

A framework to quantify riverine dissolved inorganic nitrogen exports

under changing land use pattern and hydrologic regime

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Abstract:

13Riverine dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), when elevated by human activities (e.g., land-
14use change), can accelerate the nitrogen cycle and downstream dispersal. However, estimating
15DIN export coefficients for individual land-use types can be complex due to mosaic land-use
16patterns and interactions between fertilizers and hydrological processes. We propose a
17framework that integrates an empirical model, a moving-window method with an elasticity
18method to quantify seasonal DIN export coefficients for each land use in the Shixi Creek
19catchment, southeast China. Our model showed good agreement with field observations
20according to root mean square error and a normalized objective function. The DIN export
21coefficients of farmland and forest were the highest (9.16 mg/L) and lowest (2.91 mg/L),
22respectively, resulting in DIN exports for farmland and forest of 1,951 kg km⁻² yr⁻¹ and 619 kg
23km⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively. Urbanization was a dominant factor influencing DIN export
24represented by the export coefficient of built-up areas with the highest elasticity and highest

25uncertainty. This study can shed light on how to improve riverine N management in a
26catchment by considering the interactive effects of climate and land use changes.

27**Keywords:** Dissolved inorganic nitrogen; elasticity; export coefficient; land-use change.

28

291. Introduction

30 Land-use change has increased the release of reactive nitrogen (N) in the environment
31and accelerated the N cycle in recent decades, becoming an issue of global significance
32(Galloway et al., 2008; Mclauchlan et al., 2013). Land-use patterns can predict riverine N
33export (Huang et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2016;) and many watershed models including
34SPARROW (SPAtially Referenced Regression On Watershed attributes; Zhou et al., 2018),
35SWAT (Soil and Water Assessment Tool; Huang et al., 2013a), HSPF (Hydrological
36Simulation Program – FORTRAN; Zhang et al., 2019) and the N-runoff model (Mander et al.,
372000; Parn et al., 2018) account for land use in their estimates of riverine N export. The
38performance of these models relies on accurate observed N export and export coefficients for
39different land-use types (Huang et al., 2012; Shih et al., 2016), hence estimating the N export
40coefficients of different land uses is critical for watershed modeling and subsequent watershed
41management.

42 Riverine N export is strongly controlled by land-use patterns, but few studies have
43quantified the impacts of individual land-use types. Huang et al. (2012a) applied an empirical
44model to inversely estimate the DIN (dissolved inorganic nitrogen, including NO_2^- , NO_3^- , and
45 NH_4^+) export coefficient of each land use from riverine DIN export. Shih et al. (2016)
46considered the sources of DIN (point and non-point) with runoff variation into the
47modification and applied their model to the Taiwan River with good predictive accuracy for

48river DIN export.

49 N export from landscapes to watersheds is a complex and nonlinear process influenced
50by multiple factors, including intra-annual variation in rainfall and associated biogeochemical
51processes (Lee et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). Although export
52coefficients can quantify N exports for each land use, the relationship between runoff and N
53loads varies with time and is often poorly accounted for (Tomer et al., 2003; Zhang and
54Schilling, 2005; de Girolamo et al., 2019). For example, storms can increase N export due to
55excessive water in the soil and decreasing biogeochemical transformation, especially during
56wet years (Greaver et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019a; Ervinia et al., 2019).

57 Some studies stated that riverine N may be amplified by the interaction between
58increasing human-impacted land use with intensified precipitation (Kaushal et al., 2014;
59Huang et al., 2018). However, few studies reported how to quantify DIN export coefficients
60for individual land-use types, which may be likely due to the fact that mosaic land-use
61patterns and interactions between fertilizers and hydrological processes exist in watersheds.
62More attempts need to be made to estimating seasonal DIN export coefficients for each land
63use in Southeast Asia, Southeast China, particularly Southeast China, since this area is a
64hotspot of global DIN export associated with rapid urbanization and changing climate
65variability (Chen et al., 2015; Shih et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2018). The emissions of N and
66export of DIN in Southeast China is expected to be very high which may be controlled by
67intensive land use change and rich precipitation. Besides, it remains challenging to evaluate N
68export within a small creek with sparse data, which is a common situation in China (Zhang et
69al., 2020).

70 In this study, we developed a framework to quantify riverine dissolved inorganic nitrogen

71 exports under changing land use pattern and hydrologic regime in a small creek watershed,
72 Southeast China. The specific objectives of this study are: to (1) quantify riverine DIN export
73 according to land-use patterns; (2) to assess the impact of hydrological regimes on those
74 export coefficients; and (3) to conduct scenario analysis to test different land management
75 strategies. This study can shed light on how to improve riverine N management in a
76 catchment by considering the interactive effects of climate and land use changes.

77

78 2. Material and methods

79 2.1. Study area

80 The Shixi Creek catchment is located in the subtropical Asian monsoon climate and has a
81 drainage area of 38.17 km² with four tributaries (Fig. 1). Approximately half of the catchment
82 is covered with forest and another third is used as orchards and farmland. Most built-up areas,
83 accounting for ~10% of the drainage area, are located close to the riparian zone of the Shixi
84 (Fig 1). Streamflow from the Shixi is the main water source for domestic, industrial, and
85 agricultural activities for more than 20,000 local residents.

86

[Insert Fig. 1 here]

87 2.2. Analytical framework

88 We devised a framework integrating an empirical model with moving-window and
89 elasticity methods to apportion riverine DIN export to land-use patterns and streamflow
90 regimes using three steps: (1) data processing; (2) model evaluation; and (3) model
91 application (Fig. 2).

92

[Insert Fig. 2 here]

93 2.2.1. Data processing

94 Water samples were collected from 16 sites from March 2017 to February 2019 (Fig. 1).

95The samples were kept at 4°C and amounts of nitrate, nitrite, and ammonium were measured
96using standard methods (SEPAC, 2002; Huang et al., 2018a) within 24 h of collection. To
97minimize the influence of sediments, we filtered the water immediately. To quantify land use
98and streamflow for ungauged sampling sites, we used Landsat-8 images from 2017. Land use
99was classified into six categories: forest, built-up areas, orchards, farmland, bare lands, and
100water. Four land-use categories were selected for model development (Table 1).

101 [Insert Table 1 here]

102 Discharge was simulated for each sampling site using a simplified conception model,
103which was proposed by Jackson-Blake et al. (2017). Streamflow measures were taken for
104each sampling site with doppler flow meters (Greyline MantaRay 71915) in February and July
1052017 to calibrate and validate the model. Meteorological data (i.e., precipitation and
106temperature) were obtained from the China Meteorological Administration
107(<http://data.cma.cn/>) to simulate the discharge of the Shixi Creek in 2017–2019.

108

1092.2.2. Model evaluation

110 Riverine DIN load or yield estimation varies with sampling frequency, estimation
111method, substance characteristics, flow regimes, and watershed characteristics (Ferguson,
1121987; Preston et al., 1989; Shih et al., 2016). Previous studies conclude that many methods
113(e.g., linear interpolation, global mean, and flow weighted) can be used to estimate riverine
114DIN export, with no single method clearly outperforming others (Huang et al., 2012; Shih et
115al., 2016). Both the global mean and flow-weighted methods could be applied with our
116sample size. The global mean method multiplies the average concentration of all samples by
117the total discharge within the period, hence this method does not account for hydrological

118 responses (Huang et al., 2019). The flow-weighted method was therefore selected to estimate
 119 annual riverine DIN export (Eq. 1). This method weighs concentration by discharge, so flux
 120 equals annual discharge volume multiplied by flow-weighted DIN concentrations:

$$121 \quad L = k \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n C_i Q_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n Q_i} \times Q_t \quad (1)$$

122 where L is the river DIN load; C_i is the sample concentrations; Q_i is the discharge at sampling
 123 time; k is the constant unit conversion factor; and Q_t is the total discharge.

124 Empirical models, in contrast to physical models, usually require fewer data points for
 125 calibration (Delkash et al., 2018). For riverine N export, land-use patterns and relative
 126 proportions are important factors. The Pollutant Load Application (PLOAD) model was
 127 developed by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and uses the empirical N yield
 128 of each land-use type to estimate N load at the outlet (US EPA, 2001). However, this model
 129 may not be applicable to different regional settings. Huang et al. (2012) and Shih et al. (2016)
 130 inversed the PLOAD model, where riverine DIN export at the outlet was calculated as the
 131 superimposition of different land uses:

$$132 \quad L_A = \sum_{i=1}^n C_i R F_i \quad (2)$$

133 where L_A is the riverine DIN export normalized by drainage area; F_i is the proportion of land
 134 use in the catchment; R is runoff depth; and C_i is the concentration of DIN export for different
 135 land uses. This model does not account for complex in-stream processes but can be applied
 136 when stream length is short and flow velocity is high (Huang et al., 2012), as was the case in
 137 our mountainous catchment.

138 Both the root mean square error (RMSE) and the normalized objective function (NOF)

139 were used to evaluate model performance by matching the simulation results with field data
140 measured in 2017 (calibration) and 2018 (validation):

$$141 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{obs} - Q_{sim})^2}{n}} \quad (3)$$

$$142 \quad NOF = \frac{RMSE}{Q_{ave}} \quad (4)$$

143 where Q_{obs} , Q_{sim} , Q_{ave} , and n are observed values, simulated values, the average of observed
144 values, and the number of measurements, respectively. Model predictions are acceptable for
145 NOF values from 0.0 to 1.0 (Gikas, 2014). We used Spearman's correlation coefficient (ρ) to
146 characterize relationships between land use and DIN export.

147

148 2.2.3. Model application

149 To identify inter-annual patterns in riverine DIN exports, a moving-window approach
150 was used to account for changing hydrological regimes. The moving-window method requires
151 the specification of a window length and overlap size between sequential windows (Gall et
152 al., 2001; Choi and Beven, 2007). A moving one-year window with a one-month overlap was
153 used to normalize data from March 2017 to February 2019.

154 Elasticity analysis was used to quantify the impacts of streamflow regimes on DIN
155 export coefficients. Based on previous studies (Sankarasubramanian et al., 2001; Jiang et al.,
156 2014; Ervinia et al., 2019), the annual runoff elasticity of riverine DIN export for each land-
157 use pattern was described as:

$$158 \quad E = \frac{C - \bar{C}}{\bar{R} - \bar{C}} \frac{\bar{R}}{\bar{C}} \quad (5)$$

159 where \bar{C} and \bar{R} are the means of the DIN export coefficients and runoff depths, respectively,
160 and C and R are the DIN export coefficients and runoff depths at any given time. The median

161of the value was used to estimate overall elasticity (Jiang et al., 2014). After setting up the
162model, the baseline riverine DIN export for the catchment was estimated using 2017 land use
163with different streamflow regimes. These baseline output values were compared to outputs
164from land-use policy scenarios. We used two land-use policy scenarios: (1) a certain
165proportion of forest is converted to agricultural land, and (2) a certain proportion of forest is
166converted to built-up land. We assumed that the proportions of agricultural sub-classes would
167remain unchanged, with a farmland to orchard ratio of 1:2.5.

168

1693. Results

1703.1 Linkage between land use and DIN export using empirical model

171 The distinct linkage between DIN concentration and land use pattern in this catchment
172show necessity of determination of export coefficient for individual land. Observed DIN
173concentrations were positively correlated with the prevalence of orchards ($\rho = 0.62$; Fig. S1d)
174and negatively correlated with the prevalence of forests ($\rho = -0.63$; Fig. S1a). DIN export
175coefficients for each land use were estimated with Eq. 2. based on 2017 riverine DIN export
176and runoff depth data, with 2018 data used for validation. DIN export coefficients for forests,
177built-up areas, orchards, and farmland were 2.91 mg/L, 3.91 mg/L, 3.7 mg/L, and 9.16 mg/L,
178respectively (Table 2).

179

[Insert Table 2 here]

180 The RMSE and NOF calculated for the calibration period were 399 and 0.15,
181respectively. The RMSE and NOF calculated for the validation period were 600 and 0.44,
182respectively (Table 3).

183

[Insert Table 3 here]

184

The variation in N exports from upstream to downstream in different land-use categories is shown in Fig. S2. N exports in the mainstream decreased under low streamflow conditions and increased under high flow conditions, indicating that DIN export was mainly controlled by hydrological regime. We used the moving-window method to evaluate the annual DIN export coefficients of various land-use patterns (Fig. 3). Farmland DIN export coefficients were higher under all runoff conditions. The DIN export coefficients of forests and orchards changed slightly and shared the same trend under the same conditions. The DIN export coefficients of built-up areas were high during wet years (i.e., with a runoff depth of more than 600 mm) and low during dry years (i.e., with a runoff depth of less than 400 mm).

The DIN export coefficients for forests, built-up areas, and orchards were positively elastic to runoff (Fig. 4). Though the DIN export coefficients of farmland were always high (Fig. 3), the annual runoff elasticity of farmland was low (Fig. 4), with a median value close to zero. The elasticity of built-up areas was the highest among the four land uses.

2013.3 Pollution control scenario analysis

207 [Insert Fig. 5 here]

2094. Discussion

2104.1 DIN export associated with mosaic land-use patterns

211 Relationships between land use and water quality have been proposed in a number of
212 studies, with anthropogenic land use being negatively correlated to water quality and natural
213 land use being positively correlated to water quality (Huang et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2016;
214 Shih et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018). Our study confirmed these previously
215 noted relationships and highlighted the capacity of export coefficient models to reliably
216 evaluate N export in a catchment (Huang et al., 2012; Shih et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2018). The
217 distinct linkage between DIN concentration and land use pattern in this catchment show
218 necessity of determination of export coefficient for individual land (Fig. S1a). Agricultural
219 activities, which are often associated with fertilizer application, are regarded as the major non-
220 point source of riverine N exports, coupled with reductions in riparian and wetland areas
221 (Huang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019a). We observed the highest DIN export coefficients for
222 agricultural land use (e.g., farmland: 9.16 mg/L), indicating that riverine DIN export from
223 farmland (1,951 kg km⁻² yr⁻¹, derived from an annual discharge of 213 mm) accounted for
224 about half of the riverine DIN export in the catchment. To put this number in context, the
225 highest recorded riverine N exports from farmlands ranged from 400 to 3,265 kg km⁻² yr⁻¹
226 globally (Shields, 2008; Shih et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2018).

227 Although orchards are also a type of agricultural land use, their riverine DIN export
228 coefficients were low compared to farmland and showed similar trends to those for forests
229 (Fig. 3). Leaching and runoff are two major N export routes in catchments which may be
230 controlled by the different land cover (Billy et al., 2013; de Girolamo et al., 2019). Indeed,
231 although fertilizer was applied intensively to farmlands and orchards, trees grown in orchards

232 tended to better retain N in the soil under the same hydrological regime (Fig. 3).

233 The lowest riverine DIN export was found for forests ($619 \text{ kg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), though forests
234 can remove or retain N efficiently (Fig. S1). The similar observations were conducted across
235 China with annual deposition values of DIN as high as $1,318\text{--}1,521 \text{ kg km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Zhu et al.,
236 2015; Zhang et al., 2018) and the natural processes in N cycle in wet subtropical
237 environments (Shih et al., 2016).

238 4.2 Interactive impact from land use and hydrologic regime on riverine DIN export

239 It is difficult to evaluate the impacts of land use on riverine DIN export alone, since the
240 coupled impacts of climate and associated hydrological variables should be considered,
241 especially for long-term evaluations (Huang et al., 2013b; Zhou et al., 2017; Huang et al.,
242 2018a; Ervinia et al., 2019). Hydrological regime is a holistic driver regulating material and
243 energy flows in a catchment (Billy et al., 2013; de Girolamo et al., 2019), and storm events
244 play an important role in N export. Increased discharge can drive N surplus in the soil, thus,
245 an increase in N export is usually observed in wet years, especially during storm events
246 (Kaushal et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2018).

247 The DIN export coefficient of built-up areas was linked to streamflow regime (Fig. 3),
248 indicating it is necessary to evaluate coefficients under changing streamflow regimes.
249 Compared with dry years, increased runoff in wet years can drive more DIN to the watershed
250 (Fig. 5). Biogeochemical transformation may also decrease with increased runoff (Gallo et al.,
251 2015; Greaver et al., 2016). Decreased N export can be observed mainstream in the Shixi
252 catchment under the low flow condition. This trend was less visible under the high flow
253 condition (Fig. S2). The major components of riverine DIN found in this study were ammonia
254 nitrogen and nitrate nitrogen. The decreasing trend in ammonia nitrogen was more significant

255than that of nitrate nitrogen, since ammonia uptake is more preferential than nitrate. Thus,
256ammonia nitrogen's fraction of DIN declines from the upstream to the downstream area.
257Nitrate nitrogen could accumulate in the catchment to promote greater microbial ammonia
258oxidation, as the ammonia oxidation rate is higher than the nitrite oxidation rate (Hong et al.,
2592018). Compared with the effect from biogeochemical transformation, land use was the major
260factor driving N export during storm events through changing headwater variability and
261hydrological connectivity (Kaushal et al., 2014).

262 It has been suggested that external ammonia nitrogen could be exported in a catchment
263when a river passes through an urban area as a result of sewage discharge (Simsek et al.,
2642012). The mainstream of the Shixi catchment also passes through an urban area, but elevated
265ammonia nitrogen was only observed in sites with high flow conditions (Fig. S2). In addition
266to sewage discharge, N from impervious surfaces in the urban area could be a source of N.
267Large amounts of N could be stored in impervious surfaces during the dry season or under
268low flow condition and be flushed out during the wet season or under high flow conditions
269(Kaushal et al., 2008; Kaushal et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2019). Our elasticity analysis
270revealed that DIN export coefficients from urban areas were high during wet years and low
271during dry years (Fig. 3).

272 Human-impacted areas tend to be more sensitive to inter-annual variability (including
273climate variability) than natural land-use types (Jiang et al., 2014; Ervinia et al., 2019).
274Riverine DIN exports for built-up areas and farmland were more sensitive to streamflow than
275those for forests. However, riverine DIN export found in orchards was less sensitive to
276streamflow change than that of forests (Fig. 4). The slope of catchment could be a critical
277factor inducing this phenomenon as poor water quality was observed in the high slope area (Li

278et al., 2019b).

2794.3 Implications for watershed management

280 Our results can shed light on how to improve riverine N management in a catchment by
281considering the interactive effects of climate and land use. Our results can also be used to
282illustrate the evolution of biogeochemical cycles in response to changes in land use,
283management, and policy (Kaushal et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2018). Higher levels of riverine
284DIN exports were observed with increased runoff. Such amplification is proportional to
285anthropogenic N inputs associated with fertilizer applications and point-source pollution and
286should be emphasized for nitrogen reduction strategies during wet years. Built-up land was
287also a predominant factor in riverine DIN load (Shih et al., 2016). Built-up land can change
288the apportionment of inter-annual N export, which was negatively related to riverine DIN
289export during dry years and positively related to riverine DIN exports during wet years. In
290other words, changes in built-up area have the capacity to influence patterns of riverine DIN
291exports in this catchment.

292

293**5. Conclusion**

294 This study proposed a framework to assess riverine DIN exports associated with
295changing land-use patterns and hydrological regimes. The proportion of human-impacted land
296use was negatively related to water quality. Though the DIN export coefficient of farmland
297was the highest among the four types of land use investigated, urbanization contributed to
298high runoff elasticity and high uncertainty. However, urbanized areas can rarely be converted
299to other uses, hence more attention may be paid to agricultural land management. The
300framework devised in this study can be used as an effective tool for water management.

301

302Declaration of Competing Interest

303 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
304relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

305

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