# 1 Summer dynamics drive the microbial response to DOC additions

## 2 in a high-altitude lake

- 3 Running head: DOC additions on planktonic interactions
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### Abstract

- 1. The predicted increase in allochthonous dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in high-altitude
  lakes is expected to alter the phytoplankton-bacterioplankton relationship. However, few
  studies address the influence of summer phytoplankton dynamics on planktonic responses
  to DOC additions.
- We sampled natural plankton assemblages during two contrasting periods of summer in a
   high-altitude lake in the French Alps and subjected them to DOC inputs and nutrient
   enrichments under two light conditions (dark or light) and two temperature conditions
   (10°C or 18°C).
  - 3. Our results indicate that DOC use by bacteria differs over the summer, depending on the availability of autochthonous DOC and the nutrient limitation. DOC was consumed by bacteria more in early summer but was assimilated into biomass more in late summer. This pattern likely arose from the greater availability of phytoplankton-derived DOC in late summer, reducing the need for alternative carbon sources in late summer, when phytoplankton biomass was high. We found greater competition between bacteria and phytoplankton in late summer after DOC addition, linked to the summer nutrient limitation pattern. Mixotrophic taxa were stimulated after DOC additions both in early summer and in late summer. Our study thus highlights a differential response depending on the timing of summer DOC inputs.
    - 4. The global changes forecast for the French Alps should increase heterotrophic and mixotrophic processes in planktonic communities of shallow high-altitude lakes with vegetated catchments. This experimental study provides insights that will be useful in predicting ecological trajectories and in refining predictions of sentinel lakes' responses to global changes.

# 1. Introduction

Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) inputs associated with terrestrial dissolved organic
matter (DOM) have substantially increased in recent decades in lake ecosystems, and will
likely continue to evolve (Solomon et al., 2015). DOC acts as a major regulator of lakes'
functioning (Williamson et al., 1999). DOC concentration and quality have been shown to
alter water transparency and thermal stratification (Solomon et al., 2015), modify pH and
alkalinity (Evans et al., 2005) and attenuate harmful ultraviolet radiation in lakes (Warner et
al., 2020). By changing the lakes' pool of available nutrients, DOC acts as an important driver
of bacterioplankton biomass (Schulhof et al., 2020), phytoplankton biomass (Hazukova et al.,
2021; Isles et al., 2021) and their relationships in lake ecosystems. Allochthonous DOC inputs
are consequently directly related to the degree of net heterotrophy in lakes (Jansson et al.,
2008). Through its effects on planktonic processes, allochthonous DOC regulates energy
transfer to higher trophic levels (Jansson et al., 2000), food web dynamics and lake
metabolism (Mitrovic & Baldwin, 2016). However, its influence depends on the trophic
nature of lake ecosystems (Dorado-García et al., 2014).
In oligotrophic ecosystems, bacteria have an inherent advantage over phytoplankton in
assimilating inorganic nutrients (Currie & Kalff, 1984; Jansson et al., 2006) but their growth
is usually limited by C (Fouilland et al., 2014). Inputs of allochthonous DOC can increase
bacterioplankton biomass and lead to more competitive dynamics between bacteria and
phytoplankton for inorganic nutrients (Carney et al., 2016a; Hitchcock & Mitrovic, 2013).
These changes benefit mixotrophs, who acquire organic carbon and/or mineral nutrients from
their bacterial prey (Caron, 1994), allowing them to eliminate their main competitors for
inorganic nutrients (Thingstad et al., 1996). As different mixotrophic taxa have different
ingestion rates (Flynn et al., 2018), the types of mixotrophs that constitute the communities

and their proportions could directly modify predation pressure on bacteria after allochthonous DOC inputs.

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However, it has also been observed in temperate lakes that autochthonous DOC derived from phytoplankton is preferentially consumed and incorporated into biomass over allochthonous DOC, owing to its greater accessibility and nutritional quality (Guillemette et al., 2013). The quantity of phytoplankton biomass and primary production, which together regulate the bioavailability of autochthonous organic carbon, condition the C-limitation of bacteria and thus bacterial abundance and production in lakes (Ejarque et al., 2018; Gasol & Duarte, 2000; Kritzberg et al., 2005; Morán et al., 2010). As an illustration, in oligotrophic ecosystems where phytoplankton-derived organic carbon was sufficient to support bacterial demands, bacteria did not experimentally respond to C additions like sucrose because of primary limitation by inorganic nutrients (Dorado-García et al., 2014). The quantity of phytoplankton biomass, by regulating the quantity of autochthonous DOC bioavailable for bacteria, could therefore modify the microbial response to allochthonous DOC inputs. In addition, evidence suggests that the nature of the molecules liberated in the water differs among phytoplankton species (Romera-Castillo et al., 2010; Sarmento & Gasol, 2012) and the uptake of autochthonous DOC by bacteria varies according to the phytoplankton species composing the bulk of the community (Sarmento et al., 2013). Thus, phytoplankton biomass and composition, by exercising a dual bottom-up and top-down control over bacteria, could impact the microbial response to allochthonous DOC inputs in oligotrophic lakes. However, little is known about the mechanisms through which phytoplankton biomass and composition regulate the microbial response to DOC additions in oligotrophic ecosystems.

In high-altitude lakes, DOC concentrations are generally low (< 1 mg C/L, see Laurion et al., 2000), and these ecosystems could respond significantly to increased flux from the surrounding catchments. In mountain lakes, most DOC is of autochthonous origin during

summer (Reche et al., 2001; Sadro & Melack, 2012). However, the observed upward shift in the treeline (Elliott & Kipfmueller, 2011; Harsch et al., 2009) and the predicted increase in extreme precipitation events (IPCC, 2013) are likely to increase allochthonous DOC fluxes to high-altitude lakes. Recent studies highlight the sensitivity of mountain lakes to climate changes (Moser et al., 2019; Sadro et al., 2019; Smits et al., 2020). Higher DOC values associated with wetter periods were observed between 2015 and 2017 in subalpine (Ejarque et al., 2018) and mountain lakes (Moser et al., 2019). This increased carbon flux may cause dramatic changes in mountain lakes' metabolism (Sadro & Melack, 2012).

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In high-altitude lakes, rapid environmental changes usually induce rapid modifications of phytoplankton community composition over a short period (Tiberti et al., 2013; Ventura et al., 2000). For example, Jacquemin et al. (2018) observed changes in the structure and composition of phytoplankton communities, associated with an evolution of limitation patterns, during summer in alpine lakes. Due to poor light conditions, mixotrophic species dominate autotrophic ones during the ice-covered period (Leppäranta, 2015) and are still dominant in phytoplankton assemblages in early summer (Waibel et al., 2019). Rapid changes in chemical parameters are also conditioning biomass dynamics in high-altitude lakes (Bergström et al., 2020; Oleksy et al., 2020). A bimodal pattern in phytoplankton biomass dynamics has been observed, with a first peak immediately after the snowmelt and a second one occurring at the end of the summer period (Tiberti et al., 2013). Since phytoplankton is an important regulator of bacteria in ecosystems receiving few allochthonous inputs, phytoplankton communities' seasonal dynamics in terms of biomass and composition should regulate the impact of DOC inputs on PBR in high-altitude lakes. However, few studies address the influence of summer phytoplankton dynamics on PBR in response to DOC additions in high-altitude lakes.

This study examines how shifts in phytoplankton community structure and composition impact the microbial response to DOC additions. We sampled natural plankton assemblages during two contrasting periods of summer in a high-altitude lake in the French Alps. These samples received DOC inputs in the form of glucose and nutrient enrichments (N and P) under controlled laboratory conditions in microcosms. To characterize the influence of phytoplankton on bacteria, the assemblages were subjected to two light conditions: a dark: light cycle condition (LIGHT) and a total darkness condition (DARK). The planktonic organisms were maintained at two temperatures, one reproducing the average temperature of high-altitude lakes during summer (10°C) and the other that accelerates metabolic processes (18°C). Firstly, we hypothesised that the effect of DOC additions on planktonic communities depends on the initial phytoplankton biomass. This means that DOC additions should stimulate bacteria more in early summer when the initial phytoplankton biomass is expected to be low. Secondly, we assumed that the communities' response to DOC additions depends on the initial phytoplankton composition. This means that mixotrophs should benefit less from DOC additions in late summer, when they are expected to represent a lower proportion of the initial community than autotrophs.

### 2. Methods

### 2.1. Study area and sampling

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Water for experiments was sampled in Lake Cordes, an oligotrophic high-mountain lake located in the French Alps, adjacent to the Queyras regional natural park. The lake is located at an elevation of 2446 m.a.s.l. It is shallow (maximum depth = 9 m) and small (1.8 ha) but has a large catchment area (140 ha) with developed soil and meadows (approximately 60% alpine grass cover). Water sampling campaigns were conducted twice over the summer,

on  $7^{th}$  July 2019 (early summer) and on  $28^{th}$  August 2019 (late summer). The campaigns were characterized by highly contrasting turbidity. Turbidity was high in early summer (average turbidity = 7 NTU), related to frequent previous storms, but low in late summer (average turbidity = 0.5 NTU). Water samples totalling 42 L were collected using a Niskin Bottle every metre to sample the entire water column and were filtered through a 50  $\mu$ m mesh to exclude any larger grazers on food web components. Filtered water was stored in 8 L HDPE containers and transported in a cool box to the laboratory.

### 2.2. Enrichment experiments under controlled conditions

### 2.2.1. Experimental design

Microbial community was acclimatized overnight in 10 L sterilised transparent polycarbonate plastic bottles (Nalgene®) at  $10^{\circ}$ C. Physico-chemical and biological variables were measured in each bottle to define initial conditions before the start of the experiments. Then water from each bottle was manually homogenised and transferred to 96 microcosms. Transparent sterilised polycarbonate plastic bottles (Nalgene®) were filled with 350 ml of sampled water. In C treatments, glucose was added to the microcosms as an available DOC source at four different concentrations: no addition [0C], +2 mg/l [2C], +4 mg/l [4C] and +6 mg/l [6C]. In NP treatments, planktonic communities were either not enriched [0NP] or enriched with N and P. N was added as NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> sufficient to increase N concentrations to  $335 \mu g/L$  and P was added as KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> sufficient to increase P concentrations to  $35 \mu g/L$ . In LIGHT conditions, the microcosms were placed under a circadian cycle (Light: dark cycle = 14:10), at a fixed irradiance ( $45 \pm 2 \mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$ ). In DARK conditions, the microcosms were placed in the dark in growth chambers, surrounded by aluminium, to target heterotrophic processes while minimising the influence of autotrophs. Finally, the microcosms were subjected to temperatures of either  $10^{\circ}$ C, the average summer temperature, or  $18^{\circ}$ C, sufficient

to accelerate the metabolic processes of organisms without representing a threat to the planktonic organisms (Jacquemin et al., 2018). Thus, the experimental set-up consisted of a 4 x 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design (32 treatments in triplicate) implemented for 10 days, as in our previous study (Dory et al., 2021), allowing the estimation of the coefficients of the interaction effects.

### 2.2.2. Physico-chemical analysis

Average in situ temperatures were calculated from the mean temperatures measured every metre on the water column during the sampling dates (hourly observations). Subsamples for dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN = NH<sub>4</sub>+ + NO<sub>2</sub>+ + NO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP = PO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations were filtered through pre-combusted 25 mm glass filters (Whatman GF/F, 0.7 mm) prior to launching the experiments. The dissolved fraction for DIN and SRP was stored in a 125 ml HDPE bottle, and frozen (-18°C) until analysis. DIN and SRP were determined by ionic chromatography (Metrohm, 930 Compact IC Flex combined with 863 Compact Autosampler). Dissolved organic carbon was measured under initial conditions and at the end of the experiments. Subsamples stored in 24 ml pre-combusted (4 hr at 450°C) glass tubes (Wheaton equipped with Teflon/silicone septa) and preserved in 30  $\mu$ l of sodium azide solution (1 M N<sub>a</sub>N<sub>3</sub>) at +4°C. DOC concentration was determined using a TOC-VCSH analyzer (Shimadzu, TOC-V). Consumed DOC is the difference between the initial DOC concentrations after carbon additions and the final DOC concentrations measured at the end of the experiments.

### 2.2.3. Biological variables

Phytoplankton

Phytoplankton were enumerated and identified via microscopy. Phytoplankton communities were analysed under initial conditions and at the end of the experiments. The samples destined for phytoplankton composition analysis were fixed with alkaline Lugol

solution (0.5%) and stored in 150 ml HDPE bottles at +4°C. Phytoplankton counts were performed according to the Utermöhl (1958) method, at 40-fold magnification under an inverted microscope (Olympus IX 70). Phytoplankton samples were identified at genus level and species level when possible, using appropriate taxonomic guides.

We checked for any development of predators in our microcosms by estimating ciliate abundances via the Utermöhl method, under initial conditions and at the end of the experiments.

### Picoplankton

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Sub-samples of 1.5 ml were taken under initial conditions and thereafter every 2 experimental days in the microcosms for picoplankton analyses by flow cytometry. Subsamples were fixed with glutaraldehyde (0.25% final concentration) and stored at -80°C until flow cytometry analysis. Picoplankton was characterised and enumerated using an Accuri C6 flow cytometer equipped with a blue laser (488 nm) and using BD Accuri CFlow Plus Analysis software (BD-Biosciences). For picophytoplankton, 500 µl of sample were run at fast speed (66 µl/min). Picophytoplankton were identified according to size (FSC), complexity (SSC) and fluorescence (emissions in the orange and red wavelength ranges, respectively  $585 \pm 20$  and >670 nm). Non-fluorescent polystyrene microspheres (Flow Cytometry Size Calibration Kit, Thermo Fisher Scientific) were used as a size standard. Flow cytometer analysis distinguished between two picophytoplanktonic groups. Small cells (<2 μm) with high orange fluorescence and low complexity were classified as phycoerythrin-rich picocyanobacteria (picocyanobacteria). A picoeukaryote group was identified by its high red and low orange fluorescence, small size (<2 μm) but higher complexity than the picocyanobacteria. For heterotrophic prokaryotic plankton (HPP), samples were stained with 1:10,000 (vol/vol) SYBR® Green II and incubated 20 min in darkness. 50 µl of stained samples were run at medium speed (35 µl/min). We checked for any double-counting in

cytometry and microscopy by calculating the average size of each picophytoplankton and phytoplankton group, as described in Dory et al. (2021). HPP were identified by their small size (low FSC), low complexity (low SSC), high green fluorescence (530  $\pm$  15 nm), and lack of red (> 670 nm) fluorescence. Picoplankton data were acquired and analysed using BD Accuri CFlow Plus Analysis software (BD-Biosciences).

### Cellular carbon biomass calculation

Abundances were transformed into carbon content based on the literature. Cell abundance (cells/ml) of HPP was converted to biomass (μg C/L) using 20 fg C/cell as constant conversion factor (Ducklow, 2000; Linacre et al., 2015). A conversion factor of 237 fg C/cell was used for picocyanobacteria (Gerea et al., 2019) and a conversion factor of 183 fg C/μm³ for picoeukaryotes (Lagaria et al., 2017). For phytoplankton, biovolume was estimated by shape assimilation to defined geometric forms and direct measurement of the main cell dimensions. Mean biovolume was calculated for each class of phytoplankton and then converted into biomass using the particular carbon content defined for each class by Wetzel & Likens (2000).

### 2.2.4. Data analysis

### Quantitative analysis

For initial conditions, all biological and physico-chemical variables were checked for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). Mean values were compared between early summer and late summer using Student or Welch t-tests. To test the DOC addition effect on all response variables (phytoplankton biomass, HPP biomass, consumed DOC and mixotrophs/autotrophs ratio) at the end of the experiments, and to determine whether DOC additions interacted with the other experimental factors (nutrients, temperature, light and campaign), Design of Experiments (DOE) was used. Design of Experiments combines mathematical and statistical techniques that optimise the relevance of the data

Montgomery, 2017). Contrary to a one-factor-at-a-time approach, DOE involves simultaneous variation of all the factors so that their effects can be estimated by considering the interactions between them. We considered the result of each experiment to be a linear combination of the

obtained by quantifying the relationship between output and input variables (Box et al., 1978;

251 main effects and interaction effects among the five factors (interaction order = 4,  $b_{ijklm}$ ),

considering two levels for each experimental factor. Thus, the linear models were performed

three times for each combination of two glucose additions. This model could be written as

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$$255 \qquad Y = b_0 + b_i X_i + b_{ij} X_i X_j + b_{ijk} X_i X_j X_k + b_{ijkl} X_i X_j X_k X_l + b_{ijklm} X_i X_j X_k X_l X_m$$

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$$i = 1 \text{ to } 5$$

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$$j = 1 \text{ to } 5, j > i$$

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$$k = 1 \text{ to } 5, k > j$$

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$$l = 1 \text{ to } 5, l > k$$

$$260 m = 1 to 5, m > 1$$

- With 1 = glucose, 2 = nutrients, 3 = light, 4 = temperature, 5 = campaign
- Quantitative analyses were performed with R (v. 3.6.3), and Azurad (version *Expert*,
- 263 AZURAD SAS, Marseille, France, 2019) software.
- 264 Multivariate analysis

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We performed multivariate analyses on the phytoplankton biomass to detect any changes in phytoplankton community structure between early summer and late summer under initial conditions, and between treatments at the end of the experiments. Multivariate analyses were performed with the vegan package on R software (v. 3.6.3). Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) with 999 permutations (p = 0.05) on the Bray–Curtis

- 270 dissimilarity matrix (ADONIS function in R) was used to test the hypothesis that the
- campaign (under initial conditions) or DOC additions (at the end of the experiments)
- structured the distribution of phytoplankton communities.

### 3. Results

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274 3.1. **Initial conditions** 275 Initial concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), soluble reactive phosphorus 276 (SRP) and dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) were low in both campaigns (**Table 1**). 277 Average DOC concentrations were significantly lower in early summer  $(0.61 \pm 0.02 \text{ mg/L})$ 278 than in late summer  $(1.04 \pm 0.09 \text{ mg/L})$  (t = -9.4, df = 3.53, p = 0.001). Average SRP 279 concentrations were low (below 10 µg/L) and were not significantly different between 280 campaigns (t = -0.44, df = 7.9, p = 0.67). Average DIN concentrations were significantly 281 higher in early summer  $(0.60 \pm 0.06 \text{ mg/L})$  than in late summer  $(0.15 \pm 0.04 \text{ mg/L})$  (t = 16.22, 282 df = 10.42, p < 0.001). Water temperature was significantly lower in early summer (8.9°C) 283 than in late summer (14.6°C) (t = -99.56, df = 15.62, p < 0.001). 284 Concerning biotic parameters, the initial HPP biomass did not significantly differ 285 between early summer and late summer (t = 1.61, df = 7.96, p = 0.14), being close to 17 µg 286 C/L in both campaigns. Initial phytoplankton biomass was almost 7-fold greater in late 287 summer than in early summer (t = -17.45, df = 6.19, p < 0.001). The initial phytoplankton 288 community differed significantly between campaigns (permanova,  $F_{1,9} = 214$ , p = 0.004). In 289 early summer, diatoms dominated the community (37%), followed by chrysophytes (23%), 290 cryptophytes (17%), dinoflagellates (15%) and picocyanobacteria (6%). In late summer, 291 diatoms were even more predominant (47%), followed by picocyanobacteria (22%), 292 chrysophytes (16%) and dinoflagellates (13%). The mixotrophs/autotrophs (M/A) ratio was 293 higher in early summer  $(1.13 \pm 0.44)$  than in late summer  $(0.45 \pm 0.05)$  (t = 3.04, df = 3, p = 294 0.05). Finally, ciliates were almost thirty-fold more abundant in late summer than in early

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summer (t = -3.00, df = 11.19, p = 0.01).

**Table 1**: Biotic and abiotic parameters measured under initial conditions before each experiment. Mean  $\pm$  standard error. DOC: Dissolved organic carbon; SRP: Soluble reactive phosphorus; DIN: Dissolved inorganic nitrogen; HPP: Heterotrophic prokaryotic plankton. Significant P-values: <0.001\*\*\*\*; <0.01\*\*\*; <0.05\*.

	Early summer	Late summer
DOC (mg/L)	$0,61 \pm 0,02$	$1,04 \pm 0,09$
$SRP(\mu g/L)$	$5 \pm 0.14$	$3 \pm 0.03$
DIN (mg/L)	$0,60 \pm 0,06$	$0,15 \pm 0,04***$
Temperature (°C)	$8,98 \pm 0,08$	$14,60 \pm 0,18***$
Phytoplankton biomass (µg C/L)	$16,25 \pm 1,41$	$111,94 \pm 14,55**$
HPP biomass (µg C/L)	$17,51 \pm 1,39$	$16,56 \pm 0,64$
Mixotrophs/autotrophs ratio	$1,13 \pm 0,44$	$0,45 \pm 0,05**$
Ciliate abundance (cell/ml)	$0,12 \pm 0,41$	$3,98 \pm 4,43***$

### 3.2. Plankton responses to experiments in microcosms

Based on the linear model, the response of all biotic variables (phytoplankton biomass, HPP biomass, consumed DOC and M/A ratio) to experiments varied between early summer and late summer (CAMP effect, **Table S1**). Moreover, CAMP effect interacted with at least three other factors for each variable, which means that the effects of DOC, nutrients, light, and temperature on planktonic communities varied between early summer and late summer.

### 3.2.1. Consumed DOC

At the end of the experiments, DOC was consumed more in the GLUCOSE treatments (2C, 4C, 6C) than in the C-control treatments (0C), in both early (**Figure 1**) and late summer (**Figure 1**). The exceptions were treatment 6C0NP at 10°C\_LIGHT in early summer, and treatments 4C0NP and 6C0NP at 10°C (DARK and LIGHT) in late summer. DOC was consumed more in early summer than in late summer with glucose added at 2 mg/L, 4 mg/L and 6 mg/L (DOC\*CAMP interaction, **Table S1**), the average consumed DOC in all GLUCOSE treatments reaching 49.2 % in early summer and 13.9 % in late summer. For example, in the 6CNP treatment, the average consumed DOC reached 5.03 mg/L in early

317 summer but only 2.63 mg/L in late summer. In both campaigns, the maximum values for 318 consumed DOC were reached at 18°C\_DARK. 319 DOC was consumed more in NP treatments than in 0NP treatments when glucose was 320 added at 2 mg/L, 4 mg/L, and 6 mg/L (DOC\*NUT interaction, Table S1). DOC was 321 consumed more at 18°C than at 10°C when glucose was added at 4 mg/L and 6 mg/L 322 (DOC\*T interaction, **Table S1**). 323 Finally, DOC was consumed more in DARK conditions than in LIGHT conditions, 324 when glucose was added at 4 mg/L and 6 mg/L (DOC\*LIGHT interaction, Table S1). This 325 effect was higher in late summer than in early summer (DOC\*LIGHT\*CAMP interaction, 326 Table S1).

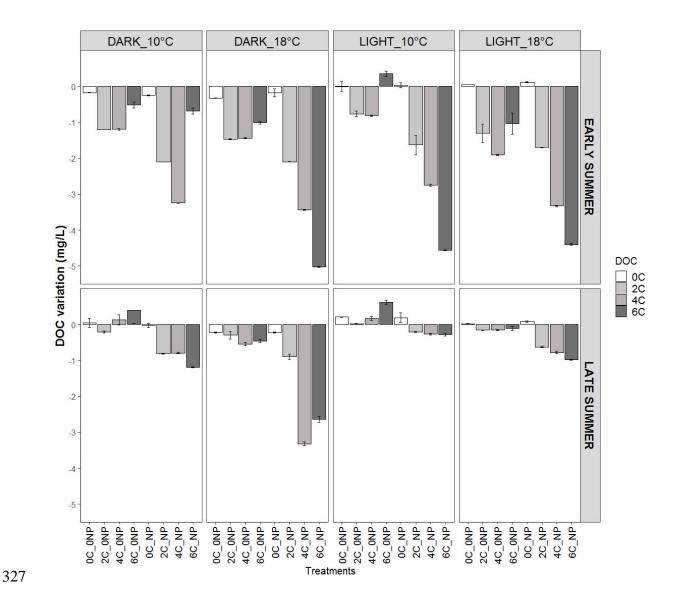


Figure 1 : DOC variation in the microcosms between initial conditions and end of experiments, in early summer and late summer. Concentrations are shown for each DOC\*nutrient treatment under the four temperature\*light conditions. Error-bars represent standard error (n = 3).

### 3.2.2. HPP biomass

A fivefold i	nteraction was detected	d on HPP biomass	(COD*NUT*LU*7	Γ°*CAMP
Table S1), particula	arly on the 8 <sup>th</sup> day for a	all glucose concen	trations.	

HPP biomass dynamic differed between early and late summer: in early summer, HPP biomass rapidly decreased in almost all treatments except the CNP treatments (Figure 2). In late summer however, HPP biomass increased in almost all treatments, including controls (0CNP and 0C0NP) especially in the DARK conditions. A smaller and briefer increase in HPP biomass in the controls was observed in the LIGHT conditions (Figure 2).

Glucose additions stimulated HPP biomass more in late summer than in early summer (COD\*CAMP, **Table S1**) from the 4<sup>th</sup> experimental day until the end of the experiments.

In early summer, under 10°C\_DARK, 18°C\_DARK and 10°C\_LIGHT conditions, HPP biomass increased in the CNP treatments until the 4<sup>th</sup> or 6<sup>th</sup> day compared to 0CNP, then declined until the end of the experiment (**Figure 2**). At 18°C\_LIGHT, HPP biomass increased in all the CNP treatments until the 2<sup>nd</sup> day and then declined; however, biomass remained higher in the CNP treatments than in the 0CNP treatments.

In late summer, at 10°C\_DARK, HPP biomass increased more in all the CNP treatments than in the 0CNP treatment and continued to increase until the end of the experiment (**Figure 2**). Under 18°C\_DARK, 10°C\_LIGHT and 18°C\_LIGHT conditions, HPP biomass increased more in the CNP treatments than in the 0CNP treatment, but only until the 4<sup>th</sup> or 6<sup>th</sup> day, then declined until the end of the experiments. In 0NP treatments, glucose additions stimulated HPP biomass only at 18°C\_DARK.

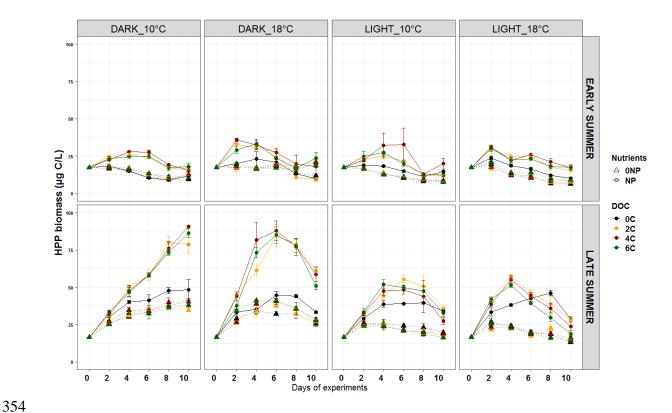


Figure 2: Heterotrophic prokaryotic plankton (HPP) biomass per experimental day, in early summer and late summer. Biomass is shown for each DOC\*nutrient treatment under the four temperature\*light conditions. Error-bars represent standard error (n = 3).

3.2.3. Shifts in phytoplankton community biomass, structure and composition

Total phytoplankton biomass differed strongly between campaigns (CAMP effect, **Table S1**), and was higher in late summer than in early summer in all conditions and treatments (Figure 3). Nutrient addition significantly stimulated phytoplankton biomass in both campaigns (NUT effect, **Table S1**). A quadruple interaction was detected on phytoplankton biomass at the end of the experiments (NUT\*LU\*T°\*CAMP, **Table S1**). However, DOC additions had almost no effect on phytoplankton biomass, neither alone nor in interaction.

At the end of the experiments, DOC additions significantly modified community composition in early summer, but DOC addition effect was weak (permanova,  $F_{1,94} = 5.19$ , p = 0.004). DOC additions significantly didn't modified community composition in late summer (permanova,  $F_{1,94} = 0.94$ , p = 0.41). However, phytoplankton community composition differed significantly among conditions and treatments, both in early summer (permanova,  $F_{31,64} = 10.83$ , p < 0.001) and in late summer (permanova,  $F_{31,64} = 17.02$ , p < 0.001) (**Figure 3**).

Concerning autotrophic taxa, diatoms mainly consisted of Fragilaria nanana in both campaigns. Chlorophytes were mainly composed of Tetraedron minimum and Monoraphidium minutum in both campaigns, but Dictyococcus sp. was also present in late summer. Cyanobacteria mainly consisted of Synechococcus elongatus in both campaigns. Concerning mixotrophic taxa, dinoflagellates mainly consisted of Gymnodinium sp. and Peridinium sp. in both campaigns. Chrysophytes were mainly composed of Dinobryon divergens and Ochromonas sp. in both campaigns. In early summer, Chrysolykos sp. and Hyalobryon sp. were also present. In late summer, Dinobryon crenulatum, Chrysococcus minutus, Bitrichia ollula and Bitrichia chodatii were also present. Cryptophytes were mainly composed of Cryptomonas sp. and Goniomonas truncata in both campaigns, but Chilomonas sp. was also present in late summer. Finally, choanoflagellates mainly consisted of Salpingoeca sp. in both campaigns, but Protospongia sp. was also present in late summer.

Based on the linear model, a quadruple interaction was detected on the mixotrophs/autotrophs (M/A) ratio at the end of the experiments (DOC\*NUT\*LU\*CAMP, **Table S1**), when glucose was added at 4 mg/L and 6 mg/L.

In early summer, the relative and absolute biomass of cryptophytes and dinoflagellates increased with DOC additions in DARK conditions, both in 0NP and in NP treatments (Figure 3 and Figure S2). Consequently, the proportion of mixotrophs increased in DARK

conditions after DOC additions, with an accentuated effect in NP treatments where DOC was added at 4 and 6 mg/L, at 10°C and 18°C (**Figure S1**). In LIGHT conditions, the relative biomass of cryptophytes, chrysophytes and dinoflagellates increased with DOC additions in the 0NP treatments at 10°C, and the relative and absolute biomass of chrysophytes increased with DOC additions in the 0NP treatments at 18°C (**Figure S3**). Consequently, the proportion of mixotrophs increased with DOC additions in LIGHT conditions in the 0NP treatments (**Figure S1**).

In late summer, the relative and absolute biomass of choanoflagellates increased with DOC additions in DARK conditions at 18°C, mainly in the NP treatments (**Figure 3** and **Figure S4**). The relative and absolute biomass of cryptophytes increased with DOC additions in NP treatments at 18°C\_DARK. Thus, the proportion of mixotrophs increased after DOC additions in DARK conditions at 18°C in NP treatments (**Figure S1**). In LIGHT conditions, the relative biomass of chrysophytes increased with DOC additions in 0NP treatments, and their absolute and relative biomass increased with DOC additions at 18°C in NP treatments (**Figure S5**). The relative and absolute biomass of dinoflagellates increased with DOC additions at 18°C in NP treatments. Thus, the proportion of mixotrophs increased in LIGHT conditions with DOC additions, at 10°C in 0NP treatments and at 18°C in NP treatments. (**Figure S1**).

Finally, the biomass of autotrophs decreased with DOC in one condition in early summer (average decrease of 14.4  $\mu$ g C/l compared to 0C treatments, data not shown) and in two conditions in late summer (average decrease of 45.8  $\mu$ g C/l compared to 0C). The biomass of mixotrophs increased with DOC in three conditions in both campaigns, but the average increase compared to 0C treatments was higher in late summer (31.6  $\mu$ g C/l) than in early summer (7.8  $\mu$ g C/l).

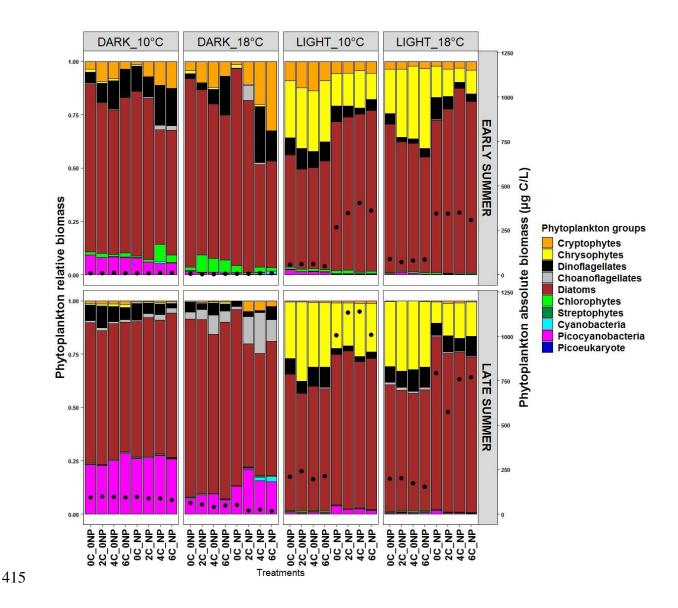


Figure 3: Phytoplankton groups' relative biomass and total absolute biomass (black points) at the end of experiments, in early summer and late summer. Biomass is shown for each DOC\*nutrient treatment under the four temperature\*light conditions.

# 3.2.4. Ciliate abundance In early summer, ciliate abundance increased in the 4CNP and 6CNP treatments at $10^{\circ}\text{C}_{DARK}$ , and in all the CNP treatments at $18^{\circ}\text{C}_{DARK}$ (Figure S6). In late summer, ciliate abundance increased in the 4CNP treatments at $10^{\circ}\text{C}_{LIGHT}$ , and in the 6CNP treatments at $18^{\circ}\text{C}_{LIGHT}$ (Figure S6). There was no difference in DOC-stimulated increase in ciliate abundance between early summer and late summer, except in the dark, where ciliates increased more in early summer than in late summer in the 4CNP (p = 0.018) and 6CNP treatments (p = 0.02).

### **Discussion**

Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) acts as a major control of high-altitude lakes' functioning (Moser et al., 2019). Allochthonous DOC can be assimilated by microbial organisms, changing interactions between them. However, the summer dynamics of phytoplankton biomass and composition could also impact planktonic responses to DOC inputs. Our study aimed to assess how changes in the phytoplankton community between early summer and late summer modify these microbial responses.

### 1. Differential prokaryotic assimilation of DOC over the summer

In our microcosms, bacterial response was higher when glucose and nutrients were added jointly than after glucose addition alone. Moreover, HPP were able to develop only when provided with inorganic nutrients, especially in late summer. These two results suggest limitation primarily by nutrients and co-limitation by C of bacteria. This pattern of co-limitation has already been observed in high-latitude lakes (Dorado-García et al., 2014) and in Lake Cordes in the ice-covered period (Dory et al., 2021). Both the present study and the previous one found evidence that bacterioplankton in Lake Cordes were co-limited by nutrients and C from April to August.

We observed that glucose was consumed more in early summer than in late summer (Figure 4), whatever the conditions of temperature and light and the nutrient treatments. Initial DOC concentrations were lower in early summer (0.61 mg/l) than in late summer (1.04 mg/l). As the magnitude of plankton response to nutrient additions depends on the nutrient limitation (O'Donnell et al., 2017), it could be that the greater glucose consumption observed in early summer resulted in greater C limitation of bacteria. Initial DOC concentrations measured in both campaigns varied with phytoplankton biomass, DOC concentrations being higher when the phytoplankton biomass was higher in late summer. The contrasting glucose consumption

between campaigns could also be related to changes in DOC lability over the summer. Phytoplankton biomass was far lower in early summer (16.25 µg/l) than in late summer (111.94 µg/l), and the increased phytoplankton biomass could result from greater availability of autochthonous DOC in late summer (Ejarque et al., 2018). This interpretation of the phytoplankton biomass influence is also supported by the finding of greater differences in DOC consumed in DARK versus LIGHT conditions in late summer than in early summer. Our findings are consistent with the conclusions of Kritzberg et al. (2006), namely that the bacterial growth efficiency and production were higher with amendments of algae leachates than with more refractory substrates in oligotrophic lakes. In addition, it has been established that phytoplankton-derived DOC is more quickly and efficiently consumed by bacteria than allochthonous DOC (Guillemette et al., 2013). To conclude, in early summer, HPP actively consumed the glucose added to the microcosms likely because phytoplankton-derived DOC was low. In late summer, phytoplankton-derived DOC was more available and HPP probably needed less glucose, which resulted in lower glucose consumption.

Based on our linear model, glucose in interaction with nutrient additions was consumed more in early summer than in late summer, but glucose additions stimulated HPP biomass more in late summer than in early summer (Figure 4). The possibility that the discrepancies regarding glucose consumption and HPP biomass production are related to a top-down regulation of bacteria by predators in our microcosms cannot be excluded. In fact, ciliates and mixotrophs developed in the microcosms after glucose additions, and a previous study under the same experimental conditions demonstrated the strong influence of predator development on the bacterial response to glucose (Dory et al., 2021). However, biomasses measurements on the 4<sup>th</sup> experimental day confirm that DOC was assimilated by HPP more in late summer. Seasonal modifications in bacterial communities' composition have previously been described in oligotrophic lakes, linked to qualitative and quantitative changes in

allochthonous or autochthonous organic substrates (Kritzberg et al., 2006). In our study, lake conditions differed strongly between early summer and late summer, as demonstrated by the campaign effect detected by the linear model. In early summer, frequent storms associated with high turbidity likely constituted stressful environmental conditions for heterotrophic bacteria. Such environmental conditions have been linked to increased respiration of dissolved organic carbon by heterotrophic bacteria in high-altitude lakes (Sadro & Melack, 2012). Thus, in our experiments, the bacterial metabolism probably changed over summer, related to the increased stability of environmental conditions and the more available autochthonous DOC in late summer. Unfortunately, our results do not permit us to determine whether the observed change was due to a taxonomic modification of the bacterial community, a functional modification of the bacterial community, or both.

In summary, our results indicate that DOC was consumed by bacteria more in early summer than in late summer but was assimilated more in late summer. In agreement with our first hypothesis, these seasonal changes in bacterial metabolism could be linked to environmental changes, especially phytoplankton biomass dynamics over the summer.

# 2. Changes in competition and predation after glucose addition over the summer

Our results indicate more competitive processes for inorganic nutrients between bacteria and phytoplankton in late summer in the GLUCOSE treatments. This competition resulted in a greater decrease in autotroph biomass and a greater increase in mixotroph biomass in late summer after glucose additions. The latter was likely related to the decline in HPP biomass observed from the 4th experimental day. In addition, we observed a decrease in initial DIN concentrations over the summer (Figure 4), consistent with the findings of Jacquemin et al. (2018) on the evolving nutrient limitation pattern in Lake Cordes during summer 2016. Our results support the findings of Carney et al. (2016), who observed

increased competition between bacteria and phytoplankton depending on limitation by inorganic nutrients in mesocosms. In our microcosms, it is therefore possible that the more pronounced increase in HPP biomass in the DARK conditions in late summer than in early summer can also be explained by reduced competition with phytoplankton for nutrients in the DARK conditions.

Based on the linear model, our results indicate that top-down predatory control by ciliates and mixotrophs increased after glucose additions, both in early summer and in late summer. In phytoplankton communities, we observed differences in the stimulation of the different mixotrophs, depending on light and temperature conditions, between early summer and late summer. We were able to identify common trends in the relative increase in mixotrophic groups between early and late summer: chrysophytes were consistently stimulated more than autotrophs after glucose additions only in the LIGHT treatments, while choanoflagellates were consistently stimulated more by glucose additions in the DARK treatments. Rottberger et al. (2013) highlighted the inability of the chrysophyte species *Dinobryon divergens* to develop in the dark through prey ingestion alone. However, this earlier study also pointed out major differences in general nutritional preferences between different mixotrophs. In our microcosms, all species of chrysophytes were unable to develop in the dark through prey ingestion alone, whatever the campaign. Our results therefore indicate that the nutritional strategy of chrysophytes in Lake Cordes remains relatively stable over the summer.

In our microcosms, the biomass of cryptophytes increased mainly in early summer in the DARK conditions after glucose additions. By contrast, in late summer cryptophytes increased only in relative biomass. It is therefore possible that a change in the nutritional preferences of cryptophytes occurs between early summer and late summer. Light availability has been shown to be a crucial factor in the proportions of mixotrophs in high-altitude lakes.

In these ecosystems, the highest proportion of mixotrophs is usually observed after snowmelt, because the mixotrophic strategy is advantageous under ice-cover, when nutrients and light are limiting factors (Waibel et al., 2019). A recent microcosm study on Lake Cordes demonstrated that under-ice species of cryptophytes were able to develop in the dark by ingesting bacterial prey (Dory et al., 2021). Conversely, other studies positioned cryptophytes towards the autotrophic end of an increasing trophic state gradient (Saad et al., 2016). These conclusions highlight the controversy surrounding the nutritional strategies of cryptophytes, which may differ in their degree of heterotrophy due to specific environmental limitations like light, nutrients, prey availability or a combination of these (Bergström et al., 2003). In addition, proportions of choanoflagellates in DARK conditions were higher in late summer than in early summer. The observed differential response of cryptophytes to glucose additions in the dark could also result from evolving competition with other groups for prey. To sum up, in our study cryptophytes were only able to develop through prey ingestion in early summer, not in late summer, probably due to changes in environmental conditions or competition mechanisms.

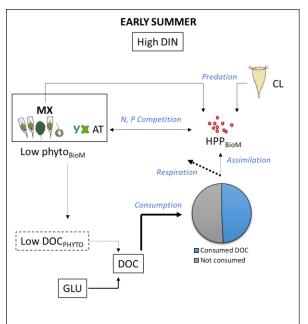
Overall, we clearly observed a stimulation of mixotrophic taxa after glucose additions in our experiments. Contrary to our hypothesis, however, no difference in the magnitude of mixotroph stimulation was observed between campaigns. This might be because there was little difference in the mixotrophic assemblage's composition between early summer and late summer, with a relatively similar mixotrophic potential in the communities over the season.

### 3. Conclusion

High-altitude lakes are particularly vulnerable to the combined action of DOC and nutrients. In our experimental study, DOC in combination with inorganic nutrients rapidly modified the relationship between bacterioplankton and phytoplankton. We show here that

DOC was incorporated differently into the food web in early summer and in late summer, depending on the availability of autochthonous DOC and the nutrient limitation. In general, DOC additions promoted heterotrophic and mixotrophic pathways in the planktonic food web. Thus, our findings contribute information that can help predict the ecological trajectories of shallow high-altitude lakes with large, vegetated catchments: more heterotrophic and mixotrophic communities can be expected in the future under the environmental changes forecast for these ecosystems.

Moreover, differences in the assimilation of DOC by bacteria between early summer and late summer underline how the timing of DOC flux affects the role high-latitude lakes play in the global carbon cycle. The predicted increase in DOC inputs to high-altitude lakes is expected to impact planktonic communities differently depending on the timing of DOC flux and the community characteristics (biomass, composition, and physiological state). Our results highlight the importance of thoroughly investigating the proportion of DOC assimilated by heterotrophic bacteria for biomass versus respiration, to better understand high-altitude lakes' role as carbon source and sink. The response of microbial organisms to glucose additions is a good starting point to better assess the influence of DOC variations in high-altitude lakes induced by global change. While phytoplankton-derived DOC seemed to be a more bio-available C source than glucose for bacteria in our experiments, other carbon sources like terrestrial DOC can modify the bacterioplankton-phytoplankton relationships in natural lakes. Further experiments could contribute to our understanding of how complex terrestrial carbon sources may modify phytoplankton-bacterioplankton relationships in high-altitude lakes.



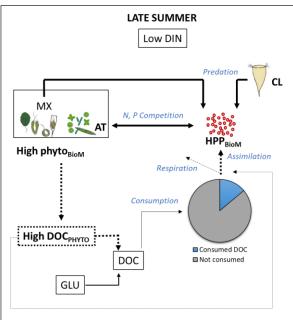


Figure 4: Scheme of the phytoplankton regulation of bacterial response to glucose addition in early summer and late summer. Black lines represent processes that are reinforced (heavy line) or weakened (light line). Dashed lines represent variables or processes not measured. GLU = glucose; DOC = dissolved organic carbon; CL = ciliates; MX = mixotrophs; AT = autotrophs;  $HPP_{BioM} = Heterotrophic prokaryotic plankton biomass$ ;  $Phyto_{BioM} = phytoplankton biomass$ ;  $DOC_{PHYTO} = phytoplankton-derived DOC$ .

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### **Conflict of interest**

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

### Data availability statement

The datasets generated and analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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# 801 Supplementary information

	PHY	TO_TO	OTAL	HPP2			HPP4			HPP6			HPP8			HPP10			CON	SUME	D_DOC	M/A			
[GLUCOSE]	0-2	0-4	0-6	0-2	0-4	0-6	0-2	0-4	0-6	0-2	0-4	0-6	0-2	0-4	0-6	0-2	0-4	0-6	0-2	0-4	0-6	0-2	0-4	0-6	
DOC	ns	ns	ns	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	
NUT	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	
LU	***	***	***	ns	ns	ns	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	
T	***	***	***	***	***	***	**	*	***	***	*	***	ns	ns	ns	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	ns	ns	
CAMP	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	ns	**	***	
DOC*NUT	ns	ns	ns	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	**	***	***	***	***	ns	ns	ns	
DOC*LU	ns	ns	ns	*	*	ns	*	**	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	ns	***	*	ns	***	*	
DOC*T	**	*	ns	ns	ns	*	*	ns	**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	***	***	ns	*	*	
DOC*CAMP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	*	***	**	ns	**	***	ns	ns	**	ns	ns	***	***	***	ns	ns	*	
NUT*LU	***	***	***	ns	ns	*	**	ns	**	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	ns	***	**	***	***	***	
NUT*T	***	***	**	***	***	ns	**	ns	ns	**	ns	*	ns	ns	ns	**	ns	***	ns	**	***	**	ns	ns	
NUT*CAMP	***	***	***	*	ns	ns	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	ns	***	***	ns	ns	ns	
LU*T	**	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	**	***	***	***	***	ns	ns	*	*	*	**	ns	***	***	*	***	*	
LU*CAMP	***	***	***	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	**	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	ns	***	***	ns	ns	ns	
T*CAMP	***	***	***	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	*	***	***	***	***	ns	***	**	**	*	ns	
DOC*NUT*CAMP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	ns	**	***	ns	***	***	*	***	***	*	**	*	***	***	ns	ns	ns	
DOC*LU*CAMP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	**	**	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	ns	***	***	ns	**	**	
DOC*T*CAMP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	***	***	ns	**	**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	***	ns	***	***	ns	ns	ns	
NUT*LU*CAMP	***	***	***	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	ns	ns	ns	***	ns	**	***	***	***	ns	***	***	ns	**	*	
NUT*T*CAMP	***	***	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	**	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	*	***	**	ns	***	ns	
LU*T*CAMP	***	***	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	***	ns	ns	ns	***	***	***	ns	***	***	ns	*	ns	
DOC*NUT*LU*CAMP	ns	ns	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns		*	*	**	***	**	***	***	***	***	ns	***	***	ns	***	**	
DOC*NUT*T*CAMP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	**	**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	*	ns	ns	***	ns	***	**	ns	ns	ns	
DOC*LU*T*CAMP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	***	ns	***	*	ns	***	ns	ns	ns	ns	***	***	ns	ns	ns	
NUT*LU*T*CAMP	***	***	*	ns	ns	ns	*	ns	ns	*	ns	*	*	ns	*	ns	ns	ns	ns	***	***	***	ns	ns	
DOC*NUT*LU*T°*CAMP	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	***	ns	***	***	*	***	ns	ns	ns	ns	**	***	ns	ns	ns	

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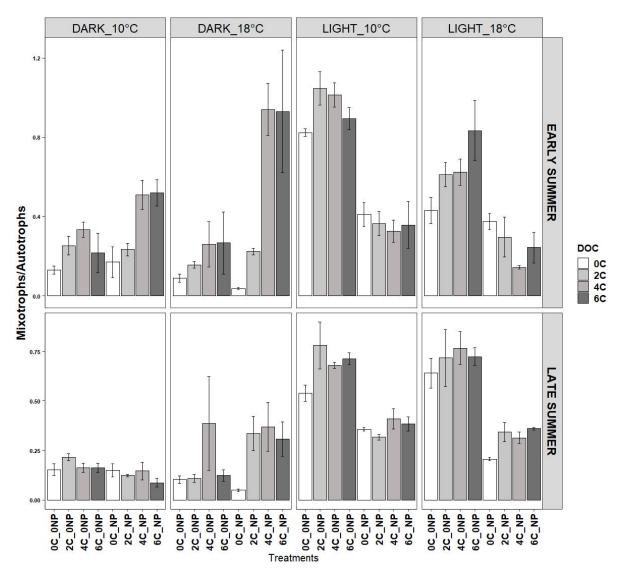


Figure S1: Mixotrophs / autotrophs ratio and phytoplankton absolute biomass (black points) at the end of the experiments, in early summer and late summer. Ratio and biomass are shown for each DOC\*nutrient treatment under the four temperature\* light conditions. Error-bars represent standard error (n=3)

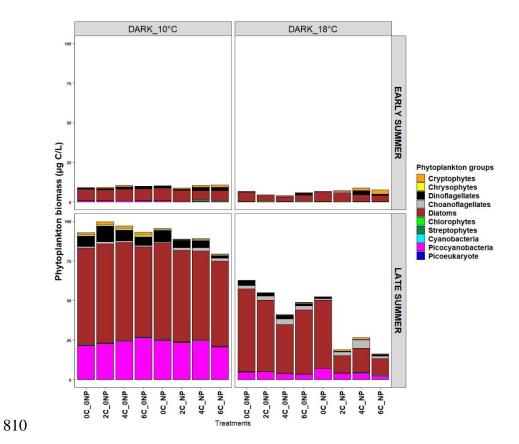


Figure S2: Phytoplankton biomass in DARK conditions in early summer and late summer

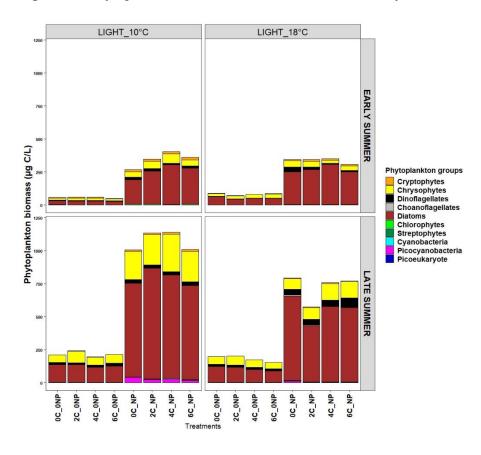


Figure S3: Phytoplankton biomass in LIGHT conditions in early summer and late summer

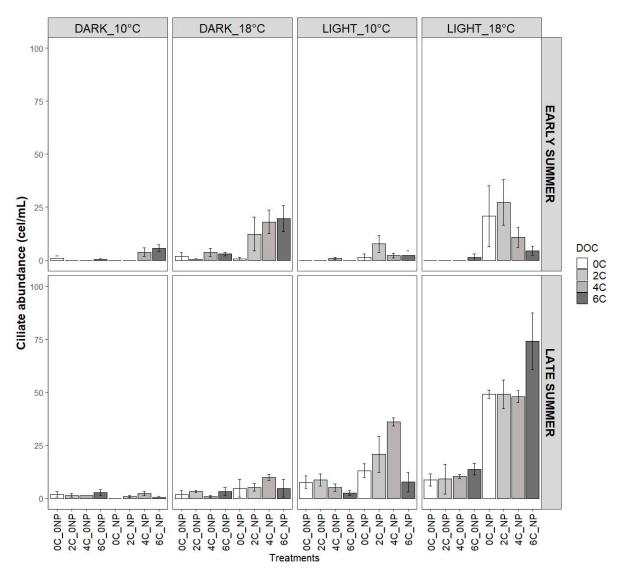


Figure S4: Ciliate abundances at the end of experiments, in early summer and late summer. Abundances are shown for each DOC\*nutrient treatment under the four temperature\*light conditions. Error-bars represent standard error (n = 3).