

1 **Periodic signals of climatic variables and water quality in a river- eutrophic pond- wetland**
2 **cascade ecosystem tracked by wavelet coherence analysis**

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21
22 **Abstract** –Lakes are sensitive to changes in their environmental boundary conditions that can be
23 indicated in the periodic behavior of water quality variables. The present work aims to assess the
24 degree to which common annual periodic behavior is present (1994-2010) in the meteorological
25 parameters (global radiation, air temperature, cloud cover), streamflow; and five primary nutrients

26 (e.g. total phosphorus, nitrate-nitrogen) as possible indicators of ecosystem vulnerability in four
27 different ecosystems using wavelet coherence analysis. The cascade system is located in the mouth
28 of a shallow river where the water flows through a eutrophic pond then a disturbed/undisturbed
29 macrophyte covered wetland reaching a large shallow lake. The results highlight the differing abilities
30 of the elements of the cascade of ecosystems to follow seasonality. The changes in water quality
31 (nutrient cycle) in the eutrophic pond most closely mirror meteorological seasonality. The
32 vulnerability of the wetland ecosystem was expressed by its decreased capacity to follow seasonal
33 changes due to high algae loads and additional inflows. Moreover, the wetland proved to be weak
34 and unstable regarding phosphorus and nitrogen retention. With the successful application of wavelet
35 coherence analysis to the “black-box” cascade system the study sets an example for the implications
36 of the method in such combined or stand-alone natural/partially-constructed ecosystems.

37

38 **Keywords:** ecosystem management, eutrophication, Kis-Balaton Water Protection System,
39 macrophyte cover, meteorological driving effect, nutrient retention, vulnerability

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Water, and especially fresh water, is one of the most critical natural resources which is highly
43 endangered by climate change and anthropogenic activity (Vörösmarty et al., 2000). It has been
44 documented that environmental (Reynolds, 1984) and anthropogenic factors (Kovács et al., 2010)
45 govern and may indeed corrupt the capacity of freshwater ecosystems to follow seasonal changes. In
46 the moderate climate zone aquatic ecosystems, e.g. rivers (Wong et al., 1978) and shallow lakes are
47 per se susceptible to eutrophication (Padisak, 1992), while even constructed wetlands (Kadlec, 1999)
48 tend to follow seasonal changes in hydrometeorology as far as the variables describing their quality
49 and/or quantity are concerned. This phenomenon is mirrored in the seasonal behavior of e.g. runoff
50 (Dettinger and Diaz, 2000), concentrations of nitrogen (Exner-Kittridge et al., 2016) and phosphorus

51 forms (Istvánovics, 1988), or phytoplankton biomass (Reynolds, 1984) through the changing
52 temporal-, light- and hydrologic conditions. In all of these cases, these various characteristics hold
53 vital information about the ecological state of the systems, i.e. of the shallow lakes, rivers,
54 constructed/natural wetlands.

55 Hitherto, the periodic behavior of a certain water quality variable has usually been studied.
56 There are only a few cases in which sets or groups of parameters, e.g. nutrients, ions, etc. (Kovács et
57 al., 2017), or multiple parameters individually (e.g. chlorophyll-a, sodium-, potassium ions, nitrate-
58 nitrogen) (Kovács et al., 2010) have been assessed together to describe the overall capacity of a habitat
59 or several habitats, to follow the seasonal changes. Although the studies cited present a significant
60 and validated picture of the periodic behavior of freshwater ecosystems, they do not directly explore
61 the relationship - that is, the coherence - of the periodic behavior of water quality variables with
62 meteorology. This present study aims to remedy this shortcoming and explore the direct relationship
63 of water quality parameters (mostly inorganic nutrients) with local climate and streamflow in a
64 cascade system consisting of a shallow river, a eutrophic pond and a wetland with both an
65 undisturbed- and disturbed habitats.

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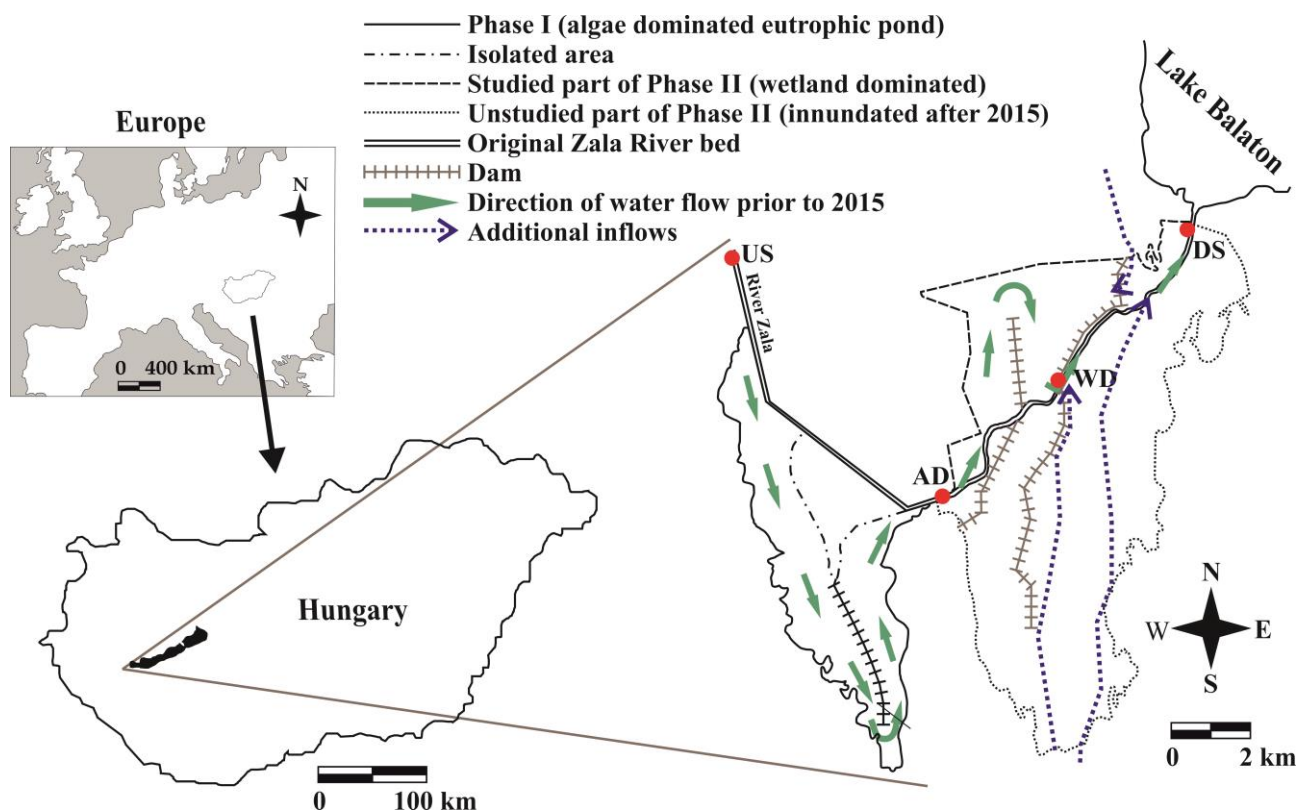
67 **1.1. Study area description**

68 The Kis-Balaton Water Protection System (KBWPS) assessed here functions as a treatment
69 reservoir-wetland system, and was constructed to reduce diffuse nutrient loads reaching Lake
70 Balaton, the largest (surface area approx. 594 km²) lake in Central Europe. Improving water quality
71 and preserving its good ecological status of the lake is one of the primary goals of European water
72 management (EC, 2000; ICPDR, 2015). The largest tributary to the lake, the River Zala, supplies
73 almost 50% of its water and 35-40% of its nutrient input (Hatvani et al., 2014), therefore significantly
74 affecting its water quality. In the nineteenth century the water level of Lake Balaton and the River
75 Zala was regulated (Lotz, 1988). As a result of this artificial modification, the former wetland areas

76 of Kis-Balaton - located in the Lower Zala Valley - partially dried up and to a great extent became
77 incapable of performing their natural filtering function. Combined with increased agricultural activity
78 (e.g. fertilizer usage) and urbanization (e.g. waste water production) in the course of the 20th century,
79 these changes resulted in the continuous deterioration of Balaton's water quality (Hatvani et al., 2014;
80 2015; Somlyódy et al., 1983) and occasionally led to considerable economic losses in the tourism
81 sector (Istvánovics et al., 2007). To halt and reverse these negative trends, comprehensive measures
82 for nutrient reduction were taken (Hatvani et al., 2015; Somlyódy et al., 1983) resulting in a 50-60%
83 decrease in biologically available nutrients (Padisák et al., 2006a).

84 An important part of these measures, the Kis-Balaton Water Protection System (KBWPS) was
85 created in two constructional phases. The remains of the former Kis-Balaton Wetland at the mouth
86 of the River Zala (**Fig. 1**) were revitalized, and in Phase I, an 18 km² reservoir was inundated,
87 commencing operation in 1985. With average depth of ~1 m and a water residence time of approx.
88 30 days (Hatvani, 2014), this has become an algae-dominated “eutrophic pond” (**Fig. 1**). In it, summer
89 phytoplankton biomass (chlorophyll-a concentration) exceeds 200 mg m⁻³ and is dominated by
90 cyanobacteria. About 80% of the phosphorus (P) loads are bound in algae and sediment (Mátyás et
91 al., 2003). In 1992 Phase II was put into operation, though up to 2014 only a part of it (16 km²) was
92 inundated. This area (the “wetland”) is covered by macrophytes (**Fig. 1**). The water residence time
93 here is approximately twice as long as in Phase I (Hatvani, 2014). This “classic wetland” part of the
94 system is covered by reed-dominated macrophytes; euphytoplankton species are therefore scarce,
95 while meroplanktonic species can be found in high number in open water patches (WTWD, 2012).

96



97

0 100 km

98 **Fig. 1. Location of the study are and the sampling sites (US: upstream, AD: algae dominated,**
 99 **WD: macrophyte dominated, DS: downstream; detailed description in Section 2.2.) marked**
 100 **with red dots (based on Hatvani (2014)). Note, in other studies the sites assessed here (US, AD,**
 101 **WD, DS) are referred to as: Z15, Z11, Kb210, Z27 respectively.**

102

103 Since the water coming from the River Zala passes through the different ecosystems (habitats)
 104 of the KBWPS and changes into lake water, it is suspected that hydrochemical seasonality (Kolander
 105 and Tylkowski, 2008; Tanos et al., 2015) - governed mainly by temperature driving the dynamics of
 106 biological processes - will be present/corrupted to a different degree in the various habitats mirroring
 107 their local characteristics. This is the particular process that is investigated in the present study with
 108 state-of-the-art statistical tools using the key link between hydrochemical seasonality and the
 109 periodicity of the water quality parameters.

110

111 1.2. Study aims

112 The specific questions of the study were, how are the differences in behavior (e.g. in nutrient
113 retention) of the connected freshwater ecosystems (shallow river, eutrophic pond and an
114 undisturbed/disturbed wetlands) indicated in the change in common periodicity between the daily
115 measured water quality and the meteorological parameters or streamflow? It is to be expected that by
116 exploring the previously mentioned characteristics a far-reaching overall picture may be obtained of
117 the functioning of the cascade system prevailed by a consistent in/anti-phase coherence. This may
118 serve as an example for the assessment of wetlands ecosystems set up with similar mitigation
119 purposes (Cao et al., 2016; Dunne et al., 2015; Martín et al., 2013; Ni et al., 2016) and be a solid
120 foundation laid down for the wider applicability of the methodology in limnology.

121

122 **2. Materials and methods**

123 **2.1. Dataset used**

124 In the study, the daily time series of 5 water quality parameters (WQPs) - nitrate-nitrogen (NO₃-
125 N); total nitrogen (TN); total phosphorus (TP); phosphate-phosphorus (abbreviated as SRP); total
126 suspended solids (TSS, mg l⁻¹) - were examined, along with background meteorological parameters
127 and daily streamflow (Q; m³ min⁻¹). This latter is the amount of water passing through a cross-section
128 of the assessed system in a given time. The meteorological parameters included were global radiation
129 (GR, J cm⁻²), air temperature (T, °C), precipitation (mm) and cloud cover (CC, tenths) (Spinoni et al.,
130 2015). The meteorological parameters together with Q will be referred to as independent variables
131 (IVs) in the study. All data were assessed using wavelet spectrum and wavelet coherence analyses
132 (Torrence and Compo, 1998) for the time interval 1994-2010 from four sampling sites of the KBWPS
133 (**Fig. 1**). The sites were (**Fig. 1**):

- 134 • Upstream, the input of the KBWPS, representing the River Zala, abbreviated in the present study
135 as “US”

- 136 • The outflow of the algae-dominated shallow eutrophic pond Phase I., abbreviated in the present
137 study as “AD”.
- 138 • The outflow of the macrophyte-dominated wetland habitat, representing the undisturbed wetland,
139 abbreviated in the present study as “WD”
- 140 • The downstream outlet of KBWPS, including the outflow water of the wetland and additional
141 external inputs reach the system bringing a 40% excess in streamflow (Hatvani et al., 2014), thus
142 representing a “mixed” wetland habitat (disturbed wetland); abbreviated in the present study as “DS”.
- 143 The latter two (WD and DS) will be referred to together in certain places of the paper as Phase II
144 (**Fig. 1**). Please note that for Q at WD, the data was only available from 01.01.1995.

145

146 **2.2. Methodology**

147 The periodic behavior of the independent variables was evaluated using wavelet spectrum
148 analysis to identify those time intervals lacking annual periodicity. Than to find the direct common
149 periodic signal between the water quality parameters and the independent variables, wavelet
150 transform coherence (WTC) was used, as it was applied e.g. to uncover the relationship between
151 climate indices and streamflow variability (Nalley et al., 2016), to explore the relationship between
152 water levels and chlorophyll-a in Lake Baiyangdian (Wang et al., 2012). This approach was also used,
153 e.g. on stable isotopes in precipitation and temperature (Salamalikis et al., 2016), on speleothems and
154 climate variables (Hatvani et al., 2017), or in assessing low-frequency variability in hydroclimate
155 records from east Central Europe (Sen and Kern, 2016).

156 Wavelet spectrum analysis is considered as a function localized in both frequency and time with
157 a zero mean (Grinsted et al., 2004); it could also be taken as the convolution of the data and the
158 wavelet function (Kovács et al., 2010) for a time series ($X_n, n=1, \dots, N$) with a ‘ Δt ’ degree of uniform
159 resolution (Eq. 1):

160
$$W_n^X(s) = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta t}{s}} \sum_{n'=1}^N X_{n'} \Psi_0 \left[(n' - n) \frac{\Delta t}{s} \right] \quad (1)$$

161 Here N stands for the length of the time series, ψ_0 the wavelet function and s the scale. In the
162 present case to generate daughter wavelets the Morlet mother wavelet (Morlet et al., 1982) was used
163 as the source function.

164 Wavelet spectrum analysis provides the basis for wavelet transform coherence, which is able to
165 indicate the common power of two variables, being in this way similar to a correlation coefficient,
166 but localized in the frequency-time space (Grinsted et al., 2004). While wavelet spectrum analysis takes
167 into account one variable in 3D (period, power and its localization in the time-frequency space),
168 wavelet transform coherence does the same but for two variables (in this case, one dependent and one
169 independent) in 4D, because the phase differences, which represent the temporal lags, are included
170 as well.

171 In the study only the positive signals significant ($\alpha=0.01$) against a thousand first-order auto
172 regressive AR(1), surrogate time series were considered; for details see Roesch and Schmidbauer
173 (2014). It should be noted that, since the wavelet functions at each scale are normalized, the wavelet
174 transforms of the results are comparable even to other time series (Torrence and Compo, 1998). Three
175 main characteristics of the wavelet transform coherence were used:

176 (i) the presence of the coherent periods in time, which meant that the significant periodic
177 behavior –coherence - at a certain frequency was transformed into percentages, while taking as 100%
178 the presence of the coherence/period throughout the whole investigated time as in previous studies
179 (Hatvani (2014); Kovács et al. (2010)),

180 (ii) the maximum global–wavelet power, which is the average cross-wavelet power in the
181 frequency domain (averages over time(Roesch and Schmidbauer, 2014),

182 and (iii) the phase differences between the pairs of water quality parameters and meteorological
183 parameters which show which series is the leading one in this relationship (Fig. A1).

184

185 **2.3. Software used**

186 For the calculations R statistical environment was used (R Core Team, 2016): the wavelet
187 spectrum analysis was performed with the `analyze.wavelet` function, while the wavelet
188 transform coherence results were generated with the `analyze.coherency` function of the
189 `WaveletComp` package (Roesch and Schmidbauer, 2014).

190

191 **3. Results**

192 **3.1. Overview of the system**

193 The varying concentrations of the examined water quality parameters indicate the presence of
194 distinct borders between the different habitats/ecosystems. The River Zala brings a fair amount of
195 nutrients (P and N) to the system through the US site, where about half of the TP is SRP, and where
196 TN mostly consists of NO₃-N (Table 1). In the eutrophic pond these nutrients (SRP; NO₃-N) are
197 mostly bound in algae, which in turn form most of the TSS (Pomogyi, 1996); Fig. A2). Thus, the
198 level of TSS does not significantly decrease compared to that of the River Zala (US), due to the
199 change in its composition from inorganic to organic. In Phase II (WD and DS), however the amount
200 of N drops to ~50% and TSS to 20% of the concentrations seen in the eutrophic pond, while P
201 retention in Phase II is clearly low (Table 1). It is known that the level of particulate N increases up
202 to the outflow of the eutrophic pond (site AD) then decreases in the wetland (WD); organic matter is
203 decomposed and filtered out by the macrophyte cover (Fig. 2). Dissolved organic nitrogen (DON)
204 shows values similar to that of particulate nitrogen (PN) up to the outflow of the eutrophic pond and
205 accounts for half of TN; it follows the increase of algae biomass (in this case approximated by TSS).
206 In the wetland, DON slightly decreases, but not to the same degree as the nitrate-nitrogen. Therefore,
207 at the downstream outlet of the wetland to Lake Balaton (DS; Fig. 1) N is in dissolved state, but it is
208 not nitrate-nitrogen, rather DON.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the water quality parameters (WQPs) at the different sampling locations (SLs), where M denotes the mean, SD the standard deviation R the range in mg l⁻¹, and CV the coefficient of variation in % (1994-2010). The number of measurements was equally 6209 for each site and variable.

	SLs/WQPs	SRP	TP	NO ₃ -N	TN	TSS
M	US	0.10	0.19	2.01	3.20	33.74
	AD	0.02	0.17	0.42	2.84	24.05
	WD	0.12	0.17	0.22	1.62	3.49
	DS	0.10	0.16	0.27	1.73	5.44
R	US	0.80	3.14	7.83	10.84	3157.00
	AD	0.49	0.83	4.00	12.06	170.00
	WD	0.56	1.07	2.88	12.34	77.00
	DS	0.50	0.86	3.45	8.32	117.00
±SD	US	0.06	0.13	0.69	0.97	92.71
	AD	0.03	0.12	0.60	1.43	16.30
	WD	0.10	0.12	0.34	0.60	3.94
	DS	0.08	0.11	0.35	0.62	6.25
CV	US	0.59	0.71	0.34	0.30	2.75
	AD	1.73	0.72	1.44	0.51	0.68
	WD	0.81	0.70	1.53	0.37	1.13
	DS	0.83	0.68	1.31	0.36	1.15

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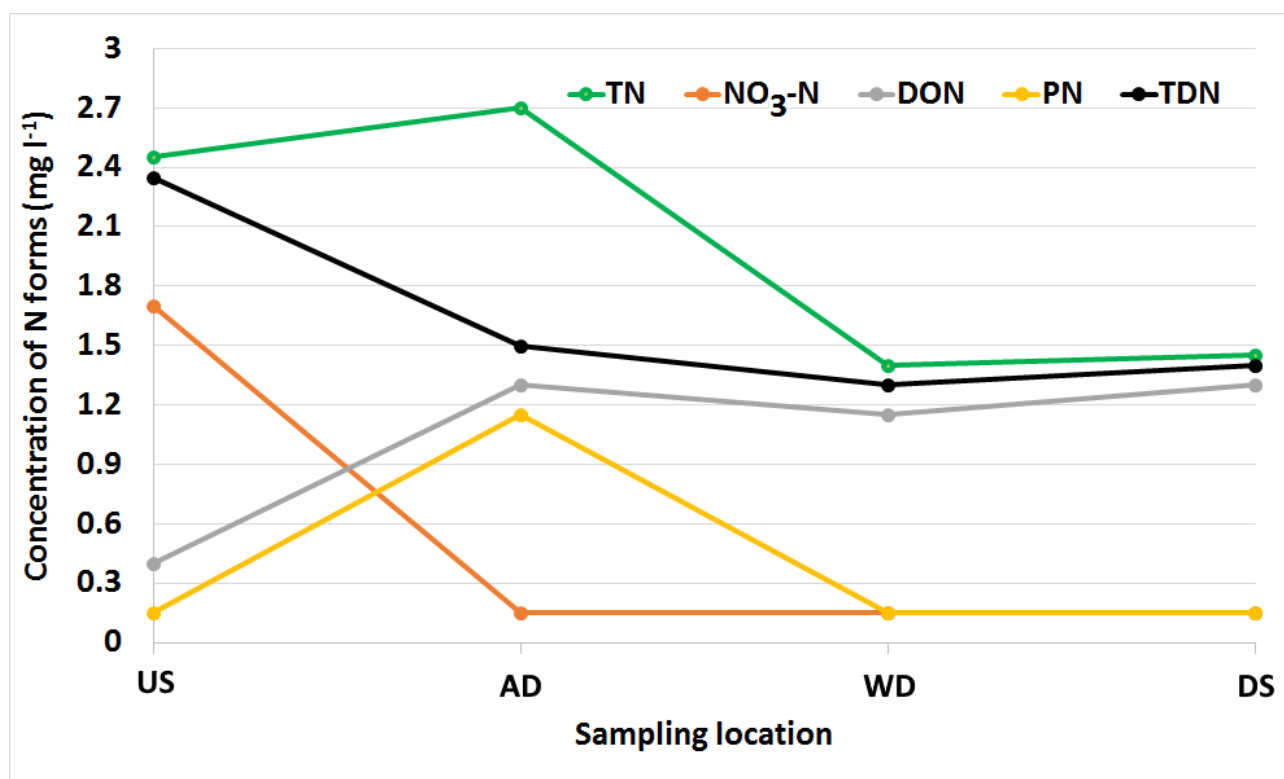
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The highest degrees of variability (CV > 100%) are reported for TSS in the River Zala (US), and SRP and NO₃-N in the eutrophic pond (AD), and again TSS and NO₃-N in Phase II (WD and DS; Table 1).



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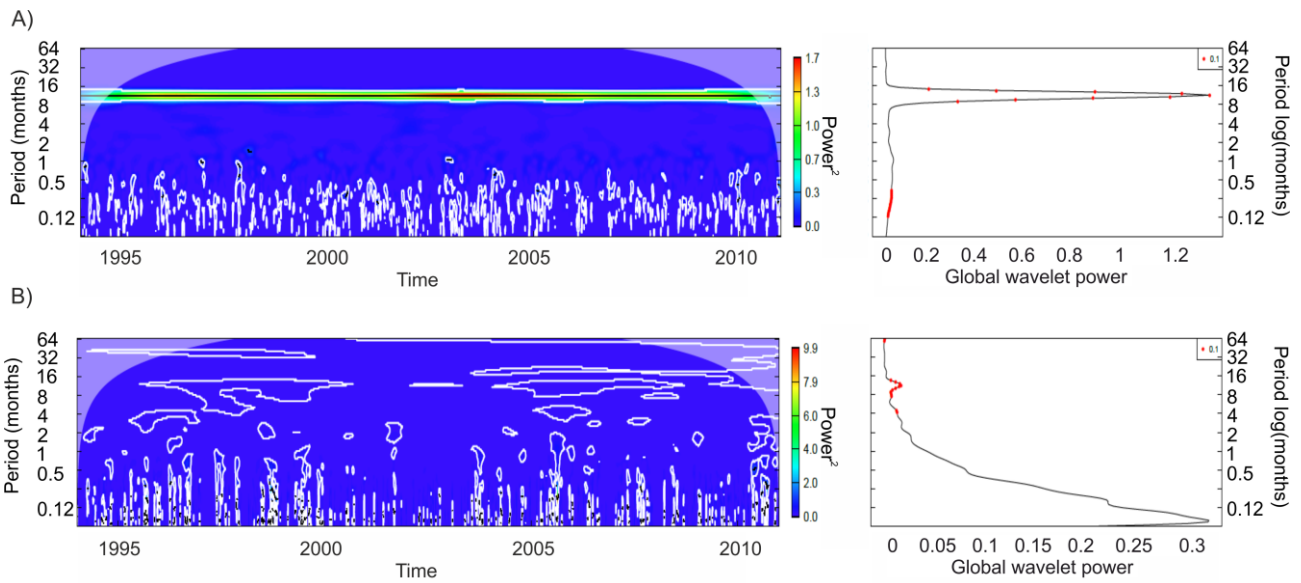
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Fig. 2. Average annual (2011) concentrations of TN: total nitrogen; NO₃-N: nitrate-nitrogen; DON: dissolved organic nitrogen; PN: particulate N and TDN: total dissolved N; based on data taken from WTWD (2012)

3.2. Periodic behavior of the meteorological parameters

As expected, wavelet spectrum analysis indicated a strong and significant annual periodicity throughout the whole investigated period for all (e.g. Fig. 3a) but one of the independent variables. The exception is precipitation (Fig. 3b). In the power spectrum density graph of precipitation major gaps were observed in its annual periodicity, e.g. between ~2000 and ~2002 (Fig. 3b). In addition, it indicated the weakest global wavelet power in the one-year period band (Table 2). Thus, due to its more intermittent and weak seasonality, it was omitted from the wavelet transform coherence analyses to avoid misleading and unstable results. Regarding the other independent variables, the global wavelet power was highest for T and GR, while the second weakest was for CC. In the case of Q, a clear continuous increase (~34%) can be observed downstream from US to DS.

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235

236 **Fig. 3. Power spectrum density (left panels) and time-averaged wavelet power (right panel)**
 237 **graphs indicating the presence of annual periodicity in (a) the temperature and (b)**
 238 **precipitation time series at the US sampling site location for 1994-2010. The white contours in**
 239 **the left panels and the red dots in the right ones show the 90% confidence levels calculated**
 240 **against a thousand AR (1) surrogates. It should be noted that wavelet spectrum analysis**
 241 **coherence and wavelet transform coherence produce edge artifacts, since the wavelet is not**
 242 **completely localized in time, thus the introduction of a cone of influence (COI; dimmed area**
 243 **on the left panels) is suggested, in which edge effects cannot be ignored (Torrence and Compo,**
 244 **1998).**

245

246 **Table 2. Global wavelet power of the independent variables at the one-year period for the**
 247 **different sampling site locations (1994-2010; for streamflow (Q) at the WD site location 1995-**
 248 **2010)**

WQPs/SLs	US	AD	WD	DS
CC	0.18	0.18	0.19	0.18
GR	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25

Precipitation	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
T	1.35	1.40	1.40	1.35
Q	0.23	0.25	0.33	0.35

249

250 **3.3. Common presence of the annual period and maximum global power**

251 As the main step, pairs were set up using the water quality parameters and the independent
 252 variables and their coherence was examined using wavelet transform coherence. Results showed that
 253 most of the corresponding water quality parameters and the independent variables pairs have a
 254 significant common annual periodicity over the entire studied time interval. In the frequency bands
 255 other than those corresponding to the annual period, the global wavelet powers of the coherences
 256 were always noticeably weak and/or insignificant ($\alpha=0.01$; as an example, see later Fig. 4a).

257 This coherence in annual periodicity was most powerful between the P forms and the
 258 independent variables (especially GR and T; Table 3). At the US site SRP, and in the eutrophic pond
 259 TP, gave a higher global wavelet power at the one-year period band. These powers reached their
 260 maxima after the year 2000 (see later Fig. 4). The coherence of P forms with streamflow was the
 261 weakest at US and in the AD area, while it was the highest and of the same magnitude in the two
 262 sampling locations (WD and DS) of Phase II of the KBWPS. It should be noted that, in general, TP
 263 displayed the strongest coherences in the system (avg. global power = 0.70).

264 Regarding the N forms, the global wavelet power of TN was of the same magnitude at US and
 265 in Phase II (WD and DS); it was strongest at AD with GR and T. In the meanwhile, for $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, the
 266 picture was somewhat similar to that of TN, but more balanced. However, coherence was still highest
 267 at AD.

268 In the case of TSS in general, weak coherences were observed in the system, avg. global power
 269 = 0.26 except at AD (Table 3). Its coherence with e.g. CC at US and in Phase II (WD and DS) was
 270 <0.08, making it hard to draw solid conclusions. The highest degrees of coherence were to be seen at
 271 AD, where the coherence of the WQPs with CC and Q increased as well. TSS here had nearly as high

272 a degree of coherence with GR and T as did the TP (Table 3). The weakest coherences in general for
 273 TSS were seen at WD (avg. power=0.07).

274

275 **Table 3. Global wavelet powers of the WQPs and the independent variables (IVs) for 1994-**
 276 **2010. In the case of streamflow (Q), at the WD sampling location, for 1995-2010. The darker**
 277 **red shades indicate higher powers, the darker blue shades smaller ones.**

WQP	IVs	Sampling location			
		US	AD	WD	DS
SRP	CC	0.35	0.15	0.40	0.40
	GR	0.95	0.40	1.10	1.10
	T	1.00	0.48	1.20	1.20
	Q	0.39	0.19	0.53	0.53
TP	CC	0.23	0.38	0.40	0.40
	GR	0.60	1.10	1.10	1.15
	T	0.60	1.10	1.20	1.20
	Q	0.25	0.47	0.54	0.55
NO ₃ -N	CC	0.25	0.32	0.30	0.28
	GR	0.67	0.80	0.72	0.78
	T	0.68	0.90	0.75	0.80
	Q	0.27	0.39	0.38	0.43
TN	CC	0.15	0.26	0.15	0.14
	GR	0.39	0.78	0.39	0.40
	T	0.42	0.79	0.42	0.40
	Q	0.15	0.29	0.27	0.19
TSS	CC	0.08	0.34	0.04	0.07
	GR	0.25	0.95	0.10	0.18
	T	0.25	0.95	0.10	0.18
	Q	0.10	0.40	0.05	0.10

278

279 From the independent variables side, the weakest coherences were observed between the WQPs
 280 and CC, and, secondly, with Q. On average, the global wavelet powers were the lowest US (0.4) and
 281 highest at site AD (0.57), while they were of the same magnitude in Phase II (0.51 and 0.52 for WD
 282 & DS respectively).

283

284 **3.3.1. Absence of coherence between the WQPs and the meteorological parameters**

285 Overall, in the whole KBWPS there were 16 occurrences when coherence over an annual scale
 286 between the WQPs and the independent variables was interrupted. The absence of annual coherence
 287 was only considered if its length was longer than one year, i.e. ~6% of the total investigated time
 288 (Table 4). From the perspective of independent variables, these cases were mostly associated with Q
 289 (in 12 out of the 17 pairs). Moreover, the highest portion of absence in coherence was usually related
 290 to streamflow (~50% of the absence between Q & SRP at AD and Q & TSS at US, WD, DS; Table
 291 4). From the perspective of WQPs these episodes of absence in annual coherence were mostly related
 292 to SRP and TSS at AD and WD respectively. With regard to the spatial aspect, the average absence
 293 decreased in the eutrophic pond and the wetland with respect to the River Zala, after which it
 294 increased again at DS (Table 4).

295

296 **Table 4. Percentage of the absence of annual coherence for those WQP & independent**
 297 **variable (IV) pairs where the absence was longer than one year ($\geq 6\%$) of the total time**
 298 **(reference period: 1994-2010; for Q at WD 1995-2010).**

WQP	IVs	Sampling location			
		US	AD	WD	DS
SRP	CC		13%		
	GR		11%		
	T		25%		
			56%	7%	
TP			7%		
NO ₃ -N	Q		20%	11%	
TN		40%	9%	14%	29%
TSS		12%		52%	46%
	T			18%	
Average absence		26%	20%	21%	37%

299

300 **3.4. Phase differences**

301 From the phase differences on the power spectrum density graphs, it is clear that it was mostly
 302 the independent variables that were leading the WQPs (e.g. later in Figs. 4-7). The P forms, for
 303 example, were mostly in antiphase with CC and Q and in phase with GR and T in the whole system,
 304 just as TSS at US and at site AD (Table 5). It was interesting to observe that while T was leading
 305 certain WPQs by 1-2 months (e.g. TP at AD; Fig. 4a), GR was leading these by 2-3 months (Fig. 4b).
 306 The only habitat where the phase difference of SRP and the independent variables was
 307 changing/inconclusive was in the eutrophic pond (AD). TSS in Phase II seems to tend towards
 308 keeping the pattern indicated upstream, but its phase differences become changing and inconclusive.
 309 It should be noted, that its powers were the lowest here in the whole KBWPS (Table 3).

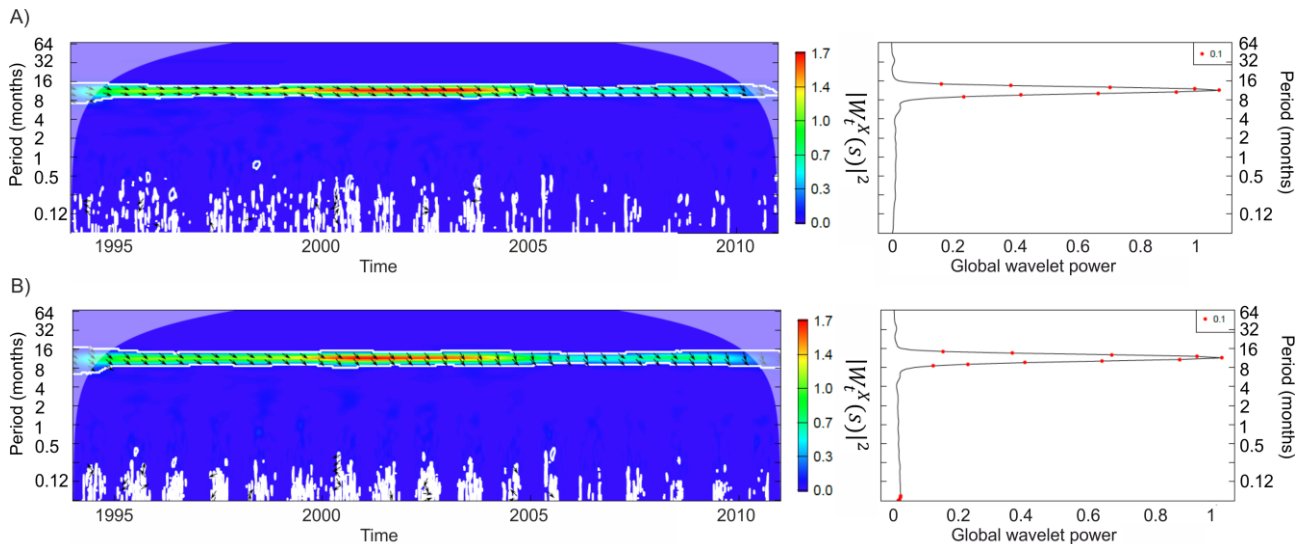
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311 **Table 5. Phase differences of the WQPs and the independent variables (IVs) for 1994-2010. In**
 312 **the case of Q at sampling location WD, this is for 1995-2010. ‘-’ stands for an antiphase, ‘+’**
 313 **for an in-phase and IC for an inconclusive/changing phase relationship between the WQPs**
 314 **and the independent variables**

		Sampling location			
WQP	IVs	US	AD	WD	DS
SRP	CC	-	-	-	-
	GR	+	IC	+	+
	T	+	+	+	+
	Q	-	-	-	-
TP	CC	-	-	-	-
	GR	+	+	+	+
	T	+	+	+	+
	Q	-	-	-	-
NO ₃ -N	CC	+	+	+	+
	GR	-	-	-	-
	T	-	-	-	-
	Q	+	+	+	+
TN	CC	IC	-	IC	IC
	GR	IC	+	IC	IC
	T	-	+	IC	IC
	Q	IC	-	IC	IC

	CC	-	-	IC	IC
TSS	GR	+	+	IC	IC
	T	+	+	IC	IC
	Q	-	-	IC	IC

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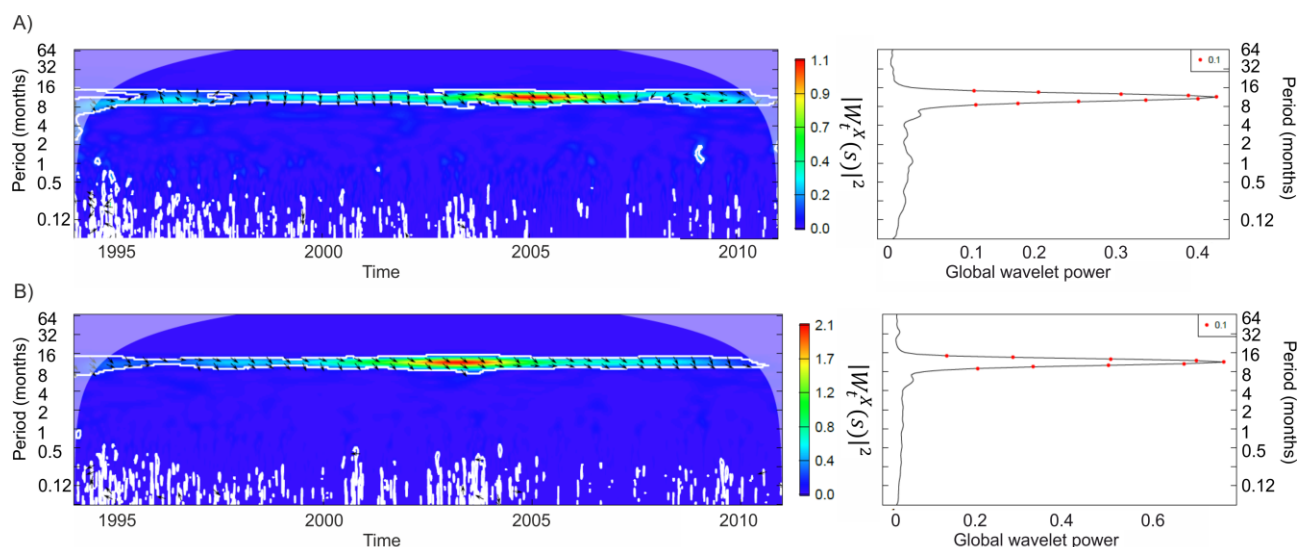
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317 **Fig. 4. Time–frequency coherency images (left panel) and time-averaged cross-wavelet power**
 318 **(right panel) of (a) total phosphorus and temperature and (b) global radiation at the AD site.**

319 **The white contours in the left panels and the red dots in the right ones show the 90%**
 320 **confidence levels calculated against a thousand AR(1) surrogates. The black arrows indicate**
 321 **the phase-angle difference of the parameter pairs. For further details see Rösch and**
 322 **Schmidbauer (2014).**

323

324 As for the N forms, NO₃-N, displayed a pattern opposite to that of the P forms (except for SRP
 325 and GR at AD). It is in antiphase with T and GR and in-phase with Q, while TN is mostly
 326 inconclusive, especially in Phase II (Table 5; e.g. Fig. 5a). However, in the River Zala, TN indicates
 327 a quasi-persistent antiphase pattern with T, while with GR it was rather hectic (Table 5). It
 328 nevertheless showed a quasi-persistent in-phase relationship with T and GR at AD (Fig. 5b). This
 329 implies that the N forms besides NO₃-N, organic and particulate, are in-phase with T and GR (Fig.
 330 2).



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Fig. 5. Time–frequency coherency images (left panel) and the time-averaged cross-wavelet power (right panel) of (a) total nitrogen and temperature at sampling location WD and (b) at sampling location AD. For further details, see the caption to Fig. 4.

4. Discussion

4.1. Overview of the coherences

The annual coherence between the water quality- and climatic variables of a river, eutrophic pond and wetland was directly compared. Since there is no transitional area (ecotone) between the ecosystems, the differences in annual coherence clearly represent the distinct habitats, and are as much as possible. In the whole system, the most important factors driving the coherences between the water quality parameters and independent variables were global radiation/temperature, the setting of the different habitats, and the nutrient loads arriving through the River Zala.

In the River Zala (US), annual coherence was strongest between the P forms, nitrate, and T & GR, while absence of coherence was most characteristic of TN and TSS with Q. This can be explained by the general characteristics of small, shallow rivers like the River Zala, with an average depth of 1.4 m at mean water level (GDWM, 2016). The shading effect of riparian vegetation is a key factor in both the heat budget and nutrient cycles of river sections (Allan and Castillo, 2007; Wetzel, 2001).

349 The upper section of the River Zala traverses a forested area, its riparian vegetation shades the water,
350 and the dense canopy prevents excessive warming. The lower section of the river, which is
351 represented by sampling location US, is however much less shaded, since it flows through arable land
352 with scarce riparian vegetation (GDWM, 2016) and with high exposure to heat and radiation, causing
353 the strong coherences with the primary meteorological parameters. Moreover, the fact that nitrate had
354 the weakest antiphase relationship with T and GR in the River Zala can be explained by the generally
355 lower rate and less pronounced seasonal variation of denitrification in rivers compared to lakes (Piña-
356 Ochoa and Álvarez-Cobelas, 2006).

357 The eutrophic pond (AD) was even more exposed to the effects of air temperature and radiation
358 than the River Zala. The water here slows down, the residence time increases and the pond is slightly
359 shallower than the River Zala (average depth 1.1 m (Tátrai et al., 2000)). With regard to P, its main
360 processes can be delineated by the Vollenweider model, which describes the relationship of the
361 trophic state of the system based on P loads and mean depth/retention time (Reynolds, 1992;
362 Vollenweider and Kerekes, 1982). It thus provides ideal conditions for algae to reproduce and
363 consume the SRP in the water (Hatvani et al., 2014) arriving via the River Zala. This is the reason for
364 the lowest SRP values in the whole system (avg. = 0.02 mg l⁻¹; Table 1) being found in the eutrophic
365 pond. In the meanwhile, an opposite process is also present here: with the increase of temperature,
366 the internal P loads of the eutrophic pond increase as well, P is released from the sediment
367 (Istvánovics et al., 2004), especially in drier and warmer years (Chambers and Odum, 1990). This
368 should account for the high degree of coherence between TP (including bounded P in algae cells:
369 “algae-P”) and T & GR in the particularly warm and dry years after 2000 (Fig. 4). These previously
370 discussed processes acting simultaneously (peaking at the same time in the growing season) are
371 responsible for the inconclusive phase difference of SRP and independent variables and the decreased
372 power and occasional absence of their annual coherence. Moreover, since TSS consists mostly of
373 algae in the eutrophic pond (Pomogyi, 1996), it comes as no surprise that the power of its coherence

374 with GR and T was as high as that obtaining between TP and GR & T, because TP consists of “algae-
375 P”. The same notion is true for the N forms as well, especially TN. It predominantly represents the
376 algae – the organic N fraction (Fig. 2) - of the eutrophic pond (Wetzel, 2001). At the same time,
377 inorganic N (nitrate and nitrite) decreased in concentration as SRP, where nitrite was already present
378 in small portions. TSS only indicated a strong coherence with the independent variables where it
379 consists mostly of algae; this occurred only in the eutrophic pond.

380 The waters arriving from eutrophic pond slow down even more and reach the undisturbed- and
381 the disturbed wetland habitat of the KBWPS. Due to the excess loads (see Section 1.1 and Fig. 1), the
382 disturbed “mixed” wetland habitat shows the characteristics of both a classic wetland and a stream.
383 The latter observation manifested itself in the similarity of the disturbed wetland to the River Zala
384 with regard to the global wavelet powers and the absence of annual coherences. In the case of the
385 phase differences, however, the disturbed wetland resembles the classic wetland, indicating that
386 despite the additional inputs both (i.e. the whole of Phase II) are decomposition dominated
387 (Istvánovics et al., 1997), with much lower P retention capacity than the eutrophic pond (Somlyódy,
388 1998). TN here consists of both organic and inorganic forms, mainly characteristic of processes such
389 as phase changes. Thus, meteorological factors are unlikely to drive TN concentrations. Moreover,
390 the shading of the macrophytes is also a major factor here in controlling the biological processes. It
391 has been documented that shading is a factor in dampening the capacity of a wetland to indicate
392 seasonal changes (Kovács et al., 2010). It is suspected that the lowest global wavelet power of TN
393 and TSS and the significant gaps in their annual coherence with the independent variables are because
394 of the previously mentioned phenomena. The coherence with the independent variables and the
395 concentration of TSS (Table 1) slightly increases as the additional inputs reach the system. On the
396 one hand, the gaps in annual coherence of TSS and the independent variables were present in the
397 undisturbed wetland because of the mostly low concentrations of TSS (Table 1; Fig. A2) as in
398 macrophyte dominated constructed wetlands (Dunne et al., 2012). While, on the other hand, the gaps

399 between TSS and Q at the output of the system were present due to the unbalanced additional inputs
400 (e.g. Fig. A2) from natural streams, constructed canals and fish ponds (drained three times a year, but
401 irregularly) to Phase II of the KBWPS.

402 In general, the average percentage of absences in coherency between the water quality
403 parameters and the independent variables decreases as the waters' residence time increases from the
404 River Zala, up to the undisturbed wetland (Section 3.3.1; Table 4). Then, with the additional 40%
405 temporarily irregular input of streamflow downstream of WD, the average percentage of absence
406 increases to values higher than those witnessed in the river. Besides the increased residence time, in
407 the algae dominated eutrophic pond, the cyclic planktonic eutrophication (Wetzel, 2001) played a
408 major role in increasing the ecosystem's capability to follow/indicate meteorological seasonality. A
409 similar pattern was observed by Kovács et al. (2010) in their assessment of annual periodicity using
410 wavelet spectrum analysis on a wider set of weekly sampled parameters for a shorter period (1993-
411 2007). Although in their study the undisturbed wetland showed a higher percentage of absence of
412 annual periodicity (59.1%) than the eutrophic pond (40.9%), still, the disturbed wetland did display
413 a higher absence in annual periodicity (68.2%) than the river (63.6%), as in the present case. The
414 reason for the difference between the obtained absence in periodicity lies not only in the different
415 time interval and applied methodology, but in the fact that the present study focused solely on the
416 nutrient forms and the closely related TSS. The observation that the irregular excess loads arriving to
417 the disturbed wetland corrupt its capability to indicate the seasonal changes emphasizes wetlands'
418 exposure to anthropogenic activity (Brinson and Malvárez, 2002). This vulnerability becomes even
419 more pronounced with climate change (Finlayson, 2016).

420

421 **4.2. Phase differences**

422 **4.2.1. Inconclusive phase differences of P forms and TSS**

423 The pattern of the phase differences concurs with the previously discussed observations;
424 nevertheless, it does provide excess information on the functioning of the system by describing the
425 possible temporal shift between the common annual coherence of the water quality parameters and
426 the independent variables. In the eutrophic pond, TSS for example behaves similarly to TP, being in-
427 phase lead by T (by 1-2 months) and by GR (by 2-3 months), indicating that TSS is composed mostly
428 of algae (Fig. 4), which corresponds to the delay between the weekly average maxima of GR and T.
429 Unsurprisingly, the delay between the two meteorological variables was 7 weeks in the investigated
430 time period, with the GR maxima occurring in the 24th week, i.e. mid-June. By mirroring this
431 meteorologically forced relationship, it underlines the capability of the methodology (phase
432 differences) to follow fine changes even under the annual scale. As for TP, in the eutrophic pond it is
433 most likely to occur in particulate form because of the algae, while in Phase II its wavelet transform
434 coherence results resemble that of SRP, since it is dissolves in the water.

435 The inconclusive/confusing phase differences between SRP and the independent variables in
436 the eutrophic pond can be explained by the changes in the concentration of P forms through the year,
437 where SRP displayed almost no increase in summer (Fig. A3) due to the continuous algal uptake.
438 Moreover, these inconclusive/confusing phase differences of SRP and T & GR occur for the most
439 part after the year 2000, as was the case of TSS in Phase II. This was a well-documented dry period
440 in the region (Padisák et al., 2006b). In these years, although external nutrient loads decreased, the
441 internal loads acted in the opposite way (Hatvani et al., 2014) due to the higher T and GR. These
442 counter-processes caused e.g. the phase differences of SRP and T to become meaningless, since
443 according to the arrows (Fig. A4), around 2004 T should have been leading SRP by almost 6 months.
444 In the case of TSS, the inconclusive phase differences in Phase II are presumably caused by the
445 generally low concentrations near the level of detection (Fig. A2) and the hectic inputs from the
446 canals.

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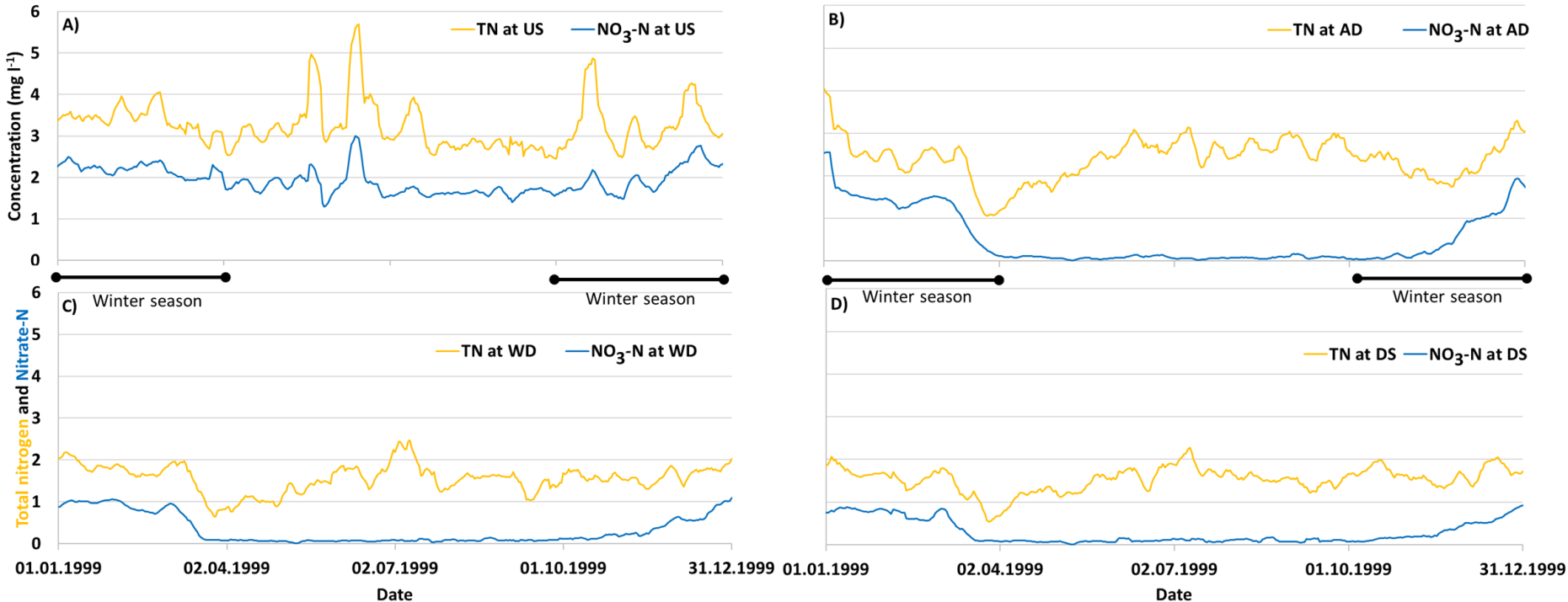
448 **4.2.2. Inconclusive phase differences of N forms**

449 Upstream, in the River Zala, NO₃-N dominated (Table 1; Figs. 2, 6a) the N forms, with slightly
450 lower concentrations in summer, mostly because the higher exposure of the river section to radiation
451 increases biological activity, thus denitrification (Mulholland et al., 2008). It should be noted,
452 however, that the dissolved organic fraction of TN (Fig. 2) is able to modify the phase differences of
453 TN, and this was especially so in the dry years around 2000 (Fig. 7a). It happened to such an extent
454 that TN was not able to display a pattern (decrease with T and GR in the summer) as clear as in the
455 case of nitrate (Fig. 7b).

456 In the algae dominated eutrophic pond TN changed its phase with reference to the River Zala,
457 and displayed a clear in phase pattern with T and GR. This occurred because, in the eutrophic pond,
458 as GR and T increase in the growing season, the inorganic N uptake of algae also increases
459 proportionately (Reay et al., 1999). This process decreases the nitrate concentrations (Fig 6b), thus
460 leaving the TN loads at a similar level as the input from the river (Table 1; Figs. 2 and 6b).

461 Then the water arrives to the macrophyte covered wetland dominated habitat, where
462 decomposition processes are prevailing (Kovács et al., 2010; Wetzel, 2001), especially in the growing
463 season. Because of the decomposition of algae, oxygen availability is low (Istvanovics, 2002), thus,
464 temperature becomes the most important factor in organic matter loss (Brinson, 1981). If the waters
465 of the River Zala were to enter the wetland directly, probably all N forms would show an
466 opposite/antiphase relationship with T and GR, i.e. lower values in the growing season and higher in
467 winter. This is indeed the case for nitrate (Table 5; Fig. 6c,d), but not for TN, the levels of which do
468 not drop in parallel to this. However, PN is retained by wetlands (Romero et al., 1999) thus decreasing
469 the TN output in the KBWPS accordingly. Unfortunately, in summer organic N is continuously
470 resupplied from the decomposition of algae. Therefore, despite the seasonal increase of denitrification
471 (Seitzinger, 1988) and the N uptake of the macrophyte cover (Dvořáková Březinová and Vymazal,
472 2016) with water temperature, these opposite-tending processes disrupt the periodic characteristic of

473 TN in the wetland area. Nevertheless, a net decrease in the output of TN from the KBWPS is observed
474 due to the previously discussed processes (Table 1); it is just not observable in the seasonal cycle.



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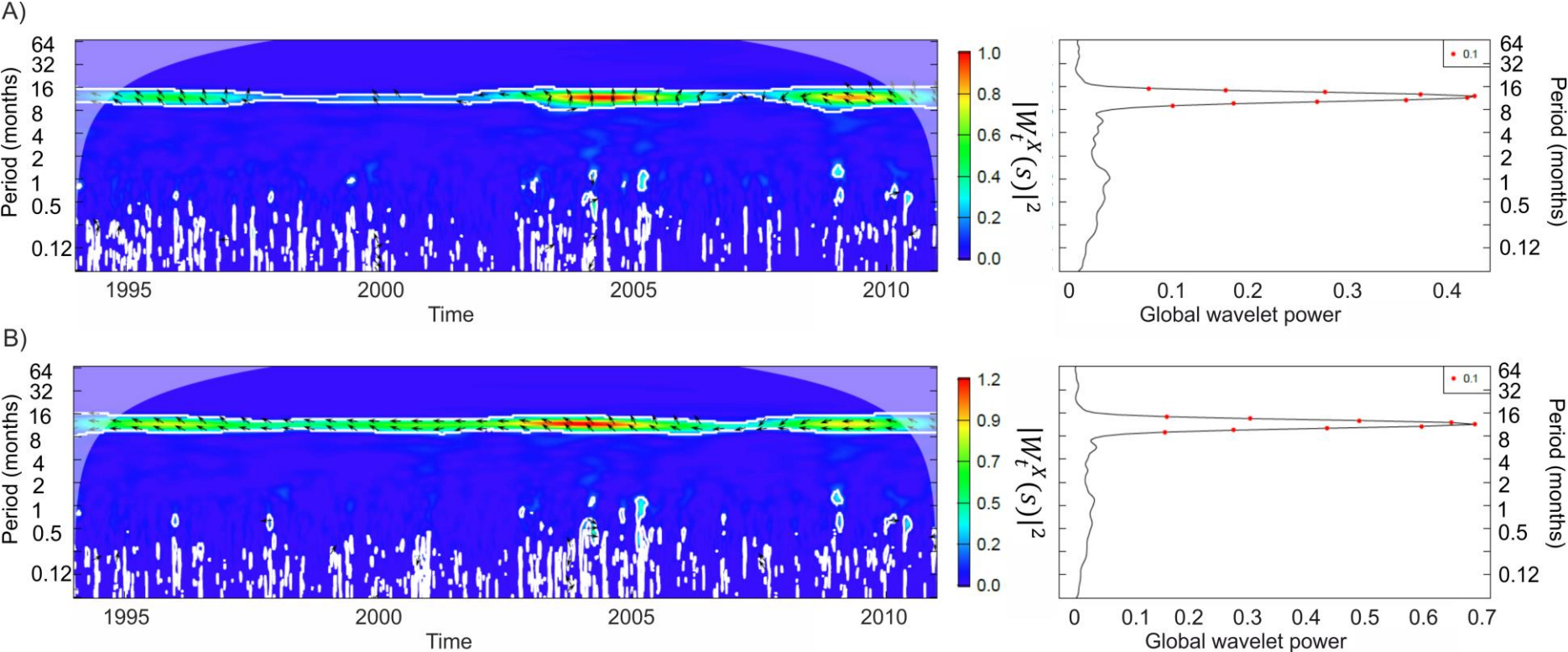
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Fig. 6. Centered 7 day moving average of (a) total nitrogen and nitrate-nitrogen in the River Zala, (b) the eutrophic pond, (c) the un-
disturbed wetland and (d) the disturbed wetland in 1999. The black lines indicate the winter seasons.



480

481 **Fig. 7. Time–frequency coherency images (left panel) and time-averaged cross-wavelet power (right panel) of (a) total nitrogen and (b)**

482

nitrate-nitrogen with temperature in the River Zala (US). For further details, see the caption to Fig. 4.

483

484

485 **5. Conclusions**

486 The water quality variables of a cascade-like engineered ecosystem consisting of a shallow
487 river, a eutrophic pond, and an undisturbed/disturbed macrophyte covered wetland were assessed to
488 track the capacity of the system to indicate meteorological seasonality. In particular, the annual
489 coherence of the water quality parameters and meteorological parameters (including streamflow)
490 indicated the explicit differences in the functioning of the different habitats of the assessed system
491 and these were shown to be in concurrence with previously documented knowledge. It was also
492 pointed out that the eutrophic pond is more capable of mirroring meteorological changes. In the
493 meanwhile, continuous upstream- (from the eutrophic pond) and temporarily irregular additional
494 nutrient inputs (from the southern watershed) tend to counteract the characteristic processes of the
495 wetland (including macrophyte shading). Taken together, these decrease its capacity to indicate
496 seasonality, as seen in the pond upstream. Moreover, it was found that in this particular setting, the
497 wetland is less suitable/unstable in terms of nitrogen retention, and can only decrease the incoming
498 waters' phosphorus concentrations to a small degree, most probably due to the excess- and the high
499 algae loads.

500 With the successful application of wavelet transform coherence to the “black-box” cascade,
501 where the boxes represent different ecosystems without any transition areas (ecotone) in between
502 them, a promising example is set for the wider application of the method in limnology. The present
503 paper provides a more precise overall picture on the previously discussed behavior of the cascade
504 system, which was designed to restrain the nutrients brought by the River Zala responsible for a fair
505 part of Lake Balaton's eutrophication.

506

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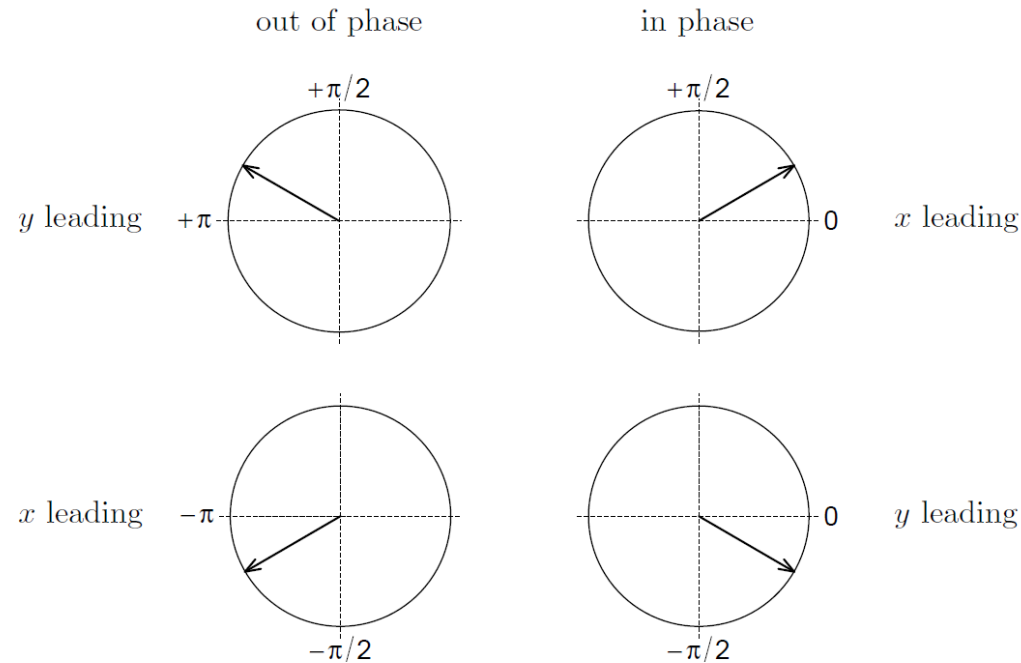
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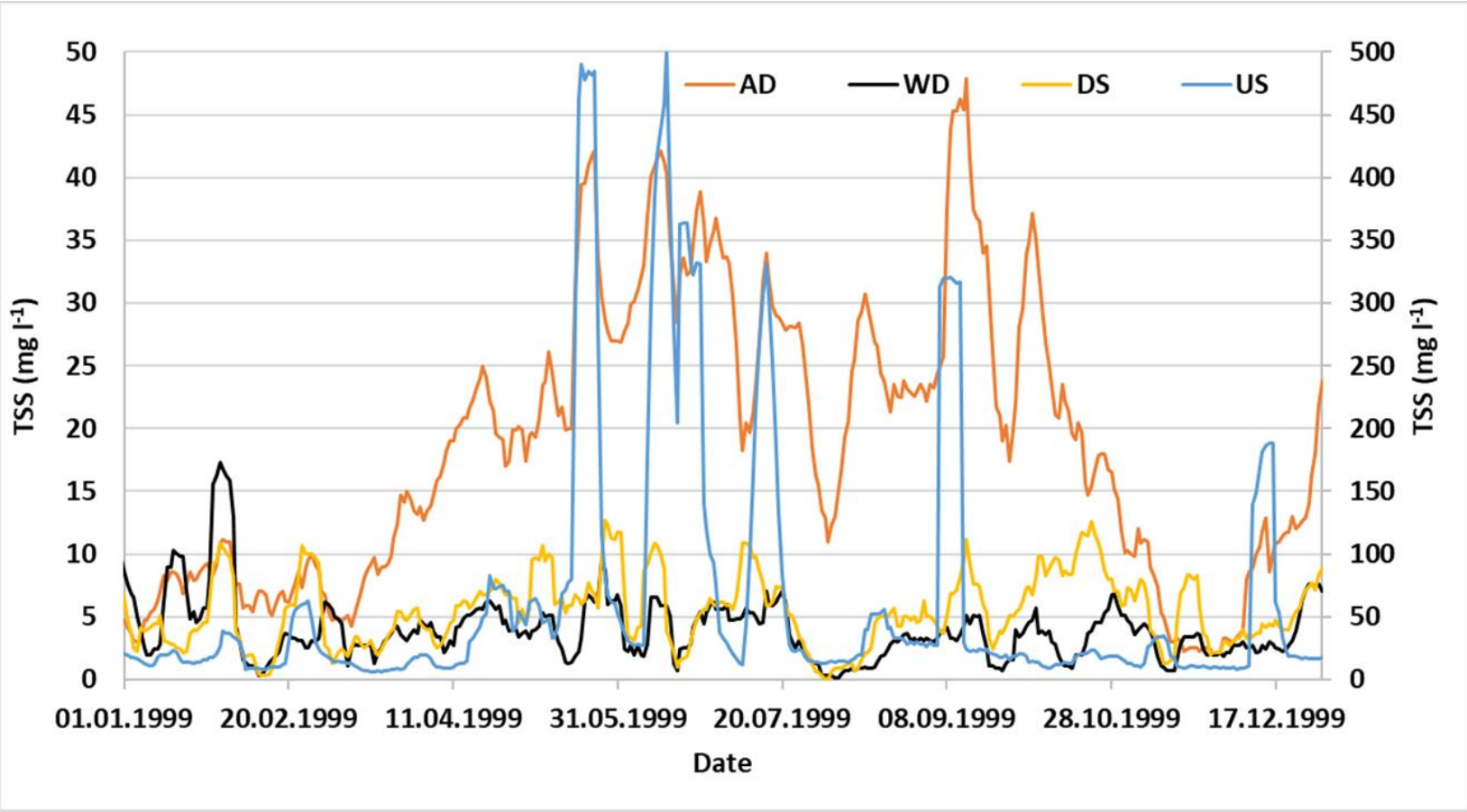
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Appendices



700 **Fig. A1.** The full set of possible phase-differences and their interpretation taken from (Roesch and Schmidbauer, 2014) based on
 701 (Conraria and Soares, 2011), where the phase differences are shown as arrows in the image plot of cross-wavelet power. In the present
 702 study the water quality parameter was always the first (x) while the meteorological parameters were the second (y) components of the
 703 calculation. In a practical sense for an annual period, the upper left figure would indicate that the meteorological parameter is leading
 704 the water quality one in antiphase and with about 2 months; upper right: water quality parameter leading the meteorological one with 2
 705 months in-phase; lower right: water quality parameter antiphase leading the meteorological one with 2 months and lower left:
 706 meteorological parameter leading the water quality one with about 2 months in-phase.

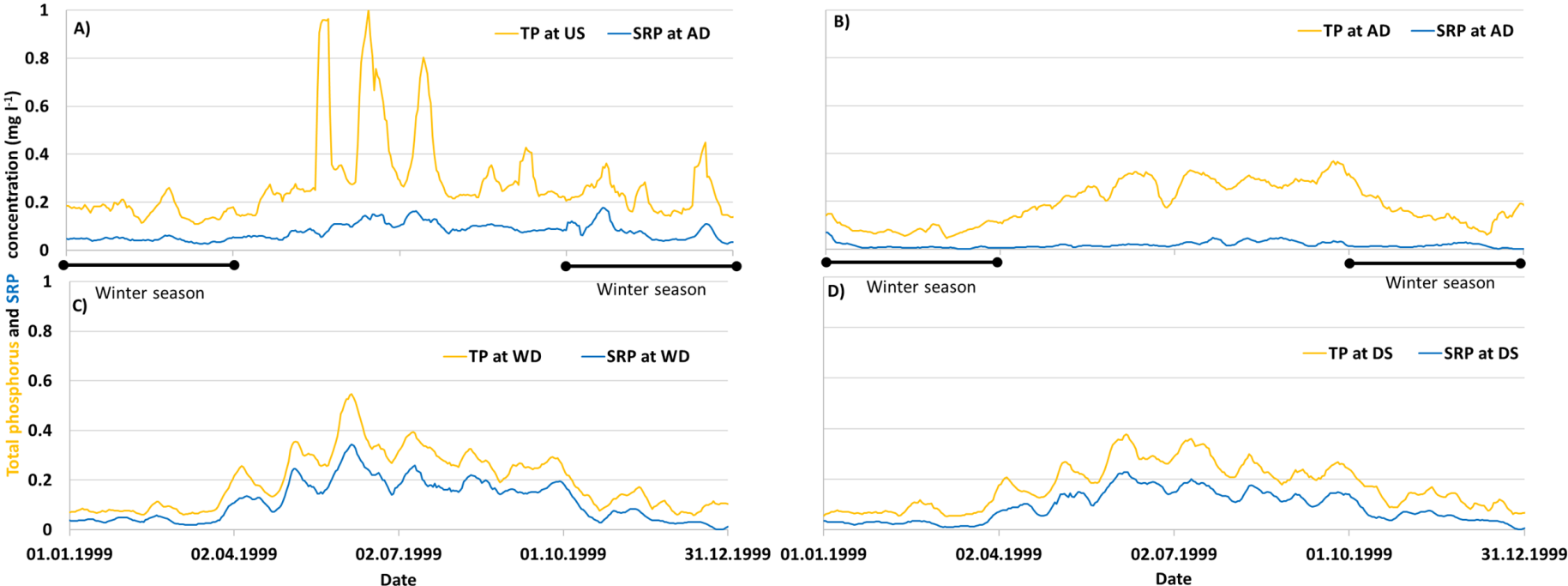
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709 **Fig. A2.** Centered 7 day moving average of the concentration of total suspended solids in the different habitats of the KBWPS for 1999

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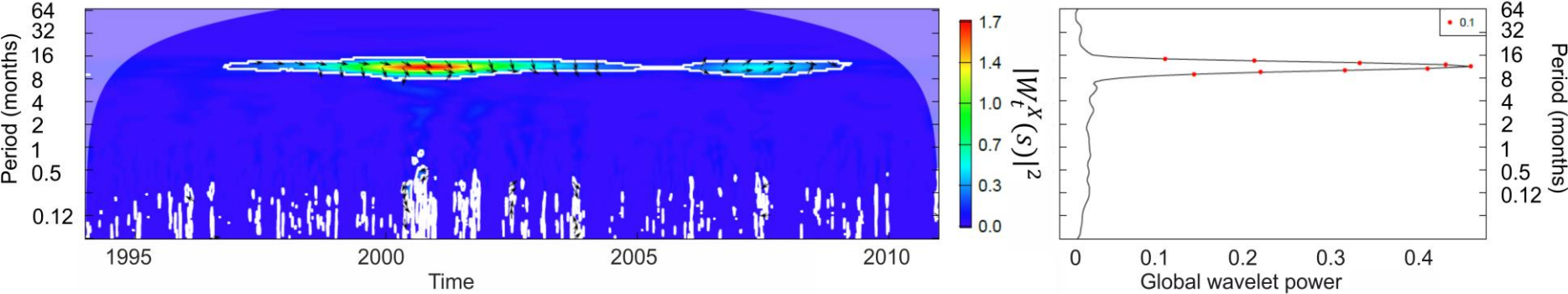
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Fig. A3. Centered 7 day moving average of (a) total phosphorus and soluble reactive phosphorus in the River Zala (US), (b) the eutrophic pond (AD), (c) the un-disturbed- (WD) and (d) the disturbed wetland (DS) in 1999. The black lines indicate the winter seasons.



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Fig. A4. Time–frequency coherency images (left panel) and time-averaged cross-wavelet power (right panel) of soluble reactive phosphorus and temperature at sampling location AD. For further details, see the caption of Fig. 4.