



Molecular hydrogen and carbon monoxide in seawater in an area adjacent to Kuroshio and Honshu Island in Japan



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ABSTRACT

Marine H₂ and CO cycles in the sea adjacent to Honshu Island in Japan were investigated using vertical and diurnal seawater sampling. The vertical profiles of the H₂ concentration differed among three stations that were located near the Kuroshio Current, off Suruga Bay, and in the center of Sagami Bay. Surface H₂ enrichment was found near the Kuroshio Current, whereas subsurface H₂ maxima within the pycnocline appeared at the Kuroshio and Suruga Bay stations. Biological N₂ fixation likely accounts for the surface and subsurface H₂ enrichment while the fermentative H₂ production remains as the other possible process. In addition, twenty-four-hour observation at the Sagami Bay station revealed nearly constant H₂ levels through depth and time, whereas a noon-high surface-high pattern was observed in the CO concentrations.

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1. Introduction

Molecular hydrogen, H₂, is a reducing molecule and a trace component in oxic modern earth (e.g., Novelli et al., 1999; Ehhalt and Rohrer, 2009). In an oxic marine environment, microbial H₂-oxidizing consumption is thermodynamically favorable and indeed occurs. As a result, H₂ is undersaturated with respect to the air-sea equilibrium in large portions of seawater (e.g., Herr et al., 1981; Herr, 1984). However, local and temporal H₂ supersaturation in seawater has been observed at the sea surface of the lower-latitude ocean and coastal basins (Herr and Barger, 1978; Herr et al., 1984; Lilley et al., 1982; Scranton et al., 1982; Scranton, 1984; Schropp et al., 1987; Setser et al., 1982; Conrad and Seiler, 1988; Moore et al., 2009). From the viewpoint of vertical distribution, the H₂ supersaturation typically appears at the surface (Herr and Barger, 1978; Herr et al., 1984; Conrad and Seiler, 1988) and/or the pycnocline (Herr and Barger, 1978; Schropp et al., 1987) except for deep-sea water near geo-fluid venting fields (e.g., Kawagucci et al., 2010). To date, the noon-high temporal variation (Herr et al., 1984; Conrad and Seiler, 1988) and a positive correlation between the H₂ concentration and chlorophyll a concentration (Setser et al., 1982) have also been noted.

Thus far, three biological and one abiotic H₂ generating processes have been proposed to explain the seawater H₂ supersaturation. Among the four processes, H₂ generation associated with biological N₂ fixation is the most thoroughly documented (Herr et al., 1984;

Scranton, 1984; Punshon and Moore, 2008a; Moore et al., 2009). During biological N₂ fixation, which is mediated by the nitrogenase enzyme, H₂ is generated as an obligate byproduct in the following reaction:



Marine N₂ fixation generally functions by the activity of diazotrophic cyanobacteria in the warm and oligotrophic low-latitude ocean waters (Mahaffey et al., 2005; Shiozaki et al., 2010) where H₂ supersaturation has been found (Herr and Barger, 1978; Herr et al., 1984; Moore et al., 2009; Scranton, 1984; Scranton et al., 1982). In fact, simultaneous measurement of H₂ concentration and biological N₂ fixation rate near the ALOHA station in the central Pacific has revealed a positive linear correlation between them, suggesting the predominance of N₂ fixation in H₂ production in that area (Moore et al., 2009). In addition to the N₂ fixation, biological H₂ production mediated by the hydrogenase enzyme associated with anaerobic fermentation (Schropp et al., 1987) and photosystem (Herr et al., 1984; Min and Sherman, 2010) has been accepted as possible processes that relate to the marine H₂ cycle.

A series of photochemical reactions associated with chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) are known to generate H₂ (Punshon and Moore, 2008b). It has been proposed that photolysis of marine aldehydes is a source of H₂ (Herr et al., 1984), whereas the aldehydes themselves are products of the photodegradation of marine CDOM (Kieber et al., 1990; Zhou and Mopper, 1997). Observation of lake and estuary water (in which CDOM was highly enriched) and experiments in these waters have revealed surface H₂ supersaturation and a positive correlation between the H₂ production rate and CDOM absorbance (Punshon and Moore, 2008b).

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The CDOM photolysis also generates carbon monoxide (CO), one of the well-studied trace gases in the marine environment (Conrad et al., 1982; Xie et al., 2002; Nakagawa et al., 2004; Ohta, 1997; Zafriou et al., 2003; Zafriou et al., 2008). Previous studies have documented the surface-high vertical distribution and noon-high diurnal cycle of marine CO. This typical pattern has been considered to be the result of a combination of photochemical CO production and CO losses by microbial consumption and air–sea gas exchange (e.g., Zafriou et al., 2003). In addition, marine CO production by phytoplankton (Gros et al., 2009) and through dark abiotic (presumably thermal) reaction (Zhang et al., 2008) have been also pointed out. Because the CDOM photolysis produces both H₂ and CO, simultaneous evaluation of H₂ and CO behaviors in seawater, particularly diurnal variation of them, is expected to provide a useful constraint more accurately to document contribution of the photochemical production for whole H₂ production.

The objective of understanding the marine H₂ cycle includes not only the prediction of its role in the atmospheric H₂ budget with concern for a future hydrogen-economy (Ehlt and Rohrer, 2009) but also the development of H₂ concentration as a new indicator for the occurrence of biological N₂ fixation (Moore et al., 2009). The current methods for detecting the N₂-fixation activity, acetylene assay and ¹⁵N₂ assay, can provide nitrogen-nutrient flux quantitatively, but essentially require onboard seawater incubation after sampling (Montoya et al., 1996; Konno et al., 2010; Mohr et al., 2010). Onboard H₂ determination has an advantage in immediate detection of the N₂-fixation activity without the need for incubation (Moore et al., 2009) although quantitative conversion from the H₂ production rate to the N₂ fixation rate remains unestablished. Nevertheless, the H₂ indicator, once it is established, does offer potentials in surveying large area of the ocean, detecting local and temporal blooming of diazotrophic cyanobacteria, and guiding the use of the more quantitative incubation-dependent assays. In this study, we established a quick and easy procedure for simultaneous measurement of H₂ and CO in a seawater sample and subsequently observed the temporal and spatial distributions of H₂ and CO in the western North Pacific region adjacent to the Kuroshio Current and Honshu Island in Japan. Possible processes that caused the H₂ enrichment detected at the sea surface and subsurface are discussed.

2. Observations, sampling, and analysis

2.1. Observation and sampling

Seawater samples were collected during the KT-08-14 cruise of the vessel R/V Taisei-maru using a wired Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (CTD)–Carousel-Multiple-Sampling (CMS) system for vertical sampling and a plastic bucket for surface seawater sampling from the gunwale. The wired CTD–CMS system consisted of a CTD profiler (Model 9 Plus, Sea-Bird Electronics), a CMS system (Carousel-32, Sea-Bird Electronics), 12 Niskin-X bottles (12-liter, General Oceanics), a Beckman-type polarographic DO sensor, and an in situ fluorescence sensor (Seapoint Chlorophyll Fluorometer, Seapoint Sensors). Unfortunately, the normal type of Niskin bottles was confirmed to exhibit significant H₂ and CO contamination likely due to the inner tube (data not shown) and was not used in this study.

We conducted vertical hydro-casts from June 27 to July 3 at three stations (Fig. 1 and Table 1), namely, the western North Pacific on the far south of the Honshu Island in Japan (Stn. C: 32°30'N, 138°00'E), off Suruga Bay (Stn. F: 34°30'N 138°30'E), and in the center of Sagami Bay (Stn. G: 35°00'N 139°23'E). The surface seawater at Stn. C was occupied by the Kuroshio water, which is a highly transparent, oligotrophic, warm-water system (e.g., Mizuno and White, 1983). An increase of the filamentous cyanobacteria *Trichodesmium*, which is known as the dominant player in marine biological N₂-fixation activity, and elevation of the N₂-fixation rates were identified in the region from June to August (Shiozaki et al., 2009; Kitajima, 2009). The vertical hydro-casts at Stn. C and Stn. F were conducted before sunset (17:41) and at noon

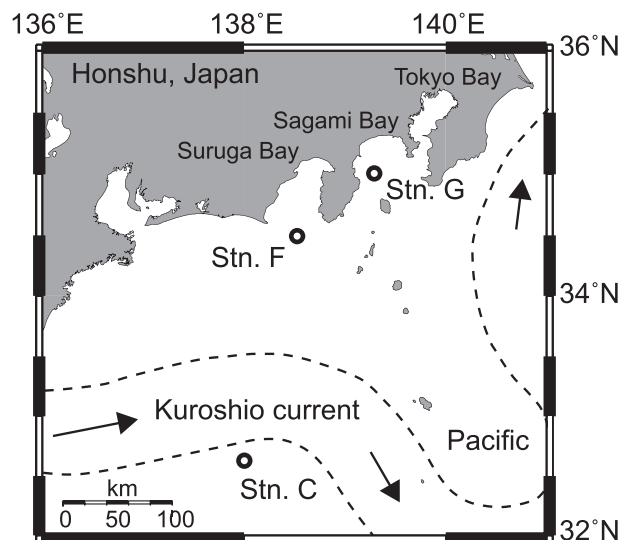


Fig. 1. Map of the study area. Locations of the stations (open circles) in the western North Pacific. The position of the Kuroshio Current during our observation is also presented (data from the Japanese Coast Guard).

(11:22), respectively. At Stn. G, we conducted a series of 24-hour observations via vertical CTD–CMS hydro-casts performed approximately every 6 h (06:00, 13:42, 17:59, 23:58, and 05:59) and surface seawater samplings collected with a bucket at intervals of every 3 h (09:00, 15:00, 21:00, and 03:00 in addition to the five times listed above) from July 2nd to July 3rd. The conditions were mostly sunny during the cruise. The mixed layer depths, defined as the depth at which a change in the surface seawater density (σ_t) of 0.125 occurs (Suga et al., 2004), were 22 m (Stn. C), 6 m (Stn. F), and ~11 m (Stn. G). The vertical DO sensing confirmed oxic seawater throughout the observation, which allowed for aerobic metabolism processes such as H₂ and CO oxidations. Vertical patterns of the in situ fluorescence indicated the maximum intensity at the middle of the pycnocline at all stations that approximately agreed with the phytoplankton chlorophyll a concentrations, determined using subsamples from the Niskin-X bottles by the fluorometric method (Strickland and Parsons, 1972), as modified by Suzuki and Ishimaru (1990), using a fluorometer (Turner Design, Model 10-AU). The sums of the nitrate and nitrite concentrations within the mixed layer were also determined using the subsamples kept frozen prior to the analysis and an onshore nutrient analyzer (AACS-III, BRAN + LUBBE) and ranged between <0.1 $\mu\text{mol-N L}^{-1}$, 0.1–0.6 $\mu\text{mol-N L}^{-1}$, and 0.2–.5 $\mu\text{mol-N L}^{-1}$ at stations C, F, and G, respectively (Table 2).

2.2. Analyses

2.2.1. Analytical method

For the H₂ and CO analyses, seawater in the Niskin-X bottles was introduced into the bottom of a 120-mL brown-colored glass vial with no air bubbles via a PTFE tube. The vial was allowed to overflow by >2 volumes before the tube was slowly withdrawn. After the addition of 0.5 mL of HgCl₂-saturated solution for poisoning, a PTFE-lined butyl-gum septum was used to cap the vial with an aluminum seal. Duplicate vial subsamples were collected and analyzed from each Niskin-X bottle. From the laboratory experiments, significant H₂ and CO increases were observed when a bare (no-PTFE-lined) butyl-gum septum was used (data not shown). The capped vials were stored in a dark refrigerator (approximately 5 °C) prior to analysis.

The H₂ and CO concentrations were determined at an onboard laboratory within 6 h after subsampling into vials to avoid sample alteration during sample storage (see below). The principle of the analytical method in this study (Fig. 2) was based on a previous work (Xie et al., 2002). To

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