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3 **Factors behind the variability of phosphorus accumulation in Finnish lakes**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 *Purpose.* Phosphorus retention (TP_{acc}) is one of the major water quality regulators in lakes. The current study
20 aimed at ascertaining the specific lake characteristics regulating TP_{acc} . Moreover, we were interested whether NAO
21 (North Atlantic Oscillation), a proxy of climatic forcing, can explain variability in TP_{acc} , additionally to that
22 ascribed to lake characteristics.

23 *Materials and methods.* Sediment cores were obtained from 21 Finnish lakes, subject to radiometric dating and
24 measurements of TP concentrations. Principal components (PCs) were generated using lake characteristics that
25 are usually included into the modelling of TP_{acc} (e.g., lake area, lake depth, catchment area, P inflow), but also the
26 parameters that the classical models usually missed (e.g., anoxic factor). We used significant principal components
27 (PCs), specific combinations of lake characteristics and monthly NAO values as predictors of TP_{acc} .

28 *Results and discussion.* Lake characteristics explained the bulk of TP_{acc} variability. The most influential factors
29 (positive drivers) behind TP_{acc} included PC1 (representing mainly deep lakes), PC2 (small lakes with high levels
30 of anoxia and water column stability), PC3 (productive lakes, with large catchment area and short water residence
31 time), PC4 (lakes with high water column stability, low anoxic factor, and relatively high sediment focusing), and
32 PC5 (lakes with high levels of P inflow, anoxia and long water residence time). Additionally, we found a potential
33 negative effect of NAO in October on the annual TP_{acc} . This NAO was significantly positively related to
34 temperatures in surface and near-bottom water layer (also their difference) in autumn, suggesting the possible
35 implications for the internal P dynamics. Increased mineralization of organic matter is the most likely explanation
36 for the reduced TP_{acc} associated with NAO driven water temperature increase.

37 *Conclusions.* The analysis presented here contributes to the knowledge of the factors controlling P retention.
38 Moreover, this spatially and temporally comprehensive sediment data can potentially be a valuable source for
39 modelling climate change implications.

40

41 **Keywords** Lake characteristics • Lakes • NAO • Phosphorus accumulation rate • Phosphorus retention

42

43 1 Introduction

44 Being one of the major regulators of the productivity in waterbodies, the phosphorus (P) retention has been in the
45 focus of aquatic ecosystem modelling for about half of a century. In the mass balance models, the P retention is
46 often determined as the difference between the inflowing and outflowing P. As an alternative that enables to
47 eliminate the need for extensive monitoring programmes, the net P retention can be estimated by multiplying the
48 net sediment accumulation rate with its P content (TP_{acc} ; Dillon and Evans 1993; Boers et al. 1998). There have
49 been many attempts to predict P retention from a number of characteristics (e.g., Dillon and Kirchner 1975; Larsen
50 and Mercier 1976; Vollenweider 1975), whereby the most common predictors of the P retention include
51 phosphorus and hydraulic loading rate, TP particle settling velocity and mean depth. Nevertheless, the large
52 prediction errors were found to be associated with those models, as these do not account for P release (Nürnberg,
53 1984). Sediments can serve as an important source of P in the years following reduction of external loading until
54 the legacy P pool is reduced or buried in the deeper sediments (Sas 1990; Jeppesen et al. 2005; Søndergaard et al.
55 2013). Moreover, Benjamin and Brett (2008) demonstrated that the prevailing approach of conceptualization of
56 the P retention overestimates the impact of the parameters usually used. The authors found that the best mass
57 balance model tested could explain 84% of the variability in log-transformed lake TP concentrations, while it
58 explained only 35% of the variability in TP retention and resulted in a large prediction error for individual lakes.
59 The complex coupling of sediment composition, external load, catchment hydrology, lake morphometry, and
60 biogeochemical reactions has been recognized to control P retention (Hupfer and Lewandowski 2008; Søndergaard
61 et al. 2013; Huser et al. 2016). Hence, there is still a need for a P retention model that could better account for the
62 lake specifics.

63 Climate change can affect P retention via variations in air temperature and precipitation that both influence
64 P transport to the lakes (Jeppesen et al. 2009; Pettersson et al. 2010). Additionally, changes in temperature and
65 wind have considerable implications for the vertical transport of P in lakes (Spears and Jones 2010; Tammeorg et
66 al. 2013; Tammeorg et al. 2016, Woolway et al. 2017). Generally, climate change is associated with increased net
67 P accumulation in lakes due to enhanced external nutrient loading leading also to increased internal P loading
68 (Jeppesen et al. 2011). The North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) index has performed as a good indicator of climatic
69 forcing in European lakes. NAO index has shown to have a positive correlation with e.g. water temperatures, some
70 lake water chemistry variables (Blenckner et al. 2007), wind speed (Vermaat et al. 2008), particularly in winter
71 and spring, and wave-mixed depths (Spears and Jones 2010). Nevertheless, there is still a lack of knowledge on
72 the relationship of NAO with P retention. As sediment records can reflect climatic variability (Bennion et al. 2006;

73 Rose et al. 2010; Sánchez-López et al. 2016) connecting TP_{acc} to climatic variation via NAO could be a useful tool
74 to target that knowledge gap.

75 In the current study, we aimed at ascertaining the specific combinations of lake characteristics, principal
76 components (PCs) that determine TP_{acc} , using data obtained from dated sediment cores collected from 21 Finnish
77 lakes. Principal components (PCs) were generated using lake characteristics that are usually included into the
78 modelling of TP retention (e.g., area and depth of lakes, size of catchment area and P inflow), but also the
79 parameters missed by the classical models (e.g., anoxic factor, Osgood's index). Additionally, we coupled this
80 information and the data on NAO for the time period covered by the sediment cores to elucidate the potential role
81 of climatic variability in TP_{acc} . As climate change is primarily associated with changes in air temperature, which
82 are closely coupled to water temperature, we were particularly interested whether potential NAO effects on TP_{acc}
83 can be attributed to the temperature changes.

84

85 2 Methods

86 2.1 Study area

87 The 21 lakes of the study were all located in southern Finland, with their areas ranging from 0.25 to 155 km². The
88 mean depth of the lakes varied from 1.3 to 21.0 m (Table 1), and the maximum depth from 3 to 68 m. Most of the
89 lakes had deep areas, which undergo periodic anoxia, generally in winter and during thermal stratification in
90 summer. The values of the anoxic factor (i.e., the product of the duration of anoxia and the percentage of the
91 anaerobic areas) varied from 0 for the nonstratifying lakes (Nürnberg 1984) to 50 d y⁻¹ (Tammearg et al. 2017).
92 The monitoring data (Finnish Environment Institute) indicated the trophic status ranging from mesotrophic to
93 hypertrophic (Table 1). Mean phosphorus inflow, TP_{in} varied from 104 mg m⁻² y⁻¹ in mesotrophic lakes to 910 mg
94 m⁻² y⁻¹ in (hyper)eutrophic lakes (Tammearg et al. 2017). The catchments of the eutrophic and hypertrophic lakes
95 have mainly been impacted by agricultural activities (Ekholm and Mitikka 2006). All studied lakes were subject
96 to a variety of restoration methods (including wastewater diversion, biomanipulation, artificial aeration) during
97 past 30 years (Table 1).

98

99 **2.2 TP accumulation from dated sediment cores**

100 TP accumulation rate (TP_{acc} , $mg\ m^{-2}\ y^{-1}$) was calculated by multiplying the concentration of TP in the sediment
101 layer by the sedimentation rate. For that, sediment cores were collected with HTH gravity corer from the deepest
102 site of the lakes (the Kajaanselkä basin of Lake Vesijärvi was sampled at a site close to the maximally deep due to
103 technical reasons) targeting the accumulation areas (Håkanson and Jansson 1983) in March 2013 and 2014, when
104 the lakes were ice-covered. Sampling at locations that were predominantly stratified and anoxic during summer
105 ensured also minimal core disturbances due to wind activity (sediment resuspension), and bioturbation. Low water
106 temperatures during sampling lowered the risk of temperature-dependent transformations (e.g. P release) at the
107 sediment-water interface. Moreover, as it was identified by visual inspection, sediment surface was oxidized
108 inhibiting the release of P in the lakes studied. Dissolved oxygen concentration in the near-bottom water layer was
109 mainly above $7.0\ mg\ l^{-1}$. Each of the cores was sectioned into 0.5 cm slices to a depth of 20 cm to cover the period
110 for which also TP concentrations in the surface water layer and water temperature data were available, i.e. most
111 recent three decades (1986-2014). All sediment samples (40 samples per lake) were freeze-dried and ground. The
112 TP concentrations from the sediment subsamples were further determined using the methods by Koroleff (1979;
113 Lachat autoanalyzer, QuickChem Series 8000; Lachat instruments, Loveland, USA) after wet digestion with
114 sulphuric acid and hydrogen peroxide (Milestone Ethos 1600 microwave oven; Milestone, Sorisole, Italy).

115 Sedimentation rates were determined by dating cores (40 layers per core) by ^{210}Pb and ^{137}Cs . The analysis was
116 performed at the Liverpool University Environmental Radioactivity Laboratory. Sub-samples from each core were
117 analysed for ^{210}Pb , ^{226}Ra , and ^{137}Cs by direct gamma assay using Ortec HPGe GWL series well-type coaxial low
118 background intrinsic germanium detectors (Appleby et al. 1986). ^{210}Pb was determined via its gamma emissions
119 at 46.5 keV, and ^{226}Ra by the 295 keV and 352 keV γ -rays emitted by its daughter radionuclide ^{214}Pb following 3
120 weeks storage in sealed containers to allow radioactive equilibration. ^{137}Cs was measured by its emissions at 662
121 keV. The absolute efficiencies of the detectors were determined using calibrated sources and sediment samples of
122 known activity. Corrections were made for the effect of self-absorption of low energy γ -rays within the sample
123 (Appleby et al. 1992). ^{210}Pb dates were calculated mainly using CRS model (Appleby and Oldfield 1978). Since
124 in many cases the ^{210}Pb record spanned no more than around three decades, the calculation of reliable dates
125 demanded the use of well-defined ^{137}Cs dates as reference points. The method is described in detail by Appleby
126 (2001).

127 To quantify the possible impact of sediment focusing at the sampling area, a well-recognized issue (e.g., Eisenreich
128 et al. 1989; Blais and Kalff 1993; Rowan et al. 1995; Lamborg et al. 2002; Heathcote and Downing 2014), focusing
129 factors (FFs), calculated as the ratio of the measured mean ^{210}Pb supply rate (flux) at the core site to the
130 atmospheric flux, were determined for each site. The atmospheric flux (based on fallout data from a number of
131 European sites and records in 36 Finnish cores held in the Liverpool University ERRC base) was estimated to be
132 $100 \pm 20 \text{ Bq m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$. Although causes of high ^{210}Pb supply rates at specific sites can also include allochthonous
133 inputs of fallout ^{210}Pb from the catchment (Appleby 2001), this was not thought to be a significant issue in our
134 study, since our cores were collected from sites far from inlet streams at the deepest points of the lake.

135 Data on water temperature and surface water TP concentrations covering two-three most recent decades in the
136 lakes studied were obtained from Herta database (Finnish Env. Inst.). Besides air temperature, water temperatures
137 can be affected by wind; thus, we analyzed also wind data. However, the more direct effects of the wind activity
138 (through enhanced sediment resuspension at shallow areas and increased horizontal transport of these sediments
139 to lake deeps, focusing) cannot be ignored. Data on wind speed for the Helsinki-Vantaa airport (8 measurements
140 per day) were obtained from the Finnish Meteorological Institute. Daily NAO values were obtained from:
141 <http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/products/precip/CWlink/pna/nao.shtml>. Studied (hydro)meteorological variables
142 were averaged over the months from January to December for the years 1970–2014. Data on TP concentration in
143 the lake water of the surface layer was used to reflect the trophic state history of the lakes.

144

145 **2.3 Statistical methods**

146 Raw NAO, water temperature, and wind speed data statistics are shown with boxplot diagrams. The trends in rates
147 of sediment accumulation, TP concentrations in the sediments and TP_{acc} , and TP concentration in the surface water
148 layer over the years 1986–2014 for the studied lakes were tested with linear regression analysis.

149 To ascertain lake characteristics responsible for the TP_{acc} , the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was
150 carried out. Principal components (PCs) were obtained as weighted linear combinations of the original variables.
151 Original variables included those lake characteristics that were demonstrated to be of paramount importance for
152 controlling lake phosphorus dynamics, i.e. maximum depth (D_{max}), mean depth (D), ratio of D_{max} to D (to represent
153 the potential importance of lateral sediment flux, i.e. sediment focusing), lake area (LA), catchment area (CA),
154 ratio of the CA to LA (used as a proxy of water residence time), inflow of P (TP_{in}), anoxic factor (AF, to represent
155 sediment P release due to anoxia), Osgood's index, or $D \times \text{LA}^{-0.5}$ (OI, to represent water column stability). D_{max}/D

156 correlated well with the focusing factor ($r = 0.600$, $p = 0.005$, based on the data of 20 sites, in which cores were
157 sampled at the deepest lake location), supporting the use of the parameter to characterize sediment focusing in the
158 lakes. Each characteristic was statistically standardised to have a zero mean and unit standard deviation in the set
159 of all lakes. This approach generates principal components (PCs) as new complex (synthetic) uncorrelated factors
160 that integrate individual characteristics. This approach is justified by the coexistence of different factors (lake
161 characteristics) that correlate with each other. For example, significant positive correlation was found between the
162 AF and D_{\max} ($r = 0.541$, $p = 0.006$), TP_{in} and CA/LA ($r = 0.612$, $p = 0.002$), OI and AF ($r = 0.509$, $p = 0.011$).
163 The effects of the PCs on the TP_{acc} were estimated by using the general multiparametrical linear model (SAS GLM
164 procedure, type III). Initially, all nine PCs were used together as predictors of the TP_{acc} to ascertain *significant*
165 *PCs*. After that, significant PCs were used singly as the predictors of the TP_{acc} . The significance was adjusted with
166 the Bonferroni's correction. The approach of using PCs as independent variables has proven to be an effective tool
167 in predicting internal P loading and water quality variables (Tammeorg et al. 2017). **Noteworthy, the effect**
168 **(significant or not) of a PC on TP accumulation does not depend on the proportion of the lake variance that the**
169 **specific PC describes.**

170 The correlations between NAO and lake water temperature in the surface and near-bottom water layer, their
171 difference, and wind speed were presented with Pearson correlation coefficient. False discovery rate was applied
172 to multiple testing ($Q=0.25$ was set as the proportion of the rejected null hypotheses which are erroneously rejected;
173 Benjamini and Hochberg 1995). General multiparametrical linear model was used also to elucidate the effect of
174 NAO and water temperature difference between the surface and near-bottom water layer on TP retention that
175 remained after separating the lake specific effects encompassed under the significant PCs. The TP_{acc} values were
176 log-transformed to make data distribution close to normal. Statistical analyses were done with SAS (version 9.2,
177 SAS Institute Inc.).

178

179 **3 Results**

180 **3.1. Variability across sediment cores, and lake water TP concentrations during two-three** 181 **decades**

182 The majority of the study lakes had well-defined peaks in the ^{137}Cs activity versus depth records that were
183 confidently attributed to the fallout from the 1986 Chernobyl accident. The good resolution of the Chernobyl peaks
184 suggests that sediment mixing has not been significant and that the ^{210}Pb and ^{137}Cs fallout records stored in the

185 sediments of these lakes, and the sediment accumulation rates (SARs) determined from those records (Tables S1
186 – S21), are reasonably reliable. Focusing factors (FFs) were less than two at twelve sites, greater than three at three
187 sites, while intermediate values were found for the remaining six locations (Table 1). The mean FF for all 21 cores
188 studied was about two. Six cores had long-term records spanning periods of time ranging from around 60 years
189 (Kajaanselkä, Äimäjärvi) to more than 120 years (Hormajärvi, Punelia, Puujärvi). The remaining 15 had much
190 shorter records, ranging from 46 years (Tuusulanjärvi) to as few as 19 years (Enonselkä). Mean post-1986
191 sedimentation rates varied widely from $0.021 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Lake Punelia) to $0.36 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Villikkalanjärvi), being
192 generally higher in the lakes of higher trophy ($R^2 = 0.56, p < 0.0001$; Fig. 1). At twelve sites, the SAR was relatively
193 constant over the last 30 years. Mean SARs at these sites varied by more than an order of magnitude, from 0.021
194 $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Punelia) to $0.30 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Tiiläänjärvi). Since 1986, there were mainly systematic increases in the
195 SAR at eight sites, and decrease in one site (Pusulanjärvi).

196 In the lakes studied, the mean post-1986 sediment TP concentrations (TP_{sed}) varied from 1.1 mg g^{-1}
197 (Villikkalanjärvi) to 6.0 mg g^{-1} (Rehtijärvi). TP_{sed} increased significantly ($p < 0.01$) towards the surface of the core
198 (the most recent years) in nine of the lakes studied that were mainly eutrophic (Table 2). There were increases in
199 TP_{sed} in the lakes with increased SARs (Kynäröjärvi, Loppijärvi, Tuusulanjärvi), with constant SARs
200 (Bodominjärvi, Punelia, Puujärvi, Sahajärvi, Karhujärvi), and in Pusulanjärvi that displayed a decrease in SAR. In
201 Rehtijärvi ($R^2 = 0.380, p < 0.0001$), TP_{sed} decreased over the time period of 30 years. In overall, trends in SAR
202 and TP_{sed} coincided at nine sites. Finally, TP_{acc} increased significantly ($p < 0.01$) in 13 of the lakes (Table 2),
203 decreased ($p < 0.05$) in one lake (Rehtijärvi), while showing no changes in the rest of the lakes (mean for the years
204 since 1986 varied from 340 in Punelia to $6038 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ in Pusulanjärvi; Fig. 2). At seven sites, trends observed
205 in TP_{acc} coincided with those of the lake water TP concentration (TP), showing no change (Enäjärvi, Pusulanjärvi,
206 and Pyhäjärvi(O)), and increases (Karhujärvi, Villikkalanjärvi, Loppijärvi, and Hormajärvi). At the rest six sites
207 with increased TP_{acc} , TP either decreased (Kajaanselkä, basin of Lake Vesijärvi, Puujärvi, Tuusulanjärvi) or
208 showed no changes (Bodominjärvi, Punelia, Sahajärvi) over the 30-year period.

209

210 **3.2 Factors behind the variability in TP accumulation**

211 **3.2.1 Lake specifics**

212 The first six and PC8 were found to have significant effect on the TP_{acc} , describing together 60% of the variability
213 of TP_{acc} ($p < 0.0001$). Significant PCs represented about 98% of lake data variability in total (Table 3), whereby

214 the most of the lakes studied belonged to the types that were characterised by PC1 (39%), PC2 (27%), and PC3
215 (18%). The effect of PC1 – PC5 on TP_{acc} remained still significant, when these were used as predictors in the
216 simple linear model (Table 4). The PC1 was mainly representative of the deep lakes (Table 3). In PC2, the highest
217 loadings were by OI (0.516), LA (-0.458), and AF (0.420). By importance for PC3, CA (0.627) was followed by
218 TP_{in} (0.504) and CA/LA (0.479). The OI (0.654), AF (-0.569), and D_{max}/D (0.402) were the major constituents of
219 the PC4. The major contributing lake characteristics to PC5 included TP_{in} (0.620), followed by CA/LA (-0.363)
220 and AF (0.357). In PC6, the highest loadings were by LA (0.612) and D_{max}/D (-0.570). The PC8 was primarily
221 determined by CA (-0.607), CA/LA (0.564), and LA (0.516). PC6 and PC8 were not significant drivers of TP_{acc}
222 ($R^2 = 0.025$, $p = 0.070$; $R^2 = 0.011$, $p = 0.679$). In general, TP_{acc} increased gradually with an increase in the values
223 of the PC1 – PC 5 (Table 4; Fig. 3).

224

225 3.2.2 Climatic factors

226 During the years represented in sediment cores, long-term monthly NAO values varied from -1.024 to 1.092 on
227 average (mean values close to zero), whereby somewhat lower values were observed in October (Fig. 4a). Daily
228 mean wind speed was particularly variable during the winter months. Generally, the values decreased towards
229 August, and increased since then (Fig. 4b). The water temperature difference between the surface and bottom
230 layers increased towards July (Fig. 4c), when the highest temperatures reached 20.2 and 13.8 °C in surface water
231 layer and near-bottom water layer, respectively. The temperatures decreased during the following months. As a
232 result, temperature difference between the surface and the near bottom water layer was close to zero in September,
233 October and November (mean values for the corresponding months were 1.2, 0.5 and -0.2 °C).

234 Monthly NAO correlated significantly with water temperature in the surface and near bottom layer, their
235 difference, and wind speed throughout the year (Table 5). There were many, mainly positive significant
236 correlations of the studied (hydro)meteorological variables with winter-spring NAO and considerably less, mainly
237 negative correlations with the NAO in summer months. Further, a number of (mainly positive) correlations with
238 the NAO increased again in the autumn months. Indeed, reported correlations had the highest significance level
239 mainly in winter-spring, though correlations in winter were as high as in autumn.

240 Mean NAO value in October showed a potentially significant effect on the TP_{acc}, additional to those
241 ascribed to the significant PCs, increasing predictive ability of the model ($R^2 = 0.613$, $p < 0.0001$). An increase in
242 NAO index in October by one unit decreased TP_{acc} 1.2 times (19%; Fig. 5). Moreover, the mean NAO index in

243 October correlated significantly positively with the mean surface and bottom water temperatures and their
244 difference in November ($r = 0.300, p < 0.01$; $r = 0.296, p < 0.01$; $r = 0.281, p < 0.01$, respectively; Table 4). The
245 positive effect of the NAO in October on the temperature difference between surface and bottom water layer in
246 November still remained significant (Fig. 5; $p < 0.01$) when the effects associated with the lake specifics were
247 accounted for. At the same time, no significant correlations were found between NAO in October and average
248 wind speed. Average temperature difference in November was $-0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Fig.4b), being lower in the surface layer
249 than in the near bottom water layer.

250

251 **4 Discussion**

252 **4.1 Variations in TP accumulation and its importance**

253

254 Our results confirm the high importance of the lake trophic state in regulating rates of net sedimentation, one of
255 the determinants of the P accumulation, reported earlier (e.g., Trolle et al. 2009), as these were considerably higher
256 for eutrophic than for mesotrophic lakes. Thus, in case there are no external loading data with sufficient resolution
257 available for a particular lake, changes in net sedimentation rate could shed light on its trophic state history. Our
258 data showed that in most lakes both the sedimentation rates and water TP concentrations either increased or
259 remained constant on the long-term scale, while a decrease in sediment accumulation rate was very rare among
260 the studied lakes. These observations agree with the water quality monitoring data for twenty years in multiple
261 agricultural Finnish lakes showing no improvement in the lake water quality (based on the chlorophyll a
262 concentrations; Ekholm and Mitikka 2006).

263 Changes in trophic state during recent years can possibly explain an increase in sediment TP concentrations
264 in the lakes that displayed also an increase in net sedimentation rate over the recent 30 years (e.g., Loppijärvi,
265 Kynäröjärvi). An increase in TP concentrations over the 30-year period (higher concentrations in the topmost
266 sediments) in lakes with constant sedimentation rates (Bodominjärvi, Sahajärvi, Karhujärvi) is most likely due to
267 diagenetic processes (Carignan and Flett 1981; Trolle et al. 2011). In general, we observed such patterns of
268 sediment TP concentrations mainly in eutrophic lakes. Similarly, elevated concentrations in the surficial sediments
269 representing a large pool of recyclable P were associated with lake eutrophic conditions shown by earlier studies
270 (Carey and Rydin 2011). Moreover, it was not a surprise to observe such a phenomenon in mesotrophic lakes
271 (Punelia and Puujärvi), as the sediments in these lakes can have limited P binding capacity (Carey and Rydin 2011;

272 Dittrich et al. 2013). Although an opposite vertical distribution of TP concentrations with higher levels in deeper
273 sediments would be expected for oligotrophic lakes (due to Al availability; Carey and Rydin 2011), we found such
274 TP distribution in one highly eutrophic lake (Rehtijärvi). It can be due to a combined effect of post-depositional
275 migration and release of P into water column during periods of anoxia, similarly to what was concluded by Dillon
276 and Evans (1993). This agrees with an increase of the lake water TP concentration in this lake on the long-term
277 scale.

278 Increases in P could, indeed, result from sediment focusing. This could be of particular concern in cases of
279 Pyhäjärvi (S), Ormajärvi, and the Enonselkä basin of Lake Vesijärvi that had FFs greater than three. However,
280 none of those cores displayed an increase in TP_{acc} . Moreover, the mean FF for the study area indicates a rather
281 modest level of bias associated with sediment focusing (Heathcote and Downing 2014). Moreover, the TP_{acc} found
282 in our lakes of mesotrophic and higher trophic state were within the range of the values reported for other lakes of
283 the northern temperate zone (summarized in Tammeorg et al. (2017)), being considerably higher than the values
284 reported for oligotrophic lakes (Dillon and Evans 1993). This increase in TP_{acc} across the trophic gradient provides
285 a support for the accuracy of our estimates. Therefore, the variations in TP_{acc} can be explained to considerable
286 extent by differences in lake trophy, which is closely coupled to lake morphology (Søndergaard et al. 2003; Hupfer
287 and Lewandowski 2008).

288 The changes in lake water TP concentration similar to those in TP_{acc} were expected, confirming the high
289 importance of sediments in P budget of lakes (Hupfer and Lewandowski 2008; Søndergaard et al. 2013). There
290 were some lakes in which increased TP_{acc} appeared to sustain or augment eutrophication (e.g., Villikkalanjärvi,
291 Loppijärvi, Karhujärvi). Unchanged lake TP concentration in lakes that showed an increase in TP_{acc} can be also
292 due to possible time lags, a well-known phenomenon (Jeppesen et al. 2005). Moreover, restoration efforts could
293 also have a role. In Tuusulanjärvi, in which increased TP_{acc} co-occurred with decreased lake water TP
294 concentration, food web management applied since 1998 has compensated for the amplified P-cycling, revealed
295 by the decreasing chlorophyll:total P ratio (Horppila et al. 2017).

296

297 **4.2 Morphometric factors behind variations in TP accumulation**

298 From the multiple external and internal factors controlling TP accumulation on the long-term scale, our model did
299 not consider those that are related to sediment composition. Nevertheless, the simple model based on lake
300 parameters that are usually available could explain a bulk of the variability in TP_{acc} . Similarly, there are numerous
301 studies that have shown the association of P retention with morphometric/ hydraulic characteristics of lakes (e.g.,

302 Vollenweider 1975; Nürnberg 1984; Dillon and Molot 1996; Brett and Benjamin 2008; Kõiv et al. 2011).
303 Generally, TP_{in} and hydraulic retention time are of key role in regulating TP retention in the classical models. Our
304 model takes into account the additional characteristics that classical models lack, i.e. the anoxic factor reflecting
305 P release and the Osgood's index characterising water column stability (Nürnberg 1984; Nürnberg 2009).
306 Moreover, while P retention is conventionally calculated as a coefficient from mass balance equation (Brett and
307 Benjamin 2008), we connected observed P accumulation rates with lake specific features. Interestingly, despite
308 being quite different, our model gave nearly identical results (similar R^2) to classical ones. Similarly, Benjamin
309 and Brett (2008) concluded that various multiple regression models yield very similar fits to those of Vollenweider
310 type analyses because the terms typically considered in share many variables. While this makes the use of more
311 simple models more preferable, we claim the approach used here to better take into account lake specifics via the
312 use of PCs as independent factors. The relevance of the approach is supported, for example, by the finding of Kõiv
313 et al. (2011) who showed that the retention is much more strongly determined by external P loading and
314 hydrological residence time in large lakes than in smaller lakes.

315 Although the PCs represent a combination of different lake characteristics, they are somewhat
316 predetermined by the values of some particular drivers (main contributors). Lake depth (D , D_{max}), the main
317 contributor to the PC1, has been generally acknowledged as a factor that favours P accumulation (Håkanson and
318 Jansson 1983), which agrees with the positive effect of PC1 on TP_{acc} in our study. However, the largest proportion
319 of TP_{acc} variability was ascribed to changes in PC2, PC3, and PC5. The P accumulation appeared to be high in
320 small lakes, with high water column stability, and high anoxic factor. The sediment P pool is often small in large
321 lakes because resuspension leads to washout of particulate TP and organic net sedimentation is low, the latter due
322 to high mineralization (Jeppesen et al. 2007). In small lakes, conditions are more favourable for stable
323 stratification, and the relative importance of anaerobic areas is high. Both PC3 and PC5 characterize productive
324 lakes, as TP_{in} is one of the major constituents of those components. In general, high TP_{in} results in the increased
325 deposition of newly-produced P-rich material (Marsden 1989; Carey and Rydin 2011). The productivity is
326 associated with large CA and high CA/LA values in the PC3, while with low CA/LA and relatively high AF in the
327 PC5, suggesting differences in the relative importance of internal and external P loading in lakes. Lower CA/LA
328 values are indicative of longer residence times and higher percentage of P load from internal sources with strong
329 implications of the sediment P sources for productivity and water quality (Huser et al. 2016). High levels of
330 external loading often result in oxygen deficits that sustain the recycling of P to the water column (Gächter and
331 Wehrli 1998; Moosman et al. 2006) through the breakdown of the iron-phosphorus complexes (Einsele 1936;

332 Mortimer 1941, 1942). On the other hand, PC3 is likely to represent the lakes with productivity determined by
333 external P sources. Allochthonous, mineral-bound particulate matter is more prone to settling, resulting in higher
334 loss of P in lakes with shorter residence time (Brett and Benjamin 2008). Finally, TP accumulation tended to be
335 high in lakes with high water column stability, but low anoxic factor, and relatively high D_{\max}/D characterizing
336 sediment focusing (PC4).

337

338 **4.3 Climatic variability as a potential factor behind temporal changes in TP accumulation**

339 One of the most interesting findings of the current study is that NAO in October influenced potentially the annual
340 TP_{acc} , explaining its variability in addition to the significant PCs. Previously, the most pronounced implications
341 for lake ecosystems were ascribed to the NAO values in winter-early spring (e.g., Bleckner et al. 2007; Pettersson
342 et al. 2010; Spears and Jones 2010). Similarly, we found numerous significant correlations of NAO with wind
343 speed and water temperatures at this period of time. While interpreting the results, it should be considered that
344 NAO affects simultaneously air temperature, precipitation, wind speed and direction, cloudiness etc., each of them
345 having potential feedbacks to lakes involving different lag periods. In the study region, the mechanisms behind
346 NAO effects on the lakes functioning are mostly related with hydrology and ice regime, as milder temperatures
347 cause more thaw days with increased runoff and shorter duration of ice cover (Nöges et al. 2010; Pettersson et al
348 2010). Moisture transported from North-Atlantic causes more precipitation that acts in the same direction
349 increasing the runoff (Hurrell and Van Loon 1997). Also in southern Finland, precipitation in winter was found to
350 strongly associate with NAO (Irannezhad et al. 2014). Increased runoff mostly increases nutrient loading, if
351 available in the catchment (Jeppesen et al. 2009; Trolle et al. 2011), entailing an increase in TP_{acc} . However, also
352 opposite effect can be expected by flushing with meltwater, which is very likely to occur in the studied lakes with
353 small area and depth. Nevertheless, our study revealed a potential importance of the autumnal NAO values for the
354 water temperatures between the surface and near-bottom water layer, and their difference suggesting therefore
355 possible mechanisms behind the changes in TP_{acc} .

356 The changes in the water temperature difference are most likely linked to NAO via air temperature. This
357 suggestion is supported by the significant positive correlation between NAO and air temperatures in autumn
358 reported for Finland (Irannezhad et al. 2015). Although there are no equivalent data reported for the wind, the
359 results obtained for the nearby areas suggest its relevance as a possible explanatory mechanism from the
360 perspective of both temperature difference and TP retention. Vermaat et al. (2008) showed that a positive NAO
361 leads to increased wind-induced turbulence, and hence to higher resuspension of particle-bound nutrients.

362 Similarly, Spears and Jones (2010) showed that positive NAO correlated with stronger, more westerly winds,
363 though correlations (including correlation between NAO and wave-mixed depth) were found only for winter and
364 spring. Nevertheless, our data for Finnish lakes did not reveal any significant correlations of autumnal NAO with
365 wind speed during September-November, suggesting the key role of air temperature in regulating autumnal water
366 temperatures and a difference in temperature, which are likely to be linked to TP_{acc} .

367 Climate warming is generally associated with prolonged stratification in lakes leading to prolonged periods
368 of anoxia, and release of P from sediments (Jeppesen et al. 2009). Similarly, Snorheim et al. (2017) found
369 significant positive correlations between air temperature and anoxic factor for the northern dimictic Lake Mendota,
370 additionally showing that the factor had the greatest potential impact for the stratification conditions (from the
371 other studied factors, as wind speed and humidity). However, our water temperature data showed that stratification
372 can be broken already since September, and water temperature difference in November (potentially linked to
373 decreased TP retention) is negligible. Moreover, the prolonged algal blooms, associated with higher temperatures,
374 are expected to result in higher supply of the organic matter and associated nutrients to the sediment during autumn
375 (Blenckner et al. 2007; Jeppesen et al. 2009; Trolle et al. 2011). Therefore, this scenario suggests an importance
376 of additional drivers to explain reduced TP_{acc} , e.g., flushing. Previously, a significant positive correlation was
377 found between NAO and DOC discharge from the River Oulujoki in autumn (Marttila et al. 2014). However, the
378 most likely mechanism seems to be associated with increased mineralization of the organic material in the
379 sediments due to increased temperatures, as concluded by Gudazc et al. (2010). Over the boreal zone, the increase
380 in organic carbon mineralization in sediments overlain by mixed water due to temperature increase (range of 1.8–
381 4 °C) was predicted to result in a decrease of organic carbon burial of 6–15% in lake sediments (Gudasz et al.
382 2010). Providing that the sediment P is closely related to organic carbon (Håkanson and Jansson 1983), this would
383 be the most likely explanation for the reduced TP sedimentation potentially associated with NAO driven water
384 temperature increase.

385

386 5 Conclusions

387 The lake characteristics explained bulk of the variability in TP accumulation (TP_{acc}). TP_{acc} tends to be high in the
388 lakes with following features: 1) mainly deep lakes; 2) small lakes with high levels of anoxia and water column
389 stability; 3) lakes with high levels of P inflow, large catchment area and high CA/LA; 4) lakes with high water
390 column stability, low anoxic factor, and relatively high sediment focusing; 5) lakes with high levels of P inflow,

391 anoxia and low CA/LA. Additionally to the effects attributed to lake specifics, we found a negative effect of NAO
392 in autumn on annual TP_{acc} in Finnish lakes. The temperatures in surface and bottom water layer and their difference
393 in autumn in the lakes studied were potentially related with NAO, suggesting the possible implications for P
394 dynamics. Hence the analysis presented here for an internally consistent dataset (sampled in the same way) seems
395 to better take account of lake specifics than previously. Moreover, this spatially and temporally comprehensive
396 sediment data can potentially be a valuable source for modelling climate change implications.

397

398 **Acknowledgments.** The research was supported by the Academy of Finland (grant nr. 263365), Maa- ja
399 vesitekniikan tuki ry (grant nr. 29159), and the City of Lahti. We thank Heidi Holmroos, Lauri Happo, Jani
400 Ruohola, and Raija Mastonen for their help in the field and in the lab. J. Weckström is acknowledged for useful
401 discussions.

402

403 **Funding:** This study was funded by the Academy of Finland (grant nr. 263365), Maa- ja vesitekniikan tuki ry
404 (grant nr. 29159), and the City of Lahti.

405

406 **Conflict of Interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

407

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- 547

Table 1. Basic lake characteristics, including lake trophic status (TI), mean and maximum depth (D, D_{max}), catchment area (CA), lake area (LA), anoxic factor (AF) values, mean phosphorus inflow (TP_{in}), age of the 20-cm sediment cores sampled in 2014, focusing factor (FF), and restoration activities of the study area. For the AF and TP_{in} mean values for the period 1986–2014 are presented.

Lake	Coordinates	TI	D (m)	D _{max} (m)	CA (km ²)	LA (km ²)	AF d y ⁻¹	TP _{in} (mg P m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	Age y	FF	Restoration measures applied
Äimäjärvi	61°03'N 24°10'E	eutr	2.9	9	93	8.5	22.1	228	65	0.7	Wastewater diversion in 1969, biomanipulation since 1997, sedimentation ponds established in 2004
Bodominjärvi	60°15'N 24°40'E	eutr	4.3	12.7	32	4.1	7.2	507	31	2.5	Chemical treatment, in 1980 oxygen-depleted water diversion, aeration from 1970s to 1998
Enäjärvi	60°20'N 24°22'E	eutr	3.2	9.1	34	4.9	1.8	323	89	0.8	Wastewater diversion in 1976, fish removal from 1993, aerated from 1998
Enonselkä	61°00'N 16°36'E	eutr	6.8	33	84	26	24.7	137	19	3.9	1976-1978 sewage diversion, aeration (since 2009), biomanipulation (1989-1993), sedimentation ponds and wetlands
Hormajärvi	60°17'N 24°01'E	meso	7.3	21	16	5.1	36.1	88	121	1.8	Aeration since 2008
Kajaanselkä	61°09'N 25°28'E	meso	6.8	42	138	44	1.2	124	64	1.9	-
Karhujärvi	60°14'N 24°17'E	eutr	2.2	4.9	142	1.9	0.0	253	25	1.9	Dredging of the shore areas in 1997, fish removal since 1996, measures to reduce macrophyte expansion (1992, 1993, 1994-1995)
Katumajärvi	60°59'N 24°31'E	meso	7.1	18.9	51	3.8	29.4	232	38	2.4	Sedimentation ponds established in 2004-2005, biomanipulation 2003-2005
Kyynäröjärvi	61°07'N 24°59'E	eutr	1.3	3	25	0.25	0.0	2263	42	0.6	-
Loppijärvi	60°41'N 24°25'E	eutr	1.8	6.7	82	11.8	0.0	93	34	1.4	Wastewater diversion in 1975, wetlands and sedimentation ponds, fish removal since 1990s
Ormajärvi	61°06'N 24°59'E	meso	9.6	29.4	86	6.6	48.6	128	31	3.3	-
Punelia	60°41'N 24°12'E	meso	3.8	14	102	6.8	12.7	23	126	2.4	-
Pusulanjärvi	60°27'N 23°59'E	eutr	4.9	10.6	226	2.1	49.7	1707	35	1.6	Wastewater load until 1988, intensive fishing, Aeration (first in 1989)
Puujärvi	60°15'N 23°43'E	meso	8.3	21.7	27	6.4	15.0	26	173	1.7	-
Pyhäjärvi (A)	60°43'N 26°00'E	eutr	21	68	459	12.9	32.9	814	34	2.3	-
Pyhäjärvi (S)	61°00'N 22°18'E	meso	5.5	26.2	461	155	4.5	106	27	4.5	Intensive commercial fishing (+ fish removal)
Rehtijärvi	60°51'N 23°29'E	eutr	9.2	30	3	0.4	47.3	628	29	1.0	Wetlands and sedimentation ponds in 1994-1998, biomanipulation
Sahajärvi	60°44'N 25°28'E	eutr	4.3	11	26	1.92	26.2	403	28	2.3	-
Tiiläänjärvi	60°32'N 25°42'E	eutr	4.4	10.3	38	2.1	26.9	1428	25	2.2	-
Tuusulanjärvi	60°25'N 25°04'E	hyper	3.2	10	92	5.9	26.5	960	46	1.1	Wastewater diversion since 1979, aeration since 1970, wetlands and biomanipulation since 1998
Villikkalanjärvi	60°47'N 26°02'E	hyper	3.2	10	413	7.1	18.5	2302	27	1.5	Fish removal

Table 2. Sediment accumulation rate (SAR), sediment phosphorus concentration (TP_{sed}), phosphorus accumulation rate (TP_{acc}), and TP concentration of the lake water (TP) in lakes studied for 1986–2014. Significant trends in SAR, TP_{sed}, TP_{acc}, and TP (increase “+”, decrease “-”) over the 30-year period are shown (T1, T2, T3, and T4, respectively), and “0” indicates no significant changes. Long-term data on water quality were not available for Lake Kyyjärvi (indicated as “na”).

Lake	SAR (g cm ⁻² y ⁻¹)	T 1	TP _{sed} (mg g ⁻¹)	T 2	TP _{acc} (mg P m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	T 3	TP (µg l ⁻¹)	T 4
Aimäjärvi	0.04	+	2.2	0	907	+	42	-
Bodominjärvi	0.16	0	1.5	+	2373	+	32	0
Enäjärvi	0.04	0	2.7	0	1074	0	98	0
Enonselkä	0.18	0	2.7	0	4910	0	34	-
Hormajärvi	0.03	+	5.3	0	1407	+	14	+
Kajaanselkä	0.08	+	1.6	0	1418	+	16	-
Karhujärvi	0.15	0	1.2	+	1827	+	72	+
Katumajärvi	0.06	+	4.6	0	2610	+	19	0
Kyyjärvi	0.16	+	1.6	+	2540	+	50	na
Loppijärvi	0.07	+	2.3	+	1699	+	30	+
Ormajärvi	0.06	0	3.6	0	2073	0	20	-
Punelia	0.02	0	1.8	+	340	+	14	0
Pusulanjärvi	0.19	-	3.2	+	6038	0	49	0
Puujärvi	0.02	0	2.2	+	508	+	12	-
Pyhäjärvi (A)	0.17	0	2.1	0	3502	0	44	0
Pyhäjärvi (S)	0.11	0	2.3	0	2488	0	17	+
Rehtijärvi	0.20	0	6.0	-	12044	-	56	+
Sahajärvi	0.17	0	1.7	+	2906	+	40	0
Tiiläänjärvi	0.30	0	1.5	0	4533	0	80	+
Tuusulanjärvi	0.11	+	1.7	+	1894	+	101	-
Villikkalanjärvi	0.36	+	1.1	-	4097	+	111	+

Table 3. Coefficients for calculating the first six (of eight) principal components (PCs) and corresponding eigenvalues of the correlation matrix calculated for 21 lakes with a full set of all eight contributing characteristics. The characteristics needed include: maximum depth (D_{max}), lake area (LA), catchment area (CA), mean depth (D), ratio of the CA to LA, inflow of P (TP_{in}), anoxic factor (AF, defined as the product of the duration of anoxia and the percentage of the anaerobic areas), Osgood's index, or $D \times LA^{-0.5}$ (OI).

Lake	PC 1	PC 2	PC 3	PC 4	PC 5	PC 6	PC 8
Characteristics							
D	0.441	0.265	0.201	-0.101	-0.334	-0.033	0.076
D_{max}	0.500	0.105	0.177	0.102	-0.174	-0.222	0.130
CA	0.072	-0.334	0.627	-0.097	-0.217	0.164	-0.607
LA	0.318	-0.458	0.113	0.033	0.176	0.613	0.516
AF	0.263	0.420	0.195	-0.569	0.357	-0.056	0.107
CA/LA	-0.374	0.032	0.479	0.177	-0.363	-0.265	0.554
OI	0.157	0.516	-0.002	0.653	-0.040	0.383	-0.150
TP_{in}	-0.270	0.195	0.504	0.163	0.620	0.042	-0.004
D_{max}/D	0.376	-0.339	0.015	0.402	0.367	-0.570	0.044
Eigenvalue	3.480	2.414	1.636	0.493	0.470	0.228	0.079
Proportion of variability	0.387	0.268	0.182	0.057	0.055	0.052	0.009
Cumulative proportion	0.387	0.655	0.837	0.892	0.944	0.969	0.978

Table 4. Most significant predictors of the phosphorus accumulation rate (log-transformed values) according to the linear model. The effects indicate the change of the phosphorus accumulation rate when significant principal component (PC) changes by one unit.

Significant predictors	Effect	R^2	p
PC 1	2.78 ± 0.82	0.044	0.006
PC 2	5.86 ± 0.75	0.197	< 0.0001
PC 3	4.88 ± 0.78	0.137	< 0.0001
PC 4	4.95 ± 0.76	0.046	0.004
PC 5	6.17 ± 0.85	0.141	< 0.0001

Table 5. Significant correlations (indicated by Pearson correlation coefficient) of monthly NAO values with monthly values for the (hydro)meteorological variables including water temperature in the surface layer, near bottom water layer and difference in these water temperatures.

Month		NAO_1	NAO_2	NAO_3	NAO_4	NAO_5	NAO_6	NAO_7	NAO_8	NAO_9	NAO_10	NAO_11	NAO_12
Jan	bot	0.210*											
	wind	0.601****											
Feb	bot	0.197*											
	wind		0.436*										
Mar	surf		0.271****										
	dif		0.142**	0.178***									
	wind			0.337*									
Apr	surf		0.216*	0.485****									
	bot			0.223*									
	dif		0.250*	0.403****									
May	bot		0.163**	0.152*									
	dif		-0.189**										
	wind	-0.347*											
Jun	surf					0.191*							
	dif					0.208**							
Jul	surf			-0.203***									
	bot						0.326*						
	dif			-0.144*									
Aug	surf				-0.227****								
Sep	surf			-0.190*									
	wind		-0.345*										
Oct	bot							-0.180**					
	dif							0.170**					
	wind				-0.310*			-0.427**					
Nov	surf								0.291**	0.300**			
	bot								0.264**	0.256**			
	dif								-0.218*	0.229**	0.281**		
	wind		-0.365*	-0.321*									
Dec	surf								-0.353*				
	bot			0.314*									
	dif			-0.413**				-0.434**					
	wind										0.325*	0.426**	

**** - the level of significance $p < 0.0001$; *** - $p < 0.001$; ** - $p < 0.01$; * - $p < 0.05$.

Figure Captions

Fig. 1 Variations of the sediment accumulation rate in mesotrophic (meso), eutrophic (eutr) and hypertrophic (hyper) lakes of southern Finland

Fig. 2. Phosphorus accumulation rate (TP_{acc}) in 21 Finnish lakes over 1986–2014.

Fig. 3. Dependence of the phosphorus accumulation rate (log-transformed values) on the specific combination of lake characteristics represented by PC5 that characterizes mainly productive lakes

Fig. 4. Monthly variations in NAO (a), daily mean wind speed (b), and water temperature differences between surface and near bottom layers of the lakes studied (c) during 1986–2014.

Fig. 5. Dependence of the annual phosphorus accumulation rate (TP_{acc} ; $\log(TP_{acc}) = 7.4 - 0.4 * \text{NAO in October}$), and water temperature difference between the surface and near bottom layer in November (temperature difference in November = $0.4 * \text{NAO in October} - 0.06$) on the NAO in October