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The sensitivity of cyanobacteria to multiple stressors varies with lake type.

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- 25
- 26

27 Abstract

Blooms of cyanobacteria are a current threat to global water security that is expected to increase 28 29 in the future because of increasing nutrient enrichment and temperature and prolonged drought. However, the responses to multiple stressors, such as those above, are often complex and there 30 is contradictory evidence as to how they may interact. Here we used broad scale data from 494 31 32 lakes in central and northern Europe, to assess how cyanobacteria respond to nutrients (phosphorus), temperature and water retention time in different types of lakes. Eight lake types 33 were examined based on combinations of major factors that determine phytoplankton 34 composition and sensitivity to nutrients: alkalinity (low and medium-high), colour (clear and 35 humic) and mixing intensity (polymictic and stratified). In line with expectations, 36 cyanobacteria increased with temperature and retention time in five of the eight lake types. 37 However, the sensitivity of cyanobacteria to temperature, retention time and phosphorus 38 differed among types highlighting the complex response of lakes to multiple stressors. The 39 40 analyses suggested that lake types currently not at risk could be affected by warming in the future, since temperature effects were greatest in lakes at higher latitudes. More work is needed 41 to separate geographical from typological effects in order to provide advice for managers. It 42 is already clear that climate change will need to be accounted for when managing risk of 43 cyanobacteria in lakes and a 'one-size fits-all' approach is not appropriate. Our analysis shows 44 that our understanding is greatly improved by considering how multiple stressors interact in a 45 range of different lake types and that this approach could help better predict responses to future 46 nutrient and climate changes. 47

49 Introduction

Blooms of cyanobacteria are becoming an increasing threat to global water security. Through 50 anthropogenic activities we are not only enhancing but also combining some of the optimal 51 conditions for the dominance of cyanobacteria. At the local scale, and despite remediation 52 efforts, nutrient enrichment is hardly abating (Oliver et al., 2017) as human populations grow 53 and become more urbanised, requiring intensive agriculture to expand, while internal cycling 54 55 of nutrients within lakes occurs as a legacy of past activities (Nürnberg, 2009). At a global scale, and at the forefront of this paper, is the issue of climate change. In part, the recent rise 56 in cyanobacteria has been attributed to climate warming (Kosten et al., 2012, Paerl & Huisman, 57 58 2008). Increases in water temperature (O'Reilly et al., 2015) alongside increases in the duration and strength of thermal stratification (Wagner & Adrian, 2009) create optimal conditions for 59 the physiological and functional traits of many cyanobacteria taxa such as higher temperature 60 growth optima and the ability to regulate buoyancy (Carey et al., 2012). In combination with 61 high nutrient concentrations, it is feared that warming will result in the accelerated deterioration 62 63 of water quality (Jeppesen et al., 2009, Moss et al., 2011, Paerl & Huisman, 2008). This synergism is widely discussed as an important risk factor, however the evidence so far suggests 64 that this will not be a generalisable response; others have found that the effect of temperature 65 is dependent on other environmental factors such as trophic setting (Rigosi et al., 2014) or by 66 the mixing state of the lake (Taranu et al., 2012). 67

Climate change also affects rainfall patterns (Milly *et al.*, 2005). Extreme rainfall
events followed by prolonged periods of drought are expected to favour cyanobacteria because
of the combined effects of elevated nutrients and stable physical conditions (Paerl & Huisman,
2008). Although, the benefits to cyanobacteria may depend on the frequency, duration,

seasonal timing and intensity of rainfall events as well as other factors such as catchment land 72 use and the ratio of catchment area to lake surface area (James et al., 2008, Padisák et al., 1988, 73 Reichwaldt & Ghadouani, 2012). Studies exploring the effect of changes in flow on the 74 abundance of cyanobacteria in combination with other anthropogenic stressors are limited, yet 75 flow dynamics as a driver of the abundance, composition and succession of phytoplankton 76 communities is well documented (e.g. Søballe & Kimmel, 1987, Tolotti et al., 2010). In order 77 78 to understand fully the effects of climate change on water quality in lakes, climate change effects other than that of incremental changes in temperature need to be incorporated. Although 79 80 more challenging, the effects of extreme rainfall events, heatwave events and prolonged periods of drought need to be understood and quantified in combination with anthropogenic 81 nutrient enrichment (Michalak, 2016). 82

The evidence so far indicates that the response of cyanobacteria to multiple 83 anthropogenic stress may not be generalisable i.e. that a "one-size fits-all" approach is not 84 appropriate across all lakes (e.g. Taranu et al., 2012). This is not surprising given that 85 phytoplankton have varying sensitivities and tolerances to their physical and chemical 86 environment (Reynolds et al., 2002) and so many other factors, aside from temperature, 87 nutrients and flushing rates, are involved in shaping phytoplankton biomass and community 88 structure. Previous analyses have examined the effect of lake type on the sensitivity of 89 90 cyanobacteria to nutrients and temperature in combination, focusing on the effect of trophic type (Rigosi et al., 2014), mixing type (Taranu et al., 2012) and depth x artificial vs natural 91 lakes (Beaulieu et al., 2013). While they all highlight the importance of environmental context, 92 they exclude other key environmental factors that shape community composition; for example, 93 alkalinity (Carvalho et al., 2011, Maileht et al., 2013, Ptacnik et al., 2008), pH (Beaulieu et al., 94

2013, Kosten *et al.*, 2012) and colour (Maileht *et al.*, 2013, Ptacnik *et al.*, 2008). Thus, when
exploring how lake type might influence the response of cyanobacteria to multiple stressors
such as eutrophication, climatic warming and changing rainfall patterns, including more types
is necessary in order to provide robust information for the effective management of lakes.

Here, we took advantage of existing broad scale data from 494 natural European lakes 99 to test whether eutrophication (phosphorus), temperature, and prolonged periods of drought 100 (retention time) interact to exacerbate the problem of cyanobacteria. We modelled the response 101 of chlorophyll-*a* concentration, as a proxy for total phytoplankton biomass, and cyanobacteria 102 biovolume in eight different lake types which were defined by combinations of alkalinity (low 103 and medium-high alkalinity), colour (clear and humic) and mixing types (polymictic and 104 stratified). These types broadly match the common lake typologies which have been agreed 105 across >25 European countries as part of the European Water Framework Directive (WFD, 106 http://ec.europa.eu/environment/water/water-framework/) in recognition of the differential 107 108 sensitivity of lakes of different types to environmental stressors. We hypothesised that elevated temperatures and increased retention time would have a greater positive effect on cyanobacteria 109 than on total phytoplankton, and that their effect would be in synergy with phosphorus. We 110 further hypothesised the sensitivity of these response variables to the interactions between 111 multiple stressors would vary among lake types. 112

114 Methods

115 <u>Data</u>

116 *i.* Biological and chemical data

Data on cyanobacteria biovolume (mm³ L⁻¹), chlorophyll-a concentration ($\mu g L^{-1}$), total 117 phosphorus concentration ($\mu g L^{-1}$) and lake type variables - altitude, depth, surface area, mixing 118 status, humic content and alkalinity - were extracted from the WISER database (Moe et al., 119 2013) and supplemented by additional datasets. Total phosphorus was used as measure of 120 nutrient enrichment as it is a robust indicator of eutrophication in freshwater systems (Howarth 121 & Marino, 2006) and was also available for all lakes (whereas total nitrogen was not). 122 Chlorophyll-a was used as a proxy for total phytoplankton abundance as this is the most 123 widespread global measure of ecosystem quality used in lake management (OECD, 1982); 124 chlorophyll-a and total phytoplankton biovolume were strongly positively correlated (R^2 = 125 0.64, *p* <0.001). Biological and phosphorus data were summarised as monthly means for July, 126 August and September; a period when cyanobacteria blooms are most reported in temperate, 127 northern latitudes and when biological sampling fortunately is also most intense, thereby 128 maximising data availability. Data were selected between 2000 and 2009 as sampling methods 129 from this period were most standardised. Each lake contributed a variable number of 130 observations; on average six monthly observations from different combinations of years (2000 131 -2009) and months (July-September), Table S1 summarises the number lake months for each 132 year, month combination. The hierarchical structure of the statistical models accounts for 133 differences in the number observation per lakes, through the random effect error term. 134

136 *ii.* Catchment data

Catchment data – delineations and percent (%) CORINE land cover – were extracted from the
MARS geodatabase (Globevnik *et al.*, 2017).

139 *iii.* Climate data

Historical air temperature and effective rainfall data were downloaded from the Agri4Cast Data 140 portal (Toreti, 2014) of the Joint Research Centre (JRC) which contains daily meteorological 141 142 parameters from weather stations interpolated on a 25 x 25 km grid. Each lake was matched to the JRC square which contained the coordinates of the lake's sampling point. Mean monthly 143 144 air temperature (°C) was used as a proxy for water temperature. For a subset of 299 lakes which had measurements of epilimnion temperature a significant linear relationship was found 145 between mean monthly air and mean monthly water temperature with a slope of 0.89 ± 0.02 146 (\mathbb{R}^2 of 0.59, p < 0.001). Monthly effective rainfall was summed over the area of the catchment 147 (catchment effective rainfall), correcting for the effect of different land cover types on 148 evapotranspiration rates using correction coefficients adapted from Mircea-Mărgărit (2015). 149 Catchment effective rainfall was then used as an estimate of the volume of water flowing into 150 and out of the lake. To validate this estimate of outflow, measured outflow from a subset of 151 46 lakes from Norway and the UK were compared to the outflow estimated from effective 152 rainfall. These countries were used as they had national datasets of flow gauge data for lake 153 outflows. A significant positive linear relationship was found between measured and estimated 154 outflow with a slope of 0.69 ± 0.02 (R² of 0.56, p < 0.001) and this was used to adjust the 155 outflow, estimated from the catchment effective rainfall. Lake volume was estimated by 156 multiplying the mean depth by the area of the lake. The monthly flushing rate of the lake was 157 estimated by dividing the adjusted outflow by the volume of the lake. The retention time, in 158

days, was calculated from the monthly flushing rate divided by 30 days in all cases. Retention time was used because the expected response of cyanobacteria to all explanatory variables were then in the same direction and because intuitively it is a better representation of prolonged periods of drought.

The lake types defined in this study are based on common European typology schemes: used 165 across all European countries in the European Water Framework Directive (WFD) (EC-JRC, 166 2014; Lyche Solheim et al., 2015). These lake types are based on geology, humic substances, 167 mixing type/depth, altitude, size and region (Mediterranean). Modification to these types were 168 made as some of the factors which define these types – altitude, depth and surface area – co-169 varied with the stressors (TP, temperature and retention time) and so their influence was 170 retained through these variables (Fig. S1). Note that any additional lakes without information 171 on these variables were then extracted from the WISER database (2 lakes). Alkalinity also 172 positively co-varied with TP (Fig. S1) but was retained as this relationship showed some non-173 linearity; in low alkalinity lakes the relationship was not seen yet in these lakes alkalinity and 174 cyanobacteria showed statistically significant positive co-variation ($R^2 = 0.17$, p < 0.0001) in 175 the lakes, supplementary material (Fig. S2 and S3), suggesting that alkalinity is an ecologically 176 177 relevant type variable to include. Furthermore, others (e.g. Carvalho et al., 2011) have found alkalinity to be an important predictor of cyanobacteria. 178

Lake types were defined by combining the broad European type levels for alkalinity, humic substances and mixing to give 18 lake types. These lake characteristics are central to the European typology schemes, and have been shown by others (Maileht *et al.*, 2013, Ptacnik *et al.*, 2008) to reflect ecologically meaningful characteristics that explain the distribution of phytoplankton and their response to eutrophication. Gower distance clustering (using the daisy function from the cluster package for R statistical software, Maechler *et al.* (2012)) confirmed that these lake types sufficiently explained variation in cyanobacteria (Fig. S4 and Fig. S5).

Although a large number of lakes were included in the dataset, imbalances in the data meant 186 that 18 types could not be adequately modelled, therefore we further modified these types by 187 combining ecologically similar levels of alkalinity and humic type. For alkalinity we retained 188 'low alkalinity' ($<0.2 \text{ mEq } \text{L}^{-1}$) as a distinct level, and medium and high alkalinity (>0.2 mEq189 L^{-1}) were combined into a new level – 'medium-high alkalinity'. For humic type we retained 190 'low humic' as a distinct level (colour <30 mg Pt L⁻¹), renaming the level as 'clear', and 191 medium, and high humic (colour > 30 mg Pt L^{-1}) were combined into a new level – 'humic'. 192 This merging of levels is consistent with the finding that bloom-forming cyanobacteria have a 193 194 preference for neutral-alkaline lakes (Carvalho et al., 2011, Maileht et al., 2013, Shapiro, 1984), and that cyanobacteria dominate more often in clear than in humic lakes (Ptacnik et al., 195 2008). Furthermore, clusters formed from the Gower distance analysis also show a tendency 196 for these levels to be grouped together (Fig. S6). The biovolume of cyanobacteria differed 197 statistically significantly between levels of each lake type variable (Fig. S7): alkalinity (low vs 198 med-high alkalinity, t = -22.5, df = 1574, p < 0.001); humic (clear vs humic, t = 7.78, df =199 1579.8, p < 0.001) and mixing type (stratified vs polymictic, t = -7.03, df = 600.97, p < 0.001). 200 All combinations of these new levels gave eight types, Fig. 1a shows the spatial distribution of 201 the 494 lakes by type. A plot of the Silhouette width, Fig. S4 (used to determine the number 202 of clusters) indicates that most of the differences between clusters are captured within 10 203 clusters and so reducing the clusters from 17 to 8 can be supported. Variation in cyanobacteria 204 205 biovolume was explained by the types (Table S3), although differences between polymictic and stratified lakes were less clear when humic type and alkalinity type were taken into account 206 (Fig. 1b, see also supporting information). The clearest difference in cyanobacteria biovolume 207

- 208 was seen between levels of alkalinity, both as a single lake type variable but also in combination
- with other lake type variables (Fig. 1 and Fig. S7).

		Phytoplankton p	arameters	Stressors		
Lake type	Number of lakes	Total cyanobacterial biovolume (mm ³ L ⁻¹)	Chlorophyll- <i>a</i> (µg L ⁻¹)	Mean monthly total phosphorus (µg L ⁻¹)	Mean monthly air temperature (°C)	Monthly retention time (days)
Polymictic						
low alkalinity, clear	3	0.005 ± 0.01 (0 - 0.02)	3.21 ± 1.8 (1.2 - 5.6)	9.6 ± 5.1 (4 - 15)	15.7 ± 1.9 (13.6 - 18.6)	21.7 ± 22.8 (7.6 - 61)
low alkalinity, humic	15	3.1 ± 17 (0 - 114)	10.1 ± 12.4 (1.2 - 61)	21.4 ± 17.5 (3.6 - 91)	14.6 ± 1.9 (9.1-18)	17.3 ± 29.6 (1.7 - 207.7)
med-high alkalinity, clear	89	7.9 ± 21 (0 - 224)	34 ± 33 (2 - 238)	50.1 ± 25.8 (10 - 100)	17 ± 2.9 (9.1 - 24.0)	48 ± 68.6 (0.2 - 339.7)
med-high alkalinity, humic	45	1.0 ± 2.0 (0 - 11)	$(1 - 120)^{2}$ 20.1 ± 22.1 (1 - 120)	35.8 ± 20.6 (2 - 98)	16.2 ± 2 (10.6 - 20)	32.9 ± 53.7 (0.6 - 351)
Stratified						
low alkalinity, clear	70	0.05 ± 0.3 (0 - 5.3)	3.3 ± 2.6 (0.2 - 21.5)	8.2 ± 4.9 (1 - 37.6)	14.0 ± 2.6 (6.6 - 19.9)	82.3 ± 86.6 (2.9 - 363.2)
low alkalinity, humic	70	0.17 ± 0.9 (0 - 12.1)	8 ± 11.8 (0.3 - 110.3)	14.5 ± 11.8 (2 - 97)	14.8 ± 2.4 (6.2 - 20.2)	63.3 ± 74.2 (1.8 - 359.9)
med-high alkalinity, clear	163	1.9 ± 3.7 (0 - 31)	16.5 ± 54 (0.7 - 1025)	31.7 ± 20.1 (2 - 99)	17.1 ± 2.7 (5.5 – 24)	83.0 ± 81.7 (2.5 - 360)
med-high alkalinity, humic	39	1.0 ± 2.6 (0 - 26)	16.0 ± 22.3 (1.4 - 185.8)	33.2 ± 28.3 (2 - 100)	15.6 ± 3.0 (5.3 - 20.6)	$82.5 \pm 96.6 \\ (3.6 - 356)$

Table 1. Response and explanatory variables included in the analysis. Means \pm standard deviations and minimum and maximum values in parentheses, are summarised by each lake type. Total number of lakes in the analysis was 494.



Fig. 1 Distribution of lake location (a) and cyanobacteria biovolume (b) by lake type. Lake types are combinations of: alkalinity, low (<0.2 mEq L-1) and med-high (>0.2 mEq L-1); humic content, clear (colour <30 mg Pt L-1) and humic (colour > 30 mg Pt L-1); and mixing type, stratified and polymictic. In (b) the shaded areas are for exceedance of low, 2 mm³ L⁻¹, (light grey) and medium, 10 mm³ L⁻¹, (dark grey) WHO (World Health Organisation) recommended threshold values for drinking and bathing (Chorus & Bartram, 1999). Cyanobacteria biovolume (mm³ L⁻¹) is log transformed and averaged for each individual lake. Letters (a, ab, bc and c) indicate significant differences (at p < 0.05) in mean

cyanobacteria between groupings of lake types, Tukeys test for multiple comparison following an
ANOVA (supplementary material). Note that observations of cyanobacteria biovolume in polymictic,
low, clear lakes are from three lakes only, this lake type is not subsequently modelled as there is
insufficient data for more complex multi variable modelling.

225 <u>Statistical analysis</u>

i. Relationships between variables

Prior to the analysis, relationships between variables were investigated using pairwise
 scatterplots, inspecting for co-variation between explanatory variables and also for potentially
 non – linear responses using LOESS regression (Cleveland & Devlin, 1988).

Experimental studies have shown that interactions can change along the stressor gradient when the response to single stressors are non-linear (Piggott *et al.*, 2015), therefore we chose to restrict the regression to the range of each stressor where the data were linearly related. This was only relevant for the response to TP in which no relationship was found at high concentrations. See '*exploratory analysis*' in the results section for more details.

We found that TP and retention time negatively co-varied (Fig. S1), this relationship was influenced by lakes with very long retention times i.e. greater than a year. To minimise potential issues with this co-variation confounding the response, as well as the potential of outliers skewing the response, we limited the data to lakes with monthly retention times of \leq 365 days (1 year). This selection reduced the co-variation between retention time and TP (Fig. S9) while still representing 90% of the data

241

243 *ii.* Lake type models

Linear mixed effects models were fitted using the lme4 package for R statistical software 244 (Bates et al., 2015) R, Version 3.4.1 (R Core Team (2017). To make distributions more 245 symmetric, and assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity for error terms appropriate, 246 cyanobacterial biovolume (mm³ L⁻¹), chlorophyll-a (μ g L⁻¹), retention time (days) and TP (μ g 247 L⁻¹) were ln-transformed. All stressor variables were then standardised (mean centred and 248 divided by the standard deviation) so that the size effect of single stressor effects (when no 249 interaction terms were present) could be compared within models. The potential interactive 250 251 effects of TP, temperature and retention time on the biovolume of cyanobacteria and the concentration of chlorophyll-a were modelled in each lake type separately (seven models for 252 cyanobacteria and seven models for chlorophyll-*a*). For each lake type the following model 253 was fitted: 254

255 *Lake type model e.g. polymictic, medium-high alkalinity, clear lakes*

256
$$\gamma = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{TP} + \beta_2 X_{Temp} + \beta_3 X_{Retention} + \beta_4 X_{TP \, x \, Temp} + \beta_5 X_{TP \, x \, Retention} +$$
257
$$\beta_6 X_{Temp \, x \, Retention} + \beta_7 X_{TP \, x \, Temp \, x \, Retention} +$$
258
$$\delta_{lakeID} + \varepsilon, \quad \gamma \sim (0, \sigma_l^2), \quad \varepsilon \sim (0, \sigma_r^2)$$

259

where γ is the log response of interest (cyanobacteria biovolume, mm³ L⁻¹ and chlorophyll-*a*, µg L⁻¹), β_0 is the intercept term, β_1 , β_2 , and β_3 are model parameters for the TP term, temperature term and retention time term, respectively. The model parameters for the interactions are β_4 (TP and temperature), β_5 (TP and retention time), β_6 (temperature and retention time) and β_7 (TP, temperature and retention time). δ is the random effect term for lake ID which allows the response to vary on the intercept for individual lakes and ε is the overall error term, both with 266 a mean of zero and unknown variance. Initially, year and month were also incorporated into the model as random terms to account for sampling within lakes over multiple months and 267 years but this did not explain additional variance so were removed from the final models for 268 parsimony. This model was then simplified by removing higher order interaction terms in turn, 269 comparing simplified and more complex models using AIC and BIC, favouring simpler models 270 when retaining more complex terms did not improve the model. Degrees of freedom and p271 values were approximated using the ImerTest package (Kuznetsova et al., 2015). The variance 272 explained by the model is reported as marginal R² which describes the proportion of variance 273 explained by the fixed factor(s) alone and conditional R² which describes the proportion of 274 variance explained by both the fixed and random factors (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013). 275

276

278 **Results**

279 *Exploratory analysis*

280 Of the 572 lakes initially identified as being suitable for analysis i.e. lakes with complementary biological, climatic and typology data, 78 had mean monthly TP concentrations which 281 exceeded 100 μ g L⁻¹ and therefore were omitted from the multiple stressor analysis as at high 282 concentrations, TP explained little additional variance in the biovolume of cyanobacteria (Fig. 283 S10). Piecewise regression analysis (Muggeo, 2008) of the data (n = 2900) identified a break 284 point of 4.1 natural log TP, or 60 μ g L⁻¹ (standard error = 0.16, R² = 0.29). However, to avoid 285 potential biases of the dataset and to limit the number of lakes removed from the analysis we 286 restricted regression to data where TP $\leq 100 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$, which is also a more typical turning point 287 identified in the literature for the widely reported asymptotic behaviours of chlorophyll-a and 288 cyanobacteria to TP (Carvalho et al., 2013, McCauley et al., 1989, Phillips et al., 2008, Watson 289 et al., 1992). The biovolume of cyanobacteria in these lakes was on average higher (mean 9.3 290 mm³ L⁻¹) than in lakes with TP concentrations below 100 μ g L⁻¹ (mean 1.9 mm³ L⁻¹); t = -4.1, 291 df = 277.9, *p* < 0.001. 292

In the 494 lakes analysed for the interactive effects of phosphorus, temperature and retention time, the mean monthly biovolume of cyanobacteria ranged from 0 to 225 mm³ L⁻¹, while chlorophyll-*a* ranged from 0.2 - 1025 μ g L⁻¹. 23% of these lakes had an average cyanobacteria biovolume that exceed the WHO low risk threshold of 2 mm³ L⁻¹ (Chorus & Bartram, 1999). These lakes were predominantly located in central Europe while lakes with lower cyanobacteria biovolume were located in northern regions (Fig. S11). This spatial distribution of cyanobacterial abundance followed a pattern of decreasing temperature and decreasing TP concentrations with increasing latitude ($R^2 = 0.20$, p < 0.001 and $R^2 = 0.28$, p<0.001 respectively). Latitudinal patterns in TP concentrations also corresponded to a decrease in percentage arable land and an increase in percentage forest in the catchment with increasing latitude (Fig. S12).

304 Multiple nutrient and climate effects on the abundance of cyanobacteria and phytoplankton

Climate and phosphorus relationships varied across the different lake types and the responseof cyanobacteria and chlorophyll-*a* differed (Table 2, Fig. 5).



Fig. 2 Model summaries highlighting climate effects (temperature and retention time) for the response of (a) cyanobacteria and (b) chlorophyll-*a*. Each lake (point) is coloured according to statistically significant climate effects estimated for lake type to which the lake belongs. Warmer colours represent positive climate effects, cooler colours represent either no climate effect or a negative climate effect (only applicable for retention time in chlorophyll-*a* models). n/a are polymictic, low alkalinity, clear lakes (n = 3) which had insufficient data for analysis. See Fig. 1 for the spatial distribution of lake types.

307 We found that temperature and retention time had a stronger effect for cyanobacteria than for chlorophyll-a (Table 2, Fig. 2), being always positive for cyanobacteria, while we found 308 negative retention time effects for chlorophyll-a in two of the lake types: polymictic, medium-309 high alkalinity, clear lakes and stratified, medium-high alkalinity, clear lakes (Fig. S13). Total 310 phosphorus was a significant predictor of chlorophyll-a in all lake types, while this was not the 311 312 case for cyanobacteria: in some lake types retention time and temperature were identified as better explanatory variables. Statistically significant effects of temperature showed a spatial 313 pattern, with most temperature effects (independent effects and synergistic interactions with 314 phosphorus) in lakes at Northern latitudes (> 55° N). The temperature gradient above this 315 latitude ranged from 5.3 – 20.4 °C (mean 14.8 °C) while the gradient below this latitude ranged 316 from 11.5 – 24 °C (mean of 17.7 °C). 317

318

319

There were synergistic interactions between temperature and TP in some lake types. 321 However, unexpectedly, this interaction was not restricted to the response of cyanobacteria: in 322 polymictic humic lakes, warming exacerbated the effect of TP on both the biovolume of 323 cyanobacteria and chlorophyll-a concentration (Table 2, models 2 a, b and models 4 a, b; Fig. 324 S14). A statistically significant positive interaction was also found in stratified, medium-high 325 alkalinity, humic lakes but this was only significant for the response of chlorophyll-a and much 326 smaller in size effect than the interactions found in polymictic, humic lakes (Table 2, model 327 8b). We did not find statistically significant evidence of interactive effects between retention 328 329 time and phosphorus, nor between retention time and temperature, in any of the lake types for either response. 330

Table 2. Linear regression mixed effect models explaining cyanobacteria biovolume and chlorophyll-*a* concentration. The models explain cyanobacterial biovolume (natural log, mm³ L⁻¹) and chlorophyll-*a* concentration (natural log, μ g L⁻¹) in different lake types and result from backward stepwise selection, starting with a model with full interactions between the independent variables: mean monthly total phosphorus (TP, μ g L⁻¹), mean monthly air temperature (°C) and monthly retention time (days). TP and retention time are log transformed and all explanatory variables are standardised (mean centred and divided by the standard deviation) for comparability. Lakes are split into polymictic and stratified lakes (average conditions) and within each mixing regime into a further four types defined by combinations of alkalinity (low, med-high) and colour (clear, humic). Each model has an additional error term which accounts for differences between individual lakes, after accounting for the fixed effects, this is the random intercept term. The variance explained by the models is presented as marginal R² which describes the proportion of variance explained by the fixed factor(s) alone and conditional R² which describes the proportion of variance explained by both the fixed and random factors. The significance level is denoted as ****p* < 0.001; **p* < 0.01; **p* < 0.01

			Model coefficient	s (standard error)		\mathbb{R}^2		
Model	Lakes	Lake Type	TP	Temp	Retention	TP x Temp	Marginal	Conditional
	Cyanoba	acteria						
1a	3	polymictic, low Alk., clear	Insufficient data					
2a	15	polymictic, low Alk., humic	1.25 (0.65)	1.15 (0.58)		1.71 (0.73)*	0.07	0.77
3a	89	polymictic med-high Alk., clear			0.74 (0.27)**		0.05	0.69
4a	45	polymictic med-high Alk., humic	-0.05 (0.54)	-0.22 (0.61)	0.78 (0.34)*	1.82 (0.73)*	0.16	0.61
5a	70	stratified, low Alk., clear	0.54 (0.25)*	0.49 (0.16)**			0.05	0.63
6a	70	stratified, low Alk., humic		0.29 (0.12)*	0.41 (0.19)*		0.03	0.61
7a	163	stratified, med-high Alk., clear	0.77 (0.23)***				0.03	0.54
8a	39	stratified, med-high Alk., humic					0.00	0.80
	Chlorop	hyll-a						
1b	3	polymictic, low Alk., clear	Insufficient data					
2b	15	polymictic, low Alk., humic	0.61 (0.17)***	0.45 (0.16)**		0.84 (0.20)***	0.28	0.61
3b	89	polymictic med-high Alk., clear	0.70 (0.10)***		-0.15 (0.06)*		0.21	0.78
4b	45	polymictic med-high Alk., humic	0.32 (0.16)*	-0.71 (0.19)***	0.30 (0.09)**	1.03 (0.22)***	0.43	0.55
5b	70	stratified, low Alk., clear	0.31 (0.07)***				0.09	0.58
6b	70	stratified, low Alk., humic	0.35 (0.07)***				0.09	0.67

7b	163	stratified, med-high Alk., clear	0.65 (0.07)***		-0.19 (0.06)**		0.29	0.63
8b	39	stratified, med-high Alk., humic	0.51 (0.08)***	0.03 (0.04)		0.08 (0.04)*	0.35	0.81

The fixed effects of the regression models for chlorophyll-a concentration explained more 333 variance than regression models for cyanobacteria biovolume (marginal R², i.e. the proportion 334 of variance explained by the fixed factor(s) alone, Table 2; Fig. 3a). The percentage of 335 cyanobacteria biovolume explained by TP concentration and climate effects (temperature and 336 retention time) was less than 7% in all lake types, with the exception of polymictic, medium-337 high alkalinity, humic lakes in which 16% of variance was explained. The variance of 338 chlorophyll-a explained by stressors ranged between 9 - 43%, with most models explaining 339 over 20% of the variance (Fig. 3a). 340



Fig. 3 Marginal and conditional variance explained by the models. (a) Boxplot of conditional R^2 (blue) and marginal R^2 (green) from all lake type models (n = 7 lake types) for chlorophyll-*a* and cyanobacteria responses. (b) Random effect plot of the response of cyanobacteria to TP in polymictic, low alkalinity, humic lakes (while keeping temperature constant). The fixed response is shown by the bold black line, individual lake responses are shown by the orange lines (i.e. differences in the intercept).

341	Although significant stressor relationships were detected, the natural variability between lakes
342	was much larger. As an example, Fig. 4b shows that despite the interaction between TP and
343	temperature being the same in all polymictic, low alkalinity humic lakes for any given TP -
344	temperature combination, the average biovolume of cyanobacteria varied among individual
345	lakes. The variance in the random intercept for each lake within each type is shown in Fig.
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355	25

356 **Discussion**

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358 The sensitivity of cyanobacteria to multiple stressors varies with lake type

Our results are consistent with previous work which suggests that the response of cyanobacteria 359 to environmental change will be shaped by other environmental factors (Beaulieu et al., 2013, 360 Haakonsson et al., 2017, Rigosi et al., 2014, Taranu et al., 2012). Unlike these studies, which 361 362 mainly focused on one lake type factor, we combined a wider set of lake type variables that are also likely to shape community composition. We found that the sensitivity of cyanobacteria to 363 temperature, retention time and phosphorus varied between lake types, suggesting that these 364 365 additional lake typology factors are important in shaping the response of cyanobacteria to environmental change and could help better predict responses to future nutrient and climate 366 changes. This is not surprising as the abundance of cyanobacteria is not just affected by factors 367 368 that affect the amount of phytoplankton such as phosphorus, temperature and retention time but also by factors that shape community composition such as alkalinity, colour and mixing 369 370 depth (Lenard & Ejankowski, 2017, Maileht et al., 2013, Ptacnik et al., 2008). Our results corroborate other studies that show the importance of allowing for interactions between 371 multiple lake type factors; for example, interactions between mixing regime and colour 372 (Havens & Nürnberg, 2004), alkalinity and colour (Ptacnik et al., 2008), depth and alkalinity 373 (Phillips et al., 2008) have been shown to shape phytoplankton nutrient relationships. 374 Comparison of the sensitivity of chlorophyll-a and cyanobacteria to the effects of phosphorus, 375 temperature and retention time among lake types suggests that chlorophyll-a may be less 376 influenced by type (the response was similar between some lake types). This is consistent with 377 Phillips et al. (2008) who found that nutrient chlorophyll-a relationships could be grouped into 378

fewer groups than the eighteen WFD types that they tested, reducing the number of types to three. Our results suggest that more detailed groupings of lake types may be required to capture sensitivities of a community structure response, whereas chlorophyll-*a*, as a proxy for total biomass, appears to be less influenced by these finer details.

Colour as an additional lake type factor is an important inclusion, not only because 383 changes in colour can strongly alter phytoplankton biomass and community structure (e.g. 384 Lenard & Ejankowski, 2017) but also because humic substances have increased in lakes in past 385 decades (Monteith et al., 2007). It is interesting that synergistic effects of temperature and 386 phosphorus were only detected in humic lakes (polymictic, humic types for cyanobacteria and 387 chlorophyll-*a* as well as stratified, medium-high alkalinity and humic type for chlorophyll-*a*). 388 The abundance of cyanobacteria is most often associated with clear lakes (data presented here, 389 and e.g. Carvalho et al., 2011 and Ptacnik et al., 2008), consequently humic lakes are currently 390 the least at risk (do not exceed WHO thresholds, Fig. S11), yet this interaction indicates that 391 392 the deterioration of water quality may be accelerated in these lake types. This synergism could be caused by enhanced heat absorption in the lake surface caused by humic substances, a 393 process that also increases thermal stratification (Kirillin & Shatwell, 2016). It should be 394 stressed that these relationships are for the levels of humic substances derived from the WFD 395 European lake types derived from the WFD European lake types, but it should be noted that 396 397 many studies have demonstrated non-linear effects of colour on total biomass (Seekell et al., 2015) and cyanobacteria/composition (Carvalho et al., 2011, Rasconi et al., 2015, Urrutia-398 Cordero et al., 2016), adding further complexity. Nevertheless, our results show the 399 importance of colour as a lake type factor and emphasises that other environmental factors may 400 alter our expectations of multiple stressor interactions. 401

There is a risk that co-variation between environmental factors may lead to incorrect 402 attribution of the processes behind a relationship. In particular, the striking spatial pattern of 403 statistically significant temperature effects on cyanobacteria and chlorophyll-a in lakes at more 404 northern latitudes coincides with the distribution of polymictic humic lakes (in which 405 interactive temperature effects were found for both cyanobacteria and chlorophyll-a). The 406 responses to changes in temperature have been shown to be greatest at lower latitudes because 407 408 of larger shifts in metabolic rate which increases exponentially with temperature (Dillon et al., 2010, Kraemer et al., 2017). However, our results show a different picture with greatest effects, 409 410 particularly for cyanobacteria biovolume, at higher latitudes, which suggests that this is a sensitive part of the temperature gradient for cyanobacteria (ref), or that other latitudinal effects 411 such as longer summer photoperiod at higher latitudes (Nicklisch et al., 2008) or the effect of 412 lake type may enhance the temperature effect. Another potential issue is the co-variation 413 between alkalinity and TP. This co-variation is seen because many medium- high alkalinity 414 lakes are located in central regions where the percentage arable land in the catchment and TP 415 concentrations are higher. At higher latitudes, in contrast, there were a larger number of humic, 416 low alkalinity lakes reflecting the tendency for acidic, humic and forested catchments in Fenno-417 Scandian areas (Maileht et al., 2013), in which TP concentrations were lower. Nevertheless, 418 although average differences in the abundance of cyanobacteria among types may be attributed 419 to average differences in TP (Fig. 1b and Fig. S16), most lakes types were modelled over 420 421 similar TP gradients, and so differences between lake type models are likely caused by other factors. The use of alkalinity as a type factor is both supported in the literature (e.g. Carvalho 422 et al., 2011, Phillips et al., 2008 and Ptacnik et al., 2008) but also from an exploratory analysis 423

of the relationships between alkalinity, cyanobacteria and TP in low *vs* medium-high alkalinity
lakes (supporting information).

Although we found statistically significant stressor relationships within lake types, in 426 many cases the variation these explained was low and the natural variability among lakes 427 within a lake type was much larger than the variance explained by the stressor effects. 428 Phosphorus, temperature and retention time are important drivers, but they are not the only 429 factors which influence phytoplankton biomass. Potential sources of variability can occur 430 because of measurement error or missing covariate information e.g. other limiting nutrients 431 (e.g. TN, (Dolman et al., 2012, Downing et al., 2001) grazer densities (Jeppesen et al., 2000), 432 competition with macrophytes (Phillips, 2005), light climate (Mischke, 2003) and past events 433 such as remediation and associated hysteresis (França et al., 2016, Scheffer, 1998). 434 Furthermore, the use of lake types as categorical variables may have reduced their explanatory 435 power. In the future, it might be possible to incorporate sampling event-specific values that 436 437 might also take account of within-year variation as can occur for the presence and duration of stratification (Huber et al., 2012, Jöhnk et al., 2008, Wagner & Adrian, 2009), especially in 438 polymictic lakes (Taranu et al., 2012) but also for colour variation (Lenard & Ejankowski, 439 2017). Nevertheless, the use of lake types is an efficient means of simplifying statistical models 440 and of providing information for managers on types of lakes at risk of generating algal blooms. 441 It is possible that idiosyncratic responses to environmental change at the individual lake level 442 could arise from interactions with other chemical, physical and biological environmental 443 factors. A way to account for this would be to allow slopes of individual lakes to vary in the 444 model structure, but due to limited data points within a lake we were unable to do this; further 445 exploration using long-term datasets would be informative. 446

447 Implications for managing the risk of cyanobacteria in the future

The first take-home message for management is that the sensitivity of cyanobacteria to multiple 448 anthropogenic stressors, and consequently the risk of water quality issues, will not be the same 449 for all lakes. Thus, some lake types may require greater management intervention than others, 450 and lakes that are currently not at risk (i.e. do not exceed WHO guideline thresholds) may 451 452 develop problems in the future e.g. polymictic humic lakes. The broad typologies used are similarly adopted (e.g. Havens & Nürnberg, 2004), and relevant, outside of Europe although 453 some regions globally may have additional lake types that would need considering (e.g. 454 endorheic lakes in North America and Africa). The second take home message, and perhaps a 455 more generalisable outcome, is that our results suggest that in most lake types, management 456 will become increasingly necessary because of the additional effects of climate change 457 (temperature and retention time) on cyanobacterial abundance. As climate effects cannot be 458 locally controlled, this means that existing models detailing phosphorus targets needed to 459 460 minimise harmful algal blooms (Carvalho et al., 2013) may have to be revised to mitigate these effects (Jeppesen et al., 2009). We do not make any quantitative recommendations here but 461 indicate that this will be a likely management scenario for most lakes. It should be emphasised 462 that we make reference here to the effects and control of phosphorus as it is often considered 463 the limiting nutrient in lakes (Phillips et al., 2008, Schindler et al., 2008), however nitrogen 464 can also play a key role (Beaulieu et al., 2013, Conley et al., 2009, Maberly et al., 2002, Paerl 465 et al., 2016). Under projected climate scenarios, it is expected that there will be an increase in 466 nitrogen loading because of enhanced runoff in the north temperate region (Sinha et al., 2017), 467 the effects of which may also depend on ecosystem type. For example, shallow lakes are likely 468 often nitrogen limited during the summer (Dolman et al., 2016, Søndergaard et al., 2017) and 469

so enhanced loading could increase the carrying capacity in lakes with sufficient phosphorus.
Furthermore, an increase in nitrogen could trigger a shift from a macrophyte, clear water state
to a turbid phytoplankton dominated state (e.g. Olsen *et al.*, 2015).

It should be emphasised that this is a broad view of management at a lake type level; 473 the relationships that we present within lake types describe the generalised response for this 474 population of lakes. However, we found that the natural variability among lakes within a lake 475 type was much larger than the variance explained by the stressor effects. The implications of 476 this are that, for a given value of a stressor (or combination of stressors, depending on the 477 model), the abundance of cyanobacteria may vary considerably among lakes of the same type 478 (Fig. 3b). Thus, while these models can be used to assess potential risk across a population of 479 lakes (within a specific lake type), and inform where to prioritise monitoring for risk 480 management, they are not appropriate for decision-making at the individual lake level. 481 This view reflects the perspective which warns of copy and paste management methods for different 482 483 lakes (Lürling et al., 2016).

484 Final remarks

Our results indicate that the response of cyanobacteria to favourable future conditions of enhanced nutrient enrichment, elevated temperatures and prolonged periods of drought may not be the same in all lake types. While other studies have reached similar conclusions, here we provide evidence that these are not just limited to one type factor as has been explored before. We do not conclude that these are definitive 'end lake types', however we suggest that our ability to generalise and manage the response of cyanobacteria to multiple stress and future environmental change lies in defining the types of environment in which the risk/sensitivitydiffers.

493

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Supplementary material

2 Supplementary analyses

1

3 *Relationships between TP, alkalinity and cyanobacteria*

Lakes which had numerical alkalinity data were used to explore the relationship between TP,
alkalinity and cyanobacteria (number of observations = 1246, number of lakes = 271).

6 Pairwise plots of alkalinity, TP and cyanobacteria show that they are all positively related (Fig. 7 S1), although most paired relationships show some curvilinear tendency; quantification of 8 these relationships are presented as Pearson correlation coefficients, which assume a linear 9 relationship. It is possible that the relationships between cyanobacteria and alkalinity could be 10 because of the co-variation between TP and alkalinity, in which case there would be a case for 11 removing alkalinity from the types.

However, if we explore relationship between the same variables but split between the two alkalinity types (low and medium-high) used in typology (Fig. S2) we can provide support for the inclusion of alkalinity:

15	a)	The response of cyanobacteria to TP is steeper in medium-high alkalinity
16		lakes over a very similar gradient (Table S2). This suggests that the
17		response of cyanobacteria to TP may depend on alkalinity (Fig. S2a)
18	b)	In low alkalinity lakes there is no longer a relationship between TP and
19		alkalinity (r = 0.04, p value = >0.05), yet in both low and high alkalinity
20		lakes there's a positive relationship between cyanobacteria and alkalinity
21		(low alkalinity, $r = 0.43$, p value = <0.0001; medium-high alkalinity, $r =$
22		0.25, p value = <0.001). This provides further evidence that alkalinity
23		explains variation in cyanobacteria independent of TP and so should be
24		included to categorise lakes into types. Fig S2. b - c.

25

26 *Gower distance clustering*

Gower distance was calculated in R using the daisy function () from the cluster package with In cyanobacteria as the response and alkalinity (three levels: low, medium and high), humic substances (three levels: low, medium and high) and mixing type (two levels: polymictic and stratified) as the categorical variables for clustering the data. As a visual check, we returned

the most and least similar lakes. The two most similar lakes in term of cyanobacteria 31 biovolume were both low alkalinity, medium humic type and stratified, the two least similar 32 lakes were low alkalinity, medium humic and stratified vs medium alkalinity, low humic and 33 polymictic. This initial check satisfied a basic expectation that cyanobacteria can be explained 34 in part by combinations of these type variables, and that the most dissimilar values of 35 cyanobacteria were from distinct lake types. We used the PAM algorithm (partitioning around 36 medoids) for clustering and the silhouette width as the metric for helping to choose the number 37 of clusters to be extracted (this is an aggregated measure of how similar an observation is to its 38 39 own cluster compared to its closest neighbouring cluster, higher values are better). We calculated the silhouette width for clusters ranging from 2 to 30 using the PAM algorithm (Fig. 40 S3) which suggests 17 clusters. These 17 clusters are broadly consistent with clustering 41 cyanobacteria by a three way combination of alkalinity, humic and mixing types i.e. 18 types 42 (Fig. S4). Because of imbalances in the data the 18 types could not be adequately modelled, 43 therefore we further modified these types by combining ecologically similar levels of alkalinity 44 and humic type, see the manuscript methods, resulting in 8 types which are broadly consistent 45 with clustering the data by 8 groups using Gower based distance clustering (Fig. S5). 46

47 *Differences in cyanobacteria among lake types*

To test the differences in cyanobacteria biovolume among lake types, an ANOVA (Table S3) 48 was fit with the response of natural log cyanobacteria biovolume (mm³ L⁻¹) and a factor of 49 'type' (n=8) which was then followed up with a Tukey test for the differences between each 50 type (using the HSD.test function from the agricolae package in R). 51 As some lakes had 52 multiple data points, and thus violated the assumption of independence, one observation was 53 randomly selected per lake. This random selection of observations was done ten times and the results were compared (Fig. S6). Six of the random draws resulted in the same groupings (Fig. 54 55 S6 e-j), although there were some broad consistencies between these grouping and the groupings (Fig. S6 a-d) from the other four draws. In the paper we have presented the test 56 57 based on the average response to complement what is presented.

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62 Supplementary tables

		Month		
Year	July	August	September	Grand Total
2000	52	12	3	67
2001	23	58	11	92
2002	49	53	15	117
2003	19	56	14	89
2004	34	56	13	103
2005	32	83	21	136
2006	66	135	61	262
2007	104	153	75	332
2008	130	155	96	381
2009	3	2	3	8
Grand Total	512	763	312	1587

Table S1. Number of monthly lake sample data for each year – month combination

63

Table S2. Model summary for the linear relationship between cyanobacteria and TP in low and medium-high alkalinity lake. The intercept is for medium-high alkalinity lakes.

e :	1	e	2	
term	estimate	std.error	statistic	<i>p</i> value
(Intercept)	-8.051	0.514	-15.652	< 0.001
log(TP)	1.671	0.163	10.263	<0.001
AlkalinityType, low	0.560	0.630	0.889	0.374
log(TP):AlkalinityType, low	-0.762	0.226	-3.369	0.001

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65 ANOVA cyanobacteria by lakes type.

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Fig. S1 Pair-wise plots showing the relationships between stressors (TP, temperature and retention 71 72 time) and lake type variables (alkalinity, surface area, mean depth and altitude). The smooth red line 73 in the upper diagonal panels shows the lowess (locally-weighted polynomial regression) fit, the middle diagonal plot shows a histograms of the distribution of the data and the lower diagonal panels 74 75 shows the linear Pearson correlation coefficients - the size of the text is relative to the size of the correlation coefficient. Significance is at the 0.05 level is denoted by *, at the 0.01 level by ** and 76 <0.001 by ***. Relationships are for lakes in which TP was $\leq 100 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$. Where appropriate, 77 variables were log transformed to make the distributions more symmetric. 78



Fig. S2 Pair-wise plots showing the relationships between $\ln TP (\mu g L^{-1})$, $\ln Alkalinity (mEq L^{-1})$ and ln cyanobacteria (mm3 L⁻¹) (for 271 lakes, 1256 observations). The left horizontal panels show

82 Pearson correlation coefficients and the p value associated with this relationship: ***, <0.001.

83



Fig. S3 (a-c). Linear relationships between cyanobacteria, alkalinity and TP in low and medium-high
alkalinity lakes. In (c) alkalinity shows some overlap over low and medium-high alkalinity lakes as
the types are based on an average state whereas alkalinity is for a sampling date.



88

89 Fig. S4 Sillhoutte width for clusters ranging from 2-30 for the PAM algorithm which

90 suggests 17 clusters, based on the highest value being the best.

[[1]] Mixin P: 0 5:79	g Humiстуре H: 0 L:79 M: 0	AlkalinityType H: 0 L:79 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. :0.000000 Ist Qu.:0.003812 Median :0.012312 Mean :0.053455 3rd Qu.:0.031604 Max. :1.442616	cluster Min. :1 1st Qu.:1 Median :1 Mean :1 3rd Qu.:1 Max. :1	[[7]] Mixing P:10 S: 0	HumicType H: 0 L: 0 M:10	AlkalinityType H: O L: O M:10	cyano.mean Min. :0.04161 Ist Qu.:0.18112 Median :0.54259 Mean :1.40254 3rd Qu.:2.48000 Max. :4.79088	cluster Min. :7 1st qu.:7 Median :7 Brd qu.:7 Max. :7	[[12]] Mixing P:0 S:4	HumicType H:4 L:0 M:0	AlkalinityType H:0 L:0 M:4	Cyano.mean Min. :1.695 1st Qu.:1.891 Median :2.575 Mean :2.786 3rd Qu.:3.470 Max. :4.297	cluster Min. :12 Ist Qu.:12 Median :12 Mean :12 3rd Qu.:12 Max. :12
[[2]] Mixin P: 0 S:66	g HumiсТуре H: О L: О M:66	AlkalinityType H: 0 L:66 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. :0.00009 1st qu.:0.007131 Median :0.017376 Mean :0.142045 3rd qu.:0.037844 Max. :4.497726	cluster Min. :2 1st Qu.:2 Median :2 Mean :2 3rd Qu.:2 Max. :2	[[8]] Mixing P:12 S: O	HumiсТуре H: 0 L: 0 M:12	AlkalinityType H: 0 L:12 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. : 0.00000 1st Qu.: 0.00721 Median : 0.02221 Mean : 4.72715 3rd Qu.: 0.74205 Max. :38.06838	cluster Min. :8 Ist Qu.:8 Median :8 Mean :8 3rd Qu.:8 Max. :8	[[13]] Mixing P:84 5: 0	HumiсТуре Н: О L:84 M: О	AlkalinityType H:84 L: 0 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. : 0.0000 1st Qu.: 0.2931 Median : 2.2399 Mean : 7.6960 3rd Qu.: 5.9491 Max. :69.9017	cluster Min. :13 1st Qu.:13 Median :13 Mean :13 3rd Qu.:13 Max. :13
Mixin P:3 S:0	g Humiстуре H:0 L:3 M:0	AlkalinityType H:O L:3 M:O	cyano.mean Min. :0.000120 Ist Qu.:0.002410 Median :0.004701 Mean :0.005105 3rd Qu.:0.007598 Max. :0.010495	cluster Min. :3 1st Qu.:3 Median :3 Mean :3 3rd Qu.:3 Max. :3	[[9]] Mixing P:3 s:0	HumicType H:3 L:0 M:0	AlkalinityType H:O L:3 M:O	cyano.mean Min. :0.01174 Ist Qu.:0.16039 Median :0.30904 Mean :0.94112 3rd Qu.:1.40581 Max. :2.50258	cluster Min. :9 Ist Qu.:9 Median :9 Mean :9 3rd Qu.:9 Max. :9	[[14]] Mixing P: 0 S:11	HumicType H: O L: O M:11	AlkalinityType H:11 L: 0 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. :0.00000 1st Qu.:0.01855 Median :0.31065 Mean :2.18014 3rd Qu.:2.65223 Max. :9.45090	cluster Min. :14 1st Qu.:14 Median :14 Mean :14 3rd Qu.:14 Max. :14
Mixin P: 0 S:37	g Humiстуре H: 0 L:37 M: 0	AlkalinityType H: O L: O M:37	cyano.mean Min. :0.00000 1st Qu.:0.02105 Median :0.08358 Mean :0.97940 3rd Qu.:0.61437 Max. :8.05196	cluster Min. :4 1st Qu.:4 Median :4 Mean :4 3rd Qu.:4 Max. :4	[[10]] Mixing P:6 S:0	HumicType H:6 L:0 M:0	AlkalinityType H:0 L:0 M:6	cyano.mean Min. :0.001711 1st Qu.:0.023118 Median :0.079643 Mean :0.200607 3rd Qu.:0.185203	cluster Min. :10 1st Qu.:10 Median :10 3rd Qu.:10	[[15]] Mixing P:21 S: 0	HumiсТуре Н: О L: О M:21	AlkalinityType H:21 L: 0 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. :0.00000 1st Qu.:0.05294 Median :0.21832 Mean :1.30830 3rd Qu.:1.17650 Max. :5.86887	cluster Min. :15 1st Qu.:15 Median :15 Mean :15 3rd Qu.:15 Max. :15
Mixin P: 0 S:131	g HumiсТур H: О L:131 M: О	e AlkalinityTyp H:131 L: О M: О	e cyano.mean Min. : 0.0000 1st Qu.: 0.1988 Median : 0.7482 Mean : 2.2673 3rd Qu.: 2.8258 Max. :22.2133	cluster Min. :5 1st Qu.:5 Median :5 3rd Qu.:5 Max. :5	[[11]] Mixing P:0 S:8	HumicType H:8 L:0 M:0	AlkalinityType H:1 L:7 M:0	Cyano.mean Min. :0.003471 1st qu.:0.019044 Median :0.026247 Mean :0.114943 3rd qu.:0.061120	Max. :10 cluster Min. :11 1st QU.:11 Median :11 Mean :11 3rd QU.:11	[[16]] Mixing P:5 S:0	HumicType H:0 L:5 M:0	AlkalinityType H:0 L:0 M:5	cyano.mean Min. : 0.0000 1st Qu.: 0.0116 Median : 0.6235 Mean : 45.9733 3rd Qu.: 4.7043	cluster Min. :16 1st Qu.:16 Median :16 Mean :16 3rd Qu.:16
Mixin P: 0 S:27	g HumicType H: 0 L: 0 M:27	AlkalinityType H: O L: O M:27	Cyano.mean Min. :0.0007651 1st Qu: 0.0405980 Median :0.3146085 Mean :0.4460550 3rd Qu: 0.7673978 Max. :2.0955480	cluster Min. :6 1st Qu.:6 Medan :6 Mean :6 3rd Qu.:6 Max. :6				Max. :0.667790	Max. :11	[[17]] Mixing P:8 S:0	HumicType H:8 L:0 M:0	AlkalinityType H:8 L:0 M:0	cyano.mean Min. : 0.00039 Ist Qu.: 0.01422 Median : 0.14020 Mean : 1.69149 3rd Qu.: 0.72013 Max. :11.08750	cluster 6 Min. :17 5 1st Qu.:17 5 Median :17 5 Mean :17 9 3rd Qu.:17 0 Max. :17

92 Fig. S5 Summary of Gower distance clustering based on 17 clusters.

[[1]] Mixing P: 3 5:80	HumiсТуре H: 1 L:82 M: О	AlkalinityType H: 0 L:83 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. :0.000000 1st Qu.:0.003812 Median :0.011164 Mean :0.051176 3rd Qu.:0.031210 Max. :1.442616	cluster Min. :1 1st Qu.:1 Median :1 Mean :1 3rd Qu.:1 Max. :1	[[5]] Mixing P: 5 S:32	HumiсТуре H: 4 L: 0 M:33	AlkalinityType H: 1 L: 0 M:36	Cyano.mean Min. :0.000765 1st Qu.:0.067879 Median :0.401012 Mean :0.991770 3rd Qu.:1.393035 Max. :4.790878	cluster Min. :5 1st Qu.:5 Median :5 Mean :5 3rd Qu.:5 Max. :5
[[2]] Mixing P: 9 5:76	HumicType H: 6 L: 0 M:79	AlkalinityType H: 4 L:81 M: 0	cyano.mean Min. :0.000000 1st qu.:0.006308 Median :0.018077 Mean :0.123806 3rd qu.:0.033181 Max. :4.497726	cluster Min. :2 1st Qu.:2 Median :2 Mean :2 3rd Qu.:2 Max. :2	[[6]] Mixing P:29 S: 1	HumiсТуре H: 0 L: 0 M:30	AlkalinityType H:22 L: 3 M: 5	Cyano.mean Min. : 0.00000 1st qu.: 0.07574 Median : 0.22096 Mean : 2.83318 3rd qu.: 2.29075 Max. :38.06838	cluster Min. :6 1st Qu.:6 Median :6 Mean :6 3rd Qu.:6 Max. :6
[[3]] Mixing P: 3 S:37	HumiсТуре H: 0 L:40 M: 0	AlkalinityType H: 0 L: 0 M:40	cyano.mean Min. :0.00000 1st qu.:0.01925 Median :0.06868 Mean :0.92182 3rd qu.:0.61666 Max. :8.05196	cluster Min. :3 1st Qu.:3 Median :3 Mean :3 3rd Qu.:3 Max. :3	[[7]] Mixing P:17 S: 1	HumiсТуре H:18 L: О M: О	AlkalinityType H:9 L:3 M:6	cyano.mean Min. : 0.000396 1st Qu: 0.008655 Median : 0.079643 Mean : 0.975691 3rd Qu: 0.355116 Max. :11.087500	cluster Min. :7 1st Qu.:7 Median :7 Mean :7 3rd Qu.:7 Max. :7
[[4]] Mixing P: O S:136	Humiстури H: О L:131 M: 5	e AlkalinityTyp H:136 L: O M: O	e cyano.mean Min. : 0.0000 1st qu.: 0.2082 Median : 0.8128 Mean : 2.3564 3rd qu.: 3.0722 Max. :22.2133	cluster Min. :4 1st Qu.:4 Median :4 Gad Qu.:4 Max. :4	[[8]] Mixing P:86 S: 0	HumiсТуре Н: 0 L:86 M: 0	AlkalinityType H:84 L: O M: 2	cyano.mean Min. : 0.0000 1st Qu: 0.3299 Median : 2.4152 Mean : 10.1825 3rd Qu: 6.0174 Max. :224.5271	cluster Min. :8 1st Qu.:8 Median :8 Mean :8 3rd Qu.:8 Max. :8

94 Fig. S6 Summary of Gower distance clustering based on 8 clusters.



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Fig. S7 Natural log cyanobacteria (mm³ L⁻¹) by lake type variables: (a) alkalinity, low ($<0.2 \text{ mEq } \text{L}^{-1}$) and med-high ($>0.2 \text{ mEq } \text{L}^{-1}$); (b) humic content, clear (colour $<30 \text{ mg Pt } \text{L}^{-1}$) and humic (colour > 30mg Pt L⁻¹); and (c) mixing type, stratified and polymictic. The biovolume of cyanobacteria was statistically significantly different, between levels of each lake type variable: alkalinity (low *vs* medhigh alkalinity, t = -22.5, df = 1574, *p*-value = <0.001); humic (clear *vs* humic, t = 7.78, df = 1579.8, *p*value = <0.001) and mixing type (stratified *vs* polymictic, t = -7.03, df = 600.97, *p*-value = <0.001).

(a)			(b)				(c)			(d)			
()	Sanoup			\$group	s			\$groups	5		\$group:	s	
	49. oup.	log(mean.cvano)	aroups		log(cyar	no) aro	ups		log(cyano)	groups		log(cyano)	groups
	P.MH.C	-0.4528631	g, oups	P.MH.C	-0.83966	546	'a	P.MH.C	-0.9716285	í a	P.MH.C	-0.9562831	a
	S.MH.C	-0.9668599	ab	S.MH.C	-1.24533	362	a	S.MH.C	-1.2039664	a	S.MH.C	-1.1311709	a
	S.MH.H	-1.7282288	ab	S.MH.H	-1.90330	005	ab	S.MH.H	-2.1653940	ab	S.MH.H	-2.3868179	ab
	P.MH.H	-2.0502809	ab	P.MH.H	-2.36596	552	ab	P.MH.H	-2.4781575	abc	P.MH.H	-2.7752994	ab
	P.L.H	-3.2630892	bc	P.L.H	-4.49830	021	bc	P.L.H	-3.9599952	bcd	P.L.H	-3.1097218	abc
	S.L.H	-4.0905860) с	5.L.H	-4,6188	304	c	S.L.H	-4.2827655	cd	S.L.H	-4.4231873	bc
	S.L.C	-4.6013979	c c	5.L.C	-5,08102	253	c	S.L.C	-5.2312347	d	S.L.C	-4.9422555	C
	P.L.C	-6.3101176	i c	P.L.C	-5.85283	377	c	P.L.C	-8.4611072	d	P.L.C	-7.2717922	C
(e)			(f)				(a)			(h)			
(-)	\$groups		\$ar	oups			(3)	\$group:	s	()			
		log(cyano) groups	;	log((cyano) gr	oups			log(cyano)	groups	sgroup	ps log(cyppo)	anounc
	P.MH.C	-1.195927 a	а Р.М	н.с -0.7	981028	'a		P.MH.C	-1.055097	a	р мн (0 6939997	gi oups a
	S.MH.C	-1.288818 a	a 5.M	H.C -1.1	781571	a		S.MH.C	-1.220338	a	5.MH. (-1.2006531	a
	S.MH.H	-2.201160 at) S.M	н.н -1.9	816787	a		S.MH.H	-2.094450	a	S.MH.H	H -2.0297497	a
	P.MH.H	-2.305551 at) P.M	н.н -2.5	5716012	a		P.MH.H	-2.137030	a	P.MH.H	н -2.3543383	a
	S.L.H	-4.287419 bo	5.L	.н -4.5	5196162	b		S.L.H	-4.699542	b	S.L.H	-4.4106906	b
	P.L.H	-4.625247 bo	P.L	.н -4.6	5974963	b		P.L.H	-4.875066	b	S.L.C	-5.1890980	b
	S.L.C	-5.133081 (c -5.2	2220903	b		S.L.C	-5.001715	b	P.L.H	-5.4768819	b
	P.L.C	-8.461107	P.L	c -5.8	5283//	D		P.L.C	-9.880062	b	P.L.C	-/.2/1/922	D
<i>(</i> i)			(i)				(k)						
w.	\$ an ouns		0/ \$ ar	oune			~~~	\$anoung	-				
	agi oups	log(cyano) grou	ns ^y gi	100	(cvano)	anouns		agi oup.		aroups			
	P.MH.C	-1.008945	a P.N	ин.с0.	9766831	gi oups a		P.MH.C	-0.8868933	a			
	S.MH.C	-1.259150	a 5.1	ин.с -1.	1108065	a		S.MH.C	-1.3977981	a			
	S.MH.H	-2.127377	a 5.1	ин.н -2.	2444006	a		S.MH.H	-2.2902588	a			
	P.MH.H	-2.239574	a P.M	ин.н -2.	5247675	a		P.MH.H	-2.4548128	a			
	S.L.H	-4.627730	b 5.1	.н -4.	5882614	b		S.L.H	-4.7297934	b			
	5.L.C	-5.261345	b P.I	.н -4.	9389261	b		S.L.C	-5.0440078	b			
	P.L.H	-5.338172	b 5.1	.c -5.	0403581	b		P.L.H	-5.0506019	b			
	P.L.C	-5.852838	b P.I	c -9.	8800617	b		P.L.C	-8.4611072	b			

Fig. S8 Similarities in ln cyanobacertia biovolume (mm3 L-1) among lake types. Groupings are from Tukey test's for multiple comparison following an ANOVA (Table S3): (a) are groupings from a comparison of mean cyanobacteria for each lake, (b-k) are groupings based on one observation selected per lake (to meet the assumptions of independence), these were randomly selected 10 times.



110 Fig. S9 Relationships between stressors (TP, temperature and retention time), longitude and latitude. 111 The smooth red line in the upper diagonal panels shows the lowess (locally-weighted polynomial 112 regression) fit, the middle diagonal plot shows a histograms of the distribution of the data and the lower diagonal panels shows the linear Pearson correlation coefficients - the size of the text is relative to the 113 size of the correlation coefficient. Significance is at the 0.05 level is denoted by *, at the 0.01 level by 114 ** and <0.001 by ***. Relationships are for lakes in which TP was $\leq 100 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ and retention time was 115 \leq 365 days. Where appropriate, variables were log transformed to make the distributions more 116 117 symmetric. Note that a constant was added to percentage arable land so that the data could be log 118 transformed, as many of the data



Fig. S10 Relationship between average monthly natural log cyanobacteria biovolume (mm³ L⁻¹) and average monthly ln total phosphorus (μ g L⁻¹) using the global dataset (n = 572 lakes, number of monthly observations = 2900). The red curve shows the smoothed area response of cyanobacteria. Smoothing was fitted using locally weighted polynomial regression (LOESS), the grey shaded area shows 95% confidence intervals. The dashed black line shows the TP concentration which we restricted the regression analysis to ($\leq 100 \ \mu$ g L⁻¹).

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Fig. S11 Categories of average cyanobacteria biovolume (mm³ L⁻¹) in lakes included in the study (n = 494). Categories are based on World Health Organisation (WHO) recommended threshold values for drinking and bathing (Chorus & Bartram, 1999).



Fig S12. Relationships between TP, latitude, percent catchment forest land cover and percent catchment arable land cover. The smooth red line in the upper diagonal panels shows the lowess (locally-weighted polynomial regression) fit, the middle diagonal plot shows a histograms of the distribution of the data and the lower diagonal panels shows the linear Pearson correlation coefficients – the size of the text is relative to the size of the correlation coefficient. Significance is at the 0.05 level is denoted by *, at the 0.01 level by ** and <0.001 by ***. Relationships are for lakes in which TP was $\leq 100 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ and retention time was $\leq 365 \ days$. Where appropriate, variables were log transformed to make the distributions more symmetric. Note that a constant was added to percentage arable land so that the data could be log transformed, these were sampled from a random generation of data from the distribution of percentage arable land data.



Fig. S13 The effect of retention time on (a) ln cyanobacteria biovolume (mm3 L-1) and (b) ln chlorophyll a (μ g L-1) for the lake types which retention time effects were statistically significant. The effects of retention time are fitted from the models presented in Table 2, keeping temperature and TP constant (for models where this applies). Retention time (days) is standardised (mean centred and divided by the standard deviation).



Fig. S14 Response of ln cyanobacteria biovolume (mm3 L-1) and ln chlorophyll a (μ g L-1) to the interaction between standardised temperature (°C), and standardised total phosphorus (μ g L⁻¹) in polymictic, low alkalinity humic lakes (a and c) and polymictic medium-high alkalinity humic lakes (b and d). Temperature and total phosphorus are standardised (mean centred and divided by their standard deviation). Contour lines show the range of the response, colours show comparative differences: cooler colours are lower responses, warmer colours are higher responses. Points show the underlying data driving the model.



Fig. S15 Variance of the random effect for each lake type model. The point shows the intercept for each model and lake types are ordered from lowest to highest intercept. S.L.MH, stratified, low alkalinity, humic; P.L.MH, polymictic, low alkalinity, humic; S.L.L, stratified, low alkalinity, clear; S.MH.MH, stratified, medium-high alkalinity, humic; P.MH.MH, polymictic, medium-high alkalinity, humic; S.MH.L, stratified, medium-high alkalinity, clear; P.MH.L, polymictic, medium-high alkalinity, clear.



- 129 Fig. S16 Natural log total phosphorus (µg L-1) by lake type. Lake type are combinations of: alkalinity,
- 130 low (<0.2 mEq L-1) and med-high (>0.2 mEq L-1); humic content, clear (colour <30 mg Pt L-1) and
- humic (colour > 30 mg Pt L-1); and mixing type, stratified and polymictic.

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