1	Effects of experimental warming and carbon addition on nitrate reduction and respiration in
2	coastal sediments
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Abstract

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Climate change may have differing effects on microbial processes that control coastal N availability. We conducted a microcosm experiment to explore effects of warming and carbon availability on nitrate reduction pathways in marine sediments. Sieved continental shelf sediments were incubated for 12 weeks under aerated seawater amended with nitrate (~50 µM), at winter (4°C) or summer (17°C) temperatures, with or without biweekly particulate organic C additions. Treatments increased diffusive oxygen consumption as expected, with somewhat higher effects of C addition compared to warming. Combined warming and C addition had the strongest effect on nitrate flux across the sediment water interface, with a complete switch early in the experiment from influx to sustained efflux. Supporting this result, vial incubations with added ¹⁵N-nitrate indicated that C addition stimulated potential rates of dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium (DNRA), but not denitrification. Overall capacity for both denitrification and DNRA was reduced in warmed treatments, possibly reflecting C losses due to increased respiration with warming. Anammox potential rates were much lower than DNRA or denitrification, and were slightly negatively affected by warming or C addition. Overall, results indicate that warming and C addition increased ammonium production through remineralization and possibly DNRA. This stimulated nitrate production through nitrification, but without a comparable increase in nitrate consumption through denitrification. The response to C of potential DNRA rates over denitrification, along with a switch to nitrate efflux, raises the possibility that DNRA is an important and previously overlooked source of internal N cycling in shelf sediments.

Introduction

The amount of nitrogen (N) available in marine ecosystems is a determining factor for
primary productivity at both local and global scales (Ryther and Dunstan 1971; Perry and Eppley
1981), and in excess causes eutrophication, a serious problem in coastal areas (Diaz and
Rosenberg 2008). Available N is dependent not only on ecosystem inputs, but also on the
balance of microbially mediated N cycling processes that lead to N removal or recycling. N is
removed from coastal systems by denitrification and anammox, which reduce nitrate (NO ₃ -) or
nitrite (NO ₂ ⁻) to gaseous N ₂ (Canfield 2005; Thamdrup 2012). Denitrification in coastal and
marine sediments has been estimated to be one of the largest sinks of N in the marine
environment, and may remove up to half of the total N inputs into the ocean (Christensen 1994;
Codispoti et al. 2001). Anammox appears to be less important, especially in sediments where
denitrification rates are high, but its importance is still being constrained (Trimmer and Engström
2011). In contrast to denitrification and anammox, dissimilatory NO ₃ reduction to ammonium
(DNRA) retains N in the system as ammonium (NH_4^+) (Joye and Anderson 2008). While there is
increasing evidence that DNRA can be as relevant as denitrification to net N availability and to
NO_3^- reduction in shallow systems (Giblin et al. 2013), its importance in shelf sediments has not
been well studied.
Changing temperatures in coastal ecosystems could alter the partitioning between these
processes and thus the balance between N removal and recycling, but little is known about the
specific effects of increased temperatures over relevant time scales. Studies that link seasonally
changing temperatures to DNRA and denitrification rates suggest that warming may influence
the balance of N cycling (Jørgensen 1989; Kelly-Gerreyn et al. 2001; Gruca-Rokosz et al. 2009).
Higher temperatures may increase sediment O ₂ consumption and thus be linked to lower

sediment redox potentials that favor DNRA (Giblin et al. 2013). Furthermore, DNRA has been
found to be dominant in warmer tropical ecosystems, and negligible in cold, deep sediments
(Dong et al. 2011; Crowe et al. 2012). If warming sediments have a similar effect as seasonally
or spatially changing temperatures, climate change could increase the relative importance of
DNRA to NO ₃ reduction.
Many of the impacts of temperature are likely to be mediated through its influence on C
availability, which may be the ultimate driver of the balance of the N cycle (Tiedje et al. 1982;
Christensen et al. 2000; Thamdrup and Dalsgaard 2002). Availability of organic C may influence
denitrification and DNRA more than anammox. Denitrification and DNRA can be directly
coupled to organic C respiration, while anammox is primarily autotrophic (Thamdrup 2012).
However, anammox can still be affected by variability in organic C through release of $\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ and
NO ₂ during heterotrophic remineralization (Trimmer et al. 2003; Babbin et al. 2014).
Relationships between warming and sediment organic C availability could be manifested in
different ways, particularly through changes in phytoplankton delivery or sediment respiration.
Warming may change the timing and magnitude of spring phytoplankton blooms in coastal
ecosystems (Sommer and Lengfellner 2008; Nixon et al. 2009; Lewandowska and Sommer
2010), potentially altering C availability in benthic sediments. Warming may also interact with C
availability by increasing total benthic respiration, leading to a shortage of labile organic matter
in sediments (Alsterberg et al. 2012).
Changes in organic C availability could alter rates of denitrification, anammox, and
DNRA differently. Based on thermodynamic considerations, Tiedje et al. (1982) hypothesized
that DNRA should be favored over denitrification by a high ratio of organic matter to NO ₃ ⁻ . This
hypothesis has been supported by culture experiments with a denitrifier and DNRA bacterium,

and by measurements in estuarine and reservoir sediments with varied organic matter loading rates (Rehr and Klemme 1989; Christensen et al. 2000; Gruca-Rokosz et al. 2009; Gardner and McCarthy 2009). These studies suggest that DNRA is favored over denitrification under very high organic C loading rates, and therefore high respiration rates. However, for other types of sediments typical of coastal systems, experimental evidence showing the relationship between C availability and DNRA is more limited, as denitrification is also expected to increase with organic C (Giblin et al. 2013). A recent modeling study showed that anammox was favored under lowest organic C to NO₃⁻ ratios, denitrification at intermediate ratios, and DNRA at the highest ratios (Algar and Vallino 2014). However, experimental evidence for this hypothesized pattern is currently limited.

We conducted a microcosm experiment to investigate the effect of increased temperature on sediment NO₃⁻ reducing processes in continental shelf sediments, and determine whether effects are mediated by organic C availability. Building on previous studies that have used microcosms or mesocosms to examine N cycling in sediments (Jensen et al. 1994; Fulweiler et al. 2008; Neubacher et al. 2013), our microcosm experiment simultaneously tested the influence of warming and C addition on all three processes currently known to respire NO₃⁻ or NO₂⁻. We hypothesized that warming alone would increase sediment respiration rates and eventually decrease organic C availability. This would in turn lead to decreased denitrification potential rates, and possibly decreased DNRA. Anammox might be favored under conditions with lower C availability, but not if there was a direct negative effect of warming (Dalsgaard and Thamdrup 2002). As C was added at a modest rate comparable to *in situ* deposition rates, we hypothesized that it would favor denitrification relative to DNRA, leading to increased net consumption of inorganic N.

Methods

Sampling

On March 14, 2012, sediment was collected from a continental shelf site in Rhode Island Sound (RIS2). This site was chosen as it was previously shown to exhibit appreciable potential rates of anammox and denitrification (Brin et al. 2014). RIS2 has a water column depth of 38 m. The water column is typically well mixed during winter, suggesting that O₂ was likely near air saturation. At the time of collection, bottom water was 4°C and NO₃⁻ concentration was 0.3 μM. During a two-year period when this experiment was conducted, bottom water temperature ranged from 3 to 17°C (Brin et al. 2014), and NO₃⁻ concentration was 0.3-13 μM (Hardison, Giblin and Rich, unpublished).

Sediments were collected using a box core, and the top 4 cm of sediment were collected into coolers, covered with bottom water at in situ temperature, and brought back to the

laboratory. Sediment was held in the dark at 4°C, with aquarium bubblers used to keep the

Microcosm experiment

overlying water oxic.

Fifteen microcosms were set up four days later, with all processing done at 4°C. A microcosm consisted of sieved sediment (1 mm) layered into a glass pan to a depth of ~4 cm (20.9 x 11.1 cm). The pan was placed in an aquarium containing 6 L of 0.2 μm-filtered Narragansett Bay seawater (salinity 32), which was kept air saturated with aquarium pumps, in the dark. There were three replicate microcosms in each experimental treatment, as described below. To decrease potential NO₃- limitation in the experiment, we adjusted the NO₃-

concentration in the aquarium water to 50 μM . We monitored NO_3^- concentration weekly in the
microcosms. In cases where there was net consumption, we adjusted the concentration back up to
$50~\mu\text{M}$. Every other week, half of the overlying water in each microcosm was refreshed with
initial seawater as a precaution against buildup of potential inhibitors or any other toxin.
Afterwards, the NO_3^- concentration was again adjusted back up to 50 μM . There was never a
smell of hydrogen sulfide, ammonia, or volatile fatty acids coming from the microcosms.
All microcosms received an initial pre-incubation at 4°C for 16 days, after which three
microcosms were sampled destructively, and potential rate experiments were conducted (t_0
experiments). Half of the remaining microcosms were kept at 4°C, and the other half were
warmed to 17°C, reflecting winter low and summer high temperatures at the collection site.
Sediment temperatures were monitored using iButtons (Dallas Semiconductor Corp) for the
duration of the experiment (12 weeks). Temperatures were maintained by placing microcosms in
a 4°C cold room or at 17°C in a large temperature-controlled water bath. Every two weeks, half
of the microcosms at each temperature received additions of C in the form of Chlorella algae,
resulting in four treatments (4°C, 4°C+C, 17°C, and 17°C+C) (Fig. 1). Before addition,
Chlorella was leached to remove soluble C as follows: for each microcosm, 240 mg of Chlorella
vulgaris powder (Jarrow Formulas, 100% pure Yaeyama Chlorella) was placed in a plastic
centrifuge tube with deionized water (45 ml), and tubes were shaken and allowed to sit
overnight. The next day, tubes were centrifuged (3,000 x g for 3 min) and the supernatant was
poured off, resulting in <i>Chlorella</i> pellets with a C:N ratio of 5.3. <i>Chlorella</i> pellets were
resuspended in filter sterilized seawater (15 ml), and suspensions were evenly added directly to
the top of the sediment in each microcosm after gently removing the overlying water. The algae
was mixed in by gently stirring the top 1 cm of sediment with a spatula, and then overlying

microcosm water was added back. C was added at a rate equivalent to 3.1 μ mol C cm⁻² d⁻¹. This rate was chosen as it is somewhat higher than diffusive O_2 consumption measured at the site (approximately 1.5 μ mol cm⁻² d⁻¹) (Brin et al. 2014), and was therefore expected to maintain labile C stocks. Microcosms without C additions had the same treatment except using seawater without *Chlorella*.

Oxygen microprofiles, sediment C and N, and inorganic N measurements

To determine O_2 consumption rates, O_2 microprofiles were measured with a microelectrode (OX100, Unisense) in 4 microcosms just prior to initiating treatments (t_0), in 17°C microcosms in week 1, and in all microcosms in weeks 5 and 11. Details about profiling methods and rate estimates were described previously (Brin et al. 2014).

Total sediment C and N were measured on sediments harvested for rate measurements, at (t_0) or after 12 weeks, using a CE Instruments NC2100 Elemental Analyzer (CE Elantech, Lakewood, NJ).

Overlying water samples were collected and frozen about three times a week to measure concentrations of NO_3^- , NO_2^- , and NH_4^+ . $NO_3^- + NO_2^-$ were measured colorimetrically using spongy cadmium (Jones 1984), and NO_2^- was measured without Cd reduction, either by hand or on a Westco autoanalyzer (SmartChem 200, Westco Instruments, Brookfield, Connecticut). Pore water NH_4^+ was measured using the phenol/hypochlorite method (Koroleff 1983), by hand or on a Westco autoanalyzer. Net fluxes of DIN over the sediment-water interface were calculated before t_0 and during weeks 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 11 as the change in aquarium water nutrient concentration over a 3- or 4-day period during which no water column NO_3^- adjustments were made.

To further assess nitrification and N losses during later stages of the experiment, we used O₂ consumption rates from week 11 to calculate nitrification, assuming that (1) O₂ was used for aerobic remineralization and nitrification of all NH₄⁺ produced by remineralization, as there was little to no NH₄⁺ flux from the sediments throughout the experiment, (2) organic matter composition followed Redfield stoichiometry, and (3) all heterotrophic respiration was accounted for by O₂ consumption. In total, this would mean that 138 mol O₂ were consumed by every 16 mol NO₃⁻ produced, i.e., 106 mol O₂ for remineralization of C and 32 mol O₂ for nitrification of the 16 mol of NH₄⁺ produced (Paulmier et al. 2009). The ratio of NO₃⁻ produced to O₂ consumed is the same whether or not DNRA occurs, because coupled nitrification-DNRA causes internal cycling of N, and the net reaction is simply aerobic respiration, rather than a change in available NO₃⁻:

193 Nitrification:
$$NH_4^+ + 2O_2 \rightarrow NO_3^- + 2H^+ + H_2O$$
 (1)

DNRA:
$$NO_3^- + 2CH_2O + 2H^+ \rightarrow NH_4^+ + 2CO_2 + H_2O$$
 (2)

195 Sum:
$$CH_2O + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$$
 (3)

This is analogous to the internal recycling of oxidants and reductants involved in Fe, Mn and SO_4^{2-} reduction (Canfield et al. 1993). Total N loss in the microcosms, assumed to be removal mainly by denitrification, was calculated by adding NO_3^- influx to NO_3^- production by calculated nitrification. Results were compared to similar calculations using week 5 fluxes.

Potential rate measurements

Potential rate measurements of denitrification, anammox, and DNRA were conducted at the beginning of the experiment, just before the treatments were initiated (t_0), and then 12 weeks later at the end of the experiment. Pans of sediment were removed from aquarium and the

overlying water was aspirated off. The sediment was homogenized into a beaker and then 1.5 mL
of sediment was dispensed into 5.9 mL Exetainer vials (LABCO, UK), which were flushed with
helium and held overnight at the same temperature treatment that they were incubated at during
the 12-week experiment (4°C or 17°C). This pre-incubation was conducted to remove any
residual NO ₃ -, as described previously (Brin et al. 2014). After the overnight pre-incubation, half
of the vials continued to be incubated at the same temperature, while the other half of vials were
shifted to the opposite 12-week temperature treatment for 1 hour (i.e., 4°C to 17°C or 17°C to
4°C). This was enough time for all the sediment in the vial to reach the new temperature, at
which point potential rate measurements were initiated. Thus, potential rates were measured at
4°C and 17°C for both 12-week temperature treatments. This allowed us to distinguish whether
there was an effect due to factors such as physiological acclimation or microbial population
shifts during the 12-week experiment, rather than simply a direct kinetic effect on reaction rates
due to increasing or decreasing measurement temperatures.
To initiate potential rate measurements, ${}^{15}NO_3^{-}+{}^{14}NH_4^+$ (100 nmol N mL $^{-1}$ sediment) was
added to the vials, and production of $^{29}N_2$ and $^{30}N_2$ was measured after a 15-minute incubation, at
which point biological activity was halted with addition of 100 μL 7 M ZnCl ₂ . The produced
$^{15}\text{N-N}_2$ was measured with an isotope ratio mass spectrophotometer (Isoprime Continuous Flow-
IRMS interfaced with Multiflow-Bio Unit). Calculation of denitrification and anammox rates
was conducted following Brin et al. (2014), using equations described by Thamdrup and
Dalsgaard (2002). DNRA rates were measured by determining ¹⁵ NH ₄ ⁺ production over the same
time interval, correcting for significant background ¹⁵ NH ₄ ⁺ production, which occurred in
samples that were killed immediately at the start of time course incubations. A small background
correction was also needed for anammox, but none was necessary for denitrification. DNRA was

measured following Holmes et al. (1998) by desorbing $\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ in NaCl solution (1 M) and then	
diffusing it onto acidified Teflon-wrapped GF-C filters. The $^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ on the filters was	
measured using a Europa ANCA-SL elemental analyzer-gas chromatograph preparation system	
attached to a continuous-flow Europa 20-20 stable isotope ratio mass spectrometer, as described	
in Koop-Jakobsen and Giblin (2010).	
The presence of DNRA could lead to an overestimate of denitrification compared to	
anammox in potential rate incubations due to conversion of $^{15}\mathrm{NO_3}^-$ into $^{15}\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ and its	
subsequent conversion to 30 N ₂ by anammox (i.e., 15 NO ₂ ⁻ + 15 NH ₄ ⁺ = 30 N ₂) (Kartal et al. 2007). To	
address this, we calculated the potential magnitude of this effect, and determined that it would	
have been negligible, due to the large background of added $^{14}\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ and fairly low anammox	
rates. In this calculation, we assumed an average atom% ^{15}N composition of $^{15}NH_4^+$ from linear	
DNRA rates during the 15 min incubation. Given initial additions of 100 nmol $^{14}\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ mL $^{-1}$	
sediment, $^{15}\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ from DNRA comprised 0 to 4.9% of total $\mathrm{NH_4}^+$, causing a 0-5.1%	
underestimate of potential anammox and a 0-0.7% overestimate of denitrification. These are	
conservative estimates, as the actual pool of ${}^{14}\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ was likely higher due to exchangeable $\mathrm{NH_4}^+$,	
decreasing the effect of $^{15}\mathrm{NH_4}^+$. Because of the insignificance of this effect, we did not correct	
for this in our reported rates.	
Statistical analysis	
Statistical analyses were conducted using R version 2.15.0 (R Development Core Team).	
Two-way or three-way ANOVAs were conducted to test for treatment differences for various	
factors (O2 consumption, potential rates, sediment C and N), depending on how often a particular	

measurement was conducted during the 12-week experiment. We conducted two-way ANOVA

for treatment effects on total organic C and N and potential rate data, with the factors of 12-week temperature treatment and C addition treatment, and an interaction between the two. In cases where more time points were taken during the course of the experiment (i.e., O_2 consumption rates and inorganic N fluxes), we conducted three-way ANOVA, with the factors of 12-week temperature treatment, C addition treatment, week (as a continuous variable), and all interactions as factors. In all cases, residuals were tested for normality and homogeneity of variance. In general, the data met the assumptions of ANOVA. Linear regression was used to examine relationships between potential rates and diffusive O_2 consumption, both measured at the 12-week incubation temperature. Statistical tests were considered significant at p<0.05.

Results

Diffusive O_2 consumption

Complete O_2 consumption always occurred within the top 0.5 cm of the sediment, indicating, as expected, that an oxic/anoxic interface was established in the microcosm sediments at a similar depth to *in situ* (Brin et al. 2014). O_2 consumption increased significantly as a result of C addition and warm temperature treatment over the 12-week experiment (Fig. 2). There was no significant interactive effect between C addition and 12-week temperature treatment and no effect of the week in which the measurements were conducted (Three-way ANOVA for weeks 5 and 11: 12-week temperature treatment, F=14.3, p=0.002; C treatment, F=60.7, p<0.001; Week, F=0.6, p=0.46). C had a stronger effect than temperature based on the F statistic. Week was also not a factor when only the 17°C data were analyzed in a two-way ANOVA, for weeks 1, 5, and 11, with C treatment and week as factors (Two-way ANOVA: C treatment, F=75.0, p<0.001;

273	Week, F =4.3, p =0.06). Thus, native pools of organic C were sufficient to maintain O_2
274	consumption rates in cores that lacked C addition during the course of the 12-week experiment.
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276	Sediment C and N
277	At the end of the experiment, +C treatments had higher total organic C (0.691 \pm 0.057%)
278	mean \pm s.d.) than treatments without C added (0.589 \pm 0.052%) (F=8.82, p=0.02) (Fig. 3). The
279	level of C buildup in sediments receiving C additions (~0.1%) was as expected based on the
280	cumulative amount of C that we added. Temperature did not influence total organic C, as
281	indicated by the lack of difference between microcosms subject to different temperature
282	treatments but similar C addition treatments. Sediment percent N was also higher in +C
283	treatments (0.092 \pm 0.008%) compared to treatments without C added (0.074 \pm 0.007%)
284	(F =12.81, p =0.007). There was no difference in total sediment C:N among treatments (Table 1)
285	(12-week temperature treatment, F =0.039, p =0.74; C treatment, F =1.79, p =0.22).
286	
287	Microcosm nutrient fluxes
288	At the beginning of the experiment, all microcosm treatments consumed NO ₃ ⁻ at similar
289	rates (Fig. 4). Microcosms held at 4°C continued to have the greatest net NO ₃ influx throughout
290	the rest of the experiment. In the other treatments, there was a shift in NO ₃ flux, ranging from
291	reduced influx in 4°C+C and 17°C to a complete reversal from influx to efflux in 17°C+C (Fig.
292	4). Treatment differences were evident by week 3 and remained consistent for the rest of the
293	experiment. These results were reflected in significant effects for all main factors in the three-
294	way ANOVA, as well as the C addition by week interaction (12-week temperature treatment,

F=71.31, p<0.001; C treatment, F=45.7, p<0.001; Week, F=10.41, p=0.002; C x Week

interaction, F=16.05, p<0.001). Treatment differences in NO₂⁻ or NH₄⁺ were not as dramatic as for NO₃⁻, but differences were evident during a similar time frame to when NO₃⁻ flux shifted to efflux for the 17°C+C treatment. In particular, there was production of NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺ efflux in week 1 in the 17°C+C treatment that preceded the change in NO₃⁻, and a similar efflux NH₄⁺ in week 3 in the 4°C+C treatment (NO₂⁻: 12-week temperature treatment, F=1.35, p=0.25; C treatment, F=4.94, p=0.03; Week, F=5.71, p=0.02; Temperature x Week interaction, F=6.3, p=0.01; Temperature x C x Week interaction, F=5.99, p=0.02) (NH₄⁺: no significant main effects or interactions). After week 3, NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺ fluxes were usually around zero, with some negligible treatment differences.

In situ nitrification, calculated from O₂ consumption rates from week 11, was comparable to net NO₃⁻ influx in the 4°C treatments (Table 2). Nitrification was higher in the other microcosm treatments, whereas NO₃⁻ flux into the sediments decreased. Calculated rates of denitrification were comparable among treatments (Table 2). Conclusions were the same whether the calculation was based on week 5 or week 11 fluxes.

Denitrification, anammox and DNRA potential rates

In t_0 sediments, and for all treatments at the end of the experiment, denitrification potential rates were higher when measured at 17°C than when measured at 4°C for the same treatment. However, regardless of whether denitrification potential rates were measured 4°C or at 17°C, rates were lower in sediments that had been subjected to the 17°C warming treatment than in sediments held at 4°C (At the 4°C measurement temperature: F=115.03, p<0.001; at the 17°C measurement temperature, F=12.56, p=0.008). C addition had no influence on this warming effect (Fig. 5A).

Potential anammox rates were 7–46 % of denitrification rates and 7–31 % of total N loss
for all treatments at both measurement temperatures, with relatively higher importance when
measured at lower temperatures. After 12 weeks, potential anammox for all treatments measured
at 4°C was 26.3 ± 3.4 % of total N loss, while measurements at 17°C were 9.6 ± 2.2 %. In 4C
microcosms, without warming or carbon addition, anammox was $23.1 \pm 1.6\%$ of total N loss
when measured at the treatment temperature of 4°C. Anammox rates showed slight but
statistically significant treatment effects depending on whether they were measured at low or
high temperature (Fig. 5B). When measured at the higher temperature, C additions decreased
anammox slightly (F =6.98, p =0.03), whereas warming decreased anammox slightly at the lower
measurement temperature (F =14.39, p =0.005).
Potential DNRA rates were of a similar order to denitrification. Similarly to
denitrification, DNRA rates within a treatment were higher when measured at 17°C than at 4°C.
However, DNRA rates were significantly lower in warmed treatments when measured at 17°C
(Fig. 5C) (F =20.35, p =0.002). At this same measurement temperature, DNRA rates were also
significantly higher in +C treatments (F =35.64, p <0.001). There were no interactive effects of C
addition and 12-week temperature treatment for any measured process at either high or low
measurement temperature. Potential DNRA rates correlated positively with O2 consumption,
with measurements of both at temperatures corresponding to 12-week temperature treatments
(p =0.004, $adj r^2$ =0.53), whereas denitrification and anammox rates did not (Fig. 6).
Warming for 12 weeks did not change the relative importance of DNRA or denitrification
to total NO ₃ reduction (i.e., DNRA or Denitrification/Total NO ₃ reduction). However, C
addition decreased relative denitrification rates and increased relative DNRA rates. This effect
was measured at the higher measurement temperature (17°C) (Relative denitrification, $F=15.84$,

p=0.004; relative DNRA, F=15.99, p=0.004), as well as at measurement temperatures corresponding to the 12-week temperature treatments (Relative denitrification, F=6.89, p=0.03; relative DNRA, F=5.85, p=0.04).

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Discussion

Climate change may alter benthic N cycling in coastal ecosystems, either through direct temperature effects or through indirect effects mediated by changes in C availability. These indirect effects may be due to changes in sediment remineralization rates or to shifts in phytoplankton blooms and organic matter delivery to the benthos (Sommer and Lengfellner 2008; Nixon et al. 2009; Lewandowska and Sommer 2010), which may maintain C availability at times when it would otherwise be depleted by respiration, such as between spring and fall phytoplankton blooms. Impending and already occurring changes have prompted microcosm studies that explore the effects of multiple stressors on benthic N cycling, but few have examined the effects of temperature in conjunction with other factors in coastal systems (Fitch and Crowe 2011; Alsterberg et al. 2012). Most of the knowledge of the effect of temperature and organic C on NO₃ reduction comes from seasonal studies and comparisons of rates with changing environmental factors measured in the field (Dalsgaard et al. 2005; Trimmer and Engström 2011; Giblin et al. 2013). The present study extends knowledge of these responses by examining both warming and organic C addition in a mechanistic laboratory microcosm experiment (Jensen et al. 1993; Fulweiler et al. 2008; Neubacher et al. 2013). Although our temperature manipulation does not simulate gradual temperature increases expected due to future climate change, it demonstrates that multiple factors can elucidate potential changes in N cycling that may not be observed in response to varying a single factor, and that indirect effects of warming may have

stronger effects than direct effects. In particular, the combination of both warming and C addition was required to reverse the net flux of NO₃⁻ over the sediment-water interface (Fig. 4). However, contrary to expectations, warming did not influence the relative importance of DNRA as a NO₃⁻ reduction pathway (Ogilvie et al. 1997; Kelly-Gerreyn et al. 2001). Instead, DNRA increased in response to C addition, supporting the hypothesis that warming effects observed in previous studies of benthic sediments may have been mediated by changes in availability of organic C (King and Nedwell 1984; Brin et al. 2014).

O₂ consumption and microcosm sediment C

Oxygen consumption reflects overall sediment reactivity as driven by organic C availability. Our biweekly C additions were at the low end of the range in values reported for primary production in the Middle Atlantic Bight (de Haas et al. 2002). O₂ consumption rates in microcosms with and without C additions agreed well with rates measured over two years in intact sediment cores from the study site, which are typical of near shore continental shelf sediments in general (Glud 2008; Brin et al. 2014). We acknowledge that the timing and nature of our C additions did not mimic *in situ* variability. However, O₂ consumption rates suggested that our level of C addition was within the range encountered *in situ*.

Sediment O_2 consumption was significantly greater in microcosms with added C than in sediments that did not receive C additions, demonstrating that treatments were effective in increasing sediment organic C availability (Fig. 2). Increased O_2 consumption due to C additions at either temperature indicated that respiration rates were stimulated by organic C inputs, even at winter temperatures. Differences in O_2 consumption rates between sediments with and without C additions (i.e., $\sim 1 \, \mu \text{mol cm}^{-2} \, d^{-1}$) were about one-third the rate of C addition, suggesting an

equivalent fraction of the added C was rapidly mineralized. This enabled a detectable difference in sediment organic C in sediments that received C additions compared to those without added C (Fig. 3).

Warming also increased O₂ consumption, after accounting for differences due to C addition (Fig. 2). This suggests that eventually, given enough time, O₂ consumption rates would begin to decline in the 17°C microcosms, although we were not able to detect a statistically significant decline after 11 weeks of treatment. This lack of decline in warmed treatments without C additions indicates a relatively constant supply of native organic C fueling respiration. Regardless of the lack of a rate decline over time, greater O₂ consumption in 17°C treatments than in 4°C treatments indicate that more organic C was being consumed at the warmer temperature. This may have led to decreased labile C that was available for heterotrophic NO₃⁻¹ reduction during potential rate incubations at the end of the experiment, as has been observed previously in microcosm sediments in response to experimental warming (Alsterberg et al. 2011).

Nutrient fluxes in microcosms

Measuring net fluxes of inorganic N across the sediment-water interface allowed us to examine treatment effects on sediment N cycling throughout the experiment. It is noteworthy that there was a strong influx of NO₃⁻ into sediments at 4°C without C additions for the duration of the experiment (Fig. 4). This influx of NO₃⁻ with little to no associated NH₄⁺ or NO₂⁻ efflux indicated a net loss of N from the system. Potential rate measurements of anammox and denitrification suggested that this N loss could be largely attributed to denitrification, with anammox responsible for approximately 23.1%. This partitioning is slightly lower than that

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predicted assuming remineralization of organic C by denitrification with a C/N ratio of Redfield (6.6), producing NH₄⁺ and equivalent NO₂⁻ that was consumed by anammox (28%) (Trimmer and Engström 2011; Babbin et al. 2014). This comparison neither indicates nor refutes the presence of DNRA; although DNRA could affect the relative proportion of NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺ from remineralization available for denitrification and anammox, this effect may be countered by subsequent nitrification. Consistent NO₃ consumption in sediments at 4°C without C addition throughout the experiment suggests capacity for significant N loss during winter months, even in the absence of any new organic C inputs. This agrees with comparable N₂ fluxes during winter and other seasons at the site (Heiss et al. 2012). Warming and C addition individually decreased the net influx of NO₃ over the sedimentwater interface. However, the most striking result occurred under both warming and C addition, as there was complete reversal from net NO₃ consumption to production early on in the experiment, which was preceded by a transient pulse of NH₄⁺ production (Fig. 4). The delayed pulse of NH₄⁺ production in the 4°C+C treatment as compared to the 17°C+C treatment could indicate a temperature effect on the rate of heterotrophic response to organic C additions. Furthermore, no significant NH₄⁺ effluxes occurred after these pulses, indicating that from that point forward, NH₄⁺ produced in sediments was completely consumed by nitrification and possibly heterotrophic uptake. The result of reduced NO₃ consumption was at first puzzling, as we expected C addition at this level to stimulate denitrification and increase NO₃ consumption. However, the switch could have been due to increased remineralization of added organic C, releasing NH₄⁺, and subsequent nitrification of this NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻, without any change in N loss. Based on Redfield

conversion of O₂ consumption rates, nitrification in 4°C treatments was comparable to net NO₃

influx, thereby making the estimate of N loss about double that of measured NO_3^- influx (Table
2). In contrast, in the 17°C+C treatments, in which increased O ₂ consumption indicated increased
nitrification, nitrification supplied the majority of the NO ₃ used to support sediment NO ₃
reduction processes (Table 2). These calculations suggest that in situ denitrification rates did not
change across experimental treatments, despite increases in nitrification by both warming and C
addition, with the net effect of positive N efflux from 17°C+C microcosm sediments. Although
this mass balance can be explained solely in terms of nitrification and denitrification, it is still
counter-intuitive that denitrification was not stimulated by C addition. A possible further
explanation is provided by invoking results from potential rate experiments, which indicated that
DNRA rates were increased with warming and C addition, but denitrification rates were not. This
may have led to a disproportionate increase in internal N recycling over N removal in sediments
that received C additions, i.e., DNRA was stimulated when denitrification was not.
Our stiochiometric calculations should be viewed with caution in light of our simplifying
assumptions, i.e. (1) that the remineralized organic C had a constant Redfield C:N ratio, an
assumption supported by past research (e.g., Burdige 1991), (2) that all of the $\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ released
through heterotrophic respiration was completely nitrified, an assumption supported by the very

assumptions, i.e. (1) that the remineralized organic C had a constant Redfield C:N ratio, an assumption supported by past research (e.g., Burdige 1991), (2) that all of the NH_4^+ released through heterotrophic respiration was completely nitrified, an assumption supported by the very little overall NH_4^+ release from the sediments, and (3) that all heterotrophic respiration was accounted for by O_2 consumption. However, heterotrophic denitrification is not balanced by reoxidation of end products with O_2 (Canfield et al. 1993), and so NH_4^+ released through this pathway would not be included in the calculation, causing nitrification to be underestimated. Additionally, if there were a NH_4^+ sink other than nitrification, such as microbial assimilation, the ratio of O_2 consumption to NO_3^- production would be higher than the assumed 138:16, and our calculated nitrification and denitrification rates would be overestimates.

Relatively few studies have examined the effects of experimental warming and organic C
addition on DIN fluxes from coastal sediments, and those that do exist have found different
results from our study. Warming or organic C addition increased remineralization but usually
with a stimulation of denitrification as well (Caffrey et al. 1993; Fitch and Crowe 2011;
Alsterberg et al. 2012), which we did not observe. A potential explanation for the difference is
the presence of DNRA and cycling of N between DNRA and nitrification in our experimental
sediments (Burgin and Hamilton 2007). This link has been quantified in a moist tropical forest
soil, in which DNRA accounted for about 35% of NO ₃ production by nitrification (Templer et
al. 2008), and a positive relationship between DNRA and nitrification was predicted in a
modeling study of a coastal freshwater sediment (Canavan et al. 2007). Several other studies of
estuarine or marine sediments have noted links between DNRA and nitrification, in terms of
DNRA outcompeting denitrification as a sink for NO ₃ produced by nitrification (Tobias et al.
2001), <i>in situ</i> nitrification providing ¹⁴ NO ₃ ⁻ for DNRA in ¹⁵ NO ₃ ⁻ addition experiments (Gardner
and McCarthy 2009), and nitrification preventing NH ₄ ⁺ accumulation when DNRA rates were
high (Jäntti and Hietanen 2012). To our knowledge, however, this link has not been carefully
studied in aquatic sediments.

Denitrification, anammox and DNRA potential rates

Potential rate measurements in homogenized sediments are often criticized for generally overstimulating rates compared to *in situ*, although this is not always the case (Laverman et al. 2006; Behrendt et al. 2013). To assess this, we converted O₂ consumption- and NO₃ flux-based denitrification rates in Table 2 to volumetric rates assuming a depth interval of NO₃⁻ reduction of 0.2 cm, which was similar to the depth interval of O₂ penetration. The depth interval of NO₃⁻

reduction could theoretically vary with both temperature and C addition, but for simplicity, we used a constant 0.2 cm depth interval for all treatments. Converted rates of N loss from Table 2 ranged from 33 to 68 nmol N h⁻¹ ml⁻¹ sediment, which were similar to or somewhat higher than measured potential rates of denitrification (Fig. 5).

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Perhaps more concerning is the potential for slurry incubations to overstimulate specific NO₃ reduction processes compared to others, with denitrification being favored over anammox, or DNRA over denitrification (Revsbech et al. 2006; Trimmer et al. 2006; Behrendt et al. 2013). Explanations for this are not currently certain, but could relate to more denitrifiers or DNRA bacteria being exposed to favorable conditions in slurries. Overstimulation of denitrification relative to anammox is generally observed in shallower sediments (Trimmer and Engström 2011). Although we cannot completely rule out overstimulation of denitrification over anammox in our potential rate incubations, our anammox rates as a percent of denitrification were typical for shelf sediments measured by slurries or intact cores (Trimmer and Engstrom 2011). Slurry incubations have also been found to overstimulate DNRA relative to denitrification by disrupting natural gradients and increasing NO₃ availability for DNRA bacteria (Behrendt et al. 2013). DNRA bacteria may reside deeper than denitrifiers in intact sediments, and so have less access to NO₃ in sediments in which NO₃ is typically supplied by diffusion rather than advection. It is not known whether this overstimulation occurred in our experiment. However, taken together with DIN fluxes, potential rate measurements support the hypothesis that DNRA became a more important process in the microcosms due to warming and C additions.

DNRA is typically associated with sediments with high organic matter availability and O₂ consumption rates (MacFarlane and Herbert 1984; Tomaszek and Gruca-Rokosz 2007; Gardner and McCarthy 2009; Nizzoli et al. 2010). We also found a relationship between potential DNRA

rates and O₂ consumption in our experiment (Fig. 6). Furthermore, C addition increased the relative importance of DNRA versus denitrification in NO₃⁻ reduction. This agrees with theoretical considerations and chemostat experiments that indicate that DNRA is favored over denitrification in sediments with a greater relative supply of organic C compared to NO₃⁻ (Tiedje 1988; Kraft et al. 2014; Algar and Vallino 2014).

This link between C and DNRA could also occur via sulfur cycling. Addition of C could stimulate sulfate reduction and flux of hydrogen sulfide into the NO₃⁻ reducing layer. Sulfide has been shown to inhibit the last step in denitrification, while not adversely influencing DNRA, and the presence of DNRA has been positively correlated with the presence of sulfide in marine sediments (Brunet and Garcia-Gil 1996; An and Gardner 2002). However, there is also evidence that sulfide may favor denitrification over DNRA, depending on NO₃⁻ availability, or have no strong influence on the competition between the two processes (Dong et al. 2011; Kraft et al. 2014). Furthermore, nitrification is also inhibited by sulfide (Joye and Hollibaugh 1995), but our organic C addition increased, not decreased, nitrification rates based on stoichiometric calculations. This suggests that if sulfide production was stimulated, it was too low to have any negative influence on nitrification.

Stimulation of DNRA over denitrification due solely to the level of C added in our experiment would be surprising, as DNRA is generally favored in sediments with substantially higher O₂ consumption rates than we measured in our study (Christensen et al. 2000; Revsbech et al. 2006). Perhaps differences in the chemical composition of added compared to native C was a factor in the tradeoff between reduction of NO₃⁻ to NH₄⁺ or N₂ (Akunna et al. 1993; Bonin et al. 1999; Gardner and McCarthy 2009). Gardner and McCarthy (2009) found that DNRA was higher than expected based on O₂ consumption alone during a cyanobacterial depositional event

in shallow tropical sediments, suggesting that composition of organic C may have been a factor. In our experiment, the effects of warming on potential rates and O₂ consumption may similarly suggest the influence of chemical composition of organic C. Both denitrification and DNRA potentials decreased in 12-week warmed treatments relative to cool treatments measured at the same temperature (Fig. 5), with a more consistent result for denitrification than DNRA. We attribute this decrease to increased respiration and thus C depletion in warmed compared to winter 12-week temperature treatments, as reflected by O₂ consumption rates. C additions increased potential rates of DNRA, potentially by mitigating C limitation, but had no effect on denitrification. This may suggest that denitrifying bacteria in our experiment were better adapted to utilize native organic C compared to added organic C. In contrast, DNRA bacteria appeared to show a response to either type of C.

Conclusions

Effects of increasing coastal water temperatures on benthic N cycling processes may be mediated primarily by changes in sediment organic C availability. These effects are generally examined by correlation of rates with environmental factors that change *in situ* (Dalsgaard et al. 2005; Trimmer and Engström 2011), and few microcosm studies have examined the effects of warming in conjunction with other factors (Fitch and Crowe 2011; Alsterberg et al. 2012). By examining both warming and organic C addition in a mechanistic laboratory microcosm experiment, this study provided new insights about potential controls on relationships between NO₃⁻ reduction processes and shifts from N removal to recycling. We demonstrated that temperature and changes in organic C, alone or in concert, could affect NO₃⁻ reduction processes and the net balance of benthic N cycling. In particular, nutrient and O₂ fluxes indicated that

warming and C addition increased the relative importance of N recycling over removal. This
change was driven by increased $\mathrm{NH_4}^+$ production by remineralization, which increased
nitrification but not N loss, shifting net NO ₃ fluxes towards efflux over the sediment-water
interface. Potential rate measurements of microcosm sediments indicated significant capacity for
DNRA, which increased due to C addition and at the higher measurement temperature. Although
results from potential rate measurements must be viewed with caution, stimulation of DNRA but
not denitrification in microcosm sediments is consistent with a switch towards internal N
recycling and NO ₃ efflux. This suggests stimulation of N cycling between nitrification and
DNRA, a coupling that has not been well studied in aquatic sediments.

558	Figure legends
559	Note: All figures were created with R and outputted directly to PDF files.
560	Fig 1 Timeline of experimental treatments, and temperatures for each treatment. Dashed lines
561	indicate 4°C and 17°C. Dark lines indicate means of iButton measurements for each
562	temperature treatment, and light lines indicate minimum and maximum iButton
563	measurements, both of which deviated slightly from 4°C or 17°C. Arrows indicate dates of
564	Chlorella addition
565	Fig 2 O ₂ consumption rates, calculated from sediment microprofiles measured during the
566	experiment. Means \pm s.d. are plotted for each treatment (n =3). Temperature and C addition
567	are significant, but week is not, in a 2-way ANOVA analysis including weeks 5 and 11
568	Fig 3 Fluxes of (a) NO ₃ ⁻ , (b) NO ₂ ⁻ and (c) NH ₄ ⁺ across the sediment water interface in
569	microcosms exposed to warming and organic C addition. Means \pm s.d. are plotted for each
570	treatment ($n=3$). Negative fluxes indicate influx
571	Fig 4 Sediment organic C in microcosm sediments exposed to warming and organic C additions.
572	Means \pm s.d. are plotted for each treatment ($n=3$). Asterisks indicate significant differences as
573	assessed by 2-way ANOVA with temperature and C addition as factors (* p <0.05, ** p <0.01,
574	*** <i>p</i> <0.001)
575	Fig 5 Potential rates of (a) denitrification, (b) anammox and (c) DNRA in sediments from
576	microcosms harvested before initiation of treatments (t_0) and from all experimental
577	treatments at the end of the experiment. For each treatment, potential rates were measured at
578	4°C and at 17°C. Means \pm s.d. are plotted for each treatment (n =3). Asterisks indicate
579	significant differences as assessed by 2-way ANOVA analysis conducted for assays at each

580	measurement temperature, with 12-week temperature treatment and C addition treatment as
581	factors (*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001)
582	Fig 6 Relationship between sediment O ₂ consumption measured in week 11 and potential rates of
583	denitrification, anammox, and DNRA, measured at the same temperature as O2 consumption,
584	i.e., 12-week temperature treatment. Each symbol represents an individual microcosm.
585	Symbol shape indicates treatment: 4°C, diamonds; 4°C+C, circles; 17°C, squares; 17°C+C,
586	triangles. Symbol color indicates process: denitrification, black; anammox, gray; DNRA,
587	open symbols. Lines show linear regressions (denitrification, solid black line: r^2 =-0.01,
588	$p=0.381$; anammox, gray line: $r^2=0.04$, $p=0.25$; DNRA, dotted black line: $r^2=0.53$, $p=0.004$).
589	Note that only the regression line for DNRA is statistically significant, and that one data
590	point for 17°C+C DNRA (open triangle) is mostly obscured by a 17°C+C denitrification
591	point (black triangle)

592 <u>Tables</u>

Table 1 Total C:N ratio for all treatments, from measurements of total sediment C and N.

Treatment	C:N
t_0	7.3 ± 1.1
4°C	8.0 ± 0.3
$4^{\circ}C + C$	7.5 ± 0.3
17°C	7.9 ± 0.9
17°C + C	7.6 ± 0.2

Table 2 Nitrification and denitrification in sediment microcosms, calculated from measured NO₃⁻ flux and stoichiometric conversion of organic C remineralization based on measured O₂ consumption. Nitrification was calculated from O₂ consumption assuming that for every 138 mol of O₂ consumed, 16 mol of NO₃⁻ was produced. Denitrification was calculated as nitrification minus NO₃⁻ flux (negative values denote influx). Means \pm s.d. are shown for each treatment (n=3).

_	NO ₃ - flux	Diffusive O ₂ flux	Calculated remineralization	Calculated nitrification	Calculated N loss (denitrification)	
Treatment	(μmol N cm ⁻² d ⁻¹)	$(\mu \text{mol } O_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$	$(\mu \text{mol C cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1})$	(μmol N cm ⁻² d ⁻¹)	(μmol N cm ⁻² d ⁻¹)	
4°	-0.129 ± 0.059	1.016 ± 0.183	0.780 ± 0.141	0.118 ± 0.021	0.246 ± 0.079	
4° + C	0.001 ± 0.015	1.734 ± 0.226	1.332 ± 0.173	0.201 ± 0.026	0.200 ± 0.012	
17°	-0.032 ± 0.007	1.229 ± 0.156	0.944 ± 0.120	0.142 ± 0.018	0.175 ± 0.024	
17° + C	0.063 ± 0.016	2.198 ± 0.071	1.689 ± 0.055	0.255 ± 0.008	0.192 ± 0.009	

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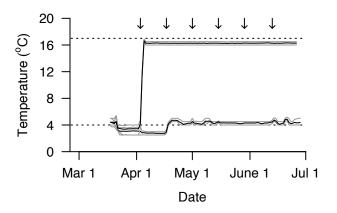


Figure 1

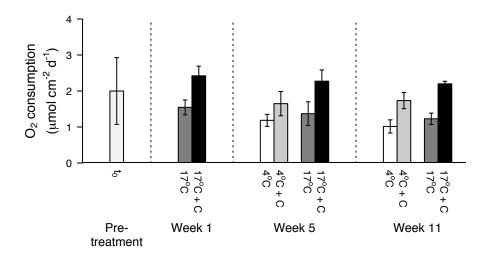


Figure 2

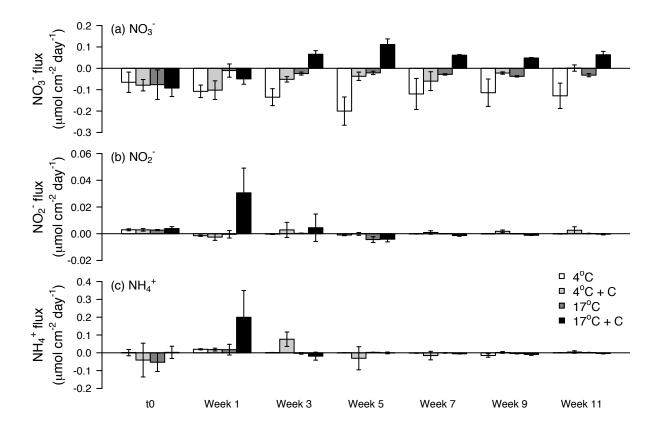


Figure 3

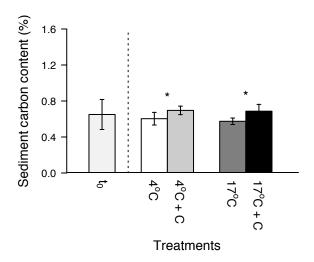


Figure 4

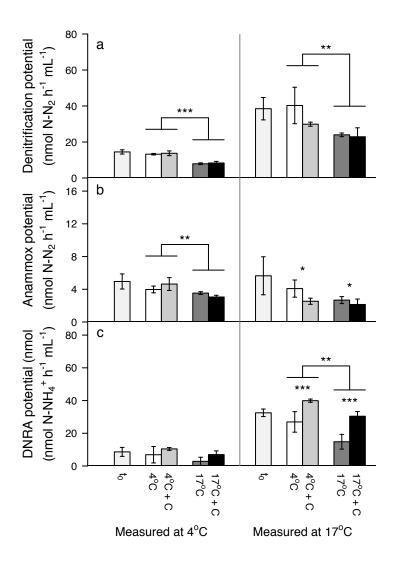


Figure 5

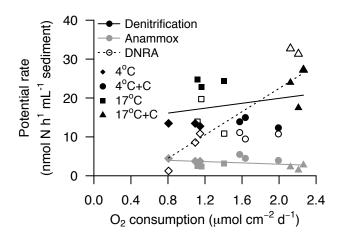


Figure 6