



# 1 Atmospheric dry and wet nitrogen deposition in agro-pastoral 2 catchments of the China and Mongolia Altay

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## 15 Abstract

16 Very few comparative studies of nitrogen (N) deposition in agroecosystems have been  
 17 conducted along landuse and altitude gradients. In an effort to fill this gap of  
 18 knowledge we selected three typical, interconnected landuse systems (cropland,  
 19 mountain grassland and plain grassland) at six sampling sites in the transboundary  
 20 Altay Mountains of NW China and SW Mongolia to compare the dynamics and  
 21 amounts of wet and dry N deposition. During 12 months from June 2014 to May 2015  
 22 dry and wet N deposition through middle volume total suspended particulates (TSP),  
 23 passive samplers and precipitation collectors were monitored. The croplands had the  
 24 highest concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  ( $1.6 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$  in China and  $2.0 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$  in  
 25 Mongolia) and of  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  ( $1.0 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$  in China and  $1.2 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$  in Mongolia) in  
 26 precipitation compared with the other land use types for wet deposition. In contrast,  
 27 the Mongolian mountain grasslands experienced the highest wet deposition ( $3.2 \text{ kg N}$

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28  $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) which was at least partly due to higher summer precipitation (161 mm), the  
29 second highest wet deposition occurred on Chinese cropland with  $3.1 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$   
30 while wet deposition in other landuse types ranged from 1.8 to  $2.5 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ .  
31 Chinese cropland had the highest  $\text{NH}_3$  ( $3.1 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) and  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $3.8 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ )  
32 concentrations and dry N deposition ( $15.3 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) among all landuse types  
33 while Mongolian cropland had dry N deposition of  $8.9 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ . Chinese  
34 cropland ( $18.4 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) had the highest total N deposition, followed by the  
35 Mongolian cropland with  $10.7 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$  and the Mongolian mountain grassland  
36 with  $10.5 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ .  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N concentration were negatively correlated with  
37 precipitation ( $P < 0.05$ ). Concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  correlated positively with air  
38 temperature ( $P < 0.05$ ) likely reflecting promoting effects of temperature on  $\text{NH}_3$   
39 emissions whereas  $\text{NO}_2$  correlated negatively with temperature. Over all, croplands in  
40 China had 72% higher N deposition than in Mongolia whereas the reverse was true  
41 for mountain grasslands which received 31% more N in Mongolia.

42 **Key words:** Agro-pastoral transition zone; Dry deposition; Land-use types;  
43 Transborder watershed; Wet deposition  
44



## 45 Introduction

46 During the last three decades China's industrial development and intensification of  
47 agriculture and animal husbandry have greatly increased the concentration and  
48 deposition of atmospheric reactive nitrogen (Nr; Liu et al., 2013). Since the 1980s  
49 atmospheric Nr emissions have more than doubled in north and southeast China after  
50 more than 30 years of strong economic development (Liu et al. 2013) and current  
51 atmospheric Nr deposition are very high (Pan et al., 2012; Xu et al. 2015). From the  
52 North China Plain total nitrogen deposition of 54.4–103.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> have been  
53 reported (Luo et al. 2013) and even for a remote oasis area in Xinjiang, northwest  
54 China, N deposition of up to 35 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> have been recorded (Liu et al. 2011; Li et  
55 al. 2012).

56 There are several factors responsible for the increases in atmospheric N deposition  
57 whereby agriculture and animal husbandry are two important sources (Aber et al.  
58 1997; Granath et al. 2014; Simpson et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2010). The rapid  
59 intensification of agriculture in response to the increasing demand for food has led to  
60 enhanced use of mineral fertilizers in China, a key factor responsible for high regional  
61 Nr deposition (Ju et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2013). In addition, higher living standards  
62 have increased the demand for meat and the development of intensive livestock  
63 production systems (Huang et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2010). Overgrazing is also an  
64 important problem that has been the subject of new land use policies and even remote  
65 agro-pastoral zones are affected by grazing pressure. This limits the productivity of  
66 grasslands, depletes nutrients in grassland soils and may jeopardize the productivity of  
67 animal husbandry systems.

68 Although some N deposition studies have been conducted in agricultural and  
69 pastoral areas (Luo et al. 2003; Li et al. 2012; Du et al. 2014; Basto et al. 2015; Huang  
70 et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2015; Wasiuta et al. 2015), little research has been conducted to  
71 quantify atmospheric N deposition in the agro-pastoral zone. In China over 12  
72 provinces comprising 160 towns and around 117 million people depend on this



73 landuse system which is mainly distributed in the northeastern and northwestern part  
74 of the country and in Inner Mongolia (Du et al. 2009; Xu et al. 2014; Zhang et al.  
75 2015). Monitoring of atmospheric dry and wet N deposition is therefore urgently  
76 needed in this region.

77 The present study was conducted at the Altay Mountains, at the border area of  
78 northwest China and western Mongolia representing a typical agro-pastoral transition  
79 zone. To compare the effects of exposition and landuse intensity, we choose the same  
80 agro-pastoral landuse type on the eastern Mongolian slope of the Altay Mountains.  
81 The two nearby study areas have similar landuse types but different cropland/grazing  
82 land ratios, intensities of mineral fertilizer input, types of animal husbandry systems  
83 and levels of urban development. The combination of these factors may lead to  
84 significant differences in N deposition across the year. Our aims were to quantify  
85 seasonal variations in atmospheric N deposition and to compare the difference of dry  
86 and wet N deposition in China and Mongolia agro-pastoral catchments.  
87



## 88 2. Materials and methods

### 89 2.1. Sampling sites

90 The study was conducted in Qinghe county, northwest China and adjacent Bulgan  
 91 county in Mongolia comprising a study area ranging from 45-47 °N and 89-91 °E. The  
 92 topography is characterized by a gradual decline in elevation from north to south and  
 93 is divided into high, intermediate and low mountains, hills, and the Gobi desert zone.  
 94 The average altitude of Qinghe county is 1218 m above sea level (a.s.l.), with a  
 95 maximum elevation of 3659 m a.s.l. and a minimum of 900 m a.s.l.. Qinghe county is  
 96 situated in the continental north temperate arid climatic zone, without four distinct  
 97 seasons. Year round air humidity is very low with an average annual precipitation of  
 98 161 mm and an annual potential evaporation of 1495 mm. Winters are long and cold  
 99 with an absolute minimum of -53 °C followed by cool and short summers with a  
 100 recorded maximum temperature of 36.5 °C and an average air temperature of 0 °C (Fig.  
 101 2). The pasture area in Qinghe comprises about 14300 km<sup>2</sup> and cultivated land  
 102 amounts to 0.126 million hectares with 1.64 million livestock heads sent to market  
 103 annually. Most of the agricultural area is planted to spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum*  
 104 L.), but alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.) and sea buckthorn (*Hippophae rhamnoides* L.) are  
 105 also widely grown. Wheat is sown in early May and harvested at the end of  
 106 September. The amount of mineral N fertilizer applied to wheat ranges from 300-350  
 107 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the Chinese croplands. Large numbers of sheep, cattle and camels are  
 108 moved into the mountain grassland from July to September while during the winter  
 109 months they remain for stubble grazing in the oasis croplands and desert margins.

110 Founded in 1931 Bulgan county (or Soum) neighbors Bayan-Olgii Province in the  
 111 north, Northwest China in the east, and Uvsein and Altay soums of Khovd province in  
 112 the south. Its territory comprises 8105 km<sup>2</sup> at an average altitude of 1164 m a.s.l.. It  
 113 has a continental climate with four seasons: April and May are the windiest months,  
 114 January is the coldest (-40 °C) and July is the warmest (+35 °C) month of the year.



115 Annual precipitation averages 120-140 mm, with pronounced spring and autumn  
 116 seasons allowing some cultivation of arable crops.

117 The most of the cropland of Bulgan soum is also planted to spring wheat and to a  
 118 lesser degree to rye (*Secale cereale* L.), but less intensively with 150-250 N kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>.  
 119 Similarly to Qinghe, the growing season lasts from May to September and major  
 120 numbers of sheep, cattle and camels are moved into the mountain grassland from July  
 121 to September and spend the winters in the lowlands.

## 122 **2.2. Measurement of N deposition and analytical procedures**

123 From June 2014 to May 2015 wet (i.e. bulk) and dry N concentrations and deposition  
 124 were monitored and quantified at six sites in the border area of Altay Mountains (Fig.  
 125 1).

### 126 *2.2.1 Rainwater collection and calculation of wet N deposition*

127 Rainwater samples were collected with precipitation collectors directly after every  
 128 rainfall event in Chinese (CC) and Mongolian (MC) croplands by local farmers and/or  
 129 herdsman and the dates and amounts of rainwater were recorded. In addition, some  
 130 special rainfall collectors (three sub-samples per site) were employed at mountain  
 131 grasslands and plain grasslands in both China and Mongolia due to the difficulty in  
 132 collecting samples after every rainfall event. Each rain collector comprised a funnel  
 133 container 40 cm in diameter, a plastic hose and a 10-l plastic bucket. The funnel  
 134 container was set at a height of around 1.5 m above the ground to avoid dust or leaf  
 135 contamination from the ground surface. The plastic kettles were grounded at 30 cm  
 136 depth, stick out 5cm of the ground and were covered with a lid to prevent entry of  
 137 dust or other pollutants connected to the funnel with a plastic hose. Chloroform  
 138 (CHCl<sub>3</sub>, 1-2 ml) was added to each bucket to inhibit N transformations in the  
 139 rainwater samples. The amount of precipitation was measured by an automatic  
 140 meteorological station nearby Meteorological Bureau of Qinghe Country. The  
 141 precipitation samples were collected manually once per month at the six sampling  
 142 points and transferred to plastic bottles followed by storage in a refrigerator at



143 -10 °C until analysis. We also sampled snow at the beginning and the end of the  
 144 snowfall period and combined it with the snowfall data to calculate winter wet N  
 145 deposition. All samples were analyzed for  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N (inorganic N)  
 146 concentrations using an AA3 continuous flow analyzer (Seal Analytical Ltd.,  
 147 Southampton, UK). Wet deposition of inorganic N was calculated according to Luo et  
 148 al. (2014) as follows:

149 Wet N (every rainfall event,  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ ) = inorganic N concentration ( $\text{mg N L}^{-1}$ )  
 150  $\times$  precipitation (mm)  $\times 0.01$

151 Wet N (every month,  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ ) =  $0.001 \times \sum \text{N (every rainfall event or month)}$

#### 152 2.2.2 $\text{NH}_3$ and $\text{NO}_2$ collection and N calculation

153 Atmospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  was collected with passive samplers using Gradko diffusion tubes  
 154 from the UK Environmental Change Network (Goulding et al., 1998; Bush et al.,  
 155 2001). The  $\text{NO}_2$  samplers consisted of polyethylenetubes (71.0 mm long and 11.0 mm  
 156 internal diameter), two caps, and stainless steel mesh disks. Two dry disks were  
 157 placed in the caps and 30 ml of a 20% aqueous solution of triethanolamine was  
 158 pipetted into the gray cap. The samplers were suspended at a height of 1.5 m (at least  
 159 0.5 m higher than the canopy height) above ground and exposed between 15 days and  
 160 30 days in the air every month. The disks were extracted with a solution containing  
 161 sulphanilamide,  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$  and N-1-naphthylethylene-diamine dihydrochloride to  
 162 estimate the  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration determined by colorimetry at a wavelength of 542  
 163 nm (Plaisance et al., 2004).

164  $\text{NH}_3$  samples were collected using ALPHA passive samplers (Adapted Low-cost  
 165 High Absorption, Center for Ecology and Hydrology, Edinburgh, UK). This  
 166 equipment included a tube, a plastic filter and a membrane (absorbed citric acid) and  
 167 was placed about 1.5 m above ground. The calculation was made according to Luo et al.  
 168 (2014) as follows:

$$169 \quad V = DA \cdot t / L$$

170 Where t represents the time interval;  $D = 2.09 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at  $10^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $A = 3.463 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$ ,



171  $L=0.006\text{m}$ . The following equation was then derived:

172 
$$V(\text{m}^3) = 0.004343363(\text{m}^3) \times t(\text{h})$$

173 The concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  ( $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) was obtained as follow:

174 
$$C = (m_e - m_b) / V$$

175 Where  $m_e$  represents the amount of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the experimental sample and  $m_b$  represents  
 176 the amount of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the blank sample.

177 *2.2.3  $\text{pNH}_4^+$  and  $\text{pNO}_3^-$*

178 Airborne  $\text{PM}_{10}$  particles (particulate matter whose aerodynamic equivalent diameter is  
 179  $< 10 \mu\text{m}$ ) were sampled using a middle flow particulate sampler (Tian hong  
 180 Instruments Co. Ltd., Wuhan, China) with a flow fluxes of  $1.05 \text{ m}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$ , and 7-10  
 181 daily samples of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  were collected at QC and BC during each month. Samples at  
 182 other sites were not taken given lacking power and harsh environmental conditions.  
 183 The membrane of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  was glass fiber and it was placed in an incubator at constant  
 184 temperature and humidity ( $22^\circ\text{C}$ , relative humidity 50%) for 24 hours before and after  
 185 sampling and weighed on an electronic balance. Finally, the samples were placed in  
 186 beakers containing 50ml ultrapure water and ultrasonicated for 30 min. The extracts  
 187 were filtered through 47-mm Whatman GF/F membrane syringe filters (GE  
 188 Healthcare Bio-Sciences, Pittsburg, PA, USA). The filtrates were stored refrigerated  
 189 at  $4^\circ\text{C}$ . Ammonium and nitrate in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  ( $\text{pNH}_4^+$  and  $\text{pNO}_3^-$ ) were measured using a  
 190 Seal AA3 continuous flow analyzer (Seal Analytical Ltd., Southampton, UK).

191 **2.3 Estimation of dry N deposition**

192 Data on dry N deposition are complicated to collect given the effects of variable  
 193 weather conditions and differences in vegetation types. We did not use  
 194 micro-meteorological methods because of unavailability of equipment to measure dry  
 195 N deposition. Rather we estimated dry N deposition by multiplying the measured  
 196 concentrations of N species by their deposition velocities ( $V_d$ ) obtained from related  
 197 studies published in the literature (Shen et al. 2013; Yu et al. 2014). The following  
 198 equations were used:





199  $F = C \times V_d$

200 Where by  $V_d$  can be expressed by

201  $V_d = (R_a + R_b + R_c)^{-1}$

202 Where  $R_a$  is the aerodynamic resistance,  $R_b$  is the quasi-laminar boundary layer  
 203 resistance, and  $R_c$  is the surface or canopy resistance (Shen et al. 2009). Because we  
 204 did not measure  $V_d$ , the  $V_d$  values of the Nr species under different landuse types were  
 205 obtained from Flechard et al. (2011) for simplification.

## 206 **2.4 Statistical analysis**

207 Linear regression was used to analyze interactions among the different Nr species. For  
 208 Pearson's correlation and linear regression analyses, significance was defined at  
 209  $P < 0.05$ . T-tests were employed to compare N deposition among monitoring sites,  
 210 land-use types and seasons. All statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS  
 211 18.0 software package (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Figures were prepared using  
 212 the Origin 8.0 software package (Origin Lab Corporation, Northampton, MA, USA).

## 213 **3 Results**

### 214 **3.1 Wet deposition of $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$ and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$**

215 The Mongolian cropland (MC) had the highest  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  concentration in the wet  
 216 deposition compared with the Mongolian Mountain grassland (MM) and the  
 217 Mongolian Plain grassland (MP) (Table 2, Fig. 3). The  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  concentrations of the  
 218 samples from Chinese sites were relatively low compared with the Mongolian  
 219 sampling sites. Chinese Cropland (CC) had a relatively high  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  concentration  
 220 compared with the other two sampling sites in the Chinese Mountain grassland (CM)  
 221 and the Chinese Plain grassland (CP).  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  concentrations were highest for CP in  
 222 China, followed by MC in Mongolia.

223 The different landuse types had different  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  peaks. Highest  
 224 cropland  $\text{NH}_4^+\text{-N}$  occurred in May in China and in September in Mongolia and the  
 225  $\text{NO}_3^-\text{-N}$  peak occurred from March to May in China and from August to October in  
 226 Mongolia (Fig. 3). The two countries had similar mountain pasture (CM and MM)



227  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N concentration peaks. Both occurred from July to September, and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N  
 228 peaks were recorded from July to September at QP and BM. The Chinese and  
 229 Mongolian Plain grasslands (CP and MP) had different  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N concentration  
 230 dynamics, CP had a low value with no clear peak throughout the year while MP had a  
 231 significantly higher  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N concentration and a peak occurring from June to  
 232 September. However,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N showed the opposite trend, with CP having a  
 233 significantly higher peak concentration from June to October and MP having its  
 234 maximum value in June and similar values in other months (Fig. 4).

### 235 3.2 Net $\text{NH}_3$ deposition concentrations

236 Cropland had the highest  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations of all land use types whereby CC had a  
 237 maximum  $\text{NH}_3$  value of  $7.41 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  in May and an average of  $3.1 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$   
 238 throughout the rest of the year. The mountain grasslands (CM and MM) had the  
 239 lowest  $\text{NH}_3$ , with average concentrations of  $1.07$  and  $1.08 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ , respectively.  
 240 Plains grasslands had  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations during the key growing season (June to  
 241 October) of  $1.53 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  at CP and  $1.94 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  at MP (Table 2). The  $\text{NH}_3$  values  
 242 during the growing and non-growing seasons were significantly different ( $P=0.008$ ).  
 243 With exception of MM, significantly higher  $\text{NH}_3$  occurred during the growing season,  
 244 especially at the croplands ( $P=0.026$ ) and the mountain grassland had a significantly  
 245 higher air  $\text{NH}_3$  during the non-growing season (Fig. 5).

### 246 3.3 $\text{NO}_2$ concentrations

247 QC had the highest  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration with an average value of  $3.8 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  over the  
 248 year and a maximum value of  $8.1 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  in June. MC had lower  $\text{NO}_2$  with an  
 249 average value of  $2.4 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  over the year. MM had a significantly higher  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $2.6 \mu\text{g}$   
 250  $\text{N m}^{-3}$ ) than CM ( $1.6 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). The CP grassland had a slightly higher  $\text{NO}_2$   
 251 concentration of  $2.2 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  in the key growing season (June to October) than did  
 252 MP with  $1.5 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  (Table 2). The  $\text{NO}_2$  values in the growing and non-growing  
 253 seasons were significantly different ( $P<0.001$ ) for CC and MM. However,  $\text{NO}_2$   
 254 concentrations were similar for the CM grassland and MP ( $P>0.322$ ; Fig. 6).



### 255 **3.4 Particulate Nr species in the air**

256 Because of power and equipment limitations we chose the croplands in both countries  
 257 (CC and MC) as the monitoring points for particulate Nr. The monthly  $\text{pNH}_4^+$   
 258 concentrations were  $0.75$  and  $0.53 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  for CC and MC, respectively (Table 2).  
 259 The CC had a significantly higher  $\text{pNH}_4^+$  concentration than the MC ( $P=0.033$ ). The  
 260  $\text{pNH}_4^+$  concentration peaked from July to August and the highest value ( $2.66 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ )  
 261 was attained in July (Fig.7). Monthly  $\text{pNO}_3^-$  concentrations were  $0.37 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  at CC  
 262 and  $0.11 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  at MC (Table 2). The CC had a significantly higher  $\text{pNO}_3^-$   
 263 concentration than the MC ( $P=0.008$ ) with peaks from July to August and April to  
 264 May and a maximum value of  $1.38 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  in May.

265 In addition, the growing season had higher  $\text{pNH}_4^+$  concentrations, especially in  
 266 CC. Average  $\text{pNH}_4^+$  concentrations of CC were 60% higher than those of MC. For  
 267  $\text{pNO}_3^-$  concentrations values were similar between growing season and non-growing  
 268 season in both countries ( $P=0.302$ ). However, average  $\text{pNO}_3^-$  concentrations of CC  
 269 was three times higher than for MC (Fig.8).

### 270 **3.5 Wet, dry and total N deposition**

271 Annual wet N deposition amounted to  $2.0$ – $3.1 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at the Chinese sites and  
 272  $1.8$ – $3.2 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  at Mongolian sites. Among the six sampling sites, the highest  
 273 wet deposition occurred at the MM and CC reflecting high precipitation or high  
 274  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N concentration, with values of  $3.1$  and  $3.2 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for the  
 275 Mongolian and Chinese sites, respectively. Wet Deposition was smallest at MC given  
 276 lowest precipitation. Wet deposition rates at other sites fell in-between. The CC had  
 277 the highest N dry deposition rate ( $15.3 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ). The second was the MC with  $8.9$   
 278  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ . The MM grassland had a higher dry deposition ( $7.3 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ) than its  
 279 Chinese counterpart ( $5.5 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ). Dry deposition rates in plain grasslands were  
 280 similar across countries.

281 Total N deposition in CC was 72% higher than in MC, but MM grassland had a  
 282 higher total N deposition than CM grassland. The MP grassland had a similar total N



deposition ( $7.4 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ) than CP grassland ( $7.7 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ ). The wet N deposition species ( $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) altogether accounted for 16.9-31.2% at the Chinese sites and for 16.8-30% at the Mongolian sites. Dry N deposition accounted for 69-83% at the Chinese sites and 70-83% at Mongolian sites.

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Methodological evaluation of dry and wet deposition collection

Due to the difficult infrastructural conditions (long distances, high altitude and cross-border problems), compromises needed to be made with respect to sampling equipment and collection intervals. While the self-made equipment for rainfall sampling was established at six sites (Fig 3) from June 2014 to May 2015, for the cropland and mountain grassland, we collected rainfall or snow samples every month across the year. For the plain grassland, however, we just collected samples every month during the growing season. Outside the growing season samples were collected just for the first time and last snowfall event to compute average values. The middle flow particulate sampler was just established in the cropland given human surveillance there but not in the mountain and plain grassland where power was lacking. For the  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$ , we collected the samples 20 days one time in six sampling points. The cropland and mountain grassland samples were collected from June 1, 2014 to May 31, 2015, and the plain grassland samples were just collected in growing season due to harsh environmental conditions.

In addition the use of the passive sampling devices may have led to severe underestimations of deposition given the hyper arid conditions of our study zone. Relative air humidity was at around 30% in summer and 80-90% in winter, and lowest winter temperatures were  $-40^\circ\text{C}$  in winter. Under these conditions the  $\text{NH}_3$  (ALPHA) and  $\text{NO}_2$  samplers were to the best of our knowledge never tested before. Similar studies show that Palmes  $\text{NO}_2$  diffusion tubes (Gradko 7.1 cm open diffusion tubes) may be used over a temperature range from  $-50^\circ\text{C}$  to  $40^\circ\text{C}$  and a relative humidity range from 30% to 95% (Bush et al. 2001; Plaisance et al. 2004; Gerboles et



al., 2005). For the ALPHA samplers the hygroscopic nature of the citric acid may allow for reliable measurements even at 30-35% RH (Perrino et al., 2002). However, our data certainly merit methodological verification under laboratory and field conditions.

#### 4.2 Atmospheric dry and wet N deposition

Dry deposition includes gas emissions and particulate Nr deposition (Shen et al. 2013; Granath et al. 2014; Maaroufi et al. 2015). In our experiment CC had significant higher  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration than the other landuse types, mainly due to the large area of cropland on the Chinese side of the border, together with the excessive inputs of mineral fertilizer N, which likely led to large losses *via*  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization and soil  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions.

The Chinese cropland also had the highest inorganic N concentrations and thus had higher dry deposition than the Mongolian cropland. Moreover, cropland had higher dry deposition than the other landuse types. There were usually higher  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions in the growing season, mainly due to the fertilizer or manure applications during the growing season. The MM grassland had higher  $\text{NO}_2$  depositions than the CM grassland, presumably because the Mongolia site had many herdsman living in the area over most of the year and, especially in winter, large amounts of coal, wood and cattle manure are burned for home heating from October to May. Many of the herdsman in China move to the mountains only from July to mid-September in summer, with very few people living there during the winter. Similar conclusions hold for the wet deposition.

The monthly concentrations of  $\text{NH}_3$  showed significant positive correlations with temperature ( $P=0.009$ ) but no correlation with RH ( $P=0.491$ ) or  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $P=0.580$ ; Fig.10). A similar trend was also found in Guangzhou in south China and in an agricultural catchment in subtropical central China (Ju et al. 2009; Shen et al. 2013). This indicates that increasing temperature promotes the emission of  $\text{NH}_3$ . Gaseous  $\text{NO}_2$  was also positive correlated with temperature ( $P=0.018$ ) but not with RH or  $\text{NH}_3$



( $P=0.153$ ). This conclusion is consistent that of with Luo et al. (2013) who studied dry deposition in northern China. This may also imply that  $\text{NO}_2$  emissions mostly occur as a consequence of human activities, especially the combustion of fossil fuels and automobile exhausts.

The amount of rainfall had a significant effect on the concentration of inorganic N. The higher amount of precipitation, the lower the inorganic N concentration (Fig.9), especially in the case of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  which was significantly correlated with the precipitation ( $P=0.039$ ).  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  were not significantly correlated with one another ( $P=0.143$ ), which indicated that the results for the wet deposition are greatly influenced by the dry deposition. All in all, the different landuse types did not differ significantly in their wet deposition in either country.

#### **4.3 The uncertainty of the compensation point between the $\text{NH}_3$ emission and deposition in three landuse styles**

The concentration of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the air is susceptible to be affected by meteorological and anthropogenic factors. On the one hand, part of atmospheric ammonia settled onto the soil surface, on the other hand, part of  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilize from the surface soil. Therefore, it is very hard to accurately estimate net  $\text{NH}_3$  deposition under our conditions. In order to better estimate the  $\text{NH}_3$  deposition value, it is common practice to calculate the deposition velocity rate by means of meteorological factors to get the appropriate deposition compensation point. In our experiment, the landuse styles included alpine meadow, plain grassland and farmland. In the farmland,  $5.0 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  was assumed as the compensation point of dry deposition of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the growing season (Shen et al. 2013), and  $0 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  was assumed as the compensation point of dry deposition of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the no-growing season due to low  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization. In the mountain and plain grassland,  $0 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  was chosen as the compensation point of dry deposition of  $\text{NH}_3$  due to low  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization (Li et al., 2012; Shen et al. 2013). In addition we observed in our study area that N deposition was spatially very unevenly distributed, particularly between mountain pastures and plain pastures.



367 Nitrogen deposition was possible higher next to herdsman's houses, roads or  
368 sheepfolds due to more pronounced  $\text{NH}_3$  or  $\text{NO}_x$  releases. Farm- and grasslands are  
369 intertwined in our research areas. Therefore, much uncertainly for wet and dry N  
370 deposition remain.

371

## 372 **5 Conclusions**

373 The agro-pastoral area around Qinghe (China) and Bulgan (Mongolia) differed in  
374 atmospheric N deposition across landuse types. The mountain grasslands had  
375 relatively higher wet deposition reflecting much higher rainfall and  $\text{Nr}$  emissions.  
376 Chinese croplands had higher wet and total N deposition than Mongolian croplands  
377 due to higher population and chemical fertilizer input, but higher N deposition were  
378 found in the Mongolian mountain grassland than Chinese mountain grassland due to  
379 different grazing systems. Nearly all land use types had higher N deposition in the  
380 (warm) growing season than the in the winter months. Compared with Mongolia,  
381 Chinese grassland faces more pronounced  $\text{Nr}$  losses due to additional N deposition  
382 and overgrazing. Thus, it is necessary to reduce the application of N-fertilizers to  
383 croplands as well as herd numbers.

384

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**Table 1** Description of the six sampling sites in the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains.

	Site	Landuse	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation (masl)	Annual mean temperature (°C)	Annual precipitation (mm)	Sampling period
China	Qinghe (CC)	Cropland	46°44'	90°19'	1126	5.4	123	Jun 2014 -May 2015
	Huzert (CM)	Mountain grassland	46°40'	90°24'	1605	1.2	149	Jun 2014 -May 2015
	Guojiazhan (CP)	Plain grassland	46°08'	89°58'	1284	4.3	78	Jun 2014-Oct 2015
Mongolia	Bulgan Sum (MC)	Cropland	46°6'	91°34'	1184	3.9	56	Jun 2014 -May 2015
	Turgen (MM)	Mountain grassland	46°49'	91°21'	1889	-0.5	161	Jun 2014 -May 2015
	Bayangol (MP)	Plain grassland	46°20'	91°25'	1323	4.2	83	Jun 2014 -Oct 2015

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526 **Table 2** Annual volume-weighted mean concentrations of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N in  
 527 rainwater and the annual mean concentrations (standard deviation) of gaseous and  
 528 particulate Nr species in the air at the six sampling sites in the Chinese and Mongolian  
 529 Altay Mountains.

Site	$\text{NH}_4^+$ -N mg N L <sup>-1</sup>	$\text{NO}_3^-$ -N mg N L <sup>-1</sup>	$\text{NH}_3$ μg N m <sup>-3</sup>	$\text{NO}_2$ μg N m <sup>-3</sup>	$\text{pNH}_4^+$ μg N m <sup>-3</sup>	$\text{pNO}_3^-$ μg N m <sup>-3</sup>
CC	1.6 (0.2-6.2) <sup>a</sup>	1.0 (0.4-2.1)	3.1(1.8-7.4) <sup>b</sup>	3.8(0.9-8.1)	0.8(0.3-2.8) <sup>a</sup>	0.4(0.1-1.38) <sup>a</sup>
CM	1.0 (0.1-3.1)	0.7 (0.1-1.2)	1.1(0.3-2.3)	1.6 (0.1-2.6)		
CP	0.6 (0.3-0.8)	2.0 (1.4-3.2)	1.5(0.3-2.8)	2.2(1.8-3.3)		
MC	2.0 (0.2-5.9)	1.2 (0.5-2.0)	1.7 (0.9-3.3)	2.4(0.6-5.8)	0.5(0.1-1.2) <sup>b</sup>	0.1(0.03-0.43) <sup>b</sup>
MM	1.2 (0.4-5.5)	0.8 (0.3-1.7)	1.1(0.6-1.8)	2.6(0.2-5.5)		
MP	1.8 (0.3-3.7)	0.7 (0.2-3.4)	1.9(1.1-2.8)	1.5(0.2-3.1)		

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<sup>a</sup> Values in the parentheses indicate the variation range of the Nr of the rain across the whole year.

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<sup>a, b</sup> Different letters within the same column indicate statistical differences in variables mean among landuse types as shown by the Tukey's multiple range test ( $P < 0.05$ ).

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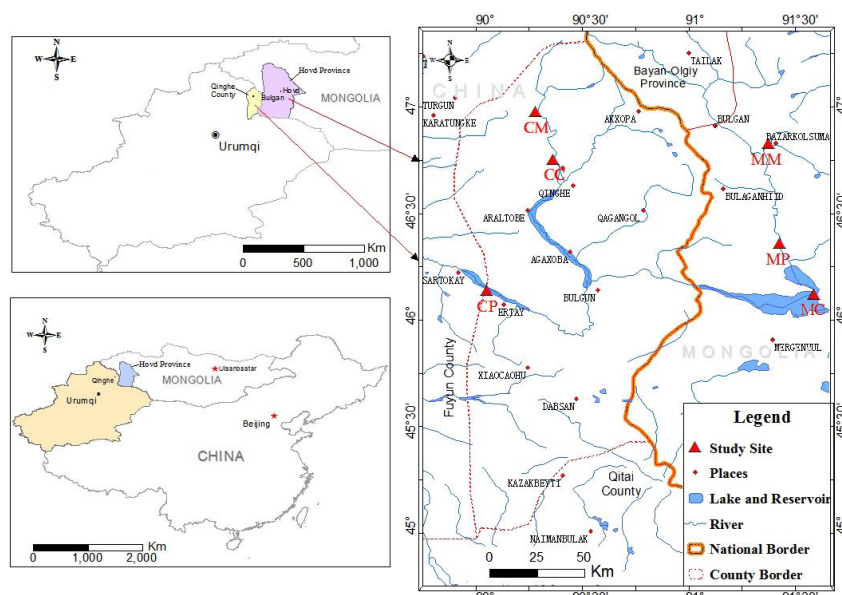


**Table 3** Wet and dry N deposition ( $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) at the sampling sites in the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains from June 2014 to May 2015.

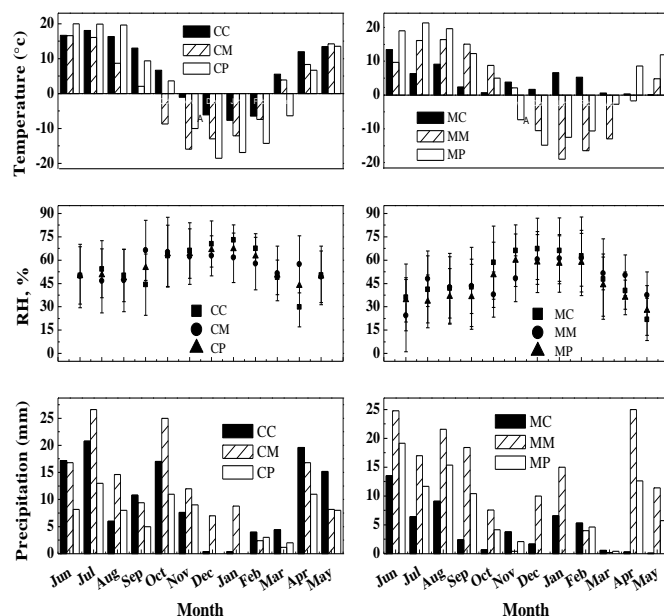
	Site	Rainfall (mm)	Wet deposition		Dry deposition <sup>a</sup>				WD <sup>b</sup>	DD	TD
			$\text{NH}_4^+$	$\text{NO}_3^-$	$\text{NH}_3$	$\text{NO}_2$	$\text{pNH}_4^+$	$\text{pNO}_3^-$			
China	QC	123	1.91	1.23	7.3	7.1	0.6	0.3	3.1	15.3	18.4
	QM	149	1.49	1.04	2.5	3.0			2.5	5.5	8.0
	QP	78	0.47	1.56	3.6	4.1			2.0	7.7	9.7
Mongolia	BC	56	1.12	0.67	3.9	4.5	0.4	0.1	1.8	8.9	10.7
	BM	161	1.93	1.29	2.5	4.8			3.2	7.3	10.5
	BP	83	1.49	0.58	4.6	2.8			2.1	7.4	9.5

<sup>a</sup> Dry deposition velocities of  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$  were 0.74 and 0.59, respectively, as cited from Shen et al.(2011)

<sup>b</sup> WD: total wet N deposition, DD: total dry N deposition, TD: total N deposition



**Fig.1.** Map of the six sampling sites in the agro-pastoral catchment of the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains.



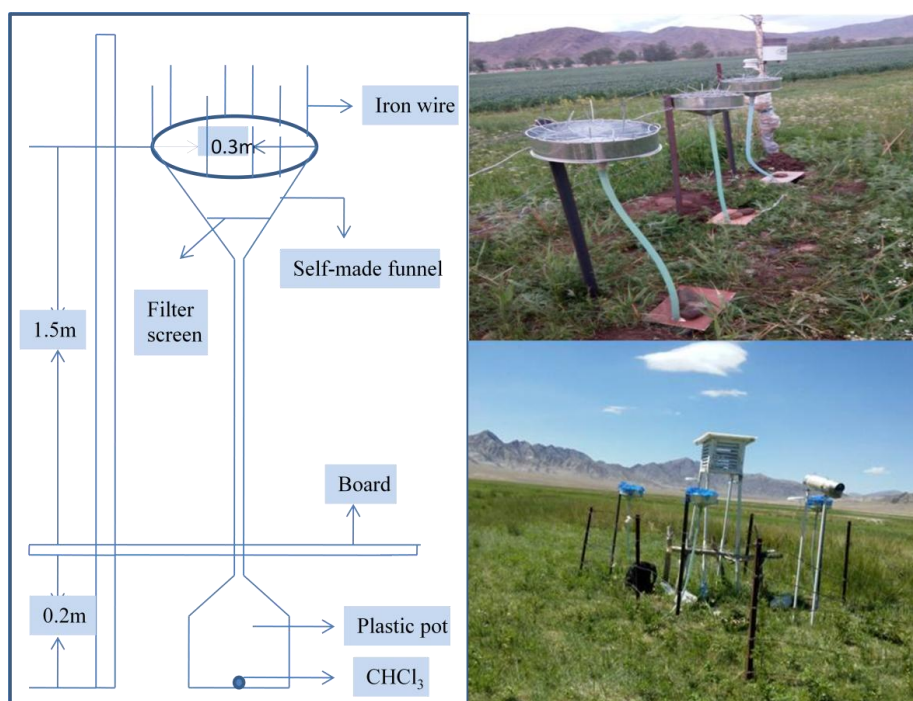
**Fig. 2.** Monthly mean air temperature and relatively humidity (RH) at six sampling sites of the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains.



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602 **Fig. 3.** The self-made wet collection equipment at the sampling sites in the Chinese

603 (up right) and Mongolian Altay Mountains (down right)

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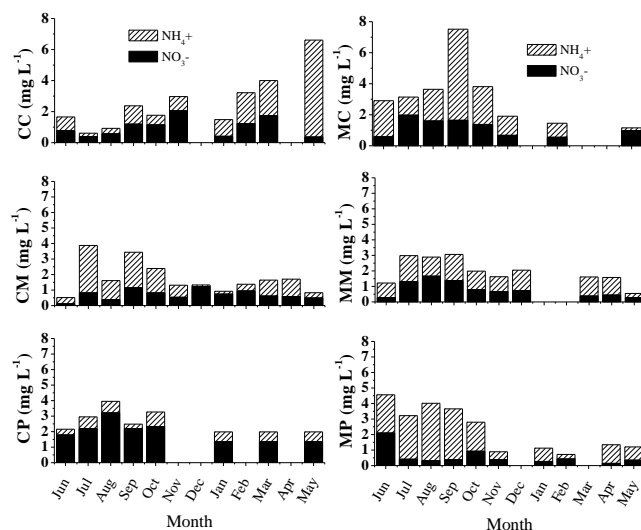
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615 **Fig.4.**Concentration of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -N and  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -N of wet deposition at six samples sites in

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the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains

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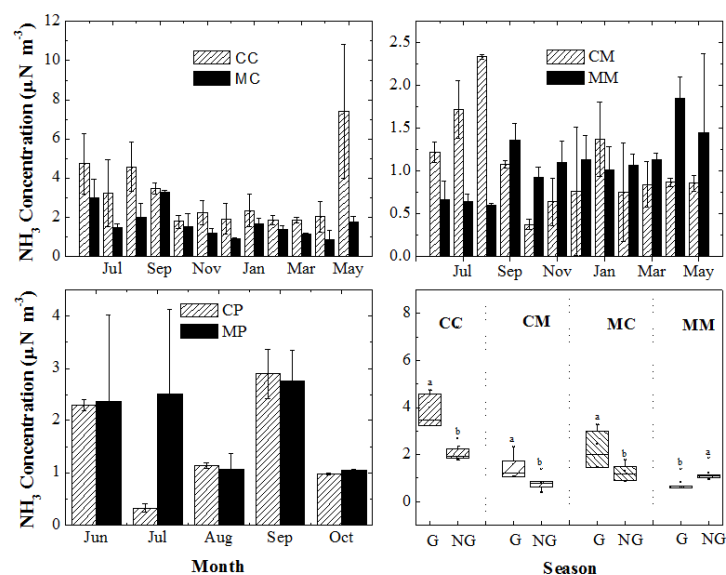
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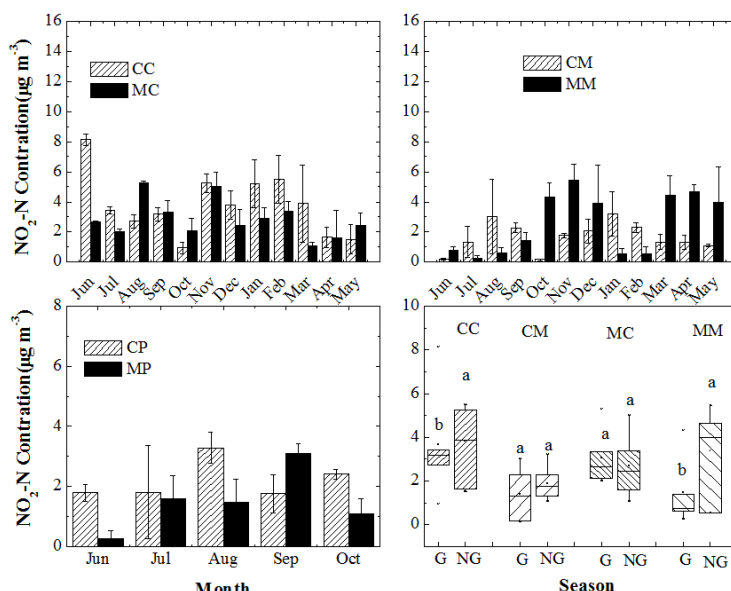
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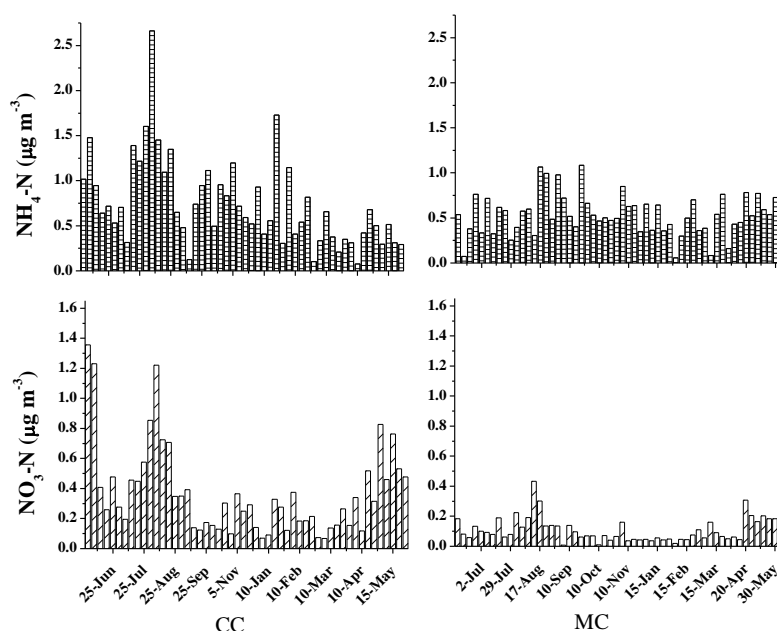


**Fig.5.**Monthly concentrations of  $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$  in the growing season (G) and the non-growing season (NG) at six sites in the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains

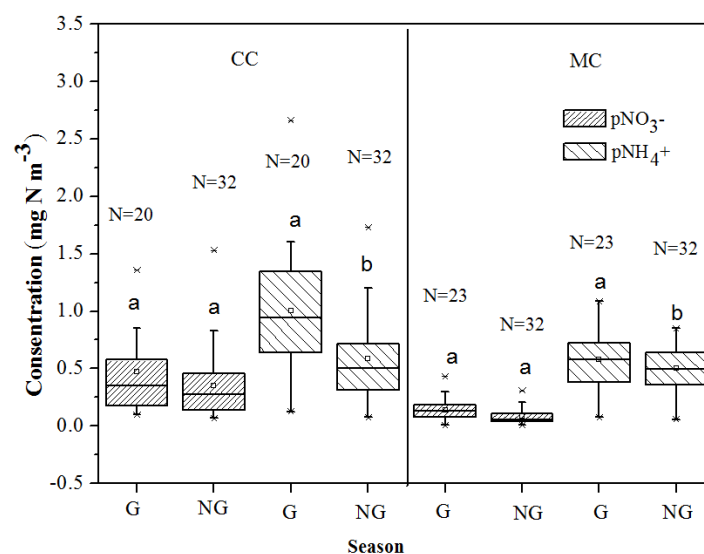


**Fig.6.**

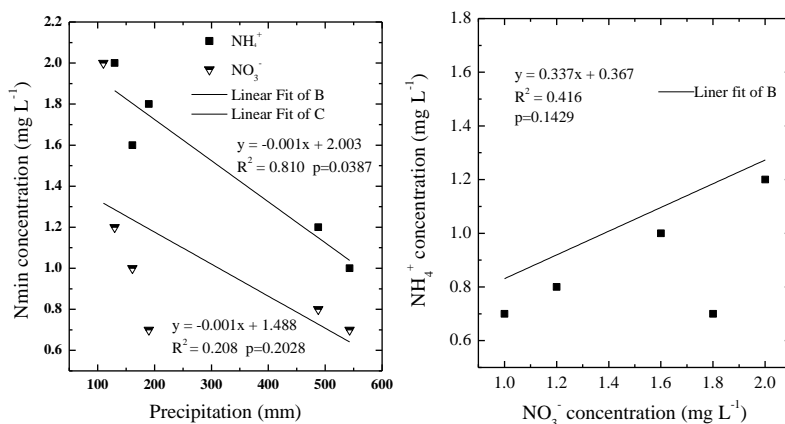
Monthly concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$  in the growing season (G) and the non-growing season (NG) of six sites in the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains



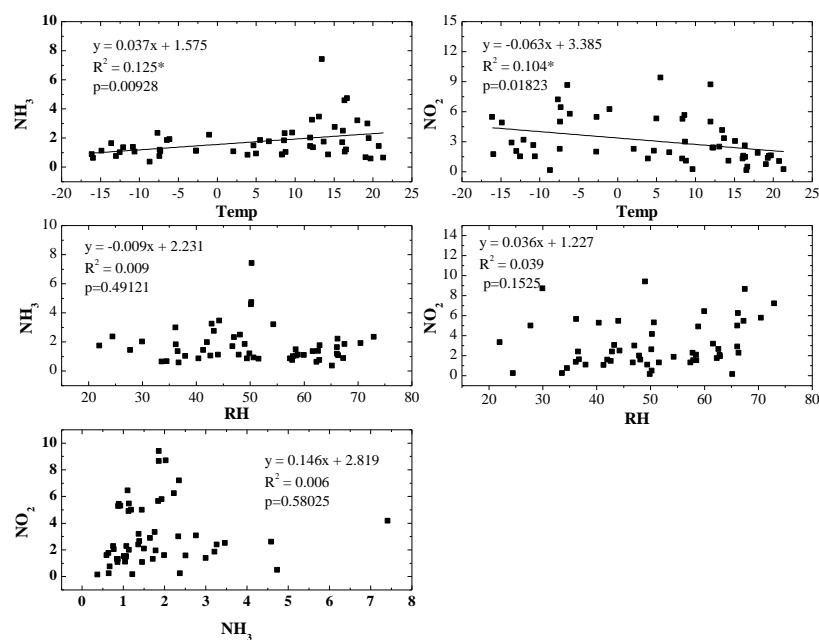
**Fig.7.** Monthly concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$  at six sampling sites in Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains



**Fig.8.** Concentrations of  $\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$  in the G (growing season) and the NG (non-growing season) at six sites in the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains



**Fig.9.** Relationship between monthly precipitation and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N in rainwater at six sampling sites in the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains



**Fig.10.** Relationship between atmospheric  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  and temperature (Temp) and relatively humidity (RH) in the Chinese and Mongolian Altay Mountains.