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2 Geochemical and isotopic study of abiotic nitrite reduction coupled to 3 biologically produced Fe(II) oxidation in marine environments

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22 Abstract

Estuarine sediments are often characterized by abundant iron oxides, organic matter, and anthropogenic nitrogen compounds (e.g., nitrate and nitrite). Anoxic dissimilatory iron reducing bacteria (e.g., *Shewanella loihica*) are ubiquitous in these environments where they can catalyze the reduction of Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides, thereby releasing aqueous Fe(II). The biologically produced Fe(II) can later reduce nitrite to form nitrous oxide.

The effect on nitrite reduction by both biologically produced and artificially amended 28 Fe(II) was examined experimentally. Ferrihydrite was reduced by Shewanella loihica in a 29 30 batch reaction with an anoxic synthetic sea water medium. Some of the Fe(II) released by S. loihica adsorbed onto ferrihydrite, which was involved in the transformation of 31 ferrihydrite to magnetite. In a second set of experiments with identical medium, no 32 33 microorganism was present, instead, Fe(II) was amended. The amount of solid-bound Fe(II) 34 in the experiments with bioproduced Fe(II) increased the rate of abiotic NO_2^- reduction with respect to that with synthetic Fe(II), yielding half-lives of 0.07 and 0.47 d, 35 36 respectively.

The δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N of NO₂⁻ was measured through time for both the abiotic and 37 innoculated experiments. The ratio of $\epsilon^{18}O/\epsilon^{15}N$ was 0.6 for the abiotic experiments and 3.1 38 when NO_2^- was reduced by S. loihica, thus indicating two different mechanisms for the 39 NO₂⁻ reduction. Notably, there is a wide range of the $\epsilon^{18}O/\epsilon^{15}N$ values in the literature for 40 abiotic and biotic NO_2^- reduction, as such, the use of this ratio to distinguish between 41 reduction mechanisms in natural systems should be taken with caution. Therefore, we 42 43 suggest an additional constraint to identify the mechanisms (i.e. abiotic/biotic) controlling NO₂⁻ reduction in natural settings through the correlation of δ^{15} N-NO₂⁻ and the aqueous 44 Fe(II) concentration. 45

- 47 Keywords: iron reducing bacteria, chemodenitrification, nitrite reduction, Fe(II) oxidation, nitrite
- *isotope*

50 1 Introduction

51 Sediments in estuarine and coastal areas often contain terrigenous organic matter and other constituents such as iron and nitrogen compounds (e.g., NO_x), which arrive via rivers and 52 submarine groundwater inputs [1]. Currently, the intensive use of nitrogen-based fertilizers 53 and the systematic release of domestic and industrial waste account for the majority of 54 nitrogen input to these systems [2]. When oxygen is limited in these environments, 55 dissimilatory iron reducing bacteria (e.g., Shewanella loihica) are able to reduce Fe(III) 56 (oxyhydr)oxides minerals [3] producing Fe(II) (Eq. 1) [4]. Further, the biologically 57 produced Fe(II) can reduce available nitrite (NO_2^{-}) to form nitrous oxide (N_2O) (Eq. 2) [5]. 58

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$$60 \qquad CH_3CHOHCOO^- + 4Fe(OH)_3 + 7H^+ \rightarrow CH_3COO^- + HCO_3^- + 4Fe^{2+} + 10H_2O \qquad (1)$$

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$$4Fe^{2+} + 2NO_2^{-} + 5H_2O \rightarrow 4FeOOH + N_2O + 6H^+$$
 (2)

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Nitrous oxide is a potent greenhouse gas and the single greatest ozone-depleting substance
[6]. In recent years, nitrite reduction by Fe(II) oxidation (i.e. chemodenitrification) has been
the subject of much research given its environmental relevance [5, 7-10].

Both iron and nitrogen cycles are related in anaerobic environments where bioreduction of hydrous ferric oxides (HFO), such as ferrihydrite, leads to nitrite reduction coupled with Fe(II) oxidation [3, 11, 12]. Since nitrite reduction occurs in the presence of aqueous Fe(II) and in the absence of HFO [13, 14], higher abiotic NO_2^- reduction rates have been observed in the presence of solid iron phases [5, 15, 16]. Tai and Dempsey (2009) observed higher NO_2^- reduction rates when the initial aqueous Fe(II)/HFO ratio was 0.3. They demonstrated that ratio values higher than 0.3 indicate a halt of the reduction even in the presence of mineral-associated Fe(II). Furthermore, they showed that the abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction was negligible in the absence of HFO. In experiments with aqueous Fe(II) and nitrite, precipitation of HFO or mixed valence (Fe(II), Fe(III)) iron minerals, such as green rust [17], will probably occur due to the oxidation of aqueous Fe(II) [8, 18].

78 Solid Fe(II) (also referred to as structural or solid-bound Fe(II)) may be involved in nitrite reduction [19] together with the dissolved Fe(II). Dhakal et al. (2013) [16] studied 79 80 the ability of magnetite to reduce nitrite and showed that abiotic NO_2^- reduction by magnetite had a greater impact on nitrite removal than microbially mediated denitrification. 81 However, Lu et al. (2017) [8] showed that magnetite was not able to reduce nitrite in a wide 82 NO_2^- concentration range (30-280 mg L⁻¹) in the absence of solid-bound Fe(II). Few studies 83 on abiotic nitrite reduction in experiments with fresh biogenic magnetite in marine 84 85 conditions are available to date [20].

Currently, the evaluation of abiotic nitrogen reduction coupled with oxidation of 86 87 Fe(II) in heterogenous systems at laboratory scales has been performed by the addition of 88 synthetic Fe(II) (e.g., FeCl₂) to aqueous solutions with different iron minerals [8, 13, 21]. 89 However, in natural settings Fe(II) can derive from microbial reduction of Fe(III)-minerals. Dissimilatory Fe(III) reduction could alter the properties of the iron mineral surface or 90 91 result in the formation of secondary iron mineral phases such as magnetite or siderite [22]. 92 The evaluation of abiotic nitrite reduction therefore requires that experiments be carried out 93 under conditions more comparable to natural settings (e.g., marine environment).

In this study, ferrihydrite was the Fe(III) mineral used in biotic and abiotic nitrite reduction experiments with synthetic seawater at pH 8.2 because it is abundant in marine sediments [23] and therefore comparable to natural systems. Fe(II) was either added as FeSO₄ or biologically produced by *Shewanella loihica* (strain PV-4) at similar Fe (II)
aqueous concentrations. This strain of *S. loihica* is known to reduce Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides
in seawater under anoxic conditions [24]. Given its thermodynamic instability and large
surface area, ferrihydrite has a high reactivity in the presence of aqueous Fe(II), which may
lead to a mineral transformation made up of more crystalline phases containing Fe(II) such
as magnetite [25-30].

Isotopic analysis is a useful tool for tracing NOx transformation processes. The 103 104 enzymatic NO₃⁻ reduction provokes an enrichment in the heavy isotopes of the unreacted substrate [31-34] unlike processes such as dilution that lead to a decrease in concentration 105 without influencing the isotopic ratios. The same pattern is expected for the biotic reduction 106 of all N intermediate products (e.g., NO_2^- or N_2O), which will be initially depleted in ¹⁵N 107 and ¹⁸O with respect to the substrate. However, data on the dual N-O isotope systematics 108 109 during the biotic reduction of intermediate compounds such as NO₂⁻ remain scarce[35, 36]. Moreover, two recent isotopic studies on the abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction by Fe(II) found results 110 similar to what is expected from the biotic reaction [7, 9]. Essentially, it is unclear to what 111 degree the isotopic characterization might help in distinguishing biotic and abiotic NO₂⁻ 112 reduction. Further studies on the application of isotopic data to elucidate the process 113 controlling the fate of nitrite in natural systems are therefore warranted. 114

In the present study, biotic and abiotic NO_2^- reduction experiments using synthetic and biologically produced Fe(II) were performed with anoxic synthetic sweater to (1) shed light on the kinetics of NO_2^- reduction in marine environments and (2) evaluate the possible use of isotopic analysis to distinguish between abiotic and biotic (heterotrophic) NO_2^- reduction. In addition, the reductive dissolution of ferrihydrite by *Shweanella loihica* andthe fate of bioproduced Fe(II) was investigated.

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- 122 **2** Materials and methods
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124 **2.1** Solutions

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126 Synthetic sea water (SSW) was prepared to simulate marine sediment conditions following 127 the standard protocol D1141-98 (ATSM International). In addition to this basal medium, 128 10.0 mM of sodium lactate as both a carbon source and electron donor, and 10.0 mM of 129 TRIS-HCl (Tris) as a buffer (pH \approx 8.2) were added. Hereafter, this medium will be referred 130 to as M-SSW.

Stock solutions of Fe(II) at pH 1 (HCl) and NO₂⁻ (230.0 mM 60.0 mM, respectively) were prepared in an anoxic glove box dissolving suitable amounts of FeSO₄ and KNO₂ into nitrogen degassed ultrapure (18.1 M Ω) Milli-Q water. Both solutions were subsequently filtered with a 0.22 µm membrane and stored in sterile bottles.

All solutions used in this study were sterilized by autoclave (121 °C, 20 min) unless stated
otherwise. Dissolved oxygen concentrations were measured by luminescent dissolved
oxygen (LDO) probe (detection limit 0.01 mgL⁻¹).

138 2.2 Bacterial culture

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140 Shewanella loihica strain PV-4 was purchased from the German Collection of
141 Microorganisms and Cell Cultures (DSMZ 17748). Bacteria were recovered and cultivated

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in M1 medium [37] with 10.0 mM of lactate as the electron donor and carbon source and 143 10.0 mM of Fe(III) citrate as the electron acceptor. To obtain bacterial suspensions, cells 144 were cultivated for 24 h and then harvested by centrifugation (5000 rpm for 10 min). The 145 pellet was then re-suspended in SSW. This step was repeated three times as a washing 146 protocol. *S.loihica* was inoculated with a concentration of $1 \cdot 10^7$ colony-forming units (cfu) 147 mL⁻¹.

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149 2.3 Ferrihydrite: synthesis and characterization

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151 2L-ferrihydrite was synthesized according to a modified protocol of Schwertmann and 152 Cornell (2008) [38] (see supporting information (SI) for more details). The specific surface 153 area was measured by the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method [39] with a Gemini 2370 154 surface area analyzer using 5-point N₂ adsorption isotherms. Sample degassing with 155 nitrogen lasted for 2 h at 137 °C. The BET specific surface area measured for unreacted 156 samples varied between 140 and 180 m²g⁻¹, and for the bioreacted samples it was between 157 144 and 152 m²g⁻¹.

The reacted and unreacted samples were examined by three techniques: (1) scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using a Hitachi H-4100FE instrument under a 15–20 kV potential in a high vacuum and utilizing the backscattered electron detector (BSD) in field emission (FE) and coating the samples with carbon, (2) X-ray diffraction (XRD) using a *PANalytical X'Pert PRO MPD θ/θ* Bragg-Brentano powder diffractometer of 240 mm in radius and Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418$ Å) together with Rietveld analysis to quantify the amount of phases, and (3) Fourier transform infrared spectrometry (FTIR) utilizing a Perkin 165 Elmer frontier / ATR diamond / detector DTGS, accumulation at 16 scans, spectral 166 resolution 4 cm⁻¹, spectral range 4000 - 225 cm⁻¹.

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2.4 Experimental setup and sampling procedure

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Table 1 lists the initial experimental conditions. Most of the batch experiments were run in the dark (bottles wrapped with aluminum foil) and in triplicate at 22 ± 2 °C. Bottles (reactors) were placed in an anoxic glove box purged with N₂ and equipped with UV germicidal light for periodic sterilization. Glassware, septa, caps, tips, and media solutions were sterilized by autoclave at 121 °C for 20 min before the experiments.

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176 2.4.1 Abiotic nitrite reduction experiments with biologically produced Fe(II)

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178 Batch experiments consisted of two stages. In the first stage, no nitrate was amended while Fe(II) was produced biologically (experiment Ferr; Table 1). The anaerobic 179 reductive dissolution of ferrihydrite mediated by S. loihica was performed in cultures 180 prepared with the M-SSW medium described above. Bottles of 500 mL were sealed with a 181 screw cap, silicone O-ring and blue butyl rubber stopper before being wrapped in aluminum 182 183 foil to avoid exposure to light. Autoclaved ferrihydrite powder was put into the bottles (1:100 w/v ratio). Each reactor consisted of a multi-point batch experiment in which the 184 butyl rubber stopper allowed for multiple collection of samples with a syringe over time. 185 186 Before sampling, the reactors were thoroughly shaken for liquid-solid homogenization. Aliquots of 5 mL were extracted about every 48 h, filtered through a 0.22 µm membrane, 187

and acidified with 200 μ L of 6 M HCl solution. One mL was used for immediate Fe(II) analysis, and the remaining 4 mL were stored in the dark at 4 °C for further lactate/acetate measurements.

191 In the second stage, nitrite was amended to the reactors and reduced by the 192 biologically produced Fe(II) (NFerr experiment in Table 1). In other words, the initial 193 conditions of stage two correspond to the final conditions of stage one, in which lactate was consumed and ferrihydrite bioreduction ended. The concentrations of bioproduced Fe(II) 194 and acetate were 1.15 and 8.1 mM, respectively, for at least 10 days. On the tenth day, 4.81 195 mL of a 60.0 mM NO_2^- stock solution were injected into the reactors under anoxic 196 197 conditions, resulting in a NO₂⁻ concentration of 0.76 mM. NFerr experiment was performed in duplicate to ensure reproducibility. 198

Three sample aliquots were extracted at each sampling interval: a 5 mL aliquot for aqueous Fe(II) and Fe(III) concentration measurements, another 5 mL aliquot to measure the nitrite isotopic composition (δ^{15} N-NO₂⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₂⁻), and a 1 mL aliquot to measure the NO₂⁻ concentration. Concentrations of dissolved iron and nitrite were analyzed immediately to prevent measurement error due to subsequent iron oxidation/nitrite reduction. The aliquots taken for isotope analysis were immediately frozen and later defrosted before measurement preparation (Section 2.6).

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207 2.4.2 Abiotic nitrite reduction experiments with synthetic Fe(II) 208

To investigate the role of solid and aqueous Fe(II) in nitrite reduction, three abiotic experiments were performed with synthetic Fe(II) in the presence and the absence of

ferrihydrite. The δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of nitrite were monitored through time. In the experiments 211 containing ferrihydrite, the liquid/solid ratio was the same as in the NFerr experiment. 212 Three distinct experimental conditions were employed: (1) dissolved $Fe(II) + NO_2^-$ without 213 ferrihydrite, (2) ferrihydrite + synthetic Fe(II) (totally solid-bound on by ferrihydrite) + 214 NO₂⁻ in the absence of aqueous Fe(II) and (3) ferrihydrite + both solid-bound and dissolved 215 216 $Fe(II) + NO_2^{-}$, which are labeled A1, A2, and A3, respectively (Table 1). Three replicates were performed for these experiments. All experiments consisted of a basal medium of 217 218 SSW supplemented with 10.0 mM acetate and 10.0 mM Tris-HCl buffer. Acetate was 219 added to match the initial conditions in the NFerr experiment (8.1 mM of acetate final concentration; Table 1). Control experiments with autoclaved culture of Shewanella loihica 220 were carried out to examine an effect of dead cells on the overall process, and no residual 221 222 nitrite reduction was observed.

In experiment A1, the abiotic reduction of NO_2^- (0.65 mM concentration) by aqueous Fe(II) 223 (1.20 mM concentration) took place in batch reactors with 250 mL of SSW basal solution. 224 225 The decrease in aqueous Fe(II) and NO_2^- was monitored to evaluate the nitrite reduction rate by implementing a multi-point approach. In multi-point batch experiment A2, reactors 226 contained 2.5 g of ferrihydrite and 250 mL of SSW basal solution amended with Fe (II) 227 228 (1.20 mM concentration). The aqueous Fe(II) was consumed in 400 min due to its uptake on ferrihydrite (see SI and Fig. S1). Once aqueous Fe(II) was depleted, 3.16 mL of 60.0 229 230 mM nitrite (0.76 mM concentration) were added to the reactor to promote nitrite reduction by solid-bound Fe(II). 231

The multi-point batch experiment A3 contained 2.5 g of ferrihydrite and significantly more synthetic Fe(II) (2.60 mM final concentration; Table 1) than A2 experiments. Similar to

experiment A2, a fast uptake of approximately 1.40 mM Fe(II) occurred, yielding a fairly 234 235 constant aqueous Fe(II) concentration of approximately 1.20 mM for 8 days. Subsequently, 236 3.16 mL of 60.0 mM of nitrite (0.76 mM final concentration) were injected into the reactor 237 to promote nitrite reduction by oxidation of both solid bound and aqueous Fe(II). Note that 238 the aqueous Fe(II) concentration in the experiments A1, A2, A3 and in the NFerr experiment, previous to the addition of nitrite, were approximately the same (i.e., 1.20 239 mM). The identical sample collection and preservation method used for NFerr was also 240 241 implemented in experiments A1, A2 and A3 (Section 2.4.1).

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243 **2.4.3** Biotic nitrite reduction experiments with *S. loihica*

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245 Bio1 and Bio2 experiments were performed to investigate the heterotrophic nitrite 246 reduction mediated by *S.loihica* in the absence of ferrihydrite and aqueous Fe(II) (Table 1). 247 Each reactor was amended with SSW and adjusted to 10.0 mM of either lactate or acetate as electron donor and carbon source, 10.0 mM of Tris-HCl buffer, and 0.65 nM of nitrite. 248 249 This enabled the comparison of the biological and abiotic denitrification rates to further 250 characterize of the isotopic signature for each mechanism. Moreover, these experiments 251 allowed an evaluation of the potential contribution of the heterotrophic nitrite reduction in 252 the abiotic experiments with biologically produced Fe(II).

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254 2.4.4 Control and adsorption experiments

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Control reactors with SSW were performed to examine any potential interference between acetate and Fe(II), nitrite and acetate or buffer, acetate and Fe(II) and only nitrite or Fe(II) in SSW (details in SI). Adsorption experiments were carried out to quantify the amount of Fe(II) adsorbed during reductive dissolution of synthetized ferrihydrite (see SI). A Fe(II) adsorption isotherm was performed with increasing concentrations of aqueous Fe(II) in anoxic SSW, acetate and TRIS pH buffer to investigate the mechanisms responsible for the Fe(II) uptake on ferrihydrite (Fig. S2 in SI).

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265 **2.5 Chemical analyses**

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Concentrations of dissolved iron and nitrite were both measured by spectrophotometry (SP-267 830 PLUS, Metertech Inc.) at wavelengths of 510 nm and 540 nm, respectively. Fe(II) and 268 269 total iron concentrations were measured immediately after sampling by the phenanthroline 270 method [40]. Nitrite concentration was measured following the method defined by Garcia-Robledo et al. (2004) [41]. The total iron dissolved was also measured using a Perkin-271 Elmer 3000 inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES) to 272 273 confirm that all dissolved iron was in fact Fe(II). Differences in Fe concentrations measured 274 by the phenanthroline method and ICP-OES were smaller than 5%. Concentrations of 275 lactate and acetate were measured by high performance liquid chromatography (Waters 600 HPLC pump controller equipped with an Aminex HPX-87H column (300 x 7.8 mm), 276 277 BioRad column, and a Waters 717plus autoinjector). The associated uncertainty was less 278 than 3 %. The pH of the initial medium was measured in a glove box using a Thermo Orion pH electrode (± 0.02 pH units) and periodically calibrated with standard solutions of pH 2,
4 and 7.

281 **2.6 Isotopic analyses**

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 δ^{15} N-NO₂⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₂⁻ were determined following the azide reduction method [42, 43]. 283 N₂O was analyzed using a Pre-Con (Thermo Scientific) coupled with a Finnigan MAT 253 284 285 Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS, Thermo Scientific). Notation is expressed in terms of delta per mil (δ ‰) (i.e., $\delta = (R_{sample}-R_{standard})/R_{standard}$, where R is the ratio between 286 the heavy (¹⁵N, ¹⁸O) and the light (¹⁴N, ¹⁶O)isotopes) [44]. The δ^{15} N and δ^{18} S values are 287 288 reported against international atmospheric N₂ (AIR) and Vienna Standard Mean Oceanic 289 Water (V-SMOW). According to Coplen (2011) [44], several international and laboratory (in-house) standards were interspersed among samples for normalization of analyses. Two 290 international standards (USGS 34 and 35) and two internal laboratory standards (UB-291 NaNO₃ ($\delta^{15}N = +16.9$ ‰ and $\delta^{18}O = +28.5$ ‰) and UB-KNO₂ ($\delta^{15}N = -28.5$ ‰)) were 292 employed to calibrate the δ^{15} N-NO₂⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₂⁻ raw values to the international scales. 293 The reproducibility (1σ) of the samples, calculated from the standards systematically 294 interspersed in the analytical batches, was ± 1.0 % for δ^{15} N-NO₂⁻ and ± 1.5 % for δ^{18} O-NO₂. 295

296 Under closed system conditions, the isotopic fractionation values ($\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$) are 297 calculated according to the Rayleigh distillation equation:

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$$\ln\left(\frac{R_{\text{residual}}}{R_{\text{initial}}}\right) = \varepsilon \times \ln\left(\frac{C_{\text{residual}}}{C_{\text{initial}}}\right)$$
(3)

where ε is the slope of the linear regression between the natural logarithms of the substrate remaining fraction (ln(C_{residual}/C_{initial}), where C refers to the analyte concentration, and the determined isotope ratios (ln(R_{residual}/R_{initial}), where R = δ +1.

Given that the use of NO₃⁻ (and NO₂⁻) standards to correct δ^{18} O-NO₂⁻ may cause a bias on their values for the loss of one O atom during NO₃⁻ to NO₂⁻ reduction, the results were interpreted according to the changes in the NO₂⁻ isotopic composition with respect to the initial one.

306

307 3 Results and discussion

308 3.1 Bioreduction of ferrihydrite

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Figure 1 shows the three distinct stages of the bioreduction experiment. In the first 310 311 stage (approximately 10 days), a significant drop in the initial concentration of lactate (from 312 10.8 to 3.9 mM) was accompanied by a sharp increase in acetate concentration (up to 3.8 313 mM). However, aqueous iron was not detected during this interval. In the second stage 314 (from 10 to 30 days), a gradual decrease in lactate and a progressive increase in acetate were observed together with a significant increase in dissolved iron. In the third stage, 315 316 lactate was totally depleted after about 60 days, and acetate and Fe(II) concentrations stabilized at 8.1 and 1.15 mM, respectively. The total consumption of lactate (i.e. the 317 318 electron donor) effectively halted Fe(III)-bioreduction and, therefore, the acetate and 319 aqueous Fe(II) concentrations remained constant.

320 Referring to the bioreduction reaction (Eq. 1), the molar ratio of [acetate]/[lactate] is 321 1. Nevertheless, based on the measured lactate consumption, a 20 % deficit of acetate was observed throughout the experiments (Fig. 1). This non-stoichiometric behavior was mainly 322 attributed to the use of lactate as a carbon source for biomass formation during microbial 323 324 growth [45]. Further, since the stoichiometric [Fe(II)/[acetate] ratio is 4 (Eq. 1) and the highest measured concentrations of aqueous Fe(II) and acetate were 1.15 and 8.1 mM, 325 respectively, only a minor fraction of Fe(II) produced (i.e. ≈ 3.5 %) was found in solution. 326 327 This Fe(II) deficit could be explained by a large Fe(II) adsorption on ferrihydrite. For instance, Dzomback and Morel (1990) [46] demonstrated that at relatively high pH (e.g. pH 328 \approx 8.2), ferrihydrite that has a large surface area combined with a poor crystalline 329 330 organization can cause an exceptionally large sorption capacity of cations. In order to evaluate the Fe(II) adsorption process under the investigated conditions, several Fe(II)-331 332 adsorption assays were performed to obtain a Fe(II) adsorption isotherm (Figs. S1 and S2 in SI). The results confirmed a maximum uptake of Fe(II) on ferrihydrite of ≈ 1.20 mM (Fig. 333 334 S1 in SI) and revealed that, in addition to adsorption, an additional process (ferrihydrite 335 transformation) was responsible for the Fe(II) uptake on ferrihydrite (Fig. S2 in SI).

Earlier studies indicated that re-adsorption of Fe(II) on ferrihydrite can result in ferrihydrite transformation to goethite, magnetite or lepidocrocite [27, 29, 30, 47-49]. In addition, the thermodynamic properties of the minerals involved, the aqueous Fe(II) concentration, the biological and physical settings, the presence of humic substances or the design of the experimental setup can play a role in ferrihydrite transformation [49, 50]. SEM images (Fig. 2a) show that the surface of the reacted ferrihydrite grains is rougher than that of the unreacted ones. XRD and FTIR analyses of the solid samples before and

after the Fe(III) bioreduction process show that ferrihydrite indeed transformed into 343 magnetite ($Fe^{2+}Fe^{3+}_{2}O_{4}$) (Fig. 2b,c). Yang et al. (2010) [27] pointed out that this 344 345 transformation is caused by the inclusion of the biologically produced Fe(II) into the 346 mineral lattice. Figure 2b compares two XRD patterns after performing high statistic wide 347 range scans of pristine and bioreduced samples. In addition to initial ferrihydrite, two new phases (nanocrystalline magnetite and microcrystalline hematite) were determined to be 348 present in the reacted sample (NFerr experiment) with estimated amounts of 96 wt% 349 (magnetite) and 4 wt% (hematite). The much smaller content of the latter was formed 350 during the ferrihydrite autoclave process [51]. 351

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353 **3.2** NO₂⁻ reduction coupled with Fe(II) oxidation

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355 Figure 3 shows the evolution through time of the concentrations of nitrite and Fe(II) during abiotic (Fig. 3a-3c) and biotic (Fig. 3d) nitrite reduction. Figure 3a shows the variation in 356 Fe(II) and NO_2^{-1} in a representative A1 experiment with an initial aqueous Fe(II) 357 358 concentration of ≈ 1.0 mM in the absence of ferrihydrite. After a week, Fe(II) depletion was approximately 50 % of the initial concentration and 35 % of nitrite was reduced. After a 359 month, the Fe(II) depletion was 70 % of the initial concentration and nitrite concentration 360 361 fell to 65 % of the initial concentration. The average nitrite reduction rate constant (k_{obs}) was estimated to be 0.059 mM⁻¹ d⁻¹ with a half-life value ($t_{1/2}$) of 18.7 d (second-order rate 362 equation (Eq. (S1)) and parameters in Table S2 in SI). 363

Figure 3b depicts the variation in Fe(II) and nitrite concentration in a representative A2 experiment in the presence of solid-bound Fe(II) with (i) product magnetite and (ii) Fe(II)

adsorbed on the remaining ferrihydrite. About 27 % of the initial NO₂⁻ was reduced within 366 367 2 days, indicating that in the absence of aqueous Fe(II), Fe(II) in the solid phase was able to reduce some NO₂⁻. After 2 days, the reaction stopped, and nitrite concentration remained 368 constant. An average nitrite reduction rate of 0.22 mM⁻¹ d⁻¹ was calculated for all replicates 369 370 (Eq. (S1)) and Table S2 in SI). Figure 3c shows the variation in Fe(II) and nitrite concentration in a representative A3 experiment in the presence of both aqueous Fe(II) and 371 solid bound Fe(II). NO₂⁻ and aqueous Fe(II) concentrations dropped 13 % and 62 % from 372 the initial value, respectively, within about 2 d, yielding an average nitrite reduction rate of 373 $0.74 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1} (t_{1/2} = 0.47 \text{ d})$ (Fig. S4 Table S2 in SI). 374

375 Figure 3d shows the evolution of bioproduced Fe(II) after the cessation of the 376 Fe(III) reduction in the Ferr experiment (Fig. 1), along with the nitrite concentration added in a representative NFerr experiment. To ensure comparability of the results, the 377 experiment NFerr (Fig. 3d) was selected for its high initial concentration of aqueous 378 379 bioproduced Fe(II), which was similar to those of the experiments with synthetic Fe(II). Considering the reductive dissolution reaction (Eq. 1) and acetate production, the total 380 381 concentration of bioproduced Fe(II) was estimated to be 32.0 mM. Nevertheless, the initial 382 concentration of aqueous Fe(II) in the NFerr experiment was 1.20 mM because most of the bioproduced Fe(II) was adsorbed on ferrihydrite and incorporated in to form magnetite (see 383 section 3.1). During the first 2 h, both nitrite and aqueous Fe(II) fell to about 50% and 30% 384 of their initial concentrations, respectively. After 10 h, 87% of the initial nitrite and 38% of 385 386 the initial aqueous Fe(II) were removed. The nitrite calculated reduction rate was 6.47 mM⁻ ¹ d⁻¹ ($t_{1/2} = 0.07$ d) (Fig. S4 in SI). In the NFerr experiment with lower concentrations of 387

Fe(II) and nitrite, the rate calculated are within the same range of that from A3 experiment(Table S2 in SI).

The *S. loihica* used for the bioproduction of Fe(II) in the Ferr experiment (prior to nitrite addition in the NFerr experiment) could not be eliminated because both autoclave and antibiotics interfered with dissolved Fe(II) (Table S2 in SI). However, as explained in Sections 3.3 and 3.4, the evidence resulting from (i) the isotopic data from the NFerr experiment (Fig. S5 in SI) and (ii) the observed biotic nitrite reduction by *S. loihica* in the Bio1 and Bio2 experiments ruled out any microbial reduction of nitrite.

The fastest abiotic nitrite reduction rate was observed in the NFerr experiment 396 where bioproduced Fe(II) was the electron donor. In experiments with synthetic Fe(II), the 397 398 rate was slower, despite both experiments having similar aqueous Fe(II) concentrations. In experiments with synthetic Fe(II), the nitrite reduction rate was highest in the presence of 399 400 both aqueous and solid Fe(II) (e.g. A3 experiment), slower in the presence only of solidbound Fe(II) (e.g. A2 experiment), and slowest in the experiment with only aqueous Fe(II) 401 402 (e.g. A1 experiment). The highest nitrite reduction rate in the NFerr experiments compared 403 to A3 experiment, both with aqueous and solid-bound Fe(II), suggests that the larger amount of solid-bound Fe(II) obtained in the NFerr experiments could play a crucial role on 404 405 the nitrite reduction rate. Previous studies suggested that solid-bound Fe(II) is able to reduce nitrite [5, 19, 52], and that an enhanced Fe(II)-rich surface (e.g. magnetite) of 406 bioreduced Fe(III) (oxyhydr)oxides is able to consume electron acceptors (e.g., toxic 407 408 hexavalent chromium).

The highest nitrite reduction rates were observed in the presence of both aqueous and solid-bound Fe(II). This is in accordance with Gorski and Scherrer (2011) [53] who showed that aqueous Fe(II) removal by iron oxide could affect the reduction potential of the

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412	oxide, as a decrease in its oxidation grade leads to an increase in the reducing capacity of
413	the oxide. The difference between the reduction rates calculated in experiments with only
414	solid-phase Fe(II) and experiments containing both solid-phase Fe(II) and dissolved Fe(II)
415	is similar to that calculated in reductive dechlorination by Fe(II)-associated with goethite
416	[54].
417	
418	
419	
420	3.3 Biotic (heterotrophic) NO ₂ ⁻ reduction by <i>S. loihica</i>
421	
422	Biotic experiments showed a lag in microbial activity before nitrite reduction commenced.
423	In the reactors amended with lactate, nitrate reduction began after a 1-day lag period. For
424	reactors amended with acetate, nitrite reduction began after a 10-day lag period (Fig. S3 in
425	SI). Yoon et al. (2013) [55] reported a similar behavior for Shewanella spp. In contrast,
426	abiotic experiments with bioproduced Fe(II) and acetate, nitrite was consumed in only 10 h
427	(Fig. 3d). These results suggest an absence of microbial nitrite reduction in the abiotic
428	experiments with bioproduced Fe(II). As explained further in Sections 3.4 and 3.5, the
429	isotopic data confirmed that the microbial nitrite reduction can be ruled out in the abiotic
430	nitrite reduction experiments (NFerr experiment).
431 432 433	3.4 Isotopic fractionation during abiotic NO ₂ ⁻ reduction owing to dissolved or solid- bound Fe(II)
434	As is commonly observed for denitrification (sources), the unreacted NO ₂ ⁻ became enriched

435 in the heavy isotopes of N and O (15 N and 18 O) during abiotic nitrate reduction. Table 2 lists

436 the values determined for $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$, $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ and $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ (calculations shown in Fig. S5 in 437 SI). These values are within the range reported in the literature for both the biotic 438 (heterotrophic) and abiotic NO₂⁻ reductions (Table 3).

In the experiments to test the abiotic NO_2^- reduction, differences in NO_2^- isotopic fractionation were not observed (i) when using Fe(II) from biotic or synthetic sources (NFerr and A3 experiments, respectively) nor (ii) when using both aqueous and solidbound Fe(II) or only aqueous Fe(II) (A1 and A3 experiments, respectively; Table 2). By contrast, in the experiments with solid-bound Fe(II) in the absence of aqueous Fe(II) (A2 experiment), the $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ determined were higher (Table 2).

In these abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction experiments, the observed variability of $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and 445 446 $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ could be caused by the different NO₂⁻ reduction rates or by a different reaction 447 mechanism during oxidation of dissolved or solid-bound Fe(II). In earlier studies, lower ε values have been associated with higher NO₂⁻ reduction rates [9, 35]. Buchwald et al. 448 (2016) [9] observed differences in ε and NO₂⁻ removal rates using aqueous Fe(II) as 449 450 electron donor or Fe(II) associated with the oxide surface. However, our results do not 451 show a correlation between the NO₂⁻ reduction rates and the isotopic fractionation values (Table 2). For instance, $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ were similar in the A3 and NFerr experiments 452 with highly dissimilar NO_2^- reduction rates (0.75 and 6.47 mM⁻¹ d⁻¹, respectively). 453

The kinetics of the abiotic NO_2^- reduction could be affected by the initial concentration and proportion of the reactants (NO_2^- and Fe(II)), solution pH, and the presence of minerals that were added externally or those precipitated during the reaction [7, 9]. In the latter case, the amount, composition (including the Fe oxidation state) and the mineral specific surface area could have influenced the reaction. In the present study, the formation of secondary
magnetite during the Fe(II) oxidation in the Ferr experiment complicates a comparison
between the effect of the conditions investigated in this study and earlier studies.

461 Therefore, it is difficult to determine whether the ε variability observed is only due to 462 differences in the reduction rates or to the differences in mechanisms (oxidation of aqueous 463 or solid-bound Fe(II) coupled with NO₂⁻ reduction).

A dual element isotope approach was used to further investigate the differences in the ε 464 values in the different experiments (Fig. 4). The different slopes (i.e., $\Delta \delta^{18} O / \Delta \delta^{15} N \approx$ 465 ε^{18} O/ ε^{15} N) suggest the occurrence of different nitrite reduction mechanisms. The higher ε 466 values determined in the experiment A2 (solid-bound Fe(II)) compared with the similar 467 468 values in the NFerr and A3 experiments (aqueous and solid-bound Fe (II)) and the A1 experiment (aqueous Fe (II)) suggest that nitrite reduction is controlled by a different 469 mechanism in the presence of only solid-bound Fe(II). Nevertheless, the similar slopes in 470 the dual N-O plot for A1, A2, A3 and NFerr ($\Delta \delta^{18}O/\Delta \delta^{15}N = 0.60 \pm 0.02$) indicates a 471 472 common nitrite reduction mechanism in the abiotic experiments. Further research is needed to elucidate the process controlling the magnitude of ε values during nitrite reduction by 473 solid-bound Fe(II). 474

Another consideration in the abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction experiments is the possible effect of $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{NO}_2^-$ equilibration with $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{H}_2\text{O}$ on the $\varepsilon^{18}\text{O}/\varepsilon^{15}\text{N}$ ratio. The magnitude of this effect depends on solution salinity, temperature and/or pH [56]. Buchwald et al. (2016) [9] demonstrated that NO accumulated in a reversible reaction could re-oxidize to NO₂⁻ by incorporating an O atom from water, which could also influence the $\varepsilon^{18}\text{O}/\varepsilon^{15}\text{N}$ ratio. Nevertheless, Martin and Casciotti (2016) [36] have shown a negligible effect (0.0035‰) due to equilibrium isotopic exchange at room temperature and pH 7.6 over 2 h between sampling and the azide reaction. Given that our nitrite samples in synthetic seawater were retrieved at pH between 7.8 and 8.2, an oxygen equilibration effect was ruled out. The slopes obtained in the abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction experiments for relatively short (NFerr experiment) and long (A3 experiment) incubation periods (Table 2 and Fig. 4) reinforce the lack of δ^{18} O-NO₂⁻ equilibration with δ^{18} O-H₂O.

487 3.5 Use of isotopic tools to distinguish between abiotic and biotic NO₂⁻ reduction in the 488 field 489

As in the abiotic reduction, a decrease in concentration resulted in an enrichment in the 490 heavy isotopes (¹⁵N and ¹⁸O) of the unreacted substrate during biotic NO₂⁻ reduction. The 491 isotopic fractionation results are listed in Table 2 (see calculations in Fig. S5 in SI). NO₂⁻ 492 reduction by S. loihica using lactate as electron donor yielded $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2} = -1.6$ ‰, $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2} =$ 493 -5.3 ‰ and $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N = 3.1$. The $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ obtained are within the range of the 494 values reported in the literature for both the biotic (heterotrophic) and abiotic NO_2^{-1} 495 496 reduction (Table 3). Nevertheless, under the conditions of these experiments, the value of the isotopic fractionation of nitrogen ($\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$) was smaller than those from our abiotic 497 experiments. As a consequence, the value of the $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ ratio obtained differs from those 498 calculated for the abiotic experiments (Fig. 4 and Table 2) and becomes higher than prior 499 500 values reported (Table 3).

In the biotic NO_2^- reduction, the magnitude of the $\epsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\epsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ values could depend on the enzymes involved, on the NO_2^- transport across the cell and on the NO_2^- reduction rate. However, it is unknown whether the effect of pH or salinity could be negligible on the

biotite nitrite reduction as it occurs in the biotic nitrate reduction [57-59]. Bacterial NO₂⁻ 504 505 reduction can be catalyzed by two enzymes located in the periplasm (Cu containing NO₂⁻ 506 reductase encoded as *nirK* (Cu-NIR) and Fe-containing NO₂⁻ reductase encoded as *nirS* (Fe-NIR) ([60] and references therein). The $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ ratio of 3.1 obtained for the biotic 507 508 NO_2^- reduction by S. loihica bears no resemblance to those reported in a study on $NO_2^$ reduction with different bacterial species. Martin and Casciotti (2016) [36] attributed the 509 variations in the ε^{18} O/ ε^{15} N ratio to the use of different enzymes since the species with Fe-510 NIR yielded higher ε^{18} O/ ε^{15} N ratios (from 0.4 to 1.2) than the species containing Cu-NIR 511 512 (from 0.05 to 0.2). These authors suggested that Fe-NIR could produce a higher $NO_2^{-}O$ isotopic fractionation because it allows cleavage of both N-O bonds since the Fe-NIR 513 catalytic site might bind NO₂⁻-N [61, 62]. By contrast, the Cu-NIR catalytic site might bind 514 both the NO₂-O atoms and the N-O bond closest to the Asp98 residue, which is cleaved 515 516 [63, 64], independently of the isotopic composition. The NO₂ reductase associated with S. 517 loihica is Cu-NIR [65]. However, our results are not indicative of this hypothesis. Our study showed an $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ higher than $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ in contrast to a lower $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ associated with 518 microorganisms containing Cu-NIR [36]. 519

The $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ of 3.1 ratio determined for the NO₂⁻ reduction by *S. loihica* differs from the range obtained for the abiotic experiments (0.6 – 0.7; Fig. 4). Thus, given that *S. loihica* is the only NO₂⁻ reducing microorganism in our experiments, the $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ values calculated in the present study could allow us to distinguish the contribution of the biotic (heterotrophic) and abiotic NO₂⁻ reductions at the laboratory. However, considering the large variability of the $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ ratio (from 0.05 to 3.1) in this study and in the literature for the biotic NO₂⁻ reduction (Table 2 and Table 3), it would be difficult to distinguish 527 between biotic and abiotic reactions in natural marine environments using this technique.

528 One reason for this is the existence of complex bacterial communities with various NO₂⁻ 529 reducing enzymes. Another reason is the overlap of biotic ε^{18} O/ ε^{15} N values with the ones 530 attributed to the abiotic reduction (0.6-2.0; Table 2 and Table 3).

Alternatively, the correlation between changes in nitrite isotopic composition ($\Delta \delta^{15} N_{NO2}$ or 531 532 $\Delta \delta^{18}O_{NO2}$) and dissolved Fe(II) iron concentration (ln[Fe(II)]) during the abiotic nitrite reduction, could be useful to investigate the process controlling NO₂⁻ reduction under field 533 conditions. A good correlation between $\delta(^{15}N \text{ or }^{18}O)$ -NO₂⁻ and ln[Fe(II)] in field samples 534 suggests NO₂⁻ reduction by Fe(II) oxidation, either abiotically or biotically 535 (chemolithotrophically). By contrast, no correlation is expected for heterotrophic NO₂⁻ 536 reduction. A decrease in Fe(II) concentration coupled with an increase in $\delta^{15}N_{NO2}$ and 537 $\delta^{18}O_{NO2}$ was observed (Fig. 5). In the A1 experiment, the slopes for $\delta^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{NO2}$ (-538 5.4 and -3.8, respectively) were lower than those in the A3 (-32.2 and -20.3, respectively) 539 540 and NFerr experiments (-32.6 and -19.0, respectively). This was due to the higher decrease in aqueous Fe(II) concentrations during the A1 experiment. In contrast to A3 and NFerr, 541 542 which also contained solid-bound Fe(II) and the total amount of Fe(II) was thus higher than 543 in A1, in the A1 experiment only aqueous Fe(II) was available for nitrite reduction (Table 544 1).

Given that the equilibration between $\delta^{18}O_{NO2}$ and $\delta^{18}O_{H2O}$ could affect $\delta^{18}O_{NO2}$ under natural conditions, only the variation of $\delta^{15}N_{NO2}$ versus Fe(II) concentration could provide reliability of the NO₂⁻ fate in the environment. However, a possible effect of other N cycling processes (e.g. NO₂⁻ oxidation to NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻ reduction to NH₄⁺ or NH₄⁺ oxidation to NO₂⁻) on $\delta^{15}N_{NO2}$ should also be considered. 550

551 4 Conclusions

Experiments simulating an anoxic marine medium were carried out to study nitrite reduction coupled with (bioproduced and synthetic) Fe(II) oxidation. Fe(II) bioproduction was driven by ferrihydrite reduction mediated by *S.loihica*. Fe(II) released was partially reincorporated into ferrihydrite, which transformed to nanocrystalline magnetite, producing solid Fe(II). Both the bioproduced aqueous Fe(II) and solid Fe(II) played a role in nitrite reduction.

Experiments with bioproduced or synthetic Fe(II) (aqueous and solid-bound Fe(II)) revealed that abiotic NO_2^- reduction is faster in a system with bioproduced Fe(II). The newly formed nano-crystalline magnetite with a high content of solid Fe(II) showed a significant reactivity in the presence of nitrite. Results obtained from the laboratory nitrite reduction experiments using synthetic Fe(II) suggest that with similar concentrations of aqueous Fe(II), nitrite reduction in natural systems could be stronger given the higher amounts of solid-bound Fe(II) obtained in the experiments with bioproduced Fe(II).

Experiments with only synthetic Fe(II) (aqueous, solid-bound Fe(II) or both) revealed that in the presence of Fe(II) in both aqueous and solid-bound forms, abiotic NO₂- reduction is faster and more effective in terms of nitrite removal than in the ones with only aqueous Fe(II) or only solid-bound Fe(II).

No differences in the $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ were found for the abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction regardless of wether the source of Fe(II) was biotic or synthetic. Differences in $\varepsilon^{15}N_{NO2}$ and $\varepsilon^{18}O_{NO2}$ were neither found for the abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction by (i) aqueous Fe(II) or (ii) aqueous and solid-bound Fe(II). By contrast, the isotopic fractionation was higher in the experiments with only solid-bound Fe(II). The similar slopes derived in the dual N-O isotope plot ($\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N = 0.6$) suggest a sole mechanism controlling the NO₂⁻ reduction in the abiotic experiments. The higher slope related to the biotic (heterotrophic) experiment ($\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N = 3.1$) contrasts with those of the abiotic experiments, becoming one of the highest values reported in the literature.

Hence, in laboratory microcosms, which mimic marine environments with *S. loihica* as the only existing NO₂⁻-reducing microorganism, the value of the $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ ratio allows us to distinguish between the biotic and abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction. Given the wide range of $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ values reported in the literature for the biotic and abiotic NO₂⁻ reduction by other heterotrophic bacteria, the use of the $\varepsilon^{18}O/\varepsilon^{15}N$ ratio to distinguish different NO₂⁻ reduction processes in field-scale studies should be discretionally applied.

584 Moreover, the correlation between $\delta^{15}N_{NO2}$ and the natural logarithm of the Fe(II) 585 concentration observed could be used as an additional line of evidence to distinguish 586 between NO₂⁻ reduction by Fe(II) oxidation, either abiotically or biotically 587 (chemolithotrophically), and heterotrophic bacteria. This observation can improve the 588 prospect of using isotopic data to investigate nitrite reduction processes in the field.

589

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Figure *Figure 1*





Wavenumber (cm⁻¹)





Figure 4



Figure 5

