

1 **Meromixis in the Anthropocene: pathways of change**

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33 Global warming is changing the thermal structure of lakes, creating longer and stronger  
34 periods of stratification, reducing winter cooling and shortening ice cover (Grant et al.  
35 2021). Globally, surface water temperatures in lakes have risen since 1970, but trends in  
36 bottom water temperatures are less predictable and less pronounced on average (Kraemer  
37 et al. 2015; Pilla et al. 2020). As a result, thermal stability in HOLOMICTIC lakes has increased  
38 over the last decades, driving an earlier onset of stratification, oxygen consumption in the  
39 HYPOLIMNION, and longer periods of seasonal anoxia. Both models (see e.g., Woolway and  
40 Merchant 2019) and regional data syntheses suggest that one outcome of these changes  
41 will be development of MEROMIXIS (i.e. permanent stratification, generally with an anoxic  
42 MONIMOLIMNION – see Box 1 for definitions). Equally, however, present meromictic lakes  
43 could be lost due to other global change processes: land-cover change and disruption of  
44 biogeochemical cycles are major drivers of lake change (Fig. 1).

45 The uncertainty about implications of loss or gain of meromictic systems hinges largely  
46 on the current lack of knowledge concerning these systems. As the number of meromictic  
47 lakes is not well constrained, it is impossible to estimate the extent of the potential loss.  
48 Woolway and Merchant (2019) predicted that <4% of their study lakes (n=635) would  
49 become meromictic, but importantly, they studied large lakes with an area >25 km<sup>2</sup>. It is  
50 probable that small, relatively deep lakes will tend to dominate meromixis in the future, but  
51 even here the number of lakes that become permanently stratified may be limited because  
52 of the range of factors determining the development pathway (Fig. 1). In a regional,  
53 empirical assessment, Hakala (2004) estimated that in southern Finland, an area with a  
54 number of well-studied FERRUGINOUS lakes, 'only one lake in 800 is truly meromictic'.

55 We suggest that ecosystem functions and services of meromictic lakes and their  
56 global importance are equally poorly understood, and so the quality of what would be lost  
57 can also not be estimated. Current knowledge suggests that meromictic lakes should be  
58 protected, since they are especially vulnerable to environmental change (Hakala 2004).  
59 Without protection, we might lose unique model systems such as Lake Cadagno or Lake  
60 Mahoney that have been monitored for decades along with their unique microbiomes. Here  
61 we argue that the availability of meromictic lakes is threatened by anthropogenic change,  
62 and that the pathways leading to or away from meromixis involve more complex drivers  
63 than a simple change of water temperature. We illustrate possible future directions of  
64 change in meromictic lakes in the Anthropocene and consider their implications for future

65 biogeochemical cycling. We focus on the fate of EUXINIC lakes and refer readers to Swanner  
66 et al. (2020) for a review of ferruginous systems.

67

### 68 **Meromixis in the Anthropocene**

69 Meromixis is a natural phenomenon that occurs on all continents and across a wide range of  
70 bioclimatic zones, ranging from tropical systems to isostatic rebound lakes (isolation basins)  
71 at both poles (Zadereev et al. 2017a). With the development of a permanent anoxic layer -  
72 the monimolimnion - there are profound changes in geochemical processes and formation  
73 of steep vertical biological and redox gradients (see below). However, a critical divide in the  
74 development pathways resulting in meromixis is that of water geochemistry: iron or sulfur  
75 dominance (Fig. 1), determining whether a lake becomes FERRUGINOUS or EUXINIC,  
76 respectively. This chemical composition in turn underpins the relative extent, rates and  
77 significance of associated biogeochemical processes and dynamics, and in some cases can  
78 be the predominant stabilizer of meromixis via density gradients. Furthermore, light  
79 penetration into the anoxic monimolimnion determines whether meromictic lakes, both  
80 ferruginous and euxinic, can become anoxygenic phototrophic systems (Fig. 1).

81 For many limnologists, meromixis is synonymous with stasis: long-term stratification  
82 with anoxia and its associated biogeochemical implications. The limited nature of  
83 monitoring data challenges this assumption: the key meromictic study sites have only been  
84 monitored for decades, and the loss of meromixis during routine monitoring has been  
85 observed. The question remains, how stable are meromictic lakes over time? Laminated  
86 lake sediment records and okenone (a carotenoid biomarker for purple sulfur bacteria [PSB]  
87 indicative of euxinic conditions) suggest that meromixis is temporally intermittent at many  
88 sites (e.g., (McGowan et al. 2008; Swanner et al. 2023) . However, neither laminated  
89 sediments nor the presence of okenone are uniquely indicative of meromixis. Moreover,  
90 shifts to enhanced stratification and meromixis under global-change processes will not be  
91 unidirectional (Fig. 1).

92 Climate forcing plays a major role in the development and maintenance of meromixis,  
93 but landscape setting (soils, geology, hydrology) and lake morphometry (size, fetch,  
94 hypsometry) can be critical for its development at local scales. Additionally, natural climate  
95 variability, and land-cover change (altered nutrient loads, primary production and  
96 hypolimnetic anoxia) impact development pathways (Fig. 1). Viewing meromixis simply as a

97 product of changing lake thermal budgets is an over-simplification, particularly given the  
98 range and scale of anthropogenic drivers affecting lakes in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Jenny et al.  
99 2016). Eutrophication can result in BIOGENIC MEROMIXIS, if lake morphometry and landscape  
100 setting are conducive to its formation (e.g., Culver 1977; Hakala 2004). Anthropogenic and  
101 climate-driven hydrological alterations to regional freshwater-gradients promote ECTOGENIC  
102 MEROMIXIS, e.g. land-cover change altering runoff coupled with climate-driven evaporation  
103 (Hammer 1994; Jeppesen et al. 2020). In some areas, road salting is increasing salinity,  
104 reducing turnover events and promoting the transition from HOLOMIXIS to MEROMIXIS (Dupuis  
105 et al. 2019). These changes can create the necessary vertical density gradients leading to  
106 establishment and subsequent reinforcement of permanent stratification (Jellison and  
107 Melack 1993). The combined effect of these drivers suggests that the transition of many  
108 dimictic lakes to meromixis in the near future is inevitable. Conversely, human activities can  
109 also destroy meromixis: hydropower impoundments can reduce upstream saline water  
110 connectivity and replenishment (Bowling and Tyler 1986), while land-cover changes (e.g.,  
111 clear-felling) that increase lake exposure and mean wind speeds, can work against vertical  
112 stratification gradients (Campbell and Torgersen 1980). As climate change is increasing air  
113 and lake-water temperatures, mean wind speeds are also rising, as well as the frequency of  
114 high energy storms, leading to an overall higher amount of energy in the earth system which  
115 reduces the stability of thermal stratification.

116

### 117 **Anoxia and biogeochemistry in euxinic systems**

118 EUXINIC meromictic lakes have been critical for understanding the processes associated with  
119 biogeochemical cycling in the early Earth system (Swanner et al. 2020). The dominant  
120 natural sulfur sources in groundwater and runoff stem from geologic weathering (and  
121 volcanic activity) but dry and wet S deposition has increased since the Industrial Revolution,  
122 and while regionally variable, can lead to increased deposition loadings. Inputs of sulfur also  
123 vary with agricultural use of S-containing fertilizers, an underestimated impact on lake  
124 chemistry in lowland landscapes (Zak et al. 2021). A further factor that can lead to elevated  
125 marine sulfate deposition is increasing storminess in coastal regions, which also notably  
126 impacts soil biogeochemistry (Monteith et al. 2023); associated reductions to DOC export  
127 have implications for the light and temperature climates of recipient lakes. In the following

128 sections we discuss the possible impacts of pathways of change of meromixis (positive and  
129 negative) on selected key biogeochemical processes.

130

### 131 Anoxygenic carbon fixation

132 In euxinic lakes where sufficient light reaches a hydrogen sulfide-rich monimolimnion,  
133 characteristic bacterial layers composed of anoxygenic phototrophic purple and green sulfur  
134 bacteria (PSB; GSB) occur (Overmann 2008). Inorganic carbon fixation by these  
135 microorganisms can be a significant term in the carbon balances of such lakes), while below  
136 the photic zone in anoxic waters and sediments, sulfate reducing bacteria (SRB) and  
137 methanogens compete for electron donors such as hydrogen and acetate (Lovley and Klug  
138 1986; Storelli et al. 2013; Block et al. 2021; Di Nezio et al. 2021). By intercepting nutrients,  
139 down-profile sulfurous bacterial plates represent barriers to their exploitation by  
140 mixolimnetic primary producers. However, although chemical gradients ( $O_2 / H_2S$ ) may  
141 prevent access by most mixolimnetic heterotrophs to productive strata, they can also serve  
142 as a food resource to secondary producers. Shifts or loss of permanent stratification could  
143 consequently alter or obliterate such trophic links. Similarly, isolation of the monimolimnion  
144 means that it operates, to some degree, as a closed-system, where losses of  $CO_2$  generated  
145 from OM degradation (albeit at low rates) are restricted, leading to lowered emissions and  
146 to accumulation, respectively (Fuchs et al. 2022). This stable stratification reduces nutrient  
147 transport across the chemocline, decreasing primary production rates, ultimately limiting  
148 the carbon sequestration potential of meromictic lakes, at the same time favouring carbon  
149 mineralization to methane (Tranvik et al. 2009). However, meromictic systems are highly  
150 sensitive to eutrophication - increased nutrient and DOC loading from the lake's catchment  
151 promotes primary production in the mixolimnion and associated light attenuation,  
152 effectively shading out PSB (Fig. 1).

153

154 Methanogenesis: In lakes with high organic loads, thermal stratification or incomplete  
155 turnover can promote anoxia and permissive redox conditions for  $CH_4$  production.

156 Methanogens, however, compete with sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) for fermentation  
157 products, particularly hydrogen ( $H_2$ ), formate ( $HCO_2^-$ ) and acetate ( $C_2H_3O_2^-$ ). Where sulfate  
158 concentrations are sufficiently high, such as in euxinic lakes and their sediments, sulfate

159 reduction is the dominant terminal electron-accepting process due to the higher energetic  
160 yield, and because SRB possess greater affinity for fermentation substrates by comparison  
161 with methanogens (Lovley and Klug 1986).

162 Although PSB are not directly involved in the methane cycle, their presence at the  
163 oxic-anoxic transition zone could contribute to the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> produced by  
164 methanotrophs. An interaction between oxygenic and anoxygenic phototrophs and aerobic  
165 methanotrophs could thus contribute to the oxidation of CH<sub>4</sub> in lake water, reducing its  
166 release to the atmosphere. As such, PSB could represent a very efficient methane filter by  
167 significantly reducing the upward flux beyond the chemocline (Milucka et al. 2015).  
168 Therefore, in the presence of PSB the predicted increase in meromixis may limit the release  
169 of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> from lakes by sequestering these dissolved gases in the anoxic  
170 monimolimnion.

171

172 Biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOC): BVOCs constitute a wide range of chemicals  
173 that can serve as signalling molecules and cellular protectants, provide energy and nutrients  
174 for microbes, and influence climate in various ways. Despite this, there is relatively limited  
175 information on lacustrine BVOCs concentrations and fluxes, and only occasionally is  
176 temporal and spatial variability considered. Most studies focus on one or a few of the  
177 hundreds of BVOCs, mostly on sulfurous BVOCs, whereas halogenated compounds,  
178 terpenoids, and oxygenated VOCs such as acetone, acetaldehyde and methanol, are studied  
179 much less commonly.

180 In euxinic lakes, the strong vertical gradients impact the BVOCs produced in the  
181 monimolimnion compared to those produced in the mixolimnion. In addition, salinity,  
182 temperature and even hydrostatic pressure differences can affect gas solubility. For  
183 example, fermenters and anaerobic respirers may provide distinct BVOCs to aerobes in the  
184 mixolimnion as by-products of their metabolism or as cellular protectants. The products of  
185 anaerobic metabolism can fuel communities in the chemocline and mixolimnion, which in  
186 turn may produce BVOCs that would be less abundant in deep holomictic lakes, creating a  
187 different volatile cocktail, some of which will escape from the lakes. This latter process is  
188 understood for methane and hydrogen sulfide, which feed a range of microbes, but less so  
189 for other volatile compounds.

190 Most research on BVOCs in meromictic lakes has focused on volatile organic sulfur  
191 compounds (VOSCs), which generally have a cooling effect on the atmosphere (Hopkins et  
192 al. 2023). Fritz and Bachofen (2000) measured VOSC concentration along the water column  
193 of meromictic Lake Cadagno, concluding that hydrogen sulfide, methanethiol, carbonyl  
194 sulfide, dimethyl sulfide, carbon disulfide, and dimethyl disulfide were biogenic, and that all  
195 except carbon disulfide (which also had the highest concentration) were restricted to the  
196 anoxic zone, with peaks in concentration at the chemocline. Thus, carbon disulfide, which  
197 can be microbially oxidized (Smith and Kelly 1988), may have an important and overlooked  
198 contribution to carbon and sulfur cycles, and indirectly to food webs in the mixolimnion,  
199 especially in and just above the chemocline. In the same way that anoxygenic phototrophs  
200 can use DMS as an electron donor and produce DMSO (Zeyer et al. 1987), it would be  
201 valuable to explore whether any can oxidize carbon disulfide.

202 The extent to which monimolimnia are excluded from gas exchange with the  
203 atmosphere is also uncertain (See discussion above on CH<sub>4</sub>; although ebullition can clearly  
204 bypass chemo-/thermoclines). While the degree to which VOSCs are consumed will depend  
205 on the lake's physical status, with both direct effects on their flux and indirect effects by  
206 shaping microbial assemblages. For example, it may depend on the proximity of the  
207 chemocline to the lake surface, and thus whether the chemocline receives sufficient light to  
208 enable growth of anoxygenic phototrophs (Fig. 1). Factors such as ebullition and possible  
209 future loss of meromixis will also affect the release of VOCs from the anoxic zone into the  
210 atmosphere.

211

212 Carbon transfer between zooplankton grazers and anoxygenic phototrophs: Most studies on  
213 the biology of euxinic lakes focus on PSB and GSB and their importance for ecosystem  
214 functioning. The trophic relationships between these anoxygenic phototrophic bacteria and  
215 other members of the food web and the resulting energy flow remains relatively unexplored  
216 (Zadereev et al. 2017b). Toxic concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>S can potentially preclude multicellular  
217 organisms including members of the zooplankton from feeding directly in the chemocline  
218 where PSB are concentrated. However, both calanoid copepods and *Daphnia* can reach  
219 higher densities in this zone and are often observed to be strongly red-coloured, which is  
220 thought to be caused by high concentrations of the respiratory haemolymph protein  
221 haemoglobin. The specific adaptations of the zooplankton necessary to survive under

222 elevated H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations are largely unknown, but an evolved tolerance towards higher  
223 H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations for the brief time needed to move in and out of the chemocline could  
224 allow grazing under such conditions. Stable carbon isotope studies have provided evidence  
225 that the amount of PSB carbon transferred to the filter-feeding zooplankton can be as low  
226 as 5% in some lakes (Kankaala et al. 2010) but as high 85% in others (Overmann et al. 1999).  
227 An important intermediate position of nanoflagellates and ciliates between PSB/GSB and  
228 calanoid copepods or cladocerans including *Daphnia* has also been reported from some  
229 lakes (Jürgens et al. 1994; Taipale et al. 2009; Zadereev et al. 2017b), thus providing a  
230 trophic link between bacterial biomass production and secondary production in the  
231 mixolimnion. A possible disruption of these trophic connections might result from various  
232 aspects of global change: warming of the mixolimnion could generate deeper mixing and a  
233 consequently increased depth of the chemocline, where light levels might be insufficient to  
234 support phototrophic SB, ultimately leading to a strong decrease of in-lake carbon  
235 sequestration (Fig. 1). In naturally oligotrophic lakes, the loss of anoxygenic bacteria as  
236 direct or indirect food source could result in a strongly reduced zooplankton biomass with  
237 further consequences to nutrient availability, primary production and higher trophic levels,  
238 given the key role of the zooplankton in nutrient cycling (Vanni 2002).

239

## 240 **Synthesis**

241 To understand the pathways of change of meromixis and their implications for  
242 biogeochemical cycling, a first step will be to understand the typical characteristics and  
243 function of euxinic meromictic lakes in the Anthropocene. For example, can the two main  
244 model systems Lake Cadagno and Mahoney Lake (Gulati, et al. 2017) serve as  
245 representatives of all meromictic systems, including those presently holomictic lakes that  
246 modelling suggest will become meromictic? Other lake systems might be better models,  
247 such as the artificial pit lakes in various landscapes, or the low arctic, meromictic lake  
248 clusters embedded in a region with thousands of non-meromictic lakes in Southwest  
249 Greenland near Kangerlussuaq (Anderson and Stedmon 2007). Such landscape clusters of  
250 meromictic lakes are well suited to allow generalisations about natural meromictic lakes and  
251 their future (Hakala 2004). In addition to these, other model systems are needed to study  
252 the mechanisms of the loss of CULTURAL MEROMIXIS, as in Baldeggersee in Switzerland, an  
253 example for eutrophication leading to cultural meromixis, which was later reversed by



254 aeration as a restoration measure (Wehrli et al. 1997). Paleolimnological studies, despite  
255 their limitations, help us understand the stability and natural variability of meromixis as well  
256 as contrasting development pathways. It is unclear how the changing light climate of lakes  
257 due to disruption of global biogeochemistry will interact with enhanced water column  
258 stability (Fig. 1). For example, eutrophication and regional increases in landscape DOM and  
259 Fe export (termed 'brownification' but mainly reflecting recovery from acid deposition)  
260 increase light attenuation (Thrane et al. 2014), which therefore could influence how future  
261 meromictic lakes function. Additionally, how will land-cover change and land-use  
262 intensification impact lakes that are presently meromictic? Finally, interactions between  
263 short-term extreme events (e.g., droughts; heatwaves; storm events; floods) and more  
264 progressive impacts (land use; temperature trajectories; nutrient and DOC exports) might  
265 accelerate or dampen the rates of pathways to change of meromictic lakes.

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**MEROMIXIS:** We suggest that the term meromixis is reserved for lakes that are permanently stratified in the strict sense, echoing Hakala (2004)<sup>1</sup> [i.e., besides rare, stochastic mixing events<sup>2</sup>]. Classifications can mask the intricacies of individual systems: time and depth intervals of mixing, and terminology regarding initiation and reinforcement processes are sources of ambiguity that authors have highlighted and sought to resolve<sup>1,3-8</sup>. Two principal, non-exclusive categories are acknowledged:

[1] Endogenic meromixis can be **BIOGENIC**, reflecting salt accumulation in bottom waters due to organic matter sedimentation and degradation, which tends to develop in deeper and well-sheltered dimictic lakes and is typically initiated by unusual meteorological conditions that serve to reduce circulation. Initiation can be via an ectogenic event superimposed on drivers conducive to reinforcement of meromixis, such as eutrophication, or cryogenic meromixis, where salts frozen out of surface waters can accumulate in deeper waters. Transitions from meromixis to holomixis can occur with long-term reductions in depth due to sediment accumulation.

[2] Ectogenic meromixis may be short-lived, periodic, and stochastic, or more longstanding<sup>9</sup>, and can have anthropogenic drivers such as land use change<sup>10,11</sup>, de-icing road salts<sup>12</sup>, mining, hydrological alterations to freshwater-marine connectivity<sup>13</sup>, and hydropower development<sup>14</sup>, also termed **CULTURAL MEROMIXIS**. Crenogenic meromixis<sup>15</sup> is generated by groundwater inputs to deep portions of lake basins.

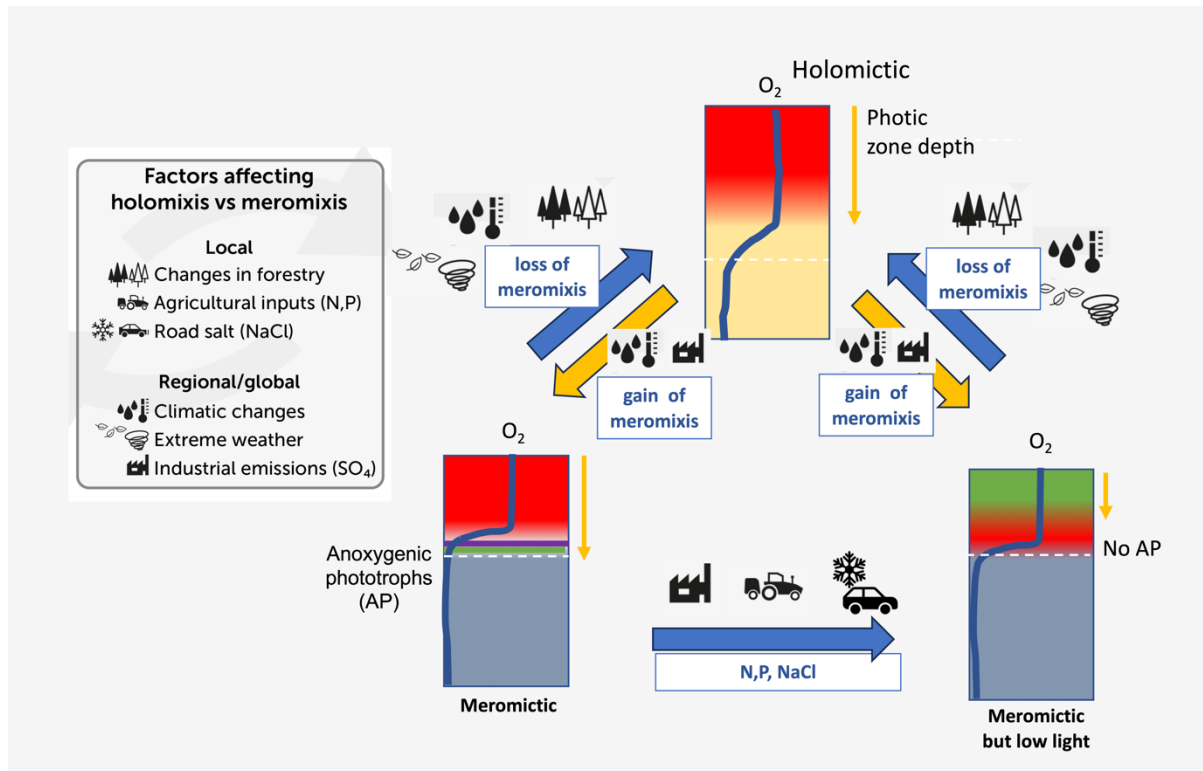
**EUXINIC** meromictic lakes possess anoxic, hydrogen sulfide-rich monimolimnia. In general high levels of S and Fe do not co-occur under anoxic circumneutral conditions due to production of insoluble FeS.

**FERRUGINOUS** meromictic lakes possess anoxic, iron-rich monimolimnia; named for the presence of dissolved ferrous iron, rather than for a predominant contribution of iron to chemical stability, which can also be the case in some systems..

**HOLOMICTIC** lakes 'turn over' at least once a year to achieve water column chemical uniformity. Water density and stability is principally controlled by thermal regimes. General classification<sup>6,16,17</sup> provides further subdivision by mixing frequency and seasonal occurrence.

**MONIMOLIMNION:** The bottom strata of a permanently stratified water column, generally anoxic [*Monimo-* (Gr.) *permanent; fixed; steadfast*].

**HYPOLIMNION:** The colder, denser bottom strata of a stratified holomictic lake.



280

281 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the main pathways of future change in stratification  
 282 from presently holo- and meromictic lakes. Broad differences in catchment-lake  
 283 geochemistry will determine whether lakes become ferruginous or euxinic. Because the  
 284 pathways of change are similar for both types of meromixis, we simplified figure to refer  
 285 more generally to meromixis. However, changes in the water column transparency  
 286 associated with other global change processes (notably, DOC load and eutrophication, both  
 287 of which increase light attenuation) will determine whether anoxygenic phototrophic (AP)  
 288 communities develop. The yellow downward yellow arrow indicates the depth of the photic  
 289 zone and dashed white line the onset of hypoxia.

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## Supplementary Material

### Meromixis in the Anthropocene: pathways of change

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