

1 **Extreme drought–accelerated dissolved carbon metabolism triggers pulsed CO₂**
2 **outgassing in karst lakes**

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4 **Maofei Ni¹, Weijun Luo², Junbing Pu³, Guangneng Zeng^{1*}, Jinxiao Long¹, Jia**
5 **Chen², Jing Zhang³, Xiaodan Wang¹, Zhikang Wang^{1**}**

6

7 1. College of Eco-Environmental Engineering, Guizhou Minzu University, Guiyang
8 550025, China.

9 2. State Key Laboratory of Environmental Geochemistry, Institute of Geochemistry,
10 Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guiyang, 550081, China

11 3. Karst Research Team, Chongqing Key Laboratory of Carbon cycle and Carbon
12 regulation of Mountain Ecosystem, School of Geography and Tourism, Chongqing
13 Normal University, Chongqing, 401331, China

14

15

16 *** Corresponding Author:**

17

18 Guangneng Zeng

19 Guizhou Minzu University (GMU)

20 **Address:** Guizhou Minzu University, Huaxi District, Guiyang City, Guizhou

21 Province, P.R.China 550025

22 **Email:** augustinezeng@126.com

23

24 Zhikang Wang

25 Guizhou Minzu University (GMU)

26 **Address:** Guizhou Minzu University, Huaxi District, Guiyang City, Guizhou

27 Province, P.R.China 550025

28 **Email:** wangzhikang@gzmu.edu.cn

29

30 **Abstract**

31 Karst aquatic ecosystems are important reservoirs of dissolved carbon (C), supporting
32 dynamic CO₂ fluxes through the biological C pump. However, our current
33 understanding of how sophisticated interactions between aquatic microbiomes and
34 dissolved C turnover constrain the timing of CO₂ sequestration and emission remains
35 limited. Here we capture an extreme drought event and the ensuing relatively wet
36 conditions from systematic investigations in karst lakes, demonstrating that
37 temporally distinct microbiomes are tuned to the metabolic patterns of dissolved C
38 and thereby modulate CO₂ emissions. Specifically, we find that the extreme drought
39 accelerates respiration of dissolved organic C, sharply increasing the CO₂ evasion
40 rate. Wet conditions stimulate photosynthetic uptake of dissolved inorganic C,
41 consuming lake CO₂ while promoting labile organic C formation. We therefore
42 propose that during the observed extreme drought, pulses of CO₂ emissions from the
43 study karst lakes occur after wet conditions end, as a consequence of rapid
44 remineralization of newly produced bioavailable organic C, ~~especially during extreme~~
45 ~~droughts~~. Our findings highlight the crucial importance of managing periodic CO₂
46 outgassing from karst waters under drought conditions for the implementation of
47 region-specific C neutrality strategies.

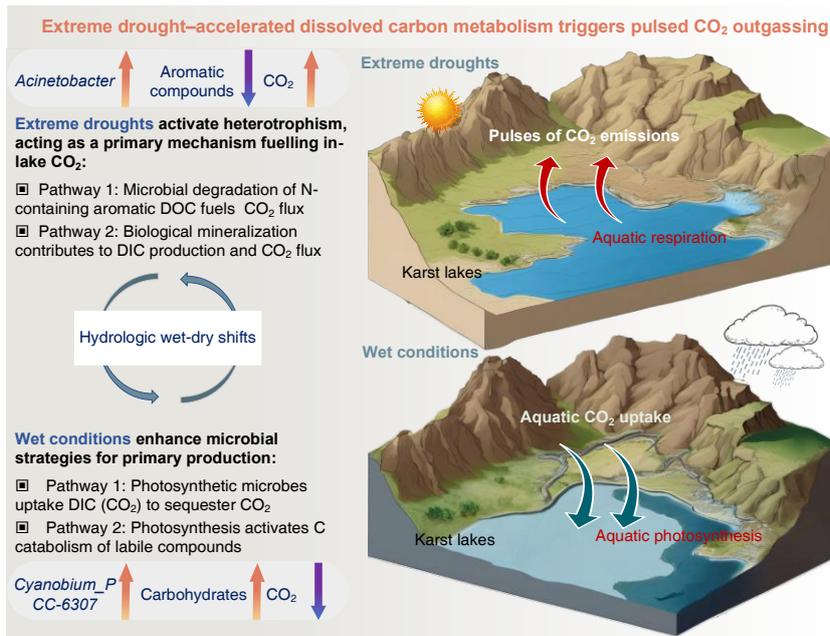
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49 **Keywords:** Karst waters, aquatic microbiome, dissolved carbon, CO₂ flux, extreme
50 drought

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52

53 **Graphical Abstract**



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55

56 **1. Introduction**

57 Lakes store, metabolize and release large quantities of natural carbon (C),
58 representing a funnel of aquatic C budget (Bogard et al., 2019; Borges et al., 2022;
59 Evans et al., 2017). Therefore, there is mounting evidence that lakes function as
60 “biogeochemical reactors”, receiving terrestrial C and continuously cycling the bulk
61 of aquatic C (Pi et al., 2022; Rodríguez-Cardona et al., 2023). Yet to date, the
62 mechanisms driving lake C cycling are poorly understood, particularly regarding the
63 underlying factors that constrain C emission (Chen et al., 2022; Mendonça et al.,
64 2017). It is estimated that inland lakes, despite covering only ~3% of the land surface,
65 contribute to 38% of aquatic C outgassing (Tranvik et al., 2009). Although the drivers
66 of these emissions are regionally investigated (Maberly et al., 2013; Mu et al., 2023;
67 Serikova et al., 2019), a fundamental factor governing C fixation, mineralization, and
68 subsequent uptake or release remains elusive. Deciphering the cycling of dissolved C
69 offers a promising avenue to address this knowledge gap, as it mediates C turnover
70 between organic and inorganic forms and accounts for ~90% of the global C flux from
71 terrestrial to aquatic ecosystems (Drake et al., 2020), making it essential for
72 understanding aquatic C budget (Raymond and Hamilton, 2018; Song et al., 2018).

73

74 Evidence suggests that seasonal wetness and drought control the dynamics of
75 dissolved inorganic C (DIC) concentrations and species (Rehn et al., 2023; Tye et al.,
76 2022). These events also alter water-land connectivity and thus the export of dissolved
77 organic C (DOC) to inland waters (Li et al., 2022a; Wang et al., 2024; Yuan et al.,

78 2024). Subsequently, aquatic photosynthesis utilizes DIC, while heterotrophic
79 respiration fuelled by DOC~~heterotrophic respiration of DOC~~ generates CO₂ (Guo et
80 al., 2023; Leles and Levine, 2023). Consequently, dissolved C turnover and CO₂
81 emissions are anticipated to be highly interconnected through hydrological and
82 biological mechanisms (Hu et al., 2022; Kellerman et al., 2014; Monteith et al., 2023).
83 For example, experimental data suggest that droughts can stimulate dissolved C
84 cycling by transiently accelerating primary production and, more persistently, DOC
85 respiration (Harjung et al., 2019).

86

87 These pervasive turnover and emission of aquatic C, in particular, can be
88 substantial in karst waters. The prevailing view suggests the regional specificity of
89 karst regions, specifically with respect to ecological fragility and the significant role
90 in carbonate C sink (Chen et al., 2023; D'Etorre et al., 2024). Yet, recent reports also
91 highlight significant dissolved C cycling and CO₂ sequestration in karst aquatic
92 ecosystems, attributed to the “biological C pump” effect (He et al., 2024; Sun et al.,
93 2022; Zhang et al., 2024). Carbonate weathering can couple with photosynthetic
94 uptake of DIC, resulting in self-amplifying CO₂ sink during karst water cycle (Liu et
95 al., 2018; Wang et al., 2022). Nevertheless, primary production may trigger DOC
96 catabolism and rapid cycle of active C (Ni et al., 2023; Ni et al., 2022). These critical
97 processes are tightly linked to~~are associated with~~ microbially mediated C fixation and
98 mineralization~~aquatic biology~~, but little is known about how lake microorganisms
99 drive dissolved C turnover and ultimately modulate CO₂ emissions in karst lakes.

100

101 Theoretically, aquatic microbial community in karst lakes is expected to regulate

102 DIC-DOC transformation, whereby microbially mediated C fixation and

103 mineralization shift the balance between CO₂ production and consumption

104 ~~Theoretically, microbiome is anticipated to govern internal cycling between DIC and~~

105 ~~DOC, and this process, in turn, may affect specific CO₂ pathways~~ (Li et al., 2022b;

106 Shangguan et al., 2024). Prior studies found significant DIC uptake by C-fixing

107 microorganisms (Li et al., 2024) and recalcitrant DOC sequestration *via* heterotrophic

108 bacteria in karst aquatic systems (He et al., 2022b; Xu et al., 2023), which potentially

109 regulate CO₂ fixation and outgassing in response to ~~specific temporal~~ pathways of C

110 metabolism. Because hydrologic wet-dry shifts can restructure aquatic habitats and

111 substrate availability for microorganisms, we thus hypothesized that wet and drought

112 conditions will shift microbial metabolic strategies, thereby modulating dissolved C

113 turnover and CO₂ dynamics in karst lakes. ~~Therefore, we hypothesized that~~

114 ~~microorganisms will interact with dissolved C to establish distinctive CO₂ drivers in~~

115 ~~karst lakes.~~ To test this hypothesis, we conducted a two-year investigation, capturing

116 an extreme drought event and its following rainfalls, with the aims of revealing: 1)

117 temporal interactions of aquatic microbiome with dissolved C dynamics; 2) specific

118 pathways governing karst lake CO₂ flux; and 3) microbially-driven dissolved C

119 turnover and the resulting CO₂ emission or sequestration. Achieving these aims is

120 expected to uncover the underlying mechanisms of C source-sink transformation in

121 karst water environments, ultimately supporting efforts toward C neutrality.

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123 **2. Materials and methods**

124 **2.1. Study area**

125 Observations were performed in the karst lakes Hongfeng (HFH), Laoma (LMH) and
126 Baihua (BBH), located between 25°57' to 26°42'N in latitude and 105°58' to 106°34'E
127 in longitude (Fig. 1). The catchment geology is predominantly karst lithology i.e.,
128 dolomite and limestone. Lake HFH and BHH, two of the largest artificial lakes in
129 Guizhou Province, cover surface areas of 57.2 and 14.5 km², with water volumes of
130 6.01×10^8 and 1.91×10^8 m³, respectively. As a segment of the Maotiao River, the
131 LMH is supplied by several tributaries that connect Lake HFH to BHH. These karst
132 waters are situated in a subtropical monsoon climate zone, with annual temperatures
133 ranging from -7.8°C to 37.5°C. The wet season lasts from May to October, delivering
134 an average annual precipitation of 1130 mm. Specifically, an extreme drought event
135 occurred in 2022–2023, with monthly rainfall <10 mm during the drought (early
136 winter), >100 mm during the initial-wet (early summer), and 50–100 mm during the
137 post-wet (autumn) periods. These lakes, which serve as drinking water sources, are
138 impacted by acting as drinking water sources, are disrupted by agriculture and
139 domestic sewage.

140

141 **2.2. Fieldwork and laboratory analysis**

142 During May to November from 2022 to 2023, our sampling captured an extreme
143 drought event, allowing us to clearly identify the specific temporal scales during the

144 drought, initial-wet and post-wet periods. Spatially, fieldworks were designed to
145 incorporate full spectrum of the karst lakes from 32 sampling locations (Fig. 1a).
146 Therefore, a total of 96 water samples were collected from our investigations. In
147 details, we collected surface waters at a depth of ~10 cm and filtered them within 6
148 hours. Filtrates were stored in 1000-mL high-density polyethylene (HDPE) containers
149 designed to eliminate headspace and air bubbles. Water samples were filtered using
150 glass microfiber filters (Whatman, GF/F 47 mm, 0.7- μ m) for dissolved C
151 measurement, and polycarbonate membrane filters (Millipore, ~~GF/F~~ 47 mm, 0.22- μ m)
152 for microbial determination. Samples were refrigerated at 4°C during transport and
153 stored at -70°C for microbiological analysis.

154

155 Water temperature and pH were *in-situ* determined with a portable pH meter
156 (PHB-4, Shanghai). Wind velocity was measured using a Testo 410-1 anemometer
157 (Testo, Germany). Total alkalinity was titrated with Alkalinity Test MColortest™
158 (Merck, Germany). DOC concentration was detected using varioTOC cube/select
159 (Elementar, Germany). Chromophoric DOC was determined using a double-beam
160 scanning spectrophotometer (UV-5500PC, Shanghai) with UV-visible absorption
161 spectra ranging from 200 to 700 nm (1-nm interval). Fluorescence DOC was analysed
162 using a RF-6000 Spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Japan), with excitation and emission
163 wavelengths of 200–450 (5-nm interval) nm and 250–600 nm (1-nm interval),
164 respectively. Molecular DOC was characterized using Fourier transform ion cyclotron
165 resonance mass spectrometry (FT-ICR MS). We combined equal volumes of water

166 samples from each lake site, leaving us three composite samples for FT-ICR MS
167 analysis. Details on sample pretreatment (solid-phase extraction, SPE) for FT-ICR MS
168 are available in Supplementary Text S1.

169

170 Genomic DNA in sampling waters was extracted using E.Z.N.A. Water DNA Kit
171 (OMEGA, USA) according to the manufacturers' instructions, and ~~assessed~~
172 ~~with~~ by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. ~~It employed u~~ Universal primers 341F (5'-
173 CCTAYGGGRBGCASCAG-3') and 806R (5'-GGACTACNNGGTATCTAAT-3')
174 ~~were used to amplify the~~ for amplifying the V3–V4 hypervariable region of the 16S
175 rRNA, with a GeneAmp PCR System 9700 (ABI GeneAmp, USA). The PCR
176 products were extracted by 2% agarose gel electrophoresis, and recovered from
177 AXYPREP DNA Gel Recovery Kit (Axygen Biosciences, USA) with Tris-HCl for
178 elution. Purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar and sequenced using paired-end
179 on an Illumina MiSeq PE300 (Illumina, USA) following standard protocols.

180

181 **2.3. Data processing and calculation**

182 In this study, we employed a carbonate ~~equilibrium~~equilibria-based method for
183 estimating aqueous DIC, using combinations of water chemistry parameters (pH,
184 water temperature and total alkalinity) through CO₂SYS program (Xu et al., 2017).
185 This program outputs concentrations of DIC species i.e., total DIC, HCO₃⁻, CO₃²⁻ and
186 dissolved CO₂, as well as aqueous partial pressure of CO₂ (*p*CO₂), a crucial indication
187 for potential CO₂ emissions from aquatic environments. The following thin boundary

188 layer model was used to calculate areal CO₂ flux (mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) from the karst waters.

189

190
$$\text{Areal CO}_2 \text{ flux} = (p\text{CO}_{2\text{water}} - p\text{CO}_{2\text{air}}) \times k \times K_h \quad (1)$$

191

192 This model proposes that the difference between aqueous ($p\text{CO}_{2\text{water}}$, μatm) and
193 atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ ($p\text{CO}_{2\text{air}}$, μatm) can characterize the impetus and direction for CO₂
194 transfer. Temporal shifts in *in-situ* atmospheric CO₂ levels (dimensionally convertible
195 to $p\text{CO}_{2\text{air}}$) are available in Fig. S1. By contrast, gas transfer velocity (k , m d⁻¹) can
196 constrain the velocity of water-air CO₂ exchange, which is calibrated from normalized
197 gas transfer velocity (k_{600} , cm h⁻¹) using water temperature and Schmidt number.
198 Specifically, k or k_{600} serves as a function of water turbulence, empirically modelled
199 by wind velocity in lakes and lentic rivers. Henry's constant (K_h , mmol m⁻³ μatm^{-1})
200 calibrated from *in-situ* temperature and pressure, characterizes CO₂ equilibrium at
201 water-air interfaces. Details for chemical calculations of DIC species and thin
202 boundary layer model [are provided insee](#) Supplementary Text S2.

203

204 We analysed UV-visible and fluorescent spectroscopy ~~to~~^{for} understanding DOC
205 component, origin and fate. Specifically, DOC-normalized absorption coefficient
206 SUVA₂₅₄ (L mg⁻¹ m⁻¹), an indicator of DOC aromaticity, was computed as the
207 absorption coefficient (a_{254} , m⁻¹) divided by DOC concentration (mg L⁻¹). Spectral
208 slope S₂₇₅₋₂₉₅, a proxy for DOC relative molecular weight, was calculated by
209 nonlinearly fitting an exponential function to the absorption spectrum from 275 to 295

210 nm. Fluorescence index (FI) increases with intensified biological activity, and
211 indicates allochthonous (< 1.4) and autochthonous (> 1.9) inputs for aquatic DOC,
212 which was calculated as the ratio of emission intensity at 470 nm to 520 nm with an
213 excitation of 370 nm. Biological index (BIX), a proxy for freshness of biologically
214 produced DOC, was calculated as the ratio of emission intensity at 380 nm to 430 nm,
215 using an excitation of 310 nm. Humification index (HIX), characterizing to DOC
216 humification and biodegradability, was expressed as the ratio of total emission
217 intensities at 435–480 nm divided by 300–345 nm, at an excitation of 254 nm. Parallel
218 factor analysis (PARAFAC) was used to identify primary DOC components by
219 separating excitation-emission matrices into independent fluorophores. The
220 PARAFAC modelling employed residual and split-half analyses for component
221 selection and correspondence validation.

222

223 FT-ICR MS analysis was conducted to examine dissolved organic matter (DOM,
224 represents the specific material form of the general DOC) composition using a
225 molecular formula calculator based on criteria with elemental combinations of $C_{0-2}H_{0-}$
226 $_{0-2}O_{0-2}N_{0-1}S_{0-1}$. Peaks were detected within $S/N > 4$ and a mass accuracy of $\leq \pm 1$ ppm.
227 Van Krevelen diagrams plotting H/C against O/C were employed to visualize FT-ICR
228 MS data. Seven DOM compositions were extracted based on the elemental ratios of
229 H/C and O/C (Ni et al., 2024), involving carbohydrates, amino-sugars, saturated
230 compounds, tannins, lignin, unsaturated hydrocarbons and condensed aromatic
231 structures. The elements (C, H, O, N, P and S), and formulas (CHO, CHOS, CHON,

232 CHOP, CHONS, CHONP, CHOSP and CHONSP) were identified based on molecular
233 exact mass and matched against a molecular ~~formula database~~ ~~formulas database~~ (Yan
234 et al., 2024). The modified aromaticity index (AI-mod) and nominal oxidation state of
235 carbon (NOSC) were calculated as follows:

$$237 \quad AI_{mod} = \frac{1 + C - \frac{1}{2}O - S - \frac{1}{2}(N + H)}{C - \frac{1}{2}O - N - S} \quad (2)$$

$$238 \quad NOSC = \frac{4C + H - 3N - 2O - 2S}{C} \quad (3)$$

239
240 Alpha diversity, calculated using Mothur (<https://mothur.org/wiki/calculators/>),
241 was used to assess microbial community ~~using through~~ the indices Coverage
242 (community coverage), Chao (community richness) and Shannon (community
243 diversity). We analysed microbial community and its relative abundance, ranking the
244 top 20 microorganisms at genus level. Using Tax4Fun, we converted 16S into
245 prokaryotic classification profiles in the KEGG database, enabling KEGG functional
246 annotation for 16S RNA gene sequences. It provides insights into potential microbial
247 functions based on their composition and abundance in aquatic environments, and
248 specifically presents information on KEGG Orthology in this study.

249 250 **2.4. ~~Data qQuality-control~~**

251 Water collection and analysis followed the standard procedures, as proposed by the
252 American Public Health Association (1985).- However, we acknowledge that (1)

253 temporally, discrete surface sampling may omit short-lived C dynamics driven by diel
254 variability and episodic event (e.g., flooding and thermal fluctuations); and (2)
255 spatially, surface measurements at limited stations may not fully represent horizontal
256 heterogeneity (e.g., differences in macrophytes and local human activities). Therefore,
257 we interpret our results as evidence for surface water patterns during the observed
258 period and avoid extrapolating the frequency and magnitude of CO₂ pulses without
259 higher-frequency and multi-site observations. The pH probe was calibrated with 6.86
260 and 9.18 pH standard solution at 25°C, ensuring ±0.01 pH unit accuracy. Water
261 temperature and wind velocity were accurate to ±0.5°C and ± (0.2 m/s + 2% of
262 measurements), respectively. Alkalinity Test MColorTest™ measured total alkalinity
263 with < 3% uncertainty. ▲

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264
265 Lake DIC species calculated from water chemistry may be overestimated due to
266 non-carbonate alkalinity (Liu et al., 2020). We specifically assessed that non-
267 carbonate alkalinity from nitrogen, phosphorus and organic C can result in a
268 maximum 29.5% overestimation of DIC species. Consequently, we corrected this
269 overestimation by using measured DIC concentrations (Fig. S2), which converted
270 systematic errors into instrument errors (< 2%) for all DIC datasets. UV
271 measurements were 10% replicated, suggesting an uncertainty of < 2 %. The inner
272 filter effect of fluorescence data can be neglected since absorbances at 254 nm were
273 all below 0.3 (Ohno, 2002). Excitation-emission matrices were corrected for Raman
274 and Rayleigh scatterings through interpolation, and fluorescence intensity (A.U.) was

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275 normalized to Raman Unit (R.U.) *via* water Raman peak areas (Ni et al., 2024). FT-
276 ICR MS and microbial analysis were conducted by China National Analytical Centre
277 (Guangzhou, China) and Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology Co. Ltd. (Shanghai,
278 China), respectively.

279

280 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

281 Normality and homogeneity of variance were assessed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov
282 test and Levene's test, respectively. Variables were log-transformed as needed to
283 ensure normality assumptions. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey
284 HSD post hoc was employed to evaluate statistical differences across DIC species,
285 DOC compositions and microbial variables. Correlation analysis was used to assess
286 possible associations within or between dissolved C, CO₂ flux and microbial
287 variables. We introduced a structural equation model (SEM) to examine how aquatic
288 microorganisms interact with dissolved C and ultimately influence CO₂ flux through
289 both direct and indirect pathways. We initially excluded the variables with nonlinear
290 relationships (e.g., alpha diversity and Tax4Fun) to derive comparable standardized
291 path coefficients. We further established and specified 6 latent variables according to
292 the loadings of their associated observed variables (see Supplementary Text S3). In
293 the SEM, we hypothesized that 1) photosynthetic and heterotrophic microbes will
294 preferentially associate with DIC for anabolism and DOC for catabolism,
295 respectively; and 2) dissolved C dynamics and CO₂ flux are intertwined due to
296 carbonate chemistry, biogenic, and terrestrial regulations. The SEM with partial least

297 squares path modelling was performed using the plspm package in R (Version 4.1.3).
298 Statistical analyses and ~~figure preparation~~~~figures preparing~~ were conducted using and
299 OriginPro 2024 and MATLAB 2018.

300

301 **3. Results**

302 **3.1. DIC species and CO₂ emissions**

303 The significant carbonate kinetics in karst waters present an opportunity to understand
304 the dynamics of aqueous DIC species. This study captured strong seasonality in water
305 chemistry (Table 1), particularly with lower pH and water temperature during the
306 extreme-drought period ($p < 0.001$ by ANOVA). *In-situ* measured total alkalinity
307 (range: 2178.7–6210.8 $\mu\text{eq L}^{-1}$), along with DIC (range: 1538.7–6206.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and
308 HCO_3^- (range: 918.4–5970.6 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), had no temporal variations across the periods
309 ($p > 0.05$). Extreme drought caused lower aqueous CO_3^{2-} but higher dissolved CO_2
310 levels in comparison to wet conditions ($p < 0.001$, Fig. S3). It should be noted that we
311 corrected concentrations of DIC species by eliminating systematic errors from non-
312 carbonate alkalinity, reducing average uncertainties of 6.8% for DIC, 7.0% for HCO_3^- ,
313 and 38.7% for dissolved CO_2 (Fig. S2).

314

315 To estimate potential CO_2 emissions from the study lakes, we calculated aqueous
316 $p\text{CO}_2$, k and areal CO_2 flux (Fig. [21](#)). These lakes had a broad range of aqueous $p\text{CO}_2$
317 levels, spanning from 20 to 13479 μatm across sampling locations (Fig. [1b2a](#)). We
318 found that extreme drought ($4437 \pm 3468 \mu\text{atm}$) unexpectedly caused a ~five-fold

319 increase in mean $p\text{CO}_2$ relative to initial- ($804 \pm 1080 \mu\text{atm}$) and post-wet periods
320 ($928 \pm 1728 \mu\text{atm}$, $p < 0.001$), which can escalate to ~ten-fold when considering
321 median $p\text{CO}_2$ (Fig. 4b2a). Indeed, our dataset reveals that 61% of samples were
322 oversaturated with CO_2 relative to atmospheric equilibrium (Fig. S1), attributable to
323 high $p\text{CO}_2$ levels during extreme droughts. Gas transfer velocity k showed no
324 significant temporal shifts ($p > 0.05$), ranging from $0.37\text{--}2.28 \text{ m d}^{-1}$ with a mean of
325 $0.62 \pm 0.26 \text{ m d}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4e2b). This is slightly lower than previously reported global
326 average of 0.74 m d^{-1} from a similar empirical model based on wind speed (Raymond
327 et al., 2013). We estimated areal CO_2 flux to be $42 \pm 79 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (range: $-24\text{--}459$
328 $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) from the karst lakes. However, it is also noted that the bulk of samples
329 during wet periods were undersaturated (Fig. 4d2c). We show that the extreme
330 drought increased areal CO_2 efflux sharply ($111 \pm 104 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), relative to
331 initial- ($6 \pm 22 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and post-wet periods ($10 \pm 26 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) in our
332 observed episode ($p < 0.001$). Our findings, therefore, may partially deviate from the
333 previous understanding of aquatic karst carbon sinks (An et al., 2015; Binet et al.,
334 2020; Liu et al., 2010), indicating that karst lakes could be a significant source of CO_2
335 driven by extreme drought events.

336

337 **3.2. DOC composition, origin and fate**

338 We used spectroscopic and molecular methods to assess DOC composition, origin and
339 fate (Fig. 2-3 and 34). Aqueous DOC concentrations had a ~30-fold variation (range:
340 $0.76\text{--}22.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) across the samplings (Fig. 2a3a). Extreme drought apparently

341 elevated DOC concentrations to an average of $12.4 \pm 3.7 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, relative to initial-
342 ($5.4 \pm 2.3 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) and post-wet periods ($5.7 \pm 1.6 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) ($p < 0.001$). DOC
343 aromaticity descended significantly across the periods, with initial-wet > post-wet >
344 extreme drought ($p < 0.01$), as suggested by SUVA_{254} . By contrast, relative molecular
345 weight of DOC, indicated by $S_{275-295}$, was higher during extreme-drought period than
346 wet periods ($p < 0.05$). We were able to identify DOC fluorescent component through
347 PARAFAC, demonstrating two distinct humic-like (both classified as C1) and one
348 tryptophan-like DOC (C2) across the periods (Fig. 2b3b). The temporal abundances
349 differed significantly ($p < 0.001$), with %C1 > %C2 during the extreme drought
350 yet %C1 < %C2 during wet conditions (Fig. S4). These karst waters received both
351 allochthonous and autochthonous inputs, with 80% of samples falling within the FI
352 range of 1.4–1.9 (Fig. 2e3c). As suggested by BIX, we found biologically produced
353 young DOC was more abundant during initial-wet than extreme-drought period ($p <$
354 0.05). However, DOC humification proxied by HIX was notably greater during the
355 extreme drought than that in the wet conditions ($p < 0.01$).

356

357 We identified~~It captured the~~ molecular formulas for a total of 8060, 8636 and
358 8403 FT-ICR-MS compounds in lake LMH, HFH and BHH, respectively (Fig. 3a).
359 The molecular formulas were classified into distinct categories based on H/C and O/C
360 distributions, as well as exact mass in van Krevelen Diagram (Fig. 3a4a). The study
361 lakes showed a similar range of DOM exact mass, varying from 114.031694 to
362 1121.181055 Da. We suggest that these lakes were governed by low-molecular-weight

363 DOM, with 80%, 74%, and 77% of the detected molecules for LMH, HFH, and BHH
364 having an exact mass < 500 Da, respectively. The summed intensity was highly
365 variable for each DOM molecular category, notably with lignin compounds (or
366 carboxy-rich acyclic molecules) comprising 83%–84%, followed by saturated
367 compounds at 11%–13% across lakes. Amino-sugars also represented a notable 1.8%–
368 2.3%, while carbohydrate, tannins, unsaturated hydrocarbons and condensed aromatic
369 structures each occupied $\leq 1\%$ across all molecular categories. These DOM molecules
370 were largely comprised of atomic groups CHO (44.8%–49.2%), CHOS (17.2%–
371 25.5%), CHON (19.2%–26.6%) and CHONS (5.6%–6.3%) (Fig. 3e4b). Each karst
372 lake shared a comparable average AI_{mod} across FT-ICR-MS compounds ($p > 0.05$),
373 while NOSC was higher in lake BHH (-0.29 ± 0.48) than that in ~~LHM~~-LMH ($-0.32 \pm$
374 0.48) ($p < 0.01$, Fig. 3e4c).

375

376 3.3. Aquatic microbiome in the karst lakes

377 To evaluate microbial processes in the karst lakes, we examined temporal variability
378 of microbiome from 89 samples (Fig. 45). For the microbial diversity, a total of 121–
379 351 ASV (14382 sequences), 236–479 ASV (40251 sequences) and 143–445 ASV
380 (42507 sequences) were assigned during the extreme-drought, initial-wet and post-wet
381 periods, respectively (Fig. S5). Rainfall increased microbial richness and diversity in
382 the aquatic environment (Fig. 4a5a), as indicated by Chao (initial wet > post wet >
383 extreme drought, $p < 0.05$) and Shannon (initial wet > post wet and extreme drought,
384 $p < 0.05$). However, microbial coverage was higher in the extreme-drought period (p

385 < 0.01). The top 3 microorganisms were *Acinetobacter*, *CL500-29_marine_group* and
386 *Cyanobium_PCC-6307* at genus level, with the average relative abundances of 11.6%
387 $\pm 10.3\%$, $10.3\% \pm 5.58\%$ and $5.68\% \pm 3.91\%$, respectively (Fig. 4b5b). *Acinetobacter*
388 and *CL500-29_marine_group*, important for C catabolism, had increased relative
389 abundance during the extreme drought. By contrast, photosynthetic microorganisms
390 *Cyanobium_PCC-6307* and *g_norank_f_norank_o_Chloroplast* were more
391 abundant during the initial-wet period (Fig. 4b5b). Therefore, we found that amino
392 acid catabolism was significant under extreme droughts, while carbohydrate
393 anabolism was predominant under wet conditions (Fig. 4e5c, $p < 0.001$).

394

395 **4. Discussion**

396 **4.1. Temporal interactions of aquatic microbiome with dissolved C dynamics**

397 Karst aquatic ecosystems, with rapid kinetics of carbonate chemistry and biological
398 metabolism involved, may develop associated strategies for dissolved C turnover (He
399 et al., 2024; Ni et al., 2023; Xi et al., 2024). Here, our results show the consistent
400 shifts of dissolved C with aquatic microbiome in karst lakes. Extreme droughts, for
401 instance, set the stage for substantial proliferation of heterotrophic microbes (Fig.
402 4b5b) and thus microbial degradation of enriched DOC (Fig. 2a3a). As labile DOC is
403 exhausted, these microbes are compelled to metabolize typically more refractory
404 DOC. This aligns with recent observations in karst and thermokarst lakes (Hu et al.,
405 2023; Ni et al., 2022), as also evidenced by the parallel increase in CO₂ levels (Fig.
406 4b2) and decrease in DOC aromaticity (Fig. 2a3a), suggesting that in-lake aromatic

407 compounds are partially labile during extreme droughts. By analysing DOC molecular
408 composition, we specifically found that N-containing, rather than S-containing
409 aromatics are more bioavailable for heterotrophic microorganisms (Fig. S6 and
410 Supplement table S1).

411

412 Rainfall accelerates atmospheric CO₂ uptake and CO₃²⁻ generation in karst
413 aquatic environments (Zhao et al., 2024), which, combined with photosynthetic
414 uptake of DIC, provides conditions for the enhancement of photosynthetic
415 microorganisms (Fig. 4b5b). This explains the consistently low CO₂ levels during wet
416 periods (Fig. 4b2a), aside from the known dilution effect (Ni et al., 2019). Here, we
417 suggest that initial rainfall following extreme droughts substantially boosts microbial
418 richness and diversity (Fig. 4a5a), possibly due to amplified terrestrial inputs and
419 rejuvenated aquatic biology (Fig. S7). Moreover, we were able to examine the
420 associations between DOC molecular compositions and microorganisms, revealing
421 that photosynthetic microorganisms generate substantial quantities of biodegradable
422 DOC e.g., carbohydrate and lipid-like compounds (Fig. S6 and Supplement table S1).
423 Therefore, our results indicate season-specific microbial strategies for dissolved C
424 metabolism in karst lakes.

425

426 **4.2. Specific pathways governing karst lake CO₂ flux**

427 Microbiome-driven dissolved C turnover can further alter CO₂ dynamics, especially
428 in lakes with long-term hydraulic retention and active biological processes (Lindström

429 and Bergström, 2004). Our results show that the photosynthesis-driven associations
430 between microbiome, dissolved C, and CO₂ flux emerged substantially during initial-
431 wet periods (Fig. S8). Studies previously predicted self-amplifying photosynthesis
432 driven by carbonate dissolution in karst waters (He et al., 2022a; Liu et al., 2010).
433 Here, we present direct evidence that photosynthetic microorganisms dominate the
434 microbial communities during the initial-wet period (Fig. 4b5b). Extreme drought,
435 however, decouples the linkages between dissolved C and CO₂ flux from
436 photosynthetic microorganisms. Respiration of DOC e.g., tryptophan-like component
437 in turn fuels lake CO₂ during the extreme-drought period (Fig. S8). Our data allow us
438 to extrapolate that amino acids, aliphatic compounds and small molecular organic
439 acids serve as primary substrates driving CO₂ production and emissions in these lakes
440 (Fig. S9 and Supplement table S1).

441

442 Using SEM, we clearly demonstrate the specific pathways governing lake CO₂
443 transfer across the periods (Fig. 56). Our observations reinforce that extreme droughts
444 stimulate microbial metabolism of aromatic DOC and contribute to CO₂ outgassing
445 from the study lakes (Fig. 5a6a). Nevertheless, an alternative C metabolism pathway
446 emerged during the initial-wet period
447 (Fig. 5a6a): photosynthetic microorganisms constrain DIC species and subsequent
448 CO₂ flux in lakes. This photosynthetic pathway persisted during the post-wet period,
449 yet we found a specific pathway involving aquatic microbes that promotes a decrease
450 in molecular size and subsequent increases in humic-like abundance (Fig. 5a6a). This

451 observation aligns with a previous study in karst aquatic ecosystems (Xia et al., 2022),
452 suggesting that intense photosynthesis produces labile compounds and subsequently
453 activates the catabolism of DOC pool, ultimately resulting in the selective
454 accumulation of recalcitrant compounds. These findings, complement prior evidence
455 from biodegradation assays (Ni et al., 2022), providing a new insight into
456 photosynthetic products triggering significant microbial activities and dissolved C
457 turnover in karst lakes.

458

459 **4.3. Implications for biologically driven C cycling in karst waters**

460 Karst aquatic ecosystems typically represent strong interactions between microbial
461 metabolism and dissolved C turnover, driven by the known “biological C pump” (Yi
462 et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2024). While the specific C sink from this mechanism is
463 well-documented (Cao et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2021), the causes of
464 periodic C evasion from karst waters are still questionable. In this study, we propose
465 that ~~the observed extreme-extreme-drought events~~ yielded large CO₂ emissions from
466 the karst lakes, increasing >10 times on average relative to wet conditions (Fig. ~~1d~~2c).
467 Droughts apparently accelerate ~~DOC-fuelled heterotrophic respiration heterotrophic-~~
468 ~~respiration of DOC~~, acting as a primary mechanism fuelling in-lake CO₂. Drought-
469 enriched heterotrophic microorganisms extensively deplete labile DOC, and even
470 resort to metabolizing previously recognized recalcitrant compounds. Aromatic DOC,
471 for instance, characterized by microbial resistance, has recently been reported to be
472 activated through photochemistry (Hu et al., 2023). Here, our results demonstrate a

473 clear mechanism by which microbial degradation of N-containing aromatic
474 compounds contributes to C metabolism (Fig. S6), indicating that extreme droughts
475 suppress biological C sink in karst lakes.

476

477 Wet conditions in karst lakes, in contrast, show a distinct pathway governed by
478 aquatic photosynthesis (Fig. ~~S6b~~), aligning with the prior theory regarding karst
479 biological C sink (Liu et al., 2018). This stimulates a substantial uptake of CO₂ and
480 thus limit lake C emission. Our observations provide direct evidence that
481 photosynthetic microorganisms produce carbohydrates and promote the formation of
482 lipid-like (Fig. S6) as well as other low-molecular-weight compounds (Fig. S8). These
483 labile DOC quickly engage in subsequent biological processes, accelerating the
484 proliferation of heterotrophic microorganisms. Our efforts to upscale this mechanism
485 demonstrate a clear causality: 1) catabolism of photosynthetically derived labile DOC
486 stimulates heterotrophic microorganism growth; 2) recalcitrant DOC accumulates
487 relatively as heterotrophic respiration increases, even though aromatic compounds are
488 partially utilized; and 3) a priming effect is triggered, promoting both labile DOC
489 mineralization to CO₂ and the sequestration of recalcitrant DOC. These findings
490 highlight that biologically driven organic C turnover critically determine the CO₂
491 uptake or release in karst aquatic ecosystems.

492

493 Overall, consistent with our hypothesis we initially hypothesized, wet-dry
494 seasonality shifted microbial metabolic strategies and altered temporally structured

495 ~~turnover between DIC and DOC, thereby regulating CO₂ uptake and evasion in the~~
496 ~~karst lakes. aquatic microbiome interacts with dissolved C dynamics, establishing the~~
497 ~~distinctive CO₂ driving mechanisms that particularly fluctuate with biochemical~~
498 ~~timing in karst lakes.~~ It is anticipated that pulses of CO₂ emissions will occur after wet
499 conditions end, particularly under drought conditions, as a result of rapid decay of
500 photosynthetically derived organic C. Therefore, managing C sink in karst aquatic
501 systems depends heavily on mitigating the sudden bursts of DOC respiration,
502 especially the dramatic increased CO₂ release during extreme droughts. Our results
503 indicate that wet conditions significantly enhance biological strategies for CO₂ uptake
504 in karst aquatic ecosystems, highlighting the crucial role of mitigating climate change-
505 induced droughts in strengthening karst C sink.

506

507 **4. Conclusion**

508 Karst lakes represent distinctive microbial pathways for dissolved C metabolism and
509 subsequent CO₂ sequestration or emission. Here, we specifically reveal the temporal
510 dynamics of CO₂ fluxes driven by periodic interactions between aquatic microbiome
511 and dissolved C turnover in the study karst lakes. We show that extreme droughts
512 accelerate the proliferation of heterotrophic microbes and thus rapid respiration of
513 DOC, resulting in a sharp increase in CO₂ emissions. By contrast, wet conditions
514 stimulate aquatic photosynthesis, which consumes DIC and sequesters CO₂ within the
515 lakes. We highlight that exhausted DOC compels heterotrophic microorganisms to
516 metabolize refractory N-containing aromatic compounds, while photosynthetic

517 microorganisms promote the formation of labile DOC compounds. These specific
518 microbial strategies indicate that in our observed episode, pulsed CO₂ outgassing from
519 karst lakes may occurs after periods of high photosynthetic activity, with the
520 magnitude being significantly amplified during extreme droughts. Therefore, we
521 propose that managing periodic CO₂ outgassing, particularly during droughts, is
522 essential for developing C neutrality in karst waters.

523

524 **Code/Data availability**

525 The full dataset used for the evaluation of this study is publicly available at
526 <https://figshare.com/s/7475752c5f7b19718199>.

527

528 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

529 All authors agree to this submission and declare that there are no conflicts of interest
530 regarding the publication of this article

531

532 **Author contributions**

533 The project was conceived by M.N. and Z.K. M.N. directed and managed the study,
534 as well as prepared the first draft of the manuscript. Z.K. collected and analysed
535 samples, contributed to data interpretation and paper writing. G.Z. specified the
536 experimental conditions and measured CO₂ data. W.L. specified the experimental
537 conditions and contributed to CO₂ data analysis and interpretation. J.P. conceptualized
538 dissolved carbon turnover in this study, and contributed to data interpretation and

539 paper writing. X.L. performed the structural equation model and generated its original
540 figure. J.C. and J.Z. and X.W. provided comments on the manuscript. All authors
541 reviewed and contributed to the final manuscript.

542

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554

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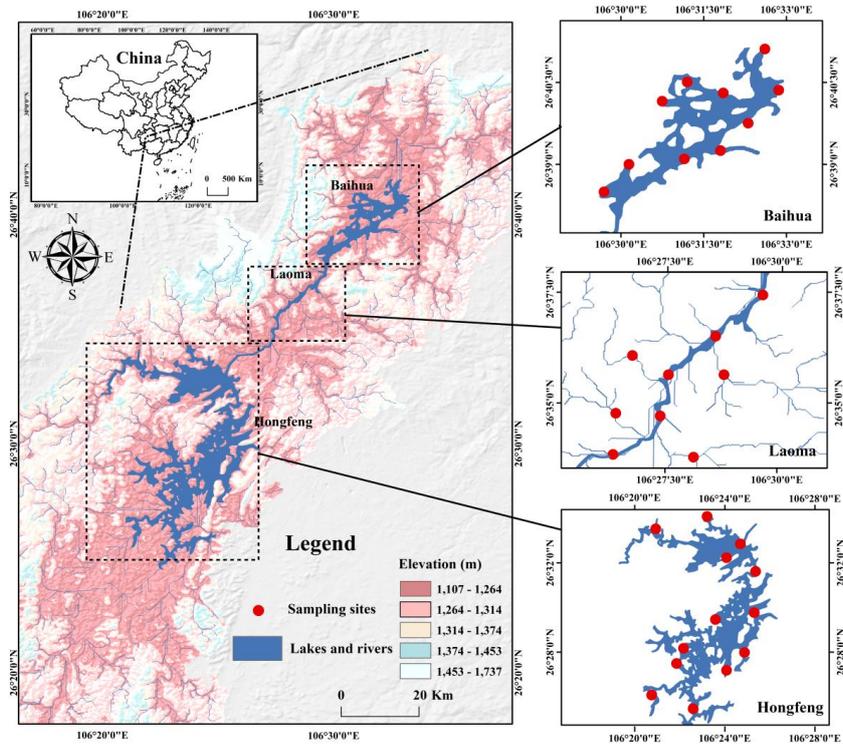
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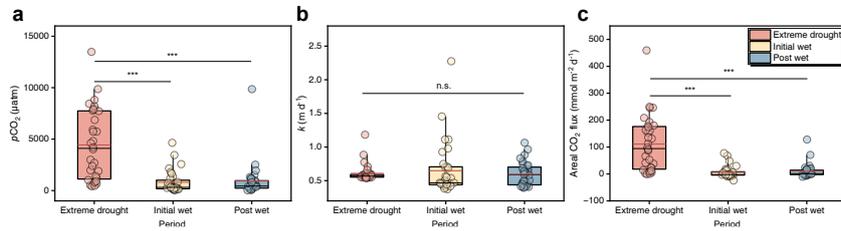
738 **Figures:**



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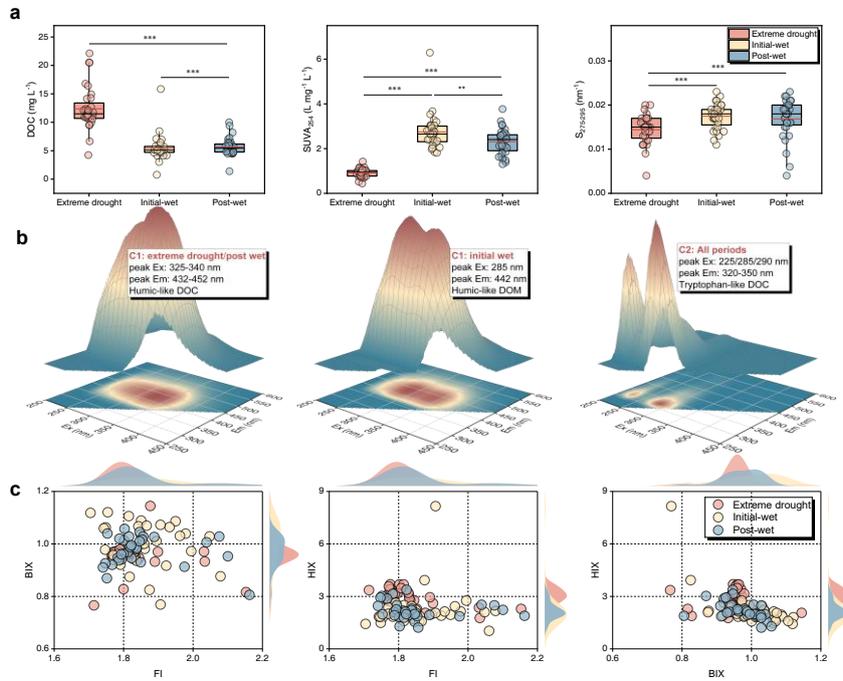
740 **Fig. 1.** Map showing DEM information and distribution of sampling locations in the

741 karst lakes.



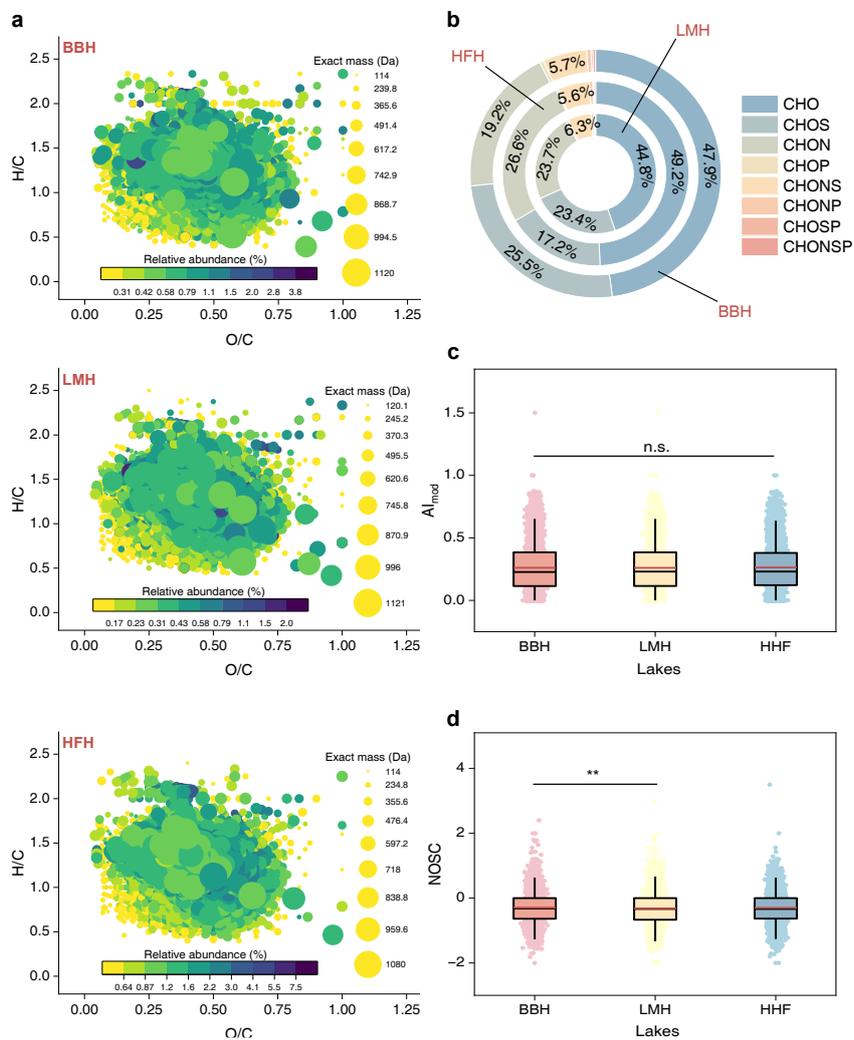
742

743 **Fig. 2.** Temporal patterns of $p\text{CO}_2$ (a), k (b) and areal CO_2 flux (c) across extreme
 744 drought, initial wet and post wet periods. The boxes with bars represent 25%–75%
 745 percentiles with 5%–95% percentiles. Black lines, white lines and dots show median,
 746 mean and all data, respectively. Asterisks indicate statistical significance: * $p < 0.05$,
 747 ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; while n.s. indicates not significant ($p > 0.05$).



748

749 **Fig. 3.** Spectroscopic characteristics of DOC in the karst lakes. (a) Temporal patterns
 750 of DOC, SUVA₂₅₄ and S₂₇₅₋₂₉₅ over the study periods. Symbols and lines follow the
 751 same definitions as in Fig. 2. (b) 3D view of primary DOC fluorophores identified by
 752 PARAFAC analysis. (c) Distributions of FI, BIX and HIX over the study periods.
 753 Dots correspond to all data of these fluorescent parameters. The waves show Kernel
 754 Smooth distributions of the data.



755

756 **Fig. 4.** Molecular characteristics of DOC in the karst lakes. (a) van Krevelen

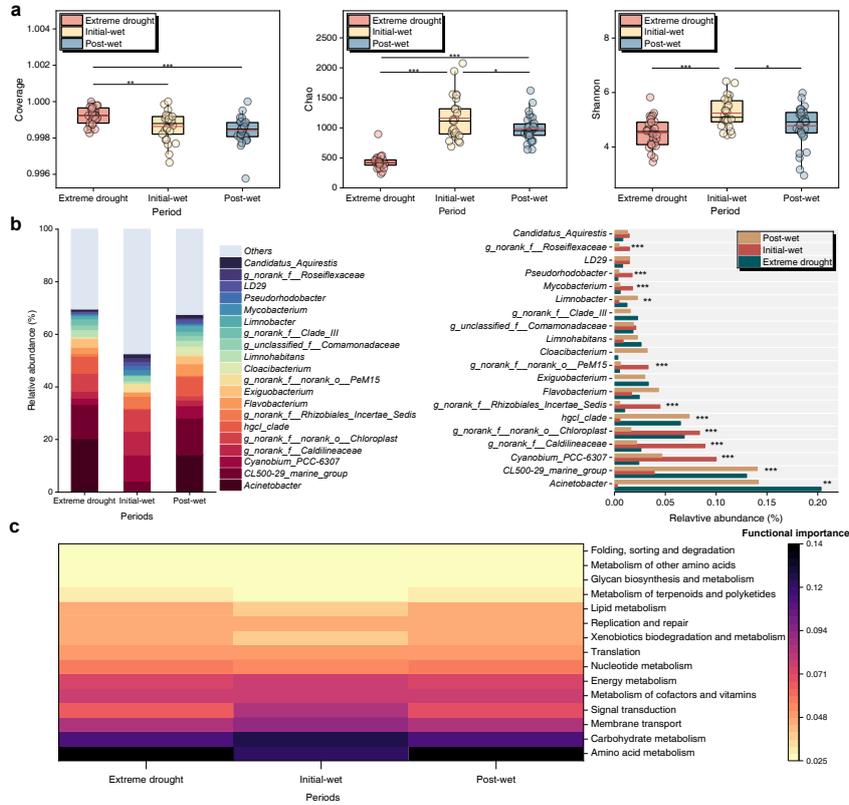
757 Diagrams plotting H/C against O/C with exact mass information of DOC molecules.

758 (b) Proportions of primary DOC molecular formulas across the lakes. The AI-mod (c)

759 and NOSC (d) across lakes. Symbols and lines follow the same definitions as in Fig.

760 2.

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762

763 **Fig. 5.** Temporal variability of microbial communities and functions in the karst lakes.

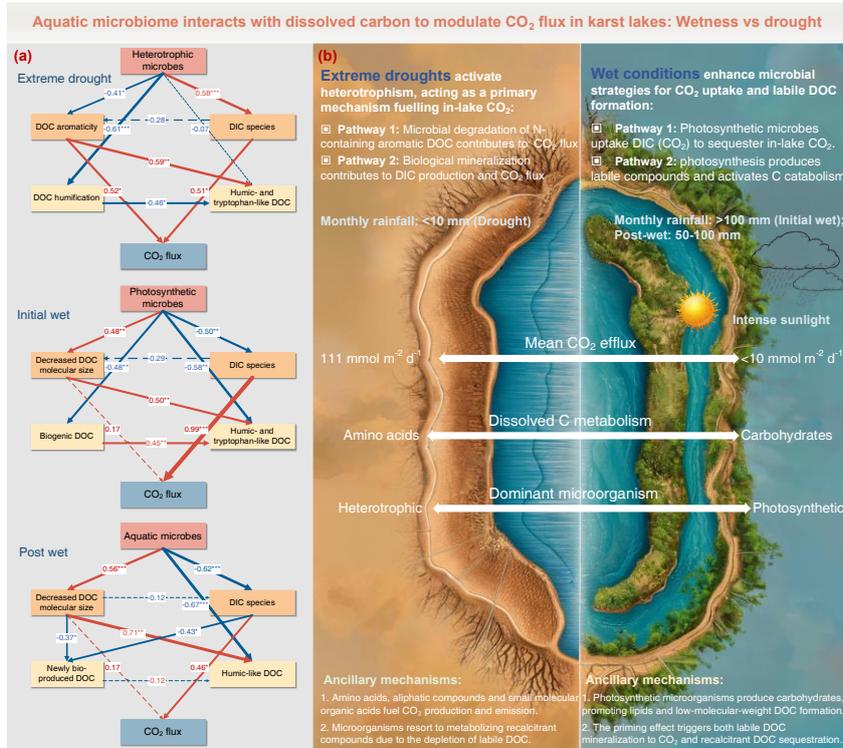
764 (a) Alpha diversity indices regarding Coverage, Chao and Shannon over the study

765 periods. Symbols and lines follow the same definitions as in Fig. 2. (b) Comparison of

766 the top 20 genera identified by relative abundance. (c) Potential microbial functions

767 predicted by Tax4Fun based on the KEGG database.

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770 **Fig. 6.** Temporal pathways of aquatic microbiome-dissolved C interactions involved
 771 in CO₂ emission modulation in karst lakes. (a) The structural equation model showing
 772 temporal pathways of CO₂ flux driven by microbial communities and DIC-DOC
 773 turnover. Red and blue arrows represent positive and negative effects, respectively.
 774 Path coefficients are shown along the arrows. (b) A conceptual framework illustrating
 775 how microbiome interacts with dissolved carbon to modulate CO₂ emissions.

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780 **Table 1.** Temporal patterns of pH, water temperature, total alkalinity and DIC species
 781 in the karst lakes.

	n	Min	Max	Median	Mean	Std. Dev
Extreme drought						
pH	32	6.71	8.30	7.20	7.40	0.48
Water temperature (°C)	32	14.5	19.5	16.2	16.2	0.99
Total alkalinity (µeq L ⁻¹)	32	2325.7	4940.9	2726.5	2960.5	703.2
DIC (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	2405.0	5272.5	2828.5	3114.2	668.8
HCO ₃ ⁻ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	2290.3	4895.5	2645.1	2878.6	655.0
CO ₃ ²⁻ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	3.95	244.6	16.0	40.9	51.3
Dissolved CO ₂ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	18.0	602.4	177.0	194.7	153.5
Initial-wet						
pH	32	7.36	9.12	8.33	8.25	0.38
Water temperature (°C)	32	23.9	31.0	26.6	26.9	1.75
Total alkalinity (µeq L ⁻¹)	32	2178.7	6210.8	2895.3	3235.3	978.4
DIC (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	1538.7	6206.0	2688.8	3014.9	1042.5
HCO ₃ ⁻ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	918.4	5970.6	2428.0	2745.2	1073.0
CO ₃ ²⁻ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	35.7	752.7	218.2	243.5	155.1
Dissolved CO ₂ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	0.58	160.3	10.4	26.2	36.0
Post-wet						
pH	32	6.80	9.15	8.22	8.18	0.47
Water temperature (°C)	32	12.9	29.5	27.1	25.8	3.45
Total alkalinity (µeq L ⁻¹)	32	2239.7	5435.0	2795.5	3133.6	862.9
DIC (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	2096.8	5180.7	2576.5	2908.9	777.2
HCO ₃ ⁻ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	1546.7	4863.6	2441.5	2623.8	758.1
CO ₃ ²⁻ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	6.27	887.9	195.5	253.5	222.5
Dissolved CO ₂ (µmol L ⁻¹)	32	1.04	315.9	14.3	31.6	57.1

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