

How can microbiologists help with N₂O mitigation?

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Extended Abstract

In the biosphere, microbes are the primary producers of N₂O, but also the primary consumers of this climate gas, reducing it to harmless N₂. Thus, the emissions of N₂O is controlled by microbial physiology as constrained by a plethora of physical and chemical constraints of the natural environment. These constraints are normally absent in laboratory cultures of microbes, which has been the primary tool for unravelling their physiology, pathways of N-transformations, and regulatory biology. One may question, whether the knowledge gained through such culturing is relevant for understanding the physiology of organisms in their natural environment, as eloquently phrased by Winogradsky already in 1923: “..one cannot challenge the notion that a microbe cultivated sheltered from any living competitors and luxuriously fed becomes a hot-house culture, and is induced to become in a short period of time a new race that could not be identified with its prototype without special study” [1]. Although Winogradsky’s suspicion has been justified by a wealth of experimental evidence, my claim is that pure culture experiments still are invaluable source of new information that helps to understand, predict and mitigate N₂O emission. I will demonstrate this by four examples: clarification of nitrification driven N₂O emission, modulating denitrification by liming, promising mitigation by rhizobia and by enriching biodigestates with N₂O reducing bacteria. Some of this has been reviewed more thoroughly by Bakken and Frostegård [2], hence I limit the number of references to a minimum in the present text.

Nitrification

Nitrification results in N₂O emission, primarily as a “side product” of ammonia oxidation, both by ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) and –archaeae (AOA) [3]. Both AOA and AOB have been studied in pure cultures, which have demonstrated that the N₂O yield ($Y_{N_2O} = N_2O-N$ as % of oxidized N) is 0.1-1% for AOB and 0.01-0.1 for AOA, and this contrast has also been confirmed by experiments with soils dominated with AOB and AOA [4]. Soils with high pH and at high ammonia concentrations favor AOB over AOA, thus Y_{N_2O} is enhanced by high fertilizer doses, and this effect is further aggravated by the fact that Y_{N_2O} by AOB themselves increase with ammonium concentration [5]. The implications would be that slow release ammonium fertilizers would result in less N₂O emission from nitrification.

Nitrifier denitrification

In theory, AOB can also produce N₂O by denitrification, since they are equipped with genes for both nitrite reductase (NIR) and nitric oxide reductase (NOR). This has spurred an interest

by biogeochemists for nitrifier denitrification as an N₂O source. There is little doubt that they can produce N₂O via NIR and NOR, but the production is miniscule even under hypoxic conditions, and comes to a complete halt under anoxic conditions. Therefore, the term nitrifier denitrification gives wrong connotations, and the experimental evidence suggests that it is rather a pathway for redox balancing at high ammonium concentrations [5,6]. A valid method to determine the rate of nitrifier denitrification in soil has not yet been invented (see [2] and references therein).

Denitrification

N₂O is a free intermediate in denitrification, i.e. the stepwise reduction NO₃⁻→NO₂⁻→NO→N₂O→N₂, catalyzed by the four enzymes NAR/NAP, NIR, NOR and NOS, respectively. The pathway is used by many heterotrophic microorganisms to sustain their respiratory metabolism in the absence of O₂. The N₂O/N₂ product stoichiometry of the process depends strongly on the activity of NOS (relative to that of the other enzymes). Many denitrifying organisms have a truncated denitrification pathway; lacking the gene for 1-3 of the four enzymes, and this has been taken to suggest that the propensity of soils to emit N₂O can be predicted by gene abundance [7]; more specifically the *nir/nosZ* abundance ratio. No consistent relationship between N₂O emission and denitrification gene abundance has been found, however, despite numerous attempts. A plausible explanation is that a majority of active denitrifiers in soils have both *nir* and *nosZ*, hence the N₂O/N₂ product ratio is controlled by their regulatory phenotypes as affected by environmental factors. Among the environmental factors controlling the N₂O/N₂ product ratio of denitrification, the soil pH plays a prominent role: this was discovered already in 1954 [8], but not understood, hence forgotten and rediscovered several times. Recent investigations of the phenomenon, both in the model strain *Paracoccus denitrificans* in soils have clarified that low pH cause high N₂O/N₂ products during anoxic spells is by impeding the synthesis of functional NOS [8]. Thus, the synthesis of functional NOS takes longer time in acid soils than in soils with neutral pH. But once synthesized successfully, NOS functions well at low pH! This explains why the N₂O reduction in drained soils is effectively impeded by low pH, but it also explains why peats and permanently waterlogged soils may effectively reduce N₂O even at low pH.

This opens for mitigating N₂O emissions from farmed soils by increasing the soil pH beyond the minimum for crop growth, either by liming or by biochar. There is ample evidence that this effectively reduces N₂O emission, and implementation of this mitigation option is strongly recommended. The most attractive approach is to lime soils beyond the minimum pH for crop growth, simply because liming is already an established agronomic practice. An objection could be that liming causes emissions of CO₂, at least if adopting IPCC's assumption that all the carbonate-C is emitted as CO₂. This is wrong, however: when liming a moderately acidic soil, less than 50% of the carbonate-C is emitted as CO₂, and the net effect of liming a soil with pH ≥6 is CO₂ sequestration rather than emission [10]. This means that the recommended additional lime to increase pH above the minimum for adequate crop growth causes CO₂ sequestration, rather than CO₂ emission! A revision of IPCC's recommendations for national GHG budgets is clearly needed to pave the way for this mitigation option.

Another objection to liming has been that it accelerates the mineralization of soil organic

carbon, but here is no evidence for this [11].

Engineering the soil denitrification

Is it possible to manipulate the denitrifying communities of soils to enhance N₂O reduction, thus lower their N₂O emission? Recent research has opened two feasible options:

One is to inoculate legumes with rhizobia with strong expression of NOS, as demonstrated by Itakura *et al.* [12]. Recent investigations of rhizobia in our lab (Frostegård *et al.*, unpublished) unraveled that naturally occurring strains are highly variable: some lack *nosZ*, hence those are net producers of N₂O, while others are full-fledged denitrifiers with a strong NOS activity. This underscores that the choice of inoculant when introducing “new” legumes in areas that lack indigenous symbionts is important: if choosing an inoculant without *nosZ*, the N₂O emission will be enhanced, and this symbiont will establish itself in the soil (effectively competing with a second inoculant!).

A second option is to grow N₂O reducing bacteria in digestates from biogas production systems, which will reduce N₂O emission from soils fertilized with the digestates. We have provided the first proof of concept in our lab (Jonassen *et al.*, unpublished), demonstrating fast growth of N₂O reducers in digestates, reaching cell densities of 2*10⁹ g⁻¹ dryweight. Fertilization with this digestate (~10 mg dryweight g⁻¹ soil) resulted in marginal N₂O emission from denitrification compared to the control (digestate without N₂O reducing bacteria).

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