

UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA DE BAJA CALIFORNIA
INSTITUTO DE INVESTIGACIONES OCEANOLÓGICAS



METABOLISMO Y FLUJOS DE NITRÓGENO DEL PASTO MARINO
Phyllospadix scouleri Y SU VARIACIÓN BAJO CONDICIONES DE
CALENTAMIENTO ASOCIADAS A OLAS DE CALOR MARINAS

T E S I S

**QUE PARA CUBRIR PARCIALMENTE LOS REQUISITOS NECESARIOS PARA
OBTENER EL GRADO DE**

DOCTOR EN MEDIO AMBIENTE Y DESARROLLO

PRESENTA

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RESUMEN

Las praderas de *Phyllospadix* spp. (*P. scouleri* y *P. torreyi*) conforman complejos ecosistemas costeros de elevada productividad en las costas del Pacífico Norteamericano. Al igual que otras especies de pastos marinos, *Phyllospadix* spp. se encuentran bajo la amenaza de distintos impactos tanto de origen natural como antropogénico. En el contexto del cambio climático, se ha observado que las olas de calor marinas (OCMs) representan anomalías térmicas extremas que pueden impactar negativamente en el metabolismo, la productividad y la distribución de los pastos marinos. Sin embargo, el conocimiento acerca de sus efectos es aún limitado en algunos aspectos relacionados con la fisiología de estos, los cuales presentan una relación directa con importantes servicios ecosistémicos. En particular, se desconoce casi por completo cómo la exposición a elevadas temperaturas puede afectar al metabolismo del nitrógeno, y por tanto, al potencial de biofiltración de estas plantas. Esta tesis tuvo como objetivo principal evaluar los flujos y el metabolismo del nitrógeno (N) de *P. scouleri*, y su variación ante condiciones de calentamiento asociado a OCMs, utilizando distintos enfoques experimentales. Estos enfoques incluyeron: i) la comparación entre los efectos de una OCM con OCMs recurrentes (Capítulo 1), y ii) la comparación entre OCMs de diferente intensidad (severa y extrema) (Capítulo 2). Las respuestas del calentamiento sobre los flujos y metabolismo del N fueron examinadas a través de distintos descriptores, como la cinética de incorporación de amonio, nitrato y urea, la actividad enzimática asimilatoria, la capacidad de biofiltración, el contenido de N y los flujos de nitrógeno disuelto total. Es importante destacar que este estudio constituyó una de las primeras aproximaciones a la exploración de los efectos del calentamiento en dichos aspectos para *P. scouleri*. De forma general, y en base a los resultados de los dos experimentos, se pudo concluir que i) *P. scouleri* podría desempeñar un papel importante como biofiltro para aguas residuales que contienen amonio, nitrato y urea, ii) que la exposición a una única OCM y a OCMs consecutivas podría afectar a la capacidad de biofiltración de *P. scouleri*, iii) que la urea puede ser una fuente alternativa de N durante la exposición a OCMs, iv) que la incorporación y asimilación de amonio, nitrato y urea en *P. scouleri* puede variar según la intensidad de la OCM (severa o extrema) y la fase experimental (i.e. durante la

exposición al calentamiento, o posterior al mismo), y v) que la incorporación y asimilación de amonio, nitrato y urea no exhibe un comportamiento lineal con el aumento de la temperatura.

ABSTRACT

Seagrass meadows of *Phyllospadix* spp. (*P. scouleri* and *P. torreyi*) are highly productive complex coastal ecosystems along the Pacific coast of North American. Like other seagrass species, *Phyllospadix* spp. are under threat from a variety of natural and anthropogenic impacts. In the context of climate change, marine heat waves (MHWs) have been observed as extreme thermal anomalies that can negatively impact seagrass metabolism, productivity, and distribution. However, knowledge of their effects is still limited in some aspects related to their physiology, which are directly related to important ecosystem services. In particular, it is almost completely unknown how exposure to elevated temperatures can affect nitrogen metabolism, and therefore, the biofiltration potential of these plants. The main objective of this thesis was to evaluate nitrogen (N) fluxes and metabolism of *P. scouleri*, and their variation under warming conditions associated with MHWs, using different experimental approaches. These approaches included: i) comparison between the effects of one MHW with recurrent MHWs (Chapter 1), and ii) comparison between MHWs of different intensity (severe and extreme) (Chapter 2). The responses of warming on N fluxes and metabolism were examined using different descriptors, such as ammonium, nitrate and urea uptake kinetics, assimilatory enzyme activity, biofiltration capacity, N content and total dissolved nitrogen fluxes. It is important to note that this study was one of the first approaches to investigate the effects of warming on these aspects for *P. scouleri*. Overall, based on the results of the two experiments, it could be concluded that i) *P. scouleri* could play an important role as a biofilter for wastewaters containing ammonium, nitrate and urea, ii) exposure to a single and consecutive MHWs could affect the biofiltration capacity of *P. scouleri*, iii) urea could be an alternative source of N during exposure to MHWs, iv) ammonium, nitrate and urea uptake and assimilation in *P. scouleri* can vary depending on the intensity of the MHW

(severe or extreme) and the experimental phase (i.e. during, or after, exposure to warming), and v) that ammonium, nitrate and urea uptake and assimilation do not show a linear behavior with increasing temperature.

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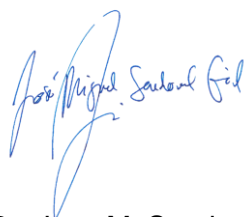
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INTRODUCCIÓN

1. Pastos marinos: importancia y amenazas

Los pastos marinos son angiospermas que habitan en entornos marinos y tienen la capacidad de formar extensas praderas sumergidas (Gallagher et al., 2022). Por lo general, se desarrollan en sustratos arenosos o lodosos en aguas poco profundas (< 50 m; Esteban et al., 2018). No obstante, algunos géneros, como *Phyllospadix* spp., pueden crecer en sustratos rocosos desde áreas intermareales hasta aguas poco profundas (Ruiz-Montoya et al., 2021). Las angiospermas marinas se distribuyen prácticamente en todas las biorregiones del mundo (a excepción de la Antártida), y hasta la fecha se han identificado 12 géneros de pastos marinos, con alrededor de 65 especies diferentes (Charpy-Rouband y Sournia, 1990; den Hartog y Kuo, 2006).

Los pastos marinos representan uno de los ecosistemas sumergidos más productivos y ecológicamente relevantes en las zonas costeras (Duarte y Cebrián 1996; Duarte y Chiscano 1999). Además, desempeñan un papel fundamental como ingenieros del ecosistema y ofrecen una variedad de servicios ecosistémicos importantes. Por ejemplo, proporcionan hábitats y refugio a numerosas especies, sus rizomas y raíces estabilizan los sedimentos, protegen las costas contra la erosión, actúan como sumideros de carbono y contribuyen a mantener la calidad del agua (Fig. 1; Cuellar-Martínez et al., 2019; de los Santos et al., 2020).

En la actualidad, las praderas de pastos marinos se encuentran en una situación de amenaza debido a una combinación de impactos de origen natural y actividades humanas (Waycott et al., 2009; Dunic et al., 2021). Entre ellos se incluyen impactos derivados de la actividad pesquera, la degradación progresiva de la calidad del agua (manifestada por el aumento en la turbidez, los niveles de nutrientes y la acumulación de sedimentos), o el incremento en la temperatura del agua asociado al cambio climático (Smale et al., 2019; Hastings et al., 2020; Dunic et al., 2021). De forma general, estos impactos (y su combinación con otros estresores) han resultado en una disminución significativa de la extensión global de las praderas de pastos marinos, con estimaciones que sugieren pérdidas de hasta un 20% de su cobertura a nivel mundial (Orth et al., 2006; Waycott et

al., 2009). Esta regresión plantea preocupaciones sobre la pérdida de la productividad y de los servicios ecosistémicos que proporcionan estos ecosistemas. Por eso, resulta esencial llevar a cabo estudios detallados de la respuesta del metabolismo del nitrógeno, elemento fundamental en la productividad y funcionalidad ecológica de los pastos marinos (McGlathery, 2008). Estos estudios son cruciales para la implementación de medidas efectivas de conservación y gestión destinadas a preservar estos ecosistemas y los servicios ecosistémicos que nos ofrecen.



Figura 1. Representación gráfica de los servicios ecosistémicos clave proporcionados por los pastos marinos. Modificado de Teutli et al. (2020).

2. Aspectos generales del metabolismo del nitrógeno en los pastos marinos

La disponibilidad de nutrientes, particularmente el nitrógeno (N), desempeña un papel fundamental en la productividad y funcionalidad ecológica de las praderas de pastos marinos (McGlathery, 2008). El N se presenta en una mezcla compleja de compuestos disueltos con diferentes concentraciones, algunos de ellos disponibles para su utilización por parte de los pastos marinos (Vonk et al., 2008). Estos nutrientes pueden provenir de fuentes externas, como aguas residuales, deposiciones atmosféricas o fertilizantes, y también de fuentes internas a través del reciclaje interno en la estructura clonal de la pradera (Romero et al., 2006; McGlathery, 2008).

Los pastos marinos tienen la capacidad de adquirir nitrógeno al incorporar compuestos orgánicos e inorgánicos disueltos a través de sus hojas y raíces (Touchette y Burkholder, 2000).

La incorporación de N suele responder a una cinética de Michaelis-Menten,

$$V = (V_{\max} \times S) / (K_m + S)$$

donde V y V_{\max} representan la velocidad y tasa máxima de incorporación de N, respectivamente, K_m es la constante de saturación media, y S es la concentración del nutriente. La afinidad de incorporación ($\alpha = V_{\max}/K_m$) refleja la eficiencia de absorción de nutrientes a concentraciones sub-saturantes (Touchette y Burkholder, 2000). Sin embargo, algunos estudios han demostrado respuestas lineales en la incorporación de nitrógeno inorgánico para especies como *Zostera marina*, *Thalassia hemprichii* y *Amphibolis antarctica* (Roth y Pregnall, 1988; Paling y McComb, 1994; Stapel et al., 1996). Las razones detrás de estas dos tipos de cinéticas aún no se comprenden completamente, pero podrían reflejar respuestas de aclimatación frente a la disponibilidad de N (McGlathery, 2008).

La fracción inorgánica disuelta de nitrógeno (NID) en los entornos costeros está mayormente conformada por nitrato y amonio, considerados como las principales fuentes de N para los pastos marinos (Lee et al., 2007). Generalmente, los pastos marinos incorporan NID de manera más eficiente a través de sus hojas que de sus raíces

(Alexandre et al., 2015), aunque ambos compartimentos vegetativos pueden contribuir de manera importante al sustento de las necesidades de necesidades de N en la planta (Sandoval-Gil et al., 2015). El nitrato se incorpora mediante un sistema de transporte activo de alta afinidad y dependiente de sodio (Rubio et al., 2018). El amonio se incorpora a través de un sistema de baja afinidad basado en el movimiento pasivo de NH_4^+ a través de canales de membrana, y un sistema de alta afinidad con transporte activo (McGlathery, 2008). Se han documentado mayores valores de V_{\max} y α para el amonio, atribuidos a los menores costos metabólicos necesarios para su asimilación (Touchette y Burkholder, 2000) y a las características de los sistemas de transporte en la membrana plasmática (Rubio et al., 2018).

El nitrógeno orgánico disuelto (NOD) principalmente en forma de urea y aminoácidos, puede suponer una fuente importante de N complementaria para los pastos marinos en condiciones de baja disponibilidad de NID (La Nafie et al., 2014; Alexandre et al., 2015; Viana et al., 2019). Aunque se ha prestado menos atención a su estudio, la incorporación de NOD parece estar asociada a un sistema de transporte activo de alta afinidad y dependiente de sodio, similar al nitrato (Azcón-Bieto y Talón, 2013). Los pastos marinos pueden incorporar DON a tasas comparables a las de nitrato (Vonk et al., 2008; Van Engeland et al., 2011; Alexandre et al., 2015). No obstante, sus tasas de consumo son mucho menores que las correspondientes al NH_4^+ debido al elevado consumo de energía necesario para la absorción de DON (McGlathery, 2008).

Tras su incorporación, el N puede ser asimilado gracias a la actividad de distintas enzimas para luego ser almacenado y/o movilizado por translocación entre los compartimentos vegetativos (Viana et al., 2019). El nitrato se asimila a través de una reducción a nitrito por la enzima nitrato reductasa (NR) y después, el nitrito es reducido a amonio gracias a la enzima nitrito reductasa (NiR). El amonio se asimila a través del ciclo glutamina sintetasa (GS)/glutamato sintetasa (GOGAT) para la síntesis de aminoácidos (Touchette y Burkholder, 2000; Azcón-Bieto y Talón, 2013). Estos procesos se sustentan en la producción de energía metabólica y esqueletos de carbono provenientes de los procesos fotosintéticos (Azcón-Bieto y Talón, 2013).

De forma general, el uso eficiente del nitrógeno en los pastos marinos dependerá de i) la disponibilidad de los compuestos nitrogenados, ii) las capacidades de incorporar y asimilar N, iv) la capacidad de almacenar y reciclar N inorgánico y orgánico, y v) de la pérdida de compuestos de N por flujos de liberación/exudación.

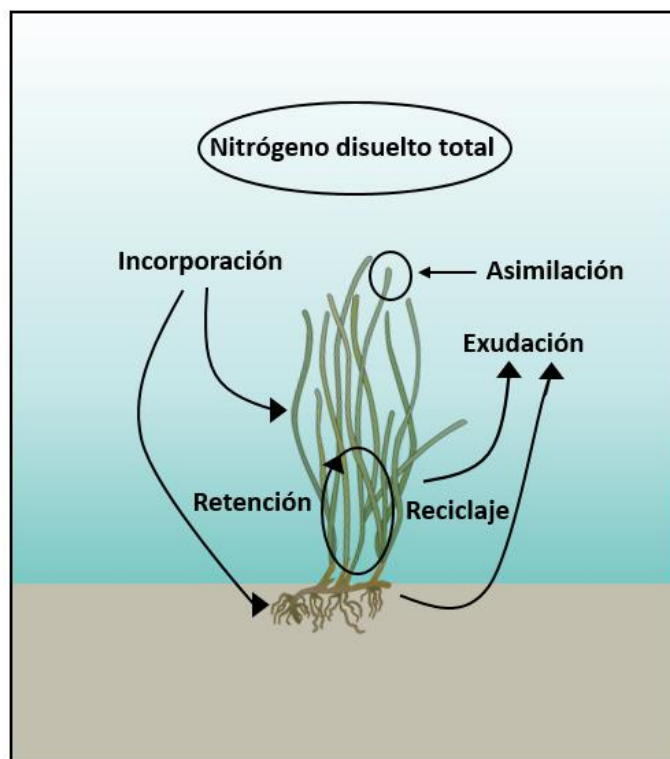


Figura 2. Representación esquemática de los principales flujos de N en un pasto marino.

3. Efectos del calentamiento en el metabolismo del N de los pastos marinos

En la actualidad, hay una creciente preocupación por comprender y anticipar los impactos del cambio climático en los ecosistemas costeros conformados por pastos marinos (Jordà et al., 2012; Koch et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2021a). En este contexto se ha observado que el aumento de la temperatura del agua de mar puede tener consecuencias en la

productividad, tasas metabólicas, estructura de la comunidad y distribución de los pastos marinos (Egea et al., 2018; Nguyen et al., 2021b; Egea et al., 2023; Smith et al., 2023). En comparación con el calentamiento paulatino de los océanos, el calentamiento anómalo y abrupto asociado a las olas de calor marinas (OCMs) puede provocar alteraciones más severas en las comunidades biológicas (Smith et al., 2023). En pastos marinos, estas alteraciones se han demostrado a sus distintos niveles biológicos, desde el metabólico al de comunidad (Koch et al., 2013; Thomson et al., 2015; Arias-Ortiz et al., 2018; Smale et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2023; Egea et al., 2023). Una OCM se define como un aumento temporal (mínimo 5 días) y anómalo en la temperatura superficial del mar, con temperaturas superiores al percentil 90 según un período de referencia histórico de 30 años (McGregor et al., 2015; Hobday et al., 2016), aunque existen diversos tipos de OCMs (moderadas, fuertes, severas y extremas) clasificadas por su intensidad y duración (Hobday et al., 2018). Los modelos climáticos proyectan un aumento en la intensidad y la frecuencia de las OCMs (Oliver et al., 2018; Marín et al., 2021), por lo que es crítico realizar estudios que predigan su impacto. Existe una cantidad considerable de información sobre los efectos del estrés térmico en varios aspectos ecofisiológicos de los pastos marinos (p.e., fotosíntesis; Marín-Guirao et al., 2019; Serrano et al., 2019; Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2022). Sin embargo, las respuestas específicas relacionadas con el metabolismo del nitrógeno (N) son mucho más escasas (Ontoria et al., 2019; Alexandre et al., 2020; Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2023). Algunos estudios han documentado que las OCMs pueden afectar negativamente las capacidades de incorporar y retener N en *Phyllospadix scouleri* y *Cymodocea nodosa* (Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2023; Ontoria et al., 2019), mientras que otros trabajos han encontrado el efecto contrario (Alexandre et al., 2020). Muchos de los estudios realizados hasta la fecha se han centrado en evaluar el efecto de un mismo tipo de OCM, basado en un único incremento de temperatura mantenido durante un periodo determinado (Costa et al., 2021; Deguette et al., 2022; Egea et al., 2023). Las características de las OCMs pueden ser diversas, y otros trabajos (aunque escasos) se ha preocupado por integrarlas en sus diseños experimentales (DuBois et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2020; Saha et al., 2020; Pazzaglia et al., 2022; Vivanco-Bercovich, 2023). Se necesita seguir avanzando en el conocimiento de las respuestas de pastos marinos en distintos escenarios posibles de

calentamiento, como OCMs de diferente intensidad y recurrentes, así como incluir periodos experimentales de recuperación de la temperatura a niveles promedio. Sin duda, esto es indispensable para un mejor examen de la tolerancia y resiliencia de pastos marinos frente a este tipo de estresor térmico.

4. *Phyllospadix* spp. en Baja California y olas de calor marinas

En las costas del Pacífico Norteamericano, se encuentran las extensas praderas de *Phyllospadix scouleri* y *Phyllospadix torreyi*, comúnmente llamadas en inglés como *surfgrasses*. Estos pastos marinos dominan desde la franja intermareal hasta los ~7 m de profundidad, conformando praderas con elevada productividad vegetativa (> 8000 g PS m⁻² por año; Ramírez-García et al., 1998; García-Pantoja et al., 2020). Los extremos de su distribución se localizan desde Columbia Británica (Canadá) hasta Isla Margarita en la península de Baja California Sur (México; Den Hartog 1970; Phillips 1979) y son los únicos pastos marinos insulares presentes en la Reserva de la Biósfera Islas del Pacífico de Baja California. Estas especies se diferencian de la mayoría de los pastos marinos porque presentan particularidades anatómicas, morfológicas (p.ej., rizomas engrosados y con la superficie ondulada) y fisiológicas (Ruiz-Montoya et al., 2021) que les confieren una elevada capacidad para colonizar sustratos rocosos y soportar la exposición a un hidrodinamismo y oleaje extremo (Cooper y McRoy 1988; Barnabas 1994; Kuo y Stewart 1995). Además, en comparación con otros pastos marinos, sus hojas muestran tasas de incorporación de N notablemente altas, presumiblemente para compensar su baja absorción por las raíces (Terrados y Williams, 1997). Ya que *Phyllospadix* spp. presenta una elevada biomasa (2800 g PS m⁻²) perenne, y su distribución en el intermareal coincide con zonas urbanizadas, se ha propuesto que podrían funcionar como biofiltros para vertidos de aguas residuales (García-Pantoja et al., 2020), aunque no existe evidencia empírica de dicha afirmación. A pesar de conformar comunidades de alto valor ecológico y económico (Ramírez-García et al., 1998), se sabe muy poco acerca de aspectos ecofisiológicos y los descriptores relacionados con el metabolismo de N de

estas especies; esto se acentúa aún más al comparar con la información disponible con la especie *Zostera marina*, también formadora de comunidades clímax en bahías y esteros de esta región (Cabello-Pasini et al., 2003; Den Hartog y Kuo 2006; Sandoval-Gil et al., 2016).

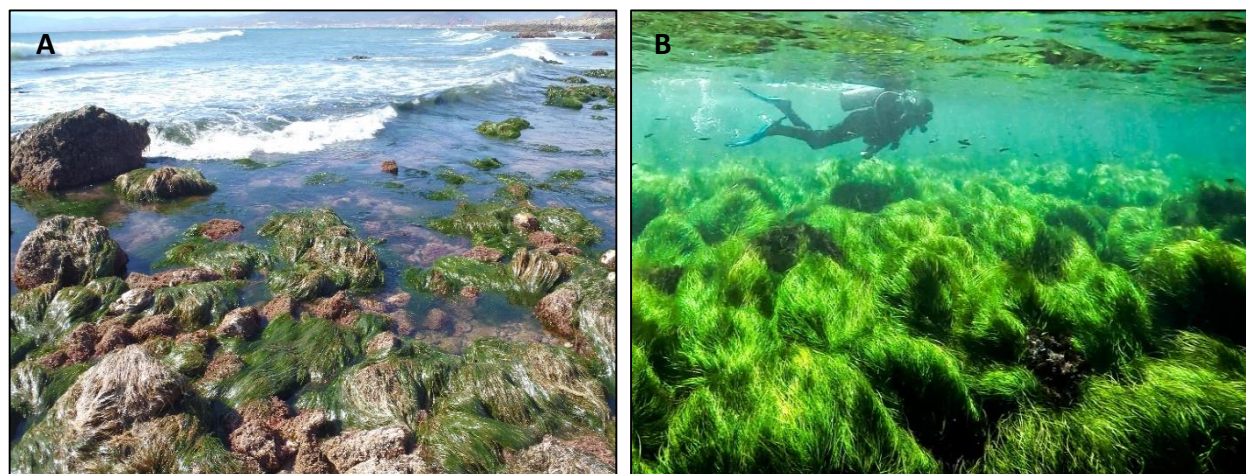


Figura 3. Las praderas mixtas de *Phyllospadix torreyi* y *Phyllospadix scouleri*. (A) En la zona intermareal de la costa de Ensenada y (B) en la zona submareal de la Isla de Todos Santos, Baja California.

En los últimos años, la costa de Baja California (México) ha experimentado una sucesión de olas de calor marinas (OCMs; Bond et al., 2015; Sen Gupta et al., 2020, Wei et al., 2021). La más significativa, conocida como "the Blob", ocurrió entre 2013 y 2015, y resultó en anomalías térmicas de hasta +5 °C a más de 50 m de profundidad (Bond et al., 2015; Zaba y Rudnick, 2016; Sen Gupta et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2021). En esta región, ya se ha demostrado que las anomalías térmicas asociadas a las OCMs y ENSO pueden impactar a la productividad y estructura de las comunidades de macrófitos marinos, como a las praderas de *Z. marina* (Echavarría et al., 2006) y a los bosques de algas pardas Laminariales (Arafeh-Dalmau et al., 2020). Algunos estudios indican que el crecimiento y la supervivencia de *Phyllospadix* spp. pueden verse comprometidos bajo condiciones de calentamiento (Drysdale y Barbour, 1975). Sin embargo la información acerca de los

potenciales efectos de OCMs en la ecofisiología de estas especies es aún muy escasa (Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2022; Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2023).

5. Objetivos

Objetivo general: evaluar los flujos y el metabolismo del nitrógeno en *Phyllospadix scouleri*, y su variación ante distintos escenarios de calentamiento asociados al impacto de olas de calor marinas.

Para lograr este objetivo, se llevaron a cabo dos experimentos de mesocosmos, correspondientes a dos objetivos específicos.

Objetivos específicos

- i) Evaluar la capacidad de *P. scouleri* para actuar como biofiltro de vertidos de aguas residuales, así como analizar su variación ante la exposición a una única OCM o dos OCMs consecutivas.
- ii) Evaluar los efectos de la OCMs de diferente intensidad sobre el metabolismo y flujos de N (incorporación, asimilación y exudación) de *P.scouleri*

La tesis está estructurada en dos capítulos, en formato de artículo científico. En el **Capítulo I** se comparan las respuestas del metabolismo del N en *Phyllospadix scouleri* frente a la exposición de una única OCM o dos OMCs consecutivas. En el **Capítulo II**, se comparan los efectos de OCMs de diferente intensidad (severa y extrema) y el periodo post-OCMs en el metabolismo y flujos de N en *P.scouleri*.

Tabla 1. Características generales y descriptores biológicos correspondientes a los dos experimentos realizados.

	Experimento 1 (Capítulo 1)	Experimento 2 (Capítulo 2)
<i>Tema general</i>	OCM única y OCMs consecutivas	OCMs de diferente intensidad (severa y extrema)
<i>Especie utilizada</i>	<i>P. scouleri</i>	<i>P. scouleri</i>
<i>Pradera donadora</i>	Isla Todos Santos	Isla Todos Santos
<i>Fecha</i>	Agosto 2020	Octubre 2021
<i>Mesocosmos</i>	Indoor	Outdoor
<i>Duración total del experimento</i>	39 días	27 días
<i>Temperatura promedio de la OCM</i>	24°C	22-25°C
<i>Temperatura máxima de la OCM</i>	24°C	25-28°C
<i>Temperatura del control</i>	18°C	17-20°C
<i>OCMs consecutivas</i>	✓	
<i>Periodos post OCM</i>		✓
Descriptores		
<i>Cinéticas de incorporación de nitrógeno</i>	✓	✓
<i>Enzimas asimilatorias</i>	✓	✓
<i>Capacidad de biofiltración</i>	✓	
<i>Contenido de nitrógeno total</i>	✓	✓
<i>Flujo de nitrógeno disuelto total</i>		✓

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CAPÍTULO 1 – Marine heatwaves can limit the role of surfgrasses as biofilters for wastewaters

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ABSTRACT

Marine heatwaves (MHWs) can have detrimental effects on seagrasses, but knowledge about the impacts on their ecosystem services remains scarce. This work evaluated *Phyllospadix scouleri* (surfgrass) as a biofilter for wastewater discharges, and how warming associated with MHW may affect this ecological function. The nitrogen uptake kinetics and assimilation abilities for ammonium, nitrate, and urea were examined under two different warming scenarios (single and repeated events) simulated in a mesocosm. N-uptake kinetics were related to urban sewage discharges close to surfgrass meadows. Our results revealed that surfgrasses can serve as effective biofilters because of their high nitrogen uptake rates and above-average canopy biomass. Nonetheless, exposure to both experimental warmings resulted in a significant decline in their ability to incorporate and assimilate nitrogen. Consequently, MHWs may reduce the capacity of surfgrasses to function as nitrogen sinks and green filters for sewage waters, jeopardizing their role as Blue Nitrogen systems.

Keywords: *Phyllospadix scouleri*, nitrogen uptake, nitrogen assimilation, climate change, wastewater.

1. Introduction

Seagrasses of the genus *Phyllospadix*, commonly called surfgrasses (*Phyllospadix torreyi* and *Phyllospadix scouleri*), form vast meadows that dominate the rocky intertidal landscapes along the North American Pacific coasts, from British Columbia in Canada to Baja California, Mexico (Ramírez-García et al., 2002). As documented for other seagrasses (de los Santos et al., 2020), the extensive distribution and high productivity of

sufgrasses have the potential to support various socioecological benefits. However, these benefits remain largely unexplored.

Seagrasses can act as effective biofilters, removing nutrients from the water column and limiting eutrophication (Sandoval-Gil et al., 2016; Bernardeau-Esteller et al., 2023). The biofiltering potential of surfgrasses is facilitated by their presence in the intertidal and shallow subtidal bottoms which usually overlaps with wastewater discharges in urbanized areas. Further, their very long leaves and high shoot biomass (up to ~115 cm and ~2800 g DW m⁻², Ramírez-García et al., 1998) provide a substantial amount of plant surface, which can effectively remove and trap nutrients (García-Pantoja, 2023). As compared to other seagrasses, their leaves can take up nitrogen at higher external concentrations, likely compensating for their low N uptake by roots (Terrados and Williams, 1997).

P. torreyi and *P. scouleri* meadows can help to maintain water quality in urban areas that are typically impacted by sewage discharges (Tanahara et al., 2021).

Like other seagrass species, surfgrasses are threatened by anthropogenic climate forcings such as global warming and marine heatwaves (Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2021). Warming associated with marine heatwaves (MHWs) can negatively affect seagrasses by altering their metabolism, productivity, community structure, and distribution (Nguyen et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2023). MHWs are projected to increase in frequency and intensity (IPCC, 2022), and their impacts in seagrass ecosystems can be devastating (Arias-Ortiz et al., 2018). Particularly in Baja California (Mexico), MHWs and other warming anomalies (e.g., El Niño-Southern Oscillation) have had adverse effects on the productivity and structure of seagrass meadows (e.g., *Zostera marina*; Echavarría-Heras et al., 2006) and other marine forests (Arafah- Dalmau et al., 2020). However, the effects of seawater warming on surfgrasses have received little attention (Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2021). As a result, we still lack a full understanding of how this phenomenon affects their socio-ecological services, including their role as biofilters.

The value of seagrasses as biofilters is dependent on their high N uptake/assimilation rates, the retention capacity of N in the plant's clonal structure, and the complex interaction between biotic/abiotic factors that condition N-fluxes in the population (McGlathery, 2008). These characteristics also dictate the efficacy of seagrasses as naturebased solutions to mitigate eutrophication and as Blue Nitrogen systems, a term recently introduced by

Hughes et al. (2022). Although there is substantial research on the effects of thermal stress on various of their physiological attributes (e.g., photosynthesis and respiration; Serrano et al., 2021a, 2021b; Deguette et al., 2022), the effect on N-metabolism is practically unexplored (Kaldy, 2014; Ontoria et al., 2019; Alexandre et al., 2020).

The purpose of this study was to assess the capacity of *P. scouleri* to act as biofilters for wastewater discharges by measuring the uptake rates of ammonium, nitrate, and urea. The activity of key enzymes involved in nitrogen assimilation, glutamine synthetase and nitrate reductase, were also quantified. Additionally, the study analyzed the effects of warming on these descriptors of nitrogen metabolism. The experiment included the simulation of single and repeated MHWs in a mesocosm.

2. Material and methods

Plant collection and experimental design

Phyllospadix scouleri plants were collected in August 2020 at Todos Santos Bay (31° 48'25.66" N, 116° 47'46.41" W). Whole plants (including orthotropic and plagiotropic shoots, rhizomes, and roots) were collected to preserve their clonal structure. The plants were transported to the laboratory within 2 h, in large coolers filled with seawater. Subsequently, they were placed in twelve independent tanks (~200 shoots per tank, 60 L) filled with filtered seawater (1 µm, UV). The tanks were continuously aerated, while water circulation and temperature were regulated by submersible pumps, chillers, and heaters. LED lamps supplied an irradiance level of approximately 150 µmol photon m⁻² s⁻¹ to the leaves, and a photoperiod of 10 L: 14D was adjusted to obtain a light dose of about 3.6 mol photon m⁻² day⁻¹. Light and temperature were adjusted based on average values recorded at the collection site by submersible sensors Onset-HOBO MX2202, which were previously calibrated against a 2π quantum radiometer (LI190R; LI-COR, Bioscience). *P. scouleri* plants were kept at a constant temperature (18 °C) and irradiance for five days. After this short acclimation period, four independent tanks were assigned to each of the three experimental treatments. In the control treatment (C), the temperature was maintained at a constant at 18 °C. The MHW treatment exposed the plants to a single heatwave, while the MHWx2 treatment exposed them to two consecutive heatwaves.

The temperature and duration of the experimental MHWs (24 °C for 7 days), the time interval between heatwaves in MHWx2 (5 days), and the rates of temperature increase/decrease at the onset/conclusion of the heatwaves (± 2 °C per day), were determined using recorded data from the donor meadow (Fig. S1 in Suppl. Mat.; data sourced from Marine Heatwave Tracker, Schlegel, 2020). The experimental MHWs fell under category III (severe) according to the classification proposed by Hobday et al. (2018). The salinity was kept constant (33–33.5 ‰) by adding de-ionized water, while pH was maintained within similar conditions of the sampling site (7.9–8.1). Salinity and pH levels were monitored using a submersible multi-parameter probe (YSI Pro Plus, USA). The water quality was maintained by partially replacing seawater every three days. The analysis of various biological descriptors (outlined below) was conducted at the conclusion of the heatwave in treatment MHW, and at the end of the second heatwave in the treatment MHWx2.

Nitrogen uptake kinetics, N-content, and N-assimilatory enzymes

To measure the kinetics of N uptake, the shoots were incubated for 30 min under four different concentrations of isotopically labeled ammonium, nitrate, and urea (5, 20, 40, and 100 μM ; $^{15}\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$, K^{15}NO_3 , ^{15}N -urea, al. % = 99; Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) diluted with artificial seawater. These wide ranges of N concentrations were selected to determine the plant's N-uptake rates at N-concentrations similar to those measured in surfgrass meadows close to wastewater discharges (see Tanahara et al., 2021 for a complete description of the concentrations and analytical procedures). The incubations were conducted in separate transparent plastic chambers (6 L), with one chamber dedicated to each nutrient and concentration ($n = 3$). Each incubation was made with three shoots randomly collected from each tank and treatment (C, MHW, and MHWx2), keeping a weight: volume ratio of $\sim 0.3 \text{ g FW L}^{-1}$. To preserve the vegetative integrity, a small portion ($\sim 1 \text{ cm}$) of the rhizome was conserved in each shoot. Incubations were carried out in large laboratory incubators (VWR). The temperature and irradiance were kept at the same levels as those of the respective treatments. Nitrogen uptake rates were calculated following the equations in Sandoval-Gil et al. (2016). Briefly, uptake rates were plotted against substrate concentration (μM), and the uptake kinetic parameters were

derived using the Michaelis–Menten model [i.e., $V = (V_{\max} \times S) / (K_m + S)$], where V is the uptake rate ($\mu\text{mol N g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$), V_{\max} is maximum uptake rate ($\mu\text{mol N g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$), S is substrate concentration (μM), and K_m represents the half-saturation constant (μM). The affinity constant (α) was calculated as V_{\max}/K_m . Total N content was analyzed in four shoots not exposed to isotopically labeled N, that were randomly collected from each tank and treatment. Dried and ground leaf tissues were analyzed for ^{15}N and N-content at the University of California Davis-Stable Isotope Facility, using an elemental analyzer interfaced with a continuous flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer. The potential uptake rates at N-concentrations of the wastewater discharges (V_{amb}) near surfgrass meadows were calculated from the Michaelis–Menten equations obtained above and nutrient data from Tanahara et al. (2021).

Nitrogen content (% N) was determined in leaf tissues of three shoots per tank and treatment, following Sandoval-Gil et al. (2016).

The enzymes responsible for N-assimilation were analyzed in the leaf tissues of three shoots per tank and treatment. The nitrate reductase (NR) activity was measured *in vivo*, following the method described by Alexandre et al. (2004). Glutamine synthetase activity (GS) was measured *in vitro*, according to the method described by Sagi et al. (2002).

Statistical analysis

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and pairwise multiple comparisons (*post-hoc* Tukey test) were used to test for significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in V_{\max} , K_m , and %N among treatments (C, MHW, MHWx2). The Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene test, respectively, verified the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity. When these assumptions were not met, even after data transformation, a non-parametric analysis were used (Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Mann-Whitney U test). This was the case for V_{\max} and K_m from nitrate uptake rates, GS, and NR. All statistical analyses were performed using the SIGMAPLOT 11 statistical package (Systat Software Inc, USA).

3. Results

The uptake rates of ammonium, nitrate and urea fitted well ($R^2 > 0.98$, $p < 0.05$) to the Michaelis–Menten model (Fig. 1A–C). Values of V_{\max} for ammonium and nitrate significantly decreased by ~ 70 – 76 % ($F = 59.13$, $p < 0.001$; $F = 25.78$, $p = 0.001$) in plants exposed to single and double marine heatwaves (MHW, MHWx2) relative to control plants (Fig. 1D, E). The half-saturation constant (K_m) for these nutrients followed a similar trend since warmed plants showed 2–4-fold lower values than control plants (Fig. 1G, H; $F = 21.97$, $p = 0.002$; $F = 5.19$, $p = 0.048$). V_{\max} and K_m for urea did not vary significantly among treatments, even though lower values were detected in the MHW treatment (Fig. 2F, I). The affinity (α) for ammonium was ~ 170 % higher in MHWx2 than in control plants (Fig. 1J). In contrast, control plants exhibited the highest α for nitrate (2 to 3-fold higher than MHW and MHWx2; Fig. 1K). Values of α for urea increased by ~ 265 % in MHW plants compared to C and MHWx2 (Fig. 1L).

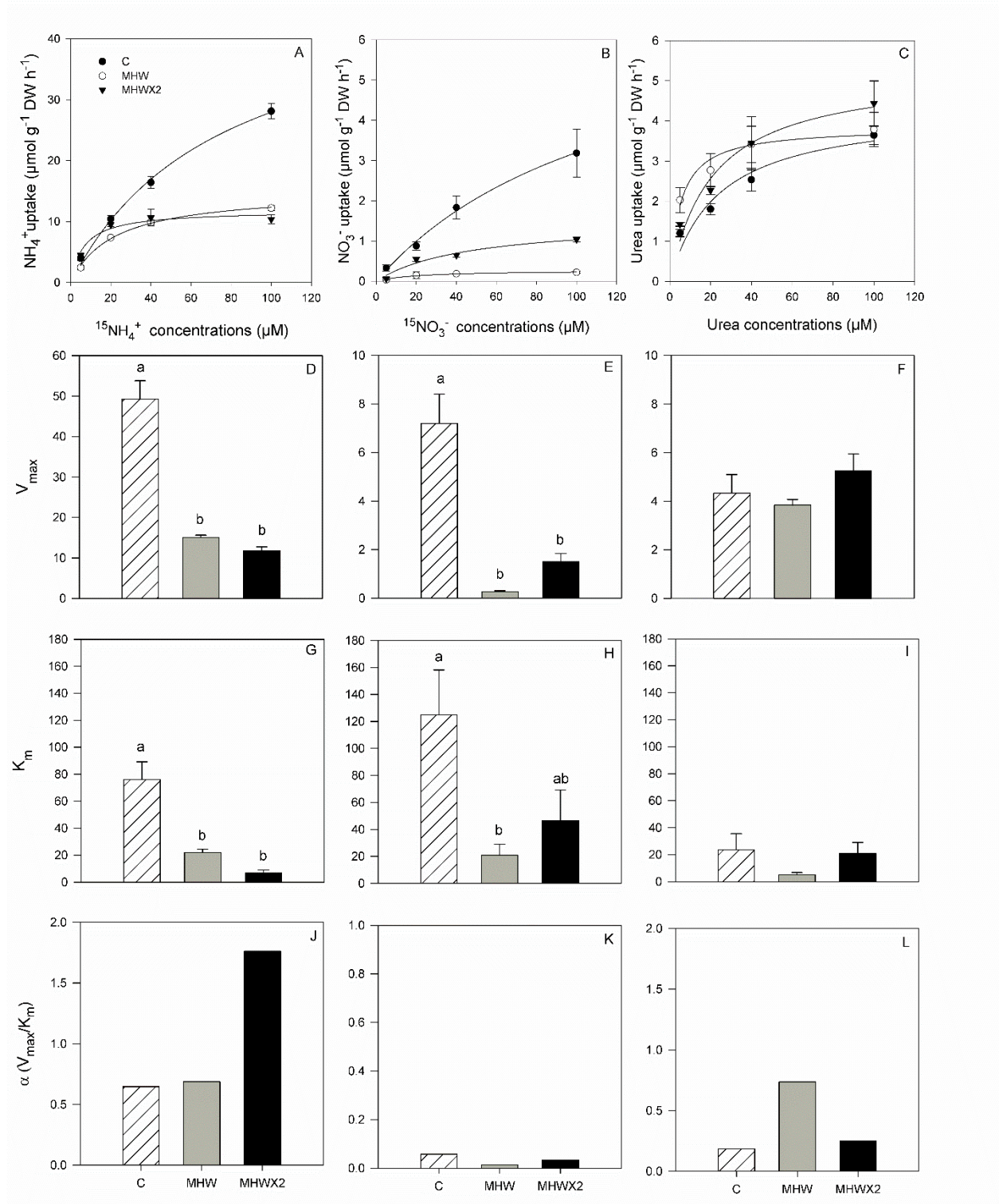


Figure 1. Kinetics of the uptake rates ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) for (A) ammonium, (B) nitrate and (C) urea measured in *P. scouleri* under the different experimental treatments, C

(control, 18 °C), MHW (exposure to a warming of 24 °C), and MHWx2 (exposure to two consecutive warmings). The descriptors derived from N-uptake kinetics are also showed: Maximum uptake rates (V_{max} ; D–F), half-saturation constant (K_m ; G–I), and uptake affinity (α ; J–L). Statistical differences among treatments are indicated by different letters. Values are mean \pm standard error ($n = 3$).

The activity of the enzymes nitrate reductase (NR) and glutamine synthetase (GS) was significantly decreased in plants exposed to repeated warming (MHWx2) compared to the control ($H = 14.69$, $p < 0.001$; $H = 16.34$, $p < 0.001$). This reduction was more pronounced for NR (- 85 %) than for GS (- 38 %) (Fig. 2).

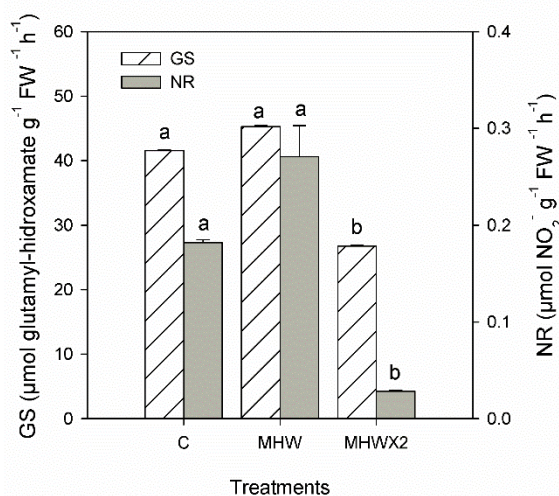


Figure 2. Activity of the enzymes glutamine synthetase (GS) and nitrate reductase (NR) measured in *P. scouleri* under the different experimental treatments, C (control, 18 °C), MHW (exposure to a warming of 24 °C), and MHWx2 (exposure to two consecutive warmings). Statistical differences among treatments are indicated by different letters. Values are mean \pm standard error ($n = 3$).

Ammonium, nitrate, and urea concentrations in the areas receiving the wastewater discharges in Todos Santos Bay ranged from 0.01 to 170, 0 to 45.41, and 0.019 to 0.26 μM , respectively (Fig. 3; data from Tanahara et al., 2021). The ammonium uptake rates at ambient concentrations (V_{amb}) did not saturate in control plants, even at maximum

concentrations of $\sim 170 \mu\text{M}$ (Fig. 3A). This means that the uptake of ammonium by *P. scouleri* at the range of ammonium concentrations in wastewaters is below saturation levels, showing the high capacity of this species to take up ammonium from wastewater-impacted environments. On the other hand, the ammonium uptake rates of plants exposed to MHW and MHWx2, saturated at concentrations above $50 \mu\text{M}$, showing a significant reduction in the uptake capacity of *P. scouleri*. The uptake rates of nitrate did not saturate within the range of concentrations in sewage waters in any of the warming treatments. Still, these decreased by $\sim 82\%$ for MHW and $\sim 48\%$ for MHWx2 relative to control plants (Fig. 3B). Mean values of V_{amb} for nitrate were higher in control plants ($0.05 \pm 0.008 \mu\text{mol N g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) than in MHW (0.009 ± 0.001) and MHWx2 (0.026 ± 0.003). The maximum concentration of urea in the bay wastewaters ($0.26 \mu\text{M}$) was well below the K_m calculated from the uptake kinetics of *P. scouleri* in both treatments ($5\text{--}25 \mu\text{M}$; Fig. 3C). Mean values of V_{amb} for urea were higher in plants exposed to MHW (0.05 ± 0.0004) than to MHWx2 or control ($0.01 \pm 0.001 \mu\text{mol N g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$). Leaf %N of *P. scouleri* was not significantly different among treatments ($F = 0.38$, $p = 0.69$), and values ranged from 2.41 to 2.54 % DW.

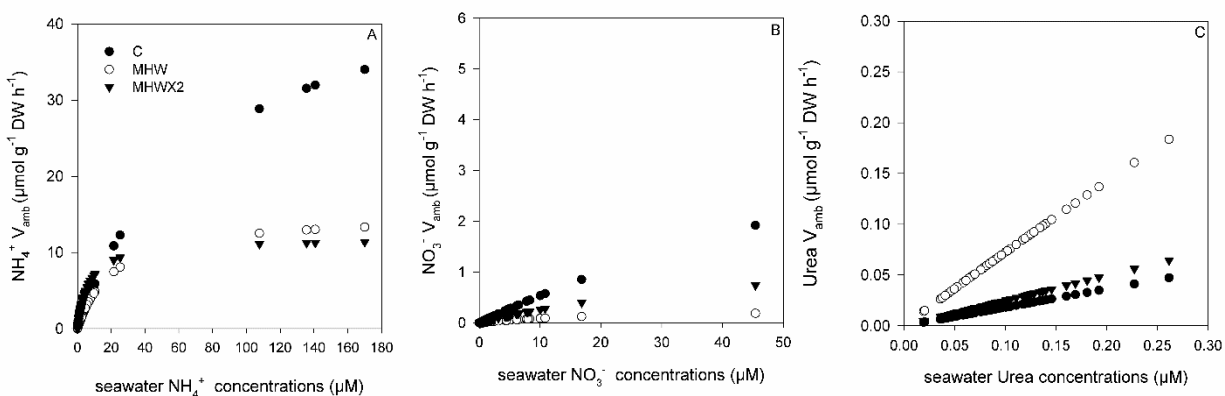


Figure 3. Potential N-uptake rates of *P. scouleri* at ambient concentrations (V_{amb}) of ammonium (A), nitrate (B) and urea (C) from wastewater discharges, under the different experimental treatments: C (control, 18°C), MHW (exposure to a warming of 24°C), and MHWx2 (exposure to two consecutive warmings).

4. Discussion

The N-uptake capacities of *Phyllospadix scouleri* measured in our study were generally higher than those reported for other seagrass species. The maximum uptake rates and half-saturation constant for ammonium and nitrate ($V_{\max} \sim 49$ and $\sim 7 \mu\text{mol N g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$; $K_m \sim 76$ and $\sim 124 \mu\text{M}$) in this species greatly surpass maximum values found in other temperate seagrasses, like *Zostera noltii*, *Halophila stipulacea*, *Cymodocea nodosa*, *Zostera marina*, or *Amphibolis antarctica* (refer to Table S1; Touchette and Burkholder, 2000; Alexandre et al., 2011; Alexandre et al., 2014; Alexandre and Santos, 2020). The ammonium affinity constant ($\alpha = 0.64$) is also comparable to the highest values measured for other seagrasses (Table S1; Touchette and Burkholder, 2000; Alexandre et al., 2011; Li et al., 2020). Although studies on urea uptake kinetics are scarce, our data indicate that uptake rates for this compound can be higher than those measured in other seagrasses (e.g., *Thalassia hemprichii*, *Halodule uninervis*, and *Cymodocea rotundata*; Vonk et al., 2008). Moreover, the uptake rates for all nitrogen sources showed no saturation within the wide range of concentrations observed in wastewater discharges in Todos Santos Bay, and therefore, *P. scouleri* could efficiently remove nutrients available in the surrounding environment. The high V_{\max} for ammonium is noteworthy as it aids in the successful removal of this nutrient directly from seawater that is heavily influenced by wastewaters, even when concentrations are as high as $170 \mu\text{M}$. This has been also documented in *Z. marina*, supporting its biofiltering role for ammonium excreted by oysters in a coastal lagoon (Sandoval-Gil et al., 2016). The N-uptake kinetic of *P. scouleri*, along with its high and long-lasting (perennial) aboveground biomass productivity (Ramírez-García et al., 1998; García-Pantoja, 2023), establish it as an effective biofilter for urban wastewaters. The capacity for removing ammonium may be greater than that of nitrate and urea, due to a 10-fold higher V_{\max} and α for the former (refer to control values in Fig. 2). These differences have been linked to the greater metabolic costs of assimilating nitrate and urea (Touchette and Burkholder, 2000), as well as the features of their plasma membrane transportation mechanisms (Rubio et al., 2007; Rubio et al., 2018). Although the uptake of urea saturated at lower concentrations than those of nitrate (i.e., urea $K_m <$ nitrate- K_m), the similar values of α indicate that both could be incorporated similarly at sub-saturating

concentrations. This also reinforces the notion of urea as a complementary nitrogen source, as shown in other seagrasses (Vonk et al., 2008; La Nafie et al., 2014).

Our results indicate that exposure of *P. scouleri* to both single and repeated MHWs resulted in a significant decline in V_{max} (from ~ 50 to $\sim 10 \mu\text{mol N g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$) and K_m (from ~ 80 to $\sim 15 \mu\text{M}$) for ammonium. Meanwhile, exposure to MHWx2 increased the affinity for ammonium by nearly 3-fold. This indicates that repeated MHWs have the potential to enhance the uptake of nutrients at lower (sub-saturating) concentrations, while significantly decreasing the capacity of *P. scouleri* to act as a biofilter at saturating ammonium concentration. As shown in Fig. 3A, values of V_{max} dropped from ~ 30 to $10 \mu\text{mol N g}^{-1} \text{DW h}^{-1}$ at external concentrations above $100 \mu\text{M}$. Repeated heatwaves strongly reduce V_{max} , K_m , and α , leading to a decrease in *P. scouleri*'s nitrate removal capacity. Warming also induced a decline in the activity of N-assimilatory enzymes, GS and NR. This implies that MHWs can compromise not only N-incorporation but also its assimilation, retention and utilization as internal N organic compounds. The activities of GS and NR activities only decreased in the MHWx2 treatment, which may indicate the physiological deterioration of *P. scouleri* following repeated warming events. Similar experimental conditions for this species have previously shown evidence of metabolic decline in key biological traits such as photosynthesis (Vivanco-Bercovich, 2023). However, our findings contradict the previously observed increase in nitrogen uptake/assimilation observed for other seagrasses when exposed to warming (e.g., *Z. noltii* and *Z. marina*; Alexandre et al., 2004; Kaldy, 2014; Alexandre et al., 2020). These discrepancies may potentially be explained by differences in methodological approaches (e.g., warming intensity and duration) and species-specific responses to warming, but further evidence is needed to fully understand the underlying factors. In our study, the heatwaves did not affect the maximum uptake capacity of *P. scouleri* for incorporating urea, although its uptake affinity increased after a single heatwave. This indicates that the transmembrane transports for DIN and DON displayed different thermo-sensitivity (Glass, 2003), potentially supporting the removal of urea from urban sewage discharges.

Based on measurements of *P. scouleri* canopy biomass at the collection site and other surfgrass beds ($\sim 2800 \text{ g DW m}^{-2}$; Ramírez-García et al., 2002; García-Pantoja, 2023), and assuming that maximum ammonium, nitrate and urea concentrations (i.e., 170, 45.41

and 0.26 μM , respectively) are present at mean sewage flow rates of 50–500 L/s, a meadow covering area of approximately 84 m^{-2} could completely remove all N inputs. This meadow area represents a small fraction of the surfgrass's total area along its bathymetric distribution (Ramírez-García et al., 1998). Considering that MHWs can dramatically reduce the nutrient biofiltering capacities of *P. scouleri*, larger areas of surfgrass meadows will be required to eliminate all nitrogen in wastewater effluents. Severe alterations in plant growth and meadow structure resulting from MHWs, along with adverse synergistic effects resulting from light limitation associated with nutrient loading, could further reduce the biofiltration capacity of the ecosystem (Vivanco-Bercovich et al., 2021).

Using the nitrogen stock biomass from Todos Santos Bay (2.54 % N, 2800 g DW m^{-2} ; García-Pantoja, 2023), we estimate that *P. scouleri* meadows have the ability to retain up to $70.74 \pm 11.52 \text{ g N m}^{-2}$. This represents a high N retention capacity compared to other species, e.g., *Enhalus acoroides* (11 g N m^{-2} ; Ashikin et al., 2019), *Phyllospadix iwatensis* (34 g N m^{-2} ; Hasegawa et al., 2005), and *Z. marina* (50 g N m^{-2} ; Park et al., 2013). The nitrogen retention capacity of *P. scouleri* is thought to derive from its high leaf biomass. However, the exudation of organic nitrogen compounds, translocation mechanisms, and leaf longevity also have a significant impact on the plant's internal nitrogen storage capacity (Hasegawa et al., 2005). While the retention of nitrogen by surfgrass meadows appears to be less influenced by warming, compared to their uptake kinetics and assimilatory activities, the accumulation of nitrogen may be threatened indirectly by the effects of marine heatwaves (MHWs). Thus, the presence of MHWs may not only compromise the ability to remove DIN from the water column, but also hinder the potential to assimilate and store these nitrogen compounds in plant compartments.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, our study demonstrates the potential significance of surfgrasses as nitrogen sinks and natural biofilters in urbanized shores with sewage or wastewater discharges, adding relevance to the Blue Nitrogen ecosystem service. However, we also discovered that MHWs have negative implications on the N-metabolism of surfgrasses, resulting in a reduction in their ability to remove nutrients from the water column and assimilate them. This ultimately limits their role as natural biofilters. However, our knowledge of the functionality of seagrasses as green filters and Blue Nitrogen systems is still developing, requiring further research efforts to investigate critical knowledge gaps. Examples of such gaps include the recovery capacities of surfgrasses after MHWs, specific responses of ecotypes, the interaction with their epiphytic microbiome, and with other environmental stressors associated with wastewater discharges (e.g., reduction in water transparency). The preservation of surfgrass ecosystems can be deemed a nature-based approach to mitigate coastal eutrophication.

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7. Supplementary material

Table S1. Leaf nitrogen uptake kinetic parameters of seagrass species. The parameters were estimated based on the Michaelis–Menten model. V_{\max} = maximum uptake rate ($\mu\text{mol N g}^{-1}$ dry weight h^{-1}); K_m = half-saturation constant (μM); and α = affinity coefficient (V_{\max}/K_m). These data have been obtained from works after Touchette and Burkholder (2000) and Alexandre et al. (2011), who already presented summary tables for previous studies.

Species	Nutrient	V_{\max}	K_m	α	Source
<i>Halophila stipulacea</i>	NH_4^+	9.79	57.95	0.17	Alexandre et al., 2014
<i>Zostera marina</i>	NH_4^+	40-102	50-210	0.20-0.95	Sandoval-Gil et al., 2015
<i>Zostera marina</i>	NH_4^+	28.91-82.08	49.92-150.62	0.55-0.65	Alexandre et al., 2020
<i>Cymodocea nodosa</i>	NH_4^+	14.90	44.38	0.34	Alexandre and Santos, 2020
<i>Zostera marina</i>	NH_4^+	51.8	68.1	0.76	Li et al., 2020
<i>Phyllospadix scouleri</i>	NH_4^+	49.22	76.13	0.64	This study
<i>Zostera marina</i>	NO_3^-	0.50-6.50	5-60	0.10-0.60	Sandoval- Gil et al., 2015
<i>Posidonia oceanica</i>	NO_3^-	6.30	8.70	1.38	Rubio et al., 2018
<i>Zostera marina</i>	NO_3^-	0.59-2.19	1.75-6.56	0.29-0.41	Alexandre et al., 2020
<i>Cymodocea nodosa</i>	NO_3^-	1.66	9.19	1.27	Alexandre and Santos, 2020
<i>Zostera marina</i>	NO_3^-	39.1	68.6	0.56	Li et al., 2020
<i>Phyllospadix. scouleri</i>	NO_3^-	7.18	124.76	0.05	This study
<i>Phyllospadix scouleri</i>	Urea	4.32	23.61	0.18	This study

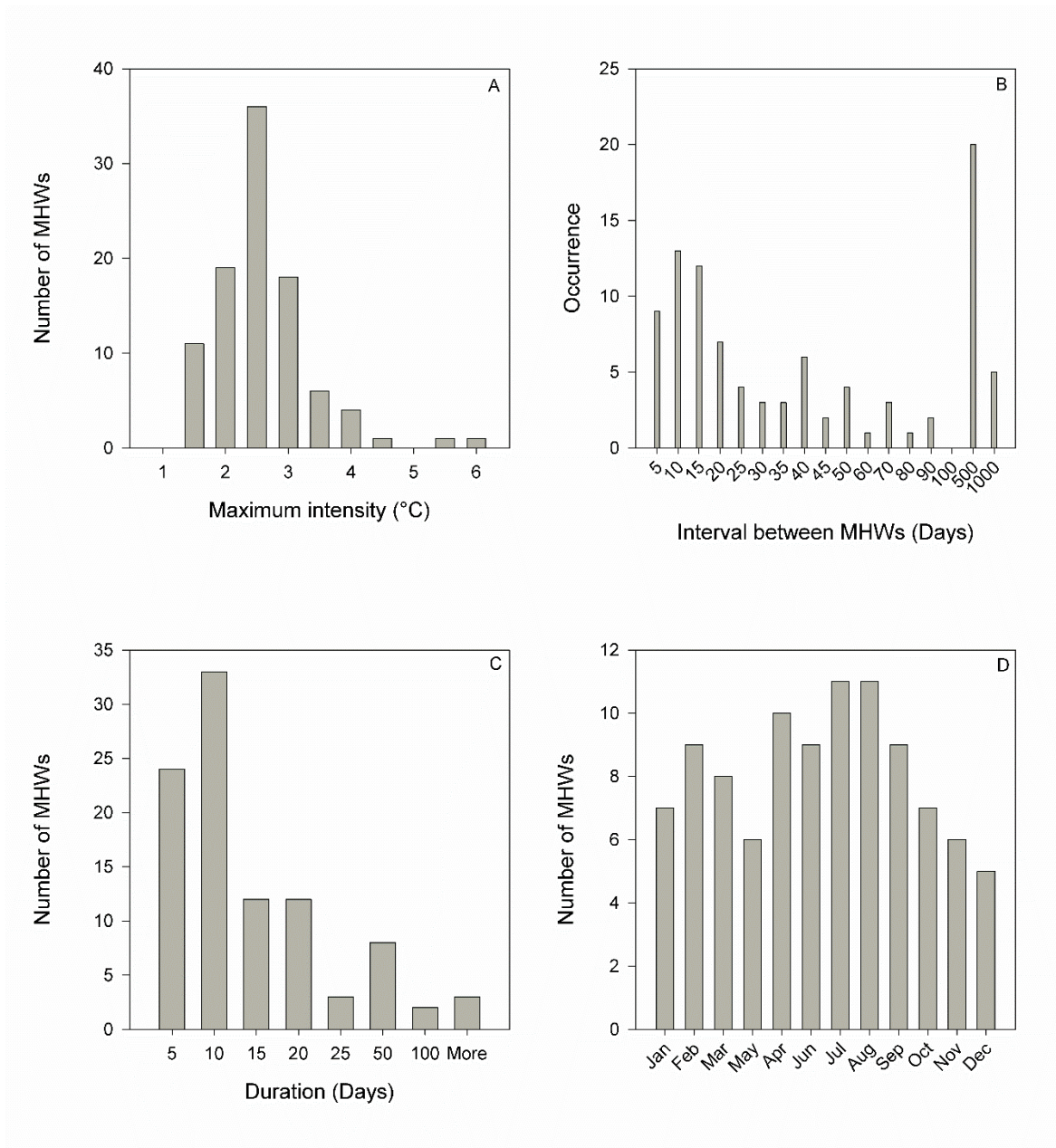


Figure S1. Characteristics of the MHWs that were registered in the beds of *Phyllospadix scouleri* (Todos Santos Island, B.C., Mexico) between the years 1982 – 2019. A – Monthly distribution of MHWs incidence; B – Maximum intensity of registered MHWs; C - Duration of the registered MHWs; D – Duration of interval periods between consecutive MHWs.

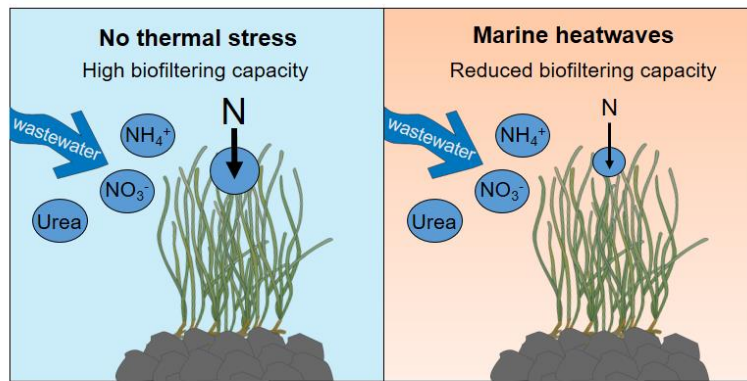


Figure S2. Graphical abstract.