

N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

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NO_x reduction is the main pathway for benthic N₂O production in a eutrophic, monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond^{1,*}, C. B. Wenk¹, C. H. Frame¹, and M. F. Lehmann¹

¹Department of Environmental Sciences, University of Basel, Bernoullistrasse 30, 4056 Basel, Switzerland

* now at: Institute of Geology, ETH Zürich, Sonneggstrasse 5, 8092 Zürich, Switzerland

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Correspondence to: C. V. Freymond (chantal.freymond@erdw.ethz.ch) and M. F. Lehmann (moritz.lehmann@unibas.ch)

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Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Abstract

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is a potent greenhouse gas, generated through microbial nitrogen (N) turnover processes, such as nitrification, nitrifier denitrification, and denitrification. Previous studies quantifying natural sources have mainly focused on soils and the ocean, but the potential role of terrestrial water bodies in the global N_2O budget has been widely neglected. Furthermore, the biogeochemical controls on the production rates and the microbial pathways that produce benthic N_2O in lakes are essentially unknown. In this study, benthic N_2O fluxes and the contributions of the microbial pathways that produce N_2O were assessed using ^{15}N label flow-through sediment incubations in the eutrophic, monomictic south basin of Lake Lugano in Switzerland. The sediments were a significant source of N_2O throughout the year, with production rates ranging between 140 and 2605 $nmol N_2O h^{-1} m^{-2}$, and the highest observed rates coinciding with periods of water column stratification and stably anoxic conditions in the overlying bottom water. Nitrate (NO_3^-) reduction via denitrification was found to be the major N_2O production pathway in the sediments under both oxygen-depleted and oxygen-replete conditions in the overlying water, while ammonium oxidation did not significantly contribute to the benthic N_2O flux. A significant portion (up to 15%) of the total NO_3^- consumed by denitrification was reduced only to N_2O , without complete denitrification to N_2 . These fluxes were highest when the bottom water had completely stabilized to a low-oxygen state, in contrast with the notion that stable anoxia is particularly conducive to complete denitrification without accumulation of N_2O . This study provides evidence that lake sediments are a significant source of N_2O to the overlying water and may produce large N_2O fluxes to the atmosphere during seasonal mixing events.

1 Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) is a potent greenhouse gas with a global warming potential that is ~ 300 times higher than that of CO_2 over a 100-yr time horizon (Forster et al., 2007).

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Furthermore, N₂O is the most important stratospheric ozone-depleting substance currently being emitted to the atmosphere (Ravishankara et al., 2009). The atmospheric concentration has increased from 270 ppb in 1750 (Forster et al., 2007) to 323 ppb in 2011 (AGAGE, 2012), but there are still large uncertainties with regard to the relative contributions of the major sources and sinks (Forster et al., 2007). Microbiological processes in soils and the ocean are the most important natural N₂O sources (Forster et al., 2007). However, the recent increase in atmospheric N₂O concentration is largely due to human intervention in the nitrogen cycle, in particular through the agricultural use of synthetic nitrogen-based fertilizers (Codispoti et al., 2001; Bouwman et al., 2002; Mosier et al., 1998). In aquatic systems, anthropogenic fixed nitrogen (N) loading can have multiple detrimental environmental effects, such as eutrophication, acidification, and the reduction of biodiversity (Galloway et al., 2003). In these environments, microbial processes taking place in redox transition zones play an important role in removing fixed N. Denitrification, for example, can be an important mechanism for removing fixed N along the land-ocean continuum by reducing it back to N₂. N₂O is a free intermediate in this process that may be released to the environment under certain conditions. N₂O is also produced during other N transformation reactions (Galloway et al., 2003) such as nitrification (specifically, ammonia oxidation) and nitrifier denitrification.

Distinguishing the relative contributions of each of these major N₂O production and consumption pathways to the total N₂O flux is often challenging in aquatic systems because different types of microorganisms perform these pathways under overlapping environmental conditions. Furthermore, certain microbes carry out more than one pathway in response to changes in biogeochemical conditions. N₂O is produced during the aerobic oxidation of ammonium (NH₄⁺) to nitrite (NO₂⁻) when hydroxylamine (NH₂OH), an intermediate in the reaction, decomposes (Stein, 2011). Rates of ammonia oxidation depend primarily on substrate (NH₄⁺) and oxygen (O₂) availability (Ward, 2008). However, in sediments, aerobic ammonia oxidation and nitrite oxidation to nitrate can be closely coupled to anaerobic NO₃⁻ reduction in the redox transition zone (coupled nitrification-denitrification, Ward, 2008). Ammonia oxidizers also produce N₂O through

N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



a second mechanism known as nitrifier denitrification, an enzymatic pathway that sequentially reduces NO_2^- to nitric oxide (NO), and then N_2O (Wrage et al., 2001). The importance of nitrifier denitrification as a N_2O source appears to be higher under low- O_2 conditions (Ritchie and Nicholas, 1972; Poth and Focht, 1985). However, unlike denitrification, O_2 does not seem to inhibit nitrifier denitrification to the same extent or through the same mechanisms (Kool et al., 2011). Denitrification is the reduction of NO_3^- to N_2 via the gaseous intermediates NO and N_2O (Knowles, 1982) under anoxic or suboxic conditions (i.e. $[\text{O}_2] < 2\text{--}5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, Devol, 2008; Codispoti et al., 2001). Denitrification can both produce and consume dissolved N_2O , releasing N_2O under conditions that suppress the activity of the N_2O reductase enzyme, e.g. under low O_2 concentrations (Firestone et al., 1979; Otte et al., 1996). Furthermore, rapid transitions between oxic and suboxic conditions may cause “stop and go” denitrification, which causes N_2O accumulation in aquatic environments (Naqvi et al., 2000; Codispoti et al., 2001).

In lacustrine sediments, microbial activity consumes O_2 rapidly in the topmost millimeters, leading to suboxic or anoxic conditions in deeper sediment horizons, where denitrification becomes an important redox process (Hunting and van der Geest, 2011). The O_2 penetration depth is closely related to the O_2 concentration in the overlying water and the sediment reactivity (Lehmann et al., 2009; Thibodeau et al., 2010). A decrease in bottom water O_2 concentration is reflected in a narrower oxygenated zone in the sediment (Rasmussen and Jorgensen, 1992). Narrow redox zonation leads thus to an equally narrow succession of microbial processes (Stockdale et al., 2009). Changes in the redox zonation may have profound consequences on N_2O production (Otte et al., 1996). Seasonal cycles of water column mixing and stagnation can influence the oxidation state of surface sediments and modulate the penetration of redox boundaries into the sediments, potentially changing the redox environments of nitrifiers and denitrifiers (Rasmussen and Jorgensen, 1992). The few studies that have quantified N_2O fluxes from freshwater sediments, indicate that lake sediments can be a significant source of N_2O . They also highlight that factors influencing N_2O production pathways in the

benthic environment are still not clearly identified, particularly with regard to the relative importance of nitrification, nitrifier denitrification, and denitrification (Mengis et al., 1996; Liikanen and Martikainen, 2003; Liikanen et al., 2003b; McCrackin and Elser, 2010).

5 In this study, N₂O production pathways in lacustrine sediments were studied using ex situ steady state flow-through incubations with intact sediment cores (Lavrentyev et al., 2000; McCarthy et al., 2007; Liikanen and Martikainen, 2003; Liikanen et al., 2002a,b,c, 2003a,b) in combination with substrate ¹⁵N labeling to assess benthic N₂O
10 production rates and pathways. The experiments were conducted with sediments from a eutrophic, monomictic lake in southern Switzerland, the south basin (SB) of Lake Lugano. Monomixis and the resulting intermittent anoxia and suboxia of the bottom waters makes the SB an ideal study site for testing the effects of variable bottom water oxygenation on the benthic N₂O production in a lake. Furthermore, previous measurements (Wenk, 2013) indicate high bottom water N₂O accumulation in the deep
15 hypolimnion during thermal stratification in summer and fall, begging the question as to what causes N₂O accumulation in near bottom waters. Upon water column overturn in winter, N₂O-laden bottom waters may be advected to the surface, enhancing N₂O fluxes into the atmosphere.

20 The study's objectives were (1) to estimate N₂O fluxes from the sediments to the overlying water column and to assess seasonal variations in these fluxes, (2) to identify the dominant benthic N₂O producing processes in the lake, and (3) to study the possible impact of variable redox conditions of bottom waters during the seasonal cycle on N₂O production rates and pathways.

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



2 Sampling and methods

2.1 Site description

Lake Lugano is located in southern Switzerland/northern Italy at an altitude of 271 m above sea level (Fig. 1). It is divided into two main basins, the northern and southern basin. In addition, a smaller sub-basin of the southern basin is located in front of the only outlet, the Tresa River (Barbieri and Polli, 1992; Lehmann et al., 2004a). Due to the limited water exchange, the basins are characterized by a distinct limnology, so that the northern and southern basins can be regarded as two separate lake systems that are connected by a narrow opening at Melide. A detailed overview of the lake's limnology can be found in Barbieri and Polli (1992) and Barbieri and Simona (2001).

The SB mixes completely from January/February to April. It has an area of 20.3 km², a volume of 1.14 km³ and a maximum depth of 95 m (Barbieri and Polli, 1992).

Lazzaretti and Hanselmann (1992) and Lehmann et al. (2004a,b) described in detail the changes in seasonal redox conditions in the southern basin. During the mixing period, the whole water column becomes oxygenated and oxic conditions are found at the sediment/water interface until late spring. With the onset of thermo-stratification, generally in April, together with the increased phytoplankton production in surface waters and organic matter export to the hypolimnion, oxygen concentrations in the deep hypolimnion decrease, and by June/July, the redox transition zone has migrated from within the sediments by several meters into the water column. Complete anoxia prevails in the bottom waters until the water column turns over again in winter.

2.2 Sampling

Six ~ 50 cm sediment cores with 20 cm overlying bottom water were taken with a 5.7 cm diameter mini gravity corer at a site (45°57' N, 8°54' E) west of the village of Figino, close to the point of maximum water depth of this basin (Fig. 1) in 2010 (April, August, October) and 2011 (January, May). The cores were stored upright and in the dark

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



during transport to the home laboratory on the day of sampling. In addition, 3 × 20 L of bottom water were sampled using 10 L Niskin bottles. Bottom waters were stored in open 20 L plastic containers with headspace for samples taken during oxic conditions (April 2010, May 2011). During thermal stratification and anoxia in the deep hypolimnion, bottom waters were filled into gastight 25 L bags (Gas Sampling Tedlar Bags, CEL Scientific Corporation, ITP-25) without headspace. In order to minimize the risk of O₂ contamination, only the lower three quarters of the Niskin bottle contents were used, and in October 2010 and January 2011, the bags were additionally stored underwater. Within approximately 6 h from sampling and after transportation to the lab, the flow-through experiments were set up in a cold room at a near-in situ temperature (6.5 °C).

2.3 Steady state flow-through experiments

Steady state flow-through experiments were set up according to Gardner et al. (1991) and Lavretyev et al. (2000) (Fig. 2). The top caps on the liners were removed and replaced with gastight, O-ring sealed PVC plungers containing two holes. The plungers were lowered into the liners until all headspace air was released through the holes. Subsequently, the inlet water reservoir was connected to the core with gastight tubes (FEP, 0.8 mm inner diameter). A second tube connected the core with the sampling vial. A constant flow of ~ 1 mL min⁻¹ was established with a peristaltic pump. For each sampling campaign, three duplicate flow-through experiments were set up, where two core incubations were supplied with water from one inlet water reservoir, respectively. One of the three inlet water reservoirs was amended with ¹⁵N-NH₄⁺ (Ammonium Chloride, > 99 % ¹⁵N atom, Spectra Stable Isotopes), one with ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ (Potassium Nitrate, > 99 % ¹⁵N atom, Spectra Stable Isotopes) and one was left unamended as a control. The labeled substrates were added so that the in situ concentrations were doubled (final ¹⁵N content ~ 50 %), except in the aerobic ambient O₂ incubations, where the

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



background NH_4^+ concentration was $< 1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and $10 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ of $^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ label was added (final ^{15}N content $> 90\%$).

After a conditioning period of > 24 h (Gardner and McCarthy, 2009), the in- and out-flows were sampled daily. The presented results are the average of 2 (August 2010) or 3 incubation days (October 2010, January 2011, May 2011). In April 2010, samples for N_2O analysis were only taken on the last day of the experiment.

For N_2O analyses, glass vials (21 mL) were filled from bottom to top, and allowed to overflow for at least two bottle volumes to minimize N_2O exchange with air. The vials were capped with aluminium crimp caps with silicone septa (CS chromatographie service GmbH, Art. Nr. 300227). Subsequently, a 10 mL He headspace was added in exchange with water. The samples were sterilized with 0.2 mL of 10 mol L^{-1} NaOH to prevent further microbial activity (Sigman et al., 2001). Sample treatment was done within one hour after sampling. After adding NaOH, the samples were analyzed within 3 days.

2.4 Determination of N_2O concentrations and benthic fluxes

N_2O concentrations and stable isotope ratios were determined using an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, Thermo Finnigan Deltaplus XP), coupled to an automated purge and trap system (Thermo Finnigan GasBench II). N_2O concentration standards were produced using the denitrifier method (Sigman et al., 2001) to reduce NO_3^- to N_2O . Six KNO_3 solutions were produced to yield the following N_2O concentration standards: 0.03, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5 $\text{nmol N}_2\text{O mL}^{-1}$. Detector-sensitivity corrected IRMS peak areas of N_2O standards were compared to the respective concentrations in a regression analysis, and the resulting transfer function was used to calculate the N_2O concentrations (in nmol L^{-1}) based on the M/z 44, 45 and 46 detector signals. These correspond to the $[^{14}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}]$, $[^{14}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O} + ^{15}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O} + ^{14}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{17}\text{O}]$, and $[^{15}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O} + ^{14}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{18}\text{O} + ^{14}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{17}\text{O} + ^{15}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{17}\text{O}]$ isotopologues, respectively. For the ^{15}N amended incubations, $[^{14}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O} + ^{15}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}] \gg [^{14}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{17}\text{O}]$, and

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



$[^{15}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}] \gg [^{14}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{18}\text{O} + ^{14}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{17}\text{O} + ^{15}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{17}\text{O}]$, and we therefore assume that any changes in the contributions of the natural abundance ^{18}O and ^{17}O isotopologues were negligible.

Fluxes of N_2O of masses 44, 45 and 46 [$\text{nmol h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$] from the sediment to the water column were then calculated from the concentration changes in the in- and out-flowing water:

$$\text{Flux}_{\text{N}_2\text{O}} = ([\text{N}_2\text{O}_{\text{out}}] - [\text{N}_2\text{O}_{\text{in}}]) \times \frac{Q}{A} \quad (1)$$

where $[\text{N}_2\text{O}_{\text{out/in}}]$ are the measured N_2O concentrations (nmol L^{-1}), Q is the average flow rate (L h^{-1}) and A is the sediment core surface area (m^2). Positive fluxes indicate a net increase in N_2O concentration between the in- and out-flowing water, and thus fluxes out of the sediments.

3 Results

3.1 Water column characteristics

The physical and chemical bottom water parameters at the five sampling dates are presented in Table 1. In March and April 2010, the water column was well mixed so that bottom waters were fully oxygenated, the NH_4^+ concentration was low ($0.3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) and the NO_3^- concentration was comparatively high ($83.7 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). By August 2010, the lake was stratified, an anoxic near-bottom layer of about 2 m width had developed, and the NH_4^+ concentration in the bottom water had risen ($7.1 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). In October 2010, with ongoing stratification and organic matter decomposition, the anoxic bottom layer expanded by another 6 to 7 m into the water column. NO_2^- ($2.4 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) as well as NH_4^+ ($44.5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) accumulated in the bottom water, but NO_3^- concentrations ($50.3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) decreased. In January 2011, samples were collected right at the beginning of the winter overturn. The O_2 gradient started to collapse, and suboxic to hypoxic

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



concentrations of O_2 ($11 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) were measured in bottom waters. In May 2011, the water column was fully oxygenated again.

3.2 Benthic N_2O fluxes

Net benthic N_2O fluxes were calculated for the total N_2O as well as the unlabeled ($^{14}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$), the singly- ($^{14}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$, $^{15}\text{N}^{14}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$), and the doubly-labeled N_2O ($^{15}\text{N}^{15}\text{N}^{16}\text{O}$) according to Eq. (1) (Fig. 3).

In almost all incubations, except in January 2011, average N_2O fluxes were positive, indicating that sediments released N_2O to the overlying water column. N_2O flux measurements in unamended cores (core 1 and core 2), which represent N_2O fluxes under in situ NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentration conditions, increased from 831 and 140 $\text{nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$ in April 2010 to 2426 and 2605 $\text{nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$ in October 2010. In January and May 2011, average N_2O fluxes were again relatively low (202 and 195 $\text{nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$ in January 2011 and 178 and 189 $\text{nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$ in May 2011 for core 1 and core 2, respectively).

Overall, total N_2O fluxes calculated from unamended cores showed strong variation between different months and between duplicate cores. In April and August 2010 the difference between the N_2O fluxes of the replicate cores was most pronounced (difference ~ 700 and $\sim 850 \text{ nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$, respectively) probably reflecting the heterogeneity of the sediments (Fig. 3).

3.3 ^{15}N - N_2O recovery from the ^{15}N labeling experiments

^{15}N -label was detected as ^{15}N - N_2O for all ^{15}N - NO_3^- labeled sediment cores (Fig. 3). Generally, ^{15}N - N_2O fluxes in the ^{15}N - NH_4^+ labeled cores did not exceed natural abundance levels. Total N_2O fluxes in cores with ^{15}N - NH_4^+ and ^{15}N - NO_3^- additions were comparable to N_2O fluxes from the unamended cores, despite the two-fold increase

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



in NH_4^+ or NO_3^- concentrations. Enhanced N_2O fluxes in $^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ labeled cores with respect to control cores were only observed in April 2010.

4 Discussion

4.1 The sediments are a net source of N_2O throughout the year

Lacustrine sediments are a known source of N_2O (McCrackin and Elser, 2010; Liikanen and Martikainen, 2003; Mengis et al., 1996). The N_2O fluxes reported here ranged between $140 \text{ nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ (April 2010) and $1115 \text{ nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ (August 2010), and were comparable to measurements reported previously for other eutrophic lakes. However, the October 2010 sampling stands out, with an exceptionally high production rate of $2605 \text{ nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$. Mengis et al. (1996), for example, measured net benthic N_2O fluxes of $458\text{--}542 \text{ nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ at the bottom of the artificially oxygenated Lake Baldegg in static chamber experiments. Liikanen and Martikainen (2003) used microcosm incubation experiments with intact sediment cores to measure N_2O fluxes of up to $317 \text{ nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ in a eutrophic lake in Finland. McCrackin and Elser (2010) reported an average N_2O flux of $550 \text{ nmol N}_2\text{O h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ in Norwegian lakes.

Comparison of the total N_2O fluxes from unamended cores (Fig. 3) to the NH_4^+ or NO_3^- amended cores shows no obvious stimulation of N_2O production pathways. This suggests that the in situ microbial processes were not substrate-limited so that the rates presented here are real rather than potential rates. The expectation that net N_2O fluxes vary seasonally, with potential links to water column stratification and oxygenation, was partially supported. Total N_2O fluxes increased during the stagnation period with increasing anoxia from August to October 2010, when maximal values were reached. Such high sedimentary N_2O production during stratification can lead to accumulation and oversaturation in the bottom water, as measured in 2009 (Wenk, 2013). At the

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



beginning of water column overturn in January 2011, together with the breakdown of the O_2 gradient, small amounts of O_2 ($11 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} O_2$) were measured in bottom waters, and only low benthic N_2O fluxes were observed. The fact that more reduced conditions during stratification foster N_2O production, and that O_2 seems to hinder benthic N_2O production, implies denitrification as the dominant N_2O production pathway (see below). It has been suggested that the rapid injection of small quantities of O_2 into O_2 -deficient environments may be conducive to N_2O release by denitrifiers (Codispoti et al., 2001). However, our results indicate that N_2O production rates were in fact very low during the initial phase of the destratification period (January 2011), the period when pulses of O_2 -laden bottom waters would have been expected to cause this type of perturbation of the denitrifiers' redox environment. Rather, the reduced N_2O production in January 2011 suggests that the introduction of low concentrations of O_2 may, in fact, inhibit N_2O release.

We cannot rule out the possibility that other factors besides O_2 also impacted the activity of denitrifying bacteria. The likelihood of such impacts is raised by the fact that N_2O fluxes during the fully oxic April 2010 incubation were relatively high and comparable to those observed in the anoxic August 2010 incubation. Furthermore, fluxes were low in May 2011, when the water was still well-oxygenated. Still, although we cannot identify a direct relationship between N_2O production and bottom water oxygenation, additional measurements at a higher temporal and spatial resolution could shed light on the impact of O_2 concentration fluctuations on a much smaller scale, e.g. daily fluctuations (Bartoli et al., 2003), or spatial differences leading to sediment core heterogeneity (Principi et al., 1994; Svensson and Leonardson, 1996). In addition, the impact of the availability of reducing substrates like organic carbon or sulfide (Wenk et al., 2013) that may also influence the activity of denitrifiers in the sediments remains an open question. Finally, the process of nitrifier denitrification may also produce N_2O in the presence of NO_2^- and small amounts of O_2 (as low as $5 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, Frame and Casciotti, 2010). While we did not observe the incorporation of ^{15}N from $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ into N_2O , the relative yield of N_2O produced by ammonia oxidizers increases substantially

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

under conditions that stimulate their nitrifier denitrification pathway. As a result, as long as there is a source of NO_2^- (e.g. denitrification) nitrifier denitrification could be an important source of N_2O even if O_2 -limitation has slowed the overall rate of ammonia oxidation (and therefore the rate of N_2O production via NH_2OH decomposition).

4.2 Denitrification is the main N_2O producing process in the sediment

Significant ^{15}N - N_2O recovery was only observed in the overlying water of the ^{15}N - NO_3^- labeled cores, but not in the ^{15}N - NH_4^+ labeled cores (Fig. 3), suggesting that denitrification is the predominant N_2O production pathway in the Lake Lugano SB sediments.

Even in April 2010 and May 2011, when the sediment/water interface was fully oxygenated and nitrification was likely to occur (Ward, 2008), N_2O production during ammonia oxidation was not observed. Therefore, it is very likely that canonical anoxic denitrification is the main source of N incorporated into the N_2O produced during the incubations. Rapid oxygen consumption supported by high rates of organic matter input to the sediments can reduce the oxygen penetration depth into the sediments, producing conditions favorable to denitrification close to the sediment/water interface (Li et al., 2007). It is not clear whether canonical denitrifiers carry out all of the steps involved in reducing NO_3^- to N_2O . Although NO_3^- cannot serve in the place of NO_2^- as an electron acceptor during nitrifier denitrification, we cannot rule out the possibility that proximate denitrification supplies NO_2^- to ammonia oxidizers that then convert it to N_2O during nitrifier denitrification. Distinguishing between N_2O produced solely by denitrification and N_2O produced by nitrifier denitrification coupled to denitrification is not possible using the ^{15}N tracer approach adopted here and is therefore beyond the scope of this study.

Denitrification rates were relatively high under the truly anoxic conditions observed in October 2010 ($28.2 \mu\text{mol N h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$, Wenk, 2013), once redox gradients and, presumably, the microbial community had stabilized. At that time, up to 15% of total NO_3^- that was reduced, was released as N_2O without being completely reduced to N_2 . However, variability in denitrification rates between the two cores in October 2010 was very

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



high (10.2 ± 5.0 (SD) and 46.2 ± 20.3 (SD) $\mu\text{mol N h}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$, respectively, Wenk, 2013). Furthermore, the October 2010 experiment was the only one in which steady-state conditions may not have been reached before the experiments were started. N_2 as well as N_2O production rates increased over the experimental period (data not shown). Nevertheless, the overall high net N_2O fluxes measured during these incubations indicate that N_2O production was much more efficient than N_2O consumption. N_2O reduction to N_2 during the last step of denitrification is thought to be less tightly regulated than the preceding step that reduces NO to N_2O (Otte et al., 1996). As a result, N_2O produced by denitrifiers can accumulate when denitrification rates are high.

N_2O production through NH_4^+ oxidation was not observed at the oxygenated sediment/water interface in April 2010 and May 2011 (Fig. 3), even though conditions were seemingly conducive to benthic nitrification. Only in January 2011 did NH_4^+ oxidation produce N_2O . O_2 was low but not absent during this incubation, which agrees with previous findings that N_2O production during nitrification is enhanced under low O_2 conditions (Stein, 2011; Bange et al., 2010). It is possible that dilution of the $^{15}\text{N-NH}_4^+$ tracer by rapid NH_4^+ regeneration from organic N in the sediments reduced the degree of ^{15}N -labeling of the N_2O that was produced during NH_4^+ oxidation, and thus our ability to detect N_2O production by this mechanism. In the same line, Norton and Stark (2011) suggest that immediate shunting of unlabeled NH_4^+ from NH_4^+ -remineralizing microorganisms to ammonia-oxidizing organisms could reduce the degree to which added $^{15}\text{NH}_4^+$ tracer is incorporated into the pool of NH_4^+ available for oxidation during soil incubations. It is feasible that a similar effect occurs in lake sediments.

Although methodological limitations prevent us from ruling out N_2O production during ammonia oxidation, it is clear that N_2O exported from the sediment is mainly produced through nitrate (and possibly nitrite) reduction and, therefore, that denitrification is required to produce the N_2O fluxes observed throughout the year.

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



5 Conclusions

This study demonstrated that the sediments of the Lake Lugano SB are a net source of N_2O to the water column. NO_3^- reduction by denitrification was found to be the primary source of this N_2O , while N_2O production during ammonia oxidation was minimal or not observed at all, even when oxic conditions prevailed at the sediment/water interface. Net N_2O fluxes varied seasonally, and the proportion of NO_3^- reduced to N_2O versus N_2 appeared to be enhanced by ongoing anoxia. Hence, 1–15% of the N reduced from NO_3^- accumulated as N_2O in the water column. Surprisingly, the highest percentage of NO_3^- reduced to N_2O was observed after thermal stratification occurred and stable anoxia developed, conditions that are generally thought to favor complete denitrification.

If we extrapolate the average of total N_2O fluxes presented in this study ($879 \text{ nmol } N_2O \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$) over the area of the Lake Lugano SB (20.3 km^2) and the time span of one year, the sediments of the Lake Lugano SB release $6.9 \text{ t } N_2O \text{ yr}^{-1}$ to the overlying water. The spatial resolution of our experiments is small compared to the lake area, and benthic conditions are no doubt highly variable in time and space, so that this extrapolation is accompanied by a large uncertainty. Nevertheless, it demonstrates that potentially large amounts of N_2O are produced in the sediments of the Lake Lugano SB. It is worth noting that the lacustrine N_2O fluxes measured in this study, which ranged between 140 and $2605 \text{ nmol } N_2O \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$, as well as benthic fluxes from several other studies (e.g. McCrackin and Elser, 2010; Liikanen and Martikainen, 2003; Mengis et al., 1996) are of the same order as global average fluxes estimated for soils (Bouwman et al., 2002).

N_2O fluxes from the surface waters to the atmosphere were not addressed in this study and remain unknown, and the capacity of microbial processes in the water column of Lake Lugano SB to remove sedimentary N_2O before it escapes to the atmosphere has yet to be determined. Nevertheless, we argue that significant, year-round benthic N_2O production can lead to the accumulation of N_2O in the bottom waters of

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



stratified lakes, and possibly to rapid evasion to the atmosphere during periods of de-stratification. The relevance of such lacustrine N₂O degassing events for regional or global N₂O budgets also awaits further investigation.

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Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



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BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Table 1. In situ temperature and concentrations of dissolved O₂, NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ in bottom waters. DIN concentrations were measured in the inlet water reservoirs of the control experiments (Wenk, 2013).

	Temp. [°C]	O ₂ [μmol L ⁻¹]	NH ₄ ⁺ [μmol L ⁻¹]	NO ₃ ⁻ [μmol L ⁻¹]	NO ₂ ⁻ [μmol L ⁻¹]
April 2010	5.5	224	0.3	83.7	0.1
August 2010	5.7	0	7.1	75.7	1.7
October 2010	5.7	0	44.5	50.3	2.4
January 2011	5.9	11	13.2	69.6	2.3
May 2011	5.5	190	0.7	83.1	0

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures



Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion





Fig. 1. Location and map of Lake Lugano. The sampling station (red triangle) is located west of the village of Figino (SB), close to the point of maximum depth (modified from Barbieri and Polli, 1992).

BGD

10, 4969–4993, 2013

N₂O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



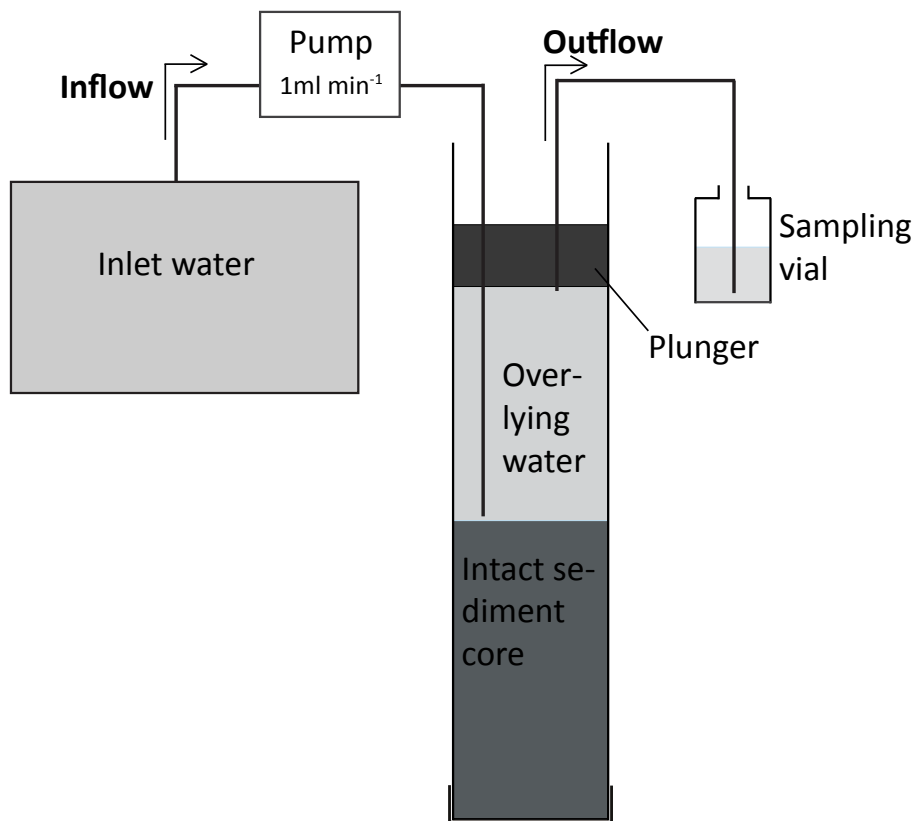


Fig. 2. Steady state flow-through set-up.

N_2O production in a monomictic south-alpine lake

C. V. Freymond et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



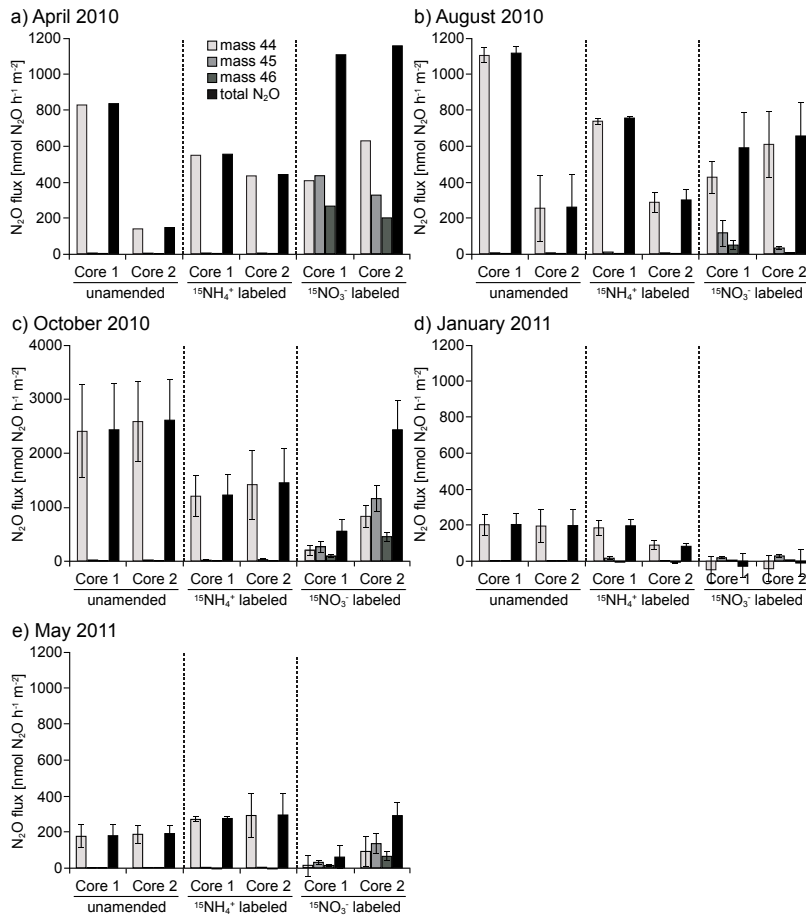


Fig. 3. N₂O fluxes from the sediment to the overlying water. Each column represents the average value of duplicate experiments. Error bars show the standard error of the fluctuations over incubation time. White: ¹⁴N¹⁴NO (mass 44). Light grey: ¹⁴N¹⁵NO and ¹⁵N¹⁴NO (mass 45). Dark grey: ¹⁵N¹⁵NO (mass 46). Black: Total N₂O flux. Note the different scale in (c).