- 1 Title: Natural and human drivers of salinity and major ion composition in United States lakes
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- 11 This paper is a non-peer reviewed preprint submitted to EarthArXiv. The preprint was submitted
- to Limnology & Oceanography for peer review.

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- 24 Author contribution statement: XS and KSC conceived the project. XS, KSC, PJH, KEW, and
- 25 PAS designed the analyses and interpreted the results. XS gathered and processed data. XS and
- 26 PJH performed analyses and made figures, tables, and supplements. XS wrote the first draft of
- 27 the manuscript, and all authors contributed substantially to revisions.

29 **Abstract**:

- 30 Salinity and major ion composition are important for understanding and predicting lake water
- 31 quality and responses to global changes. However, little is known about salinity and major ionic
- 32 composition for populations of lakes at the continental scale, nor the corresponding relationships
- with natural and human factors operating at multiple spatial scales. To fill these knowledge gaps,
- we examined the spatial patterns in salinity using specific conductance as a proxy (N=9,785)
- lakes) and major ion concentrations (N=1,218 lakes) across the conterminous United States. We
- then quantified relationships between a wide range of multi-scaled natural and human factors and

both salinity and ion composition. Most lakes had relatively low salinity (median=206µS/cm), 37 although 4% were classified as saline (>1,500µS/cm) and mostly were located in the Plains, 38 39 Desert Southwest, and Southeast regions. Calcium and bicarbonate were the dominant or most common ions in 61% of US lakes, with the remaining lakes dominated by magnesium or sodium 40 and sulfate or chloride ions. Lake salinity was strongly related to natural factors (e.g., lake 41 elevation, soil, and hydrology) and influenced by human factors including agriculture and 42 atmospheric deposition. Major ion composition was associated with similar natural factors, but 43 was also strongly affected by road density, urban development, agricultural activities, and 44 atmospheric deposition. This macroscale understanding of salinity and major ions and their 45 complex relationships to natural and human characteristics around lakes is needed to assess, 46 47 predict, and manage lake impairments from human alterations of ion chemistry.

Keywords: Lake salinity; Specific conductance; Salt; Major ions; Geology; Hydrology; Road
density; Macroscale

Introduction

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Salinity is a critical indicator of lake water quality due to its profound effects on aquatic organisms, drinking water quality, and industrial and recreational water use (Kaushal et al. 2018; Hintz & Relyea 2019; Dugan 2024). Salinity in freshwater bodies has been fluctuating greatly in some regions of the world with negative impacts that are attributed to natural and human disturbances such as climate change, extreme climatic events, road salt application, and agricultural activities (Kaushal et al. 2019; Olson 2019; Schacht et al. 2023). Although studies have documented levels of individual ions in lakes such as chloride and their changes due to human activities (e.g., Dugan et al. 2017), we lack a macroscale understanding of the variation of overall salinity across broad ranges of lakes, how ionic composition differs among lakes, and the potential influences from multi-scaled natural environment and human activities. Studies focusing solely on salinity are necessary but not sufficient because the impacts of salts on freshwater communities are related to major ion concentration and compositions as well as salinity levels as reflected by specific conductance (SC; Calver et al. 2009; Cañedo-Argüelles et al. 2016). Lab and microcosm experiments have shown that the same salinity levels with different ion compositions (e.g., solutions or media dominated by chloride (Cl⁻) vs. sulfate (SO₄²-) ions) can lead to divergent effects on organisms and communities (Nostro et al. 2005; Clements & Kotalik 2016; Van Gray & Ayayee 2024). Multiple ions can also interact to affect aquatic organisms, leading to unexpected outcomes (e.g., synergistic effects) (Elphick et al. 2011). For example, the toxicity of Cl⁻ on cladocerans was stronger in softer water than in hard water (Elphick et al. 2011; Rogalski et al. 2024), and the toxicities of potassium ion (K⁺) could be alleviated by high sodium ion (Na⁺) concentration (Mount et al. 2016). These findings underscore the necessity of understanding major ion concentrations and composition in lakes for

a better assessment and prediction of salt effects on freshwaters.

Salinity and major ions in surface water are related to a variety of natural and human factors. Previous studies have suggested that salinity in streams across the conterminous United States (CONUS) ranged from extremely low (<2 µS/cm SC) to hypersaline (>10,000 µS/cm), depending on the dominant sources and/or surrounding natural factors (e.g., evaporation; magnesium (Mg²⁺), calcium (Ca²⁺), and SO₄²⁻ ions from weathering of rocks; and Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions from saline groundwater) (Gibbs 1970; Griffith 2014; Olson & Cormier 2019). Studies of lakes in south-central North Dakota revealed that within-region salinity and major ion concentrations were related to lake elevation, soil texture, and groundwater (Swanson et al. 1988). La Baugh et al. (2000) found that salinity levels in lakes and wetlands in Central North America varied with evaporation, precipitation, and groundwater fluxes. Additionally, regional studies on lakes within lake chains demonstrated the effects of landscape position, and lakes that are connected with other waterbodies (higher surface water connectivity) had higher salinity (Martin & Soranno 2006; Soranno et al. 1999). Moreover, human activities and urban development can sometimes cause long-term or permanent changes to salinity. Salt inputs from irrigation runoff, residential discharge, road salt application, wastewater effluents, and mining accumulate in the water column and increase salinity (Oswald et al. 2019; Stets et al. 2020; Dumelle et al. 2024). In particular, agricultural effluents often contain high concentrations of K⁺, Cl⁻, and SO₄²⁻; road deicing salts can contribute significant amounts of Na⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺, and Cl⁻; and industrial runoff and acid rain can contribute SO₄²⁻ (Charles 1991; Dugan et al. 2017; Dugan 2024). Previous studies have only included a limited number and type of factors (e.g., not consider human influences) and predominantly focused on individual waterbodies or watersheds, with broad-scaled studies focusing on lotic systems (e.g., Griffith 2014; Olson & Cormier 2019;

Stets et al. 2020; but see Dugan 2024). Unfortunately, findings from studies on streams are not

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always directly applicable to lakes because streams and lakes differ in morphometry, hydrological pathways, and lakes have a range of surface water connectivity, which can lead to distinct chemical and physical characteristics (e.g., water residence time, salt retention time, and evaporation) and water chemistry (Lottig et al. 2011; Kahlert & Gottschalk 2014). Macroscale studies that incorporate a wide range of multi-scaled (local to regional) factors are therefore required to understand the spatial variation of lake salinity and major ions and influences of natural and human factors on them, and this knowledge is critical to establish reasonable thresholds and goals for management and habitat restoration, as well as to predict lake responses to future changes. In this research, we investigated two questions: 1) What are salinity and major ion concentrations and composition in lakes across the CONUS that include broad ranges of climate, hydrology, and land use? and 2) What multi-scaled natural and human factors are most strongly related to them? We answered these questions using water chemistry and ecological context data from multiple data sources for 9,785 (salinity) and 1,218 (major ions) lakes of the US, investigated their spatial variations, and conducted random forest and GLMNET analyses to examine the relationships between natural and human factors and salinity and major ions.

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Methodology

Data collection

We used data from the LAGOS-US research platform (Cheruvelil et al. 2021) that includes lake, natural context, and human activity data for 479,950 lakes ≥ 1 ha surface area across CONUS. We obtained *in situ* epilimnion specific conductance (SC), individual ion concentrations for the cations Ca²⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, and Na⁺ and the anions Cl⁻ and SO₄²⁻, and alkalinity (as CaCO₃) from the LAGOS-US LIMNO module (Shuvo et al. 2023). In this study, we used SC (i.e., the electrical conductivity of one cubic centimeter of solution at 25°C), which

is commonly measured in inland waters, as the proxy for salinity (Calver et al. 2009; Cañedo-123 Argüelles et al. 2016; Dugan 2024). The LIMNO module includes lake surface water quality data 124 from the US Water Quality Portal (WQP; 2021), 2007, 2012, and 2017 US National Lakes 125 Assessments (NLAs; US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) 2010, 2016, 2022), and the 126 US National Ecological Observatory Network (NEON; Keller et al. 2008). For natural and 127 human factors, we used lake locational, morphometry, and surface water connectivity data from 128 the LAGOS-US LOCUS module (Cheruvelil et al. 2021; Smith et al. 2021); data about the 129 natural context (e.g., soil texture and climate features) and human factors (e.g., road density and 130 atmospheric deposition) from the LAGOS-US GEO module (Smith et al. 2022); and lake 131 reservoir designation (natural lake or reservoir) from the LAGOS-US RESERVOIR module 132 (Polus et al. 2022; Rodriguez et al. 2023). We calculated the average wet inorganic nitrogen, 133 nitrate, and sulfate atmospheric deposition since 2000 to indicate their current levels and the 134 differences between before and after 2000 to indicate the change in deposition. Additionally, we 135 acquired evapotranspiration and snowpack water equivalent storage data from Blodgett (2023) 136 and livestock manure application data from US EPA EnviroAtlas (2015). To account for large-137 scale geographical variation, we used NEON regions, which are ecoregions (213,800 - 770,995 138 km²) classified based primarily on climate (Hargrove & Hoffman 1999). We removed highly 139 correlated variables, resulting in 54 multi-scaled natural and human factors (see Table S1 for a 140 list of factors). 141

Data processing

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We used 2000-2021 measurements of lake SC, major ion concentrations, and alkalinity. Because we had much more SC than ion concentration data, we created two datasets for further analyses: a full dataset with only SC data and a sub-dataset with SC and complete major ion data. We applied water quality QA/QC procedures from LAGOS-NE-LIMNO (v. 1.087.3; Soranno et

al. 2019) to these datasets, resulting in 11,072 lakes with SC data. We further extracted the SC data from April to October (90% of data) that were taken during the most recent sampling year for each lake (median year = 2015; Figure S1a), computed the mean SC of each lake to represent lake salinity, and merged those data with multi-scaled natural and human factors, yielding 9,785 lakes with complete data (i.e., the full dataset with no missing values for any factor) that are representative of US lakes (Figure S2). For the 4,581 lakes with more than one SC sample in the latest sampling year from April to October, we calculated the coefficient of variation (CV) to represent intra-year temporal variation in salinity.

For the sub-dataset combining SC, ions, and alkalinity data, we extracted April to October data (\geq 85% of data) and used the most recent concurrent (i.e., taken the same day) samples available (one water sample per lake for 1,498 lakes; median year = 2016). Next, to investigate ion composition in lakes, we converted ion concentrations and alkalinity reported in mg/L units in LIMNO-US to microequivalents per liter (μ eq/L; Table S2). In this study, we used bicarbonate (HCO₃-) (in μ eq/L) to represent all carbonate forms of alkalinity including CO₃-2- which dominates in high pH waters. Major ion data were combined with natural and human factors to generate a 1,218 lakes sub-dataset, of which about 85% were sampled by the NLAs (Figure S1).

Data analyses

Data analyses were conducted in R (v4.3.3; R Core Team, 2024). To identify spatial patterns of salinity using the full dataset, we plotted the mean and CV of salinity over the 17 NEON regions for CONUS. Then, we used Boruta feature selection ('Boruta' package, v8.0.0, Kursa & Rudnicki 2022) and random forest (RF, 'randomForest' package, v4.7-1.1, Cutler & Wiener 2022) to examine what and how multi-scaled natural and human factors affect salinity in lakes. For factors, a natural log transformation was applied to non-percent data and a generalized

logit transformation was applied to percent data (Table S1). Two Boruta feature selections with a maximum of 1,000 runs were performed using salinity values as the response variable and either natural or human factors as predictors. We ranked natural and human factors separately based on Boruta importance scores, then took the first half (i.e., the top half of factors based on importance) from each and input them into an RF model with 5-fold repeated cross-validation to examine the important natural and human factors that affect lake salinity.

The effects of the important factors were assessed through 1-factor and 2-factor partial dependence plots (PDPs; 'pdp' package, v0.8.1, Greenwell 2022). We identified important factors for 1-factor PDPs using both the percentage increase in mean squared error (% increase MSE) and the increase in node purity. The % increase MSE represents the increase in MSE when a factor is excluded and node purity indicates the before-after change in the residual sum of squares at a splitting node (Cutler & Wiener 2022). Previous literature has suggested that natural and human factors can potentially interact to affect inland water quality (Kernan & Helliwell 2001; Nobre et al. 2020; Lin et al. 2021). Thus, although interactions are not our primary focus, we also ran an iterative random forest (iRF; Basu et al. 2018), which identifies interactions between factors and quantifies the stability of interactions to select combinations of natural and human factors to be used in PDPs. We selected natural-human-factor combinations without repetition and visualized their joint effects using 2-factor PDPs.

To study the spatial patterns of and how multi-scaled natural and human factors affect ion composition using the sub-dataset, we first applied hierarchical clustering on log₁₀-transformed ion equivalent concentrations to identify common patterns among ion concentrations and composition in lakes (Ward's method; Härdle & Simar 2019). We identified 15 clusters (Figure S3) and used them as the response variable in later analyses. Next, we ran a Boruta feature selection using all (natural and human) factors as predictors. The unimportant factors identified

by Boruta were removed, and we applied a natural log transformation to numeric data (Table S1) and centered and scaled (into z-scores) all continuous factors before running a multinomial GLMNET model with LASSO regularization (glmnet package, v4.1-8, Friedman et al. 2023). Each factor was assigned to one of 11 categories: climate, hydrology, lake and watershed (morphometry), lithology, location, soil, surface connectivity, terrain, atmospheric deposition, human activities, and land use/land cover (LU/LC). We also calculated the relative importance of each factor for predicting ion cluster membership by summing the absolute value of the factor's multinomial coefficient across all clusters.

Results

Salinity and major ions in lakes across the CONUS

Using the full dataset with salinity for 9,785 lakes, we found that salinity varied within and among regions, ranging from 2.0 to 6,125 μ S/cm SC (mean±standard deviation (SD)=343±511 μ S/cm, median=206 μ S/cm) (Figure 1a & S1j). Most lakes with high salinity (about 4% of all lakes; >1,500 μ S/cm) were located in the Southeast, Northern Plains, Central Plains, Southern Plains, and Desert Southwest regions. Among the 17 NEON regions, the Desert Southwest had the highest average salinity (1,154 μ S/cm), followed by the Northern Plains (897 μ S/cm), and Central Plains (894 μ S/cm). In contrast, the Pacific Northwest had the lowest mean salinity (72 μ S/cm), followed by the Northeast (139 μ S/cm) and Mid-Atlantic (146 μ S/cm) regions (Figure 1a). Lakes with multiple sampling dates within a year (N=4,581) often had low intra-year temporal variation in salinity (CV: mean±SD=10%±13%, median=6%), and lakes with high CV (greater than 100%) were predominantly found in the Northeast, Southeast, and Great Lakes regions (Figure 1b).

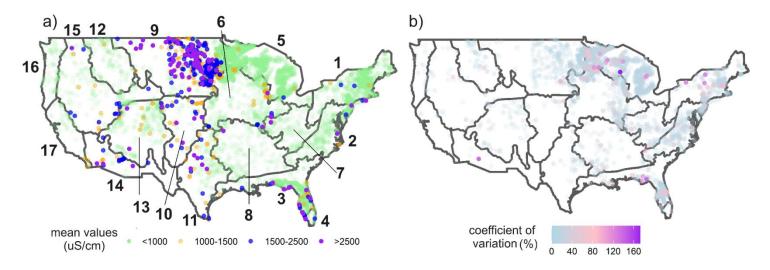


Figure 1. Maps showing mean April-October specific conductance (SC) as a proxy for salinity (a; N=9,785) and the intra-year SC coefficient of variation (b; N=4,581) of each lake by NEON region. Each dot represents a lake. NEON regions: 1 = Northeast, 2 = Mid-Atlantic, 3 = Southeast, 4 = Atlantic Neotropical, 5 = Great Lakes, 6 = Prairie Peninsula, 7 = Appalachians & Cumberland Plateau, 8 = Ozarks Complex, 9 = Northern Plains, 10 = Central Plains, 11 = Southern Plains, 12 = Northern Rockies, 13 = Southern Rockies & Colorado Plateau, 14 = Desert Southwest, 15 = Great Basin, 16 = Pacific Northwest, 17 = Pacific Southwest.

For the sub-dataset with salinity and major ions, we classified the 1,218 lakes into 15 well-distinct clusters with divergent ion concentrations and compositions (Figures 2&3, Table 1). In most clusters (clusters 13, 15, 11, 4, 2, 9, 14, and 3), despite different salinity, Ca²⁺ and HCO₃⁻ were the most abundant cation and anion, respectively. However, about 8% of lakes were dominated by Mg²⁺ and SO₄²⁻ (cluster 8); Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ were almost equally abundant in 8% of lakes (clusters 12 and 5); Na⁺ and Cl⁻ were the most abundant cation and anion, respectively, in 5% of lakes (clusters 6 and 1); and in 17% of lakes, Ca²⁺ and Na⁺ had similar proportions among cations (clusters 7 and 10). Among the clusters, cluster 8 had the highest salinity, followed by clusters 6 and 9, and cluster 4 had the lowest, followed by clusters 11 and 2. Saline lakes

(SC>1,500 μS/cm; DeVilbiss et al. 2022) were found in clusters 8 (55 lakes, 56%), 6 (19 lakes, 46%), and 5 (1 lake, 1%).

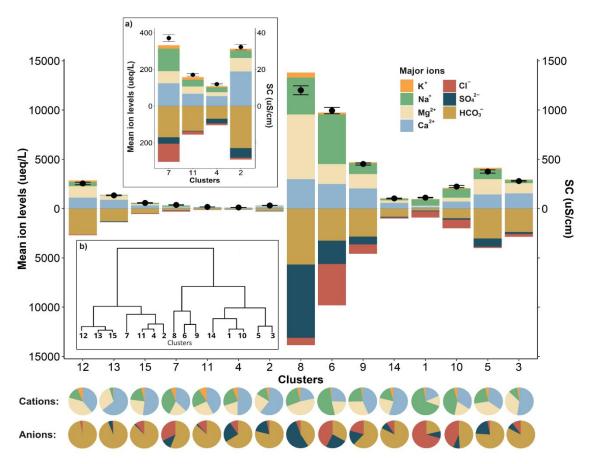


Figure 2. The mean equivalent concentrations (μeq/L) of major ions, mean salinity levels (SC, uS/cm), and proportions of cations and anions of each cluster. Stacked bars represent ion concentrations with cations above and anions below the zero line, respectively, with corresponding values shown on the left y-axis; black dots represent mean cluster salinity levels and correspond to the right y-axis; error bars represent 1 standard deviation; and pie charts at the bottom represent the proportions of each cation and anion within a cluster. To aid in visualization, subplot a) shows ion and salinity levels in clusters 7, 11, 4, and 2. Subplot b) shows a simplified dendrogram of the hierarchical clustering (a complete dendrogram is in Figure S3).

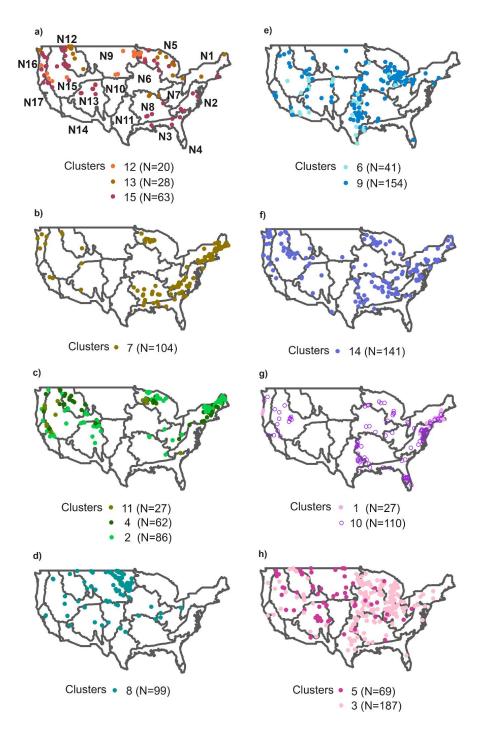


Figure 3. Maps showing the spatial distributions of lakes in each major ion composition cluster by NEON region (N1-N17 in plot a). Each set of clusters are more similar in ion composition to each other than to other clusters according to the hierarchical clustering procedure. The numbers in the parentheses indicate the number of lakes in each cluster. See Figure 1 caption for NEON region names.

Table 1. Summary of each cluster's dominant cation(s) and anion(s), percentage of each cluster among all lakes, and average salinity (as SC) of each cluster. Clusters are ordered according to dominant ions and average salinity. (See Figure S4 for lake-specific relationships between SC and salinity calculated using major ion concentrations.)

Cluster	Dominant cation(s)	Dominant anion(s)	Percentage	Average salinity±SD (μS/cm)
4	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	5%	12±4
11	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	2%	17±7
2	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	7%	32±15
15	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	5%	57±26
14	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	12%	103±40
13	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	2%	134±44
3	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	15%	279±75
9	Ca ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	13%	453±111
12	Ca ²⁺ , Mg ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	2%	255±119
5	Ca ²⁺ , Mg ²⁺	HCO ₃ -	6%	377±172
7	Ca ²⁺ , Na ⁺	HCO ₃ -	8%	37±18
10	Ca ²⁺ , Na ⁺	Cl ⁻ , HCO ₃ ⁻	9%	224±113
8	Mg^{2^+}	SO ₄ ² -	8%	1,201±448
1	Na ⁺	Cl ⁻	2%	111±40
6	Na ⁺	Cl-	3%	995±330

Among lakes dominated by Ca²⁺ and HCO₃-, most (clusters 11, 15, 14, and 3) were widely distributed across multiple NEON regions, with others clumped together in some regions, including clusters 4 (60% in Northeast and Northern Rockies), 2 (53% in Northeast and Great

Lakes), 13 (64% in Great Lakes and Northern Rockies), and 9 (70% in Great Lakes, Prairie Peninsula, Southern Plains) (Figure 3). Among lakes with other ion compositions, those in cluster 12 (cations co-dominated by Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) were mostly located in the Northern Plains and Great Basin (Figure 3a); lakes in cluster 7 (cations co-dominated by Ca²⁺ and Na⁺) were commonly found in the Northeast, Mid-Atlantic, and Ozarks Complex regions (Figure 3b); lakes in cluster 8 (dominated by Mg²⁺ and SO₄²⁻) were mostly abundant in the Northern Plains (Figure 3d); more than half of the lakes in cluster 6 (dominated by Na⁺ and Cl⁻) were in the Prairie Peninsula and Southern Plains; and lakes in cluster 1 (dominated by Na⁺ and Cl⁻) were predominantly in the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic regions (Figure 3g). Generally, NEON regions with more sampled lakes tended to have higher numbers of clusters, except for the Northern Plains where the majority of the lakes were in cluster 8.

Multi-scaled natural and human factors related to salinity and major ions

Salinity was related to both natural and human factors (RF out-of-bag variance explained=60%, N=9,785) although more natural than human factors were among the most important factors (top 10). Using the increase in node purity (using the Gini coefficient), groundwater recharge was the most important factor, followed by runoff and percent clay in the soil (Figure 4a). Based on the RF model % increase in MSE, lake elevation was the most important factor, followed by the watershed percent agricultural land use and runoff (Figure 4b). We observed a range of relationships between factors and lake salinity using partial dependence plots (PDPs) of selected important factors. Lakes at the lowest elevations had high salinity, followed by a steep decline for lakes located above 120 m, then salinity gradually declined and eventually became stable as lake elevation increased (Figure 5a). A positive relationship was observed between watershed agricultural land use and salinity (Figure 5b). Salinity was lower in lakes with higher watershed forest land cover (which can represent areas with no or little human

disturbance) until forest cover reached about 80%, then salinity became higher (Figure 5c). The percentage of clay in soil and salinity were negatively related until clay got to 2%, and the consistently low salinity was higher when clay was greater than 12% (Figure 5d). Lake salinity was lower with higher annual runoff and became stable at a low level when runoff was greater than 20 inches/year (Figure 5e). Similarly, a negative relationship was found between salinity and groundwater recharge until about 150 mm/year, at which point salinity stabilized at a low level (Figure 5f).

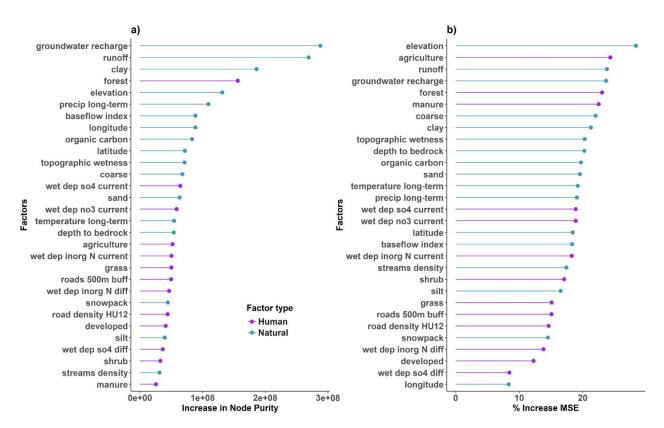


Figure 4. Results from random forest model (N=9,785) of natural and human factors and their relationships to lake salinity: a) importance scores of important natural and human factors based on the increase in node purity; b) importance scores of important natural and human factors based on the percentage increase in mean squared error.

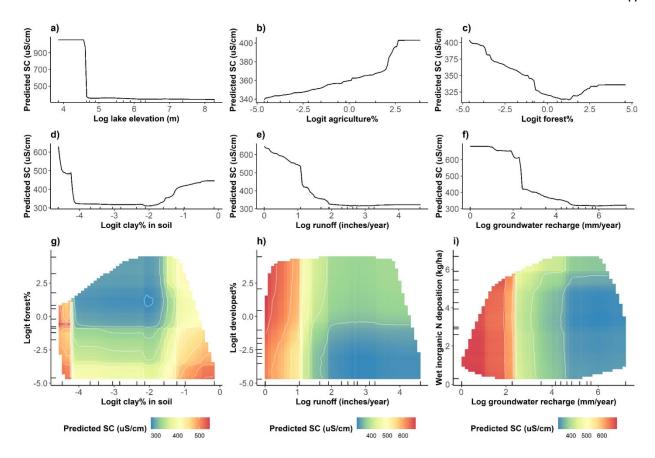


Figure 5. 1-factor PDPs show the relationships between predicted salinity (as SC) and the most important natural and human factors (plots a-f), and 2-factor PDPs show the joint influence of important natural and human factors on predicted salinity (plots g-i). Tick marks on the axes represent the deciles of the natural and human factor values. 'Log' indicates natural log transformation.

The PDP showing two-way relationships among factors suggested that salinity is higher in lakes located in areas with greater percent clay in the soil and lower watershed forest cover (highest salinity at 31% clay and 1% forest) (Figure 5h). Areas with lower groundwater recharge and wet inorganic nitrogen (N) deposition also tended to have greater salinity (highest salinity at 0 groundwater recharge and 1 kg/ha inorganic N deposition) (Figure 5i). Moreover, although high salinity was found in lakes with less runoff and more developed watersheds (highest salinity

at 0 runoff and more than 65% developed land use), we observed that for lakes with high runoff (>7 inches/year), those with developed watershed (>35% of the watershed) had higher salinity (Figure 5j).

Both natural and human factors determined ion cluster assignment for the 1,218 lakes, and the direction of factor influence (positive or negative) varied by cluster (Figure 6). Ion clusters showed stronger associations with factors in the categories of soil, terrain, and climate than those in other categories, and hydrology, particularly groundwater features, and lake locations were moderately associated with major ions. Most lake and watershed morphometry and lithology factors had weak associations with clusters. Among natural factors, the percentage of clay in the soil had the highest importance for ion cluster membership, followed by long-term average precipitation and annual runoff (Figure 6a). Soil clay had high positive associations with clusters 6, 8, and 9 and was strongly negatively associated with clusters 4, 11, and 10. Both long-term average precipitation and runoff were positively associated with clusters with relatively low salinity (e.g., clusters 15, 7, 11, 4, 14, and 1) and negatively associated with clusters with greater salinity (e.g., clusters 9, 8, and 6).

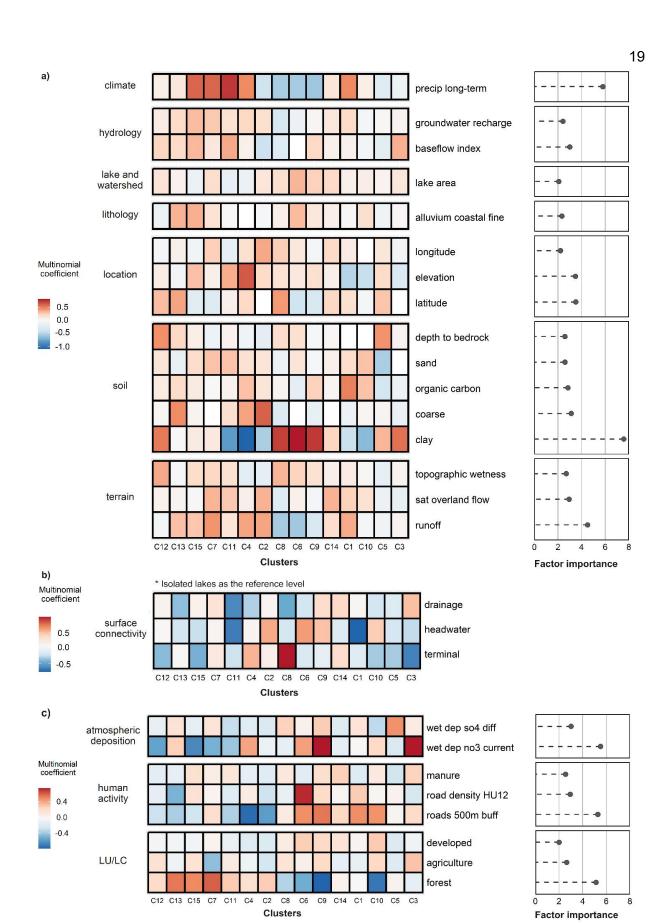


Figure 6. Heatmaps showing multinomial coefficients from a GLMNET model predicting ion

composition cluster assignment based on each natural (a,b) and human factor (c), with the factor importance plotted on the right (lollipop plots) that was calculated as the absolute sum of the cluster-specific coefficients. Numeric factors in plots a) and c) were centered and scaled. The text on the left of the heatmaps indicates factor categories, and the text on the right indicates factor names. Surface connectivity (plot b) was input as a categorical natural variable in the model; we plotted this factor separately to avoid confusion and did not calculate its importance score. Only factors with importance values \geq 2 were plotted (17 of 34 inputted natural factors, surface connectivity was counted as one factor, 8 of 20 inputted human factors). A full table of coefficients can be found in Table S3.

When comparing other surface water connectivity classes to those with no inflow and no outflow (i.e., isolated lakes), our results suggested that lakes with only inflow (terminal lakes) were more likely to be assigned to cluster 8 and less likely to cluster 3; lakes with only outflow (headwater lakes) were more likely to be assigned to clusters 6 and 2 and had low probabilities to be in clusters 1 and 11; and lakes with inflow and outflow (drainage lakes) were more likely of being in clusters 3, 14, and 9 and less likely to be in clusters 11, 8, and 13 (Figure 6b, Table S4).

Across human factors, atmospheric deposition, human activities, and LU/LC all influenced ion compositions (Figure 6c). The recent wet deposition of nitrate (NO₃-), road density within 500m of the lake, and watershed forest land cover were the strongest factors associated with ion clusters. NO₃- deposition was highly positively associated with clusters 9 and 3 and negatively associated with clusters 15, 12, and 7. Road density had positive associations with clusters 9, 6, 1, and 10 and negative associations with clusters 4 and 2. We found watershed forest land cover had positive associations with clusters with relatively low amounts of ions (e.g.,

clusters 7, 13, and 15) and negative associations with clusters with higher total ion amounts (e.g., clusters 9, 10, 6, and 8).

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Discussion

Salinity and major ion composition varied across US lakes, as did the natural and human factors related to them. Although most lakes had low salinity, 4% of lakes across the US were saline and distributed broadly across the US. Across the CONUS, 61% of lakes were dominated by Ca²⁺ and HCO₃⁻, and the remaining lakes were dominated by Mg²⁺ or Na⁺ and SO₄²⁻ or Cl⁻. Salinity was related to natural factors primarily and human factors secondarily, while ionic composition and concentration were strongly associated with both human and natural factors. Salinity and major ions in US lakes Most lakes had relatively low salinity (median SC=206 µS/cm), and the high salinity lakes (SC>1,500 μS/cm) were mainly in the Plains, Desert Southwest, and Southeast regions. Previous studies on macroscale stream conductivities also observed relatively high salinity in most of these regions (Griffith 2014; Olson & Cormier 2019) but did not find similar high salinity in the Southeast region. This difference could demonstrate the water chemistry differences between lakes and streams in this region, be attributed to the large difference in the number of systems studied between previous and our research (1,521 lakes in the Southeast region), or be due to temporal variations in salinity, as some lakes in the Southeast had relatively high CVs. Regardless, this new knowledge about high-salinity lakes occuring in the southeastern US provides new insights into macroscale salinity prediction and management, particularly in the

Although salinity is an important measure of water quality, major ion concentration and composition are also critical for monitoring because the same salinity levels can be made up of

very different major ion compositions and concentrations. For example, for clusters 14 and 1 that had similar salinity levels, we observed different ion concentrations and compositions with cluster 1 being dominated by Na⁺ and Cl⁻ and cluster 14 being dominated by Ca²⁺ and HCO₃⁻. These differences are important because the chemical composition of salt can determine the aquatic species present in water, the impacts of salts on organisms (Elphick et al. 2011; Mount et al. 2016; Huber et al. 2024), the usage of water (Tiri et al. 2018; Zaman et al. 2018), and management strategies. Unfortunately, in the US, management agencies responsible for monitoring lake water quality (which is our primary data source) are more likely to measure salinity than major ions, perhaps due to the high costs associated with sampling and measuring ions compared to SC. Government agencies responsible for lake water quality monitoring should consider approaches to fill this data gap and, in the meantime, researchers should develop predictive models for salt chemical composition in lakes to enhance our understanding of major ion levels and their potential impacts on lake ecosystems. Our models, which will be discussed later, that documented relationships between major ion composition and major natural and human features could be an important first step in this direction.

We demonstrated that ion concentration and composition varied greatly within and among regions. As expected (Dugan 2024), Ca²⁺, and sometimes Na⁺, was the dominant cation in many lakes. However, in about 16% of lakes, Mg²⁺ was the predominant cation or equally abundant to Ca²⁺, mostly in the Northern Plains, with a few others located in the Prairie Peninsula region and West US. We also found within-region variation in ion levels, which is intriguing because earlier studies suggested that the composition of salt in streams was controlled by natural mechanisms (e.g., precipitation, rock dominance, and evaporation), which often cluster regionally (Griffith 2014; Olson & Cormier 2019). However, previous regional lake studies found heterogeneity in ion composition within study regions, which was attributed to

natural processes and human activities (e.g., groundwater, soil texture, and acid deposition) (Baker et al. 1991; DeSellas et al. 2023). Our research finding that each NEON region included multiple ion clusters further supports the idea that major ions are influenced by multiple multiscaled natural and human factors that vary both locally and regionally.

Multi-scaled natural and human factors related to salinity and major ions

The important factors related to salinity and ion composition differed by response variable. Salinity was related more to natural than human factors. This result suggests that natural factors (e.g., geology, hydrology, climate) may determine salt inputs from natural sources and that, in combination with the water balance in the lake, may control background salinity levels, whereas human disturbances (e.g., road salt applications; Solomon et al. 2023) that export ions to lakes, may cause salinity to deviate from those background levels and vary across lakes. However, human factors were as important as natural factors in determining major ion concentrations and compositions in lakes, particularly for Cl⁻ which were strongly and mostly influenced by human activities (Figure S5). Therefore, effective management strategies will vary depending on targeted response variables.

We found a variety of multi-scaled natural factors were important for understanding salinity and major ions. At the lake scale, elevation was negatively related to salinity, which is a pattern also reported by other regional studies (e.g., Müller et al. 1998; Borowiak et al. 2020) attributed to increasing rock weathering and dissolution rates (Müller et al. 1998), declined relative water inputs from rainfall, as well as greater urbanization and human salt inputs (Larned et al. 2004) with decreasing elevation. We anticipated that surface connectivity would be important for understanding differences in salinity and major ions because it measures the water and salt inputs from direct tributaries to the lake. Although surface connectivity did not stand out as one of the top factors in salinity models, it was related to lake membership in some ion

clusters. For instance, 41% of lakes that only received inflows (i.e., terminal lakes) and 20% of lakes that had no inflow or outflow (i.e., isolated lakes) were the high-salinity lakes in cluster 8. Previous research found that these two types of lakes contain saline waters due to being salt sinks for the catchment, retention, and/or evaporation (Saleem et al. 2015; Cotner et al. 2022; Ding et al. 2024). Interestingly, drainage lakes did not show high proportions in the clusters characterized by low salinity (e.g., 10%, 1%, 4%, and 7% of drainage lakes were in clusters 7, 11, 4, and 2, respectively) compared with other clusters. This result implies that the direct surface water inflow of these low-salinity lakes contained low ion levels and, compared with direct tributaries, freshwater inputs from watersheds and precipitation had a more pronounced influence on major ions in these lakes (Bennett et al. 2007; Dumelle et al. 2024).

At the watershed scale, soil composition variables and measures of surface and groundwater were important in models of lake salinity and ion composition. These results make sense ecologically. For example, the percentage of clay is related to land use and affects ion movement through subsurface flow paths and release to waterbodies (Dugan 2024). The negative relationship between watershed groundwater recharge and salinity may indicate greater domination of hydrologic and chemical budget by inputs from precipitation and surface water streams (Webster et al. 2006) compared to the high-salinity groundwater inputs that can be a dominant source of salts to lakes in many regions (Li et al. 2020; Dugan 2024). Similarly, watershed runoff and regional precipitation were negatively related to salinity, suggesting they exert more control on salt budgets in lakes where precipitation inputs are high.

Lake salinity and major ions were related to multi-scaled human factors (and those that indicate the lack of disturbance), including watershed land use/cover, road density, and wet deposition of sulfate and NO₃-. For example, forest land cover, which can be used to identify lakes with no or little human disturbances, was negatively related to salinity, and agricultural

land use had a positive relationship with salinity. Moreover, one of the most crucial factors that affected ion composition was road density, which had strong positive relationships with clusters 9, 6, 1, and 10. These same clusters, which are located in regions where road salt applications happen (e.g., the Northeast, Mid-Atlantic, Great Lakes, Prairie Peninsula, and Pacific Southwest regions; Dugan et al. 2017), also had higher concentrations and proportions of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ than other clusters. Therefore, this pattern is likely due to road deicing salts that were applied in winter and retained in lakes, causing increases in salt concentrations throughout the year (Kaushal et al. 2021). Combining our results with those of a long-term study that found 125 of 371 lakes in North America have increasing temporal trends of Cl⁻ concentrations (Dugan et al. 2017), demonstrates the importance of reducing road salt applications in these regions where there is high impervious surface area and road density.

Atmospheric deposition, which has a complex history in the US, is a regional-scale variable that can be important for understanding broad-scale variation in lake salinity and major ions. We found that the individual components of atmospheric deposition varied in their relationships with salinity and major ions. For example, deposited sulfate can replace HCO₃- and carbonate in water while building up SO₄²- concentration (Charles 1991; Shammas et al. 2020). Although we observed an overall negative relationship between wet sulfate deposition and salinity (Figure S6), some studies suggested more complex relationships and the existence of other influential factors such as ion inputs from rock weathering (Charles 1991; Kaushal et al. 2018). Deposited sulfate and NO₃- also can influence surrounding soil pH and mobilize cations (e.g., Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) within soil and into groundwater (Driscoll et al. 2001; Shammas et al. 2020), which can be then flushed into lakes by the rain or get into lakes through groundwater discharge, thus their impacts on lake salinity are also jointly affected by climate and hydrology. Our results presented complex impacts of atmospheric deposition on lake salinity and major ions,

demonstrating the significance of it on lake salt contamination and the necessity of incorporating multi-scaled natural factors to better understand how deposition affects salts in lakes.

Our findings suggest that the effects of soil composition, groundwater, and runoff on salinity can be modulated by forest land cover, atmospheric deposition, and urban development. Although our RF model considered the effects of all factors, we only examined the joint modeled effects of selected natural and human factors. There are likely more complex interactive effects that are beyond the scope of this study. Very few studies have looked at the combined effects of factors on other water quality parameters (Kernan & Helliwell 2001; Nobre et al. 2020; Lin et al. 2021), and no or limited information exists on conductivity and major ions. However, our results and previous studies demonstrate that human and natural factors can jointly affect lake salinity and water quality, thus, future research efforts should consider this area to disentangle the complex underlying mechanisms affecting ion concentrations and compositions in lakes.

Conclusion

We documented spatial variation in salinity and major ion concentration and composition in 9,785 and 1,218 lakes, respectively, across the CONUS. We found that ion composition varied substantially and that similar salinity levels can be caused by different ion compositions, which have different effects on lake biota, may change differently in the future, and require different strategies to manage. These findings highlight the importance of considering all major ions when studying lake salinity. At a continental scale, we also found that variation in salinity was related to a wide range of local, watershed, and regional factors in lakes, such as lake elevation, soil texture, hydrology, precipitation, agricultural land use, and atmospheric deposition. Major ions were strongly associated with both human and natural factors. In particular, elevated Cl⁻ levels were predominantly related to road density and urban development, which can be managed to

address issues such as freshwater salinization. Our results suggest that while geology, combined 492 with hydrology, surface connectivity, and climate, controls the salt inputs from natural sources 493 and pathways of water flowing into the lake, human disturbances can export ions to lakes, 494 causing salinity and major ions to deviate from their background levels. 495 496 497 **Conflict of interest**: The authors declare no conflict of interest. 498 **Acknowledgment**: This work was supported by the US National Science Foundation (NSF) 499 Macrosystems Biology & NEON-Enabled Science Program (DEB #1638679) and the United 500 States Department of Agriculture (USDA) National Institute of Food and Agriculture, Hatch 501 502 project 1013544. 503 504 **References:** 505 Baker, L. A., Eilers, J. M., Cook, R. B., Kaufmann, P. R., & Herlihy, A. T. (1991). Interregional 506 Comparisons of Surface Water Chemistry and Biogeochemical Processes. In D. F. Charles 507 (Ed.), Acidic Deposition and Aquatic Ecosystems (pp. 567–613). Springer New York. 508 509 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4613-9038-1 23 Basu, S., Kumbier, K., Brown, J. B., & Yu, B. (2018). Iterative random forests to discover 510 predictive and stable high-order interactions. Proceedings of the National Academy of 511 Sciences, 115(8), 1943–1948. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1711236115 512 513 Bennett, D. M., Fritz, S. C., Holz, J. C., Holz, A. A., & Zlotnik, V. A. (2007). Evaluating climatic and non-climatic influences on ion chemistry in natural and man-made lakes of 514

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757

Supplementary Tables

Paper title: Natural and human drivers of salinity and major ion composition in United States lakes

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Table S1. Table of natural and human factors with variable sources, spatial scale, group, explanation, and data transformation information.

Factors_name_ in_figure	Factors_original_ name	Spatial scale of measurement	Group	Natural_ Human	Data sources	Explanation	Transformation in RF	Transformation in GLMNET
connectivity	lake_connectivity _class	lake	surface connectivity	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	Hydrologic connectivity class of the focal lake	NA	NA
elevation	lake_elevation_m	lake	location	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	Mean elevation in the zone	natural log	natural log
latitude	lake_lat_decdeg	lake	location	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	Latitude of the lake polygon centroid	NA	NA
longitude	lake_lon_decdeg	lake	location	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	Longitude of the lake polygon centroid	NA	NA
reservoir	lake_rsvr_class	lake	lake and watershed	N	LAGOS- US RESERV OIR	The classification of a lake into either natural lake or reservoir	NA	NA
shoreline dev factor	lake_shorelinedev factor	lake	lake and watershed	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	A measure of the deviation of lake shape from 1, which is a perfect circle, calculated from the lake water area and perimeter	natural log	natural log
lake area	lake_waterarea_h a	lake	lake and watershed	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	The water area of the lake contained within the outer shoreline	natural log	natural log
wet dep inorg N current	NA, calculated, kg/ha	HU12	atmospheric deposition	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Wet inorganic nitrogen deposition since year 2000 measured in 12-digit	NA	NA

						141		
						hydrological unit area (local sub- watershed level)		
wet dep inorg N diff	NA, calculated, kg/ha	HU12	atmospheric deposition	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percentage decrease in wet inorganic nitrogen deposition after year 2000 compared with before year 2000 (1985-2000)	NA	NA
wet dep no3 current	NA, calculated, kg/ha	HU12	atmospheric deposition	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Wet nitrate deposition since year 2000	NA	NA
wet dep no3 diff	NA, calculated, kg/ha	HU12	atmospheric deposition	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percentage decrease in wet nitrate deposition after year 2000 compared with before year 2000 (1985-2000)	NA	NA
wet dep so4 diff	NA, calculated, kg/ha	HU12	atmospheric deposition	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percentage decrease in wet sulfate deposition after year 2000 compared with before year 2000 (1985-2000)	NA	NA
wet dep so4 current	NA, calculated, kg/ha	HU12	atmospheric deposition	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Wet sulfate deposition since year 2000	NA	NA
manure	ManureMean	HU12	human activity	Н	EnviroAt las	Manure application (kg N/ha/yr)	natural log	natural log
evapotranspirat ion	NA, calculated	HU12	climate	N	Blodgett 2023	Long-term average evapotranspiration data by HU12 region	NA	NA
snowpack	NA, calculated	HU12	climate	N	Blodgett 2024	Long-term average snowpack water equivalent storage data by HU12 region	NA	NA
NEON region	neon_zoneid	NEON region	location	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	National Ecological Observatory Network (NEON) region id	NA	NA
precip long- term	NA, calculated	HU12	climate	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Long-term average precipitation data (5 years before sampling year)	NA	NA
roads 500m buff	road.500buff	500m buffer	human activity	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Road density in 500 m buffer around the shoreline of a LAGOS US lake polygon	natural log	natural log
temperature long-term	NA, calculated	HU12	climate	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Long-term average air temperature data (5 years before sampling year)	NA	NA
baseflow index	value.baseflowind ex_pct	HU12	hydrology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Mean within the zone of the percentage of streamflow that can be attributed to groundwater discharge into streams, calculated as baseflow divided by total flow using data from	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA

						1951-1980		
groundwater recharge	value.groundwate rrecharge_mmper yr	HU12	hydrology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Mean within the zone of annual groundwater recharge calculated as baseflow multiplied by mean annual runoff using data from 1951-1980	natural log	natural log
alluvium coastal fine	value.lith_alluviu mcoastalfine_pct	HU12	lithology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone with lithology classified as alluvium and fine textured coastal zone sediment	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
carbonate cesidual	value.lith_carbona teresid_pct	HU12	lithology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone with lithology classified as carbonate residual material	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
coastal zone coarse	value.lith_coastal zonecoarse_pct	HU12	lithology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone with lithology classified as coastal zone sediment, coarse textured	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
glacial outwash coarse	value.lith_glacialo utwashcoarse_pct	HU12	lithology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone with lithology classified as glacial outwash and glacial lake sediment, coarse textured	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
glacial till clayey	value.lith_glacialt illclayey_pct	HU12	lithology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone with lithology classified as glacial till, clayey	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
glacial till coarse	value.lith_glacialt illcoarse_pct	HU12	lithology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone with lithology classified as glacial till, coarse textured	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
aline lake ediment	value.lith_salinela ke_pct	HU12	lithology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone with lithology classified as saline lake sediment	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
nines heavy netal	value.mines_heav ymetal_n	HU12	human activity	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Count of heavy metal mines active in 2003 within the zone	natural log	natural log
CAFO	value.npdes_cafo _n	HU12	human activity	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Count of concentrated animal feed operations within the zone	natural log	natural log
najor lischarge sites	value.npdes_majo rdischarge_n	HU12	human activity	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Count of facilities with major discharges within the zone	natural log	natural log
tormwater rom industrial	value.npdes_stor mwaterindustrial_ n	HU12	human activity	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Count of industrial storm water sewers within the zone	natural log	natural log
tormwater rom municipal	value.npdes_stor mwatermunicipal _n	HU12	human activity	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Count of Phase I MS4: Municipal separate storm sewer systems within the zone	natural log	natural log
oad density HU12	value.roads_mper ha	HU12	human activity	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Road density within each HU12 region	natural log	natural log

	1 CC '				LACOC	M '41 ' 41 C 1		
runoff	value.runoff_inpe ryr	HU12	terrain	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Mean within the zone of annual runoff; data from 1951 to 1980	natural log	natural log
sat overland flow	value.satoverlandf low_pct	HU12	terrain	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Mean within the zone of the average percentage of saturation overland flow in total streamflow using data from 1951-1980	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
clay	value.soil_clay_p ct	HU12	soil	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Average percentage mass fraction of clay, 0 to 2 micrometers, in the 0 to 5 cm depth soil layer within the zone	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
coarse	value.soil_coarse_ pct	HU12	soil	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Average percentage by volume of coarse fragments in the 0 to 5 cm soil depth layer within the zone	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
depth to bedrock	value.soil_depthto bedrock cm	HU12	soil	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Average absolute depth to bedrock within the zone	natural log	natural log
k factor	value.soil_kffact	HU12	soil	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Average soil erodibility factor, not adjusted for the effect of rock fragments, within the zone	natural log	natural log
organic carbon	value.soil_orgcarb on_gperkg	HU12	soil	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Average organic carbon content, fine earth fraction, in the 0 to 5 cm soil layer within the zone	natural log	natural log
sand	value.soil_sand_p ct	HU12	soil	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Average percentage mass fraction of sand, 50 to 200 micrometers, in the 0 to 5 cm depth soil layer within the zone	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
silt	value.soil_silt_pct	HU12	soil	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Average percentage mass fraction of silt, 2 to 50 micrometers, in the 0 to 5 cm depth soil layer within the zone	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
streams density	value.streams_all _mperha	HU12	hydrology	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Density of all streams within the zone, calculated as the sum of the stream length divided by the zone area	natural log	natural log
topographic wetness	value.topographic wetness	HU12	terrain	N	LAGOS- US GEO	Mean topographic wetness index of cells within the zone	natural log	natural log
watershed area	ws_area_ha	watershed	lake and watershed	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	Area of zone polygon	natural log	natural log
watershed:lake area ratio	ws_lake_arearatio	lake	lake and watershed	N	LAGOS- US LOCUS	Ratio between watershed area and lake water area	natural log	natural log

agriculture	NA, combined nlcd_cultcrop82_ pct with nlcd_past81_pct	watershed	LU/LC	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone classified as cultivated crops or pasture and hay using 2006 data	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
grass	nlcd_grass71_pct	watershed	LU/LC	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone classified as grassland or herbaceous using 2006 data	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
shrub	nlcd_shrub52_pct	watershed	LU/LC	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone classified as shrub and scrub using 2006 data	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
developed	NA, combined nlcd_devopen21_pct, nlcd_devlow22_p ct, nlcd_devmed23_p ct, and nlcd_devhi24_pct	watershed	LU/LC	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone classified as developed, including open space and low, medium, and high intensity, using 2006 data	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
forest	NA, combined nlcd_forcon42_pc t, nlcd_fordec41_pc t, and nlcd_formix43_pc t	watershed	LU/LC	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone classified as evergreen forest, deciduous forest, or mixed forest using 2006 data	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA
wetland	NA, combined nlcd_wetemerg95 _pct with nlcd_wetwood90_ pct	watershed	LU/LC	Н	LAGOS- US GEO	Percent of zone classified as emergent herbaceous or woody wetlands using 2006 data	logit, generalized (-0.01 to 1.01)	NA

Table S2. Convert factors used for converting ion concentrations from mg/L to ueq/L. Convert factors were extracted from Hem (1985).

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Ions	Convert factor (from mg/L to ueq/L)
Ca	49.9
Mg	82.29
Na	43.5
K	25.58
Cl	28.21
SO4	20.82
Alkalinity (as CaCO3)	19.98

Hem, J.D. 1985. Study and Interpretation of the Chemical Characteristics of Natural Water. U.S. Geological Survey, Water Supply Paper 2254. Retrieved from https://pubs.usgs.gov/wsp/wsp2254/html/pdf.html

Table S3. Multinomial coefficients from a GLMNET model predicting ion composition cluster assignment. C1-C15 indicate ion clusters. Group indicates natural and human factor category.

ractor category.																	
Factors	Group	Natural_ Human	C1	C10	C11	C12	C13	C14	C15	C2	С3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8	C9
evapotranspiration	climate	N	0.06	0.03	0.12	0.06	0.17	0.05	-0.04	0.10	-0.05	0.00	0.09	-0.26	0.23	-0.09	-0.47
snowpack	climate	N	-0.05	-0.06	-0.05	-0.04	0.16	-0.11	0.12	0.06	-0.09	0.07	0.06	-0.01	0.03	-0.04	-0.07
precip long-term	climate	N	0.47	-0.05	0.72	-0.05	0.02	0.04	0.59	-0.46	-0.23	0.47	-0.33	-0.59	0.59	-0.58	-0.61
temperature long- term	climate	N	0.00	0.00	0.02	-0.09	-0.07	-0.01	0.04	-0.13	0.09	-0.08	0.00	0.15	0.01	-0.11	0.17
baseflow index	hydrology	N	-0.07	-0.19	0.35	0.18	0.14	-0.07	0.30	-0.46	0.33	-0.07	-0.31	0.00	0.03	-0.34	0.16
groundwater recharge	hydrology	N	0.15	-0.18	0.09	-0.02	0.15	0.04	0.28	0.10	-0.10	0.17	-0.13	-0.25	0.23	-0.41	-0.12
streams density	hydrology	N	-0.02	0.13	-0.14	-0.07	-0.23	0.06	-0.18	0.16	-0.06	-0.09	0.18	0.08	-0.09	0.00	0.27
shoreline dev factor	lake and watershed	N	0.30	0.11	-0.11	-0.25	-0.03	-0.06	-0.30	-0.02	0.05	0.01	-0.04	0.11	-0.01	0.13	0.13
lake area	lake and watershed	N	-0.06	-0.04	-0.28	0.06	-0.08	0.16	-0.24	0.05	0.03	-0.25	-0.09	0.31	0.12	0.11	0.20
watershed area	lake and watershed	N	-0.03	0.17	-0.14	-0.10	0.04	-0.02	-0.12	-0.05	0.03	-0.23	-0.03	0.24	-0.02	0.11	0.13
watershed:lake area ratio	lake and watershed	N	0.00	0.15	0.01	-0.10	0.07	-0.08	0.01	-0.06	0.01	-0.08	0.02	0.06	-0.07	0.04	0.02
alluvium coastal fine	lithology	N	-0.16	0.11	-0.15	-0.24	0.32	-0.05	0.33	-0.16	-0.13	0.00	-0.22	0.29	0.08	-0.05	0.03
carbonate residual	lithology	N	-0.03	-0.03	-0.04	0.02	0.15	0.10	0.08	0.04	0.09	-0.04	-0.12	-0.13	-0.08	-0.04	0.02
coastal zone coarse	lithology	N	0.26	0.24	-0.05	-0.02	0.00	-0.15	-0.14	-0.02	-0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.02	0.00	-0.05
glacial outwash coarse	lithology	N	0.14	-0.11	0.03	0.04	0.03	-0.06	0.04	0.04	0.03	-0.05	-0.14	-0.06	-0.04	-0.13	0.23
glacial till clayey	lithology	N	0.04	0.00	-0.04	-0.05	0.13	-0.06	0.07	-0.05	-0.08	-0.01	-0.10	0.29	-0.11	-0.13	0.09
glacial till coarse	lithology	N	0.16	0.17	-0.07	-0.08	-0.19	-0.08	-0.16	0.04	-0.18	0.02	0.15	-0.01	0.23	0.04	-0.04
saline lake sediment	lithology	N	0.00	0.02	0.09	-0.04	-0.01	-0.04	-0.05	-0.05	0.04	-0.02	-0.08	0.19	-0.01	0.01	-0.06
elevation	location	N	-0.54	-0.49	0.34	-0.03	-0.19	-0.05	0.27	0.16	-0.38	0.63	0.14	0.02	-0.06	0.08	0.11
latitude	location	N	0.11	-0.17	-0.06	0.28	0.37	0.17	-0.32	0.00	0.00	0.16	0.25	-0.45	-0.36	0.41	-0.39
longitude	location	N	-0.02	0.00	-0.29	-0.17	-0.06	0.16	-0.20	0.36	-0.19	0.10	0.04	0.02	0.21	0.21	-0.18

NEON region	location	N	0.00	-0.05	0.08	0.05	0.03	-0.01	-0.04	0.02	0.16	-0.06	-0.07	0.01	-0.10	-0.03	0.03
clay	soil	N	-0.47	-0.67	-0.82	0.52	-0.15	0.18	-0.01	-0.58	0.55	-1.08	0.31	0.79	0.02	0.70	0.72
coarse	soil	N	-0.24	-0.11	0.11	-0.12	0.46	-0.01	-0.10	0.60	-0.25	0.38	-0.10	0.01	-0.01	-0.37	-0.27
depth to bedrock	soil	N	-0.01	0.00	-0.08	0.45	0.17	-0.13	-0.04	-0.31	-0.10	-0.22	0.44	0.11	-0.24	0.12	-0.16
k factor	soil	N	0.09	0.24	-0.10	-0.19	0.06	0.20	0.11	-0.23	-0.06	-0.23	0.08	0.07	-0.04	0.05	-0.07
organic carbon	soil	N	0.50	0.26	-0.08	-0.02	0.15	-0.12	-0.01	0.05	-0.23	0.26	-0.42	-0.30	-0.15	-0.10	0.20
sand	soil	N	0.14	0.26	0.26	0.05	-0.26	-0.07	0.14	0.05	0.01	0.09	-0.57	0.05	0.26	-0.23	-0.16
silt	soil	N	-0.05	-0.06	0.00	-0.06	0.07	0.02	-0.02	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.02	-0.01	-0.02	0.05	-0.01
drainage	surface connectivity	N	0.15	-0.15	-0.60	0.09	-0.36	0.40	0.18	0.08	0.50	-0.27	-0.09	-0.16	0.32	-0.46	0.37
headwater	surface connectivity	N	-0.76	0.45	-0.66	0.08	-0.15	-0.07	-0.20	0.58	-0.22	0.04	-0.14	0.63	0.05	-0.14	0.50
terminal	surface connectivity	N	-0.06	-0.30	-0.18	-0.38	0.02	0.38	-0.43	0.20	-0.63	0.55	-0.30	-0.10	0.27	0.99	-0.02
runoff_zone	terrain	N	0.35	-0.17	0.07	-0.18	0.27	0.14	0.24	0.37	-0.10	0.37	-0.21	-0.60	0.44	-0.59	-0.39
sat overland flow	terrain	N	0.20	0.09	0.23	-0.08	-0.10	0.32	-0.14	0.32	-0.27	-0.05	-0.25	-0.07	0.31	-0.34	-0.17
topographic wetness	terrain	N	-0.02	-0.13	0.09	0.35	-0.14	-0.06	0.14	-0.30	-0.10	-0.31	-0.29	0.19	0.18	0.31	0.09
wet dep inorg N current	atmospheric deposition	Н	-0.06	0.01	0.10	-0.11	0.01	-0.35	-0.19	0.03	0.15	0.09	-0.05	0.15	-0.05	0.09	0.17
wet dep no3 current	atmospheric deposition	Н	-0.01	0.23	-0.41	-0.55	0.26	-0.15	-0.66	-0.11	0.73	0.40	-0.22	0.41	-0.50	-0.14	0.73
wet dep no3 diff	atmospheric deposition	Н	0.17	0.24	0.18	0.12	-0.23	0.11	-0.04	-0.01	-0.11	-0.11	-0.10	-0.10	-0.05	-0.13	0.04
wet dep so4 diff	atmospheric deposition	Н	0.14	-0.33	-0.31	-0.13	0.15	-0.20	-0.15	-0.22	0.08	-0.18	0.46	0.03	0.15	0.25	0.27
manure	human activity	Н	-0.20	0.10	0.13	-0.16	-0.14	0.25	0.17	-0.19	0.25	-0.14	-0.27	-0.17	0.06	0.12	0.19
roads 500m buff	human activity	Н	0.47	0.45	-0.37	-0.29	-0.38	0.24	-0.27	-0.58	0.22	-0.76	0.01	0.46	0.19	0.09	0.53
major discharge sites	human activity	Н	0.00	-0.01	-0.04	-0.03	-0.04	-0.06	-0.01	-0.05	0.05	0.00	-0.12	0.23	-0.02	0.05	0.06
stormwater from industrial	human activity	Н	0.13	-0.05	-0.06	-0.04	-0.02	0.19	-0.01	-0.06	-0.01	0.11	-0.08	-0.09	-0.13	0.00	0.11

road density HU12	human activity	Н	0.27	0.00	-0.18	-0.15	-0.49	0.00	0.16	-0.28	-0.24	0.08	0.02	0.71	0.02	-0.12	0.22
agriculture	LU/LC	Н	-0.12	0.23	0.08	0.16	-0.09	-0.14	0.16	-0.26	0.30	-0.09	-0.19	0.04	-0.44	0.14	0.22
grass	LU/LC	Н	0.04	-0.18	-0.06	-0.17	0.00	0.07	-0.08	0.06	-0.06	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.10	0.04	-0.05
shrub	LU/LC	Н	-0.02	0.35	0.08	-0.04	-0.01	0.04	-0.11	-0.11	-0.11	0.14	0.01	-0.02	-0.03	-0.09	-0.07
developed	LU/LC	Н	0.01	0.28	-0.12	-0.07	-0.06	0.14	-0.07	-0.21	-0.08	-0.19	-0.21	0.26	0.02	0.07	0.22
forest	LU/LC	Н	-0.03	-0.72	0.28	0.21	0.53	0.03	0.48	0.27	-0.14	0.18	0.01	-0.52	0.59	-0.36	-0.79
wetland	LU/LC	Н	0.02	-0.10	-0.08	0.13	-0.13	0.03	0.10	0.01	-0.03	-0.12	0.06	-0.04	0.02	0.01	0.12

Table S4. Number of lakes in each connectivity class in each cluster.

Cluster	Drainage	Headwater	Isolated	Terminal
12	10	2	8	0
13	16	4	7	1
15	43	6	13	1
7	84	12	7	1
11	12	2	12	1
4	34	17	8	3
2	60	17	6	3
8	44	4	34	17
6	23	5	10	3
9	125	12	14	3
14	118	8	11	4
1	23	0	4	0
10	80	11	18	1
5	52	2	12	3
3	145	10	31	1

Supplementary Figures

Paper title: Natural and human drivers of salinity and major ion composition in United States lakes Authors: Xinyu Sun, Kendra Spence Cheruvelil, Patrick J. Hanly, Katherine E. Webster, & Patricia A. Soranno

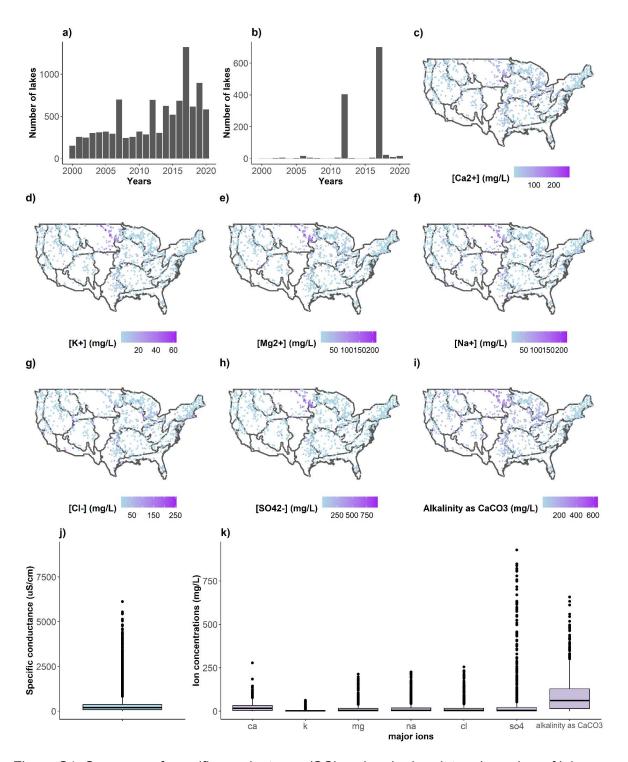


Figure S1. Summary of specific conductance (SC) and major ion data: a) number of lakes sampled in each latest SC sampling year; b) number of lakes sampled in each latest major ion sampling year; c) - i) maps showing major ion and alkalinity levels (mg/L) by NEON region; j)

boxplot showing the distribution of SC data; and k) boxplots showing the distribution of major ion concentrations. See Figure 1 caption for NEON region names.

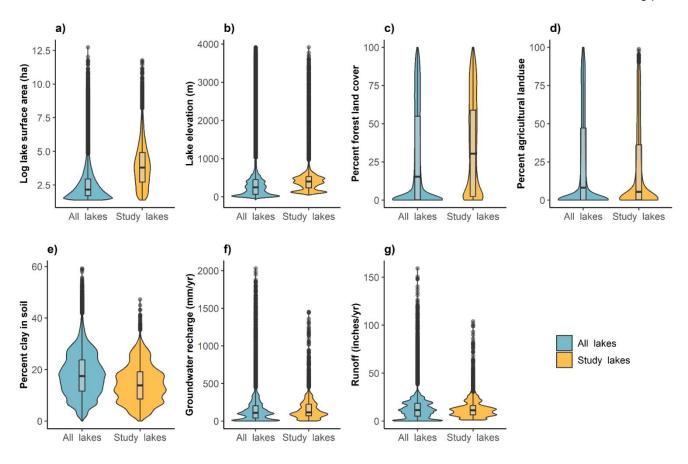


Figure S2. Comparison of all lakes > 4 ha in the U.S. (All lakes, blue) relative to the study lake population (Study lakes, orange). The violin plots show all data for the two groups of lakes; the black dots are the median values; and, the boxes within the violin plots are the interquartile ranges. The study lakes are included in the all-lake population derived from the LAGOS lake population > 4 ha.

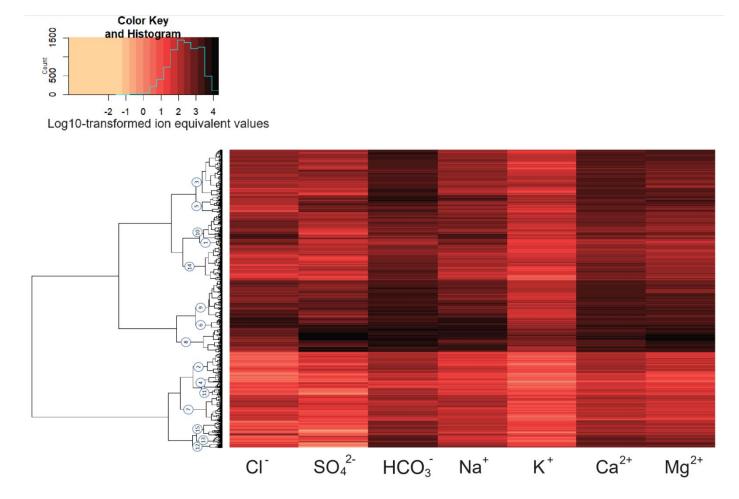


Figure S3. A Heatmap showing log10-transformed major ion equivalent values grouped by clusters with a dendrogram on the left edge. The histogram at the top shows the color key and distribution of data.

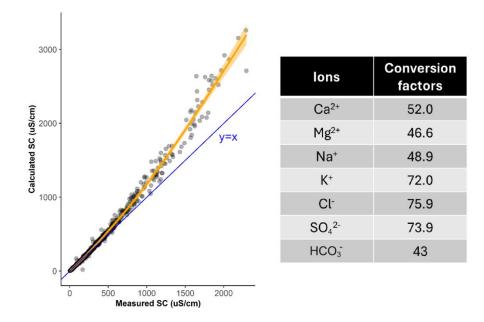
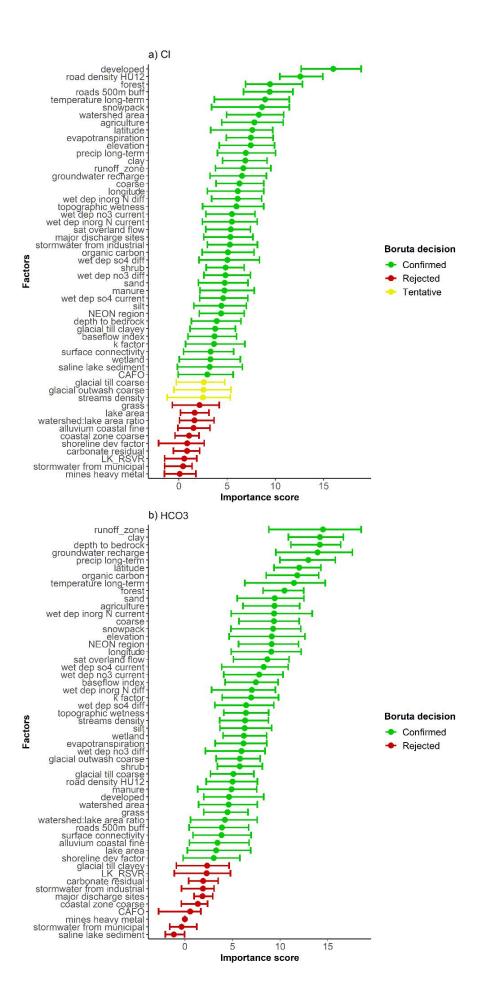


Figure S4. Lake-specific relationships between SC and salinity values calculated using ion equivalent concentrations (in μ eq/L). The ion conversion factors used in the calculation are listed in the table on the right. The orange curve is the general additive model fitted regression line and the shaded area represents 1 SD.



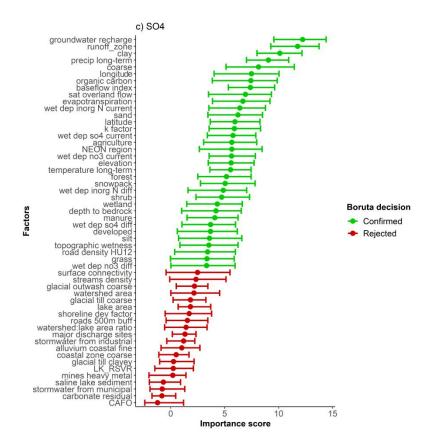


Figure S5. Importance scores from Boruta feature selection for the three anions: Cl⁻ (a), HCO₃⁻ (b), and SO4²⁻ (c). Green dots and bars indicate that the factors were identified as 'important' by Boruta; yellow dots and bars indicate that the factors were identified as 'tentative' by Boruta; and red dots and bars indicate that Boruta rejected the factors. Dots are the mean Boruta importance values and bars are the minimum and maximum Boruta importance values.

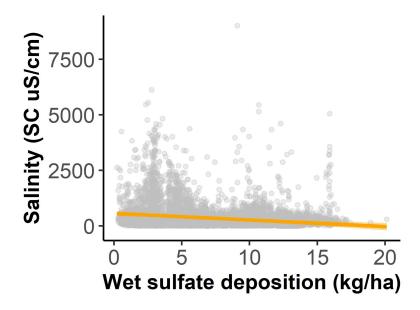


Figure S6. Scatterplot showing the relationship between wet sulfate deposition and salinity (using SC as a proxy). An orange linear regression line was added to show the overall trend.