

1 **Reconstructing past hydrology of eastern Canadian boreal catchments using elastic**
2 **varved sediments and hydro-climatic modelling: 160 years of fluvial inflows**

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5 Antoine Gagnon-Poiré¹⁻²⁻³, Pierre Brigode⁴, Pierre Francus¹⁻²⁻³⁻⁵, David Fortin¹⁻⁶, Patrick
6 Lajeunesse⁷, Hugues Dorion⁷ and Annie-Pier Trottier⁷

7
8 ¹ *Institut national de la recherche scientifique, Centre Eau Terre Environnement, Québec,*
9 *QC, Canada.*

10 ² *GEOTOP, Research Centre on the Dynamics of the Earth System, Montréal, QC,*
11 *Canada.*

12 ³ *Centre d'études nordiques, Québec, QC, Canada.*

13 ⁴ *Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, OCA, IRD, Géoazur, Nice, France.*

14 ⁵ *Canada Research Chair in Environmental sedimentology.*

15 ⁶ *Department of Geography and Planning, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, SK,*
16 *Canada.*

17 ⁷ *Département de géographie, Université Laval, Québec, QC, Canada.*

18
19 Corresponding author: Antoine Gagnon-Poiré (Antoine.Gagnon-Poire@ete.inrs.ca)

20 **Abstract**

21 Analysis of short sediment cores collected in Grand Lake, Labrador, revealed that this lake
22 is an excellent candidate for the preservation of laminated sediments record. The great
23 depth of Grand Lake, the availability of fine sediments along its tributaries, and its
24 important seasonal river inflow have favoured the formation of a 160 years-long clastic
25 varved sequence. Each varve represents one hydrological year. Varve formation is mainly
26 related to spring discharge conditions with contributions from summer and autumn rainfall
27 events. The statistically significant relation between varve parameters and the Naskaupi
28 River discharge observations provided the opportunity to develop local hydrological
29 reconstructions beyond the instrumental period. The combined detrital layer thickness and
30 the particle size (99th percentile) series extracted from each varve yield the strongest
31 correlations with instrumental data ($r = 0.68$ and 0.75) and have been used to reconstruct
32 Naskaupi River mean and maximum annual discharges, respectively, over the 1856-2016
33 period. The reconstructed Q-mean series suggest that high Q-mean years occurred during
34 the 1920-1960 period and a slight decrease in Q-mean takes place during the second half
35 of the 20th century. Independent reconstructions based on rainfall-runoff modelling of the
36 watershed from historical reanalysis of global geopotential height fields display a
37 significant correlation with the reconstructed Naskaupi River discharge based on varve
38 physical parameters. The Grand Lake varved sequence contains a regional hydrological
39 signal, as suggested by the statistically significant relation between the combined detrital
40 layer thickness series and the observed Labrador region Q-mean series extracted from five
41 watersheds of different sizes.

42

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Climate changes caused by rising concentrations of greenhouse gases can alter hydro-
45 climatic conditions on inter- and intra-regional scales (Linderholm et al., 2018; Ljungqvist
46 et al., 2016; Stocker et al., 2013). Hydropower, which is considered as a key renewable
47 energy source to mitigate global warming, has strong sensitivity to changes in hydrological
48 regime especially in vulnerable northern regions (Cherry et al., 2017). Therefore, a clear
49 understanding of the regional impacts that recent climate change combined with natural
50 climate variability can have on river discharge and hydroelectric production is needed.

51 However, the lack of instrumental records and the uncertainty related to hydroclimate
52 variability projections (Collins et al., 2013) are obstacles to sustainable management of
53 these water resources.

54

55 The Labrador region in eastern Canada is a critical area for hydropower generation, hosting
56 the Churchill River hydroelectric project, one of the largest hydropower systems in the
57 world. Average annual streamflow has been varying in eastern Canada during the last fifty
58 years, with higher river discharges from 1970 to 1979 and 1990 to 2007, and lower
59 discharges from 1980 to 1989 (Mortsch et al., 2015; Déry et al., 2009; Jandhyala et al.,
60 2009; Sveinsson et al., 2008; Zhang et al. 2001). These changes in streamflow represent a
61 significant economic challenge for the long-term management of hydropower generation.
62 The few decades of available instrumental observations (<60 years) and their low spatial
63 coverage are not sufficient to allow a robust analysis of multi-decadal hydrological
64 variability.

65

66 The study of multi-decadal hydrological variability requires long instrumental records
67 (>100 years), but such long-time series are non-existent for the Labrador region. Recently,
68 rainfall-runoff modelling approaches have been used to expand instrumental streamflow
69 datasets, using long-term climatic reanalysis as inputs. Rainfall-runoff modelling was used
70 by Brigode et al. (2016) to reconstruct daily streamflow series over the 1881–2011 period
71 in northern Québec. Nevertheless, this type of method suffers from the limited observations
72 in order to evaluate and validate the reconstructed hydro-climatic temporal series. The
73 deficiency of observations led to the exploration of various natural archives for
74 reconstructing past hydro-climatic conditions. Long hydro-climatic series based on natural
75 proxies in eastern Canada are rare, limited to a tree ring (Boucher et al., 2017; Begin et al.,
76 2015; Naulier et al., 2015; Nicault et al., 2014; Boucher et al., 2011; Begin et al., 2007;
77 D'Arrigo et al., 2003) and pollen datasets (Viau et al., 2009) and mainly focused on
78 temperature reconstructions. Reconstructing river hydrological series using dendrological
79 analysis is complex in the boreal region due to the indirect relation between tree ring
80 indicators and streamflow. One study has reconstructed streamflow variations over the last
81 two centuries in Labrador based on tree-ring isotopes series (Dinis et al., 2019). Still, the

82 spatial coverage of palaeohydrological records from independent proxies must be increased
83 in this region. In this perspective, annually laminated sediments composed of minerogenic
84 particles (clastic varves) formed when seasonal runoff carrying suspended sediment enters
85 a lake (Sturm, 1979) have the potential to produce long paleohydrological series. The direct
86 relationship between clastic varves and hydrological conditions makes this type of varve a
87 specific and powerful proxy for streamflow reconstructions. Clastic varves can provide, in
88 favourable settings, annually to seasonally resolved information about downstream
89 sediment transport from catchment area into lake basin depending on regional hydro-
90 climatic conditions (Lamoureux, 2000; Lamoureux et al., 2006; Tomkins et al., 2010;
91 Cuven et al., 2011; Kaufman et al., 2011; Schillereff et al., 2014; Amann et al., 2015;
92 Heideman et al., 2015; Zolitschka et al., 2015; Saarni et al., 2016; Czymzik et al., 2018).

93
94 Preliminary analysis of short sediment cores collected in Grand Lake, central Labrador,
95 revealed that this lake is an excellent candidate for the preservation of recent fluvial clastic
96 laminated sediment record (Zolitschka et al., 2015). The objectives of this paper are to: (1)
97 Confirm the annual character of the laminations record; (2) Establish the relation between
98 the physical parameters of laminations and local hydrological conditions to examine the
99 potential proxy for hydrological reconstructions; (3) Reconstruct the hydrology of the last
100 160 years and compare its similarities and differences with Brigode et al. (2016) rainfall-
101 runoff modelling over the 1880-2011 period; and (4) Determine if there is a Labrador
102 regional streamflow signal recorded in Grand Lake laminated sediments.

103 104 **2. Regional setting**

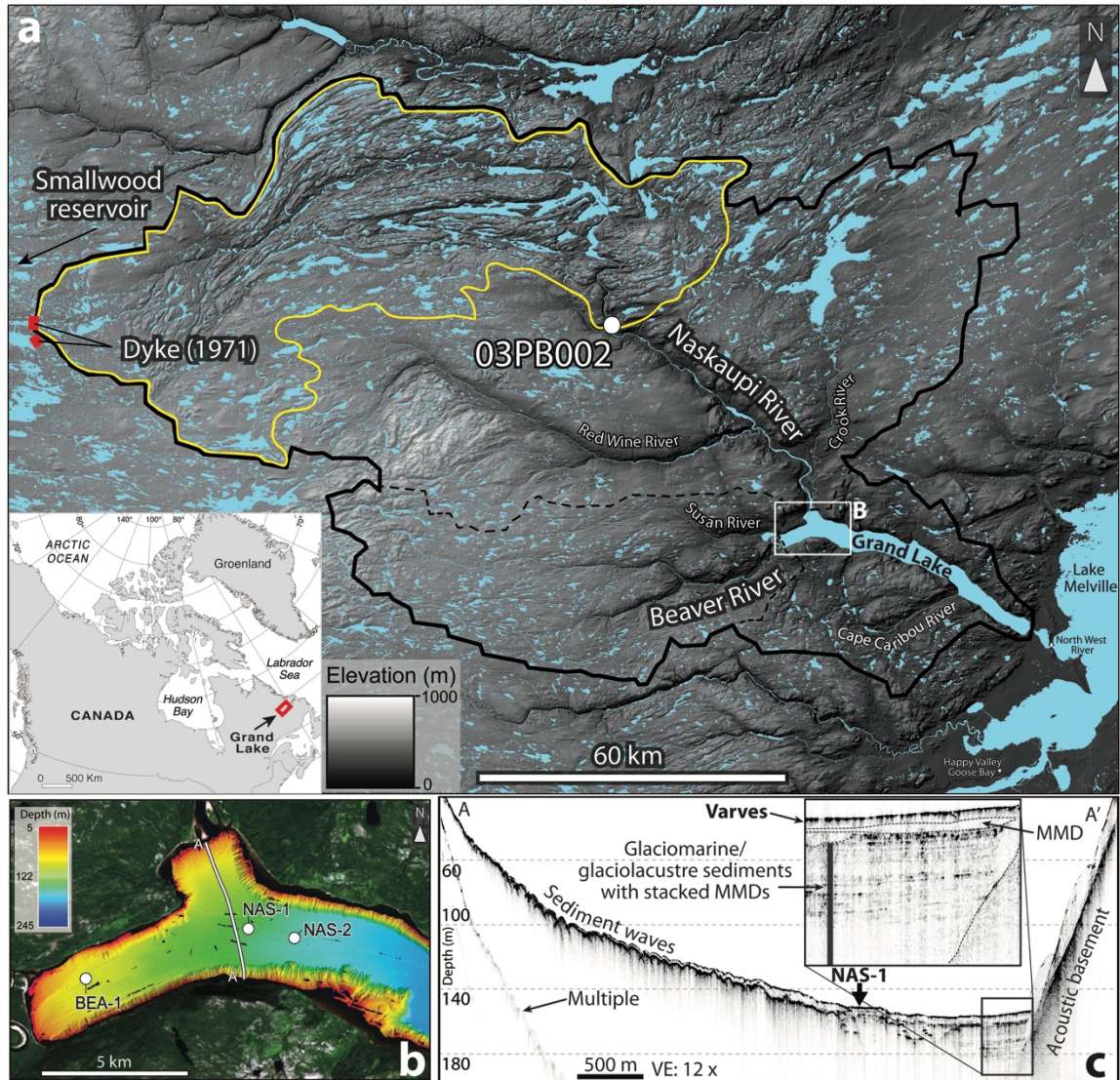
105 Grand Lake is a 245-m-deep (Trottier et al., 2020) elongated (60-km-long) fjord-lake
106 located in a valley connected to the Lake Melville graben in central Labrador
107 (53°41'25.58"N, 60°32'6.53"O, ~15 m above sea level) (Fig. 1). The region is part of the
108 Grenville structural province and is dominated by Precambrian granite, gneiss and acidic
109 intrusive rocks. Grand Lake watershed deglaciation began after ~8.2 cal ka BP (Trottier et
110 al., 2020). During deglaciation, marine limit reached an elevation of 120-150 m above
111 modern sea level and invaded further upstream in the modern fluvial valleys that are
112 connected to the lake (Fizthugh, 1973). This former glaciomarine/marine sedimentary fjord

113 basin has been glacio-isostatically uplifted and isolated by a morainic sill to become a deep
114 fjord-lake (Trottier et al., 2020). The regional geomorphology is characterized by glacially
115 sculpted bedrock exposures, glacial deposits consisting of till plateaus of various
116 elevations, glacial lineations, drumlins, kames, eskers and raised beaches (Fulton 1992).
117 Podzolic soils dominate, with inclusions of brunisols and wetlands.

118

119 Grand Lake is located in the High Boreal Forest ecoregion, one of the most temperate
120 climates in Labrador, hosting mixed forests dominated by productive, closed stands of
121 *Abies balsamea*, *Picea mariana*, *Betula papyrifera*, and *Populus tremuloides* (Riley et al.,
122 2013). This region is influenced by temperate continental (westerly and southwesterly
123 winds) and maritime (Labrador Current) conditions with cool humid summers (JJA) (~8.5
124 °C) and cold winters (DJFM) (~-13 °C). The Grand Lake watershed extends upstream over
125 the low subarctic Nipishish-Goose ecoregion, a broad bedrock plateau (<700 m.a.s.l.)
126 located on the west flank of the Lake Melville lowlands. Lichen-rich *Picea* woodlands with
127 open canopies predominate. With cooler summers and longer cold winters, this area is
128 slightly influenced by the Labrador Sea. Mean annual precipitation in the study region
129 ranges from 800 mm to 1 000 mm, with 400 cm to 500 cm of snowfall. The regional
130 hydrological regime typically exhibits winter low flow and spring freshet, followed by
131 summer flow recession (Fig. 2). Snowmelt in Grand Lake region takes place from April to
132 June (AMJ).

133



134

135 *Figure 1. (A) Location of Grand Lake watershed (black line) and its principal tributaries. The Naskaupi*
 136 *River hydrometric station (03PB002: white dot) covering an area of 4480 km² (yellow line). Location of the*
 137 *dykes constructed in 1971 to divert water from the Naskaupi River to the Smallwood reservoir hydroelectric*
 138 *system are also shown by the red bars. (B) High-resolution swath bathymetry (1-m resolution) of Grand Lake*
 139 *(Trottier et al., 2020) coupled with a Landsat image (USGS) and core site locations. The white line indicates*
 140 *the location of (C) a typical 3.5 kHz subbottom profile of the Naskaupi River delta (A-A') showing the*
 141 *approximate location of core NAS-1. MMD: mass-movement deposit.*

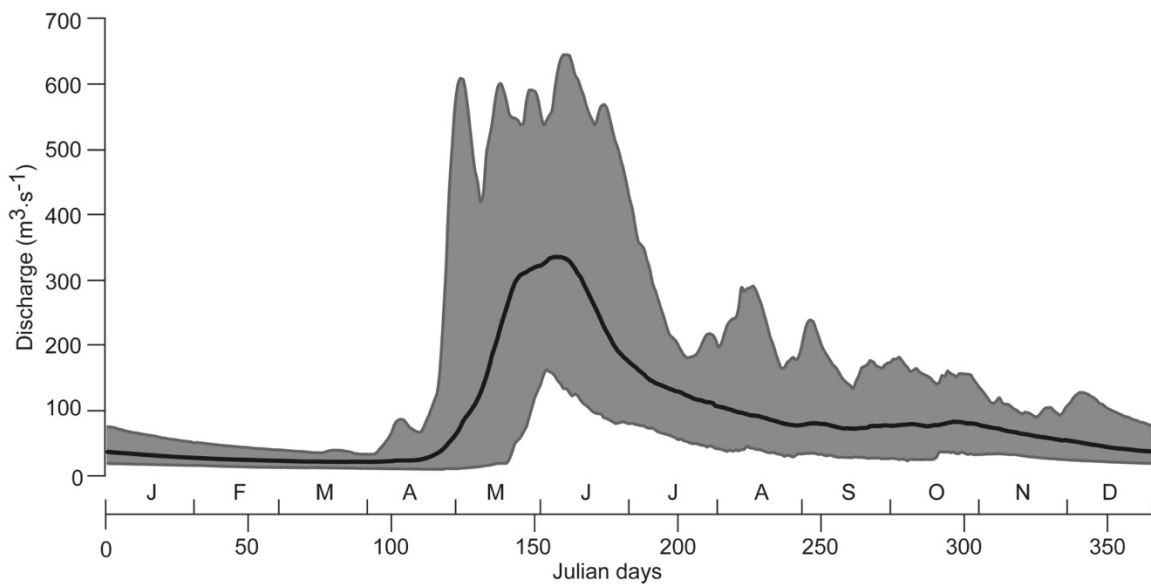
142 The main tributary of Grand Lake is the Naskaupi River located at the lake head (Fig. 1a).
 143 The downstream part of the Naskaupi River is fed by the Red Wine and the Crook rivers.
 144 The Beaver River is the secondary tributary of Grand Lake. Naskaupi and Beaver rivers
 145 structural valleys that connect to the Grand Lake Basin have a well-developed fluvial plain
 146 and a generally sinuous course that remobilize former deltaic systems and terraces
 147 composed of glaciomarine, marine, fluvio-glacial, lacustrine and modern fluvial deposits.

148 Upstream river terraces show mass movement scarps and are affected by gully and aeolian
149 activity. Grand Lake flows into a small tidal lake (Little Lake) and subsequently towards
150 Lake Melville. On 28 April 1971, by closing a system of dykes, the headwaters of Naskaupi
151 River watershed (Lake Michikamau) were diverted into the Churchill River hydropower
152 development (Fig. 1a). This diversion has reduced the drainage area of the Naskaupi River
153 from 23 310 km² to 12 691 km² (Anderson, 1985).

154

155 Hydroacoustic data were collected in Grand Lake in 2016 (Trottier et al., 2020). The swath
156 bathymetric imagery and 3.5 kHz subbottom profile show that the prodelta slopes present
157 well-defined sediment waves at the Naskaupi River mouth (Trottier et al., 2020; Fig. 1b).
158 The upper acoustic unit is composed of a high amplitude acoustic surface changing into
159 low amplitude acoustic parallel reflections (Fig. 1c), a type of acoustic facies which can be
160 associated with successive sedimentary layers of contrasting particle sizes (Gilbert and
161 Desloges, 2012).

162



163

164 *Figure 2. Observed mean daily discharges of the Naskaupi River (hydrometric station 03PB002) for the*
165 *1978-2012 period (black line). The gray zone represents the minimum and maximum observed discharges.*

166

167 **3. Methods**

168 **3.1 Sediment coring and processing**

169 Four short sediment cores (BEA-1, NAS-1A, NAS-1B and NAS-2) were collected using a
170 UWITEC percussion corer in March 2017 deployed from the lake ice cover. These cores
171 were collected in undisturbed areas according to the swath bathymetry and subbottom
172 profiling data (Trottier et al., 2020). Core BEA-1 was collected in the axis of the Beaver
173 River at a depth of 93 m. Core NAS-1 was collected in the axis of the Naskaupi River at a
174 depth of 146 m (Fig. 1b). Site BEA-1 and NAS-1 were collected from locations sharing
175 relative similarities: at the distal frontal slope of the Beaver and Naskaupi river deltas (fig.
176 1c). Site NAS-2 was collected away from the Naskaupi River delta, 176 m deep at the
177 beginning of the deep lake basin. Sites NAS-2 is mainly fed by sediments from the
178 Naskaupi River, but is also in a distal position to the Beaver River. Duplicate cores of
179 different lengths have been retrieved at each site to maximize undisturbed sediment
180 recovery. Following the extraction of each core, wet floral foam was gently inserted
181 through the top of the filled coring tube and slowly pushed towards the sediment surface
182 to seal and preserve the sediment-water interface. A plastic cap was then installed on top
183 of the foam to secure its position in contact with the intact sediment surface and avoid
184 disturbance during transport of the cores. The cores were scanned using a Siemens
185 SOMATOM Definition AS+ 128 medical CT-Scanner at the multidisciplinary laboratory
186 of CT-scan for non-medical use of the Institut National de la Recherche Scientifique - Eau
187 Terre Environnement (INRS-ETE). The CT-scan images allowed the identification of
188 sedimentary structures (i.e., laminated facies, perturbation and hiatus). Expressed as CT-
189 numbers or Hounsfield units (HU), X-Ray attenuation is a function of density and the
190 effective atomic number, and hence sensitive to contrasts in mineralogy, grain size and
191 sediment porosity (St-Onge et al., 2007). CT-numbers were extracted at a resolution of
192 0.06 cm using the ImageJ software 2.0.0 (imagej.net). The cores were then opened,
193 described and photographed with a high-resolution line-scan camera mounted on an
194 ITRAX core scanner (RGB colour images; 50 μm -pixel size) at INRS-ETE. Geochemical
195 non-destructive X-Ray Fluorescence (XRF) analysis was performed on the core half (30
196 kV and 30 mA). XRF elements profiles were used to visualize the structures and boundaries

197 of the laminations and estimate particle size variability in sediment cores (Kylander et al.,
198 2011; Cuven et al., 2010; Croudace et al., 2006). Elements were normalized by the total of
199 count (cps) for each spectrum. Continuous XRF measurements were also carried out on
200 overlapping impregnated sediment blocks in order to superpose element relative intensity
201 profiles on thin-sections.

202 **3.2 Chronology and thickness measurement**

203 Surface sediments from cores BEA-1 and NAS-1A were dated with ^{137}Cs method (Appleby
204 and Oldfield 1978) using a high-resolution germanium diode gamma detector and
205 multichannel analyzer gamma counter. ^{137}Cs activity was used to identify sediment
206 deposited during 1963-1964 peak of nuclear tests and validate the annual character of the
207 layers. A sampling interval of 2 cm was used to approximately identify the depth at which
208 the ^{137}Cs peaks were located. Subsequently, a sampling interval of ± 0.5 cm was used to
209 sample each lamination for the period 1961-1965 to determine the exact ^{137}Cs peak location
210 (1963-1964). In order to establish a chronology for each core, detailed laminations counts
211 were executed on CT-scan images and high-resolution photographs using ImageJ 2.0.0 and
212 Adobe Illustrator CC softwares (Francus et al., 2002). As all of the core surface has been
213 well preserved, the first complete lamination below the sediment surface was considered
214 to represent the topmost year (i.e., 2016 CE). Chronology on each core was confirmed by
215 cross-correlation between thick laminations selected as distinctive marker layers along the
216 different sediment sequences (A to M; Fig. 4).

217

218 Thin-sections of sediments were sampled from cores BEA-1 (1856-2016), NAS-1A (1953-
219 2016), NAS-1B (1856-1952) and NAS-2 (1968-2016) (see Fig. 4 for thin-section location)
220 following Francus and Asikainen (2001) and Lamoureux (1994). Digital images of the thin-
221 sections were obtained using a transparency flatbed scanner at 2400 dpi resolution (1 pixel
222 = 10.6 μm) in plain light and were used to characterize lamination substructure. Lamination
223 counts and thickness measurements using a thin-section image analysis software developed
224 at INRS-ETE (Francus and Nobert 2007) were performed to duplicate and validate
225 previous chronologies established on CT-Scan images and high-resolution photographs.
226 Two counts were made from thin-section by the same observer (AGP). Total Varve

227 Thickness (TVT) and Detrital Layer Thickness (DLT) of each year of sedimentation were
228 measured from images of thin-sections. Lamination counts made on CT-scan images, high-
229 resolution photographs and thin-sections are identical while TVT measurements show
230 negligible difference ($R^2 = 0.96$; $p < 0.05$). The thickness measurements made from CT-
231 scan images and high-resolution photographs have been used to prolong the TVT series of
232 core NAS-2 from 1968 back to 1856. Continuous TVT measurements allowed the
233 establishment of high-resolution age-depth models for each site.

234 **3.3 Image and particle size analysis**

235 Using custom-made Image Analysis software (Francus and Nobert, 2007), regions of
236 interest (ROIs) were selected on the thin-section images. The software then automatically
237 yielded scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of the ROIs using a Zeiss Evo 50
238 SEM in backscattered electron (BSE) mode. Eight-bit greyscale BSE images with a
239 resolution of 1024 x 768 pixels were obtained with an accelerating voltage of 20 kV, a tilt
240 angle of 6.1 and an 8.5 mm working distance with a pixel size of 1 μm . BSE images were
241 processed to obtain black and white images where clastic grains ($>3.5 \mu\text{m}$) and clay matrix
242 appeared black and white respectively (Francus, 1998).

243

244 Each sedimentary particle (an average of 2 225 particles per image) was measured
245 according to the methodology used by Lapointe et al. (2012), Francus et al. (2002) and
246 Francus and Karabanov (2000) in order to calculate particle size distribution on each ROI
247 image. Due to the thickness of the laminations, results from several ROI images were
248 merged to obtain measurements for each year of sedimentation, with an average of 4
249 images per lamination. Only clastic facies related to spring and summer discharges were
250 used for particle size analysis in order to exclude ice-rafted debris (μm to mm scale)
251 observed in the early spring layers (see Fig. 5 for details). The 99th percentile (P99D₀) of
252 the particle size distribution for each detrital layer was obtained from thin-sections
253 (Francus, 1998) for the last 160 years (1856-2016) for core BEA-1 and NAS-1, and for the
254 last 47 years (1968-2016) for core NAS-2, from 795, 717 and 132 BSE images respectively
255 (Fig. 4).

256

257 **3.4 Hydrological variables**

258 Hydrological variables (Tab.1) were calculated from the time series of daily discharges
259 recorded by the Naskaupi River hydrometric station over the 1978-2011 period (missing
260 data from the years 1996, 1997 and 1998).

261

262 *Table 1. Hydrological variables used in this paper*

Hydrological variable	Unit	Description
Q-max	m ³ /s	Annual maximum of daily discharges
Q-mean	m ³ /s	Mean annual discharge
Q-max-Jd	Julian days	Julian day at which the discharge reaches its maximum annual value
Rise-Time	Days	Number of days between the minimum winter flow and the maximum spring flow
Nb-Days-SupQ80	Days	Number of days with discharge greater than the 80 th daily percentile
Q-nival	mm	Nival runoff (April, May, June, July)

263

264

265 The Naskaupi River hydrological variables have been compared with four other
266 hydrometric station data available around the study region (Fig. 3a, Tab. 2), which are
267 devoid of anthropogenic perturbations. Q-mean series from the five stations have been
268 normalized for the common 1979–2011 period and averaged, to produce a Labrador region
269 mean annual discharge series. This allows to extend instrumental data series for the period
270 1969 to 2011, and fill in data for the missing years. The Labrador hydrometric station data
271 used in this study come from a Government of Canada website (<https://wateroffice.ec.gc.ca>
272 05/2018).

273

274 *Table 2. Description of hydrometric stations used in this study*

Hydrometric station	ID	Area (km ²)	Location (N,W)	Recording period
Ugjoktok River	03NF001	7570	55° 14' 02", 61° 18' 06"	1979-2011
Naskaupi River	03PB002	4480	54° 07' 54", 61° 25' 36"	1978-2011
Minipi River	03OE003	2330	52° 36' 45", 61° 11' 07"	1979-2011
Little Mecatina River	02XA003	4540	52° 13' 47", 61° 19' 01"	1979-2011
Eagle River	03QC001	10 900	53° 32' 03", 57° 29' 37"	1969-2011

275

276

277 **3.5 Varve physical parameters and hydrological variables**

278 A simple linear regression model was used to fit the DLT and P99D₀ series with local
279 (1978-2011) and regional (1969–2011) instrumental series and reconstructed hydrological
280 variables (Q-mean, Q-max) back to 1856. Model calibration was performed using a

281 twofold cross-validation technique over the instrumental period. Root mean squared errors
282 (RMSE) and coefficient of determination (R^2) were calculated for calibration periods,
283 while average reduction of error (RE) and average coefficient of efficiency (CE) were
284 calculated to evaluate reconstruction skills (Briffa et al. 1988, Cook et al., 1999). The RE
285 and CE of the verification periods must be > 0 to validate the model skills. Statistical
286 analysis was realized using the treeclim package (Zang and Biondi, 2015) in the R-project
287 environment (R Core Team, 2019, <http://www.r-project.org/>).

288

289 **3.6 Hydro-climatic reconstruction based on rainfall-runoff modelling**

290 The applied reconstruction method is based on rainfall-runoff modelling. Firstly, it aims at
291 producing, for the Naskaupi River hydrometric station catchment (Fig. 1a), daily climatic
292 time series using a historical reanalysis of global geopotential height fields extracted over
293 the studied region for a given time period (here 1880-2011). Secondly, the produced
294 climatic series are used as inputs to a rainfall–runoff model previously calibrated on the
295 studied catchment in order to obtain daily streamflow time series. The reconstruction
296 method is fully described in Brigode et al. (2016) and was recently applied over
297 southeastern Canada catchments in Dinis et al. (2019). It is summarized in the following
298 paragraphs.

299

300 The available observed hydro-climatic series for the Naskaupi River hydrometric station
301 catchment have been aggregated at the catchment scale. Climatic series (daily air
302 temperature and precipitation) have been extracted from the CANOPEX dataset (Arsenault
303 et al., 2016), built using Environment Canada weather stations and Thiessen polygons to
304 calculate climatic series at the catchment scale. Daily air temperature series have been used
305 for calculating daily potential evapotranspiration at the catchment scale, using the Oudin
306 et al. (2005) formula designed for rainfall-runoff modelling.

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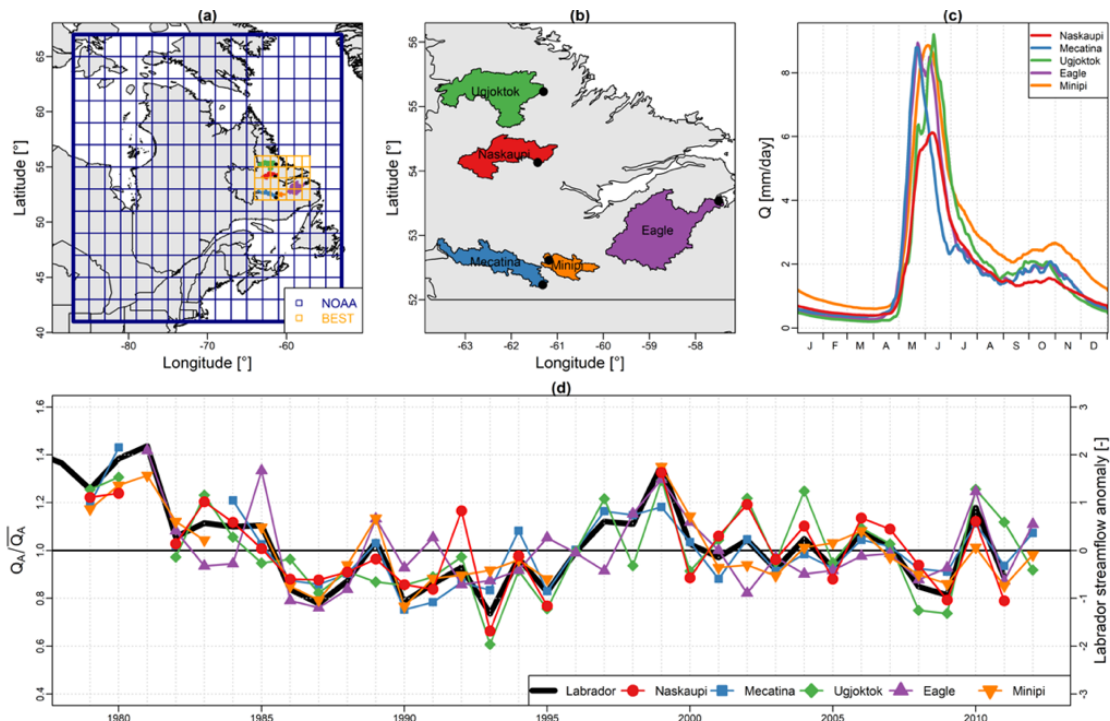
308 These daily series have been used for calibrating the GR4J rainfall-runoff model (Perrin et
309 al., 2003) and its snow accumulation and melting module, CemaNeige (Valéry et al.,
310 2014a), using the airGR package (Coron et al., 2017). This combination of GR4J and
311 CemaNeige (hereafter denoted CemaNeigeGR4J) has been recently applied over eastern

312 Canada catchments and showed good modelling performances (e.g., Seiller et al., 2012;
 313 Valéry et al., 2014b, Brigode et al., 2016). CemaNeigeGR4J has been calibrated on the
 314 recorded period of the Naskaupi River hydrometric station catchment using the Kling and
 315 Gupta efficiency criterion (Gupta et al., 2009) as objective function.

316

317 Then, the observed climatic series have been resampled over the 1880-2011 period, based
 318 on both season and similarity of geopotential height fields (Kuentz et al., 2015). The
 319 resampling is performed by calculating Teweles and Wobus (1954) distances between four
 320 geopotential height fields: (i) 1000 hPa at 0 h, (ii) 1000 hPa at 24 h, (iii) 500 hPa at 0 h,
 321 and (iv) 500 hPa at 24 h. The NOAA 20th Century Reanalysis ensemble (Compo et al.,
 322 2011, hereafter denoted 20CR) has been used as a source of geopotential height fields (Fig.
 323 3b).

324



325

326 *Figure 3. (a) Dataset used for the hydro-climatic reconstruction based on rainfall-runoff modelling: the*
 327 *extension of the 20CR grid used is shown in blue, while the BEST grid used is highlighted in orange. (b)*
 328 *Spatial distribution of hydrometric stations used in this study (black dots) and their catchment area. (c)*
 329 *Observed mean daily discharges of each hydrometric station for the 1978-2012 period. (d) Labrador*
 330 *streamflow anomaly and the Labrador region mean annual discharge series (thick black line).*

331 As in Brigode et al. (2016), the resampled series of air temperature have been corrected at
332 the catchment scale using a regression model calibrated with the Berkeley Earth Surface
333 Temperature analysis (Rohde et al., 2013, hereafter denoted BEST). BEST is a gridded air
334 temperature product starting in 1880 at the daily timestep (Fig. 3b).

335

336 Finally, the daily climatic series are used as inputs to the CemaNeigeGR4J model in order
337 to obtain daily streamflow time series on the same 1880-2011 period. Thus, the outputs of
338 the hydro-climatic reconstruction are an ensemble of daily meteorological series (air
339 temperature, potential evapotranspiration and precipitation) and an ensemble of daily
340 streamflow series.

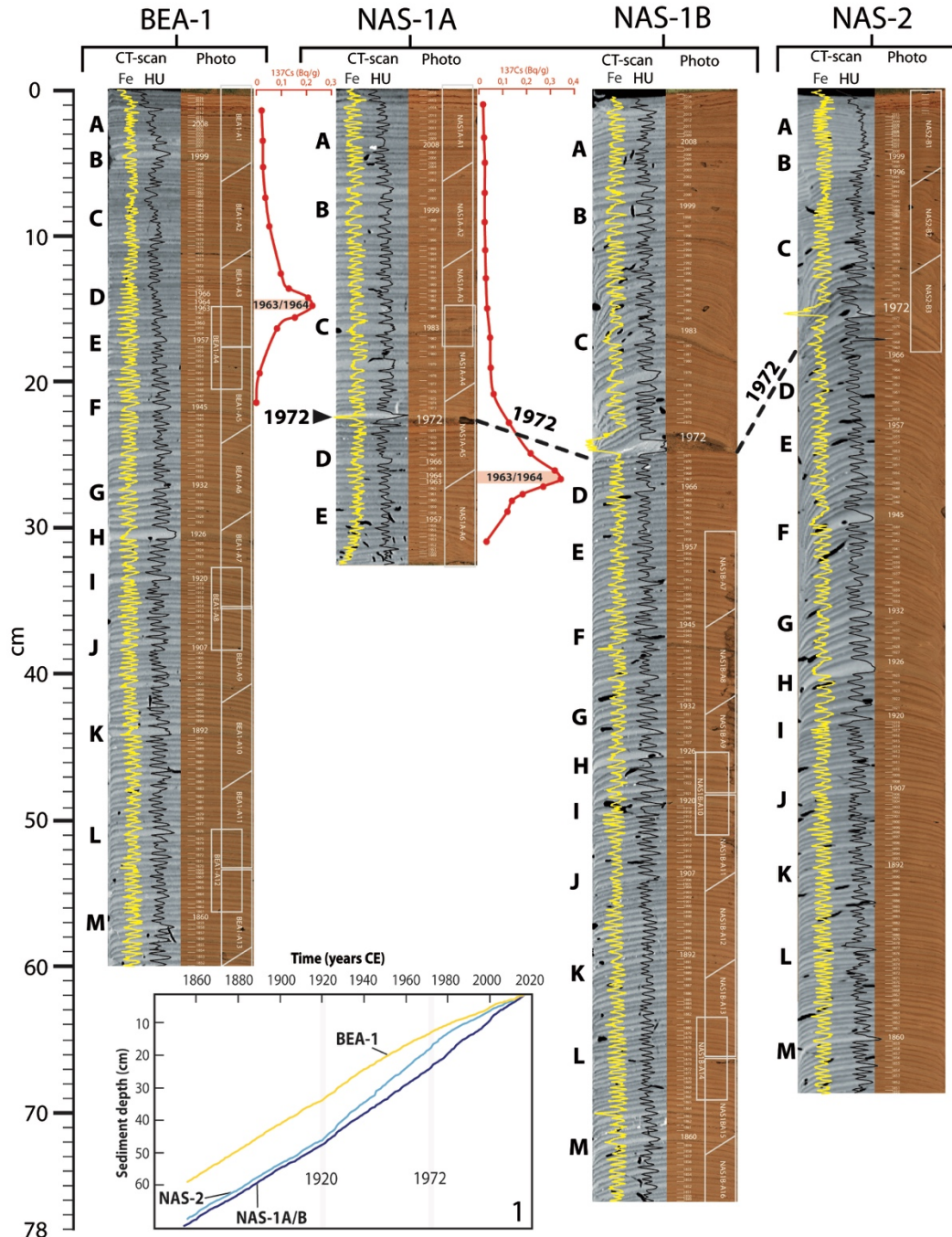
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342 **4. Results**

343 **4.1 Lamination characterization**

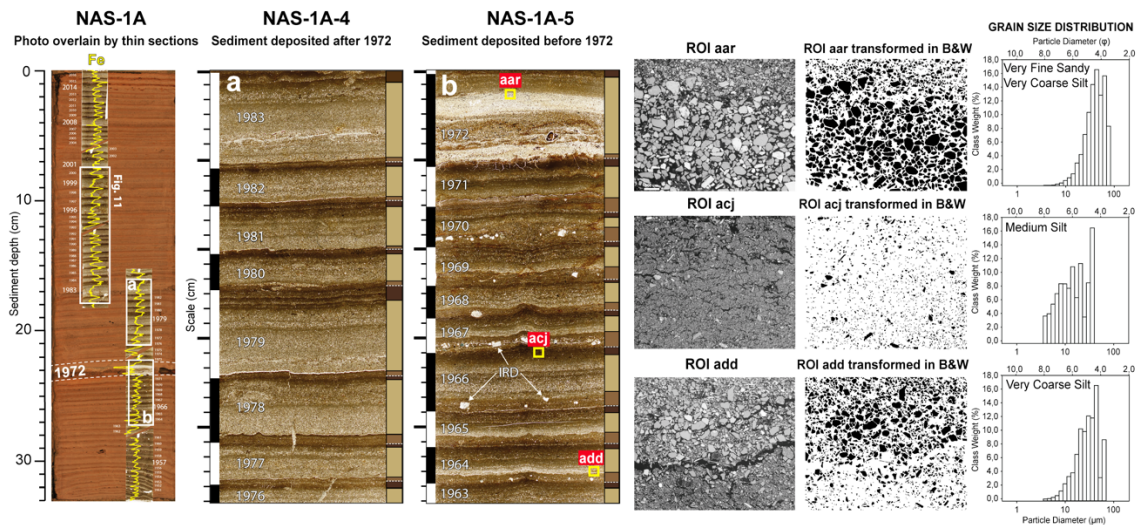
344 Sediment retrieved at the head of Grand Lake (Fig. 4), consist of dark grayish to dark
345 yellowish brown (Munsell colour: 10YR-4/2 to 10YR-4/4) laminated minerogenic
346 material, interpreted as clastic lamination of fluvial origin. Lamination structure can be
347 divided in 3 seasonal layers (Fig. 5) based on their stratigraphic position and microfacies.
348 Annual sedimentation starts with a layer composed of silt and clay sediment matrix which
349 sometimes contains ice-rafted debris (μm to mm scale) interpreted as an early spring layer.
350 The major lamination component is a spring and summer/autumn detrital layer. Its thick
351 basal part is mostly poorly sorted, graded and composed of coarse minerogenic grains
352 comprising fine sand and silts ($< 150 \mu\text{m}$) with some redeposited cohesive sediment clasts
353 eroded from the underlying early spring layer. This detrital layer has a sharp lower
354 boundary. The upper part of the detrital layer consists of a finer detrital grain matrix
355 containing thin visually coarser intercalated sub-layers in $\sim 75\%$ of the laminations. The
356 allochthonous lithoclastic materials which compose the detrital layers are associated with
357 higher density values (Fig. 4) and an increase in the relative intensity of elements Sr and
358 Ca (Zolitschka et al., 2015). Few organic debris and charcoal fragments are observed
359 throughout the detrital layers. The third topmost lamination layer is formed by a fine to
360 medium silty layer with abundant clay rich in Fe and interpreted as an autumn and winter
361 layer, also known as a clay cap (Zolitschka et al., 2015). The Fe peak values in autumn and

362 winter layers, are hence used to determine the upper lamination boundary (Fig. 4)
 363 (Zolitschka et al., 2015) as previously performed in other varved sequences (Cuven et al.,
 364 2010; Saarni et al., 2016).



365
 366 Figure 4. Varve counts made on (left) CT-scan and (right) high resolution images from core BEA-1, NAS-
 367 IA/B and NAS-2. Distinctive marker layers are identified by letters A to M. The 1972 marker layer is outlined
 368 by the thick dark gray line. Fe relative intensity and density (HU) profile represented by the yellow and black
 369 line respectively, show rhythmic laminations. The activity profile of ¹³⁷Cs in core BEA-1, NAS-1A is shown
 370 by the red line. Approximate thin-section locations are outlined by white boxes. The age-depth model of the
 371 3 cores is also presented (Box. 1). See Fig. 1b for core locations.

372 The lamination deposited in 1972 from sites in the axis of the Naskaupi River (NAS-1; Fig.
 373 5b and NAS-2; Fig. 4), present a thick (8.2 mm) and coarse (67.8 μm) detrital layer
 374 composed of very fine sandy and very coarse silt (Fig. 5b) representing the highest particle
 375 size measured in all sequences. Furthermore, there is a difference in lamination physical
 376 parameters and microfacies deposited before and after the 1972 marker bed, especially in
 377 core NAS-1, the proximal site from the Naskaupi River mouth. Laminations deposited
 378 prior 1972 have a well-developed substructure relatively constant among each annual
 379 lamination (Fig. 5b). The early spring layer of the pre-1972 laminations is thicker and more
 380 clearly visible. Conversely, the detrital layer of laminations post-1972 is thicker, while the
 381 early spring layer is more difficult to discern and contributes less to the TVT (Fig. 5a). The
 382 mean contribution of the early spring layer and autumn and winter layer to the total
 383 lamination thickness is 35% for the pre- and 52% for the post-1972 intervals. The early
 384 spring layer in lamination post-1971 from sites NAS-1 and NAS-2 no longer contains
 385 isolated coarse debris. The changes in lamination facies are less noticeable in core NAS-2,
 386 which was sampled further away from the Naskaupi River mouth. The 1972 marker bed
 387 and related facies changes are not found at the Beaver River mouth site BEA-1.
 388



389
 390 *Figure 5. (Left) Photo of core NAS-1A overlain by thin-section image and Fe relative intensity profile (yellow*
 391 *lines). The 1972 marker layer is outlined by the white dashed lines. Thin-section images showing sedimentary*
 392 *structure of varves deposited (B) before and (A) after the 1972 marker bed. Varve boundaries are represented*
 393 *by the vertical black and white bars. Varve layers are delimited by the medium brown (early spring layer),*
 394 *pale brown (detrital layer) and dark brown (autumn and winter layer) bars. Typical Ice-Rafted Debris (IRD)*
 395 *are shown by the white arrows on the b panel. (Right) BSE images of three ROIs transformed in B&W and*
 396 *their associated particle size distribution (aar: the 1972 marker layer; acj: a typical autumn and winter*
 397 *layer; add: the base of a typical detrital layer) (see yellow squares on the b panel for ROIs location).*

398 **4.2 Varve chronology**

399 The laminated sequences chronologies are consistent with the Cesium-137 main peaks
400 corresponding to the highest atmospheric nuclear testing period (1963-1964 CE) (Appleby,
401 2001). Peaks are found at 14-14.5 cm (BEA-1) and 26.5-27 cm (NAS-1A) depth (Fig. 4)
402 and perfectly match the lamination counts in both cores, confirming the varve assumption.
403 The presence of the distinct 1972 marker layer at this chronostratigraphic position in the
404 varve sequence which coincides with the occurrence of the Naskaupi River diversion that
405 took place in April 1971 (see section 5.2 for details) supports the reliability of the
406 constructed chronologies.

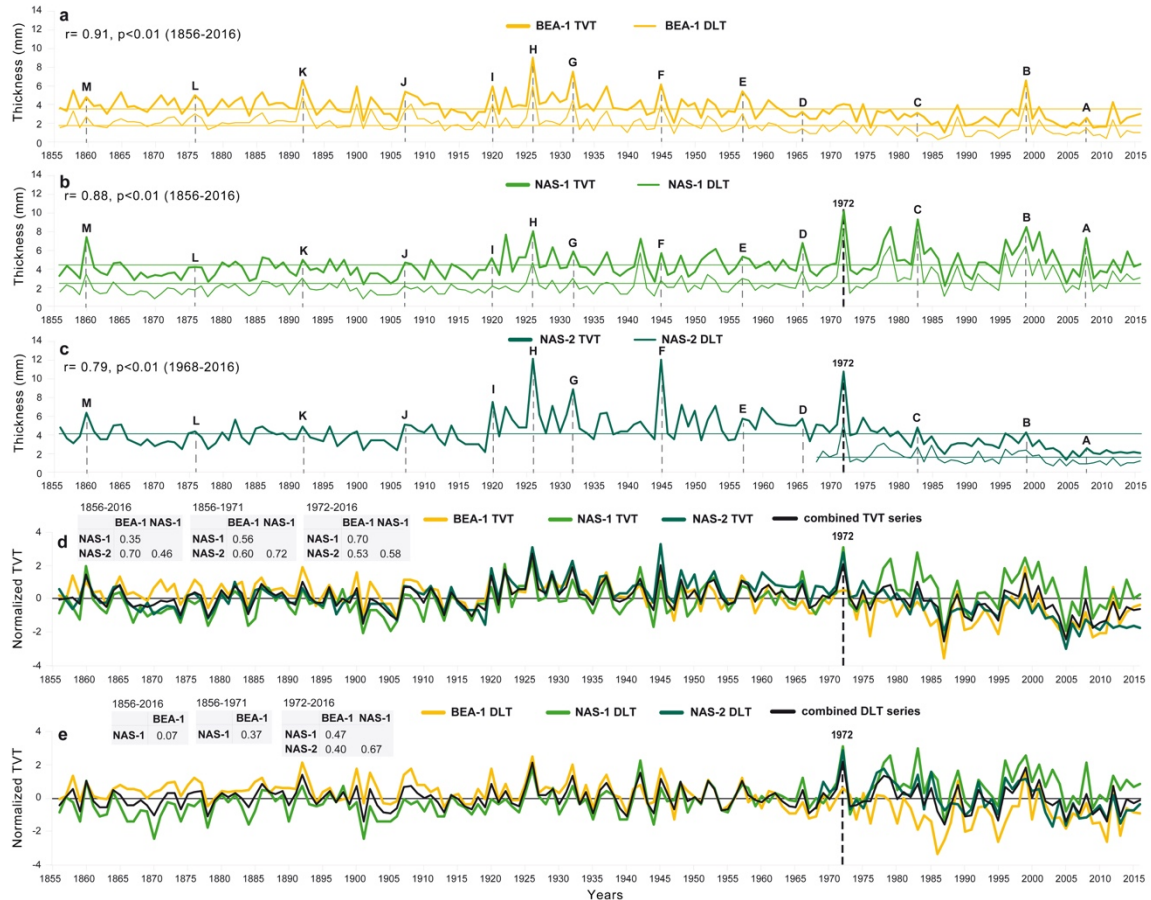
407

408 Independent varve chronologies were established from sediment cores BEA-1, NAS-1 and
409 NAS-2 (Fig. 4). A total of 160 varves were counted at each site, covering the 1856-2016
410 period. The thickness and the good quality of the well-preserved varve structures allowed
411 a robust age-model reproducible among cores to be constructed. Despite the distance
412 between the coring sites (1 to 5 km) and the two different sediment sources (Naskaupi and
413 Beaver River) (Fig. 1b), there is no varve count difference between the selected thick
414 marker layers (A to M; Fig. 4) among cores. The few counting difficulties occur within
415 varve years 1952-1953, 1935-1934, 1918-1919, as it contains ambiguous coarse non-
416 annual intercalated sub-layers with intermediate clay cap that can be interpreted as one year
417 of sedimentation. Both varve counts performed on thin-sections show a low overall
418 counting error ($\pm 1.8\%$) which demonstrated the precision and accuracy of the varve
419 sequences chronology. The age-depth models (Fig. 4, Box. 1) show changes in sediment
420 accumulation rates (thickness) among cores in 1920 and 1972.

421 **4.3 Thickness and particle size measurements**

422 The TVTs from core BEA-1, NAS-1 and NAS-2 vary between 0.9 and 12.9 mm, with an
423 average thickness of 4.09 mm (Fig. 6a, b, c, Supplements Fig. S1 and Tab. S1). The DLTs
424 vary between 0.3 and 8.3 mm, with an average thickness of 1.9 mm (Fig. 6a, b, c,
425 Supplements Fig. S2 and Tab. S2). There are significant strong positive correlations
426 between TVT and DLT for each core ($r = 0.79$ to 0.91 ; $p < 0.01$). A step in the TVT is
427 observable in the early 1920s at the three sites (Fig. 6a, b, c), especially in core NAS-2,

428 which recorded their highest values (12.9 mm) during the 1920-1972 period (Fig. 6c).
429 Since the 1920s, there is a statistically significant decreasing trend in TVTs and DLTs in
430 core BEA-1 (Fig. 6a). Thickness data from the three sites have been normalized and
431 averaged to produce combined TVT and DLT series (Fig. 6d, e). From 1920 to 1972,
432 combined TVT and DLT series show a statistically significant downward trend, despite an
433 increase in years associated with high thickness values. Overall, TVT and DLT vary
434 similarly in time between sites during the 1856-1971 period (Fig. 6d, e). However, after
435 1972, TVT and DLT series are more diverging. From 1972 to 2016, there is a statistically
436 significant decreasing trend in TVT and DLT in cores NAS-2 (Fig. 6c), and the amplitude
437 of their variability tends to diminish. For core NAS-1 (Fig. 6b), post-1971 period is
438 associated with higher thickness values. Core NAS-1 has recorded a slight TVT and DLT
439 decrease for the 1972-2016 period, but unlike the other cores, the variability tends to
440 increase. The TVT and DLT are overall finer in the distal core NAS-2 compared to the
441 more proximal core NAS-1 (Fig. 4, Box. 1, Supplements Tab. S1, S2).
442



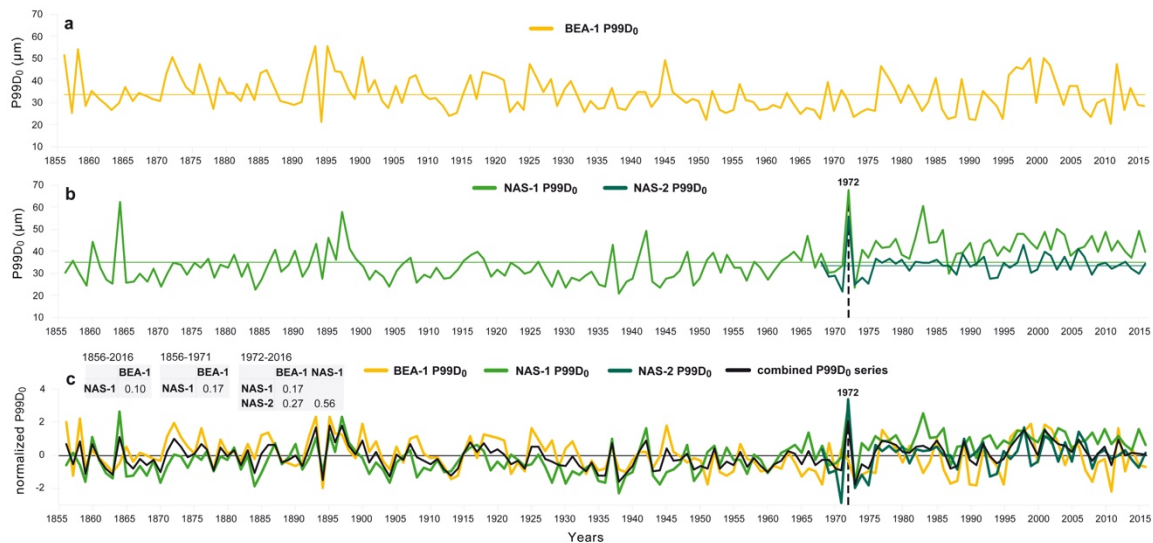
443

444 *Figure 6. Total Varve Thickness (TVT; thick line) and Detrital Layer Thickness (DLT; thin line) time series*
 445 *of core (a) BEA-1, (b) NAS-1 and (c) NAS-2. Normalized (d) TVT and (e) DLT series and the combined series*
 446 *(mean of the normalized data from the 3 sites). Pearson correlation coefficients between TVT and DLT for*
 447 *the 1856-2016, 1856-1971 and 1973-2016 periods are shown. The selected marker layers are identified by*
 448 *letters A to M and the 1972 marker layer is outlined by the thick black dashed line.*

449 The P99D₀ of cores BEA-1, NAS-1 and NAS-2 vary between 20 and 67.8 μm , with an
 450 average value of 34.3 μm (Fig. 7, Supplements Fig. S3 and Tab. S3). The grain size is finer
 451 in core NAS-2 compared to core NAS-1. Particle size data from the three sites have been
 452 normalized and averaged to produce combined P99D₀ series (Fig. 7c). The combined
 453 P99D₀ series show a slight coarsening trend towards the end of the 19th century. From 1900
 454 to 1971, P99D₀ values are generally below average. The 1972 marker layer of core NAS-
 455 1 presented the maximum P99D₀ values (Fig. 7b). After 1972, there is an increase of P99D₀
 456 values in core NAS-1, where a step is observable. Pre-1971 varves in core NAS-1 have a
 457 mean P99D₀ of 32,47 μm compared to 42,91 μm for the 1972-2016 period.

458

459 There is weak to moderate positive correlation between TVT and P99D₀ from a same core
 460 (BEA-1: $r = 0.41$ $p < 0.01$; NAS-1: $r = 0.52$ $p < 0.01$; NAS-2: $r = 0.27$, $p < 0.05$). The
 461 correlation between DLT with P99D₀ is stronger (BEA-1: $r = 0.49$ $p < 0.01$; NAS-1: $r =$
 462 0.65 $p < 0.01$; NAS-2: $r = 0.49$, $p < 0.01$). Thick varves are more likely to have high grain
 463 size values. However, these correlations show that TVT, DLT and P99D₀ remain
 464 independent variables and can both reveal different hydrological information.
 465



466
 467 *Figure 7. P99D₀ time series of cores (a) BEA-1, (b) NAS-1 (1856-2016) and NAS-2 (1968-2016). (c)*
 468 *Normalized P99D₀ series and the combined series (mean of the normalized data from the 3 sites). The 1972*
 469 *marker layer is outlined by the black dashed line. Pearson correlation coefficients between P99D₀ series for*
 470 *the 1856-2016 and 1968-2016 periods are shown.*

471 4.5 Relation between varve series and instrumental record

472 4.5.1 Naskaupi River

473 To examine how the physical parameters of the varves are related to local hydrology and
 474 to demonstrate their potential for hydrological reconstruction, sediment parameters (TVT,
 475 DLT and P99D₀) of each core were systematically compared to hydrological variables
 476 (Tab. 1). TVT, DLT and P99D₀ series from the three coring sites show significant positive
 477 correlations with the Q-mean and Q-max extracted from the Naskaupi River hydrometric
 478 station (03PB002) data on the 1978-2011 period (n=31) (Tab. 3). The TVT and DLT of
 479 cores BEA-1 and NAS-2 show stronger correlation with Q-mean, while TVT and DLT of
 480 cores NAS-1 have a better relation with Q-max. There is a significant negative correlation
 481 between P99D₀ of core NAS-1 and Q-max-Jd ($r = -0.38$) and Rise-Time ($r = -0.47$).
 482 Sediment parameters also present significant positive correlations with Q-Nival ($r = 0.32$

483 to 0.61) and Nb-days-SupQ80 ($> 125 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) ($r = 0.44$ to 0.62). Combined DLT and P99D₀
484 series (Fig. 6d, e; 7c) yields the strongest correlations in our dataset ($r = 0.68$ and 0.75 ;
485 Tab. 3) and have been used to reconstruct Naskaupi River Q-mean and Q-max respectively
486 (Fig. 8).

487

488 *4.5.2 Labrador region*

489 To determine if there is a regional hydrological signal in Labrador and whether the Grand
490 Lake varved sedimentary sequence has recorded this signal, the Naskaupi River
491 hydrological variables were compared with other Labrador hydrometric stations (Tab. 2).
492 Despite specific local geomorphological and climatic conditions, strong similarities exist
493 between observed mean daily discharges (Fig. 3c) and annual streamflow (Fig. 3d)
494 recorded by hydrometric stations in Labrador for the 1978-2011 period. The shape of the
495 five annual regimes shows similar characteristics (i.e. flood-timing, strength, duration,
496 snowmelt and rainfall response). The instrumental Naskaupi River mean annual discharge
497 series data show significant ($p < 0.01$, Supplements Tab. S5) positive correlations with
498 other hydrometric stations (Ugjoctok: $r = 0.84$; Minipi: $r = 0.70$; Little Mecatina: $r = 0.73$;
499 Eagle: $r = 0.49$). Hydrological conditions in the Naskaupi river region is thus representative
500 of a broader region of Labrador. Therefore, the combined DLT series (without the NAS-1
501 1978-2016 period) has been used to reconstruct the Labrador region mean annual discharge
502 series (Fig. 9).

503

504 Table 3. Matrix of correlation coefficients (Pearson r) of the hydrological variables defined in Tab.
 505 1 with Total Varve Thickness (TVT), Detrital Layer Thickness (DLT) and particle size (P99D₀) on
 506 the instrumental period (1978-2011; $n=31$) for each core. Correlations between the hydrological
 507 variables and the combined TVT, DLT and P99D₀ series (normalized and averaged varve
 508 parameters of cores BEA, NAS-1 and NAS-2) are also present. Correlations in boldface are
 509 significant at $p < 0.05$ (Supplements Tab. S4). Correlations marked by an asterisk were used for
 510 the final Q -mean and Q -max reconstructions.

		Hydrological variables of station 03PB002					
Sediment parameters	Core BEA-1	Q-mean	Q-max	Q-max-Jd	Rise-Time	Nb-days-supQ80	Q-nival
	TVT	0,53	0,46	-0.19	-0.06	0.54	0.41
	DLT	0,54	0,38	-0.01	0.22	0.44	0.32
	P99D ₀	0,56	0,56	-0.05	0.17	0.34	0.40
	Core NAS-1	Q-mean	Q-max	Q-max-Jd	Rise-Time	Nb-days-supQ80	Q-nival
	TVT	0.52	0,64	-0,31	-0,26	0,55	0,56
	DLT	0.53	0,67	-0,31	-0,27	0,53	0,54
	P99D ₀	0.19	0,60	-0,38	-0,47	0,26	0,40
	Core NAS-2	Q-mean	Q-max	Q-max-Jd	Rise-Time	Nb-days-supQ80	Q-nival
	TVT	0,49	0,45	0,04	-0,24	0,56	0,47
DLT	0,62	0,57	0,07	-0,13	0,59	0,61	
P99D ₀	0,39	0,43	0,19	0,26	0,31	0,40	
Combined series	Q-mean	Q-max	Q-max-Jd	Rise-Time	Nb-days-supQ80	Q-nival	
TVT	0,56	0,58	-0,19	-0,20	0,60	0,53	
DLT	0,68*	0,65	-0,11	-0,07	0,62	0,58	
P99D ₀	0,59	0,75*	-0,09	0,05	0,43	0,56	

511

512 4.6 Hydrological reconstructions using varve parameters

513 4.6.1 Naskaupi River Q -mean and Q -max

514 The Naskaupi River mean and maximum annual discharges (Q -mean and Q -max) were
 515 reconstructed using DLT and P99D₀ series for the 1856–2016 period. The reconstructions
 516 were performed using single-core data, combined DLT and P99D₀ series and other
 517 combinations of core data, in order to propose the most relevant reconstructions
 518 (Supplements Fig. S4, S5). The observations and the reconstructed Q -mean and Q -max
 519 extracted from the different series over the 1978-2011 period are consistent. Despite
 520 differences, all reconstructions tested using different sources of sedimentological data
 521 generally share common interannual and longer-term variability.

522

523 Excluding the 1972-2016 measurements from NAS-1 from the combined series for
524 reconstructions was also tested to remove the likely anthropogenic impact on sedimentation
525 during this period. The combined DLT series without the 1972-2016 period presents a
526 slightly better fit with the instrumental data (lowest RMSE and the most-significant and
527 highest R^2 , Supplements Tab. S6). The model calibrations based on a twofold cross-
528 validation reveal that this DLT series has better overall predictive capacity to reconstructed
529 Q-mean (Supplements Tab. S7). The 1972-2016 period of core NAS-1 was then excluded
530 from the combined DLT series used to perform the best reconstruction of Naskaupi River
531 Q-mean presented in Fig. 8a. However, significantly stronger calibration and validation
532 statistical results were obtained by keeping this period in the combined P99D₀ series used
533 to reconstruct Naskaupi River Q-max (Fig. 8b, Supplements Tab. S8, S9). The varve of
534 year 1972 is considered as an outlier that originated from anthropogenic impacts, and thus
535 was not included in all reconstructions.

536

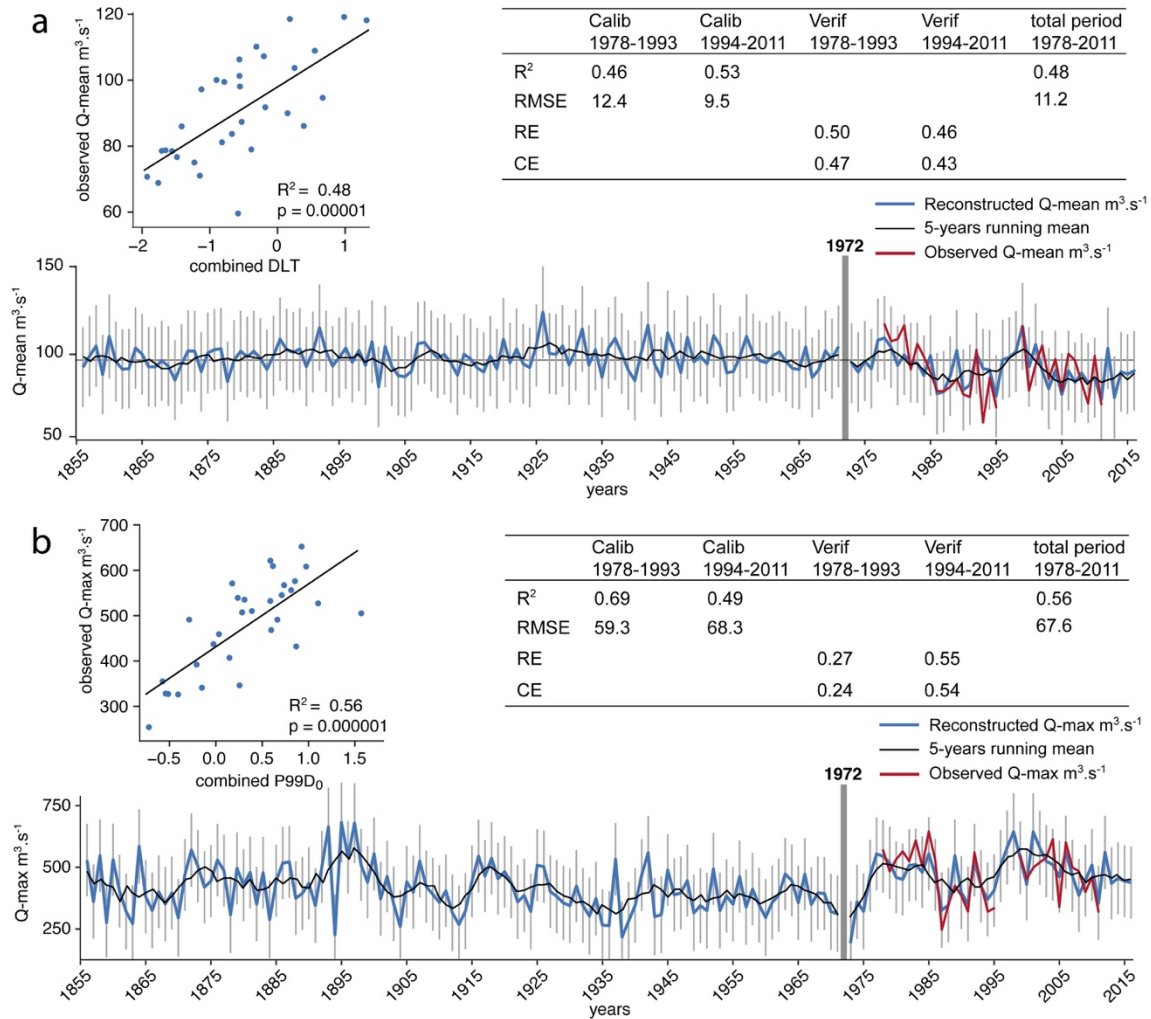
537 The reconstructed Naskaupi River Q-mean from combined DLT series varies between 73
538 and $126 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, with an average of $96 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 8a), and remains relatively stable from
539 1856 to 1920, mainly near average. Several years with high Q-mean occurred during the
540 1920-1960 period. A statistically significant downward trend of the Q-mean is observed
541 over the last 90 years. Recently, high Q-mean periods are observed from 1976 to 1985 and
542 1996 to 2002 and lower Q-mean periods from 1986 to 1995 and 2003 to 2016. The
543 reconstructed Naskaupi Q-max from combined P99D₀ series varies between 192 and 681
544 $\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, with an average of $426 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 8b). There is a slight upward trend in Q-max at
545 the end of the 19th century. The 1900-1971 period is characterized by a Q-max generally
546 below average. Three periods of high Q-max are observed from 1887 to 1900, 1976 to
547 1986 and 1995 to 2008 (Fig. 8b).

548

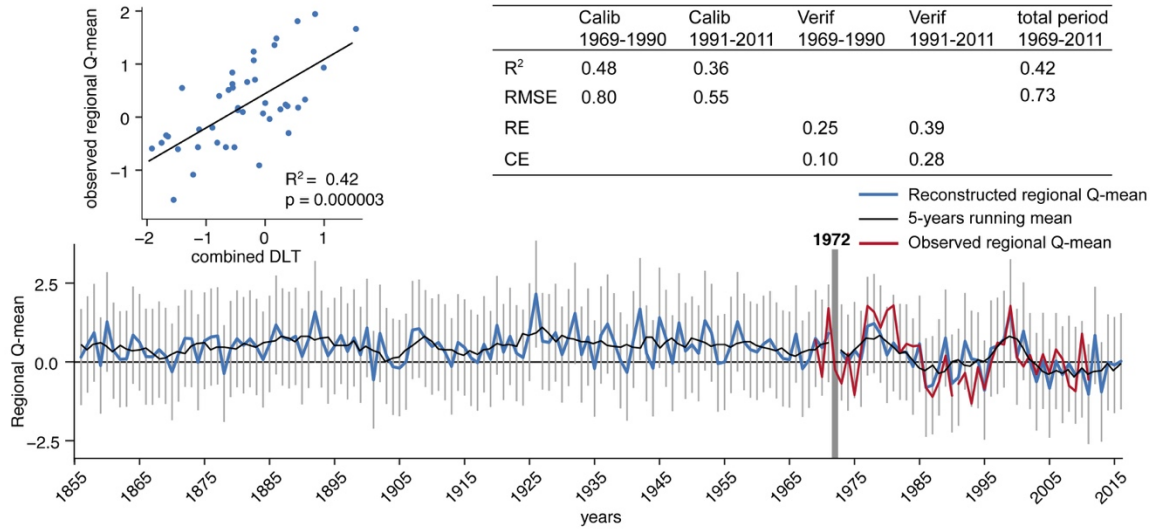
549 *4.6.2 Labrador region Q-mean*

550 The consistency between combined DLT series and the observed Labrador region Q-mean
551 series (Fig. 9), based on the discharge variability of five watersheds of different size and
552 location, demonstrates that the Grand Lake varved sequence contains a regional signal. The
553 best reconstruction of Labrador region mean annual discharges is the one performed using

554 the combined DLT series without the NAS-1 1972-2016 period. This reconstruction
 555 demonstrates the best predictive capacity (RE and CE must be > 0 to validate the model
 556 skills, Supplements Tab. S10, S11). The regional Q-mean reconstruction for the 1856–
 557 2016 period is presented in Fig. 9.
 558



559
 560 *Figure 8. Naskaupi River (a) Q-mean and (b) Q-max reconstructed from combined DLT (Without the NAS-*
 561 *1 1978-2016 period) and P99D₀ series respectively, for the 1856–2016 period (blue line), with 5-year*
 562 *moving average (black line). Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. Observed Q-mean and Q-*
 563 *max are also shown for the 1978-2011 period (red line).*



564
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568

Figure 9. Labrador region Q-mean reconstructed from combined DLT series (without the NAS-1 1972-2016 period) for the 1856–2016 period (blue line), with 5-year moving average (black line). Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval. Observed Labrador region Q-mean series is also shown for the 1969-2011 period (red line).

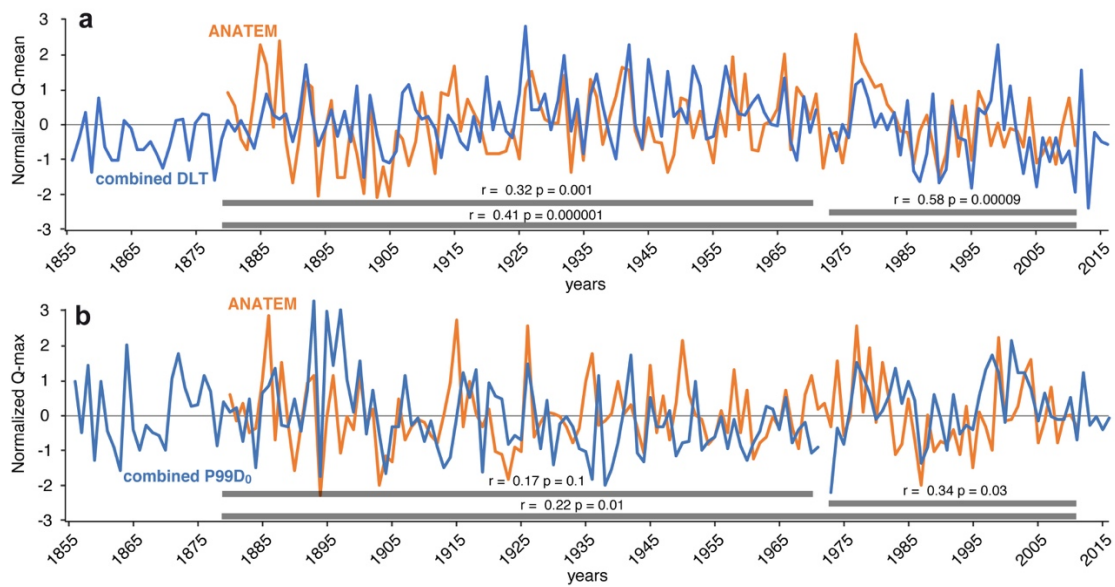
569 **4.7 Hydrological reconstruction using the rainfall-runoff modelling approach and**
570 **comparison with the varved-based reconstruction**

571 Naskaupi River Q-mean and Q-max (Fig. 8) were also reconstructed using the ANATEM
572 rainfall-runoff modelling (Fig. 10). The independent modelling approach results show
573 similarities with reconstructions based on varved series. The ANATEM reconstructions are
574 statistically and positively correlated with the yearly time series obtained from combined
575 DLT and P99D₀ series during the 1880-2011 period (Q-mean: $r = 0.41$; Q-max: $r = 0.22$; $n = 131$;
576 $p < 0.01$). The reconstructed Q-mean and Q-max annual variabilities show
577 similarities, especially during the 1973–2011 period (Q-mean: $r = 0.58$; Q-max: $r = 0.34$;
578 $n = 43$ $p < 0.05$).

579

580 Q-mean reconstructions with both varve parameters and modelling are better correlated
581 than the Q-max reconstructions. This may be due to the higher uncertainty related to the
582 Q-max reconstruction with the modelling approach. Indeed, high flow modelling requires
583 good reconstruction performances on several hydro-climatic processes (i.e., snow
584 accumulation during the winter, timing of the snowmelt, spring precipitation). Moreover,
585 the uncertainty of the hydrological reconstruction is less important on recent periods
586 (>1950), due to the better quality of the geopotential height field reanalysis over recent
587 decades, as more stations series are available and thus used in the reanalysis. The decrease

588 in the uncertainty related to reanalysis over time might explain the better correlation
589 between the two approaches for the recent period.



590

591 *Figure 10. Comparison between the Naskaupi River (a) Q-mean and (b) Q-max reconstruction using*
592 *combined Detrital Layer Thickness (DLT) (without the NAS-1 1972-2016 period) and P99D₀ series*
593 *respectively (blue line) and the rainfall-runoff modelling (orange line) for raw yearly data.*

594 **5. Discussion**

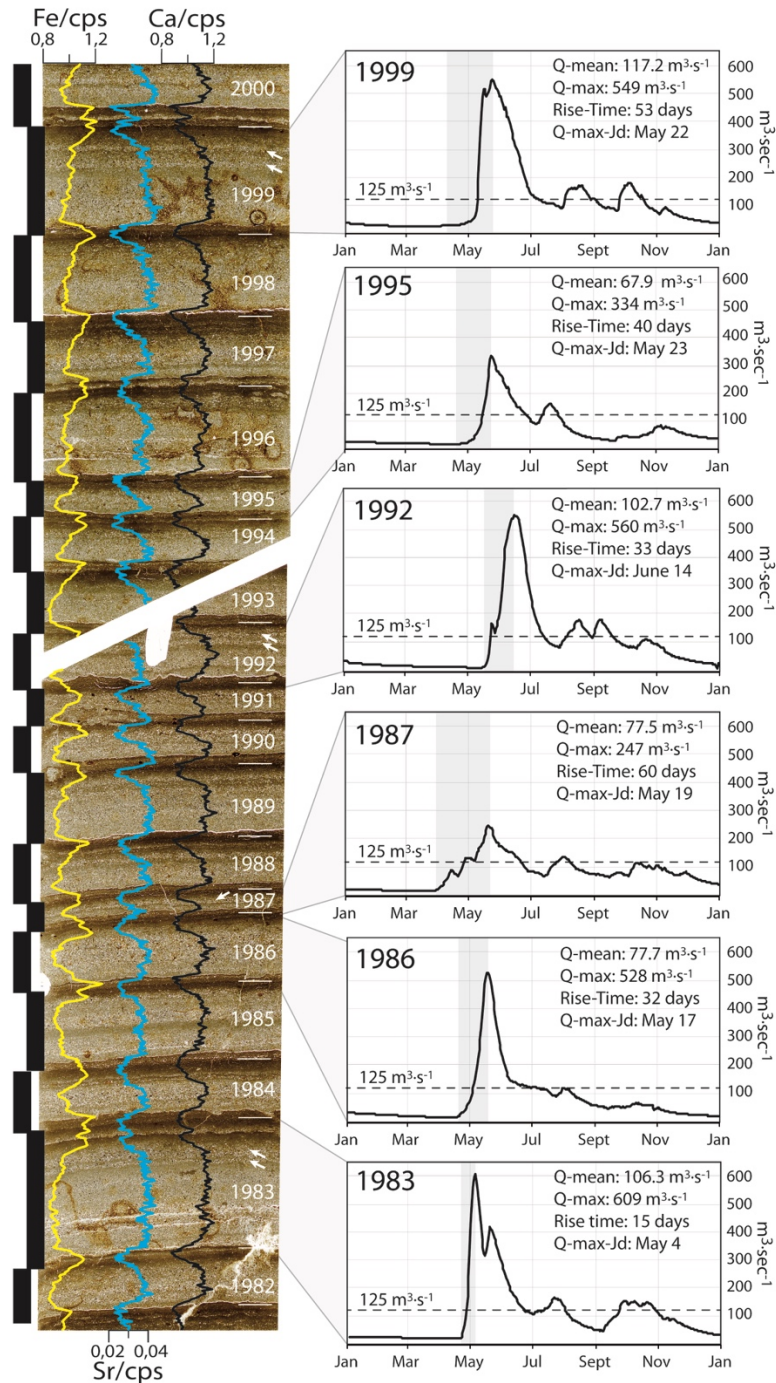
595 **5.1 Grand Lake varve formation**

596 Lakes containing well-defined and continuous varved sequences that allow the
597 establishment of an internal chronology are rare in boreal regions. However, the great depth
598 of Grand Lake, the availability of fine sediments in its watershed due to the glacial and
599 postglacial history of the region (Trottier et al., 2020), as well as its important seasonal
600 river inflow have favoured the formation and preservation of exquisite and thick varves.
601 The seasonal streamflow regime plays a significant role in the annual cycle of
602 sedimentation in Grand Lake and is responsible for the formation of the three distinct varve
603 layers. Due to the thickness and the clarity of the varve structures, it is possible to infer the
604 deposition mechanism for each layer and the season in which they were deposited.

605

606 The early spring layers are interpreted to be deposited during the river and lake ice break-
607 up and disintegration period, when erosion and resuspension of fine-grained sediments are
608 initiated but still low. Available Landsat-8 images of Grand Lake covering the 1983-2018
609 period (courtesy of the U.S. Geological Survey) shows that Grand Lake ice cover starts to
610 melt at the Naskaupi and Beaver River mouths. This ice melting pattern creates open bays
611 where drifting floating ice melts, thus depositing ice-rafted debris (Lamoureux 1999, 2004)
612 as observed in the early spring layer facies. The overlying detrital layers are interpreted as
613 flood-induced turbidites deposited at the lake bottom during the open-water season. High
614 energy sediment-laden river flows produce hyperpycnal flows allowing silt and sand-size
615 sediments to reach the cored sites (Cockburn and Lamoureux, 2008). The sharp contact
616 boundary between the early spring layer and the detrital layer at the top part of the early
617 spring layer supports the hypothesis that the detrital layers originate from underflows
618 (Mangili et al., 2005). The sediment waves on the Naskaupi and Beaver river delta slopes
619 (Trottier et al., 2020) (Fig. 1b, c) also indicate significant downstream sediment transport
620 by supercritical density flows (Normandeau et al., 2016). The thick and grading upward
621 basal part of the detrital layers are deposited during the high spring discharge period
622 generated by snowmelt runoffs. The lack of erosion marks between the early spring layer
623 and the detrital layer and the incorporation of rare cohesive sediment clasts within the
624 detrital layer suggests that erosion of the underlying early spring layers occurs in more

625 proximal and energetic settings. Three observations justify the combination of varve
626 measurements from the 3 coring sites : 1) the sedimentary processes inferred from the
627 observation of thin-sections, the high resolution bathymetric and the sub-bottom surveys
628 are similar; (2) the similarity of the varve facies and properties for each single year at the
629 3 different sites suggest a sedimentary pattern devoid of disturbances due to local factors;
630 (3) Grains-size differences are too subtle to infer different sedimentary processes and
631 environments. The upper part of varve structure in core NAS-1 show the most perceptible
632 different after 1972 (see discussion below). In spring, river discharge reaches its annual
633 peaks and sediment transport capacities that are then no longer reached during the rest of
634 the summer and autumn (Fig. 2, 3c, 11). However, the presence of thin coarser intercalated
635 sub-layers in the upper part of the detrital layer indicates that some rainfall events, as
636 observed in Fig. 11 (i.e., 1983, 1987, 1992, 1999) also contribute to deposition of sediments
637 in this layer. The overlying autumn and winter layer resulted from the settling and
638 flocculation of fine particles in non-turbulent condition from fall through the onset of lake
639 ice, forming a typical clay cap.



640

641 *Figure 11. Qualitative comparison between NAS-1A varves from thin-sections (delimited by the black bars)*
 642 *with the hydrographs of the Naskaupi River. Observed annual Q-mean and Q-max as well as the timing and*
 643 *rise time of the peak spring discharge are shown. Black dotted lines represent the discharge threshold of*
 644 *~125 m³·sec⁻¹. (1999, 1992, 1986, 1983) Strong spring floods associated with thick coarse varves. (1995,*
 645 *1987) Low spring floods associated with thin varves. (1999, 1992, 1987, 1983) Coarser intercalated sub-*
 646 *layers in the upper part of the detrital layer linked with summer and autumn high-discharge events. (1986)*
 647 *Strong spring flood with a low summer and autumn flow associated to a varve without substructure. Thin-*
 648 *sections are overlain by iron (Fe: yellow line), strontium (Sr: blue line), and calcium (Ca: black line) relative*
 649 *intensities. See Fig. 5 for thin-sections locations.*

650 **5.2 Anthropogenic influences on recent sedimentation**

651 Anthropogenic environmental impacts on watersheds can be preserved in varved lake
652 sediments (Zolitschka et al., 2015; Saarni et al., 2016; Czymzik et al., 2018). Changes
653 observed in physical parameters of the varves deposited pre- and post-1971 at the NAS
654 sites suggest that the effect of the dyke system on the Naskaupi River sediment inputs is
655 perceptible in the Grand Lake varved sequence. The well-developed layers of varves
656 deposited prior to 1972 from sites NAS-1 (Fig. 6b) and NAS-2, and the similarity between
657 TVT and DLT values and variations among all sites over the 1856-1971 period (Fig. 6d)
658 indicate that before the Naskaupi River diversion, seasonal sedimentation cycles appeared
659 to have reached a relative state of equilibrium. The reduction of nearly half of the area of
660 the Naskaupi River watershed due to its diversion in April 1971, reduced the water inflows
661 and changed the base level of the downstream river system. The rapid base level fall must
662 have triggered modifications of the fluvial dynamics from late-spring to winter 1971 (i.e.,
663 channel incision, bank destabilization, and upstream knickpoint migration), likely
664 increasing the availability of sediments in the river system. The Naskaupi River
665 spring/summer/autumn flood(s) of 1972 have then remobilized and transported a large
666 amount of newly available floodplain sediments. This major sediment discharge plunged
667 in Grand Lake and extended as hyperpycnal flow in the axis of the Naskaupi River
668 depositing a thick and coarse-grained turbidite following the lake bathymetry. This 1972
669 marker bed suggests that the Naskaupi River diversion had an impact on sedimentation at
670 sites NAS-1 and NAS-2.

671

672 The thin early spring layers free of ice-rafted debris in varve post-1971 of core NAS-1 (Fig.
673 5a, 11) and NAS-2 indicate the decrease of the capacity of early spring discharge to
674 transport fine sediments and its ability to float ice to Grand Lake (see section 4.1) due to
675 the reduction in water supplies caused by the Naskaupi River diversion. The increase in
676 thickness and particle size values of the detrital layers post-1971 in core NAS-1 (Fig. 5a,
677 6b, 7b, 11) suggest that the diversion has affected sedimentation at this site over time.
678 During the 1972-2016 period, the river floodplain morphology must have been in a re-
679 equilibration phase favourable to erosion, sediment transport, and deposition of thicker and
680 coarser detrital layers. Since the river diversion, detrital layers at NAS-1 site appears to

681 have become more sensitive to maximum spring discharges variations than mean annual
682 discharges. The sensitivity of the more proximal NAS-1 site to Naskaupi River extreme
683 discharges variability may partly explain why better results are obtained without the 1972-
684 2016 period to reconstruct Q-mean and by keeping this period to the Q-max reconstruction.
685 The negative correlation between P99D₀ of the core NAS-1 and the timing and rise time of
686 spring discharge (Table 3) also demonstrate reactivity to spring entrainment energy
687 conditions at this site. The distal NAS-2 site shows that post-1971, sedimentation seems to
688 have slightly lost sensitivity to river discharge, and that sediment input continued to decline
689 at the beginning of the deep lake basin. The increase in sediment input at the site NAS-1
690 after 1971, contrasts with the decrease in sediment input at the site NAS-2. This recent
691 difference in sedimentation between these two sites could be explained by the increased
692 availability of sediments for erosion in the floodplain, which would have favoured the
693 accumulation of additional sediments mainly on the front of the delta (NAS-1), while the
694 reduction in maximum discharges due to a smaller watershed would have resulted in a
695 decrease in the river's transport capacity to the site NAS-2.

696

697 It is indeed tempting to link the decrease of varve thickness in core NAS-2 over the 1972-
698 2016 period with the discharge reduction due to the river diversion. However, similarities
699 with core BEA-1, a site devoid of anthropogenic perturbations (unaffected by the Naskaupi
700 River diversion) which also shows a decline in varve thickness, suggest that this decrease
701 can potentially be due to natural hydro-climatic conditions. The observed Naskaupi River
702 Q-mean series also show a decrease on the 1978-2011 period. Indeed, because of the distant
703 location of site BEA-1 from the Naskaupi River mouth, the diversion is most likely not
704 responsible for the decrease of varve thickness in this sector. Moreover, it is quite unlikely
705 that the sedimentary input from the Naskaupi River contributed to sediment accumulation
706 at the mouth of the Beaver River. The absence of any traces of the 1972 marker bed at the
707 Beaver River mouth (BEA-1) supports this hypothesis. Furthermore, the thickness decrease
708 observed in BEA-1 began after ~1920 (Fig. 6a), which is before the 1971 diversion.

709

710 Anthropogenic modification of the Naskaupi River watershed makes it challenging to
711 discuss natural hydroclimate-related variations before and after 1971. Some caution should

712 be applied when comparing pre- to post 1972 reconstructions, given the changes in
713 watershed conditions that happened after the construction of the system of dykes. There is
714 no instrumental data available for the Naskaupi River watershed before 1971 to confirm
715 that the calibration model post-diversion (1978-2011) is similarly robust for the preceding
716 period. The river diversion affected the Naskaupi River sedimentation dynamics but did
717 not modify it drastically. Despite the observed post-diversion changes in varves' physical
718 parameters in cores NAS-1 and NAS-2, which are however moderate, the varves still
719 responded directly to variations in river discharge. In addition, the part of the watershed
720 that has been diverted is an area composed mainly of lakes, which are not very
721 hydrologically reactive.

722 **5.3 The hydrological signal in the varve record**

723 The significant correlations between continuous varve thickness and particle size
724 measurements with instrumental hydrological variables (Tab. 3) show that Grand Lake
725 varved sediments are reliable proxies to reconstruct past hydrologic conditions through
726 time at the annual to seasonal scale. The thick and/or coarse-grained varves correspond
727 well to years of high river discharges, whereas thin and/or fine-grained varves are related
728 with years of low discharge. Moreover, figure 11 clearly demonstrates how Grand Lake
729 varve record can be exploited to examine the interaction between meteorological
730 conditions and rivers discharge at an inter-seasonal scale, which is a temporal resolution
731 rarely obtained with natural proxies.

732

733 Data from the 3 sites were combined in order to better capture the regional hydrological
734 signal and to somehow attenuate the noise that is inherent from the analysis of a single core
735 in a very large lake. A single core will be more sensitive to local specificities and is
736 probably less representative of the entire hydrogram. The Beaver and the Naskaupi Rivers
737 have adjacent catchments that share the same climatological and geological characteristics,
738 while the Beaver River's catchment is devoid of anthropogenic modifications. The
739 combination of varve parameters from different coring sites with distinct sediment sources
740 (Fig. 1b) improved the correlations with local and regional hydrological variables (Tab. 3)
741 and thereby the reconstructions (Fig. 8, 9). By integrating the core BEA into the combined

742 data, it allows to capture the hydrological signal from a larger region (Naskaupi + Beaver
743 watersheds) and it helps to capture the natural hydrological signal in our combined series
744 used for reconstructions.

745

746 As demonstrated by previous studies on varved sediments, the use of both varve thickness
747 and particle size analysis allows for a more specific investigation of the range of
748 hydroclimate conditions recorded within varves (Francus et al., 2002; Cockburn and
749 Lamoureux, 2008; Lapointe et al., 2012). For Grand Lake, the combined DLT is found to
750 be the best proxy to reconstruct all hydrological events occurring throughout the year (Q-
751 mean). DLT series are better at predicting Q-mean because the early spring layers and
752 autumn and winter layers thickness are more variable and are included in the TVT
753 measurements. This variability can be linked to specific climatic and geomorphological
754 parameters such as the duration of ice cover on Grand Lake and the Naskaupi River ice
755 breakup processes which induce noise in the hydrologic signal contained in TVT series.
756 The combined P99D₀ yields the strongest correlation in our dataset (Tab. 3) and is the best
757 proxy to reconstruct maximum annual discharges (Q-max). This result is logical because
758 the peak discharge is controlling the competence of the river and consequently the size of
759 the particles that can be transported. Moreover, this indicator is not sensitive to sediment
760 compaction, which may affect other proxies based on thickness.

761

762 The significant positive correlations between varve physical parameters and Q-max and Q-
763 nival (Tab. 3) demonstrate that Grand Lake varve predominantly reflects spring discharge
764 conditions (e.g., Ojala and Alenius 2005; Lamoureux et al., 2006; Saarni et al., 2016;
765 Czymzik et al., 2018), which is the major component of the regional streamflow regimes
766 classified as nival (snowmelt-dominated) (Bonsal et al., 2019). In boreal regions, the
767 intensity and length of spring floods are controlled by the snow accumulation during winter
768 and by the temperature of the melting period (Hardy et al., 1996; Snowball et al., 1999;
769 Cockburn and Lamoureux, 2008; Ojala et al., 2013; Saarni et al., 2017). The negative
770 correlation between P99D₀ of the NAS-1 and the timing and rise time of spring discharge
771 suggests that early spring flows that increase rapidly are conducive conditions for high
772 entrainment energy and the deposition of coarser laminations on the distal part of the delta

773 slope (Fig. 11; site NAS-1). The erosion of detrital materials in early spring increases when
774 the snowmelt runoffs occur on soils that are not yet stabilized and protected by vegetation
775 (Ojala and Alenius 2005, Czymzik et al., 2018).

776

777 Intercalated sub-layers in the upper part of the detrital layer are interpreted to be produced
778 by summer or fall rainfall events (Fig. 11). Yet, the significant positive correlations
779 between varve thickness and Nb-days-SupQ80 suggests that a daily discharge of $\sim 125 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$
780 ¹ represents an approximate threshold above which the deposition of coarse sediments in
781 Grand Lake (detrital layers) is more likely to occur (Fig. 11) (e.g., Czymzik et al., 2010,
782 Kämpf et al., 2014). According to the instrumental data (Fig. 2, 11), such a discharge can
783 be generated during the summer/autumn period, confirming that rainfall events can indeed
784 be triggering the deposition of thin intercalated sub-layers observed in the upper part of the
785 detrital layers (Fig. 11).

786

787 The comparison between the Naskaupi River hydrological variables and other Labrador
788 hydrometric stations (Fig. 3) show that a coherent regional hydrological pattern exists in
789 the Labrador region. The performed regional Q-mean reconstitution and validation (Fig. 9)
790 indicated that the Labrador region hydrologic signal is recorded in the Grand Lake varve
791 sequence. The local and regional Q-mean reconstructed from the combined DLT series
792 (without the NAS-1 1972-2016 period) suggest a statistically significant decreasing trend
793 in mean annual discharge during the last 90 years. Naskaupi River Q-mean and Q-max
794 reconstructions based on both varve series and rainfall-runoff modelling revealed high
795 value periods from 1975 to 1985 and 1995 to 2005, and low values from 1986 to 1994 and
796 2006 to 2016 (Fig. 10). These results agree with the downward trend of the annual
797 streamflow observed in eastern Canada during the 20th century in other studies and also
798 with the reported higher river discharges from 1970 to 1979 and 1990 to 2007, and lower
799 discharges from 1980 to 1989 (Zhang et al. 2001; Sveinsson et al., 2008; Jandhyala et al.,
800 2009; Déry et al., 2009; Mortsch et al., 2015; Dinis et al., 2019).

801

802 In addition to providing a new high-quality varved record in eastern Canada, this research
803 highlights the complementarity between palaeohydrological reconstructions extracted

804 from clastic varved sediments and rainfall-runoff modelling. Both methods independently
805 offer a similar, yet robust, centennial perspective on river discharge variability in an
806 important region for the economic and sustainable development of water resources in
807 Canada. Reconstructed long-term mean and maximum annual river discharges series
808 provide valuable quantitative information particularly for water supply management for
809 hydropower generation and the estimation of flood and drought hazards. The varved
810 sediment of Grand Lake also allows documenting the effect of dyke systems on the
811 downstream sediment transport dynamic into a watershed and its implication for
812 palaeohydrological reconstruction. Further investigation of the impacts of the Naskaupi
813 watershed reduction on sediment transport could help better refine these reconstructions.
814 Future work in Grand Lake should be directed towards the high-resolution analysis of long
815 sediment cores in order to produce longer reconstructions. The Grand Lake deeper varved
816 sequence potentially recorded the hydro-climatic variability that occurred during the Late
817 Holocene in region sensitive to the North Atlantic climate, allowing interesting prospects
818 into large-scale atmospheric and oceanic modes of variability.

819

820 **6. Conclusions**

821 The great depth of Grand Lake, the availability of fine sediments along its tributaries, and
822 its important seasonal river inflow have favoured the formation and preservation of fluvial
823 clastic laminated sediments. By using a new varved record in eastern Canada and a rainfall-
824 runoff modelling approach, this paper provides a better understanding of the recording of
825 hydrological conditions in large and deep boreal lakes and allows extending the discharge
826 series beyond the instrumental period as well as the spatial coverage of the rare annual
827 palaeohydrological proxies in North America. The key results of this study are:

- 828 • The annual character of the 160 years-long lamination sequence has been confirmed.
829 Each varve, composed of an early spring layer, a summer/autumn detrital layer and an
830 autumn and winter layer, represents one hydrological year.
- 831 • Grand Lake varve formation is mainly related to the largest hydrological event of the
832 year, the spring discharge, with contributions from summer and autumn rainfall events.
- 833 • Two hydrological parameters, the Naskaupi river Q-mean and Q-max annual
834 discharges, are robustly reconstructed from two independent varves physical

835 parameters, i.e., the detrital layer thickness (DLT) and grain size (P99D₀) respectively,
836 over the 1856-2016 period. The reconstructed Q-mean series suggest that high Q-mean
837 years occurred during the 1920-1960 period and a decrease in Q-mean takes place
838 during the second half of the 20th century.

- 839 • The same two hydrological parameters (Q-mean and Q-max), were also reconstructed
840 using the ANATEM rainfall-runoff modelling. ANATEM discharges series show
841 similarities with reconstructions based on the varved series, which support the
842 reliability of the two independent reconstruction approaches.
- 843 • The statistically significant relation between combined DLT series and the observed
844 Labrador region Q-mean series, extracted from five watersheds of different size and
845 location, demonstrates that Grand Lake varved sequence can also be used as a proxy of
846 regional river discharges conditions.
- 847 • The effects of Naskaupi River dyking in 1971 are clearly visible in the sedimentary
848 record and affected sedimentary patterns afterwards. While this event makes the
849 hydroclimatic reconstruction trickier, it remains that the outstanding quality of this
850 varved sequence provides one of the best hydroclimatic reconstruction from a
851 sedimentary record, with Pearson correlation coefficients up to $r = 0.75$.

852

853 **Data availability**

854 The dataset used in this study can be found at <https://doi.org/10.5683/SP2/SAI39X>. The
855 Labrador hydrometric station data used in this study come from a Government of Canada
856 website (<https://wateroffice.ec.gc.ca>).

857

858 **Author contributions**

859 This study is part of AGP's thesis under the supervision of PF and PL. AT and PL provided
860 geophysical data (Fig. 1b, c) and useful information on the morpho-stratigraphical
861 framework of Grand Lake. AGP and DF conducted the coring fieldtrip. AGP and PB
862 collected instrumental data. PB calculated hydrological variables from instrumental data
863 (Fig. 3) and performed the rainfall-runoff modelling. HD and AGP adapted the code used
864 to establish the relationship between the varve parameters and the instrumental data and
865 for the regression model. AGP performed most of the data analysis, wrote the manuscript
866 and created the figures with contributions from PF and PB. All authors provided valuable
867 feedback and contributed to the improvement of the manuscript.

868

869 **Competing interests**

870 The author Pierre Francus is a member of the editorial board of the journal.

871

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