

1 **Impact of forest harvesting on water quality and fluorescence**
2 **characteristics of dissolved organic matter in Eastern Canadian Boreal**
3 **Shield lakes in summer**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Forestry activities in the Canadian Boreal region have increased in the last decades, raising
16 concerns about their potential impact on aquatic ecosystems. Water quality and fluorescence
17 characteristics of dissolved organic matter (DOM) were measured over a three-year period in
18 eight Eastern Boreal Shield lakes: four lakes were studied before, one and two years after
19 forest harvesting (perturbed lakes) and compared with four undisturbed reference lakes
20 (unperturbed lakes) sampled at the same time. ANOVAs showed a significant increase in total
21 phosphorus (TP) in perturbed lakes when the three sampling dates were considered and in
22 DOC concentrations when considering one year before and one year after the perturbation
23 only. At one year post-clear cutting DOC concentrations were about 15% greater in the
24 perturbed lakes at $\sim 15 \text{ mgC L}^{-1}$ compared to 12.5 mgC L^{-1} in the unperturbed lakes. In
25 contrast, absorbance and fluorescence measurements showed that all metrics remained within

26 narrow ranges compared to the range observed in natural waters, indicating that forest
27 harvesting did not affect the nature of DOM characterised with spectroscopic techniques.
28 These results confirm an impact of forestry activities one year after the perturbation. However,
29 this effect seems to be mitigated two years after, indicating that the system shows high
30 resilience and may be able to return to its original condition in terms of water quality
31 parameters assessed in this study.

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Boreal forests, which contain large areas of wetlands and over 1.5 million of lakes, are an
35 ecological, economic and cultural source of wealth in Canada (NRCan 2005; Kreutzweiser et
36 al., 2008). These lakes receive allochthonous inputs of dissolved and particulate matter from
37 natural sources and anthropic activities (Schindler et al., 1992). Forestry activities in the
38 Canadian Boreal region have increased in the last decades, raising concerns about their
39 potential impact on natural biogeochemical processes in soils and the export pathways that
40 deliver dissolved nutrients and organic matter to aquatic ecosystems. After logging, the export
41 of dissolved nutrients to aquatic ecosystems increases, which is primarily related to a higher
42 microbial activity in upper soil layers and the forest floor (Bormann and Likens, 1994;
43 Kreutzweiser et al., 2008). This microbial activity converts nutrients from non-mobile to
44 mobile forms, which are exported to receiving waters (Buttle et al., 2005), affecting loads of
45 nutrients and organic compounds in lakes and rivers. Because forestry is the most extensive
46 industry in much of the boreal region, the potential influence of logging on carbon reservoirs
47 and water quality could be substantial. Therefore, there is a need to understand the long-term
48 effects of forest harvesting on water quality, as well as its short transient repercussions.

49

50 Studies on the effects of logging activities on aquatic ecosystems in the boreal region have
51 mostly been oriented to lotic systems (e.g. Smith et al., 2003; Laudon et al., 2009; Löfgren et
52 al., 2009). In contrast, responses of lentic systems to logging activities in the boreal region
53 have not been as extensively studied. Logging activities such as clear-cutting may produce
54 significant disturbances to forest watersheds altering biogeochemical processes in soils by
55 modifying forest vegetation cover and plant community, soils conditions, moisture and
56 temperature regimes (Schelker et al., 2013b), soil microbial activity, water mobility and losses
57 of leaching matter to receiving waters (Kreutzweiser et al., 2008). Increases in the watershed
58 export of suspended solids, nutrients and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were observed after
59 one to three years following trees harvesting (Rask et al., 1998; Carignan et al., 2000; Winkler
60 et al., 2009). DOC is one of the most central biogeochemical features of boreal surface waters
61 because it affects the food web structure of surface waters in lakes (Findlay and Sinsabaugh,
62 2003) and it acts as a microbial substrate (Berggren et al., 2007). DOC has been intensively
63 investigated in environmental research because of its significant role in various
64 biogeochemical and ecological processes (Findlay and Sinsabaugh, 2003; Birdwell and Engel
65 2010). However, most of the short-term impact studies of catchment harvesting on lakes, with
66 the exception of Winkler et al. (2009), did not measure the system before and after the
67 perturbation in lakes that were not logged (i.e. unperturbed lakes), thereby changes due to
68 logging cannot be separated from natural variability.

69
70 Quantitative and qualitative information about the source, composition and reactivity of the
71 DOC present in an ecosystem at natural abundance concentration can be obtained by
72 spectroscopic techniques (Coble, 1996; 2007; Deflandre and Gagné, 2001; Weishaar et al.,
73 2003; Hudson et al., 2007; Fellman et al., 2010). UV-VIS spectroscopy allows
74 characterization of chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) while the fluorescence

75 spectra of natural waters show characteristic maxima of few fluorophores that may vary
76 between environments (Coble, 1996; 2007; Stedmon et al., 2003). Variations in the maximum
77 excitation or emission wavelength can also provide information relating to structure,
78 conformation and heterogeneity of DOM as observed by Mobeb et al. (1996) for humic
79 substances, an important class of molecules found in natural water (Tremblay and Gagné,
80 2009). Moreover, fluorophores intensities can be used to calculate ratios to track
81 biogeochemical processes. For instance, differences in the chemical make-up of the DOM
82 pool can be linked to changes in DOM reactivity and may be used to infer DOM sources
83 (Jaffé et al., 2008; McKnight et al., 2001). Thus, fluorescence spectra provide data that can be
84 used to infer the relative contributions of autochthonous and allochthonous organic matter in
85 natural waters (Parlanti et al., 2000; McKnight et al., 2001; Huguet et al., 2009; Fellman et al.,
86 2010). As forestry activities can increase the export of nutrients, suspended solids and DOC
87 into lakes (Rask et al., 1998; Carignan et al., 2000; Kreutweiser et al., 2008), and therefore, of
88 allochthonous material, fluorescence measurements may be an appropriate tool to assess
89 logging impact on water quality in watersheds. In a recent study, Kelton et al. (2007) used
90 fluorescence measurements to compare characteristics of DOM from boreal, agricultural and
91 urban sites. They observed that DOM from different landscapes could be distinguished by
92 fluorescence spectroscopy.

93

94 While the temporal variability and long-term lake response is of interest, our study was
95 designed to analyse the short term impact of forestry activities on water quality, and on UV-
96 VIS and fluorescence characteristics of DOC in eastern Canadian Boreal Shield lakes one
97 year before and up to two years after the perturbation. Water quality and spectroscopic
98 characteristics of four lakes were studied on one occasion before, and on two occasions after
99 forestry operations (perturbed lakes, P) and compared with four undisturbed references lakes

100 (unperturbed lakes, UP). More specifically, we tested the hypotheses that 1) nutrients and
101 DOC would be greater in perturbed lakes than unperturbed lakes one and two years after the
102 perturbation; 2) the UV-VIS and fluorescence signatures of DOM in perturbed lakes would
103 indicate an increase in terrestrially-derived (allochthonous) DOM after logging.

104

105 **2. Materials and methods**

106 **2.1. Study area**

107 This study was conducted in the province of Québec on the forested Mistassibi River drainage
108 basin (50° 07'30' N, 71° 35'59' W) located on the Boreal Shield (Fig. 1). The study area is
109 characterized by old growth forest mainly dominated by mature black spruces (*Picea mariana*)
110 exploited by the forest industry. The soil layer over the rock is thin.

111

112 **2.2. Sampling**

113 Eight lakes, which are oligotrophic in this region (Winkler et al., 2009), with similar
114 geomorphologic characteristics were selected for this study (Table 1). To evaluate the most
115 direct impact of harvesting, headwater lakes were selected, except for UP1, UP3 and P3.
116 Upstream lakes of UP1 and UP3 were unperturbed and for P3, the upstream lake was also
117 unperturbed and very small in comparison of the nominal lake. These eight lakes have been
118 unperturbed in 2008 at the beginning of this survey. In 2009 and 2010, four of these lakes
119 were kept undisturbed (unperturbed lakes) and four other lakes (perturbed lakes) where
120 harvested about 70% of lake catchment during autumn 2008 (Fig. 1, Table 1). All lakes were
121 sampled once in July in 2008, 2009 and 2010. The experimental unit in this study was the
122 lake. The forest was cut using the careful logging around advanced growth (CLAAG) strategy.
123 Under this treatment, all trees equal to or greater than 10 cm diameter at breast height (d.b.h.)
124 are harvested and smaller individuals are protected as future crop trees (Groot et al., 2005). A

125 20 m strip of standing forest was intentionally kept along lakes after harvesting activities. All
126 lakes have a drainage ratio higher than 4, and perturbed lakes had a catchment area cut by 69-
127 77% (Table 1).

128

129 Mean annual lake residence time was calculated for each lake using the following equation:

130 Mean annual lake residence time = $Z_{MD} \times A_{lake} \div A_{catchment} \times P \times \text{runoff}$ (1)

131

132 where Z_{MD} is the mean depth, A_{lake} is the lake area, $A_{catchment}$ is the catchment area, P is the
133 mean annual precipitation in this region (rainfall and snow) and runoff is the runoff
134 coefficient. This coefficient assumes that the percentage of precipitation that becomes runoff
135 is 0.5 for undisturbed lakes and 0.8 for harvested lakes in boreal forests (Bosch and Hewlett,
136 1982; Schelker et al., 2013a). Equation 1 is an approximation to calculate the mean annual
137 lake residence time for each lake because for lakes, in absence of data, we assumed only
138 precipitation and no infiltration or water uptake by tree roots, no loss of water by evaporation
139 and evapotranspiration to the atmosphere or by groundwater recharge.

140

141 At each lake, five littoral stations were selected randomly and sampled from a vessel.
142 Dissolved O_2 , pH, conductivity, and water temperature were measured *in situ* at each
143 sampling station using an YSI 556 MPS probe. Water transparency was estimated at the
144 deepest zone of the lake using a Secchi disc. Water samples were collected with a bottle at 0.5
145 m below the surface at each sampling station and filtered through 300 μm to remove large
146 zooplankton prior to the determination of physicochemical and biological variables. Samples
147 for total phosphorus (TP), dissolved inorganic phosphorus and nitrogen (DIP and DIN,
148 respectively) and suspended matter filtered for chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) measurements were kept
149 frozen at -20°C until analysis. Freezing TP samples can change the concentration observed in

150 some cases (Fellman et al., 2008). However, in this study it is assumed that freezing has no
151 effect because SUVA measured for samples are low (see later). Samples for DOC, CDOM
152 absorption and DOC fluorescence measurements were maintained at 4°C until analysis after
153 appropriate filtration treatments for each parameter.

154

155 **2.3. Water quality measurements**

156 TP was measured using the molybdenum blue method (Staiton et al. 1977) after autoclaving
157 50 ml samples with 0.5 g of potassium persulfate for 1 h at 120°C. TP was afterwards
158 assessed by using an AutoAnalyzer (AA3, Bran+Luebbe, German). DIP and DIN were
159 determined using an AutoAnalyzer (AA3, Bran+Luebbe, German) after filtering water
160 samples through a membrane filter (0.2µm Sartorius). For the determination of chl *a*, water
161 samples were filtered (200 ml or more) onto Whatman GF/F filters. Samples were extracted
162 for 24 h in 90% acetone at 5°C in the dark without grinding. Chl *a* was determined using the
163 method of Welschmeyer et al. (1994). For DOC measurements, water samples were filtered
164 through precombusted (500°C, 5 h) Whatman GF/F filters. For the determination of DOC
165 concentrations, the filtrates were collected in clean amber glass vials with Teflon-lined caps,
166 and samples were acidified with ten µL of 25% v/v H₃PO₄. The determination of DOC levels
167 were made in NPOC mode with a TOC-5000A or a TOC-V_{CPN} analyzer (Shimadzu, Kyoto,
168 Japan), following a protocol similar to Whitehead et al. (2000). A calibration curve was used,
169 with five concentrations of potassium hydrogen phthalate between 0 and 10 mgC/L to
170 determine the DOC content of samples. DOC reference standards available from the Hansell's
171 Consensus Reference Materials (CRM) program were used to test the instruments. For boreal
172 lakes with high DOC content, lowering the pH below 2, as done in the method, could change
173 the solubility of DOM by driving precipitation or sorption of organic matter to the wall and
174 cap of glass vials. However, the spectroscopic results obtained (see later) support the presence

175 of fulvic instead of humic acids in lake waters. Since fulvic acids are soluble at any pH, the
176 acidification of the samples does not change the concentration of fulvic acids. We expect then
177 that the acidification of the method did not change significantly the concentration of DOC in
178 our samples. Samples for DOM fluorescence and CDOM absorption measurements were
179 filtered through 0.2 μm filters to remove bacteria and prevent decomposition of the DOC
180 during storage. Samples were stored in dark to prevent photodegradation and photosynthesis.

181

182 **2.4. Absorption and fluorescence measurements**

183 CDOM absorption was determined for three stations in each lake with a Perkin Elmer
184 Lambda 12 UV/VIS spectrophotometer, using a 5 cm pathlength quartz cuvette. Absorption
185 measurements were done over the range 200-600 nm with a spectral resolution of 1 nm.
186 Nanopure water was used as the blank to subtract the absorption due to pure water.
187 Absorbance values were converted to absorption coefficient $a_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda)$ (m^{-1}) using the
188 following equation (Kirk, 1994):

$$189 \quad a_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda) = 2.303 \times A(\lambda) \div L \quad (2)$$

190 where $A(\lambda)$ is the absorbance at wavelength λ and L is the pathlength of the cell used in the
191 absorbance measurement in meters. In this study, a_{CDOM} at $\lambda=355$ nm ($a_{\text{CDOM}(355)}$) is used for
192 data analysis.

193

194 Specific UV absorbance (SUVA) was calculated at 254 nm. SUVA_{254} is defined as the UV
195 absorbance of a water sample at 254 nm divided by the DOC concentration measured in mg C
196 per liter (Weishaar et al., 2003). SUVA is a measure of the absorbance by mg of carbon
197 present in the sample. SUVA also allows an estimation of the aromaticity of the organic
198 carbon present in the samples.

199 Finally, the spectral slope (S) was calculated fitting an exponential equation between 305 and
200 265 nm (Galgani et al., 2011). Spectral slope is used to provide information on change in the
201 composition/quality of CDOM, including the ratio of humic to fulvic acids (Galgani et al.,
202 2011; Fichot and Benner, 2012).

203

204 Fluorescence measurements were made for the same three stations in each lake using a
205 Fluoromax-4 HORIBA Jobin Yvon fluorometer with a 1 cm quartz cuvette, at 0.1 sec
206 integration time and with the standard R928P photomultiplier tube operating at 950 Volts.
207 Prior to fluorescence analysis, the absorbance of each sample was measured with a UV-VIS
208 spectrophotometer (PerkinElmer Lambda 35). If the absorbance of the sample was higher
209 than 0.05 AUFS, the sample was diluted to obtain absorbance in the range 0.02-0.03 AUFS.
210 At this absorbance, the first and secondary inner filter effects are negligible (Lakowicz, 2006)
211 and no correction has been done for the inner filter effects. Under these conditions, the
212 fluorometer was never saturated. To obtain the three-dimensional excitation-emission
213 fluorescence matrix (EEM), the instrument was operated in ratio mode to correct lamp
214 fluctuation. Emission and excitation spectra were corrected for instrument bias as suggested
215 by the manufacturer. The fluorescence EEM spectroscopy involved scanning and recording
216 samples at sequential 5 nm increments of excitation wavelengths between 250 and 500 nm.
217 Emission wavelength increment was 2 nm between 250 and 600 nm. The spectra were
218 obtained by subtracting nanopure water blank spectra to eliminate water Raman scatter peaks.
219 Each sample scan was then used to generate three-dimensional contour plots of fluorescence
220 intensity as a function of excitation and emission wavelengths.

221

222 Our samples were characterized by two important fluorescent peaks. The first peak had an
223 excitation maximum near 250-260 nm with an emission maximum near 380-480 nm. The

224 second peak had an excitation maximum near 330-350 nm and an emission maximum near
225 420-480 nm. These fluorescence signals, called peaks A and C, were assigned to humic-like
226 substances by Coble (1996). No other salient peaks were observed in the fluorescence signal.
227 From the intensity of peaks and other fluorescence signals, we calculated indices to quantify
228 fluorescence properties of DOM. The ratio of fluorescence intensity of the two humic-like
229 peaks (A/C) (Coble 1996) was calculated for each sample. A change in the ratio of the
230 intensity of these fluorophores reflects a change in the proportions of these fluorophores. A
231 constant ratio A/C suggests a constant composition, a stable input or a stable environment.
232 Fluorescence index (FI) was also calculated for each sample as the emission intensity at 470
233 nm divided by the emission intensity at 520 nm when the excitation energy was set at 370 nm
234 (McKnight et al., 2001; Cory and McKnight, 2005). Two other indexes called the
235 biological/autochthonous index (BIX) (Vacher, 2004; Huguet et al., 2009) and the
236 humification index (HIX) (Zsolnay et al., 1999; Huguet et al., 2009) were calculated to assess
237 the relative contribution of autochthonous DOM in samples. BIX was calculated from the
238 ratio of emission intensities at 380 nm and 430 nm wavelengths when the excitation energy
239 was set at 310 nm. HIX was measured using the excitation wavelength 254 nm and calculated
240 as the ratio of the area under emission spectra at 435-480 nm divided by the area under the
241 300-445 nm region.

242

243 **2.5. Data analyses**

244 Water characteristic variables (TP, DIP, DIN, chl *a*, DOC) and DOM spectroscopic
245 parameters ($a_{cDOM(355)}$, fluorescence ratio A/C, FI, BIX, HIX, $SUVA_{254}$ and S) were compared
246 using three-way partly nested analyses of variance (ANOVAs). Factors in the model were:
247 treatment (fixed with two levels, unperturbed and perturbed), lake nested in treatment
248 (random with four lakes per treatment), year (fixed with three years of sampling) and their

249 interactions. Data were transformed when necessary to achieve normality and homogeneity of
250 variance. The impact of forest harvesting was measured as an interaction between the
251 treatment (perturbed/unperturbed) and the year (Green, 1979). When this factor was
252 significant, a posteriori comparisons were made using Tukey's test. A BACI design
253 (Underwood, 1991; 1992) was not used in this study since we had a limited number of
254 sampling dates before the perturbation occurred. However, we studied the temporal variation
255 of the system using the time as factor (Archambault et al., 2001) and we did sample one year
256 before the perturbation.

257

258 **3. Results**

259 Monthly, seasonally and annual climatic variables were similar throughout the three sampling
260 years of this study (Table 2). TP concentrations ranged from 4.80 (perturbed, 2008) to 5.75 μg
261 l^{-1} (perturbed, 2009) (Fig. 2). A statistically significant interaction between treatment and year
262 was observed for TP concentrations (Table 3). A posteriori Tukey's test confirmed that
263 unperturbed and perturbed lakes were not significantly different in 2008 (before forest
264 harvesting) nor in 2010 but they were significantly different in 2009 (first year after forest
265 harvesting). TP concentrations increased in the perturbed lakes in 2009 while it slightly
266 decreased in unperturbed lakes. In 2010 TP concentrations were practically the same in
267 unperturbed and perturbed lakes, as a result of increased TP in reference lakes (Fig. 2).

268

269 DIP values ranged from 1.39 (unperturbed, 2010) to 1.96 μg l^{-1} (perturbed, 2009) (Fig. 2) and
270 DIN values ranged from 0.42 (unperturbed, 2008) to 3.02 μg l^{-1} (perturbed, 2009) (Fig. 2).
271 Neither DIP nor DIN values showed significant differences for the interaction between
272 treatment and year (Table 3), although DIN values were higher in perturbed than unperturbed
273 lakes in 2009 and 2010.

274

275 Chl *a* values ranged from 0.41 (unperturbed, 2008) to 1.00 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ (perturbed, 2009) (Fig. 2).

276 Chl *a* values did not show significant differences between treatment and year (Table 3).

277 Although there was an increase in chl *a* concentration in 2009, this increase occurred for both
278 unperturbed and perturbed lakes (Fig. 2).

279

280 DOC concentrations ranged from 11.34 (perturbed, 2008) to 15.27 mg C l^{-1} (perturbed, 2009)
281 (Fig. 2). No significant difference was detected between treatment and year for DOC values

282 (Table 3). However, DOC was substantially higher in 2009 in perturbed lakes than in
283 unperturbed lakes, then decreased in 2010 in perturbed lakes (Fig. 2). In 2009, DOC

284 concentrations ranged from 9.57 to 14.96 mg C l^{-1} in unperturbed lakes and from 13.60 to

285 17.48 mg C l^{-1} in perturbed lakes. Moreover, we performed a three-way ANOVA with the

286 same factors as above but comparing only 2008 and 2009. In this case, the interactions

287 between treatment and year for all the variables were significant for DOC concentrations

288 ($df=2/12$, $MS=32.3253$, $F=6.2160$, $p=0.0466$) and TP ($df=2/12$, $MS=0.2561$, $F=20.9793$,

289 $p=0.0036$).

290

291 Two maxima humic-like peaks were observed in all EEM in all samples: peak A and peak C.

292 These peaks are commonly reported in the literature (Coble, 1996; Parlanti et al., 2000) as

293 indicators of the presence of humic substances. The spectroscopic metrics $a_{cDOM(355)}$,

294 fluorescence ratio A/C, FI, BIX, HIX, $SUVA_{254}$ and S values showed similar patterns in

295 unperturbed and perturbed lakes over time (Fig. 3). $a_{cDOM(355)}$ values ranged from 30.44

296 (unperturbed, 2010) to 40.68 m^{-1} (perturbed, 2009) and showed the same pattern for

297 unperturbed and perturbed lakes, increasing in 2009 and decreasing in 2010 (Fig. 3).

298 Fluorescence ratio A/C values ranged from 1.46 (unperturbed, 2009) to 1.50 (perturbed, 2010)

299 (Fig. 3) and FI values ranged from 1.64 (unperturbed, 2010) to 1.71 (unperturbed, 2009). FI
300 values decreased in 2010 both for unperturbed and perturbed lakes (Fig. 3). BIX values
301 ranged from 0.36 (unperturbed, 2009) to 0.40 (perturbed, 2010). HIX values ranged from
302 20.31 (perturbed, 2010) to 25.37 (unperturbed, 2009). SUVA₂₅₄ values ranged from 1.91
303 (perturbed, 2009) to 2.09 L mg m⁻¹ (unperturbed, 2009) and S values ranged from 0.010
304 (unperturbed, 2008) to 0.012 nm⁻¹ (perturbed, 2010) (Fig. 3). No significant differences for
305 the interaction between treatment and year were found for any of these variables (Table 4).
306 Chl *a* significantly correlated with DOC ($r^2 = 0.1202$, $F = 14.0689$, $p = 0.001$) and TP ($r^2 =$
307 0.0693 , $F = 7.5166$, $p = 0.007$) and DOC significantly correlated with TP ($r^2 = 0.2780$, $F =$
308 8.2109 , $p = 0.005$). The absorption coefficient ($a(355)$) significantly correlated with DOC
309 concentration in unperturbed and perturbed lakes ($r^2=0.7674$, $F=428.8325$, $p<0.001$).

310

311 **4. Discussion**

312 Concentrations of TP measured in unperturbed and perturbed lakes were typical values
313 reported for Boreal Shield lakes (Carignan et al., 2000; Winkler et al., 2009). However,
314 logging disturbance increased the TP content of lakes one year after harvesting as also
315 reported by other authors (Lamontagne et al., 2000; Winkler et al., 2009). Ground disturbance
316 may increase weathering and leaching of phosphorus from exposed mineral soils (Evans et al.,
317 2000). Adsorption of phosphorus to particles and their subsequent transportation by
318 hydrological events can increase the loading of rivers and lakes (Whitson et al., 2005).
319 Phosphorus losses from soils can be promoted by co-leaching with organic solutes such as
320 DOC (Qualls et al., 1991). The presence of DOC can enhance the solubility, mobility and
321 export of phosphorus by limiting the complexation of its dissolved form with cations that
322 would otherwise react to precipitate phosphorus and retain it in soils. This would explain the
323 significant correlation between DOC and TP found in this study. The parallel increase in TP

324 and DOC in lakes, one year after harvesting, can suggest a rise in allochthonous import of
325 DOC from watershed to lakes. DOC concentrations measured were typical of conifer boreal
326 forest systems with a mean annual temperature of 2.5°C (Sobek et al., 2007). DOC
327 concentrations significantly increased after harvesting in perturbed lakes, similar to Winkler
328 et al. (2009), suggesting that the system responded immediately after the perturbation.

329

330 In lentic systems, DOC concentrations in surface waters are regulated by processes internal to
331 lakes and external processes occurring in the watersheds where DOC are exported to lakes. In
332 lakes, metabolic compounds released by healthy autotroph and heterotroph organisms,
333 exudation from altered cells resulting from zooplankton grazing and microbial decay of soft
334 tissues of dead organisms may produce or deliver DOC in lakes. DOC can also be removed
335 from water by bacterial degradation, photolytic alteration, heterotrophic respiration (i.e. CO₂
336 evasion) and sorption or aggregation between organic matter and clays that cause
337 sedimentation of particles. As mentioned earlier, the increase in DOC could result from the
338 extracellular release of DOC from phytoplankton (Baines and Pace, 1991). However, the
339 increase observed in DOC one year after harvesting is not parallel with a rise in chl *a* content,
340 suggesting a minor role of phytoplankton exudates on the regulation of DOC level. This is
341 also supported by the absence of characteristic protein-like peaks associated to planktonic
342 production (excitation maxima at 275 and 305-340 nm (Coble, 2007) in our EEM
343 fluorescence spectra (data not shown). Furthermore, the lakes are shallow and hot in summer
344 (15-18 °C in July). Under these conditions, bacterial mineralization of labile organic matter
345 can be efficient and net production of DOC in lakes should be low. If processes occurring in
346 lakes act as an important sink (destruction or sedimentation) for organic matter, it is the
347 production and transport of DOC from the catchment areas to lakes that control the quantity
348 and quality of organic matter in lakes. The mean annual lake residence times of water in the

349 lakes studied are short, less than 0.16 years (Table 1). Then, a rapid turnover of water and a
350 quick replacement of DOC occur in these lakes. Under these conditions, variations in quantity
351 and quality of DOC suggest that processes occurring in the drainage basins are of paramount
352 importance to explain changes in the amounts and the chemical composition of DOC in lakes.
353

354 The transport of DOM from terrestrial ecosystems to lakes is complex. Thus, several potential
355 processes could give rise to an increase in DOC content in lakes. Many studies suggested that
356 the most important processes to explain increases in DOC after forest harvesting was the rise
357 in organic matter leaching from logging slash; the increase decomposition of organic logging
358 residues and organic matter in the surface soils due to increased forest floor temperature and
359 moisture; and a reduction in evapotranspiration causing an increase in runoff quantity leading
360 to a higher water table favorable to the exportation of DOM from the surface and riparian
361 soils (Qualls et al., 2000; Bishop et al., 2004; Kreutzweiser et al., 2008; Schelker et al.,
362 2013b). However, the largest C-efflux from a forest floor is soil respiration, which has been
363 shown to change as a result of forest disturbance (Grant et al., 2007). Leaching from logging
364 slash or foliage and woody debris mixed to surface soils after forest harvesting could enrich
365 water soil surface in organic components (Qualls et al., 2000). However, studies show that
366 amounts of DOC leached vary with temperature, the nature of woody debris and the lability of
367 organic matter. Coarse residues (stumps, coarse roots, branches) decompose slowly while fine
368 residues (leaves, needles, fine roots, twigs) as well as boreal forest moss and feather mosses
369 can be very quickly metabolized to CO₂ (Wickland et al., 2007; Hanson et al., 2010). During
370 the degradation processes, nitrogen, and low molecular weight organic acids are first removed
371 while lignin and humic substances could persist. Qualls et al. (2000) suggested that higher
372 concentrations of dissolved organic nutrients in solution draining from the forest floor of the
373 cut plots can largely be accounted for by the slash above the leaf litter of the forest floor.

374

375 The input of DOM to lakes from surrounding landscape could produce changes in the amount
376 and the chemical composition or quality of organic matter. However, although total DOC
377 concentrations increased one year after logging, the composition of DOC did not measurably
378 change. This result has also been reported in streams (Burrows et al. 2014). Three-
379 dimensional excitation-emission fluorescence spectra of lake samples studied over three years
380 shown only two major fluorophores associated with allochthonous humic-like components.
381 This constancy in composition suggests that DOC composition was similar for the three years
382 in unperturbed and perturbed lakes, since there was no significant difference between year
383 and treatment for the ratio of fluorescence intensity of the two humic-like peaks (A/C) and
384 since no differences were observed on the UV-VIS spectra between the three years (data not
385 shown). Moreover, FI, BIX and HIX indices showed no significant differences either,
386 indicating there was no change in fluorescence spectra due to logging. FI is an index of the
387 origin of fulvic acids. In this study, FI values were around 1.65 in all lakes and years. Cory et
388 al. (2010) suggested values near 1.2 for DOM of terrestrial origin in a large river of USA and
389 1.55 for microbially derived DOM. However, Korak et al. (2014) have recently shown that FI
390 values can vary by 0.2 units if concentration changes, the highest FI value measured at low
391 DOC concentration. In this study, our measurements were obtained at natural pH, about 5.5 in
392 the lakes studied. Measurements of FI at samples pH other than 6-7.5 as suggested by
393 McKnight et al. (2001) or Cory et al. (2010) could change the range of values used to
394 distinguish sources of DOM because protonation, molecular conformation and fluorescence
395 signal of DOM change with pH. Thus, the relative contribution of autochthonous and
396 allochthonous material cannot be discerned from FI values. BIX values were, however,
397 between 0.35 and 0.42. These results are below 0.7, suggesting that DOM contains very little
398 autochthonous organic matter, and it may be mainly composed of allochthonous matter

399 (Vacher, 2004; Birdwell and Engel, 2010). Finally, HIX values were between 20.31 and 25.37,
400 in the range of values reported for soil derived humics (Birdwell and Engel, 2010). This is in
401 agreement with Vacher (2004), who suggested that HIX values larger than 16 indicate a
402 strong humic character and an important terrigenous contribution.

403

404 SUVA₂₅₄ values (1.91 to 2.09) were slightly lower than values reported in other studies in
405 boreal forests (Wickland et al., 2007; Balcarczyk et al., 2009), indicating a relatively low
406 aromaticity for DOC. Wickland et al. (2007) reported low SUVA values (between 1.9 and 2.3)
407 for well or moderately well-drained soils. They associate the low value of SUVA to the
408 presence of hydrophilic organic matter (HPIOM). Guggenberger et al. (1994) found that
409 HPIOM appeared to be partly microbially synthesized and partly plant-derived with a high
410 degree of oxidative biodegradation suggesting that HPIOM are relatively small molecule with
411 many oxidized side-chains. S values were similar to values found in other studies in boreal
412 forest systems (Galgani et al., 2011). Our results showed no significant difference of SUVA₂₅₄
413 or S values (taking into account the interaction between the treatment and the year of
414 sampling). This suggests that forest harvesting resulted in an increase in the quantity of DOC
415 available (as DOC concentrations were significantly higher in 2009) without changes in terms
416 of quality. DOC quality varies to a large extent depending on its terrestrial origin in terms of
417 bioavailability (Berggren et al., 2007; Ågren et al., 2008). As the fluorescence can help to
418 differentiate between plant and microbially-synthesized DOC (McKnight et al., 2001),
419 increased runoff after harvesting would have resulted in DOC increases but DOC had a very
420 close composition before and after harvesting. Similar findings were reported in twenty-three
421 forested lakes in central Quebec, where DOC concentrations increased in logged lakes, but no
422 changes in aromaticity of DOC were observed (O'Driscoll et al., 2006).

423

424 In this study, we measured DOC and optical properties of organic matter to provide
425 information on the amount, quality, and origin of organic matter. DOC increases one year
426 after harvesting, but this rise is not accompanied by variations in spectroscopic parameters
427 $a_{cDOM(355)}$, fluorescence ratio A/C, FI, BIX, HIX, SUVA₂₅₄ and S. What concludes from these
428 results? At least two points can contribute to our observations. An increase in DOC without
429 change in spectroscopic metrics means that the DOC introduced in the system does not absorb
430 or fluoresce following UV-VIS irradiation. If compounds have double bonds or aromatic
431 moieties, these compounds will absorb light and give alteration in spectroscopic metrics, not
432 observed in this study. However, if dissolved organic matter contains mostly sigma chemical
433 bonds, these bonds could be hidden to the metrics used because sigma bonds absorb near 200
434 nm far from the wavelengths (>254 nm) used in the proxies measured. This suggests that low
435 molecular weight organic acids, hydrocarbons, lipids, or carbohydrates can contribute to the
436 rise in DOC without change in spectroscopic properties in the UV-VIS wavelength. Low
437 molecular weight organic acids are used rapidly by bacteria (Romero-Kutzner et al., 2015).
438 Their occurrence in DOC is unlikely. However, hydrocarbons, lipids and carbohydrates exist
439 in plants (Kögel-Knabner, 2002) and simple sugars and nonhumic-bound polysaccharides
440 could contribute to the increment in DOC at least for deciduous forest ecosystem (Qualls and
441 Haines, 1991). In a study on the release of DOC from plant tissues, Moore and Dalva (2001)
442 observed that DOC leaching is more efficient from fresh material than from old material. This
443 could contribute to the higher level of DOC one year after logging. The composition of the
444 new DOC could be lipid-like or carbohydrate-like compounds.

445

446 Our fluorescence results suggest that humic substances are the ubiquitous compounds
447 exported to lakes. The decrease in evapotranspiration following the clearing forest vegetation
448 (causing a change in the hydrologic regime) and the leaching of logging slash could

449 contribute to a selective washing of humic substances. Boyer et al. (1996) suggested that
450 DOC in upper soil might accumulate during periods of low flow and be exported during
451 periods of high flows. However, DOC in deep soils horizons could be immobilized through
452 sorption onto mineral phases or by precipitation with polyvalent cations (Qualls et al., 2000;
453 Hansson et al., 2010; Kaiser and Kalbitz, 2012). The sorption could be more effective to
454 retain humic than fulvic acids (Weng et al., 2006). Moreover, washing of logging slash can
455 decrease the pH by 0.9 units for leachate of fresh needle litter (Hansson et al., 2010). Such
456 reduction in pH could decrease the solubility of humic substances by more than 50% (Tipping
457 and Woof, 1990) and cause a stronger sorption of humic acids compared to fulvic acids
458 (Weng et al., 2006). However, because fulvic acids are soluble at any pH, by definition, it is
459 the apparent solubility of humic acids that decrease during leaching of logging slash and
460 through transport of DOC from watershed to lakes. The resulting effect will be a possible
461 enrichment of water soil surface in fulvic acids exported to lakes. The spectroscopic
462 parameters measured are in agreement with our hypothesis that DOC is mainly composed of
463 fulvic acids.

464

465 Although there appears to be a recovery of water chemistry (TP and DOC) by year 2, there
466 are confounding factors that can obscure real recovery or delayed effects. For example,
467 Schelker et al. (2012) have seen a long lasting forestry effect on both hydrology and DOC on
468 aquatic systems in the boreal region. Biogeochemical processes in watersheds do not all
469 respond immediately to logging effects, i.e., tree removal and ground disturbance. Some
470 processes may take a few years, such as changes in organic matter composition and
471 processing on the forest floor, changes in vegetation composition from which the DOC is
472 derived, before those changes affect export of nutrients and subsequent changes to lake water
473 chemistry. Also, hydrological conditions (especially runoff) greatly affect solute movement to

474 surface waters (Fawcett et al., 1994), and it is possible that year 2 was different hydrologically
475 than the preceding and may have masked delayed effects. Inter-annual variability could also
476 have affected the export of nutrients and DOC to the lakes. However, since monthly,
477 seasonally and annual climatic variables were similar throughout the three years of sampling
478 (Table 2), we can then assume that in this study, forest harvesting is a major factor
479 influencing the system comparing to a natural factor such as annual precipitation. Lastly,
480 carbon and nutrients can be transformed (i.e. immobilized, mineralized, evaded as CO₂)
481 before being input into lakes (Ledesma et al. 2015). There is thus the potential for substantial
482 changes in many of the lake water parameters measured before they enter each lake.

483

484 In conclusion, this study indicated that logging activities appeared to increase significantly TP
485 and DOC export to oligotrophic lakes of the Eastern Canadian Boreal Shield one year after
486 the perturbation. This impact on water chemistry due to logging activity appeared to have
487 been short-term with recovery to pre-logging conditions two years after harvest. Nevertheless,
488 it has to be kept in mind that the number of perturbed and unperturbed lakes in this study was
489 only four, respectively and that they were sampled one month each year due to logistic
490 constraints. Sampling multiple times per year at each lake would have permitted to estimate
491 the influence that seasonal and natural events (i.e. snow melt and storms) have upon the
492 response parameters. Furthermore, the study did not address the potential for delayed or
493 longer-term changes in water chemistry that could result from biogeochemical processes in
494 the lake catchments adjust to forest recovery after harvest. However, this three-year period
495 study shows interesting results. It suggests changes in DOC and TP keeping the quality of the
496 CDOM almost unaffected. Moreover, the spectroscopic data converge to suggest that fulvic
497 acids are the mobile form of CDOM carried to lakes and that fulvic acids respond rapidly to

498 forest harvesting contrary to humic acids. Fulvic and humic acids are the most important
499 components of DOC and CDOM.

500

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516

517

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798 Table 1. Characteristics of the eight studied Canadian Boreal Shield lakes (UP: unperturbed lakes; P: perturbed lakes). Dissolved oxygen (DO),
 799 pH, conductivity, temperature, secchi depth, total phosphorus (TP), dissolved inorganic phosphorous (DIP), dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN),
 800 chlorophyll a (chl *a*) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) are reported as means (SD) over the sampling stations on the photic zone before the
 801 perturbation (2008). Lake UP3 was not deep enough to sample secchi depth.

	UP1	UP2	UP3	UP4	P1	P2	P3	P4
Latitude N	50° 25' 44"	50° 29' 22"	50° 23' 13"	50° 28' 34"	50° 30' 9"	50° 31' 25"	50° 30' 40"	50° 28' 11"
Longitude W	71° 57' 28"	71° 57' 32"	72° 1' 24"	71° 57' 15"	71° 47' 1"	71° 56' 26"	71° 56' 5"	71° 46' 51"
Lake area (km ²)	0.17	0.17	0.06	0.03	0.29	0.09	0.28	0.04
Catchment area (km ²)	0.92	2.80	0.59	0.20	2.89	1.76	2.42	0.34
Drainage area (km ²)	0.75	2.63	0.52	0.17	2.61	1.67	2.14	0.29
Drainage ratio	4.39	15.56	8.30	5.52	9.02	18.57	7.71	6.88
Harvested area (% of catchment area)	-	-	-	-	72.9	69.1	71.6	77.0
Mean annual lake residence time (year)	0.10	0.01	0.005	0.03	0.16	0.04	0.15	0.05
Maximum depth (m)	5.0	2.0	0.5	2	9	4.5	7.5	2
Secchi depth (m)	1.25	1.50	n/a	1.75	1.50	1.65	1.40	1.40
DO (mg l ⁻¹)	8.61 (0.13)	9.52 (0.68)	7.51 (0.38)	7.22 (0.15)	8.47 (0.20)	8.24 (0.08)	8.21 (0.23)	8.46 (0.57)
pH	5.92 (0.10)	5.75 (0.02)	5.94 (0.05)	5.87 (0.07)	5.92 (0.06)	5.02 (0.05)	5.62 (0.15)	5.38 (0.28)
Conductivity (µS cm ⁻¹)	11.93 (0.64)	12.50 (0.05)	19.00 (0.54)	9.40 (0.15)	13.40 (0.00)	11.92 (0.12)	12.65 (0.14)	14.67 (0.45)
Temperature (°C)	17.86 (0.80)	17.09 (0.65)	16.71 (0.74)	16.99 (0.24)	17.13 (0.36)	16.71 (0.06)	17.45 (0.24)	15.65 (0.50)
DOC (mg l ⁻¹)	10.78 (0.57)	12.06 (0.58)	12.56 (1.01)	12.33 (0.48)	11.91 (0.73)	9.82 (0.40)	8.98 (0.43)	13.73 (1.04)
DIP (µg l ⁻¹)	1.81 (0.31)	2.10 (0.58)	1.29 (0.56)	1.49 (0.41)	1.88 (0.74)	1.54 (0.41)	1.20 (0.14)	2.04 (0.91)
DIN (µg l ⁻¹)	0.24 (0.12)	0.75 (0.51)	0.31 (0.18)	n/a	0.60 (0.12)	n/a	0.73 (0.10)	0.32 (0.27)
Chl <i>a</i> (µg l ⁻¹)	0.43 (0.06)	0.39 (0.06)	0.62 (0.20)	0.36 (0.05)	0.98 (0.21)	0.55 (0.06)	0.68 (0.16)	0.49 (0.07)
TP (µg l ⁻¹)	5.05 (0.26)	4.95 (0.52)	5.77 (0.50)	5.13 (1.01)	5.09 (0.70)	4.69 (0.47)	5.26 (0.70)	4.65 (0.55)

802

803 Table 2. Monthly (July), seasonally (May, June, July) and annual average of climatic
804 variables during the three years of the study (2008, 2009 and 2010).

805

Variable (Average)	2008	2009	2010
Monthly temperature (°C)	16.1	15.6	17.3
Seasonally temperature (°C)	12.5	11.7	13.2
Annual temperature (°C)	-5.0	-5.1	-2.8
Monthly precipitation (mm)	5.1	2.8	4.1
Seasonally precipitation (mm)	46.1	44.2	44.8
Annual snow depth (mm)	390	320	350

806 Table 3. Results of the three-way ANOVA testing the effect of treatment (tr : perturbed,
807 unperturbed), lake, year and their interactions on TP, DIP, DIN, chl *a* and DOC. Variables
808 were transformed to achieve normality and homogeneity of variance. The principal source of
809 variation of interest is the interaction between the treatment and the year of sampling.
810 Significant p values ($p < 0.05$) are in bold.

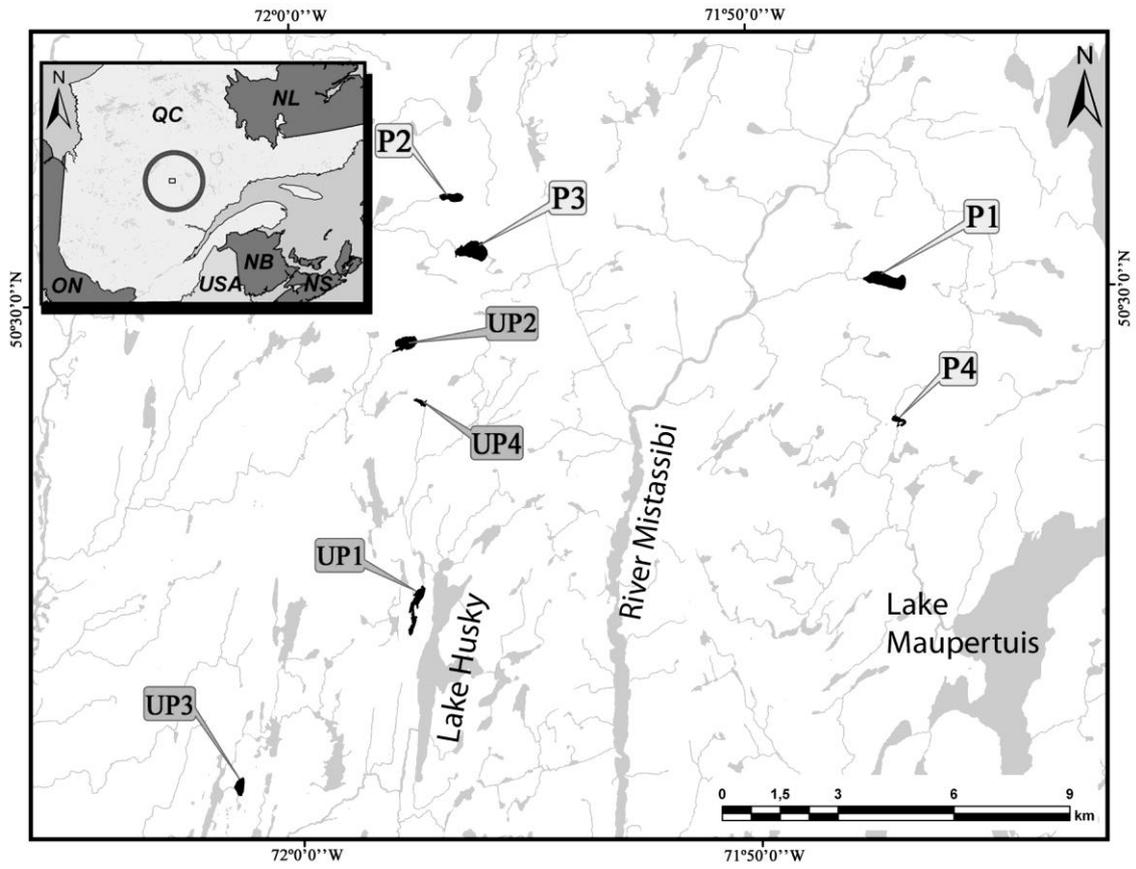
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Variable		Tr	lake (tr)	year	tr x year	lake (tr) x year	Residual
	df	1	6	2	2	12	96
Log TP	SS	0.07	0.01	0.18	0.15	0.02	0.02
	F	5.30	0.63	8.46	6.75	1.07	
	p	0.06	0.71	<0.05	<0.05	0.39	
Log DIP	SS	0.28	0.96	2.59	1.33	1.54	0.27
	F	0.29	0.62	1.68	0.86	5.74	
	p	0.61	0.71	0.23	0.44	<0.001	
Log DIN	SS	10.51	0.39	20.88	0.50	1.34	0.31
	F	27.19	0.30	15.86	0.38	4.28	
	p	<0.05	0.92	<0.001	0.69	<0.001	
Log chl <i>a</i>	SS	3.07	0.69	3.29	0.29	0.23	0.13
	F	4.41	2.30	14.18	1.25	1.25	
	p	0.08	0.05	<0.001	0.32	0.07	
Log DOC	SS	0.01	0.13	0.38	0.13	0.07	0.01
	F	0.06	1.92	5.34	1.79	14.01	
	p	0.81	0.16	<0.05	0.21	<0.001	

812 Table 4. Results of the three-way ANOVA testing the effect of treatment (tr: perturbed,
813 unperturbed), lake, year and their interactions on absorbance coefficients of CDOM (a_{cDOM}) at
814 355 nm, A:C peak ratios, fluorescence index (FI), biological/autochthonous index (BIX),
815 humification index (HIX), specific UV absorbance at 254 nm ($SUVA_{254}$) and spectral slope
816 (S). The principal source of variation of interest is the interaction between the treatment and
817 the year of sampling. Significant p values ($p < 0.05$) are in bold.

818

Variable		tr	lake (tr)	year	tr x year	lake (tr) x year	Residual
a_{cDOM} ($\lambda=355$)	df	1	6	2	2	12	48
	SS	6.81	316.26	137.19	133.38	110.28	14.95
	F	0.02	3.22	1.35	1.31	7.37	
A:C	p	0.88	<0.05	0.29	0.30	<0.001	
	SS	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
	F	0.85	4.51	1.13	0.83	2.16	
FI	p	0.39	<0.05	0.29	0.39	<0.05	
	SS	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	<0.001
	F	1.02	1.89	21.92	0.88	2.62	
BIX	p	0.35	0.16	<0.001	0.35	<0.05	
	SS	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	<0.001
	F	4.65	1.42	3.98	0.24	4.12	
HIX	p	0.08	0.28	0.05	0.62	<0.001	
	SS	35.97	287.71	140.16	9.47	222.06	<0.001
	F	2.55	9.56	4.97	0.33	3.69	
$SUVA_{254}$	p	0.11	<0.05	<0.05	0.71	<0.001	
	SS	0.09	0.22	0.72	0.35	0.36	<0.001
	F	4.14	0.63	2.07	1.01	5.56	
S	SS	$1.65 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$8.6 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$3.32 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$7.43 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$5.59 \cdot 10^{-6}$	$1.39 \cdot 10^{-6}$
	F	0.20	1.59	6.25	1.40	4.24	
	p	0.67	0.23	<0.05	0.28	<0.001	

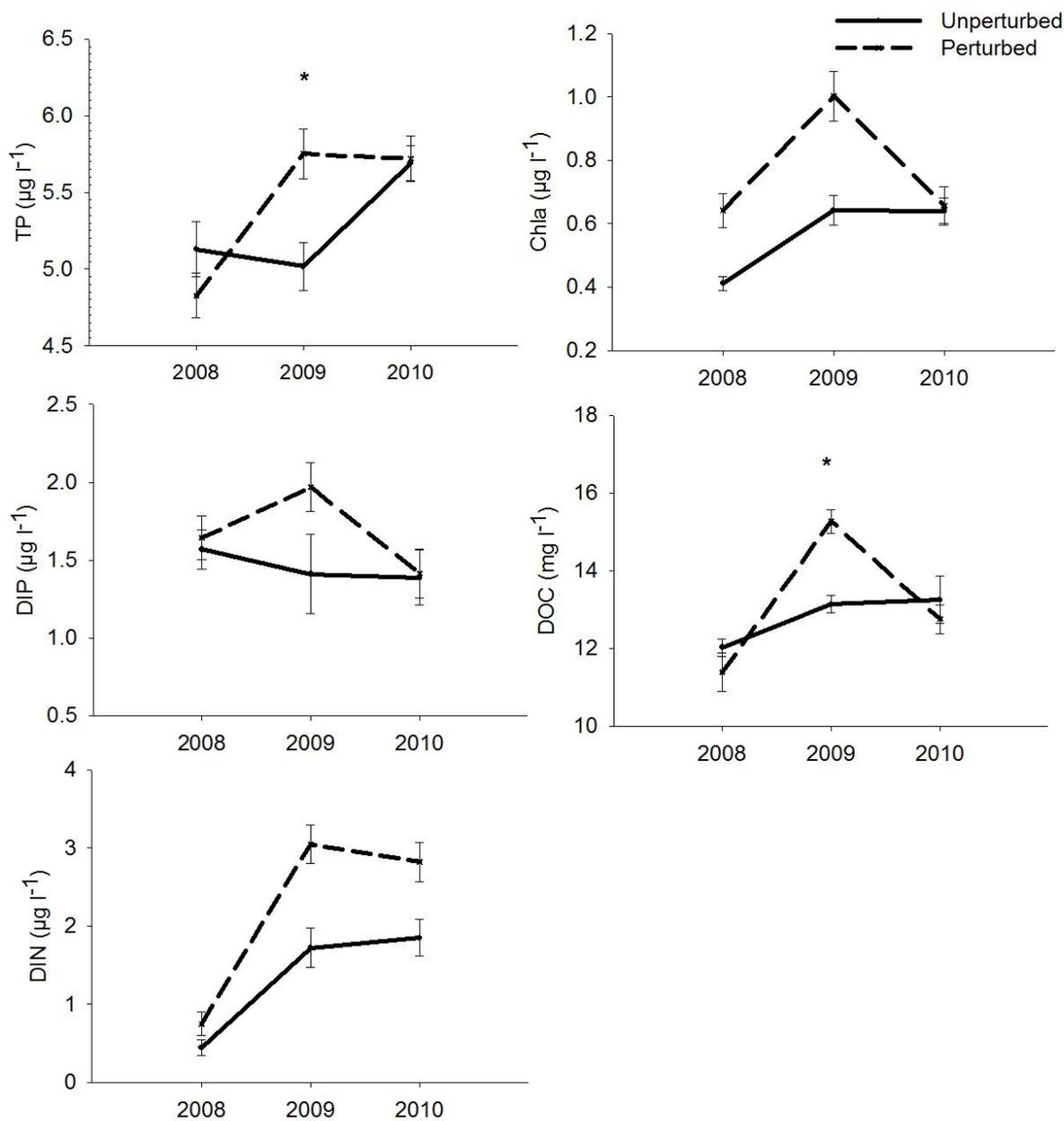


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821 Figure 1. Location of the eight study lakes sampled in 2008, 2009 and 2010. UP, unperturbed
822 lakes; P, perturbed lakes (harvested in 2009).

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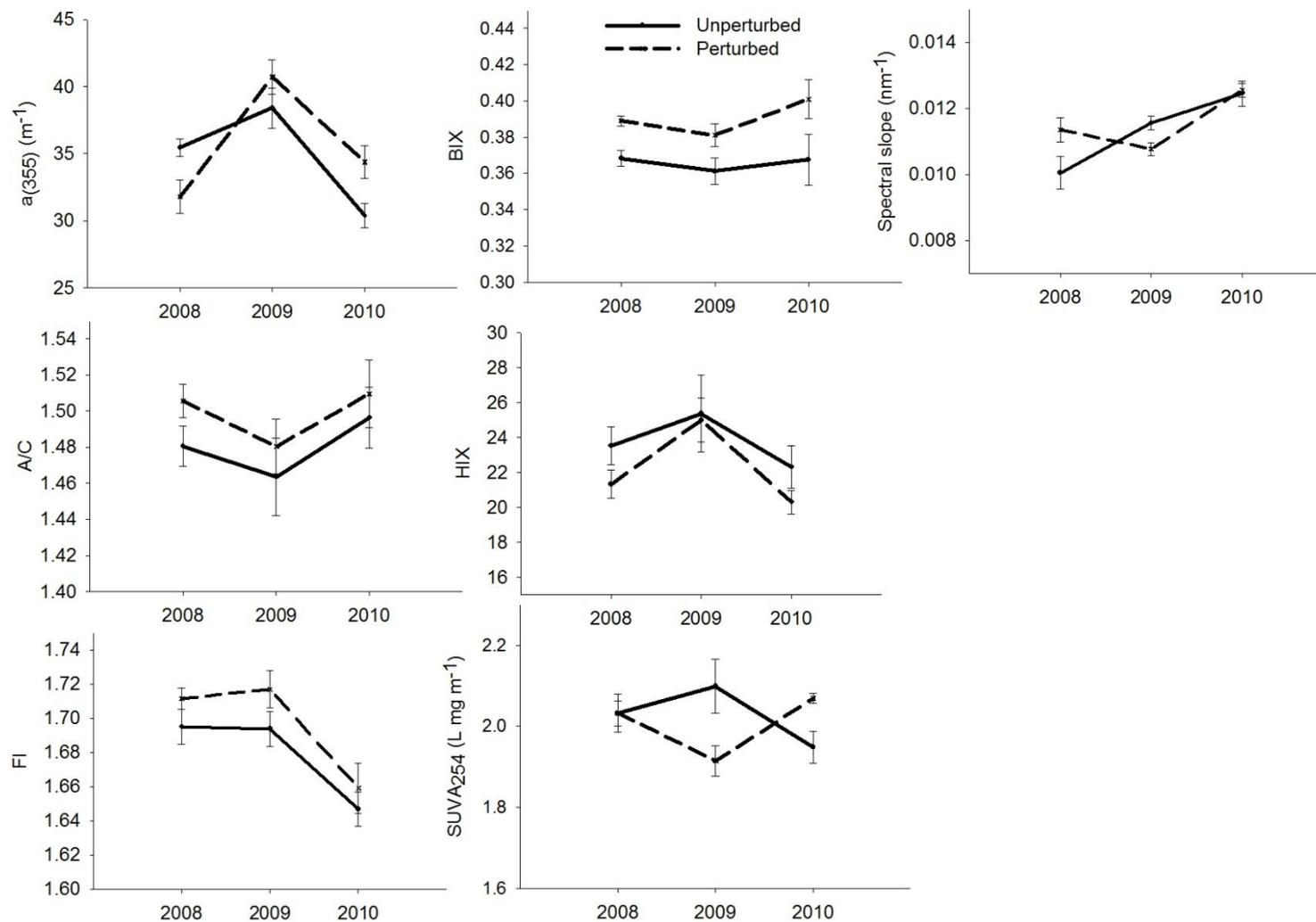


825

826 Figure 2. Comparison between treatments (unperturbed, perturbed) and years (2008, 2009,
 827 2010) of TP, DIP, DIN, chl *a* and DOC. Vertical bars represent standard errors. * $p < 0.05$.

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830

831 Figure 3. Comparison between treatments (unperturbed, perturbed) and years (2008, 2009, 2010) of a_{cDOM} ($\lambda=355$), A/C, FI, BIX, HIX, SUVA₂₅₄

832 and spectral slope. Vertical bars represent standard errors.