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Organic Matter Loading Modifies the Microbial Community Responsible for Nitrogen Loss in Estuarine Sediments

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1	Organic matter loading modifies the microbial community responsible for nitrogen loss
2	estuarine sediments
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12	Keywords: anammox, denitrification, nitrogen cycle, marine sediments
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in

1 Abstract

2 Coastal marine sediments, as locations of substantial fixed nitrogen loss, are very important to 3 the nitrogen budget and to the primary productivity of the oceans. Coastal sediment systems are 4 also highly dynamic and subject to periodic natural and anthropogenic organic substrate 5 additions. The response to organic matter by the microbial community involved in nitrogen loss 6 processes was evaluated using mesocosms of Chesapeake Bay sediments. Over the course of a 50-day incubation, rates of anammox and denitrification were measured weekly using ¹⁵N tracer 7 8 incubations, and samples were collected for genetic analysis. Rates of both nitrogen loss 9 processes and gene abundances associated with them corresponded loosely, probably because 10 heterogeneities in sediments obscured a clear relationship. The rates of denitrification were 11 stimulated more, and the fraction of nitrogen loss attributed to anammox slightly reduced, by the 12 higher organic matter addition. Furthermore, the large organic matter pulse drove a significant 13 and rapid shift in the denitrifier community composition as determined using a *nirS* microarray, 14 indicating the diversity of these organisms plays an essential role in responding to anthropogenic 15 inputs. We also suggest that the proportion of nitrogen loss due to anammox in these coastal 16 estuarine sediments may be underestimated due to temporal dynamics as well as from 17 methodological artifacts related to conventional sediment slurry incubation approaches.

18

19 Introduction

Coastal and estuarine sediments are environments of intense loss of fixed nitrogen
through the microbial processes of denitrification and anaerobic ammonium oxidation
(anammox). Globally, these areas can account for up to three-quarters of the fixed nitrogen lost
from the marine system [1–3]. Direct measurement of the fixed nitrogen loss rates is difficult,

however, because of significant spatial and temporal heterogeneities characteristic of sediments.
For instance, oxic or anoxic microsites [4] and an uneven distribution of organic matter create
pockets of reduced or enhanced nitrogen cycling, while episodic bloom-derived settling events of
organic matter onto sediment beds can lead to spikes in nitrogen loss rates [5]. How the
microbial community of denitrifiers and anammox bacteria responds to this sudden input of
organic matter in terms of biological rates and community composition is a crucial question in
better understanding these dynamic and climatically relevant sediment systems.

31 Increased fixed nitrogen levels are typically associated with coastal estuarine systems 32 such as Chesapeake Bay, where higher concentrations of ammonium and urea are measured 33 following spring storm events [6–8]. During these periods, fertilizer applied to croplands runs off 34 into the tidal estuary, and causes phytoplankton blooms which in turn deposit on the sediment 35 bed. Aquaculture in cages or pens also contributes high organic loading in some systems. 36 Additionally, discharge of sewage, either by inadequate treatment facilities or through combined 37 sewage overflow, is another avenue by which nitrogen is directly injected into the coastal 38 environment. These transient pulses consist of high concentrations of ammonium, nitrate, and 39 labile particulate organic matter [6, 9, 10]. The link between these events and the microbial 40 community that consumes this nitrogen is therefore key in understanding the amplitude of the 41 response of the coastal system to anthropogenically-derived nitrogen.

Denitrification, anammox and dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA) are all involved in nitrogen removal from sediments. The major consumption of fixed nitrogen in natural estuarine sediments is denitrification [11, 12], the heterotrophic stepwise reduction of nitrate or nitrite to nitrous oxide and dinitrogen gas via a series of reductase enzymes. Of the multiple enzymes in this sequence, nitrite reductase, which converts nitrite to nitric oxide is the

47	most critical in that it is the one that leads rapidly to loss of fixed nitrogen from the environment.
48	This enzyme is encoded by <i>nirS</i> , a diverse gene commonly found in denitrifiers [13], or by <i>nirK</i> ,
49	which encodes a metabolically equivalent but structurally distinct enzyme. In Chesapeake Bay
50	and other estuarine systems, however, <i>nirK</i> has been difficult to detect and is consistently found
51	at much lower copy numbers [14–18], making <i>nirS</i> the more useful functional biomarker gene
52	for denitrification in Chesapeake Bay. In estuarine environments, much of the organic matter,
53	which is required for denitrification, is highly refractory [19], with a C/N ratio > 9 and not
54	readily solubilized. The anthropogenic addition of labile easily-solubilized organic molecules
55	may therefore enhance denitrification rates when nitrate is present [20-22].
56	Anammox too removes fixed nitrogen from certain sediment environments [23, 24]. Still,
57	anammox was minimal in trout aquaculture settlement ponds [25] and a rare but significant
58	contribution in shrimp aquaculture ponds [26]. It was also reported to be a minor nitrogen loss
59	process in three U.S. east coast estuaries, Chesapeake Bay [11], Cape Fear [27], and Providence
60	River [28]. These low rates imply a limited significance for DNRA-coupled nitrogen loss
61	whereby anammox consumes ammonium provided in situ by DNRA. Anammox, an autotrophic
62	process by which ammonium is oxidized anaerobically using nitrite as an electron acceptor, is
63	constrained by similar dissolved oxygen and DIN controls as denitrification despite
64	fundamentally different metabolisms. Anammox requires both reduced (ammonium) and
65	oxidized (nitrite) forms of nitrogen, which do not usually co-occur in space or time due to (1) the
66	ability of nitrification to aerobically oxidize ammonium even with limited amounts of oxygen
67	[29–31], and (2) the reduction of nitrite via denitrification using high C/N organic matter
68	substrate reserves in sediments. Given a large enough pulse of reduced inorganic (i.e.
69	ammonium) or organic nitrogen, however, anammox may be able to utilize these conditions to

70 couple with nitrification and/or heterotrophic nitrate reduction to remove ammonium rapidly 71 [32]. In this sense, both anammox and denitrification can be controlled by the same organic and 72 inorganic nitrogen substrates, and can be stimulated by their injection into the estuarine system. 73 Ammonium is the critical link in constraining rates of sedimentary anammox and 74 denitrification because it does not accumulate sufficiently in the anoxic depth layers of active 75 nitrogen loss [33, 34]. Therefore, barring physical transport, mass balance on ammonium implies 76 that anammox consuming NH_4^+ and denitrification producing it should occur in specific ratios 77 set by the stoichiometry of organic matter fueling nitrate reduction and denitrification. 78 Analogous stoichiometry-dependent coupling has been shown in the anoxic water column [35], 79 and is also likely important in anoxic sediments [5, 36]. For instance, if the material reaching the 80 sediments is of average marine phytoplankton composition (C/N = 6.6), anammox should 81 account for 29% of the fixed nitrogen loss [37]. This anammox proportion, however, should vary 82 with organic nitrogen content relative to carbon fueling the microbial community: more nitrogen 83 corresponds to higher amounts of anammox relative to denitrification. Additional allochthonous 84 NH_4^+ supplied through runoff or from remineralization in deeper sediments via processes such as 85 sulfate reduction could further amplify the anammox contribution, as observed in deep sea 86 sediments off the Washington margin [24].

We used an incubation approach in order to reduce natural variability and to test the
effect of organic matter on the rates of fixed nitrogen loss in the absence of other variables.
Using replicate sediment mesocosms, we controlled the supply of organic and inorganic
nutrients. Although the mesocosms do not simulate the actual system response to a bloom setting
event or pulses of inorganic nutrients, they allow us to investigate the mechanisms and directions
of change that might occur in the natural estuarine system. We measured the time dependence of

93 nitrogen loss rates and gene abundances for anammox (16S rRNA) and denitrification (nirS

94 functional gene) following an injection of ammonium, nitrate, and two levels of organic matter.

95 We further used the diversity of the *nirS* gene as determined from a microarray analysis to

96 quantify the denitrifier community response to the organic substrate pulse at two different levels.

97

98 Materials and Methods

99 Mesocosm design

100 The mesocosm experiments, as previously described by Babbin and Ward [5], were 101 seeded with sediments and site water from the lower Choptank River in the Chesapeake Bay 102 estuary (station CT2, $38^{\circ}37.191'$ N $76^{\circ}08.061'$ W, station depth = 7.9, salinity = 14) collected in 103 November 2009. Briefly, homogenized sediments were divided into four replicate containers 104 (cross-section of 40 cm \times 25 cm) forming a layer ~2.5 cm in thickness, and overlain with ~18.5 105 cm of site water. The sediments were pre-incubated for six months to remove any preexisting 106 labile substrates before nitrate and ammonium in the overlying water were restored to near-107 original concentrations, and organic matter in the form of commercially available fish food (C/N 108 = 4.2; Tetrafin, Blacksburg, VA) was applied to the surface of the sediments. Two of the mesocosms (L1 and L2) received 0.4 mg cm⁻² organic matter, and two (H1 and H2) received a 109 10-fold higher addition of 4.0 mg cm⁻². The level of organic matter addition was chosen to 110 provide a large signal in the biogeochemical and microbial community response, and similar to 111 112 previous mesocosm studies, e.g., [38, 39]. The organic matter amendment was raked across the 113 surface of the sediments in order to seed the approximate depth zone (upper few millimeters) of 114 the active nitrogen cycle and to mimic a natural deposition event such as might occur after a 115 phytoplankton bloom.

116	The mesocosms were incubated for seven weeks in the dark at room temperature
117	following the organic matter additions. The overlying water was aerated and mixed by gently
118	bubbling with air, which also prevented the build up of sulfide (sulfide was never sensed over the
119	course of the incubation). Overlying water was sampled daily for dissolved inorganic nitrogen
120	(DIN), measured using standard techniques [5]. Periodically, the mesocosm sediments were also
121	sampled for instantaneous rate experiments and DNA by coring an entire 2.5 cm sediment plug,
122	homogenizing, and aliquoting into incubation vials for isotope labeling experiments (rate
123	measurements) or Nalgene cryovials and frozen at -80 °C (DNA) [17].
124	
125	Rate experiments
126	Three full-depth sediment cores (90% porosity) were collected from each mesocosm
127	using a syringe into a 20 mL vial. The vials were then homogenized in an Argon-flushed glove
128	bag, and 1.5 mL subsamples were aliquoted into 5.9 mL Exetainers (Labco, UK), similar to
129	previous studies [11, 40]. Concentrated stocks of $[^{15}N]$ -labeled NH_4^+ or NO_2^- were added (final
130	amendment of 4 nmol N), and the vials capped. The Exetainers were vortexed briefly to
131	distribute the tracer, and flushed on a gas purging manifold at 5 psi of Argon for 5 minutes.
132	Triplicate vials were killed with 100 μL 50% (w/v) ZnCl_2 solution at time points of 0 and 30
133	min. Production of labeled $[^{15}N]$ -N ₂ gas from the ammonium and nitrite treatments were
134	measured on a Delta V Plus IRMS (ThermoScientific) at the UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility.
135	The incubation time of 30 minutes was determined as appropriate for linear production of N_2
136	from previous experiments in Chesapeake Bay [11].
137	After analysis for gases, 2 mL of 2 mol L ⁻¹ KCl solution was added to the sediment

138 slurry, and vials shaken on a reciprocal shaker for 12 hours at 100 rpm. The slurries were then

139 centrifuged (2000×g, 5 min) and supernatant collected and frozen until analysis. NH_4^+ was 140 measured using fluorometry after conversion with orthophthaldialdehyde [41] and NO_2^- with 141 standard spectrophotometric techniques [42]. These concentrations, generally below detection 142 (data not shown), were used to determine fraction of substrate labeled to calculate the nitrogen 143 loss rates (e.g., 11, 31).

144

145 DNA extraction and quantitative PCR amplification

146 DNA from mesocosms L1 and H1 was extracted in duplicate from 0.5 g (wet weight) sediment aliquots (temperature = 25 °C, pH = 8, salinity = 14) using the MoBio PowerSoil® 147 148 DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA) following manufacturer's protocols. 149 Duplicate extracts were then pooled for qPCR analysis. Methods of qPCR using SYBR Green 150 for *nirS* and anammox 16S rRNA genes, and the standardization and verification of specificity 151 for qPCR assays were performed as described previously [43]. The efficiency of the qPCR 152 reactions was calculated using the slopes of the standard curves, and was 77% for anammox 16S 153 rRNA assay and 107% for nirS assay. The amplified products were visualized after 154 electrophoresis in 1% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide. Standards for PCR 155 quantification of each fragment were prepared by amplifying a constructed plasmid containing 156 the respective gene fragment, followed by quantification and serial dilution. 157 Assays of each gene for all four samples were carried out within a single assay plate [44]. 158 Each assay included triplicates of the no template controls, no primer control, five (*nirS*) or 159 seven (anammox 16S rRNA) standards, and triplicates of known quantity of the environmental

160 DNA samples (20 – 25 ng). DNA was quantified using PicoGreen fluorescence (Molecular

161 Probes, Eugene, OR) calibrated with several dilutions of phage lambda standards and qPCR was

performed using a Stratagene MX3000P (Agilent Technologies, La Jolla, CA). Automatic
analysis settings were used to determine the threshold cycle (Ct) values.

164

165 nirS microarray analysis

166 The array (BC014) was developed with the archetype array approach described and 167 conducted previously [45, 46] with 90-mer oligonucleotide probes. Each probe consisted of a 168 nirS-specific 70-mer region and a 20-mer control region (5'-GTACTACTAGCCTAGGCTAG-169 3') bound to a glass slide. The design and spotting of the probes has been described previously 170 [47, 48]. BC014 contains 164 *nirS* archetype probes representing ~2000 sequences from a range 171 of environments, including both sediments and oxygen deficient zone water columns, that were 172 publicly available in November 2009 when the array was designed (the probe accession numbers 173 and sequences are described elsewhere) [46]. The probes differ from each other by $\sim 15\%$ 174 sequence identity, the level at which cross hybridization is insignificant [47]. 175 Array analysis was performed as described previously [46, 49] with some modifications. 176 Triplicate qPCR *nirS* gene fragment amplicons were pooled, gel purified, and labeled with 177 amino-allyl-dUTP (Life Technologies) during linear amplification using random octamers and a Klenow polymerase (Invitrogen). The reaction contained 3.9 mmol L^{-1} d(AGC)TP, 0.4 mmol L^{-1} 178 dTTP. and 4.8 mmol L⁻¹ dUaa, and was carried out at 37 °C for 3 hours. The Klenow product 179 180 was purified by precipitation and conjugated with Cy3 dye. The Cy3-labelled target (200 ng) was 181 combined with hybridization buffer (Agilent) and 0.25 pmol of a Cy5-labelled complementary 182 20-mer standard oligonucleotide then incubated at 95 °C for 5 min before being cooled to room 183 temperature. Targets were hybridized to duplicate or triplicate arrays by overnight incubation at 184 64 °C and washed. The arrays were scanned with a laser scanner (Molecular Devices 4300) and

185 analyzed with Gene Pix Pro 6.0 software (Molecular Devices). Quantification of hybridization 186 signals was performed as described previously [46] including the following quality controls for 187 signal reproducibility. For each channel, i.e. 532 nm (Cy3) and 635 nm (Cy5), the average 188 background fluorescence was recalculated after excluding background fluorescence values 189 greater than the upper whisker of all of the background fluorescences. This limit was defined as 190 the 75th percentile plus 1.5 times the interquartile range. Such a filtering process was applied 191 within each block on a microarray to account for variability in background fluorescence between 192 blocks within an array.

193 Then a normalized fluorescence ratio (FRn) for each archetype was calculated by 194 dividing the fluorescence signal of the archetype by the highest fluorescence signal within the 195 same array, and the FRn of each archetype from the replicate arrays was averaged. The relative 196 fluorescence ratio (RFR) of each archetype was calculated as the contribution of FRn of the 197 archetype to the cumulative sum of FRn of all nirS archetypes on the array and averaged for 198 replicate arrays from each sample. The original array data are available at Gene Expression 199 Omnibus (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/geo/) at the National Center for Biotechnology 200 Information under GEO Accession Number GSE65430.

The array data were analyzed using the 'vegan' package in R (http://www.R-project.org) [50]. Archetypes contributing less than 1% of the total signal in all samples were removed from further analysis. RFR values \geq 1% were arcsine–square root transformed to normalize the proportional data. Environmental data were square root transformed and then standardized around zero (decostand in vegan). The transformed data were used in all diversity and correlation analyses according to Borcard et al. [50].

207

208 **Results**

209 Mesocosm DIN concentrations over time

The progression of the different DIN species $-NH_4^+$, NO_2^- , and NO_3^- – measured in the 210 211 water overlying the sediments in the mesocosms has been published in detail previously [5]. To 212 provide context for the experimental data presented here, however, the DIN results are 213 summarized. The two levels of organic matter addition stimulated different magnitudes and 214 timings of mineralization, DIN accumulation, associated nitrification and nitrogen loss (Fig. 1). 215 The overall progression of the two treatments was similar, however, proceeding from a state 216 dominated by ammonium to one more oxidized and comprised mostly of nitrate. The total DIN 217 concentration decreased concurrently with this shift from ammonium- to nitrate-dominance, 218 providing evidence of co-occurring nitrogen loss during the nitrification phase.

219

220 Nitrogen loss rates

The rates of anammox and denitrification measured directly in slurries from mesocosm sediments varied with time (Fig. 2). In the low organic matter mesocosms, the denitrification rate was generally higher than the anammox rate (up to ~10 nmol N g⁻¹ d⁻¹) but did not fluctuate reproducibly. The anammox rate, however, was consistently low (< 4 nmol N g⁻¹ d⁻¹) except for a peak rate of 5 and 8 nmol N g⁻¹ d⁻¹ in L1 and L2 respectively, toward the end of the incubations. These two mesocosms showed similar trends in the rate time courses, but with a time offset, with L2 lagging L1. This lag was also evident in the DIN concentration time series.

The mesocosms subjected to a high organic matter amendment (Fig. 2C, D) showed a very different trend in the rate measurements. Here, the anammox rates generally were lower than in L1 and showed no significant peak. Further, both H1 and H2 showed dual maxima (up to 231 20 nmol g⁻¹ d⁻¹) in denitrification: one at the beginning of the experiments, just following the 232 organic matter addition, and one toward the end of the incubations. In the previous model 233 analysis, we found that the rates of all biological processes increased in concert with each other, 234 making the percentage of nitrogen loss attributed to anammox consistent regardless of treatment 235 (44.3 \pm 0.3% anammox) [5]. From the direct measurements presented here, however, we found 236 the anammox percentages to be lower than the modeled value: 32 \pm 8% (SE) for the L 237 mesocosms and 27 \pm 8% for the H mesocosms.

238

239 Denitrifier nirS and anammox 16S rRNA gene abundances

240 Because the replication between duplicate mesocosms was very consistent for both 241 treatments, genetic analysis was conducted on sediment DNA extracts from only one mesocosm 242 from each organic treatment, L1 and H1 (Fig. 3). Tank L1 did not show a trend in abundance of the denitrifier *nirS* functional gene, with an average of $6.6 \pm 0.4 \times 10^7$ (SD) gene copies g⁻¹ wet 243 244 sediment. For anammox 16S rRNA, however, while the total abundance was an order of magnitude lower than *nirS*, there was a significant ~4-fold increase from 2.5 to 10×10^6 copies 245 g^{-1} wet sediment between days 10 and 30. This increase in the single copy gene implies a 246 247 doubling time of 10 days for the anammox community over this time period, similar to previous 248 estimates [51, 52]. The number of gene copies then decreased back toward initial levels. Tank 249 H1 showed the opposite pattern compared with L1: there was no significant trend in the anammox 16S rRNA gene abundances, averaging $3.5 \pm 1.4 \times 10^6$ copies g⁻¹ wet sediment over 250 251 the time course of the incubation. The denitrifier *nirS* abundance, however, started relatively high (and at the same level as that in L1), approximately 6×10^7 copies g⁻¹ wet sediment before 252 decreasing until day 16 and then peaking at over 10⁸ copies g⁻¹ wet sediment on day 38. These 253

peak abundances in anammox *16S rRNA* in L1 and *nirS* in H1 are significantly greater than the abundances in the remainder of their respective time courses ($p < 10^{-7}$).

256

257 Denitrifier community diversity

258 Based on the denitrification rate and *nirS* gene abundance peaks in H1 at day 38, we 259 investigated whether there was a shift in the community associated with these increases. Such a 260 shift could take the shape of a few dominants or a single winner, or a less obvious change in the 261 overall community composition of the major (> 1% of total) groups. Only 39 of the 164 262 archetype probes were detected as a major component of at least one sample, and the major 263 groups comprised 66.4%, 54.7%, 46.3%, and 54.0% of the total microarray fluorescence for L1-264 3, L1-38, H1-3, and H1-38 samples respectively (Fig. 4). These data also show that the major 265 nirS community in both treatments at both the beginning (day 3) and near the end (day 38) were 266 not dominated by a single winner. Both Shannon diversity ($H = 3.01 \pm 0.02$) and evenness (E =267 0.95 ± 0.01) indices were relatively high and showed little variation across organic matter 268 treatments and time points and indicated a diverse community. However, the community 269 comprising the major groups (those that accounted for > 1% of the total signal) was different 270 among the samples. The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index (not shown) indicated that the two days 271 sampled from L1 were more similar to each other than to either day in H1, although all four 272 communities were not statistically different due to the abundance of the major groups. H1-3 was 273 most similar to L1-3; and, the most dissimilar samples were L1-38 and H1-38. These results 274 indicate a divergence in community over the 38 days of the incubations caused by the application 275 of labile organic matter.

276 The composition of the community shift is interesting, and can be delineated based on 277 occurrence in subsets of tanks and times. There were 12 archetypes that represented a major part 278 of the total signal in both tanks at both the beginning and end. Eight of these archetypes represent 279 sequences derived from the Choptank River (Nir71, 5, 134, 115, 82, 33, 150, 112), two from 280 elsewhere in Chesapeake Bay (Nir28, 164), one from the coastal Arabian Sea water column 281 (Nir111), and one (Nir1; *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*) which is found in many environments 282 including Chesapeake Bay sediments and the Arabian Sea oxygen deficient waters [53]. These 283 twelve archetypes comprise a large fraction of the major groups (L1-3: 78%, L1-38: 70%, H1-3: 284 73%, H1-38: 65%) but, interestingly, account for 8% less of the total after 38 days of incubation 285 with the organic matter amendments.

286 Upon incubation with a high amount of organic carbon, however, the relative 287 hybridization signal of some groups decreased, and others increased. Archetypes Nir148 and 288 Nir80, which existed in approximately equal proportions at both time points in L1 and in H1-3, 289 and five of the major archetypes in H1-3 were not major components of the community in H1-290 38. Moreover, eight archetypes, which comprised 18% of that sample's signal, were found only 291 in sample H1-38 (Fig. 4). The most important of these, archetype 123, made up more than 8% of 292 H1-38's signal. This sequence was derived from site CB1 in Chesapeake Bay when/where the 293 measured fixed nitrogen loss rates were highest among all sites analyzed [16]. While the 294 sequence is not closely related to any known organism, it groups with sequences from highly 295 productive systems: Baltic Sea, oxygen deficient zones, and during cyanobacteria blooms [16]. 296 In a principal component analysis of the microarray data, the first two principal 297 components explain 50% and 34% of the variance, respectively (Fig. 5). Samples L1-3 and L1-298 38 are clustered whereas H1-3 and H1-38 are approximately equidistant from the L1 samples.

299 The differences between the average of the two L1 samples ($\overline{L1}$) and H1-3 are due to both PC1 300 and PC2, but $\overline{L1}$ and H1-38 differ only along PC1. The geometric distance in PC1/PC2 space 301 between $\overline{L1}$ and H1-3 is less than that between $\overline{L1}$ and H1-38, confirming the greater similarity 302 between the initial communities in the low and high carbon mesocosms before the addition of 303 organic matter. It is worth noting that the distance between $\overline{L1}$ and H1-3 is in fact less than that 304 between H1-3 and H1-38 (3.9 compared to 4.7), which implies that the divergence of the 305 community during 6 months of pre-incubation was less than the shift observed in the period of 306 35 days following a large organic carbon amendment. A heatmap based on correlation analysis 307 of the combined RFR, qPCR and environmental data illustrates some relationships among 308 archetypes and other variables. The same archetype clusters are evident in the heatmap (Fig. 6) 309 and the PCA (Fig. 5). For example, *nirS* abundance was positively correlated with the archetype 310 cluster that includes Nir123, one of the archetypes that was significant only in H1 at D38, i.e., in 311 response to the high OM addition. Nir33, which was a significant archetype in the initial 312 samples, was correlated with high DIN concentrations. Nir21 did not cluster with other 313 archetypes but was the archetype with the highest correlation to denitrification rate.

314

315 Discussion

Organic matter, as might be derived from a phytoplankton bloom settling event or from seasonal fish farming, induced changes in the nitrogen biogeochemistry observed in the mesocosms. The high OM treatment showed elevated rates of denitrification, as would be expected given the mainly heterotrophic nature of this process and its dependence on organic carbon. Interestingly, however, the response appears bimodal, with the initial peak corresponding to an immediate community response to the labile OM addition, and a second, month-later peak

322 upon the exhaustion of nitrite and the maximum nitrate concentration in the overlying water. 323 This temporal course of denitrification rates would indicate that the sediment biogeochemistry is 324 such that the denitrifiers will rapidly increase their rates when presented high amounts of labile 325 OM, but a byproduct, either NH_4^+ , NO_2^- , or some other unmeasured biomarker, is produced to 326 hinder complete consumption of this OM. When this inhibition is removed, however, the 327 denitrifiers are able to increase their rates again and consume both OM and DIN. In the natural 328 environment, where the overlying water is flushed and replenished, such inhibition may not 329 occur, and the denitrifiers able to consume the organic matter addition much more rapidly.

330 This inhibition may also encompass competition with DNRA at high levels of dissolved 331 organic matter. As we added particulate organic matter to the pre-incubated mesocosms, there 332 should be a delay in solubilizing this organic amendment and allowing it to build up to levels 333 that thermodynamically favor nitrate reduction to ammonium rather than to N_2 [40, 54, 55]. 334 However, dissolved organic matter levels were not monitored throughout the experiments, and 335 the controls on the partitioning between denitrification and DNRA are more complicated than 336 only organic carbon dependence [56, 57]. Our study does nonetheless imply complex dynamics 337 in the denitrifier population and metabolic rates, and necessitates further investigation into the 338 competition with other microbial communities.

The mesocosm experimental approach allows for the evaluation of how the microbiology responds to an organic matter pulse in the absence of external forcing (e.g., flowing water in the natural system). However, as is often true for sediments, even the mesocosms are subject to heterogeneities and measurement artifacts that obscure the relationships among rates, DIN concentrations, and DNA gene abundances. The peaks in directly measured rates of anammox and denitrification do not consistently correspond either to peaks in the DIN concentrations or to

the modeled rates derived from them [5]. There are a number of possible explanations for this
discrepancy. First, the discrete rate measurements made once per week may miss actual peaks in
the rates. For instance, in the low organic matter mesocosms, small rate maxima that were
observed within the first 10 days might have corresponded more precisely to the modeled
maximum rate of ammonium consumption at days 8–9 had rate experiments been conducted on
those days.

351 Contributing to this lack of overall correlation is the fact that these sediment systems are 352 highly heterogeneous. The labile organic matter amendment was raked over the entire sediment 353 bed, but on the microscale where microbes operate [58], heterogeneities abound. As the systems 354 are driven by the organic material, its distribution is certainly crucial in controlling the small 355 scale locations of biological rates within a sediment matrix. The DIN measurements sampled the 356 homogenous water column overlying the entirety of the sediment bed and integrated the 357 sediment heterogeneity. This led to high reproducibility between duplicate mesocosms in 358 integrated rates modeled from the DIN patterns [5], but rates directly measured in sediment 359 incubations are subject to small scale heterogeneity and therefore less reproducible.

The directly measured rates presented here are lower than some literature reports, e.g., [59–61], but we note that our rates are not directly comparable. Our rates are averaged over the entire 2.5 cm-thick sediment plug whereas the zone of denitrification is likely on the order of one-tenth of that thickness [62]. Accounting for this factor of ten would make the rates reported here on the same order as previous reports in other locations using other methods. Further, the direct rate measurements are consistent with the magnitude of the observed nitrate drawdown. For instance, nitrate was drawn down ~50 μ mol L⁻¹ in 10 d toward the end of the incubations

367 (Fig. 1), and given that the mesocosms comprised 2 kg of sediment and 20 L of water, this 368 equates to 50 nmol $g^{-1} d^{-1}$, again of the same magnitude as the peak rate measurements.

369 The slurry method used here also meant that the entire sediment column was cored and 370 homogenized in order to minimize artifacts from preferentially selecting only specific depth 371 layers [17]. This homogenization and redistribution of active nitrogen cycle bacteria and organic 372 matter from the interface into the whole core may have altered the proportions of N₂ generation 373 attributed to anammox and denitrification. While the organic matter amendment had a C/N of 374 4.2, there was a large background C/N of ~9 which is typical of recalcitrant organic matter in 375 estuarine systems [5, 19]. The newly applied organic material was mostly restricted to the active 376 nitrogen loss zone at the sediment water interface which fueled an anammox percentage of ~45% 377 when calculated from the overlying water (see Babbin and Ward [5]). When mixed and 378 redistributed with deeper, more N-depleted organic matter, however, the resulting proportion of 379 anammox was lower, and the average anammox contributions were $32 \pm 8\%$ (SE) and $27 \pm 8\%$ 380 for the L and H mesocosms, respectively. This is in agreement with previous work [63] showing 381 that slurries tend to favor denitrification when compared with intact sediment cores, especially in 382 highly active sediments.

The measured denitrifier *nirS* and anammox *16S rRNA* gene abundances did not consistently correspond with the instantaneous rates of fixed nitrogen loss. The lack of such a correlation between *nirS* gene abundance with denitrification rates themselves has been seen in other mesocosm experiments seeded with sediments from Eel Pond, Falmouth, MA [17]. There are a number of factors besides presence of particular genes in the DNA that control biological transformation rates and can obscure the relationship between biological rates and the organisms responsible. Particularly, expression of the gene in RNA and substrate availability are important

390 in controlling the actual rates of denitrification. Moreover, homogenization over the whole 391 sediment column can obscure the signal by reducing overall rates and concentrations. Two of the 392 observed abundance maxima, where the signal was strongest, in anammox 16S genes in L1 at 393 day 27 and *nirS* genes in H1 at day 38 nonetheless did correspond with maxima in directly 394 measured instantaneous rates. The same homogenized sediment slurry that was analyzed for the 395 rates was frozen for DNA extraction, so perhaps during these periods of especially high rates, the 396 signals in gene abundance reflect actual changes in abundance of the relevant microbes. The 397 inhomogeneity of individual sediment cores also likely contributes to lack of direct 398 correspondence between instantaneous rates and gene abundances. It is also very likely that the 399 primers we used did not detect all the members of the two functional groups. It is possible that 400 *nirK* denitrifiers contributed to the rates, but we did not investigate their abundance. The *nirS* 401 gene is very diverse and thus it is likely that some related genes escaped our detection. 402 Regarding anammox gene abundances, Van Kessel et al. [64] found that the dominant anammox 403 phylotype in biofilters in a freshwater aquaculture system was not closely related to known 404 anammox strains and thus would not have been detected with the standard 16S rRNA probes. It 405 is thus possible that anammox abundance detected here by 16S rRNA, was overestimated. 406 The community composition of the major denitrifiers determined from the *nirS* 407 microarray could be interpreted based on presence or absence of a few groups of archetypes. The 408 most abundant taxa were found in all four samples regardless of treatment or day of sampling 409 during the incubation. These 12 important groups derived almost exclusively from Choptank 410 River and Chesapeake Bay sequences and represented up to 52% of the total hybridization 411 signal. Their ubiquity underlines the reason for their importance: these groups exist at the mouth 412 of the Choptank River because they are favored by the environmental variability and conditions

413 (sediment type, organic matter composition and availability, inorganic nutrient concentrations, 414 and physicochemical factors like salinity) inherent to this location in the estuary. The dominance 415 of only a few archetypes is consistent with previous clone library work from Chesapeake Bay, 416 where only 8 of the 172 detected operational taxonomic units (defined as \leq 5% dissimilarity) 417 were found to account for 42% of total *nirS* clones [16].

418 Because of the long pre-incubation before initiating the experiment by making the 419 nutrient additions, it is likely that the microbial assemblage at the first time point had diverged 420 from the natural assemblage in the bay at the time of sampling. Since all four mesocosms were 421 pre-incubated and both sets of treatment replicated very well in terms of net reaction rates [5], 422 the day 3 and day 38 samples are appropriate for investigating the effects of the different organic 423 amendments. In terms of overall community composition, there was no apparent change over the 424 35 days of mesocosm L1 in that almost all of the major groups that existed at day 3 still existed 425 at day 38. There was a shift in the community in terms of winners and losers from the 426 amendment of high organic matter, however. Near the end of the high organic matter 427 experiment, eight major archetypes that were unique to sample H1-38 and comprised 18% of the 428 total signal were detected. This appearance of new groups in H1 by day 38, and the 429 disappearance of 5 of 6 of the groups unique to H1 on day 3, indicate that minor groups initially 430 undetectable may become important should proper conditions arise. For instance, in this bloom-431 like scenario, the initially rare archetype Nir123, which was found only in the high organic 432 matter treatment and represented more than 8% of H1-38's total signal, is likely a fast growing 433 group well suited to highly productive conditions. Such dominance of a few denitrifiers 434 responding to episodic environmental changes has also been shown in the Arabian Sea [43]. 435 Archetype Nir123 exemplifies the importance rare taxa may have in transient settings. Without

these otherwise latent groups, sediment systems would not be able to respond as rapidly to pulselike events such as a settling bloom or anthropogenic discharge, and by extension, could not
buffer the coastal sea as readily from eutrophication.

439

440 Conclusions

441 The mesocosm experiments produced results similar to observations reported from the 442 natural Chesapeake Bay setting: greater importance of denitrification in terms of gene 443 abundances and biogeochemical rates compared with anammox, the presence of a small number 444 of highly important groups well-adapted to this system, and the growth of a specific winner 445 under certain eutrophic conditions. Bloom settling events, such as the one simulated here, induce 446 a dynamic cascade of nitrogen cycling processes and the microbial community responsible for 447 these transformations. The transience of a pulse of organic and inorganic nutrients induced a 448 high level of community evolution, stimulating as much divergence in one month as had 449 previously occurred in six months, despite little change in *nirS* gene abundance. Denitrifier 450 functional diversity apparently allows the coastal ecosystem community to adapt quickly and 451 ameliorate the effects of high nutrients and labile organic matter pulses.

This study also implies that the importance of anammox may in fact be underestimated due to the use of the slurry incubation method, and even more importantly, due to the significance of episodic organic loading in estuarine systems. The current paradigm in many coastal systems is that denitrification accounts for upwards of 90% of fixed nitrogen loss [11, 28]. One explanation for this observation is that the high C/N composition of background organic matter [19, 65, 66] favors denitrification without providing a significant ammonium source for anammox. However, given the microbial response to an organic loading event

459 stimulated in the experiments presented here, periodic blooms should be disproportionately 460 important to both the overall nitrogen loss rates and the partitioning between anammox and 461 denitrification. As the organic matter deposited to the sediments would likely have a greater 462 nitrogen content than the refractory bulk, it is conceivable that the contribution of anammox 463 during times just following deposition and therefore to nitrogen loss as a whole in coastal 464 sediments is greater than previously thought.

465

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664		
665	Figur	re legends
666	Fig. 1	. DIN time series. (A) L1 (filled symbols), L2 (open symbols) and (B) H1 (filled
667	symb	ols), H2 (open symbols). Ammonium measurements are in blue, nitrite in green, and nitrate
668	in red	. Black line denotes the sum of these nitrogen nutrients. Error bars show reproducibility of
669	duplie	cate measurements. Figure is modified from Babbin and Ward (5).
670		

671	Fig. 2. Instantaneous rates of anammox and denitrification. (A) L1, (B) L2, (C) H1, (D) H2.
672	Anammox rates are shown in blue and denitrification in red. Error bars represent standard error
673	on slopes through labeled N ₂ measurements.
674	
675	Fig. 3. DNA gene abundances throughout the experiment. Anammox 16S (black) and nirS
676	(grey) abundance time courses are shown for (A) L1 and (B) H1 mesocosms. Error bars show
677	standard deviations among triplicate PCR amplifications.
678	
679	Fig. 4. Relative <i>nirS</i> abundances. Stacked bar plot of <i>nirS</i> microarray RFRs. Purple = found in
680	both L1 and H1; Red = unique to L1; Green = unique to H1; Blue = found only in H1–38;
681	orange/yellow = in all but H1–38. Numbers indicate important archetype probes.
682	
683	Fig. 5. PCA of <i>nirS</i> microarray analysis. A PCA plot of <i>nirS</i> probe abundances (indicated by
684	superimposed numbers) for each of the 4 samples. The same color coding is used as in Fig. 4.
685	
686	Fig. 6. Heatmap similarities among probes and metadata. The heatmap shows how certain
687	archetype probes and environmental metadata (i.e., DIN concentrations, gene abundances, and
688	measured rates) relate to each other. The sequence of red boxes along the diagonal indicates
689	groups of highly related variables.
690	



Fig. 1. DIN concentrations time series. (A) Mesocosms L1 (filled symbols), L2 (open symbols)
and (B) Mesocosms H1 (filled symbols), H2 (open symbols). Ammonium measurements are in
blue, nitrite in green, and nitrate in red. Black line denotes the sum of these nitrogen nutrients.
Error bars show reproducibility of duplicate measurements. Figure is modified from Babbin and
Ward (5).





- 699 Anammox rates are shown in blue and denitrification in red. Error bars represent standard error
- 700 on slopes through labeled N_2 measurements.



Fig. 3. DNA gene abundances throughout the experiment. *Anammox 16S* (black) and *nirS*(grey) abundance time courses are shown for (A) L1 and (B) H1 mesocosms. Error bars show

504 standard deviations among triplicate PCR amplifications.





Fig. 4. Relative *nirS* **abundances.** Stacked bar plot of *nirS* microarray RFRs. Purple = found in



708 orange/yellow = in all but H1–38. Numbers indicate important archetype probes.



Fig. 5. PCA of *nirS* microarray analysis. A PCA plot of *nirS* probe abundances (indicated by
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