

Low hyporheic denitrification in headwater streams revealed by nutrient injections and in situ gas measurements

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1	Low hyporheic denitrification in headwater
2	streams revealed by nutrient injections and in
3	situ gas measurements
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16 Key words

17 Denitrification, nitrate, headwater stream, hyporheic zone, membrane inlet mass 18 spectrometry (MIMS)

19 Highlights

- Continuous gas measurements allow assessing *in situ* biological activity.
- Headwater streams show negligible instream denitrification activity.
- Laboratory assessed denitrifying potential does not ensure *in situ* denitrification.

2



26 Abstract

27 Stream networks can retain or remove nutrient pollution, including nitrate from agricultural and urban runoff. However, assessing the location and timing of nutrient uptake remains 28 29 challenging because of the hydrological and biogeochemical complexity of dynamic stream 30 ecosystems. We used a novel approach to continuously characterize the biological activity in a 31 stream with in situ measurement of dissolved gases by membrane inlet mass spectrometry 32 (MIMS). In a headwater stream in western France, we compared *in* situ measurements of O₂, CO₂, 33 N_2 , and N_2O (the main gases associated with respiration, including denitrification) with more 34 traditional laboratory incubations of collected sediment. The in situ measurements showed near-35 zero denitrification in the stream and the hyporheic zone. However, the laboratory incubations showed a low but present denitrification potential. This demonstrates how denitrification potential 36 is not necessarily expressed in field hydrological and geochemical conditions. In situ 37 38 measurements are thus crucial to quantify expressed rates of nutrient removal. Broader application 39 of in situ gas measurement based on technologies such as MIMS could enhance our understanding 40 of the spatiotemporal distribution of stream and hyporheic processes and overall nutrient retention 41 at stream network scales.

42 **1 Introduction**

43 Headwater streams constitute the largest terrestrial-aquatic interface, and therefore receive 44 globally significant loads of anthropogenic pollutants (Abbott et al., 2019; Bishop et al., 2008; 45 Hannah et al., 2022). As water passes through stream networks, biogeochemical processes can attenuate some of these pollutants through removal or retention (Ebeling et al., 2021: Pinav et al., 46 47 2018; Raymond et al., 2016). For some pollutants such as excess nitrogen and phosphorus, the 48 retention and removal in the stream network can amount to a 50% or more decrease in 49 concentration and flux through the stream network (Gruber and Galloway, 2008; Houlton et al., 50 2019; Severe et al., 2023). Inadequate understanding of where and when this pollutant removal 51 occurs is a major challenge to solving eutrophication globally (Kolbe et al., 2019; Krause et al., 52 2022; Le Moal et al., 2019).

53 For nitrate - one of the most abundant forms of anthropogenic nitrogen - denitrification 54 can transform the solute into N₂O and N₂, removing the reactive nitrogen from the aquatic 55 environment and returning it to the atmosphere (Harvey et al., 2013; Knowles, 1982). Denitrification requires four conditions to occur: hypoxia, an electron donor, denitrifying 56 57 microorganisms, and the nitrate itself (Abbott et al., 2016; McClain et al., 2003; Oldham et al., 58 2013). In a stream network, concentration of O_2 is generally high due to constant gas exchange 59 with the atmosphere (Knapp et al., 2015), but low O₂ concentrations can occur in areas that are not 60 in direct contact with the atmosphere, typically the stream bottom sediments, which form the hyporheic zone (Birgand et al., 2007). To a lesser extent, denitrification may also occur in 61 suspended particles in the water column, which sometimes create anoxic micro-zones (Nakajima, 62 63 1979).

64 At the interface between the aquifer and the stream, the hyporheic zone mixes waters with contrasted chemistry and slows down the downstream transport of water, which favors biological 65 66 reactions (Brunke and Gonser, 1997; Kim et al., 1992; Krause et al., 2011; Triska et al., 1993; 67 Zarnetske et al., 2011). Biological activity is mainly located in the shallowest part of the hyporheic zone, called the "shallow benthic bio layer" (Battin et al., 2003; Briggs et al., 2015; Gomez-Velez 68 et al., 2015; Gonzalez-Pinzon et al., 2012; O'Connor and Harvey, 2008). In streams with gravel, 69 70 sand and silt beds, the thickness of this reactive benthic layer is often only a few centimeters thick 71 (Arnon et al., 2013; Harvey et al., 2013; Knapp et al., 2017).

72 The biological activity of the hyporheic zone can be measured at different scales (Krause 73 et al., 2022; Lee-Cullin et al., 2018). Laboratory incubations measure the potential or semi-74 potential activity of stream bottom sediments (Malone et al., 2018). They are often performed 75 under optimal conditions to assess the amount of extant enzymes for denitrification (Garnier et al., 2010; Lefebvre et al., 2006). The effective activity under actual stream conditions is therefore 76 77 likely to be lower than the potential activity measured in the laboratory. The biological activity of 78 the hyporheic zone can also be studied *in situ* using mesocosms installed in the stream (Turlan et 79 al., 2007), pore water sampling within the hyporheic zone (Briggs et al., 2013; Harvey et al., 2013; 80 Valett et al., 1996; Zhu et al., 2020), and microelectrodes inserted directly into the sediment 81 (O'Connor et al., 2012). These measurements quantify the biological activity in specific areas, but 82 they are rarely representative of the impact of the entire hyporheic zone on the overall chemical composition of the stream (Harvey et al., 2013; Knapp et al., 2017; Lee-Cullin et al., 2018). The 83

84 overall impact of the denitrification occurring in the sediment and in other anoxic zones can be 85 quantified directly by tracer injection experiments at the scale of entire stream reaches (Drummond et al., 2016; Knapp et al., 2017; Mulholland et al., 2002; Valett et al., 1996). The conventional 86 87 method is to measure the breakthrough curves of injected tracers (Drummond et al., 2012; 88 Gootman et al., 2020). This method frequently causes overestimation of biological activity due to 89 experimental or instrumental truncation of breakthrough curves and associated underestimation of 90 the recovered tracer mass (Drummond et al., 2012). It is therefore of interest to explore alternative 91 methods for measuring actual denitrification at the stream scale, such as nitrogen isotope labeling

- 92 (Bohlke et al., 2004) or measurement of natural variations in N₂ and Argon (Ar) (Laursen and
- 93 Seitzinger, 2002; McCutchan et al., 2003).

94 Here, we developed and tested a novel *in situ* characterization of biological activity based on consumption and production of gases by biogeochemical reactions. We assess the biological 95 96 activity of the stream and the hyporheic zone by coupling a 6-hour nutrient injection with 97 continuous measurements of gases consumed or produced during oxygenic respiration and 98 denitrification. We injected carbon and nitrogen during several hours and monitored the response 99 of the stream by measuring the downstream evolution of O₂, CO₂, N₂ and N₂O concentrations using continuous flow membrane inlet mass spectrometry (MIMS). We compared these in situ 100 101 observations with measurements from laboratory incubations of sediments collected in the 102 streambed to assess how closely measurements of denitrification potential are expressed in situ.

103 2 Material and methods

104 **2.1 Study site**

The experiment was conducted in a first-order stream (Le Petit Hermitage) flowing through a forested area in the upstream part of the Pleine-Fougères catchment (Brittany, Western France) (Figure 1). The catchment belongs to the European Long-Term Socio-Ecological research site (LTSER) Zone Atelier Armorique (Thomas et al., 2019). At several locations within the catchment, the potential denitrification activity in sediments was measured under optimal conditions in a previous study by Lefebvre et al. (2006).

The stream has its source in the forest, where there is no direct agricultural nitrogen input, resulting in a nitrate concentration below 1 mg L^{-1} and a nitrate isotopic signature indicative of natural N fixation (Severe et al., 2023). The low natural concentration permits a significant increase of the nitrate concentration during the experiment with a small amount of nitrogen injected. This improves the quality of the signal and reduces the impact of the injection on the environment.



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Figure 1. The experiment was conducted on a first-order stream flowing through a forest free of anthropogenic nitrogen inputs. The baseline nitrate concentration was equal to 0.9 mg/L.

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121 We measured temperature, discharge, mean velocity, and atmospheric gas exchange rate 122 coefficient (Table 1). Temperature was measured directly within the membrane inlet mass 123 spectrometer (MIMS). Discharge and mean velocity were measured using a slug injection of salt. 124 At the injection site, 200 g NaCl was dissolved in 20 L stream water and injected at once into the 125 stream. At the measurement site, the conductivity was measured continuously by a Hatch probe to obtain the breakthrough curve. The conductivity curve was used to calculate the mean velocity. 126 127 The conductivity was converted into NaCl concentration using a calibration realized in the 128 laboratory, and the discharge Q was calculated by the following formula:

$$Q = \frac{m_{injected}}{\int C_{NaCl}(t)dt} \tag{1}$$

129 where $m_{injected}$ is the injected salt mass and C_{NaCl} is the salt concentration measured 130 through time.

The gas exchange rate coefficient was measured by coupling a slug injection of NaCl to a slug injection of helium. The canister containing the NaCl solution was saturated with helium by bubbling before being injected into the stream. Helium was measured continuously at the measurement site by MIMS. The method of injection, measurement, and calculation of gas exchange rate coefficient is presented in Vautier et al. (2020a).

136Table 1. Characteristics of the studied stream.

Parameter	Measured value
Length of the studied reach (m)	160
Mean velocity (m min ⁻¹)	3.2
Discharge (L s ⁻¹)	6
Gas exchange coefficient (d-1)	30
Temperature (°C)	12.3 – 12.9
Nitrate concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	0.9

137 2.2 Injections of nutrients

138 An injection of potassium nitrate (KNO₃) and anhydrous sodium acetate (NaCH₃COO) was performed continuously for 6 hours. Carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) were injected 139 in equal amount. Sodium bromide (NaBr) was co-injected as a conservative tracer. The injection 140 141 solution was prepared by dissolving the three molecules in a 360 L can filled with stream water. 142 The concentration of the injection solution (Table 2) was calculated to achieve an average NO_3^{-1} concentration of 6 mg L⁻¹ during the experiment, while the background NO₃⁻ concentration was 143 144 $0.9 \text{ mg } L^{-1}$. The solution was injected into the stream using a peristaltic pump. The average 145 injection rate was close to 1 L min⁻¹ but varied somewhat over time due to instrumental drift. 146 However, since the three injected molecules (acetate, nitrate, bromide) were dissolved in the same 147 solution, the proportion of each molecule remained constant during the injection. Injecting a 148 conservative tracer together with the nutrients allowed comparison of upstream and downstream 149 concentrations despite the instability of the injection rate. The injection lasted 6 hours, allowing 150 the water to flow through the hyporheic zone and return to the stream since the water residence time in the hyporheic zone of similar streams was estimated between 45 and 246 minutes (Knapp et al., 2017).

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Table 2. Nutrient concentrations during the injection. The target anion concentration in the stream is given for an injection rate of 1 L min⁻¹. The baseline anion concentration corresponds to the concentration measured in the stream before the injection.

Dissolved molecule	Chemical formula	Mass in 360 L (g)	Anion of interest	Baseline anion concentration (mg L ⁻	Target concentration (mg L ⁻¹)		
Potassium nitrate	KNO ₃	997	NO ₃ -	0.9	6.0		
Anhydrous sodium acetate	NaCH₃COO	405	CH₃COO-		-		
Sodium bromide	NaBr	38.6	Br	0.094	0.30		

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157 2.3 In-situ gas measurements

158 The originality of this study was to measure *in situ* the reactants and products of 159 biochemical reactions. Oxygenic respiration was followed by measuring CO₂, its final product, and O_2 , the reactant. Denitrification was traced by measuring N_2 , its final product, and N_2O_2 , an 160 intermediate product. Measurements were performed at the monitoring site, located 160 m 161 downstream the injection site. The gases were measured continuously by continuous flow 162 membrane inlet mass spectrometry (MIMS) installed in a mobile laboratory vehicle, a few meters 163 164 away from the stream. Stream water was pumped (MP1 Grunfoss pump, 5 L min⁻¹) and brought 165 continuously to the spectrometer by hermetic tubes. Each gas of interest was measured at a time 166 step of approximately one minute by the MIMS. Monitoring the gases in real time avoided the risk 167 of N₂O degradation between sampling and measurement.

168 The MIMS used in this experiment was modified from the HPR40 system (Hiden 169 Analytical). In this configuration, the membrane (X44 \mathbb{R} 99) ensuring the inlet of the gases is 170 connected to the vacuum of a Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer (QMS around 10⁻⁵ Torr). Gases are 171 ionized in the QMS by an oxide coated iridium filament allowing the selection of ionization 172 energies (4 – 150 eV) and emission intensities (20 – 5000 μ A). After ionization, the quadrupole 173 separates the gases based on their mass to charge ratios. The gases are detected by a Faraday cup 174 or a single channel electron multiplier (SCEM).

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175 Water vapor pressure, Ar partial pressure and temperature were also measured by the mass 176 spectrometer and allowed to normalize the measurements. The values given in partial pressure by the spectrometer were then converted to dissolved gas concentrations by external calibration with 177 178 gas chromatography measurements (μGC) performed on water samples. Two 500 mL glass bottles 179 intended for μ GC analysis were filled every hour at the outlet of the MIMS. To avoid any exchange of gas with the atmosphere, the bottles were immerged in a bucket during the filling. Measurements 180 181 with µGC were realized within 24 hours following the experiment. The measurement uncertainty 182 of the MIMS is 0.2% for major gases (N₂, O₂, CO₂, Ar) and 2% for low concentration gases (N₂O, He). The measurement uncertainty of the µGC used for calibration is 3%. More details on MIMS 183 184 measurement, correction and calibration are given in Chatton et al. (2017).

185 2.4 Dissolved chemistry

186 Chemical analysis of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved inorganic carbon 187 (DIC), and anions (including NO_3^- and Br⁻) was performed on samples taken before and during the injection at a timestep of one hour, together with the samples for the analysis of dissolved gases 188 189 by chromatography. Samples were taken simultaneously at the monitoring site (160 m downstream 190 of the injection site) and close to the injection site (15 m downstream of the injection site to allow 191 the solute to mix in the stream water). The samples were filtered at 0.2 µm directly after sampling, 192 then preserved at 4°C until analysis. The anion concentrations were measured by ion 193 chromatography (ThermoScientific DIONEX DX 120). Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and 194 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) were measured by a carbon analyzer (Shimadzu TOC-VCSH) 195 associated with an autosampler (Shimadzu ASI V). Values are accurate to +/- 1.2 mg L⁻¹ for nitrate, 196 +/-0.6 ppm for DOC and to +/-0.4 ppm for DIC.

197 2.5 Nitrate reduction rate determination

Nitrate reduction rates were determined in stream sediments (0-2 cm in duplicate)198 199 collected at the site adjacent to the nutrient injection site (figure 1). Sediments were placed in flow 200 through reactors, i.e. Plexiglas[®] rings of 2 cm height and an inner diameter of 42 mm. The 201 sediments were covered with 0.2 µm pore size nitrocellulose filters and glass fiber filters (1.2 mm 202 thick, 47 mm diameter) at each end and O-rings to prevent leakage. The sediments were then 203 supplied with inflow solutions consisting of milliQ water containing KNO₃ (2.5 mM) and acetate 204 (2 mM) via a peristaltic pump (Minipuls, Gilson) with a continuous flow rate of 1.7 ± 0.1 ml h⁻¹. 205 Anoxic inflow conditions were achieved by bubbling the inflow solutions with N₂ gas for 10 206 minutes. The reactors experiments were performed at a constant temperature (20 ± 0.5 °C) and in 207 the dark to prevent oxygen production by photosynthesis. The reactor outflow solution was sampled at 4-hour intervals during the day over a period of 48 hours. These outflow samples, 6 per 208 209 reactor, were analyzed for nitrate and nitrite. Nitrate reduction and nitrite production rates were 210 calculated by the difference in the inorganic nitrogen species in the inflow and outflow solutions 211 (mmol L^{-1}), the flow rate (ml L^{-1}) and the amount of sediment present in the reactors (g dry 212 sediment), as shown in Figure 2. The nitrate reduction rates obtained here were used as a proxy 213 for denitrification rates assuming complete nitrate reduction to N₂O and N₂ and a minor or 214 negligible contribution of other nitrate reducing processes (e.g. DNRA, dissimilatory nitrate 215 reduction to ammonium or Anammox, anaerobic ammonium oxidation). A detailed description of 216 the flow through reactor set up and rate calculations can be found in Laverman et al. (2012).



218 Figure 2. Schematic overview of the flow through reactors allowing the determination of nitrate reduction rates. The

219 220 221 reactor contains sediment of a known volume and weight and is supplied with an anoxic inflow solution containing

nitrate (NO₃ in) at a known flowrate (Q). The nitrate reduction rates are obtained from the measured concentration difference between inflow and outflow NO_3^- (ΔC) and divided by the amount of sediment (g dry weight) in the reactor

222 cell. The NO₂⁻ production rates are determined similarly from the output NO₂⁻ concentrations (no NO₂⁻ is supplied).

223 **3 Results**

3.1 Evolution of the gas content in the stream

225 O₂, CO₂, N₂, and N₂O concentrations measured during the continuous injection of 226 sodium acetate (NaCH₃COO) and potassium nitrate (KNO3) are shown in Figure 3. During the 227 injection, the CO₂ concentration increased and the O₂ concentration decreased, attributable to 228 acetate stimulating oxygenic respiration. The increase in CO₂ concentration was more pronounced 229 than the decrease in O₂, relative to baseline concentrations. The higher abundance of O₂ compared 230 to CO₂ in the atmosphere appeared to buffer O₂ variations thanks to equilibration of O₂ 231 concentrations with the atmosphere. The concentrations did not reach a plateau, potentially 232 because of the instability of the injection rate. The N₂ and N₂O concentrations did not vary during 233 the injection. Thus, the injection of potassium nitrate did not significantly stimulate denitrification 234 in the stream.

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Figure 3. Changes in CO₂, O₂, N₂ et N₂O concentrations during the continuous injection of sodium acetate and potassium nitrate. The beginning and the end of the injection are indicated with orange lines. Differences between these upstream and downstream NO₃⁻, DOC and DIC concentrations materialize the potential reactions occurring in the studied river reach.

240 **3.2 Carbon and nitrate in the stream**

The concentration changes of NO_3^- and dissolved carbon were consistent with the trends observed for gases. Figure 4 shows NO_3^- , DOC, and DIC as a function of the conservative tracer Br⁻ at the measurement and injection sites. The concentrations did not reach a plateau, neither at the measurement site nor at the injection site, again likely due to the instability of the injection rate. Between upstream and downstream, the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration decreased while the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) increased, in comparison with the conservative tracer Br⁻. This is consistent with a degradation of organic carbon into inorganic carbon along the stream reach, in this case with the consumption of injected acetate by oxygenic respiration. In contrast, the ratio between NO_3^- and Br⁻ concentration remained the same between upstream and downstream, even if the concentrations of both elements were lower downstream due to dispersion. This is consistent with the absence of NO_3^- degradation along the reach.



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Figure 4. NO₃⁻, DOC, and DIC concentrations as a function of conservative tracer concentration Br⁻ during continuous injection of sodium acetate and potassium nitrate.

255 **3.3 Nitrate reduction rate in the sediment**

The nitrate reduction and nitrite production rates determined in flow-through reactors containing stream sediments supplied with nitrate or nitrate and acetate are shown in Figure 5. Average nitrate reduction rates were 12.6 (\pm 3.9) nmol gram dry sediment⁻¹ h⁻¹ with nitrate and

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259 10.4 (\pm 3.2) nmol gram dry sediment⁻¹ h⁻¹ when nitrate and acetate were supplied to the sediments. 260 The rates were averaged over the duplicate reactors and the different sampling points during the incubation (6 sampling points, see section 2.5). Some nitrite production was observed (Figure 5) 261 262 during nitrate reduction, with somewhat higher nitrite production when nitrate was supplied alone (2.3 ± 1.9) compared to the nitrite production in sediments that were supplied with nitrate and 263 acetate (0.5 ± 0.3) . The differences were not significantly different neither for nitrate reduction 264 265 rates, nor for the nitrite production rates. Ammonium concentrations in the outflow of the reactor 266 were below the detection limit, therefore no ammonium production (release) rates were deduced.

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Figure 5. Box plots of nitrate reduction (left) and nitrite production (right) rates in the sediments supplied with nitrate or nitrate and acetate. Boxes encompass the upper and lower quartiles while the line indicates the median, dots are outliers.

272 **4 Discussion**

273 4.1 Assessment of low *in-situ* denitrification

During the 6 hours of nitrate and acetate continuous injection, the clear increase in CO_2 and decrease in O_2 during the injection, combined with a consumption of organic carbon and production of inorganic carbon, is evidence of oxygenic respiration. On the other hand, neither N_2 or N_2O production nor NO_3^- consumption was observed. This suggests a very low denitrification activity in the stream and the hyporheic zone.

It could be argued that N_2 atmospheric partial pressure is so high that its potential production through denitrification could be hidden by the chemical equilibrium between stream and atmosphere. However, this effect should not affect the N_2O signal, since N_2O atmospheric partial pressure is very low.

It can be reasonably assumed that the water had time to circulate through the hyporheic zone and flow back to the stream during the experiment. Indeed, the duration of injection (6h) was 1.5 to 8 times longer than the residence time in the hyporheic zone estimated by Knapp et al. (2017) for a streambed composed of gravel, sand and silt (45 to 246 minutes). The hyporheic residence time evaluated by Gootman et al. (2020) in first and second order streams is even shorter (1.8 seconds to 7.9 minutes). Thus, our results indicate a low denitrification activity not only in the water column but also within the hyporheic zone.

290 4.2 Comparison between potential and *in-situ* denitrification

291 The incubation of the stream sediments showed nitrate reducing activity, accompanied with 292 some nitrite production. The nitrate reduction rates were not stimulated by the addition of organic 293 carbon (acetate). These rates were low compared to rates obtained using the same experimental 294 approach in other soils and sediments. In first and fourth order river stream sediments nitrate 295 reduction rates reached 150 and 180 nmol gds h⁻¹ (Laverman et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2013) 296 respectively, rates that are an order of magnitude higher than found in the current study. The low 297 nitrate reduction rates and the lack of effect of the addition of acetate on these rates suggests a 298 small denitrifying bacterial population. Furthermore, the lack of ammonium release from the 299 sediments indicates very low overall activity in the sediment; the degradation of organic matter 300 results in the production and release of ammonium which was below the detection limit. This is 301 also in line with a modest denitrifying population and activity most likely due to low available 302 organic carbon present in the streambed.

The rates determined in the intact sediments were comparable to those previously obtained by Lefebvre et al. (2006) in the catchment of the studied stream. In the latter, incubations were carried out under optimal conditions for denitrification: anoxia, glucose, and nitrate in optimal proportions (Smith and Tiedje, 1979), temperature of 20°C, frequent agitation. The potential denitrification enzyme activity (DEA) was measured by the acetylene inhibition technique (Yoshinari and Knowles, 1976). The range of potential DEA ranged between 6 and 39 nmol N-N₂ g dry sediment h⁻¹, which is comparable to the rates found in the current study.

310 This low yet measurable potential activity in the laboratory does not translate into a 311 measurable effective denitrification *in situ*. The actual conditions of oxygenation, temperature, and 312 probability of substrate-bacteria encounter do not allow the denitrification potential to be 313 expressed in the stream. Thus, predicting the biological activity of the stream based on laboratory 314 experiments should be taken with caution. The potential activity measured in the lab gives the 315 maximum value of the effective activity, which can be far from being reached *in situ*. In a 316 comparative study between mesocosms installed in the stream and in the laboratory, Turlan et al. 317 (2007) showed that the rate of nitrate consumption measured in the stream was significantly lower and more variable than the rate measured in the laboratory, even if the laboratory experiments were 318 319 conducted in a setup very similar to the stream, under non-optimal conditions. By combining a 320 study at the whole stream scale and at the scale of specific profiles of the hypothesic zone, Knapp 321 et al. (2017) further showed that the global rate of degradation of the tracer resazurin measured at the stream scale was significantly lower than the rate measured at a smaller scale in the hyporheic 322 323 zone. These studies are consistent with our results and emphasize the importance of measuring 324 biological activity rates at the scale at which they are used.

325 **4.3 Hypothesis for the low** *in situ* denitrification

The CO_2 and O_2 measurements show that the stream has measurable oxygenic respiration activity, but very little denitrification activity. This in line with the fact that O_2 is a better electron 328 acceptor than NO_3^- so that in the presence of O_2 and NO_3^- , oxygenic respiration is more favorable 329 than denitrification (Knowles, 1982). The strong gas exchange with the atmosphere, which 330 provides permanent re-oxygenation of the stream (Hall et al., 2016; Jahne and Haussecker, 1998), 331 thus explains the low denitrification in the water column. However, the injection lasted 6 h, 332 meaning that the water had time to circulate through the hyporheic zone (Knapp et al., 2017), a 333 zone theoretically preserved from direct contact with the atmosphere (Krause et al., 2011). Our 334 experiment indicates a low impact of hyporheic processes on the chemical composition of the 335 stream.

336 The low impact of the hyporheic processes has several plausible explanations. A first one 337 would be the low available amount of organic carbon being responsible for the low intrinsic 338 activity of the hyporheic zone. Indeed, sediment organic carbon content has been shown to be a 339 major control of potential denitrification rate (Wu et al., 2021). In our case, during the incubation 340 of stream sediment in the laboratory, the addition of acetate did not increase nitrate reduction rates. 341 This suggests the presence of a small denitrifying bacterial population, probably due to a low 342 carbon content of the sediment as nitrate concentrations in the stream are high and not a limiting 343 factor. The low amount of ammonium released from the sediment also indicates a low level of 344 carbon degradation, and therefore probably a low initial amount of carbon in the sediment. Another 345 explanation for low hyporheic activity would be that biological activity is concentrated in the 346 benthic reactive layer, the surface portion of the hyporheic zone. Yet the thickness of the benthic 347 reactive layer has been estimated being only 2 cm by Knapp et al. (2017). In small stream beds, 348 the first few centimeters of sediment can be unstable (Schippa and Pavan, 2009). A sudden increase 349 in flow driven by a large rainfall event can displace stream bottom sediments, especially if they 350 are loosely joined, such as gravels. Sediment instability has a strong impact on biological activity 351 (Atkinson et al., 2008). It favors the renewal of pore water and thus limits the development of 352 anoxic zones conducive to denitrification, although anoxic micro-niches seem to be able to develop 353 in some oxygenated sediments (Briggs et al., 2015). Finally, the metabolic activity of the 354 streambed is influenced by the strength and direction of the water exchanges between the stream 355 and the hyporheic zone (Wang et al., 2022). The recirculation of stream water into the sediments 356 is particularly limited in gaining streams (Boano et al., 2008; Caruso et al., 2016; Trauth et al., 357 2014), that are streams fed by resurgent groundwater, which exerts an ascending pressure on the 358 hyporheic zone. The resulting residence time in the hyporheic zone may be too short for substantial 359 denitrification to occur. It is likely that denitrification occurs specifically at critical hydrological 360 moments (eg flood events) (Singh et al., 2022). The impact of hyporheic processes on stream 361 chemistry not only depends on the denitrification potential of the hyporheic zone, but also on the 362 time the water spends in the hyporheic zone (Bech et al., 2023; Trauth et al., 2014).

363 4.4 Interest of *in-situ* gas measurement for microbial activity 364 assessment

365 In situ measurements of gaseous reactants and products of biochemical reactions (O_2 , CO_2 , 366 N_2O , N_2) allowed to assess the occurrence of oxygenic respiration as well as the absence of 367 denitrification in the stream and its hyporheic zone. This method is a promising alternative to the 368 classical exploitation of breakthrough curves to assess the biological activity at the scale of a whole 369 stream reach. It offers the opportunity to inject nutrients over a long period of time (6 h in this 370 case), giving the natural system time to react. In the present study, the main advantage of an injection lasting several hours was to allow the water to recirculate through the hyporheic zone.

372 Such injections could also be applied to wells to assess the biological activity in groundwater

373 (Bochet et al., 2020; Frei et al., 2020).

374 Continuous flow membrane inlet mass spectrometry (MIMS) allows visualization in real 375 time of the biological response of the entire stream corridor to nutrient injections or in natural 376 conditions. The experiment realized here is a new example of the wide range of applications of 377 this technology (Burlacot et al., 2020; Chatton et al., 2017; Giroud et al., 2023; Klaus et al., 2022; 378 Vautier et al., 2020a, 2020b; Weber et al., 2019). This opens prospects for application to other 379 hydrological systems (e.g. streams with varied substrates, larger rivers, groundwater), which 380 would enable advancement towards a broad characterization of biological activity in terrestrial 381 aquatic ecosystems. Furthermore, this method allows direct assessment of N₂O emissions, thus 382 improving overall estimates of N₂O emissions from terrestrial aquatic ecosystems.

383 **5 Conclusion**

384 Nutrient injections combined with continuous measurements of dissolved gases using mass 385 spectrometry (MIMS) allowed to assess the *in situ* biological activity of a headwater stream and 386 its hyporheic zone. While oxygenic respiration was revealed by O_2 consumption and CO_2 387 production, the absence of N₂ or N₂O production signed a very low denitrification activity. The 388 conclusions obtained based on gas measurements were confirmed by dissolved organic and 389 inorganic carbon as well as NO_3^- concentrations. Low *in situ* denitrification can be explained by 390 low carbon availability in the streambed sediment, by the instability of the streambed, and by the 391 limited infiltration into the hyporheic zone.

Laboratory incubations of sediments carried out in parallel with field measurements revealed a low yet measurable potential denitrification activity in the sediments. This potential activity was not expressed *in situ*. This highlights the difference between potential activity in the laboratory and actual activity in situ. Depending on the stream's geochemical and hydrological conditions, in situ activity is likely to be lower than potential activity. In situ field measurements are crucial to assess the effective denitrification activity.

398 The originality of the proposed method is to measure the reactants and products of 399 biological reactions (O_2 , CO_2 , N_2O_2 , N_2) instead of exploiting the breakthrough curves of the 400 injected tracers. This experiment shows that membrane inlet mass spectrometry (MIMS) offers 401 new avenues for assessing *in situ* biological activity, especially denitrification, in terrestrial aquatic 402 ecosystems. Along with the assessment of their biological activity, it further allows a direct 403 measurement of the gases produced by the aquatic ecosystems, especially greenhouse gases such 404 as CO₂ or N₂O. This opens a way to better understand and quantify global emissions of greenhouse gases due to biochemical activity in inland waters. 405

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Abstract

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663 Stream networks can retain or remove nutrient pollution, including nitrate from agricultural 664 and urban runoff. However, assessing the location and timing of nutrient uptake remains 665 challenging because of the hydrological and biogeochemical complexity of dynamic stream 666 ecosystems. We used a novel approach to continuously characterize the biological activity in a 667 stream with *in situ* measurement of dissolved gases by membrane inlet mass spectrometry 668 (MIMS). In a headwater stream in western France, we compared *in* situ measurements of O₂, CO₂,

N₂, and N₂O (the main gases associated with respiration, including denitrification) with more 669 670 traditional laboratory incubations of collected sediment. The in situ measurements showed nearzero denitrification in the stream and the hyporheic zone. However, the laboratory incubations 671 672 showed a low but present denitrification potential. This demonstrates how denitrification potential is not necessarily expressed in field hydrological and geochemical conditions. In situ 673 measurements are thus crucial to quantify expressed rates of nutrient removal. Broader application 674 of *in situ* gas measurement based on technologies such as MIMS could enhance our understanding 675 676 of the spatiotemporal distribution of stream and hyporheic processes and overall nutrient retention 677 at stream network scales.

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680 Highlights

681	•	Con	tinu	lous	gas m	easu	iren	nent	s a	allo	W	asse	essin	g i	n sit	<i>u</i> ł	oiolo	gica	1 8	activity	•
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• Headwater streams show negligible instream denitrification activity.

• Laboratory assessed denitrifying potential does not ensure *in situ* denitrification.

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Figure 6. The experiment was conducted on a first-order stream flowing through a forest free of anthropogenic nitrogen inputs. The baseline nitrate concentration was equal to 0.9 mg/L.

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Figure 2. Schematic overview of the flow through reactors allowing the determination of nitrate reduction rates. The reactor contains sediment of a known volume and weight and is supplied with an anoxic inflow solution containing nitrate (NO₃-in) at a known flowrate (Q). The nitrate reduction rates are obtained from the measured concentration difference between inflow and outflow NO₃⁻ (Δ C) and divided by the amount of sediment (g dry weight) in the reactor cell. The NO₂⁻ production rates are determined similarly from the output NO₂⁻ concentrations (no NO₂⁻ is supplied).

696 697 698 699	Figure 3. Changes in CO_2 , O_2 , N_2 et N_2O concentrations during the continuous injection of sodium acetate and potassium nitrate. The beginning and the end of the injection are indicated with orange lines. Differences between these upstream and downstream NO_3^- , DOC and DIC concentrations materialize the potential reactions occurring in the studied river reach.								
700									
701 702	Figure 4. NO_3^- , DOC, and DIC concentrations as a function of conservative tracer concentration Br- during continuous injection of sodium acetate and potassium nitrate.								
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704 705 706	Figure 5. Box plots of nitrate reduction (left) and nitrite production (right) rates in the sediments supplied with nitrate or nitrate and acetate. Boxes encompass the upper and lower quartiles while the line indicates the median, dots are outliers.								
707									
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