

## Point-by-point response to reviewers' comments

W. Zhang

This paper has two merits: The first one is to provide information about one of the highly populated watersheds in the world, with a tremendous level of N contamination. The fact that about 30%-50% of human-induced N would be ended in rivers. That is extremely interesting, given that different findings have been achieved when we compared with similar research in other watersheds. The second one is that the authors can enhance our understanding of factors controlling riverine N exports through the comparison among different watershed groups. Overall, I enjoyed reading this paper and believe that it will make a nice contribution to Biogeosciences.

### **Reply:**

We appreciate that the reviewer recognized the merits of our study. Indeed, it's very surprising that the low-disturbed (semi-pristine) watersheds can retain most of the nitrogen, even when the atmospheric N input reaches as high as  $2000 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ . For moderately-disturbed (agricultural-dominated) watersheds, the intensive fertilizer application which is common in Southeast Asia is very likely a challenging issue in the near future. The good relationship between agricultural area and DIN export, comparing with the other watersheds in the world, clearly indicates that the non-point source pollution is more severe in this than other regions. The extremely high riverine DIN export and the high  $\text{NH}_4:\text{NO}_3$  ratio in the highly-disturbed watersheds indicate that the limited wastewater treatment and incomplete sewer drainage system cannot effectively remove DIN from the water and thus pose the potential risk of eutrophication.

However, the methodology used in the study is a little bit different from previous studies, although the discussion is sufficient and the conclusion is noteworthy. In this study, atmospheric N deposition, fertilizer N and human emission was summed as total N input. But this method could be subjected to high error. The commonly used method is NANI methodology, which was proposed by Howarth et al., (1996). NANI has been widely accepted as almost complete inventory for calculating human-induced N. NANI sums N contributions from atmospheric deposition, fertilizer application, agricultural biological fixation, and net import/export of N in food and feed to a watershed. To me, I think your N inventory is incomplete, and hence calculated N input could be underestimated. If N accounting method of this paper is quite different from other studies, how much confidence do we have with the extremely high value of 30%-50%? I would not prefer to argue whether your

methodology is suitable or not, but more discusses on the method should be guaranteed. Below, I provide some suggestions for your further consideration:

(1) I cannot quite understand why you exclude N inputs of biological N fixation, food and feed imports and/or livestock excretion (usually, livestock N excretion was incorporated with the estimate of food & feed imports). Can you explain more on this? I can give you more evidence for your further consideration:

(a) As you have mentioned in the paper, many of these watersheds are dominated by forestland and/or cropland. The land cover type is a little bit similar to northeastern U.S.A.. Boyer et al. (2002) had addressed that biological N fixation could be as high as 30% of total N inputs. However, one should be cautious because of the high uncertainties in the estimate of biological N fixation (Sobota et al., 2013). But this really implies that biological N fixation cannot be just omitted.

(b) As a curious idea, I have checked the imported food from other countries in Taiwan. High amount of food (e.g., more than 1 million tons of wheat) was imported annually. In part, this number addresses that N inputs through this source should be significant. You can refer: <http://faostat3.fao.org/browse/T/TP/E>. More evidence could be seen in other similar watersheds. For example, in Huai River Basin of P.R. China (Zhang et al., 2015), which is also highly populated watershed, about 70% of land cover in this watershed is cropland. Even so, this watershed was still relied on food and feed import. Hence, I believe food and feed imported N may be also significant in Taiwan.

(c) You should mention more on why you exclude feed N (i.e., livestock excretion N). The number is expected to be very small? Can you provide more evidence?

**Reply:**

We are glad to receive the professional comments raised by the reviewer, which would certainly help us to improve the discussion and strengthen our conclusion. In this review report, the reviewer proposed to use the NANI approach (or model) to complete the N budget, particularly for biological N fixation and net import/export of N in food and feed. First of all, there are many modeling approaches focusing on the N budget at watershed scale, such as NANI, GLOBAL\_NEWs, and SPRROW etc. Modeling the N budget is the next step in our study in this subject. However, here we focused on the data compilation and investigation of factors controlling DIN export in the subtropical mountainous region which should be highlighted in global syntheses. For N inputs, it is well recognized that atmospheric N deposition, natural biological N fixation, fertilizer application/agricultural biological fixation, human emission, and livestock excretion are the main N sources. Basically, NANI sums human emission and livestock excretion in the calculation of net import/export of N in food and feed.

Therefore, the reviewer suggested us to elaborate the biological N fixation, net import/export of N in food and feed, respectively. Below, we addressed the 3 points raised by Dr. Zhang.

**For biological N fixation (BNF):**

We added the following statements to the revised manuscript to clarify our considerations of BNF.

*“For biological nitrogen fixation (BNF), there are two types of BNF, agricultural BNF and natural BNF. Agricultural BNF could be a significant N source. For example, Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) can fix 21800 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (McIsaac et al., 2002) which is comparable with that from synthetic fertilizers. A local survey also indicates that the amount of N from green manure crops is close to the amount of synthetic fertilizers commonly applied in the fields and farmers typically do not use synthetic fertilizers following the growth of green manure crops ([http://www.tndais.gov.tw/search\\_wg.php](http://www.tndais.gov.tw/search_wg.php)). Quality data of agricultural BNF in Taiwan is incomplete and cannot be confidently compiled at an island-wide scale. Therefore, we assume that the agricultural BNF equals the amount of synthetic fertilizers used and it is already included in our calculation of N input from fertilizers. For natural BNF, a global synthesis indicates that natural BNF in forest ecosystems varies from 1600 in temperate region to 2500 kg N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in tropical region (Cleveland et al., 1999). However, a recent study indicates that BNF in tropical and subtropical regions is not significant and may be overestimated by more than 5 times in previous studies (Sullivan et al., 2014). The study proposes that natural BNF in tropical forests should be less than 600 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. Using this new estimate, the natural BNF would account for less than 5% of the total N input in our study so that it is not included in our analysis.”*

**For Net N import/export:**

As the reviewer pointed out, food import/export is an important source for calculating N export in NANI approach. Taking net food flow into account is a good way for estimating human emissions in country scale. However, it is very difficult to re-allocate or track the imported foods at to individual watersheds (Swaney et al., 2015). Moreover, food amount is a good surrogate of N export when mainly considering human physiologic responses, but is likely an incomplete estimate for export from human activities (e.g. vehicle combustion and energy consumption). The GDP-based approach proposed by Van Drecht et al. (2009) is also a reasonable alternative surrogate of human activities. We addressed this issue in the section of methodology

for clarification.

*“N input from human emissions, which are a main source of riverine N, is calculated using a GPD-based estimation proposed by Van Drecht et al. (2009) for per capita N emissions. The average GDP of Taiwan during 2002-2012 is ~30000 US dollars and the per capita human N emissions are ~6.42 kg-N cap<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> following the GDP-based estimation. The population size from county-based censuses is converted to county-based population density and then used to estimate the total human emissions. Similar to the calculation of fertilizers used in each watershed, the watershed polygons are used to calculate human emissions for each watershed.”*

### **For Livestock excretion:**

We agreed that livestock excretion N is an important source in the temperate region where the cattle and swine are the main sources of protein, because per capita N excretion from livestock excretion is very high, particularly for cattle. We added the following information to the revised manuscript to address this issue.

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

Table 1 The number and density of cattle, cows, and swine in Taiwan, US, and China (unit: million), from: <http://www.indexmundi.com/agriculture>

Country (area, 1000 km <sup>2</sup> )	cattle	cows	Density (cap km <sup>-2</sup> )	swine	Density (cap km <sup>-2</sup> )
Taiwan (36)	0.03	0.11	3.8	5.5	152.8
US (9388)	89.8	9.2	10.5	118.5	12.6
China (9147)	100.6	16.6	12.8	682.3	74.6

### **Additional Comment**

(2) About the analysis on the impacts of N inputs on DIN, some individual research on nitrate or ammonia could be helpful. I listed some of them for your consideration (please see below).

**Reply:**

We appreciated the reviewer sharing the papers. We added them in our references and used them in the discussion section to clarify the speciation of the DIN in the three categories.

Referee #1

The study by Huang et al. quantifies DIN fluxes from Taiwanese watersheds across a range of land use, population, and Nitrogen input rates. The results are compared extensively to other world watersheds reported in the literature. The watersheds of Taiwan have greater precipitation and N input rates than is typical in global syntheses, so studying these watersheds is a good rationale for expanding the global response surface for looking at N retention capacity. They find that watershed N retention declines with increasing N loading (or impact), and that much of the decline is due to increasing NH<sub>4</sub> exports. The Taiwanese watersheds have a much higher proportion of ammonium export than other world watersheds, especially in the impacted watersheds. Overall this is a good paper, but I am unsure that the export flux estimates are robust. Whereas the ammonium concentrations were estimated monthly, nitrate concentrations were only measured 4x per year. This is very infrequent, and may miss many of the storm events, when concentrations are often quite dynamic compared to base flow. This is particularly true in impacted watersheds (both urban and agricultural). I assume many of the nitrate measurements were collected during relatively lower flows since these are more frequent. If concentrations dilute during storms (as is common for DIN in many agricultural systems), this would be an overestimate of N exports. It will be impossible to address this with the data in hand. However, this must be evaluated (e.g. what is the mean flow during sample periods compared to annual mean flow? What are flow weighted concentrations? ), and then discussed for each N form. Perhaps there are some estimates of storm event nutrient samples that can be used to discuss this issue as well. The limited nutrient sampling may also contribute to the patterns in NH<sub>4</sub>:NO<sub>3</sub> in Taiwan compared to other world rivers. Error in this ratio is likely to be greatest in more disturbed watersheds due to dynamic flow and concentration patterns. This also needs some discussion. Further DIN alone does not represent the N export budget. DON and PON are likely also important, the latter particularly in Taiwan with high flows, large storm events, and steep slopes. These are not considered at all. Part of the difference might be due to the relative importance of organic vs. inorganic forms across watersheds. Discussion about how this may influence the results is also needed. The method for estimating fertilizer and human waste loading to each watershed is not described. While N deposition estimates are likely fairly robust, these other loads are not as easy to obtain, and so should be included. It is especially a problem when scaling to watershed boundaries, which likely differ in scale from where the data to estimate loads comes from.

I also think there needs to be more discussion on why export ratio is higher in impacted watersheds. Discussion (e.g. 16412.8-11) doesn't discuss why change in population or land cover result in lower retention rates. Why are these watersheds at more advanced stage of N excess. Mechanism of increasing rainfall would also affect low impact watersheds, so this alone not a reason. Is population the best indicator to classify watershed impact? It seems ag land cover would be better, given the sensitivity to this. The writing overall is very understandable, but the text still needs a good edit.

**Reply:**

We are grateful for the professional comments raised by the reviewer, which made us think more deeply about our study. Through taking the comments into our revision we believe that our revised manuscript is more focused and more readable. In summary, there are 5 concerns in this review report. They are: (1) is sampling frequency sufficient to estimate the 'representative' flux, particularly for nitrate; (2) The role of DON and PN in Taiwanese rivers; (3) Adding clear descriptions of the estimation of fertilizer and human waste loading to each watershed; (4) Explain why the export ratio is higher in impacted watersheds; (5) why population is chosen to classify watersheds. Below is our point-to-point reply.

**Comment (1):**

Sampling frequency is an important issue for calculating flux, particularly for small mountainous rivers in which the storm discharge variation can surge to 2 or 3 orders of magnitude, compared to the low flows. We appreciated the reviewer's suggestion for comparing mean flow during sample periods with annual mean flow and for the use of the flow weighted concentrations to evaluate the validity of our sampling frequency. In the revised manuscript, we added this in a supplementary table and added the following information to the table.

*"We addressed this issue in our previous studies in several mountainous headwater catchments and a nested watershed in central and northern Taiwan (Huang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2015; Shih et al., revised). In those studies, we also conducted some high-frequency sampling works (every three hours) during typhoons. We found that the relationship between nitrate concentration and streamflow varied from hydrological enhancement to dilution along the urbanization gradient, but most watersheds showed hydrological control over nitrate loading and suggest that that nitrate loading is approximately proportional to streamflow (Lee et al., 2013). For estimation method, we calculated the arithmetic and flow-weighted mean of nitrate to investigate the potential differences resulting from differences in*

*methods. In this table, the difference between arithmetic and flow-weighted means of all samples were less than 30  $\mu\text{M}$ , except Site # 1159 which is 37  $\mu\text{M}$ . In terms of yield, the mean difference between arithmetic and flow-weighted means was 271.4  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . Most of the differences were less than 1000  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , except the Site no. 1159 in which the difference was up to 1339  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . For the three categories of watersheds, the mean differences were 169.2, 219.6, and 405.3  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , respectively, for the low, moderately, and highly disturbed watersheds. Compared to the N inputs, the differences caused by the estimation methods were ~3% and will not alter the results we presented in this study.*

- Huang, J.C.\*, Lee, T.Y., Kao, S.J., Hsu, S.C., Lin, H.J., Peng, T.R. (2012) Land use effect and hydrological control on nitrate yield in subtropical mountainous watersheds, *Hydrology and Earth Systems Sciences*, 16 (3): 699-714, doi:10.5194/hess-16-699-2012.
- Lee, T.Y., Huang, J.C.\*, Kao, S.J., Tung, C.P. (2013) Temporal variation of nitrate and phosphate transport in headwater catchments: the hydrological controls and land use alteration, *Biogeosciences*, 10 (4): 2617-2632, doi: 10.5194/bg-10-2617-2013.
- Lee, T.Y., Shih, Y.T., Huang, J.C., Kao, S.J., Shiah, F.K., Liu, K.K. (2014) Speciation and dynamics of dissolved inorganic nitrogen export in the Danshui River, Taiwan, *Biogeosciences*, doi:10.5194/bg-11-5307-2014.
- Lin, T.C., Shaner, P.-J. L., Wang, L.-J., Shih, Y.-T., Wang, C.-P., Huang, G.-H., Huang, J.C.\* (2015) Effects of mountain tea plantations on nutrient cycling at upstream watersheds, *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences*, 19, 4493-4504, doi: 10.5194/hess-19-4493-2015.

### **Comment (2):**

The reviewer asked us to describe the role of DON and PN in Taiwanese rivers. First, as our title indicates that this study focused on the riverine DIN export not a comprehensive N budget. We focused on DIN because it is an important indicator of water quality and comprises the majority of total riverine nitrogen in both Taiwan and the world (Galloway et al., 2004; McCrackin et al., 2014). In our previous works and some unpublished data sets, we found that DON accounts for less than 20% of the total dissolved nitrogen in many highly-disturbed watersheds (Lee et al., 2014) and in upstream watersheds, it is less than 5% due to very low DOM in the lotic streams. Because the proportion of DON is not significant for total riverine N, we focused on DIN in this study. For PN, storms transport a large quantity of sediments during high flows in the steep landscape. We agreed that the sediments should contain

considerable PN, but the majority of the sediments come from landslides which are not directly caused by human activities (Huang et al., 2012). In fact, we have some observations along a tributary in Danshuei River, which is featured by the urbanization gradient from upstream to downstream. The observations showed that the PN concentration in upstream and downstream are ~4.67 uM and 32.51 uM, respectively which is less than 10% of DIN in normal flow regime. We did a PN sampling during a rainstorm along a river system and found that PN concentration in downstream sites reached ~60.28 uM (Huang unpublished data). However most storms only lasted one to a few days. Thus, our focus on riverine DIN export associated with human activities should not lead to a biased understanding of patterns of overall nitrogen export. Yet, we agreed that the role of DON and PN would be a good next step in our study of N cycling in Taiwan. We included this response with the cited references in the “Discussion” section of our revised manuscript.

Lin, C.H. (2015) Research on biogeochemical condition in Danshuei River midstream and downstream with observation and 1-D advection-diffusion-reaction model simulation (Master dissertation). Graduate Institute of Hydrological and Oceanic Science, National Central University, Zhongli District, Taoyuan, Taiwan.

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

Galloway, J.N. et al. (2004) Nitrogen cycles: Past, present, and future. *Biogeochemistry*, 70(2): 153-226.

### **Comment (3):**

We added the following statements to describe our estimations of N loading from fertilizers and human waste to each watershed in the revision. *“N input from fertilizers is compiled from the crop types and fertilizer applications for each crop type (as partly shown in Table 1). A look-up table for fertilizer applications for each crop type was embedded into the land cover layer (map) so that the crop types could be converted to fertilizer input. Then, we use the individual watershed polygon to clip the land cover layer to estimate fertilizers used in each watershed. N input from human emissions (wastewater), which are a main source of riverine N, is calculated using a GDP-based estimation proposed by Van Drecht et al. (2009) for per capita N emissions. The average GDP of Taiwan during 2002-2012 is ~30000 US dollars and the per capita human N emissions are ~6.42 kg-N cap<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> following the GDP-based estimation. The population size from county-based censuses is converted to county-based population density and then used to estimate the total human emissions. Similar*

*to the calculation of fertilizers used in each watershed, the watershed polygons are used to calculate human emissions for each watershed.”*

**Comment (4):**

The high export ratio for the highly disturbed watershed is indeed striking and there are two possible causes. First, most of the high DIN runoff from urban entering streams may be due to the limited wastewater treatment and incomplete sewer drainage system which cannot effectively handle the large quantity of DIN emitted by the large population. For treatment facilities in Taiwan (<http://sewagework.cpami.gov.tw/>), the average N removal efficiency is ~50% and the installation rate in Taipei and Kaohsiung (the largest two cities in Taiwan) are ~70 and 30% of the household. Extremely high NH<sub>4</sub> concentration, over 300 uM, in the urban drainage systems (Lee et al., 2014) indicating the inadequateness of the water treatment systems. This is likely also the reason for the very high NH<sub>4</sub> concentration in downstream or highly-disturbed watersheds. Second, the farms close to the urban are more heavily fertilized than those in the mountains. For example, most paddy fields are located in the downstream and most of them were very heavily fertilized compared to the farms in the mountainous region. Thus, considering the urban locality, N excess is more likely to occur in the downstream watersheds. The above mentioned information is added to the “Methods” and “Results and Discussion” sections.

**Comment (5):**

Both population and agriculture land cover are good for classifying the watershed impacts. Agriculture land cover under similar environmental settings and fertilizer practices is a good indicator for non-point pollution as we showed in Figure 4. However, our results (see Fig. 5) clearly show that the changes in riverine DIN export is more closely related to population density than to agriculture land cover at broader scales (as reported in some global syntheses). Thus, we chose to use population for classification watershed impacts.

Referee #2

This paper addresses an important topic of growing concern and interest, the fate of N in watersheds in southeast Asia. The paper is well organized, but needs further editing for English usage. In general the discussion does not provide enough information for the reader (or the authors) to make an informed interpretation of the differences in DIN export among the watershed types. For example, there is no discussion of the sources of wastewater from highly developed lands, are there modern wastewater treatment facilities? Are there areas of septic systems? Are there areas with no treatment of wastewater? What types of wastewater treatment are used and how much do they vary among the watersheds? While I understand the authors are presenting a large scale analysis of N input and export from a number of watersheds across Taiwan, a more thorough investigation of the three broad N sources presented would improve the paper. The different types of agriculture are presented with estimates of N fertilizer use, although it is unclear how those estimates are converted into N input estimates on a watershed scale. A similar investigation of the potential N inputs from the highly populated areas seems appropriate and would improve the discussion. In addition, it would be useful to include a short discussion of the forest history in these watersheds. Are the forests in the moderately and highly disturbed watersheds similar to those in the low disturbed watersheds? If so it would be interesting to note that even with the same retention capacity the moderately and highly disturbed watersheds have completely overwhelmed that capacity. DIN export is estimated based on very few samples which may be one of the reasons the results from this study do not agree with early studies. While the author's explanation of why these results differ may also be true it is very difficult to make the determination based on export calculated with quarterly nitrate samples and monthly ammonium samples. I suspect storm runoff plays an important role in N transport in these watersheds, were any of the samples collected during storms? How well did the sampling strategy capture the range in flow conditions? Furthermore, there is no discussion of organic nitrogen. While the focus of the paper is DIN, I suspect DON is a large contributor to total N export in this region. In general the paper is lacking information for many important components of N inputs and exports and as a result it is difficult to evaluate the accuracy of the conclusions.

**Reply:**

It's good to receive the constructive comments which certainly help to improve this study and elevate the scientific merit in global syntheses of N export. We summarize the comments into five main points: (1) addressing the sources of the wastewater from

the highly impacted watersheds, (2) the estimation of N inputs in relation to agriculture and population, (3) adding a short discussion of the forest history, (4) the effects of sampling frequency and storm event in flux estimation. (5) the proportion of DON in the total riverine N export in the watersheds. Below are our point-by-point reply.

**Comment (1):**

We added the following information to address the sources of wastewater to the highly disturbed watersheds.

In the Methods:

*“There are a total 49 wastewater treatment centers (most of them located in the cities) with daily capacity of ~2.3 million tons of water in Taiwan (<http://sewagework.cpami.gov.tw/>). Most of them are equipped with secondary treatments that remove 80%  $\text{NH}_4$ . Yet,  $\text{NO}_3$  removal is not required so that the average N removal efficiency is only ~50%. As of 2003, approximately 70% and 30% of the households in Taipei and Kaohsiung (the largest two cities in Taiwan) had been connected to a sewage system, respectively. The distribution of the water treatment centers and their treatment capacity are given in supplementary Fig. 1”.*

In the Results and Discussion

*“The  $\text{NH}_4$  concentration (over 300  $\mu\text{M}$ ) in the urban drainage systems of Taiwan is very high (Lee et al., 2014) due to the low proportion of households connected to a sewage system. The high human emissions and the short water residence time likely result in the dominance of  $\text{NH}_4$  in downstream watersheds unless effective  $\text{NH}_4$  removal measures are applied in wastewater treatments”.*

**Comment (2):**

Please see our response to the third comment of Dr. Zhang.

**Comment (3):**

We added the following land use history when we discuss DIN export of low disturbed watersheds.

*“Prior to 1980s, forests are under extensive exploitation island-wide, only forests in very high elevations with very limited accessibility were not heavily deforested. The large scale deforestation led to serious consequences in soil and water conservation including many catastrophic landslides and debris flows. Then, due to public pressure, deforestation largely stopped in late 1980 and was entirely prohibited since 1991. Many low- to mid-elevation forests are undergoing secondary growth. . It is*

*likely that the secondary forests are still capable of taking up large amounts of N leading to the low DIN export ratio and the lack of a close relationship between N input and output.”..... “”*

**Comment (4):**

Please see our response to the first comment of Reviewer #1.

**Comment (5):**

Please see our response to the first comment of Reviewer #2.

Dear Dr. Pellerin

My coauthors and I have comprehensively revised the manuscript according to the comments provided by you and the reviewers. We have highlighted major changes in yellow color. We also attached a file with point-by-point responses to each of the three reviewers which is a revised version of the responses that we submitted two weeks ago. We include the responses to general comments only in the point-by-point response file this time. However, we did work carefully on the specific comments and the responses were included in the response files that we submitted on January 18, 2016. Here I would like to highlight some of our major efforts in our revision. First, we considerably extended the "Methods" section to clarify our calculations of nitrogen loading (e.g., biological nitrogen fixation and emissions from livestock in section 2.3) and DIN export (mainly the calculation of river discharge and chemical analysis and our justification for the use of quarterly sampling in section 2.4). Second, we added some supplementary information (F1 figure and two tables) to address some of the comments. We believe that although they are important, inserting them to the main text may interrupt the flow of the manuscript so that we included them as supplementary information. For example, the issue of sampling frequency is important in our calculation of DIN export but the somewhat lengthy description (which is necessary to clarify the concerns) may distract the readers. Thus we briefly described it in the main text and give more detail in the supplementary table. Third, we have consulted native speakers in the revision to minimize language problems.

We appreciate the reviewers for their constructive comments which really help to improve the quality of the manuscript. We have tried our best to incorporate them in the revision and believe the manuscript is now much improved from the original version. If you have any question about our revision please contact me via email ([tclin@ntnu.edu.tw](mailto:tclin@ntnu.edu.tw)) or by phone (+886-2-77346241).

Sincerely yours

Chiu

Teng-Chiu Lin

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

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## 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  $\sim 3800$  kg-N/km<sup>2</sup>/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 ( $\sim 4900$   
34 kg-N/km<sup>2</sup>/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 and 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 of  
43 increasing the proportion of households connected to a sewage system and improving the effectiveness  
44 of 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 NO<sub>2</sub>,  
58 NO<sub>3</sub>, and NH<sub>4</sub>), 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<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (He et al., 2011) while modeled DIN export  
61 varies from 0.0004 to 5217 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (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) provides scientific evidences of how human activities affect N cycling at scales that are relevant to  
88 land management. Previous studies indicated that ~20-25% of the N input is transported by river systems  
89 and the rest is retained or denitrified in large river basins in North America and Europe (Howarth et al.,  
90 2006). Furthermore, it has been proposed that riverine N export from the large rivers will increase 10-  
91 27% in the next 3 decades due to the increase of N input, while riverine N export ratio may increase 10-  
92 35% due to increases of rainfall which may shorten the water residence time (Howarth et al., 2006).  
93 Compared to the temperate region, we have very limited knowledge on riverine N export ratios in relation  
94 to human activities in tropical and subtropical regions regardless of their very rapid increases in N  
95 emissions.

96 Taiwan is a 36,000 km<sup>2</sup> subtropical island characterized by rugged topography, high rainfall, high  
97 industrialization and a very large population (23 million). Like many countries in East Asia the emissions  
98 of N and export of DIN in Taiwan is expected to be very high. In addition, the rich background

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

## 106 2. Methods

### 107 2.1 Population density and Land use

108 There are approximately 23 million people living in the 36,000 km<sup>2</sup> Taiwan giving a population  
109 density of ~640 cap/km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 1a). Most people live in the western plains, particularly in cities. For  
110 example, approximately 6.7 million people settle in the Taipei metropolitan area and the population  
111 density reaches 20,000 cap/km<sup>2</sup>. This urges the need of sewage treatment systems for the large quantity of  
112 domestic wastewater. There are a total 49 wastewater treatment centers (most of them located in the  
113 cities) with daily capacity of ~2.3 million tons of water in Taiwan (<http://sewagework.cpami.gov.tw/>).  
114 Most of them are equipped with secondary treatments that remove 80% NH<sub>4</sub>. Yet, NO<sub>3</sub> removal is not  
115 required so that the average N removal efficiency is only ~50%. As of 2003, approximately 70% and 30%  
116 of the households in Taipei and Kaohsiung (the largest two cities in Taiwan) had been connected to a  
117 sewage system, respectively. The distribution of the water treatment centers and their treatment capacity  
118 are given in supplementary Fig. 1.

119 Forests cover approximately 58% of Taiwan (mostly in the mountains) and agricultural lands mainly  
120 distributed on the west plains with some scattered on the hillsides. The agriculture in Taiwan is featured  
121 by an intensive cropping system with two to five harvests a year (two batches per year for paddy rice) due  
122 to intense sunlight, high precipitation and high temperature. The total arable land area is ~8,550 km<sup>2</sup>, in  
123 which paddy fields account for 4,445 km<sup>2</sup> mostly in the western plain (Fig. 1b). Fodder and sweet maize

124 are planted on the plains from central to southern Taiwan and sugar canes are cultivated in the southern  
125 coastal plain (COA, Council of agriculture, executive yuan, Taiwan, <http://www.coa.gov.tw>). Most of the  
126 remaining arable lands (4,100 km<sup>2</sup>) spread over the hills, usually along roadsides or streamsides. Still  
127 some arable lands distribute in uplands with tea, orchard, vegetable, and bamboo as the main crops. The  
128 field area of tea is approximately 190 km<sup>2</sup> and of bamboo is approximately 300 km<sup>2</sup>. Agriculture  
129 production in Taiwan largely depends on very high applications of synthetic fertilizers and crop  
130 protection measures. According to the COA survey, 500 kg-N/ha of N fertilizers are commonly applied  
131 for bamboo fields 420 kg-N/ha for tea plantations and 246 kg-N/ha for rice paddy annually (Table 1). For  
132 other crops, such as maize, sugar cane, watermelon, banana, and pineapple, more than 100 kg-N/ha of N  
133 fertilizers per year are applied (Table 1). The intensive fertilizer applications are not unique to Taiwan as  
134 it is also common in other countries of East Asia. For example, synthetic fertilizers applied in Lake  
135 Dianchi in China are as high as 150-200 kg-N/ha annually (Gao et al., 2014).

## 136 2.2 Basic watershed characteristics

137 A total of 49 watersheds distributing throughout the island are used for estimating watershed DIN  
138 export in this study (Fig. 1c). The watersheds are classified into 3 levels of human disturbance: low  
139 disturbed (16 watersheds), moderately disturbed (15 watersheds), and highly disturbed (18 watersheds)  
140 based on population density of < 20, 20-200 and >200 cap km<sup>-2</sup>. The environmental settings of the three  
141 categories of watersheds are given in Table 2. Most of the watersheds have drainage areas of less than  
142 1000 km<sup>2</sup>. The average slopes and drainage densities of the three categories of watersheds vary from 66 to  
143 29% and 1.4 to 1.6 km<sup>-1</sup> (Table 2). The mean annual runoff of the 49 watersheds varies from 2200 to 2500  
144 mm and the mean annual precipitation varies from 2000 to 4000 mm.

145 Forests dominate the landscape of all of the 49 watersheds and the proportion of forest cover  
146 decreases from 0.87 for low disturbed watersheds to 0.51 for highly disturbed watersheds (Table 3).  
147 Contrarily, the proportion of built-up lands increases from 0.03 for low disturbed watersheds to 0.11 for  
148 highly disturbed watershed and the proportion of agricultural lands increases from 0.11 for low disturbed

149 watersheds to 0.38 to 0.38 for highly disturbed watersheds (Table 3). While, non-rice crops and orchards  
150 dominate the agricultural lands in all of the three categories of watersheds (> 80%), rice paddy and  
151 bamboo are important only in highly disturbed watersheds (Table 3). Unlike many watersheds in Europe  
152 and North America where agricultural lands may comprise more than half of the drainage area,  
153 agriculture in Taiwan and other mountainous regions is constrained by the rugged topography.

### 154 2.3 N loading

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

159 For atmospheric N deposition, two modeling studies estimate a global average of 145 and 283 kg-N  
160  $\text{km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  for 1993 and 2050, respectively (Lelieveld and Dentener, 2000; Jeuken et al., 2001). Based on  
161 the two studies N deposition in East Asia will surge from  $\sim 1600 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  in 1993 to  $\sim 3800 \text{ kg-N}$   
162  $\text{km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  in 2050 with a cross-year average of  $2700 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2). Our local N deposition is  
163 based on a national-wide acid rain monitoring network (11 sites) initiated by Taiwan EPA (Environmental  
164 Protection Administration) in 2002. The mean annual wet N deposition, including  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4$ , was  
165  $1,515 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  between 2007 and 2013 with  $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$  accounting for 59% of the deposition  
166 (<http://epr.epa.gov.tw/upload/open/103>). A local empirical study indicates that dry deposition of N is  
167 approximately 23-50% of wet deposition (Hsu et al., 2013) and thus a factor of 0.4 is used to estimate dry  
168 deposition of N from the island-wide wet deposition monitoring network. From the 11 monitoring sites,  
169 we interpolate total N deposition (wet + dry) for the island using the inverse distance weighted method  
170 with an exponent of 2. From the interpolation we calculate an island-wide mean total N deposition of  
171  $\sim 2,121 \text{ kg km}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  which is consistent with the N deposition reported by a global modelling (Jeuken et  
172 al., 2001) and a local observation (Hsu et al., 2013).

173 N input from fertilizers is compiled from the crop types and fertilizer applications for each crop type  
174 (as partly shown in Table 1). A look-up table for fertilizer applications for each crop type was embedded  
175 into the land cover layer (map) so that the crop types could be converted to fertilizer input. Then, we use  
176 the individual watershed polygon to clip the land cover layer to estimate fertilizers used in each  
177 watershed. N input from human emissions (wastewater), which are a main source of riverine N, is  
178 calculated using a GPD-based estimation proposed by Van Drecht et al. (2009) for per capita N emissions.  
179 The average GDP of Taiwan during 2002-2012 is ~30000 US dollars and the per capita human N  
180 emissions are ~6.42 kg-N cap<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> following the GDP-based estimation. The population size from  
181 county-based censuses is converted to county-based population density and then used to estimate the total  
182 human emissions. Similar to the calculation of fertilizers used in each watershed, the watershed polygons  
183 are used to calculate human emissions for each watershed.

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

194 For biological nitrogen fixation (BNF), there are two types of BNF, agricultural BNF and natural  
195 BNF. Agricultural BNF could be a significant N source. For example, Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) can fix  
196 21800 kg-N km<sup>2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (McIsaac et al., 2002) which is comparable with that from synthetic fertilizers. A  
197 local survey also indicates that the amount of N from green manure crops is close to the amount of

198 synthetic fertilizers commonly applied in the fields and farmers typically do not use synthetic fertilizers  
199 following the growth of green manure crops ([http://www.tndais.gov.tw/search\\_wg.php](http://www.tndais.gov.tw/search_wg.php)). Quality data of  
200 agricultural BNF in Taiwan is incomplete and cannot be confidently compiled at an island-wide scale.  
201 Therefore, we assume that the agricultural BNF equals the amount of synthetic fertilizers used and it is  
202 already included in our calculation of N input from fertilizers. For natural BNF, a global synthesis  
203 indicates that natural BNF in forest ecosystems varies from 1600 in temperate region to 2500 kg N km<sup>-2</sup>  
204 yr<sup>-1</sup> in tropical region (Cleveland et al., 1999). However, a recent study indicates that BNF in tropical and  
205 subtropical regions is not significant and may be overestimated by more than 5 times in previous studies  
206 (Sullivan et al., 2014). The study proposes that natural BNF in tropical forests should be less than 600 kg-  
207 N km<sup>2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. Using this new estimate, the natural BNF would account for less than 5% of the total N input  
208 in our study so that it is not included in our analysis.

#### 210 **2.4 Stream water level and DIN monitoring**

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

220 For water quality, the EPA sampling crews take water samples on a monthly basis. Temperature, pH  
221 and electrical conductivity (EC) are measured *in-situ* then the samples are transported to laboratories for  
222 chemical and biological analysis including dissolved oxygen, cations, anions, *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*),

223 and selected heavy metals. For DIN species, ammonium is analyzed on a monthly basis using 4500-NH<sub>3</sub>  
224 D. Ammonia-selective electrode method (APHA, 2012). Nitrate and nitrite are analyzed every three  
225 months using 4500-NO<sub>3</sub> I. (APHA, 2012) or ion exchange chromatography (IC). The mean  
226 concentrations of DIN species are multiplied by stream discharge (monthly for NH<sub>4</sub> and quarterly for  
227 nitrate and nitrite) to obtain the DIN fluxes via global mean approach. The mean DIN concentration,  
228 flow-weighted mean concentration, mean discharge during sampling period and mean daily stream  
229 discharge are listed in supplementary table 2 for reference. From the data in the table and some of our  
230 previous studies we conclude that although the quarterly sampling of NO<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> is not ideal for  
231 representing the variation among seasons and between high and low flow periods, the annual fluxes  
232 derived from the 10-year dataset could still fairly represent the differences among watersheds which is the  
233 main goal of our analysis. A more comprehensive justification of the use of the quarterly samples is  
234 provided in supplementary Table 2.

## 236 3 Results and Discussions

### 237 3.1 Riverine DIN concentration and flux

238 The island-wide mean DIN concentration and flux calculated from the 49 watersheds are 148.3  $\mu\text{M}$   
239 and 3,800  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , respectively. However, they vary considerably among the three categories of  
240 watersheds. The mean annual riverine DIN concentrations are 30, 57, 330  $\mu\text{M}$  and the corresponding  
241 exports are 909, 1816, and 8020  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for low-, moderately- and highly-disturbed watersheds,  
242 respectively (Fig. 3). For N species, mean NO<sub>3</sub> concentration and export increase from 24  $\mu\text{M}$  and 725  
243  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for low disturbed watersheds to 100  $\mu\text{M}$  and 3243  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for highly disturbed  
244 watersheds (Table 4). Similarly, mean NH<sub>4</sub> concentration and export increase from 5.6  $\mu\text{M}$  and 169  $\text{kg-N}$   
245  $\text{km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for low disturbed watersheds to 214  $\mu\text{M}$  and 4340  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for highly disturbed  
246 watersheds, respectively (Table 4). Nitrite is not shown in the table because it only accounts for a very

247 small proportion ( $< 0.05$ ) of DIN. The patterns and levels of DIN concentrations and fluxes of the 49  
248 watersheds are consistent with results reported for over 20 sub-catchments within 2 river networks in  
249 northern and central Taiwan (Huang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014). Note that  $\text{NO}_3$  is the dominant species  
250 for low and moderately disturbed watersheds, but  $\text{NH}_4$  is the dominant species accounting for more than  
251 50% of annual DIN flux for highly disturbed watersheds.

252 Both  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4$  exports are significantly and positively correlated to population density ( $r^2 = 0.19$   
253 for  $\text{NO}_3$  and 0.18 for  $\text{NH}_4$ , both  $p$  values  $< 0.01$ ) and the proportion of agricultural land cover ( $r^2 = 0.34$   
254 for  $\text{NO}_3$  and 0.50 for  $\text{NH}_4$ , both  $p$  values  $< 0.01$ ) (Fig. 4). The intensive cropping system and dense  
255 population likely contribute to the 10-fold greater DIN export at the highly disturbed watersheds relative  
256 to the low disturbed watersheds. While the relationship between population density and  $\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4$   
257 export is very similar,  $\text{NH}_4$  increase more dramatically than  $\text{NO}_3$  with increases in relative agricultural  
258 land cover (Fig. 4). Across the three categories of watersheds,  $\text{NO}_3$  export increases gradually with  
259 increases in both agricultural land cover and population density. By contrast,  $\text{NH}_4$  export does not change  
260 much from low to moderately disturbed watersheds (Fig. 4), but increases dramatically with increasing  
261 agricultural land cover and population density in highly disturbed watersheds indicating that most of the  
262 elevated  $\text{NH}_4$  export likely comes from domestic wastewater and agricultural activities.

### 264 3.2 Total N input

265 Mean total annual N input increases from 4893 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for the low disturbed watersheds, 6578  
266 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for moderately disturbed watersheds, to 16636 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for highly disturbed  
267 watershed (Table 5). Because atmospheric N deposition is in a small range across the three categories of  
268 watersheds (2033-2224 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>), it could not cause the large increases in total N deposition from  
269 low to highly disturbed watersheds. Instead the increases are mainly from fertilizer applications and  
270 human emissions (Table 5). Assuming synthetic fertilizers are applied only in agriculture lands, the input

271 of N from fertilizers in each percent of agricultural land (a total of 11%, 16% and 38% in low, moderately,  
272 and highly disturbed watersheds, respectively) increases only slightly from 236 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in low  
273 disturbed watersheds, 254 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in moderately disturbed watersheds to 279 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in  
274 highly disturbed watersheds. In contrast, assuming human emissions are entirely from built-up lands the  
275 input of N from human emissions of each percent of built-land increases dramatically from 24 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup>  
276 yr<sup>-1</sup> in low disturbed watersheds, 118 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in moderately disturbed watersheds to 349 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup>  
277 yr<sup>-1</sup> in highly disturbed watersheds. The increases in N input from per unit built-up land as its contribution  
278 to total watershed area increases possibly reflect disproportional increases in population density as the  
279 proportion of build-up land increases which is often associated higher degrees of urbanization. The result  
280 suggests that population density control and/or the effectiveness of wastewater treatment could be  
281 important control measures of N emissions and the resultant DIN export.

### 282 3.3 River DIN exports in Taiwan and the world

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

295 He et al. (2011) reported a positive relationship between DIN export and runoff, population density

296 and proportion of agricultural land cover at the global scale. Adding Taiwan to the global pictures reveals  
297 an interesting phenomenon (Fig. 5). Globally the DIN export increases with increases in runoff and  
298 Taiwan is clearly on the very high end of both runoff and DIN export. The global pattern exists regardless  
299 of the large differences in the efficiency of wastewater treatment among regions and among countries of  
300 the same region. Thus, in despite of the large differences in N inputs from wastewater, agriculture and  
301 industrial activities, runoff still plays an important role on DIN export.

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

311 Among the three factors, population density, agriculture activity and runoff, only population density  
312 shows a consistent positive relationship with DIN export at both the global scale and our island scale (Fig.  
313 5). Runoff is a good predictor only at the global scale and agriculture is a good predictor only at the island  
314 scale (Fig. 5). The lack of predictability of runoff on DIN export in Taiwan might be due to the limited  
315 variation in runoff relative to the 10-fold differences in DIN export (Fig. 5). The lack of predictability of  
316 agriculture land cover on DIN export at the global scale is not surprising because differences in farming  
317 practices (e.g., levels of fertilization and soil disruption) among regions could lead to very different  
318 patterns of DIN export even when the proportion of agriculture land cover is similar. In general, fertilizers  
319 are applied at much larger quantities in regions with intensive farming systems such as China, Taiwan,  
320 and Thailand than in regions with extensive farming systems such as North America, Europe and

321 Australia. For example, in rice fields N is applied at approximately 418 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in Taiwan (~200 kg  
322 ha<sup>-1</sup> for a harvest; FAO 2002), 194 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in China but only 135 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in California, USA (Yan  
323 et al., 2003). As a result of such large differences, DIN export from a watershed with 100% of rice fields  
324 in North America may not be different from the export of a watershed with 32% of rice fields in East  
325 Asia. Due to the differences in farming systems, the relationship between DIN export and agricultural  
326 land cover is likely comparable only between regions with similar management practices (Huang et al.,  
327 2012). For global assessments, the amount of N fertilizer application coupling with the proportion of  
328 agricultural land cover would be necessary for predicting riverine DIN export from agriculture.

329 From the global assessment by He et al. (2011), NH<sub>4</sub>-N export is 10% to 100% of the total of NO<sub>3</sub>-  
330 and NO<sub>2</sub>-N export in large rivers around the world and this range also applies to the low and moderately  
331 disturbed watersheds in Taiwan (Fig. 6). However, while only one of the 49 watersheds has a NH<sub>4</sub> to  
332 NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub> ratio less than 0.1, approximately 50% (16/34) of the rivers in He et al. (2011) had a ratio less  
333 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  
334 disturbed watersheds in Taiwan have a ratio greater than 1.0 and one of them even reaches 10. Globally  
335 NO<sub>3</sub> is the predominant species of DIN export, partly because NO<sub>3</sub> is more stable than NH<sub>4</sub>, which is  
336 easily oxidized or removed through the treatment processes. In the highly disturbed watersheds, the  
337 average DO is ~6.8 mgL<sup>-1</sup> for watersheds with NH<sub>4</sub> to NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub> ratio greater than 1, and ~8.4 mgL<sup>-1</sup> for  
338 the remaining watersheds suggesting that oxidation potential is important in determining NH<sub>4</sub> relative to  
339 NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in streamwater. The highly disturbed watersheds are at lower elevations that  
340 have higher temperature than low and moderately disturbed watersheds and high temperatures would  
341 facilitate the oxidation of NH<sub>4</sub>. Thus, the dominance of NH<sub>4</sub> in DIN export for the highly-disturbed  
342 watersheds regardless of their greater NH<sub>4</sub> oxidation potential is likely due to high NH<sub>4</sub> input.

343 .

344 Using <sup>15</sup>N isotopic analysis Peng et al. (2012) found very limited NH<sub>4</sub> removal in upstream  
345 watersheds of Taiwan and suggested that NH<sub>4</sub> export from these watersheds to streams is very limited.

Water residence time in Taiwan is, in general, very short due to the small drainage area ( $< 1000 \text{ km}^2$ ) and steep slopes ( $>30\%$ ) and unfavorable for  $\text{NH}_4$  removal (Halbfaß et al., 2010) because of the limited time available for ammonia oxidization and/or assimilation. Thus, the very low  $\text{NH}_4$  content in the low and moderately disturbed watersheds suggests that nitrification and vegetation uptake is substantial compared to mineralization in these watersheds. In contrast, our highly disturbed watersheds have high  $\text{NH}_4$  concentrations and fluxes (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). Although given the high  $\text{NH}_4$  concentrations biogeochemical processes such as nitrification may transform a substantial portion of  $\text{NH}_4$  (Venohr et al., 2005), it is very likely insufficient for transforming most of the  $\text{NH}_4$  in the highly disturbed watersheds. The  $\text{NH}_4$  concentration (over  $300 \text{ uM}$ ) in the urban drainage systems of Taiwan is very high (Lee et al., 2014) due to the low proportion of households connected to a sewage system. The high human emissions and the short water residence time likely result in the dominance of  $\text{NH}_4$  in downstream watersheds unless effective  $\text{NH}_4$  removal measures are applied in wastewater treatments.

### 3.4 Riverine N export ratio

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

370 could be at least partially explained by greater N inputs, but other factors must have contributed to the  
371 greater DIN export ratios at the more disturbed watersheds.

372 Although there is an overall increases in DIN export ratio with increases in N input, such a  
373 relationship does not exist for the low disturbed watersheds in which DIN export ratio is not significantly  
374 related to N input (Fig. 7b). Differences in runoff ratios are often used to explain the differences in export  
375 ratios because greater runoff ratios would lead to greater DIN export ratios (Huang et al., 2012; Lin et al.,  
376 2015). Watersheds with steeper slopes typically have shorter water residence time and greater runoff  
377 ratios than watersheds with less steep slopes. However, regardless of the substantial differences in slope  
378 steepness (53-76%) among our low disturbed watersheds, runoff and runoff ratio show very limited  
379 differences among the watersheds.

380 The capacity of plant N uptake and the amount of N that can be hold in the soil (e.g.,  $\text{NH}_4$  in the  
381 inter-layer space of Vermiculite and Montmorillonite and N in soil humus) greatly determine ecosystem N  
382 retention capacity. If N input is less than the retention capacity, then DIN export may be irrelevant to N  
383 input because most of the additional N input is retained within the watershed until it exceeds the retention  
384 capacity. This is probably the case for our low disturbed watersheds in which the riverine DIN export is  
385  $\sim 900 \text{ kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$  which is relatively small compared to total input of 2000 to 8000  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ .

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

395 Our low disturbed watersheds, which mostly distributed in the mountain ranges are characterized by  
396 high atmospheric N input and the mea riverine DIN export ratios (0.18) is slightly less than those of large  
397 rivers around the world (0.2-0.25) (Howarth et al., 2006). The low disturbed watersheds are  
398 predominately covered by natural forests. Prior to 1980s, forests are under extensive exploitation island-  
399 wide, only forests in very high elevations with very limited accessibility were not heavily deforested. The  
400 large scale deforestation led to serious consequences in soil and water conservation including many  
401 catastrophic landslides and debris flows. Then, due to public pressure, deforestation largely stopped in  
402 late 1980 and was entirely prohibited since 1991. Many low- to mid-elevation forests are undergoing  
403 secondary growth. It is likely that the secondary forests are still capable of taking up large amounts of N  
404 leading to the low DIN export ratio and the lack of a close relationship between N input and output. If  
405 forest growth is indeed key to the low DIN export and export ratio, then reforestation could be an  
406 effective management practice to reduce DIN export and therefore reduce the risk of downstream  
407 eutrophication, especially if the trees are regularly harvested before the forest matures and the ability to  
408 take up nutrients declines.

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

420 management efforts (e.g. erosion control, precision fertilization) on agricultural lands could have major  
421 effects on reducing DIN export. The even greater riverine DIN export ratios of the highly-disturbed  
422 watersheds than the moderately disturbed watersheds likely result from their greater population density  
423 and greater agriculture intensity.

424 The considerable variation of export ratio, 0.21-0.73, of the highly disturbed watersheds may result  
425 from their differences in wastewater treatment efficiencies and cropping systems. In addition, the very  
426 high DIN export ratios in the highly disturbed watersheds suggest that the N input is transported by  
427 riverine systems very efficiently and as such the eutrophication threat is high downstream. The high  
428 export ratios also suggest that the highly disturbed watersheds are probably at more advanced stages of N  
429 excess and that the current removal processes (e.g. denitrification, vegetation uptake) cannot compensate  
430 for the increasing N additions (Downing et al., 1999). Additionally, recent studies report increases in  
431 rainfall intensity in Taiwan as a result of recent climate change (Huang et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2009).  
432 Increases of rainfall intensity would shorten water residence time and therefore further enhance riverine  
433 DIN export. Thus, increasing the proportion of households connected to a sewage system and improving  
434 the effectiveness of the sewage systems are of particular importance in mitigating riverine N export in  
435 Taiwan and other regions with high population densities and intensive cropping systems.

436

#### 4. Concluding remarks

We characterize 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<sup>-2</sup>). The average riverine DIN export is  $\sim 3800$  kg-N km<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>, 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  $\sim 10$  times greater DIN export of highly disturbed watersheds ( $8000$  kg-N km<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>), compared to low disturbed watersheds ( $900$  kg-N km<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>) 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 NH<sub>4</sub> 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 to downstream system poses risk of eutrophication.

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<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>). 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<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>). 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.

461 denitrification and uptake) cannot effectively reduce riverine N export. Increasing the proportion of  
462 households connected to a sewage system and improving the effectiveness of the sewage system are  
463 important measures for reducing N export.

464

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611

612 **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 <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	K <sub>2</sub> 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

613 \*Only the primary crops are listed

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

615 plantation and declares the suggested values for farmers

616

617

618

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

category	number	N deposition (kg-N/km <sup>2</sup> )	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Runoff (mm)	Avg. slope (%)	DD* (km <sup>-1</sup> )	Pop. Den. (cap/km <sup>2</sup> )
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)

619

\*DD: Drainage density defined as the total stream length over drainage area, the unit is (km<sup>-1</sup>)

620

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

621

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623

**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)

624 Parentheses indicate the standard deviation of the individual category

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

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

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630 **Table 4.** Mean annual NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub> and DIN concentrations and riverine fluxes of the three categories of

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watersheds between 2002 and 2012.

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

632 Parentheses indicate the standard deviation of the individual category

633 Unit for concentration and flux are μM and kg-N/km<sup>2</sup>, respectively

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**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
<sup>1</sup> Human emission	73.4	354	3840	1540
Total input	4900	6580	16600	9720
Riverine DIN output	909	1820	8020	3800
<sup>2</sup> Averaged export ratio	0.18	0.27	0.42	0.30
<sup>3</sup> Regressive export ratio	0.06	0.20	0.53	0.51

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Unit for inputs and output is kg-N km<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>

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1. Human emissions are calculated from per capita emissions using GDP-based estimation proposed by Van Dreht et al. (2009).

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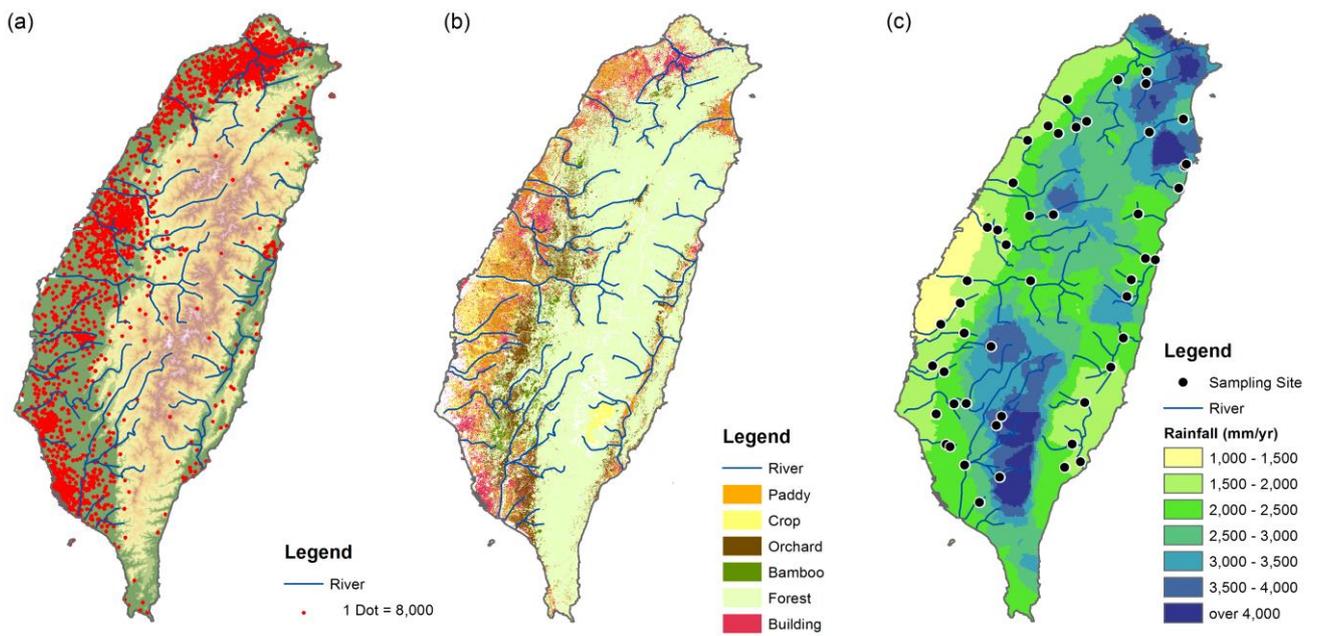
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2. Averaged export ratio is the arithmetical mean of the export ratios in the category.

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

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645 **Figure 1.** Three maps of Taiwan to show the population density (a), land cover (b), and mean annual  
 646 rainfall (c). The annual rainfall dataset is provided from water resources agency during 2002-2012.  
 647 Population dataset is derived from county census from Ministry of Interior. Land cover dataset is  
 648 distributed by Ministry of Interior in 2006.

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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 China and lower rates (blue/cyan) over the Pacific Ocean. Map (b) is a detailed map of Taiwan, showing topography and observed 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 a color-coded topographic map of Taiwan with red dots indicating observed N deposition fluxes at various locations. The flux values are: 3882, 2375, 2785, 2827, 2129, 2169, 2336, 1704, 974, 1518, and 1378 kg-N/km². A scale bar indicates 0, 15, 30, 60, and 90 km. A legend indicates that the red dots represent (kg-N/km²) and the color scale represents elevation in meters (m).

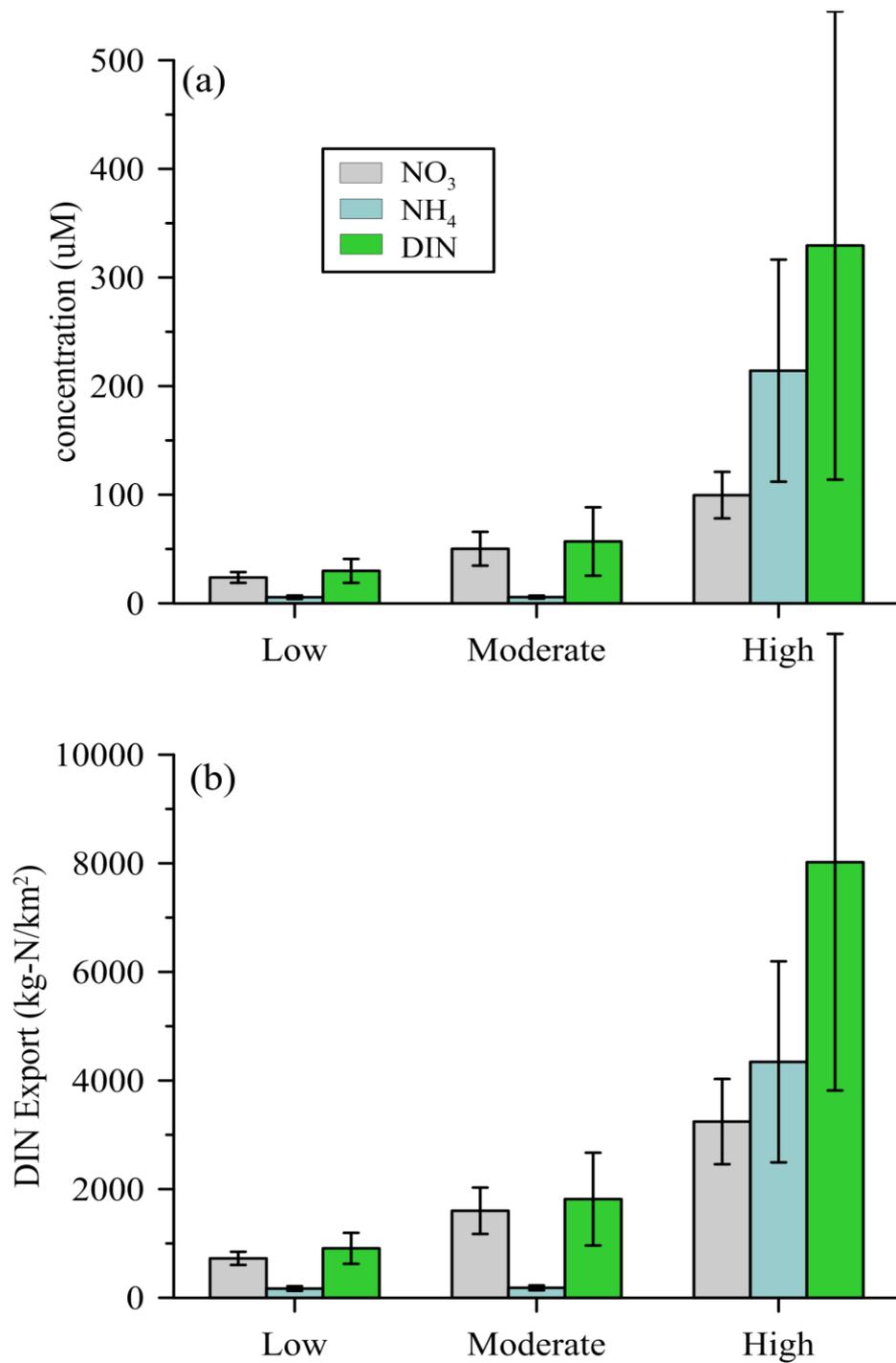
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654 **Figure 2.** Atmospheric N deposition in eastern Asia (dataset: from ORNL DAAC, NASA,  
 655 <http://daac.ornl.gov>) (a). This dataset was generated using a global three-dimensional chemistry-transport  
 656 model (Lelieveld and Dentener, 2000; Jeuken et al., 2001 re-sampled to 1 degree  $\times$  1 degree). The  
 657 observational long-term N deposition (including NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>) in Taiwan (Lin NH, unpublished data)  
 658 (b). The observed wet deposition is used to estimate the dry deposition by an empirical factor of 0.4 based  
 659 on (Lin NH, unpublished data).

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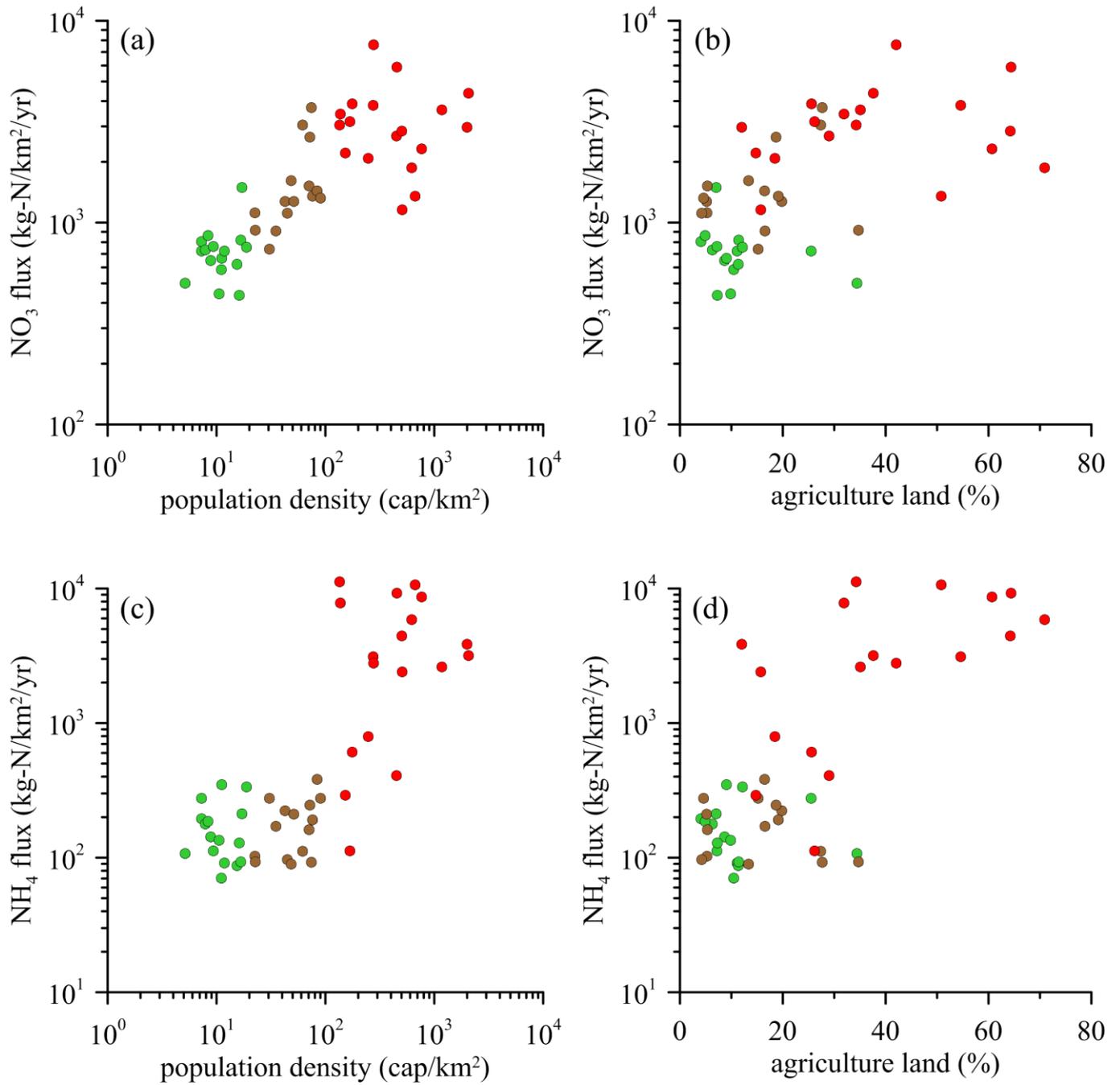
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663 **Figure 3.** Mean riverine DIN concentration (a) and annual export (b) of the low, moderately and highly  
 664 disturbed watersheds during 2002-2012. The gray, sky blue, and green bars represent the NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>, and  
 665 DIN of the three classes. Standard deviation for each bar is given as well.



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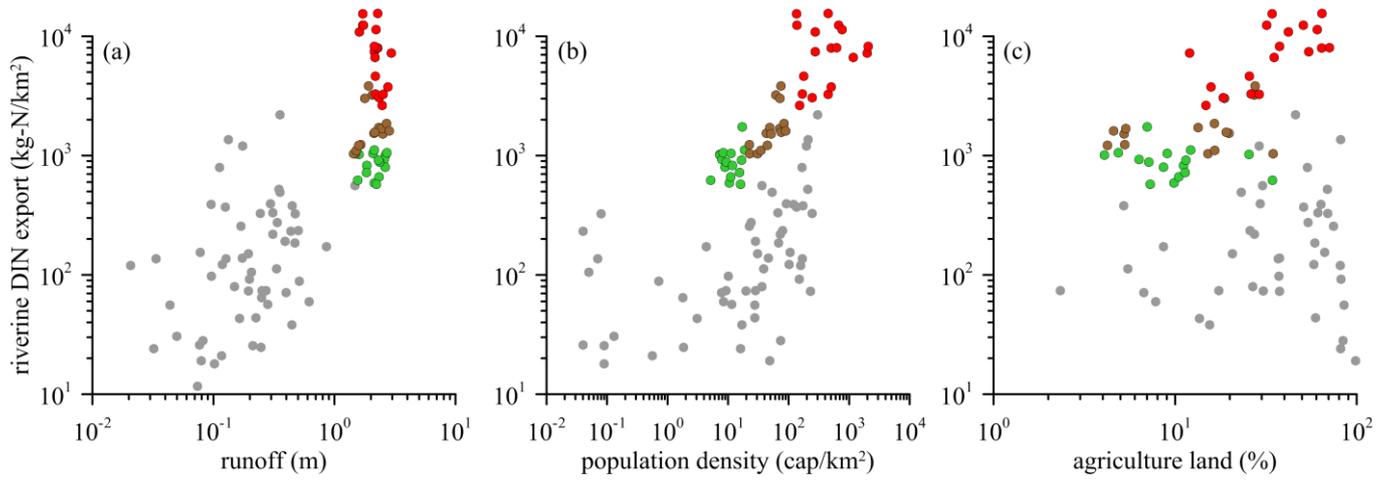
668 **Figure 4.** Scatter plot of NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub> export associated with population density (a) and (b), and relative

669 agricultural land cover (c) and (d). The green, brown, and red dots show the low, moderately, and highly

670 disturbed watersheds, respectively. The *r*-squared values for (a), (b), (c) and (d) are 0.19, 0.34, 0.18, and

671 0.50 with *p* values < 0.01, respectively.

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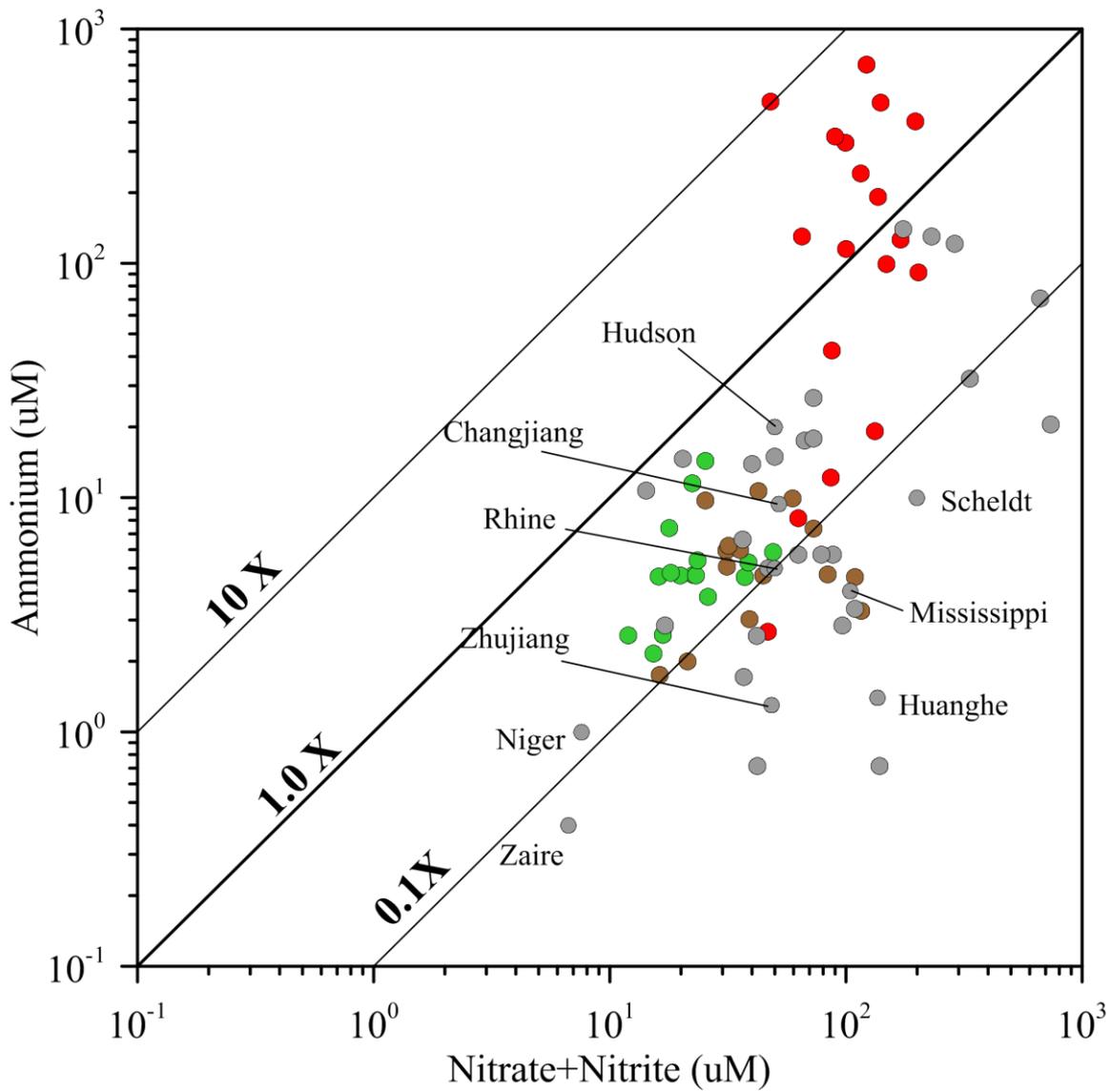


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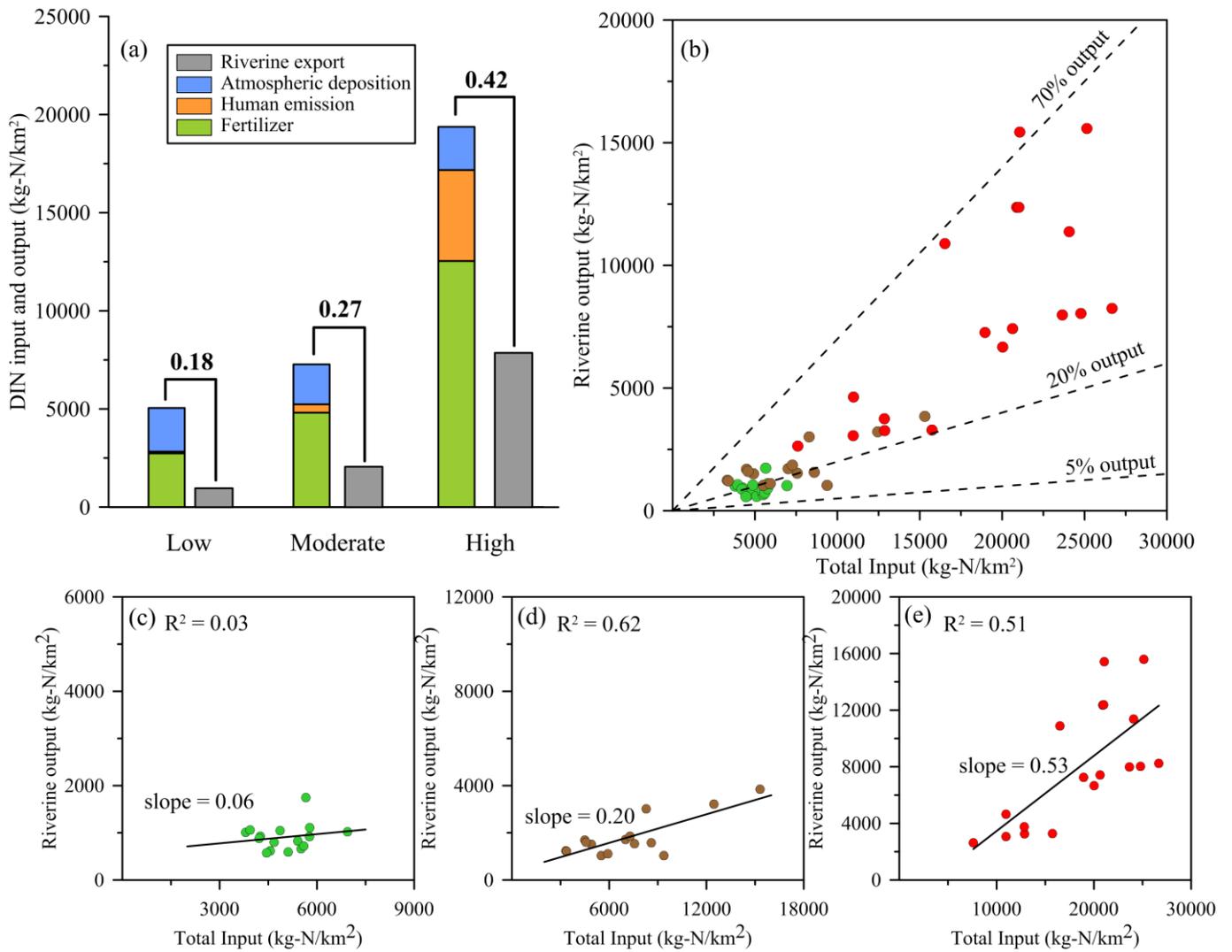
675 **Figure 5.** Scatter plot of riverine DIN export associated with runoff (a), population density (b), and  
 676 relative agricultural land cover (c). The gray dots represent the global river data retrieved from He et al.  
 677 (2011). The green, brown, and red dots show the low, moderately, and highly disturbed watersheds,  
 678 respectively.

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**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



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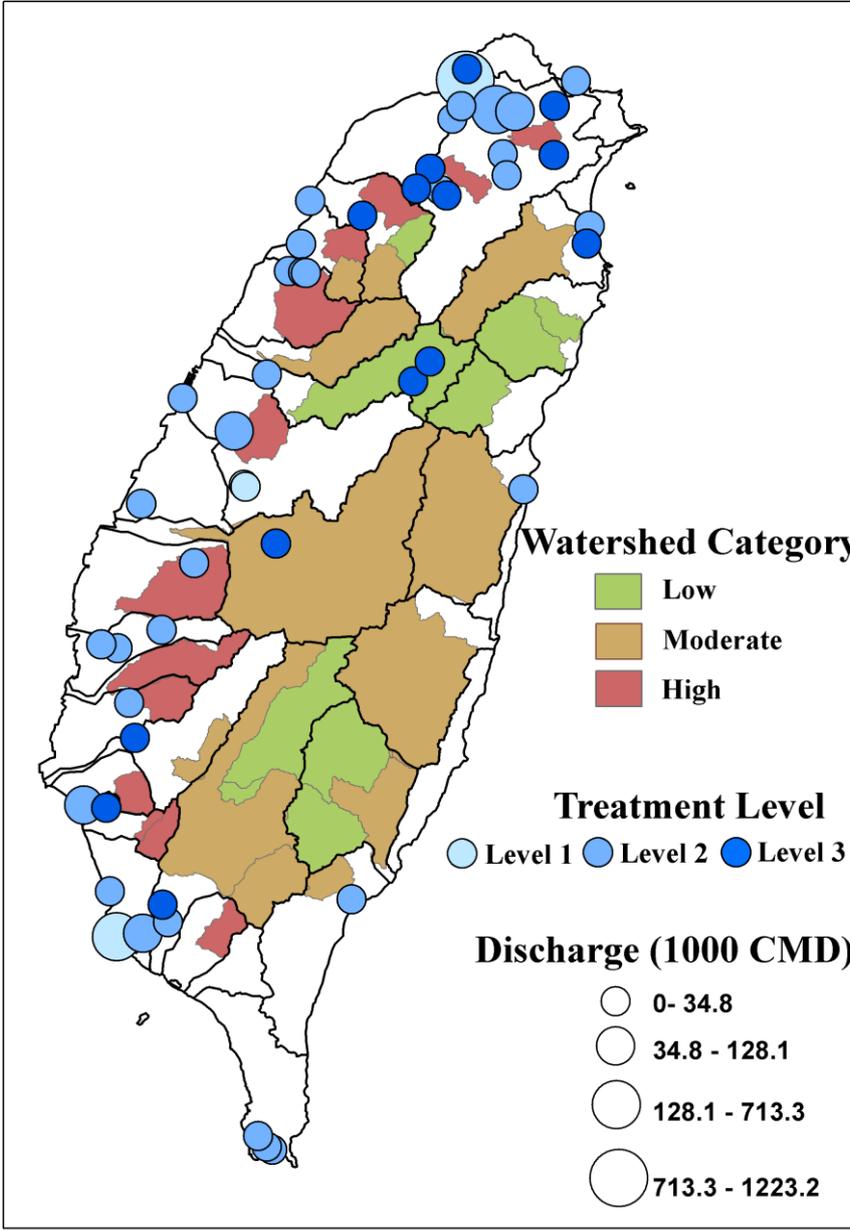
687 **Figure 7.** Nitrogen input and riverine output in the low, moderately and highly disturbed watersheds (a).

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

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

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694 **Figure 1.** The distribution of wastewater treatments. The size color of circles indicate the treatment  
695 capacity and treatment levels  
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702 **Table 1.** The numbers and densities of cattle, cows, and swine in Taiwan, US, and China (unit: million)

Country (area, 1000 km <sup>2</sup> )	cattle	cows	Density (cap km <sup>-2</sup> )	swine	Density (cap km <sup>-2</sup> )
Taiwan (36)	0.03	0.11	3.8	5.5	152.8
US (9388)	89.8	9.2	10.5	118.5	12.6
China (9147)	100.6	16.6	12.8	682.3	74.6

Data from: <http://www.indexmundi.com/agriculture>

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709 **Table 2.** The arithmetic and flow-weighted means of NO<sub>3</sub> concentration and the mean stream discharge of

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49 monitoring stations during sampling period and 2002-2012

Station	category	NO <sub>3</sub> conc. (uM)		runoff (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )	Flux estimation (kg-N km <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> ) by		Relative Diff.  AM-FWM
		Arithmetic Mean	Flow-Weighted Mean		AM	FWM	
1084	1	38.2	40.4	7.1	1385.9	1465.8	79.8
1109	1	36.0	29.2	3.2	1306.1	1059.4	246.7
1110	1	48.2	32.7	3.2	1748.7	1186.4	562.4
1136	1	24.8	30.8	5.0	899.8	1117.5	217.7
1238	1	22.8	24.5	6.8	827.2	888.9	61.7
1239	1	19.6	18.5	7.4	711.1	671.2	39.9
1240	1	25.2	24.8	6.5	914.3	899.8	14.5
1249	1	21.5	18.9	6.1	780.0	685.7	94.3
1250	1	15.8	15.9	8.9	573.2	576.9	3.6
1252	1	17.9	16.7	5.2	649.4	605.9	43.5
1256	1	13.0	18.2	10.8	471.7	660.3	188.7
1257	1	18.1	17.9	8.4	656.7	649.4	7.3
1327	1	23.1	18.6	6.8	838.1	674.8	163.3
1337	1	20.8	31.2	5.9	754.6	1132.0	377.3
1346	1	22.9	30.0	4.6	830.8	1088.4	257.6
1509	1	15.4	25.0	7.8	558.7	907.0	348.3
1085	2	30.6	35.8	7.7	1110.2	1298.9	188.7
1091	2	44.9	48.1	6.3	1629.0	1745.1	116.1
1106	2	84.2	92.9	3.7	3054.9	3370.5	315.6
1139	2	57.4	65.4	4.2	2082.5	2372.8	290.2
1176	2	116.2	131.8	5.6	4215.9	4781.8	566.0
1177	2	108.2	85.8	4.6	3925.6	3112.9	812.7
1201	2	70.7	79.6	7.4	2565.1	2888.0	322.9
1225	2	41.9	42.2	6.6	1520.2	1531.1	10.9
1251	2	34.9	33.4	7.3	1266.2	1211.8	54.4
1253	2	25.3	27.5	5.7	917.9	997.7	79.8
1255	2	30.4	31.5	5.8	1102.9	1142.9	39.9
1258	2	38.4	35.6	5.8	1393.2	1291.6	101.6
1262	2	21.6	26.4	9.0	783.7	957.8	174.1
1271	2	31.8	33.0	8.7	1153.7	1197.3	43.5
1654	2	17.0	21.9	10.0	616.8	794.6	177.8
1024	3	93.2	92.9	7.2	3381.4	3370.5	10.9
1042	3	58.5	78.2	5.2	2122.4	2837.2	714.7
1071	3	125.8	122.1	4.3	4564.1	4429.9	134.2
1093	3	61.6	63.2	7.1	2234.9	2293.0	58.0
1099	3	80.9	82.5	5.4	2935.1	2993.2	58.0
1118	3	81.4	73.0	7.7	2953.3	2648.5	304.8
1119	3	134.8	139.6	5.7	4890.7	5064.8	174.1

1126	3	147.3	152.5	6.0	5344.2	5532.9	188.7
1149	3	76.6	89.8	5.5	2779.1	3258.0	478.9
1150	3	87.5	94.6	4.2	3174.6	3432.2	257.6
1154	3	181.9	203.2	6.5	6599.5	7372.3	772.8
1159	3	47.9	84.8	9.1	1737.9	3076.6	1338.8
1163	3	90.3	96.9	6.5	3276.2	3515.6	239.5
1167	3	118.9	129.3	5.1	4313.8	4691.1	377.3
1186	3	41.8	65.7	5.4	1516.5	2383.7	867.1
1191	3	86.2	81.4	6.4	3127.4	2953.3	174.1
1207	3	190.9	217.1	7.8	6926.0	7876.6	950.6
1305	3	103.1	97.7	6.4	3740.6	3544.7	195.9

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Riverine substance load or yield (per area load), defined as the product of concentration and stream discharge is a function of flow regimes, watershed characteristics, substance characteristics, sampling frequency, and estimation method (Ferguson, 1987; Preston et al., 1989; Lee et al., 2009). Therefore, sampling frequency and estimation methods play an important role in calculating flux, particularly for small mountainous river basins in which the storm discharge variation can surge to 2 or 3 orders of magnitude, compared to the base low. We addressed the issue of sampling frequency and estimation method in our previous studies in several mountainous headwater catchments and a nested watershed in central and northern Taiwan (Huang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2015; Shih et al., revised). In those studies, we also conducted some high-frequency sampling works (every three hours) during typhoons. We found that the relationship between nitrate concentration and streamflow varied from hydrological enhancement to dilution along the urbanization gradient, but most watersheds showed hydrological control over nitrate loading and suggest that that nitrate loading is approximately proportional to streamflow (Lee et al., 2013). For estimation method, we calculated the arithmetic and flow-weighted mean of nitrate to investigate the potential differences resulting from differences in methods. In this table, the difference between arithmetic and flow-weighted means of all samples were less than 30  $\mu\text{M}$ , except Site # 1159 which is 37  $\mu\text{M}$ . In terms of yield, the mean difference between arithmetic and flow-weighted means was 271.4  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . Most of the differences were less than 1000  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , except the Site no. 1159 in which the difference was up to 1339  $\text{kg-N km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . For

730 the three categories of watersheds, the mean differences were 169.2, 219.6, and 405.3 kg-N km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>,  
731 respectively, for the low, moderately, and highly disturbed watersheds. Compared to the large N inputs,  
732 the differences caused by the estimation methods were ~3% and will not alter the results we presented in  
733 this study.

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