

1 **Macrophyte cover type and groundwater as the key drivers of the**
2 **extremely high organic carbon concentration of soda pans**
3

4 Emil Boros^{1*}, Katalin V.-Balogh², Bianka Csitári^{3,4}, Lajos Vörös², Anna J. Székely⁴

5
6 ¹ GINOP Sustainable Ecosystems Group, Danube Research Institute, MTA Centre for
7 Ecological Research, Danube Research Institute, Klebelsberg Kuno str. 3. P.O. Box 35, H-
8 8237 Tihany, Hungary

9 ² Balaton Limnological Institute, MTA Centre for Ecological Research, Klebelsberg Kuno str.
10 3. P.O. Box 35, H-8237 Tihany, Hungary

11 ³ Department of Microbiology, ELTE Eötvös Loránd University, Pázmány Péter stny. 1/c., H-
12 1117 Budapest, Hungary

13 ⁴ Evolutionary Biology Centre, Limnology, Uppsala University, Norbyvägen 18 D, SE-752
14 36 Uppsala, Sweden

15
16 *Corresponding author; E-mail: drborose@gmail.com; boros.emil@okologia.mta.hu;
17
18

19 Summary

20

21 1. Endorheic soda pans are among the aquatic systems that have the highest dissolved
22 organic carbon (DOC) content on the planet with concentrations reaching values close
23 to 1 g L⁻¹. Considering the importance of inland waters in the global carbon cycle, the
24 understanding of the drivers of such outstanding aquatic organic carbon pools is
25 eminent. The soda pans of the Carpathian Basin present a wide variability of biotic and
26 abiotic characteristics that provides an adequate system to assess the determinants of
27 the extreme high DOC concentrations of soda pans. Here we demonstrate through a
28 multisite comparison, a multiyear seasonal monitoring, and a laboratory experiment that
29 the dissolved organic matter content of the highest DOC concentration soda pans is
30 primarily of groundwater and emergent macrophyte origin.

31 2. More precisely, the multisite comparison of 14 soda pans revealed that the variation of
32 colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) content of the pans is partially explained by
33 the CDOM content (21% of variation) and conductivity (14%) of the local groundwater
34 indicating significant role of allochthonous terrestrial DOC sources. However, 46% of
35 the variation in CDOM content of the studied soda pans could be accounted for the
36 dominant type of emergent macrophyte with *Bolboshoenus maritimus* dominated
37 macrophyte cover leading to higher CDOM content than *Phragmites australis*.

38 3. In line with the results of the multisite comparison, we demonstrated by a decomposition
39 experiment that both *B. maritimus* and *P. australis* have the potential to release
40 substantial amount of organic matter into soda pans. However, the organic matter
41 release of *B. maritimus* is much more intensive than that of *P. australis* leading to twice
42 as high DOC and 3.5-times higher CDOM concentrations. In general, considering
43 previous organic matter release studies we concluded that *P. australis* is a relatively low

44 organic matter releaser emergent macrophyte, and therefore the species composition of
45 emergent macrophytes has to be considered in autochthonous plant-derived DOM
46 estimations.

47 4. Finally, the multi-year seasonal monitoring of two distinctive soda pans showed that the
48 high organic matter concentrations of the pans depends not only on their intrinsic
49 characteristics but also on interannual variability. More precisely, we demonstrated that
50 the highest CDOM and DOC concentrations occurred in a colored (i.e., brown, low
51 TSS) soda pan that had extensive (95%) macrophyte cover dominated by *B. maritimus*
52 in a period characterized by high pH due to low water levels, which were presumably
53 the consequence of increased evaporation due to decreased precipitation and above
54 average temperature. Considering the trends of climate change in Central-Europe (i.e.,
55 increased temperature and modified precipitation regimes), our results indicate that
56 extremely high organic matter concentrations in soda pans might become more frequent
57 in the near future.

58

59 *Keywords:* high pH, DOM, groundwater effect, emergent macrophytes, interannual variability

60

61 **Introduction**

62

63 As inland waters receive, process, store and emit carbon in globally significant amounts (Cole
64 *et al.*, 2007), mapping active carbon in even the smallest aquatic systems is necessary for
65 accurate global estimates of carbon cycling (Tranvik, Cole & Prairie, 2018). Dissolved organic
66 matter (DOM) is quantitatively the most significant pool of organic carbon in aquatic systems,
67 which is either derived from terrestrial sources (i.e., allochthonous organic matter) or from
68 biological material produced *in situ* by phytoplankton and macrophytes (i.e., autochthonous
69 OM) (Williamson *et al.*, 1999; Zhang *et al.*, 2013). Terrestrial DOM can reach surface waters
70 via surface inflow or runoff as well as via groundwater seepage (Wetzel, 2001; Grabs *et al.*,
71 2012; Einarsdottir, Wallin & Sobek, 2017). Therefore, the quantity and quality of DOM in
72 inland waters is not only influenced by internal processes but also by the characteristics of the
73 catchment area (e.g., vegetation, soil type, hydrology) (Wetzel, 2001; Kothawala *et al.*, 2014;
74 Sepp *et al.*, 2019).

75 In inland waters DOM is considered to be dominated (15–80%) by soluble humic substances
76 (i.e., fluvic acids and humic acids). While fulvic acids are soluble at any pH, the solubility of
77 humic acids depends on pH with no dissolution at lower pH ($\text{pH} < 2$) and complete solubility
78 at pH 13 (Aiken *et al.*, 1985). The pH of the water also affects the properties of the dissolved
79 humic substances with more aromatic and aliphatic humic acids being dissolved at higher pH
80 (Baglieri *et al.*, 2014). Humic acids also contribute to the fluorescence signal of colored
81 (chromophoric) DOM (CDOM) (Lapierre & Frenette, 2009). Generally, allochthonous DOM
82 is composed of more recalcitrant and highly colored humic substances than phytoplankton
83 produced autochthonous DOM (Tranvik L. J., 1988; Wetzel, 2001). However, the refractory
84 plant-derived CDOM can also originate from autochthonous sources such as littoral marshland
85 vegetation (i.e., emergent macrophytes) (Lapierre & Frenette, 2009). Humic substances are

86 considered to be recalcitrant due to their aromatic core, which is relatively resistant to microbial
87 degradation (Kellerman *et al.*, 2015). However, it has been shown that terrestrial carbon can be
88 substantial contributor to microbial biomass (Guillemette, McCallister & del Giorgio, 2015).
89 The global mean of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration of lakes has been
90 determined to be 5.02 mg L⁻¹ (equivalent of 5.58 mg L⁻¹ total organic carbon) and influenced
91 by climatic factors (Chen *et al.*, 2015) as well as watershed characteristics (Sobek *et al.*, 2007).
92 Although the globally most abundant shallow lakes (Downing *et al.*, 2006; Verpoorter *et al.*,
93 2014) have been shown to have double mean DOC concentration than deep lakes (6.56 and
94 3.12 mg L⁻¹, respectively) (Chen *et al.*, 2015), the 90 mg L⁻¹ mean DOC concentration of soda
95 lakes can be considered as extreme even when compared to other highly productive aquatic
96 systems such as eutrophic lakes, marshes or bogs (Fig. 1a). In addition, when looking at single
97 measurements, soda pans are very likely the global record holders in DOC as occasionally DOC
98 concentrations close to 1 g L⁻¹ have been reported (Lake Nakuru: 980 mg L⁻¹ (Jirsa *et al.*, 2013);
99 Sósér: 988 mg L⁻¹ (Boros *et al.*, 2016) (Fig. 1b).

100 Soda lakes and pans can be found on all continents except Antarctica and represent the most
101 alkaline natural environments on Earth (Grant & Sorokin, 2011). Soda lakes are formed in
102 endorheic basins (i.e., limited drainage basins), where evaporation exceeds water outflow
103 (Warren, 2006) and the levels of calcium (Ca²⁺) and magnesium (Mg²⁺) are low, while sodium
104 (Na⁺) and carbonate species (HCO₃⁻ + CO₃²⁻) are high (Boros & Kolpakova, 2018). Within
105 Europe—to the best of our knowledge—soda pans are restricted to the Carpathian Basin and
106 are found only in Austria, Hungary and Serbia. The climatic conditions of the region (i.e.,
107 continental with influence of both oceanic and Mediterranean climate) in combination with the
108 shallowness of the pans cause high fluctuation in respect of water level and temperature. Water
109 level fluctuation is of particular interest as it results in intermittent hydroperiods for many pans
110 and affects the concentration of both organic and inorganic compounds. In the case of soda pans

111 of the Carpathian basin, groundwater inflow typically exceeds the surface-related watershed
112 inflow and precipitation (Boros, Ecsedi & Oláh, 2013). The analysis of 84 soda pans of the
113 region showed that many pans have extremely high DOC and CDOM concentrations (DOC:
114 median = 47; range: 20–664 mg L⁻¹; CDOM: median = 310; range: 20–7,100 mg Pt L⁻¹), which
115 indicates polyhumic (CDOM > 90 mg Pt L⁻¹) character (Boros *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore,
116 extreme high DOC concentrations have also been recorded (Fig. 1b) (Boros *et al.*, 2016).
117 Positive correlation between DOC and CDOM has been determined before for Carpathian soda
118 pans (V.-Balogh *et al.*, 2009; Boros *et al.*, 2013; 2016; 2017), while—despite the pH-dependent
119 solubility of humic substances—correlation between pH and DOC has not been demonstrated
120 (Boros *et al.*, 2017).

121 Although high organic matter content is an inherent property of most soda lakes and pans, the
122 regulators of CDOM variation across soda pans are understudied and the causes of extremely
123 high DOC and CDOM concentrations such as those measured in the pans of the Carpathian
124 basin, are not properly understood. Therefore, in this study we aim to identify and test the main
125 sources of CDOM and DOC in polyhumic soda pans. Namely, we hypothesize that CDOM
126 concentration of polyhumic soda pans is positively affected by the allochthonous CDOM
127 concentrations of local groundwater and the extent of emergent macrophyte cover.
128 Furthermore, based on our earlier observations (Boros *et al.*, 2017), we hypothesize that the
129 species composition of the autochthonous emergent macrophytes influences CDOM content
130 with cosmopolitan bulrush (*Bolboshoenus maritimus* (L.) Palla, Cyperaceae) dominated cover
131 leading to higher CDOM concentrations than common reed (*Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin.
132 ex Steud., Poaceae) dominated cover. To disentangle the effect of different macrophyte species
133 on CDOM and DOC concentrations, experimental assessment of the amount and ratio of
134 CDOM and DOC released from *P. australis* and *B. maritimus* was performed. Finally, to
135 identify the environmental conditions that lead to extreme DOC and CDOM values in soda

136 pans, seasonal monitoring of a turbid and a colored polyhumic soda pans was conducted in two
137 separate years.

138

139 **Methods**

140 *Study sites and sampling*

141 The soda pans studied in this work are located in the central area of the Carpathian Basin, on
142 the interfluvial area of the Danube and Tisza rivers (Fig. 2). The water budget of the soda pans
143 in this area is highly influenced by evaporation, precipitation and groundwater influx, while the
144 surface water inflow from the watershed is negligible as usually no major watercourse enters
145 these systems (Boros *et al.*, 2013). The primary source of the high Na–HCO₃–Cl⁻ content of the
146 soda pans of the region is the discharge from upwelling deep saline groundwater, which is
147 enhanced in the pans by evaporation (Simon *et al.*, 2011). These soda pans can be categorized
148 into two groups based on their optical characteristics: the turbid type, where inorganic
149 suspended solids (ISS) are the main cause of turbidity or more precisely, the contribution of
150 ISS to light attenuation (K_d) exceeds 50%, and the colored (brown) type, where CDOM
151 contribution dominates K_d (> 50%) (Boros *et al.*, 2013). Submerged and floating macrophytes
152 are sparse or absent from the open water areas of both turbid and colored pans. However,
153 marshland vegetation (*Bolboschoeno-Phragmitetum*) characterized primarily by varying ratios
154 of emergent macrophyte species *B. maritimus* and *P. australis* can be found on their shoreline.
155 This study comprises of three parts: a multisite comparison of soda pans, a decomposition
156 experiment and a seasonal analysis of a turbid and a colored soda pan.

157 In the multisite comparison 14 natural pans were sampled between April and September of
158 2017 to assess the potential effect of groundwater and macrophytes on the organic matter
159 content. The pans were selected in order to cover a broad range in respect of turbidity, CDOM
160 and emergent macrophyte cover (Table 1). The coordinates of the location of the pans and the

161 groundwater wells are listed in Table S1. The chemical type of the pans was determined
162 following the guidelines of Boros & Kolpakova (2018). Two of the 14 pans were sampled in
163 the seasonal analysis: Zab-szék, a typical turbid pan (Table 1: Total Suspended Solids (TSS) =
164 1574 mg L⁻¹, CDOM = 364 mg Pt L⁻¹) and Sósér, a typical colored pan (TSS 83 mg L⁻¹,
165 CDOM = 2088 mg Pt L⁻¹) (Boros et al., 2013; 2016; 2017). The seasonal assessment of these
166 two pans was performed in 2014 and 2017 with samplings approximately every other week
167 from January to December in 2014 and from March to November in 2017. On two occasions in
168 2017 (11-Sep and 16-Oct) Zab-szék was completely dry, so no measurement was possible.
169 For all samplings water depth, conductivity and pH were determined on site in the open water
170 part of the pans using a centimeter-scale pole, and a WTW MultiLine P4 field instrument for
171 pH and conductivity, respectively. Samples were collected and transported to the lab for
172 CDOM, DOC, TSS, and fluorescence excitation emission matrix spectroscopy (EEMS)
173 measurement. The groundwater was assessed by sampling dug wells (mean depth: 3–5 meters)
174 located within 500 meters from the shoreline of each pan (Table 1). According to topographic
175 maps, all of the sampled wells were established decades ago. For the macrophyte DOM release
176 experiment, aboveground fraction of stems and leaves of *B. maritimus* and *P. australis*
177 specimens in their early senescing stage were collected from Sósér soda pan in October 2012.
178 After collection, the plant samples were washed with pan water and kept in clean plastic bags
179 and brought to the laboratory.

180

181 *Autochthonous emergent macrophyte cover assessment*

182 The cover of open water and marshland vegetation (*Bolboschoeno-Phragmitetum*) of pans and
183 the classification based on *P. australis* and *B. maritimus* ratio were estimated with remote-
184 sensing databases extracted from Google Satellite raster data via OpenLayers plugin and
185 complemented with local field observations in 2017. The GIS mapping procedure and spatial

186 calculations were carried out using ArcMap (Environmental Systems Research Institute 2013).
187 The proportion of emergent macrophyte cover (%) was calculated based on the ratio of open
188 water and macrophyte cover (ha) and the characteristic macrophyte type of each soda pan was
189 determined by estimation of the ratio of the most common species (*P. australis* and *B.*
190 *maritimus*). Pans with ratio of either species above 50% were classified as either *P. australis* or
191 *B. maritimus* dominated (Table 1).

192

193 *Experimental release of DOM from macrophytes*

194 In the laboratory the plant material was cut into 20-cm-long pieces, oven-dried to constant
195 weight at 35°C to avoid the destruction of the associated microbiome, and stored at room
196 temperature (23°C) until the experiment. Fifty grams of oven-dried plant material (stems and
197 leaves) were placed into 5-liter bottles. The bottles were filled with 3.5 l water (pH = 8.4)
198 collected from the well near Kelemen-szék (Table 1, N: 46.8012; E: 19.1717). The well-water
199 was filtered with pre-combusted GF-5 acid-washed glass fiber filter (pore size = 0.4 µm). The
200 DOC and CDOM concentration of the well water were determined as for other samples. The
201 incubation was performed in three replicates in the dark at room temperature (22-24 °C) for 29
202 days. The bottles were aerated with sterile-filtered atmospheric air and the dissolved oxygen
203 saturation ranged between 64% and 94% throughout the experiment. This aerobic treatment
204 was chosen, because an earlier study on *P. australis* showed that aerobic conditions are more
205 similar to the conditions in the field than anaerobic (V.-Balogh *et al.*, 2006). On days 0, 1, 4, 7,
206 11, 14, 18, 22, 25 and 29, 100 ml of water were sampled from the bottles for analyses. The
207 water volume of the samples was always replaced, consequently the water volume remained
208 constant during the experiment. All glassware used for sample collection and analytical
209 processes was acid-washed and Milli-Q water rinsed.

210

211 *CDOM, DOC, and TSS measurements*

212 The water samples were filtered as for the DOM release experiment and the concentration of
213 colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) was expressed as Pt (platina) units (mg Pt L^{-1}) using
214 absorbance (440 nm) measurements with a Shimadzu UV 160A spectrophotometer (Cuthbert
215 & del Giorgio, 1992). For DOC analyses, the filtered samples were acidified (to pH 2 with HCl)
216 and bubbled to remove dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), and DOC concentration was
217 measured by thermal catalysis at 1050 °C in an Elementar High TOC instrument equipped with
218 a platinum cartridge using synthetic air as carrier gas. The concentration of total suspended
219 solids (TSS) was measured by filtering water (100–2000 ml) through pre-dried and pre-weighed
220 cellulose acetate filters (pore size = 0.45 μm) followed by oven-drying at 105°C, and weighing
221 of dry filters using a CHYO YMC SM-200 analytical balance (accuracy 0.01 mg, precision
222 0.02 mg).

223

224 *Fluorescence Excitation Emission Matrix Spectroscopy*

225 During the 2017 seasonal comparison of Sósér and Zab-szék samples were collected for
226 dissolved organic matter (DOM) characterization using fluorescence excitation-emission
227 matrix spectroscopy (EEMS). The samples were filtered through a 0.1- μm pore size Millipore
228 Isopore Membrane Filters the same day and stored in combusted glassware at 4°C until
229 processing. EEMS profiles of the samples were determined as in Kothawala *et al.* (2014).
230 Briefly, excitation-emission matrices (EEM) were determined by measuring UV-visible
231 absorbance spectra using a Lambda 40 UV-visible spectrophotometer (Perkin Elmer, Waltham,
232 MA, United States) and measuring fluorescence emission using a fluorescence
233 spectrophotometer (SPEX FluoroMax-2, Horiba Jobin Yvon, Kyoto, Japan). Milli-Q water was
234 used as blank and its values were subtracted from the EEMs. Manufacturer supplied instrument
235 correction factors and the absorbance spectra were used for the correction of instrument and

236 filter biases, respectively, while fluorescence intensity was calibrated to the Raman area of the
237 blank water.

238

239 *Data analyses*

240 To assess the effect of macrophytes on the CDOM content of the pans, the amount of non-
241 groundwater related CDOM (i.e., CDOM_{diff}) was calculated by subtraction of the CDOM
242 concentration of the corresponding groundwater wells from the total CDOM concentration of
243 pans.

244 From the EEMS results three indicators have been calculated: fluorescence index (FI), freshness
245 index (FRESH), and humification index (HIX). The FI is used as an indicator of the source of
246 DOM: high FI ~1.8 indicates microbial and algal origin of DOM, while low FI ~1.2 suggests
247 terrestrial plant and soil derived DOM. The FRESH index is used as an estimator of how
248 recently the DOM has been produced ('freshness'). Finally, HIX indicates the humification of
249 DOM (i.e., amount of aromatic compounds) (Fellman, Hood & Spencer, 2010).

250 In the multisite comparison, the variables influencing CDOM concentration in the pans were
251 evaluated by a linear model. The relevant variables for the linear model were selected from
252 those in Table 1 (except the distance of the well to the corresponding pan) by backward
253 selection using Akaike information criterion (AIC) estimator (Table S2). The linear model was
254 checked for multicollinearity and the variables that had the highest generalized variance
255 inflation factor (GVIF) were stepwise removed until reaching a model where the squared degrees
256 of freedom corrected GVIFs ($(GVIF^{1/(2 \cdot Df)})^2$) were less than five (Table S3). Differences
257 of measured variables and linear models were tested by Welch's *t*-tests and Analyses of
258 Variance (ANOVA), respectively. Correlations between parameters were evaluated with
259 Pearson's correlation analyses. To meet the assumptions of normality of residuals of parametric
260 tests and the requirements of linear correlations data was log-transformed when needed.

261 Normality of residuals and variables was checked by Shapiro-Wilk test and visual analysis. In
262 the seasonal study the relationships over time of CDOM and DOC with TSS, water depth, pH,
263 conductivity and the EEMS indexes were assessed on monthly averaged data using cross-
264 correlation analyses (Zab-szék in 2017 was excluded from these analyses due to repeated
265 complete droughts). Prior analyses the autocorrelation of the variables was removed by
266 differencing the series with a lag of one. The successful removal of autocorrelation was
267 confirmed by the Ljung-Box test. The Spearman correlation, non-linear curve fitting for
268 Michaelis-Menten kinetic function, Mann-Whitney, and Kruskal-Wallis tests used to analyze
269 the DOM release experiment were performed using OriginPro 9 (OriginLab, Northampton,
270 MA), while the EEMs data were analyzed with MATLAB. All other analyses were performed
271 using the R environment for statistical computing (R Core Team, 2015).

272

273 **Results**

274 *Multisite comparison of the effect of groundwater and macrophytes*

275 The identity, optical category (i.e., turbid or colored), chemical type (i.e., category based on
276 ionic composition, Boros & Kolpakova, 2018), TSS as a measure of turbidity, emergent
277 macrophyte cover and type (i.e., *Bolboschoeno* or *Phragmitetum* dominated), and the shortest
278 distance between the sampled groundwater wells and the shoreline of the corresponding pans
279 are listed in Table 1. The CDOM concentration was almost always higher in the pan (median =
280 287.6 mg Pt L⁻¹) than in the corresponding groundwater well (median = 112.2 mg Pt L⁻¹; paired
281 t-test logCDOM: $t = 3.912$; $p = 0.002$; Fig 3a). The pH of each pan (median = 9.28) was also
282 significantly higher than the pH of the corresponding well (median = 8.60; paired t-test $t =$
283 3.896, $p = 0.002$), while the difference between the conductivity of the pans and the
284 corresponding wells was not significant (median_{pans} = 3.0 g L⁻¹; median_{wells} = 1.8 g L⁻¹; paired
285 t-test $t = 2.086$, $p = 0.057$) (Table 1).

286 In the pans dominated by *B. maritimus* CDOM was slightly but not significantly higher than in
287 those dominated by *P. australis* (median_{*B.maritimus*} = 1059 mg Pt L⁻¹; median_{*P.australis*} = 253 mg
288 Pt L⁻¹; t-test t = 2.269, p = 0.053; Fig. 3c). In the case of the soda pan that completely lacked
289 macrophyte cover the CDOM concentration of the pan was very similar to the CDOM of the
290 groundwater well (Table 1: Unnamed pan). For both the pans dominated by *B. maritimus* and
291 *P. australis* CDOM concentration of the soda pans showed positive relationship to the CDOM
292 concentration of the wells (Fig. 3c), although this correlation was only significant in the case
293 *P. australis* dominated pans (Pearson's *B. maritimus*: r=0.643; p=0.168; *P. australis*: r=0.803;
294 p=0.029). For the pans with *B. maritimus* dominance the non-groundwater related CDOM_{diff}
295 (median=653.5 mg Pt L⁻¹) was also higher (t-test t = 2.603, p = 0.044) than for those dominated
296 by *P. australis* (median=114.94 mg Pt L⁻¹; Fig. 3b).

297 For the linear model, backward variable selection retained all assessed variables but the water
298 depth and the optical type (Table S2), while the chemical type and the pH of the pans were
299 removed to avoid collinearity (Table S3). The linear model using CDOM and pH of the wells,
300 conductivity of both pans and wells, TSS of then pans, and emergent macrophyte cover and
301 type (Table 1) explained 92.4% of the variation of CDOM content of the pans, and the ANOVA
302 (Fig. 3d, Table S4) revealed that the macrophyte type of the pans significantly explained 45.8%
303 of the variation (p = 0.004), while the CDOM content and the conductivity of the groundwater
304 wells significantly explained 21.2% (p = 0.006) and 13.9% (p = 0.012), respectively. The 9.8%
305 variance explained by the conductivity of the pans, and the 1.2% explained by the extent of the
306 emergent macrophyte cover was not significant (p = 0.052 and p = 0.416, respectively), while
307 the pH of the pans and TSS explained less than 1% and was not significant (p > 0.1).

308

309 *Experimental release of DOM from macrophytes*

310 After the 29-days-long incubation of the DOM release experiment, the plant material of *P.*
311 *australis* lost $7.33 \pm 0.15\%$ (3.66 ± 0.075 g) dry mass, while *B. maritimus* lost $10.28 \pm 2.79\%$
312 (5.14 ± 1.40 g). The initial CDOM concentration in the experimental bottles was 39.23 ± 2.22 mg
313 Pt L⁻¹ and by the end of the experiment it increased in average to 1190 mg Pt L⁻¹ and to 3900
314 mg Pt L⁻¹ for *P. australis* and *B. maritimus*, respectively. The total CDOM release from the
315 degraded plant material was 1136 mg Pt g⁻¹ dry weight loss and 2675 mg Pt g⁻¹ dry weight loss
316 for *P. australis* and *B. maritimus* respectively. According to the Michaelis-Menten kinetics, at
317 the end of the experiment the CDOM concentration was 90.9% and 86.7% of the possible
318 maximum (V_{\max}) for *P. australis* and *B. maritimus*, respectively (Fig. 4a).

319 The initial DOC concentration was 13.40 ± 0.099 mg L⁻¹ and by the end of the experiment
320 increased in average to 82 mg L⁻¹ and to 183 mg L⁻¹ for *P. australis* and *B. maritimus*
321 incubations, respectively. The total DOC released from the degraded plant material was 78 mg
322 g⁻¹ dry weight loss and 125 mg g⁻¹ dry weight loss for *P. australis* and *B. maritimus*,
323 respectively. According to the Michaelis-Menten kinetics, at the end of the experiment the DOC
324 concentration was 100.9% and 96.8% of the possible maximum (V_{\max}) for *P. australis* and *B.*
325 *maritimus*, respectively (Fig. 4b). The CDOM/DOC ratio increased linearly with significant
326 parameters from 9 to 14.5 and from 16 to 21 for *P. australis* and *B. maritimus*, respectively
327 (Fig. 4c).

328

329 *Seasonal comparison of a turbid and a colored pan*

330 As expected, the turbid Zab-szék had substantially higher turbidity than the colored Sósér soda
331 pan throughout most of the study period except for two timepoints in summer 2014 (Table 2,
332 Fig 5a). Water depth showed high variation in both pans (Fig 5b), although it was slightly higher
333 in Sósér than in Zab-szék (Table 2). Water depth changes also indicated that the hydrology of
334 the two studied years also followed different patterns as for both pans the beginning of the year

335 in 2014 was characterized by low water depth, which increased from September-October until
336 the end of the year. Meanwhile, in 2017 both pans had higher water levels at the beginning of
337 the year until August, when the water levels decreased and remained low until the end of the
338 study period (Fig 5b). Throughout the two years the pans differed in respect of pH but not
339 conductivity (Table 2, Fig 5c,d). Both CDOM and DOC were higher in Sósér pan than in Zab-
340 szék (Table 2, Fig 5e,f). The concentration of CDOM and DOC also differed between the two
341 years with higher values for both pans in 2014 than in 2017 (Table 2, Fig 5e,f) More precisely,
342 the highest CDOM and DOC levels were all measured in Sósér in 2014 between January and
343 August, which corresponded to the lowest water level period of the given year (Fig. 5b). In this
344 period the mean concentration of CDOM was 6,649 mg Pt L⁻¹ and 563 mg L⁻¹ for DOC, while
345 for the rest of the year was 1,294 mg Pt L⁻¹ and 111 mg L⁻¹ for CDOM and DOC, respectively.
346 The two pans also differed in respect of the indicators calculated from the EEMS (Fig 6). Sósér
347 had higher humification index (HIX) throughout the study period, while the freshness index
348 (FRESH) was higher at every timepoint in Zab-szék than in Sósér (Table 2, Fig 6b,c). In
349 addition, both pans had generally higher FRESH values in summer and Zab-szék had a
350 prominent FRESH peak in the beginning of summer (29-May) (Fig 6b). The fluorescence index
351 (FI) did not differ between the two pans (Table 2), although it showed much higher variation in
352 Zab-szék with prominent peaks in summer and autumn (Fig. 6a). For both pans the mean FI
353 index was close to the value expected for DOM of terrestrial and soil origin (Sósér: FI_{median} =
354 1.235; Zab-szék: FI_{median} = 1.236).

355 The cross-correlation analyses revealed that both CDOM and DOC were most strongly
356 correlated with TSS, depth, pH and conductivity measured at the same time (lag = 0) except for
357 DOC concentration in Zab-szék in 2014 and its correlation with TSS, depth and pH (Table S5).
358 In the case of Sósér, the lag = 0 correlations between DOC concentration and TSS, depth, pH
359 and conductivity were always significant (positive correlation with TSS, pH and conductivity,

360 and negative with mean)(Table 3). In Zab-szék DOC showed significant (positive) correlation
361 at lag = 0 only with depth and conductivity (Table 3), while for TSS only values measured 2
362 months earlier (lag = 2) showed significant positive correlation with actual DOC, and for pH
363 only values measured 5 months later (lag = -5) were significantly correlated with actual DOC
364 (Table S5). The CDOM concentration did not significantly correlate with the TSS of the pans,
365 while mean depth, pH and conductivity significantly correlated with CDOM in all cases but pH
366 in Sósér in 2017 and conductivity in Zab-szék in 2014. Interestingly, the sign of the correlations
367 with CDOM depended on the pan: in Sósér CDOM positively correlated with pH and
368 conductivity, and negatively with depth, while in Zab-szék CDOM negatively correlated with
369 pH and conductivity, and positively with depth. In the case of the EEMS indexes significant
370 correlations were only found for DOC in Sósér: FRESH showed significant positive correlation
371 with DOC measured the same time and HIX showed significant negative correlation with DOC
372 measured three months earlier (Table 3, Table S5). In the case of HIX the highest (non-
373 significant) correlations with CDOM in both pans were also detected with CDOM measured
374 three months earlier (Table S5).

375

376 **Discussion**

377 The results of our study indicate—as we hypothesized—that the CDOM variation in the soda
378 pans of the Carpathian basin is highly influenced by groundwater and the dominant species of
379 the macrophyte cover but—opposite to our hypothesis—it is not significantly driven by the
380 extent of the cover. Furthermore, we demonstrated that the variation of DOC and CDOM
381 concentrations of these pans is related to the variations in pH, conductivity and water depths,
382 and it is presumably influenced by yearly variations in hydroperiods and intrinsic pan properties
383 such as turbidity.

384

385 *Groundwater as allochthonous source of CDOM*

386 Plant-derived colored DOM in inland waters originates either from macrophytes or from
387 terrestrial vegetation of the watershed via surface or groundwater inflow (i.e., allochthonous
388 source) (V.-Balogh *et al.*, 1998; Wetzel, 2001; Lapierre & Frenette, 2009; Einarsdottir *et al.*,
389 2017). As no watercourse enters the endorheic intermittent soda pans studied here, the role of
390 surface inflow in their water budget is negligible (Boros *et al.*, 2013), and therefore their plant-
391 derived DOM content is expected to be primarily derived from macrophytes and groundwater
392 inflow. The multisite comparison of polyhumic soda pans demonstrated that the CDOM
393 concentration of pans is related to the CDOM concentration of groundwater (Fig. 3).
394 Groundwaters store and release carbon to surface waters in amounts that are meaningful for
395 global budgets (Downing & Striegl, 2018) and import of terrestrial carbon into lakes via
396 groundwater seepage has been shown to be substantial even in the case of boreal lakes with
397 hydrology dominated by surface water inflow (Einarsdottir *et al.*, 2017). In areas of lower relief,
398 shallow basins can be the focus of local discharge and evaporation from regionally extensive
399 groundwater systems (Deocampo & Jones, 2014) and modern continental evaporates like soda
400 lakes and pans typically accumulate within groundwater discharge (Warren, 2006). Such
401 groundwater driven hydrological processes have been also identified behind the formation of
402 soda pans of the Danube-Tisza Interfluve (Mádl-Szőnyi & Tóth, 2009; Simon *et al.*, 2011). The
403 groundwaters analyzed in this study had relatively high pH (median: 8.60, range: 7.02-9.56,
404 Table 1.), which—considering the pH-dependent dissolution of humic substances—is very
405 likely one of the reasons of their high CDOM content. Considering the high CDOM content of
406 local groundwaters and the importance of groundwater in the hydrology of the soda pans of the
407 region (Simon *et al.*, 2011), it is not surprising that groundwater CDOM explained a substantial
408 part of the variation of the CDOM concentration of the studied soda pans. Finally, the mean FI
409 indexes measured by EEMS in the seasonal monitoring were close to 1.2, which is considered

410 to indicate plant and soil derived organic matter (Fellman *et al.*, 2010) further enforcing the
411 partly terrestrial origin of the DOM of the pans.

412

413 *Autochthonous emergent macrophyte cover type influences CDOM content*

414 However, the relationship between CDOM content of the pans and the corresponding
415 groundwaters depended on the dominant type of emergent macrophytes of the pans with pans
416 dominated by *B. maritimus* having higher CDOM content than those dominated by *P. australis*
417 (Fig. 3). While in the case of lakes macrophyte derived DOC is considered to contribute only
418 to 1-20% of the total DOC, for wetlands and small lakes macrophytes role in the carbon budget
419 can be substantial (Sobek *et al.*, 2006; Reitsema, Meire & Schoelynck, 2018). However, in our
420 linear model macrophyte species dominance was much more important in explaining the
421 variance in CDOM content among the studied pans than the extent of the macrophyte cover
422 (45.8 vs 1.2% of variance explained, respectively). A possible explanation to this seemingly
423 surprising result is that in the multisite comparison we focused on CDOM and not total DOC,
424 which depends both on total DOC and the color of DOM. It has been shown that qualitatively
425 macrophyte-derived DOM depends on the type of macrophyte (Qu *et al.*, 2013). Accordingly,
426 it is reasonable that in the given dataset the dominant species of macrophytes is more important
427 in explaining the pans' CDOM content than the extent of emergent macrophyte cover.

428 The importance of the type of vegetation was corroborated by the results of the DOM release
429 experiment, which also showed that more than triple CDOM and more than double the amount
430 of DOC is released from *B. maritimus* than from *P. australis*. While DOM release from *P.*
431 *australis* has been studied before, to the best of our knowledge this is the first report for *B.*
432 *maritimus*. The DOC release results for *P. australis* presented here (82 mg L⁻¹) compare well
433 to those from a previous experiment conducted under similar conditions (75 mg L⁻¹) (V.-Balogh
434 *et al.*, 2006) indicating high reproducibility of our experiment. When compared to other

435 emergent macrophytes *P. australis* also released less DOC than crofton weed (*Eupatorium*
436 *adenophorum* (Spreng.) R.M.King & H.Rob., Asteraceae), water oats (*Zizania latifolia*
437 (Griseb.) Turcz., Poaceae), oriental pepper (*Polygonum orientale* (L.) Spach., Polygonaceae)
438 (Qu *et al.*, 2013), or seepweed (*Suaeda salsa* (L.) Pall., Amaranthaceae) (Qi, Xue & Wang,
439 2017). All these indicates that common reed (*P. australis*) is a relatively low DOC releasing
440 emergent macrophyte and accordingly, it is essential to consider the composition of emergent
441 macrophytes when assessing macrophyte impact on the carbon balance of aquatic systems.

442 The total release of DOC within the time of the experiment reached values close to the
443 maximum expected for both species (Fig. 4b), while the total CDOM release did not reach the
444 maximum expected for either of the species (Fig. 4a). This contrasting dynamic between
445 CDOM and DOC resulted in continuously increasing ratio of CDOM and DOC (Fig. 4c). To
446 better mimic natural conditions our experiment was not conducted under sterile conditions and
447 oxygen for aerobic microbial degradation was provided by aeration, therefore, the increase in
448 the ratio of CDOM suggest microbial degradation of the labile carbon fraction and concomitant
449 accumulation of recalcitrant colored DOM. The importance of microbial degradation in DOC
450 release was demonstrated by the experiment of Qi, Xue & Wang (2017) were the amount of
451 DOC released from *P. australis* under sterile conditions was nine times higher than the quantity
452 released without inhibition of microbial degradation.

453 Considering the implications of our experiment to natural conditions, we have to emphasize
454 that the pH of the water used in the experiment was lower (pH 8.40) than the pH of almost all
455 pans analyzed in the multisite comparison (Table 1; pH 9.36). In a decomposition experiment
456 increasing pH has been shown to correlate with increasing dry mass loss from macrophyte litter
457 (Krachler *et al.*, 2010), which together with the pH dependent dissolution of humic substances
458 suggests even higher release of DOC and CDOM from macrophytes in the pans than in our
459 experiment. However, the CDOM/DOC ratio at the end of the experiment was 14 times higher

460 for *P. australis* and 21 times higher for *B. maritimus* than the average ratio of 6.6 measured for
461 84 soda pans of the Carpathian Basin (Boros *et al.*, 2017). A possible explanation for higher
462 proportion of colorless organic matter in natural habitats is photochemical degradation of
463 CDOM, which has been demonstrated to be a significant contributor to organic carbon
464 mineralization in boreal lakes, and which is expected to be particularly important in shallow
465 high DOC lakes (Koehler *et al.*, 2014). In summary, it is likely that the autochthonous plant-
466 derived DOM of soda pans depends on the species composition of the emergent macrophytes
467 and the interplay of microbial and photochemical degradation.

468

469 *Potential drivers of the seasonal variation of CDOM and DOC*

470 The seasonal comparison of two soda pans with significant differences in respect of optical
471 characteristics (i.e., colored Sósér and turbid Zab-szék) is reasonable particularly considering
472 the potential importance of photochemical reactions. Sósér and Zab-szék also differ in respect
473 of emergent macrophyte cover (95% and 16%, respectively) and dominant macrophyte species
474 (*B. maritimus* and *P. phragmites*, respectively) (Table 1). Although both pans had much higher
475 CDOM and DOC concentration than those characteristic for other aquatic systems (Fig. 1a), in
476 the case of the colored pan the concentration of both CDOM and DOC was extremely high.
477 Based on the findings of the multisite comparison and DOC release experiment the extensive
478 *B. maritimus* dominated macrophyte cover supposedly contributed to the extreme CDOM and
479 DOC concentrations of Sósér. Meanwhile, compared to Sósér Zab-szék had slightly higher pH,
480 lower water depth and consequently intermittent hydrology with several droughts in 2017. The
481 two pans also differed based on the qualitative EEMS analyses of DOM. The higher HIX index
482 of Sósér suggests higher ratio of plant-derived recalcitrant DOM, while the higher FRESH
483 index of Zab-szék suggests greater ratio of freshly produced autochthonous DOM (Fig 6).

484 In addition, substantial differences in the hydrology and overall CDOM and DOC
485 concentrations of the two years monitored were also observed. A potential explanation of the
486 contrasting patterns of hydrology of the two years might be in the differences in temperature
487 and precipitation regimes of the study years and the preceding periods. Although weather
488 analyses are beyond the scope of this study, regional records show that between July 2013 and
489 June 2014 the weather was dryer and much warmer than usual. Specifically, the precipitation
490 between July and December of 2013 was only 75% of the monthly mean measured for the
491 region between 1981 and 2010 and in the following period (Jan-Jun 2014) the temperature was
492 2.3°C higher than the monthly mean (Fig. S1). Meanwhile, for the same period in 2016-2017
493 both temperature and precipitation were close to average (Fig. S1). Considering the importance
494 of groundwater in the hydrology of the soda pans in this region (Mádl-Szónyi & Tóth, 2009),
495 the combination of decreased precipitation followed by high temperature in 2013 and 2014
496 might have caused increased evapotranspiration from soils, leading to decreased groundwater
497 levels, and consequently less groundwater influx to the pans, which explains the lower water
498 levels measured for both pans in the beginning of 2014 compared to 2017. Similarly, the
499 opposite water level trends in autumn (i.e., increase in 2014 and decrease in 2017; Fig. 5b)
500 could be explained with precipitation and temperature anomalies such as the unusually high
501 precipitations in the second half of 2014 (156% of average precipitation; Fig. S1).

502 In Sósér the lower water level period of 2014 coincided with the highest DOC and CDOM
503 concentrations measured (Fig. 5e,f). In this period the mean DOC concentration of the pan was
504 563 mg L⁻¹, which is more than an order of magnitude higher than the average of wetlands (Fig.
505 1a) and remarkable even among soda lakes and pans (e.g. Jirsa *et al.*, 2013; Boros *et al.*, 2017).
506 Both the CDOM and DOC concentrations of Sósér were negatively correlated with water depth
507 throughout the study period (Table 3), which suggests that evaporation driven concentration
508 contributed to the extremely high CDOM and DOC levels measured here. This is supported by

509 the positive correlation of CDOM and DOC to conductivity and pH as both are also expected
510 to increase with decreasing water levels due to the concentration of inorganic ions. Furthermore,
511 considering the pH dependence of the dry matter loss from macrophyte litter (Krachler *et al.*,
512 2010), the higher pH of the period could have further aggravated the OM release from the dense
513 *B. maritimus* dominated macrophyte cover of Sósér contributing to the measured record high
514 DOC levels. Turbidity positively correlated with DOC suggesting that in this otherwise low
515 turbidity pan (TSS in Zab-szék was almost 20 times higher than in Sósér; Fig. 5a), where
516 organic carbon is the main cause of turbidity opposite to clay minerals, which are typical for
517 turbid type pans such as Zab-szék (Boros *et al.*, 2013).

518 On the other hand, in Zab-szék the correlation between depth and both CDOM and DOC was
519 positive (Table 3) suggesting that in this groundwater fed pan, possible groundwater itself was
520 the primary source of CDOM and DOC. This explanation was also supported by the results of
521 the multisite comparison, where for this pan—exceptionally among the other studied pans—
522 the CDOM content of the nearby groundwater well was almost double of the CDOM content
523 of the pan (Table 1). Interestingly, in this pan CDOM and DOC correlated differently with pH
524 and conductivity: for CDOM the correlation was negative, while for DOC it was positive.
525 Considering the lower pH and conductivity of the nearby groundwater well, their negative
526 correlations with CDOM agree with its groundwater origin theory. However, the positive
527 correlations of DOC and conductivity are seemingly contradictory to this theory. As DOC
528 measures both labile and recalcitrant organic carbon, while CDOM reflects more recalcitrant
529 organic carbon, a potential explanation to the increasing DOC content at higher conductivity
530 could be the presence of salinity dependent biodegradation inhibition as salinity is one of the
531 strongest microbial inhibitors (Székely *et al.* 2013). However, it is also possible that the higher
532 DOC but lower CDOM concentrations at high conductivity reflect non-humic freshly produced
533 autochthonous DOM, which together with the lesser macrophyte coverage and the *P.*

534 *phragmites* dominance suggests that the influence of phytoplankton and microbial communities
535 on the DOM of this pan could also be prominent. This explanation is enforced by the contrasting
536 microbial community of the two pans described by Szabó *et al.* (2017) and by the peaks of FI
537 index in Zab-szék (Fig 6a), which are potential indicators of phytoplankton and microbial
538 blooms suggesting greater importance of microbial processes in the carbon dynamics of this
539 pan than in Sósér.

540 In a broader perspective, our results demonstrate that in the case of endorheic water bodies—
541 particularly those lacking surface inflow—groundwater can be an important source of organic
542 carbon that should be accounted for in carbon budget calculations. We also showed that
543 emergent macrophytes are essential sources of recalcitrant organic carbon. Although when
544 estimating macrophyte effect, species composition has to be also considered since common
545 reed (*P. australis*), one of the most common emergent macrophytes on a global scale has
546 relatively low organic carbon release compared to other species such as the cosmopolitan
547 bulrush (*B. maritimus*), for which this study comprises the first report of experimental
548 decomposition measurements. Finally, we demonstrated that the record high DOC values (0.5-
549 1 g L⁻¹) measured in the soda pans of the Carpathian basin are the result of the interplay of
550 intrinsic soda pan characteristics such as *B. maritimus* dominated macrophyte cover and most
551 importantly persistent low water levels that occur in consequence of weather anomalies. More
552 precisely, we showed that high organic carbon content periods follow extreme warm and dry
553 seasons. Considering that such weather patterns might increase in frequency in the near future
554 due to the ongoing climate change, soda pans could become increasingly important hotspots of
555 terrestrial carbon processing urging further studies exploring the carbon biogeochemistry of
556 soda lakes.

557

558 **Acknowledgments**

559 The data collection, assessment and study was founded by European-financed Hungarian
560 Economic Development and Innovation Operative Programme (GINOP-2.3.2-15-2016-00019)
561 at the GINOP Sustainable Ecosystems Group of Hungarian Academy of Sciences (MTA)
562 Centre for Ecological Research, as well as by the Swedish Research Council Formas through a
563 grant to A.J.S. and the Nation's Young Talent Scholarship from the Ministry of Human
564 Capacities (NTP-NFTÖ-18-B-0217) to B.C. We deeply thank to Tamás Sápi, Csaba Pigniczki
565 for assistance in the field at the Kiskunság National Park (Hungary) and we are also grateful to
566 Karólína Einarisdóttir and Marloes Groeneveld for their help with sample and data processing.

567

568 **Data Availability Statement**

569 The seasonal monitoring data and fluorescence spectra used for the EEMS analyses are
570 available on the online repository at: <http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:uu:diva-385197>.

571

572 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

573 We declare that there is no actual or potential conflict of interest.

574

575 **References**

- 576 Aiken, G.R., McKnight, D.M., Wershaw, R.L., and MacCarthy P. (1985). Humic Substances
577 in Soil, Sediments, and Water. In: *Humic substances in soil, sediment and water:*
578 *Geochemistry, isolation and characterization*. (Ed. R.L.W. and P.M. G. R. Aiken, D. M.
579 McKnight), pp. 1–9. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- 580 Baglieri A., Vindrola D., Gennari M. & Negre M. (2014). Chemical and spectroscopic
581 characterization of insoluble and soluble humic acid fractions at different pH values.
582 *Chemical and Biological Technologies in Agriculture* **1**, 1–11.
- 583 Boros E., Ecsedi Z. & Oláh J. (2013). *Ecology and management of soda pans in the*

584 *Carpathian basin*. (Ed. Hortobágy Environmental Association), Balmazújváros.

585 Boros E., Pigniczki C., Sápi T., V.-Balogh K., Vörös L. & Somogyi B. (2016). Waterbird-
586 Mediated Productivity of Two Soda Pans in the Carpathian Basin in Central Europe.
587 *Waterbirds* **39**, 388–401.

588 Boros E., V.-Balogh K., Vörös L. & Horváth Z. (2017). Multiple extreme environmental
589 conditions of intermittent soda pans in the Carpathian Basin (Central Europe).
590 *Limnologica* **62**, 38–46.

591 Boros E. & Kolpakova M. (2018). A review of the defining chemical properties of soda lakes
592 and pans : An assessment on a large geographic scale of Eurasian inland saline surface
593 waters. 1–20. PLoS ONE 13(8): e0202205. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal>.

594 Chen M., Zeng G., Zhang J., Xu P., Chen A. & Lu L. (2015). Global Landscape of Total
595 Organic Carbon, Nitrogen and Phosphorus in Lake Water. *Scientific Reports* **5**, 1–7.

596 Cole J.J., Prairie Y.T., Caraco N.F., McDowell W.H., Tranvik L.J., Striegl R.G., *et al.* (2007).
597 Plumbing the Global Carbon Cycle: Integrating Inland Waters into the Terrestrial Carbon
598 Budget. *Ecosystems* **10**, 172–185.

599 Cuthbert I.D. & del Giorgio P. (1992). Toward a standard method of measuring color in
600 freshwater. *Limnology and Oceanography* **37**, 1319–1326.

601 Deocampo D.M. & Jones B.F. (2014). Geochemistry of Saline Lakes Geochemistry of Saline
602 Lakes. In: *Treatise on Geochemistry*, 2nd edn. pp. 437–469. Elsevier Ltd.

603 Downing, J. A., Prairie, Y. T., Cole, J. J., Duarte, C. M., Tranvik, L. J., Striegl, R. G., ...
604 Middelburg, J. J. (2006). The global abundance and size distribution of lakes, ponds, and
605 impoundments. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 51, 2388–2397.

606 Downing J.A. & Striegl R.G. (2018). Size, age, renewal, and discharge of groundwater
607 carbon. *Inland Waters* **8**, 122–127.

608 Einarsdottir K., Wallin M.B. & Sobek S. (2017). High terrestrial carbon load via groundwater

609 to a boreal lake dominated by surface water inflow. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*
610 *Biogeosciences* **122**, 15–29.

611 Fellman J.B., Hood E. & Spencer R.G.M. (2010). Fluorescence spectroscopy opens new
612 windows into dissolved organic matter dynamics in freshwater ecosystems: A review.
613 *Limnology and Oceanography* **55**, 2452–2462.

614 Grabs T., Bishop K., Laudon H., Lyon S.W. & Seibert J. (2012). Riparian zone hydrology and
615 soil water total organic carbon (TOC): Implications for spatial variability and upscaling
616 of lateral riparian TOC exports. *Biogeosciences* **9**, 3901–3916.

617 Grant W. & Sorokin D.Y. (2011). Distribution and Diversity of Soda Lake Alkaliphiles. In:
618 *Extremophiles Handbook*. (Eds K. Horikoshi, G. Antranikian, A.T. Bull, F.T. Robb &
619 K.O. Stetter), pp. 27–54.

620 Guillemette F., McCallister S.L. & del Giorgio P.A. (2015). Selective consumption and
621 metabolic allocation of terrestrial and algal carbon determine allochthony in lakes. *The*
622 *ISME journal*, 1–10.

623 Jirsa F., Gruber M., Stojanovic A., Omondi S.O., Mader D., Körner W., *et al.* (2013). Major
624 and trace element geochemistry of Lake Bogoria and Lake Nakuru, Kenya, during
625 extreme draught. *Chemie der Erde* **73**, 275–282.

626 Kayranli B., Scholz M., Mustafa A. & Hedmark Å. (2010). Carbon storage and fluxes within
627 freshwater wetlands: A critical review. *Wetlands* **30**, 111–124.

628 Kellerman A.M., Kothawala D.N., Dittmar T. & Tranvik L.J. (2015). Persistence of dissolved
629 organic matter in lakes related to its molecular characteristics. *Nature Geoscience* **8**,
630 454–457.

631 Koehler B., Landelius T., Weyhenmeyer G.A., Machida N. & Tranvik L.J. (2014). Sunlight-
632 induced carbon dioxide emissions from inland waters Birgit. *Global Biogeochemical*
633 *Cycles*, 696–711.

634 Kothawala D.N., Stedmon C.A., Müller R.A., Weyhenmeyer G.A., Köhler S.J. & Tranvik L.J.
635 (2014). Controls of dissolved organic matter quality: evidence from a large-scale boreal
636 lake survey. *Global change biology* **20**, 1101–14.

637 Krachler R.F., Krachler R., Stojanovic A., Wielander B. & Herzig A. (2010). Effects of pH on
638 aquatic biodegradation processes. *Biogeosciences Discussions* **6**, 491–514.

639 Lapiere J.F. & Frenette J.J. (2009). Effects of macrophytes and terrestrial inputs on
640 fluorescent dissolved organic matter in a large river system. *Aquatic Sciences* **71**, 15–24.

641 Mádl-Szőnyi J. & Tóth J. (2009). A hydrogeological type section for the Duna-Tisza
642 Interfluve, Hungary. 961–980.

643 Qi Y., Xue Y. & Wang X. (2017). Release and Microbial Degradation of Dissolved Organic
644 Carbon and Nitrogen from *Phragmites australis* and *Suaeda salsa* in the Wetland of the
645 Yellow River Estuary. *Journal of Oceanography and Marine Research* **05**.

646 Qu X., Xie L., Lin Y., Bai Y., Zhu Y., Xie F., *et al.* (2013). Quantitative and qualitative
647 characteristics of dissolved organic matter from eight dominant aquatic macrophytes.
648 *Environmental science and pollution research international* **20**, 7413–7423.

649 Reitsema R.E., Meire P. & Schoelynck J. (2018). The Future of Freshwater Macrophytes in a
650 Changing World: Dissolved Organic Carbon Quantity and Quality and Its Interactions
651 With Macrophytes. *Frontiers in Plant Science* **9**, 1–15.

652 Saidy A.R., Smernik R.J., Baldock J.A., Kaiser K. & Sanderman J. (2013). Geoderma The
653 sorption of organic carbon onto differing clay minerals in the presence and absence of
654 hydrous iron oxide. *Geoderma* **209–210**, 15–21.

655 Sepp M., Kõiv T., Nõges P. & Nõges T. (2019). The role of catchment soils and land cover on
656 dissolved organic matter (DOM) properties in temperate lakes. *Journal of Hydrology*
657 **570**, 281–291.

658 Simon Sz., Mádl-Szőnyi J., Müller I., & Pogácsás Gy. (2011). Conceptual model for surface

659 salinization in an overpressured and a superimposed gravity-flow field, Lake
660 Kelemenszék area, Hungary. *Hydrogeology Journal* **19**, 701–717.

661 Sobek A.S., Söderbäck B., Karlsson S., Andersson E., Karlsson S., Andersson E., *et al.*
662 (2006). A Carbon Budget of a Small Humic Lake : An Example of the Importance of
663 Lakes for Organic Matter Cycling in Boreal Catchments A Carbon Budget of a Small
664 Humic Lake : An Example of the Importance of Lakes for Organic Matter Cycling in
665 Boreal Catchments. *AMBIO: A Journal of the Human Environment* **35**, 469–475

666 Sobek S., Tranvik L.J., Prairie Y.T., Kortelainen P. & Cole J.J. (2007). Patterns and
667 regulation of dissolved organic carbon: An analysis of 7,500 widely distributed lakes.
668 *Limnology and Oceanography* **52**, 1208–1219.

669 Szabó A., Korponai K., Kerepesi C., Somogyi B., Vörös L., Bartha D., *et al.* (2017). Soda
670 pans of the Pannonian steppe harbor unique bacterial communities adapted to multiple
671 extreme conditions. *Extremophiles* **21**, 1–11.

672 Székely, A. J., M. Berga, and S. Langenheder. 2013. Mechanisms determining the fate of
673 dispersed bacterial communities in new environments. *ISME J.* **7**: 61–71.

674 Thurman E.M. (1985). *Organic Geochemistry of Natural Waters*. Martinus Nijhoff/Dr. W.
675 Junk Publishers, Dordrecht, the Netherlands.

676 Tranvik L. J. (1988). Availability of dissolved organic carbon for planktonic bacteria in
677 oligotrophic lakes of differing humic content. *Microbial Ecology* **16**, 311–322

678 Tranvik L.J., Cole J.J. & Prairie Y.T. (2018). The study of carbon in inland waters-from
679 isolated ecosystems to players in the global carbon cycle. *Limnology and Oceanography*
680 *Letters* **3**, 41–48.

681 Verpoorter, C., T. Kutser, D. A. Seekell, and L. J. Tranvik. 2014. A global inventory of lakes
682 based on high-resolution satellite imagery. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **41**: 6396–6402.

683 V.-Balogh K., Presing M., Hiripi L. & Vörös L. (1998). Stable carbon and nitrogen isotope

684 ratios of dissolved humic substances in a shallow reservoir covered by macrophytes.
685 *Internat. Rev. Hydrobiol.* **83**, 203–206

686 V.-Balogh K., Présing M., Vörös L. & Tóth N. (2006). A study of the decomposition of reed
687 (*Phragmites australis*) as a possible source of aquatic humic substances by measuring the
688 natural abundance of stable carbon isotopes. *International Review of Hydrobiology* **91**,
689 15–28.

690 V.-Balogh, K., Németh, B. & Vörös, L. (2009). Specific attenuation coefficients of optically
691 active substances and their contribution to the underwater ultraviolet and visible light
692 climate in shallow lakes and ponds. *Hydrobiologia* **632**, 91–105.

693 Warren J.K. (2006). Depositional chemistry and hydrology, *Evaporites: Sediments, Resources*
694 *and Hydrocarbons*. pp. 59–138. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Heidelberg.

695 Wetzel R. (2001). *Limnology: Lake and River Ecosystems.*, Third. Academic Press, San
696 Diego.

697 Williamson C.E., Morris D.P., Pace M.L. & Olson O.G. (1999). Dissolved organic carbon and
698 nutrients as regulators of lake ecosystems: Resurrection of a more integrated paradigm.
699 *Limnology and Oceanography* **44**, 795–803.

700 Zhang Y., Liu X., Wang M. & Qin B. (2013). Compositional differences of chromophoric
701 dissolved organic matter derived from phytoplankton and macrophytes. *Organic*
702 *Geochemistry* **55**, 26–37.

703

704 *Figure legends*

705 **Fig. 1** Global mean (a) and maximum (b) concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in
706 inland waters. Data sources: (Wetzel, 2001) for surface water; (Chen *et al.*, 2015) for lakes;
707 (Thurman, 1985) for lakes, swamps, marshes, bogs; Suhett et al (2004) for coastal lagoons;
708 (Boros *et al.*, 2013, 2016, 2017) for soda pans.

709

710 **Fig. 2** Location of studied soda pans within the Carpathian Basin based on Boros et al., 2017.

711

712 **Fig. 3** Multisite comparison of the factors related to colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM)
713 in 14 soda pans of the Carpathian Basin. (a) Comparison of CDOM concentration in soda pans
714 and nearby groundwater; (b) Difference between CDOM concentration of soda pans and
715 corresponding groundwater well by dominant macrophyte type of the pans (*Bolboschoenus*
716 *maritimus* or *Phragmites australis*); (c) Correlation of groundwater and soda pan CDOM. Filled
717 circles indicate *B. maritimus* and crosses *P. australis* dominated pans, while the empty circle
718 indicates no macrophyte cover. Dashed line depicts non-significant ($r = 0.643$; $p = 0.168$) and
719 solid line depicts significant ($r = 0.804$; $p = 0.029$) correlation; (d) Variance of CDOM of the
720 14 pans explained by the different parameters based on linear model (Table S4). Significance
721 of parameters according to ANOVA indicated by **: $p < 0.01$; *: $p < 0.05$; $p < 0.1$.

722

723 **Fig. 4** Experimental organic matter release from *Bolboschoenus maritimus* and *Phragmites*
724 *australis* plant material. (a) Colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) release. Non-linear
725 Michaelis-Menten kinetics-based curve fitting statistics for *B. maritimus*: $N=28$; $df=25$; $r^2=$
726 0.7881 ; $V_{max}=4495.6372$ $p \ll 0.0001$; $K_m=5.2482$ $p=0.0023$, and for *P. australis*: $N=28$; $df=26$;
727 $r^2= 0.8403$; $V_{max}=1308.8554$ $p \ll 0.0001$; $K_m=5.2816$ $p=0.0002$. (b) Dissolved organic matter
728 (DOC) release. Non-linear Michaelis-Menten kinetics-based curve fitting statistics for *B.*

729 *maritimus*: N=28; df=26; $r^2=0.9197$; $V_{\max}=189.4330$ $p\ll 0.0001$; $K_m=1.9014$ $p\ll 0.0001$, and
730 for *P. australis*: N=28; df=26; $r^2=0.8596$; $V_{\max}=81.2560$ $p\ll 0.0001$; $K_m=1.1827$ $p\ll 0.0001$.
731 (c) Changes CDOM/DOC. Linear curve fitting statistics for *B. maritimus*: N=28; df=26; $r^2=$
732 0.5630 ; intercept= 15.7668 $p\ll 0.0001$; slope= 0.2204 $p=0.0028$ and for *P. australis*: N=28;
733 df=26; $r^2=0.7529$; intercept= 9.3597 $p\ll 0.0001$; slope= 0.1896 $p\ll 0.0001$.

734

735 **Fig. 5** Multiyear comparison of the temporal changes of environmental parameters in Sósér and
736 Zab-szék soda pans in 2014 and 2017. (a) Total suspended solids (TSS); (b) Mean water depth;
737 (c) pH; (d) Electrical conductivity (EC); (e) Colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM); (f)
738 dissolved organic carbon (DOC).

739

740 **Fig. 6** Temporal changes of dissolved organic matter (DOM) characterizing indices derived
741 from fluorescence excitation emission matrix spectroscopy (EEMS) in Sósér and Zab-szék soda
742 pans in 2017. (a) Fluorescence index (FI) indicating the source of DOM with high values (FI \approx
743 1.8) suggesting DOM derived from extracellular release and leachate from bacteria and algae,
744 and low values (FI ≈ 1.2) indicating plant and soil derived organic matter. (b) Freshness index
745 (FRESH) indicating contribution of recently produced DOM. (c) Humification index (HIX)
746 indicating humic substance content or extent of humification of DOM (Fellman *et al.*, 2010).

747 Table 1. Environmental parameters determined for the soda pans and corresponding groundwater wells in the multisite comparison

Name of pan	Soda pan								Groundwater well				
	Chemical type*	Optical type†	Emergent macrophyte cover (%)	Macrophyte type (species cover > 50%)	TSS (mg L ⁻¹)	Electrical conductivity (μS cm ⁻¹)	pH	CDOM (Pt mg L ⁻¹)	Water depth (cm)	Electrical conductivity (μS cm ⁻¹)	pH	CDOM (Pt mg L ⁻¹)	Distance to closest shore of soda pan (m)
Bogárzó	Soda	Turbid	43	<i>B. maritimus</i>	807	4970	9.28	1424	30	5460	8.55	107	34
Böddi-szék 1	Soda-Saline	Turbid	15	<i>P. australis</i>	745	6420	9.80	239	9	2810	8.83	74	24
Böddi-szék 2	Soda-Saline	Turbid	5	<i>P. australis</i>	1100	1710	9.69	253	2	5100	9.56	117	16
Böddi-szék 3	Soda-Saline	Colored	92	<i>P. australis</i>	8	1847	8.39	293	40	3400	9.29	303	239
Büdös-szék	Soda	Turbid	62	<i>B. maritimus</i>	384	5230	9.27	174	12	2200	7.73	28	190
Csaba-szék	Soda	Colored	52	<i>B. maritimus</i>	50	2620	8.57	1659	20	1863	8.34	841	25
Dongér	Soda-Saline	Turbid	11	<i>P. australis</i>	67	1625	10.57	99	20	757	8.64	67	31
Fehér-szék	Soda	Turbid	91	<i>P. australis</i>	585	3300	8.86	684	45	2310	8.74	437	155
Fülöp-szék	Soda	Colored	75	<i>P. australis</i>	350	4090	9.12	143	8	4010	7.02	28	198
Kelemen-szék	Soda	Turbid	30	<i>B. maritimus</i>	1850	3010	9.13	693	20	1146	8.15	205	201
Sósér	Soda	Colored	95	<i>B. maritimus</i>	83	8680	9.89	2088	3	3540	9.28	69	47
Unnamed	Soda	Turbid	0	none	692	4840	9.43	203	20	1609	8.73	146	85
Vesszős-szék	Soda	Turbid	72	<i>B. maritimus</i>	80	2050	9.73	282	20	1678	8.17	41	467
Zab-szék	Soda	Turbid	16	<i>P. australis</i>	1574	4270	9.28	364	3	1051	8.30	667	45

748 * Based on Boros & Kolpakova (2018)

749 † Based on Boros *et al.*, (2013, 2017)

750

Table 2. Mean and standard deviation of the measured parameters of the turbid and colored soda pan in the two years of seasonal monitoring

Parameter	Sósér				Zab-szék			
	2014		2017		2014		2017	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
TSS	180.8	293.0	68.7	71.1	2325.9	2201.9	2100.9	1618.3
Depth	18.6	15.3	26.8	14.3	13.1	12.1	11.3	9.6
pH	9.26	0.54	9.23	0.40	9.60	0.28	9.61	0.21
EC	5.72	3.45	6.49	3.79	5.64	3.66	7.05	6.68
CDOM	5888.7	2908.6	1628.2	508.7	470.4	200.8	279.1	127.3
DOC	437.3	268.5	214.6	108.4	69.1	48.0	49.4	10.8
FI	-	-	1.228	0.028	-	-	1.234	0.049
FRESH	-	-	0.608	0.030	-	-	0.736	0.091
HIX	-	-	17.47	1.689	-	-	7.143	1.436

Table 3. Results of cross-correlation at lag = 0 of colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and environmental parameters of the turbid and colored soda pans. Significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) are in bold.

	CDOM			DOC		
	Sósér		Zab-szék*	Sósér		Zab-szék*
	2014	2017	2014	2014	2017	2014
TSS	0.316	0.598	0.355	0.737	0.745	0.122
Depth	-0.750	-0.829	0.809	-0.758	-0.778	0.622
pH	0.778	0.563	-0.792	0.930	0.839	0.414
Conductivity	0.802	0.660	-0.447	0.994	0.870	0.951
FI		-0.297			-0.568	
FRESH		0.181			0.809	
HIX		-0.225			-0.125	

* Measurements from 2017 for Zab-szék were omitted from these analyses because of missing data due to drought of the pan.

Figure 1

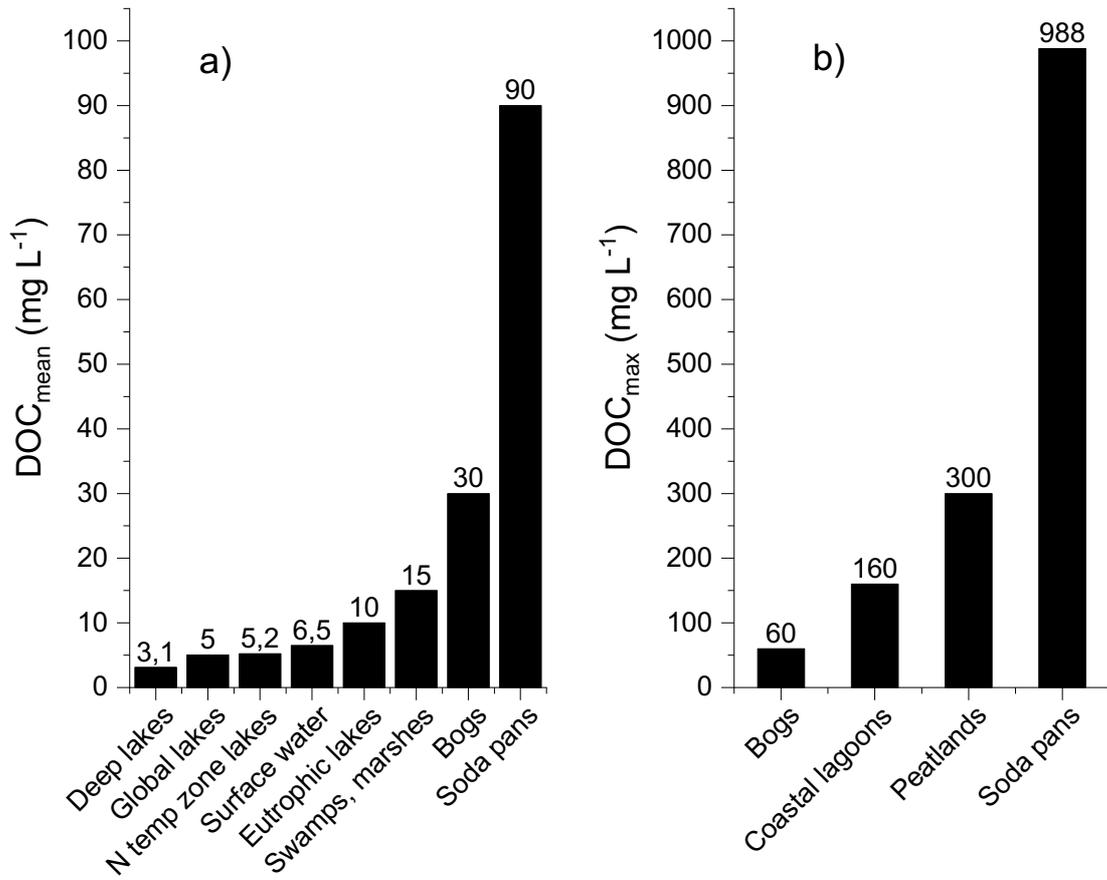


Figure 2

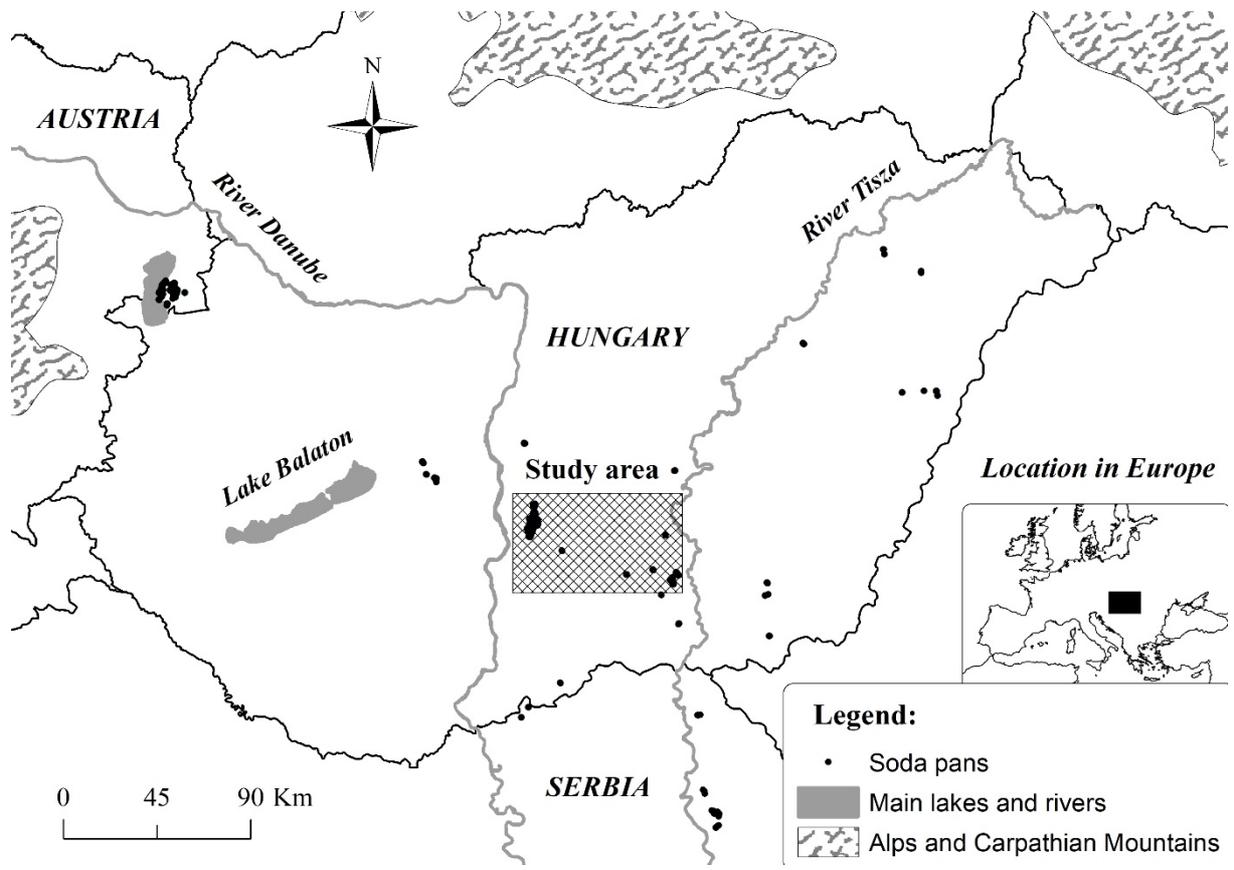


Figure 3

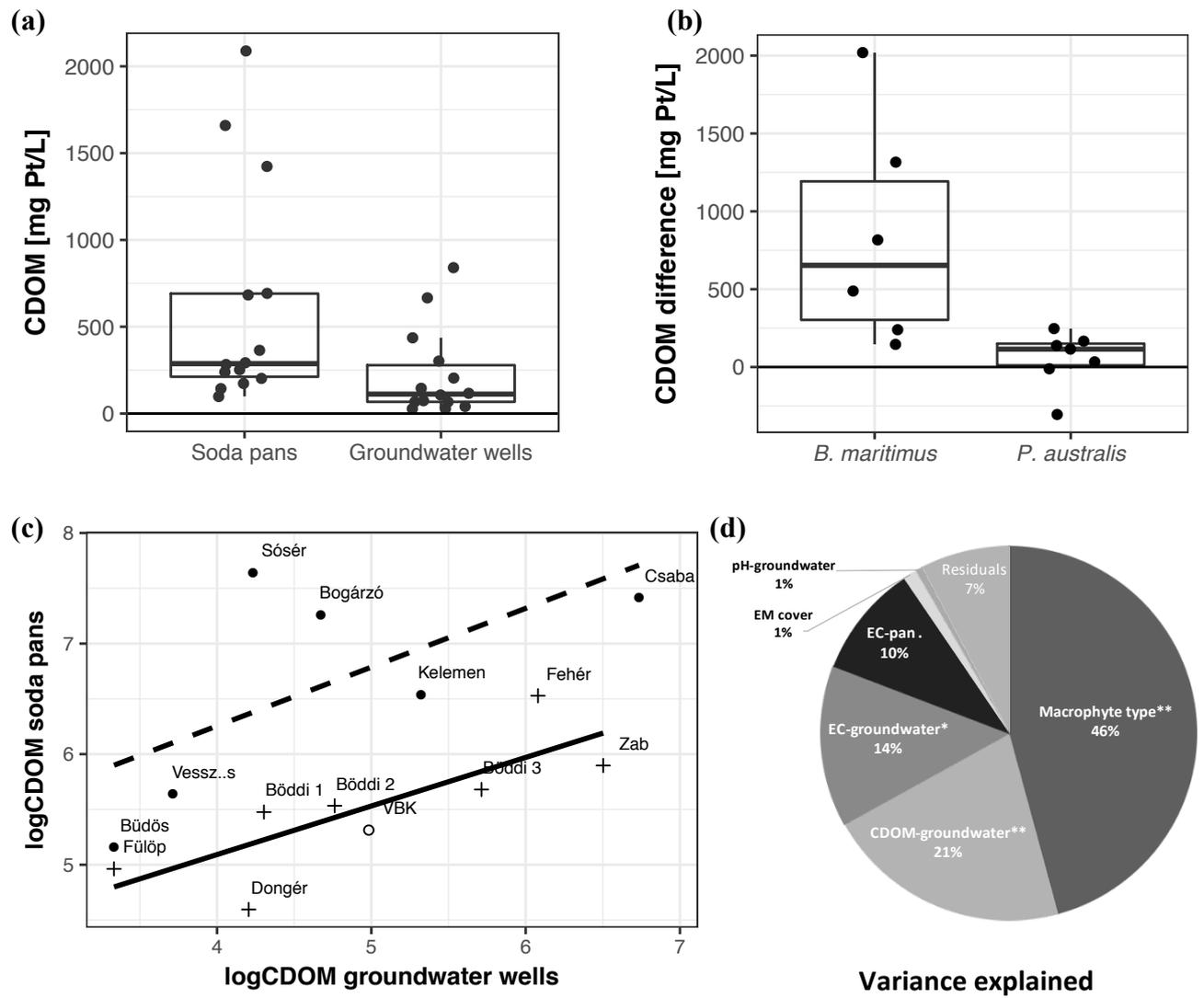
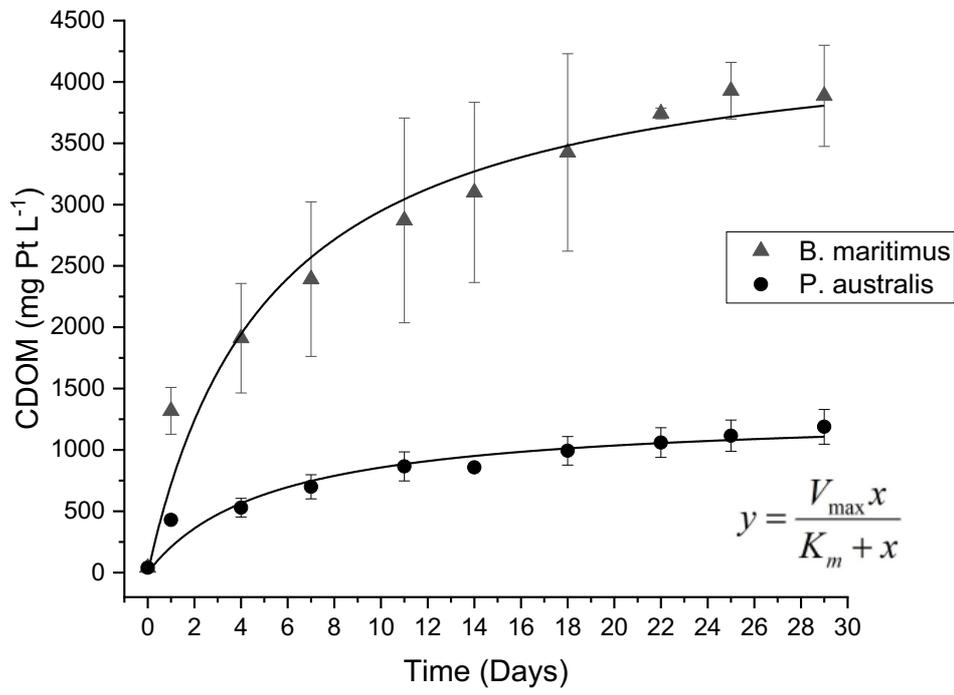
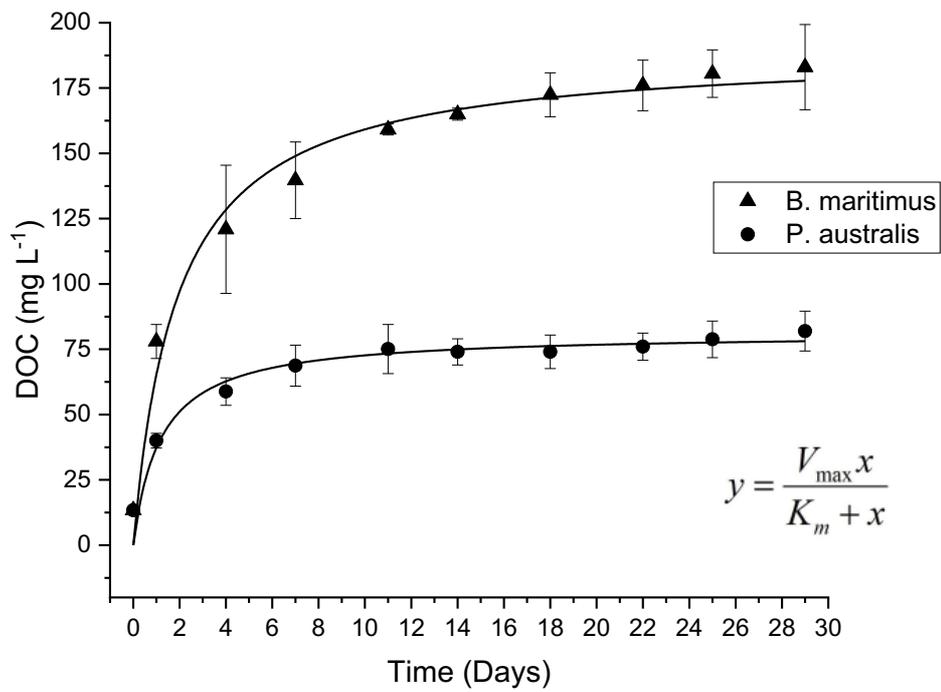


Figure 4

(a)



(b)



(c)

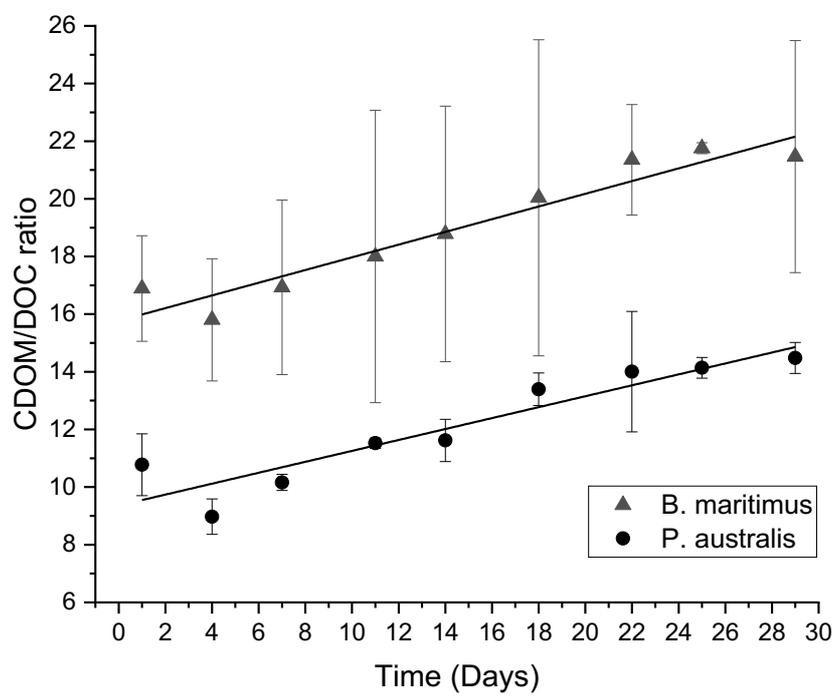


Figure 5

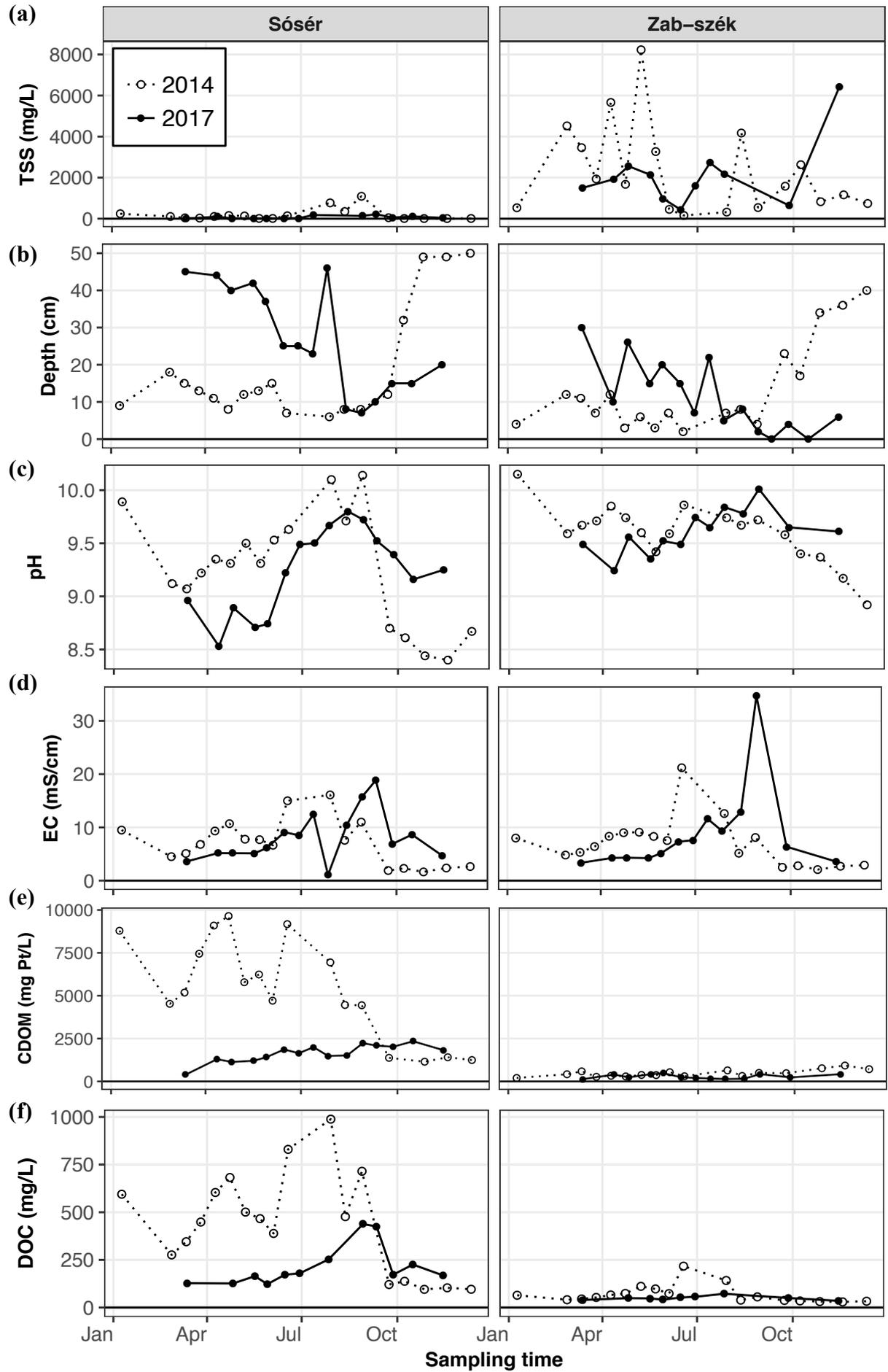


Figure 6

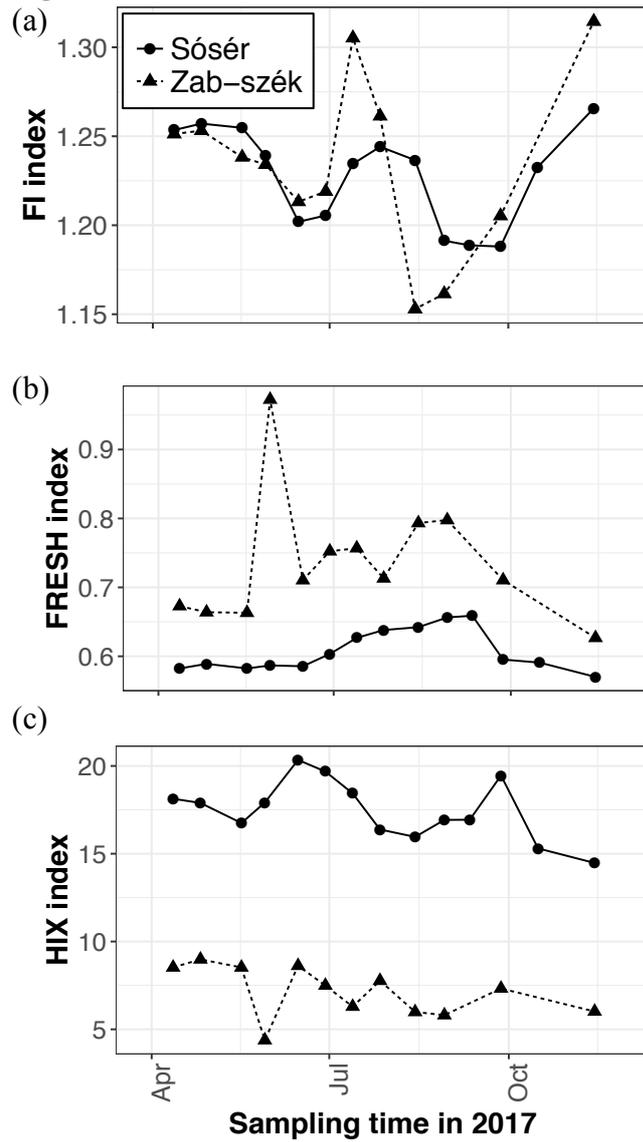


Table S1. Coordinates of soda pans and groundwater wells studied I the cross-sectional analyses.

Name of pan	Soda pans		Groundwater wells	
	Latitude (N)	Longitude (E)	Latitude (N)	Longitude (E)
Bogárzó	46.8054	19.1412	46.8045	19.1403
Böddi-szék 1	46.7666	19.1500	46.7688	19.1500
Böddi-szék 2	46.7603	19.1476	46.7604	19.1463
Böddi-szék 3	46.7692	19.1229	46.7684	19.1246
Büdös-szék	46.5467	20.0298	46.5489	20.0259
Csaba-szék	46.8182	19.1888	46.8179	19.1875
Dongér	46.5725	20.0593	46.5725	20.0583
Fehér-szék	46.8083	19.1867	46.8106	19.1845
Fülöp-szék	46.5787	19.9877	46.5775	19.9889
Kelemen-szék	46.7973	19.1743	46.8012	19.1717
Sósér	46.7877	19.1350	46.7866	19.1355
Unknown	46.7636	19.1807	46.7642	19.1807
Vesszős-szék	46.5249	20.0373	46.5249	20.0310
Zab-szék	46.8342	19.1748	46.8352	19.1747

Table S2. Summary of backward selection of parameter for AIC minimalization

Initial model:

$\log(\text{CDOM}_{\text{soda pans}}) \sim \log(\text{CDOM}_{\text{groundwater wells}}) + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{Emerged macrophyte type} + \text{Emerged macrophyte cover} + \text{Depth} + \text{TSS} + \text{Chemical type} + \text{Optical type}$

Model after backward selection:

$\log(\text{CDOM}_{\text{soda pans}}) \sim \log(\text{CDOM}_{\text{groundwater wells}}) + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{Emerged macrophyte type} + \text{Emerged macrophyte cover} + \text{TSS} + \text{Chemical type}$

Step	Removed parameter	Df	Deviance	Residuals Df	Residuals Deviance	AIC
1				1	0.2145496	32.49581
2	Depth	1	0.00065744	2	0.2152070	34.45297
3	Optical type	1	0.00077518	3	0.2159822	36.40263

Table S3. Summary of GVIF (Generalized Variance Inflation Factors) analyses before and after removal of inflated parameters ($GVIF^{1/(2 \cdot Df)} > 5$). Analyses were performed using *vif* function of *car* package in R.

Final model after backward selection:

$\log(CDOM_{\text{soda pans}}) \sim \log(CDOM_{\text{groundwater wells}}) + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{Emerged macrophyte type} + \text{Emerged macrophyte cover} + \text{TSS} + \text{Chemical type}$

	GVIF	Df	GVIF^{1/(2*Df)}
$\log(CDOM_{\text{groundwater wells}})$	21.948539	1	4.684927
$\text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}}$	4.796074	1	2.189994
$\text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}}$	1.581812	1	1.257701
$\text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}}$	20.822963	1	4.563218
$\text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}}$	18.047921	1	4.248285
Emerged macrophyte type	20.992869	2	2.140513
Emerged macrophyte cover	21.216754	1	4.606165
TSS	5.424868	1	2.329135
Chemical type	24.508659	1	4.950622

Model after removal of highest GVIF parameter (Chemical type):

$\log(CDOM_{\text{soda pans}}) \sim \log(CDOM_{\text{groundwater wells}}) + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{Emerged macrophyte type} + \text{Emerged macrophyte cover} + \text{TSS}$

	GVIF	Df	GVIF^{1/(2*Df)}
$\log(CDOM_{\text{groundwater wells}})$	4.707523	1	2.169683
$\text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}}$	2.288839	1	1.512891
$\text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}}$	1.551452	1	1.245573
$\text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}}$	2.555346	1	1.598545
$\text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}}$	5.345451	1	2.312023
Emerged macrophyte type	2.216132	2	1.22011
Emerged macrophyte cover	4.035098	1	2.008755
TSS	2.057321	1	1.434337

Final model after removal of highest GVIF parameter ($\text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}}$):

$\log(CDOM_{\text{soda pans}}) \sim \log(CDOM_{\text{groundwater wells}}) + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{pH}_{\text{soda pans}} + \text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}} + \text{Emerged macrophyte type} + \text{Emerged macrophyte cover} + \text{TSS}$

	GVIF	Df	GVIF^{1/(2*Df)}
$\log(CDOM_{\text{groundwater wells}})$	1.740759	1	1.319378
$\text{Conductivity}_{\text{groundwater wells}}$	1.41167	1	1.188137
$\text{Conductivity}_{\text{soda pans}}$	1.337339	1	1.156434
$\text{pH}_{\text{groundwater wells}}$	1.533761	1	1.238451
Emerged macrophyte type	1.615174	2	1.12734
Emerged macrophyte cover	2.270607	1	1.506853
TSS	1.955604	1	1.398429

Table S4. ANOVA table of the final linear model from table S3 ordered by variance explained. Significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) are in bold. Significance codes: $p < 0.001$: ‘***’; $p < 0.01$: ‘**’; $p < 0.05$: ‘*’; $p < 0.1$: ‘.’; $p > 0.1$: ‘ ’

	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr (>F)	Variance explained (%)	Significance code
Emerged macrophyte type	2	5.409892	2.704946	15.099960	0.007605	45.783090	**
log(CDOM _{groundwater wells})	1	2.499060	2.499060	13.950630	0.013500	21.149160	**
Conductivity _{groundwater wells}	1	1.646254	1.646254	9.189968	0.029032	13.932000	*
Conductivity _{soda pans}	1	1.152705	1.152705	6.434803	0.052103	9.755164	.
Emerged macrophyte cover	1	0.140855	0.140855	0.786304	0.415828	1.192038	
pH _{groundwater wells}	1	0.071898	0.071898	0.401362	0.554230	0.608466	
TSS	1	0.000009	0.000009	0.000051	0.994592	0.000077	
Residuals	5	0.895680	0.179136	NA	NA	7.580003	

Table S5. Results of cross-correlation analyses between CDOM and DOC concentrations and TSS, mean depth, pH, EC, and EEMS indexes (FI, FRESH and HIX) according to $x_{t+k} \sim y_t$, where x_{t+k} is CDOM or DOM at timepoint $t+k$, and y_t is the tested parameter at timepoint t , $k=1$ corresponds to 1 month lag. Significant correlations ($p < 0.05$) are in bold. Only correlations between $k = -5$ and $k = 5$ are presented as no greater lag cross-correlations were significant.

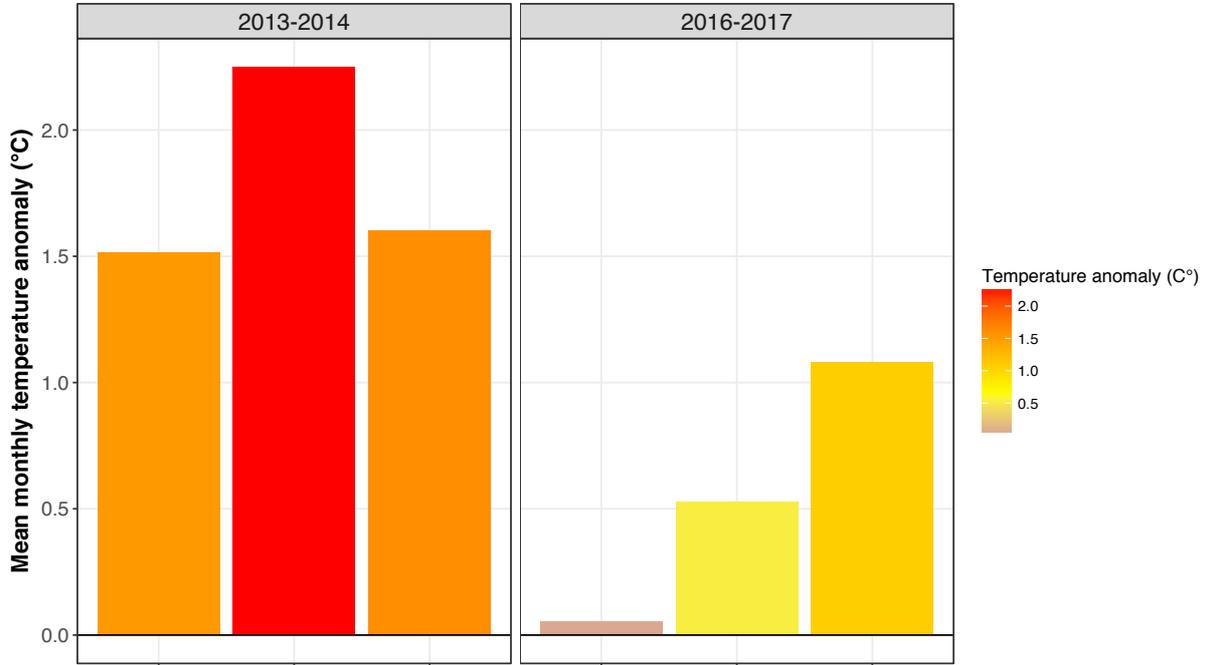
TSS			k										
Variable	Pan	Year	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
CDOM	Sósér	2014	-0.159	0.227	0.331	0.181	0.37	0.316	-0.188	-0.412	-0.378	-0.4	-0.126
CDOM	Sósér	2017	-0.376	-0.566	0.049	0.265	0.314	0.598	0.407	0.323	0.108	-0.218	-0.296
CDOM	Zab-szék	2014	0.182	-0.183	-0.049	-0.097	-0.479	-0.355	-0.311	-0.016	-0.156	-0.333	0.045
DOC	Sósér	2014	-0.346	-0.087	0.082	0.113	0.63	0.737	-0.033	-0.426	-0.405	-0.473	-0.197
DOC	Sósér	2017	-0.219	-0.416	-0.356	0.143	0.482	0.745	0.666	-0.058	-0.363	-0.343	-0.282
DOC	Zab-szék	2014	-0.187	-0.031	-0.091	-0.147	-0.151	-0.122	0.371	0.702	0.374	0.195	0.008
Depth													
CDOM	Sósér	2014	0.115	-0.035	-0.404	-0.645	-0.735	-0.75	-0.315	-0.033	0.132	0.234	0.225
CDOM	Sósér	2017	0.499	-0.001	-0.006	-0.438	-0.603	-0.829	-0.466	-0.248	0.137	0.194	0.321
CDOM	Zab-szék	2014	0.106	0.162	0.156	0.44	0.663	0.809	0.495	0.2	-0.025	-0.198	-0.245
DOC	Sósér	2014	0.447	0.446	0.037	-0.453	-0.718	-0.758	-0.377	-0.093	0.043	0.134	0.165
DOC	Sósér	2017	0.37	0.209	-0.039	-0.39	-0.669	-0.778	-0.246	-0.066	0.305	0.411	0.482
DOC	Zab-szék	2014	0.738	0.449	0.068	-0.287	-0.598	-0.622	-0.429	-0.227	-0.06	0.048	0.041
pH													
CDOM	Sósér	2014	-0.212	0.072	0.277	0.425	0.626	0.778	0.267	-0.024	-0.113	-0.376	-0.22
CDOM	Sósér	2017	-0.437	-0.44	-0.264	0.324	0.57	0.563	0.418	0.349	0.126	-0.124	-0.372
CDOM	Zab-szék	2014	-0.133	0	-0.116	-0.34	-0.564	-0.792	-0.358	-0.165	-0.001	0.065	0.014
DOC	Sósér	2014	-0.403	-0.35	-0.145	0.124	0.646	0.93	0.406	0.035	-0.113	-0.371	-0.237
DOC	Sósér	2017	-0.226	-0.324	-0.304	-0.066	0.444	0.839	0.726	0.254	-0.431	-0.598	-0.365
DOC	Zab-szék	2014	-0.664	-0.275	0.111	0.339	0.441	0.414	0.096	0.009	0.103	0.099	0.201

EC			k										
Variable	Pan	Year	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5
CDOM	Sósér	2014	-0.209	0.017	0.394	0.36	0.535	0.802	0.304	-0.051	-0.171	-0.432	-0.41
CDOM	Sósér	2017	-0.593	-0.179	-0.161	0.173	0.236	0.66	0.529	0.349	-0.032	-0.096	-0.22
CDOM	Zab-szék	2014	-0.179	-0.108	-0.246	-0.369	-0.384	-0.447	-0.377	-0.338	0.061	0.444	0.502
DOC	Sósér	2014	-0.39	-0.337	-0.053	0.015	0.469	0.994	0.542	0.059	-0.066	-0.389	-0.464
DOC	Sósér	2017	-0.322	-0.334	-0.448	0.027	0.627	0.87	0.326	0.104	-0.199	-0.291	-0.42
DOC	Zab-szék	2014	-0.515	-0.563	-0.349	0.093	0.673	0.951	0.62	0.125	-0.164	-0.401	-0.344
FI													
CDOM	Sósér	2017	0.344	0.114	0.314	-0.029	-0.115	-0.297	-0.413	-0.175	-0.017	-0.04	0.158
CDOM	Zab-szék	2017	0.143	-0.598	-0.143	0.296	0.028	0.207	0.303	-0.211	-0.344	0.188	-0.104
DOC	Sósér	2017	0.176	0.235	0.578	0.132	-0.538	-0.568	-0.175	-0.197	0.163	0.32	0.181
FRESH													
CDOM	Sósér	2017	-0.508	-0.513	-0.159	0.079	0.144	0.181	0.377	0.373	0.159	-0.132	-0.218
CDOM	Zab-szék	2017	-0.092	0.208	0.207	-0.169	0.081	-0.02	-0.468	-0.225	0.387	-0.077	0.071
DOC	Sósér	2017	-0.164	-0.396	-0.617	-0.275	0.365	0.89	0.624	-0.027	-0.387	-0.356	-0.059
HIX													
CDOM	Sósér	2017	0.079	-0.123	-0.529	-0.389	-0.575	-0.225	0.038	0.103	0.21	0.349	0.16
CDOM	Zab-szék	2017	0.284	0.155	-0.44	0.244	0.067	-0.362	0.4	0.042	-0.578	0.058	0.09
DOC	Sósér	2017	0.153	-0.039	-0.661	-0.609	-0.201	-0.125	0.103	0.454	0.274	0.173	-0.055

1 **Fig. S1.** Temperature and precipitation anomalies before and during the sampling periods of
 2 the seasonal analysis as six-months mean of difference from mean monthly average measured
 3 between 1981-2010. (a) Temperature and (b) precipitation. Based on data from Hungarian
 4 Meteorological Service (OMSZ).

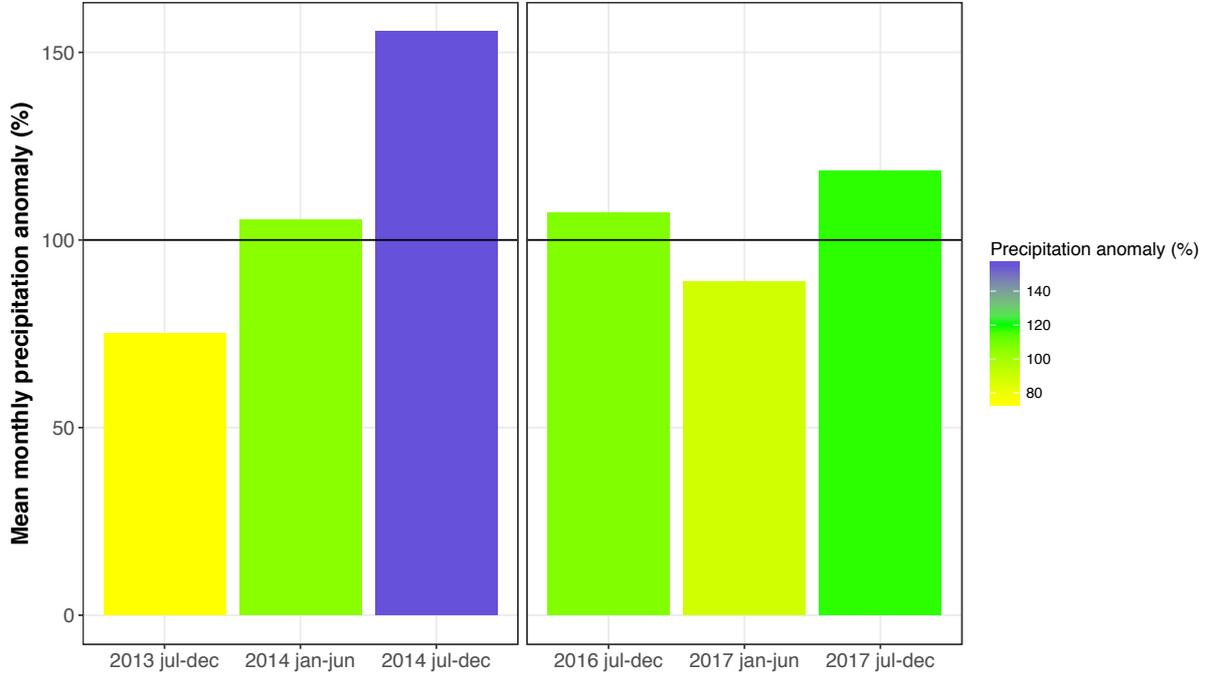
5
6

(a)



7
8

(b)



9
10