

New insights into impacts of anthropogenic nutrients on urban ecosystem processes on the Southern California coastal shelf: Introduction and synthesis

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1 **Abstract**

2 Anthropogenic nutrient inputs are one of the most important factors contributing to
3 eutrophication of coastal waters. Coastal upwelling regions are naturally highly variable,
4 exhibiting faster flushing and lower retention times than estuarine systems. As such, these
5 regions are considered more resilient to anthropogenic influences than other coastal waters.
6 Recent studies have shown our perception of the sustainability of these systems may be flawed
7 and that anthropogenic nutrients can have an impact at local and regional spatial scales within
8 these larger upwelling ecosystems. Maintenance of an outfall pipe discharging wastewater
9 effluent to the Southern California Bight (SCB) provided an opportunity to study effects of
10 anthropogenic nutrient inputs on a near-shore coastal ecosystem. The diversion of wastewater
11 effluent from a primary, offshore outfall to a secondary, near-shore outfall set up a large-scale, *in*
12 *situ* experiment allowing researchers to track the fate of wastewater plumes as they were “turned
13 off” in one area and “turned on” in another. In this introduction to a special issue, we synthesize
14 results of one such wastewater diversion conducted by the Orange County Sanitation District
15 (OCSD) during fall 2012. Anthropogenic nitrogen (N) from point-source discharges altered
16 biogeochemical cycling and the community composition of bacteria and phytoplankton.
17 Nitrification of ammonium to nitrate in wastewater effluent close to outfalls constituted a
18 significant source of N utilized by the biological community that should be considered in
19 quantifying “new” production. The microbial-loop component of the plankton community played
20 a significant role, exemplified by a large response of heterotrophic bacteria to wastewater
21 effluent that resulted in nutrient immobilization within the bacterial food web. This response,
22 combined with the photosynthetic inhibition of phytoplankton due to disinfection byproducts,
23 suppressed phytoplankton responses. Our findings have ramifications for future studies and

24 regulatory monitoring, emphasizing the need to consider chemical and biological responses to
25 wastewater effluent in assessing effects of anthropogenic nutrient inputs on urbanized coastal
26 ecosystems.

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30 **Key words:** wastewater; anthropogenic nutrients; microbial loop; phytoplankton;
31 biogeochemical cycle; nitrogen

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33 **1. Introduction**

34 Coastal upwelling regions along eastern boundary currents are among the most biologically
35 productive ecosystems in the world’s ocean, supplying a significant fraction of global “new”
36 primary productivity, and representing ecologically and economically important habitats (Chavez
37 and Toggweiler, 1995; Capone and Hutchins, 2013). These regions are highly variable in time
38 and space, experiencing large ranges of nutrients, sea surface temperature (SST), dissolved
39 oxygen (DO), carbon dioxide (CO₂), and pH (Chavez et al., 2003; Feely et al., 2008; Bograd et
40 al., 2008; Booth et al., 2014; Bograd et al., 2015). Some upwelling regions face increased
41 anthropogenic nutrient loading from publicly owned treatment works (POTWs), a potentially
42 deleterious manifestation of human-accelerated global change (Howarth and Marino, 2006;
43 Scavia and Bricker, 2006). Despite a perception that anthropogenic nutrient inputs to these
44 regions are small compared to inputs from upwelling, recent evidence suggests such inputs may
45 significantly affect near-shore waters adjacent to urban areas (Capone and Hutchins, 2013;
46 Howard et al., 2014), with ramifications for the resilience of coastal ecosystems (Capone and
47 Hutchins, 2013; Bograd et al., 2015).

48 The Southern California Bight (SCB) is one of the most densely populated areas in the
49 United States, with four counties situated along the shoreline comprising nearly 25% of the
50 nation’s coastal population (Culliton et al., 1990; Schiff et al., 2000). Associated with this dense
51 urban area are large point-source nutrient inputs from POTWs, combined with dynamic
52 processes, such as upwelling, that impose natural variability characteristic of eastern boundary
53 currents (Chavez et al., 2003, 2009). As such, the SCB presents a suitable environment to
54 investigate responses to changes in point-source nutrient inputs. The SCB has a Mediterranean
55 climate with rainfall and runoff limited to storms occurring primarily in winter (Lyon and Stein,

56 2009). Consequently, 92% of total terrestrial N loading to coastal waters of SCB is from
57 wastewater effluent, most of which is discharged directly into coastal waters via outfall pipes
58 (Sengupta et al., 2013). N contributions from outfall pipes are approximately equivalent to N
59 inputs from upwelling at spatial scales of 10s of kilometers (km), effectively doubling N loading
60 to the shelf, altering composition of the N pool (effluent N is primarily ammonium (NH_4^+);
61 upwelled N is primarily nitrate (NO_3^-), and the N:P ratio, as relatively little phosphorus is
62 discharged in wastewater effluent (Howard et al., 2014).

63 Emerging evidence suggests that anthropogenic nutrient inputs significantly affect coastal
64 waters of SCB. The spatial extent and duration of phytoplankton blooms has increased during the
65 past decade, with chronic outbreaks in areas of SCB that receive anthropogenic nutrient inputs
66 (Schnitzer et al., 2007; Nezlin et al., 2012; Schnitzer et al., 2013; Seubert et al., 2013).
67 Furthermore, observed distributions of chlorophyll *a* and phytoplankton in the near-shore cannot
68 be accounted for by upwelling alone (Kim et al., 2009; Corcoran et al., 2010; Nezlin et al., 2012;
69 Reifel et al., 2013). Accordingly, anthropogenic nutrient inputs represent an important water-
70 quality consideration because stimulation of phytoplankton biomass and productivity may signal
71 the occurrence of harmful algal blooms (HAB) and increased biomass to support respiration of
72 organic matter that contributes to reduced DO (Booth et al., 2014).

73 The Orange County Sanitation District (OCSD) is one of three large POTWs discharging
74 secondarily treated wastewater effluent into the coastal ocean adjacent to the greater Los Angeles
75 basin. OCSD serves a population of more than 2.6 million, treating, collecting, and disposing of
76 sewage from two plants, with effluent delivered off Huntington Beach, California. Maintenance
77 of the primary ocean outfall pipes provided an uncommon opportunity to study effects of
78 wastewater effluent on near-shore coastal waters. During maintenance events, wastewater

79 effluent is diverted from a primary offshore outfall to a secondary near-shore outfall while the
80 principal outfall is inspected and repaired. Consequently, such diversions set up large-scale, *in*
81 *situ* experiments that allow researchers to track the fate of wastewater plumes as they are “turned
82 off” in one area and “turned on” in another.

83 In this special issue, a series of papers presents the results of monitoring and research
84 associated with the OCSD diversion during fall 2012. OCSD diverted approximately 528×10^6 L
85 d^{-1} of secondarily treated wastewater effluent for three weeks. While previous diversions were
86 conducted in SCB, OCSD had not conducted a diversion of this magnitude since 1972. The
87 Environmental Impact Report (EIR) summarized anticipated biological responses to nutrient
88 inputs, estimating the wastewater-effluent plume would contain up to $42 \mu M NH_4^+$, potentially
89 generating a phytoplankton bloom of $40\text{-}50 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ chlorophyll *a* (OCSD, 2011), based on
90 observed impacts of a diversion in Santa Monica Bay in 2006 (Reifel et al., 2013). To mitigate
91 the potential impacts of fecal indicator bacteria and other pathogens (Noble and Xu, 2004),
92 OCSD used enhanced chlorination followed by dechlorination of the discharge, so the effect of
93 the plume would primarily be due to nutrient additions rather than intact microbial populations.

94 A substantial field program was coordinated to track the fate of the wastewater plume and to
95 ascertain effects of the diversion on nutrient inputs and biological responses. This
96 multidisciplinary program combined monitoring by a robotics and sensor network coupled to
97 predictive ocean modeling, field observations and experiments to assess effects of nutrient inputs
98 on biogeochemical cycling and ecosystem dynamics, and *in situ* and satellite observations to
99 identify and track plume location, transport, and mixing. This special issue summarizes our
100 findings and discusses implications for N cycling and rate processes, and microbial responses to
101 inputs of wastewater effluent in an urbanized coastal region of the SCB.

102 **2. Materials and Methods**

103 *2.1 Study site and design*

104 Ocean outfalls for OCSD are located off the coast of Huntington Beach, California (Fig. 1).
105 From 11 September 2012 to 3 October 2012, OCSD diverted wastewater effluent from the
106 primary 120-inch-diameter outfall pipe located 5 miles offshore at a depth of 56 m, to a near-
107 shore 78-inch diameter outfall pipe located 1 mile offshore at a depth of 16 m. Ship surveys,
108 experiments, and modeling were combined to monitor effects of the diversion, and a variety of
109 instruments were deployed to track the plume and determine ecological effects in near-shore and
110 offshore environments. A robotics and sensor network included four autonomous underwater
111 vehicles, with three Teledyne Webb Slocum gliders and one REMUS, a buoyancy glider, a
112 Liquid Robotics Surface Wave Glider, two water-quality buoys, an Environmental Sample
113 Processor (ESP), three autonomous wave-powered profiling moorings (Wirewalkers), and four
114 Acoustic Doppler Current Profilers (Fig. 1).

115 The Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS) used a multi-scale, three-dimensional
116 variational data assimilation method with a mesoscale atmospheric model to produce now-casts
117 every six hours and daily 72-h forecasts during the diversion (Rogowski et al., 2014). Model
118 outputs guided monitoring resources and ship surveys. ROMS incorporated real-time data
119 streams, including both 2 km and 6 km HF radar surface current data, vertical profiles of
120 temperature and salinity from gliders and the MBARI M1 mooring, and SST from Advanced
121 Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), and Moderate Resolution Infrared
122 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) (Rogowski et al., 2014). Observational data were not assimilated
123 into now-casts and forecasts because they were not available in real time. Rogowski et al. (2014)
124 provides a detailed description of modeling efforts during and after the diversion study.

125 2.2 Shipboard Surveys

126 Shipboard surveys covered pre-, during, and post-diversion intervals, as described by Caron
127 et al. (this issue) and summarized here. Weekly “plume-tracking” cruises aboard the *M/V Nerissa*
128 (OCSD) focused on water quality and enumeration of bacteria and phytoplankton for stations in
129 the vicinity of the discharge and at the long outfall pipe. An adaptive sampling design was used
130 to position stations up-coast and down-coast, depending on daily current predictions from
131 ROMS, assuring sampling at a subset of stations in close proximity to the discharge. The
132 sampling zones occupied on these regulatory-based surveys were defined in the California Ocean
133 Plan.

134 Corresponding “event” cruises were conducted weekly aboard the *R/V Yellowfin* (Southern
135 California Marine Institute) or the *M/V Nerissa*, occupying five stations on an onshore - offshore
136 transect to document near-shore effects of wastewater effluent at the short outfall, and changes at
137 the long outfall resulting from cessation of discharge. A “regional” cruise evaluated
138 phytoplankton responses over a larger geographical area (Caron et al., this issue). Discrete
139 sampling and experiments included characterization of spatial and temporal changes in nutrient
140 concentrations, shifts in community composition of bacteria and phytoplankton, N cycling, and
141 isotopic-source tracking to determine the extent of wastewater effluent effects. A number of
142 experiments focused on phytoplankton responses to wastewater effluent and other nutrients,
143 including N-preference and NH_4^+ -inhibition. A retrospective analysis relied on satellite data from
144 multiple sensors to distinguish biophysical responses from the diverted effluent (Gierach et al.,
145 this issue).

146 **3. Results summary**

147 *3.1. Plume tracking*

148 Multiple approaches were used during the 2012 OCSD diversion to overcome technical
149 challenges associated with plume tracking, such as locating and monitoring the plume in near
150 real-time. Technologies included wave-powered profiling moorings (Wirewalkers) (Lucas and
151 Kudela, this issue; Kudela et al., this issue), buoys and moorings including bottom-mounted
152 Acoustic Doppler Current Profilers (ADCP), two ocean buoys and an Environmental Sample
153 Processor (Caron et al., this issue; Lucas and Kudela, this issue), autonomous underwater
154 vehicles (AUVs) such as Teledyne Slocum gliders and a Liquid Robotics Waveglider (Seegers et
155 al., this issue), and remote sensing (Gierach et al., this issue). From these observations, a
156 consistent plume signature was identified, which allowed for plume tracking and estimation of
157 plume dilution and dispersion.

158 Prior to the wastewater-effluent diversion, we expected the OCSD plume would be surface-
159 trapped, given the volume of discharge and shallow release depth. Consistent with this
160 expectation, visual observations confirmed the presence of a surface signature (Fig. 2). Vertical
161 profiles, however, revealed a complex mixing pattern, with plume water interacting with both
162 surface and bottom layers (Lucas and Kudela, this issue). This led to the presence of plume water
163 in both near-field (mixing between the effluent and ambient waters) and far-field (mixing where
164 dilution occurs primarily with waters of the same density), and a significant component in the
165 subsurface (Lucas and Kudela, this issue).

166 Plume tracking by Lagrangian drifters showed plume waters mainly traveled in onshore and
167 alongshore directions (Rogowski et al., 2014). Satellite imagery also proved useful to track the
168 plume and biological responses (Gierach et al., this issue), revealing patterns consistent with

169 Lagrangian drifters. Gierach et al. (this issue) estimated that chlorophyll *a* and SST must vary by
170 1 mg m^{-3} and $0.5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, respectively in order to successfully identify and track the plume using
171 satellite imagery, while synthetic aperture radar (SAR) was useful when wind speeds were 3 to 8
172 m s^{-1} . Glider profiles (Seegers et al., this issue) suggested most of the plume was entrained in the
173 upper 20 m, but with a significant plume signature extending as deep as 40 m. Together, these
174 observations provide a consistent view of plume dynamics, with waters in the plume
175 characterized by low SST, low salinity, and elevated chromophoric dissolved organic matter
176 (CDOM). The plume was predominantly surface-trapped and maintained in the upper ~20 m for
177 significant periods (days) in the vicinity of the outfall. *In situ* observations confirmed elevated
178 CDOM in the plume as detected by satellites (Seegers et al., this issue; Gierach et al. this issue).
179 The distribution of the plume also agreed well with modeling outputs for plume dispersal
180 (Uchiyama et al., 2014).

181 Dilution of the plume was more difficult to estimate. We expected the plume would be
182 diluted 30:1 in the near-field, primarily due to the design of diffusers. Data from Lagrangian
183 drifters showed dilution $> 100:1$ within 1 km of the outfall pipe (Rogowski et al., 2014). Nutrient
184 distributions were consistent with at least 100:1 dilution within the region (Caron et al., this
185 issue), but surface mapping showed water of low salinity, and low variable fluorescence
186 occurred several km from the outfall (Kudela et al., this issue). These observations can be
187 reconciled by taking into account the subsurface lensing observed by Lucas and Kudela (this
188 issue). While the bulk of the plume was surface-trapped and rapidly diluted, a significant fraction
189 of wastewater effluent was likely entrained in intermediate layers, persisting until dissipated by
190 intermediate- and far-field processes, such as wind-driven mixing and internal waves. Weak
191 transport and rapid mixing resulted in a plume-influenced region extending several km around

192 the outfall pipe, and remaining in the general vicinity of the outfall pipe for several days (Lucas
193 and Kudela, this issue). This was sufficiently long for biological responses to develop,
194 exemplified by heterotrophic bacteria (Caron et al., this issue), and phytoplankton growth and
195 photosynthesis (Kudela et al., this issue).

196 The OCSD diversion was studied with intensive observations and modeling. It is unlikely
197 that a comparable study could be maintained by most management entities, highlighting the need
198 for a cooperative use of advanced technologies. Notably, results from gliders, drifters, shipboard
199 observations, and satellite retrievals converged on similar estimates of dilution, while high-
200 resolution vertical observations from Wirewalkers and spatial transects of properties such as
201 variable fluorescence identified more concentrated layers and lensing effects. This suggests that
202 routine monitoring at the meso-scale using multiple observational approaches would capture the
203 bulk oceanographic responses to nutrient inputs, but could miss small-scale effects.

204 *3.2. Biological responses*

205 Biological responses during the OCSD diversion in 2012 differed from those in previous
206 studies. Prior to the OCSD diversion, a much smaller diversion was conducted from the
207 Hyperion Wastewater Treatment Plant in Santa Monica Bay, California for three days in 2006.
208 Also, there was a major breach in San Diego, California in 1992, resulting in discharge of
209 untreated effluent for several months. Although information in the published literature about the
210 San Diego event is sparse, dinoflagellate blooms were reported around the periphery of an
211 effluent plume that was visible from airborne platforms (Casey et al., 1992; Tegner et al., 1995;
212 Lange et al., unpublished data). The March 1993 issue of the journal, *Photogrammetric*
213 *Engineering and Remote Sensing* featured the San Diego breach on the cover, as reproduced here
214 (Fig. 3). The 2006 diversion in Santa Monica Bay produced dramatic biological responses,

215 including increases of potentially harmful dinoflagellates, *Lingulodinium polyedrum* and
216 *Cochlodinium* sp., subsequently identified as *C. fulvescens* (Howard et al., 2012) and *Akashiwo*
217 *sanguinea* (Reifel et al., 2013).

218 Given this historical context and anticipated impacts of the OCSD diversion described in the
219 EIR (OCSD, 2011), we anticipated a large phytoplankton response to nutrient inputs during the
220 2012 diversion. The EIR predicted a persistent phytoplankton bloom with chlorophyll *a* of 40-50
221 mg m⁻³ in response to NH₄⁺ in the discharge effluent (OCSD, 2011). But contrary to
222 expectations, chlorophyll *a* remained low throughout the diversion (Caron et al., this issue;
223 Kudela and Lucas, this issue; Kudela et al., this issue; Seegers et al., this issue). So what actually
224 happened following the diversion? Caron et al. (this issue) showed responses by various fractions
225 of the planktonic community, including counts of phytoplankton, microzooplankton,
226 picoeukaryotes, cyanobacteria, and heterotrophic bacteria. Overall, phytoplankton composition
227 shifted slightly during the diversion, with increased cyanobacteria and phototrophic,
228 picoplanktonic eukaryotes. In contrast to the Hyperion diversion in Santa Monica Bay, there was
229 little to no increase of potentially harmful dinoflagellates, despite the longer diversion (three
230 weeks vs. three days). While background concentrations of the toxic diatom, *Pseudo-nitzschia*
231 spp. were detected, Caron et al. (this issue) measured relatively low concentrations of domoic
232 acid ($\leq 0.05 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) associated with this genus. Total phytoplankton biomass as chlorophyll *a*
233 remained low throughout the diversion ($< 5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$), while bacterial biomass and microbial
234 grazers showed strong responses, with heterotrophic bacteria increasing by an order-of-
235 magnitude at mid-diversion (Caron et al., this issue). There was some evidence of increased
236 chlorophyll *a* toward the end of the diversion (Lucas and Kudela, this issue), and subsurface

237 observations from gliders (Seegers et al., this issue) corroborated a moderate increase of
238 phytoplankton biomass at depth, although stimulation of a bloom did not occur.

239 Experimental manipulations using enclosures showed the phytoplankton community was
240 physiologically capable of using nutrients in the wastewater effluent (Seubert et al., this issue;
241 Kudela et al., this issue). A “worst-case scenario” of 1:10 dilution resulted in substantial growth
242 (Seubert et al., this issue), while lower additions of effluent (such as 1:100 or 1:1000) or various
243 combinations of nutrients supported robust growth rates, often exceeding 1 division day⁻¹
244 (Kudela et al., this issue). NH₄⁺ inhibition has been suggested to affect growth and productivity
245 of some phytoplankton taxa (Dugdale et al., 2006), particularly diatoms, but high NH₄⁺
246 concentrations sufficient to be inhibitory were not detected (Seubert et al., this issue; Kudela et
247 al., this issue). The results from N uptake kinetics experiments showed no obvious physiological
248 impairment attributed solely to N concentrations; NH₄⁺ suppression of NO₃⁻ uptake was not
249 sufficient to account for the lack of biological response, and there was physiological capacity to
250 respond to ambient N substrates (Kudela et al., this issue).

251 To explain the lack of phytoplankton stimulation despite an apparent physiological capacity
252 for a bloom to develop, Kudela et al. (this issue) considered effects of chlorination and
253 subsequent dechlorination, and the production of inhibitory disinfection by-products (DBP).
254 Wastewater effluent contained hypochlorite residuals above regulatory requirements, thereby
255 documenting over-chlorination. Kudela et al. (this issue) found that effluent treated with
256 hypochlorite that was incompletely neutralized with bisulfite led to a significant inhibition of
257 phytoplankton photosynthesis lasting ~24 h, with suppressed growth continuing for at least 72 h.
258 Analogous inhibition of heterotrophic bacteria was not observed, consistent with the findings of
259 Caron et al. (this issue) and Seubert et al. (this issue). These results suggest DBP may have

260 precluded development of a phytoplankton bloom while allowing a strong response by the
261 bacterial assemblage. Caron et al. (this issue) propose that the presence of DBP on the
262 continental shelf for several days (Kudela et al., this issue; Lucas et al., this issue) was sufficient
263 to depress phytoplankton and stimulate bacteria, resulting in nutrient immobilization in the
264 bacterial food web, and thereby suppressing stimulation of a phytoplankton bloom that had been
265 anticipated prior to the diversion.

266 *3.3. Biogeochemical cycling*

267 Wastewater effluent in ocean outfalls represents a large point source of NH_4^+ ; therefore, high
268 rates of NH_4^+ -oxidation were expected to occur near the outfall with ramifications for N cycling.
269 McLaughlin et al. (this issue) hypothesized NH_4^+ in effluent would sustain high nitrification
270 rates, i.e., the sequential oxidation of NH_4^+ to NO_3^- via nitrite (NO_2^-) near the long-outfall pipe
271 during normal operations, and would be reduced to background rates when the pipe was out of
272 operation. The authors also expected effluent N to be incorporated into biomass of bacteria and
273 phytoplankton around outfall pipes. The expected decrease of nitrification at the long-outfall
274 pipe, measured in bottle incubations as accumulation of ^{15}N in the dissolved NO_3^- pool following
275 addition of isotopically enriched $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$, was observed following the diversion to the short
276 outfall, and “background” nitrification rates were consistent with those previously reported for
277 SCB (Ward, 1987). Furthermore, decreased nitrification at the long outfall was consistent with
278 decreased NH_4^+ emission during the diversion.

279 The importance of nitrification to biogeochemical cycling of N around the OCSO outfall was
280 substantiated by nutrient concentrations revealing a “hot spot” of NH_4^+ and NO_2^- over the ocean
281 outfall pipe under normal operations. The dual isotopic composition of dissolved NO_3^- ($\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{NO}_3}$
282 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{NO}_3}$) indicated N-assimilation and denitrification rates were low relative to nitrification,

283 consistent with low phytoplankton biomass observed during the study period (Caron et al., this
284 issue; Seegers et al., this issue), possibly caused by DBP in wastewater effluent (Kudela et al.,
285 this issue). The isotopic composition of suspended particulate matter indicated low $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{PN}}$ and
286 $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{PN}}$ values around the outfall under normal operations, suggesting incorporation of “nitrified”
287 (low ^{15}N NO_3^-) and wastewater dissolved organic carbon into biomass. These results suggest that
288 effluent altered N cycling in close proximity to the outfall (McLaughlin et al., this issue). An
289 implication of these findings is that rapid oxidation of effluent NH_4^+ around outfalls contributes
290 significantly to the pool of NO_3^- in urban coastal areas. This unconventional source of NO_3^- in
291 the context of “new” production (*sensu* Dugdale and Goering, 1967) should be considered in
292 distinguishing upwelled and regenerated NO_3^- to support primary productivity. Thus, both NH_4^+
293 and transformed NO_3^- represent new sources of N. Resulting changes in the proportions of N
294 forms have implications for the community composition of phytoplankton, as preferences for
295 specific N forms differ among taxonomic groups (Dortch and Conway, 1984; Dortch, 1990;
296 Kudela and Cochlan, 2000; Dugdale et al., 2007; Kudela et al., 2008; Collos and Harrison,
297 2014).

298 **4. Conclusions**

299 Eutrophication of coastal waters associated with anthropogenic nutrient inputs is well-
300 documented (Howarth, 2008; Paerl and Piehler, 2008), but is often overlooked for coastal
301 upwelling regions. Several insights emerged from the diversion described here with implications
302 for coastal ocean management. First, results indicate anthropogenic N inputs from point-source
303 ocean outfalls impact biogeochemical processes, community composition of phytoplankton and
304 bacteria, phytoplankton physiology, and N cycling within the vicinity of the outfall. Decreased
305 nitrification rates at the long outfall during the diversion indicate that wastewater effluent altered

306 N cycling in close proximity to the outfalls. The geographic extent of this effect needs to be
307 characterized in future studies to assess if management actions to mitigate these effects are
308 warranted. Second, rapid oxidation of effluent NH_4^+ to NO_3^- in close proximity to the outfalls
309 represents a significant source of “new” N to the biological community that needs to be
310 considered in quantifying biomass and productivity of phytoplankton in near-shore waters.
311 Changes in the inventory, form, and biogeochemical cycling of N affect the phytoplankton
312 community composition and competition among algal taxa (Dortch and Conway, 1984; Dortch,
313 1990, Dugdale et al., 2007; Collos and Harrison, 2014) and development of phytoplankton
314 blooms (Kudela and Cochlan, 2000; Glibert et al., 2005; Beman et al., 2005; Glibert et al., 2006;
315 Howard et al., 2007; Cochlan et al., 2008; Heisler et al., 2008; Kudela et al., 2008), as N is the
316 primary macronutrient limiting phytoplankton in coastal waters (Dugdale, 1967; Ryther and
317 Dunstan, 1971; Eppley et al., 1979; Howarth and Marino, 2006). Third, wastewater effluent
318 elicited significant changes in microbial community composition, evident in a muted
319 phytoplankton response and large increase in abundance of heterotrophic bacteria, suggesting the
320 microbial loop plays a significant, perhaps under-appreciated role in urbanized coastal waters of
321 SCB. Finally, a convergence of dilution estimates from multiple observational modes highlights
322 the ability to track the bulk transport of effluent plumes, while observations of lensing and small
323 patches of less-diluted effluent highlights the need for high-resolution sampling to quantify
324 spatial and temporal variability.

325 Our findings indicate wastewater effluent alters N cycling and processes and microbial
326 community composition in the nearshore urbanized coastal waters of the SCB. Studies from the
327 Hyperion Wastewater Treatment Plant diversion in Santa Monica Bay in 2006 suggested
328 regulatory implementation of nutrient reductions to avoid bloom development and minimize

329 anthropogenic impacts (Reifel et al. 2013). However, our results do not support regulatory
330 changes at this time, as too few studies have been completed and the spatial extent of the relative
331 impact is currently unknown. Instead, we suggest additional studies that will determine the
332 spatial extent of the anthropogenic impacts and use modeling and scenario analysis to determine
333 if nutrient reductions will significantly reduce these impacts.

334 Routine regulatory requirements for monitoring point-source discharges through the National
335 Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) permits for ocean monitoring of large POTW
336 discharges in SCB do not include measurements of nutrients, biological productivity, or chemical
337 processes. Additionally, NPDES permit requirements for monitoring effluent differ amongst the
338 four large POTW permits in SCB. Given that wastewater effluent may constitute nutrient inputs
339 comparable to those from coastal upwelling (Howard et al., 2014), and that wastewater effluent
340 influences N cycling in close proximity to outfalls (McLaughlin et al., this issue), a
341 comprehensive record of the total N loading that includes different forms of N would be
342 beneficial. Current NPDES requirements are not focused on nutrients; thus, regulatory
343 monitoring programs do not provide comprehensive data to evaluate long-term ecological
344 changes associated with point-source nutrient discharges. These parameters, however, are critical
345 for identifying the impacts from point source discharges on coastal ocean ecosystems. Therefore,
346 we suggest more nutrient focused regulatory monitoring requirements for both effluent and
347 receiving waters that should be incorporated into NPDES monitoring requirement programs.

348 Mitigation of pathogens by OCS D's enhanced chlorination and dechlorination of discharge
349 proved successful (Rogowski et al., 2014), but had the unintended consequence of inhibiting
350 phytoplankton biomass and productivity, and possibly preventing development of a harmful algal
351 bloom, such as occurred in Santa Monica Bay following a shorter diversion. Future diversions

352 and normal operations of POTWs should consider possible effects of DBP on the biota, as
353 monitoring of residual chloride may not fully capture potential impacts on the biological
354 community.

355 The multi-dimensional approach to monitoring developed for this study provided several
356 important points for future diversions and/or management scenarios that require enhanced or
357 extensive monitoring. First, now-casts and forecasts from ROMS combined with real-time
358 observations provided a comprehensive overview of oceanic conditions independent of sporadic
359 *in situ* and remote sensing data. Accordingly, ROMS outputs were critical to management
360 decisions and to guide adaptive sampling. Second, satellite observations supported detection of
361 the wastewater plume over a larger spatial scale than would have been possible with *in situ*
362 observations alone, but with some limitations due to cloud cover that affected availability of
363 imagery. We recommend the expenditure of effort to develop metrics to use satellite data for
364 tracking plumes of wastewater effluent and quantifying phytoplankton responses, as this
365 approach offers important advantages in spatial and temporal resolution. A more comprehensive
366 assessment of point-source nutrient discharge for the SCB or other regions could also benefit
367 from an Observing System Simulation Experiment (OSSE) framework, which would allow for a
368 value-of-information approach to identify the most effective monitoring tools, and also assess
369 new technologies as they become available. For the SCB, this approach is not warranted at this
370 time given the infrequent timing of diversions (decades) and the current lack of a regulatory
371 requirement for more sophisticated monitoring, but consideration should be given to this
372 recommendation for other locales or for the SCB if agencies are required in the future to take a
373 more holistic approach to wastewater management.

374

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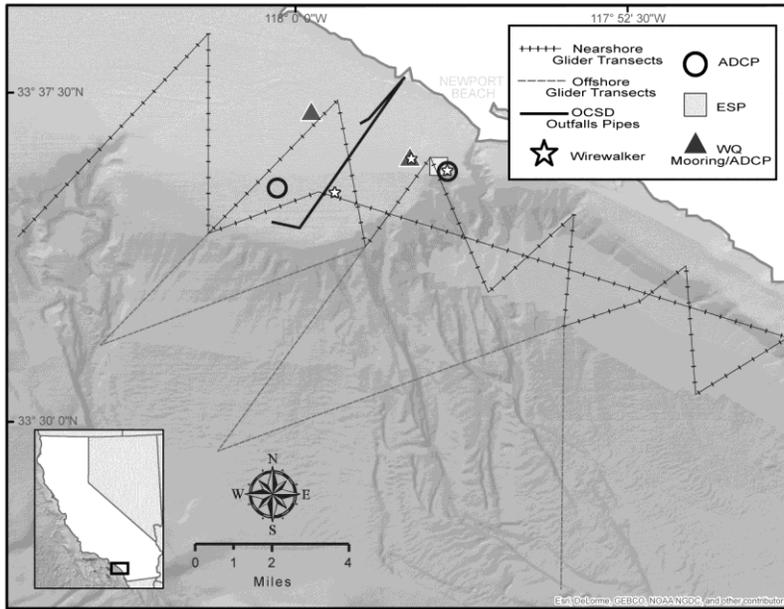
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532 Figure Legends

533 Figure 1. Map of the study area illustrating instruments comprising the sensor network. The gray
534 dashed line and gray dashed railroad lines show offshore and nearshore glider transects,
535 respectively. Fixed platforms consist of water-quality moorings, including ADCPs (dark gray
536 triangle), ADCPs only (open circles), Wirewalkers (white stars) and the ESP (gray square).

537 Figure 2. Photographs of the wastewater effluent surfacing during the OCSD diversion. Courtesy
538 of Mike McCarthy and Michael Mengel (OCSD).

539 Figure 3. Image of the effluent breach in San Diego, California on 25 February 1992 from the
540 NASA Airborne Ocean Color Imager (AOCI). Courtesy of Jeff Myers (NASA Ames Research
541 Center).



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543 Fig. 1

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547 Fig. 2

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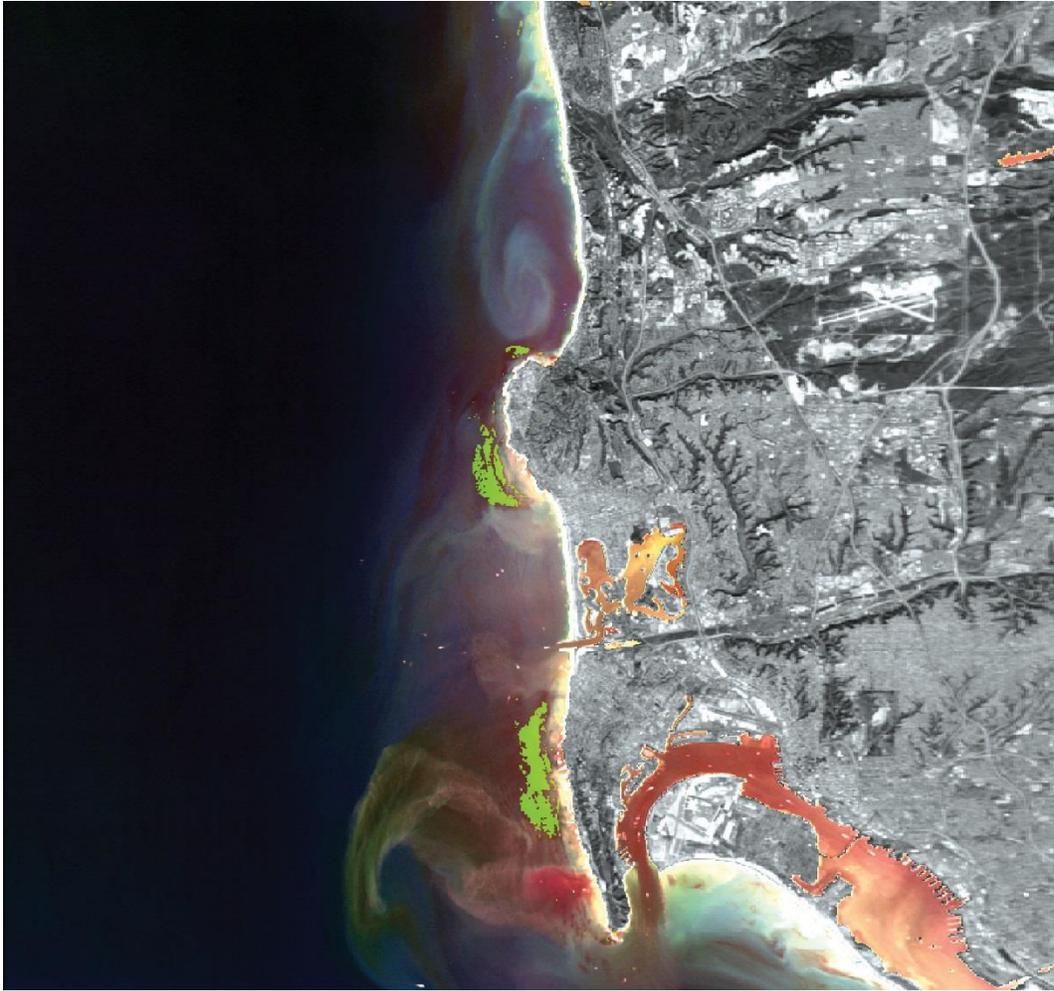
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556 Fig. 3