



Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science 73 (2007) 17-29



The role of ammonium and nitrate in spring bloom development in San Francisco Bay

Richard C. Dugdale*, Frances P. Wilkerson, Victoria E. Hogue, Albert Marchi

Romberg Tiburon Center, San Francisco State University, 3152 Paradise Drive, Tiburon, CA 94920, USA

Received 19 April 2006; accepted 13 December 2006 Available online 2 February 2007

Abstract

The substantial inventory of nitrate (NO₃) in San Francisco Bay (SFB) is unavailable to the resident phytoplankton most of the year due to the presence of ammonium (NH₄) at inhibitory concentrations that prevents NO₃ uptake. Low annual primary productivity in this turbid estuary is generally attributed to the poor irradiance conditions. However, this may not be the only cause; spring phytoplankton blooms occur irregularly in north SFB only when NH_4 concentrations are low, $<4 \mu mol L^{-1}$ and NO_3 uptake by phytoplankton occurs. Field measurements and enclosure experiments confirm the NH₄ inhibition process to be the cause of low NO₃ utilization most of the year. Detailed analysis of spring blooms in three embayments of SFB over 3 years shows a consistent sequence of events that result in bursts of chlorophyll. The first requirement is improved irradiance conditions through stabilization of the water column by stratification or reduced tidal activity. Second, NH₄ concentrations must be reduced to a critical range, 1 to 4 μmol L⁻¹ through dilution by precipitation and by phytoplankton uptake. This enables rapid uptake of NO₃ and subsequent increase in chlorophyll. The resulting bloom is due to both the initial uptake of NH₄ and the subsequent uptake of NO₃. The NO₃ uptake step is crucial since it is the larger nitrogen source and uptake occurs at higher rates than that for NH₄ at the concentrations that occur in SFB. Existing models of light-limited, non-nutrient limited productivity in SFB require modification to include the NH4 inhibition effect. From measured NH₄ uptake rates and initial concentrations, calculations can be made to predict the length of time that favorable irradiance conditions are required for the phytoplankton population to reduce ambient NH₄ concentrations to non-inhibiting concentrations and allow bloom formation to begin. For Suisun Bay, the time required is so long that blooms are unlikely in any season. For San Pablo and Central Bays, these times are too long in summer but sufficiently short in spring to allow bloom development, depending on the ambient NH₄ concentration prior to the productivity season. NH₄ sources to SFB are primarily anthropogenic, from agricultural drainage and sewage treatment plants, and if not sufficiently diluted by runoff and precipitation can prevent development of the spring phytoplankton bloom. Attention should be paid to the form of N making up dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) in nutrient-rich estuaries. © 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: phytoplankton; estuary; ammonium; nitrate

Regional index terms: California; San Francisco Bay

1. Introduction

Turbid estuaries often exhibit low primary production that is usually attributed to the poor irradiance conditions and a shallow euphotic zone (Cloern, 1987). However, even in these

E-mail addresses: rdugdale@sfsu.edu (R.C. Dugdale), fwilkers@sfsu.edu (F.P. Wilkerson), vhogue@sfsu.edu (V.E. Hogue), amarchi@sfsu.edu (A. Marchi).

estuaries, considerable variability in primary productivity may occur over a variety of time scales, from daily to interannual. The timing and number of productivity events that occur in any one season are likely to play important roles in the provisioning of the food chain. Especially important may be the disruption of normal ecosystem cycles. For example, zooplankton species evolved to depend on phytoplankton blooms in spring for food and egg production, may find the expected bloom to be absent or moved significantly in time from the normal seasonal cycle. Changes in turbidity cycles, e.g. changes in

^{*} Corresponding author.

flow and wind patterns clearly have the potential for disrupting productivity cycles in turbid estuaries. However, other factors may be important as well in influencing timing and magnitude of primary production. Here, we consider the role of two different forms of inorganic nitrogen in modifying classical spring blooms of phytoplankton in San Francisco Bay (SFB), a turbid estuary impacted by anthropogenic inputs of nitrogenous nutrients (Schemel and Hager, 1986). Conventional wisdom suggests that NH₄ and NO₃ loadings to an estuary can be combined together as dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) since phytoplankton have been shown in culture to grow equally well on both nitrogen sources (Syrett, 1981). Phytoplankton are also thought to prefer NH₄ as a nitrogen source since the energetic costs of assimilating that species of nitrogen are less than that for NO₃. By inference, an estuary whose phytoplankton are utilizing NH₄ for growth should have the same primary productivity as if they were using NO₃, or perhaps even higher productivity on NH₄ compared to NO₃.

The ability to separate out the use of NO₃ and NH₄ by phytoplankton in the marine environment was pioneered by Dugdale and Goering (1967) using the stable isotope ¹⁵N as a tracer. This has proved to be a powerful tool in studies of primary production in marine ecosystems. In productive oceanic ecosystems, the most abundant species of DIN is NO₃ since NH₄ is readily oxidized to NO₃ and is the minor inorganic species (Codispoti, 1985). Although under some culture conditions algae use both forms of DIN simultaneously (Dortch, 1990), NO₃ uptake is suppressed or inhibited by relatively low concentrations of NH₄ as shown, for example, by Conway (1977) for the diatom Skeletonema costatum and by Cochlan and Harrison (1991) for the picoplankton species Micromonas pusilla. Field studies using 15N have confirmed the relationship between elevated NH₄ concentrations and low NO₃ uptake rates, e.g. in the Saronikos Gulf (Greece) due to the effects of sewage inputs (Dugdale and Hopkins, 1978); the Peru coastal upwelling system (Dugdale and MacIsaac, 1971); and more recently the upwelling center off Bodega Bay, California (Dugdale et al., 2006). In each of these studies, NO₃ uptake was negatively correlated and reduced to low levels with ambient NH₄ concentrations in the range of $1-2.5 \mu \text{mol L}^{-1}$. ¹⁵N studies in a series of upwelling sites, from Baja California to northwest Africa and Peru showed maximum specific NO₃ uptake rates to always exceed maximum specific NH₄ uptake rates with the conclusion "that the high biological productivity of the Peruvian upwelling system may be linked to the ability of the phytoplankton to take up and utilize NO₃ at an extraordinary rate" (Codispoti et al., 1982). By analogy with these marine studies, estuaries could be expected to have higher primary productivity with phytoplankton growing on NO₃ than when growing on NH₄. However, if NH₄ is at an inhibitory level, this form of DIN may not allow the high NO₃-based productivity. San Francisco Bay, as an urban estuary impacted by anthropogenic inputs and with the likelihood of high NH₄ concentrations, provided an ideal environment to investigate this scenario.

We initiated studies of nutrient and productivity processes in SFB in 1997 using the stable isotope tracer ¹⁵N and found

that NH₄ uptake by phytoplankton in Central SFB dominated DIN uptake and that NO₃ uptake was a rare occurrence in spite of abundant ambient NO₃ concentrations (Hogue et al., 2005). Similar observations were made for the Delaware Estuary (Pennock, 1987) where NH₄ fuels productivity in a high NO₃ setting. Most annual primary production in central SFB depended upon NH₄ (Hogue et al., 2005) except during spring when ambient NH₄ concentrations fell to low values and high levels of primary production based on NO₃ occurred. Subsequent measurements in the northern estuary (Suisun. San Pablo and Central Bays) were carried out from 1999 to 2002 that described the seasonal variability in nutrients, nutrient uptake and phytoplankton abundance (Wilkerson et al., 2006). In fall, there were small occasional blooms fueled by NH₄ uptake by small-sized phytoplankton but the major periods of high productivity and chlorophyll accumulation occurred in spring dominated by large-sized phytoplankton, mostly diatoms (Cloern and Dufford, 2005). During spring blooms, there were higher rates of NO₃ uptake than NH₄ uptake indicating higher growth rates on NO₃ by the phytoplankton. Spring blooms were observed in all three bays in 2000, but only in San Pablo and Central Bays in 2001 and 2002. Interestingly, the bloom in Suisun Bay in spring 2000 had the greatest phytoplankton abundance observed reaching $30 \,\mu g \, L^{-1}$ chlorophyll. This occurred when there were very low salinity values and low NH₄ concentrations, neither of which occurred there in 2001 or 2002 (Wilkerson et al., 2006), accompanied by high NO₃ uptake rates. This suggested that NH₄ played a role in bloom dynamics, by limiting phytoplankton access to the NO₃ pool. The goal of this study was to analyze the data collected during the 1999-2002 study and to use experimental enclosures to determine the conditions and mechanisms required to give phytoplankton access to the ambient NO₃ and accumulate chlorophyll during spring blooms. We evaluate the role of two components of the DIN pool (i.e. NH₄ and NO₃) and their interaction as modulators of the development and/or suppression of spring blooms in San Francisco Bay.

2. Methods

2.1. Field data

Cruises designed to sample San Francisco Bay (SFB) monthly and weekly during the spring months of March and April were conducted aboard the R/V Questuary from November 1999 to August 2003. Water was sampled at three locations: Suisun Bay (USGS Sampling Station 6, 38′ 3.9°N 122′ 2.1°W), San Pablo Bay (USGS Station 13, 38′ 1.7°N 121′ 22.2°W) and Central Bay (RTC Station XB-D, 37′ 53.83°N 122′ 25.5°W) using a Seabird SBE-19 CTD and 3-L Niskin bottles mounted on an SBE-33 carousel. Surface samples were taken for analyses of nutrients, chlorophyll *a* and ¹⁵N labeled NO₃ or NH₄ uptake. The complete time series data (temperature, salinity, nutrients and size fractionated biomass and DIN uptake) are described in Wilkerson et al. (2006).

2.2. Enclosure experiments

The progression of DIN uptake was investigated in SFB water containing different ambient levels of NH₄ or treated with different additions of NH₄. In 1999, six experiments (labeled A–F) were carried out on different days in April to July (Hogue, 2000) using 1-L polycarbonate bottles filled with surface water from Central Bay sampled between the high and low afternoon tides. The experiments (A–F) started with different ambient NH₄ concentrations. In April 2003, an enclosure experiment was conducted in which additions of NH₄ (5 to 30 μmol L⁻¹ of NH₄Cl) were made to surface Central Bay water placed in 20-L polyethylene cubitainers. All enclosures were placed in water-cooled tables under mesh screening (to reduce light to 50% of ambient available light). The enclosures were sampled daily for up to 4 days for nutrients, chlorophyll *a* and uptake of ¹⁵NO₃ or ¹⁵NH₄.

2.3. Analytical methods

NO₃ concentrations were determined using a Bran and Lubbe AutoAnalyzer II (Whitledge et al., 1981) and NH₄ using a spectrophotometer according to Solorzano (1969). Water samples were prefiltered using precombusted GF/F filters before NH₄ analysis. Chlorophyll a was determined by in vitro fluorometry (Arar and Collins, 1992) using a Turner Designs Model 10 fluorometer, calibrated with commercially available chlorophyll a (either Sigma Chemical Company or Turner Designs) on samples filtered onto Whatman 25 mm GF/F filters. Nitrogen uptake was measured using ¹⁵N additions to SFB water or water sampled from enclosures and the ¹⁵N incorporated measured using mass spectrometry. Uptake incubations were carried out in 280-ml polycarbonate bottles, for 24 h (for time series data, Wilkerson et al., 2006) or 6 h around local noon (for the enclosure data) on incubation tables cooled with filtered SFB water and under screening to expose them to 50% of ambient light. ¹⁵N inoculations were of trace additions (approximately 10% of ambient DIN concentrations) or saturated $(5 \,\mu\text{mol}\,L^{-1})$ additions of either $K^{15}NO_3$ or ¹⁵NH₄Cl (99 atom% ¹⁵N). Cases where saturated additions were used are noted in the figure legends. Incubations were terminated by filtration onto precombusted (450 °C for 4 h) 25 mm GF/F filters and frozen until analysis for ¹⁵N enrichment with a Europa Tracermass (Wilkerson and Dugdale, 1992) or PDZ 20/20 mass spectrometer system. The transport rates $(\rho, \text{ in } \mu\text{mol } L^{-1} h^{-1})$ and V (biomass specific uptake in h⁻¹) were calculated according to Dugdale and Wilkerson (1986).

3. Results

3.1. Field data from Suisun, San Pablo, and Central Bays

To establish the role of DIN and interacting nutrient processes in occurrences and extent of SFB blooms, the time series data for concentrations of chlorophyll, NH₄, and NO₃ and

uptake of ¹⁵NO₃ in Suisun, San Pablo, and Central Bays, measured between late 1999 and 2003 are shown in Fig. 1a-d. Four spring peaks in chlorophyll (blooms) occur in San Pablo and Central Bays (Fig. 1a) that coincide with reduced NH₄ concentrations, often near zero (Fig. 1b). In Suisun Bay, only one bloom was observed, in 2000 that occurred when NH₄ concentrations were low in the spring, in contrast to the other years when NH₄ levels were high. The chlorophyll peaks in all bays were coincident with peaks in ¹⁵NO₃ uptake (Fig. 1c) that was otherwise very low (almost zero) the rest of the time. In all three bays sampled, concentrations of NH_4 were above 4 μ mol L⁻¹ most of the year (Fig. 1b), except during the spring bloom periods. Nitrate was high (nonlimiting), $>20 \mu \text{mol L}^{-1}$ most of the year (Fig. 1d). Winter uptake rates were lowest of all seasons probably due to poor irradiance conditions.

When all the $^{15}NO_3$ uptake rates collected from the three bays are plotted versus NH_4 concentration (Fig. 2a), a distinct threshold is seen such that very low NO_3 uptake occurs at higher NH_4 concentrations (>4 μ mol L^{-1}). The ratio of ρNO_3 to ρNH_4 uptake shows the same trend with low ratios at high NH_4 concentrations (Fig. 2b). The symbols used for these ratios are bubbles that reflect the chlorophyll concentration. With low NH_4 concentrations (i.e. <4 μ mol L^{-1}), there are higher ratios of ρNO_3 to ρNH_4 and larger chlorophyll biomass (bigger bubbles) (Fig. 2b). Together these two figures (Fig. 2a,b) and the time series plots (Fig. 1) show that "bloom" levels of chlorophyll are evident only when NO_3 uptake occurs and that NO_3 uptake only takes place at lower ambient NH_4 concentrations.

To observe this relationship during just the spring bloom periods, biomass specific nitrate uptake rates, VNO₃ versus ambient NH₄, were plotted for all three bays using data only from the spring seasons (Fig. 3). These also show a pattern of rapidly rising values of VNO₃ at NH₄ concentrations below about 4 µmol L⁻¹ NH₄ likely caused by NH₄ inhibition of NO₃ uptake. A variety of mathematical formulations of NO₃ uptake inhibition by NH₄ have been described including both linear and exponential (Dortch, 1990). Cochlan and Harrison (1991) fitted experimental data of NH₄ inhibition of NO₃ uptake from cultured phytoplankton with an exponential function. The best fit to the SFB spring data set for San Pablo and Central Bays was obtained with a power exponential function, $\ln VNO_3 = -1.28 \times \ln [NH_4] - 4.26$ (Fig. 3). Although the r^2 was fairly low (0.5), the visual fit and the curvilinear exponential agreement with the Cochlan and Harrison (1991) relationship suggest that the field data showing low NO₃ uptake at elevated NH₄ concentrations are consistent with interpretation as the result of NH₄ inhibition.

When NH₄ uptake is plotted versus NH₄ for San Pablo and Central Bays using spring data (Fig. 4a), a pattern opposite to that of VNO_3 results, i.e. decreasing VNH_4 with decreasing NH₄ concentrations, that can be fit with a straight line $(VNH_4 = 0.025 \times [NH_4])$ with an r^2 of 0.9. The relationship for VNH_4 versus NH₄ for Suisun Bay shows no obvious pattern (Fig. 4b), which cannot be explained at present but has been observed in samples since 2002 and in recent enclosure

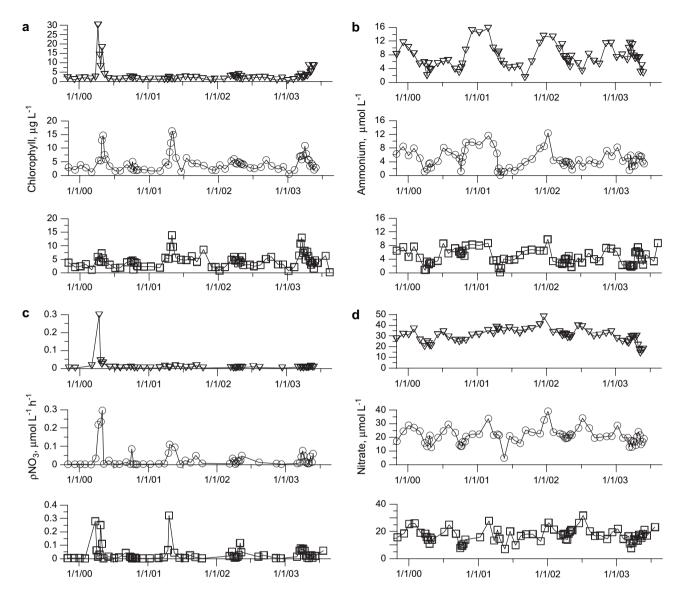


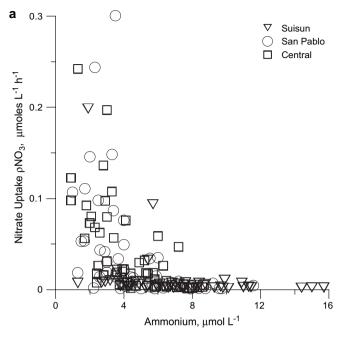
Fig. 1. Surface time series data collected in Suisun (triangles), San Pablo (circles) and Central Bays (squares) from November 1999 to August 2003. (a) Chlorophyll a, μ g L⁻¹, (b) NH₄, μ mol L⁻¹, (c) trace ρ ¹⁵NO₃, μ mol L⁻¹ h⁻¹, (d) NO₃, μ mol L⁻¹.

experiments using water from all three bays. Suisun Bay enclosures show consistently low initial NH₄ uptake rates (A. Parker, pers. comm.). Figs. 3 and 4 imply that with decreasing NH₄ concentrations, if NO₃ is present, a transition from primarily NH₄-based N uptake (Fig. 4a) to primarily NO₃ uptake will begin at about 4 μ mol L $^{-1}$ NH₄ increasing rapidly by 1 μ mol L $^{-1}$ where inhibition has decreased to 60% (calculated from the exponential fit in Fig. 3) and will end with solely NO₃ uptake (Fig. 3) when NH₄ concentration is reduced to zero.

3.2. Bloom development in San Pablo Bay, Spring 2001 and Central Bay, Spring 2002

To examine the transition between predominantly NH_4 uptake and predominantly NO_3 uptake and the consequences on algal biomass accumulation as chlorophyll in SFB, rates during the spring blooms of 2001 in San Pablo and 2002 in Central Bay were studied in more detail. The sequence of events in

San Pablo Bay leading to the 2001 phytoplankton bloom began in late February with NO₃ concentrations $>20 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{L}^{-1}$ (Fig. 1d), NH₄ concentrations >10 μ mol L⁻¹ and low specific N uptake rates, VNH_4 and VNO_3 , $<0.005 \,\mathrm{h}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5a). Chlorophyll was also low, $<2 \,\mu g \, L^{-1}$ as were ρNH_4 and ρNO_3 , $< 0.02 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{L}^{-1}\,\text{h}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5b). March samples were characterized by an increase in VNH₄ (Fig. 5a), but no increase in VNO_3 , an increase in ρNH_4 , but not in ρNO_3 , (Fig. 5b), an increase in chlorophyll (Fig. 5b) and a decrease in NH₄ (Fig. 5a). By mid-April, NH₄ concentration fell to ca. $<2 \mu mol L^{-1}$, VNH_4 and ρNH_4 decreased to low, February values. However, VNO_3 increased as did ρNO_3 along with chlorophyll concentration that all rose steeply reaching maxima at the time when the sum of ρNH_4 and ρNO_3 reached a peak (Fig. 5b). Following the peak in chlorophyll, NO₃ concentration fell to ca. 5 μ mol L⁻¹ (not shown), VNO₃ and ρ NO₃ decreased to reach February values by early June and chlorophyll declined, marking the end of the spring bloom. This same temporal



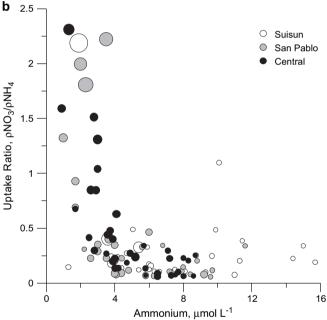


Fig. 2. (a) Saturated ρNO_3 , $\mu mol L^{-1} h^{-1}$ versus NH_4 , $\mu mol L^{-1}$ for Suisun, San Pablo and Central Bays and (b) ratio of saturated ρNO_3 to ρNH_4 versus NH_4 , $\mu mol L^{-1}$. The points in the graph are shown as bubbles that indicate chlorophyll concentration.

sequence resolved on a better time scale (as weekly samples were available), with rising VNH₄, falling NH₄ concentration, rising VNO₃, and peak values of combined NH₄ and NO₃ uptake and chlorophyll concentration occurred in the Central Bay during development of the spring bloom in 2002 (Fig. 6a,b).

These trends can be interpreted as the result of the following physiological response sequence to initially non-limiting levels of NH₄ and NO₃: (1) an increase in VNH₄ (presumably the result of improved irradiance/stability conditions) resulting in a small increase in biomass (chlorophyll); (2) as a result of the increase in p NH₄ (i.e. VNH₄ × biomass as particulate

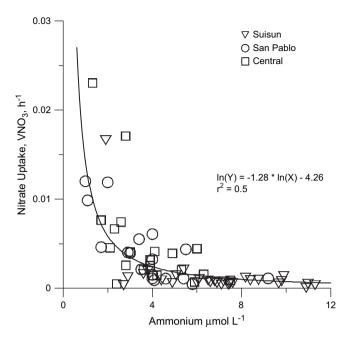


Fig. 3. Trace VNO_3 , h^{-1} versus NH_4 concentration, μ mol L^{-1} for the spring bloom periods in Suisun, San Pablo and Central Bays. Exponential line fit through the San Pablo and Central Bay data.

nitrogen, PON), a decrease in NH₄ concentration occurs to less inhibiting levels for NO₃ uptake; and then (3) VNO₃ rises and with an increase in ρNO_3 fuels a strong increase in biomass. Although VNH_4 has declined to low levels at this stage, ρ NH₄ remains relatively high due to the high biomass (i.e. low $VNH_4 \times high PON = high \rho NH_4$). Then (4) a short period of high ρN_{total} (i.e. sum of ρNO_3 and ρNH_4) occurs as chlorophyll concentration peaks; and (5) finally reduced ambient concentrations of NO₃ and NH₄, no longer support the phytoplankton population and the spring bloom is terminated. There are two transition points or "thresholds" for NH₄ concentration that need to be distinguished and kept in mind. The first is the 4 μ mol L⁻¹ value when chlorophyll accumulation based on NH₄ uptake begins, and the second, about 1 μ mol L⁻¹ NH₄ when the inhibition effect is reduced to about half maximum (60% according to the curve fit in Fig. 3). Below that value NO₃ uptake increases steeply with decreased NH₄ concentrations. Neither of these values should be taken as invariant, but in SFB they are in the expected order, NH₄ uptake first, then NO₃. With favorable irradiance and water column stability, the signature of an oncoming spring bloom is the simultaneous decline in VNH₄ and increase in VNO₃ and a maximum in summed NH₄ and NO₃ uptake coinciding with a peak value of chlorophyll. This sequence explains the apparent requirement for NO₃ uptake for bloom formation, the threshold of ca. 4 μmol L⁻¹ NH₄ below which high chlorophyll concentrations develop, and the high ratio of NO₃ to NH₄ uptake (>1) when chlorophyll concentrations are high (Fig. 2b).

3.3. Enclosure experiments

A series of mesocosm/enclosure experiments were conducted using SFB water to track phytoplankton uptake rates

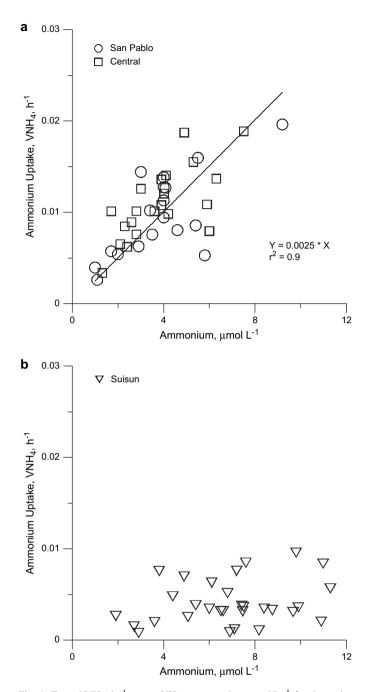


Fig. 4. Trace VNH_4 , h^{-1} versus NH_4 concentration, μ mol L^{-1} for the spring bloom periods in (a) San Pablo and Central Bays, (b) Suisun Bay.

on a daily basis and without the light limitation that results from turbulent mixing in situ. Changes in uptake of NH₄ and NO₃ in response to different ambient NH₄ concentrations were measured in water from Central Bay held in experimental enclosures. Enclosure experiments (Fig. 7a—e) that contained different ambient concentrations of NH₄ (low ambient NH₄ <5 μ mol L⁻¹ and higher, >5 μ mol L⁻¹) showed depletion of NO₃ to occur once NH₄ had been reduced to low levels (Fig. 7a,b). Depletion of NO₃ began after 1 day in the enclosures with low initial NH₄ (enclosures A, B; Fig. 7a). In the enclosures (C, D, E, F) with higher initial ambient levels of NH₄, there was a lag before NO₃ was drawn down and NO₃

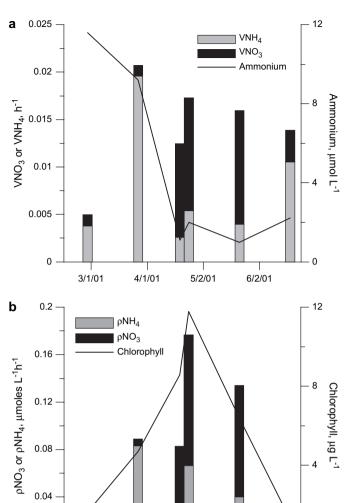


Fig. 5. (a) Trace VNH_4 , h^{-1} , trace VNO_3 , h^{-1} and NH_4 , $\mu mol L^{-1}$, (b) trace ρNH_4 , $\mu mol L^{-1} h^{-1}$, trace ρNO_3 , $\mu mol L^{-1} h^{-1}$ and chlorophyll concentration, $\mu g L^{-1}$ for San Pablo Bay in spring, 2001. NO_3 concentration at start was 33.6 $\mu mol L^{-1}$.

5/2/01

6/2/01

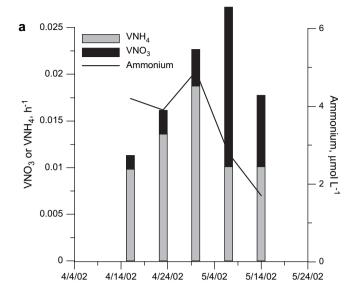
4/1/01

0

3/1/01

concentrations in the enclosures decreased (Fig. 7b). Maximum VNO_3 was delayed (Fig. 7c) in most of the enclosures with higher initial NH₄ (enclosures C, E, F). Maximum specific NO₃ uptake was reached after 2–3 days (Fig. 7c) depending on the initial concentration of NH₄, with values of VNO_3 exceeding those of VNH_4 . There was no change in VNH_4 uptake with time in the enclosures (Fig. 7d). Chlorophyll a biomass accumulated in all enclosures reaching almost 30 μ g L⁻¹ (Fig. 7e) supported primarily by NO₃ (Fig. 7a,b) as calculated by simple mass balance assuming 1 μ g chlorophyll a generated for 1 μ mol N taken up.

The effect of adding more NH_4 to enclosures to see if NO_3 uptake was suppressed was investigated in spring 2003 using 20-L enclosures filled with Central Bay water and different experimental additions of NH_4 (5 to 30 μ mol L^{-1}). Increased NH_4 concentration resulted in a delay of the onset of NO_3 uptake, or increased lag time before NO_3 depletion was observed



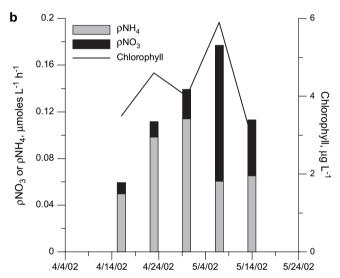


Fig. 6. (a) Trace VNH_4 , h^{-1} , trace VNO_3 , h^{-1} and NH_4 , $\mu mol L^{-1}$, (b) trace ρNH_4 , $\mu mol L^{-1} h^{-1}$, trace ρNO_3 , $\mu mol L^{-1} h^{-1}$ and chlorophyll concentration, $\mu g L^{-1}$ for Central Bay in spring, 2002. NO_3 concentration at start was $14 \ \mu mol L^{-1}$.

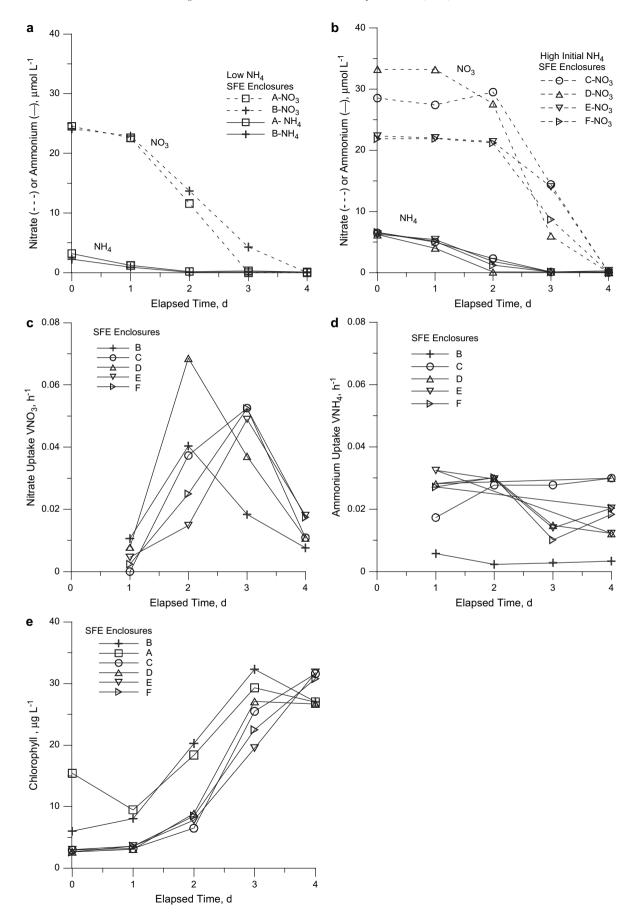
(Fig. 8a). The enclosure with no experimental addition had an initial NH₄ concentration of 5.7 µmol L⁻¹ and required 2 days to reduce the NH₄ concentration to a low value (0.8 μ mol L⁻¹; Fig. 8b), at which point NO₃ decreased in the enclosure (Fig. 8a). At the highest addition, $30 \,\mu\text{mol}\,L^{-1}$, no NO₃ decrease was observed during the 4 days of the experiment. When the values of VNO₃ from the different sets of additions were combined for all 4 days of the experiment and plotted versus the NH₄ concentration at the sampling time of the uptake measurement (Fig. 8c), high values of VNO₃ appear only at low NH₄ concentrations, ca. 1 µmol L⁻¹. At higher NH₄ concentrations VNO₃ values are low, near zero rates. The pattern and values are consistent with the field data observed in the three bays (Figs. 2a and 3). The high ratio of VNO₃ to VNH₄ (Fig. 8d), at low NH₄ concentrations shows the same pattern as seen for the uptake ratio in the three bays (Fig. 2b). These results demonstrate that the NH_4 inhibition effects apparent in the bay can be experimentally reproduced by the addition of NH_4 to SFB water, i.e. a direct demonstration of NH_4 inhibition of NO_3 uptake in bay water.

4. Discussion

4.1. Overview

The conditions in SFB are what have been termed for estuaries as HNLC, high nutrient low chlorophyll (Cloern, 2001) or HNLG, high nutrient low growth (Sharp, 2001). Most of the year primary production is low, and nutrients are in excess of requirements and exported from the estuary. Control of primary production in SFB was summarized by Jassby et al. (1996) as a light-limited system with nutrients assumed to be replete and non-limiting. Our results show that in addition to irradiance conditions, the details of different DIN processes need to be considered since the high NO₃ concentrations in the estuary are generally unavailable to the phytoplankton due to the presence of NH₄.

A modified conceptual model for the spring bloom primary production in northern San Francisco Bay based on that of Cole and Cloern (1984) and Jassby et al. (1996) and incorporating our DIN uptake results can be described by the following series of events. During winter with low irradiance conditions, primary nutrients including NH₄ accumulate due to continuing inputs and low phytoplankton nutrient uptake activity. In spring, increases in seasonal irradiance create favorable conditions for phytoplankton growth and NH₄ concentrations decrease due to dilution by spring runoff (Peterson et al., 1985) and by phytoplankton uptake (Fig. 4a). With sufficient time in favorable light conditions and water column stability, an initial increase in chlorophyll occurs based on NH₄ uptake (Fig. 5b). If the combination of these processes results in NH₄ concentrations being reduced to below $4 \,\mu\text{mol}\,L^{-1}$ to a value of about $1 \,\mu\text{mol}\,L^{-1}$ (Fig. 3), NO₃ uptake is turned on and more chlorophyll can accumulate if irradiance conditions are still favorable. A spring bloom occurs based upon the input of both NH₄ and the higher ambient concentration of NO₃. Mass balance considerations indicate that to obtain the concentrations of chlorophyll measured in SFB, ambient NH₄ is insufficient and NO₃ must be used also. If NO₃ uptake is not turned on, the biomass increase is small and limited to the amount of NH₄ taken up. In years with insufficient dilution, and higher levels of NH₄ (i.e. $>4 \mu \text{mol L}^{-1}$) no spring blooms occur (e.g. Suisun Bay in 2001, 2002). The spring bloom, if it occurs, is terminated by nutrient depletion, unfavorable light/stability conditions, or grazing and the phytoplankton population crashes. As the bloom fades, the combination of low rates of phytoplankton uptake of NH₄ and regeneration of the bloom-produced organic nitrogen by grazing or by bacterial action at the sediment surface (Caffrey, 1995) results in NH₄ concentrations returning to levels inhibiting NO₃ uptake. Similar observations have been described for Delaware Bay (Sharp et al., 1984; Pennock and Sharp, 1994; Yoshiyama and Sharp, 2006) with



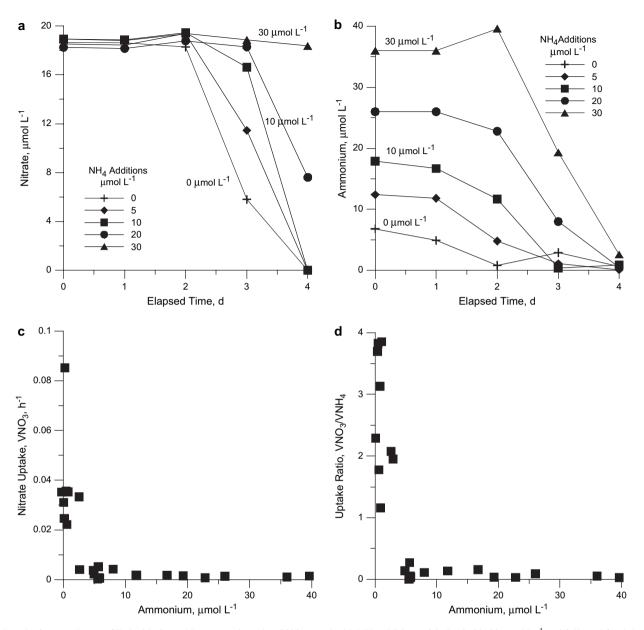


Fig. 8. Results from enclosures filled with Central Bay water in spring 2003 treated with NH₄ additions of 0, 5, 10, 20, 30 μ mol L⁻¹ and followed for 4 days. (a) NO₃, μ mol L⁻¹, (b) NH₄, μ mol L⁻¹ plotted against elapsed time, (c) trace VNO₃, h^{-1} , (d) ratio of trace VNO₃:VNH₄ plotted against the NH₄, μ mol L⁻¹ at the sampling time of the uptake measurement.

spring blooms initiated by NH_4 , and after exhaustion of NH_4 significant uptake of NO_3 , that is followed by a return in summer to the use of NH_4 .

4.2. Predicting the time scale for bloom development

Based on these results, within the time frame of a favorable irradiance/stability event (e.g. neap tides, low wind, high incoming irradiance), a critical process for bloom development in SFB is the reduction of NH_4 concentration to values allowing NO_3 uptake to take place. The time required to reduce NH_4

concentrations, from the typical high levels in SFB, to reduced inhibitory levels for NO_3 uptake (i.e. to about 50% inhibition at 1 μ mol L^{-1} NH_4) can be calculated for different bays in different seasons, assuming sufficient time with favorable irradiance, as:

Time to 1
$$\mu$$
mol L⁻¹ NH₄ = $(NH_{4(initial)} - 1)/\rho NH_4$ (1)

where ρNH_4 is the measured mean ρNH_4 value. Values calculated from Eq. (1) using the seasonal mean NH_4 concentrations and NH_4 uptake rates (from Wilkerson et al., 2006) are

Fig. 7. Results from enclosures filled with Central Bay water in spring 1999 that contained low (enclosures A, B) or high ambient initial NH₄ (enclosures C, D, E, F); all frames show results against elapsed time up to 4 days. (a) NO₃ and NH₄ concentration, μ mol L⁻¹ in enclosures A and B (low NH₄), (b) NO₃ and NH₄ concentrations, μ mol L⁻¹ in enclosures C–F (high NH₄), (c) trace ν NO₃, h⁻¹, (d) trace ν NH₄, h⁻¹ versus elapsed time in enclosures B through F. No ¹⁵N data are available for enclosure A. (e) Chlorophyll concentration (μ g L⁻¹) in enclosures A–F.

presented in Table 1. On the assumption that a day on each side of neap tide for a total of 3 days would provide sufficiently improved irradiance conditions to allow NH₄ uptake to increase and to occur at the mean rates shown in Table 1, the potential for bloom development in the three bays can be assessed (Table 1). In this scenario, spring blooms could be initiated by a 3-day irradiance/stability event in both San Pablo and Central Bays since the depletion times (to reach 1 μ mol L⁻¹) are just below 3 days for each bay. In summer, the unfavorable times for depletion of NH₄ in San Pablo and Central Bays, 8.5 and 8.4 days, respectively, are due largely to the almost 2-fold decrease in mean NH₄ uptake in summer. Unfavorable conditions in Suisun Bay for both seasons, 15 days in spring and 9.6 days in summer for NH₄ to reach 1 μmol L⁻¹, are due to both low NH₄ uptake rates, which do not increase in spring as occurs in the other two bays, (a condition also measured in recent enclosure experiments, A. Parker, pers. comm.) and to high mean NH₄ concentrations. The reason for this low NH₄ uptake condition is unknown at present. This analysis is consistent with the lack of observed blooms in summer in all three bays and the observation of spring blooms only in San Pablo and Central Bays (excepting the 2000 bloom in Suisun when there were low ambient NH₄ concentrations, Wilkerson et al., 2006).

This analysis of the conditions for bloom initiation in San Francisco Bay is a worst-case scenario, and conservative since it uses mean values for NH₄ uptake. It is likely that after 1 or 2 days of good irradiance/stability conditions, the NH₄ uptake rate would increase above the mean value and shorten the time to reach 1 μ mol L⁻¹ NH₄, when high rates of NO₃ uptake would occur. In enclosure experiments, NH₄ uptake rates increased with time and resulted in rapid reduction in NH4 to zero in 2-3 days in the enclosure experiments. Besides time to reduce ambient NH₄ to non-inhibitory levels, bloom formation also requires more time with sufficient light for NO₃ uptake and assimilation and for biomass to be synthesized. Enclosure experiments indicate this time to be a further 2-3days, i.e. with sufficient irradiance and water stability, and a low ambient NH₄, a bloom could develop in 5-6 days. This scenario (based upon data from northern SFB) is consistent with the time scales of the model and field data for South SFB reported by Cloern (1991), who analyzed the effects of the spring and neap tide cycles on the development of phytoplankton blooms and showed chlorophyll concentrations increased from 4 to as high as $32 \mu g L^{-1}$ by day 6 of a neap tide cycle.

4.3. Consequences of high NH₄ loading

 NH_4 inhibition of NO_3 uptake contributes to a reduction in primary production in SFB by shutting off phytoplankton access to the larger reservoir of inorganic nitrogen, e.g. the mean concentration of NH_4 in San Pablo Bay in winter is $8~\mu mol~L^{-1}$ and that of NO_3 is $26.9~\mu mol~L^{-1}$ (Wilkerson et al., 2006). If chlorophyll were to be produced in a spring bloom equally by consuming either NH_4 at $8~\mu mol~L^{-1}$ or NO_3 at $26.8~\mu mol~L^{-1}$, an NO_3 -based bloom would produce ca. 3.4~times as much chlorophyll as one based on NH_4 alone; or if both sources were fully utilized, the resulting chlorophyll would be 4.4~times that of an NH_4 -only bloom.

The potential effect of NH₄ inhibition of NO₃ uptake modulating primary production in other estuaries will depend upon the nature of any other nutrient limitation, e.g. there may be no effect on a phosphate (PO₄) or silicate (Si(OH)₄) limited system. However, if substantial NH₄ is present ($>4 \mu mol L^{-1}$) then NO₃ should be eliminated as an accessible DIN source in any nutrient ratio calculation. Using mean concentrations in Central Bay of SFB in summer (from Table 1 and Wilkerson et al., 2006), $Si(OH)_4 = 73.0 \, \mu mol \, L^{-1}$, $NO_3 = 20.7 \, \mu mol \, L^{-1}$, $NH_4 = 4.9 \ \mu mol \ L^{-1}$, $PO_4 = 2.9 \ \mu mol \ L^{-1}$, Central Bay is clearly N limited (with a ratio of P to available DIN of 1:1.7), despite the presence of considerable NO₃. The Central Bay primary production ecosystem is likely regulating in summer on NH₄ through a combination of inputs from anthropogenic sources, by regeneration at the sediment surface and by grazing. The quasi-steady state concentration of NH₄ makes the NO₃ pool invisible to the ecosystem.

Irradiance and physical conditions are important in determining the outcome of NH₄ inhibition on productivity. In other estuaries with irradiance conditions that are favorable for long periods of time (unlike SFB) accompanied by high NH₄ inputs, blooms of the type described for SFB will occur more regularly as a result of sufficient light and drawdown of NH₄ to non-inhibiting concentrations. For example, the decadelong time series of weekly nutrients and chlorophyll in the Skidaway River estuary (Verity, 2002a,b) shows one or two strong seasonal blooms each year with chlorophyll concentrations up to $20 \mu g L^{-1}$. NH₄ concentrations can be as high as 10 μmol L⁻¹ but appear to be drawn down to a range 0.1 to $1 \ \text{umol} \ L^{-1}$ that allows access to NO_3 which is drawn down from 10 to 0 μ mol L^{-1} , with accompanying increase in chlorophyll of up to $20 \mu g L^{-1}$; values that would require the sum of NO₃ and NH₄ uptake to occur.

Table 1 Days to deplete ambient NH_4 to 1 μ mol L^{-1} calculated for Central, San Pablo and Suisun Bays using mean values for spring (March, April, and May) and summer (June, July, and August)

Bay	Spring			Summer		
	Days to $1 \mu \text{mol } L^{-1}$	Mean NH ₄ $(\mu mol L^{-1})$	Mean ρ NH ₄ (nmol L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)	Days to $1 \mu \text{mol } L^{-1}$	Mean NH ₄ (μ mol L ⁻¹)	Mean ρ NH ₄ (nmol L ⁻¹ h ⁻¹)
Central	2.7	3.2	67.76	8.4	4.9	38.46
San Pablo	2.8	3.5	75.63	8.5	4.1	30.50
Suisun	15	6.8	32.23	9.6	5.3	37.30

4.4. Implications for management

Many rivers and estuaries of the U.S. are experiencing increasing loads of NH₄ (Paerl, 1999). An understanding of the critical role of anthropogenic NH₄ input could provide a powerful tool for management of estuarine productivity, since typically the proportion of the anthropogenic input/loading of NH₄ in these regions can be controlled by changes in water treatment practices and water allocation (dilution). Some agricultural practices could be modified to reduce NH₄ inputs as well. Regulating NH₄ emissions/dilution may be a useful tool in managing food web structure and healthy primary production (Nixon and Buckley, 2002) in eutrophic regions that do not have excessive phytoplankton buildup or reduced oxygen concentrations. For example, the conversion of NH₄ to NO₃ by advanced secondary treatment would make all forms of DIN available for primary production with substantial increases in potential phytoplankton biomass and primary production in spring, and perhaps in summer as well, in SFB.

Climate change will modulate the impact of NH₄ on bloom formation. The basic pattern of NH₄ distribution in SFB in winter is the result of mixing between water with high NH₄ and low salinity at the head of the estuary, and low NH₄ and high salinity at the seaward end (Peterson et al., 1985; Wilkerson et al., 2006). However, river runoff to the SFB is highly variable (Schemel and Hager, 1986) and the NH₄ concentration in the northern part of the bay may be reduced to near zero in wet years (Peterson et al., 1985) by dilution. In dry years, the concentration of NH₄ remains high or is increased and up to 80% of the NH₄ in northern SFB may be due to sewage treatment effluent and agricultural drainage (Hager and Schemel, 1992). Dry years have already been associated with low chlorophyll (Lehman, 1996) with negative consequences for higher trophic levels that are adapted to the spring bloom productivity period.

4.5. Implications for decline in productivity observed in SFB

During the period 1975-1995, the upper reaches of the SFB experienced a long term decline in primary production, chlorophyll concentration (Jassby et al., 2002), zooplankton abundance (Kimmerer, 2002) and fish populations (Bennett and Moyle, 1996). Water transparency (which increased) was eliminated as a cause of the decline in productivity, as were changes in river flow (Jassby et al., 2002). Increased grazing, resulting from the invasion of Suisun Bay by the exotic clam Corbula amurensis in 1987-1999 (Nichols et al., 1990), was thought to contribute to the same. However, the decline in chlorophyll began prior to the appearance of C. amurensis in 1987, declining from 13 $\mu g L^{-1}$ to $7 \mu g L^{-1}$ from 1978 to 1986 (Fig. 5 in Alpine and Cloern, 1992) suggesting some other causal factor, possibly increased NH₄ inputs (due to changes in sewage treatment practices), in place prior to the appearance of the clams. After 1987, the biomass of chlorophyll in Suisun Bay in summer has remained low, coinciding with the arrival of the invasive clam, *C. amurensis*, population which has the capability of filtering the entire water column in less than 1 day (Thompson, 2000).

Suisun Bay annual productivity is negatively influenced in different ways in spring and in summer. Strong spring blooms can occur as in 2000, but are usually suppressed by high NH₄. The invasive clam Corbula is not abundant in spring. However, in summer Suisun Bay productivity is held to low levels by clam grazing. Clam grazing ensures the inability of the phytoplankton to build phytoplankton biomass and access NO₃ in two ways, by holding chlorophyll levels too low to reduce NH₄ to non-inhibitory levels, and by regenerating a portion of the assimilated nitrogen and contributing to the ambient NH₄ pool. The effect of the clams in Suisun Bay impacts the seaward bays (San Pablo and Central Bays) as well with more NH₄ exported southward than would be the case if the Suisun phytoplankton were able to process riverine NH₄ more effectively. In effect, the net retention of NH₄ in Suisun Bay is currently low, since phytoplankton are growing solely on NH₄ at a low rate, and the clams are regenerating a portion of productivity as NH₄ to be advected seaward. The large summer chlorophyll concentrations characteristic of Suisun Bay in the late 1970s may have been the result of efficient processing of advected riverine nutrients as NH₄ inputs may have been lower at that time, opening the window for NO₃ uptake by phytoplankton and by the buildup of chlorophyll biomass in the absence of such strong grazing.

Nutrient concentrations into the Delta and SFB have increased over the last 50 years from increased use of fertilizers, runoff from dairies and treatment plant effluents (Kratzer and Shelton, 1998) and should have increased primary productivity. More specifically one form of DIN, NH₄ probably increased in the early 1980s, when waste water dischargers were required to add basic secondary treatment, converting organic nitrogen to NH₄ (L. Kolb, pers. comm.). This attempt to improve water quality in the estuary may have contributed to a long term decline in SFB productivity at all levels, resulting from NH₄ inhibition of NO₃ uptake and chlorophyll accumulation. We suspect other U.S. estuarine ecosystems, may be impacted by increased inputs of NH₄. There may also be complications due to the increased input of another anthropogenic source of N, urea from increased use of urea-based agricultural fertilizers (Glibert et al., 2006). Examination of some of these ecosystems for changes in NH₄, as has been carried out for urea, beginning with the federally mandated switch to secondary sewage treatment in the 1980s might prove interesting and useful for development of management tools.

5. Conclusions

Low annual primary production in SFB is due primarily to turbid conditions but is also modulated by high NH₄ inputs and concentrations that can suppress access to NO₃ by phytoplankton and may reduce the occurrence of spring blooms and quantity of accumulated chlorophyll. Since the NH₄ concentrations at the end of winter are diluted by precipitation and runoff, and because the seasonal precipitation and runoff are

highly variable, the spring primary productivity is even more variable than if it were only a function of turbidity and water column stability. Secondary production processes by higher trophic levels dependent on the timing and quantity of spring bloom phytoplankton will be adversely affected by the disturbances brought about by increased anthropogenic inputs of NH₄. These results offer a basis both for understanding recent historical changes in similar turbid estuaries modulated by anthropogenic inputs of inorganic nitrogen and for the establishment of potential strategies for managing the timing and magnitude of estuarine primary production.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the USA Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Science to Achieve Results (STAR) program award #827644-01-0 and the University of Southern California SeaGrant Program. We wish to thank the crew of the R/V Questuary for their help with the sampling program (Captain David Morgan and Jay Tustin). Special thanks to James Cloern, Jonathan Sharp, Alex Parker and Wim Kimmerer for helpful discussions.

References

- Alpine, A.E., Cloern, J.E., 1992. Trophic interactions and direct physical effects control phytoplankton biomass and production in an estuary. Limnology and Oceanography 37, 946—955.
- Arar, E.J., Collins, G.B., 1992. In vitro determination of chlorophyll *a* and phaeophytin *a* in marine and freshwater phytoplankton by fluorescence USEPA Method 445.0. USEPA Methods for Determination of Chemical Substances in Marine and Estuarine Environmental Samples. Cincinnati.
- Bennett, W.A., Moyle, P.B., 1996. Where have all the fishes gone? Interactive factors producing fish declines in the Sacramento-San Joaquin Estuary. In: Hollibaugh, J.T. (Ed.), San Francisco Bay: The Ecosystem. AAAS, San Francisco, pp. 519–544.
- Caffrey, J.M., 1995. Spatial and seasonal patterns in sediment nitrogen remineralization and ammonium concentrations in San Francisco Bay, California. Estuaries 18, 219–233.
- Cloern, J.E., 1987. Turbidity as a control on phytoplankton biomass and productivity in estuaries. Continental Shelf Research 7, 1367–1381.
- Cloern, J.E., 1991. Tidal stirring and phytoplankton bloom dynamics in an estuary. Journal of Marine Research 49, 203–221.
- Cloern, J.E., 2001. Our evolving conceptual model of the coastal eutrophication problem. Marine Ecology Progress Series 210, 223–253.
- Cloern, J.E., Dufford, R., 2005. Phytoplankton community ecology: principles applied in San Francisco Bay. Marine Ecology Progress Series 285, 11–28.
- Cochlan, W.P., Harrison, P.J., 1991. Inhibition of nitrate uptake by ammonium and urea in the eukaryotic picoflagellate *Micromonas pusilla* (Butcher) Manton et Parke. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 153, 143–152.
- Codispoti, L.A., 1985. Nitrogen in upwelling systems. In: Carpenter, E.J., Capone, D.G. (Eds.), Nitrogen in the Marine Environment. Academic Press, New York, pp. 513–565.
- Codispoti, L.A., Dugdale, R.C., Minas, H.J., 1982. A comparison of the nutrient regimes off northwest Africa, Peru and Baja California. Rapports et Proces verbeaux Réunion Conseil Internationale. Exploration du Mer 180 184—201
- Cole, B.E., Cloern, J.E., 1984. Significance of biomass and light availability to phytoplankton productivity in San Francisco Bay. Marine Ecology Progress Series 17, 15—24.

- Conway, H.L., 1977. Interactions of inorganic nitrogen in the uptake and assimilation by marine phytoplankton. Marine Biology 39, 221–232.
- Dortch, Q., 1990. The interaction between ammonium and nitrate uptake in phytoplankton. Marine Ecology Progress Series 61, 138–201.
- Dugdale, R.C., Goering, J.J., 1967. Uptake of new and regenerated forms of nitrogen in primary productivity. Limnology and Oceanography 12, 196–206.
- Dugdale, R.C., Hopkins, T.S., 1978. Predicting the structure and dynamics of a pollution-driven marine ecosystem embedded in an oligotrophic sea. Thalassia Jugoslavica 14, 107–126.
- Dugdale, R.C., MacIsaac, J.J., 1971. A computational model for the uptake of nitrate in the Peru upwelling region. Investigacion Pesquera 35, 299–308.
- Dugdale, R.C., Wilkerson, F.P., 1986. The use of ¹⁵N to measure nitrogen uptake in eutrophic oceans; experimental considerations. Limnology and Oceanography 31, 673–689.
- Dugdale, R.C., Wilkerson, F.P., Marchi, A., Hogue, V., 2006. Nutrient controls on new production in the Bodega Bay, California, coastal upwelling plume. Deep-Sea Research II 53, 3049—3062.
- Glibert, P.M., Harrison, J., Heil, C., Seitzinger, S., 2006. Escalating worldwide use of urea a global change contributing to coastal eutrophication. Biogeochemistry 77, 441—463.
- Hager, S.W., Schemel, L.E., 1992. Sources of nitrogen and phosphorus to northern San Francisco Bay. Estuaries 15, 40–52.
- Hogue, V.E., 2000. Ultraviolet radiation effects on natural phytoplankton assemblages of central San Francisco Bay. M.A. Thesis, San Francisco, San Francisco State University.
- Hogue, V.E., Wilkerson, F.P., Dugdale, R.C., 2005. Ultraviolet-B radiation effects on natural phytoplankton assemblages of central San Francisco Bay. Estuaries 29, 190–203.
- Jassby, A.D., Koseff, J.R., Monismith, S.G., 1996. Processes underlying phytoplankton variability in San Francisco Bay. In: Hollibaugh, J.T. (Ed.), San Francisco Bay: The Ecosystem. AAAS, San Francisco, pp. 325–349.
- Jassby, A.D., Cloern, J.E., Cole, B.E., 2002. Annual primary production: patterns and mechanisms of change in a nutrient-rich tidal ecosystem. Limnology and Oceanography 47, 698-712.
- Kimmerer, W.J., 2002. Effects of freshwater flow on abundance of estuarine organisms: physical effects or trophic linkages? Marine Ecology Progress Series 243, 39–55.
- Kratzer, C.R., Shelton, J.L., 1998. Water quality assessment of the San Joaquin—Tulare Basins, California. Analysis of available data on nutrients and suspended sediment in surface water, 1972—1990, USGS Professional Paper 1587.
- Lehman, P., 1996. Changes in chlorophyll *a* concentration and phytoplankton community composition with water-year type in the upper San Francisco Bay Estuary. In: Hollibaugh, J.T. (Ed.), San Francisco Bay: The Ecosystem. AAAS, San Francisco, pp. 351–374.
- Nichols, F.H., Thompson, J., Schemel, L.E., 1990. Remarkable invasion of San Francisco Bay (California, USA) by the Asian clam *Potamocorbula amurensis*. II. Displacement of a former community. Marine Ecology Progress Series 66, 95–101.
- Nixon, S.W., Buckley, B.A., 2002. A strikingly rich zone-nutrient enrichment and secondary production in coastal marine ecosystems. Estuaries 25, 782–796.
- Paerl, H.W., 1999. Cultural eutrophication of shallow coastal waters: coupling changing anthropogenic nutrient inputs to regional management approaches. Limnologica 29, 249–254.
- Pennock, J.R., 1987. Temporal and spatial variability in phytoplankton ammonium and nitrate uptake in the Delaware Bay. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science 24, 841–857.
- Pennock, J.R., Sharp, J.H., 1994. Temporal alternation between light- and nutrient-limitation of phytoplankton production in a coastal plain estuary. Marine Ecology Progress Series 111, 275–288.
- Peterson, D.H., Smith, R.E., Hager, S.W., Harmon, D.D., Herndon, R.E., Schemel, L.E., 1985. Interannual variability in dissolved inorganic nutrients in northern San Francisco Bay estuary. Hydrobiologia 129, 37–58.
- Schemel, L.E., Hager, S.W., 1986. Chemical variability in the Sacramento River and in northern San Francisco Bay. Estuaries 9, 270–283.

- Sharp, J.H., 2001. Marine and aquatic communities, stress from eutrophication. In: Encyclopedia of Biodiversity, vol. 4. Academic Press, pp. 1–11.
- Sharp, J.H., Pennock, J.R., Church, T.M., Tramontano, J.M., Cifuentes, L.A., 1984. The estuarine interactions of nutrients, organics and metals: a case study in the Delaware Estuary. In: Kennedy, V.S. (Ed.), The Estuary as a Filter. Academic Press, Orlando, FL, pp. 241–258.
- Solorzano, L., 1969. Determination of ammonia in natural waters by the phenolhypochlorite method. Limnology and Oceanography 14, 799–810.
- Syrett, P.J., 1981. Nitrogen metabolism of microalgae. In: Platt, T. (Ed.), Canadian Bulletin of Fisheries and Agriculture Sciences 210, pp. 234-250.
- Thompson, J.K., 2000. Two stories of phytoplankton control by bivalves in San Francisco Bay: the importance of spatial and temporal distribution of bivalves. Journal of Shellfish Research 19, 612.

- Verity, P.G., 2002a. A decade of change in the Skidaway River estuary. I. Hydrography and nutrients. Estuaries 25, 944—960.
- Verity, P.G., 2002b. A decade of change in the Skidaway River estuary. II. Particulate organic carbon, nitrogen, and chlorophyll a. Estuaries 25, 961–975.
- Whitledge, T.E., Malloy, S.C., Patton, C.J., Wirick, C.D., 1981. Automated Nutrient Analysis in Seawater, Report BNL 51398. Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, NY, 216 pp.
- Wilkerson, F.P., Dugdale, R.C., 1992. Measurements of nitrogen productivity in the Equatorial Pacific. Journal of Geophysical Research 97, 669-679.
- Wilkerson, F.P., Dugdale, R.C., Hogue, V.E., Marchi, A., 2006. Phytoplankton blooms and nitrogen productivity in San Francisco Bay. Estuaries and Coasts 29, 401–416.
- Yoshiyama, K., Sharp, J.H., 2006. Phytoplankton response to nutrient enrichment in an urbanized estuary: apparent inhibition of primary production by over-eutrophication. Limnology and Oceanography 51, 424–434.