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Seasonal Development of Cyanobacteria and Microcystin Production in a Shallow Freshwater Lake (North-Eastern, Algeria)

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ABSTRACT

Lake Oubeira, a shallow Mediterranean lake located in El-Kala National Park, northeastern Algeria, has faced frequent cyanobacterial blooms during the summer and autumn seasons, primarily due to human activities. While prior studies have investigated cyanobacteria abundance and toxin levels in the lake's fauna, they have not identified the specific genera responsible for toxin production or the environmental factors influencing their fluctuations. This study, conducted between 2016 and 2017, involved sampling the lake at onemeter depth across four seasons and identified 23 genera from five orders, with nine genera accounting for 93.68% of total abundance. The most prevalent genera included Microcystis (44.51%), Planktothrix (16.27%), Pseudanabaena (8.38%), Aphanocapsa (6.06%), Synechococcus (3.73%), Cylindrospermum (3.98%), Cylindrospermopsis (3.93%), Dolichospermum (3.17%) and Aphanizomenon (3.65%). Seasonal variations in distribution and abundance were noted, with significant blooms primarily composed of Microcystis and Planktothrix occurring during summer and autumn, coinciding with peak microcystin concentrations. The highest levels recorded were in the summer (9.57µg MC-LR equivalent, L-1) and autumn (10.09µg MC-LR equivalent, L-1). Strong positive correlations were observed between microcystin levels, chlorophyll-a concentration, and the abundance of Microcystis and Planktothrix. Microcystin was detected in all samples, with the lowest concentration (1.31µg MC-LR equivalent. L-1) found in spring. The presence of potentially toxic cyanobacterial genera was consistent throughout the year, regardless of seasonal or weather changes. To mitigate risks for lake users, continuous monitoring is essential to identify and quantify cyanobacteria and their toxins, particularly focusing on seasonal variations in this shallow lake ecosystem.

INTRODUCTION

Shallow lakes are among the most widespread water bodies globally and are particularly sensitive to external influences, making them susceptible to switch easily to a new trophic state. Changes in hydrological conditions and climate can trigger harmful

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cyanobacterial blooms, which pose significant risks to ecological balance and human health (Huang et al., 2021). Due to their long water residence times and generally low current velocities, lakes provide a time-integrated response to external factors. Nutrient over-enrichment, primarily from agricultural, urban, and industrial activities, leads to eutrophication in freshwater ecosystems (Olsson et al., 2022). This process significantly increases cyanobacterial occurrences, as these organisms are highly competitive within phytoplankton communities (Paerl & Otten, 2013). Cyanobacterial growth is favored by nutrient availability, high temperatures, solar radiation, stable water columns, and elevated pH levels (Paerl & Huisman, 2008; Carey et al., 2012; Paerl & Otten, 2013). Their adaptations include the ability to regulate buoyancy with gas vacuoles, form dormant akinetes during adverse conditions, and fix atmospheric nitrogen through specialized heterocysts (Komarek & Anagnostidis, 1999, 2005). Additionally, cyanobacteria produce various secondary metabolites including cyanotoxins that threaten aquatic ecosystems and human health by degrading water quality (Kulabhusan & Campbell, 2024). Among these toxins, microcystins (MCs), particularly prevalent in freshwater systems, are cyclic heptapeptides with over 240 identified structural variants (Spoof & Catherine, 2016; Humbert & Fastner, 2017; Du et al., 2019). Numerous cyanobacterial genera—including *Microcystis*, Dolichospermum, Anabaenopsis, Aphanizomenon, Aphanocapsa, Hapalosiphon, Nostoc, Planktothrix, Pseudanabaena, Gloeotrichia, Synechococcus, and Synechocystis are capable of producing MCs, making their hepatotoxic metabolites a global concern. Microcystin-LR (MC-LR) is recognized as the most potent hepatotoxin based on acute toxicity assessments (Chowdhury et al., 2024).

A synergistic interaction between increased nutrient levels and climate change is anticipated to exacerbate the occurrence of cyanobacterial blooms, supported by both experimental (Lürling et al., 2017; Paerl, 2017) and field studies (Rigosi et al., 2014). Paerl and Huisman (2008) predicted that harmful blooms will increase in both frequency and duration due to changes in hydrological cycling, elevated nutrient loading, and rising water temperatures. The Mediterranean basin is considered one of the most vulnerable regions to the impacts of global warming and altered precipitation patterns (Noto et al., 2023). Understanding the distribution of cyanobacterial toxins across eutrophic lakes is crucial for elucidating the ecological roles of these metabolites, aiding in their remediation, and protecting public health. In Algeria, toxic cyanobacterial blooms dominated by Microcystis were first documented in Lake Oubeira during 2000-2001 (Nasri et al., 2004). In 2005, two species of freshwater turtles were found dead during a Microcystis bloom in the same lake (Nasri et al., 2008). Additionally, Amrani et al. (2014) measured microcystin levels in both the water and various organs of the carp and European eel in Lake Oubeira. While studies on environmental parameters affecting cyanobacteria dynamics in Algeria have primarily focused on drinking water supply dams like Mexa (Saoudi et al., 2015), Hammam Debagh (Guellati et al., 2017), Ain Zada

(Saoudi *et al.*, 2017; Charifi *et al.*, 2019), and Zit Emba (Touati *et al.*, 2019), the underlying factors driving excessive proliferation of cyanobacteria and their bioactive secondary metabolites in Lake Oubeira remain inadequately understood.

This study aimed to i) assess the trophic status of Oubeira Lake; ii) monitor the spatio-temporal dynamics of cyanobacteria abundance and microcystins (MCs) content, and iii) investigate the influence of some environmental parameters on the assemblages of cyanobacteria and microcystins (MC-LR eq) production through the application of statistical tests.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Study site

Lake Oubeira, located in the wetlands of El-Kala National Park in northeastern Algeria (36°50' N, 08°23' E), is the largest freshwater lake in the country, covering an area of 2,200 hectares. This shallow endorheic lake has a maximum depth of approximately 2.40 meters during wet periods and 1.50 meters during dry periods (Alayat *et al.*, 2013). The lake's bottom is covered by a thick mud layer that can reach up to 2 meters in the center. Its hydrological regime is closely tied to weather conditions, primarily receiving surface runoff during the rainy season, with an annual rainfall ranging from 700 to 800mm. Four tributaries feed into Lake Oubeira: the Dey-Legraa River to the East, the Boumerchen River to the Northeast, the Demet Rihana River to the North, and the Messida River to the South. The lake supports diverse flora and fauna, including migratory and resident birds, fish, bivalves, and aquatic plants such as water chestnut (Trapa natans), white water lily (Nymphaea alba), and yellow water lily (Nuphar lutea) (Samraoui *et al.*, 1998). Its waters are primarily used for irrigating peanut crops, aquaculture, and providing drinking water for livestock grazing along its shores.



Fig. 1. Geographical location of Lake Oubeira and the distribution of the sampling stations (S1: station 1, S2: station 2, S3: station3, S4: station 4)

2. Sampling protocol

From spring 2016 to winter 2017, sampling was seasonally conducted at four stations. Water samples were collected with a 1m plastic tube at a depth of 1m below water surface, and stored in white plastic bottles, in the cold and dark, until they arrived at the laboratory where they were aliquoted for the various analyses. The water samples for cyanobacterial identification were collected with conical plankton net with a mesh size of $20\mu m$, and the filtrates were immediately conserved in 5% final formaldehyde (v/v) (Fig. 1)

3. Environmental factors

Dissolved oxygen (DO), water temperature (WT), conductivity and pH were measured "*in situ*" using multiparametric probes of type 3420 SET G (WTW, Germany). Water transparency was measured using a 25cm diameter Secchi disc. The nutrient analyses, including nitrites (NO2-N), nitrates (NO3-N), ammonium (NH4-N) and orthophosphate (PO4-P) were performed on filtrates (100ml) using the colorimetric methods as described by **Aminot and Kérouel (2004)**. Suspended solids (SS) concentrations were conducted by the differential weighing method after filtration, a known volume of water sample through a glass microfiber filter (GF/C 47, Whatman) (**Aminot & Chaussepied, 1983**). Chlorophyll-a concentration was estimated from spectrophotometric measurements after extraction in 90% aqueous acetone (**Parsons, 1966**).

4. Cyanobacteria analyses

The identification of cyanobacteria was based on microscopic observations of morpho-anatomical characters using taxonomic keys of **Komárek and Anagnostidis** (2005), **Komárek** *et al.* (2014) and **Komárek** (2016). The cell count was carried out by a Nageotte cells described in the study of **Brient** *et al.* (2008). Both the identification and counting of cyanobacteria (cells/mL) were realized by an optical microscope (Carl Zeiss, Germany) equipped with a UI-1240 SE camera (IDS, Germany).

5. Microcystins analysis

The total microcystins (MCs) content in raw water samples was determined by an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) as follows: After filtration through a glass microfiber filter with a nominal porosity of 0.45μ m (47mm diameter, Whatman, Germany), frozen at -20°C and defrosted, as well as treated with an ultrasonic probe, succeeding an extraction of the MCs by using a methanol/water solution (0.8V:0.2V). The samples were analyzed using an ELISA kit (Abraxis, USA) as recommended by the manufacturer's protocol, with an average lower detection level of 0.15μ g/ 1 of MCs. The samples were positively assessed when the concentration of MCs was well above this limit, and the absorbance was read only at one wavelength (450nm), using a microplate ELISA photometer (MindrayMR-96A).

6. Statistical analysis

The statistical analyses were carried out using R software (version 4.1.2). Firstly, the normality of the sample distributions was verified by applying the Shapiro-Wilk test. Then, inter-season comparisons were made using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test, followed by a Dunn's post- hoc test. The seasonal variation of our tested biotic and abiotic variables

was depicted through multiple boxplots using the 'ggplot2' package (Wickham, 2016). Furthermore, the relationships between our datasets were explored through correlation analysis, performed with the "corrplot" package (Wei & Simko, 2021), to calculate Spearman's correlation coefficients and *P*-values. Finally, we conducted a principal component analysis (PCA) on standardized data to characterize the temporal variation of biotic and abiotic variables measured in Lake Oubeira. This analysis was performed using the "FactoMineR" (Husson *et al.*, 2020) and "Factoextra" (Kassambara & Mundt, 2020) software packages. All statistical analyses were considered significant at P < 0.05.

RESULTS

1. Environmental factors

Table 1. Seasonal mean variations in physico-chemical parameters andchlorophyll-a in Lake Oubeira (spring 2016-winter 2017) and WHO standards forrecreational water bodies

Season	WHO					
Mean ±sd	Standards	Spring	g Summer	Fall	Winter	Inter-season
						r-vaiue
T (°C)	12–25°C	24.30±2.47	29.20±1.80	17.06±3.28	11.77±0.46	<0.001
рН	6.5–8.5	8.24±0.21	8.94±0.41	8.58±0.26	8.76±0.18	<0.001
DO (mg.L ⁻¹)	6.5–8 mg/L	6.99±1.16	6.73±2.04	8.74±1.53	10.55±0.80	<0.001
Cond (µS.cm ⁻¹)	<500 µS/cm	431.33±38.18	8496.08±9.24	524.41±7.78	537.25±12.89	<0.001
Trans (cm)	>2 m	19.58±3.96	12.50±4.17	9.16±4.17	9.58±3.34	<0.001
NH4-N (mg.L ⁻¹)	<0.5 mg/	2.87±1.60	8.65±7.56	3.60±2.61	2.31±2.04	<0.05
NO2-N (mg.L ⁻¹)	<0.1 mg/l	1.07±0.12	1.15±0.41	1.61±0.38	0.93±0.46	<0.001
NO3-N (mg.L ⁻¹)	<10 mg/L	4.91±2.28	4.82±2.23	4.94±0.55	3.79±0.98	0.001
PO4-P (mg.L ⁻¹)	<0.1 mg/L	1.77±1.09	6.07±9.53	2.53±2.42	1.82±1.55	0.32

SS (mg.L ⁻¹)	<25mg/L	121.00±81.26	99.00±54.92	123.25±67.01	93.25±70.61	0.35
Chl-a (µg.L ⁻¹)	<10 µg/L	14.23±6.55	84.36±45.76	87.12±50.83	19.40±14.77	<0.001
Mc-LR (ug.L ⁻¹)	20 µg/L	1.31±0.53	9.57±5.27	10.09±5.49	2.16±2.18	<0.001

SD, standard deviation; p-value – probability value (P<0.05).

Inter-season comparisons using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (Fig. 2) revealed significant differences between seasons for all physico-chemical parameters studied, except for SS and PO4-P. Furthermore, Fig. (2) illustrates the post hoc pairwise comparisons of Dunn's test in box plots for the seasonal factor.



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Fig. 2. Box and whisker plots demonstrating seasonal patterns of physicochemical parameters and Chlorophyll-a. The *P*-values from the Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparison tests are shown as asterisks for each season (ns: not significant; **P*<0.05, ***P*<0.01, ****P*<0.001)

2. Generic diversity and occurrence frequency

Microscopic observation of the morpho-anatomical characters of the cyanobacteria collected in the Lake Oubeira waters enabled us to identify twenty-three (23) genera belonging to five orders (Table 2).

Order	Genera					
Choococcales	Microcystis, Chroococcus, Gloeocapsa*, Aphanothece*					
Oscillatoriales	Oscillatoria, Planktothrix, Phormidium*, Lyngbya*,					
Nostocales	Aphanizomenon, . Cylindrospermum*,	Nostoc*, Cy	ylindrospermopsis,	Dolichospermum,		
Synechococales	Synechococcus, Aphanocapsa, Synechocysti.	Merismopedia, s*, Limnothrix [:]	Pseudanabaena, *, Leptolyngbya*, Pla	Woronichinia, nktolyngbya*,		
Spirulinales	Spirulina					

 Table 2. Cyanobacteria genera collected in Lake Oubeira waters (spring 2016-winter 2017)

*Rare Genera.

The occurrence frequency calculation shows that about 50% of the genera recorded in the waters of Lake Oubeira are rare; we also note the omnipresence of *Microcystis*, the constancy of *Pseudanabaena* and the regularity of *Chroococcus* (*Chroo*, *Dolichospermum*, *Planktothrix*, *Synechococcus*, *Aphanizomenon*, and *Aphanocapsa*). However, the genera *Oscillatoria*, *Merismopedia*, *Cylindrospermopsis*, *Woronichinia*, and *Spirulina* are incidental.

2.1. The most abundant genera

In this study, the genera considered most abundant were those accounting for more than 3% of the overall abundance of collected cyanobacteria (Fig. 3), such as *Microcystis* (44.51%), *Planktothrix* (16.27%), *Pseudanabaena* (8.38%), *Aphanocapsa* (6.06%), *Synechococcus* (3.73%), *Cylindrospermum* (3.98%), *Cylindrospermopsis* (3.93%), *Dolichospermum* (3.17%) and *Aphanizomenon* (3.65%). The nine genera considered account for 93.68% of the overall abundance, while the remaining thirteen genera, grouped under the heading 'others,' make up 6.32% of the total abundance.



Fig. 3. Relative abundance of the main blooming cyanobacterial genera in Lake Oubeira waters (spring 2016-winter 2017). Abbreviations: *Mic=Microcystis*, *Plank=Planktothrix*, *Pseud=Pseudanabaena*, *Aphsa=Aphanocapsa*, *Syncus=Synechococcus*, *Cylmum=Cylindrospermum*, *Cylsis=Cylindrospermopsis*, *Doli=Dolichospermum*, *Apha=Aphanizomenon*.

2.2. Seasonal pattern of the main genera

The total abundance of cyanobacteria in Lake Oubeira ranged from 184 707 Cell.L⁻¹ in spring (representing only 12.34% of the total abundance of the collected cyanobacteria), to 560721 Cell.L⁻¹ in summer, corresponding to 37.47% of the total abundance of the sampled cyanobacteria (Fig. 4). The most recurrent periods of increase occurred in summer and autumn (totalling 74.37% of overall abundance), coinciding with the highest peaks. Spring and winter were the periods of lowest abundance (25.61% of total abundance).

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Table 3. Seasonal mean variations in cyanobacteria genera encountered in LakeOubeira water (spring 2016-winter 2017)

Season	Spring	Summer	Fall	Winter	Inter-season
Mean ±SD	1				P-value
Aph	2583.33±3654.43	3297.33±3892.78	22892.33±33809.38	25922.33±14988.23	< 0.001
Apha	24653.91±21183.33	18718.33±29760.26	43744.66±49031.32	3627.33±6586.85	< 0.05
Cyl	0.00±0.00	13527.33±27012.51	42319.33±49221.16	3003.00±5470.28	< 0.001
Cyli	486.66±1685.86	59124.00±80529.98	0.00±0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	< 0.001
Doli	1625.66±2992.91	8249.33±7601.47	23275.50±22608.68	14340.33±27746.22	< 0.05
Micr	96096.25±45894.97	245798.92±84906.11	232866.75±63411.46	91257.58±45604.99	< 0.001
PlanK	1589.50±4049.37	142156.67±76347.35	99700.67±66281.65	0.00 ± 0.00	< 0.001
Pseu	11523.83±8208.55	15336.67±8868.46	66683.33±24956.14	31851.33±19008.57	< 0.001
Syn	16541.83±23381.98	13493.92±13339.99	14135.00±16520.79	11777.92±15285.39	0.96
Others	29611.00±19683.71	41023.41±24387.51	6579.33±10238.18	16827.41±14634.81	< 0.001

SD, standard deviation; *P*-value – probability value (*P*<0.05).



Fig. 4. Densities of the main blooming cyanobacterial genera in Lake Oubeira waters (spring 2016-winter 2017).

Comparisons between seasons, assessed through the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test, unveiled significant differences in the abundance of all identified genera for each season, except for *Synechococcus*, (*P*-value 0.96). The post hoc pairwise comparisons from Dunn's test are depicted in the box plots in Fig. (5), providing an illustration of the seasonal variations in genera abundance within Lake Oubeira.

In spring (Fig. 6a), *Microcystis*, *Aphanocapsa*, *Synechococcus* and *Pseudanabaena* mounted mean densities close to 96100, 24650, 16540 and 11520 Cell.L⁻¹, respectively, and they accounted for over 80% of overall seasonal abundance. The genus *Cylindrospermopsis* was absent, and the genera *Aphanizomenon*, *Planktothrix*, *Dolichospermum* and *Cylindrospermum* were poorly represented, together accounting for less than 3.5% of the season's abundance. The genera belonging to the group *Others* (16 genera) recorded average densities of over 29600 Cell.L⁻¹, representing 16% of the abundance of cyanobacteria collected in spring.

In summer (Fig. 6b), the genera with average densities above 100,000 cells per liter are *Microcystis* (over 245,800 cells per liter) and *Planktothrix* (over 142,160 cells per liter), together accounting for more than 69% of the overall density. Genera exceeding 40,000 cells per liter include *Cylindrospermum* and the group labeled 'others' (with densities of over 59,100 and 41,000 cells per liter, respectively). Mean densities below 10,000 cells per liter are recorded for *Dolichospermum*, *Aphanizomenon*, and *Cylindrospermopsis*, while those ranging between 10,000 and 20,000 cells per liter include *Synechococcus*, *Pseudanabaena*, and *Aphanocapsa*.

The overall abundance values for cyanobacteria collected in summer and autumn (Fig. 6c) are quite close (37.47 and 36.90%, respectively). In autumn, 5 of the 8 genera present recorded mean densities exceeding 40000 Cell.L⁻¹ (*Microcystis, Planktothrix, Pseudanabaena, Cylindrospermopsis* and *Aphanocapsa*) accounting for around 88% of overall density. *Cylindrospermum*was absent, and the mean density of the 8 genera belonging to the group "*others*" did not exceed 7,000 Cell.L⁻¹. The mean densities of *Dolichospermum* and *Aphanizomenon* were close to 23,000 Cell.L⁻¹, while that of *Synechococcus* exceeds 14,000 Cell.L⁻¹.

The overall abundance of cyanobacteria collected in winter (Fig. 6d) represents only 35% of that recorded in summer and 36% of that recorded in autumn, due to the absence of *Planktothrix* and *Cylindrospermum*, as well as low densities (close to 3600 Cell.L⁻¹) recorded by *Cylindrospermopsis* and *Aphanocapsa*. In winter, the dominant genera were *Microcystis*, *Pseudanabena* and *Aphanizomenon* (accounting for over 75% of overall density with densities of over 91200, 31800 and 25900 Cell.L⁻¹, respectively), and to a weaker extent *Dolichospermum* and *Synechococcus*.



Fig. 5. Box and whisker plots demonstrating seasonal patterns of the main blooming cyanobacteria genera in Lake Oubeira. The *P*-values from a the Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparison tests are shown as asterisks for each season (ns:not significant; *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001)



Fig. 6. Assemblage of the main genera collected in each season

3. Intracellular microcystin analysis

Microcystin was found at measurable levels in all the collected samples with contents ranging from 1.31 to 10.09µg eq MC-LR/L in spring and autumn, respectively (Fig. 10).

A peak of 9.57µg eq MC-LR/L appeared in summer and a second one of 10.09µg eq MC-LR/L appeared in autumn; the two peaks appeared during the exponential and steady growth phases of *Microcystis* and *Planktothrix*. This was confirmed by its strong positive correlations with chlorophyll-a and the abundance of *Microcystis* and *Planktothrix*, who themselves are highly correlated with each other (r=0.87, P<0.0001), and with chlorophyll-a.

The inter-seasons comparison of microcystin's median values have shown highly significant differences (P < 0.001) from one season to the other.



Fig. 7. Seasonal fluctuations in intracellular microcystin (μ g eq MC-LR/L) and Chlorophyll a concentrations recorded in Oubeira waters (spring 2016- winter 2017)

4. Statistical analysis

The results of the correlations established by the Spearman non-parametric test are presented in Fig. (8).

In this study, we conducted a comprehensive correlation analysis to explore the relationships between microcystin levels, chlorophyll-a concentrations, and the most abundant cyanobacterial genera in Oubeira Lake. Microcystin exhibited very strong positive correlations with chlorophyll-a (r=0.99, P<0.0001), Microcystis (r=0.95, P<0.0001), Planktothrix (r=0.84, P<0.0001), Dolichospermum (r=0.53, P=0.0001), Cylindrospermum (r=0.45, P=0.001), and Pseudanabaena (r=0.43, P=0.002). Additionally, microcystin levels showed strong positive correlations with nitrate (NO3) (r=0.57, P<0.0001), ammonium (NH4) (r=0.53, P<0.0001), and nitrite (NO2) (r=0.43, P=0.001), while negatively correlating with transparency (Trans) (r=-0.40, P<0.01). Similarly, chlorophyll-a demonstrated strong correlations with *Microcystis* (r=0.95, P<0.0001), Planktothrix (r=0.86, P<0.0001), and Dolichospermum (r=0.53, P=0.0001), as well as with NO3 (r=0.57, P<0.0001), NH4 (r=0.53, P<0.0001), NO2 (r=0.44, P < 0.001), and negatively with Trans (r=-0.40, P < 0.01). Additionally, *Microcystis* displayed strong positive correlations with NO3 (r=0.56, P<0.0001) and NH4 (r=0.55, P < 0.0001), along with strong correlations with NO2 (r=0.48, P < 0.001) and Trans (r=0.43, P<0.01). Planktothrix showed positive correlations with water temperature (r=0.54, P<0.0001), NH4 (r=0.43, P<0.001), and NO3 (r=0.40, P<0.01) but had a significant negative correlation with dissolved oxygen (DO) (r=-0.38, P<0.01). Furthermore, the genus *Dolichospermum* exhibited a significant positive correlation with Trans (r=0.54, P<0.0001) and significant positive correlations with both conductivity and NO2 (r=0.46, P<0.001), while showing a significant negative correlation with temperature (r=-0.46, P<0.001). Lastly, Aphanizomenon was positively correlated with DO (r=0.63, P<0.0001) and conductivity (r=0.62, P<0.0001) but exhibited a strong negative correlation with water temperature (r=-0.66, P<0.0001). Conversely, Cylindrospermopsis displayed a positive correlation with water temperature (r=0.46, *P*<0.001).



Fig. 8. Correlo-gram of the twenty-one biotic and abiotic variables established by Spearman non-parametric test

The principal component analysis (PCA) results indicate that the eigenvalues of the first two principal components collectively account for approximately 53.89% of the total variance, as shown in Fig. (9).

The first principal component (Dim1) explains 30.61% of the variability. This is primarily influenced by positive loadings from NH4 (r = 0.74), WT (r = 0.72), PO4 (r = 0.71), NO3 (r = 0.67), *Microcystis* (r = 0.64), *Planktothrix* (r = 0.56), SS (r = 0.50), while it is negatively correlated with DO (r = -0.78) and *Aphanizomenon* (r = -0.40).

The second principal component (Dim2) contributes 23.28% of the variability and is positively loaded with Cond (conductivity, r = 0.83), *Pseudanabaena* (r = 0.58), Microcystins (r = 0.54), chlorophyll-a (r = 0.54), and pH (r = 0.53). Conversely, it exhibits a negative correlation with transparency (r = -0.78).

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Fig. 9. Principal component analysis (PCA) of the biotic and abiotic variables. Abbreviations for domains: Chlorophyll-a (Chl.a), Microcystins (MC-LR), pH, Conductivity (Cond), dissolved oxygen (DO), ammonium (NH4), nitrite (NO2), nitrate (NO3), orthophosphate (PO4), suspended solids (SS), water temperature (WT), and transparency (Trans)

The representation of seasonal variations (Fig. 10) reveals distinct differences between two main seasons. On the right side of the projection, we observe a warm period, primarily attributed to the summer season. On the left side, the projection reflects a colder period, predominantly associated with the winter season, emphasizing the seasonal gradient of the biotic and abiotic parameters examined at our site.



Fig. 10. Projection of seasons variation

DISCUSSION

Lake Oubeira, a shallow endorheic Mediterranean lake, exemplifies the complex interplay between natural processes and human activities. The lake's extended water retention time, coupled with significant anthropogenic influences, has led to substantial organic matter accumulation and high nutrient concentrations (Arif *et al.*, 2023). Recent assessments based on OECD (1982) criteria and WHO (1994) guidelines reveal a concerning ecological state, with water quality ranging from mediocre to severely polluted. High levels of ammonium, nitrite and phosphate, combined with low water transparency and high chlorophyll-a contents (87.12µg/ L in autumn and 84.36µg/ L in summer), rank the lake as hyper-eutrophic according to the diagnostic grid of **Vollenweider and Kerekes (1982)**. This classification indicates an advanced state of nutrient enrichment and algal growth, underscoring the lake's compromised ecological status due to the combined effects of human activities (agriculture, livestock grazing, fishing, and aquaculture) and natural factors such as wind-driven sediment-water interactions.

Lake Oubeira functions as a natural bioreactor due to its extended water retention time, leading to significant organic matter accumulation in its sediments. **Ghai** *et al.* (2012) described a cyclic process where nutrient enrichment stimulates phytoplankton growth, and subsequent decomposition further increases the lake's trophic status. Chlorophyll-a levels, which **Ramade** (1999) identifies as a reliable eutrophication indicator, fluctuate seasonally in tandem with phytoplankton density, showing lower concentrations in winter and spring and peaking in summer and autumn. This complex interplay of nutrient cycling, phytoplankton dynamics, and organic matter decomposition highlights the intricate ecological processes in Lake Oubeira and underscores the importance of chlorophyll-a measurements in assessing the lake's trophic state and overall ecological health.

Recent research highlights the growing concern of harmful cyanobacteria in eutrophic lakes, exacerbated by summer heat waves and projected to worsen with global warming (Van de Waal *et al.*, 2024). Environmental factors play a crucial role in promoting cyanobacterial dominance and microcystin production (Monchamp *et al.*, 2014). Kosten *et al.* (2012) characterize eutrophic water bodies by cyanobacteria-dominated phytoplankton communities, elevated nutrient levels, reduced water clarity, and higher surface temperatures. Studies by Rastogi *et al.* (2014) and Harke *et al.* (2016) further emphasized that eutrophic or hypereutrophic conditions create favorable environments for extensive cyanobacterial blooms.

The eutrophication of lakes creates conditions of low transparency and high turbidity due to suspended solids, limiting light penetration. This environment favors cyanobacteria equipped with gas vacuoles, such as *Microcystis*, *Planktothrix*, and

Aphanizomenon, which can regulate their buoyancy to access both light for photosynthesis and nutrient-rich sediments (Carey *et al.*, 2012). In Lake Oubeira, *Microcystis* dominates, accounting for 44.51% of total cell abundance, attributed to its phenotypic plasticity and competitive nature (Xiao *et al.*, 2017; Xiao *et al.*, 2018). Interestingly, *Microcystis* prevails despite being non-diazotrophic and unable to fix atmospheric nitrogen (Potts *et al.*, 2000). This dominance is likely due to severe eutrophication from anthropogenic and natural activities, internal nitrogen regeneration, water column stability, lake morphology, and extended water residence time. The prevalence of *Microcystis* in Lake Oubeira exemplifies the complex interactions between nutrient dynamics, physical lake characteristics, and cyanobacterial adaptations in eutrophic ecosystems.

The year-round dominance of *Microcystis* in shallow water bodies can be attributed to its buoyancy, which facilitates nutrient access, particularly in environments with high concentrations of nitrates (NO3), ammonium (NH4), and nitrites (NO2). **Wagner and Adrian (2009)** emphasized that in shallow lakes like Lake Muggelsee, with a maximum depth of less than 8 meters, *Microcystis* can migrate to the hypolimnion, where nutrient levels are elevated. This genus has also been noted for its prevalence in various Algerian lakes (**Amri** *et al.*, **2010; Bouhaddada** *et al.*, **2016**) and is recognized globally for thriving in eutrophic and hypereutrophic ecosystems, particularly during the summer months (**Mariani** *et al.*, **2015; Harke** *et al.*, **2016**).

Planktothrix constitutes over 16% of total density and exhibits a strong positive correlation with *Microcystis*, temperature, and nutrients such as ammonium (NH4) and nitrates (NO3). This species thrives in shallow water bodies, leveraging environmental conditions like increased temperatures, particularly above 20°C during late summer and early autumn, which supports its growth (**Kurmayer et al., 2004; Kokociński et al., 2010**). While many eukaryotic taxa show reduced growth rates at temperatures exceeding 20°C, cyanobacterial species, including *Microcystis aeruginosa* and *Planktothrix agardhii*, continue to proliferate (**Paerl & Huisman, 2009**). Both *Planktothrix* and *Microcystis* have adapted buoyancy-regulating mechanisms through intracellular gas vacuoles, allowing them to optimize their vertical positioning in the water column for light absorption during the day and nutrient uptake at night (**Dokulil & Teubner, 2000**). Their ability to store nutrients and thrive in low-light conditions enables *Planktothrix* to compete effectively with *Microcystis*, further reinforcing their positive correlation. Factors such as calm water conditions, which reduce mixing, alongside nutrient enrichment, contribute to their high chlorophyll-a correlations (**Namsaraev et al., 2018**).

Nixdorf *et al.* (2003) classified *Planktothrix* within the S1 functional group of photos- adapting filamentous cyanobacteria, which are prevalent in shallow, wind-exposed lakes characterized by significant sediment-water interactions and low light conditions. During the summer and autumn months, *Microcystis* and *Planktothrix* have

been identified as the primary producers of harmful algal blooms in the Mediterranean water bodies (Carrasco *et al.*, 2006).

The Anabaena group, which includes the genus Dolichospermum, is notable for its wide morphological variability and ecological success, evidenced by its extensive occurrence. Key adaptations such as gas vesicles, heterocysts, and akinetes enable Dolichospermum to access nutrients and light, regulate buoyancy in the water column, and fix atmospheric nitrogen. Although these adaptations provide advantages, Dolichospermum blooms primarily occur in eutrophic ecosystems (Pearl et al., 2014). Environmental factors influencing the development of akinetes can be categorized into three main areas: nutrients, light, and temperature. Our findings reveal significant correlations between Dolichospermum and nutrients (specifically NO2) as well as environmental factors like transparency and conductivity, suggesting these elements play a crucial role in its dominance.

Eutrophication and climate change have led to an increase in the frequency and intensity of *Dolichospermum* blooms, which now persist longer and dominate more spatially (**Cirés** *et al.*, **2016**). These blooms have been associated with various external environmental factors that promote their proliferation across different water bodies (**Li** *et al.*, **2016**). As conditions such as nutrient enrichment and temperature fluctuations become more prevalent due to these changes, *Dolichospermum* has adapted to thrive, further exacerbating the impacts of harmful algal blooms in aquatic ecosystems.

Zhang *et al.* (2016) identified temperature as a key factor influencing the seasonality of cyanobacteria, noting that *Microcystis* dominates at higher mean temperatures (20-34°C) compared to *Aphanizomenon*, which thrives at lower temperatures (13-25°C). In Oubeira Lake, *Aphanizomenon* was more abundant at temperatures below 20°C during autumn and winter. Eco-physiological studies indicate that only *A. gracile* and *A. flos-aquae* can grow at or below 10°C (**Akcaalan** *et al.*, 2014), with *A. flos-aquae* showing a competitive advantage over *Microcystis* at temperatures below 15°C (**Wu** *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, some species within this genus have been observed to bloom in response to conductivity levels starting from 500µS/ cm (**Cirés** *et al.*, 2016).

According to **Srichomphu** *et al.* (2024), the densities of *Cylindrospermopsis* are closely linked to nitrogen dynamics, with organic nitrogen, including ammonium, being assimilated and converted into inorganic nutrients. A significant correlation was found between *Cylindrospermopsis* and total nitrogen as well as ammonium levels. In Lake Oubeira, high densities of *Cylindrospermopsis* were observed during autumn when temperatures were elevated. This genus tends to thrive during dry periods with low rainfall (Chellappa & Costa, 2003) and high temperatures (Bouvy *et al.*, 2006). The combination of dry conditions and prolonged water retention leads to higher temperatures and extended light exposure, creating favorable conditions for the dominance of *C. raciborskii* (Bouvy *et al.*, 2000).

Various genera of cyanobacteria, including *Microcystis*, *Planktothrix*, *Aphanizomenon*, *Cylindrospermum*, *Dolichospermum* and *Pseudanabaena*, are known to produce microcystins. Indeed, the first five genera showed significant correlations with microcystin concentrations in Lake Oubeira. Microcystins (MCs), a family of cyclic hepatotoxins, present serious health risks to mammals when ingested (Carmichael, 1994; Chorus & Bartram, 1999). Although most studies report total MC concentrations, few have examined the distribution of specific MC congeners in different lakes (Monchamp *et al.*, 2014).

Toxins production is generally correlated positively with cell growth rates (**Briand** *et al.*, **2005**). Consequently, the significant microcystin production observed during the summer and autumn seasons can be attributed to the high densities of cyanobacteria recorded during this period. This correlation is further supported by a strong positive relationship between microcystin concentrations and chlorophyll-a levels, as well as with *Microcystis* and *Planktothrix*, and a significant correlation with *Dolichospermum*.

Monitoring of 30 shallow subtropical lakes in China revealed a significant correlation between microcystin levels and chlorophyll-a, as well as cyanobacterial biomass (**Wu** *et al.*, **2006**). Other studies indicate that microcystin concentrations are expected to rise under eutrophic conditions, particularly with elevated nitrogen levels, turbidity, and cyanobacterial biomass (**Taranu** *et al.*, **2017**). Consequently, higher biomass of suspected microcystin-producing cyanobacteria typically results in increased total microcystin content (**Van de Waal** *et al.*, **2009**).

Nitrogen and phosphorus are critical nutritional drivers for cyanobacterial growth, significantly influencing the formation of toxic blooms (**Sarkar** *et al.*, **2021**). While phosphorus (P) is often viewed as the primary factor driving cyanobacterial biomass, nitrogen (N) availability and its various forms can also impact the overall toxicity of these blooms (**Wagner** *et al.*, **2021**). In our study, we observed a strong positive correlation between total microcystins (MCs, expressed as MC-LR equivalents) and nitrogen compounds such as NO₃ and NH₄⁺, along with a significant correlation between MCs and NO₂.

Researches indicate that cyanobacteria, particularly *Microcystis*, demonstrate a competitive advantage over other algal species when utilizing reduced forms of nitrogen, such as ammonium (NH4+) and urea (**McCarthy** *et al.*, 2009). The speciation of nitrogen significantly affects cyanobacterial growth, persistence, and the production of the hepatotoxin microcystin (**Krausfeldt** *et al.*, 2020). This suggests that the availability of different nitrogen sources can influence not only the growth dynamics of cyanobacteria but also their potential to produce harmful toxins in aquatic environments.

In many eutrophic systems, microcystin (MC) concentrations increase more frequently in response to high levels of nitrogen than phosphorus (**Davis** *et al.*, **2015**). Studies showed that high levels of inorganic nitrogen are required to synthesize nitrogenrich microcystins, with an increase in exogenous inorganic nitrogen promoting higher cellular quotas of these toxins in non-diazotrophic species such as *Microcystis* and *Planktothrix* (Lee *et al.*, 2000; Van de Waal *et al.*, 2010; Harke & Gobler, 2013). In addition, field studies postulated that the addition of ammonium (NH⁴⁺) compared to nitrate (NO³⁻) resulted in higher MC concentrations and prolonged bloom persistence (Donald *et al.*, 2011). In addition, total MC levels were negatively correlated with water transparency, reflecting cyanobacterial growth rates in the water column.

Researches elucidated that toxic cyanobacterial genotypes often possess a competitive advantage over their non-toxic counterparts, particularly in bloom events linked to toxin production. Genera such as *Microcystis*, *Oscillatoria*, *Planktothrix*, *Dolichospermum*, *Cylindrospermopsis*, and *Nostoc* are primarily associated with these harmful algal blooms (Claudia & Jesus, 2023). Additionally, Teneva *et al.* (2009) highlight the potential threat posed by species within the genus *Pseudanabaena*, which are known to produce both neurotoxins and hepatotoxins.

CONCLUSION

Lake Oubeira exhibits high chlorophyll-a levels and low transparency, indicating a hyper-eutrophic state. Its shallow depth contributes to frequent sediment disturbance caused by wildlife and wind action, which releases nutrients into the water, significantly increasing internal nutrient loading and eutrophication. Strong correlations between lake trophic status, cyanobacterial abundance and microcystin (MC) levels were found. MC correlates positively with chlorophyll-a and several cyanobacterial genera, including *Microcystis, Planktothrix, Dolichospermum, Cylindrospermum* and *Pseudanabaena*. In addition, MCs were positively correlated with nitrate, ammonium and nitrite levels. The lake regularly harbors potentially toxic cyanobacteria all year round, whatever the season. To protect lake users, continuous monitoring is essential, focusing on the identification and quantification of cyanobacteria and cyanotoxins, while paying attention to seasonal variations. The current state of Lake Oubeira highlights the urgent need for effective management strategies to resolve these water quality problems and restore balance to this unique ecosystem.

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