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Protistan grazing and viral lysis losses of bacterial carbon production in a large mesotrophic lake (Lake Biwa)

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Running title: Losses of bacterial carbon production in Lake Biwa

Key words: Bacterial growth, Grazing mortality, Viral-mediated mortality

24 **Abstract**

25 The grazing and lysis mortality of planktonic bacteria were estimated using the modified
26 dilution method and respiratory quinone (RQ) analysis in mesotrophic Lake Biwa, Japan. The
27 planktonic bacterial assemblages in the lake consisted of various RQs subgroups with
28 different growth and mortality rates. The sum of total bacterial mortalities due to protistan
29 grazing and viral lysis accounted for 96.6% (range; 89.0 - 107.2%) of daily total bacterial
30 production. This is the first report which successfully demonstrates a balanced relationship
31 between bacterial production and losses using the modified dilution method in a lake. The
32 growth rates of ubiquinone (UQ)-containing bacteria were faster than those of
33 menaquinone-containing bacteria. Especially, the dominant and fastest-growing bacterial
34 groups in the present study were the bacterial groups containing UQ-8 or UQ-10. The sum of
35 their production and loss accounted for 60% of carbon fluxes within the microbial loop. Thus,
36 a large portion of the carbon cycling through the bacterial community in Lake Biwa can be
37 explained by the carbon fluxes through dominant bacterial groups.

38

39

40 **Introduction**

41 In the pelagic environments of freshwater and marine systems, a significant fraction of
42 primary production is consumed by heterotrophic bacteria via dissolved organic matter
43 (DOM) released from phytoplankton (Cole et al. 1988; Ducklow 2000). Protistan grazing and
44 viral lysis are two important determinants of the fate of bacterial biomass (Azam et al. 1983;
45 Proctor and Fuhrman 1991), with different ecological and biogeochemical implications.
46 Protistan grazing transfers bacterial biomass to higher trophic-level organisms via the
47 microbial loop (Azam et al. 1983), whereas viral lysis leads to the recycling of carbon and
48 nutrients, both of which are derived from lysed bacterial biomass and are re-supplied to
49 bacteria (Bratbak et al. 1990; Gobler et al. 1997; Proctor and Fuhrman 1991).

50 Natural bacterial assemblages consist of various subgroups in terms of ecological and
51 biogeochemical features. The relationship between dynamics of bacterial community structure
52 and variations in carbon cycling within the microbial loop are not well understood in natural
53 aquatic systems, though the results of some ecological models suggest that changes in
54 bacterial community structure can affect the carbon fluxes through bacterial communities
55 (Miki et al. 2008). Only limited attempts have so far been conducted to make simultaneous
56 estimation of grazer-induced and virus-induced bacterial mortality for distinct bacterial
57 groups (Šimek et al. 2001; 2007). Obviously, different mortalities among distinct bacterial
58 groups can influence bacterial community composition. The ‘size-selective mortality’ for
59 flagellates changes the size distribution of bacterial community (Pernthaler 2005), whereas
60 the ‘host-specificity mortality’ for viruses changes the bacterial community structure
61 (Thingstad 2000). It is, therefore, important to simultaneously estimate grazing-induced
62 mortality and virus-induced mortality for better understanding on carbon fluxes through
63 bacterial community.

64 Specific growth and mortality rates of microbial populations can be simultaneously
65 estimated from observed differences in their rates of population growth in a series of

66 incubated diluted and undiluted natural water samples (Landry and Hassett 1982; Landry et al.
67 1984). The dilution technique, originally developed for the estimation of grazing pressure by
68 micro-zooplankton on phytoplankton (Landry and Hassett 1982), is valid to estimate protistan
69 bacterivory (Landry et al. 1984; Trremaine and Mills 1987). Evans et al. (2003) proposed a
70 modified dilution technique to estimate the impacts of protistan grazing and viral lysis on the
71 picoeukaryote *Micromonas* spp. Their technique was successfully applied to estimate the
72 impact of viral lysis on planktonic bacteria in freshwater lake (Tijdens et al. 2008) and ocean
73 (Taira et al. 2009).

74 Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) technique as one of the most powerful
75 quantitative molecular approaches has been used for quantifying and visualizing bacterial
76 cells in freshwater and seawater (Pernthaler et al. 1998; Glöckner et al. 1999). The FISH
77 technique is suitable for targeting at specific phylogenetic group levels but less suitable for
78 analysis of the full bacterial community, because quantitative application for analysis of all
79 bacterial groups requires the use of many target-specific probes and also need to optimize its
80 protocol for each target groups (Bouvier and del Giorgio 2003). Despite the superiority of
81 FISH technique-based approaches in terms of phylogenetic identification, respiratory quinone
82 (RQ) analysis has been successfully used to quantify bacterial biomass and to overview
83 bacterial community composition in freshwater (Takasu et al. 2013). Respiratory quinone
84 (RQ), including ubiquinone (UQ) and menaquinone (MK), are electron-transporting
85 compounds in bacterial plasma membranes. Different types of RQ differ in their preference of
86 electron accepters for energy metabolism (Hedrick and White 1986). A bacterial phylum has
87 generally only one dominant molecular species of respiratory quinone (Collins and Jones
88 1981; Hedrick and White 1986). The RQ analysis provides a less laborious and accurate
89 method for simultaneously determining bacterial carbon biomass and community composition
90 because of the chemical analytical-based method with a standardized quantitative extraction
91 protocol (Hu et al. 1999; Takasu et al., 2013). The modified dilution technique combined with

92 RQ analysis provides us quantitative information about carbon fluxes through distinct
93 bacterial groups in complex microbial food web.

94 Lake Biwa is a large (surface area, 674 km²; water volume, 27.3 km³; watershed area,
95 3848 km²), deep (maximum depth, 104 m), mesotrophic and monomictic lake in Japan. Large
96 lakes in the world are generally important freshwater resources (Herdendorf 1990). In
97 addition, large lakes are a precious food production site (Constanza et al. 1997). Net bacterial
98 production in Lake Biwa was estimated as 30% of primary production (Nagata et al. 1990),
99 and their total consumption (net bacterial production plus respiration) was accounted for 50 to
100 100% of the primary production (Nagata et al. 2012). It has been regarded that carbon fluxes
101 through bacterial community are highly active, and that bacteria are a potentially important
102 basis of the pelagic food web in Lake Biwa (Nagata 1990). Thus, elucidating the carbon
103 fluxes through bacterial subgroups is important for our better understanding about carbon
104 cycling in ecosystem of Lake Biwa.

105 In the present study, we quantified the carbon fluxes through the bacterial community by
106 estimating carbon production and losses calculated from growth and mortality rates of
107 planktonic bacteria in Lake Biwa. We hypothesized that each bacterial group would have
108 different ecological roles within microbial loop. To test this hypothesis, we determined the
109 grazing and lysis mortalities of each bacterial group using the modified dilution technique and
110 RQ analysis. Our data demonstrated that a large portion of the carbon cycling through the
111 bacterial community in Lake Biwa can be explained by the carbon fluxes through dominant
112 bacterial groups.

113

114 **Materials and Methods**

115 *Dilution experiments*

116 The dilution experiments were conducted in June and October 2011 and May, June, and July
117 2012, using lake water collected from St. Ie-1 (35°12'58"N, 135°59'55"E; maximum water

118 depth 73 m) in the pelagic area of the north basin of Lake Biwa, Japan. Approximately 100 L
119 of lake water was collected from 5 m depth using a 10-L acryl water sampler. Enumeration of
120 microbes was performed by placing 200 mL of the water sample in a polypropylene bottle
121 and fixing immediately with glutaraldehyde at a final concentration of 1%. Water samples for
122 the dilution experiments were poured into acid-washed 10-L polyethylene bags or 20-L
123 polyethylene tanks. The lake water was gently filtered through 20 μm mesh to remove
124 mesozooplankton, and 50 L of the filtrate was gravity filtered through 0.2 μm filter cartridges
125 (PALL Acropak Supor membrane capsules) and collected into tanks. After the filtration, half
126 of the 0.2 μm filtrate was passed through a 30 kDa tangential flow filtration system (Millipore
127 PES membrane) to prepare a virus-free diluent. The 20 μm filtrate was diluted in 0.2 μm or 30
128 kDa diluents to dilution levels of 1.0, 0.8, 0.4, and 0.2, in 5-L polycarbonate bottles washed
129 with 1.2M HCl before use. The bottles were then incubated for 36 to 48 hours at *in situ*
130 temperatures, in dark conditions. Subsamples for the measurement of RQs were collected into
131 clean polyethylene bags at the beginning (0 hours) and end of the incubations.

132 *Enumeration of microbes*

133 For the enumeration of bacteria, 1 or 2 mL of the fixed water sample was used. Bacterial cells
134 were counted using an epifluorescence microscope (BX60, Olympus) under ultraviolet
135 excitation by the DAPI (4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) method (Porter and Feig 1980) using
136 0.2 μm pore-size black polycarbonate filters (Advantec). At least 300 bacterial cells were
137 counted, and a minimum of 20 fields were randomly selected. Fifteen milliliters of the fixed
138 water sample were used for the enumeration of nanoflagellates, and 0.1 mL (1 mL from the
139 10x diluted samples with 0.02 μm filtered distilled water) was used for the enumeration of
140 viral-like particles (VLP). Heterotrophic nanoflagellates (HNF) and pigmented
141 nanoflagellates (PNF) were counted using epifluorescence microscopy under ultraviolet and
142 green excitation respectively, using the primulin method (Caron 1983), using 0.8 μm
143 pore-size black polycarbonate filters (Corning). Cells of PNF were enumerated by

144 autofluorescence using an epifluorescence microscope under green excitation. For HNF and
145 PNF counting, a minimum of 100 fields were randomly inspected. VLP were counted using
146 epifluorescence microscopy under blue excitation by the SYBR Green I method (Noble and
147 Fuhrman 1998; Patel et al. 2008), using 0.02 μm pore-size Anodisc filters (Whatman). More
148 than 300 VLP were counted and then a minimum of 20 fields were randomly examined.

149 *Chemical variables*

150 Samples for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) measurements were filtered through 0.2 μm
151 polycarbonate filters (Whatman) washed with 1.2M HCl before use. DOC concentrations
152 were determined using a total organic carbon analyzer (TOC-5000A; Shimadzu).

153 To determine chlorophyll *a* (chl. *a*) concentrations, 100 mL water samples were filtered
154 through 0.2- μm polycarbonate filters (Whatman) and analyzed using the *N'*
155 *N*-dimethylformamide method (Moran and Porath 1980) with a fluorescence spectrometer
156 (RF-5300PC; Shimadzu).

157 *Quinone analysis*

158 For RQ analysis, bacteria-sized particles in 5-L of the water samples were collected using 0.2
159 μm pore-size Teflon filters (Advantec) after passing through 2.0 μm nominal pore-sized
160 GMF-2UM glass fiber filters (Whatman) to remove large particles such as phytoplankton and
161 zooplankton. About 97.2–99.9% of bacterial cells passed through the GMF2UM filter
162 (Takasu et al. 2013). In the experiment in June 2011, the GMF-2UM glass fiber filter was not
163 used.

164 The RQ concentrations were determined using a modified method previously described
165 by Hu et al. (1999). Briefly, quinones were extracted from the filters with a
166 chloroform-methanol mixture (2:1, v/v) and re-extracted into hexane. UQs and MKs
167 contained in the crude extract were separated and purified using Sep-Pak[®] Plus Silica
168 (Waters). The molecular species and concentrations of quinones were determined using a high
169 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system equipped with an ODS column (pore size,

170 3.5 μm ; Eclipse Plus C18, 3.0 \times 150 mm; Agilent) and a photodiode array detector
171 (SPD-M20A; Shimadzu). Details on the analytical conditions have been described by Takasu
172 *et al.* (2013). The type of quinones was identified according to the UV spectrum of each peak
173 observed in the photodiode array detector. The quinone species were identified by the linear
174 relationship between the logarithm of the retention times of quinones and the number of their
175 isoprene units, using the identification-supporting sheet (made by T. Kunihiro) based on the
176 equivalent number of isoprene units (ENIU) of quinone components as described by Tamaoka
177 *et al.* (1983).

178 In the present study, we express each RQ type as follows: ubiquinone, UQ-*n*;
179 menaquinone, MK-*n*. The number (*n*) indicates the number of isoprene units in the side chain
180 of the quinone. For example, UQ-10 represents a ubiquinone with 10 isoprenoid units, and
181 MK-9(H₈) represents a menaquinone with 9 isoprenoid units where one of the nine units is
182 hydrogenated with eight hydrogen atoms.

183 *Calculations*

184 The synthesis and destruction rates of each RQ are proxies of the growth and mortality of
185 bacterial groups with different types of RQ. Thus, the apparent growth rates (μ_{app} , d^{-1}) of
186 bacterial subgroups with different types of RQ were calculated from the concentrations of
187 each RQ at the beginning and end of the incubation experiment, with the assumption that
188 bacterial growth would follow an exponential model (Landry and Hassett 1982)

$$189 \quad \mu_{\text{app}} = (1/t) \ln (N_t/N_0)$$

190 where *t* is the duration of the incubation (days), and *N*₀ and *N*_{*t*} are RQ concentrations (pmol
191 L⁻¹) at the beginning and end of the incubation, respectively. Two dilution series were
192 prepared: a 30 kDa dilution series to estimate the combined effects of protistan grazing and
193 viral lysis rate (*M*_{g+v}, d^{-1}) and a 0.2 μm dilution series to determine the protistan grazing rate
194 (*M*_g, d^{-1}) on bacteria. The slope of the regression lines from the 0.2 μm dilution series
195 represents the grazing rate. The difference between the slopes of the regression lines

196 represents the bacterial mortality rate due to viral lysis (M_v , d^{-1}), and this difference was tested
197 using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The intercept of the 30 kDa dilution series gives the
198 instantaneous growth rate (μ , d^{-1}) of bacteria when neither grazing nor viral lysis occurs
199 (Evans et al. 2003).

200 Carbon fluxes through bacterial subgroups with different RQ types were determined by
201 combining the carbon conversion factor from RQ (Takasu et al. 2013) and data from the
202 dilution experiments. For each specific bacterial subgroup, the carbon production (CP , $\mu g C$
203 $L^{-1} d^{-1}$), losses to grazing (GL , $\mu g C L^{-1} d^{-1}$), and losses to viruses (VL , $\mu g C L^{-1} d^{-1}$) were
204 calculated using the formulas of Baudoux et al. (2008):

$$205 \quad CP = \mu \times P_m$$

$$206 \quad GL = M_g \times P_m$$

$$207 \quad VL = M_v \times P_m$$

$$208 \quad P_m = P_0 \times [e^{(\mu - M_{g+v})t} - 1] / (\mu - M_{g+v})t$$

209 where μ (d^{-1}) is the dilution-based specific growth (y-intercept of the 30 kDa regression), M_g
210 and M_v are the dilution-based grazing and viral lysis rates (in d^{-1}), respectively, P_0 (in $\mu g C$
211 L^{-1}) is the initial carbon biomass of bacteria, P_m (in $\mu g C L^{-1}$) is the geometric mean carbon
212 biomass of bacteria during the incubation, and t (in d) is the time of incubation.

213 *Statistical analysis*

214 Analyses with Student's t-test and ANCOVA were conducted using the free statistical
215 environment R (R Development Core Team 2011).

216

217 **Results**

218 *Physicochemical and biological conditions of the sampling site*

219 Water samples used for the modified dilution technique, covered wide ranges of
220 physicochemical properties: water temperatures ranged from 16.0 to 27.1°C; DOC
221 concentrations from 1.21 to 1.56 $mg C L^{-1}$; and chl. *a* concentrations from 3.09 to 31.4 $\mu g L^{-1}$

222 (Table 1). The HNF number (0.5×10^6 to 2.7×10^6 cells L⁻¹) was in most cases higher than
223 the PNF number (0.3×10^6 to 0.6×10^6 cells L⁻¹). The bacteria:Total nanoflagellates (TNF)
224 abundance ratios in Lake Biwa ranged between 725 and 2,417 (Table 1). The VLP number
225 varied from 2.4×10^{10} to 4.1×10^{10} VLP L⁻¹ (Table 1). The range of viruses to bacteria
226 abundance ratios (range: 12.3 to 36.2) falls within the average reported for freshwater systems
227 (Maranger and Bird 1995).

228 *Estimation of growth and mortality rates*

229 The RQ concentrations at a dilution level of 1.0 varied in the range of 32.4 to 90.9 pmol L⁻¹ at
230 the beginning of the dilution experiments (Fig. 1A). A total of 12 types of RQ were detected,
231 and UQ-8, UQ-10, MK-8, MK-9, and MK-9(H₈) were detected as major RQs (Fig. 1B). In
232 general, negative relationships between the dilution factor and apparent growth rate (RQ
233 synthesis rate) were found in the <0.2 μm diluent (Table 2, Fig. S1). We regarded
234 relationships with $r^2 > 0.8$ and significance levels of $p < 0.1$ as statistically significant. We
235 discussed growth and mortality rates using only the statistically significant data based on the
236 criteria, though previous studies have used not only significant but insignificant growth and
237 mortality values (e.g. Tijdens et al. 2008). Out of the 39 cases, 23 and 14 met these criteria for
238 significance using the <0.2 μm diluents and the <30 kDa diluents, respectively (Table 2). In 5
239 out of the 39 experiments, both the <0.2 μm and <30 kDa dilution series were statistically
240 significant, and the differences in the slopes of the two dilution series were also statistically
241 significant (Table 2). Estimates of the growth and mortality due to grazing and lysis of
242 UQ-8-containing bacteria in June 2011; total bacterial community (expressed as RQ in Table
243 2), UQ-, and UQ-8-containing bacteria in October 2011; and UQ-containing bacteria in May
244 2012 were statistically significant. However, most of the linear relationships between growth
245 and the dilution factor were statistically insignificant (Table 2, Fig. S1). Rates could not be
246 determined for UQ-10- and MK-containing bacteria in some experiments using the <30 kDa
247 diluents because of the positive relationship (against theory) between the dilution factor and

248 apparent growth rate (Table 2, Fig. S1).

249 The growth rate of the total bacterial community (expressed as RQ in Table 3) varied
250 from 1.05 to 2.42 d⁻¹ (Table 3), and the grazing and lysis rates of total bacteria varied from
251 0.46 to 0.74 d⁻¹ and 0.69 d⁻¹, respectively (Table 3). Growth and grazing rates varied among
252 individual bacterial groups, and those of UQ-containing bacteria tended to be higher than
253 those of MK-containing bacteria (Table 3). The sums of the grazing and lysis rates of
254 individual groups had values close to their growth rates.

255 The changing patterns in the mortality due to grazing and lysis (M_{g+v}) of total bacteria
256 and UQ-8- and UQ-10-containing bacteria were similar to the growth rates of those bacteria,
257 even though grazing rates (M_g) on those bacteria were constant (Fig. 2).

258 *Bacterial carbon production and losses*

259 Daily carbon production (CP) in the present study ranged between 16.3 and 52.5 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$
260 (average: 37.4 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) (Table 4), close to the estimates from previous studies in Lake
261 Biwa using tritiated thymidine uptake (5 to 59 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) (Nagata 1987) and the frequency
262 of dividing cells (4.1 to 33 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) (Nagata 1987). Grazing loss (GL) was two times
263 higher (average: 18.5 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) than lysis loss (VL) (average: 9.2 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) (Table 4).
264 GL showed a pattern of change similar to that of initial carbon biomass (Fig. 3). Contributions
265 of grazing loss and lysis loss to bacterial production in Lake Biwa fell into the ranges of
266 previous estimates in other lakes (Table 5). Total losses (TL) of bacteria were almost the same
267 (average: 36.2 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) as CP , and this tendency was found in individual bacterial groups
268 (Table 4). The net carbon production of bacteria (CP_{net} : $CP - TL$) was calculated to estimate
269 the remaining bacterial carbon biomass (Table 4). Estimates of total bacterial CP_{net} were
270 positive on average (average: $1.2 \pm 4.4 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$), varying from negative ($-3.1 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$
271 d^{-1}) to positive ($5.8 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) values. Positive estimates of CP_{net} were mostly found in
272 UQ-8-containing bacteria (average: $0.8 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$, range: 0.21 to $1.78 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) (Table
273 4). Overall, the CP_{net} values of total bacteria and individual bacterial groups were less than

274 10% of each *CP* value.

275

276 **Discussion**

277 *Grazing and lysis mortality of bacteria*

278 The dilution technique is based on a critical assumption, which assumes that the plankton
279 mortality rates resulting from predation are proportional to the dilution effect on predator
280 (grazer and/or virus) densities (Landry & Hassett 1982). This assumption may not always
281 meet because non-linear relationships between the dilution factor and apparent growth rate
282 have been frequently reported in previous studies (e.g. Tijdens et al. 2008, Personnic et al.
283 2009). In the present study, the positive relationship between the dilution factor and apparent
284 growth rate was found from some experiments using the <30 kDa diluent (Table 2, Fig. S1). It
285 is known that viral lysis of bacterial cells leads to the recycling of carbon and nutrients, both
286 of which are derived from lysed bacterial biomass and are re-supplied to bacteria (Bratbak et
287 al. 1990; Gobler et al. 1997; Proctor and Fuhrman 1991). Thus, the possible interpretation
288 could be that growth of bacteria was stimulated by the lysed bacterial cells in some of the <30
289 kDa diluent series.

290 In limnetic and oceanic systems, concentrations of organic substrates and inorganic
291 nutrients are generally low, causing death of planktonic bacteria to starvation (Amy and
292 Morita 1983). So, planktonic bacteria are required to have some physiological adaptation for
293 efficient uptake and utilization of substrates as well as for long-term survival under carbon
294 and energy limitation (del Giorgio and Gasol 2008). In Lake Biwa, however, the sum of total
295 bacterial mortalities due to protistan grazing and viral lysis accounted for 96.6% (range; 89.0 -
296 107.2%) of daily total bacterial production in the present study. Thus, almost all bacterial
297 production is efficiently consumed by protists and viruses before bacterial death due to other
298 environmental factors in Lake Biwa within a day. In other words, fate of bacterial production
299 in the epilimnion of Lake Biwa may be mainly determined through microbial interactions.

300 This is the first study which demonstrates a balanced relationship between bacterial
301 production and losses in a freshwater lake using the direct estimation method. The modified
302 dilution method was rarely applied to the estimation of protistan grazing and virus lysis of
303 freshwater bacteria, and only two previous studies are so far available in freshwater systems
304 (Personnic et al. 2009, Tijdens et al. 2008) (Table 5). In those studies, however, estimates of
305 grazing losses frequently exceeded the sum of grazing plus lysis loss estimates. Personnic et
306 al. (2009) suggested that some complex interactions among microbes such as synergistic and
307 antagonistic effects of viral lysis and protistan grazing on bacterial production occurred in
308 their incubation experiments. By contrast, the sum of the grazing and lysis losses of bacteria
309 (*TL*) was almost equal to *CP* in the present study (Table 4). Thus, complex interactions
310 among microbes might be negligible in our experiments, and almost all bacterial production is
311 efficiently consumed by protists and viruses in Lake Biwa.

312 Bacterial abundances in the epilimnion of Lake Biwa were relatively constant and
313 changed within the order of 10^9 cells L^{-1} (Nagata 1987; Nakano 1992; Nishimura et al. 2005;
314 Takasu et al. 2013), whereas other microbes such as picophytoplankton, nanoflagellates, and
315 viruses respectively showed large variations from 10^5 to 10^8 cells L^{-1} (Nagata 1988), from 10^2
316 to 10^5 cells L^{-1} (Nagata 1988), and from 10^9 to 10^{11} VLP L^{-1} (Nishimura and Nagata 2007;
317 Pradeep Ram et al. 2010). In addition, bacterial abundance is generally less variable than
318 bacterial production (Nagata 1987; Nakano 1992). In the present study, the percentages of
319 remaining bacterial carbon production ($\%CP_{\text{net}} = (CP_{\text{net}} / CP) \times 100$) ranged from -7.2 to
320 11.0% (average \pm SD, 3.4 ± 9.4). These estimates suggest that the less than 11% of daily
321 bacterial production remains or excessively loses, and those small increase or decrease in net
322 bacterial production does not change the whole bacterial abundance so much. This may be the
323 major reason why the bacterial abundance in the epilimnion of Lake Biwa is relatively
324 constant.

325 Owing to food limitation, nanoflagellates in lakes show clearance rates independent of

326 bacterial density (Bird and Kalff 1993). The bacteria:TNF ratios in Lake Biwa were low
327 (average: 1346, Table 1) and similar to those of oligotrophic lakes and oceans (Sanders et al.
328 1992). Thus, nanoflagellates in Lake Biwa are also under food limitation. When we calculated
329 the specific grazing loss ($SGL = GL / \text{initial TNF density}$), SGL estimates were relatively
330 constant ($1.24 \pm 0.29 \times 10^{-5} \mu\text{g C TNF cell}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) despite variations in the bacteria:TNF ratio
331 (Table 1). The previous study suggested that nanoflagellates are clearing as much water as is
332 physically possible independent of bacterial density when they are under food limitation (Bird
333 and Kalff 1993). The results of the present study also indicate that individual TNF in Lake
334 Biwa ingest as much bacteria as possible due to the chronically food limitation. The
335 elimination mechanisms of bacteria should be different between protistan grazing and viral
336 lysis, though bacterial production and the sum of grazing and lysis losses were almost equal in
337 Lake Biwa (Table 4). In the present study, most of the viral lysis rates (M_v) were not
338 statistically significant (Table 2), similar to those in previous studies (e.g. Tijdens et al. 2008;
339 Personic et al. 2009). The sum of grazing and lysis mortality rates (M_{g+v}) seasonally changed,
340 though grazing rates (M_g) were relatively constant during the study period (Fig. 2). Thus, the
341 changing pattern of M_{g+v} is due to that of M_v . So, the changing pattern of M_{g+v} was similar to
342 that of growth rate, suggesting that viral mortality is coupled with bacterial growth rate (Fig.
343 2). Similar results have been reported in previous studies (e.g., Weinbauer 2003). In Lake
344 Biwa, the loss processes of bacterial production can be explained by a combination of
345 protistan grazing pressure, which is independent of bacterial abundance, and viral lysis, which
346 is dependent on bacterial growth (Fig. 2, RQ).

347 *Carbon fluxes through major bacterial groups and differentiating the ecological traits of*
348 *bacterial groups*

349 The present study elucidated that planktonic bacterial assemblages in Lake Biwa consisted of
350 various RQs subgroups with different growth and mortality rates (Table 3). The growth rates
351 of UQ-containing bacteria were higher than those of MK-containing bacteria in Lake Biwa

352 (Table 3). Because of the large midpoint potential of UQs, UQs are thermodynamically
353 favorable compounds to use oxygen as an electron acceptor compared to MKs, and this makes
354 energy gains by UQs higher than those of MKs (Søballe and Pool 1999). The coupling
355 between bacterial production and oxygen consumption (respiration) has been reported in
356 aquatic systems (reviewed by del Girogio and Cole 1998; Robinson 2008). Thus,
357 UQ-containing bacteria may have an advantage over other bacteria in the epilimnion of Lake
358 Biwa because of the lake's oxygenated condition. UQ-containing bacteria showed higher GL
359 than MK-containing bacteria (Table 3), probably due to higher abundance which would have
360 higher encounter with nanoflagellates. In addition, there may be another reason why
361 UQ-containing bacteria had higher GL. In freshwater planktonic bacterial community, UQ-8-
362 and UQ-10-containing bacteria are generally gram-negative Proteobacteria, whereas MK-8,
363 MK-9, and MK-9(H₈)-containing bacteria are gram-positive Actinobacteria (e.g. Hiraishi and
364 Kato 1999). The consumption of gram-positive freshwater planktonic bacteria (mainly
365 Actinobacteria) is selectively avoided by nanoflagellates due to various protection
366 mechanisms of gram-positive bacteria such as cell surface charge and cell size reduction
367 (reviewed by Pernthaler 2005). Thus, it is possible that UQ-containing bacteria are
368 preferentially grazed by nanoflagellates.

369 UQ-8- and UQ-10-containing bacteria were the most dominant and fastest-growing
370 bacterial groups during the study period (Fig. 1, Table 3). The average *CPs* of UQ-8- and
371 UQ-10-containing bacteria were respectively estimated at 12.2 and 13.8 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$,
372 accounting for 31.7% (range: 28.4 to 35.2%) and 28.5% (range: 25.0 to 32.1%) of total
373 bacterial *CP* (Table 4). The sum of the average *TL* of UQ-8- and UQ-10-containing bacteria
374 ($26.0 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) also accounted for 60% of total bacterial *TL* (Table 4). Hence, the fate of
375 those two bacterial groups explained a large portion of the carbon fluxes within the microbial
376 loop of Lake Biwa. Our estimation thus implies that the magnitude of carbon fluxes within the
377 microbial loop can be regulated by the production of major bacterial groups.

378 R-BT065 cluster bacteria (a subcluster of Beta-proteobacteria) have been reported to be
379 the most abundant (up to 50% of total bacteria) (Zwart et al. 2002; 2003) and have UQ-8 as
380 their major RQ (e.g., Hahn et al. 2010a; 2010b; Kasalický et al. 2010). R-BT065 cluster
381 bacteria have been reported to be the fastest-growing segment of bacterial communities in
382 European freshwater lakes (Šimek et al. 2006; Salcher et al. 2008). These bacteria
383 preferentially inhabit the oxygenated layer of oligo-mesotrophic lakes (Piburger See, Austria;
384 Lake Zurich, Switzerland) (Salcher et al. 2008; 2011). The environmental conditions of the
385 epilimnetic water in the north basin of Lake Biwa may be similar to those of the
386 aforementioned European lakes (Nishimura et al. 2005; Kim et al. 2006; Takasu et al. 2013).
387 UQ-10-containing bacteria have been classified as Alpha-proteobacteria (Hiraishi 1999). In
388 the freshwater Alpha-proteobacteria, members of the LD12 clade are one of the most
389 abundant ubiquitous lineages (Salcher et al. 2011). Previous study suggested that LD12
390 bacteria generally prefer the upper epilimnetic water layers during nutrient limited summer
391 season (Salcher et al. 2011). This feature is well consistent with UQ-10-containing bacteria in
392 Lake Biwa (Takasu et al. 2013).

393 The CP_{net} of UQ-8-containing bacteria showed positive estimates, whereas the CP_{net} of
394 UQ-10 containing bacteria showed negative estimates in the present study (Table 4). In our
395 previous study, UQ-8-containing bacteria dominated in Lake Biwa throughout a year,
396 whereas biomass of UQ-10-containing bacteria was relatively low (Takasu et al. 2013). In
397 addition, biomass of those bacterial groups showed different seasonal changing patterns
398 (Takasu et al. 2013). Thus, it is likely that relatively low biomass of UQ-10-containing
399 bacteria was due to higher loss of the bacteria by protistan grazing and/or viral lysis than that
400 of UQ-8-containing bacteria in Lake Biwa.

401 *Conclusion*

402 Our study is the first to demonstrate a balanced relationship between bacterial production and
403 losses in a freshwater lake using the modified dilution method. UQ-8- and UQ-10-containing

404 bacteria were the two dominant groups, and the sum of their production and losses explained
405 60% of the carbon fluxes within the microbial loop. Thus, a large portion of carbon fluxes
406 through the bacterial community may be explained by the carbon fluxes of dominant bacterial
407 groups.

408

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615

Table 1. Physico-chemical and biological variables

Date	WT (°C)	DOC (mg C L ⁻¹)	Chl. <i>a</i> (µg L ⁻¹)	Bacteria (10 ⁹ cells L ⁻¹)	TNF (10 ⁶ cells L ⁻¹)	HNF (10 ⁶ cells L ⁻¹)	PNF (10 ⁶ cells L ⁻¹)	VLP (10 ¹⁰ VLP L ⁻¹)	Bacteria:TNF	VBR
22 June 2011	22.0	ND	9.07	2.0	3.0	2.7	0.3	2.4	725	12.3
19 October 2011	20.0	ND	3.09*	1.2	1.1	0.5	0.6	3.1	2417	25.3
16 May 2012	16.0	ND	31.1*	0.9	1.4	1.1	0.3	3.1	759	36.2
25 June 2012	21.5	1.21	31.4	2.5	2.4	1.8	0.6	3.4	1389	13.3
24 July 2012	27.1	1.56	6.16	2.6	2.3	1.8	0.5	4.1	1441	15.7

WT, Water Temperature

ND, Not Determined

VBR, Viruses to bacterium ratio

*Water samples were filtered using different type of filter (GF/F glass fiber filter, Whatman)

(I. Mukherjee and S.D. Thottathil, personal communication).

Table 2. Summary of growth (μ), grazing mortality (M_g), lysis mortality (M_v), and total mortality (M_{g+v}) from results of the dilution experiments.

Date	Bacterial RQ type	Diluent	Dilution level	Linear fit		Regression slopes	μ	M_g	M_v	M_{g+v}
				r^2	p limit	p limit				
22 June 2011	RQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.993	<0.01	NS	1.128	0.697	0.123	0.820
		30 kDa	4	0.659	NS					
	UQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.996	<0.01	NS	1.206	0.777	0.133	0.910
		30 kDa	4	0.727	NS					
	MK	0.2 μ m	4	0.688	NS	NS	0.714	0.42	-0.082	0.338
		30 kDa	4	0.175	NS					
	UQ-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.957	<0.05	<0.05	1.943	0.578	1.095	1.673
		30 kDa	4	0.965	<0.05					
	UQ-10	0.2 μ m	4	0.989	<0.01	NS	0	0.812		
		30 kDa	4	0.004	NS					
	MK-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.127	NS	NS	0.360	0.070	0.178	0.248
		30 kDa	4	0.304	NS					
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 μ m	3*	0.865	<0.1	NS	0	-0.248		
		30 kDa	4	0.464	NS					
19 October 2011	RQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.980	<0.01	<0.01	1.225	0.459	0.689	1.148
		30 kDa	4	0.996	<0.01					
	UQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.944	<0.05	<0.01	1.767	0.268	1.471	1.733
		30 kDa	4	0.978	<0.05					
	MK	0.2 μ m	4	0.968	<0.05	<0.05	0	0.602		
		30 kDa	4	0.436	NS					
	UQ-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.926	<0.05	<0.01	2.188	0.543	1.554	2.097
		30 kDa	4	0.998	<0.01					
	UQ-10	0.2 μ m	4	0.440	NS	NS	0.192			0.161
		30 kDa	4	0.063	NS					
	MK-7	0.2 μ m	4	0.986	<0.01	<0.1	0	0.968		
		30 kDa	4	0.069	NS					
	MK-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.819	<0.1	<0.05	0	0.533		
		30 kDa	4	0.768	NS					
MK-9	0.2 μ m	4	0.873	<0.1	<0.1	0	0.589			
	30 kDa	3*	0.651	NS						
MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 μ m	4	0.882	<0.1	<0.05	0	0.351			
	30 kDa	4	0.601	NS						
16 May 2012	RQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.612	NS	<0.05	2.424	0.646	1.511	2.157
		30 kDa	4	0.948	<0.05					
	UQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.829	<0.1	<0.05	1.382	2.066	-0.936	1.13
		30 kDa	4	0.999	<0.001					
	MK	0.2 μ m	4	0.591	NS	NS	0.995	1.136	-0.859	0.277
		30 kDa	4	0.427	NS					
	UQ-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.648	NS	<0.05	2.962	0.721	2.052	2.773
		30 kDa	4	0.952	<0.05					
	UQ-10	0.2 μ m	4	0.710	NS	<0.05	2.524	0.552	2.012	2.564
		30 kDa	4	0.944	<0.05					
	MK-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.559	NS	NS	0.481	1.027	-0.718	0.309
		30 kDa	4	0.198	NS					
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 μ m	4	0.098	NS	NS	0.253	0.290	-0.188	0.102
		30 kDa	3*	0.101	NS					

Table 2. Continued

Date	Bacterial RQ type	Diluent	Dilution level	Linear fit		Regression slopes <i>p</i> limit	μ	M_g	M_v	M_{g+v}
				r^2	<i>p</i> limit					
25 June 2012	RQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.968	<0.05	<0.1	1.448	0.644	0.720	1.364
		30 kDa	3**	0.958	NS					
	UQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.976	<0.05	NS	1.567	1.368	0.080	1.448
		30 kDa	3**	0.954	NS					
	MK	0.2 μ m	4	0.831	<0.1	<0.05	1.349	0.113	1.183	1.296
		30 kDa	3**	0.963	NS					
	UQ-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.985	<0.01	NS	1.245	1.589	-0.381	1.208
		30 kDa	4	0.961	NS					
	UQ-10	0.2 μ m	4	0.958	<0.05	NS	1.816	1.077	0.522	1.599
		30 kDa	3**	0.937	NS					
	MK-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.019	NS	NS	0	0.088		
		30 kDa	3**	0.911	NS					
	MK-9	0.2 μ m	4	0.595	NS	NS	0.220	0.388	-0.126	0.262
		30 kDa	3**	0.259	NS					
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 μ m	4	0.003	NS	NS	0.242	0.046	0.277	0.323
		30 kDa	3**	0.983	<0.1					
24 July 2012	RQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.862	<0.1	NS	1.048	0.744	0.379	1.123
		30 kDa	4	0.870	<0.1					
	UQ	0.2 μ m	4	0.92	<0.05	NS	1.446	1.007	0.492	1.499
		30 kDa	4	0.897	<0.1					
	MK	0.2 μ m	4	0.76	NS	NS	0.416	0.644	-0.24	0.404
		30 kDa	4	0.655	NS					
	UQ-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.930	<0.05	NS	1.202	0.926	0.256	1.182
		30 kDa	4	0.891	<0.1					
	UQ-10	0.2 μ m	4	0.911	<0.05	NS	1.636	1.120	0.647	1.767
		30 kDa	4	0.913	<0.05					
	MK-8	0.2 μ m	4	0.393	NS	NS	0.026	0.392	-0.269	0.123
		30 kDa	4	0.222	NS					
	MK-9	0.2 μ m	4	0.535	NS	NS	1.398	0.409	0.893	1.302
		30 kDa	4	0.841	<0.1					
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 μ m	4	0.923	<0.05	<0.1	0.056	0.933	-0.684	0.249
		30 kDa	4	0.455	NS					

Statistically meaningful values are shown in bold.

NS, Not significant

*20% Initial sample was under the detection limit.

**40% Initial sample could not be measured due to laboratory accident.

Table 3. Ranges and averages of daily growth (μ), grazing mortality (M_g), lysis mortality (M_v), and total mortality (M_{g+v})

Bacterial RQ type	μ (d ⁻¹)		M_g (d ⁻¹)		M_v (d ⁻¹)		M_{g+v} (d ⁻¹)	
	Range (Min - Max)	Average \pm SD	Range (Min - Max)	Average \pm SD	Range (Min - Max)	Average \pm SD	Range (Min - Max)	Average \pm SD
RQ	1.05 – 2.42	1.57 \pm 0.75	0.46 – 0.74	0.64 \pm 0.13	–	0.69	1.12 – 2.16	1.48 \pm 0.59
UQ	1.38 – 1.77	1.53 \pm 0.21	0.27 – 2.07	1.10 \pm 0.67	-0.94 – 1.47	0.27 \pm 1.70	1.13 – 1.73	1.45 \pm 0.30
MK	–	–	0.11 – 0.60	0.36 \pm 0.36	–	–	–	–
UQ-8	1.20 – 2.96	2.07 \pm 0.73	0.54 – 1.59	0.91 \pm 0.49	1.10 – 1.55	1.33 \pm 0.33	1.18 – 2.77	1.93 \pm 0.67
UQ-10	1.64 – 2.52	2.08 \pm 0.63	0.81 – 1.12	1.00 \pm 0.17	–	–	1.77 – 2.56	2.17 \pm 0.56
MK-8	–	–	–	0.53	–	–	–	–
MK-9	–	1.40	–	0.59	–	–	–	1.30
MK-9(H ₈)	–	0.24	-0.25 – 0.93	0.35 \pm 0.59	–	–	–	0.32

SD, Standard Deviation

Table 4. Ranges and averages of daily carbon production (*CP*), grazing loss (*GL*), lysis loss (*LL*), total losses (*TL*) and net carbon production (*CP_{net}*)

Bacterial RQ type	<i>CP</i>		<i>GL</i>		<i>LL</i>		<i>TL</i>		<i>CP_{net}</i>	
	(μg C L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		(μg C L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		(μg C L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		(μg C L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)		(μg C L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	
	Range (Min - Max)	Average ± SD	Range (Min - Max)	Average ± SD	Range (Min - Max)	Average ± SD	Range (Min - Max)	Average ± SD	Range (Min - Max)	Average ± SD
RQ	16.3 – 52.5	37.4 ± 18.8	6.1 – 30.9	18.5 ± 17.5	–	9.2	15.3 – 46.7	36.2 ± 18.1	-3.1 – 5.8	1.2 ± 4.4
UQ	8.0 – 27.0	19.7 ± 18.8	1.3 – 40.3	19.4 ± 19.7	-18.3 – 6.9	-5.7 ± 17.8	8.1 – 24.7	18.3 ± 8.9	-0.9 – 4.9	1.4 ± 3.1
MK	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
UQ-8	5.1 – 18.5	12.2 ± 5.5	1.3 – 9.5	4.9 ± 4.2	3.6 – 7.2	5.4 ± 2.5	4.9 – 17.3	11.3 ± 5.1	0.2 – 1.8	0.8 ± 0.8
UQ-10	10.9 – 16.8	13.8 ± 4.2	–	7.4	–	–	11.7 – 17.1	14.4 ± 3.8	-0.3 – -0.9	-0.6 ± 0.4
MK-8	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
MK-9	–	5.8	–	–	–	–	–	5.4	–	0.4
MK-9(H ₈)	–	0.6	–	–	–	–	–	0.8	–	-0.2

SD, Standard Deviation

Table 5. Studies of simultaneous determination of grazing and viral lysis rates in freshwater systems

Method	Grazing % potential production	Lysis % potential production	Location and water layer	Trophic status	Reference
TC & FVIC	81.8 - 108.0	7.7 - 27.8	Lake Plußsee, Epilimnion	Eutrophic	Weinbauer & Hofle 1998
	2.9 - 27.6	19.6 - 46.8	Lake Plußsee, Metalimnion	–	Weinbauer & Hofle 1998
	5.0 - 8.9	38.4 - 97.3	Lake Plußsee, Hypolimnion	–	Weinbauer & Hofle 1998
FLB & FVIC	50	25	Řimov Reservoir, Surface water	Meso-Eutrophic	Šimek et al. 2006
TC & FVIC	10.3	6.4	Lake Pavin, Epilimnion	Oligomesotrophic	Bettarel et al. 2003
	8.4	15.6	Lake Pavin, Epilimnion	–	Bettarel et al. 2003
Tritiated thymidine labeled bacteria	58.2	26.3	Lake Tanganyika, Upper water (Wet season)	Oligotrophic	Pirlot et al. 2007
	88.5	39.6	Lake Tanganyika, Upper water (Dry season)	–	Pirlot et al. 2007
CD & FVIC	78*	7.7*	Lake Erie, Surface and Deep water	Eutrophic	Gobler et al. 2008
FLMB & viral dilution & FVIC	18 - 63*	35 - 60*	Lake Bourget, Surface layer	Mesotrophic	Jacquet et al. 2005
MD	45.9	100.5	Lake Loosdrecht, Surface layer	Eutrophic	Tijdens et al. 2008
MD	37.3-76.5	ND	Lake Geneva, Surface layer	Mesotrophic	Personnic et al. 2009
	18.2 - 56.8	ND	Lake Bourget, Surface layer	Mesotrophic	Personnic et al. 2009
	5.3	ND	Lake Annecy, Surface layer	Oligotrophic	Personnic et al. 2009
MD	37.5 – 71.0	56.2	Lake Biwa, Epilimnion	Mesotrophic	This study

TC, theoretical calculation; FVIC, frequency of visible infected cells; FLB, fluorescence labeled bacteria; CD, conventional dilution method; FLMB, fluorescence labeled micro-beads; MD, modified dilution method

*Grazing or lysis % standing stock d^{-1}

ND, not determined

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2 **Figure legends**

3 **Fig. 1.** RQs concentration (A) and composition (B) of 100% samples at the beginning
4 experiments.

5 **Fig. 2.** Changes in growth (μ), grazing mortality (M_g), lysis mortality (M_v), and total
6 mortality (M_{g+v}) rates of total bacteria (RQ) and major bacterial groups. An asterisk
7 indicates that the rate is statistically meaningful (see Table 2).

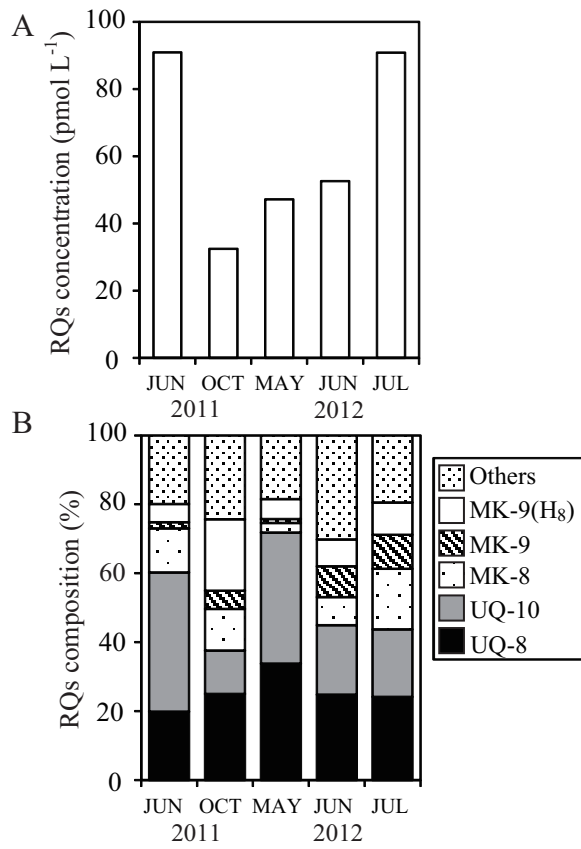
8 **Fig. 3.** Changes in carbon biomass (CB), production (CP), grazing loss (GL), lysis loss
9 (LL) and total losses (TL) of total bacteria (RQ) and major bacterial groups. An asterisk
10 indicates that the rate is statistically meaningful (see Table 2).

11

12 **Appendix**

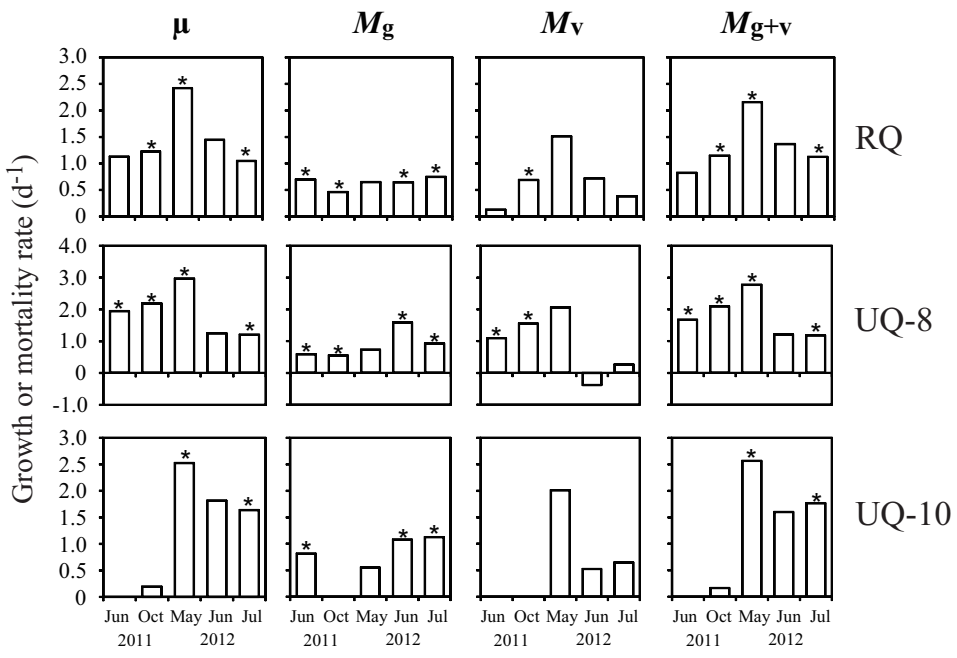
13 **Fig. S1.** Regression analyses of dilution experiments to estimate growth and mortality
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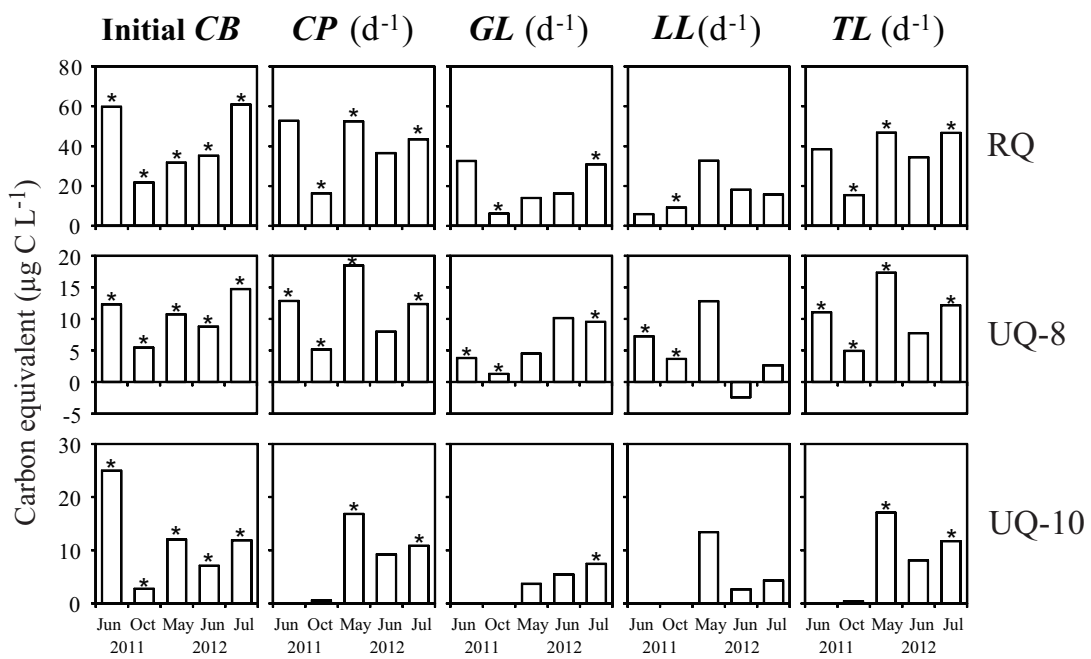
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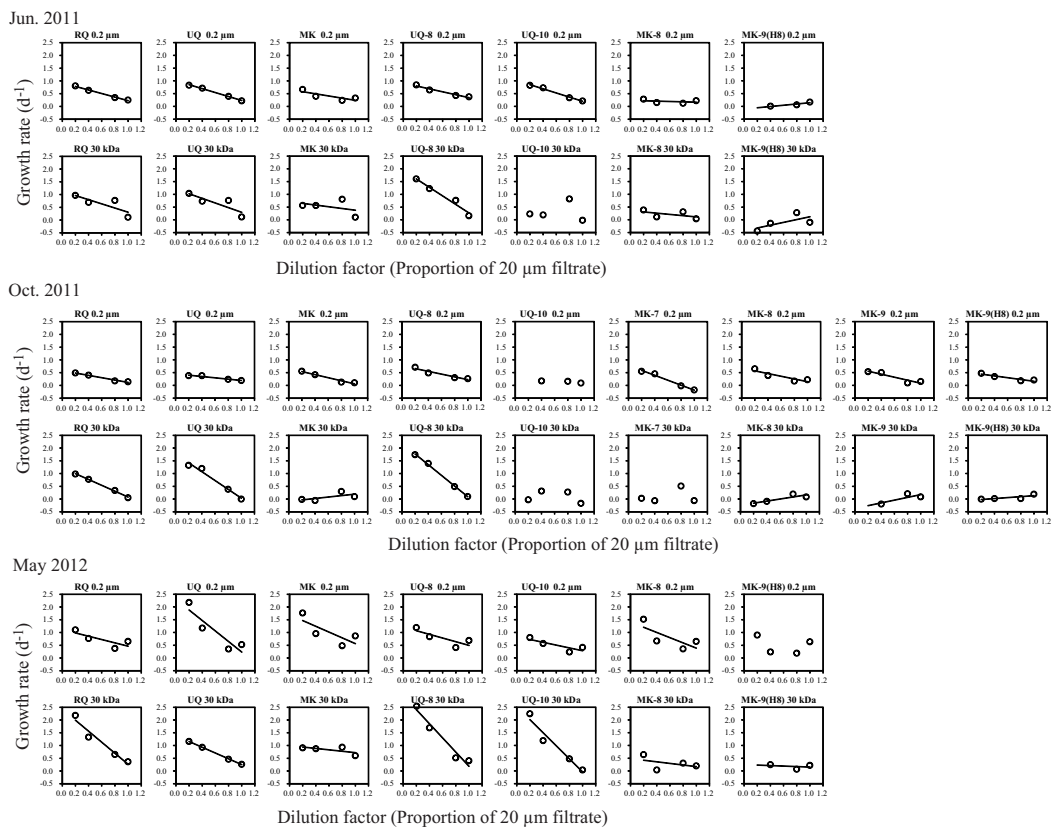
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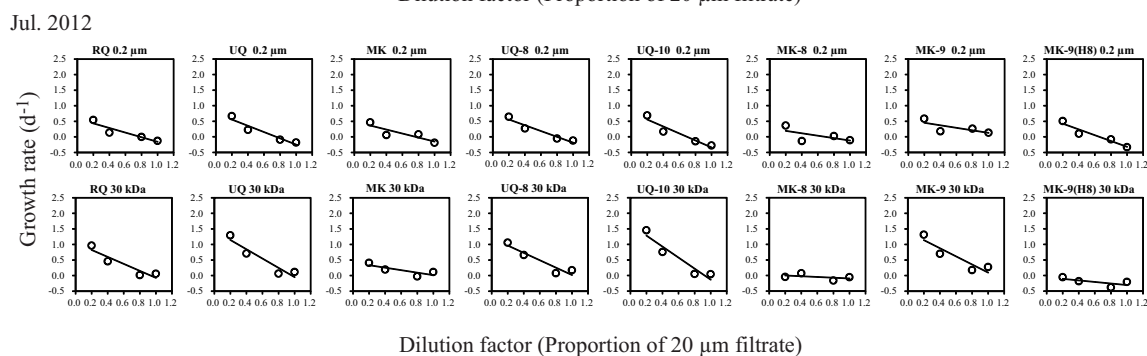
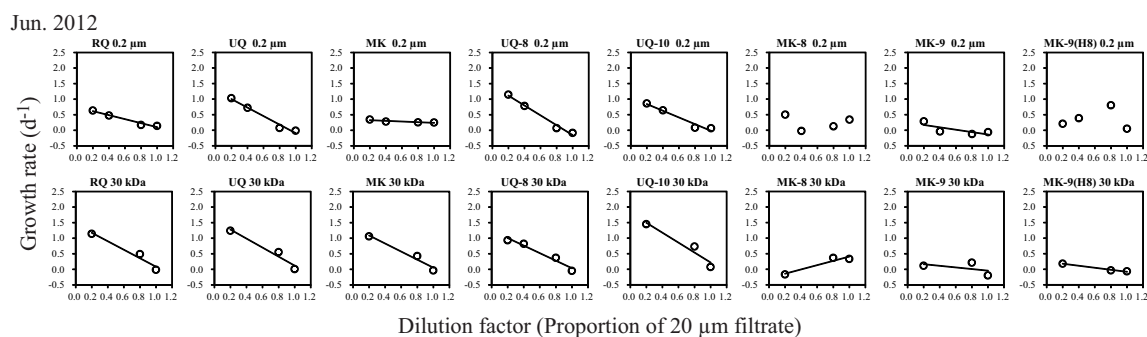
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