

1 **Nutrient availability as major driver of phytoplankton-derived dissolved**
2 **organic matter transformation in coastal environment**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Incubation experiments were performed to examine the processing of fresh autochthonous
18 dissolved organic matter (DOM) produced by coastal plankton communities in spring and
19 autumn. The major driver of observed DOM dynamics was the seasonally variable inorganic
20 nutrient status and characteristics of the initial bulk DOM, whereas the characteristics of the
21 phytoplankton community seemed to have a minor role. Net accumulation of dissolved
22 organic carbon (DOC) during the 18-d experiments was 3.4 and 9.2 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ in P-limited
23 spring and N-limited autumn, respectively. Bacterial bioassays revealed that the
24 phytoplankton-derived DOC had surprisingly low proportions of biologically labile DOC,
25 12.6 % (spring) and 17.5 % (autumn). The optical characteristics of the DOM changed
26 throughout the experiments, demonstrating continuous heterotrophic processing of the DOM
27 pool. However, these temporal changes in optical characteristics of the DOM pool were not
28 the same between seasons, indicating seasonally variable environmental drivers. Nitrogen and
29 phosphorus availability is likely the main driver of these seasonal differences, affecting both
30 phytoplankton extracellular release of DOM and its heterotrophic degradation by bacteria.
31 These findings underline the complexity of the DOM production and consumption by the
32 natural planktonic community, and show the importance of the prevailing environmental
33 conditions regulating the DOM pathways.

34

35 **Keywords:** extracellular release; autochthonous organic matter; carbon cycling; colored
36 dissolved organic matter

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Dissolved organic matter (DOM) in the marine environment is a key component in the global
39 carbon cycle (Carlson & Hansell 2014). DOM provides a carbon source for heterotrophic
40 metabolism, but also affects the underwater light regime because the colored fraction of the
41 DOM pool (CDOM) absorbs both UV and visible light. The optical properties of DOM
42 (absorbance and fluorescence) have been widely used to determine the origin and fate of
43 DOM, as they are linked to the inherent chemical characteristics of the DOM pool (Weishaar
44 et al. 2003; Osburn & Stedmon 2011; Reader et al. 2015). Studies on DOM absorbance and
45 fluorescence have revealed significant biogeochemical processing of the DOM pool in
46 coastal environments (Moran et al. 2000; Boyd & Osburn 2004). One of the major sources of
47 DOM is the autochthonous production by phytoplankton (Søndergaard et al. 2000; Stedmon
48 & Markager 2005). DOM is released from phytoplankton by multiple mechanisms such as
49 excretion, exudation and cell lysis (Thornton 2014). In general, a major part of this DOM is
50 extracellular release (ER) of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) compounds with little or no
51 macronutrients (Mykkestad 1995). The transformation and consumption by heterotrophic
52 organisms is altering the composition of this DOM pool rapidly after its release (Rochelle-
53 Newall and Fisher 2002; Yamashita & Tanoue 2004; Romera-Castillo et al. 2011; Danhiez et
54 al. 2017). The heterotrophic processing of natural DOM has been suggested to follow a
55 reactivity continuum, where the most labile fractions are utilized first by heterotrophs,
56 resulting in continuously increasing recalcitrance of the DOM pool (Vähätalo et al. 2010).
57 However, our understanding of how ER is processed and transformed by the natural
58 planktonic community and how it aligns with the reactivity continuum concept is limited.
59 Further, there are significant gaps in our knowledge about the role of the seasonality on DOM
60 – phytoplankton interactions.

61
62 The overall aim of this study was to quantify and characterize the transformation of the DOM
63 originating from natural community of planktonic primary producers and bridge the
64 knowledge gap between the extracellular release of dissolved organic carbon and optical
65 properties of DOM in coastal waters. Specifically, we wanted to examine changes in DOM
66 optical characteristics related to phytoplankton primary production in changing inorganic
67 nutrient conditions. We hypothesize that 1) extracellular release of DOM as a result of
68 phytoplankton primary production is rapidly reworked by heterotrophic processing and 2)
69 these transformation processes vary seasonally, depending on the phytoplankton community

70 and nutrient availability. To test these hypotheses, changes in DOM quantity and quality were
71 studied in two laboratory experiments with natural coastal plankton communities collected in
72 spring and in the autumn including manipulations of nutrient conditions.

73

74 **2. Material & methods**

75 **2.1. Experimental setup**

76 We sampled water from Roskilde Fjord (Denmark), a shallow fjord-like temperate estuary in
77 the coastal Baltic Sea, with small freshwater inputs and a long freshwater residence time
78 (Flindt et al. 1997). Despite the relatively high nutrient inputs from the agriculture-dominated
79 catchment, the system is net heterotrophic on an annual scale (Staehr et al. 2017).

80 Experiments were designed to cover periods that are expected to be prominently autotrophic
81 (March) and heterotrophic (September) (Staehr et al. 2017). Typically, the highest levels of
82 net ecosystem production are observed during the phytoplankton spring bloom that occurs in
83 March-April, after which the chlorophyll levels stay moderate throughout the growth season
84 (Staehr et al. 2017). Water for the experiments was sampled from the surface at 55.71 N,
85 12.07 E on 14 September 2015 and 14 March 2016. Samples were pre-screened with 100 μm
86 mesh, transferred into HDPE carboys and transported to the laboratory within 1 h.

87 Incubations were carried out for 18 days, using six 10 L glass bottles, which were filled with
88 sample water. Three of the replicate units were spiked with 3 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ of NO_3^- -N (as NaNO_3)
89 on first four days of the experiments, totaling an addition of 12 $\mu\text{mol N l}^{-1}$, and three units
90 were controls. Experiment units were incubated at 10 ± 1 °C in a climate-controlled room,
91 with daylight fluorescent tubes on a 16:8 light: dark cycle in saturated PAR light at an
92 irradiance of 100–120 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, measured just outside experimental bottles by a
93 calibrated LI-193 spherical quantum sensor. Each bottle was placed on top of a magnetic stir
94 plate, and constantly gently stirred with a teflon-coated magnetic bar. Samples were taken on
95 five occasions during the 18-d incubations. Samples for DOM analyses were filtered with
96 precombusted (450°C for 4 h) glass-fiber filters with a nominal pore size of 0.7 μm .

97

98 To quantify the proportion of bioavailable (labile) fraction of DOC (BDOC), we conducted
99 bacterial DOM degradation bioassays throughout the phytoplankton growth experiment.

100 Samples for bioassays were filtered with non-combusted glass-fiber filters (nominal pore size
101 0.7 μm) and transferred into 250 ml glass bottles with gas-tight septum caps. To ensure
102 replete nutrient conditions, bacterial bioassays were spiked with both nitrate-N (NaNO_3) and

103 phosphate-P (KH_2PO_4) of additional $10 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ and $2 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$, respectively. Bioassays were
104 incubated in dark at room temperature ($21 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) for 14 days. After the incubations, samples
105 for DOM analysis were filtered with precombusted glass fiber filters. Samples for DOC were
106 stored frozen until analysis whereas samples for CDOM and fluorescent dissolved organic
107 matter (FDOM) samples were stored refrigerated until analysis.

108

109 **2.2. Laboratory analyses**

110 The samples were analyzed for ammonium, nitrite, nitrate (DIN) and phosphate (DIP) using
111 the techniques described by Hansen and Koroleff (2007). DOC was measured with a
112 Shimadzu TOC- V_{CPH} analyzer, and the accuracy of measured DOC concentrations was
113 controlled by analyzing a seawater reference standard provided by the CRM (consensus
114 reference material) program. CDOM absorption was measured using a Shimadzu 2401PC
115 spectrophotometer with 5 cm quartz cuvette over the spectral range from 200 to 800 nm with
116 1 nm intervals. Ultrapure water was used as the blank for all samples. Excitation-emission
117 matrices (EEMs) of fluorescent DOM (FDOM) were measured with a Varian Cary Eclipse
118 fluorometer (Agilent). A blank sample of ultrapure water was removed from EEMs, as well
119 as the scattering bands. EEMs were corrected for inner filter effects with absorbance spectra
120 (Murphy et al. 2010) and Raman calibrated by normalizing to the area under the Raman
121 scatter peak (excitation wavelength of 350 nm) of an ultrapure water sample run on the same
122 session as the samples. Chl α was determined from the combusted glass fiber filters, extracted
123 with 10 ml ethanol (96%) for 24 hours in the dark, according to Holm-Hansen & Riemann
124 (1978). Extracts were then stored in -20°C freezer until measurement with an AU 10 Turner
125 field fluorometer (Turner Designs, US). Phytoplankton was quantified under a size-calibrated
126 inverted microscope (Nikon TI-U, Nikon Instruments Europe B.V.) following (Hasle 1978).
127 Samples were fixed with acidic lugol's solution (2-4% final concentration) and sedimented
128 in 10-50 ml Utermöhl chambers (Utermöhl 1958), depending on the cell density. Larger
129 organisms ($>30 \mu\text{m}$), including ciliates, were usually screened under lower magnification
130 (100X) and the screened area depended on the density of the most abundant organisms,
131 whereas smaller organisms ($<30 \mu\text{m}$) were counted under higher magnification (200X and
132 400X). The organisms were grouped into larger taxonomical division aiming to evaluate the
133 previously linkages between phytoplankton taxonomy and the quantity and quality of DOM
134 (Aluwihare & Repeta 1999; Sarmiento et al. 2013).

135

136 2.3. Statistical analyses

137 To quantify the DOM optical characteristics, DOC-normalized absorbance at 254 nm
138 (SUVA₂₅₄; Weishaar et al. 2003) and spectral slope coefficient between 275–295 nm (S_{275–}
139 ₂₉₅; Helms et al. 2008) were calculated. For assessing the terrestrial signature and the initial
140 quality of the DOM pool, fluorescence metrics as peaks (Coble 1996), humification index
141 (HIX) (Zsolnay et al. 1999) and biological index (BIX) (Huguet et al. 2009) were calculated
142 from the measured and corrected EEMs. Processing of the EEMs was done using the eemR
143 package for R software (Massicotte 2016). In order to resolve the “fingerprints” of the
144 different DOM sources (autochthonous vs. allochthonous), we used the parallel factor
145 analysis (PARAFAC) to distinguish different components of the measured and corrected
146 EEMs (Murphy et al. 2008). PARAFAC modeling was done following the protocol by
147 Murphy et al. (2013). Successive models from four to nine components were fitted using the
148 DrEEM Matlab toolbox. Based on split-half analysis, a model with nine components was
149 found to adequately model the fluorescence variability over the samples ($R^2 = 0.9992$). The
150 identified components were compared to previously validated components using the
151 OpenFluor fluorescence database (<http://www.openfluor.org/>) and main characteristics are
152 presented in Table S1 and Fig. S1. Note that PARAFAC was performed on a dataset with
153 additional samples from Roskilde Fjord ($n = 246$), which were processed in identical way as
154 the experimental samples ($n = 94$). This approach allows more accurate distinction of the
155 components originating from the phytoplankton growth.

156

157 Measured DOM variables as well as DIN, DIP and Chl α measurements were subjected to
158 repeated-measures analysis using a mixed model in SAS (version 9.3). Variables were
159 normalized by subtraction of the initial value to make the two seasonal experiments
160 comparable. Fixed effects and variance components were estimated by restricted maximum-
161 likelihood. The fixed effects in the model were season (s_i), treatment (t_j) and their two-way
162 interaction ($s_i \times t_j$) as well as the day of the experiment nested within season ($d_k(s_i)$) and its
163 interaction with treatment ($d_k(s_i) \times t_j$), i.e. $d_k(s_i)$ described the temporal trend for each season
164 common to both treatments and $d_k(s_i) \times t_j$ described the treatment-specific trends for each of
165 the two seasons. A first-order autoregressive model was chosen for the error structure to
166 describe temporal correlation within each experimental unit. Complete list of results is
167 presented in Table 2. For revealing the temporal patterns in the multivariate DOM
168 characteristics during the experiments, we conducted a principal component analysis (PCA)

169 separately on spectral CDOM absorbance (250–450 nm at 5 nm intervals) and on the nine
170 FDOM components from the PARAFAC analysis. The DOM variables were normalized to
171 initial conditions, which allows that the PC scores from the two seasons could be compared
172 directly. Consequently, we examined if time trajectories of the PC scores differed between
173 the two seasons, indicating different patterns of DOM processing during the experiments.
174 Non-parametric Kruskal–Wallis test was used to examine the significance of treatment and
175 season in observed BDOC values.

176

177 **3. Results**

178 The initial inorganic nutrient conditions were very different between the experiments (Fig. 1).
179 In spring phosphorus was the potential growth limiting nutrient and nitrogen was potentially
180 limiting in autumn (DIN:DIP ratios 52.5 and 0.93, respectively). In the beginning of the
181 incubations, Chl α increased during the first 4 days for both seasons and treatments. In the
182 spring units (Fig. 2a–b), the first peak in Chl α occurred at around day 4, after which the Chl
183 α started to decline for both treatments (nitrate added and control units), and a second peak
184 emerged after day 12, reaching approximately same level as the first peak. The variation
185 among units gradually increased during the spring experiment. In autumn experiment, the
186 peak Chl α was observed on day 8, after which the Chl α declined rapidly to the same level in
187 both treatments on day 14. Overall, Chl α in units with nitrate addition was higher than in
188 control units during the autumn experiment. In the beginning of the both seasons, the
189 phytoplankton community was initially dominated by cryptophytes which were overcome by
190 diatoms midway through the experiments (Fig. 2c–f).

191

192 The DOM pool in the beginning of the experiments was different between seasons (Table 1).
193 DOC concentration was slightly lower in spring compared to autumn (465 and 499 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$,
194 respectively), whereas DOM quality indicators, that can be used as proxies for allochthonous
195 (terrestrial) vs. autochthonous, showed more pronounced allochthonous DOM signal in
196 spring. This was signified by higher specific UV absorbance (SUVA_{254}), lower slope
197 coefficient ($S_{275-295}$), higher humic-like fluorescence (peak C) and humification index (HIX).
198 Conversely, the inverse patterns for these DOM characteristics and additionally higher values
199 for protein-like fluorescence (peak T) and biological index (BIX) indicate stronger
200 autochthonous contribution to the DOM pool in autumn.

201

202 DOC accumulation changed significantly over time ($d_k(s_i)$) during the two experiments ($F_{6, 21}$
203 $= 30.3$, $P < 0.0001$). Differences between nutrient added and control units were not
204 significant in either experiment ($F_{6, 21} = 1.14$, $P = 0.37$). During the spring experiment, there
205 was an increase in DOC concentration until day 7, after which there were only minor
206 changes. In the autumn experiment, there was an initial decrease in DOC concentration, but
207 after day 8, a large increase was observed. Nutrient additions had no effect on the DOC
208 dynamics in the spring experiment, consistent with similar phytoplankton growth patterns
209 among units (Fig. 1). On the other hand, at the end of the autumn experiment, DOC
210 concentrations increased more with nitrate added. On average, the DOC increase during the
211 18-d incubations was $62 \pm 40 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ (13%) in the spring experiment, compared to 165 ± 30
212 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ (33%) in autumn experiment (Fig. 4). Normalized to average chlorophyll
213 concentrations, accumulation of DOC ($\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{g}$) for spring and autumn was 42 ± 27 and $597 \pm$
214 209 l^{-1} , respectively. Assuming constant accumulation rates, the DOC increase was 3.4 and
215 $9.2 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in spring and autumn, respectively. Effect of nitrate addition on DOC
216 accumulation was not significant for either season.

217

218 The proportion of bioavailable (labile) fraction of the phytoplankton-derived DOC (BDOC)
219 with dark-incubated bioassays varied between 1.1% and 44% (Fig. 3). For both seasons,
220 BDOC from units with NO_3^- addition was not different from the control units. DOC from
221 autumn units yielded higher BDOC values compared to that of the spring units, on average
222 17.5 and 12.6 %, respectively.

223

224 There was an increase of colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) throughout the
225 absorption spectrum during the spring experiment (Fig. 4). Interestingly, there was a loss
226 during the autumn experiment across all wavelengths, despite the increasing DOC. The
227 relative changes were more pronounced at higher wavelengths compared to lower
228 wavelengths (+4% and -6% at 250 nm in spring and autumn, respectively, versus +72% and -
229 16% at 400 nm).

230

231 As described in Table 1, the initial DOM composition was different between seasons. Also
232 the dynamics of the DOM characteristics were different between experiments (Fig. 5).
233 CDOM absorption at 254 nm ($a_{\text{CDOM}254}$) decreased during the first days in the spring
234 experiment (Fig. 5a), and increased again until midway of the experiment, after which there
235 were no significant changes. In autumn, $a_{\text{CDOM}254}$ stagnated until day 14, after which there

236 was a large drop in CDOM absorption (Fig. 5b). CDOM slope coefficient ($S_{275-295}$) increased
237 strongly during the first days of the spring experiment (Fig. 5c), but declined throughout the
238 rest of the experiment. Changes in slope were modest in autumn (Fig. 5d), showing minor
239 increase during the course of the experiment. Dynamics of the humic-like fluorescence was
240 almost like an inverse of the CDOM slope, decreasing rapidly in the first few days of the
241 spring experiment (Fig. 5e). Only minor changes were observed for the major part of the
242 autumn experiment, except for the increase in the last days of the experiment (Fig. 5f).
243 Protein-like fluorescence increased in the beginning of the spring experiment, and declined
244 throughout the remaining of the experiment (Fig. 5g). The changes in protein-like
245 fluorescence were more dynamic in the autumn experiment (Fig. 5h), but resulting in
246 considerably lower levels at the end of the experiment compared to the initial conditions.

247

248 The repeated-measures mixed model approach revealed that season had a significant effect on
249 the DOM characteristics, as there was a significant difference between spring and autumn for
250 all 9 components from the PARAFAC analysis (Table 2). Also, season was a strong driver
251 for the inorganic nitrogen and phosphorus concentrations. Further, experiment day had a
252 significant effect on study variables, whereas the combined effect of treatment and
253 experiment day was significant only for a few variables.

254

255 Principal component analysis (PCA) revealed temporal shifts in DOM characteristics (Fig. 6).
256 In the spring experiment, the temporal changes along the PC axes were overall larger than in
257 autumn in both CDOM spectral absorbance (Fig. 6a) and PARAFAC components (Fig. 6b).
258 The largest excursions from initial conditions occurred in the early stage of the spring
259 experiment. On the other hand, relatively small changes took place in the autumn experiment
260 during the first two weeks; the largest change occurring between days 14 and 18. For CDOM
261 spectral absorbance, the variation in eigenvectors across the wavelengths were minimal on
262 PC1 (Fig. 6c), but highly dynamic for PC2 and PC3. This featureless shape of the
263 eigenvectors of PC1 suggest that it is merely an indicator of the overall quantity of CDOM.
264 Thus, we chose PC2 and PC3 to describe the spectral changes in CDOM absorbance during
265 the experiments (Fig. 6a). During the first part of the experiment, the changes along PC2 axis
266 were positive, resulting from increasing CDOM absorbance in wavelengths below 350 nm,
267 and/or decreasing above (Fig. 6c). In the latter part of the experiments, this change was in
268 inverse direction. Relative decrease in CDOM absorbance at wavelengths between 290 and
269 390 nm was driving the observed increase along the PC3 during the first days in spring.

270 Relative increase in this wavelength range resulted in decreases in PC3 on the latter part of
271 the spring experiment, and throughout the autumn experiment. The variation among
272 fluorescence components could, to large extent, be explained with the five humic-like
273 components (C1–C4 and C6) and one protein-like component (C5). A large drop in these
274 humic-like components was observed at day 4 in the spring experiment, but this change was
275 almost reversed at day 7 although with a shift towards relatively higher C3 and C5 (Fig. 6b).
276 However, these two components decreased towards the end of the spring experiment,
277 returning to fluorescence composition similar to initial condition. Changes over time during
278 the autumn experiments were of smaller magnitude, mostly dominated by a decreased in the
279 protein-like C5. During spring experiment, the time trajectories of both spectral CDOM
280 absorbance (Fig. 6a) and PARAFAC components (Fig. 6b) ended up relatively close to the
281 initial (day 0) values, whereas in the autumn experiment the deviation from the initial
282 conditions increased continuously throughout the experiment.

283

284 **4. Discussion**

285 Availability of both nitrogen and phosphorus is a major driver of phytoplankton growth and
286 the trophic state of coastal systems (Conley et al. 2009; Staehr et al. 2017). This was
287 exemplified in our experiments in the negligible response of the Chl α to nitrate additions in
288 the spring experiment where inorganic nitrogen was readily available. Instead phytoplankton
289 growth was limited by available phosphorus, decreasing to a level below 0.3–0.4 $\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$
290 during the first days of the experiment. On the other hand, in the autumn experiment the
291 phytoplankton community was obviously limited by nitrogen availability, as the nitrate
292 additions induced a 3-fold increase in Chl α concentration compared to control units with no
293 nitrogen amendment. In general, the observed declines of the Chl α in the experiments were
294 likely driven by a combination of increasing grazing pressure by ciliates and other small
295 grazers (Lampert et al. 1986) and depletion of key resource(s) (Hecky & Kilham 1988).

296

297 In our experiments, the phytoplankton community was dominated by the same major
298 taxonomical groups in both spring and autumn (cryptophytes and diatoms), suggesting that
299 the large differences in DOM dynamics and bioavailability were not directly linked to group-
300 specific phytoplankton ER. Instead, we observed considerable differences in nutrient and
301 DOM dynamics between the seasons, suggesting more complex suite of drivers than only

302 phytoplankton community composition. We argue that observed differences arose from a
303 combination of the quality of the initial DOM pool and the nutrient limitation patterns.

304

305 DOM quantity and characteristics typically have intra-annual seasonal pattern in temperate
306 coastal waters (Keith et al. 2002; Markager et al. 2011). In general, coastal DOM in spring
307 has more pronounced terrestrial signal resulting from relatively high freshwater inputs
308 draining the landscape and lower level of processing. In contrast, in autumn DOM has lesser
309 terrestrial signal and has been processed further within the system, resulting in less
310 bioavailable DOM (Wiegner et al. 2004; Stedmon et al. 2006). This seasonal variation in the
311 bulk DOM was confirmed by our experiments, as the autumn DOM pool had initially weaker
312 terrestrial signal, which suggests reduced terrestrial influence and increased processing by
313 heterotrophs (Huguet et al. 2009; Asmala et al. 2013).

314

315 Heterotrophic microbes are not just consumers of DOM, but they are also known to transform
316 non-colored DOM to colored DOM (Rochelle-Newall & Fisher 2002; Romera-Castillo et al.
317 2011). The emerging view is that the biological availability of DOM is not only a result of the
318 inherent properties of the DOM pool, but a combination of the functioning of the bacterial
319 community and environmental conditions, such as inorganic nutrient availability (Marín-
320 Spiotta et al. 2014). Inorganic nutrient availability, especially phosphate, enhances bacterial
321 DOM utilization (Kragh et al. 2008). On the other hand, nutrient availability also affects the
322 growth and DOM release by phytoplankton (Mykkestad 1995; Klausmeier et al. 2004). This
323 nutrient dependency is reflected in the amount of accumulated DOC, which was three times
324 higher in N-limited autumn. Normalized to averaged Chl α , this difference is even more
325 pronounced, as in the autumn experiment the chlorophyll-specific increase in DOC was 14
326 times higher than in the spring experiment. This is likely the result of a more optimal
327 phytoplankton growth in spring due to the replete available nitrogen (Klausmeier et al. 2004).

328

329 Despite the large seasonal differences in the amount of ER, the proportion of bioavailable
330 DOC (BDOC) was relatively invariable; 13–18 % in both seasons. This proportion is
331 surprisingly low, as in general, the average proportion of BDOC is 19% of the bulk DOC in
332 marine environments (Søndergaard & Middelboe 1995) and traditionally, DOC originating
333 from phytoplankton is considered to be more labile than the bulk DOC (Kirchman & Suzuki
334 1991; Chen & Wangersky 1996). As bacterial bioassays were spiked with abundant DIN and
335 DIP, the low BDOC values suggest relatively poor quality of the accumulated DOC. This in

336 turn indicates rapid processing of ER already within the main incubations, where the most
337 labile DOC fractions are already utilized prior to the BDOC bioassays.

338

339 Under replete inorganic nutrient conditions, bacteria may change their DOM utilization
340 patterns towards more refractory CDOM with high C:N and C:P ratios, but with higher
341 energy content (Asmala et al. 2014). Accumulation of CDOM followed opposite patterns
342 compared to DOC, as there was an increase from the initial background values throughout the
343 absorption spectrum in spring, consistent with DOC, and oppositely a CDOM decrease in
344 autumn. This suggests that with P-limitation in spring, bacteria were either not able to utilize
345 the phytoplankton derived CDOM, or they transformed the autochthonous non-colored DOM
346 to CDOM. On the other hand, the abundant DIP in autumn allowed bacteria to utilize CDOM
347 more effectively. Under conditions with low inorganic P and relatively labile bulk DOM,
348 low-quality (high C to N/P ratio) autochthonous DOM is less favorable for heterotrophic
349 consumption than the relatively fresh allochthonous DOM. On the other hand, high inorganic
350 P and relatively refractory bulk DOM could stimulate bacterial processing of fresh
351 autochthonous, but potentially nutrient-poor DOM. This difference in bacterial DOM source
352 utilization is apparent in Fig. 2, which suggests that bacteria are able to utilize colored DOM
353 when the availability of phosphorus is high.

354

355 Aquatic bacteria are transforming the DOM pool constantly by dissolution of particulates,
356 direct uptake, extracellular release and respiration (Guillemette & del Giorgio 2012).
357 Assessing the temporal changes in the DOM pool shows that the transformations are more
358 dynamic than what can be captured by just comparing start and end of the experiments. The
359 large decrease in humic-like fluorescence and molecular weight of DOM (as indicated by
360 $S_{275-295}$) in the first days of the spring experiment suggests that in the initial DOM pool there
361 was large potential for bacterial utilization of fresh allochthonous material (Asmala et al.
362 2013). After the consumption of the labile DOM, the system shifts into more balanced
363 production and consumption of DOM, as no large changes occur after day 4. In autumn, the
364 temporal changes in DOM characteristics are relatively smaller compared to spring, apart
365 from the end of the experiment where major changes in DOM characteristics coinciding with
366 increases in DIN and DIP indicate remineralization of particulate matter to dissolved phase
367 (Kragh & Søndergaard 2009). To overcome the apparent complexity in the temporal
368 dynamics of DOM characteristics, we used multivariate analyses to follow the DOM
369 transformation by analyzing the temporal changes in the spectral CDOM absorption and

370 fluorescent DOM components. It is evident that different regions of the CDOM absorption
371 spectrum or different FDOM components contribute differently to the composition of the
372 DOM pool depending on the biological drivers within the system.

373

374 As the absorption and fluorescence characteristics of DOM are tightly linked to its
375 composition (Osburn & Bianchi 2016), it can be assumed that the observed changes reflect
376 chemical transformation of the DOM pool. This transformation is a result of biogeochemical
377 processing of DOM that is not unidirectional with a common endpoint, but is a more dynamic
378 set of processes that depend on various factors, such as initial DOM quality (Ruiz-González
379 et al. 2015; Amaral et al. 2016), metabolism of the bacterial community (Cammack et al.
380 2004; Logue et al. 2015; Kaartokallio et al. 2016) and inorganic nutrient status (Zweifel et al.
381 1993; Asmala et al. 2014). Interestingly, PCA revealed that in the spring experiment the
382 DOM pool seemed to return to its original characteristics, similar to the background DOM.
383 On the other hand, in autumn the transformations continuously increased in distance from the
384 point of origin. Overall, the processing of the DOM pool was more dynamic in spring than in
385 autumn, which agrees with the smaller changes in spectral CDOM absorption and higher net
386 accumulation of DOC in autumn. This indicates lower degree of transformations in general to
387 the DOM pool in autumn, likely due its poorer quality, excreted by N-limited phytoplankton.
388 In autumn DOM is gradually transformed towards a more refractory state. In spring,
389 combination of large, labile pool of allochthonous DOM and high phytoplankton production
390 leads to more dynamic changes in the DOM pool, as the primary sources for the heterotrophic
391 consumption change during the course of the experiment. This observed seasonal shift is
392 likely the result in balance and availability of DIN and DIP, but also stoichiometry of organic
393 nutrients (Bronk et al. 1998).

394

395 These findings show that the contribution of phytoplankton-derived DOM to the bulk DOM
396 pool varies on a seasonal scale, and is strongly driven by inorganic nutrient availability and
397 bulk DOM quality. It is still highly uncertain which are the heterotrophic pathways
398 participating in the DOM transformation processes in the pelagic food web, and what are
399 their major environmental drivers. Assessing with multiple quality proxies, DOM
400 transformation by heterotrophic processes does not seem to follow a uniform path but follows
401 a seasonally distinct temporal trajectories. The seasonal differences in available nitrogen and
402 phosphorus alter the DOM processing pathways, as the DOM originating from phytoplankton
403 differs depending on the nutrient conditions. In conditions where the extracellular release of

404 DOM from phytoplankton is of low quality, bacterial carbon demand may be fulfilled with
405 the ambient DOM instead. Further, the prevailing nutrient conditions also affect the bacterial
406 metabolism of phytoplankton-derived DOM, resulting in DOM pool shaped by the
407 environmental controls.

408

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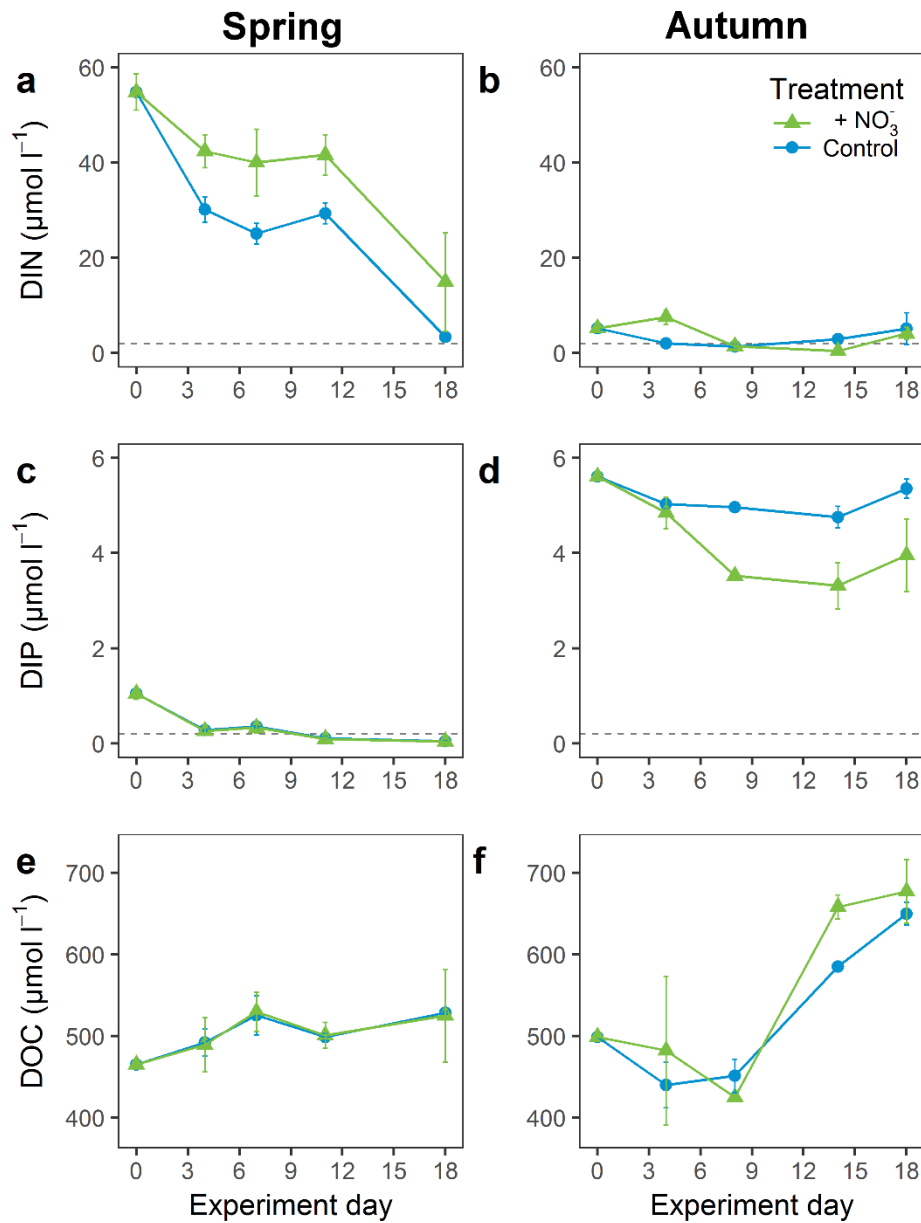
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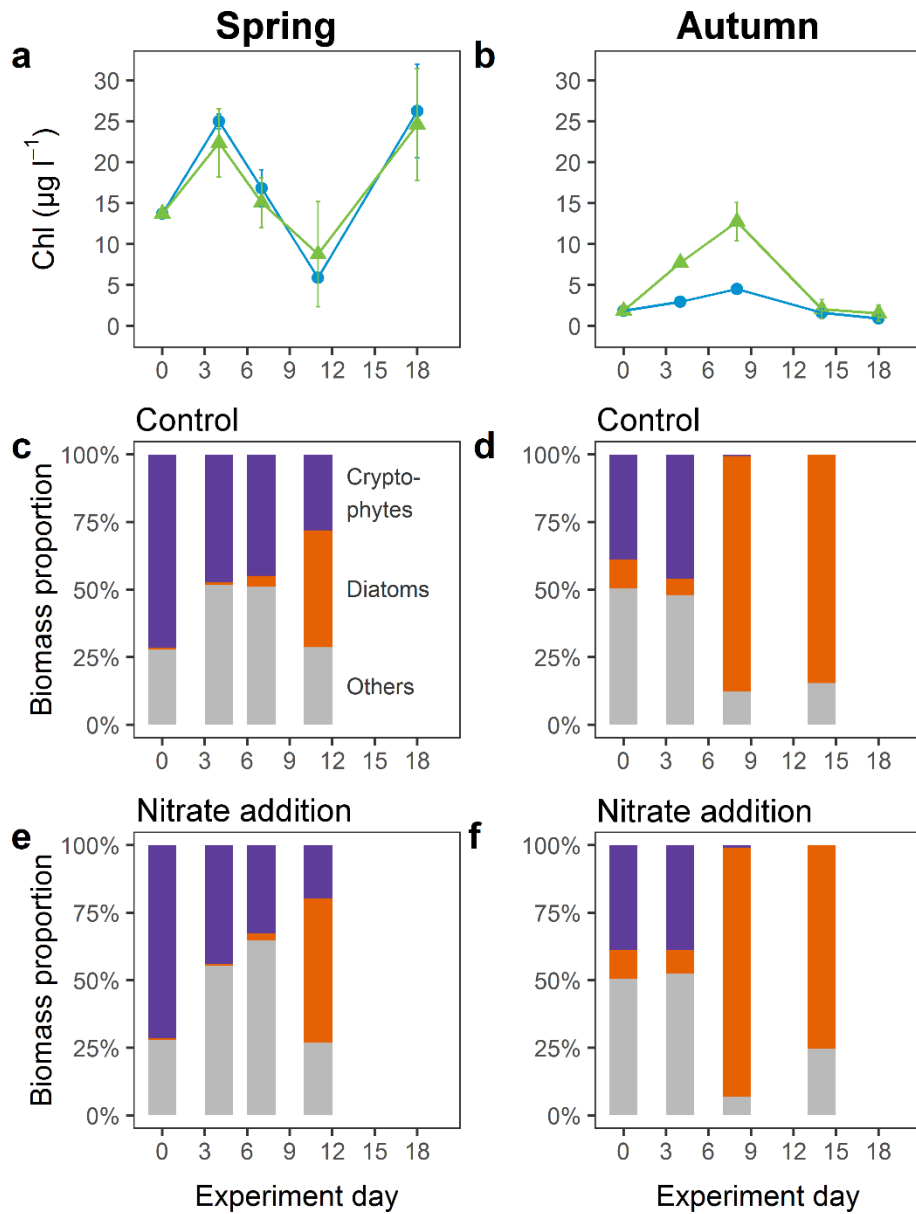
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600 **Figures**

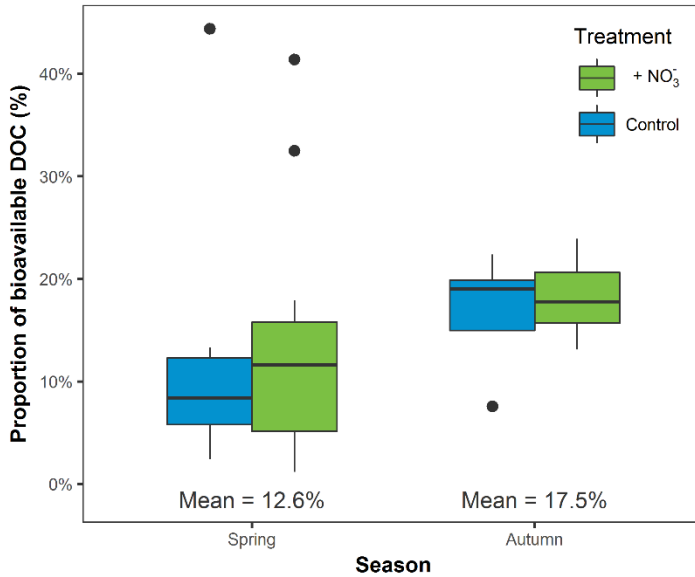


601
 602 Fig. 1. Dynamics of DIN, DIP and DOC during the 18-d incubations in spring, and autumn
 603 experiments. Data points are average values from replicate units (n = 3) for both treatments,
 604 error bars indicate one standard deviation among the replicate units. Gray dashed lines in a-b
 605 and c-d indicate levels of potential DIN and DIP limitation (2 and 0.2 µmol l⁻¹, respectively).
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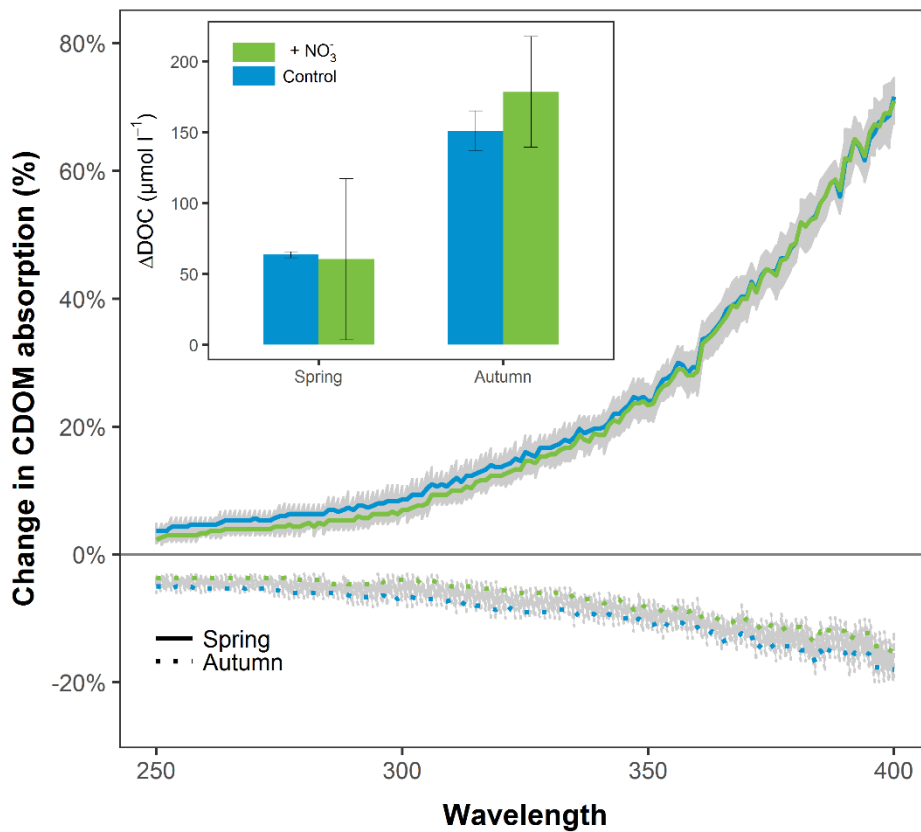
Fig. 2. Dynamics of phytoplankton biomass (as indicated by average ($n = 3$) chlorophyll α concentrations, a–b) and phytoplankton community composition (as indicated by the average ($n = 3$) proportion of the major groups of the total biomass, c–f) during the experiments.



612

613 Fig. 3. Proportion of the bioavailable DOC (BDOC) during the experiments. Nutrient
 614 additions had no significant effect on the amount of BDOC ($p = 0.577$ and 0.715 for spring
 615 and autumn, respectively), whereas season had a significant effect ($p = 0.003$).

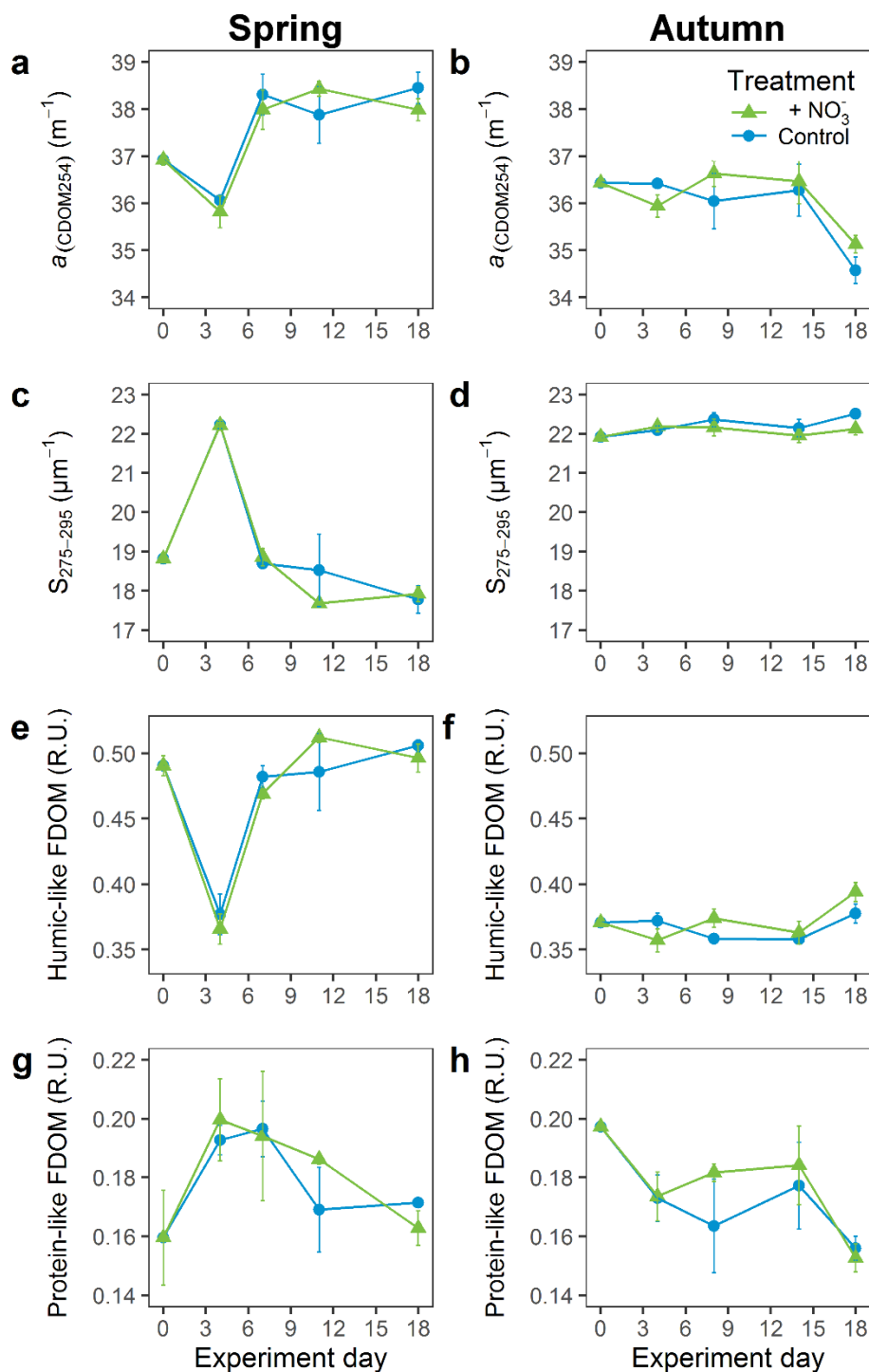
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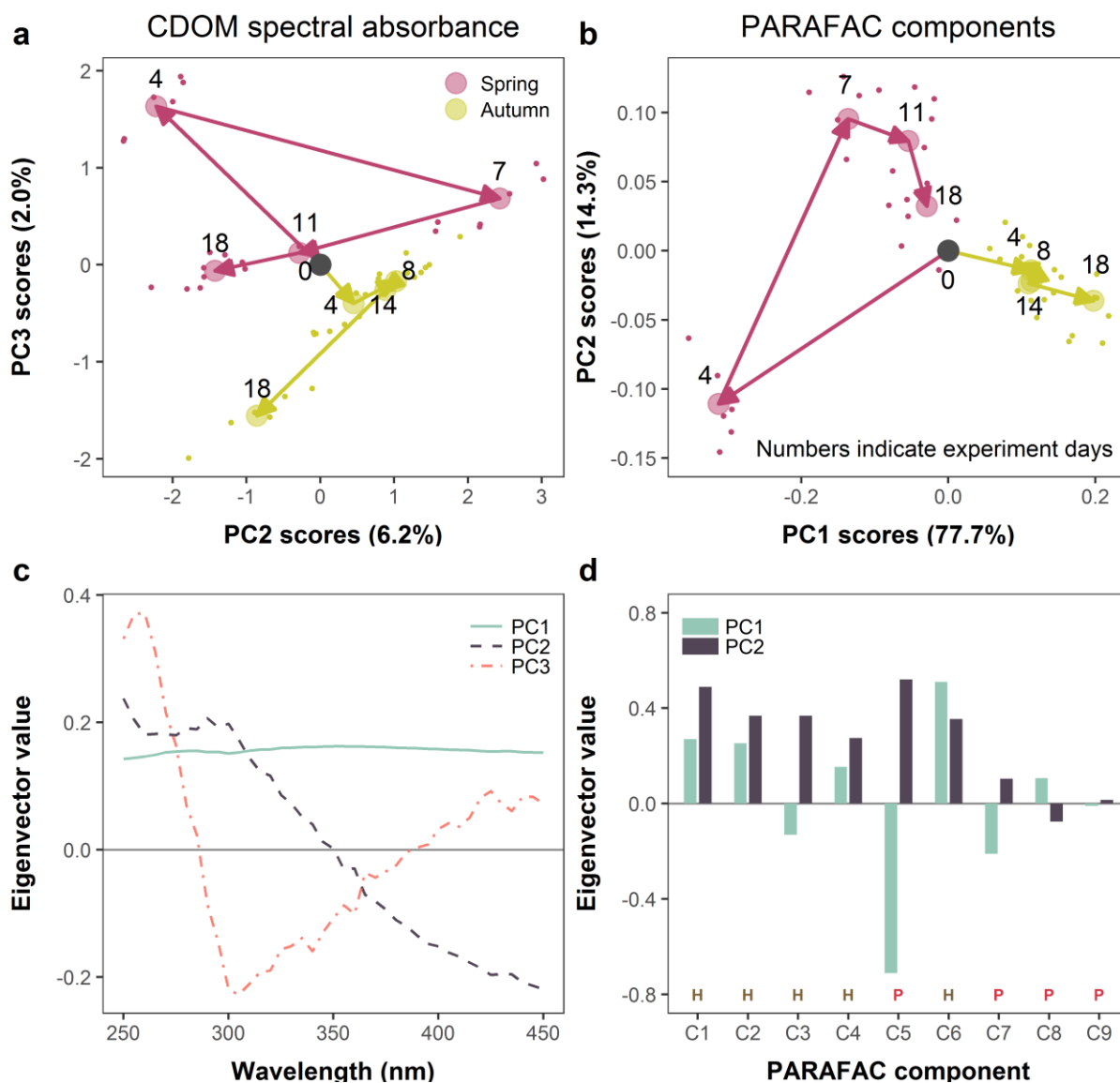
618 Fig. 4. Changes in the colored fraction of the DOM pool during the 18-d experiments. Lines
 619 show the relative changes from experiment start to end in spectral CDOM absorbance in
 620 spring and autumn. Lines are mean values of replicate units ($n = 3$), and the gray shaded

621 ribbons mark one standard deviation. Bars show the net change in DOC concentration
 622 (Δ DOC) during the incubations. Each bar is the mean value of replicate units (n = 3).
 623



624
 625 Fig. 5. DOM dynamics during the two experiments: a–b; CDOM absorption at 254 nm
 626 ($a_{(\text{CDOM}_{254})}$), c–d; absorption slope between 275–295 nm ($S_{275-295}$), e–f; humic-like
 627 fluorescence (Peak C; Coble 1996) and g–h; protein-like fluorescence (Peak T; Coble 1996).

628 Data points are average values from replicate units (n = 3) for both treatments, error bars
 629 indicate one standard deviation among the replicate units.
 630



631
 632 Fig. 6. Results of the principal component analysis (PCA) of spectral CDOM absorbance (a,
 633 c) and the 9 PARAFAC components (b, d). PCA was carried out with observations
 634 normalized to initial conditions, making the two experiments directly comparable. Upper
 635 panels (a, b) are biplots of two principal components (PC2 and PC3 for spectral CDOM
 636 absorbance, PC1 and PC2 for the components). Small points indicate individual observations,
 637 and large, numbered points daily means of (a) absorbance spectra and (b) PARAFAC
 638 components (n = 6). Arrows show the time trajectories for the two seasons (labeled with day
 639 number) starting at the same normalized condition (day 0), marked with a black circle. Lower
 640 panels show eigenvectors of the PC's along the absorption spectrum (c) and across the 9

641 PARAFAC components (d). PARAFAC components in panel (d) are labeled with H (humic-
 642 like) or P (protein-like).

643

644 **Tables**

645 Table 1. Initial DOM characteristics of the two experiments. DOC = dissolved organic
 646 carbon, $a_{(\text{CDOM}_{254})}$ = CDOM absorption coefficient at 254 nm, $a_{(\text{CDOM}_{440})}$ = CDOM absorption
 647 coefficient at 440 nm, SUVA_{254} = DOC-specific absorbance at 254 nm (Weishaar et al.
 648 2003), $S_{275-295}$ = CDOM spectral slope coefficient between 275 and 295 nm, Peak T =
 649 protein-like DOM fluorescence (Coble 1996), Peak C = humic-like DOM fluorescence
 650 (Coble 1996), HIX = DOM humification index (Zsolnay et al. 1999) and BIX = biological
 651 index (Huguet et al. 2009).

Variable	Spring	Autumn
DOC ($\mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$)	465	499
$a_{(\text{CDOM}_{254})}$ (m^{-1})	38.9	36.4
$a_{(\text{CDOM}_{440})}$ (m^{-1})	2.58	2.30
SUVA_{254} ($\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1} \text{C}$)	3.03	2.64
$S_{275-295}$ (μm^{-1})	18.8	21.9
Protein-like peak T (R.U.)	0.16	0.20
Humic-like peak C (R.U.)	0.49	0.37
HIX	15.0	9.87
BIX	0.67	0.74

652

653 Table 2. P values of the repeated measures mixed model showing the significance of season,
 654 treatment, experiment day and their combination in observed changes in selected study
 655 variables. Significant ($P < 0.05$) values are marked in bold.

Variable	Season	Treatment	Season × Treatment	Experiment day (seasons separated)	Treatment × Experiment day (seasons separated)
DIN	<0.0001	0.0006	0.0010	<0.0001	0.6515
DIP	0.0337	0.0010	0.0012	<0.0001	0.0004
Chl α	0.1434	0.2954	0.1144	<0.0001	0.1039
DOC	0.9500	0.2398	0.2327	<0.0001	0.3719
C1	<0.0001	0.1563	0.8329	<0.0001	0.0133
C2	<0.0001	0.3968	0.2424	<0.0001	0.0166
C3	0.0001	0.5475	0.2619	0.0010	0.2761
C4	<0.0001	0.3807	0.1341	<0.0001	0.0021
C5	<0.0001	0.4176	0.6275	<0.0001	0.2701
C6	<0.0001	0.5265	0.3743	<0.0001	0.3137
C7	<0.0001	0.9998	0.4739	<0.0001	0.2813
C8	<0.0001	0.2171	0.9433	0.0022	0.2710
C9	0.0032	0.5186	0.6487	0.0005	0.6573

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657