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Additional Information

Anthropogenic impact on nitrification dynamics in coastal waters of the Mediterranean Sea

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Abstract

The anthropogenic alteration of the nitrogen cycle results in the modification of the whole food web. And yet, the impact caused on nitrogen dynamics in marine systems is still very uncertain. We propose a workflow to evaluate changes to coastal nitrification by modelling nitrite dynamics, the intermediary compound. Nitrite concentrations were estimated with a simple steady state nitrification model, which was calibrated in 9 NW Mediterranean coastal sites with different anthropogenic pressures, located within 250km. The results obtained indicate that nitrite peaks are observed in winter and explained by nitrification response to temperature, but these dynamics are altered in impacted coastal waters. We found the second step of nitrification to be more sensitive to temperature, which entails a significant impact of climate change on the decoupling of the two steps of nitrification. The results could be extrapolated to numerous coastal regions of the Mediterranean Sea with similar characteristics.

Keywords

Nitrification dynamics, Coastal waters, Mediterranean Sea, Anthropogenic impact, Nitrogen cycle, Inorganic Nitrogen Speciation

1. Introduction

Rockström et al. (2009) established the alteration of the nitrogen (N) cycle as one of the three planetary processes, together with climate change and biodiversity loss, sufficiently

30 altered by human activity as to potentially have disastrous consequences for humans. Some
31 authors are concerned about nitrogen being “the next carbon” (Battye et al., 2017). Due to
32 their vulnerability to anthropogenically driven change, coastal zones have been highly
33 impacted (Arhonditsis et al., 2000; De Vittor et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2014). Population growth
34 and related nutrient sources such as agriculture, wastewater, urban runoff, and fossil fuels
35 have increased nutrient inputs to coastal waters to many times their natural levels (Bricker et
36 al., 2008). As such, many researchers have evidenced the impact that human activities have
37 caused to food webs or biogeochemical processes in many coastal systems (Borja et al., 2004;
38 Lundberg et al., 2005; Wang et al., 1999). In the Mediterranean Sea, direct wastewater
39 discharges account for a large amount of the total nitrogen input (Powley et al., 2016; Stamou
40 and Kamizoulis, 2008). Nearshore coastal waters (0-200 m) are particularly vulnerable and
41 need a special attention, as the nutrient gradient from land to ocean is considerably large in
42 the Mediterranean Sea (Flo et al., 2011).

43 Nitrification plays a crucial role in marine primary production (Yool et al., 2007) and in the N
44 cycle of coastal zones (Damashek et al., 2016; McLaughlin et al., 2017). This process alone does
45 not change the total amount of nitrogen in an ecosystem, but it affects its speciation and fate:
46 nitrate (the product of nitrification) serves as substrate for denitrification, which removes N
47 from the system via N₂ gas (Carini et al., 2010). Nitrification is generally described as a two-
48 step process occurring under aerobic conditions: oxidation of ammonium to nitrite and
49 oxidation of nitrite to nitrate (Kim, 2016). It links reduced and oxidized forms of nitrogen.
50 Although ammonium oxidation is considered the limiting step, both steps are expected to be
51 tightly coupled. However, evidence of decoupling in coastal waters was observed especially at
52 high temperatures (Beman et al., 2013; Heiss and Fulweiler, 2016), which leads to the
53 accumulation of nitrite. As an intermediary compound in many key biological processes, nitrite
54 dynamics have historically been used as an indicator of the balance between oxidative and
55 reductive pathways in marine systems (Lomas and Lipschultz, 2006). Nitrite production
56 processes in aerobic waters include the oxidation of ammonia and assimilatory nitrate
57 reduction by phytoplankton and heterotrophic bacteria, while removal pathways for nitrite
58 include oxidation by nitrite-oxidizing bacteria and phytoplankton uptake (Schaefer and
59 Hollibaugh, 2017).

60 Increasing evidence indicates that many environmental factors such as pH, temperature or
61 oxygen concentration affect nitrification processes (Damashek et al., 2016; Schaefer and
62 Hollibaugh, 2017). However, when it comes to how humans alter inorganic nitrogen
63 transformations in marine environments research is still very scarce. Kim (2016) summarized

64 how climate change will alter marine N cycle and indicated the need for further research on
65 marine inorganic N transformations, while McLaughlin et al (2017) and Bartl et al. (2018)
66 studied the alteration of nitrification caused by wastewater discharges and pointed out the
67 need for further research on anthropogenic nutrient effect on coastal biogeochemistry. Ocean
68 acidification results in reduced nitrification rates (Beman et al., 2010; Huesemann et al., 2002;
69 Kitidis et al., 2011) while other anthropogenic pressures such as N deposition (Kim, 2016) or
70 wastewater effluents might increase nitrification (McLaughlin et al., 2017). Clearly, the overall
71 anthropogenic effect on nitrification in coastal systems needs to be evaluated further. In the
72 Mediterranean Sea, the urbanization on the littoral zone has severely impacted the natural
73 balance of ecosystems (Lejeusne et al., 2010). Nitrification dynamics are altered in those areas
74 with high anthropogenic pressure, leading to a change in nitrogen cycling along the year
75 (Ordines et al., 2015). The modification of such an important process in the N cycle may have
76 consequences on phytoplankton abundance and diversity, with cascading effects on other
77 organisms. The importance of nitrification in the N biogeochemistry in coastal waters has
78 already been proved by many authors (Damashek et al., 2016; Heiss and Fulweiler, 2016;
79 Huesemann et al., 2002), but the mechanisms by which anthropogenic activity alters
80 nitrification in coastal waters need to be studied in more detail.

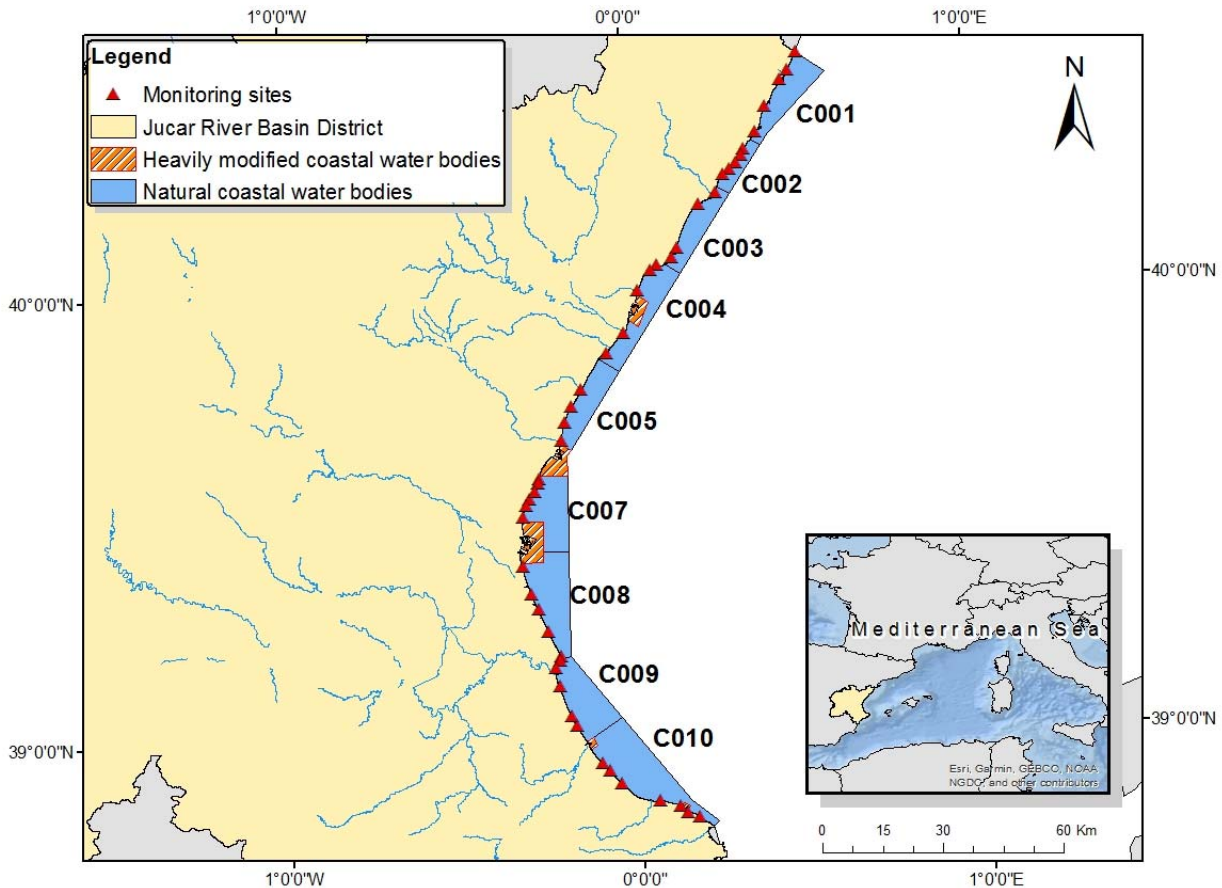
81 The aim of this study was to propose a simple workflow for the evaluation of nitrification
82 alteration in coastal waters due to anthropogenic activity. Nitrite, as the intermediary
83 compound in the two steps of nitrification, was used to study nitrification. We modelled nitrite
84 dynamics in several coastal sites located within approximately 250 km of coast. All modelled
85 water bodies have similar characteristics but different anthropogenic pressures, so that
86 nitrification parameters could be related to anthropogenic pressure. This methodology is
87 applicable to other coastal areas of the Mediterranean Sea, where nitrification is the main
88 driver of nitrite dynamics (Bianchi et al., 1994).

89 **2. Materials and methods**

90 *2.1. Study area and analytical methods*

91 The Jucar River Basin District (JRBD) lies in the Mediterranean coast of Spain, covering
92 42,735 km² with 574 km of coastline. The management plan defines 16 natural coastal water
93 bodies. In this study we focused on 9 of them, which belong to the typology II-A (moderately
94 influenced by freshwater inputs with salinity between 34.5 and 37.5 g Kg⁻¹). These water
95 bodies (presented in Figure 1) have similar geomorphology, littoral transport, dominant winds,
96 rainfall, area of fluvial basins, continental inputs and wet zones. C002 is the reference site for

97 typology II-A with no relevant anthropogenic influence, as determined by Romero et al. (2013)
 98 and Pachés et al. (2012) who evaluated pressures and impacts according to annex V of the
 99 Water Framework Directive (WFD). Some coastal waters in the JRBD are considered under the
 100 WFD as heavily modified due to the presence of a harbor (Figure 1); these water bodies were
 101 not included in our study.



103 **Figure 1.** Jucar River Basin District: natural coastal water bodies of typology II-A, heavily
 104 modified coastal water bodies (“which as a result of physical alterations by human activity is
 105 substantially changes in character” (European Commission, 2000)) and monitoring sites.

106 Hermosilla Gómez (2009) studied the influence of the sampling locations in the evaluation
 107 of the anthropogenic pressures and the ecological status of the coasts of Valencia. By means of
 108 statistical analysis, she determined that sampling sites should be located inshore (over the
 109 coast) and at the surface so that samples are taken from the area affected by anthropogenic
 110 eutrophication. Besides, the data and methods developed in Spain for the intercalibration
 111 exercise of the Mediterranean intercalibration group (MedGIG) within the WFD are most
 112 based on inshore sampling stations (MedGIG, 2009). Thus, in order to compare the results
 113 obtained in this study with previous ecological evaluations in the water bodies considered,

114 inshore sampling was more convenient. 46 monitoring sites were distributed all along the
115 coast, with 4 to 7 stations in each water body. Each month from August 2008 until January
116 2011, water samples were taken from beyond the wave breakpoint at a 10 cm depth.
117 Temperature was measured in situ with a multiparametric probe YSI (6600 V2).

118 Water samples were collected in plastic bottles, refrigerated, and carried to the laboratory
119 within 12 hours. A Portasal 8410A salinometer was calibrated to determine salinity (I.A.P.S.O.
120 Standard Seawater, Ocean Scientific International Ltd., $K_{15} = 0.99986$, $S = 34.995\%$). Samples
121 were divided into several sets following the conservation procedures suggested by APHA
122 (2005) and filtered through 0.45 μm cellulose acetate membrane filters (Millipore HAWP).
123 These membranes are stored at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in order to break the cells for chlorophyll-a analysis.

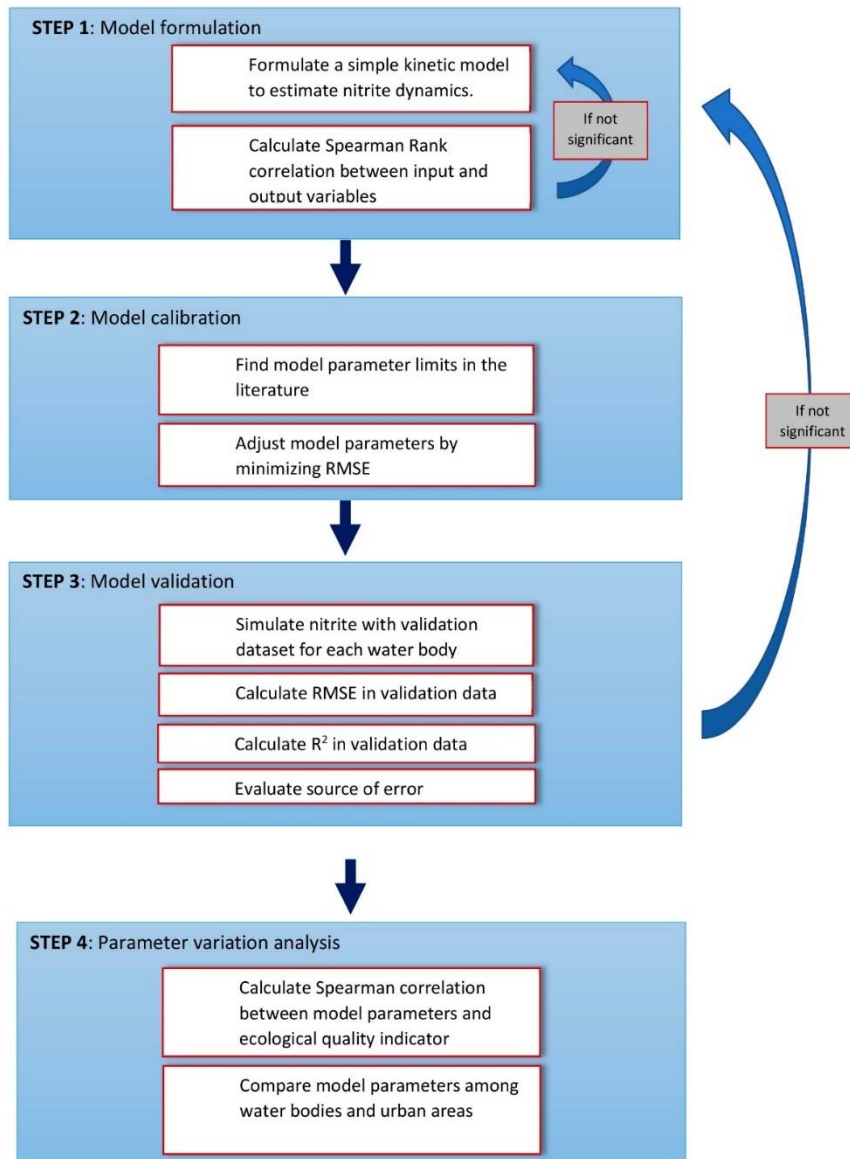
124 For the determination of chlorophyll-a, the trichromatic method was used, based on visible
125 spectroscopy (APHA, 2005). The filters are introduced in 6 ml of 90% acetone in water with 1%
126 calcium carbonate. The optical density of the extract was determined at different wavelengths
127 (630, 647 and 664 nm) to determine the pigment content, and at 750 nm to determine the
128 optical density not due to chlorophyll-a. The equations proposed by Jeffrey and Humphrey
129 (1975) were used for concentration calculations. The detection limit was 0.2 $\text{mgC}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ of
130 chlorophyll-a.

131 Nutrients (ammonium, nitrite and nitrate) were analyzed with an Alliance Instruments
132 Integral Futura air-segmented continuous-flow autoanalyzer, following the procedure
133 described by Treguer and Le Corre (1975) and taking into account the remarks made by
134 Kirkwood et al. (1991) and Parsons et al. (1984). The equipment optimization is carried out
135 following Coakley (1981) theories. Ammonium and nitrite were analyzed with the filtered
136 samples, right after filtration, while the samples kept for nitrate determination were frozen for
137 a later analysis. Ammonium was measured based on Berthelot's reaction. Under alkaline
138 conditions, ammonium reacts with the hypochlorite forming a monochloramine. This
139 compound, in the presence of phenol and an excess of hypochlorite, forms indophenol blue.
140 The nitroprusside ion catalyzes the reaction and trisodium citrate eliminates the interference
141 of Ca and Mg (Solórzano, 1969). Nitrite concentrations were determined with Shinn (1941)
142 water analysis method, adapted for seawater by Bendschneider and Robinson (1952). This
143 method is based on the reaction of nitrite ion with sulfanilamide in acidic conditions,
144 producing a diazo compound that forms a pink complex with N-naphthylethylene diamine. For
145 the determination of nitrate concentrations, this compound is reduced to nitrite by means of a
146 Cu/Cd reducing column in basic conditions ($\text{pH} = 8.5$), following the method described by
147 (Grasshoff, 1976). Subsequently, nitrite is analyzed by the procedure described above. High

148 purity Merck reagents for analysis and ultra-pure water (Milli-Q 185) were used. The detection
149 limits were 1.4×10^{-3} mgN.L⁻¹ for ammonium and nitrate and 1.4×10^{-4} mgN.L⁻¹ for nitrite.

150 2.2. Workflow

151 The proposed workflow is schematized in Figure 2 and explained in detail in next sections.



152

153 **Figure 2.** Descriptive diagram of the research workflow

154 2.2.1. Model formulation

155 The equation solved is based on the principle of the conservation of mass. The main
156 processes driving nitrite dynamics were studied from the literature and used for the
157 development of the model, neglecting the less relevant processes. We applied a mass balance
158 in zero dimensions in each water body which was considered as a control volume. As samples

159 were taken at the surface, we considered appropriate to neglect the effect of the sediment.
160 Simple and well-known principles can be used to build simple models which can give an overall
161 understanding of nitrogen processes. When a basic understanding of the system is aimed and
162 the requirement to the precision of estimated values is low, simple models perform better
163 (Højberg et al., 2007). Complex models require large amounts of data and such a model would
164 not add value to our research purpose.

165 Nitrite production pathways in coastal waters include ammonia oxidation and assimilatory
166 nitrate reduction by phytoplankton and heterotrophic bacteria, while removal pathways for
167 nitrite include nitrite oxidation and phytoplankton uptake (Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017).
168 Ammonium is the preferred form of nitrogen for phytoplankton uptake (Chau and Jin, 1998;
169 Zouiten et al., 2013), so we considered direct nitrite uptake to be negligible. Additionally, the
170 study area is characterized by low phytoplankton concentrations in natural conditions (Pachés
171 et al., 2012). Thus, nitrite release by phytoplankton was also neglected. An analysis of the
172 relationship between the model error and phytoplankton concentrations was carried out to
173 confirm this assumption (see section 2.2.2). Bianchi et al. (1994) also determined that nitrite
174 concentrations in the NW Mediterranean Sea are regulated by the two steps of nitrification.
175 Therefore, we considered only nitrification processes to estimate nitrite: formed with
176 ammonium oxidation (nitrification first step) and eliminated by nitrite oxidation (nitrification
177 second step). Studies carried out in other coastal areas also pointed out the significant role of
178 nitrification (Damashek et al., 2016; Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017).

179 At low nitrogen concentrations as those found in natural systems, the process of nitrification
180 is generally represented by a first order kinetic reaction (Bowie et al., 1985). Previous studies
181 typically considered only the temperature effect on nitrification. Some authors also introduced
182 the effect of dissolved oxygen as a limiting factor (Chau and Jin, 1998; Umgiesser et al., 2003;
183 Zouiten et al., 2013). Nonetheless, the samples used in this study, which were taken at the sea
184 surface, had all high oxygen concentrations (averaged $8.3 \pm 1.4 \text{ mgO.L}^{-1}$ measured during
185 campaigns). Consequently, we did not add oxygen limitation to our model. pH, which also
186 affects nitrification rates (Park et al., 2007), was measured during the campaigns and variations
187 were not relevant (averaged 8.14 ± 0.13).

188 Flo et al. (2011) showed that continental influence is the main driver of nutrient variability
189 within 200m of coast in the NW Mediterranean Sea. The water bodies considered in this study
190 have a length of >13km along the coast, and samples were taken at less than 50m from the
191 coastline. As such, the continental influence on nutrient concentrations is much larger than the

192 effect of the dispersion along the coast. Additionally, as the two steps of nitrification are tightly
 193 coupled (Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017), nitrite is oxidized to nitrate almost as fast as it is
 194 created (see Table 1), whereas longitudinal mixing along >13km is expected to be a much
 195 slower process (Stamou and Kamizoulis, 2008). Therefore, we decided not to consider
 196 dispersion with adjacent water bodies to simplify our model.

197 The main nitrogen sources to the JRBD coastal waters are agriculture and urban population
 198 (Romero et al., 2013), which means that most of the nitrogen inputs are in the form of
 199 ammonium or nitrate. Hence, we considered no relevant direct nitrite inputs. An analysis of
 200 the relationship between the model error and salinity was carried out to confirm this
 201 assumption (see section 2.2.2).

202 Equation 1 represents nitrite mass balance under these assumptions.

$$203 \quad \frac{\partial [NO_2^-]}{\partial t} = k_1 \theta_1^{T-20} [NH_4^+] - k_2 \theta_2^{T-20} [NO_2^-] \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

204 Where, $[NO_2^-]$ is nitrite concentration (mgN.L⁻¹), $[NH_4^+]$ is ammonium concentration (mgN.L⁻¹),
 205 t is time (day), k_1 is ammonium oxidation rate at 20°C (day⁻¹), θ_1 is temperature coefficient
 206 for ammonium oxidation, k_2 is nitrite oxidation rate at 20°C (day⁻¹), θ_2 is temperature
 207 coefficient for nitrite oxidation, T is temperature (°C).

208 The steady state approach is very frequently used in water quality modelling (Chapra, 1997;
 209 Wang et al., 2013). This approach enables the calculation of the nitrite concentration each
 210 month, if the conditions found at the time of the sampling were maintained. Under this
 211 assumption the accumulation term was set to zero. Nitrite concentrations can be estimated
 212 with the following equation, derived from Equation 1:

$$213 \quad [NO_2^-] = \left(\frac{k_1}{k_2}\right) \left(\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2}\right)^{T-20} [NH_4^+] \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

214 K_1 and K_2 depend mathematically on each other (see K_1 and K_2 depend mathematically on each
 215 other (see Equation 2), making the separate calibration of both parameters unfeasible. The
 216 same applied to θ_1 and θ_2 . We defined K and Θ as new parameters equivalent to the ratios
 217 k_1/k_2 and θ_1/θ_2 respectively:

$$218 \quad [NO_2^-] = K \cdot \theta^{T-20} [NH_4^+] \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

219 Thus, K represents the ratio of ammonium oxidation to nitrite oxidation, while Θ represents
 220 the ratio of ammonium to nitrite oxidation sensitivity to temperature.

221 Output sensitivity to input variables can be estimated with Spearman rank correlation
 222 coefficient in nonlinear but monotonic relationships (Pianosi et al., 2016). As such, the
 223 Spearman correlation coefficient was calculated between selected input (temperature and
 224 ammonium) and output variables to determine the relative importance in nitrite estimation.
 225 The calculation of this correlation confirms whether the selected input variables are relevant
 226 for the estimation of nitrite concentrations, or else the simplified model needs to be re-
 227 evaluated.

228 *2.2.2. Model calibration and validation*

229 We carried out a literature review to set parameter limits. The values found are presented
 230 in Table 1.

231 **Table 1**
 232 Bibliographical parameter values

Parameter	Range	Unit
K_1	0.05- 0.5	d^{-1}
K_2	0.5 - 10	d^{-1}
Θ_1	1.02 - 1.12	-
Θ_2	1.02 - 1.12	-

233 References: (Bowie et al., 1985; Chau and Jin, 1998; Myszograj, 2015; Zouiten et al., 2013)

234 Mean monthly values for all variables were calculated for each water body from August 2008
 235 to January 2011. The dataset was divided in two sub-datasets; one was used as calibration
 236 data and the second as validation data. Odd monthly observations (1,3,4...,29) of input and
 237 output variables were used for calibration whereas even observations (2,4,6...,30) were left
 238 for validation (see Figure 2). The parameters K and Θ were optimized to reproduce nitrite
 239 observed concentrations by minimizing the rooted mean squared error (RMSE) in calibration
 240 data. Then, the model was run with the validation dataset and nitrite estimations were
 241 compared to observations. The RMSE and the coefficient of determination (R^2) were calculated
 242 to estimate the goodness of fit.

243 Two of the neglected processes during the model formulation may be the main source of
 244 error to our model: phytoplankton release and continental inputs. To evaluate the source of
 245 error in the model, we calculated Spearman correlation between monthly error and
 246 phytoplankton and between monthly error and salinity in each water body.

247 *2.2.3. Parameter variation analysis*

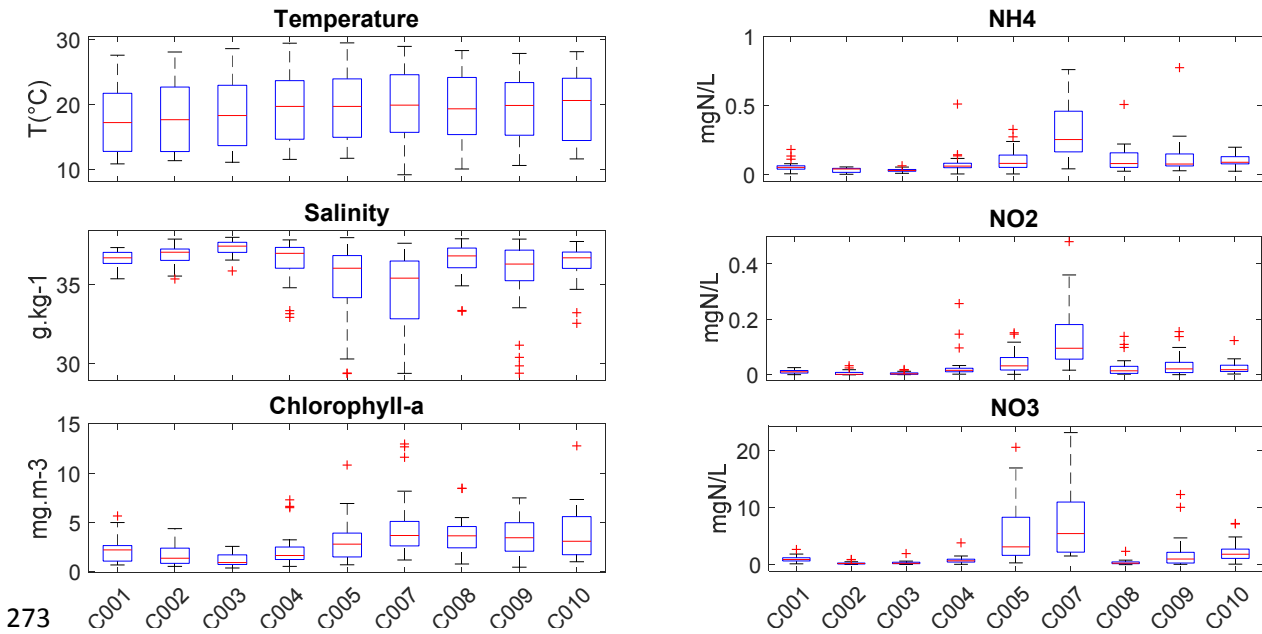
248 Once the model was validated, the relationship between model parameter differences
249 among water bodies and two physicochemical variables was evaluated to determine the
250 source of spatial changes in nitrification dynamics. pH and dissolved oxygen were very similar
251 in all water bodies as mentioned above and consequently not included in this evaluation. The
252 two physical variables analyzed were temperature and salinity. The Spearman correlation
253 coefficient between these two variables and calibrated model parameters was calculated to
254 determine whether they may influence the studied nitrification parameter values.

255 Phytoplankton biomass is established as an indicator of the ecological status of coastal
256 waters under the WFD. In the JRBD, Pachés et al. (2012) identified chlorophyll-a 50th percentile
257 to be the most appropriate statistical parameter to measure anthropogenic pressure, and
258 Romero et al. (2013) related phytoplankton to anthropogenic pressures such as population
259 density, agriculture and industry. As such, we used chlorophyll-a 50th percentile as an indicator
260 of the alteration provoked by human pressures. We calculated the Spearman correlation
261 coefficient between model parameters and chlorophyll-a 50th percentile to determine whether
262 anthropogenic pressures may have altered nitrification parameters.

263 **3. Results**

264 *3.1. Variable values*

265 Ammonium, nitrite and nitrate concentrations in each water body are presented in Figure 3, as
266 well as temperature, salinity and chlorophyll-a. The highest N concentrations were found in
267 C007, the water body located north of Valencia city. Chlorophyll-a was also high in C007; the
268 most polluted site of the JRBD (Pachés et al., 2012; Temino-Boes et al., 2018). C002, the
269 reference water body, had low N concentrations, together with C001 and C003. The lowest
270 salinities were found in C005 and C007, with some low salinity events in C009. The latest water
271 body corresponds to the discharge of the Jucar river. Temperature is slightly lower in sites C001
272 to C003.



273
 274 **Figure 3.** Boxplot of ammonium, nitrite and nitrate concentrations of all water bodies from
 275 August 2008 to January 2011. Each data point corresponds to the mean concentration of all
 276 monitoring sites of a water body for a given time. Some outliers were also observed in C007 in
 277 N concentrations which do not appear in the figure due to the limits of the y-axis.

278 **3.2. Model results**

279 Spearman correlation between model forcings (water temperature and ammonium) and
 280 output variable (nitrite concentration) was calculated to determine which variable had the
 281 highest influence on nitrite concentrations in each water body. We found a significant rank
 282 correlation between nitrite and temperature in all water bodies except C005 and C007 (Table
 283 2) which correspond to the sites with highest continental influence (see salinity in Figure 3). On
 284 the other hand, ammonium was significantly correlated to nitrite in all water bodies except
 285 C002 to C004. These sites correspond to the lowest observed inorganic nitrogen
 286 concentrations and chlorophyll-a (Figure 3).

287 **Table 2**

288 Spearman rank correlation between output variable (nitrite) and input variables
 289 (temperature and ammonium)

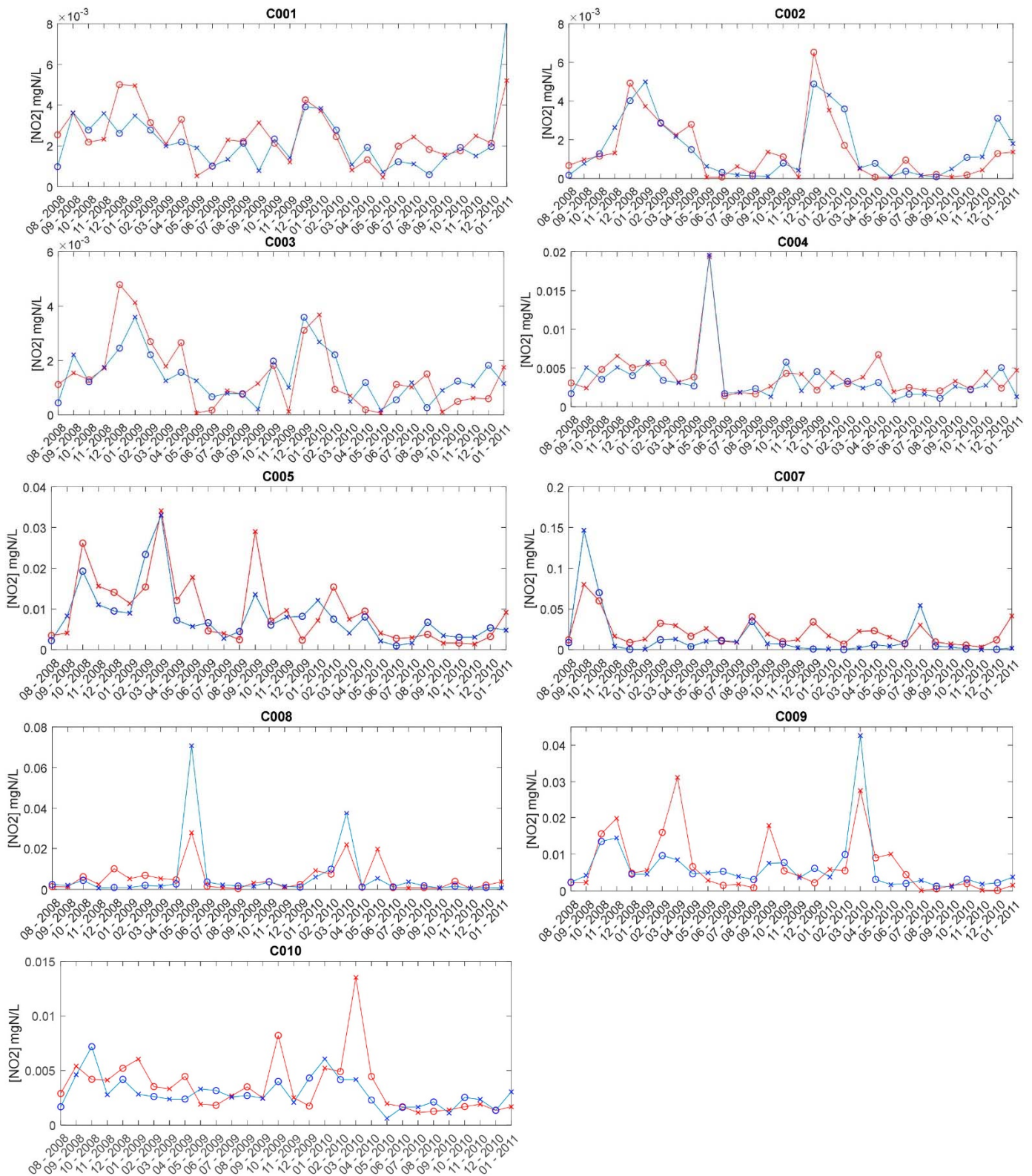
Water Body	T (°C)	NH ₄ (mgN.L ⁻¹)
C001	-0.38*	0.49*
C002	-0.67*	0.28
C003	-0.55*	0.30
C004	-0.61*	0.44

C005	-0.36	0.56*
C007	0.08	0.79*
C008	-0.60*	0.85*
C009	-0.44*	0.57*
C010	-0.37*	0.52*

290 * Significant correlations at the 95% confidence level (p-value < 0.05)

291 We calibrated and validated the model for each water body, and the obtained results are
 292 presented in Figure 4. The parameters K and Θ obtained for each water body are shown in
 293 Table 3. We calculated the RMSE and R^2 in validation data (Table 3). Ammonium oxidation rate
 294 is often estimated as an order of magnitude lower than nitrite oxidation for surface water
 295 quality modelling as shown in Table 1. This observation agrees with our findings which
 296 established a K mean value of 0.17 (Table 3).

297 In most water bodies Θ was below 1, which indicates that nitrite oxidation is more sensitive
 298 to temperature changes than ammonium. Under this circumstance, nitrite peaks are observed
 299 in low temperature periods (December and January). The sites with the lowest anthropogenic
 300 pressures (C002 and C003) show clear nitrite peaks in the mentioned period. Only two water
 301 bodies (C007 and C008) presented a Θ higher than 1.



303 **Figure 4.** Mean nitrite measured (red line) and estimated (blue line) concentrations in all water

304 bodies from August 2008 to January 2011.

305 **Table 3**
 306 Calibrated parameters (K and Θ) for each water body, root mean squared error (RMSE) and
 307 coefficient of determination (R^2) between measured and estimated nitrite concentration in
 308 validation data

Water body	K	Θ	RMSE (mgN.L ⁻¹)	R ²
C001	0.15	0.94	1.33E-03	0.55*
C002	0.08	0.80	7.10E-04	0.84*
C003	0.13	0.91	6.75E-04	0.71*
C004	0.20	0.98	1.49E-03	0.95*
C005	0.33	0.92	5.97E-03	0.70*
C007	0.09	1.27	2.46E-02	0.74*
C008	0.11	1.10	1.30E-02	0.72*
C009	0.25	0.97	8.37E-03	0.46*
C010	0.19	0.97	2.61E-03	0.31*

309 * Significant correlations at the 95% confidence level (p-value < 0.05)

310 No significant correlation was found in any water body between monthly error and
 311 chlorophyll-a (as a measure of phytoplankton), while the correlation with salinity was
 312 significant in water bodies C005 and C010 (Table 4). When salinity was low, the model error
 313 was higher due to continental nitrite inputs which were not considered in the model.

314 **Table 4**
 315 Spearman rank correlation between error with chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) and salinity (S)

Water Body	S	Chl-a
C001	-0.27	-0.06
C002	-0.26	-0.11
C003	0.15	0.01
C004	0.34	0.29
C005	0.52*	-0.16
C007	0.34	0.26
C008	0.03	-0.09
C009	0.48*	-0.22
C010	0.33	-0.05

316 * Significant correlations at the 95% confidence level (p-value < 0.05)

317 *3.3. Analysis of spatial parameter variations*

318 Spearman rank correlations between salinity, temperature and chlorophyll-a with model
 319 parameters and RMSE are calculated in Table 5. Both Θ and the RMSE have a high rank
 320 correlation with chlorophyll-a 50th percentile, an indicator of the ecological status of coastal
 321 waters. Additionally, salinity is related to the RMSE.

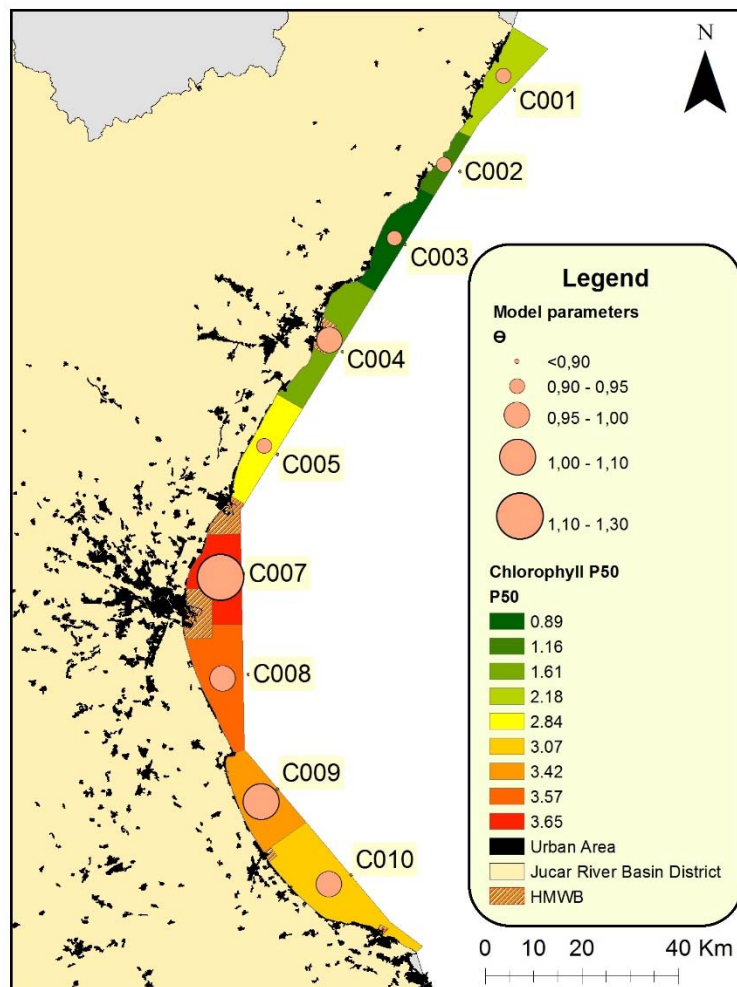
322 **Table 5**

323 Spearman Rank Correlation of model parameters and root mean squared error (RMSE) with
 324 mean salinity, mean temperature and chlorophyll-a 50th percentile.

	Salinity (g.kg ⁻¹)	Temperature (°C)	P50 Chlorophyll-a
K	-0.41	0.45	0.02
Θ	-0.42	0.50	0.80*
RMSE	-0.73*	0.42	0.97*

325 Note: Significant correlations at the 95% confidence level (p-value < 0.05) are marked with an
 326 asterisk

327 Figure 5 shows how the parameter Θ , which represents the difference in temperature
 328 influence between ammonium and nitrite oxidation, is influenced by anthropogenic activity.
 329 Closer to big urban areas, like the city of Valencia in C007, Θ increases, while it decreases in
 330 C002 or C003 where the population is smaller. On the contrary, K does not have an
 331 anthropogenic influence (*Table 5*).



332

333 **Figure 5.** Model parameter Θ for each water body, 50th percentile of chlorophyll-a, population
 334 and Heavily modified water bodies (HMWB) due to the presence of a harbour.

335 **4. Discussion**

336 The natural annual cycle of nitrite showed peaks in cold months (December and January), as
 337 found in the reference water body C002 (Figure 4). However, this cycle was highly perturbed in
 338 anthropogenically altered coastal zones, with peaks occurring both in cold and warm seasons
 339 driven by ammonium concentrations. Our results demonstrate that the two steps of
 340 nitrification are decoupled in coastal waters, agreeing with late findings (Heiss and Fulweiler,
 341 2016; Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017). Different speeds in the two steps of nitrification were
 342 also observed in the Jucar estuary (Romero et al., 2007). In our model, peaks occur due to the
 343 different response to temperature in ammonium and nitrite oxidation (parameter Θ). Many
 344 previous studies found high nitrite concentrations at warmer seasons (Bristow et al., 2015;

345 Heiss and Fulweiler, 2016; Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017) while others (such as this study)
346 observed nitrite peaks at low temperatures (Pitcher et al., 2011).

347 The changes observed in nitrite dynamics among water bodies indicate a shift in nitrification
348 temperature dependence parameter Θ due to anthropogenic activity (Figure 5). Nitrification
349 requires the mediation of a vast diversity of microorganisms, which makes it an essential
350 process for marine life. Pachés et al. (2012) proved how anthropogenic activity is changing
351 microorganism composition in coastal waters of the JRBD, which may explain the spatial
352 differences found in ammonium and nitrite oxidation temperature parameters. Although no
353 previous study considered this dependence in coastal waters, studies carried out in
354 wastewater determined the dependence of nitrification temperature coefficient on
355 microorganism composition and abundance (Myszograj, 2015). In addition, wastewater
356 effluents alter the biogeochemical cycling and phytoplankton composition (Howard et al.,
357 2017) which may have caused shifts in nitrification temperature dependence. Future research
358 is required to describe the processes driving nitrification dependency on temperature.
359 Previous studies identified a dependence of nitrification rates on salinity (Bernhard et al.,
360 2007; Heiss and Fulweiler, 2016), and low salinity events with elevated concentrations of
361 certain ammonium oxidizing archaea (Schaefer and Hollibaugh, 2017). Bernhard et al. (2005)
362 indicated that the abundance and diversity of ammonium oxidizing bacteria is highly controlled
363 by salinity, and Heiss and Fulweiler (2016) found lower nitrite oxidation rates with higher
364 salinity events. Bianchi et al. (1999) linked high ammonium oxidizing rates with low salinity
365 events in the NW Mediterranean Sea.

366 We found temperature to be an important driver of ammonium and nitrite oxidation
367 decoupling under natural conditions, which entails climate change could have a great impact in
368 this process. In the reference water body C002, which represents unaltered nutrient
369 concentrations, the value of Θ was lower than 1. This result indicates that under pristine
370 conditions the second step of nitrification (nitrite oxidation) is more sensitive to temperature
371 than the first step. Climate change will therefore have a greater impact in this second step. In
372 addition, some studies forecast an important precipitation loss in the Jucar area (Chirivella et
373 al., 2016; Miró et al., 2018) which would considerably reduce the riverine inputs of ammonium
374 and other forms of nitrogen. The decrease in ammonium concentrations would have a direct
375 effect on the rate of nitrification. Therefore, it may be expected to have lower nitrite
376 concentrations due to reduced nitrification rates and a shift in nitrite peaks due to higher
377 temperatures. Further research is needed to evaluate how the combined effect of nitrogen
378 pollution and climate change will modify the nitrification process in coastal waters.

379 The model performed well in general. However, there was a wide variation among sites in
380 the accuracy of the model. The coefficient of determination R^2 is lower in C001, C009 and C010
381 (Table 3). As the number of stressors increases, the functioning of the ecosystem is altered,
382 and the estimation of nutrient concentrations is hindered (O'Meara et al., 2017). High nitrite
383 events no longer occur due to natural conditions but rather to an unusual increase in human
384 inputs. Continental inputs are the main source of error to sites C005 and C009 as shown by the
385 Spearman correlations between error and salinity (see Table 4). Those water bodies have
386 higher continental influence as indicated by the low salinities. The Jucar river discharges in
387 C009, which is most probably the source of nitrite during the peaks not reproduced by the
388 model. High nitrite concentrations in C010 also correspond to low salinity event indicating an
389 external source of nitrite not simulated in our model. Although nitrite concentrations in C001
390 did not have a significant correlation with salinity, this water body is located close to the Ebro
391 delta, which may influence nitrification dynamics in this water body. On the other hand,
392 phytoplankton does not have a significant correlation with the error (Table 4) which indicates
393 that neglecting phytoplankton uptake and release is not an important source of error to the
394 model.

395 The proposed workflow is applicable to other coastal areas with samples taken at the surface
396 to avoid the effect of dissolved oxygen limitation. pH variations along the year in the
397 Mediterranean Sea are usually less than ± 0.1 pH units (Flecha et al., 2015), and therefore pH is
398 not expected to be one of the main drivers of nitrification. The effect of phytoplankton and
399 external inputs are the most important processes to be considered before applying the model
400 to other coastal areas. In the Mediterranean Sea, marine waters are often oligotrophic
401 (Vollenweider et al., 1996) and phytoplankton release of nitrite is presumably negligible in
402 most areas. The nitrification kinetic model proposed could be extended to add other processes
403 in the application to other study sites. However, the steps proposed in the workflow of Figure
404 2 can be followed for the study of any areas if the model is adapted. Future studies are needed
405 to evaluate the mechanisms by which nitrification dynamics are altered by human activity and
406 which are its most relevant consequences.

407 **5. Conclusions**

408 Our results show how nitrification dynamics are perturbed in highly populated coastal zones.
409 Under natural conditions nitrite peaks are observed in winter due to low temperatures, but
410 this tendency is completely altered in anthropogenically impacted water bodies. The change
411 observed in the sensitivity to temperature of the two steps of nitrification was highly

412 correlated to chlorophyll-a 50th percentile, a measure of the ecological status (Spearman
413 correlation $r=0.80$). Temperature was the main driver of monthly variation in natural
414 conditions, which indicates a potential effect of climate change on nitrification dynamics.
415 Nitrification is a fundamental process of nitrogen biogeochemistry. As a key nutrient, the
416 alteration of the nitrogen cycle may result in the change of the whole food web in marine
417 ecosystems. Further research concerning the human driven changes of the nitrogen cycle in
418 marine environments is essential to enable experts to propose recovery measures and avoid
419 reaching a point of no return.

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