

## **Responses to specific comments of Editor**

I went through the manuscript again. The reviewer's comments and edits have been incorporated. I did realize however, that you use PSU as salinity unit. In a strict sense salinity is defined as a ratio and hence without a unit. Please delete 'PSU' throughout the text. Also, it is the rule in Biogeosciences that DOC concentrations are given in micromol L<sup>-1</sup>. Hence, please convert your mg/l to micromol/l throughout the text, tables and in the figures. Subsequently, please upload the revised manuscript again.

**Response:** Thank you for your suggestion. We have deleted 'PSU' throughout the text in the revised manuscript. The DOC concentrations have converted from 'mg L<sup>-1</sup>' to 'μmol L<sup>-1</sup>' in the revised manuscript.

1 Seasonal characterization of CDOM for lakes in semi-arid regions of  
2 Northeast China using excitation-emission matrices fluorescence and  
3 parallel factor analysis (EEM-PARAFAC)

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12  
13 **Abstract.** The seasonal characteristics of fluorescent components in CDOM for lakes  
14 in the semi-arid region of Northeast China were examined by excitation-emission  
15 matrix (EEM) spectra and parallel factor analysis (PARAFAC). Two humic-like (C1  
16 and C2) and the protein-like (C3 and C4) components were identified using  
17 PARAFAC. The average fluorescence intensity of the four components differed under  
18 seasonal variation from June and August 2013 to February and April 2014.  
19 Components 1 and 2 exhibited a strong linear correlation ( $R^2 = 0.633$ ). Significantly  
20 positive linear relationships between CDOM absorption coefficients  $a(254)$  ( $R^2 = 0.72$ ,  
21  $0.46$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ),  $a(280)$  ( $R^2 = 0.77$ ,  $0.47$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ),  $a(350)$  ( $R^2 = 0.76$ ,  $0.78$ ,  $p < 0.01$ )  
22 and  $F_{max}$  for two humic-like components (C1 and C2) were exhibited, respectively. A

23 significant relationship ( $R^2 = 0.931$ ) was found between salinity and DOC. However,  
24 almost no obvious correlation was found between salinity and EEM-PARAFAC  
25 extracted components except for C3 ( $R^2 = 0.469$ ). Results from this investigation  
26 demonstrate that the EEM-PARAFAC technique can be used to evaluate the seasonal  
27 dynamics of CDOM fluorescent components for inland waters in the semi-arid  
28 regions of Northeast China, and to quantify CDOM components for other waters with  
29 similar environmental conditions.

30 **Keywords:** CDOM, fluorescent components, EEMs, PARAFAC, DOC, Salinity

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32

### 33 **1 Introduction**

34 Dissolved organic matter (DOM), a heterogeneous mixture of humic acids,  
35 proteins and carbohydrates, plays important roles in aquatic ecosystems (Zhang et al.,  
36 2010). Chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM), the colored fraction of  
37 DOM, absorbs light energy in the ultraviolet (UV) and visible region of the spectrum  
38 and inhibits the propagation of UV radiation. CDOM in waters also affects the  
39 transport and bio-availability of materials such as trace metals and other pollutants  
40 (Song et al., 2013), so it can be used as a proxy of water quality. In natural water  
41 bodies, CDOM originates from the degradation of plant materials and other organisms  
42 and terrestrially imported substances, which varies in time and space and is controlled  
43 by its structure and composition (Stedmon et al., 2003). CDOM is compositionally  
44 complex, making it difficult to isolate hydrophobic from hydrophilic acids using XAD  
45 ion-exchange resins (Aiken et al., 1992; Spencer et al., 2010). Nonetheless, some

46 optically active components of CDOM can emit fluorescence after absorbing light at  
47 certain wavelengths (Zhang et al., 2010) so that the fluorescence spectroscopic  
48 techniques can be used to provide detailed information about the source and  
49 concentration of CDOM. The traditional fluorescence techniques including  
50 fluorescence emission spectrometry and synchronous fluorescence scanning applied  
51 to examine CDOM components have the drawback that the output was restricted to a  
52 linear scan (Hudson et al., 2007).

53       Recently, excitation-emission matrix fluorescence spectroscopy (EEM) has been  
54 applied to identify CDOM components because of its ability to produce synchronous  
55 scan spectra in the form of contours (Stedmon et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2010). The  
56 EEM spectroscopy is considered the most effective technique for studying the  
57 composition of fluorophores given its high selectivity and sensitivity to CDOM in  
58 water columns (Zhang et al., 2010). In recent years, EEM spectroscopy has been  
59 widely used to investigate the dynamics of marine, freshwater and ice-water  
60 ecosystems as well as snow melting water (Barker et al., 2006, 2009, 2010, 2013;  
61 Coble, 2007; Fellman et al., 2010; Guo et al., 2010; Hudson et al., 2007; Stedmon et  
62 al., 2007). Moreover, the EEM spectroscopy can also be used to distinguish  
63 allochthonous and autochthonous CDOM sources in aquatic environments (Coble et  
64 al., 1998; Mayer et al., 1999; Yamashita et al., 2008, 2010; Zhang et al., 2013). Based  
65 on the peak positions in EEMs, two main fluorescent components, i.e., humic-like and  
66 protein-like substances, have been identified and investigated (DelCastillo et al., 1999;  
67 Jaffe' et al., 2004). However, overlapped fluorophores of CDOM EEMs could make

68 this traditional ‘peak-picking’ method unreliable to evaluate CDOM dynamics in  
69 aquatic ecosystems (Coble, 1996; Stedmon et al., 2003). Recently, the combined  
70 EEMs-PARAFAC (parallel factor analysis) technique has been shown to effectively  
71 decompose EEM of CDOM into independent fluorescent components and assess the  
72 source of CDOM and relationships with other water quality parameters. A number of  
73 investigators have used EEMs-PARAFAC to characterize DOM in freshwater and  
74 marine aquatic environments (Broisover et al., 2009; Cory et al., 2005; Guo et al.,  
75 2010; Stedmon et al., 2003; Stedmon and Markager, 2005; Yamashita, 2008; Zhang et  
76 al., 2010, 2011, 2013). Stedmon et al. (2003) introduced PARAFAC and identified  
77 five distinct DOM components for a Danish estuary and its catchment. In coastal  
78 environments, Yamashita et al. (2008) reported on seven components using the  
79 combined EEMs-PARAFAC technique and assessed the dynamic of individual  
80 fluorophores and their relationship with salinity in Ise Bay. Zhang et al. (2011) also  
81 found three different components by PARAFAC modeling and analyzed the  
82 correlations between the fluorescent components and absorption coefficients of  
83 CDOM for Lake Tianmu and its catchment.

84 The Songnen Plain is a fluvial plain with semi-arid climate, in which many fresh  
85 and brackish waters are distributed according to its geomorphological characteristics  
86 (Song et al., 2013). Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) characteristics of these fresh  
87 and brackish waters across the Songnen Plain have been studied by Song et al. (2013);  
88 the results indicated that a huge amount of DOC was stored in these waters. In  
89 particular, brackish waters would exhibit high average DOC concentrations and

90 significantly contributed the carbon budget to inland waters (Duarte et al., 2008; Song  
91 et al., 2013; Tranvik et al., 2009). However, little study has been made on the detailed  
92 information of DOC sources for these waters in the Songnen Plain. Therefore, it  
93 motivated us to investigate the components in CDOM for both fresh and brackish  
94 waters in the semi-arid region. In the present study, the absorption and fluorescence of  
95 CDOM were determined for the water samples collected from seven lakes in the  
96 western part of Jilin province, which varied at different seasons. The specific  
97 objectives of this study are to: 1) characterize CDOM components contained in these  
98 lakes using EEMs and their origins through the EEM-PARAFAC method; 2) assess  
99 the dynamic of individual fluorescent components of CDOM under seasonal variation;  
100 and most importantly 3) link CDOM fluorescence intensities, absorption coefficients,  
101 DOC concentrations and salinity to each other, in order to establish proxies for  
102 CDOM bioavailability and photoreactivity in waters.

103

## 104 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 105 **2.1 Lakes and water sampling**

106 The water bodies investigated in this study were located in the western part of Jilin  
107 Province, which belongs to the semi-arid part of the Songnen Plain (Song et al., 2013).  
108 Two groups of lakes were investigated, i.e., the Chagan lake group and the Yuelianghu  
109 lake group. The Chagan lake group is made up of Lake Chagan (CGL), Xinmiaopao  
110 (XMP), Xindianpao (XDP) and Kulipao (KLP). The Yuelianghu lake group mainly  
111 includes Lake Yueliang (YLL), Talahong (TLH) and Xinhuangpao (XHP) (Fig. 1).

112 The two groups are about 60 km away from each other, of which each includes both  
113 fresh and brackish waters. The primary economic value for these lakes is fisheries,  
114 agricultural irrigation and recreation. The average annual precipitation is about 391  
115 mm, but the average evaporation is up to 1790 mm, resulting in water scarcity. Due to  
116 the area dominated by saline-alkali soil, the rainfall flush and agricultural catchment  
117 land use can result in an increase of lake salinities. These seven lakes are endowed  
118 with similar geological, hydrological and climatic settings, thus we presume that  
119 similar processes may control the CDOM components. In order to characterize the  
120 CDOM fluorescent components under seasonal variation using EEMs-PARAFAC, 67  
121 water samples were collected from the surface of the seven lakes in 1-liter  
122 acid-cleaned plastic bottles during four field campaigns in June and August 2013 as  
123 well as in February and April 2014, respectively. These samples were collected during  
124 the ice covering period using an ice drilling auger. The under-ice surface water was  
125 coming up when a hole was drilled in the ice layer by the auger. The ice shavings  
126 were collected in plastic bags and the under-ice surface water was collected in plastic  
127 bottles. The collected samples were held on ice and immediately transported to the  
128 laboratory in the Changchun City of Jilin province within 3-5 hours. In the laboratory,  
129 these samples were filtered within 24 h and then kept at 4 °C until analysis within two  
130 days. Latitude and longitude of each sample location were recorded *in situ* using a  
131 Trimble Global Positioning System (GPS).

132

133 **Figure 1. Locations of the water sampling sites for 7 lakes in the western part of Jilin**  
134 **province, Northeast China. a) Yueliang lake group: YLL, Yueliang Lake; XHP;**

135 **Xinhuangpao; TLH; Talahong; b) Chagan lake group: CGL, Chagan Lake; XDP,**  
136 **Xindianpao; XMP, Xinmiaopao; KLP, Kulipao.**

137

## 138 **2.2 Analytical procedures**

139 To characterize the basic parameters of water quality, salinity was measured through a  
140 DDS-307 electrical conductivity (EC) meter in the laboratory. Salinity was expressed  
141 in the basis of the UNESCO practical salinity unit (~~PSU-1978~~). The pH was measured  
142 using a PHS-3C pH meter at room temperature ( $20 \pm 2$  °C) in the laboratory. Water  
143 turbidity was determined using the Shimadzu UV-2600PC UV-Vis dual beam  
144 spectrophotometer with matching 3 cm quartz cells at room temperature ( $20 \pm 2$  °C)  
145 with Milli-Q water as the reference (UV talk letter vol. 10,  
146 <https://shimadzu.com.au/uv-talk-letter-volume-10>). To determine DOC concentrations,  
147 water samples were filtered through 0.45 µm filters and then measured using a  
148 Shimadzu TOC-5000 Analyzer and a 1.2 % Pt on silica catalyst at 680 °C. Potassium  
149 hydrogen phthalate was used as a standard. The reproducibility of the analytical  
150 procedure was within 2-3 % for the current study (APHA, 1998; Song et al., 2011).

151

## 152 **2.3 Absorption measurement**

153 In the laboratory, all the samples were filtered at low pressure, first through a  
154 pre-combusted Whatman GF/F filter (0.7 µm), and then through a pre-rinsed 25 mm  
155 Millipore membrane cellulose filter (0.22 µm) into glass bottles. Absorption spectra of  
156 the samples were measured between 200 and 800 nm at 1 nm increments using the  
157 Shimadzu UV-2600PC UV-Vis dual beam spectrophotometer with a 1 cm quartz



158 cuvette and Milli-Q water as reference. The absorption coefficient  $a_{CDOM}$  was  
159 calculated from the measured optical density (OD) of the sample using Eq. (1):

$$160 \quad a_{CDOM}(\lambda) = 2.303 [OD_{(\lambda)} - OD_{(null)}] / \gamma \quad (1)$$

161 where  $\gamma$  is the cuvette path length (0.01 m) and the factor 2.303 converts from base 10  
162 to base natural logarithm transformation. Some fine particles possibly remained in the  
163 filtered solution (Babin et al., 2003; Bricaud et al., 1995), therefore it was necessary  
164 to correct for scattering by fine particles and in this case,  $OD_{(null)}$  is the average optical  
165 density over 740-750 nm where the absorbance of CDOM can be assumed to be zero.

166 A CDOM absorption spectrum ( $a_{CDOM}(\lambda)$ ) can be expressed as an exponential  
167 function (Babin et al., 2003; Bricaud et al., 1995):

$$168 \quad a_{CDOM}(\lambda_i) = a_{CDOM}(\lambda_r) \exp[-S(\lambda_i - \lambda_r)] \quad (2)$$

169 where  $a_{CDOM}(\lambda_i)$  is the CDOM absorption at a given wavelength  $\lambda_i$ ,  $a_{CDOM}(\lambda_r)$  is the  
170 absorption estimate at the reference wavelength  $\lambda_r$  (440 nm), and  $S$  is the spectral  
171 slope of the CDOM absorption. According to Helms et al. (2008),  $S$  is calculated by  
172 fitting a linear model to the data over a wavelength range of 275 to 295 nm ( $S1$ ) or  
173 350 to 400 nm ( $S2$ ). To eliminate the inter-laboratory variability, the slope ratio  $S_R =$   
174  $S1/S2$  is defined to indicate the molecular weight and photo-bleaching of CDOM  
175 (Helms et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010).

176

## 177 **2.4 Three-dimensional fluorescence measurement**

178 The EEMs analysis of CDOM were conducted using a Hitachi F-7000 fluorescence  
179 spectrometer (Hitachi High-Technologies, Tokyo, Japan) with a 700-voltage xenon

180 lamp. The scanning ranges were 200–450 nm for excitation, and 250–500 nm for  
181 emission. Readings were collected in the ratio mode at 5 nm intervals for excitation,  
182 and at 1 nm intervals for emission, using a scanning speed of 2400 nm min<sup>-1</sup>. The  
183 band-passes were 5 nm for both excitation and emission. A Milli-Q water blank of the  
184 EEMs was subtracted to eliminate the water Raman scatter peaks (McKnight et al.,  
185 2001; Stedmon et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2010, 2011).

186 The inner-filter effect, which results from reabsorption and excitation of the  
187 fluorescence itself, can reduce the fluorescence intensity by 5% (Larsson et al., 2007;  
188 McKnight et al., 2001). In order to eliminate the inner-filter effect, the EEMs were  
189 corrected for absorbance by multiplying each value in the EEMs with a correction  
190 factor based on the assumption that the average path length of absorption of the  
191 excitation and emission light is one-half length of the cuvette (McKnight et al., 2001;  
192 Zhang et al., 2010). The correction function is expressed as follows:

$$193 \quad F_{corr} = F_{obs} \times 10^{(A_{ex}+A_{em})/2} \quad (3)$$

194

195 where  $F_{Corr}$  and  $F_{obs}$  are the corrected and uncorrected fluorescence intensities and  $A_{ex}$   
196 and  $A_{em}$  are the absorbance values at the respective excitation and emission  
197 wavelengths.

198 The measured fluorescence intensity is dependent on the concentration of the  
199 dissolved fluorophores in water bodies. Finally, the fluorescence intensities of all  
200 samples' EEMs were normalized to the area under the Milli-Q water Raman peak  
201 ( $\lambda_{ex}$ =350 nm,  $\lambda_{em}$ =371-428 nm) measured daily (Lawaetz and Stedmon, 2009). The

202 contour figures of the EEMs were plotted using the Matlab 10.0 software package  
203 (Math Works, Natick Massachusetts, America).

204

## 205 **2.5 The PARAFAC modeling**

206 PARAFAC, a three-way method, is applied to decompose the CDOM fluorescence  
207 into separate fluorescent signals (Andersen and Bro, 2003; Stedmon and Bro, 2008).  
208 According to Stedmon and Bro (2008), a similar PARAFAC analysis is carried out in  
209 the present study using the DOMFluor toolbox in MATLAB with the “N-way toolbox  
210 for MATLAB” (Andersson et al., 2000). Before PARAFAC modeling, the excitation  
211 wavelengths from 200 to 220 nm and the emission wavelengths from 250 to 300 nm  
212 were deleted because of their poor quality. In order to remove the effect of Rayleigh  
213 scatter on PARAFAC modeling, the missing values (NaN-Not a number) were  
214 inserted in the regions ( $Ex-20 \leq Em \leq Ex+20$  and  $2Ex-20 \leq Em \leq 2Ex+20$ ; unit: nm)  
215 which are significantly influenced by the first and second order scattering from the  
216 measured spectroscopic data (Hua et al., 2007; Stedmon and Bro, 2008).

217 To determine the appropriate number of PARAFAC components, the split-half  
218 validation procedure was executed to verify whether the model was valid by  
219 comparing the emission and excitation loadings from each half (Stedmon and Bro,  
220 2008). Split-half analysis is the most effective method for implementing the  
221 PARAFAC models, in which the EEMs are randomly divided into four groups of  
222 equal size, and then analyzed for two half splits (1-2 and 3-4 half) respectively. If the  
223 correct number of components is chosen, the excitation and emission loadings from

224 the two groups should show the same shape and size (Bro, 1997, 1999). The  
225 fluorescence intensity of every component was represented by  $F_{max}$  (Raman unit:  $\text{nm}^{-1}$ )  
226 (Stedmon and Markager, 2005).

227

## 228 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

229 Statistical analysis was conducted using the SPSS 16.0 software package (Statistical  
230 Program for Social Sciences). Regression and correlation analysis was used to  
231 describe the relationship between CDOM absorption coefficient, DOC concentration,  
232 salinity and  $F_{max}$ . A model II-ANOVA was performed to determine seasonal  
233 variability is higher than between-lake variability. The difference is considered to be  
234 statistically significant when  $p$ -values are less than or equal to 0.05.

235

## 236 **3 Results and discussion**

### 237 **3.1 Water quality conditions**

238 The water quality parameters, i.e., pH, salinity, turbidity for the 67 water samples  
239 collected from June 2013 to April 2014 in the western part of Jilin province are  
240 displayed in Table 1. When the set of samples from various field trips was pooled  
241 together, the waters had high pH values and high salt contents. The highest salinity  
242 was present when the lakes were frozen in February 2014, whereas relatively constant  
243 values (around 0.40 ~~PSU~~) were exhibited in the other three seasons. Also the water  
244 bodies were highly turbid. The highest turbidity was present in June 2013, and then  
245 reduced in August 2013, and the lowest value was recorded in February 2014.

246 Compared with February 2014, the turbidity had almost no change in April 2014  
247 (Table 1).

248

249 **Table 1. Mean value of water quality parameters from June 2013 to April 2014.**

250

### 251 **3.2 EEMs characterization of CDOM**

252 Based on the EEMs ‘peak picking’ technique, the key fluorescence peaks can be  
253 observed in 67 water samples: two humic-like and two protein-like substances (Coble,  
254 1996; Stedmon et al., 2003). The humic-like components are the mixture of aromatic  
255 and aliphatic compounds-humic-like acids from terrestrial substances, and aquatic  
256 humic-like substances of phytoplankton origin. With respect to the protein-like  
257 components (i.e., tyrosine-like and tryptophan-like substance), they mainly consist of  
258 dissolved amino acids. As an example, Fig. S1 displays the EEMs of samples from  
259 lake Xindianpao at different seasons. The peaks comprise two humic-like  
260 fluorescence peaks: one in the ultraviolet range (Ex/Em = 220-240/410-430 nm) and  
261 the other in the visible range (Ex/Em = 300-340/410-450 nm) and the protein-like  
262 fluorescence peaks: tyrosine-like (Ex/Em = 210-230, 270-280/310-330 nm) and  
263 tryptophan-like (Ex/Em = 220-230, 280-300/350-370 nm).

264

265 In our study, four separate fluorescent components (Fig. 2a-d) and the  
266 excitation and emission loadings (e-h) of the four components identified by  
267 EEM-PARAFAC are summarized in Fig. 2 and Table 2. The first fluorescent

268 component (C1) was a biological degradation humic-like component comparable to  
269 humic-like peaks (M and N) in marine and in phytoplankton degradation experiments  
270 for inland waters (Coble, 1996; Zhang et al., 2009). Component 2 was consistent with  
271 the humic-like peaks (A and C) defined by Coble (1996). Component 3 resembles the  
272 tryptophan-like (T) component as found by Baker et al. (2004) and Hudson et al.  
273 (2007). For component 4, it is likely related to tyrosine-like component (B) (Hudson  
274 et al., 2007). Components 3 and 4 represent autochthonous semi-labile CDOM  
275 associated with bacteria activity and phytoplankton degradation (Borisover et al.,  
276 2009; Stedmon et al., 2003). Particularly, there was a shoulder at the excitation  
277 wavelength 310-330 nm in component 3 and 330-340 nm in component 4, which may  
278 be due to the residual Raman peaks in some water samples (Fig. 2c-d). In this study,  
279 not all of the four components were present in all of the samples.

280

281 **Figure 2. The PARAFAC modeling output shows the contour plots of the four PARAFAC**  
282 **fluorescent components (a-d) and excitation (black) and emission (red) loadings (e-h) of each**  
283 **component. Fluorescence is in Raman units: nm<sup>-1</sup>.**

284

285 **Table 2. Positions of the fluorescence maximum peaks of the four components identified by**  
286 **PARAFAC modeling in the present study compared with those previously identified.**  
287 **Secondary excitation maxim is given in brackets.**

288

### 289 **3.3 Temporal distribution of PARAFAC components**

290 These fresh and brackish water in Jilin province in northeast China are endowed with  
291 similar geological, hydrological and climatic settings, thus it is presumed that similar

292 processes may control the CDOM components. When a model II-ANOVA using  
293 season and lake as random effect factors was performed, it shows that the seasonal  
294 variability ( $F > F_{crit}, p < 0.05$ ) is higher than between-lake variability. Therefore, the  
295 water samples from different lakes for every season were pooled together in order to  
296 study the seasonal variation of the fluorescent components. As shown in Fig. 3a, the  
297 average fluorescence intensity of the four components had seasonal variation. When  
298 all the water samples at different seasons were pooled together, the average value of  
299 total fluorescence intensity was  $2.05 \pm 0.93 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ , corresponding to the intensities of  
300  $0.71 \pm 0.32$  (C1),  $0.33 \pm 0.11$  (C2),  $0.50 \pm 0.24$  (C3), and  $0.51 \pm 0.26$  (C4)  $\text{nm}^{-1}$  for  
301 different components. These results can demonstrate that the fluorescence intensity  
302 was dominated by C1, implying most of the CDOM for the seven inland lakes  
303 originated from the degradation of phytoplankton and microorganisms. The  
304 protein-like components (C3 and C4), related to bioavailability and microbial activity  
305 of CDOM, had almost the same magnitude. At all four seasons, the fluorescent  
306 component C2, which was terrestrially imported to water bodies, contributed less to  
307 total fluorescence than the other three. The total fluorescence intensity differed under  
308 seasonal variation, varying from  $2.54 \pm 0.68 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  in June to  $1.93 \pm 0.70 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  in  
309 August 2013, and then increased to  $2.34 \pm 0.92 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  in February and reduced to the  
310 lowest  $1.57 \pm 0.55 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  in April 2014 (Fig. 3c). The intensities of four fluorescent  
311 components (i.e.,  $0.75 \pm 0.17$  (C1),  $0.32 \pm 0.06$  (C2),  $0.69 \pm 0.24$  (C3), and  $0.77 \pm$   
312  $0.20$  (C4)  $\text{nm}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 3d) from the samples collected in June 2013 exhibited similar  
313 trends to that for the pooled data set. These values were higher than the seasonal

314 average except C2 ( $0.32 \pm 0.06 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ). This can be explained by enhanced activities  
315 from plant degradation and microbial activities, but less terrestrial substances were  
316 imported to the water bodies in June and therefore the fluorescence intensity of C2  
317 was lower than the seasonal average. Compared to the fluorescence intensity in June,  
318 the three fluorescence intensities ( $0.65 \pm 0.14$  (C1),  $0.33 \pm 0.16$  (C3),  $0.52 \pm 0.36$  (C4)  
319  $\text{nm}^{-1}$ ) from the samples collected in August 2013 were reduced, but an increased value  
320 was recorded for C2 ( $0.42 \pm 0.05 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 3d). Especially, the fluorescence  
321 intensities of two protein-like components showed an obvious difference. This can be  
322 attributed to substantially increased precipitation up to 180 mm in July from June to  
323 August 2013 (Fig. 3b) so that floods occurred when rainfall continued to increase in  
324 August. Gradually, DOM contained in terrestrial CDOM was flushed by rainfall to the  
325 lakes so that the C2 ( $0.42 \pm 0.05 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ) fluorescence intensity became higher. In  
326 accordance with Cheng et al. 2010, the rainwater CDOM for this study was largely  
327 characterized by protein-like components (Cheng et al., 2010). The fluorescence  
328 intensity of the rainwater CDOM was very weak, and also the rainwater CDOM  
329 contained much lower humic-like concentration (Fig. S2b). The intensities of the  
330 other three components decreased because of dilution resulting from heavy rain and  
331 relatively weak microbial decomposition of plants.

332         The highest C1 ( $1.02 \pm 0.38 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ) presented in February 2014, and the C2 ( $0.39$   
333  $\pm 0.12 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ) intensity remained almost the same as that in August 2013. However, the  
334 protein-like components indicated that the C3 ( $0.57 \pm 0.25 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ) intensity was higher  
335 than the C4 ( $0.35 \pm 0.17 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ) intensity, which was opposite to the results from other



336 months (Fig. 3d). In cold winter, the surface waters formed a thick layer of ice  
337 covering the lake waters. Because the ice cover reduced light penetration and  
338 restricted gas exchange between the underlying water and atmosphere, vigorous  
339 biological activity in the lakes would be reduced at low temperature and low light  
340 level (Thomas K., 1983; Uusikiv et al., 2010; Wharton, et al., 1993). Although the  
341 biological activity was very weak, there could still be a bit of production of C1 and  
342 C3 in lake water. Also, dissolved materials were left in the underlying surface waters  
343 and little terrestrial matter was imported to the lakes once covered by ice (Stedmon et  
344 al., 2007). Therefore, the C1 and C3 in the water of the lakes beneath the ice layers  
345 would be produced and accumulated simultaneously, whereas, the C2 remained the  
346 same. Obviously, the fluorescence intensity of component 1 reached the highest value  
347 for the winter samples. As shown in Fig. S2a, another striking feature for the winter  
348 samples was that the fluorescence of CDOM in the ice was dominated by the  
349 tyrosine-like C4 component, which is consistent with the findings of Barker et al.  
350 (2009, 2013) and Stedmon et al. (2007). It showed that the C4 component was left in  
351 the ice-cover when the lakes were frozen. Therefore, it is not surprising that the  
352 intensity of component C4 for water beneath ice layers was reduced and the  
353 concentrated C3 showed a much higher fluorescence intensity. In April 2014, the  
354 intensities of four fluorescent components ( $0.47 \pm 0.17$  (C1),  $0.25 \pm 0.08$  (C2),  $0.40 \pm$   
355  $0.16$  (C3), and  $0.45 \pm 0.13$  (C4)  $\text{nm}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 3d) exhibited similar seasonal trends  
356 though these values were much lower than the average. Our interpretation is that the  
357 ice CDOM was characterized by tyrosine-like component (C4) (Fig. S2a), and the

358 fluorescence intensity of C4 contributed by the ice-melt water was very weak.  
359 However, the underlying lake CDOM included both humic-like (C1 and C2) and  
360 protein-like (C3 or C4) components. When the ice in the lakes melted into water with  
361 warming weather and biological degradation and human activity was weak, the lake  
362 CDOM was diluted by the ice-melted water and the fluorescence intensity would  
363 reach to the lowest value in early spring.

364

365 **Figure 3. a) Seasonal average of  $F_{max}$  for EEM-PARAFAC components (C1, C2, C3 and C4)**  
366 **for lakes in the western part of Jilin province; b) Monthly variation of rainfall for the lakes**  
367 **in western part of Jilin province from April 2013 to February 2014; c) Seasonal variation of**  
368 **the total fluorescence intensity at different seasons; d) Seasonal variation of the four**  
369 **EEM-PARAFAC components at different seasons. The error bars represent one standard**  
370 **deviation.**

371

### 372 **3.4 CDOM versus EEM-PARAFAC extracted components**

373 The concentration of DOC, CDOM absorption coefficients and the slope ratio  $S_R$  are  
374 shown in Table 3. The DOC concentrations ranged from ~~10.03~~ to ~~56.60 mg L<sup>-1</sup>~~ with  
375 an average value of ~~37.60 ± 18.05 mg L<sup>-1</sup>~~ during the period from June 2013 to April  
376 2014, demonstrating a seasonal dynamics that can be attributed to hydrological,  
377 climatic and landscape variations (Song et al., 2013). The highest average DOC  
378 concentration (~~55.04 ± 20.00 mg L<sup>-1</sup>~~) was present in February 2014 (ice-covered  
379 period); whereas, relatively constant values of approximate 30 mg L<sup>-1</sup> were observed  
380 in the ice-free season. The relative high DOC concentration in ice-free season was  
381 caused by evapo-condensed effect due to the prolonged sunshine duration for the

382 lakes in the Songnen Plain. With respect to the higher DOC concentration in winter, it  
383 can be attributed to the accumulated DOC left in the liquid phase when ice formation  
384 took place, resulting in the higher DOC concentration in the underlying water  
385 (unpublished material). Generally, the absorption coefficient  $a(350)$  is used as a proxy  
386 for characterizing CDOM concentration (Guo et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011),  $a(280)$   
387 is related to DOC biodegradation (McDowell et al., 2006), and  $a(254)$  can be used to  
388 characterize the optical properties of DOC aromaticity (Jaffe' et al., 2004; Weishaar et  
389 al., 2003). The highest averaged CDOM absorption coefficients  $a(350)$ ,  $a(280)$ ,  $a(254)$   
390 were also present in February 2014, corresponding to the highest DOC concentration.  
391 The  $S_R$  values of the two wavelength ranges (275-295 nm over 350-400 nm) were  
392 used to represent DOM molecular weight (Helms et al., 2008). The lowest mean of  $S_R$   
393 was present in August 2013 suggesting the relatively weak microbial decomposition  
394 of plants and lots of terrestrially imported substances through rainwash resulted in the  
395 higher average molecular weight of DOC.

396

397 **Table 3. Mean values of DOC concentration and CDOM absorption coefficients groups at**  
398 **different seasons.  $S_R$ : the slope ratio of  $S_{275-295\text{nm}} : S_{350-400\text{nm}}$ .**

399

400 When the whole data set ( $N = 67$ ) was pooled together, there were significantly  
401 positive linear relationships between  $a(254)$ ,  $a(280)$ ,  $a(350)$  and  $F_{max}$  for two  
402 humic-like components (C1 and C2), respectively, but mostly such correlations were  
403 not observed for the protein-like components (Fig. 4a and b, Table 3). These results  
404 were in accordance with previous investigations (Zhang et al., 2010, 2011).

405 Components 1 and 2 were strongly linearly correlated with each other ( $R^2 = 0.633$ )  
406 (Fig. 4c), indicating that the concentrations of the two humic-like components were  
407 controlled by common sources (Baker and Spencer, 2004). There was a weak  
408 relationship ( $R^2 = 0.051$ ) between the protein-like components (C3 and C4) possibly  
409 because of a complex origin of CDOM such as rainfall in summer, ice in winter and  
410 organic pollutants derived from domestic, agricultural and industrial sewerage, which  
411 represent the complex origins of CDOM. However, there was almost no correlation  
412 between the humic-like and protein-like components. The linkage of a fluorescence  
413 signal to DOC was very complicated because of the seasonal impacts, i.e., increased  
414 rainfall, algal blooms and ice-cover, which affect the DOC concentration. Due to both  
415 steady and labile CDOM fluorescent components in DOC, the fluorescent signal  
416 would change with the ratio of fluorescent and non-fluorescent CDOM components  
417 (Henderson et al., 2009). A weak relationship ( $R^2 = 0.42$ ) (Fig. 4d) was found between  
418 DOC and component 3 likely from the decay of plants through microbial activity or  
419 the pollution from human and animal wastes.

420 Different from the findings by Yamashita et al. (2008) for ocean water, this study  
421 did not find obvious correlation between salinity and EEM-PARAFAC extracted  
422 components with the exception of C3 ( $R^2 = 0.469$ ) (Table 4 and Fig. 4f). The most  
423 important finding for the water samples collected at different seasons from the  
424 Songnen Plain is a significant relationship ( $R^2 = 0.931$ ) between salinity and DOC  
425 (Fig. 4e). This is because DOC is evapo-condensed from spring to autumn and  
426 freeze-accumulated in winter in the semi-arid region. A prolonged sunshine duration

427 can result in an evapo-condensed DOC concentration in ice-free season. On the other  
428 hand, the DOC is accumulated when the lakes freeze in winter leaving DOC in the  
429 liquid phase.

430

431 **Table 4. Correlation coefficients (R) and significance levels (p) of the linear relationships**  
432 **between CDOM absorption, DOC, salinity and fluorescent components.**

433

434 **Figure 4. Relationships between CDOM absorption coefficient a(350) with a)  $F_{max}(C1)$ , b)**  
435 **with  $F_{max}(C2)$ , c) peak  $F_{max}(C1)$  versus  $F_{max}(C2)$ , d) peak  $F_{max}(C3)$  versus DOC, e) Salinity**  
436 **versus DOC, f) Salinity versus  $F_{max}(C3)$ .**

437

#### 438 **4 Conclusions**

439 A model II-ANOVA using season and lake as random effect factors shows that the  
440 seasonal variability ( $F > F_{crit}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) is higher than between-lake variability. In this  
441 study, the application of EEM-PARAFAC to characterize four fluorescent  
442 components under seasonal variation in CDOM was presented with 67 water samples  
443 collected from June 2013 to April 2014 in the semi-arid region of the Songnen Plain.  
444 Two humic-like and the protein-like components were identified using the PARAFAC  
445 modeling. The average fluorescence intensity of the four components differed under  
446 seasonal variation from June 2013 to April 2014. The highest C1  $1.02 \text{ nm}^{-1}$  was  
447 presented in February 2014 probably due to the condensed CDOM caused by ice  
448 formation in winter. Especially in summer when quantities of rainfall take place and  
449 in winter when water is frozen, the fluorescence intensity is dominated by  
450 tyrosine-like components in rain and ice-melt water. Component 1 and 2 exhibited a

451 strong linear correlation ( $R^2 = 0.633$ ). There were significantly positive linear  
452 relationships between  $F_{max}$  and CDOM absorption coefficient  $a(254)$  ( $R^2 = 0.72, 0.46,$   
453  $p < 0.01$ ),  $a(280)$  ( $R^2 = 0.77, 0.47, p < 0.01$ ),  $a(350)$  ( $R^2 = 0.76, 0.78, p < 0.01$ ) for two  
454 humic-like components (C1 and C2), respectively. A weak relationship ( $R^2 = 0.42$ )  
455 was found between DOC and component 3 from the decay of plants through  
456 microbial activity or the pollution from human and animal wastes. However, almost  
457 no obvious correlation was found between salinity and EEM-PARAFAC extracted  
458 components except C3 ( $R^2 = 0.469$ ), though the correlation was not as strong as with  
459 DOC concentration. Most importantly, a significant relationship ( $R^2 = 0.931$ ) was  
460 found between salinity and DOC. In order to understand the biogeochemical effects  
461 on the aquatic ecosystem, further study should be required to identify CDOM source  
462 and assess physical/chemical, bioavailable and photoreactive transformation in  
463 various lakes with larger saline gradients in the semi-arid region, Northeast China.

464

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470

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642

643 Table 1. Mean value of water quality parameters from June 2013 to April 2014. Turb  
644 denotes water turbidity; N denotes sampling numbers.

645

Sampling season	pH	Salinity ( <del>PSU</del> )	Turb (NTU)	N
Jun.2013	8.54	0.40	166.20±108.73	15
Aug.2013	8.63	0.37	63.13±31.21	13
Feb.2014	8.35	0.70	21.33±15.87	17
Apr.2014	8.67	0.43	22.24±16.42	22
All	8.55	0.48	62.18±79.07	67

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668 Table 2. Positions of the fluorescence maximum peaks of the four components  
669 identified by PARAFAC modeling in the present study compared with those  
670 previously identified. Secondary excitation maxima is given in brackets.

671

Component No	Ex <sub>max</sub> (nm)	Em <sub>max</sub> (nm)	Description and source	Components (Coble) and (Zhang)	Components (Stedmon and Markager)
C1	230 (300)	425	Marine humic-like (phytoplankton degradation)	M	6
C2	255 (350)	460	Terrstrial humic-like	A and C	1 and 4
C3	225 (290)	360	Autochthonous tryptophan-like	T	
C4	220 (275)	320	Autochthonous tyrosine-like	B	8

672 Fluorescence peaks were named as Components (Coble) and (Zhang) by Coble et al. (1996, 1998) and Zhang et al.  
673 (2010, 2011), while as Components (Stedmon and Markager ) by Stedmon and Markager (2005).

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691 Table 3. Mean values of DOC concentration and CDOM absorption coefficients

692 groups at different seasons.  $S_R$ : the slope ratio of  $S_{275-295nm} : S_{350-400nm}$ .

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Sampling season	a(254) m <sup>-1</sup>	a(280) m <sup>-1</sup>	a(350) m <sup>-1</sup>	$S_R$	DOC mg L <sup>-1</sup>	N
Jun.2013	38.39±9.23	25.98±6.38	5.73±1.68	1.29±0.16	31.84±14.67	15
Aug.2013	29.71±4.73	19.36±2.91	5.82±0.81	0.96±0.22	32.83±14.78	13
Feb.2014	52.88±18.13	34.62±11.54	6.36±2.17	1.18±0.11	55.04±20.00	17
Apr.2014	34.43±11.38	22.45±7.36	4.17±1.49	1.32±0.13	30.86±10.91	22
All	39.08±14.73	25.73±9.58	5.40±1.84	1.21±0.20	37.60±18.05	67

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713 Table 4. Correlation coefficients (R) and significance levels (*p*) of the linear  
714 relationships between CDOM absorption, DOC, salinity and fluorescent components.

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	a(254)	a(280)	a(350)	DOC	Salinity	C1	C2	C3	C4
DOC	0.711**	0.646**	0.294*	1.000**					
Salinity	0.650**	0.579**	0.159	0.965**	1.000**				
C1	0.850**	0.875**	0.873**	0.496**	0.383**	1.000**			
C2	0.677**	0.686**	0.885**	0.414**	0.270*	0.796**	1.000**		
C3	0.452**	0.417**	0.134	0.648**	0.685**	0.267*	0.103	1.000**	
C4	-0.040	-0.016	0.078	-0.101	0.135	0.084	0.069	0.225	1.000**

716 \*\**p*< 0.01 level ; \**p*<0.05 level.

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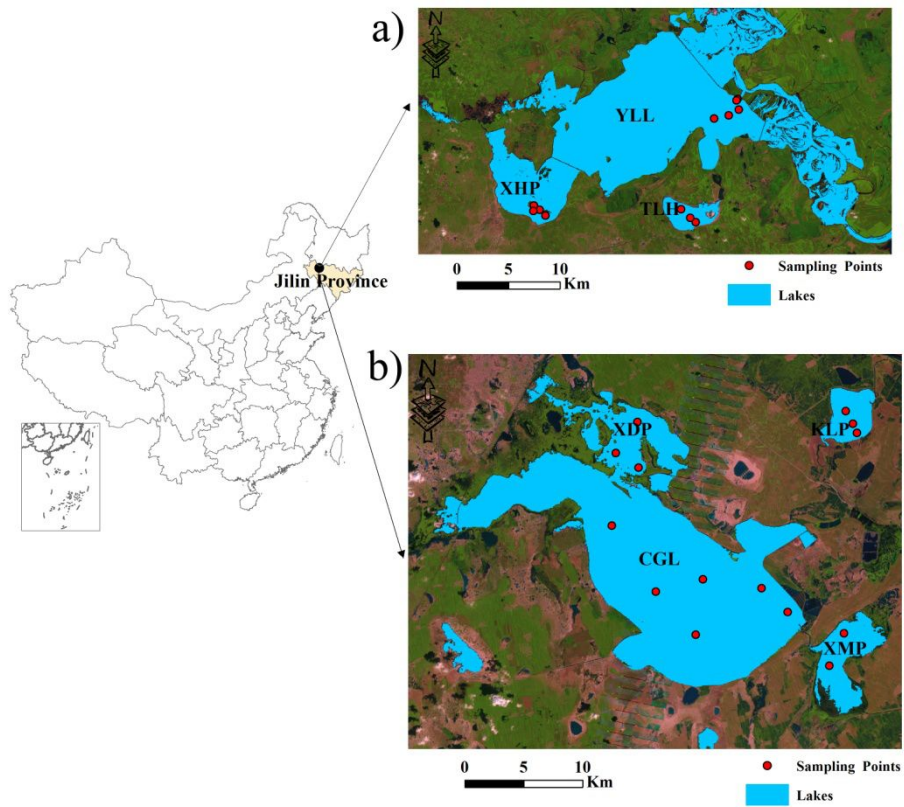
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727 Figure 1. Locations of the water sampling sites for 7 lakes in the western part of Jilin  
 728 province, Northeast China. a) Yueliang lake group: YLL, Yueliang Lake; XHP;  
 729 Xinhuangpao; TLH; Talahong; b) Chagan lake group: CGL, Chagan Lake; XDP,  
 730 Xindianpao; XMP, Xinmiaopao; KLP, Kulipao.

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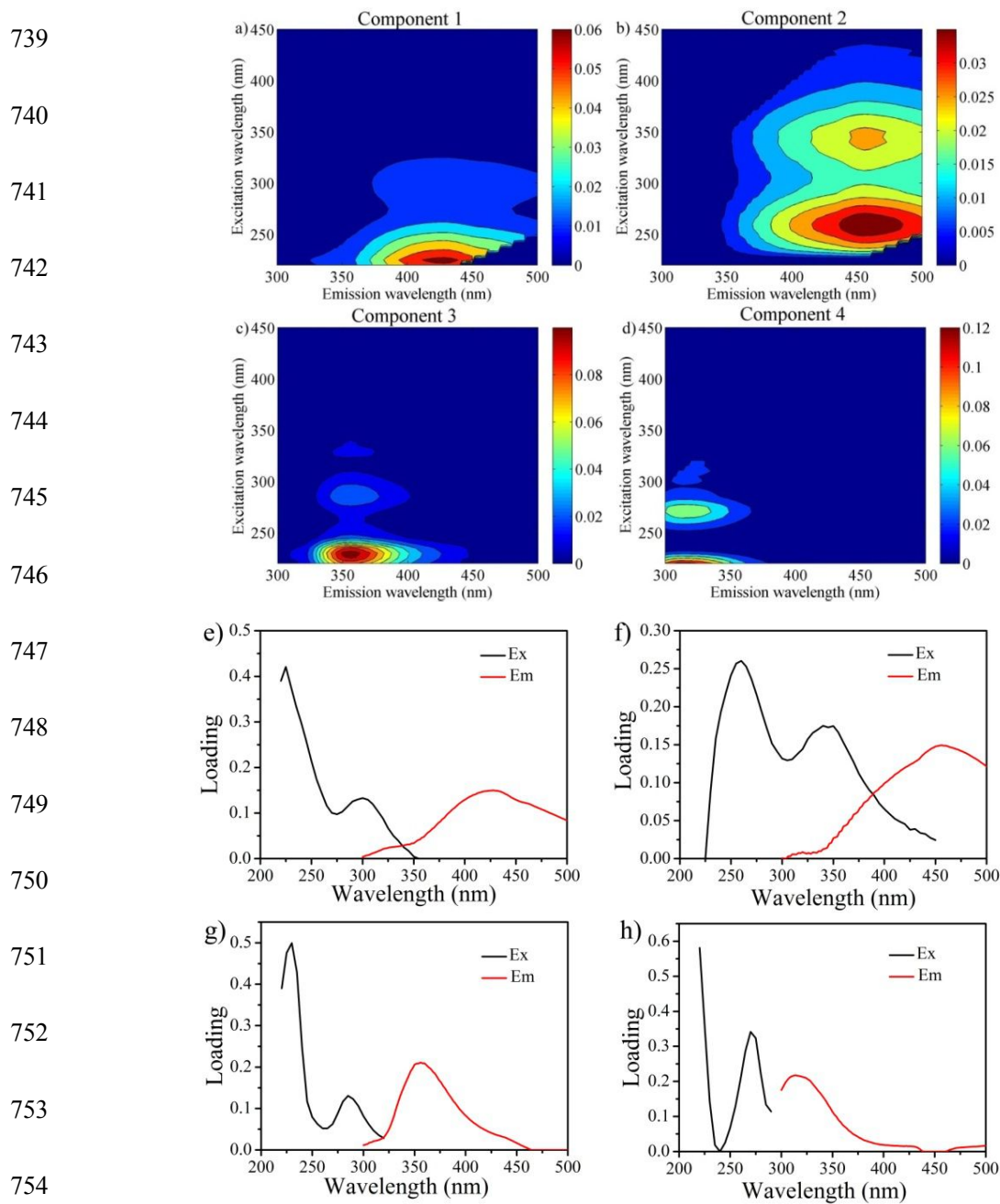
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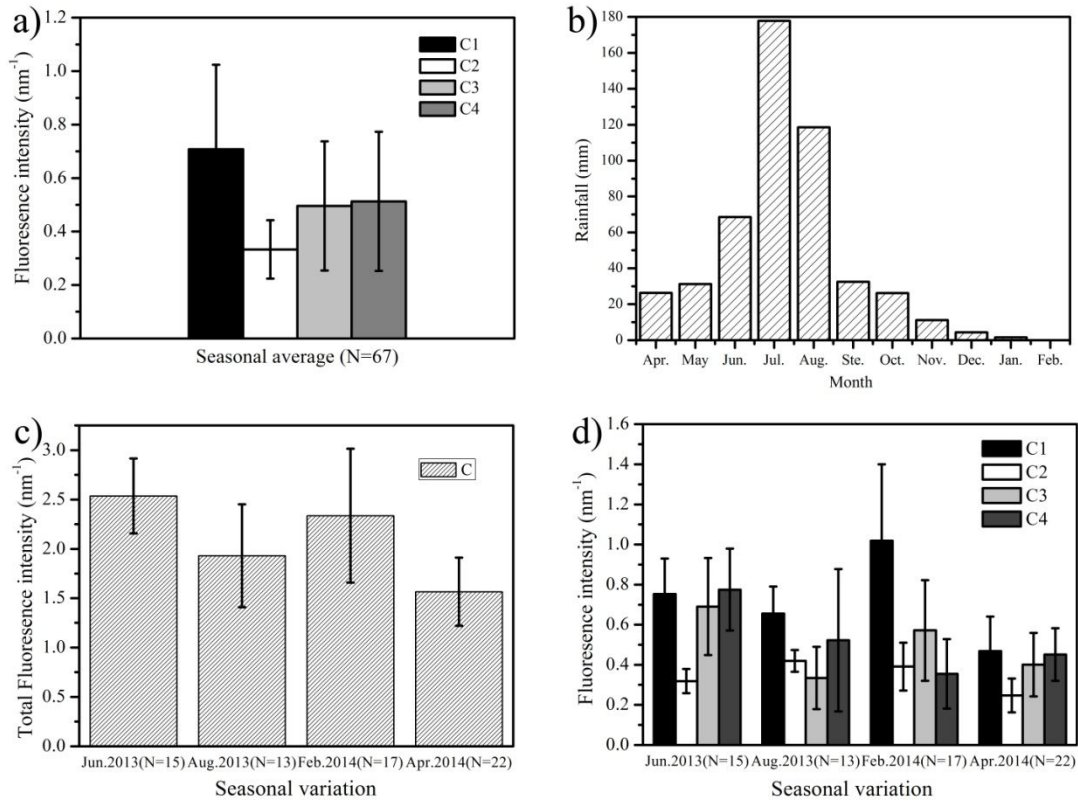
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755 Figure 2. The PARAFAC model output shows the contour plots of the four  
 756 PARAFAC fluorescent components (a-d) and excitation (black) and emission (red)  
 757 loadings (e-h) of each component. Fluorescence is in Raman units: nm<sup>-1</sup>.

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760 Figure 3. a) Seasonal average of  $F_{max}$  for EEM-PARAFAC components (C1, C2, C3

761 and C4) for lakes in the western part of Jilin province; b) Monthly variation of rainfall

762 for the lakes in western part of Jilin province from April 2013 to February 2014; c)

763 Seasonal variation of the total fluorescence intensity at different seasons; d) Seasonal

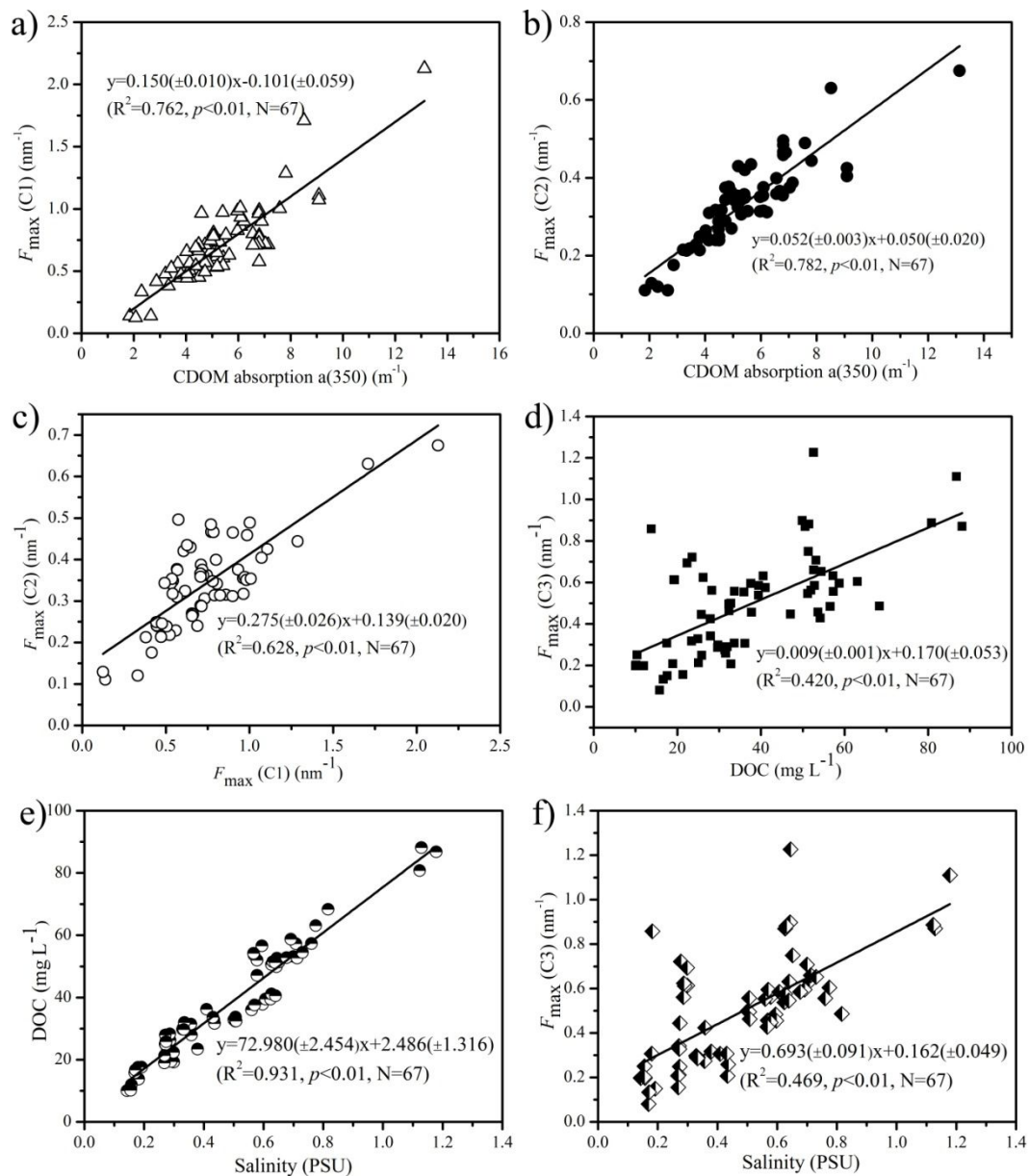
764 variation of the four EEM-PARAFAC components at different seasons. The error bars

765 represent one standard deviation.

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770 Figure 4. Relationships between CDOM absorption coefficient  $a(350)$  with a)

771  $F_{max}(C1)$ , b) with  $F_{max}(C2)$ , c)  $F_{max}(C1)$  versus  $F_{max}(C2)$ , d)  $F_{max}(C3)$  versus DOC, e)

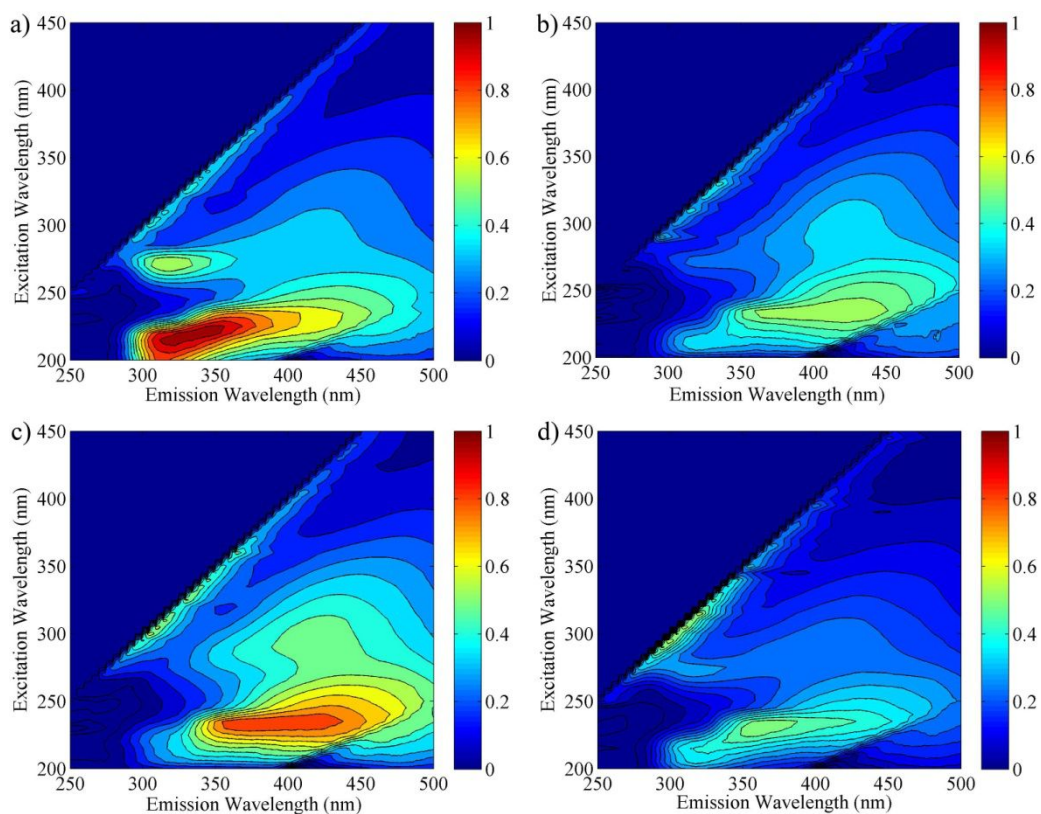
772 Salinity versus DOC, f) Salinity versus  $F_{max}(C3)$ .

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778 Figure S1. Examples of EEMs for one water sample from Xindianpao Lake in the  
 779 western part of Jilin province at different seasons a) June 2013; b) August 2013; c)  
 780 February 2014; d) April 2014 (Fluorescence is in Raman unit:  $\text{nm}^{-1}$ ).

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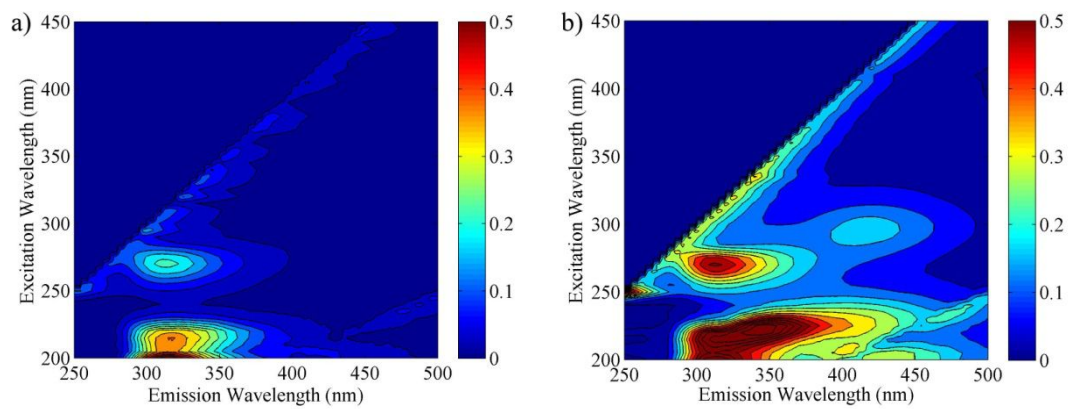
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791 Figure S2. Representative examples of EEMs for a) lake ice-melt water sample, and b)

792 rainwater CDOM in the western part of Jilin province (Raman:  $\text{nm}^{-1}$ ).