

1 **Wind induced algal migration manipulates sediment denitrification N-loss patterns in**
2 **shallow Taihu Lake, China**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Driven by winds, the distribution of algae is often noticeably patchy at kilometer scales in
24 shallow lakes. The decomposition of the settled algal biomass may affect N biogeochemical
25 cycles and thereby nitrogen (N) loss in sediments. In this study, we investigated sediment
26 denitrification N-loss patterns along algal migration pathway in Taihu Lake, a shallow and
27 eutrophic lake in China, and found that wind-induced algal migration in the overlying water
28 manipulated the temporal and spatial patterns of denitrification N-loss in sediments. A N loss
29 hotspot in sediments was created in the algae concentrated zone, where N loss was, however,
30 temporarily inhibited during algal bloom seasons and generally exhibited a negative
31 relationship with algal biomass. In the zone where algae have left, sediment N loss rate was
32 relatively low and positively correlated with algal biomass. The decay of algal biomass
33 generated organic carbon and created anoxia, favoring denitrification, while excessive algal
34 biomass could deplete oxygen and inhibit nitrification, causing nitrate limitation for
35 denitrification. Piecewise linear regression analysis indicated that algal biomass of *Chl-a* >
36 73.0 µg/L in the overlying water could inhibit denitrification N-loss in sediments. This study
37 adds to our understanding of N biogeochemical cycles in shallow eutrophic lakes.

38 **Keywords:** denitrification, algal migration, nitrogen loss, sediment, shallow lake

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Human activities have greatly increased nitrogen (N) loading into the environment (Finlay et
41 al., 2013; Horst et al., 2014; Paerl et al., 2011), with damaging effects including eutrophication
42 and subsequent odoriferous algal blooms, water quality degradation and biodiversity reduction
43 (Bianchi et al., 2010; Lewis Jr et al., 2011; Porter et al., 2013). In lakes, there are many nitrogen
44 removal pathways, among which microbial nitrification (NF) and denitrification (DNF) in
45 sediments play a key role in alleviating the negative impacts of excessive N by converting
46 reactive N to gaseous forms and permanent removal them from lakes (Chen et al., 2012; Xia et
47 al., 2016; Xia et al., 2009). In this process, NF is responsible for the oxidation of ammonium
48 (NH_4^+ -N) to nitrate (NO_3^- -N), which is in turn a substrate for DNF (Gao et al., 2012; Kessler
49 et al., 2013; Xia et al., 2016), and any perturbation on the coupled NF-DNF may alter N loss
50 in the sediment (Gao et al., 2012; Kessler et al., 2013; Small et al., 2014). For instance, anoxia
51 in permeable sediments inhibits NF and thereby breaks the coupled NF-DNF, leading to limited
52 N loss in the hyporheic zone (Kessler et al., 2013; Kessler et al., 2012).

53 In algae dominated shallow lakes, the DNF-NF in sediments is mediated by the settling of algal
54 biomass from the overlying water. Dissolved inorganic N in the overlying water is assimilated,
55 converted to organic N, and sunk to bed sediments by algae. The degradation of organic N
56 releases NH_4^+ -N, which is subsequently oxidized to NO_3^- -N through NF and eventually
57 converted back to N_2 through DNF (Kuypers et al., 2018). Meanwhile, this deposition of algae-
58 derived organic carbon results in oxygen consumption, and a transition towards anoxia, a
59 requirement for heterotrophic denitrifying bacteria, and therefore DNF (Conley, 2012; Wang

60 et al., 2016). Thus, sediment N loss, through DNF, is correlated with the accumulation of algal
61 biomass in sediments (Chen et al., 2016). While anoxia/hypoxia favors DNF, it can also inhibit
62 aerobic NF, causing nitrate limitation to DNF. Zhu et al. (2020) found that, when algal biomass
63 was experimentally increased by a factor of 5 and 10, total sediment DNF rates were decreased
64 by 32% and 79%, respectively. Such dense accumulations of algal biomass regularly occur in
65 the shallow lakes, and are often caused by wind-driven algal redistribution (Marcé et al., 2010).
66 This is because many bloom-forming algal species (e.g., *Microcystis* sp.) contain intracellular
67 gas vesicles and are positively buoyant, making them prone to concentrate at the downwind
68 shore (Cyr, 2017; Deng et al., 2016; George and Edwards, 1976). Cyr (2017) demonstrated that
69 algal biomass was higher at the downwind sites than those at the upwind sites on windy days,
70 and the magnitude of this difference increased linearly with increasing wind speed. Dense algal
71 mats are also observed in the downwind northwestern bays following prevailing southeast
72 winds in Taihu Lake, a eutrophic lake in China (Deng et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2010; Zhang et
73 al., 2015). We hypothesize that, in shallow eutrophic lakes, (i) wind-driven algal migration in
74 the overlying water manipulates DNF N-loss patterns in sediments; (ii) sediment DNF N-loss
75 is relatively weak in the zone where algae have left, while it is strong but will be temporally
76 inhibited during algal bloom seasons in the algae concentrated zone; (iii) there exists an algal
77 biomass threshold, and sediment DNF N-loss rate increases beyond the threshold, after which
78 the rate decreases as algal biomass further increases.
79 To test the hypothesis, we investigated DNF (N_2 gas production) along the algal migration
80 pathway in Taihu Lake, and identity the impacts of algal biomass in the overlying water on

81 sediment DNF N-loss. These rate measurements were combined with a genetic investigation
82 targeted at the microbial pathways responsible for sediment NF and DNF. The objective of this
83 study was to explore the impacts of wind-driven algal migration on sediment N biogeochemical
84 cycling in a shallow and eutrophic lake.

85 **2. Methods and materials**

86 **2.1. Study area**

87 Taihu Lake, the 3rd largest freshwater lake (~2,400 km²) in China. Taihu Lake has a mean
88 depth of 1.9 m, a volume of 4.4 billion m³ and a mean water retention time of 284 days (Qin et
89 al., 2019). Taihu Lake is located in the Yangtze River delta (the lake center coordinates: 31°10'0"
90 N, 120° 9'0" E), which is the most rapidly developing region of China (Figure 1A). The Taihu
91 Basin accounts for only 0.4% of China's land area, but contributes to 11% of its Gross
92 Domestic Product (GDP) (Xu et al., 2010). Taihu Lake is a key drinking water, fishing and
93 tourism resource for the region, but also serves as a depositional basin for urban, agricultural
94 and industrial segments of the local economy. With recent increases in pollutant (N & P)
95 loadings, Taihu Lake has experienced accelerated eutrophication and severe algal blooms in
96 recent decades. These blooms have caused serious environmental, economic and societal
97 problems, including a threat to drinking water supplies for ~10 million residents. In May 2007,
98 a massive algal bloom overwhelmed the lake's water treatment plants, leaving more than two
99 million people without drinking water for a week (Paerl et al., 2011; Qin et al., 2019).

100 **2.2. Field surveys**

101 Field samplings were conducted along two hypothetical algal migration pathways from the lake
102 center to two northwestern bays, Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay (Figure 1B), through which
103 different amounts of algal biomass are transported. This will be beneficial to quantifying the
104 relationship between algal biomass and DNF rate. There were 6 sampling sites in each corridor,
105 from lake center to each bay, with a shared site at the lake center (11 sites in total), among
106 which the shared site was used to represent lake center, and the site at the end of each corridor
107 was used to represent lake bay, respectively. The distance between two neighboring sites was
108 about 6 km. Six field surveys were conducted in Jan, Apr, Jun, Jul, Aug and Nov (algal bloom
109 period: June-August) of 2018. On the sampling day, surface water (0–20 cm) and sediment
110 were sampled in triplicate at each site using a stainless-steel bucket and an Ekman grab sampler,
111 respectively. A water sample of 500 mL was preserved on ice for the analyses of chlorophyll a
112 (*Chl-a*) and various N species, including total N (TN), NH₄⁺-N, NO₃⁻-N and nitrite (NO₂⁻-N);
113 after homogenized completely, a sediment sample of 50 g was frozen in liquid N for microbial
114 analysis. Intact sediment cores (9 cm in diameter and 50 cm in height) were also carefully
115 collected at each site in triplicate using a Jenkin corer for measuring sediment N loss rate as
116 described in the following section. N species were analyzed using the Monitoring Analysis
117 Method of Water and Waste Water (Ministry of Environmental Protection of China, 2002).
118 Before the analyses of dissolved N species, water samples were filtered through Whatman
119 GF/F membrane filters. *Chl-a* was determined using the hot ethanol method according to
120 Páspáta et al. (2002).

121 **2.3. Sediment net N₂ flux measurements**

122 Sediment net N₂ flux was measured using intact sediment cores (Figure S1) (Heiss et al., 2012).
123 Immediately after collection, sediment cores were transported to the lab at Taihu Lake
124 Laboratory Ecosystem Research Station. When algal accumulation occurs, light hardly reaches
125 bed sediments under dense algal canopies (Thomsen et al., 2012), these sediment cores were
126 therefore incubated in the dark in a water bath at the field temperature. Sediment cores were
127 carefully sealed with a gas-tight rubber lid without air bubbles, and left to stand for 10 min to
128 ensure equilibrium according to our preliminary experiments. Considering oxygen and
129 substrates may change in the sealed system, potentially affecting the measured value, we
130 collected samples in a short time to maintain DO above 2 mg/L. Water samples were collected
131 every 5 min over a 20-min period and stored into a 12-mL pre-evacuated Exetainer® vial (839
132 W, Labco, UK) after adding 0.2 µL saturated HgCl₂ solution. Net DNF rates were calculated
133 based on the linear rate of N₂ accumulation in the overlying water as a function of time. The
134 concentration of dissolved N₂ was measured by the N₂/Ar method using a membrane inlet mass
135 spectrometry system (Bay Instruments, Easton, MD, USA). These net N₂ flux measurements
136 may represent the balance between N₂ fixation and DNF. However, sediment N fixation in
137 these bays was estimated to be only 1.8% of sediment N loss via denitrification (Yao et al.,
138 2018). We argue that these net N₂ flux measurements to be representative of potential DNF
139 rates.

140 **2.4. Microbial abundance analysis**

141 The abundances of nitrifiers and denitrifiers in sediments were analysed using quantitative
142 polymerase chain reaction method (qPCR). There are many functional genes involved in NF

143 and DNF processes (Kuypers et al., 2018), of which *amoA*, *nirS*, *nirK* and *nosZ* were chosen
144 as gene markers in this study. The *amoA* is a gene marker of ammonia-oxidizing bacteria,
145 which are sensitive indicators of NF and play a more important role in the NF in Taihu Lake
146 (Hou et al., 2015); *nirS*, *nirK* and *nosZ* are commonly used gene markers of denitrifiers, which
147 encode nitric oxide reductase, nitrite reductase and nitrous oxide reductase, respectively (Hou
148 et al., 2015; Li et al., 2019; Morales et al., 2010). Prior to analyses, sediment samples were
149 stored at -80°C. DNA was extracted for qPCR amplification using a FastDNA Power-Max Soil
150 DNA Isolation Kit (MP Biomedical, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The
151 detailed information for qPCR was presented in Text S1 in the supporting information.

152 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

153 Piecewise linear regression model was employed to investigate the impacts of algal biomass in
154 the overlying water on sediment N loss. Piecewise linear regression can identify where the
155 slope of a linear function changes and allow multiple linear models to be fitted to each distinct
156 section (Turner et al., 2018; Zeng et al., 2019). To avoid the disturbances caused by temperature,
157 data at the 11 sampling sites in July and August were used here, when water temperature
158 showed no significant differences (Table S1). Piecewise linear regression analysis was
159 conducted using MATLAB (MathWorks, USA). T-test was applied to test the differences
160 between lake bay and the center using SPSS 22.0 (SPSS Inc., North Chicago, IL, USA). The
161 level of statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

162 **3. Results**

163 **3.1. Chl-a and TN in the overlying water**

164 In general, there was a remarkable increasing trend of algal biomass in the overlying water
165 from the lake center to lake bays, especially during the algal accumulation season (Figure 2A).
166 *Chl-a* increased from 8.7–15.6 µg/L in lake center to 22.7–56.3 µg/L in Meiliang Bay (M5)
167 and 18.5–25.7 µg/L in Gonghu Bay (G5) during the non-algal bloom period (Nov-Apr), and
168 increased from 13.5–18.1 µg/L in the lake center to 136.5–227.3 µg/L in Meiliang Bay (M5)
169 and 54.9–112.2 µg/L in Gonghu Bay (G5) during the algal bloom period (Jun-Aug). Similarly,
170 TN concentration in the bays was higher than in the lake center, especially during the algal
171 bloom period. TN in Meiliang Bay (M5) and Gonghu Bay (S5) was 1.75–1.96 and 1.77–2.33
172 mg/L, respectively, during the non-algal bloom period. TN in these bay sites then reached
173 maximal values of 3.83 and 2.34 mg/L during the algal bloom period, while TN in the lake
174 center remained relatively consistent at 1.05–2.12 mg/L throughout the year (Figure 2B).

175 **3.2. Sediment N loss rate**

176 Net DNF rates in the lake bays was remarkably higher than at the lake center, and also showed
177 different temporal patterns than trends at the lake center (Figure 3). In the lake bays, sediment
178 N loss rate was higher during the non-algal bloom period than the algal bloom period, while,
179 in the lake center, the rate was slightly lower during non-algal bloom period than the algal
180 bloom period. Sediment N loss rate reached 2.22–2.51 and 1.11–1.26 mg/m²h during the non-
181 algal bloom period and decreased to 0.34–0.67 and 0.66–1.06 mg/m²h during the algal bloom
182 period in the Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay respectively. In contrast, sediment N loss rate in
183 the lake center was 0.09 mg/m²h during the non-algal bloom period and increased to a
184 maximum of 0.42 mg/m²h during the algal bloom period (Figure 3).

185 **3.3. Relationship between N loss rate and algal biomass**

186 Sediment N loss rate as a function of time showed an opposite pattern to algal biomass in the
187 overlying water in Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay (Figure 4B), but a similar pattern with algal
188 biomass in the lake center (Figure 4A). Correlation analysis indicated that sediment N loss rate
189 exhibited a negative relationship with algal biomass in the overlying water in Meiliang Bay (r^2
190 = 0.41) and Gonghu Bay (r^2 = 0.66) (Figure 4D), but a positive relationship with algal biomass
191 in the lake center (r^2 = 0.70) (Figure 4C). Piecewise linear regression analysis was further
192 conducted, indicating that sediment N loss rate increased beyond a threshold of 73.0 µg/L, after
193 which N loss rate decreased as algal biomass further increased (Figure 5).

194 **3.4. Relationship between functional microbes and algal biomass**

195 The abundances of nitrifiers and denitrifiers in sediments exhibited similar relationships with
196 algal biomass in the overlying water (Figure 6). In both cases, the abundance remarkably
197 increased at low levels of algal biomass and then gradually decreased as algal biomass further
198 increased. The decreased microbe abundances mainly occur in algae concentrated lake bays.

199 **4. Discussion**

200 In lakes, wind can cause waves and subsequent advective movement of superficial water
201 masses (Marce et al., 2007). When wind interacts with the lake surface, there is an energy
202 transfer from the air towards the water, as mediated by wave-induced friction at the air-water
203 interface. In shallow lakes, there is little space for wave energy to dissipate, and waves often
204 have high turbulent kinetic-energy, initiating passive ‘migration’ of algal biomass (Wüest et
205 al., 2000). The distribution of algae is noticeably patchy at kilometer scales in shallow

206 eutrophic lakes, in part due to this factor (Deng et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2015). In Taihu Lake,
207 there is a subtropical monsoon climate with prevailing southeast winds, continuously
208 transporting algal biomass by this mechanism towards downwind, northwestern bays (Deng et
209 al., 2016). Accordingly, we detected a remarkable increasing trend of algal biomass in the
210 overlying water from the lake center to Meiliang and Gonghu Bay during the algal
211 accumulation season (Jun-Aug) (Figure 2A).

212 By algae, dissolved inorganic N (NH_4^+ -N and NO_3^- -N) in the overlying water is assimilated,
213 converted to organic N, and eventually sunk to lake bed sediments. This transport of algal
214 biomass results in the re-location of large amounts of N together with fixed organic carbon to
215 northwestern bays. In line with this, we observed significant increases in TN from the lake
216 center to Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay (Figure 2B), and NO_3^- -N and NH_4^+ -N limitation in
217 the overlying water during algal bloom period due to algae assimilation (Figure S2). The
218 decomposition of this organic matter likely releases labile carbon substrates and consumes
219 oxygen, creating favorable conditions for DNF in sediments. Low oxygen and availability of
220 carbon result in converting algae concentrated zone into the hotspot of N loss by DNF. Due to
221 frequent disturbances induced by winds, water column is difficult to be anoxia (Gao et al.,
222 2017). We argue oxygen penetrated into sediments controls denitrification in sediments. Since
223 the microelectrode needle is easily broken by hard stones in fields, we conducted incubation
224 experiment to analyze responses of sediment oxygen profile to algal biomass, and found that
225 the settlement of algal biomass can decrease oxygen penetration depth quickly in the surface
226 sediment (Figure S3). In contrast, in the area where algae have left, sediment N loss was weak

227 due to the limited availability of necessary substrate, namely NO_3^- -N and labile organic carbon.
228 Thus, sediment N loss rates generally showed an increasing pattern from the lake center to the
229 algae concentrated bays (Figure 3), and a similar temporal pattern with algal biomass in the
230 lake center, where the rate was slightly lower during non-algal bloom period than the algal
231 bloom period (Figure 4). Bernhardt (2013) outlined a paradigm where lakes need to be dirty
232 (rich in nutrients) in order to support algal biomass at levels sufficient to fuel DNF for N
233 removal. In shallow lakes, it is argued that wind-driven algal migration can effectively
234 concentrate algal biomass into a ‘dirty zone’ where N removal might be maximized. Large
235 amounts of N assimilated into the tissues of algal biomass were transported to this N removal
236 region to be efficiently denitrified.

237 As a saying goes “A little wind kindles, much puts out the fire”. If algae accumulate into dense
238 mats, the decay of excessive algal biomass can deplete oxygen and limit oxygen penetration
239 into sediments, causing severe anoxia (Karim et al., 2002; Zhu et al., 2020). Sediment
240 incubation experiment indicated surface sediment suffered a longer anoxia period after more
241 algal biomass settled (Figure S3). In the field, severe anoxia in bed sediments may persist for
242 the entire algal bloom season due to persistent wind-driven algal biomass inputs. This persistent
243 anoxia can inhibit NF and cause NO_3^- -N limitation on DNF, causing a break in coupled NF-
244 DNF. We observed this to occur, and found that the effect was enhanced as algal biomass
245 increased, suggesting that at high concentrations of algae, NO_3^- -N likely limited DNF. This
246 explains higher sediment N loss rate during the non-algal bloom period than the algal bloom
247 period in lake bays. During the algal bloom season, nitrifiers and denitrifier abundances were

248 relatively poor in the algae concentrated Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay (Figure 6). In the algae
249 concentrated Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay, sediment N loss rates were negatively correlated
250 with algal biomass (Figure 4D), and exhibited an opposite pattern with algal biomass as
251 compared to the center of the lake (Figure 4B). The N loss rates in the lake bays were even
252 lower in the hot summer than those in the cool winter, even lower than those in the algae-poor
253 lake center (Figure 3). In sediments, direct DNF may also contribute to N loss, which is
254 supposed to be enhanced by rich organic carbon and anoxia in the algae concentrated zone.
255 Thus, we attributed the inhibited N loss to the breaking of the coupled NF-DNF. As anoxia
256 receded post algal blooms, the coupled NF-DNF restarts, and the negative impacts of excessive
257 algal biomass can weaken or disappear later, as seen in the increased N loss rate in the fall
258 months (Figure 3). In contrast, in the lake center where algae have left, sediment N loss rates
259 were positively correlated with algal biomass (Figure 4C) and showed a similar pattern with
260 algal biomass (Figure 4A), suggesting that carbon availability may limit DNF under these
261 conditions. Piecewise linear regression analysis indicated that, when algal biomass is over 70
262 $\mu\text{g/L}$, sediment N loss will be inhibited during algal bloom seasons in this study (Figure 5).
263 Although the threshold may change in association with field conditions (temperature,
264 turbulence intensity, etc.), it is possibly that, in portions of this eutrophic lake where wind-
265 driven algal accumulations occur, water quality recovery is temporally prevented by the
266 breaking of coupled NF-DNF, causing the redistribution of N removal amount over the whole
267 year.

268 N biogeochemical cycles in lakes are complex, and many factors affect N loss in bed sediments,
269 including zoobenthos and catchment features (Bonaglia et al., 2014; Nizzoli et al., 2018). In
270 this study, we demonstrated that wind driven algal migration in the overlying water plays a key
271 role in shaping sediment N loss patterns in shallow lakes. Algal migration created N loss
272 hotspot in the algae concentrated zone. However, sediment N loss in this zone was inhibited
273 during algal bloom seasons, and exhibited a negative relationship with algal biomass in the
274 overlying water, which we associate with a broken link between NF and DNF. In the zone
275 where algae have left, sediment N loss rates were relatively low and showed an increasing trend
276 as algal biomass in the overlying water increased, suggesting an effective yet slow N removal
277 process. By contrast, in deeper lakes, a larger fraction of algal biomass can be decomposed
278 during the relatively long sinking time (Tammeorg et al., 2013). This may potentially result in
279 algal blooms having a relatively smaller impact on sediment N processing in larger lakes,
280 although it may also be that the associated impacts simply occur instead in the overlying water,
281 a subject deserving of further study.

282 **5. Conclusions**

283 In this study, we investigated sediment DNF patterns along algal migration pathway in Taihu
284 Lake, a shallow and eutrophic lake in China. The main findings are as follows:
285 (1) Wind driven algal migration in the overlying water manipulated DNF patterns in sediments
286 in shallow lakes.
287 (2) A N loss hotspot in sediments was created in the algae concentrated zone, where N loss
288 was, however, temporarily inhibited during algal bloom seasons and generally exhibited a

289 negative relationship with algal biomass.

290 (3) In the zone where algae have left, sediment N loss rate was relatively low and positively

291 correlated with algal biomass.

292 (4) There is an algal biomass threshold. The sediment DNF rate increases beyond the threshold

293 and decreases after the threshold.

294

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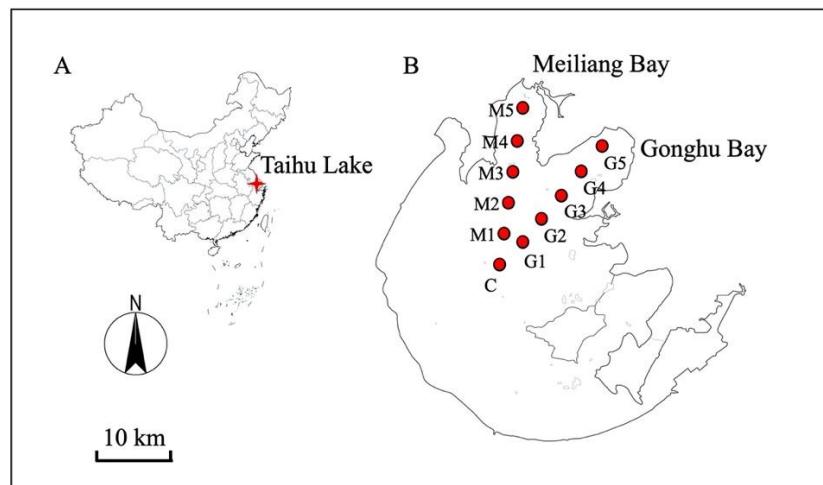
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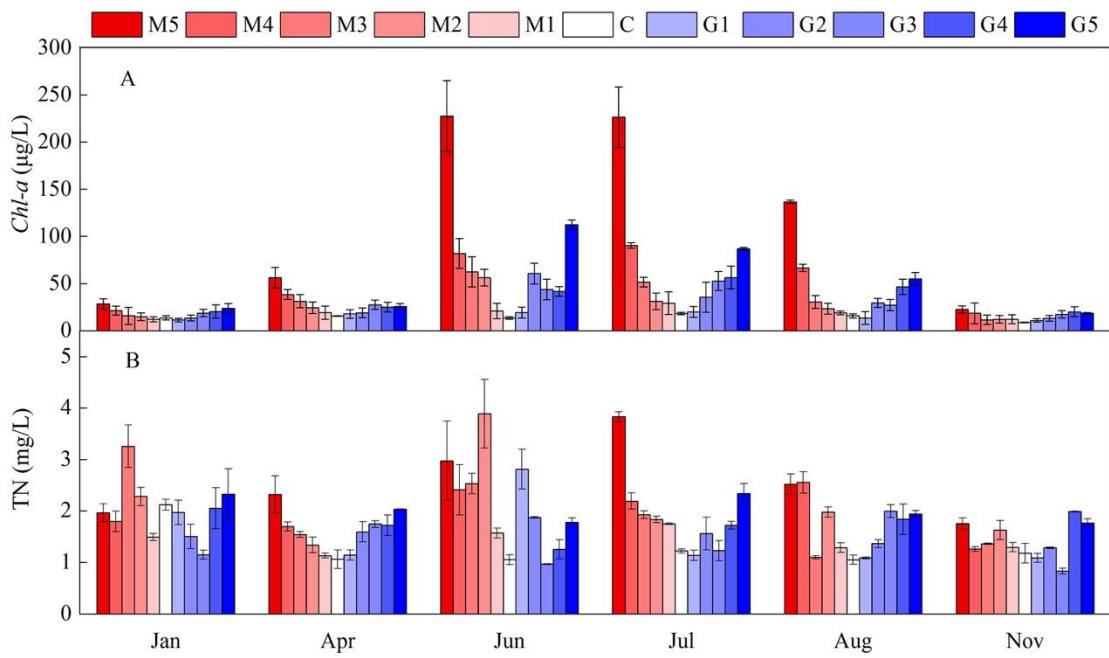
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432 **Figure 1.** Map of Taihu Lake and locations of sampling sites in this study. Insert shows the
433 location of Taihu in China.

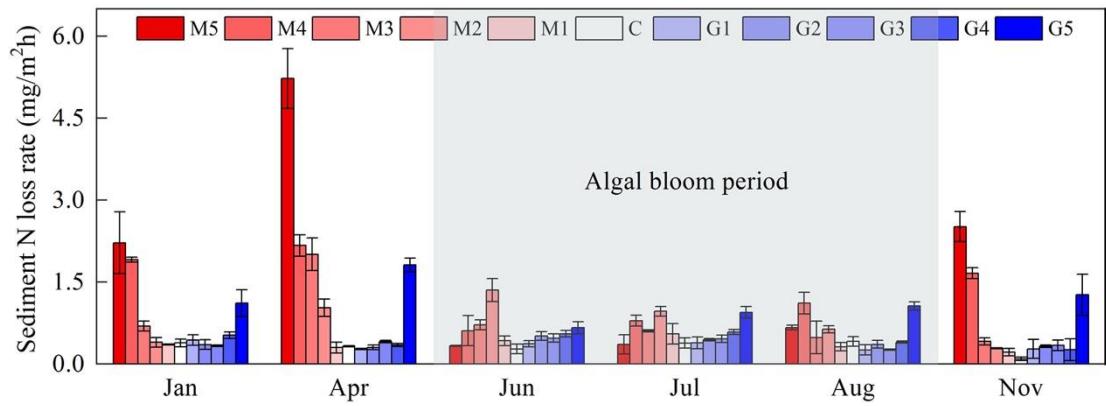
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436 **Figure 2.** Temporal and spatial patterns of *Chl-a* and TN in the surface water along wind-
437 driven algal migration pathway. (A) *Chl-a*; (B) TN. Error bars indicate standard deviations.

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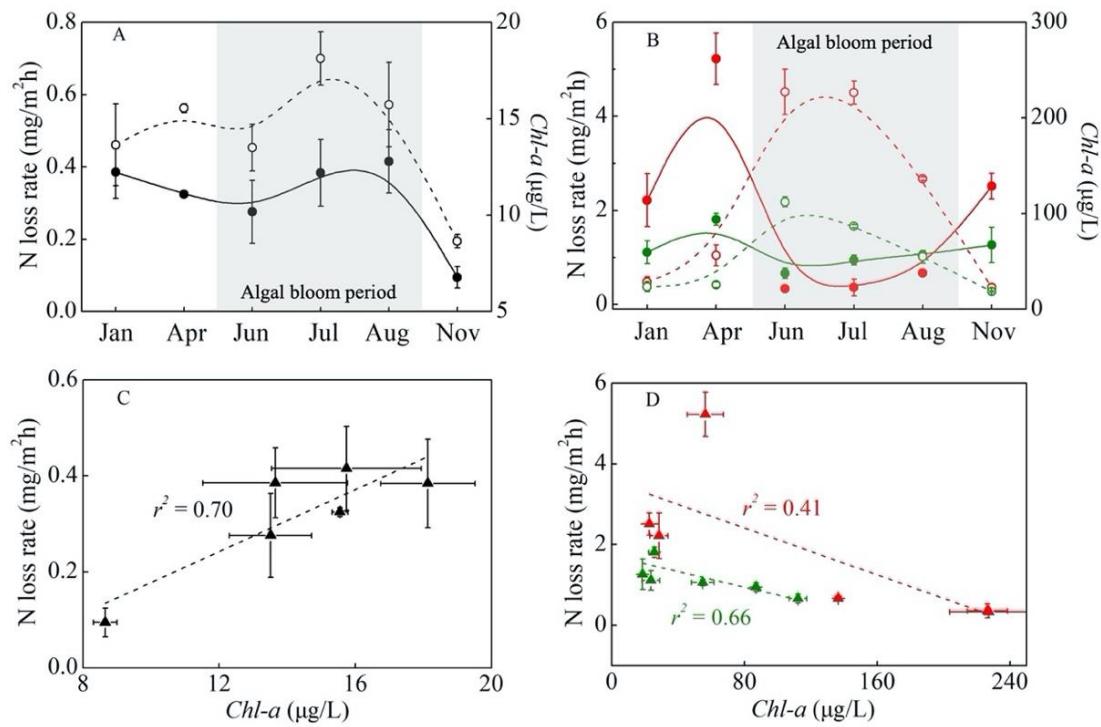


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440 **Figure 3.** Temporal and spatial patterns of sediment N loss rate along algal migration pathway.

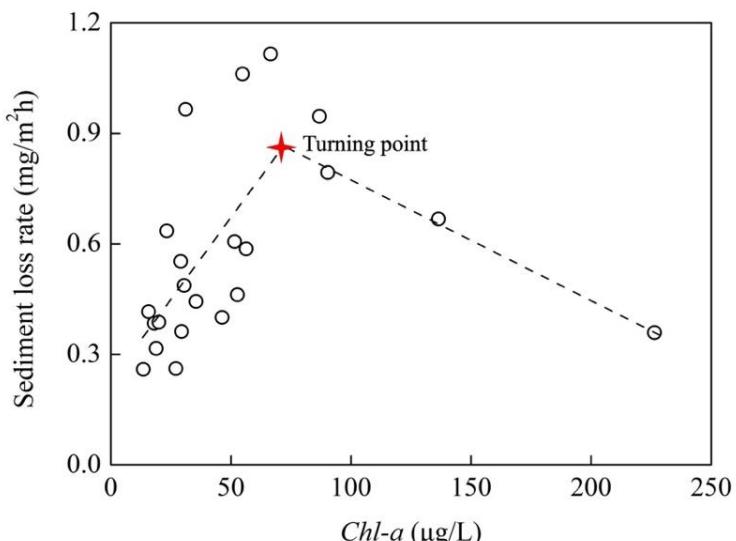
441 Error bars indicate standard deviations.

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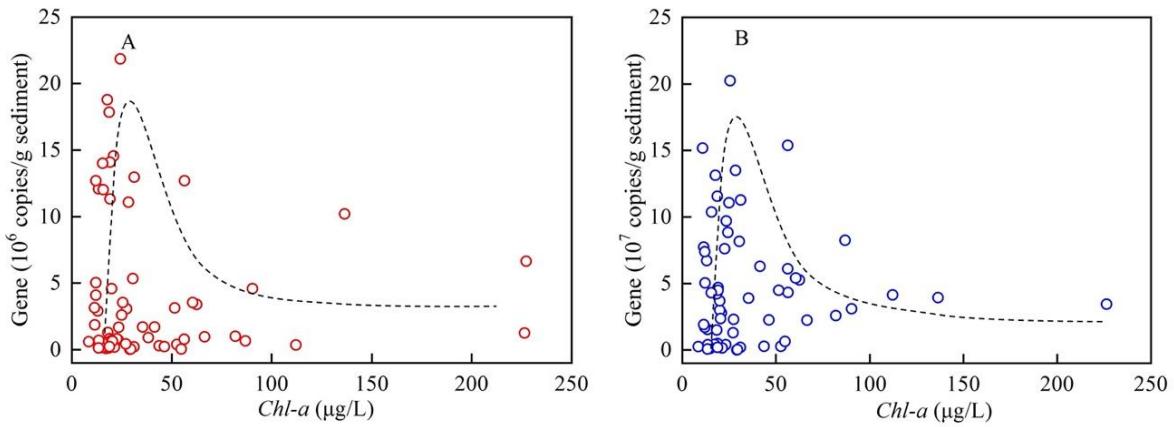
444 **Figure 4.** N loss pattern in bed sediments and its relationship with algal biomass in the
 445 overlying water. In figure 4A and 4B, the black, red and olive circles indicate lake center,
 446 Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay, respectively, of which solid circles indicate N loss rate and
 447 open circles indicate *Chl-a*. The lines were obtained using the B-spline model. In figure 4C and
 448 4D, the black, red and olive triangles indicate lake center, Meiliang Bay and Gonghu Bay,
 449 respectively. Error bars indicate standard deviations.
 450



451

452 **Figure 5.** Changes of N loss rate in sediments as a function of algal biomass in the overlying
453 water. To avoid the disturbances caused by temperature, data were from all of sampling sites
454 in July and August, when water temperature showed no significant differences (Table S1).

455



456

457 **Figure 6.** The relationship between nitrifier and denitrifier abundances in sediments and *Chl-*
 458 *a* in the overlying water. (A) Nitrifiers; (B) Denitrifiers. The abundance of nitrifiers was the
 459 sum of *amoA* and *arch-amoA*, and the abundance of denitrifiers was the sum of *nirS*, *nirK* and
 460 *nosZ* genes.

461