



## **MODIS observations of cyanobacterial risks in a eutrophic lake: Implications for long-term safety evaluation in drinking-water source**

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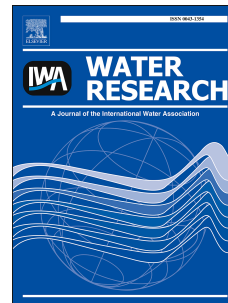
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MODIS observations of cyanobacterial risks in a eutrophic lake: Implications for long-term safety evaluation in drinking-water source

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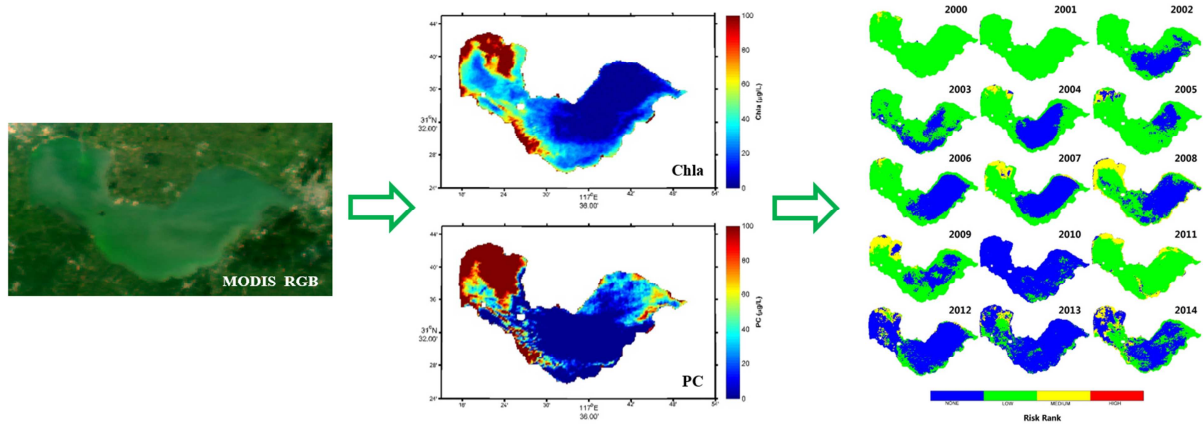
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1 **MODIS observations of cyanobacterial risks in a eutrophic lake:**  
2 **implications for long-term safety evaluation in drinking-water**  
3 **source**

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**17 Abstract:**

18 The occurrence and related risks from cyanobacterial blooms have increased world-wide  
19 over the past 40 years. Information on the abundance and distribution of cyanobacteria is  
20 fundamental to support risk assessment and management activities. In the present study, an  
21 approach based on Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) analysis was used to estimate the  
22 concentrations of chlorophyll a (Chla) and the cyanobacterial biomarker pigment  
23 phycocyanin (PC) using data from the MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer  
24 (MODIS) in Lake Chaohu (China's fifth largest freshwater lake). The approach was  
25 developed and tested using fourteen years (2000–2014) of MODIS images, which showed  
26 significant spatial and temporal variability of the PC:Chla ratio, an indicator of  
27 cyanobacterial dominance. The results had unbiased RMS uncertainties of <60% for Chla  
28 ranging between 10 and 300 µg/L, and unbiased RMS uncertainties of <65% for PC between  
29 10 and 500 µg/L. Further analysis showed the importance of nutrient and climate conditions  
30 for this dominance. Low TN:TP ratios (<29:1) and elevated temperatures were found to  
31 influence the seasonal shift of phytoplankton community. The resultant MODIS Chla and PC  
32 products were then used for cyanobacterial risk mapping with a decision tree classification  
33 model. The resulting Water Quality Decision Matrix (WQDM) was designed to assist  
34 authorities in the identification of possible intake areas, as well as specific months when  
35 higher frequency monitoring and more intense water treatment would be required if the  
36 location of the present intake area remained the same. Remote sensing cyanobacterial risk  
37 mapping provides a new tool for reservoir and lake management programs.

38 **Keywords:** Remote sensing; PC; Algal bloom; Lake Chaohu; Cyanobacterial dominance

## 39 I. Introduction

40 Freshwater is one of the planet's most valuable resources and an essential life-sustaining  
41 element and necessary for the survival of nearly all ecosystems. However, insufficient  
42 availability and ongoing degradation of this resource is threatening 1.1 billion people around  
43 the globe (UN 2006). One growing threat is the increasing frequency of cyanobacterial  
44 blooms in freshwater lakes and reservoirs (Chorus and Bartram 1999, Paerl et al. 2011), 87%  
45 of the surface freshwater suitable for drinking (Schneider 1996). Cyanobacteria can produce  
46 a variety of toxins with negative effects on human health and aquatic life (WHO 2011). The  
47 threat posed by cyanobacterial blooms has increased over the past 40 years (Chorus and  
48 Bartram 1999, Duan et al. 2009, O'Neil et al. 2012).

49  
50 With increased population pressure and depleted groundwater reserves, surface water both  
51 from rivers and lakes/reservoirs is becoming more used as a raw water source (Falconer and  
52 Humpage 2005). The monitoring of water bodies and freshwater supply systems for  
53 cyanobacteria and cyanotoxins is not yet common practice in most countries in the world, as  
54 sampling and analysis are time-consuming and labor intensive (Chorus and Bartram 1999,  
55 Hunter et al. 2010). There is a clear need for timely detection and quantification of  
56 cyanobacterial blooms to control public health risks due to compromised drinking-water  
57 sources.

58

59 Remote estimation of the concentrations of phytoplankton pigments provides helpful

60 information to assess the risk of cyanobacterial blooms. The estimation of Chlorophyll *a*  
61 (Chl<sub>a</sub>) has been used to provide basic information on plankton biomass and its distribution  
62 has been used for decades (Morel and Prieur 1977), but cannot be used to specifically  
63 determine the abundance of cyanobacteria when other phytoplankton groups co-occur (Duan  
64 et al. 2012a, Hunter et al. 2009). The estimation of phycocyanin (PC) is a good indicator of  
65 cyanobacteria biomass, but is often more challenging in optically complex waters (Bresciani  
66 et al. 2014, Qi et al. 2014b, Simis et al. 2005). The relative contribution of cyanobacteria to  
67 total phytoplankton biomass, the ratio of the PC to Chl<sub>a</sub> concentrations (PC:Chl<sub>a</sub>), can be  
68 used to indicate cyanobacterial dominance (Duan et al. 2012a, Shi et al. 2015a, Simis et al.  
69 2007). Specifically, remotely sensed Chl<sub>a</sub> and PC:Chl<sub>a</sub> products are used in risk assessment  
70 models based upon the World Health Organization guidance levels for recreational  
71 waterbodies (Hunter et al. 2009, Shi et al. 2015a). This suggests that remote sensing might  
72 be able to make a significant contribution to cyanobacterial hazard identification and risk  
73 assessment.

74

75 There are a number of sensors designed for ocean color remote sensing. MODIS Terra/Aqua  
76 systems provide a very useful instrument for regular monitoring and long term studies  
77 (2000-) of lake and reservoir conditions (Olmanson et al. 2011, Wang et al. 2012), with  
78 algorithms ranging from simple empirical regressions to semi-analytical inversions which  
79 have successfully been used to estimate Chl<sub>a</sub> concentrations (Kerfoot et al. 2008, Moses et  
80 al. 2009, Wang et al. 2011). However, unlike global ocean products, there are no standard  
81 Chl<sub>a</sub> products in coastal and inland waters, where optically active constituents vary

82 independently (IOCCG 2000). Importantly, MODIS Terra/Aqua bands from 412 to 869 nm  
83 are often saturated in coastal and inland waters due to elevated atmospheric and water  
84 turbidity, as these systems were mainly designed for ocean use with a highly sensitivity and  
85 narrow dynamic range (Hu et al. 2012). For inland waterbodies, novel Chla retrieval  
86 approaches must be developed using non-saturating bands present in the land and  
87 atmosphere based sensors (Qi et al. 2014a). In addition, MODIS does not has a 620 nm band,  
88 making it difficult to build direct PC algorithms based on radiative transfer (Kutser et al.  
89 2006, Tao et al. 2017). In recent years, artificial intelligence approaches, neural network  
90 models, support vector machine (SVM) algorithms and Empirical Orthogonal Functions  
91 (EOF), have been used to estimate of pigment concentration (Bonansea et al. 2015, Craig et  
92 al. 2012, Schiller and Doerffer 2005, Sun et al. 2009). These models are focused on reducing  
93 the dimensionality of remotely sensed data and bringing out features that would not  
94 normally be evident. They do not directly address the bio-optical properties of the specific  
95 phytoplankton pigment, but rather empirically address changes that are due to the variability  
96 of the bio-optical properties within a set of multiple images.

97  
98 Lake Chaohu supports an important commercial fishing industry as well as tourism and  
99 recreation activities (Xu et al. 2005). The western section of Lake Chaohu was, until 2007,  
100 the major potable water source for Hefei City (the capital city of Anhui province, China).  
101 The eastern lake is still the main drinking-water source for Chaohu City. Due to the  
102 increasing occurrence of cyanobacterial blooms in the eastern lake, authorities are looking  
103 for new approaches to manage water supplies to this city with nearly 1 million people



104 (Zhang et al. 2015). The objectives of this study were: 1) to develop and evaluate  
105 MODIS-based algorithms to estimate Chla and PC using EOF approaches, and explore  
106 potential benefits of EOF analytics under thick aerosol; 2) to derive a satellite series  
107 spatial-temporal distributions of Chla, PC and PC:Chla in 2000-2014 and explore their  
108 influencing factors; 3) to assess the potential health risk of cyanobacterial blooms in current  
109 drinking-water sources and recommend the possible future sites for drinking-water source.  
110 While there are a number of studies using MODIS to quantify cyanobacteria, cyanobacteria  
111 blooms, and cyanobacteria bloom phenology (Becker et al. 2009, Kutser et al. 2006, Wynne  
112 et al. 2013); this is the first study to focus on cyanobacterial dominance and their driving  
113 forces over such an extensive dataset.

## 114 II. Materials and Methods

### 115 2.1 Study area

116 Lake Chaohu (117.24° –117.90° E, 31.40° –31.72° N) is the fifth-largest freshwater lake of  
117 China, with an average water depth of 2.5 m and a surface water area of 770 km<sup>2</sup>. Its  
118 residence time is about 150 days in the rainy season and 210 days in the dry season (Tu et al.  
119 1990). Nine rivers contribute 90% of the total water inflow to the lake (Yang et al. 2013),  
120 while the Yuxi River outflows from eastern lake area to the Yangtze River (Fig. 1). Before  
121 the 1960s, Lake Chaohu was well-known for its scenic beauty and for the importance of its  
122 fisheries and lake-related economic activities (Xu 1997). However, the lake has suffered  
123 from eutrophication and frequent cyanobacterial blooms in recent decades (Kong et al. 2013,  
124 Zhang et al. 2015), due to local rapid population growth and economic development.  
125 Nutrient-rich inflows to the west lake from the Nanfei River, Shiwuli River and Pai River  
126 which discharge about 10 million tons per year of untreated domestic and industrial  
127 wastewater from Hefei City (capital of Anhui Province) (Xu et al. 2005). This has led to an  
128 elevated eutrophication of the western lake, where the mean concentrations of TP and TN  
129 were significantly higher than these in the eastern lake (Yang et al. 2013). As a result of  
130 increasing eutrophication and the reoccurrence of cyanobacterial blooms, the water supply to  
131 Hefei City was changed to Dongpu Reservoir from western Lake Chaohu in 2007 (Zhang et  
132 al. 2015). Note that the west, central, and east lake segments are hereinafter termed WL, CL,  
133 and EL, respectively.

## 134 2.2 Data

### 135 2.2.1 Field data

136 Water samples and optical data were collected at 15 sampling stations during seven field  
137 investigations between May 2013 and April 2015 in Lake Chaohu (Fig.1 and Table 1), with  
138 a total of 259 sampling points collected. Water samples were collected at the surface (~30  
139 cm water depth) with a standard 2-liter polyethylene water-fetching instrument. The samples  
140 were stored in cold dark condition before filtering in laboratory conditions.

141

142 PC was measured using a spectrofluorophotometer (Shimadzu RF-5301, 620-nm excitation  
143 and 647-nm emission) and a reference standard from Sigma Company ([Duan et al. 2012b](#),  
144 [Qi et al. 2014b](#)). Chla was measured spectrophotometrically using NASA recommended and  
145 community-accepted protocols ([Mueller et al. 2003](#)). Suspended particulate matter (SPM)  
146 concentrations were measured gravimetrically on pre-combusted and pre-weighed 47 mm  
147 GF/F after drying overnight at 105°C overnight ([Cao et al. 2017](#), [Duan et al. 2012b](#)).

### 148 2.2.2 MODIS Data

149 Cloud free data granules covering the study region between February 2000 and December  
150 2014 were obtained from the U.S. NASA Goddard Space Flight Center (GSFC) (Table S1).  
151 Level-0 data were processed using SeaDAS version 7.2 to generate calibrated at-sensor  
152 radiance. An initial attempt to use SeaDAS to generate above-water remote-sensing  
153 reflectance ( $R_{rs}$ ) ([Wang and Shi 2007](#)) was unsuccessful due to elevated aerosol

154 concentrations and sun glint, even after adjusting the processing options (e.g., the default  
155 limit of aerosol optical thickness at 869 nm was increased from 0.3 to 0.5, and the default  
156 cloud albedo was raised from 2.7% to 4.0%, etc.) (Duan et al. 2014, Feng et al. 2012). The  
157  $R_{rc}$  was derived after correction for Rayleigh scattering and gaseous absorption effects (Hu et  
158 al. 2004). As the ocean bands were frequently saturated over Lake Chaohu due to the turbid  
159 atmospheric and lake conditions; they were not employed in this study. The 250m MODIS  
160 bands at 645 nm and 859 nm and the 500 m bands at 469 nm, 555 nm, 1240 nm, 1640nm  
161 and 2130 nm cover a higher dynamic range than the ocean bands and, therefore, rarely  
162 saturate in turbid waters (Hu et al. 2012). As the 1240 nm, 1640 nm and 2130 nm bands  
163 often contain substantial noise due to detector artifacts (Wang and Shi 2007), only four  
164 bands at 469, 555, 645, and 859 nm were employed in this study.

### 165 **2.3 MODIS Chla and PC products**

166 According to past and present field measurements, Lake Chaohu has three general optical  
167 conditions: "clean" water, a highly turbid state dominated by elevated concentrations of  
168 suspended matter, and a cyanobacteria-bloom-dominated (Tao et al. 2017). Of the three  
169 conditions, water with high-suspended matter had a higher  $R_{rc}$  compared to clear water areas,  
170 but this difference was much smaller than that between these water conditions and  
171 bloom-dominated waters. Bloom-dominated reflectance in the near-infrared band (859 nm)  
172 showed a high differentiation.

173

174 Following earlier studies in waters with high concentrations of suspended matter, we used

175 FAI=0.02 as the threshold for the pixels of pure cyanobacterial bloom (Hu et al. 2010).  
176 However, three situations arise which reduce the effectiveness of FAI class separation:  
177 water-land boundary effects, bands with striping noise, and small-scale cyanobacterial  
178 blooms. To reduce the misidentification of non-bloom conditions for bloom conditions near  
179 land boundaries, all images were visually inspected; the distribution of the number of pixels  
180 in each scene that were affected by a water-land boundary effect was determined. The bloom  
181 and non-bloom images were classified using the standard far outlier threshold (the average  
182 value plus two standard deviations: 285 pixels or 17.80 km<sup>2</sup>); among the 1806 scenes of  
183 MODIS images, 1156 scenes with non-bloom (class I) conditions, and 650 scenes with  
184 bloom conditions (class II).

185  
186 The general approach followed multi-step process (Fig. 2), which began with the Raleigh  
187 correction of MODIS L0 data to determine reflectance  $R_{rc}$ . The floating algae index (FAI)  
188 was applied to each scene and the distribution of pixels with FAI>0.02 was derived. Using a  
189 standard far outlier threshold (average value plus two standard deviations), an area threshold  
190 (285 pixels or 17.80 km<sup>2</sup>) was used to differentiate the non-bloom images (class I) and  
191 bloom (class II) images. If the area of cyanobacterial bloom was smaller than 17.80 km<sup>2</sup>, it  
192 was considered a non-bloom image and Model I was employed. If the bloom area was larger  
193 than this threshold, it was considered to be a bloom image, and Model II was employed. The  
194 input parameters of the Model I and Model 2 were determined by regression of EOF  
195 decomposition values with in situ measured Chla and PC concentrations, respectively.

196

197 EOF is used to reduce multi-band reflectance data to uncorrelated and independent variables  
198 (i.e., EOF modes) which are then applied to retrieve water quality parameters (Barnes et al.  
199 2014, Craig et al. 2012, Qi et al. 2014a). The development of the EOF algorithms followed  
200 three steps: (1) The first step was to normalize the  $R_{rc}$  spectra to derive the  $NR_{rc}$  data, and  
201 perform an EOF analysis (eg. using the princomp function in MATLAB<sup>TM</sup>) on  $NR_{rc}$ . The  
202 output of the EOF decomposition includes the score vector of each EOF mode; each score  
203 vector is a linear composition of the four original bands. The output also includes the load  
204 value of each band, namely, the coefficients for the linear combination from the original  
205 bands to the score vector of each mode; and the variance contributions that describe the  
206 degree of the original band variance explained by each EOF mode. (2) The second step was  
207 to use a training set of in-situ samples to implement a linear regression analysis with the  
208 score values of EOF modes. The relationship between EOF modes and changes in the  
209 concentrations of phytoplankton pigment (Chla or PC) (e.g. using the regress function in  
210 MATLAB<sup>TM</sup>) followed:

$$211 \quad \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_1 + \beta_2 T_2 + \beta_3 T_3 + \beta_4 T_4 = \text{pigment concentration} \quad (1)$$

212 where  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $T_3$ , and  $T_4$  were the score values of the four modes and  $(\beta_{0-4})$  were the  
213 regression coefficients. (3) The final step was to apply the EOF based Chla or PC algorithms  
214 to the MODIS image datasets. More detail are well described in Tao et al. (2017).

## 215 **2.5 Cyanobacterial risk mapping**

216 A decision tree classification model (Fig. S1) based on Chla and PC:Chla was developed to

217 assess cyanobacterial risk (Hunter et al. 2009). This approach was inspired by the WHO  
 218 guidance levels, which uses the concentration of cyanobacterial cells (or an equivalent  
 219 concentration of Chla) to estimate the level of risk (WHO 2011). However, the WHO  
 220 guidance levels do not differentiate the actual biomass of cyanobacteria from that of the total  
 221 phytoplankton biomass (Tyler et al. 2009). To indicate the relative contribution of  
 222 cyanobacteria to total biomass, several previous studies used a proxy indicator (Duan et al.  
 223 2012b, Shi et al. 2015a, Simis et al. 2007), expressed as the ratio of the PC concentration to  
 224 the Chla concentration. We used this ratio, PC:Chla, to indicate waters with a cyanobacterial  
 225 dominance .

## 226 2.6 Accuracy assessment

227 The algorithm performance was assessed using four indices, namely the relative root mean  
 228 square error, unbiased RMSE (URMSE) in relative percentage (100%), mean normalized  
 229 bias (MNB), and normalized root mean square error (NRMS), defined as:

$$230 \quad \text{RMSE}_{\text{rel}} = 100 \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\varepsilon_i)^2} \quad (2)$$

$$231 \quad \text{URMSE}(\%) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{y_i - x_i}{0.5(y_i + x_i)} \right)^2} \times 100\% \quad (3)$$

$$232 \quad \text{MNB} = 100 \text{mean}(\varepsilon_i) \quad (4)$$

$$233 \quad \text{NRMS} = 100 \text{stdev}(\varepsilon_i) \quad (5)$$

234 where  $\varepsilon_i$  represents the relative difference between algorithm-retrieved and measurement  
 235 concentrations for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  measurement;  $y$  is the algorithm result and  $x$  is the measurement,  
 236 and  $n$  the sample size. URMSE was used to avoid deviations that cause skewed error  
 237 distributions. MNB is a measure of the systematic errors, NRMS is a measure of random

238 errors.

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### 239 III. Results

#### 240 3.1 Algorithm development and validation

241 Large spatial and temporal variabilities in Chla and PC were observed during the 7 cruises  
242 (Table 1). Chla ranged from 6.85 to 1229.83  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , PC ranged from 8.88 to 4807.72  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ,  
243 and PC:Chla varied between 0.09 and 50.39. Spatially, Chla and PC were much higher in  
244 WL than those in CL and EL. Temporally, the average Chla and PC were highest in summer  
245 (from May to September) while bloom initiation occurred in early spring (April).

246

247 The Chla algorithm was developed using 87 data pairs from MODIS and in situ data (half  
248 the data set) (Fig. 3a). There was a statistically significant correlation between the  
249 EOF-modeled Chla and measured Chla, with a coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) of 0.64 and  
250  $\text{RMSE}_{\text{rel}}=70.12\%$ . The data were scattered around the 1:1 line, and the Chla algorithm  
251 overestimates Chla with  $\text{MNB}=19.17\%$  and  $\text{NRMS}=67.45\%$ . The PC algorithm showed  
252 similar performance with  $R^2=0.60$ , and lower uncertainties in all statistical measures  
253 ( $\text{RMSE}_{\text{rel}}=38.33\%$ ,  $\text{MNB}=26.98\%$ ,  $\text{NRMS}=73.50\%$ ) (Fig. 3c).

254

255 The performance of the Chla and PC algorithms was assessed using the remaining 93  
256 datasets, and the results showed significant correlations between modelled and *in situ*  
257 concentrations. For Chla,  $R^2=0.40$ ,  $\text{RMSE}_{\text{rel}}=58.38\%$ ,  $\text{MNB}=18.68\%$ , and  $\text{NRMS}=62.74\%$   
258 (Fig. 3b); while for PC,  $R^2=0.40$ ,  $\text{RMSE}_{\text{rel}}=57.96\%$ ,  $\text{MNB}=38.11\%$ , and  $\text{NRMS}=69.92\%$   
259 (Fig. 3d). The performance of the algorithm was acceptable considering that four land bands

260 and a partial atmospheric correction were used. Importantly, the error bars of Chla and PC  
261 also showed reasonable results (Figs. 3e and 3f). Additionally, the retrieved PC patterns  
262 from MODIS are spatially consistent in two conditions (Bloom and Non-bloom) with  
263 MERIS PCI products (Tao et al. 2017), which have provided reliable PC estimations in  
264 other inland water bodies (Qi et al. 2014b).

### 265 3.2 Long-term trend and variability

266 The EOF-based algorithms were used to derive a long-term Chla and PC values from  
267 available MODIS data, and these values were integrated with annual and monthly means.

#### 268 3.2.1 Chla

269 The seasonal mean EOF-derived satellite Chla showed significant spatial and temporal  
270 variability (Fig. S2). In general, Chla was highest in the western lake (WL) compared to the  
271 central and eastern lake areas (CL and EL). The WL is highly eutrophic due to the high  
272 degree of urban wastewater brought to the lake through the Nanfei, Shiwuli and Pai rivers  
273 (Fig. 1), which discharge millions of tons per year of wastewater from Hefei City. CL  
274 showed the lower Chla as it receives the much clearer waters from the Hangbu, Baishishan  
275 and Zhao rivers, which account for nearly half of the total freshwater input into the whole  
276 lake. The annual mean Chla of WL was consistently higher than that of CL and EL, and  
277 ranged from  $21.16 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  in 2004 to  $75.65 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  in 2012, with a long-term mean of  
278  $36.97 \pm 16.19 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  for the 15-year period (Fig. 4a). For EL, Chla ranged from  $19.49 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  in  
279 2001 to  $44.18 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  in 2012 (mean =  $31.01 \pm 8.42 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ). Chla in CL was the lowest, ranging

280 between  $16.34 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  in 2005 and  $39.63\mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  in 2010 (mean =  $27.19\pm 7.42 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ). Of the  
281 three lake segments, WL showed the highest inter-annual variability, with a 15-year standard  
282 deviation (SD) of  $16.19 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ , and followed by EL ( $8.42 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ) and CL ( $7.42 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ). All  
283 three lake segments exhibited similar temporal patterns with increasing Chla trend, and Chla  
284 in each segment between 2000 and 2006 was significantly lower than between 2007 and  
285 2014. Chla showed a noticeable decrease in 2014 in EL. In general, years with large positive  
286 anomalies included 2007 and 2014, while years with large negative anomalies included 2000  
287 and 2006.

288

289 Seasonal dynamics showed multiple Chla maxima in September (CL and EL) and October  
290 (WL) and annual minimum in April in the entire lake (Figs. S3 and 5a). All three lake  
291 segments in February showed a second Chla peak due to high amount of Bacillariophytes  
292 present in early spring (no similar PC peak) (Deng et al. 2007). WL showed the highest Chla  
293 through the seasonal cycle ( $21.96\text{-}63.63 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ), followed by EL ( $19.26\text{-}54.95 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ) and CL  
294 ( $17.31\text{-}51.87 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ).

### 295 3.2.2 PC

296 Compared with Chla, estimated PC showed more significant spatial variability (Figs. S4 and  
297 S5). Annual mean PC was consistently high in WL with peaks in 2000, 2001 and 2009, and  
298 relatively low in CL and EL throughout the study period (2000-2014) (Fig. 4b). High PC  
299 values further extended to the CL and EL in 2011. The long-term mean in WL was  
300  $62.02\pm 19.94 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ , while long-term means were  $17.01\pm 6.10 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  and  $19.36\pm 4.85 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  in

301 CL and EL, respectively.

302

303 Seasonal distributions showed higher PC observed in summer and autumn (June-October)

304 (Figs. 5b. and S4). Mean PC reached annual maxima in August (EL) or September (WL and

305 CL). Similar to the annual mean statistics, WL showed the highest mean PC through the

306 seasonal cycle ( $66.27 \pm 52.46 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ); in contrast to CL ( $18.16 \pm 8.81 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ) and EL

307 ( $21.68 \pm 10.80 \mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ). For all three lake segments, seasonal variability overwhelmed

308 inter-annual variability.

### 309 **3.2.3 PC:Chla**

310 PC:Chla distributions, derived from Chla and PC products mentioned above showed large

311 spatial and temporal variability (Figs. 6 and 7). From 2000-2014, PC:Chla showed a general

312 decreasing trend in WL with significant inter-annual variability (Fig. 4c). In WL, PC:Chla

313 ranged from 0.67 in 2010 to 2.58 in 2001, with an average value of  $1.72 \pm 0.56$ . Annual mean

314 PC:Chla in CL and EL were lower, with long-term means of  $0.62 \pm 0.24$  and  $0.64 \pm 0.21$ ,

315 respectively. Similar the Chla and PC patterns, monthly PC:Chla also showed significant

316 seasonality, but with highest PC:Chla in the late spring and summer (April-August) (Figs. 5c

317 and 7). This seasonal variation confirmed previous field surveys on the dominance of green

318 algae and diatom in the spring, and a shift to cyanobacteria in summer contributing 70%-90%

319 to the total phytoplankton biomass ([Deng et al. 2007](#), [Li et al. 2015](#)).

## 320 **IV. Discussion**

### 321 **4.1 Algorithm performance**

322 There are several studies for estimating pigments such as Chla and PC. For Chla, the ratio of  
323 near-infrared (around 700-710nm) to red (around 665-685nm) reflectance, to highlight the  
324 differences between the absorption maximum and minimum of pigment and water, has been  
325 successfully applied to a wide range of turbid water bodies (Dekker 1993, Mittenzwey et al.  
326 1992). This method depends on empirical linear regression to predict Chla of lakes water.  
327 Using similar bands ratio but based on radiative transfer modelling (Gordon et al. 1975),  
328 Gons developed a semi-analytical algorithm for Chla retrieval (Gons 1999). Furthermore, a  
329 three-band model was also developed to estimate Chla concentration (Dall'Olmo et al. 2003),  
330 and the two band ratio model was regarded as a special case of the three-band model  
331 (Gitelson et al. 2008). Similar to Chla, PC can be detected based on the absorption feature  
332 around 620 nm (Bryant 1994), and current algorithms are based on the quantification of the  
333 reflectance trough at this region in remotely sensed data (Ruiz-Verdu et al. 2008, Simis et al.  
334 2007). However, these algorithms developed in inland waters are designed using field  
335 measured remote sensing reflectance ( $R_{rs}$ ), and depend strongly on the absolute accuracy of  
336 satellite-based  $R_{rs}$  (Duan et al. 2012a, Le et al. 2013). In fact, accurate cyanobacterial  
337 pigments retrievals, especially for PC, from satellite measurements in inland waters have  
338 been notoriously difficult to develop due to the complex and highly variable nature of these  
339 waters.

340

341 MODIS was designed for oceanic waters and easily saturated over turbid waters. Even  
342 without saturation, the requirements of the atmospheric correction on aerosol optical  
343 thickness ( $<0.3$  at 859 nm) make valid MODIS  $R_{rs}$  retrievals extremely sparse in those  
344 waters (Qi et al. 2014a). This would produce the limited number of MODIS bands, together  
345 with the large uncertainties in the full atmospheric correction over turbid waters. Given the  
346 difficulties in atmospheric corrections and the nature of the optical variability in Lake  
347 Chaohu, the EOF approach provided reasonable results to derive long-term cyanobacteria  
348 distribution information. This is especially true when considering the Chla and PC patterns  
349 are reasonable (Figs. S2-S5) and low sensitivity to high SPM concentrations contained and  
350 atmospheric aerosols perturbations (Fig. S6). The three RGB images in three subsequent  
351 days on 5 and 7 January 2007 were generated from data collected under different conditions  
352 (Figs. S6a- S6c). Figs. S6a- S6b showed an example where significant turbidity changes  
353 occurred in most of the lake waters in two subsequent days on 6 and 7 January 2007, yet  
354 their corresponding PC (Figs. S6d- S6e) and Chla images (Fig. S6) showed tolerance to such  
355 significant turbidity changes, as revealed by the very similar PC and Chla distribution  
356 patterns for pixels both impacted and not impacted by the turbid changes. Fig. S6c shows  
357 another example where the PC and Chla EOF algorithms are both insensitive to  
358 perturbations due to thick aerosols. Despite the whole lake experience significant aerosols,  
359 yet the PC (Fig. S6f) and Chla (Fig. S6i) values under this condition were similar to those  
360 derived under non-thick aerosols from another two days (Figs. S6d- S6e, S6g- S6h). This  
361 might be due to the spectral normalization which partially remove the sediments and aerosol  
362 effects while retaining most the spectral information; of the four spectral bands, three visible

363 bands contain information from cyanobacterial pigments. This has also been confirmed in  
364 Lake Taihu and Tampa bay ([Le et al. 2013](#), [Qi et al. 2014a](#)).

365

366 It is important note that the use of EOF and single-lake training provides a solution for one  
367 lake, and possibly nearby lakes. The solution is not likely to transfer to other locations well,  
368 and the two algorithms may not be able to move directly to other lakes. Given that the lake  
369 is of high importance for drinking water supply, and given that the method used to 'train' the  
370 model is transferable with the requirement for additional field work, the approach will  
371 nevertheless be of interest to water management authorities elsewhere.

#### 372 **4.2 Cyanobacterial dominance and its driving factors**

373 Cyanobacterial dominance in anthropogenically impacted eutrophic lakes is an increasing  
374 problem that impacts ecosystem integrity and human and animal health ([Downing et al.](#)  
375 [2001](#)). Understanding the cause of cyanobacterial dominance has been a focal point of  
376 classical and contemporary limnological research ([Havens et al. 2003](#)). The established  
377 long-term Chla, PC concentrations and their ratio (Figs. 8a-8c) provide an opportunity to  
378 further evaluate the driving forces that control cyanobacterial biomass and potential relation  
379 with physical variability in temperature and nutrients.

380

381 Since the earliest studies of phytoplankton ecology, nutrients have been invoked as one of  
382 the variables controlling phytoplankton community structure and a predictor of the  
383 dominance of cyanobacteria. However, the annual mean Chla and PC in the three lake

384 segments do not demonstrate significant positive correlations with annual mean TN and TP  
385 (Fig. 4). In fact, TN and TP showed a general decreasing trend throughout the 15 years (Figs.  
386 8d-8e); in contrast, Chla and PC increased, in particular in the years after 2009. The 15-year  
387 time-series between Chla and PC and nutrients did not show significant correlations (Fig. 8).  
388 Generally, nutrient enrichment is a prerequisite to cyanobacterial dominance and bloom  
389 formation, and numerous bioassay experiments have demonstrated that phosphorus and at  
390 times nitrogen can act as the limiting resource (Droop 1974, Tilman et al. 1982, Xu et al.  
391 2010). This is also confirmed by that the high Chla and PC patterns primarily occupied in  
392 WL and tended to decrease from the western to the eastern region in Lake Chaohu (Figs. 5  
393 and 6), consistent with the distribution of nutrients determined from field samples (Figs.  
394 8d-8f). However, the role of nutrient concentrations in controlling cyanobacteria dynamics  
395 might be limited due to elevated concentrations and low inter-annual variation, and they are  
396 likely in excess of algal growth demand. Note that the annual minimum nutrient  
397 concentrations (TN: 1.50 mg/L in 2007; TP: 0.10 mg/L in 2010) during 2000-2014 in Lake  
398 Chaohu exceeded cyanobacteria growth requirements (TN: 1.26 mg/L, TP: 0.082 mg/L)  
399 recommended to maintain bloom-free conditions in Lake Taihu (Xu et al. 2014), which is at  
400 a similar latitude and is dominated by *Microcystis* blooms. This explains why cyanobacterial  
401 blooms can still thrive for much of the year in Lake Chaohu, despite the efforts being  
402 undertaken to control nutrient loading.

403

404 Compared with TN or TP, the TN:TP ratio has been shown to impact the phytoplankton  
405 species composition, where low N:P favours the production of cyanobacterial blooms (Liu et



406 al. 2011, Tilman et al. 1982). When nutrients are not limiting, the molar elemental ratio  
407 (Redfield ratio) N:P in most phytoplankton is 16:1 (Redfield 1934). A TN:TP ratio of 29:1  
408 differentiates between lakes with cyanobacterial dominance (TN:TP<29:1 by mass) and  
409 lakes without such dominance (TN:TP>29:1) in temperate lakes (Smith 1983). Subsequent  
410 multi-lake surveys and controlled experiments have generally supported this hypothesis  
411 (Havens et al. 2003). TN:TP rarely went above 29:1 in CL (4 months) and EL (6 months) in  
412 168 months between 2001 and 2014; while this threshold was surpassed in 18 months of 84  
413 months between 2008 and 2014. The nutrient data in WL was only collected during  
414 2008-2014. Using this threshold, all PC:Chla data in WL during 2008-2014 were  
415 reorganized and separated into two categories. In months with TN:TP larger than 29:1, the  
416 corresponding average PC:Chla was 0.64; while months below 29:1, averaged 1.91 PC:Chla  
417 (Figs. 8c and 8f). Note that the annual relative cyanobacteria to total phytoplankton biomass  
418 (PC:Chla) (Figs. 4c and 6) in three lake segments especially WL showed a slight decreasing  
419 trend in recent years, compared with an increasing TN:TP value (Fig. 4d); and they  
420 displayed a significant negative correlation in the entire lake ( $r = -0.39$ ,  $p < 0.5$ ). The  
421 mechanism proposed to link cyanobacterial dominance to a low TN:TP ratio is that all  
422 species of cyanobacteria are better able to compete for nitrogen than other phytoplankton  
423 when N is scarce. Therefore, when excessive P loading creates a surplus supply of  
424 phosphorus, N becomes relatively scarce and cyanobacteria are predicted to become  
425 dominant (Smith 1983).

426

427 Seasonal succession in the phytoplankton assemblages has been observed in many eutrophic

428 lakes, and temperature has been associated as an important factor responsible for the  
429 seasonal shift of phytoplankton community (Elliott et al. 2006). Field surveys showed that  
430 there was nearly 200 phytoplankton species mainly including Chlorophytes (101 species),  
431 Cyanophytes (46 species) and Bacillariophytes (28 species) in Lake Chaohu (Deng et al.  
432 2007), and the dominated group shifted from green algae and diatoms in the spring to  
433 cyanobacteria in the summer and autumn (Deng et al. 2007, Li et al. 2015). This is  
434 consistent with our monthly Chla, PC and PC:Chla values (Figs. 5a-5c and 7). Chla reached  
435 its first peak in February (Fig.5a) due to quick increasing of diatom (Bacillariophytes),  
436 which was a superior competitor at temperatures below 15 °C (Tilman et al. 1986). PC and  
437 PC:Chla showed their first peaks during summer between June and September with  
438 increasing temperature (Figs. 5b and 5c). It has been reported that diatoms dominated under  
439 conditions of low water temperature in Lake Chaohu (Deng et al. 2007). However,  
440 cyanobacteria generally grow better at higher temperatures than other phytoplankton species  
441 such as diatoms and green algae, and this gives cyanobacteria a competitive advantage at  
442 elevated temperatures (Elliott et al. 2006, Joehnk et al. 2008, Paerl and Huisman 2008). Fig.  
443 9 shows that the monthly mean temperatures were well correlated with PC ( $r = 0.71$ , Fig.  
444 9b), but low with Chla or PC:Chla ( $r < 0.22$ , Figs. 9a and 9c). This is because cyanobacteria  
445 contribute a large proportion, 90% or more of the total phytoplankton biomass, at higher  
446 temperatures, in particular in the summer (Li et al. 2015). Additionally, there are two  
447 cyanobacteria taxa in Lake Chaohu, *Anabaena* dominance in spring was overcome by  
448 increasing *Microcystis* dominance in summer (Yu et al. 2014, Zhang et al. 2016). This will  
449 also result in increasing PC concentrations with increasing temperature, and large seasonal

450 variations of Chla and PC:Chla.

451

452 Factors causing the dominance of a phytoplankton group are often difficult to reveal because  
453 several interacting factors including hydrodynamic effects are usually involved which are  
454 not necessarily the same in different environments (Dokulil and Teubner 2000). Nutrients  
455 and temperature are generally regarded as the most important factors affecting  
456 phytoplankton community succession, but their relative importance depends on the lake and  
457 its location, changes in (wind-driven) turbulence, light availability, and nutrient balance. It  
458 has been reported that many diatoms are superior phosphorus competitors and inferior  
459 competitors for light and nitrogen at temperatures below 15 °C, whereas many cyanophytes  
460 species are superior nitrogen and inferior phosphorous competitors, showing their  
461 competitive potential at temperatures above 20 °C (Deng et al. 2007, Tilman et al. 1986).  
462 However, when nutrient concentrations are higher than cyanobacteria growth requirement,  
463 warm water would increase activity rates of cyanobacteria and enhance the probability of  
464 cyanobacterial dominance (Duan et al. 2009, Liu et al. 2011, Wagner and Adrian 2009). A  
465 recent study of cyanobacterial dominance based on 1000 US lakes demonstrates that the  
466 relative importance of these two factors was dependent on lake trophic state: Nutrients play  
467 a larger role in oligotrophic lakes, while temperature is more important in mesotrophic lakes;  
468 Only eutrophic and hyper-eutrophic lakes exhibit a significant interaction between nutrients  
469 and temperature (Rigosi et al. 2014). In Lake Chaohu, nutrient concentrations are so high  
470 that cyanobacteria growth is mainly controlled by temperature and light availability. The  
471 incidence of cyanobacteria blooms will certainly increase under future climate warming, if

472 there is no significant nutrient reduction.

### 473 **4.3 Implication for safety evaluation in drinking-water source**

474 Harmful cyanobacterial blooms pose a threat to freshwater ecosystems used for  
475 drinking-water supply due to the production of cyanotoxins such as microcystins (MCs),  
476 which act as a protein phosphatase inhibitors and tumour promoters, causing acute and  
477 chronic poisoning in humans and animals, particularly liver injury (Falconer et al. 1983,  
478 Paerl and Huisman 2009). MCs are produced by several cyanobacterial genera including  
479 *Microcystis* and *Anabaena* (Chorus and Bartram 1999), the dominant species in Lake  
480 Chaohu (Yu et al. 2014, Zhang et al. 2016). As a water shortage city, Chaohu City with  
481 nearly 1 million people has only one drinking-water source in the EL section of Lake  
482 Chaohu (Fig.1). In fact, Hefei City used to rely on the WL section as its principal  
483 drinking-water source until it was forced to find an alternative source due to heavy  
484 cyanobacterial blooms around 2007.

485

486 Previous efforts have shown the effectiveness of using a decision tree for cyanobacterial risk  
487 monitoring and assessment (Carvalho et al. 2011, Hunter et al. 2009, Shi et al. 2015a, Tyler  
488 et al. 2009). Using the present EOF based approach on data from Lake Chaohu during  
489 2000-2014, spatial and inter-annual variations of cyanobacterial risk indicated a high  
490 heterogeneity (Figs. 10 and 11). Most of the lake remains at low and no risk, only the WL  
491 occasionally displayed a medium risk in the years 2004-2009 and 2011-2014. No high risk  
492 years were observed. As expected, the WL showed the highest occurrence of low and

493 medium risk rank in the entire lake. The EL was dominated by low and no risk while the  
494 conditions of the CL were usually no risk. The years 2000, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2009 and 2011  
495 showed the largest areas of low risk. Seasonal distribution confirmed an increased risk  
496 during the months with the highest temperature (July-September), and a reduced risk in the  
497 winter. It's also worthy noticing that the largest spatial variability was revealed in September,  
498 while WL with medium risk rank and CL and EL were both with no risk. This may be the  
499 result the prevailing southeast wind in this period that increased the transport of surface  
500 algae to the west. In such conditions, re-accessing the WL for domestic water supply to  
501 Hefei City remains problematic.

502

503 To meet the current drinking-water requirement for Chaohu City, the distribution of past risk  
504 conditions around the source was used to create a distributed water quality decision matrix  
505 (WQDM, Table 2). Using annual monthly mean Chla and PC in 5 km buffer zones around  
506 the drinking-water source in EL derived from MODIS (2000-2014), WQDM was derived  
507 first using the threshold Chla and PC:Chla values obtained from the decision tree (Fig. S1).  
508 Then these values were derived from satellite data products and a WQDM was generated  
509 using these values. Results indicated that there were generally low risks, and occasionally  
510 medium risks, while none risk occurred between January and March during winter. This  
511 present a significant problem for the drinking water supply to Chaohu City with potential  
512 increases in human health related risks.

513

514 One possible way to remediate the problem would be to move the drinking-water source to

515 another site in Lake Chaohu. By considering the WQDM, based on areas with the highest  
516 frequency of no risk, it's possible to identify the most appropriate water intake areas of the  
517 lake, considering the past 14 years of data (Figs.12a-12d). Several areas in the CL were good  
518 candidates, with 60% or more frequency with no risk (Fig.12a); however, with a 30%  
519 frequency of low risk (Fig.12b). The closest of these areas was almost 30 km from Chaohu  
520 city. There was no location with 100% frequency no risk (Fig.12d).

521

522 Another option would be supplement water treatment during the periods of the year that are  
523 most prone to increased risk in the area of the domestic water intake in the EL. Focused  
524 water treatment in this period to remove MCs would reduce risk for the population of  
525 Chaohu city while not incurring the costs of year round treatment. In general, there were low  
526 and occasionally medium risks in the 5 km buffer zones around the present day  
527 drinking-water source area, with no risk conditions never occurring only between January  
528 and March (Table 2). As low risk means the surface water contained 5~25  $\mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  PC and  
529 10-50  $\mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  Chla (Fig. S1), this translated to an equivalent to 0.80~3.98  $\mu\text{gL}^{-1}$  MCs (Shi et al.  
530 2015b). This is higher than the threshold (1  $\mu\text{gL}^{-1}$ ) suggested by WHO for drinking water  
531 (Otten et al. 2012).

532

533 The combination of identifiable thresholds that lead to increased risk of compromised water  
534 supplies and regular monitoring using remote sensing provides a new tool for the  
535 management of lakes used for domestic water supplies. It is also worth mentioning that  
536 present satellite constellations would allow for relatively rapid detection of changes in lake

537 state, allowing for early warning and mitigation of the drinking water quality during intake.  
538 By building spatially explicit historical datasets, it possible to estimate the relative risk of  
539 positioning (or repositioning) water intakes. When cost or infrastructure limitations prohibit  
540 the access to low risk lake areas, temporally focused actions to improve treatment (or  
541 increased monitoring) with respect to local conditions can be made. The ultimate solution  
542 will be to reduce nutrient loads of surface waters, but complex in-lake processes and nutrient  
543 storage do not allow for simple linear solutions.

## 544 **V. Conclusions**

545 In this study, we used an EOF approach to estimate the concentrations of Chla and PC from  
546 MODIS in Lake Chaohu. Based on 1806 MODIS images acquired from 2000 to 2014, we  
547 found that PC:Chla ratio has a great potential to detect the cyanobacterial dominance, and  
548 the nutrient and climate conditions favor this dominance. Additionally, long-term  
549 cyanobacterial risk in Lake Chaohu was assessed with a Water Quality Decision Matrix  
550 based on MODIS Chla and PC products. The results provide new insights that could assist  
551 authorities in the identification of possible intake areas, as well as specific months when  
552 higher frequency monitoring and more intense water treatment would be required using the  
553 present intake area in Lake Chaohu. This study demonstrates that remotely sensed  
554 cyanobacterial risk mapping provides a new tool for management programs for this and  
555 similar lakes and reservoirs.

556



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Tabel 1. Water quality properties collected in Lake Chaohu. Chla: chlorophyll-a; PC: Cyanobacteria phycocyanin pigments; SPM: suspended particulate matter.

Date	N	Chla ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ )		PC( $\mu\text{g/L}$ )		SPM( $\text{mg/L}$ )		PC:Chla	
		Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
201305	56	42.50 $\pm$ 55.58	8.19-257.65	130.79 $\pm$ 190.87	12.48-909.92	38.21 $\pm$ 17.27	10.00-92.86	4.62 $\pm$ 7.48	0.55-50.39
201306	31	165.80 $\pm$ 304.65	15.16-1229.83	513.56 $\pm$ 1603.55	30.74-4807.72	79.06 $\pm$ 63.24	27.00-324.00	2.46 $\pm$ 0.79	1.45-4.36
201307	45	54.62 $\pm$ 56.64	12.75-260.80	111.94 $\pm$ 196.12	9.85-776.55	111.29 $\pm$ 55.11	38.00-244.00	1.76 $\pm$ 1.15	0.22-5.25
201309	25	160.83 $\pm$ 251.75	20.11-1131.96	254.98 $\pm$ 552.82	12.48-2682.32	50.12 $\pm$ 26.33	20.00-138.00	1.17 $\pm$ 0.56	0.46-2.66
201409	33	44.57 $\pm$ 28.43	16.63-157.87	72.47 $\pm$ 111.36	6.57-558.76	67.27 $\pm$ 20.22	19.00-112.00	1.35 $\pm$ 0.99	0.13-3.54
201501	30	54.36 $\pm$ 36.89	17.86-138.55	42.50 $\pm$ 55.97	9.85-321.27	31.80 $\pm$ 10.05	12.00-65.00	1.10 $\pm$ 0.98	0.09-4.11
201504	39	16.25 $\pm$ 13.44	6.85-85.87	22.46 $\pm$ 20.99	8.88-113.33	61.16 $\pm$ 25.00	26.00-133.00	1.98 $\pm$ 1.38	0.53-7.39



Fig.1 Location and distribution map of Lake Chaohu, China. Note that the red circle located near Chaohu City is 5 km surrounding zones around drinking-water source.

Fig.2 The processing procedure of MODIS Chla and PC products

Fig.3 Algorithm training and validations: (a) Chla training; (b) Chla validation; (c) PC training; (d) PC validation; (e) Chla error bar; (f) PC error bar.

Fig.4 Annual mean of (a) Chla, (b) PC and (c) PC:Chla ratio derived from MODIS for the three lake areas; (d) Annual mean of TN, TP and TN:TP for whole lake.

Fig.5 Monthly mean of (a) Chla, (b) PC and (c) PC:Chla ratio derived from MODIS for the three lake areas; (d) Monthly mean of TN, TP and TN:TP for whole lake.

Fig.6 Annual mean PC:Chla distributions derived from MODIS (2000-2014) in Lake Chaohu. Note that there are distinct boundary effects due to aerosol thicknesses (Tao et al., 2017), and long-term time-series data would contain some errors near the lake coast.

Fig.7 Monthly mean PC:Chla distributions derived from MODIS (2000-2014) in Lake Chaohu. Similar to annual mean PC:Chla product, there are distinct boundary effects due to aerosol thicknesses especially in summer seasons (Tao et al., 2017), and long-term time-series data would contain some errors near the lake coast.

Fig.8 Time-series of satellite-derived phytoplankton pigments (a-c) and in situ measured nutrients (d-f) from the three lake segments. The long-time series nutrients data are provided by local Chaohu Management Bureau. Note that the blue dash line show the data with TN:TP larger than 29:1.

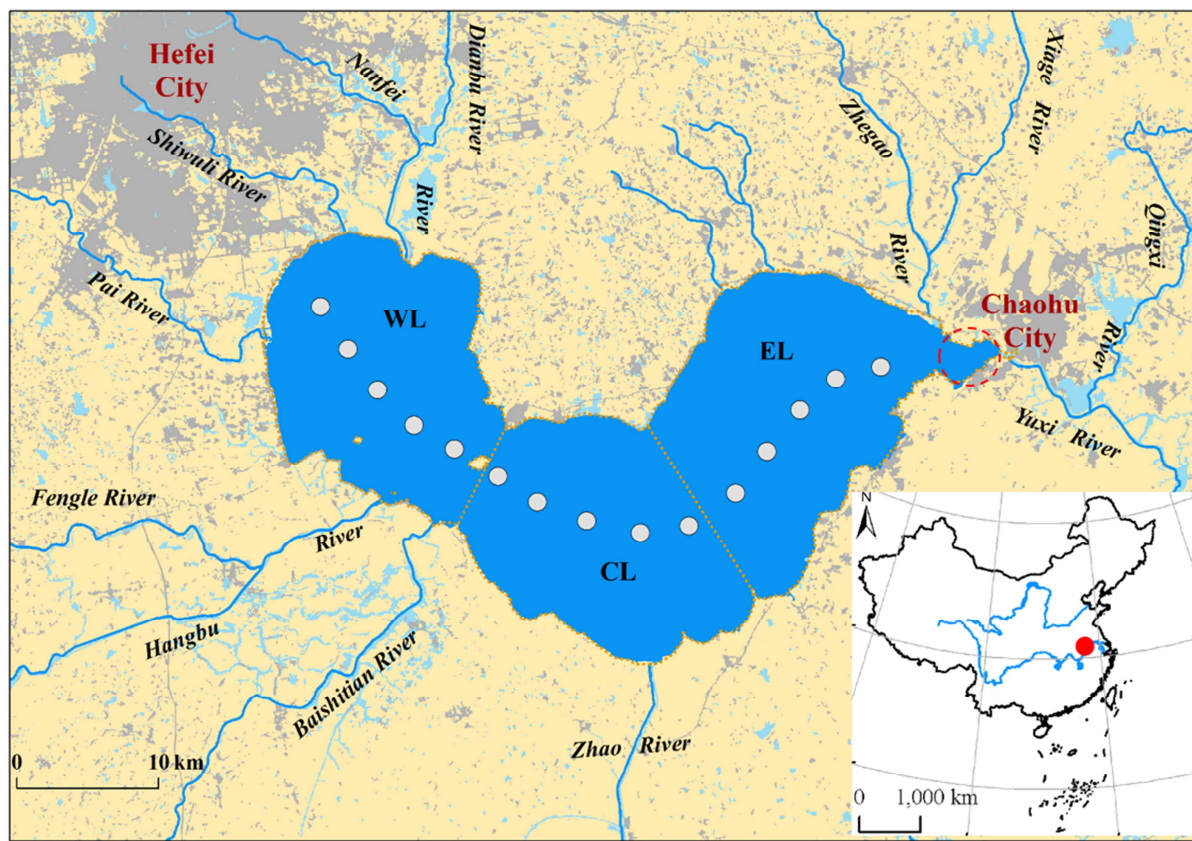
Fig.9 Relationship between (a) Chla, (b) PC and (c) PC:Chla and monthly mean temperature in entire lake.

Fig.10 Annual mean risk rank distributions derived from MODIS (2000-2014) in Lake Chaohu.

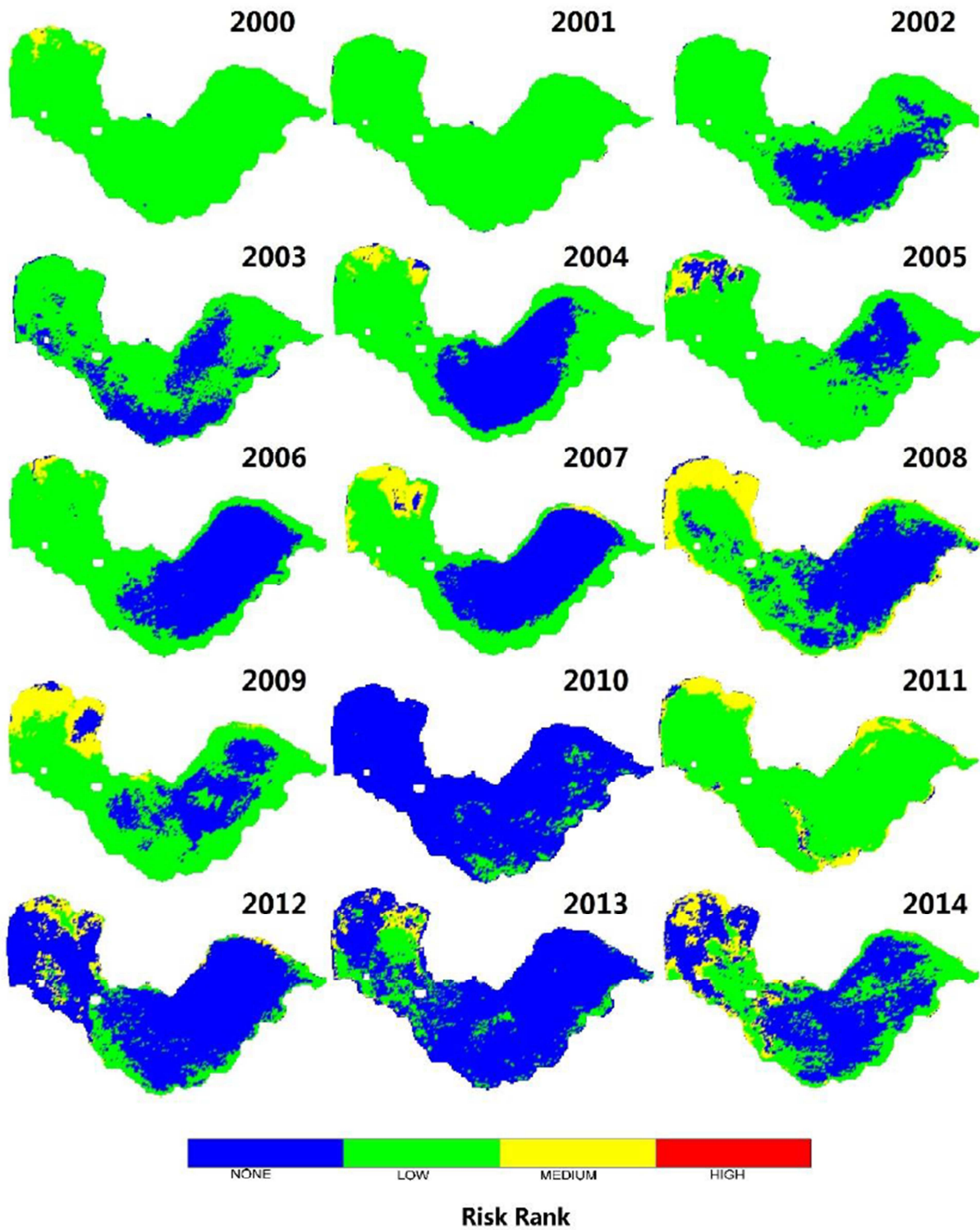
Fig.11 Monthly mean risk rank distributions derived from MODIS (2000-2014) in Lake Chaohu.

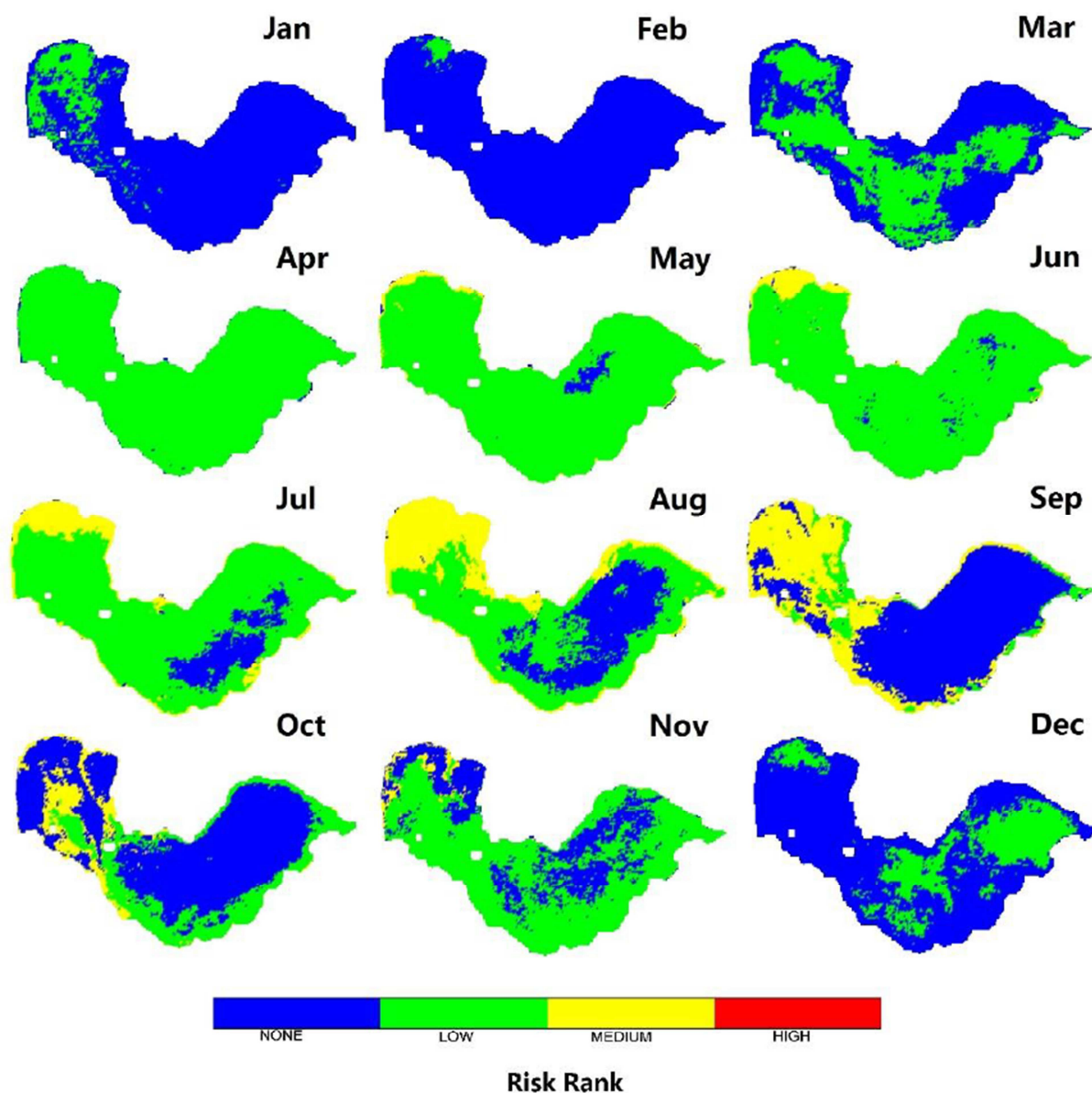
Fig.12 The frequency (a-c) and mean (d) of risk rank distributions derived from MODIS (2000-2014) in Lake Chaohu: (a) No (b) Low (c) Medium (d) Mean. Note that there is no high risk rank in Lake Chaohu.

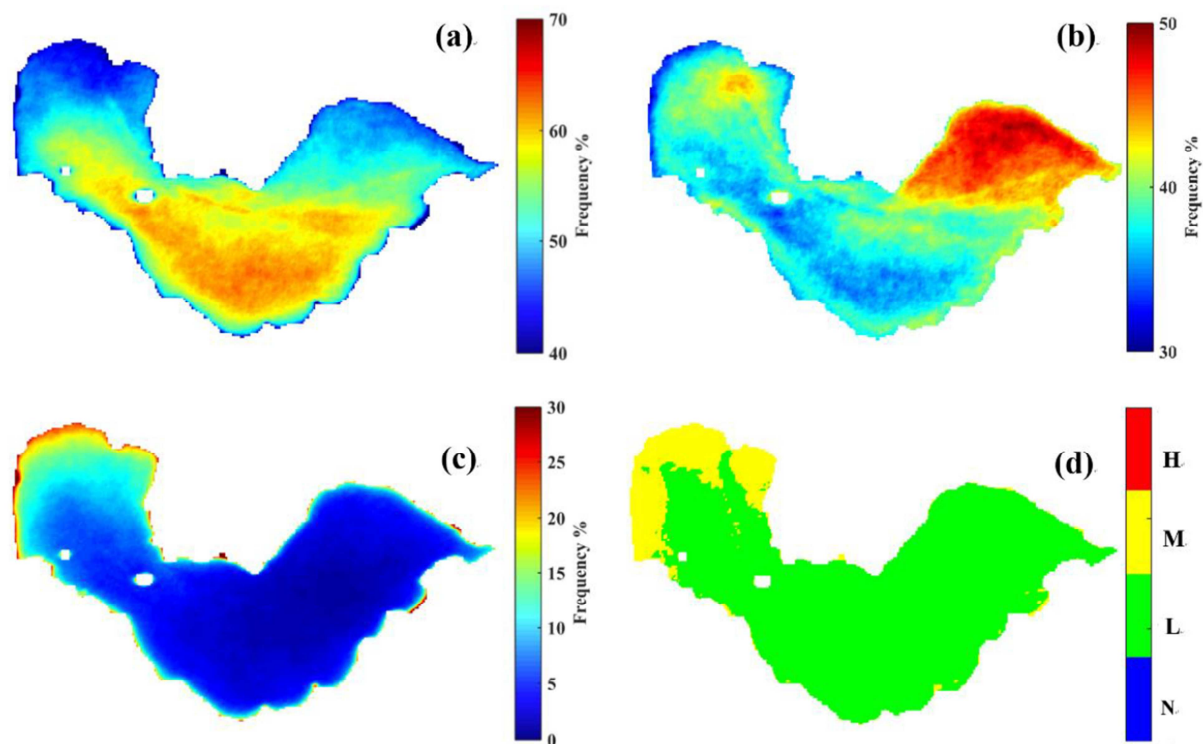
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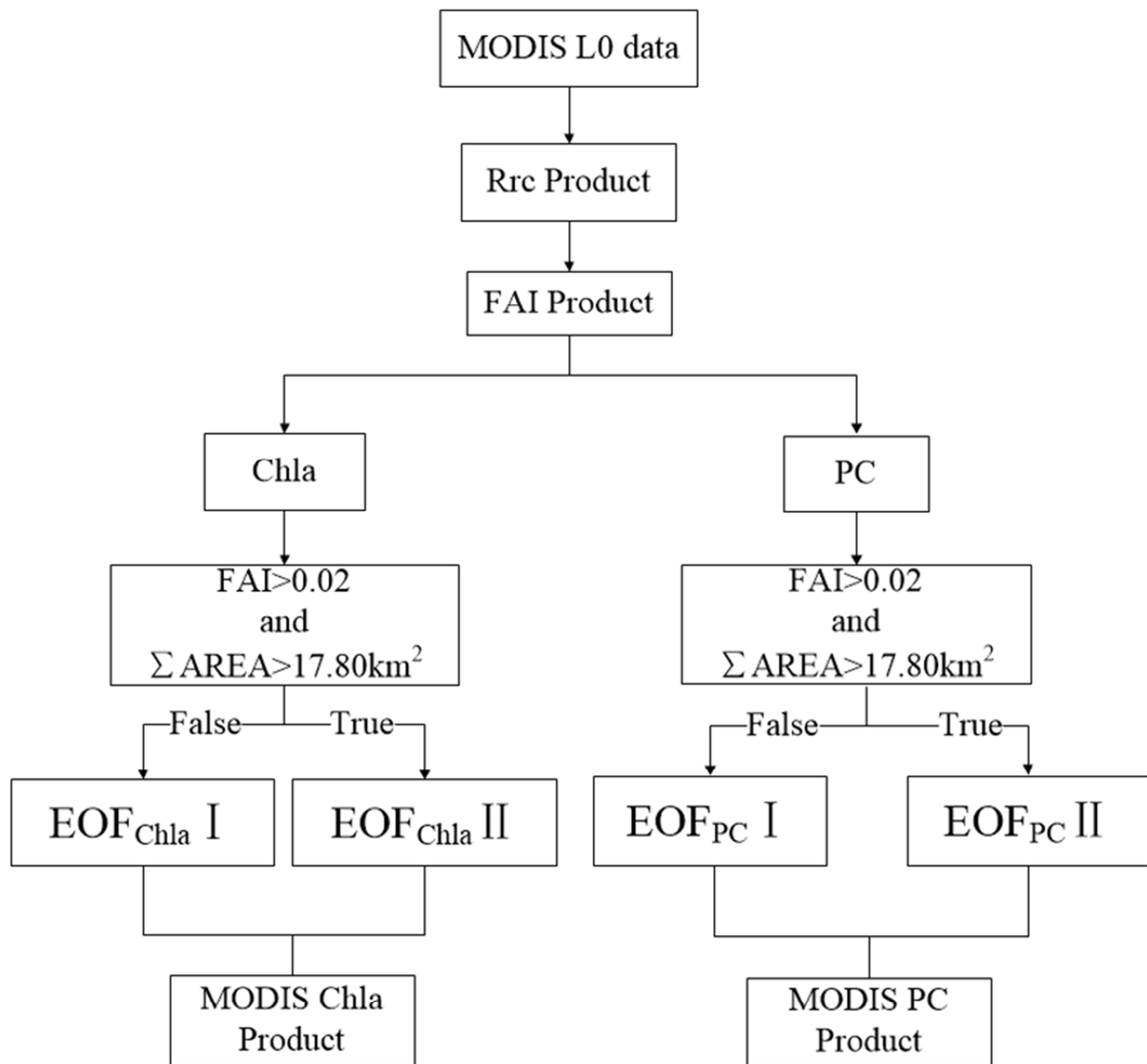


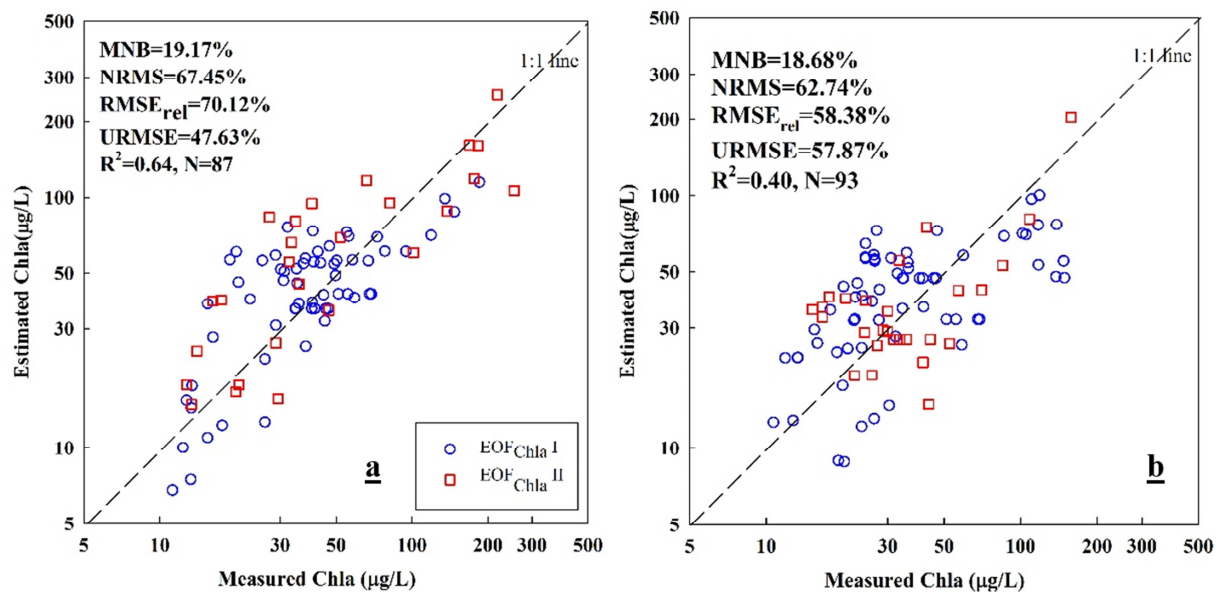


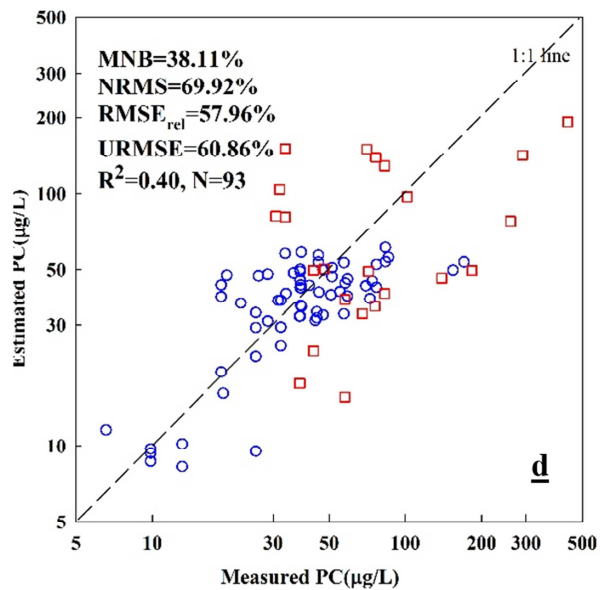
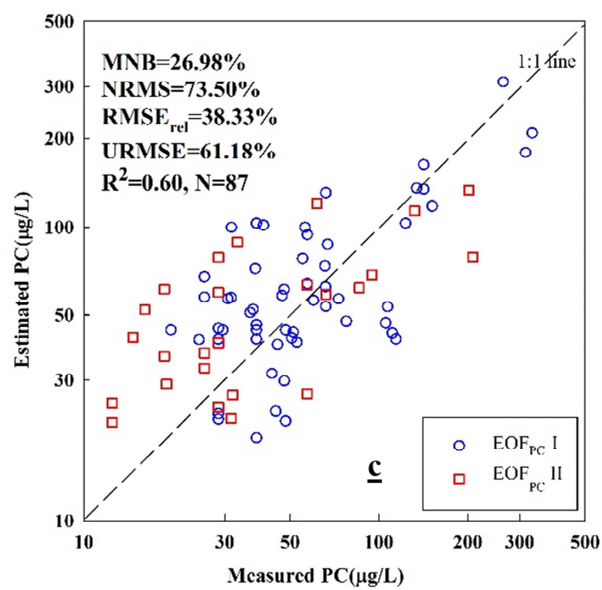


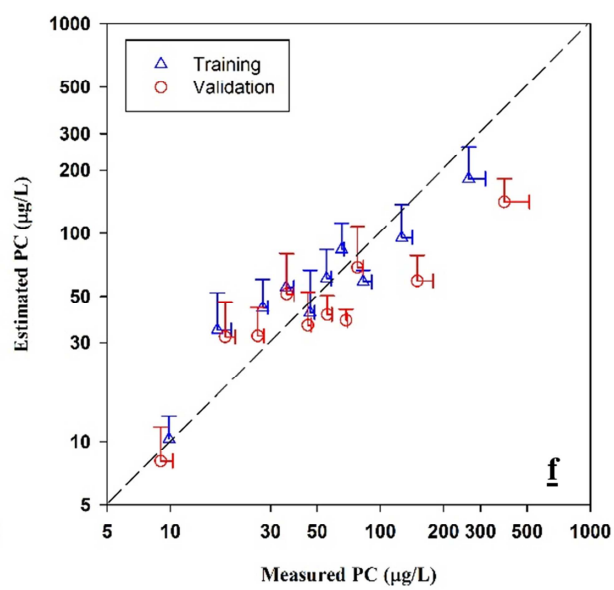
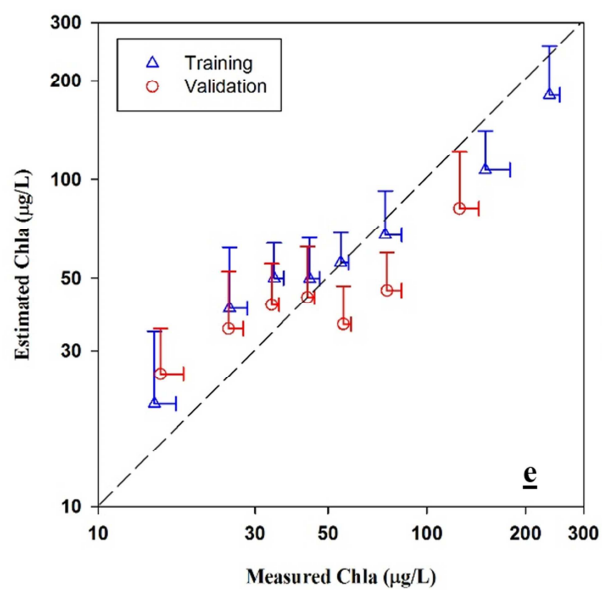


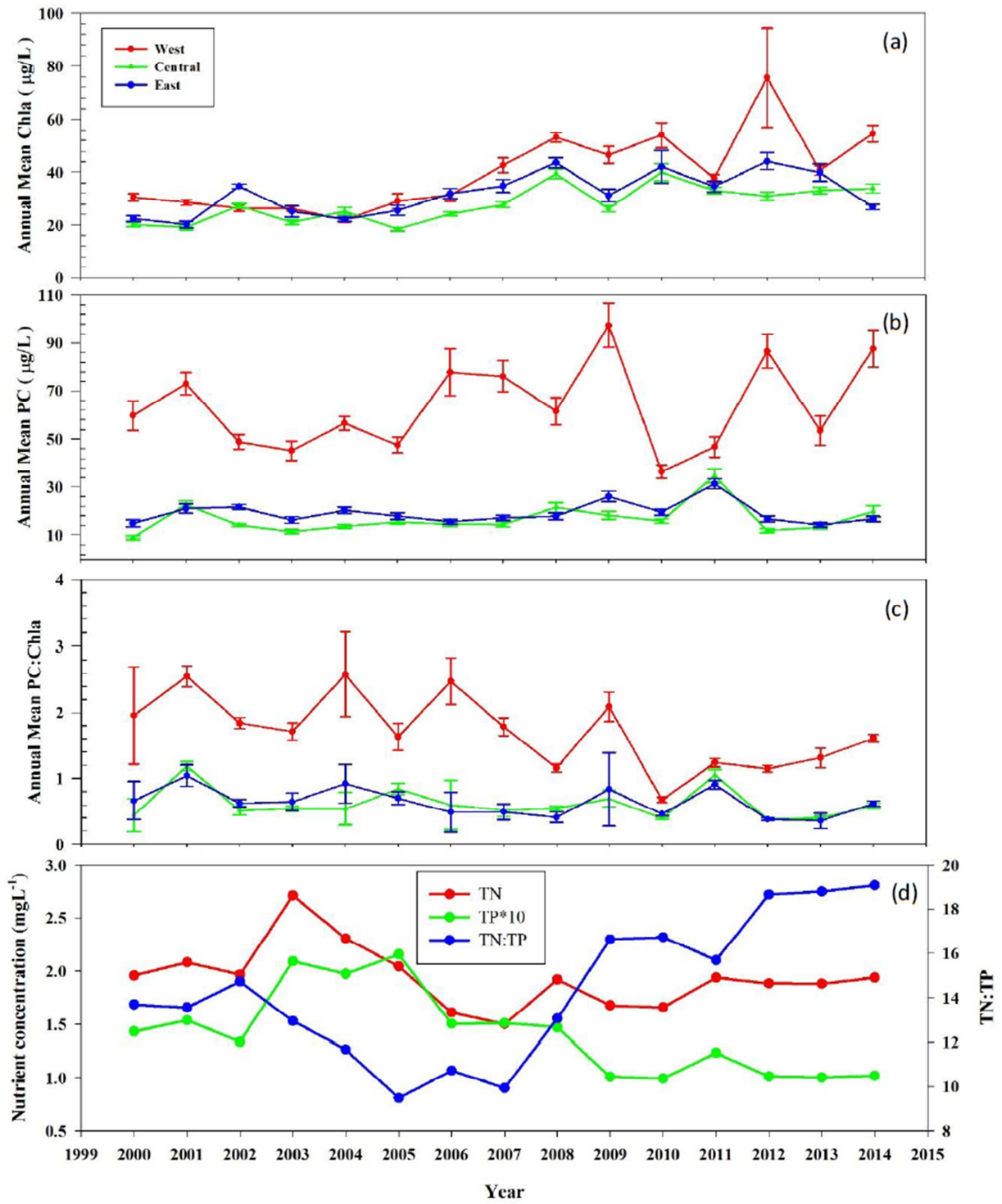




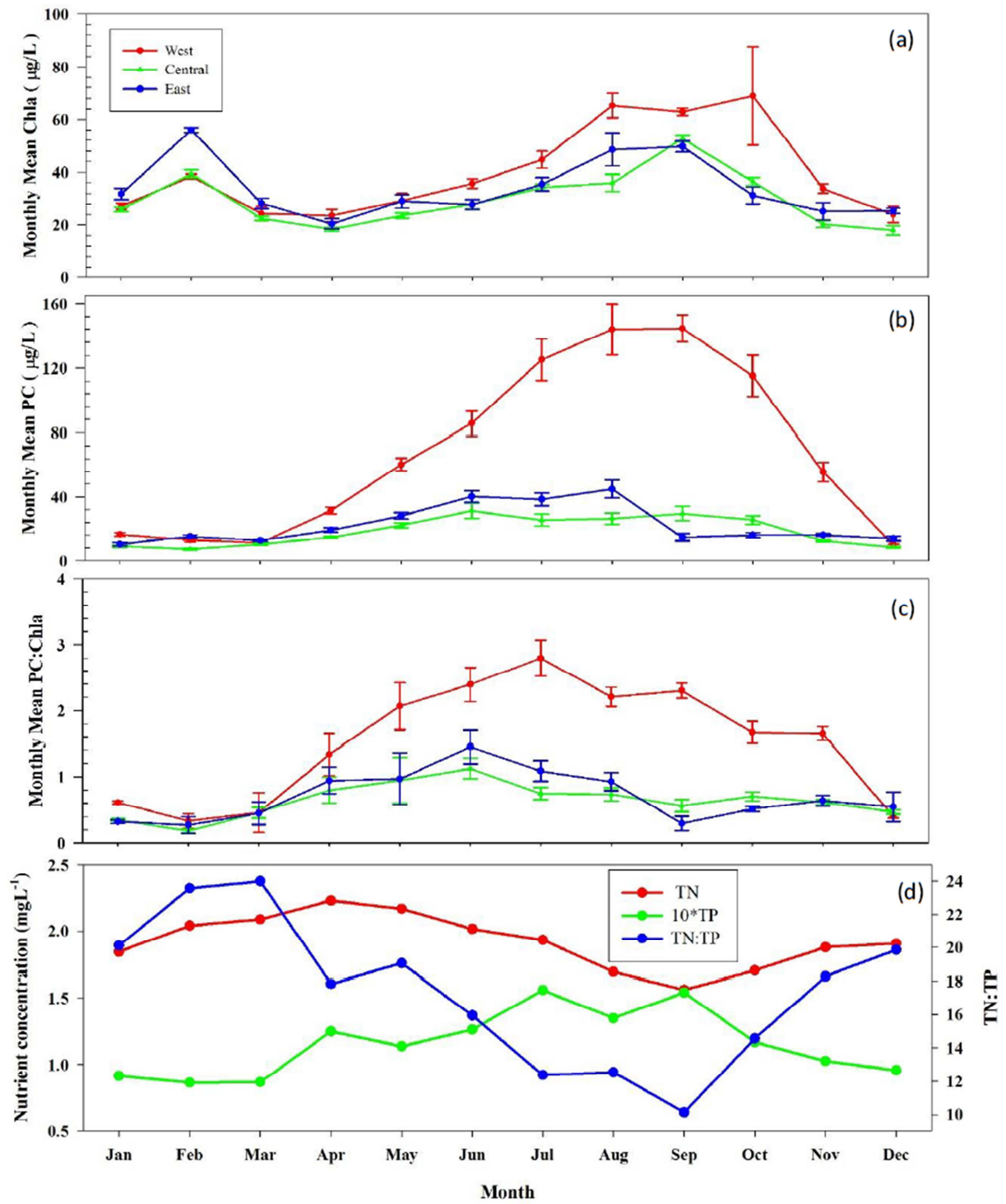


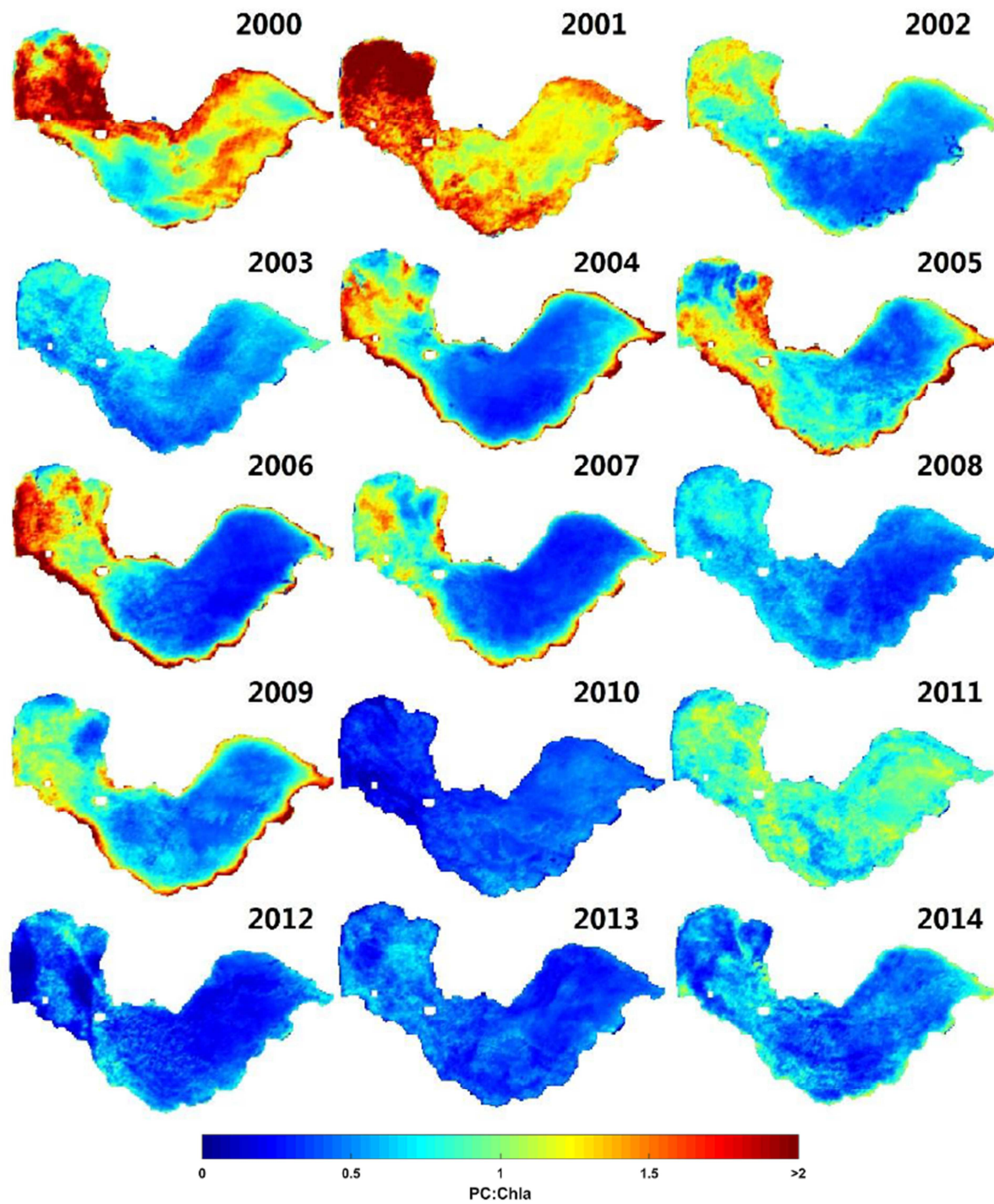


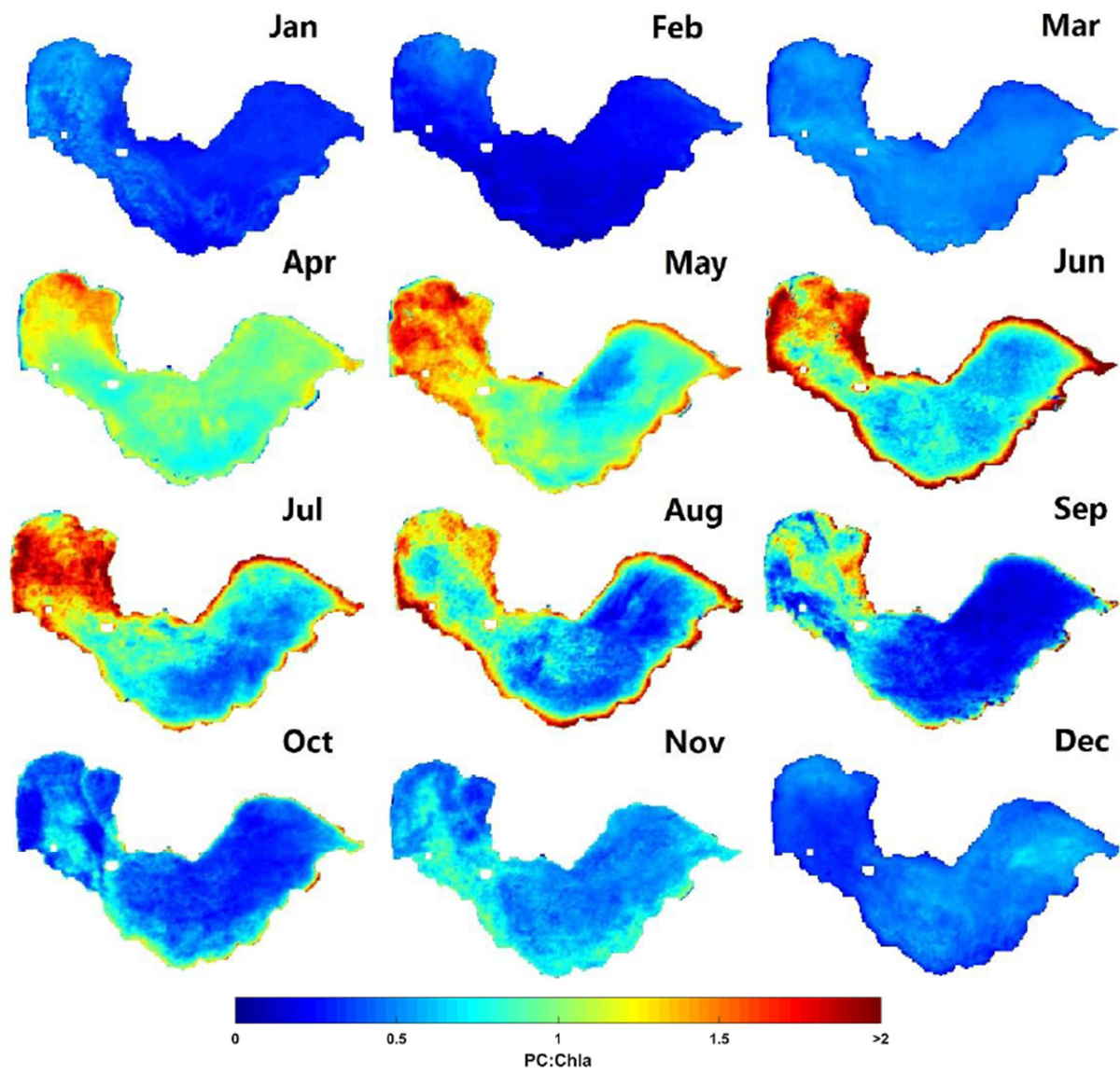


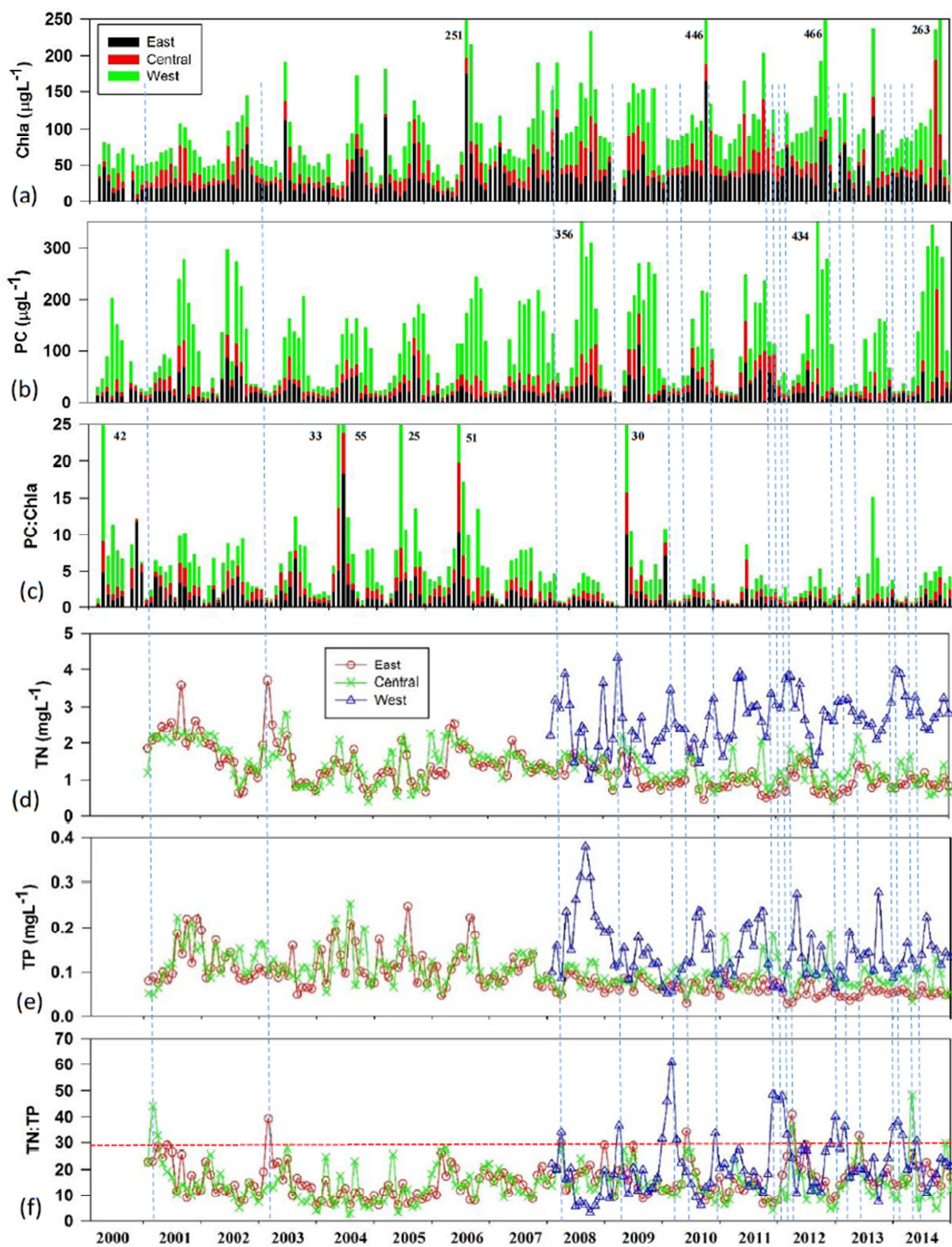


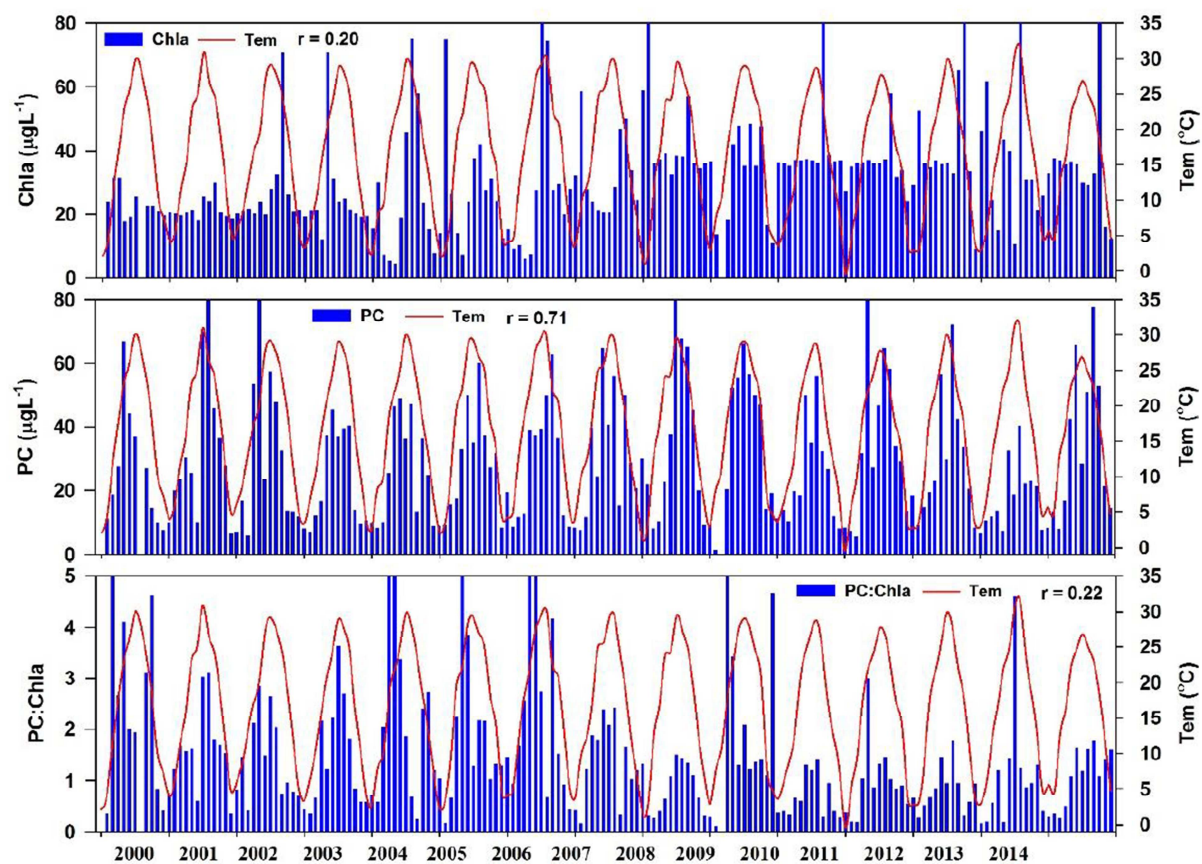












MODIS algorithms are developed to estimate chlorophyll a (Chla) and phycocyanin (PC) concentrations.

Long-term Chla, PC and PC:Chla maps are derived from 2000-2014 MODIS data in a eutrophic lake.

Low TN:TP and elevated temperatures influence the seasonal shift of phytoplankton community.

Cyanobacterial risk mapping provides a tool for safety evaluation in drinking-water source.