

1 **Effects of different N sources on riverine DIN export and retention in**
2 **subtropical high-standing island, Taiwan**

3
4 Jr-Chuan Huang¹, Tsung-Yu Lee², Teng-Chiu Lin*³, Thomas Hein⁴, Li-Chin Lee¹, Yu-Ting Shih¹, Shuh-Ji
5 Kao⁴, Fuh-Kwo Shiah⁵, Neng-Huei Lin⁶

6
7
8 ¹Department of Geography, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan

9 ²Department of Geography, National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan

10 ³Department of Life Science, National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan

11 ⁴Institute of Hydrobiology and Aquatic Ecosystem Management, University of Natural Resources and Life
12 Sciences, Vienna, Austria

13 ⁵State Key Laboratory of Marine Environmental Science, Xiamen University, Xiamen, China

14 ⁶Research Centre of Environmental Changes, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan

15 ⁷Department of Atmospheric Sciences, National Central University, Taoyuan, Taiwan

16

17

18

Submitted to Biogeosciences

19 *Corresponding Author: Teng-Chiu Lin email: tclin@ntnu.edu.tw

20

21 **Abstract**

22 Increases in nitrogen (N) availability and mobility resulting from anthropogenic activities have
23 substantially altered N cycle both locally and globally. Taiwan characterized by the subtropical montane
24 landscape with abundant rainfall, downwind to the most rapidly industrializing east coast of China can
25 be a demonstration site for extremely high N input and riverine DIN (dissolved inorganic N) export. We
26 used 49 watersheds with similar climatic and landscape settings, but classified into low-, moderate-, and
27 highly-disturbed categories based on population density to illustrate their differences in nitrogen inputs
28 (through atmospheric N deposition, synthetic fertilizers, and human emission) and DIN export ratios.
29 Our results showed that the island-wide average riverine DIN export is ~ 3800 kg-N/km²/yr,
30 approximately 18 times of the global average. The average riverine DIN export ratios are 0.30-0.51,
31 which are much higher than the averages of 0.20-0.25 of large rivers around the world indicating
32 excessive N input relative to ecosystem demand or retention capacity. The low-disturbed watersheds
33 have high N retention capacity and DIN export ratios of 0.06~0.18 in spite of the high N input (~ 4900
34 kg-N/km²/yr). The high retention capacity is likely due to effective uptake by secondary forests in the
35 watersheds. The moderately-disturbed watersheds show a linear increase of DIN export with increases in
36 total N inputs and mean DIN export ratios of 0.20 to 0.31. The main difference in land use between low
37 and moderately disturbed watershed is the greater proportion of agricultural land cover in the
38 moderately-disturbed watersheds. Thus, their greater DIN export could be attributed to N fertilizers used
39 in the agricultural lands. The greater export ratios also imply that agricultural lands have lower
40 proportional N retention capacity and that reforestation could be an effective land management practice
41 to reduce riverine DIN export. The export ratios of the highly-disturbed watersheds are very high, 0.42-
42 0.53, suggesting that much of the N input is transported downstream directly and urges the need to
43 increase the proportion of households connected to a sewage system and improve the effectiveness of
44 wastewater treatment systems. The increases in riverine DIN export ratio along the gradient of human

45 disturbance also suggest a gradient in N saturation in subtropical Taiwan. Our results help to improve
46 our understanding of factors controlling riverine DIN export and provide empirical evidence that calls
47 for sound N emission/pollution control measures.

48 **Keywords:** dissolved inorganic nitrogen, anthropogenic nitrogen, subtropical mountainous watershed.

49

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Rapid increases in population and food demand inevitably hasten the emissions of anthropogenic
52 nitrogen (N) via N-rich sewage, fertilizer runoff, and burning of fossil fuels and has led to a 10-fold
53 increase in anthropogenic N emissions since the 1860s (Galloway et al., 2004). The elevated
54 anthropogenic N emissions have increased the availability and mobility of N and as such altered N cycle
55 (Vitousek et al., 1997; Gruber and Galloway, 2008). A substantial proportion of the increased N input is
56 transported to river systems. In riverine systems, N species can be classified into PN (particulate
57 nitrogen), DON (dissolved organic nitrogen), and DIN (dissolved inorganic nitrogen, including NO₂,
58 NO₃, and NH₄), among which DIN is an important indicator of water quality and comprises the majority
59 of total riverine N in most rivers (Galloway et al., 2004; McCrackin et al., 2014). Observed global
60 riverine DIN export varies from 0.60 to 2200 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ (He et al., 2011) while modeled DIN export
61 varies from 0.0004 to 5217 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ (Dumont et al., 2005). The more than 6-order variation reflects
62 large spatial variation and complexity of N input, retention and transport processes (Howarth, 1998;
63 Smith et al, 2005; Seitzinger et al., 2005). The recent high N input may have exceeded the limit of the
64 earth system as a safe operating space for humanity (Rockström et al., 2009). Unfortunately, the
65 increasing trend of N emissions is likely to continue in the near future, especially in Asia (Ohara et al.,
66 2007). High quantity of N fertilizers has been shown to degrade soil fertility, water quality, and creates
67 hypoxic zones in coastal areas (Fitzpatrick et al., 2004; Brown et al., 2009; Tu, 2009; Jiang and Yan,
68 2010). Because N is a common limiting nutrient element in many ecosystems, availability of N plays a
69 key role in characterizing biodiversity and ecosystem function (Aber 1989, 1998). Anthropogenic N
70 enrichment has been shown to negatively affect ecosystem function and biodiversity at a global scale
71 (Townsend et al., 2009; Hutchison and Henry, 2010).

72 In freshwater systems, eutrophication is a common consequence of increases in DIN availability,
73 aside from increases in phosphorus levels (Conley et al., 2009). To date, most empirical studies of DIN

74 export were conducted at a geographically limited group of drainage basins in the developed temperate
75 region (Smith et al., 2005; Galloway et al., 2008). In contrast, N deposition and DIN export in subtropical
76 and tropical regions such as East Asia, characterized by high population, intensive agriculture system, and
77 rapid industrialization, is not well documented. Because industrialization in East Asia is among the most
78 rapid in the world, the impact of enhanced anthropogenic N emissions on watershed nutrient cycling is
79 expected to get worse in the near future. Understanding DIN concentration and export in this region is
80 crucial for a thorough understanding of global nutrient cycling in relation to anthropogenic N emissions.

81 Increases in population, agriculture activities, and atmospheric N deposition are well-recognized
82 sources of elevated riverine DIN export. N retention and transfer processes determine how much of the N
83 entering a watershed will be exported to the river system as DIN. In most riverine systems, DIN export is
84 typically less than the total N input and the riverine DIN export ratio, defined as the DIN export divided
85 by the total input, can be used to evaluate the nutrient-cycling function of a watershed. Quantification of
86 N inputs and outputs of river systems with different levels of human disturbance (e.g., Groffman et al.,
87 2004) documents of how human activities affect N cycling at scales that are relevant to land management.
88 Previous studies indicated that ~20-25% of the N input is transported by river systems and the rest is
89 retained or denitrified in large river basins in North America and Europe (Howarth et al., 2006).

90 Furthermore, it has been proposed that riverine N export from the large rivers will increase 10-27% in the
91 next 3 decades due to the increase of N input, while riverine N export ratio may increase 10-35% due to
92 increases of rainfall which may shorten the water residence time (Howarth et al., 2006). Compared to the
93 temperate region, we have very limited knowledge on riverine N export ratios in relation to human
94 activities in tropical and subtropical regions regardless of their very rapid increases in N emissions.

95 Taiwan is a 36,000 km² subtropical island characterized by rugged topography, high rainfall, high
96 industrialization and a very large population (23 million). Like many countries in East Asia the emissions
97 of N and export of DIN in Taiwan is expected to be very high. In addition, the rich background
98 information on various N inputs, topography and land use intensity make Taiwan an ideal site to assess

99 the relative contributions of major emission sources to total N input and the effects of physical
100 environmental characteristics and human impacts on DIN export. Therefore, this study aims to 1)
101 characterize riverine DIN export in subtropical watersheds in Taiwan and 2) explore the relationship
102 between land use and DIN export in Taiwanese rivers and compare it to riverine systems in other parts of
103 the world.

104

105 **2. Methods**

106 **2.1 Population density and Land use**

107 There are approximately 23 million people living in the 36,000 km² Taiwan giving a population
108 density of ~640 cap km⁻² (Fig. 1a). Most people live in the western plains, particularly in cities. For
109 example, approximately 6.7 million people settle in the Taipei metropolitan area and the population
110 density reaches 20,000 cap km⁻². There are a total of 49 wastewater treatment centers (most of them
111 located in the cities) with daily capacity of ~2.3 million tons of water in Taiwan
112 (<http://sewagework.cpami.gov.tw/>). Most of them are equipped with secondary treatments that remove
113 80% NH₄. Yet, NO₃ removal is not required so that the average N removal efficiency is only ~50%. As of
114 2003, approximately 70% and 30% of the households in Taipei and Kaohsiung (the largest two cities in
115 Taiwan) had been connected to a sewage system, respectively. The distribution of the water treatment
116 centers and their treatment capacity are given in supplementary Fig. 1.

117 Forests cover approximately 58% of Taiwan (mostly in the mountains) and agricultural lands are
118 mainly distributed on the west plains with some scattered on the hillsides. The agriculture in Taiwan is
119 characterized by an intensive cropping system with two to five harvests a year (two batches per year for
120 paddy rice) due to intense sunlight, high precipitation and high temperature. The total arable land area is
121 ~8,550 km², in which paddy fields account for 4,445 km² mostly in the western plain (Fig. 1b). Fodder
122 and sweet maize are planted on the plains from central to southern Taiwan and sugar canes are cultivated
123 in the southern coastal plain (COA, Council of agriculture, executive yuan, Taiwan,

124 <http://www.coa.gov.tw>). Most of the remaining arable lands (4,100 km²) spread over the hills, usually
125 along roadsides or streamsides with some distributed in uplands with tea, orchard, vegetable, and bamboo
126 as the main crops. The field area of tea is approximately 190 km² and of bamboo is approximately 300
127 km². Agriculture production in Taiwan largely depends on very high applications of synthetic fertilizers
128 and crop protection measures. According to the COA survey, 500 kg-N/ha of N fertilizers are commonly
129 applied for bamboo fields 420 kg-N/ha for tea plantations and 246 kg-N/ha for rice paddy annually (Table
130 1). For other crops, such as maize, sugar cane, watermelon, banana, and pineapple, more than 100 kg-
131 N/ha of N fertilizers per year are applied (Table 1). The intensive fertilizer applications are not unique to
132 Taiwan as it is also common in other countries of East Asia. For example, synthetic fertilizers applied in
133 Lake Dianchi in China are as high as 150-200 kg-N/ha annually (Gao et al., 2014).

134 **2.2 Basic watershed characteristics**

135 A total of 49 watersheds distributed throughout the island are used for estimating watershed DIN
136 export in this study (Fig. 1c). The watersheds are classified into 3 levels of human disturbance: low
137 disturbed (16 watersheds), moderately disturbed (15 watersheds), and highly disturbed (18 watersheds)
138 based on population density of < 20, 20-200 and >200 cap km⁻². The environmental settings of the three
139 categories of watersheds are given in Table 2. Most of the watersheds have drainage areas of less than
140 1000 km². The average slopes and drainage densities of the three categories of watersheds vary from 66 to
141 29% and 1.4 to 1.6 km⁻¹ (Table 2). The mean annual runoff of the 49 watersheds varies from 2200 to 2500
142 mm and the mean annual precipitation varies from 2000 to 4000 mm.

143 Forests dominate the landscape of all of the 49 watersheds and the proportion of forest cover
144 decreases from 0.87 for low disturbed watersheds to 0.51 for highly disturbed watersheds (Table 3). In
145 contrast, the proportion of built-up lands increases from 0.03 for low disturbed watersheds to 0.11 for
146 highly disturbed watershed and the proportion of agricultural lands increases from 0.11 for low disturbed
147 watersheds to 0.38 for highly disturbed watersheds (Table 3). While, non-rice crops and orchards
148 dominate the agricultural lands in all of the three categories of watersheds (> 80%), rice paddy and

149 bamboo are important only in highly disturbed watersheds (Table 3). Unlike many watersheds in Europe
150 and North America where agricultural lands may comprise more than half of the drainage area,
151 agriculture in Taiwan and other mountainous regions is constrained by the rugged topography.

152 **2.3 N loading**

153 Atmospheric N deposition, synthetic fertilizer use, and human emission data are collected and
154 compiled for the determination of the N inputs and the computation of riverine N export ratios. Because
155 the emissions from livestock are insignificant, compared to other sources, they are not included in the
156 analysis (see below).

157 For atmospheric N deposition, two modeling studies estimate a global average of 145 and 283 kg-N
158 $\text{km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for 1993 and 2050, respectively (Lelieveld and Dentener, 2000; Jeuken et al., 2001). Based on
159 the two studies N deposition in East Asia will surge from $\sim 1600 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in 1993 to $\sim 3800 \text{ kg-N}$
160 $\text{km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ in 2050 with a cross-year average of $2700 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2). Our local N deposition is
161 based on a national-wide acid rain monitoring network (11 sites) initiated by Taiwan EPA (Environmental
162 Protection Administration) in 2002. The mean annual wet N deposition, including NO_3 and NH_4 , was
163 $1,515 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ between 2007 and 2013 with $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ accounting for 59% of the deposition
164 (<http://epr.epa.gov.tw/upload/open/103>). A local empirical study indicates that dry deposition of N is
165 approximately 23-50% of wet deposition (Hsu et al., 2013) and thus a factor of 0.4 is used to estimate dry
166 deposition of N from the island-wide wet deposition monitoring network. From the 11 monitoring sites,
167 we interpolate total N deposition (wet + dry) for the island using the inverse distance weighted method
168 with an exponent of 2. From the interpolation we calculate an island-wide mean total N deposition of
169 $\sim 2,121 \text{ kg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ which is consistent with the N deposition reported by a global modelling (Jeuken et
170 al., 2001) and a local observation (Hsu et al., 2013).

171 N input from fertilizers is compiled from the crop types and fertilizer applications for each crop type
172 (as partly shown in Table 1). A look-up table for fertilizer applications for each crop type was embedded
173 into the land cover layer (map) so that the crop types could be converted to fertilizer input. Then, we use

174 the individual watershed polygon to clip the land cover layer to estimate fertilizers used in each
175 watershed. N input from human emissions (wastewater), which are a main source of riverine N, is
176 calculated using a GPD-based estimation proposed by Van Drecht et al. (2009) for per capita N emissions.
177 The average GDP of Taiwan during 2002-2012 is ~30000 US dollars and the per capita human N
178 emissions are ~6.42 kg-N cap⁻¹ yr⁻¹ following the GDP-based estimation. The population size from
179 county-based censuses is converted to county-based population density and then used to estimate the total
180 human emissions. Similar to the calculation of fertilizers used in each watershed, the watershed polygons
181 are used to calculate human emissions for each watershed.

182 Livestock could be an important source of N. The basic information of livestock in Taiwan is listed
183 in supplementary table 1 which also compares the numbers of cattle, cow, and swine in Taiwan, US, and
184 China. From the table, it is clear that the number and density of cattle and cows in Taiwan are much lower
185 than those in the other two countries. Although the density of swine is much higher in Taiwan than in the
186 other two countries, it is important to note that ~ 2/3 of the island is mountainous with very limited
187 number of swine. Most pig farms are located in the west plains and regarded as point sources of pollution
188 so that wastewater treatment is mandatory. Because livestock industry is not a primary source of N in
189 Taiwan and most of the livestock farms are located in the central to southern coastal zones, not in the
190 mountainous region where the studied watersheds are located, livestock excretion is not included in our
191 calculation of N inputs.

192 For biological nitrogen fixation (BNF), there are two types of BNF, agricultural BNF and natural
193 BNF. Agricultural BNF could be a significant N source. For example, Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) can fix
194 21800 kg-N km² yr⁻¹ (McIsaac et al., 2002) which is comparable with that from synthetic fertilizers. A
195 local survey also indicates that the amount of N from green manure crops is close to the amount of
196 synthetic fertilizers commonly applied in the fields and farmers typically do not use synthetic fertilizers
197 following the growth of green manure crops (http://www.tndais.gov.tw/search_wg.php). Quality data of
198 agricultural BNF in Taiwan is incomplete and cannot be confidently compiled at an island-wide scale.

199 Therefore, we assume that the agricultural BNF equals the amount of synthetic fertilizers used and it is
200 already included in our calculation of N input from fertilizers. For natural BNF, a global synthesis
201 indicates that natural BNF in forest ecosystems varies from 1600 in temperate region to 2500 kg N km⁻²
202 yr⁻¹ in tropical region (Cleveland et al., 1999). However, a recent study indicates that BNF in tropical and
203 subtropical regions is not significant and may be overestimated by more than 5 times in previous studies
204 (Sullivan et al., 2014). The study proposes that natural BNF in tropical forests should be less than 600 kg-
205 N km² yr⁻¹. Using this new estimate, the natural BNF would account for less than 5% of the total N input
206 in our study so that it is not included in our analysis.

208 **2.4 Stream water level and DIN monitoring**

209 The Water Resources Agency (WRA, <http://www.wra.gov.tw/>) and Environmental Protection
210 Administration (<http://www.epa.gov.tw>) of Taiwan are in charge of monitoring water quantity and quality,
211 respectively. Streamflow and DIN data from 49 water level monitoring stations (Fig. 1c) in which both
212 water level and water quality data are available during 2002-2012 are used in this study. The water level
213 stations are widely deployed in bridge piers and record water levels automatically. The WRA crew
214 measure the stream cross sections two or three times and flow velocity 10 times per year and based on
215 these measurements the discharge at each station is obtained several times per year. From these discharge
216 data and the water levels we develop a rating curve for estimating the discharge from the water levels for
217 each of the 49 stations.

218 For water quality, the EPA sampling crews take water samples on a monthly basis. Temperature, pH
219 and electrical conductivity (EC) are measured *in-situ* then the samples are transported to laboratories for
220 chemical and biological analysis including dissolved oxygen, cations, anions, *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*),
221 and selected heavy metals. For DIN species, ammonium is analyzed on a monthly basis using 4500-NH₃
222 D. Ammonia-selective electrode method (APHA, 2012). Nitrate and nitrite are analyzed every three
223 months using 4500-NO₃ I. (APHA, 2012) or ion exchange chromatography (IC). The mean

224 concentrations of DIN species are multiplied by stream discharge (monthly for NH₄ and quarterly for
225 nitrate and nitrite) to obtain the DIN fluxes via global mean approach. The mean DIN concentration,
226 flow-weighted mean concentration, mean discharge during sampling period and mean daily stream
227 discharge are listed in supplementary table 2 for reference. From the data in the table and some of our
228 previous studies we conclude that although the quarterly sampling of NO₃ and NO₂ is not ideal for
229 representing the variation among seasons and between high and low flow periods, the annual fluxes
230 derived from the 10-year dataset could still fairly represent the differences among watersheds which is the
231 main goal of our analysis. A more comprehensive justification of the use of the quarterly samples is
232 provided in supplementary Table 2.

234 **3 Results and Discussions**

235 **3.1 Riverine DIN concentration and flux**

236 The island-wide mean DIN concentration and flux calculated from the 49 watersheds are 148.3 μM
237 and 3,800 $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, respectively. However, they vary considerably among the three categories of
238 watersheds. The mean annual riverine DIN concentrations are 30, 57, 330 μM and the corresponding
239 exports are 909, 1816, and 8020 $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for low-, moderately- and highly-disturbed watersheds,
240 respectively (Fig. 3). For N species, mean NO₃ concentration and export increase from 24 μM and 725
241 $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for low disturbed watersheds to 100 μM and 3243 $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for highly disturbed
242 watersheds (Table 4). Similarly, mean NH₄ concentration and export increase from 5.6 μM and 169 kg-N
243 $\text{km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for low disturbed watersheds to 214 μM and 4340 $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for highly disturbed
244 watersheds, respectively (Table 4). Nitrite is not shown in the table because it only accounts for a very
245 small proportion (< 0.05) of DIN. The patterns and levels of DIN concentrations and fluxes of the 49
246 watersheds are consistent with results reported for over 20 sub-catchments within 2 river networks in
247 northern and central Taiwan (Huang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014). Note that NO₃ is the dominant species

248 for low and moderately disturbed watersheds, but NH_4 is the dominant species accounting for more than
249 50% of annual DIN flux for highly disturbed watersheds.

250 Both NO_3 and NH_4 exports are significantly and positively correlated to population density ($r^2 = 0.19$
251 for NO_3 and 0.18 for NH_4 , both p values < 0.01) and the proportion of agricultural land cover ($r^2 = 0.34$
252 for NO_3 and 0.50 for NH_4 , both p values < 0.01) (Fig. 4). The intensive cropping system and dense
253 population likely contribute to the 10-fold greater DIN export at the highly disturbed watersheds relative
254 to the low disturbed watersheds. While the relationship between population density and NO_3 and NH_4
255 export is very similar, NH_4 increase more dramatically than NO_3 with increases in relative agricultural
256 land cover (Fig. 4). Across the three categories of watersheds, NO_3 export increases gradually with
257 increases in both agricultural land cover and population density. By contrast, NH_4 export does not change
258 much from low to moderately disturbed watersheds (Fig. 4), but increases dramatically with increasing
259 agricultural land cover and population density in highly disturbed watersheds indicating that most of the
260 elevated NH_4 export likely comes from domestic wastewater and agricultural activities.

262 3.2 Total N input

263 Mean total annual N input increases from 4893 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ for the low disturbed watersheds,
264 6578 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ for moderately disturbed watersheds, to 16636 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ for highly disturbed
265 watershed (Table 5). Because atmospheric N deposition is in a small range across the three categories of
266 watersheds (2033-2224 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹), it could not cause the large increases in total N input from low to
267 highly disturbed watersheds. Instead the increases are mainly from fertilizer applications and human
268 emissions (Table 5). Assuming synthetic fertilizers are applied only in agriculture lands, the input of N
269 from fertilizers in each percent of agricultural land (a total of 11%, 16% and 38% in low, moderately, and
270 highly disturbed watersheds, respectively) increases only slightly from 236 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ in low
271 disturbed watersheds, 254 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ in moderately disturbed watersheds to 279 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ in

272 highly disturbed watersheds. In contrast, assuming human emissions are entirely from built-up lands the
273 input of N from human emissions of each percent of built-land increases dramatically from 24 kg-N km⁻²
274 yr⁻¹ in low disturbed watersheds, 118 kg-N km⁻² yr⁻¹ in moderately disturbed watersheds to 349 kg-N km⁻²
275 yr⁻¹ in highly disturbed watersheds. The increases in N input from per unit built-up land as its contribution
276 to total watershed area increases possibly reflect disproportional increases in population density as the
277 proportion of build-up land increases which is often associated higher degrees of urbanization. The result
278 suggests that population density control and/or the effectiveness of wastewater treatment could be
279 important control measures of N emissions and the resultant DIN export.

280 **3.3 River DIN exports in Taiwan and the world**

281 Since the 1960s global N flux from land to ocean has elevated by 2-fold (Howarth et al., 2002).
282 Regionally, it has increased by ~4-fold in the Mississippi River basin, 8-fold in northeastern U.S. and
283 more than 10-fold for the rivers draining into the North Sea (Howarth et al., 2002). Dumont et al. (2005)
284 reported that the global DIN export to coastal waters is ~25 Tg N yr⁻¹ with more than 60% stemming from
285 anthropogenic sources. Given the global land area of 120 million km², the average DIN export per unit
286 land area is 208 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹. Our estimate of the riverine DIN export for Taiwan is ~3800 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹
287 ¹, 18 times the global average. Generally, the riverine N export is strongly affected by climatic factors and
288 human activities; increasing from temperate to tropical climates and from pristine to disturbed watersheds
289 (Howarth, 1998; Smith et al., 2005; Seitzinger et al., 2005). For example, the riverine N export is 76 kg-N
290 km⁻²yr⁻¹ for the sparsely populated watersheds in northern Canada, but reaches 1450 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹ for the
291 developed watersheds of the North Sea (Howarth et al., 1996).

292 He et al. (2011) reported a positive relationship between DIN export and runoff, population density
293 and proportion of agricultural land cover at the global scale. Adding Taiwan to the global pictures reveals
294 an interesting phenomenon (Fig. 5). Globally the DIN export increases with increases in runoff and
295 Taiwan is clearly on the very high end of both runoff and DIN export. The global pattern exists regardless
296 of the large differences in the efficiency of wastewater treatment among regions and among countries of

297 the same region. Thus, in despite of the large differences in N inputs from wastewater, agriculture and
298 industrial activities, runoff still plays an important role on DIN export.

299 Interestingly, few sites in the study of global N export by He et al. (2011) have annual runoff greater
300 than 1 m yr⁻¹, while the mean runoff of the 49 watersheds in our study is 2 m yr⁻¹. High runoff is not
301 limited to Taiwan as many tropical and subtropical forested watersheds show a similar pattern. For
302 example, the forested watersheds in north Australia also have high runoff (1.96 m) and high DIN export
303 (2300 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹) (Hunter et al., 2008). Compared to the global scale variation of runoff (0.01-1.0 m),
304 the variation within Taiwan is relatively small (1.5-2.5 m), but DIN export of the 49 watersheds varies
305 largely (~900 to ~8000 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹) even compared to the global picture (~10-2000 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹)
306 (Fig. 5). Yet, even 900 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹ is on the high end of the global scale. Thus, adding Taiwan to the
307 figure of global N export fills the gap for regions with both high runoff and high DIN export.

308 Among the three factors, population density, agriculture activity and runoff, only population density
309 shows a consistent positive relationship with DIN export at both the global scale and our island scale (Fig.
310 5). Runoff is a good predictor only at the global scale and agriculture is a good predictor only at the island
311 scale (Fig. 5). The lack of predictability of runoff on DIN export in Taiwan might be due to the limited
312 variation in runoff relative to the 10-fold differences in DIN export (Fig. 5). The lack of predictability of
313 agriculture land cover on DIN export at the global scale is not surprising because differences in farming
314 practices (e.g., levels of fertilization and soil disruption) among regions could lead to very different
315 patterns of DIN export even when the proportion of agriculture land cover is similar. In general, fertilizers
316 are applied at much larger quantities in regions with intensive farming systems such as China, Taiwan,
317 and Thailand than in regions with extensive farming systems such as North America, Europe and
318 Australia. For example, in rice fields N is applied at approximately 418 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in Taiwan (~200 kg
319 ha⁻¹ for a harvest; FAO 2002), 194 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in China but only 135 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ in California, USA (Yan
320 et al., 2003). As a result of such large differences, DIN export from a watershed with 100% of rice fields
321 in North America may not be different from the export of a watershed with 32% of rice fields in East

322 Asia. Due to the differences in farming systems, the relationship between DIN export and agricultural
323 land cover is likely comparable only between regions with similar management practices (Huang et al.,
324 2012). For global assessments, the amount of N fertilizer application coupled with the proportion of
325 agricultural land cover would be necessary for predicting riverine DIN export from agriculture.

326 From the global assessment by He et al. (2011), $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ export is 10% to 100% of the total of $\text{NO}_3\text{-}$
327 and $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$ export in large rivers around the world and this range also applies to the low and moderately
328 disturbed watersheds in Taiwan (Fig. 6). However, while only one of the 49 watersheds has a NH_4 to
329 NO_3+NO_2 ratio less than 0.1, approximately 50% (16/34) of the rivers in He et al. (2011) had a ratio less
330 than 0.1. Moreover, none of the rivers in He et al. (2011) has a ratio greater than 1.0 but 10 of the highly
331 disturbed watersheds in Taiwan have a ratio greater than 1.0 and one of them even reaches 10. Globally
332 NO_3 is the predominant species of DIN export, partly because NO_3 is more stable than NH_4 , which is
333 easily oxidized or removed through the treatment processes. In the highly disturbed watersheds, the
334 average DO is $\sim 6.8 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$ for watersheds with NH_4 to NO_3+NO_2 ratio greater than 1, and $\sim 8.4 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$ for
335 the remaining watersheds suggesting that oxidation potential is important in determining NH_4 relative to
336 NO_3+NO_2 concentration in streamwater. The highly disturbed watersheds are at lower elevations that
337 have higher temperature than low and moderately disturbed watersheds and high temperatures would
338 facilitate the oxidation of NH_4 . Thus, the dominance of NH_4 in DIN export for the highly-disturbed
339 watersheds regardless of their greater NH_4 oxidation potential is likely due to high NH_4 input.

340 .
341 Using ^{15}N isotopic analysis Peng et al. (2012) found very limited NH_4 removal in upstream
342 watersheds of Taiwan and suggested that NH_4 export from these watersheds to streams is very limited.
343 Water residence time in Taiwan is, in general, very short due to the small drainage area ($< 1000 \text{ km}^2$) and
344 steep slopes ($>30\%$) and unfavorable for NH_4 removal (Halbfaß et al., 2010) because of the limited time
345 available for ammonia oxidation and/or assimilation. Thus, the very low NH_4 content in the low and
346 moderately disturbed watersheds suggests that nitrification and vegetation uptake is substantial compared

347 to mineralization in these watersheds. In contrast, our highly disturbed watersheds have high NH_4
348 concentrations and fluxes (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). Although given the high NH_4 concentrations
349 biogeochemical processes such as nitrification may transform a substantial portion of NH_4 (Venohr et al.,
350 2005), it is very likely insufficient for transforming most of the NH_4 in the highly disturbed watersheds.
351 The NH_4 concentration (over 300 μM) in the urban drainage systems of Taiwan is very high (Lee et al.,
352 2014) due to the low proportion of households connected to a sewage system. The high human emissions
353 and the short water residence time likely result in the dominance of NH_4 in downstream watersheds
354 unless effective NH_4 removal measures are applied in wastewater treatments.

355 **3.4 Riverine N export ratio**

356 Although both total N input and output increase from low to highly disturbed watersheds, the
357 increases are greater for output (from 575 to 15689 $\text{kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$) than input (from 3805 to 26668 kg-N
358 $\text{km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$) (Table 5). As a result the measured DIN export ratio increases from 0.18 (ranging from 0.05 to
359 0.20) for the low disturbed watershed, 0.27 (0.11 to 0.38) for the moderately disturbed watersheds, to 0.42
360 (0.21 to 0.73) for the highly disturbed watersheds, with an average of 0.30 (Table 5). It appears that the
361 highly disturbed watersheds have greater DIN export both in absolute quantity (per unit area) and relative
362 to N input than less disturbed watersheds. Simple linear regression models indicate that the slopes
363 between riverine DIN export and N input for the three categories are 0.06, 0.20, and 0.53 with R^2 of 0.03,
364 0.62, and 0.51 from low, moderately to highly disturbed watersheds, respectively (Fig. 7c, 7d, and 7e).
365 The regression models support that with per unit increases in N input the rise in DIN export is greater at
366 more disturbed watersheds than less disturbed watersheds. Increases of DIN output in absolute quantity
367 could be at least partially explained by greater N inputs, but other factors must have contributed to the
368 greater DIN export ratios at the more disturbed watersheds.

369 Although there is an overall increases in DIN export ratio with increases in N input, such a
370 relationship does not exist for the low disturbed watersheds in which DIN export ratio is not significantly
371 related to N input (Fig. 7b). Differences in runoff ratios are often used to explain the differences in export

372 ratios because greater runoff ratios would lead to greater DIN export ratios (Huang et al., 2012; Lin et al.,
373 2015). Watersheds with steeper slopes typically have shorter water residence time and greater runoff
374 ratios than watersheds with less steep slopes. However, regardless of the substantial differences in slope
375 steepness (53-76%) among our low disturbed watersheds, runoff and runoff ratio show very limited
376 differences among the watersheds.

377 The capacity of plant N uptake and the amount of N that can be held in the soil (e.g., NH_4 in the
378 inter-layer space of Vermiculite and Montmorillonite and N in soil humus) greatly determine ecosystem N
379 retention capacity. If N input is less than the retention capacity, then DIN export may be unrelated to N
380 input because most of the additional N input is retained within the watershed until it exceeds the retention
381 capacity. This is probably the case for our low disturbed watersheds in which the riverine DIN export is
382 $\sim 900 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ which is relatively small compared to total input of 2000 to 8000 $\text{kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$.

383 The high DIN export ratios in alpine watersheds of the Front Range of Colorado with low
384 atmospheric deposition in comparison to other regions where watersheds retain more N regardless of
385 higher N input can be used to illustrate the role of biological uptake (Campbell et al., 2000). The N export
386 ratio in alpine watersheds in Colorado ranges from 0.55 to 0.71 although atmospheric deposition was only
387 $320\text{-}550 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ (Campbell et al., 2000) and by contrast the N export ratio for Baltimore LTER
388 sites is less than 0.1 although the input of $1120 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ was much higher (Groffman et al., 2004;
389 Kaushal et al., 2008). Campbell et al. (2000) suggested that the mature alpine forests in Colorado may
390 have shown symptoms of advanced stages of nitrogen excess so that the forests have very limited
391 capacity to retain N in spite of the low atmospheric N deposition.

392 Our low disturbed watersheds, which are mainly distributed in the mountain ranges are characterized
393 by high atmospheric N input and the mean riverine DIN export ratio (0.18) is slightly less than those of
394 large rivers around the world (0.2-0.25) (Howarth et al., 2006). The low disturbed watersheds are
395 predominately covered by natural forests. Prior to the 1980s, forests were under extensive exploitation
396 island-wide, only forests in very high elevations with very limited accessibility were not heavily

397 deforested. The large scale deforestation led to serious consequences in soil and water conservation
398 including many catastrophic landslides and debris flows. Then, due to public pressure, deforestation
399 largely stopped in late 1980 and was entirely prohibited in 1991. Many low- to mid-elevation forests are
400 undergoing secondary growth. It is likely that the secondary forests are still capable of taking up large
401 amounts of N leading to the low DIN export ratio and the lack of a close relationship between N input and
402 output. If forest growth is indeed key to the low DIN export and export ratio, then reforestation could be
403 an effective management practice to reduce DIN export and therefore reduce the risk of downstream
404 eutrophication, especially if the trees are regularly harvested before the forest matures and the ability to
405 take up nutrients declines.

406 The moderately and highly disturbed watersheds show a linear relationship between DIN export and
407 total N input with a slope of 0.2 for moderately disturbed watersheds and 0.53 for highly disturbed
408 watersheds (Fig. 7d and 7e). The positive linear relationships suggest that the watersheds are unable to
409 retain most of the increased N input and the likeliness of N excess (Liu et al., 2010). The greater export
410 ratios of moderately disturbed watersheds than low disturbed watersheds most likely relate to their greater
411 agricultural land cover (16%) (compared to 11% in low disturbed watersheds) because the proportion of
412 built-up lands is similar between the two categories of watersheds. In addition, compared to the low
413 disturbed watersheds the moderately disturbed watershed have more crops that are heavily fertilized (see
414 section 3-2) and this may also contributed to their greater export ratios. Our results suggest that
415 agricultural lands have lower N retention capacity than forests. Although agricultural lands only cover a
416 small proportion of the watersheds, they have a high impact on riverine DIN export. Thus, concentrating
417 management efforts (e.g. erosion control, precision fertilization) on agricultural lands could significantly
418 reduce DIN export. The highly-disturbed watersheds had much larger DIN export ratios than the
419 moderately disturbed watersheds, likely a result of higher population density and agriculture intensity.

420 The considerable variation of export ratios, 0.21-0.73, of the highly disturbed watersheds may result
421 from their differences in wastewater treatment efficiencies and cropping systems. In addition, the very

422 high DIN export ratios in the highly disturbed watersheds suggest that the N input is transported by
423 riverine systems very efficiently and as such the eutrophication threat is high downstream. The high
424 export ratios also suggest that the highly disturbed watersheds are probably at more advanced stages of N
425 excess and that the current removal processes (e.g. denitrification, vegetation uptake) cannot compensate
426 for the increasing N additions (Downing et al., 1999). Additionally, recent studies report increases in
427 rainfall intensity in Taiwan as a result of recent climate change (Huang et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2009).
428 Increases of rainfall intensity would shorten water residence time and therefore further enhance riverine
429 DIN export. Thus, increasing the proportion of households connected to sewage systems and improving
430 the effectiveness of new and existing systems would probably be the most effective measure to reduce
431 riverine DIN export in Taiwan and other regions with high population densities.
432

4. Concluding remarks

We characterized riverine DIN export of subtropical watersheds in Taiwan using a total of 49 watersheds classified as low-, moderately-, and highly-disturbed based on population densities (from < 20 to > 200 cap km⁻²). The average riverine DIN export is ~ 3800 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹, approximately 18 times the global average and is attributable to the high runoff, high atmospheric N deposition, intensive crop systems, and high human emissions. Because the runoff vary only by two fold and atmospheric deposition vary less than 30%, the ~ 10 times greater DIN export of highly disturbed watersheds (8000 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹), compared to low disturbed watersheds (900 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹) likely results from their differences in inputs from agricultural lands, human emissions and watershed N retention capacity. Nitrate is the dominant N species for large rivers around the world and our low and moderately disturbed watersheds, whereas NH₄ is the dominant species in the highly-disturbed watersheds possibly due to high human emissions and the short water residence time, which is unfavorable for ammonia removal processes. The high N export poses a risk of eutrophication to downstream ecosystems including coastal waters.

Our averaged riverine DIN export ratios, 0.30-0.51, are higher than those (0.2-0.25) of many major rivers around the globe. Even the low-disturbed watersheds have very high atmospheric N input (2200 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹). However, they only export 6-18% of the N input implying that the watersheds have high N use efficiency and/or retention capacity possibly due to uptake by the still growing secondary forests. The moderately disturbed watersheds export 20-27% of the total N input (3330 - 15315 kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹). The positive linear relationship between DIN export and total N input indicates the degradation of nitrogen retention capacity and symptoms of nitrogen excess. The riverine DIN export ratios of the highly-disturbed watersheds are very high (0.42-0.53) and could be attributed to synergistic effects of high population density and agricultural activities. The high N export ratios indicate that the human-associated N inputs are transported to riverine systems very efficiently and that the systems may be in advanced stages of N excess. The result also indicates that current in-stream removal processes (e.g.

457 denitrification and uptake) cannot effectively reduce riverine N export. Increasing the proportion of
458 households connected to sewage systems and improving the effectiveness of the sewage systems are
459 important considerations for reducing N export.

460

461 **Acknowledgements**

462 This study was sponsored by NSC Taiwan grants (NSC 103-2116-M-002-020, 102-2923-M-002-001-
463 MY3, 103-2621-M-002-016) and the project ECATA (grant number I 1396) funded by FWF (the Austrian
464 Science Fund).

465

References

- Aber, J. D., Nadelhoffer, K. J., Steudler, P., and Melillo, J. M.: Nitrogen Saturation in Northern Forest Ecosystems, *Bioscience*, 39, 378-386, 1989.
- Aber, J. D., McDowell, W., Nadelhoffer, K., Magill, A., Berntson, G., Kamakea, M., McNulty, S., Currie, W., Rustad, L., and Fernandez, I.: Nitrogen saturation in temperate forest ecosystems - Hypotheses revisited, *Bioscience*, 48, 921-934, 1998.
- Alexander, R.B., Smith, R.A., Schwarz, G.E.: Effect of stream channel size on the delivery of nitrogen to the Gulf of Mexico, *Nature*, 403, 758-761, 2000.
- American Public Health Association, American Water Works Association & Water Pollution Control Federation. Standard method for the examination water and wastewater, 22nd., Method 4500-NO3-I, pp. 4-129~4-131, APHA, Washington, DC., USA, 2012.
- Bouwman, A. F., Bierkens, M. F. P., Griffioen, J., Hefting, M. M., Middelburg, J. J., Middelkoop, H., and Slomp, C. P.: Nutrient dynamics, transfer and retention along the aquatic continuum from land to ocean: towards integration of ecological and biogeochemical models, *Biogeosciences*, 10, 1-22, 2013.
- Brown, L. R., Cuffney, T. F., Coles, J. F., Fitzpatrick, F., McMahon, G., Steuer, J., Bell, A. H., and May, J. T.: Urban streams across the USA: lessons learned from studies in 9 metropolitan areas, *J. N. Am. Benthol. Soc.*, 28, 1051-1069, 2009.
- Campbell, D. H., Baron, J. S., Tonnessen, K. A., Brooks, P. D., and Schuster, P. F.: Controls on nitrogen flux in alpine/subalpine watersheds of Colorado, *Water Resour. Res.*, 36, 37-47, 2000.
- Conley, D. J., Paerl, H. W., Howarth, R. W., Boesch, D. F., Seitzinger, S. P., Havens, K. E., Lancelot, C., and Likens, G. E.: Controlling eutrophication: nitrogen and phosphorus, *Science*, 323, 1014-1015, 2009.
- Dumont, E., Harrison, J. A., Kroeze, C., Bakker, E. J., and Seitzinger, S. P.: Global distribution and

490 sources of dissolved inorganic nitrogen export to the coastal zone: Results from a spatially explicit,
491 global model, *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 19, GB4S02, 2005.

492 Environmental Protection Administration (E.P.A): Environmental Water Quality Information.
493 <http://wq.epa.gov.tw/>, Accessed Date: 2013-08-21, Environmental Protection Administration,
494 Executive Yuan, R.O.C. (Taiwan).

495 Food and Agriculture Organization: Fertilizer use by crop in Taiwan Province of China, Rome, 2002.

496 Fitzpatrick, F. A., Harris, M. A., Arnold, T. L., and Richards, K. D.: Urbanization influences on aquatic
497 communities in northeastern Illinois streams, *J. Am. Water Resour. Assoc.*, 40, 461-475, 2004.

498 Galloway, J. N., Dentener, F. J., Capone, D. G., Boyer, E. W., Howarth, R. W., Seitzinger, S. P., Asner, G.
499 P., Cleveland, C. C., Green, P. A., Holland, E. A., Karl, D. M., Michaels, A. F., Porter, J. H.,
500 Townsend, A. R., and Vörosmary, C. J.: Nitrogen cycles: past, present, and future,
501 *Biogeochemistry*, 70, 153-226, 2004.

502 Galloway, J. N., Townsend, A. R., Erisman, J. W., Bekunda, M., Cai, Z. C., Freney, J. R., Martinelli, L.
503 A., Seitzinger, S. P., and Sutton, M. A.: Transformation of the nitrogen cycle: Recent trends,
504 questions, and potential solutions, *Science*, 320, 889-892, 2008.

505 Gao, W., Howarth, R. W., Hong, B., Swaney, D. P., and Guo, H. C.: Estimating net anthropogenic
506 nitrogen inputs (NANI) in the Lake Dianchi basin of China, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 4577-4586, 2014.

507 Groffman, P. M., Law, N. L., Belt, K. T., Band, L. E., and Fisher, G. T.: Nitrogen Fluxes and Retention in
508 Urban Watershed Ecosystems, *Ecosystems*, 7, 393-403, 2004.

509 Gruber, N. and Galloway, J. N.: An Earth-system perspective of the global nitrogen cycle, *Nature*, 451,
510 293-296, 2008.

511 Halbfaß, S., Gebel, M., and Bürger, S.: Modelling of long term nitrogen retention in surface waters, *Adv.*
512 *Geosci.*, 27, 145-148, 2010.

513 He, B., Kanae, S., Oki, T., Hirabayashi, Y., Yamashiki, Y., and Takara, K.: Assessment of global nitrogen
514 pollution in rivers using an integrated biogeochemical modeling framework, *Water Res.*, 45, 2573-

515 2586, 2011.

516 Howarth, R. W., Billen, G., Swaney, D., Townsend, A., Jaworski, N., Lajtha, K., Downing, J. A., Elmgren,
517 R., Caraco, N., Jordan, T., Berendse, F., Freney, J., Kudeyarov, V., Murdoch, P., and Zhu, Z. L.:
518 Regional nitrogen budgets and riverine N&P fluxes for the drainages to the North Atlantic Ocean:
519 Natural and human influences, *Biogeochemistry*, 35, 75-139, 1996.

520 Howarth, R. W.: An assessment of human influences on fluxes of nitrogen from the terrestrial landscape
521 to the estuaries and continental shelves of the North Atlantic Ocean, *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys.*, 52,
522 213-223, 1998.

523 Howarth, R. W., Sharpley, A., and Walker, D.: Sources of nutrient pollution to coastal waters in the United
524 States: Implications for achieving coastal water quality goals, *Estuaries*, 25, 656-676, 2002.

525 Howarth, R. W., Swaney, D. P., Boyer, E. W., Marino, R., Jaworski, N., and Goodale, C.: The influence of
526 climate on average nitrogen export from large watersheds in the Northeastern United States,
527 *Biogeochemistry*, 79, 163-186, 2006.

528 Hsu, S.C., Tsai, F.J., Lin, F.J., Chen, W.N., Shiah, F.K., Huang, J.C., Chan, C.Y., Chen, C.C., Liu, T.H.,
529 Chen, H.Y., Tseng, C.M., Hung, G.W., Huang, C.H., Lin, S.H., Huang, Y.T.: A super Asian dust
530 storm over the East and South China Seas: Disproportionate dust deposition, *Journal of*
531 *Geophysical Research – Atmosphere*, 118, 7169-7181, doi:10.1002/jgrd.50405, 2013.

532 Huang, J. C., Lee, T. Y., Kao, S. J., Hsu, S. C., Lin, H. J., and Peng, T. R.: Land use effect and
533 hydrological control on nitrate yield in subtropical mountainous watersheds, *Hydrol. Earth Syst.*
534 *Sci.*, 16, 699-714, 2012.

535 Huang, J. C., Lee, T. Y., and Lee, J. Y.: Observed magnified runoff response to rainfall intensification
536 under global warming, *Environ. Res. Lett.*, 9, 034008, 2014.

537 Hunter, H. M. and Walton, R. S.: Land-use effects on fluxes of suspended sediment, nitrogen and
538 phosphorus from a river catchment of the Great Barrier Reef, Australia, *J. Hydrol.*, 356, 131-146,
539 2008.

540 Hutchison, J. S. and Henry, H. L.: Additive Effects of Warming and Increased Nitrogen Deposition in a
541 Temperate Old Field: Plant Productivity and the Importance of Winter, *Ecosystems*, 13, 661-672,
542 2010.

543 Jeuken, A., Veefkind, J. P., Dentener, F., Metzger, S., and Gonzalez, C. R.: Simulation of the aerosol
544 optical depth over Europe for August 1997 and a comparison with observations, *J. Geophys. Res.-*
545 *Atmos.*, 106, 28295-28311, 2001.

546 Kaushal, S.S., P.M. Groffman, L.E. Band, C.A. Shields, R.P. Morgan, M.A. Palmer, K.T. Belt, G. T.
547 Fisher, C.M. Swan, and S.E.G. Findlay.: Interaction between urbanization and climate variability
548 amplifies watershed nitrate export in Maryland, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 42, 5872–5878, 2008.

549 Lee, T. Y., Shih, Y. T., Huang, J. C., Kao, S. J., Shiah, F. K., and Liu, K. K.: Speciation and dynamics of
550 dissolved inorganic nitrogen export in the Danshui River, Taiwan, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 5307-5321,
551 2014.

552 Lelieveld, J. and Dentener, F. J.: What controls tropospheric ozone?, *J. Geophys. Res.-Atmos.*, 105, 3531-
553 3551, 2000.

554 Lin, T. C., Shaner, P. L., Wang, L. J., Shih, Y. T., Wang, C. P., Huang, G. H., and Huang, J. C.: Effects of
555 mountain agriculture on nutrient cycling at upstream watersheds, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci. Discuss.*,
556 12, 4785-4811, 2015.

557 Liu, S. C., Fu, C. B., Shiu, C. J., Chen, J. P., and Wu, F. T.: Temperature dependence of global
558 precipitation extremes, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 36, L17702, 2009.

559 Liu, J., You, L., Amini, M., Obersteiner, M., Herrero, M., Zehnder, A. J. B., and Yangd, H.: A high-
560 resolution assessment on global nitrogen flows in cropland, *PNAS*, 107, 8035-8040, 2010.

561 McCrackin, M.L., Harrison, J.A., Compton, J.E.: Factors influencing export of dissolved inorganic
562 nitrogen by major rivers: A new, seasonal, spatially explicit, global model, *Global Biogeochemical*
563 *Cycles*, 28, doi:10.1002/2013GB004723, 2014.

564 Ohara, T., Akimoto, H., Kurokawa, J., Horii, N., Yamaji, K., Yan, X., and Hayasaka, T.: An Asian

565 emission inventory of anthropogenic emission sources for the period 1980–2020, *Atmos.*
566 *Chem. Phys.*, 7, 4419-4444, 2007.

567 Peng, T. R., Lin, H. J., Wang, C. H., Liu, T. S., and Kao, S. J.: Pollution and variation of stream nitrate in
568 a protected high-mountain watershed of Central Taiwan: evidence from nitrate concentration and
569 nitrogen and oxygen isotope compositions, *Environ. Monit. Assess.*, 184, 4985-4998, 2012.

570 Peterson, B. J., Wollheim, W. M., Mulholland, P. J., Webster, J. R., Meyer, J. L., Tank, J. L., Marti, E.,
571 Bowden, W. B., Valett, H. M., Hershey, A. E., McDowell, W. H., Dodds, W. K., Hamilton, S. K.,
572 Gregory, S., and Morrall, D. D.: Control of nitrogen export from watersheds by headwater streams,
573 *Science*, 292, 86-90, 2001.

574 Rockstrom, J., Steffen, W., Noone, K., Persson, A., Chapin, F. S., Lambin, E. F., Lenton, T. M., Scheffer,
575 M., Folke, C., Schellnhuber, H. J., Nykvist, B., de Wit, C. A., Hughes, T., van der Leeuw, S.,
576 Rodhe, H., Sorlin, S., Snyder, P. K., Costanza, R., Svedin, U., Falkenmark, M., Karlberg, L.,
577 Corell, R. W., Fabry, V. J., Hansen, J., Walker, B., Liverman, D., Richardson, K., Crutzen, P., and
578 Foley, J. A.: A safe operating space for humanity, *Nature*, 461, 472-475, 2009.

579 Seitzinger, S. P., Harrison, J. A., Dumont, E., Beusen, A. H. W., and Bouwman, A. F.: Sources and
580 delivery of carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus to the coastal zone: An overview of Global Nutrient
581 Export from Watersheds (NEWS) models and their application, *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 19,
582 GB4S01, 2005.

583 Smith, S. V., Swaney, D. P., Buddemeier, R. W., Scarsbrook, M. R., Weatherhead, M. A., Humborg, C.,
584 Eriksson, H., and Hannerz, F.: River nutrient loads and catchment size, *Biogeochemistry*, 75, 83-
585 107, 2005.

586 Sullivan, B.W., Smith, W.K., Townsend, A.R., Nasto, M.K., Reed, S.C., Chazdon, R.L., Cleveland, C.C.,
587 Spatially robust estimates of biological nitrogen (N) fixation imply substantial human alteration of
588 the tropical N cycle. *PNAS*, vol. 111(22): 8101-8106, 2014.

589

590 Sutton, M. A., Dragosits, U., Tang, Y. S., and Fowler, D.: Ammonia emissions from non-agricultural
591 sources in the UK, *Atmos. Environ.*, 34, 855-869, 2000.

592 Townsend, A.R., Martinelli, L. A., Howarth, R.W. The global nitrogen cycle, biodiversity, and human
593 health. In: Sala OE, Meyerson LA (eds) *Biodiversity change and human health*. Island Press,
594 Washington, DC, pp 159–179.

595 Tu, J.: Combined impact of climate and land use changes on streamflow and water quality in eastern
596 Massachusetts, USA, *J. Hydrol.*, 379, 268-283, 2009.

597 Van Drecht, G., Bouwman, A. F., Harrison, J., and Knoop, J. M.: Global nitrogen and phosphate in urban
598 wastewater for the period 1970 to 2050, *Global Biogeochem. Cy.*, 23, GB-A03, 2009.

599 Venohr, M., Donohue, I., Fogelberg, S., Arheimer, B., Irvine, K., and Behrendt, H.: Nitrogen retention in
600 a river system and the effects of river morphology and lakes, *Water Sci. Technol.*, 51, 19-29, 2005.

601 Vitousek, P. M., Aber, J. D., Howarth, R. W., Likens, G. E., Matson, P. A., Schindler, D. W., Schlesinger,
602 W. H., and Tilman, D. G.: Human alteration of the global nitrogen cycle: sources and
603 consequences, *Ecol Appl*, 7, 737-750, 1997.

604 Yan, X., Akimoto, H., and Ohara, T.: Estimation of nitrous oxide, nitric oxide and ammonia emissions
605 from croplands in East, Southeast and South Asia, *Global Change Biol.*, 9, 1080-1096, 2003.

606

607

608

Table 1. Crop area and yield and estimated quantities of fertilizers used in Taiwan (from FAO, 2002)*

Crop	Harvested area (ha)	Average yield (kg/ha)	Est. quantities of fertilizers used** (ton)		
			N	P ₂ O ₅	K ₂ O
Paddy and rice	353065	10646	41793	15314	16462
Maize (fodder & sweet)	34854	11970	3485	2440	1742
Groundnut	26495	2535	539	1192	1060
Sugar cane	30657	81337	6438	1073	2146
Tea	19142	1103	8040	2680	2680
Bamboo shoot	29819	12030	14910	3727	5069
Watermelon	19720	19685	3550	2366	3944
Banana	8961	23718	2216	1090	4433
Pineapple	7340	47474	2422	440	1321
Mango	18700	11065	449	299	673
Litchi	10530	9385	316	211	284

609

*Only the primary crops are listed

610

** The fertilizer amount are suggested by COA (Council of Agriculture, Taiwan) which surveys the crop

611

plantation and declares the suggested values for farmers

612

613

614

Table 2. Watershed environmental settings of the three categories of watersheds

category	number	N deposition (kg-N/km ²)	Area (km ²)	Runoff (mm)	Avg. slope (%)	DD* (km ⁻¹)	Pop. Den. (cap/km ²)
Low disturbed	16	2224 (369)	592 (486)	2250 (554)	66.3 (5.6)	1.35 (0.05)	11.4 (4.2)
Moderately disturbed	15	2030 (458)	1030 (913)	2420 (638)	55.3 (7.6)	1.40 (0.10)	55.2 (22.2)
Highly disturbed	18	2200 (352)	379 (462)	2270 (542)	29.1 (14.0)	1.63 (0.18)	598 (586)

615

*DD: Drainage density defined as the total stream length over drainage area, the unit is (km⁻¹)

616

The values and the parentheses indicate the means and the standard deviations of the individual category

617

618

619

Table 3. Relative land cover composition of the three categories of watersheds

category	Forest	Built-up	Agriculture				
			total	paddy	crops	orchard	bamboo
Low	0.87	0.03	0.11	0.0	0.05	0.05	0.01
disturbed	(0.06)	(0.01)	(0.08)	N/A	(0.06)	(0.03)	(0.01)
Moderately	0.81	0.03	0.16	0.02	0.05	0.08	0.02
disturbed	(0.11)	(0.01)	(0.10)	(0.03)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.04)
Highly	0.51	0.11	0.38	0.06	0.09	0.23	0.08
disturbed	(0.22)	(0.05)	(0.19)	(0.08)	(0.06)	(0.13)	(0.11)

620 Parentheses indicate the standard deviation of the individual category

621 N/A: No paddy in the low-disturbed watersheds

622 Note that the national land use classification put bamboo field as part of the forest cover but farmers use
623 fertilizers for their bamboo fields so that they also appear in the Agriculture part in the table.

624

625

626

627

Table 4. Mean annual NO₃, NH₄ and DIN concentrations and riverine fluxes of the three categories of watersheds between 2002 and 2012.

category	NO ₃		NH ₄		DIN	
	conc.	flux	conc.	flux	conc.	flux
Low disturbed	23.8 (9.9)	725 (243)	5.60 (3.20)	169 (86.8)	29.9 (11.0)	909 (285)
Moderately disturbed	50.2 (31.1)	1600 (854)	5.70 (2.80)	182 (87.9)	56.9 (31.5)	1820 (854)
Highly disturbed	99.6 (42.9)	3240 (1580)	214 (205)	4340 (3700)	329 (216)	8020 (4200)

628

Parentheses indicate the standard deviation of the individual category

629

Unit for concentration and flux are μM and kg-N/km², respectively

630

631

632

633

Table 5. Nitrogen inputs, riverine output and riverine export ratios of the three categories of watersheds.

	Low-disturbed	Moderate-disturbed	Highly-disturbed	All watersheds
Atmospheric deposition	2220	2030	2200	2160
Synthetic fertilizer	2600	4190	10600	6020
¹ Human emission	73.4	354	3840	1540
Total input	4900	6580	16600	9720
Riverine DIN output	909	1820	8020	3800
² Averaged export ratio	0.18	0.27	0.42	0.30
³ Regressive export ratio	0.06	0.20	0.53	0.51

634

Unit for inputs and output is kg-N km⁻²yr⁻¹

635

1. Human emissions are calculated from per capita emissions using GDP-based estimation proposed by

636

Van Drecht et al. (2009).

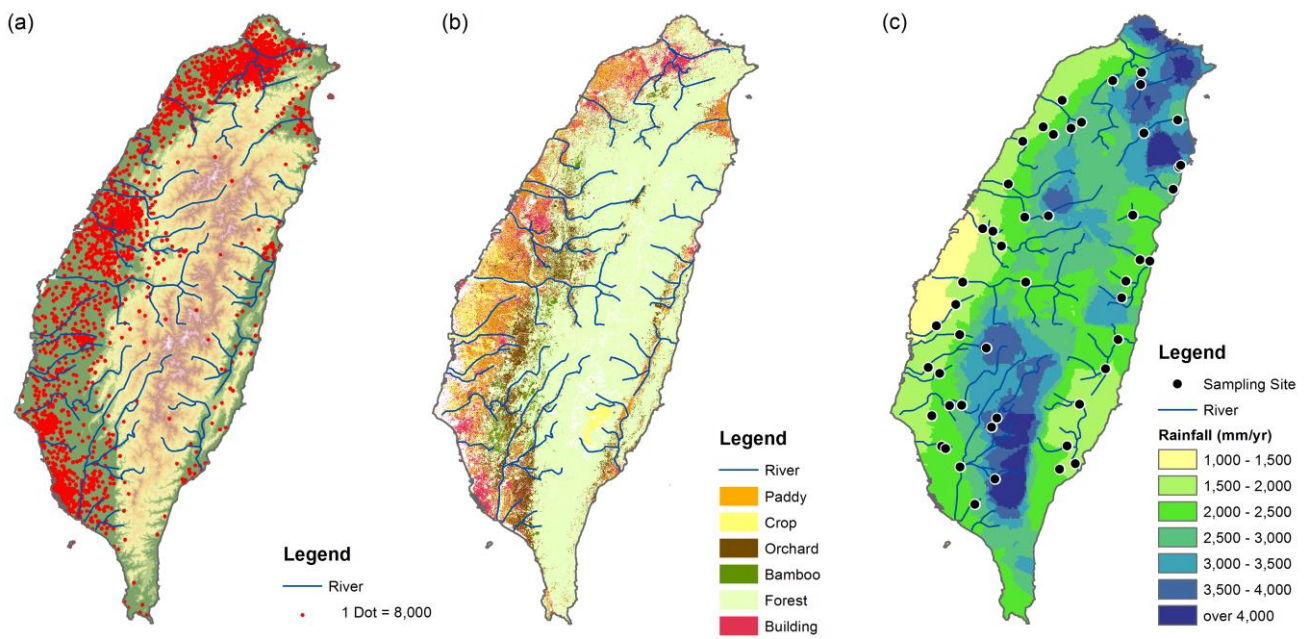
637

2. Averaged export ratio is the arithmetical mean of the export ratios in the category.

638

3. Regressive export ratio indicates the regressive slope of DIN output with DIN input in the category.

639



640

641 **Figure 1.** Three maps of Taiwan to show the population density (a), land cover (b), and mean annual

642 rainfall (c). The annual rainfall dataset is provided from water resources agency during 2002-2012.

643 Population dataset is derived from county census from Ministry of Interior. Land cover dataset is

644 distributed by Ministry of Interior in 2006.

645

646

647

Figure 2 consists of two maps. Map (a) is a regional map of eastern Asia, showing N deposition fluxes in kg-N/km². The map covers the area from 100°E to 130°E and 20°N to 45°N. It shows high deposition rates (red/orange) over central China and lower rates (blue/cyan) over the Pacific Ocean. Map (b) is a detailed map of Taiwan, showing topography and N deposition fluxes. The map covers the area from 119°0'E to 122°30'E and 22°0'N to 25°0'N. It shows topographic contours and N deposition fluxes at various locations, with values ranging from 1378 to 3882 kg-N/km². A scale bar and a north arrow are also present in map (b).

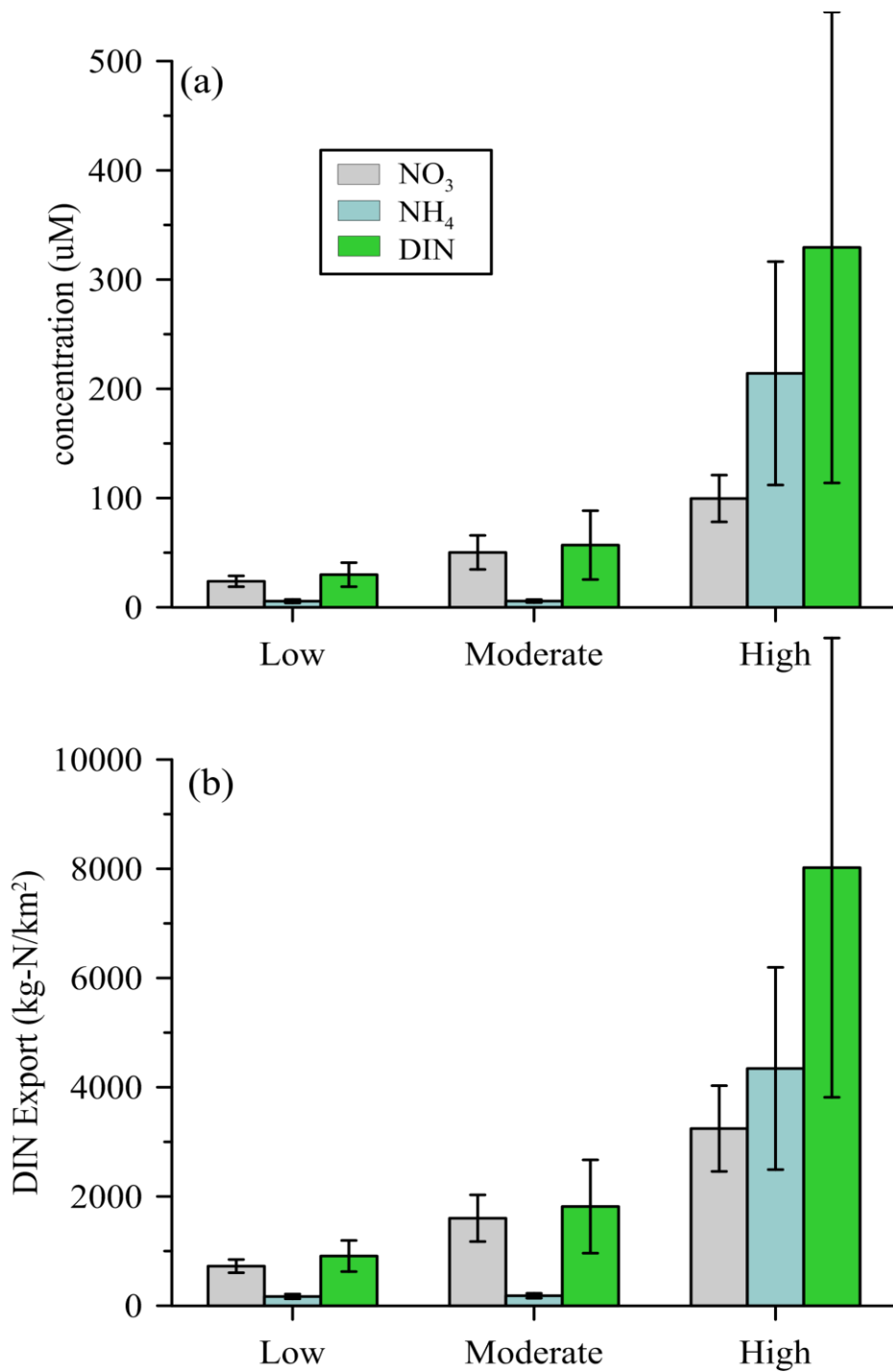
648

649

650 **Figure 2.** Atmospheric N deposition in eastern Asia (dataset: from ORNL DAAC, NASA,
 651 <http://daac.ornl.gov>) (a). This dataset was generated using a global three-dimensional chemistry-transport
 652 model (Lelieveld and Dentener, 2000; Jeuken et al., 2001 re-sampled to 1 degree \times 1 degree). The
 653 observational long-term N deposition (including NO₃ and NH₄) in Taiwan (Lin NH, unpublished data)
 654 (b). The observed wet deposition is used to estimate the dry deposition by an empirical factor of 0.4 based
 655 on (Lin NH, unpublished data).

656

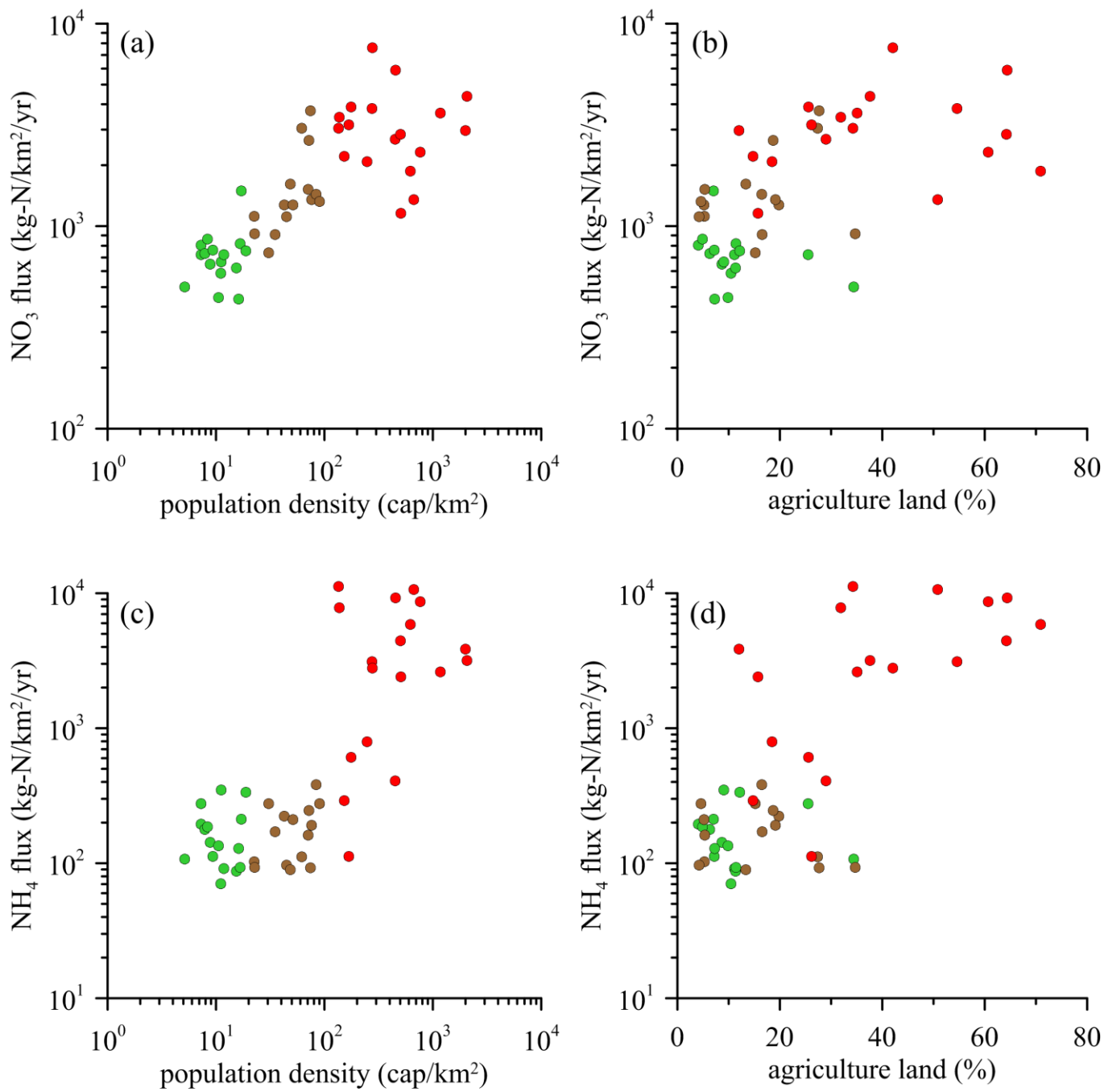
35



657

658

659 **Figure 3.** Mean riverine DIN concentration (a) and annual export (b) of the low, moderately and highly
 660 disturbed watersheds during 2002-2012. The gray, sky blue, and green bars represent the NO_3 , NH_4 , and
 661 DIN of the three classes. Standard deviation for each bar is given as well.



662

663

664

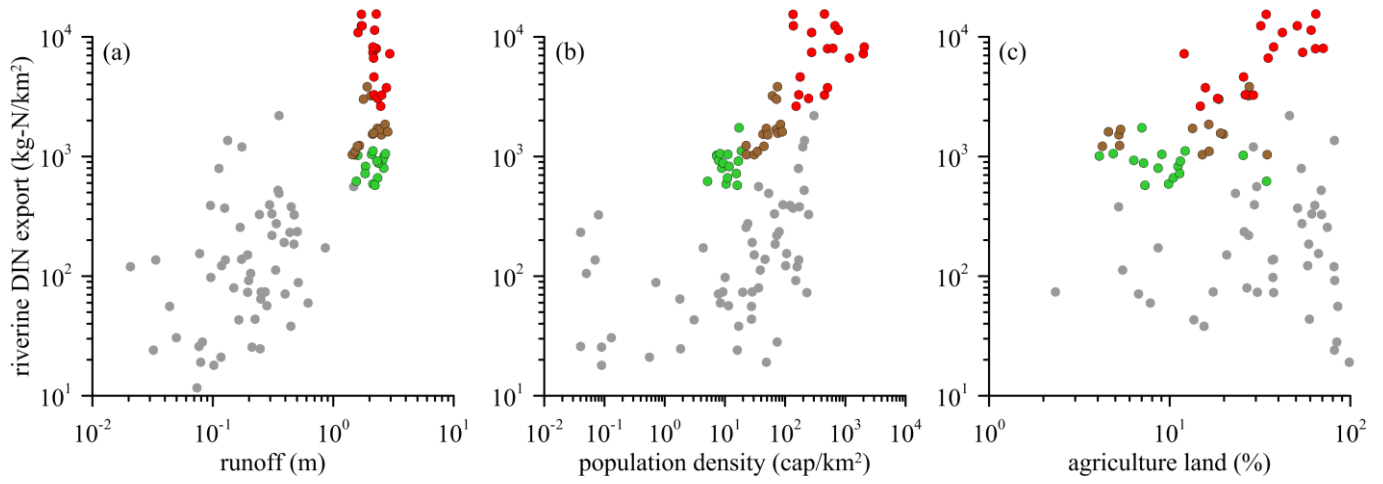
665

666

667

668

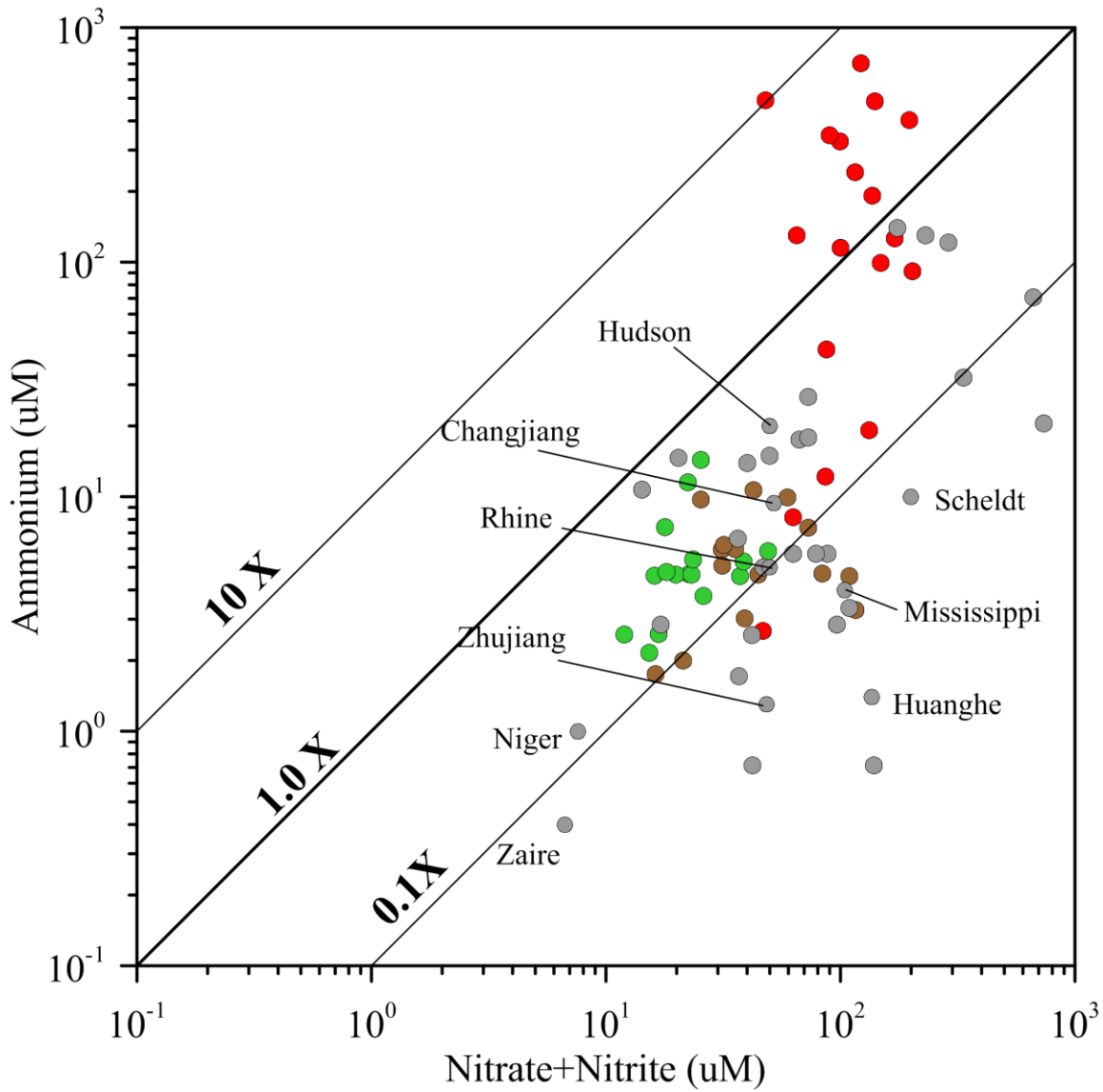
Figure 4. Scatter plot of NO₃ and NH₄ export associated with population density (a) and (b), and relative agricultural land cover (c) and (d). The green, brown, and red dots show the low, moderately, and highly disturbed watersheds, respectively. The *r*-squared values for (a), (b), (c) and (d) are 0.19, 0.34, 0.18, and 0.50 with *p* values < 0.01, respectively.



669
670

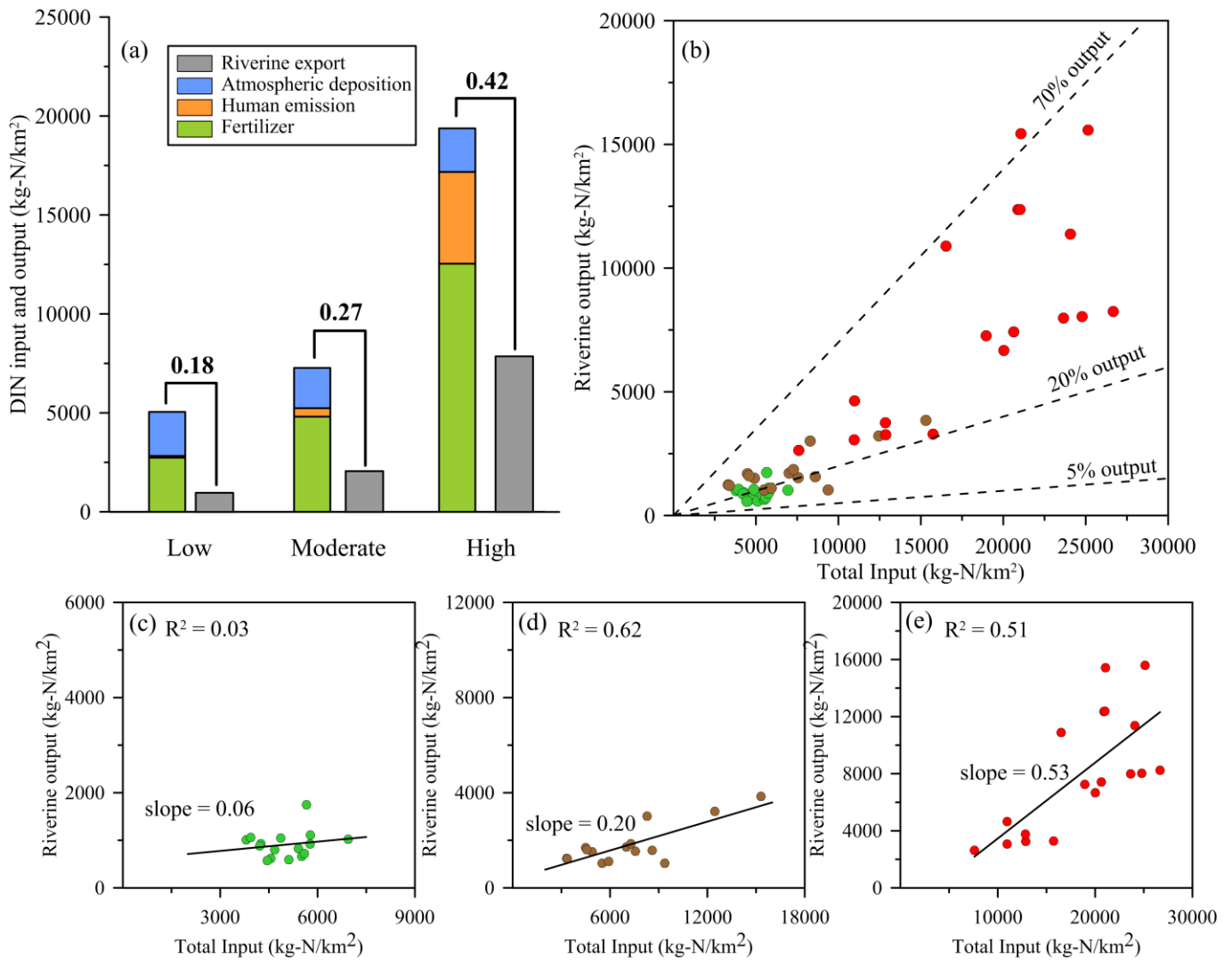
671 **Figure 5.** Scatter plot of riverine DIN export associated with runoff (a), population density (b), and
 672 relative agricultural land cover (c). The gray dots represent the global river data retrieved from He et al.
 673 (2011). The green, brown, and red dots show the low, moderately, and highly disturbed watersheds,
 674 respectively.

675



676
 677
 678
 679
 680
 681

Figure 6. The DIN composition of large rivers around the world (He et al., 2011) and the 49 rivers in Taiwan. The green, brown, and red dots represent the rivers of the low, moderately and highly disturbed watersheds



682

683 **Figure 7.** Nitrogen input and riverine output in the low, moderately and highly disturbed watersheds (a).

684 Riverine DIN export against the total nitrogen input (b). The regressive slope of riverine output for the

685 low disturbed (green dots)(c), moderately (brown dots)(d), and highly disturbed (red dots)(e) watersheds.

686

687