Title: Nitrification and ammonium dynamics in Lake Taihu, China: seasonal competition for ammonium between nitrifiers and cyanobacteria.

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Abstract

Taihu Lake is hypereutrophic and experiences seasonal, cyanobacterial harmful algal blooms. These *Microcystis* blooms produce microcystin, a potent liver toxin, and are linked to anthropogenic nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) loads to lakes. *Microcystis spp.* cannot fix atmospheric N and must compete with ammonia-oxidizing and other organisms for ammonium (NH_4^+). We measured NH_4^+ regeneration and potential uptake rates and total nitrification using stable isotope techniques. Nitrification studies included abundance of the functional gene for NH_4^+ oxidation, *amoA*, for ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA) and bacteria (AOB). Potential NH_4^+ uptake rates ranged from 0.02–6.80 μmol L^{-1} h^{-1} in the light and 0.05–3.33 μmol L^{-1} h^{-1} in the dark, and NH_4^+ regeneration rates ranged from 0.03–2.37 μmol L^{-1} h^{-1}. Nitrification rates exceeded previously reported rates in most freshwater systems. Total nitrification often exceeded 200 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} and was >1000 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} at one station near a river discharge. AOA *amoA* gene copies were more abundant than AOB gene copies ($p < 0.005$) at all times; however, only abundance of AOB *amoA* (not AOA) was correlated with nitrification rates for all stations and all seasons ($p < 0.005$). Nitrification rates in Taihu varied seasonally; at most stations, rates were highest in March, lower in June, and lowest in July, corresponding with cyanobacterial bloom progression, suggesting that nitrifiers were poor competitors for NH_4^+ during the bloom. Regeneration results suggested that cyanobacteria relied extensively on regenerated NH_4^+ to sustain the bloom. Internal NH_4^+ regeneration exceeded external N loading to the lake by a factor of two but was ultimately fueled by external N loads. Our results thus support the growing literature calling for watershed N loading reductions in concert with existing management of P loads.

1. Introduction

Nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) are important nutrients in aquatic ecosystems, often co-limiting primary production (Elser et al., 2007). Biologically unavailable (except to diazotrophs) atmospheric N can be fixed to readily assimilable ammonium (NH_4^+) and biomass via N_2 fixation (Vitousek et al., 2013). However, fertilizer production from anthropogenic N fixation (the Haber-Bosch process) has changed N cycling and the global N budget over the last century. Non-point source N loads from agriculture are a main driver of eutrophication in aquatic systems, which is often manifested as hypoxia, loss of biodiversity, cyanobacterial harmful algal blooms (cyanoHABs; Paerl et al., 2016; Paerl and Paul, 2012), and other detrimental characteristics. CyanoHABs are particularly problematic because they often produce toxins, compete for nutrients with other microbes and primary producers, and indicate unhealthy aquatic systems.

The increase in extent and frequency of cyanoHABs correlates to increased application of NH_4^+ and urea fertilizers, both globally and in China (Glibert et al., 2014). Diatoms are competitive for oxidized forms of N (e.g., NO_3^-), but non-N_2 fixing cyanobacteria, such as *Microcystis*, thrive on chemically reduced N forms, such as NH_4^+ and urea (Blomqvist et al. 1994; Glibert et al., 2016; McCarthy et al., 2009). NH_4^+ transport across the cell membrane and assimilation into biomass is less energy intensive than for NO_3^- (Glibert et al., 2016). Due to high biological demand and fast turnover rates, NH_4^+ often does not accumulate in the water column, resulting in low *in situ* concentrations. Ammonium regeneration is especially important to phytoplankton productivity in eutrophic systems (Gardner et al. 1998, 2017; McCarthy et al., 2013). For example, water column regeneration was up to six times higher than sediment regeneration in Lake Taihu, China (McCarthy et al., 2007; Paerl et al., 2011).

Nitrification is the link between chemically reduced and oxidized N forms. Most nitrification pathways are a two-step process; NH_4^+ is oxidized to nitrite (NO_2^-) via ammonia oxidation, and NO_2^- is then oxidized to NO_3^- via NO_2^- oxidation. Ammonia oxidation is a rate limiting step (Ward, 2008) carried out by chemolithoautotrophic, ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) and ammonia oxidizing archaea (AOA; Könneke et al., 2005). NO_2^- oxidation is carried out by NO_2^- oxidizing bacteria (NOB). Recently, a species of NOB was described that is capable of one step, complete nitrification ("comammox"); however, comammox bacteria have yet to be well documented in the environment (Daims et al., 2015). The ammonia and NO_2^- oxidation steps are often tightly coupled, where the product of the first step serves as a substrate for the second step (Ward, 2008). However, some studies in marine environments suggest that the process can be decoupled, with one step outpacing the other (Füssel et al., 2012; Heiss and Fulweiler, 2016).

In Taihu, the abundance of ammonia oxidizing organisms (AOO) was investigated in sediments, where AOA outnumbered AOB, often by an order of magnitude (Wu et al., 2013; Zeng et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013). Another sediment study revealed that, while AOO were present at all sites, the distribution of AOA and AOB depended on lake trophic status (Hou et al., 2013). Abundance of AOA decreased, while AOB increased, with increasing trophic status, following the substrate concentration hypothesis presented in kinetic experiments (Martens-Habbena et al., 2009). A suite of environmental variables (substrate concentration, oxygen concentration, light intensity, pH, etc.) influences nitrification rates and AOO community composition, including AOA and AOB relative abundances (Bristow et al., 2015; Merbt et al., 2012; Ward, 2008)

Nitrification can be closely coupled in time and space to N removal via denitrification, particularly in shallow systems with tightly coupled benthic-pelagic interactions (An and Joye, 2001; Jenkins and Kemp, 1984). Microbial removal of excess N in eutrophic systems is a crucial process to mitigate excessive N loads, and substrate availability for denitrification can depend on nitrification. However, nitrifiers must compete with phytoplankton and other primary producers for NH_4^+. In eutrophic systems, this competition could help determine microbial community structure and cyanoHAB severity. Although both AOO and cyanobacteria, such as *Microcystis*, have a strong affinity for NH_4^+ (Martens-Habbena 2009; Baldia et al., 2009), we are unaware of measurements made when AOO and cyanobacteria were in direct competition. At some point in the bloom progression, cyanobacteria must outcompete AOO for available NH_4^+.

The overall objective of this study was to investigate seasonal NH_4^+ dynamics and the degree of competition between AOO and cyanobacteria in hypereutrophic Taihu. We measured community NH_4^+ uptake and regeneration rates, and nitrification rates, under different bloom conditions to help determine how cyanoHABs influence NH_4^+ fluxes. We compare these rates to: (1) investigate the competition for NH_4^+ between phytoplankton/cyanobacteria and nitrifying bacteria and archaea; (2) quantify the oxidation of NH_4^+ to NO_3^-, which is in turn available for removal via denitrification or assimilation by other organisms; (3) determine the fraction of NH_4^+ that is supplied within the system via water column regeneration/remineralization; and (4) characterize the community composition of AOO. We hypothesized that: (1) lower nitrification rates occur during cyanoHABs due to increased competition for NH_4^+; (2) rates of nitrification are higher in Taihu than in most coastal and marine systems due to high *in situ* substrate concentrations; (3) rapid NH_4^+ turnover increases with phytoplankton biomass; and (4) AOB outnumber AOA due to higher saturation concentrations.

2. Methods

2.1 Site description and time frame

Lake Tai (Taihu; from the Chinese for "Great Lake") is China's third largest freshwater lake. Due to industrial development and urbanization in the watershed, Taihu has shifted from a diatom-dominated, mesotrophic lake to a hypereutrophic lake experiencing cyanoHABs (Paerl et al., 2014; Qin et al., 2007). Historically, these blooms have been associated with toxin producing, non-N_2 fixing *Microcystis spp.*, which can form surface scums on the lake for up to 10 months per year (Chen et al., 2003; Duan et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2016; Otten and Paerl 2011). The surface blooms have a well-documented negative impact on fisheries, tourism, and local economies, including a drinking water shutdown in 2007 (Qin et al., 2007; Steffen et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2010).

Taihu is a large (2,338 km^2), shallow (mean depth = 1.9 m) lake in southeast China, situated in the Yangtze river delta about 150 km west of Shanghai. The lake is an important source of freshwater and resources for the ~40 million people within the watershed. Taihu has a complicated hydrology, with 172 rivers and channels connected to the lake (Qin et al., 2007). This network of rivers carries nutrient loads from agricultural runoff, factories, and household wastewater. Taihu has a relatively long residence time of approximately 280–300 days (Paerl et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2010).

Water samples were collected from four locations: Stations 1 and 3 in Meiliang Bay, Station 7 in the north-central part of the lake, and Station 10 on the western side of the lake basin (Fig. 1). In previous studies (e.g., McCarthy et al., 2007), sampling Stations 1, 3, and 7 followed a discharge gradient from the Liangxihe River in the northeast part of Meiliang Bay to the central lake, and Station 0 ("river") was located at the Liangxihe River discharge. However, in 2007, the

Yangtze River was diverted into Taihu in an effort to decrease the lake residence time and flush *Microcystis spp.* and nutrients out of the lake (Qin et al., 2010). Diverted water from the Yangtze River now flows into Gonghu Bay, the easternmost of the three northern bays. This diversion resulted in intermittent flow reversals through Meiliang Bay, where the Liangxihe River now mainly serves as an outflow. Since the discharge gradient from Station 1 to 7 was no longer consistent in Meiliang Bay, Station 0 was replaced with a new river input (Station 10) on the western side of the lake near the Dapugang River mouth. Environmental variables (temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, total dissolved solids (TDS), and chlorophyll a) were measured in situ at each site using a YSI 6600 multi-sensor sonde.

Water samples were collected in August 2013, June 2014, March 2015, and July 2016. Each of these sampling events corresponded with a pronounced *Microcystis* bloom at all sites (Ma et al., 2016; Deng et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017; Su et al., 2017; Qian et al., 2017), except Stations 7 and 10 in March 2015 (visual observation). Our sampling dates were representative of seasonal conditions in the region, specific to this subtropical climate zone, and did not correspond with any extreme weather patterns (e.g., typhoons, droughts). Temperature and precipitation patterns were average for this climate region. Water was collected into 4 l carboys at the surface (top 20 cm) and near-bottom (approximately 2 m depth) to investigate any changes in nutrient dynamics associated with depth. Samples for nutrient analyses (NO_3^-, NO_2^-, o-PO_4^{3-}, and urea) were filtered immediately in the field using 0.2 µm nylon syringe filters (GE Millipore) into 15 ml snap-cap tubes (Falcon) and stored frozen at -20°C. Nutrient samples were analyzed on a Lachat QuikChem 8000 nutrient analyzer at the University of Texas Marine Science Institute (UTMSI; Aug 2013, June 2014) or a Lachat 8500 nutrient analyzer at Wright State University (WSU; March 2015, July 2016) according to manufacturer directions. Ambient

NH_4^+ concentrations were determined by ammonium retention time shift (AIRTS) high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) at UTMSI (Gardner et al., 1995). Briefly, the atom % ^{15}N-NH_4^+ and total NH_4^+ concentration are determined by comparing the retention time shift of the sample relative to the natural abundance NH_4^+ standard (Gardner et al., 1996)

2.2 Water column NH_4^+ uptake and regeneration

NH_4^+ uptake and regeneration rates were determined following the protocol of McCarthy et al. (2013). Water collected in 4 l carboys was returned to the Taihu Laboratory for Lake Ecosystem Research (TLLER) for isotope amendments and incubations. 500 ml from each site/depth was amended with 98% $^{15}NH_4Cl$ (Isotec; concentration added 8–96 µM) and distributed into six (triplicates for light and dark) 70 ml, clear tissue culture bottles (Corning; McCarthy et al., 2007). The goal of the substrate additions in these uptake/regeneration experiments was to add more-than-trace levels to ensure that all of the label was not taken up during the incubations; our goal was to add the label concentration at an equivalent value to the most recent monitoring data we could obtain for NH_4^+ concentrations, or at least 8 µM (even when concentrations are low, recycling rates can be quite high). Dark bottles were wrapped with thick aluminum foil. Initial samples (T_0) were withdrawn from each bottle with a rinsed syringe, filtered (0.2 µm filters) immediately into 8 ml glass vials (Wheaton), and frozen until analysis at UTMSI. Light and dark bottles were then submerged (approximate depth 0.2 m) in a mesh bag at in situ light and temperature in the lake. After ~24 h, final samples (T_f) were filtered in the same manner as the T_0 samples. Total NH_4^+ concentrations and atom % ^{15}N for all samples were determined by AIRTS/HPLC (Bruesewitz et al., 2015; Gardner et al., 1995). Potential uptake and actual regeneration rates were calculated using the Blackburn/Caperon isotope dilution model (Blackburn, 1979; Caperon et al., 1979; McCarthy et al., 2013). The uptake rate is considered a

potential rate, which includes nitrification, assimilation, and other consumption processes, and regeneration is an actual rate that encompasses remineralization, decomposition of dead organic matter, heterotrophic excretion, respiration, biodegradation, and sloppy feeding by zooplankton (Saba et al., 2011).

2.3 Ammonia and nitrite oxidation rates

Nitrification rates were measured directly using the $^{15}NH_4^+$ tracer addition method. 500 ml of water from each station and depth was distributed into 750 ml polycarbonate bottles, enriched with a tracer amount (approximately 20% of the total pool) of 98% $^{15}NH_4Cl$ (Isotec), mixed thoroughly by inverting 10 times, and distributed into three 125 ml polycarbonate incubation bottles. Unenriched samples for each station and depth were distributed into 125 ml incubation bottles. Initial samples (T_0) were filtered using 0.22 µm syringe filters into 30 ml polycarbonate bottles and frozen until analysis. Final samples were collected as described after incubating for 24 h at in situ light and temperature. Samples were returned frozen to WSU for analysis.

Accumulation of $^{15}NO_2^-$ was measured using the sodium azide (NaN_3) reduction method (Heiss and Fulweiler, 2016; McIlvin and Altabet, 2005; Newell et al., 2011). Briefly, 7.5 ml from each sample was distributed into a 12 ml Exetainer vial (Labco, UK) and capped tightly. Each sample was then injected (with gastight syringe) with 0.25 ml of 1:1 (v:v) 2 M NaN_3 :20% CH_3COOH solution (previously purged with Ar for 30 min), followed by incubation for 1 h at 30 °C (McIlvin and Altabet, 2005). All NO_2^- accumulated in the sample from NH_3 oxidation was transformed chemically to N_2O. After 1 h, the reaction was stopped by injection of 0.15 ml of 10 M NaOH.

196 Accumulation of $^{15}NO_3^-$ was measured using the Cd reduction/NaN_3 reduction method
197 (Heiss and Fulweiler, 2016). Approximately 25 ml from each sample was transferred into 50 ml
198 centrifuge tubes. First, in situ NO_2^- was removed with 0.25 ml of 0.4 M sulfamic acid (H_3NSO_3).
199 After 10 min, the reaction was neutralized with 0.125 ml of 2 M NaOH (Granger and Sigman,
200 2009). NO_3^- was reduced to NO_2^- by addition of 100 mg of MgO, 6.6 g of NaCl, and 0.75–1 g of
201 acidified Cd powder to each sample, followed by 17 h incubation on a shaker table (McIlvin and
202 Altabet, 2005). Samples were centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 15 min, and 7.5 ml of supernatant was
203 carefully transferred into 12 ml Exetainers. Cadmium-reduced NO_2^- was further reduced to N_2O
204 with the previously described NaN_3 method.
205 Samples were sent inverted to the University of California Davis Stable Isotope Facility
206 for isotopic analysis of $^{45/44}N_2O$ using a ThermoFinnigan GasBench + PreCon trace gas
207 concentration system interfaced to a ThermoScientific Delta V Plus isotope-ratio mass
208 spectrometer (Bremen, Germany). Nitrification rates were corrected for NaN_3 reduction
209 efficiency, and $^{15}NO_2^-$ production was calculated as:
210 $$NH_3\ Ox\ (\text{in nM day}^{-1}) = (((^{15}N/^{14}N * [NO_2^-])_{24h} - (^{15}N/^{14}N * [NO_2^-])_{0h})/ \alpha * t$$
211 Where $\alpha = [^{15}NH_4^+] / ([^{15}NH_4^+] + [^{14}NH_4^+])$
212 And $^{15}NO_3^-$ production:
213 $$NO_2^-\ Ox\ (\text{in nM day}^{-1}) = (((^{15}N/^{14}N * [NO_3^-])_{24h} - (^{15}N/^{14}N * [NO_3^-])_{0h})/ \alpha * t$$
214 Where $\alpha = [^{15}NO_2^-] / ([^{15}NO_2^-] + [^{14}NO_2^-])$
215 Total nitrification rates were calculated from the sum of $^{15}NO_2^-$ and $^{15}NO_3^-$ accumulation.
216 **2.4 Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR)**
217 During the 2014–2016 sampling events, environmental DNA for AOO abundance was
218 collected using 0.2 µm Sterivex filters (EMD Millipore, MA, USA) and preserved with Ambion

RNAlater (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Approximately 60–120 ml of site water was pushed through the filter for each station and depth and then stored filled with 5 mL RNAlater. Preserved filters were frozen at -80 ˚C and transported to WSU. DNA was extracted using the Gentra PureGene kit (Qiagen Inc., USA) extraction protocol with slight modifications (Newell et al., 2011). Sterivex filters were first washed with Phosphate Buffer Saline 1X Solution (Fisher BioReagents, USA) to remove any residual RNAlater. Lysis buffer (0.9 ml) and Proteinase K (4 µl) were added to the filters, followed by 1 h incubation at 55 °C and 1 h incubation at 65 °C. The solution was removed to a 1.5 ml tube, and the incubation was repeated with fresh lysis buffer and Proteinase K.

Concentration and purity of the DNA were measured spectrophotometrically (Nanodrop 2000, ThermoScientific). AOA were targeted with Arch-amoAF and Arch-amoAR primers targeting the 635 base pair (bp) region of the *amoA* gene, subunit A of the ammonia monooxygenase enzyme (AMO; Francis et al. 2005). Bacterial *amoA* was quantified using amoAF and amoA2R primers (Rotthauwe et al., 1997) to target the 491 bp region of *amoA*. qPCR standards were prepared by cloning the fragment of interest for AOA and AOB with the TOPO TA Cloning Kit (Invitrogen, USA), inserting it into a competent cell plasmid (One Shot E. coli cells, Invitrogen, USA), and isolating the plasmid containing the *amoA* gene using the UltraClean Standard Mini Plasmid Prep Kit (Mo Bio Laboratories Inc., Carlsbad, CA, USA).

AOA and AOB qPCR assays were conducted within a single 96 well plate for each year (2014, 2015, and 2016). Each run included three negative controls (no template), five standards from serial dilution in triplicates, and the environmental DNA samples in triplicate. Each sample and standard received 12.5 µl of SYBR green Fast Mastermix (Qiagen Inc., USA), 0.5 µl of each 100 µM primer, and 2–15 ng of template DNA.

All PCR work was performed in a PCR fume hood after cleaning the surface with DNAaway (ThermoScientific, USA) and engaging the UV light (20 min) to prevent contamination. qPCR protocol followed the method of Bollmann et al. (2014) for AOA (95 °C initial denaturation for 5 min, 95 °C denaturation for 30 sec, 53 °C annealing for 45 sec, and 72 °C extension for 1 min; 45 cycles) and AOB (95 °C initial denaturation for 5 min, 95 °C denaturation for 30 sec, 56 °C annealing for 45 sec, 72 °C extension for 1 min; 45 cycles), followed by the melting curve. Automatic settings for the thermocycler (Realplex, Eppendorf) were used to determine threshold cycle (Ct values), efficiency (85–95%), and a standard curve with R^2 values above 0.9. Gene copy number was calculated as (ng * number mol $^{-1}$)/ (bp * ng g^{-1} * g mol^{-1} of bp) and is reported in gene copies/ml of sample water. The detection limit was 980 copies/ml for AOB and 4807 copies/ml for AOA. These calculated detection limits do not represent the greatest sensitivity possible with our method, as the standard concentrations were selected to bracket the expected environmental concentrations. Indeed, our reported values are above the detection limit for both AOA (by two orders of magnitude) and AOB.

2.5 Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using RStudio software (R Version 3.3.1). Prior to statistical analysis, data were checked for normality using the Shapiro–Wilk normality test. The only variables that were normally distributed were DO, pH, and TDS. To explore potential environmental drivers of the rates, a multivariate correlation analysis was performed using the Kendall correlation method for nonparametric data. A p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Additionally, stepwise multiple regression models were run using the MASS package (R Version 7.3). The best fitting model was selected based on the minimum

Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC; Akaike 1974). To normalize data for parametric analysis, all non-normally distributed variables were log(x+1) transformed prior running the model.

3. Results

3.1 Lake ambient conditions

Physicochemical parameters in Taihu varied seasonally and spatially (Table 1). The most pronounced seasonal variations were observed in temperature and DO, with highest water temperature recorded in August. DO varied significantly, with highest values in March and lowest in August ($p < 0.01$). pH varied significantly with season, with lowest values in March and highest in August ($p < 0.01$). TDS values were highest in July 2016 and lowest in August 2013 ($p < 0.001$). Chlorophyll a concentrations were lowest in March 2015 (mean = 11.1 µg L^{-1}), but bloom conditions (> 20 µg L^{-1}; Xu et al., 2015) were observed at some locations (e.g., 20.3 µg L^{-1} at Station 3, and visual confirmation at Stations 1, 3, and several other areas of the lake). Bloom conditions were also present and observed at all sites in June 2014 (mean = 36.6 µg L^{-1}), July 2016 (mean = 58.1 µg L^{-1}), and August 2013 (43.7 µg L^{-1}).

Ammonium concentrations remained high throughout all sampling events, with highest values in March 2015 and lowest values in August 2013, but differences were not statistically significant ($p = 0.125$). Nitrite concentrations were not different between seasons, although they were significantly higher at Station 10 than other stations ($p < 0.001$). Nitrate concentrations followed the pattern of NH_4^+ concentrations and were highest in March 2015 and lowest in August 2013 ($p < 0.001$). Orthophosphate concentrations followed a seasonal pattern with lowest concentrations in March and highest in August ($p < 0.005$), and o-PO_4^{3-} concentrations at Station 10 were significantly higher than at any other station ($p < 0.001$).

3.2 Potential NH_4^+ uptake

In August 2013, light uptake rates (all NH_4^+ uptake are potential rates) were uniform across sites (mean = 0.40 ± 0.04 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) and did not vary between surface and bottom waters (Fig. 2a). In June 2014, light uptake rates in surface waters at Stations 1, 7, and 10 (mean = 0.80 ± 0.06 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) were significantly higher than deep rates (mean = 0.31 ± 0.08 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; $p < 0.001$). However, light uptake rates at Station 3 did not differ from zero at either depth (Fig. 2a). Mean surface and deep uptake rates in the dark in August 2013 (0.25 ± 0.01 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) and June 2014 (0.13 ± 0.05 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) were significantly lower than light uptake rates (Fig. 2b; $p < 0.05$). In March 2015, light uptake rates at Stations 1–7 (mean = 0.12 ± 0.04 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) were lower than those during August 2013 and June 2014 (mean = 0.43 ± 0.41 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) except for Station 10, where the rates were significantly higher (mean = 1.36 ± 0.20 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; $p < 0.001$). In contrast to summer, dark uptake rates in March 2015 were not significantly different than light rates (Fig. 2b). In July 2016, light uptake rates were highest at Stations 1, 7, and 10 (1.31 – 6.82 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}). Stations 3 and 7 rates were highest in bottom waters (0.80 ± 0.16 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1} and 2.55 ± 0.14 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}, respectively). In July 2016, light and dark uptake rates did not differ significantly ($p = 0.15$); highest dark uptake rates were observed at Station 1 in surface water (3.33 ± 0.67 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}). Light uptake rates, across all stations and seasons, correlated positively with TDS and NH_4^+:NO_3^- and negatively with pH, while dark uptake rates correlated positively with TDS, NH_4^+, and NH_4^+:NO_3^-, and negatively with pH (Table 2).

3.3 Regeneration of NH_4^+

Regeneration rates in the light and dark (all NH_4^+ regeneration rates are actual rates, not potential) were not significantly different from each other across all years and seasons; therefore, light and dark rates were averaged together (Fig. 2c). Regeneration rates did not differ

311 significantly between the summer bloom sampling events in August 2013 and June 2014 (mean
312 = 0.22 ± 0.03 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}), but July 2016 regeneration rates (mean = 0.75 ± 0.16 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1})
313 were significantly higher than in August and June ($p = 0.004$), with exceptionally high
314 regeneration rates occurring in surface waters in July at Station 1 (mean = 2.37 ± 0.16 µmol L^{-1}
315 h^{-1}). In March 2015, mean surface and deep regeneration rates decreased from the river mouth
316 (Station 10; 0.88 ± 0.15 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) towards the center of the lake, with significantly higher
317 regeneration rates at 10 than Stations 1–7 (mean = 0.10 ± 0.03 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; $p < 0.01$).
318 Regeneration rates were positively correlated with TDS, NH_4^+, and o-PO_4^{3-} concentrations, and
319 NH_4^+:NO_3^- (Table 2).

320 **3.4 Nitrification (2014-2016)**

321 Note that nitrification rates are presented in nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} for consistency with literature
322 reported values. From $^{15}NH_4^+$ additions, 91.8 % of the label was detected as $^{15}NO_3^-$ and only 8.2
323 % as $^{15}NO_2^-$. Total nitrification rates at Station 3 did not vary across seasons. At Station 7 in the
324 central lake, highest total nitrification rates were observed in March 2015 (mean = 663 ± 69.4
325 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}) in both surface and deep waters compared to the lowest rates in July 2016 (mean =
326 1.58 ± 0.78 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}). At Station 1, the highest rates were measured in surface waters in July
327 2016 (mean = 773 ± 50.7 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}), but the rates at depth followed a seasonal pattern from
328 high in the spring (mean = 646 ± 158 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}) to an order of magnitude lower in the summer
329 (mean = 9.86 ± 3.28 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}).

330 Total nitrification rates at Station 10 were significantly higher than other stations (Fig.
331 3b; $p < 0.001$). Rates were, at times, orders of magnitude higher, and total nitrification ranged
332 from 148 – 3750 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} (mean = 1590 ± 1390 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}), compared to Stations 1–7

ranging from 2.00 – 771 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} (mean = 270 ± 277 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}). At Station 10 in July 2016, 80% of the $^{15}NH_4^-$ addition was detected as $^{15}NO_2^-$.

3.5 Ammonia oxidizer abundance

Abundance of the bacterial *amoA* gene for all years (2014–2016) varied from undetectable to 2.85 x 10^5 ± 5.20 x 10^4 copies ml^{-1}. Archaeal *amoA* abundance ranged from undetectable to 1.03 x 10^7 ± 3.37 x 10^6 copies ml^{-1} (Fig. 4a). Neither AOB nor AOA *amoA* gene copy abundances were statistically different between the three seasons. The highest ratio of AOB:AOA gene abundance (1.81) was reported at Station 3 in Meiliang Bay (Fig. 4b), and the lowest ratio (0.01) was observed at Station 7. AOB gene abundance was positively correlated with NH_4^+, NO_2^-, and o-PO_4^{3-} concentrations, and NH_4^+:NO_3^-, while AOA gene abundance was not significantly correlated to any environmental variable (Table 2).

4. Discussion

4.1 Ammonium regeneration and potential uptake

Ammonium uptake rates (0.02 – 6.82 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) reported here were within the range of or slightly higher than rates reported in other studies (Table 3). Rates were higher than uptake rates reported previously in Meiliang Bay (0.11 – 1.54 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) and the central lake (0.03 – 0.32 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}) but within the range of rates reported in the Liangxihe River (0.70 – 4.19 µmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; McCarthy et al., 2007). Light uptake rates in March, June, and August resembled rates in eutrophic Lake Okeechobee but were higher than rates in Missisquoi Bay, Lake Champlain, Lake Michigan, and eutrophic New Zealand lakes Rotorua and Rotoiti (Table 3 and references therein). Higher light uptake rates were reported only in hypereutrophic Lake Maracaibo, Venezuela (Table 3) and in Maumee Bay, Lake Erie during a summer cynaoHAB bloom (Gardner et al. 2017). Potential NH_4^+ uptake rates in these systems, evaluated using the same

methods, increase with chlorophyll a ($p < 0.05$), but the proportion of community uptake that can be supported by regeneration remains relatively consistent (Table 3).

Light uptake rates in Taihu were marginally higher ($p = 0.08$) than dark uptake rates, presumably due to reduced photosynthetic phytoplankton activity. Photoautotrophs may continue to assimilate nutrients in the dark under nutrient limitation (Cochlan et al., 1991), but Taihu is generally nutrient replete, so we assume that dark uptake rates can be attributed mostly to heterotrophic or chemolithoautotrophic organisms. Uptake rates were significantly higher in July 2016 than at other times, which may have been due to higher precipitation and subsequent runoff; during summer 2016, average rainfall in June and July was about 305 mm compared to 106 mm in June 2014, 105 mm in August 2013, and 54 mm in March 2015 (WorldWeatherOnline.com; accessed on <08/02/2017>) however, it is within the range of typical summer rainfall (185–320 mm; WorldWeatherOnline.com). Dark uptake rates in Taihu exceeded dark rates reported in Lake Okeechobee (0.02 – 0.04 μmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; James et al. 2011), Missisquoi Bay, Lake Champlain (0.10 μmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; McCarthy et al., 2013), and Lake Michigan (7 nmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; Gardner et al., 2004) suggesting high activity of both heterotrophs and chemolithoautotrophs in Taihu. A previous metagenomics study of the bloom composition in Taihu revealed an overlooked contribution of heterotrophic bacteria to N assimilation processes by *Microcystis*, which could be important in driving toxic blooms (Steffen et al., 2012).

Internal NH_4^+ cycling via regeneration is important in Taihu and varies seasonally (McCarthy et al., 2007; Paerl et al., 2011). In March 2015, about 38% of light uptake for all sites and depths was supported by regeneration (Fig. 2d). This proportion increased in June 2014 and July 2016 to 58% and 42%, respectively, and was highest in August 2013 (109%). The importance of regeneration corresponded to decreasing in situ NH_4^+ concentrations (Fig. 2D). These results

379 suggest that, in March and June, regeneration supplemented ambient NH_4^+ in the water column
380 to support algal production, whereas cyanobacteria relied more heavily on NH_4^+ from
381 regeneration to sustain blooms in July and August. Water column regeneration may supply more
382 NH_4^+ for blooms than sediment NH_4^+ regeneration in Taihu due to combined spatial,
383 temperature, and biogeochemical factors (McCarthy et al., 2007; Gardner et al., 2017). Rapid
384 decomposition of cyanoHAB biomass may provide NH_4^+ for nitrification, which provides
385 substrate for denitrification. High rates of sediment denitrification (McCarthy et al., 2007) also
386 may drive N limitation in late summer and fall (Paerl et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2010)
387 To calculate whole-lake, water column NH_4^+ regeneration and uptake rates, we divided the
388 lake (2,338 km^2; Qin et al., 2007) into four different sections based on geochemical and
389 ecological properties (Qin, 2008): (1) three northern bays (361.8 km^2; depth = 1.9 m) most
390 affected by the blooms; (2) the main lake (1,523.9 km^2; depth = 1.9 m); (3) the East Taihu
391 region, dominated by rooted and floating macrophytes (357.5 km^2; depth = 1.4 m); and (4)
392 shorelines <1 m deep (94.8 km^2). We considered regeneration and uptake rates from Stations 1
393 and 3 to represent the northern bays area, Station 7 as the main lake, Station 10 as shoreline, and
394 regeneration rates previously reported for East Taihu (McCarthy et al., 2007; Paerl et al., 2011).
395 When extrapolated to the volume of these four zones in Taihu, regeneration returned about 3.04
396 x 10^7 kg of NH_4^+ annually in the three northern bays, 6.71 x 10^7 kg of NH_4^+ in the main lake,
397 8.87 x 10^6 kg of NH_4^+ along the shorelines, and 2.88 x 10^6 kg of NH_4^+ in East Taihu Lake. These
398 values sum to 1.09 x 10^8 kg of NH_4^+recycled in the water column, approximately two times
399 higher than reported external N loadings, which range from 5.11 x 10^7 to 7.00 x 10^7 kg annually
400 (Chen et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2011). The same procedure for extrapolation of whole-lake uptake
401 rates yields 3.5 x 10^8 kg of NH_4^+, which is 4–6 times higher than external N loads. The

combination of external loads and regeneration cannot support the demand for NH_4^+, suggesting that the remaining NH_4^+ demand must be satisfied by internal loads from sediments or some other unknown source, or that reported TN loads are underestimated. These rough estimates of lake-wide regeneration and uptake are based on rates measured at specific stations at discreet times; improved spatial and temporal resolution of measurements are needed to improve these estimates. Additionally, these calculated values are probably an overestimate given that most of the rates measured and reported in this study are during spring and summer months, not fall and winter, when we might expect lower rates. Taihu is a complex ecosystem with 172 rivers and channels connected to the lake (Qin et al., 2007), making any estimations of total N loadings challenging. As such, we believe that the reported total N loads to Taihu are likely an underestimate. However, our results show that these external N loads lead to higher biomass and fuel high regeneration rates. Combined with high ambient nutrient concentrations, these data suggest that microbial denitrification cannot remove N fast enough to keep pace with external N loading. Increasing nutrient loads can result in decreasing efficiency of denitrification (Gardner and McCarthy, 2009; Mulholland et al., 2008), which will limit the ability of a system to self-mitigate excess N loads.

4.2 Nitrification

Total nitrification rates reported in this study exceeded previously reported rates in most oligotrophic and mesotrophic freshwater systems. Published nitrification rates in lakes include the water columns of saline Lake Mono, CA (60–480 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}; Carini and Joye, 2008) and Lake Superior, USA (0–51 nmol L^{-1} d^{-1}; Small et al., 2013), both measured via $^{15}NH_4^+$ tracer additions, and Lake Okeechobee, FL (67–97 nmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; James et al., 2011), measured via the $^{15}NO_3^-$ pool dilution method (Carini et al., 2010). Rates on this scale were previously reported

only in eutrophic Lake Mendota (WI; 1700 – 26000 nmol L^{-1} h^{-1}; Hall, 1986) and the Paerl River Estuary (China; 2100 – 65100 µmol L^{-1} d^{-1}; Dai et al., 2008). However, these rates were measured from accumulation of NO_2^- and NO_3^-, not stable isotope additions. High total nitrification rates in Taihu can be attributed to high ambient NH_4^+ concentrations, up to 40 µM at Station 1 in 2016 and 135 µM at Station 10 in 2014. These high concentrations of NH_4^+ are due to high external N loadings, including N in organic matter, into the lake, of which ~1.32 x 10^7 kg were loaded as NH_4^+ in 2009 (Yan et al., 2011). The significant relationships between nitrification and NH_4^+, NO_2^-, and NO_3^- concentrations ($p < 0.05$; Table 2) support these observations.

Substrate concentrations drive NH_4^+ oxidation rates and, therefore, end-product pools, since it is the rate limiting step of nitrification (i.e., completion of nitrification is dependent on the first step). Accumulation of $^{15}NO_3^-$ exceeded accumulation of $^{15}NO_2^-$ by a factor of 9 at Stations 1, 3, and 7 across all sampling events (Fig. 3a), indicating that NO_2^- oxidation is keeping pace with or exceeding NH_4^+ oxidation. Higher accumulation of $^{15}NO_3^-$ was expected, since NO_3^- is the final product of total nitrification.

At Station 10, accumulation of $^{15}NO_3^-$ exceeded $^{15}NO_2^-$ in March 2015 and June 2014. In July 2016, however, accumulation of $^{15}NO_2^-$ was three times higher in surface water and comparable at depth (Fig. 3b). Ambient NO_2^- concentration at Station 10 in July 2016 was 9.6 µM in surface water and 8.4 µM at depth (Table 1). This accumulation of NO_2^- suggests that NO_2^- oxidizers were saturated, consistent with K_m values reported for NO_2^- oxidation in the oligotrophic open ocean were 0.25 ± 0.16 µM (Sun et al., 2017). However, culture experiments report K_m values ranging from 6–544 µM for *Nitrospira*, *Nitrobacter*, and *Nitrotoga spp.* (Blackburne et al., 2007; Nowka et al., 2015; Ushiki et al., 2017).

448 At most stations, nitrification rates in Taihu were highest in March, lower in June, and lowest
449 in July. During the spring sampling, nitrification accounted for about 8% of light uptake and
450 15% of dark uptake at Stations 1 – 7. In June, nitrification accounted for 2.6% of light uptake
451 and 9.6% of dark uptake, and in July only 0.2% and 0.3% of light and dark uptake, respectively.
452 These results show a seasonal trend of decreasing contribution of nitrification to total uptake
453 rates and higher contribution of nitrifiers to dark uptake. As stated above, chemolithoautotrophs
454 (including nitrifiers) do not rely on light for energy and continue to assimilate NH_4^+ in dark
455 conditions, while photoautotrophic cyanobacteria can assimilated NH_4^+ in the dark only when
456 nutrient limited (Cochlan et al., 1991). However, the presence of high dissolved inorganic N
457 concentrations in ambient water samples suggests that the observed dark uptake was likely
458 performed primarily by non-photoautotrophs, including nitrifiers.
459 We observed no significant seasonal change in nitrification across all stations and no
460 consistent pattern between temperature and nitrification. While the lack of relationship of
461 nitrification with temperature agrees with nitrification studies in the ocean (Ward, 2008), other
462 studies have reported temperature as a potential driver of nitrification in coastal waters (Heiss
463 and Fulweiler, 2016). Although not statistically linked to changes in temperature, the
464 contribution of nitrification to total uptake rates decreased in summer months, likely as a result
465 of competition with the *Microcystis* bloom and associated heterotrophic bacteria. Non-N_2 fixing
466 cyanobacteria, including *Microcystis*, are exceptional competitors for NH_4^+ in high nutrient
467 environments (Blomqvist et al., 1994). With a high saturation threshold and reported K_m values
468 from 26.5 µM to 37 µM (Baldia et al., 2007; Nicklisch and Kohl 1983) in culture, and up to
469 112.9 µM in Taihu populations (Yang et al., 2017), *Microcystis* should be able to outcompete
470 nitrifiers at the high ambient NH_4^+ concentrations in Taihu as nitrifiers may become saturated as

much lower concentrations. Additionally, *Microcystis* can regulate its buoyancy and scavenge nutrients throughout the water column to effectively compete for light with other phytoplankton (Brookes and Ganf, 2001).

Nitrification at Station 10 differed dramatically from other stations. Total nitrification rates were, at times, orders of magnitude higher than at other stations. Also, Station 10 did not follow the trend of decreasing nitrification contribution with the bloom. Nitrification accounted for 19% of light uptake and 64.8% of dark uptake in June and only 1.7% and 2%, respectively, in March. We speculate that Station 10 differs from other stations because of the large nutrient and suspended particle loads from the Dapugang River, the second largest inflow into the lake (Yan et al., 2011). Suspended particles from sediments could trigger heterotrophic and anaerobic processes at Station 10, including reduction of NO_3^- to NO_2^- (Krausfeldt et al., 2017; Yao et al. 2016). In fact, denitrification and anammox gene transcripts were observed recently in the water column at Station 10 (Krausfeldt et al., 2017). These authors also speculated that the discharge of suspended sediments from the river might play a role in coupling anaerobic and aerobic processes in the turbid water column, resulting in rapid cycling of reduced and oxidized forms of N. Nitrification is the link between introduction of reduced N into the system and the removal of N through denitrification. Therefore, the efficiency of nitrification is crucial to the removal of N from this hypereutrophic lake.

4.3 Ammonia oxidizer abundance

AOB and AOA coexist in the environment, and environmental variables shape the community structure. AOA often dominate in environments with low substrate concentrations, such as the open ocean or oligotrophic lakes (Beman et al., 2008; Bollmann et al., 2014; Newell et al., 2011), while AOB are often more abundant in nutrient rich waters and soils (Hou et al.,

494 2013; Jia and Conrad, 2009; Kowalchuk and Stephen, 2001; Verhamme et al., 2011). This
495 substrate concentration adaptation is dictated by different physiological abilities to assimilate
496 NH_4^+. Culture studies show that AOA have a very high affinity (low half saturation constant;
497 K_m) for NH_4^+, and in general are saturated faster than AOB (Martens-Habbena et al., 2009). The
498 low half saturation constant (K_m = 0.132 µM; Martens-Habbena et al., 2009) of AOA gives them
499 a competitive advantage in low NH_4^+ conditions. In contrast, the high K_m of AOB (10–1000 µM)
500 allows them to assimilate more NH_4^+ before becoming fully saturated, an advantage for higher
501 NH_4^+ concentration conditions. Although oligotrophic AOA appear to proliferate in the
502 environment (Francis et al., 2005), some species adapt to higher substrate concentrations (Jung et
503 al., 2011; Tourna et al., 2011).
504 Results from the *amoA* gene copy abundance analysis show that AOA were more abundant
505 than AOB across all stations and seasons in Taihu. Although this result does not support our
506 original hypothesis, the results agree with previous studies in the water column and sediments in
507 Taihu (Zeng et al., 2012), which reported higher AOA abundance ($4.91 \times 10^5 – 8.65 \times 10^6$ copies
508 g^{-1} sediment) than AOB ($3.74 \times 10^4 – 3.86 \times 10^5$ copies g^{-1} sediment) in Meiliang Bay. Similarly,
509 another Taihu sediment study showed more AOA than AOB in sediments at all 20 investigated
510 stations (Wu et al., 2010).
511 The differences in abundance of AOO between stations, represented as AOB:AOA, show
512 spatial variability between the more nearshore and central lake stations (Fig. 4b). In this study,
513 AOA were more abundant in the central lake (Station 7), whereas AOB were more abundant
514 closer to shore. Due to a higher affinity for substrate (lower K_m), AOA are likely more
515 competitive when nutrient concentrations are lower, such as in the open lake (mean offshore
516 NH_4^+ concentration = 3.69 µM). In contrast, AOB, with higher K_m, thrive at higher NH_4^+

concentrations at nearshore locations (mean nearshore NH_4^+ concentration = 31.3 µM). These results agree with previous research in Taihu, where AOA outnumbered AOB in sediments at mesotrophic sites, and AOB were more abundant at hypereutrophic locations (Hou et al., 2013). Another study in Taihu sediments also reported that both AOA abundance and AOA:AOB were negatively correlated with ambient NH_4^+ concentration (Wu et al., 2010). However, the data reported in this study show no significant relationship between AOA abundance and NH_4^+, NO_2^-, and NO_3^- concentrations (Table 2).

Despite AOA outnumbering AOB, AOB abundance was correlated with total nitrification rates for all stations and all seasons ($p < 0.005$), but AOA abundance was not. This result agrees with a previous study in Taihu sediments, where AOA were negatively correlated ($r = 0.53$, $p < 0.05$) with potential nitrification rates (0 – 3.0 µg NO_3^-—N g^{-1} dry sediment; Hou et al., 2013). We speculate that AOA oxidized NH_4^+ at lower rates due to oversaturation and inhibition and may not have contributed as much as AOB to nitrification rates in our study. This conclusion was also reached in Plum Island Sound (MA, USA), where abundance of archaeal *amoA* was higher than bacterial, but potential nitrification rates did not correlate with AOA (Bernhard et al., 2010). The authors hypothesized various scenarios, including inhibition of AOA due to high substrate concentrations, competition for NH_4^+ with AOB, or AOA using an alternative energy source (Bernhard et al., 2010). Our results support the interpretation that AOA are at a disadvantage when competing with AOB for NH_4^+ in a hypereutrophic system and most likely did not play a major role in observed nitrification in Taihu. Recent studies show that AOA can oxidize cyanate (Palatinszky et al., 2015) and urea (Tolar et al., 2016), although growth and oxidation rates may be slow. Therefore, AOA may play an expanded role in Taihu, beyond just NH_4^+ oxidation.

4.4 Multiple regression model

The best-fitting multiple regression models for N dynamics in Taihu (Table 4) supported the Kendall non-parametric analysis (Table 2). Ammonium uptake and regeneration rates and nitrification were correlated with ambient NH_4^+, NO_2^-, and NO_3^- concentrations. Additionally, the best-fitting models revealed that variables changing with season had major influences on the models (Table 4). For example, uptake in the light and dark and regeneration rates were positively influenced by temperature and DO and negatively by pH. However, the model for nitrification rates did not reveal that the seasonal variables, such as temperature, played a major role in the model.

5. Conclusions

This study highlights the importance of water column NH_4^+ regeneration in providing a large proportion of the substrate necessary to sustain cyanoHABs. The results also show that nitrification does not account for a large proportion of NH_4^+ demand during cyanoHABs in Taihu. We showed that nitrification rates were detectable during the bloom but decreased as the bloom progressed, suggesting that nitrifiers are weaker competitors for substrate than *Microcystis*. Also, seasonal changes in light and dark NH_4^+ uptake and nitrification rates showed that AOO are outcompeted by *Microcystis*. Extremely high nitrification rates at the river mouth (Station 10) differed from rates at other stations, suggesting that other processes, such as coupled nitrification/denitrification, might be important in suspended sediments. Previous studies reported coupled denitrification with nitrification in sediments (McCarthy et al., 2007). Functional gene analysis suggested that gene abundance does not necessarily reflect performance of the function in eutrophic lakes. We speculate that AOA are present in the lake but do not contribute proportionately to nitrification, suggesting that AOA might play another role in the lake.

Ammonium inflow into the lake is a large source of reduced N, but external inputs are not the sole source. Extrapolated whole-lake regeneration rates in the water column were twice as high as external N loadings into the lake. To mitigate harmful algal blooms, N loadings into the lake must be reduced so that N can be efficiently removed through denitrification, instead of being recycled in the water column. Our results support the recent calls for dual nutrient (N + P) management strategies (Paerl et al., 2011) and highlight the importance of (chemically) reduced N removal through nitrification and denitrification.

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Figure list

Figure 1. Map of sampling stations in Taihu (modified from Paerl et al. 2011).

Figure 2. Ammonium dynamics in Taihu. (a) potential light uptake rates ± one standard error. (b) potential dark uptake rates ± one standard error. (c) Mean light and dark regeneration rates ± one standard error. (d) Seasonal averaged percent of light uptake supported by regeneration ± one standard error and averaged in situ NH_4^+ concentrations.

Figure 3. Total nitrification rates calculated from accumulation of $^{15}NO_2^-$ (grey) and $^{15}NO_3^-$ (black) ± one standard deviation. (a) Stations 1–7. (b) Station 10. The two axis show different units for total nitrification rates: nmol L^{-1} d^{-1} (left) and µmol L^{-1} h^{-1} (right).

Figure 4. Ammonia oxidizing organism population characteristics. (a) Ammonia oxidizer abundance (DNA) ± one standard deviation. (b) Ratio of abundance of AOB to AOA.

973 Table 1.
974 Environmental characteristics during sampling events for each station/depth: temperature,
975 dissolved oxygen (DO), pH, chlorophyll a (chl a; surface only), total dissolved solids (TDS), and
976 in situ nutrient concentrations. S in station name = surface water (0.2 m), and D = deep, near-
977 bottom water (~2 m).

Year/ Month	Station	Temp (°C)	DO (mg L^{-1})	pH	Chl a (µg L^{-1})	TDS	[NH_4^+] (µM)	[NO_2^-] (µM)	[NO_3^-] (µM)	[PO_4^{3-}] (µM)
2013	1S	30.9	3.53	8.11	53.9	377	1.37	0.28	2.09	2.51
	1D	30.8	4.24	8.05		377	1.79	0.23	2.17	2.96
	3S	32.5	9.07	9.02	57.6	390	0.51	0.23	1.84	1.64
	3D	31.9	7.40	8.97		390	0.56	0.25	0.60	1.62
	7S	30.4	3.40	8.05	22.2	357	0.26	0.21	2.20	0.41
	7D	30.4	3.40	8.18		357	0.32	0.14	0.90	2.73
	10S	32.1	8.60	9.33	40.8	375	0.61	1.90	7.74	4.83
	10D	32.0	8.00	9.43		375	0.29	1.04	3.76	5.69
2014	1S	23.9	8.50	8.11	13.7	436	6.16	3.33	87.5	1.75
	1D	22.7	5.10	8.07		437	8.34	3.36	87.1	0.69
	3S	27.2	8.60	8.73	11.1	419	1.09	1.72	58.3	0.24
	3D	25.4	7.30	8.71		411	1.20	2.61	57.4	0.35
	7S	22.8	9.70	7.85	42.4	383	1.55	0.83	66.3	0.39
	7D	22.5	8.60	7.69		384	1.59	0.74	61.6	2.13
	10S	26.3	5.60	8.89	79.5	424	35.4	14.9	70.0	2.43
	10D	26.4	5.50	8.60		424	35.7	15.1	68.9	2.52
2015	1S	11.6	10.1	8.34	7.5	393	2.49	0.55	53.9	0.20
	1D	11.7	3.40	6.67		393	2.49	0.58	54.7	0.04
	3S	9.4	12.8	7.74	20.4	414	BDL*	0.82	119.4	0.03
	3D	8.2	12.9	7.52		414	0.83	0.86	117.6	0.05
	7S	10.8	11.3	8.40	10.5	416	5.93	1.95	172.2	0.02
	7D	10.7	10.7	8.01		416	5.93	1.44	136.2	0.12
	10S	9.6	8.90	7.94	6.0	422	131	7.05	270.6	1.41
	10D	9.4	8.71	7.73		421	132	6.97	269.5	1.36
2016	1S	26.7	11.3	7.89	96.8	445	43.3	8.86	79.7	1.95
	1D	25.5	7.55	7.67		458	20.0	6.71	58.8	1.31
	3S	26.1	7.00	8.50	101.0	410	17.6	0.86	3.81	1.05
	3D	26.3	7.30	8.50		410	21.1	0.72	3.87	1.16
	7S	25.8	10.0	7.95	13.2	465	0.33	0.08	16.4	0.03
	7D	25.1	8.88	7.88		466	0.25	0.11	16.5	0.05
	10S	25.6	4.10	7.75	21.3	470	13.4	9.66	94.0	2.43
	10D	23.4	4.10	7.62		470	65.3	8.45	66.8	3.18

*Nutrient analysis detection limits: NH4+ = 0.04 µM; NOx = 0.04 µM; OP = 0.008 µM.

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Table 2.
Details of non-parametric Kendall's correlation analysis. Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) Kendall's Tau coefficients are bold.

		Temp	DO	pH	Chl a	TDS	NH_4^+	NO_2^-	NO_3^-	PO_4^{3-}	NH_4^+:NO_3^-
Uptake L	Kendall's T	-0.010	-0.061	**-0.326**	0.133	**0.321**	0.230	0.020	0.048	0.081	**0.301**
	p value	0.935	0.626	**0.009**	0.471	**0.010**	**0.064**	0.871	0.697	0.517	**0.016**
Uptake D	Kendall's T	-0.014	-0.041	**-0.293**	0.117	**0.337**	**0.295**	0.000	0.069	0.069	**0.369**
	p value	0.910	0.745	**0.019**	0.529	**0.007**	**0.018**	1.000	0.581	0.581	**0.003**
Regeneration	Kendall's T	0.095	-0.110	-0.103	0.300	**0.301**	**0.344**	0.149	0.012	**0.259**	**0.487**
	p value	0.446	0.381	0.408	0.105	**0.016**	**0.006**	0.230	0.923	**0.038**	**<0.001**
Nitrification	Kendall's T	-0.138	-0.128	-0.214	0.242	-0.058	**0.385**	**0.341**	**0.377**	**0.341**	0.272
	p value	0.346	0.385	0.143	0.273	0.691	**0.009**	**0.020**	**0.010**	**0.020**	0.063
AOA	Kendall's T	0.109	0.179	0.083	0.273	0.161	0.015	-0.014	-0.051	0.043	-0.004
	p value	0.457	0.224	0.568	0.217	0.275	0.921	0.921	0.728	0.766	0.980
AOB	Kendall's T	0.175	-0.157	-0.149	0.273	0.175	**0.458**	**0.341**	0.130	**0.500**	**0.425**
	p value	0.234	0.286	0.309	0.217	0.233	**0.002**	**0.020**	0.372	**0.001**	**0.004**

Table 3.
Comparison of ammonium dynamics (in µmol L^{-1} hr^{-1}) and chlorophyll a concentrations among different freshwater studies.

	Up(L)	Up(D)	Reg Avg	Chl a (µg L^{-1})	Reference
Lake Lugano	0.017 ± 0.001	0.008 ± 0.003	0.010 ± 0.002	< 2.00	McCarthy unpublished
Lake Michigan	0.019 ± 0.004	0.01 ± 0.002	0.008 ± 0.001	2.44	Gardner et al., 2004
Lake Rotorua	0.114 ± 0.008	0.021 ± 0.005	0.047 ± 0.007	23.3	Gardner et al., 2017
Lake Rotoiti	0.132 ± 0.033	0.08 ± 0.019	0.063 ± 0.018	7.66	Gardner et al., 2017
Missisquoi Bay	0.205 ± 0.022	0.104 ± 0.015	0.085 ± 0.013	16.2	McCarthy et al., 2013
Lake Erie	0.258 ± 0.128	0.036 ± 0.009	0.124 ± 0.052	19.9	McCarthy unpublished
Lake Okeechobee	0.577 ± 0.006	0.029 ± 0.01	0.160 ± 0.021	16.8	James et al. 2011
Taihu Lake	0.655 ± 0.285	0.271 ± 0.111	0.325 ± 0.144	11.5	McCarthy et al.2007
Taihu Lake	0.886 ± 0.09	0.399 ± 0.121	0.368 ± 0.071	37.4	This study
Lake Maracaibo	3.35 ± 0.795	2.73± 0.643	0.389 ± 0.175	22.0	Gardner et al. 1998

Table 4.
Details of best-fitting multiple regression models determined by stepwise regression. All rates, temperature, and ambient nutrient concentrations were log-transformed prior to analysis.

Process	Variable	Parameter			Model		
		Estimate	Std. estimate	P	Adj. R^2	F	P
Uptake Light	T	1.048	0.216	0.0001	0.643	10.3	$9.14x10^{-6}$
	DO	0.053	0.012	0.0002			
	pH	-0.320	0.054	0.0000			
	NH_4^+	0.669	0.272	0.0213			
Uptake Dark	T	0.488	0.121	0.0005	0.745	16.1	$1.66x10^{-7}$
	DO	0.034	0.007	0.0000			
	pH	-0.187	0.031	0.0000			
	NH_4^+	0.579	0.153	0.0008			
	NO_2^-	-1.619	0.660	0.0215			
	NO_3^-	-0.098	0.034	0.0086			
Regeneration	T	0.321	0.098	0.0031	0.695	12.8	$1.42x10^{-6}$
	DO	0.025	0.005	0.0003			
	pH	-0.092	0.024	0.0008			
	NH_4^+	0.386	0.126	0.0053			
	NO_3^-	-0.061	0.027	0.0340			
Nitrification	NO_2^-	3.262	1.226	0.0165	0.498	4.80	0.004

Figure 1

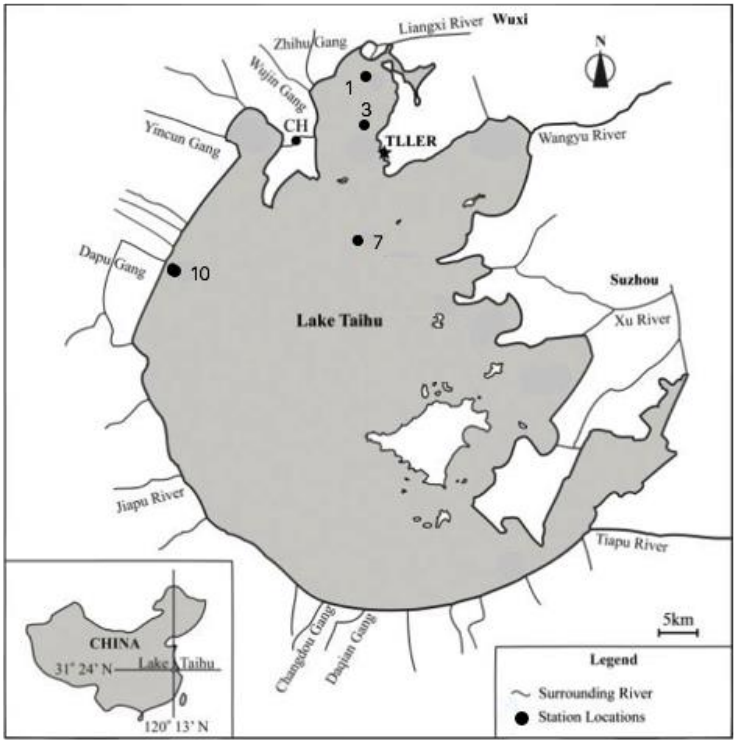

Liangxi River
Wuxi
Zhihu Gang
Wujin Gang
N
1
3
CH
TLLER
Yincun Gang
Wangyu River
7
Dapu Gang
10
Suzhou
Lake Taihu
Xu River
Jiapu River
Tiapu River
CHINA
31° 24' N
Lake Taihu
120° 13' N
5km
Changdou Gang
Daqian Gang
Legend
Surrounding River
Station Locations

Figure 2

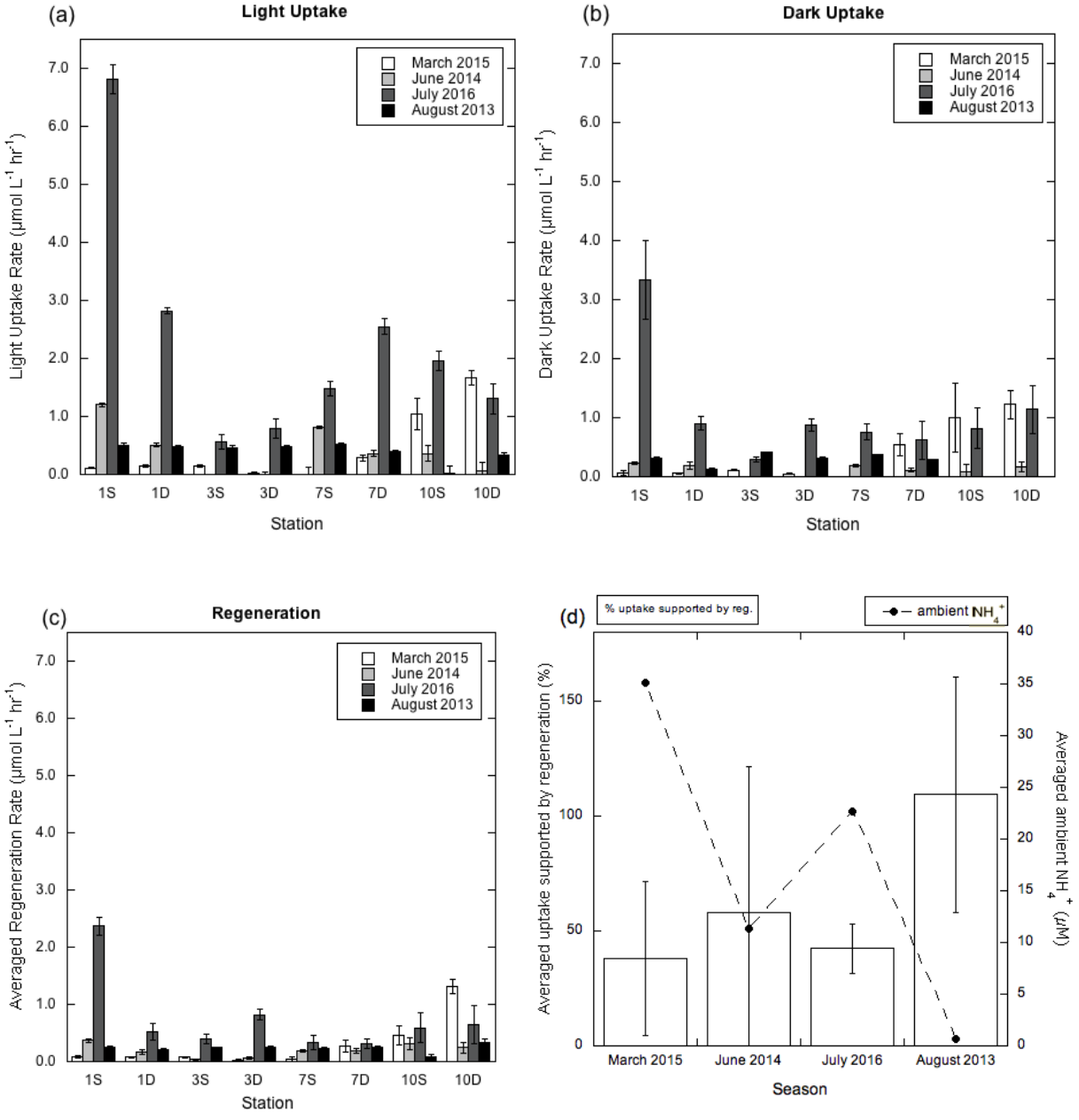

(a)
Light Uptake
March 2015
June 2014
July 2016
August 2013
Light Uptake Rate (µmol L-1 hr-1)
Station
1S
1D
3S
3D
7S
7D
10S
10D
(b)
Dark Uptake
Dark Uptake Rate (µmol L-1 hr-1)
(c)
Regeneration
Averaged Regeneration Rate (µmol L-1 hr-1)
(d)
% uptake supported by reg.
ambient NH4+
Averaged uptake supported by regeneration (%)
Averaged ambient NH4+ (µM)
March 2015
June 2014
July 2016
August 2013
Season

Figure 3

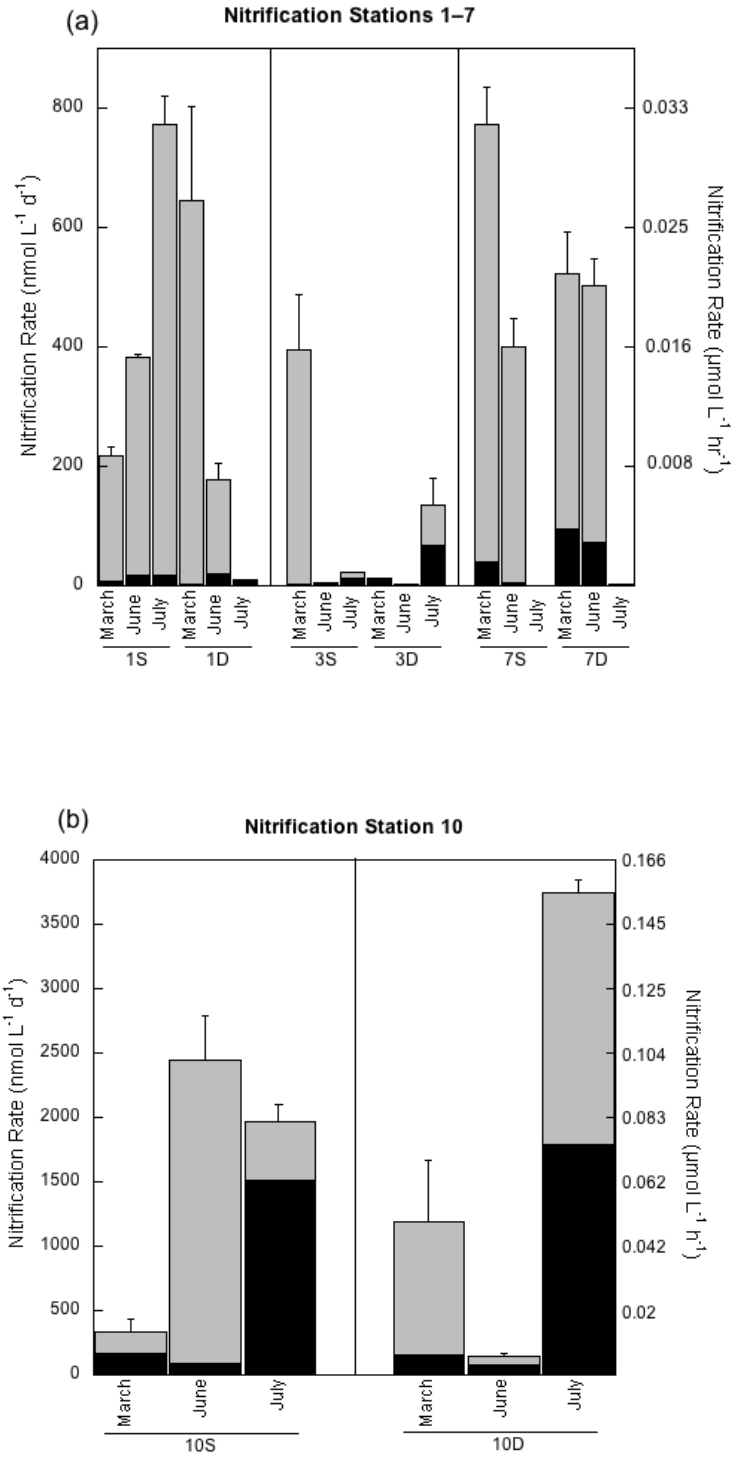
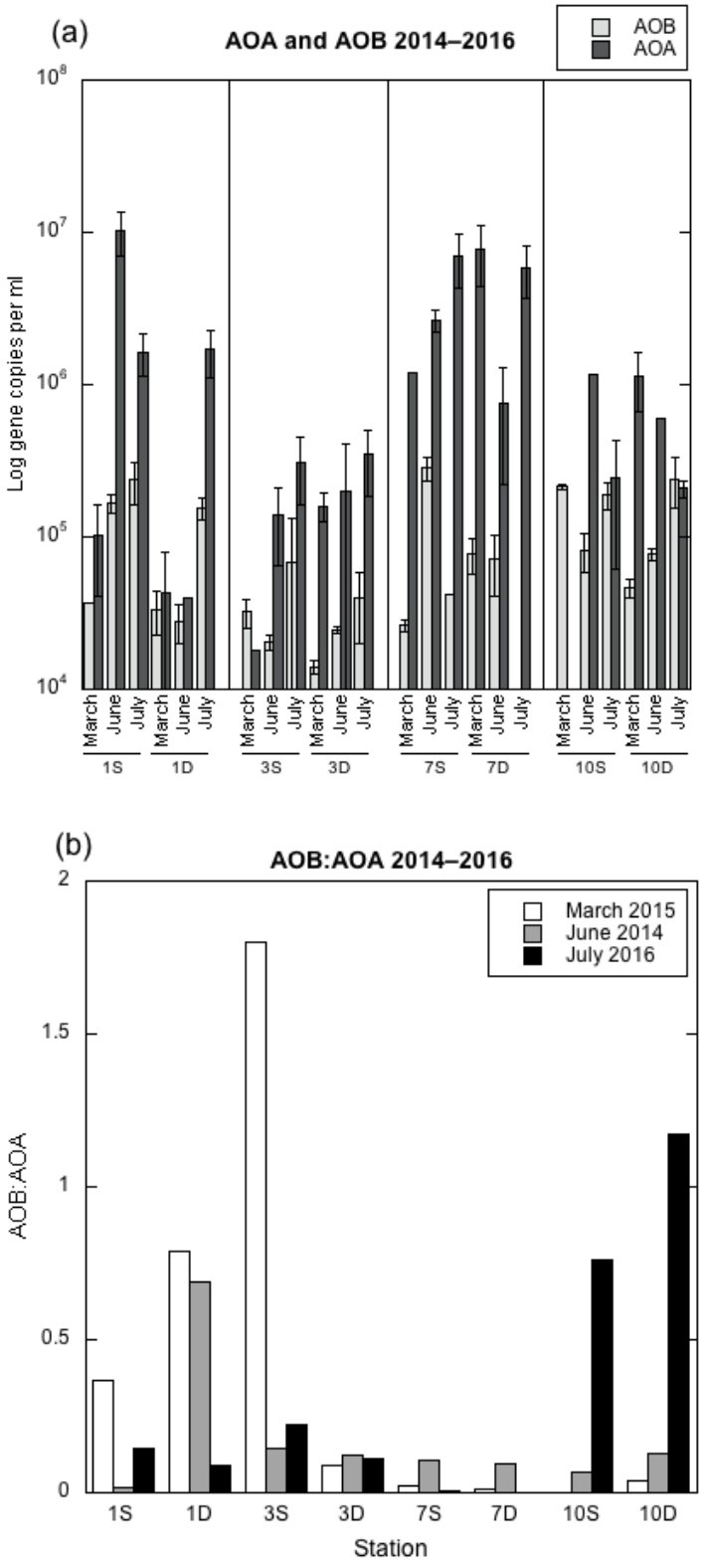

(a)
Nitrification Stations 1–7
Nitrification Rate (nmol L-1 d-1)
Nitrification Rate (µmol L-1 hr-1)
0
200
400
600
800
0.008
0.016
0.025
0.033
March
June
July
1S
1D
3S
3D
7S
7D
(b)
Nitrification Station 10
Nitrification Rate (nmol L-1 d-1)
Nitrification Rate (µmol L-1 h-1)
0
500
1000
1500
2000
2500
3000
3500
4000
0.02
0.042
0.062
0.083
0.104
0.125
0.145
0.166
10S
10D

Figure 4


(a)
AOA and AOB 2014–2016
AOB
AOA
Log gene copies per ml
10^8
10^7
10^6
10^5
10^4
March
June
July
1S
1D
3S
3D
7S
7D
10S
10D
(b)
AOB:AOA 2014–2016
March 2015
June 2014
July 2016
AOB:AOA
2
1.5
1
0.5
0
1S
1D
3S
3D
7S
7D
10S
10D
Station