1	Limnology and diatom ecology of shallow lakes in a rapidly thawing
2	discontinuous permafrost peatland
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15 Limnology and diatom ecology of shallow lakes in a rapidly thawing

16 discontinuous permafrost peatland

Lakes in discontinuous permafrost peatlands are on the front lines of climate change, sensitive to even 17 18 modest increases in air temperature. The aim of this study was to provide the first limnological 19 characterization of shallow (~1-2 m depth) lakes in the Scotty Creek basin (Northwest Territories, 20 Canada), a field site of circumpolar significance due to the existence of long-term ecohydrological 21 monitoring going back decades. We use this as a foundation from which to advance our process-based 22 understanding of the potential drivers of lake ecosystem change. Our results showed that dissolved 23 organic carbon (DOC) and lake color were not correlated, a pattern that appears to be an important driver 24 of diatom (siliceous single-celled algae) assemblages in these lakes. Diatoms in the study lakes tended to fall into one of two assemblage clusters. One cluster, comprised of small benthic Fragilariaceae and small 25 26 Navicula species (sensu lato), was found associated with higher lake color. The second cluster, comprised 27 of Encronopsis and large Navicula species, was found associated with high DOC, lower color, and the presence of a benthic moss mat. From this, we suggest that DOC quality is a primary control on lake 28 29 ecology in this region for its role in controlling light penetration to the lake bottom. We hypothesized that 30 the prevalence of nearshore fens and collapse scar wetlands would be important drivers of DOC, but this 31 was not supported in the 9 study lakes for which we had available data to map shoreline features.

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33 Keywords: high-resolution data, collapse scars, channel fens, climate change, lake browning, DOC

34 1. Introduction

Permafrost peatlands cover approximately 19% of the circumpolar permafrost region 35 36 (Tarnocai et al. 2009) and contain globally significant stores of terrestrial carbon (Harris et al. 37 2021). Climate change and an accelerated rate of permafrost thaw have raised concerns about their future role in the global carbon cycle under a warming climate (Hugelius et al. 2020). 38 39 Shallow lakes are abundant features across many permafrost peatland landscapes of the circumpolar North. They play a critical role in the cycling of water and chemical constituents 40 41 across the landscape, and act as both sentinels and agents of environmental change. Consequently, attempts to decipher the future role of permafrost peatlands in the global carbon 42 balance must include an understanding of how shallow lake ecosystem structure and function are 43 likely to be altered with climate change (Cole et al. 2007). 44 Discontinuous permafrost landscapes are highly sensitive to even modest warming of air 45 temperatures (Kettles and Tarnocai 1999; Spence et al. 2020). Models project that 40% of the 46 world's permafrost could be lost by 2100 CE (SOCR 2021), with sporadic discontinuous 47 permafrost regions potentially permafrost-free by mid-century (Chasmer and Hopkinson 2017). 48 Permafrost thaw can manifest in several different ways: it can change the thickness of the 49 seasonally thawed (i.e. active) layer, generate a layer of talik separating the underlying 50 permafrost from the overlying active layer, and produce thermokarst terrain (Zhang et al. 1999; 51 52 Zhang et al. 2005; Frey and McClelland, 2009). While changes in active layer thickness occur

slowly (press disturbance), thermokarst development from the thawing of ice-rich permafrost

54 manifests as a rapid (or pulse) disturbance (Vonk et al. 2015). In southern permafrost peatlands,

55 wetland thermokarst processes typically predominate, which results in the conversion of forests

56 into wetlands (Quinton et al. 2019).

Wetland thermokarst alters the hydrologic connectivity of the landscape by increasing the 57 number, duration, and depth of flow paths (Smith 2007; Karlsson 2012; Quinton et al. 2019). 58 The hydrological connectivity of a landscape in turn exerts a strong control over transportation of 59 sediment, organic matter, and nutrients, with shallow lakes playing a critical role in the 60 processing of these materials along hydrological cascades. Increased areal wetland coverage and 61 62 hydrological connectivity, coupled with increased availability of terrestrial organic matter liberated from thawed soils, has the potential to increase the export of terrestrial organic carbon 63 to lakes. As terrestrial organic carbon is typically highly colored, increased export of carbon 64 65 from the catchment can result in a phenomenon known as lake browning (Wauthy et al. 2018). Lake browning alters light penetration, thermal regime, and oxygen dynamics in lakes, and can 66 fuel heterotrophic energy pathways in lake food webs (Cole et al. 2006; Porcal et al. 2009; Vonk 67 et al. 2015; Tanentzap et al. 2017). 68

Increases in lake DOC concentrations are predicted with continued permafrost thaw 69 (Vonk et al. 2013; Wauthy et al. 2018), yet paleolimnological reconstructions of thermokarst 70 lakes have provided mixed results regarding trajectories of lake DOC concentrations (Vonk et al. 71 72 2012; Bouchard et al. 2013; Thienpont et al. 2013; Coleman et al. 2015). This may be due, at 73 least in part, to localized differences in catchment ecohydrological characteristics. Topography, permafrost extent, ground ice content, surficial geology, and Quaternary history have all been 74 identified as key state factors that are likely to influence biogeochemical responses of watersheds 75 76 to permafrost thaw (O'Neill et al. 2019, Vonk et al. 2019; Tank et al. 2020). Consequently, representation across broad geographic gradients is required to disentangle the trajectories and 77 drivers of limnological change in northern lakes and make predictions at the circumpolar scale. 78 Even within regions, responses of permafrost peatlands to warming can be variable, highlighting 79

the need for a better understanding of the processes underlying ecosystem change (Sim et al.
2021). In this study, we contribute to addressing these knowledge gaps by providing the first
limnological characterization of small, shallow lakes in the Scotty Creek basin of the
southwestern Northwest Territories (Canada).

The Scotty Creek basin (61°180 N, 121°180 W) is a region of low-relief and extensive 84 85 peatlands located at the northern extent of the sporadic discontinuous permafrost zone in the Taiga Plains Ecozone. Here, permafrost exists beneath treed peat plateaus, while surrounding 86 87 wetlands, including channel fens and collapse scar wetlands (hereafter "collapse scars"), are 88 predominately treeless and permafrost-free. Warming air temperatures, which has accelerated since ~1970, has resulted in the rapid loss of permafrost (Quinton et al. 2019). The region is 89 predicted to be permafrost-free by mid-century (Chasmer and Hopkinson 2017). The Scotty 90 Creek Research Station has supported intensive field, remote sensing, and modelling studies 91 since the late ~1990's, providing a long-term perspective on thaw-induced watershed changes 92 93 rarely available for remote subarctic regions (Quinton et al. 2019). To date, however, very little research has been done on the many small lakes and ponds found within the Scotty Creek basin. 94 95 In a recent comparison of hydrological trends in 32 circumpolar peatland basins, the Taiga Plains 96 was unique in experiencing a widespread increase in annual basin runoff in the absence of increasing precipitation (Mack et al. 2021), a phenomenon that has been linked to accelerated 97 98 wetland thermokarst (Connon et al. 2012). Clearly, the Scotty Creek basin is in a period of rapid 99 transition, where limnological research should be prioritized.

100 The objectives of this study are to: (1) document the present-day limnology of shallow 101 lakes in the Scotty Creek basin as a benchmark from which to examine future limnological 102 change; and (2) examine spatial relationships between water chemistry, nearshore landscape

characteristics, and diatom (siliceous algae) assemblages to understand controls on limnological 103 characteristics and make predictions about drivers of future change. To meet our objectives, we 104 analyzed surface water chemistry and sedimentary diatom assemblages in 16 lakes in or near the 105 Scotty Creek basin and used high-resolution aerial imagery available for 9 of the lakes to map 106 channel fen and collapse scar area within 250 m of the lake perimeter. We also collected high-107 108 resolution logger data for depth, oxygen, light, and temperature profiles over the 2019 ice-free season in two lakes in the Scotty Creek basin that we propose as candidate sites for the 109 establishment of a long-term lake monitoring program. Overall, this study provides a foundation 110 111 for advancing our process-based understanding of the drivers of limnological change in rapidly thawing discontinuous permafrost peatlands. 112

113

114 **2.** Methods

115 2.1 Overview

We selected 16 lakes to sample for water chemistry and sedimentary diatom assemblages. The 16 lakes were chosen because they are in close proximity to one another, and centered on the Scotty Creek basin, which allowed us to explore the range of limnological variability within a small geographic area (Figure 1). Of the 16 lakes, 8 were located within the Scotty Creek basin, an additional 6 were located just outside the boundaries of the Scotty Creek watershed, and 2 (FS1 and FS2) were located northeast of Scotty Creek. FS1 and FS2 were slightly larger, and in a more fluvially-influenced catchment setting, compared to the other lakes.

For 9 of the 16 study lakes, including SC8 and the 8 lakes within the Scotty Creek basin,
we were able to use previously available landscape classification data (Chasmer et al. 2014) to

quantify the area within 250 m of the lake shoreline that was composed of fens and collapse
scars. We used the landscape classification data to explore relationships between water
chemistry, diatoms, and land cover. Two of the lakes within the Scotty Creek basin (First Lake
and Goose Lake) are easily accessible from the Scotty Creek Field Station, which allowed us to
conduct more intensive field sampling. For these lakes, we deployed loggers and collected water
and sediments from adjacent wetlands to further refine our understanding of their limnology.

131 2.2 Field methods

132 The 16 lakes were sampled from the center of the lake by helicopter in mid-July, 2018 (Figure 1). That season, ice-off occurred between May 4 and 10, 2018. Conductivity and pH 133 were measured at all sites in situ using a Hanna multiprobe, but oxygen measurements were not 134 135 recorded due to equipment malfunction. Lake depths were measured using an acoustic depth sounder; however, depths were not used in statistical analyses because the interference of dense 136 moss mats and macrophytes established on many lake bottoms prevented stabilized readings of 137 the depth sounder. For many lakes, readings fluctuated by 10s of cm, which is significant for 138 these shallow systems. For all sites, water samples were collected in two pre-sterilized 1-litre 139 polyethylene bottles. One litre was filtered through 0.45 µm cellulose acetate filters within 24 140 hours of collection for analysis of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and total dissolved nitrogen 141 (TN). Unfiltered water was poured into 250 mL glass bottles containing 0.5 mL nitric acid, 142 143 including a field blank using DI water, and sent to SGS Laboratories for elemental analysis (Montreal, QC, Canada). Sediment cores were collected from the 16 lakes using a Uwitec gravity 144 corer with an internal diameter of 8.6 cm and sectioned into 0.5 cm intervals using a modified 145 146 Glew (1988) extruder. The top 0.5 cm of each core was used for the analysis of modern diatom

147 assemblages. Based on ²¹⁰Pb dating, the top 0.5 cm represented ~2-5 years of sediment
148 accumulation in these lakes (Coleman and Korosi 2023).

149 In June 2019, surface water and sediments were sampled from Goose Lake and First 150 Lake at the Scotty Creek Research Station, as well as five fen sites and one collapse scar site (Figure 1D). Additionally, substrate samples (submerged vegetation, submerged peat, sediment, 151 152 and grasses) were collected from shoreline environments around Goose Lake, and from a benthic moss mat in the centre of the north basin of Goose Lake at a water depth of ~1m. Water and 153 154 sediment sampling followed the same methods used for the 2018 sampling of the 16 lakes, described above, except this time we were able to collect to collect dissolved oxygen data with 155 the Hanna Multiprobe 156

157 Buoys equipped with HOBO Pendant wireless temperature and light data loggers, Onset HOBO U26 dissolved oxygen (DO) data loggers and Onset HOBO U20 depth loggers were 158 deployed in both the main basin and northern basin of Goose Lake and center of First Lake 159 (Figure 1D) on June 7th (~a month past ice-off) and removed on August 22nd, 2019. Each buoy 160 was connected to a rope which was anchored to the sediment using 20 lb weights. An additional 161 rope was suspended from the buoy, upon which three temperature/light loggers, and one oxygen 162 logger were attached. The depth logger was attached to the weight to keep it stationary in the 163 water column in relation to the sediments and was kept afloat using empty 2 L bottles. 164 165 Precipitation data was collected using a Pluvio totalizing station, located at the Scotty Creek research station adjacent to Goose Lake, and was corrected for undercatch. Precipitation was 166 recorded every 30 minutes to examine the impact of precipitation on other time-series data (e.g. 167 168 light and depth).

169 2.3 Laboratory analysis of water chemistry

DOC and TN were analyzed on a Shimadzu-TOC5000 Series TOC-L analyzer following 170 the combustion catalytic oxidation method and non-dispersive infrared detection. Standards were 171 made using potassium hydrogen phthalate for instrument calibration and performance. Samples 172 were acidified using HCl and sparged to purge DIC. True color was measured using the 173 platinum-cobalt method on a Genesys 10S UV-Vis spectrophotometer (APHA 2011). Alkalinity 174 175 was analyzed by titrating samples with $0.02N H_2SO_4$ (APHA 1998). Samples were sent to SGS Laboratories (Montreal, QC, Canada) for elemental analysis, including total phosphorus, using 176 ICP-MS and ICP-OES. Although perchloric acid digestion followed by colorimetry is the more 177 178 common for analysis of total phosphorus, good agreement has been found between this method and ICP-MS (Ivanov et al., 2012), as used here. 179

180 2.4 Physical Landscape Characterization

181 2.3.1 Shoreline Development and Lake Area

The shoreline development (D_L) ratio, an index that describes how close a lake is to a perfect circle, was calculated for all 16 study lakes. Lakes with a D_L close to 1 have circular shapes, while lakes with high D_L have more jagged and crenulated shapes. D_L is the ratio of the perimeter of the lake to the perimeter of a circle with the same area

 $D_{L} = S_{L} \div 2 \cdot \operatorname{sqrt}(\pi \cdot A_{o})$ (1)

where S_L is shoreline length, and A_o is the area of the lake. Lakes with a higher D_L have higher potential for the development of littoral communities and increase the exposure of lakes to the surrounding shorelines. Lake area and perimeter were calculated using the polygon function in Google Earth.

191 2.3.2 Buffer and Overlay Landscape Analysis

Nine of the 16 study lakes were used for the buffer and overlay landscape analysis. 192 Buffering is the process of creating an output polygon layer that delineates a zone of specified 193 width around a feature of interest. An overlay is the process of taking two or more different maps 194 of the same area and placing them on top of one another. In this study, we applied a 250 m buffer 195 around the perimeter of the 9 study lakes, followed by an overlay analysis to determine how 196 197 much fen and collapse scar area fell within each buffer. The outputted layers included shapefiles only of the collapse scars and fens that overlapped within the 250 m buffer. The buffer and 198 199 overlay analyses were done in ArcMap version 10.7.1 using a raster file of the Scotty Creek 200 study area. Individual shapefiles were created for each land classification (channel fen, collapse scars, water, moraine/upland, and permafrost) and the water layer was separated into individual 201 lakes. 202

203 2.5 Subfossil Diatom Analysis

Diatom slides were prepared following Battarbee et al. (2001) using the hydrogen 204 peroxide method and mounted using Naphrax[®]. Diatom valves were identified using an 205 Amscope B690C-PL microscope and multiple reference texts (Krammer and Lange-Bertalot 206 1997; Krammer and Lange-Bertalot 1999; Krammer and Lange-Bertalot 2000; Fallu et al. 2000) 207 and online databases (Guiry and Guiry, 2021; Spaulding et al. 2022). Between 300 to 500 valves 208 209 were counted per site, except for Fen 4 and the collapse scar site which had markedly low diversity (Hill's N2 <4), where a minimum of 175 valves were counted. Diatom species were 210 grouped based on similar ecologies (Appendix A) and were displayed as relative abundances. 211 212 Chrysophyte cysts, which can form in response to changing environmental conditions, and protozoan plates, which can provide information on moisture levels, were also present on diatom 213

slides and enumerated and displayed on figures as percentages relative to the sum of all diatomvalves.

216 2.6 Data Analysis

Data retrieved from data loggers was plotted using the ggplot package (Wickham 2019)
in R (R Core Team 2020). Light absorption per cm was calculated by the equation

219

$$[100 x (I_0 - I_z)]/I_0$$
 (2)

where I_0 is the irradiance recorded in the shallowest sensor, and I_z is the irradiance recorded in the deepest sensor divided by the number of cm between the two sensors. Anomalous negative values caused by higher irradiance values recorded in the deeper sensor than the shallower sensor were removed, and likely are a result of shading of the shallower sensor by the buoy. A LOESS smoothed line was included in the figures using the stat_smooth function in ggplot in R.

225 Water chemistry variables that had concentrations below detection were not included in 226 any statistical analyses (mercury, silver, arsenic, beryllium, boron, bismuth, molybdenum, nickel, 227 antimony, selenium, tin, thallium, zirconium, and zinc). Variables were also removed if there was evidence of contamination based on anomalously high field blank concentrations 228 229 (aluminum, cadmium, cobalt, chromium, copper, iron, lead, titanium, uranium, and vanadium). Spearman's correlation analyses, used here due to the non-normal distribution of most variables, 230 were calculated on remaining water chemistry variables to determine if there were statistically 231 significant relationships between water chemistry variables and lake area (Area) or shoreline 232 development (D_L). Water chemistry variables included in the Spearman's correlation analyses 233 included pH, dissolved organic carbon (DOC), total nitrogen, filtered (TN), true color (color), 234

phosphorus (TP), conductivity, alkalinity, calcium (Ca), potassium (K), lithium (Li), magnesium
(Mg), manganese (Mn), sodium (Na), silicon (Si), and strontium (Sr).

237 Principal components analysis (PCA) was used to visualize limnological variation among 238 lakes. Variables were standardized using the "scale" function in the vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2019) in R. A PCA was generated for all 16 lakes to examine variation between lakes with 239 240 respect to Area, DL, pH, DOC, TN, color, conductivity, Li, and Mn. Area and DL were plotted passively. Highly correlated variables were removed from the PCA. For example, conductivity 241 242 was correlated with alkalinity, calcium (Ca), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg), and strontium 243 (Sr). The remaining variables were selected due to their importance in structuring biological communities (pH, DOC, TN, TP, color, and conductivity), usefulness as a lithogenic tracer (Li), 244 or sensitivity to redox conditions (Mn). Li, TP, and Area were normalized using a log 245 transformation, and D_L and conductivity were normalized using a loglog transformation. The 246 remaining variables were already normally distributed, and no transformation was applied. A 247 248 PCA was also generated for the subset of 9 lakes used in landscape analyses, to visually examine relationships between the same water chemistry variables as above and collapse scar or fen 249 coverage within 250 m of the lake perimeter. Collapse scar and fen coverage were plotted 250 251 passively, and Mn was normalized using a log transformation.

Direct ordination [Redundancy analysis (RDA)] was used to evaluate relationships between diatom community composition and environmental variables. Lake area and conductivity were log transformed to normalize distribution, and species data were Hellinger transformed to standardize species assemblage data from absolute to relative values. A variance inflation factor (VIF) test was run to assess multicollinearity. Variables with high VIFs were sequentially removed from analysis until all environmental variables had VIFs below 10.

258	Variables retained in the analysis were pH, color, DOC, area, and conductivity. Significance of
259	the RDA was determined using an ANOVA-like permutations test. Correlation analyses were
260	conducted using the Hmisc package (Harrell 2021), and PCAs, VIFs, RDAs and permutation
261	tests were conducted using the Vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2019) in R.
262	
263	3. Results
264	3.1 High-Resolution Assessment of Goose Lake and First Lake
265	Depth measurements obtained from depth loggers deployed in First Lake and the two
266	main basins of Goose Lake (Figure 1D) from June 7 th to August 22 nd showed good agreement
267	between all three loggers and suggested water levels of these shallow (~1 m) lakes fluctuated by
268	~30-40 cm throughout this period (Figures 2A, 2B, and 2C). Water levels fluctuated through
269	June and July and began to stabilize towards the end of the recorded period. Lowest water levels
270	occurred in early to mid-June and mid-July. Bottom dissolved oxygen (DO) measurements
271	ranged from 5 to 12.5 mg/L in Goose Lake, in both the north basin (Figure 2A), and the main
272	basin (Figure 2B). In First Lake, DO measurements appeared to have dropped to 0 mg/L for
273	periods of time, however this was likely a result of the logger dropping into the sediments, as the
274	logger recorded these anoxic conditions during periods of lower water levels (Figure 2C).
275	The consistency between temperature readings at different depths indicated that the entire

water column in both lakes was mixed throughout the recorded period (Figure 2). Temperature
measurements were consistent between lakes and fluctuated between 10 and 25°C throughout the
recorded period. All lakes recorded warmer periods in mid-June and late July/early August. The
calculated % absorption of light per cm was similar between Goose Lake and First Lake, and

although light penetration fluctuated through time, no clear seasonal trends were apparent
(Figure 2); however, in Goose Lake, periods of higher light absorption (e.g. in late July)
coincided with warmer temperatures (Figures 2A and 2B). Rainfall events occurred sporadically
throughout the season, with the largest rainfall event occurring on July 18th when 12.4 mm of
rain fell over an hour. Lake depth increased by ~20 cm in Goose Lake and First Lake after this
rainfall event, and maximum depth occurred on July 23rd (Figure 2).

286

287 3.2 Characterization of lakes in or near the Scotty Creek Basin

288 *3.2.1 Morphology and water chemistry of the 16 lakes*

In 2018, lake depths of the 16 surveyed lakes ranged from ~0.9 to 2.1 m; however, dense 289 macrophyte stands or benthic moss mats likely interfered with sonar measurements, as 290 measurement readings in some lakes did not stabilize and fluctuated by tens of centimetres. Lake 291 area ranged from 11 to 244 ha, except for a notably larger lake (FS1) that had an area of 713 ha 292 (Table 1). Lakes were circumneutral to slightly alkaline (pH = 7.85 - 8.75). Alkalinity ranged 293 from 28-124 mg/L CaCO₃, conductivity ranged from 55.5 to 244.2 µS/cm, DOC ranged from 294 295 12.96 to 23.74 mg/L, and water color ranged from 18-463 TCU (Table 1). TN (filtered) ranged from 0.54 to 1.54 mg/L, and TP (unfiltered) ranged from 8 to 38 μ g/L. 296

297 *3.2.2 Near-shore landscape characterization of 9 selected thermokarst lakes*

Landscape coverage of fen environments varied between 0 and 34% within 250 m of the perimeters of the 9 lakes included in the landscape characterization analyses. Collapse scars were more extensive, covering between 13.4 and 48.9% of the landscape within 250 m of the lake perimeters (Figure 3). Lakes were generally well connected through channel fen networks, except for SC5 and SC8 that were more isolated. SC8 had no fen environment within 250 m of
the lake, indicating it may be hydrologically isolated, and while SC5 had a fen-like environment
containing grasses and sedges along the western edge of its shoreline, this fen was not
hydrologically connected to a channel fen network (Figure 3).

306 *3.2.3 Water chemistry of wetland environments near Goose and First Lake*

The five fen environments had lower pH ranges than sampled lakes, being circumneutral 307 to slightly acidic (5.97-7.40), and had higher DOC concentrations than lakes ranging from 23.08 308 309 to 33.7 mg/L. In comparison to this study, Gordon et al. (2016) previously reported lower pH values (5.15-5.46), and higher DOC values (~42-49 mg/L) for fens in the Scotty Creek basin. 310 Water color ranged from 54 to 459 TCU, alkalinity ranged from 26 to 50 mg/L CaCO₃, TN 311 312 ranged from 0.52 to 0.91 mg/L, and conductivity ranged from 25 to 82 µS/cm. DO ranged from 2.06 to 9.27 mg/L (or 17.6 to 89.7% saturation), and was slightly lower than what had been 313 recorded by data loggers in Goose Lake and First Lake. The one collapse scar sampled had high 314 DOC (46.8 mg/L), which was in range of values reported by Gordon et al. (2016), and also had 315 high color (522 TCU), low pH (5.33), low alkalinity (4 mg/L CaCO₃) and low conductivity (25 316 μ S/cm). TN (0.59 mg/L) and DO (6.35 mg/L; 58.5% saturation) was within the range of water 317 chemistry variables measured in the 5 fen environments. 318

319 *3.2.4 Analysis of relationships between water chemistry and landscape features*

Principal components analysis (PCA) axis 1 explained 50% of the variation in water chemistry in the 16-lake dataset, largely driven by conductivity, lithium (Li), manganese (Mn), total nitrogen (TN), and color, while PCA axis 2 explained 23% of the variation in the data set and was largely driven by DOC and TP (Figure 4A). Generally, lakes were well dispersed

324	throughout the ordination space; however, SC3, SC8, SC1, SC2, Next Lake, SC4, SC9, SC11
325	were well dispersed along PCA axis 2, but not axis 1, indicating these lakes differed in water
326	chemistry variables associated with axis 2 (DOC and TP). Some lakes appeared to have similar
327	water chemistry (e.g. SC2 and Next Lake; Figure 4A), despite being relatively far apart in
328	physical space (Figure 1). PCA ordination of the 9-lake dataset (Figure 4B) illustrated the
329	relationship between the same water chemistry variables examined in Figure 4A and proportion
330	of collapse scar and fen environments within 250 m of lakes. Here, PCA axis 1 explained 46% of
331	the variation in the dataset and was driven by conductivity, Mn, TN, Li, and TP, while PCA axis
332	2 explained 21% of the dataset and was driven by pH, color, and DOC (Figure 4B).
333	Correlation analyses suggested that lake area in this region was strongly (r>0.6) and
334	positively correlated to conductivity, (r=0.79, p<0.01), alkalinity (r=0.85, p<0.01), major ions
335	such as Ca (r=0.74, p <0.01), Mg (r=0.77, p <0.01) , and K (r=0.78, p <0.01) and moderately
336	(0.3>r<0.6) and positively correlated with TN (r=0.54, p<0.05), Mn (r=0.53, p<0.05), and Sr
337	(r=0.57, p<0.05)(Table 6). Lake area was also found to be strongly and negatively correlated to
338	color (r = -0.85, p<0.01) (Table 2). Shoreline development index was moderately and positively
339	correlated with conductivity (r=0.50, p<0.05) and Mg (r=0.48, p<0.05) (Table 2). DOC was
340	moderately and positively correlated to both TN (r=0.52, p<0.05) and TP (r=0.58, p<0.05) (Table
341	2). TN was not significantly correlated to TP (r=0.48, p>0.05) (Table 2). Color was moderately,
342	and negatively correlated to pH (r=-0.54, p<0.05), and strongly and negatively related to TN
343	(r=0.69, p<0.01), while TN was moderately and positively related to lithium (r=0.50, p<0.05)
344	(Table 2). DOC and color were not correlated in these lakes (r=0.16, p=0.55) (Table 2).

3.3 Diatom communities

3.3.1 Lakes

347	With a few exceptions, two common diatom assemblages were identified in the small
348	lakes within the Scotty Creek basin and surrounding areas. The first assemblage, identified in
349	SC9, SC3, SC2, SC1, SC5, and SC11, was dominated by small benthic Fragilariaceae (mainly
350	Pseudostaurosira brevistriata, P. parasitica, Staurosira construens, and S. venter) and small
351	Navicula species sensu lato, including Sellaphora nigri, and Sellaphora seminulum (Figure 5).
352	The second assemblage, identified in SC4, SC6, SC12, Next Lake, FS2, Goose Lake, and SC10
353	was dominated by Encyonopsis species (E. cesatii and E. descripta), and large Navicula species
354	(N. cryptocephala, N. cryptotenella, and N. radiosa). Many of these lakes (SC12, Goose Lake,
355	SC10, Next Lake, and FS2) also had high abundances of <i>Brachysira</i> species (<i>B. styriaca</i> , <i>B.</i>
356	vitrea, and B. zellensis) (Figure 5). There were a few exceptions to these common groupings:
357	The assemblage in FS1 was dominated by Achnanthidium minutissimum; the assemblage in SC8
358	was dominated by Achnanthidium minutissimum, large Navicula species, Nitzschia species, and
359	Brachysira species; and the assemblage in First Lake was dominated by Achnanthidium
360	minutissimum, large Navicula species, Nitzschia species (mainly N. fonticola and N. palea), and
361	centric planktonic species (Lindavia michiganiana, and Discostella pseudostelligera) (Figure 5).
362	The abundance of chrysophyte cysts relative to diatom valves was variable, ranging from 0 to
363	~20%. Higher abundances were found in SC3 (~20%) and SC11 (~19%) and absent in FS1 and
364	SC9. Protozoan plates were present in low abundance in most lakes (~0.2-4.6%) and absent in
365	SC9 and SC10 (Figure 5).

Redundancy analysis (RDA) of diatom assemblages and pH, color, dissolved organic carbon, lake area, and conductivity was statistically significant (F=1.8422, p<0.05). The selected variables collectively explained 47.9% of the variance in the diatom assemblages, 40% of which was explained in the first two RDA axes (Figure 6). Some species preferences were identified in

the RDA. For example, *Brachysira vitrea* was found to be associated with lakes with greater 370 surface area. Navicula cryptocephala. N. radiosa, Encyonopsis cesatii, E. descripta, Kobayasiella 371 *jaagi, Cymbopleura incerta*, and *Brachysira styriaca* were all found to be associated with lakes 372 with higher DOC, while Staurosira construens, Staurosira venter, and Pseudostaurosira 373 brevistriata were associated with high color. Lakes SC1, SC2, SC3, SC5, and SC9 had a similar 374 375 diatom assemblage, while Next Lake, Goose Lake, and lakes SC4, SC6, SC10 and SC12 had similar assemblages. FS2, SC8, and First Lake also had a similar assemblage (Figure 6). 376 3.3.2 Wetland diatom assemblages 377

Diatom assemblages identified in the wetland samples were variable but exhibit notable 378 differences from lake diatom assemblages. The most abundant diatoms found in fen 379 380 environments were Eunotia species (mainly E. bilunaris and E. subarcuatoides), Gomphonema species (mainly G. parvulum), and Tabellaria spp. Rossithidium pusillum, Achnanthidium 381 minutissimum (Figure 7), Nitzschia species (mainly N. fonticola and N. palea), large Navicula 382 species (mainly N. cryptocephala, N. cryptotenella, and N. radiosa), Kobayasiella subtilissima, 383 and planktonic Fragilaria (mainly F. tenera) species were also present (Figure 7). The relative 384 abundances of chrysophyte cysts (7-36%) and protozoan plates were variable (2-37%), but 385 generally higher in fens than lakes (Figure 7). The diatom assemblage in the collapse scar sample 386 was dominated by Kobayasiella subtilissima (95%). The highest relative abundances of both 387 chrysophyte cysts and protozoan plates were found in the collapse scar sample (both at 42% 388 relative abundance) (Figure 7) 389

390 *3.3.3 Diatom assemblages identified in lake substrate samples*

391	In the lake substrate samples, <i>Tabellaria</i> spp and large <i>Navicula</i> species (mainly <i>N</i> .
392	cryptocephala, N. cryptotenella, and N. radiosa) were the most abundant diatom species
393	identified. Tabellaria spp was present in high abundances in grass (~48%) and submerged
394	vegetation (~71%) samples and was also present in the submerged peat sample (~11%) (Table
395	3). Large Navicula species were found in high abundance in the sediment (~38%), submerged
396	peat (~30%) and benthic moss mat (~39%) samples (Table 3). In addition to the large Navicula
397	species, the diatom assemblage identified in the sediment sample also consisted of planktonic
398	Fragilaria species (mostly F. tenera), Encyonema species (mostly E. silesiacum) and Brachysira
399	species (B. styriaca and B. vitrea) (Table 3). The submerged peat sample also contained
400	planktonic Fragilaria species, and Encyonopis species (E. descripta and E. cesatii). In addition
401	to Tabellaia spp. the grass sample also consisted of Gomphonema species (mostly G. parvulum)
402	and Achnanthidium minutissimum, while the benthic moss mat sample consisted of large
403	Navicula species, Encyonopsis species and Brachysira species (B. stryiaca and B. vitrea) (Table
404	3). Chyrosphyte cyst abundances were generally low in the substrate samples (2 to 6%), except
405	for submerged peat, which had higher abundances (26%). Protozoan plates were almost entirely
406	absent in these samples (~0 to 0.25%) (Table 3).

408 **4. Discussion**

The peatland-dominated Scotty Creek basin is in a period of rapid transition due to climate warming and rapid loss of permafrost. The aim of this study was to characterize the present-day limnology and ecology of shallow lakes in or near Scotty Creek, and underlying drivers, as a benchmark from which to study future change. Spatial patterns in water chemistry, lake physical characteristics and diatom assemblages were explored in 16 lakes. For 9 of the 16 lakes where landscape classification data was available, the extent of fen and collapse scar
coverage was explored as a driver of water chemistry. Lastly, loggers were deployed in First
Lake and Goose Lake to gain a better understanding of seasonal dynamics in water depth,
temperature, and oxygen.

418 4.1 Seasonal dynamics in Goose Lake and First Lake

419 Goose Lake and First Lake did not exhibit thermal stratification over the 76-day period the loggers were deployed. Paleolimnological records indicate that thermal stability has been 420 421 increasing in lakes across the circumpolar Arctic in response to climate change (Rühland et al. 2015). Although stratification of shallow lakes is rare, it has been observed in shallow lakes with 422 high DOC concentrations, as DOC can absorb more solar radiation and increase surface water 423 424 temperatures (Bouchard et al. 2011; Deshpande et al. 2017). Shallow boreal lakes may also be more prone to periodic thermal stratification where trees provide shelter from wind mixing 425 426 (Klaus et al. 2021).

Oxygen availability at the sediment-water interface is a fundamental control on lake 427 biogeochemical cycling. For example, methanogenesis, the production of methane as a 428 respiratory by-product, occurs in anoxic conditions, and may be fueled by the addition of 429 430 terrestrial sources of organic carbon (Grasset et al. 2018). Increased stratification, in combination with increased bacterial consumption of high terrestrial carbon inputs, have resulted in prolonged 431 432 periods of anoxia in some subarctic lakes in Northern Quebec (Desphande et al. 2017). Small 433 subarctic lakes in Norway similarly experienced decreasing oxygen concentrations with 434 increasing DOC inputs (Couture et al. 2015). These changes could have important consequences 435 for the carbon cycle as increased export of terrestrial carbon and longer periods of stratification may result in shallow subarctic lakes becoming important emitters of methane (Grasset et al. 436

2018). In contrast, high DOC subarctic lakes in Siberia had oxygen concentrations at equilibrium 437 with the atmosphere (Shirokova et al. 2013). Oxygen levels near the sediment-water interface in 438 Goose Lake and First Lake ranged between 5 and 12.5 mg/L and would be considered low for 439 the protection of aquatic life (for reference, 9.5 mg/L is considered the lowest acceptable 440 dissolved oxygen concentration for early life stages; CCME 1991). As both Goose Lake and 441 442 First Lake have high DOC concentrations (23.74 and 21.93 mg/L, respectively) high rates of microbial respiration may be responsible for lower oxygen levels, as there is no evidence of 443 stratification. 444

Peatlands cover approximately 19% of the circumpolar permafrost region (Tarnocai et al. 445 2009), yet high resolution limnological data of these sites is scarce and is a notable gap in global 446 447 lake monitoring networks such as GLEON (Global Lakes Ecological Observation Network). As permafrost wetland complexes near the southern extent of permafrost are particularly vulnerable 448 to rising air temperatures, the Scotty Creek basin offers an ideal location for long-term 449 450 limnological research. Lake monitoring data collected here can be combined with ongoing field, remote sensing, and modelling research at the Scotty Creek Research Station, to provide a more 451 holistic understanding of changes in terrestrial-aquatic linkages with permafrost thaw. 452

453 *4.2 Spatial patterns in lake water chemistry*

We expected the relative proportion of collapse scars and channel fens within 250 m of the lake shoreline would be an important driver of water chemistry in the Scotty Creek basin, because of the differential roles these landscape features play in the biogeochemical processing and transport of materials from land to lake. In this landscape, channel fens act as water conveyors, while collapse scars act predominately as water storage (Quinton et al. 2019). Collapse scars may be important sources of chromophoric DOC, as they were identified in this

study as having high DOC and high color (522 TCU). Our spatial results, however, showed
limited evidence for the role of channel fens and collapse scars in driving lake water chemistry.
For example, SC5 and SC8 were hydrologically isolated from the channel fen network, and both
had high color, which may suggest that channel fens have a role in flushing terrestrial DOC from
lakes; however, Next Lake also had relatively high color despite being well-connected
hydrologically.

We postulate that temporal dynamics in a rapidly changing landscape could explain why 466 we do not see strong spatial evidence for the importance of fen and collapse scar extent in 467 468 influencing lake water chemistry. For example, an increase in fen development could initially increase color in lakes due to a phenomenon known as "bog capture" (Connon et al. 2014), 469 470 where previously isolated collapse scar wetlands become connected to the expanding fen network as permafrost plateaus continue to degrade. The highly colored water is then conveyed 471 to nearby lakes through the fen network. With time, colored DOC may ultimately be flushed 472 473 from Next Lake and other lakes recently influenced by the capture of collapse scars. Paleolimnological approaches that reconstruct DOC trajectories in lakes in combination with a 474 time series of remotely sensed images could be used in future studies to test this. 475

476 4.3 Diatom ecology in permafrost wetlands and lakes of the Scotty Creek basin

Two different diatom assemblages were observed in 13 of the 16 lakes sampled. The first
assemblage, identified in 6 lakes, was comprised of small benthic Fragilariaceae and small *Navicula* species (*sensu lato*), which were found in this study to be associated with higher color.
A similar assemblage has been identified in a lake with high color located southeast of the Scotty
Creek basin near Tathlina Lake (Coleman et al. 2015; Korosi et al. 2015). Small benthic
Fragilariaceae have been used as indicators of harsher, low light conditions and tend to decrease

in abundance with warming (Rühland et al. 2008; Bouchard et al. 2013). Although primarily
benthic, they have also been identified as tychoplanktonic (e.g. Velez et al. 2021), and can be
displaced into the water column with mixing; However, their absence in Goose Lake and First
Lake, which appeared to be well mixed at least during the ice-free season of 2019, suggests that
their presence is not related primarily to column mixing.

488 The second assemblage, recorded in 7 lakes, was comprised of Encyonopsis species and large Navicula species. These species were found to be associated with high DOC and lower pH 489 490 (though note the pH gradient is narrow, ranging from 7.85 - 8.75). The species assemblages in 491 these lakes were similar to the assemblage found in the benthic moss mat sampled from Goose Lake. While large Navicula species have been associated with higher DOC (Rühland et al. 2003, 492 493 Coleman et al. 2015), Encyonopsis species are epiphytic and often associated with mosses (Bahls 2013). Therefore, a main driver of diatom assemblages in these lakes may be the presence of a 494 benthic moss mat, which is dependent on light being able to penetrate to the benthic zone of 495 these lakes. Colored DOC could have limited the growth of moss and associated epiphytes in 496 these lakes. DOC has previously been shown to negatively impact benthic primary production in 497 boreal lakes in Sweden and Alaska through light limitation (Seekell et al. 2015), though the 498 499 study did not distinguish between DOC and lake color and aquatic plants are known to produce authochthonous, non-chromophoric DOC (Pagano et al. 2014). We infer autochthonous DOC 500 sources from extensive moss and macrophyte growth to be the reason why our diatom epiphyte-501 502 dominated lakes exhibited high DOC but were generally lower in color. A better understanding of the interplay between lake depth, DOC, light, and benthic primary production is needed to 503 504 predict the consequences of permafrost thaw on shallow lakes in boreal permafrost peatlands.

The species assemblages that were present in high abundances in wetlands were different 505 from assemblages that were identified in lakes. Three of the most common species or groups of 506 species, were Eunotia species, Gomphonema species, and Tabellaria spp. Eunotia species in 507 particular are commonly identified in paleoecological studies using peat cores, and have lower 508 pH optima (e.g. Hargan et al. 2015). *Tabellaria* spp have been found in a wide variety of 509 510 freshwater habitats, including lakes and peatlands, and have broad morphological variations in terms of size, but shorter species/varieties as found here have often been observed in peatlands 511 and attached to vegetation (DeColibus, 2013). This is consistent with the assemblages identified 512 513 in the substrate samples, as Tabellaria spp. was found in high abundances in the grasses and submerged vegetation. The diatom assemblage identified in the collapse scar site was found to be 514 different from both lakes and fens and was dominated by *Kobayasiella subtilissima* (95%). 515 Hargan et al. (2015) also found that K. subtilissima had higher prevalence in collapse scar 516 habitats. Collapse scars also have the highest abundance of cysts and protozoan plates compared 517 to both fens and lakes. 518

The two different assemblages of diatoms that were identified in these shallow subarctic 519 lakes are likely driven by relative differences in benthic to pelagic production, which is impacted 520 by the ability of light to penetrate into the water column. As increasing colored DOC 521 concentrations can reduce light penetration, paleolimnological studies using diatoms as 522 paleoindicators may be useful for examining the trajectory of lake browning with continued 523 524 permafrost thaw. The low abundances of common wetland species also identified in lakes suggests that we are not seeing a strong biological signal of these environments in the lakes. We 525 can therefore be confident that the diatom assemblages recorded in lakes are indicative of that 526 lake's conditions and have not been transported from other locations. It is, however, important to 527

note that changing lake depth and duration of the ice-free season may also influence the relative
importance of benthic to pelagic production in lakes and decreases in lake depth are expected
with drying of wetlands with on-going thaw and loss of permafrost (Chasmer and Hopkinson
2016; Carpino et al. 2021). This highlights the importance of continued high-resolution
monitoring in addition to paleolimnological studies to better predict how these lakes will change
with future warming in this dynamic landscape.

534 4.4 Summary of main findings and future directions

535 The Scotty Creek basin is experiencing a rapid loss of permafrost that manifests as wetland thermokarst, where ground subsidence results in the conversion of black spruce forest 536 into wetlands and enhances watershed hydrological connectivity (Quinton et al. 2019). Given the 537 538 differing roles that forested peat plateaus, channel fens, and collapse scars play in the transport and processing of DOC, we predicted that the degree of lake connection to the channel fen 539 network could be related to lake chromophoric DOC, but this was not supported by our data. 540 DOC and lake color, however, do appear to be key drivers of diatom assemblages in these lakes, 541 with diatom assemblages tending to fall into one of two clusters. One cluster, comprised of small 542 benthic Fragilariaceae and small *Navicula* species (sensu lato), was found associated with higher 543 lake color, while the second cluster was comprised of epiphytic Encyonopsis and large Navicula 544 species and was associated with high DOC, lower color, and the presence of a benthic moss mat. 545 Future directions should explore DOC quality (and its drivers) in these lakes, and the interplay 546 between DOC, lake depth, and light in structuring diatom assemblages and benthic primary 547 production. Furthermore, as Scotty Creek is already in a period of rapid transition, long-term 548 549 studies are needed to understand the trajectories and mechanisms of limnological change. First Lake and Goose Lake present ideal candidate sites for the establishment of a long-term 550

551 limnological monitoring program, and the close association between diatoms and lake

552 DOC/color indicate that diatoms will be useful paleoecological indicators of changes in lake

carbon and primary production dynamics in future studies.

554

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Table 1: Physical characteristics and modern water chemistry statistics for 16 lakes in the Scotty

	Mean	± SD	Min	Max	Median
Depth (m)	1.3	0.4	0.9	2.1	1.2
Area (km²)	1.06	1.69	0.11	7.13	0.32
Shoreline Development Index	1.18	0.21	1.02	1.75	1.09
рН	8.23	0.27	7.85	8.75	8.20
DOC (mg/L)	18.79	3.13	12.96	23.74	18.35
True Color (TCU)	176	124	18	463	174
TP (μg/L)(unfiltered)	18.3	7.9	8.0	38.0	17.0
TN (mg/L)(filtered)	0.90	0.28	0.54	1.54	0.79
Conductivity (µS/cm)	106.9	58.5	55.5	244.2	83.1
Alkalinity (CaCO₃)(mg/L)	54	29	28	124	43
Calcium (mg/L)	15.4	6.5	7.9	29.8	13.3
Potassium (mg/L)	0.61	0.65	0.19	2.49	0.34
Lithium (µg/L)	1.4	0.8	0.7	3.2	1.2
Magnesium (mg/L)	4.67	3.08	2.24	12.70	3.51
Manganese (µg/L)	17.3	8.3	4.9	35.1	15.5
Sodium (mg/L)	2.35	1.93	0.74	7.25	1.62
Silicon (mg/L)	1.52	0.98	0.27	4.33	1.21
Strontium (μg/L)	61.1	36.0	28.5	149.0	45.3

772 Creek and surrounding basins, collected July 2018.

SD = standard deviation; Area = surface area; DOC = dissolved organic carbon; TP = total

774 phosphorus; TN = total dissolved nitrogen

Table 2: Spearman's correlation coefficients of water chemistry variables and physical lake

characteristics for 16 lakes in the Scotty Creek basin. *p<0.05, **p<0.01

	Area	D∟	рН	DOC TP	ΤN	Color	Cond	Alk	Са	К	Li	Mg	Mn	Na	Sr
Area	1.00	0.45	0.21	-0.06-0.0	7 0.54	-0.85**	0.79**	0.85**	0.74**	0.78**	0.29	0.77**	0.52	0.36	0.57*
D∟		1.00	-0.07	0.12 -0.1	9 0.22	-0.23	0.50*	0.47	0.43	0.35	0.35	0.48	0.12	0.30	0.42
рН			1.00	-0.160.10	0.45	-0.54	0.48	0.46	0.37	0.63**	0.16	0.51*	0.48	0.42	0.49
DOC				1.00 0.58	* 0.52 [;]	* 0.16	-0.01	-0.06	-0.01	-0.06	0.17	-0.04	0.22	-0.02	-0.04
ТР				1.00	0.48	-0.06	-0.21	-0.11	-0.28	-0.05	0.20	-0.20	0.51*	0.29	-0.21
ΤN					1.00	-0.69**	0.53	0.52*	0.49	0.65**	0.50*	0.51*	0.52*	0.53*	0.58*
Color						1.00	-0.76**	*-0.81**	* -0.68**	* -0.84**	[•] -0.38	-0.74**	* -0.54*	-0.55*	-0.65**
Cond							1.00	0.94**	0.95**	0.83**	0.32	0.99**	0.54*	0.33	0.80**
Alk								1.00	0.89**	0.85**	0.36	0.95**	0.57*	0.48	0.76**
Са									1.00	0.74**	0.37	0.94**	0.47	0.28	0.86**
К										1.00	0.19	0.84**	0.43	0.44	0.75**
Li											1.00	0.29	0.29	0.82*	*0.55*
Mg												1.00	0.52*	0.37	0.77**
Mn													1.00	0.27	0.29
Na														1.00	0.51*
Sr															1.00

Area = Surface area; D_L = shoreline development index; DOC = dissolved organic carbon; TP =

total phosphorus; TN = total dissolved nitrogen; Color = true color; Cond = conductivity; Alk =

alkalinity; Ca = calcium; K = potassium; Li = lithium; Mg = magnesium; Mn = manganese; Na =

sodium; Sr = strontium

Table 3: Dominant diatom species identified in lake substrate samples. Percentage of

	Sediment	Submerged Peat	Grasses	Submerged vegetation	Benthic Moss Mat
					~ 1 m depth,
Location	Shoreline	Shoreline	Shoreline	Shoreline	north basin
	Large Navicula	Large Navicula	<i>Tabellaria</i> spp	<i>Tabellaria</i> spp	Large Navicula spp
	(~38%)	(~30%)	(~48%)	(~71%)	(~39%)
	Planktonic	<i>Tabellaria</i> spp	Gomphonema spp		Encyonopsis spp
D	Fragilaria (~9%)	(~11%)	(~21%)		(~14%)
Dominant Diatoms	<i>Encyonema</i> spp (~8%)	Planktonic <i>Fragilaria</i> (~9%)	Achnanthidium minutissimum (~11%)		<i>Brachysira</i> spp (~11%)
	Brachysira (~7%)	<i>Encyonopsis</i> spp (~9%)			<i>Achnanthes</i> spp (~10%)
Cysts	Cysts (%): 4%	Cysts (%): 26%	Cysts (%): 2%	Cysts (%): 2%	Cysts (%): 6%
Protozoan Plates	Plates (%): 0.24%	Plates (%): 0%	Plates (%): 0%	Plates (%): 0%	Plates (%): 0.25%
86					

chrysophyte cysts and protozoan plates, in relation to diatom valves, also included.

788 Figure Captions	S
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Figure 1. Map of study area: the Scotty Creek Basin, Northwest Territories, Canada. (A)

Approximate location of site within Canada, (B) approximate location of site within Taiga Plains

recozone, (C) location of all study lakes, (D) true color image using Sentinel 2A data (accessed

June 2021) of study lakes highlighted in (C) and includes wetland sample sites (white dots).

793 Yellow markers are locations of data loggers.

794

Figure 2. Lake depth, temperature, dissolved oxygen and light absorption recorded every 30
minutes from June 7th to August 22nd 2019 from Goose Lake's north basin (A), Goose Lake's
main basin (B) and First Lake (C). Precipitation data was recorded from Pluvio totalizing station
located near Goose Lake.

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Figure 3. Land classifications of the Scotty Creek basin based on classifications established in
Chasmer et al. (2014). 250 m buffer zones are added to each lake, with the bog and fen
environments within the buffer zones shown in red and yellow, respectively. Inset shows an
example of the 250 m buffer zone around lake SC3, in detail.

804

Figure 4: Principal components analysis (PCA) of select water chemistry variables and physical characteristics of 16 shallow lakes in the Scotty Creek basin (A) and select water chemistry variables and areal proportion of collapse scar environment (Bog250m) and fen environment (Fen250m) within 250 m of lakes shorelines for 9 lakes included in landscape classification analyses (B). Dashed lines represent variables plotted passively. Area = lake area, D_L = shoreline development index.

812	Figure 5: Relative abundance diagram displaying the most common diatom taxa in the modern
813	sediments retrieved from 16 shallow lakes in the Scotty creek and neighbouring basins. Species
814	were grouped based on similar ecology. Species or ecological groups present at less than 2%
815	relative abundance are not shown. Lakes were ordered using diatom PCA axes scores. Ratio of
816	chrysophyte cysts to diatom valves and protozoan plates to diatom valves are also displayed.
817	
818	Figure 6: Redundancy analysis (RDA) ordination triplot illustrating relationships between diatom
819	species and environmental variables. Environmental variables are represented by arrows. Lake
820	sites are in black. Diatoms species codes (red) are listed in Appendix A.
821	
822	Figure 7: Ground-level photographs of wetland sites and corresponding list of dominant diatom
823	species identified in a sample retrieved from the site. Percentage of chrysophyte cysts and
824	protozoan plates, in relation to diatom valves, are also listed.



















RDA Axis 1 (34%)



- 847
- 848 Appendices
- 849 Appendix A. List of diatom species groupings included in relative frequency diagram and taxon
- codes used in RDA. Species present in low abundances (<2%) were not includes in the RDA.
- 851 Some genera were grouped for RDA analysis (*Pinnularia* spp., *Eunotia* spp., *Amphora* spp.).

Groupings in relative frequency diagram	Species	Taxon Code
Small benthic Fragilariaceae	Pseudostaurosira brevistriata	PSEBREV

	Pseudostaurosira parasitica	PSEPARA
	Staurosira construens	STACONS
	Staurosira construens var venter	STAVENT
Small Navicula spp. (sensu lato)	Sellaphora nigri	NAVMINI
	Sellaphora seminulum	SELSEMI
Encyonopsis spp.	Encyonopsis cesatii	ENCCESA
	Encyonopsis descripta	ENCDESC
Pinnularia spp.	Grouped for RDA	PINSPP
	Pinnularia gibba	<2%
	Pinnularia interrupta	<2%
	Pinnularia legumen	<2%
	Pinnularia maior/viridis	<2%
	Pinnularia microstauron	<2%
	Pinnularia nodosa	<2%
	Pinnularia obscura	<2%
	Pinnularia streptoraphe	<2%
Large Navicula spp.	Navicula cryptocephala	NAVCRC
	Navicula cryptotenella	NAVCRT
	Navicula radiosa	NAVRADI
Brachysira spp.	Brachysira styriaca	BRASTYR
	Brachysira vitrea	BRAVITR
	Brachysira zellensis	BRAZELL
Encyonema spp.	Encyonema gracilis	ENCGRAC
	Encyonema silesiacum	ENCSILE
	Encyonema hebridicum	<2%
	Encyonema perpusillum	<2%
Cymbopleura spp.	Cymbopleura incerta	CYMINCE
	Cymbopleura angustata	<2%
	Cymbopleura lapponica	<2%
Nitzschia spp.	Nitzschia fonticola	NITFONT
	Nitzschia palea	NITPAL
	Nitzschia alpina	<2%
	Nitzschia angustata	<2%
	Nitzschia intermedia	<2%
	Nitzschia recta	<2%
	Nitzschia vermicularis	<2%
Large benthic spp.	Neidium ampliatum	NEIAMPL
	Stauroneis phoenicenteron	STAPHOE
	Stauroneis javanica	<2%
Planktonic Fragilaria spp.	Fragilaria tenera	FRATENE
	Fragilaria nanana	<2%
	Fragilaria ulna	<2%
	-	
Centric planktonic spp.	Discostella pseudostelligera	CYCPSEU

	Lindavia bodanica	<2%
Dominant wetland spp.	Dominant wetland spp. Gomphonema acuminatum	
	Gomphonema angustatum	<2%
	Gomphonema gracile	<2%
	Gomphonema parvalum	<2%
	Gomphonema subtile	<2%
	Gomphonema truncatum	<2%
	Kobayasiella subtilissima	KOBSUBT
	Tabellaria spp	TABFLOC
	Eunotia spp. (grouped for RDA)	EUNSPP
	Eunotia bilunaris	<2%
	Eunotia circumborealis	<2%
	Eunotia formica	<2%
	Eunotia incisa	<2%
	Eunotia praerupta	<2%
	Gogorevia exilis	ACHEXIG
	Achnanthidium minutissimum	ACHMINU
	Amphora spp. (grouped for RDA)	AMPSPP
	Amphora pediculus	<2%
	Amphora thumensis	<2%
	Chamaepinnularia mediocris	CHAMEDI
	Cocconeis placentula	COCPLAC
	Delicata delicatula	DELDELI
	Denticula kuetzingii	DENKUET
	Diploneis oblongella	DIPOBLO
	Fragilaria capucina	FRACAPU
	Kobayasiella jaagii	KOBJAAG
	Microcostatus kuelbsii	MICKUEL
	Navicula leptostriata	NAVLEPT
	Navicula rhynchocephala	NAVRHYN
	Navicula vulpina	NAVVULP
	Nupela vitiosa	NUPVITI
	Sellaphora laevissima	SELLAEV
	Sellaphora pupula	SELPUPU
	Sellaphora vitabunda	SELVITA