



# Effects of cyanobacterial accumulation and decomposition on the microenvironment in water and sediment

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## Abstract

**Purpose** Cyanobacterial blooms pose a serious threat to aquatic environmental health and have emerged as a primary issue in the recovery of eutrophic lakes. In order to comprehensively establish the effects of cyanobacterial blooms on nutrients in the aquatic environment, nutrient migration and transformation were studied in freshwater and sediments during cyanobacterial bloom decomposition.

**Materials and methods** Cyanobacteria and sediments were collected from Zhushan Bay, in Taihu Lake, and the process of cyanobacterial decomposition was simulated in the laboratory. The focus of this research was to assess the effects of cyanobacterial decomposition on physicochemical parameters and nutrient concentrations in water, the vertical distribution of nutrients in sediments. We also determined the moisture content ( $\Delta C_w$ ) and organic matter content ( $\Delta OM$ ) in surface sediments. Correlations were assessed between cyanobacterial decomposition and nutrient concentrations in water, with  $\Delta C_w$  and  $\Delta OM$  in surface sediments simultaneously analyzed.

**Results and discussion** In the water column, electric conductivity (Ec) was found to significantly increase, while dissolved oxygen (DO) and oxidation reduction potential (ORP) rapidly reduced. In addition, pH initially decreased and then increased, while ultraviolet light ( $UV_{254}$ ) exhibited an opposite trend, which was related to the release and degradation of organic matter during the decomposition of cyanobacteria. Other nutrient concentrations were found to increase gradually with time, with the exception of nitrate nitrogen ( $NO_3^-N$ ), indicating that nutrients undergo temporal transitions between forms during cyanobacterial decomposition. Cyanobacterial decomposition causes  $\Delta OM$  and  $\Delta C_w$  to increase in surface sediment layers, affecting the vertical distribution of nutrient species in the sediment. The water-sediment interface nutrient flux intensity was ranked in the order total nitrogen (TN) > ammonia nitrogen ( $NH_4^+N$ ) >  $NO_3^-N$  > total phosphorus (TP), which was related to the settlement of cyanobacterial debris during cyanobacterial decomposition. Good binomial relationships ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) were found between cyanobacterial density and nutrient concentrations in the waterbody, as well as between cyanobacterial density and  $\Delta OM$  or  $\Delta C_w$  in the surface sediment.

**Conclusions** Cyanobacterial decomposition affected various water quality parameters, leading to nutrient migration and transformation in the water-sediment interface, providing nutrients to drive cyanobacterial bloom development.

**Keywords** Cyanobacterial bloom · Decomposition · Nutrients · Migration · Transformation

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## 1 Introduction

Aquatic eutrophication results in the formation of harmful algal blooms (HABs), which pose a serious threat to water ecosystems, drinking water supplies, and human health worldwide (Ding et al. 2016; Han et al. 2018). In particular, cyanobacterial decomposition results in black-odorous waterbodies, deteriorating ecosystems, and serious damage to the health of lake ecosystems and water resources (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2009). The accumulation of cyanobacteria in water bodies can cause damage to aquatic

ecosystems, due to the release of cyanobacterial toxins, nutrients, and debris during lysis, which accumulates on the surface of sediments. This sedimentation process changes the nutritional status of sediments, causing surface sediments to act as both a nutrients source and sink (Papadimitriou et al. 2018). This in turn can lead to prolonged eutrophication (Bjerring et al. 2013) and the continued occurrence of cyanobacterial blooms (Yang et al. 2017). For example, it has been reported that total phosphorus (TP) released from sediments in Lake Dianchi (the largest lake in Southwestern China) could maintain the current TP water levels for 63 years (Hu et al. 2007). The accumulation of cyanobacteria and release of nutrients such as phosphorus and nitrogen has become a major cause of water quality deterioration (House and Denison 2002).

Many previous studies have shown that in many shallow lake environments, even if exogenous nutrient salts are controlled, cyanobacterial blooms continue to develop (Sahlsten and Sörensson 1989; Graham et al. 2010; Su et al. 2017). In some waters, the accumulation of cyanobacteria can reach several centimeters or even tens of centimeters (Qinglong et al. 2008). The decomposition of cyanobacteria consumes a large amount of dissolved oxygen in the water. In addition, a large amount of soluble nutrients are released into the water during decomposition, such as nitrogen and phosphorus, thereby changing the normal nutrient cycling patterns and increasing the nutrient load in the water (Beverdorf et al. 2017; Yan et al. 2017). Chen et al. (2018a, b, c) showed that the dissolved phosphorus released by cyanobacteria can account for 53% of the total phosphorus content of waterbodies. Furthermore, the decomposition rate of cyanobacterial debris was faster ( $0.072\sim 0.271\text{ day}^{-1}$ ), which leads to the rapid release of nutrients (Chen et al. 2018a, b, c). The process of nutrient release during cyanobacterial decomposition was affected by the degree of cyanobacteria aggregation, and the concentration of released nutrients increased with higher cyanobacterial bloom densities (Bianchi 2000; Ding et al. 2018). Paytan et al. (2016) showed that the accumulation and decomposition of cyanobacterial led to the release of nutrients from sediment interstitial water, which aggravated the nutrient loading in overlying water and supported the recurrence of cyanobacterial blooms. Kim and Kim (2013) found that the decomposition of cyanobacterial led to a rapid increase in nutrient concentrations in the water. Moreover, nutrient release was positively correlated with cyanobacterial concentrations (Nikolai and Dzialowski 2014).

Lake Taihu is the third largest freshwater lake in China, located in the Southeastern region of the Yangtze River Delta in the Chinese coastal plain, with an area of  $2338\text{ km}^2$ , a catchment area of  $36,500\text{ km}^2$ , and a volume of 4.4 billion  $\text{m}^3$  (Qin et al. 2010). The annual input to Lake Taihu is about  $57 \times 10^8\text{ m}^3$ , with a water retention time of approximately 284 days (Duan et al. 2012). Lake Taihu exhibits two ecologically distinct regions, with the Northwestern region

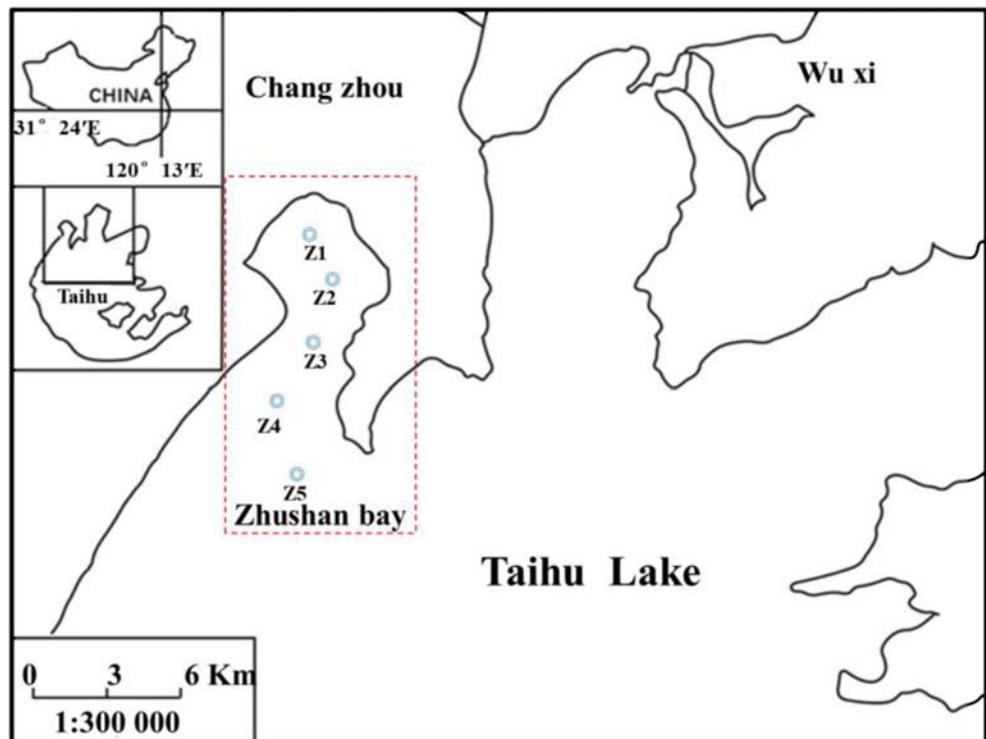
characterized by high water turbidity and frequent cyanobacteria bloom occurrence between late spring and early fall (Ye et al. 2010; Xu et al. 2013). In contrast, the eastern region of the lake is characterized by clear water with numerous surface and submersed macrophytes (Chen et al. 2018a, b, c). The locations and movements of blooms in Lake Taihu are highly dependent on wind direction and circulation, making it difficult to understand the process of nutrient release by field observations alone. Therefore, to fully understand the impact of cyanobacterial accumulation and decomposition on the nutrient profile of the aquatic environment, an experimental approach was taken to determine the potential influence of blooms on sediment nutrient release. Cyanobacterial and surface sediment layer samples were collected from Zhushan Bay in Lake Taihu during a cyanobacterial bloom event. Nutrient migration and transformation were assessed in water and sediments during decomposition of the cyanobacterial bloom. The primary objective of this study was to understand the potential influence of cyanobacterial bloom degradation on nutrient release from cyanobacteria across the whole lake environment. The changes in physical and chemical parameters were recorded in the waterbody during the experimental period, to help establish the influence of cyanobacterial bloom decomposition on sediment nutrient release. The results of this study further our understanding of the migration and transformation of nutrients during cyanobacterial accumulation and decomposition.

## 2 Materials and methods

### 2.1 Material preparation

The cyanobacteria and sediment samples assessed in this study were collected from Zhushan Bay, a typical cyanobacteria-dominated region located in the northwest of Lake Taihu (Fig. 1). Samples of cyanobacteria were collected using a phytoplankton capture network (PTN-S400, aperture 0.035 mm, Beijing Pu Lite Instrument Co., Ltd.), then rinsed three times with deionized water using a sieve to collect cyanobacteria ( $-100\text{ mesh}\sim +200\text{ mesh}$ ) in lab. Cyanobacteria were counted using a microscope (XSP-6C Shanghai Precision Instrument Co., Ltd.), with the cyanobacterial density altered to  $5.0 \times 10^{18}\text{ cells L}^{-1}$  and then transferred to a 2000-mL capacity glass beaker. Cyanobacterial samples were then subjected to ultrasound (20 min,  $25\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , 2000 Hz) using an ultrasonicator (KQ-1000DE, Shanghai Precision Instrument Co., Ltd.). Finally, samples were sealed and frozen for use after being subjected to three consecutive freeze ( $-20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) and thaw cycles, to ensure cyanobacterial cell lysis.

Fig. 1 Sampling site locations



Sediment samples were collected from the upper 15 cm of sediments using a sediment core sampler (Perrson MY-052, Mingyu Technology). Samples were returned to the laboratory and homogenized, dried in a freeze dryer (FD-1A-50, Beijing Bo Yikang Experimental Instrument Co., Ltd.), then ground and filtered through a 100-mesh sieve to remove benthic organism and large particulate matter, before being homogenized again, dried, and sealed for future use.

## 2.2 Experimental design

The experimental design comprised four parts (Table 1, Fig. 2). Each group was prepared in triplicate, and sealed with six layers of sterilized gauze in a plexiglass container (20-cm length  $\times$  20-cm width  $\times$  35-cm height), which was encased fully with opaque foil paper, then placed in a digital display light illumination incubator (MGC-400H Shanghai Yiheng Scientific Instrument Co., Ltd.). The experiment included assessment of the following: (1) physicochemical indicators and nutrient changes in water, including dissolved oxygen (DO), pH, electric conductivity (Ec), oxidation reduction potential (ORP), ultraviolet light (UV<sub>254</sub>), total nitrogen (TN), nitrate nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N), ammonia nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N), TP, and soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP). (2)  $\Delta C_w$  and  $\Delta OM$  in the surface sediment. (3) The effects of cyanobacterial decomposition on the vertical distribution of nutrients in the sediment, including TN, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, TP, NaOH-P (Fe/AleP, P bound to Al, Fe and Mn oxides and hydroxides), BD-P (redox phosphorus), and HCl-P (CaeP, P associated

with apatite). (4) The influence of cyanobacterial decomposition in N and P deposition, as well as the water-sediment flux.

## 2.3 Analytical methods

### 2.3.1 Analysis of water samples

Dissolved oxygen, pH, Ec, and ORP were measured using a multi-parameter water quality instrument (YSI6600, YSI (China) Limited); ultraviolet light (UV<sub>254</sub>) was determined using a UV spectrophotometer (UV-5200, Shanghai Yuan Analysis Instrument Co., Ltd.); TN was determined via the alkaline potassium persulfate digestion method, followed by UV spectrophotometric analysis for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N detection using the cadmium reduction method, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N detection using Nessler's reagent photometry, TP detection by ammonium molybdate reagent photometry, and SRP detection using the molybdenum blue method after filtering through a 0.45- $\mu$ m membrane (Shanghai Xingya Purifying Materials Factory, Q/IEE-1997) (Li et al. 2015; Cao et al. 2016)

The nutrients' release rate ( $v$ ) calculation formula for cyanobacterial decomposition is presented in Eq. (1):

$$v = \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta T} \quad (1)$$

where  $\Delta C$  (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) represents the difference in nutrient concentrations in water over a certain time interval; and  $\Delta T$  (h) represents the time interval.

**Table 1** The information of experimental design

Experiment	Group	Algae concentrations (cells/L)	Amount (algae-water mL or sediment cm <sup>3</sup> )	Processing	Time (day)	Indexes	Fig.	Notes
Physicochemical parameters and nutrients change experiments in water	W <sub>1</sub> -W <sub>5</sub>	1.0 × 10 <sup>6</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>8</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>10</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>12</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>15</sup>	Plexiglass container Algae-water, 4000	Digital display light illumination incubator (35 °C 3000 lx)	0, 1, 5, 7, 9, 12, 15, 20, 25, 30	DO, pH, Ec, ORP, UV <sub>254</sub> , TN, NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N, NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N, TP, SRP	Fig. 2a	
	WS <sub>0</sub> -WS <sub>5</sub>	0, 1.0 × 10 <sup>6</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>8</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>10</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>12</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>15</sup>	Plexiglass container Algae-water, 4000 Sediment, 4000		0, 1, 5, 9, 20, 30	C <sub>w</sub> and OM	Figure 2B	▲
Investigation in the effects of cyanobacteria decomposition on the vertical distribution of nutrients in sediment	HS <sub>0</sub> -HS <sub>3</sub>	0, 1.0 × 10 <sup>8</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>12</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>15</sup>	Plexiglass container Algae-water, 4000 Sediment, 8000		0, 5, 10, 20, 30	TN, NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N, NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N, TP, NaOH-P, HCl-P, BD-P, NH <sub>4</sub> Cl-P	Fig. 2c	●
	T <sub>0</sub> -T <sub>3</sub>	0, 1.0 × 10 <sup>8</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>12</sup> , 1.0 × 10 <sup>15</sup>	Plexiglass container Algae-water, 4000 Sediment, 4000		0, 5, 10, 20, 30	TN, NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> -N, NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> -N, TP, SRP	Fig. 2d	★

▲ Based on the 0-day background value, the initial OM content was 1.56% ± 0.21%, and the average moisture content of the surface layer was 86.77% ± 5.32%, collected 0–5 cm deep to measured  
 ● The initial background value were as follows (mg/g): TN (5.69), NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N (1.06), NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N (3.28), TP (0.65), NaOH-P (0.36), HCl-P (0.12), BD-P (0.05), NH<sub>4</sub>Cl-P (0.03)  
 ★ Supernatant was taken as the pore water after placing 10 mL of surface sediment (0–5 cm) into a test tube and centrifuging at 5000 rpm for 10 min

### 2.3.2 Analysis of sediment samples

An aliquot of fresh sediment material was transferred to a Petri dish and weighed, then placed in an oven at 110 °C for 12 h (HB841-0, Suzhou Hao Bei Energy Saving Oven Factory). Next, the dried samples were weighed on an aseptic console after 1 h allowing the moisture content of surface sediments to be calculated according to Eq. (2) (Zhang et al. 2017). Briefly, 2 g of dried sediment was placed in a crucible, sealed and heated in a muffle furnace (FD-40, Shanghai Hegong Scientific Instrument Co., Ltd.) at 550 °C for 2 h. Loss on ignition (LOI) was used to reflect the organic content of the sediment material (Murphy et al. 2010; Tisdall and Oades 2010).

$$C_w = \frac{W_0 - W_{110}}{W_0} \times 100\% \tag{2}$$

$$OM (LOI) = \frac{W_{110} - W_{550}}{W_{105}} \times 100\% \tag{3}$$

where C<sub>w</sub> represents the moisture content of sediments; W<sub>0</sub> is the weight of the fresh sediment sample material; W<sub>110</sub> is the weight of the sediment sample material after drying at 110 °C; and W<sub>550</sub> is the weight of the sediment after heating to 550 °C.

Sediment samples were pretreated by freeze-drying for 24 h, ground and then passing through a 100-mesh sieve, before being treated according to the standard measurements and testing (SMT) method (Ruban et al. 2001) and the alkaline extraction method (Brodrick et al. 1987).

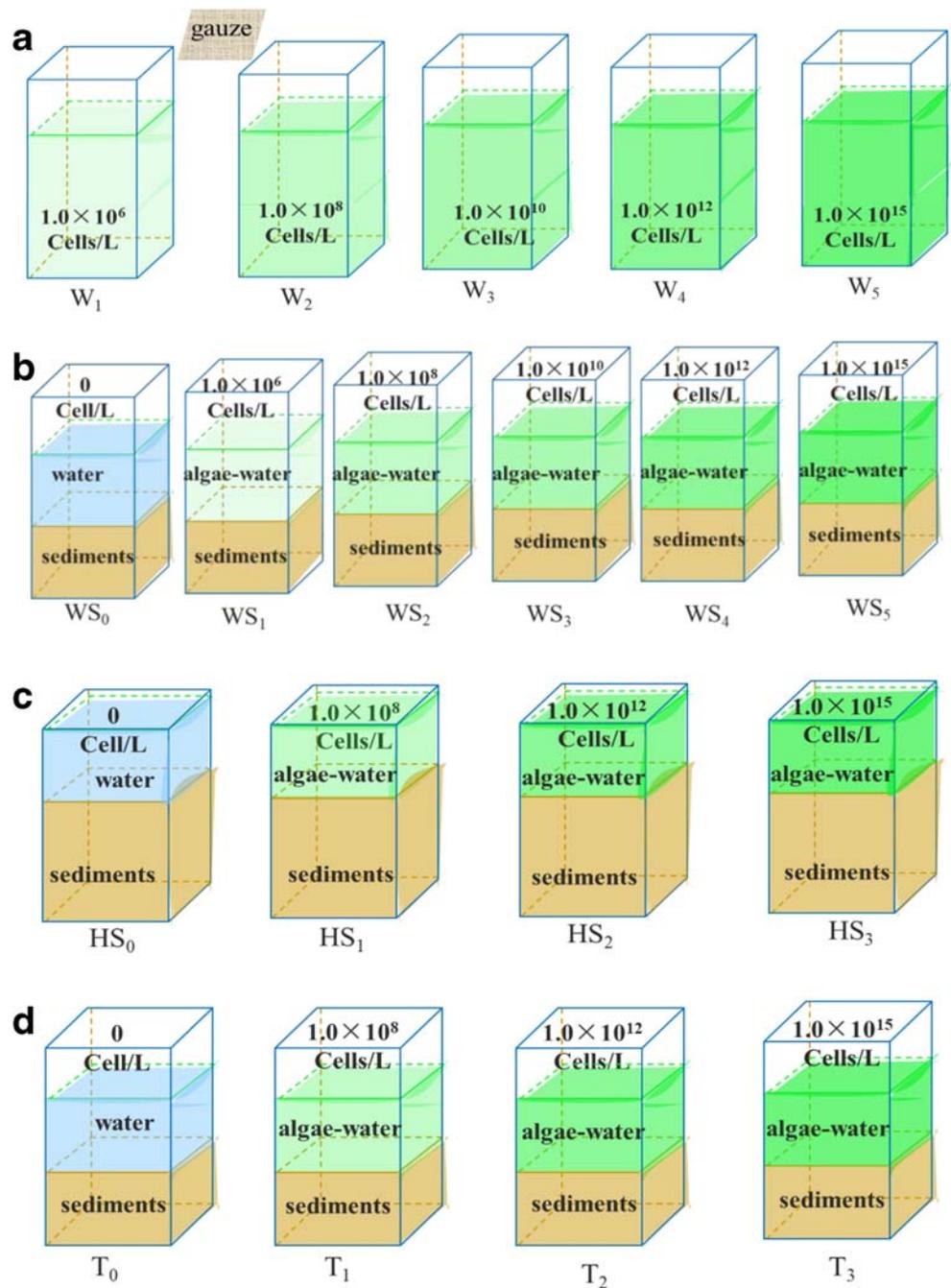
### 2.3.3 Analysis of cyanobacterial samples

The cyanobacterial density was determined microscopically (XSP-6C Shanghai Precision Instrument Co., Ltd.) and the corresponding dry weight was established. The sample densities (d.w.) applied for experiments were 1.0 × 10<sup>6</sup> cells L<sup>-1</sup> (25.3 ± 5.32 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), 1.0 × 10<sup>8</sup> cells L<sup>-1</sup> (112.5 ± 11.25 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), 1.0 × 10<sup>10</sup> cells L<sup>-1</sup> (226.7 ± 9.91 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), 1.0 × 10<sup>12</sup> cells L<sup>-1</sup> (825.5 ± 23.96 mg L<sup>-1</sup>), and 1.0 × 10<sup>15</sup> cells L<sup>-1</sup> (2068.2 ± 35.77 mg L<sup>-1</sup>).

### 2.3.4 Relationship between cyanobacterial density, nutrient concentrations in water, sediment organic matter, and moisture content

The relationship between dry weight of the cyanobacterial pulp and the maximum nutrient content of each experimental group (W<sub>1</sub>-W<sub>5</sub>), the maximum increase in organic matter (ΔOM<sub>max*i*</sub>), and the increase in moisture content (ΔC<sub>w, max*i*</sub>) from WS<sub>1</sub> to WS<sub>5</sub> were determined according to Eq. (4) and Eq. (5):

Fig. 2 a–d Schematic diagram of experimental design



$$\Delta OM_{max_i} = OM_{max_i} - OM_{WS_0} \quad (4)$$

where  $OM_{max_i}$  is the maximum amount of organic matter in the experimental group ( $i$ ) and  $OM_{WS_0}$  is the average amount of organic matter in the control group.

$$\Delta C_{W_{max_i}} = C_{W_{max_i}} - C_{W_{WS_0}} \quad (5)$$

where  $C_{W_{max_i}}$  is the maximum moisture content value in the experimental group ( $i$ ), and  $C_{W_{WS_0}}$  is the average moisture content value in the control group.

### 2.3.5 Analysis of water-sediment nutrient flux

The nutrients' concentration gradient method was used to determine the deposition and release of nutrients during cyanobacterial decomposition (Herrera-Silveira et al. 2002) as described in Eq. (6):

$$F = f_d + f_a + f_s \quad (6)$$

where  $F$  is the net flux at the water-sediment interface;  $f_d$  is the molecular diffusion flux due to differences in nutrients'

concentration at the interface;  $f_a$  is the amount of advection of pore water in sediments, and  $f_s$  is the diffusion flux produced by solid particle deposition.

$f_a + f_s$  is negligible relative to the molecular diffusion flux and, therefore, Eq. (6) can be simplified to Eq. (7):

$$F \approx f_d \quad (7)$$

where  $f_d$  was calculated by Fick's first law (Lavery et al. 2010; Zastepa et al. 2017), as defined by Eq. (8):

$$f_d = \Phi \times D_s \times \frac{\delta_c}{\delta_x} \quad (8)$$

where  $f_d$  is the nutrient diffusion flux at the sediment-water interface ( $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ );  $\Phi$  is the average porosity of the upper surface of the sediment (1–5 cm) (reported for Lake Taihu as 0.60) (Bai and Zhou 2012; Cheng et al. 2015);  $D_s$  is the diffusion coefficient for the sediment block and  $D_0$  is the diffusion coefficient for the ideal solution ( $\Phi < 0.7$ ,  $D_s = \Phi D_0$ ;  $\Phi \geq 0.7$ ,  $D_s = 2\Phi D_0$ ) (Ram et al. 2009). For  $P$  and  $N$ ,  $D_0$  were applied as  $19.8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  and  $7.34 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ , respectively (Forster et al. 1999; Grasso et al. 2011);  $\frac{\delta_c}{\delta_x}$  represents the difference between the nutrient concentrations in the pore water and overlying water (with  $\frac{\delta_c}{\delta_x} < 0$  and  $f_d < 0$  indicating sediment deposition; otherwise, sediment release is indicated) (Iversen and Bo 1993; Wieland et al. 2003).

## 2.4 Data handling and statistical analysis

Data are expressed as the mean value  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Analysis for significance was conducted using SPSS software (SPSS 22.0, USA), with  $p < 0.05$  considered to be significant. Equation fitting was performed using Origin (Origin 8.6, USA, OriginLa) and R (R3.5.2, The University of Auckland, Ross Ihaka and Robert Gentleman) software.

## 3 Results and discussion

### 3.1 Physicochemical indices and change in nutrient concentrations in water

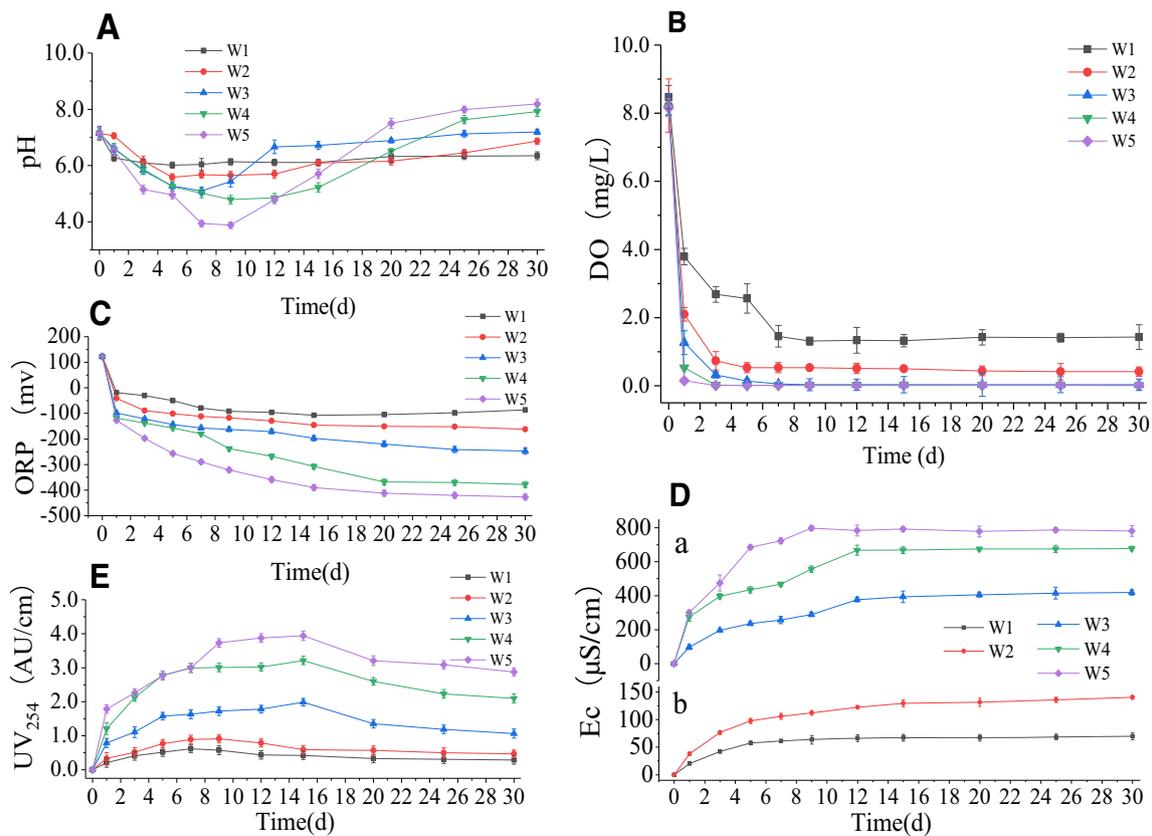
#### 3.1.1 Trends in pH, DO, Ec, ORP, and UV<sub>254</sub> in water

Generally, pH initially decreased from 0 to 10 days and then increased from 10 to 30 days (Fig. 3a), although significant differences were visible between experimental groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). The decrease in pH occurred due to algal cell decomposition and the release of large amounts of  $\text{CO}_2$  and organic acids into water (Maagd et al. 1999). Group  $W_5$  showed the greatest change, with a pH of only 3.88 on day 9. However, as organic matter is consumed by

microorganisms, the pH value of water gradually increased, eventually becoming alkaline (Chen et al. 2018a, b, c). This is shown by the results of the present study, where pH gradually increased until reaching 8.26 ( $W_5$ ) at the end of the experimental period. DO is an important indicator of water quality (Kaiho 1994; Atkinson et al. 2007) and in experimental groups, the DO concentration generally decreased rapidly (Fig. 3b). The reduction in DO occurs as degradation of organic matter consumes DO in water (Shi et al. 2017), while cyanobacterial debris forms a membrane on the water surface, hindering the dissolution of oxygen from the air (Trimmer et al. 2003). After 24 h, with the exception of group  $W_1$ , the DO concentration was less than  $2.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in all experimental groups, with  $W_5$  containing only  $0.15 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  DO, while  $W_1$  was significantly different to the other four groups ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Oxidation reduction potential reflects the macroscopic oxidation reduction properties exhibited cumulatively by all substances present in the system and is used to characterize the relative strength of the oxidative or reductive properties of the medium (Masscheleyn et al. 1990). As shown in Fig. 3c, during cyanobacterial decomposition, the ORP value decreased significantly within 24 h and the water status changed from an oxidized to a reduced state. In the  $W_1$  group, ORP showed significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) among all experimental groups. At the end of the experimental period, ORP in groups  $W_1$ – $W_5$  were  $-86.11 \text{ mv}$ ,  $-161.88 \text{ mv}$ ,  $-247.38 \text{ mv}$ ,  $-378.22 \text{ mv}$ , and  $-427.03 \text{ mv}$ , respectively, which is in accordance with the findings of previous studies (Xie et al. 2004; Wu et al. 2017). Ec increased in all experimental groups and tended to become stable after 12 days, with group  $W_5$  reaching a maximum of  $792.5 \mu\text{s cm}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3d). The Ec was significantly different across all experimental groups ( $p < 0.05$ ). The increase in Ec indicates that the decomposition of cyanobacteria leads to a larger concentration of total dissolved solids (TDS,  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) and, therefore, enhances conductivity (Chuai et al. 2011; Mukherjee et al. 2014).

The UV<sub>254</sub> is commonly used as a comprehensive indicator for determining the level of integrated organic matter contamination in water bodies, as most organic matter in water exhibits absorption peaks at 254 nm (Russo et al. 2018). For example, the UV<sub>254</sub> is well correlated with various water quality indicators, such as COD. Some previous studies have used SUVA<sub>254</sub> to determine the organic matter content or humus level of organic matter, indicating the ratio of the absorption coefficient at 254 nm to the DOC concentration of water (Russo et al. 2018; Ye et al. 2018). Larger SUVA<sub>254</sub> values indicate a greater molecular weight, humification level, and aromaticity of organic matter in water (Yang et al. 2014). As shown in Fig. 3e, in all experimental groups, the UV<sub>254</sub> tended to decrease after an initial increase, indicating that organic matter gradually increased during cyanobacterial decomposition and that



**Fig. 3** a–e pH, DO, Eh, Ec, and UV<sub>254</sub> change in water during cyanobacteria decomposition

macromolecular organic matter was decomposed into small molecular organic matter after 15 days.

### 3.1.2 Trends in TN, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, TP, and SRP concentrations in water

During the initial experimental period, cyanobacteria began to decay and release nutrients, causing the TN concentration to increase (Fig. 4a). However, due to species differences in cyanobacterial density, varying trends in N-form were observed. The TN concentration in the W<sub>1</sub> and W<sub>3</sub> groups reached a maximum of 6.99 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and 67.88 mg L<sup>-1</sup> at 9 days, respectively. On day 12, the highest concentrations in groups W<sub>2</sub> and W<sub>4</sub> were 20.22 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and 122.79 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, while W<sub>5</sub> reached a maximum of 232.55 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on day 15. The increase in TN in groups W<sub>1</sub>–W<sub>5</sub> were 0.78 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, 7.55 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, 1.69 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, 10.79 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, and 15.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. In the subsequent decomposition process, microorganisms and the anaerobic environment caused N species in the water to gradually be converted to stable NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, which resulted in a gradual increase in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N during the initial stages of the experimental process (Fig. 4b). The water also initially contained a high DO content (Li et al. 2015; Cao et al. 2016; Dai et al. 2018). Granules and

macromolecular organic nitrogen from decomposed cyanobacteria were initially oxidized to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N (Cao et al. 2016; Dai et al. 2018) and as oxygen was consumed, part of the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N was converted to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N (Li et al. 2015). Therefore, the initial increase in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N was then followed by a decrease (Fig. 4c). After day 15, N in each form decreased to different degrees. Denitrification was enhanced in the anaerobic reductive environment, with N released into the atmosphere in the form of N<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub>O (Kuanyi et al. 2010), which is one of the main pathways causing an overall decrease in N content.

The TP concentrations in the water of each experimental group gradually increased (Fig. 4d). The highest concentrations in groups W<sub>1</sub>–W<sub>5</sub> were 0.67 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on day 9, 1.21 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on day 20, 2.21 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on day 35, 5.18 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on day 15, and 7.63 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on day 12. The increase in TP in groups W<sub>1</sub>–W<sub>5</sub> was 0.074 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, 0.061 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, 0.073 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, 0.345 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, and 0.636 mg L<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The SRP increased with degradation time (Fig. 4e), with the proportion of SRP in TP increasing gradually throughout the experimental period. In the early stages of degradation, high concentrations of dissolved organic phosphorus were present in the water, with organic phosphorus

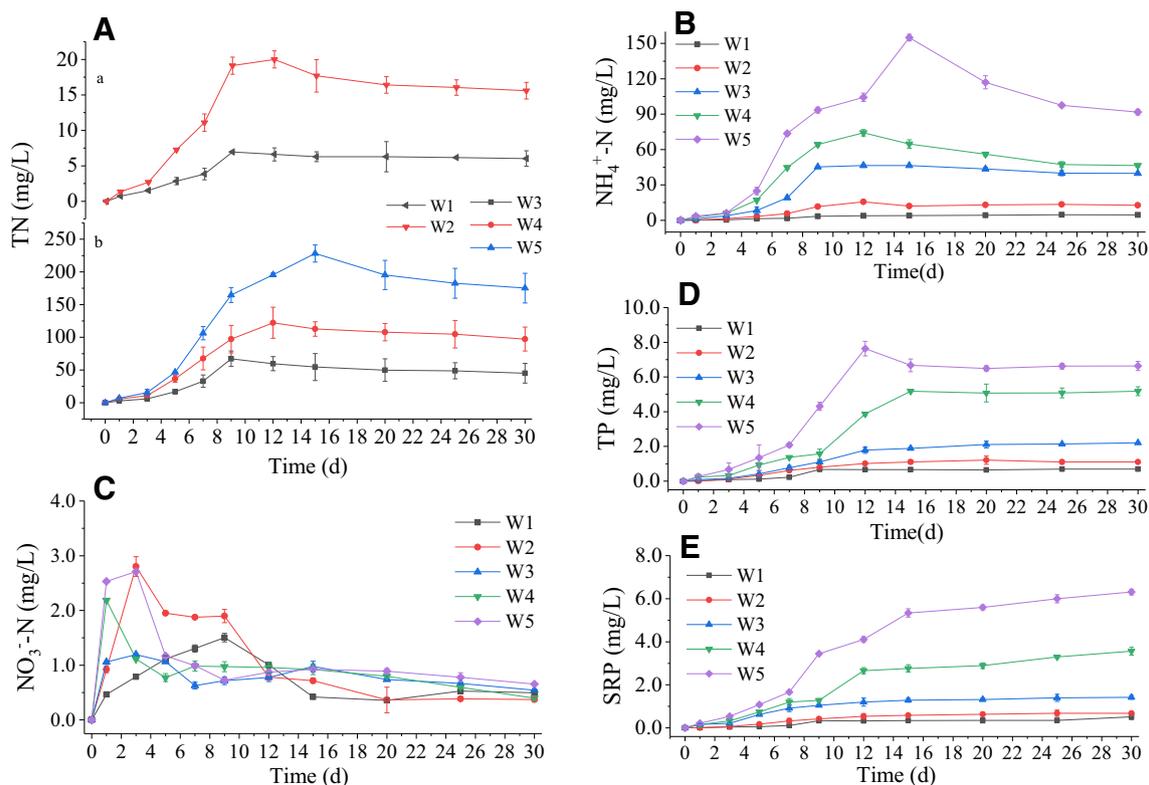


Fig. 4 a–e Changes in water TN,  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$ , TP, and SRP during cyanobacteria decomposition

mineralized into inorganic phosphorus by microorganisms (Yu et al. 2018), therefore increasing the SRP content. At the end of the experimental period, the relative proportions of SRP in TP in groups  $W_1$ – $W_5$  were 49.33%, 52.56%, 67.34%, 68.77%, and 81.12%, respectively. These results show that nutrients undergo transitions between various forms during cyanobacterial decomposition.

### 3.2 Variations in $\Delta\text{OM}$ and $\Delta\text{C}_w$ in the surface sediment layer

The OM is an active substance in surface sediments that can be adsorbed, distributed, and complexed with other pollutants such as heavy metals and organic matter. The content and distribution of OM can be used to evaluate organic nutrients levels in surface sediments (Akagi and Zsolnay 2008; McCabe and Arnold 2017; Haas et al. 2018). The degradation of organic matter in surface sediments consumes a large amount of DO, forming an anaerobic environment. Simultaneously, research has shown that high levels of nutrient release increase the risk of deterioration of water quality (Keil et al. 1994; Fujii et al. 2018). The OM content of the surface sediment layer of each experimental group increased in the

pre-cyanobacterial decomposition period (Fig. 5a), which was significantly different from that of  $WS_0$  ( $p < 0.05$ ). The peak OM contents in experimental groups  $W_1$ – $W_5$  were 2.09% on day 9, 3.70% on day 9, 5.16% on day 5, 7.57% on day 5, and 9.21% on day 5, respectively.

As shown in Fig. 5 a, during the first 9 days of the experimental period, the OM concentrations in the surface sediment increased in accordance with both time and cyanobacterial concentration. This pattern is likely to have occurred because most cyanobacteria existed in colonies when they were added to the experimental environment. During the decomposition process, the colloidal coating surrounding cyanobacterial groups was degraded, allowing colonies to be broken up and resulting in decreased buoyancy and an increase in sedimentation. Moreover, the sedimentation velocity of cyanobacterial debris was greater than the degradation rate, with cyanobacterial particles found on the surface of the sediment during the experimental period, which is an important factor leading to the rapid increase in organic matter content in the surface sediment. In addition, studies have shown that cyanobacterial accumulation accelerates the sedimentation of suspended solids in water, thereby accelerating the increase in organic matter

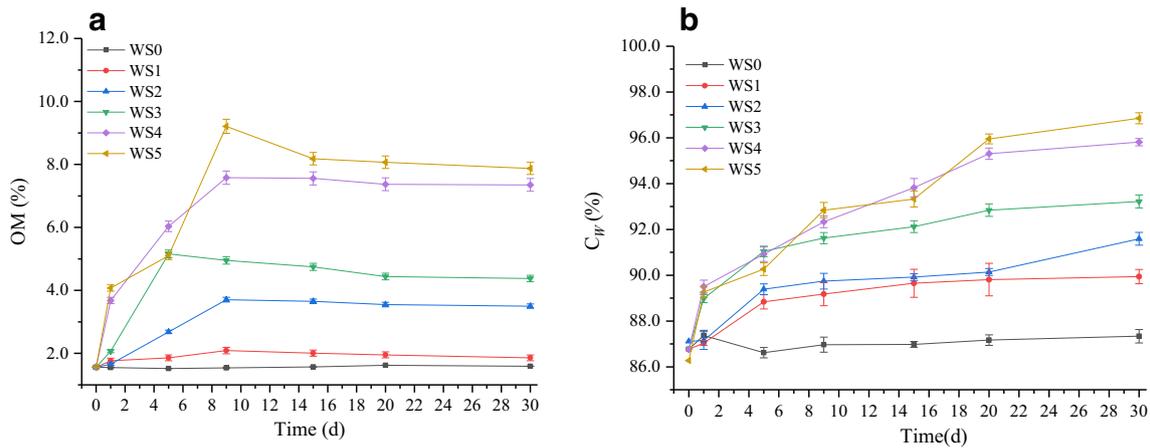


Fig. 5 a, b Change in OM and  $C_w$  in surface sediment during cyanobacteria decomposition

content in surface sediments (Queiroz et al. 2007; Henderson et al. 2008; Wert and Rosarioortiz 2013). Moreover, organic microbial residues in the water and microbial products such as intermediate decomposition products and metabolites may also cause an increase in OM (Cory and Kling 2018).

The sediment moisture content reflects the porosity of the sediment and is inversely proportional to sediment particle size, which affects the resuspension of sediments (Aigars 2001). The sediment resuspension process is an important way for nutrients and OM in sediments to be exchanged and redistributed between sediments and overlying water (Seelen et al. 2018). Therefore, surface sediment layer moisture content is an important parameter for assessing water-sediment nutrient exchange (Matisoff et al. 2017). The effects of cyanobacterial decomposition on the moisture content of surface sediments are shown in Fig. 5 b. Overall, cyanobacterial decomposition led to an increase in sediment surface layer moisture levels, reaching 89.94%, 91.59%, 93.22%, 95.81%, and 96.85% in groups  $W_1$ – $W_5$ , respectively, compared to 87.33% in  $W_0$  (control group). Significant differences were observed between the experimental groups and the control group in all cases ( $p < 0.05$ ).

As shown in Fig. 5 a and b, during the first 9 days of the experimental period, the accumulation of large OM promoted an increase in moisture content in the surface sediment layer, further accelerating the sedimentation of suspended solids and resulting in increased moisture content in the surface sediment layer. Moreover, the deposited cyanobacterial debris provides a good breeding environment for microorganisms (Henderson et al. 2008), increasing the microbial content of sediments (Queiroz et al. 2007). Microbial accumulation affects the porosity of the surface sediment layer (Wert and Rosarioortiz 2013) and therefore

changes the surface sediment layer moisture content. Moreover, during large-scale cyanobacterial reproduction, aggregation, and decomposition, the interaction between cyanobacteria and microbes in the sediment would contribute to the formation of gas products (e.g.,  $CH_4$ ,  $H_2S$  and  $CO_2$ ...), causing bubbles to appear on the surface of the sediment, further changing the sediment moisture levels (Lei et al. 2014; Sörensson Shiraishi et al. 2017).

### 3.3 Relationship between cyanobacterial accumulation and nutrient content in water and between $\Delta OM_{max_i}$ and $\Delta C_w_{max_i}$ in surface sediments

The relationship between the maximum release of nutrients in water (TN,  $NH_4^+-N$ ,  $NO_3^--N$ , TP, SRP) and cyanobacterial density is shown in Fig. 6 a–e, with data fitting performed using Eqs. (9)–(13) as follows:

$$Y_{TN(mg/L)} = 9.56922 + 0.16984 \times X - 3.1185E-5 \times X^2 \quad (R^2 = 0.98196) \quad (9)$$

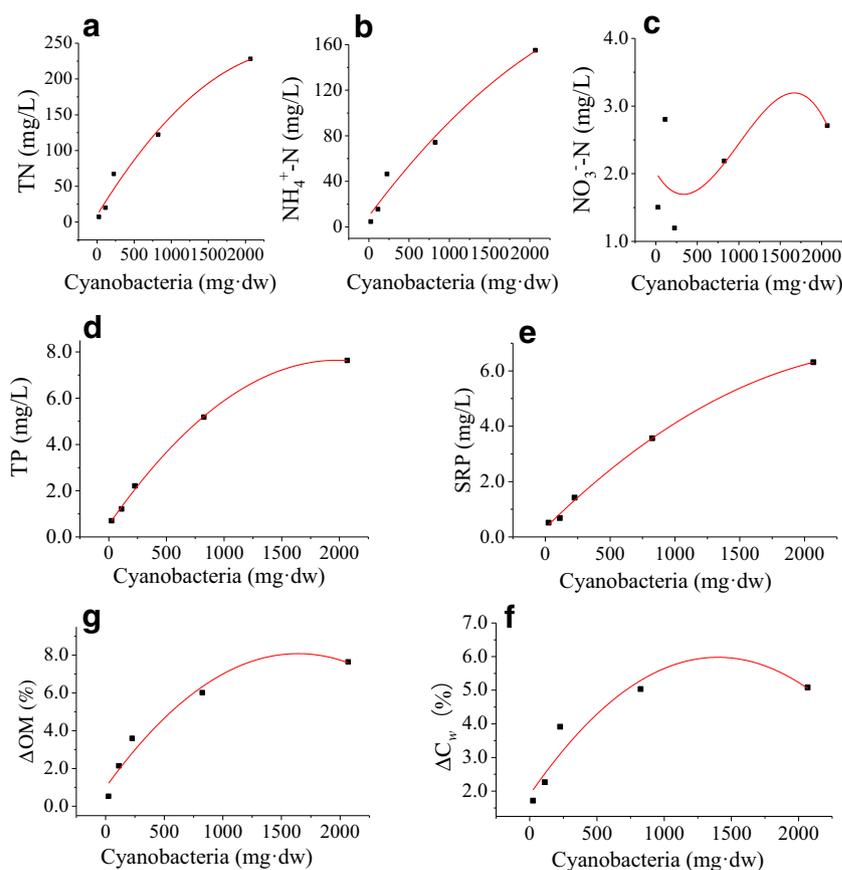
$$Y_{NH_4^+-N(mg/L)} = 9.50186 + 0.09461 \times X - 1.1876E-5 \times X^2 \quad (R^2 = 0.97507) \quad (10)$$

$$Y_{NO_3^--N(mg/L)} = 2.024525 - 0.0021 \times X + 3.78088E-5 \times X^2 - 1.25828E-9 \times X^3 \quad (R^2 = 0.29473) \quad (11)$$

$$Y_{TP(mg/L)} = 0.52718 + 0.00717 \times X - 1.80816E-5 \times X^2 \quad (R^2 = 0.99902) \quad (12)$$

$$Y_{SRP(mg/L)} = 0.32614 + 0.00462 \times X - 8.3221E-7 \times X^2 \quad (R^2 = 0.99694) \quad (13)$$

**Fig. 6 a–g** Relationship between cyanobacteria decomposition and nutrients in water,  $\Delta\text{OM}_{\text{max}_i}$  and  $\Delta\text{C}_{\text{w,max}_i}$  in surface sediment



Results show that all data exhibited a good binomial curve fit ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), with the exception of  $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$  ( $R^2 = 0.29473$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), which may be due to the instability of  $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$  (Gkelis et al. 2014).

The fitting relationship associates the  $\Delta\text{OM}_{\text{max}_i}$  and  $\Delta\text{C}_{\text{w,max}_i}$  in surface sediments with cyanobacterial weight during decomposition, as shown in Fig. 6 f and g. This relationship can be described according to Eqs. (14) and (15) as follows:

$$Y\Delta\text{C}_{\text{w,max}_i}(\%) = 1.89182 + 0.00585 \times X - 2.08578E - 6 \times X^2 \quad (R^2 = 0.90887) \quad (14)$$

$$Y\Delta\text{OM}_{\text{max}_i}(\%) = 0.9992 + 0.00871 \times X - 2.6321E - 6 \times X^2 \quad (R^2 = 0.96299) \quad (15)$$

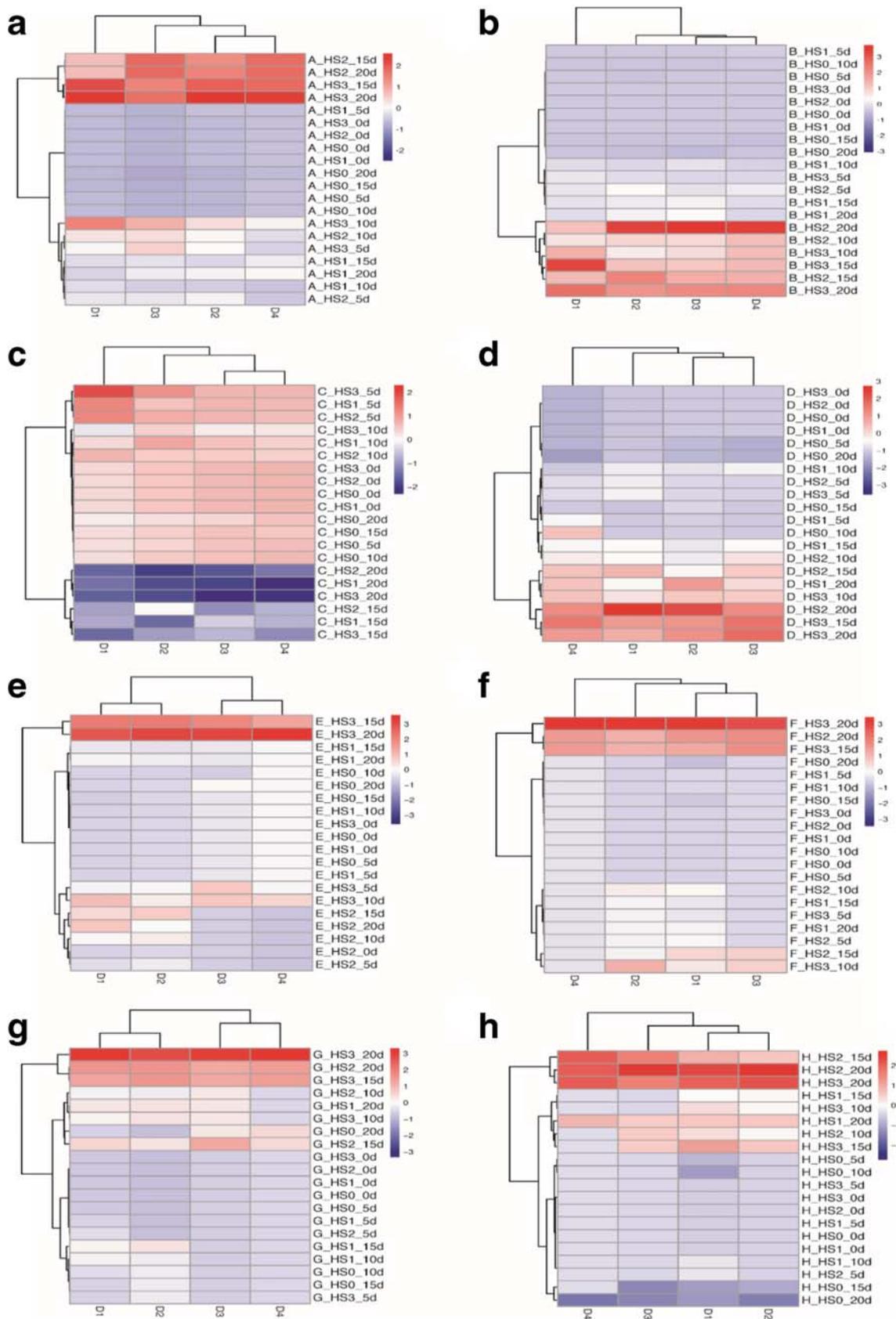
Results show that data exhibit a good binomial relationship ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), indicating that cyanobacteria have an effect on the moisture content and organic matter content of surface sediments during cyanobacterial sedimentation and decomposition.

### 3.4 Vertical distribution of nutrients in sediments

As shown in Fig. 7 a, TN is upregulated over time in the  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  layers, as cyanobacterial density increased. The TN content reached a maximum value of  $157.85 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  in the  $D_1$

layer on day 20 in the  $\text{HS}_3$  group.  $D_3$  and  $D_4$  only showed slight increases in the later stages of the experimental period, increasing by  $1.32 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  and  $5.66 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ , respectively.  $\text{NH}_4^+ \text{-N}$  (Fig. 7b) concentrations in the  $D_1$  layer increased significantly with increased cyanobacterial density, reaching  $121.42 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  in the  $\text{HS}_3$  group on day 15, while in groups  $D_1$ ,  $D_2$ , and  $D_3$ , they reached maximum values of  $4.56 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ ,  $3.23 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ , and  $9.89 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ , respectively, on day 20 in the  $\text{HS}_2$ . The degradation of high-density cyanobacterial blooms causes surface sediments to rapidly enter an anaerobic state (Keil et al. 1994; Christine Laskov et al. 2002; Fujii et al. 2018), which accelerates the increase in  $\text{NH}_4^+ \text{-N}$ .  $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$  (Fig. 7c) concentrations initially increased, then decreased in  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  layers. A significant increase in  $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$  occurred in accordance with algal density, until maximum values of  $5.89 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  and  $3.87 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  were achieved in the  $\text{HS}_3$  group  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  layers on day 15, respectively. Conversely, in the  $D_3$  and  $D_4$  layers, the  $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$  concentration gradually reduced.

The TP concentrations (Fig. 7d) gradually increased with time, showing sediment surface deposition. TP concentrations reached a maximum of  $3.76 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  on day 20 in the  $\text{HS}_2$  group, with the increase in TP content occurring due to an accumulation of algal or biological residues in the upper sediment. NaOH-P concentrations (Fig. 7e) gradually increased



**Fig. 7** N and P vertical distribution in bottom mud. D<sub>1</sub>, 0–5 cm; D<sub>2</sub>, 5–10 cm; D<sub>3</sub>, 10–15 cm; and D<sub>4</sub>, 15–20 cm. A\_HSi\_0 d, where **a** is TN, **b** is  $\text{NH}_4^+-\text{N}$ , **c** is  $\text{NO}_3^- - \text{N}$ , **d** is TP, **e** is NaOH-P, **f** is HCl-P, **g** is BD-P, **h** is  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}-\text{P}$ , HSi is a representative experimental group, and *d* is the number of days of degradation

**Table 2** Flux of different forms of nitrogen and phosphorus nutrients ( $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{day}^{-1}$ )

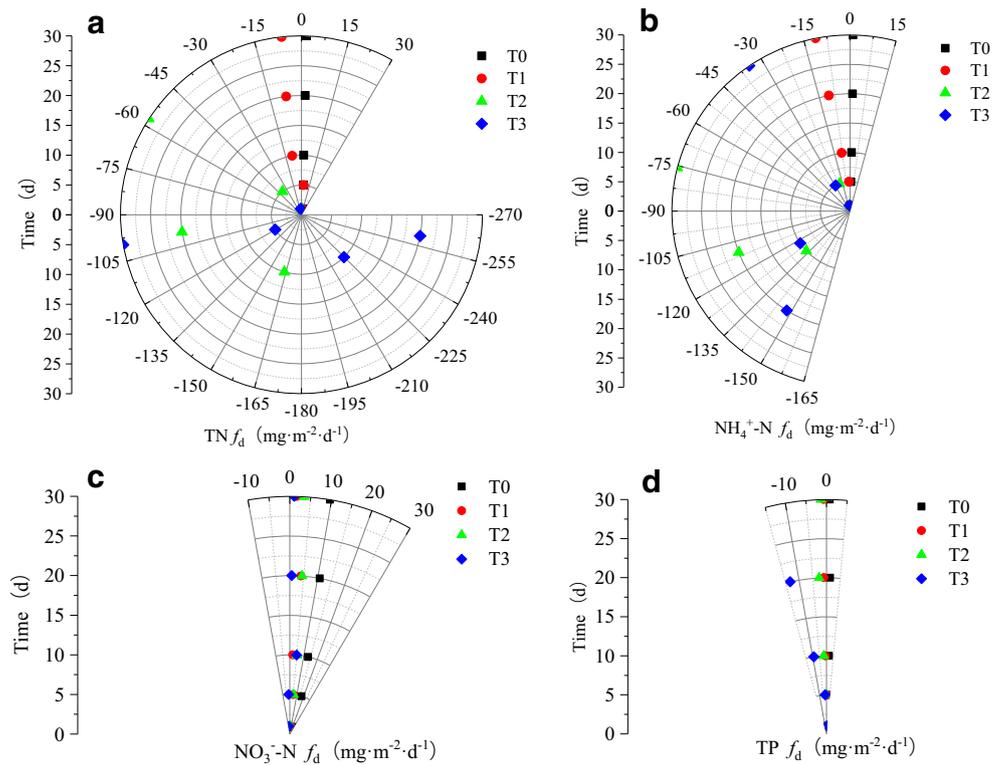
Group	Time (day)	TN	$\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$	$\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$	TP
$T_0$ (control)	1	$26.61 \pm 4.75$	$3.08 \pm 0.97$	$9.37 \pm 1.33$	$3.62 \pm 1.01$
	5	$16.99 \pm 2.31$	$1.93 \pm 0.05$	$3.89 \pm 0.98$	$2.33 \pm 0.92$
	10	$13.16 \pm 2.11$	$1.60 \pm 0.13$	$2.17 \pm 0.96$	$1.72 \pm 0.72$
	20	$10.76 \pm 1.22$	$1.27 \pm 0.77$	$1.75 \pm 0.92$	$1.29 \pm 0.09$
	30	$9.63 \pm 1.02$	$0.99 \pm 0.06$	$1.59 \pm 0.07$	$0.77 \pm 0.02$
	Average	$15.43 \pm 1.03$	$1.77 \pm 0.08$	$3.75 \pm 0.11$	$1.95 \pm 0.07$
$T_1$ (low)	1	$2.43 \pm 0.79$	$11.49 \pm 1.23$	$6.60 \pm 0.51$	$1.72 \pm 0.02$
	5	$-1.9 \pm 0.06$	$4.43 \pm 0.96$	$4.81 \pm 1.01$	$1.02 \pm 0.05$
	10	$-7.97 \pm 0.97$	$-8.86 \pm 0.72$	$2.13 \pm 0.03$	$-0.85 \pm 0.05$
	20	$-10.22 \pm 1.03$	$-7.28 \pm 0.98$	$4.00 \pm 1.01$	$-0.93 \pm 0.03$
	30	$-11.11 \pm 1.15$	$-6.26 \pm 1.11$	$1.67 \pm 0.59$	$-0.66 \pm 0.04$
	Average	$-5.75 \pm 0.23$	$-1.29 \pm 0.06$	$3.84 \pm 0.11$	$0.06 \pm 0.02$
$T_2$ (medium)	1	$4.98 \pm 0.88$	$-0.41 \pm 0.02$	$5.82 \pm 1.17$	$1.54 \pm 0.22$
	5	$-38.91 \pm 8.23$	$-20.78 \pm 3.77$	$5.29 \pm 1.01$	$0.23 \pm 0.02$
	10	$-163.68 \pm 6.99$	$-132.65 \pm 12.11$	$5.09 \pm 0.91$	$-1.90 \pm 0.03$
	20	$-98.38 \pm 7.31$	$-110.55 \pm 9.22$	$4.41 \pm 1.25$	$-2.67 \pm 0.07$
	30	$-57.53 \pm 4.66$	$-75.75 \pm 5.31$	$3.44 \pm 0.98$	$-1.34 \pm 0.09$
	Average	$-70.70 \pm 6.57$	$-68.03 \pm 5.32$	$4.81 \pm 1.02$	$-0.83 \pm 0.11$
$T_3$ (high)	1	$-6.83 \pm 1.56$	$-5.23 \pm 1.11$	$-6.07 \pm 2.13$	$1.04 \pm 0.07$
	5	$-119.64 \pm 9.33$	$-29.04 \pm 3.22$	$-1.66 \pm 0.56$	$-1.98 \pm 0.07$
	10	$-224.78 \pm 11.88$	$-123.17 \pm 13.33$	$4.93 \pm 0.99$	$-9.26 \pm 1.22$
	20	$-259.81 \pm 17.11$	$-147.87 \pm 8.66$	$0.69 \pm 0.05$	$-13.28 \pm 1.01$
	30	$-99.67 \pm 5.77$	$-34.42 \pm 3.22$	$1.04 \pm 0.33$	$-11.21 \pm 1.77$
	Average	$-142.15 \pm 10.31$	$-67.95 \pm 7.22$	$-0.214 \pm 0.02$	$-6.94 \pm 1.05$

in the  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  layers, reaching a maximum of  $1.83 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  on day 20 in the  $\text{HS}_3$  group. Cyanobacterial decomposition induces an anaerobic environment at the sediment surface, in which  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  is reduced to  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NaOH-P}$  is released into the water with the dissolution of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  (Christophoridis and Fytianos 2006). Simultaneously, P is adsorbed onto Fe, Al, and hydroxides and is also released into the interstitial water, migrating to the surface sediment layer (Chen et al. 2018a, b, c), resulting in enrichment of the  $\text{NaOH-P}$  content in the  $D_1$  layer.  $\text{HCl-P}$  concentrations reached a maximum value of  $0.51 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  on day 20, in the  $D_1$  layer in the  $\text{HS}_3$  group (Fig. 7f). This occurred because during the later stage of cyanobacterial degradation, the pH of water was between 7 and 9, with increased pH conditions being beneficial to the conversion of various forms of P to  $\text{HCl-P}$  (Jiao et al. 2016). A previous study by Jin et al. (2006) supported these findings, suggesting that pH controlled the concentrations of available Fe, Al, and calcium, directly or indirectly altering both biological and chemical reactions (Jin et al. 2006). The rate of P release decreased as the pH increased from 2 to 6, then increased as the pH increased further from 8 to 12 (Jin et al. 2006). The  $\text{BD-P}$  concentration (Fig. 7g) increased with the decomposition of cyanobacteria in the sediment, due to the consumption of DO in the waterbody and enhanced anaerobic

microbial activity, promoting the release of  $\text{BD-P}$  (Kleeberg and Kozerski 1997). Overall, the degree of change in  $\text{BD-P}$  concentration at different sediment depths was ranked in the descending order of  $D_1 > D_2 > D_3 > D_4$ .  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl-P}$  (Fig. 7h) is unstable and readily adsorbed (Jin et al. 2006), with suspended particles produced by cyanobacterial decomposition adsorbing  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl-P}$  and depositing it on the surface sediment layer during sedimentation. The concentration of  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl-P}$  reached a maximum value of  $0.13 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$  on day 20 in the  $\text{HS}_2$  group  $D_1$  layer. This was due to the instability of  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl-P}$  and the occurrence of migration between sediment layers over time (Stone and English 1993), resulting in slow changes in the underlying sediment nutrient profiles. These results are partially consistent with the reported findings of a previous study on sediment nutrient profiles in a eutrophic region of Lake Taihu (Jin et al. 2006).

### 3.5 Effect of cyanobacterial decomposition on the water-sediment nutrient flux

Flux results are shown in Table 2, with various nutrients in the control ( $T_0$ ) group showing an overall water trend of being released into the water ( $f_d > 0$ ). TN began to show sedimentation from day 5 ( $f_d < 0$ ) in group  $T_1$ . After day 10, with the

**Fig. 8** Polar diagram ( $r, \theta$ ) of different nutrient fluxes

exception of nitrate nitrogen ( $f_d > 0$ ), all other nutrients showed a sedimentation response ( $f_d < 0$ ), with group  $T_2$  presenting a similar pattern to  $T_1$ . In the  $T_3$  group, with the exception of TP which showed deposition after five days, all other nutrients entered the sedimentation mode within 24 h. The deposition of nutrients increased as the density of cyanobacteria increased, as shown by the polar diagram ( $r, \theta$ ) of nutrient flux (Fig. 8), with flux amplitude ranked in the descending order of  $TN > NH_4^+-N > NO_3^--N > TP$ . TN was mainly deposited during the process of cyanobacterial accumulation and decomposition (Fig. 8a), with the highest flux observed in group  $T_3$  on day 20 ( $-259.81 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) and a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group ( $p < 0.05$ ). The change in  $NH_4^+-N$  flux was similar to the pattern observed for TN (Fig. 8b). However, the overall variation and flux intensity were weaker for  $NH_4^+-N$  than TN, with the highest  $NH_4^+-N$  flux observed on day 20 in group  $T_3$  ( $-147.87 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ). Due to the instability of  $NO_3^--N$ , it was released in other groups ( $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ), with the exception of alternating release and deposition with time in group  $T_3$  (Fig. 8c). Although TP flux was weaker, it showed a transition from release to deposition with time, with the deposition flux gradually increasing in group  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  (Fig. 8d). In summary, results show that the nutrient changes in sediments and water were significantly affected by cyanobacteria, which was the main determining factor in nutrient flux and concentrations (Akagi and Zsolnay 2008; Brocke et al. 2015). Additionally, trends in cyanobacterial decomposition changed

due to conditions such as DO, temperature, and the pH of water (Li et al. 2017), affecting the composition and activity of microorganisms, the porosity of sediments, and the accumulation of organic matter, further changing overall nutrient flux. Some previous studies have shown that pH and T in water can stimulate the release of dissolved nutrients from sediments (Xie et al. 2003). In addition, cyanobacterial decomposition induces the release of nutrients, organic matter, and water from sediments, resulting a concentration gradient at the water-sediment interface and generating flux (Denis et al. 2001). The decomposition of microorganisms can mineralize organic compounds in sediments and release polyphosphates, while converting insoluble P compounds into soluble ions, allowing their release into water (Jin et al. 2006). Results showed that the accumulation and decomposition of cyanobacteria caused OM and  $C_w$  to increase in surface sediment layers, while also influencing nutrient concentration gradients at the water-sediment interface, leading to nutrient flux.

Overall, the results of this study demonstrate that accumulation and decomposition of cyanobacteria exert a large influence on the form of nutrients in water. The spatial and temporal redistribution of nutrients in water and spatial nutrient concentration patterns are especially affected in the first 9 days of cyanobacterial decomposing. Therefore, the removal of cyanobacteria from the surface of waterbodies should be performed within 1 week of accumulation of cyanobacteria, which can effectively reduce the pollution induced by cyanobacterial decomposition.

## 4 Conclusions

Based on the results of quantitative simulation experiments, the following conclusions can be drawn: (1) Nutrients in water underwent a transition among different forms during cyanobacterial decomposition, with distinct changes in the physicochemical parameters (pH, DO, Ec, ORP, and  $UV_{254}$ ) of water observed. This resulted in a simultaneous increase in  $C_w$  and OM in the surface sediment; (2) cyanobacteria and nutrients in water, as well as  $\Delta OM$  and  $\Delta C_w$  in surface sediments, exhibited good binomial relationships ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ); (3) the decomposition of cyanobacteria induces changes in nutrient concentrations in the surface layer of sediments, as shown by sediment surface enrichment at depths of 0–10 cm. As sediment depth increased, the response exhibited weak anti-interference and hysteresis; (4) the water-sediment interface flux of nutrients is related to the density of cyanobacteria, degradation time, and nutrient characteristics. In this study, the degree of flux was ranked in the descending order of  $TN > NH_4^+-N > NO_3^--N > TP$ , with the deposition flux of TN in the  $T_3$  group on day 20 reaching a maximum of  $259.81 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ .

Laboratory tests do not fully replicate the on-site environmental conditions, omitting aspects, such as wind-induced waves, water currents, suspended matter content, plankton distribution, and other factors, which are difficult to control in the laboratory. Therefore, results of laboratory simulation experiments may be different from the field performance, which is a common problem in environmental research. However, this study provides some valuable reference information for further research on cyanobacterial decomposition.

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