Published: 11 July 2016

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Sources and Transformations of Anthropogenic Nitrogen along an Urban River-

Published: 11 July 2016

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24 Abstract

25 Urbanization has altered the fate and transport of anthropogenic nitrogen (N) in rivers 26 and estuaries globally. This study evaluates the capacity of an urbanizing river-estuarine 27 continuum to transform N inputs from the world's largest advanced (e.g. phosphorus and 28 biological N removal) wastewater treatment facility. Effluent samples and surface water were collected monthly along the Potomac River Estuary from Washington D.C. to the 29 30 Chesapeake Bay over 150 km. In conjunction with box model mass balances, nitrate 31 stable isotopes and mixing models were used to trace the fate of urban wastewater nitrate. Nitrate concentrations and δ^{15} N-NO₃ values were higher down-estuary from the Blue 32 33 Plains wastewater outfall in Washington D.C. (2.25±0.62 mg/l and 25.7±2.9‰, respectively) compared to upper-estuary concentrations (1.0±0.2 mg/l and 9.3±1.4‰, 34 35 respectively). Nitrate concentration then decreased rapidly within 30 km down-estuary 36 (to 0.8±0.2 mg/l) corresponding with an increase in organic nitrogen and dissolved 37 organic carbon, suggesting biotic uptake and organic transformation. TN loads declined 38 down-estuary (from an annual average of 48,000±5,000 kg/day at the sewage treatment 39 plant outfall to 23,000±13,000 kg/day at the estuary mouth), with the greatest percentage 40 decrease during summer and fall. 4-71% of urban wastewater TN inputs were exported 41 to the Chesapeake Bay, with the greatest contribution of wastewater TN loads during the 42 spring. Our results suggest that biological transformations along the urban river-estuary 43 continuum can significantly transform wastewater N inputs from major cities globally, 44 but more work is necessary to evaluate the potential of organic nitrogen to contribute to 45 eutrophication and hypoxia.

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47 Key Words

48 Estuary, Mass Balance, Mixing Model, Nitrate Isotopes, Source Tracking, Wastewater

1 Introduction

Urbanization and agriculture have greatly increased the exports of nitrogen from coastal rivers and estuaries globally, contributing to eutrophication, hypoxia, harmful algal blooms, and fish kills (e.g. Aitkenhead-Peterson et al., 2009; Kaushal et al., 2014b; Nixon et al., 1996; Petrone, 2010; Vitousek et al., 1997). Despite billions of dollars spent on regulatory and technological improvements for wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) and agricultural and urban stormwater runoff (e.g. US-EPA, 1972, 2009, 2011), many coastal waters are still impaired. Also, there are major questions regarding how far urban sources of N (wastewater and stormwater runoff) are transmitted along tidal riverestuarine networks to N-sensitive coastal receiving waters. This study evaluates the capacity of a major river-estuarine system to transform and attenuate N inputs from the world's largest advanced (e.g. phosphorus and biological nitrogen removal) wastewater treatment plant (Blue Plains) before being transported down-estuary to the Chesapeake Bay. We used a combination of stable isotope and box model mass balance approaches to track the fate and transport of anthropogenic nitrogen across space and time. In addition to urban and agricultural inputs, altered river-estuarine hydrology can contribute to higher exports of N. Jordan et al. (2003) found that annual water discharge increased as the proportion of developed land in a coastal watershed increased. Higher flows, typically during winter and spring months, have also been associated with higher N loads in coastal river-estuaries (Boynton et al., 2008). Furthermore, regional climate

Published: 11 July 2016

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variability amplifies pulses of nutrients and other contaminants in rivers (Easterling et al., 70 2000; IPCC, 2007; Kaushal et al., 2010b; Saunders and Lea, 2008) and alters the biotic 71 transformation of N due to changes in hydrologic residence times (Hopkinson and 72 Vallino, 1995; Kaushal et al., 2014b; Wiegert and Penaslado, 1995). For example, high 73 flow periods related to storms can induce stratification and impact salinity regimes 74 (Boesch et al., 2001), which affects nutrient biogeochemistry like ammonium and 75 phosphate concentrations (Jordan et al., 2008). An improved understanding of the 76 longitudinal assimilatory capacity for nitrogen by large river-estuarine systems across 77 different flow regimes is needed for guiding effective coastal river and estuarine 78 management strategies. 79 One critical and innovative approach to effectively manage coastal nutrient 80 pollution is to 1) track the relative contributions of N export from different sources within 81 the watershed and 2) understand the potential for longitudinal transformation within 82 coastal rivers and estuaries. Recent studies using stable isotopes (Kaushal et al., 2011; 83 Kendall et al., 2007; Oczkowski et al., 2008; Wankel et al., 2006) have shown that these 84 methods can be helpful in elucidating sources and transformations of nitrogen. However, 85 these studies are typically conducted at relatively smaller spatial scales and without coupling to mass balance approaches over both time and space. 86 87 Here, we combine isotope and mass balance approaches to track sources and 88 transformations of urban wastewater inputs to Chesapeake Bay over space and time 89 across an urban river-estuary continuum spanning over 150 km. The space-time 90 continuum approach has previously been used in studying fate and transport of carbon 91 and nitrogen in urban watersheds (Kaushal and Belt, 2012; Kaushal et al., 2014c), and

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Published: 11 July 2016

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92 here we explore extending it to river and estuarine ecosystems. Our overarching 93 questions were: 1) how does the importance of point vs. non-point sources of N shift 94 along a tidal and stratified urban river-estuary continuum across space and time? 2) What 95 is the capacity of an urban river-estuary continuum to transform or assimilate 96 anthropogenic N inputs? 3) How are transport and transformations of N affected by 97 differences in season or hydrology? An improved understanding of how sources and 98 transformations of N change along the urban river-estuarine continuum over space and 99 time can inform management decisions regarding N source reductions along urbanizing 100 coastal watersheds (e.g. Boesch et al., 2001; Kaushal and Belt, 2012; Paerl et al., 2006).

2 Methods

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2.1 Site Description

This study is focused on the tidal Potomac River Estuary, which includes the section of the river from Washington D.C. to its confluence with the Chesapeake Bay (Fig. 1). The Potomac River Estuary begins as tidal freshwater, becoming oligohaline ~30-50 km below Washington D.C., and mesohaline at its mouth approximately 160 km below Washington D.C. (Jaworski et al., 1992). The Potomac River Estuary can be seasonally stratified (Hamdan and Jonas, 2006), especially in the southern portion of the system where intruding, saline bottom water from the main stem of the Chesapeake Bay leads to density driven estuarine circulation patterns (Elliott, 1976, 1978; Pritchard, 1956). Mixing is most evident at the estuarine turbidity maximum (Hamdan and Jonas, 2006), ~60-80 km below Washington D.C., and the water column is generally well mixed above the estuarine turbidity maximum zone in the tidal fresh and oligohaline regions of

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the estuary (Crump and Baross, 1996; Sanford et al., 2001).

The watershed draining to the Potomac River Estuary is classified as 58% forested, 23% agricultural, and 17% urban, based on Maryland Department of Planning data for 2002 (Karrh et al., 2007a). Based on the Chesapeake Bay Program (CBP) Model it was estimated that during 2005 total inputs of nitrogen were 33% from agriculture, 20% from urban (e.g. stormwater runoff and leaky sewers), 19% from point sources (wastewater treatment plants and industrial releases), 11% from forest, 10% from septic, 6 % from mixed open land, and 1 % from atmospheric deposition to water (Karrh et al., 2007b). The CBP model is developed using long-term monitoring data and the non-point loads are estimated from a variety of sources including land cover and agriculture records (Karrh et al., 2007b). The Potomac River Estuary also receives N inputs from Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant, located in Washington, D.C. Blue Plains currently discharges 2.3 mg/L of NO₃⁻ and 3.7 mg/L of TN, on average, and exports loads of approximately 2,300 kg/day of NO₃ and 3,900 kg of TN. Overall, Blue Plains treats and discharges 280 million gallons per day (mgd), almost 5% of Potomac River's annual discharge. In the past several decades, Blue Plains has undergone several technological improvements with phosphorus removal in the 1980s and enhanced N removal beginning in the year 2000. Since the implementation of advanced wastewater treatment technologies at Blue Plains, there has been a significant decrease (p < 0.01) in the concentration of nitrate in effluent discharge, from an average of 7.2 ± 0.3 mg/L before the year 2000 (years 1998 and 1999) to an average of 4.1 ± 0.4 mg/L after 2000 (years 2001 to 2008).

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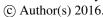


137 Analysis of long-term spatial and temporal water chemistry data 138 Surface and bottom water N and carbon data collected by the Maryland 139 Department of Natural Resources (DNR) and accessed through the Chesapeake Bay 140 Program's data hub website (Chesapeake Bay Program, 2013) was used to look at 141 historical (1984 to 2012) monthly nutrient concentrations from stations located 142 longitudinally along the Potomac River Estuary (Fig. 1). These data were used to look at 143 the spatial and temporal trends for dissolved and particulate forms of N and dissolved 144 organic carbon (DOC) in the Potomac River Estuary prior to and during this study. 145 146 Water Sampling 2.3 147 Water samples along the Potomac River estuary were collected monthly for one 148 year from April 2010 to May 2011; from 12 km to 160 km below the Blue Plains 149 wastewater treatment plant (See Fig. 1). Water was collected from the surface (top 0.5 150 m) and bottom water depths. Additionally, surface water samplings from 6 km above to 151 12 km below the Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant effluent outfall were collected 152 seasonally during this time (Fig. 1). Water temperature and salinity was also measured 153 during each water sampling. 154 155 Nitrate $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ Isotope Analysis Surface samples for δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ isotopes of dissolved nitrate were 156 157 filtered (0.45 µm), frozen, and shipped to the UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility (SIF) for 158 analysis. The isotope composition of nitrate was measured following the denitrifier

method (Casciotti et al., 2002; Sigman et al., 2001). In brief, denitrifying bacteria are

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160 used to convert nitrate in samples to N₂O gas, which is collected and sent through a mass spectrometer for determination of the stable isotopic ratios for N and O of nitrate (15N/14N 161 and $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$). Values for $\delta^{15}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ are reported as per mil (‰) relative 162 163 to atmospheric N₂ (δ^{15} N) or Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) (δ^{18} O), according to δ^{15} N or δ^{18} O (‰) = [(R)sample / (R)standard - 1] × 1000, where R denotes 164 the ratio of the heavy to light isotope ($^{15}N/^{14}N$ or $^{18}O/^{16}O$). For data correction and 165 calibration UC Davis SIF uses calibration nitrate standards (USGS 32, USGS 34, and 166 167 USGS 35) supplied by NIST (National Institute of Standards and Technology, 168 Gaithersburg, MD). The long-term standard deviation for nitrate isotope samples at UC Davis SIF is 0.4 % for δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and 0.5 % for δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻. Previous studies (Kaushal 169 170 et al., 2011; Kendall et al., 2007) indicate that the relative amounts of δ^{15} N-NO₃ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3$ can be used to determine specific sources of nitrate (i.e. fertilizer, nitrification, 171 172 atmospheric, or sewage derived nitrate). 173 It should be noted that while the denitrifier method converts sample NO₃⁻ and 174 NO₂⁻ to N₂O gas, in marine systems, NO₂⁻ has been shown to complicate interpretations of the N and O isotopes of NO₃ if it remains unaccounted for (e.g. Fawcett et al., 2015; 175 176 Marconi et al., 2015; Rafter et al., 2013; Smart et al., 2015). This is partially because 177 during the reduction of NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ to N₂O by the denitrifiers, the O isotope effects 178 are different (and thus need to be corrected for). In addition, the $\delta 15N$ of NO_2^- can be 179 extremely different from that of NO₃, potentially further complicating interpretation of 180 the data.

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2.5 Nitrate Isotope Mixing Model

To distinguish between the different potential nitrate sources we used a Bayesian isotope mixing model (Parnell et al., 2010; Parnell et al., 2013; Xue et al., 2012; Yang and Toor, 2016). For the Bayesian isotope mixing model, the Stable Isotope Analysis in R (SIAR) package was used to determine the fraction of nitrate in each sample from four different sources: wastewater, atmospheric, nitrification, and nitrate fertilizer (Parnell et al., 2010; Parnell et al., 2013; Xue et al., 2012; Yang and Toor, 2016). The SIAR mixing model is able to incorporate uncertainty in nitrate source estimates based on the uncertainty in the nitrate source endmembers (see below) (Parnell et al., 2010; Parnell et al., 2013; Xue et al., 2012; Yang and Toor, 2016). Nitrate source end-member values, for δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ were obtained from the literature, except wastewater nitrate, which was obtained from this study. The end-member values for δ^{15} N-NO₃ and δ^{18} O-NO₃ were -10.3±1.7 and 10.1±1.5, respectively for nitrate from nitrification (Mayer et al., 2001), 0±3 and 22±3, respectively for NO₃⁻ fertilizer (Mayer et al., 2002), and 3±3 and 69±5, respectively for atmospheric nitrate (Burns and Kendall, 2002; Divers et al., 2014). The wastewater δ^{15} N-NO₃ and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^{-1}$ end-member values (31.5±7.8 and 11±4.5, respectively) were based on averaging the effluent nitrate isotope values measured monthly from Blue Plains during the study period. The nitrification source represents NO₃- from nitrification in the water as well as nitrification of ammonia fertilizer in the watershed. The fertilizer source represents synthetically produced NO₃ fertilizer, not the more common ammonia fertilizer.

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Published: 11 July 2016

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Due to the variability in nitrate source endmembers, the mixing model was used primarily for illustrative purposes and should be viewed with caution (particularly with regard to identifying other sources besides wastewater). For example, there is high variability in the nitrification source endmembers because nitrate from nitrification can come from ammonia fertilizer, manure fertilizer, particulate organic matter within the water column, etc. The nitrate from nitrification will therefor carry a range of nitrate isotope values reflecting its original source (Kendall et al., 2007). Additionally, because denitrification is known to cause the increase in δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values through isotopic fractionation in approximately a 2:1 relationship (Divers et al., 2014; Kendall et al., 2007), this isotopic enrichment can complicate the identification of wastewater nitrate. As a result, water samples with increased wastewater nitrate, based on the mixing model, may also suggest denitrification has played a role in the isotopic levels of the sample nitrate.

2.6 Salinity vs. Nitrate Concentration and Isotope Mixing Plots

An additional method using plots of salinity *vs.* NO₃⁻ concentration or NO₃⁻ isotopes was used to assess whether there is conservative mixing (dilution), or mixing with additional NO₃⁻ sources down-estuary, or losses of NO₃⁻ through biotic uptake or denitrification (Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize, 2001; Wankel et al., 2006). Mixing line equations for NO₃⁻ concentrations were based on equations 1-3 from Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize (2001) and isotopes mixing lines were based on equation 4 from Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize (2001). The mixing line equations and endmember values used for salinity and nitrate isotopes are provided in supporting information (Table

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Published: 11 July 2016

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S2). Based on those equations, the salinity vs. NO_3^- concentration mixing lines are linear, while the mixing lines for NO_3^- isotopes are non-linear (Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize, 2001). Wankel et al. (2006) suggests that when nutrient concentrations fall above the mixing line this indicates an additional source to raise the concentrations, while concentrations that fall below the mixing line indicate there is a nutrient sink (e.g., denitrification, assimilation, etc.). For nitrate isotopes, when the δ^{15} N- NO_3^- and δ^{18} O- NO_3^- values fall above this mixing line, this could indicate an additional source or the fractionation of nitrate from assimilation or denitrification that would increase the heavy isotope levels, while isotope values below the mixing line could indicate an additional source of nitrate with lighter isotope values, such as from nitrification or fertilizer sources (Wankel et al., 2006).

2.7 Estuarine Nitrogen Net Fluxes

A box model was used to estimate net fluxes of TN, NO₃-, and nitrate isotope loads along the Potomac River Estuary using methods modified from Officer (1980), Boynton et al. (1995), Hagy et al. (2000), and Testa et al. (2008), which are widely used methods for tracking nutrient fluxes in estuaries between different salinity zones. First, the Potomac Estuary was divided into 6 boxes in order to accommodate adequate sampling stations per box, and to evaluate net fluxes at key locations along the estuarine gradient (Fig. 2). Next, due to the Potomac Estuary having a semi-diurnal tidal cycle, where there is movement back and forth across boundaries of the box model, mean monthly freshwater discharge inputs to the first box (USGS, 2014) and interpolated salinity values (measured monthly from surface and bottom waters throughout the

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between adjacent boxes. Salt balances were then used to compute net exchanges at the boundaries of the six model boxes, similar to previous estuarine box model studies (e.g. Boynton et al., 1995; Hagy et al., 2000). Average monthly TN, NO₃ and NO₃ isotope concentrations (collected from the surface and bottom water at each station, except for NO₃ isotopes, which were collected from the surface only) were multiplied by net estimated exchange values at the box boundaries and summed to calculate the N load leaving or entering each box. In order to calculate the loads for NO_3^- isotopes, the $\delta^{15}N$ - NO_3^- and $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ values in per mil (‰) were converted to concentrations (µg/L) by multiplying the NO₃ concentration of the sample by R, the ratio of the heavy to light isotope (15N/14N or 18O/16O). Fluxes were estimated for each month during the sampling period and then averaged to find seasonal estimates of N fluxes for the Potomac. The box model results were used to compute: (1) the total inputs of N, (2) the % inputs of loads from Blue Plains, (3) the net export of N to the Chesapeake Bay, (4) the % of Blue Plains inputs that are exported, (5) the net loss in loads along the estuary, and (6) the contribution of N loads from the Chesapeake Bay through tidal inflow. To account for uncertainty in monthly load estimates, error propagation was used for each of the hydrologic and nutrient inputs to the model. For example, the error in discharge data came from averaging the mean daily discharge for each month, the error in water concentrations came from averaging the surface and bottom water concentrations, and the error in N from atmospheric deposition came from averaging the weakly deposition data for each month. These uncertainties in the inputs to the box model were

system) were used to calculate advective and diffusive exchanges of water and salt

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273 then propagated for each of the box model calculations, similar to Filoso and Palmer 274 (2011).275 Inputs to the box model include, total monthly precipitation data based on 276 averaging data from three stations along the Potomac Estuary (Precipitation data is from 277 the NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information, Climate Data Online), 278 monthly estimates of atmospheric deposition for NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, and DIN (obtained from the National Atmospheric Deposition Program / National Trends Network), NO₃-279 280 concentrations and isotope levels in atmospheric deposition (from Buda and DeWalle, 281 2009, for the nearby central Pennsylvania region for the year 2005, which was a similar 282 year hydrologically (as described below)), N inputs from the land (from Chesapeake Bay 283 model output from 2005), surface and bottom water nutrient and salinity concentrations 284 (from MD DNR), and inputs from the Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant. Also, 285 while there are no USGS gages located along the Potomac Estuary, there is one USGS 286 gage (USGS 01646580) located directly above the Estuary, above the fall line (the 287 location where the hydryodynamics of the river cease being tidally influenced) and this 288 gage was used to account for freshwater inputs into the first box. The model also takes 289 into account water temperature and evaporation. 290 For the box model it is assumed that the 14 other WWTPs further down-estuary 291 have little effect on the nitrate signal because their combined TN load is 32% of the TN from Blue Plains and for the other reasons described below. While δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-292 293 NO₃ isotope values were not measured directly for the 14 other down-estuary wastewater 294 treatment plants, based on the literature, the values of these isotopes are typically lower (~10% for δ^{15} N-NO₃ and ~0 for δ^{18} O-NO₃) compared to 31.5% for δ^{15} N-NO₃ and 295

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297 2006). As a result, we expected the other WWTPs to have a similar or an even less 298 pronounced wastewater isotope signal compared to Blue Plains, which has biological 299 nitrogen removal (i.e. denitrification is promoted within the WWTP), elevating the δ^{15} N-300 NO_3^- and $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ isotope values at Blue Plains more (Kendall et al., 2007). 301 Consequently, the estimated nitrate loads down-estuary incorporate Blue Plains and 302 nitrate inputs from the other WWTPs, and are considered conservative estimates because 303 the additional WWTPs only add to the TN loads and NO₃ isotope signals and thus lessen 304 the decline in loads or isotope values down estuary. 305 A second assumption was made for the box model related to estuarine mixing. 306 Although portions of the lower estuary can be seasonally stratified, we assumed each box 307 to be well mixed vertically as no bottom water isotope values were available to constrain 308 a 2-layer box model. This assumption is supported by other bottom water data that is 309 available and by samples taken along the width of the estuary. For example, we have 310 conducted the box model and other analyses with and without bottom water isotope data 311 and found minimal change in results (Fig. S1, see below). Our measurements of various 312 biogeochemical signatures at the station close to the estuarine turbidity maximum 313 suggests that there is intense mixing at this site, and prior studies have documented 314 extensive mixing in the freshwater tidal portion of the system (Elliott, 1976, 1978; 315 Pritchard, 1956). Also, it can be assumed that because wastewater effluent inputs are 316 freshwater, much of the effluent plume would likely not sink in the more dense estuarine 317 waters moving up from the bay. Additionally, our box model estimates of net fluxes was 318 compared to a complex, 3 dimensional hydrodynamic model (described below) that

11‰ δ^{18} O-NO $_3$ - for Blue Plains (Kendall et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2013; Wankel et al.,

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Published: 11 July 2016

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319 incorporates stratification, and this comparison provided support for the low impact of 320 assuming mixing in our approach. 321 While seasonal stratification has been found close to the mouth of the of the 322 Potomac estuary (Hamdan and Jonas, 2006), using documented nitrate bottom water 323 isotope values from near the mouth of the estuary (Horrigan et al., 1990) we calculate 324 that incorporating bottom water isotope values would have a minimal impact on the flux 325 estimates of our box model, particularly when not including spring 2011 (Fig. S1). But 326 when including spring 2011, and using the reported values of 10% for bottom water δ^{15} N-NO₃, based on Horrigan et al. (1990), in Boxes 5 and 6 where stratification is most 327 likely, our estimates for the flux of δ^{15} N-NO₃ from these boxes increases by 20% on 328 329 average, and the net loss in load from box 1 to box 6 increases by 12% on average. This 330 indicates that our estimates are conservative because by not using bottom water we 331 estimate a smaller net loss in δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ (Fig. S1). 332 For the box model we also assumed the estuary to be well mixed laterally. In 333 terms of potential variability for samples taken at different locations along the width of 334 the estuary, there was found for surface water samples, on average, a 6±3% difference in 335 δ^{15} N-NO₃, a 7±3% difference in δ^{18} O-NO₃, a 24±8% difference in NO₃, and a 15±3% 336 difference in TN (based on samplings that were done at two or more locations along the 337 same longitudinal transect at approximately the same distance down-estuary, but at 338 different locations horizontally at that location). Based on this, the nitrate isotopes values 339 and NO₃ and TN concentrations appear to show that the estuary is fairly well mixed laterally. 340

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To assess the accuracy of the box model assumptions and results, estimated net fluxes of total N were compared to simulation output from the Chesapeake Bay Water Quality Model. This model was developed by the U.S. EPA to aid in efforts to set TMDLs for the Chesapeake Bay (Cerco et al., 2010), and combines a 3-D hydrodynamic model (CH3D) with a water quality model (CE-QUAL-ICM). Simulation output data were available for 1996, 2002, and 2005. We selected a simulation year (2005) because it had similar river discharge conditions to 2010, and compared modeled net fluxes of TN at three boundary locations to estimates at the same (or nearby) box model boundaries. **Statistical Analyses** 2.8 Statistical analyses were performed using the statistical package R (R Development Core Team, 2013). Linear regression was used to test for significant changes in stream chemistry and nitrate isotope data with distance down estuary. Repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for seasonal differences in nitrate isotopes trends with distance. 3 Results **Spatial and Temporal Trends in N Concentrations** Longitudinal patterns of dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) in the lower Potomac River showed an increase in concentrations near and directly below the Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant and then a steady decline in concentrations down to the Chesapeake Bay (Fig. 3a). The implementation of tertiary treatment in 2000 coincided

with a significant drop in annual average DIN concentration directly down-estuary (from

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 1.7 ± 0.02 to 1.3 ± 0.01 mg/l, p < 0.05) (Fig. 3a), when comparing years directly prior (1997-1999) and the years directly after 2000 (2001-2005). However, the impact of the wastewater treatment plant improvements on reducing longitudinal patterns of DIN was only apparent for the first 30 km down-estuary. After this, both the pre- and post-2000 DIN concentrations overlapped (Fig. 3a). As DIN decreased longitudinally down-estuary of the wastewater treatment plant, there was also a small, but significant increase in total organic nitrogen (TON) after the year 2000 (p < 0.01, Fig. 3a), not including the last sample near the mouth of the estuary, which is likely influenced by tidal inflow. There were seasonal variations in DIN concentrations along the Potomac River Estuary with the greatest concentrations in the winter and spring (Fig. 3b). There is also a steeper decline in DIN with distance during fall, winter, and summer compared to the spring (p < 0.05, Fig. 3b). The average molar ratio of DIN to PO_4^{-3} (N:P ratio) showed an initial increase, then a decrease as estuarine salinity started to increase (Fig. 3c). During the summer and fall, the N:P ratio fell below the Redfield ratio (16:1, the atomic ratio of nitrogen and phosphorus found in oceans and phytoplankton), around 40 km down-estuary and stayed below 16, which indicated a shift from P to N limitation. During the winter and spring, the N:P ratio never fell below 16 and increased steadily after 50 km down-estuary (Fig. 3c). There was also a significant negative relationship between NO_3^- and DOC concentration during the study period (p < 0.01, Fig. 4). Spatial and Seasonal Trends in NO₃- Isotopes and Sources During each season, except spring, δ^{15} N-NO₃ values increased sharply at the Blue Plains outfall, from 9.3 ± 1.4 % up-estuary to 25.7 ± 2.9 % at the outfall (p < 0.05),

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During the summer and fall, the δ^{15} N-NO₃ values showed the largest increase near the 387 388 effluent outfall (except for one very high winter value) and then a significant decrease (p 389 < 0.05) with distance down-estuary. There was also a slight increase in δ^{15} N-NO₃ and 390 δ^{18} O-NO₃ values from 1 to 6 km down-estuary (Fig. 5a,b). During the winter and spring, the δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values remained relatively constant throughout the estuary, 391 392 even near Blue Plains (Fig. 5a,b), while during the summer and fall the δ^{15} N-NO₃ and 393 $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3$ values steadily declined after 6-10 km down-estuary (Fig. 5a,b). At the mouth 394 of the estuary, the δ^{15} N-NO₃ values for all seasons were roughly equivalent (Fig. 5a). During the summer and fall, the δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values showed a steady decrease after 12 km 395 396 down-estuary, while they increased during spring and winter (Fig. 5b). 397 Based on the nitrate isotope mixing model, nitrate contributions from wastewater 398 ranged from $80 \pm 13\%$ at the wastewater outfall to $57 \pm 11\%$ within the first 1 km down-399 estuary. Wastewater nitrate contributions then decreased to 44 ± 14% at the confluence 400 of the Potomac River Estuary with Chesapeake Bay (Fig. 5c). Nitrate from nitrification 401 (of N from upriver manure or ammonia fertilizer and also Blue Plains wastewater N) 402 increased from $13 \pm 12\%$ at the wastewater outfall to $29 \pm 22\%$ at the confluence of the 403 Potomac River Estuary with Chesapeake Bay (Fig. 5c). Nitrate from fertilizer increased 404 from $6 \pm 6\%$ at the wastewater outfall to $22 \pm 22\%$ at the confluence of the Potomac 405 River Estuary with Chesapeake Bay (Fig. 5c). Nitrate from atmospheric deposition 406 changed little along the Potomac Estuary from 1 ± 1 at the wastewater outfall to 5 ± 5 at 407 the confluence with the Chesapeake Bay (Fig. 5c). At the last two sampling stations near

and then rapidly decreased within 2 km down-estuary to $15.7 \pm 2.2 \%$ (p < 0.05, Fig. 5a).

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Published: 11 July 2016

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408 the mouth of the Potomac River Estuary, NO₃ from fertilizer showed an increase, while 409 NO₃ from nitrification showed a corresponding decline (Fig. 5c). 410 δ¹⁵N-NO₃ and δ¹⁸O-NO₃, NO₃ Concentration, and Salinity Relationships 411 412 The Blue Plains effluent and Potomac River samples within 20 km downriver of 413 the wastewater treatment plant showed a significant positive relationship between δ^{15} N- NO_3^- and $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ (p < 0.05) (Fig. 6a). When denitrification and biotic uptake occurs, 414 plotting δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ vs. δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ shows a 2:1 relationship (Kendall et al. 2007). The 415 416 Blue Plains effluent samples showed approximately a 2.4 to 1 relationship. The samples 417 within 20 km downriver showed a 3:1 ratio (Fig. 6a). The nitrate samples within the first 418 6 km showed a 2.4 to 1 relationship (Fig. 6a). There were also seasonal differences in the relationship between δ^{15} N-NO₃ and δ^{18} O-NO₃ (Fig. 6b); spring, summer, and fall were 419 characterized by close to a 2:1 relationship between δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ vs. δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻, while 420 421 winter showed a ~8:1 relationship. Because salinity is a conservative tracer, plots of salinity vs. NO_3^- , $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$, and 422 423 δ¹⁸O-NO₃ can indicate effects of mixing between water at the tidal freshwater section 424 with water from the mesohaline section of the Potomac River Estuary. Deviations from 425 the mixing lines can indicate additional sources or biological transformations 426 (Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize, 2000; Wankel et al., 2006). Surface water NO₃ concentrations and nitrate isotopes fell on (for $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3$) or slightly below mixing line 427 428 (for δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻) during the spring (Fig. 7a,b,c), which indicated mostly conservative mixing (dilution or inputs from low δ^{15} N-NO₃ like nitrification, see discussion below). 429 430 But during the summer and fall, the NO₃ concentration and isotope values fell well

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Published: 11 July 2016

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below the mixing lines. During the winter, the values fell both above and below the mixing line (Fig. 7a,b,c), which indicated non-conservative mixing (please see discussion

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3.4 Spatial and Seasonal Trends in N Loads

Our comparisons of box model net exchange estimates with simulation output provided by the Chesapeake Bay Program Eutrophication Model ("Bay Model") revealed similar TN loads between our results and the Bay Model in the winter, spring, and fall, with the largest differences in the models evident in the summer months at the boundary location where tidal fresh transitions to oligohaline conditions and at the mouth of the estuary (Table S3 and Figures 8 and 9). Even so, these differences are smaller than a factor of 2 for winter and spring and for most of the summer and fall, despite the assumption of complete mixing in our box model, a good agreement considering the simplification of hydrodynamics inherent to a box modeling approach when compared to the highly constrained CH3D hydrodynamic modeling platform (Cerco et al., 2010). The Potomac estuary is well mixed along two thirds of its length, and this likely contributes to our success in applying a single layer box model to this system. The box model also permitted estimates of TN loads at smaller spatial scales than the three boundaries available from the Chesapeake Bay Program, which could enable a better interpretation of where Blue Plains effluent was subject to transformations in the oligohaline portion of the estuary (Fig. 8). The caveat here is that box-modeled summer loads should be interpreted with caution because they show the greatest differences from the CH3D model.

Published: 11 July 2016

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454 Results of the box model indicated that the net load (kg/day) of TN, NO₃-, and 455 δ^{15} N-NO₃ decreased down-estuary during each season (Fig. 10a-c, p <0.05 for winter 456 and spring and p < 0.1 for summer and fall). N loads were highest along the estuary 457 during spring and winter (Fig. 10), and there was a greater decline in TN loads on 458 average from box 1 to box 6 during winter and spring (a loss of $\sim 27,000 \pm 15,000$ and 459 $50,000 \pm 52,000 \text{ kg/day, respectively}$ (Table 1) compared to summer and fall (a loss of 460 \sim 7,000 ± 8,000 and 15,000 ± 13,000 kg/day, respectively). However, the summer and 461 fall months showed a greater percent decline in TN (75 \pm 75% and 112 \pm 95%, 462 respectively) compared to winter and spring (54 ± 40 and $36 \pm 43\%$, respectively). The 463 relatively high errors are primarily from the larger uncertainty found in the last box, at the 464 mouth of the estuary, due to the larger size of this box and greater uncertainty in fluxes at 465 the mouth of the estuary; the uncertainties are much smaller further up-estuary (See Fig. 10a). NO_3^- and $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ follow the same seasonal patterns as TN. Also, winter, along 466 467 with summer and fall, showed a greater percent decline in NO₃ and NO₃ isotope loads 468 compared to spring (Table 1). 469 Using an estimated N burial rate of 7.09×10^6 kg/yr (which is an average of burial 470 rate estimates for the upper and lower Potomac Estuary) from Boynton et al. (1995), it 471 was calculated that, on an mean annual basis, burial accounts for about 77% of the loss in 472 TN. Denitrification was then calculated, by difference, to account for the remaining 23% 473 loss in TN load. Using a different independent method, based on the average annual 474 estimated denitrification rate (2.8 ×10⁶ kg/yr) from the upper and lower Potomac 475 (Boynton et al., 1995), and the box model results, it is estimated that denitrification

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Published: 11 July 2016

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accounts for about 27% of the TN removal. Consequently denitrification is estimated to account for 23 to 27% of the loss in TN load along the Potomac Estuary.

The percent contribution of TN inputs from the Blue Plains wastewater treatment to the main stem of the Chesapeake Bay ranged from 8 to 47 % (Table 1). The contribution was significantly lower during the winter and spring (10 ± 13 and $8 \pm 1\%$, respectively) compared to summer and fall (38 ± 3 and $47 \pm 13\%$, respectively, Table 1), when TN fluxes from all sources are relatively low. The percent contribution of Blue Plains wastewater TN inputs, which are exported to the Chesapeake Bay ranged from <4 to 71%, and they were highest in the spring ($71 \pm 20\%$, Table 1). There were also N inputs to the Potomac river-estuarine continuum from the Chesapeake Bay during each season, except spring, due to higher flows (Table 1 & 2) because flow in spring was too high to allow the inputs from the Bay that occurred in the other seasons. NO_3^- and $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ follow the same seasonal patterns as TN, showing the greatest percentage of inputs from Blue Plains exported during the spring.

4 Discussion

While coastal urbanization can have a major impact on water quality in receiving waters, the results of this study suggest that estuaries also show a large capacity to transform or bury anthropogenic N. In particular, our results suggest that 30-96% of inputs of N from the Washington D.C. Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant were removed *via* burial or denitrification along the Potomac river-estuarine continuum, depending on the season (Table 1). Recent work shows that urban watersheds and river

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Published: 11 July 2016

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networks can also be "transformers" of nitrogen across similar broad spatial scales, which impacts downstream coastal water quality (Kaushal et al., 2014a). Here, we show that the urban river-estuarine continuum also acts as a transformer and can have large impacts on the sources, amounts, and forms of nitrogen transported to the Chesapeake Bay. Our results showed that N transformation varied across seasons and hydrologic conditions with important implications for anticipating changes in sources and transport of coastal nitrogen pollution in response to future climate change. This is particularly significant, given long-term increases in warming water temperatures of major rivers and increased frequency and magnitude of droughts and floods in this region and elsewhere (e.g. Kaushal et al., 2010a; Kaushal et al., 2014b).

4.1 Spatial and Temporal Trends in N Concentrations and Loads

The decrease in DIN concentrations with distance down-estuary is largely from denitrification, assimilation, and burial, as indicated by the inverse relationship between NO₃⁻ concentrations and DOC and TON concentrations, the NO₃⁻ isotope data, and N mass balance data discussed below. Dilution from tidal marine waters plays a minor role in the decrease in DIN and the incoming tidal waters may even contribute to DIN as suggested by the decrease in DIN slope after 130 km down estuary (Boynton et al., 1995), depending on the season. The installation of tertiary wastewater treatment technology at Blue Plains in the year 2000 showed a significant drop in DIN concentrations within 20-30 km of Blue Plains. However, the DIN concentrations below 30 km down-estuary were approximately the same based on an annual average, before and after the year 2000. One explanation is that the dissolved wastewater N is

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TON or DOC relationships (Fig.s 3a and 4) or removed by denitrification (as suggested by the isotope data discussed below) within the first 10 km down-estuary, and thus the majority of DIN below 30 km is from other inputs than the Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant. For example, there are 14 other smaller wastewater treatment plants along the Potomac River Estuary, which contribute a total of about 270 mgd (almost as much as the amount Blue Plains contributes). Also, our isotope mixing model data (discussed more below) suggests nitrification (likely of upriver manure or ammonia fertilizer inputs) and fertilizer are important sources further down-estuary; and 42% of the land-use along the Potomac Estuary is agriculture (Karrh et al., 2007b). A second explanation could be related to a change in N:P ratio with distance down-estuary. Specifically, there was a rise in estuarine salinity around 30 to 50 km down-estuary and a coinciding increase in dissolved PO₄-3 concentration (typical of the estuarine salinity gradient) (Jordan et al., 2008). When the N:P ratio fell below the Redfield Ratio of 16:1, the estuary could shift from P limitation to N limitation (Fisher et al., 1999). The potential shift from P to N limitation occurred 40-50 km down-estuary, around the estuarine turbidity maximum, which is associated with higher estuarine bacterial productivity (Crump and Baross, 1996), and may be driving DIN removal further downestuary. Mass balance indicates that TN and NO₃ loads decreased down-estuary each season (despite inputs from the 14 other wastewater treatment plants down-estuary). On an annual average, it was estimated that approximately 23-27% of the loss in TN could be attributed to denitrification, while 73-77% was lost through burial into the estuarine

completely assimilated into particulate organic matter (supported by the inverse NO₃⁻ vs.

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sediment. This is supported by the NO₃⁻ isotope data indicating that there was likely denitrification (an assimilation) of NO₃, particularly within 6 km down-estuary from the Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant (discussed further below). Over seasonal time scales, there was a greater percent decline in TN loading during summer and fall, likely due to warmer temperatures and increased biological transformation (attributable to high rates of phytoplankton uptake, detrital deposition, and remineralization for subsequent recycling) (Eyre and Ferguson, 2005; Gillooly et al., 2001; Harris and Brush, 2012; Nowicki, 1994), which suggested that the urban river-estuarine continuum may be more efficient at removing TN during the summer and fall. Compared to summer and fall, winter also had a relatively high percent decline in NO₃ loads possibly driven by the higher concentrations typically found in winter months, which could result in quicker assimilation through first order reaction rate kinetics (Betlach and Tiedje, 1981). Since there was no evidence for denitrification during the winter, burial could also be a mechanism for the relative high decline in winter months, which is typical of higher flows (Boynton et al., 1995; Milliman et al., 1985; Sanford et al., 2001). However, more work is necessary to evaluate the fate of nitrate using ecosystem process level measurements. The higher total exports of TN and NO₃⁻ to Chesapeake Bay during the winter and spring are due to greater N inputs from the upper and lower watershed and/or greater flow rates. The proportion of N exports attributed to Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant were the highest in the spring, likely due to lower water residence times (Table 2), resulting in less time for biological uptake, removal, or burial of N. The greater decline in N loads during the spring, however, may be attributed to multiple factors, such as

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greater N loads being imported from the upper estuary and higher concentrations, compared to summer and fall (Table 1) and thus driving greater losses (from burial and denitrification) due to first order reaction rate kinetics (Betlach and Tiedje, 1981) similar to winter (described above), stratification that is characteristic of higher flows (Boesch et al., 2001), and increased burial rates due to greater sediment loads during higher flows (Milliman et al., 1985; Sanford et al., 2001). As mentioned previously, more work is necessary regarding linking ecosystem processes and microbial dynamics with the fate of nitrate in the estuary. Nonetheless, the decline in TN and NO₃- loads down-estuary each season provide strong evidence for the transformation and retention of N along estuaries. 4.2 Spatial Trends in NO₃- Sources Indicate Denitrification and Assimilation of NO₃ initially Dominates and then Nitrification Dominates Further Down-**Estuary** The Potomac River estuary was a transformer of wastewater N inputs from the Washington D.C. metropolitan area to its confluence with Chesapeake Bay. The values for δ^{15} N-NO₃ above the wastewater treatment plant were relatively high, suggesting upriver sources may primarily be from animal waste (Burns et al., 2009; Kaushal et al., 2011; Kendall et al., 2007). This is consistent with a previous study, which found that 43% of N inputs to the upper Potomac River are from manure (Jaworski et al., 1992). Effluent inputs from the Blue Plains wastewater treatment plant significantly increased the δ^{15} N-NO₃ values even further, yet this NO₃ signal from wastewater disappeared after 20-30 km down-estuary. The increase in δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values within the first 1 to 6 km down-estuary suggest denitrification or assimilation of nitrate, due to the

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Published: 11 July 2016

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lighter δ^{14} N-NO₃ and δ^{16} O-NO₃ isotopes being preferentially denitrified or assimilated 590 591 and leaving behind the heavier nitrate isotopes (Granger et al., 2008; Granger et al., 2004; 592 Kendall et al., 2007) (see further discussion below). But the gradual decline in both 593 δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values from 6 km to 160 km down-estuary suggests 594 nitrification dominates this portion of the estuary because the process of nitrification, 595 which converts ammonia to nitrate results in lighter nitrate isotopes being generated 596 through fractionation (Kendall et al., 2007; Vavilin, 2014) (see further discussion below). However, the decline in δ^{15} N-NO₃ and δ^{18} O-NO₃ loads corresponding with the decline 597 598 in overall NO₃ loads down-estuary also suggests that the heavy nitrate isotopes are being removed as well as the light isotopes. The disappearance of δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ 599 600 down-estuary where NO₃⁻ concentrations are very low (~0.01 mg/l) may indicate that assimilation or even denitrification is occurring on the remaining heavy δ^{15} N-NO₃ or 601 $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ after the lighter $\delta^{14}\text{N-NO}_3^-$ or $\delta^{16}\text{O-NO}_3^-$ is all used up (Fogel and Cifuentes, 602 603 1993; Vavilin et al., 2014; Waser et al., 1998a; Waser et al., 1998b). Seasonal differences in the longitudinal trends for δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ 604 605 suggest differences in biological transformations of nitrate due to differences in water 606 temperature, hydrology, and/or N inputs. The δ¹⁵N-NO₃ values from effluent inputs 607 were likely higher in warmer months due to higher denitrification rates in the wastewater 608 treatment plant associated with warmer water temperatures (Dawson and Murphy, 1972; Pfenning and McMahon, 1997), resulting in elevated δ^{15} N-NO₃ values produced by 609 610 isotopic fractionation (Kendall et al., 2007; Mariotti et al., 1981). An increase in δ^{15} N-611 NO₃ between 2 and 6 km down-estuary during summer and fall (Fig. 5b) further 612 suggested increased denitrification or biological uptake due to warmer water

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temperatures and fractionation (Eyre and Ferguson, 2005; Gillooly et al., 2001; Harris and Brush, 2012; Nowicki, 1994). The significant drop in δ^{15} N-NO₃ beyond 10 km down-estuary during summer and fall may have been due to mixing with other N sources and increased nitrification (Wankel et al., 2006) (see further discussion below). During the spring, there was also a significant decline in δ^{15} N-NO₃ between 10 and 160 km down-estuary, but this was likely attributed to dilution and nitrification, based on the conservative mixing results discussed below. The lack of a significant change during the winter, may be due to shorter residence times (Table 2) and cooler temperatures, contributing to lower biological transformation rates. Further down-estuary, near the mouth of the estuary, the increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3$ in winter and spring might indicate denitrification in the estuary but in spring nitrate seems conservative based on the salinity mixing plots. The decline in δ^{18} O-NO₃ down-estuary in summer and fall suggest that processes other than denitrification in the estuary are controlling the δ^{18} O-NO₃, such as nitrification. Isotope and Salinity Mixing Models Suggest Seasonal Patterns in N Transformation Influenced by Temperature and Residence Time Seasonally, the ~2:1 relationship between δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ during spring, summer and fall, may indicate denitrification or assimilation, but the salinity mixing plots discussed below suggests no denitrification in the spring. The fact that the δ¹⁵N:δ¹⁸O ratio is between 1 and 2 for summer and fall may suggests assimilation plays a role, which is supported by previous studies which found a 1:1 relationship for assimilation in the marine environment (Granger et al., 2004; Karsh et al., 2012; Karsh et

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Published: 11 July 2016

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al., 2014). However, other previous studies suggest that a δ^{15} N: δ^{18} O ratio between 1 and 636 637 2 can also be cause by denitrifying bacteria (Granger et al., 2008; Lehmann et al., 2003). 638 Additionally, the divergence from the 2:1 ratio further down-estuary samples may 639 indicate mixing between two or more NO₃ sources, such as between atmospheric, 640 marine, or nitrification (Kaushal et al., 2011; Wankel et al., 2006). Due to water column 641 dissolved oxygen levels averaging over 4 mg/L (data from Chesapeake Bay program, not 642 shown), assimilation likely dominates NO₃ removal in the water column, while 643 denitrification likely dominates nitrate removal from the sediment, which supported by 644 previous work (Cornwell et al., 2014; Kemp et al., 1990). 645 Denitrification is likely a sink for NO₃⁻ during the summer and fall based on the increases in δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ within 6 km down-estuary and due to warmer 646 647 water temperatures, while there is no evidence for denitrification in the winter due to 648 reduced biological activities typical in cooler winter temperatures (Eyre and Ferguson, 649 2005; Gillooly et al., 2001; Harris and Brush, 2012; Nowicki, 1994). Nevertheless, 650 nitrate removal was significant in all seasons, including winter suggesting other 651 mechanisms, as indicated by the salinity based mixing lines. Plots of salinity vs. NO_3^- , $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$, and $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$ were used to provide 652 653 evidence for conservative mixing, uptake, production, or contributions from other NO₃⁻ 654 sources. NO₃ concentrations fell below the mixing lines during the summer, fall, and 655 winter, suggesting non-conservative mixing behavior due to the presence of a NO₃ sink, 656 such as assimilation or denitrification (Wankel et al., 2006). During the spring NO₃-657 concentrations fell on the mixing line, however, suggesting that there were no important 658 sources or sinks. This may be due to higher flows and shorter residence times in the

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salinity vs. δ^{15} N-NO₃ and δ^{18} O-NO₃ plots, when the isotope values fell below the 660 mixing lines, this suggested the contribution of NO_3^- from sources with lower $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ 661 662 and $\delta^{18}\text{O-NO}_3^{-}$, such as fertilizer inputs or nitrification, which produces nitrate with lower δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ and δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ values through fractionation (Kaushal et al., 2011; Kendall et 663 664 al., 2007). An increase in nitrification down-estuary is likely attributed to the conversion 665 of remineralized N to nitrate or from down-estuary inputs of wastewater ammonia that is converted to nitrate (Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize, 2001). During the spring, δ^{18} O-666 NO₃⁻, isotope values again fell mostly on the mixing line, which may indicate the 667 668 Potomac River Estuary is acting more like a transporter instead of a transformer (e.g. 669 Kaushal and Belt, 2012), transporting NO₃ without there being any significant sinks of 670 NO₃ or mixing with additional sources, likely due to lower residence times (Table 2) in the spring. However, the fact that during the spring the δ^{15} N-NO₃ values were slightly 671 672 below the mixing line indicates there may have been an increased amount of nitrate 673 inputs from the watershed through runoff carrying nitrate derived from nitrification. 674 During the winter, δ^{15} N-NO₃ values also fell above the mixing line for some samples, which suggested the contribution of heavy δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ from an additional down-estuary 675 676 source (there are 14 other wastewater treatment plants in the lower Potomac watershed). 677 This was likely not the case during the summer and fall when other sources and sinks 678 may dominate due to greater biological activities (Eyre and Ferguson, 2005; Gillooly et 679 al., 2001; Harris and Brush, 2012; Nowicki, 1994) or during the spring when flows are 680 higher the there is more conservative behavior. Even though only surface water salinity, 681 nutrient, and isotope values were used in these mixing line plots, when bottom water

spring (Table 2), which can result in less biological transformations of NO₃⁻. In the

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nutrient and isotope data was averaged with the surface water values, the mixing lines plots and results did not change (data not shown).

5 Conclusion

By coupling isotope tracking techniques and a mass balance over broader spatial and temporal scales, we found that an urban river-estuarine continuum in the Chesapeake Bay, and likely similar estuaries globally can transform anthropogenic inputs of N over relatively short spatial scales. Only a small fraction of N inputs from a major wastewater treatment plant were exported out of the estuary. However, processing of N by estuaries can vary considerably across seasons and hydrologic extremes, with greater exports during periods of higher flows and cooler temperatures, and greater transformations and retention during longer hydrologic residence times and warmer temperatures. In particular, this study supports previous work, showing that non-point sources of N were more dominate during winter and spring when runoff from the watershed and estuarine flows were higher compared to summer and fall when the point-sources were more dominant, due to lower flows. These differences suggest N processing in urban estuaries would differ from those in non-urban estuaries. Also, the potential for long-term and widespread increase in water temperatures and frequency and magnitude of droughts and floods through climate change (Kaushal et al., 2010a; Kaushal et al., 2014b; Kaushal et al., 2010b), will likely influence the sources and transformation of nitrogen to the Chesapeake Bay and estuaries globally. Consequently, future efforts to manage nutrient exports along estuaries would benefit from better understanding the interactive effects of land use and climate variability on the sources, amounts, and transformations of N

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Published: 11 July 2016

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705 treatment. 706 707 **Details on Supporting Information** 708 • Additional site information and details on methods 709 Table with site coordinates 710 • Table with mixing model 711 • Table comparing between box model (this study) and Chesapeake Bay Model. 712 A figure comparing box model results with and without bottom water isotope data 713 714 **Data Availability** 715 Data used for the research in this paper is available through 4TU.centre at the following 716 DOI and URL: doi:10.4121/uuid:e68c6141-f83e-4375-ac3b-088ddf4eff51 717 http://doi.org/10.4121/uuid:e68c6141-f83e-4375-ac3b-088ddf4eff51 718 719 **Author contribution** 720 This paper is based on work from Michael Pennino's PhD dissertation. Dr. Michael 721 Pennino collected water samples, conducted data analysis, and wrote the manuscript. Dr. 722 Sujay Kaushal contributed to the study design, and provided helpful feedback on data 723 analysis and manuscript writing. Dr. Sudhir Murthy contributed to study design, 724 provided data, and contributed to manuscript revisions. Joel Blomquist contributed to 725 study design, sample collection, and manuscript revisions. Dr. Jeff Cornwell contributed 726 to manuscript revisions and provided feedback on data analysis. Dr. Lora Harris

exported to coastal waters and targeting critical times for more intensive wastewater

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Published: 11 July 2016

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728 mass balance), and manuscript writing. 729 730 Acknowledgements 731 Contact the corresponding author (michael.pennino@gmail.com) regarding the nitrate 732 isotope data. The historical water quality data used in this study was collected by the 733 Maryland Department of Natural Resources and is available free through the Chesapeake 734 Bay Program's Data Hub website: 735 (www.chesapeakebay.net/data/downloads/cbp_water_quality_database_1984_present). 736 This research was supported by the Washington D.C. Water and Sewer Authority. We 737 would like to thank Sally Bowen and Matt Hall from the Maryland Department of 738 Natural Resources (DNR) for their assistance in collecting monthly water samples along 739 the Potomac Estuary and David Brower at the U.S. Geological Survey for help in 740 collecting monthly river input samples for the Potomac River. We acknowledge the input 741 provided by Lewis Linker and Ping Wang of the US EPA Chesapeake Bay Program's 742 Modeling Team for providing simulated output from the CE QUAL ICEM model at three 743 flux boundaries in the Potomac for comparison with our box model output. Gratitude is 744 extended to Dr. Jeremy Testa for his suggestions regarding the box model effort. Tom 745 Jordan also provided helpful suggestions. 746

contributed to study design, and helped with data analysis (particularly for the box model

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Published: 11 July 2016

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from Bay to 412 ± 1471 Net Loads -127 ± 480 473 ± 414 380 ± 164 264 ± 290 $\begin{array}{c} 8\pm109 \\ 11\pm10 \end{array}$ $86\pm \mathrm{NA}$ (kg/day) 32 ± 58 13 ± 35 Estuary NA NA 46 ± 34 77 ± 19 Box 1 to 87 ± 105 28 ± 25 26 ± 21 74 ± 33 85 ± 122 68 ± NA 26 ± 31 along Estuary, 44 ± 21 83 ± 3 30 ± 43 Load Net Loss in 4223 ± 763 Load along Estuary, Box 1 to 5 329085739 ± 1832 $4140\,\pm$ ± 86608 (kg/day) $29515 \pm$ ± 66292 77 ± NA 42 ± 71 10069 26 ± 13 5637 ± 26791 9509 2099 6817 18 ± 1 Table 1. Seasonal comparison of N and C inputs, exports, and losses along the Potomac River Estuary. % Net Loss Box 1 to 6 48 ± 136 along Estuary, 36 ± 43 112 ± 95 60 ± 187 96 ± 141 108 ± 181 $97 \pm NA$ 54 ± 40 75 ± 75 93 ± 29 in Load 83 ± 3 Estuary, Box 1 31791 ± 7417 7155 ± 8370 Net Loss in Load along 5166 ± 4143 7291 ± 6812 $130 \pm NA$ 15364 ± 88 ± 547 (kg/day) 49672 ± $40206 \pm$ 161977 $27369 \pm$ 52116 27 ± 1 26 ± 8 14597 12548 % of Blue Plains 2.7 ± NA 52 ± 136 Inputs Exported $3.7 \pm NA$ 71 ± 20 19 ± 11 $3 \pm NA$ 52 ± 70 17 ± 2 17 ± 3 13 ± 68 18 ± 10 13 ± 35 19844 ± 13728 68431 ± 48060 -1613 ± 12124 $161747 \\ 105 \pm 4130$ 4853 ± 8326 2080 ± 6235 204 ± 6278 170 ± 547 Net Export $30039 \pm$ $4\pm NA$ (kg/day) 5 ± 1 7.4 ± 0.6 49 ± 6.3 5.7 ± 4.6 8 ± 0.8 10 ± 13 38 ± 3 47 ± 13 4 ± 0.4 53 ± 1.6 55 ± 5.8 Blue Plains* 7 ± 0.1 % of Inputs from 53 ± 18.2 95395 ± 10416 49150 ± 30323 37749 ± 23574 10526 ± 3006 15334 ± 3700 13888 ± 596 Fotal Inputs 7066 ± 364 $135317 \pm$ 130 ± 10 (kg/day) 374 ± 3 30 ± 1 14614 40 ± 5 δ¹⁵N-NO₃-815N-NO₃-8¹⁵N-NO₃-815N-NO3-Nutrient NO3-NO3- NO_{3} NO_3 Ľ Z Z Summer Summer Summer Winter Spring Winter Spring Spring Winter Fall 1013

3N = Total Nitrogen. NA - indicates there was only one month with data for that season and thus no S.E. value.

*Blue Plains is a wastewater treatment plant.

Published: 11 July 2016

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Table 2. Comparison of mean seasonal discharge and residence time within the Potomac
River Estuary

River Estuary				
	Mean Discharge (m ³ /s)	Mean Residence time		
		(days)		
Winter	187 ± 60	26 ± 18		
Spring	545 ± 214	57 ± 36		
Summer	81 ± 29	129 ± 85		
Fall	81 ± 27	196 ± 102		
Spring Summer	545 ± 214 81 ± 29	26 ± 18 57 ± 36 129 ± 85		

Data is based on discharge and box model results for the period from April 2010 to March 2011.

Published: 11 July 2016

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1038 Figures

- Figure 1. Map showing the Potomac River sampling stations (black diamond) and the
- 1040 location of the Blue Plains Wastewater Treatment plant (WWTP, black X) just south of
- Washington D.C., within the Chesapeake Bay watershed. The larger figure shows the
- 1042 location of monthly extensive synoptic surveys sites and the smaller figure on upper left
- shows the locations of the shorter intensive synoptic surveys. The larger figure also
- shows the location for the historical Maryland DNR surface water sampling sites.

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Figure 2. Plot of the Potomac Estuary depth with distance down-estuary showing the

location of the 6 boxes used in the box model calculations.

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- 1049 Figure 3. Longitudinal patterns in Potomac River Estuary: (a) mean annual dissolved
- inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and total organic nitrogen (TON) spanning 1997 to 2005, (b)
- 1051 mean seasonal DIN before year 2000 (1994 to 1999), and post 2000 (2001 to 2012), and
- 1052 (c) mean (1994 to 2012) seasonal molar N:P ratio (DIN/PO₄⁻³), with salinity averaged
- from all seasons (1984 to 2008). Note: errors bars are provided, but S.E. is relatively
- small compared to concentrations. This data was obtained from the Maryland DNR and
- the Chesapeake Bay Program Data Hub.

1056 1057

Figure 4. Comparison of NO₃⁻ vs. dissolved organic carbon (DOC). N and C data was

obtained from the Maryland DNR and the Chesapeake Bay Program Data Hub for this

study period.

1060

Figure 5. Trends in (a) δ^{15} N-NO₃, (b) δ^{18} O-NO₃, and (c) percent contribution of nitrate

from wastewater, the atmospheric, and nitrification, based on isotope mixing model, with distance down-estuary from wastewater treatment plant input. Error bars are standard

errors of the mean. N = 1 for winter, N = 3 for spring and fall, and N = 2 for summer.

1065

Figure 6. (a) Plot of δ^{15} N-NO₃⁻ vs. δ^{18} O-NO₃⁻ of nitrate from effluent water samples and

- 1067 Potomac River Estuary samples, showing samples from different locations along the
- estuary; the grey arrow indicates the 2:1 relationship characteristic for denitrification; and
- 1069 (b) Same plot as (a), but seasonally and without the effluent or wastewater outfall values.
- Not included in these plots is the box indicating the region where atmospheric nitrate
- samples generally lie, from -10 to +15 for δ^{15} N-NO₃ and from 60 to 100 for δ^{18} O-NO₃.

1072

- Figure 7. Comparison of salinity vs. (a) NO_3^- , (b) $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$ and (c) $\delta^{18}O-NO_3^-$. Mixing
- lines connect the mean NO₃ concentration or isotope values at the lowest and highest
- salinity values. Error bars are standard errors of the mean. For panel (a), N = 3 for all
- seasons, for panels (b) and (c), N = 1 for winter, N = 3 for spring and fall, and N = 2 for
- summer. Mixing line equations for NO₃ concentrations and isotopes were obtained from
- 1078 Middelburg and Nieuwenhuize (2001). NO₃- data was obtained from the Maryland DNR
- and the Chesapeake Bay Program Data Hub, covering spring 2010 to spring 2011, the
- same dates as the NO₃ isotope data.

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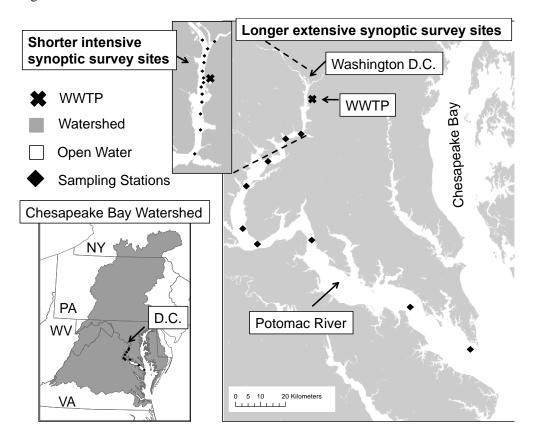
1082	Figure 8. Comparing the TN fluxes along the Potomac River Estuary estimated from the
1083	Box Model used in this study and from the results from the Chesapeake Bay nutrient
1084	model.
1085	
1086	Figure 9. Correlation between the fluxes estimated from the Box Model used in this study
1087	and the Chesapeake Bay nutrient model.
1088	
1089	Figure 10. Seasonal Box Model results showing how (a) TN, (b) NO_3^- , and (c) $\delta^{15}N-NO_3^-$
1090	loads vary down-estuary. Error bars are standard errors of the mean. For panels (a) and
1091	(b), $N = 3$ for all seasons. For panel (c), $N = 1$ for winter, $N = 3$ for spring and fall, and N
1092	= 2 for summer. TN and NO ₃ ⁻ data was obtained from the Maryland DNR and the
1093	Chesapeake Bay Program Data Hub.
1094	
1095	

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1096 Figure 1.



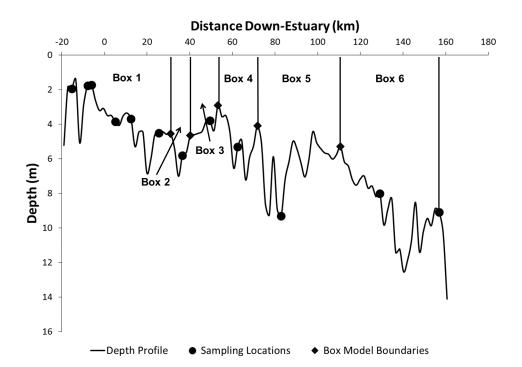
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1108 Figure 2.

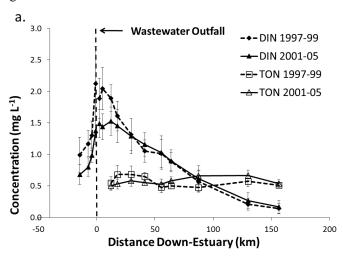


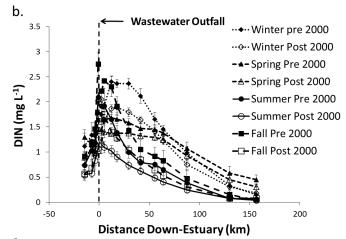
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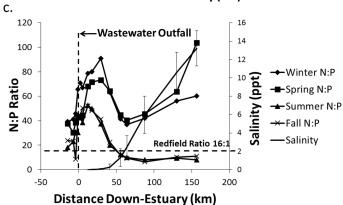










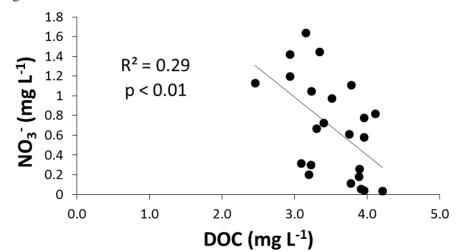


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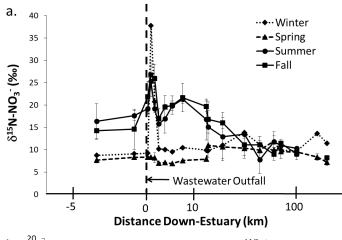


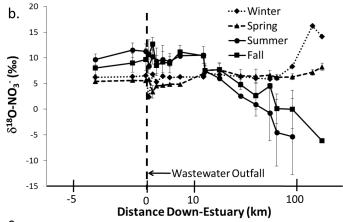
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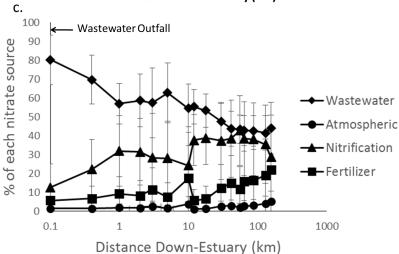










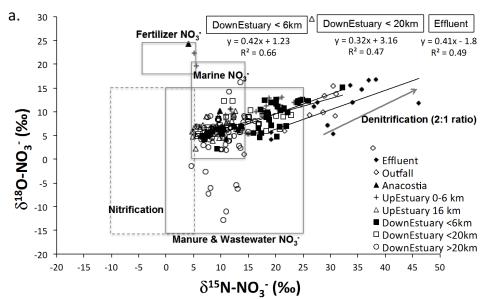


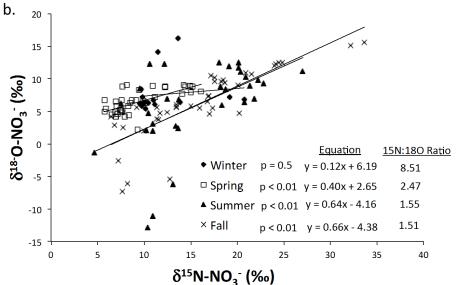
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1165 Figure 6.



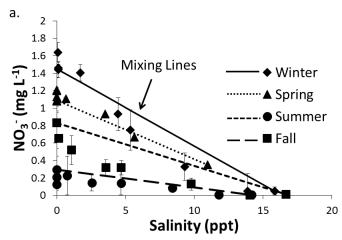


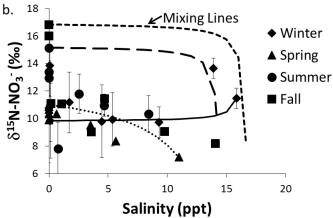
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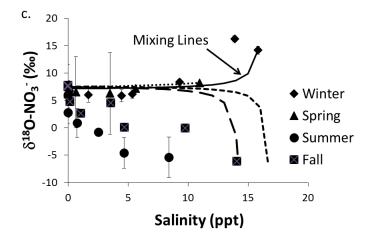










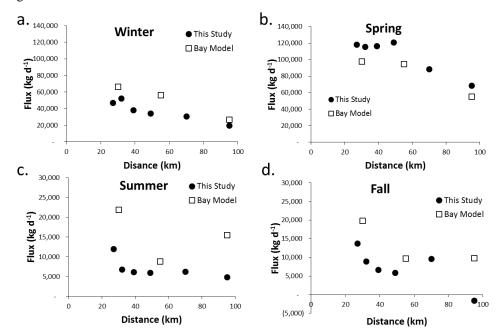


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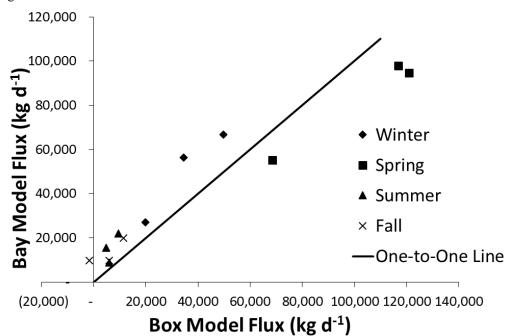
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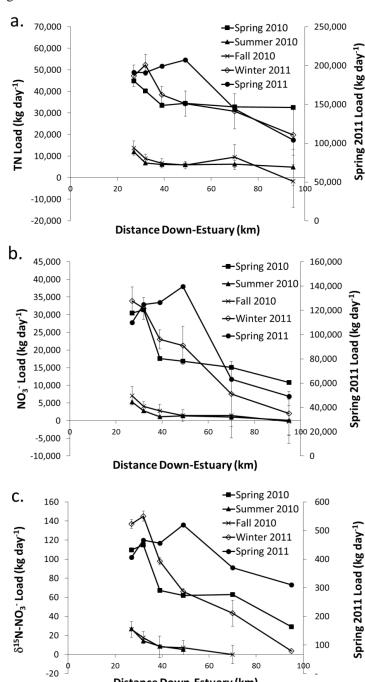
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1231 Figure 10.



1232

Distance Down-Estuary (km)