



1 **Spatial distribution of environmental indicators in surface**  
2 **sediments of Lake Bolshoe Toko, Yakutia, Russia**

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4 Boris K. Biskaborn<sup>1\*</sup>, Larisa Nazarova<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Lyudmila A. Pestryakova<sup>4</sup>, Liudmila  
5 Syrykh<sup>5</sup>, Kim Funck<sup>1,6</sup>, Hanno Meyer<sup>1</sup>, Bernhard Chaplignin<sup>1</sup>, Stuart Vyse<sup>1</sup>, Ruslan  
6 Gorodnichev<sup>4</sup>, Evgenii Zakharov<sup>4,7</sup>, Rong Wang<sup>8</sup>, Georg Schwamborn<sup>1,9</sup>, Bernhard  
7 Diekmann<sup>1,2</sup>

8  
9 \*Corresponding author's Email: [boris.biskaborn@awi.de](mailto:boris.biskaborn@awi.de)

10

11 *1 Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research, Potsdam, Germany*

12 *2 University of Potsdam, Potsdam, Germany*

13 *3 Kazan Federal University*

14 *4 North-Eastern Federal University of Yakutsk, Russia*

15 *5 Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia, St. Petersburg, Russia*

16 *6 Humboldt University Berlin, Germany*

17 *7 Institute for Biological Problems of Cryolithozone Siberian Branch of RAS, Yakutsk, Russia*

18 *8 Key Laboratory of Submarine Geosciences, State Oceanic Administration, Hangzhou, China*

19 *9 Free University of Berlin, Berlin, Germany*

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28 **Abstract**

29

30 Rapidly changing climate in the northern hemisphere and associated socio-  
31 economic impacts require reliable understanding of lake systems as important  
32 freshwater resources and sensitive sentinels of environmental changes. To better  
33 understand time-series data in lake sediment cores it is necessary to gain  
34 information on within-lake spatial variabilities of environmental indicator data.  
35 Therefore, we retrieved a set of 38 samples from the sediment surface along spatial  
36 habitat gradients in the boreal, deep, and yet pristine Lake Bolshoe Toko in  
37 southern Yakutia, Russia. Our methods comprise laboratory analyses of the  
38 sediments for multiple proxy parameters including diatom and chironomid taxonomy,  
39 oxygen isotopes from diatom silica, grain size distributions, elemental compositions  
40 (XRF), organic carbon contents, and mineralogy (XRD). We analysed the lake water  
41 for cations, anions and isotopes. Our results show that the diatom assemblages are  
42 strongly influenced by water depth and dominated by planktonic species, i.e.



43 *Pliocaenicus bolshetokoensis*. Species richness and diversity is higher in the  
44 northern part of the lake basin, associated with the availability of benthic, i.e.  
45 periphytic, niches in shallower waters.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  values are higher in the deeper  
46 south-western part of the lake probably related to water temperature differences.  
47 The highest amount of the chironomid taxa underrepresented in the training set  
48 used for palaeoclimate inference was found close to the Utuk river and at southern  
49 littoral and profundal sites. Abiotic sediment components are not symmetrically  
50 distributed in the lake basin but vary along restricted areas of differential  
51 environmental forcings. Grain size and organic matter is mainly controlled by both,  
52 river input and water depth. Mineral (XRD) data distributions are influenced by the  
53 metamorphic lithology of the Stanovoy mountain range, while elements (XRF) are  
54 intermingled due to catchment and diagenetic differences. We conclude that the  
55 lake represents a suitable system for multiproxy environmental reconstruction based  
56 on diatoms (including oxygen isotopes), chironomids and sediment-geochemical  
57 parameters.

58

59

## 60 1 Introduction

61 Over the past few decades, the atmosphere in boreal and high elevation regions  
62 has warmed faster than anywhere else on Earth (Pepin et al., 2015;Huang et al.,  
63 2017). Dramatic socio-economic and ecological consequences are expected  
64 (AMAP, 2017) as well as substantial feedbacks from thawing permafrost and  
65 associated release of greenhouse gas in the global climate system (Schuur et al.,  
66 2015). Boreal Russia, as compared to the rest of the world, has been reported as a  
67 hot-spot region, where air temperature increases lead to substantial ground  
68 warming over the last decade (Biskaborn et al., 2019). Estimations of the accurate  
69 amplitude of environmental impact suffer from imprecise understanding of ecological  
70 indicators of past environmental conditions (Miller et al., 2010). Lake ecosystems,  
71 whose development is archived in their sediments, act as sensitive sentinels of  
72 environmental changes (Adrian et al., 2009), but rely on careful interpretation of  
73 suitable proxy data. Proxy information on present and past ecological conditions is  
74 provided by various biological and physicochemical properties of the sediment  
75 components (Meyer et al., 2015;Solovieva et al., 2015;Nazarova et al., 2017a).  
76 However, the spatial within-lake distributions of preserved remnants of ecosystem  
77 inhabitants and associated sediment-geochemical properties, depend on habitat  
78 differences between the epilimnion and the hypolimnion (Raposeiro et al., 2018),  
79 and are therefore expected to be non-uniform. Accordingly, precise  
80 paleolimnological reconstruction of past environmental variability requires a  
81 profound understanding of the recent within-lake heterogeneity.



82 Our approach comprises commonly applied sedimentological variables that help  
83 to gain a holistic view on a lake's depositional history, including diatom and  
84 chironomid taxonomy,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ , grain size distributions, elemental compositions,  
85 organic carbon contents, and mineralogy. Abiotic sediment preferences represent  
86 signals that result from external input of material and lake-internal conditions during  
87 deposition as well as post-sedimentary diagenetic processes near the sediment  
88 surface (Biskaborn et al., 2013b; Bouchard et al., 2016). To reliably identify true  
89 environmental signals, it is therefore necessary to apply multiproxy approaches that  
90 enable an understanding of lake-internal filters between original external forcing and  
91 the resulting preferences of the sediment deposition (Cohen, 2003).

92 Diatoms (unicellular, siliceous microalgae) represent a major part of the aquatic  
93 primary producers. They appear ubiquitous and their opaline frustules are well  
94 preserved in the sedimentary record, allowing exact identification down to sub-  
95 species level by high-resolution light microscope analysis (Battarbee et al., 2001).  
96 Diatoms are among the most applied bioindicators for past and present ecosystem  
97 changes in boreal environments (Miller et al., 2010; Pestryakova et al., 2012; Hoff et  
98 al., 2015; Herzsich et al., 2013; Biskaborn et al., 2012; Biskaborn et al.,  
99 2016; Palagushkina et al., 2017; Douglas and Smol, 2010). Widespread responses of  
100 planktonic diatoms to recent climate change prove that lakes in the northern  
101 hemisphere often have already crossed important ecological thresholds (Smol and  
102 Douglas, 2007; Rühland et al., 2008). The very rapid life cycles of the specimen of  
103 days to weeks (Round et al., 1990) enables changes in diatom assemblages on  
104 very short time-scales in response to changes in environmental circumstances, e.g.  
105 cooling or warming (Anderson, 1990). The link between climate change and  
106 diatoms, however, cannot easily be addressed via simple temperature-inference  
107 models. The situation demands a more complete understanding of the interactions  
108 between the aquatic ecosystem with lake habitat preferences, hydrodynamics and  
109 catchment properties (Anderson, 2000; Palagushkina et al., 2012; Biskaborn et al.,  
110 2016; Bracht-Flyr and Fritz, 2012; Hoff et al., 2015). It is thus necessary to identify  
111 the relationship between diatom species occurrence, the isotopic composition of  
112 their opaline valves, and internal physico-limnological factors (Heinecke et al., 2017)  
113 within spatial heterogenic lake systems before drawing direct inferences about  
114 external climatic driven factors from single core studies.

115 Chironomid larvae (Insecta: Diptera) can make up to 90% of the aquatic  
116 secondary production (Herren et al., 2017; Nazarova et al., 2004) and hence their  
117 preserved head capsules represent well the aquatic heterotrophic bottom-dwelling  
118 ecosystem component (Nazarova et al., 2008; Syrykh et al., 2017; Brooks et al.,  
119 2007). Furthermore, literature reports a net mutualism of chironomids and benthic  
120 algae between the primary consumer and primary producer trophic levels in benthic  
121 ecosystems (Specziar et al., 2018; Zinchenko et al., 2014). Factors influencing the



122 spatial distribution of chironomids within single lakes are water temperature  
123 (Nazarova et al., 2011;Luoto and Ojala, 2018), sedimentological habitat  
124 characteristics (Helting et al., 2018) and/or water depth and nutrients (Yang et al.,  
125 2017), as well as hypolimnetic oxygen (Stief et al., 2005) and the availability of  
126 water plants (Raposeiro et al., 2018;Wang et al., 2012b).

127 Secondary factors influencing the spatial distribution of subfossil assemblages  
128 are selective transitions from living communities to accumulation of dead remains.  
129 Both, biological remains and physico-chemical properties are influenced by  
130 sediment resuspension and redistribution processes described as sediment  
131 focusing (Hilton et al., 1986) which mainly depend on slope steepness (Hakanson,  
132 1977) or, in shallow areas, wind-induced bottom shear stress (Bennion et al.,  
133 2010;Yang et al., 2009). Nevertheless, it already has been proven for other lake  
134 sites that within-lake bioindicator distributions are laterally non-uniform, contradicting  
135 the assumption that mixing processes cause homogenous microfossil assemblages  
136 before deposition (Anderson, 1990;Wolfe, 1996;Anderson et al., 1994;Earle et al.,  
137 1988;Kingston et al., 1983;Puusepp and Punning, 2011;Stewart and Lamoureux,  
138 2012;Yang et al., 2009). However, many palaeolimnological studies have hitherto  
139 ignored that single-site approaches using only one sediment core do not encompass  
140 the full spatial extent and natural variability of the entire lake sediment archive.  
141 Heggen et al. (2012) reported that sediment cores from the deep centre of small and  
142 shallow lakes with high spatial proxy variability in the littoral zones contain  
143 representative bioindicator assemblages. The authors also conclude, that in larger  
144 and deeper lakes similar multi-site studies are necessary to make recommendations  
145 about the “ideal” coring positions for multi-proxy palaeolimnological studies.

146 In this respect, our general research question was: how spatially reliable are  
147 palaeolimnological proxy data in a complex lake system? To answer this question,  
148 we set up our research hypotheses: (1) Bioindicators will respond to different habitat  
149 properties and hence vary spatially in a complex lake system. (2) Water depth and  
150 sediment-geochemical parameters will correlate with species assemblages at  
151 different locations within a lake basin.

152 An analysis of spatio-temporal within-lake bioindicator distribution requires a  
153 suitable and large lake system with an anthropogenically untouched ecosystem and  
154 sufficient variability in water depth, catchment setting, and the sedimentological  
155 regime. These demands are met by Lake Bolshoe Toko which was considered as  
156 the deepest lake in Yakutia (Zhirkov et al., 2016), located in the Sakha Republic,  
157 Russia (Fig. 1). Our study aims to gain a better local understanding of proxy data for  
158 planned palaeoenvironmental analyses of long sediment cores from Bolshoe Toko.  
159 Therefore, our objectives are (1) to detect the spatial variability of abiotic (elements,  
160 minerals, grain size) and biotic (diatoms, chironomids, organic carbon) components  
161 of the lake’s surface sediments, (2) to reveal the causal relationship between the



162 distribution of aquatic microfossils, lake basin features, and sedimentary  
163 parameters, and (3) to attribute proxy variability to stressors and factors of the lake  
164 basin and its catchment.  
165

## 166 2 Study site

167 The maximum diameter of Lake Bolshoe Toko (56°15'N, 130°30'E, 903 m.a.s.l) is  
168 15.4 km, the maximum width is 7.6 km, the maximum water depth is 78 m (average  
169 30.5 m), the surface area 8500 Ha, and the water transparency is 9.8 m and the  
170 lake was indexed as “clean oligotrophic water” (Zhirkov et al., 2016). The north  
171 eastern lake basin is shallower (<30 m) compared to the south western part of the  
172 lake (up to 80 m). The Utuk river runs through Lake Maloe Toko and brings water  
173 from the southern igneous catchment. The Lake Maloe Toko (called “small Toko”,  
174 size 2.7 x 0.9 km, 168 m depth, tectonic origin) is located between high mountains  
175 south of Bolshoe Toko. The river inflow south of Bolshoe Toko forms deltaic  
176 sediments. The bay in the southeast is called Zaliv Rybachiy (“Fishing bay”). It is  
177 partly separated from the main basin and supplied with water by a small creek that  
178 itself is connected to a small lake (Fig. 1). The bay is reported to have a somewhat  
179 different fauna as compared to the Bolshoe Toko main basin, i.e. occurrence of fish  
180 that is typical for small lakes and not found out of the basin (Semenov, 2018). The  
181 “Banya lake” in the northeast is completely separated from Bolshoe Toko and was  
182 hence not considered in this study. The Mulam river is the lake’s predominant  
183 outflow towards the northern direction along the south eastern border of Yakutia  
184 flowing into the Uchur, Aldan and finally into the Lena rivers.

185 There are no permanent settlements in the study area. During the time of field  
186 work there was a temporary mining settlement (built in 2011) located 17 km  
187 northwest from Bolshoe Toko in the upper course of the Elga river. This settlement  
188 was accessible by off-road vehicles we used to reach the lake, partly along  
189 temporary winter roads (frozen rivers and lakes) in March 2013. The exploitation of  
190 the El’ginsky coal deposits, planned for a productivity of 15-20 million tons year<sup>-1</sup>  
191 (Konstantinov, 2000), will strongly affect the lake and its catchment. The territory of  
192 the watershed will increasingly be damaged and contaminated by off road vehicles  
193 and rain fall will produce muddy water which potentially can cause lake pollution  
194 (Sobakina and Solomonov, 2013).

195 The lake basin is adjoined to the northern slope of the eastern Stanovoy  
196 mountain range in a depression of tectonic and glacial origin between two  
197 northwest-trending right-lateral strike-slip faults (Imaeva et al., 2009). A southward  
198 thrust fault runs along the southern border of the lake separating the Precambrian  
199 igneous rocks in the south from sandstones and mudstones of the Mesozoic  
200 Tokinski Plateau in the north. The Stanovoy mountain range in the southern



201 catchment of the lake consists mainly of highly mafic granulites and other high-  
202 pressure metamorphic rock types (Rundqvist and Mitrofanov, 1993). At its north-  
203 eastern margins the lake is bordered by moraines of three different glacial sub-  
204 periods (Kornilov, 1962) (Fig. 2).

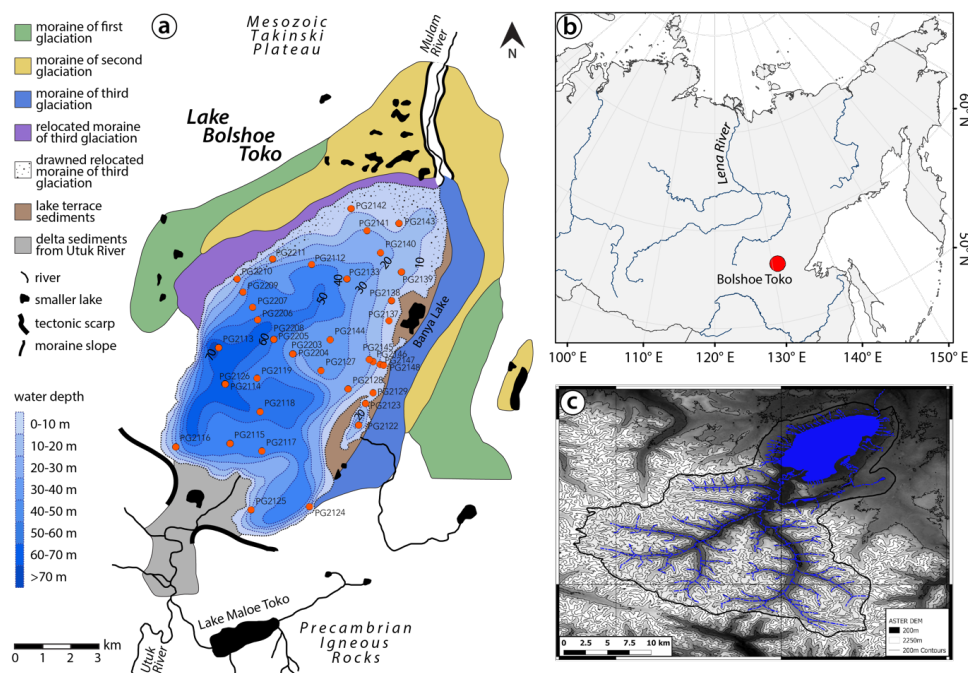
205 The study area is situated within the East Siberian continental temperate climate  
206 zone exhibiting taiga vegetation (boreal forests) and fragments of steppes and a  
207 predominant westerly wind system (Shahgedanova, 2002). The meteorological  
208 station in Yakutsk has recorded historical climate data (Gavrilova, 1993). In the 19<sup>th</sup>  
209 Century the mean annual temperature was circa -11° to -11.5°C. During the 20<sup>th</sup>  
210 Century temperatures have increased to around -10.2°C, in parallel with an increase  
211 in precipitation from 205 to 250 mm per year. The meteorological station “Toko”  
212 located approximately 10 km northeast of the lake, however, recorded mean annual  
213 air temperatures of -11.2°C (January min. -65°C, July max. +34°C, annual  
214 precipitation 276-579 mm). Measurements taken directly at the lake were lower,  
215 indicating the influence of cold water from the Stanovoy mountain range in summer  
216 and the high volume of ice during wintertime (Konstantinov, 2000). Since the  
217 average air temperature in southern Yakutia increases with height (temperature  
218 inversion of ~2°C 100 m<sup>-1</sup>), permafrost can be locally discontinuous where taliks  
219 (unfrozen zones) underneath topographically high and deep lakes penetrate the  
220 permafrost zone (Konstantinov, 1986). As observed in 1971 (Konstantinov, 2000)  
221 ice cover lasts at least partly until mid-July.

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225  
 226 **Fig. 1** Lake Bolshoe Toko study site. **a** Geological map, bathymetry and moraines. Map compiled using data  
 227 from Konstantinov (2000) and Kornilov (1962). **b** Overview map of Siberia. World Borders data are derived from  
 228 [http://thematicmapping.org/downloads/world\\_borders.php](http://thematicmapping.org/downloads/world_borders.php) and licensed under CC BY-SA 3.0. **c** Catchment area  
 229 around Bolshoe Toko delineated from the ASTER GDEM V2 model between the latitudes N54° and N56° and  
 230 longitudes E130° to E131° (1) (Meyer et al., 2011) and a corresponding multispectral Landsat 8 OLI TIRS  
 231 satellite image using QGIS (QGIS-Team, 2016). Most of the river catchment is located in the igneous  
 232 Precambrian Stanovoy mountain range supplying the southern part of the lake with water and sediment. The  
 233 shallower northeastern part of the lake is influenced by the surrounding moraines and Mesozoic sand- and  
 234 mudstones.  
 235

### 236 3 Materials and methods

#### 237 3.1 Field work

238 Field work was conducted during the German-Russian expedition “Yakutia 2013”  
 239 between March 19th to April 14th 2013 by the Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz  
 240 Centre for Polar and Marine Research (AWI) and the North Eastern Federal State  
 241 University in Yakutsk (NEFU). Lake basin bathymetry was measured with a portable  
 242 Echo Sounder. Water samples for hydrochemical analyses of the water column and  
 243 the ice layer were collected prior to sediment coring using a UWITEC water  
 244 sampler. Water samples were analysed in situ using a WTW Multilab 340i for pH,  
 245 conductivity, and oxygen values at the day of retrieval during field work. A sub-  
 246 sample of the original water was passed through a 0.45 µm cellulose-acetate filter,  
 247 stored and transported in 60-ml Nalgene polyethylene bottles for subsequent anion



248 and cation analyses in AWI laboratories in autumn 2013. Cation samples were  
249 acidified during field work with HNO<sub>3</sub>, suprapure (65%) to prevent microbial  
250 conversion processes and adsorptive accretion.

251 At 42 sites within the lake, short cores containing intact sediment surface material  
252 were retrieved using an UWITEC gravity corer. Water depth at sampling sites was  
253 measured using either a hand-held HONDEX PS-7 LCD digital sounder and/or the  
254 cord of the coring device when the lake ice cover disturbed the signal. The sediment  
255 was identified as clayish silt deposits with predominant dark (black) color and a  
256 weak smell of hydrogen sulphide, a sticky and viscous mud mixed with plant and  
257 other organic residues. The uppermost ca. 2 cm at some sites had a dark red  
258 colouring indicating the redox boundary between oxygenated and anoxic sediments.  
259 We identified the uppermost 0.5 cm of short cores as surface sediments and  
260 subsampled these layers onsite during fieldwork to avoid sediment mixture during  
261 transport. Sediment samples were transported in sterile "Whirl-Pak" bags and  
262 sediment cores were transported in plastic liners to the AWI laboratories in  
263 Potsdam, Germany, and stored at 4°C in a dark room for further analyses and as  
264 back-up.

## 265 **3.2 Laboratory analyses**

### 266 **3.2.1 Hydrochemistry**

267 From the water samples anions were analysed using ion chromatography  
268 (Dionex DX 320) and cations were determined using inductively coupled plasma–  
269 optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Perkin-Elmer Optima 8300DV Perkin-  
270 Elmer – Optical Emission Spectrometer. Hydrogen carbonate concentrations were  
271 measured by titration with 0.01 M HCl using an automatic titrator (Metrohm 794  
272 Basic Titrino).

273 Stable hydrogen and oxygen isotope analyses were carried out with Finnigan  
274 MAT Delta-S mass spectrometers with two equilibration units using common  
275 equilibration techniques (Meyer et al., 2000), and given as  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta\text{D}$  in ‰ vs.  
276 VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water). The d excess ( $d = \delta\text{D} - 8\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) is  
277 indicative for evaporation conditions in the moisture source region (Dansgaard,  
278 1964; Merlivat and Jouzel, 1979).

### 279 **3.2.2 X-ray fluorescence and X-ray diffractometry**

280 The elemental composition of 20 freeze-dried and milled surface samples was semi-  
281 quantitatively analysed by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) using a novel single sample  
282 modification for the AVAATECH XRF core scanner at AWI Bremerhaven. A  
283 Rhodium X-ray tube was warmed up to 1.75mA and 3 mA with a detector count time  
284 of 10s and 15s for elemental analysis at 10kV (No filter) and 30kV (Pd-Thin filter)





285 respectively. The average modelled chi square values ( $\chi^2$ ) of measured peak  
286 intensity curve fitting for the relevant elements were variable, but generally low (Zr =  
287 0.92, Mn = 1.49, Fe = 2.32, Ti = 1.53, Br = 3.65, Sr = 4.79, Rb = 4.98, Si = 16.11).  
288 Values above 3 were ascribed to suspiciously high count rates from sample PG2133  
289 which was subsequently excluded from XRF interpretation. The relatively low  
290 amount of total sample material available did not facilitate the removal of organic  
291 matter before prior to sample measurement and may have contributed to the  
292 variable modelled chi square values.

293 As interpretation of raw device obtained element intensities (in counts per second,  
294 cps) is problematic due to non-linear matrix effects and variations in sample density,  
295 water content and grain-size (Tjallingii et al., 2007), cps values were transformed  
296 using a centred-log ratio transformation (CLR). Element ratios were calculated from  
297 raw cps values and transformed using an additive-log ratio transformation (ALR)  
298 (Weltje and Tjallingii, 2008).

299 The mineralogical composition of 32 freeze-dried and milled samples was  
300 analysed by standard X-ray diffractometry (XRD) using a Philips PW1820  
301 goniometer at AWI Bremerhaven applying Cobalt-Potassium alpha (CoK $\alpha$ ) radiation  
302 (40 kV, 40 mA) as outlined in Petschick et al. (1996). The intensity of diffracted  
303 radiation was calculated as counts of peak areas using XRD processing software  
304 MacDiff 4.0.7 (freeware developed by R. Petschick in 1999). Individual mineral  
305 contents were expressed as percentages of bulk sediment XRD counts (Voigt,  
306 2009). Mineral inspection focused on quartz, plagioclase and K-feldspar,  
307 hornblende, mica, and pyrite. Clay minerals involved kaolinite, smectite and chlorite.  
308 Accuracy of the semi-quantitative XRD method is estimated to be between 5 and  
309 10% (Gingele et al., 2001).

310

### 311 **3.2.3 Grain-size, carbon and nitrogen analyses**

312 In order to gain high-resolution information on the grain-size distribution, organic  
313 material was removed from 32 surface sediment samples by hydrogen peroxide  
314 oxidation over four weeks on a platform shaker. Two homogenised subsamples  
315 were weighted and 93 subclasses between 0.375 and 2000  $\mu\text{m}$  were measured  
316 using a Coulter LS 200 Laser Diffraction Particle Analyser. Grain-size fractions  
317 coarser than 2 mm were sieved out, weighted and added to the volume percentage  
318 data afterwards to indicate the proportion of gravel.

319 Total carbon (TC) and total nitrogen (TN) of 35 freeze-dried and milled samples  
320 was quantified by heating the material in small tin capsules using a Vario EL III CNS  
321 analyser and total organic carbon (TOC) was measured using a Vario MAX C in per  
322 cent by weight (wt%). The measurement accuracy was 0.1 wt% for TOC and TN,  
323 and 0.05 wt% for TC. TOC and TN were compared to calculate the  $\text{TOC}/\text{TN}_{\text{atomic}}$



324 ratio by multiplying with the ratio of atomic weights of nitrogen and carbon following  
325 Meyers and Teranes (2002).

326 The stable carbon isotope composition  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the total organic carbon fraction  
327 was measured in 15 samples using a Finnigan Delta-S mass spectrometer. Dried,  
328 milled and carbonate-free (HCl treated) samples were combusted in tin capsules to  
329  $\text{CO}_2$ . Results are expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values relative to the PDB standard in parts per  
330 thousand (‰) with an error of  $\pm 0.15\%$ .

### 331 3.2.4 Diatoms

332 23 samples were prepared for diatom analysis following the standard procedure  
333 described by Battarbee et al. (2001). To calculate the diatom valve concentration  
334 (DVC)  $5 \times 10^6$  microspheres were added to each sample following organic removal  
335 with hydrogen peroxide. Diatom slides were prepared on a hot plate using Naphrax  
336 mounting medium. For the identification of diatoms to the lowest possible taxonomic  
337 level we used several diatom flora including Lange-Bertalot et al. (2011), Lange-  
338 Bertalot and Metzeltin (1996), Krammer and Lange-Bertalot (1986-1991) and  
339 Lange-Bertalot and Genkal (1999). For rare taxa (i.e. *Pliocaenicus*) literature  
340 research was applied in scientific papers, including Cremer and Van de Vijver  
341 (2006) and Genkal et al. (2018). A minimum of 300 (and up to 400) diatom valves  
342 were counted in each sample using a Zeiss AXIO Scope.A1 light microscope with a  
343 Plan-Apochromat 100 $\times$ /1.4 Oil Ph3 objective at 1000 $\times$  magnification. Identification of  
344 small diatom species was verified using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) at  
345 the GeoForschungsZentrum Potsdam.

346 During counting of diatom valves, chrysophycean stomatocysts and *Mallomonas*  
347 were counted but not further taxonomically identified. Count numbers were used to  
348 estimate the chrysophyte cyst to diatom index (C:D) and *Mallomonas* to diatom  
349 index (M:D) relative to counted diatom cells (Smol, 1984; Smol and Boucherle,  
350 1985).

351

### 352 3.2.5 Oxygen isotopes of diatom silica

353 To analyze the oxygen isotope composition from diatom silica ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ ) from 9  
354 representative surface samples, a purification procedure including wet chemistry (to  
355 remove organic matter and carbonates) and heavy liquid separation was applied for  
356 the fraction  $<10 \mu\text{m}$  following the method described in Chaplignin et al. (2012). After  
357 freeze-drying the samples were treated with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (32%) and HCl (10%) to remove  
358 organic matter and carbonates and wet sieved into  $<10 \mu\text{m}$  and  $>10 \mu\text{m}$  fractions.  
359 Four multiple heavy liquid separation (HLS) steps with varying densities (from 2.25  
360 to 2.15  $\text{g/cm}^3$ ) were then applied using a sodium polytungstate (SPT) solution



361 before being exposed to a mixture of HClO<sub>4</sub> (65%) and HNO<sub>3</sub> (65%) for removing  
362 any remaining micro-organics.

363 To remove exchangeable hydrous groups from the diatom valve structure  
364 (amorphous silica SiO<sub>2</sub> \* nH<sub>2</sub>O), inert Gas Flow Dehydration was performed  
365 (Chapligin et al., 2010). Oxygen isotope analyses were performed on dehydrated  
366 samples using laser fluorination technique (with BrF<sub>5</sub> as reagent to liberate O<sub>2</sub>) and  
367 then directly measured against an oxygen reference of known isotopic composition  
368 using a PDZ Europa 2020 mass spectrometer (MS2020, now supplied by Sercon  
369 Ltd., UK). The long-term analytical reproducibility (1σ) is ±0.25 ‰ (Chapligin et al.,  
370 2010).

371 Every fifth sample was a biogenic working standard to verify the quality of the  
372 analyses. For this, the biogenic working standard BFC calibrated within an inter-  
373 laboratory comparison was used (Chapligin, 2011). With a δ<sup>18</sup>O value of +29.0±0.3  
374 ‰ (1σ) BFC (this study: +28.7±0.17 ‰, n=49) is the closest diatom working  
375 standard to the Bolshoe Toko samples (δ<sup>18</sup>O values range between +22 and +24 ‰)  
376 available. A contamination correction was applied to δ<sup>18</sup>O<sub>diatom</sub> using a geochemical  
377 mass-balance approach (Chapligin et al., 2012; Swann et al., 2007) determining the  
378 contamination end-member by analysing the heavy fractions after the first heavy  
379 liquid separation resulting in Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>=16.2±1.3 % (via EDX; n=9) and δ<sup>18</sup>O=8.5±0.8 ‰  
380 (n=6).

### 381 3.2.6 Chironomids

382 Treatment of 18 sediment samples for chironomid analysis followed standard  
383 techniques described in Brooks et al. (2007). Subsamples of wet sediments were  
384 deflocculated in 10 % KOH, heated to 70 °C for up to 10 minutes, to which boiling  
385 water was added and left to stand for up to another 20 minutes. The sediment was  
386 passed through stacked 225 and 90 μm sieves. Chironomid larval head capsules  
387 were picked out of a grooved Bogorov sorting tray under a stereomicroscope at 25-  
388 40x magnifications and were mounted in Hydromatrix two at a time, ventral side up,  
389 under a 6 mm diameter cover slip. From 48 to 117 chironomid larval head capsules  
390 were extracted from each sample, to capture the maximum diversity of the  
391 chironomid population. Chironomids were identified to the highest taxonomic  
392 resolution possible with reference to Wiederholm (1983) and Brooks et al. (2007).  
393 Information on the ecology of chironomid taxa and groups was taken from Brooks et  
394 al. (2007), Pillot (2009) and Nazarova et al., (2011;2015;2008;2017b)). Ecological  
395 information of the taxa associated to biotopes (littoral, profundal), water velocity  
396 (standing, running water), and relation to presence of macrophytes were taken from  
397 Brooks et al. (2007) and Pillot (2009). T July optima of chironomids were taken from  
398 Far East (FE) chironomid-based temperature inference model (Nazarova et al.,  
399 2015). The Far East (FE) chironomid-based temperature inference model (WA-PLS,



400 2 components;  $r^2$  boot = 0.81; RMSEP boot = 1.43 °C) was established from a  
401 modern calibration data set of 88 lakes and 135 taxa from the Russian Far East  
402 (53–75°N, 141–163°E, T July range 1.8 – 13.3 °C). Mean July air temperature for  
403 the lakes from the calibration data set was derived from (New et al., 2002). All  
404 modern and chironomid-inferred temperatures were corrected to 0 m.a.s.l. using a  
405 modern July air temperature lapse rate of 6 °C km<sup>-1</sup> (Livingstone et al., 1999;Heiri et  
406 al., 2014).

### 407 3.3 Statistical analyses

408 Species richness and the Simpson diversity on diatom and chironomid data were  
409 estimated after sample-size normalization using a rarefaction analysis in the iNext  
410 package in R. Diatom valve preservation was measured and calculated as the f-  
411 index (Ryves et al., 2001). Diatom valve concentration was estimated as the number  
412 of valves per gram dry sediment following Battarbee and Kneen (1982).

413 Detrended Correspondence Analysis (DCA) with detrending by segments was  
414 performed on the chironomid and diatom data (rare taxa downweighted) to  
415 determine the lengths of the sampled environmental gradients, from which we  
416 decided whether unimodal or linear statistical techniques would be the most  
417 appropriate for the data analysis (Birks, 1995). For diatom data the gradient lengths  
418 of the species scores were 2.07 and 1.49 standard deviation units (SDU) for DCA 1  
419 and 2, respectively, suggesting that lineal numerical methods should be used. A  
420 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to explore the main taxonomic  
421 variation of the data (ter Braak and Prentice, 1988). The gradient lengths of  
422 chironomid species scores were 3.78 and 4.12 SDU indicating that numerical  
423 methods based on a unimodal response model should be more appropriate to  
424 assess the variation structure of the chironomid assemblages (ter Braak, 1995).  
425 However, test PCA performed on chironomid data showed that lineal method  
426 captures more variance of species data (ESM, Table a) therefore we further applied  
427 lineal methods for both, chironomid and diatom data. In order to summarize the  
428 response of lacustrine biota to abiotic, physicochemical explanatory variables, a  
429 redundancy analysis (RDA) was performed on diatom and chironomid data in  
430 comparison to environmental variables (Fig. 2 and 3).

431 Initially, all environmental variables shown in the Table 1 were used in RDA to  
432 assess the relationships between the distribution of bioindicator taxa and abiotic  
433 habitat parameters. Additionally we include in the analysis the presence/absence of  
434 the submerged vegetation, distances of the sampling stations from the shore and  
435 from the inflowing rivers. Variance inflation factors (VIF) were used to identify  
436 intercorrelated variables. Environmental variables with a VIF greater than 20 were  
437 eliminated, beginning with the variable with the largest inflation factor, until all  
438 remaining variables had values < 20 (ter Braak and Smilauer, 2012). A set of RDAs



439 was performed on chironomid and diatom data with each environmental variable as  
440 the sole constraining variable. The percentage of the variance explained by each  
441 variable was calculated and statistical significance of each variable was tested by a  
442 Monte Carlo permutation test with 999 unrestricted permutations. Significant  
443 variables ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) were retained for further analysis.

444 DCA, PCA and RDA were performed using CANOCO 5.04 (ter Braak and  
445 Smilauer, 2012).

446 Percentage abundances of the chironomid taxa that are absent or rare in the  
447 modern calibration data set were calculated at each sampling site in order to see the  
448 distribution of the taxa that could potentially hamper a T July reconstruction in case  
449 of palaeoclimatic study that could be done at each of the sampling sites. It is known  
450 that less reliability should be placed on the samples in which more than 5% of the  
451 taxa are not represented in the modern calibration data or more than 5% of the taxa  
452 are rare in the modern calibration dataset (i.e. Hill's  $N_2$  less than 5) (Heiri and Lotter,  
453 2001; Self et al., 2011).

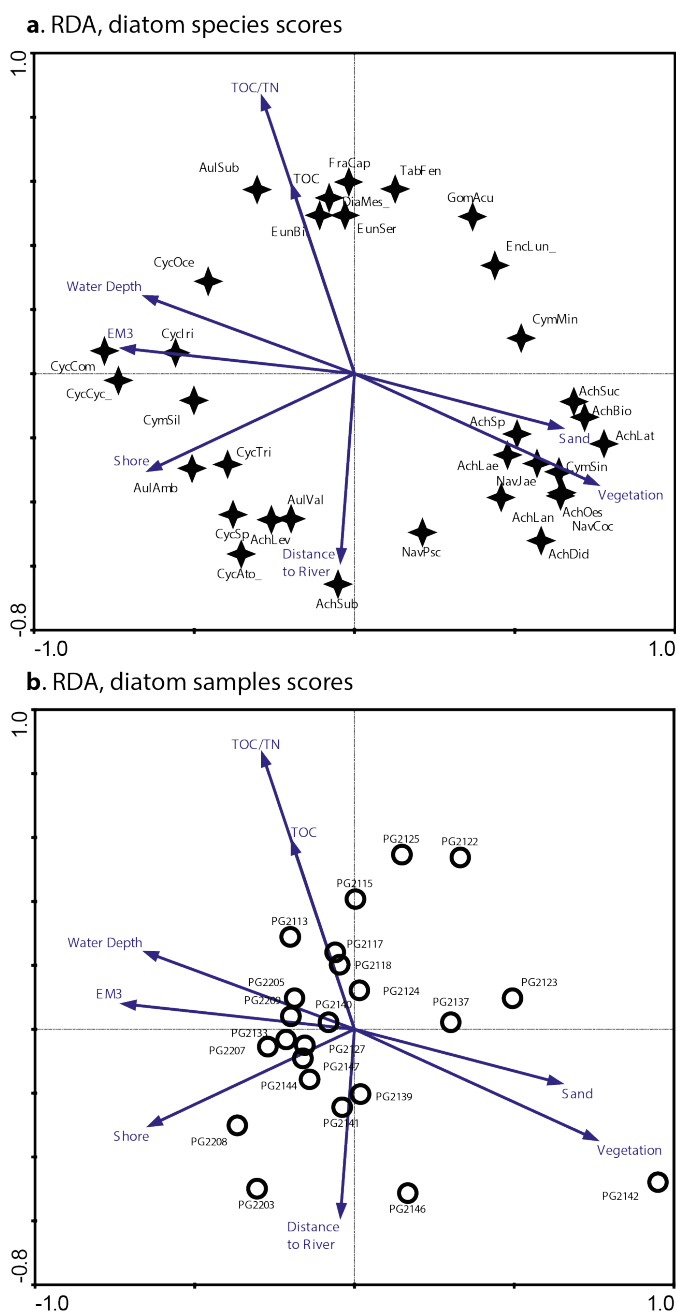
454 To assess the relative contribution of different sedimentary processes to the bulk  
455 sediment, such as fluvial or aeolian transport (Wang et al., 2015; Biskaborn et al.,  
456 2013b) a statistical end-member analysis on grain-size data was performed using  
457 the MATLAB modelling algorithm of Dietze et al. (2012). In this method, individual  
458 grain-size populations identified as end-member loadings (vol%, Fig. 4) as well as  
459 their contributions to the bulk composition identified as scores (%) were derived by  
460 eigenspace analysis, weight transformation, Varimax rotations and different scaling  
461 procedures.

462 A Pearson correlation matrix of the main important variables (Fig. 5) was  
463 calculated using the basic R core (R Core Team, 2012) and plotted using *corrplot*. A  
464 p-value adjustment was applied to only assign colours to values that revealed  $p$   
465  $< 0.05$ . To identify the pattern, the correlation matrix was reordered according to the  
466 correlation coefficient. Exceptional sites within the heterogenic lake system lead to  
467 disturbance of good correlation coefficients within areas along natural borders, e.g.  
468 water depth isobaths.

469 To guarantee the sustained availability of our research (Elger et al., 2016), the  
470 data will be uploaded and freely accessible in the PANGAEA repository.

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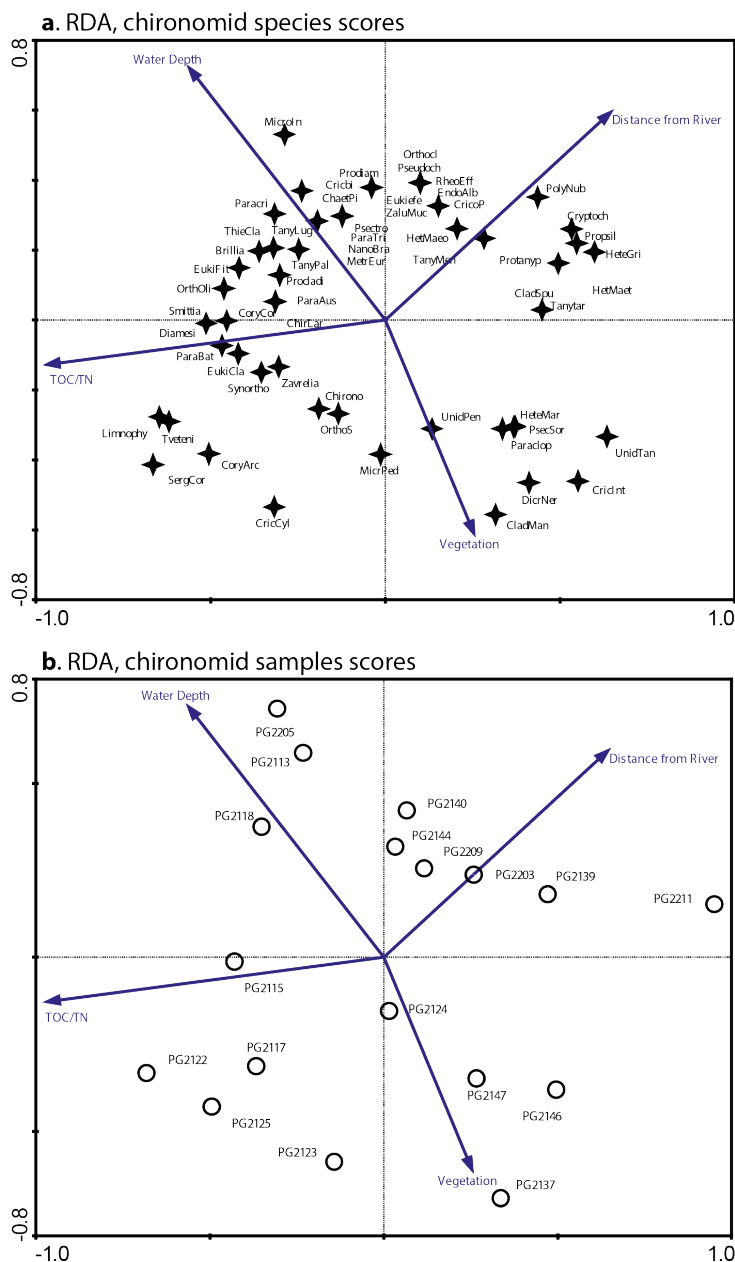


473  
 474 **Fig. 2** RDA biplots of diatoms in the surface sediments of Lake Bolshoe Toko. (a) Common diatom taxa and  
 475 significant environmental variables. (b) Diatom sampling sites and significant environmental variables.  
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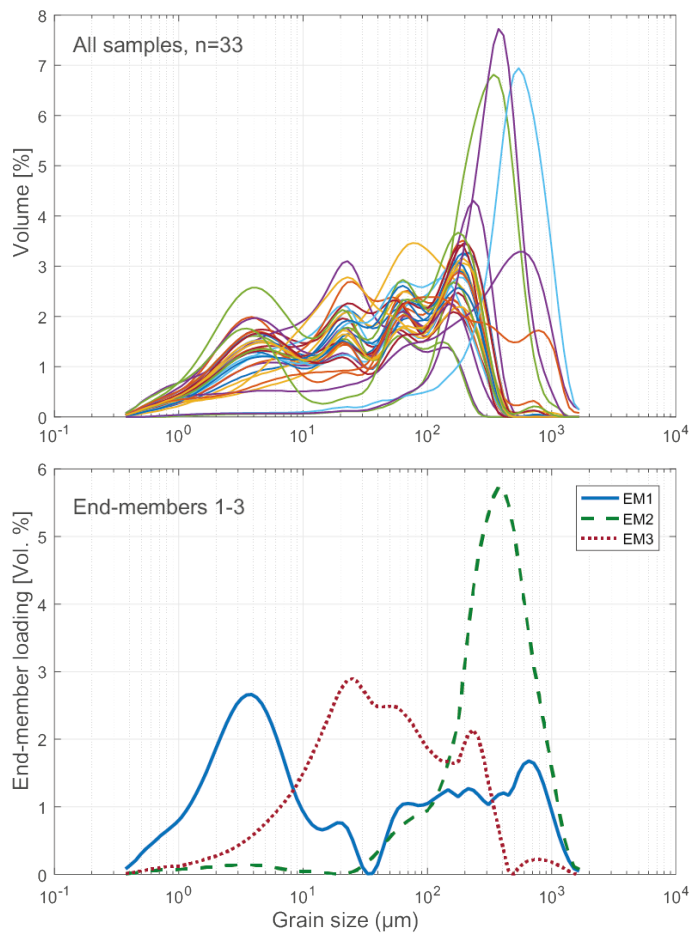


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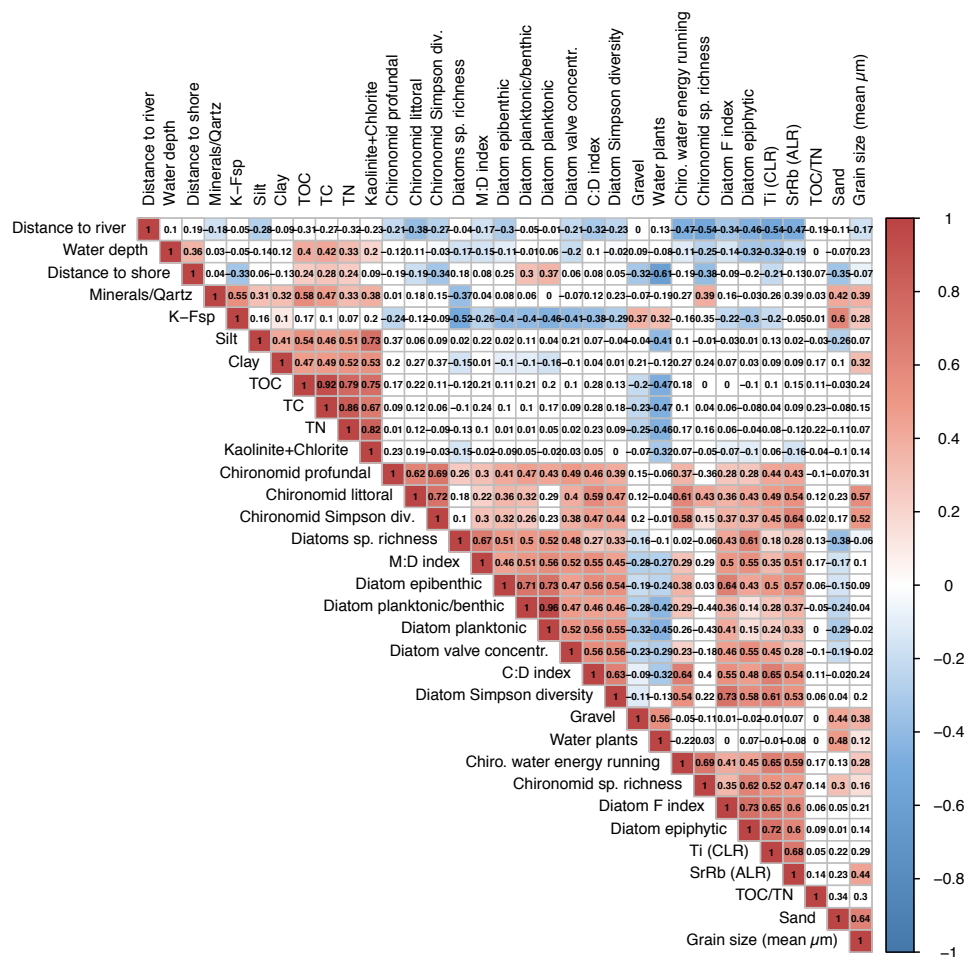
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**Fig. 2** RDA biplots of chironomids in the surface sediments of Lake Bolshoe Toko. (a) Common chironomid taxa and significant environmental variables. (b) Chironomid sampling sites and significant environmental variables.



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**Fig. 4** Endmember analysis grain-size distributions in 33 samples from Lake Bolshoe Toko.



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**Fig. 5** Pearson correlation matrix of selected environmental parameters. Positive correlations indicated in red, negative correlations indicated in blue. A p values adjustment was applied and only values of <0.05 used to assign colours.

## 494 4 Results

### 495 4.1 Water chemistry

496 The sampled surface waters of Bolshoe Toko (Table 1) are well saturated in O<sub>2</sub>  
 497 (101-113 %) with a pH-value in the neutral range (6.8 – 7.2). The electrical  
 498 conductivity is very low for all waters, though the lagoon shows a slightly higher  
 499 conductivity (67.8 μS/cm) than the rest of the samples (35.1 – 39.1 μS/cm). Traces  
 500 of Al (mean 72 μg/L), Fe (mean 46.6 μg/L), and Sr (mean 37.1 μg/L) were found.  
 501 However, there was no evidence for significant concentrations of environmental



502 relevant elements (Pb, Cr, V, Co, Ni, Cu). The concentrations of sulfate ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) was  
503 2.35 mg/l on average but lower in the lagoon (0.51 mg/l). The concentrations of  
504 nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) was 0.76 mg/l, but lower in the lagoon (0.29 mg/l).  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was 37.52  
505 mg/l in the lagoon and 14.9 mg/l on average in the rest of the samples. There was  
506 no phosphorus found in any of the samples. Overall the water can be characterized  
507 as water of the Ca-Mg- $\text{HCO}_3$  type.

508 The mean stable isotope composition of Bolshoe Toko lake surface waters at the  
509 six coring positions is -18.7‰ for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , -140.2‰ for  $\delta\text{D}$  and 9.5‰ for d-excess,  
510 respectively. A relatively uniform isotopic composition of  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.58 \pm 0.15\text{‰}$  ( $\delta\text{D} =$   
511  $-139 \pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ) was observed for the main Bolshoe Toko waters, whereas the lagoon  
512 (PG2122) displays slightly more negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ( $\delta\text{D}$ ) values of -19.2‰ (-145‰).  
513 Water depth profiles were taken during the March 2013 expedition from the deepest  
514 part of the lake (PG2108, water depth 70m) and in the lagoon (PG2122, 18m) as  
515 well as in August 2012 (sample site near the western shoreline, 37m). The  
516 temperature was determined in the field and the samples analysed for isotopes  
517 ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ,  $\delta\text{D}$ , see Fig. 6). The mean isotopic composition of the water profile at PG2208  
518 stabilizes from 10 m downward ( $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.2 \pm 0.2 \text{‰}$ ) and is slightly heavier than  
519 the surface samples ( $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.6$ ) due to isotopic fractionation during ice formation.  
520 In contrast, the lagoon shows a lighter isotope composition ( $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.9 \pm 0.2 \text{‰}$ )  
521 than the main lake basin. Samples taken in August 2012 close to the western  
522 shoreline show a similar mean value down the water column ( $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -18.2 \pm 0.3 \text{‰}$ )  
523 but no change in the upper samples as seen in PG2208. A similar mean isotopic  
524 composition indicates negligible evaporation effects and no strong seasonal change.  
525 This is typical for through-flow lakes (Mayr et al., 2007). Generally, a higher variation  
526 is observed in the August record. Meteorological data from the nearby weather  
527 station (Toko RS, 10 km northward) recorded heavy rainfall for August 2012 (25 mm  
528 above the long term mean of 83 mm). Such precipitation events could cause  
529 temporary isotopic stratification or a variation in the isotopic signal throughout the  
530 water column. Due to ongoing mixing, these variations are then evened. In  
531 conclusion, variations in the isotopic composition throughout the August profile are  
532 more a temporal phenomenon and not characteristic for Bolshoe Toko. All samples  
533 are positioned close to the global mean water level (GMWL, Fig. 6) indicating an  
534 unaltered precipitation signal without significant evaporation.

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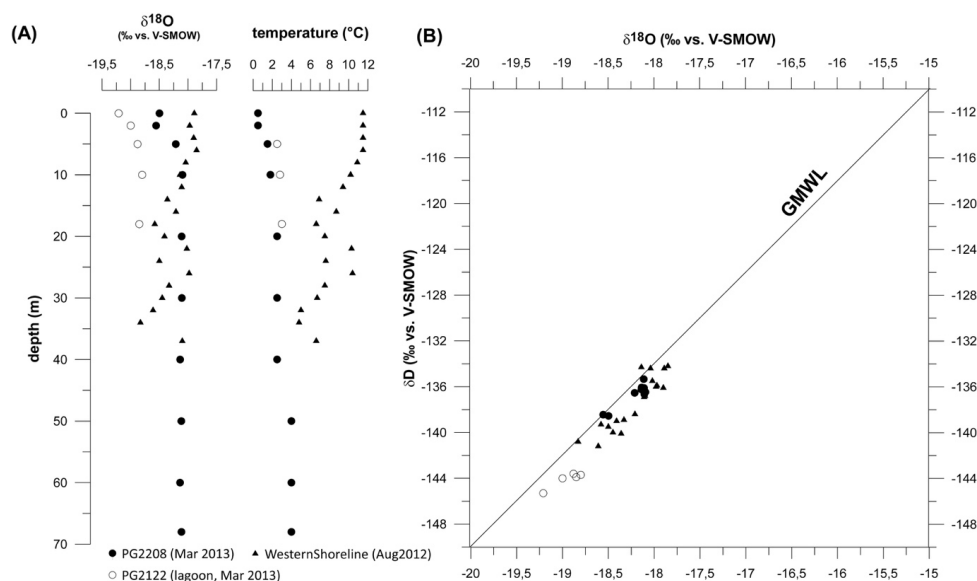
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 542 **Table 1:** Hydrochemical parameters from surface water samples of Lake Bolshoe Toko.  
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	Unit	PG2207	PG2208	PG2122*	PG2124	PG2125	PG2126	Average
pH		6.95	6.81	6.99	7.05	7.24	7.13	<b>7.03</b>
Conductivity	μS/cm	38.40	35.10	67.80	37.90	39.10	36.60	<b>42.48</b>
Oxygen	%	100.9	110.9	108.4	110.4	108.9	113.1	<b>108.8</b>
Al	μg/L	82.18	79.88	43.19	75.54	73.31	77.62	<b>71.95</b>
Ba	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
Ca	mg/L	5.00	4.73	9.01	4.68	4.91	4.70	<b>5.51</b>
Fe	μg/L	24.56	26.90	147.56	24.96	33.13	22.22	<b>46.55</b>
K	mg/L	0.37	0.36	0.40	0.36	0.40	0.37	<b>0.38</b>
Mg	mg/L	1.16	1.09	2.71	1.07	1.13	1.10	<b>1.38</b>
Mn	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
Na	mg/L	0.74	0.78	1.61	0.77	0.79	0.76	<b>0.91</b>
P	mg/L	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10
Si	mg/L	2.11	1.93	3.01	1.98	2.05	2.05	<b>2.19</b>
Sr	μg/L	27.40	25.86	90.57	26.28	26.29	26.07	<b>37.08</b>
Pb	μg/L	< 25	< 25	< 25	< 25	< 25	< 25	< 25
Cr	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
V	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
Co	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
Ni	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
Cu	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
Zn	μg/L	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20	< 20
Fluoride	mg/l	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05	< 0,05
Chloride	mg/l	0.51	0.51	0.55	0.60	0.60	0.58	<b>0.56</b>
Sulfate	mg/l	2.72	2.47	0.51	2.66	2.95	2.77	<b>2.35</b>
Bromide	mg/l	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10
Nitrate	mg/l	0.82	0.82	0.29	0.82	0.88	0.89	<b>0.76</b>
Phosphate	mg/l	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10	< 0,10
HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	mg/l	15.71	13.58	37.52	14.80	15.41	15.10	<b>18.69</b>
δ <sup>18</sup> O	‰ VSMOW	-18.72	-18.5	-19.21	-18.63	-18.43	-18.71	<b>-18.70</b>
δD	‰ VSMOW	-140.2	-138.5	-145.3	-139.4	-138.2	-139.3	<b>-140.15</b>
d-excess	‰ VSMOW	9.6	9.4	8.4	9.7	9.2	10.4	<b>9.45</b>

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**Fig. 6:** (A) Profiles of water isotopes ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) and temperature from different locations taken in August and March. (B)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ - $\delta\text{D}$  diagram for various water samples. GMWL is the Global Meteoric Water Line (black line),

## 551 4.2 Physicochemical sediment composition

552 The typical surficial lake bottom sediments consist of either brown organic-  
553 enriched gyttja or sandy, organic-poor siliciclastic material. Sand contents ranged  
554 between 10.2 % and 96.2 % (mean 45.9 %, Fig. 7); silt contents ranged from 3.6 %  
555 to 83.3 % (mean 47.1 %); clay contents ranged from 0.2 % to 11.3 % (mean 5.8 %).  
556 Gravel was found only in four samples at the north eastern near-shore areas with  
557 contents of up to 13.1 %. The mean grain size ranged from 12 to 479  $\mu\text{m}$  (mean 72  
558  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The mean grain size generally correlated negatively with water depth ( $r = -0.45$ ).  
559 Mineral grains are composed mainly of quartz (32.7-76.2 %, mean 55.4 %),  
560 plagioclase (13.4-39.5 %, mean 26.2 %), K-feldspar (0.0-9.8 %, mean 5.6 %), and,  
561 to a smaller degree of pyrite (0.2-5.5 %, mean 3.3 %), hornblende (0.5-10.8 %,  
562 mean 3.1 %), mica (0.3-2.4 %, mean 1.1 %), and the clay minerals smectite,  
563 kaolinite and chlorite (together 0.0-4.6 %, mean 2.0 %). The spatial distribution of  
564 minerals (Fig. 7) revealed a generally decreasing gradient of minerals relative to  
565 quartz starting from the Utuk river delta (proximal) towards the northern areas  
566 (distal).

567 The CLR transformed XRF data (Fig. 8) revealed high proportions of Zr and  
568 intermediate to high Ti near the Utuk river inflow and at the northern and eastern  
569 shore proximal areas. Zr values are seen to decrease with increasing water depth



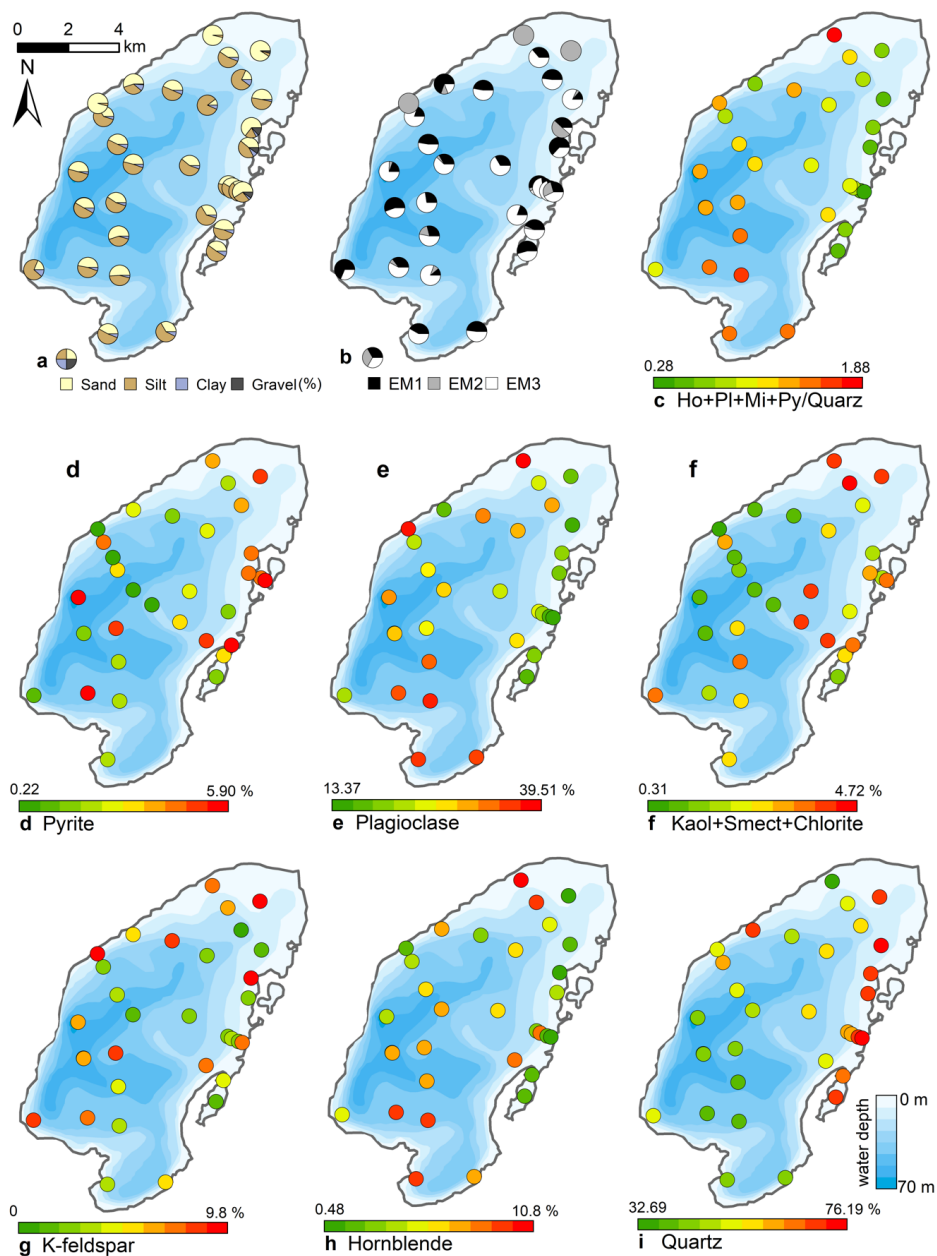


570 towards the lake centre with the exception of the shallow lagoon where low values  
571 are observed. Mn values are highest in the lake centre and at the very deep site at  
572 the western steep subaquatic slope, and intermediate at shallow areas close to the  
573 shore. A minimum in Mn is seen in the lagoon. Fe tends to be highest in the  
574 southern part of the lake basin, in the very shallow site in the north, and in the  
575 lagoon. Br demonstrates an unclear distribution; however high values are found at 2  
576 sites within the eastern lagoon that correspond to high TOC contents.

577 Additive log ratios (ALR) of Mn/Fe were variable with intermediate values found at  
578 sites surrounding the Utuk river inflow and low values within the lagoon and at basin  
579 central sites. High values were located at the deepest lake site as well as in the  
580 shallow north eastern region. Both Sr/Rb and Zr/Rb ratios demonstrated significantly  
581 high values directly in front of the Utuk river inflow that diminished with distance  
582 towards the basin center. Both Sr/Rb and Zr/Rb possessed intermediate to high  
583 values in the north eastern lake region and suppressed values within the lagoon.  
584 Si/Ti ratio values showed a trend from low in the southern lake region and lagoon to  
585 high in the northern lake region.

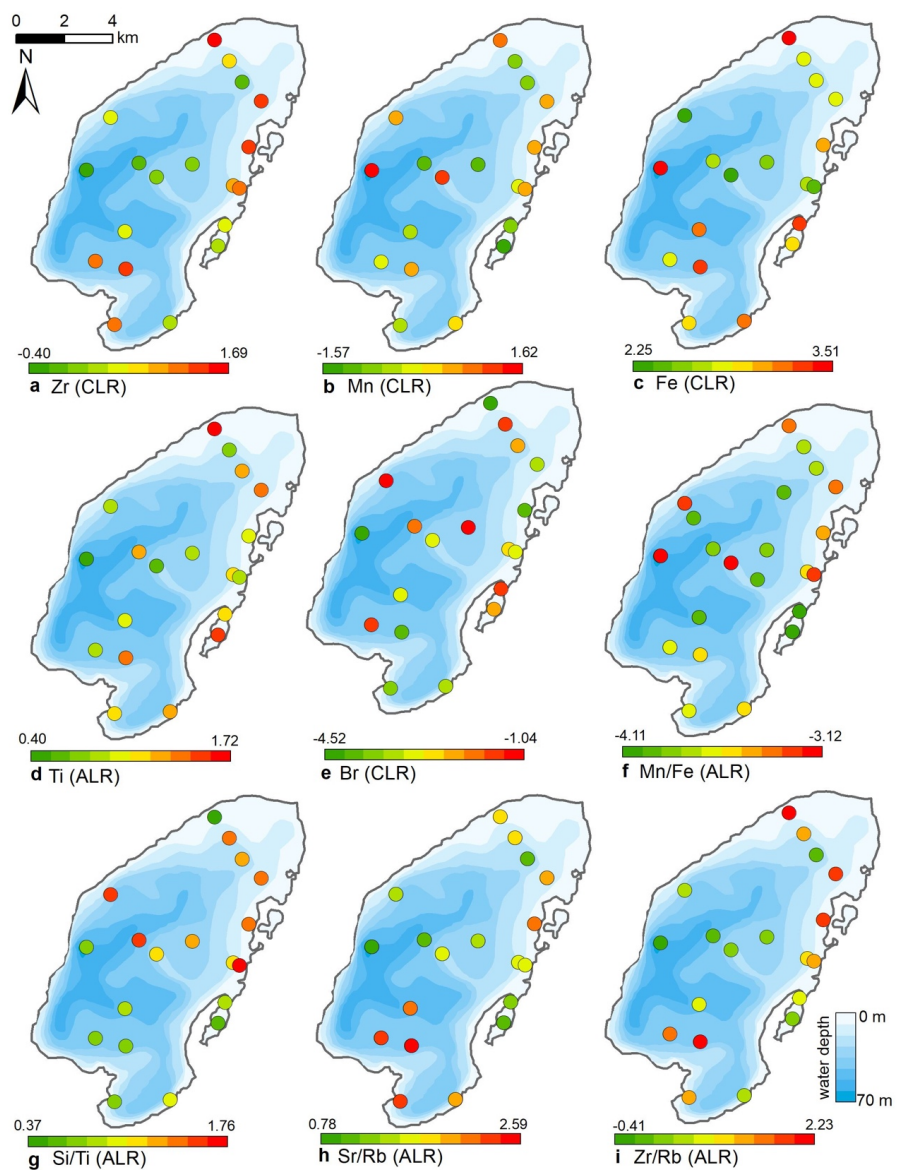
586 The contents of total organic carbon (TOC, Fig. 9) ranged from 0.1 % to 12.3 %  
587 (mean 4.9 %). Highest values appeared in the eastern area, intermediate values in  
588 the central parts, and lowest contents in the northern shallow water areas. The  
589 difference between TOC and total carbon is within the error of the devices and  
590 hence no inorganic carbon was detected. TOC contents and the TOC/TN ratios are  
591 highest near the Utuk river inflow in the southern part of the lake, in the lagoon, and  
592 in proximity to the eastern shoreline.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was exemplary measured in 15 samples  
593 and revealed maximum values at the eastern shore (-25.7 ‰) and minimum values  
594 everywhere else (-27.8 ‰).

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Fig. 7 Spatial distribution of the grain-size and mineral compositions of the surface sediments of Lake Bolsheo Toko.



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**Fig. 8** Spatial distribution of elements obtained from XRF measurements of surface sediments of Lake Bolschoe Toko.



### 604 4.3 Diatoms

605 The diatom species assemblage in the analysed surface samples was generally  
606 represented by boreal and arcto-alpine types and varied distinctly within Lake  
607 Bolshoe Toko. In total, 142 diatom taxa were found in 23 sites, dominated by  
608 planktonic species *Pliocaenicus bolshetokoensis* (Genkal et al., 2018) (0.0-27.9 %,  
609 mean 14.7 %), *Cyclotella comensis* (0.0-23.1 %, mean 10.9 %), and benthic species  
610 *Achnantheidium minutissimum* (0.0-38.0 %, mean 11.8 %). The relative content of  
611 planktonic species (Fig. 9) was 2.0-73.7 % (mean 54.2 %), epiphytic species 19.2-  
612 83.9 % (mean 36.4 %), and epibenthic species 2.6-23.0 % (mean 9.3 %). The  
613 spatial distribution of the main taxa are shown in Fig. 10. Small benthic fragilarioid  
614 species are represented by 0.0-27.6 % (mean 7.4 %), Naviculoid species ranged  
615 from 3.3 % to 12.9 % (mean 7.2 %), and *Aulacoseira* species ranged from 0.0 % to  
616 10.8 % (mean 4.5 %). *Pliocaenicus bolshetokoensis* maximal appearance was in  
617 the areas with deepest water depth in the southern part of the lake and in the  
618 eastern lagoon. *Cyclotella* species were more frequent in the central part of the lake  
619 and were not as strictly bound to water depth as *Pliocaenicus*. *Aulacoseira* species  
620 were distributed without clear patterns in the central part and less abundant in the  
621 northern shallow water areas. *Tabellaria* species were more frequent in shallow  
622 near-shore areas than in central and deep-water areas.

623 Achnanthoid (monoraphid) species were most abundant in near-shore areas,  
624 especially near the eastern lake terrace. Fragilarioid (araphid) species were  
625 common in the southernmost part near the inflow as well as in the lagoon. Other  
626 benthic species, i.e. *Navicula*, *Cymbella*, and *Eunotia* were generally more abundant  
627 in shallow near-shore areas than in deeper water areas.

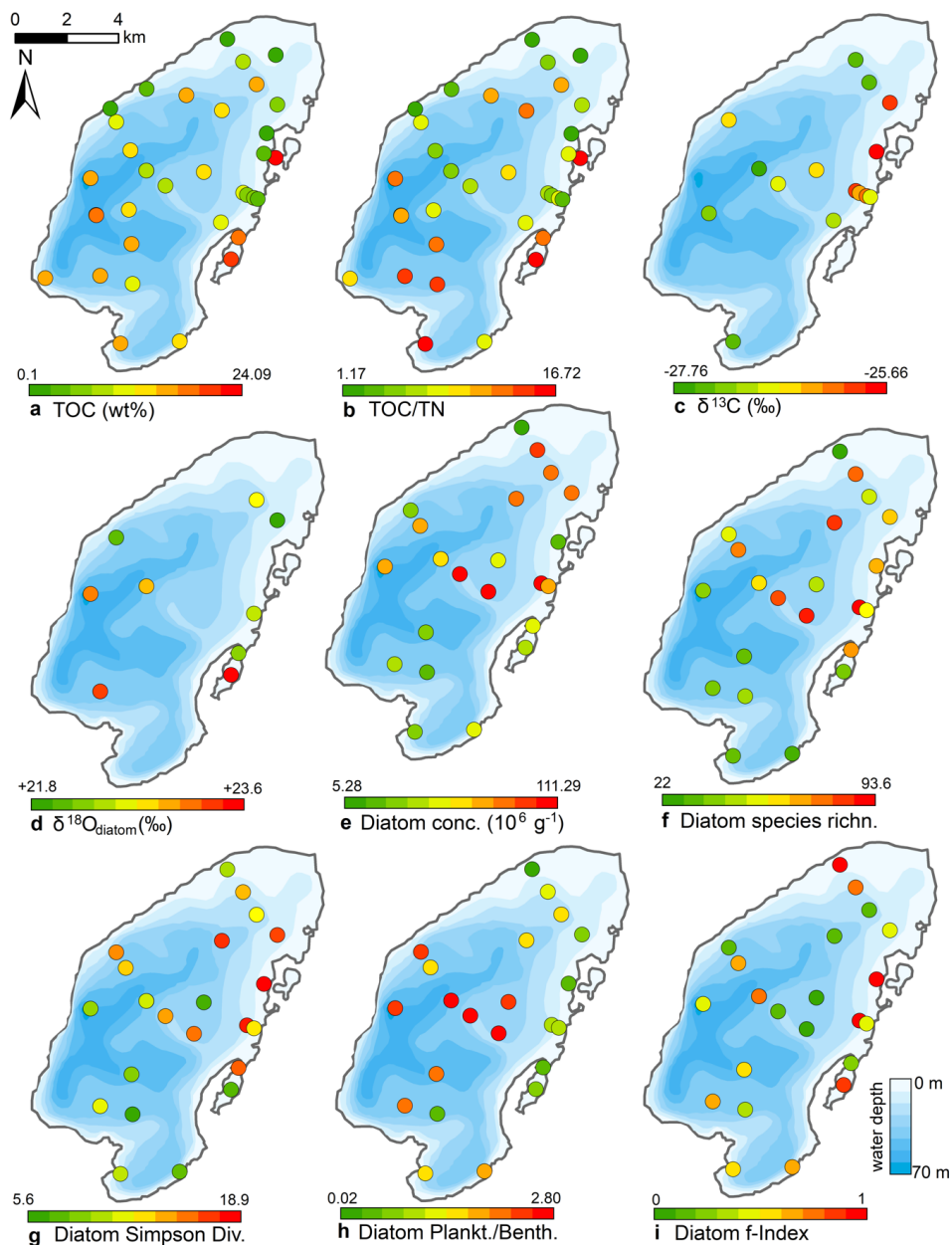
628 In pelagic areas planktonic diatoms were generally more abundant principally in  
629 pelagic areas than epiphytic and epibenthic species. Epiphytic species, however,  
630 predominated in some shallow areas in the north and east parts of the lake.  
631 Epibenthic species occurred in smaller abundancies in shallow lake littorals.  
632 Together with an increased amount of non-planktonic species, the Simpson diatom  
633 species diversity was higher in northern and eastern parts of the lake. The  
634 chrysophytes index was higher near the river inflow in the south and along the river-  
635 like bathymetrical structure and in the lagoon, where another small river runs into  
636 the lake. The *Mallomonas* index was high near the inflow and in the central part, and  
637 it was low at near-shore areas in the north and east. Highest f-index, representing  
638 the best valve preservation, was found in the near shore areas, whereas lowest  
639 values were found at a shallow bathymetrical structure in the central part of the lake.  
640 The highest valve concentrations were observed in the central and northern lake  
641 basin.

642 The initial RDA with all environmental variables showed that the axes 1 and 2  
643 explained 39.6 % of variance of diatom species data. After deleting all



644 intercorrelated variables, 13 parameters with VIFs <20 were left for manual  
645 selection with Monte-Carlo test. It revealed 8 statistically significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ )  
646 explanatory variables: TOC/TN, TOC, water depth, distance from River, distance  
647 from the shore, presence of vegetation, Sand, and EM3, (ESM diatoms, Fig. 2).  
648 Eigenvalues for RDA axes 1 and 2 constrained by eight significant environmental  
649 variables constitute 81% and 59%, respectively, of the initial RDA, suggesting that  
650 the selected significant variables explain the major variance in the diatoms data.  
651 The RDA biplots of the species scores and sample scores (Fig. 2) show that diatom  
652 species and sites are grouped according to the main environmental forcing  
653 responsible for their spatial distribution. The clearest environmental signals in the  
654 RDA are related to water depth, habitat preferences and river influence. The upper  
655 left quarter of the biplot is strongly influenced by water depth, grain size (EM3), and  
656 the ratio between TOC and TN. The species found next to water depth are  
657 planktonic *Cyclotella* taxa, whereas *Aulacoseira* is closer to TOC/TN and the total  
658 carbon content. In the lower right quarter epiphytic and benthic taxa prevail, i.e.  
659 achnantheid, naviculoid and cymbelloid taxa, associated to the presence of  
660 vegetation and coarser (sand) substrate conditions. The distances to river and to  
661 shore are crossing the lower left quarter and are associated to different planktonic  
662 *Cyclotella* and achnantheid taxa, while in the opposite direction, with increasing  
663 Utuk river influence, fragilarioid taxa, *Eunotia*, *Tabellaria*, and *Gomophonema*  
664 prevail, next to the high influence of TOC/TN.

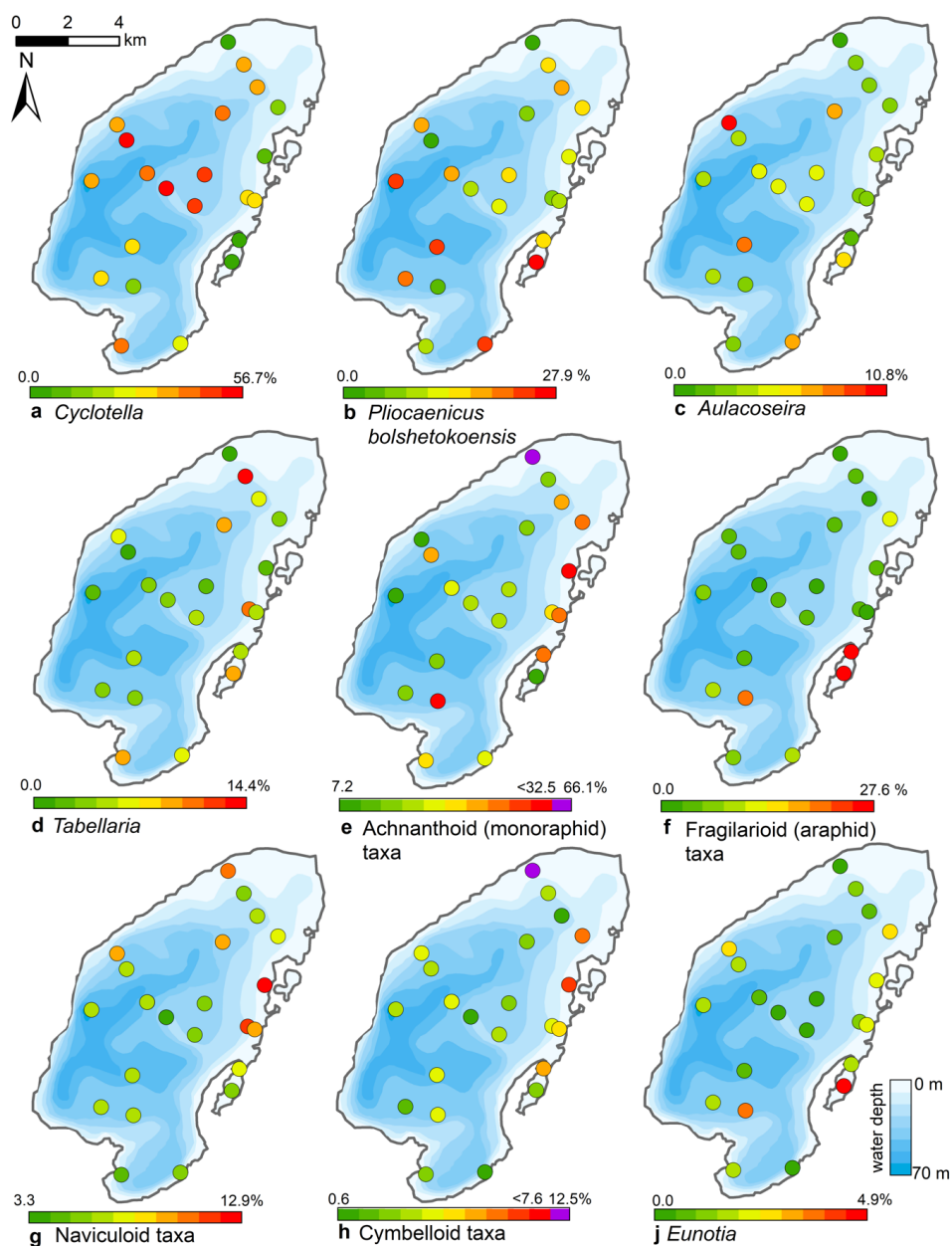
665 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  averages +22.8 ‰ (min. +21.9 ‰, max. +2.6 ‰,  $n=9$ , Fig. 9) with a  
666 spatial distribution of higher values around 23.3 ‰ in the deeper south-western part  
667 of lake (PG2113, 2115, 2005) where as low values of app. 22.3 ‰ prevail in the  
668 shallower northern lake basin (PG2139, 2140, 2147, 2209). The two samples from  
669 the lagoon show 22.2 ‰ in the shallower northern area and 23.6 ‰ in the deeper  
670 part. Generally, the surface sediment  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  show a standard deviation of  $\pm 0.6$   
671 ‰ ( $1\sigma$ ). Four samples from the southern part could not be purified well enough and  
672 show contamination corrections  $>2$  ‰.  
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**Fig. 9** Spatial distribution of organic properties and statistical parameters inferred from diatom assemblages in the surface sediments of Lake Bolshoe Toko.





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**Fig. 10** Spatial distribution of main diatom taxa in the surface sediments of Lake Bolshoe Toko.



#### 681 4.4 Chironomids

682 In the surface sediment samples, we identified in total 79 chironomid taxa of  
683 which 48 belonged to subfamily Orthocladiinae, 25 to subfamily Chironominae (15  
684 from the triba Tanitarsini and 10 from the triba Chironomini), 4 taxa were from  
685 subfamily Diamesinae and 2 from Tanypodinae.

686 The initial RDA with all environmental variables shows that the RDA axes 1 and 2  
687 explained 46.7% of variance in taxon data. Most of the environmental parameters  
688 appeared to be intercorrelated and after deleting one by one all redundant variables,  
689 eight parameters with VIFs <20 remained for the further analysis. The manual  
690 selection with Monte-Carlo test selection revealed 4 statistically significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ )  
691 explanatory variables: TOC/N, water depth (WD), distance from River, and presence  
692 of vegetation (Table 2). Eigenvalues for RDA axes 1 and 2 constrained by four  
693 significant environmental variables were 0.200 and 0.150, respectively. They  
694 constitute 70 and 85 % of the RDA performed on all environmental variables (0.289  
695 and 0.177, respectively). This minor difference suggests that the four selected  
696 variables sufficiently explain the major gradients in the chironomid data.

697 The RDA biplot of the sample scores shows that sites are grouped by their  
698 location in relation to the major environmental variables (Fig. 11) and distribution of  
699 chironomid taxa along the RDA axes reflects their ecological spectra. Table 2 and  
700 Fig. 11 show median values of eco-taxonomical chironomid groups and their relation  
701 to environmental parameters.

702 Sites most strongly influenced by the inflowing rivers are grouped in the lower  
703 left quarter of the biplot, as the vector in the upper right quarter shows an increase  
704 of the distance from the river mouth. In total 64 chironomid taxa have been found in  
705 this group of sites, and of these 33 have been found only here. Chironomid fauna is  
706 represented by mainly phytophilic littoral taxa from the Orthocladiinae genera  
707 *Cricotopus*, *Orthocladus*, *Eukiefferiella*, and *Parakiefferiella* etc. (Fig. 11). Another  
708 important feature of the fauna here is the presence of a relatively high amount of the  
709 taxa characteristic for lotic environments, among which are several *Diamesa* taxa,  
710 *Rheocricotopus effusus*-type, *Synorthocladus*, *Brillia*, and for lotic-lentic  
711 environments like *Parakiefferiella bathophila*-type, *P. triguetra*-type, *Nanocladus*  
712 *rectinervis*-type, *N. branchicolus*-type, several *Eukiefferiella* taxa, and  
713 *Stictochironomus*.

714 The group in the opposite upper right quarter represents the northern part of  
715 the lake situated far from the inflowing rivers. Here, mainly profundal taxa prevail,  
716 i.e. *Procladius*, *Polypedilum nubeculosum*-type, *Cryptochironomus* (eurytopic), and  
717 *Heterotrissocladus maeaeri*-type 1 (acidophilic).

718 The lower right group of sites represent eastern shallow littoral with presence  
719 of macrophytes. Species richness and proportion of semiterrestrial and littoral taxa  
720 in this group is generally low. 29 chironomid taxa were found here and 5 taxa were



721 found only in this group of sites. Littoral taxa here are generally phytophilic:  
 722 *Cricotopus intersectus*-type, *C. cylindraceus*-type, *Dicrotendipes nervosus*-type  
 723 (mesotrophic), and *Cladotanytarsus mancus*-type and *Psectrocladius sordidellus*-  
 724 type (acid-tolerant mesotrophic). Most abundant profundal taxa here belong to the  
 725 acid-tolerant *Heterotrissocladius* genera represented by *H. macridus*-type, *H.*  
 726 *maeaeri*-type 1 and 2, *H. grimschawi*-type (acidophilic), and to the subfamily  
 727 Tanypodinae represented by *Procladius*. The sites grouped in the opposing upper  
 728 left quarter represent lotic and lotic-lentic taxa (*Diamesinae*, *Thenimaniella*  
 729 *clavicornis*-type, *Eukiefferiella claripennis*-type, *Eukiefferiella fittkai*-type, several  
 730 *Orthocladius* taxa).

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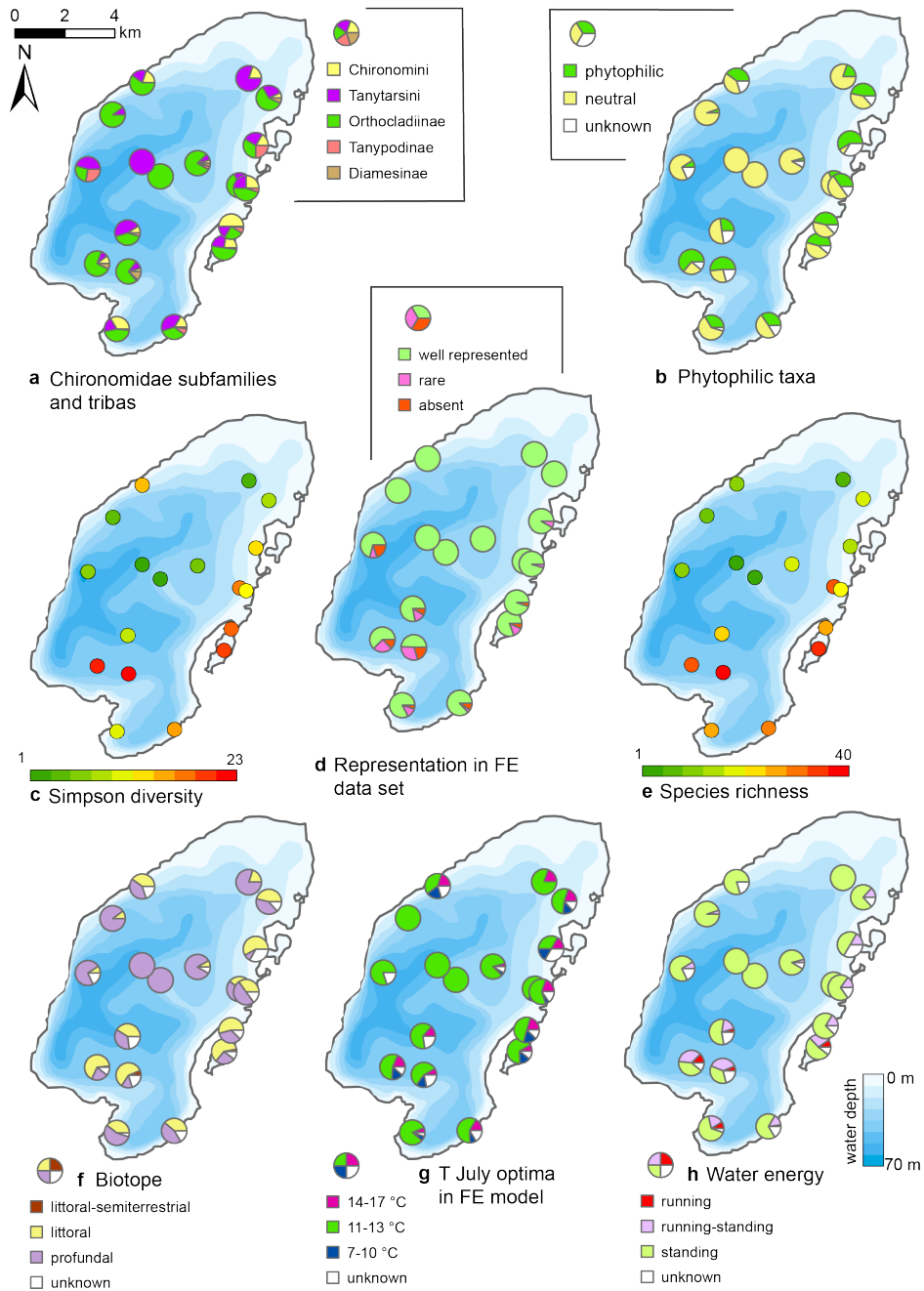
733 **Table 2.** Median representation of ecological chironomid groups in the modern FE chironomid based  
 734 training set (Nazarova et al., 2015) in relation to mean July temperature, biotopes, water velocity, and  
 735 presence of macrophytes (vegetation) in groups of sites revealed by the RDA. UN- unknown (all  
 736 specimens that were identified to subfamily level only due to bad heads preservation or no  
 737 information available); ST – semiterrestrial; L - littoral; P – profundal; R – river (lotic); S – standing  
 738 water (lentic); F – phytophilic; N – neutral.

739

Group of sites	T optima, °C				Biotope				Water velocity				Vegetation			Represent- ation in the modern FE training set
	14-17	11-13	7-10	UN	L-ST	L	P	UN	R	R-S	S	UN	F	N	UN	
River	8.51	53.57	13.83	12.50	1.79	59.83	32.34	10.71	8.64	27.66	52.13	10.71	46.25	41.25	10.71	80.78
EU Littoral	16.50	57.43	12.33	16.93	0.00	38.98	36.31	16.93	0.00	14.64	68.67	16.93	34.85	49.49	16.93	91.69
Sub Littoral	12.08	81.67	2.08	4.17	0.00	15.00	59.58	4.17	0.00	2.08	91.25	4.17	12.50	83.75	4.17	100
Profundal	0.00	72.73	0.00	22.73	0.00	9.09	50	18.18	0.00	9.09	72.73	18.18	9.09	72.73	18.18	78.03

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**Fig. 11** Spatial distribution of chironomid taxa and inferred statistical parameters in the surface sediments of Lake Bolshoe Toko.



## 746 5 Discussion

### 747 5.1 Spatial control of abiotic and biogeochemical sediment 748 components

749 Physical properties of particles within the surface sediments of Bolshoe Toko  
750 depend chiefly on transportation processes and the characteristics and availability of  
751 clastic compounds in the source areas in the lake catchment. The main catchment  
752 comprises the Stanovoy mountain range in the south channelled through the Utuk  
753 river into Bolshoe Toko. Accordingly, the lake experiences annual input of  
754 suspended material through a single source at the Utuk river mouth that likely is at  
755 its maximum during spring snow melt (Bouchard et al., 2013). The grain-size data  
756 and its end-members (Fig. 4 and 7) show that the proportions of sand, silt, and clay  
757 remain somewhat constant in proximity to the Utuk river inflow but change towards  
758 the north and at the lake shoreline. Whereas in the central northern lake basin the  
759 amount of silt increases, the proportions of sand increase along the northern  
760 shoreline on top of the drowned moraine. Gravel is only present in samples near the  
761 lake terraces in the east. The constant distribution in the south-central lake basin  
762 reflects the river input. Decreasing river influence and hence decreasing water  
763 transport energy with increasing distance from the river mouth leads to the observed  
764 predominance of finer grain-sizes (silt dominated) samples in the northern central  
765 parts of the lake. Sandy samples along the shoreline reflect direct input from the  
766 moraines around the northern part of the lake. Other relevant within-lake  
767 sedimentary processes include shore-erosion and inwash and winnowing of fine  
768 sediment grains by surface currents as well as alluvial processes and debris flows  
769 which continue basin ward as subaquatic flows. The restriction of gravel at the  
770 eastern shore can be attributed to the availability of source material and suitable  
771 transport pathways of coarser clasts from the third moraine. In consequence to the  
772 described lateral transport trajectories and local control factors within the lake, there  
773 is only weak negative correlation between mean grain size and water depth ( $r = -0.45$ ,  
774 Fig. 7 and 12).

775 The modelled end-member loadings of the observed grain-size classes (Fig. 4 and  
776 7) indicate EM1 having the major peak in fine silt representing mainly fluvial  
777 sediment input. EM2 having its peak values in fine to medium sandy grain-size  
778 fractions and in the northern part of the lake points to depositional processes  
779 associated with the erosion of moraines distal from the river inflow, where the  
780 hydrological dynamics in the lake basin are weak. As shown by a weak positive  
781 correlation between EM3 and the concentration of diatom valves ( $r = 0.44$ ), EM3 likely  
782 represents both in-situ diatom valves, that could not be removed from the  
783 allochthonous sediment particles during our sample processing, and possibly ice-  
784 rafted debris that is transported over the lake after ice break up (Wang et al., 2015).



785 Intermediate concentration of TOC and high ratios of TOC/TN in the south as  
786 compared to the north suggest differences in catchment characteristics, i.e. a  
787 considerable allochthonous contribution of terrestrial plant material from the Utuk  
788 river. This assumption is supported by previous findings that showed that non-  
789 vascular plants, i.e. phytoplankton and other algae, usually have TOC/TN ratios  
790 between ca. 5 and 10 while organic matter from vascular land plants has higher  
791 values of about 20 (Meyers and Teranes, 2002). High values of TOC/TN in lake  
792 sediment surfaces at river inflows have also been observed in other studies (Vogel  
793 et al., 2010).  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was generally low on average (-26.8) and only slightly higher at  
794 the eastern shore (-25.7), suggesting a strong overall dominance of  $\text{C}_3$  plants and  
795 phytoplankton in the bulk organic matter fraction (Meyers, 2003). It is yet unclear to  
796 what degree old and reworked organic carbon, e.g. from charcoal deposits, is  
797 transported to the lake.

798 The distribution of elements from the XRF scanning data suggests strong abiotic  
799 relationships to grain-size and mineral distributions. We focus on heavier elements  
800 because lighter elements, even though they are commonly present in higher  
801 concentrations, show potential contribution from multiple sources. Sr/Rb ratios and  
802 Zr are negatively correlated with Kaolinite/Chlorite ( $r$  -0.73 and -0.85, respectively).  
803 As described in Kalugin et al. (2007), Rb substitutes for K in clay minerals. The  
804 Sr/Rb ratios do not show however a significant correlation with grain-size  
805 parameters as found in other studies (Biskaborn et al., 2013b). We assume  
806 therefore that Sr, as substituent for Ca, is influenced by multiple minerals  
807 represented in different grain-size fractions, i.e. K-feldspar ( $r$  0.45) and Hornblende  
808 ( $r$  0.24). Associated to high metamorphic grades in the Stanovoy mountains, Sr is  
809 preferentially taken into the K-feldspar phase (Virgo, 1968). The Zr/Rb ratio on the  
810 other hand, correlates well with the sand fraction ( $r$  0.50) and with the mean grain  
811 size ( $r$  0.49), but negatively with silt ( $r$  -0.54) and clay ( $r$  -0.39). We explain this effect  
812 by a higher diversity of minerals caused by the input of the Utuk river supplying the  
813 lake basin with mafic Ca-rich metamorphic rocks from the Stanovoy mountains. The  
814 strong influence of the Utuk river in the spatial distribution of physicochemical  
815 sediment components is demonstrated by the decreasing gradient of minerals  
816 relative to quartz starting from the Utuk river towards the northern lake basin (Fig.  
817 7). The most representative indicator of grain size variations in surface sediments is  
818 given by clr transformed values of Ti which correlate well with the sand fraction ( $r$   
819 0.74) and the mean grain size ( $r$  0.88).

820 Si/Ti ratios have been used previously as a proxy for the biogenic silica content of  
821 sediments (Melles et al., 2012). This stems from the fact that Ti is generally  
822 attributed to detrital influx and Si to both detrital and biogenic (diatom) origins. At  
823 Bolshoe Toko somewhat positive correlations between Si/Ti ratios, diatom valve  
824 concentrations ( $r$  0.36) and the ratio of planktonic to benthic diatoms ( $r$  0.42)





825 suggests that Si/Ti may be useful to trace the relative portion of diatom valves in  
826 intermediate grain-size fractions. Moreover, the Si/Ti ratio correlates significantly  
827 with silt ( $r$  0.81).

828 Mn/Fe ratios have often been ascribed to redox dynamics associated to bottom  
829 water oxygenation processes (Naehler et al., 2013). In Bolshoe Toko, however, the  
830 detrital input of ferrous minerals, i.e. pyrite, suggests that the Mn/Fe ratios cannot  
831 directly be used effectively to track redox processes in the surface sediments. This  
832 is supported by the correlation of Fe with the sand fraction ( $r$  0.6) and grain-size ( $r$   
833 0.59). Accordingly, we found no significant correlations between Mn/Fe and other  
834 abiotic or biotic proxies.

835 There is an uncertainty in the spatial distribution of elements measured by XRF  
836 techniques. We attribute this lack of clear patterns to two main reasons: (1)  
837 methodological hurdles to apply XRF techniques to surface sediments commonly  
838 rich in water and organic material, and (2) multiple sources of the same elements  
839 coming from minerogenic input, grain-size differences in individual samples and  
840 different intensities of redox processes at different habitat settings. The high  
841 variance of elements therefore should be seen as a representation of the high  
842 complexity of this lake system rather than unequivocal validations or falsifications of  
843 the applicability of XRF scanner data as an environmental proxy at Bolshoe Toko.

844

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## 846 5.2 Factors explaining the spatial diatom distribution

847 Given the fact that diatoms react rapidly to environmental changes, different  
848 driving factors influence the diatom distribution at different sites including  
849 hydrochemical parameters, water depth, nutrients, and catchment vegetation type  
850 (Pestryakova et al., 2018). Planktonic diatom species have appeared to have  
851 spread over the entire Lake Bolshoe Toko, with a distinct tendency of the ratio  
852 between planktonic and benthic species to greater water depths ( $r$  0.74, Fig. 5 and  
853 12), due to the limited availability of light for benthic species, as reported in other  
854 lakes (Gushulak et al., 2017; Raposeiro et al., 2018). Especially *Aulacoseira* species  
855 were never abundant along the shallower northern and eastern shorelines. The  
856 main difference between the two most abundant genera in the lake was that  
857 *Pliocaenicus* showed highest abundancies in proximity to the inflow and in the  
858 southeastern lagoon, whereas *Cyclotella* valves were more frequent in the lake  
859 center and absent in the lagoon. There is yet little known about the new species  
860 *Pliocaenicus bolshetokoensis* (Genkal et al., 2018). Our findings suggest factors  
861 other than water depth ( $r$  0.39), such as proximity (e.g. nutrient supply) to the Utuk  
862 river and small streams, as controlling parameters for bloom intensities of this  
863 species. *Cyclotella*, however, is restricted to stratification of the water column and





864 hence is more abundant at distance from the river mouth, where incoming water  
865 causes turbulence (Rühland et al., 2003; Smol et al., 2005). *Cyclotella* is therefore  
866 also believed to benefit from recent air temperature warming trends and will likely  
867 increase in abundance (Paul et al., 2010). *Aulacoseira* is a heavier, rapidly-sinking  
868 tychoplanktonic group of species requiring water turbulence to remain in the photic  
869 zone (Rühland et al., 2008; Rühland et al., 2015), which explains the lower  
870 abundancies in the northern and quitter zones within the lake. *Tabellaria* species are  
871 known to occur in a planktonic lifestyle with the help of zigzag colonies and relatively  
872 lightly silicified frustules. However, they also can appear as short-valved  
873 populations, which are believed to represent benthic forms (Lange-Bertalot et al.,  
874 2011; Biskaborn et al., 2013a; Krammer and Lange-Bertalot, 1986-1991). In our  
875 study, the spatial within-lake distribution of *Tabellaria* forms in Bolshoe Toko  
876 indicates benthic habitats rather than planktonic lifestyle.

877 The most common non-planktonic species in Bolshoe Toko belong to  
878 achnantheid (monoraphid) genera, of which most species are epiphytic. Epiphytic  
879 species showed a stronger negative correlation to water depth ( $r = -0.68$ ), than  
880 epibenthic species ( $r = -0.4$ ), indicating that water plants, controlled by water  
881 transparency, pH, water depth and nutrient status (Valiranta et al., 2011), represent  
882 an important function in the lake ecosystem (Fig. 12). The highest amount of  
883 achnantheid and cymbelloid valves was found in at 400 m distance to the northern  
884 shore at a water depth of 0.5 m.

885 Fragilarioid species are adapted to rapidly changing environments and thus  
886 higher ecosystem variability (Wischnewski et al., 2011). The peak occurrences of  
887 *Staurosira* species, which are pioneering small benthic fragilarioids (Biskaborn et al.,  
888 2012), therefore indicates the formation of a new ecosystem habitat type in the  
889 lagoon at the south-eastern lake basin. We assume that this basin is successively  
890 being separated from the main basin and eventually will form a separated small  
891 remnant lake following the example of the small “Banya” lake four kilometres from  
892 the lagoon towards northeast (Fig. 1). High productivity of epiphytic species and low  
893 detrital input suggested by elemental and grain-size data, together with higher  
894 organic contents (High TOC and Br), indicate a calm sedimentological regime with  
895 high bioproductivity. Similar neutral pH values measured in water samples from the  
896 central basin and the lagoon (Table 1) questions pH as a main driving factor of the  
897 *Eunotia* peak in the lagoon. However, Barinova et al. (2011) suggest 5.0-5.8 pH  
898 range for the identified *Eunotia* species, which rather indicates that the pH values  
899 obtained during April in 2013 are not representative for the annual average and the  
900 specific catchment of the lagoon, which likely will differ from this point measurement.  
901 The ice break-up during spring and transport of water from the catchment restricted  
902 to the lagoon likely leads to milieu differences in the lagoon relative to the main  
903 basin.



904 The RDA biplot of diatoms (Fig. 2) suggests that both, water depth and distance  
905 to river are important lake attributes that explain the species distributions across the  
906 lake. Especially *Eunotia*, fragilarioids, *Tabellaria*, and also *Aulacoseira subarctica*  
907 appear more frequently at sites that are close to the Utuk river mouth (e.g. PG2113,  
908 PG2115, PG2117, PG2118). The high TOC/TN ratios in these samples illustrates  
909 the strong riverine input of allochthonous material. In the biplots, high water depth is  
910 primarily associated to *Cyclotella* species (and *Aulacoseria*), while *Aulacoseira*  
911 species tend to be additionally influenced by incoming rivers and also thrive closer  
912 to the shorelines. Areas close to river mouths are usually dominated by river taxa  
913 and species that prefer higher nutrient contents related to river input and associated  
914 early ice cover melting (Kienel and Kumke, 2002). Accordingly, the influx of diatoms  
915 from wetlands in the lake catchment is an important additional factor influencing the  
916 spatial diatom distribution (Earle et al., 1988). As compared to conductivity, water  
917 depth and nutrients, analyses on the direct relationship between temperature and  
918 diatom species is poorly understood in Yakutian lake systems (Pestryakova et al.,  
919 2018) and should be omitted.

920 Our RDA also shows that a high diversity of benthic, and especially epiphytic  
921 diatom species, i.e. several achnantheid species and some naviculoid taxa plot in  
922 the opposite direction from water depth together with vegetation and the coarse  
923 grain-size fraction. Kingston et al. (1983), revealed spatial diatom variability in the  
924 Laurentian Great Lakes, where the stability of diatom assemblages increased with  
925 water depth. In shallower marginal waters of the Great Lakes, the availability of  
926 diverse habitats, including benthic and periphytic niches, leads to high species  
927 diversity. According to our data in Bolshoe Toko, the Simpson index suggests higher  
928 beta-diversities associated to increased habitat complexity (Kovalenko et al., 2012),  
929 i.e. availability of water plants and benthic substrates in shallower depths along the  
930 eastern and northern shore. The higher productivity in this area can be explained by  
931 differential catchment preferences. However, it can be assumed that due to lesser  
932 water supply rates from the small northern part of the catchment (Fig. 1), a single  
933 spot at the north eastern lake margin will likely not receive significantly higher  
934 loadings of nutrients as compared to the Utuk river coming from the igneous  
935 mountain range. Nevertheless, moraine deposits typically contain high amounts of  
936 silt and clay which can more easily be weathered and altered to fertilizing  
937 substances that are transported into the calm and shallower northern part of the  
938 basin.

939 The indices of crysophyte cysts and *Mallomonas* relative to diatom cells exhibited  
940 indistinct patterns in the spatial distribution but a slight tendency towards high water  
941 depths. Although crysophyte cysts commonly represent planktonic algae (Smol,  
942 1988a), periphytic taxa are also common in boreal regions (Douglas and Smol,



1995) with cool and oligotrophic conditions (Gavin et al., 2011). *Mallomonas* was reported as an indicator of lake eutrophication and acidification (Smol et al., 1984).

Taphonomic effects on the preservation of subfossil assemblages are generally influenced by clastic transport mechanisms depending on the lake morphology (Raposeiro et al., 2018). The preservation of diatom valves in Bolshoe Toko was lowest in samples from a plateau-like feature at the central part of the lake bottom, which indicates increased re-working associated to bottom currents and/or increased dissolution of diatom valves due to lesser accumulation rates, and/or increased grazing activity of herbivorous organisms (Flower and Ryves, 2009; Ryves et al., 2001).

The spatial distribution of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  from the sediment surface showed higher  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  values at the deeper, south-western part of the lake with a difference of app. 1‰ compared to lower  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  values in the shallower northern part. This could be due to  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{water}}$  variations, a difference in the average water temperature or a varying species composition assuming a species-effect exists. Several studies gave evidence that a species effect does not exist for this proxy (Bailey et al., 2014). Additionally, the sieving step reduces the assemblage before the isotope analysis to only a small size interval resulting in a similar species-composition. Regarding variations in the isotope composition of the lake water surface waters sampled at the same time in different parts of the lake show a very uniform isotopic composition (within  $\pm 0.15\%$ ) suggesting a well-mixed lake system and no strong seasonal intermittency. As this is a one-time recording, slight seasonal variation between shallower and deeper parts (for example due to evaporation) cannot be completely excluded and could account for part of the differences in  $^{18}\text{O}$ . An evaporation driven heavier water isotope composition in the shallower parts would however result in higher  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  values.

The lake temperature in which the diatoms grow has an impact of ca.  $-0.2\%$ °C on the oxygen isotope signal (Brandriss et al., 1998; Dodd et al., 2012; Moschen et al., 2005). Shallower areas heat up faster especially in the photic zone. The temperature profile near to the western shoreline taken in August 2012 (Fig. 6) shows 12°C at the surface with an average of app. 10°C in the first 15m of the water column decreasing to app. 6°C in 30m depth. Although a spatial difference of 5°C in the photic zone for causing a 1‰ shift is rather unlikely, this could account for part of the variation in surface  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$ .

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### 979 5.3 Factors explaining the spatial chironomid distribution

980 The RDA performed on chironomid data suggested that the most important factor  
981 driving the spatial distribution of chironomids in the Bolshoe Toko was influence of



982 the tributary rivers. Influenced sites demonstrate high species richness with the  
983 highest diversity being found at the site 2117 situated just opposite of the Utuk river  
984 inflow and at the site PG2122, that is situated in the SE lagoon that gets water from  
985 a small inflowing stream. Semiterrestrial taxa, like *Smittia-Parasmittia*,  
986 *Pseudosmittia*, *Limnophies-Paralimnophies*, have been found only here with the  
987 highest abundancies of 6 and 3.2% at the sites opposite of the inflowing rivers  
988 (PG2117 and PG2122) suggesting that those taxa were transported from the dump  
989 or marshy river deltas.

990 Species at lentic sites with no tributary influence were mainly controlled by water  
991 depth. Deep profundal sites of the lake have much lower taxonomic richness of  
992 chironomid communities. Higher taxonomic richness at site PG2118 can be  
993 explained by an enriching riverine influence. High proportions of lotic and lotic-lentic  
994 taxa lead to a high taxonomic similarity of this profundal site to littoral sites in the S  
995 and SE. Similarly, in relation to temperature, sublittoral and profundal sites both  
996 have much higher representation of the taxa characteristic of semi-warm conditions  
997 and lower abundancies of the taxa preferring warm and cold conditions. However,  
998 high depths of the sublittoral and profundal sites lead to the development of a poor  
999 chironomid fauna at these sites. High distance from the shore and presumably only  
1000 weak transportation of chironomid remains of littoral fauna to the profundal zone  
1001 could be another limiting factor for diversity of chironomid communities in the  
1002 profundal.

1003 Eastern relatively shallow littorals are inhabited by more diverse, phytophilic,  
1004 mesotrophic and partly acidophilic fauna with absence of lotic taxa, related to a less  
1005 disturbed and turbulent environments and presence of macrophytes. This fauna has  
1006 higher abundance of the semi-warm and warm taxa. The presence of meso- to  
1007 eutrophic and acidophilic taxa can be attributed to paludification of the shore zone  
1008 and decomposition of macrophytes and submerged vegetation in the shallow littoral  
1009 (Nazarova et al., 2017b).

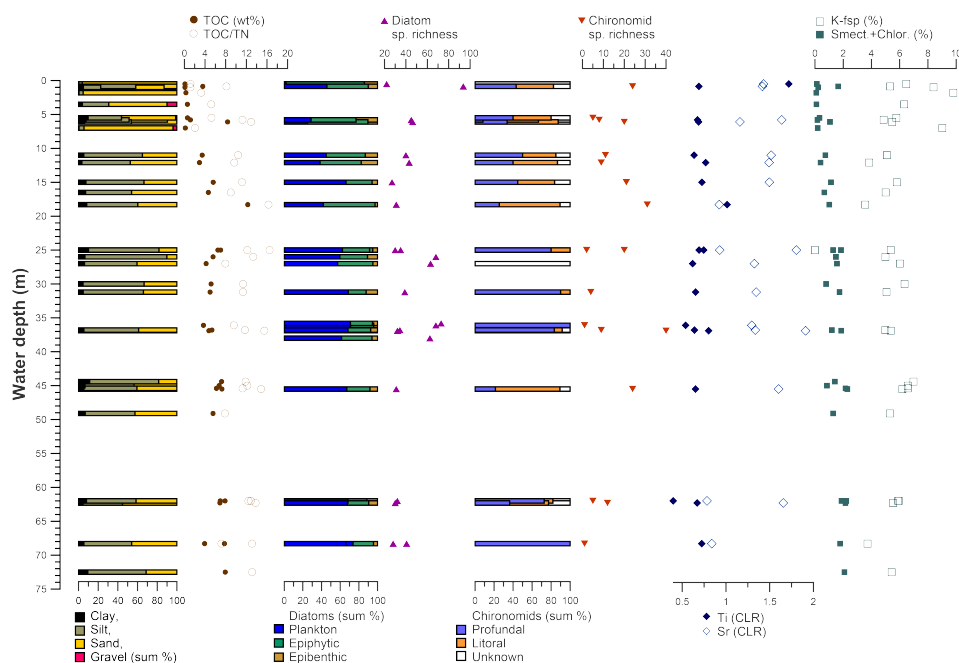
1010 It is still debated how spatial and local environmental processes influence the  
1011 distribution of chironomids at a small spatial scale in a lake (Luoto and Ojala,  
1012 2018; Yang et al., 2017). It is known that even within one water body the  
1013 concentration of chironomid head capsules may vary from zero to several thousand  
1014 per 1 cm<sup>3</sup> of sediments (Kalinkina and Belkina, 2018; Walker et al., 1997),  
1015 depending on the various ecological factors including the water depth, rate of  
1016 sediment accumulation, the hydrological conditions, or anthropogenic influence.  
1017 Water depth is a major driving factor of chironomid assemblages in many studies  
1018 (Ali et al., 2002; Luoto, 2012; Vemeaux and Aleya, 1998) and depth optima of several  
1019 species prove to be consequent across broad spatial scales (Nazarova et al., 2011).  
1020 Taphonomy assumes that the assemblage of chironomid remains from the deepest  
1021 zones of lake represents an assemblage of elements of profundal necrocenosis  
1022 (Hofmann, 1971) mixed with secondary components of littoral fauna transported



1023 with in-lake hydrological and sedimentary processes into the profundal from outside.  
 1024 Profundal necrocenosis therefore are supposed to include the assemblage of  
 1025 remains of organism that inhabited the whole lake and are therefore the most  
 1026 reliable indicators of ecological conditions in palaeoecological research (Brooks et  
 1027 al., 2007).

1028 The redeposition of littoral taxa into the profundal zone is an important factor that  
 1029 affects the final composition and abundance of fossil assemblages and thus further  
 1030 ecological information that can be derived from the assemblage. In small lakes,  
 1031 fossil assemblages from the profundal zone quite adequately reflect the fauna of the  
 1032 entire water body (Brooks and Birks, 2001; Walker and Mathewes, 1990). Our  
 1033 findings support the hypothesis that in large lakes taphonomy of chironomid  
 1034 communities seems to be more complex (Yang et al., 2017; Árvá et al., 2015).

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**Fig. 12** Distribution grain size, organic carbon and nitrogen indices, diatom and chironomid parameters, and selected elements and minerals in dependence to lake water depth.

#### 1041 **5.4 Lake Bolshoe Toko as a site for palaeoclimate reconstructions**

1042 Compared to small lowland lakes of Central and Northern Yakutia sedimentary  
 1043 processes and diatoms assemblages are quite different in Bolshoe Toko. One  
 1044 obvious reason for this is the lack of thaw slumps, subsidence, and other permafrost  
 1045 related phenomena (Biskaborn et al., 2013b) that are typical for shallow thermokarst



1046 lake settings across northern permafrost regions (Biskaborn et al., 2016;Bouchard  
1047 et al., 2016;Biskaborn et al., 2012;Schleusner et al., 2015;Biskaborn et al.,  
1048 2013a;Subetto et al., 2017;Biskaborn et al., 2013b).

1049 The mineral composition in Bolshoe Toko was mainly influenced by the Utuk river  
1050 and only the samples in extremely shallow areas were influenced by direct shoreline  
1051 input. The grain-size signal was influenced by dissolution effects associated to  
1052 organic matter and by in situ growth of diatom valves. The coarser fractions varied  
1053 parallel to minerogenic compositions and water depth. Accordingly, the grain-size  
1054 distribution originated from multiple processes and should only be considered as an  
1055 environmental proxy in combination with biotic indicators.

1056 Diatoms were distributed mainly according to their preferential habitats. Aside of  
1057 the spatial habitat conditions associated to the basin morphology, an additional  
1058 principal determinant of shifting diatom assemblages in cold environments is the  
1059 annual duration of lake ice-cover (Keatley et al., 2008;Smol, 1988b). Heavily  
1060 silicified planktonic diatoms (e.g. *Aulacoseira*) cannot survive below the lake ice-  
1061 cover because of the absence of wind-driven water turbulence. Nevertheless,  
1062 planktonic and benthic diatom species have strategies to survive in ice-covered  
1063 lakes, growing in benthic mode or attached to the bottom of the ice-cover (D'souza,  
1064 2012). Hence, in many lakes, the presence or absence of the ice-cover influences  
1065 blooms of different species which can result in changes of both the species  
1066 distribution and the ratio of planktonic to benthic diatoms (Wang et al., 2012a).

1067 The applicability of chironomids for temperature reconstructions reveals clear  
1068 spatial constraints. 22% of the taxa found in sites with riverine influence are absent  
1069 or rare from the FE mean July chironomid-based temperature inference model  
1070 (Nazarova et al., 2015), whereas the sum of the taxa that are rare and absent in FE  
1071 data set is much lower in the central and northern littoral, sublittoral and profundal  
1072 part of the lake (Fig. 4). However, low taxonomic richness of the profundal zone as  
1073 well hampers palaeoclimatic inferences. The number of chironomid head capsules  
1074 were generally lower here in relation to littoral sites. The highest taxonomic richness  
1075 in areas influenced by lake tributaries can be explained not only by a taxonomic  
1076 enrichment from the lake catchment but as well by more favorable oxygen and  
1077 nutrient conditions.

1078 The applicability of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  as a proxy of past hydroclimate conditions at  
1079 Bolshoe Toko is generally facilitated by the fact that the main controls influencing on  
1080  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  in a lake are (1) the lake water temperature ( $T_{\text{lake}}$ ) and (2) lake water  
1081 isotope composition ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{lake}}$ ) (Dodd and Sharp, 2010;Leng and Barker,  
1082 2006;Labeyrie, 1974;Leclerc and Labeyrie, 1987). The fractionation between lake  
1083 water and biogenic opal can be calculated when comparing  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{lake}}$  (mean:  $-18.7\text{‰}$ )  
1084 with recent surface sediments of Bolshoe Toko lake and their respective mean  
1085  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  (of  $+22.8\text{‰}$ ) using this isotope fractionation correlation between fossil





1086 diatom silica and water as determined by Leclerc and Labeyrie (1987). The mean  
1087  $T_{\text{lake}}$  can be estimated to ca. 6°C for the photic zone/diatom bloom. This estimate is  
1088 at the lower end of summer temperatures between 4.8 and 12°C. The  
1089 corresponding derived mean isotope fractionation factor for the system diatom  
1090 silica–water  $\alpha = 1.0424$  is matching the fractionation factor for fossil sediments  
1091 proposed by Juillet-Leclerc and Labeyrie (1987) well ( $\alpha_{(\text{silica-water})} = 1.0432$ ).

1092 As the lake water isotope composition ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{lake}}$ ) is further governed by  
1093 precipitation intermittency in the catchment,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  will react on changing isotopic  
1094 composition in precipitation produced along the pathway of air masses to the study  
1095 area, seasonality patterns and influenced by air temperature changes. Despite the  
1096 observed slight spatial shifts in the surface samples  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  changes over time at  
1097 a single site will yield insights into the air temperature and precipitation history of the  
1098 area.

1099 Positive feedback mechanisms were previously described between benthic algae  
1100 and chironomid larvae in benthic ecosystems (Herren et al., 2017). Chironomids in  
1101 Bolshoe Toko, however, showed less significant correlations with benthic diatom  
1102 species, but weak correlations with planktonic species and lake attributes  
1103 associated to benthic habitats and water depth, highlighting the potential of  
1104 chironomids for independent water depth and temperature reconstruction in future  
1105 sediment core studies (Nazarova et al., 2011).

1106 High correlation coefficients between organic carbon and *Pliocaenicus*  
1107 *bolshetokoensis* (0.66), and silt (0.65) suggest that the accumulation of organic  
1108 matter, and the intermediate grain-size fraction, is to a certain degree controlled by  
1109 the productivity of siliceous microalgae (Biskaborn et al., 2012). A strong  
1110 contribution of plankton indicates that TOC/TN ratios can provide insights in the  
1111 relative influx between land and water plants (Meyers and Teranes, 2002). The  
1112 relatively weak correlation between TOC/TN ratios and water depth (0.51 r),  
1113 demonstrates the accuracy limits of TOC/TN as a proxy for relative lake level  
1114 changes. This is caused by transport and accumulation of allochthonous organic  
1115 matter in proximity to the Utuk river. Furthermore, correlations between TOC/TN and  
1116 TOC, as well as negative correlations with grain size indicators suggest diagenetic  
1117 alteration (i.e. loss) of nitrogen in the surface sediments (Galman et al., 2008).

1118 The distinct difference between two samples along the subaquatic slope near the  
1119 western shore (diatoms, minerals, organics) indicates redistribution of sediment.  
1120 Downslope transport of surface layers over the time could lead to redistribution of  
1121 old material into the deepest parts of the basin. Due to higher accumulation rates, a  
1122 sediment core from the deepest part of the basin would potentially provide a higher  
1123 temporal resolution, but also a higher risk of repositioned sediment layers. On top of  
1124 redistribution processes, hump-shaped relations between lake depth and species  
1125 diversity observed in other studies suggest that the total subfossil species





1126 assemblages is better represented at intermediate depths than at the maximum  
1127 depth (Raposeiro et al., 2018). A coring position at intermediate depth in the  
1128 northern shallower and sedimentologically calm part of the basin would enable the  
1129 tracking of different intensities of river influence and glacial activity using sediment-  
1130 geochemical indicators and offers greater chances of undisturbed successions of  
1131 bioindicator time series.  
1132

## 1133 6 Conclusions

1134 Our study on the within-lake variance of environmental indicator data and its  
1135 attribution to habitat factors improves the understanding of lake-internal filters  
1136 between environmental forcing and the resulting sediment parameters of Lake  
1137 Bolshoe Toko and comparable boreal, cold, and deep lakes. We found that the  
1138 spatial variabilities of biotic ecosystem components are mainly explained by static  
1139 habitat preferences as water depth and river distance. Abiotic sediment features are  
1140 not symmetrically distributed in the basin but vary along restricted areas of  
1141 differential environmental forcings (e.g. river input, rocky shore, steep shore, shallow  
1142 shore). They depend, in addition to water depth and riverine activity, to multiple  
1143 interacting factor, such as catchment characteristics, geochemical sediment  
1144 diagenesis and hydrochemical dynamics. Our main findings can be highlighted as  
1145 follows:  
1146

- 1147 • The lake water of Bolshoe Toko can be characterized as Ca-Mg-HCO<sub>3</sub>-Type  
1148 water. It is well saturated in O<sub>2</sub>, neutral to slightly acidic, showing a low  
1149 conductivity and corresponding ion concentrations suggesting unpolluted  
1150 freshwater conditions. Lake Bolshoe Toko is likely a cold, polymictic,  
1151 oligotrophic, open through-flow lake system and due to all stated aspects  
1152 regarded as an undisturbed ecosystem.
- 1153 • Water depth is a strong factor explaining the variability of diatoms and  
1154 chironomids. The proportions of planktonic to benthic diatoms as well as  
1155 profundal to littoral chironomids serve as a reliable lake level proxy.
- 1156 • The diatom assemblage is dominated by planktonic species, i.e. *Pliocaenicus*  
1157 *bolshetokoensis*, which is unique for this lake, and more common plankton  
1158 such as *Cyclotella* and *Aulacoseira*, as well as non-planktonic taxa, such as  
1159 *Achnanthydium*. Diatom species richness and diversity is higher in surface  
1160 sediments in the northern part of the basin, associated to shallower waters  
1161 and the availability of benthic and periphytic niches.
- 1162 • The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{diatom}}$  values ( $22.8\pm 0.6\text{‰}$ ) show slight spatial variations with higher  
1163 values in the deeper south-western part of the lake probably related to water  
1164 temperature differences in the photic zone during the main diatom bloom.



- 1165 The silica–water fractionation is suitable for further downcore investigations  
1166 for assessing paleo-hydrological information and potential air-temperature  
1167 changes in the region.
- 1168 • The water of Bolshoe Toko is well mixed and does not show significant  
1169 isotopic stratification apart from lake ice-cover formation where thermal  
1170 stratification prevents mixing. The isotopic lake water composition ( $\delta^{18}\text{O} =$   
1171  $18.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ ‰}$ ) correspond with the GMWL and do not show evaporative  
1172 enrichment. Both isotopic and hydrochemical data indicate atmospheric  
1173 precipitation (and meltwater run-off) as the main water source. Accordingly,  
1174  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{lakewater}}$  is directly linked to  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precipitation}}$ .
  - 1175 • The highest amount of the chironomid taxa underrepresented in the FE  
1176 training set used for palaeoclimate inference was found close to the Utuk  
1177 river and at southern littoral and profundal sites. Poor chironomid  
1178 communities from the deep profundal zone would also hamper palaeoclimate  
1179 reconstruction. Cold-stenotherm chironomid taxa were influenced by river  
1180 proximity while taxa preferring warm conditions were more frequent at  
1181 shallow littorals of the lake.
  - 1182 • Weak negative correlation between mean grain size and water depth is  
1183 explain by end-members revealing influences of river input and diatom valves  
1184 in the grain-size composition.
  - 1185 • Observed TOC values (mean 4.9 %) and TOC/TN ratios indicate strong  
1186 allochthonous supply of organic matter from the Utuk river.  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (mean -26.8  
1187 ‰) indicate dominance of  $\text{C}_3$  plants and phytoplankton in the bulk organic  
1188 matter fraction.
  - 1189 • Elemental (XRF) data and mineral (XRD) distribution is influenced by the  
1190 metamorphic lithology of the Stanovoy mountain range. Ratios of minerals  
1191 relative to quartz decrease from the Utuk river towards the northern lake  
1192 basin. Ti correlates well with mean grain size. There is no clear pattern in  
1193 Mn/Fe ratios, due to mixture of allochthonous elements and differential  
1194 intensities of redox processes in the lake basin.
- 1195

## 1196 Data Availability

1197 All data used in this study will be available online at PANGAEA.  
1198

## 1199 Supplement

1200 The supplementary material related to this study will be available online at  
1201 Copernicus.



## 1202 **Author contributions**

1203 BKB conceived the study concept, conducted or led the laboratory analyses and  
1204 led the writing of the manuscript. LN conducted statistical analyses and contributed  
1205 with ecological chironomid expertise. LAP led the Russian team during field work  
1206 and contributed with ecological diatom expertise. LS conducted chironomid analysis.  
1207 KF conducted diatom analyses. HM conducted water chemistry analyses. BC  
1208 analysed diatom opal oxygen isotopes. SV conducted the XRF analysis. RG and EZ  
1209 retrieved surface samples during field work and helped with translation of Russian  
1210 literature and geographical expertise of the study area. RW conducted grain-size  
1211 analyses including end-member modelling. GS conducted XRD analyses. BD was  
1212 the leader of German expedition team and contributed with sedimentological  
1213 expertise.

1214

## 1215 **Competing interests**

1216 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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1231

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