



Nitrogen transformation mediated by nitrate-dependent iron oxidation in anoxic freshwater

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Received: 3 July 2019 / Accepted: 8 September 2019 / Published online: 12 October 2019
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Abstract

Purpose Fe(III) transformation to Fe(II) via the nitrate-dependent iron oxidation process, occurring in anoxic sediments, has an important role in the nitrogen cycle. In this study, laboratory experiments were performed to investigate the denitrification properties driven by nitrate-dependent iron oxidation.

Materials and methods A 30-day incubation study of sediments and overlying water from Lake Moshui in Wuhan, China, was conducted in an anoxic condition. The nitrate reduction during the incubation was evaluated by the N₂O emission and various forms of nitrogen in the overlying water. The denitrification enzyme activity and abundance of nitrate-dependent Fe(II)-oxidising bacteria were determined periodically, and their correlations with nitrogen and iron were analysed to illustrate the denitrification characteristics linked to Fe(II) oxidation in sediments.

Results and discussion After the Fe(II) and nitrate input, the decrease of Fe(II) and nitrate concentrations was accompanied by an increase in nitrite and N₂O production. The contribution of Fe(II) oxidation to the nitrate reduction accounted for 27.7% at the end of the incubation, and the rate of Fe(II) decrease was significantly correlated ($P < 0.05$) with the production of N₂O. In addition, a positive correlation between denitrification enzyme activity and nitrate concentrations was observed. During incubation, the abundance of nitrate-dependent Fe(II)-oxidising bacteria in the sediment ranged from 1.1×10^5 cell g⁻¹ wet sediment to 1.4×10^6 cell g⁻¹ wet sediment, and increased with the increase of Fe(II) input concentration. The nitrate reduction coupled with Fe(II) oxidation was mainly mediated by microbial processes.

Conclusions Sediment denitrification was enhanced with increasing Fe(II) concentrations, and Fe(II) may play an important role in regulating nitrogen transformation in freshwater lakes.

Keywords Denitrification · Denitrification enzyme activity · Iron oxidation · Nitrate-dependent Fe(II)-oxidising bacteria · Sediment

1 Introduction

Denitrification, a microbial process by which nitrate is reduced stepwise into atmospheric terminal products such as N₂O and/or N₂ (Lam and Kuypers 2011; Silva et al. 2018), has ecological and geochemical consequences in freshwater systems and wastewater treatment plants (Dunne et al. 2013; Nizzoli et al. 2018; Zhang et al. 2019). Denitrification mostly

occurs in the sediment and acts as the prevailing sink for nitrogen in the water column or sediments under anaerobic conditions. Denitrification plays an important role in controlling nitrogen transformation, accounting for more than 70% of natural nitrogen loss (Babbín et al. 2014; Gao et al. 2016).

Organic carbon is a common electron donor for denitrification (Kesserú et al. 2002; Wunderlich et al. 2012; Wu et al. 2013), whereas inorganic substrates, including reduced sulphur (Yang et al. 2012) and iron compounds (Melton et al. 2014), can support denitrification as well. Sulphide oxidation coupled with nitrate reduction has been intensively studied (Jørgensen et al. 2009) and identified as an important pathway of nitrogen cycling in anoxic water (Canfield et al. 2010; Wenk et al. 2013) and potentially in sediments (Sayama et al. 2005; Burgin and Hamilton 2007). However, the possibility of Fe(II) as an electron donor for nitrate reduction in the

Responsible editor: Haihan Zhang

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natural environment had not been investigated until recent decades (Robertson and Thamdrup 2017).

Iron is an abundant redox-active element in sediments, and the transition between Fe(II) and Fe(III) plays an important role on watershed biogeochemistry (Weber et al. 2006a; Melton et al. 2014). Iron can be utilised as an electron donor by many various microorganisms that gain energy from that reaction, and the iron cycle is associated with many other elementary cycles, such as the nitrogen cycle (Laufer et al. 2016). Microbial and partly abiotic mechanisms by which Fe(II) is oxidised with nitrate are summarised as “nitrate-dependent iron oxidation” (Scholz et al. 2016). Water-soluble Fe(II) is generally less reactive, but it is readily utilised by microorganisms as an electron donor (Straub et al. 1996). These microorganisms include aerobic acidophilic (Bonney and Holmes 2012), micro-aerobic neutrophilic (Krepski et al. 2012), and anaerobic bacteria using light (Hegler et al. 2008) or nitrate-dependent Fe(II)-oxidising bacteria (NDFOB) (Straub et al. 1996), which have been found in many different environments including soils, freshwater sediments, marine sediment, and hypersaline sediments (Shelobolina et al. 2012; Rowe et al. 2014; Laufer et al. 2015). Most NDFOB can reduce nitrate to nitrite, followed by further reduction to NO, N₂O, and N₂ (Chakraborty and Picardal 2013; Melton et al. 2014). The identification of NDFOB strains and investigation of functional enzymes involved in nitrate-dependent iron oxidation could be performed using molecular sequencing and transcription techniques (Beller et al. 2013; Dubinina and Sorokina 2014; Li et al. 2018; Hu et al. 2019). In addition, the critical metabolic components of NDFOB could be identified by whole-genome sequencing (Hu et al. 2017).

Various enzymes involved in the main reaction phase of nitrogen cycling have been discovered in lake sediments, and some scholars have conducted in-depth research on denitrifying enzymes (Cao et al. 2008; Gardner and White 2010). The conversion process of nitrogen compounds to nitrate can be carried out not only in microbial cells but also under enzymatic reactions. A specific enzyme, especially in anaerobic conditions, was involved in each stage of the nitrate transformation process. In contrast to our knowledge of NDFOB, it is largely unknown whether the reaction concerning nitrate reduction coupled with Fe(II) oxidation is related to denitrification enzyme activity (DEA) responsible for the process of nitrate reduction.

With the increase in nitrogen input to a lake, the likelihood of eutrophication increases, resulting in more frequent anoxic conditions in the lake. Hence, more transformation of Fe(III) to Fe(II) occurs, and the role of nitrate-dependent iron oxidation becomes more important. However, an understanding of the internal relationship between nitrogen transformation and nitrate-dependent iron oxidation under increasing nitrate and Fe(II) is still lacking. In this study, a 30-day incubation

experiment with the sediments and overlying water from a freshwater lake was carried out. The nitrogen cycle, including water and gas, and its response to Fe(II) oxidation were investigated. We also assessed the possible effect of nitrate-dependent Fe(II) oxidation on denitrification enzyme activity and NDFOB numbers in sediments. Our aim was to better understand the connection between Fe(II) oxidation and the nitrogen cycle through denitrification.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Sampling

Lake Moshui, a freshwater lake with an area of 3.14 km² and a mean depth of approximately 1.2 m, is located in Wuhan, Hubei Province, China. The sediments and overlying water of Lake Moshui were taken from eight sites on April 9, 2018 (Fig. 1). The sediments at a depth of 10–15 cm were collected using a Petersen grab dredge and stored in a bag, and 10 L overlying water at each site was stored in a bucket. The pH, EC, dissolved oxygen (DO), and water temperature of the overlying water were measured in situ using a water quality analyser (EXO3, YSI international Co., Ltd., USA). In addition, several 200-mL glass bottles pre-filled with 4 mL hydrochloric acid solution were filled with overlying water and sealed with a rubber stopper for Fe(II) and Fe(III) analysis. The parameter properties in the overlying water and sediments are listed in Tables 1 and 2. All samples were stored at 4 °C before the incubation experiments.

2.2 Sediment slurry incubations

The sediments and overlying water were prepared for the incubation experiment by mixing an equal amount of sample from the eight sites. Then, 100 g of fresh sediments and 400 mL of overlying water were added to 500-mL plastic bottles. One hundred eight bottles were prepared and split into three groups: a control group (CK), with original sediments and overlying water, and two treatment groups, to which NaNO₃ was added to obtain a concentration of 32.5 μM nitrate (N group) and NaNO₃+FeSO₄·7H₂O was added simultaneously to obtain the concentrations of 32.5 μM nitrate and 71.25 μM Fe(II) (N+F group). All incubation bottles were then sealed with an inner lid and outer lid to achieve anoxic conditions. Two needles fitted with a three-way valve were inserted into the inner lid for gas and solution sampling. The three groups were then placed on a shaking table (50 r min⁻¹) at 25 °C for 10 min, followed by incubation in a dark incubator at 25 °C.

At each sampling time, 0, 0.5, 1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30 days, the incubation bottles were removed from the three groups. Three replicates were used in each group. The gas was sampled before the determination of other parameters.

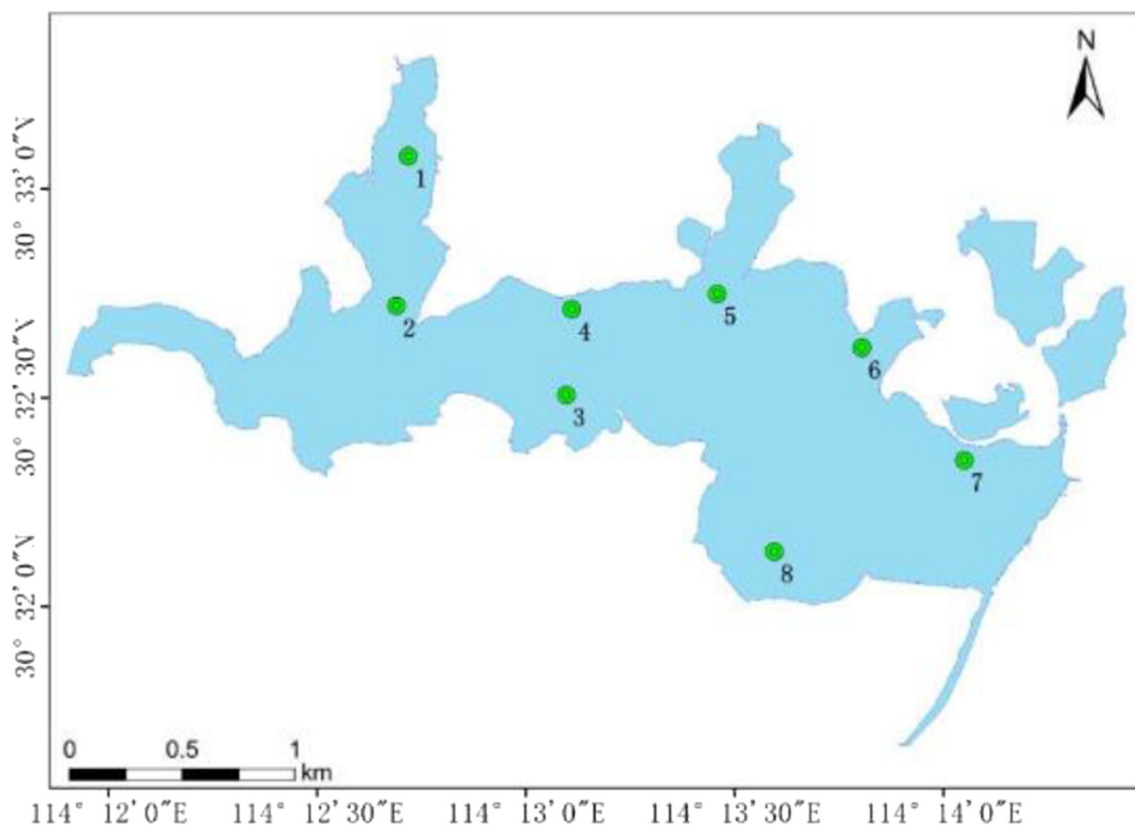


Fig. 1 Location of the sampling sites in Lake Moshui (site 1, 30°33'06.4" N 114°12'45.7"E; site 2, 30°32'44.9"N 114°12'44.0"E; site 3, 30°32'32.1"N 114°13'08.4"E; site 4, 30°32'44.4"N 114°13'09.2"E; site 5, 30°32'46.6"N 114°13'30.1"E; site 6, 30°32'38.9"N 114°13'50.9"E; site 7, 30°32'22.7"N 114°14'05.6"E; site 8, 30°32'09.6"N 114°13'38.3"E)

The pH and DO were measured in situ. Similarly, the sediment samples were freeze-dried (− 80 °C) for the following determinations.

An additional experiment was conducted to justify that the dominant reaction was biotic or abiotic. Sterilised (121 °C for 20 min) and unsterilised samples of the sediments and overlying water taken from Lake Moshui were prepared. The subsequent procedure was as described above for the N+F group, and the samples were prepared in triplicate. Gas for N₂O flux determination after 1 day and water for nitrate determination after 18 days were taken with the aforementioned syringes.

2.3 Analysis and calculation

Overlying water was filtered (0.45 μm) for the measurements of nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium with standard photometric techniques (State Environmental Protection Administration of

the People’s Republic of China 2002), and total nitrogen (TN) concentrations were measured using the oxidation method of alkaline potassium persulfate (Valderrama 1981). Dissolved iron in the overlying water and sediments was measured photometrically using the Ferrozine assay (Viollier et al. 2000). The pH and DO concentrations of the overlying water were determined using a water quality analyser (EXO3, YSI international Co., Ltd., USA). N₂O and CO₂ concentrations were analysed by a gas chromatograph (7890A, Agilent technologies Co., Ltd., USA) equipped with an electron capture detector. The concentrations of N₂O and CO₂ in the headspace gas were determined, and the N₂O and CO₂ fluxes were calculated using the following Eq. 1 (Hayakawa et al. 2013) and Eq. 2 (Wang et al. 2016), respectively.

$$F_{N_2O} = [\rho \times C \times (V_g + \alpha V_L) \times 273 / (273 + T)] / (M \times \Delta t) \quad (1)$$

$$F_{CO_2} = [\rho \times C \times V_g \times 273 / (273 + T)] / (M \times \Delta t) \times 12 / 44 \quad (2)$$

Table 1 Physicochemical properties and nitrogen contents of the overlying water from Lake Moshui

Depth (m)	Temperature (°C)	DO (mg L ⁻¹)	EC (μs cm ⁻¹)	pH	NO ₃ ⁻ (mg L ⁻¹)	NO ₂ ⁻ (mg L ⁻¹)	NH ₄ ⁺ (mg L ⁻¹)	TN (mg L ⁻¹)
1.0	17.8–19.7	4.9–6.8	581–874	7.9–9.1	0.21–0.41	0.03–0.04	3.0–5.3	3.2–7.1

Table 2 Contents of different parameters in the sediments from Lake Moshui

Organic C (g kg ⁻¹)	TN (g kg ⁻¹)	NH ₄ ⁺ (g kg ⁻¹)	NO ₃ ⁻ (mg kg ⁻¹)	NO ₂ ⁻ (mg kg ⁻¹)	Fe _T (%)	Fe _d (g kg ⁻¹)	Fe _{HCl} (g kg ⁻¹)
59–105	3.8–5.8	0.36–0.93	55–148	0.02–0.44	4.8–7.2	36–52	22–39

Fe_T , total iron; Fe_d , iron extracted by dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate; Fe_{HCl} , HCl-extractable iron

where F_{N_2O} and F_{CO_2} are the N₂O and CO₂ fluxes (μg N kg⁻¹ day⁻¹), respectively, M is the dry weight of the sediment (kg), Δt is the incubation time (day), ρ is the density of N₂O and CO₂ under standard temperature and pressure (1.25 g L⁻¹ and 1.977 g L⁻¹, respectively), C is the concentration of N₂O and CO₂ (ppmv), V_g is the headspace volume of the incubation bottle (L), α is the Bunsen coefficient of N₂O (0.549 at 25 °C) (Tiedje 1994), V_L is the liquid volume (L), 273 is the conversion factor between degrees Celsius and kelvin, T is the temperature (°C), and 12/44 is the conversion factor from CO₂ to C.

The C₂H₂ inhibition method (Smith and Tiedje 1979) was used to determine the DEA of the sediment. NDFOB inoculation was conducted at the UV sterilisation station. The sediment samples were diluted to five gradients, 10⁻³, 10⁻⁴, 10⁻⁵, 10⁻⁶, and 10⁻⁷, and each dilution had five replicate series. Following the preparation of a serially diluted suspension, vitamins and trace metals (10 mL L⁻¹ each) from stock solutions (Bruce et al. 1999) were added into the incubation tubes containing 1 mL serially diluted suspension. Sodium pyrophosphate (0.1%) was added to the incubation tubes sterilised prior to use. The incubation tubes were then filled with three different bicarbonate-buffered freshwater basal media (Weber et al. 2006c). For incubation of dilution, all incubation tubes were closed with butyl rubber stoppers to achieve anoxic conditions and incubated in a dark biochemical incubator at 25 °C. After 6 weeks of incubation, the growth was detected by the presence of a brownish-red or brownish-green precipitate in the incubation tubes (Weber et al. 2006c). The NDFOB in the incubation tubes were counted according to the MPN method (Cochran 1950).

2.4 Statistical analyses

The correlation between parameters was analysed by Pearson correlation analysis. F statistics were generated in SPSS 20.0 to evaluate the relationship of Fe(II) oxidation and N₂O flux. Data from the sediment slurry incubation experiment were analysed for significant differences in N₂O cumulative emission of representative days by comparison using a t test in SPSS 20.0.

3 Results

3.1 DO, pH, and nitrogen in the overlying water

The DO concentration in the three groups showed a sharp decrease after 1 day of incubation, followed by a plateau range of 0.6–1.0 mg L⁻¹ (Fig. 2). A decrease during the early days was observed for the pH of all the groups, but little change in pH was found after 10 days of incubation. In general, the pH of the N and the N+F groups showed lower levels than that of the CK group, indicating that more H⁺ was produced after nitrate input during the incubation.

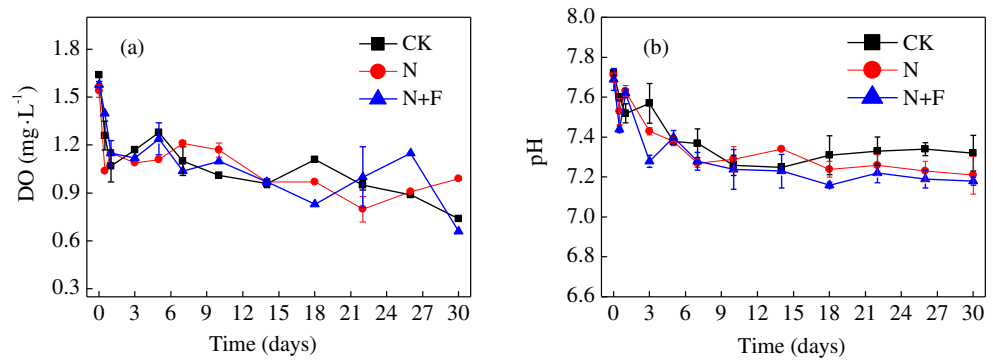
No sharp decrease in nitrate concentrations was observed in the overlying water of the CK group, whereas an obvious decrease in nitrate concentrations occurred in the N group and N+F group mainly due to denitrification (Fig. 3a). The reduction rate of nitrate in the N group (0.071 day⁻¹, $R^2 = 0.9300$) and N+F group (0.089 day⁻¹, $R^2 = 0.9797$) followed the pseudo-first-order reaction in the first-week incubation, consistent with a previous study by Pyzola (2013). After the 30-day incubation, the nitrate removal efficiencies in the N group and N+F group were 75.7% and 81.9%, respectively.

Contrary to the nitrate decrease, the nitrite concentrations in the N and N+F groups illustrated a rising profile before 22 days (Fig. 3b). Nitrite concentrations for CK remained relatively stable during the incubation. Ammonium concentrations continued to be released from the sediment to the overlying water (Fig. 3c), probably attributed to the ammonification by the microorganisms in the sediments. Ammonium concentrations were higher in the CK group than those in the other two groups from 7 to 30 days. Drastic decreases in TN concentrations after 1 day of incubation were observed in all the samples (Fig. 3d), consistent with the decrease in DO. Despite the initial nitrate input, TN concentrations in the N group and the N+F group were lower than those in the CK group in most cases, suggesting much more rapid denitrification in the sediments.

3.2 Fe(II) and Fe(III) concentrations in the overlying water

The oxidation rate of Fe(II) followed the pseudo-first-order reaction in the N group and the N+F group in the first 5-day incubation (Fig. 4), and the rates were 0.064 day⁻¹ ($R^2 = 0.8892$) and 0.079 day⁻¹ ($R^2 = 0.9670$), respectively. No

Fig. 2 DO concentrations and pH in the overlying water during the incubation



significant change in Fe(II) concentration was observed for the CK group ($P > 0.05$). After the 30-day incubation, the decrease in the percentages of Fe(II) concentration in the N+F group (47%) and the N group (43%) was similar but higher than that in the CK group (23%). As the initial Fe(II) concentration in the N+F group was the same as that in the CK group, a lower concentration at the end of incubation meant that more rapid transformation of Fe(II) occurred in the N+F group.

A drastic increase in Fe(III) in all groups was observed after a 1-day incubation, resulting from Fe(II) transformation. For the N+F group, the 30-day decrease in Fe(II) concentration was approximately $57 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, whereas only a $42 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ increase in Fe(III) concentration was found. The increase in Fe(III) concentration was not equal to the decrease in Fe(II) oxidation, probably attributed to the production of poorly soluble Fe(III) minerals.

3.3 N₂O emissions

The anoxic conditions promoted denitrification, leading to a peak of N₂O fluxes in all groups after 1 day (Fig. 5). A slow decline was illustrated during the latter incubation period. The N₂O fluxes were significantly higher in the N and N+F groups than those in the CK group ($P < 0.05$), indicating that N₂O emissions were promoted with nitrate addition. The N₂O fluxes in the N and N+F groups ranged from 15.7 to $23.5 \mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ after 21 days and were higher than those in the CK group ($5.4\text{--}7.3 \mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$). In addition, the N₂O emission in the N+F group was higher than that in the N group, and the difference could be mediated by the Fe(II) addition. During the whole incubation period, no significant differences in CO₂ fluxes among the N, N+F, and CK groups ($P > 0.05$) were observed.

Fig. 3 Nitrogen concentrations in the overlying water during the incubation. NO₃⁻-N (a), NO₂⁻-N (b), NH₄⁺-N (c) and TN (d)

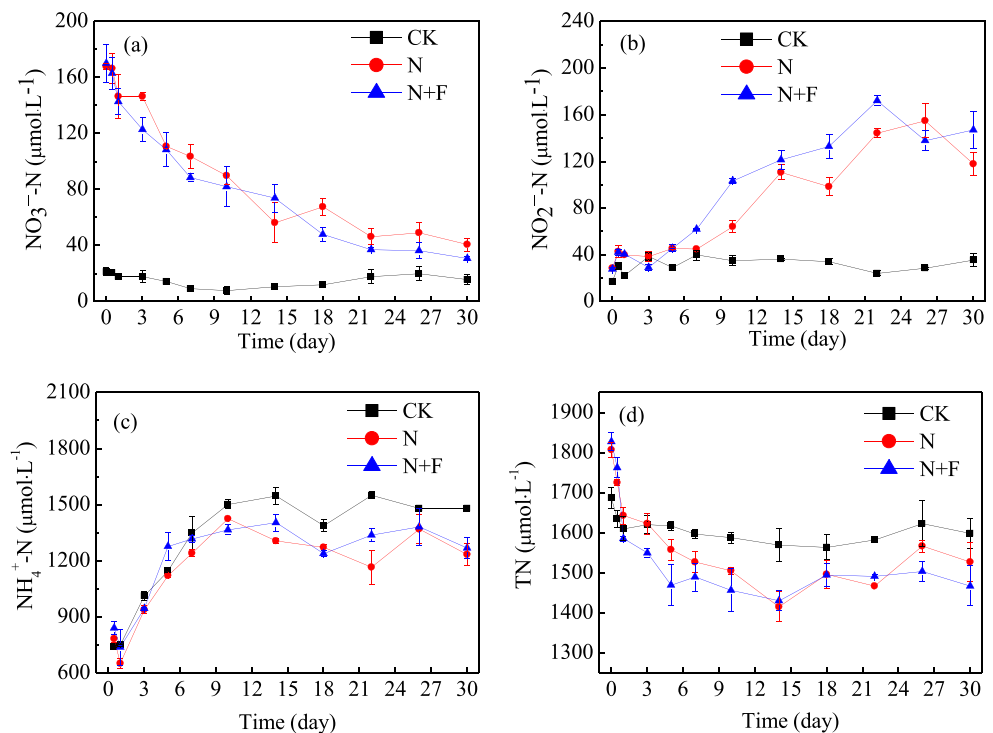
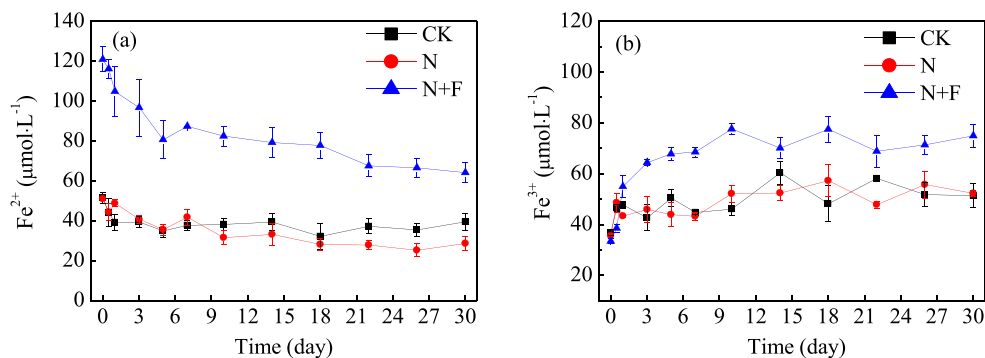


Fig. 4 Fe(II) (a) and Fe(III) (b) concentrations in the overlying water during the incubation



3.4 DEA and NDFOB numbers in the sediment

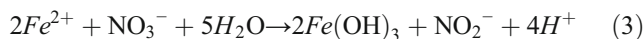
The denitrification in the sediments was accelerated as the DO decreased drastically during 1 day of incubation, which could be reflected by the DEA (Fig. 6). Similar to the N₂O emission, the DEA in the three groups showed a high level after 1 day, indicating an internal connection between N₂O production and DEA, and then fluctuated between 6 and 9 mg N kg⁻¹ h⁻¹. Although no significant differences ($P > 0.05$) in DEA were observed among the three groups, the DEA of the N+F group was generally higher than that of the CK group and the N group.

The NDFOB in the sediments was approximately 1×10^5 cells g⁻¹ wet sediment for all the three groups at the beginning of the incubation (Fig. 6). Comparing cell numbers in the three groups, we observed a similar development of cell numbers within the first 3 days: the exponential growth phase appeared shortly after incubation, and all samples reached a cell number of 9.0×10^5 cells g⁻¹ wet sediment. After 7 days, the growth of NDFOB in the N and N+F groups was faster than that in the CK group. The cell numbers in the three groups were then kept stable after 10 days. The cell numbers of NDFOB at the end of incubation in the CK group, N group, and N+F group were 9.5×10^5 , 1.1×10^6 , and 1.4×10^6 cell g⁻¹ wet sediment, respectively.

4 Discussion

4.1 Transformation of nitrogen coupled with iron oxidation in the overlying water

Nitrate coupled with Fe(II) oxidation results in the production of nitrite, N₂O, N₂, or ammonium, related to the physicochemical properties of water and the authigenic Fe minerals (Weber et al. 2006b; Scholz et al. 2016; Robertson and Thamdrup 2017). Compared with the N group, the N+F group showed higher nitrate reduction and nitrite production in the overlying water. This finding could be attributed to the following reaction (Scholz et al. 2016):



Based on the pH, nitrate, nitrite, and Fe(II) concentrations of the incubation experiment, the Gibbs free energy was calculated, $\Delta G = -98.8$ kJ/mol, indicating that the oxidation of Fe(II) was favourable in the anoxic sediment slurry incubation and provided powerful support for the continued increase in nitrite concentration in the N and the N+F groups. Lower concentrations of ammonium in the N and N+F groups than in the CK group were probably caused by the anaerobic ammonium oxidation (anammox), as an increase in nitrite production appeared in the two groups. However, anammox, one of the pathways for nitrogen removal in the watershed (Yu

Fig. 5 Variations in N₂O (a) and CO₂ (b) fluxes in the overlying water during the incubation

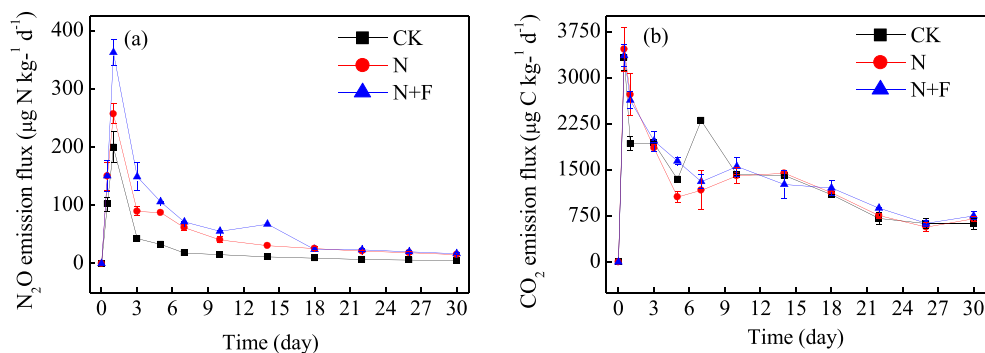
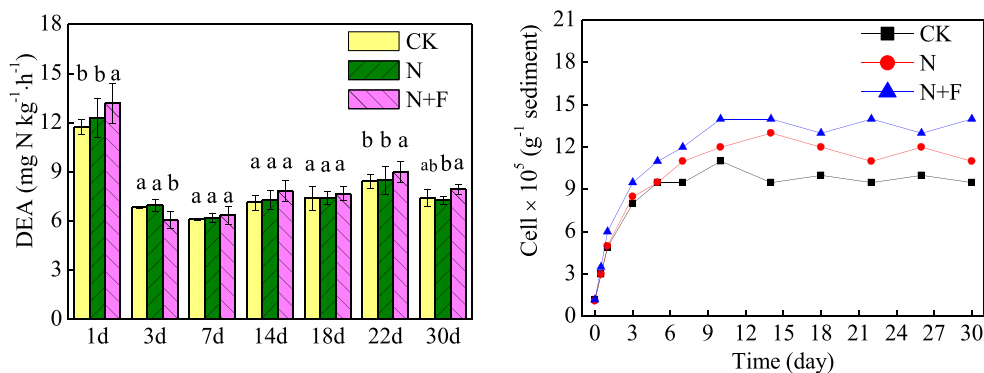
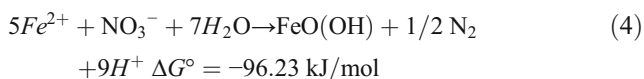


Fig. 6 DEA and NDFOB numbers in the sediments during the incubation



et al. 2016), usually played a minor role compared to the denitrification process (Schubert et al. 2006; Han et al. 2014). There was a significant relation between TN and nitrite ($R = -0.791$, $P < 0.01$). An apparent decline in total nitrogen in the N and N+F groups (Fig. 7) meant that a reducing gas such as N_2O and N_2 was formed, by which nitrogen left the aqueous phase for the gas phase.

The consumption of Fe(II) in the N+F group was high during the incubation, especially in the first 3 days, at approximately $8 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$. Fe(II) oxidation with oxygen, either abiotically or microbially induced, is a viable explanation for rapid Fe(II) consumption (Scholz et al. 2016). The increased Fe(III) concentration in the overlying water was not equal to the decreased Fe(II) concentration, probably because both soluble and insoluble Fe(II) were oxidised by bacterium to produce various iron minerals (Chaudhuri et al. 2001; Weber et al. 2006a). In the anoxic water, most iron is rapidly re-precipitated (Scholz et al. 2016). There was a negative relation between Fe(III) and TN ($R = -0.589$, $P < 0.01$), whereas a positive correlation between Fe(III) and nitrite ($R = 0.549$, $P < 0.01$) was found. Nitrogen transformation and iron cycle are potentially coupled in anoxic environments (Kampschreur et al. 2011), and a positive relation was observed between the Fe(II) and nitrate concentrations ($R = 0.483$, $P < 0.05$). The reaction rates of Fe(II) and nitrate were used to establish the slopes of the linear least squares fit of Fe(II) and nitrate, thus estimating the contribution of Fe(II) oxidation to nitrate reduction via the following equation (Eq. 4):



The contribution of Fe(II) oxidation to the reduction of nitrate was estimated to be 27.7% according to the method by Pyzola (2013).

4.2 N_2O production driven by iron oxidation

As nitrite accumulation was known to greatly increase N_2O emission, N_2O fluxes in the N and N+F groups during the incubation were higher than those in the CK group. The sharp

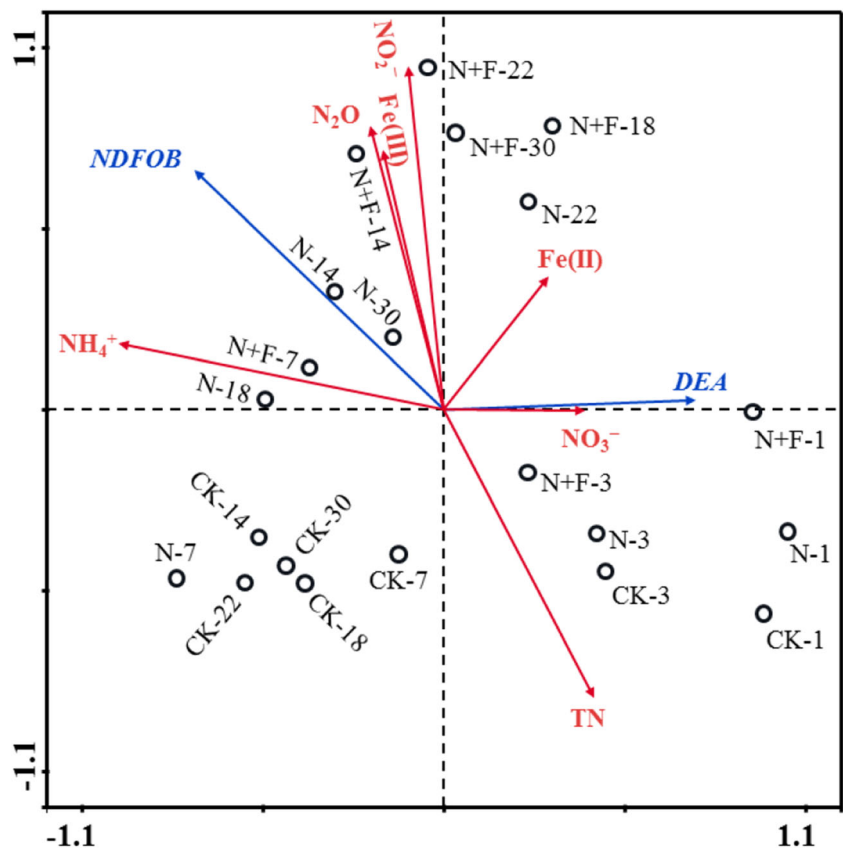
increase in N_2O emission after 1 day indicated that denitrification occurred rapidly in the anoxic conditions (Hibiya et al. 2003). Compared with the cumulative N_2O emissions in the CK group, those in the N group and the N+F group at the end of incubation increased by 157% and 231%, respectively, indicating that nitrate reduction may proceed in a required environment with relatively high concentrations of nitrate related to the high rate of denitrification. A significant positive correlation ($R = 0.757$, $P < 0.01$, t test) between N_2O fluxes and nitrate concentrations indicated that denitrification was most likely the main source of N_2O .

The N_2O fluxes were positively correlated with Fe(II) concentrations during incubation ($R = 0.560$, $P < 0.01$). N_2O cumulative emission in the N+F group was generally higher than that in the N group, indicating that denitrification was stimulated with Fe(II) addition. Organic carbon is often used as the main electron donor for denitrification (Cayuela et al. 2014); however, Fe(II) can also support denitrification by abiotic and biotic pathways (Melton et al. 2014). Hence, the aspect of environmentally unwanted N_2O production enhanced by this pathway should be realised when removing nitrogen from nitrogen-rich and iron-rich waters, especially in anoxic conditions (Kampschreur et al. 2011).

4.3 Microbial properties motivated by nitrate-dependent iron oxidation

The DEA and NAFOB numbers in sediments were important for the denitrification as the sediments were beneficial to nitrogen removal in watershed (Dai et al. 2018). The pH in the overlying water ranged from 7.2 to 7.8 during the incubation, providing a favourable environment for DEA. A previous study (Šimek et al. 2002) showed that the optimum pH for denitrifying bacteria growth and DEA is neutral or slightly alkaline. The DEA in the N+F group was higher than that in the CK group, indicating a high denitrification rate mediated by the Fe(II) addition. The DEA showed an apparent decline in all groups after a week incubation. This result was due to the nitrate-consuming reactions, and the lack of nitrate slowed

Fig. 7 Values of NDFOB and DEA in relation to the concentrations of nitrate, nitrite, ammonium, TN, Fe(II), Fe(III), and the cumulative emission of N_2O during the incubation. Numbers after three groups represent different incubation days

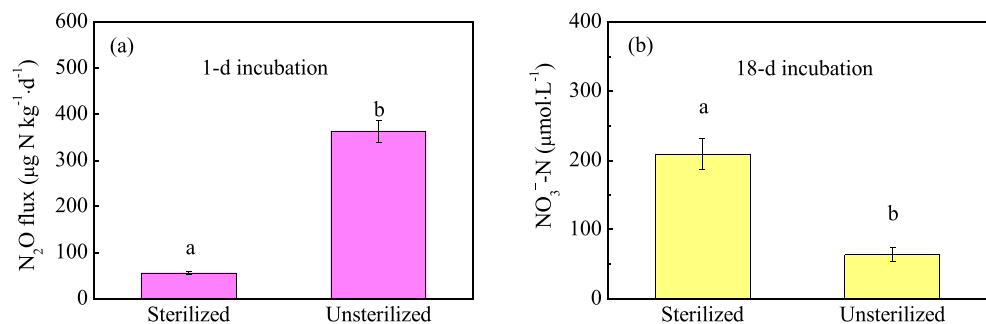


the bacterial denitrification rates. A positive correlation between DEA and N_2O emission ($R=0.711$, $P<0.01$) but a negative correlation between DEA and NDFOB ($R=-0.566$, $P<0.01$) was observed during the incubation (Fig. 7). Hence, the results did not indicate with certainty that the nitrate reduction coupled with Fe(II) oxidation was catalysed by DEA.

A significant relation between NAFOB and nitrite was found ($R=0.769$, $P<0.01$), and the relation between NAFOB and Fe(III) was also significant ($R=0.654$, $P<0.01$). The bacteria in the N group multiplied better than those in the CK group, indicating that NAFOB growth consumed nitrate as the nitrogen source (Straub et al. 1996; Straub and Buchholz-Cleven 1998). The NAFOB numbers in the N+F group were generally larger than those in the CK group, and

the N group during incubation as NDFOB gained more energy with the additional Fe(II), and the activity of nitrate reduction coupled to Fe(II) oxidation was promoted to some extent. A previous study (Weber et al. 2009) has shown that Fe(II) acts as a “second substrate” that provides energy for microbial growth and that abundant energy is beneficial to NAFOB growth. A positive correlation between NDFOB numbers and N_2O cumulative emission was observed (Fig. 7), illustrating that the nitrate reduction coupled with Fe(II) oxidation was driven by bacteria. NDFOB numbers ranging from 1×10^3 to 5×10^8 cell g^{-1} sediment (Hauck et al. 2001; Senn and Hemond 2002; Weber et al. 2006b) were reported, consistent with the number of NDFOB (1.1×10^5 – 1.4×10^6 cell g^{-1} wet sediment) observed in the sediments during the current incubation.

Fig. 8 Comparison of N_2O (a) concentrations and nitrate (b) fluxes between sterilised and untreated samples of the sediment from Moshui Lake. The bars are labelled with the significant differences between the groups ($P<0.05$, t test)



The nitrate concentration in the sterilised sediment was significantly higher than that in the unsterilised sediment on the 18th day of incubation ($P < 0.01$, t test) (Fig. 8). Furthermore, there was a significant difference ($P < 0.01$, t test) in the N_2O fluxes and nitrate concentrations between sterilised and unsterilised sediment incubation (Fig. 8). A N_2O flux of $55.4 \mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ was detected in the sterilised sediment slurry incubation, whereas an abundant N_2O flux of $362.9 \mu\text{g N kg}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$ was observed in the unsterilised sediment after 1 day of incubation. Abiotic denitrification driven by Fe(II) can also occur in sediments, especially in the condition of nitrite accumulation (Kampschreur et al. 2011), and the chemical denitrification of nitrite mediated by Fe(II) oxidation can lead to the formation of N_2O (Kampschreur et al. 2011). The sterilised experiment indicated that the abiotic pathway accounted for approximately 15% of the N_2O production, and the biotic pathway played a major role in N_2O production, i.e., denitrification.

5 Conclusions

The nitrate reduction was accelerated after Fe(II) addition, attributed to Fe(II) used as the second electron donor for denitrification. The contribution of Fe(II) oxidation to the nitrate reduction was 27.7% at the end of the incubation. The Fe(II) and nitrate addition led to an increase in N_2O production, especially after 1 day of incubation. Sterilised experiments suggested that nitrate reduction and its subsequent N_2O reduction were affected by the combination of biotic and abiotic reactions, and the biotic reaction was dominant. The numbers of NDFOB in the sediment during incubation were 1.1×10^5 – 1.4×10^6 cell g^{-1} wet sediment. The current study illustrated that anoxic nitrate-dependent iron oxidation played a non-negligible role in regulating nitrogen transformations, especially in iron-rich freshwater lake sediments.

Funding information This research was supported by National Key R & D Program of China (No. 2017YFC0505305).

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