

Tracing the Fate of Atmospheric Nitrate in a Subalpine Watershed Using Δ 17 O

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1	Tracing the fate of atmospheric nitrate in a subalpine
2	watershed using Δ^{17} O
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25 Abstract

26 Nitrogen is an essential nutrient for life on Earth, but in excess, it can lead to 27 environmental issues (e.g., N saturation, loss of biodiversity, acidification of lakes, 28 etc.). Understanding the nitrogen budget (*i.e.*, inputs and outputs) is essential to 29 evaluate the prospective decay of the ecosystem services (e.g., freshwater quality, 30 erosion control, loss of high patrimonial-value plant species, etc.) that subalpine headwater catchments provide, especially as these ecosystems experience high 31 32 atmospheric nitrogen deposition. Here, we use a multi-isotopic tracer (Δ^{17} O, δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O) of nitrate in aerosols, snow and streams to assess the fate of atmospherically 33 34 deposited nitrate in the subalpine watershed of the Lautaret Pass (French Alps). We 35 show that atmospheric deposition contributes significantly to stream nitrate pool yearround, either by direct inputs (up to 35 %) or by in situ nitrification of atmospheric 36 37 ammonium (up to 35 %). Snowmelt in particular leads to high exports of atmospheric 38 nitrate, most likely fast enough to impede assimilation by surrounding ecosystems. 39 Yet, in a context of climate change, with shorter snow seasons, and increasing 40 nitrogen emissions, our results hint at possibly stronger ecological consequences of nitrogen atmospheric deposition in the close future. 41

42

43 <u>Keywords:</u> atmospheric deposition, nitrate isotopes, subalpine streams, Lautaret
44 Pass



45 1. Introduction

Reactive Nitrogen (Nr) has long been known for its duality. At low to moderate 46 concentrations, it is an essential nutrient for natural ecosystems in general, and plant 47 nutrition in particular (¹). In excess, Nr becomes an environmental issue for endemic 48 terrestrial plant species and aquatic ecosystems $(^{2-4})$, and may pose threats to 49 human health (⁵). Human activities have increased N input to the environment by 50 150% over the last century (⁶), with a rising contribution – among other distribution 51 processes – of atmospheric deposition $(^{7,8})$. Fossil-fuel combustion, agriculture and 52 53 food production are responsible for direct or indirect emissions of atmospheric N-54 species with the capacity to reach remote ecosystems such as mountainous regions (^{9,10}) where Nr equilibrium is very sensitive to small perturbations (^{11,12}). Alpine and 55 subalpine watersheds are particularly vulnerable to this increasing Nr-supply (^{13,14}), 56 as they are usually N-limited ecosystems (¹⁵). The critical load for these ecosystems 57 has been estimated to 1-4 kg-N.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹, making alpine and subalpine grasslands the 58 most sensitive to N deposition among grasslands and tall forb habitats (^{16–18}). In 59 60 some regions of the globe, such as in the Colorado Front Range, USA, shifts from N-61 limitation to N-saturation state have been observed leading to regional and national policies to regulate this phenomenon $(^{19-21})$. As a consequence of increasing nitrogen 62 63 deposition, a slow but persistent change of alpine and subalpine landscape has been noticed in several regions (^{22,23}). Species more competitive for nitrogen uptake tend 64 65 to develop in abundance at the expense of usually oligotrophic native plants, leading to plant diversity loss and changes in ecosystem functioning and services. 66

Freshwater quality and erosion control are, per instance, threatened by this cascade
of changes (^{24,25}). Yet, and mainly because of the paucity of monitoring facilities in
isolated areas and of the logistical difficulties in accessing these regions, key
biogeochemical processes regulating N cycling in mountains are still not well
understood (²⁶).

More specifically, atmospheric nitrate (NO_3) and ammonium (NH_4) , deriving

principally from anthropogenic NO_x (NO and NO_2) and agricultural NH_3 emissions,

are transferred to the land surface through wet and dry deposition. Dissolved

inorganic nitrogen (DIN) species (*i.e.*, NO_3^- and NH_4^+) are of capital importance in

recological studies given their high solubility in water; the strong hydrological

connectivity and typical topography of alpine and subalpine watersheds can lead to a

fast transport and a potentially long reach of the above-mentioned nutrients in

⁷⁹ surrounding ecosystems (^{27,28}). Traditionally, environmental studies on NO₃⁻ sources

80 partitioning are essentially based on δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values (^{29–31}), to constrain

81 the biogeochemical processes affecting the various N forms in mountains. Yet, the 82 wide range of observed values for δ^{15} N and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ from atmospheric and other 83 sources limits accurate quantification of contributing sources (^{32,33}).

In this study we focus - for the first time (to the best of our knowledge) - on year-84 85 round NO₃⁻ dynamics in a mountainous watershed in the French Alps, using a multiisotopic ($\Delta^{17}O$, $\delta^{18}O$, $\delta^{15}N$) tracer of NO₃⁻ in subalpine surface waters. This relatively 86 87 new method has been increasingly used, as it enables a more refined understanding of atmospheric NO₃⁻ (NO₃ atm) contribution to ecosystems N pool (32,34,35). With the 88 89 aim to clearly delineate the fate of atmospheric Nr in a subalpine watershed, we first 90 characterized the triple isotopic composition of NO₃⁻ in aerosols and snow deposited in high altitude catchments (> 1000m a.s.l.) of the central French Alps (*i.e.*, the input 91

92 flux). Second, we evaluated the fate of the deposited NO_{3⁻ atm} by monitoring NO_{3⁻}

93 riverine exports from the watersheds (*i.e.*, the output flux).

We hypothesized that (i) the triple isotopes approach will enable a clear delineation of NO₃⁻ sources and the quantification of their respective contribution to small and medium-scale watersheds N budget and (ii) seasonal dynamics of NO₃⁻ atm exports in stream will provide additional insights on N cycling controls in high altitude catchments.

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- 100

101 **2. Material and Methods**

102 **2.1 Study Site**

103 The studied catchments are located in the upper Romanche valley, near the Lautaret

104 Pass (central French Alps, SI Figure S1). The experimental site is part of the national

105 research infrastructure for the study of continental ecosystems and their biodiversity

106 (AnaEE – France, https://www.anaee-france.fr), and of the Long Term Ecological

107 Research network (LTER, https://lternet.edu). The streams monitored throughout

108 2015 are located close to the research facilities of the Alpine Research Station

109 (Station Alpine Joseph Fourier (SAJF), CNRS-UGA, UMS 3370,

110 https://www.jardinalpindulautaret.fr), where atmospheric and climatic parameters

111 were monitored (Figure S2).

112 The climate is subalpine with a strong continental influence. The annual precipitation

in 2015 (year of study) was 537 mm, significantly drier than the mean annual

precipitation of 956 mm observed between 2004 and 2013 (36). In 2015, *ca.* 45 % of

the precipitation occurred during the growing season from snowmelt (in April) to late

116 September. Winters are cold and snowy. The mean temperature was -7.5 °C in

117 February 2015 and 13.9 °C in July 2015. More detailed information about the 118 sampling site can be found elsewhere (^{36,37}).

The first studied sub-watershed (hereafter called Lautaret) is mainly constituted of calcareous substrate and extends over 3.4 km². At the outlet of this sub-watershed runs a stream called Tufiere. Samples were collected at an altitude of *ca*. 2015 m a.s.l, just before the stream merges with the outlet of the second sampled watershed (Figure S1). Altitude on this watershed spans from 1665 to 2725 m a.s.l. Mean slope is 25%, and the vegetation cover Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) is 0.38.

126 The second sub-watershed (hereafter called Laurichard) is constituted of granitic

127 rocks on an ancient volcanic layer and extends over 5.3 km². It is part of the North

128 exposed side of the Combeynot mountain range, which highest peak culminates at

129 3155 m. The Laurichard stream, fed in part by glacier melt, runs down this

130 mountainous area and is sampled downhill, just before it joins the Tufiere stream.

131 Altitude on this watershed ranges from 1665 to 3155 m a.s.l. Mean slope is 30%, and

the vegetation cover NDVI is 0.33.

133 The last river is Romanche, which integrates the response of the whole Romanche

134 Valley, and is fueled by smaller tributaries such as Tufiere and Laurichard from the

135 Lautaret Pass and the Ecrins National Park down to the artificial Chambon Lake. Our

sampling point for this river is about 1000 m lower in altitude and approximately 12

137 km away from the first two tributaries (contributing area \approx 220 km²).

138

139 2.2 Field sampling

140 Aerosols were collected on the Lautaret watershed from November 2014 to

141 September 2015 using a homemade apparatus (similar to a Digitel[®] DA77) equipped

with a Digitel[®] PM2.5 cutting head. We used QMA Whatman quartz filters for
aerosols collection, burnt at 800 °C for 1 h to lower the blank signal (³⁸). Filters were
changed on a weekly basis, thus accumulating enough material for isotopic analysis.
Airflow was fixed at 0.5 m³ per hour.

146 From December 2014 to April 2015 a snow pit (SP) was dug every month on the

147 Lautaret watershed to provide profiles of NO_{3 atm} concentration and isotopic values in

the snowpack. For each pit, snow was dug until the soil was reached, then after

cleaning the vertical profile, samples were collected every 3 cm starting from surfacesnow.

151 Water samples were collected in the three streams (SI Figure S1, in red) from

152 November 2014 to December 2015 to obtain a full one-year hydrological cycle and

153 stream N chemistry. The samples were taken according to the Niwot Ridge LTER

154 protocol (³⁹). Samples were taken on a weekly basis when possible, and at most 2

155 weeks separated two consecutive samples.

156 More details regarding aerosols, snow and water sampling can be found in the SI,

157 Appendix 1. Unfortunately, neither rivers discharge measurements nor wet deposition

158 collection could be done at the time of the study because of the lack of equipment.

159 Appreciation of snowmelt timeframe, peak and length was based on visual

160 observation of snow cover and rivers flow. The Laurichard stream could not be

161 sampled from mid-January to mid-April as the riverbed was completely covered by

162 the snowpack.

163

164 **2.3 Samples pre-treatment and NO₃⁻ concentration analysis**

165 Aerosols samples were analyzed by extracting NO₃⁻ from filters, immersed in 40 mL

of ultrapure water in a centrifugal ultrafiltration unit (Milipore Centricon plus-70, 100

167 000 Daltons), shaken a few times, and then centrifuged at 4500 RPM for 20 minutes.
168 The extract was then collected in a 50 mL Corning[®] centrifuge tube and kept frozen
169 until further analysis.

170 Water and snow samples underwent the same pre-treatment for isotopic analysis.

171 Frozen samples were melted at room temperature overnight before being filtered

using 0.45 µm Whatman GD/X syringe filters linked to a peristaltic pump.

173 Ultimately, aerosols, snow and stream samples were concentrated using an anionic

resin (0.6 mL AG 1-X8 resin, Cl⁻-form, Bio-Rad) with recovery efficiency over 98.5%

175 (⁴⁰) and eluted with 10 mL of a 1 M NaCl solution for isotopic analysis (⁴¹). Sample

aliquots were taken before the resin concentration step for [NO₃] determination using

a Continuous Flow Analysis spectrophotometer (SEAL Analyzer QuAAtro) based on

178 cadmium-reduction of NO_3^- to nitrite (⁴²). [NO_3^-] values are given with an uncertainty

179 of 0.02 mg.L⁻¹, calculated as the mean standard deviation of ten successive

180 measurements of the calibrating standards.

181

182 **2.4 Isotopic analysis**

183 Aerosols, snow and river samples were analyzed for $\Delta^{17}O$, $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{15}N$ of NO_3^{-1}

using the bacterial denitrifier technique in combination with the N₂O gold

decomposition method (^{43–45}). More details about the analytical procedure can be

186 found elsewhere $(^{46})$ and in the SI, Appendix 1.

187 All samples isotopic values were corrected for any isotopic effect possibly occurring

188 during the procedure by processing simultaneously international reference materials

- 189 (International Atomic Energy Agency USGS 32, USGS 34 and USGS 35) through the
- same analytical batch. The isotopic standards were prepared in the same
- 191 background matrix as samples (*i.e.*, 1M NaCl). Standard deviation of the residuals

from the linear regression between the measured reference standards (n = 20) and their expected values served as indicator of the accuracy of the method. In our study, the Δ^{17} O, δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N values of aerosols, snow and streams NO₃⁻ are given, with respect to atmospheric N₂ (AIR) and Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) standards, with a mean uncertainty of 0.2, 1.4 and 0.4 ‰ respectively.

197

2.5 End-member mixing analysis

The triple stable isotope approach using ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ and ${}^{17}O/{}^{16}O$ enables exclusive 199 quantification of unprocessed NO_{3 atm}. Because chemical pathways leading to the 200 201 production of atmospheric NO_3^- involve NO_x oxidation by ozone, which is the bearer of ¹⁷O-excess in the first place, it shows a significant positive deviation from the 202 terrestrial fractionation line (TFL: δ^{17} O $\approx 0.52 * \delta^{18}$ O) (^{47,48}). Δ^{17} O is a quantification of 203 this deviation from the TFL, calculated as $\Delta^{17}O = \delta^{17}O - 0.52 * \delta^{18}O$ in the present 204 205 work. Δ^{17} O value of atmospheric NO₃⁻ generally ranges between 20 and 35 ‰ in temperate latitudes (^{46,49}) whereas Δ^{17} O value of NO₃⁻ from all other sources 206 (industrial fertilizers, nitrification) or biologically processed NO_{3 atm}, is 0 (32,50). In this 207 study, we used these two distinct Δ^{17} O values as end-members in a simple mixing 208 model to quantify unprocessed NO_{3 atm} proportion in streams. Calculation of 209 210 atmospheric contribution, noted f_{atm} , was derived from the following equation:

211

212 (Eq.1) Δ^{17} O-NO₃ sample = $f_{atm} * \Delta^{17}$ O-NO₃ atm + (1- f_{atm}) * Δ^{17} O-NO₃ bio

With f_{atm} (= %NO₃⁻_{atm}), the mole fraction of the atmospheric contribution (³²), Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻_{sample} the measured value of Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in a sample and Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻_{bio} the value of ¹⁷O-excess of biologically-derived NO₃⁻ (NO₃⁻_{bio}).

216

217 As
$$\Delta^{17}$$
O-NO_{3 bio} = 0 ‰ (³²), Eq.1 simplifies to

218

219 (Eq. 2) $f_{atm} = (\Delta^{17} \text{O-NO}_3 \cdot \text{sample} / \Delta^{17} \text{O-NO}_3 \cdot \text{atm}) * 100$

220

221 Choice for the atmospheric end-member values of Δ^{17} O-NO₃ atm is further discussed 222 in section 4.1.

223 Post-deposition processes such as denitrification or assimilation should enrich δ^{18} O

and δ^{15} N along a 2:1 to 1:1 line (^{51,52}), but co-occurring soil production of NO₃⁻ by

nitrification can lead to lower enrichment proportions (⁵³). The Δ^{17} O value of residual

NO₃⁻ are unaffected by post-deposition processes leading to NO₃⁻ loss because it is

independent of the absolute
$$\delta^{18}$$
O values (³²). It therefore provides a robust

quantification of unprocessed NO3⁻ atm, and subsequently, of NO3⁻ bio as described in

229 Eq. 2.

230

231 2.6 Statistical Analysis

We used two non-parametric statistical tests in our study. The choice for non-

parametric tests lies in the small population size of the aerosols (n=26), snow (n=30,

234 22, 29, 36 and 26 for December, January, February, March and April SP,

respectively), and stream water samples (n=42, 29 and 28 for Tufiere, Laurichard

and Romanche, respectively).

A Mann-Whitney test was applied on river samples to determine whether mean

238 concentrations and isotopic values were significantly different between streams. A

239 Spearman test was applied to evaluate the correlation between stream water

parameters (typically Δ^{17} O, δ^{18} O, δ^{15} N and [NO₃⁻]). Differences and correlations were

held significant when the *p* value reached a 0.01 credible interval.

All statistical analyses were conducted using R software (v3.2.3).

243

244

245 **<u>3. Results</u>**

246 **3.1 Nitrate input to ecosystems: NO**_{3 atm}

Evolution of mean concentration, Δ^{17} O, δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N of NO₃⁻ in snow pits 247 248 throughout the winter and in aerosols throughout year 2015 can be found in Table 1 249 and Figure S3. First snow falls occurred mid-November 2014 with several freeze-250 thaw events before it started to accumulate. On days of snow pits sample collection, 251 snowpack depths were 66, 64, 139, 142 and 101 cm in December 2014, January, 252 February, March and April 2015, respectively. Maximum snow accumulation (ca. 1.6 253 m) occurred early March 2015 (SI, Appendix 1). By the end of April 2015, the 254 snowpack had completely melted. In December and January, low [NO₃] were 255 measured in all snow pits layers (SI, Figure S3a). In February and March, a peak of $[NO_3]$ up to 5 mg.L⁻¹ between 70 and 90 cm of snow accumulation was recorded. 256 257 This peak was also measured in April (orange line in Figure S3), but at a lower depth (40-60 cm) and to a lesser extent (2.7 mg.L⁻¹), due to elution of the snowpack NO₃⁻¹ 258 by snowmelt water. Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in snow varied between 20 and 35 ‰ (SI, Figure 259 260 S3b), well within the atmospheric range of NO_3^- isotopic values reported in the literature (^{46,54}). δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N values were between 60 and 90 ‰ and -10 and 0 ‰, 261 262 respectively (SI, Figure S3c and d), consistent with a reservoir exclusively made of $NO_{3}^{-}atm$ (⁵¹). Mean (± standard deviation) isotopic values of snow NO_{3}^{-} were 29.3 ± 263 1.6, 77.0 ± 5.6 and -3.6 ± 1.6 % for Δ^{17} O, δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N, respectively. 264 265 Mean isotopic values of NO₃⁻ in aerosols were also consistent with other measurements of particulate NO₃⁻ (⁵⁵), featuring significantly lower mean Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ 266

and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ in summer (23.1 ± 2.4 and -6.5 ± 3.4 ‰, respectively) than in winter (28.9 ± 1.7 and -1.0 ± 1.7 ‰, respectively), a temporal pattern discussed in the SI, Appendix 3. Winter aerosols NO₃⁻ isotopic values were in the range of the snowpack NO₃⁻ values.

271

272 **3.2 Nitrate output in rivers**

All streams [NO₃⁻] data can be found in the SI, Table S1. Laurichard showed

significantly higher year-round [NO₃⁻] compared to the other streams, with a mean

value of 2.6 \pm 1.3 mg.L⁻¹. Mean annual [NO₃] was 0.09 \pm 0.06 mg.L⁻¹ and 1.02 \pm 0.48

276 mg.L⁻¹ in Tufiere and Romanche, respectively. Seasonal variations were similar in all

- streams, featuring higher $[NO_3]$ in late spring and lower $[NO_3]$ in summer (Figure
- 278 1a).

Tufiere had the widest range in Δ^{17} O-NO₃ values, varying from 0.5 to 10.3 ‰, with a

280 mean value of $3.2 \pm 2.4 \text{ }$. Δ^{17} O-NO₃ values in Laurichard ranged from 0.8 to 8.2

281 %, with a mean value of 2.8 ± 1.7 %. In Romanche, Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ values remained

above 3 % for a period spanning several months, with a mean value of 4.3 ± 2.3 %

283 (Figure 1b). Mean Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ was significantly higher in Romanche than in Tufiere

- and Laurichard, whereas there was no significant difference between Tufiere and
- 285 Laurichard mean Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ (p-value = 0.5).
- All streams showed similar range for δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻, between -5 and 25 ‰ for δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ and between -6 and 13 ‰ for δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻. Our findings were in the same range of previously measured NO₃⁻ isotopic values in alpine streams (^{31,56,57}).
- 289

290 <u>4. Discussion</u>

291 **4.1 NO**³ atm end-member

292 Our choice to use snow-NO₃⁻ as the atmospheric end-member laid on simple but 293 robust assumptions. First, snow is a good conservator of atmospheric nitrate in high 294 accumulation sites (> 30 cm of snow accumulation) and preserves its isotopic composition (^{49,59}). Second, the snowpack is representative of winter bulk deposition, 295 as it aggregates both wet and dry deposition (60,61). Third, most of NO_{3 atm} measured 296 297 in streams was assumed to come from snowmelt, as previously observed in other seasonally snow-covered catchments (60,62). Little temporal variation of NO₃⁻ 298 299 concentration and isotopic values in snow pits profiles, along with no isotopic 300 evidence of post-deposition processes further supported this assumption (SI, 301 Appendix 2, Figures S3 and S4).

302 By inputting mean snow Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ in Eq.2, we obtained:

303

304 (Eq.3)
$$f_{atm} = (\Delta^{17} \text{O-NO}_3 \cdot \text{sample} / 29.3) * 100$$

305

The error range on f_{atm} was inferred from snow Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ standard deviation, and calculated as 2 %.

308 It must be underlined that snow as atmospheric end-member might not account correctly for wet or dry deposition of NO_3^- in summer. Wet N deposition has *de facto* 309 310 been shown to contribute significantly to freshwaters NO₃- contents, either through direct inputs due to flashy hydrology (^{34,56}) or through indirect contribution *via* 311 enhanced nitrification of atmospheric NH_4^+ (⁶³). We show that summer deposition of 312 NO_3^{-1} (wet or dry) as atmospheric end-member results in higher calculated NO_3^{-1} atm 313 314 fraction in streams, up to 6% in this study (SI, Appendix 3). For that reason, all 315 calculated f_{atm} values in the following sections must be considered as a lower 316 estimate of NO_{3 atm} inputs in this system.

317

318 **4.2 Identification of NO₃** bio sources

No correlation was found between Δ^{17} O-NO₃ and [NO₃] in Tufiere, Laurichard and 319 Romanche (Figure 2a, b and c), indicating that NO_{3 atm} is not the main contributor to 320 streams nitrate load on a yearly basis. For all streams, Δ^{17} O-NO₃ was significantly 321 correlated to δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ (Figure 2d, e and f) with the best correlation found in 322 323 Romanche. Deviations from linear regressions are attributed to occasionally intense biological processes affecting δ^{18} O signal but leaving Δ^{17} O intact. Otherwise, the 324 325 strong linear correlations observed here suggest that mixing of sources more than 326 biological processes could explain the observed seasonal variations of NO₃ isotopic values. As a consequence, by extrapolating this linear relationship to Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ = 0 327 (*i.e.*, 100 % biologically derived NO₃⁻), we can determine the mean δ^{18} O value of 328 329 NO_{3 bio} produced in the three watersheds: -6.0, -4.6 and -6.6 ‰ in Tufiere, Laurichard and Romanche, respectively. These results for NO_{3 bio} were consistent with other 330 studies estimation of δ^{18} O-NO_{3 bio} in streams, either calculated via the same method 331 $(^{32,64})$ or deduced from measured δ^{18} O values of soil-water and O₂, assuming they 332 respectively contributed to NO₃⁻O accordingly to δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ = 1/3 (δ^{18} O-O₂) + 2/3 333 $(\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{H}_2\text{O})$ (^{51,58}). Note that our approach (*i.e.*, $\Delta^{17}\text{O} vs \delta^{18}\text{O}$) might yield lower 334 uncertainty compared to the traditional one (*i.e.*, δ^{18} O calculation) which comes with 335 a number of assumptions and caveats that are thoroughly dissected elsewhere (^{58,65}). 336 Conversely, we found a significant negative correlation between Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ and δ^{15} N-337 338 NO₃ (Figure 2g, h and i) in the three streams, with once again the best fit for Romanche. With the same method as cited above, we can infer the mean δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ 339 340 bio: 4.4, 5.0 and 6.1 ‰ in Tufiere, Laurichard and Romanche, respectively. These 341 values characterizing the NO_{3 bio} end-member are typical of NO₃ produced from soil

 NH_4^+ nitrification (⁵¹). On the other hand, extrapolating this correlation to $\Delta^{17}O-NO_3^-$ = 342 29.3 ‰ (*i.e.*, 100% NO₃ atm) should give δ^{15} N-NO₃ atm and δ^{18} O-NO₃ atm consistent 343 with otherwise measured snow NO₃⁻ isotopic values. We found values of 77.7, 79.0 344 and 74.7 ‰ for δ^{18} O-NO_{3 atm} in Tufiere, Laurichard and Romanche, respectively, 345 consistent with the mean δ^{18} O value of 77.0 ‰ measured for snow NO₃⁻ (Table 1). 346 Surprisingly, δ^{15} N-NO_{3 atm} values of *ca.* -30 ‰ were inferred in all streams, far from 347 measured δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ in snow and aerosols (Table 1) and from existing literature data 348 showing a range of δ^{15} N values for NO₃ between -15 and 15 ‰ (^{51,66–68}). This 349 350 suggested that a two end-members mixing model cannot account for the different sources of N that might have served as substrate for nitrification in subalpine 351 meadows, and the subsequent large distribution of δ^{15} N-NO_{3 bio}. Such pattern can 352 only be explained by an additional source of NO_{3 bio}, with low δ^{15} N values, leading to 353 354 the observed weak slopes in Figures 2g, h and i. By lowering the slopes of the 355 correlations, this additional source was responsible for the low extrapolated δ^{15} N-356 NO₃⁻ values, which in this case (*i.e.*, three sources) do not correspond to any source 357 end-member.

Similar work in alpine watersheds in the Colorado Front Range suggested that 358 possible sources of NO₃ in streams, apart from snow NO₃ atm, could be nitrification of 359 360 snow NH_4^+ in the snowpack and in soils during snowmelt, or flushing of soil $NO_3^$ produced under the snowpack during winter (²⁹). Nitrification in the snowpack is 361 highly unlikely; indeed, such a process would have overprinted snow Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ 362 363 values, which is not the case here (SI, Figure S3 and Appendix 2). However, the dual 364 isotopes plot presented in Figure 3 hints at a stronger contribution of atmospheric N 365 deposition – either as snow or rain – than previously assessed in subalpine 366 watersheds. Deposition of $NH_4^+_{atm}$ in particular was likely to enrich soils N pool, and

367 could account for part of NO_{3 bio} exported in streams. Snow at the Lautaret Pass has been shown to hold a non-negligible pool of NH_4^+ – equivalent to NO_3^- pool (³⁷) – 368 whereas undetectable [NH₄⁺] was monitored in all streams (data not shown) 369 suggesting that NH₄⁺ released from snow is either adsorbed on clay minerals or 370 biologically processed. If the entire snow-NH₄⁺ pool (if considered about roughly the 371 372 same size as snow-NO₃ pool) was nitrified in soils and exported as NO₃ into 373 streams during snowmelt, it would account for as much as 54 and 18 % of NO_{3 bio} 374 production in Tufiere and Laurichard, respectively (Figure 1b). The additional NO_{3 bio} 375 exported in streams can only be explained by soil leaching at snowmelt. Strong 376 microbial activity under the snowpack is not uncommon in cold mountainous regions (^{36,62,69,70}) and could justify the observed pattern. At snowmelt, cold adapted microbial 377 communities massively turn over when confronted to warmer air temperatures $(^{71})$, 378 379 releasing nitrified N from lysed cells into the soils where it leaches towards 380 groundwater and streams (⁷²). Sources of nitrified N under the snowpack may be related to soil organic matter and litter decomposition (⁷³) or soil NH₄⁺ pool resulting 381 from previous year's N deposits (^{29,72}). At this point we cannot conclude which source 382 383 contributed the most to NO_{3 bio} yield, but overwinter isotopic monitoring of N pools 384 under the snowpack might bring clarification.

385

386 **4.3 Seasonal variations of NO**³ atm exports

All stream water samples in this study had positive Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ values, showing unquestionable inputs of NO₃⁻ _{atm} in all streams year-round (Figure 1b). However, Tufiere and Laurichard, although sampled at the same altitude, showed different NO₃⁻ export patterns, certainly due to different hydrological behaviors and respective basins characteristics (⁵⁸). 392 NO₃ dynamic in Tufiere were most likely governed by snowmelt. Brief but high peaks of ¹⁷O-excess of NO_3^{-1} in March 2015, coincident with higher $[NO_3^{-1}]$, were attributed to 393 direct runoff of snowmelt water to the stream (^{56,64}). Rapid melting of the lower 394 395 watershed snowpack washed away labile NO_{3 atm} deposits and contributed up to 35 396 % of the total stream NO₃ pool. Leached NO_{3 bio} from snow-free soils by subsurface 397 melt or rain water accounted for both higher [NO₃] and lower Δ^{17} O-NO₃ in the stream later in spring (⁷⁴). Gentle hillslopes and the calcareous substrate of the 398 399 Lautaret sub-watershed were also likely to facilitate snowmelt water infiltration and mixing with groundwater, a common feature in subalpine catchments (⁷⁵). Starting 400 early May, a slow but persistent increase in Δ^{17} O-NO₃ suggested a resurgence of 401 NO3 atm loaded water entering the stream, increasing NO3 atm proportion up to 25 % 402 403 again at the end of August. Significantly higher precipitation in May and in August, 404 compared to the previous months (SI, Figure S2a) could have triggered this 405 resurgence by filling the aquifer with rain water, thus flushing stored water. The wide temporal range of this Δ^{17} O increase, encompassing six months from May to 406 407 October, is in line with a temporally spread transit time of infiltrated melt water along 408 an altitude gradient. Direct contribution of rain NO_{3 atm} was unlikely to explain such pattern, given the low response of Tufiere [NO₃] and Δ^{17} O-NO₃ to the storm in June 409 410 (Figure 1a and b). Considering the basin topography and geology (*i.e.*, gentler slopes and higher vegetation cover), most rain N inputs were certainly retained in soils or 411 assimilated before either infiltration or direct runoff of rainwater in Tufiere (⁶³). 412 Oppositely, NO_{3 atm} contributed only between 4 and 15 % of total NO₃ in Laurichard 413 414 stream from April to May (Figure 1b), coincident with the snowmelt period for this 415 northern exposed watershed. Laurichard rock glacier is an actively monitored

permafrost-related landform, which increased surface velocities over the past twenty 416 years hint at increased permafrost temperatures, possibly to the point of thawing $(^{76})$. 417 418 Considerably higher year-round [NO₃] in Laurichard compared to snow-fed Tufiere by 1-2 orders of magnitude – suggested that Laurichard NO₃ exports were mainly 419 driven by increasing soil exposure (⁷⁷) more than any other geomorphic or 420 biogeographic feature (⁷⁸). Sources of such elevated levels of NO_3^{-1} , while still 421 debated (^{79,80}), were likely linked to glaciers retreat and permafrost thawing leading to 422 enhanced stream solutes fluxes (^{81,82}), increased nitrification and/or mobilization of 423 stored N from disturbed soils (⁸³). Steeper slopes (SI, Figure S1), and potentially 424 increased deposition loading because of increased orographic precipitations $(^{21})$ – 425 426 relative to the Lautaret watershed – were certainly responsible for the occasional higher Δ^{17} O-NO₃ peaks, concomitant with rain events (Figure 1b). Lower vegetation 427 428 cover – and therefore reduced plant NO_{3 atm} uptake– and the poor buffering capacity 429 of Laurichard watershed granitic bedrock are additional factors that could have fostered punctually enhanced exports of $NO_3^{-}_{atm}$ from wet deposition (^{77,58}). The 430 431 storm in June 2015 (Figure S2) led to the strongest input of NO_{3 atm} in this stream, accounting for 29 % of Laurichard NO₃⁻ pool (Figure 1b). Simultaneous Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ 432 433 peaks and [NO₃] minima in July and September were further evidence of this flashy 434 hydrology and illustrated stream glacial melt water dilution by rain. Conversely, we did not observe an early snowmelt runoff-linked peak in Romanche 435 stream water Δ^{17} O-NO₃ in spring. Instead, NO_{3 atm} contribution increased steadily 436 from April to July (34 % of NO_{3⁻atm} on July 9th) then declined until reaching a baseflow 437 value of about 5 % of NO_{3 atm} during the dormant season. Romanche is the main 438 439 stream of the valley, fueled by myriad smaller tributaries like Tufiere and Laurichard. 440 Lower altitude catchments contributed most in spring, but as air temperature and

441 solar radiation increased in summer, melting snowpack from higher watersheds of the Ecrins National Park may have led to enhanced NO_{3 atm} export in Romanche 442 stream leading to the wide Δ^{17} O-NO₃ temporal pattern observed in this stream. 443 Why [NO₃] decreased from Laurichard to Romanche is uncertain, but dilution by 444 445 snow-fed streams like Tufiere between sampling locations is a possibility. Other possible sinks include denitrification, in-stream algal and phytoplankton assimilation 446 or uptake by the riparian vegetation (⁸⁵). Denitrification and assimilation should 447 discriminate δ^{18} O against δ^{15} N of residual NO₃⁻ following a line with a positive slope 448 449 (*i.e.*, enrich the residual nitrate with heavier isotopes), which was not observed in our 450 study (SI, Figure S5). However, frequent recharge of NO₃ by smaller tributaries such as Laurichard may have overprinted any biological isotopic signature $(^{53})$. 451 452 On all basins, the strong controls seemingly exerted either by snowmelt (Tufiere and 453 Romanche) or by glacier melt water (Laurichard) on stream NO_{3 atm} exports 454 precluded the quantification of the direct NO_{3 atm} summer deposition contribution. 455 Summer deposition loads of NO_{3 atm} to streams were either buffered by vegetation 456 uptake and/or soil immobilization on Lautaret watershed, subdued by high NO_{3 bio} 457 except on intense rain events on Laurichard watershed, or combined with the wide 458 temporal response of the Romanche to snowmelt from uplands. Nevertheless, 459 summer deposition of NH₄⁺_{atm} contributed significantly to subalpine soils N pool and 460 was partly responsible for the $NO_{3 bio}$ exports in streams. Simultaneous monitoring of Δ^{17} O-NO₃, streams discharge, water isotopes and 461 462 chemical tracers of hydrological paths remain needed to further constrain water 463 sources and their respective contribution to NO_3^- exports in subalpine streams.

464 Longer monitoring of streams exports is also warranted to better evaluate annual

465 variability in this subalpine watershed, as year 2015 was significantly drier than

466 previous years at the Lautaret Pass. Hydrological responses to rain events, and 467 resulting NO_3^- export dynamics under different precipitation conditions, need to be 468 assessed.

469

470 **4.4 Nitrogen saturation and ecological implication**

Despite presenting different N export dynamics, all streams shared uninterrupted
presence of NO₃⁻ year-round, with a significant contribution from atmospheric
deposition. In a supposedly N-limited ecosystem, such a pattern was unexpected as
demand for dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) from plants and microbial communities
in spring and summer should have exceeded mobile NO₃⁻ reservoir in soils,

476 precluding leaching to the streams.

477 Nitrogen saturation has first been evaluated in an ecosystem subjected to increasing N deposition (²). Several stages of saturation have been distinguished, ranging from 478 479 0 (N-limited ecosystem) to 3 (fully saturated ecosystem characterized by N-leaching 480 and higher streams [NO₃]). [NO₃] in Tufiere and Romanche was within the range of reported alpine and mountain stream $[NO_3]$ (⁸⁴), but $[NO_3]$ in Laurichard was higher 481 than in streams pinned as indicators of stage 2 or 3 (³⁴). However, similar seasonal 482 483 variations of [NO₃] in Tufiere, Laurichard and Romanche – high in spring after 484 snowmelt, decreasing in summer, then increasing again as air temperature starts 485 falling down (Figure 1) – were symptomatic of plants and microbial biomasses 486 working as N sinks during the growing season. Evaluation of N saturation according 487 to the conceptual model of biological demand exceeded by N supply does not take into account other drivers of N exports (⁵⁸), and may not be adapted to describe the N 488 489 saturation state of subalpine watersheds. Another approach to N saturation has been 490 described as kinetic N saturation, where the rate of N inputs exceeds the rate of N

491 assimilation in an ecosystem and its remediation capacity, and can lead to intensive 492 exports of N in streams (⁸⁶). Given the highest percentage of unprocessed NO_{3⁻atm} 493 during hydrological events, our results provided additional evidence that catchment 494 hydrology is certainly responsible for the kinetic N saturation in subalpine 495 watersheds. Anyhow, assessment of N deposition load could help us estimate 496 whether the critical threshold has been crossed, as evidenced in other alpine 497 environments (^{17,18,87}), and will be the object of future studies.

498 N inputs at the watershed scale, through NO_{3 atm} direct contribution or NH₄⁺_{atm} 499 nitrification, are likely to substantially impact surrounding ecosystems, especially 500 during the growing season following snowmelt. For instance, the lake Chambon, a 501 freshwater reservoir fueled by the Romanche stream, which supplies downhill villages and cities - including Grenoble (163 000 inhabitants) - with drinking water, 502 503 showed high NO_{3 atm} contribution from May to November (up to 25 %, Table S2). 504 While $[NO_3]$ in the lake averaged 2.0 ± 0.8 mg.L⁻¹ during the growing season, far below the limit of 50 mg.L⁻¹ (guideline value from The World Health Organization 505 506 translated in the EU Water Framework Directive 2000/60/EC), the presence of NO₃⁻ 507 atm in this elevated freshwater reservoir is yet another warning signal of potential 508 threats due to atmospherically deposited pollutants. Evidence of lakes fertilization by 509 atmospheric deposition in high altitude watersheds has been demonstrated before (⁸⁸). Fast cycling dynamics of high atmospheric Nr in lakes (⁸⁹) can lead to well-510 documented ecological consequences such as acidification (¹⁷), shift of algal and 511 phytoplankton communities (^{90,91}) and disturbance of lakes food web (⁹²), and 512 513 highlight the necessity to protect critical water resources. In winter, limited 514 hydrological connectivity between soils and streams cannot explain the year-round 515 export presence of unprocessed NO_{3 atm} in subalpine streams, highlighting the

potential contribution of groundwater contamination to streams exports. Previous studies also showed that most alpine and subalpine plants acquire N during snowmelt (93). In traditionally N-poor subalpine ecosystems, increasing inputs of NO₃⁻ $_{atm}$ together with climate change could accelerate diversity and composition losses of plant communities.

In a 21st century with a shorter snow season, a higher fraction of the yearly deposited 521 522 NO₃⁻ will be brought to subalpine ecosystems at a slower rate, during the growth 523 season, instead of abruptly at snowmelt. If NO_3^- saturation is indeed kinetic – as our 524 study suggested – then this climate driven change in NO₃⁻ influx timing could result in 525 higher NO₃ absorption in the environment, and lead to capacity saturation. This 526 would come with a wide number of changes in the ecosystem, which have been extensively detailed elsewhere at a global scale $(^{2,3,8})$, and more specifically in high 527 altitude catchments (^{11,18,92}). 528

These findings emphasize the need for more joint monitoring of subalpine soils and plant communities, with the objective being a better understanding of atmospheric N deposition consequences on biogeochemical cycling in these semi-isolated ecosystems. In particular, prospective studies should continue focusing on potential synergetic effects of land use management coupled with atmospheric deposition on ecosystems alteration, to better orient policy makers in N emissions mitigation and adaptation efforts.

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551 Supporting Information

552 Appendix 1 includes complementary information on sampling and analytic protocols. 553 Appendix 2 and 3 provide explanation on the choice of snow nitrate as atmospheric 554 end-member. Figures show the study site (S1), the meteorological conditions at the 555 Lautaret Pass in 2015 (S2), the concentration and isotopic values of NO₃⁻ in snow 556 during winter 2014-2015 (S3), correlation plots of snow NO₃ isotopic values (S4) and a correlation plot of rivers δ^{18} O vs δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (S5). Tables give [NO₃⁻] for each 557 558 sampling date in Tufiere, Laurichard and Romanche (S1) and in the Chambon Lake 559 (S2). This information is available free of charge via the Internet at

560 http://pubs.acs.org.

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840 List of Figures

841

842**Table 1** Mean volume-weighted concentration and concentration-weighted isotopic843values for NO_3^- in snow pits (SP) and aerosols at the Lautaret Pass. Snow pits mean844values are always calculated over the entire depth of the snow pack. Dates for SP845are given in a dd/mm/yy format. SD is the standard deviation.

846

Figure 1 Seasonal variations of a) $\log([NO_3])$ in $\mu g L^{-1}$ (for an easier comparison of 847 streams [NO₃]); b) Δ^{17} O (‰) and corresponding f_{atm} (%, the relative amount of 848 atmospheric nitrate in streams); c) δ^{18} O (‰) and d) δ^{15} N (‰) of NO₃⁻ in streams 849 850 Red, blue and green colors stand for Tufiere, Laurichard and Romanche, respectively. Highlighted in yellow is a two-days rainstorm that occurred mid-June. 851 852 The grey frames highlight the dormant season while the green one highlights the 853 growing season. Transitions between both seasons are snowmelt period in spring, 854 and plant senescence in autumn.

855

Figure 2 Correlation between nitrate Δ^{17} O (‰) and a), b), c) log([NO₃⁻]); d), e), f) δ¹⁸O (‰); g), h), i) δ¹⁵N (‰).

858 Red, blue and green colors stand for Tufiere, Laurichard and Romanche,

respectively. Outliers (surrounded by stars) were not considered in the linear

regression model, as we assume they result from biological processes (e.g.,

861 denitrification) and would blur determination of NO₃⁻ sources.

862

Figure 3 Dual isotopes plot (Δ^{17} O vs. δ^{15} N) illustrating the mixing between three 863 864 sources of NO_3^{-1} in our study sites. The plain triangles feature the mixing range between snow NO₃ atm and NO₃ from nitrified NH₄⁺ atm in grey, NO₃ from nitrified 865 $NH_4^+_{bio}$ in turquoise and NO₃ from manure or sewage in beige. The dashed triangles 866 867 of similar colors (*i.e.*, grey-turguoise and turguoise-beige) illustrate the overlapping of sources δ^{15} N-NO₃ values. The dashed purple triangle illustrates the mixing range 868 869 between NO_{3}^{-} and NO_{3}^{-} from nitrified $NH_{4}^{+}{}_{bio}$ if summer deposition was the 870 atmospheric end-member. When Δ^{17} O-NO₃⁻ values are high, δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ is characteristic of nitrified NH₄⁺ atm, 871 872 delineating the coupled contribution of atmospheric N deposition via direct inputs $(NO_{3} atm)$ and indirect inputs (nitrified $NH_4^+ atm)$). Decreased contribution of atmospheric 873

874 N sources (low Δ^{17} O-NO₃ values) results in a higher proportion of NO_{3 bio}.

	Snow depth (cm)	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	δ ¹⁸ Ο (‰)	Δ ¹⁷ Ο (‰)	[NO ₃ ⁻] (mg.L ⁻¹)
		Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
SP 09/12/14	66	-5.5 (2.7)	77.0 (5.0)	29.8 (1.9)	0.1 (0.4)
SP 13/01/15	64	-3.6 (1.7)	76.6 (7.2)	28.6 (2.5)	0.1 (0.9)
SP 19/02/15	139	-2.4 (1.2)	77.7 (4.5)	29.3 (1.2)	1.2 (1.3)
SP 19/03/15	142	-2.3 (1.6)	76.3 (4.6)	28.5 (1.3)	0.9 (1.0)
SP 09/04/15	104	-4.1 (1.1)	77.2 (6.8)	30.1 (1.0)	0.6 (0.6)
Aerosols (summer)	-	-6.5 (3.6)	62.9 (6.5)	23.1 (2.4)	0.1 (0.1) mg.m ⁻³
Aerosols (winter)	-	-1.0 (1.7)	74.7 (4.4)	28.9 (1.0)	0.1 (0.2) mg.m ⁻³

Table 1





