



**Attenuation of photosynthetically active radiation and ultraviolet light in response to changing dissolved organic carbon in browning lakes: Modelling and parametrization**

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Keywords:	process-based model, light attenuation, dissolved organic carbon, photosynthetically active radiation, ultraviolet radiation, lake browning
Abstract:	<p>We present and evaluate an update to the process-based lake model MyLake that includes a time-varying linkage between light attenuation of both photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) and ultraviolet (UV) wavelengths to changes in dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In many parts of northeastern North America and Europe, DOC in lakes has rapidly increased, leading to reduced water transparency and increases in light attenuation. These changes alter the vertical light and heat distribution that affect vertical structuring of temperature and dissolved oxygen. We use this model update to test the responsiveness of PAR and UV attenuation to short-term fluctuations in DOC and with a test case of long-term browning at Lake Giles (Pennsylvania, USA). Lake Giles has browned significantly since the late 1980s, and three decades of detailed empirical data have indicated more than a doubling of DOC concentrations, and consequent increases in PAR and UV light attenuation, warming surface waters, cooling deep waters, and increasing deepwater oxygen depletion. We found that the model performance improves by 16% and 52% for long-term trends in PAR and UV attenuation, respectively, when these coefficients respond directly to in-lake DOC concentrations. Further, long-term trends in surface water warming, deepwater cooling, and deepwater oxygen depletion in Lake Giles were better captured by the model following this update, and were very rapid due to its high water transparency and low DOC. Hence, incorporating a responsive link between DOC and light attenuation in lake models is key to understanding long-term lake browning patterns, mechanisms, and ecological consequences.</p>

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### Scientific Significance Statement Topic

Widespread decreases in water transparency in lakes due to browning fundamentally modify the vertical light and heat distribution. In turn, thermal and chemical gradients shaping the lake ecosystem are altered, with numerous consequences for habitat availability and trophic interactions. These changes can threaten ecosystem functioning and services that are vital to freshwater drinking quality. However, long-term empirical data sets with physical, chemical, and biological variables in lakes experiencing browning are incredibly rare; here, ecosystem modelling can give insights into the likely ecological responses to browning as well as partitioning key mechanisms. In most lake models, light attenuation has been treated as a static variable for a single wavelength (e.g., 320 nm ultraviolet radiation) or waveband (e.g., photosynthetically active radiation, PAR). Here, in contrast, we test a model formulation that includes both PAR and ultraviolet wavelengths and we predict their dynamic response to long-term browning driven by increases in dissolved organic carbon. Explicitly accounting for multiple wavelengths is important for improving accuracy and more fully understanding the range of possible ecosystem consequences of browning that are currently poorly understood.

### Scientific Significance Statement Outlet

This research encapsulates physical, chemical, and biological implications for lake ecosystems experiencing changes in water transparency, and incorporates long-term empirical data, high-frequency sensor data, and updated modelling work in a single study. Hence, *Limnology & Oceanography* is uniquely fitted for its publication as a novel modelling approach to a regional to global scale issue facing both freshwater and marine systems.

1 **Title:**

2 Attenuation of photosynthetically active radiation and ultraviolet light in response to changing  
3 dissolved organic carbon in browning lakes: Modelling and parametrization

4

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13

14 **Running Head:**

15 Modelling light attenuation in browning lakes

16

17 **Keywords/Search Terms:**

18 process-based model, light attenuation, dissolved organic carbon, photosynthetically active  
19 radiation, ultraviolet light, lake browning

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22 varying linkage between light attenuation of both photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) and  
23 ultraviolet (UV) wavelengths to changes in dissolved organic carbon (DOC). In many parts of  
24 northeastern North America and Europe, DOC in lakes has rapidly increased, leading to reduced  
25 water transparency and increases in light attenuation. These changes alter the vertical light and  
26 heat distribution that affect vertical structuring of temperature and dissolved oxygen. We use this  
27 model update to test the responsiveness of PAR and UV attenuation to short-term fluctuations in  
28 DOC and with a test case of long-term browning at Lake Giles (Pennsylvania, USA). Lake Giles  
29 has browned significantly since the late 1980s, and three decades of detailed empirical data have  
30 indicated more than a doubling of DOC concentrations, and consequent increases in PAR and  
31 UV light attenuation, warming surface waters, cooling deep waters, and increasing deepwater  
32 oxygen depletion. We found that the model performance improves by 16% and 52% for long-  
33 term trends in PAR and UV attenuation, respectively, when these coefficients respond directly to  
34 in-lake DOC concentrations. Further, long-term trends in surface water warming, deepwater  
35 cooling, and deepwater oxygen depletion in Lake Giles were better captured by the model  
36 following this update, and were very rapid due to its high water transparency and low DOC.  
37 Hence, incorporating a responsive link between DOC and light attenuation in lake models is key  
38 to understanding long-term lake browning patterns, mechanisms, and ecological consequences.

**39 Introduction:**

40 In northern boreal lakes, decreases in water transparency have been one of the most  
41 widespread responses to anthropogenic stressors in recent decades. The most prevalent driver of  
42 decreasing water transparency in lakes in northeastern North America and northern Europe is an  
43 increase in terrestrially-derived dissolved organic carbon (DOC; Evans et al. 2006; Monteith et  
44 al. 2007). Termed “browning” (Roulet and Moore 2006), increases in DOC in lakes have been  
45 attributed to (1) recovery from anthropogenic acidification (Evans et al. 2006; Monteith et al.  
46 2007; Strock et al. 2014), (2) increases in precipitation and extreme storm events (Zhang et al.  
47 2010; de Wit et al. 2016; Williamson et al. 2016), and (3) permafrost thaw (Wauthy et al. 2018).  
48 These increases in DOC lead to increased light attenuation of both photosynthetically active  
49 radiation (PAR) and ultraviolet (UV) radiation (Williamson et al. 2015) and interactively result  
50 in important ecosystem change, such as increased production of reactive oxygen species in  
51 surface waters (Wolf et al. 2018) that can, in turn, negatively influence aquatic biota (Cooke et  
52 al. 2003; Paerl and Otten 2013; Wolf et al. 2017).

53 Changes in attenuation of PAR affect the vertical heat distribution in the water column  
54 and therefore the lake thermal structure (Read and Rose 2013; Rose et al. 2016; Pilla et al. 2018).  
55 Decreasing water transparency and consequent increases in thermal stability further influence  
56 other physio-chemical properties of lakes, such as hindered gas solubility/diffusion and faster  
57 metabolic rates, both responsible for deepwater dissolved oxygen depletion (Brothers et al. 2014;  
58 Knoll et al. 2018). These and other responses, such as the selectively increased attenuation of UV  
59 radiation (Williamson et al. 1996), are important to understanding the full array of biological and  
60 ecological responses in lake ecosystems experiencing browning (Solomon et al. 2015).

61 It is well-documented that light attenuation, and thus water transparency, is strongly

62 driven by DOC concentration and DOC-specific absorption, also referred to as DOC optical  
63 cross-section (Morris et al. 1995; Williamson et al. 1996; Pace and Cole 2002). However, very  
64 few long-term empirical datasets exist that document detailed measurements of these variables in  
65 lakes experiencing browning, in addition to the associated long-term physical, biological, and  
66 ecological responses (Williamson et al. 2015). Hence, models can be used to understand and  
67 expand upon the long-term changes in lakes experiencing browning (Couture et al. 2015; Kiuru  
68 et al. 2019). Further, in conjunction with long-term empirical data, modelling studies can be used  
69 to support casual linkages between browning-related drivers and ecological responses, whereas  
70 in empirical studies alone, assigning direct causality is otherwise difficult without paired  
71 experimental evidence (Williamson et al. 2015; Pilla et al. 2018). Presumably owing in part to  
72 the lack of relevant time-series, no process-based lake ecosystem models currently include time-  
73 varying light attenuation of both PAR and UV wavelengths, which are key structural and  
74 ecological variables for a variety of chemical processes (Cory et al. 2014) and biological  
75 responses (Williamson et al. 1999; Overholt et al. 2012; Hansen et al. 2019).

76 Attenuation of UV light is highly responsive to changes in DOC and water transparency,  
77 often more so that PAR attenuation due to the selective absorption of UV wavelengths by DOC  
78 compared to PAR wavelengths (Williamson et al. 1996). The ecological responses to decreased  
79 UV penetration may result in improved survival of UV-sensitive zooplankton or young-of-year  
80 fish (Williamson et al. 1999), but may also increase the risk of parasites and pathogen spread  
81 (Overholt et al. 2012; Williamson et al. 2017). However, most lake ecosystem models currently  
82 lack a time-varying pairing between DOC and PAR light attenuation. Such pairing between DOC  
83 concentration and light attenuation would allow these two state variables to vary as a function of  
84 time in response to both changing external DOC loads and *in-situ* DOC processing via

85 photobleaching, metabolism, and flocculation. Further, models do not currently include UV  
86 attenuation as a response to increasing DOC, which is a key component of modelling the array of  
87 ecosystem responses to long-term lake browning.

88 To model lake browning, we updated the one-dimensional process-based lake model  
89 MyLake (Saloranta and Andersen 2007) to include and test an explicit, time-varying linkage  
90 between DOC concentration and attenuation of both PAR and UV wavelengths. First, we tested  
91 the responsiveness of modeled PAR and UV attenuation to seasonal fluctuations in DOC loads.  
92 Second, we tested model performance in a long-term browning scenario at Lake Giles  
93 (Pennsylvania, USA; Fig. 1). We integrated empirical data from Lake Giles, which has  
94 experienced marked browning in the past three decades and has one of the most detailed long-  
95 term records of DOC concentration, water transparency, and PAR and UV light attenuation, in  
96 addition to other ecological data (Williamson et al. 2015; Knoll et al. 2018; Pilla et al. 2018). We  
97 assessed the improvement in model performance when including the new formulations, and  
98 systematically investigated the effects of long-term browning and increases in DOC on PAR and  
99 UV light attenuation, water temperature, and dissolved oxygen.

100

## 101 **Methods:**

102 *Study site.* Lake Giles is located in northeastern Pennsylvania, USA (41.377°N,  
103 75.093°W; Fig. 1) on the Pocono Plateau at 428 m above sea level. Lake Giles has a catchment  
104 area of 1.83 km<sup>2</sup>, lake surface area of 0.48 km<sup>2</sup>, maximum depth of 24.1 m, volume of 4.88 x 10<sup>6</sup>  
105 m<sup>3</sup>, and estimated retention time of 5.2 (Pilla et al. 2018) to 5.6 years (Moeller et al. 1995). The  
106 entire catchment of the lake is privately owned and well-protected, and the lake has one  
107 insubstantial ephemeral inflow stream and is otherwise spring water fed. Lake Giles was



108 historically one of the clearest lakes in the northeastern USA, but has recently experienced strong  
109 effects of lake browning, with DOC concentrations more than doubling from  $0.96 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in 1993  
110 to  $2.48 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in 2019 (Williamson et al. 2015, 2019). Concurrently, attenuation of PAR has  
111 increased from  $0.12 \text{ m}^{-1}$  to  $0.34 \text{ m}^{-1}$ , corresponding to 1% PAR penetration depths decreasing  
112 from 18.3 m to 13.0 m, respectively (Williamson et al. 2015, 2019). Similarly, attenuation of UV  
113 (320 nm) has increased from  $0.41 \text{ m}^{-1}$  to  $2.81 \text{ m}^{-1}$ , and corresponding 1% UV (320 nm)  
114 penetration depths of 9.7 m and 1.6 m, respectively (Williamson et al. 2015, 2019). The long-  
115 term physio-chemical consequences of increased DOC and decreased water transparency in lake  
116 Giles have been extensively studied as well. Pilla et al. (2018) reported significant surface water  
117 warming ( $1.04^\circ\text{C decade}^{-1}$ ), deepwater cooling ( $1.54^\circ\text{C decade}^{-1}$ ), increases in thermal stability  
118 ( $72.96 \text{ J m}^{-2} \text{ decade}^{-1}$ ), and shallowing of thermocline depths ( $-1.00 \text{ m decade}^{-1}$ ) between 1988  
119 and 2014. Knoll et al. (2018) found increased deepwater oxygen depletion and more prevalent  
120 anoxic conditions in Lake Giles during the same time period, associated with decreased water  
121 transparency and increased thermal stability. Biological responses of zooplankton taxa have also  
122 been preliminarily reported for Lake Giles, where decreases in crustacean grazers (*Daphnia* and  
123 calanoid copepods) and increases in a predatory, cold stenothermic cyclopoid copepod (*Cyclops*  
124 *scutifer*) have been observed (Williamson et al. 2015).

125

126 *Meteorological data.* Lake Giles does not have its own weather station. Instead, we relied  
127 on an on-lake weather station located 16.6 km away at Lake Lacawac for all the meteorological  
128 input data. Lake Lacawac is slightly smaller than Lake Giles (surface area of  $0.21 \text{ km}^2$ ,  
129 maximum depth of 13.0 m), but is similarly well-protected with a fully forested shoreline.  
130 Meteorological data from this weather station has previously been used in conjunction with in-

131 situ data for Lake Giles (Williamson et al. 2015; Pilla et al. 2018). Daily averages from 1997  
132 through 2018 were used for the following meteorological variables (Supplementary Fig. S1): air  
133 temperature at 2 m ( $T_{air}$ ; °C), global shortwave radiation ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2}$ ), precipitation ( $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ ),  
134 wind speed at 2 m ( $\text{m sec}^{-1}$ ), relative humidity (%), and air pressure (hPa).

135

136 *Inflow data.* As there is only one minor, ephemeral inflow that is not monitored at Lake  
137 Giles, inflow volume was estimated based on total precipitation in the catchment and lake  
138 retention time. Daily inflow volume was estimated at  $2,500 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$  ( $0.03 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) based on the  
139 volume and residence time of Lake Giles, resulting an approximate modelled residence time of  
140 5.26 years. When air temperature was  $> 0^\circ\text{C}$ , inflow was set to  $2500 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$ ; when air  
141 temperature was  $\leq 0^\circ\text{C}$ , inflow volume was set to  $0 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$ , and accumulated for an inflow  
142 pulse on the next day when air temperature was  $> 0^\circ\text{C}$ . Inflow temperature ( $T_{inflow}$ ) was  
143 calculated as:

$$144 \quad T_{inflow} = 5 + 0.75 \times T_{air} \quad (1)$$

145 per the methods of Stefan and Preud'homme (1993). Only one measurement of DOC in the  
146 inflow at Lake Giles has been recorded at  $6.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in summer 2003 (Cooke et al. 2006), so we  
147 used this as a guideline and estimated DOC in the inflow to mimic the long-term in-lake  
148 browning rates. We estimated DOC in the inflow as a constant  $3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in the winter months of  
149 December through February. To force lake browning via the inflow, we set a baseline DOC  
150 value of  $2.85 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in the open-water months of March through November 1997, which then  
151 increased during the summer by  $0.15 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  each year, resulting in a final inflow DOC  
152 concentration of  $6 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in 2018. Particulate organic carbon (POC) was set to 50% of the daily  
153 DOC in the inflow. Dissolved oxygen in the inflow was set to 100% saturation based on the daily

154 air temperature and air pressure. All other chemical inflow variables were set to zero  
155 (Supplementary Fig. S2).

156

157 *In-lake data.* Long-term empirical data from Lake Giles from 1998 through 2018 was  
158 extracted from the data publication at the Environmental Data Initiative (Williamson 2019).  
159 Sampling methods and protocols follow general standards for limnological research. In brief,  
160 temperature and dissolved oxygen profiles were taken at 1 m increments with a Yellow Springs  
161 Instrument manual probe. Profiles of temperature were sparse from 1998 through 2006, and  
162 profiles of dissolved oxygen do not exist from 1998 through 2006. DOC samples were taken  
163 from discrete depth sampled at 0.5 m and 18 m, filtered through ashed 0.7  $\mu\text{m}$  glass fiber filters,  
164 and analyzed through high temperature oxidation using a Shimadzu Total Organic Carbon  
165 Analyzer. PAR and UV light attenuation data, measured as  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$ , respectively,  
166 were calculated from a high-resolution vertical profiler using Biospherical Instruments Profiling  
167 UV radiometer or cosine compact four channel aquatic radiometer. For these manually collected  
168 data, samples generally occurred one to two times per month during the ice-free season.

169 High-frequency data of temperature and dissolved oxygen were collected with Precision  
170 Measurement Engineering miniDOT sensors sampling every 10 minutes from 2016 to 2018. All  
171 data were aggregated to the daily timestep by date and depth. Sensors were deployed from 16  
172 October 2016 through 23 May 2018 at depths of 0.5 m and 22 m, and additional sensors were  
173 deployed starting 11 August 2017 through 23 May 2018 at depths of 4 m, 6 m, 8 m, 12 m, 14 m,  
174 16 m, 18 m, 20 m, and 22 m. These high-frequency data sensors remained in the lake year-  
175 around, allowing for data collecting during the shoulder seasons and during ice cover, where  
176 manual sampling rarely occurs at Lake Giles. Sensor data from all depths were used for

177 temperature data, and depths of 0.5 m and 22 m were using for dissolved oxygen data. Dissolved  
178 oxygen data at 22 m was removed from 06 April 2017 through 28 June 2017 due to sensor  
179 misplacement in the sediment where data were not reflective of water column processes. Despite  
180 the paucity of catchment data, the extensive long-term empirical data on the direct responses to  
181 lake browning (DOC, PAR and UV light attenuation) and ecological responses (thermal  
182 structure, dissolved oxygen, zooplankton abundance), combined with recent high-frequency  
183 sensor data on temperature and dissolved oxygen measured vertically in the water column  
184 consistently since October 2016, make Lake Giles a unique and highly suitable study lake to test  
185 model performance of lake browning scenarios.

186

187 *Model selection & update.* MyLake is an open-source, one-dimensional, processed-based  
188 model (Saloranta and Andersen 2007). It is a relatively concise MATLAB® code (MATLAB  
189 2019) that has performed well with small boreal lakes experiencing browning and seasonal ice  
190 cover. Its recent iterations focused on dissolved oxygen (Couture et al. 2015), DOC (de Wit et al.  
191 2018), CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> (Kiuru et al. 2019), and sediment-water interactions (Markelov et al. 2019).  
192 Here, we updated the publicly-available code described in Markelov et al. (2019), which  
193 estimated  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$  solely based on changing chlorophyll concentration and not DOC  
194 concentration, with two additional parameters:  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  (Kiuru et al. 2019) and  $\beta'_{\text{DOC}}$ , which  
195 parametrize the time-varying response of PAR and UV light attenuation to DOC concentrations  
196 via calculations of  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$ , respectively.

197  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$  was previously calculated as:

$$198 \quad K_{d\text{ PAR}} = K_{d0} + \beta_{\text{Chl}} \times \bar{C}_z \quad (2)$$

199 where  $K_{d0}$  is the attenuation value of PAR in pure distilled water ( $\text{m}^{-1}$ ; Thrane et al. 2014),  $\beta_{\text{Chl}}$  is

200 the optical cross-section or relative absorbance of chlorophyll ( $\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}$ ), and  $\bar{C}_z$  is the  
 201 chlorophyll concentration at depth ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ).  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  now variably responds at each time step to  
 202 DOC concentration in addition to chlorophyll concentration via the addition of the additional  
 203 parameter  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$ , which is the optical cross-section or PAR-specific relative absorbance of DOC  
 204 in the water column ( $\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}$ ). The resulting calculation of  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  in the new model update is:

$$205 \quad K_{d\text{PAR}} = K_{d0} + \beta_{\text{Chl}} \times \bar{C}_z + \beta_{\text{DOC}} \times \overline{\text{DOC}}_z \quad (3)$$

206 where  $\overline{\text{DOC}}_z$  is DOC concentration at depth ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ; Kiuru et al, 2019). As  $\overline{\text{DOC}}_z$  increases with  
 207 lake browning, the resulting value of  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  calculated each time step will increase, indicating  
 208 greater attenuation of PAR and reduced water transparency. The parameter  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  is analogous to  
 209 the DOC absorbance, color, or chromophoric quality, and the relationship between  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  and  
 210  $\overline{\text{DOC}}_z$  has been reported in several studies (Morris et al. 1995; Bukaveckas and Robbins-Forbes  
 211 2000; Read and Rose 2013; Thrane et al. 2014). These studies suggest that the  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  parameter  
 212 value could theoretically be as low as zero, indicating no absorbance by DOC, or could range to  
 213 as high as  $0.725 \text{ m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}$  in a single lake (Morris et al. 1995). Across all the lakes included in  
 214 these individual studies, estimates for  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  based on linear models ranged from 0.160 ( $n = 85$ ,  
 215 Bukaveckas and Robbins-Forbes 2000), 0.217 ( $n = 7$ , Read and Rose 2013), to 0.222 ( $n = 65$ ,  
 216 Morris et al. 1995). The low DOC-specific absorbance empirical measurements in Lake Giles  
 217 that are analogous to the  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  parameter suggest that  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  may be lower in Lake Giles than these  
 218 across-lake estimates (Williamson et al. 2015; Pilla et al. 2018).

219 The model also calculates a new state variable,  $K_{d\text{UV320}}$ , based on its linear relationship  
 220 with  $\overline{\text{DOC}}_z$  from the equation:

$$221 \quad K_{d\text{UV320}} = K'_{d0} + \beta'_{\text{DOC}} \times \overline{\text{DOC}}_z \quad (4)$$

222 where  $K'_{d0}$  and  $\beta'_{\text{DOC}}$  represent the same theoretical parameters as for  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$ , but relative to UV

223 attenuation and absorption. Since DOC selectively absorbs UV wavelengths relative to PAR  
224 wavelengths (Williamson et al. 1996), these parameter values are not expected to be equivalent  
225 to those used for calculating light attenuation of PAR and are thus calibrated independently.  
226 Further details on this model description and relevant parameters can be found in the  
227 Supplemental Material and Supplemental Table S1.

228

229 *Model calibration.* Model calibration spanned the period of in-lake data from 16 October  
230 2016 through 23 May 2018 and included five state variables: DOC,  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$ ,  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$ , water  
231 temperature, and dissolved oxygen. This period was selected as it allows testing the model  
232 against both manually-sampled data of these five state variables as well as high-frequency sensor  
233 data of temperature and dissolved oxygen data as described above. Twenty-three parameters  
234 were included in model calibration (Supplemental Table S1). The diagnostic index was RMSE-  
235 observations standard deviation ratio (RSR; Moriasi et al. 2007) for each state variable across all  
236 included depths, then summed across the five state variables, as follows:

$$237 \quad \Sigma RSR = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{RMSE}{\sigma_{obs}} \quad (5)$$

238 RSR is a useful diagnostic index when calibrating across multiple state variables with different  
239 units, as it includes a scaling or normalizing factor. An RSR value  $\leq 0.70$  suggests satisfactory  
240 model performance (Moriasi et al. 2007). The Nelder-Mead simplex optimization routine (Box  
241 1965; Nelder and Mead 1965) was used to minimize the diagnostic index  $\Sigma RSR$  using the  
242 “nloptr” package in R (Johnson 2018).

243

244 *Model scenarios of seasonal DOC fluctuation and light attenuation responses.* We  
245 created two artificial scenarios with short-term, seasonal fluctuations in DOC concentration in

246 the inflows for a one year simulation to test the response of in-lake DOC,  $K_d$  PAR, and  $K_d$  UV320 in  
247 the updated model (Fig. 2). Scenario A increased inflow DOC concentration on a monthly basis  
248 from no DOC in January and by 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> from February through May up through an inflow  
249 concentration of 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> maintained in June and July. Inflow DOC concentration was then  
250 decreased on a monthly basis by 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> from August until December, when it again returned to  
251 zero. Scenario B assessed rapid fluctuations in inflow DOC concentration that reverted between  
252 zero and 6 mg L<sup>-1</sup> every other month from January through December. For both scenarios, we  
253 assessed the short-term responses of in-lake DOC,  $K_d$  PAR, and  $K_d$  UV320 that were not as easily  
254 captured in the 20-year simulation due to limited empirical inflow data.

255  
256 *Model backcast in Lake Giles.* We used a backcast scenario initialized with in-situ  
257 profiles from Giles on 05 August 1997 with the described meteorological and inflow conditions,  
258 and reported output beginning 01 January 1998 after a 5-month model spin-up. We ran a 20-year  
259 simulation in Giles through 31 December 2018 using either the fixed  $K_d$  version or the varying  
260  $K_d$  PAR and  $K_d$  UV320 version. Long-term trends for empirical data and model outputs were  
261 assessed with Mann-Kendall non-parametric trend tests with Sen's slopes using the "trend"  
262 package in R (Pohlert 2018) using  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

263 All analyses were completed in R version 3.6.2 (R Core Team 2019), using the  
264 "R.matlab" package (Bengtsson 2018) for communication with and execution of MyLake  
265 MATLAB scripts (MATLAB 2019). All figures were created using the "ggplot2" (Wickham  
266 2016) and "ggpubr" packages in R (Kassambara 2019).

267  
268 **Results:**

269 *Model calibration & evaluation.* Calibration of the updated model version against five  
270 state variables at multiple depths resulted overall in satisfactory model agreement with observed  
271 data (Table 1, Supplemental Fig. S3). Calibration performance for key state variable ranked best  
272 for temperature, then dissolved oxygen,  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$ ,  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$ , and finally worst for DOC. Versus  
273 depth, model performance for temperature and dissolved oxygen was best at the surface,  
274 consistent with the boundary conditions of one-dimensional models being at the air-water  
275 interface for these two state variables. In contrast, performance for DOC was better at the bottom  
276 of the water column, consistent with their boundary conditions being at the inflow. This is the  
277 first time that DOC at multiple depths has been used in a calibration routine, alongside high-  
278 frequency water temperature and dissolved oxygen data, leaving room for improvement  
279 especially in systems where inflow data are readily monitored.

280 There were two notable limitations during the calibration period. For DOC,  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$ , and  
281  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$  the model tended toward an average rather than highlighting the seasonal variability  
282 found in the 2-year calibration period (Supplemental Fig. S4, Fig. S5). However, there were few  
283 in-lake measurements for these variables during the calibration period ( $n = 11$ ), and the  
284 manually-derived increased DOC concentrations in the inflow under-represents natural short-  
285 term variations in DOC and the consequent responses in  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$  or  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$ . Second, there was a  
286 discrepancy during the ice-cover period during March 2018 for water temperature and dissolved  
287 oxygen (Supplemental Fig. S6, Fig. S7), where the model suggested an extended period of ice  
288 cover that was not observed at the lake. We elected to remove the data from 01 March 2018  
289 through 31 March 2018 from the calibration so that the error in ice-off prediction did not skew  
290 the model calibration for temperature or other state variables. Overall, all state variables at all  
291 depths were deemed satisfactorily calibrated in the updated model version of MyLake to be used



292 for further modelling scenarios (Supplemental Fig. S3).

293

294 *Seasonal DOC fluctuation scenarios.* In both Scenario A and Scenario B, all three in-lake  
295 measures of water transparency responded rapidly to the changing fluxes of inflow DOC  
296 concentration (Fig. 2). During winter, responses were more variable due to the delayed inflow  
297 volume resulting from the assumption of frozen surface water. However, in the open-water  
298 season, in-lake DOC (Fig. 2c, 2d),  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  (Fig. 2e, 2f), and  $K_{d\text{UV320}}$  (Fig. 2g, 2h) responded  
299 rapidly to these artificial scenarios with the expected direction and magnitude of change. Also as  
300 expected, responses in  $K_{d\text{UV320}}$  were an order of magnitude greater than that of  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  due to the  
301 greater selective absorption of shorter wavelengths by DOC. Hence, we found this model update  
302 to have adequate short-term responsiveness for the key in-lake water transparency variables to  
303 changing inflow DOC concentrations.

304

305 *Backcast model validation in Lake Giles.* Both the varying  $K_d$  and fixed  $K_d$  models  
306 showed satisfactory model performance of DOC concentration in the 1998-2018 backcast  
307 scenario that mimicked long-term lake browning (Table 2, Fig. 3a, 3b). For DOC, the two model  
308 versions were essentially indistinguishable because the inflow of DOC was equivalent for both  
309 estimates of in-lake DOC. DOC significantly increased during summer at a rate of  $0.050 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$   
310  $\text{year}^{-1}$  in both models ( $p < 0.001$  for both), only slightly slower than the increase in the observed  
311 data of  $0.070 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.001$ , Table 3).

312 In contrast, only the varying  $K_d$  model reproduced the observed long-term responses of  
313  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  (Fig. 3c, 3d) and  $K_{d\text{UV320}}$  (Fig. 3e, 3f) to increases in DOC concentration (Table 3). The  
314 varying  $K_d$  model had significantly increasing  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  at a rate of  $0.006 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ),

315 comparable to the observed rate of increase of  $0.009 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), while the fixed  $K_d$   
316 model showed no change in  $K_{d \text{ PAR}}$  (Table 3). Similarly,  $K_{d \text{ UV320}}$  from the varying  $K_d$  model  
317 increased at a rate of  $0.052 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ) compared to the observed rate of increase of  
318  $0.090 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), and showed no change in the fixed  $K_d$  model (Table 3).

319 In both the fixed and varying  $K_d$  models, surface water temperature performed very well  
320 (Table 2, Fig. 4a, 4b). However, the rates of surface water warming compared to the observed  
321 trend of  $0.120^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$  ( $p = 0.15$ ) was better modelled in the varying  $K_d$  model, with a warming  
322 rate of  $0.093^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$  ( $p = 0.07$ ), versus the fixed  $K_d$  model rate of  $0.051^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$  ( $p = 0.22$ ;  
323 Table 3). The main difference between fixed and varying  $K_d$  models was observed cooling of  
324 deep waters at a rate of  $-0.072^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$  ( $p = 0.08$ ), which was only simulated using the varying  
325  $K_d$  model (Table 2, Fig. 4c, 4d). In the varying  $K_d$  model, deepwater temperature decreased  
326 significantly at a rate of  $-0.097^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), compared to no change in the fixed  $K_d$   
327 model ( $p = 0.53$ ; Table 3).

328 Similar to surface water temperature, simulated surface dissolved oxygen performed  
329 equally well for both the fixed and varying  $K_d$  models (Table 2, Fig. 5a, 5b). While there was no  
330 significant observed change in surface dissolved oxygen ( $-0.016 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.30$ ), the  
331 varying  $K_d$  model resulted in a significant decrease in surface dissolved oxygen at a rate of -  
332  $0.017 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$  ( $p = 0.04$ ) compared to no significant change in the fixed  $K_d$  model ( $-0.008$   
333  $\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.24$ ). Finally, deepwater dissolved oxygen had better model performance in  
334 the varying  $K_d$  model (Table 3, Fig. 5c, 5d), showing greater deepwater oxygen depletion ( $-0.118$   
335  $\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ) compared to no significant change in the fixed  $K_d$  model ( $-0.022 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$   
336  $\text{year}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.53$ ). Though the observed data here only span 2007 to 2018 with no significant trend  
337 over this time period (Table 3), Knoll et al. (2018) reported long-term decreases from 1988 to

338 2014 at a rate of  $-0.163 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ , much more comparable to the simulated decrease in  
339 deepwater dissolved oxygen in the varying  $K_d$  model.

340

341 **Discussion:**

342 The new model update presented here successfully replicates short-term in-lake DOC  
343 dynamics and the expected PAR and UV attenuation responses, as well as long-term browning  
344 patterns and structural vertical changes in a model lake ecosystem, Lake Giles. The varying  $K_d$   
345 model improved estimates over 20 years by up to 52% across five state variables, and especially  
346 improved long-term trends in deepwater variables, which are particularly sensitive to increased  
347 light attenuation and thermal stability (Knoll et al. 2018; Pilla et al. 2018). Though the important  
348 connections between DOC and light attenuation have long been established (Morris et al. 1995;  
349 Williamson et al. 1996; Pace and Cole 2002), this is the first lake model to incorporate varying  
350 light attenuation that is responsive to daily changes in DOC concentration. Further, we  
351 developed the first modelling of UV attenuation that is also variably responsive to DOC  
352 concentration, and which is a key response to browning with important implications for  
353 photobleaching feedbacks (Cory et al. 2014) and trophic interactions (Williamson et al. 2015).  
354 This model that can successfully reproduce short- and long-term ecosystem responses to DOC  
355 fluctuations and lake browning, an important feature for future studies aiming to improve  
356 understanding of the drivers and responses of DOC fluxes in lakes, including feedback loops,  
357 biological responses, and water quality (Solomon et al. 2015; Williamson et al. 2015).

358 This model has the capability to assess rapid, short-term changes in DOC concentration  
359 and responses of light attenuation. Short-term fluctuations in DOC due to storm and precipitation  
360 events are common (Zhang et al. 2010; de Wit et al. 2016; Rose et al. 2017), and can reduce

361 PAR and UV transparency in lakes by over 7% in one day (Williamson et al. 2016), with  
362 important influences on resultant structural and biological responses. For example, rapid  
363 reductions in PAR and UV penetration following an intense summer storm led to an upward shift  
364 in the vertical distribution of zooplankton in Lake Lacawac (Pennsylvania, USA), with potential  
365 implications for changes in predator-prey overlap (Rose et al. 2012). Similarly, rapid reductions  
366 in underwater UV irradiance in one day by just 9% due to short-term smoke plumes at Lake  
367 Tahoe (California, USA) resulted in 4.1 m shallower vertical distribution of zooplankton, but  
368 with no change in the vertical distribution of their predators (Urmy et al. 2016). In the Lake Giles  
369 long-term backcast, we were not able to capture these shorter-term seasonal patterns in DOC and  
370 light attenuation, even in the varying  $K_d$  model. This is likely due to the manually-estimated  
371 inflow volume and DOC concentration that limited the seasonal or episodic fluctuations of in-  
372 lake DOC and therefore of  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  during storm events or seasonal precipitation  
373 patterns. We expect that systems with detailed empirical inflow volume and DOC concentration  
374 data would be useful case studies to understand associated in-lake responses to patterns in DOC  
375 at different temporal scales, and to further improve the model's performance.

376 The inclusion of UV attenuation in this model as a time-varying variable to changing  
377 DOC is, to our knowledge, the first of its kind. While estimates for  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  in Lake Giles would  
378 be possible based on published empirical relationships between  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  and DOC concentrations  
379 across lakes, as in Morris et al. (1995), we found this led to a two-fold overestimation of  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$   
380 values, and therefore would result in inaccurate predictions for chemical and ecological  
381 consequences of browning. This overestimation for  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  was likely due to the distinctively  
382 low DOC absorption coefficient of UV wavelengths of Lake Giles's water, in which it falls in  
383 the 3<sup>rd</sup> percentile of lowest DOC absorption values (Morris et al. 1995). Though there is a strong

384 empirical relationship between DOC concentration and  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  as presented in in Morris et al.  
385 (1995), an estimation of  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  exclusively from DOC concentration ignores the role that very  
386 low DOC absorption values also contribute to estimations of  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$ . The lake-specific  
387 calibration enhanced the model performance for predicting  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  by 52% compared to a fixed,  
388 low value of the UV-specific DOC absorption parameter,  $\beta'_{\text{DOC}}$  (Supplemental Table S1). Hence,  
389 the calibration of DOC absorption as the  $\beta'_{\text{DOC}}$  parameter in addition to varying DOC  
390 concentration in our model update's estimation of  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  was the key reason we saw such  
391 notable improvement in  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$ .

392 Nevertheless, the impact of DOC on light attenuation remains more dynamic than what is  
393 included in this model update. In particular, DOC absorption coefficients have been increasing in  
394 Lake Giles alongside DOC concentration (Williamson et al. 2015), and in most recent years has  
395 increased by more than six-fold of the original value presented in Morris et al. (1995;  
396 Williamson et al. 2019). While the  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  and  $\beta'_{\text{DOC}}$  parameters were calibrated to Lake Giles,  
397 their values were fixed and did not change over time, which suggests the model may still be  
398 lacking finer precision of both  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  estimates. Hence, time series data of  
399 wavelength-specific DOC absorption, in addition to DOC concentration, would allow  
400 implementing  $\beta_{\text{DOC}}$  and  $\beta'_{\text{DOC}}$  as state variables rather than parameters and further improve  
401 modelling of decreasing  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{UV}320}$  due to browning. In particular, photobleaching rates,  
402 which depends heavily on surface light attenuation, remain a poorly constrained DOC sink,  
403 especially in northern waters (Ward and Cory 2020; De Wit et al. 2018).

404 The ecosystem variables of interest in the browning scenario at Lake Giles resulted in the  
405 expected rapid increases in PAR and UV light attenuation, warming surface waters, cooling deep  
406 waters, and decreasing deepwater dissolved oxygen. These quintessential responses to long-term

407 browning are a result of the greater absorption of light and heat in the surface waters with higher  
408 DOC concentrations and thereby higher  $K_d$  PAR, leading to strong changes in vertical heat  
409 penetration that reduce deepwater temperatures (Read and Rose 2013; Rose et al. 2016; Pilla et  
410 al. 2018), which were not captured when using the fixed  $K_d$  model. These thermal patterns  
411 occurred here in the absence of air temperature warming at Lake Giles due to the increased heat  
412 trapping capabilities of colored DOC in the surface waters (Pilla et al. 2018; Supplemental Fig.  
413 S1a), which has also been observed in other lakes (Rose et al. 2016; Bartosiewicz et al. 2019).  
414 This diverging response of surface vs. deep waters to browning has been previously reported in  
415 Lake Giles (Williamson et al. 2015; Pilla et al. 2018) and in other lakes as a “shielding” of deep  
416 waters due to greater light and heat absorption in the surface waters (Bartosiewicz et al. 2019).  
417 We suggest that this diverging pattern and resultant increase in thermal stability (Pilla et al.  
418 2018) drove the decreasing deepwater dissolved oxygen concentrations. Because our modelling  
419 scenarios had equivalent increases in in-lake DOC and thereby carbon substrate, increased  
420 microbial decomposition was not a reasonable mechanism for the decreases in dissolved oxygen,  
421 as has been proposed in other studies (Couture et al. 2015). We would expect similar responses  
422 in thermal structure and deepwater dissolved oxygen primarily in lakes with low DOC  
423 concentrations and low  $K_d$  values, as these clear lakes tend to be much more sensitive than less  
424 transparent lakes to inputs of DOC concentration and changes in light attenuation (Snucins and  
425 Gunn 2000; Rose et al. 2016) due to the exponential relationship between light penetration and  
426 DOC concentration (Williamson et al. 1996). Empirical studies of nearby Lake Lacawac, which  
427 is experiencing similar patterns of long-term browning but had initially-higher DOC  
428 concentrations, have shown much more muted changes in light attenuation, thermal structure,  
429 and oxygen depletion compared to Lake Giles (Williamson et al. 2015; Knoll et al. 2018; Pilla et

430 al. 2018). Further study of the mechanisms driving these key structural responses over a range of  
431 lake transparencies, with modelling scenarios such as those in Fig. 2, can pinpoint the most  
432 sensitive types of lakes and response variables, especially as global changes in thermal structure  
433 (Pilla et al. 2020) and deepwater oxygen depletion (Jenny et al. 2016) become more prevalent.

434 The modelling work here highlights a number of feedback loops related to the estimation  
435 of  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$  when DOC concentrations vary. For example, photo-processing by UV  
436 light alters both the color and concentration of DOC (Zhang et al. 2010; Cory et al. 2014), and  
437 these changes in DOC would therefore feed back into the estimation of both  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$ .  
438 In fact, photo-processing is often more important than biodegradation of carbon (Dempsey et al.  
439 2020) and can account for up to 95% of total carbon processing in Arctic systems (Cory et al.  
440 2014). In Lake Giles, photo-processing resulted in nearly a 50% decrease in DOC absorption  
441 coefficients in just one week (Dempsey et al. 2020), again highlighting the importance of  
442 incorporation of DOC absorption or color in addition to DOC concentration for estimating light  
443 attenuation. Further, in lakes experiencing diverging surface vs. deepwater temperature patterns  
444 and consequent increases in thermal stability, residence time of water and DOC tends to increase,  
445 which is an important control of DOC processing in lakes (Cory et al. 2015; Catalán et al. 2016).  
446 Conversely, increases in precipitation events that tend to be associated with long-term lake  
447 browning shorten residence time and flush DOC out of lakes, limiting time for photo-processing  
448 (de Wit et al. 2018). Hence, the interaction between photo-processing and residence time (Cory  
449 et al. 2015) and their influence on DOC concentration, color, and reactivity are key  
450 considerations for modelling applications and advances. These feedback loops between DOC and  
451 both  $K_{d\text{ PAR}}$  and  $K_{d\text{ UV320}}$  will also, in turn, control vertical thermal structure and oxygen depletion  
452 especially in high transparency lakes like Lake Giles due to their greater sensitivity compared to

453 low transparency systems (Snucins and Gunn 2000; Read and Rose 2013; Rose et al. 2016; Pilla  
454 et al. 2018).

455 In conclusion, incorporating dynamic linkages between DOC and light attenuation at  
456 multiple wavelengths in lake ecosystem models is essential for accurate modelling applications  
457 of lake browning, including vertical structural responses to changing light attenuation, oxygen  
458 depletion rates, and effects on photo-processing feedback loops. Further model advancements  
459 include implementing varying DOC absorption to understand the suite of ecological  
460 consequences and potential feedback loops related to photo-processing and residence time in  
461 browning lakes. As the ramifications of long-term lake browning are not currently well  
462 understood (Solomon et al. 2015), innovative modelling studies of lake browning that develop  
463 and implement optical responses across multiple biologically-relevant light wavelengths can  
464 provide a unique understanding of the potential changes in lake ecosystems due to increased  
465 DOC concentration and color, ranging from microbial processing to trophic interactions to  
466 greenhouse gas emissions.

467

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621

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632 <https://github.com/biogeochemistry>. The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

633 **Tables:**

634 **Table 1.** Diagnostic model performance statistics for the calibration period. Diagnostic indices  
 635 include root mean squared error (RMSE), bias, RMSE-observations standard deviation ratio  
 636 (RSR), and mean absolute percentage error (MAPE).

637

638

Variable	Depth (m)	RMSE	Bias	RSR	MAPE (%)	
DOC	0.5	0.145	-0.012	1.076	5.0	
	18	0.183	-0.011	0.851	8.5	
$K_{dPAR}$	0.5	0.045	-0.001	0.930	12.8	
$K_{dUV320}$	0.5	0.357	0.002	0.855	12.1	
	4	1.200	-0.116	0.163	19.9	
	6	1.031	-0.136	0.147	18.3	
	8	1.763	-0.853	0.345	21.0	
	12	1.321	-0.696	0.669	21.9	
	14	1.032	-0.522	0.737	19.9	
	16	0.818	-0.330	0.717	16.9	
	18	0.714	-0.221	0.703	14.8	
	20	0.645	-0.116	0.694	12.2	
Water Temperature	22	0.583	-0.011	0.691	10.7	
	Dissolved	0.5	0.776	-0.095	0.510	5.7
	Oxygen	22	1.591	-0.014	0.338	866.0



639 **Table 2.** Diagnostic model performance statistics for the validation period under both the fixed  
 640  $K_d$  and varying  $K_d$  model versions. Diagnostic indices include root mean squared error (RMSE),  
 641 bias, RMSE-observations standard deviation ratio (RSR), and mean absolute percentage error  
 642 (MAPE).

Variable	Depth (m)	RMSE		Bias		RSR		MAPE (%)	
		fixed	varying	fixed	varying	fixed	varying	fixed	varying
DOC	0.5	0.264	0.264	0.062	0.007	0.523	0.522	11.5	12.5
$K_d$ PAR	0.5	0.104	0.094	-0.036	0.038	1.066	0.967	35.5	19.5
$K_d$ UV <sub>320</sub>	0.5	0.936	0.516	-0.634	0.106	1.356	0.748	77.6	26.0
Water	2	0.910	0.895	-0.226	0.447	0.182	0.179	4.1	4.1
Temperature	20	1.460	0.628	1.318	0.265	2.173	0.935	22.7	8.0
Dissolved Oxygen	2	0.838	0.867	-0.216	-0.312	0.618	0.639	6.6	7.3
	20	3.138	2.816	1.905	0.881	0.972	0.872	103.2	159.2

643

644 **Table 3.** Comparison of Sen's slope estimated trends from summer averages spanning 1998-  
 645 2018 between observed data, fixed  $K_d$  model, and varying  $K_d$  model. Asterisks indicate  
 646 statistically significant trends ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Variable	Depth	Sen's Slope (year <sup>-1</sup> )		
		observed	fixed	varying
DOC	surface	0.070*	0.050*	0.050*
$K_d$ PAR	surface	0.009*	0.000	0.006*
$K_d$ UV320	surface	0.090*	0.000	0.052*
Water Temperature	surface	0.120	0.051	0.093
	deepwater	-0.072	0.002	-0.097*
Dissolved Oxygen	surface	-0.016	-0.008	-0.017*
	deepwater	0.023	-0.022	-0.118*

649 **Figure Legends:**

650 **Figure 1.** (a) Location of Lake Giles in northeastern Pennsylvania (blue point), and (b)  
651 bathymetric map of Lake Giles. Blue point in the center of the lake indicates the sampling  
652 location of manual samples and profiles and the mooring station of high-frequency sensors.  
653 Brown triangle in the lake shore indicates the approximate location of the ephemeral inflow  
654 stream.

655  
656 **Figure 2.** Scenarios A and B testing responsiveness to seasonal fluctuations of artificial time-  
657 series (black dashed lines) of (a, b) inflow DOC concentration, and the corresponding simulated  
658 responses (solid orange lines) of (c, d) in-lake DOC concentration, (e, f)  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$ , and (g, h)  $K_{d\text{UV320}}$ .  
659  $\text{UV}_{320}$ .

660  
661 **Figure 3.** Left panels: Comparison between observed (black points) and simulated (a) DOC  
662 surface values, (c)  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$  surface values, and (e)  $K_{d\text{UV320}}$  surface values at Lake Giles from the  
663 validation backcast period spanning 1998-2018 for the original model (blue line = fixed  $K_d$ ) and  
664 its updated version (orange line = varying  $K_d$ ). Shaded grey region indicates the calibration  
665 period. Right panels: Density plots of model residuals, centered on zero (solid vertical line) for  
666 simulated (b) DOC, (d)  $K_{d\text{PAR}}$ , and (f)  $K_{d\text{UV320}}$  using the fixed model (dashed blue area with  
667 mean residual bias denoted by open triangle) and updated model (solid orange area with mean  
668 residual bias denoted by filled triangle).

669  
670 **Figure 4.** Left panels: Comparison between observed (black points) and simulated (a) surface  
671 temperature and (c) deepwater temperature at Lake Giles from the validation backcast period

672 spanning 1998-2018 for the original model (blue line = fixed  $K_d$ ) and its updated version  
673 (orange line = varying  $K_d$ ). Shaded grey region indicates the calibration period. Right panels:  
674 Density plots of model residuals, centered on zero (solid vertical lines) for simulated (b) surface  
675 temperature and (d) deepwater temperature using the fixed model (dashed blue area with mean  
676 residual bias denoted by open triangle) and updated model (solid orange area with mean residual  
677 bias denoted by filled triangle).

678

679 **Figure 5.** Left panels: Comparison between observed (black points) and simulated (a) surface  
680 dissolved oxygen and (c) deepwater dissolved oxygen at Lake Giles from the validation backcast  
681 period spanning 1998-2018 for the original model (blue line = fixed  $K_d$ ) and its updated version  
682 (orange line = varying  $K_d$ ). Shaded grey region indicates the calibration period. Right panels:  
683 Density plots of model residuals, centered on zero (solid vertical lines) for simulated (b) surface  
684 dissolved oxygen and (d) deepwater dissolved oxygen using the fixed model (dashed blue area  
685 with mean residual bias denoted by open triangle) and updated model (solid orange area with  
686 mean residual bias denoted by filled triangle).

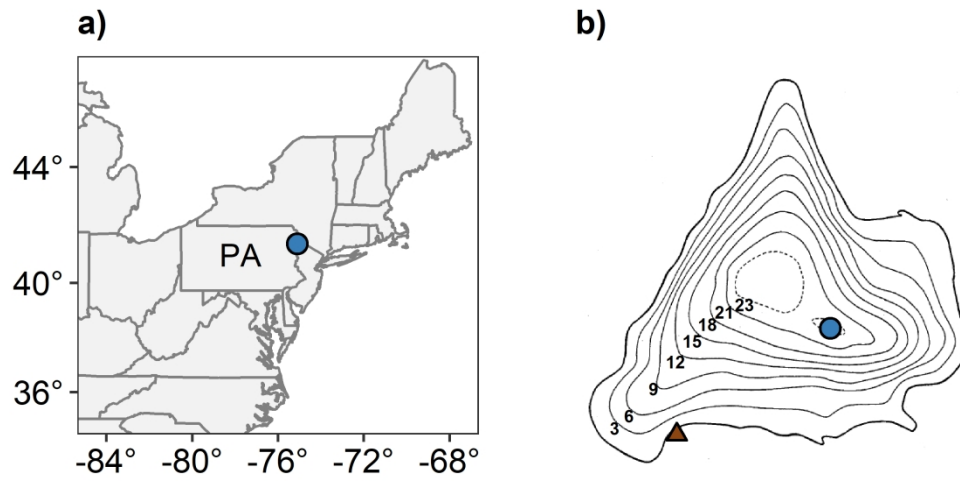


Figure 1. (a) Location of Lake Giles in northeastern Pennsylvania (blue point), and (b) bathymetric map of Lake Giles. Blue point in the center of the lake indicates the sampling location of manual samples and profiles and the mooring station of high-frequency sensors. Brown triangle in the lake shore indicates the approximate location of the ephemeral inflow stream.

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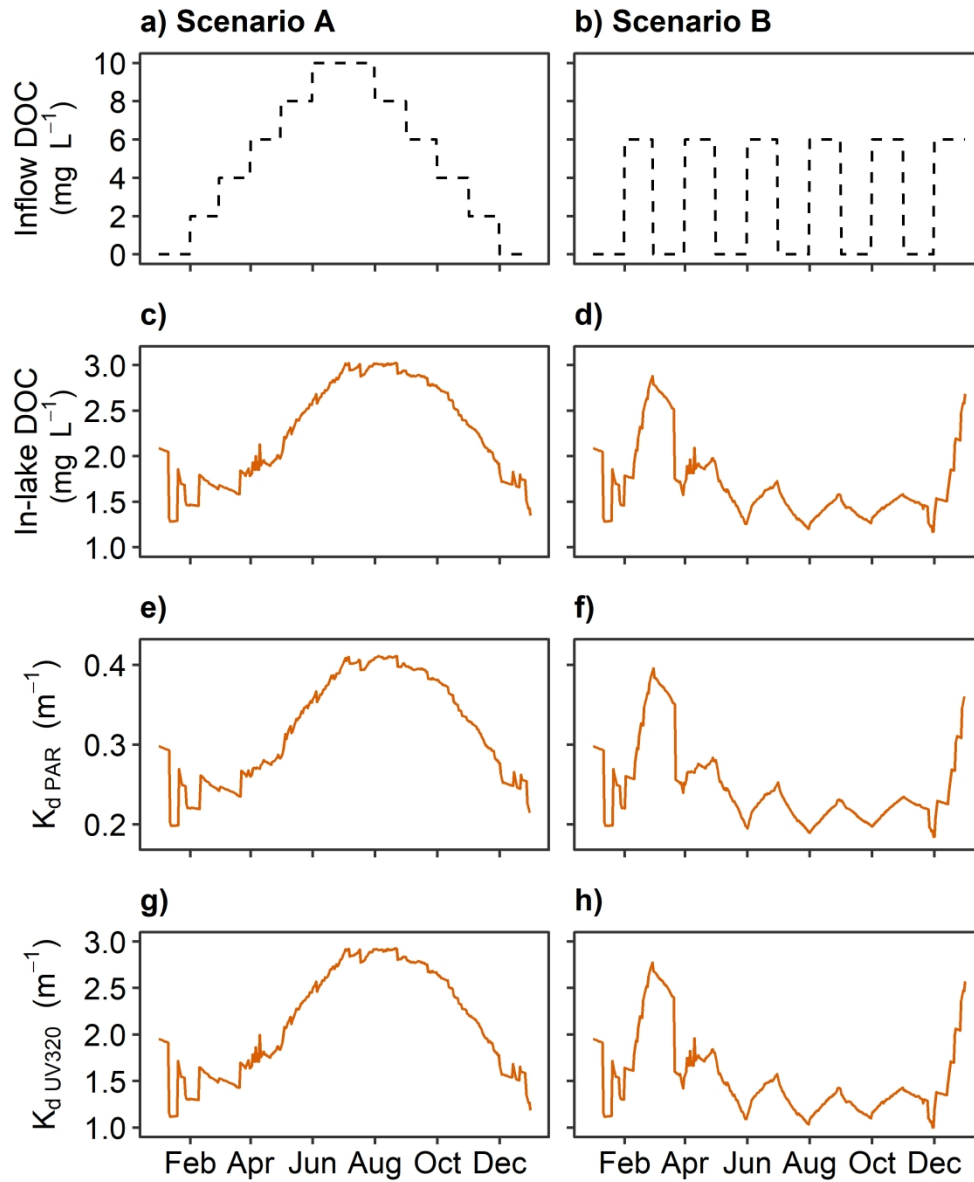


Figure 2. Scenarios A and B testing responsiveness to seasonal fluctuations of artificial time-series (black dashed lines) of (a, b) inflow DOC concentration, and the corresponding simulated responses (solid orange lines) of (c, d) in-lake DOC concentration, (e, f)  $K_d$  PAR, and (g, h)  $K_d$  UV<sub>320</sub>.

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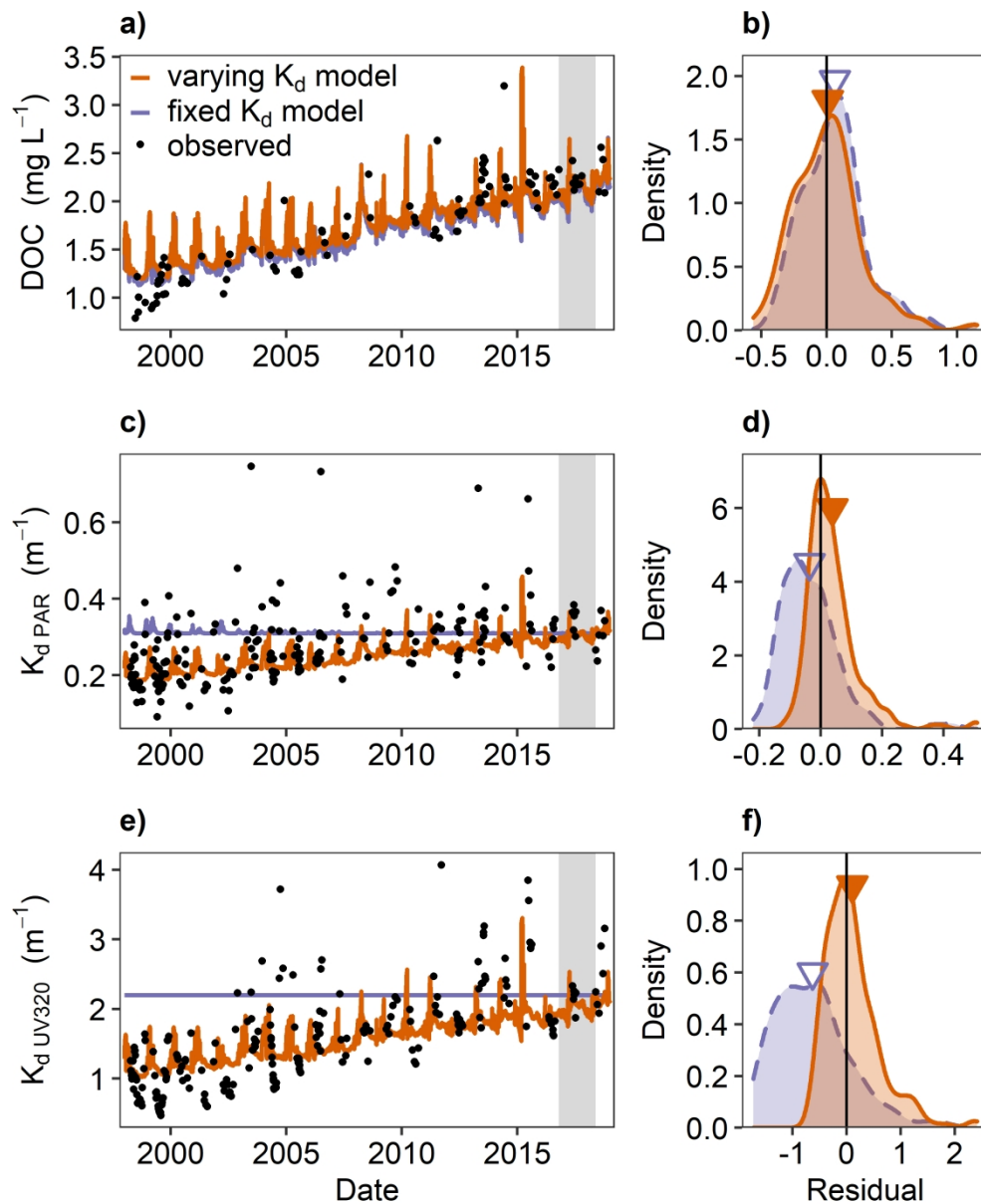


Figure 3. Left panels: Comparison between observed (black points) and simulated (a) DOC surface values, (c)  $K_d$  PAR surface values, and (e)  $K_d$  UV320 surface values at Lake Giles from the validation backcast period spanning 1998-2018 for the original model (blue line = fixed  $K_d$ ) and its updated version (orange line = varying  $K_d$ ). Shaded grey region indicates the calibration period. Right panels: Density plots of model residuals, centered on zero (solid vertical line) for simulated (b) DOC, (d)  $K_d$  PAR, and (f)  $K_d$  UV320 using the fixed model (dashed blue area with mean residual bias denoted by open triangle) and updated model (solid orange area with mean residual bias denoted by filled triangle).

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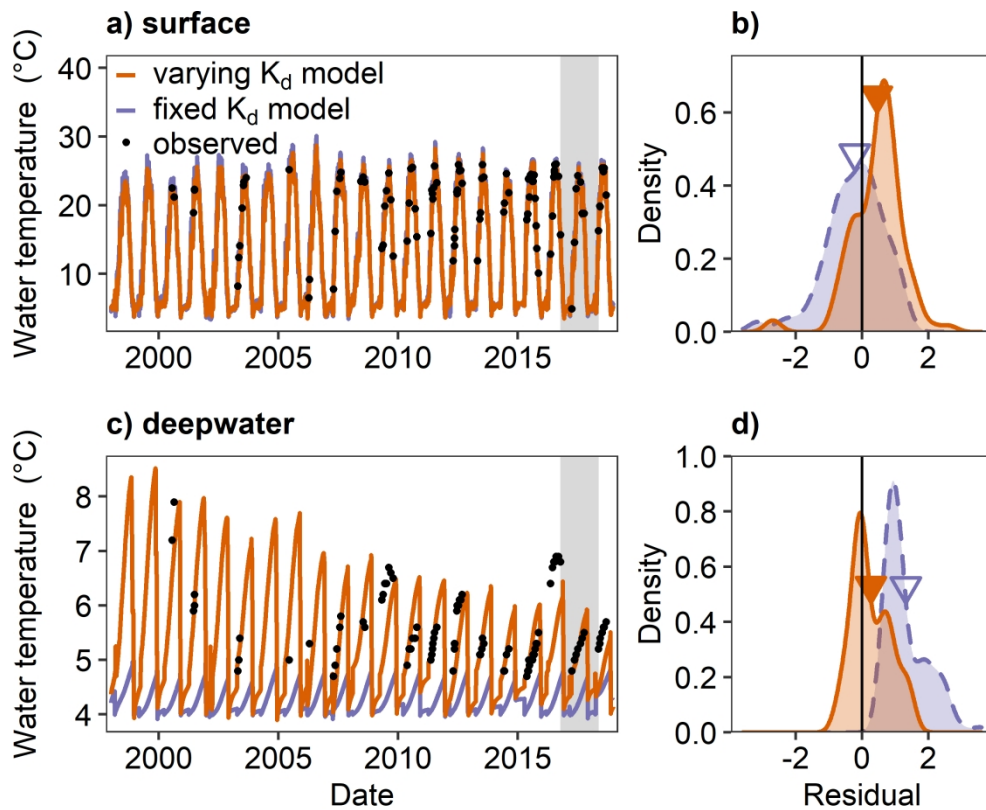


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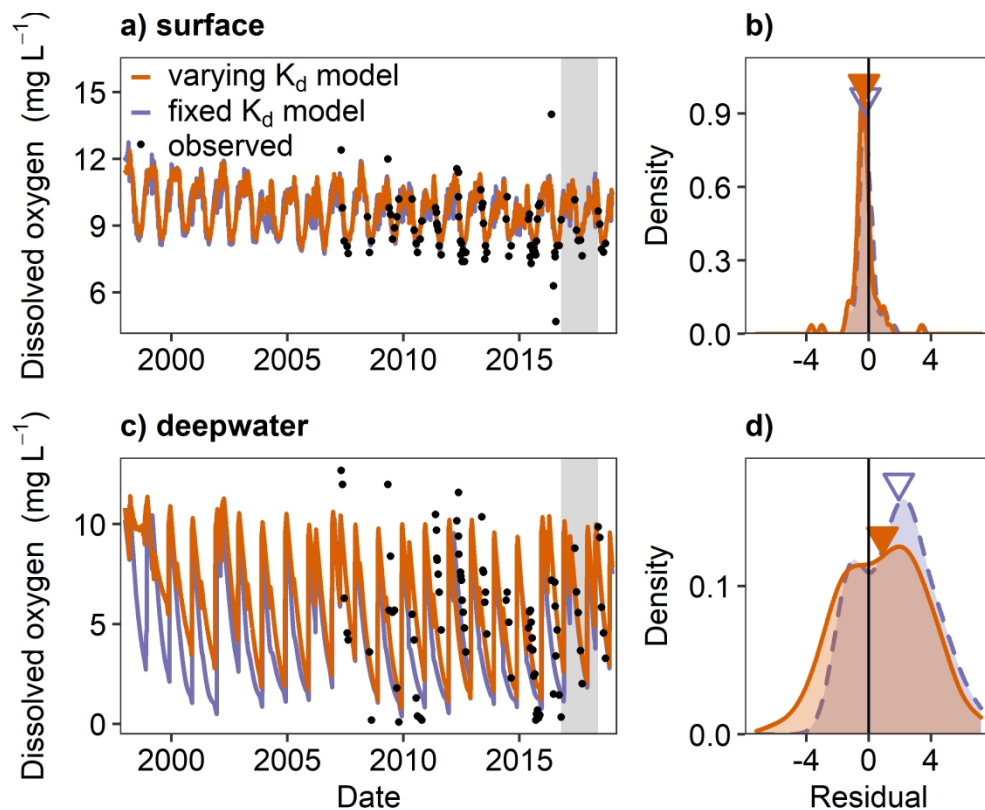


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127x101mm (600 x 600 DPI)

1 **Supplemental Information**

2

3 Attenuation of photosynthetically active radiation and ultraviolet light in response to changing  
4 dissolved organic carbon in browning lakes: Modelling and parametrization

5

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9

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14

15 **Contents:**

16 Summary of model description & Table S1

17 Figures S1-S7

## 18 Summary of model description:

19 Three key processes are responsible for DOC processing in the model: microbial  
 20 metabolism, photodegradation, and flocculation and subsequent sinking. Key parameters are  
 21 given in Table S1. Microbial metabolism, or bacterial decay of organic matter (OM), assumes  
 22 three pools (e.g., a 3G approach to OM degradation; Arndt et al. 2013) composed of compound  
 23 classes characterized by a specific rate constant parametrizing bacterial mineralization. These  
 24 pools are OM<sub>a</sub>, labile organic matter originating from autochthonous biomass, i.e.,  
 25 phytoplankton; OM<sub>b</sub>, semi-labile organic matter originating from allochthonous carbon; and  
 26 OM<sub>c</sub>, the non-reactive fraction. Each pool contains a particulate (POC) and a dissolved (DOC)  
 27 fraction. In this application at Lake Giles, we focus exclusively on DOC and POC part of the  
 28 semi-labile OM<sub>b</sub> pool. The rate for allochthonous DOC mineralization via oxic metabolism, for  
 29 example, is formulated as follows:

$$30 \quad R_{\text{METAB}} = k_{\text{DOC}} \times \theta^{T-T_{\text{ref}}} \times [\text{DOC}]_i \times \frac{[\text{O}_2]}{K_{\text{O}_2}^m + [\text{O}_2]}$$

31 where  $R_{\text{METAB}}$  ( $\text{mg C m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) is function of the rate constant  $k_{\text{DOC}}$  ( $\text{d}^{-1}$ ),  $[\text{DOC}]$  are the DOC  
 32 concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ),  $[\text{O}_2]$  are the oxygen concentrations ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ),  $K^m$  is the half-saturation  
 33 constant ( $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ), and  $\theta_{\text{OM}}$  is the temperature adjustment coefficient. Decomposition is thus  
 34 assumed to have temperature dependence similar to that of the phytoplankton processes.

35 The rate of DOC photodegradation ( $R_{\text{PHOTO}}$ ) is calculated by considering light absorption  
 36 by water, phytoplankton, and chromophoric DOC, as well as light scattering and shading. This  
 37 allows calculation of light attenuation and the rate of DOC photodegradation by photons  
 38 ( $R_{\text{PHOTO}}$ ,  $\text{mg C d}^{-1}$ ) as follows (Saloranta and Andersen 2007):

$$39 \quad R_{\text{PHOTO}} = -oc_{\text{DOC}} \times qy_{\text{DOC}} \times f_{\text{par}} \times \frac{1}{e_{\text{par}}} \times 86,400 \times Q_{\text{sw}} \times \text{Attn}_z$$

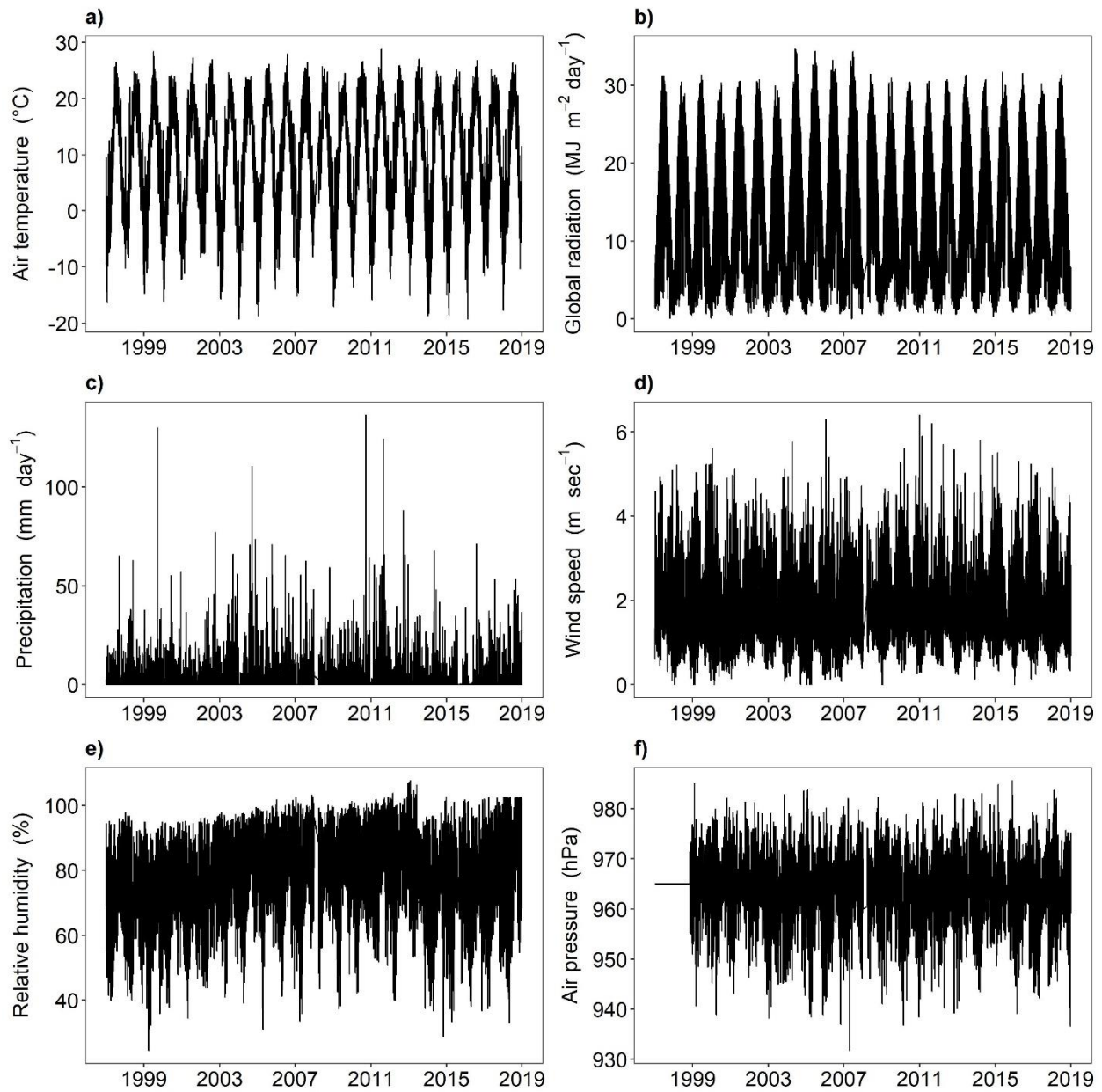
40 where  $oc\_DOC$  is the optical cross-section of DOC ( $m^2 mg^{-1}$ ),  $qy\_DOC$  is the quantum yield ( $mg$   
41  $mol\ quanta^{-1}$ ),  $f\_par$  is the fraction of PAR radiation,  $e\_par$  the average energy of PAR photons ( $J$   
42  $mol^{-1}$ ),  $Q_{sw}$  the incoming solar radiation flux at the surface ( $J\ s^{-1}\ m^{-2}$ ), and  $Attn\_z$  the model  
43 calculated light attenuation depth profile.  $Q_{sw}$  is calculated during the fractions of day when the  
44 sun angle is above and below a preset threshold value (currently  $15^\circ$ ). MyLake relies on the  
45 MATLAB Air-Sea Toolbox (<http://woodshole.er.usgs.gov/operations/sea-mat/>) to calculate  
46 radiative flux and astronomical variables needed to calculate short- and long-wave radiation.

47 Finally, the removal of DOC by flocculation ( $R_{FLOCC}$ ) yields POC suspended in the water  
48 column.  $R_{FLOCC}$  is calculated by using a rate constant for flocculation.  $R_{FLOCC}$  was parametrized  
49 according to de Wit et al. (2018) who adjusted its value to reproduce the sediment carbon mass  
50 accumulation rate ( $mg\ C\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$ ) obtained via dating at the deepest point of the oligotrophic  
51 Lake Langtjern, Norway. We assume that flocculation is the dominant pathway for sediment  
52 formation, which is a reasonable assumption in oligotrophic humic lakes (von Wachenfeldt and  
53 Tranvik 2008). In addition to advective transport, POC is subjected to sinking towards the  
54 sediment-water interface by a settling velocity  $w$  ( $m\ d^{-1}$ ). The key parameters modulating the  
55 DOC-dependent flocculation rate ( $mg\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$ ) and the sinking rate of flocculates ( $m\ d^{-1}$ ) were  
56 bound by literature values (Burban et al. 1990; von Wachenfeldt and Tranvik 2008). The sinking  
57 rate was adjusted to  $1.6\ m\ d^{-1}$  by de Wit et al. (2018). This value falls within the range of 0.1 to 3  
58  $m\ d^{-1}$  calculated for particle sizes ranging from  $0.45\ \mu m$  (i.e., defined as particulate OC according  
59 to filter size) to  $45\ \mu m$  (Burban et al. 1990).

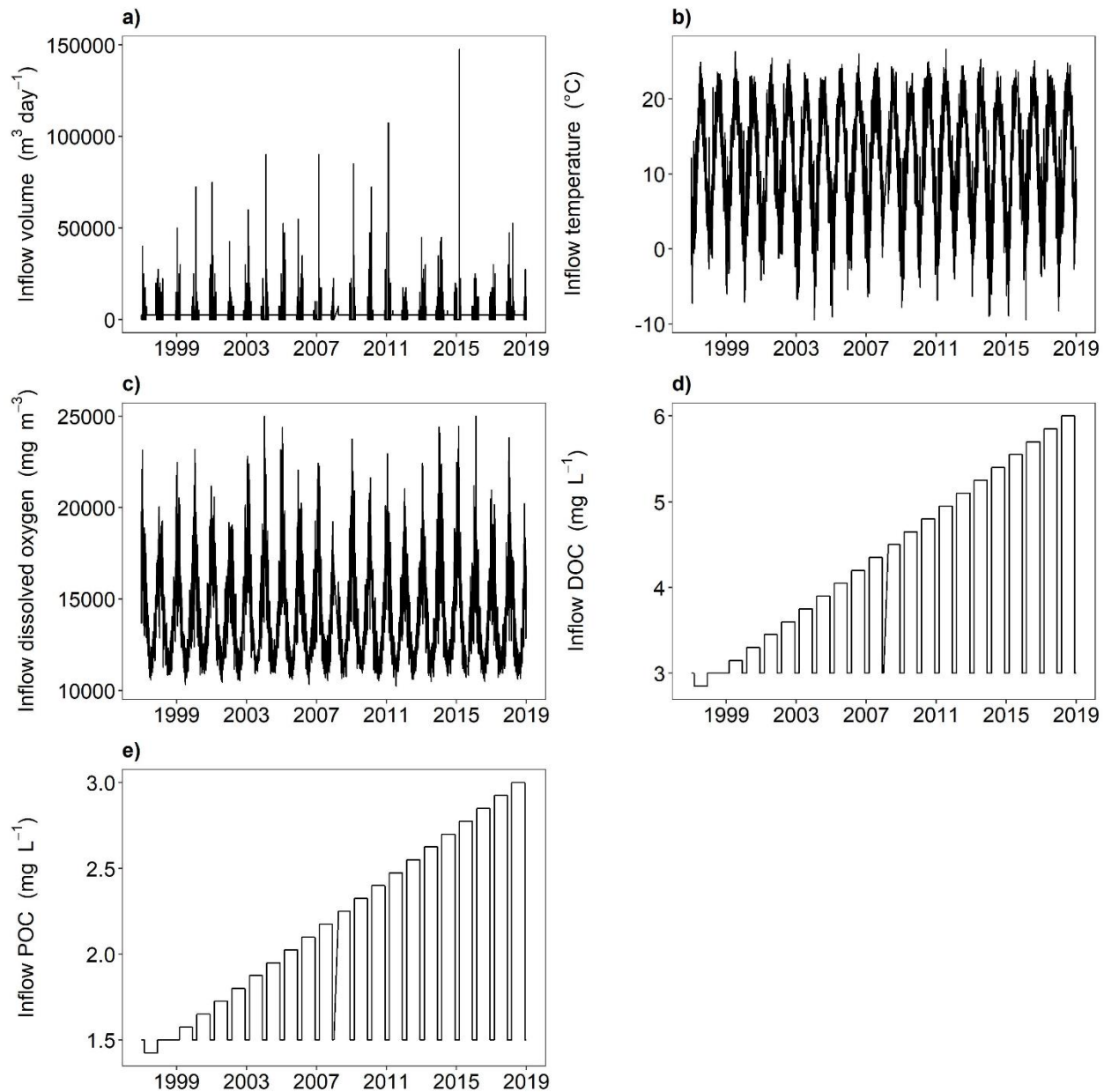
60 **Table S1.** Key parameters related to the MyLake model calibration and its sediment module. The  
 61 three new parameters are in bold under “Light attenuation” parameters. Parameter type indicates  
 62 literature values (L) or constrained (C) with the model after calibration.

Parameter	Value	Unit	Type	Definition	Reference
<b>Metabolism</b>					
Cx1:Ny1:Pz1	112:20:1	-	L	Pool 1 – stoichiometry	Canavan et al. 2006
Cx2:Ny2:Pz2	200:20:1	-	L	Pool 2 – stoichiometry	Canavan et al. 2006
$K_{O_2}^m$	$1.23 \times 10^{-2}$	$\mu\text{mol cm}^{-3}$	L	Respiration half-sat.	Couture et al. 2016
$k_{\text{DOC}1}$	not used	$\text{yr}^{-1}$	L	OM1 deg. rate cst.	de Wit et al. 2018
$k_{\text{DOC}2}$	0.84	$\text{yr}^{-1}$	C	OM2 deg. rate cst.	
accel	90	-	C	Oxic respiration scaling factor	
Q10_wc	0.72	-	C	Metabolism adjustment for T	Kiuri et al. 2019
T_ref_wc	9.8	-	C	Threshold for T effect	Kiuri et al. 2019
<b>Flocculation</b>					
d_floc	0.15	$\text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$	C, L	Floc. rate	de Wit et al. 2018
w	0.84	$\text{m d}^{-1}$	L	Floc. sinking velocity	Burban et al. 1990
<b>Photodegradation</b>					
qy_DOC	0.007	$\text{mg mol quanta}^{-1}$	L	Quantum yield	Saloranta and Andersen 2007
oc_DOC	0.040	$\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}$	L	Optical cross section	Saloranta and Andersen 2007
e_par	240800	$\text{J mol}^{-1}$	L	Energy of PAR photon	Saloranta and Andersen 2007
<b>Sediment module</b>					
$\phi$	0.85-0.98	$\text{cm}^3 \text{cm}^{-3}$	L	Porosity	de Wit et al. 2018
$D_B$	0	$\text{cm}^2 \text{yr}^{-1}$	L	Bioturbation coefficient	Couture et al. 2016
$\alpha$	14.4	$\text{yr}^{-1}$	L	Bioirrigation constant	Couture et al. 2016
<b>Inflow scaling</b>					
I_scDOC	0.77	-	C	Inflow DOC scaling factor	
I_scO	1.00	-	C	Inflow DO scaling factor	
I_scT	9.79	$^{\circ}\text{C}$	C	Inflow T scaling coefficient	
I_scPOC	2.83	-	C	Inflow POC scaling factor	
I_scV	5.0	-	C	Inflow V scaling factor	
<b>Light attenuation</b>					
$\beta_{\text{DOC}}$	<b><math>1.0 \times 10^{-4}</math></b>	<b><math>\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}</math></b>	<b>C</b>	<b>Optical cross-section of DOC for PAR</b>	
$\beta_{\text{Chl}}$	$6.0 \times 10^{-4}$	$\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}$	C	Optical cross-section of chlorophyll	
$K_{a0}'$	<b>-0.22</b>	<b><math>\text{m}^{-1}</math></b>	<b>C</b>	<b>Background UV<sub>320 nm</sub> attenuation of water</b>	
$\beta'_{\text{DOC}}$	<b>1.04</b>	<b><math>\text{m}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}</math></b>	<b>C</b>	<b>Optical cross-section of DOC for UV<sub>320 nm</sub></b>	
$\epsilon_0$	0.07	$\text{m}^{-1}$	C	Non-PAR light extinction coefficient of water	
$\hat{\epsilon}_0$	0.04	$\text{m}^{-1}$	C	PAR light extinction coefficient of water	
<b>Physical parameters</b>					
$a_{\text{snow}}$	0.56	-	C	Melting snow albedo	
$a_{\text{ice}}$	0.23	-	C	Melting ice albedo	
$W_{\text{str}}$	0.04	-	C	Wind sheltering coefficient	
$a_k$	$1.0 \times 10^{-3}$	-	C	Open water diffusion parameter	
$a_k$	$1.0 \times 10^{-4}$	-	C	Ice covered diffusion parameter	

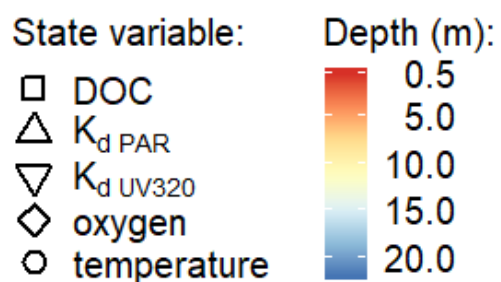
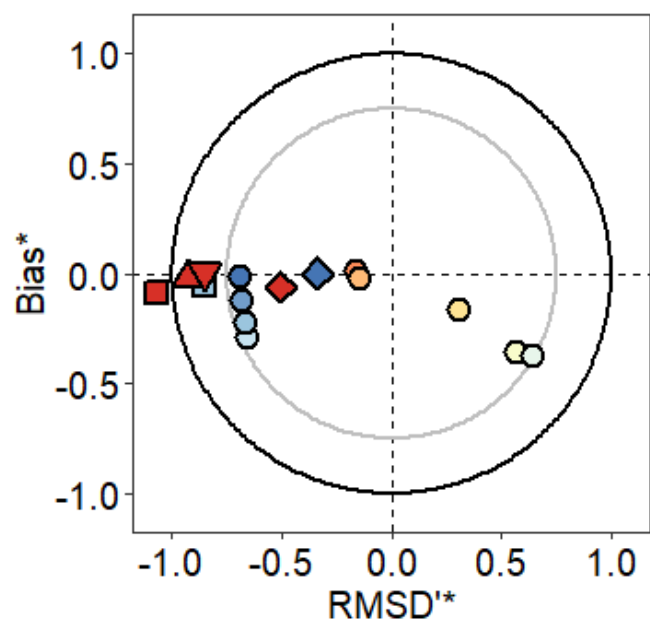
64 **Figure S1.** Daily meteorological input data used in the model for (a) air temperature, (b) global  
65 shortwave radiation, (c) precipitation, (d) wind speed, (e) relative humidity, and (f) air pressure.



66 **Figure S2.** Daily estimated inflow input data used in the model for (a) inflow volume, (b) inflow  
67 temperature, (c) inflow dissolved oxygen, (d) inflow dissolved organic carbon, and (e) inflow  
68 particulate organic carbon.

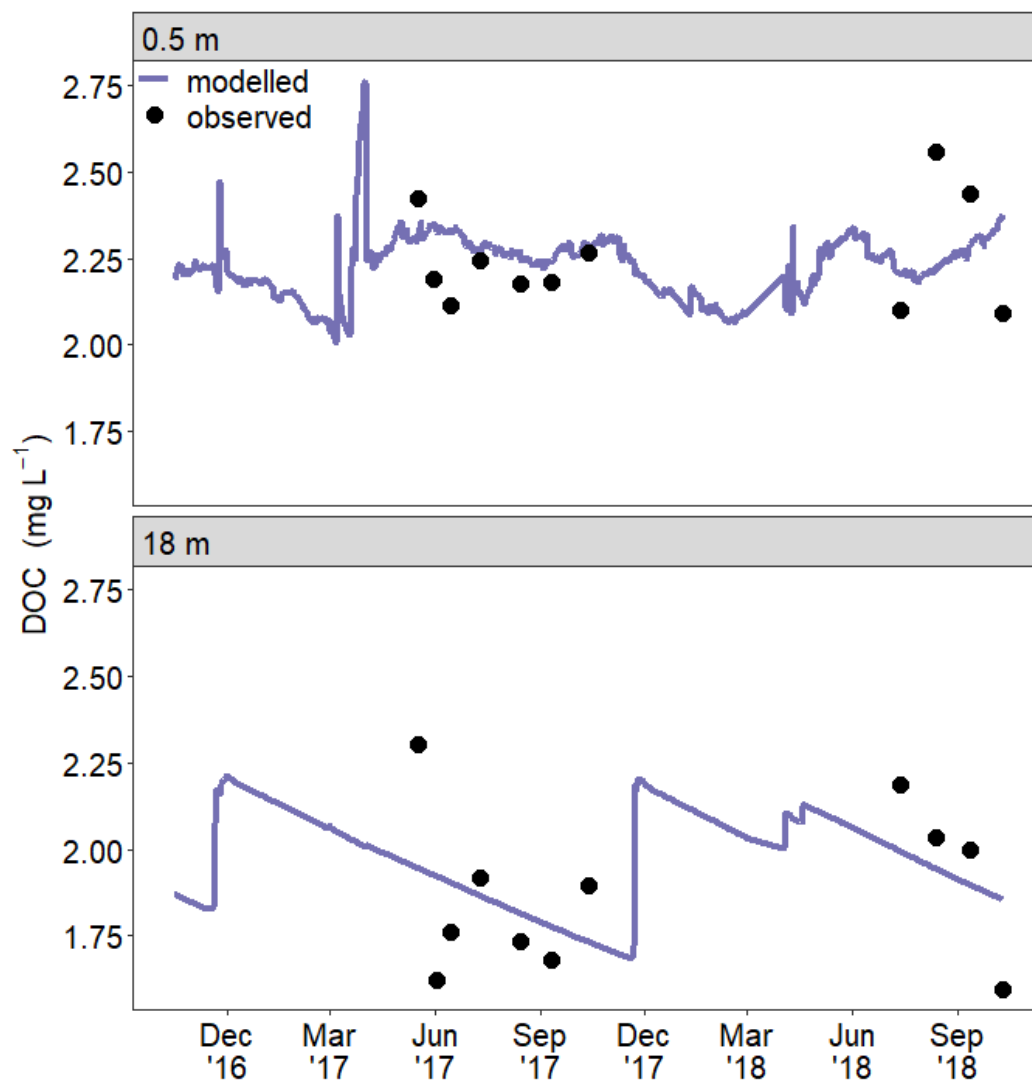


69 **Figure S3.** Target diagram of the variables and depths included in the calibration periods  
 70 spanning 2016-2018. Outer black circle spans values of 1.0 for both normalized bias and  
 71 normalized RMSD', and inner grey circle spans values of 0.75 for both. Symbol shape represents  
 72 one of the five state variables included in the calibration routine, and color represents depth (red  
 73 = shallow depths, blue = deep depths).

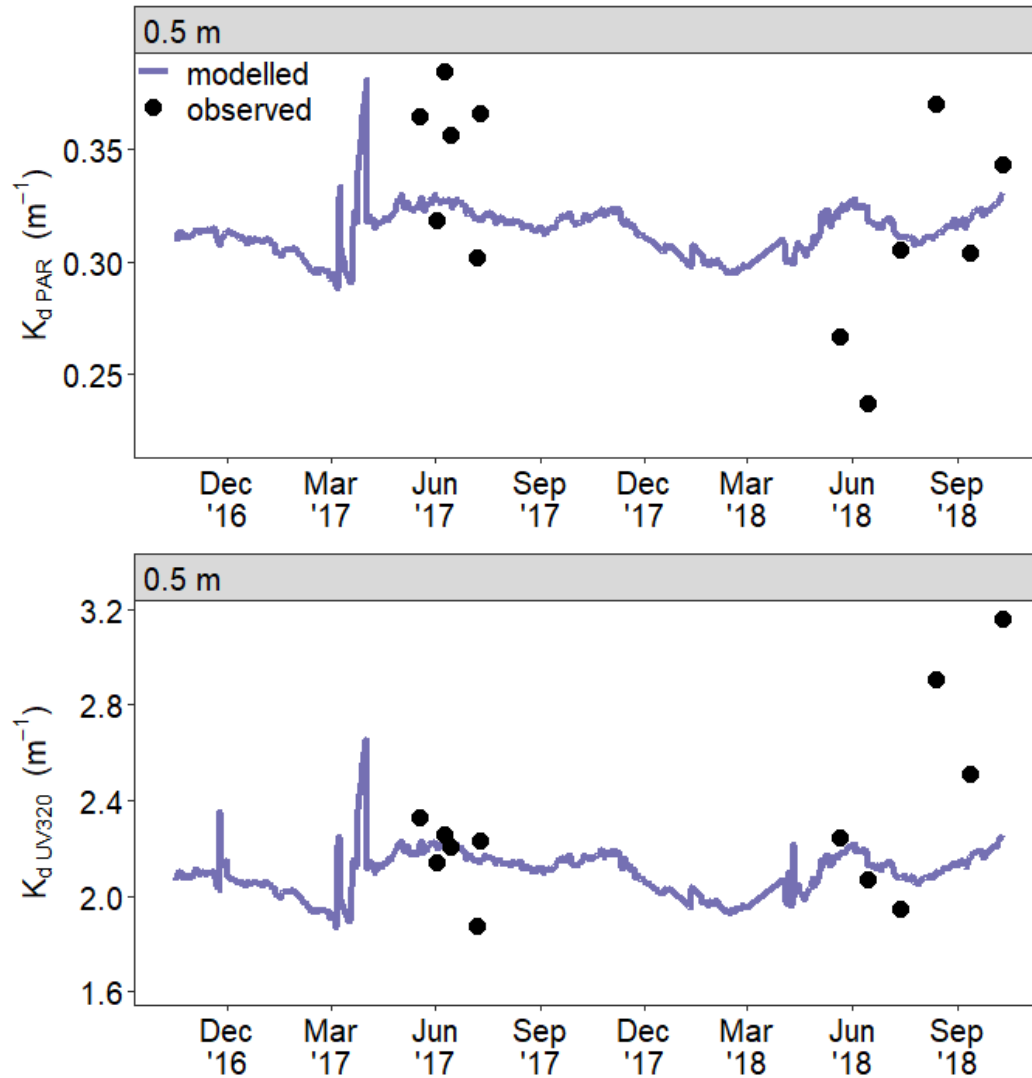




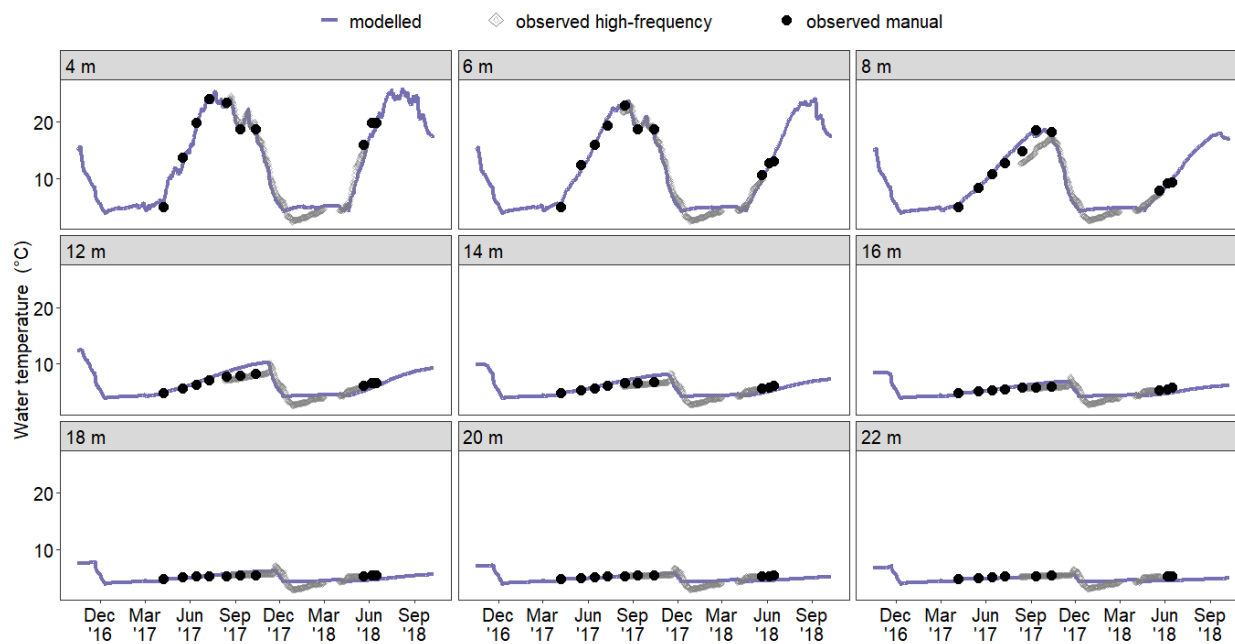
74 **Figure S4.** Modelled (blue line) vs. observed (black points) DOC concentration at Lake Giles  
75 from the calibration period spanning 2016-2018. Top panel is surface measurements at 0.5 m,  
76 and bottom panel is deepwater measurements from 18 m.



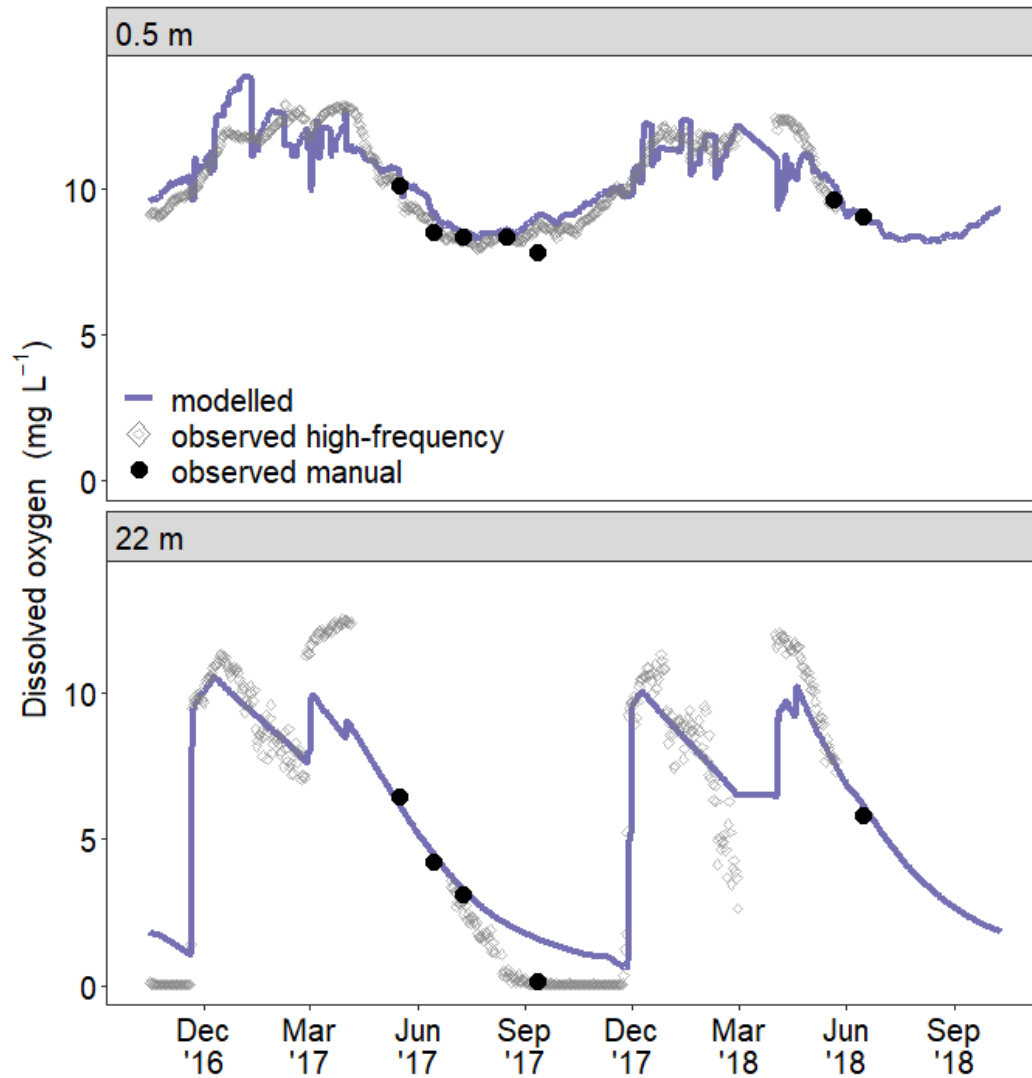
77 **Figure S5.** Modelled (blue line) vs. observed (black points) of  $K_d$  PAR surface values (top panel)  
78 and  $K_d$  UV320 surface values (bottom panel) at Lake Giles from the calibration period spanning  
79 2016-2018.



80 **Figure S6.** Modelled (blue line) vs. observed manual (black points) and observed high-frequency  
81 (grey diamonds) water temperature at Lake Giles from the calibration period spanning 2016-  
82 2018. Each panel represents a different depth from 4 m through 22 m.



83 **Figure S7.** Modelled (blue line) vs. observed manual (black points) and observed high-frequency  
84 (grey diamonds) dissolved oxygen at Lake Giles from the calibration period spanning 2016-  
85 2018. Top panel is surface measurements at 0.5 m, and bottom panel is deepwater measurements  
86 from 22 m. Note that the dissolved oxygen under ice during early 2018 was poorly captured in  
87 the model.



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