



- 1 Rapidly increasing sulfate concentration: a hidden promoter of eutrophication in
- 2 shallow lakes
- 3 Chuanqiao Zhou^{a,1}, Yu Peng^{a,1}, Li Chen^a, Miaotong Yu^a, Muchun Zhou^b, Runze Xu^a,
- 4 Lanqing Zhang^a, Siyuan Zhang^c, Xiaoguang Xu ^{a,*}, Limin Zhang^a, Guoxiang Wang^a
- ^a School of Environment, Nanjing Normal University, Jiangsu Center for Collaborative
- 6 Innovation in Geographical Information Resource Development and Application,
- 7 Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Environmental Change and Ecological Construction,
- 8 Nanjing 210023, China
- 9 b China Aerospace Science and Industry Nanjing Chenguang group, Nanjing 210022,
- 10 China
- ^c School of Energy and Environment, Southeast University, Nanjing 210096, China
- 12 *Corresponding author. 1, Wenyuan Road, Xianlin University District, Nanjing,
- 13 210023, China
- 14 *E-mail address: xxg05504118@163.com*
- 15 Both authors contributed equally
- 16 Keywords: Sulfate reduction; iron reduction; phosphorus release; eutrophication;
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- 18 Abstract:
- Except for excessive nutrient input and climate warming, the rapidly rising SO₄²-
- 20 concentration is considered as a crucial contributor to the eutrophication in shallow
- 21 lakes, however, the driving process and mechanism are still far from clear. In this study,
- we constructed a series of microcosms with initial SO₄²- concentrations of 0, 30, 60, 90,





120 and 150 mg/L to simulate the rapidly SO₄²- increase of Lake Taihu subjected to 23 cyanobacteria blooms. Results showed that the sulfate reduction rate was stimulated by 24 the increase of initial SO₄²- concentrations and cyanobacteria-derived organic matter, 25 with the maximal sulfate reduction rate of 39.68 mg/L·d in the treatment of 150 mg/L 26 SO_4^{2-} concentration. During the sulfate reduction, the produced maximal ΣS^{2-} 27 concentration in the overlying water and acid volatile sulfate (AVS) in the sediments 28 29 were 3.15 mg/L and 11.11 mg/kg, respectively, and both of them were positively correlated with initial SO₄²⁻ concentrations (R²=0.97; R²=0.92). The increasing 30 31 abundance of sulfate reduction bacteria (SRB) was also linearly correlated with initial SO_4^{2-} concentrations (R²=0.96), ranging from 6.65×10^7 to 1.97×10^8 copies/g. However, 32 the Fe²⁺ concentrations displayed a negative correlation with initial SO₄²⁻ 33 concentrations, and the final Fe²⁺ concentrations were 9.68, 7.07, 6.5, 5.57, 4.42 and 34 3.46 mg/L, respectively. As a result, the released TP in the overlying water, to promote 35 the eutrophication, was up to 1.4 mg/L in the treatment of 150 mg/L SO₄²⁻ concentration. 36 Therefore, it is necessary to consider the effect of rapidly increasing SO₄²-37 38 concentrations on the release of endogenous phosphorus and the eutrophication in lakes. 1.Introduction 39 Nowadays, cyanobacteria bloom in eutrophic lakes has become one of the most 40 serious problems in freshwater lakes all over the world (Iwayama et al., 2017; Ho et al., 41 2019). Phosphorus, as a necessary nutrient for biological growth, is considered to be 42 one of the main limiting factors of lake eutrophication (Ni et al., 2020). In recent years, 43 the input of exogenous phosphorus has been effectively controlled, while the release of 44

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endogenous phosphorus is still an urgent problem in eutrophic lakes (Liu et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2020). The release of endogenous phosphorus is affected by many factors, such as wind and wave and the cyanobacteria decomposition (Xu et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2019). There are many forms of phosphorus in freshwater lake sediments, including aluminum bound phosphorus (Al-P), iron bound phosphorus (Fe-P), etc. Among them, Fe-P, formed under the condition of high dissolved oxygen (DO), is the most active form of phosphorus in the sediments, which has a more obvious response to the change of DO (Zhang et al., 2020). The accumulation and decay of cyanobacteria in eutrophic lakes will change the physical and chemical environments of water body and form anaerobic reduction conditions (Yan et al., 2017). This will facilitate the reduction of iron oxides and lead to the desorption and release of Fe-P in sediments, resulting in the increase of endogenous phosphorus release (Zhao et al., 2019). Iron reduction plays an important role in natural ecosystems. It has been reported that dissimilatory reduction of iron accounts for 22% of the total amount of organic matter anaerobic mineralization in offshore areas (Thamdrup et al., 2004). According to the classical theory, iron oxides or hydroxides can adsorb phosphorus in the water and form Fe-P precipitation (Gunnars et al., 1997). In freshwater lakes, the lack of Fe(III) content or the diagenesis of organic phosphorus may be the reason for the lack of phosphorus in the overlying water. Therefore, the formation of iron oxides on the surface of sediments is closely related to the phosphorus cycle process (Amirbahman et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2014). The interaction between iron and phosphorus is reflected in the effect of adsorption and desorption of Fe oxide on the P content in the overlying

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oxides can be used as both the source and destination of phosphorus in lake ecosystems (Mort et al., 2010; Azam et al., 2014). In anaerobic reduction environments, iron reduction can significantly promote the resolution of Fe-P. The Fe²⁺ generated by the reaction can form FeS solid with soluble sulfide. In addition, free Fe3+ will combine with humus to form stable complex, which further prevents the co-precipitation process of phosphorus and iron oxides (Mort et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2020). Therefore, iron reduction process driven by cyanobacteria decomposition affects the circulation of phosphorus in freshwater lakes. Due to the SO₄²⁻ concentration in seawater reaching 28 mM, sulfate reduction process with the participation of sulfate reduction bacteria (SRB) has received considerable attention in the basic material cycle of marine biogeochemistry (Fike et al., 2015; Pan et al., 2020). In freshwater lakes, the SO₄²⁻ concentration is less than 800 μM, which is generally considered insufficient for continuous sulfate reduction (Hansel et al., 2015). However, in recent years, with the increasing SO₄²⁻ concentration in freshwater lakes, the impact of sulfate reduction on the material cycle of lake ecosystems may be far beyond our knowledge (Dierberg et al., 2011; Baldwin et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2013). In the past 70 years, the SO₄² concentration in Lake Taihu has increased from 30mg/L to 100mg/L (Yu et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2022). It has been reported that sulfate reduction process is one of the important ways of anaerobic metabolism of organic matter in freshwater lakes, and $\sum S^{2-}$ produced by sulfate reduction process can mediate the iron reduction process (Jorgensen et al., 2019; Zhang

water, since Fe-P is the main internal source of phosphorus (Wu et al., 2019). Iron





et al., 2020). SRB mainly uses SO₄²- as the electron acceptor to complete anaerobic 89 90 respiration, and the sulfur compounds produced by anaerobic metabolism are bound with iron and so on, which are fixed in the sediments and form AVS on the surface of 91 sediments (Holmer et al., 2001; Chen et al., 2016). Therefore, with the input of 92 exogenous sulfur, sulfate reduction process produced ΣS^{2-} will further promote iron 93 reduction in freshwater lakes. 94 95 In freshwater lakes, iron cycle affects the process of phosphorus cycle, and sulfur 96 cycle plays an important role in regulating iron cycle. Therefore, the cycle of iron, sulfur 97 and phosphorus in freshwater lakes is inseparable (Wu et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2019). Studies have shown that even when SO_4^{2-} content was as low as 20 mg/L, the anaerobic 98 metabolism of organic substrates was still dominated by sulfate reduction. Therefore, 99 100 sulfate reduction process plays an important role in the lacustrine biochemical cycle (Hansel et al., 2015). In the absence of cyanobacteria, sulfate reduction doesn't occur 101 even if the SO₄²⁻ concentration is higher (Zhao et al., 2021). This is because the 102 accumulation and decomposition of cyanobacteria not only change the environment of 103 104 water body, but also release a large amount of organic matter, which provides the necessary conditions for the circulation of iron, sulfur and phosphorus (Yan et al., 2017; 105 Melemdez-Pastor et al., 2019). Therefore, under the co-effect of the increase of SO₄²-106 and the cyanobacteria decomposition, the sulfate reduction process and the effect of 107 108 iron reduction process on endogenous phosphorus release from sediments need to be 109 further studied. In this study, a series of different initial concentrations of SO₄²⁻ were set according 110





to the variation trend of SO₄²⁻ concentrations over the years and the possible rising trend of eutrophic Lake Taihu. The effects of increased SO₄²⁻ concentration and cyanobacteria bloom on sulfate reduction coupled with the microbial processes were investigated. In addition, the dynamic changes of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ concentrations during iron reduction were studied in order to reveal the effect of sulfate reduction on iron reduction. The effects of increasing sulfate concentration and cyanobacteria outbreak on sulfur cycle, iron cycle and phosphorus cycle were also comprehensively analyzed for elucidating the phosphorus release dynamics to tracking the hidden promoter of cyanobacteria bloom occurrence in eutrophic lakes. The findings may be benefit for evaluating the effect of sulfate reduction in freshwater lakes and its impact on the promotion of iron reduction and the release of endogenous phosphorus.

2.Materials and methods

2.1 Sample collection and preparation

Lake Taihu (31°24′40" N, 120°1′3" E), one of the largest eutrophic shallow lakes in China, with an average depth of 2.4 m and an area of 2340 m² (Mao et al., 2021). Samples of sediments and cyanobacteria were collected in July 2020. Sediments from the west shoreline of the lake (31°24′45"N, 120°0′42"E) were collected using a peterson mud picker. Cyanobacteria bloom scums were collected and concentrated by sieving water through a fine-mesh plankton (250 meshes). All the sediment and cyanobacteria samples were stored in an incubator with ice packs and delivered to the laboratory immediately. The sediment samples were blended thoroughly, homogenized, and sieved (100 mesh) to the polyethylene bag. The cyanobacteria samples were flushed





and centrifuged at 1500 r/min for 5 min by a CT15RT versatile refrigerated centrifuge 133 134 (China) and freezed drying by Biosafer-10A. Different gradient sulfate concentrations were prepared from the high purity water and Na₂SO₄. 135 2.2 Set-up of incubation microcosms 136 To simulate the dramatical SO₄²- increase and cyanobacteria blooms of eutrophic 137 Lake Taihu, a series of microcosms were constructed in this study. According to the 138 139 ratio of surface sediments and the average water depth and the cyanobacteria accumulation density of 2500 g/m² during the breakout of cyanobacteria blooms of 140 141 Taihu Lake, 100 g of sediment, 200 ml of water and 0.11 g of cyanobacteria powder were added into each bottle (Zhang et al., 2020). Meanwhile, according to the change 142 trend of SO₄²- concentrations in Taihu Lake over the years (Yu et al., 2013), the SO₄²-143 144 concentrations in six microcosm systems were configured as: 30, 60, 90, 120, 150 mg/L, and a control without SO₄²-, respectively. The microcosm adopts anaerobic bottle 145 (Φ 75mm, length 180mm, volume 500ml) as the reaction device. There are three 146 replicates in each SO₄²⁻ concentration experimental group. Since the sampling method 147 148 of the experiment is destructive sampling, 17 anaerobic bottles need to be set for each parallel group according to the setting of experimental sampling times, so there are 6 \times 149 3×17 anaerobic bottles in total. All the anaerobic bottles were placed in biochemical 150 incubator at a temperature of 25 °C. Each group was sampled 17 times on 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 151 152 6, 7, 9, 11, 14, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38, 43 and 48 d. The water, gas and soil samples were 153 collected by destructive sampling, three anaerobic bottles were collected in each group. A part of sediment was used for microbe determination and kept in a refrigerator at -154





80 °C, and the rest sediment and other samples were kept at 0-4 °C for less than 24 h 155 156 before analysis. 2.3 Chemical analytical methods 157 All water column and pore-water samples were filtered through 0.45 µm Nylon 158 159 filters prior. Dissolved total phosphorus (DTP) was determined by colorimetry after digestion with K₂S₂O₈+NaOH (Ebina et al., 1983). Water DO, oxidation and reduction 160 161 potential (ORP) were measured using calibrated probes (MP525, China) during destructive sampling. The SO_4^{2-} and $\sum S^{2-}$ were detected using the turbidimetric 162 (Tabatabai et al., 1974), methylene blue (Cline et al., 1969). Acid volatile sulfate (AVS), 163 the ΣS^{2-} combined with metal ions formed compounds in sediments, was determined 164 by zinc cold diffusion method (Hsieh et al., 1997). Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ was determined by 165 166 colorimetrical (Phillips et al., 1987). The sediment total phosphorus (TP) was extracted and determined by coloimetry (Ruban et al., 2001). 167 2.4 Quantification of SRB in sediments 168 In order to confirm the changes of sediment SRB in the microcosms, RT-QPCR 169 170 technologies were used to determine the cell copy numbers of MPA and SRB on 0,7 and 38 d in the sediments. 171 The sediment samples were collected and frozen at -80 °C in an ultra-low 172 temperature freezer. The E.Z.N.A. ®Soil DNA Kit (Omega Bio-Tek, Norcross, GA, 173 USA) was used to extract the total genomic DNA from each soil sample according to 174 the manufacturer's instructions. Nucleic acid quality and concentration were 175 determined by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and NanoDrop 2000 UV 176





spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, USA), respectively. 177 SRB in sediments were quantified using the quantitative polymerase chain 178 reaction (qPCR) method. The qPCR with primer sets targeting DSR1F+ (5'-179 ACSCACTGGAAGCACGGCGG-3') and DSR-R (5'-GTGGMRCCGTGCAKRTT 180 181 GG-3') were used for the SRB in this study. The q-PCR experiments were performed on a ABI7300 q-PCR instrument (Applied Biosystems, USA) using ChamQ SYBR 182 183 Color qPCR Master Mix as the signal dye. Each 20 µL reaction mixture contained 2 µL 184 of the template DNA and 16.5 µL of ChamQ SYBR Color qPCR Master Mix. Standard 185 curves for each gene were obtained by the tenfold serial dilution of standard plasmids containing the target functional gene. All operations were followed the MIQE 186 guidelines. 187 2.5 Statistical analysis 188 The Statistical Package of the Social Science 18.0 (SPSS 18.0) was used for 189 statistical analysis. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and correlation 190 analysis was carried out using bivariate correlations analysis. 191 192 3. Results 193 3.1 Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} dynamics in overlying water 194 The concentration variations of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ in overlying water during the 195 incubation was presented in Fig.1. In the treatment without SO₄²-, they increased 196 continuously to 9.68 mg/L and 10.15 mg/L, respectively. The concentration of Fe³⁺ in 197 the remaining five treatments decreased at the beginning and then increased to keep 198





stable. The higher the initial sulfate concentration was, the lower the final Fe^{3+} concentration displayed. In the initial 150 mg/L SO_4^{2-} concentration treatment, the final Fe^{3+} concentration was the lowest of 7.7 mg/L. The Fe^{2+} concentration in the five treatments supplemented with SO_4^{2-} decreased significantly from 11 d to 23 d, and then increased to a stable level. The final concentration of Fe^{2+} also showed a negative correlation with the initial concentration of SO_4^{2-} . In the initial 30 mg/L SO_4^{2-} concentration treatment, the final Fe^{2+} concentration was the highest of 7.07 mg/L.

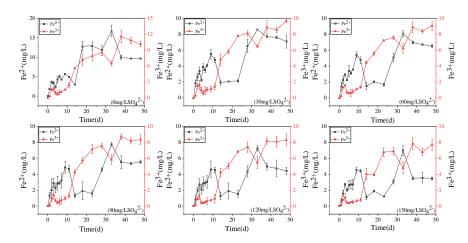


Figure 1. The concentration variations of Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} in the water column during the incubation

3.2 SO_4^{2-} and $\sum S^{2-}$ dynamics in overlying water

All treatments had obvious sulfate reduction reaction, and the concentration of SO_4^{2-} decreased greatly except for the treatment without adding SO_4^{2-} (Fig.2). The higher the initial sulfate concentration was, the faster the sulfate reduction rate in the initial stage exhibited (Tab.1). In the treatment with initial SO_4^{2-} concentration of 150 mg/L, the sulphate reduction rate was 39.68 mg/L·d, while it was only 9.39 mg/L·d in





the 30 mg/L SO₄²⁻ treatment. The sulfate reduction rate at the beginning of other treatments was also positively correlated with the initial SO₄²⁻ concentration.

The higher the initial $SO_4^{2^-}$ concentration was, the higher the maximum concentration of $\sum S^{2^-}$ was. In the treatment with initial $SO_4^{2^-}$ concentration of 30 mg/L, the lowest concentration was 2.93 mg/L on the 5th day. However, the lowest $SO_4^{2^-}$ concentration appeared on the 23rd day was 1.18 mg/L in the treatment with initial $SO_4^{2^-}$ concentration of 150 mg/L. The maximum concentration of $\sum S^{2^-}$ was positively correlated with the initial $SO_4^{2^-}$ concentration. In the initial $SO_4^{2^-}$ concentrations of 30, 60, 90, 120 and 150 mg/L $SO_4^{2^-}$ treatments, the highest $\sum S^{2^-}$ concentrations at 7 d were 0.14, 0.61, 1.14, 1.55, 2.15, and 3.15 mg/L, respectively.

Table 1. Sulphate reduction rate in the water column with different initial SO_4^{2-} concentrations

Time(d)	0	7	38
Groups			
0 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	-	-	-
30 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	9.39	0.74	0.05
60 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	9.44	2.84	0.07
90 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	28.02	4.98	0.11
120 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	30.89	19.45	0.11
150 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	39.68	10.42	0.21

* The units of sulphate reduction rate were mg/L·d





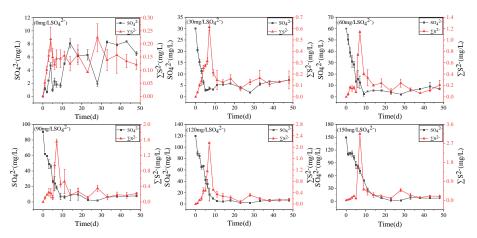


Figure 2. The concentration variations of SO_4^{2-} and $\sum S^{2-}$ in the water column during the incubation

3.3 TP dynamics in overlying water and sediments

The dynamics of DTP concentrations in overlying water during the incubation was presented (Fig.3 left). The concentrations of DTP in overlying water were positively correlated with the initial SO_4^{2-} . The higher the initial concentrations of SO_4^{2-} were, the higher the concentrations of DTP in overlying water were. On 11 day, DTP in overlying water continued to rise and then kept stable. The highest DTP concentration was 2.08 mg/L in the treatment with initial SO_4^{2-} concentration of 150 mg/L, while the highest DTP concentration was 0.36 mg/L in the treatment without SO_4^{2-} addition.

The concentrations of TP in the sediments increased significantly in all treatments with the cyanobacteria decomposition in the initial stage (Fig.3 right). Among of all treatments, on 9th day, the highest concentration of TP in the sediments was 887.69 mg/kg in the treatment with initial SO₄²⁻ concentration of 0 mg/L. After 23 days, TP in the sediments decreased significantly and then stabilized. During cyanobacteria decomposition and sulfate reduction, the concentrations of TP in all treatments





negatively correlated with the initial SO_4^{2-} concentration. The final TP concentration was 448.92, 335.32, 321.56, 259.32, 238.56 and 227.21 mg/kg, respectively in all treatments.

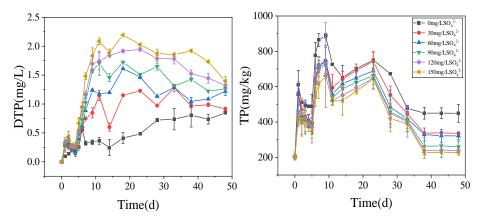


Figure 3. The concentrations of TP in the overlying water (left) and sediments (right) during the incubation

3.4 AVS dynamics in the sediments

The concentrations of AVS in the sediments were positively correlated with the initial SO_4^{2-} concentrations. With the increase of TP in overlying water, the AVS in the sediments also increased steadily and reached the peak on the 11st days. In the treatment with initial SO_4^{2-} concentration of 0, 30, 60, 90, 120 and 150 mg/L, the highest concentration of AVS in the sediments were 7.21, 7.99, 8.54, 8.99, 9.34 and 11.11 mg/kg, respectively.





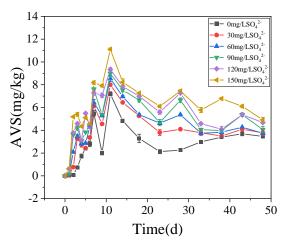


Figure 4. The concentration of AVS in the sediments during the incubation

3.5 SRB dynamics in the sediments

During the decomposition of cyanobacteria, SRB abundance significantly changed. In the initial stage, the SRB abundance was 1.09*10⁸ copies/g and the final value was positively correlated with the initial SO₄²-. On 7 d, SRB of all treatments showed a downward trend compared with the initial value, and there was no significant difference in SRB values between each treatment. On 38 d, except for the initial SO₄²- concentrations of 0 and 30 mg/L, SRB increased significantly in other treatments.

Table 2. Copy numbers of the *dsrB* gene of SRB in the sediments during the incubation

Time	0d	7d	38d
Groups			
0 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	$1.09*10^{8}$	$5.81*10^7$	$6.65*10^7$
30 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	$1.09*10^{8}$	$6.13*10^7$	$7.71*10^7$
60 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	$1.09*10^{8}$	$7.61*10^7$	$1.15*10^8$
90 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	$1.09*10^{8}$	$7.87*10^7$	$1.31*10^{8}$
120 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	$1.09*10^{8}$	$7.99*10^7$	$1.49*10^8$
150 mg/LSO ₄ ²⁻	$1.09*10^8$	$8.23*10^7$	1.91*10 ⁸

^{*} The units of SRB were copies/g





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4.Discussion

It is generally acknowledged that climate warming and exogenous nutrient input are the important contributors to the occurrence of cyanobacteria blooms (Huisman et al., 2004; Yan et al., 2017). However, in this study, we found that the dramatically increasing SO_4^{2-} concentration in eutrophic lakes is also a non-negligible promoter for the self-sustaining of cyanobacteria blooms. In eutrophic lakes, the decomposition of cyanobacteria consumed DO in the water, and formed strong anaerobic reduction conditions (Fig.S1). Cyanobacteria released large amounts of organic matter during their decay and decomposition (Fig.S2), which promoted microbial growth (Tab. 2) and ultimately promoted anaerobic reduction of sulfur and iron (Holmer et al., 2001). Fe-P was desorbed to from free Fe³⁺, which was reduced to Fe²⁺ in anaerobic environments (Fig.1). Free Fe²⁺ combined with ΣS^{2-} which generated by sulfate reduction and eventually formed AVS fixed in the sediments (Fig.4), and phosphorus was released from the sediments (Fig.3). Therefore, with increasing SO₄²⁻ concentrations in eutrophic lakes, the influence of sulfate reduction on phosphorus release is worth further investigation. Sulfur and iron in eutrophic lake sediments are directly related to iron and phosphorus, and sulfur and phosphorus are also closely linked to bridges under the action of iron (Zhang et al., 2020). Therefore, with the increase of SO₄²⁻ concentration in eutrophic lakes, the effect of sulfate reduction on phosphorus release from sediments may be more important than previously recognized (Pester et al., 2012). Sulfate

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reduction driven by SRB is an important organic metabolism pathway in natural systems. During the sulfate reduction process, SO_4^{2-} is an electron acceptor and its concentration variation can significantly affect the sulfate reduction rate (Holmer et al., 2001; Nakagawa et al., 2012). During sulfate reduction, SO_4^{2-} is reduced to ΣS^{2-} by acquiring the electrons supplied by SRB oxidation, hence SRB plays an important role in sulfate reduction (Sela-Adler et al., 2017). In the case of increased SRB abundance (Tab. 2) and increased SO_4^{2-} concentration, the sulfate reduction reaction was enhanced. The SO₄²⁻ concentration in the overlying water decreased significantly accompanied by a temporary increase in ΣS^{2-} (Fig.2). The highest concentrations of ΣS^{2-} also increased with the initial SO_4^{2-} concentrations (Fig.5a). Interestingly, the ΣS^{2-} decreased rapidly after day 10 to almost zero at the end (Fig.2). This may result from the two keys: (a) hydrogen sulfide overflows from the incubator; (b) sulfide migrates downward, and combines with other substances in the sediment and is immobilized (Zhang et al., 2020). In this study, TP in the overlying water has a significant positive correlation with the initial SO_4^{2-} concentrations ($R^2 = 0.96$; Fig3). The classical theory holds that iron reduction by microorganisms leads to the release of iron-bound phosphorus in the anaerobic layer of sediments, and when the formed Fe²⁺ enters the aerobic water layer, it is oxidized by Fe³⁺ and bound to phosphorus again (Roden et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2016). When the sulfate reduction process mediates the iron reduction process, the released Fe²⁺ combines with the product ΣS^{2-} of sulfate reduction to form Fe-S, thus weakening the reoxidation process of Fe²⁺, and increasing the release of phosphorus (Mort et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2019). Therefore, with the increase of SO₄²-





concentrations in eutrophic lakes, it significantly promoted the release of endogenous 315 phosphorus from the sediments. 316 Although from a thermodynamic point of view, iron reduction should take 317 precedence over sulfur reduction (Han et al., 2015). However, due to chemical kinetics, 318 319 sulfur reduction occurs before iron reduction, resulting in the simultaneous appearance of ΣS^{2-} and iron oxides (Han et al., 2015; Hansel et al., 2015). This is consistent with 320 321 the concentration variation of iron and sulfur in this study (Fig.1-3). It has been reported 322 that iron cycles in the water body will produce an intense response to the accumulation 323 of sulfide, that is, sulfate reduction can promote iron reduction (Friedrich et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2020). ΣS^2 is the final product of sulfate reduction, which is toxic to 324 microorganisms and easy to combine with heavy metals such as Fe²⁺ to form AVS in 325 326 lake sediments (Holmer et al., 2001). In this study, the concentration of AVS showed a significant positive correlation with the initial concentration of SO₄²⁻ (Fig. 4, 5b), which 327 was consistent with the highest concentration of $\sum S^{2-}$ observed in the overlying water 328 (Fig. 2, 5c). The concentrations of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ in the overlying water increased 329 significantly, and Fe²⁺ significantly decreased in the middle of the incubation (Fig. 1), 330 suggesting that Fe²⁺ reduced by sulfate can be combined with the product ΣS^{2-} (Fig. 2). 331 These results consistent with the trend that AVS in the sediments reached a peak after 332 11 days and $\sum S^{2-}$ in the water decreased rapidly after 9 days and remained at a lower 333 334 concentration (Fig. 2, 3). The reason for this phenomenon may be the formation of Fe-S compounds that is finally fixed in the sediments (Zhao et al., 2019). 335 The $\sum S^{2-}$ mediated iron chemical reduction may lead to more environmental 336

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effects, such as phosphorus mobilization (Zhang et al., 2020). In this study, the concentration of Fe²⁺ in the treatment without SO₄²⁻ continued to rise, and was up to the highest concentration among all treatments (Fig. 1). In contrast, the concentrations of TP in the treatment without SO₄²⁻ showed the lowest concentration among all treatments (Fig. 1, 5a). This is caused by Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ recombining with phosphorus and being immobilized in the sediments (Wu et al., 2019). In general, iron combines with phosphorus to form siderite (FePO₄ 2H₂O) and blue iron (Fe₃(PO₄)₂ 8H₂O) and is bound to the sediments (Taylor et al., 2011). However, when precipitation or reduction separates iron from iron phosphate minerals, phosphorus bound to iron is released (Gu et al., 2016). In order to further elucidate whether the increasing SO₄²⁻ concentrations in overlying water result in the self-sustaining of eutrophication in shallow lakes, a conceptual diagram was put forward (Fig. 6). It has been accepted that exogenous nutrient inputs and climate warming have positive effects on the breakout of cyanobacteria blooms. With the continuous input of exogenous sulfur, the SO₄²⁻ concentration in the lake water increases significantly. When cyanobacteria blooms start to decay, the overlying water shifts from the aerobic state to the strong anaerobic state, providing carbon source to promote the growth of microorganisms such as SRB. The increasing SO_4^{2-} concentrations provide the electron for the sulfate reduction process, resulting in the sulfate reduction and the release of a large amount of ΣS^{2} . The Fe²⁺ released from the iron reduction process is captured by ΣS^{2-} , and finally the combination of iron and P was reduced, promoting the release of endogenous





- phosphorus. Therefore, it is necessary to pay attention to the effect of enhanced sulfate
- 360 reduction on endogenous phosphorus release in eutrophic lakes.

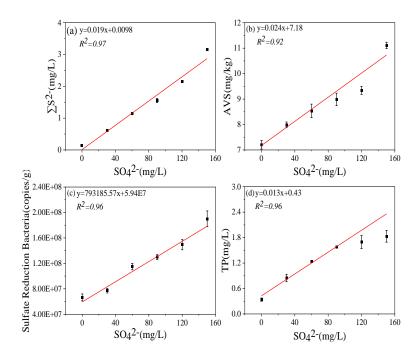
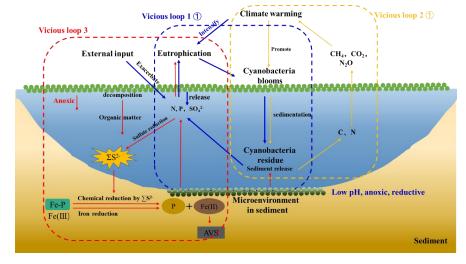


Figure 5. Correlation of initial SO_4^{2-} concentrations with $\sum S^{2-}$ (a), AVS(b), Sulfate-

reducing bacteria (SRB) (c), TP (d) in the microcosm systems, respectively.



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Figure 6. A simplified scheme of the relationship among climate warming, lake eutrophication and cyanobacteria blooms in eutrophic lakes. Under climate warming scenarios, extreme abiotic and biotic conditions facilitated the outbreak of cyanobacteria blooms. After their collapse, the high amount of N, P, and C were released into the overlying water and reacted with the eutrophication. Furthermore, a large amount of CH_4 and CO_2 was produced and emitted to the atmosphere, contributing to global warming of freshwater lakes (Yan et al. 2017). With the external sulfur input, the concentration of SO_4^{2-} increased significantly and sulfate reduction was enhanced. The cyanobacteria decomposition created an anaerobic reduction environment, which will promote iron reduction and sulfate reduction. The free Fe^{3+} generated by Fe-P desorption was reduced to Fe^{2+} and combined with ΣS^{2-} which produced by sulfate reduction to form stable Fe-S in the sediments. Phosphorus was released from the sediment into the overlying water. Therefore, there are three vicious loops between cyanobacteria blooms occurrence, lake eutrophication and climate warming.

5.Conclusion

The dramatical increase of SO_4^{2-} concentration was up to more than 100 mg/L in eutrophic lakes. There was a coupling relationship between sulfur, iron and phosphorus cycles in lake ecosystems. Rapidly increasing sulfate concentration enhanced the sulfate reduction to release of a large amount of ΣS^{2-} mediated by the increasing abundance of SRB with the adequate organic source from the decay processes of cyanobacteria blooms. The iron reduction, in positive with initial sulfate concentration,

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occurred with the cyanobacteria decomposition. The Fe²⁺ released from the iron reduction process was captured by $\sum S^{2-}$, and finally the combination of iron and P was reduced, promoting the release of endogenous phosphorus. Therefore, except for climate warming and excessive nutrients, the increasing sulfate concentration is proved to be another hidden promoter of eutrophication in shallow lakes. **Author contributions** Xu Xiaoguang: designed and led the study. Zhou Chuanqiao, Peng Yu, Chen Li, Yu Miaotong, Muchun Zhou, Xu Runze, Lanqing Zhang, Siyuan Zhang: performed the investigation and analysed the samples. Zhou Chuanqiao and Peng Yu: wrote the original draft with major edits and inputs from Xu Xiaoguang, Zhang Limin and Wang Guoxiang. **Competing interests** The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. Acknowledgements This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.42077294, 41877336, 41971043), the Cooperation and Guidance Project of Prospering Inner Mongolia through Science and Technology (No.2021CG0037), the





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