

## Anthropogenic nitrogen sources and exports in a village-scale catchment in Southeast China

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### Abstract

An experimental village-scale catchment was selected for investigation of nitrogen (N) sources and exports. The mean N application rate over the catchment was 350.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, but this rate varied spatially and temporally. The N leaching loss rate varied from 8.1 to 52.7 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> under different land use regimes. The average N leaching loss rate was 13.4 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> over the whole catchment, representing about 3.8% of the total N inputs. The N export rate through stormflows was 28.8 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, about 8.2% of the total N inputs. Seasonal patterns showed that 95% of N exports through stormflows occurred during July to September in 2002. Overall, the maximum riverine N exports were 12.1% of total N inputs and 15.5% of the inorganic fertilizer N applied. Understanding N sources and exports in a village-scale catchment can provide a knowledge base for amelioration of diffuse agricultural pollution.

### Introduction

The excessive use of commercial inorganic fertilizers and animal manures for raising crop yield and meeting the demand of population growth in China has resulted in nutrient losses from agricultural catchments (Li & Zhang 1999; Yan *et al.* 1999; Cao *et al.* 2003). Agricultural nutrient losses can accelerate freshwater and coastal water eutrophication and lead to chronic hypoxia, reductions in species diversity, and stressed fisheries resources (Nixon *et al.* 1995; Vitousek *et al.* 1997; Carpenter *et al.* 1998). Nitrogen can also be of concern in drinking water supplies due to methemoglobinemia in infants and concern about possible links to non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (Ward *et al.* 1996). In Southeast China, anthropogenic N inputs far exceed N outputs in regional agricultural ecosystems, and N imbalance has resulted in N losses (Cao & Zhu 2000). Research has shown that water quality in the Jiulong River estuary and coastline has deteriorated with

eutrophication and excessive growth of benthic algae occurring since about 1985 (Chen *et al.* 1993). Reversal of eutrophication and contamination caused by agricultural nutrient losses and development of remedial strategies require the identification of nutrient sources and assessing exports from sources to waterbodies (e.g. Cirimo & McDonnell 1997; Mitchell 2001; Worrall & Burt 2001). The objectives of the present study were to investigate anthropogenic N sources in an experimental village-scale catchment and to characterize N exports in leaching and stormflows.

### Materials and methods

#### *Study area*

An experimental village-scale catchment called Wuchuan, with an area of 9.4 km<sup>2</sup> and a population of 4509, was selected for investigating N sources and

exports. The stream is a tributary of the upper Jiulong River in Fujian province, Southeast China. Catchment elevation varies between 7.5 and 130 m. Land uses are very complex (Figure 1a) and can be combined into forestry, including planted forest (31%) and bamboo (7%); horticulture, including bananas (15%), longan (10%), sugarcane (8%), lychee (5%) and mango (3%); and rice paddies (3%); vegetables (3%); residential areas (5%); fishponds (3%) and the remaining 7% (other uses).

Rainfall is strongly influenced by the monsoon system. Total recorded rainfall in 2002 was 1624 mm, less than the annual average of 1720 mm. The rainfall occurring between July and September (the wet season) was 1078 mm, representing about 66% of the 2002 total.

The topography is rolling, undulating hills with their heavily weathered granite bases dissected by small streams. The incised narrow valleys on the hillslopes often open out, join together at the hill foot, and form a wide flat alluvial valley bottom where intensive agriculture and horticulture have developed. Red earth and lateritic red earth are the main soil types in the catchment, with pH values ranging from 4.0 to 4.8 and a mean value of 4.5.

### N source estimates

The anthropogenic N sources in the catchment include inorganic fertilizers, animal excreta, domestic wastes, atmospheric deposition and

fishpond water discharge. Although the N in animal excreta, domestic wastes and fishpond water was internally recycled and therefore not a new N input to the area, a significant part of N from the above sources has been applied traditionally to agricultural land. This relocated N, together with inorganic fertilizer N, may have been washed out by rainfall-runoff and thus contributed to N exports in rivers.

Data on inorganic N fertilizers were obtained from regular visits and questionnaires. Ammonium bicarbonate and urea were the main N fertilizers applied in this area (Cao *et al.* 2003). Estimates of the amount of elemental N produced in manures and wastes were made using human and animal population censuses and typical elemental N concentrations in manures and wastes (Lu *et al.* 1996). It was assumed that 25% of total human and animal excreta were applied as fertilizers in the catchment (Yan *et al.* 1999). Atmospheric N deposition in the river catchment was estimated based on recorded rainfall from a meteorological station and N concentrations in rainfall from a comprehensive survey on acid rain conducted for more than 10 years (Tang *et al.* 1996; Yu *et al.* 1998).

Fishponds were cleared once a year. Water was pumped out for irrigation and the sediment was removed and applied to crops. Nitrogen from fishpond removal was estimated using the product of the water volume, the amount of sediment and the mean concentrations of N in 21 samples of discharge water ( $9.02 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$ ) and sediment ( $2.31 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ). The water volume and amount of sediment were estimated using the product of the surface areas of the fishponds and their water and sediment depths.

### N export measurements

Pathways of N losses include gaseous emission, leaching losses and losses in streamflow. However, the N losses in leaching and streamflow were of more environmental concern at a local scale. Stormflow was measured every 0.5 h using a flowmeter installed at the outlet. Water quality was monitored for each storm at the outlet. Typically 8–10 water quality samples were taken manually for each storm and each water sample was analyzed for total N. The sampling interval

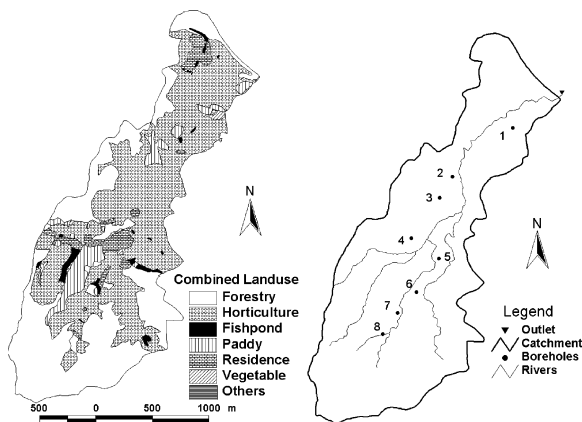


Fig. 1. Combined land uses (a) and borehole location (b) in the Wuchuan catchment.

varied from 0.5 to 4 h depending on rainfall duration.

Eight boreholes were drilled within the study area and monitoring pipes with a diameter of 110 mm and a slot at the bottom were installed in 2002 for water quality analysis in the shallow aquifer (Figure 1b). The boreholes were established under areas of different land use with a depth varying from 1.5 to 2.2 m (Table 1). When sampling, exposed water (old water) in the monitoring pipes was first pumped out, and then fresh water was used for analysis. Nitrate nitrogen ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ) was analyzed in samples from shallow aquifers below the crop-rooting zone.

The amount of  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  exported in leaching was determined as the product of the monthly monitored concentration of  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  and the estimate of monthly water flux reaching the shallow groundwater table under different land uses. A simple water balance model was used to estimate the monthly water flux to shallow aquifers under each land use. The model calculated monthly water balance using rainfall minus streamflow at the outlet and estimated evaporation for different land uses (Zhang 2003). The evaporation estimate used the potential evapotranspiration method recommended by the UN Food and Agricultural Organization (Allen *et al.* 1998). The mean  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations of April and December were used to overcome missing measurements during January to March. When occasional monthly  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  measurements under any particular land use were missing the monitored concentration from the preceding month from the same land use was used for calculation of the monthly  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  export in leaching. Standard colorimetric techniques were used to analyze total N and  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ . All samples

were taken to the laboratory and analyzed within 24 h of collection.

## Results

### *Anthropogenic N sources*

Over the catchment, inorganic fertilizers were the largest single source N input (77.9%, Table 2), followed by manure application (11.1%), domestic wastes (4.6%), atmospheric wet deposition (4.1%), and fishpond removal (2.3%). Overall, the area-weighted mean application rate of N over the catchment was  $350 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ , but this rate varied spatially and temporally among the different land uses (Figure 2). Inorganic N fertilizers were applied to crops at rates ranging from 100 to  $810 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ , with maximum rates on vegetables and minimum on bamboo. However, most of the inorganic fertilizers were applied to cash crops such as bananas and longan, with roughly 43% applied to bananas and about 13% each to longan and sugarcane. Vegetable growing areas were small but received the highest application rates of inorganic fertilizers.

Historically, the mean N application rate for the whole of China was very low (Zhu 1997). In Lake Taihu region, east China, the N application rate varied from 70 to  $100 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  and N was applied only in manures in the 1950s. However, since the 1980's N application rates have increased greatly and recently varied from 500 to  $800 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  on different crops (Ellis & Wang 1997). In the Wuchuan catchment, N fertilizers were not applied to forests that cover 33% of the total area. Thus, the actual N application rate in arable areas and

Table 1. Land use, management and depth of boreholes across the catchment.

No.	Land use	Fertilizers applied	Depth (m)
1*	Fallow	None	1.5
2	Double rice cropping	Ammonium hydrogen carbonate	1.7
3	Vegetables and rice rotation	Manure compost, Ca-Mg phosphate	1.7
4	Sugarcane	Ammonium hydrogen carbonate, Ca-Mg phosphate	2.5
5	Bananas	Urea and ammonium hydrogen carbonate	2.5
6	Vegetables	Manure compost, urea and ammonium hydrogen carbonate	2.0
7	Bananas	Manure compost, urea and ammonium hydrogen carbonate, potassium phosphate	2.0
8	Vegetables and fallow	Manure compost	1.5

\* Number of boreholes in first column shown in Figure 1b.

Table 2. Anthropogenic N sources for three villages: Fengtian (A), Tuwei (B), and Shanbian (C).

Anthropogenic N sources			Amount (t year <sup>-1</sup> )	Rate (kg N ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Contribution (%)
Animal manures	Cattle	A	7.4	8.0	2.3
		B	4.9	5.3	1.5
		C	4.9	5.3	1.5
	Pigs	A	1.8	2.0	0.6
		B	2.2	2.4	0.7
		C	7.6	8.3	2.4
	Poultry	A	3.9	4.3	1.2
		B	1.8	2.0	0.6
		C	1.2	1.3	0.4
		Subtotal		35.6	38.9
Domestic wastes	Excreta	A	2.2	2.4	0.7
		B	2.8	3.1	0.9
		C	7.1	7.7	2.2
	Sewage	A	0.5	0.5	0.2
		B	0.6	0.7	0.2
		C	1.5	1.6	0.5
		Subtotal		14.7	16.1
Fishpond sources	Discharges		4.6	5.0	1.4
	Sediments		2.8	3.1	0.9
	Subtotal		7.4	8.1	2.3
Atmospheric deposition			13.2	14.4	4.1
Inorganic N fertilizers			250.1	272.7	77.9
Total			321.1	350.2	100.0

orchards was 522 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> when forests were excluded from the calculations, about 172 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> higher than the previous estimate in which forests were included.

#### Nitrate leaching

Nitrate-N is highly mobile and retention of NO<sub>3</sub>-N by soil is minimal so that NO<sub>3</sub>-N is very susceptible to leaching. Water quality measurements showed that NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations in shallow aquifers were highly variable under different land uses, and had a great temporal variability. The

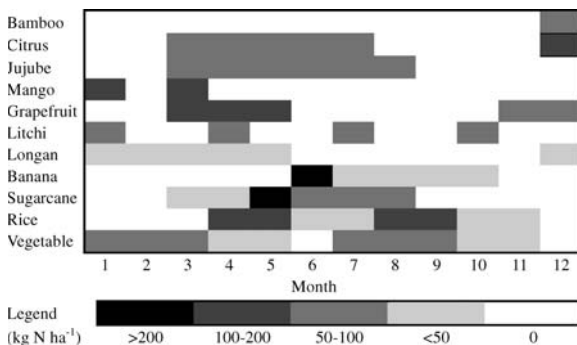


Fig. 2. Inorganic fertilizer and manure applications and growing seasons of different crops.

NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations were highest under banana and vegetables and the peak NO<sub>3</sub>-N concentrations occurred during July to August (Figure 3). Rainfall and fertilizer application are the major factors influencing NO<sub>3</sub>-N leaching. Rainfall intensity during July to August was very high and comprised 50% of the total rainfall in 2002. Intensive rainfall accelerated the soil infiltration and the processes that lead to water flow that bypasses the soil matrix, leading to a buildup of NO<sub>3</sub>-N in the shallow aquifer during this period. Thus, the timing and application rate of fertilizer also

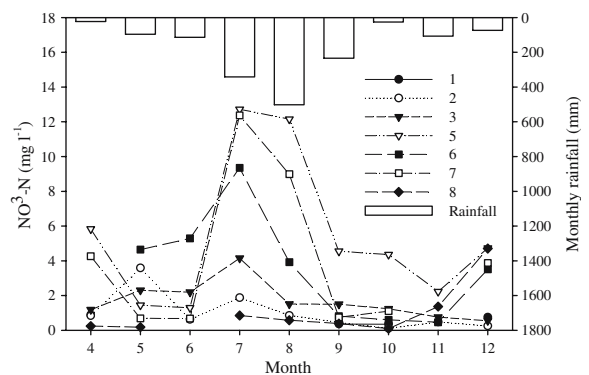


Fig. 3. Nitrate-N concentrations in shallow aquifers under different land uses.

exerted an influence on  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations in the shallow aquifers. Fertilizers were applied to banana fields from June to October and  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations increased over the same period (Figure 2). These factors clearly determined the seasonal patterns of  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations in the local shallow aquifers.

The  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  export rate in leachate differed substantially with land use and varied from 8.1 to 52.7  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ , with a mean value of 13.4  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ . The maximum leaching loss occurred under bananas and the minimum under fallow. There was a strong correlation between leaching N loss and the amount of fertilizer N applied to each land use. The mean  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  export rate in leaching was equivalent to approximately 3.8% of the total N inputs and about 4.9% of the inorganic fertilizer N inputs.

#### *N export in stormflows*

The N export in each stormflow was quantified by multiplying measured N concentrations by the flow rates during storm events. The N export rate in stormflows was aggregated to a monthly scale (Figure 4), owing to difficulties in distinguishing flows between intermittent rainfall events. The monthly N export rate in stormflows varied from almost zero to 17.6  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ , with an aggregate of 28.8  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$  in 2002. Seasonal N export patterns showed that approximately 95% of N exports in stormflows occurred during July to September when rainfall intensity was very large and the rainfall was about 66% of the total rainfall in 2002. These results are in agreement with the

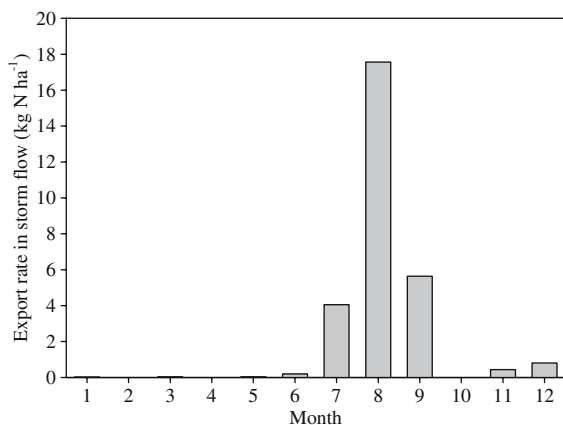


Fig. 4. Monthly N export rate in stormflows in the Wuchuan catchment.

findings of Novotny and Chesters (1989) that overall nutrient yield is generally accounted for by the few extreme flood events in a given year. The mean N exports in stormflows accounted for approximately 8.2% of the total N inputs to the catchment and about 10.6% of the inorganic fertilizer N inputs in 2002.

#### **Discussion**

The overall anthropogenic N inputs over the Wuchuan catchment were 350  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ . Nitrate-N was the predominant N form in groundwater owing to the strong retention of ammonium-N by soil. The N exports in stormflow and leaching therefore amounted to 42.2  $\text{kg N ha}^{-1}$ , which accounted for only 12.1% of the total anthropogenic N inputs to the catchment and 15.5% of the inorganic fertilizer N applied. This is consistent with the general conclusion that N inputs to terrestrial systems exceed riverine exports (Howarth *et al.* 1996; David & Gentry 2000). Of the N exported from the Wuchuan catchment, 32% was found in leachate and 68% was lost through stormflows. However, percolation can partially return as stream baseflow or move vertically to deep groundwater. Therefore, the maximum riverine N exports were 12.1% of the total anthropogenic N inputs to the catchment and 15.5% of the inorganic fertilizer N applied only if no further recharges to deep groundwater occurred and the N in shallow aquifers was not re-used by deep-rooted crops during the dry seasons. Consequently, approximately 88% of the anthropogenic N inputs were taken up by crops or stored, denitrified, or volatilized in the catchment. These results are generally consistent with the finding that less than 30% of the anthropogenic N inputs to catchments are exported to the oceans with surface runoff in rivers and streams (Howarth *et al.*, 1996; Boyer *et al.* 2002; Breemen *et al.* 2002) and the remainder (> 70%) is stored, denitrified or volatilized. However, the export rate of streamflow (maximum 12.1%) in the Wuchuan catchment is even less than the value of 25% found by Boyer *et al.* (2002) in the northeastern USA.

Surveys have shown that the predominant inorganic fertilizers applied in this catchment were ammonium hydrocarbonate and urea (Cao *et al.* 2003), compounds that are very susceptible to loss

to the atmosphere by ammonia volatilization (Chen & Zhu 1981). Strong volatilization and denitrification processes in the catchment were likely responsible for the higher N losses to the atmosphere, and there is also evidence that gaseous N losses through volatilization and denitrification over the whole of China accounted for as much as 22% to 32% of the total N output (Xing & Zhu 2002). However, sediment N deposition in rivers, ponds, and wetlands might account for another significant portion of the N inputs.

### Conclusions

The environmental implications of this study are that the total N inputs to the catchment were much larger than the exports through streamflow and were dominated by inorganic fertilizer N inputs. The mean N export rates in leaching and stormflows were about 13.4 and 28.8 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The maximum riverine N export rate (42.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>) accounted for about 12.1% of the total N inputs and 15.5% of the inorganic fertilizer N applied in 2002. Consequently, approximately 88% of the N inputs were taken up by crops or stored, denitrified or volatilized in the catchment. Nitrogen emission rate to the atmosphere through volatilization and denitrification was likely responsible for the higher N loss rate in the catchment, and sediment N deposition in rivers, ponds, and wetland might account for another significant portion of the N inputs. Seasonal patterns showed that about 95% of the total N exports through stormflows occurred during July to September. Of the riverine N export in 2002, 68% was through stormflow but accounted for only 12% of the flow time (stormflow days over the year), and baseflow was assumed to account for the remaining 32% of riverine N export and 88% of the flow time. Understanding N sources and exports in a village-scale catchment can provide a knowledge base for remediation of diffuse agricultural pollution.

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