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# Microbial communities in the estuarine water areas of the rivers in the southeastern part of Lake Baikal

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**ABSTRACT.** Using the Illumina MiSeq platform, we have studied the diversity of bacteria and archaea in three rivers of the southeastern end of Lake Baikal in the under-ice period of 2018. In analysed 16S rRNA gene libraries of all rivers, we have identified sequences of 12 bacterial phyla: *Actinobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Cyanobacteria*, *Elusimicrobia*, *Epsilonbacteraeota*, *Fibrobacteres*, *Firmicutes*, *Omnitrophicaeota*, *Patescibacteria*, *Planctomycetes*, *Proteobacteria*, and *Verrucomicrobia*. The contribution of minor taxa to the microbiomes from the estuaries of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka is more significant. Three phyla (*Thaumarchaeota*, *Euryarchaeota* and *Crenarchaeota*) and one superphylum (DPANN) represent archaea. The diversity of bacteria and archaea in the investigated ecotopes has its specifics and is different to that found in the pelagic zone of Southern Baikal. Bacteria show phylogenetic diversity at the level of families and genera, whereas archaea – at the level of phyla. In the microbiomes, we have identified microorganisms involved in various stages of transformation of organic and inorganic substances.

**Keywords:** small tributaries of Lake Baikal, microbial communities, diversity and structure, 16S rRNA gene, Illumina MiSeq

## 1. Introduction

Rivers and their estuarine water areas are zones, where transformation and accumulation of various substances from shores and river waters take place (Newton et al., 2013; 2015; Cloutier et al., 2015). The depth of information acquired by using advanced molecular genetic approaches provides a means to characterize the microbial composition, distribution, and transportation pathways in the environment and to relate them to understand pollution mechanisms (Newton et al., 2013; Halliday et al., 2014). There was the active destruction of various substances in the estuarine water areas of large tributaries of Lake Baikal: the rivers Selenga and Upper Angara (Maksimenko et al., 2008; 2012; Sorokovikova et al., 2012), and to a lesser extent – in water areas small inflowing tributaries (Maksimov, 1995). There were practically no studies concerning the diversity of microbial communities in these areas; only the taxa ratio at the phylum level were investigated in rivers and estuarine water areas of the rivers Selenga and Upper Angara. At the same time, some works state that precipitation (Khodzher et al., 2002; Sorokovikova et al., 2002; Tomberg et al., 2016) as well as domestic sewage (Drucker et al., 1993; Shtykova et al., 2016) and groundwater runoff from

sludge and lignin storage pits of the closed Baikalsk Pulp and Paper Mill (State Report..., 2017) influence the chemical composition in the rivers of Southern Baikal.

In the under-ice period of 2018, we conducted comprehensive studies at estuaries and estuarine water areas of small rivers in the southeastern part of Lake Baikal (Zemskaya et al., 2019). We found that acidity of snow cover and waters of the Pereyomnaya River did not adversely affect the abundance of microorganisms and their productiveness. The high values of dark carbon dioxide fixation in the water of the estuaries of the rivers in comparison with the estuarine zone were a distinctive feature of these water areas, and the high P/B coefficients (specific bacterioplankton production) with a significantly lower total microbial count indicated a high percentage of metabolically active cells that ensure the inclusion of carbon not only in the bacterioplankton biomass but also other organic compounds. Therefore, we were interested in the study of the diversity and structure of microbial communities at the estuary and an estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River as well as estuaries of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka having the acidity of snow cover and inflow of wastewater from sludge and lignin storage pits, using the Illumina MiSeq platform.

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## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Study areas and sampling

The water studies were carried out in March 2018 at estuaries and an estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River as well as the estuaries of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka (Southern Baikal). Water was sampled using a Niskin bottle at the estuaries of the rivers and a distance of 100 and 200 m from the estuaries. A description of the stations, methods for studying chemical parameters and pH are shown in (Zemskaya et al., 2019).

### 2.2. DNA extraction

We obtained five DNA samples from the surface water. Water samples (5 L) were filtered on nitrocellulose filters (25 mm diameter, 0.2 micron pore size; “Millipore”, Germany) using a diaphragm pump. The filter was then placed in a TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4; 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) and frozen at -20°C. Then, it was transported to the laboratory. DNA was extracted according to the modified method of phenol-chloroform extraction (Sambrook et al., 1989). The extracted DNA was kept at -70°C for further use. The universal primers U341F (5'-CCTACGGGSGCAGCAG-3') and U785R (5'-GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3') as well as a program: 96°C for 3 min; 96°C for 30 s; 55°C for 30 s; 72°C for 40 s (25 cycles); and 72°C for 10 min, were used for PCR amplification of 16S rRNA gene fragments of bacteria, including the variable region V3–V4. The primers that included the variable region V2–V3: A113F (5'-ACKGCTAGTAACACGTGG-3') and A520R (5'-TACGGCGGCKGCTGGCA-3') (Whitehead and Cotta, 1999; Kim et al., 2011), as well as a program: 96°C for 2 min; 96°C for 30 s, 58°C for 45 s, 72°C for 40 s (25 cycles); and 72°C for 10 min, were used for PCR amplification of 16S rRNA gene fragments of archaea. The libraries were analysed using Illumina MiSeq Standard Kit v.3 (Illumina) at the Genomics Core Facility of the Evrogen Join Stock company (Moscow).

### 2.3. Data preparation and filtering: Bioinformatics analysis

Paired-end sequencing reads were trimmed and filtered by quality using leading and sliding window trimming with the average Phred-value = 25 and window size = 13-15 bases in Trimmomatic version 0.39 (Bolger et al., 2014). The R1 and R2 sequences corresponding to ribosomal RNA amplicons were merged into contigs with the *mothur* merge.contigs command. The fragments obtained were filtered by size and tested on the contents of respective forward/reverse primers with allowing two mismatch between forward and reverse primer and sequence. Further rRNA sequence processing was performed using *mothur* v.1.34.4 software (Schloss et al., 2009) according to MiSeq SOP recommendations (Kozich et al., 2013). To compare the microbial diversity among the samples, the bacterial read numbers of each sample were subsampled to those of the sample with the smallest number of reads

by random removal of sequencing reads using the *sub.sample* command of the *mothur* program. The filtered sequences were aligned, clustered, and identified taxonomically using the SILVA 132 databases (<http://www.arb-silva.de>). To estimate similarity among bacterial communities, the samples were analysed using non-metric multidimensional scaling and clustered on the basis of the Euclidean distance matrix by the *Vegan* and *Cluster* packages in R. For statistical analysis and assessment of the association of individual OTUs with chemical parameters, the concentrations of O<sub>2</sub>, POB, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and CH<sub>4</sub> shown in (Zemskaya et al., 2019) were used. The closest homologues of each gene fragment sequence were found with a BLAST search against the NR database (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>). The 16S rRNA sequences were deposited in the NCBI's Sequence Read Archive (Accession number: Bioproject PRJNA556789).

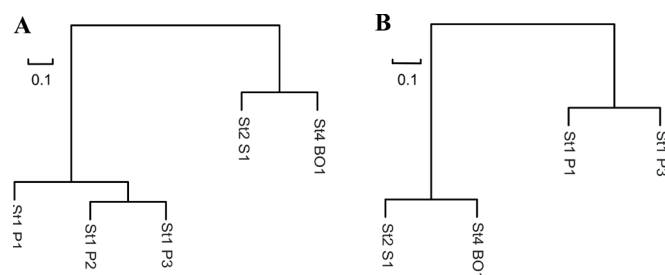
## 3. Results and discussion

The obtained rarefaction curves (data not shown) indicate that the sequencing volume reached in the analysis of the samples is satisfactory for the complete characterisation of diversity of bacterial communities from river samples but insufficient for the reference station. In the latter sample, we obtained the sequences of almost one taxon, cyanobacteria, which differed significantly from the data simultaneously obtained in the pelagic zone of Southern Baikal (Cabello-Yeves et al., 2018). In river microbiomes, the Chao1 and Shannon indices were maximum for 16S rRNA gene libraries of bacteria from the Solzan River (4471.3 and 6.8, respectively) as well as for archaea from the estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River (138 and 4.2, respectively, Table 1). The number of archaeal species varied less significantly; the highest values of the Shannon index (4.2) were in the estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River, and the lowest ones (3.3) – at the estuary of the Solzan River. Notably, the lower number of the obtained archaeal sequences in comparison with bacterial ones may be due to their low abundance and an insufficient amount of investigated DNA.

Analysis of the 16S rRNA gene libraries of bacteria and archaea in the rivers and estuarine water areas indicated a different taxonomic composition of the communities. OTUs of bacteria and archaea formed two clusters each on dendrograms. The first one included sequences from the estuary and estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River, and the second – from the estuaries of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka (Fig. 1A, 1B). Based on the intracluster distances, the diversity of bacterial communities was more similar in the microbiomes from the estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River than between microbiomes from the estuary and estuarine water area. According to intercluster distances, the differences in the composition of archaeal communities were more obvious in comparison with bacterial communities.

In the analysed 16S rRNA gene libraries of all rivers, there were sequences of 12 bacterial

phyla: *Actinobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Cyanobacteria*, *Elusimicrobia*, *Epsilonbacteraeota*, *Fibrobacteres*, *Firmicutes*, *Omnitrophicaeota*, *Patescibacteria*, *Planctomycetes*, *Proteobacteria*, and *Verrucomicrobia* (Fig. 2A). The contribution of minor taxa varied: their diversity and percentage of sequences were lower in the microbiome from the water area of the Pereyomnaya River and higher at the estuaries of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka (4.7 and 2.1%) (Fig. 2B). In the microbiome from the estuary of the Pereyomnaya River, the sequences of *Proteobacteria* (46%), *Epsilonbacteraeota* (21%) and *Bacteroidetes* (11.2%) as well as *Cyanobacteria* (7.8%) and *Patescibacteria* (4.1%) had the highest percentage. At a distance of 100 m from the river estuary, the ratio of the dominant taxa in the microbiomes changed, with an increase in the contribution of the members of the phyla *Firmicutes* (8.5%), *Bacteroidetes* (18.2%) and *Cyanobacteria* (18.3%) and decrease in *Proteobacteria* (25.1%). At a distance of 200 m from the river estuary, the ratio of taxa in the microbiomes again changed; the members of *Bacteroidetes* (26.3%), *Cyanobacteria* (25.5%) and *Gammaproteobacteria* (25.3%) had the highest percentage, and the sequences of *Firmicutes* (0.2%) and *Epsilonbacteraeota* (4.1%) were minor. Microorganisms of the *Gammaproteobacteria* (20.0-32.4%) mainly represented *Proteobacteria* with a large contribution of the sequences of the order *Betaproteobacteriales*. Among them, we identified the sequences of methano- and methylotropic bacteria, in particular, the members of the families *Methylophilaceae* (genus *Methylothermus*) and *Methylomonaceae* (genus *Methylobacter*). The presence of a great number of sequences of these taxa at the estuary of the Pereyomnaya River is likely due to their inflow with the runoff of the river, which flows



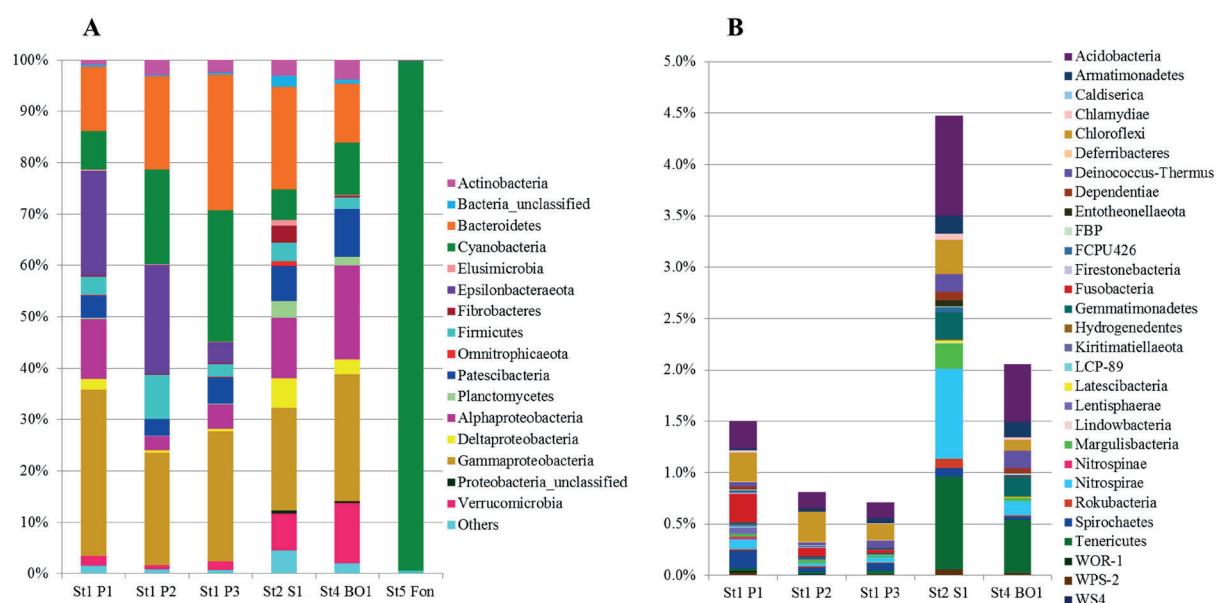
**Fig.1.** Dendrogram of similarity and difference of bacterial (A) and archaeal (B) communities based on Euclidean distance matrix

through wetlands. Moreover, the microbiome of this river (11.7%) had a high percentage of the sequences of the genus *Methylobacterium* (*Alphaproteobacteria*), which also participate in the methane cycle, ensuring the methanol oxidation. In the communities of the estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River (2.8 and 4.8%, respectively), the members of this genus were a minor component. The bacterial sequences of the genus *Sphingomonas* (*Alphaproteobacteria*), which closest homologues have proteo- and lipolytic activity and are capable of surviving under low concentrations of nutrients (Yoon et al., 2008), had a large contribution in the microbiomes of all investigated samples.

Members of the *Deltaproteobacteria* class in the Pereyomnaya River and its water area were not numerous (1.9% or less) and included both aerobic predatory bacteria of the genus *Bdellovibrio* and anaerobic sulphate- (genus *Desulfobulbus*) and metal-reducing microorganisms (genus *Geobacter*). The sequences of the phylum *Bacteroidetes* (11.2-22.5%), which belong to both planktonic (*Flavobacterium*, *Fluviicola*, *Arcicella*, and *Parasediminibacterium*) and

**Table 1.** Indices of species richness and diversity (at a cluster distance of 0.03) of bacteria and archaea in the 16 rRNA gene libraries of microbial communities from the rivers Pereyomnaya, Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka.

Sampling area, sample		Number of reads	Coverage, %	Number of OTU <sub>0.03</sub>	ACE	Chao1	Simpson's Inverse Index	Shannon
Bacteria								
estuary of the Pereyomnaya River	St1 P1	148453	99.6	3821	4110.4	4171.2	15.0	4.67
100 m from the estuary	St1 P2	106195	99.1	3086	3781.9	3701.2	12.4	4.24
200 m from the estuary	St1 P3	100175	99.1	3301	3986.3	3987.0	14.4	4.66
estuary of the Solzan River	St2 S1	162003	99.9	4432	4471.3	4509.7	218.1	6.79
estuary of the Bolshaya Osinovka River	St4 BO1	104767	99.4	4110	4375.9	4442.7	97.6	6.40
reference station	St5 Fon	2941	99.9	8	11.8	9.0	1.0	0.05
Archaea								
estuary of the Pereyomnaya River	St1 P1	1117	99.2	80	83.9	86.0	15.0	3.6
200 m from the estuary	St1 P3	1670	99.4	123	125.6	138.0	37.4	4.2
200 m from the estuary	St2 S1	1278	99.4	66	69.1	70.6	15.2	3.3
estuary of the Bolshaya Osinovka River	St4 BO1	637	98.9	80	81.9	82.3	27.7	3.9



**Fig.2.** The composition of the bacterial community in the water of the rivers Pereyomnaya, Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka according to the analysis of sequences of 16S rRNA gene fragments: A – dominant phyla (share of sequences > 95.0%); B – minor taxa (share of sequences < 5.0%) The composition of the bacterial community in the water of the rivers Pereyomnaya, Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka according to the analysis of sequences of 16S rRNA gene fragments: A – dominant phyla (share of sequences > 95.0%); B – minor taxa (share of sequences < 5.0%)

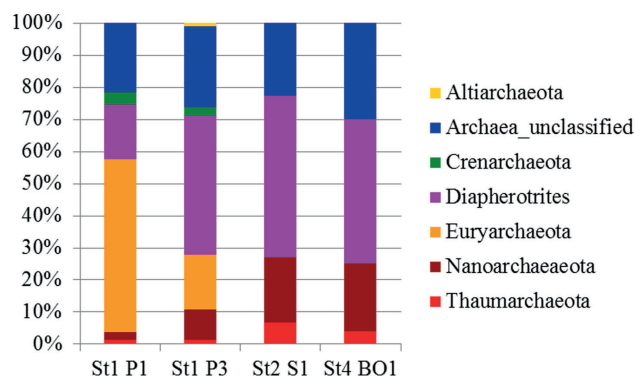
benthic microorganisms (*Paludibacter*), were more diverse and numerous in the microbiomes of this area. The identified bacteria of the genera *Flavobacterium* and *Fluviicola* are capable of decomposing plant polysaccharides, such as starch, cellulose, xylans and pectins, as well as photosynthesizing due to the presence of rhodopsins in the cells (Humphry et al., 2001; Martinez-Garcia et al., 2011; Feng et al., 2015; Park et al., 2017). Additionally, bacteria of the genera *Arcicella* and *Parasediminibacterium* play an important role in protein metabolism (Sheu et al., 2010; Kang et al., 2016), whereas the *Paludibacter* members ferment sugars (Ueki, 2006).

Microbiome in the Solzan River had a wider range of bacterial taxa (Fig. 2A), including dominant *Gammaproteobacteria* (20%), *Alphaproteobacteria* (11.8%) and *Bacteroidetes* (20.1%). In the microbiome of this river, the contribution of *Patescibacteria* (6.8%) and *Verrucomicrobia* (*Opitutaceae* family, 7.2%) increased, and that of *Cyanobacteria* (5.9%) decreased. Like in the microbiomes of the Pereyomnaya River, members of the order *Betaproteobacteriales*, in particular, the sequences of the genera *Paucibacter* and *Rhodoferrax*, were numerous among *Gammaproteobacteria*. The strains of the genus *Paucibacter* from lake sediments can cleave cyanobacterial hepatotoxins, microcystins and nodularin (Rapala et al., 2005). In the microbiome of the Solzam River, the share of minor taxa increased (4.5%), among which the intracellular parasites of arthropod from the phylum *Tenerecutes* (*Mycoplasmataceae* family, 0.9%) (Kostanjsek et al., 2007) as well as ammonia- and nitrite-oxidizing bacteria of the phylum *Nitrospirae* (genus *Nitrospira*, 0.9%) (Koch et al., 2015) and *Acidobacteria* (approximately 1%) were the most representative. Furthermore, in the minor component of the microbiome, there were members of the phyla *Planctomycetes*, *Omnitrophicaeota*, *Fibrobacteres*, and

*Firmicutes*. A wider range of taxa in the microbiome of this river may be due to the influx of water and microorganisms from sludge and lignin storage pits remaining after the closure of Baikalsk Pulp and Paper Mill.

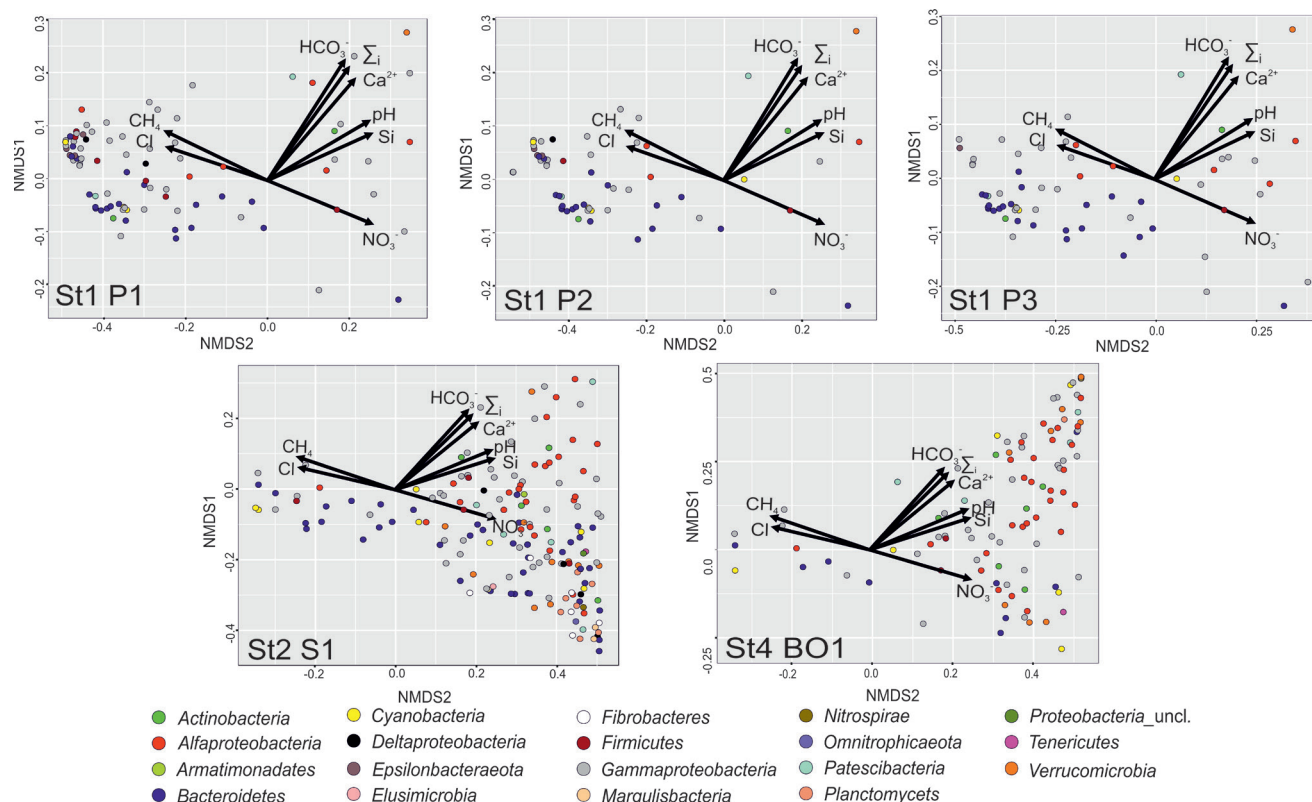
The structure and diversity of the microbiome from the Bolshaya Osinovka River were similar to those from the Solzan River. *Gammaproteobacteria* (24.7%), *Alphaproteobacteria* (18.3%), *Bacteroidetes* (11.6%), *Verrucomicrobia* (11.6%), and *Patescibacteria* (9.3%) were among the dominant phyla. The contribution of minor taxa did not exceed 2%. Notably, in the microbiomes of the Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka Rivers, there was a decrease in the contribution of the sequences of sulphur-oxidizing bacteria (genus *Sulfurospirillum*) from the phylum *Epsilonbacteraeota* (0.01%), which had a high percentage in the microbiomes from the Pereyomnaya River (up to 21%).

The taxonomic composition of archaea was less diverse (Fig. 3) in the investigated areas. We identified members of three phyla (*Thaumarchaeota*, *Euryarchaeota*



**Fig.3.** The composition of archaeal community in the water of the rivers Pereyomnaya, Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka according to the analysis of the sequences of 16S rRNA gene fragments



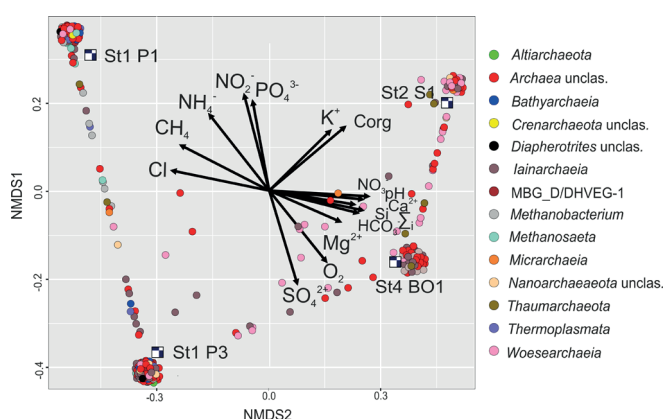


**Fig.4.** Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of bacterial community composition in each sample based on Euclidean distances calculated for abundant OTUs with more than 150 sequences (stress = 1.37). Vectors show correlations of environmental variables ( $p < 0.05$ )

and *Crenarchaeota*) and one superphylum (DPANN) of archaea. Unlike the archaeal community from the photic layer of the pelagic zone in Southern Baikal, where there were only members of the phylum *Thaumarchaeota* (Cabello-Yeves et al., 2018), microbiomes of the studied rivers had a more diverse taxonomic composition. The contribution of the *Thaumarchaeota* members is insignificant (1.1-6.7%), and the revealed sequences belong to ammonium-oxidizing microorganisms of the families *Nitrosopumilaceae* and *Nitrosotaleaceae* (Park et al., 2012). The microbiome from the water area of the Pereyomnaya River had the greatest number of archaeal taxa, and at the estuary, the bulk of sequences belonged to the methanogenic archaea of the phylum *Euryarchaeota* (53.9%); in the estuarine water area, their contribution was much smaller (16.9%), and they were not detected in the communities from other rivers. The members of *Crenarchaeota* were also found in minor quantities only in the microbiomes from the Pereyomnaya River (3.8-2.6%), and the *Diapherotrites* and *Nanoarchaeota* members of the DPANN superphylum dominated the microbiomes of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka (from 20.3 to 50.4%). Notably, the sequences of the DPANN superphylum were observed only in the near-bottom area of the pelagic zone in Southern Baikal (Cabello-Yeves, personal communication).

The nonmetric multidimensional scaling technic evaluated the association of the individual taxonomic units and chemical indicators in the studied biotopes (Fig. 4, Fig. 5). The analysis included OTUs having more than 150 sequences. To construct dendrograms for data array on bacteria, we used such parameters as

decomposable organic matter (DOM), a total number of ions, the concentration of major ions as well as pH. The dendrograms show the data on the association of chemical parameters with the individual OTUs of bacteria (Fig. 4) and archaea (Fig. 5). It is obvious that three clusters of bacterial OTUs form in each water area. In the microbiomes of the Pereyomnaya River and its water area, the OTU group associated with the concentration of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  ions is the most evident. This cluster includes members of such taxa as *Bacteroidetes*, *Alpha-* and *Gammaproteobacteria*, among which the most representative are the sequences of the families *Methylophilaceae* (genus *Methylothermus*) and *Methylobacteriaceae* (genus *Methylobacter*) involved



**Fig.5.** Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of archaeal community composition in each sample based on Euclidean distances calculated for abundant OTUs with more than 50 sequences (stress = 1.74). Vectors show correlations of environmental variables

in various stages of methane oxidation. Among *Bacteroidetes*, the members of the genera *Paludibacter*, *Arcicella* and *Flavobacterium* are numerous. In the microbiomes of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka, a large number of OTUs is associated with the total number of ions, the concentration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Si}$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  ions as well as the pH of the water. In this cluster, the most representative sequences are *Alpha-* (families *Caulobacteraceae*, *Hyphomonadaceae*, *Paracaedibacteraceae*, *Rhodobacteraceae*, and *Rickettsiaceae*), *Gammaproteobacteria* (*Burkholderiaceae*, *Chitinibacteraceae*, *Rhodocyclaceae*, *Cellvibrionaceae*, and *Pseudomonadaceae*) and *Actinobacteria* (*Microbacteriaceae* and *Solirubrobacteraceae*). The third OTU cluster is the most numerous in the microbiomes of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka, and it correlates with the concentration of nitrate ion. This cluster has OTUs of *Gammaproteobacteria* (*Burkholderiaceae*; *Xanthomonadaceae*), *Alphaproteobacteria* (*Hyphomonadaceae*; *Rhodobacteraceae*; *Sphingomonadaceae*), *Tenerecutes*, *Verrucomicrobia* (*Rubritaleaceae*), *Planctomycetes* (*Pirellulaceae*), and *Nitrospiraceae* (*Nitrospira*).

The analysis of data array of the archaeal OTUs indicates their different contribution to the composition of the communities in the studied water areas (Fig. 5) and the lack of reliable associations with most on the analysed parameters. This is most evident for the archaeal community from the water area of the Pereyomnaya River, where we have determined no reliable correlation between dominant OTUs with any of the parameters. The individual OTUs of archaea from the Bolshaya Osinovka River are associated with nitrates, the total number of the  $\text{Si}$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  ions as well as the pH of the water (Fig. 5), whereas in the Solzan River – with the concentration of DOM and potassium ions.

#### 4. Conclusions

The studied rivers have different salinity, the pH of the water, the concentration of DOM and individual ions, which affected the diversity of microbial communities. The phylogenetic analysis has shown that their diversity and structure in the rivers are not the same and differ from those simultaneously observed in the pelagic zone (Cabello-Yeves et al., 2018). The level of families and genera mostly shows the taxonomic difference in bacteria, and the level of phyla – in archaea. In the communities of the Pereyomnaya River and its water area, where the waters have the lowest salinity and mildly acidic pH of the environment, the sequences of bacteria involved in various stages of methane oxidation predominated in the microbiomes. This is consistent with higher methane concentrations at the estuary and estuarine water of this river in comparison with other rivers. The taxonomic composition of the communities in the estuarine water area is similar to riverine and pelagic communities. At a distance from the river estuaries, the contribution of the members of *Patescibacteria* and *Epsilonbacteraeota*, as well as minor taxa, decreases. Despite the smaller watershed basin and

runoff in comparison with the Pereyomnaya River, the microbiomes of the rivers Solzan and Bolshaya Osinovka have a more diverse phylogenetic composition. This is most likely due to the inflow of wastewater from the sludge and lignin storage pits of Baikalsk Pulp and Paper Mill, which ensure the activity of a wide range of microorganisms. Moreover, the structure of bacterial communities in the rivers differs from the structure of the communities from the photic layer of the pelagic zone in Southern Baikal (5 and 20 m) (Cabello-Yeves et al., 2018). In all microbiomes, the contributions of *Gammaproteobacteria*, *Alphaproteobacteria* and *Bacteroidetes* are comparable, whereas in the microbiomes of rivers, the phyla *Patescibacteria* and *Epsilonbacteraeota* are more representative, and *Actinobacteria* are less representative. Probably, the small representation of the latter ones in the river biotopes during the under-ice period is due to a dense snow cover that does not let in sunlight and, hence, limits the development of photoheterotrophic bacteria. In the pelagic zone of Southern Baikal, where the ice was less covered with snow, actinobacteria with a photoheterotrophic type of metabolism prevailed, whereas, in the river microbiomes, chemoorganotrophic microorganisms capable of using various substrates as well as methane were the most representative. High metabolic activity in the river samples compared to those from the estuarine water area of the Pereyomnaya River implies the lack of a mixing zone typical of large tributaries, which serves as a kind of biofilter that impedes the influx of various compounds in the lake waters.

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# Lake Gusinoe (the southern part of East Siberia, Russia): sedimentary history inferred from high-resolution reflection seismic data

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**ABSTRACT.** This paper studies the formation of the sediment cover in Lake Gusinoe. For this purpose, we used high-resolution seismic data. Depression of Lake Gusinoe has a tectonic origin; however, there is no evidence of recent tectonic activity. Sediment thickness in Lake Gusinoe is less than 9 m, and its history is short (< 35-45 ka). In addition, seismic stratigraphy records contain three contrasting episodes when the lake level dramatically decreased. It is very likely that there were also other shorter episodes of low-level stands. Thus, seismic structures of lakes Gusinoe and Kotokel have a strong resemblance, and it is most likely that their history began at the same time, ca. 40 ka BP.

**Keywords:** High-resolution seismic data, Lake Gusinoe, East Siberia

## 1. Introduction

The southern part of East Siberia is characterised by a variety of landscapes, from steppe to mountain zones, and, according to paleorecords from this region, can be very sensitive to climate changes. There are paleorecords from small lakes of this region, however, these records are often until only the Holocene-Bølling-Allerød (e.g. Shichi et al., 2009; Bezrukova et al., 2010; Fedotov et al., 2012; 2013; Solotchina et al., 2014). For example, according to records from Lake Kotokel, intensive warming of the region was during 11.8-9.5 ka BP; regional climate was most likely moderately cold and humid from 9.5 to 7 kyr BP; from 7 to 6 kyr BP there was a trend to drying, the climate pattern at 5.8-1.5 ky BP was very unstable when there were episodes of abrupt cooling by the backdrop of the warm climate (Fedotov et al., 2012)

The climate in this region of East Siberia is continental, which is reflected in the large differences in the mean January (-30 °C) and July (15 °C) temperatures. Annual precipitation is relatively low, ranging from 220 to 590 mm (NOAA data set <ftp://ftp.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data>). Lake Gusinoe is located in approximately 60 km to the south of Lake Baikal (Fig. 1). The lake is situated at 551 m above sea level. It is approximately 24 km long and 8.4 km wide, with a maximum depth of 26 m. For this reason, this sediment cover may contain long paleorecords.

However, there are probably hiatuses in the

paleorecords from Lake Gusinoe due to erosion of sediment cover at the lowest lake levels. Thus, according to historical records, there were two lakes on the place of Lake Gusinoe in 1728, and it is very likely that similar changes also happened before.

In our study, based on the analysis of high-resolution seismic data on the sedimentary infill of Lake Gusinoe, we attempt to reconstruct the evolution of the lake.

## 2. Methods

Seismic data were collected using a Frequency Modulated (FM) sub-bottom profiler consisted of tree transducers that receive and radiate FM signal (frequency 1-10 kHz). The operation is based on the transducer radiating an acoustic signal directed vertically downwards. An acoustic signal reflects from a bottom, reflecting horizons of sub-bottom sedimentary layer, and proceeds back in a transducer. In the receiving channel of the device, amplification, coordinated filtration and digitization of analogue signals amplification are produced. In data array records, data required for the bottom surface mapping and profiles of sub-bottom, namely, acoustic signals from the transducer and current coordinates are received from GPS receiver. Forty-five kilometers of seismic profile were obtained in 2018 (Fig. 1). The FM profiler enables to study stratification of sedimentary layers with a resolution of up to 10 cm. For conversion

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of the acoustic travel time into depth, we assumed velocity of 1.45 m/ms in water and 1.6-1.7 m/ms for the uppermost unconsolidated sediments.

In 2019, a sediment core was taken from the northwestern part of Lake Gusinoe N 51°14.720, E 106°25.161 (Fig. 1) using a Uwitec Corer sampler. The water depth was 20 m at the core-sampling site. The core was 80 cm long, but the core sampler cannot penetrate deeper due to a high density of bottom sediments.

Depth-age model based on AMS-technic was performed in Budker Institute of Nuclear Physics (Novosibirsk, Russia). Chemical pre-treatment and graphitization of samples were carried out in Laboratory of Radiocarbon Methods of Analysis at Novosibirsk State University using laboratory installation (Lysikov et al., 2018). Six sediment layers were dated. Calendar date was evaluated from the radiocarbon one by CalPal ver.1.5.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. Seismic units

Seismic profiles clearly distinguish a two-part subdivision of the stratigraphic section from the sedimentary infill: - a lower part, acoustically un- or poorly stratified; - an upper part, thinly and regularly stratified, with good lateral continuity (longitudinal and transverse). Both can be subdivided with more details as follows.

A lower part – the basement is chaotic unstructured low-amplitude reflections (Fig. 2). Thickness is approximately 2-3 m (deeper, seismic signal damped). It is most likely that reworked fluvial and eolian sediments represent these sediments.

Unit -1 is characterized by sub-parallel, discontinuous coarse high-amplitude reflections. It can indicate that the ratio of sand is high. The lower boundary parallels covered basement. Thickness varied from 1.5 to 3 m. The lithology of this unit is probably coarse-grained sediments, which formed under shallow lacustrine condition. Position of the upper boundary of the unit indicates that the lake can have a depth of approximately 15 m. However, the upper boundary was eroded (erosion level-1).

Unit-2 in the lower part is represented by low-amplitude sub-parallel reflections. High-amplitude of reflectors and a distinct thinning of its rhythmic pattern is increased towards the upper boundary of the unit. Sediment thickness is approximately 1.5-3 m. In general, this reflection pattern can be interpreted as normal lacustrine filling, and its thinning seems to show that the lake depth gradually increased. However, the packets of chaotic low-amplitude reflections embedded into packets of parallel reflections can be associated with a silty sand-rich mudslide, sandslide or river fan (van Rensbergen et al., 1999). The upper boundary also was eroded (erosion level-2) at slope parts of the depression.

Unit -3 is characterized by sub-parallel, distinct coarse high-amplitude reflections with thinning rhythmic pattern. Sediment thickness is ca. 1-2 m. This

unit is enriched with lenses or mound-shape geometry bodies with chaotic high-amplitude reflections. These bodies are associated with silty sand-rich sediments. A cross breadth of some bodies is up to 2.5 km (Fig. 3), and it is most likely that these bodies are related to river fan.

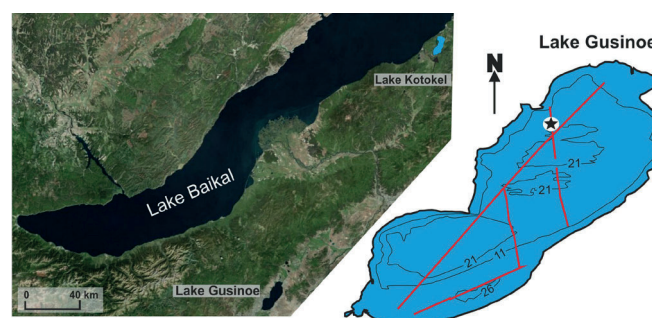
A boundary between unit- 3 and 4 is very strong erosion surface (erosion level-3). This erosion denudated distal parts of units 1, 2, and 3 (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). Unit - 4 consists of packages of high-amplitude reflections parallel to discontinuous reflections with packages of seismically semitransparent reflection in the upper part (0-1 m bss). Unit 4 becomes thicker in deep parts of the axial part of the lake, attaining a maximum thickness of approximately 2 m.

#### 3.2 Interpretation

The relief and configuration of the acoustic basement beneath Lake Gusinoe strongly suggest that the lake has a tectonic origin due to the presence of a deep fault. Thus, the morphological structure of the lake is represented by two depressions (southern and northern) restricted by faults (Fig. 3). At the beginning of forming unit-1, the basement of the southern depression was lower than that of the northern depression by ca. 10 m. The southern depression is approximately 9 km long.

Due to this morphological asymmetry, the northern depression was completely dried when erosion levels -1-3 were formed. However, deeps of a paleo-lake in the southern depression were approximately 2-5 m during events of erosion levels-2 and 3. In addition, it is most likely that the southern depression was also completely dried at events of erosion level-1, as the upper boundary of unit-1 was eroded. In general, there are no erosion cuts along erosion levels 2 and 3. For this reason, it is most likely that the duration of low lake levels was not long. To confirm this assumption, the total thickness of sediment covers in the southern and northern depressions are approximately 9 and 7 m, respectively (Fig. 3). Hence, ca. 2 m of total sediment cover in the northern depression can be denudated at a time when the erosion levels were formed.

High content of bodies enriched with sand materials into unit-3 can evidence high activity of tributaries or floods at that time. These bodies are



**Fig.1.** Location of Lake Gusinoe: red lines - seismic profiles, asterisk – point of the core sampling



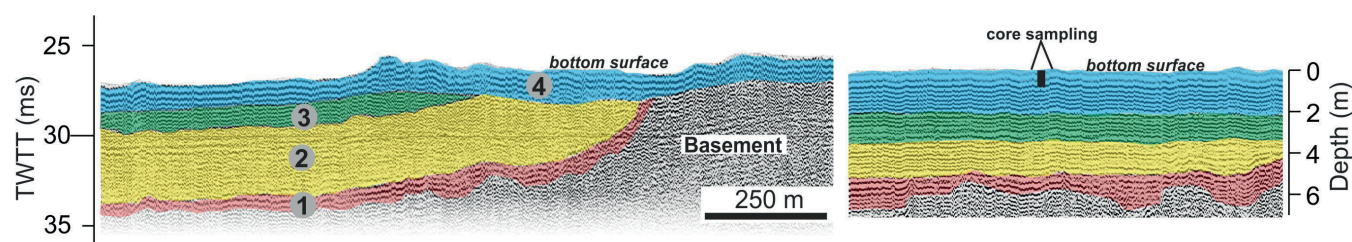


Fig.2. Seismic stratigraphy of Lake Gusinoe, *number* - seismic units

more abundant in the southern depression. At present, all tributaries flow in the lake along the west coastline, and the Khamar-Daban Ridge can be a source for these streams. Hence, it seems that this period had maximum moisture in the region.

The sediment core was composed of fine, light grey and black silty clay in the upper part (0-25 cm bss) as well as olive-green firm silty clay (25-80 cm bss). Interval of 25-80 cm was enriched with shells of ostracods and gastropods. Thus, these sediments formed under lacustrine conditions; however, it was a shallow lake. AMS dating indicates that the layer of 79-80 cm likely deposited ca. 5 cal. ka BP, and a change in sedimentation (approximately 25 cm bss) occurred ca. 1.5-2 cal. ka BP (Fig. 4). According to this age estimation, the mean sediment rate for the upper 0-0.8 m bss was approximately 1 cm/71 yr. If this sediment rate is linearly extrapolated to the layer of the erosion level-3 (approximately 2 m bss), in this case, the unit-4 began to accumulate after 14-15 ka BP. For this reason, it seems that the erosion level-3 can be formed during the Last Glacial Maximum. The results of pollen analysis and pollen-based biome reconstruction from bottom sediments of Lake Kotokel show that steppe and tundra vegetation composed of grasses and various herbs dominated ca. 26.8-19.1 cal. ka BP, and a lake level was low compared to the present (Müller et al., 2014).

The level of Lake Baikal, being by 50 m deeper than the modern lake, as well as a low and irregular discharge of the Selenga River are evidence of high regional aridity in the LGM (Urabe et al., 2004; Osipov and Khlystov, 2010). Hence, the level of Lake Gusinoe most probably was also dramatically low under this LGM-condition.

The seismic pattern indicates that units 2-4 were formed during one limnological cycle, whereas the unit - 1 can be a remnant of other older cycle.

Coarse age estimation for units 2-4 based on the sediment rate for the upper 0-0.8 m shows that these units can deposit approximately 35-45 ka BP. However, this estimation does not take into account the duration of low-levels (erosion levels 2 and 3) and layers of sandslides or turbidities. Nevertheless, it seems that 35-45 ka is most likely the highest possible age for the bottom layer of the unit-2. Moreover, the seismic profiles of Lake Kotokel indicate that the three depositional units were distributed over the entire lake basin (Zhang et al., 2013). Age estimation of these units was the present-15, 15-25 and >32 ka BP (Zhang et al., 2013). The bottom unit in Lake Kotokel is represented by densely-spaced reflections, occurring as chaotic and occasionally hummocky structure, partly alternating with reflections of low contrast. The seismic pattern of this unit is very similar to those of unit 1 and basement from Lake Gusinoe. Thus, seismic structures of Lake Gusinoe and Kotokel have similarity, and it is most likely that their history began at the same time, ca. 40 ka BP.

#### 4. Conclusions

We have studied sediment cover of Lake Gusinoe based on high-resolution seismic data. Morphology of the lake basement evidences a tectonic origin of this lake. Two depressions (southern and northern) represent the structure of the lake floor. The thickness of lacustrine sediments cover is only 9-6 m, and this cover was divided into four seismic units. Boundaries of these units are three erosion surfaces. The northern

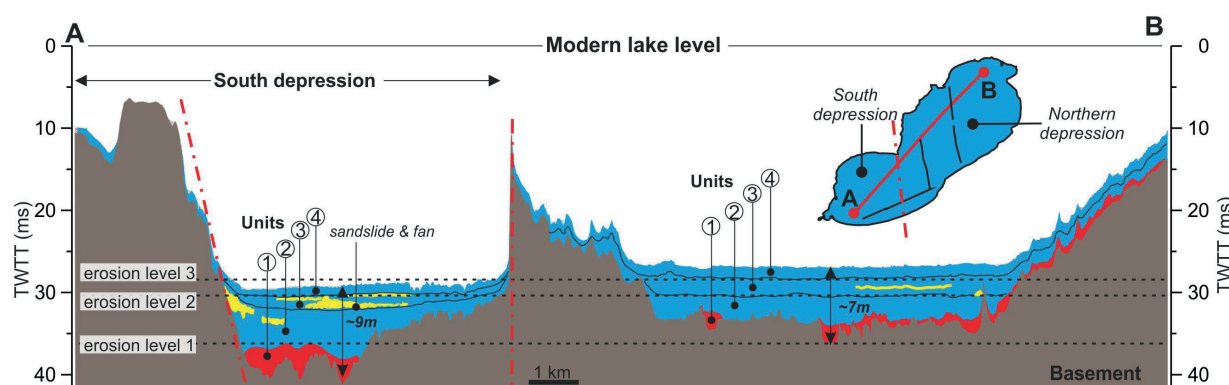


Fig.3. Axial structure of sediment filling of Lake Gusinoe: *dashed redlines* – faults, *yellow lenses* – sediment bodies enriched with sand

depression completely dried in periods when formed erosion levels-2 and 3, and the entire lake was dried at the period of the erosion level-1. According to radiocarbon dating of the short sediment core from the northern depression, approximate age of the erosion level-3 and lacustrine sedimentations are 14 and 35-45 ka BP, respectively. There is also evidence of high fluvial activity towards the southern depression.

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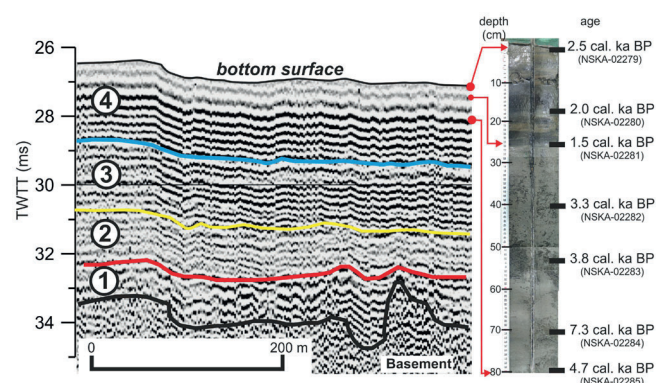


Fig.4. Seismic stratigraphy and the core image,  $^{14}\text{C}$  age-dates were converted into calendar ages until present (cal. BP)

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# Zooplankton in two small reservoirs of the Tuva Republic

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**ABSTRACT.** The article provides information on the species composition and quantitative indicators of zooplankton in two small mountain reservoirs of the Tuva Republic: the Eerbek and Turan. They reflect the first and the third years of the ecosystem existence after seasonal drawdown. Regulation shows a typical pattern in the distribution of zooplankton in the reservoirs: an increase in density in the dam section. In general, the reservoir zooplankton has a floodplain type of formation. The existence periods of reservoirs influences the zooplankton structure and its development: regulation in the first year determines the development of crustacean zooplankton (represented mainly by cladocerans), usually with monodominance; over three years, all main groups of zooplankton develop, but drawdowns interrupt the formation on the normal ecosystem in the reservoir.

**Keywords:** small reservoirs, zooplankton, Tuva, regulation

## 1. Introduction

In the Tuva Republic, apart from the well-known large Sayano-Shushenskaya Dam, several small artificial water bodies were created in the 1980s. They were intended for irrigation of fields, watering places and regulation of river flow. Following the aims and tasks, two small reservoirs were also created, whose direct purpose is lost now, and they are mainly popular among the fishing amateurs. Nevertheless, they retain their functioning, being seasonal drawdown reservoirs, which influences the existence features of zooplankton in them. Special scientific research supplemented the construction of such large objects as the Sayano-Shushenskaya Dam, whereas the literature concerning zooplankton in small reservoirs are rather scarce (Kirova, 2014). Our study aims to determine differences in the species composition and quantitative characteristics of the zooplankton in the Eerbek and Turan reservoirs, regarding their different existence periods.

## 2. Material and methods

The Eerbek and Turan reservoirs were created on the mountain rivers with the same names, the Eerbek (the right tributary of the Ulug-Khem River (the Upper Yenisei)) and the Turan (the left tributary of the Uyuk River, the Biy-Khem basin (Big Yenisei)). The Eerbek reservoir occupies the middle flow of the Eerbek River, in 15 km from its estuary; the Turan reservoir is closer to the upper flow of the Turan River, in 25 km from the

estuary (Fig. 1).

According to the classification of Avakyan (Avakyan et al., 1987), both reservoirs are small. They are shallow and river valley reservoirs in origin. The water management passport (Water management..., 1983; 1985) states that both reservoirs have seasonal regulation, but de facto the water drawdown does not occur annually. Based on the data of Tuva Institute for Exploration of Natural Resources of the Siberian Branch of the RAS (TuvIENR SB RAS), waters in both reservoirs are fresh (Table 1); in the Eerbek reservoir, the water is calcium-sodium bicarbonate, soft (1.95 meq/l); in the Turan reservoir – calcium-magnesium bicarbonate, also soft (1.55 meq/l). The coastal zones of the reservoirs warm up well; water temperature in summer reaches 20–23°C.

Zooplankton was sampled and collected by standard methods (Rukovodstvo..., 1992) at the beginning of August 2017. Samples were collected in the centre of upper, middle and dam sections. At the stations with depths of  $\leq 1$  m, samples were taken by 100-l pouring through a planktonic net with a 100µm-cell size. At other sites, samples were taken totally from the bottom to the surface with the Juday net. A 4% formalin solution was used for fixation. The determination was carried out as possible to the species, Harpacticoida was not identified (Opredelitel'..., 1995). Simultaneously, the water temperature was measured, and the water was sampled for analysis of water chemistry.

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**Table 1.** Physical and geographical parameters of the investigated reservoirs

Name	Coordinates	Height, m asl	Area, km <sup>2</sup>	Depths max, (av), m	T°C	TDS, g/l	pH
Eerbek	51.726897 94.317023	680	0.51	6 (4)	15-20	0.4*	8.01*
Turan	52.246635 93.908136	934	1.95	8 (5)	14-23	0.125*	7.22*

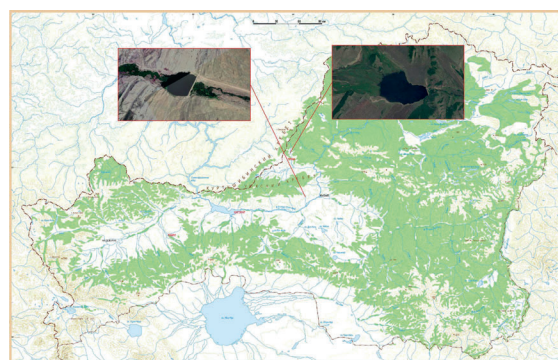
Note: \* TuvIENR SB RAS data

### 3. Results

The zooplankton from the two reservoirs contains 27 species from 20 genera, 10 families and 2 subfamilies as well as 7 orders of animals. Most taxa (88%) are crustaceans. Among them, the bulk of taxa belongs to cladocerans, 17 species (68% of the total number) and copepods, 5 species (20%); there are also 3 species of rotifers (12%). Families Chydoridae and Daphniidae reach the highest species diversity, eight species each (Table 2). Zoogeographically (according to Rivier et al., 2001), most taxa are cosmopolitan (47%); the share of palearctic ones is 38% and holarctic – 15%, i.e. fauna is represented by widespread species. In terms of biotopes, eurytopic forms (50%) as well as littoral (11%), phytophilic (19%), planktonic (8%), and benthic (4%) species represent the community.

**The Eerbek reservoir.** In the composition of the Eerbek reservoir, we have found 13 species, of which 9 are Cladocerans, 3 – Copepods and 1 – representative of Rotifers (Table 2). The density of zooplankton is unevenly distributed along the water area; the minimum values (7.2 thou specimens/m<sup>3</sup>) are in the upper section of the reservoir; in the middle section, the total number increases 8 times and biomass – 15.4 times; in the dam section, the number increases 10.3 times and the biomass – almost 19 times (Fig. 2). Throughout the water area of the reservoir, the species composition is conformed: *D. longispina*, *D. pulex*, *B. longirostris*, and *A. denticornis*. In the coastal zone, there are all species of aquatic vegetation from the general list, although in a single number.

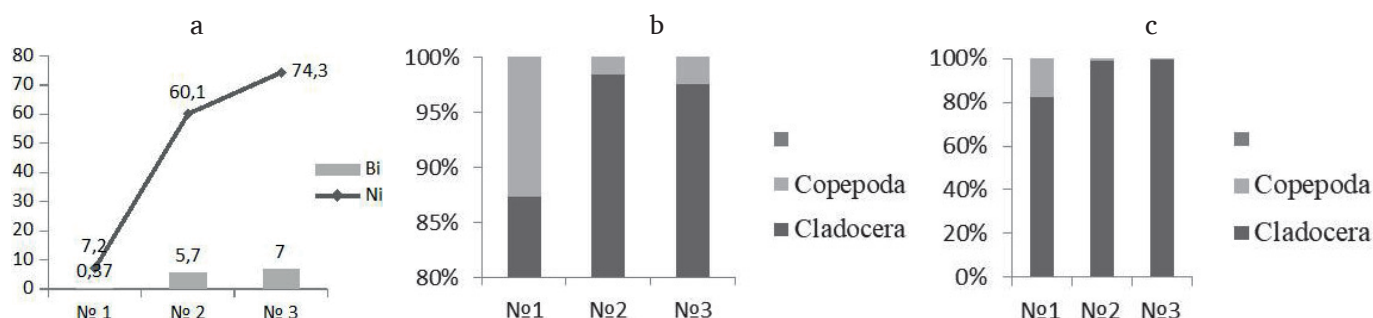
In the upper section, Cladocerans *D. longispina* (52%) and *B. longirostris* (31%), as well as Copepod *A. denticornis* (13%), compose the structure-forming core; in the middle and dam sections, *D. longispina* prevails (79-98%). Planktonic and eurytopic species are the



**Fig.1.** Schematic location map of the Eerbek (below) and Turan (above) reservoirs on the territory of the Tuva Republic

main in the number. The value of species diversity index in the upper section (0.94) decrease in the middle and dam sections (0.46 and 0.52), which is due to the dominance of the species *D. longispina*.

**Turan reservoir.** There are 16 species in the zooplankton composition, of which 11 are Cladocerans, 4 – Copepods and 3 – Rotifers (Table 2). The number of the species found in the upper section is 13, in the middle and dam sections – 14 and 8, respectively. Throughout the water area, the composition of the dominant organisms is the same, and it includes nauplii of Copepoda (27-48%), *C. pulchella* (20-59%), *H. mira* (10-16%), *B. longirostris* (6-7%), *M. viridis* (8-13%), *D. brachiurum* (5-6%), and *D. galeata* (6%), i.e. mainly eurytopic and littoral species. The number and biomass increase from the upper section towards the dam (Fig. 3). Low biomass indices against high abundance indices are due to prevailing nauplii of Copepoda (up to 59%) and “lightweight” ceriodaphnia and rotifers.



**Fig.2.** The number (N) (thou specimens/m<sup>3</sup>) and biomass (B) (g/m<sup>3</sup>) (a) as well as the share of taxonomic groups by the total number (b) and biomass (c) of zooplankters from the Eerbek reservoir. Sampling stations Nos. 1-3



Table 2. Taxonomic composition of zooplankton from the Eerbek and Turan reservoirs

Taxon	Zoogeography	Biotope	Eerbek	Turan
<b>Type Rotifera</b>				
<b>Class Archiorotatoria, Markevich, 1990</b>	-	-	+	+
<b>Order Bdelloida Hudson, 1884</b>				
<b>Class Eurotatoria Markevich, 1990</b>				
<b>Order Transversiramide Markevich, 1990</b>	-	-	+	-
<b>Family Brachionidae Ehrenberg, 1838</b>				
<i>Brachionus</i> sp.				
<i>Kerathella quadrata</i> (Müller, 1786)	C	Eut	+	-
<b>Family Mitiliniidae</b>	H	Ph	-	+
<i>Mitilina mucronata</i> (Müller, 1773)				
<b>Order Protoramida Markewich, 1990</b>				
<b>Family Hexarthridae Bartos, 1958</b>	C	L	-	+
<i>Hexarthra mira</i> (Hudson, 1871)				
<b>Order Saltiramida</b>				
<b>Family Asplanchniidae</b>	C	Eut	-	+
<i>Asplanchna priodonta</i> Gosse, 1850				
<b>Order Ctenopoda</b>				
<b>Family Sididae Baird, 1850</b>	P	Eut	-	+
<i>Diaphanosoma brachyurum</i> (Liévin, 1848)				
<b>Order Anomopoda Sars, 1865</b>				
<b>Family Bosminiidae Baird, 1845</b>	C	Eut	+	+
<i>Bosmina longirostris</i> (O.F. Müller, 1785)				
<b>Family Daphniidae Straus, 1820</b>				
<i>Daphnia galeata</i> Sars, 1864*	P	Pl	-	+
<i>D. longispina</i> (O.F. Müller, 1785)	P	Pl	+	-
<i>D. pulex</i> Leydig, 1860	H	Eut	+	
<i>Simocephalus vetulus</i> (O.F. Müller, 1776)	P	L, Ph	-	+
<i>Scapholeberis mucronata</i> (O.F. Müller, 1776)	P	Bt, Ph	-	+
<i>Ceriodaphnia dubia</i> Richard, 1894*	C	Pl, L	+	-
<i>C. pulchella</i> Sars, 1862	P	Eut	-	+
<i>C. quadrangula</i> (O.F. Müller, 1785)	P	Eut	-	+
<b>Family Chydoridae Dybowski et Grachowski, 1894</b>	C	L	-	+
<i>Grapholeberis testudinaria</i> (Fisher, 1851)				
<i>Coronatella rectangula</i> (Sars, 1862)	P	Eut	+	-
<i>Alona costata</i> Sars, 1862	C	L, Ph	-	+
<i>Alona quadrangularis</i> (Müller, 1785)	C	Ph, L	+	-
<i>Alona guttata</i> Sars, 1862	C	L	+	-
<i>Alona affinis</i> (Leydig, 1860)	C	Ph	+	-
<i>Chydorus sphaericus</i> (O.F. Müller, 1785)	C	Eut	+	+
<i>Pleuroxus truncatus</i> (O.F. Müller, 1785)	H	L, Ph	-	+
<b>Family Cyclopinae Burmeister, 1834</b>				
<i>Megacyclops viridis</i> (Jurine, 1820)	C	Eut	+	+
<i>Mesocyclops leuckarti</i> (Claus, 1857)	P	Eut	-	+
<i>Cyclops vicinus</i> Ulyanin, 1875	P	Eut	-	+
<i>Cyclops</i> sp.	-	-	+	-
<b>Class Maxillopoda Edwards, 1840</b>				
<b>Subclass Copepoda Edwards, 1840</b>				
<b>Order Cyclopoida Burmeister, 1834</b>	C	Eut	+	-
<b>Subfamily Eucyclopinae Kiefer, 1927</b>				
<i>Eucyclops serrulatus</i> (Fischer, 1851)				
<b>Order Calanoida Sars, 1903</b>				
<b>Family Diaptomidae Baird, 1850</b>	H	L	+	+
<i>Acanthodiaptomus denticornis</i> Wierzejski, 1887				
<i>Diaptomus</i> sp.	-	-	-	+
<b>Harpacrocoida gen. sp.</b>	-	-	+	+

Note: P – palearctic, H – holarctic, C – cosmopolitan (Opredelitel'..., 1995); Eut – eurytopic, Ph – phytophilic, L – littoral, Bt – benthic, Pl – planktonic (Rivier et al., 2001).

#### 4. Discussion

Discussing the reasons for the revealed differences, it is worth noting a high reproductive potential of the members of the genera *Bosmina*, *Ceriodaphnia* and *Daphnia*, which is almost four times higher than that of copepods (Popkov and Golubykh, 2005). Perhaps this is the reason for the dominance of the members of these genera. The Eerbek reservoir, where the coastal zone is the most warmed up (up to 23°C), having aquatic vegetation, shows the bulk of phytophilic species: *S. mucronata*, *P. trigonellus*, *A. costata*, *G. testudinaria*, and *P. truncatus*. Changes in the species diversity indices are as follows: in the dam section its minimum value (1.6) is accompanied by the dominance of *C. pulchella* (39%) and *D. brachiurum* (5%); in the upper and middle sections of the reservoir, the value is 2.24 and 1.89, respectively. The dominating core of each section included three-four species. In all sections, the share of the Copepoda nauplii is also significant.

An urgent issue is the quality of water in the reservoirs. Zooplankton contains 22 species that indicate the water saprobity. Among them, the quality indicators of 0 and 0-β are 77%. The values of the indicators in the Eerbek reservoir (1.7-1.98) correspond to moderately polluted waters. The water from the upper section of the Turan reservoir is characterized as pure (1.4); in the middle and dam sections – moderately polluted (1.59 and 1.51) (Makrushin, 1974; Sladeczek, 1983). Since reservoirs are located at a distance from settlements and do not experience anthropogenic impact, the natural processes, which occur during the flooding of the surrounding areas, influence water quality.

There are four common species in the two reservoirs: *B. longirostris*, *C. sphaericus*, *M. viridis*, and *A. denticornis*. The Sorensen-Chekanovsky similarity index is 0.27, i.e. species composition is very specific for each reservoir. It is largely determined by the plankton fauna from the upstream water bodies, and the mountain rivers Eerbek and Turan play a transit role. High current velocities (0.5-0.7 m/s) and straight channels do not allow the development of zooplanktonic species, which are typical of stagnant water bodies.

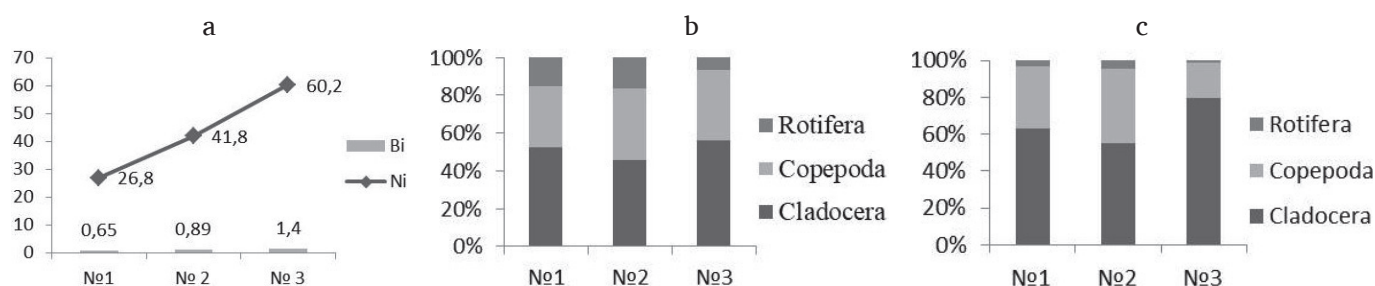
Among three types of zooplankton formation in reservoirs (lake, floodplain and river) (Luferova, 1964), the floodplain type is typical of the Eerbek and Turan reservoirs. In the upstream floodplain water bodies of the Eerbek River, we have found *A. denticornis*, *C.*

*sphaericus*, *A. affinis*, *C. rectangula*, *E. serrulatus*, *M. viridis*, *D. pulex*, and *D. longispina*. In the upstream channel of the Eerbek River, there are single specimens of *C. rectangula*, *C. Sphaericus* and *E. serrulatus*, the members of the orders Harpacticoida and Bdelloida. In the channel of the Turan River, we have found *S. vetulus*, *M. viridis*, *C. quadrangula*, *B. longirostris*, and *D. Longispina*, immature stages of Cyclopes. There is a similar composition of the plankton fauna in several upstream water bodies.

The processes that take place during the development and formation of biota in reservoirs are long-term and take years. There are three stages in the development of reservoirs: formation, depression and relative stabilization (Sharonov, 1966; Kudersky, 1992; Krylov, 2014). Biota of the investigated reservoirs is at the first stage, including a change in the composition and the quantitative development of limnophilic components as well as a change in the proportion of certain groups, but the seasonal drawdown interrupts this process. The 2017 study at the Eerbek reservoir was conducted after the water drawdown in autumn 2016. In fact, we observed the state of zooplankton in the first year after the regulation. In this case, an increased role of crustacean zooplankton is a natural phenomenon (Vorobyova et al., 1981; Dzyuban and Dzyuban, 1976). Based on the 2012 data, which were obtained in the second year of the reservoir existence (there was no drawdown in the preceding year), we revealed that against the mass development of cladocerans (up to 90%) and dominance of *B. longirostris*, *D. longispina* and *C. shaericus*, the share of copepods and rotifers, despite the small number, was 5% each (Kirova, 2014). At the time of our investigations, the Turan reservoir had no drawdown during two preceding years; therefore, in 2017, we observed the third year of its existence. We indicate that the different existence periods without drawdowns explain the superiority of the Turan reservoir over the Eerbek reservoir in the number of species and dominants as well as the development of rotifers and copepods.

#### 5. Conclusion

The duration of the reservoir existence influences the structure of the zooplankton community: regulation in the first year determines the development of the crustacean zooplankton with prevailing cladocerans



**Fig.3.** Number (N) (thou specimens/m³) and biomass (B) (g/m³) (a) as well as the share of taxonomic groups by the total number (b) and biomass (c) of zooplankters from the Turan reservoir. Sampling stations Nos. 1-3

and dominance of one species throughout the water area; over three years of the existence, the species diversity of plankton increases; the members of other groups, rotifers and copepods, develop. At the same time, the reservoir drawdown returns its community to the initial stage as in the first year of regulation.

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# Transformation of the chemical composition of waters from the Barguzin River in the Barguzin Bay (Lake Baikal)

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**ABSTRACT.** We have studied the changes in the chemical composition of the Barguzin River waters that inflow to Lake Baikal under the different water level. We have shown that river and lake waters that involved in the mixing differ in the ion composition and temperature. Despite this, the mixing in the Barguzin Bay under the influence of circulation currents and thermal barrier occurs in a comparatively narrow coastline, which is usually less than four kilometres. Mixed waters distribute north- and northwestward and reach the southern end of the Svyatoy Nos Peninsula. In summer, the distribution scale of river waters in the bay becomes greater but is mainly limited to the surface layer. In the central part of the bay, within one-two kilometres from the river estuary, a lens of lake waters can form. Not only the change in the chemical composition and temperature of the water but also its colour indicate the influx of these waters. The change in the concentrations of individual ions at a distance from the estuary of the Barguzin River occurs linearly, which indicates ordinary dynamic mixing of river and lake water masses.

**Keywords:** Barguzin Bay, chemical composition of waters, river runoff, thermal bar, dynamic mixing

## 1. Introduction

The Barguzin Bay is the largest on Lake Baikal. Its area is 725 km<sup>2</sup>, average depth is approximately 200 m, and the maximum depth reaches 1284 m. The Barguzin River (the third largest Baikal tributary), as well as several small watercourses, flow into the bay. The bay warms up well under the influence of the Barguzin River and owing to the extended coastal shallow water. The hydrochemical regime of the bay results from the mixing of river and lake waters and shows high variability in time and space. The active economic development of the Barguzin River basin between the 1950s and 1980s (logging, ploughing, increasing the area of an irrigated land, influx of drainage water enriched with various chemical components to the channel network, etc.) accompanied by a decrease in quality of river water and, consequently, an increase in the emissions of chemical components to the bay (Obozhin et al., 1984; Bogdanov, 1986; Drucker et al., 1997; Urbazaeva et al., 2016).

We aimed to study the transformation of the chemical composition of the Barguzin River water that inflows to Lake Baikal, seasonal and spatial dynamics of concentrations of major ions in the Barguzin Bay as well as their variability in long-term aspect.

## 2. Materials and methods

We analysed the results of hydrochemical investigations that were conducted in 2004, 2007, 2011, and 2016 at the estuary of the Barguzin River and in the water area of the Barguzin Bay. Sampling was carried out in different seasons, considering the shift of the main inflow of the Barguzin water along the constant northeast coast of the bay (Verbolov, 1996). Water was sampled from three transects: southern, central and northern (Fig. 1). From each transect, the samples were taken with a Niskin bathometer at four-eight stations from depths of 0, 5, 10, and 25 m as well as at the bottom. Temperature and electroconductivity were measured with an SBE 19 plus CTD-probe (Sea-Bird Electronics).

The cations were determined by atomic absorption and flame emission methods; anions – by HPLC (Baram et al., 1999; Guidelines..., 2009). The reliability of the obtained results was controlled by ion balance error and through comparison of the calculated and measured specific electroconductivity (Technical Documents ..., 2000).

The degree of transformation of river water masses into lake ones was estimated (Sinyukovich et al., 2008) through the share of lake water ( $K_{\text{lake}}$ ) at a certain

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site of the bay, depending on the measured concentration ( $C_{bay}$ ) of the indicator substance as well as its initial value in river ( $C_{river}$ ) and lake ( $C_{lake}$ ) water:

$$K_{lake} = (C_{river} - C_{bay}) / (C_{river} - C_{lake}) * 100 \%$$

The concentrations of major ions ( $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $Cl^-$ , and  $HCO_3^-$ ) and their total concentration ( $\Sigma i$ ) were used as indicators of lake and river waters.

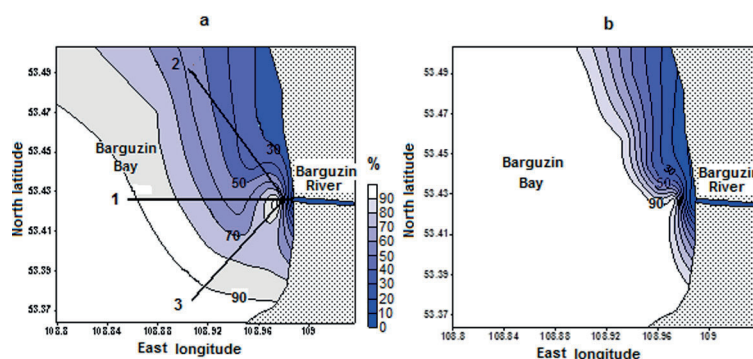
### 3. Results and discussion

Analysis of concentrations dynamics of components in the river runoff to the Barguzin Bay reveals their substantial spatial and vertical heterogeneity, which is due to a complex of hydrometeorological factors, in particular, the volume of the river runoff and the temperature of the mixed waters (Sorokovikova et al., 2010). A substantial variability throughout the year as well as in long-term aspect distinguishes the influence of each factor, which determines a complex nature in the formation of the mixing zone of river and lake waters and their transformation in the water area of the bay. The waters of the Barguzin River enter the bay in a single flow and, being carried away with a stream of the Baikal current, distribute along the northeast and north coasts of the bay, reaching Nizhneye Izgolovye Cape (Verbolov, 1996), and inflow to Lake Baikal (Ivanov, Sherstyankin, 2015).

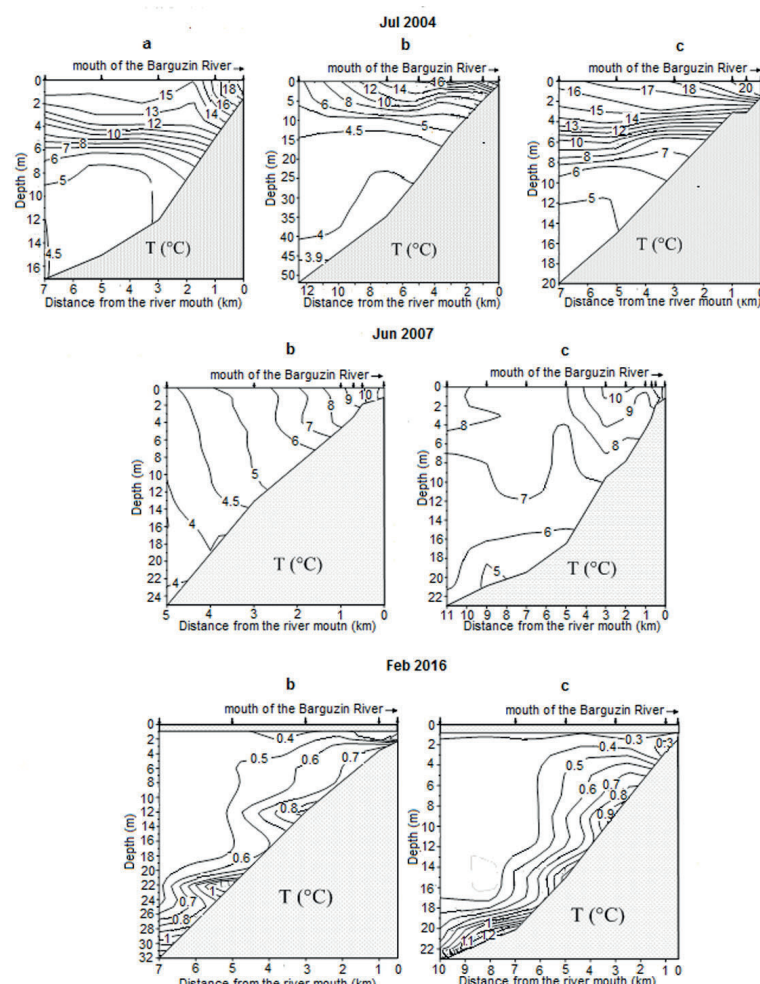
In the closed Barguzin Bay, the mixing of river and lake waters is much lower than at open near-delta sites, such as the Selenga shallow waters (Tomberg, 2008). There is also a lower influence of the wind mixing since 75 % are southeast- and eastward winds, which, in the absence of a thermal bar, can extend the mixing zone but do not detach it from the northeast coast of the bay.

Seasonal changes in water temperature and hydrophysical conditions also predetermine the distribution and transformation features of river waters in the water area of the bay (Fig. 1, Fig. 2).

In spring, after the river ice breakup, the temperature of river waters rapidly increases, and in mid-May and early June, it reaches 13-15 °C. At this time, the temperature in Baikal is approximately 3-5 °C. The different temperature of the Barguzin and Baikal waters leads to the formation on a thermal bar in the water area of the bay at a distance of one-three kilometres from the site of the river inflow (see Fig. 1b). The front of the thermal bar serves as a natural barrier that prevents a free entry of river waters to the lake, and they mainly distribute from the river estuary along the coast of the bay. Consequently, the chemical composition



**Fig.1.** Distribution of mixed (%) river and lake waters in the water area of the Barguzin Bay in July 2004 (a) and June 2007 (b). Straight lines (a) are transects: 1 – central, 2 – northern and 3 – southern



**Fig.2.** Water temperature distribution in the Barguzin Bay in different periods along the southern (a), central (b) and northern (c) transects

throughout the entire water column from the water edge to the thermal bar remains typical of the river waters, and beyond the thermal bar, it corresponds to the Baikal water.

Subsequently, when the water temperature in the bay rises higher than 4 °C, convection ceases, and a direct temperature stratification sets in with the maximum warm-up of the river and coastal waters of up to 18-20 °C, as it was on 1<sup>st</sup> July 2004 (Fig. 2). At the same time, the near-bottom temperature in the bay does not exceed 5.5 °C.

In summer, there is a seasonal increase in the Baikal water level, and a significant volume of lake water enters the Barguzin Bay, which additionally impedes the distribution of river water masses deep into the water area of the bay. In June-August, an increase in water level averages 0.5-0.7, which corresponds to the influx of the Baikal waters to the bay in the amount of up to 0.5 km<sup>3</sup>. Under these conditions, the warmer Barguzin waters distribute in the surface layer of 5-10 m (Fig. 1, Fig. 2). At a distance of 1.5-3 km, water masses actively transform, and at the station of 4 km from the estuary, the concentration of major ions is mainly close to the composition in waters of open Baikal. In summer, warm river waters can distribute in the water area of the bay for a considerable distance, but their share in the surface layer does not exceed 3-5% (Fig. 1).

Considering insignificant amount of the river waters influx in comparison with the total amount of water in the bay (approximately 150 km<sup>3</sup>), there may be a local influence of the Barguzin River on the chemical composition of water in the bay, i.e. limited mixing zone, which is confined to the northeastern coast of the bay.

As mentioned above, the features of the currents in the Barguzin Bay cause the transfer of the Barguzin River waters from the estuary mainly along the northeast and north coasts, explaining the heterogeneity in the distribution of mixed waters and differences in the chemical composition of water in the bay. Thus, along the central and southern transects, we recorded the total number of ions typical of the Baikal water at a closer distance from the river estuary than along the northern transect (Fig. 3). Moreover, along the central transect, in one-two kilometres from the river estuary, the influx and formation of a lens of lake waters can

influence the chemical composition of water (see Fig. 1a). Not only the change in the chemical composition but also water temperature (see Fig. 2) and the colour of water indicate this. Further deep into the lake, during all seasons, there is a gradual decrease in the concentration of the components that were brought by river waters (see Fig. 3).

There is a special situation in the mixing zone during floods when the river runoff forms mainly due to low-mineralized snow waters, and low-mineralized waters enter the bay. In 2007, along with the influx of river waters to the bay and their mixing with the Baikal waters, the concentration of most components in the salt composition and their total number increased (Fig. 4). Sulfates and chlorids, whose concentrations were higher in river water than in lake water, were the exception.

In winter, the main changes in the water mineralization were at a distance of 3 km, and deeper into the bay, they gradually faded. Other researchers also showed a similar distribution pattern of hydrochemical indicators in the bay in winter (Vorobyevskaya et al., 2016).

The obtained results have shown that despite the different hydrological conditions in the bay during our investigations, the nature of changes in the water composition in the estuarine area remains rather close. Indeed, thermal conditions in the bay significantly differed (2004: straight thermal stratification; 2007: thermal bar; 2016: inverse thermal stratification), and the river runoff was in different phases of water regime (2004: summer low water; 2007: flood; 2016: winter low water). All this was accompanied by significant differences in concentrations of major ions and their total number both in the river and the bay. Nevertheless, the maximum gradients of the total number of ions along the central and southern transects, regardless of the water-level conditions and temperature, were at a distance of up to one kilometre from the river estuary (Fig. 5). The gradient values and their vertical arrangement remained sufficiently similar.

Along the northern transect, the maximum changes in ion concentrations were also within the first kilometre from the estuary. However, in the surface layer, they were much lower than in the near-bottom area, and their significant values were at a

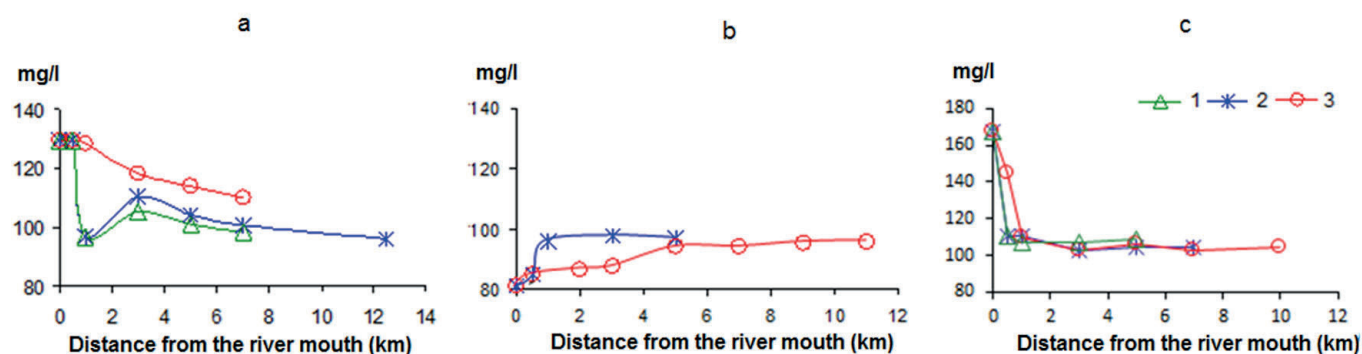


Fig.3. Distribution of the total number of ions in the surface water layer of the Barguzin Bay: a – July 2004; b – June 2007; c – March 2016. Transects: 1 – southern; 2 – central; 3 – northern



great distance, which indicates a lesser dilution of river waters and their more active distribution over the water area of the bay.

Analysis of the obtained results has shown that with the increased share of the Baikal water in samples from the estuarine area of the Barguzin Bay, the concentrations of some ions in the salt composition change linearly (Fig. 6). Linearity remains regardless of the greater or smaller concentration of the element in the water and its increased or decreased content in the mixing zone. This enables to conclude that during the mixing of river waters with lake waters, the change in the ion concentrations of the salt composition in the zone where river and lake waters interact results from ordinary dynamic mixing. This conservative behaviour is typical of both individual ions and their total number, and this does not change within the year.

Long-term investigations of the hydrochemical regime in the Barguzin Bay reveal the chemical composition features of its waters over the past 60 years. In 1950-60s, the chemical composition of water in the bay formed under the influence of natural factors, and the Baikal waters as well as those of the rivers that inflow to the bay, mainly the Barguzin River, determined seasonal and interannual changes in the concentrations of components (Votintsev, 1961). During the regulation of Baikal and rise of its water level, lake waters flowed to the bay, increasing the

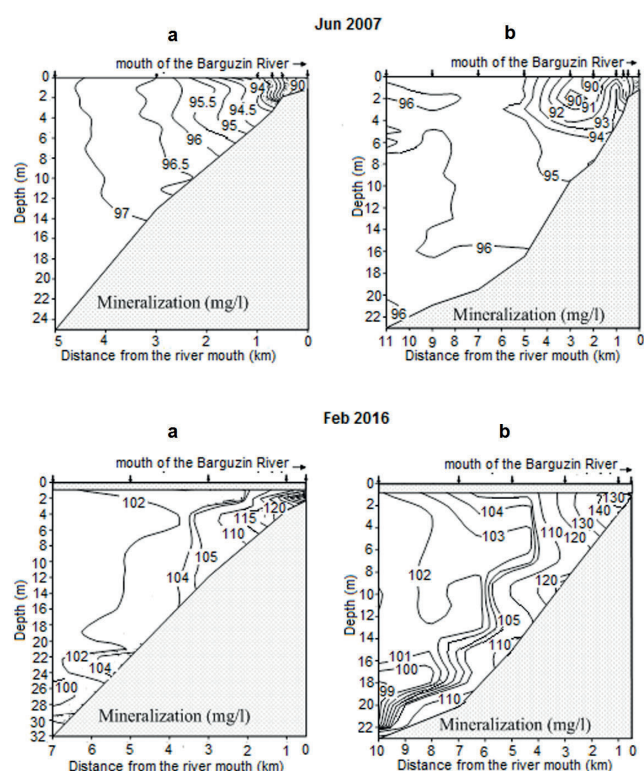


Fig.4. Change in the water mineralization in the Barguzine Bay in spring and winter along the central (a) and northern (b) transects

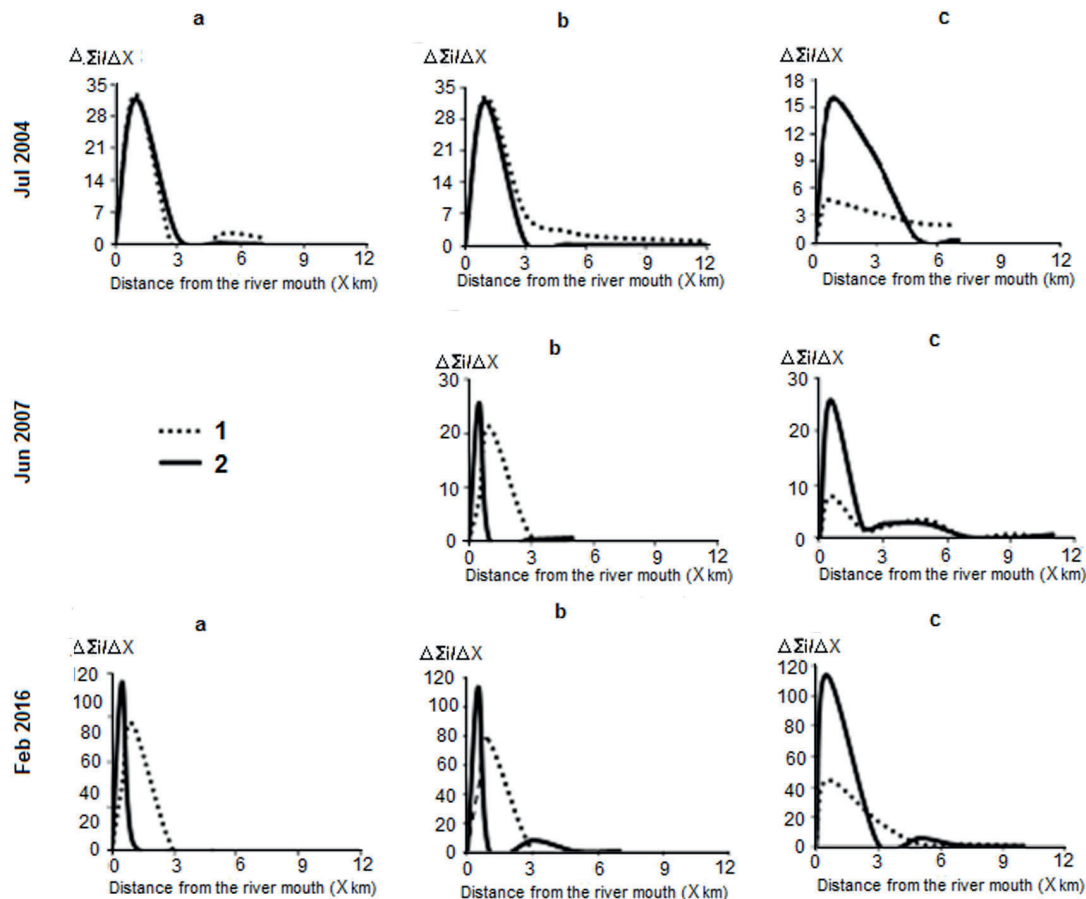


Fig.5. Horizontal gradients of the total number of ions in the salt composition ( $\Delta\Sigma_i$ ) of the surface layer (1) and near the bottom (2) along the three transects from the estuary of the Barguzin River. Transects: a – southern; b – central; c – northern

concentrations and the total number of ions (Table) there. At the same time, the water composition did not change and still corresponded to bicarbonate class and calcium group (Mescheryakova and Verbolova, 1977).

Subsequent investigations, which were conducted in 2000, indicated an increase in the concentration of major ions and their total number in the water of the bay compared to the 1970s (Table). This can be due to an increase in the flow of ions with the waters of the Barguzin River, resulting from the economic activity in its watershed and influx of sewage and drainage waters to the river channel and then the bay (Drucker et al., 1997). Furthermore, during the past two decades, there was a low water level in the Baikal basin, including the basin of the Barguzin River (Sutyryna, 2019), which could also contribute to the increase in the water mineralization in the bay.

Despite the change in absolute concentrations of ions, their relative concentration remains unchangeable, and the water in the bay still corresponds to bicarbonate class and calcium group.

#### 4. Conclusions

The conducted hydrophysical and hydrochemical investigations of the Barguzin Bay have shown that formation of the chemical composition and its waters, water-level conditions on the Barguzin River as well as water temperature differences determine seasonal changes in the concentration of major ions and their spatial distribution. Moreover, the system of currents in the bay predetermines the main transfer of the Barguzin River waters from the estuary along the northeast coast of the bay, which explains the heterogeneity in the distribution of the component concentrations of the ion composition in the water area of the bay. Along the central and southern transects, the concentrations of major ions and their total number, which are typical of the Baikal water, are recorded at a closer distance from the estuary than those along the northern transect. At the same time, the nature of changes in the chemical composition of water, which take place in the mixing zone of river and lake waters, is rather similar along all transects. The maximum gradients of the total number of ions are located at a distance of less than

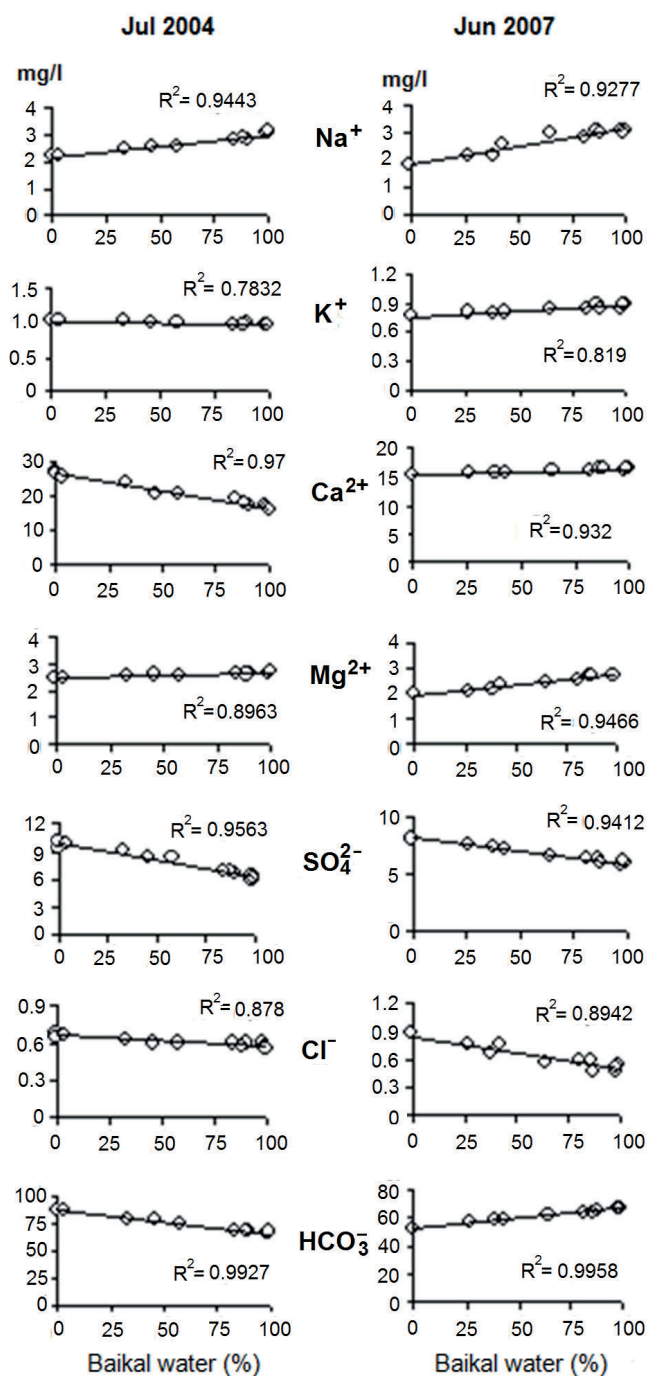


Fig.6. Change in the concentrations of major ions in the mixing zone "the Barguzin River – Lake Baikal"

Table. Concentrations of major ions at the central station of the Barguzin Bay in different periods, mg/l

Year/month	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	Cl <sup>-</sup>	Ca <sup>2+</sup>	Mg <sup>2+</sup>	ΣNa <sup>+</sup> + K <sup>+</sup>	Σi
1955*	66.8	5.3	0.56	17.1	3.1	3.4	96.4
1974**	56.7	5.5	0.17	15.5	3.0	3.4	87.9
2004/July	67.1	6.5	0.61	19.8	2.8	2.8+1.0	100.5
2007/June	66.4	6.5	0.8	16.3	2.8	3.1+0.8	96.7
2011/February	70.8	6.8	0.46	16.1	3.3	3.5+1.1	102.0
2016/March	71.4	6.8	0.51	17.4	3.4	3.8+1.1	104.4
2016/August	62.4	6.4	0.49	16.1	3.1	3.5+1.0	93.4

\*Votintsev, 1961; \*\* Mescheryakova and Verbolova, 1977

one kilometre from the river estuary.

In spring, the thermal bar influences the distribution of river waters in the bay. The front of the thermal bar serves as a natural barrier that prevents the free entry of the Barguzin waters into the lake. Consequently, the chemical composition throughout the water column from the water edge to the thermal bar corresponds to river waters, and beyond thermal bar – lake waters. In different phases of the water regime, when water mineralization in the river can be both higher and lower than in the bay, the change in the ion concentrations of the salt composition in the mixing zone results from ordinary dynamic mixing of river and lake waters.

In the long-term aspect, the chemical composition of the water from the Barguzin Bay remains stable, corresponding to bicarbonate class and calcium group. The increase in the Baikal water level led to an insignificant decrease in the concentrations of major ions under the influence of lake waters. However, there is currently an increase in the concentrations of major ions under the influence of the economic activity in the watershed of the Barguzin River and, probably, a decrease in the runoff of the Barguzin River in conditions of the continuous low-water level.

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# Influence of solar radiation on chlorophyll *a* concentration assessment using fluorescence measured by the submersible sensor in Lake Baikal

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**ABSTRACT.** Assessment of chlorophyll *a* concentration based on fluorescence intensity is actively used at present. In natural waters, profile fluorescence is measured using submersible sensors. These sensors are equipped with no special chamber for phytoplankton dark adaptation before measurement. Effect of irradiance in the upper layer leads to a decrease in chlorophyll *a* fluorescence due to closing some reaction centers of photosystem 2. The conducted research on Lake Baikal has revealed the relationship between the share of open reaction center in photosystem 2 and photosynthetically available radiation in the lake. The relationship between these parameters was described by an exponential function with a high determination coefficient ( $r^2=0.97$ ). Based on the obtained relationship, an algorithm was developed to compensate for the decrease in chlorophyll *a* fluorescence intensity due to the light influence *in situ*. The algorithm enables to retrieve the “real” fluorescence profile, which is necessary for the correct retrieval of the vertical distribution of the chlorophyll *a* content.

**Keywords:** chlorophyll *a*, fluorescence, submersible sensor, photochemical and non-photochemical quenching, open and closed reaction centers

## 1. Introduction

Content of chlorophyll *a* ( $C_a$ ), which is the main photosynthetically active pigment, is widely used as water trophic status and productivity indicator. At present, values of the chlorophyll *a* fluorescence measured *in situ* by submersible sensors are used for the analysis of temporal and spatial  $C_a$  variability as well as for validation of remote sensing data ( $C_a$ ) (Odermatt et al., 2012; Xing et al., 2012; Wojtasiewicz et al., 2018).

*In situ* fluorescence intensity ( $F$ ) depends on a number of variables: the photosynthetically available radiation (PAR,  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ); the  $C_a$  values (in  $\text{mg}/\text{m}^3$ ) and phytoplankton functional characteristics, in particular, the chlorophyll *a* specific light absorption coefficient of phytoplankton ( $a_{ph}^*(\lambda)$   $\text{m}^2/\text{mg}$ ), the quantum yield of fluorescence ( $\phi_F$ , mol emitted quantum (mol absorbed quantum)<sup>-1</sup>) and fluorescence intracellular reabsorption factor ( $Q_a^*$ , dimensionless) (Babin, 2008).

Submersible fluorescence sensors that measure *in situ* the chlorophyll *a* fluorescence intensity ( $F_{CTD}$ ) are not equipped with a special chamber for adapting phytoplankton to the dark (so-called “dark chamber”).

Due to this technical peculiarity, the sensors can measure the fluorescence of phytoplankton adapted to the environmental conditions, in particular, light intensity. In this case, some of the reaction centers (RC) of photosystem 2 are in an inactive state. These inactive RC are closed for acceptance of the electron, pathing the electron transport chain (Govindjee et al., 1990). It results in decreased  $F$  values (Pogosyan and Matorin, 2005) due to the effect of light only but not  $C_a$  (Falkowski and Raven, 2007).

Correct assessment of chlorophyll *a* concentration via fluorescence requires additional processing of the fluorescence signal to compensate the decreasing effect of PAR on the fluorescence intensity, which is especially obvious in the upper part of the euphotic layer, i.e. in the upper mixed layer (UML).

Quasi-synchronous *in situ* measurements of temperature, fluorescence and PAR profiles as well as pulse amplitude modulation (PAM) fluorescence parameters were carried out during the scientific cruise on Lake Baikal in September 2019. The obtained results represent the required scientific basis, allowing an attempt for a correction of the PAR influence on the fluorescence intensity measured by the submersible sensor.

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Therefore the aim of this research is to investigate in situ the effect of PAR on the fluorescence intensity and PAM fluorescence parameters; to develop a general algorithm for restoring the fluorescence affected by PAR and test the algorithm for Lake Baikal.

## 2. Methods

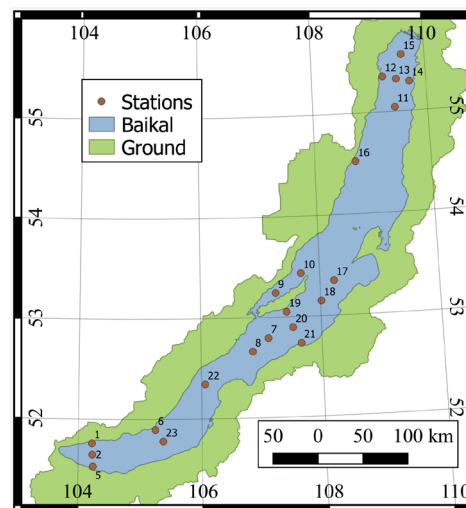
The research was carried out in different areas of Lake Baikal (Fig. 1) during the scientific cruise onboard the RV “Titov” on September 3-11, 2019. The measurements were fulfilled at 21 stations during daylight time (from 7:00 AM to 7:00 PM).

The vertical profiles of temperature, salinity, density, fluorescence (chlorophyll *a* concentration), and photosynthetically available radiation (PAR) were measured by a JFE Rinko AAQ-177 water quality probe (Japan) (Table 1).

The measured parameters (downcast data) were displayed in real time on the screen of a laptop.

The submersible F sensor provided the fluorescence measurements of the sample (phytoplankton) adapted to the environment, i.e. the light intensity at the sampling depth (*z*) - PAR(*z*).

For the laboratory measurements, water samples were collected from different depths within the UML using Niskin bottles. PAM fluorescence parameters were measured with laboratory fluorometer “Smart”, which was developed in Moscow State University, Biophysical Department (Konyukhov et al., 2017). The fluorescence intensity due to colored dissolved organic matter ( $F_{CDOM}$ ) was used as a background fluorescence, which was subtracted from each sample measurement (Moiseeva et al., 2018). For measurement of  $F_{CDOM}$ , the sample was filtered through a membrane filter (Sartorius), which was prerinsed with 50 ml of deionized water. Before measurements, the samples were adapted to the dark for 15-30 minutes (Gaevsky and Morgun, 1993). The laboratory fluorometer “Smart” provided the measurements of maximum ( $F_m$ ) and minimum ( $F_0$ ) fluorescence intensity of the sample: the *F* measured at 0  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$  (dark measurement) corresponds to the parameter  $F_0$ , when all RC are open; the *F* measured at saturating light flash –  $F_m$ , when all RC are closed (Schreiber et al., 1994; Matorin et al., 2012). Using laboratory fluorometer, we measured the dependence of the fluorescence parameters ( $F_0$ ,  $F_t$ ,  $F_m$



**Fig.1.** Map of the stations (●) that were investigated during the scientific cruise onboard the RV “Titov” on Lake Baikal on September 3-11, 2019

and  $F'_m$ ) on the light intensity, varying from 0 to 1000  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$  (90 s light adaptation to each light intensity before measurements). The *F* value measured at light intensity PAR(*z*) (the sampling depth) was denoted as  $F_t$  (steady-state fluorescence). The difference between the maximum *F* value measured after continuous illumination ( $F'_m$ ) and  $F_t$  is proportional to the number of open RC (Schreiber et al., 1994; Matorin et al., 2012). The relative amount of open RC in phytoplankton that exists at a depth –*z* with radiance – PAR(*z*) can be assessed based on parameters  $F_0$ ,  $F_t$ ,  $F_m$  and  $F'_m$  according to (Falkowski and Kiefer, 1985):

$$d_{open} = \frac{F'_m - F_t}{F_m - F_0} \quad (1)$$

## 3. Results and discussion

Due to different cloudiness and different daytime of sampling, the solar radiance incidence on the lake surface varied from ~200 to 1950  $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$  (Table 2). The UML depth changed from 3 m to 19 m between almost all stations, except for three stations with more shallow UML (< 3 m) and one station with deepest UML (21m) (Table 2).

**Table 1.** Characteristics of the JFE Rinko AAQ-177 water quality probe (Japan) and sensors equipped

Measured parameter	Measurement range	Resolution	Accuracy	Response time
Depth	0 - 100 m	0.002 m	± 0.3% of full scale	0.2 s
Water temperature	-3 - 45 °C	0.001 °C	± 0.01 °C (0 - 35 °C)	0.2 s
Fluorometer	0 to 400 ppb (Uranin reference)	0.01 ppb	± 1% of full scale	0.2 s
Photosynthetically available radiation in water	0 – 5000 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$	0.1 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$	± 4%	0.2 s

For the UML, we have revealed a relationship between the  $d_{open}$  and the intensity  $PAR_z$  (Fig. 2) and described it by the exponential function:

$$d_{open} = A \cdot e^{-0.0025 \times PAR}, n = 42, r^2 = 0.97 \quad (2)$$

where the coefficient  $A = 1$  since all RC are open ( $d_{open} = 1$ ) in the dark ( $PAR = 0$ ).

The fraction of closed RC, which do not contribute to the fluorescence intensity recorded by the CTD probe, can be calculated using equation 6:

$$d_{closed} = 1 - d_{open} \quad (3)$$

Consequently, the  $F$  value of closed RC (potential fluorescence,  $F_{closed}$ ), which is not detected by a submersible sensor (without a dark chamber), can be calculated as follows:

$$F_{closed}(z) = F_{CTD}(z) \times d_{closed} \quad (4)$$

To compensate for the decreasing effect of  $PAR$  and restore the fluorescence profile, it is necessary to take into account the value of  $F_{closed}(z)$ :

$$F_{real} = F_{CTD} + F_{closed}, \quad (5)$$

where  $F_{real}$  is the fluorescence intensity provided that all RC are in the open state.

Based on equations 4 and 5, we get equation 6:

$$F_{real}(z) = F_{CTD}(z) + (F_{CTD}(z) \times (1 - e^{-0.0025 \times PAR_z})) \quad (6)$$

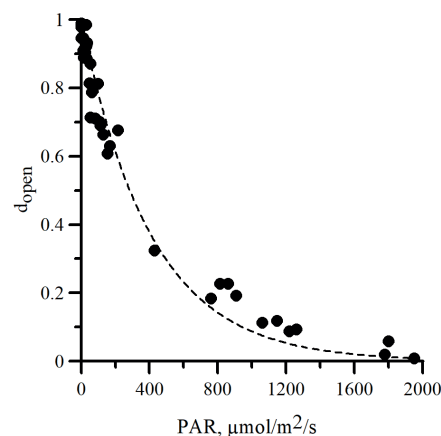
which is transformed into equation 7:

$$F_{real}(z) = F_{CTD}(z) \times (2 - e^{-0.0025 \times PAR_z}) \quad (7)$$

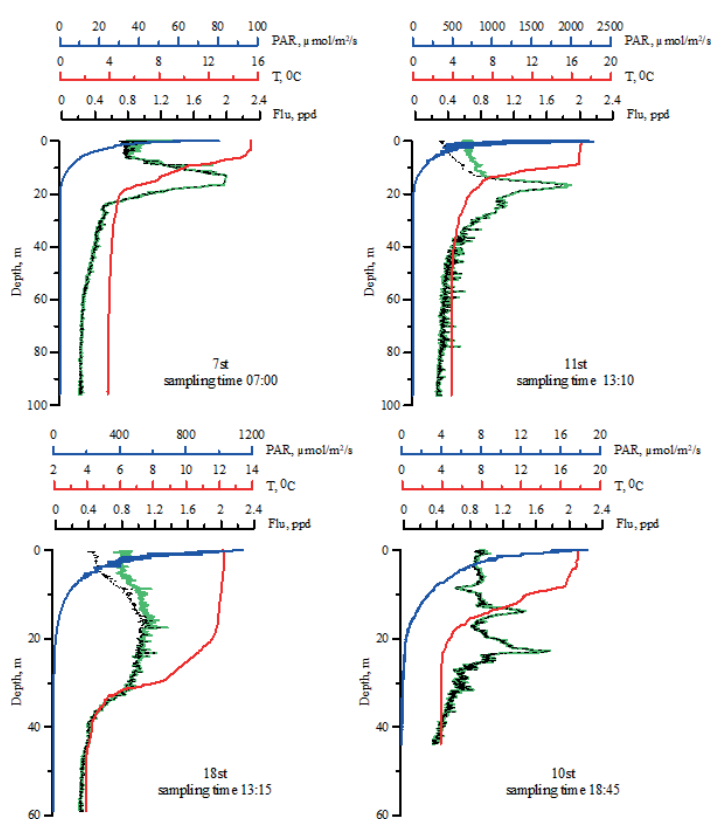
The fluorescence profiles were restored at all stations based on the obtained relationship (equation 7). Figure 3 shows the restored  $F$  profiles, which were measured in different day-time. We have revealed that  $F_{real}$  exceeds  $F_{CTD}$  within the UML at all stations. The relative differences between  $F_{real}$  and  $F_{CTD}$  ( $\Delta F$ ) reflect a decrease in chlorophyll  $a$  fluorescence intensity in the upper layer due to light effect. We have correlated the  $\Delta F$  values with the  $PAR_0$  (Table 2).

Early in the morning, when  $PAR_0$  was  $11 \mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ , there was almost no effect of light on  $F$ . At noon, under a cloudless sky,  $PAR_0$  reached  $1950 \mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ . In this case, the  $F$  values in the surface layer decreased  $\sim 2$  times (Table 2).

Correct assessment of  $C_a$  based on the fluorescence measured by the submersible sensor requires the compensation of the  $PAR$  effects of on the chlorophyll  $a$  fluorescence. This problem remains relevant to date (Barbier et al., 2019). To solve this problem, it was proposed to use chlorophyll  $a$  fluorescence profiles measured at night only when there is no  $PAR$  effect (Wojtasiewicz et al., 2018). However, this approach



**Fig.2.** Dependence of the fraction open reaction centers ( $d_{open}$ ) on light intensity ( $PAR$ ) in the UML layer of Lake Baikal on September 3-11, 2019



**Fig.3.** Vertical profiles: photosynthetically available radiation ( $PAR$ , blue line), temperature ( $T$ , red line), fluorescence intensities ( $F$ ) measured by the submersible sensor (black line) and  $F$ , which was reconstructed, taking into account the light intensity (green line) in Lake Baikal on September 3-11, 2019

significantly reduces the data set for analyzing the spatial and temporal variability of  $C_a$  and limits the use of this data (nightly) for validation of satellite data (daily). In this study, the observed two-fold decrease in  $F$  under the influence of solar insolation evokes one doubt about the validation of satellite data, according to BioArgo floats, without this correction of the light effect on fluorescence (Kubryakov et al., 2017).



**Table 2.** The effect of the developed algorithm for compensation of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence intensity (*F*) decreased under the surface photosynthetically available radiation ( $PAR_0$ ): increased *F* in the surface layer ( $\Delta F = (F_{\text{real}} - F_{\text{CTD}})/F_{\text{CTD}}$ ) and averaged within the upper mixed layer (UML) ( $\Delta F_{\text{UML}}$ ) at the stations on Lake Baikal in September 2019.

Station no.	date	sampling time	UML, m	$PAR_0$ , $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$	$\Delta F = (F_{\text{real}} - F_{\text{CTD}})/F_{\text{CTD}}$ , %	$\Delta F_{\text{UML}}$ , %
1	03.09.2019	16:45	-	1260	72	-
2	04.09.2019	07:05	3	30	7	5
5	04.09.2019	10:35	5	810	83	74
6	04.09.2019	18:35	-	110	18	-
7	05.09.2019	07:00	3	80	14	12
8	05.09.2019	09:35	5	910	75	69
9	05.09.2019	15:30	-	1780	82	-
10	05.09.2019	18:45	4	20	4	3
11	06.09.2019	13:10	8	1800	96	78
12	06.09.2019	16:10	4	1060	65	61
13	06.09.2019	17:40	4	170	23	17
14	07.09.2019	08:05	19	760	69	20
15	07.09.2019	13:35	8	170	30	19
16	08.09.2019	15:40	6	860	72	56
17	09.09.2019	11:05	6	430	55	49
18	09.09.2019	13:15	18	1150	87	33
19	09.09.2019	16:15	10	1220	87	44
20	09.09.2019	18:10	2	60	10	9
21	10.09.2019	07:00	28	110	15	3
22	11.09.2019	07:00	12	10	2	1
23	11.09.2019	12:10	16	1950	74	45

## Conclusions

In this study, we have developed an algorithm that compensates a decrease in fluorescence intensity due to the light influence in situ. The algorithm enables to retrieve the “real” fluorescence profile, which is required for the correct retrieval of the vertical distribution of the chlorophyll *a* content as the main photosynthetically active pigment. The upper layer of water, being most illuminated, makes the main contribution to the primary productivity of the water column. Consequently, the correction of the  $C_a$  estimation affects the accuracy of the primary productivity assessment.

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