

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.**

4
5 Laura Boyall^{1*}, José Ignacio Valcárcel¹, Poppy Harding², Armand Hernández³ and Celia
6 Martin-Puertas^{1*}

7
8 ¹ Department of Geography. Royal Holloway University of London. TW20 0EX Egham,
9 Surrey, UK.

10 ² Geography, Planning and Environment, Department of Psychology, Sport and Geography,
11 University of Hertfordshire, Hatfield, Hertfordshire, AL10 9AB, UK.

12 ³ Universidade da Coruña, GRICA group, Centro Interdisciplinar de Química e Bioloxía
13 (CICA), Rúa As Carballeiras, 15071 A Coruña, (Spain).

14
15 **Corresponding authors:**

16 Laura.Boyall.2016@live.rhul.ac.uk

17 Celia.MartinPuertas@rhul.ac.uk

18 **Key Words**

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

20

21

22

23

24

25

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.

47

48

49

50

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⁻¹ to 5 mm yr⁻¹ (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 km² and a catchment of 1.5 km² (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[®] 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 (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺) and anions (NO₃⁻, PO₄³⁻, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻) 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 μm , 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 μm 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 μm 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 cm³ 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 H₂O₂,
242 carbonates removed using several drops of 50% HCl, and samples were rinsed at least 4 times,
243 to neutralise the medium. Ammonia (NH₃) 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 NaphraxTM 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 (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⁻¹ in the epilimnion and 0.9 – 2.8 mg L⁻¹
284 in the hypolimnion (Fig. 3b). The oxycline (the depth at which DO = 2 mg L⁻¹) 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⁻¹, Nürnberg, 1995) were only observed
288 once in June 2018 (0.6 mg L⁻¹). 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⁻¹) to March (13 mg L⁻¹).

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⁻¹ as
297 CaCO₃ in the epilimnion and 153 – 233 mg L⁻¹ as CaCO₃ 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 cm^{-1} below 5 m of depth during the stratified season coinciding with the hypoxic layer.

301 The most abundant cation was 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 Ca^{2+} increased gradually during the mixed season.

307 Nutrient concentrations of both dissolved phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) and total phosphate
308 decreased in February and March with the complete absence of PO_4^{3-} at certain depths in March
309 2021 (Fig. 4c-d). The highest NO_3^- concentrations were in February (3.9 mg L^{-1}) but were
310 rapidly depleted by March (0.7 mg L^{-1}). During stratification NO_3^- remained depleted and was
311 replenished following lake overturn in October with an average of 1.4 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 ¹ 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 g m^{-2}
352 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 g Kg^{-1} in the hypolimnion (Supplementary Table
363 3). July recorded the lowest amount of apatite phosphate with 2.2 g Kg^{-1} and 3.2 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⁻¹ which then increased in autumn (September–November) to 4.1 m s⁻¹. February had
393 the highest overall mean at 5.1 m s⁻¹ (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 NO₃⁻ 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 Ca²⁺ 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 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 PO_4^{3-} from Autumn through the winter remain high
467 (0.7 mg L^{-1}) and are then rapidly depleted in February or March (0.05 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 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 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 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 μm ; 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 Ca²⁺ 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 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

618 **Acknowledgements**

619 This study was funded by the Royal Society (ref: DH150185; R10972). L. Boyall is funded by
620 Royal Holloway University of London through a PhD studentship. A. Hernández is funded by

621 the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation through the Ramón y Cajal Scheme
622 [RYC2020-029253-I]. The authors thank the Diss Council, Sarah Richard, Robert Ludkin and
623 his team for being generous and supportive, and Pete Langdon for giving us access to SEM
624 facilities at the University of Southampton and Amy Gough for SEM support at Royal
625 Holloway University of London. Thanks to the colleagues and students who made monthly
626 monitoring possible. Special thanks to Simon Blockley, Amy Walsh, Joshua Pike and Marta
627 Perez for many surveys, and Helen Bennion, George Biddulph, Alice Carter-Champion, Rachel
628 Devine, Stefan Engels, Chris Francis, Daniella Giannito, Natalie Hamilton, Tim Holt-Wilson,
629 Christine Lane, John Lowe, Adrian Palmer, Rhys Timms, Madeleine Timmins, Rik Tjallingii.
630 We dedicate this paper to the curious and fascinating Diss folk who shared many stories about
631 the mere and made us aware of the social impact of our work. We would also like to thank Dr.
632 Margarita and the two anonymous reviewers for providing valuable comments on the
633 manuscript.

634

635 **Funding Declaration**

636 This study was funded by the Royal Society (ref: DH150185; R10972). L. Boyall is funded by
637 Royal Holloway University of London through a PhD studentship. A. Hernández is funded by
638 the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation through the Ramón y Cajal Scheme
639 [RYC2020-029253-I].

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.

652

653 **References**

654

655 Apolinarska K, Pleskot K, Pełechata A, et al (2020). The recent deposition of laminated
656 sediments in highly eutrophic Lake Kierskie, western Poland: 1 year pilot study of limnological
657 monitoring and sediment traps. J Palaeolimnol. 63: 283-304. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10933-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10933-020-00116-2)
658 [020-00116-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10933-020-00116-2)

659

660 Battarbee R, Juggins S, Gasse, F, et al (2001). An Information System for Palaeoenvironmental
661 Reconstruction. EDDI. 81. pp. 1–94.

662

663 Bonk A, Tylmann W, Amann B, et al (2015). Modern limnology and varve-formation
664 processes in lake Żabińskie, northeastern Poland: Comprehensive process studies as a key to
665 understand the sediment record. J Limnol, 74:358–370.
666 <https://doi.org/10.4081/JLIMNOL.2014.1117>

667

668 Bradshaw EG, & Anderson NJ. (2003). Environmental factors that control the abundance of
669 *Cyclotella choctawhatcheeana* (Bacillariophyceae) in Danish lakes, from seasonal to century scale.
670 European Journal of Phycology. 38:265–276. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0967026031000136349>

671

672 Brauer A. (2004). Annually Laminated Lake Sediments and Their Palaeoclimatic Relevance.

673 In: The climate in Historical Times. 109–127. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-662-10313-5_7

674

675 Brauer A, Mangili C, Moscariello A, & Witt A. (2008). Palaeoclimatic implications from

676 micro-facies data of a 5900 varve time series from the Piànico interglacial sediment record,

677 southern Alps. *Palaeogeogr, Palaeocl, Palaeoecol*, 259:121–135.

678 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PALAEO.2007.10.003>

679

680 Cohen AS. (2003). *Paleolimnology: The History and Evolution of lake systems-*. 184–189.

681 Oxford University Press, New York.

682

683 Corella JP, Benito G, Rodriguez-Lloveras X, et al (2014). Annually-resolved lake record of

684 extreme hydro-meteorological events since AD 1347 in NE Iberian Peninsula. *Quat Sci Rev*.

685 93:77-90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.quascirev.2014.03.020>

686

687 Czymzik M, Dreibrodt S, Feeser I. et al. (2016). Mid-Holocene humid periods reconstructed

688 from calcite varves of the Lake Woserin sediment record (north-eastern Germany). 26(6), 935–

689 946. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0959683615622549>

690

691 Dittrich, M., & Obst, M. (2004). Are Picoplankton Responsible for Calcite Precipitation in

692 Lakes? *AMBIO: Journal of the Human Environment*. 33:559–564.

693 <https://doi.org/10.1579/0044-7447-33.8.559>

694

695 Dräger N, Theuerkauf M, Szeroczyńska K, et al (2016). Varve microfacies and varve
696 preservation record of climate change and human impact for the last 6000 years at Lake Tiefer
697 See (NE Germany). *The Holocene* 27:450–464. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0959683616660173>
698

699 Eaton AD, Clesceri LS, Greenberg AE (1991) 4500-P Phosphorous (eds). Standard methods
700 for the examination of water and wastewater. AM Public Health Assoc, Washington. 106-113.
701

702 Fritz SC. (1989). Lake development and limnological response to prehistoric and historic land-
703 use in Diss, Norfolk, UK. *Journal of Ecology*, 77:182–202. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2260924>
704

705 Haas M, Baumann F, Castella D, et al (2019). Roman-driven cultural eutrophication of Lake
706 Murten, Switzerland. *Earth Planet Sci Lett.* 505:110-117.
707 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2018.10.027>
708

709

710 Jenny, J-P., Arnaud, F., Dorioz, J-M., et al (2013) A spatiotemporal investigation of varved
711 sediments highlights the dynamics of hypolimnetic hypoxia in a large hard-water lake over the
712 last 150 years. *Limnol and Oceanogr.* 54:1395-1408.
713 <https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2013.58.4.1395>
714

715 Jung SW, Kwon OY, Lee JH, et al (2009) Effects of water temperature and silicate on the
716 winter blooming diatom *stephanodiscus hantzschii* (bacillariophyceae) growing in eutrophic
717 conditions in the lower Han River, south Korea. *Journal Freshw Ecol* 24:219–226.
718 <https://doi.org/10.1080/02705060.2009.9664286>
719

720 Kelts K, & Hsü K. (1978) Freshwater carbonate sedimentation. In: Lerman A. (ed.), Lakes:
721 Physics, Chemistry and Geology. Springer, New York, pp. 295-323.
722

723 Kienel U, Kirillin G, Brademann B, et al (2017). Effects of spring warming and mixing duration
724 on diatom deposition in deep Tiefer See, NE Germany. J Paleolimnol 57:37–49
725 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10933-016-9925-z>
726

727 Krammer K. (2002) Diatoms of Europe. Diatoms of the European inland waters and
728 comparable habitats. Volume 3: Cymbella. Germany
729

730 Krammer K, & Lange-Bertalot H (1986) Bacillariophyceae. 1: Teil: Naviculaceae.,
731 Süßwasserf. Gustav Fischer Verlag, Stuttgart
732

733 Krammer K. Lange-Bertalot H. (1991) Bacillariophyceae. 4: Teil: Achnanthaceae.,
734 Süßwasserf. Gustav Fischer Verlag, Stuttgart
735

736 Kunz B, & Stumm W. (1984). Kinetik der Bildung und des Wachstums von Calciumcarbonat.
737 Vom Wasser, 62:279-293
738

739 Langmuir D. (1971) The geochemistry of some carbonate ground waters in Central
740 Pennsylvania. Geochim Cosmochim Acta. 35:1023-1045
741

742 Lotter AF., & Birks HJB. (1997). The separation of the influence of nutrients and climate on
743 the varve time-series of Baldeggersee, Switzerland. Aquatic Sciences. 59:362–375.
744 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02522364>

745

746 Lücke A, & Brauer A. (2004). Biogeochemical and micro-facial fingerprints of ecosystem
747 response to rapid Late Glacial climatic changes in varved sediments of Meerfelder Maar
748 (Germany). *Palaeogeogr, Palaeoclimatol, Palaeoecol*, 211:139–155.
749 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PALAEO.2004.05.006>

750

751 Martin-Puertas C, Brauer A, Dulski P, & Brademann B. (2012). Testing climate–proxy
752 stationarity throughout the Holocene: an example from the varved sediments of Lake
753 Meerfelder Maar (Germany). *Quat Sci Rev*, 58:56–65.
754 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.QUASCIREV.2012.10.023>

755

756 Martin-Puertas C, Walsh AA, Blockley SPE, et al (2021). The first Holocene varve chronology
757 for the UK: Based on the integration of varve counting, radiocarbon dating and
758 tephrostratigraphy from Diss Mere (UK). *Quat Geochronol* , 61:101134.
759 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.QUAGEO.2020.101134>

760

761 Mayes, J. (2000). Changing regional climatic gradients in the United Kingdom. *Geographical*
762 *Journal*, 166:125–138. <https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1475-4959.2000.TB00013.X>

763

764 [Nakov T, Guillory W, Julius M, et al. \(2015\) Towards a phylogenetic classification of species](#)
765 [belonging to the diatom genus *Cyclotella* \(Bacillariophyceae\): Transfer of species formerly](#)
766 [placed in *Puncticulata*, *Handmannia*, *Pliocaenicus* and *Cyclotella* to the genus *Lindavia*.](#)
767 [Phytotaxa. 215:249-284.](#)

768 Nürnberg GK, (1995). The anoxic factor, a quantitative measure of anoxia and fish species
769 richness in Central Ontario Lakes. *Trans Americ Fish Soci.* 124:677–686.
770 [https://doi.org/10.1577/1548-8659\(1995\)124<0677:TAF AQM>2.3.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1577/1548-8659(1995)124<0677:TAF AQM>2.3.CO;2)
771
772 [Ojala AEK, Saarinen T & Salonen VP. \(2000\) Preconditions for the formation of annually](#)
773 [laminated lake sediments in southern and central Finland. *Boreal Env Res.* 5:243-255.](#)
774
775 Ojala AEK, Kosonen E, Weckström J, Korkonen S, Korhola, A. (2013). Seasonal formation of
776 clastic-biogenic varves: the potential for palaeoenvironmental interpretations. *GFF.* 135:237–
777 247. <https://doi.org/10.1080/11035897.2013.801925>
778
779 Peglar SM. (1993) The development of the cultural landscape around Diss Mere, Norfolk, UK,
780 during the past 7000 years. *Rev Palaeobot Palynol*
781
782 Peglar SM, Fritz SC, Alapoeti T, Saarnisto M, & Birks HJB. (1984). Composition and
783 formation of laminated sediments in Diss Mere, Norfolk, England. *Boreas.* 13:13-28.
784 <https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1502-3885.1984.TB00054.X>
785
786 [Poraj-Górska AI, Bonk A, Żarczyński M, et al \(2021\) Varved lake sediments as indicators of](#)
787 [recent cultural eutrophication and hypolimnetic hypoxia in lakes. *Anthropocene.* 36:100311.](#)
788 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ancene.2021.100311>
789
790 Roeser P, Dräger N, Brykała D, et al (2021). Advances in understanding calcite varve
791 formation: new insights from a dual lake monitoring approach in the southern Baltic lowlands.
792 *Boreas*, 50:419–440. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bor.12506>

793

794 Ruban V, López-Sánchez FJ, PardoP, et al (1998) Selection and evaluation of sequential
795 extraction procedures for the determination of phosphorous forms in lake sediment. J
796 Environment Monit. 1:51-56.

797

798 Salminen S, Tammelin M, Jilbert T, Fukumoto Y & Saarni S. (2021) Human interactions were
799 responsible for both initiation and termination of varve preservation in Lake Vesijärvi, southern
800 Finland. J Palaeolimnol. 66: 2017-227. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10933-021-00200-1>

801

802 Sear DA, Allen MS, Hassall J. et al (2020) Human settlement of East Polynesia earlier,
803 incremental, and coincident with prolonged South Pacific drought. PNAS, 117(16), 8813–
804 8819. <https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1920975117>

805

806 Stabel H-H (1986) Calcite precipitation in Lake Constance: Chemical equilibrium,
807 sedimentation, and nucleation by algae. Limnol Oceanogr, 31:1081–1094.
808 <https://doi.org/10.4319/LO.1986.31.5.1081>

809

810 Sturm M. & Lotter AF. (1995). Lake sediments as environmental archives. EAWAG News
811 38(E). 6–9

812

813

814 Tippett R. (1964) An investigation into the nature of the layering of deep-water sediments in
815 two eastern Ontario lakes. Canadian Journal of Botany. 42:1693–1709.
816 <https://doi.org/10.1139/B64-168>

817

818 Trapote M C, Vegas-Vilarrúbia T, López P, et al (2018) Modern sedimentary analogues and
819 integrated monitoring to understand varve formation in the Mediterranean Lake Montcortès
820 (Central Pyrenees, Spain). *Palaeogeog, Palaeoclimatol, Palaeoecol*, 496:292–304.
821 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.palaeo.2018.01.046>
822

823 Tylmann W, Szpakowska K, Ohlendorf C, Woszczyk M, & Zolitschka B. (2012) Conditions
824 for deposition of annually laminated sediments in small meromictic lakes: A case study of Lake
825 Suminko (Northern Poland). *J Paleolimnol*, 47:55–70. [https://doi.org/10.1007/S10933-011-](https://doi.org/10.1007/S10933-011-9548-3/)
826 [9548-3/](https://doi.org/10.1007/S10933-011-9548-3/)
827

828 Vegas-Vilarrúbia T, Rull V Trapote MdC, et al (2020) Modern Analogue Approach Applied
829 to High-Resolution Varved Sediments—A Synthesis for Lake Montcortès (Central
830 Pyrenees). *Quaternary*. 3(1). <https://doi.org/10.3390/quat3010001>
831

832 Walsh AA, Blockley SPE, Milner AM, Matthews IP, & Martin-Puertas C. (2021) Complexities
833 in European Holocene cryptotephra dispersal revealed in the annually laminated lake record of
834 Diss Mere, East Anglia. *Quat Geochronol*, 66:101213.
835 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.QUAGEO.2021.101213>
836

837 Wilcox C. & Stanczszyn R. (1983) The sand and gravel resources of the country around Diss,
838 Norfolk. TM. 17.
839

840 Zander PD, Żarczyński M, Vogel H, et al (2021) A high-resolution record of Holocene primary
841 productivity and water-column mixing from the varved sediments of Lake Żabińskie, Poland.

842 Science of The Total Environment 755:143713.

843 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.143713>

844

845 Żarczyński M, Zander PD, Grosjean M, & Tylmann W. (2022) Linking the formation of

846 varves in a eutrophic temperate lake to meteorological conditions and water column

847 dynamics. Science of The Total Environment, 842:156787.

848 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2022.156787>

849

850 Zolitschka B, Francus P, Ojala AEK, & Schimmelmann A. (2015) Varves in lake sediments –

851 a review. Quat Sci Rev 117, 1–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.QUASCIREV.2015.03.019>

852

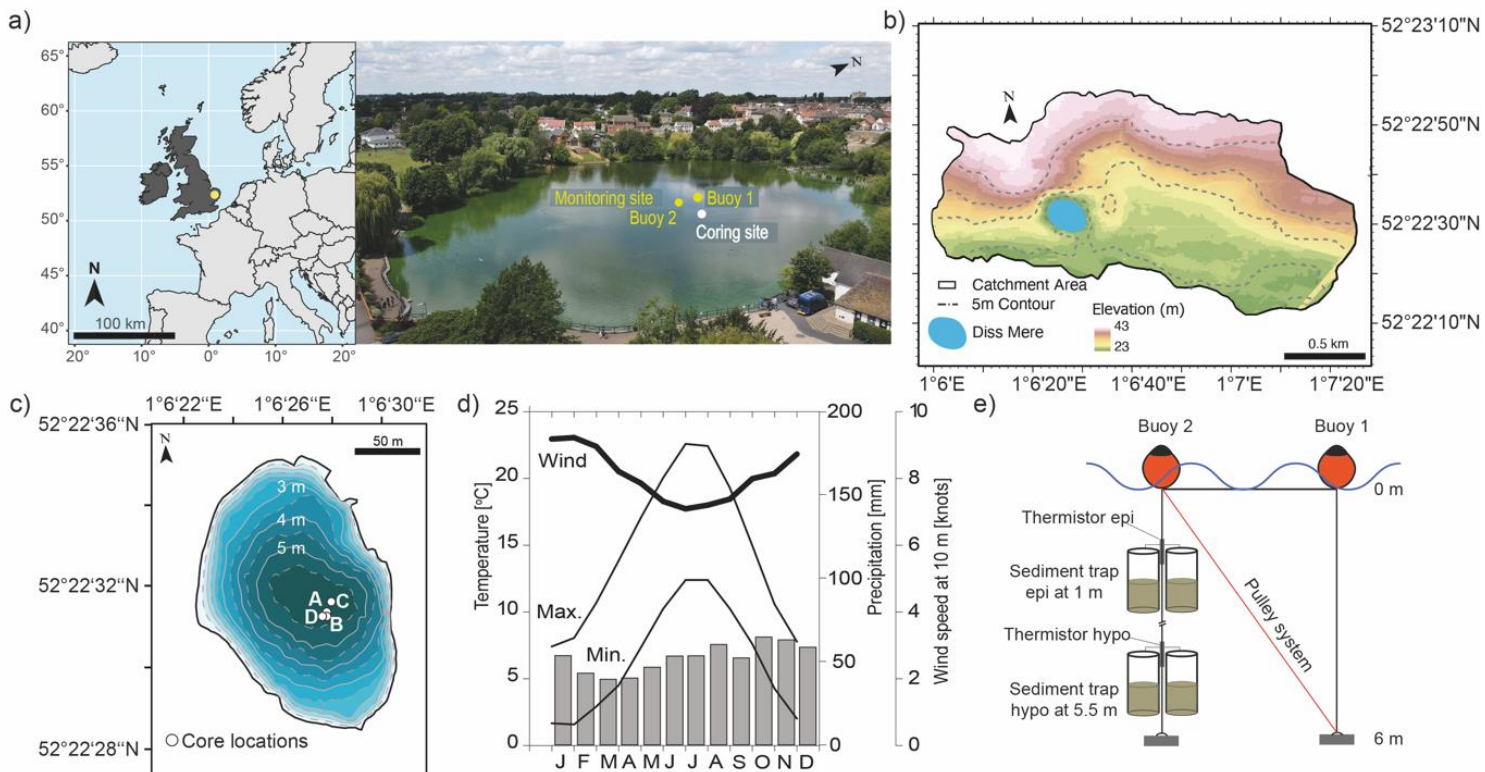
853

854

855

856

857



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.

865

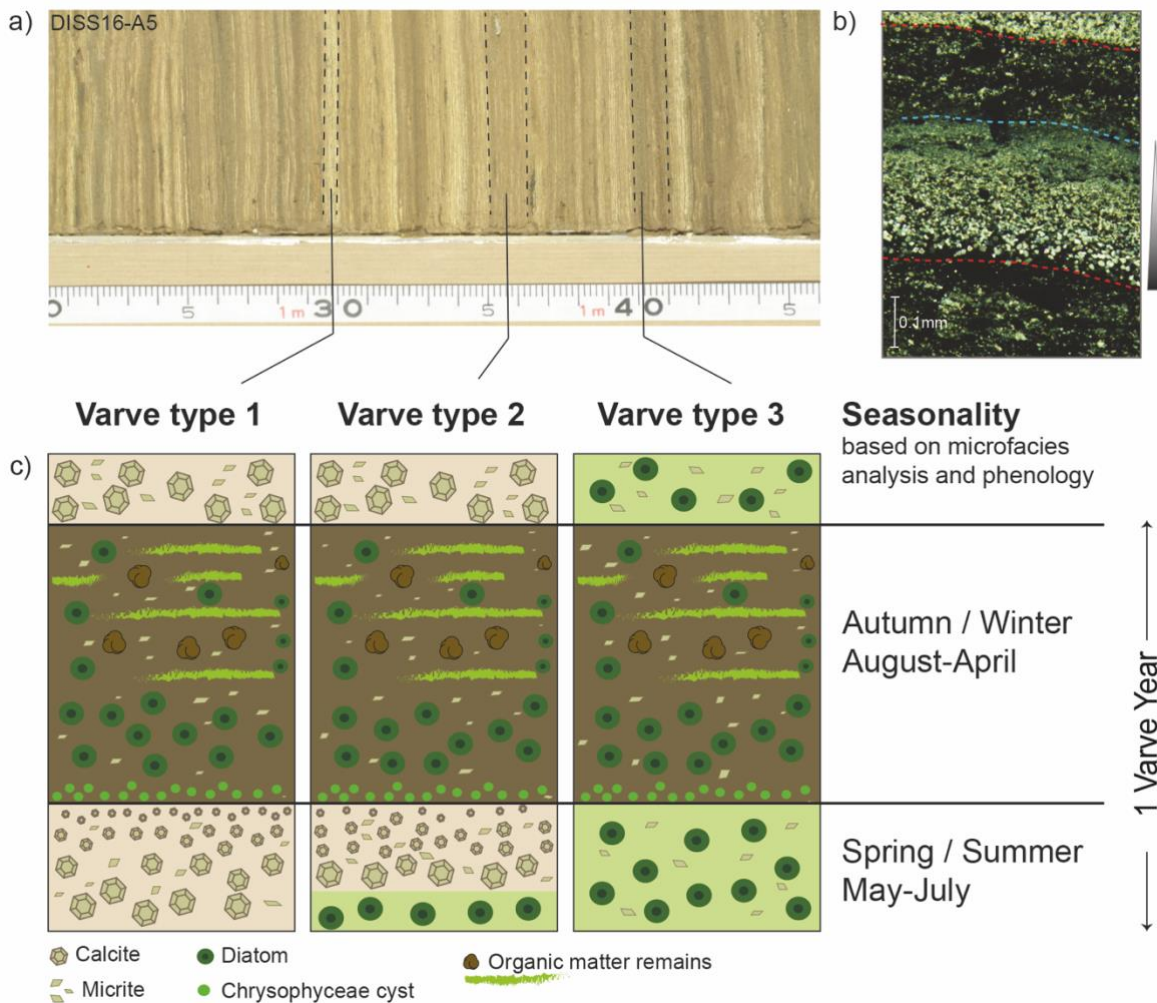
866

867

868

869

870



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).

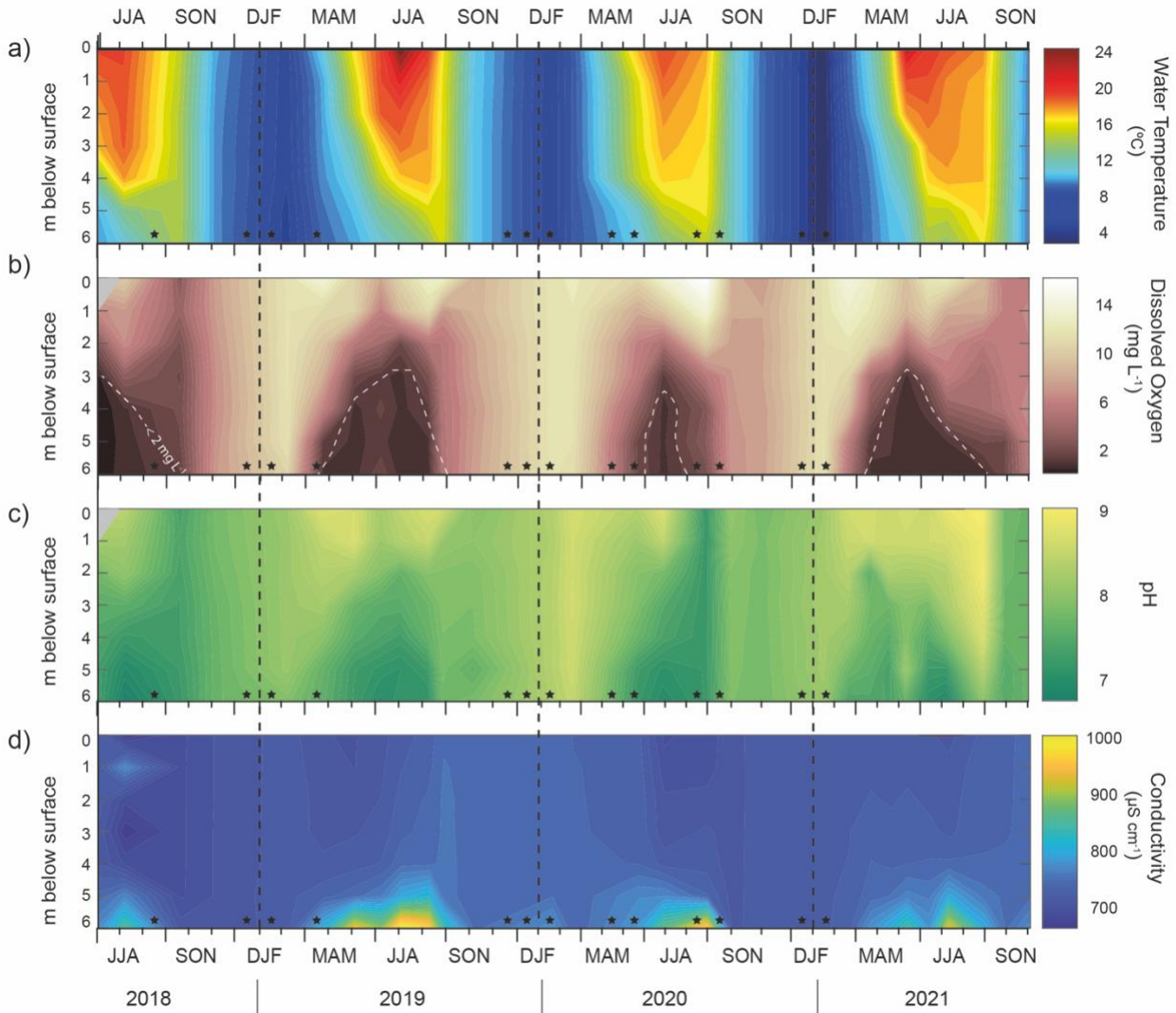
877

878

879

880

881



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.

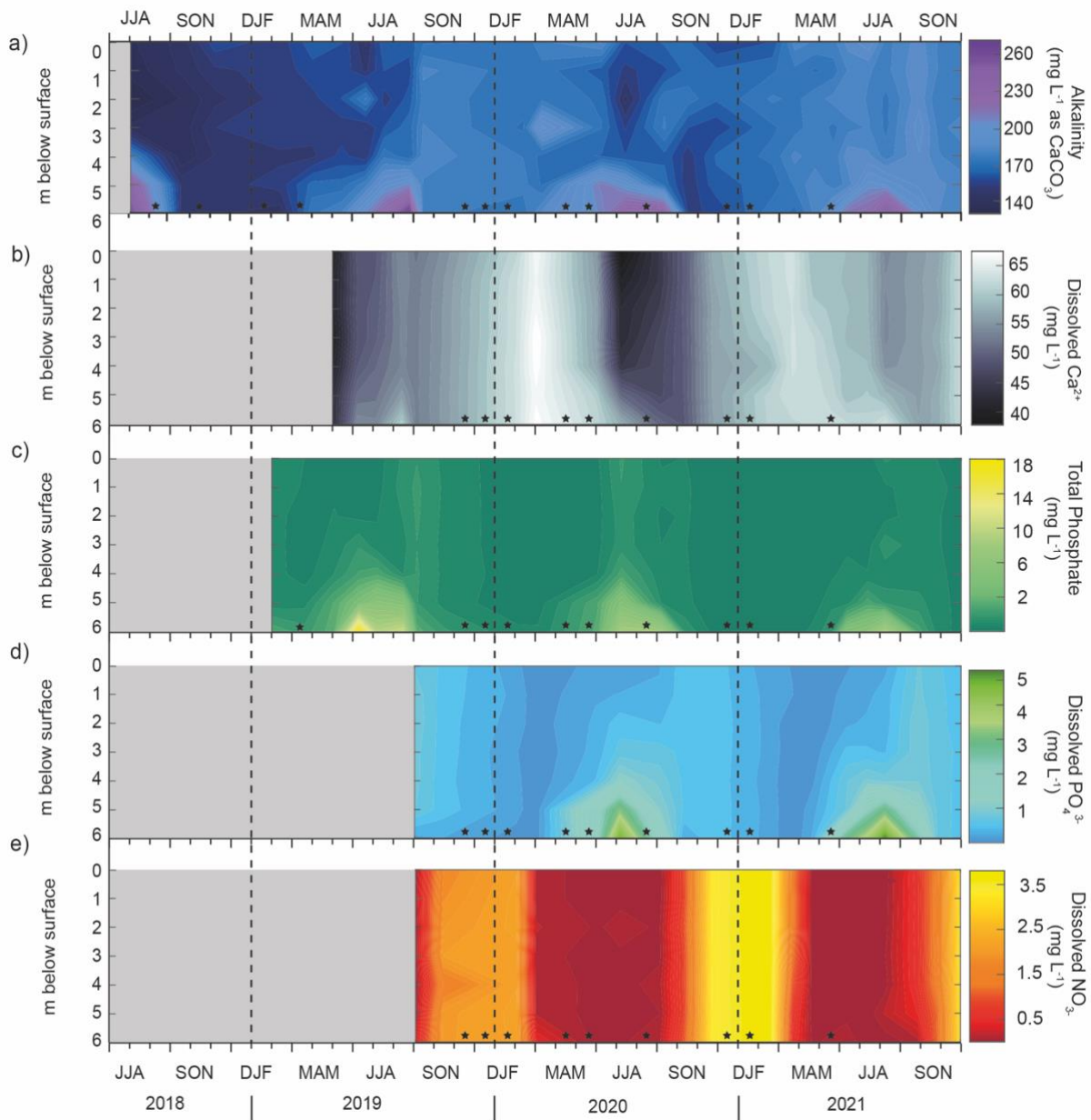
888

889

890

891

892

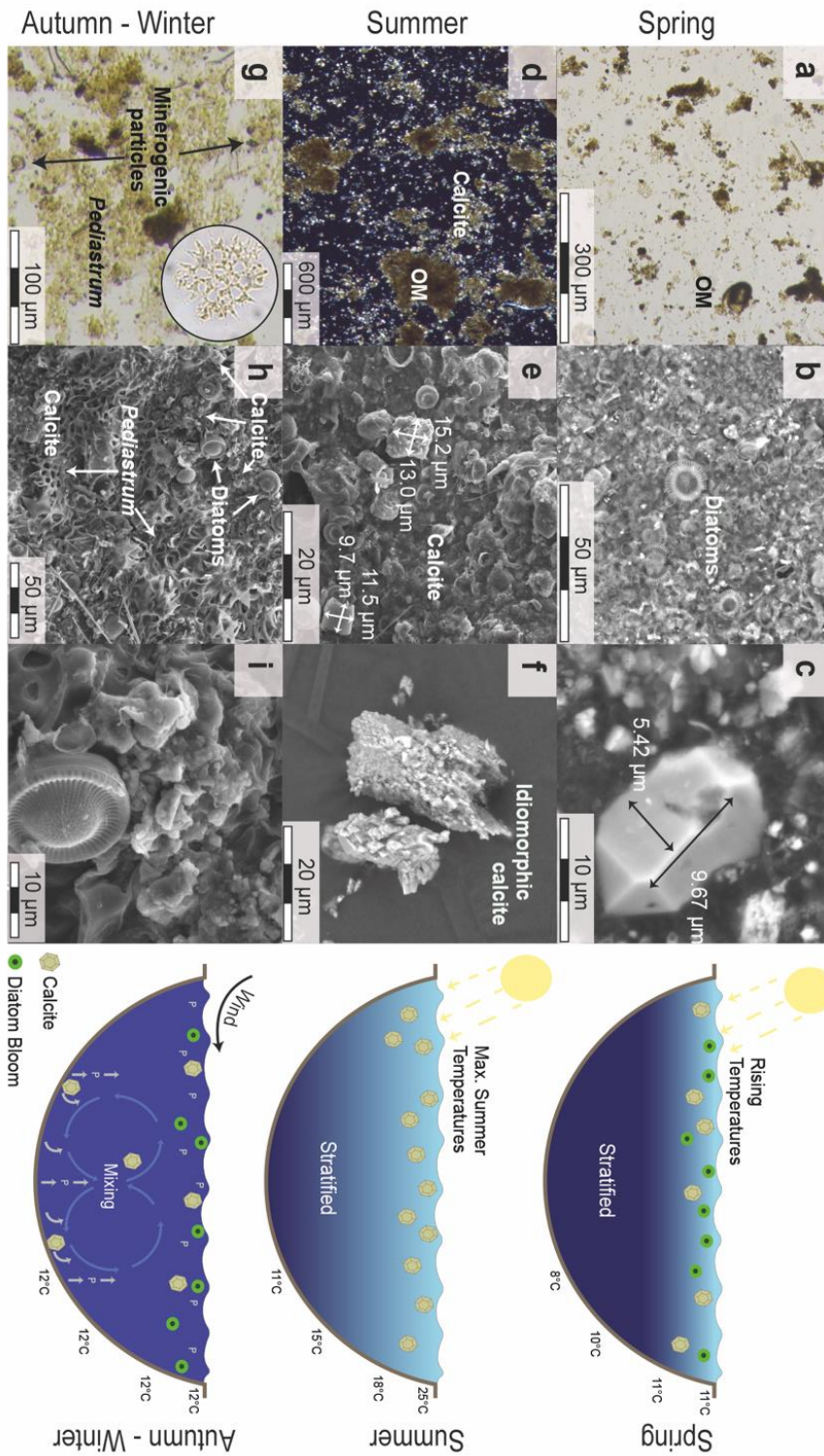


893 Figure 4. Chemical parameters for the monitored period (2018-2021). a: alkalinity. b dissolved
 894 Ca^{2+} , c: total phosphate. d: dissolved PO_4^{3-} and e: dissolved NO_3^- . Grey boxes indicate the
 895 absence of data. Vertical black dashed lines indicate the beginning of a calendar year. Stars
 896 indicate months where data has been interpolated due to absent data.

897

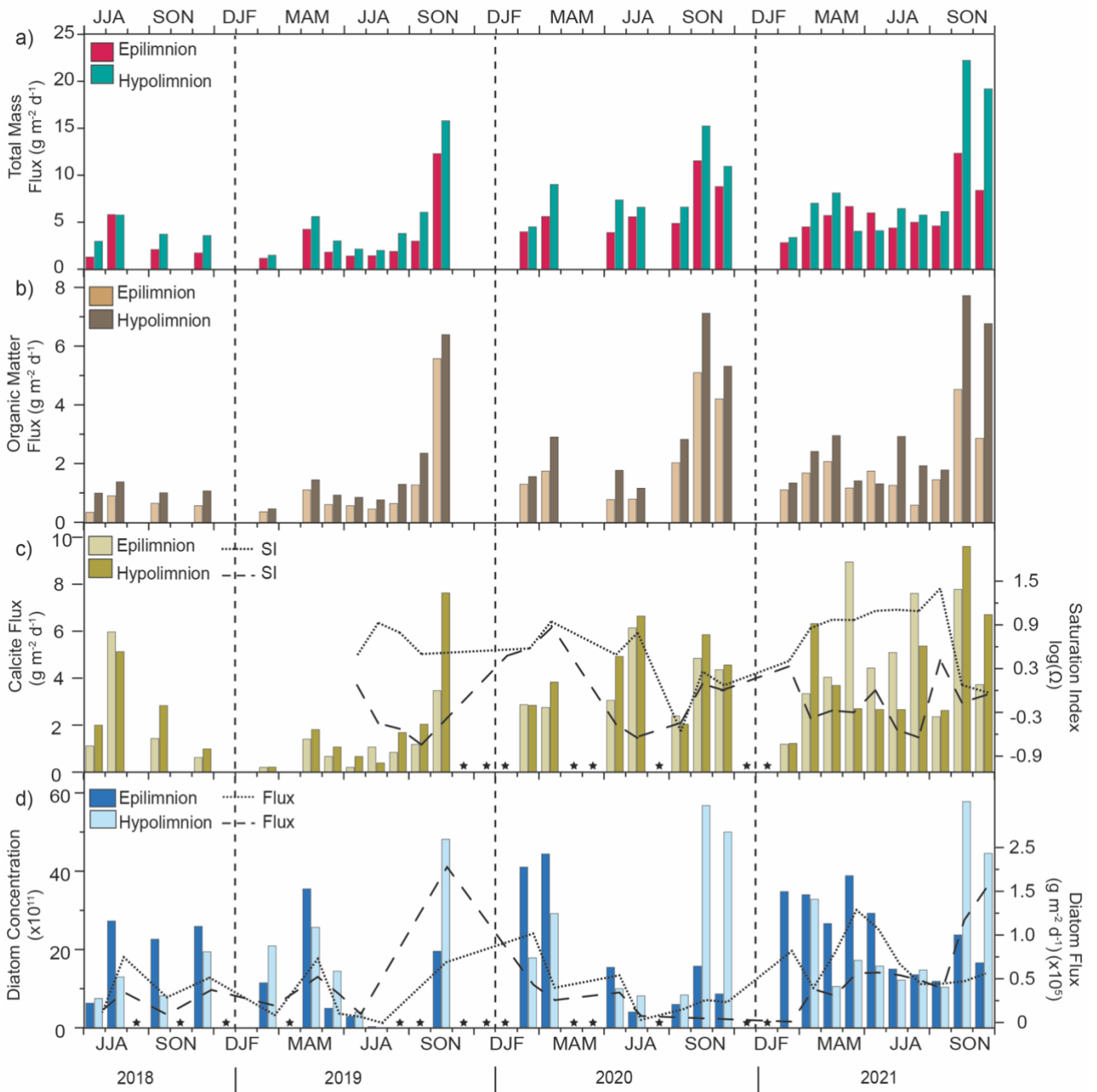
898

899



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.

904



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

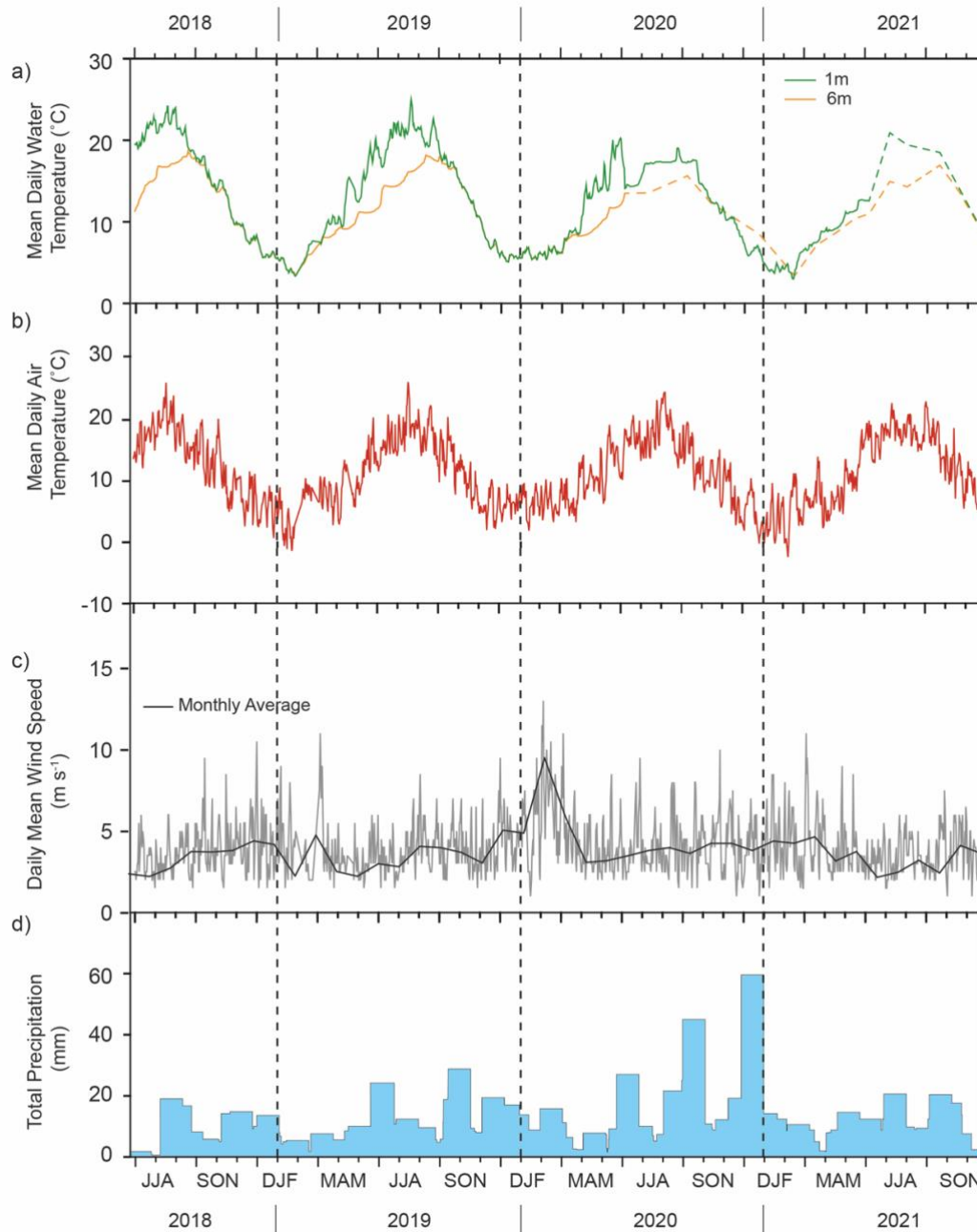
906 a: total mass flux. b: organic matter flux, c: calcite flux and saturation index (SI) (dashed lines).

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 (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.