Environmental Science Processes & Impacts



View Article Online

PAPER



Cite this: Environ. Sci.: Processes Impacts, 2014, 16, 2644

Received 19th June 2014 Accepted 8th September 2014

DOI: 10.1039/c4em00338a

rsc.li/process-impacts

Environmental impact

Multi-isotope (¹⁵N, ¹⁸O and ¹³C) indicators of sources and fate of nitrate in the upper stream of Chaobai River, Beijing, China

Cai Li,^a Yongbin Jiang,^{ab} Xinyue Guo,^a Yang Cao^a and Hongbing Ji^{*ac}

Dual isotopes of nitrate (15 N and 18 O) and carbon isotopes of dissolved inorganic carbon (13 C) together with water chemistry were used to identify the sources and fate of nitrate in the upper stream of Chaobai River, north China. The results show that NO_3^- concentrations ranges from 0.03 mmol L⁻¹ to 0.80 mmol L⁻¹. Sampling sites from watershed with dominant forest land had higher NO₃⁻ concentrations and lower δ^{15} N–NO $_3^-$ (<10%) in the wet season than in the dry season, while those from watershed with more anthropogenic activities had lower NO₃⁻ concentrations and higher δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (>10%) in the wet season. Compositions of isotopes and chemistry indicated that NO_3^- originated mainly from soil N, sewage and livestock wastes and atmospheric nitrogen. Furthermore, the mixing model suggested that soil N was the major NO₃⁻ source in the wet season, while the sewage and livestock wastes contributed the most in the dry season. Compared to rivers, the Miyun Reservoir had a higher contribution of atmospheric N and the N input from the upper rivers exerted significant influence over the reservoir. Mineralization and nitrification played an important role in N biogeochemistry based on the isotopes (¹⁵N and ¹⁸O and ¹³C) and chemical data. There appeared to be no significant denitrification in the watershed according to the three isotopes and chemical ions. The combined use of ¹⁵N, ¹⁸O and ¹³C proved to be useful for further identification of the sources and fate of nitrate in watersheds with dominant forest land in the wet season

Excessively high concentrations of nitrate in surface water have become increasingly concerning around the world. In this paper, multiple isotopes (^{15}N , ^{18}O and ^{13}C) have been successfully used to distinguish between nitrate sources of chemical fertilizer, soil N and livestock waste in the upper stream of Chaobai River, Beijing, China. It has proved that the $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values could provide additional information for the identification of soil N and mineralization process of nitrate in the wet season in the watersheds with dominantly forested land. This is useful to exactly determine the source and fate of nitrate in surface water.

1. Introduction

Nitrate contamination in waters has become increasingly concerning around the world.¹⁻³ High concentration of nitrate is related to anthropogenic activities involving nitrogen compounds such as inorganic fertilizer and by-products of organic matter from agriculture, septic systems, and animal manure.^{4,5} Excessively high levels of nitrate in waters not only increase human health risks but also cause environmental and ecological problems, such as water acidification and eutrophication.⁵ It is important to identify the sources and fate of nitrate to improve the water quality.

Nitrogen and oxygen isotopes of nitrate have been widely used to identify the sources and fate of nitrate in surface water and ground water based on distinctive isotope compositions from different nitrate sources.6-9 However, physicochemical processes that can alter the original isotope compositions of sources during nitrate transport must be considered. For example, denitrification $(NO_3^- \rightarrow N_2)$ and dilution processes produce a similar decrease in nitrate concentrations, while the denitrification process can increase $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values of the remaining nitrate in waters.10 In addition to the nitrogen and oxygen isotopes, other isotopes have been used to further investigate nitrate sources and fate. For example, Cravotta distinguished animal manure, human waste and forest-leaf litter on the basis of δ^{13} C, even though different nitrogen sources had $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{34}S$ values with wide ranges and overlapping compositions.¹¹ Use of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ and $\delta^{34}S-SO_4^{2-}$ has

^aCivil and Environmental and Engineering School, University of Science and Technology Beijing, Beijing 100083, China

^bDepartment of Environment Engineering, School of Construction Engineering, Anhui University of Technology, Maanshan 243002, China

^cThe State Key Laboratory of Environmental Geochemistry, Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guiyang 55002, China. E-mail: ji.hongbing@hotmail. com; Fax: +86-10-68909710; Tel: +86-10-68909710

Paper

proved to be helpful to evaluate which electron donors are related to the denitrification.^{12–15} Two characteristics make the isotope tracers favorable to elucidate the sources and fate of nitrate. First, these elements co-exist with nitrogen among the nitrate sources and differences in the isotopic composition of nitrogen sources can be measured. Next, these elements comigrate with nitrate and retain the original isotopic composition of sources during nitrate transport.^{4,11} Numerous studies have focused on ground waters to constrain the sources and fate of nitrate by multiple isotopes while multi-isotopes are less applied to river waters. Moreover, δ^{13} C has been extensively used to identify the denitrification process in which heterotrophic denitrifiers utilize organic compounds as electron donors for reduction of NO₃⁻ to N₂,^{13,14} while δ^{13} C is less used from the view of source identification and other NO₃⁻ transformations.

The upper stream of Chaobai River watershed is located in Beijing, China, with the largest reservoir of North China in this watershed. Forested land use dominates the Chaobai River watershed, while the influence of anthropogenic activities has increased with the development of tourism and the breeding industry in recent years.^{16,19} TN concentrations in the watershed have been elevated significantly from 1990 to 2010.16 Traditional hydrochemical analyses only show the levels of nitrate contamination, not the source of nitrate. Previous studies have identified the source of organic matter by analyzing δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N of soil, plants, surface sediments of river, and suspended particulate matter of this watershed.17,18 However, sources and fate of nitrate are not clearly identified by previous carbon and nitrogen isotopes of organic matter in this watershed. Therefore, the objective of this study is to identify nitrate sources and to elucidate transport and chemical transformations of nitrate by using multiple isotopes (¹⁵N, ¹⁸O, ¹³C) and chemical water compositions, combined with previous carbon and nitrogen isotopes of organic matter in the Chaobai River watershed.

2. Material and methods

2.1 Study site description

The upper stream of Chaobai River is located in the northern part of Beijing. The study area includes the Miyun Reservoir and its two major tributaries, Chaohe River and Baihe River, with 400 km² of the Chaohe River and 3114 km² of the Baihe River. The Miyun Reservoir was built in 1960 and has been used as the major surface drinking water storage for Beijing. The terrain is high in the northwest and low in the southeast and more than 60% of the area has a slope greater than 25°. Brown soil and cinnamon soil are the dominant soil categories, accounting for 80% or more of the total area. The land use pattern in this region is dominated by forest land (91.4%), water bodies (4.8%), and cultivated land (3.3%).19 The annual average soil loss in 2010 was 16.80 t ha^{-1} and 14.8% of the total area suffers from severe water soil erosion (>50 t ha^{-1}).²⁰ The watershed is subject to a semi-humid monsoon climate with average annual precipitation of 585 mm from 1951 to 2010.21 The high rainfall season is from June to September, accounting for 83% of the annual rainfall.²² More precipitation appears as rainstorms, which increase the risk of soil and water erosion. The long-term average annual potential evaporation is about 1800 mm, higher than the annual rainfall.²¹ As reported by previous studies, the influence of non-point source pollution such as domestic sewage, chemical fertilizer and livestock raising has increased.^{16,17} According to the statistical yearbook of Beijing and local counties,²³ chemical fertilizer application in 2012 in Beijing was approximately 1.37×10^5 t. Take Miyun County, where the Miyun Reservoir is located, as an example; 18 264 t chemical fertilizers were applied in 2012, dominated by nitrogen fertilizers (55%) and compound fertilizers (34%).²⁴ In recent years, the amount of chemical fertilizer applied has decreased along with the increase in manure application in cultivated land.¹⁶

2.2 Sampling and analyses

Sampling sites are located in Miyun Reservoir and its upper reaches including Chaohe River, Baihe River, and Baimaguan River (Fig. 1). River water samples were collected three times from the 29 sites in September 2012, December 2012 and June 2013. Meanwhile, two snow water samples and two rain water samples were taken in December 2012 and June 2013, respectively. In situ analyses included electrical conductivity, pH and alkalinity. Laboratory analyses included cations (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, Na⁺), anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC). All samples were filtered through 0.45 µm membrane filters and stored at 4 °C until analysis. Electrical conductivity and pH values were measured by portable meter and alkalinity was determined by titration with HCl acid. Cations were analyzed by ion chromatography using a Dionex 1500 and anions were analyzed by ion chromatography using a Dionex 90. DOC was determined by LiquiIITOC (Germany). The $\delta^{15}N$ - and ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻ values were analyzed using the Denitrifier Method, in which δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O values were determined by measuring N₂O (produced by the denitrifying bacteria which lacks N₂O-reductase activity).²⁵ The produced N₂O was then measured using a trace gas analyser coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime 100, UK). The method of Atekwana and Krishnamurthy was modified for the $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ measurement.²⁶ First, the filtered water samples were injected into glass vacuum bottles with pure phosphate and heated in a water bath. The produced CO₂ in the bottle was extracted and cryogenically



Fig. 1 Location of sampling sites in the upper stream of Chaobai River, Beijing. T1, T2 and T3 are sampling sites in tributaries of Baihe River.

purified into a tube using a high vacuum line. Finally, $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values were determined on an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime 100, UK). The nitrate dual isotopes and carbon isotope were measured in the Dry Land Farming and Water-Saving Laboratory of the Ministry of Agriculture, Institute of Environment and Sustainable Development in Agriculture, Chinese Academy of Agriculture Sciences. The stable isotope ratios are expressed in delta (δ) units and a permil (%) notation relative to an international standard:

$$\delta X(\%_{\rm oo}) = \left(\frac{R_{\rm sample}}{R_{\rm standard}} - 1\right) \times 1000 \tag{1}$$

where R_{sample} and R_{standard} are the ¹⁵N/¹⁴N, ¹⁸O/¹⁶O or ¹³C/¹²C ratios of the sample and sample standard for δ^{15} N, δ^{18} O and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$, respectively. Values of δ^{15} N are reported relative to N₂ in atmospheric air (AIR), δ^{18} O values are reported relative to VSMOW and $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ values are reported relative to PDB. Precision averaged $\pm 0.3\%$ for δ^{15} N, $\pm 0.5\%$ for δ^{18} O and $\pm 0.3\%$ for $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ values.

3. Results

3.1 Chemical compositions of the collected water

The spatial and seasonal distribution of TDS, NO₃⁻ and HCO₃⁻ are presented in Fig. 2a-c. The average TDS values for September, June and December were $384 \pm 91 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, 362 ± 73 mg L^{-1} and 427 \pm 106 mg L^{-1} , respectively. The TDS concentrations were lower in the wet season than in the dry season, which partly reflected the dilution effect of rainwater on chemical ions during the high flow period.32,34 Spatially, the TDS concentrations were higher in draining areas with higher populations and more mineral activities. Assuming that the level of one or more chemical ions is significantly elevated by human activities, then the TDS concentration will become higher than that of the natural environment. Thus, the TDS value might reveal the impact of anthropogenic activities. For example, the TDS values in Chaohe River in September and December exceeded the average value of TDS (500 mg L^{-1}) from the most polluted rivers among the world's 60 largest rivers, indicating anthropogenic influences to some extent in the studied basin.27 Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ were the dominant cations for these waters, accounting for more than 80% of the total cation concentrations in the river waters. On average, HCO₃⁻ was the most abundant anion (64%), followed by SO_4^{2-} (22%) and $Cl^- + NO_3^-$ (14%). The water composition reflected the effect of carbonate rock dissolution.21

Concentrations of NO_3^- ranged from 0.03 mmol L^{-1} to 0.80 mmol L^{-1} , with an average value of 0.26 mmol L^{-1} . Forty-four percent of the obtained samples had NO_3^- concentrations above the human affected values (0.21 mmol L^{-1}),²⁸ with water samples located in sampling site DJH close to the World Health Organization limits for drinking water (50 mg L^{-1}). Seasonal variations of NO_3^- concentrations were not significant, while the spatial difference was significant in the watershed. Varying characteristics such as drained area and vegetation cover rate could result in the differences between distinct watersheds and streams.^{7,29} In the present study, the NO_3^- concentrations were

lower in the reservoir than in river waters, reflecting the differences in source and fate of nitrate between reservoir and river water. This is similar to the results found in the Three Gorges Dam Reservoir, Dongting Lake and Poyang Lake in the Changjiang River.⁸ The NO_3^- concentrations in water draining areas with more forest coverage ranged from 0.07 to 0.25 mmol L⁻¹ and the concentrations were higher in June. The NO_3^- concentrations in tributaries (from T1 to T5) were high on average, which indicated that these tributaries contributed a large amount of nitrate to the main channel of the Baihe River.

Chloride concentrations ranged from 0.17 mmol L⁻¹ to 0.83 mmol L⁻¹, showing little seasonal variations. However, Cl⁻ concentrations varied spatially, with high levels of Cl⁻ found in waters where there were intense human activities, which was similar to the above NO₃⁻ distribution. Because Cl⁻ is biologically and chemically conservative, the NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ ratios have been used to identify NO₃⁻ sources and transformations in many studies.^{14,29,34,35}

DOC concentrations ranged from 0.07 mmol L^{-1} to 0.39 mmol L^{-1} , typical for the unpolluted rivers.³⁰ Generally, DOC concentrations in the reservoir were higher compared with the upper rivers (Fig. 2c), which agreed with the distribution of particulate organic matter in this watershed reported by Li *et al.*¹⁸ According to Ogrinc *et al.*,³¹ lentic conditions in natural lakes or man-made reservoirs facilitate the *in situ* growth of phytoplanktonic algae, which may contribute more DOC and POC to the waters. In addition, elevated DOC concentrations may be related to anthropogenic influence such as agricultural activities and/or septic systems, and donate electrons during denitrification.^{1,13,14}

3.2 The nitrate isotopes and dissolved inorganic carbon isotopes

 δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ varied between –1.12 and +13.61^{\omega} with an average value of +8.86%; $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ varied between -3.75 and +21.26‰, and averaged +7.4‰. Recent studies based on the denitrifier method have reported that δ^{18} O values of microbial NO₃⁻ are much lower than previous studies using the AgNO₃ method to determine $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-}$.^{32,33} Seasonally, $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^{-}$ values were low in June and high in September (Fig. 2d). As shown in the histogram of δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ (Fig. 3), approximately 80% of the sites had δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values <10% in June and December, while 62% of those sites had δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values >10% in September. Unlike the δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ variations, δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values were higher in June and September than in December (Fig. 2e), suggesting that rain water had more effect on nitrate in the wet season due to the high $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-}$ values in rain.34 Intra-seasonal correlationship was not observed for δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values. However, the nitrate for the three months can be clearly distinguished by the δ^{15} N values, showing an increasing trend from June to December to September. A different increasing trend was displayed for δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values (from December to September and to June). The above relationship between $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ was different from rivers where $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ were lower than Chaohe River, in agreement with the distribution of



Fig. 2 Temporal and spatial variations of TDS, NO₃⁻, DOC, δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻, δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ and δ^{13} C_{DIC} in river water and reservoir water sampled in September, December and June on the Miyun Reservoir watershed. The dashed line in (a) is the average value of TDS (500 mg L⁻¹) from the most polluted rivers among the world's 60 largest rivers.²⁷ The dashed line in (b) is the human affected values of NO₃⁻ (0.21 mmol L⁻¹).²⁸

nitrate concentrations. The average values of δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O in rain water were +1.07% and +59.84% and in snowmelt water were +7.20% and +80.94%, respectively, falling in the typical range of atmospheric nitrate.³³

Measured $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ in river waters ranged from -12.02 to $-3.63\%_{o}$, with mean values of $-9.07\%_{o}$ in June and $-6.29\%_{o}$ in December, with 76% of the samples having $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ values between -14 and $-8\%_{o}$ in June; Fig. 3). This is similar to other studies.^{39,44} The low $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ values in summer (Fig. 2f) suggested that the soil CO₂ (mainly biogenic, hence enriched in 12 C) made a larger contribution to the DIC of river water in high flow season than in low flow season.⁵² The DIC was enriched in $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ in the reservoir compared to the rivers, which might

result from enhancement of CO_2 evasion from the river system due to increased water residence time.³⁹

4. Discussion

4.1 Nitrate origins based on the isotopes (¹⁵N, ¹⁸O and ¹³C) and chemical compositions

The potential NO₃⁻ sources in the study area include soil organic materials, livestock waste and effluent from septic systems, chemical fertilizer and precipitation. Given that different nitrate sources have typical isotopic compositions, $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values provide useful evidence for identifying nitrate sources. $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ and chemical compositions show different variation trends in the natural environment and

Table 1 Mean and standard deviation (SD) of chemical compositions and isotopes (¹⁵N, ¹⁸O and ¹³C) in the upper stream of Chaobai River^a

Sample	Mean/SD	рН	HCO_3^-	Cl^-	NO_3^-	$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2-}$	Na^+	K^+	Mg^{2+}	Ca^{2+}	$\delta^{15}N$	$\delta^{18}O$	$\delta^{13}C$	TDS
June	Mean	8.11	3.10	0.45	0.25	0.55	0.59	0.08	0.63	1.44	7.86	8.89	-9.07	362
	SD	0.22	0.85	0.16	0.17	0.20	0.16	0.03	0.17	0.32	2.99	5.42	2.20	73
September	Mean	7.88	3.45	0.47	0.24	0.58	0.60	0.08	0.63	1.37	9.88	6.98	_	384
	SD	0.20	1.02	0.17	0.17	0.26	0.14	0.04	0.15	0.31	3.45	4.05	_	91
November	Mean	7.83	3.94	0.47	0.30	0.58	0.59	0.07	0.76	1.52	8.83	6.32	-6.29	427
	SD	0.39	1.17	0.18	0.20	0.28	0.18	0.05	0.21	0.38	3.03	7.17	1.23	106
Main stream of Baihe river	Mean	7.96	3.88	0.40	0.19	0.44	0.59	0.06	0.66	1.47	8.85	4.20	-8.46	396
	SD	0.25	0.77	0.07	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.02	0.14	0.16	1.91	4.57	2.06	50
Chaohe river	Mean	7.98	3.90	0.77	0.42	0.85	0.84	0.08	0.74	1.85	12.04	6.98	-6.99	486
	SD	0.20	0.52	0.05	0.09	0.06	0.04	0.01	0.06	0.15	0.98	1.66	1.84	35
Baimaguan river	Mean	7.97	4.08	0.64	0.49	1.10	0.60	0.19	1.00	1.88	9.93	11.09	-8.70	529
	SD	0.22	1.06	0.08	0.08	0.31	0.11	0.06	0.17	0.15	2.72	2.59	2.74	93
Reservoirs	Mean	8.05	3.03	0.41	0.10	0.46	0.57	0.07	0.66	1.06	9.22	12.74	-5.04	323
	SD	0.34	0.49	0.07	0.07	0.13	0.11	0.02	0.12	0.17	2.16	5.68	0.99	44
Tributaries	Mean	7.85	2.87	0.40	0.28	0.54	0.49	0.07	0.59	1.32	7.11	7.38	-8.29	338
	SD	0.34	1.21	0.17	0.15	0.14	0.19	0.02	0.18	0.32	4.29	6.01	2.04	89
^{<i>a</i>} lons and DOC (mmol I^{-1})	TDS (mg I	$^{-1}$) isot	ones (%)	_ not	determi	hed								

Published on 08 September 2014. Downloaded by Stockholms Universitet on 18/08/2015 21:02:31

anthropogenic areas, which makes it possible to distinguish nitrate sources.

The measured isotopic values of NO₃⁻ in river water are plotted in Fig. 4 together with typical isotopic composition from different nitrate sources. As shown in Fig. 2b and 4, spatial variations of δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values and NO₃⁻ concentrations indicated different nitrate origins and impacting factors in different rivers. The highest NO₃⁻ concentrations were observed in areas where commercial crops such as walnut and ansu apricot were widely planted on the hills with slope greater than 25°. Leaching of soil containing chemical fertilizers from slopes to rivers was more intensive during high flow season. The corresponding δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values (-0.24 ± 0.64%) in two tributaries DJH and T5 revealed the nitrate source from chemical fertilizers. It has been reported that inorganic fertilizers usually have δ^{15} N values of -4 to $+4^{\circ}_{\circ o}$ and nitrate fertilizers often have slightly higher δ^{15} N values than NH₄⁺ fertilizers.³³ Unlike ammonium fertilizers, nitrate fertilizers have higher δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values from +17 to $+25\%_{00}$ because the O originates from atmospheric O₂ (+23.5%).40 The $\delta^{15}N\text{--}NO_3^{-}$ and $\delta^{18}O\text{--}NO_3^{-}$ values in DJH and T5 fell in the range of NH_4^+ fertilizers and NO_3^- fertilizers suggesting that high concentrations of nitrate were derived from chemical fertilizers. Additionally, NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ ratios could provide further information regarding the effect of chemical fertilizers. Chemical fertilizers applied in this watershed are mainly nitrogen fertilizers and compound fertilizers, which would produce a high level of NO3⁻ concentration and a low ratio of NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ if heavy application of this fertilizer takes place. As shown in Fig. 5a, the highest NO₃^{-/}Cl⁻ ratios and the lowest Cl⁻ concentrations were found in DIH and T5, which confirmed the chemical fertilizer inputs as identified by nitrate dual isotopes. The ratio of NO₃^{-/Cl⁻} as an indicator of nitrate sources was also used in other studies.29,34,35 The nitrogen isotopic values of sewage and livestock waste are generally in the range of ± 10 to $\pm 20\%$.⁵ Two of the sampling rivers (Chaohe River and Baimaguan River) with $\delta^{15}N$ values >10% had high

population densities and livestock and poultry raising and may therefore be affected by sewage and livestock effluent. According to the statistical data in the studied watershed,24,36,37 the amount of animals increased rapidly due to the development of stockbreeding. The annual nitrogen yield of animal waste in eleven villages or towns was calculated based on the statistical data of the local counties and previous studies.24,36-38 Sites of B1 and B2, outside of Beijing city (Fig. 1), are not included. The computed δ^{15} N vs. nitrogen yield is plotted in Fig. 5b. Nitrogen isotopes of nitrate and N vielded from animal waste showed a positive relation ($R^2 = 0.45$, P = 0.01), indicating that the elevated b15N values were related to animal waste, which was similar to the study by Mayer et al.9 However, this is just a simple relation analysis. The N load of animal waste, which is flushed into rivers by soil erosion, should be further studied. The high concentrations of Cl⁻ and SO₄²⁻ and the relatively low NO_3^{-}/Cl^{-} ratios could confirm this nitrate source (Fig. 5). Previous studies found that livestock effluent had high concentrations of Cl⁻ and SO₄²⁻ and low NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ ratios.^{29,34,35} The low NO_3^{-}/Cl^{-} ratios in livestock effluent were related to two factors: (1) weak nitrification process. As a major N species, ammonium in livestock effluent had not been nitrified to nitrate and consequently nitrate contents was low.³⁵ (2) Denitrification process. NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ would decrease if NO₃⁻ was transformed to N2 during denitrification.34

Forty-one percent of the sites had δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values falling in the typical range of soil organic nitrogen (+2 and +8‰)⁵ in June. These drain watersheds are predominately forested with around 90% coverage of forested land, reflecting the potential soil N sources for the N input. Such low δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values were observed in the main stream of Baihe River with NO₃⁻ concentrations less than 0.2 mmol L⁻¹. However, as shown in the histogram of δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ (Fig. 3), 55% of the samples in winter were within the overlapping range (+8 to +10‰) of the nitrogen isotopic composition of soil nitrogen and livestock effluents, which made it difficult to differentiate among these



Fig. 3 Histograms of $\delta^{15} N - N O_3^{-}$ and $\delta^{13} C_{DIC}$ in sampling waters.

nitrogen sources based only on δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values. Cravotta¹¹ used stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen to identify nitrogen sources in the Lower Susquehanna River Basin given the different carbon compositions of natural leaf litter and farmanimal manure. C3 plants are expected to have more negative $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ values than C4 plants due to differences in fractionation during photosynthesis,⁴¹ while $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ of livestock waste would inherit the carbon compositions of C4 plants if farm animals are fed on corn and maize¹¹ and these variations of $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ values. Therefore, $\delta^{13}C_{\text{DIC}}$ is likely to be useful to differentiate manure and natural soil nitrogen. The related equations of nitrate production by organic matter can be obtained from Liu *et al.*:³⁴

$$RCHNH_2COOH + O_2 \rightarrow RCOOH + CO_2 + NH_3$$
 (2)



Fig. 4 Composition of dual isotopes of nitrate from different sources and values measured in the studied watershed. Typical ranges of isotopic composition for nitrate sources are adopted from Kendall *et al.*³³ and Xue *et al.*³

 $NH_3 + O_2 + H_2O \rightarrow NO_2^- + 3H^+ + H_2O$ (3)

$$2NO_2^- + H_2O + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO_3^- + H_2O$$
 (4)

The studied areas belong to a warm-temperate zone and thus C3 plants are more dominant. Carbon compositions of C3 plants and C4 plants in the studied basin were in a range of -29to -22% and -17 to -11%, respectively.¹⁷ After accounting for the diffusional fractionation of +4.4% between soil CO2 and soil organic matter⁴² and +9% between soil CO₂ and HCO₃⁻,⁴³ the resulting $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ from C3 plants and C4 plants should be in the range of -15.6 to -8.6% and -3.6 to +2.4% respectively. The theoretic calculation process of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ and carbon variations in aqueous systems are shown in Fig. 6a. Values of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ <-8.6% represented the watersheds with a higher percentage of forested land. For example, more negative $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values were distributed in Baihe River, where approximately 90% of the land was covered by forested land. This indicated that nitrate in sites with δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values between +8 and +10% and δ^{13} C_{DIC} <-8.6‰ could originate from organic soil matter. For sites with elevated $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values and higher $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ values such as Chaohe River, sewage and livestock waste was the major nitrate source. The trend of elevated $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values in areas with more anthropogenic activities was similar to other studies.39,44 However, $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values in December were not indicative of nitrogen sources because these higher δ¹³C_{DIC} values exceeded the theoretical range. Seasonal variations of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ might be a result of a mixture of endmembers and/or in-stream processes.42,45

In contrast with the upper river, the reservoir had lower NO_3^- concentrations and medium $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ values, suggesting the input from rivers and multi-endmember mixing for



Fig. 5 (a) Variations of NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ molar ratios with Cl⁻ molar concentrations in the upper stream Chaobai River. (b) δ^{15} N vs. N yield of animal waste in 2012 in the watershed.

 NO_3^- . As identified in Fig. 2, NO_3^- concentrations and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ values in reservoir sites (M2 and M4) were lower than the corresponding river mouth (C4 and B15). Whereas, variations of $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-}$ were opposite to the trend of δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻. δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ can be useful to distinguish atmospheric nitrate from nitrification-derived NO₃⁻ when the sources and fate of NO₃⁻ cannot be fully elucidated using only N isotopes. $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-}$ values in precipitation were higher than those derived from nitrification.³³ The elevated $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-1}$ values in the reservoir suggested that nitrogen sources with heavy $\delta^{18}O$ compositions contributed to riverine NO₃⁻. Ammonium-nitrate fertilizer might contribute NO₃⁻ to these samples for the heavier δ^{18} O values. However, the more positive δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values in September and December were not consistent with the application time for nitrogen fertilizers and the low nitrate concentration of these samples. Another source for the higher δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values was atmospheric nitrate. The collected samples of rain water and snow water had $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-1}$ values ranging from +56.37% to +81.10%. The influence of atmospheric nitrate would probably be pronounced on samples when nitrate concentration in precipitation was high and nitrate concentration in rivers was relatively low.1 The average concentrations of NO_3^- in Miyun Reservoir were 0.05 mmol L⁻¹, according to meteorological data,46 which was close to the mean NO_3^- concentrations in the present study (0.07 mmol L⁻¹). The combined $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-}$ values and nitrate concentrations indicated that atmospheric nitrate had more contribution to the reservoir than the rivers. Besides, evidence using NO₃^{-/Cl⁻} ratios supported the influence of atmospheric nitrate in the reservoir. As reported by the meteorological data,⁴⁶ NH₄⁺ was the main N form in rain water in the studied watershed. Thus, NO_3^{-}/Cl^{-} ratios should be low if atmospheric nitrate has a significant effect on river water. As shown in the plot of NO_3^{-}/Cl^{-} ratios vs. Cl^{-} concentrations (Fig. 5), the lowest NO3⁻/Cl⁻ ratio was found in the Miyun Reservoir, which confirmed the above conclusion that atmospheric nitrate had more influence on the reservoir than the rivers. Another possible explanation for the low NO_3^{-}/Cl^{-} ratios in the reservoir is biological uptake of NO₃⁻. However, this process could be negligible, as discussed in the next section. It was reported that

		Area/km ²	Average δ ¹⁵ N values	N yield (
Name of village/town	Sampling sites			Pig	Beef	Sheep	Broiler	Total	N yield/t km ⁻²
Gubeikou	C1, C2	83.1	11.99	7.96	1.01	0	0.50	9.48	1.01
Gaoling	C3, C4	105	12.09	6.86	0.87	0	78.21	85.94	2.82
Fengjiayu	BM1-BM3	214.25	9.93	48.55	26.49	5.03	0	80.07	0.64
Bulaotun	M1	193.2	7.81	6.93	1.56	7.73	8.66	24.88	0.51
Taishitun	M2, M3	202	11.11	22.93	9.17	0	153.40	185.50	1.57
Shicheng	B12-B15, T5, M4	252.8	6.07	14.87	0	0	0	14.87	0.10
Liulimiao	B11, T4	226.5	9.35	5.62	4.20	9.94	118.19	137.96	0.04
Tanghekou	B8-B10, T3	224.8	9.76	22.32	17.43	25.38	32.89	98.02	0.38
Baoshan	B7, T2	248.6	9.89	67.28	44.68	52.17	153.75	317.88	0.75
Xiangying	B3	117.00	9.69	109.63	73.63	56.06	0.01	239.33	0.68
Qianjiadian	B4–B6, T1	363.49	9.23	56.36	9.57	16.75	0	82.67	0.04

Table 2 The N yield of animal waste in each village or town^a and average nitrogen isotopes of nitrate and the related nitrogen isotope of nitrate

^{*a*} Related statistical data can be found in local statistical yearbook^{24,36,37} and the nitrogen concentration of liquid waste and solid waste in Beijing suburb is taken from the study by Jia *et al.*³⁸



Fig. 6 (a) DIC sources and potential variations of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ in aqueous systems modified from Jiang.⁴⁴ (b) Isotopic fractionation of nitrogen during mineralization, volatilization and nitrification modified from Cravotta.¹¹

 δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values from atmospheric deposition were modified by nitrification before entering the river and less than 3% of the unmodified atmospheric nitrate directly entered the stream.^{47,48} Thus, the nitrification production of precipitation should be one major source of nitrate for the reservoir.

In general, nitrate was mainly derived from soil nitrogen, livestock waste or sewage and atmospheric nitrogen. Also, several sites were affected by chemical fertilizers. Differences of nitrate source in seasons and sites suggested that there were varying impacting factors such as forest coverage, climate and human activities. $\delta^{13}C_{\rm DIC}$ can provide evidence for the identification of nitrogen sources in the wet season. However, $\delta^{13}C_{\rm DIC}$ in the dry season appeared to reflect the mixture of endmembers and/or transformation processes, not the composition of the N sources.

4.2 Transformations of nitrate

Processes influencing dual isotopic compositions of NO₃⁻ include fixation, assimilation, mineralization, volatilization, nitrification, denitrification and other dissimilatory N transformations. These processes can alter the original NO₃⁻ isotopic compositions, potentially biasing identification of NO₃⁻ sources.^{3,3,48} The biochemical N cycle is closely linked to organic matter, which makes it possible to identify NO₃⁻ transformations by δ^{15} N- and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ together with δ^{13} C_{DIC}.

Denitrification is an important process to reduce NO₃⁻ load in the contaminated basin. Denitrification requires anoxic conditions, where NO3⁻ is reduced to N2 or N2O by organic matter or sulfide. Apart from the dual isotopes of nitrate used to identify the denitrification process, studying the isotopic composition of DIC and chemical composition can further reveal whether or not organic matter and/or sulfides play a significant role as electron donors if the denitrification process occurs. Variations of isotopes and corresponding ions during denitrification are characterized as follows: (1) nitrate concentrations tend to decrease while values of δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ simultaneously increase with enrichment ratios ranging from 2.1 to 1.3.10,33 (2) Carbonic isotope of DIC would decrease due to the preferential utilization of ¹²C when organic matters are oxidized as electron donors during the denitrification process.13,14 Correspondingly, a decrease of DOC

concentrations and an increase of DIC concentrations would be observed as a result of the oxidation of organic matter. Therefore, plots of δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ vs. NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ (Fig. 7a and b), δ^{13} C_{DIC} vs. NO_3^{-}/Cl^{-} (Fig. 7c) and $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ vs. HCO_3^{-} (Fig. 8) are made to identify the denitrification process. In the present study, the intra-seasonal and inter-seasonal increasing trend for $\delta^{15}N$ and δ^{18} O was not obtained (Fig. 4). Thus, denitrification had no significant influence on removing nitrate, although there was a significant negative correlationship between $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^{-}$ and NO_3^{-}/Cl^{-} (Fig. 7a and b). Indeed, the observed relationships of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values vs. HCO_3^{-} concentrations (Fig. 8) and $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values vs. DOC concentrations (not shown) support this conclusion. Previous studies argued that some anthropogenic sources might mask any isotopic denitrification signal^{13,32} and denitrification could occur in situ and groundwater flow systems.^{1,35} It should be noted that sampling location B3 (Baihepu Reservoir) showed a simultaneous increase in the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-}$ values (ratio of 1.63 : 1) during the sampling period associated with a strong decrease in NO3⁻ concentrations. This might be an indicator for denitrification in the Baihepu Reservoir. Since the denitrification process was excluded for the negative correlationship between δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ and NO₃^{-/Cl⁻, assimilation could be one mechanism for the} trend of δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values and NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ ratios. In general, the isotopes with lower mass were preferentially transformed during assimilation. δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values of non-fixing plants and particulate organic matter (POM) would be lower than or equal that of the dissolved inorganic nitrogen during assimilation.45,49 In the studied watershed, the enriched δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ relative to the δ^{15} N–POM with a range of -0.66 to $+4.79^{\circ}_{/00}$ (ref. 18) suggested the assimilation process. Similar $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^{-}$ enrichments relative to POM have been found in Mississippi River and Sava River.31,45 Needoba et al.50 demonstrated that the influence of assimilation fractionation on the external nitrate pool is through efflux of nitrate with enriched δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ values from phytoplankton cells. The slightly higher riverine δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ in December relative to June may be provides evidence for the assimilation fractionation effect. However, the negative relationship of δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ and NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ was not obtained in the Miyun Reservoir (Fig. 7a and b). One mechanism might be related to uptake discrimination among nitrogen species in



Fig. 7 (a and b) Relationship between NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ molar ratios and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻. (c) Relationship between NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ molar ratios and δ^{13} C_{DIC}. (d) Variations of NO₃⁻ concentrations with pCO₂ in June.



Fig. 8 Variations of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ relative to HCO₃⁻ concentrations. The dashed line was the upper limit of resulting $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values (–15.6 to –8.6‰) from C3 plants.

water. Phytoplankton uptake of other forms of DIC was strongly suppressed by NH_4^+ concentrations above 1.5 µmol L^{-1} .⁵¹ NH_4^+ in the Miyun Reservoir is higher than 1.5 µmol L^{-1} and consequently NO_3^- uptake is limited, which could be one of the reasons for the scattered trend of $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ values and NO_3^-/Cl^- ratios.

Mineralization is connected to organic nitrogen and inorganic nitrogen, which play an important role in the N cycle. Although nitrate isotopes could better identify nitrification and denitrification and other N transformations, these two isotopes could not further identify mineralization. Combined use of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ and NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ was attempted to identify mineralization given the variations of carbon and nitrogen during the mineralization. Assuming that nitrogen-containing organic compounds of mineralization were a major NO₃⁻ source, $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ would tend to be more negative with increasing production of NO3⁻ because organic matter with lower carbon isotopes was preferentially used. The expected negative relationship between $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values and NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ ratios was found in this study (Fig. 7c), confirming the above assumption. A similar trend of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ vs. NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ was found in Lee *et al.*⁵² As indicated from eqn (2)-(4), the partial pressure of CO_2 (p CO_2) could provide additional information regarding whether mineralization had a significant influence on the N cycle. The pCO2 was calculated using the WATSPEC software.53 The computed pCO₂ were several times higher than atmospheric equilibrium values as reported in other studies.31,52 Two major processes increasing the riverine pCO₂ level include in situ respiration of organic carbon and influx of soil CO₂ through baseflow and interflow.54 In the studied watershed, the former

Paper

process could be ignored due to the weak influence of plankton and macrophytes on the riverine organic matter.¹⁷ Hence, influx of soil CO₂ could be the major control of pCO₂ level. Therefore, the positive relationship of pCO₂ *vs.* NO₃⁻ concentrations in June (Fig. 7d) suggested that NO₃⁻ as products of mineralization and nitrification was flushing into rivers *via* soil erosion in the wet season.

Note that some values in sites B1, B2 and B3 were not included in the regression model because they deviated significantly from the regression lines. The specific values excluded were marked with the corresponding sampling location in Fig. 7. Previous studies have suggested that sites B1 and B2, outside of Beijing City, have different N sources and impacting factors.^{17,18} Therefore, the observed scattered values might be related to the different N transformations. In addition to the above regression model applied to identify the nitrate transformation process, recent work using multiple statistical analyses of chemical data revealed that cluster analysis and principal component analysis have potential for distinguishing natural processes and anthropogenic inputs.^{55,56}

 δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ has been successfully used to identify nitrification, since the nitrification process usually has $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-1}$ values in the range of -10 to $+10^{\circ}_{\circ 0}$.³³ In theory, NH₄⁺ is firstly oxidized to NO2 by using one oxygen atom from ambient O2 and one oxygen atom from ambient H₂O as an electron acceptor, and NO₂ is then oxidized to NO₃⁻ by using one oxygen atom from ambient $H_2O.^{57}$ Accordingly, an estimated $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^{-1}$ range of +1.2 to +5.7% can be obtained based on the $\delta^{18}O-O_2$ of +23.5% (ref. 40) and the local δ^{18} O–H₂O range of surface water of -9.9 to -3.2% from Beijing.21 As shown in Fig. 4, most samples had $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ values above the calculated range. Researchers have offered a variety of explanations for these high δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values, such as δ^{18} O–H₂O and O₂ incorporation and δ^{18} O-H₂O fractionation caused by respiration and evaporation.5,33 As for Beijing, the long-term average annual potential evaporation is higher than the annual rainfall, and evidence has been found to show that enrichment of heavy isotopes of ground water and surface water results from evaporation in Beijing.²¹ Hence, evaporation could be the main reason for higher δ^{18} O–NO₃⁻ values. A similar result was found in Changjiang River, China.⁸ For samples with $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ values below the expected range, the ratio of oxygen from H₂O and O₂ might be higher than the expected 0.67 during nitrification.^{32,58}

In order to further estimate the isotopic fractionation during the nitrate transformations, the Rayleigh distillation equation and typical values of fractionation factors were used. Fig. 6b shows the fractionation of nitrogen isotopes by a series of transport and transformation of nitrogen, modified from Cravotta.¹¹ The δ^{15} N of soil N was assumed to be +1.8%, which was the average value of soil organic nitrogen in the studied watershed.¹⁷ Approximately 10% of the soil organic N was mineralized based on the mineralization proportion 7–10% in forested land.⁵⁹ The nitrification proportion was calculated from the ratio of NO₃⁻/NH₄⁺ in river water and fractionation factors were taken from Cravotta.¹¹ The calculated δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ was +7.4%, close to the average δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ value (+7.65%) in Baihe River in June, suggesting that nitrate in Baihe River could be derived from transport and transformation of soil organic nitrogen. This was in line with the nitrate source deduced from $\delta^{13}C_{\rm DIC}$ and $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ values discussed above. However, $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ values in September was much higher than the computed $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ value, which could be related to high microbial activity and transformation proportion in late summer.

4.3 Contributions of nitrate sources

The contribution of the three nitrate sources can be calculated by dual isotope mixing models based on mass balance, which assumes that no major isotopic change occurred during $NO_3^$ transformations.^{7,28}

$$\delta^{15}N_m = f_1 \times \delta^{15}N_1 + f_2 \times \delta^{15}N_2 + f_3 \times \delta^{15}N_3$$
 (5)

$$\delta^{18}O_{m} = f_{1} \times \delta^{18}O_{1} + f_{2} \times \delta^{18}O_{2} + f_{3} \times \delta^{18}O_{3}$$
 (6)

$$1 = f_1 + f_2 + f_3 \tag{7}$$

where $\delta^{15}N_m$ and $\delta^{18}O_m$ are the NO₃⁻ isotopes values measured in the study, and f₁, f₂ and f₃ represent the proportional contribution of the three NO₃⁻ sources, which include soil N, precipitation and sewage and livestock wastes. Determination of the different end-members is as follows. (1) Soil N: the δ^{15} N of soil organic matter was assumed to be +7.4%, which was the calculated value of soil N based on nitrogen-isotopic fractionation during mineralization and nitrification (Fig. 6b). (2) Precipitation: the $\delta^{15}N$ for precipitation was determined to be +1.39% which was the average δ^{15} N values of precipitation in the suburb of Beijing, China.⁶⁰ (3) Sewage and livestock waste: the highest δ^{15} N value of +13.61% in the study area was used. The δ^{18} O of precipitation was determined to be +70.4%, which was the average δ^{18} O value of rain water and snow water sampled in the studied basin. The δ^{18} O for soil N and manure was the theoretical value of the nitrification process (+1.2%) in this study. Given the high microbial activity and isotopic fractionation of nitrogen in late summer, nitrate isotopes in June and December were used in this model. For sites with $\delta^{18}O$ -NO₃⁻ values below the lower limit of the calculated range of the nitrification process, these sites were not included in the mixing model.

The ranges of contributions of each NO_3^- source are shown in boxplots (Fig. 9). In summer, the contribution of soil N was the highest, followed by sewage and livestock effluents and atmospheric nitrogen. In winter, livestock effluents contributed the most, atmospheric nitrogen contributed the least and soil N was intermediate. The contributions of NO_3^- source in the wet season exhibited more scatter than in the winter, reflecting that more mixing effects and biological activities impacted $NO_3^$ due to the high rainfall and temperatures. Compared to rivers, an increase of atmospheric NO_3^- contribution occurred in the reservoir, which resulted in a dilution effect of varying $NO_3^$ sources. The atmospheric contribution proportion agreed with the reported range of riverine NO_3^- from storm events (<33%) and snowmelt water.^{6,61} The contributions of livestock waste and soil N in the reservoir were between those of the upstream



Fig. 9 Seasonal and spatial proportional contribution of three major NO_3^- sources for the studied watershed estimated by mixing model. Boxplots illustrate the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles; the whiskers indicate the 5th and 95th percentiles; the squares indicate the mean values.

rivers such as Chaohe River and Baihe River, which verified the significant N input from the upper rivers to the reservoir.

5. Conclusions

The multi-isotopic method (¹⁵N, ¹⁸O and ¹³C) together with the chemical composition of water is used to elucidate the sources and fate of nitrate in the up-stream Chaobai River for the first time. The results of the present study showed that the concentrations of NO₃⁻ varied significantly between the reservoir and the river, with much lower levels of NO₃⁻ concentrations in the reservoir than in the river. The isotopic data indicated that NO₃⁻ was derived mainly from soil N, sewage and livestock waste and atmospheric deposition, except for two tributaries which had NO₃⁻ derived from chemical fertilizer. The carbonic isotope of DIC can be used to identify nitrate sources in the wet season when using δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ was difficult to distinguish soil N and animal waste. That said, for sites with δ^{15} N–NO₃⁻ ranging from +8 to +10%, lower $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values (<-8.6%) indicated the nitrate source from soil N while the sites with elevated $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values (>-8.6%) were mainly affected by animal waste. However, $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ in the dry season tended to reflect the mixture of endmember or transformation processes, not the composition of nitrogen sources. The results of the mixing-model indicated that NO3⁻ was mainly related to soil N and nitrification in the wet season, while sewage and livestock waste contributed the most in the dry season. On the other hand, there was an increase in the atmospheric N contribution in the reservoir relative to the upper river and nitrate sources from the rivers exerted important influence over the reservoir. The dual isotopes of NO₃⁻ and the carbon isotope of DIC revealed that mineralization and nitrification played an important role in N biogeochemical processes in the wet season. Specifically, the negative relationship of $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ values vs. NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ and positive relationship of NO_3^- concentrations vs. pCO_2 indicated that mineralization was a major control of nitrate transformation in the wet season and nitrate as products of the mineralization and nitrification was flushing into the river through soil and water erosion. In addition, the assimilation process and water

evaporation affected the nitrate isotopes. However, the nitrate isotopes and carbon isotope as well as water chemistry suggested that denitrification was absent or weak in the watershed.

This study shows that the combination of nitrate isotopes and $\delta^{13}C_{DIC}$ could provide additional information for the identification of sources and transformations of nitrate in watersheds with dominantly forested land in the wet season. It is useful to improve the approach of nitrate identification and further access nitrate pollution. Additionally, the source and fate of nitrate indicate that much attention should be paid to the upper rivers with expanding livestock breeding, and suitable soil conservation measures should be adopted in this watershed.

Acknowledgements

Sincere thanks to Huang Xingxing and Liang Xiatian, who helped to collect water samples in the studied basin. This work was financially supported by the National Science Foundation of China Funded Project (41173113) and the program of "One Hundred Talented People" of the Chinese Academy of Science.

Notes and references

- 1 S. V. Panno, K. C. Hackley, H. H. Hwang and W. R. Kelly, *Chem. Geol.*, 2001, **179**, 113–128.
- 2 E. L. Smith and L. M. Kellman, *J. Environ. Manage.*, 2011, **92**, 2892–2899.
- 3 D. Xue, J. Botte, B. De Baets, F. Accoe, A. Nestler, P. Taylor,
 O. V. Cleemput, M. Berglund and P. Boeckx, *Water Res.*, 2009, 43, 1159–1170.
- 4 D. Widory, W. Kloppmann, L. Chery, J. Bonnin, H. Rochdi and J. L. Guinamant, *J. Contam. Hydrol.*, 2004, **72**, 165–188.
- 5 C. Kendall, in *Isotope Tracers in Catchment Hydrology*, ed. C. Kendall and J. J. McDonnell, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1998, pp. 519–576.
- 6 D. A. Burns and C. Kendall, *Water Resour. Res.*, 2002, **38**, 9.1–9.11.

- 7 B. Deutsch, M. Mewes, I. Liskow and M. Voss, *Org. Geochem.*, 2006, **37**, 1333–1342.
- 8 S. L. Li, C. Q. Liu, J. Li, X. Liu, B. Chetelat, B. Wang and F. Wang, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2010, 44, 1573–1578.
- 9 B. Mayer, E. W. Boyer, C. Goodale, N. A. Jaworski, N. Van Breemen, R. W. Howarth, S. Seitzinger, G. Billen, K. Lajtha, K. Nadelhoffer, D. V. Dam, L. J. Hetling, M. Nosal and K. Paustian, *Biogeochemistry*, 2002, 57, 171–197.
- 10 J. Böttcher, O. Strebel, S. Voerkelius and H. L. Schmidt, *J. Hydrol.*, 1990, **114**, 413–424.
- 11 C. A. Cravotta, US Geol. Surv. Water-Supply Paper 2497.41, 1997.
- 12 N. Otero, C. Torrentó, A. Soler, A. Menció and J. Mas-Pla, *Agric., Ecosyst. Environ.*, 2009, **133**, 103–113.
- 13 R. Puig, A. Folch, A. Menció, A. Soler and J. Mas-Pla, *Appl. Geochem.*, 2013, **32**, 129–141.
- 14 L. Vitòria, A. Soler, À. Canals and N. Otero, *Appl. Geochem.*, 2008, 23, 3597–3611.
- 15 T. Hosono, T. Tokunaga, A. Tsushima and J. Shimada, *Water Res.*, 2014, **54**, 284–296.
- 16 W. Z. Li, X. Y. Li and X. X. Wang, Acta Sci. Circumstantiae, 2013, 33, 3047-3052.
- 17 F. Y. Lu, Z. Q. Liu and H. B. Ji, *Sci. China: Earth Sci.*, 2013, **56**, 217–227.
- 18 H. Y. Li, G. Wang, H. B. Ji and Y. B. Jiang, Acta Sci. Circumstantiae, 2011, **31**, 2663–2671.
- 19 Y. G. Wang, Ph.D. thesis, Chinese Academy of Forestry, 2010.
- 20 X. S. Li, B. F. Wu and L. Zhang, J. Mt. Sci., 2013, 10(5), 801-811.
- 21 Y. Zhai, J. Wang, Y. Teng and R. Zuo, *Environ. Earth Sci.*, 2013, **69**, 2167–2177.
- 22 L. Y. Zhang, Beijing Water, 2007, 4, 40-42.
- 23 Beijing Statistical Information Net, http:// www.bjstats.gov.cn/nj/main/2013-tjnj/index.htm, (accessed August 2014).
- 24 Mi yun Statistical Information Net, http:// www.my.bjstats.gov.cn/Page/435/default.aspx, (accessed August 2014).
- 25 D. M. Sigman, K. L. Casciotti, M. Andreani, C. Barford, M. Galanter and J. K. Böhlke, *Anal. Chem.*, 2001, 73, 4145– 4153.
- 26 E. A. Atekwana and R. V. Krishnamurthy, *J. Hydrol.*, 1998, 205, 265–278.
- 27 J. Gaillardet, B. Dupré, P. Louvat and C. J. Allegre, *Chem. Geol.*, 1999, **159**, 3-30.
- 28 D. Kaown, D. C. Koh, B. Mayer and K. K. Lee, *Agric., Ecosyst. Environ.*, 2009, **132**, 223–231.
- 29 S. L. Li, C. Q. Liu, J. Li, Z. C. Xue, J. Guan, Y. C. Lang, H. Ding and L. B. Li, *Environ. Earth Sci.*, 2013, 68, 219–228.
- 30 S. Tao, Water Res., 1998, 32(7), 2205-2210.
- 31 N. Ogrinc, R. Markovics, T. Kanduč, L. M. Walter and S. K. Hamilton, *Appl. Geochem.*, 2008, 23, 3685–3698.
- 32 F. J. Yue, S. L. Li, C. Q. Liu, Z. Q. Zhao and J. Hu, *Appl. Geochem.*, 2013, **36**, 1–9.
- 33 C. Kendall, E. M. Elliott and S. D. Wankel, in *Stable isotopes in ecology and environmental science*, ed. K. Lajtha and R. H.

Michener, Wiley-Blackwell Scientic Publication, 2nd edn, 2007, pp. 375–449.

- 34 C. Q. Liu, S. L. Li, Y. C. Lang and H. Y. Xiao, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2006, 40(22), 6928–6933.
- 35 F. Chen, G. Jia and J. Chen, *Biogeochemistry*, 2009, **94**, 163–174.
- 36 Huairou Statistical Information Net, http://www.hrtj.gov.cn/ Page/177/Default.aspx (accessed August 2014).
- 37 Yanqing Statistical Information Net, http://yq.bjstats.gov.cn/ tjsj/ndsj/index.htm (accessed August 2014).
- 38 W. Jia, Y. H. Li, Q. Chen and D. Chadwick, *Transactions of the CSAE*, 2014, **30**(8), 156–167.
- 39 S. Zhang, X. X. Lu, H. Sun, J. Han and D. L. Higgitt, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 2009, 407, 815–825.
- 40 A. Amberger and H. L. Schmidt, *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*, 1987, **51**, 2699–2705.
- 41 M. H. O'Leary, Bioscience, 1988, 328-336.
- 42 T. E. Cerling, D. K. Solomon, J. Quade and J. R. Bowman, *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*, 1991, 55, 3403–3405.
- 43 J. Zhang, P. D. Quay and D. O. Wilbur, *Geochim. Cosmochim.* Acta, 1995, **59**, 107–114.
- 44 Y. Jiang, J. Contam. Hydrol., 2013, 152, 1-11.
- 45 C. Kendall, S. R. Silva and V. J. Kelly, *Hydrol. Processes*, 2001, 15, 1301–1346.
- 46 D. Z. Yang, X. D. Xu, X. D. Liu, G. A. Ding, Q. Xu, X. H. Cheng,
 H. L. Chen, H. G. Zhou, Z. F. Wang and W. Y. Wang, *Sci. China: Earth Sci.*, 2005, 35, 195–205.
- 47 K. S. Lee, Y. S. Bong, D. Lee, Y. Kim and K. Kim, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 2008, **395**, 117–124.
- 48 R. T. Barnes, P. A. Raymond and K. L. Casciotti, *Biogeochemistry*, 2008, **90**, 15–27.
- 49 N. E. Ostrom, S. A. Macko, D. Deibel and R. J. Thompson, *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*, 1997, **61**, 2929–2942.
- 50 J. A. Needoba, D. M. Sigman and P. J. Harrison, *J. Phycol.*, 2004, **40**, 517–522.
- 51 J. P. Montoya, S. G. Korrigan and J. J. McCarthy, *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*, 1991, 55, 3627–3638.
- 52 K. S. Lee, J. S. Ryu, K. H. Ahn, H. W. Chang and D. Lee, *Hydrol. Processes*, 2007, **21**, 500–509.
- 53 T. M. Wigley, *WATSPEC: a computer program for determining the equilibrium speciation of aqueous solutions*, Geo Abstracts for the British Geomorphological Research Group, 1977.
- 54 J. A. Barth and J. Veizer, Chem. Geol., 1999, 159, 107-128.
- 55 T. Zeng and W. A. Arnold, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2013, **48**(1), 139–148.
- 56 W. J. Shin, J. S. Ryu, K. S. Lee and G. S. Chung, *Environ. Earth Sci.*, 2013, **68**(8), 2271–2279.
- 57 K. K. Andersson and A. B. Hooper, *FEBS Lett.*, 1983, **164**, 236–240.
- 58 D. M. Snider, J. Spoelstra, S. L. Schiff and J. J. Venkiteswaran, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2010, 44, 5358–5364.
- 59 F. Bernhard-Reversat, For. Ecol. Manage., 1988, 23, 233-244.
- 60 Y. Zhang, X. J. Liu, A. Fangmeier, K. T. W. Goulding and F. S. Zhang, *Atmos. Environ.*, 2008, 42, 1436–1448.
- 61 A. R. Buda and D. R. DeWalle, *Hydrol. Processes*, 2009, 23, 3292–3305.