



1 **Warming vs. browning: a dual mechanism behind net ecosystem production of shallow**
2 **brown aquatic systems**

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12 **Abstract**

13 Northern lakes are warming and browning due to increased cDOM inputs, altering water column C:N:P
14 ratios and temperatures that regulate photoautotrophic and heterotrophic production. Yet the relative
15 importance of warming versus browning, and their combined effects on nutrient stoichiometry and
16 microbial dynamics remain unclear. We experimentally manipulated boreal ponds along a cDOM
17 gradient under ambient and +2 °C warming to quantify impacts on nutrient conditions and microbial
18 production. Browning shifted C:N:P stoichiometry in both total and dissolved pools, with increased C:N
19 and C:P ratios in the total nutrient pools, while reducing relative inorganic nutrient availability. Despite
20 declining N:P ratios in both total and dissolved pools, both pools were strongly carbon-saturated and
21 depleted in both N and P. Nutrient-addition assays confirmed NP co-limitation. Browning increased
22 bacterial production, while browning and warming combined reduced primary production, lowering
23 PP:BP ratios, although net heterotrophy didn't occur, likely because the ponds were so shallow. We
24 show that browning -not warming- drives boreal freshwaters toward carbon-rich, N- and P- colimited
25 conditions, while warming and browning together modulate microbial production by amplifying
26 DOC-driven heterotrophy and suppressing photoautotrophic production. Our study reveals a dual
27 mechanism behind the shifting of brown systems toward net heterotrophy. As browning and warming
28 are pervasive trends across Northern Hemisphere lakes, these findings have wide applicability and
29 advance general understanding of how freshwater ecosystems respond to ongoing environmental
30 change.



31 **1. Introduction**

32 Widespread browning of lakes and rivers due to increased mobilization of terrestrial dissolved organic
33 matter and carbon (DOM and DOC) from forest soils, wetlands, and thawing permafrost is transforming
34 northern freshwaters. This terrestrially derived DOM is typically humic, highly colored, and often
35 released together with associated substances including iron (Kritzberg and Ekström 2012;
36 Weyhenmeyer et al. 2014) and nutrients (Jones 1992; Evans et al. 2005; Stetler et al. 2021). These
37 co-mobilized constituents further darken the water and modify the availability and stoichiometry
38 (“ratios”) of carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus (Berggren et al. 2014; Isles et al. 2018, 2020), thereby
39 shaping microbial activity and altering biogeochemical functioning in lakes (Solomon et al. 2015; Creed
40 et al. 2018).

41 Browning interacts strongly with warming. High DOC concentrations frequently occur in warmer,
42 lower-latitude boreal regions, and the shallow morphology typical of boreal lakes makes them prone to
43 strong and long thermal stratification, and disproportionately increasing surface water temperatures (Pilla
44 et al. 2018; Puts et al. 2023a). The surface water (epilimnion) of stratified boreal lakes is mainly
45 influenced by external inputs of elements from catchments. Hence in addition to disproportional
46 warming, intensified and prolonged stratification during summer can increase DOM and nutrient
47 concentrations in surface waters (Bergström and Jansson 2000; Puts et al. 2025), compounding the
48 effects of browning on metabolic balance and resource availability especially in surface layers.

49 Both browning and warming influence microbial production, yet their effects differ between
50 photoautotrophic and bacterial phytoplankton. Moderately increased DOM (approx. DOC < 11 mg/L)
51 can stimulate algal production through nutrient supplementation, whereas high DOM (DOC > 11 mg /
52 L) suppresses algal growth via light limitation (Hanson et al. 2003; Jones and Lennon 2015). Warming
53 may enhance algal growth rates but can also reduce standing biomass when cells compensate for thermal
54 stress (Filiz et al. 2020; Liu et al. 2022). Indeed, phytoplankton shows complex responses to browning
55 and warming over large scales (Paltsev et al. 2024). In contrast, bacterial production typically continues
56 to increase along the DOM gradient, as well as with higher temperatures (Del Giorgio and Cole 1998;
57 Berggren et al. 2010b; a), resulting in a trend toward greater heterotrophy at higher levels of browning
58 and warming. Growing evidence therefore points to interactive effects of DOM and warming that
59 together may shift lake ecosystems from algal-dominated to bacterial-dominated production regimes,
60 with implications for CO₂ dynamics and lake metabolism (Jonsson et al. 2003; Duarte and Prairie 2005;
61 Ask et al. 2012; Lapierre et al. 2013; Bogard and del Giorgio 2016).

62 Despite these advances, the mechanistic links between browning, warming, and changes in water-
63 column stoichiometry (C:N:P) and how these stoichiometric shifts regulate primary production (PP) and
64 bacterial production (BP) remain poorly resolved. Stoichiometric constraints are expected to be
65 particularly important during the ice-off period, when nutrient availability and microbial demand change



66 rapidly. Moreover, in organic-rich systems that are abundant at northern latitudes, high concentrations
67 of organic nutrients are also expected, which bioavailability may depend on the composition of DOM
68 (Berggren et al. 2014, 2025; Rulli et al. 2022). Yet this pool cannot be measured directly, and the
69 bioavailability therefore remains largely unquantified. Indeed, although water stoichiometry gives
70 insights into patterns across systems, it is not a powerful predictor for phytoplankton nutritional
71 constraints (Ptacnik et al. 2010). Therefore, to understand true phytoplankton nutritional constraints,
72 classic nutrient limitation assays (Harpole et al. 2011), where inorganic nutrients are added to brown
73 waters may provide a better understanding of true nutrient limitation in brown systems than assessing
74 water stoichiometry and microbial production alone.

75 Here, we experimentally test how browning and warming shape water stoichiometry and microbial
76 production during the ice-off season. We manipulated a natural colored DOM (cDOM) gradient in
77 boreal ponds under ambient and +2 °C warming to quantify effects on (1) total and dissolved inorganic
78 C:N:P stoichiometry of the water, (2) phytoplankton responses in inorganic nutrient-addition assays and
79 (3) net ecosystem production by measuring PP, BP, and their ratio (PP:BP) with a lower ratio indicating
80 increased heterotrophy. Our approach allows us to disentangle the individual and combined effects of
81 browning and 2°C warming on early-season microbial dynamics (photoautotrophic vs heterotrophic
82 production) in boreal freshwaters.

83 **2. Material & Methodology**

84 **2.1. Experimental approach and setup**

85 We experimentally established a colored dissolved organic matter (cDOM) gradient under ambient and
86 +2 °C warmed conditions. We monitored effects on water chemistry (dissolved and total nutrients, and
87 dissolved organic carbon (DOC)) in seven samplings. We additionally monitored bacterial production,
88 primary production, dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), as well as phytoplankton responses to nutrient
89 amendments (nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), N+P) in three sampling events. The experimental treatments
90 began in autumn 2017, and monitoring ran from 7 May 2018 to 3 September 2018, which was an
91 exceptionally warm summer (Blunden and Arndt 2019). The experiment was conducted at the
92 Experimental Ecosystem Facility (EXEF) in Umeå (Sweden) using 16 treatment ponds and 4 buffer
93 ponds to separate temperature treatments. We aimed for a 4x2 factorial design, with 4 DOC treatments
94 in duplicate (DOC categories “Control”, “Low”, “Mid” and “High”) and 2 temperature treatments. We
95 interpret actual DOC concentrations rather than categorical DOC treatments.

96 The EXEF ponds (11.5 × 6.7 m and ~1.5 m deep) are naturally functioning ecosystems with soft
97 sediments, primary producers, and invertebrate consumers and a natural shoreline. The cDOM gradient
98 was created by continuously mixing cDOM-rich water from the nearby Hörneån river with low-cDOM
99 municipal tap water. The seasonal average (± SD) DOC concentrations ranged from 1.4 to 21.3 mg L⁻¹.



100 DOC served as an effective proxy for cDOM, and the warming treatment was successfully established
101 with an average temperature difference of 1.8 °C between warmed and ambient ponds (Puts et al.
102 2023b). Ponds were fish-free until 11 May 2018, when 43 sticklebacks were added to each pond, and
103 zooplankton biomass was low while periphytic biomass was relatively high compared to phytoplankton
104 production. One ambient control pond was excluded due to turbidity caused by a muskrat. Specifics
105 about the experimental water used, and management of the experimental treatments are available in
106 (Capo et al. 2021; Koizumi et al. 2023; Puts et al. 2023b).

107 **2.2. Water physico chemistry**

108 We collected water just below the surface using a 0.6 m long sampler and stored the samples in 1 L
109 bottles with minimal headspace. Samples were kept dark and processed immediately in the laboratory
110 on the same day. We monitored total and dissolved N and P (TN, TP, DIN (NO_x + NH₄⁺), and PO₄³⁻),
111 DOC, and pH every three weeks starting 7 May during seven samplings, and DIC in three samplings
112 (concerted with primary production). Water for DOC, DIN, and PO₄³⁻ was filtered (0.45 µm, Sarstedt
113 Filtrapur) and DOC samples were acidified to 12 mM HCl and refrigerated, and TN, TP, DIN, and PO₄³⁻
114 frozen. DOC was analyzed through high-temperature combustion using a Formacs HT-I analyzer
115 (Skalar), and nutrients on a segmented flow analyzer (QuAatro, SEAL Analytical GmbH, Norderstedt,
116 Germany). DIC samples (used for primary production measurements) were prepared by injecting 4 mL
117 air-free water into N₂-flushed, tightly sealed 18 mL glass vials containing 0.1 mL 1.2 M HCl, and
118 analyzed on a Clarus 500 gas chromatograph (Perkin Elmer) using N₂ as carrier gas.

119 **2.3. Bacterial and primary production, and nutrient amendment assays.**

120 Pelagic primary- and bacterial production (PP and BP) were measured using isotopic tracers from water
121 acquired in the same way as water for physico chemistry. The BP was measured every sampling (in total
122 seven samplings) by incubating the water in triplicates with an isotopically labeled tracer (³H, leucine)
123 in the laboratory as soon as possible after the water sample was acquired. The water was incubated for
124 approximately 1 hour at in situ temperature in the dark, according to Smith & Azam (1992). We
125 measured PP during 3 sampling events, using a ¹⁴C isotopic tracer as described by (Schindler et al.
126 1972). We filled transparent glass bottles in triplicate, and one dark bottle, with pond water. Bottles were
127 incubated in-situ at 0.5m for 4h during midday, and the production was corrected for light factor which
128 was calculated using continuous PAR measurements. Reported values represent the average of the three
129 light incubations minus the dark incubation.

130 We tested the responses of chlorophyll-a (chl_a) to nutrient additions in assays where we added 500 mL
131 pond water to transparent polyethylene bottles, with control (no added nutrients), +N, +P, and +NP
132 treatments, each with triplicate incubations. Nitrogen and phosphorus were added as NH₄NO₃ and
133 KH₂PO₄ in amounts that increased bottle concentrations by 10 µg P L⁻¹ and 100 µg N L⁻¹, respectively.
134 We did these assays only in the control, mid, and high DOC treatment ponds for each temperature



135 treatment (no duplicate ponds: specifically, pond ID 15, 19, 16; vs 3, 2, 7, for the ambient vs warmed
136 treatments, and control, mid, high DOC treatments). Bottles were incubated for approximately 72 hours.
137 We did not filter water for zooplankton, but the biomass was very low due to high predation pressure
138 (Koizumi et al. 2023). We measured chl_a as endpoint, by filtering 100 mL on GF/F Whatman filters and
139 storing them in the freezer. We extracted chl_a in 95% ethanol for 24 h and measured on a LS-55
140 luminescence spectrophotometer with excitation and emission wavelengths set to 433 and 673 nm,
141 respectively.

142 2.4. Data analysis

143 We assessed whether the browning and temperature treatments independently (“Base model”) or
144 additively (“interactive”) explained variation in nutrient stoichiometry and production. We fitted linear
145 mixed-effects regression models that accounted for the hierarchical structure of the experiment,
146 including repeated measurements from the same experimental ponds. Response variables included
147 primary and bacterial production and their ratio (PP, BP, and PP:BP, respectively), and nutrient
148 stoichiometric ratios of total nutrient pools (DOC:TP, DOC:TN and TN:TP) and dissolved inorganic
149 pools (DIC:PO₄³⁻, DIN:PO₄³⁻, and DIC:DIN). For each response variable, we fitted two models: 1) a
150 base model assessing whether the browning and warming independently better explained variation in
151 nutrient stoichiometry and production (warming + browning), and 2) an interaction model including a
152 term where browning and warming exert independent, additive effects on predictors (warming +
153 browning + warming*browning). Pond identity was included as a random intercept to account for
154 repeated observations and among-pond variability. To assess seasonality, sampling occasion (Sampling)
155 was included as a categorical fixed effect in all models, allowing responses to vary among sampling
156 periods without assuming a linear temporal trend. All response variables were log-transformed (¹⁰log)
157 prior to analysis (Isles 2020). Models were fitted using the *lme4* package in R (Bates et al. 2015).
158 Statistical significance of fixed effects was assessed using Satterthwaite’s approximation for degrees of
159 freedom as implemented in the *lmerTest* package (Kuznetsova et al. 2017).

160 We compared Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) to evaluate the relative explanatory importance of
161 the base vs interaction model ($\Delta AIC_{\text{Int-Base}}$). This approach does not test whether either driver is
162 statistically significant, but instead evaluates which driver explains more variation in the response
163 variable. To facilitate comparison of the relative roles of browning and temperature treatments alone
164 and their combined impacts across response variables, we visualized each relationship as scatter plots
165 of the response variable against DOC.

166 We then evaluated if water stoichiometry met algal nutritional requirements in a ternary diagram, which
167 shows the relative proportions of C:N:P indexed by the algal nutrient requirement ratio (Redfield ratio).
168 We used molar concentrations of DIC, DIN, PO₄³⁻, as well as DOC, TN, and TP, which we normalized
169 relative to the Redfield ratio using the equations (Andersen et al. 2025). DIC was measured during only



170 three sampling events. Across these samplings, the standard deviation of DIC was low (15% across all
171 ponds), indicating limited variability. We therefore used the overall mean DIC when calculating
172 Redfield-normalized values for the ternary diagram. As we found that browning (not warming) is the
173 most dominant driver of total and dissolved C:N:P ratios, we do not distinguish between the temperature
174 treatments when evaluating water stoichiometry. Ternary diagrams were generated using the R package
175 *Ternary* (Smith, 2017).

176 For the nutrient-amendment assays, we calculated the natural logarithmic response ratio (RR_x) for each
177 triplicate per treatment (Control, N, P, or +NP) by dividing the chl_a concentration in each replicate per
178 treatment ($chl_{a, replicate, treatment}$) by the average chl_a concentration of the control of each treatment ($Chl_{a, control}$
179 $average, treatment$): so that $\ln RR_x = \ln (chl_{a, replicate, treatment} / Chl_{a, control average, treatment})$.

180 **3. Results & discussion**

181 **3.1. Warming vs browning: nutrient stoichiometry**

182 Browning (DOC concentration) was a strong predictor of the stoichiometry of the total nutrient pools
183 across all sampling dates, and warming did not alter these relationships along the DOC gradient (Fig. 1;
184 Table 1). In linear mixed-effects models, the estimate (Est.) indicates the direction and magnitude of the
185 relationship, i.e., the expected change in the response for a one-unit increase in the predictor. DOC
186 strongly increased DOC:TN (Est. = 0.74, $p < 0.001$) and DOC:TP (Est. = 0.75, $p < 0.001$), indicating
187 progressive C enrichment relative to N and P with browning (Fig 1A-B). This pattern is uniform across
188 browning systems across the northern hemisphere (Creed et al. 2018; Isles et al. 2020). Although
189 declines in TN:TP along the DOC gradient suggested increasing nutrient imbalance and stronger N
190 limitation, this relationship was weak (Fig 1C). Nonetheless, this effect may be underestimated, as
191 DIN:TP are shown to be better estimators for phytoplankton nutrient limitation (Bergström 2010).

192 In the dissolved nutrient pools, DOC was also an important predictor of stoichiometry (Table 1). DOC
193 marginally decreased DIC:DIN (Est. = -0.34, $p = 0.04$), strongly decreased DIC: PO_4^{3-} (Est. = -2.38, p
194 $= < 0.001$) and DIN: PO_4^{3-} (Est. = -1.14, $p = 0.0002$), indicating decreasing carbon enrichment relative to
195 dissolved nutrients along the DOC gradient (Fig 1D-F). This pattern, of increasing importance of C in
196 the total nutrient pools but decreasing importance of carbon (hence increasing importance of dissolved
197 nutrients) in the inorganic pools, reflects the increasing importance of organic nutrients along the DOC
198 gradient (Corman et al. 2018; Stetler et al. 2021; Andersen et al. 2025). The ternary plots with Redfield
199 normalized C:N:P ratios, confirm that ponds are consistently C-rich, and therefore P and N- poor relative
200 to Redfield proportions in both dissolved (DIC–DIN– PO_4^{3-}) and total (DOC–TN–TP) nutrient pools
201 throughout the sampling season (Fig. 2B-C; Fig. S1). The PO_4^{3-} and TP pools are around 0-15% and 0-
202 10% of algal nutrient requirements, respectively, while the DIN and TN pools are around 0-35%, and
203 10-30%, respectively. Most observations fell within the P-depleted and co N&P-depleted regions of



204 conceptual stoichiometric space (Fig. 2A). Stoichiometric imbalances were strongest in the dissolved
205 fraction, which showed greater carbon dominance and more pronounced seasonal variability than total
206 pools.

207 As the ponds are consistently carbon-saturated (Fig 2), it is particularly interesting to assess the N and
208 P pools. The stoichiometric optimum that approximates the Redfield ratio (N:P = 16:1, molar)
209 corresponds to a \log_{10} -transformed value of 1.2 for our molar concentrations (Figure 1). Ratios around
210 this value indicate likely nitrogen–phosphorus co-limitation, whereas higher values suggest increasing
211 phosphorus limitation and lower values indicate nitrogen limitation (Redfield 1960). In our experiment,
212 N:P ratios spanned this critical range, from just below 1.0 to >1.5, thereby capturing conditions from
213 nitrogen limitation to phosphorus limitation. Moreover, DOC quality is held constant as all ponds are
214 treated with the same DOC source, but in natural systems DOC composition varies and strongly shapes
215 its bioavailability and the resulting nutrient limitation of microbial production (Berggren et al. 2014,
216 2025; Soares et al. 2017). The mixed-effects model results indicate that in our experiment the
217 stoichiometric optimum of 1.2 occurs at a DOC concentration of 7.2 mg L⁻¹ for total pools, and 2.5 for
218 dissolved pools (not accounting for the temperature treatments). These values are way below the
219 proposed turning point of ~11 mg L⁻¹ DOC, below which primary producers are primarily nutrient-
220 limited and above which light limitation becomes more important (Hanson et al. 2003; Jones and Lennon
221 2015). Accordingly, the magnitude of the algal production peak near this transition (~11 mg L⁻¹ DOC)
222 is additionally driven by N:P nutrient stoichiometry (Kelly et al. 2018; Puts et al. 2023a). In our ponds,
223 the optimal N:P ratio occurs well below 11 mg L⁻¹ DOC, indicating that algal production is constrained
224 by suboptimal nutrient ratios rather than by light availability. This explains the observed decline in
225 primary production (Section 2.3), as light limitation in our system is unlikely (Section 2.3).

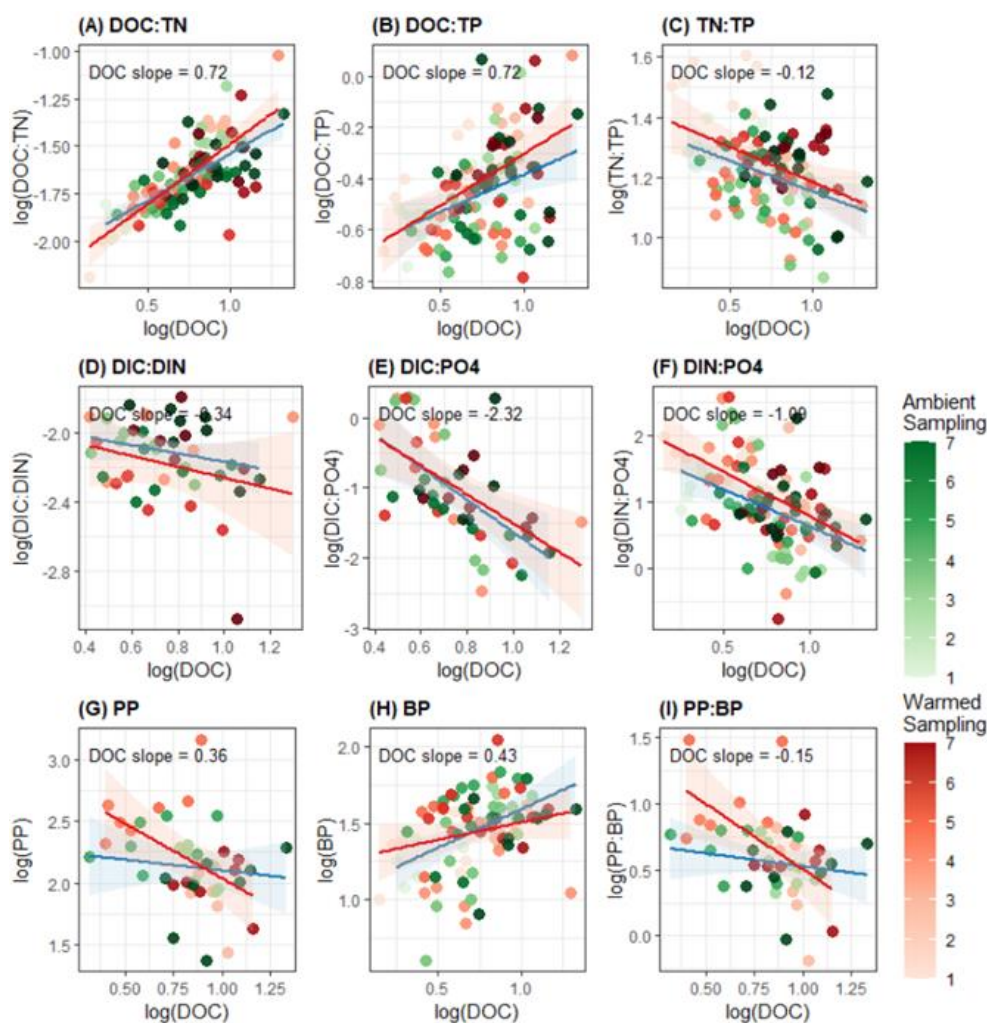
226 **3.2. The effect of 2°C warming and seasonality on nutrient stoichiometry**

227 For both total and dissolved nutrient pools, browning clearly dominated over warming, and warming
228 did not modify the DOC effect (Table 1). Interaction models provided no evidence that warming altered
229 DOC effects on total nutrient stoichiometry (with $\Delta\text{AIC}_{\text{Int-Base}}$ ranging from +0.03 to +1.45; Table 1). A
230 notable exception was DIN: PO₄³⁻, which was significantly affected by warming (Est. = 0.219, p =
231 0.038). Seasonal effects were similarly strong in both total and dissolved nutrient pools, with all pools
232 showing pronounced temporal variation. This strong seasonal signal across both pools suggests that
233 stoichiometric dynamics is not solely driven by the DOC loading within a waterbody but are also
234 regulated by seasonal (month-to-month) biogeochemical cycling (Kolzau et al. 2014). The ternary plots
235 (Fig. 2) indicate phosphorus limitation early in the season, with nitrogen becoming relatively more
236 limiting later. Seasonal differences in stoichiometry were limited in total pools, whereas dissolved pools
237 showed greater variability, particularly in May when the relative contribution of nitrogen was higher
238 than later in the season. Seasonal variability likely reflects synchronized changes in biological uptake,



239 microbial processing, and hydrological inputs (e.g., spring run-off), which jointly restructure both total
240 and dissolved nutrient pools.

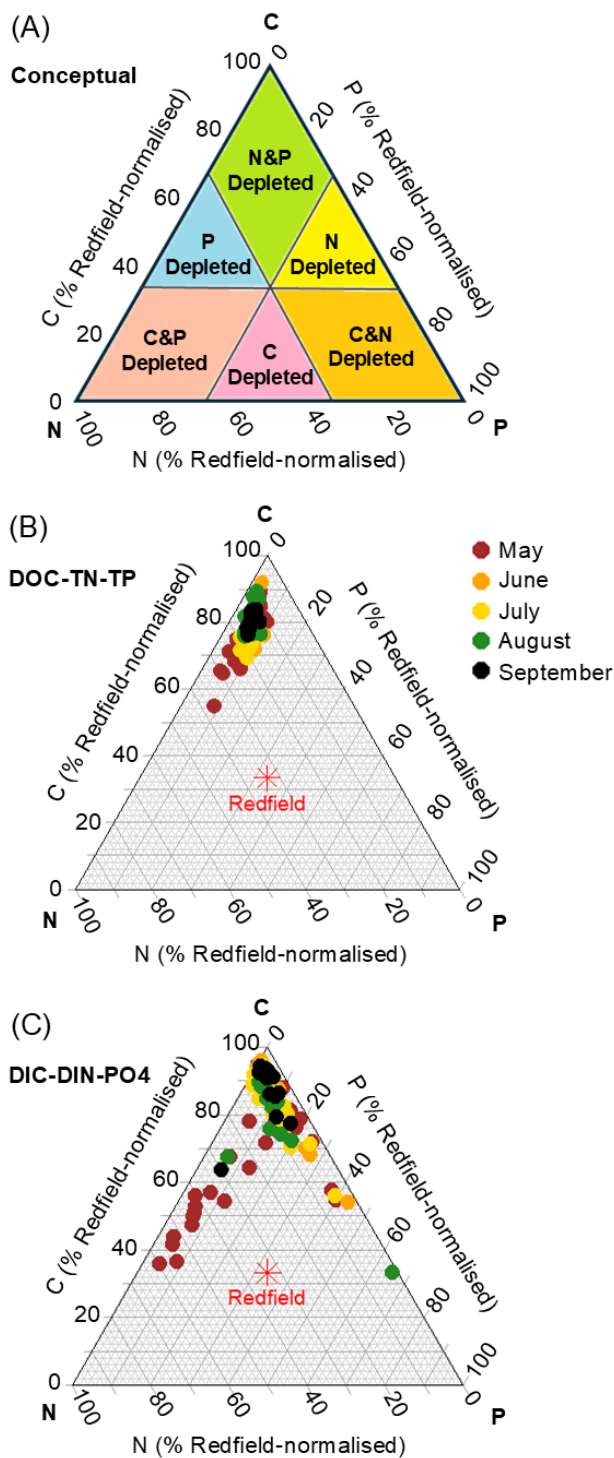
241 Together, these results suggest that organic carbon enrichment was the primary driver of stoichiometric
242 shifts in both pools, and 2°C warming does not modify these effects except for DIN: PO₄³⁻. However,
243 seasonal effects, where temperature is compounded, are observed. The observed effect of warming on
244 DIN: PO₄³⁻ suggests that temperature mainly influences fast-cycling nitrogen processes. Other
245 stoichiometric ratios from both the total and dissolved pools did not respond to warming because they
246 may be buffered by slower turnover of total nutrient pools (Sinsabaugh and Follstad Shah 2012) or
247 influenced by variation in microbial and phytoplankton community composition that can dampen the
248 direct effects of temperature on nutrient cycling.



249



250 *Figure 1:* Relationships between dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and (A-C) stoichiometry of total
251 nutrients pools, (D-F) stoichiometry of dissolved nutrient pools and (G-I) production metrics, derived
252 from linear mixed-effects models. Panels show responses of (A) DOC:TN, (B) DOC:TP, (C) TN:TP,
253 (D) DIC:DIN, (E) DIC: PO_4^{3-} , (F) DIN: PO_4^{3-} , (G) primary production (PP), (H) bacterial production
254 (BP), and (I) PP:BP to DOC (all variables log-transformed on both axes). The colored lines are fitted
255 trends from the mixed model (not raw regressions through all points). The slopes (“Est.” in text) show
256 average proportional response to browning, e.g., a 1% increase in DOC corresponds to a ~0.45%
257 increase in BP after accounting for warming, sampling date and pond identity (random effect). Note that
258 DOC concentrations in the calculated ratios are given on a molar basis, whereas the x-axis presents DOC
259 in mg L^{-1} .





261 *Figure 2:* Ternary diagrams illustrating carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and phosphorus (P) depletion relative
262 to the Redfield ratio across treatments. (A) Conceptual diagram showing regions characterized by
263 relative depletion of C, N, and P (generated ourselves, but following (Andersen et al. 2025)). (B–C)
264 Redfield-normalized C:N:P ratios for total (unfiltered) nutrients (B) and dissolved nutrients (C), with
265 points colored by sampling month.

266 **3.3. Phytoplankton nutrient limitation assays**

267 The nutrient limitation assay shows consistent N–P co-limitation across all DOC treatments, with
268 (chlorophyll- α ; chl α) responses strongest when nitrogen and phosphorus were added together.
269 Responses to P in the highest DOC treatment increased significantly compared to the control with low
270 DOC (Fig. 3A). Responses to N and P alone were low to moderate, with slight increases at higher DOC
271 concentrations. Our results are in line with large spatial studies across Sweden showing phytoplankton
272 in southern lakes are co-limited by N and P, while phytoplankton in carbon-poor northern lakes were
273 mainly N-limited (Bergström et al. 2008; Bergström 2010). DOC enrichment (browning) therefore shifts
274 the system toward stronger nutrient stress for phytoplanktonic algal (chl α) production, confirming that
275 browning leads to less favorable nutritional requirements for algal production (section 2.1). Temperature
276 had a minimal and insignificant effect (Fig. 3B). Nonetheless, the highest $RR_{chl\alpha}$ values were observed
277 under Ambient temperature conditions, and warming generally reduced response, particularly in Mid
278 and High DOC treatments, although this response was not significant. Overall, higher DOC enhanced
279 nutrient-driven responses, particularly under NP additions, while warming tended to dampen these
280 effects, consistent with patterns observed for primary production (Section 2.4), although these effects
281 were not statistically significant.

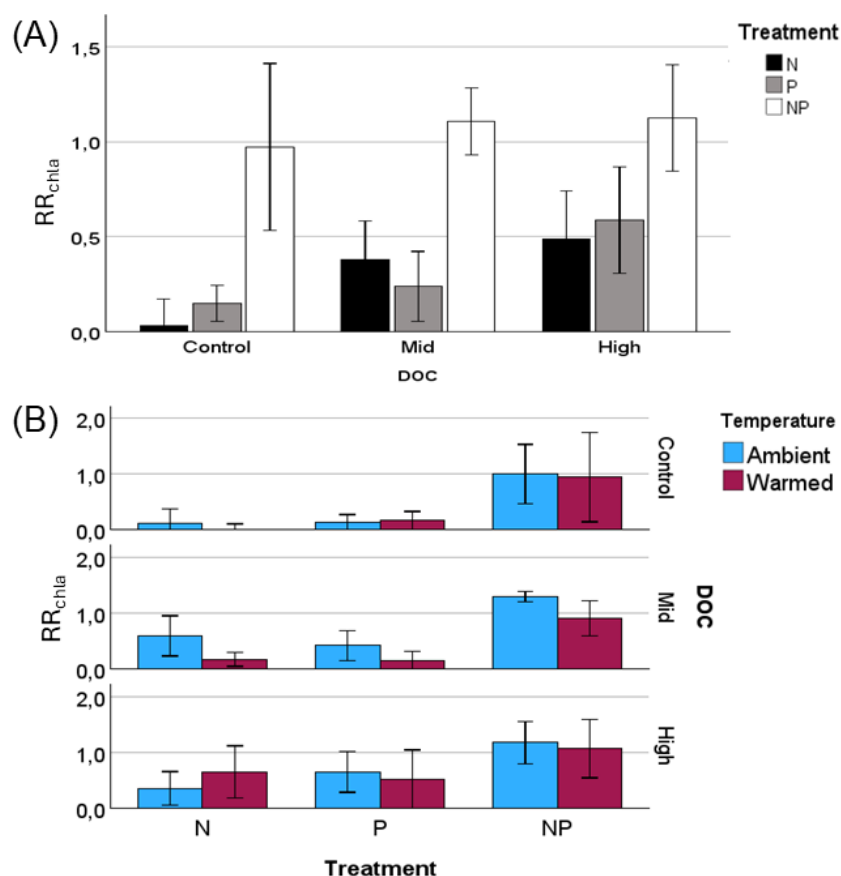


282 **Table 1.** Results of linear mixed-effects models relating DOC concentration to response variables, with
 283 warming treatment and sampling period included as fixed effects and pond identity as a random
 284 intercept. Models are: DOC + Temperature base models (i.e., $\text{lmer}(\log Y \sim \log(\text{DOC}) + \text{TempTreat} +$
 285 $\text{Sampling} + (1|\text{pond}))$ and interaction models (i.e., $\text{lmer}(\log Y \sim \log(\text{DOC}) \times \text{TempTreat} + \text{Sampling} +$
 286 $(1|\text{pond}))$. Significant ($p < 0.05$) results are in bold. For Sampling, p -values refer to the overall Type III
 287 test of the categorical factor rather than a single slope estimate. $\Delta\text{AIC}_{\text{Int-Base}}$ was calculated as $\text{AIC}_{\text{interaction}}$
 288 $\text{model} - \text{AIC}_{\text{base model}}$; negative values indicate improved fit of the interaction model. R^2_{m} is marginal R^2
 289 (i.e., variance explained by fixed effects: DOC, warming, sampling) for Base model and Interactive
 290 model.

Model/ Response	Predictor	Estimate	SE	df	t value	p value	R ² _m	$\Delta\text{AIC}_{\text{Int-Base}}$	Interpretation
log(DOC:TN)	log(DOC)	0.72	0.06	93	11.73	< 0.001	0.72		Browning is associated with increases in DOC:TN (C enrichment relative to TN)
	Warming (vs ambient)	0.04	0.11	93	0.34	0.71			No effect
	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	< 0.001		Strong seasonal control	
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	0.09	0.07	94	1.41	0.16	0.75	0.03	No statistically supported interaction for DOC effects on DOC:TN
log(DOC:TP)	log(DOC)	0.72	0.09	93	8.0	< 0.001	0.48		Browning is associated with increases in DOC:TP (C enrichment relative to TP)
	Warming (vs ambient)	0.12	0.17	93	0.72	0.48			No effect
	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	< 0.001		Strong seasonal control	
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.07	0.09	93	-0.76	0.45	0.51	1.45	No interaction: DOC effects on DOC:TP do not depend on temperature
log(TN:TP)	log(DOC)	-0.12	0.06	93	-1.92	0.06	0.51		Marginal effect
	Warming (vs ambient)	0.03	0.03	93	1.34	0.21			No effect
	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	< 0.001		Strong seasonal control of TOC:TP	
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.11	0.08	103	-1.44	0.15	0.53	0.34	No clear evidence for DOC × temperature interaction on TN:TP
log(DIC:DIN)	log(DOC)	-0.34	0.16	38	-2.13	0.04	0.24		Browning significantly decreases DIC:DIN
	Warming (vs ambient)	-0.07	0.06	38	-1.18	0.26			No effect
	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	0.008		Seasonal variation detected	
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.09	0.31	25	-0.32	0.75	0.27	1.9	No interaction
log(DIC:P PO ₄ ³⁻)	log(DOC)	-2.32	0.44	38	-5.37	< 0.001	0.42		Browning significantly decreases DIC: PO ₄ ³⁻



Model/ Response	Predictor	Estimate	SE	df	t value	p value	R ² m	ΔAIC _{Int} - Base	Interpretation
	Warming (vs ambient)	0.07	0.17	38	0.43	0.66			No effect
	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	0.04			No evidence of seasonal variation in DIC: PO ₄ ³⁻
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.001	0.85	45	-0.001	0.99	0.44	1.86	Warming does not alter DOC effect
	log(DOC)	-1.09	0.30	104	-3.81	0.0002			Browning significantly decreases DIN: PO ₄ ³⁻
log(DIN: PO ₄ ³⁻)	Warming (vs ambient)	0.22	0.10	104	2.10	0.038	0.32		Significant warming effect
	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	0.041			Strong seasonal control
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.31	0.42	104	-0.86	0.39	0.33	1.3	No interaction
	log(DOC)	0.36	0.23	44	1.71	0.09			No evidence that browning affects PP
	Warming (vs ambient)	0.10	0.16	44	0.71	0.52	0.47		Warming does not significantly alter PP
log(PP)	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	< 0.01			Strong seasonal control of PP
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.49	0.33	44	-1.52	0.14	0.53	0.24	No interaction
	log(DOC)	0.43	0.11	79	3.88	0.0003			Browning increases BP
	Warming (vs ambient)	-0.04	0.09	79	-0.48	0.7	0.47		Warming has no effect on BP after accounting for DOC
log(BP)	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	< 0.001			Strong seasonal variation in BP
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.16	0.15	75	-1.05	0.29	0.52	0.95	No evidence that warming modifies the DOC effect on BP
	log(DOC)	-0.15	0.25	44	-0.38	0.69			Browning does not significantly alter PP:BP
	Warming (vs ambient)	0.11	0.18	44	1.37	0.18	0.36		No effect
log(PP:BP)	Sampling (time)	—	—	—	—	0.022			Strong seasonal control of PP:BP
	Int Model: log(DOC) × Warming	-0.73	0.39	44	-2.04	0.047	0.37	-1.99	Warming alters the DOC–PP:BP relationship, with PP:BP declining more strongly with DOC under warming



292

293 *Figure 3.* (A) Mean seasonal chlorophyll-a response ratios (RR_{chl a}) to nutrient-addition assays (N, P, or
 294 NP) per DOC treatment, pooled across temperature treatments. (B) Mean seasonal RR_{chl a} per added
 295 nutrient, and DOC treatment (panel), per temperature treatment.

296 **3.4. Microbial production under browning and warming**

297 Microbial production responded differently to browning and warming. Both BP and PP ($p < 0.001$ and
 298 $p < 0.01$, respectively), as well as PP:BP ($p = 0.022$) varied significantly across sampling times,
 299 indicating strong seasonal influence on microbial responses. Bacterial production (BP) increased
 300 strongly with DOC (Est. = 0.45, $p = 0.0003$; Fig. 1H) and was unaffected by warming or DOC–warming
 301 interactions (Fig 1H; Table 1). In contrast to primary producers, bacterial (heterotrophic) producers are
 302 well known to assimilate organic carbon efficiently, have a more flexible stoichiometry (Cotner et al.
 303 2010) and are a substantial part of carbon cycling and the microbial foodweb via the “microbial loop”
 304 (Fenchel 2008). Indeed, primary production (PP) showed no significant response to DOC or warming
 305 although it showed a trend of higher values at low DOC that declined more sharply with DOC under
 306 warming, resulting in lower PP at high DOC in warmed treatments (Table 1; Figure 1G). Accordingly,



307 warming amplified DOC-related declines in the PP:BP ratio (interaction: Est. = -0.73 , $p = 0.047$)
308 indicating that the ponds shifted toward stronger heterotrophic dominance, although net heterotrophy
309 (PP:BP < 1) was not reached. Net heterotrophy was likely not reached because measurements were taken
310 at a single, well-lit depth (0.6 m) rather than integrated over the full water column (Klaus et al. 2022),
311 and because shallow lakes and ponds (≤ 4 m) typically exhibit high rates of both primary and
312 heterotrophic production and large variability in net ecosystem production (Rabaey et al. 2024).

313 This pattern, indicating interactive effects of DOC and warming on metabolic balance (PP:BP), can only
314 be disentangled in an experimental setting, as in natural lakes temperature variations are confounded by
315 other factors that govern microbial production, such as nutrients, light, variability in DOC quality and
316 quantity. Our finding of inhibited primary production due to warming contrasts with observations from
317 Swedish Arctic lakes, where primary production is typically temperature-limited (Faithfull et al. 2011;
318 Bergström et al. 2013; Puts et al. 2023a). Instead, our results controlled the confounded factors, and
319 show that browning promotes net heterotrophy, but that this shift is not driven solely by increased
320 bacterial production, it can also arise from warming-induced declines in primary production, so called
321 “thermal compensation” (Liu et al. 2022). Indeed, temperatures during this experiment were unusually
322 high (see section 2.1), meaning the additional $+2$ °C warming may have pushed the system beyond the
323 thermal optimum of primary producers, whose growth declines sharply at temperatures higher than their
324 thermal optimum (Kontopoulos et al. 2020). Moreover, we showed (section 2.1) that along the DOC
325 gradient inorganic nutrient availability declines, which would impact production negatively. In less
326 warm years, where primary producers are not passing optimal growth temperatures, the effect of
327 temperature may not be negative, still, our results show that with browning PP will decrease. Our results
328 indicate that bacterial production is thriving under 2 °C warming and browning, whereas primary
329 producers struggle, likely due to 1) thermal compensation and 2) Reduced inorganic nutrients, and 3)
330 suboptimal stoichiometry.

331 With the increasing occurrence of heatwaves (Perkins-Kirkpatrick and Lewis 2020) and the
332 concentration of browning and warming in surface waters (Pilla et al. 2018; Puts et al. 2023a), the
333 conditions observed in our ponds are likely to become more common. Altogether, our results indicate
334 that in ponds and natural lakes, net ecosystem respiration, or heterotrophy would be likely under
335 browning and warming, particularly as warming intensifies epilimnetic temperatures (Duarte and Prairie
336 2005; Sobek et al. 2007; Bogard and del Giorgio 2016).

337 4. Conclusions

338 Our study demonstrates that browning (increasing dissolved organic carbon concentrations) is the
339 dominant driver determining nutrient stoichiometry, phytoplankton responses, and ecosystem
340 metabolism (ratio between primary production and bacterial production: PP:BP). Moderate warming
341 ($+2$ °C) only affected DIN:PO₄³⁻ and PP:BP. Across all sampling periods, increasing DOC consistently



342 altered C:N:P ratios both total and dissolved pools, leading to progressively stronger carbon enrichment
343 in total nutrient pools, but decreasing dissolved inorganic nutrients. Although N:P ratios in both total
344 and dissolved pools decreased with DOC indicating stronger N-limitation, both pools remained strongly
345 carbon-saturated and relatively depleted in both nitrogen and phosphorus.

346 Phytoplankton nutrient limitation assays confirmed widespread N–P co-limitation across the DOC
347 gradient, with the strongest responses occurring under combined (N+P) additions. Higher DOC
348 amplified these nutrient-driven responses, indicating that browning intensifies stoichiometric constraints
349 on algal production, although warming did not affect algal nutrient limitation. Browning promoted a
350 shift toward greater heterotrophic dominance by strongly stimulating bacterial production (BP), while
351 primary production (PP) showed no significant effect but tended to decline with increasing DOC,
352 particularly under warming conditions. Although 2°C warming alone had no significant effects, we
353 found interactive effects with DOC that significantly reduced the balance between autotrophy and
354 heterotrophy (PP:BP), indicating a shift toward increased reliance on heterotrophic pathways. However,
355 full net heterotrophy was not reached, likely due to shallow, well-lit conditions and high overall
356 productivity.

357 Our results are novel in that they show that 2°C warming and browning alone, and combined, impact
358 primary production differentially than bacterial production. When combined, it leads to a reduction of
359 PP:BP. This identifies an additional mechanistic pathway contributing to the widespread occurrence of
360 net ecosystem respiration in northern lakes. Given the widespread intensification of browning and
361 warming events across northern lakes, our findings suggest that primary producers may become
362 increasingly constrained, while heterotrophic bacterial production is maintained or enhanced,
363 particularly under episodic heatwaves.

364 **5. Data availability**

365 The raw and processed data used for statistical analysis and the preparation of figures in the study are
366 available at <https://zenodo.org/records/20498522> (Paltsev and Puts 2026) (open access).

367 **6. Disclaimer**

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372 the publisher.



373 **7. Author contributions**

374 AP and ICP contributed equally to the development of the study design, data interpretation, and
375 manuscript preparation. ICP was responsible for conducting field sampling and laboratory analyses.

376 **8. Competing interests**

377 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

378 **9. Acknowledgements**

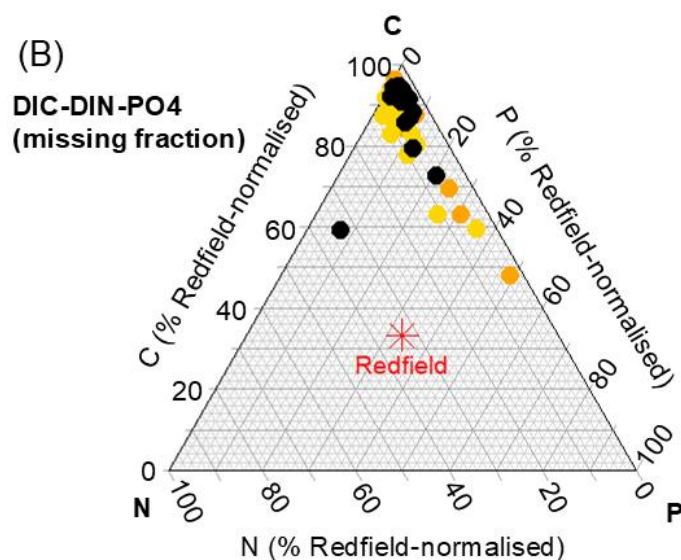
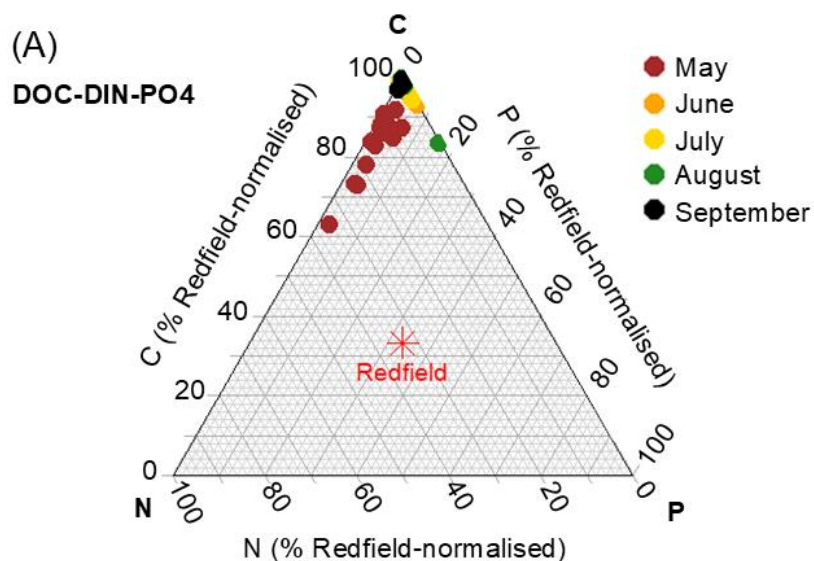
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386 **11. Appendix**



387

388 *Appendix Figure 1. Redfield-normalized C:N:P ratios for dissolved nutrients and DOC (A) and*
389 *dissolved nutrients and in situ DIC with data available for June, July and September (B), with points*
390 *colored by sampling month.*

391



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