



Sources and transformations of nitrate constrained by nitrate isotopes and Bayesian model in karst surface water, Guilin, Southwest China

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Abstract

Surface water suffering from nitrate (NO_3^-) contamination in karst area is not only harmful to human health as drinking water but can also affect the process of carbonate rock weathering, so it is crucial to trace the sources and transformations of NO_3^- in karst surface water. In this study, an investigation of water chemical data and NO_3^- isotopes ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) was used to elucidate the transformations of NO_3^- and quantify a proportional apportionment of NO_3^- sources of individual potential sources (incl. soil organic nitrogen (SON), atmospheric precipitation (AP), manure and sewage wastes (M&S), and chemical fertilizer (CF)) in the Lijiang River (typical karst surface water), Guilin, Southwest China. $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values of water samples from the Lijiang River range from 2.14 to 13.50‰ (mean, 6.59‰) and from -2.44 to 6.97‰ (mean, 3.76‰), respectively. A positive correlation between Cl^- and NO_3^- but no correlations between NO_3^- and $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ or $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ are found and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values fitted the theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values produced from nitrification, suggesting that the genesis of NO_3^- in waters of the Lijiang River is affected by nitrification processes and the mixing process has a major effect on NO_3^- transportation. Results of the Bayesian stable isotope mixing model show that the M&S and SON are the main NO_3^- source through the whole year (accounting for ~61% and 65% of the total NO_3^- in the wet and dry season, respectively), followed by CF (~29%). Furthermore, we find that nitrification of nitrogen in fertilizers, soil, and manure and sewage can promote the carbonate rock weathering. The estimated contribution of such nitrification to the weathering of carbonate rocks accounts for about 11% of the total carbonate rock weathering flux (calculated by HCO_3^-) in the Lijiang River. This finding indicates that the weathering of carbonate rock is probably affected by nitrogen nitrification processes in karst catchment.

Keywords NO_3^- isotopes · Bayesian isotope mixing model · Nitrification · Carbonate rock weathering · Lijiang River · Karst surface water

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Introduction

About 15% of the continent is karst areas and in many regions, the karst aquifers provide the only available groundwater for drinking water (Ford and Williams 2007). However, karst aquifers are particularly vulnerable to anthropogenic contamination, because of the development of conduit networks and sinkholes by which quickly respond to the contaminants from the surface can easily enter into the aquifer, especially during the rainfall events and in areas with concentrated anthropogenic inputs (Jiang 2013; Yue et al. 2015). Extensive anthropogenic activities, such as intensive agricultural activities, excessive application of chemical fertilizers and manure (Pastén-Zapata et al. 2014; Matiatos 2016), have made the transportation of N to rivers and streams increased from 34 Tg N year⁻¹ to 64 Tg N year⁻¹ over the twentieth century (Van Beek et al.

2016). Nitrate (NO_3^-) is a main form of N in natural environments and high concentration of NO_3^- in water is harmful to human health and aquatic life (Comly 1945; Lee et al. 2008; Bu et al. 2017). Many studies reported that it can lead to methemoglobinemia for infants and liver cancer, gastric cancer, and hypertension for adults to drink water with high NO_3^- concentration for long time (Dalton 1995). Moreover, some studies have shown that nitrogen cycling is closely coupled with carbonate rock weathering in karst areas (Raymond et al. 2008; Perrin et al. 2008; Barnes and Raymond 2009; Gandois et al. 2011). Hence, it is important to trace the sources and transformations of NO_3^- in the surface water in order to provide insights into the water quality protection and better understand the influence nitrogen cycling on the process of carbonate rock weathering.

Since different NO_3^- sources such as soil organic nitrogen (SON), atmospheric precipitation (AP), manure and sewage wastes (M&S), and chemical fertilizer (CF) have distinct isotope ratios of nitrogen ($^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$) and oxygen ($^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$), a dual isotope approach ($\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$) has been used broadly to provide information on the origins and transformations of NO_3^- in a hydrosphere (Liu et al. 2006; Xue et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2018). Commonly, the typical $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values of chemical fertilizer fall in the range of -6 – 6‰ and 0 – 8‰ for soil organic nitrogen, and 4 – 25‰ for manure and sewage wastes (Kendall et al. 2008; Xue et al. 2009). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values of NO_3^- from nitrification of mineralized soil organic nitrogen, NH_4^+ in fertilizer and rain, and sewage and manure range from -10 to 10‰ (Xue et al. 2009; Kelley et al. 2013; Qin et al. 2019), while $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values of synthetic nitrate fertilizer vary between 17 and 25‰ (Kendall et al. 2008). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ signatures of NO_3^- from atmospheric precipitation range from -13 to 13‰ and from 25 to 75‰ , respectively (Xue et al. 2009; Saccon et al. 2013). Numerous biogeochemical processes that occur in soils and aquatic environments can result in variable N and O isotope fractionation and these fractionations are complex. Main processes that shift NO_3^- isotopic signatures include assimilation during photosynthesis, nitrification processes of nitrogen from soil, manure and sewage wastes, and ammonium fertilizer, and microbial denitrification in anaerobic environments (Kendall et al. 2008; Soto et al. 2019).

The dual isotopic mixing model based on mass balance theory has been widely used to estimate the contributions of individual NO_3^- sources (Deutsch et al. 2006; Kaown et al. 2009; Li and Ji 2016). However, this mixing model does not take into account of several factors with substantial uncertainty, including (1) temporal and spatial variability in $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$; (2) fractionation caused by denitrification; (3) many NO_3^- sources contributing to the mixture (number of sources > number of isotope + 1) (Moore and Semmens 2008; Xue et al. 2009). A Bayesian stable isotope mixing model has been applied successfully to quantify the

contributions of different NO_3^- sources in surface water, ground water, and the atmospheric precipitation with the uncertainties mentioned above (Xue et al. 2012; Lu et al. 2015; Zong et al. 2017; Ogrinc et al. 2019). Hydrochemistry and other isotopes (e.g., NO_3^- , Cl^- , $^{18}\text{O}\text{-H}_2\text{O}$) can also provide important information to distinguish NO_3^- sources and the N cycling processes.

Lijiang River is the upper reaches of the Guijiang River, one of tributaries of the Pearl River, it is a typical carbonate basin, and has a wide distribution of typical peak forest and peak cluster landforms. The Lijiang River provides 81.6% of the drinking water for the people of Guilin city. Previous studies showed that NO_3^- was the main species of dissolved inorganic nitrogen in the Lijiang River (Shen et al. 2015). The drinking water treatment plants are very sensitive to changes of the source water quality (Ghodeif et al. 2017). However, few studies on the sources and fate of NO_3^- have been conducted in the Lijiang River. In this study, hydrochemistry, $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$, and other isotopes were measured in the water of Lijiang River, in order to (1) identify the main sources of NO_3^- and its transformation in the water of Lijiang River; (2) quantify a proportional apportionment of individual NO_3^- sources by using a Bayesian isotopic mixing model; (3) analyze the influence of nitrogen cycling on the process of carbonate rock weathering of surface water in karst areas.

Material and methods

Study area

The Lijiang River is located in the southwest China and it is one of tributaries of the Pearl River. Length and drainage area of the Lijiang River are 164 km and 5039.7 km², respectively. It originates from Maoershan Mountain in the northwest of Xing'an County, Guangxi, China, and flows through Xing'an County, Guilin city, and Yangshuo County (Fig. 1). The region of Lijiang River watershed is located in a mid-subtropical monsoon climate zone, with hot and rainy summers, and cold and dry winters. The annual average air temperature is about 19 °C and annual average rainfall is about 2000 mm. The rainfall in the Lijiang River is concentrated from March to August, accounting for 70 to 80% of the year, so this period is divided into the wet season, and the rest of the time is the dry season. The landscape of the whole basin consists of 76% forestland, 14% cropland, 6% urbanland, 3% gardenland, and 1% water (Lin and Chen 2016). The land use pattern showed great variations from the upper reach to the lower reach. Geologically, the mid-upper parts of the catchment are Silurian granites, Ordovician–Cambrian shales, and mud rocks intercalated with carbonate rocks. In contrast, the mid-lower part is dominated by Devonian carbonate rocks, so has a wide distribution of peak forest and peak cluster karst

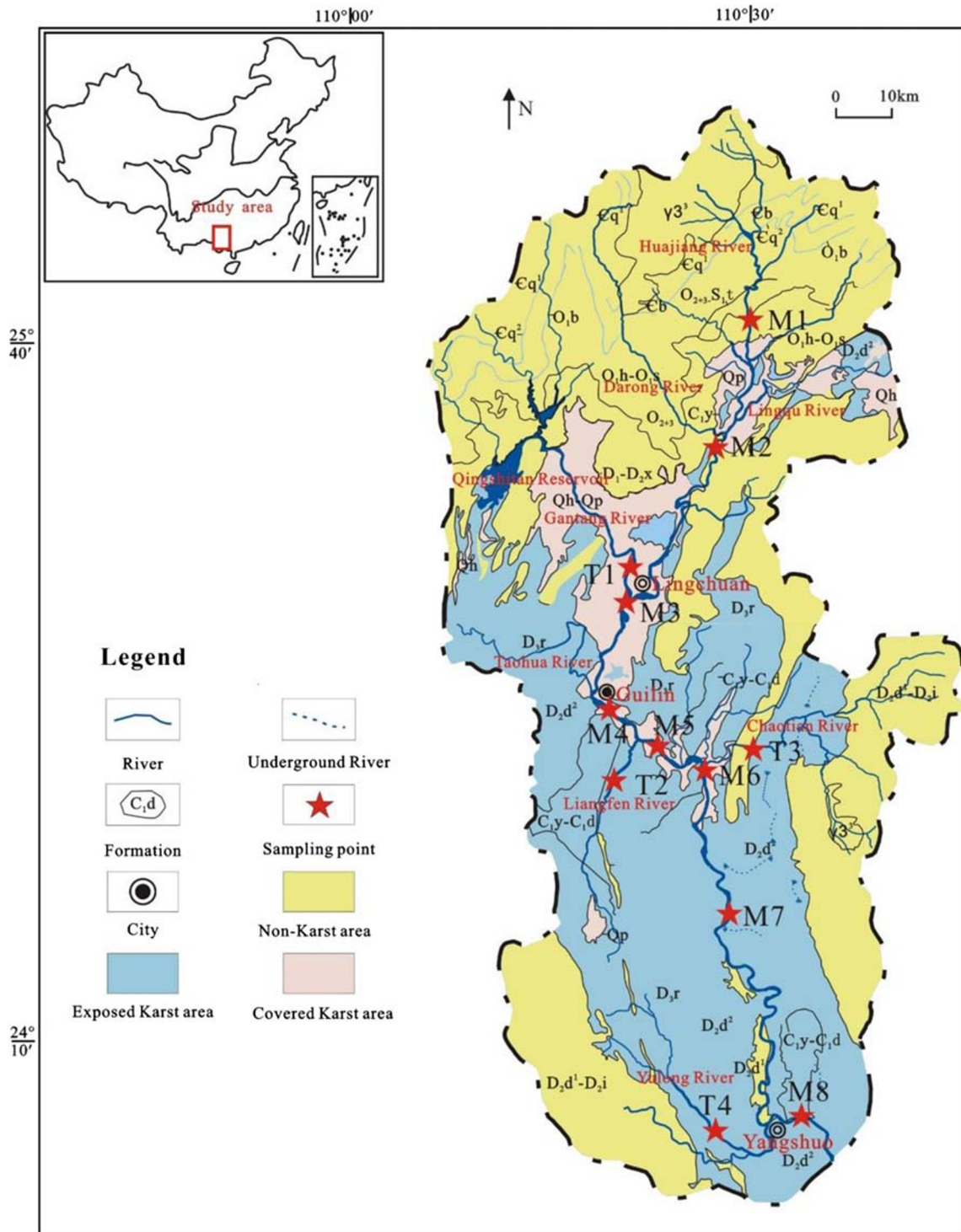


Fig. 1 Hydrogeological map of the study area showing the locations of sampling sites

landforms (Zhang et al. 2017). Agriculture is one of the pillar industries of Guilin city. More than 80% of Lijiang River Basin is agricultural area. Annual amount of N fertilizer application was approximately $7.03 \times 10^5 \text{ kg year}^{-1}$ between 2016 and 2017 in the Guilin city (NBSC 1980–2018), and the main application of N fertilizer was urea, compound fertilizer, and ammonium bicarbonate (He 2013). At the same

time, there is a lot of animal husbandry in rural areas of Guilin city, but there is no centralized treatment for scattered animal manure. Guilin city is also a famous tourist city. The Lijiang River is a world famous tourist attraction. According to statistics of Guilin Statistics Bureau, Guilin city received about 136.19 million tourists from all over the world between 2016 and 2017 (tjj.guilin.gov.cn/).

Sampling and analytical technique

Hydrochemistry

Eight sampling sites (including M1–M3 in the upper reach of Lijiang River, M4–M6 in the middle reach, M7 and M8 in the lower reach) along the mainstream of the Lijiang River and sites T1–T4 of four main tributaries near which they merge with the mainstream were chosen for water sample collection in this study (see the sampling locations in Fig. 1). Samples were collected monthly from July 2016 to June 2017. In the field, hydrochemical parameters including pH, water temperature (T), dissolved oxygen (DO), and electrical conductivity (EC) were measured by a multi-parameter water quality analyzer (YSI6920, USA) with precisions of 0.01 pH units, 0.01 °C, 0.01 mg L⁻¹, and 1 μS cm⁻¹, respectively. Water samples for the analyses of anions and cations were filtered through pre-combustion (450 °C, 12 h) glass fiber filters (Whatman, GF/F, 47 mm in diameter) and collected in pre-rinsed high-density polyethylene (HDPE) bottles (1 L). Samples for cation analysis were acidified to pH < 2 with HNO₃. The concentration of HCO₃⁻ was determined via HCl titration method with a Titrette Digital Titrator kit (Brand Trading Co., Ltd., Wertheim, Germany). The concentrations of anion NO₃⁻ and Cl⁻ were determined by ionic chromatography (ICS-900 Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). The concentrations of cation Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ were determined by ICP-OES (2100DV Perkin Elmer Inc., USA). Reported analytical uncertainties were within ± 5%. Data of monthly average discharge of the Lijiang River at site M8 were obtained from the Guilin Bureau of Hydrology and Water Resources (swszyj.gxzf.gov.cn/).

Isotopes

δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻, δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻, and ¹⁸O-H₂O values of water samples were determined. The ¹⁸O-H₂O values were determined with a liquid water stable isotope analyzer (LWIA-24-d, Los Gatos Research, USA). The analytical precision for δ¹⁸O-H₂O was ± 0.2‰. The δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ and δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻ were determined by a chemical conversion method. First, NO₃⁻ was reduced to NO₂⁻ by adding 0.8 mL of 20 g L⁻¹ CdCl₂ solution, 0.8 mL of 250 g L⁻¹ NH₄Cl solution, and clean zinc sheet to 40 mL water sample in headspace vials and then oscillating the headspace vials at 220 R min⁻¹ on a shaker for 15 min. Second, NO₂⁻ reduced to N₂O with NaN₃ in an acetic acid buffer. Finally, N₂O was separated, purified using a Trace Gas Pre-concentrator unit (Isoprime Ltd., Cheadle Hulme, Cheadle, UK) after the injection of 0.1–0.2 mL of 10 mol L⁻¹ NaOH solution to remove CO₂ gas and inhibit microbial activity (Casciotti et al. 2002). δ¹⁵N and δ¹⁸O of N₂O were measured using elemental analyzer interfaced with a MAT 253 isotope ratio mass spectrometry (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, USA) at the State Oceanic Administration Third Institute of Oceanography, Xiamen, China. The international (USGS-32, USGS-34, USGS-35 and IAEA-N3) standards were used to calibrate the δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ and δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻ values of samples (Casciotti et al. 2002). The analytical precision for δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ and δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻ was ± 0.2‰ and ± 0.3‰, respectively. δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ was reported relative to N₂ in the atmosphere. Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) is standard for δ¹⁸O-H₂O and δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻.

Estimation of the contributions of individual nitrate sources

The contribution of potential NO₃⁻ sources to NO₃⁻ in surface water can be quantified by a Bayesian mixing model (Parnell et al. 2010, 2013). The mixing model has been implemented using a “SIAR” (Stable Isotope Analysis in R) software package and has been successfully used to estimate the contributions of multiple NO₃⁻ source (Ding et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2018b; Zhang et al. 2018).

$$X_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^k P_k (S_{jk} + C_{jk}) + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

$$S_{jk} \sim N(\mu_{jk}, \omega_{jk}^2)$$

$$C_{jk} \sim N(\lambda_{jk}, \tau_{jk}^2)$$

$$\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_j^2)$$
(1)

In Eq. (1), X_{ij} is the isotope value j of the water sample i ; S_{jk} is the source value k of isotope j ($k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, K$) and is normally distributed with mean μ_{jk} and standard deviation (SD) ω_{jk} ; P_k is the proportion of source k , which needs to be estimated using the SIAR model; C_{jk} is the fractionation factor for isotope j on source k and is normally distributed with mean λ_{jk} and SD τ_{jk} ; and ε_{ij} is the residual error representing additional unquantified variation between individual mixtures and is normally distributed with mean 0 and SD σ_j . A detailed description of this model can be found in Parnell et al. 2010.

To estimate the contributions of NO₃⁻ sources in the Lijiang River, δ¹⁵N-NO₃⁻ and δ¹⁸O-NO₃⁻ ($j = 2$) and four potential sources (SON, AP, M&S, and CF) were applied as specific isotope values in this study. These potential source values were obtained from previously published literature (Table 1). C_{jk} was set as zero based on the discussion in the “Seasonal and spatial changes of nitrate isotopic compositions of water samples from the Lijiang River” section. The Shapiro-Wilk test was used to examine the normality of the potential source values.

Calculations

The annual NO₃⁻ flux (F_{NO_3}) was estimated using the monthly NO₃⁻ concentration (C_m) and monthly average

Table 1 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of various NO_3^- sources

Sources	<i>n</i>	$\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ (‰)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ (‰)	Literatures
SON	6	5.7 ± 2	1.24 ± 3.13	(Liu et al. 2006; Lu et al. 2015)
AP	8	3.1 ± 1.5	56.7 ± 17.8	(Ding et al. 2014; Li et al. 2018)
M&S	16	14.3 ± 1.9	6.7 ± 2.5	(Xian et al. 2016)
CF	6	-1.12 ± 1.41	-5.7 ± 1.7	(Liu et al. 2006; Li et al. 2018)

discharge (Q_m) at the mouth of the Lijiang River as follows:

$$F_{\text{NO}_3} = \sum_m C_m \times Q_m \tag{2}$$

where the annual NO_3^- flux (F_{NO_3}) is the sum of monthly flux of NO_3^- during one hydrological year; Q_m represents the monthly average discharge at the river mouth (Table 2), in which $m = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 12$; C_m denotes the monthly NO_3^- concentration at the river mouth.

Theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ from nitrification. When nitrification occurs, the theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ can be calculated using the following equation (Boshers et al. 2019)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Theoretical } \delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^- &= \left(\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{3} X_{\text{NO}_2,\text{T}}\right) \delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-H}_2\text{O} \\ &+ \frac{1}{3} [(\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2} - \epsilon_{\text{k},\text{O}_2} - \epsilon_{\text{k},\text{H}_2\text{O},1}) (1 - X_{\text{NO}_2,\text{T}}) - \epsilon_{\text{k},\text{H}_2\text{O},2}] \\ &+ \frac{2}{3} (X_{\text{NO}_2,\text{T}} \epsilon_{\text{eq}}) \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

where theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ is the theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ value of NO_3^- when nitrification occurs, $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ is the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value in the water and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{O}_2}$ is the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of atmospheric O_2 , $\epsilon_{\text{k},\text{O}_2}$ is the kinetic isotope effect for O_2 incorporation, $\epsilon_{\text{k},\text{H}_2\text{O},1}$ is the kinetic isotope effect for H_2O incorporation during nitrite (NO_2^-) production, $\epsilon_{\text{k},\text{H}_2\text{O},2}$ is the kinetic isotope effect associated with O atom incorporation from water into NO_2^- during oxidation to NO_3^- , ϵ_{eq} is equilibrium isotope fractionation factor between NO_2^- and H_2O ,

and $X_{\text{NO}_2,\text{T}}$ is the fraction of NO_2^- O atoms that have exchanged with H_2O during NO_2^- production. According to the research of Boshers et al. (2019), the values of $\epsilon_{\text{k},\text{O}_2} + \epsilon_{\text{k},\text{H}_2\text{O},1}$, $\epsilon_{\text{k},\text{H}_2\text{O},2}$, ϵ_{eq} , and $X_{\text{NO}_2,\text{T}}$ are 27.3‰, 13.5‰, 13‰, and 78%, respectively.

Results

Seasonal and spatial variations of water chemistry in the Lijiang River

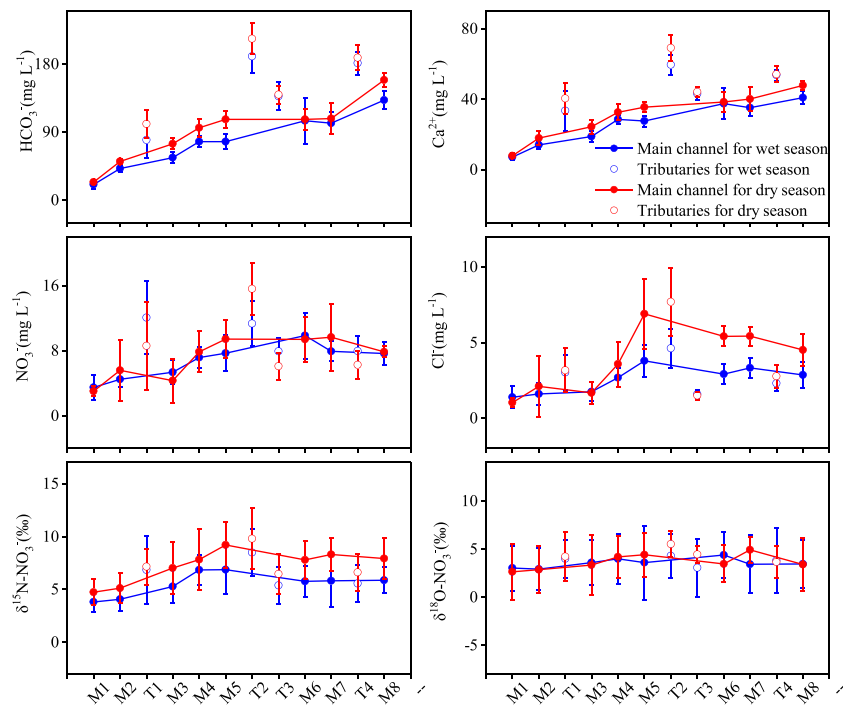
The data of physical, chemical, and isotopic values for water samples from the Lijiang River are listed in Table S1. Results show that water temperature at all sampling sites ranged from 10.48 to 33.90 °C and had a seasonal variation with high values in the wet season (mean, 22.70 °C) and low values in the dry season (mean, 17.11 °C). The river water was neutral to alkaline (pH, 6.94–9.15) and the mean pH value was 7.60 in the wet season and 7.96 in the dry season. The DO ranged from 5.93 to 15.86 mg L^{-1} with an average of 9.57 mg L^{-1} , and there were no significant seasonal and spatial difference in the DO values. The EC values varied from 31.23 to 450.80 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ and had a seasonal variation with low values in the wet season (188.40 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$) and high values in the dry season (219.03 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$). The EC values increased from the upper reach to the lower reach.

The hydrochemical type of river water is of $\text{HCO}_3\text{-Ca}$ type, and HCO_3^- and Ca^{2+} are main ions. The HCO_3^- and Ca^{2+} concentrations ranged from 12.20 to 231.80 mg L^{-1} and from 5.49 to 77.94 mg L^{-1} , with an average of 106.83 mg L^{-1} and 35.75 mg L^{-1} , respectively. The HCO_3^- and Ca^{2+} concentrations were higher in the dry season than that in the wet season, and both increased from the upper reach to the lower reach (Fig. 2). The spatial variation in HCO_3^- and Ca^{2+} concentrations along the mainstream was lower than those of the

Table 2 Monthly average discharge data at the Lijiang River mouth

Time	2016-07	2016-08	2016-09	2016-10	2016-11	2016-12	2017-01	2017-02	2017-03	2017-04	2017-05	2017-06
Discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$)	267	163	90.8	55.2	56.6	51.2	58.1	59.7	214	228	283	556

Fig. 2 Spatio-temporal variations of main ions, $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ (mean \pm SD) values of water samples from the main stream and tributaries of the Lijiang River



tributaries in the upper reach of Lijiang River. A wide range of NO_3^- concentrations were observed in the Lijiang River, the NO_3^- concentrations varied from 0.39 to 19.42 mg L^{-1} with an average of 7.73 mg L^{-1} in the wet season and 7.80 mg L^{-1} in the dry season. There were significant spatial variations for the NO_3^- concentrations along the mainstream of Lijiang River which increased from the upper reach to the lower reach. High NO_3^- concentrations were observed in the tributary water samples T1 and T2. However, no significant difference in NO_3^- concentrations was found between both wet and dry seasons, and the mean values of NO_3^- showed relatively high standard deviations in the dry season, especially at sites M2, M7, T1, and T2. Concentrations of Cl^- at all sampling sites ranged from 0.27 to 11.08 mg L^{-1} , with low values in the wet season (mean, 2.64 mg L^{-1}) and high values in the dry season (mean, 3.81 mg L^{-1}). The mean values of Cl^- showed relatively high standard deviations in the dry season, especially at sites M2, M5, and T1. Spatially, the mean Cl^- concentration increased from the upper reach to the lower reach, and high Cl^- concentration was observed in T2 (Fig. 2).

Seasonal and spatial changes of nitrate isotopic compositions of water samples from the Lijiang River

The $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ values ranged from 2.14 to 13.50‰ with a mean value of 6.59‰. The mean values of $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ showed a seasonal variation with low values in the wet season (5.87 ± 1.12 ‰) and high values in the dry season (7.72 ± 2.35 ‰). The mean values of $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ were higher in the

middle reach than in the upper reach and the lower reach in both dry and wet seasons (Fig. 2).

The $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values was between -2.44 and 6.97‰ with an average of 3.61‰ in the wet season and between -1.21 and 6.87‰ with an average of 3.93‰ in the dry season. The seasonal variation of the mean values of $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ was not significant. There was little spatial variation in both wet and dry seasons.

Discussion

NO_3^- sources identified by isotopes and hydrochemistry

NO_3^- in surface water could be derived from SON, M&S, CF, and AP. The dual isotope approach is used to trace the NO_3^- sources as different NO_3^- sources and different isotopic compositions. Figure 3 shows the $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values of water samples from the Lijiang River and typical isotopic ranges for different sources. As indicated in Fig. 3, almost all of $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values fall within the ranges of CF, SON and M&S source category, suggesting that the CF, SON, and M&S are the main sources of NO_3^- in the Lijiang River.

Chloride is a good indicator of manure and sewage input and rainwater dilution because it is inert to physical, chemical, and microbiological processes (Liu et al. 2006). The ratio of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ can provide more information to distinguish the effect of dilution from denitrification on N removal processes

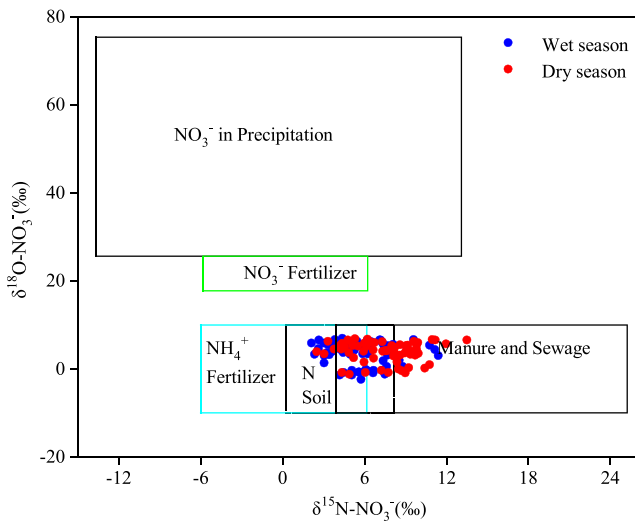


Fig. 3 Cross-plot of $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values of water samples from the Lijiang River. The typical NO_3^- end members are adapted from (Kendall et al. 2008; Xue et al. 2009; Pernet-Coudrier et al. 2012)

(Liu et al. 2006, 2018a; Lu et al. 2015). The influence of evaporite weathering on Cl^- concentrations should be considered before using $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratios to identify NO_3^- sources since evaporate, like halite, could contribute to Cl^- in river water (Li et al. 2018). However, the evaporites are not found in the Lijiang watershed (Yuan 2016). In the investigated water samples, positive correlations between Cl^- and NO_3^- were observed in the wet season ($R^2 = 0.44$) and in the dry season ($R^2 = 0.64$), indicating that the mixing process has occurred during the NO_3^- transportation in the Lijiang River (Fig. 4a). Different NO_3^- sources have varied levels of $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratios, and the source of chemical fertilizers is characterized by high $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratios and low concentrations of Cl^- , while municipal sewage has a significantly high Cl^- concentration and low $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratio (Widory et al. 2005). Figure 4 b shows the variation of the $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ molar ratios relative to Cl^- concentrations that varied widely from 0.86 to 3.11 with an average of 1.82 in the wet season and from 0.52 to 2.78 with an

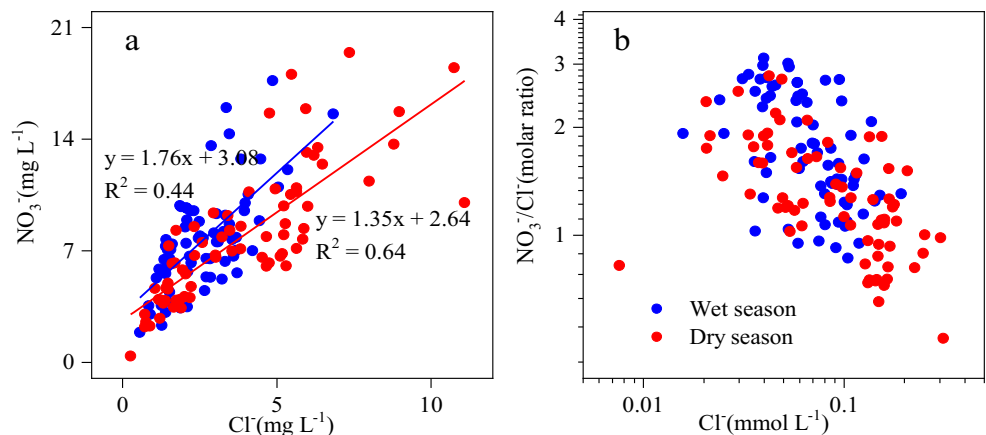
average of 1.36 in the dry season, which suggests a mixture of multiple sources of NO_3^- , including chemical fertilizers, soil nitrogen, municipal sewage, and animal waste. The $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ molar ratios for most samples in the wet season had higher values than those in the dry season, suggesting that some potential NO_3^- input into the surface water might have been ascribed to precipitation, fertilizer application, and nitrification of soil nitrogen in the wet season. It has been reported that municipal sewage has a significantly high Cl^- concentration but very low $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratio (Liu et al. 2006), indicating that NO_3^- from municipal sewage in the dry season was higher than that in the wet season in this study.

Transformations of NO_3^- in the Lijiang River

The isotopic compositions of NO_3^- are governed by isotope fractionation during physical and biogeochemical processes, such as assimilation, nitrification, and denitrification; thus, the NO_3^- derived from various potential sources has distinct isotopic values (Kendall et al. 2008). For an instance, the nitrification process results in depleted $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ values; however, the denitrification and NO_3^- assimilation by phytoplankton lead to an increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ values because lighter isotopes ^{14}N and ^{16}O are preferentially metabolized by microorganisms or phytoplankton (Sigman et al. 2005, 2008; Chen et al. 2019).

No correlations between NO_3^- and $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ or $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ of water samples from Lijiang River were discovered, suggesting that there were multiple biogeochemical processes affecting the distribution of NO_3^- in the river. During the nitrification process, ammonium is oxidized to NO_3^- by nitrifying bacteria ($2\text{NH}_4^+ + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{NO}_2^- + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 4\text{H}^+$; $2\text{NO}_2^- + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{NO}_3^-$) (Andersson and Hooper 1983). According to the research of Boshers et al. (2019), the theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ can be calculated by the Eq. 3 during the nitrification process, a linear formulation of the theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ versus $\delta^{18}\text{O-H}_2\text{O}$. The $\delta^{18}\text{O-H}_2\text{O}$ values of water samples from the Lijiang River ranged from -7.21 to $-$

Fig. 4 a Relationship between Cl^- and NO_3^- concentrations, and b relationship between Cl^- mmolar concentration and $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ molar ratio of water samples from the Lijiang River



3.53‰, and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value of atmospheric O_2 is 23.9‰ (Barkan and Luz 2005). Hence, the theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values produced from nitrification would have a range from 0.08 to 3.47‰. As shown in Fig. 5, most of $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values were higher than the theoretical $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ range, which may be related to several factors, such as the variable ratio of oxygen from the air and water, oxygen isotope fractionation, and different biological processes (Mayer et al. 2001). Kendall et al. (2008) found that the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of O_2 produced by the bacterial respiration and the evaporated H_2O in soil can result in high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in NO_3^- . Some $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values were lower than theoretical values in the rainy season (Fig. 5), which possibly suggests that more O in NO_3^- are from unevaporated H_2O in soil into NO_3^- in the nitrification process. Moreover, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ values of water samples from the Lijiang River were in the range of -10 to $+10$ ‰, and such $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ signatures reflect the influence by nitrification (Kendall et al. 2008). It could thus be concluded that the NO_3^- of water samples from the Lijiang River is dominantly affected by nitrification process.

Denitrification is an important process mechanism for the reduction of NO_3^- via the transformation of NO_3^- to N_2O or nitrogen gas (N_2) under anoxic conditions, where dissolved oxygen concentrations are less than 2 mg L^{-1} (Rivett et al. 2008), resulting in the enrichment of isotopic values for the remaining NO_3^- (Xue et al. 2009). A linear relationship between $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ relative to $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ with the slopes of 0.48–0.76 is observed by an indicative of denitrification (Fukada et al. 2003; Xue et al. 2009). In this study, the slopes of $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ relative to $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ for the Lijiang River were -0.41 and 0.17 in the wet season and dry season, respectively, both which are out of range of 0.48–0.76 that are associated with denitrification. Furthermore, the DO concentrations are $5.93\text{--}15.86 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ during the period of study, also indicating that the denitrification effects are not significant in

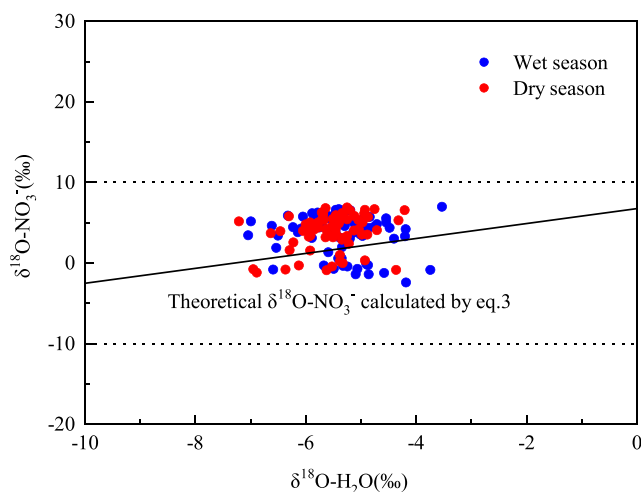


Fig. 5 Relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ of water samples from the Lijiang River

the Lijiang River. Assimilation of NO_3^- during the photosynthetic process can cause a large shift in the 1:1 relationship between the $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$. As mentioned above, the slopes of $\delta^{15}\text{N}\text{-NO}_3^-$ relative to $\delta^{18}\text{O}\text{-NO}_3^-$ were not around 1, but DO concentration is high, which suggests that assimilation maybe not significant but more obvious than denitrification in the Lijiang River.

Contributions of individual NO_3^- sources estimated using SIAR

The ranges of the contributions of each NO_3^- source calculated using the SIAR model are shown in Fig. 6, and all of these four potential NO_3^- sources showed seasonal and spatial variations in the Lijiang River. During the wet season, the four potential NO_3^- sources including CF, SON, M&S, and AP contributed 31.63%, 32.45%, 28.46%, and 7.46%, respectively. During the dry season, M&S was the dominant NO_3^- source with a contribution of 36.45%, followed by SON (mean, 28.89%), CF (mean, 26.46%), and AP (mean, 8.20%). Overall, CF, M&S, and SON are the main NO_3^- sources in waters of the Lijiang River, and this finding is consistent with the results qualitatively determined via the dual isotopic method.

There are significant spatio-temporal variations in the contribution of SON. Compared with that in the dry season, SON inputs increased by around 4% in the wet season, which might be attributed to more flushing of SON from hill slopes to rivers under the intense rainfall conditions (Li et al. 2018). The SON contribution increased by around 3% from upstream to downstream in the wet season, which maybe relate to the extent of soil erosion. The soil erosion in the Lijiang River Basin has obvious differences between karst area and non-karst area. The soil erosion in the karst area is moderate and extremely strong, which accounts for 53% of the entire karst

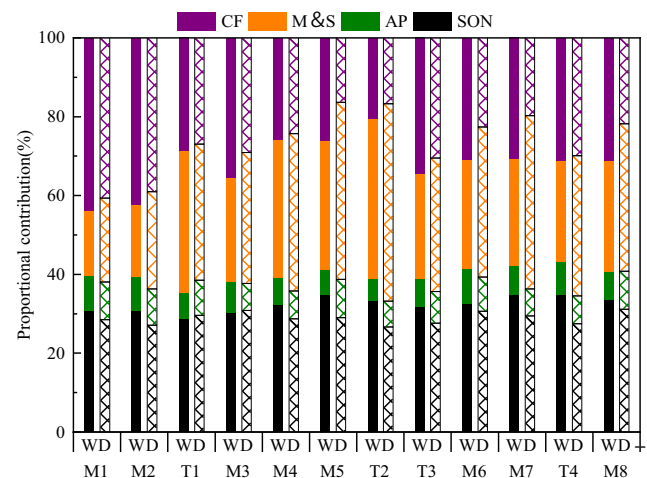


Fig. 6 Seasonal and spatial variation of proportional contributions (mean probability estimate) of NO_3^- sources in the Lijiang River estimated by SIAR. W represents the wet season, D represents the dry season

area, while moderate and medium soil erosion area in the non-karst area accounts for 12.4% and 10.4% of the total non-karst area, respectively (Qin et al. 2018). The upper reach is non-karst area, while the mid-lower reach is karst area (Fig. 1). However, the spatial variation of SON contribution was not significant in the dry season.

Owing to the heavy application of N fertilizer ($7.03 \times 10^5 \text{ kg year}^{-1}$ between 2016 and 2017 (NBSC 1980-2018)) in the Ginlin city, China, the CF is one of the dominant sources of NO_3^- at all sampling sites. The contribution of CF was much higher in the wet season than in the dry season, indicating that a runoff flushing effect on fertilizer cannot be ignored. The CF contribution in the upstream was 8–10% higher than that in the mid-lower stream, which may be related to more cropland in the upstream. The area of cropland in the upper reaches of the Lijiang River Basin is 9% higher than that in the middle and lower reaches (Lin and Chen 2016).

M&S is one of the dominant NO_3^- source in the Lijiang River, and the contribution of it in the mid-lower stream was 5–11% higher than that in the upstream, which may be related to more intense human activity in the mid-lower stream. The area of urbanland in the middle and lower reaches of the Lijiang River Basin is 5% higher than that in the upper reaches (Lin and Chen 2016). The contribution of M&S in the dry season was about 8% higher than that in the wet season. It was noted that high NO_3^- concentrations in the tributary water samples were detected (T2) in which the contribution of M&S can reach up to 50%.

Atmospheric precipitation contributed the least NO_3^- in the whole watershed of the Lijiang River, which is in agreement with other river watersheds (Xue et al. 2012; Li et al. 2018). AP contributed 7.46% NO_3^- during the dry season and 8.20% during the wet season. Moreover, the contribution of AP in upstream is similar to that in the mid-lower stream of Lijiang River in both the dry and wet seasons.

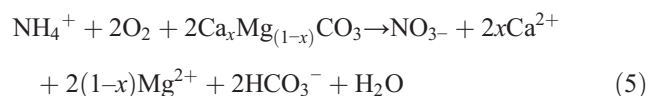
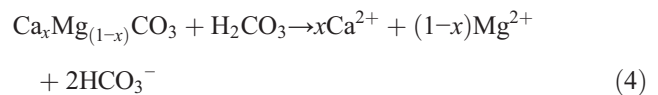
As shown in Fig. 7, the NO_3^- concentrations were about 3 mg L^{-1} in the headstream (M1), about 9 mg L^{-1} in the midstream (M6) where the activities of human beings become intense and keep about 7 mg L^{-1} in the outlet (M8). The increase of NO_3^- downstream is mainly due to the increase of M&S, especially at sites T2 where the NO_3^- concentrations were the highest in the Lijiang River. Meanwhile, the contribution of M&S to NO_3^- can be up to 40–50%. In all, CF and M&S were the dominant NO_3^- source in the Lijiang River. Hence, some measures should be taken to alleviate NO_3^- pollution. For an example, fertilizer application must be properly reduced according to the soil nutrients and crop demands, and diffused domestic waste water should be collected by sewage treatment plant.

NO_3^- exported from the Lijiang River

The results show that NO_3^- flux in the Lijiang River was $4.10 \times 10^7 \text{ kg year}^{-1}$ calculated by the NO_3^- concentration and average monthly discharge rate of river flow (Eq. 2). The Lijiang River is one of tributaries of the Xijiang River. According to the research of Li et al. (2018), the NO_3^- flux was $9.21 \times 10^8 \text{ kg year}^{-1}$ in the Xijiang River. The NO_3^- flux of the Lijiang River accounted for about 5% of that in the Xijiang River. The NO_3^- flux of the Lijiang River during the wet season ($3.35 \times 10^7 \text{ kg}$) was approximately 4.5 times higher than that during the dry season ($7.52 \times 10^6 \text{ kg}$), which indicates about 82% NO_3^- transportation occurs during the wet season. The contributions of CF and M&S to NO_3^- were 60.09% and 62.91% in the wet season and dry season, respectively. Thus, in the study area, 60.61% of the NO_3^- flux was derived from anthropogenic activities.

Nitrification and carbonate rock weathering in the Lijiang River

In karst area, carbonate rock weathering is the main source of ions in rivers, and HCO_3^- in rivers is mainly derived from carbonated weathered carbonate rock (Gaillardet et al. 1999). Carbonate rock dissolved by carbonic acid, the equivalent ratios of $[\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+}] / [\text{HCO}_3^-]$ should be 1 (Eq. 4). The equivalent ratio of $[\text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Mg}^{2+}] / [\text{HCO}_3^-]$ ranged from 1.08 to 1.37, with an average of 1.20, indicating that exogenous acid (sulfuric acid and nitric acid) weathered carbonate rock. Barnes and Raymond (2009) found that the acid produced during nitrification can take part in the dissolution of carbonate rocks, resulting in increased DIC in river water (Eq. 5).



As stated above, NO_3^- in the Lijiang River mainly comes from nitrification of fertilizers, soil, and manure and sewage (92.54% and 91.80% in the wet and dry season, respectively). Thus, nitrification would enhance carbonate rock weathering in karst areas (Eq. 5). One mole of NO_3^- from nitrification would produce two moles of HCO_3^- and would be produced by carbonate rock weathering (Eq. 5). The increased HCO_3^- flux was $7.81 \times 10^7 \text{ kg year}^{-1}$ from nitrification of fertilizers, soil, and manure and sewage in the Lijiang River. HCO_3^- flux caused by nitrification accounted for 10.62% of the total HCO_3^- flux in the Lijiang River. This value was comparable with the calculation conducted by Yue et al. (2015), which showed that the HCO_3^- flux caused by nitrification was

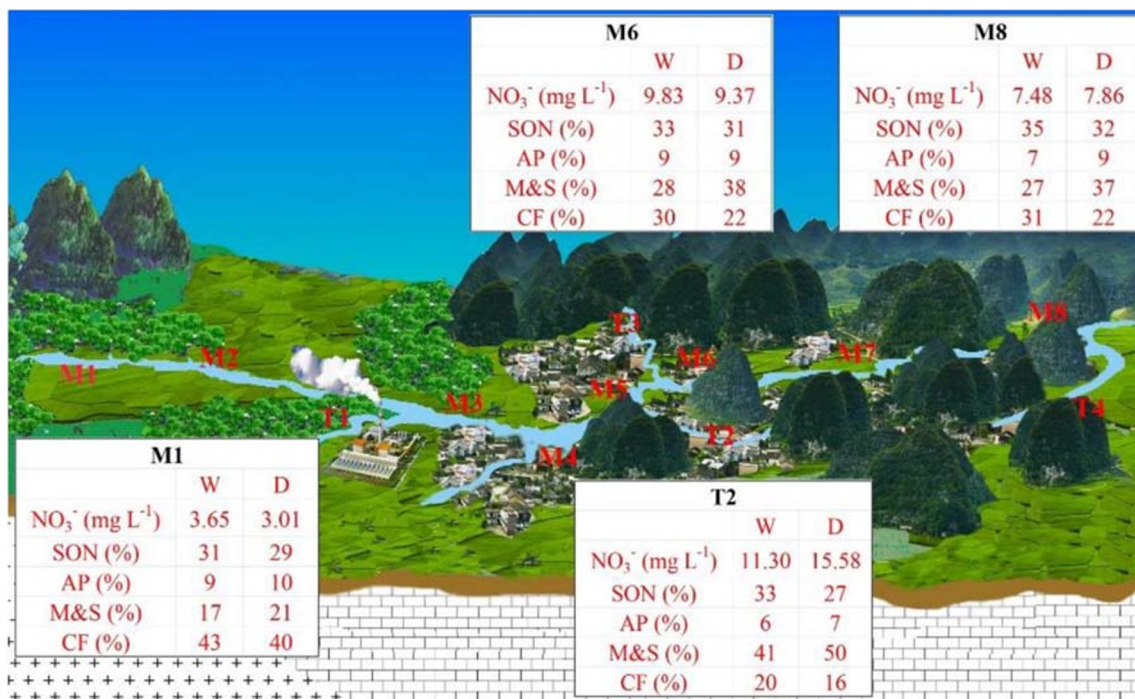


Fig. 7 Model diagram of NO₃⁻ concentration and main sources in the Lijiang River

smaller than 18.7% in small carbonate basin, Southwest China. This result indicates that carbon flux in rivers was impacted significantly by the nitrogen cycle, especially in this karst area, which should be considered for quantification of the carbon cycle. Hence, reducing nitrate inputs is important, especially NO₃⁻ from chemical fertilizer and sewage and manure.

Conclusions

In this study, the isotopic compositions of NO₃⁻ and H₂O and water chemistry data were used to elucidate the sources, transformations of NO₃⁻, and analyze the influence of nitrogen cycling on the process of carbonate rock weathering of surface water in karst areas. The Bayesian model was employed to estimate the proportional contributions of the NO₃⁻ sources. According to the fingerprint feature ($\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$) of the nitrate sources, the main nitrate source is the SON, M&S, and CF for all water samples. The hydrochemical data and coupled isotopic compositions of NO₃⁻ and H₂O suggested that NO₃⁻ transformation is dominated by nitrification processes, the mixing process has more effect on NO₃⁻ transportation, and no obvious denitrification was observed. The results of SIAR model showed that NO₃⁻ sources contribution rates were in the order: SON > M&S > CF > AP and have significant spatio-temporal difference, indicating that NO₃⁻ in the Lijiang River is greatly affected by nitrification of SON, CF, and M&S. Nitrification of fertilizers, soil, and manure and sewage results a significant increase of the export

of HCO₃⁻, and the enhanced HCO₃⁻ flux caused by the nitrification could account for about 11% of the total HCO₃⁻ in the Lijiang River. NO₃⁻ discharge flux in the Lijiang River was 4.10×10^7 kg year⁻¹, and about 62% of which was derived from anthropogenic activities. Hence, fertilization and manure and sewage management control were important to reduce NO₃⁻ and HCO₃⁻ discharge flux in the Lijiang River.

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