Spatial variability of nitrous oxide in the Minho and Lima estuaries (Portugal)

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Summary: Nitrous oxide (N₂O) is a potent long-lived greenhouse gas and estuaries represent potentially important sources of this biogas to the atmosphere. In this work, we analyse the first N₂O data obtained in the Minho and Lima estuaries, and the processes and environmental factors that may regulate its production in these systems. In September 2006, N₂O attained values of up to 20.0 nmol L⁻¹ in the upper reaches of the Lima estuary and the river was, apparently, the main source of biogas to the system. In Minho N₂O reached a maximum of 14.4 nmol L⁻¹ and nitrification appeared to contribute to the enhancement of N₂O. In the upper estuary, the relatively high concentrations of nitrification substrate NH₄⁺, the positive correlations found between N₂O level above atmospheric equilibrium (Δ N₂O) and apparent oxygen utilization and NO₂⁻, and the negative correlations between Δ N₂O and NH₄⁺ and pH can be interpreted as in situ N₂O production through pelagic nitrification. Principal component analysis gave evidence of considerable differences between upper estuaries, particularly in terms of higher N₂O in Lima and NH₄⁺ in Minho. Surface waters of both estuaries were always N₂O-supersaturated (101-227%) and estimated N₂O fraction of N₂O global emission from European estuaries.

Keywords: N2O; greenhouse gas; fluxes; emission; Portuguese estuaries.

Variabilidad espacial del óxido nitroso en los estuarios del Miño y Lima (Portugal)

Resumen: El óxido nitroso es un poderoso gas de efecto invernadero y los estuarios representan potenciales fuentes de este biogás a la atmósfera. En este trabajo se analizan los primeros datos de N₂O obtenidos en los estuarios de Miño y Lima, así como los procesos y factores ambientales que pueden regular su producción en estos sistemas. En septiembre de 2006, N₂O alcanzó en el tramo superior del Lima valores de hasta 20,0 nmol L⁻¹ y el río Lima fue, aparentemente, la principal fuente de biogás para el sistema. En el Miño N₂O alcanzó una concentración máxima de 14,4 nmol L⁻¹ y la nitrificación parece contribuir al aumento de N₂O. En el tramo superior del Miño las concentraciones relativamente altas del substrato de nitrificación NH₄⁺ y las correlaciones positivas encontradas entre el exceso de N₂O (Δ N₂O) y el consumo aparente de oxígeno (AOU) y NO₂⁻, y las correlaciones negativas entre Δ N₂O, NH₄⁺ y pH pueden interpretarse como una producción in situ de N₂O debido a la nitrificación pelágica. El Análisis de Componentes Principales evidenció diferencias considerables entre la cabecera de los estuarios particularmente en términos de mayor concentración de N₂O (101-227%) y las emisiones estimadas de N₂O fueron de 0,28 Mg de N₂O-N año⁻¹ y 0,96 Mg de N₂O-N año⁻¹, respectivamente, que representan una fracción reducida de las emisiones totales de los estuarios europeos.

Palabras clave: N2O; gas de efecto invernadero; flujos; emisión; estuarios portugueses.

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INTRODUCTION

In the last few decades, the study of N_2O has acquired greater importance due to its contribution to global climate change. N₂O is an important long-lived greenhouse gas in terms of radiative forcing $(0.17\pm0.03 \text{ W m}^{-2})$ (Myhre et al. 2013) and represents the major an-thropogenic contributor to stratospheric ozone destruc-

tion. It has a long atmospheric lifetime of 131 ± 10 years (Prather et al. 2012) and its global warming potential is 310 times greater than that of carbon dioxide, in a time horizon of 100 years. In 2011 atmospheric N₂O levels (324.2\pm0.1 ppb) exceeded the pre-industrial levels (270±7 ppb) by about 20% (Myhre et al. 2013), largely due to increased agricultural activity and industry.

Estuaries have been considered significant N2O contributors to the atmosphere as a consequence of their high productivity and anthropogenic nitrogen loadings. N₂O is mainly formed during the first step of nitrification, the aerobic oxidation of ammonium (NH_4^+) to nitrite (NO_2^-) , mediated by ammoniaoxidizing bacteria (AOB) and ammonia-oxidizing archaea (AOA), and microbiological denitrification, the biological reduction of nitrate (NO_3^{-}) to N₂O, and, in turn, nitrogen gas (N_2) . Nitrification and denitrification often occur simultaneously in aquatic ecosystems and their relative contribution to total N₂O production is difficult to disentangle. As nitrification is an aerobic process in well-oxygenated estuarine systems, the water column mostly contributes N2O through nitrification production (de Wilde and de Bie 2000, Barnes and Upstill-Goddard 2011). Denitrification is usually limited to zones under hypoxic conditions (DO <2 ml L⁻¹), although some denitrification may occur even in relatively oxygenated waters (de Bie et al. 2002).

Both nitrification and denitrification are sensitive to the ongoing environmental changes and any natural or anthropogenic-induced shifts in the N availability have the potential to alter nitrogen cycling in coastal environments and affect N_2O formation and release to the atmosphere (Bange et al. 2010). The extent of the denitrification is also strongly controlled by temperature, nitrate concentrations and the availability of organic carbon (e.g. Dong and Nedwell 2006). In addition to the supply of oxygen and ammonia, which are the main controls on nitrification, other environmental variables may affect this biological process: temperature (Dai et al. 2008), salinity (Bollmann and Laanbroek 2002) and pH (Strauss et al. 2002).

Estimates of N₂O release from estuaries to the global inventory reveal wide uncertainties due to the large variability in N₂O data (Bange et al. 2010, Barnes and Upstill-Goddard 2011). However, considerable efforts have been made in the last few decades to better understand the nitrogen cycle, the dynamics of N₂O production and the quantification of the respective emission from European estuaries. More recently Murray et al. (2015) reviewed N₂O global fluxes from estuarine environments and reported a variation of 0.17-0.95 Tg N₂O-N yr⁻¹.

Studies on the N₂O dynamics and fluxes have been carried out in the Portuguese Tagus, Sado and Douro estuaries (e.g. Gonçalves et al. 2010, 2015, Teixeira et al. 2013). However, no data on N₂O levels and fluxes are available for the Minho and Lima estuaries. In this work, we (1) report spatial variability of N₂O concentration in these systems, (2) assess the contribution of different N₂O sources, (3) evaluate the role of environmental properties on the increment of N₂O fluxes, and (4) estimate N₂O emission in a perspective of global N₂O estuarine emissions.

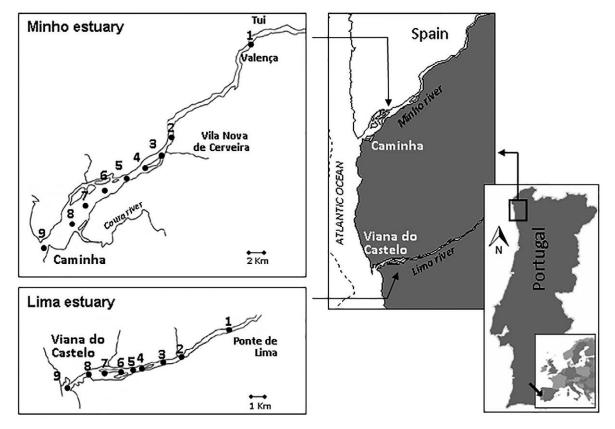


Fig. 1. - Map of the Minho and Lima estuaries. Dots and numbers represent sampling sites.

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Table. 1 - Main physical and hydrological characteristics of the Minho and Lima estuaries (Ferreira et al. 2005).

Estuary	Area (km ²)	Mean depth (m)	Mean water volume (×10 ⁶ m ³)	Mean residence time (days)	Mean tidal range (m)	Mean annual fresh- water input (m ³ s ⁻¹)	Watershed population density (hab km ⁻²)	N load (t yr ⁻¹)
Minho	23	2.6	70	1.5	3	300	112	20051
Lima	5	4.0	19	1	2	54	87	1078

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Area description

The Minho and Lima estuaries, both situated in the northern part of Portugal (Fig. 1), differ essentially in terms of river discharge, anthropogenic pressures and morphology (Table 1).

Minho estuary

The Minho estuary is situated in the border region between Portugal (Minho region) and Spain (Galicia region). The estuary has an area of approximately 23 km², a mean depth of 2.6 m, and a maximum width of about 2 km at the confluence of the Coura River, at Caminha. The estuary is mesotidal, with a mean tidal range of 3 m, and its dynamic tidal effects extends 35 km upstream (Bettencourt et al. 2003).

The annual mean discharge of the Minho River is 300 m³ s⁻¹ (Table 1), ranging between approximately 100 m3 s-1 in August and 800 m3 s-1 in February, and the water residence time is 1.5 days (Sousa et al. 2013). The estuary has high ecological value, mainly due to the large diversity of habitats and biodiversity and great socio-economic importance from tourism, fishing and agriculture. However, increasing pressure has been detected over recent years, involving in particular the pollution of surface water from both specific and diffuse sources, morphological alterations, changes of land use in the drainage basin and other impacts from human activity, such as aquaculture, textile, rubber and plastic processing industries (Ferreira et al. 2005). The Minho and Coura rivers are the main nitrogen sources to the estuary, contributing 13000 t N yr⁻¹ and 7000 t N yr⁻¹, respectively, and effluents from domestic origin contribute 51 t N yr⁻¹ (Ferreira et al. 2005) (Table 1).

Lima estuary

The Lima estuary, located south of Minho, has an area of approximately 5 km² and a mean depth of 4 m (Table 1). It has a semidiurnal mesotidal regime and the tidal effect extends 20 km upstream (Ramos et al. 2006). The upper estuary is constituted by a narrow channel with some intertidal areas and undisturbed banks. The middle estuary is a shallow salt marsh zone, and the lower estuary consists of a wider and shallow basin that communicates with the sea via a deep, narrow channel (with a typical depth of about 10 m). The estuary mouth is artificially obstructed by a 2-km-long jetty. The Lima River has an annual freshwater discharge of 54 m³ s⁻¹, and the mean water residence time in the estuary is one day (Table 1).

The lower estuary is a highly urbanized zone and has been subjected to several anthropogenic impacts resulting from harbour activities (Viana do Castelo). However, nutrient loadings also originate from diffuse sources, largely agriculture (0.51 t N yr⁻¹), although the main N source to the estuary is the Lima River (1077 t N yr⁻¹) (Ferreira et al. 2005). This N load is, however, approximately 19 times lower than the load to the Minho estuary (Table 1).

Sampling

Water sampling was undertaken in September 2006 during ebb tide (at spring tide), at nine stations located along a main transect of both estuaries, from the upstream limit of tidal influence to the estuary mouth, covering a full range of salinity of 0-30 corresponding to a distance of 26.5 km in Minho and 15 km in Lima estuary (Fig. 1).

Surface water (0.2 m depth) was collected using 2-L Niskin bottles (General Oceanics) for analysis of salinity (S), temperature (T), pH, dissolved inorganic nitrogen (nitrate NO_3^- , nitrite NO_2^- and ammonium NH_4^+), dissolved oxygen (DO) and nitrous oxide (N₂O). The hydrological characteristics of the Minho and Lima estuaries and the meteorological conditions observed during the sampling period are presented in Table 2.

Analytical procedure

Water temperature (T) was measured in situ with a Seabird SBE19/CTD probe with an accuracy of 0.01°C.

Salinity (S) measurements were carried out using a temperature-controlled Guideline Salinometer (Portasal 8410A), and accuracy was 0.03 salinity. Equipment was calibrated with a certified IAPSO Standard Seawater reference.

Meteorological parameters (air temperature, pressure, and wind speed and direction) were determined using a portable meteorological station (Campbell Scientific CR510). Measurements represent the average of physical parameters taken using a sampling time of 5 seconds and a storage time of 1 minute. Wind speed 10-minute average was determined for each sampling

Table 2. – Hydrological characteristics of the Minho and Lima estuaries and meteorological conditions observed in September 2006. Q, daily mean flow of the Minho and Lima rivers measured at Foz Mouro and Ponte da Barca, respectively (SNIRH 2013); u₁₀, daily wind speed normalized to 10 m height.

Estuary	Sampling date	Tidal amplitude (m)	Q daily mean (m ³ s ⁻¹)	u ₁₀ (m s ⁻¹)
Minho	12 Sep	0.6-3.3	90.7	2.5-6.2
Lima	13 Sep	0.9-3.1	8.1	1.3-4.1

station and converted to wind speed values at 10 m height (u_{10}) using a logarithmic correction (Hartman and Hammond 1985).

The Minho and Lima River discharges were calculated as an average of the flow 10 days before sampling, at the hydrometric stations of Foz de Mouro and Ponte da Barca, respectively (SNIRH 2013).

Dissolved oxygen (DO, μ mol L⁻¹) was measured using whole-bottle Winkler's titration method (Aminot and Chaussepied 1983). A Methrom titrator was used to dispense small amounts of thiosulphate, and starch endpoint was detected visually. Precision of the method was in the range of 0.08% to 0.25%. DO saturation, expressed in percentage (%), was determined as the ratio of the oxygen concentration determined and the equilibrium values of DO calculated with the Weiss (1970) equation. Apparent oxygen utilization (AOU, μ mol L⁻¹) was calculated as the difference between the saturation oxygen concentration and the dissolved oxygen concentration measured in the sample.

Water samples for determination of dissolved inorganic nitrogen were filtered through acetate cellulose filters (pore size 0.45 µm) and stored at -20° C until analysis. Analyses were carried out using a Traacs autoanalyser following colorimetric techniques outlined by the manufacturer. Estimated precision was $\pm 0.8\%$ for nitrate and nitrite (NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻) and $\pm 2.0\%$ for ammonium (NH₄⁺), at mid-scale concentrations. Accuracy of nutrient measurements was maintained by using CSK Standards (WAKO, Japan).

pH measurement was carried out immediately after collecting water samples using a Metrohm 704 pH-meter and a combined electrode (Metrohm), standardized against NBS buffers (6.865 and 9.180 pH). Precision of pH measurements was ± 0.01 .

Water samples for determination of N₂O were collected in triplicate in 20-mL glass headspace vials and poisoned with saturated aqueous mercury chloride (HgCl₂) to stop biological activity. The vials were stored upside down, in the dark, at 4°C in the refrigerator until analysis, performed within 10 days. Dissolved N₂O was determined by a headspace equilibration technique coupled with gas chromatographic analysis (GC-3800, Varian). Briefly, 20 mL of sample was equilibrated with 5 mL of highly purified helium (purity =99.9999%) in a headspace CombiPAL autosampler. Gas chromatographic separation was carried out using a stainless steel column packed with 80/100 (mesh) Porapak. Oven and detector temperature was set at 50°C and 320°C, respectively, and high purity nitrogen (99.9999%) was used as the carrier gas (flow rate 30 mL min⁻¹). To remove water vapour and carbon dioxide, absorbent columns packed respectively with $Mg(ClO_4)_2$ and Carbosorb were located in the carrier gas line between the sample loop and the separation column. N₂O peak was detected with a ⁶³Ni electron capture detector (ECD). Calibration of ECD response was performed using standard gas mixtures with 400, 780 and 1980 ppb N_2O in synthetic air (Air Liquide), and method precision was 2.6% (30 replicate measurements using samples containing 10 nmol L^{-1} of N_2O). In situ concentration of N₂O (C, nmol L⁻¹) was calculated from the concentrations measured in the headspace according to the solubility equation of Weiss and Price (1980):

$$C = \beta (TS) x'P$$

where x' is the measured N₂O dry mole fraction, P is the atmospheric pressure, and β is the solubility coefficient, which is a function of the water temperature (T) and salinity (S). N₂O equilibrium concentrations were calculated assuming an atmospheric N₂O mixing ratio of 320.1 ppb (WMO 2006).

 N_2O saturation, expressed in percentage (%), was determined as the ratio between the measured dissolved N_2O concentration and the equilibrium concentration. The N_2O water-air flux (F_{N_2O}) was estimated according to the following equation:

$$F_{N_2O} = k_{N_2O} \Delta N_2O$$

where $\Delta N_2 O$, the excess of $N_2 O$, is the difference between the measured concentration and the equilibrium concentration with the atmosphere in the estuarine water at the local temperature and salinity; and k_{N_2O} (cm h^{-1}) is the N_2O transfer velocity, which is expressed as a function of the wind speed and the Schmidt number (Sc). Since no direct measurements of k_{N_2O} were made in the Minho and Lima estuaries, both the k-wind relationships of Carini et al. (1996) (hereinafter referred to as C96) and Raymond and Cole (2001) (hereinafter referred to as RC01) were, respectively, used to compute k:

$$k_{C96} = 0.045 + 2.0277u_{10}$$

 $k_{RC01} = 1.91 \ e^{0.35u_{10}}$

The gas transfer velocities and air-sea fluxes were estimated using in situ wind speeds normalized to 10 m height (u_{10}) . The k coefficients were corrected for in situ temperature using the following relationship:

$$k_{N_2O} / k_{600} = (Sc_{N_2O} / 600)^{-0.5}$$

where $Sc_{N_{2}O}$ is the Schmidt number for $N_{2}O$ calculated according to the equation of Wanninkhof (1992):

$$Sc = 2301.1 - 151.1 T + 4.7364 T^2 + 0.057431 T^3$$

where T is the temperature (°C).

Statistical analysis

An unpaired t-test was used to identify statistical differences in levels of N_2O and other environmental variables between and along estuaries.

Pearson's correlation analyses were performed to evaluate the existence of relationships between ΔN_2O and the variables NH_4^+ , AOU, NO_2^- and pH assumed to be connected with production pathways of this biogas.

The multivariate techniques principal component analysis (PCA) and cluster analysis were applied to

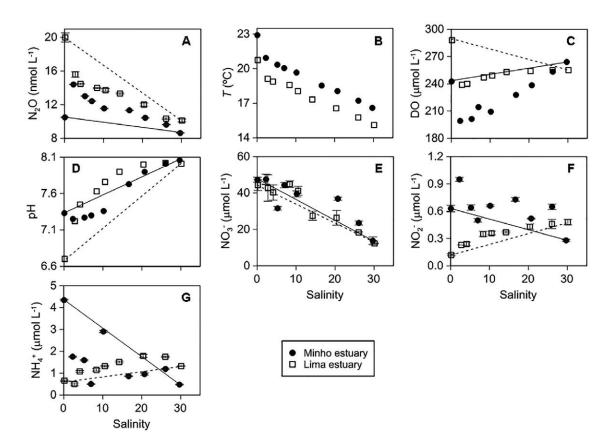


Fig. 2. – N₂O and other environmental parameters against salinity in the Minho (black circles) and Lima (open squares) estuaries (error bars=±1 standard deviation, sd). Conservative lines (solid line, Minho; dashed line, Lima) are shown when appropriate.

environmental data in order to identify and compare inter-relationships between these variables in both estuaries. Data were log(x+1) transformed and handled using correlation-based PCA on the basis of standard Euclidean distance between samples to define their dissimilarity. PRIMER (version 6) was employed for the multivariate analysis.

Figures were created in Golden Software Grapher program (version 9.6.1001).

RESULTS

N₂O levels and fluxes

Concentrations of N_2O and the studied environmental parameters plotted against salinity along both Minho and Lima estuaries are shown in Figure 2.

Distribution of N_2O exhibits a declining tendency towards the mouths of both estuaries. In general, concentrations were higher in Lima than in Minho (Fig. 2A). In Lima values ranged from 10.1 to 20.0 nmol L^{-1} and were below the conservative mixing line. The maximum value was reached in the upper estuary, suggesting that the Lima River was the main source of N_2O to the estuarine system. From salinity 0 to 4 a sharp decrease was observed, suggesting a greater N_2O loss in the zone, presumably through water-air gas exchange. Downstream of salinity 4, N_2O decreased more slightly and the mixing with the N_2O -poorer seawater is well perceptible. In the Minho estuary, concentrations varied from 8.6 to 14.4 nmol L⁻¹ and by contrast with those observed in Lima were above the conservative mixing line, pointing to the existence of N₂O sources within the estuary. A major concentration increase from 10.5 to 14.4 nmol L⁻¹ was detected between 0 and 2.5 salinity, suggesting the existence of internal N₂O sources in this zone of the estuary, presumably from manufacturing industries located nearby. N₂O saturation values ranged from 101% to 166% along the Minho estuary and from 113% to 227% along the Lima estuary (see Table 4), indicating that both estuaries are potential N₂O sources to the atmosphere.

Surface waters of both estuaries were well oxygenated during our study period. Concentrations of DO were higher than 280 μ mol L⁻¹ in the upper Lima estuary at salinity 0.2, decreasing to 240 µmol L⁻¹ at salinity 2.8 (Fig. 2C). Seawards of this salinity, an increasing tendency was observed and a concentration of 255 μ mol L⁻¹ was also reached in the vicinity of the estuary mouth (salinity 30.2). In the Minho estuary, a decrease in DO was also detected in the upper estuary and the concentration dropped from 243 μ mol L⁻¹ at 0.1 salinity to 199 μ mol L⁻¹ at 2.3 salinity. Afterwards, a sharp increase in DO was measured along the estuary and a maximum value of 264 µmol L⁻¹ was reached at the estuary mouth (salinity 29.7). DO-enriched seawater probably accounted for the similar increasing trend seaward in both estuaries. Saturation values were higher than 70% in the Minho estuary and 90% in the Lima estuary.

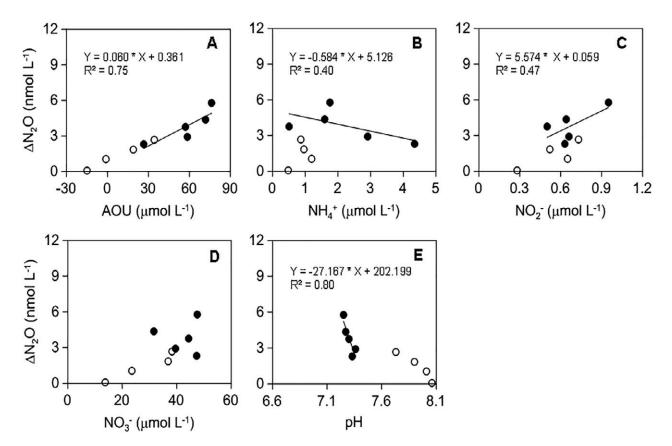


Fig. 3. – Relationships between ΔN_2O and environmental parameters in the Minho estuary. Lower salinity sites (0-10 salinity) are represented by black circles and higher salinity sites (15-30 salinity) by open circles. R^2 , correlation coefficient.

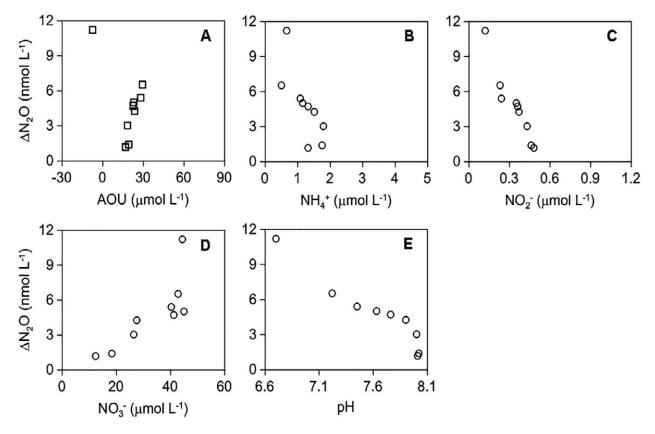


Fig. 4. – Relationships between ΔN_2O and environmental parameters in the Lima estuary.

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Environmental variable	PC1	PC2	PC3
Eigenvalues	4.27	2.17	0.74
% Variation	53.4	27.1	9.7
Cum. % Variation	53.4	80.6	90.2

In the Minho estuary pH increased from 7.3 in the more river-influenced zone to 8.1 at the estuary mouth (Fig. 2D). In the Lima estuary pH showed a larger range of values, increasing from 6.7 in the most river-influenced site to 8.0 at the estuary mouth.

 NO_3^- was the dominant species of inorganic nitrogen in both estuaries, reaching a similar maximum concentration in the river input (47.6 µmol L⁻¹ in Minho and 44.4 µmol L⁻¹ in Lima) (Fig. 2E). Values decreased seawards and in general followed the theoretical conservative mixing line. Along the Minho estuary both NO_2^- and NH_4^+ exhibited an irregular behaviour, though the system seemed to function as an NO_2^- source and an NH_4^+ sink (Fig. 2F, G). Between salinity 0 and ~5-7 the decline in NH_4^+ (~4.0 to 0.5 µM L⁻¹) was simultaneous with an increase in NO_2^- (~0.6 to 1.0 µM L⁻¹) and N₂O (~10 to 13-14 nmol L⁻¹), suggesting the occurrence of nitrification.

Figure 3 displays relationships between ΔN_2O and AOU, NH₄⁺, NO₂⁻, NO₃⁻ and pH in the Minho estuary. In the mentioned salinity zone (0 and ~5-7) a significant positive correlation was found between ΔN_2O and AOU (R²=0.75). This indicates the occurrence of nitrification as a source of N₂O and the respective slope provides an estimate of the biological N₂O yield per mole O₂ consumed (Yoshinari 1976). Further, the simultaneous (negative) correlations between ΔN_2O and the primary substrate for nitrification, NH₄⁺ (R²=0.40), and pH (R²=0.80), and the positive correlation, NO₂⁻ (R²=0.41), are consistent with the predominance

of nitrification as a mechanism of N_2O production in the upper part of the Minho estuary. No correlation was found with NO_3^- , whose high concentrations were mostly riverine derived.

In the Lima estuary no relationships were found, suggesting the occurrence of nitrification (Fig. 4).

The application of PCA to the studied environmental variables in the Minho and Lima estuaries allowed us to identify two main composite variables, PC1 and PC2 (eigenvalues >1.0), which explain 82% of the variance (Table 3) and represent a good description of the environmental structure across the estuarine sampled sites.

PC1 explained 53% of variance and had the highest positive loading for NO₃⁻, T and N₂O and a negative loading for S and pH (Fig. 5). This component represents the separation of major river-influenced stations from major marine-influenced ones in both estuaries. PC2 explained 27% of the variance and correlated positively with DO and negatively with NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺. This component appears to represent relevant parameters to N dynamics, particularly in Minho estuary. In fact, projection of stations along PC2 reveals a clear separation of sites from the upper Lima estuary (L1-L5) (Fig. 5), mostly associated with higher values of N₂O, and sites from the upper Minho (M1-M5) more associated with higher NO₂⁻ and NH₄⁺, apparently from river origin, as the N load from the Minho River is considerable at this point (Table 1). It was also observed that the stations from both middle/lower estuaries did not differ in terms of studied environmental variables.

 N_2O water-air fluxes are shown in Figure 6. Positive values prevailed at all stations but decreased, in general, between the upper and lower zone of the estuaries. This tendency was more pronounced in the Lima estuary, where higher N_2O fluxes in the river-influenced area were about twice (~12.0 µmol m⁻² d⁻¹; C96) (Fig. 6B) those observed in the upper part of the Minho estuary (~6.0 µmol m⁻² d⁻¹; C96) (Fig. 6A). The

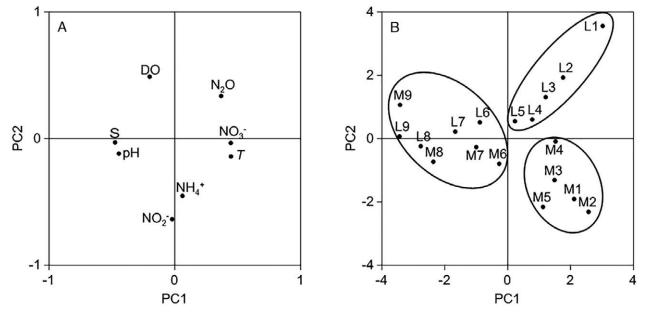


Fig. 5. - PCA ordination of variables loadings (A) and scores of sampling stations (B) in the Minho and Lima estuaries.

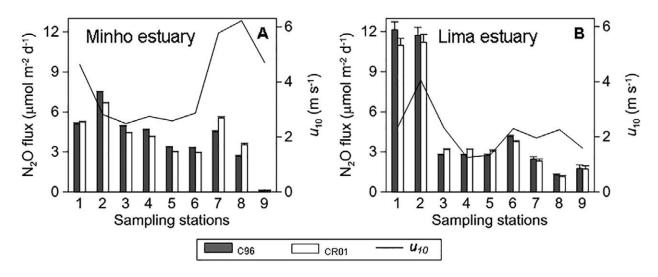


Fig. 6. – Water-air N₂O fluxes (bar charts) along the Minho (A) and Lima (B) estuaries. Wind speed (u_{10}) is represented by solid line (Error bars =±1 sd).

higher fluxes in the Lima estuary were mainly associated with the higher levels of N_2O observed in the upper estuary area (St.1 to St.3; Fig. 2), indicating that the low salinity zone (0-5) is an important source of N_2O to the atmosphere.

Using the two different parameterizations (C96, RC01) to calculate the gas transfer coefficients, the averaged N₂O water-air fluxes from Minho estuary to the atmosphere ranged between $4.0\pm3.3 \ \mu\text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{d}^{-1}$ (RC01) and $4.1\pm2.8 \ \mu\text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{d}^{-1}$ (C96), corresponding to a mean N₂O concentration of $11.3\pm1.3 \ \text{nmol} \ \text{L}^{-1}$ (132±22% saturation) and a mean wind speed of $3.9\pm0.1 \ \text{m} \ \text{s}^{-1}$. Slightly higher N₂O water-air fluxes were found in the Lima estuary, with averaged values of the setuary of th

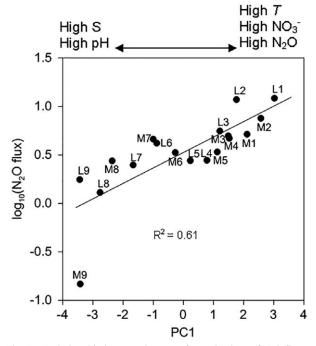


Fig. 7. – Relationship between log-transformed values of N_2O fluxes and the first principal component in the Minho and Lima estuaries. R^2 , correlation coefficient. Variable trends are indicated along the top of the figure.

ues ranging between $4.7\pm1.9 \ \mu\text{mol} \ m^{-2} \ d^{-1}$ (RC01) and $5.0\pm2.0 \ \mu\text{mol} \ m^{-2} \ d^{-1}$ (C96), corresponding to a higher mean N₂O concentration of $13.7\pm1.6 \ \text{nmol} \ L^{-1}$ (153±26% saturation) and a lower mean wind speed level (2.4±0.1 m s⁻¹).

 N_2O fluxes from the Minho and Lima estuaries were regressed versus the first two PCs' ordination of station scores to test their ability to predict the fluxes. We found out that only PC1 showed to be correlated with N_2O flux, with a strong positive correlation (R²=0.61) (Fig. 7). N_2O flux also increased along a gradient of increasing NO_3^- , T and N_2O . These results suggest that future global changes in these parameters will result in an increase of N_2O flux in these estuarine systems.

DISCUSSION

The present study reveals that the Minho and Lima estuaries, particularly the upper reaches, behave differently regarding N₂O levels, sources and fluxes. N₂O distribution exhibits a pronounced spatial variability in both estuaries but in the Lima estuary concentrations are higher than in Minho. The Lima River was the main N₂O contributor to the Lima estuary, whereas the occurrence of nitrification seems to represent an additional N₂O source within the Minho estuary. As NH₄⁺ is a primary substrate for nitrification, low NH₄⁺ concentration may limit nitrification. It has been suggested that the AOA and AOB niches are defined by ammonium concentrations (Martens-Habbena et al. 2009), with AOA dominating in ammonia-limited acid, whereas AOB have a tolerance of high ammonia concentrations.

Though no information on benthic AOA and AOB communities along the Minho and Lima estuaries is available, NH_4^+ concentration in the upper Minho estuary (maximum 4.4 µmol L⁻¹) seems more suitable for the occurrence of nitrification than in the Lima estuary (maximum 1.8 µmol L⁻¹). Nitrification reactions typically happen within a DO range of 15.6-78.0 µmol L⁻¹, and the Minho and Lima surface waters were well

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Table 4 N ₂ O saturation, water-air fluxes and emissions for several world estuaries. Estimated using the relationships of ^(a) Clark et al. (1995);
^(b) Carini et al. (1996); ^(c) Raymond and Cole (2001); ^(e) unpublished data.

Estuaries	Area (km ²)	Saturation (%)	Nitrous Oxide (N ₂ Water-air fluxes (μ mol m ⁻² d ⁻¹)	O) Emission (Mg N ₂ O-N yr ⁻¹)	Sampling survey	Reference
Loire, France	41	84 - 271	14.3 ^(a)	6.1	Single	de Wilde and de Bie (2000)
Scheldt, Belgium	269	710	66.6 ^(a)	1.8×10^{2}	Seasonal	de Wilde and de Bie (2000)
Tagus, Portugal	320	101 - 147	-1.0 - 10.4 ^(a)	12.8 - 16.0 ^(e)	Seasonal	Gonçalves et al. (2010)
Humber, UK	303.6	100 - 4250	76.6 ^(a)	2.5×10^{2}	Seasonal	Barnes and Upstill-Goddard (2011)
Tay, UK	121.3	100 - 118	2.5 ^(a)	2.5	Single	Barnes and Upstill-Goddard (2011)
Tyne, UK	7.9	98 - 280	7.5	0.37	Seasonal	Barnes and Upstill-Goddard (2011)
Ems, Germany	162	181 - 1794	76.7 ^(a)	1.3×10^{2}	Single	Barnes and Upstill-Goddard (2011)
Gironde, France	442	120 - 463	25.5 ^(a)	1.2×10^{2}	Seasonal	Barnes and Upstill-Goddard (2011)
Douro, Portugal	2.4	280 - 650	74.7 ^(a)	1.9	Single	Barnes and Upstill-Goddard (2011)
Sado, Portugal	180	91 - 162	-2.2 ^(b) - 3.8 ^(c)	3.7 - 4.4	Single	Gonçalves et al. (2015)
Guadalete, Spain	=	96 - 2174	-0.1 - 313.2	-	Seasonal	Burgos et al. (2015)
Pearl River, China	2789	101 - 3800	0.1 - 733	1.35×10^{3}	Seasonal	Lin et al. (2016)
Minho, Portugal	23	101 - 166	4.0 ^(c) - 4.1 ^(b)	0.94 - 0.96	Single	This study
Lima, Portugal	5.4	113 - 227	4.7 ^(c) - 5.0 ^(b)	0.26 - 0.28	Single	This study

above these concentrations, leading to nitrification conditions. However, only in the upper Minho do correlations found between ΔN_2O and AOU, NH_4^+ and NO2⁻ suggest that nitrification may have been acting as an NH₄⁺ sink and a source of N₂O. The calculated biological N₂O yield (0.060 nmol per µmol O₂ consumed) falls within the range observed in marine systems and in particular in the Atlantic off the Iberian coast (Nevison et al. 2003). The effect of salinity on nitrification is well documented and in many estuarine systems nitrification rates are highest at lower and intermediate salinities (Bianchi et al. 1999, Teixeira et al. 2013). Our results from the upper Minho are in accordance with these findings, as the potential nitrification occurred at low salinity (between ~ 2 and ~ 10). The community composition of nitrifying microbes is very dependent on salinity, but a combination of other environmental factors may shape AOB diversity along an estuary (Mosier et al. 2008).

pH may regulate nitrification, and Wild et al. (1971) found an ideal pH range for nitrification between 7.5 and 8.5. As nitrifiers are known to decrease pH, the sharp negative correlation found between pH and ΔN_2O in the pH range 7.2-7.4 in the upper Minho estuary (Fig. 3E) may be a direct result of nitrification. N_2O saturation values ranging from 101% to 166% in the Minho estuary and 113% to 227% in the Lima estuary indicate that both estuaries behave as a potential N₂O source to the atmosphere. Positive N₂O water-air fluxes prevailed in all sampling stations, decreasing in general from upper to lower estuaries. However, this tendency was more pronounced in the Lima estuary, where higher N₂O fluxes in the river-influenced area were about twice (~12.0 µmol m⁻² d⁻¹; C96) those observed in the upper part of the Minho estuary (~6.0 μ mol m⁻² d⁻¹; C96). It is likely that a greater turbulence of Minho upper estuary waters leads to a more rapid degassing of N₂O to the atmosphere in this part of the system.

Estimated N₂O fluxes were similar to those reported from the Portuguese Tagus and Sado estuaries (Goncalves et al. 2010, 2015) (Table 4) but much lower than that of the Douro estuary (Barnes and Upstill-Goddard 2011). These fluxes were also much lower than those reported from the Scheldt estuary in Belgium, the Ems estuary in Germany, the Humber estuary in the UK, the Guadalete estuary in Spain and the Pearl River estuary in China (Table 4).

Though N₂O water-air fluxes were obtained during a single sampling, aware of the seasonal variability that characterizes these estuarine systems, we estimated the annual contribution of Minho and Lima estuaries to the global N₂O emissions. Taking into account estuarine areas (23 km² for Minho and 5.4 km² for Lima) and the estimated mean N₂O fluxes, we extrapolated an emission of 0.94-0.96 Mg N_2 O-N yr⁻¹ (estimated using RC01 and C96, respectively) for the Minho estuary and 0.26-0.28 Mg N₂O-N yr⁻¹ (RC01 and C96, respectively) for the Lima estuary.

On a global perspective, estimated N₂O emissions from the Minho and Lima estuaries (<1.0 Mg N₂O-N yr⁻¹) represent a reduced fraction (<0.02%) of emissions from European estuaries (6.8 Gg N₂O yr⁻¹, Barnes and Upstill-Goddard 2011). Nevertheless, being aware of our unique seasonal sampling, and particularly the higher values of N₂O emissions measured in winter spring and in other Portuguese estuaries (Gonçalves et al. 2010), more studies assessing the seasonal variability of N₂O emissions in our systems are needed.

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