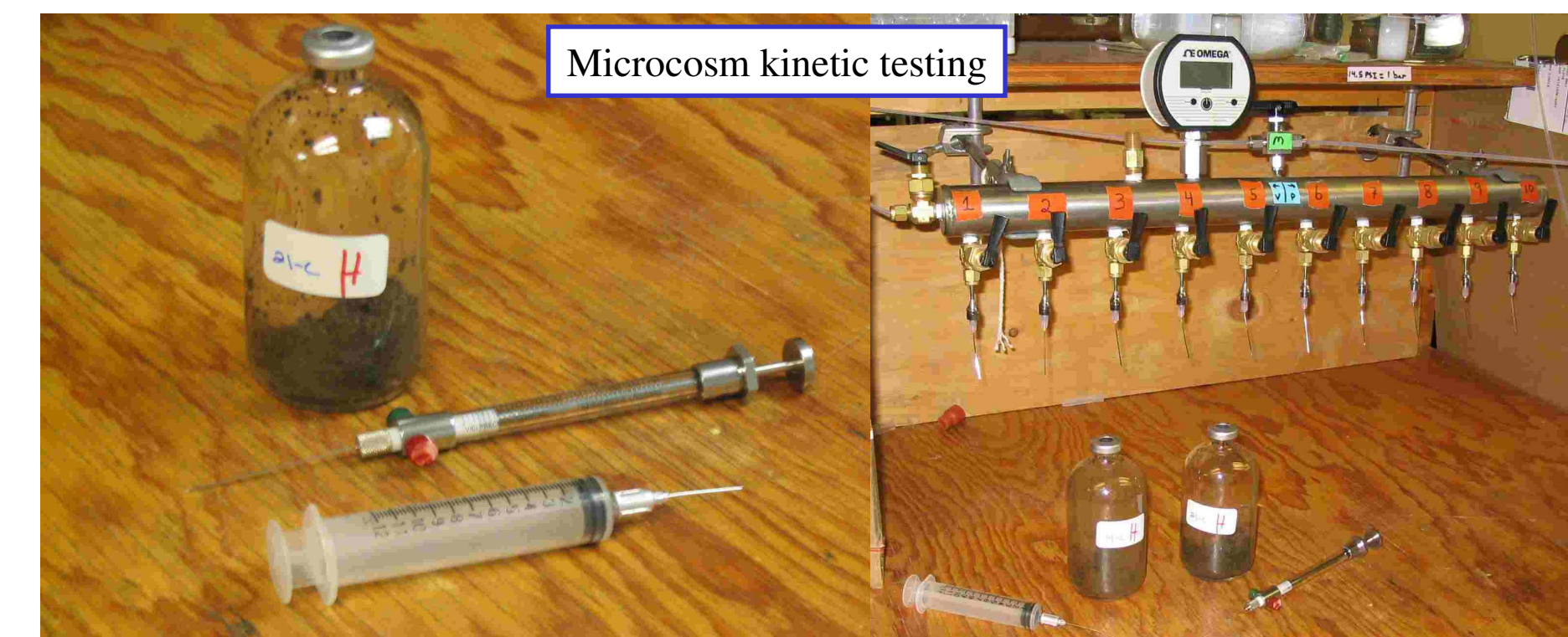


USDA Nitrite-Driven Nitrous Oxide Production Under Aerobic Soil Conditions: Kinetics and Biochemical Controls

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BACKGROUND

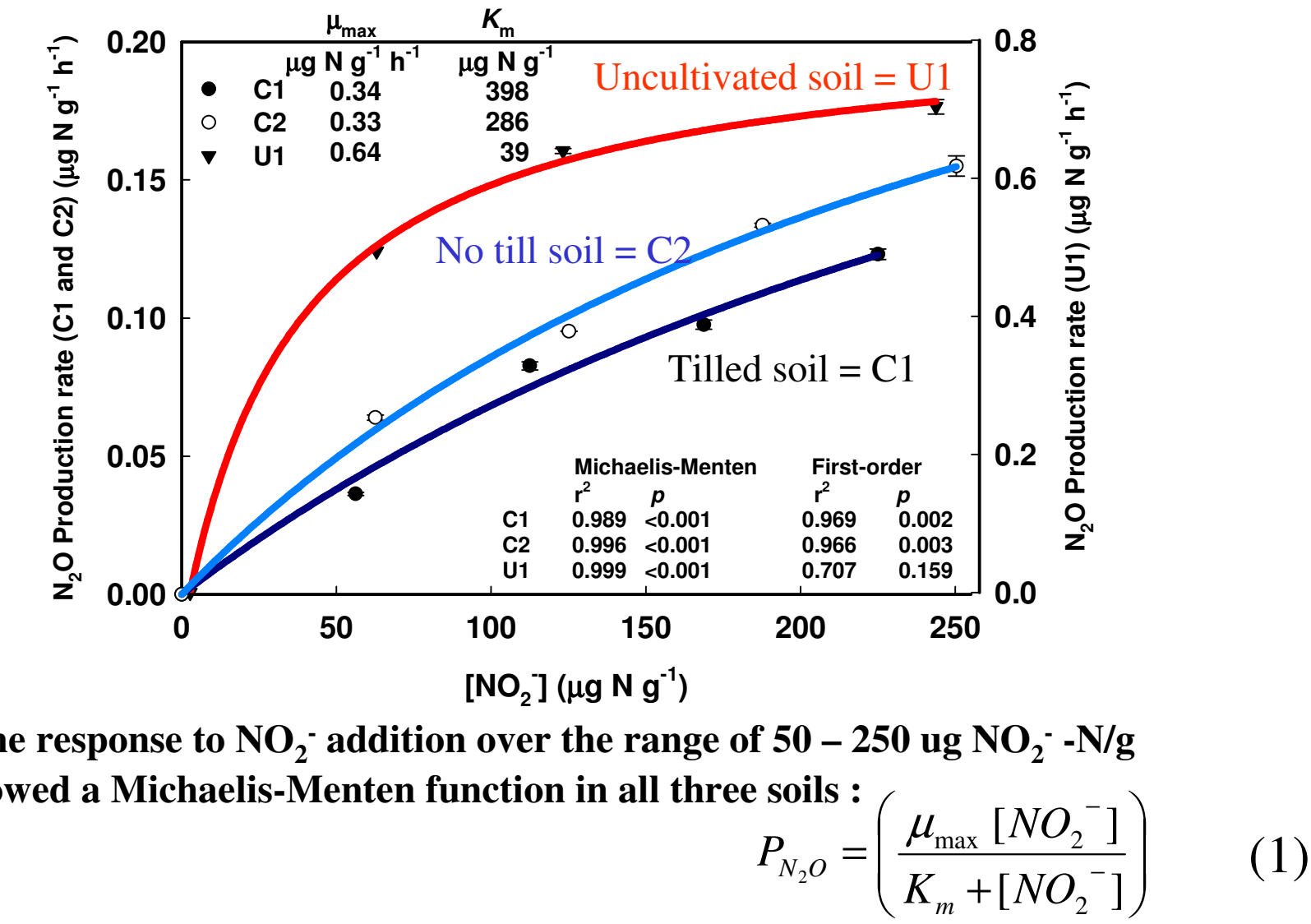
- Understanding controls over N₂O production is required for developing effective mitigation strategies and for improving emissions assessments.
- N₂O production via denitrification is well-studied, but there is much less understanding of N₂O emitted under highly aerobic conditions.
- “Nitrifier denitrification” has been identified in pure culture and in soils; ammonia-oxidizing autotrophic bacteria reduce nitrite (NO₂⁻) to N₂O in the presence of O₂. “Chemodenitrification” of NO₂⁻ to N₂O has also been observed. However, the kinetics of these process in soils have not been studied.
- How important are these sources of N₂O and what are their primary controls?



OBJECTIVES AND METHODS

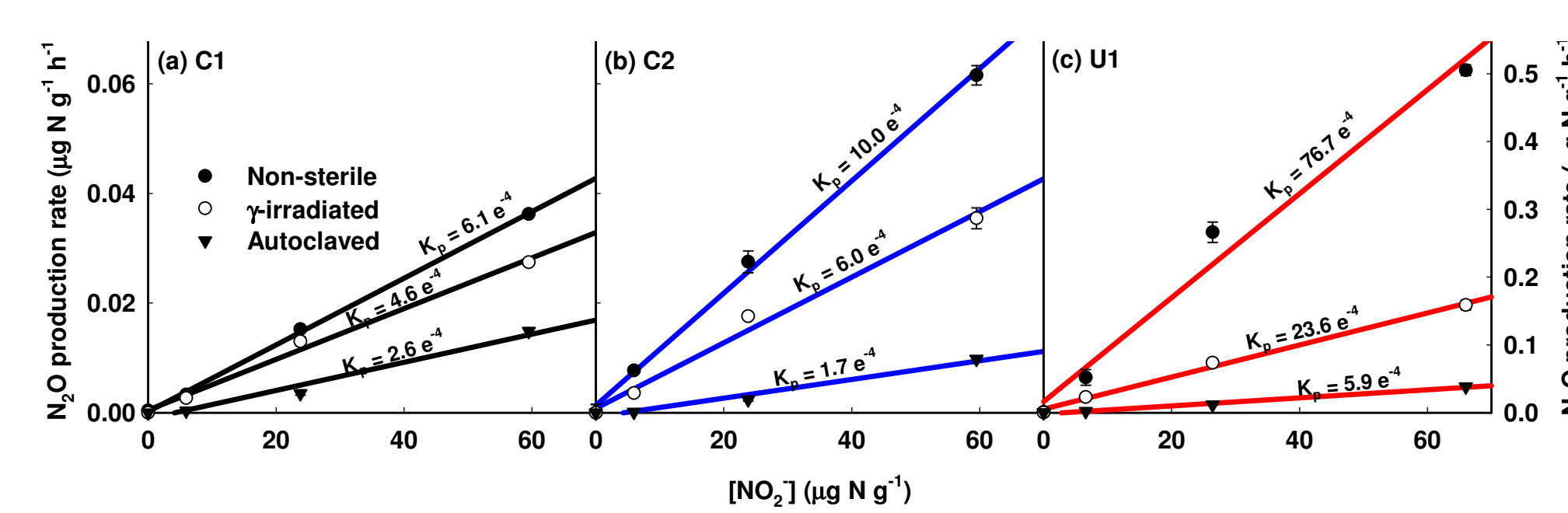
1. We measured rates of N₂O production as a function of NO₂⁻ levels in soils from tilled and untilled agricultural fields and uncultivated fields in southeastern Minnesota in aerobic laboratory microcosms.
2. We confirmed that the incubation conditions did not support either NO₃⁻ reduction (i.e., denitrification) or the reduction of N₂O itself.
3. We quantified the contribution of abiotic versus biological NO₂⁻-reduction to the overall rate of N₂O production under fully aerobic conditions.
4. We measured the sensitivity of NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻-driven N₂O production to headspace O₂ concentration over the range of < 0.1 % to 100 %.
5. We measured the temperature sensitivity of NO₂⁻-driven N₂O production at headspace O₂ concentrations of 5% and 20%.
6. We used the measured kinetic parameters in a simplified model of N₂O emissions in order to estimate the potential importance at the field scale.

Fig 1. Kinetic response to high-level NO₂⁻ addition



The response to NO₂⁻ addition over the range of 50 – 250 $\mu\text{g NO}_2^- \text{N/g}$ followed a Michaelis-Menten function in all three soils:

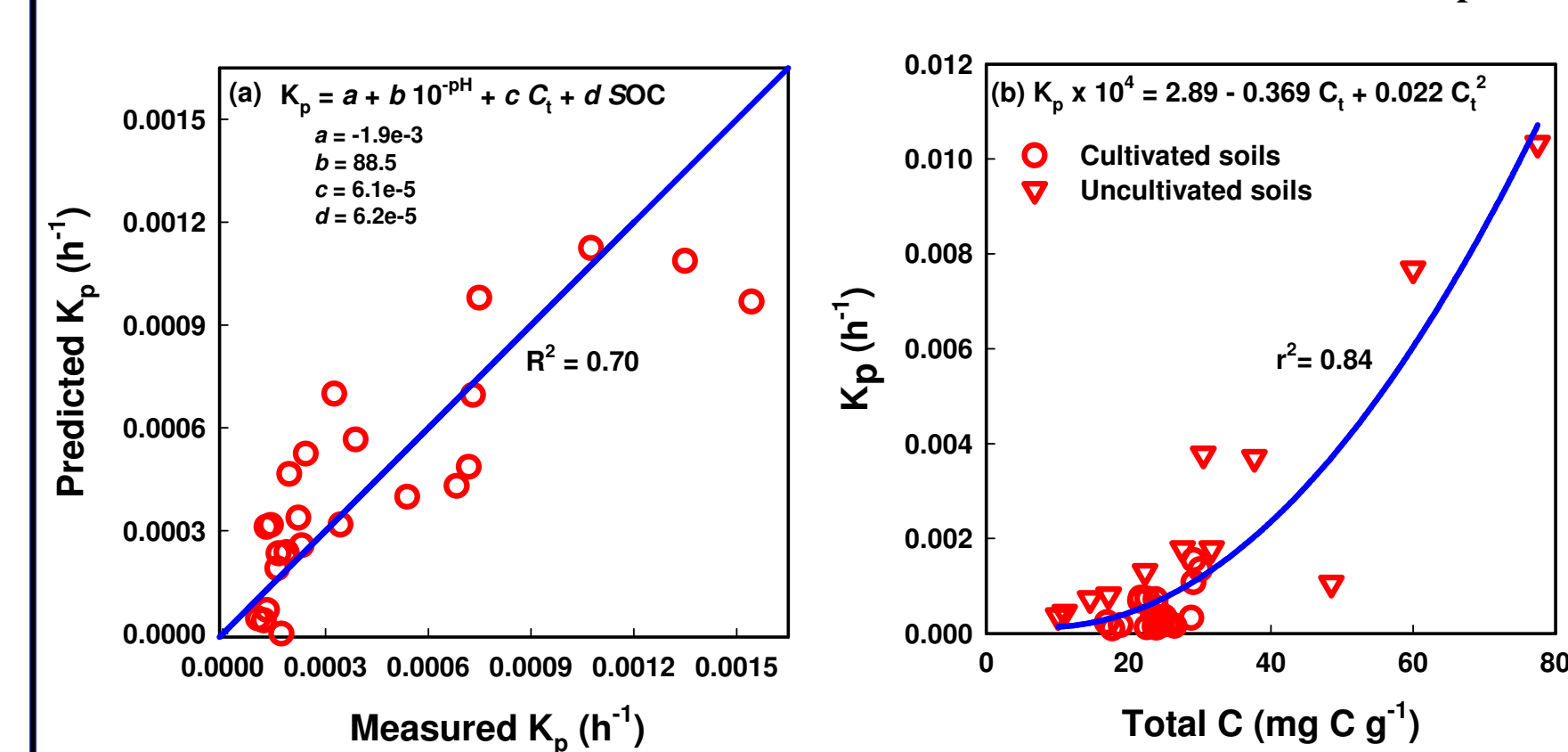
Fig 2. Kinetic response to low-level NO₂⁻ addition



The response to NO₂⁻ addition over the range of 5 – 50 $\mu\text{g NO}_2^- \text{N/g}$ was linear and could be described by:

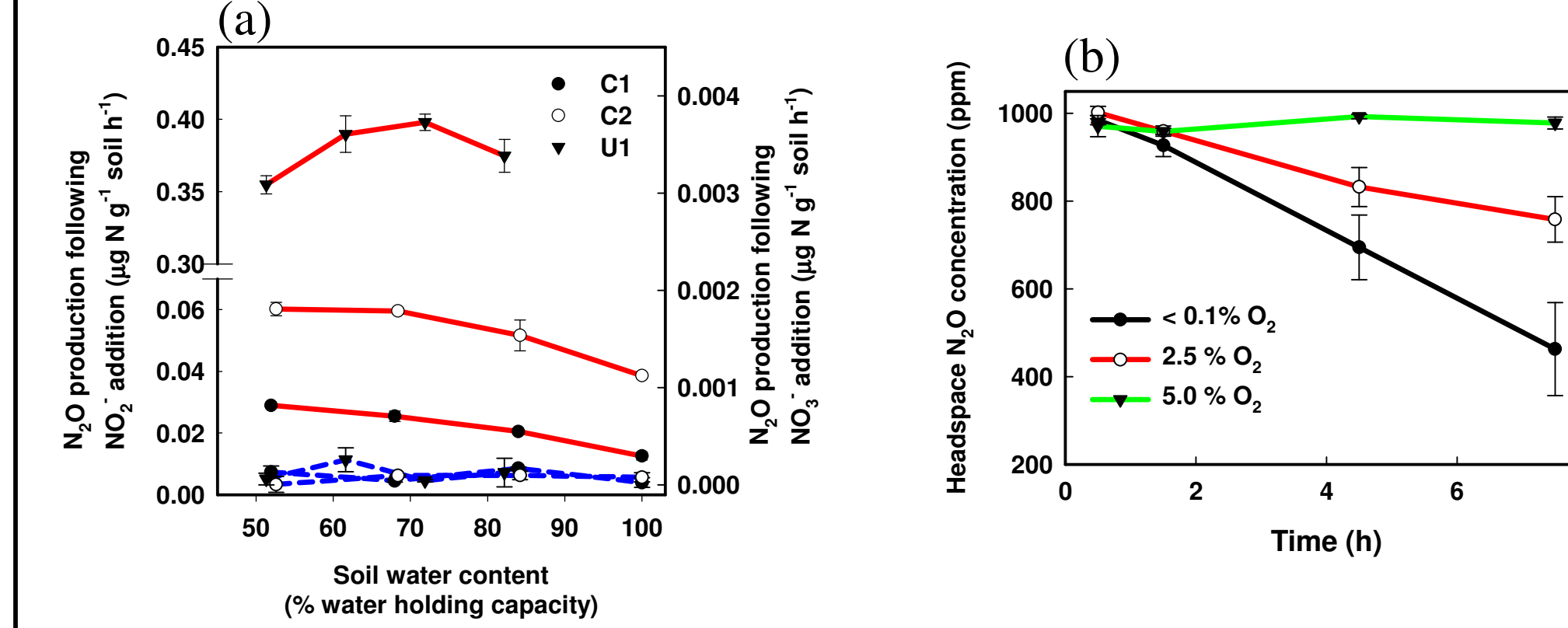
K_p values in γ -irradiated soils were 25, 40, and 69 % lower than in non-sterile soil for C1, C2, and U1, respectively (Fig. 2). Thus, abiotic reactions accounted for 31 – 75 % of total N₂O production in incubations done at ambient O₂.

Fig 3. Soil controls over production rate coefficient, K_p



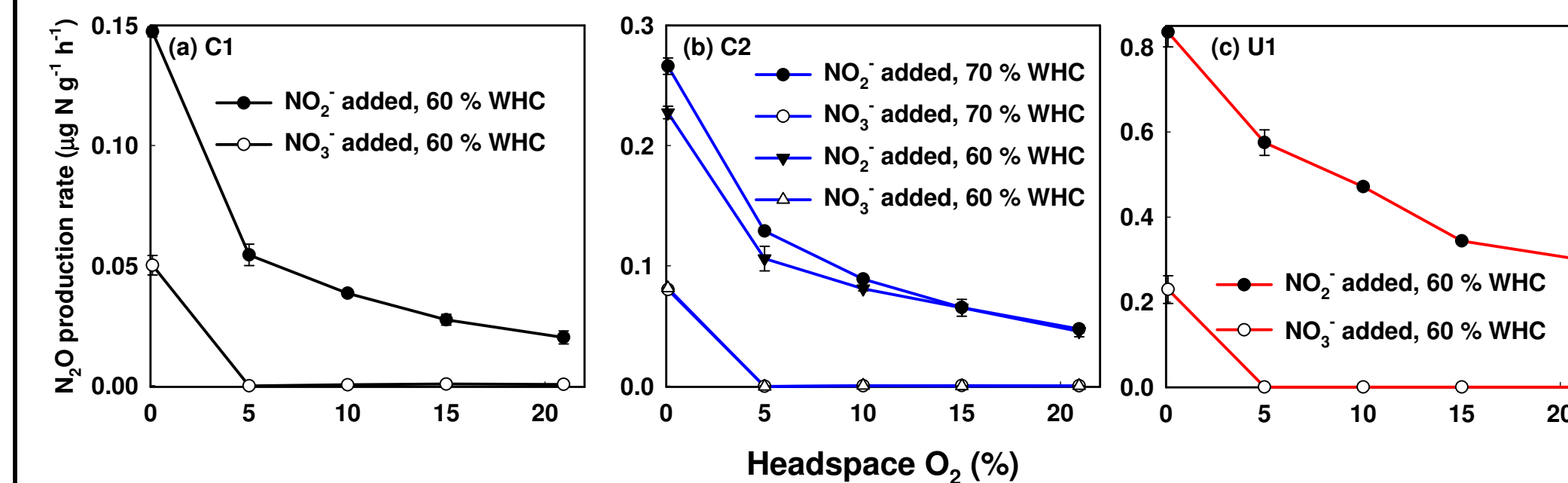
The rate coefficient K_p was correlated with pH, 10^{pH}, soluble organic C (SOC), total C & total N. A multiple regression model explained 70 % of the variance within the cultivated soils (Fig. 3a). A single-factor model explained 84 % of the overall variance as a function of total C (Fig. 3b). Positive correlations with 10^{pH} and total C are also consistent with a substantial abiotic component based on the work of Stevenson (1970) who showed that reactions involving soil organic matter are promoted at lower pH.

Fig 4. Confirmation of absence of denitrification and N₂O reduction



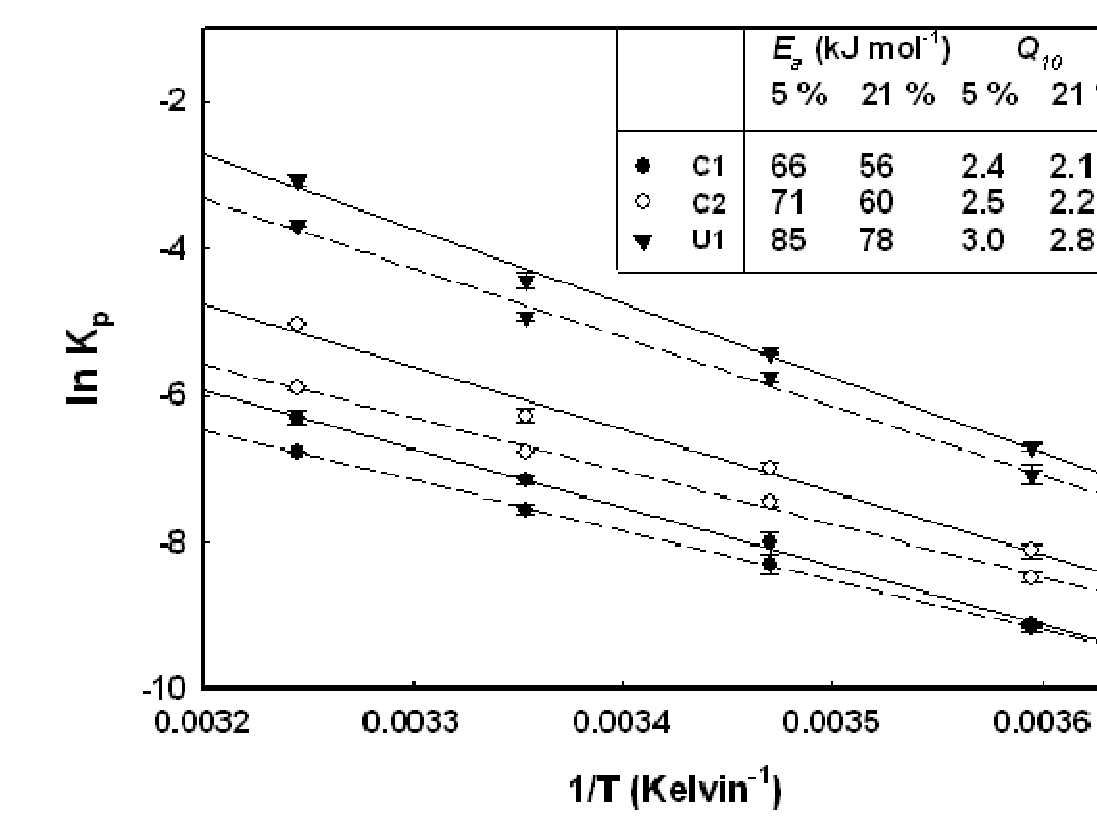
Rates of aerobic N₂O produced following addition of 60 $\mu\text{g NO}_3^- \text{N g}^{-1}$ were < 1 % of rates observed following addition of the same amount of NO₂⁻ (Fig. 4a). N₂O was readily produced in anaerobic incubations using sub-samples amended with NO₃⁻ and glucose. In microcosms using three cultivated soils at 80 % of WHC, N₂O consumption increased as headspace O₂ levels decreased below 5 % (Fig. 4b). There was no evidence of N₂O consumption at 5 % O₂.

Fig 5. Response to headspace O₂ concentration



NO₂⁻-amended soils displayed increased N₂O production as O₂ decreased from 21 to < 0.1 % (Fig. 5). In contrast, NO₃⁻-amended soils showed no response to varying O₂ except at < 0.1 %. Rates of N₂O produced in NO₂⁻-amended soils incubated at 100 % O₂ were significantly lower ($p < 0.05$) than soils incubated at ambient O₂ (data not shown). There was no response to O₂ in NO₂⁻-amended sterilized soils (data not shown) suggesting that the above response was entirely due to nitrifier denitrification activity.

Fig 6. Response to temperature and headspace O₂ concentration



Temperature responses at both 5 and 21 % O₂ were well-described ($r^2 \geq 0.99$) by the Arrhenius equation (Fig. 6). Q_{10} factors were also calculated from the data at 25 and 35 °C. A pattern of higher activation energy (E_a) and Q_{10} factor (i.e., greater temperature sensitivity) at the lower O₂ level was consistent across soils. The higher activation energies observed at 5 % compared to 21 % imply a greater temperature sensitivity of the biological than the chemical reduction process, since a greater proportion of the total production can be attributed to biotic than abiotic processes at lower O₂ (see above result).

Model extrapolations

The rate coefficients were applied in a simplified N₂O emissions model. Assuming steady-state and uniform conditions and the absence N₂O consumption, the equation governing N₂O transport is:

$$-D_p \frac{d^2[N_2O]}{dz^2} = \rho P_{N_2O} \quad (2)$$

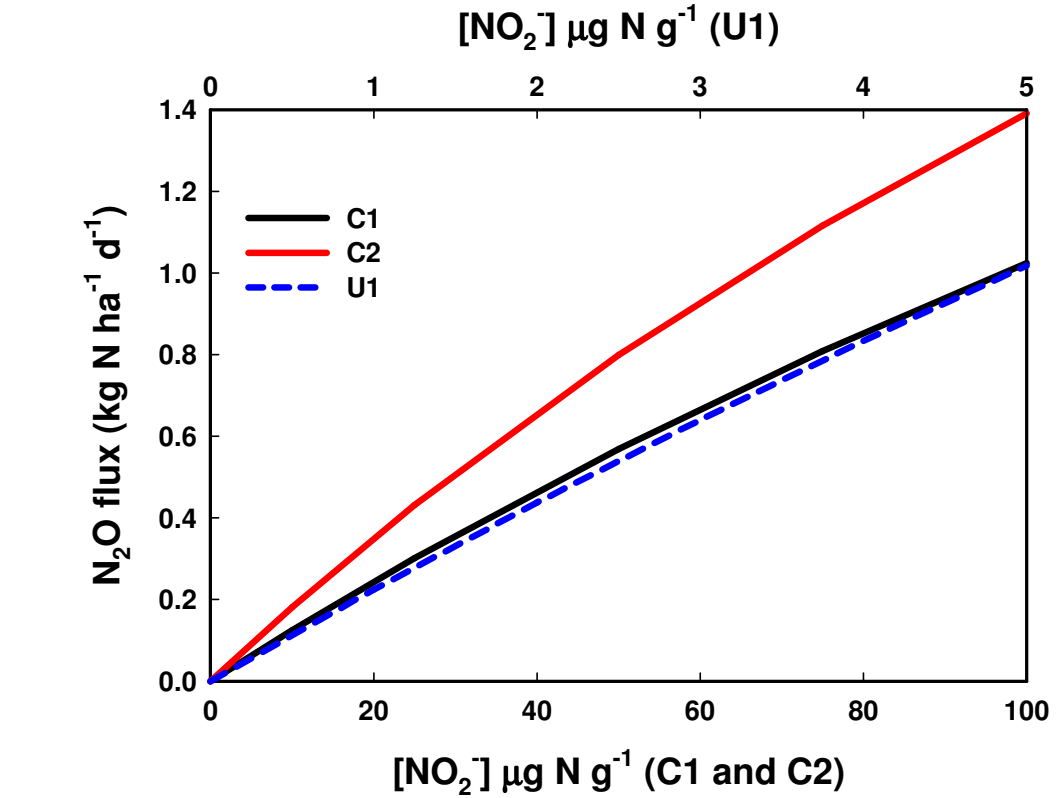
where D_p is the soil-gas diffusion coefficient, ρ is bulk density, and z is depth. Eq. [1] can be integrated to determine the N₂O concentration gradient at the soil surface and then combined with Fick's equation to yield an expression for the N₂O flux that is independent of D_p :

$$F_{N_2O} = \rho \int_{z_b}^{z_a} P_{N_2O} dz \quad (3)$$

Eq. [3] assumes that there is a gas-impermeable (no-flux) boundary at some depth and that N₂O production occurs in a vertical band of thickness ($z_b - z_a$). The measured Michaelis-Menten kinetic parameters (Fig. 1, Eq. [1]) were used in Eq. [3], assuming a 5-cm band of NO₂⁻, yielding:

$$F_{N_2O} = L \rho \left(\frac{\mu_{max} [NO_2^-]}{K_m + [NO_2^-]} \right) \quad (4)$$

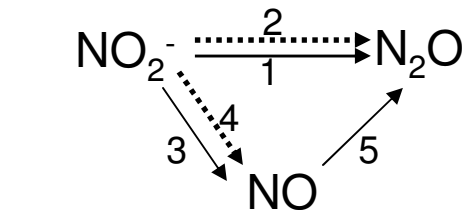
Fig 7. Model extrapolations of kinetic parameters



Eq. [4] predicts N₂O fluxes of 1.0 and 1.4 $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ in soils C1 and C2, respectively, at $[NO_2^-] = 100 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$, and a flux of 1.0 $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ in soil U1 at $[NO_2^-] = 5 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ (Fig. 7). This range agrees closely with N₂O fluxes in anhydrous ammonia-fertilized fields (e.g., Venterea and Rolston, 2000), and is comparable to fluxes attributed to denitrification (Riley and Matson, 2000; Li et al., 1992).

CONCLUSIONS

1. Major processes found to be generating N₂O in the presence of NO₂⁻ and O₂ were: (1) direct biological reduction, (2) direct abiotic reduction, (3) biological reduction to NO and (4) abiotic reduction to NO, with (3) and (4) each followed by (5) biological NO reduction.



2. The data shown here suggest that field and lab observations showing a response of N₂O fluxes to O₂ may sometimes be misinterpreted as indicative of NO₃⁻ denitrification, when in fact nitrifier denitrification may be at play.
3. Steady-state model simulations predict that NO₂⁻ levels often found after fertilizer applications have the potential to generate substantial N₂O fluxes even at ambient O₂. This potential derives in part from the production of N₂O under conditions not favorable for N₂O reduction, in contrast to N₂O generated from NO₃⁻ reduction.
4. The potential importance of NO₂⁻-driven reactions in generating N₂O emissions appears to be high given the widespread use of anhydrous ammonia and urea, the two fertilizers having the greatest potential for promoting NO₂⁻ accumulation. Urea and anhydrous ammonia together account for 80 % of total fertilizer N applied worldwide (IFA, 2006).
5. The role of organic matter in promoting NO₂⁻-driven reactions shown here suggests that agricultural management practices designed to increase soil C storage may have unintended consequences that could counteract greenhouse gas benefits.

Reference: Venterea, R.T. 2007. Nitrite-driven nitrous oxide production under aerobic soil conditions: Kinetics and biochemical controls. *Global change biol.* 13, 1798–1809.