

Supplementary Materials for
**Nutrient management offsets the effect of deoxygenation and warming on
nitrous oxide emissions in a large US estuary**

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Sci. Adv. **10**, eadq5014 (2024)
DOI: 10.1126/sciadv.adq5014

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Supplementary text

Biogeochemical properties of sampling stations

The two sampling stations in the seasonally hypoxic region of the bay had similar hydrographic features: fresher water in the surface overlying saltier deep water (Fig. S1), ranging in salinity from 10 to 20 across the 20 m depth profile, while temperature averaged $\sim 26^{\circ}\text{C}$. However, there were large differences in the concentrations of O_2 , N_2O and dissolved inorganic nitrogen between the two stations. Station CB1.5 had a shallower oxycline and thicker anoxic layer starting at ~ 10 m while the anoxic layer at CB2 started at ~ 13 m.

N_2O concentrations at CB1.5 decreased with depth and reached undersaturation in the bottom water while N_2O concentrations at CB2 increased with depth and were oversaturated compared to the atmospheric equilibrium concentration. Ammonium accumulated up to $11\ \mu\text{M}$ at CB1.5, with urea, nitrite, and nitrate concentrations below $1\ \mu\text{M}$. In contrast, nitrite was the dominant nitrogen nutrient at CB2, reaching up to $4\ \mu\text{M}$. The different biogeochemical properties between the two stations likely reflect the biogeochemical processes occurring during different stages of hypoxia/anoxia or influences from surrounding waters. For example, early development and long duration of low oxygen conditions at CB1.5 likely removed nitrite and nitrate in the bottom water while producing ammonium via denitrification and other nitrogen cycling processes. Low oxygen inhibited ammonia oxidation leading to the accumulation of ammonium. In contrast, dissolved inorganic nitrogen concentrations at CB2 indicate an earlier phase or shorter duration of denitrifying conditions because nitrite and nitrate have not been fully removed.

Model evaluation and limitations

Regional Ocean Modeling System for Chesapeake Bay with Estuarine-Carbon-Biogeochemistry component (ROMS-ECB) has been shown to generally capture the spatiotemporal distributions of observed temperature, salinity, dissolved inorganic nitrogen, O_2 and other environmental variables in previous model evaluation studies (29, 31). Here we evaluated the model performance of the new N_2O state variable included in ROMS-ECB by comparing modeled depth profiles of N_2O concentrations with 291 data points of observed N_2O concentrations in Chesapeake Bay during the summer from this study and previous studies (12, 13, 47). There were large spatiotemporal variations in the modeled distribution of N_2O concentrations (Fig. S7). Modeled N_2O concentrations at CB1.5 were generally higher than observed, likely due to the overestimated oxygen concentrations in the model (Fig. S8). The temporal mismatch may also help to explain the difference between models and observations (monthly mean for the model while summer averages from limited observations). At station CB1.75, located between CB1.5 and CB2 (Fig. S12), where modeled oxygen was closer to observations, the modeled N_2O concentrations also better matched observations – slightly higher than the equilibrium concentration in surface oxygenated waters and undersaturation in the bottom low oxygen waters (Fig. S8). As for station CB2, both modeled depth profiles of oxygen and N_2O concentrations were consistent with observations, successfully reproducing the observed subsurface N_2O peak. Overall, the vertical distribution of N_2O concentrations could be explained by the distribution of N_2O cycling rates. For instance, net positive N_2O production when oxygen concentration was roughly above $20\ \mu\text{M}$ led to N_2O accumulation while net N_2O consumption in low oxygen waters led to N_2O undersaturation (Fig. S12). Unfortunately, N_2O concentrations in other seasons couldn't be evaluated due to the

lack of observations, highlighting the necessity for seasonal observations of N₂O concentrations and cycling processes.

Although our process-based mechanistic parameterizations of N₂O cycling captured the N₂O distribution well, there are still a few aspects of the model that could be improved. Previous modeling studies have showed the contribution of sedimentary N₂O production to inland water N₂O emissions (18, 66). Sedimentary N₂O production in our study is parameterized as a function of nitrification-denitrification (N loss) and N₂O production yield (0.1%), which represents the net N₂O flux from the sediment to the water column (Fig. S13). However, aquatic sediments have been observed to be either sources (83) or sinks of N₂O (84). Sedimentary N₂O production yield varies substantially (ranging from 0 to over 5% across aquatic sediments) and estuarine sediments generally have lower N₂O production yields compared to soils, streams, and other ecosystems (85, 86). Sedimentary N₂O yield could be affected by the availability of nitrate, organic matter, and many other environmental factors. For example, sediments in Narragansett Bay with low nitrate concentrations are often associated with low N₂O yields (84). Sedimentary N₂O production and yield in Chesapeake Bay are largely unknown due to a lack of observations, but may be closer to those in Narragansett Bay since both regions have a similar range of dissolved inorganic nitrogen concentrations and have also experienced managed nutrient reductions (87, 88). Thus, we applied a sedimentary N₂O production yield (0.1%), which was previously observed in Narragansett Bay (86). A higher sedimentary yield (1%) increased the sedimentary N₂O production and flux to the Chesapeake Bay water column (see Model sensitivity analysis where 1% sedimentary N₂O production yield was used for comparison). However, current observations of vertical N₂O profiles in the water column do not suggest a large sedimentary source contributing to the air-sea N₂O flux because N₂O concentrations do not always increase with depth (12, 13, 47). Future observations of sedimentary N₂O cycling are needed to constrain the role of sediments in N₂O emissions in Chesapeake Bay.

In addition, our model does not include an explicit representation of riverine N₂O cycling processes since the model domain is limited to Chesapeake Bay. We prescribed the riverine N₂O concentration using previous observations in the Potomac River (79, 89) and scaled its temporal change along with the atmospheric N₂O variation over time. Overall, the riverine N₂O input and its changes over time are much smaller than internal N₂O cycling fluxes via nitrification and denitrification in Chesapeake Bay. In addition, a recent study found denitrification could contribute to N₂O production in oxygenated coastal waters (53). However, our model could not resolve this phenomenon due to the parameterization of denitrification's oxygen sensitivity (i.e., denitrification is restricted at high oxygen concentration). Although previous studies have shown that N₂O production by denitrification was minimal compared to the N₂O production by nitrification in the oxygenated Chesapeake Bay (13, 48), N₂O production by denitrification in oxygenated estuarine waters should be considered in future model development. Overall, despite the uncertainties in the magnitude/flux of different N₂O cycling processes due to model uncertainties, the sign of changes in N₂O emissions of Chesapeake Bay in response to deoxygenation, warming, and nutrient reduction would likely be the same (i.e., an increase in N₂O production under deoxygenation and warming while a decrease following the nutrient reduction).

Model sensitivity analysis

We performed sensitivity analyses to evaluate the variations in modeled N₂O concentrations/fluxes in response to choices of different model input parameters. Specifically, we varied N₂O production yield from nitrification using the yield derived from marine oxygen minimum zones (35), the oxygen sensitivity of denitrification (90), the rate constant for N₂O reduction, the sedimentary N₂O production yield, and the amount of nutrient reduction (Table S9). A lower N₂O production yield from nitrification led to lower N₂O concentrations and emissions (Fig. S14 and Table S9). In contrast, N₂O concentrations and emissions increased substantially if denitrification was allowed to occur at a higher oxygen concentration. A smaller N₂O reduction constant increased N₂O concentrations and emissions as expected. N₂O emissions increased substantially when a higher sedimentary N₂O production yield was implemented. Finally, a smaller nutrient reduction in 2050 led to a smaller decrease in N₂O emissions (133 Mg N yr⁻¹ when achieving half of the TMDL goal vs 124 Mg N yr⁻¹ when fully achieving the TMDL goal). Overall, N₂O concentrations and emissions are sensitive to the choice of model parameters (particularly the oxygen sensitivity of N₂O production from denitrification and sedimentary N₂O production yield), emphasizing the need of targeted observations to constrain the responses of N₂O cycling processes to oxygen and other environmental factors. For the analysis reported in the main text, we selected the combination of parameters best reproducing the observed N₂O concentrations for estimating N₂O budgets and emissions in current and future scenarios.

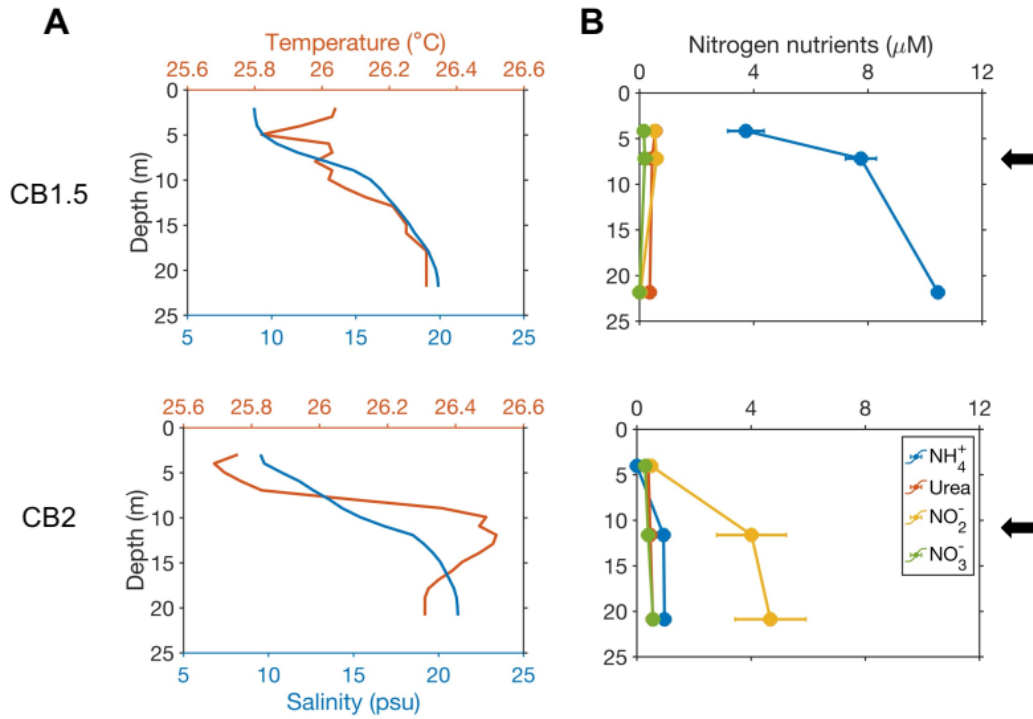


Fig. S1. Observed biogeochemical properties of the two sampling stations. (A) vertical distributions of temperature (red line) and salinity (blue line). (B) vertical distributions of N nutrient concentrations (blue line for NH_4^+ , red line for urea, yellow line for NO_2^- , green line for NO_3^-). Black arrows show the depths where incubation samples were collected.

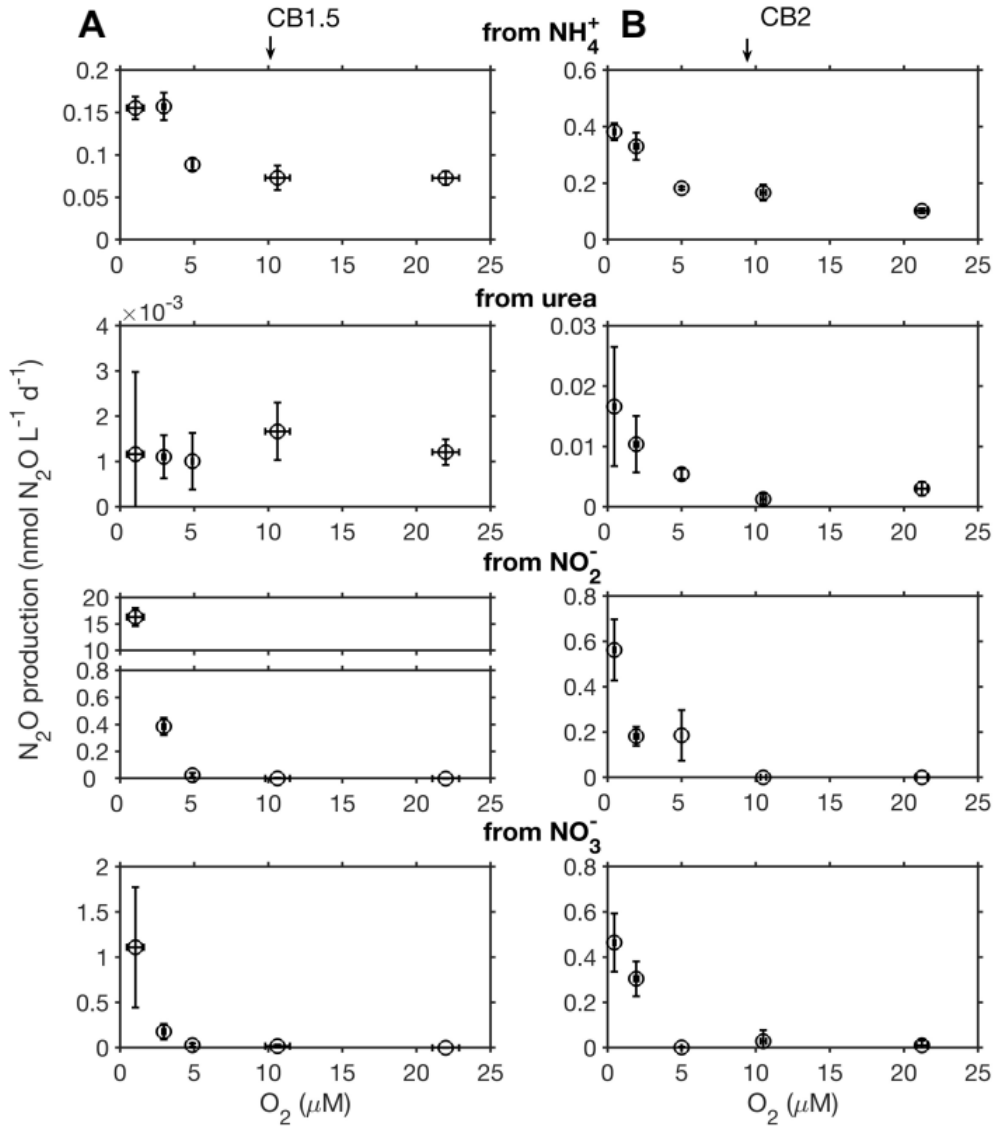


Fig. S2. N₂O production from four N substrates in response to the manipulated O₂ changes for samples collected at stations CB1.5 (A) and CB2 (B). Arrows on the top panels denote in-situ oxygen concentrations at two stations. Vertical error bars represent the uncertainty of linear regression of ¹⁵N-N₂O production during the incubation time course. Horizontal error bars represent variations of oxygen concentrations during the incubations.

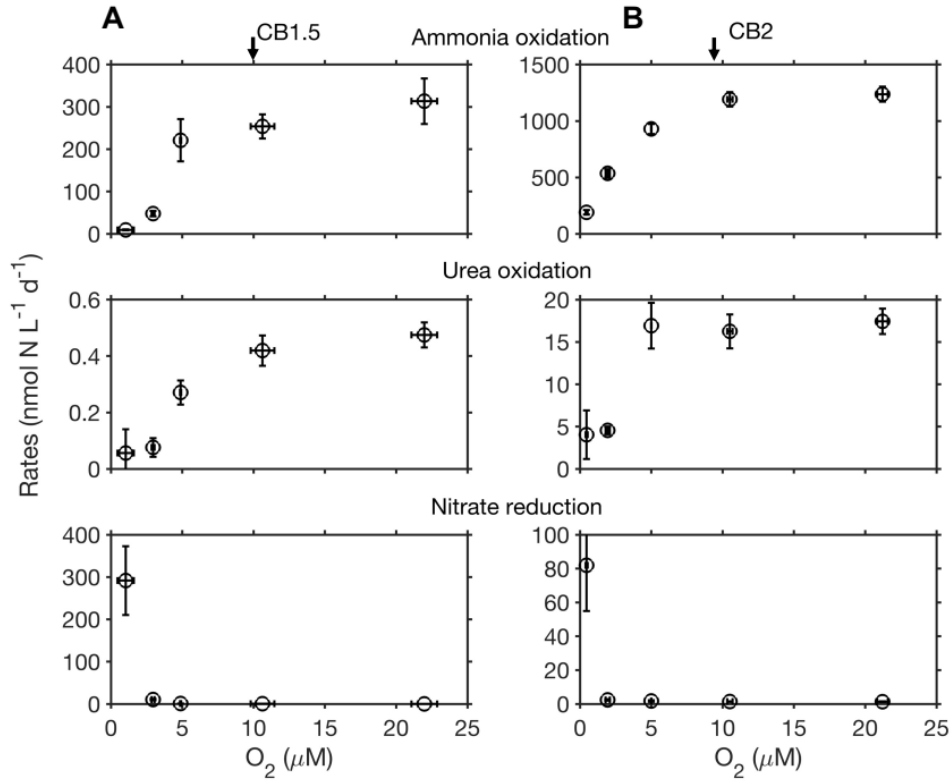


Fig. S3. Nitrite production rate from nitrification (ammonia oxidation and urea oxidation) and denitrification (nitrate reduction) in response to manipulated O₂ changes for samples collected at stations CB1.5 (A) and CB2 (B). Arrows on the top panels denote in-situ oxygen concentrations at two stations.

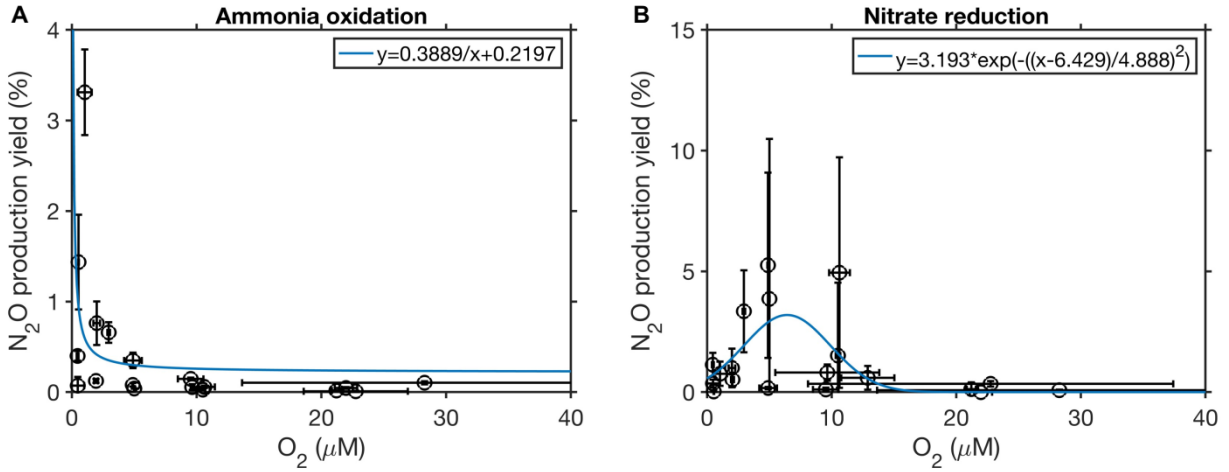


Fig. S4. The measured N₂O production yields and fitted curves in response to oxygen concentration changes from ammonia oxidation (A) and nitrate reduction (B). The extremely high yield at 25.7% for nitrate reduction at 1.94 μM O₂ at CB2 is not included in subplot (B). Data were combined from this study and Tang et al. (2022) (13).

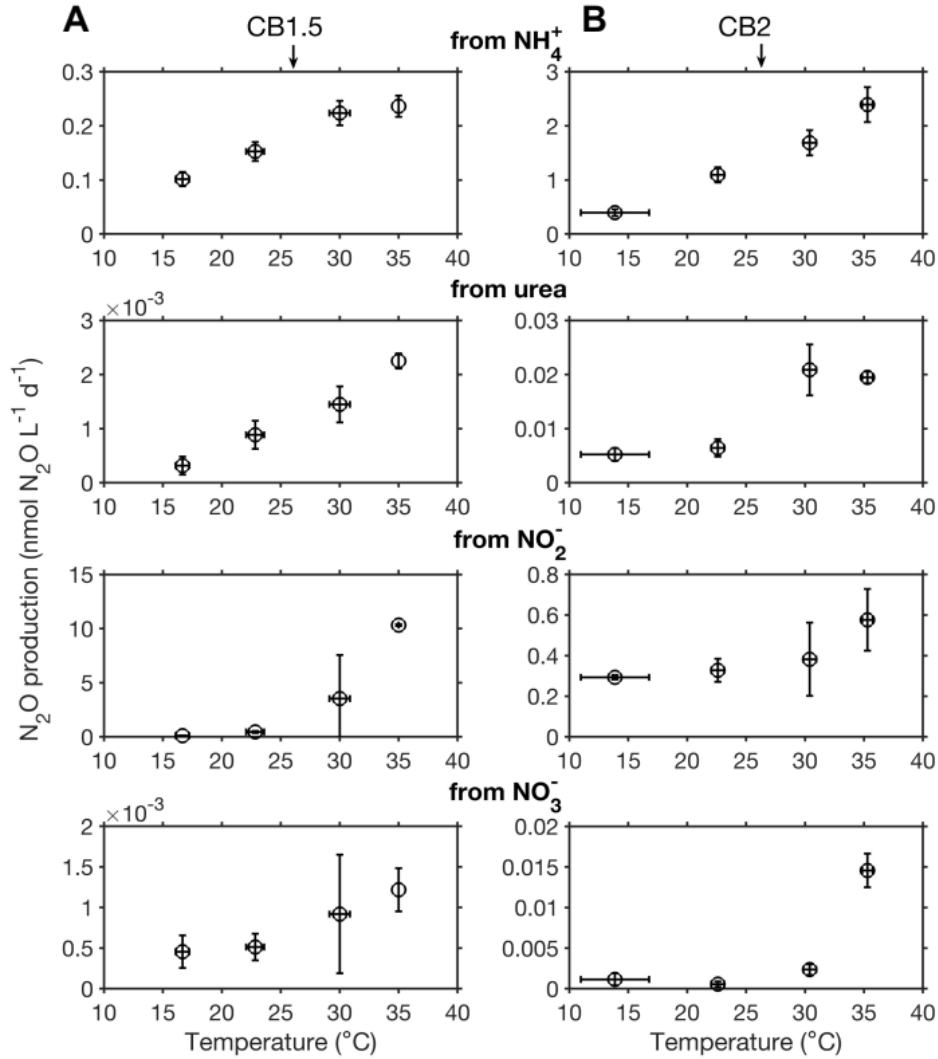


Fig. S5. N_2O production from four N substrates in response to the manipulated temperature changes for samples collected at stations CB1.5 (A) and CB2 (B). Arrows on the top panels denote in-situ temperature at two stations. Vertical error bars represent the uncertainty of linear regression of ^{15}N - N_2O production during the incubation time course. Horizontal error bars represent variations of temperature during the incubations.

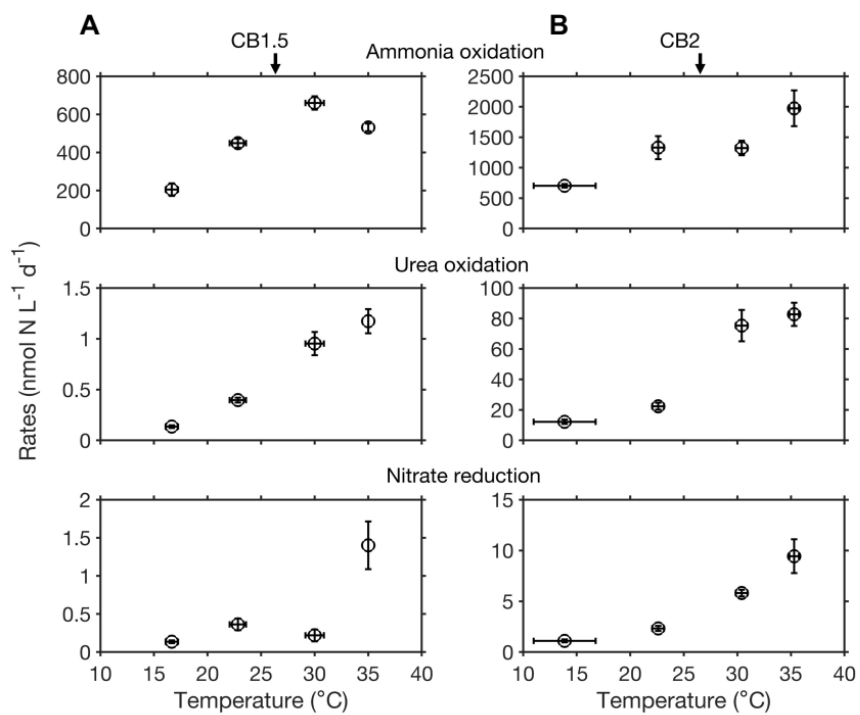


Fig. S6. Nitrite production rate from nitrification (ammonia oxidation and urea oxidation) and denitrification (nitrate reduction) in response to manipulated temperature changes for samples collected at stations CB1.5 (A) and CB2 (B). Arrows on the top panels denote in-situ temperature at two stations.

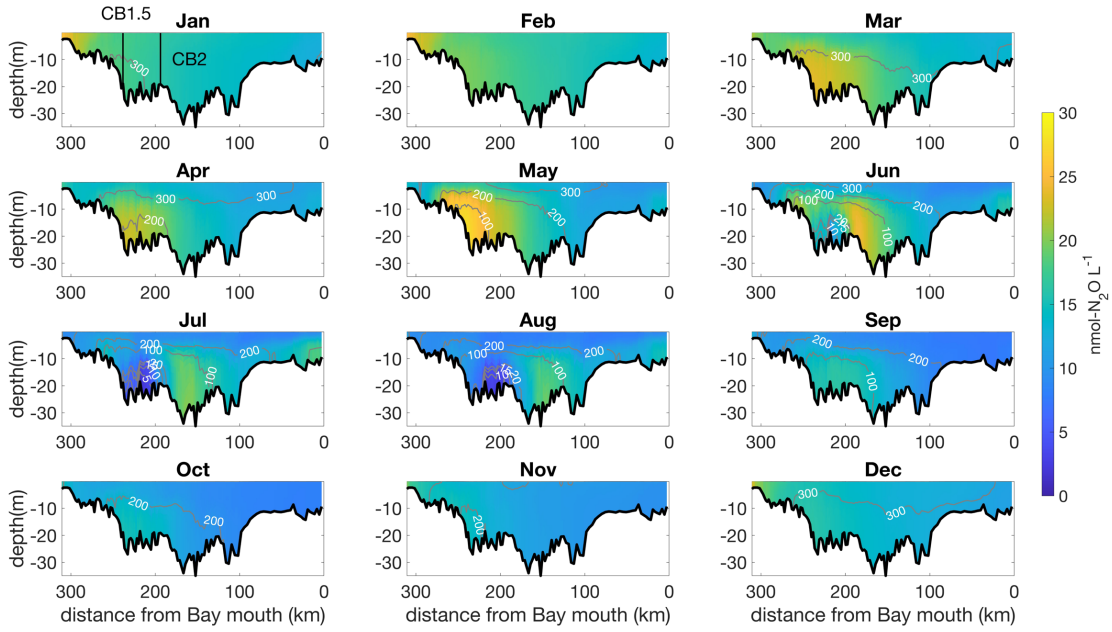


Fig. S7. Transect of modeled monthly mean N_2O concentrations from the Susquehanna River mouth to the Chesapeake Bay mouth in 2016. Black contours with white numbers show the distribution of oxygen concentrations. Vertical black lines in Jan represent locations of stations CB1.5 and CB2.

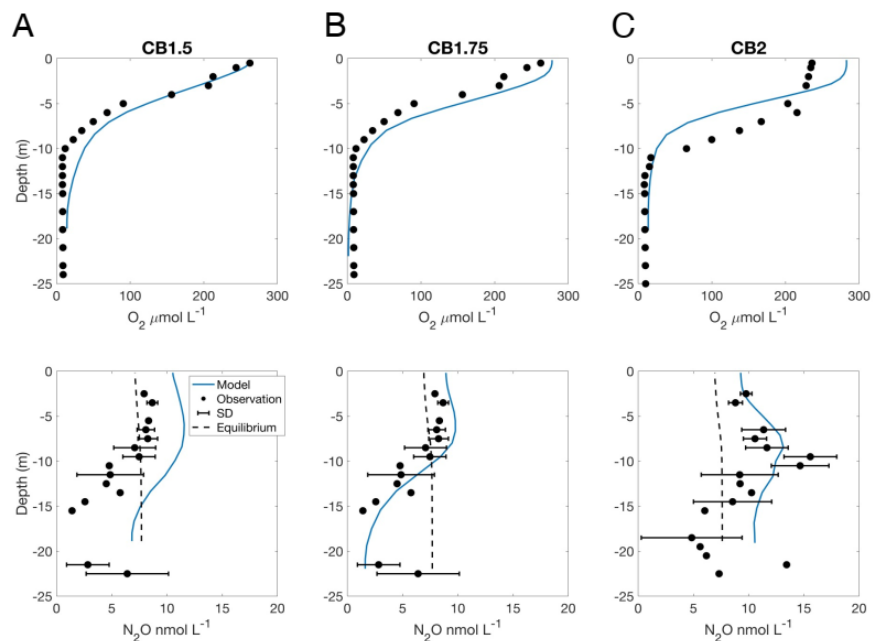


Fig. S8. Comparison of observed and modeled depth profiles of oxygen and N_2O concentrations at stations CB1.5 (A), CB1.75 (B), and CB2 (C) in the summer. Locations of these stations are shown as vertical black lines in Fig. S12. Equilibrium N_2O concentrations with the atmosphere are shown in black dashed lines. Note there is a temporal discrepancy between model results (monthly means of July in 2016) and observations (summer averages from observations conducted in 2013, 2016, 2020, and 2021).

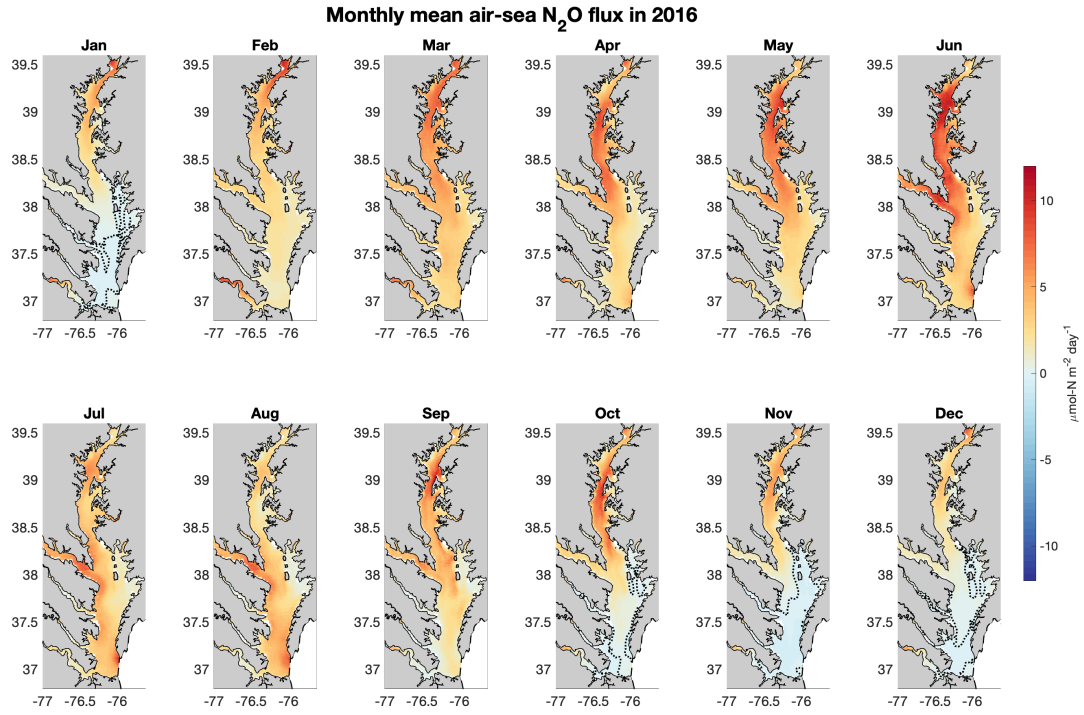


Fig. S9. Modeled monthly mean air-sea N₂O flux in Chesapeake Bay in 2016.

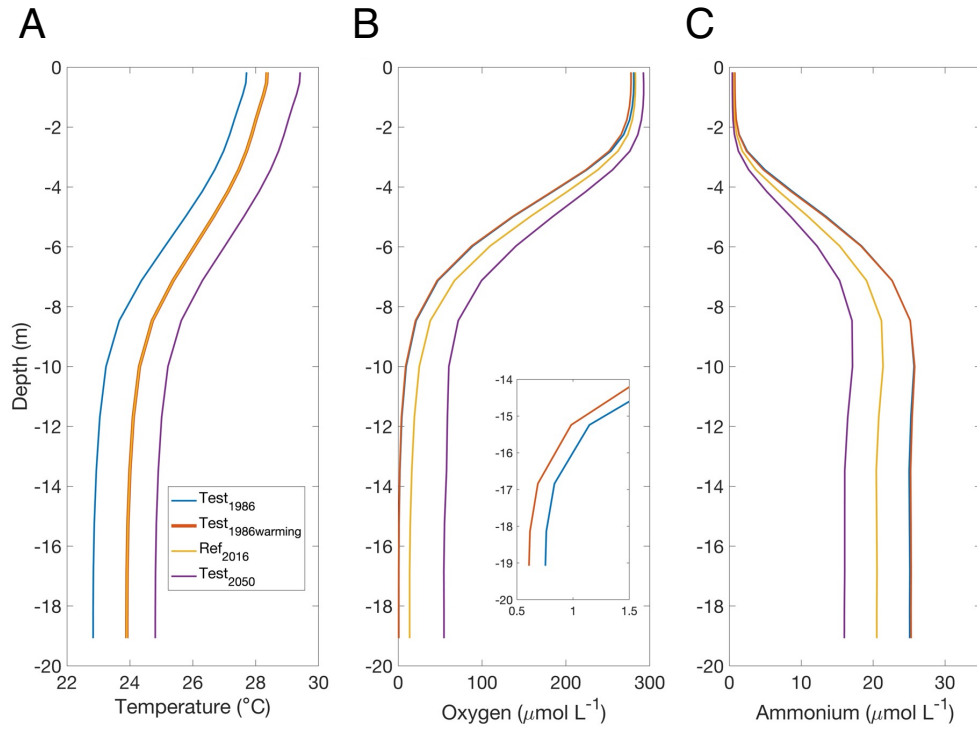


Fig. S10. Vertical distributions of temperature (A), oxygen (B), ammonium concentrations (C) at station CB2 under four model simulation experiments.

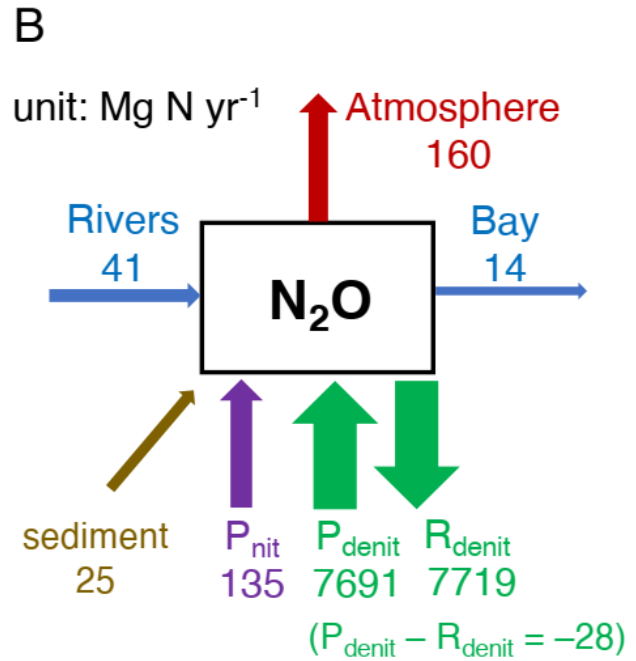
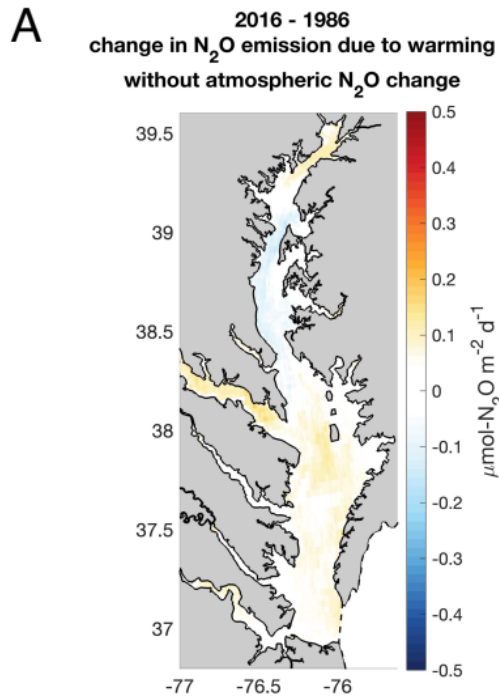


Fig. S11. N₂O flux change (A) and N₂O budget (B) in 2016 under simulated warming from 1986 to 2016 without the increase in atmospheric N₂O concentration.

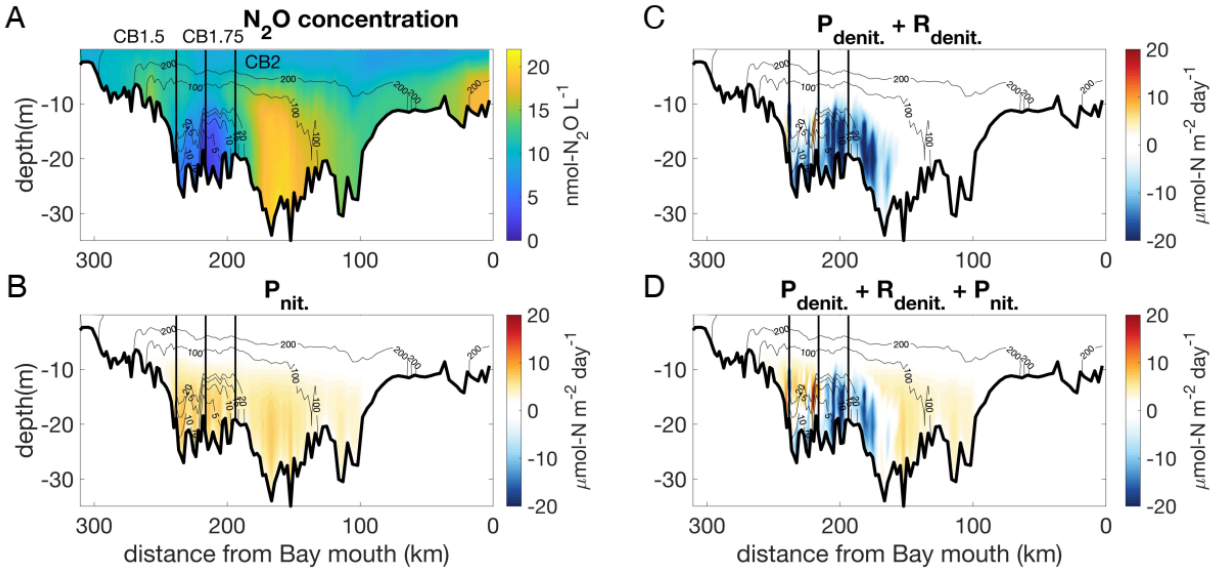


Fig. S12. Transects of modeled mean N_2O concentrations (A) and N_2O cycling processes (B-D) from the Susquehanna River mouth to the Chesapeake Bay mouth in July 2016. N_2O cycling processes include N_2O production from nitrification (P_{nit}), N_2O production from denitrification (P_{denit}) and N_2O reduction from denitrification (R_{denit}). Black contours show the distribution of oxygen concentrations.

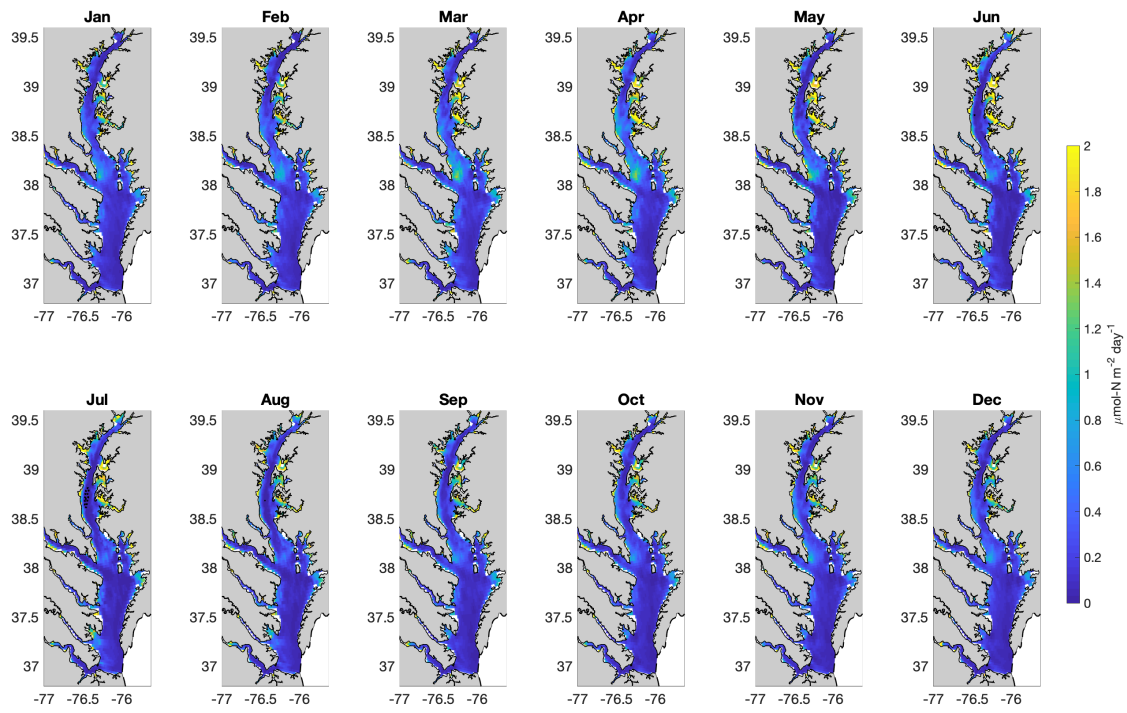


Fig. S13. Modeled monthly variations in mean daily sedimentary N₂O flux to the water column.

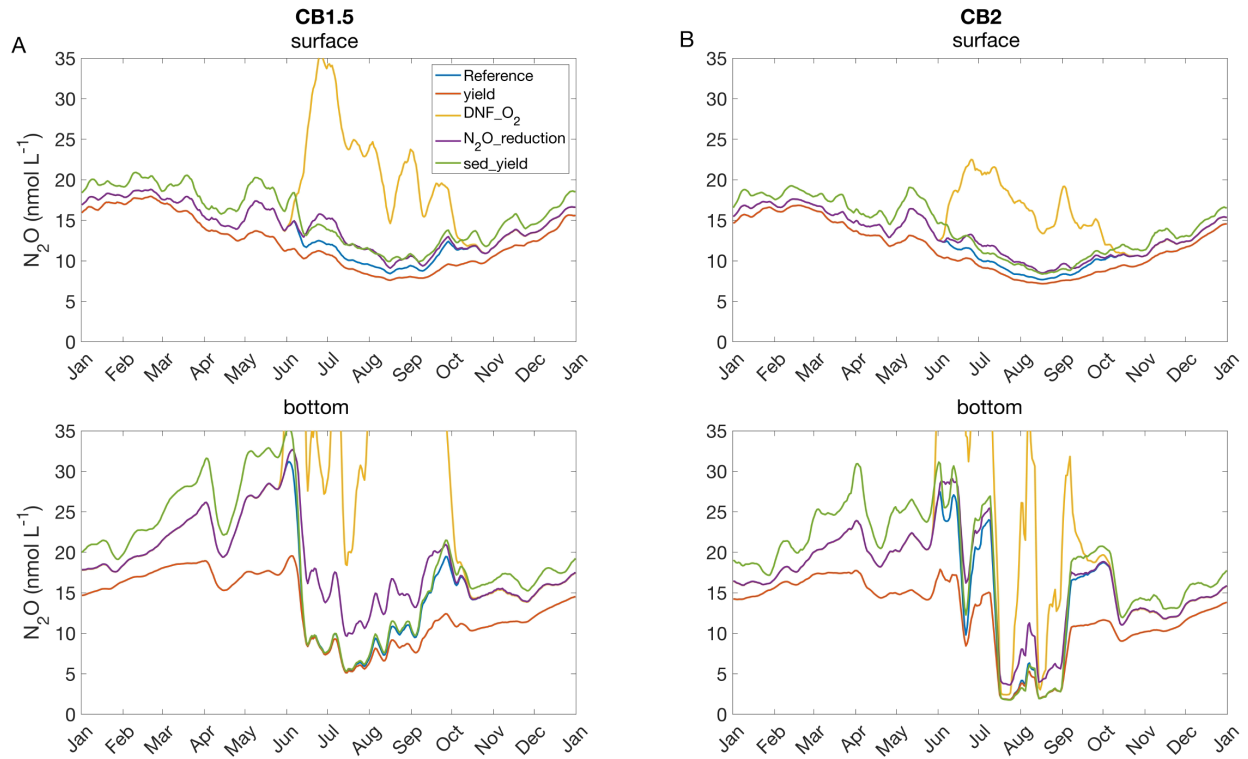


Fig. S14. Modeled 7-day moving average of surface and bottom N_2O concentrations at CB1.5 (A) and CB2 (B) in 2016 based on different model parameterizations (Table S9). N_2O concentrations in bottom water estimated under a high DNF_ O_2 value are sometime beyond the range of y axes.

Table S1. Q₁₀ of different N₂O production processes.

Station	N ₂ O production from				Ammonia oxidation	Urea oxidation	Nitrate reduction
	NH ₄ ⁺	Urea	NO ₂ ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻			
CB1.5	1.53	2.46	9.22	1.85	2.10	2.43	3.20
CB2	2.04	1.93	1.41	2.39	1.51	2.28	2.85

Table S2. Biogeochemical features of the incubation waters (ambient conditions for manipulation experiments).

Station	Depth (m)	Temperature (°C)	O ₂ (μM)	Ammonium (μM)	Urea (μM)	Nitrite (μM)	Nitrate (μM)
CB1.5	7.19	26.03	10	7.75	0.44	0.6	0.19
CB2	11.61	26.37	9.7	0.94	0.47	4.02	0.4

Table S3. Oxygen concentration (μM) measured during oxygen manipulation experiments.

Target O ₂	CB1.5 7.19 m		CB2 11.61 m	
	Ambient O ₂	Obtained O ₂	Ambient O ₂	Obtained O ₂
0		1.03±0.57		0.46±0.07
2.5		2.95±0.1		1.94±0.15
5	10	4.88±0.4	9.7	5±0.01
10		10.62±0.83		10.51±0.18
20		21.97±0.90		21.21±0.37

Table S4. Temperature (°C) measured during temperature manipulation experiments.

Target T	CB1.5 7.19 m		CB2 11.61 m	
	Ambient T	Obtained T	Ambient T	Obtained T
15		16.6±0.6		13.8±2.9
23	26.03	22.8±0.7	26.37	22.6±0.5
30		30±0.8		30.4±0.5
35		35±0.1		35.3±0.4

Table S5. Equations for the water column of the biogeochemical module governing N₂O in the ROMS-ECB. Advective and diffusive terms are omitted for simplicity. The functions and parameters used in the table are further detailed in Table S6 and Table S7, respectively. Additional nitrogen cycling functions and parameters can be found in St-Laurent et al. 2020 (30). N₂O in the model has units of mmol N m⁻³, and t is in days.

Variable (Symbol)	Term	Equation
	Rate of change =	$\partial N_2O / \partial t =$
	+ Nitrification (ammonium → N ₂ O)	$+ n f_{NTR} NH_4 \times N_2O_{yield}$
	+ Water column denitrif. (nitrate → N ₂ O)	$+ \eta_{DNF} f_{DNF} \exp(\psi_{N_2O} T)$ $\times [(1 - \delta_N)(r_{SD}SD + r_{LD}LD) + r_{DON}DON_{SL}]$
Nitrous oxide (N ₂ O) mmol-N m ⁻³	- Water column denitrif. (N ₂ O → N ₂)	$- r_{N_2O_DNF} \exp(\psi_{N_2O} T) \times f_{N_2O_DNF} \times N_2O$
	± N ₂ O exchange at air-sea interface	$+ 0.251 \div 100 \times 24 \times (\Delta Z)^{-1}$ $\times V_{wind}^2 \sqrt{660/SC_{N_2O}}$ $\times (N_2O_{sat} \times pN_2O_{atm} \times 2 - N_2O)$
	+ Bottom denitrif. (nitrate → N ₂ O)	$+ \gamma_{N_2O} \times [1 - (\eta_{NF/DNF} + \gamma_{DON})(1 + 3L_{BO_2})]$ $\times (1 - \phi_1)(\Delta Z)^{-1}$ $\times [w_P P(1 - \phi_2^P)$ $+ w_{SD}SD(1 - \phi_2^{SD})$ $+ w_{LD}LD(1 - \phi_2^{LD})]$

Table S6. Definition of functions used in N₂O equations.

Symbol	Description	Equation	Unit
N_2O_{yield}	N ₂ O yield from nitrification (%)	$\frac{a}{O_2} + b$	Dimensionless
f_{DNF}	Limitation for anaerobic processes	$\frac{NO_3}{(NO_3 + K_{WNO_3})}$ $\times \exp\left(-\frac{O_2}{K_{DNF}}\right)$	Dimensionless
f_{aero}	Limitation for aerobic processes	$\left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{O_2}{K_{DNF}}\right)\right]$	Dimensionless
$f_{N_2O_DNF}$	Limitation for N ₂ O consumption via denitrification	$\exp\left(-\frac{O_2}{K_{N_2O}}\right)$	Dimensionless
Sc_{N_2O}	Schmidt number for N ₂ O in seawater	See Wanninkhof (1992) (73)	Dimensionless
N_2O_{sat}	N ₂ O saturation in seawater	See Weiss & Price (1980) (74)	mol-N ₂ O/(L × atm)

Table S7. Definition of biogeochemical parameters used in N₂O equations.

Symbol	Description (Name in Fortran code)	Value	Unit
K_{DNF}	Oxygen sensitivity of N ₂ O production via denitrification (K_DNF)	3	μM O ₂
K_{N_2O}	Oxygen sensitivity of N ₂ O consumption via denitrification (K_N ₂ O)	2.33	μM O ₂
$r_{N_2O_DNF}$	Rate constant of N ₂ O consumption via denitrification (N ₂ O_DNF)	120	day ⁻¹
ψ	Temperature-dependence for N ₂ O cycling processes	0.0875	°C ⁻¹
a	Constant for N_2O_{yield}	0.3889	dimensionless
b	Constant for N_2O_{yield}	0.2197	dimensionless
γ_{N_2O}	Fraction of N ₂ O production via coupled nitrification/denitrification in sediment	10 ⁻³	dimensionless
pN_2O_{atm}	Partial pressure of N ₂ O in the air (2016)	0.32933	ppm by volume

Table S8. The list of numerical experiments conducted in this study. Details of these model simulations can be found in Materials and Methods.

Simulation	Atmospheric N ₂ O	Atmospheric temperature	Riverine nutrient
<i>Ref</i>	2016	2016	2016
<i>Test₁₉₈₆</i>	1986	1986: <i>Ref</i> + $\Delta\downarrow^{\#}$ in atmospheric temperature	1986: <i>Ref</i> + $\Delta\uparrow^{\dagger}$ in riverine nutrient
<i>Test_{1986warming}</i>	2016	2016	1986: <i>Ref</i> + $\Delta\uparrow$ in riverine nutrient
<i>Test₂₀₅₀</i>	2050	2050	2050: <i>Ref</i> + $\Delta\downarrow^{\&}$ from TMDL

[#] $\Delta\downarrow$ refers to 30-year decrease in model forcings.

[†] $\Delta\uparrow$ refers to 30-year increase in model forcings.

[&] $\Delta\downarrow$ from TMDL refers to the decrease in riverine nutrient loading required by Total Maximum Daily Load (28).

Table S9. Model sensitivity analysis with different parameterizations.

Simulation name	N_2O yield _{nitritification} (%) $= \frac{a}{O_2} + b$	K_{DNF} ($\mu\text{M } O_2$)	$r_{N_2O_DNF}$ (day ⁻¹)	γ_{N_2O}	Air-sea N_2O flux (Mg N yr ⁻¹) ^{&}
reference	a=0.3889; b=0.2197	3	120	10 ⁻³	140
yield	a=0.3; b=0.08	3	120	10 ⁻³	79
DNF_ O_2	a=0.3889; b=0.2197	5	120	10 ⁻³	204
N_2O _reduction	a=0.3889; b=0.2197	3	60	10 ⁻³	148
sed_yield	a=0.3889; b=0.2197	3	120	10 ⁻²	359
half TMDL ₂₀₅₀ [#]	a=0.3889; b=0.2197	3	120	10 ⁻³	133

[&]Positive values indicate N_2O outgassing to the atmosphere.

[#]This scenario assumes that only half of the TMDL goal is achieved by 2050. The fully achieved TMDL scenario (*Test*₂₀₅₀) includes a bay-wide reduction in riverine nutrient loading of 28% from the reference run in 2016, setting the Bay watershed limit to 84.3 million kilograms of nitrogen (28). The half-achieved TMDL scenario (half_TMDL₂₀₅₀) includes a 14% reduction in nutrient loading in 2050 compared to the reference run in 2016.

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