

1 Nitrate reduction pathways in the presence of excess nitrogen in a shallow eutrophic estuary
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8
9 **ABSTRACT**

10 The eutrophication of estuaries results from increasing anthropogenic nutrient inputs to coastal waters. Ecosystem
11 recovery from eutrophication is partly dependent on the ability of a system to assimilate or remove nutrients, and
12 denitrification and dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA) are important pathways for nitrogen (N)
13 retention or removal. We measured rates of denitrification and DNRA over an annual cycle at two stations in
14 Weeks Bay, AL, a shallow microtidal estuary receiving freshwater from two rivers with agricultural watersheds and
15 high N inputs. We hypothesized that rates of DNRA would exceed denitrification in the sulfidogenic sediments in
16 this estuary. Consistent with our hypothesis, we found that DNRA ($44.4 \pm 5.5 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) exceeded *in situ*
17 denitrification ($0.9 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) and that even in the presence of abundant water column nitrate DNRA
18 was favored over denitrification by a factor of two. DNRA is estimated to provide N to the water column at a rate
19 equivalent to 15% of the N input that is retained within the estuary and is a significant component of the N budget in
20 this highly impacted estuary. DNRA by retaining N in the system contributes to the nitrogen demand by primary
21 producers can impact this estuary through enhanced rates of primary production. Weeks Bay, like many coastal
22 estuaries, experiences periods of hypoxia, blooms of harmful algae and fish kills. Future management efforts should
23 focus on reducing nutrient input to this estuary without which the significant retention of N in this system through
24 DNRA will contribute to the undesirable ecosystem attributes associated with eutrophication.

25 **Capsule:** DNRA is a significant process even in the presence of elevated nitrate concentrations in the sulfidogenic
26 sediments of Weeks Bay, Alabama, and provides a significant fraction of the nitrogen demand by primary
27 producers. It is conceivable that higher inputs of nutrients will contribute to the initiation and retention of algal
28 blooms and subsequent deposition of organic matter to the sediments, degradation of which will lead to more
29 hypoxic events and fish kills in this and similarly impacted ecosystems if management decisions do not lead to
30 nutrient input reductions.

31 **Key Words** Nitrogen cycling, DNRA, denitrification, hydrogen sulfide, National Estuarine Research Reserve

32

33 INTRODUCTION

34 Nearshore marine ecosystems are especially sensitive to anthropogenic nutrient inputs (Smith et al., 1999)
35 with ecosystem structure and function markedly altered as a consequence (Cloern, 2001; Halpern et al., 2007;
36 Harley et al., 2006). Anthropogenically-driven increases in N loads (primarily as nitrate, NO_3^-) to aquatic systems
37 and associated water quality problems have focused attention on understanding the variables that affect processes
38 within the N cycle, and more specifically the pathways of NO_3^- reduction within estuarine sediments. These
39 processes include canonical denitrification, anaerobic ammonium (NH_4^+) oxidation (anammox), and dissimilatory
40 nitrate reduction to NH_4^+ (DNRA). Denitrification is carried out by bacteria that reduce NO_3^- at low (0.2 mg/L)
41 oxygen (O_2) concentrations and produce nitrous oxide (N_2O) and dinitrogen gas (N_2) (Knowles, 1982; Seitzinger et
42 al., 2006). Anammox oxidizes NH_4^+ with NO_2^- as the electron acceptor to produce N_2 , however, it generally
43 accounts for only a minor fraction of the N_2 produced (Dalsgaard et al., 2005). As a result of DNRA, NO_3^- is
44 reduced to NH_4^+ (Gardner et al., 2006; Kaspar et al., 1981). In contrast to denitrification and anammox that lead to
45 the removal of N from the system, DNRA retains N as NH_4^+ (An and Gardner, 2002). In addition to N and
46 phosphorus (P) regenerated through mineralization of sediment organic matter (Twilley et al., 1999) N retained
47 through DNRA contributes to primary production in estuaries.

48 Understanding the factors that control how NO_3^- is cycled has implications for predicting the impact of
49 excess nutrient inputs to nearshore marine systems (Christensen et al., 2003; Seitzinger et al., 2006). Indeed,
50 anthropogenic N loading in the watershed and the fate of nutrients once they enter the estuary are primary
51 management concerns (Paerl et al., 2014). Denitrification has empirically been shown to vary as a function water
52 column NO_3^- concentration, the water column residence time, (Nixon et al., 1996; Seitzinger et al., 2006), as well
53 the overall rate of sediment organic matter mineralization (Fennel et al., 2009). With higher water residence time
54 and elevated NO_3^- concentrations, primary production is enhanced which leads to higher inputs of organic matter to
55 the sediment and leads to higher denitrification rates (Middelburg et al., 1996). However, the same factors, namely
56 NO_3^- availability and organic matter content of the sediments (Tiedje, 1988), have also been shown to influence
57 DNRA (Christensen et al., 2000; Dong et al., 2011). The ratio of NO_3^- to organic matter content is a primary factor
58 that determines if NO_3^- is lost through denitrification or retained in the system through DNRA (Burgin and
59 Hamilton, 2007). Other variables such as the presence of reduced sulfur in the sediments also influence

60 denitrification and DNRA. The presence of sulfides in sediments lead to reduced denitrification (Tobias et al.,
61 2001) and coupled nitrification-denitrification (Christensen et al., 2003), though autotrophic denitrification coupled
62 to reduced sulfur compounds is noted (Batchelor and Lawrence, 1978). But DNRA can proceed
63 chemolithoautotrophically through oxidation of reduced sulfur species (Brunet and Garcia-Gil, 1996; Dalsgaard and
64 Bak, 1994), and in the presence of sulfides a larger fraction of the available NO_3^- can be retained in the system as
65 opposed to lost from the systems through denitrification (Christensen et al., 2003; Christensen et al., 2000). These
66 complexities make it challenging to predict how excess NO_3^- delivered to the coast will be processed.

67 We determined rates of denitrification and DNRA in Weeks Bay, AL, USA, a shallow (1.4 m depth)
68 microtidal (0.4 m) estuary in the northern Gulf of Mexico that is part of the National Estuarine Research Reserve
69 System. Weeks Bay is fringed with a variety of wetland habitats receiving freshwater from the Fish and Magnolia
70 Rivers that both have highly agricultural watersheds with dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) concentrations in the
71 rivers exceeding at times $140 \mu\text{M}$ (Lehrter, 2008). Caffrey et al. (2013) reported total N inputs into Weeks Bay of
72 $10 \text{ mol N m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, which is one of the highest rates of N loading to an estuary in the northern Gulf of Mexico
73 estuaries. Previous studies in Weeks Bay found high porewater sulfide concentrations (Caffrey et al., 2007),
74 significant sediment uptake of NO_3^- and high NH_4^+ fluxes, but concurrent low net denitrification rates (Mortazavi et
75 al., 2012; Riggs, 2010). Therefore, we hypothesized that DNRA is the significant reduction pathway for NO_3^- in
76 Weeks Bay and because of the sulfidogenic sediments, DNRA would also be a significant NO_3^- reduction pathway
77 in the presence of excess NO_3^- . Periods of anoxia are common occurrences in Weeks Bay
78 (<http://cdmo.baruch.sc.edu/>), as are blooms of harmful algae (Canion et al., 2013) and fish kills and understanding
79 the fate of nutrients in this system has management implications.

80 METHODS

81 Field Collections

84 Intact sediment cores and water column samples for experiments were collected quarterly from bare
85 sediments by hand near the mouth and in the mid bay area of the Weeks Bay National Estuarine Research Reserve
86 (hereafter referred to as MidBay and Mouth stations) between December 2011 and October 2013 (**Fig. 1**). At both
87 sites, we measured temperature, salinity, pH, and dissolved oxygen (DO) with a YSI Model 556 Multiparameter
88 Meter. Water column samples for nutrient analysis were collected by hand, filtered in the field (GF/F, 0.7 micron)
89 and frozen until DIN and phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) analyses. All nutrient concentrations from the field and experimental

90 samples described below were measured with a Skalar SAN⁺ Autoanalyzer. Total nitrogen and carbon content were
91 measured in triplicate from the top 1 cm of sediment. Samples were acidified to remove carbonates (Harris et al.,
92 2001) and total C and N were analyzed with an elemental combustion analyzer (Costech Instruments, model ECS
93 4010). Based on the ASTM C136-06 standard, grain size distribution was determined by sieve analysis using sieves
94 #10, #60, and #230 from a haphazard sediment grab of approximately 2 kg at each site (ASTM C136-06, 2006).

95 Denitrification and DNRA from intact sediment cores with N enrichment

96 In a darkened environmental chamber set to site temperature, denitrification, and DNRA at the sediment-
97 water interface were measured on sediment cores with N enrichment (9.5 cm inner diameter; 19 cm sediment with 5
98 cm overlying water; 3 per station in 2011 and 2012; 6 per station in 2013) set up in a flow-through system. Site
99 water was filtered (0.7 micron) and amended to ~100 $\mu\text{M Na}^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ (99 atom %) representing similar N
100 concentrations reported by Lehrter (2008), and used as the inflow water at a continuous flow rate (1.2 mL min^{-1}) into
101 each core. The outflow from each core was collected in a reservoir. Inflow and outflow samples for dissolved gas
102 and nutrient analysis were collected at 36 hours to allow the systems to approach steady-state conditions (Eyre et al.,
103 2002). Benthic flux calculations were calculated according to: $(C_o - C_i) * f/a$, where C_o and C_i are the outflow and
104 inflow concentration in $\mu\text{mole L}^{-1}$, f is the flow rate (0.072 L hr^{-1}), and a is the sediment surface area (0.00708 m^{-2})
105 (Lavrentyev et al., 2000).

106 Samples for dissolved gas analysis were collected in 12 mL Exetainers and preserved with 250 μL of 50%
107 (w/v) ZnCl_2 before analysis on a membrane inlet mass spectrometer (MIMS) (Kana et al., 1998) fitted with a copper
108 column heated to 600°C to remove oxygen (O_2) (Eyre et al., 2002). Following the Isotope Pairing Technique (IPT)
109 (Nielsen, 1992), denitrification rates were calculated under ambient environmental conditions (D_{14}) (which can be
110 further portioned as ambient $^{14}\text{NO}_3^-$ from the water column (D_w) and coupled nitrification-denitrification (D_n)) and
111 amended denitrification rates ($D_{14} + D_{15}$), calculated as the sum of denitrification rates of ambient NO_3^- (D_{14}) and
112 denitrification stimulated by the added labeled $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ (D_{15}), and hereafter will be referred to as the denitrification
113 capacity. Denitrification was explicitly calculated from the $^{29}\text{N}_2$ and $^{30}\text{N}_2$ fluxes calculated directly from dissolved
114 $^{29}\text{N}_2$: $^{28}\text{N}_2$ and $^{30}\text{N}_2$: $^{28}\text{N}_2$ measured with a MIMS. Sediment-water interface gas flux ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ hr}^{-1}$) greater than zero
115 indicates a release from the sediments to the water column. All rates and fluxes pertaining to N species are
116 expressed on N atom basis.

117 After sample collection for denitrification, approximately 1 L of inflow reservoir water and outflow water
118 from each core were collected for DNRA analysis. Samples and standards for $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ were prepared according to
119 Holmes et al. (1998) and as described in Bernard et al. (2015). ^{15}N analysis was performed at Utah State
120 University's Stable Isotope Lab. DNRA was determined from the production rate of $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ ($p^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$) according to
121 Christensen et. al (2000), assuming that (i) DNRA takes place in the same sediment layers as denitrification and (ii)
122 that the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ that was reduced to NH_4^+ is similar to that of the $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$ that was reduced to N_2 (Christensen et al.,
123 2000).

124 Anammox from slurry assays

125 Following intact sediment core collection, sediments (n=3) at each site were collected by hand with a
126 sediment core (9.5 cm ID) and the top 5 cm were combined and homogenized. At each sampling event, anammox
127 rates were determined with ^{15}N (99 atom %, $100 \mu\text{mol NO}_3^- \text{L}^{-1}$) tracer slurry incubations at each station in triplicate
128 according to Thamdrup and Dalsgaard (2002). Anammox on average contributed to 2% of the overall N_2 production
129 and is not discussed further.

130 Oxygen and hydrogen sulfide sediment profiles

131 We also collected duplicate sediment cores (17 cm x 9.5 cm ID) at each site to determine sediment O_2 and
132 hydrogen sulfide (measured as HS^-) concentrations. Concentrations just above the sediment-water interface and in
133 the sediments to a depth of 1 cm at 1 mm intervals were determined with a microelectrode system (Unisense Ox-
134 500, H_2S -50) with sensors calibrated as recommended by the manufacturer.

135 Statistical Analysis

136 To test the seasonal flux variability between sites in Weeks Bay, two-way ANOVAs with site and date as
137 independent variables were performed. If data could not be transformed to meet ANOVA assumptions, we carried
138 out Wilcoxon/Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric tests with all parameters with site and date as independent factors.
139 When differences were significant, Tukey HSD or Steel-Dwass post hoc tests were used to test for interactions. A
140 Principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted on all biogeochemical parameters to identify underlying
141 multivariate components that may be influencing DNRA and denitrification. Statistical significance was set at
142 $\alpha=0.05$ and error is reported as standard error. We used SAS JMP 10 (SAS Institute Inc.) to carry out all statistical
143 analysis.

144
145 RESULTS

146 Site Characteristics

147 Temperature exhibited significant seasonal variability ($p=0.042$) and a moderate $10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ seasonal range (**Fig.**
148 **2a**). Salinity fluctuated substantially and was lowest in March 2013 (1.6) (**Fig. 2a**) coinciding with a spike in
149 Magnolia River discharge (USGS daily discharge data not shown) even though it was only marginally correlated
150 with seasons ($p=0.0539$). Water column nutrient concentrations did not differ between site nor season (**Fig. 2b**).
151 Water column NO_3^- ranged from $0.6 \pm 0.4\ \mu\text{M}$ in June 2012 to $16.8 \pm 3.1\ \mu\text{M}$ in March 2013. Water column NH_4^+
152 ranged from $0.3 \pm 0.3\ \mu\text{M}$ in March 2012 to $3.4 \pm 1.5\ \mu\text{M}$ in June 2013. Water column PO_4^{3-} generally was less than
153 $0.2\ \mu\text{M}$ throughout the study and resulted in elevated N:P ratios (average 118:1).

154 The sediments at the Mouth consisted of 85% medium sand, 13% very fine sand and <1% silt and only
155 differed marginally in composition from sediments at MidBay (76% medium sand, 15% very fine sand, and 4% silt).
156 The sediment C:N averaged 15.0 ± 1.3 and ranged from 12.0 to 21.0 but did not differ between sites ($p=0.753$) or
157 seasons ($p=0.110$). Sediments in Weeks Bay were often anoxic by 3 mm in the winter and by 1 mm in the summer
158 (**Fig. 3 top panel**). The only months with oxygen present past 1mm were December 2011 and June 2013 at the
159 Mouth and March 2012 and March and October 2013 at MidBay. Hydrogen sulfide was nearly always present in
160 the top 1 cm of the sediment at both sites and maximum values were found in March 2012 and ranged from $37.7 \pm$
161 $0.9\ \mu\text{M}$ at MidBay to $57.2 \pm 1.2\ \mu\text{M}$ at the Mouth (**Fig. 3 bottom panel**). A second event of high surficial HS^-
162 concentrations was observed at both locations in March 2013. The only months without HS^- in the top 1 cm of
163 sediment were June 2012 and October 2013 at the Mouth and June 2012, June and October 2013 at MidBay.

164 Denitrification and DNRA

165 In situ denitrification, D_{14} , (**Fig. 4a**) was low and averaged $0.8 \pm 0.5\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$ at the Mouth and $1.6 \pm$
166 $0.4\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$ at MidBay with an overall average of $0.9 \pm 2.3\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$. D_{14} denitrification partitioned
167 into D_w and D_n averaged 0.4 ± 0.2 and $0.4 \pm 0.3\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$ respectively, at the Mouth and 0.5 ± 0.2 and $1.1 \pm$
168 $0.3\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$ respectively, at MidBay. Overall, D_n contributed 55% and 69% to D_{14} at the Mouth and Midbay
169 stations, respectively. The denitrification capacity averaged $22.9 \pm 15.0\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$ and was similar ($p=0.365$)
170 between MidBay ($33.6 \pm 10.8\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$) and the Mouth ($21.6 \pm 12.9\ \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$). Only denitrification
171 capacity in June 2012 was significantly higher than the rest of the study period.

172 DNRA ranged from a low of 8.8 ± 3.1 at the Mouth to a high of $89.7 \pm 18.4\ \mu\text{mol NH}_4^+ \text{ m}^{-2}\ \text{hr}^{-1}$ at MidBay
173 (**Fig. 4b**) and the rates were significantly higher at MidBay than at the Mouth ($p=0.001$). DNRA and water column

174 NO_3^- concentrations were positively correlated ($r^2=0.41$, $p=0.025$) over the study duration. DNRA at MidBay
175 (average $56.1 \pm 7.7 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) was also generally greater than denitrification capacity (average 33.6 ± 10.8
176 $\mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) at this location, while at the Mouth (DNRA average $34.5 \pm 7.0 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$), DNRA only
177 exceeded denitrification capacity in March 2012 and October 2013. DNRA in March 2013 was significantly lower
178 than the rest of the study period. Average DNRA for Weeks Bay ($44.4 \pm 5.5 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) exceeded *in situ*
179 denitrification by an order of magnitude and the average denitrification capacity twofold.

180 Principal Component Analysis

181 The PCA analysis resulted in a two-component model that explained a cumulative 58% of the total variance in the
182 abiotic variables (**Table 1**). Water column inorganic N and salinity were correlated with PC1 which explained 35%
183 of the total variance and indicated higher water column nutrient availability during times of greater freshwater
184 delivery. Temperature and HS^- and DO were correlated with PC2 and explained 23% of the total variance and
185 indicated higher HS^- concentrations during the lower DO and warmer months. Denitrification capacity was
186 negatively correlated with PC1 ($\rho=-0.577$, $p=0.019$) driven by the water column inorganic N. DNRA did not
187 correlate with either PC1 or PC2 but in the presence of excess NO_3^- , DNRA accounted for 66% of the total NO_3^-
188 reduction (**Table 2**).

189

190 DISCUSSION

191 DNRA exceeds denitrification in Weeks Bay

192 DNRA, consistent with our hypothesis, by far exceeded *in situ* denitrification in Weeks Bay. At the
193 Mouth, denitrification capacity was slightly lower or comparable to DNRA rates and at MidBay denitrification was
194 consistently lower than DNRA. Denitrification capacity in Weeks Bay varied seasonally, a pattern that is similar to
195 previously studies in other coastal ecosystems (Piehler and Smyth, 2011; Seitzinger, 1994). In Weeks Bay, D_n is
196 responsible for between 55 to 69% of *in situ* denitrification at the Mouth and MidBay respectfully, but the
197 magnitude of these fluxes are low because of the presence of HS^- and suggest a minimal role for nitrification and
198 coupled nitrification-denitrification in this system. In Weeks Bay denitrification increased in the presence of higher
199 NO_3^- concentrations consistent with predictions from Seitzinger (1988); Seitzinger and Giblin (1996). DNRA
200 dominated *in situ* denitrification in these carbon rich (C:N =15:1) and sulfidogenic sediments (Caffrey et al., 2013)
201 and it remained the dominant NO_3^- reduction pathway despite increases in denitrification at elevated NO_3^-

202 concentrations. In the presence of excess NO_3^- , DNRA accounted for 66% of the total NO_3^- reduction, and remained
203 a significant pathway for N reduction in this system, consistent with other studies that have found DNRA
204 contribution to NO_3^- reduction to range from <3% to >60-99% (Giblin et al., 2013). The significant relationship
205 between water column NO_3^- concentrations and DNRA implies that allochthonous NO_3^- inputs can potentially
206 support DNRA and lead to retention of bioavailable N in the systems. DNRA, by retaining N in the system,
207 exacerbates eutrophication in estuaries and may have major implications for how coastal ecosystems respond to
208 elevated N loading.

209 While the prevalence of DNRA over denitrification has been observed in other estuaries (An and Gardner,
210 2002; Gardner and McCarthy, 2009; Koop-Jakobsen and Giblin, 2010), in some systems, DNRA rates are lower
211 than or comparable to denitrification rates (Lansdown et al., 2012; McCarthy et al., 2007; Tobias et al., 2001). The
212 average DNRA rate in Weeks Bay was on the lower range of reported rates for Gulf of Mexico estuaries (1 to 241
213 $\mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) (An and Gardner, 2002; Gardner and McCarthy, 2009) and other sub-tropical estuaries (up to 1137
214 $\mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$) (Dong et al., 2011; Dunn et al., 2013; Dunn et al., 2012; Porubsky et al., 2009). DNRA is
215 energetically favored over denitrification (597 versus 559 $\text{kJ mol}^{-1} \text{NO}_3^-$ at 30 °C) under NO_3^- limiting conditions
216 (Algar and Vallino, 2014; Dong et al., 2011), and low NO_3^- availability has been regarded as a mechanism favoring
217 DNRA over denitrification. But other factors such as temperature, salinity, the presence of porewater sulfides
218 (Burgin and Hamilton, 2007; Howarth et al., 2011; Yoon et al., 2015), the abundance of labile organic carbon
219 relative to NO_3^- (Algar and Vallino, 2014; Babbin and Ward, 2013; Burgin and Hamilton, 2007; Hardison et al.,
220 2015; Tiedje, 1988), and the overall rates of benthic metabolism (Burgin and Hamilton, 2007; Dong et al., 2011;
221 Giblin et al., 2010; Nizzoli et al., 2006) can work independently or in concert to determine if NO_3^- is used by DNRA
222 or denitrification. Many of these factors often covary and it is difficult to attribute the influence of a single factor as
223 a driver on these two processes. Multiple influential factors may be at work in Weeks Bay, given the lack of a
224 relationship between the DNRA flux and either of the PCA principal components, as well as a lack of a strong
225 individual influence from abiotic variables, save water column NO_3^- .

226 Mesocosm and modeling studies found anammox to dominate in C limited systems, while heterotrophic
227 denitrification and DNRA dominate in N limited environments as the C:N input increases (Algar and Vallino, 2014)
228 and at higher ratios of C:N input, there is a switch to denitrification and finally DNRA as the environment switches
229 from being C limited to N limited (Hardison et al., 2015). Porubsky et al. (2009) found C:N ratios of 50-200

230 favored DNRA over denitrification, while Algar and Vallino (2014) found DNRA to exceed denitrification at CH_2O :
231 NO_3^- ratios around 3. In Weeks Bay, the C:N ratio ranges from 12 to 21 (average 15), lending support that the
232 system favors DNRA before we simulated estuarine N loading. Moreover, the presence of sulfides in Weeks Bay
233 sediments most probably limits nitrification (Joye and Hollibaugh, 1995), the supply of nitrate to the denitrifiers
234 (Brunet and Garcia-Gil, 1996), and can be used chemolithoautotrophically to support DNRA. Though DNRA and
235 denitrification can coexist in environments with high C:N ratios (van den Berg et al., 2016), our data is consistent
236 with the interpretation that HS^- appears to be a contributing driver for the dominance of DNRA over denitrification.
237 These findings mirror those found for Little Lagoon, a nearby anthropogenically impacted coastal lagoon (Bernard
238 et al., 2015). In Little Lagoon, DNRA averaged $52.1 \mu\text{mol N m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ and exceeded denitrification capacity by an
239 order of magnitude (Bernard et al., 2015). Sediments in Little Lagoon were also sulfidic, with concentrations that at
240 times exceeded 4 mM and Bernard et al. (2015) attributed the high DNRA and low denitrification rates to high
241 porewater sulfide concentrations.

242 Ecosystem Implications

243 The primary management goals for many nearshore marine ecosystems focuses on restoring the hydrology,
244 establishing the natural shorelines and marshes, as well as reducing delivery of nutrients (Pinckney et al., 2001).
245 The increased urban and agricultural developments in the Weeks Bay watershed have lead to higher inputs of N
246 resulting in high chlorophyll, blooms of harmful algae, and fish kills. This study empirically confirms that DNRA
247 as opposed to denitrification is the dominant NO_3^- reduction pathway in Weeks Bay and the dominance of DNRA
248 over denitrification has important ecosystem implications.

249 Caffrey et al. (2013) reported total N input to Weeks Bay of $10 \text{ mol N m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, which is one of the highest
250 rates of N loading to an estuary in the northern Gulf of Mexico estuaries. However, because the residence time of
251 the estuary is short (mean 13 days, Schreiber and Pennock, 1995) using Nixon et al. (1996) relation between N
252 retention and residence time, we estimate that 75% of the N input is exported from the estuary. The flux of
253 bioavailable N to the water column through DNRA is equivalent to 15% of the TN input retained in the estuary, and
254 therefore, is a significant component of the N budget. Caffrey et al. (2013) also determined primary production in
255 Weeks Bay to be $599 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, which after applying the Redfield ratio (Redfield, 1958) amounts to a
256 phytoplankton N demand of $7.5 \text{ moles N m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$. We estimate that DNRA provides 5% of the N demand by
257 primary producers.

258 Inputs of nutrients to the estuary stimulate phytoplankton growth leading to bloom events that will result in
259 the delivery (deposition) of phytoplankton C to the benthos that once mineralized leads to further nutrient release to
260 the water column promoting water column primary production. The balance between N and P supply to the water
261 column is a dominant factor shaping the phytoplankton community and has been implicated in blooms of harmful
262 algae (Glibert et al., 2005). The role of DNRA in supplying bioavailable N to the water column and as a factor
263 shaping the phytoplankton community composition remains to be determined. Because DNRA remains a significant
264 process even in the presence of elevated NO_3^- concentrations in these sulfidogenic sediments, if management
265 decisions do not lead to a reduction of nutrient inputs to this estuary, it is conceivable that higher inputs of nutrients
266 to Weeks Bay will contribute to the initiation and retention of algal blooms (An and Gardner, 2002) and subsequent
267 deposition of organic matter to the sediments, degradation of which will lead to more hypoxic events (Pinckney et
268 al., 2001) and fish kills in this and similarly impacted ecosystems.

269

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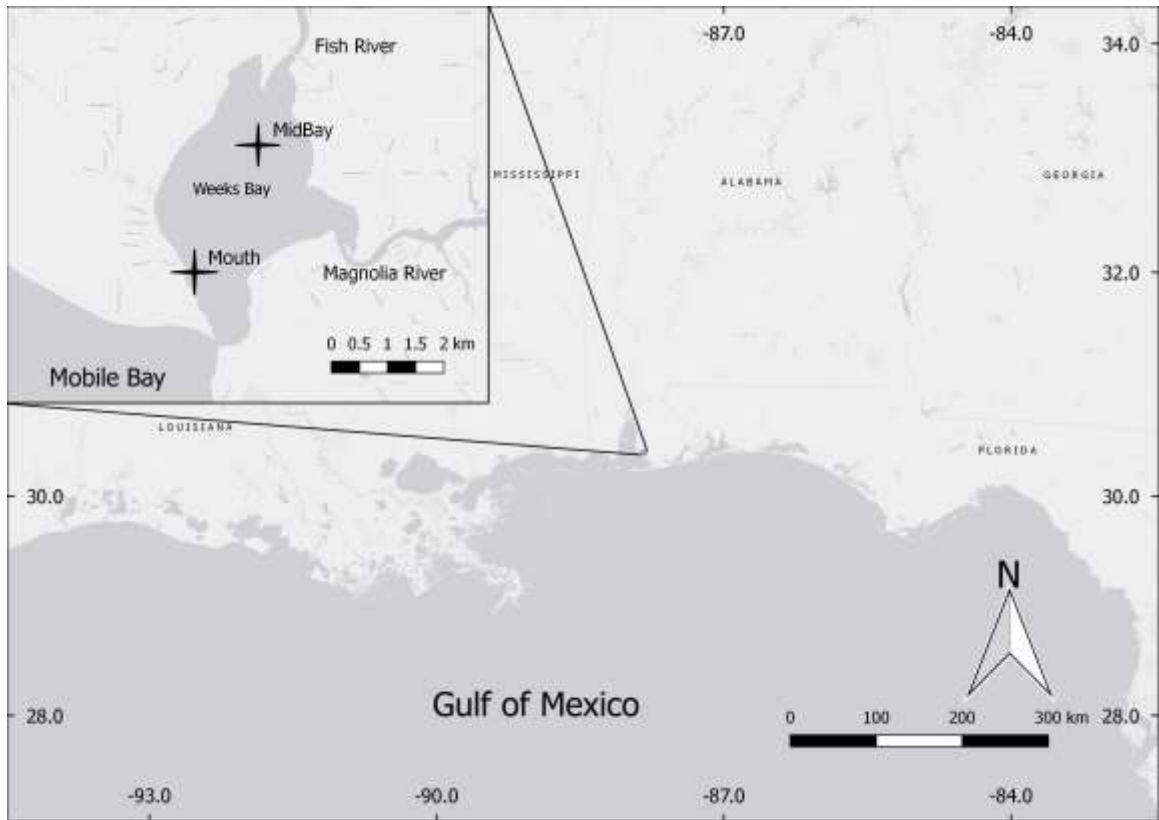


Fig.1
Map of study area at Weeks Bay, AL showing study sites (Mouth and MidBay)

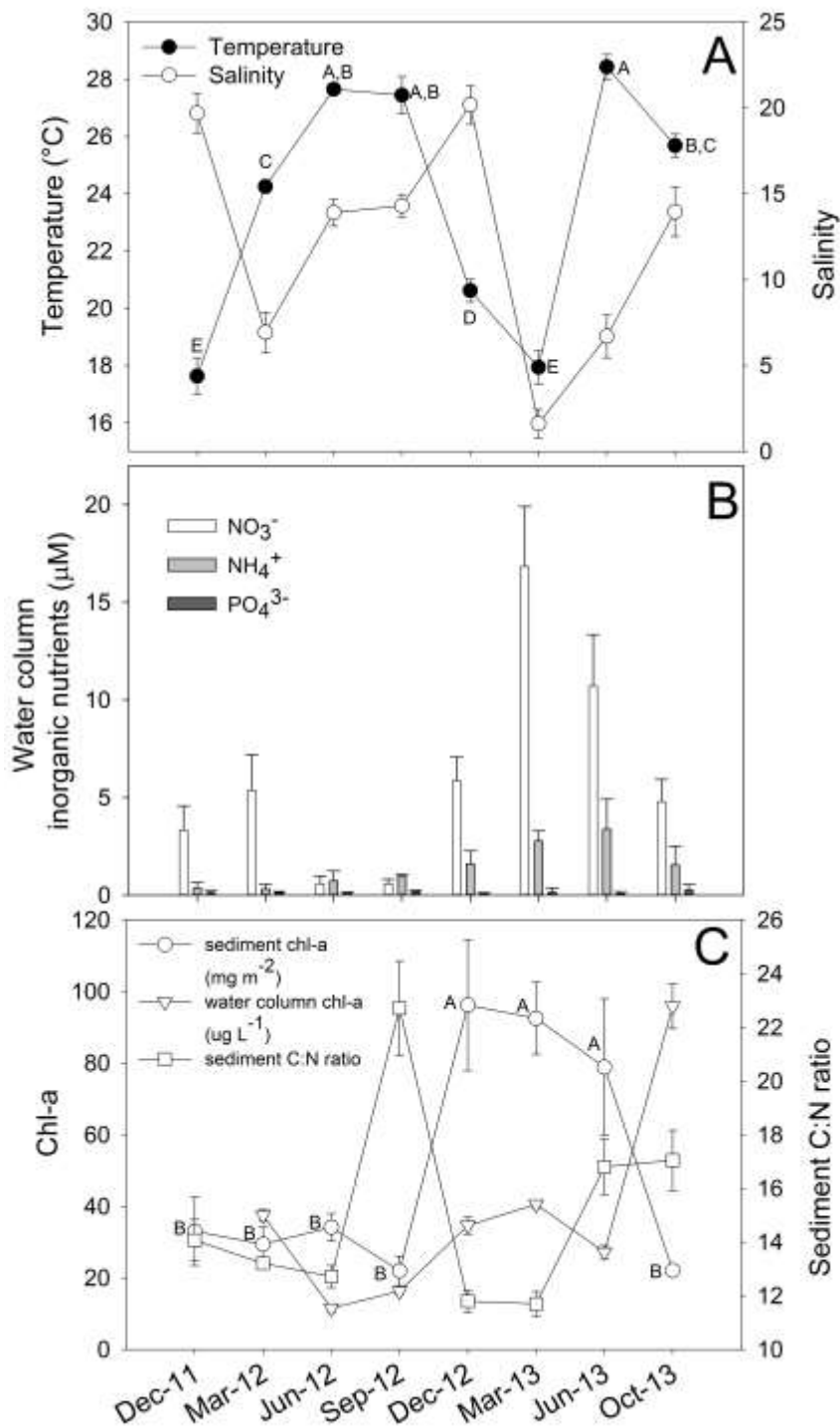


Fig.2 (A) Average values of the two sites for water temperature and salinity from the sites in Weeks Bay. Letters indicate significant seasonal differences for temperature; salinity was not statistically seasonally different. (B) Average values of the two sites for water column inorganic nutrients (n=3 each site). Water column nutrient concentrations did not differ between site nor season during the study. (C) Average values of sediment chlorophyll-a (mg m^{-2}) and water column chlorophyll-a ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and sediment C:N ratio. Letters indicate significant seasonal differences for sediment chlorophyll-a, while water column chlorophyll-a and sediment C:N were not statistically seasonally different. Error is reported as ± 1 SE

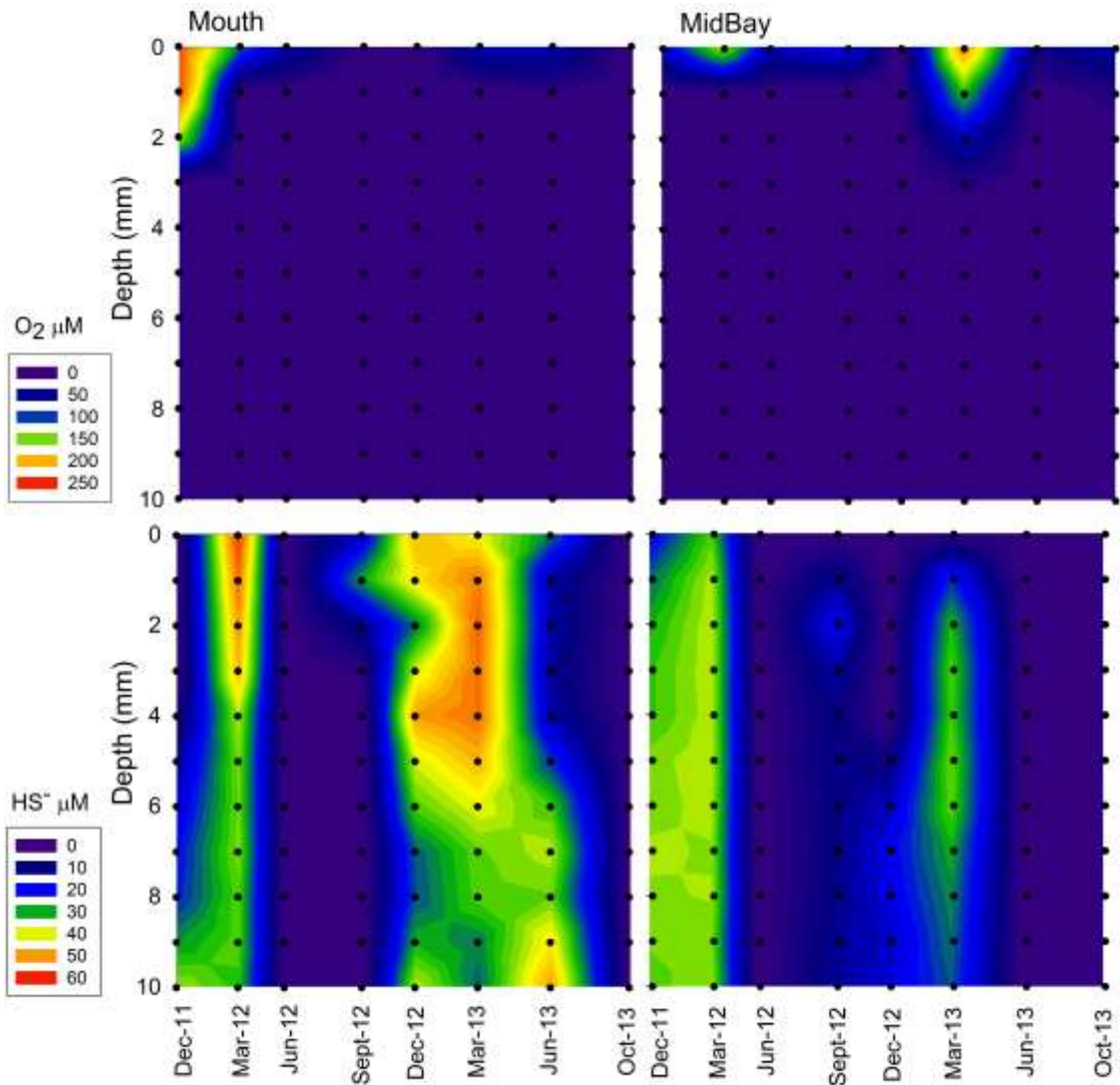


Fig.3 Oxygen (top panel) and hydrogen sulfide (bottom panel) concentrations (μM) in the top 1 cm of sediment at Mouth and MidBay. Note the differences in scale

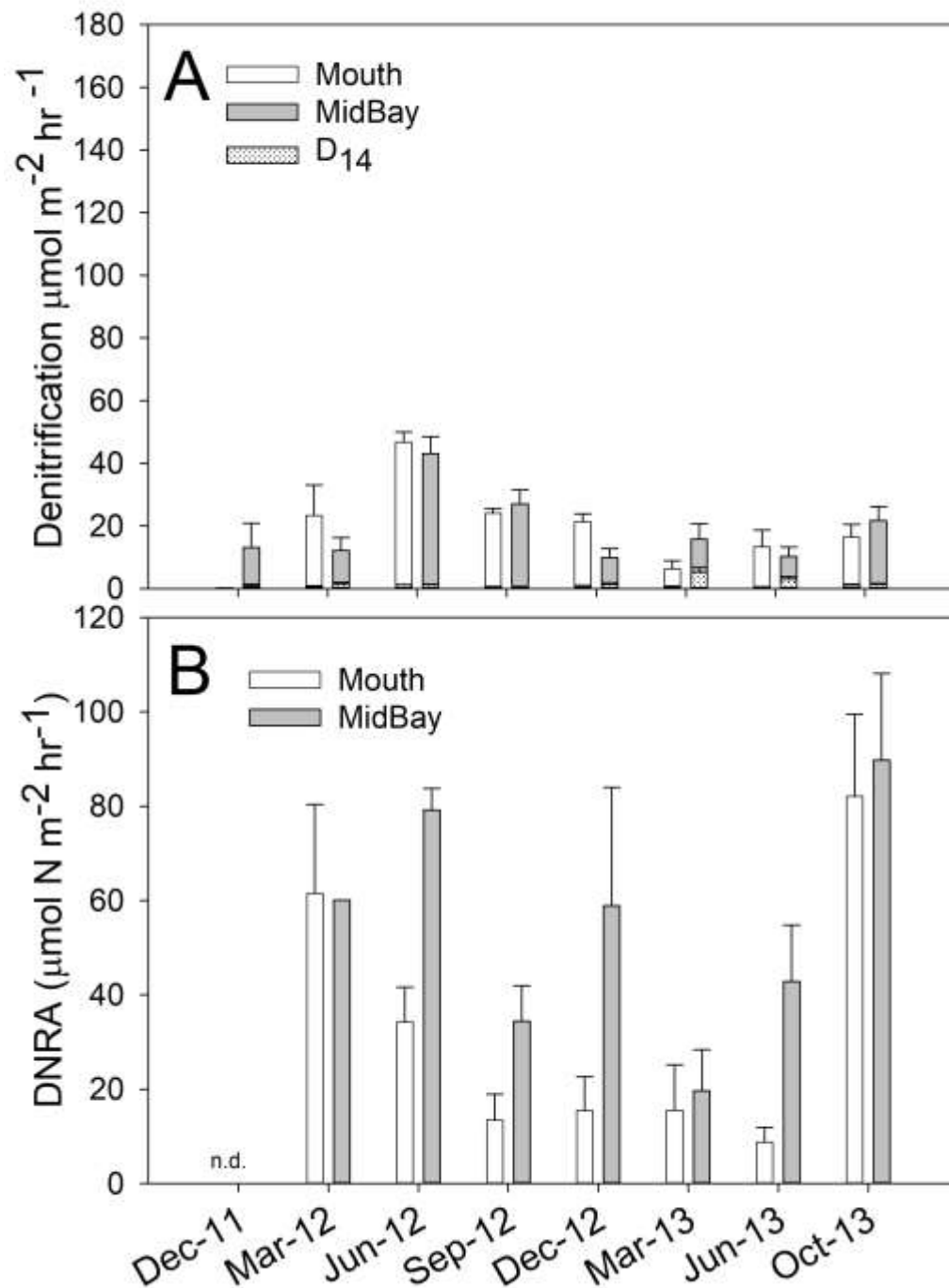


Fig.4 (A) The system capacity for denitrification at the Mouth (white bar) and MidBay (gray bar) with D₁₄, in situ denitrification (dotted bars), (n=5). (B) DNRA at the Mouth (white bar) and MidBay (gray bar). DNRA rates were significantly higher at MidBay than at the Mouth. Error bars are ± 1 SE

Table 1 Eigenvector values from the principal components analysis. Bolded values had strongest relationships.

Eigenvector	Principal 1 (35.4%)	Principal 2 (22.9%)
Temperature (°C)	-0.1993	0.4344
Salinity	-0.3524	-0.2192
DO (mg L ⁻¹)	0.2262	-0.5064
pH	-0.3424	0.1394
Water column NO ₂ ⁻ (μM)	0.4494	0.0902
Water column NO ₃ ⁻ (μM)	0.4372	0.1758
Water column NH ₄ ⁺ (μM)	0.3728	0.2653
Water column PO ₄ ³⁻ (μM)	-0.0902	0.2752
Water column chl-a (mg m ⁻²)	0.3461	-0.1879
Highest sediment HS ⁻ (μM)	0.0875	0.5167

Table 2. Average site % DNRA contribution to N reduction with ± 1 SE in parentheses.

Date	Average % DNRA to N reduction
Dec. 2011	N/A
March 2012	77% (0.1)
June 2012	56% (0.2)
Sept. 2012	48% (0.2)
Dec. 2012	70% (0.3)
March 2013	62% (0.2)
June 2013	69% (0.3)
Oct. 2013	82% (0.1)
Study Average	66%

