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2	Protistan grazing and viral lysis losses of bacterial carbon production in a large
3	mesotrophic lake (Lake Biwa)
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23	Key words: Bacterial growth, Grazing mortality, Viral-mediated mortality

24 Abstract

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

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40 Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

113

114 Materials and Methods

115 Dilution experiments

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

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

132 Enumeration of microbes

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

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

149 *Chemical variables*

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

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

157 *Quinone analysis*

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

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

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

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

183 Calculations

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

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

where *t* is the duration of the incubation (days), and N_0 and N_t are RQ concentrations (pmol L⁻¹) at the beginning and end of the incubation, respectively. Two dilution series were prepared: a 30 kDa dilution series to estimate the combined effects of protistan grazing and viral lysis rate (M_{g+v} , d⁻¹) and a 0.2 µm dilution series to determine the protistan grazing rate (M_g , d⁻¹) on bacteria. The slope of the regression lines from the 0.2 µm dilution series represents the grazing rate. The difference between the slopes of the regression lines represents the bacterial mortality rate due to viral lysis (M_v , d⁻¹), and this difference was tested using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). The intercept of the 30 kDa dilution series gives the instantaneous growth rate (μ , d⁻¹) of bacteria when neither grazing nor viral lysis occurs (Evans et al. 2003).

Carbon fluxes through bacterial subgroups with different RQ types were determined by combining the carbon conversion factor from RQ (Takasu et al. 2013) and data from the dilution experiments. For each specific bacterial subgroup, the carbon production (*CP*, μ g C L⁻¹ d⁻¹), losses to grazing (*GL*, μ g C L⁻¹ d⁻¹), and losses to viruses (*VL*, μ g C L⁻¹ d⁻¹) were calculated using the formulas of Baudoux et al. (2008):

$$205 \qquad CP = \mu \times P_{\rm m}$$

$$206 \qquad GL = M_{\rm g} \times P_{\rm m}$$

207
$$VL = M_{\rm v} \times P_{\rm m}$$

208
$$P_{\rm m} = P_0 \times [{\rm e}^{(\mu - Mg + v)t} - 1]/(\mu - M_{g+v})t$$

where μ (d⁻¹) is the dilution-based specific growth (y-intercept of the 30 kDa regression), M_g and M_v are the dilution-based grazing and viral lysis rates (in d⁻¹), respectively, P_0 (in μ g C L⁻¹) is the initial carbon biomass of bacteria, P_m (in μ g C L⁻¹) is the geometric mean carbon biomass of bacteria during the incubation, and *t* (in d) is the time of incubation.

213 Statistical analysis

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

216

217 Results

218 Physicochemical and biological conditions of the sampling site

Water samples used for the modified dilution technique, covered wide ranges of physicochemical properties: water temperatures ranged from 16.0 to 27.1°C; DOC concentrations from 1.21 to 1.56 mg C L⁻¹; and chl. *a* concentrations from 3.09 to 31.4 μ g L⁻¹ (Table 1). The HNF number $(0.5 \times 10^6 \text{ to } 2.7 \times 10^6 \text{ cells L}^{-1})$ was in most cases higher than the PNF number $(0.3 \times 10^6 \text{ to } 0.6 \times 10^6 \text{ cells L}^{-1})$. The bacteria:Total nanoflagellates (TNF) abundance ratios in Lake Biwa ranged between 725 and 2,417 (Table 1). The VLP number varied from 2.4×10^{10} to 4.1×10^{10} VLP L⁻¹ (Table 1). The range of viruses to bacteria abundance ratios (range: 12.3 to 36.2) falls within the average reported for freshwater systems (Maranger and Bird 1995).

228 Estimation of growth and mortality rates

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

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

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

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

258 Bacterial carbon production and losses

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

274 10% of each *CP* value.

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276 Discussion

277 Grazing and lysis mortality of bacteria

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

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

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

312 Bacterial abundances in the epilimnion of Lake Biwa were relatively constant and changed within the order of 10^9 cells L⁻¹ (Nagata 1987; Nakano 1992; Nishimura et al. 2005; 313 Takasu et al. 2013), whereas other microbes such as picophytoplankton, nanoflagellates, and 314 viruses respectively showed large variations from 10^5 to 10^8 cells L⁻¹ (Nagata 1988), from 10^2 315 to 10⁵ cells L⁻¹ (Nagata 1988), and from 10⁹ to 10¹¹ VLP L⁻¹ (Nishimura and Nagata 2007; 316 Pradeep Ram et al. 2010). In addition, bacterial abundance is generally less variable than 317 bacterial production (Nagata 1987; Nakano 1992). In the present study, the percentages of 318 remaining bacterial carbon production (% $CP_{net} = (CP_{net} / CP) \times 100$) ranged from -7.2 to 319 11.0% (average \pm SD, 3.4 \pm 9.4). These estimates suggest that the less than 11% of daily 320 bacterial production remains or excessively loses, and those small increase or decrease in net 321 bacterial production does not change the whole bacterial abundance so much. This may be the 322 major reason why the bacterial abundance in the epilimnion of Lake Biwa is relatively 323 324 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 (average: 1346, Table 1) and similar to those of oligotrophic lakes and oceans (Sanders et al. 327 1992). Thus, nanoflagellates in Lake Biwa are also under food limitation. When we calculated 328 the specific grazing loss (SGL = GL / initial TNF density), SGL estimates were relatively 329 constant (1.24 \pm 0.29 \times 10⁻⁵ µg C TNF cell⁻¹ d⁻¹) despite variations in the bacteria:TNF ratio 330 (Table 1). The previous study suggested that nanoflagellates are clearing as much water as is 331 physically possible independent of bacterial density when they are under food limitation (Bird 332 and Kalff 1993). The results of the present study also indicate that individual TNF in Lake 333 Biwa ingest as much bacteria as possible due to the chronically food limitation. The 334 elimination mechanisms of bacteria should be different between protistan grazing and viral 335 lysis, though bacterial production and the sum of grazing and lysis losses were almost equal in 336 Lake Biwa (Table 4). In the present study, most of the viral lysis rates (M_v) were not 337 338 statistically significant (Table 2), similar to those in previous studies (e.g. Tijdens et al. 2008; Personic et al. 2009). The sum of grazing and lysis mortality rates (M_{g+v}) seasonally changed, 339 though grazing rates (M_g) were relatively constant during the study period (Fig. 2). Thus, the 340 changing pattern of M_{g+v} is due to that of M_v . So, the changing pattern of M_{g+v} was similar to 341 342 that of growth rate, suggesting that viral mortality is coupled with bacterial growth rate (Fig. 2). Similar results have been reported in previous studies (e.g., Weinbauer 2003). In Lake 343 Biwa, the loss processes of bacterial production can be explained by a combination of 344 protistan grazing pressure, which is independent of bacterial abundance, and viral lysis, which 345 is dependent on bacterial growth (Fig. 2, RQ). 346

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

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

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

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

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

The CP_{net} of UQ-8-containing bacteria showed positive estimates, whereas the CP_{net} of 393 UQ-10 containing bacteria showed negative estimates in the present study (Table 4). In our 394 395 previous study, UQ-8-containing bacteria dominated in Lake Biwa throughout a year, whereas biomass of UQ-10-containing bacteria was relatively low (Takasu et al. 2013). In 396 addition, biomass of those bacterial groups showed different seasonal changing patterns 397 (Takasu et al. 2013). Thus, it is likely that relatively low biomass of UQ-10-containing 398 399 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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			5			e				
					TNF	HNF	PNF	VLP		
_	WT	DOC	Chl. a	Bacteria	(106	(106	(106	(1010		
Date	(°C)	(mg C L ⁻¹)	$(\mu g L^{-1})$	(10 ⁹ cells L ⁻¹)	cells	cells	cells	VLP	Bacteria: TNF	VBR
					L ⁻¹)	L-1)	L-1)	L ⁻¹)		
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

Table 1. Physico-chemical and biological variabes

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).

mortality (M_{g+v}) from results of the dilution experiments.												
Date	Bacterial RQ type	Diluent	Dilution level	Lin r^2	ear fit <i>p</i> limit	Regression slopes <i>p</i> limit	μ	$M_{ m g}$	$M_{ m V}$	$M_{\rm g^+V}$		
22 June 2011	RQ	0.2 µm	4	0.993	<0.01	NC	1 1 2 0	0. (07	0.122	0.020		
		30 kDa	4	0.659	NS	NS	1.128	0.697	0.123	0.820		
	UQ	0.2 µm	4	0.996	< 0.01	NC	1 200	0 777	0 1 2 2	0.010		
		30 kDa	4	0.727	NS	IN5	1.206	0.///	0.133	0.910		
	MK	0.2 µm	4	0.688	NS	NC	0.714	0.42	0.082	0 229		
		30 kDa	4	0.175	NS	IND	0.714	0.42	-0.082	0.558		
	UQ-8	0.2 µm	4	0.957	< 0.05	<0.05	1 0/3	0 578	1 005	1 673		
		30 kDa	4	0.965	< 0.05	<0.03	1.945	0.370	1.095	1.075		
	UQ-10	0.2 µm	4	0.989	< 0.01	NS	0	0.812				
		30 kDa	4	0.004	NS	145	0	0.012				
	MK-8	0.2 µm	4	0.127	NS	NS	0 360	0.070	0.178	0 248		
		30 kDa	4	0.304	NS	115	0.500	0.070	0.170	0.240		
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 µm	3*	0.865	< 0.1	NS	0	-0 248				
		30 kDa	4	0.464	NS	115	0	-0.240				
19 October 2011	RQ	0.2 µm	4	0.980	< 0.01	<0.01 <0.01	1 225	0 459	0 689	1 1 4 8		
		30 kDa	4	0.996	< 0.01		11220	01105	0.009			
	UQ	0.2 µm	4	0.944	< 0.05		1 767	0 268	1 471	1 733		
		30 kDa	4	0.978	< 0.05	0.01		01200		11.00		
	MK	0.2 µm	4	0.968	< 0.05	< 0.05	0	0.602				
		30 kDa	4	0.436	NS	0.00	0	01002				
	UQ-8	0.2 µm	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 µm	4	0.440	NS	NS	0.192			0.161		
		30 kDa	4	0.063	NS							
	MK-'/	0.2 µm	4	0.986	< 0.01	< 0.1	0	0.968				
		30 kDa	4	0.069	NS							
	MK-8	0.2 μm	4	0.819	<0.1	< 0.05	0	0.533				
		30 kDa	4	0.768	NS							
	MK-9	0.2 μm	4	0.873	<0.1	< 0.1	0	0.589				
	MIZ O(II.)	30 kDa	3*	0.651	NS							
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 μm	4	0.882	<0.1	< 0.05	0	0.351				
16 May 2012	PO	30 kDa	4	0.601	NS							
10 May 2012	KQ	0.2 μm	4	0.612	NS	< 0.05	2.424	0.646	1.511	2.157		
	UO	30 kDa	4	0.948	<0.05							
	UQ	0.2 μm	4	0.829	<0.1	< 0.05	1.382	2.066	-0.936	1.13		
	MIZ	30 kDa	4	0.999	< 0.001							
	MK	0.2 μm	4	0.591	NS	NS	0.995	1.136	-0.859	0.277		
		30 kDa	4	0.427	NS							
	UQ-8	0.2 μm	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 μm	4	0.710	NS	< 0.05	2.524	0.552	2.012	2.564		
		30 kDa	4	0.944	< 0.05							
	МК-8	0.2 µm	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 µm	4	0.098	NS	NS	0.253	0.290	-0.188	0.102		
		30 kDa	3*	0.101	NS							

Table 2. Summary of growth (μ), grazing mortality (M_g), lysis mortality (M_v), and total

Date	Bacterial RQ type	Diluent	Dilution	Line	ear fit	Regression slopes	μ	$M_{ m g}$	$M_{ m V}$	$M_{\rm g+V}$
25.1 2012	no	^ ^	level	r	<i>p</i> limit	<i>p</i> limit	•	5		
25 June 2012	KQ	0.2 μm	4	0.968	<0.05	< 0.1	1.448	0.644	0.720	1.364
	UO	30 kDa	3**	0.958	NS 10.05					
	UQ	0.2 μm	4	0.976	<0.05	NS	1.567	1.368	0.080	1.448
	MIZ	30 kDa	3**	0.954	NS 10.1					
	MK	0.2 μm	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 μm	4	0.985	<0.01	NS	1.245	1.589	-0.381	1.208
	LIO 10	30 kDa	4	0.961	NS 10.05					
	UQ-10	0.2 μm	4	0.958	<0.05	NS	1.816	1.077	0.522	1.599
		30 kDa	3**	0.937	NS					
	MK-8	0.2 μm	4	0.019	NS	NS	0	0.088		
		30 kDa	3**	0.911	NS	NS				
	MK-9	0.2 μm	4	0.595	NS		0.220	0.388	-0.126	0.262
		30 kDa	3**	0.259	NS					
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 μm	4	0.003	NS	NS	0.242	0.046	0.277	0.323
24 1 1 2012	RQ	30 kDa	3**	0.983	<0.1					
24 July 2012		0.2 μm	4	0.862	<0.1	NS	1.048	0.744	0.379	1.123
		30 kDa	4	0.870	<0.1					
	UQ	0.2 µm	4	0.92	< 0.05	NS	1.446	1.007	0.492	1.499
		30 kDa	4	0.897	<0.1					
	MK	0.2 µm	4	0.76	NS	NS	0 4 1 6	0 644	-0.24	0 404
		30 kDa	4	0.655	NS					
	UQ-8	0.2 µm	4	0.930	< 0.05	NS	1 202	0 926	0.256	1 182
		30 kDa	4	0.891	<0.1	110	1.202	0.720	0.250	1.102
	UQ-10	0.2 µm	4	0.911	< 0.05	NS	1 636	1 1 2 0	0.647	1 767
		30 kDa	4	0.913	< 0.05	110	1.050	1.120	0.047	1./0/
	MK-8	0.2 µm	4	0.393	NS	NC	0.026	0 202	0 260	0 1 2 2
		30 kDa	4	0.222	NS	110	0.026	0.392	-0.209	0.123
	MK-9	0.2 µm	4	0.535	NS	NC	1 200	0.400	0.002	1 202
		30 kDa	4	0.841	< 0.1	INS	1.398	0.409	0.893	1.302
	MK-9(H ₈)	0.2 µm	4	0.923	< 0.05		0.056	0.022	0.004	0.240
		30 kDa	4	0.455	NS	<0.1		0.933	-0.684	0.249

Table 2. Continued

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.

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

Table 3. Ranges and averages of daily growth (μ), grazing mortality (M_g), lysis mortality (M_v),

and total mortality (M_{g+v})

SD, Standard Deviation

Table 4. Ranges and averages of daily carbon production (CP), grazing loss (GL), lysis loss

	CP		GL		LL		1L		CP_{net}	
	$(\mu g \ C \ L^{-1} \ d^{-1})$		$(\mu g \ C \ L^{-1} \ d^{-1})$		$(\mu g \ C \ L^{-1} \ d^{-1})$		$(\mu g \ C \ L^{-1} \ d^{-1})$		$(\mu g \ C \ L^{-1} \ d^{-1})$	
	Range	Average	Range	Average	Range	Average	Range	Average	Range	Average
Bacterial RQ type	(Min - Max)	\pm SD	(Min - Max)	\pm SD	(Min - Max)	\pm SD	(Min - Max)	\pm SD	(Min - Max)	\pm 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
МК	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
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	-0.30.9	$\textbf{-0.6} \pm 0.4$
MK-8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
MK-9	-	5.8	-	-	-	-	-	5.4	-	0.4
MK-9(H ₈)	-	0.6	-	-	-	-	-	0.8	-	-0.2

(LL), total losses (TL) and

net carbon production (CP_{net})

SD, Standard Deviation

Method	Grazing % potential	Lysis % potential	Location and water layer	Trophic status	Reference
	production	production			
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	Římov Reservoir, Surface water	Meso-Eutorphic	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	Mesotrochip	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

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

systems

TC, theoretical caluculation; 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

2 **Figure legends**

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

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





Takasu et al. Fig. 2

















Takasu et al. Fig. S1 continued.