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### **Effects of turbulence on carbon emission in shallow lakes**

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#### ABSTRACT

Turbulent mixing is enhanced in shallow lakes. As a result, exchanges across the air-water 16 and sediment-water interfaces are increased, causing these systems to be large sources of 17 greenhouse gases. This study investigated the effects of turbulence on carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) 18 and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions in shallow lakes using simulated mesocosm experiments. 19 Results demonstrated that turbulence increased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, while simultaneously 20 decreasing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by altering microbial processes. Under turbulent conditions, a 21 greater fraction of organic carbon was recycled as CO<sub>2</sub> instead of CH<sub>4</sub>, potentially reducing 22 the net global warming effect because of the lower global warming potential of CO<sub>2</sub> relative 23 to  $CH_4$ . The  $CH_4/CO_2$  flux ratio was approximately 0.006 under turbulent conditions, but 24 reached 0.078 in the control. The real-time quantitative PCR analysis indicated that 25 methanogen abundance decreased and methanotroph abundance increased under 26 turbulent conditions, inhibiting CH<sub>4</sub> production and favoring the oxidation of CH<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub>. 27 These findings suggest that turbulence may play an important role in the global carbon 28 cycle by limiting CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, thereby reducing the net global warming effect of shallow 29 lakes. 30

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#### 45 Introduction

46 Global warming has intensified extreme weather events, such 47 as hurricanes, droughts, heat waves, and floods (Fedorov et al., 48 2010; Min et al., 2011; Tollefson, 2012). The greenhouse gases 49 carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) are two main drivers of 50 global warming, contributing 63% and 18%, respectively (Hu et 51 al., 2017; Smith et al., 2013; Tu and Li, 2017). Current atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are approximately 2.5 and 2 52 times, respectively, pre-industrial levels (Kirschke et al., 2013; 53 Hartmann et al., 2013). Inland waters are considered to be 54 hotspots of CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, which are estimated at 55 0.65 Pg C/year (CO<sub>2</sub> eq) and 1.2–2.1 Pg C/year, respectively 56

(Bastviken et al., 2011; Raymond et al., 2013). Thus,  $CH_4$  and  $CO_2$  57 emissions from inland waters have received considerable 58 research attention. 59

In aquatic systems,  $CH_4$  and  $CO_2$  have different production 60 pathways.  $CH_4$  is primarily produced in surface sediment by 61 microbial communities as part of anaerobic respiration, usually 62 within the first few centimeters of the sediment layer (Conrad 63 et al., 2007).  $CO_2$  is produced by aerobic respiration and 64 acetoclastic methanogenesis throughout the lake and lake 65 sediment (Casper et al., 2000). Microbial  $CH_4$  production 66 (methanogenesis) is achieved by specific groups of Archaea in 67 anoxic environments, where anaerobic degradation of organic 68 matter occurs as a result of fermentation (Nazaries et al., 2013). 69

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CO<sub>2</sub> production is driven largely by the aerobic decomposition of organic matter (Jung et al., 2014; Sobek et al., 2005). Under aerobic conditions,  $CH_4$  can be oxidized to  $CO_2$  by methanotrophic Proteobacteria (Bastviken et al., 2008; Xiao et al., 2013). Thus, environmental conditions strongly influence organic matter mineralization and  $CH_4$  and  $CO_2$  emissions from inland waters.

77 The hydrodynamics of waves created by the wind play an 78 important role in aquatic ecosystems, and turbulence is a 79 ubiquitous hydrodynamic feature of all inland waters, especially shallow lakes (Margalef, 1997). Waves are generated by 80 wind passing over a water surface. As long as the waves 81 82 propagate more slowly than the wind speed just above the waves, there is an energy transfer from the wind to the waves; 83 however, there is little space for wave energy to dissipate in 84 shallow lakes, enhancing turbulent kinetic-energy and turbu-85 lent shear forces (G-Tóth et al., 2011). Lake Taihu is a shallow 86 eutrophic lake in China, with an average depth of 1.9 m. The 87 lake's turbulence is mainly determined by wind velocity, wind 88 direction, and prevailing wind (Qin et al., 2007). Physical 89 90 turbulence can strongly affect the stability of lake water and 91 sediment. Specifically, wind-induced turbulence controls the exchange of material across both air-water and sediment-92 93 water interfaces. Previous studies have shown that distur-94 bance can accelerate the rate at which oxygen diffuses from 95 the atmosphere into the water column (Chatelain and 96 Guizien, 2010; You et al., 2007). By changing the dissolved 97 oxygen (DO) concentration of water, turbulent mixing can shift the mineralization pathways of organic matter, altering 98 99  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$  emissions to the atmosphere (Li et al., 2012; Stoliker et al., 2016), particularly in small or shallow lakes 100 (Holgerson and Raymond, 2016). These studies have focused 101 on the impacts of turbulence and mixing on physical and 102 chemical properties of aquatic ecosystems; however, the 103 fundamental relationship between turbulence and green-104 house gas emissions from lakes has not been fully addressed. 105

This study used simulated mesocosms to investigate the 106 effects of turbulence on lake CH4 and CO2 emissions. CH4 and 107 CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes were measured using a static chamber method 108 throughout the experiment. Methanogen and methanotroph 109 abundances were also analyzed using real-time quantitative 110 111 PCR (qPCR), to illustrate the associated molecular mechanism. We hypothesized that under turbulent conditions, (1) water 112 column oxygenation is enhanced; (2) the heterotrophic 113 microbial community shifts towards taxa tolerant of this 114 oxygenation; and (3) the degradation of organic carbon is 115 changed, decreasing CH<sub>4</sub> and increasing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. 116

#### 118 1. Material and methods

#### 119 1.1. Experimental design

The experiments were conducted in simulated trapezoidal tanks with a upper plane ( $67 \times 30$  cm), a bottom plane ( $53 \times 30$  cm), and a height of 70 cm (Zhou et al., 2016). An energy dissipation plate was placed in the tank to prevent wave rebound, which was fixed by a groove on the side wall and kept parallel to the slope wall at a distance of 2 cm. The detailed description is presented in Appendix A Fig. S1 in the Supporting Materials. Each tank was filled with 0.5 cm thick sediment 127 and 96 L lake water, collected from the center of Meiliang Bay 128 ( $31^{\circ}26'07''$ N, 120°11'18''E), Taihu Lake. Sediment was acquired 129 from the lake bed using a Petersen grab sampler. The collected 130 sediment was placed onto the tank bottom, and then lake water 131 was gently drained into the tanks with a rubber tube. At this 132 location, sediment often suffers wind-induced resuspension, 133 and is homogeneous in the upper 10 cm. The main properties of 134 the sediment are presented in Appendix A Table S1 in the 135 Supporting Materials. The simulated systems were allowed to 136 stand for 3 days before starting the experiment. To be close to 137 field conditions (temperature, light, *etc.*), these tanks were 138 placed and floated in an outside artificial pond ( $10 \times 10 \times 2$  m) 139 on the shores of Taihu Lake.

This experiment included twelve tanks with 4 different 141 treatments: a control without turbulence, low turbulence (LT), 142 medium turbulence (MT), and high turbulence (HT). Each 143 treatment was conducted in triplicate. The LT, MT, and HT 144 tanks were each equipped with one wave-maker pump (WP, 145 Jebao, China), which can produce flow with shear and induce 146 turbulence in the water (Härkönen et al., 2014; Zhou et al., 147 2016). The pump was fixed below the surface of the water 148 when starting the experiment using strong magnets. Prior to 149 the experiment, the pump speed was set by measuring the 150 energy dissipation rate using an acoustic Doppler velocimeter 151 (ADV, 10 MHz ADVField, Sontek/YSI, USA), based on the 152 turbulence conditions observed in Lake Taihu.

The turbulence was measured from the middle of the tank 154 with a 25 Hz measurement for a period of 2 min. The measure-155 ments were started after the turbulent motion in the tank had 156 reached a steady state (approximately 10 min). To define the 157 characteristic speed of the turbulence, the root mean square 158 velocity (U, cm/sec) was calculated by using the following 159 formula: 160

$$U = \sqrt{\mu_{RMS_x}^2 + \mu_{RMS_y}^2 + \mu_{RMS_z}^2}$$
(1)

163

where

$$\mu_{\rm RMS_x} = \sqrt{\left(\sum \mu_x^{2} - (\Sigma \mu_x)^{2} / n\right) / _{(n-1)}}$$
(2)

 $\label{eq:mrss} \begin{array}{l} \mu_{RMSx} \mbox{ is the fluctuation of the flow for Cartesian vector X 166 (which is similarly calculated for the Y and Z vectors). } \mu_x \mbox{ is the 167 instantaneous flow velocity measured by the acoustic Doppler 168 velocimeter and n is the number of samples per measure- 169 ment. U is root mean square turbulent velocity, which was 170 expressed as the average for the whole tank in this study. The 171 energy dissipation rate (m²/sec³), which describes the rate at 172 which the turbulent energy decays over time, was deduced 173 from the U (m/sec) following the formula described by Sanford 174 (1997): 175$ 

Energy dissipation rate = 
$$(A_1 U^3) / L_1$$
 (3)

In this expression,  $A_1$  is a dimensional constant of order 1 178 (Kundu and Cohen, 2010), and l (m) is the water depth associated 179 with the largest vortices. 180

According to the energy dissipation rates in the range of 181 6.01  $\times$  10<sup>-8</sup>–2.39  $\times$  10<sup>-4</sup> m<sup>2</sup>/sec<sup>3</sup> in Taihu, the root mean square 182 turbulent velocity (U) values applied in LT, MT and HT were 183

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