

Isotopic evidence for the occurrence of biological nitrification and nitrogen deposition processing in forest canopies

Journal:	Global Change Biology
Manuscript ID:	Draft
Wiley - Manuscript type:	Primary Research Articles
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Guerrieri, Rossella; University of New Hampshire, Earth Systems Research Center Vanguelova, Elena ; Forest Research, Centre for Forestry and Climate change Michalski, Greg; Purdue University, Department of Earth, Atmospheric, and Planetary Sciences Heaton, Timothy; British Geological Survey, NERC Isotope Geosciences Laboratory Mencuccini, Maurizio; University of Edinburgh, School of GeoSciences; ICREA, CREAF
Keywords:	Nitrogen deposition, canopy nitrification, d15N, d18O, D17O, NH4-N, NO3-N, forest canopy interception, Scots pine, beech
Abstract:	This study examines the role of tree canopies in processing atmospheric nitrogen (Ndep) for four forests in the UK subjected to different Ndep loads: Scots pine and beech stands under high Ndep (HN, 13 and 19 kg N ha-1 yr-1, respectively), compared to Scots pine and beech stands under low Ndep (LN, 9 kg N ha-1 yr-1). Changes of NO3-N and NH4-N concentrations in rainfall (RF) and throughfall (TF) together with a quadruple isotope approach, which combines $\delta 180$, $\Delta 170$ and $\delta 15N$ in NO3- and $\delta 15N$ in NH4+, were used to assess N transformations within the canopies. Generally, HN sites showed higher NH4-N and NO3-N concentrations in RF compared to the LN sites. Similar values of $\delta 15N$ -NO3- and $\delta 180$ in RF suggested similar source of atmospheric NO3- (e.g., local traffic), while more positive values for $\delta 15N$ -NH4+ at HN compared to LN likely reflected the contribution of dry Ndep from intensive local farming. The isotopic signatures of the N-forms changed during canopy processing, although changes in ion concentrations between RF and TF were significant only at the HN sites. 15N-enriched NH4+ in TF compared to RF at all sites suggested canopies played an important role in buffering dry Ndep also at the low atmospheric N load. By using $\Delta 170$, we could prove for the first time that up to 60% of NO3- in TF at the HN sites derived from nitrification occurring in tree canopies, with a higher fraction in beech vs. Scots pine. Our study suggests that tree canopies do not play a passive role in the N cycling within forest ecosystems. Processing of Ndep within canopies should not be neglected and needs further exploration,

with the combination of powerful tracers, i.e., $\Delta 170$, in order to better quantify the role of forests as sinks but also sources of N.



1	Isotopic evidence for the occurrence of biological nitrification and nitrogen deposition	
2	processing in forest canopies	
3		
4	Guerrieri R ^{1,2} , Vanguelova E ³ , Michalski G ⁴ , Heaton THE ⁵ , Mencuccini M ^{2,6}	
5 6		
7 8	1. Earth Systems Research Center, University of New Hampshire, Morse Hall, 8 College Rd, Durham, NH 03824, USA	
9 10	2. School of GeoSciences, University of Edinburgh, Crew Building, West Mains Road, Edinburgh EH9 3JN, UK;	
11 12	3. Centre of Ecosystem, Society and Biosecurity, Forest Research, Alice Holt Lodge, Farnham, Surrey GU10 4LH, UK;	
13 14	4. Department of Earth, Atmospheric, and Planetary Sciences, Purdue University, 550 Stadium Mell Drive, West Lafayette, Indiana 47907, USA;	
15 16	 NERC Isotope Geosciences Laboratory, British Geological Survey, Keyworth, Nottingham NG12 5GG, UK 	
17 18	6. ICREA at CREAF, Cerdanyola del Valles, 08023 Barcelona Spain	
19		
20		
21	*Corresponding author: R. Guerrieri	
22	*Corresponding author: R. Guerrieri University of New Hampshire Earth Systems Research Center	
23	Earth Systems Research Center,	
24	Morse Hall, 8 College Rd	
25	Durham, NH 03824, USA	
26	rossellaguerrieri@gmail.com	
27 28		
29		
30		
31		
32		

1 Abstract

This study examines the role of tree canopies in processing atmospheric nitrogen (N_{dep}) for 2 3 four forests in the UK subjected to different N_{dep} loads: Scots pine and beech stands under high N_{dep} (HN, 13 and 19 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, respectively), compared to Scots pine and beech 4 stands under low N_{dep} (LN, 9 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). Changes of NO₃-N and NH₄-N concentrations in 5 6 rainfall (RF) and throughfall (TF) together with a quadruple isotope approach, which combines $\delta^{18}O$, $\Delta^{17}O$ and $\delta^{15}N$ in NO₃⁻ and $\delta^{15}N$ in NH₄⁺, were used to assess N 7 8 transformations within the canopies. Generally, HN sites showed higher NH₄-N and NO₃-N concentrations in RF compared to the LN sites. Similar values of δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O in RF 9 10 suggested similar source of atmospheric NO_3^- (e.g., local traffic), while more positive values for δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ at HN compared to LN likely reflected the contribution of dry N_{dep} from 11 12 intensive local farming. The isotopic signatures of the N-forms changed during canopy 13 processing, although changes in ion concentrations between RF and TF were significant only at the HN sites. ¹⁵N-enriched NH₄⁺ in TF compared to RF at all sites suggested canopies 14 played an important role in buffering dry N_{dep} also at the low atmospheric N load. By using 15 Δ^{17} O, we could prove for the first time that up to 60% of NO₃ in TF at the HN sites derived 16 17 from nitrification occurring in tree canopies, with a higher fraction in beech vs. Scots pine. 18 Our study suggests that tree canopies do not play a passive role in the N cycling within forest 19 ecosystems. Processing of N_{dep} within canopies should not be neglected and needs further exploration, with the combination of powerful tracers, *i.e.*, Δ^{17} O, in order to better quantify the 20 21 role of forests as sinks but also sources of N.

- 22
- 23

24 Key words: Nitrogen deposition, $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$, $\Delta^{17}O$, NH₄, NO₃, forest canopy interception, 25 canopy nitrification, Scots pine, beech 1

2 **1. Introduction**

3 Forest canopies play a significant role in regulating carbon and water exchanges with the 4 atmosphere, with profound effects on climate. On one hand, through photosynthesis in the 5 canopy, forests remove from the atmosphere approximately 30% of anthropogenically 6 produced carbon dioxide (CO₂) annually (Schulze, 2006; Canadell et al., 2007), thus 7 contributing to the mitigation of climate change. On the other hand, CO_2 uptake occurs at the 8 expense of water taken up from the soil and subsequently lost through stomata during 9 transpiration, with both having significant effects on the terrestrial hydrological cycle (Bonan, 10 2008).

11 The contribution of tree canopies in altering the chemical composition of precipitation and, 12 consequently, the nutrient cycling within a forest has been less investigated. In particular, it is 13 unclear whether the deposition of reactive nitrogen species (N_{dep}) to canopies is retained, re-14 emitted and/or altered by chemical or biological reactions, and what a portion and chemical 15 form of deposited N eventually reaches the soil as washed out N-compounds. Interception of 16 N_{dep} by forest canopies contributes to the cycling of N in the terrestrial biosphere, thereby 17 affecting plant health, community structure and biodiversity, nutrient cycling, greenhouse gas 18 balance, soil pH and water quality (Cape and Pearcy, 1998; Galloway et al., 2004; Lindberg et 19 al., 1986; Pitcairn et al. 1998; Pitman et al., 2010; Prescott, 2002; Rennenberg and Gessler, 20 1999; Vanguelova et al., 2011; Vitousek et al., 1997).

Understanding all the interactions taking place between atmospheric N and forest canopies, under different environmental conditions, for various forest types (*e.g.*, conifer vs. broadleaf forests), for contrasting N loadings, chemical forms and species remains complex. Systematic monitoring of the main N chemical species (*i.e.*, NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, dissolved organic N) in rainfall (RF) and throughfall (TF) has now been carried out for almost two decades in a network of

experimental European forests (*i.e.*, Level II network of ICP plots http://icp-forests.net/).
While these measurements quantify the atmospheric N inputs to forests and soils, they have
not been useful for assessing in-canopy processes that may be affecting changes in N
compounds.

5 Forests are particularly efficient at scavenging pollutants via dry and occult deposition due to 6 their aerodynamically rough canopies (Fowler et al. 1989). As a consequence, the total N 7 speciation and N concentration in RF differ from those in TF. Fluxes of N in TF reflect a 8 mixture of wet, occult (fog/cloud), and dry deposition, that may also be chemically or 9 biologically modified during canopy exchange and uptake. Commonly, TF has a higher N-10 compounds concentration compared with RF, particularly in area subjected to high N input 11 from the atmosphere (Vanguelova et al., 2010), due to the washing out of dry N_{dep} through 12 forest canopies. Occult deposition can also be marked in areas where seasonal fogs and N pollution sources coincide. This has resulted in very large N inputs (25-45 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) to the 13 14 most highly exposed forests of the Los Angeles air basin (Bytnerowicz and Fenn, 1996). 15 Foliar uptake of aqueous N was recently proved to occur in beech and birch, with NH_4^+ more 16 readily taken up than the NO_3^- (Wuyts et al., 2015). Ammonia is readily absorbed directly 17 onto foliage and TF N fluxes are enhanced in forests that are near NH₃ sources such as agricultural areas (Vanguelova and Pitman, 2009). Moreover, in very low N_{dep} areas (e.g., 18 total N_{dep} of 2–3 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), such as in Finland, tree canopies tend to retain much of the N 19 20 they capture by dry deposition due to uptake by epiphytic lichens, microbial immobilization 21 within the canopy, N absorption into foliage and assimilation by leaves and stems (Mustajärvi 22 et al., 2008). A recent study conducted in forests within the Italian national long-term 23 monitoring network CONECOFOR reported a canopy consumption of N for sites at low N_{dep} , *i.e.*, < 4-6 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Ferretti et al., 2014). Similarly, in a study conducted in three 24 25 National Park in Washington State (USA) subjected to low N_{dep} was found that up to 90% of

the atmospheric N, mostly in the form of NO₃-N, was consumed by the forest canopies (Fenn
et al., 2013).

The stable nitrogen isotope composition ($\delta^{15}N$) of wet N_{dep} has helped to characterize the 3 4 sources of atmospheric N (Freyer, 1991; Heaton, 1987, Kendall et al. 2007 and references 5 therein) and its transformations when interacting with the biosphere, as assessed through measurements of $\delta^{15}N$ in plants and soil (Ammann et al., 1999; Guerrieri et al., 2009, 2011; 6 7 Nadelhoffer et al., 1999; Saurer et al., 2004; Savard et al., 2009). In addition, observations have been made of changes in the $\delta^{15}N$ of NO₃⁻ in TF that suggested the occurrence of 8 9 nitrification processes in the canopy (*i.e.*, from NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻) of Norway spruce of central 10 Europe (Sah and Brumme, 2003) and of montane rain forest in Ecuador (Schwarz et al., 11 2011). Teuber et al. (2007) found evidence that autotrophic nitrifiers were present in the 12 needles of a spruce forest exposed to high levels of N_{dep} (but not in needles of tree canopies exposed to low levels of N_{dep}), and proposed that canopy N transformations may partly be 13 14 bacterial. However, a broad range of processes can lead to similar alterations of TF isotopic 15 composition, so distinguishing between various processes using a single-isotope approach is 16 challenging.

The application of the dual isotope approach, *i.e.*, the combined measurement of $\delta^{15}N$ and 17 δ^{18} O in NO₃⁻ in bulk precipitation and stream water has provided another important step 18 19 towards a better understanding of the importance of N_{dep} and of its cycling in forests. For example, δ^{18} O can help assess whether the NO₃⁻ in the soil solution derives from atmospheric 20 21 N or from nitrification processes. This is possible because of the large difference between the 22 isotopic signature of the atmospherically-derived NO_3^- (between 20 and 80 %) and the 23 signature for the NO_3^- derived from nitrification (between -10 and +10 %, Kendall, 1998; 24 Burns and Kendall, 2002).

1 An even more powerful approach has been proposed by Michalski et al. (2002, 2003) and Costa et al., (2011) based on the measurements of δ^{17} O, together with δ^{18} O, to characterize 2 the sources of NO₃⁻. Mass-dependent isotope fractionation leads to a consistent relationship 3 between δ^{17} O and δ^{18} O, *i.e.*: δ^{17} O $\approx 0.52 \times \delta^{18}$ O (Matsuhisa et al., 1978; Miller, 2002; Young 4 5 et al., 2002). However, in the case of ozone-mediated nitrate formation in the atmosphere, 6 mass-independent oxygen isotope compositions are observed (Michalski et al., 2002). This 'excess' of ¹⁷O is quantified by $\Delta^{17}O = \delta^{17}O - 0.52 \times \delta^{18}O$). This means that ozone-derived 7 NO₃⁻ has a Δ^{17} O > 0, while mass-dependent nitrification produces NO₃⁻ with Δ^{17} O = 0. These 8 9 new tools offer the possibility to test some of the hypotheses previously proposed in the 10 literature, in particular to determine the relative contribution of occult dry deposition and of 11 bacterial-mediated nitrification in tree canopies to the chemical composition of canopy TF 12 and the N input to the soil.

13 This study investigated whether N transformations occurred within the tree canopies of four 14 different forests in the UK subjected to different levels of N_{dep}. The NO₃-N and NH₄-N 15 concentrations in RF and TF were used to assess the role of canopy in filtering and changing atmospheric N speciation. Furthermore, we used δ^{15} N- δ^{18} O and Δ^{17} O in NO₃⁻ and the measure 16 of $\delta^{15}N$ in NH₄⁺, to assess if and how atmospheric N is processed within the canopy. In 17 particular we tested the following hypotheses: 1) In forests with low levels of N_{dep} (*i.e.*, 10 kg 18 ha-1 yr-1) no differences exist between RF and TF for either ions concentrations or their 19 isotopic signature. Therefore, the composition and isotopic signatures of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ in TF 20 21 should reflect that of atmospheric N in RF, as a result of low canopy processing and canopy uptake. 2) At high N_{dep} sites, exceeding critical N loads (*i.e.*, 20-30 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), significant 22 23 differences exist between RF and TF for both ionic concentrations and their isotopic 24 signature, as a result of isotope fractionations during N processing within the canopy and enhanced by the high input of wet and dry N_{dep} . Finally, we used Δ^{17} O to determine if a mass-25

1 dependent bacterial nitrification from NH_4^+ to NO_3^- occurs in forest canopies at high N_{dep} 2 levels.

3

4

2. Materials and Methods

5 2.1 Site description and sampling

6 Two Scots pine (Pinus sylvestris L) stands and two beech (Fagus sylvatica L.) stands were 7 The pine stands were within the UK Forest Monitoring network studied. 8 (http://www.forestry.gov.uk/fr/INFD-67MEVC; Vanguelova et al., 2010), which is part of the 9 ICP European Forest Network. The two beech stands are part of long term experiments on 10 monitoring of the effects of N_{dep} on forest and soil biochemical cycling in the UK 11 (Vanguelova and Pitman, 2009, 2011). Two sites, one for each tree species, were situated at 12 Alice Holt and Rogate (6 km apart) in South East England and the remaining two sites were 13 at Thetford (< 8 km apart), East England. These sites were chosen on the basis of similarity in 14 stand (age, density, and management history), climate, and soil conditions, but at contrasting 15 levels of ambient N_{dep} (Table 1). In particular, the pine and beech stands at Thetford are subjected to higher background levels of N_{dep} (13 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and 19 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, 16 respectively) compared to forest stands at Alice Holt and Rogate (9-10 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) 17 18 (Table 1). Thetford in East Anglia, is known to be among the areas with highest atmospheric 19 N inputs in the UK (RoTAP report, 2012; Vanguelova et al., 2010), mostly as dry N_{dep} , 20 coming mainly from the intensive livestock farms (in particular pigs and chickens). Therefore, 21 the two forest stands in Thetford will be referred to as HN (high nitrogen) and the forests in 22 Rogate and Alice Holt as LN (low nitrogen) sites. Rainfall (RF) and throughfall (TF) 23 sampling and analysis have been carried at the sites over a number of years by means of two 24 bulk RF collectors and 10 TF collectors per site. Sampling and analytical procedures followed 25 the level II protocols described in detail in the ICP Forests manual (2010). In this study only

samples collected during the 2011 growing season, from June until November, were
 considered.

3

4 2.2 Chemical and isotope analyses of water samples

5 After collection, RF and TF water samples were filtered through a 0.45 µm membrane filter 6 and then analysed for NH₄-N, colorimetrically, for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and total 7 N by Carbon analyser (Shimadzu 5000, Osaka, Japan) and for NO₃-N by Ion Chromatography 8 (Dionex DX-500). Dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) was calculated from measured total and 9 inorganic nitrogen forms. Other chemical components were measured as described in 10 Vanguelova et al. (2010), but were not included in this investigation. The RF and TF 11 elemental fluxes were calculated using measured water volumes at the sites and measured 12 elemental concentrations. Dry N_{dep} values were estimated as difference between RF and TF 13 for each of the N-form according to European ICP forest monitoring manual, which assumed 14 zero canopy exchange (ICP, 2010) (Table 1).

15 A sub-sample of the water analysed for ion concentrations was used for stable isotope 16 measurements. Water collected from June until August and then from September until 17 November was combined to obtain a minimum of 0.5 mg of NH₄-N and NO₃-N for the 18 isotope analyses. This was also necessary for RF water samples collected at the two LN and 19 the two HN sites. Pooling RF water samples within each level of N_{dep} are not likely to have 20 impacted the results. There was no significant differences in the amount of NO₃-N and NH₄-21 N in RF at either of the two sites, except at Thetford where the NH₄-N was significantly 22 (p<0.05) higher in the beech relative to the pine stand. This was likely the result of the beech 23 site being located only a few hundred meters away from a chicken farm that generates NH₃ 24 concentrations as high as $\sim 73 \,\mu \text{g/m}^3$ (Vanguelova and Pitman, 2009, 2011).

1 Each RF and TF sample was composited as described above and then passed through cation 2 and anion exchange resins. Ammonium from the cation resin was eluted with hydrochloric 3 acid and converted to ammonium sulfate on a quartz filter paper using an alkaline diffusion 4 method (Heaton, 2001). Nitrate from the anion resin was eluted with hydrobromic acid, and processed to silver nitrate (Chang et al., 1999; Heaton et al., 2004). The ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratios of the 5 6 ammonium sulfate and the silver nitrate were analysed by combustion in a Flash EA on-line to a Delta Plus XL mass spectrometer (ThermoFinnigan, Bremen, Germany), with \cdot ¹⁵N 7 8 values versus air (atmospheric N₂) calculated by comparison with standards calibrated against IAEA N 1 and N 2 assuming these had values of +0.4% and +20.3%, respectively. ¹⁸O/¹⁶O 9 10 ratios of the silver nitrate were analysed by thermal conversion to CO gas at 1400°C in a TC-11 EA on-line to a Delta Plus XL mass spectrometer (ThermoFinnigan, Bremen, Germany), with δ^{18} O values calculated versus SMOW by comparison with IAEA-NO₃ assuming it had a value 12 of +25.6%. Analytical precisions (1 SD) were typically <0.3% for \cdot ¹⁵N and <0.6% for 13 δ^{18} O. Finally, a sub-sample of the composite RF and TF water as described above was used 14 for δ^{17} O measurements by Delta V Plus ratio mass spectrometer. The NO₃⁻ was converted to 15 O₂ and N₂ using the denitrifier method (Casciotti et al., 2002; Kaiser et al., 2009). Analytical 16 precisions (1 SD) for Δ^{17} O were <1.0% based on replicate analysis of the reference material 17 18 USGS35.

19

20 2.3 Data analyses

21 2.3.1 Statistical analyses

22 Concentrations of NH_4 -N, NO_3 -N were log-transformed to account for non-normality and 23 variance heterogeneity, as assessed through Shapiro and Levene test, respectively. 24 Independent sample *t*-tests were employed to test for differences between deposition levels 25 (e.g. HN and LN) and water samples (i.e., RF and TF) for NH_4 -N and NO_3 -N, while, within

9

1 each water sample, differences between concentrations of different compounds were tested 2 through paired-samples t-test (t). The non-parametric Wilcoxon test (W) was employed when 3 log-transformed data did not conform to a normal distribution. Given the small sample size 4 available for the isotopic data, we calculated the difference in isotopic fractionation between 5 TF and RF without separating beech and pine stands and used a *t*-test to test the significance 6 of the difference between LN and HN stands. The level of significance of all statistical tests 7 was set as $p \le 0.05$. R project statistical computing (vers. 3.0.2; R Core Development Team, 8 2014) was used for all the analyses.

9

10 2.3.2 Mass balance calculation

11 A mass balance approach, based on the use of Δ^{17} O, was employed to assess the sources of 12 NO₃⁻ collected in the TF at the HN sites by using end-members analyses using the following 13 equations:

14
$$\Delta^{17}O_{Tf} = f_{Bio}(\Delta^{17}O_{Bio}) + f_{Atm}(\Delta^{17}O_{Atm})$$
 (1)

15 where $\Delta^{17}O_{Tf}$ is the measured isotopic composition of NO₃⁻ in TF, while $\Delta^{17}O_{Bio}$ and $\Delta^{17}O_{Atm}$ 16 indicate the isotopic signatures of the biologically and atmospherically-derived NO₃⁻, 17 respectively. f_{Bio} and f_{Atm} are the unknown NO₃⁻ mole fractions from the two different sources, 18 the sum of which is 1. f_{Atm} included both wet (f_{wet}) and the dry (f_{dry}) NO₃⁻ deposition washed 19 out from the canopy and not retained and/or taken up by the canopies (f_U), i.e., $f_{Atm}=f_{Wet}+f_{Dry}-$ 20 f_U . Assuming that $\Delta^{17}O_{Bio}=0$ (Michalski et al. 2003), equation 1 can be reduced to:

21
$$f_{Atm} = (\Delta^{17} O_{Tf} / \Delta^{17} O_{Atm})$$
 (2)

22 and

$$23 \qquad f_{Bio} = 1 - f_{Atm} \tag{3}$$

- 24
- 25

1	
2	3. Results
3	3.1 Concentrations of NH_4 -N and NO_3 -N in RF and TF
4	The concentration of N compounds in RF and TF at the two sites were significantly different.
5	At the two LN sites the concentrations of ions in RF were not significantly different (Fig. 1)
6	and the RF and TF had similar NH ₄ -N and NO ₃ -N concentrations, (Scots pine: $t=1.78$, 7.97
7	and $p=0.11$, 0.56, respectively; beech: $W=163$, 125 and $p=0.73$, 0.48, respectively). In
8	contrast, at the HN sites, the NH ₄ -N and NO ₃ -N concentrations were significantly higher in
9	TF compared to RF, for both Scots pine ($t=6.42$, 6.26, 4.45, respectively; all $p<0.001$) and
10	beech (<i>W</i> =265, 250, respectively; all <i>p</i> <0.001) (Fig. 1). Ion concentrations in both RF and TF
11	were significantly higher at the HN (Scots pine – RF: NO ₃ -N = 0.58 ± 0.09 , NH ₄ -N= $0.72 \pm$
12	0.09; TF: NO ₃ -N = 3.04 ± 0.69 , NH ₄ -N = 2.47 ± 0.38 ; Beech –RF: NH ₄ -N = 2.09 ± 0.18 ; TF:
13	$NO_3-N = 1.53\pm0.17$, $NH_4-N = 7.18\pm0.9$) than LN sites (Scots pine – RF: $NO_3-N = 0.31\pm0.05$,
14	NH ₄ -N= 0.27 ±0.03; TF: NO ₃ -N= 0.69 ± 0.30, NH ₄ -N = 0.66 ± 0.21; Beech – RF: NH ₄ -N =
15	0.5 ± 0.12 ; TF: NO ₃ ⁻ = 0.60 ±0.06, NH ₄ -N = 0.47 ± 0.06), with the exception of RF in the
16	beech stands, which had similar NO ₃ -N concentrations (LN= 0.47 ± 0.09 ; HN= 0.53 ± 0.05).
17	The mean of total N fluxes based on measured rainfall and measured during the 6 months we
18	considered in this study (i.e., June to November 2011) are reported in Table 2. TF-N fluxes
19	were higher than RF fluxes at the HN sites, with particular reference to the NH_4^+ at the beech

site. By contrast, at the LN sites RF N-fluxes were higher than TF-N fluxes for both species 20 21 (Table 2).

22

3.2 Values of δ^{15} N-NH₄ 23

Values of δ^{15} N of NH₄ in RF (Fig. 2A) ranged from positive at the HN site (+ 1.49 ±3.5 %) to 24

very negative at the LN site (-9.14‰±0.2). Due to the limited number of measurements (i.e., 25

1 n=2 per species and per water sample), statistical analyses of isotope data were performed per 2 level of N_{dep} , combining data for both tree species and focussing on the differences between RF and TF. However, TF values measured separately for beech and Scots pine are presented 3 4 in Figure 2A, to show the species-specific changes in the isotope compositions in N compounds collected below the canopies. More positive values were measured for δ^{15} N-NH₄ 5 6 in TF compared to RF at both HN (t=-2.85, p<0.05) and LN (t=-15.16, p<0.001) sites. The TF-RF difference for δ^{15} N in NH₄ was much higher (*t*=-2.65, *p*<0.05) at the LN compared to 7 8 the HN site (Fig. 2B).

9

10 3.3 Values of $\delta^{15}N$, $\delta^{18}O$ and $\Delta^{17}O$ -NO₃

11 The δ^{15} N in NO₃⁻ of RF (Fig. 3A) showed similar negative values at the HN (-3.4 %₀ ± 1.4)

12 and LN sites (-2.8% $tartheref{eq: 1.7}$). Albeit lower, the δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values in TF at the HN sites (diff= -

13 4.9 $\% \pm 3.4$) were only slightly different (t = -1.72, p = 0.06) compared to the LN sites (diff=

14 +1.1 ‰ ± 0.54) (Fig. 3D). Despite differences between RF and TF for δ^{15} N in NO₃⁻ not being

15 significant within each level of N_{dep} , it is worth mentioning that at the HN sites, δ^{15} N in NO₃⁻

16 showed more negative values in TF than RF, especially for Scots pine (Figure 3A).

17 The δ^{18} O in NO₃⁻ of RF showed similar values at the two different levels of N_{dep} , i.e., LN =

18 63.9 % $_{o} \pm 0.88$; HN =64.1 % $_{o} \pm 3.2$ (Fig. 3B). Within each level of N_{dep} , δ^{18} O values did not

19 significantly differ between RF and TF. However, a significant contrast (t=-2.34, p<0.05) was

20 found in the difference between the δ^{18} O values of NO₃⁻ in TF compared with RF across

21 levels of N_{dep} (Figure 3E), with more negative δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values at HN than LN sites.

22 Δ^{17} O values measured in RF at our sites ranged from 23.14 (±0.58) % at the LN sites to 25.53

- 23 (±0.76) % at the HN sites. A significant difference was found in the Δ^{17} O of NO₃⁻ in the TF
- 24 vs. RF at the HN sites (W=16, p<0.05), but not at the LN sites. Within individual species, it is

worth pointing out that beech showed lower Δ^{17} O values than Scots pine (Figure 3C). When 1 we considered the difference between RF and TF, Δ^{17} O values in NO₃⁻ had lower values at the 2 3 HN sites (t = -1.86, p=0.05) than LN sites (Fig. 3F). Combined plots for the three isotopic species of NO3⁻ at the Scots pine and beech sites are 4 5 given in Figure 4 as trajectories of change from RF to TF values, to emphasise the 6 consequences of canopy processing for the three tracers, with particular references to forests at HN levels. For Scots pine (Fig. 4 A and B), only in the case of HN sites did $\delta^{15}N,\,\delta^{18}O\,$ and 7 to less extent Δ^{17} O values in TF diverge from those measured in RF. For beech (Fig.4 C and 8 D), distinct changes in δ^{18} O vs. δ^{15} N were not observed, and only in the case of HN sites, did 9 10 Δ^{17} O become lower from RF to TF.

11

12 3.4 Assessing the source of NO_3^- in the TF at the sites with high atmospheric N loads

13 Mass balance calculations (Eq. 2 and 3 in the section 2.3.2) were used to estimate the relative 14 contribution of atmospheric vs. nitrification-derived NO_3^- collected underneath tree canopies. Using the two end-member mixing model with Δ^{17} O values measured in TF and RF during 15 16 2011 growing season (Table 3), the fraction of NO₃⁻ in TF coming from nitrification (f_{bio}) 17 ranged from 0.13 up to 0.6 (*i.e.*, 13 to 60%) at the two HN sites (Fig. 5A). Most of the NO_3^{-1} collected in the TF at the Scots pine stand derived from the atmosphere (mean of f_{Atm} = 18 19 0.83±0.05), with only a minor contribution from nitrification (mean of $f_{Bio}=0.17\pm0.05$). By 20 contrast, biologically-derived NO_3^- seemed to be the dominant fraction of the NO_3^- in TF of 21 the beech stand ($f_{Bio}=0.59\pm0.04$), at least for the time period considered in this study (Fig. 5 22 A). Interestingly, the f_{Bio} seems to show a species specific seasonal trend, although the few 23 point measurements did not allow us to test it statistically (Fig. 5B). Nevertheless, the mass 24 balance calculations did not help assessing the source of NO₃⁻ in TF at the LN sites. When we used eq. 2 with Δ^{17} O values measured at the LN sites, we obtained values of $f_{Atm} > 1$ for beech 25

 $(f_{Atm} = 1.1 \text{ in June-August and } 1.2 \text{ in September-November})$, which then held to negative 1 values for f_{Bio} . Whereas in the case of the Scots pine f_{Atm} was > 1 (*i.e.*, 1.2) for the late 2 summer/fall months, while in the most active period of the growing season we were able to 3 detect that f_{Atm} and f_{Bio} were 0.51 and 0.49, respectively. However, the two end-member 4 mixing model with $\Delta^{17}O$ should be used with caution at the LN sites. Indeed, in this case 5 using Δ^{17} O as the end-member of the mixing model can be sensitive to errors, due to the low 6 NO₃-N concentrations in RF and similar NO₃-N values in RF and TF coupled with the lack of 7 difference in Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ between RF and TF. 8

- 9
- 10 **4. Discussion**
- 11

12 4.1 Characterizing atmospheric N and its isotopic signatures at the contrasting N_{dep} levels 13 Both tree species at HN sites were subjected to air masses with high NH₃ concentrations and 14 had higher NH₄-N deposition relative to the LN sites. The HN beech site, which is right next 15 to an intensive chicken farm, is trapping the farms high NH₃ emissions along a very distinct 16 200 m long N gradient where concentrations decrease to levels similar to those in the Scots 17 pine site or the unpolluted Alice Holt site (Vanguelova and Pitman, 2009). This is showed by 18 the higher NH₄-N concentrations at the beech site than the HN Scots pine site, while no 19 difference was found for NO_3 -N concentrations (Fig. 1). These results are in line with the 20 results from long-term monitoring within the ICP forest network, which showed that Thetford 21 is among the sites receiving highest N deposition in the UK (RoTAP report, 2012; 22 Vanguelova et al., 2010), due to the high N_{dep} , mostly as dry N_{dep} and in the reduced form, 23 coming mainly from the intensive livestock farms (in particular pigs and chickens). 24 Most of the N deposited as NO₃-N came from the wet portion and NO₃-N deposition was similar at both HN and LN sites (e.g., 3.3 and 3.2 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, respectively; Table 1). This 25

1	supports the evidence that in the comparisons of HN with LN areas, amount and chemical
2	form of dry deposition play important roles in canopy N filtering and in the amount reaching
3	the soils. Records over more than 10 years also suggest the overall total N_{dep} at the Thetford
4	pine site has decreased due to reductions in wet (in both forms NH ₄ -N and NO ₃ -N) rather than
5	dry deposition (Vanguelova et al., 2010), confirming the national trend (RoTAP, 2012). The
6	different contribution of dry vs. wet N_{dep} at the site-level is in agreement with deposition rates
7	obtained from 5×5 km scale modelled deposition map (RoTAP report, 2012). The modelled
8	(5 x 5 km) data suggested similar values of the total oxidized N forms (NO ₃ , NO ₂ and HNO ₃)
9	between HN (17.92 kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) and LN (18.68 17.92 kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) sites. Whereas, the HN
10	and LN sites had different rates of measured NH_3/NH_4 deposition (30 kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹ and 16 kg
11	ha^{-1} yr ⁻¹ , respectively) with the dry NH_4/NH_3 deposition contributing the most to the total
12	(HN= 25.5 versus LN= 11.31 kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹). In contrast there were similar rates of NH_4^+ wet
13	deposition at both the HN (5.7 kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) and LN (5.3 kg ha ⁻¹ y ⁻¹) sites. This suggests that
14	capturing small scale variability in N_{dep} , and especially as dry deposited NH ₃ is vital to
15	understanding and assessing the impact on the environment.
16	Isotopic signatures measured in NO_3^- and NH_4^+ in RF (Fig. 2, 3A, B) at our sites were in the
17	same range of values found in previous analyses of monthly rainfall samples from a range of
18	sites in the UK (Heaton et al, 1997; Curtis et al., 2012; Heaton, unpublished data; Table 4).
19	Overall, δ^{15} N values in NH ₄ ⁺ measured across the UK ranged from negative to positive values
20	(-12.6% o to +2.8% o), with a mean of $-4.3% o$. The positive values observed at the Thetford sites
21	are likely reflecting the contribution of NH4/NH3 emissions coming from the chicken
22	intensive farms in the area. Indeed, Heaton et al. (1997) reported that the \cdot ¹⁵ N value of TF
23	ammonium in part of a Scots pine plantation artificially fumigated with ammonia gas was
24	17% higher than the value for TF in the non-fumigated part of the plantation. Moreover, in a
25	recent study Yeatman et al. (2001) measured δ^{15} N values of + 13.5‰ in aerosol-NH ₄ sampled

near chicken, cow and pig livestock enterprises and positive δ¹⁵N values in bulk precipitation
 were also reported by Emmett et al. (1998) for two conifer stands near livestock feed lots in
 the Netherland.

The δ^{15} N values of NO₃⁻ were in the same range as those reported in the study by Heaton et 4 5 al. (1997). However, a high range of values was measured across the UK (-8.2% to +4.3%) (Table 4), with a mean δ^{15} N-NO₃ values of -2‰. A similar range of δ^{15} N values in NO₃⁻ from 6 7 -11 % to +3.5 % was reported in studies across the USA (Kendall et al., 1998; Kendall et al., 2007; Elliott et al., 2007), while Tobari et al. (2010) measured $\delta^{15}N$ values in bulk 8 9 precipitation ranging from -7 to +15.4 % across different watersheds in Japan. Moreover, a number of studies in the literature used $\delta^{15}N$ to assess the anthropogenic NO_x source. For 10 instance, very negative (-13% to -2%) \cdot ¹⁵N-NO_x values were reported in the case of 11 12 emissions coming from traffic, while positive values (between 4% and 16%) were measured for emissions from coal-fired power plants (Heaton, 1990). Similar values of δ^{15} N-NO₃ in RF 13 14 at HN and LN sites in our study suggest a similar anthropogenic NO_x source, most likely 15 emissions coming from local road traffic. This is confirmed also by the similar values we measured for δ^{18} O- NO₃ in RF, irrespective of the N_{dep} levels (i.e., LN=63.9 % ± 0.88 and 16 HN=64.1 $\% \pm 3.2$). Moreover, Δ^{17} O in RF at the HN sites was 2% higher than that measured 17 at the LN sites, suggesting that NO_x went through different oxidation processes (Michlaski et 18 al., 2003). Δ^{17} O values measured at our sites (ranging from 22 % to 26 %) were similar to 19 20 those reported by Costa et al. (2011) for NO₃⁻ in rain samples (23.1 % $t \pm 1.8$) collected in 21 Michigan and by Michalski et al. (2004) in aerosol (26 % ± 3) sampled in Southern 22 California.

23

24 4.2 Canopy N processes as detected through stable isotopes

1	Our analyses showed that only at HN sites there were significant increases in NH ₄ -N and
2	NO ₃ -N concentrations in TF relative to RF, irrespective of tree species (Fig. 1), confirmed
3	also when we looked at the N fluxes (Table 2). This result is in line with previous studies in
4	the literature (Vanguelova et al., 2010; De Vries et al., 2014) and it suggests that at areas with
5	high dry N_{dep} , canopy filtering and rain washing will contribute to increasing the N input to
6	the soils compared to low dry N_{dep} areas. By contrast, at the LN sites, TF-N fluxes were lower
7	than RF N-fluxes, suggesting that most of the atmospheric N is retained by tree canopies, as
8	observed also in other studies in the literature (Fenn et al., 2013, Ferretti et al., 2014).
9	However, is it only the contribution of dry N_{dep} that helps explaining the higher NH ₄ ⁺ and
10	NO ₃ concentrations in TF at the HN sites? To answer to this question, we used a quadruple
11	isotope approach, namely the δ^{15} N in NO ₃ ⁻ and NH ₄ ⁺ , δ^{18} O and Δ^{17} O in NO ₃ ⁻ .
12	The pathway through the canopies did affect the isotopic signature of both NH_4^+ and NO_3^- ,
13	with TF generally showing ¹⁵ N-enriched NH ₄ and ¹⁵ N-depleted NO ₃ ⁻ .
14	The more positive values for $\delta^{15}N$ in NH_4^+ collected in TF are consistent with the overall
15	increase of NH ₄ -N in TF at the Thetford site (Fig. 1-2). In addition, the δ^{15} N values of NH ₄ ⁺
16	in dry deposition tend to be higher than those measured in bulk precipitation (Heaton, 1997),
17	suggesting that a fraction of the measured TF originated from dry N_{dep} . The more positive
18	values $\delta^{15}N$ in NH ₄ -N are also consistent with the occurrence of nitrification in the canopy,
19	which should result in the accumulation of 15 N-enriched NH ₄ ⁺ (Högberg 1997), as a residual
20	product. Interestingly, while at the LN sites the NH ₄ -N concentration did not vary
21	significantly from RF to TF, a fingerprint of dry N_{dep} was still detected at these sites by the
22	¹⁵ N enrichment in NH_4^+ underneath the canopies.

NO₃-N concentrations in TF were higher at HN forest stands than at the LN stands, and it was
expected that this difference would be reflected also in the isotopic signature of both N and O
in nitrate. The higher NO₃-N at the HN sites for both Scots pine and beech in TF, could in

1 principle also result from a combination of dry deposition and canopy nitrification processes. As in the case of NH_4^+ , higher values of $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_3^- in TF compared to RF could be 2 expected (Heaton, 1997), but were not found at these sites (Fig. 3A). Nitrification of NH₄⁺ 3 leads to the production of ¹⁵N depleted NO₃⁻ leaving behind more ¹⁵N enriched NH₄⁺ 4 (Högberg, 1997). Indeed, we did measure more negative (but not significantly so) δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻¹ 5 values in TF at the HN site (diff= -4.9 $\% \pm 3.4$) compared to the LN (diff= +1.1 $\% \pm 0.54$). 6 The ¹⁵N depletion of NO₃⁻ in TF was particularly detected for Scots pine at the HN site. (Fig. 7 3A, 4A) A decrease in δ^{15} N in NO₃⁻ from RF to TF was reported in studies in a spruce forest 8 9 in Germany by Sah and Brumme (2003) and in a montane rain forest in Ecuador by Schwarz et al. (2011), explained in both cases by isotope fractionation during nitrification of NH_4^+ to 10 NO_3^{-1} in the canopy leaves. However, none of these previous studies could unequivocally 11 attribute the shifts in 15 N-NO₃ to biological NH₄⁺ nitrification. In our study, evidence of 12 nitrification occurring within the canopy was clearly provided by Δ^{17} O, since there is not 13 likely to be a big Δ^{17} O difference in dry deposited NO₃⁻ compared to wet NO₃⁻. Indeed, using 14 15 a mass balance approach, we found that at the HN sites nitrification can contribute up to 60% 16 to the NO_3 recovered underneath the tree canopies (Fig. 5A, B). Interestingly, for beech at the HN, the δ^{18} O-NO₃ signals in TF vs. RF could not clearly provide an indication of nitrification, 17 while Δ^{17} O proved that the fractional contribution of biologically-derived NO₃⁻ was as much 18 19 as that from the atmospherically-derived NO_3^- (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, the seasonal trend of f_{Big} goes in the opposite direction for the two investigated species. Indeed the beech showed a 20 reduction in f_{Bio} towards in the late summer/fall, likely associated to the phenology and 21 22 therefore the changes in the leaf physiology.

One could ask: is it so relevant to determine the sources of the NO_3^- reaching the soil? Beyond the effect of canopy nitrification on potential N uptake by trees, the fact that canopies can process some of the atmospheric NH_x before even reaching the soil has important

1 implications on the different biogeochemical processes occurring in the soil. In particular, the 2 proportion of $NH_x vs. NO_x$ exchanged by canopies will affect the role of soil as sink (through 3 ammonification and nitrification) *vs.* source (by denitrification) of N.

The dramatic reduction of δ^{15} N and to less extent of δ^{18} O-NO₃ in TF vs. RF for the Scots pine 4 5 at HN (Fig. 4A) could not be attributed solely to atmospheric dry deposition or canopy 6 exchange. This result suggests that also other processes might take place at this site. One 7 possibility might be that NO_x emissions from the soil, likely related to denitrification 8 processes, react with tree canopies before reaching the atmosphere. A number of studies have 9 shown that part of the soil NO emission can be converted to NO_2 by reacting with ozone, 10 which in turn can be either trapped in the stem space below the canopy or processed again 11 within the canopy (Rennenberg et al., 1998; Dorsey et al., 2004; Duyzer et al., 2004; 12 Neirynck et al., 2007). Among the level II plots in the UK, symptoms of N saturation have 13 been observed at Thetford, with high mean annual NO₃⁻ concentrations in soil solution at the 14 Scots pine stand of up to 40 mg/l (Vanguelova et al., 2009, 2011). A preliminary study also 15 suggested significantly higher soil respiration at the HN compared to LN pine sites, which 16 may imply that the NO_x emission could be higher too (Vanguelova, personal communication). 17 Under these conditions, denitrification might take place at this site, although no direct 18 measurements are currently available to support this hypothesis. Such denitrification is likely to produce NO and NO₂ depleted in both ¹⁵N and ¹⁸O relative to soil nitrate, with very low, 19 negative δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O values (Li and Wang, 2008; Felix and Elliot, 2014). Subsequent 20 reactions with ozone would increase δ^{18} O and Δ^{17} O values, but not δ^{15} N. Thus, nitrate formed 21 by this mechanism might have δ^{18} O and Δ^{17} O values similar to atmospheric nitrate, but with 22 very low δ^{15} N values compared to RF. 23

24

25 **5.** Conclusion

1 To our knowledge, this is the first study that combined measurements of NO₃-N and NH₄-N fluxes together with their relative isotope signatures, i.e., $\delta^{15}N$ in NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ and $\delta^{18}O$ and 2 Δ^{17} O in NO₃⁻ to determine the role of canopy filtering of atmospherically-derived N_{dep}. 3 Specifically, changes in Δ^{17} O in NO₃⁻ as N passes through forest canopies had not previously 4 5 been determined. Oxygen isotopes have been mostly considered at the watershed level, to 6 characterize the source of NO_3^- in the stream water, but have not previously been applied to 7 the investigation of the role of canopy in processing atmospheric N. Our results partially 8 confirm our initial hypotheses that:

9 1) At the LN sites, ion concentrations in TF and their respective isotopic signatures 10 reflected the input of atmospheric N as derived from RF. However, isotope data revealed 11 that even with a low atmospheric N load, canopies played an important role in 12 intercepting and retaining dry N_{dep} (with particular reference to the reduced N-form), 13 which represents an additional (but often overlooked) N source relative to wet N_{dep} as 14 assessed through RF.

15 2) At the HN sites, the passing of atmospheric N through canopies affected both ion 16 concentrations and their isotopic signature. The occurrence of dry deposition probably explains the higher NH₄⁺ concentrations and ¹⁵N enrichment in NH₄⁺ measured below the 17 canopy in TF water vs. RF. As for the higher NO₃⁻ in TF vs. RF, the isotopes δ^{15} N and 18 δ^{18} O could not provide clear indications of its origin, even though for Scots pine δ^{15} N-19 20 NO_3^{-} provided some indications of biologically-derived NO_3^{-} . The unambiguous response came however from $\Delta^{17}O$, which allowed to determine that a consistent fraction of the 21 22 NO_3^{-1} recovered underneath the canopies derived from biological nitrification, with an 23 unexpected higher magnitude at the beech stand. Moreover, the very negative values of δ^{15} N in NO₃-N for Scots pine at the N-saturated site, suggested that nitrate could derive 24

also from soil NO_x emissions being re-processed and deposited again in the canopy before
 mixing in TF water.

This study is part of a broader project, aiming to look at the effect of ambient N_{dep} on tree growth, water-use efficiency and δ^{15} N in tree rings. Hence, the characterization of the shortterm N input from the atmosphere is a crucial step toward a better understanding of the longterm effect of N_{dep} to be assessed through stable isotopes in tree rings (Guerrieri et al., in preparation).

8 We acknowledge that the conclusions of this study rely on a limited number of isotope 9 measurements at each site and a limited selection of forest stands, which did not allow 10 detailed investigations of the tree species-specific pattern of canopy N transformations. 11 However, the study identified canopy processing of atmospheric deposition (and especially 12 canopy biological nitrification) as a major process that should not be neglected and needs 13 further exploration, to better quantify the role of forests as sinks but also sources of N. This 14 has important implications for policy-related emission abatement strategies, which aim to 15 manage forests and landscape not only for enhancing C-sequestration, but also for 16 atmospheric N capture.

17

18 Acknowledgment

R. G. acknowledges the follow-on travel funding (2013) from the British Academy and the Royal Society, following the Newton International Fellowship Grant no. NF082365 (2009-2011) funded by the Royal Society, the British Academy and the Royal Academy of Engineering. MM acknowledges funding from NERC project grant NE/G00725X/1 and NERC project grant IP-1205-1110. Funding for this work was also provided by Forest Research and acknowledgments goes to Forest Research technical team for sample collection

1	and the research laboratory for carrying out all chemical analysis. Rona Pitman has provided
2	help with the research and with final edits of this paper.
3	
4	
5	References
6	Ammann M, Siegwolf RTW, Pichlmayer F, Suter M, Saurer M, Brunold C (1999). Estimating
7	the uptake of traffic-derived NO ₂ from 15 N abundance in Norway spruce needles. Oecologia
8	118 (2): 124-131.
9	Bonan GB. Forests and climate change: forcings, feedbacks, and the climate benefits of
10	forests (2008). Science 320 (5882) : 1444-1449. DOI:10.1126/science.1155121.
11	Bytnerowicz A, Fenn ME (1996). Nitrogen deposition in California forests: a review.
12	Environmental Pollution 92:127-146.
13	Burns AD and Kendall C. Analysis of δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O to differentiate NO ⁻³ sources in runoff at
14	two watersheds in the Catskill Mountains of New York (2002). Water Resources Research 38
15	(5): 1051.
16	Canadell JG, Le Quéré C, Raupach MR, Field CB, Buitenhuis ET, Ciais P, Conway TJ, Gillett
17	NP, Houghton RA, Marland G (2007). Contributions to accelerating atmospheric CO ₂ growth
18	from economic activity, carbon intensity, and efficiency of natural sinks, PNAS 104 (47):
19	18866–18870.
20	Cape JN, Percy KE. Use of needle epicuticular wax chemical composition in the early
21	diagnosis of Norway spruce (Picea abies (L.) Karst.) decline in Europe (1998). Chemosphere
22	36 (4-5): 895-900.
23	Casciotti KL, Sigman DM, Hastings MJ, Bohlke JK, Hilkert A (2002). Measurement of the
24	oxygen isotopic composition of nitrate in seawater and freshwater using the denitrifier

25 method, Anal. Chem.: 74, 4905–4912.

22

1	Chang CCY, Langston J, Riggs M, Campbell DH, Silva SR Kendall C (1999). A method for
2	nitrate collection for $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ analysis from waters with low nitrate concentrations.
3	Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Science 56: 1856-1864.
4	Costa AW, Michalski G, Schauer AJ, Alexander B, Steig EJ, Shepson PB (2011). Analysis of
5	atmospheric inputs of nitrate to a temperate forest ecosystem from $\Delta^{17}O$ isotope ratio
6	measurements. Geophysical Research Letters 38: L15805.
7	Curtis CJ, Heaton THE, Simpson GL, Evans CD, Shilland J, Turner S (2012). Dominance of
8	biologically produced nitrate in upland waters of Great Britain indicated by stable isotopes.
9	Biogeochemistry 111: 535-554. DOI 10.1007/s10533-011-9686-8.
10	Dorsey JR, Duyzer JH, Gallagher MW, Coe H, Pilegaard K, Weststrate JH, Jensen NO,
11	Walton S (2004). Oxidized nitrogen and ozone interaction with forests. I: Experimental
12	observations and analysis of exchange with Douglas fir. Q.J.R. Meteorol. Soc. 130: 1941-
13	1955.
14	Duyzer JH, DorseyJR, Gallagher MW, Pilegaard K, Walton S (2004). Oxidized nitrogen and
15	ozone interaction with forests. II: Multi-layer process-oriented modelling results and a
16	sensitivity study for Douglas fir. Q.J.R. Meteorol. Soc. 130: 1957–1971.
17	De Vries W, Dobbertin MH, Solberg S, van Dobben HF, Schaub M (2014). Impacts of acid

deposition, ozone exposure and weather conditions on forest ecosystems in Europe: anoverview. Plant Soil 380:1-45.

20 Elliott EM, Kendall C, Wankel SD, Burns DA, Boyer EW, Harlin K, Bain DJ, Butler AJ 21 (2007). Nitrogen isotopes as indicators of NO_x source contributions to atmospheric nitrate 22 deposition across the midwestern and Northeastern United States. Environment Science 23 Technology 41: 7661-7667.

23

1	Emmett BA, Kjonaas OJ, Gundersen P, Koopmans C, Tietema A, Sleep D (1998). Natural
2	abundance of ¹⁵ N in forests across a nitrogen deposition gradient. Forest Ecology and
3	Management 101: 9–18.
4	Felix JD and Elliott EM (2014). Isotopic composition of passively collected nitrogen dioxide
5	emissions: Vehicle, soil and livestock source signatures. Atmospheric Environment 92: 359-
6	366.
7	Fenn ME, Ross CS, Schilling SL, Baccus WD, Larrabee MA, Lofgren RA (2013)
8	Atmospheric deposition of nitrogen and sulfur and preferential canopy consumption of nitrate
9	in forests of the Pacific Northwest, USA. Forest Ecology and Management 302: 240–253
10	Ferretti M, Marchetto A, Arisci S, Bussotti F, Calderisi M, Carnicelli S, Cecchini G, Fabbio
11	G, Bertini G, Matteucci G, De Cinti B, Salvati L, Pompei E (2014). On the tracks of Nitrogen
12	deposition effects on temperate forests at their Southern European range- an observational
13	study from Italy. Global change and biology 20: 3423-3438.
14	Fowler D, Cape JN, Unsworth MH, Mayer H, Crowther JM, Jarvis PJ,
15	Gardiner B, Shuttleworth WJ (1989). Deposition of atmospheric pollutants on forests.
16	Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B 324:247-265.
17	Freyer HD (1991). Seasonal variation of ¹⁵ N/ ¹⁴ N ratios in atmospheric nitrate species, Tellus,
18	Ser. B 43: 30– 44.
19	Galloway JN, Aber JD, Erisman JW, Seitzinger SP, Howarth RW, Cowling EB, Cosby BJ
20	(2004). The nitrogen cascade. BioSciences; 53(4): 341-356.

- 21 Guerrieri MR, Siegwolf RTW, Saurer M, Jäggi M, Cherubini P, Ripullone F, M Borghetti
- 22 (2009). Impact of different nitrogen emission sources on tree physiology as assessed by a
- triple stable isotope approach. Atmospheric Environment 43:410-419.

1	Guerrieri R, Mencuccini M, Sheppard LJ, Saurer M, Perks M, Levy P, Sutton MA, Borghetti
2	M, Grace J (2011). The legacy of enhanced N and S deposition as revealed by the combined
3	analysis of δ^{13} C, δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N in tree rings. Global Change and Biology 17:1946-1962.
4	Heaton THE (1987). ¹⁵ N/ ¹⁴ N ratios of nitrate and ammonium in rain at Pretoria, South Africa.
5	Atmospheric Environment 21: 843-852.
6	Heaton THE (1990). 15 N/ 14 N ratios of NO _x from vehicle engines and coal-fired power
7	stations. Tellus 42: 304±307
8	Heaton THE, Spiro B, Madeline S, Robertson C (1997). Potential canopy influences on the
9	isotopic composition of nitrogen and sulphur in atmospheric deposition. Oecologia 109:600-
10	607.
11	Heaton THE (2001). Procedure and notes on the 'diffusion' method for 15N/14N analysis of
12	nitrate and ammonium. NERC Isotope Geosciences Laboratory, Report NIGL 176, 5 pp.
13	Heaton THE, Wynn P, Tye A (2004). Low ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ ratios for nitrate in snow in the High
14	Arctic (79°N). Atmospheric Environment 38: 5611-5621.
15	Högberg P (1997). ¹⁵ N natural abundance in soil-plant systems. New Phytologist 137: 179-
16	203.
17	Kaiser J,Hastings MG, Houlton BZ, Röckmann T, Sigman DM (2007). Triple oxygen isotope
18	analysis of nitrate using the denitrifier method and thermal decomposition of N2O. Anal.
19	Chem. 79: 599-607, doi:10.1021/ac061022s.
20	Kendall C (1998). Tracing Nitrogen Sources and Cycling in Catchments, in Isotope Tracers in
21	Catchment Hydrology, edited by C. Kendall and J. J. McDonnell, Elsevier Science,
22	Amsterdam. p 519–576.
23	Kendall C, Elliott EM, Wankel SD (2007). Tracing anthropogenic inputs of nitrogen to
24	ecosystems. In: Michener R, Lajtha K, Eds. Stable isotopes in ecology and environmental
25	science. Boston: Blackwell Publishing, p 375-449.

1	ICP Forests (2010). Sampling and Analysis of deposition. In: Manual on methods and criteria
2	for harmonized sampling, assessment, monitoring and analysis of the effects of air pollution
3	on forests. UNECE, ICP Forests, ISBN: 978-926301-03-1. [http://www.icp-
4	forests.org/Manual.htm].
5	Li D and Wang X (2008). Nitrogen isotopic signature of soil-released nitric oxide (NO) after
6	fertilizer application. Atmospheric Environment 42: 4747-4754.
7	Lindberg SE, Lovett GM, Richter DD, Johnson DW (1986). Atmospheric Deposition and
8	Canopy Interactions of Major Ions in a Forest. Science 231 (4734): 141-145.
9	Matsuhisa Y, Goldsmith JR, Clayton RN (1978). Mechanisms of hydrothermal crystallization
10	of quartz at 250°C and 15 kbar, Geochimica Cosmochimica Acta 42(2): 173–182.
11	Michalski G, SavarinoJ, Böhlke JK, Thiemens M (2002). Determination of the total oxygen
12	isotopic composition of citrate and the Calibration of a Δ^{17} O nitrate reference material.
13	Analytical Chemistry 74: 4989-4993.
14	Michalski G, Scott Z, Kabiling M, Thiemens MH (2003). First measurements and modeling
15	of Δ^{17} O in atmospheric nitrate. Geophysical Research Letters 30 (16) 1870, doi:
16	<u>10.1029/2003GL017015</u> .
17	Michalski G, Böhlke JK, Thiemens MH (2004). Long term atmospheric deposition as the
18	source of nitrates and other salts in the Atacama desert, Chile: New evidence from
19	mass-independent oxygen isotopic compositions, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 68(20): 4023-
20	4038, doi:10.1016/j.gca.2004.04.009.

- Miller M F (2002). Isotopic fractionation and the quantification of O-17 anomalies in the
 oxygen three-isotope system: an appraisal and geochemical significance, Geochimica
 Cosmochimica Acta 66(11): 1881-1889.
- 24 Mustajärvi K, Merilä P, Derome J, Lindroos A-J, Helmisaari H-S, Nöjd P, Ukonmaaho L
- 25 (2008). Fluxes of dissolved organic and inorganic nitrogen in relation to stand characteristics

1 and latitude in Scots pine and Norway spruce stands in Finland. Boreal Environ Res 13(suppl 2 B): 3-21. 3 Nadelhoffer KJ, Bridget AE, P Gundersen, OJ Kjunaas, CJ Koopmansk, P Schleppi, A 4 Tietemak, RF Wright (1999). Nitrogen deposition makes a minor contribution to carbon 5 sequestration in temperate forests, Nature 398: 145–148. 6 Neirynck J, Kowalski AS, Carrara A, Genouw G, Berghmans P, Ceulemans R (2007). Fluxes 7 of oxidised and reduced nitrogen above a mixed coniferous forest exposed to various nitrogen 8 emission sources. Environmental Pollution 149: 31-43. 9 Pitcairn CER, Leith ID, Sheppard LJ, Sutton MA, Fowler D, Munro RC; Tang S, Wilson D

- 10 (1998). The relationship between nitrogen deposition, species composition and foliar nitrogen
- concentrations in woodland flora in the vicinity of livestock farms. Environmental Pollution
 102 (S1): 41-48.
- 13 Pitman R, Vanguelova EI, Benham S (2010). Effects of phytophagous insects on the nutrient
- 14 concentrations and fluxes through forest stands in the UK Level II network. Science of the
- 15 Total Environment 409 (1): 169-181.
- 16 Prescott CE (2002). The influence of the forest canopy on nutrient cycling. Tree physiology
- 17 22: 1193-1200.
- 18 R core team (2014). R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R
- 19 Foundation for Statistical Computing Vienna, Austria. http://www.R-project.org
- 20 Rennenberg H, Kreutzer K, Papen H, Weber P (1998). Consequences of high loads of
- 21 nitrogen for spruce (Picea abies) and beech (Fagus sylvatica) forests. New Phytologist
 22 139:71-86.
- 23 Rennenberg H, Gessler A (1999). Consequences of N deposition to forest ecosystems- Recent
- results and future research needs. Water, Air and Soil Pollution 116: 47-64.
- 25 RoTAP (2012). Review of Transboundary Air Pollution: Acidification, Eutrophication,

- 1 Ground Level Ozone and Heavy Metals in the UK. Contract Report to the Department for
- 2 Environment, Food and Rural Affairs. Centre for Ecology & Hydrology.
- 3 Sah SP, Brumme R. (2003) Natural ¹⁵N abundance in two nitrogen forest ecosystems at
- 4 Solling, Germany. Journal of Forest Science 49: 515-522.
- 5 Saurer M, Cherubini P, Ammann M, De Cinti B, Siegwolf RTW (2004). First detection of
- 6 nitrogen from NO_x in tree rings: a ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ study near a motorway. Atmospheric Environment

7 38: 2779-2787.

8 Savard MM, Bégin C, Smirnoff A, Marion J Rioux-Paquette E (2009). Tree-Ring Nitrogen

9 Isotopes Reflect Anthropogenic NO_x Emissions and Climatic Effects. Environmental Science

- 10 and Technology 43 (3): 604-609.
- 11 Schwarz MT, Oelmann Y, Wilcke W (2011). Stable N isotope composition of nitrate reflects
- 12 N transformations during the passage of water through a montane rain forest in Ecuador.
- 13 Biogeochemistry 102 (1-3): 195-208.
- Schulze E-D (2006). Biological control of the terrestrial carbon sink, Biogeosc. 3(2): 147–
 166.
- 16 Teuber M, Papen H, Gasche R, Eßmüller TH Geßler A (2007). The apoplast of Norway
- 17 spruce (*Picea abies*) needles as habitat and reaction compartment for autotrophic nitrifiers. In:
- 18 B. Sattelmacher and W.J. Horst (eds.), The Apoplast of Higher Plants: Compartment of
- 19 Storage, Transport and Reactions 405-425.
- 20 Tobari Y, Koba K, Fukushima K, Tokuchi N, Ohte N, Tateno R, Toyoda S, Yoshioka T,
- 21 Yeatman SG, Spokes LJ, Dennis PF, Jickells TD (2001). Compositions of aerosol nitrogen
- 22 isotopic composition at two polluted coastal sites. Atmospheric Environment 35: 1307-1320.
- 23 Vanguelova EI, Pitman R (2009). Impact of N deposition on soil and tree biochemistry in
- both broadleaved and coniferous stands in the UK. In "6th International Symposium on

1	Ecosystem Behaviour BIOGEOMON 2009", Liisa Ukonmaanoho, Tiina M. Nieminen and
2	Mike Starr (eds.), ISSN 1795-150X, pp.184.
3	Vanguelova EI, Benham S, Pitman R, Moffat A, Broadmeadow M, Nisbet T, Durrant D,
4	Barsoum N,Wilkinson M, Bochereau F, Broadmeadow S, Hutchings T, Crow P, Durrant-
5	Huston T, Taylor P (2010). Chemical fluxes in time through forest ecosystems in the UK -
6	soil response to pollution recovery. Environmental Pollution 158 (5): 1857-1869.
7	Vanguelova E and Pitman R (2011). Impacts of N inputs on forests and forest soil
8	biogeochemistry in Great Britain. Paper in proceedings of "Nitrogen & Global Change - Key
9	findings – future challenges", April 11-15, 2011, Edinburgh, UK.
10	Vanguelova EI, Reynolds B, Nisbet T, Godbold D (2011). The cycling of pollutants in non-
11	urban forested environments. In: Levia DF, Carlyle-Moses DE, Tanaka T (Eds.), Forest
12	Hydrology and Biogeochemistry: Synthesis of Past Research and Future Directions.
13	Ecological Studies Series, No. 216, Springer-Verlag, Heidelberg, Germany, 2011, DOI
14	10.1007/978-94-007-1363-5_34.
15	Vitousek P, Aber J, Howarth RW, Likens GE, Matson PA, Schindler DA, Schlesinger WH,
16	Tilman GD (1997). Human Alteration of the Global Nitrogen Cycle: Causes and
17	Consequences. Issue in Ecology 1: 1-16.
18	Wuyts K, Adriaenssens S, Staelens J, Wuytack, Wittenberghe SV, Boeckx P, Samson R,
19	Verhryen K (2015). Contributing factors in foliar uptake of dissolved inorganic nitrogen at
20	leaf level. Science of Total Environment 505: 992-1002.
21	Yoshida N (2010). Contribution of atmospheric nitrate to stream-water nitrate in Japanese
22	coniferous forests revealed by the oxygen isotope ratio of nitrate. Rapid Commun. Mass

23 Spectrom 24: 1281–1286.

- 1 Young ED, Galy A, Nagahara H (2002). Kinetic and equilibrium mass-dependent isotope
- 2 fractionation laws in nature and their geochemical and cosmochemical significance,
- 3 Geochimica Cosmochimica Acta 66 (6): 1095–1104.

Table 1. Site, climatic and atmospheric N_{dep} information of the four forest stands included in the study. Climate data are mean values calculated

2 over the years 1960-2010 and deposition data are mean values over a number of years (*e.g.*, Alice Holt - Beech site- 2006-2008; Rogate-Scots

3 pine site - 2010-2012; Thetford Scots pine site - 1995-2010; Thetford-Beech site - 2006-2008).

Site	Species	Stand age	Soil type (WRB, 2006)	Precipitation (mm)	T (°C)	NH4 ⁺ /NO3 ⁻ Dry (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ¹)	NH4 ⁺ /NO3 ⁻ Wet (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	totN dep Dry/Wet (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	Tot N _{dep} (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)
Alice Holt	Beech	70	Cambisol	800	11.6	2.7/0.2	3.7/3.2	2.9/6.9	9.8
Rogate	Scots pine	60	Cambisol	800	11.6	4.1/0.6	3.1/2.9	4.8/5.9	10.7
	Beech	70	Arenosol			4.9/4.6	7.5/2.7	9.5/10.2	19.7
Thetford	Scots pine	45		600	11.3	3.2/1.8	5/3.3	5.0/8.4	13.4

Table 2. Mean values of the NH_4^+ and NO_3^- fluxes measured over the 6 months considered in this study, *i.e.*, June to November 2011) at the two LN sites (e.g. Alice Holt - Beech stand; Rogate-Scots pine stand) and HN sites (Thetford Scots pine stand; Thetford-Beech stand).

RF TF (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) (kg ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) Alice Holt Beech 0.8/0.7 0.2/0.3 Rogate Scots pine 0.5/0.5 0.3/0.3 Beech 1.6/0.5 4.9/1.0 Thetford Scots pine 0.6/0.5 1.8/1.9	Site	Species	NH4 ⁺ /NO3 ⁻	NH_4^+/NO_3^-
Alice Holt Beech 0.8/0.7 0.2/0.3 Rogate Scots pine 0.5/0.5 0.3/0.3 Beech 1.6/0.5 4.9/1.0 Thetford Scots pine 0.6/0.5 1.8/1.9				
Rogate Scots pine 0.5/0.5 0.3/0.3 Beech 1.6/0.5 4.9/1.0 Thetford Scots pine 0.6/0.5 1.8/1.9	A 1° TT 1/	D 1		
Beech 1.6/0.5 4.9/1.0 Thetford Scots pine 0.6/0.5 1.8/1.9			0.8/0.7	
Thetford Scots pine 0.6/0.5 1.8/1.9	Rogate			
	$T_{1} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow 1$			4.9/1.0
	Thetford	Scots pine	0.6/0.5	1.8/1.9

Table 3. Δ^{17} O values for NO₃⁻ in rainfall (RF) and throughfall (TF) water samples collected during 2011 growing season at the HN sites. Water sampled in June-August and September-November was combined for isotope analyses. This was necessary also for RF water samples collected at the Scots pine and beech stands (see Materials and Methods for more details).

Site	Forest stand	Months	Δ ¹⁷ Ο (‰)	
			TF	RF
	Scots pine	June-August	21.72	24.99
Thetford		September-November	20.71	26.06
(HN)	Beech	June-August	10.06	26.06
		September-November	10.98	24.99

Table 4. Range of $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values for NO_3^- and NH_4^+ in monthly rainfall samples from mainly remote upland areas in north and west mainland Britain (Heaton et al, 1997; Curtis et al., 2012; Heaton, unpublished data)

Isotope	Total range	Mean	Interquartile range	Ν
δ^{15} N-NO ₃	-8.2‰ to +4.3‰	-2.0‰	-3.8‰ to -0.5‰	117
δ^{18} O-NO ₃	+50‰ to +82‰	+69‰	+65‰ to +73‰	117
δ^{15} N-NH ₄	-12.6‰ to +2.8‰	-4.3‰	-6.2‰ to -2.8‰	86

<u>11</u> <u>3/00 to +82;</u> <u>-.6%0 to +2.8%6</u>

Figure 1. NO₃–N and NH₄–N in Rainfall (RF) and Throughfall (TF) Scots pine and beech forests at the LN (*i.e.*, Alice and Holt and Rogate, respectively) and HN (*i.e.*, Thetford). Each symbol represents the mean (\pm SE) for ions concentrations measured in water samples collected from June until November 2011.

Figure 2. A) δ^{15} N values of N-NH₄⁺ in Rainfall (RF) and Throughfall (TF) Scots pine and beech at the LN (*i.e.*, Alice and Holt and Rogate, respectively) and HN (*i.e.*, Thetford). Each symbol represents the mean (± SE) for isotope measurements carried out in water samples collected from June-August and September- November 2011. B) Differences (mean ± CI) between TF and RF for δ^{15} N-NH₄⁺ values measured at the LN and HN sites, without distinguishing between tree species. Please note that the two symbols for the δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values measured in TF for the two species overlap (*i.e.*, Scots pine= -1.76 ±0.17 ‰; beech= -1.72 ±1.25 ‰).

Figure 3. A) δ^{15} N, B) δ^{18} O and C) Δ^{17} O values of N-NO₃ in rainfall (RF) and throughfall (TF) for Scots pine and beech at the LN *(i.e.,* Alice and Holt and Rogate, respectively) and HN *(i.e.,* Thetford). Each symbol represents the mean (\pm SE) for isotope measurements carried out in water samples collected from June-August and September-November 2011. Differences (diff., mean \pm CI) between TF and RF for D) δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻, E) δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and F) Δ^{17} O values measured at the LN and HN sites, without distinguishing between tree species.

Figure 4. δ^{15} N vs. δ^{18} O and δ^{18} O vs. Δ^{17} O for Scots pine (**A** and **B**, respectively) and beech (**C** and **D**, respectively) measured in RF and TF. Each symbol represents the mean (± SE) for isotope measurements carried out in water samples collected from June-August and September- November 2011 at the LN (Rogate and Alice Holt for the Scots pine and Beech,

respectively) and HN (Thetford, for both tree species). Arrows depict dramatic changes from RF to TF for the isotope values.

Figure 5. A) Mean (\pm SD) of the NO₃⁻ fraction derived from the atmosphere (f_{Atm}) and nitrification (f_{Bio}) measured for the June-August and September-November months at the two HN forest stands. B) Fraction of NO₃⁻ derived from nitrification (f_{Bio}) for the two sampling periods (*i.e.*, June-August and September-November) at the HN forest sites.

f Ν

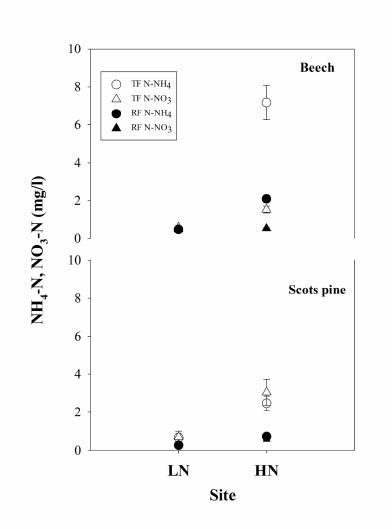


Figure 1. NO3–N and NH4–N in Rainfall (RF) and Throughfall (TF) Scots pine and beech forests at the LN (i.e., Alice and Holt and Rogate, respectively) and HN (i.e., Thetford). Each symbol represents the mean (± SE) for ions concentrations measured in water samples collected from June until November 2011. 298x411mm (300 x 300 DPI)

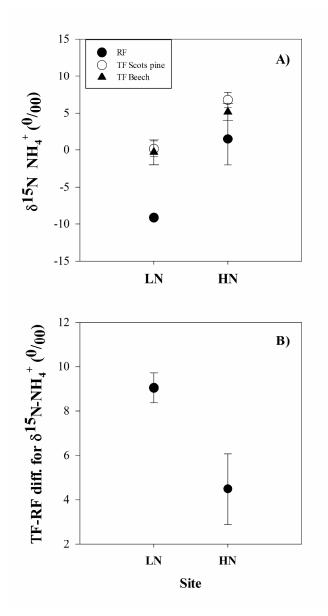


Figure 2. A) δ 15N values of N-NH4+ in Rainfall (RF) and Throughfall (TF) Scots pine and beech at the LN (i.e., Alice and Holt and Rogate, respectively) and HN (i.e., Thetford). Each symbol represents the mean (± SE) for isotope measurements carried out in water samples collected from June-August and September-November 2011. B) Differences (mean ± CI) between TF and RF for δ 15N-NH4+ values measured at the LN and HN sites, without distinguishing between tree species. Please note that the two symbols for the δ 15N-NO3- values measured in TF for the two species overlap (i.e., Scots pine= -1.76 ±0.17 ‰; beech= -1.72 ±1.25 ‰). 309x506mm (300 x 300 DPI)

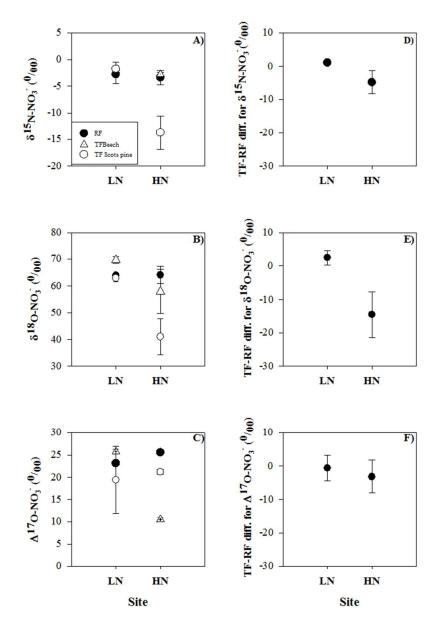


Figure 3. A) $\delta 15N$, B) $\delta 18O$ and C) $\Delta 17O$ values of N-NO3 in rainfall (RF) and throughfall (TF) for Scots pine and beech at the LN (i.e., Alice and Holt and Rogate, respectively) and HN (i.e., Thetford). Each symbol represents the mean (± SE) for isotope measurements carried out in water samples collected from June-August and September-November 2011. Differences (diff., mean ± CI) between TF and RF for D) $\delta 15N$ -NO3-, E) $\delta 18O$ -NO3- and F) $\Delta 17O$ values measured at the LN and HN sites, without distinguishing between tree species. 132x190mm (136 x 136 DPI)

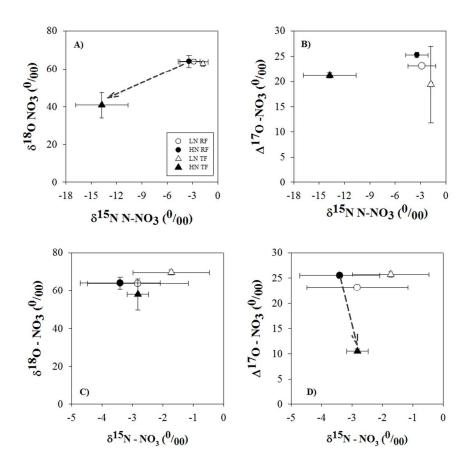


Figure 4. δ 15N vs. δ 18O and δ 18O vs. Δ 17O for Scots pine (A and B, respectively) and beech (C and D, respectively) measured in RF and TF. Each symbol represents the mean (± SE) for isotope measurements carried out in water samples collected from June-August and September- November 2011 at the LN (Rogate and Alice Holt for the Scots pine and Beech, respectively) and HN (Thetford, for both tree species). Arrows depict dramatic changes from RF to TF for the isotope values. 266x355mm (96 x 96 DPI)

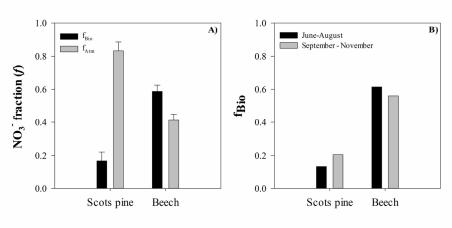




Figure 5. A) Mean (± SD) of the NO3- fraction derived from the atmosphere (fAtm) and nitrification (fBio) measured for the June-August and September-November months at the two HN forest stands. B) Fraction of NO3- derived from nitrification (fBio) for the two sampling periods (i.e., June-August and September-November) at the HN forest sites. 148x81mm (300 × 300 DPI)