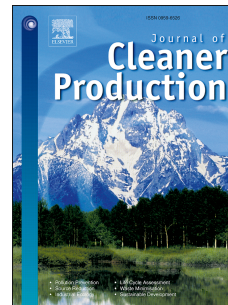


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Influence of rate of salinity increase on nitrifying biofilms

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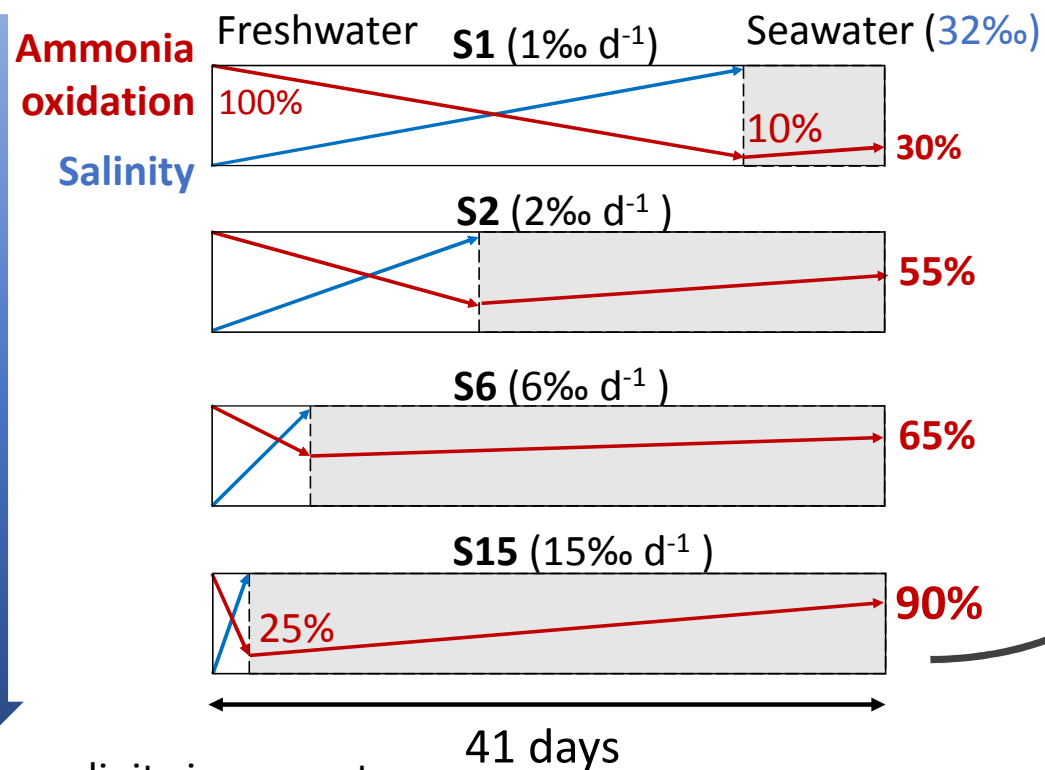
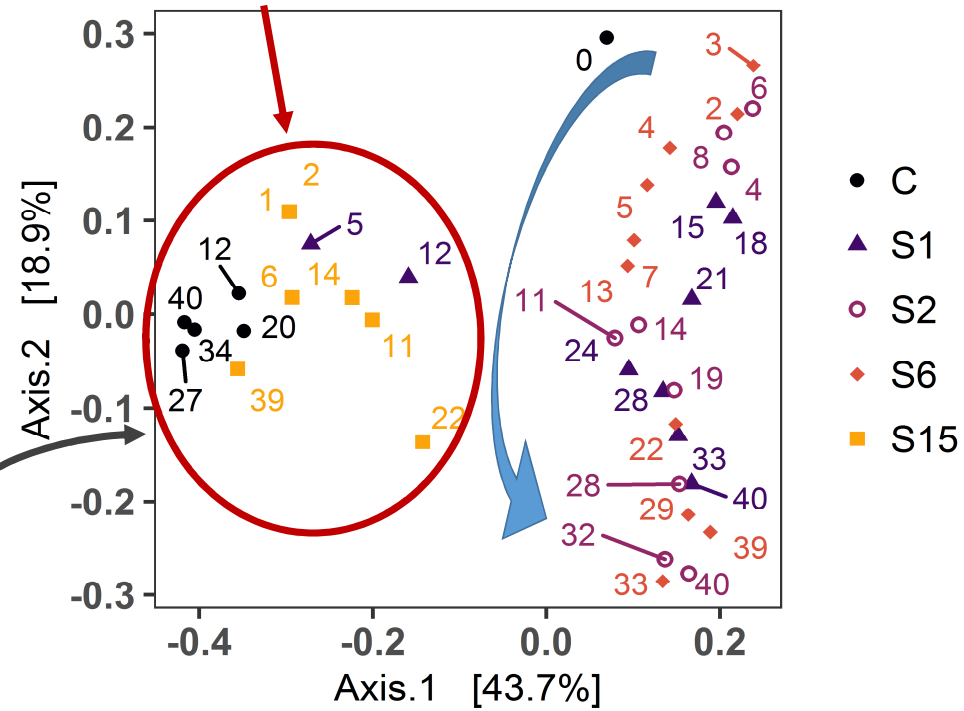
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Small salinity increment

S15 similar to
freshwater controlMicrobial communities
shifted with time in S1-6

1 **Influence of rate of salinity increase on nitrifying biofilms**

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 A strategy for rapid increase in salinity with minimal impact on nitrification is important for ammonia
22 removal from saline effluents, especially in recirculating aquaculture systems with high water reuse.
23 To study the influence of the rate of salinity increase on nitrification, continuously operated moving
24 bed biofilm reactors were transferred from freshwater (0‰ salinity) to seawater (32‰ salinity) at five
25 different rates of salinity change: 0 (control), 1, 2, 6, and 15‰ day⁻¹. Each daily change was
26 conducted gradually overnight. The results showed that at salinities higher than 4-8‰, the ammonia
27 oxidation capacity decreased linearly with salinity and reduced by 50-90% upon complete seawater
28 transfer, with the greatest reduction in the 1‰ day⁻¹ treatment. Thereafter, it increased linearly with
29 time, with little difference between treatments. Overall, the biofilm microbial communities in the
30 control and the 15‰ day⁻¹ treatment were highly similar, while those in the other treatments shifted
31 significantly with time and had greater species diversity, richness, and evenness of nitrifiers.
32 *Candidatus Nitrotoga* was the dominant nitrite oxidizing bacteria in all treatments throughout the
33 study, indicating that this recently discovered group may tolerate salinities up to 32‰. The results
34 suggest that although the rate of salinity increase influences the microbial community composition, it
35 only weakly influences ammonia oxidation capacity, which mainly depends on salinity and seawater
36 acclimatization time. Therefore, for rapid seawater acclimatization of freshwater nitrifying biofilms,
37 increasing the salinity continuously in two days may be a better strategy than increasing the salinity
38 over a month, provided an initial decrease in ammonia oxidation is acceptable. The findings can aid in
39 the shift from net-pen fish farming to recirculating aquaculture systems, thereby lowering the
40 ecological impacts of seafood production.

41 **Keywords**

42 salt acclimatization; osmotic stress adaptation; marine recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS)

43 biofilter; microbial community resistance and resilience; Atlantic salmon post-smolt; *Candidatus*44 *Nitrotoga*

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45 1 Introduction

46 The biological process of nitrification is commonly used for ammonia removal in a wide variety of
47 applications, including industrial, municipal, and agricultural wastewater treatment. Nitrification can
48 be negatively impacted by salinity variations (Lay et al., 2010; Moussa et al., 2006; Wang et al.,
49 2017). This is of special concern in recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS); land-based fish
50 production systems that include nitrification units for the removal of ammonia produced by the fish.
51 Intensive RAS are viewed as a sustainable solution to the rising global seafood demand, as they use
52 much lesser water than flow-through production systems and can have a lower ecological impact than
53 marine fisheries, where 10% of the catch is discarded (Zeller et al., 2018). Anadromous fish such as
54 Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) are typically grown in freshwater (~ 0‰ salinity) during the young life
55 stages of the fish (parr), and in the later growth stages (post-smolt), in brackish water or seawater (10-
56 22‰ and 32‰ salinities, respectively) (Davidson et al., 2016). The latter phase is typically carried out
57 in net-pens that discharge nutrient and toxic waste directly into the sea (Ayer and Tyedmers, 2009),
58 and also increase the sea lice parasitic pressures, thereby harming migrating wild salmon smolts and
59 the marine ecosystem. The shift to post-smolt production from net-pens to RAS is challenged by the
60 requirement for increasing the salinity, which can reduce nitrification efficiency, leading to toxic
61 ammonia and nitrite accumulation (Kinyage et al., 2019; Nijhof and Bovendeur, 1990). Besides RAS,
62 salinity increase strategies may also be required for industrial bioreactors when only freshwater
63 inoculum is available. Additionally, as seawater bioreactors require a longer startup period than
64 freshwater bioreactors, nitrifying bioreactors are typically started in freshwater and later acclimatized
65 to increasing salinity (Chen et al., 2006; Nijhof and Bovendeur, 1990). Therefore, it is important to
66 develop an optimal procedure for increasing the salinity in nitrifying freshwater bioreactors, with the
67 least possible impact on the nitrification activity.

68 In aerobic nitrifying processes, two distinct microbial guilds are known to co-exist: ammonia
69 oxidizing bacteria (AOB) or archaea, which convert ammonia to nitrite; and nitrite oxidizing bacteria
70 (NOB), which convert nitrite to nitrate. Recently, microorganisms capable of complete ammonia

71 oxidation to nitrate have also been discovered (Daims et al., 2015). The negative impact of salinity
72 increase on nitrification is usually attributed to the dehydration or plasmolysis of microbes, or a
73 reduction in cell activity (Csonka, 1989; Madigan et al., 2018; Uygur and Kargi, 2004). If the
74 hyperosmotic shock is not too severe, the bacteria may be temporarily inhibited but thereafter, adapt
75 to the increased external osmotic pressure by producing compatible solutes (Csonka, 1989; Moussa et
76 al., 2006). Alternatively, the microbial community composition may alter due to changed selection
77 pressure and consequential succession, and thereby adapt to the new environmental conditions. The
78 response of bacteria under disturbances may depend on the intensity and duration of the disturbance
79 (Shade et al., 2012); in this case, the magnitude and rate of salinity change.

80 Nitrification may be influenced by the manner in which the salinity is changed – as a shock dose or
81 gradual change (Moussa et al., 2006). Freshwater bioreactors subjected to a shock change to seawater
82 show a drastic reduction in nitrification, although they start recovering after a few days (Gonzalez-
83 Silva, 2016; Nijhof and Bovendeur, 1990). Conversely, although adaption to a gradual increase in
84 salinity is possible with almost no decrease in nitrification, it can take several days or months (Bassin
85 et al., 2012, 2011; Sharrer et al., 2007). Inoculation with saltwater acclimated seeds may speed up
86 adaptation to salinity (Cui et al., 2016; Panswad and Anan, 1999; Shi et al., 2012; Sudarno et al.,
87 2010), but is not always easily available, and can pose a biosecurity risk to the fish in RAS. As far as
88 we know, no protocol exists for increasing the salinity in non-inoculated freshwater bioreactors within
89 a short time-span, while maintaining an acceptable nitrification efficiency throughout.

90 Although several studies have reported the impact of salinity changes on nitrification (Bassin et al.,
91 2011; Cortes-Lorenzo et al., 2015; Cui et al., 2016; Gonzalez-Silva et al., 2016; Kinyage et al., 2019;
92 Sudarno, 2011), none have compared different rates of salinity change. (Bassin et al., 2012)
93 demonstrated that small increments in salinity had a lower negative impact on nitrification than a
94 large one-step increase, but both the strategies tested had the same overall rate of salinity change (0‰
95 to 20‰ salinity in 108 days). To the best of our knowledge, the effect of different salinity increase
96 rates on nitrification is not well studied, including whether the adaptation process is a physiological

97 adaptation or a succession with changes in the species inventory of nitrifying microbes. Therefore, it
98 is not clear which salinity change strategy can achieve better nitrification within the same time: small
99 salinity increments over a long period, or large salinity increments followed by an acclimatization
100 period. The objective of this study was to compare the impact of salinity increase rate on nitrification
101 and microbial communities in moving bed biofilm reactors (MBBRs) transferred from freshwater to
102 seawater. We hypothesized that 1) the nitrification activity would be better maintained under smaller
103 salinity increments and; 2) microbial community composition would be influenced by the rate of
104 salinity change.

105 **2 Materials and methods**

106 **2.1 Experimental Setup**

107 The study was conducted at the Nofima Centre for Recirculation in Aquaculture (NCRA) in
108 Sunndalsøra, Norway. The experimental setup consisted of ten continuously operated plastic MBBRs,
109 with 37 L water volume each (45cm x 35cm x 40cm). Five treatments were run in duplicate: C
110 (control), S1, S2, S6, and S15 with salinity increase rates of 0, 1, 2, 6, and 15‰ day⁻¹, respectively
111 (Fig. 1). Salinity change was started at the end of day 0. The experiment was conducted at 12.2 ±
112 0.3°C and pH 7.9 ± 0.1 for 41 days. Two weeks prior to the start of the experiment, the reactors were
113 filled with freshwater and mature biofilm carriers (AnoxK™ Chip P, Krüger Kaldnes AS, Norway)
114 with a specific surface area of 900 m² m⁻³ (~35% by volume). To minimize reactor bias, the biomedial
115 were intermixed and redistributed to the reactors five days before commencing the experiment. The
116 biomedial were sourced from the third MBBR chamber of NCRA's freshwater Atlantic salmon smolt
117 RAS, Grow-out Hall 1 (Terjesen et al., 2013). This RAS MBBR had been operated in freshwater at
118 12°C and pH 7.2 for several months prior to the experiment and had never been exposed to seawater
119 before.

120 The experimental MBBRs were randomly distributed into two temperature-controlled water baths,
121 with one control treatment reactor in each (Fig. 2). The temperature in each water bath was controlled

122 using a thermostat (TRD, Schego, Germany), a heater (Titanium tube 600W, Schego, Germany), and
123 continuous cold freshwater flow. Each MBBR was aerated with an air blower (MSB-2-355/102-220T,
124 Ventur Tekniska, Sweden) via an air diffuser. The air flow rate was $51 \pm 5 \text{ NL min}^{-1}$, which ensured
125 uniform mixing of the carriers and provided oxygen for nitrification (dissolved oxygen saturation >
126 70%). The freshwater and seawater water sources to the facility were pre-treated (Terjesen et al.,
127 2013). Briefly, the freshwater was pumped from bore wells, treated with silicate and degassed, and the
128 seawater was filtered and UV-irradiated. The two water sources were continuously mixed at the
129 desired ratio in five 2 L buffer tanks, and this makeup water was supplied to the duplicate reactors of
130 each treatment using peristaltic pumps (WPX1-P1/8 L2, Welco, Japan). The treatment salinity was
131 changed by adjusting the flows of freshwater and seawater to these buffer tanks. The MBBR makeup
132 flow rate was $101 \pm 5 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$, corresponding to a hydraulic retention time of six hours. The
133 sampling and analyses were conducted every morning. Salinity changes in the buffer tanks were
134 performed at the end of the day, thereby increasing the MBBR salinity gradually overnight before the
135 next sampling.

136 A synthetic feed solution was prepared in a 250 L tank with freshwater and was supplied to each
137 MBBR using a multichannel pump (520Du Pump/505CA pump head, Watson-Marlow, England).
138 This solution had an ammonia concentration of $736 \pm 85 \text{ mgN L}^{-1}$ as $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ and contained the
139 following nutrients per mgN L^{-1} of ammonia: $11.4 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ CaCO}_3$ as NaHCO_3 , $0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ Mg}$ as
140 MgSO_4 , 0.1 mg L^{-1} orthophosphate-P as $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and $0.003 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \text{ Fe}$ as $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
141 (adapted from (Zhu et al., 2016)). The initial ammonia loading rate to each reactor was $0.23 \text{ gN m}^{-2} \text{ d}$
142 $^{-1}$, which is in the design range for RAS (Rusten et al., 2006; Terjesen et al., 2013). In certain periods,
143 the feed flow rate was reduced by ~30% in some treatments to maintain the effluent ammonia
144 concentration in the relevant range for RAS (Table 1).

145 **Table 1:** Periods of normal and low ammonia loading rates for the different treatments, along with the
 146 corresponding effluent ammonia concentration (minimum – maximum) during those periods.

Ammonia loading rate (gN m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	Normal (0.21 ± 0.05)		Low (0.08 ± 0.04)		
	Treatment	Experimental days	NH ₄ ⁺ -N (mgN L ⁻¹)	Experimental days	NH ₄ ⁺ -N (mgN L ⁻¹)
Control		0 – 40	0.10 – 0.54	NA	NA
S1		0 – 27	0.01 – 9.79	28 – 40	0.57 – 2.73
S2		0 – 40	0.10 – 6.09	NA	NA
S6		0 – 5, 15 – 40	0.10 – 6.41	6 – 14	0.20 – 1.34
S15		0, 20 – 40	0.18 – 5.93	1 – 19	0.24 – 1.30

147 NA: Not applicable

148 For each reactor, the system parameters were measured daily in the reactors using a handheld
 149 multimeter (Multi 3630, WTW, Germany) with sensors for pH and temperature (SenTix[®] 940-3,
 150 WTW, Germany), dissolved oxygen (FDO[®] 925-3, WTW, Germany), and salinity (TetraCon[®] 925-3,
 151 WTW, Germany). Air flow rate was measured with rotameters (VA A-8RR, Kytola[®], Finland).

152 2.2 Nitrification performance

153 The nitrification performance was gauged by the *in situ* ammonia oxidation rate (AOR_{*in situ*}), the
 154 ammonia oxidation capacity or maximum ammonia oxidation rate (AOR_{max}), and the effluent nitrite
 155 concentration. AOR_{*in situ*} was calculated for each MBBR as the difference of the influent and the
 156 effluent ammonia mass flow rates, normalized to the total protected surface area of the biofilm
 157 carriers. The water quality in the MBBR was taken to be the same as that of the MBBR effluent, as
 158 the reactors were completely mixed. Pseudo-steady state over 24 hours was assumed. AOR_{*in situ*} was
 159 expected to depend on the ammonia concentration (first-order reaction), as the MBBRs were operated
 160 at low effluent ammonia concentrations typical in RAS. Water samples of the MBBR effluent and the
 161 feed solution were collected daily in 20 mL scintillation vials (PE, Wheaton Industries, USA) and
 162 preserved at -20°C. The ammonia concentration in the thawed samples was analyzed using a flow
 163 injection Autoanalyzer (Flow Solution IV, OI Analytical, College Station, TX, USA) using the

164 salicylate method, as per U.S. EPA method 350.1 (U.S. EPA, 1983). The method detection limit was
165 0.05 mgN L^{-1} . Different calibration standards were used for each salinity range: 0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25,
166 28, and 32‰.

167 To determine the maximum ammonia oxidation rate (AOR_{max} , zero-order reaction), capacity tests
168 were conducted. These tests were performed at salinity increases of 3-7‰ for S1 and S2, at all
169 different salinities for S6 and S15, and every 7-10 days for the control and the treatments after
170 seawater transfer. For each capacity test, the MBBR was run in batch mode by removing the reactor
171 inlets, and 0-220 mL of synthetic feed solution was added to the reactor to achieve an initial ammonia
172 concentration of $4\text{-}5 \text{ mgN L}^{-1}$ in the MBBR. Water samples were collected from the reactor every 5-
173 20 minutes for about 1-4 hours. These samples were also frozen to -20°C and later analyzed in the
174 Autoanalyzer to determine the ammonia concentration.

175 The nitrite concentration in the MBBRs was measured using powder pillows (method HI 93707) and a
176 photometer (C203 2008, Hanna Instruments, Canada) for the first ten days. For the remainder of the
177 study, nitrite was measured using a test kit (APHA, 1992) and a spectrophotometer (PhotoLab 6100
178 VIS, WTW, Germany). This method was less time-consuming, and more samples could be analyzed
179 concurrently. The method detection limit was 0.02 mgN L^{-1} .

180 **2.3 Microbial community analyses**

181 Before each capacity test, three biofilm carriers were collected from each MBBR and preserved at -
182 80°C until analyses. In the lab, $10 \times 20 \text{ mm}$ pieces were cut out from the thawed carriers and placed
183 into 1.5 mL tubes containing ATL buffer (Qiagen[®], Netherlands). Biofilm was detached in a Qiagen[®]
184 Tissuelyser II (30 hz s^{-1} , 10 minutes) and DNA was extracted using Qiagen[®] DNeasy blood and tissue
185 kit. The biofilm samples were centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 10 minutes, and Proteinase K was added
186 before overnight incubation. After lysis, spin-column DNA purification was conducted, followed by
187 two-step elution with 80 and $40 \mu\text{L}$ AE buffer. For quality control and to optimize PCR amplification,

188 DNA yield in the eluate was determined by Qubit™ 3.0 (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA)
189 using Qubit™ dsDNA BR assay kit.

190 PCR amplification and purification of amplified products was performed with Ion 16S™
191 Metagenomics Kit (Life Technologies, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) using 6 µL template. The
192 amplification products were purified by Mag-Bind® TotalPure NGS (Omega Bio-Tek, USA). Gel
193 electrophoresis was performed as a quality control step to ensure the presence of DNA amplification
194 products. For quality control, DNA amplicon concentration was measured by Qubit™ 3.0 and
195 Qubit™ dsDNA HS assay kit. Samples were diluted to obtain 50 ng in 79 µL for library preparation.
196 Libraries were prepared using Ion Plus Fragment Library kit (Ion Torrent™, Thermo Fischer
197 Scientific, USA) and Ion Xpress™ Barcode Adapters 1 – 44. Barcoded libraries were controlled with
198 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, USA) and Agilent High Sensitivity DNA Kit, before being
199 diluted to a concentration of 100 pM and amplified onto ion sphere particles (ISP) by emulsion PCR.
200 Enriched ISPs were sequenced on Ion PGM™ using Ion PGM™ Hi-Q™ View Sequencing Kit
201 according to manufacturer's protocol.

202 **2.4 Data analysis and statistics**

203 *2.4.1 Physicochemical parameters*

204 AOR_{max} on a given day was calculated by performing linear regression on the combined ammonia
205 concentration vs time data from the capacity tests of each treatment (both duplicates). The points used
206 for linear regression had an ammonia concentration greater than 0.5 mgN L⁻¹ and at least a 2%
207 difference from the following sample. The Autoanalyzer malfunctioned during the analyses of
208 capacity tests S15-day 11, S6-day 13, and S1-day 28 (duplicate B) and therefore, these data were
209 excluded from the analyses. For each capacity test, the Shapiro-Wilk test and q-q plots were used to
210 check for normality of the residuals ($\alpha = 0.05$) and potential outliers, and measurement errors outside
211 the plausible range were removed ($[\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}] > 7.5 \text{ mgN L}^{-1}$, 5 data points). A minimum of eight data
212 points was used for each regression. Linear regression was also performed on: a) AOR_{max} vs salinity

213 (during transfer from freshwater to seawater) and, b) AOR_{max} vs days after complete seawater transfer.
214 The slopes of the regression lines were compared in R (V3.5.2) using analysis of covariance
215 (ANCOVA), wherein differences were considered significant at $p < 0.05$ (Fox and Weisberg, 2011).
216 For comparisons with the control, the treatment AOR_{max} on a given day was compared with the two
217 nearest controls. All physicochemical parameters are reported as mean \pm standard deviation; while
218 calculated variables (such as AOR_{max}) are reported as mean \pm standard error.

219 2.4.2 *Microbial analysis*

220 Raw sequencing data were analysed in Ion ReporterTM software using the Metagenomics 16s w1.1
221 workflow (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) with QIIME as an integrated software. The software uses
222 the Curated MicroSEQ[®] 16S Reference Library v2013.1 combined with the Greengenes database for
223 sequence identification. Workflow parameters: detecting primers at both ends, read length filters of
224 120 bp after trimming primers, 2 unique reads to be valid, 90% minimum alignment coverage, genus
225 cut-off 97%. Ion ReporterTM assembles amplicon fragments to a consensus strain covering all 1500bp
226 of the 16S rRNA gene. Results were obtained as individual amplicons from each of the seven variable
227 regions (V2-4, V6-9) or as consensus strain with assigned operational taxonomic units (OTU) on
228 family, genus and species level, which were subsequently aligned to generate an OTU table. The OTU
229 table was filtered to remove cyanobacteria and normalized to the sum of sample reads. OTUs with a
230 maximum of less than 0.1% in any sample were filtered out. The resulting data was analysed by
231 calculating the α -diversity (first order Hill number (Hill, 1973)), richness, evenness, and relative
232 abundance of nitrifying OTUs in individual samples. Ordination was performed using principal
233 coordinates analysis (PCoA) to compare samples based on Bray-Curtis similarities (β -diversity). Data
234 analysis was performed in R (V3.5.2) using packages phyloseq and vegan (McMurdie and Holmes,
235 2013; Oksanen et al., 2019).

236 **3 Results**237 **3.1 AOR_{max} during transfer from freshwater to seawater**

238 The ammonia oxidation capacity (AOR_{max}) in the freshwater control varied during the study,
 239 especially, on days 0 and 40, when the AOR_{max} was approximately 25% lower compared to the rest of
 240 the experimental period (Fig. 3). Overall, the control had an average AOR_{max} of 0.37 ± 0.07 gN m⁻² d⁻¹
 241 and the percent changes in AOR_{max} are reported relative to this value. During the transfer from
 242 freshwater to seawater (32‰ salinity), AOR_{max} showed a negative linear correlation with salinity for
 243 S1, S2, and S6 (Table 2). Moreover, the slope of AOR_{max} vs salinity did not differ significantly
 244 between treatments ($p = 0.24$) and had a weighted mean value of 9.7 ± 1.4 mgN m⁻² d⁻¹ ‰⁻¹ (Table 2,
 245 Fig. 4A). At salinities up to 12‰, AOR_{max} in the treatments was not significantly lower than in the
 246 control. AOR_{max} reduced significantly when each treatment reached seawater salinity (Fig. 4A).
 247 Treatment S1 had the lowest AOR_{max} among all the treatments at 0.03 ± 0.02 gN m⁻² d⁻¹ (~90%
 248 reduction). In comparison, AOR_{max} in both S2 and S15 was 25-30% of the control average, whereas
 249 S6 had the highest AOR_{max} among all treatments at 0.18 ± 0.03 gN m⁻² d⁻¹ (~50% reduction).

250 **Table 2:** Linear regression on AOR_{max} vs salinity during salinity increase from freshwater to seawater,
 251 for each individual treatment and for all treatments. Note that for S1, S2 and S6, AOR_{max} was first
 252 measured at salinities 5, 8, and 4‰, respectively, and not at 0‰. Correlations were considered
 253 significant at $p < 0.05$ and are denoted by an asterisk (*).

Treatment	Decrease in AOR _{max} with salinity \pm SE (mgN m ⁻² d ⁻¹ ‰ ⁻¹)	df	<i>p</i>	Adjusted R ²
S1	12.9 ± 1.8	6	0.0004*	0.88
S2	11.1 ± 2.3	4	0.008*	0.82
S6	9.0 ± 2.2	3	0.03*	0.80
S15	5.9 ± 5.5	1	0.5	0.07
All	9.7 ± 1.4	20	0.000001*	0.70

254

255 3.2 AOR_{max} after complete seawater transfer

256 After complete seawater transfer, the AOR_{max} showed a marginally significant linear increase with
 257 acclimatization time in seawater. The recovery rate was quantified as the slope of the regression line
 258 between AOR_{max} and days after seawater transfer. The recovery rates of the treatments were not
 259 significantly different, except between S6 and S15. Therefore, regression was performed on the
 260 combined data from all treatments, showing that AOR_{max} increased with the acclimatization time at a
 261 rate of $5.3 \pm 0.9 \text{ mgN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-2}$ (Table 3, Fig. 4B). At the end of the 41-day study, AOR_{max} in S6 and S15
 262 was not significantly different from that in the control. Further, AOR_{max} in S15 was the highest among
 263 all treatments ($0.33 \pm 0.01 \text{ gN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ~ 90% of the control average), while S1 had the lowest ($0.11 \pm$
 264 $0.01 \text{ gN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ~ 30% of the control average) (Fig 3).

265 **Table 3:** Linear regression on AOR_{max} vs days after seawater transfer for treatments S2, S6, S15, and
 266 all treatments (treatment S1 not shown as it had only two data points). The recovery rate after
 267 complete seawater transfer is measured as the slope of the regression line. Correlations were
 268 considered significant at $p < 0.05$ and are denoted by an asterisk (*).

Treatment	AOR _{max} recovery rate \pm SE ($\text{mgN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-2}$)	df	<i>p</i>	Adjusted R ²
S2	4.7 ± 1.2	2	0.055	0.84
S6	2.6 ± 1.0	4	0.057	0.54
S15	6.0 ± 0.5	4	0.0002*	0.97
All	5.3 ± 0.9	16	0.00002*	0.67

269 3.3 *In situ* ammonia oxidation rate and nitrite concentration

270 In S1 and S2, AOR_{in situ} remained at the control level until approximately 20‰ salinity, after which it
 271 declined as the salinity increased further (Fig. 5A). AOR_{in situ} in each treatment decreased significantly
 272 when the treatment reached seawater. Throughout the study, the freshwater control had a steady
 273 AOR_{in situ} of $0.23 \pm 0.01 \text{ gN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, which was nearly equal to the ammonia loading rate to the

274 MBBR. After a few days in seawater, AOR_{in situ} in all treatments (except S1, which had low ammonia
275 loading) increased, reaching 80-90% of the control AOR_{in situ} in the final week.

276 Overall, the nitrite concentration in S15 was the highest, followed by S6, S2, and S1 (Fig. 5B). In S2,
277 S6, and S15, nitrite was relatively high in the last week of the study (0.5 – 1.4 mgN L⁻¹) compared to
278 the control (0.12 – 0.34 mgN L⁻¹), even though AOR_{max} had significantly recovered. The nitrite
279 concentration in S1 was low and relatively stable throughout the study (0.07 – 0.38 mgN L⁻¹).

280 3.4 Microbial community analyses

281 Out of the 1371 OTUs sequenced, 29 were identified as nitrifying bacteria. Of these, 20 OTUs were
282 present at relative abundance greater than 0.1%. The ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) detected at
283 the genus (species) level were *Nitrosomonas* (*N. cryotolerans*, *N. eutropha*, *N. marina*, *N.*
284 *oligotropha*, *N. sp.*, *N. ureae*), *Nitrosospira* (*N. multiformis*, *N. sp.*), and *Nitrosovibrio* (*N. tenuis*); and
285 the nitrite oxidizing bacteria (NOB) were *Candidatus Nitrotoga* (*nitrotoga*), *Nitrosospira* (*N. marina*, *N.*
286 *moscoviensis*, *N. nitrospira*, *N. sp.*), and *Nitrobacter* (*N. hamburgensis*, *N. vulgaris*). Overall, the
287 nitrifying OTUs constituted less than 51% of the community in all samples, while the rest were likely
288 heterotrophic bacteria (Fig. 6). In the control, the proportion of nitrifiers increased over time. The α -
289 diversity (first order Hill number) of the nitrifiers was significantly higher in S1-6 (9.3 ± 0.3) than in
290 the control and S15 (5.7 ± 0.4). Evenness of the nitrifiers was also significantly higher in S1-6 ($0.58 \pm$
291 0.01) than in the control and S15 (0.48 ± 0.03). The same trend was observed in richness.
292 *Nitrosomonas* was the dominant AOB in the control and S15, while in S1-6, *Nitrosospira* was more
293 abundant than *Nitrosomonas* during salinity increase. *Candidatus Nitrotoga* was the dominant NOB in
294 all treatments. Ordination by PCoA based on Bray-Curtis similarities showed that the total microbial
295 communities of the control and S15 were similar (Fig. 7A). The control on day 0 was highly
296 dissimilar from the other control samples. Compared to S15, S1-6 were much more different from the
297 control, especially along the first coordinate. Similar trends were observed for the nitrifying OTUs
298 (Fig. 7B).

299 4 Discussion

300 On complete transfer to seawater, the smallest salinity increment treatment, S1 (1‰ day⁻¹), had the
301 lowest AOR_{max} among all treatments, contrary to what was hypothesized. Overall, AOR_{max} depended
302 mainly on salinity and seawater acclimatization time, and was only slightly influenced by salinity
303 change rate. In contrast, the microbial communities did appear to be influenced by the salinity
304 increase rate and shifted differently depending on the treatment.

305 4.1 AOR_{max} decreased linearly with salinity

306 In each treatment (except S15), the AOR_{max} decreased linearly with salinity during the transfer from
307 freshwater to seawater (Table 2). Further, statistical results showed that the decrease in the AOR_{max}
308 was only dependent on the salinity, and independent of the salinity change rate (Fig. 4A). However,
309 the AOR_{max} at 32‰ salinity (seawater) differed significantly between treatments, indicating that the
310 rate of salinity change may have had an influence on the AOR_{max}. As far as we know, this is the first
311 time that the relationship of AOR_{max} with salinity has been modeled for MBBRs under salinity
312 change. An apparent linear decrease in the ammonia oxidation rate with salinity was also observed in
313 other studies (Bassin et al., 2011; Gonzalez-Silva et al., 2016; Moussa et al., 2006; Uygur and Kargi,
314 2004). In contrast, in a recent MBBR study, AOR_{max} inhibition appeared sigmoidal with salinity
315 (Kinyage et al., 2019). These differences may be attributed to different experimental setups and
316 environmental variables in the studies. In this study, the control AOR_{max} varied but did not appear to
317 follow any trend. The control on day 0 had the lowest AOR_{max}, likely because of biofilm sloughing
318 during the redistribution of biomedium. The other control variations were probably random but should
319 be kept in mind when evaluating the performance of the other treatments.

320 4.2 AOR_{max} was only slightly impacted at salinities up to 10-15‰

321 The AOR_{max} was slightly high compared to the control average for the first capacity tests of S1, S2,
322 and S6 (4-8‰ salinity), suggesting that salinity increase had a positive effect on the value (Fig. 4A).

323 Alternatively, this relative increase may be attributed to variations in the control. These findings are
324 consistent with studies that reported salt concentration up to 10‰ either increased (Aslan and Simsek,
325 2012; Bassin et al., 2012) or had little negative impact on the ammonia oxidation rate (Cortes-Lorenzo
326 et al., 2015; Sudarno, 2011; Vendramel et al., 2011). This is likely because isotonic conditions favor
327 microbial metabolism (He et al., 2017). Further, at salinities of 10-15‰, AOR_{max} reduced only by 5-
328 15%, contradicting studies that report 50-95% decrease in AOR_{max} in this salinity range (Gonzalez-
329 Silva et al., 2016; Moussa et al., 2006; Vendramel et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2017). Conversely,
330 AOR_{max} in fixed-bed biofilters were not negatively impacted at salinities of 14-20‰ (Karkman et al.,
331 2011; Nijhof and Bovendeur, 1990; Sudarno et al., 2010). This apparent discord may be due to the
332 differences in environmental factors or the type of nitrifying systems, for e.g. sludge vs biofilms.
333 Biofilms may be more resistant to salinity changes than sludge, as the extrapolymeric matrix in
334 biofilms may act as a protection against osmotic stress for the residing microorganisms (Baho et al.,
335 2012).

336 **4.3 Small salinity increments decreased AOR_{max} more than large salinity increments**

337 While S1 had the maximum reduction in AOR_{max} amongst all treatments immediately after seawater
338 transfer (~90% reduction), S6 had the lowest (~50% reduction) (Fig. 4A). To the best of our
339 knowledge, this is the first study where ammonia oxidation was more reduced by a small salinity
340 increment than a large salinity increment. Most related studies have performed shock or step changes
341 in salinity (Bassin et al., 2012; Gonzalez-Silva, 2016; Moussa et al., 2006) whereas, in the present
342 study, each daily salinity increment was gradually performed by controlling the salinity in the makeup
343 flow to the reactors. The gradual salinity increment in this study may have given the microbes time to
344 produce the compatible solutes required to adapt to the external osmotic pressure, thus preventing
345 plasmolysis and successfully surviving the salinity increments. This hypothesis is supported by the
346 similarity in microbial community composition between S15 and the control. Increasing the salinity
347 by adjusting the makeup flow composition is likely more practical in full-scale MBBRs than a sudden
348 increment in salinity, and should, therefore, be further researched.

349 **4.4 AOR_{max} was increased linearly with seawater acclimatization time**

350 In seawater, AOR_{max} of all treatments showed a positive linear correlation with time after seawater
351 transfer (Fig. 4B). For each treatment, the weak correlation between the AOR_{max} and acclimatization
352 time was likely because of the low number of observations. However, in less than 41 days in
353 seawater, S6 and S15 had recovered to 65-90% of the AOR_{max} in freshwater, with 15-70% higher
354 AOR_{max} than S1 and S2. This indicates that large salinity increments may be more practical than small
355 salinity increments for commercial MBBRs. Specifically, for a RAS, in periods when the ammonia
356 loading rate is low, the salinity may be changed in 2-5 days and the MBBR may be allowed to recover
357 before increasing the loading rate. Moreover, this finding may be used to reduce the long startup time
358 for seawater bioreactors (Chen et al., 2006; Nijhof and Bovendeur, 1990), by starting in freshwater
359 and transferring to seawater within a few days, with allowance for a subsequent recovery period for
360 seawater acclimatization. This strategy may also be applied when it is not possible to inoculate with
361 saltwater acclimated seeds due to biosecurity constraints or unavailability of appropriate seeding
362 material.

363 **4.5 *In situ* nitrification performance**

364 As capacity tests are intensive, AOR_{in situ} was used as a proxy when the capacity tests could not be
365 performed. In general, AOR_{in situ} results were in accord with AOR_{max}. However, some periods of low
366 AOR_{in situ} were likely because of low loading and/or low nitrification. At low ammonia loading rates
367 as in RAS or in tertiary nitrifying bioreactors, nitrification is often limited by the ammonia
368 concentration and AOR_{in situ} may be lower than AOR_{max} (Rusten et al., 2006). Therefore, maximum
369 ammonia oxidation rates are better indicators of nitrification than *in situ* ammonia oxidation rates or
370 removal efficiencies, as also advised by (Moussa et al., 2006).

371 There are opposing views as to which process is more inhibited by salinity changes – ammonia
372 oxidation (Moussa et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2017) or nitrite oxidation (Aslan and Simsek, 2012;
373 Bassin et al., 2011; Sudarno, 2011). In this study, nitrite accumulation in S2, S6, and S15 indicates

374 that nitrite oxidation was more impacted than ammonia oxidation. However, the relatively low
375 concentration of nitrite in seawater in this study ($< 1.5 \text{ mgN L}^{-1}$) suggests that nitrite oxidation rate
376 was close to $\text{AOR}_{in\ situ}$, and not as severely inhibited as in other studies (Cortes-Lorenzo et al., 2015;
377 Gonzalez-Silva, 2016). During some periods, nitrite oxidation may have been limited by the substrate
378 production rate due to different ammonia loading and oxidation rates. Thus, to better compare the
379 impact of salinity change rates on nitrite oxidation, nitrite capacity tests should be conducted.

380 **4.6 Microbial communities were influenced by salinity increase rate**

381 The microbial community composition in S15 was very different compared to the other treatments
382 (Fig. 7). The similarity between S15 and the control suggests that the bacteria were only temporarily
383 inhibited by the salinity increase and regained activity by adapting to the altered environmental
384 conditions. Conversely, in S1-6, the microbial community composition shifted with time, as a
385 response to salinity change and adaptation. This difference underlines that the responses of
386 microorganisms to disturbances are dependent on the intensity and duration of the disturbance (Shade
387 et al., 2012), and on the recovery time.

388 Higher species diversity, richness, and evenness of nitrifiers in S1-6 suggests that these treatments had
389 greater functional redundancy. The continual salinity increases in S1-6 may have opened niches for
390 populations which were either more capable of tolerating frequent salinity variations or preferred
391 intermediate salinities. This hypothesis is supported by the shift in the dominant AOB from
392 *Nitrosospira* during salinity increase, to *Nitrosomonas* after seawater acclimatization (Fig. 6).

393 Similarly, *Nitrospira* and *Nitrobacter* were more abundant in S1-6 than in S15, and the abundance of
394 *Nitrospira* decreased after seawater transfer in all treatments. Other studies have also reported that
395 *Nitrospira* could tolerate brackish water but disappeared at salinities above 22‰ (Bassin et al., 2011;
396 Rud et al., 2016).

397 The dominant NOB in this study, *Candidatus Nitrotoga*, is reported to be a K-strategist with a
398 moderate affinity for substrate (Nowka et al., 2015; Wegen et al., 2019). Moreover, it prefers lower

399 temperatures compared to *Nitrobacter* and *Nitrospira* and can out-compete them at 5-10 °C (Alawi et
400 al., 2009; Karkman et al., 2011). These factors explain its dominance in biofilms in RAS for
401 salmonids (this study; (Hüpeden et al., 2016)), which are operated at cool temperatures and low nitrite
402 concentrations ($< 1 \text{ mgN L}^{-1}$). Although *Candidatus Nitrotoga* in pure cultures could only tolerate
403 salinities up to 5-10‰ (Ishii et al., 2017; Wegen et al., 2019), they have been detected in marine RAS
404 at 29-37‰ salinity (Keuter et al., 2017). Its continued presence throughout this study indicates that
405 this NOB can adapt to salt concentrations up to 32‰, highlighting that salt tolerance in complex
406 microbial environments may differ from those in pure cultures due to interactions between
407 microorganisms (Ilgrande et al., 2018).

408 The increase in the proportion of nitrifiers in the control was likely due to the maturation of the
409 biofilm. The other treatments were also possibly influenced by this maturation effect, as S1-6 had a
410 higher proportion of nitrifiers than the control and S15, despite having a lower AOR_{max} . In these
411 treatments, the nitrifiers were either inhibited or the heterotrophic bacteria were reduced by the
412 salinity increase. Alternatively, some dead cells may have been included in the analysis, as all PCR-
413 quality DNA are quantified in amplicon sequencing. However, the shifts in the proportions of
414 different nitrifying genera, especially in S1-6, indicate that the changes in microbial communities
415 were dynamic. In this study, both freshwater and halotolerant/halophilic strains of nitrifying genera
416 were detected. Moreover, the presence of obligate halophiles, such as *N. marina* (Koops et al., 2006),
417 suggests that the salinity increase opened new niches for marine bacteria.

418 Although the microbial communities differed between treatments, the AOR_{max} was only weakly
419 influenced by the salinity change rate. Other studies have also reported that nitrifying microbial
420 communities with different species inventory may exhibit the same nitrification activity (Bassin et al.,
421 2012; Moussa et al., 2006). This phenomenon is likely due to high functional redundancy among taxa
422 (Berga et al., 2017). Understanding the responses of microbes to salinity is important, as it can aid in
423 improving bioreactor design and management, and in selecting suitable inoculum for saline
424 bioreactors.

425 5 Conclusions

426 The aim of this study was to investigate if small daily salinity increments could be a better strategy
427 than large daily salinity increments to adapt freshwater nitrifying MBBRs to seawater. In conclusion:

- 428 • The ammonia oxidation capacity of the MBBRs was only weakly influenced by the salinity
429 increase rate, but decreased linearly with salinity (~2.7% decrease per ‰) and increased
430 linearly with seawater acclimatization time (~2.1% recovery per day). This finding suggests
431 that there is no advantage of a small salinity increment over a large salinity increment.
432 Therefore, it appears practical to increase salinity continuously in a couple of days and allow
433 more time for acclimatization to full salinity instead of increasing the salinity in smaller
434 increments over a month.
- 435 • Microbial communities may tolerate large gradual increments in salinity with little change in
436 composition. In comparison, continual changes in salinity over a long period may induce a
437 shift in communities to increase diversity and functional redundancy of nitrifying bacteria to
438 adapt to the constant perturbations.
- 439 • These results can aid in the shift from net-pen fish production to lower ecological impact
440 RAS. This study may also help manage nitrifying bioreactors for saline industrial or
441 municipal effluents, especially when salt-acclimated inoculum is unavailable. As this study
442 showed that the salinity could not be increased within a month without a decrease in
443 nitrification, other seawater adaptation strategies should be investigated to increase the
444 salinity resistance of nitrifying biofilms.

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451 **7 Author contributions**

452 By CRediT taxonomy: Conceptualization and experiment design: SN, BFT, AK, FG.
453 Methodology/Resources: AK, ØM, AKT, SN. Investigation: SN, GCV, AKT. Formal analysis: SN,
454 OV, AK, VCM. Visualization: SN, VV. Supervision: AK, OV, BFT, VCM, ØM, FG. Writing original
455 draft: SN, VCM, OV, AKT. Critical review of manuscript: All.

456

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- 584

585 **FIGURES**

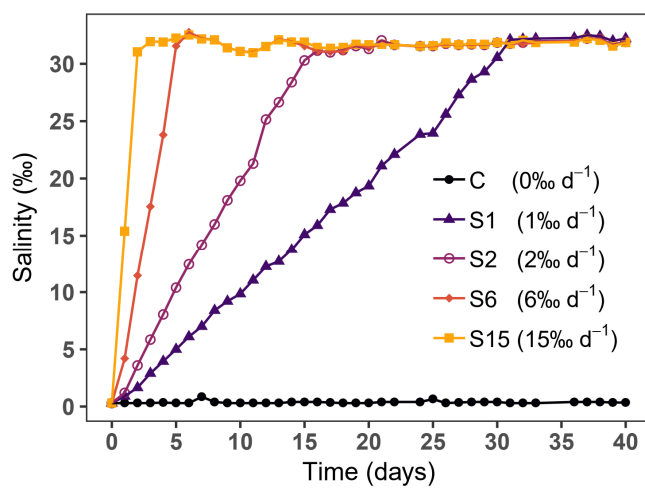
586 **Figure 1:** Experimental design with salinity for the different treatments in ‰ (parts per thousand).

587 The control treatment (C) was always operated in freshwater. Treatments S1, S2, S6, and S15 were

588 transferred from freshwater (0‰) to seawater (32‰) at salinity increase rates of 1, 2, 6, and 15‰ d⁻¹,

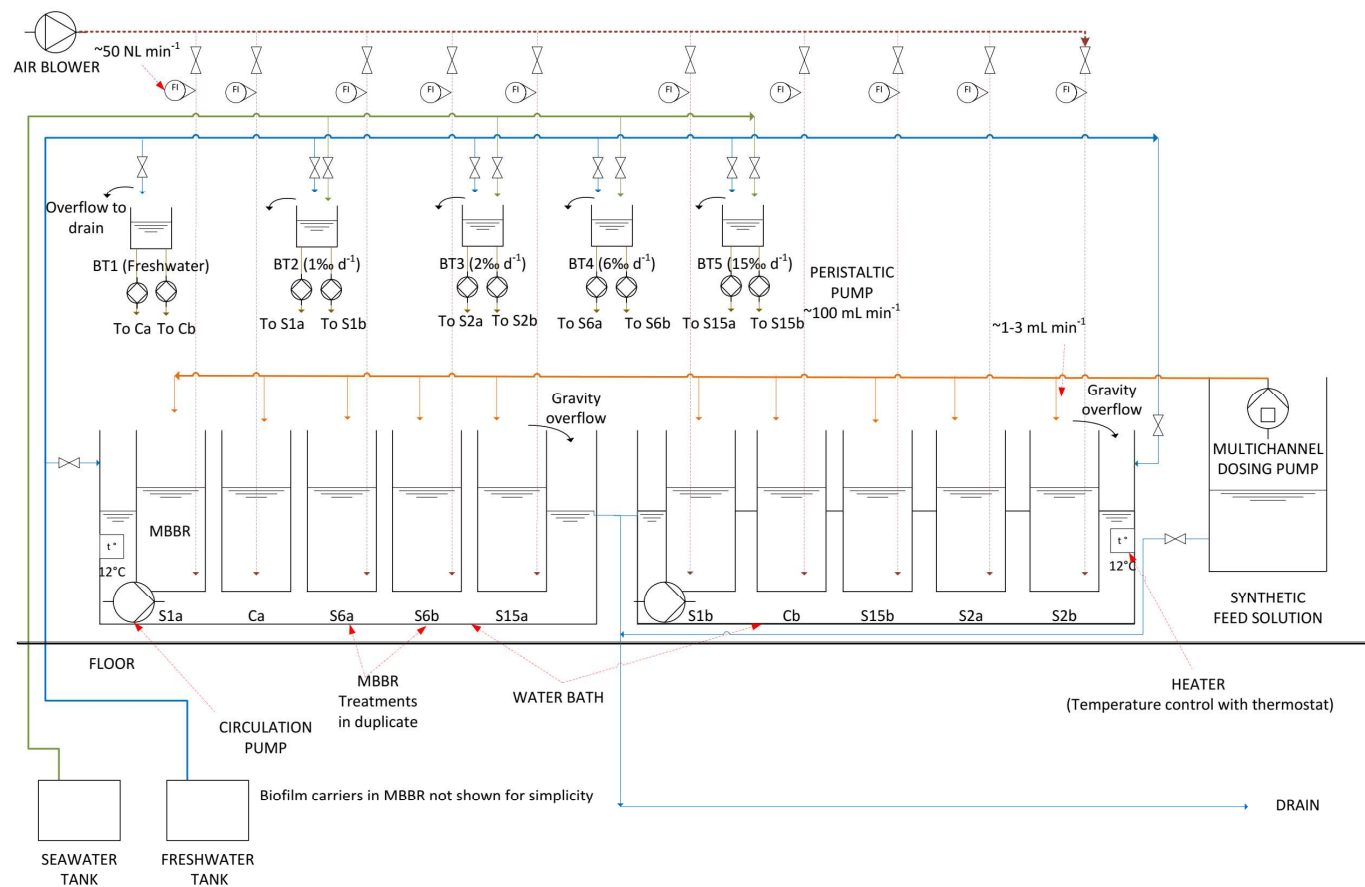
589 respectively.

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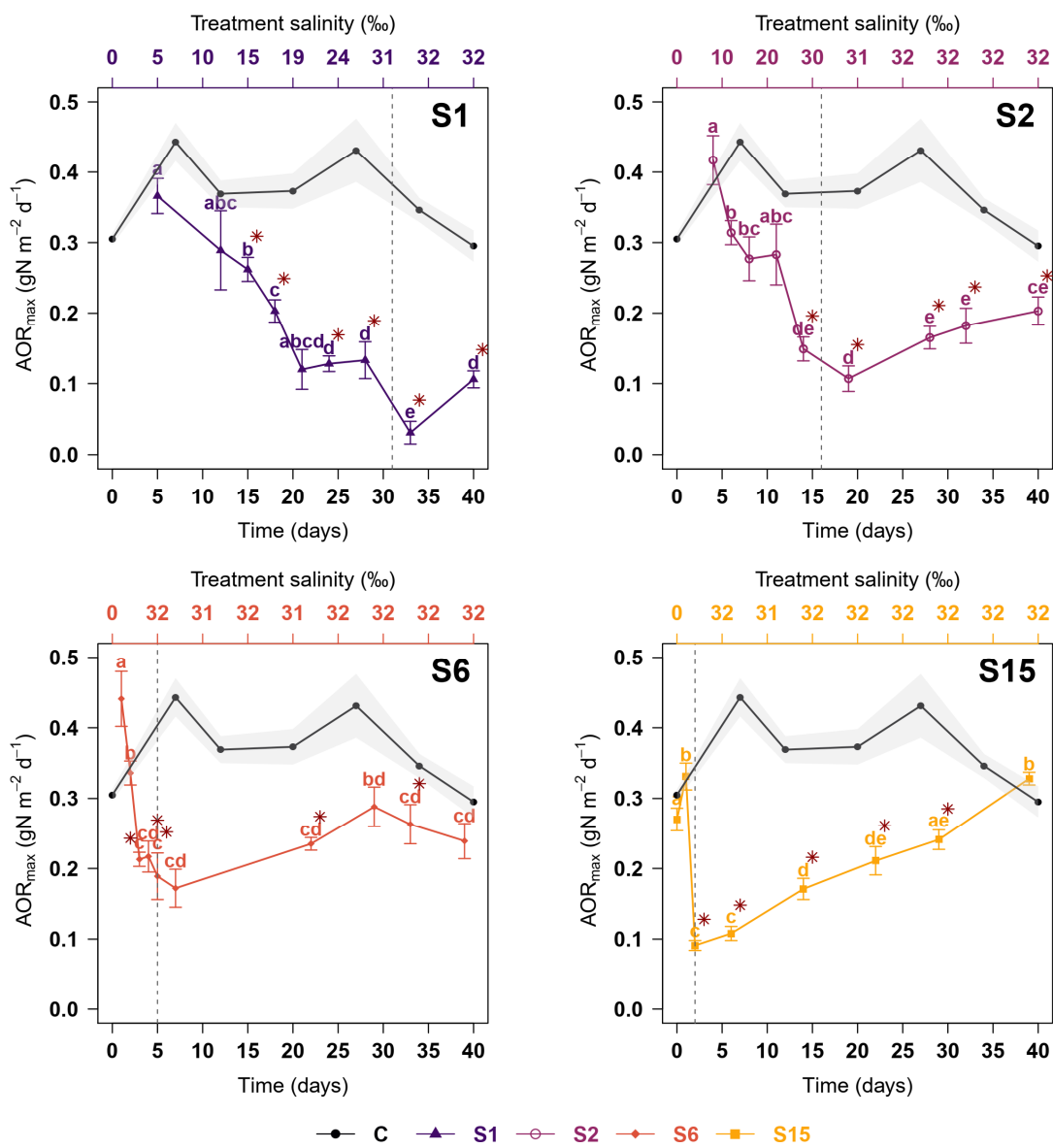
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592 **Figure 2:** Schematic diagram of the experimental setup. Continuously operated MBBRs with five treatments in duplicate, placed in temperature-controlled
 593 water baths. Treatments S1, S2, S6, and S15 were transferred from freshwater to seawater at salinity increase rates of 1, 2, 6, and 15% d⁻¹, respectively
 594 (duplicates denoted by suffixes 'a' and 'b'). The control treatment (C) was always operated in freshwater (0‰ salinity). The salinity in each treatment was
 595 changed by controlling the salinity in the respective buffer tank (BT) by adjusting the freshwater and seawater flows.



597 **Figure 3:** Maximum ammonia oxidation rate (AOR_{max}) for treatments S1 (1‰ d^{-1}), S2 (2‰ d^{-1}), S6
 598 (6‰ d^{-1}), and S15 (15‰ d^{-1}), compared to the freshwater control C (0‰ d^{-1}). Error bars and grey
 599 shaded region indicate standard errors for the treatment and the control, respectively. Data with an
 600 asterisk (*) are significantly different from the two nearest control data points ($p < 0.05$). Within each
 601 treatment, data with no letters in common are significantly different. The dotted line on each graph
 602 indicates the day on which the treatment was completely transferred to seawater.

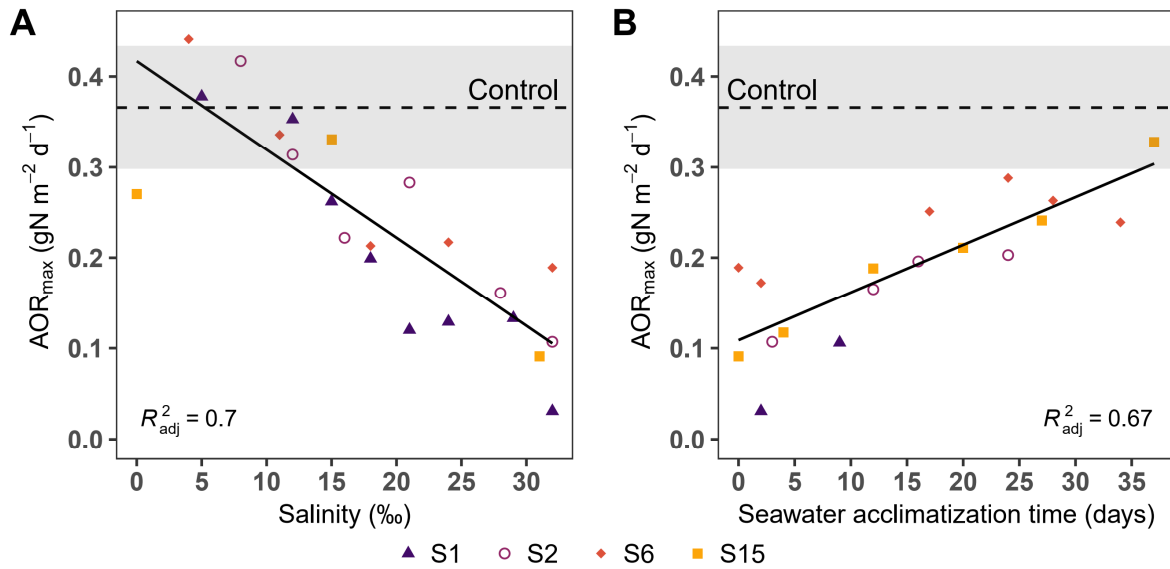
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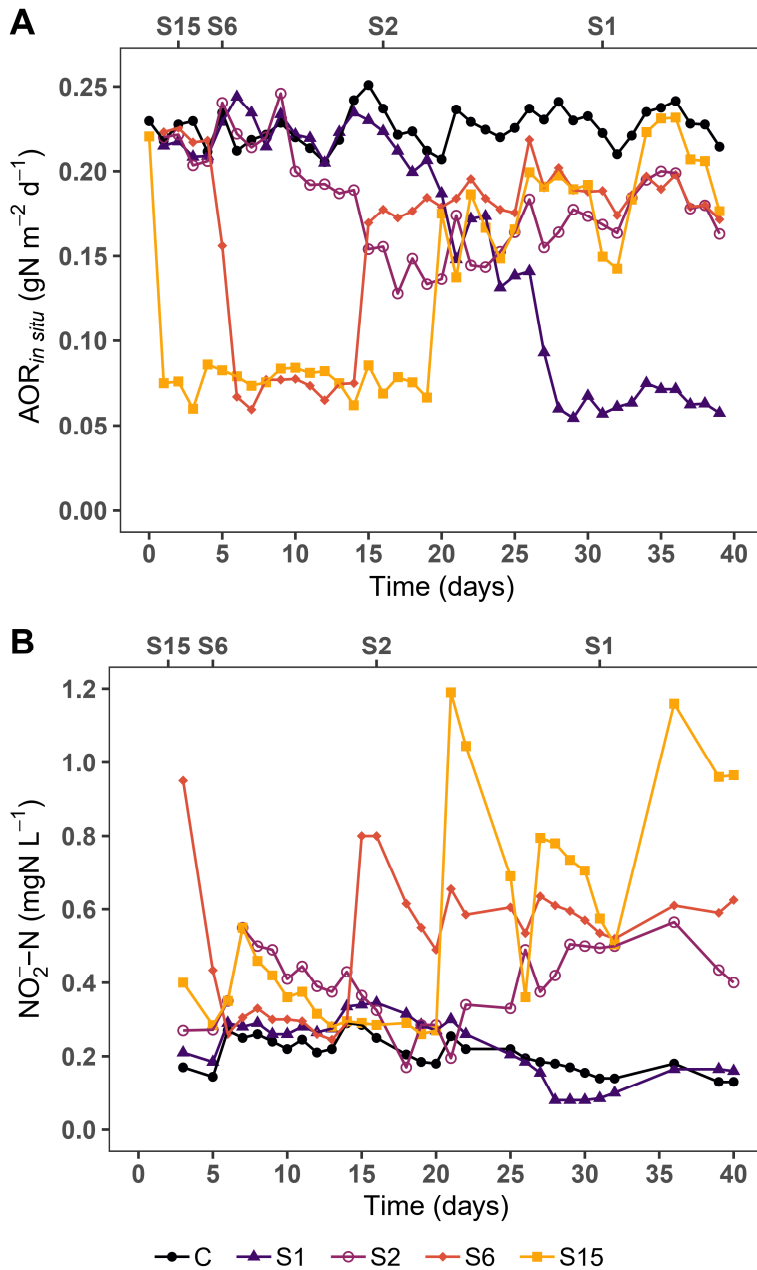
605 **Figure 4:** Linear regression analyses on AOR_{max} from all treatments showing the correlation between
 606 A) AOR_{max} and salinity and B) AOR_{max} and seawater acclimatization time. The dashed line and the
 607 shaded region represent the average control AOR_{max} and its standard deviation, respectively.

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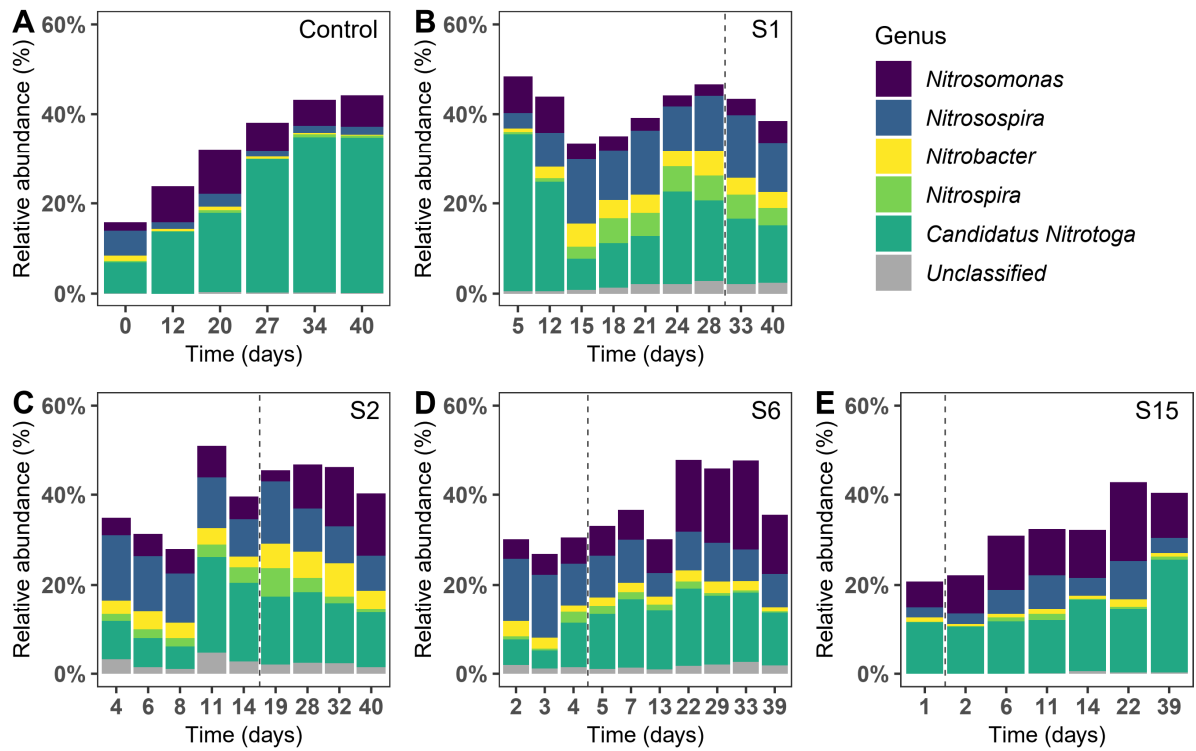
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611 **Figure 5:** For the different treatments A) *in situ* ammonia oxidation rate ($AOR_{in\ situ}$), and B) nitrite
 612 concentration in the MBBR. Labels above the graphs indicate point of complete transfer to seawater
 613 for each treatment. $AOR_{in\ situ}$ was calculated by the ammonia mass balance for each MBBR. S1, S6,
 614 and S15 had low ammonia loading rates ($0.08 \pm 0.04 \text{ gN m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) on days 28-40, 6-14, and 1-19,
 615 respectively.



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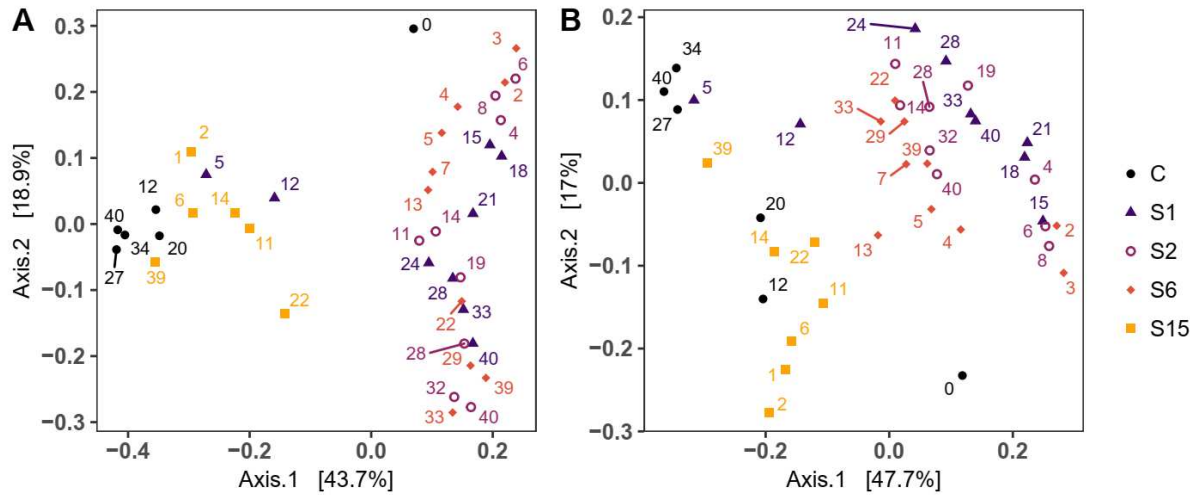
617 **Figure 6:** Relative abundance of nitrifying genera in the biofilm for treatments A) Control, B) S1, C)
 618 S2, D) S6, and E) S15. Samples to the right of the dotted line are after complete seawater transfer.



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621 **Figure 7:** Ordination by principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) based on Bray-Curtis similarities
 622 between A) all OTUs and B) nitrifying OTUs. Labels indicate sampling day. Square brackets show
 623 percentage variance explained by each coordinate axis. Treatments S1, S2, S6, and S15 were
 624 completely transferred to seawater on days 31, 16, 5, and 2, respectively.



625

Highlights

- Salinity increase rate weakly influenced maximum ammonia oxidation rate (AOR_{max})
- AOR_{max} decreased linearly with salinity; 50-90% reduction on seawater transfer
- AOR_{max} increased linearly with seawater acclimatization time in all treatments
- Microbial community composition changed least for the largest salinity increment
- *Candidatus Nitrotoga* was the dominant nitrite oxidizing genus at all salinities