Seasonal variability in ecosystem functions: quantifying the contribution of invasive species to nutrient cycling in coastal ecosystems

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ABSTRACT: Benthic ecosystems at temperate and high latitudes experience marked seasonal variation in the environmental factors affecting nutrient remineralization processes both directly and indirectly through their effects on the benthic communities. The invasive polychaete genus Marenzelleria represents new functionality in Baltic Sea sediments through its deep burrowing and extensive gallery formation, thus possibly greatly affecting benthic oxygen and nutrient fluxes. We assessed the seasonal contribution of Marenzelleria spp. to fluxes of solutes in monthly field measurements at 2 sites, 10 and 33 m deep, in the northern Baltic Proper over 1 yr. In general, the fluxes of inorganic nutrients and oxygen were higher during summer than during winter, and the seasonal variation was more pronounced at the deeper, more biologically active site. By using variation partitioning, we were able to demonstrate that Marenzelleria and other macrofauna could account for up to 92% of the variation in the fluxes depending on the site and season. Fauna was the most important in predicting the fluxes in spring when the sediment organic content and the abundance of juvenile Marenzelleria spp. were highest, while during e.g. winter, the influence of Marenzelleria spp., even though abundant, on solute fluxes was negligible. The results from this study have implications for management, and, importantly, for the modelling of nutrient budgets often based on values from studies conducted during the summer period only, thus possibly greatly miscalculating the annual nutrient fluxes.

KEY WORDS: Nutrient cycling · Spionid polychaete · Invasion · Key species · Benthic–pelagic coupling · Bioturbation · Seasonality · Marenzelleria

INTRODUCTION

Coastal ecosystems are often diverse, highly productive and intrinsically variable in time and space. In these ecosystems, soft sediments and their associated biota provide a multitude of functions such as nutrient cycling, physical structuring and both primary and secondary production, which constitute important ecosystem services (Snelgrove et al. 2014). Through their sediment reworking and burrow ventilation activities, bioturbating macrofauna oxygenate the sediment, increase the surface available for diffusion, and thereby greatly enhance the exchange of solutes between the sediment and the water column (Vöpel et al. 2003, Kristensen et al. 2012). The impact of the macrofaunal community on nutrient cycling depends on e.g. density, biomass and the functional traits of individual species in the community (Mermillod-Blondin et al. 2005), as well as on the physical environment the animals live in, such as sandy or muddy sediment (Braeckman et al. 2014). The activity of the macrofauna also stimulates
the activity and growth of the microbial community
ultimately responsible for organic matter remineral-
ization (Sundbäck et al. 2004, Yazdani Foshomi et al.
2015). Benthic animals also contribute to sediment
oxygen consumption through their own respiration
and to nutrient dynamics through their own excre-
tion (Vanni 2002).

Coastal ecosystems at temperate and high latitudes
often exhibit marked seasonality, which in itself is a
strong driver of ecosystem structure and functions
such as productivity and nutrient cycling. The Baltic
Sea experiences marked seasonal variation in envi-
ronmental conditions such as light, temperature and
organic matter production (Leppäranta & Myrberg
2009). The benthic communities below the euphotic
zone are dependent on primary production from the
upper water column as a food source, but the input of
organic matter from the water column varies both
spatially and temporally (Josefson et al. 2012). In
addition, coastal seas are increasingly affected by
multiple stressors, including eutrophication, climate
change and invasive species.

Increased species and functional trait richness
enhances ecosystem functioning as predicted by bio-
diversity–ecosystem-functioning theory (Balvanera
et al. 2006). Invasive species are often considered to
be a major threat to both aquatic and terrestrial eco-
systems worldwide due to their potential effects on
e.g. resource levels and community dynamics lead-
ing to possible competition with and changes in the
native community (Mack et al. 2000, Ehrenfeld 2010),
where functioning of the communities may also be
altered. However, invaders can also have positive
effects on the ecosystem they invade, depending on
whether or not they increase or decrease the com-
plexity or heterogeneity of the environment (Crooks
2002), or are, in other words, drivers or passengers of
change in the community (MacDougall & Turkington
2005). Arrival of an invasive may also lead to an in-
crease in the species and/or functional richness given
that the species is invading an available niche and
thus exploiting resources unused by the native com-
nunity (Stachowicz & Byrnes 2006). Thus the func-
tional contribution of non-indigenous species may be
particularly strong in our study system, the Baltic
Sea, which is vulnerable to species invasions due to
its naturally low species richness and the frequent
disturbances occurring in the system (Leppäkoski et

The polychaete genus *Marenzelleria* spp. (Spioni-
dae) was first observed in the southern Baltic Sea in
1985 (Bick & Burckhardt 1989), and in the study area
in the northern Baltic Proper in 1990 (Norkko et al.
1993), and has since then spread to the entire Baltic
Sea, becoming the numerically dominant member of
many benthic communities alongside the Baltic clam
*Macoma balthica* (Linnaeus, 1758) (Kauppi et al.
2015). Three different species of the genus now occur
in the Baltic Sea; *Marenzelleria viridis* (Verrill, 1873)
and *M. neglecta* Sikorski and Bick, 2006 of North
American origin (George 1966), and *M. arctica* (Cham-
berlin, 1920) of Arctic origin (Blank et al. 2008). All 3
species represent new functionality in the system
through their more active and deeper burrowing and
bioirrigation compared to the native fauna, which
possibly has an effect on ecosystem functioning in
terms of nutrient cycling (Renz & Forster 2013, 2014).
Because *Marenzelleria* adds functional diversity
(Hewitt et al. 2016), it is imperative to know how it
modifies the surrounding ecosystem.

*Marenzelleria* spp. have been subject to many ex-
perimental and modelling studies regarding their
potential effects on ecosystem functioning. However,
results from laboratory experiments are seldom
directly applicable in nature, where environmental
conditions and the structure of animal communities
vary both spatially and temporally. Studies on multi-
ple scales, both spatial and temporal, are needed in
order to identify feedback mechanisms and inter-
actions important for ecosystem functioning, which
might not be visible in short-term experiments
(Lohrer et al. 2015). Our ability to predict changes in
biodiversity and subsequent ecosystem functions and
services is hampered by the lack of quantitative
measures on the seasonal variability as well as the
directional change of the drivers affecting ecosystem
functions, such as the establishment of potentially
functionally dominant species. Despite the well-
known seasonal variation in temperature and food
input to benthos, both important for nutrient cycling,
temporal studies that quantify nutrient fluxes and
account for the seasonally changing role of benthic
macrofaunal community structure are exceedingly
rare globally. Also, studies directly quantifying the
impacts of invasive species on ecosystem functions
are scarce. This study was designed to explore the
effects of the *Marenzelleria* species complex on an
important ecosystem function, viz. nutrient cycling,
in the field in natural conditions in a seasonally
changing environment. Recent studies in the Baltic
Sea have addressed the contribution of macrofauna,
including *Marenzelleria* spp., to nutrient dynamics in
a spatial context and along hypoxic disturbance gra-
dients (e.g. Norkko et al. 2015, Gammal et al. 2017),
but the seasonal aspect remains poorly understood
even in a well-studied system like the Baltic Sea.
The aims of this study were (1) to quantify seasonal differences in benthic fluxes of oxygen and inorganic nutrients and to assess (2) whether *Marenzelleria* spp. affect these fluxes, and (3) if the effect of *Marenzelleria* spp. varies seasonally and which other factors, such as temperature, organic matter content and C:N ratios in the sediment, influence the nutrient fluxes during different seasons. As seasonal differences in e.g. temperature were hypothesized to be more pronounced at shallower depths, we also investigated whether there were spatial differences with regard to depth in nutrient dynamics over the year. We also predicted that biotic factors, in this case macrofauna, would have a greater effect on the fluxes during summer when temperatures are higher.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Study sites**

We chose 2 sites with differing depths for the study, Storfjärden (33 m deep; 59° 51.316’ N, 23° 15.815’ E), and Munken (10 m deep; 59° 51.105’ N, 23° 14.680’ E). Storfjärden has a typical outer archipelago accumulation bottom with mud as the sediment type. It has a direct connection to the open sea and can experience large variation in hydrography due to upwelling events (Niemi 1973), increasing productivity by sediment resuspension and bringing nutrient-rich water from deeper areas. Munken, with a sediment of mud mixed with a small proportion of fine-grained sand, is situated within 1 km of Storfjärden and represents a transportation site on the edge of a steep slope, where currents easily transport the sediment down to deeper areas and organic matter thus rarely accumulates. The summer thermocline affects water circulation at Storfjärden, but hypoxia occurs only rarely at the site. According to recent genetic analyses (L. Kauppi et al. unpubl. data), the *Marenzelleria* spp. species present are *M. arctica* at Storfjärden and *M. neglecta* at Munken.

**Sampling design**

To study the effects of *Marenzelleria* spp. on the seasonal nutrient dynamics, we conducted ship-based incubations of intact sediment cores to measure nutrient fluxes at the 2 sites.

Sampling was conducted monthly from early June 2013 until mid-June 2014, with the exception of December 2013 and February and April 2014 when sampling was not conducted due to challenging weather conditions (sea ice, storms). At the deeper site, we were unable to retrieve any samples in September 2013 and only 2 replicate flux samples in March 2013 due to the loose sediment structure making it difficult to sample without disturbing the sediment surface. Temperature and salinity were measured with a CTD device on each sampling occasion (Falmouth Scientific NXIC CTD). On each sampling occasion, 5 replicate intact sediment cores for benthic flux incubations per site were retrieved in acrylic core liners with an inner diameter of 9 cm using a Gemax twin corer. The sediment height in the cores was approximately 30 cm with 15 cm of overlying water. Water samples for dissolved oxygen, NO$_3^-$ (NO$_2^− +$ NO$_3^−$), NH$_4^+$, PO$_4^{3−}$ and Si$_4^+$ (not analysed in June and early July 2013), Fe$_{tot}$ and Mn$_{tot}$ (not analysed in June and early July 2013) were taken at the start and end of incubation from the overlying water in the cores. After the initial water sampling, cores were immediately closed with lids fitted with magnetic stirrers, and the incubation started within minutes of the core retrieval. The cores were incubated in an incubation chamber filled with water at *in situ* temperature in darkness under constant stirring for 4 h. Stirring prevents the formation of solute gradients in the water column under the incubation. Oxygen samples were fixed by first adding Mn(II)SO$_4$·4H$_2$O and then NaI+NaOH (aq). Nutrient samples were filtered through Whatman GF/F glass fibre filters and frozen until analysis of dissolved NO$_3^-$, NH$_4^+$, PO$_4^{3−}$ and Si$_4^+$. For iron and manganese samples, 30 ml of the filtered sample was fixed with 0.83 ml 65% HNO$_3$ (aq) and stored at +4°C until analysis.

Two additional cores per site were retrieved for porewater and sediment samples. For the sediment samples, the top cm of the core was sliced and frozen for later analysis of organic content, grain size and sediment C:N ratio. For porewater samples, the core was sliced into 0–1, 1–2, 2–3, 5–6 and 10–11 cm sections. The sediment slices were centrifuged, and the supernatant was filtered through Whatman GF/F filters and frozen for later analysis of NO$_3^-$, NH$_4^+$, PO$_4^{3−}$ and Si$_4^+$.

After incubation, the top 1 cm of each core was sieved separately through a 0.2 mm mesh to retrieve juvenile and newly settled fauna. The rest of the core was sieved through a 0.5 mm mesh. The faunal samples were stored in 70% EtOH and stained with rose Bengal. Macrofauna were identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level, and biomass was measured as wet weight of blotted animals.
Analyses

Solute fluxes

Oxygen samples were analysed by Winkler titration. Water column and porewater solutes were analysed at Tvärminne Zoological Station (Thermo Scientific Aquakem 250). Quantification limits for solutes were NH$_4^+$ 0.0001, NO$_x$ 0.00003, PO$_4^{3-}$ 0.00003 and Si$^{4+}$ 0.0007 mmol l$^{-1}$. Solute fluxes were calculated from the difference in the concentration between start and end samples as mmol m$^{-2}$ d$^{-1}$.

Iron and manganese affect phosphorus cycling in the sediment, and are therefore important for nutrient dynamics. Oxygen flux into the sediment controls the reactions of these at the sediment–water interface, and needs to be maintained as close to natural in situ flux as possible for correct measurement (Sundby et al. 1986). The oxygen concentration inside the flux chambers was allowed to decrease following respiratory activities of the benthic community. However, the oxygen concentration never dropped below 31.6% saturation, thus not affecting e.g. the behaviour of the fauna. Iron and manganese concentrations of the samples were measured by inductively coupled plasma–mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Agilent 7500ce with an Octopole reaction system; helium was used as the reaction gas) and microwave plasma–atomic emission spectrometry (MP-AES; Perkin Elmer MP4200 AES). Iron and manganese were measured with the isotopes $^{56}$Fe and $^{55}$Mn, respectively. Because of the salinity of the seawater, samples were diluted to 1:10 and high matrix introduction was used. Quantification limits with ICP-MS were 2.4 and 6.4 ppb for iron and manganese, respectively. Errors were 8% for iron and 7% for manganese. The analysis method was changed to Perkin Elmer MP4200 AES after January 2014 because the salts in the seawater clogged the sample loop and further dilution would have resulted in amounts of Fe and Mn below the detection limit and a considerable uncertainty in the results. Wavelengths were 371.993 nm for iron and 403.076 nm for manganese. Samples analysed with MP-AES were not diluted. The quantification limits with MP-AES were 2.5 and 1.0 ppb for iron and manganese, respectively, and errors were 7 and 5%.

Sediment

Organic matter content of the sediment was determined as loss on ignition (LOI, %). The samples were first dried at 60°C for 48 h and thereafter combusted at 500°C for 3 h. For grain size analysis, sediment was first placed in 6% hydrogen peroxide solution to remove the organic matter. Thereafter the sediment was sieved through a series of sieves (0.063, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, 1 and 2 mm), the different fractions were dried at 60°C for 48 h or until dry, and the dry weights of the fractions were measured. The C:N ratio of the sediment was analysed at Tvärminne Zoological Station with a Europa Scientific ANCA-MS 20-20 15N/13C mass spectrometer after removal of carbonates from the sediment with HCl (aq).

Statistical analyses

The contribution of biological factors (abundance of Marenzelleria spp., Macoma balthica and others [i.e. all other taxa combined]) and environmental factors (temperature, salinity, pH, LOI, C:N ratio) for predicting the variation in oxygen and solute fluxes was studied multivariately using distance-based linear modelling (DistLM in PERMANOVA+ for PRIMER 6, Anderson et al. 2008). DistLM are multiple regression models on multivariate response data that partition the variance explained by a set of predictor variables. By analysing all fluxes simultaneously, this model can provide a comprehensive understanding of the factors affecting organic matter degradation processes (e.g. Belley et al. 2016, Gammal et al. 2017). Biomass was measured as blotted wet weight, and only the largest specimens of M. balthica, Marenzelleria spp., Hediste diversicolor, Monoporia affinis, Hydrobia spp. and Paludestrina jenkinsii had a detectable weight. Wet weight is also subject to a large variability due to the water retained in the animals. For a large number of animals, e.g. juveniles, there will be no measurable biomass, which causes us to lose some of the seasonal variation in this measure. We also ran the analysis with biomass as a predictor, but this did not add explanatory power to the analysis. Therefore, abundance is a more accurate measure in this case. For the DistLM analysis, distance matrices based on pairwise Euclidean distances between samples were constructed of the response fluxes combined together (NO$_x$, NH$_4^+$, PO$_4^{3-}$, Si$^{4+}$, Fe, Mn and O$_2$) after normalizing. The combined flux gives the best general picture of the effect of seasonality on nutrient dynamics.

After initial visual inspection of the environmental data over the whole year, the data were divided into 2 datasets according to the changes in oxygen consumption, which can be used a proxy for the activity
of the fauna and the microbial processes in the sediment (Glud 2008). We chose 2 periods, one of low and one of high oxygen consumption (hereafter termed the 'low' and 'high' periods), respectively, and ran a PERMANOVA with month as a factor (PERMANOVA+ for PRIMER 6.0 Anderson et al. 2008) to test whether the seasons actually significantly differed from each other. The pattern of oxygen consumption differed between the sites, such that at the deeper site, the period of high oxygen consumption ended in late July, whereas at the shallower site it ended in August. Additionally, non-metric multidimensional scaling graphs (Fig. S1 in the Supplement at www.int-res.com/articles/supp/m572p193_supp.pdf) of the macrofauna community and solute fluxes suggested a gradual transition from low to high oxygen consumption during March and May, which was separated as a third period. Separate DistLM analyses were then run for the entire year, low oxygen consumption period, high oxygen consumption period, and March + May. Silicate and manganese were omitted from the combined flux variable in the analyses of the entire year and high season due to lack of data from the first 2 months. Significant variables from both sets of predictors (biological and environmental) were first chosen independently through forward selection, and after combining the 2 sets of predictor variables, the significant variables from the independent selections were forced into the model first and the program then selected any other variables to be included in the model through both forward and backward selection. If there were no significant predictors in either set of predictors, all predictors were trialed together using both forward and backward selection. Akaike’s information criterion (AIC) was used as the model selection criterion, and the model with the lowest AIC value was chosen. Both marginal tests, testing the effect of the independent predictor variables on the response variable, and sequential tests, testing the effect of all chosen predictors on the response variable, were run. Correlation matrices between the predictors and individual response variables are presented in Table S1 in the Supplement. Based on the inspection of draftsman and SD to mean plots as suggested by Clarke & Warwick (2001), a √(x+1000) transformation was applied to the fluxes of NOx, NH4+, PO43- and Fe at Storfjärden. None of the other fluxes required transformations at either of the sites. The predictor variables are automatically normalized in the DistLM analysis. The only highly correlated predictor variables after normalizing were the abundance of Macoma and the abundance of other species and salinity and pH at Storfjärden (0.78 and –0.77, respectively). These were nevertheless left in the analysis untransformed since omitting or transforming them did not significantly affect the results.

RESULTS

Environmental parameters

The environmental variables exhibiting greatest variation between the seasons were temperature, bottom-water oxygen content and sediment organic matter content measured as LOI % (Table S2 in the Supplement). The minimum temperature measured in March was similar for both sites (2.1°C at Munken and 1.9°C at Storfjärden). The maximum temperature, however, was nearly 5°C higher at Munken (14.0°C) than at Storfjärden (9.1°C) and was measured at Storfjärden in June 2013 and 2014, and at Munken in September 2013. The maximum (12.8 and 12.5 mg l−1 for Munken and Storfjärden, respectively) and average (10.3 and 9.1 mg l−1, respectively) dissolved oxygen content in the bottom water at both sites were almost identical, but the sites differed in the minimum oxygen content (8.5 and 5.0 mg l−1, respectively). Even the minimum value at the deeper site was nevertheless up to 2-fold higher than the limit for hypoxia (2 mg l−1, Diaz & Rosenberg 2008), under which we could expect severe hampering in the functioning of the macrofaunal community. The average organic content of the sediment was several percent higher at Storfjärden (13.9%) than at Munken (8.9%) (Table S2), and differences in the organic content between months were much larger at Munken than at Storfjärden, where the values were relatively stable over the whole year (min and max 5.5 to 12.5% and 12.8 to 15.3% for Munken and Storfjärden, respectively).

Abundance and biomass of Marenzelleria spp. and other macrofauna

At both sites, the changes in the abundance of the macrofauna followed a similar pattern with a peak in the total abundance in late July and August. Apart from the dominating Marenzelleria spp. and Macoma balthica, the other species observed at Munken were Halicryptus spinulosus, Microstomum lineare, Hydrobia sp., Paludestrina jenkinsi, Manayunkia aestuaria, Hediste diversicolor, Cerastoderma glaucum, Limapontia capitata, Theodoxus fluviatilis,
Cyanophthalma obscura, Oligochaeta, Chironomidae and Nemertea. At Storfjärden, other species observed include Bylgides sarsi, Monoporeia affinis, Microstomum lineare, Oligochaeta, Chironomidae and Nemertea. Also a few sporadic Saduria entomon, Idotea baltica, Mya arenaria, Mytilus edulis and Mysis sp. were observed at one or both sites but were not included in the analysis.

Munken had a higher average total abundance than Storfjärden, but the community was mainly dominated by juveniles of different species and smaller-sized, more opportunistic species such as oligochaetes and chironomids. The dramatic increase in total abundance at Munken (Fig. 1a) in late July and August was caused by the increase in the number of settling juvenile M. balthica and oligochaetes. The peaks in total abundance at Storfjärden in July, August and September (Fig. 1b) were a consequence of both settling M. balthica and a seasonally increasing total number of species contributing to the total abundance. A notable difference in the community composition between the sites was the population dynamics of Marenzelleria spp. At Munken, there was a clear peak in the abundance of Marenzelleria spp. in March and May, caused by the settling juveniles, whereas over the rest of the year, Marenzelleria spp. only occurred sporadically at this site (Fig. 1a). At Storfjärden there were no clear peaks in Marenzelleria spp. abundance; rather they occurred at the site over the year, with a slight increase from June to August also due to settling juveniles (Fig. 1b). The numerically most dominant taxa at both sites were M. balthica and Marenzelleria spp. Lowest abundances of M. balthica occurred at Storfjärden (mean 1289 ind. m−2) and at Munken (mean 1886 ind. m−2) in June 2013. Highest abundances of M. balthica occurred at Storfjärden and Munken in late July 2013 (8174 and 51244 ind. m−2, respectively). Lowest abundances of the second-most abundant taxon, Marenzelleria spp. were observed at Storfjärden in January 2014 (mean 912 ind. m−2) and at Munken in late July, September and October 2013 (mean 63 ind. m−2 at each sampling occasion), and highest abundances of Marenzelleria spp. were observed at Storfjärden (mean 3112 ind. m−2) and Munken (mean 17762 ind. m−2) in late July 2013 and May 2014.
respectively. For monthly average abundances, see Table S2.

Contrary to the relatively similar abundance patterns, the seasonal pattern of the macrofaunal biomass differed between the 2 sites (Fig. 1c,d). At both sites, the species contributing most to the biomass was *M. balthica*. A clear difference was the much higher and more stable total biomass over the year at Storfjärden compared to the more seasonally variable pattern at Munken. The highest biomass at Storfjärden occurred in January 2014 (mean 308.9 g m⁻²) and at Munken in August 2013 (mean 106.9 g m⁻²). The lowest biomasses were measured in March 2014 (mean 113.0 g m⁻²) at Storfjärden and in January 2014 (mean 0.2 g m⁻²) at Munken. *Marenzelleria* spp. biomass was also more stable at Storfjärden than at Munken. The highest and lowest average biomass of *Marenzelleria* spp. at Storfjärden occurred in June 2014 (mean 9.2 g m⁻²) and March 2014 (mean 1.5 g m⁻²), respectively, and at Munken in early July 2013 (mean 0.01 g m⁻²) and May 2014 (mean 6.9 g m⁻²) (Fig. 1c,d). For monthly average biomasses, see Table S2.

### Seasonal oxygen consumption of the sediment

The oxygen consumption of the sediment, including microbial and macrofauna respiration, at both sites varied during the year mostly following variations in the bottom-water temperature (Fig. 2a,b). Highest oxygen consumption at Storfjärden (Fig. 2b) was measured in June 2013 (35.9 ± 2.4 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹, mean ± SD throughout) and at Munken (Fig. 2a) in early July 2013 (mean 0.01 g m⁻²) and May 2014 (mean 6.9 g m⁻²) (Fig. 1c,d). At the deeper site, this also corresponds to the highest bottom-water temperature measured over the study period (9.1°C). The lowest oxygen consumption rates at Storfjärden and Munken were recorded in November (11.5 ± 4.1 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹) and January (9.3 ± 1.7 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹), respectively. See Table S2 for monthly fluxes. According to the PERMANOVA, there was a significant difference between summer and winter in oxygen consumption at both sites (Storfjärden: pseudo-$F_{1,44} = 173.4$, $p = 0.0001$; Munken: pseudo-$F_{1,52} = 29.0$, $p = 0.0001$). Oxygen consumption was significantly lower at Storfjärden in the period from August 2013 to March 2014 (low) compared to other months (June–late July 2013, May–June 2014, high). At Munken, the oxygen consumption was significantly lower from September 2013 to March 2014 (low) compared to other months (June–August 2013, May–June 2014, high). The average oxygen consumptions during the different seasons defined for the DistLM analysis were 30.6 ± 3.4 (high) and 13.7 ± 1.9 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ (low) at Storfjärden and 24.8 ± 6.9 (high) and 14.1 ± 6.0 mmol m⁻² d⁻¹ (low) at Munken.

### Seasonal solute fluxes across the sediment–water interface

Fluxes of all solutes (NOₓ, NH₄⁺, PO₄³⁻, Si⁴⁺ and micronutrients Fe, Mn) demonstrated some degree of seasonal variation (Figs. 3 & 4). Generally there was an efflux of all inorganic solutes at Storfjärden (Fig. 3b,d,f,h) over the year, except for phosphate (Fig. 3f), which showed an influx in October 2013 and March 2014, iron (Fig. 4b), which showed an influx
Fig. 3. Fluxes of (a,b) NO$_x$, (c,d) NH$_4^+$, (e,f) PO$_4^{3-}$ and (g,h) Si$^{4+}$ at Munken (a–d; 10 m deep) and Storfjärden (e–h; 33 m deep) from June 2013 to June 2014. Bars represent the average flux, and error bars indicate standard deviation of 5 replicates, except for March 2014 at Storfjärden (2 replicates).
from November 2013 to June 2014, and NO$_3$ (Fig. 3b), which showed an influx in October and November 2013. At Munken, the shallower site, the fluxes of inorganic solutes were overall smaller than at the deeper site, and their direction varied over the year for all fluxes (Fig. 3a,c,e,g) except Si$^{4+}$ (Fig. 3g), which was always diffusing out from the sediment. Monthly fluxes of all solutes are presented in Table S2. See Fig. S2 in the Supplement for pore-water and bottom-water concentrations over the year.

Factors predicting seasonal variation in the combined solute flux

According to the DistLM results, the best model could account for 57% of the total variation of the combined flux at Storfjärden (33 m) and 25% at Munken (10 m) over the whole year (Table 1). The most important predictor variables in the model at the deeper site were organic matter content, the abundance of *Marenzelleria* spp., temperature and C:N ratio. At the shallower site, the most important predictor variables in the model were salinity and temperature.

After investigating the contribution of predictor variables for the whole year, the model was then run for seasons of low and high oxygen consumption, and March+May separately. During the low season at Storfjärden, only the C:N ratio was a significant predictor for the fluxes, accounting for 19% of the total variance explained. Overall, the model could account for 40% of the variation in the combined flux with temperature and *Marenzelleria* spp. also being selected into the model. Backward selection of the predictor variables additionally resulted in salinity, pH and organic content being included in the model but with a lower AIC value. At Munken, pH was the only significant predictor in the model during the low season. The other predictor variables selected into the model were temperature, salinity, C:N ratio, abundance of *Macoma* and abundance of *Marenzelleria* spp., and these together with pH accounted for a total
of 49% of the variation in the combined flux. \textit{Marenzelleria} spp., although not significant in the overall model, accounted for 15% of the total explained variation. In the marginal tests, \textit{Marenzelleria} spp. alone was a significant predictor of the combined flux, accounting for 19% of the variation.

During the high season at Storfjärden, temperature and organic content were the only significant contributors in the model and together accounted for 45% of the variation in the combined flux (Table 1). Alone, however, the organic content could only account for a non-significant 1.6% of the total variation. According to the marginal test, \textit{Marenzelleria} spp. could alone account for a non-significant 8% of the total variation (Table 2). At Munken during the high season, salinity and the abundance of \textit{Marenzelleria} spp. were the only significant predictors for the combined flux, of which 41% could be accounted for with the final model. Other predictors included were temperature and organic content. In the marginal tests, \textit{Marenzelleria} spp. accounted for a non-significant 4% of the variation in the combined flux.

The results from the DistLM analysis for March and May (Table 1), however, indicated a strong effect of the dominant macrofauna on the variation in the combined fluxes during this period. At Storfjärden, the abundance of the fauna could account for in total 92% of the variation, and the proportion of \textit{Marenzelleria} spp. was 62% and \textit{Macoma} 30% of the total explained variation. At Munken, the fauna could account for 84% of the variation and \textit{Marenzelleria} spp. and the abundance of other taxa were significant predictors. \textit{Marenzelleria} spp. accounted for 43% and the abundance of other fauna for 10% of the total explained variation, whereas \textit{Macoma} accounted for 31% of the total explained variation, but was not a significant predictor.
According to the results from the marginal tests, *Marenzelleria* spp. significantly predicted the variation in the combined flux at Storfjärden during the whole year and in March and May, and at Munken in winter (Table 2). The other dominant species at the sites, *Macoma balthica*, was alone not a significant predictor of the combined flux during any time period.

**DISCUSSION**

We demonstrate seasonal variation in benthic fluxes across the sediment–water interface at 2 adjacent coastal locations: a deep depositional site, Storfjärden (33 m), and a shallow transportation site, Munken (10 m), in the northern Baltic Sea. There is a clear seasonal pattern in the oxygen consumption at both sites, suggesting seasonality in the activity of the sediment-dwelling organisms (Michaud et al. 2005, Glud 2008). Decreased oxygen consumption also corresponds to decreased fluxes of all inorganic nutrients at Storfjärden, which indicates that the rates of sediment processes are linked to nutrient remineralization at the deeper site. Phosphate fluxes also show a clear seasonal pattern, with much lower fluxes during the low season at this site. At the shallower site, the pattern of nutrient dynamics over the year is similar to the deeper site, but the fluxes overall are negligible. Oxygen uptake and solute flux results are similar to results obtained in other studies in this area (Norkko et al. 2015, Gammal et al. 2017). Importantly, results from the DistLM analyses, although correlative, emphasize the role of species of the invasive polychaete genus *Marenzelleria* in spring at both sites, likely connected to their role in processing the organic matter settling after the spring bloom (Heiskanen & Tallberg 1999). *Marenzelleria* was also a significant predictor of the combined solute flux at the deeper site during the whole year, but also contributed to explaining the variance during the period of low oxygen consumption. At the shallower site, its contribution was less during the year as expected by the lower abundances, but even at this site, the worms were important during spring, accounting for 43% of the variation in the fluxes, and, slightly surprisingly, during winter accounting for 18% of the variation according to the marginal tests and also in the overall model. Apart from the high numbers of juvenile *Marenzelleria* spp. settling at the shallower site in March and May, the specimens found at this site are mostly very large individuals of *M. neglecta*, which could affect nutrient cycling more through their temporally more stable biomass, burrow structure and activity (Aller 1980a).

The other dominant species, the clam *Macoma balthica*, did predict the variation in the combined flux in March and May at both sites, but otherwise its contribution for predicting the variation in the combined flux was not significant.

**Variable food input modulates the impact of benthic fauna**

Temperature affects the activity of macrofauna and microbial processes, and the movement of solutes in porewater, thereby directly affecting nutrient fluxes. Organic matter availability affects the activity of the macrofauna and microbes, and provides the raw material for the mineralization processes (e.g. Moodley et al. 2005). The variation in organic matter content and temperature had an overriding importance for predicting the variation in the combined flux compared to the fauna during our defined summer season at the deeper, more organic-rich site. This is probably because we excluded silicate and manganese fluxes from the combined flux during this period due to the lack of data, since these 2 fluxes have high positive correlations with the fauna during the time of high oxygen consumption.

However, the highest oxygen consumption and fluxes of inorganic nutrients do not coincide with the highest faunal abundances and biomasses. This indicates that a high density of animals does not directly equal high levels of nutrient remineralization, but the activity needs to be somehow triggered. In temperate soils, for example, the activity of the microbial biomass is triggered by increasing temperatures, even though the size of the microbial biomass may remain constant (Blume et al. 2002). In aquatic systems, previous studies on the effect of seasonality on nutrient dynamics have identified temperature and organic matter quantity and quality as important factors affecting benthic fluxes (Rysgaard et al. 1998, Witte et al. 2003, Moodley et al. 2005, Braeckman et al. 2010). However, the links between seasonal variability in environmental conditions, the macrobenthic and microbial communities, and ecosystem functioning are rarely studied together, resulting in incomplete knowledge of their interactions. Knowledge of these interactions is becoming increasingly important, as the predicted ocean warming is likely to have impacts on the variation in the environmental drivers affecting the benthic fluxes.

Organic matter is ultimately remineralized by the microbial community in the sediment, the activity of
Seasonal patterns are site-dependent

The natural seasonal variability in environmental conditions translates into similar patterns of nutrient dynamics, but with different magnitudes between sites. The factors driving the variation in nutrient fluxes also differ, and overall there is more variation left unexplained at the shallower site. The higher effluxes of all inorganic nutrients and influxes of oxygen at Storfjärden compared to Munken can be explained by higher organic content and abundance of fauna, especially actively burrowing M. arctica and an abundant and stable population of large-bodied, long-lived animals, in this case mostly M. balthica. Large-bodied, long-lived animals are important for the stability and functioning of ecosystems and their loss through e.g. disturbances leads to impaired functioning (Thrush et al. 2006, Godbold & Solan 2009, Norkko et al. 2013). The stability in the ammonium fluxes at Storfjärden over the year is probably related to the stability in macrofaunal community composition. The seasonal importance of biologically or physically controlled processes for nutrient fluxes depends on the organic matter input stimulating the potential biogenic processes, which follows the demonstrated increased nutrient fluxes in summer due to biogenic stimulation of nutrient remineralization especially at the deeper site.

At the shallower site, on the contrary, physically controlled processes driving sediment and fluid transport likely dominate over biologically controlled processes whenever organic matter is not available due to the site being inhabited by more short-lived, small animals (Aller 1980a,b). The patchiness of the fauna in both space and time at the shallower site together with the variability in the hydrodynamic conditions could thus be the reason for the large variability in the fluxes at this site. Temperature, and especially salinity, were always selected as predictors into the model at Munken, indicating that occasional upwelling and freshwater input from the nearby Pojo Bay have an effect on the fluxes at this site. Upwelling events and thermally induced total circulation of the water masses also increase resuspension. Increased temperature, salinity and organic content in October after an upwelling event could have caused the slightly increased effluxes of ammonium, phosphate and silicate in November. The increased resuspension and sedimentation of organic matter possibly enhanced the activity of suspension feeding macrofauna, hence the somewhat surprising importance of Marenzelleria spp. in predicting the fluxes during the low season at both sites.

During the year, the DistLM model also had a low predictive power at the shallow site, with salinity and temperature as the only selected predictors. We cannot see a clear seasonal difference in the fluxes of all inorganic nutrients despite a seasonal pattern in the organic content and in the oxygen fluxes, but whenever organic matter is available, or the fauna is very abundant, the biotic factors seem to be of value in predicting the fluxes. For instance, the high predictive value and significance of Marenzelleria spp. and other macrofauna at the shallower site from March to June coincides with an increase in the organic matter and is probably partly due to the high negative correlations these have with the NOx fluxes added to the high positive correlation that Marenzelleria has with iron and manganese fluxes. Nitrification is affected by the availability of oxygen and ammonium, organic matter and temperature. At the study sites, nitrification rates have previously been found to be highest during summer, when ammonium availability following mineralization of organic matter is high (Jäntti et al. 2011). This could partly explain the NOx pattern at the shallower site, with efflux from August to October, when ammonium effluxes are also high, indicating high ammonium availability. In addition to seasonal variability in nutrient dynamics within both sites, we thus also have a relatively large spatial variability between sites less than 1 km apart, with much lower fluxes overall at the shallower site, owing in part to the differences in the biological components of these sites.
**Marenzelleria has an important role in nutrient cycling**

The invasive polychaete genus *Marenzelleria* has increased both the species and functional richness in the Baltic Sea (Hewitt et al. 2016). While invasive species might increase the richness in some systems, little is known about how this might affect ecosystem functioning (Gamfeldt et al. 2015). *Marenzelleria* has been suggested to be a driver of ecological change in the Baltic Sea, helping in the mitigation of eutrophication and thereby providing important ecosystem services (Norkko et al. 2012). High abundances of *Marenzelleria* spp. could potentially have positive effects on nutrient cycling in the Baltic Sea, as their oxygenation in the long term could bind phosphorus and thus prevent its release to the water column (Hietanen et al. 2007, Norkko et al. 2012). Phosphorus can be removed from the water through adsorption onto clays and on both iron and manganese oxyhydroxide particles in well-oxygenated sediment (Föllmi 1996). On the other hand, burrowing deep into the anoxic sediment could cause oxygen-depleted sulfide- and nutrient-rich water to be transported to the sediment surface, and thereby boost primary production and eutrophication (Quintana et al. 2011). Counteracting hypoxia and reducing phosphorus and nitrogen fluxes into the water column play an essential role in mitigation of eutrophication, a pertinent problem in the Baltic Sea as well as in many other estuaries (Carstensen et al. 2014). Our findings clearly suggest that *Marenzelleria* spp. do have an effect on nutrient cycling in natural conditions, but it varies according to the site, season and also depending on the nutrient species in question. During the low season, the effect of the worms may be minor and non-significant, but the effect of even a moderate density of worms can be substantial when there is organic matter to be ingested and processed. The finding that *Marenzelleria* may have the strongest effect after the spring bloom is corroborated by the findings of Josefson et al. (2012) and Norkko et al. (2015). The high predictive value of macrofauna after the spring bloom and the significance of *Marenzelleria* spp. is also demonstrated in both good and poor oxygen conditions (Norkko et al. 2015), further supporting the important role of the fresh food supply to the system and highlighting the role of the invasive polychaetes and macrofauna in general in processing this organic matter.

Accumulation of organic matter in the sediment increases the internal nutrient recycling and can thus promote eutrophication. The effect of *Marenzelleria* spp. on nutrient cycling could also be more indirect in character by mainly enhancing organic matter processing rate and efficiency. *M. arctica* can enhance resource utilization through resource partitioning compared to the native fauna (Karlson et al. 2011, 2015). Our observations of highly stable organic matter content at Storfjärden compared to what e.g. Jäntti et al. (2011) found at the same sites could be an indication of the benthic community including *M. arctica* being so efficient at utilizing the settling material, that spring and summer blooms are not visible as peaks in the organic content. The low sampling interval during this period possibly led to a failure in detecting the peak, as the settling organic material is potentially processed very fast by the macrofauna deprived of food after the winter (e.g. Cederwall & Elmgren 1990). The much higher (maximum 31%) and more variable organic matter content observed in the previous studies also coincided with much lower abundances of *Marenzelleria* spp. and other macrofauna potentially leading to inefficient resource use and accumulation of excess organic matter towards the end of the summer.

**CONCLUSIONS**

Modelling of nutrient budgets is often based on results obtained from experiments or field surveys conducted in the warm summer months. Evidence for seasonality in fluxes has, however, been accumulating from different systems (Rysgaard et al. 1998, Moodley et al. 2005). Our results also clearly demonstrate seasonal variability in nutrient dynamics. This variability is partly due to seasonal variability in the structure and activity of the sediment-dwelling community responsible for the remineralization of organic matter. The seasonal differences in the activity of the fauna are due to seasonal changes in organic matter input and temperature. Furthermore, although the seasonal pattern in the fluxes at our accumulation and transport bottoms was similar, there were large differences in the magnitude of the measured fluxes and in the importance of different drivers. This highlights the importance of actually measuring nutrient fluxes in situ at varying spatial and temporal scales. Experiments are and will be needed to test the causes behind the effects, but upscaling to real-world ecosystem functioning is problematic due to short duration, highly simplified assemblages and manipulated sediments in which experiments are often conducted, omitting the natural variability (Snelgrove et al. 2014). When striving for generaliza-
tions, we must not rely solely on data from short-term experiments, nor on studies done at one point in time even if on a large spatial scale, but combine these results with those incorporating temporal variability for a more complete picture of nature. When calculating nutrient budgets, using data from short-term experiments conducted in summer, when rates of processes and nutrient effluxes are at their maximum, could cause a gross overestimation in the calculations. Using data from only a month later, on the other hand, could cause a major underestimation. In both cases the estimates would not be realistic. Models are always simplifications of reality, but not including such a fundamental characteristic of the system as macrofauna and seasonality in them makes their use in management decisions doubtful.

Acknowledgements. This study was supported by Norden-skioeld samfundet r.f., Jenny and Antti Wihuri Foundation, Walter and André de Nottebeck foundation (grants to L.K.), the BONUS COCOA-project supported by BONUS (Art 185), funded jointly by the EU and the Academy of Finland, and the University of Helsinki (3 yr grant to J.N.). We thank Samu Elovaara, Henri Jokinen, Anna Jansson, Anna Villnäs, Johanna Gammal and Guillaume Bernard, as well as all the personnel and trainees at Tvärminne Zoological station for their invaluable help in field sampling and laboratory analyses. We also thank Dr. Ralf Bastrop at the University of Rostock for performing the genetic analyses.

LITERATURE CITED


Editorial responsibility: Erik Kristensen, Odense, Denmark

Submitted: September 12, 2016; Accepted: April 24, 2017

Proofs received from author(s): May 19, 2017