Running Head: Processing of Atmospheric N in NE Forests Article Type: Original Paper Title: Dual isotope analyses indicate efficient processing of atmospheric nitrate by forested watersheds in the northeastern U.S. Authors: Rebecca T. Barnes^{1*}, Peter A. Raymond¹, and Karen L. Casciotti² * corresponding author: rebecca.barnes@yale.edu, p 203.432.3657, f 203.432.9927 ¹Yale School of Forestry & Environmental Studies, 210 Prospect Street, New Haven, CT 06511 ² Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Department of Marine Chemistry & Geochemistry, 360 Woods Hole Road, Mail Stop 52, Woods Hole, MA 02543

Key words: atmospheric deposition, forests, nitrogen, stable isotopes

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Abstract: Nitrogen from atmospheric deposition serves as the dominant source of new nitrogen to forested ecosystems in the northeastern U.S.. By combining isotopic data obtained using the denitrifier method, with chemistry and hydrology measurements we determined the relative importance of sources and control mechanisms on nitrate (NO₃-) export from five forested watersheds in the Connecticut River watershed. Microbially produced NO₃ was the dominant source (82-100%) of NO₃⁻ to the sampled streams as indicated by the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻. Seasonal variations in the δ^{18} O-NO₃ in streamwater are controlled by shifting hydrology and temperature affects on biotic processing, resulting in a relative increase in unprocessed NO₃ export during winter months. Mass balance estimates find that the unprocessed atmospherically derived NO₃ stream flux represents less than 3% of the atmospherically delivered wet NO₃ flux to the region. This suggests that despite chronically elevated nitrogen deposition these forests are not nitrogen saturated and are retaining, removing, and reprocessing the vast majority of NO₃ delivered to them throughout the year. These results confirm previous work within Northeastern U.S. forests and extend observations to watersheds not dominated by a snow-melt driven hydrology. In contrast to previous work, unprocessed atmospherically derived NO₃ export is associated with the period of high recharge and low biotic activity as opposed to spring snowmelt and other large runoff events.

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Abbreviations:

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- 2 ANOVA Analysis of Variance
- 3 CASTNet Clean Air Status and Trends Network
- 4 DIN dissolved inorganic nitrogen
- 5 IAEA International Atomic Energy Agency
- 6 ¹⁸O Oxygen-18
- 7 ¹⁵N Nitrogen-15
- 8 NADP National Atmospheric Deposition Program
- 9 NH₄⁺ Ammonium
- 10 NO₃ Nitrate
- 11 NO_2 Nitrite
- 12 VSMOW Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water
- 13 δ delta
- 14 % per mill

16 Introduction

- 17 Increased reactive nitrogen in the biosphere has led to several environmental problems
- including alteration of forest processes (e.g. Aber et al. 1998), increased nitrate (NO₃⁻) export
- 19 (Stoddard 1994), and the degradation of coastal waters (NRC 2000). These problems occur
- despite the suggestion that the vast majority of nitrogen added to our landscape is not exported to
- the coastal ocean (Boyer et al. 2002; Schaefer & Alber 2007; Van Breemen et al. 2002).
- 22 Atmospheric N deposition is one source of anthropogenic nitrogen loading affecting the

1 northeastern U.S., with nitrate (NO₃) comprising the majority of inorganic nitrogen (66%)

delivered via precipitation in Connecticut (Luo et al. 2003).

Forests in the northeastern US now receive 5 to 10 fold more nitrogen via atmospheric deposition relative to pre-industrial conditions (Galloway et al. 2004), and understanding how these ecosystems respond to an increase in a limiting nutrient remains a major research question (Aber et al. 2003). Uncovering the effects of increased atmospheric deposition to forest ecosystem processes can be difficult due to the number of factors shown to effect nitrogen cycling within forested ecosystems, including past land use and disturbance history (Aber & Driscoll 1997; Aber et al. 1997; Goodale et al. 2000), stand successional trends (Vitousek & Reiners 1975), climate change (Mitchell et al. 1996), geology (Holloway et al. 1998; Williard et al. 2005), elevation (Lawrence et al. 2000), and hydrology (Band et al. 2001).

In forested watersheds where stream NO₃⁻ fluxes have not increased despite elevated nitrogen deposition, excess nitrogen is retained within the ecosystem or removed via denitrification. Alternatively, an increase in NO₃⁻ export indicates possible nitrogen saturation (Stoddard 1994). However, due to the varied responses seen in watersheds the regional long-term impacts of chronic nitrogen deposition are still debated (Aber et al. 2003).

The isotopic composition of NO_3^- ($\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$) provides unique insights into the nitrogen dynamics in forested watersheds because the dominant sources of stream NO_3^- , microbial nitrification and atmospheric deposition, have distinctive $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ values (e.g. Burns & Kendall 2002; Campbell et al. 2002; Durka et al. 1994) due to the highly enriched nature of the $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ delivered via atmospheric deposition (e.g. Kendall 1998). Greater export of ^{18}O enriched NO_3^- will occur if atmospheric deposition exceeds the biological demand for NO_3^- , enabling the use of a two end member mixing model to apportion sources. Currently the majority

of U.S. studies using the dual isotopes of NO₃ have occurred in a narrow range of ecosystems 1 2 that receive relatively moderate rates of nitrogen deposition and have seasonal snow cover and 3 therefore a large spring melt event. These studies indicate that microbial nitrification is the 4 source of NO₃ export from forests to streams except during snow melt and large storm events 5 when a fraction of exported NO₃ is derived directly from atmospheric deposition (Burns & 6 Kendall 2002; Campbell et al. 2002; Ohte et al. 2004; Pardo et al. 2004). Furthermore, the 7 majority of these studies used an offline combustion technique which has been shown to yield potentially biased δ^{18} O-NO₃ values due to exchange between the quartz reaction tube and the 8 9 CO₂ produced from the sample (Révész & Böhlke 2002). 10 Snow cover can be an important ecosystem variable with respect to biogeochemistry 11 (Groffman et al. 2001), yet many U.S. forested systems are not in regions dominated by snow 12 and this study was designed to extend these measurements into forested ecosystems without a 13 snowmelt driven hydrology. We hypothesized that the lack of a snow melt driven hydrology would result in a dampened seasonal pattern in stream δ^{18} O-NO₃ as compared to similar studies 14 15 conducted in northern New England. To test this hypothesis, we measured the dual isotopic 16 composition of NO₃ in stream and rain water using the denitrifier method (Casciotti et al. 2002; 17 Sigman et al. 2001), a relatively novel technique not utilized by the majority of previously 18 conducted studies. We applied both mixing models and mass balance techniques to isotopic and 19 NO₃ concentration data and calculated the proportion of unprocessed atmospheric NO₃ 20 contributing to stream NO₃ export and the annual amount of atmospherically deposited NO₃ 21 retained within the watershed.

Methods

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Spatial Analysis

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2	Watersheds were delineated using ArcHydro tools in ArcMap 9.1 (ESRI, Redlands, CA)
3	using NHDPlus data (USGS & USEPA 2005). Land use and impervious cover (MRLC 2005),
4	surficial materials (Stone et al. 1992) and bedrock geology (Rodgers 1985) datasets were
5	obtained from both federal and state agency websites. These data were then analyzed using tools
6	in ArcMap 9.1 to determine land use/land cover, surficial materials, and bedrock geology of each
7	watershed.
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9	Nitrogen deposition fluxes
10	Nitrogen deposition data were obtained from two sources: the Connecticut Nitrogen
11	Deposition Monitoring Network (1997-2001) for Mohawk Mountain (73°17'47" W, 41°49'17"
12	N) (Carley et al. 2001, P. Stacey unpublished data) and the National Atmospheric Deposition
13	Program (NADP) and Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNet) for their site in
14	Abington, CT (1994-2006, 72°0'36.36" W, 41°50'24" N) (NADP 2007; USEPA 2007). Data
15	from the Abington, CT site were used for deposition flux estimates for the watershed in north-
16	central Connecticut (CB) for 2005 and 2006. Data for Mohawk Mountain were only available
17	through 2001, therefore 2005 and 2006 atmospheric fluxes were calculated based on the
18	relationships (R ² >0.90) between reported fluxes from the two sites for the years of data overlap
19	(1997-2001). The annual estimated flux for Mohawk Mountain was used for the four watersheds
20	in northwestern Connecticut and southwestern Massachusetts (HSR, RB, SB, WBFR).
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22 Sample collection

Streamwater was collected bi-monthly from five first-order streams in the Connecticut River Watershed over a 14 month period (June 2005 to August 2006). Stream flow was measured at each site at the time of sample collection using a Marsh-McBirney electromagnetic current meter. Stream water was collected in acid-washed HDPE bottles and filtered through 0.7 µm GF/F filters in the field and stored on ice until returning to lab. Water samples collected for nitrate isotopic analyses were brought to pH 11 using 6M NaOH and frozen along with the samples reserved for [NO₃-], [NO₂-], and [NH₄+] analyses.

Precipitation samples were collected on an event basis throughout northern and central Connecticut from June 2006 to March 2007 with the cooperation of wastewater treatment plant operators in Manchester, Vernon, Winsted, Canton and Farmington Connecticut. Four liter glass beakers were placed in open areas preceding a rainstorm and were collected shortly after it ended to minimize evaporation and the collection of dry deposition; rainwater was immediately transferred to acid washed polycarbonate bottles and frozen until analyses.

Collection of soil samples occurred during July and October of 2006 at seven sites within the five watersheds. We sampled representative areas of each watershed based on results from the GIS analysis of land use and surficial material (5 forest-till, 1 wetland-till, and 1 wetland-swamp). Three soil cores (0.813" x 8") were taken at each location, combined, and air dried for approximately one week. A sub-sample of each soil was dried in a muffle furnace at 60°C for 24 hours and then homogenized with a Spex/CentriPrep 6750 freezer mill.

Sample analysis

Nitrogen ion analyses (NO_3^- , NO_2^- , and NH_4^+) were performed using an Astoria 2 Flow Analyzer with a detection limit of 0.36 μ mol L⁻¹. Isotopic analyses were performed using the

1 denitrifier method (Casciotti et al. 2002; Sigman et al. 2001) with *Pseudomonas aureofaciens*, by which NO₃ and NO₂ were quantitatively converted to N₂O. The ¹⁵N/¹⁴N and ¹⁸O/¹⁶O ratios of 2 the N₂O were then analyzed on a Finnigan Delta^{PLUS} XP IRMS. These analyses were 3 4 standardized on AIR and VSMOW scales, respectively, by parallel analyses of NO₃ reference 5 materials USGS32, USGS34, and USGS35. Duplicate measurements were made on all samples, 6 with standard deviations falling within the cited reproducibility of 0.3% and 0.5% (1 standard deviation) for δ^{15} N-NO₃ and δ^{18} O-NO₃, respectively. For all samples where [NO₂] made up 7 more than 1% of [NO₃⁻+NO₂⁻] samples were corrected following the method discussed 8 9 previously (Casciotti et al. 2007; Casciotti & McIlvin 2007), whereby the isotopic composition of NO₂ is measured by the azide method (McIlvin & Altabet 2005) and subtracted from NO₃ 10 and NO₂⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O to yield the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻. 11 The ¹⁵N content of atmospheric NO₃ determined from isotopic measurements of N₂O 12 must also be corrected for the contribution of ¹⁴N¹⁴N¹⁷O to the mass 45 peak. Using the average 13 ratio of δ^{17} O/ δ^{18} O of rain samples collected in Princeton, NJ (Kaiser et al. 2007, Meredith G. 14 Hastings, personal communication) the following relationship was assumed (δ^{17} O $\approx 0.90 \text{ x } \delta^{18}$ O) 15 to correct the measured δ^{15} N of NO₃ in rain for the ¹⁷O contribution to the ¹⁵N/¹⁴N ratio (see 16 17 work by Hastings and others (2004) for a similar correction). 18 19 Daily Flow Estimation and Hydrograph Separation 20

Daily flow information for the sampled streams was estimated using the Maintenance of Variance-Extension, type 1(MOVE.1) method, a record-extension technique (Helsel & Hirsch 1992), utilizing both field measurements and daily discharge records from the USGS's National Water Inventory (USGS 2007). Field flow measurements were compared to at least three

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gauging station datasets (all data were log₁₀ transformed) and the correlation coefficient (R²) for 1 each gauging station-field data pair was calculated. The gauging station with the highest R^2 (R^2) 2 0.93) was chosen to estimate the mean daily flow for each stream using the MOVE.1 equation 3 4 which results in estimates that are similarly statistically distributed to actual streamflow 5 measurements (Helsel & Hirsch 1992). The estimated daily flow data were subsequently entered 6 into a web-based hydrograph analysis tool (Lim et al. 2005) to determine the approximate flow 7 conditions (i.e. percent of baseflow) at the time of sampling. 8 9 Statistical methods 10 Paired t-tests were used to determine if there were statistical seasonal differences between N concentrations, δ^{15} N-NO₃, and δ^{18} O-NO₃ in stream water at each sampling location. 11 Comparisons between the isotopic composition of nitrate in stream and precipitation samples 12 13 was done using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Finally, two-sample t-tests were used to examine the potential seasonality of the δ^{15} N- and δ^{18} O-NO₃ in precipitation samples. All 14 15 statistical analyses were conducted using Minitab (Minitab Inc.) and an α level of 0.05 was used 16 to determine significance. 17

Site description

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The sampled streams drain forested watersheds located in northern Connecticut and southwestern Massachusetts: headwaters of the West Branch of the Farmington River (WBFR), Riiska Brook (RB), headwaters of the Still River (HSR), Charter's Brook (CB), and Sandy Brook (SB). The watersheds are dominated by forests and wetlands (90-98%) (Table 1) with forest cover typical of southern New England, including both mixed deciduous and coniferous

1 stands. The surficial and bedrock materials do not differ appreciably between watersheds, with 2 glacial till overly metamorphic and igneous bedrock in all of the watersheds (Rodgers 1985; 3 Stone et al. 1992) (Table 1). The amount of open water is minimal in all of the watersheds 4 except for WBFR, where a dam, creates a large impoundment surrounded by wetlands (Table 1). 5 It is important to note that while a portion of some of the watersheds (up to 10%) are classified 6 as urban or agricultural land use, in all cases greater than 95% of this land is designated as open 7 space or pasture. 8 The NW portion of the sampling region (watersheds WBFR, SB, RB, HSR) received more dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) via atmospheric deposition (8.16 kg N ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ in 2005 9 and 8.35 kg N ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ in 2006) than the CB watershed (in north-central CT) which received 5.61 10 kg N ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ in 2005 and 5.68 kg N ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ in 2006. This gradient in deposition rates is in 11 12 accordance with the pattern found by Luo and others (2003) in their analysis of three years of 13 deposition data taken at eight locations throughout CT. The southwest portion of CT had the greatest amount of nitrogen deposition (~19 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) with the northeast corner receiving 14 approximately 7 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ less (Luo et al. 2003). Nitrate makes up a majority of nitrogen in 15 16 atmospheric deposition, 69% and 59% at Abington and Mohawk Mountain sites, respectively. On average NO₃ and NH₄ in wet deposition contribute 41% and 20% to total atmospheric N 17 18 fluxes, with dry deposition contributing an average of 33% of the total N deposition to these 19 sites. Precipitation in this region is distributed almost evenly throughout the year with snow 20 making up a minor component (~10%) of the average annual precipitation budget of 1140 mm 21 (Miller et al. 2002). 22

Results

Streamwater NO_3^- concentrations were low throughout the year ($[NO_3^-] < 30 \text{ }\mu\text{mol }L^{-1}$) 1 2 (Figure 1). The highest NO₃ concentrations occurred during the lowest flow period (August 3 2005) and lowest concentrations coincide with high flow events (October 2005 and June 2006) 4 (Figure 1). The highest NO₃ fluxes generally occurred during the winter due to significantly 5 greater discharge during these months (p = 0.05) (Figure 1). It should be noted that in CB and 6 HSR, NO₃ concentrations were higher during the summer than winter, with no measurable NO₃ 7 export occurring in the winter (Figure 1b,e). 8 Nitrate was the dominant form of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) in three of the five streams sampled, making up 72%, 63%, and 59% of the flow-weighted annual DIN export in 9 CB, RB and SB, respectively, with NH₄⁺ only being a significant contributor during high flow 10 11 events (Figure 1b,c,d). Ammonium made up a significant portion of DIN at WBFR throughout 12 the sampling period (Figure 1a) and at HSR in the winter and spring months (Figure 1e). The δ^{15} N-NO₃ and δ^{18} O-NO₃ in stream waters varied between 0.1‰ and 5.7‰ and -13 3.9% and 9.7%, respectively (Figure 2). Average streamwater δ^{18} O-NO₃ was significantly 14 greater (p=0.002) in the winter and spring (6.1‰) than the summer (-2.2‰) (Figure 2). The 15 δ^{15} N-NO₃ in rain averaged -2.3% (SD=2.9%, n=29) and had δ^{18} O ranging from 50.4% to 16 17 83.5% (avg=70.9%) with no significant seasonal patterns (Figure 2). The isotopic composition of stream NO₃ was statistically different (p < 0.001) from atmospheric deposition for both δ^{15} N 18 and δ^{18} O, with the δ^{18} O of NO₃ in rain averaging 70% higher than that in streamwater (Figure 19 20 2). 21 Baseflow separation estimates indicate 15 times greater baseflow from October 2005 to 22 April 2006 as compared to June 2005 through September 2005. Sampling events occurred at or 23 near baseflow conditions (baseflow > 90%) except for October 2005 and June 2006. However, it

- 1 is important to note that the December 2005 and April 2006 sampling events occurred directly
- 2 after the receding limb of the hydrograph (Figure 3). Given the estimated nature of our daily
- 3 flow data it is therefore possible that runoff contributed to streamflow during those two sampling

4 events.

Discussion

Seasonality of the isotopic composition of stream NO_3^-

Differences between $\delta^{15}N$ - and $\delta^{18}O$ - NO_3^- of precipitation and stream water strongly suggest that atmospherically derived NO_3^- is being processed in a stepwise fashion; NO_3^- is first taken up by biota, converted into organic nitrogen, mineralized to ammonium, and later oxidized back to NO_3^- during nitrification. These processes lead to the enrichment of ^{15}N in the residual NO_3^- pool and may be responsible for the average 5% relative enrichment of streamwater $\delta^{15}N$ - NO_3^- as compared to atmospheric deposition $\delta^{15}N$ - NO_3^- (Figure 2). The processing of NO_3^- within a watershed removes the high $\delta^{18}O$ values of atmospheric NO_3^- , with the $\delta^{18}O$ essentially reset by assimilation and subsequent nitrification to reflect the oxygen used as substrates of this microbial reaction. The $\delta^{18}O$ of NO_3^- in soil and stream water can also be lowered relative to atmospheric deposition by isotope dilution through the microbial oxidation of atmospherically derived NH_4^+ or dissolved organic nitrogen.

In the three streams (WBFR, SB and RB) with measurable NO_3^- flux during the winter there was a clear seasonal pattern in the $\delta^{18}O$ of stream NO_3^- , with measurements falling into summer and winter/spring clusters (Figure 2). While both clusters fall within the broad range of values given in the literature for microbial nitrification (Kendall 1998) the statistical difference

- suggests that either the sources of NO₃⁻ to the stream or the extent of processing of NO₃⁻ shifts between seasons.
- Seasonality in precipitation δ^{18} O-NO₃ could explain seasonal stream patterns, yet our 3 4 precipitation data showed no significant seasonal trend. It is important to note that this lack of seasonal variation in precipitation δ^{18} O-NO₃ suggests that the minimal temporal overlap 5 6 between rain and stream sample collection should not present a problem for our analyses. If the 7 percentage of atmospherically derived NO₃ undergoing processing within the watershed changes 8 seasonally, the signal imparted by atmospheric deposition on the exported stream NO₃ should 9 vary. We tested this hypothesis by entering stream and atmospheric deposition isotopic values $(\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3)$ into a simple two end-member mixing model (eqn 1) to determine the fraction of 10 11 riverine NO_3 made up of unprocessed atmospheric NO_3 (f_{atm}), versus NO_3 that had been produced by nitrification within the watershed. 12

$$\frac{\delta^{18}O_{stream} - \delta^{18}O_{nitrification}}{\delta^{18}O_{atm} - \delta^{18}O_{nitrification}} = f_{atm}$$
 (eqn 1)

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- Errors associated with this model, due to choices of the end-member values and seasonal variation of end-member values and sources, are discussed below.
 - The $\delta^{18}O$ of the microbial nitrification source was not directly measured at our sites. Instead we calculated an end member value assuming that microbes incorporate oxygen in a two to one ratio from ambient H₂O and O₂, respectively (Andersson & Hooper 1983; Hollocher 1984; Kumar et al. 1983), using our precipitation $\delta^{18}O$ -H₂O values (-16.02‰ to -0.08‰, R. Barnes unpublished data) and a constant $\delta^{18}O$ -O₂ (23.5‰). This calculation yields a range of values from -2.85‰ to 7.78‰ for $\delta^{18}O$ -NO₃⁻ produced via nitrification. The $\delta^{18}O$ values of streamwater NO₃⁻ observed in this study (-3.9‰ to +9.7‰), however, imply that for at least part of the year the nitrification end member is below the calculated range, which may reflect a

greater influence of δ^{18} O-H₂O on the δ^{18} O-NO₃ produced by nitrification than assumed in the 1 2:1 H₂O:O₂ ratio (Casciotti et al. 2002). Therefore, in the mixing model we used the lowest 2 measured streamwater δ^{18} O-NO₃ value at this site (-3.9%) to represent the nitrification end 3 member (Table 2). Field studies examining the δ^{18} O-NO₃ from microbial nitrification at other 4 sites have not shown systematic seasonal variations (Burns & Kendall 2002) in the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ 5 6 produced by nitrification and therefore we assumed this value did not change seasonally. To test the sensitivity of our interpretations to potential variations in precipitation δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻, (δ^{18} O_{atm} in 7 eqn. 1) we applied the minimum, maximum and average δ^{18} O-NO₃ values of the sampled 8 9 rainwater (50.4%, 83.5% and 70.9%, respectively) as the atmospheric deposition end-member 10 (eqn. 1, Table 2). 11 Our calculations suggest that on average 1-3% of the summer and 10-18% of the 12 winter/spring exported stream NO₃ is derived from direct atmospheric deposition (Table 2). 13 which equals 11-12% of the annual flux-weighted exported stream NO₃. Therefore the majority 14 of the NO₃ exported from these forests is derived from within the catchment and that variation in 15 the amount of processing of atmospherically derived NO₃ within the watershed can account for the seasonal signal of δ^{18} O-NO₃ observed in the streams. Interestingly, this annual average is 16 17 similar to the estimate given for the snow dominated Catskill Mountains, NY (8%, Burns & 18 Kendall 2002) and within the range (0-45%) presented by Pardo and others (2004) for two 19 streams in snow dominated New Hampshire. The peak in δ^{18} O-NO₃ for many of these streams occurs in the winter and early spring. 20 21 opposed to during spring snowmelt or following large storm events as found in other studies (e.g. 22 Burns & Kendall 2002; Campbell et al. 2002; Pardo et al. 2004; Williard et al. 2001). Unlike previous studies, the enrichment found in these non-snow dominated systems could not be 23

attributed solely to runoff events. On average, the amount of processed NO₃⁻ entering streams in the winter and spring is less than NO₃⁻ entering the streams in summer and fall. This could be due to either changes in hydrology (e.g. flow paths, recharge rates), temperature affects on the microbial processing of NO₃⁻, or both.

High baseflow percentages coincided with the peak $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ of these systems (Figure 3) and therefore it is unlikely that runoff contributed to the observed $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ patterns. Both higher recharge rates and reduced water demand by plants during the winter favor shorter flow paths (Burns et al. 1998). We believe that the export of unprocessed atmospherically derived NO_3^- is due in large part to these shorter flow paths, which reduce the opportunity for NO_3^- processing.

Net nitrification potential measurements and modeling results also indicate that microbial processes responsible for DIN export are strongly influenced by soil temperature and moisture (Christ et al. 2002; Hong et al. 2006). Therefore, lowered rates of microbial nitrification may also contribute to the higher stream $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values in winter and spring (Figure 4). The lack of a similar relationship between temperature and stream $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ (Figure 4) could be due to the different effects of microbial processing on $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$. Complete turnover of the NO₃⁻ pool could result in little observed $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ change, while $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ is lowered from high atmospheric $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values to those of microbial nitrification. These processes could result in the observed disconnect between the seasonal trends in stream $\delta^{15}\text{N-}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ with relatively higher $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ observed during the winter. However, the significant positive relationship between discharge and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ (p < 0.0001) could indicate that the relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ and temperature may only be due to simultaneous changes in hydrology.

Comparison of $\delta^{18}O$ -NO₃ values across studies

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The $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values in streams sampled in this study (-3.9% to 9.7%) are generally lower than those in other northeastern U.S. studies (~10% to 32%, Burns & Kendall 2002; Pardo et al. 2004), despite similar estimates of unprocessed atmospherically derived NO₃ export. One possible explanation is true variation in the δ^{18} O of the substrates (H₂O and O₂) used during nitrification at the different sites. Isotopic maps of δ^{18} O-H₂O (Kendall & Coplen 2001) in river water suggests that the δ^{18} O-H₂O in the Catskills (-10 to -8%) and White Mountains (-12 to -10‰) is similar or slightly depleted in ¹⁸O relative to our sites, providing no explanation for the observed difference. Although micro-scale influences (e.g. respiration, exchange with fine particulate organic matter, denitrification) on these substrates are possible, it is also possible that the discrepancy is methodological. The studies mentioned within this paper, with the exception of Ohte and others (2004), used the method described by Silva, Chang and colleagues (Chang et al. 2002; Silva et al. 2000) and not the denitrifier method used here (Casciotti et al. 2002; Sigman et al. 2001). It should be noted that the study conducted by Ohte and others (2004), reported a range δ^{18} O-NO₃ values (-7.7% to 18.3%) in stream water which encompass our values. The offline combustion procedure used in the other studies has been shown to yield biased $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^$ values as compared to samples using on-line combustion due to isotopic exchange between the sample derived CO₂ and the quartz combustion tube (Révész & Böhlke 2002). Furthermore, until recently there were not a range of $\delta^{18}O\ NO_3^-$ standards that allowed for more than a one-point calibration (Böhlke et al. 2003), it was therefore difficult to detect the presence or magnitude of the problem. More recent studies using off-line combustion, such as Hales and others (2007) used a range of standards to calibrate their NO₃ isotopic measurements and therefore it is far less likely that their $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3$ values are biased.

2 Retention of atmospheric NO₃

Unprocessed atmospherically derived NO₃⁻ accounts for up to 25% of the stream NO₃⁻
flux during the winter and early spring months (Table 2), however this estimate represents a
small fraction of the total wet atmospheric NO₃⁻ flux; implying that the remainder is retained or
removed within the ecosystem. We estimated the fraction of atmospherically deposited NO₃⁻ that
goes unprocessed by using atmospheric NO₃⁻ deposition estimates (FN_{atm}), calculated stream
NO₃⁻ flux measurements (FN_s), and the results of the isotopic mixing model, (eqn. 1, f_{atm}):

$$\frac{f_{atm} \times FN_s}{FN_{atm}} = f_{unprocessed}$$
 (eqn 2)

Calculations indicate that no more than 2% of NO₃⁻ entering the watersheds via precipitation goes unprocessed annually. It is important to note that these calculations are based on wet deposition NO₃⁻ fluxes and therefore represent a conservative estimate.

Overestimation of NO_3^- retention $(1-f_{uprocessed})$ is possible due to undetectable levels of NO_3^- in 38% of our samples. In order to account for potential NO_3^- export associated with these samples we repeated the calculations with estimated NO_3^- fluxes using the following assumptions: (1) all samples with NO_3^- concentrations below the detection limit had $[NO_3^--N]$ of 0.18 μ M, (2) during base flow conditions the proportion of unprocessed atmospheric NO_3^- (f_{atm}) was set equal to the monthly average f_{atm} as calculated from the other streams, and (3) during high flow conditions (October 2005, June 2006) f_{atm} was set to 100%. Application of these assumptions did not change the estimates by more than 1% except in CB where retention estimates decreased from 100% to 61%.

It is our understanding that estimates of atmospheric deposition retention within a watershed have never been made based on isotopic mixing model calculations and we

1 acknowledge that our estimates are based on a limited number of observations. Therefore, as a

2 check, we applied the same method to results presented by Pardo and others (2004) and

3 calculated N retention estimates ranging from 96 to 99% and 86 to 97% in Hubbard Brook

4 Experimental Forest and the Bowl Research Natural Area, respectively. These estimates are in

5 line with studies documenting high N retention in Hubbard Brook (e.g. Bernhardt et al. 2005),

including during the non-growing season when Groffman and others (2001) calculated N

retention ranging from 84.1 to 99.9%.

These retention estimates provide evidence that the vast majority of atmospherically derived NO₃⁻ is retained or removed within the watershed despite chronically elevated levels of N deposition, suggesting these forests have not reached nitrogen saturation. Furthermore, even without a large above-ground biological demand, watersheds are capable of retaining NO₃⁻ during the winter via biotic (e.g. microbial immobilization (Brooks et al. 1999)) and abiotic mechanisms such as the reduction of iron (II) in organic soils followed by the conversion of NO₂⁻ to dissolved organic nitrogen via reactions with dissolved organic material (Davidson et al. 2003).

Conclusions

By using measurements of $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of NO_3^- in precipitation and streamwater in conjunction with estimates of the isotopic composition of microbially produced NO_3^- we distinguished sources of exported NO_3^- across forested watersheds in southern New England. We found that throughout the year soil N processes are the dominant source of exported NO_3^- to streams, confirming the results of similar studies conducted in snowmelt dominated watersheds (e.g. Burns & Kendall 2002; Hales et al. 2007; Pardo et al. 2004). However, in contrast to

previous studies, we found that the enrichment of ¹⁸O in streamwater NO₃ during the winter and 1 spring months not associated with large runoff events. Instead it is likely associated with reduced 2 3 biotic uptake and reprocessing due to shorter flow paths associated with the period of 4 groundwater recharge. Finally, retention estimates illustrate that despite increases in NO₃ export 5 during the winter and spring months, the watersheds are retaining, removing, or reprocessing 6 98% of annual atmospheric NO₃ wet deposition. 7 Understanding how anthropogenic inputs of nitrogen affect the processing and export of 8 nitrogen from forests to streams is important, as elevated rates of N deposition will continue. In 9 particular, we need a better understanding of soil nitrification and how the isotopic signatures of 10 NO₃ produced by nitrification vary spatially and temporally. Comparing studies across the 11 Northeastern U.S. points to the importance of seasonal changes in hydrology on soil nitrogen 12 processing and the need of more research that examines how watershed hydrology controls 13 nitrogen export and cycling. 14 15 Acknowledgements 16 Thanks to M. McIlvin for help with NO₃ isotope analysis, M. Hastings for insights on 17 atmospheric deposition corrections, P. Stacey for atmospheric flux data, K. Mull, D. Butman, D. 18 Karwan, B. Feingold, M. Bozeman and C. May for their assistance in the field, and R. Streigl 19 and three anonymous reviewers for providing comments on an earlier draft. This work was 20 funded by an EPA STAR Fellowship (FP-91637501-1) and a grant from QLF/The Sound 21 Conservancy to RTB.

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- Figure 1: Bimonthly concentrations of nitrate (NO₃⁻), dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), and
- 2 estimated daily flow values (cfs) from June 2005 to August 2006 within each of the five sampled
- 3 streams: (a) headwaters of the West Branch of the Farmington River, (b) Charter's Brook, (c)
- 4 Riiska Brook, (d) Sandy Brook, and (e) headwaters of the Still River.

- **Figure 2**: The δ^{15} N-NO₃ and δ^{18} O-NO₃ of stream water and precipitation samples. Stream and
- 7 precipitation samples are grouped by sampling date into summer and winter/spring subsets.

8

- 9 **Figure 3:** Daily precipitation totals and estimated hydrographs for study sites for the winter and
- spring sampling period (11/15/05 through 4/15/06). Precipitation totals (a) are for Bradley
- 11 International Airport and snow amounts are given in water equivalents (as estimated by the
- following relationship: water equivalent = snow total/10). Estimated hydrographs for each
- watershed are shown (b) Charter's Brook, (c) Riiska Brook, (d) Sandy Brook, (e) headwaters of
- the Still River, (f) headwaters of the West Branch of the Farmington River. The derivation of
- daily flow values and the baseflow separation calculations are discussed in the text. The dotted
- vertical lines denote sampling events.

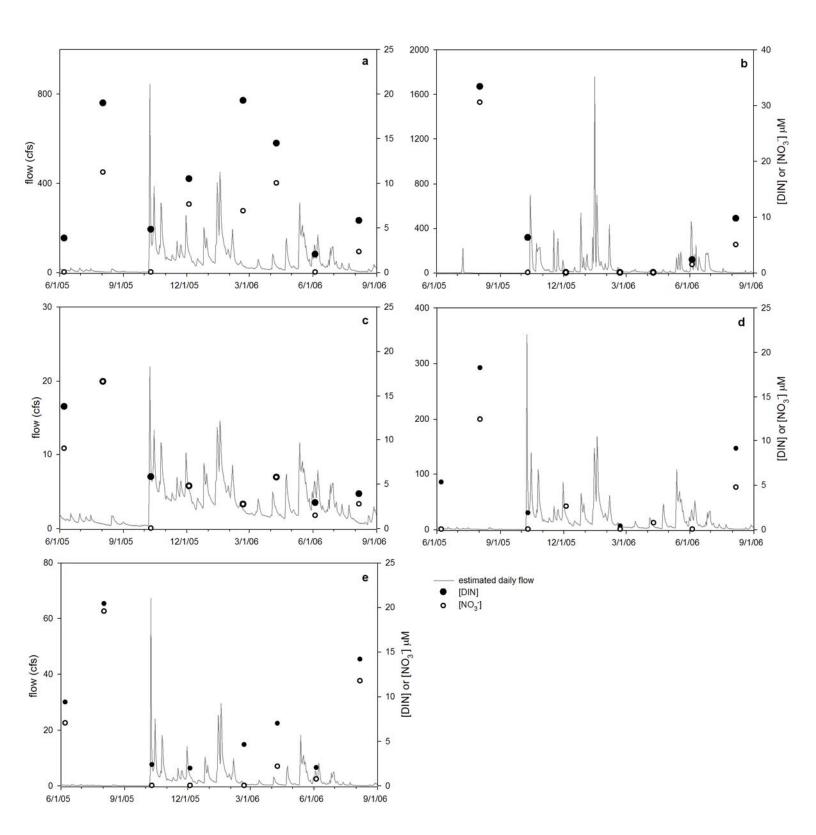
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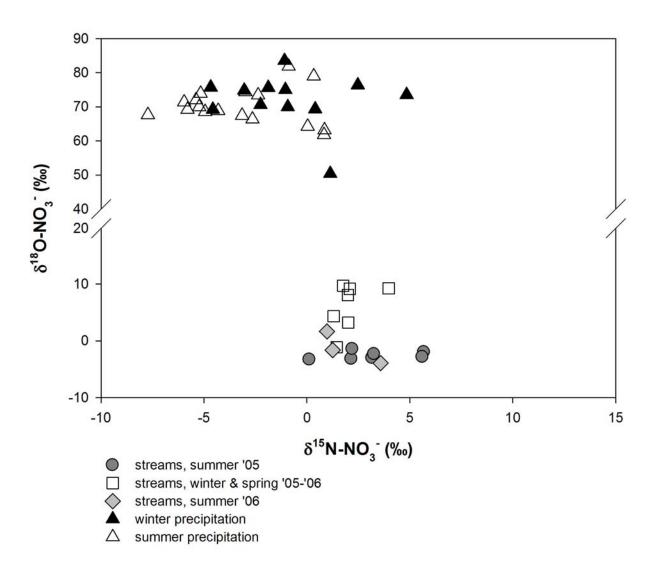
- Figure 4: Water temperature (°C) at time of sampling versus measured δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻.
- 19 The regression line represents the significant inverse relationship between water temperature and
- 20 δ^{18} O-NO₃, R²=0.54 (p<0.0001).

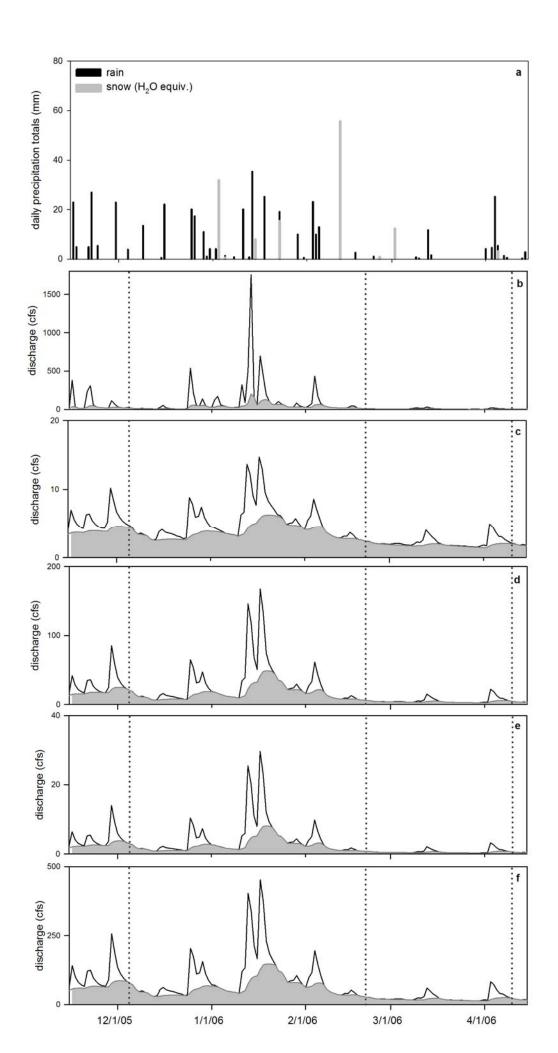
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- **Table 1:** Watershed attributes and summary data for each of the five watersheds sampled.
- 2 Averages are based on all available measurements and weighted appropriately; average NO₃
- 3 flux is weighted by flow measured in the field, average isotopic values for NO₃ are flux
- 4 weighted, and the average δ^{15} N for soil are weighted by area.

- 6 **Table 2**: Mixing model calculations determining the percentage of NO₃⁻ derived directly from
- 7 atmospheric deposition (AD) using the minimum and maximum measured δ^{18} O-NO₃ values
- 8 (50.37 to 83.52‰) for AD and -3.9‰ (minimum stream measurement) and -2.85‰ (calculated
- 9 minimum) for microbial nitrification (MN). * indicates the mixing model calculation yielded a
- 10 negative percent







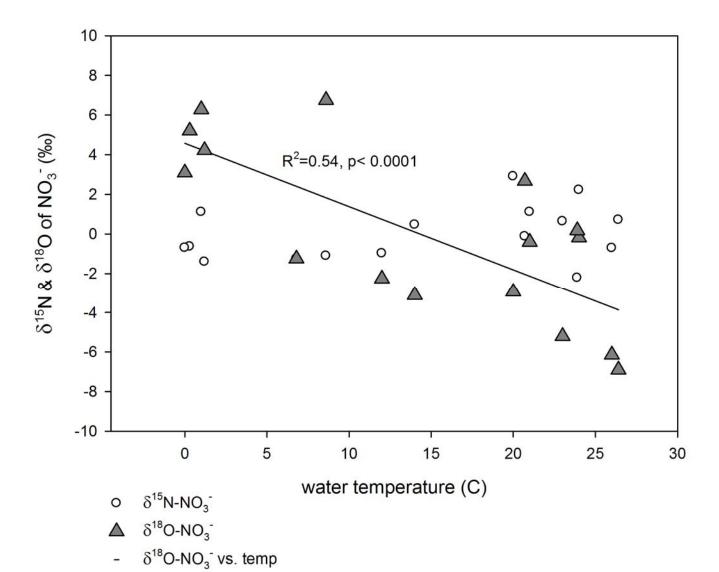


Table 1

stream	sampling location	area	land use/land cover	bedrock geology	surficial material	avg water yield	average flow weighted NO ₃ - flux
		km ²				m yr ⁻¹	kg km ⁻² yr ⁻¹
WBFR	73°6'40.95W 42°13'47.13N	35.9	78.2% forest 7.8% wetland 3.9% water 1.6% ag 8.5% urban	58% sulfidic schists 41% granite	93% till 7% gravel & sand	1.4	44.8
RB	73°8'15.39W 42°2'45.68N	4.1	87.3% forest 7% wetland 1.2% water 1.2% ag 3.9% urban	48% quartzose metasandstone 37% mafic gneiss 14% granite	92% till 7% gravel	0.7	40.8
SB	73°9'39.15W 42°4'44.01N	11.2	87% forest 3.3% wetland 3.1% water 4.1% ag 2.5% urban	66% quartzose metasandstone 24% granite 6% mafic gneiss	99% till 1% gravel & sand	1.0	10.1
HSR	72°4'29.44W 41°53'5.16N	1.9	97.3% forest 0% wetland 0% water 1.4% ag 1.4 urban	59% pelitic schist 30% granite 11% quartzose metasandstone	93% till 7% gravel & sand	0.9	5.9
СВ	72°24'42.47W 41°55'35.45N	7.5	75% forest 17.7% wetland 0% water 2.5% ag 4.7% urban	92% granite	98% till 2% swamp	1.3	16.0

Table 2

stream	date	streamwater δ ¹⁸ O-NO ₃	AD: 50.37 MN: - 3.9	AD: 83.52 MN: - 3.9	AD: 50.37 MN: - 2.85	AD: 83.52 MN: - 2.85
		% 0	% of stream NO ₃ from atmospheric deposition			
RB	6/2005	-3.0	1.6	1.0	0.0	0.0
HSR	6/2005	-3.3	1.1	0.7	*	*
WBFR	8/2005	-3.2	1.3	0.8	*	0.0
CB	8/2005	-2.0	3.5	2.2	1.6	1.0
RB	8/2005	-2.8	2.0	1.2	0.0	0.0
SB	8/2005	-2.3	2.9	1.8	1.0	0.6
HSR	8/2005	-1.4	4.5	2.8	2.6	1.6
WBFR	12/2005	9.2	24.1	14.9	22.6	13.9
RB	12/2005	4.3	15.2	9.4	13.5	8.3
SB	12/2005	8.1	22.1	13.7	20.5	12.6
WBFR	2/2006	9.2	24.2	15.0	22.7	14.0
RB	2/2006	3.2	13.1	8.1	11.4	7.0
WBFR	4/2006	9.7	25.1	15.6	23.6	14.5
RB	4/2006	-1.1	5.1	3.2	3.2	2.0
WBFR	8/2006	-3.9	0.0	0.0	*	*
CB	8/2006	-1.6	4.2	2.6	2.3	1.4
HSR	8/2006	1.6	10.2	6.3	8.4	5.2