1	Running Head: Processing of Atmospheric N in NE Forests
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4	watersheds in the northeastern U.S.
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1 *Key words:* atmospheric deposition, forests, nitrogen, stable isotopes

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3 Abstract: Nitrogen from atmospheric deposition serves as the dominant source of new nitrogen 4 to forested ecosystems in the northeastern U.S.. By combining isotopic data obtained using the 5 denitrifier method, with chemistry and hydrology measurements we determined the relative 6 importance of sources and control mechanisms on nitrate (NO₃⁻) export from five forested 7 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⁻. 8 Seasonal variations in the δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ in streamwater are controlled by shifting hydrology and 9 10 temperature affects on biotic processing, resulting in a relative increase in unprocessed NO_3^{-1} 11 export during winter months. Mass balance estimates find that the unprocessed atmospherically 12 derived NO₃⁻ stream flux represents less than 3% of the atmospherically delivered wet NO₃⁻ flux 13 to the region. This suggests that despite chronically elevated nitrogen deposition these forests 14 are not nitrogen saturated and are retaining, removing, and reprocessing the vast majority of 15 NO_3 delivered to them throughout the year. These results confirm previous work within 16 Northeastern U.S. forests and extend observations to watersheds not dominated by a snow-melt 17 driven hydrology. In contrast to previous work, unprocessed atmospherically derived NO_3^{-1} 18 export is associated with the period of high recharge and low biotic activity as opposed to spring 19 snowmelt and other large runoff events. 20 21

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1 Abbreviations:

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	¹⁸ O	Oxygen-18
7	¹⁵ N	Nitrogen-15
8	NADP	National Atmospheric Deposition Program
9	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	Ammonium
10	NO ₃ ⁻	Nitrate
11	NO ₂ ⁻	Nitrite
12	VSMOW	Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water
13	δ	delta
14	‰	per mill

15

16 Introduction

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
(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).
Atmospheric N deposition is one source of anthropogenic nitrogen loading affecting the

1 northeastern U.S., with nitrate (NO_3) comprising the majority of inorganic nitrogen (66%) 2 delivered via precipitation in Connecticut (Luo et al. 2003).

3 Forests in the northeastern US now receive 5 to 10 fold more nitrogen via atmospheric 4 deposition relative to pre-industrial conditions (Galloway et al. 2004), and understanding how 5 these ecosystems respond to an increase in a limiting nutrient remains a major research question 6 (Aber et al. 2003). Uncovering the effects of increased atmospheric deposition to forest 7 ecosystem processes can be difficult due to the number of factors shown to effect nitrogen 8 cycling within forested ecosystems, including past land use and disturbance history (Aber & 9 Driscoll 1997; Aber et al. 1997; Goodale et al. 2000), stand successional trends (Vitousek & 10 Reiners 1975), climate change (Mitchell et al. 1996), geology (Holloway et al. 1998; Williard et 11 al. 2005), elevation (Lawrence et al. 2000), and hydrology (Band et al. 2001). 12 In forested watersheds where stream NO_3^- fluxes have not increased despite elevated 13 nitrogen deposition, excess nitrogen is retained within the ecosystem or removed via 14 denitrification. Alternatively, an increase in NO₃ export indicates possible nitrogen saturation 15 (Stoddard 1994). However, due to the varied responses seen in watersheds the regional long-

16 term impacts of chronic nitrogen deposition are still debated (Aber et al. 2003).

The isotopic composition of NO₃⁻ (δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O) provides unique insights into the 17 18 nitrogen dynamics in forested watersheds because the dominant sources of stream NO₃, microbial nitrification and atmospheric deposition, have distinctive δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values (e.g. Burns 19 & Kendall 2002; Campbell et al. 2002; Durka et al. 1994) due to the highly enriched nature of 20 21 the δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ delivered via atmospheric deposition (e.g. Kendall 1998). Greater export of ¹⁸O enriched NO₃ will occur if atmospheric deposition exceeds the biological demand for NO₃, 22 23 enabling the use of a two end member mixing model to apportion sources. Currently the majority

1	of U.S. studies using the dual isotopes of NO_3^- have occurred in a narrow range of ecosystems
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 NO_3^- 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
8	potentially biased δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻ values due to exchange between the quartz reaction tube and the
9	CO ₂ 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
14	would result in a dampened seasonal pattern in stream δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻ as compared to similar studies
15	conducted in northern New England. To test this hypothesis, we measured the dual isotopic
16	composition of NO_3^- 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	NO ₃ ⁻ concentration data and calculated the proportion of unprocessed atmospheric NO ₃ ⁻
20	contributing to stream NO ₃ ⁻ export and the annual amount of atmospherically deposited NO ₃ ⁻
21	retained within the watershed.

23 Methods

1 Spatial Analysis

Watersheds were delineated using ArcHydro tools in ArcMap 9.1 (ESRI, Redlands, CA)
using NHDPlus data (USGS & USEPA 2005). Land use and impervious cover (MRLC 2005),
surficial materials (Stone et al. 1992) and bedrock geology (Rodgers 1985) datasets were
obtained from both federal and state agency websites. These data were then analyzed using tools
in ArcMap 9.1 to determine land use/land cover, surficial materials, and bedrock geology of each
watershed.

8

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

1 Streamwater was collected bi-monthly from five first-order streams in the Connecticut 2 River Watershed over a 14 month period (June 2005 to August 2006). Stream flow was 3 measured at each site at the time of sample collection using a Marsh-McBirney electromagnetic 4 current meter. Stream water was collected in acid-washed HDPE bottles and filtered through 0.7 5 um GF/F filters in the field and stored on ice until returning to lab. Water samples collected for 6 nitrate isotopic analyses were brought to pH 11 using 6M NaOH and frozen along with the samples reserved for $[NO_3^-]$, $[NO_2^-]$, and $[NH_4^+]$ analyses. 7 8 Precipitation samples were collected on an event basis throughout northern and central 9 Connecticut from June 2006 to March 2007 with the cooperation of wastewater treatment plant 10 operators in Manchester, Vernon, Winsted, Canton and Farmington Connecticut. Four liter glass 11 beakers were placed in open areas preceding a rainstorm and were collected shortly after it ended 12 to minimize evaporation and the collection of dry deposition; rainwater was immediately 13 transferred to acid washed polycarbonate bottles and frozen until analyses. 14 Collection of soil samples occurred during July and October of 2006 at seven sites within 15 the five watersheds. We sampled representative areas of each watershed based on results from 16 the GIS analysis of land use and surficial material (5 forest-till, 1 wetland-till, and 1 wetland-17 swamp). Three soil cores (0.813" x 8") were taken at each location, combined, and air dried for 18 approximately one week. A sub-sample of each soil was dried in a muffle furnace at 60°C for 24 19 hours and then homogenized with a Spex/CentriPrep 6750 freezer mill. 20 21 Sample analysis

Nitrogen ion analyses (NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, and NH₄⁺) 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
2	which NO_3^- and NO_2^- were quantitatively converted to N_2O . The $^{15}N/^{14}N$ and $^{18}O/^{16}O$ ratios of
3	the N_2O were then analyzed on a Finnigan Delta ^{PLUS} XP IRMS. These analyses were
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
7	deviation) for δ^{15} N-NO ₃ ⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻ , respectively. For all samples where [NO ₂ ⁻] made up
8	more than 1% of $[NO_3^++NO_2^-]$ samples were corrected following the method discussed
9	previously (Casciotti et al. 2007; Casciotti & McIlvin 2007), whereby the isotopic composition
10	of NO_2^- is measured by the azide method (McIlvin & Altabet 2005) and subtracted from NO_3^-
11	and NO ₂ ⁻ δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O to yield the δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO ₃ ⁻ .
12	The ^{15}N content of atmospheric NO_3^- determined from isotopic measurements of N_2O
13	must also be corrected for the contribution of ¹⁴ N ¹⁴ N ¹⁷ O to the mass 45 peak. Using the average
14	ratio of $\delta^{17}O/\delta^{18}O$ of rain samples collected in Princeton, NJ (Kaiser et al. 2007, Meredith G.
15	Hastings, personal communication) the following relationship was assumed (δ^{17} O $\approx 0.90 \text{ x } \delta^{18}$ O)
16	to correct the measured $\delta^{15}N$ of NO ₃ ⁻ in rain for the ¹⁷ O contribution to the ¹⁵ N/ ¹⁴ N ratio (see
17	work by Hastings and others (2004) for a similar correction).

19 Daily Flow Estimation and Hydrograph Separation

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

1 gauging station datasets (all data were log_{10} transformed) and the correlation coefficient (R²) for 2 each gauging station-field data pair was calculated. The gauging station with the highest R² (R² > 3 0.93) was chosen to estimate the mean daily flow for each stream using the MOVE.1 equation 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

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. Comparisons between the isotopic composition of nitrate in stream and precipitation samples 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 statistical analyses were conducted using Minitab (Minitab Inc.) and an α level of 0.05 was used to determine significance.

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18 Site description

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

stands. The surficial and bedrock materials do not differ appreciably between watersheds, with
glacial till overly metamorphic and igneous bedrock in all of the watersheds (Rodgers 1985;
Stone et al. 1992) (Table 1). The amount of open water is minimal in all of the watersheds
except for WBFR, where a dam, creates a large impoundment surrounded by wetlands (Table 1).
It is important to note that while a portion of some of the watersheds (up to 10%) are classified
as urban or agricultural land use, in all cases greater than 95% of this land is designated as open
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 NO_3^- and NH_4^+ 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 ($\sim 10\%$) of the average annual precipitation budget of 1140 mm 21 (Miller et al. 2002).

22

23 **Results**

1 Streamwater NO₃⁻ concentrations were low throughout the year ($[NO_3^{-}] < 30 \mu mol L^{-1}$) 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 NH_4^+ 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

of stream NO₃⁻ was statistically different (p < 0.001) from atmospheric deposition for both δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O, with the δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ in rain averaging 70‰ higher than that in streamwater (Figure 20 2).

83.5‰ (avg=70.9‰) with no significant seasonal patterns (Figure 2). The isotopic composition

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Baseflow separation estimates indicate 15 times greater baseflow from October 2005 to
 April 2006 as compared to June 2005 through September 2005. Sampling events occurred at or
 near baseflow conditions (baseflow > 90%) except for October 2005 and June 2006. However, it

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

5

6 **Discussion**

7 Seasonality of the isotopic composition of stream NO_3^-

Differences between δ^{15} N- and δ^{18} O-NO₃ of precipitation and stream water strongly 8 9 suggest that atmospherically derived NO_3^- is being processed in a stepwise fashion; NO_3^- is first 10 taken up by biota, converted into organic nitrogen, mineralized to ammonium, and later oxidized back to NO₃⁻ during nitrification. These processes lead to the enrichment of ¹⁵N in the residual 11 NO₃⁻ pool and may be responsible for the average 5% relative enrichment of streamwater δ^{15} N-12 NO₃⁻ as compared to atmospheric deposition δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (Figure 2). The processing of NO₃⁻ 13 within a watershed removes the high δ^{18} O values of atmospheric NO₃⁻, with the δ^{18} O essentially 14 15 reset by assimilation and subsequent nitrification to reflect the oxygen used as substrates of this microbial reaction. The δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ in soil and stream water can also be lowered relative to 16 17 atmospheric deposition by isotope dilution through the microbial oxidation of atmospherically 18 derived NH₄⁺ or dissolved organic nitrogen.

In the three streams (WBFR, SB and RB) with measurable NO₃⁻ flux during the winter there was a clear seasonal pattern in the δ^{18} O of stream NO₃⁻, 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 NO₃⁻ made up of unprocessed atmospheric NO₃⁻ (f_{atm}), versus NO₃⁻ that had been produced by nitrification within the watershed. 12

13
$$\frac{\delta^{18}O_{stream} - \delta^{18}O_{nitrification}}{\delta^{18}O_{atm} - \delta^{18}O_{nitrification}} = f_{atm}$$
(eqn 1)

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 δ^{18} O of the microbial nitrification source was not directly measured at our sites. 16 17 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 18 1984; Kumar et al. 1983), using our precipitation δ^{18} O-H₂O values (-16.02‰ to -0.08‰. R. 19 Barnes unpublished data) and a constant δ^{18} O-O₂ (23.5%). This calculation yields a range of 20 values from -2.85‰ to 7.78‰ for δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ produced via nitrification. The δ^{18} O values of 21 22 streamwater NO_3^- observed in this study (-3.9% to +9.7%), however, imply that for at least part 23 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 NO_3^- 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 NO_3^- 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

23 previous studies, the enrichment found in these non-snow dominated systems could not be

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.

5 High baseflow percentages coincided with the peak δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ of these systems (Figure 6 3) and therefore it is unlikely that runoff contributed to the observed δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ patterns. Both 7 higher recharge rates and reduced water demand by plants during the winter favor shorter flow 8 paths (Burns et al. 1998). We believe that the export of unprocessed atmospherically derived 9 NO₃⁻ is due in large part to these shorter flow paths, which reduce the opportunity for NO₃⁻ 10 processing.

11 Net nitrification potential measurements and modeling results also indicate that microbial 12 processes responsible for DIN export are strongly influenced by soil temperature and moisture 13 (Christ et al. 2002; Hong et al. 2006). Therefore, lowered rates of microbial nitrification may also contribute to the higher stream δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values in winter and spring (Figure 4). The lack 14 of a similar relationship between temperature and stream δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (Figure 4) could be due to 15 the different effects of microbial processing on δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻. Complete turnover of 16 the NO₃⁻ pool could result in little observed δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ change, while δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ is lowered from 17 high atmospheric δ^{18} O-NO₃ values to those of microbial nitrification. These processes could 18 result in the observed disconnect between the seasonal trends in stream δ^{15} N- and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ 19 20 with relatively higher δ^{18} O-NO₃ observed during the winter. However, the significant positive relationship between discharge and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ (p < 0.0001) could indicate that the relationship 21 between δ^{18} O-NO_s⁻ and temperature may only be due to simultaneous changes in hydrology. 22

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

2	The δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻ values in streams sampled in this study (-3.9‰ to 9.7‰) are generally
3	lower than those in other northeastern U.S. studies (~10‰ to 32‰, Burns & Kendall 2002;
4	Pardo et al. 2004), despite similar estimates of unprocessed atmospherically derived NO_3^- export.
5	One possible explanation is true variation in the δ^{18} O of the substrates (H ₂ O and O ₂) used during
6	nitrification at the different sites. Isotopic maps of δ^{18} O-H ₂ O (Kendall & Coplen 2001) in river
7	water suggests that the $\delta^{18}\mbox{O-H}_2\mbox{O}$ in the Catskills (-10 to -8‰) and White Mountains (-12 to -
8	10‰) is similar or slightly depleted in ¹⁸ O relative to our sites, providing no explanation for the
9	observed difference. Although micro-scale influences (e.g. respiration, exchange with fine
10	particulate organic matter, denitrification) on these substrates are possible, it is also possible that
11	the discrepancy is methodological. The studies mentioned within this paper, with the exception
12	of Ohte and others (2004), used the method described by Silva, Chang and colleagues (Chang et
13	al. 2002; Silva et al. 2000) and not the denitrifier method used here (Casciotti et al. 2002; Sigman
14	et al. 2001). It should be noted that the study conducted by Ohte and others (2004), reported a
15	range δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻ values (-7.7‰ to 18.3‰) in stream water which encompass our values. The off-
16	line combustion procedure used in the other studies has been shown to yield biased δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻
17	values as compared to samples using on-line combustion due to isotopic exchange between the
18	sample derived CO ₂ and the quartz combustion tube (Révész & Böhlke 2002). Furthermore, until
19	recently there were not a range of δ^{18} O NO ₃ ⁻ standards that allowed for more than a one-point
20	calibration (Böhlke et al. 2003), it was therefore difficult to detect the presence or magnitude of
21	the problem. More recent studies using off-line combustion, such as Hales and others (2007)
22	used a range of standards to calibrate their NO_3^- isotopic measurements and therefore it is far less
23	likely that their δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻ values are biased.

2 *Retention of atmospheric NO*³

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}):

9
$$\frac{f_{atm} \times FN_s}{FN_{atm}} = f_{unprocessed}$$
(eqn 2)

10 Calculations indicate that no more than 2% of NO₃⁻ entering the watersheds via precipitation 11 goes unprocessed annually. It is important to note that these calculations are based on wet 12 deposition NO₃⁻ fluxes and therefore represent a conservative estimate.

13 Overestimation of NO₃⁻ retention $(1-f_{uprocessed})$ is possible due to undetectable levels of 14 NO₃⁻ in 38% of our samples. In order to account for potential NO₃⁻ export associated with these 15 samples we repeated the calculations with estimated NO₃⁻ fluxes using the following 16 assumptions: (1) all samples with NO₃⁻ concentrations below the detection limit had [NO₃⁻-N] of 17 0.18 μ M, (2) during base flow conditions the proportion of unprocessed atmospheric NO₃⁻ (f_{atm}) 18 was set equal to the monthly average f_{atm} as calculated from the other streams, and (3) during 19 high flow conditions (October 2005, June 2006) f_{atm} was set to 100%. Application of these 20 assumptions did not change the estimates by more than 1% except in CB where retention 21 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

acknowledge that our estimates are based on a limited number of observations. Therefore, as a
check, we applied the same method to results presented by Pardo and others (2004) and
calculated N retention estimates ranging from 96 to 99% and 86 to 97% in Hubbard Brook
Experimental Forest and the Bowl Research Natural Area, respectively. These estimates are in
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%.

8 These retention estimates provide evidence that the vast majority of atmospherically 9 derived NO₃⁻ is retained or removed within the watershed despite chronically elevated levels of 10 N deposition, suggesting these forests have not reached nitrogen saturation. Furthermore, even 11 without a large above-ground biological demand, watersheds are capable of retaining NO₃⁻ 12 during the winter via biotic (e.g. microbial immobilization (Brooks et al. 1999)) and abiotic 13 mechanisms such as the reduction of iron (II) in organic soils followed by the conversion of NO₂⁻ 14 to dissolved organic nitrogen via reactions with dissolved organic material (Davidson et al. 15 2003).

16

17 Conclusions

By using measurements of δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O of NO₃⁻ in precipitation and streamwater in conjunction with estimates of the isotopic composition of microbially produced NO₃⁻ we distinguished sources of exported NO₃⁻ across forested watersheds in southern New England. We found that throughout the year soil N processes are the dominant source of exported NO₃⁻ 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 spring months not associated with large runoff events. Instead it is likely associated with reduced biotic uptake and reprocessing due to shorter flow paths associated with the period of groundwater recharge. Finally, retention estimates illustrate that despite increases in NO₃⁻ export during the winter and spring months, the watersheds are retaining, removing, or reprocessing 98% of annual atmospheric NO₃⁻ wet deposition.

Understanding how anthropogenic inputs of nitrogen affect the processing and export of nitrogen from forests to streams is important, as elevated rates of N deposition will continue. In particular, we need a better understanding of soil nitrification and how the isotopic signatures of NO₃⁻ produced by nitrification vary spatially and temporally. Comparing studies across the Northeastern U.S. points to the importance of seasonal changes in hydrology on soil nitrogen processing and the need of more research that examines how watershed hydrology controls nitrogen export and cycling.

14

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22

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1	Figure 1: Bimonthly concentrations of nitrate (NO ₃ ⁻), 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.
5	
6	Figure 2 : The δ^{15} N-NO ₃ ⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO ₃ ⁻ 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
10	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
12	following relationship: water equivalent = snow total/10). Estimated hydrographs for each
13	watershed are shown (b) Charter's Brook, (c) Riiska Brook, (d) Sandy Brook, (e) headwaters of
14	the Still River, (f) headwaters of the West Branch of the Farmington River. The derivation of
15	daily flow values and the baseflow separation calculations are discussed in the text. The dotted
16	vertical lines denote sampling events.
17	

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

21

Table 1: Watershed attributes and summary data for each of the five watersheds sampled.
 Averages are based on all available measurements and weighted appropriately; average NO₃⁻
 flux is weighted by flow measured in the field, average isotopic values for NO₃⁻ are flux
 weighted, and the average δ¹⁵N for soil are weighted by area.

5

6 **Table 2**: Mixing model calculations determining the percentage of NO_3^- derived directly from 7 atmospheric deposition (AD) using the minimum and maximum measured $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ 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

- 11
- 12









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	58% sulfidic schists	93% till	1.4	44.8
			1.6% ag 8.5% urban	41% granite	7% gravel & sand		
	73°8'15.39W 42°2'45.68N		87.3% forest 7% wetland	48% quartzose metasandstone	92% till	0.7	40.8
RB		4.1	1.2% water	37% mafic gneiss			
			1.2% ag 3.9% urban	14% granite	7% gravel		
	73°9'39.15W 42°4'44.01N	11.2	87% forest 3.3% wetland	66% quartzose metasandstone	99% till	1.0	10.1
SB			3.1% water 4.1% ag	24% granite	1%		
			2.5% urban	6% mafic gneiss	gravel & sand		
	72°4'29.44W 41°53'5.16N		97.3% forest 0% wetland	59% pelitic schist	93% till	0.9	5.9
HSR		1.9	0% water	30% granite			
			1.4% ag	11% quartzose	7%		
			1.4 urban	metasandstone	gravel & sand		
	72°24'42.47W 41°55'35.45N	7.5	75% forest		98% till		
			17.7% wetland		90% thi		
CB			0% water	92% granite		1.3	16.0
			2.5% ag		2%		
			4.7% urban		swamp		

Table	2
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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 atmospheride 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