. depth 6 m) and the  
503 morphology of the basin make the lake bottom vulnerable to wind-induced erosion, explaining  
504 both the deposition of resuspended material during the mixing season and the main diatom  
505 bloom in autumn.

506 Validation of the varve conceptual model

507

508 The main limnological processes identified in a single year in the modern Diss Mere system  
509 leaves a trace in the traps consisting of three different depositional phases: i) an early spring  
510 diatom bloom; ii) late spring and summer calcite precipitation characterised by calcite grains  
511 with an average size of 10  $\mu\text{m}$ ; and iii) an autumn diatom bloom, micritic calcite and  
512 resuspended material. This seasonal depositional sequence resembles the conceptual model of  
513 the varved record at Diss Mere, thereby suggesting that the modern limnology could be applied  
514 to the sediment record. Unlike the dominant microfacies recorded in the varved sequence where  
515 varve type 1 reflects ~90% of the varves, the seasonality observed in this study is likened to  
516 varve type 2 (Fig. 2). Varve type 1 does not present a spring diatom bloom as an independent  
517 layer; however, this might be mixed with the calcite layer thus prevents its identification on the  
518 thin sections. The calcite layer in the varves show coarse grains at the base and fine calcite  
519 grains at the top, representing the decreasing grain size observed from May to October in the  
520 sediment traps. The transition between the calcite layer and dark organic layer is diffuse as  
521 calcite grains still occur in the dark layer but intermixed with a wide range of diatoms species

522 (including benthic species) and terrestrial organic matter remains (Fritz et al., 1989). This  
523 suggests resuspension is one of the dominant deposition processes during this season (Roeser  
524 et al., 2021).

525         Less than the 8% of the Holocene varves in Diss Mere correspond to varve type 3,  
526 where the calcite layer is extremely thin or absent. During the monitoring period, we have  
527 observed one year (2019) in which the spring and summer calcite is very low and thus may  
528 correspond to this varve type. Diatom concentration is high in spring 2019 and Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions  
529 decrease in summer 2019, which suggest that calcite grains might have precipitated, but not  
530 collected in the traps. According to the results shown in this study, we find no clear link with  
531 the meteorological data, limnology, and diatom productivity to explain the lower precipitation  
532 during this summer. We therefore speculate that the occurrence of this varve type may be  
533 specific to certain lake conditions not recorded during this monitoring period.

534         A main issue in studying calcite varves is the deposition of multiple calcite layers  
535 (Trapote et al., 2018; Roeser et al., 2021; Żarczyński et al., 2022). Sediment trapping in Diss  
536 Mere reveals two calcite pulses, a summer event sustained by temperature, and an autumn event  
537 driven by biological productivity. Because these two calcite pulses precipitate in sequential  
538 seasons it is likely that the calcite would be deposited as a single layer, leaving a trace  
539 characterised by the gradual decrease in the grain size. From the palaeolimnological point of  
540 view, this means that multiple calcite precipitation events in a year are recorded as a single  
541 layer in the sediments and therefore unlikely to have chronological implications on varve  
542 counting. This is validated by the comparison of the varve counts with radiocarbon dates and  
543 selected tephra ages, all integrated into a Bayesian age model for the Diss Mere record (Martin-  
544 Puertas et al., 2021), but the environmental interpretation of calcite deposition in the sediments  
545 might be complex.

546           Although longer timeseries of monitoring data together with a permanent sediment trap  
547 are needed to establish statistically significant relationships between meteorology, limnology  
548 and lake sediments, our study suggests that most of the calcite deposited as a layer correspond  
549 to the summer and relates to annual maximum temperature; and the autumn precipitation might  
550 mark the diffuse transition between the light and the dark layers in the varves. Thus, either the  
551 thickness of the calcite layer, the contribution of the calcite layer to the total varve thickness,  
552 the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in the sediments, or all, might potentially be sensitive to summer temperature  
553 variability during the Holocene.

554 Limiting factors for varve preservation

555

556 Varves stopped preserving around 2,100 years ago in Diss Mere, with some intermittent periods  
557 of preserved laminations over the last two thousand years. Despite a strong seasonality in the  
558 sediment deposition, which is the case in the modern Diss Mere system, varve preservation  
559 depends on hypoxia preventing bioturbation and the absence of erosive processes at the lake  
560 bottom (Ojala et al., 2000; Zolitschka et al. 2015). Much of the global varves preserved today  
561 have been preserving for the last few centuries only, which is the result of cultural  
562 eutrophication increasing lake productivity, degradation of the organic matter and,  
563 consequently resulting in hypoxic hypolimnions (Jenny et al. 2013; Dräger et al., 2016; Haas  
564 et al., 2019; Poraj-Górska et al., 2021; Salminen et al., 2021). However, natural varve  
565 preservation mainly depends on the catchment and lake morphology, with a low lake  
566 surface/depth ratio reducing wind-induced bottom oxygenation and sediment resuspension  
567 (Ojala et al., 2000). Recent studies on varved sediment formation and preservation show  
568 evidence that permanent hypolimnetic anoxia and meromictic conditions are not essential to  
569 preserve varved sediments. Instead, monomictic/dimictic lakes with short periods of available  
570 oxygen at the bottom are also able to preserve varves (Bonk et al., 2015; Roeser et al., 2021;

571 Źarczyński et al., 2022) of which a seasonal layer of resuspended material can be deposited  
572 and preserved (Roeser et al., 2021). The fact that the seasonal-defined sediments at Diss Mere  
573 are not preserved as varves following cultural eutrophication, and varves stopped preserving  
574 two thousand years ago suggests that varve preservation conditions during the Holocene were  
575 maintained by an optimal lake surface/depth ratio. The evidence of resuspended material in the  
576 varves indicates that the water column might not have been deep enough to sustain meromictic  
577 conditions, but periods of lake mixing and ventilation of the lake bottom were short preventing  
578 bioturbation thus allowing varve preservation. The end of the varve preservation occurred  
579 gradually when varves fade out over a few years (Martin-Puertas et al., 2021) coinciding with  
580 forest clearance and farming of the catchment suggesting an intensification of human activities  
581 from ca. 2.1 ka BP (Peglar et al., 1993). We suggest that the contribution of these two factors  
582 played a role in varve preservation at Diss Mere. Natural infilling of the lake alters the lake  
583 surface/depth ratio and may have been intensified by the increase in deforestation and soil use  
584 increasing the detrital input, supported by the rapid increase in sedimentation rate (Martin-  
585 Puertas et al., 2021). Both, a lake with an optimum surface/depth ratio, and a more open forest  
586 would favour longer wind-induced water mixing with available oxygen in the hypolimnion.  
587 The monitoring survey reveals that the current lake bottom is oxygenated ( $>2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) for most  
588 of the year, explaining the lack of varve preservation even when lake seasonality characterises  
589 sediment deposition. The intermittent preservation of laminations in the last two millennia  
590 suggest that relative changes in lake level and/or changing intensity of human activities on the  
591 catchment could have an impact on preservation conditions.

## 592 **Conclusions**

593 This study applies a 3.5-year lake monitoring survey on Diss Mere, England to disentangle the  
594 main drivers of sediment deposition in the Holocene varved sediments through a modern  
595 analogue approach. We found that Diss Mere is a monomictic lake currently forming



596 seasonally defined sediments that consist of i) a spring diatom bloom, ii) calcite precipitation  
597 from late spring through summer, and iii) an autumnal diatom bloom with calcite grains bonded  
598 to organic matter and resuspended material from the littoral area. This annual pattern is similar  
599 to that recorded in the varve record and we conclude that a modern analogue could be applied  
600 to understand the seasonal environmental and climate signals recorded in the Holocene varves.  
601 The current lake seasonality is driven by air temperature and windiness. Lake productivity is  
602 enhanced during lake mixing from autumn to early spring by wind bringing additional nutrients  
603 into the photic zone, and most of the calcite precipitates over the summer through favourable  
604 temperatures. Although a long-term monitoring survey is needed to establish stronger  
605 relationship between meteorology and interannual variability of seasonal sediments (e.g. mass  
606 fluxes), this study suggests that the Diss Mere varves might have high potential for  
607 palaeoclimate investigations. Despite the seasonally defined sediments deposited today, we  
608 find that they are unable to be preserved as varves due to the lack of a stable hypoxic period  
609 maintained through the year, likely resulting from the shallow water depth of the lake. One  
610 limitation of the modern analogue approach is that it does not capture the influence of the ice  
611 cover on varve formation processes, which could induce variability in the lake seasonality  
612 during colder climates. As a final message, we highlight the importance of bridging the gap  
613 between limno- and palaeolimnology through sediment trapping techniques to develop robust  
614 and reliable reconstructions. We emphasise this especially for lakes which experience strong  
615 seasonality today and therefore may be potential sites for varve exploration.

616

617

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640

### 641 **Conflicts of Interest**

642 Authors declare no conflict of interest

643

644

645

646 **Author Contribution**

647 L.B and C.M.P. wrote the main manuscript text. C.M.P. designed the study, L.B and J.V. ran  
648 the chemical analyses. A.H. and C.M.P. designed and installed the sediment traps. P.H.  
649 extracted and identified the diatoms. All authors were involved in analysing results. All authors  
650 contributed to both the writing of the manuscript and to discussions about results. All authors  
651 reviewed the manuscript before submission.

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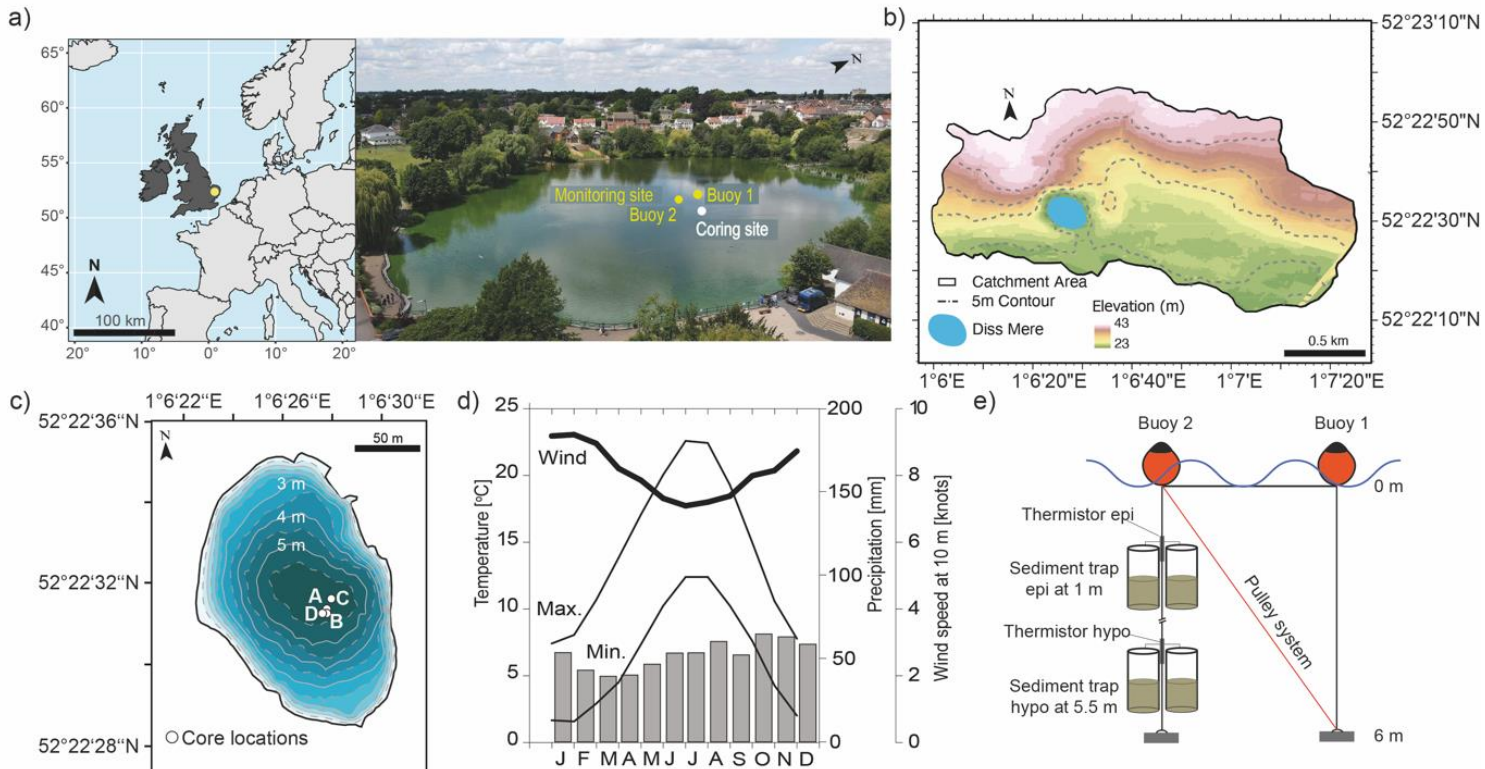
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858 Figure 1. Settings of Diss Mere. a: geographical location and aerial photograph of the lake. b:  
 859 topography of the catchment area. c: Diss Mere bathymetry and core locations. d: climatograms  
 860 for East Anglia: maximum and minimum monthly temperature (thin black lines), monthly  
 861 precipitation (grey bars) and wind speed (thick black line). Data are monthly averaged between  
 862 1990-2020. Data source: Met Office at [www.metoffice.gov.uk/research/climate/maps-and-](http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/research/climate/maps-and-data/uk-climate-averages/u12cfksmy)  
 863 [data/uk-climate-averages/u12cfksmy](http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/research/climate/maps-and-data/uk-climate-averages/u12cfksmy). e) diagram of the sediment traps based on a pulley  
 864 system. Epi is used for epilimnion and hypo for hypolimnion.

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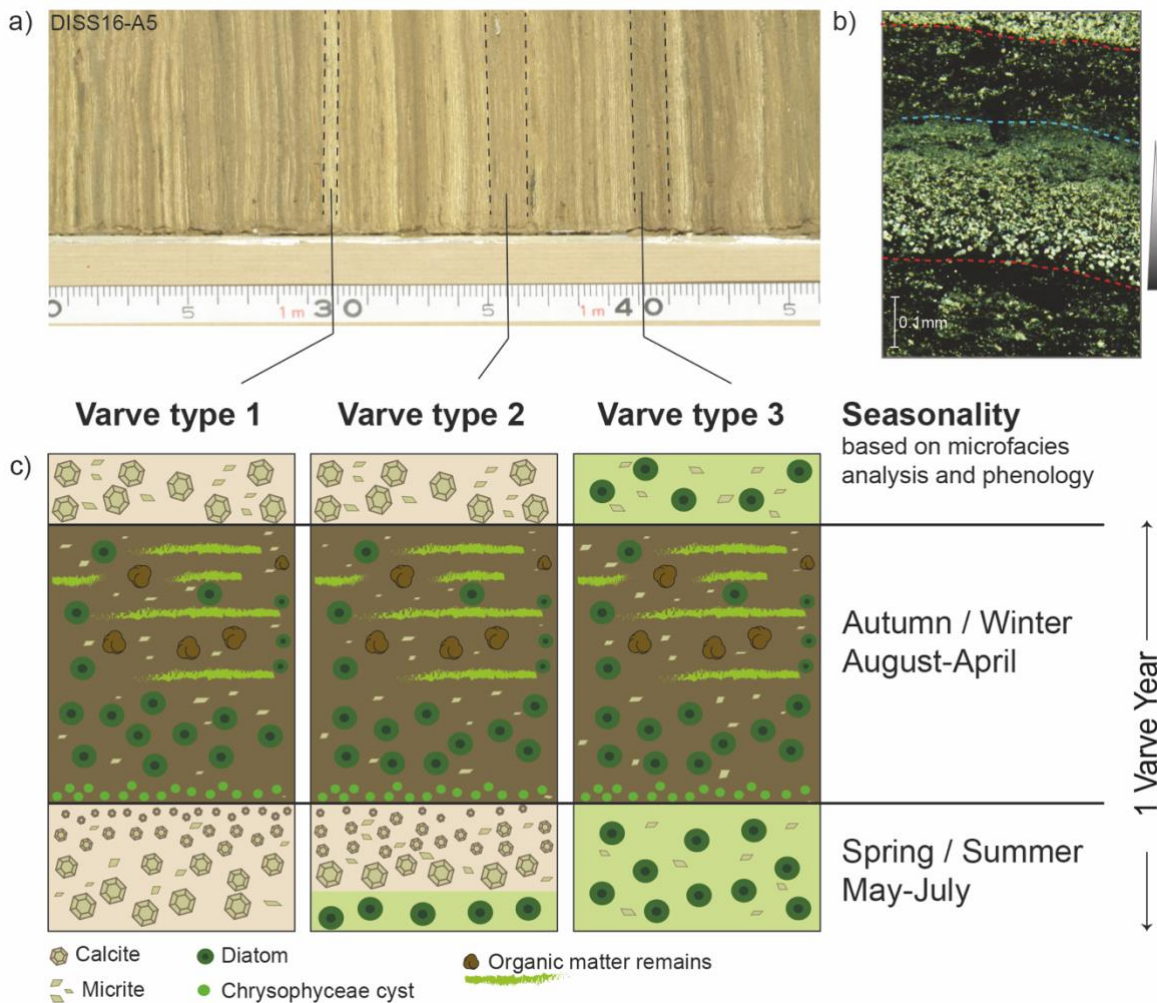
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871 Figure 2. Diss Mere varve models. a: core photo section (DISS16-A5) of varved sediments  
 872 showing interannual variability along the record as shown by the colour of the sediments. b:  
 873 microscope image of a varve showing both the calcite (light) and the organic (dark) layers, and  
 874 the gradient triangle depicts the gradually decreasing calcite grain size through the layer. c:  
 875 model of the varve types identified in Diss Mere and their seasonality (Peglar et al. 1984;  
 876 Martin-Puertas et al. 2021).

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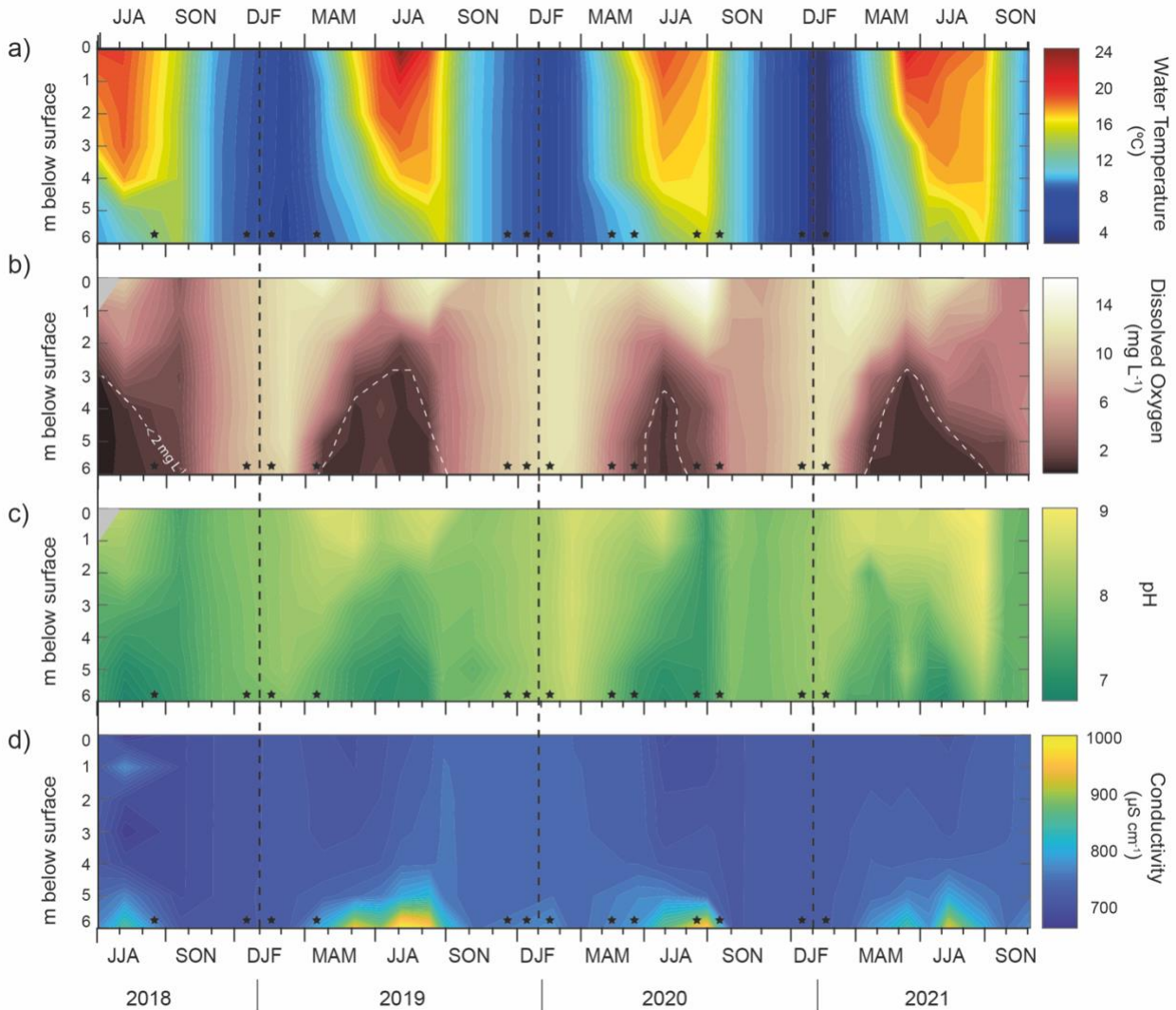
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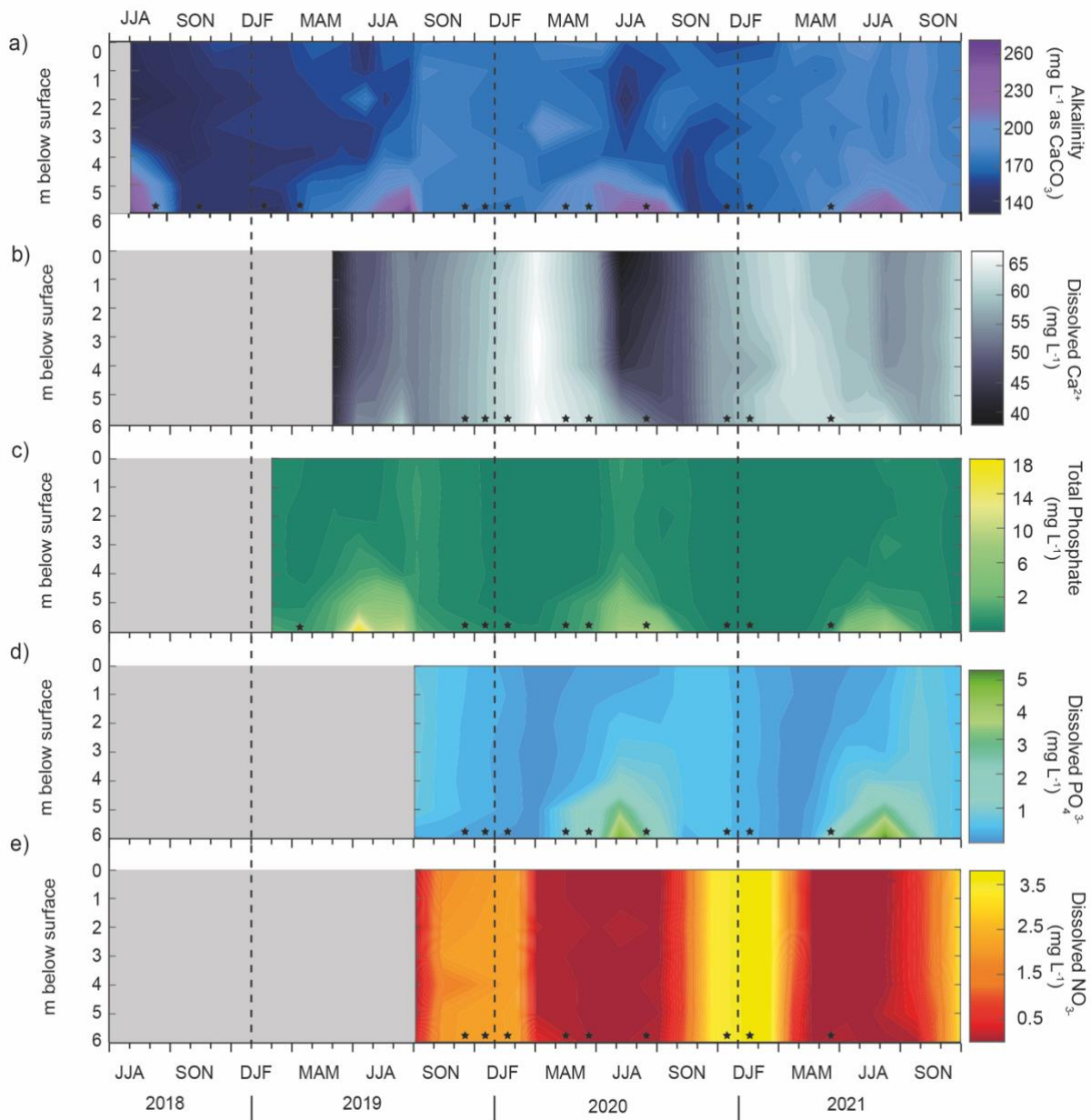
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882 Figure 3. Contour plots of the main physical and chemical limnological variables in the water  
 883 column over the monitored period (2018-2021). a: temperature. b: dissolved oxygen (DO) with  
 884 white dashed line indicating the oxycline. c: pH; and d: electrical conductivity. Vertical black  
 885 dashed lines indicate the beginning of a calendar year. Stars indicate months where data has  
 886 been interpolated due to missing data. Grey triangles on b and c indicate that no data was  
 887 collected for the surface water for this month.

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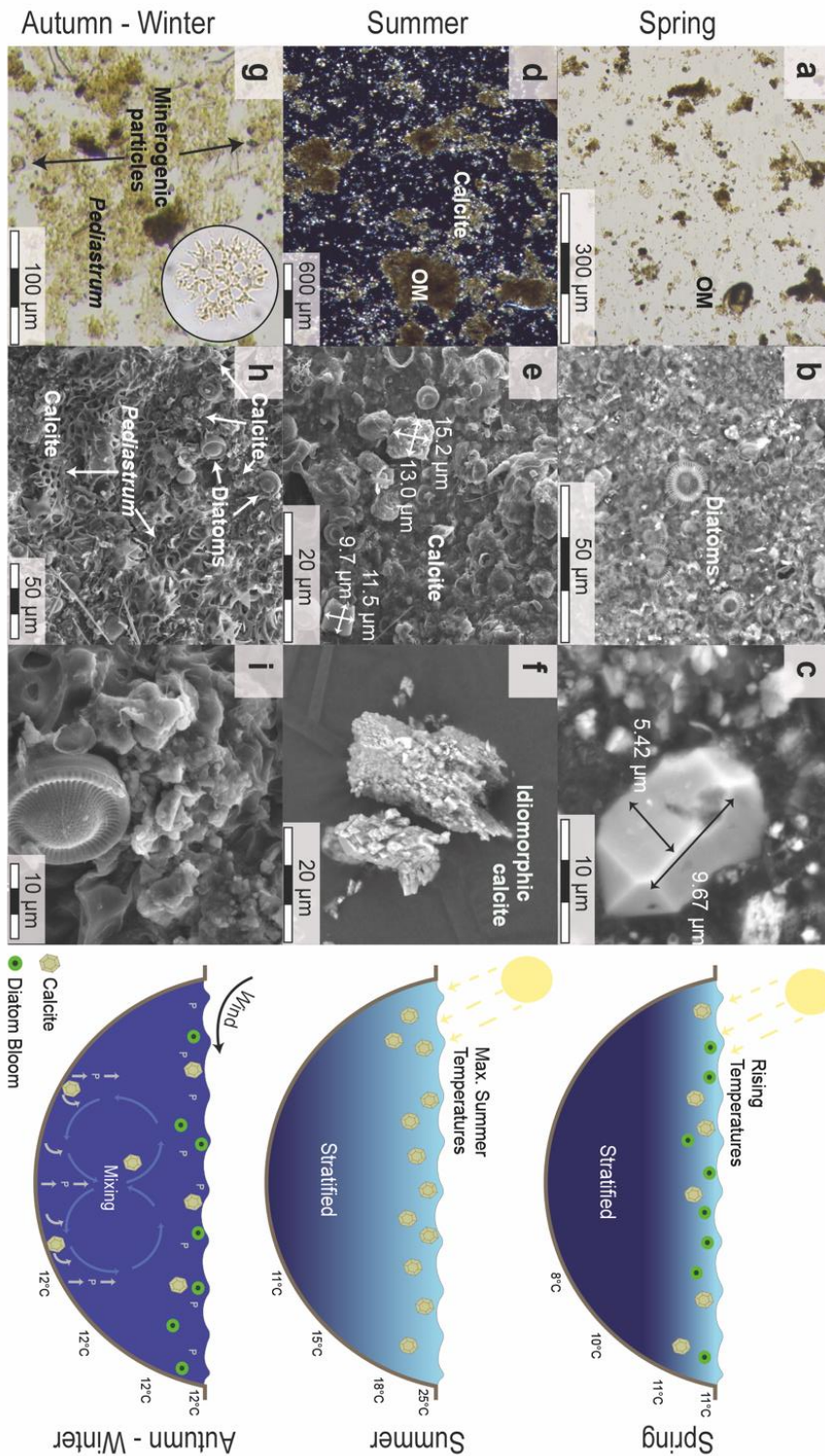


893 Figure 4. Chemical parameters for the monitored period (2018-2021). a: alkalinity. b dissolved  
 894  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , c: total phosphate. d: dissolved  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and e: dissolved  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . Grey boxes indicate the  
 895 absence of data. Vertical black dashed lines indicate the beginning of a calendar year. Stars  
 896 indicate months where data has been interpolated due to absent data.

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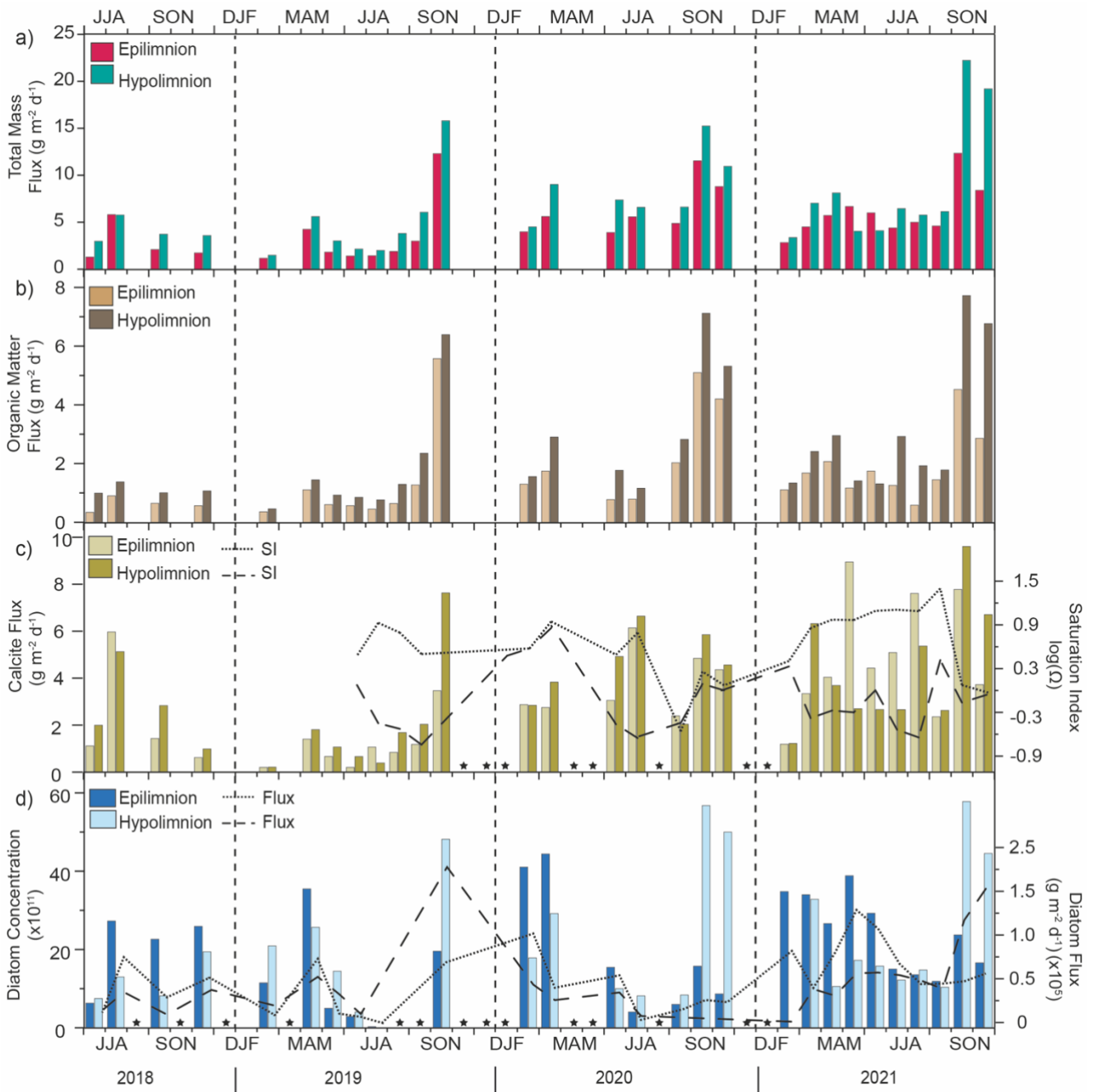
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900 Figure 5. Dominant sediment composition and conceptual lake mixing and stratification cycle  
 901 for the different seasons at Diss Mere. Left panel a-i: smear slide images (a, d, g) and SEM  
 902 images (b, c, e, f, h, i) of the main components of the trapped material for each season. Right  
 903 panel: conceptual model for the annual lake mixing and stratification cycle.

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905 Figure 6. Flux and concentration data for the epi- and hypolimnion traps.

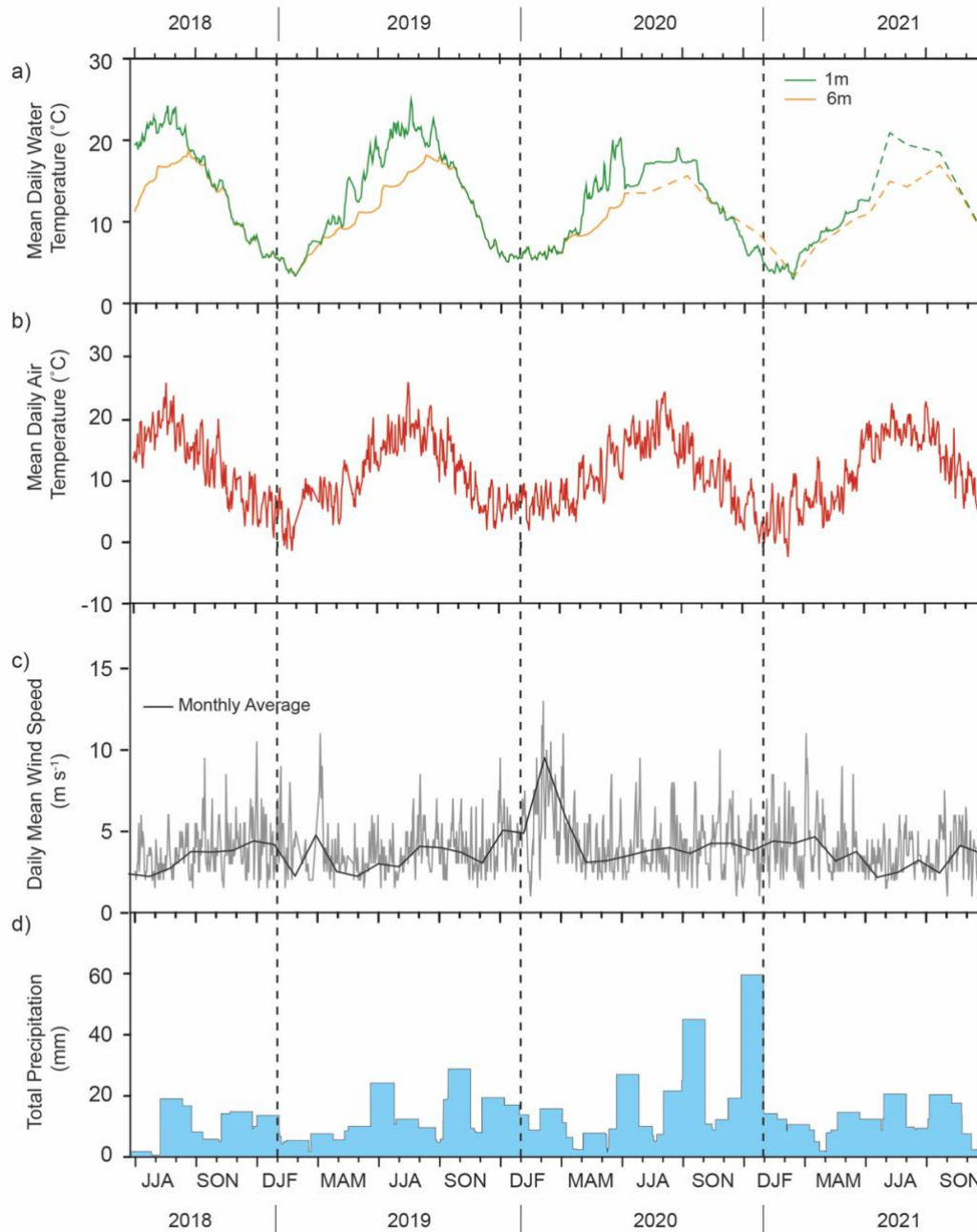
906 a: total mass flux. b: organic matter flux, c: calcite flux and saturation index (SI) (dashed lines).

907 d: diatom concentrations (bar graphs) and diatom fluxes (dashed lines). c and d contain stars to

908 indicate the months where data has been interpolated due to absent data. Vertical black dashed

909 lines indicate the beginning of a calendar year.

910



911 Figure 7. Thermistor timeseries from Diss Mere and meteorological information from the  
 912 Tibenham Airfield meteorological station between June 2018 and November 2021. a: water  
 913 temperatures recorded by the in situ thermistors at 1 m (green line) and 6 m (orange line) from  
 914 Diss Mere, calculated at daily mean intervals. Dashed line indicates when thermistors stopped  
 915 recording, and monthly temperature recordings are used in place. Stars indicate months where  
 916 temperature data has been interpolated due to absent data. b: daily mean air temperature. c:  
 917 daily mean wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) (grey line) and a monthly moving average (black line). d: total  
 918 daily precipitation (mm). Vertical black lines indicate the beginning of a new calendar year.