



- 1 Holistic monitoring of increased pollutant loading and its impact on the environmental
- 2 condition of a coastal lagoon with *Ammonia* as a proxy for impact on biodiversity
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23 Abstract

24 Eutrophication poses a serious threat to the ecological functioning of marginal marine habitats in 25 the era of Anthropocene. Coastal lagoons are particularly vulnerable to nutrient enrichment and associated changes in environmental condition due to their limited marine connection and longer 26 water residence time. Benthic organisms are more susceptible to the impacts of nutrient 27 28 enrichment as organic carbon produced in water column production gets sequestered in the 29 sediment compartment leading to increased bacterial degradation that may cause hypoxia. Apart from nutrient enrichment, addition of different heavy metals as Potential Toxic Elements (PTE) 30 from industrial sources also impacts the biota. In the present study, the concentrations of 31 different nutrients and PTEs have been measured from the water profile of the World's second 32 largest coastal lagoon, Chilika. Alongside characterization of the sedimentary organic carbon 33 34 was also carried out. The globally present coastal benthic foraminiferal genera Ammonia was also tested for its applicability as a biotic indicator of pollution in this habitat. The study was 35 conducted for a period of twelve months. The investigation revealed that concentration of 36 dissolved nitrate in the water column was extremely high along with increased values of 37 sedimentary organic carbon deposit, both of which are characteristics of coastal eutrophication. 38 39 Intermittent hypoxia within the pore space was also recorded. Characterization of stable isotopes from the sedimentary carbon revealed the origin of it to be autochthonous in nature, thus 40 41 supporting the idea of nutrient driven increased primary production. Concentrations of PTEs were in most cases below bio-available values, however occasional high values were also 42 observed. The number of specimens belonging to Ammonia spp. also appeared to be a potent 43 biotic proxy of eutrophication as it displayed significant correlation with both nitrate and 44 45 concentration of organic carbon.

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48 Key Words: Coastal eutrophication, lagoon, dissolved nitrate, dissolved phosphate, dissolved

49 silicate, dissolved ammonium, TOC, δ^{13} C‰, hypoxia, *Ammonia*.





50 1 Introduction

The understanding of human's as the greatest force of global change expands through all forms of 51 52 ecological settings. With approximately sixty to seventy percent of the global human population inhabiting the world's coastlines, the realization that eutrophication can impact coastal 53 environments is however relatively recent (Nixon, 1995). Conceptualized as an increased rate of 54 55 succession observed in freshwater environments, Nixon (1995) was the first to implement the 56 idea of eutrophication to coastal marine environments. Since then the impacts of coastal eutrophication has emerged as a major concern globally (McGlathery et al., 2007). Increased 57 loading of dissolved nutrients in near shore environments through land clearing, uninhibited <u>58</u> usage of fertilizers, discharge of waste materials and burning of fossil fuels has markedly 59 increased since the middle of the 20th century (Cloern, 2001). In addition, recent changes in 60 61 global climatic condition have also acted as a catalyst along with coastal eutrophication (Lloret et al., 2008). In coastal aquatic environments, increased loading of nitrogen (N) has been identified 62 as one of the greatest consequences of recent anthropogenic impacts (Vitousek et al., 1997; 63 Boesch, 2002; Scavia et al., 2002). Phosphorus has also been considered by many investigators 64 as a major contributor to coastal eutrophication (Hecky and Kilham, 1988; Hecky, 1998). Apart 65 66 from nutrient loading from external sources the phenomenon of internal loading i.e. release of nutrients from bottom sediments into water column (Sondergaard et al., 2003) can act as a major 67 68 factor leading to eutrophication. Contributions from internal loading have been observed to be in the same magnitude as external loading (Donazzolo et al., 1989, Markou et al., 2007). Nitrogen 69 is known to be released from sedimentary organic matter in the form of ammonium and nitrate 70 71 (Kim et al., 2003) while phosphorus is present in the water column in predominantly 72 orthophosphate form. Another major nutrient in aquatic ecosystems is silicate. Silicate is of 73 prime importance to the formation of exoskeletons in diatoms, a major contributor to surface 74 productivity. The historically steady concentration of silicate loading (Gilpin et al., 2004) as 75 opposed to increased loads of N and P in coastal zones is particularly of interest while comparing 76 between the different nutrient concentrations.

Coastal lagoons that make up thirteen percent of world's coastlines (Barnes, 1980) are more vulnerable to eutrophication due to their limited nature of marine connection. Performing as potential zones of CO_2 efflux, coastal lagoons act as major sites for organic carbon





80 mineralization (Jansson et al., 2000) which can be accelerated by increased nutrient mobilization 81 into these shallow environments (Cloern, 2001). Rapidly evolving concepts have attributed increased sedimentary organic carbon loading directly to eutrophication in shallow coastal 82 regimes (Cloern, 2001) and thus sedimentary environment and benthic communities are 83 becoming extremely vulnerable to the effects of eutrophication (Jørgensen, 1996). Higher 84 concentrations of organic carbon in sediments derived from breakdown of more complex organic 85 matter has been also linked with grain size composition of sediments; specifically higher content 86 87 of fine grained particles has been reported to be rich in organic matter (Buchanan and Longbottom, 1970; Mayer, 1994 a,b; Tyson, 1995). Higher content of fine grained particles (silt, 88 clay, mud) coupled with increased concentration of available organic carbon may subsequently 89 lead to lower penetration of oxygen within the sediment pore space and resulting in generation of 90 toxic byproducts such as ammonia (Florek and Rowe, 1983; Santschi et al., 1990). Accumulation 91 92 of such products eventually results in the lowering of benthic biodiversity by selectively 93 allowing the growth of opportunistic species (Como et al., 2007).

94 Benthic foraminifera are one of the most dominant microscopic organisms that characterize the benthic diversity of shallow marginal marine environments and are widely used as bioproxy for 95 96 environmental monitoring of lagoons (Samir, 2000; Martins et al., 2013). Lagoons characterized by high nutrient input and longer water residence time are often dominated by stress tolerant 97 foraminiferal taxa (Hallock, 2012). One of the best examples regarding the impact of 98 eutrophication on benthic communities in coastal lagoons comes from the phylum foraminifera. 99 Donicci et al. (1997) reported seasonal peaks in the occurrence of Ammonia becarii coinciding 100 101 with increased phytoplankton numbers in surface water in Venice lagoon, Italy. The 102 foraminiferal assemblage from Venice lagoon was further investigated by Albani et al. (2007), 103 where they compared the benthic foraminiferal assemblages between 1983 and 2001. The 104 investigators did observe changes in the community composition in certain regions of the lagoon 105 following the establishment of a water treatment plant that reduced nutrient loading and found 106 the presence of surface phytoplankton to be the major factor driving benthic foraminiferal 107 production. Martins et al. (2013) studied the living foraminiferal assemblage from Ria de Aveiro lagoon, Portugal and also reported 61 species of foraminifera amongst which Ammonia tepida to 108 109 be dominant in the interior parts of the lagoon.





110 Considered to be one of the most common foraminifera worldwide, Ammonia are known to 111 inhabit sheltered, shallow marine to brackish water environments (Hayward et al., 2004). Globally, members of the genus Ammonia are considered to be tolerant to environmental stresses 112 such as changes in pH, hypoxia and the presence of rare earth elements (RRE) (Le Cadre and 113 Debenay, 2006; Martinez-Colon and Hallock, 2010). Members belonging to this genus have 114 been extensively studied with respect to taxonomy (Holzmann and Pawlowski, 1997; Holzmann 115 et al., 1998; Holzmann, 2000; Hayward et al., 2004) and as a proxy for physiological changes 116 117 related to oceanic pH (Glas et al., 2012; Keul et al., 2013). Very few studies have however looked into the environmental factors contributing to its dominance in shallow water zones. 118 Members of the genus are known to be tolerant to hypoxic ($< 2 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$) and dysoxic ($< 1 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$) 119 conditions originating due to increased nutrient loading in surface waters (Kitazato, 1994; Platon 120 and Sen Gupta, 2001). Based on its tolerance to low oxygen conditions Sen Gupta et al. (1996) 121 introduced the Ammonia - Elphidium index for characterizing coastal environmental monitoring. 122 Proper implementation of such an index however requires a thorough understanding of the 123 spatial and temporal preferences of the concerned organism. 124

The objective of the present work is to investigate the effects of nutrient loading on the 125 126 sedimentary organic carbon and the genus Ammonia from a subtropical coastal lagoon for a period of twelve months. The investigation mainly focuses on the relationship of both living and 127 dead assemblages of Ammonia with increased nutrient influx in coastal zones. Apart from 128 investigating the impact of nutrient loading on biota, concentration of Potentially Toxic Elements 129 (PTEs) i.e. Chromium (Cr), Cobalt (Co), Zinc (Zn), Lead (Pb), Copper (Cu), Iron (Fe), 130 Manganeze (Mn), Nickel (Ni) were also determined from surface water to identify any potential 131 132 industrial pollution in the environment. The work has been carried out from Chilika lagoon (latitude 19°28' - 19°54'N, longitude 85° 06' - 85° 35' E), India; on the north-west coast of Bay 133 of Bengal. The lagoon represents an ideal shallow water coastal zone with an average depth < 2134 135 m and can be classified as a choked lagoon (Kjerfve, 1986). Chilika lagoon lost its natural connection with the Bay of Bengal in 2001 due to siltation, which persists to be a threat to the 136 lagoon's survival as it receives approximately 1.5 million MT year⁻¹ of silt from the distributaries 137 of Mahanadi river basin that drain into the lagoon (Ghosh et al., 2006). The lagoon also receives 138 approximately 550 million L day⁻¹ of untreated sewage discharge from the neighboring city of 139 140 Bhubaneshwar along with untreated domestic water seepage from 141 villages that surround the





lagoon (Panigrahi et al., 2009). High rate of silt deposition coupled with decreased marine water
inflow and increased loading of pollutants has resulted in extensive macrophyte growth in the

143 lagoon bed which roughly cover 523 km^2 (Ghosh et al., 2006) of the watershed (704 km^2 in pre-

- 144 monsoon to 1020 km^2 in monsoon, Gupta et al., 2008).
- 145 2 Materials and methods
- 146 2.1 Sampling stations

The study monitored six stations across the lagoon, selected based on their location with respect 147 148 to potential sources of pollution (Fig. 1). Out of the six stations CS1, CS3, CS4 were far away 149 from any human habituated zone of the lagoon. CS1 was located in the southern most part of the 150 lagoon bearing greater depth of water than the other stations; CS3 was located adjacent to the declared bird sanctuary of Nalabana Island within Chilika while CS4 was located in close 151 vicinity to the presently blocked opening of the lagoon into the Bay of Bengal. Other three 152 stations were located more close to sources of nutrient influx into the lagoon. The station CS2 153 154 was located in the immediate vicinity of densely populated town of Balugaon; CS5 was located near the opening of Kusumi river, flowing through the western catchment of the lagoon. CS6 155 156 was located in the most north-eastern part of the lagoon that receives inflow from the Mahanadi basin. All the six stations were monitored on a monthly basis for a period of twelve months 157 158 starting from March 2014 till February 2015.

159 2.2 Measurement of *in situ* environmental parameters

160 Parameters reflecting the prevailing environmental conditions at the time of sample collection were recorded using onboard equipments. Air temperature and temperature of the surface water 161 162 were recorded using a digital thermometer. Salinity was determined using a handheld 163 refractometer and pH was determined using a pH meter (Eutech Instruments Pte. Ltd., Singapore) from the surface water while measurements from the bottom water overlaying the 164 165 sediment was undertaken after collecting the water using a Niskin sampler (General Oceanics, Florida, USA). Dissolved oxygen (DO) concentrations from the surface water, sediment water 166 167 interface and from the top layer of the sediment were measured in situ by inserting the galvanometric probe of a microprocessor based DO meter (Eutech Instruments Pte. Ltd., 168 Singapore) to respective zones. 169





170 2.3 Sample collection

171 Sample collection from the Chilika lagoon was carried out on a monthly basis for 12 months 172 from March 2014 till February 2015. Water samples were collected from the surface layer and 173 from the sediment water interface to estimates the concentration of dissolved nutrients while samples for extracting PTEs were only collected from the surface waters. Water samples from 174 the sediment water inter face were collected by deploying the Niskin sampler. All water samples 175 collected for the purpose of dissolved nutrients estimation were collected and transported to 176 laboratory following published protocol (Choudhury et al., 2015). Samples collected for the 177 estimation of PTEs were immediately filtered through 0.22 µm nylon filters and reduced by 178 179 addition of nitric acid to a final concentration of 5%.

Sediment samples were collected using a Ponar grab (Wild Co., Florida, USA) of 0.025 m² area. 180 Sediment sub-samples were cored in triplicates from the collected sediment using a push corer 181 having a length of 10 cm and inner diameter of 3.5 cm from which the topmost 0-2 cm was 182 collected for foraminiferal analysis and were immediately stained with rose Bengal (2gm L^{-1}) 183 and fixed with 4% pH neutral formaldehyde solution. Distinction between live and dead 184 collected specimens was done based on rose Bengal staining of the protoplasm. Fixed sample 185 fractions were stored under dark conditions for a minimum of thirty days before undertaking 186 further analyses. Additional replicates of the surface 0-2 cm fraction were also collected for 187 extraction of pore water and determination of total organic carbon (TOC) from sediment. 188

189 2.4 Extraction of pore water:

Pore water from the surface 2 cm of sediment was extracted from replicate fractions immediately upon return to laboratory for the period of nine months from June 2014 till February 2015. Approximately 500 cc of sediment sample was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 20 minutes and the resultant supernatant water was collected as pore water. Salinity and pH of the extracted water was immediately measured as following protocols described previously.

195 2.5 Measurement of dissolved nutrient concentrations

196 Concentrations of dissolved nutrients i.e. nitrate (NO₃⁻), ortho-phosphate (PO₄³⁻), ammonium 197 (NH₄⁺) and silicate (SiO₄⁻) were measured from collected surface water samples and bottom





198 water samples along with extracted pore water. The samples were passed through 0.45 µm nylon 199 filter (Merck-Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany) in order to remove suspended particulate matters and the concentrations of dissolved nutrients were determined spectrophotometrically (U-200 2900UV/VIS Spectrophotometer, Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan). Dissolved NO₃⁻ concentrations were 201 subsequently measured following published method (Finch et al., 1998). Likewise, dissolved 202 PO_4^{3-} and SiO_4^{-} levels were measured spectrophotometrically by acid-molybdate (Strickland & 203 Parsons, 1972) and ammonium molybdate (Turner et al., 1998) methods respectively. 204 205 Concentrations of dissolved NH₄⁺ were also determined following potassium ferrocyanide 206 method (Liddicoat et al., 1975).

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208 2.6 Measurement of PTEs

Concentrations of eight different potentially toxic elements (PTE) i.e. Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb
and Zn; were measured from the surface waters of studied stations by using Ionization Coupled
Plasma – Mass Spectroscopy (ICP-MS) (ThermoFisher-Scientific X-series 2, Massachusetts,
USA). The water samples were ran with respect to previously known concentrations of the
elements to determine their respective values. Measurement of samples were carried using
standard curves having regression values greater than 0.99.

215 2.7 Determination of sediment composition

Composition of the surface sediment was determined from unfixed fractions collected during 216 sampling. Sediment samples were initially treated with 10 % hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) for 24 217 218 hours to remove all organic components. The sediment samples were then washed vigorously under deionized water and dried for 24 hours at 60 °C to remove all moisture content. Following 219 which 10 gm (dry weight) of the sediment was vigorously stirred for 2 hours in a solution of 0.01220 221 % sodium hexa-metaphosphate ((NaPO₃)₆) to separate the sediment particles. The resulting mixture was then wet sieved through the mesh sizes of 500 μ m, 250 μ m, 125 μ m and 63 μ m. 222 The resultant fractions were dried and weighed to determine the sediment composition and were 223 224 defined according to the Wentworth size classes (Buchanan, 1984).

225 2.8 Characterization of sedimentary organic carbon





Approximately 1 cm³ of surface (up to 1 cm depth) sediment samples were initially acidified 226 with 5 % HCl in order to dissolve all carbonates and were followed by rinsing with a minimum 227 of 1000 ml of deionized water. Subsequently, sediment was dried at 60 °C for 24-48 hours. Dried 228 samples were grinded to finely powdered form using mortar and pestle. Samples for Carbon 229 stable isotope analysis were combusted in FLASH 2000 Elemental Analyzer (ThermoFisher-230 Scientific, Massachusetts, USA). Stable isotopes ratios were determined on a MAT-253 Mass 231 Spectrometer (ThermoFisher-Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) with respect to tank CO2 and are 232 expressed relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) as δ values, defined as: 233

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$$\delta^{13}C\% = \frac{X_{\text{standard}}}{X_{\text{standard}}} \times 10^3 \, [\%]$$

where $X = {}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$. Reproducibility of values was calibrated to a precision of 0.1 ‰. Determination of Total Organic Carbon (TOC) was performed by calibrating the tank CO₂ with respect to IAEA-CH₃ (cellulose) used as internal reference materials, measured after every four samples to maintain the quality of the estimation.

240 2.9 Identification and estimation of *Ammonia* spp. from sediments

Identification of foraminiferal specimens as belonging to Ammonia spp. was done following the 241 genus description established by Hayward et al. (2004). Counting of specimens belonging to <u>242</u> Ammonia spp. were carried out from the stained and fixed fractions of surface 2 cm of sediment 243 collected from the lagoon bed. Sediment of 10 c.c. from each fraction was wet sieved under a jet 244 of freshwater through mesh sizes of 500 μ m followed by 63 μ m. The collected residue in \geq 63 245 µm mesh sizes were observed under binocular microscope (Zeiss Stemi DV4, Carl Zeiss AG, 246 Oberkochen, Germany) by wet splitting. Specimens bearing stained cytoplasm up to the 247 248 penultimate chamber were considered to be live while unstained specimens having all the chambers finely preserved upto the prolocular chamber were considered as being dead at the 249 time of collection. Specimens displaying visible primary organic sheet were considered to be 250 taphonomically altered along with specimens having test breakage and were not considered for 251 the study. 252

253 2.10 Statistical analyses





Relationships within the different environmental factors and with observed numbers of live and total (live + dead) foraminifera were tested by calculating Pearson's correlation co-efficient and considering p values ≥ 0.05 as significant. Presence of seasonal or spatial variation within the *Ammonia* assemblage was tested by performing a cluster analysis. All abundance data were Log (X + 1) transformed prior to analysis and the analysis was performed using Bray-Curtis similarity measure. All statistical analyses were performed in PaST version 3.09 (Hammer et al., 2001).

261 3 Results

262 3.1 In situ hydrological parameters

Temperature at the surface of the lagoon closely reflected the prevailing air temperature at the time of sample collection (Fig. 2). The temperature reflected the subtropical climate of the region with increased values during the months of March till May 2014 which corresponds to summer in the region. The temperature was lowered following the monsoon period of July to October, in the months of November 2014 till February 2015 which roughly equates to winter in the northwest coast of Bay of Bengal.

269 Salinity profile was grossly influenced by the advent of monsoon in the region which is 270 traditionally considered to arrive in late June and continue up to the end of October (Fig. 3). During the pre-monsoon months of March till June, the surface water salinity displayed 271 variability (Max. 30.3, Min. 0.7) within the sampling stations. The highest value was recorded at 272 273 CS4 in the month of April, while the lowest was recorded at CS5. Salinity of the water overlaying the sediment also reflected this variability within stations (Max. 30.3, Min. 0.7). Pore 274 275 water salinity for this period was only determined for one month (June 2014) which also had highest value (26.7) at CS4 and lowest (6.0) at CS5. During monsoon all the stations displayed a 276 277 progressive decrease in their salinity profile with respect to time. The impact of monsoon was more pronounced on surface and bottom water values of five stations (barring CS1) which were 278 entirely devoid of salinity in September. Pore water salinity values for the period ranged between 279 25.7 (CS4 July) and 0 (CS5 September). Following the cessation of monsoon an immediate 280 281 increase in salinity profile was not observed in November, during which the surface values continued to be 0 in four out of six stations. During the post-monsoon (November-February) 282





gradual increase was observed in the salinity profile. Salinity values across depth profile displayed significant ($p \le 0.05$) correlation among themselves (Table 1).

- 285 Values of pH followed a similar trend across surface and bottom waters displaying almost no 286 variation among them (Fig. 3). Surface water pH values (Max. 9.8, Min. 6.5) varied widely between sampling times, a trend mirrored by bottom water overlaying the sediment (Max. 9.8, 287 Min. 6.8). Increased values of pH in surface waters were observed in the month of October 288 (Max. 9.7, Min. 8.2), as well as in the bottom water (Max. 9.5, Min. 8.2). Lowering of pH was 289 observed in November for both surface (Max. 7.7, Min. 6.5) and bottom (Max. 8.2, Min. 6.8) 290 water. Significant correlation thus existed between the surface values of pH and values recorded 291 292 from bottom water (Table 1). Pore water pH displayed a more acidic condition (Max. 8.6, Min. 7.1) compared to its overlaying counterparts. Most of the pH values determined from the pore 293 294 space had values < 8.0.
- 295 Concentration of dissolved oxygen (DO) in the water column and pore space displayed an overall stability during pre-monsoon and monsoon months (Fig. 3). Post-monsoon months 296 297 showed a continuous increase in the DO values. Lowest range of DO values in surface waters were observed in August (Max. 4.19 mgL⁻¹, Min. 3.60 mgL⁻¹) while the highest was observed in 298 February (Max. 8.88 mgL⁻¹, Min. 6.67 mgL⁻¹). Spatially, however the highest DO value was 299 recorded at CS6 (10.74 mgL⁻¹) in November. The lowest value from surface water was also 300 reported from CS6 (3.60 mgL⁻¹) in the month of August. The DO values from sediment water 301 302 interface reflected general trends observed in the surface water although having lower range of values. The lowest value (2.87 mgL⁻¹) was recorded from CS2 in March while the highest (10.98 303 mgL⁻¹) came from CS6 in November. DO values from the top 2 cm of the sediment displayed 304 comparatively lower range (Max. 6.14 mgL⁻¹, Min. 1.22 mgL⁻¹). CS2 displayed lower DO 305 concentrations (Max. 5.65 mgL⁻¹, Min. 1.22 mgL⁻¹) in its sediments compared to other stations. 306 Significant correlations within the profiles were also observed the studied profiles, a trend 307 similar to salinity (Table 1). 308

309 3.2 Concentration of dissolved nutrients

Dissolved nitrate (NO₃⁻) concentration followed a strong seasonal pattern in surface and bottom waters of the lagoon (Fig. 4). During the pre-monsoon months NO₃⁻ concentrations were





312 relatively high in both surface (Max. 86.25 μ M, Min. 19.5 μ M) and bottom (Max. 90.17 μ M, Min. 26.75 μ M) waters. During this period CS5 had higher values (surface: Max. 86.25 μ M, 313 Min. 54 μ M; bottom: Max. 90.17 μ M, Min. 45.12 μ M) of nutrients in both the profiles compared 314 to other stations. Pore water concentrations of NO_3^- were significantly higher (Max. 131.67 μ M, 315 Min. 68.33 μ M) in the pre-monsoon month of June compared to the other layers studied with the 316 highest value recorded from CS5. During the monsoon there was considerable lowering of NO_3^{-1} 317 values in surface (Max. 47.2 µM, Min. 19.73 µM) and bottom water (Max. 46.07 µM, Min. 18.8 318 319 μ M) values as compared to concentrations in the pore water (Max. 162.47 μ M, Min. 27.78 μ M). 320 There was significant correlation between the surface water values and bottom water values 321 while no such strong relationship was observed with their pore water counterpart (Table 1). Postmonsoon observed a gradual return to pre-monsoon values in the concentration of dissolved 322 323 NO_3^- in both surface (Max. 83.67 μ M, Min. 18.33 μ M) and bottom waters (Max. 95.33 μ M, Min. 324 16 μ M). The pore water concentration however lowered (Max. 105.8 μ M, Min. 9 μ M) during this period. 325

Orthophosphate (PO_4^{3-}) concentrations (Fig. 4) in surface waters showed greater variability 326 (Max. 8.57 µM, Min. beyond detection limit) among the stations during the pre-monsoon months 327 328 while lower range of values was observed in bottom water (Max. 3.92 μ M, Min. 0.09 μ M). Values from pore water were mostly below detection during June. The concentration of PO_4^{3-1} 329 lowered during the monsoon months in both surface (Max. 4.0 µM, Min. beyond detection limit) 330 and bottom waters (Max. 3.22 µM, Min. beyond detection limit). In pore waters the 331 concentration of PO_4^{3-} relatively higher compared to June 2014 (Max. 5.33 μ M, Min. beyond 332 detection limit). During post-monsoon surface water concentrations of PO_4^{3-} were mostly low 333 (Max. 2.98 µM., Min. beyond detection limit) barring one sample (CS4 November 2014, 5.62 334 μ M). Similarly bottom water concentrations were also lowered (Max. 1.93 μ M, Min. 0.18 μ M) 335 336 along with pore water concentrations (Max. 2.18 µM, Min. beyond detection limit). Within the 337 profiles significant correlation existed between the surface water and bottom water 338 concentrations, a relation not present with pore water pH values.

Concentrations of dissolved silicate (SiO_4^-) displayed a strong seasonal pattern across the studied stations (Fig. 4). Mostly low values of SiO_4^- were observed during the pre-monsoon period (surface Max. 90 μ M, Min., 2.33 μ M; bottom Max. 279 μ M, Min. 5 μ M; pore water Max. 36.17





342 μM, Min. 2.33 μM). Rapid increase in values were observed during monsoon (surface Max. 351 343 μ M, Min. 24 μ M; bottom Max. 377.5 μ M Min. 71.5 μ M, pore water Max. 268 μ M Min. 13.7 μ M) with CS5 and CS6 having comparatively higher values than other stations. Following 344 345 monsoon, a drop in concentrations was observed starting November. Surface water values reflected a reversal to pre-monsoon values (Max. 340.67 µM, Min. 53 µM) along with bottom 346 water (Max. 310.5 µM, Min. 59.5 µM) except for CS6 which showed higher values till 347 December. Pore water SiO₄⁻ concentrations though lower (Max. 165 μ M, Min. 33 μ M) than 348 349 monsoon values was still higher compared to June. Amongst the nutrient concentrations studied 350 SiO_4 displayed the strongest relationship within depth profiles as significant correlations existed 351 between all the studied compartments (Table 1).

Dissolved ammonium (NH_4^+) concentrations were mostly lower than detection limit during the 352 first three months in the surface layer followed by low concentrations in June (Fig. 4). Bottom 353 water concentrations of the nutrient were also low during the pre-monsoon period (Max. 6.5 µM, 354 Min. beyond detection limit). Pore water values (Max. 6.5 µM, Min. beyond detection limit) 355 were also low in June. Surface water concentrations did not vary much during monsoon (Max. 356 13.0 µM, Min. beyond detection limit) and post-monsoon (Max. 12.33 µM, Min. 0.67 µM). 357 358 Similar ranges of values were also recorded from bottom water samples (monsoon Max. 12.67 μM, Min. beyond detection limit, post-monsoon Max 10.33 μM, Min. beyond detection limit). 359 Increased values of NH_4^+ were detected from pore water during the monsoon months of August 360 till October (Max. 91.0 μ M, Min. 0.05 μ M) and in November (Max. 73.5 μ M, Min. 15 μ M). 361

362 3.3 Concentration of PTEs

Among the eight elements studied, four (Cu, Fe, Ni, Zn) displayed variations in their mean 363 values with respect to the month of sample collection while the remaining (Cr, Co, Pb, Mn) 364 displayed a more stable value throughout the study period. Cu concentrations were relatively 365 higher during the pre-monsoon months (Max. 17.31 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 3.28 μ g L⁻¹) and in July (Max. 366 9.21 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 4.40 μ g L⁻¹) as compared to the months stretching from August till January 367 (Max. 6.89 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 1.57 μ g L⁻¹), following which increased values were observed in 368 February (Max. 23.88 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 14.09 μ g L⁻¹). Fe concentrations in the surface water 369 displayed a continuous lowering of values along the months studied having highest range of 370 values in March (Max. 780.2 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 168.1 μ g L⁻¹) to the lowest range of values in February 371





- (Max. 363.4 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 60.66 μ g L⁻¹). A similar trend was present in case of Ni, which initially 372 increased in concentration during the pre-monsoon months (March Max 7.46 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 3.29 373 $\mu g L^{-1}$ – June Max. 8.79 $\mu g L^{-1}$, Min. 4.33 $\mu g L^{-1}$) but then continued to decrease in 374 concentration (July Max 6.07 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 1.68 μ g L⁻¹ – February Max. 3.17 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 2.53 375 376 $\mu g L^{-1}$). Values of Zn decreased markedly during the monsoon below the level of detection in most samples, following which the concentrations gradually increased in the later part of post-377 monsoon (January Max 11.15 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 5.01 μ g L⁻¹ – February Max. 32.78 μ g L⁻¹, Min. 5.90 378 $\mu g L^{-1}$). 379
- 380 3.4 Sediment composition
- Sediment composition for the six stations (Fig. 5) displayed little variation with time, among which four stations i.e. CS1, CS2, CS3 and CS6 was entirely dominated by silt-clay (< 63 μ m) fraction (silt-clay content Max: 99.69 %, Min. 25.14 %). CS4 was the only station with a higher fraction of sand (> 63 μ m) particles. But on the other hand, CS5 station displayed more variation in its sediment composition compared to other stations. The variation in silt-clay content (Max. 86.24 %, Min. 33.94 %) was considerably large among the samples collected from CS5.
- 387 3.5 Sedimentary organic carbon

Stable isotopic ratios of carbon (δ^{13} C‰) from the sediments varied within a narrow range of values (Max. -20.7, Min. -24.2) and did not exhibit any seasonal pattern (Fig. 7). Total Organic Carbon (TOC) content however displayed some oscillations at CS5 with increased values observed during the pre-monsoon months of March till May (Max. 5.66 %, Min. 2.87 %) and the post-monsoon months of December-February (Max. 3.88 %, Min. 2.66 %). Values of TOC in other stations varied within a narrow margin (Max. 3.71 %, Min. 0.31 %) and changed little with respect to seasons.

395 3.6 Characterization of *Ammonia* spp. population

Number of benthic foraminiferal specimens identified as *Ammonia* spp. displayed great variation from sample to sample with respect to the presence of both live and dead specimens (Fig. 8). Out of the total 72 sediment samples studied, 46 samples bore stained individuals who were considered live at the time of collection while 53 samples had dead specimens alongside live





400 ones. The stations varied greatly amongst themselves with respect to both the number of samples 401 bearing Ammonia spp. as well as the number of live and dead specimens present. The lowest number of samples bearing live (4) and dead (5) specimens were observed at CS1. The number 402 403 of specimens belonging to each category was also relatively low at CS1 as the highest number of live specimens (8 / 10 c.c.) was observed in the sample of July 2014, while the highest number of 404 405 dead specimens (30 / 10 c.c.) were recorded in September 2014. In comparison, CS2 had the highest number of dead specimens recorded from across the lagoon with the highest values being 406 407 819 / 10 c.c. (June 2014) and also having only 2 samples where no dead specimens were 408 observed. The highest number of live specimens at CS2 was observed in November 2014 (36/10 409 c.c.). Station CS3, during most part of the study period was characterized by low number of live 410 and dead specimens of Ammonia spp. except in September 2014 sample, where the number of live specimens were 54 / 10 c.c. However, no dead specimens were present in that particular 411 sample. The highest number of dead specimens observed at CS3 was recorded in the sample 412 413 collected in December 2014 (24 / 10 c.c.) while no dead specimens were recorded in 3 occasions. The population at CS4 was also mostly characterized by low number of dead specimens 414 415 alongside fewer live individuals except in the months of March and April 2014, when the 416 number of dead specimens were relatively high (129 / 10 c.c. and 501 / 10 c.c. respectively). The 417 number of live specimens was however extremely low in this station (Max. 14 / 10 c.c.). Occasional increase in the number of live specimens was observed at CS5 with highest values 418 (126 / 10 c.c.) being present-in May 2014 sample which was also the highest value-recorded 419 420 across the study period for the entirety of the lagoon. The number of dead specimens at CS5 displayed great variability similar to the number of live specimens, with relatively higher values 421 observed during the months of May 2014 and February 2015 (336 / 10 c.c. and 255 / 10 c.c. 422 respectively). The station CS6 was also mostly characterized by a low number of live and dead 423 424 specimens for the majority of the sampling period, except in the month of June 2014 when increased numbers of live (106 / 10 c.c.) and dead (111 / 10 c.c.) specimens were recorded. 425 Overall, a significant correlation (r = 0.4, p = 0.0005) was observed among the number of dead 426 and live specimens for the entire study period across the lagoon. 427

A cluster analysis was performed in order to test for spatial and seasonal grouping of samples
(Fig. 9). The analysis generated six clusters that were formed based on the abundance and
contribution of live and dead specimens present in each sample. Cluster I was comprised of 5





431 samples characterized by the absence of live specimens and served as an outgroup with the rest 432 of the dendrogram. The numbers of dead specimens in samples belonging to this cluster were also extremely low. Cluster II was also characterized mostly by the absence of live individuals 433 except one sample (CS2Jun14) where the number of live specimens was negligible compared to 434 its dead counterpart. In this cluster however the number of dead specimens was comparatively 435 greater than its predecessor. Nine samples spread across almost the entirety of the lagoon, having 436 low numbers of live and dead specimens formed cluster III. Cluster IV was represented by 12 437 438 samples having comparatively higher number than the rest of the samples and having greater or 439 significant proportion of live specimens being present in each sample. Similar proportions were also present in the 18 samples that formed cluster V; however the number of observed specimens 440 441 was much lower as compared to cluster IV. The final cluster VI was-comprised of samples 442 having very little contribution of live specimens as well as having large numbers of dead specimens pertaining to the genus Ammonia. 443

Separately a correlation analysis was performed to investigate the relationships between the number of live specimens and total (live + dead) specimens with the studied environmental factors. Significant correlation (r = 0.23, p = 0.04) was observed between the surface water concentrations of dissolved NO₃⁻ and the number of live *Ammonia* specimens. Sedimentary TOC values also displayed significant correlation with both live (r = 0.31, p = 0.009) and total (r =0.29, p = 0.01) number of specimens.

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452 4 Discussion

The present study investigated the environmental quality of Chilika lagoon, a coastal water body which has been reported to receive huge influx of untreated waste water and has been threatened with eutrophication. The study was carried for a period of twelve months and concentration of various water borne pollutants in the lagoon was studied along with potential impacts of such pollution throughout different compartments of the lagoon's water column. Further attempts were made to characterize the organic carbon load in the sediment which can be considered as a direct effect of eutrophication in the lagoon. *Ammonia* spp., a benthic foraminiferal species





globally reported as stress tolerant taxa was also investigated with regards to its utility as a potential indicator of pollution in this shallow marginal marine habitat.

462 Chilika lagoon, the largest coastal lagoon in Asia and the second largest in the world, is a designated Ramsar site since 1981. The lagoon was placed in the Montreux records for being a 463 wetland under threat in 1993, from which it was removed in 2002 following successful 464 management practices including dredging and opening of an artificial connection to the Bay of 465 Bengal which increased the salinity profile of the lagoon. During the present study period 466 increased values of salinity were observed during the pre-monsoon months of March till June, a 467 period that corresponds to summer in the north-western coast of Bay of Bengal. Salinity values 468 plummeted soon after as the monsoon precipitations began in late June and early July of 2014. 469 The amount of total precipitation in the region increased from 297.8 cm in the month of June to 470 1505.9 cm in July, values similar to which lasted till the passing away of monsoon in November 471 during which total precipitation decreased to 5.4 cm. Apart from the localized freshwater input 472 due to the monsoon, the lagoon receives an enormous volume (approx. $5.09 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^3$) of 473 474 freshwater from 52 rivers and rivulets that drain into it (Panda and Mohanty, 2008). The impact of freshwater influx on the salinity profile of the lagoon is prominent through all the studied 475 476 layers. Salinity on certain stations continued to persist albeit in lower concentrations, mostly due to localized inflow of sea-water from point sources nearby. Jeong et al. (2008) applied a self-477 organizing map approach in characterizing the lagoon's hydrology and found strong dependence 478 479 of the lagoons salinity on climatic factors. Based on the present findings monsoonal precipitation can be a major driver in shaping the lagoons salinity regime. The lowering of salinity during this 480 period leads to the increased growth of freshwater invasive species like Azolla, Eichhornia, 481 *Pistia* and emerging species like *Ipomea* (Panigrahi et al., 2009). The presence of such large 482 scale photosynthetic plants may also be the causative factor behind increased values of surface 483 484 water pH as observed in the post-monsoon months of January-February 2015. An earlier 485 investigation by Nayak et al. (2004) have also linked increased pH values observed in the northern and central parts of the lagoon with the presence of aquatic weeds. Apart from the 486 increased values in the surface waters in January-February 2015, an increase was observed in 487 October 2014, which was restricted to the central and northern stations. This increase was 488 489 immediately followed by a lowering of pH values in the month of November, a trend mirrored in 490 the bottom water values. Acidification of shallow water zones can stem from the upward





migration of H₂S generated from anaerobic degradation of organic matter in sediments (Koretsky et al., 2005). The upward migration of H₂S in the oxic layers of water column lead to the generation of sulphuric acid (Curtis, 1987; Martin, 1999a), which may explain sudden drops in surface and bottom water pH. The pore water pH values however displayed lesser variation. The Central Pollution Control Board under the Government of India mandates a pH range of 6.5 - 8.5for ecologically sensitive coastal waterbodies. The pH values from Chilika lagoon broadly falls within this range except for the increased values mentioned previously.

The lagoons health however appears to be under severe threat from increased nutrient loading 498 from its catchment basin. Investigations regarding eutrophication of coastal water shed zones, 499 500 majorly revolves around the changes in the ratios of N, P and Si and their impacts of primary production. The N:P ratio of 16:1 has been historically set as an benchmark for differentiating 501 between N-limitation and P-limitation in oceanic waters (Falkowski, 1997; Tyrrell, 1999; Lenton 502 and Watson, 2000). Changes in the N:P ratio have been associated with changes in primary 503 504 producers like phytoplankton species composition. Strong evidence of how human induced 505 changes in the N:P ratio can lead to discrete community shifts comes from more than two decades long study undertaken in the Wadden Sea (Philippart et al., 2000). During the present 506 507 investigation the observed N:P ratio was markedly above the 16:1 mark for maximum number of samples (Fig. 10), irrespective of the collection profile indicating increased N loading to be the 508 major source of eutrophication in the lagoon. Surface water values of nitrate (NO₃⁻) displayed a 509 strong negative relationship with seasonal precipitation as proven by a significant positive 510 correlation with surface water salinity. The increased influx of fresh water during the monsoon 511 512 actually lowered the N:P ratio towards 16:1 as NO₃⁻ concentrations diluted. Concentrations of ammonium (NH_4^+) , another component of the Dissolved Inorganic Nitrogen (DIN) pool was 513 negligible and often beyond the lower detection limit in the lagoon surface a similarity shared 514 with orthophosphate (PO4³⁻), which is another component of the Redfield ratio. Very few 515 516 samples from surface water fraction displayed values characteristic of P limitation and majority of these samples were collected during the monsoon period. N:P ratios measured from the 517 bottom water compartments strongly reflected the surface water conditions as significant 518 correlations existed between surface water and bottom water values of NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} . Pore 519 520 water values of N:P is however particularly interesting, as within the interstitial space the major component of DIN is not NO₃, but NH₄⁺. Increased values of NH₄⁺ were present mostly during 521





the monsoon period, which coincided with lowered values of NO_3^- concentration. The observed shift can be accounted by increased generation of NH_4^+ through the degradation of sedimentary organic load. The absence of any significant correlation of pore water concentrations of NH_4^+ with its other counterparts is suggestive of a sedimentary origin and absence of internal loading to overlying water column.

Apart from N:P ratio, the ratio between N and Si is of particular interest with regards to 527 eutrophication because anthropogenic loading has not been a factor in case of Si concentrations 528 in coastal zones as majority of it originates from natural sources (Cloern, 2001). Diatoms, a 529 major contributor of surface water primary productivity, require N and Si at the molar ratio of 530 approximately 1 (Redfield et al., 1963; Dortch and Whitledge, 1992). A shift towards N:Si > 1 is 531 normally associated with increased loading of N, followed by an environment selectively 532 supporting non-diatom taxa that require less Si (Conley et al., 1993). Increased loading of N as 533 compared to Si have been often associated with non-diatom blooms (Bodeanu, 1993). In Chilika 534 lagoon, the N:Si values were mostly < 1 in case of surface and bottom water environment, a 535 536 condition favorable for diatom growth (Fig. 10). Srichandran et al. (2015a) studied the phytoplankton community from the lagoon for a period of twelve months and found 537 538 Bacillariophyta to be the most abundant group. Lowered values of N:Si may be due to the high values of dissolved SiO_4 that is brought into the lagoon during the monsoon freshwater flow, as 539 evidenced from the significant negative correlation observed with salinity. The relationship 540 541 between the two nutrients (i.e. SiO_4^{-} and NO_3^{-}) also displayed negative correlation between them as they have opposite relationships with monsoonal precipitation. The trend exists in bottom 542 543 water compartment too resulting in similar N:Si ratios, while in pore water most of the values are way beyond extremes most likely due to increased concentration of NH_4^+ evolving from 544 breakdown of sedimentary organic matter. 545

Sedimentary composition of the lagoon bottom has been described as a mixture of fine to medium sized sand fractions (Mahapatro et al., 2010; Ansari et al., 2015). In the presence study four out of the six stations displayed > 90% silt-clay (< 63 μ m) content in the sediment which can be a resultant of the increased siltation of the lagoon. Ghosh et al. (2006) have reported the silt carried by the distributaries of Mahanadi basin to be 1.5 million MT year⁻¹ (approx) resulting in decreased depth profiles in the northern and central parts of the lagoon (< 1 m). Previous





552 investigation has revealed the positive relationship between higher content of finer sediment fractions with increased organic matter content (Tyson, 1995). An area having low 553 hydrodynamic energy tends to allow enhanced settlement of silt-clay particles which in turn 554 leads to a higher content of organic matter due to increased surface area. In the present work 555 TOC content from the surface 2 cm of the sediment as a proxy for sediment organic matter. 556 Globally coastal lagoon sediments are characterized by a higher TOC content as compared to 557 other coastal marine environments (Tyson, 1995). The TOC values of Chilika lagoon as 558 559 presented in the current study had a comparatively lower median value (1.44%) as compared to 560 the well studied Mediterranean coastal lagoons. Cabras lagoon, off the west coast of Sardinia is 561 reported to have the highest median value of surface sediment TOC at 3.41% (De Falco et al., 2004). Values similar to the present study have been recorded from S'ena Arrubia lagoon (≤ 2 562 563 %) in west Mediterranean (De Falco and Guerzoni, 1995) and also from Etang de Vendres lagoon (~ 0.2 - 7.0 %) in Southern France (Aloisi and Gadel, 1992). Values such as these are 564 characteristics of OM enrichment in sediment compartments (Lardicci et al., 2001; Frascari et 565 al., 2002). In Chilika, however values of even greater magnitude were observed at a station 566 (CS5) located near the outfall of a river, where the values of TOC ranged between 0.6 % and 567 568 5.66%, with 66.7% of the values recorded from this station being greater than the median value of the entire lagoon. The station however was characterized by a lower mean of silt-clay content 569 which explains the absence of any significance correlation between sediment silt-clay content 570 571 and TOC. The TOC values from this station however did display strong seasonal trends very 572 similar to observed nitrate concentration in the water columns, which may be indicative of 573 autochthonous deposition of TOC due to increased surface primary production following 574 monsoon.

The ratio of stable carbon isotopes (δ^{13} C‰) was studied to identify the source of sedimentary TOC. Values of δ^{13} C‰ provide a mean to distinguish between sediment organic matter derived from freshwater and marine source. Vascular land plants and freshwater algae utilizing the C₃ Calvin pathway have δ^{13} C‰ range between -26 and -28‰ approximately while marine particulate organic matter comprising of particulate organic carbon (POC), algal and bacterial cells range approximately -19 to -22‰. Organic matter derived from C₄ Hatch-Slack pathway range approximately at -12 to -16‰ (Meyers, 1994). The values of δ^{13} C‰ observed in the





582 present study displayed ranges that are mostly characteristic of a marine POC generated using dissolved HCO₃, which indicates towards an autochthonous origin of observed TOC values. As 583 mentioned earlier, members of the group Bacillariophyta have been reported to dominate the 584 585 surface water primary producer community in the Chilika lagoon. Higher values were observed in the station neighboring the river opening (Fig. 11) and having seasonal variation in TOC 586 content as compared to the other studied sites. This may indicate the influence of localized 587 nutrient loading in that particular area of the lagoon resulting in seasonal increases in algal 588 production that inhabits the brackish water conditions. Lowered values of δ^{13} C[‰] were present in 589 low TOC bearing samples from near the lagoon's marine opening (CS4), which was 590 591 characterized by higher sand content. The proximity to a marine source in this scenario may lead to increased flushing of the bottom sediment, thus presenting an altered value of TOC and 592 δ^{13} C‰. Vizzini et al. (2005) studied the Mauguio lagoon in southern France in order to identify 593 the trophic pathways with respect to the sources of organic matter in the sediment using stable 594 595 isotopic ratios of carbon and nitrogen. The study found spatial zonation with respect to the δ^{13} C‰ values recorded from the sediment. Depleted values of δ^{13} C‰ were observed near the 596 597 outfall of freshwater bearing rivers, thus exhibiting the utility of stable isotopes in deciphering 598 the respective sources of organic carbon in sediments.

599 One direct impact of eutrophication on the biotic component stems from the availability of oxygen. Higher silt-clay content coupled with higher values of TOC may lead to lesser 600 permeability of oxygen and a higher microbial oxygen demand, a phenomenon particularly 601 602 noticeable in the interstitial compartment of sediment and thus have maximum impacts on 603 benthic organisms. Hypoxia in coastal waters has been reported to show an exponential rate of growth with respect to newer areas being characterized as hypoxic (Vaguer-Sunver and Duarte, 604 2008). The theoretical limit at which oxygen becomes limiting for survival of coastal biota has 605 ranged broadly from 0.28 mg L^{-1} (Fiadeiro and Strickla, 1968) to 4 mg L^{-1} (Paerl, 2006), with 606 most published data considering a value of 2 mg L⁻¹ (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995; Turner et al., 607 2005). The Central Pollution Control Board under the Government of India also recognizes the 608 lowest limit to be 3.5 mg L⁻¹ for the safe propagation of biodiversity in coastal zones. Values of 609 DO concentration from the surface and bottom water column recorded in the present study is 610 well above the level of concern with respect to hypoxia. However, hypoxic values ($< 2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) 611





are observed from the interstitial space of the sediment in two cases. Interestingly in both cases the values have been recorded from a region that is in close proximity of human habitation. Relationship may exist between observed cases of hypoxia and potential release of untreated sewage from the neighboring human habitats, as the particulate organic matter (POM) and dissolved organic matter (DOM) present in untreated waste water may also cause hypoxia in the lagoon (Ganguly et al., 2015). Further detailed studies are required to understand the occurrence of such sudden hypoxic conditions within the sedimentary profile.

The impact of eutrophication generated hypoxia on the benthic biotic community has been 619 extensively reviewed by Diaz and Rosenberg (1995) and later by Gray et al. (2002). The vast 620 interest of palaeo-oceanographers along with data from oxygen minimum zones and hypoxic 621 basins has lead to the existence of vast amount of research on foraminiferal taxa as indicators 622 (Bernhard and Sen Gupta, 1999; Gooday et al., 2009), however debates still exists regarding 623 whether to attribute observed changes to depleted oxygen values or increased organic matter load 624 (Levin et al., 2009). The utility of live versus total foraminiferal assemblages in tracking 625 626 environmental change is also a highly debated issue. While Schönfeld et al. (2012) has mandated only the use of live specimens in ecological studies, but have also mentioned the utility of 627 628 incorporating dead tests, as they can provide information about environmental and biological changes on a decadal scale. In the present investigation, the utility of both live and total specime 629 630 benthic foraminiferal genera Ammonia were tested for their suitability as biotic proxies for coastal eutrophication. The live foraminiferal assemblage of the lagoon has already been 631 characterized as dominated by Ammonia spp. (Sen and Bhadury, 2016). Cluster analysis did not 632 633 reveal the presence of distinct seasonal or spatial trends present in the assemblage. The 634 investigation however revealed significant correlation between observed number of live 635 specimens and dead specimens, thus in the present condition the total assemblage of foraminifera can also provide valuable information regarding environmental change. Significant correlation 636 637 was observed with surface water concentrations of dissolved NO_3^- with both live and dead tests 638 of Ammonia. Similarly significant correlation existed in case of sediment TOC content. In both cases however the level of significance was greater when considering live specimens. 639 Concentration of dissolved oxygen did not appear to impact the live assemblage of Ammonia. 640 641 Ammonia along with Elphidium is the most abundant foraminiferal genera globally (Murray, 2006) and is mostly known to inhabit shallow, brackish, coastal zones (Murray, 1991). Members 642





643 of the genus Ammonia are known to display greater tolerance to hypoxia than Elphidium spp. 644 from field based observations (Kitazato, 1994; Platon and Sengupta, 2001) while very few laboratory based experiments exists testing sensitivity of the genus to varying concentrations of 645 oxygen. Moodley and Hess (1992) observed that Ammonia can survive for at least 24 hours even 646 in anoxic (O₂ conc. 0 mg L⁻¹). Members of the genus have been generally considered to be stress 647 tolerant in nature (Carnahan et al., 2009). The present findings strongly agree with the statement 648 of Hallock (2012) that Ammonia generally dominates the sediments where intermittent hypoxia 649 650 may be present along with abundant source of food. The observed relationship between live 651 individuals with surface concentrations of nitrate and sediment TOC supports the utilization of the genus as an indicator of coastal eutrophication, rightly considered to be an opportunistic taxa 652 in the FORAM index (Hallock et al., 2003) for monitoring of coastal habitats. 653

654 Benthic foraminifera are also widely used for tracing the impact of industry generated pollution in coastal waters (Samir, 2000; Martínez-Colón et al., 2009). Potentially Toxic Elements (PTE) 655 acts as indicators of point source pollutions from industrial effluents and sewage water run-offs. 656 657 Incorporation of such PTEs during early development of foraminiferal tests leads to the formation of morphologically abnormal tests that can be utilized for environmental monitoring 658 659 (Yanko et al., 1998; Martins et al., 2015). In the present study the number of such abnormal tests were negligible (<0.01 %) which is congruent with the values of PTEs present in surface water. 660 Concentration of lead (Pb) was mostly below the 1 PPB permissible limit as mandated by the 661 CPCB, Govt. of India. Increased values where however observed during February (Max. 9.64 662 PPB, Min. 1.65 PPB), thus the occurrence of occasional loading of pollutants in the lagoon 663 664 cannot be ruled out. Presence of Pb is mostly associated with pollution originating from battery 665 run offs (Martínez-Colón et al., 2009) which may be realized by motorized boats that have increased activity in the months of December-February stemming from tourism. Ammonia has 666 667 been reported to be particularly sensitive to increased concentrations of copper (Cu), showing the 668 development of abnormal chambers after being exposed for twenty days at 10 PPB and major cessation of growth at 200 PPB (Le Cadre and Debenay, 2006). Cu concentrations in Chilika 669 lagoon can thus be considered bioavailable as for foraminifera as values > 10 PPB were observed 670 sporadically in the first eleven months and entirely in the last month of sampling. A major source 671 672 of Cu in coastal waters can originate from agricultural and anti-fouling agents used in painting 673 boats. Comparison of the present study with other studies from similar settings is however





difficult as data from surface water compartments are not considered in most published works as
sedimentary concentrations are estimated more widely (Samir 2000, Martins et al. 2015, Schintu
et al., 2015). A more detailed study regarding the concentrations of PTEs are required from the

present setting to develop a more concrete understanding of the impacts of industrial pollution.

678 5 Conclusions

679 The present study investigated the environmental condition of a coastal lagoon reported to receive increased quantity of pollutants. The study was carried for a period of twelve months and 680 681 also studied the utility of the globally present foraminiferal genera Ammonia as a potential 682 indicator of increased pollutant loading. Findings of the present study indicate the ecological status of the lagoon to be eutrophic based on observed values of Redfield ratio. The inflow of 683 freshwater during the monsoon appeared to be a major factor in controlling the nutrient load. 684 Increased loading of dissolved nitrate present throughout the study period appears to be the 685 686 major driving factor behind the eutrophication of the lagoon. Dissolved silicate, carried into the system via monsoonal flow is also present in large quantities and can potentially be the major 687 reason for the primary production to be diatom dependent, as evident from characterizing the 688 sedimentary TOC. Concentration of PTEs in the surface water was also indicated to be 689 influenced by human activity, however further detailed investigation into the role of industrial 690 691 pollution is warranted for a more composite view. The biotic proxy utilized revealed that live specimens of Ammonia provided greater significant variation with respect to surface water 692 693 concentrations of nitrate and sedimentary TOC content as compared to total (live + dead) number of observed specimens. The observed assemblage of Ammonia in the lagoon did not display 694 695 seasonal variation; however spatial variation did exist with respect to total number of specimens, 696 thus indicating the utility of total foraminifer counts in establishing long term understandings of 697 environments. The findings from the present study can be applied to better the understanding of ecological indicators that utilize the stress tolerant nature of Ammonia in coastal habitats. The 698 699 findings can also be utilized in estimating the globally recognized problem of coastal 700 eutrophication and its impact on coastal biota.

701 Author contribution





- 702 AS carried out execution of field collection, sample analysis, data analysis and manuscript
- vriting. PB designed the sampling strategy, analysis strategy and manuscript writing.
- 704 Competing interests
- The authors declare that no competing interests exist for this study.
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966 List of Tables and Figures

Table 1. Values of Pearson's correlation co-efficient coefficient between the environmental and nutrient parameters observed in the lagoon for the studied period. Values from surface and bottom water fractions have been calculated by considering a sample size of n = 72, while values from pore water fractions have been calculated by using, n = 54. Significant values ($p \le 0.05$) have been emboldened.

- Table 2. Values of Pearson's correlation co-efficient between observed number of *Ammonia*specimens and studied parameters. Values from surface and bottom water fractions have been
- 974 calculated by considering a sample size of n = 72, while values from pore water fractions have
- -72, while values from pore water fractions has
- been calculated by using, n = 54. Significant values ($p \le 0.05$) have been emboldened.
- 976 Figure 1. (a) Location of the study area with respect to the Mahanadi basin which is the major 977 source of freshwater influx in the Chilika lagoon; (b) Location of the sampling stations with 978 respect to the different rivers that flow into the lagoon that can act as potential point sources of 979 pollutions.
- Figure 2. Box and whiskers plot depicting the variation of temperature (°C) in the lagoonobserved during the sampling period.
- Figure 3. Values of environmental parameters measured from the sampling stations during thesampling period.
- Figure 4. Concentrations of dissolved nutrients estimated from samples collected during thesampling period.
- Figure 5. Box and whiskers plot depicting the variation in the concentration of the measuredPTEs during the sampling period.
- Figure 6. Sediment composition across the sampling stations of Chilika lagoon. Observed sizeclasses of sediment particles have been grouped following Wentworth scale.
- 990 Figure 7. Characterization of sedimentary organic carbon in Chilika lagoon. The values of TOC
- and δ^{13} C‰ estimated from the surface (0-2 cm) sediment column collected from each sampling
- station during the sampling period.





- Figure 8. Number of observed live and dead specimens of *Ammonia* spp. in 10 c.c, of surface (0-
- 994 2 cm) sediment.
- Figure 9. Cluster analysis of *Ammonia* spp. assemblage using a Bray-Curtis similarity measure.
 The numerical abundance of live and dead foraminifera were Log (X+1) transformed prior to the
 analysis.
- Figure 10. A comparison of N:P and N:Si ratios from all the studied compartments across the sampling stations. DIN was calculated by combining the values of dissolved NO_3^- and dissolved NH_4^+ . Ratios from surface and bottom water fractions have been calculated by considering a sample size of n = 72, while values from pore water fractions have been calculated by using, n = 1002 54.
- Figure 11. A comparison of observed TOC values and δ^{13} C‰ estimated from the surface (0-2 cm) sediment column in order to generate an idea of spatial patterning of carbon in the lagoon bottom.



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Iii. SiOi Iii. SiOi Iii. SiOi Bottom Water Qi Bottom Water Qi Iii. SiOi Iii. Bottom Water Qi Iii. Bottom Qi Iii. Bottom Qi Iii. Bottom Qi	gter B	eW surface Wa																	0.78	0.35	0.14	0.01	
Pore water distribution of the water distrib	is. SiO4	Bottom Wa																		0.35	0.16	-0.05	
Surface Water E.	ater	Pore wa																			-0.01	0.18	
Bottom Water E+	ater g.	eW əsettuZ																				0.34	
	S. NH4	Bottom Wa																					



Table 1. Values of Pearson's correlation co-efficient coefficient between the environmental and nutrient parameters observed in the

38





- Table 2. Values of Pearson's correlation co-efficient between observed number of *Ammonia* specimensand the studied parameters. Values from surface and bottom water fractions have been calculated by
- 1013 considering a sample size of n = 72, while values from pore water fractions have been calculated by
- 1014 using, n = 54. Significant values ($p \le 0.05$) have been emboldened.

		Live Ammonia spp	Total <i>Annonia</i> spp
ţy	Surface Water	-0.09	0.18
alini	Bottom Water	0.07	0.13
S	Pore water	0.08	0.03
	Surface Water	-0.08	-0.11
Hq	Bottom Water	-0.14	-0.11
	Pore water	0.10	-0.16
2	Surface Water	-0.18	-0.06
lis. C	Bottom Water	0.06	-0.04
5	Pore water	-0.03	-0.39
°.	Surface Water	0.23	0.21
N.	Bottom Water	0.29	0.21
ф	Pore water	0.20	0.04
)4 ³⁻	Surface Water	-0.04	0.02
s. PC	Bottom Water	-0.06	-0.02
ib	Pore water	-0.02	0.13
- ⁺	Surface Water	0.10	-0.11
s. Si	Bottom Water	-0.07	-0.20
ţi	Pore water	0.02	-0.17
+++++	Surface Water	-0.11	-0.14
s. Ni	Bottom Water	-0.02	-0.02
di	Pore water	0.24	-0.04
	TOC	0.31	0.29

1015





- 1017 Figure 1. (a) Location of the study area with respect to the Mahanadi basin which is the major source of
- 1018 freshwater influx in the Chilika lagoon; (b) Location of the sampling stations with respect to the
- 1019 different rivers that flow into the lagoon that can act as potential point sources of pollutions.







- 1021 Figure 2. Box and whiskers plot depicting the variation of temperature (°C) in the lagoon observed
- 1022 during the sampling period.



1023





.025 Figure 3. Values of environmental parameters measured from the sampling stations during the sampling



.028 Figure 4. Concentrations of dissolved nutrients estimated from samples collected during the sampling

.032 Figure 5. Box and whiskers plot depicting the variation in the concentration of the measured PTEs

- .038 Figure 6. Sediment composition across the sampling stations in Chilika lagoon. Observed size classes of
- .039 sediment particles have been grouped following Wentworth scale.

.040

.041

- .042 Figure 7. Characterization of sedimentary organic carbon in Chilika lagoon. Values of TOC and δ^{13} C‰
- .043 estimated from the surface (0-2 cm) sediment column collected from each sampling station during the

.044 sampling period.

.045

.046

.047

.048 Figure 8. Number of observed live and dead specimens of *Ammonia* spp. in 10 c.c, of surface (0-2 cm) .049 sediment.

.051

- 1052 Figure 9. Cluster analysis of Ammonia spp. assemblage using a Bray-Curtis similarity measure. The
- 1053 numerical abundance of live and dead for a minifera were Log(X+1) transformed prior to the analysis.

1054

Figure 10. A comparison of N:P and N:Si ratios from all the studied compartments across the sampling stations. DIN was calculated by combining the values of dissolved NO_3^- and dissolved NH_4^+ . Ratios from surface and bottom water fractions have been calculated by considering a sample size of n = 72, while values from pore water fractions have been calculated by using, n = 54.

- 1077 Figure 11. A comparison of observed TOC values and δ^{13} C‰ estimated from the surface (0-2 cm)
- 1078 sediment column in order to generate an idea of spatial patterning of carbon in the lagoon bottom.
- 1079

