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1 **Coupling high-frequency stream metabolism and nutrient monitoring to explore**
2 **biogeochemical controls on downstream nitrate delivery**

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18 Key words: Nitrate, retention, stream, assimilation, denitrification, eutrophication,
19 photosynthesis, respiration.

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25 **Abstract**

26 Instream biogeochemical process measurements are often short term and localised. Here we
27 use *in-situ* sensors to quantify the net effects of biogeochemical processes on seasonal patterns
28 in baseflow nitrate retention at the river-reach scale. Dual-station high-frequency *in-situ*
29 nitrate measurements, were coupled with high-frequency measurements of stream metabolism
30 and dissolved inorganic carbon, in a tributary of the Buffalo National River, Arkansas. Nitrate
31 assimilation was calculated from net primary production, and combined with mass-balance
32 measurements, to estimate net nitrification and denitrification. The combined net effects of
33 these instream processes (assimilation, denitrification and nitrification) removed >30-90% of
34 the baseflow nitrate load along a 6.5km reach. Assimilation of nitrate by photoautotrophs
35 during spring and early summer was buffered by net nitrification. Net nitrification peaked
36 during the spring. After mid-summer, there was a pronounced switch from assimilatory nitrate
37 uptake to denitrification. There was clear synchronicity between the switch from nitrate
38 assimilation to denitrification, a reduction in river baseflows, and a shift in stream metabolism
39 from autotrophy to heterotrophy. The results show how instream nitrate retention and
40 downstream delivery is driven by seasonal shifts in metabolic pathways; and how continuous
41 *in-situ* stream sensor networks offer new opportunities for quantifying the role of stream biota
42 in the dynamics, fate, and transport of nitrogen in fluvial systems.

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46 **1. Introduction**

47 Nutrients, including nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and carbon (C) from agriculture and domestic
48 wastewater, are a major source of water-quality impairment¹. Excessive nutrient inputs to
49 rivers, streams, and lakes can accelerate growth of nuisance and harmful algae. Resulting
50 increases in microbial activity and depletion of dissolved oxygen (DO) have profound negative
51 consequences for invertebrates and fish, potable water supply, and recreation^{2,3}. However,
52 biogeochemical processes in streams also play an important role in regulating downstream
53 nutrient transport, with stream biota retaining and removing nutrients from the water column,
54 reducing downstream ecological impacts⁴⁻⁶.

55 Streams can provide a major sink for nitrate (NO_3^-) through uptake (assimilation) by primary
56 production and through denitrification^{7,8}. The effectiveness of these processes varies
57 throughout the year and between streams, but conventional methods for estimating NO_3^-
58 uptake are based on relatively few, short-term experimental nutrient additions and isotope
59 measurements⁹⁻¹¹, making results difficult to extrapolate in space and time¹². Continuous high-
60 frequency *in-situ* measurements offer new opportunities to explore NO_3^- source dynamics¹³⁻¹⁷,
61 and instream processes have been inferred from single-station diurnal concentration
62 cycles^{12,18,19}, longitudinal profiling²⁰⁻²³, and nested sensor networks²⁴.

63 In this study, we used *in-situ* sensors to quantify the net effects of biogeochemical processes on
64 seasonal patterns in baseflow NO_3^- retention at the river-reach scale. The approach employed
65 here is novel because it combines dual-station high-frequency NO_3^- measurements, with high-
66 frequency measurements of stream metabolism (analysis of diurnal DO curves to calculate

67 primary production and respiration), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), and excess partial
68 pressure of carbon dioxide ($E_p\text{CO}_2$), to explore the capacity of instream biogeochemical
69 processes to retain and remove NO_3^- . High-frequency *in-situ* monitoring of water chemistry and
70 stream flow was undertaken along an experimental reach of Big Creek, a tributary of the
71 Buffalo National Scenic River, Arkansas, U.S.A, and were used to calculate a NO_3^- mass balance
72 along the reach. Net primary production was used to calculate NO_3^- assimilation by
73 photoautotrophs. Daily NO_3^- removal rates and rates of NO_3^- assimilation by photoautotrophs
74 were used to calculate net nitrification and denitrification. The biogeochemical controls on NO_3^-
75 removal were then evaluated in relation to wider ecosystem drivers including streamflow, DO,
76 and stream ecological function, to explore how seasonal shifts in metabolic pathways influence
77 instream NO_3^- retention and downstream NO_3^- delivery.

78 **2. Materials and Methods:**

79 2.1 Site description and water-quality monitoring

80 Big Creek, a tributary of the Buffalo National Scenic River, Arkansas (Figure 1), is the subject of
81 detailed water-quality monitoring because of a permitted swine concentrated animal feeding
82 operation (CAFO) within the watershed, in operation since September 2013. The Big Creek
83 watershed lies in the karst terrain of the Ozark Plateau of mid-continental USA (Figure 1). The
84 watershed area is 236 km², with 79% of the land area deciduous forest, 3% evergreen forest,
85 14% grassland/pasture, and 3% developed land (see Supporting Information, S1.1). Swine-
86 manure slurry from the CAFO has been land applied to permitted fields since January 1, 2014, in
87 accordance with State regulations.

88 The focus of this study is an experimental reach of Big Creek, downstream of the CAFO, from an
89 upstream monitoring station at Mt Judea (USGS site 07055790; watershed area 106 km²) to a
90 downstream monitoring station at Carver (USGS site 07055814; watershed area 233 km²), 7.21
91 and 0.69 km from the confluence between Big Creek and the Buffalo River, respectively (Figure
92 1). One tributary (Left Fork) enters Big Creek between Mt Judea and Carver. The watershed is a
93 mantled karst terrain characterized by intimate connection between groundwater and surface
94 water; transport of surface-derived nutrients can be rapid²⁵ (see S1.2).

95 USGS conducted high-frequency (15-minute) NO₃⁻ monitoring using submersible ultraviolet
96 nitrate probes at Carver (06/03/2014 to 04/29/2017) and Mt Judea (11/01/2014 to
97 11/01/2015); there was therefore one year of overlapping data (11/01/2014 to 11/01/2015),
98 during which NO₃⁻ monitoring was undertaken at both Mt Judea and Carver. A water-quality
99 sonde (YSI 6600) operating at Carver simultaneously collected 15-minute interval DO, pH,
100 specific conductance, and water temperature data. Further information about the high-
101 frequency water-quality monitoring is provided in S1.3.

102 Water-quality samples, collected on a weekly basis since 09/12/2013, with additional
103 opportunistic high-flow sampling, at Mt Judea, Left Fork and at a groundwater (spring)
104 monitoring site (Figure 1), provided NO₃⁻ (by ion chromatography, Dionex ICS-1600); alkalinity
105 (by fixed-endpoint acidimetric titration to pH 4.5²⁶); and conductivity (VWR Symphony B10C)
106 data. Water quality data are available at <https://bigcreekresearch.org/>.

107 2.2 Stream-flow measurements and hydrograph separation

108 Stream flow was measured using established USGS streamflow gauging methods²⁷ (see S1.4). A
109 two-component mixing model was used to partition the contributions to streamflow from
110 groundwater and surface runoff²⁸, using alkalinity as a conservative groundwater tracer (see
111 S1.5).

112 2.3 Analysis of diurnal dissolved oxygen curves to calculate primary production and respiration

113 The daily average gross primary production, daily average ecosystem respiration and reaeration
114 coefficient were calculated from the series of diurnal DO curves at Carver, using a piecewise
115 solution of the mass balance, DO model²⁹ simplified for the situation where the deficit does not
116 vary spatially (Eq. 1): the Delta method^{30,31}.

$$117 \quad dD/dt + k_a D = ER_{av} - GPP_{av}(t) \quad (1)$$

118 where D is the DO deficit ($\text{mg-O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$), t is the time (days), k_a is the reaeration coefficient, ER_{av} is
119 the ecosystem respiration ($\text{mg-O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$), and GPP_{av} is the gross primary production ($\text{mg-O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$
120 d^{-1}); these are standard measures of ecosystem respiration and gross primary production in river
121 systems³².

122 Odum³³ suggested a classification system of flowing-water communities based on oxygen
123 metabolism by using the ratio of GPP_{av} to ER_{av} (GPP/ER). Respiration is associated with both
124 plant and microbial activity. Photosynthesis is only associated with plants. Autotroph-
125 dominated communities are represented by GPP/ER values > 1 , whereas heterotroph-
126 dominated communities are represented by GPP/ER values < 1 .

127 2.5 Use of the THINCARB model for calculating dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations and
128 excess partial pressure of carbon dioxide

129 The THINCARB model (THERmodynamic modelling of INorganic CARBon)³⁴ uses pH, Gran
130 Alkalinity (Alk_{Gran}) and temperature measurements to calculate dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)
131 concentrations and DIC speciation from the excess partial pressures of carbon dioxide ($EpCO_2$)
132 in freshwaters. THINCARB is open access and is described in detail in Jarvie et al (2017)³⁴; an
133 outline is provided in SI1.8. Prior to use, alkalinity measurements in units of $mg\text{-}CaCO_3\text{ L}^{-1}$ were
134 first converted to Alk_{Gran} (in $\mu eq\text{ L}^{-1}$), where $1\text{ mg L}^{-1}\text{ CaCO}_3 = 19.98\ \mu eq\text{ L}^{-1}$ ³⁴.

135 THINCARB was applied to the high-frequency sonde data from Carver. Specific conductance
136 was used as a surrogate for alkalinity: using the regression relationship between Alk_{Gran} and
137 specific conductance (κ), measured across the Big Creek watershed, including the spring, and
138 Mt Judea, Left Fork and Carver stream sites: $Alk_{Gran} = 8.65 (\pm 0.28) \times \kappa - 6.44 (\pm 66)$, $R^2 = 0.95$,
139 $n=270$, $P<0.001$ (numbers in parentheses represent twice the standard error). By applying this
140 regression equation to the hourly κ series, an hourly alkalinity record was derived, which was
141 then used alongside the hourly pH and water-temperature data, to calculate a high-frequency
142 DIC and $EpCO_2$ series.

143 2.6 Mass-balance calculation of baseflow nitrate fluxes, instream losses and net nitrification
144 and denitrification

145 Daily mass-balance calculations were undertaken for eight quiescent, low-flow periods (each
146 typically of 1-2 weeks). USGS stream-velocity readings from Carver ranged from 0.457 and 1.22
147 $m\text{ s}^{-1}$, and with a stream distance of 6.38 km, the travel times ranged from 3.87 h to 1.45 h.

148 Therefore, daily mass balances over a 24-h period were assumed sufficient to account for
149 transit of NO_3^- , given: (a) the relatively short travel times; (b) the high degree of stationarity in
150 flux transfers during quiescent baseflow conditions; and (c) that calculated daily mass balances
151 were averaged over a 1-2 week period.

152 The 15-minute NO_3^- measurements at Mt Judea and Carver were converted to daily means, and
153 daily nitrate loads at each site were calculated using the corresponding gauged daily stream-
154 flow data. To account for flow accretion along the reach, the difference between the daily flow
155 downstream at Carver and the upstream site at Mt Judea was calculated. The increase in flows
156 was assumed to be input from Left Fork (Figure 1).

157 Daily NO_3^- input loading to the reach (L_T) was calculated as the sum of the daily NO_3^- loads from
158 Mt Judea (L_{MJ}) and Left Fork (L_{LF}):

$$159 \quad L_T = L_{MJ} + L_{LF} \quad (2)$$

160 There was no high-resolution NO_3^- monitoring on Left Fork, so weekly NO_3^- measurements from
161 grab samples taken at Left Fork were combined with the measured daily flow accretion to
162 derive daily loads from Left Fork (S1.6.1). A sensitivity analysis evaluated the potential effects of
163 under- or over-estimating Left Fork NO_3^- concentrations by $\pm 50\%$ (Tables SI1 and SI2).

164 Within this karst watershed, some of the flow accretion will arise from direct groundwater
165 input into Big Creek. Discharge data were not available from the Left Fork tributary, and direct
166 apportionment of contributions from Left Fork and groundwater was not possible. We
167 therefore evaluated a second, alternative 'endmember' case scenario whereby all of flow
168 accretion was attributed to direct groundwater contribution (S1.6.2).

169 The daily instream NO_3^- load removal (L_R) along the reach was calculated as the difference
170 between the daily input NO_3^- loading (L_T), and the daily NO_3^- load at Carver (L_C):

$$171 \quad L_R = L_T - L_C \quad (3)$$

172 To allow direct comparison with rates of assimilatory NO_3^- uptake by photosynthesis, L_R (kg-N d^{-1})
173 was then converted to a daily NO_3^- removal rate, U_T ($\text{mg-N L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$). U_T incorporates both
174 assimilatory NO_3^- uptake by photoautotrophs (U_A), heterotrophic NO_3^- removal through direct
175 uptake and denitrification (U_D), and NO_3^- enrichment due to remineralization via nitrification
176 (R)²⁰:

$$177 \quad U_T = U_A + U_D - R \quad (4)$$

178 U_A was estimated from the GPP_{av} measurements^{12,35}. GPP_{av} data were converted into net
179 primary production (NPP), assuming that autotrophic respiration consumed 50% of the
180 GPP_{av} ^{36,37}. NPP data were then converted from units of O_2 uptake ($\text{mg-O}_2 \text{L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) to C uptake
181 ($\text{mg-C L}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$), with a photosynthetic quotient of 1.00, then converted to NO_3^- uptake (mg-N L^{-1}
182 d^{-1}), using a molar ratio of C:N of 12³⁸. Subtracting U_T from U_A provides a measure of either net
183 nitrification (positive values) or net heterotrophic NO_3^- removal through direct uptake and
184 denitrification, hereafter referred to as 'net denitrification' (negative values). When the river
185 was influent, loss of NO_3^- to groundwater was accounted for, as described in S1.6.3.

186 **3. Results and Discussion**

187 3.1 Three-year time series of nitrate, dissolved inorganic carbon and stream metabolism

188 The hourly NO_3^- and DIC concentrations variations at Carver were driven by streamflow, but in
189 opposing directions (Figure 2a). The mean and median NO_3^- concentrations were 0.128 and
190 0.093 mg-N L^{-1} , respectively. Nitrate concentrations at Carver were lowest during baseflow
191 (mean 0.043 mg-N L^{-1} ; lowest 10% of flows) and highest during storm runoff (mean 0.278 mg-N
192 L^{-1} ; highest 10% of flows), arising from nonpoint-source mobilisation and delivery of NO_3^- from
193 watershed soils during rainfall events.

194 The mean and median DIC concentrations were 24.8 and 25.2 mg-C L^{-1} , respectively. DIC
195 concentrations were highest during baseflow (mean 31.7 mg-C L^{-1}), with DIC concentrations
196 diluted by storm runoff (mean 13.2 mg-C L^{-1}). Highest DIC and lowest NO_3^- concentrations
197 occurred during the extended low-flows between August and November 2015.

198 The mean and median molar C:N ratios were 356 and 305, respectively. The mean C:N ratio
199 during baseflow was 882, and 82 during stormflow. C:N ratios greater than ~ 6.6 are indicative
200 of stoichiometric depletion of N relative to C³⁹. Absolute NO_3^- concentrations below ~ 0.1 mg-N
201 L^{-1} are deemed likely to be limiting to algae, with algal growth response to NO_3^- enrichment
202 occurring between 0.38 to 1.79 mg-N L^{-1} ⁴⁰. Therefore, under average and baseflow conditions
203 at Carver, a clear potential exists for algal growth to be limited by low NO_3^- availability.

204 No longer-term trends in either NO_3^- or DIC were observed over the three years. These high-
205 frequency monitoring results are consistent with results from near-weekly water quality
206 monitoring of Big Creek at Mt Judea, which showed no statistically significant increasing or
207 decreasing trends in dissolved or particulate forms of P and N concentrations since 2013⁴¹.

208 Earlier studies⁶ have shown that Ozark streams can be very effective at retaining available
209 nutrients, and buffering additional nutrient inputs. Therefore, the absence of any increasing
210 trend in nutrients in the water column may result from the rapid and efficient uptake of
211 nutrient inputs by stream biota. Consequently, high-resolution stream metabolism and nutrient
212 measurements were used here to detect whether increased photosynthesis or respiration rates
213 resulted from increased nutrient assimilation, even where no increases in water-column
214 nutrient concentrations could be observed.

215 The time series in daily rates of GPP_{av} and ER_{av} , at Carver (Figure 2b), showed no definitive long-
216 term trends between 2014 and 2017. GPP_{av} declined rapidly in response to major storm runoff
217 events, but typically recovered within a couple of weeks. Highest GPP_{av} tended to occur during
218 quiescent baseflow or recessionary streamflow conditions during the summer (May through
219 August). Both GPP_{av} and ER_{av} declined during the autumn (September through December),
220 reflecting reductions in stream biological activity, and GPP_{av} tended to decline at a faster rate
221 than ER . This was particularly apparent during the extended low-flows between August and
222 December 2015, suggesting a decline in primary production relative to microbial activity and a
223 transition from net autotrophic to net heterotrophic stream communities. During winter
224 baseflows (November through January), ER_{av} tended to exceed GPP_{av} . During the 3-yr
225 monitoring, no CAFO-related impacts on either stream nutrient concentrations or metabolism
226 are discernible at Carver.

227 3.2 Temporal and spatial variability in NO_3^- concentrations, relative to other key environmental
228 variables

229 Mean daily NO_3^- concentrations varied between baseflow and storm events at Mt Judea and
230 Carver, during the one year of overlapping data (Figure 3). There was a clear differentiation
231 between a higher-flow period characterised by regular storm events from mid-December 2014
232 to mid-July 2015, and lower-flow conditions from August to November/December 2015 (Figures
233 3 and 4).

234 During the higher-flow period, a positive correlation existed between upstream (Mt Judea) and
235 downstream (Carver) NO_3^- , with a ratio approaching 1 (Figure 3). During this high-flow period,
236 NO_3^- concentrations at both upstream and downstream sites ranged between ~ 0.1 and ~ 0.4
237 mg-N L^{-1} . Time series data show close convergence between upstream and downstream NO_3^-
238 concentrations during storm-event peak concentrations (Figure 4a,b).

239 Under lower-flow conditions, NO_3^- concentrations were consistently higher upstream than
240 downstream (Figure 3). The increase in NO_3^- concentrations at the upstream site during the
241 summer and autumn 2015 corresponds with reductions in flow. This is typical of the longer-
242 term hydrologically-driven cycles in NO_3^- concentrations observed at the upstream site,
243 reflecting a strong flow dependency, with highest concentrations under the lowest flows, and
244 dilution with increasing flow (Figure SI1). The strong increase in NO_3^- concentrations during July
245 to November 2015 therefore reflects hydrological controls, and is consistent with falling flows.
246 The high NO_3^- concentrations in autumn 2015 subsequently declined with the onset of higher
247 flows (Fig SI1a,b).

248 The gap in NO_3^- concentrations between upstream and downstream sites widened with
249 decreasing flow, particularly during the protracted low-flows between mid-July and November

250 2015. During this time, minimal soil water contributed to streamflow, and almost all (>95%) of
251 streamflow was derived from ground water (Figure 4a,b). By the end of October 2015,
252 upstream NO_3^- concentrations reached $\sim 0.75 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1}$, whereas downstream NO_3^-
253 concentrations were $\sim 0.05 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1}$. Between July and November 2015, downstream NO_3^-
254 concentrations exhibited a much lower range (~ 0.05 to $\sim 0.15 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1}$) as compared with
255 upstream (~ 0.1 to $\sim 0.8 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1}$) (Figure 3). This reduction in both magnitude and range of
256 downstream NO_3^- concentrations under baseflow conditions could arise either from dilution of
257 NO_3^- , as a result of downstream accretion of water sources with much lower NO_3^-
258 concentrations, or by removal of NO_3^- through biogeochemical processes, necessitating a mass-
259 balance evaluation (see section 3.3).

260 The widening gap in NO_3^- concentrations between upstream and downstream sites after mid-
261 July 2015 corresponded with a decline in GPP/ER , which fell below 1, indicating a change to net
262 heterotrophy (Figure 4c). During the low-flow period from mid-July to November 2015, Big
263 Creek was heterotrophic for $\sim 90\%$ of days. Daily streamwater EpCO_2 doubled between mid-July
264 and November 2015, from 4.5 to 9.1 times atmospheric pressure, independently confirming an
265 increase in rates of respiration (CO_2 release), relative to photosynthesis (CO_2 uptake).

266 During the higher-flow period from mid-January to mid-July, Big Creek was predominantly net
267 autotrophic ($GPP/ER > 1$ for 52% of days). Net heterotrophic conditions prevailed predominantly
268 during lower-flow intervals between storm events, with $GPP/ER < 1$ typically during and
269 immediately-after storm events.

270 Molar C:N ratios at Carver also increased markedly after mid-July, from ~300 to >800 (Figure
271 4d). This stoichiometric depletion of N, along with persistence of low NO_3^- concentrations
272 below 0.1 mg-N L^{-1} (falling to $<0.04 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1}$), suggests that algal growth may have been limited
273 by low N availability at Carver over the late summer and autumn of 2015.

274 3.3 Nitrate reach mass balance to quantify seasonal nitrate removal during baseflow conditions

275 Mean daily NO_3^- mass balances for the eight seasonal quiescent baseflow periods between
276 February and October 2015 are presented in Table 1. Mean daily NO_3^- input loadings to the
277 reach (L_T) increased from 17.3 kg-N d^{-1} in February to 61.7 kg-N d^{-1} in July, then declined rapidly
278 to 7.56 kg-N d^{-1} in August, which also corresponded with an order of magnitude reduction in
279 baseflow discharge. By October, L_T had fallen to only 2.98 kg-N d^{-1} . Instream NO_3^- removal (L_R)
280 followed a similar pattern to L_T , with highest mean daily instream NO_3^- removal during June (24
281 kg-N d^{-1}), then decreasing during the late summer and autumn, and falling to 2.82 kg-N d^{-1} in
282 October. However, the efficiency of instream NO_3^- removal (U_E , i.e., L_R expressed as a
283 percentage of L_T) increased markedly during the late summer and autumn, from 32% in July to
284 74-95% between August and October.

285 The fluvial mass balance therefore confirmed that the observed downstream reductions in NO_3^-
286 concentrations under baseflow were a result of net instream removal of NO_3^- by
287 biogeochemical processes, rather than a dilution effect.

288 Although L_T and L_R were greatest during the winter to early summer period, U_E and the instream
289 NO_3^- removal rate (U_T) increased dramatically during the low flows of the late summer and
290 autumn; U_T increased from $\leq 0.09 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (February through July), to $>0.2 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in

291 August and September, and $0.66 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in October (Table 2). By autumn 2015, >75% of
292 the NO_3^- inputs were removed by biogeochemical processes (Table 1).

293 We also assessed the efficiency of NO_3^- removal under the alternative scenario, where the
294 increase in flow along the experimental reach was solely from direct groundwater input
295 (S1.6.2). This made relatively little difference to the U_E which also increased markedly during
296 the late summer and autumn, from 46% in July to 72-94% between August and October (Table
297 S13). The sensitivity analysis (Tables S11 and S13) showed that a 50% increase or decrease in
298 either Left Fork or groundwater NO_3^- concentrations made little difference to these findings: a
299 consistent increase in efficiency of NO_3^- removal was observed after July, with August to
300 October U_E values consistently ~70-95%.

301 3.4 Biogeochemical controls on nitrate delivery: accounting for assimilatory nitrate uptake to 302 calculate net nitrification and net denitrification

303 From February to July, assimilatory NO_3^- uptake by photosynthesising plants (U_A) consistently
304 exceeded U_T (Table 2) indicating, firstly, that assimilation of NO_3^- by photoautotrophs was the
305 dominant process removing NO_3^- from the water column; and secondly that assimilation was
306 partially balanced by net nitrification NO_3^- gains. In contrast, from August to October, U_T
307 exceeded U_A , indicating that heterotrophic NO_3^- removal through direct uptake and
308 denitrification was removing NO_3^- along the reach in late summer and autumn.

309 Table 3 shows that net nitrification gains to the reach ranged from $0.135 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in February
310 to $0.273 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in April/May. However, after July, a pronounced switch from net nitrification
311 gains to net denitrification losses occurred. During late summer and autumn, denitrification

312 losses of NO_3^- increased from $\sim 0.100 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in August and September to $0.592 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$
313 in October. These estimates were based on using an average periphyton C:N molar ratio of 12
314 for U.S.A. streams^{35,38}. We also evaluated the effects of using an average periphyton molar C:N
315 ratio of 8.6, from research in northern European streams¹⁷. This increased U_A values by $\sim 39\%$,
316 but did not alter our findings of a switch between net nitrification between February and July, to
317 net denitrification from August to October. By changing the C:N stoichiometry from 12 to 8.6,
318 net nitrification ranged from $+0.218 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in February to $+0.414 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in April/May,
319 with net denitrification ranging from $-0.033 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in August to $-0.562 \text{ mg-N L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in
320 October.

321 Net nitrification and denitrification rates were compared with mean daily GPP/ER , EpCO_2 ,
322 streamflow and percentage groundwater discharge (Table 3). The shift from net nitrification to
323 net denitrification corresponded directly with: (1) a change in stream metabolism from net
324 autotrophic (GPP/ER in July was 1.97) to net heterotrophic (GPP/ER fell below 1, to 0.78 in
325 August, 0.62 in September, and 0.57 in October); and (2) an increase in EpCO_2 and a reduction
326 in DO arising from the increases in microbial respiration relative to photosynthesis.

327 The alternative scenario where flow accretion between Mt Judea and Carver was attributed to
328 direct groundwater discharge to Big Creek also had no effect on the timing of the shift from net
329 nitrification to denitrification (S1.6.2, Table SI4). Sensitivity analysis (Tables SI2 and SI4) also
330 showed that, irrespective of a 50% increase or decrease in either Left Fork or groundwater NO_3^-
331 concentrations, the same consistent switch between net nitrification and net denitrification
332 was observed after July.

333 The consistency in this observed switch between instream NO_3^- production and instream NO_3^-
334 removal, and its synchronicity with measured changes in stream metabolism, provides
335 compelling evidence that the marked change in instream NO_3^- processing and delivery after July
336 was linked to changes in stream metabolism from net autotrophy to net heterotrophy.

337 The karst streams of the Ozarks are characterised by a large hyporheic zone^{42,43}, a hotspot of
338 nitrogen transformation⁴⁴. Water residence times and redox conditions provide a key control
339 on changes between NO_3^- removal and NO_3^- production with hyporheic zone sediments⁴⁵⁻⁴⁸. In
340 Big Creek, the winter to mid-summer period was characterised by higher baseflows (at least an
341 order of magnitude greater than late summer/autumn baseflows), and net autotrophy resulting
342 in higher instream DO concentrations. Rapid movement of well-oxygenated water throughout
343 the water column, and into the hyporheic zone, promotes aerobic metabolism of organic
344 matter and release of NO_3^- through nitrification^{46,49}. From winter to mid-summer, net
345 nitrification was observed in Big Creek, and nitrification in the hyporheic zone may have been
346 responsible for buffering the effects of photosynthetic assimilatory uptake of NO_3^- .

347 Under the more sluggish flow conditions during late summer and autumn, available oxygen is
348 depleted as a result of increased heterotrophic activity. The reduced movement of water and
349 oxygen through the hyporheic zone favors a shift in respiratory pathways with denitrification
350 (conversion of nitrate to N_2O and/or N_2 gas)^{50,51}. Unlike assimilation of NO_3^- into plant biomass,
351 which retains N temporarily, denitrification results in a permanent loss of bioavailable N. The
352 low baseflows of late summer and autumn 2015, resulted in higher water residence times and a
353 greater proportion of flow moving through the hyporheic zone. This provides greater exposure
354 and water contact time with microbial biofilms where denitrification occurs⁵¹. The death and

355 breakdown of biomass during the late summer and autumn contribute to the availability of
356 organic matter for microbial decomposition, promoting higher rates of microbial respiration
357 relative to photosynthesis, losses of DO, and greater availability of organic carbon as a resource
358 for denitrifying bacteria^{45,53}. Denitrification within the hyporheic zone may therefore be
359 responsible for losses of NO_3^- in Big Creek during the late summer and autumn. Although
360 denitrification can also occur on suspended sediments within the water column^{54,55}, this is likely
361 to be a second order effect under baseflow conditions in a groundwater-fed stream, where
362 suspended solids concentrations are low (typically $<5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$).

363 Under baseflow conditions, instream assimilatory NO_3^- uptake by photosynthesising plants and
364 hyporheic-zone denitrification along the experimental reach removed between ~ 30 and $\sim 90\%$
365 of the NO_3^- input load. During the period of monitoring (spring 2014 to spring 2017) NO_3^-
366 loading to the upstream section of Big Creek (at Mt Judea) was attenuated by instream
367 processing such that no CAFO-related impacts on either stream nutrient concentrations or
368 metabolism were discernible at the downstream location (Carver), and thus, to the Buffalo
369 River. Future monitoring will be needed to detect whether long-term changes in nutrients and
370 organic carbon inputs may occur, whether this stimulates higher rates of heterotrophic and/or
371 autotrophic activity, and any longer-term effects on the capacity of assimilation and
372 denitrification processes to remove and buffer any increase in nutrient loadings.

373 The novelty of this research is the combination of continuous, high-frequency *in-situ* stream
374 metabolism and nitrate measurements, to apportion the net effects of assimilation,
375 nitrification, and denitrification on changes in baseflow nitrate fluxes at the river-reach to
376 watershed scale. In this case, we found that, during winter to mid-summer periods, NO_3^- uptake

377 in Big Creek was dominated by assimilation by photoautotrophs, which was partially
378 compensated by release of NO_3^- from nitrification. In late summer, the predominant metabolic
379 pathway switched to net heterotrophy and heterotrophic NO_3^- removal through direct uptake
380 and denitrification became the dominant process of nitrate removal. Removal of NO_3^- by
381 assimilation and denitrification provides an important “self-cleansing” ecosystem service,
382 resulting in a pronounced shift in C:N stoichiometry and decreasing NO_3^- concentrations to low
383 levels which would be expected to limit algal growth⁵⁶.

384 This approach provides a means scaling up, from micro-scale and meso-scale process
385 experiments and measurements, which are, by necessity, short term and localised, to explore
386 how river nitrate delivery responds to shifts in stream metabolism, from day-to-day and
387 seasonal to inter-annual variability. This research, and the methods presented here, are
388 applicable along the river continuum, from headwaters to large-scale fluvial systems (with large
389 spatial and temporal variability in nutrient fluxes), and offer a valuable way forward in
390 quantifying net process controls on the fate and transport of nitrogen in fluvial systems.

391

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398

399 **Supporting Information (see accompanying PDF file)**

400 • Number of pages: 16

401 • Number of Figures: 1

402 • Number of Tables: 4

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405 Figure 1. Map of the Big Creek watershed.

406 Figure 2. Time series from May 2014 and May 2017 at the downstream monitoring site (Carver),
407 showing: (a) nitrate ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and stream flow; and (b) daily
408 average gross primary production (*GPP*), ecosystem respiration (*ER*) and stream flow.

409 Figure 3. Scatter plot showing the relations between mean daily $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentrations
410 upstream at Mt Judea and downstream at Carver

411 Figure 4. Time series from 1 November 2014 to 1 November 2015, showing: (a) NO_3^-
412 concentrations upstream at Mt Judea and downstream at Carver, and the lower-flow time
413 periods used for mass balance calculation and evaluation of biogeochemical processes; (b)
414 stream flow at Carver and the percentage groundwater contribution to streamflow; (c) daily
415 ratio of gross primary production: ecosystem respiration (*GPP/ER*) (horizontal dashed line
416 shows *GPP/ER* of 1, i.e. balance between heterotrophy and autotrophy), and excess partial

417 pressure of carbon dioxide (EpCO_2); (d) streamflow and the molar C:N ratio (dissolved organic
418 carbon/ $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$).

419 **List of Tables:**

420 Table 1: Seasonal patterns in mean daily NO_3^- input loadings (L_T) to Big Creek, mean daily
421 instream NO_3^- load removal (L_R) along the experimental reach, under low-flow conditions, and
422 mean daily NO_3^- load removal as a percentage of NO_3^- inputs (U_E).

423 Table 2: Seasonal patterns in mean daily NO_3^- removal rate (U_T) along the experimental reach of
424 Big Creek, under low-flow conditions, and mean daily assimilatory uptake of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ by
425 photoautotrophs (U_A).

426 Table 3: Seasonal patterns in mean daily NO_3^- concentration gains by net nitrification and losses
427 by net denitrification along the experimental reach of Big Creek, under low-flow conditions,
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429 respiration (GPP/ER), excess partial pressure of carbon dioxide (EpCO_2), dissolved oxygen (DO),
430 stream flow and the percentage of groundwater contribution to stream flow.

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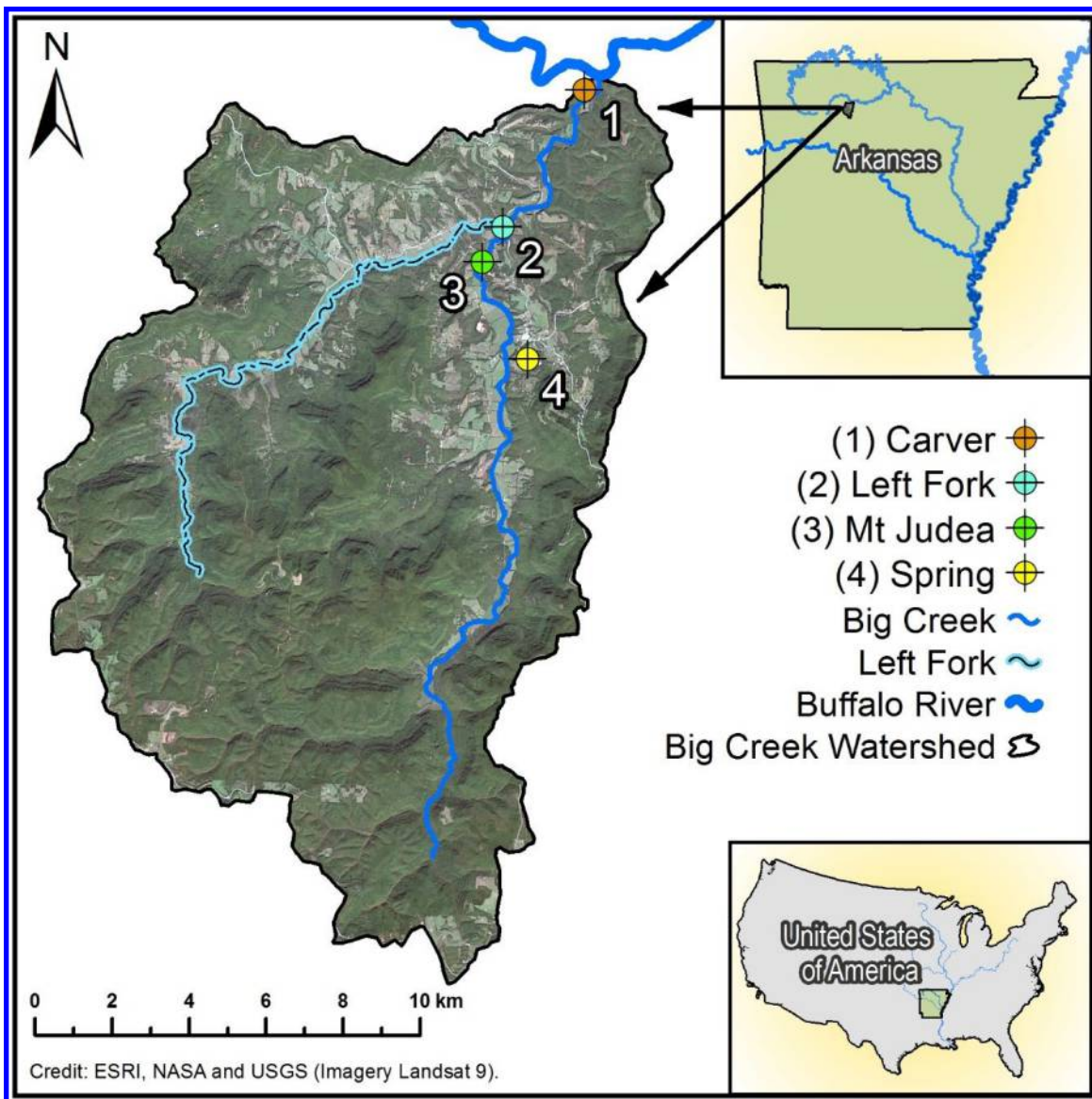


Figure 1 Map of the Big Creek watershed and its location

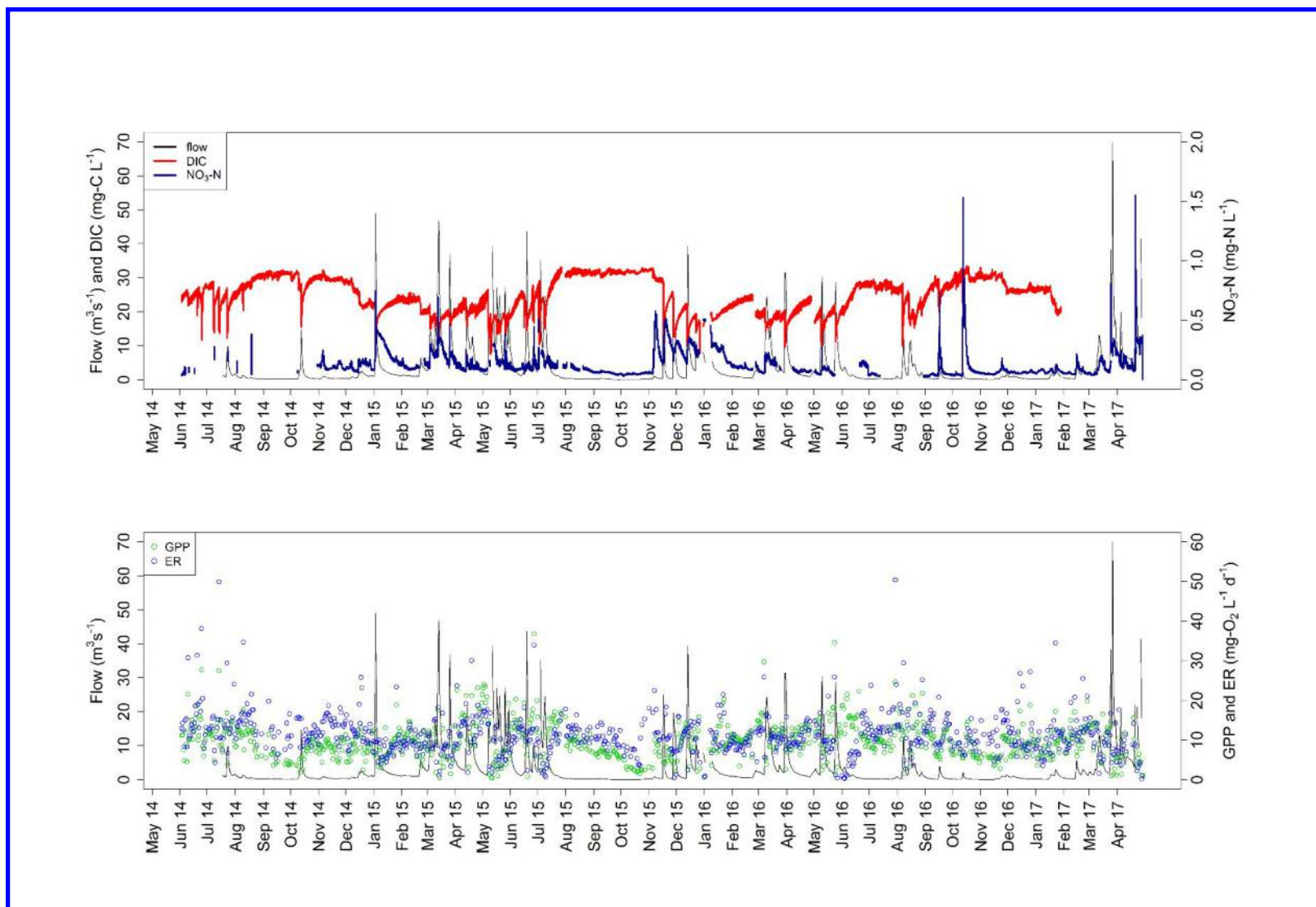


Figure 2. Time series at the downstream monitoring site (Carver), from May 2014 and May 2017, showing: (a) nitrate ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and stream flow; and (b) daily average gross primary production (GPP), ecosystem respiration (ER) and stream flow.

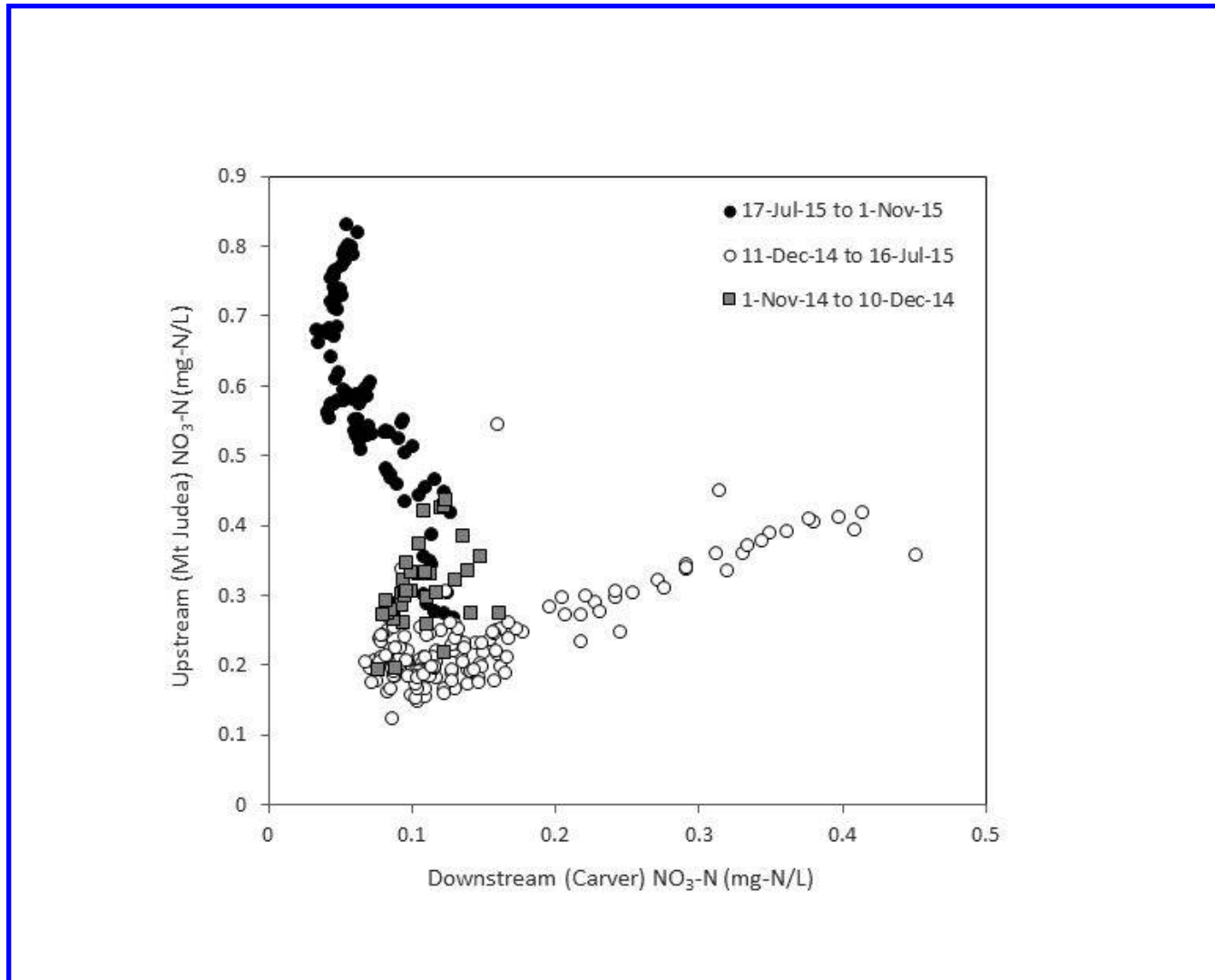


Figure 3. Scatter plot showing the relations between mean daily nitrate concentrations upstream at Mt Judea and downstream at Carver

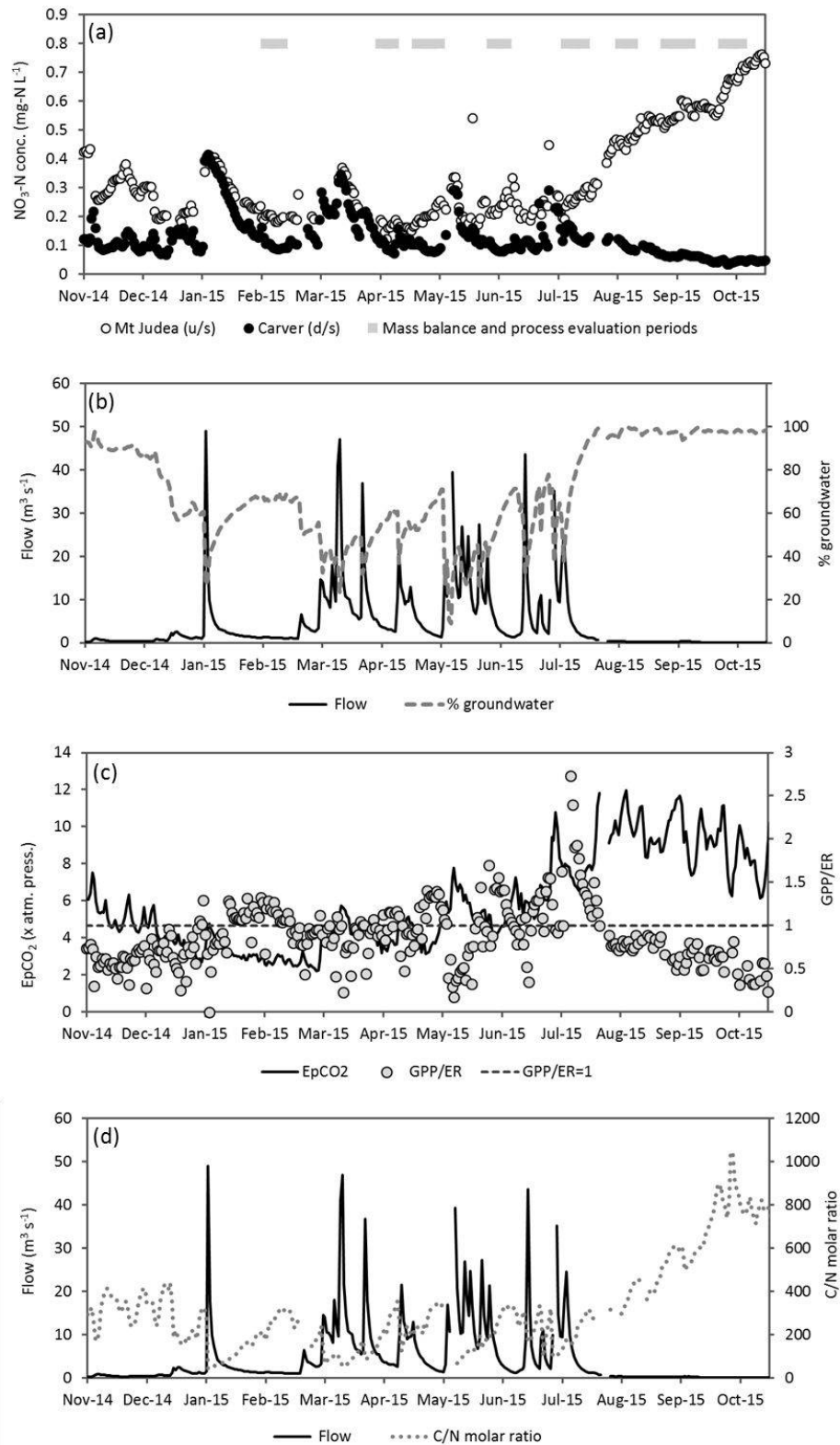


Figure 4. Time series from 1 November 2014 to 1 November 2015, showing: (a) NO₃⁻ concentrations upstream at Mt Judea and downstream at Carver, and the lower-flow time periods used for mass

balance calculation and evaluation of biogeochemical processes; (b) stream flow at Carver and the percentage groundwater contribution to streamflow; (c) daily ratio of gross primary production: ecosystem respiration (GPP/ER) (horizontal dashed line shows GPP/ER of 1, i.e. balance between heterotrophy and autotrophy), and excess partial pressure of carbon dioxide ($EpCO_2$); (d) streamflow and the molar C:N ratio (DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon/ NO_3-N).

Season	Date range	NO ₃ ⁻ input loading to reach (L_T) (kg-N d ⁻¹)	Instream NO ₃ ⁻ removal along reach (L_R) (kg-N d ⁻¹)	Instream NO ₃ ⁻ removal (L_R) as % of NO ₃ ⁻ input loading (L_T) (U_E)
Winter	4-13 Feb 2015	17.3 (1.12)	7.68 (0.46)	44.7 (4.09)
Spring 1	5-12 Apr 2015	44.1 (6.35)	19.0 (2.82)	43.9 (9.53)
Spring 2	24 Apr - 5 May 2015	37.9 (15.3)	16.9 (3.85)	47.6 (8.93)
Early Summer	2-10 Jun 2015	49.2 (23.6)	24.1 (8.54)	51.2 (5.34)
Mid Summer	11-21 Jul 2015	61.7 (44.2)	14.6 (2.82)	32.1(14.1)
Late Summer	7-16 Aug 2015	7.56 (1.22)	5.57 (0.59)	74.2 (4.66)
Autumn 1	1-14 Sept 2015	5.81 (1.23)	4.49 (0.81)	77.8 (2.39)
Autumn 2	1-11 Oct 2015	2.98 (0.29)	2.82 (0.25)	94.8 (1.20)

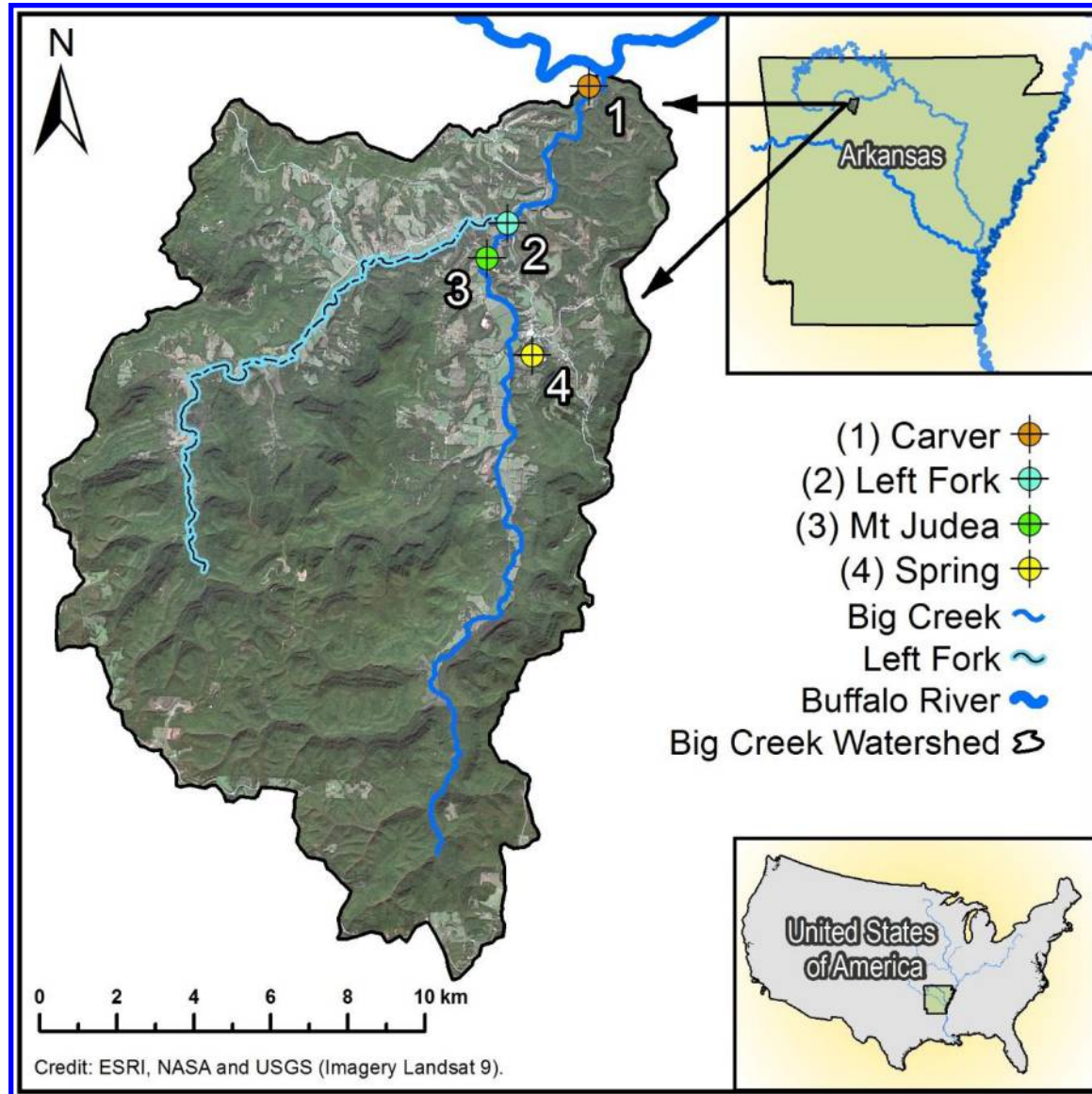
Table 1: Seasonal patterns in mean daily NO₃⁻ input loadings (L_T) to Big Creek, mean daily instream NO₃⁻ load removal (L_R) along the experimental reach, under low-flow conditions, and mean daily NO₃⁻ load removal as a percentage of NO₃⁻ inputs (U_E). Standard deviations are shown in parentheses.

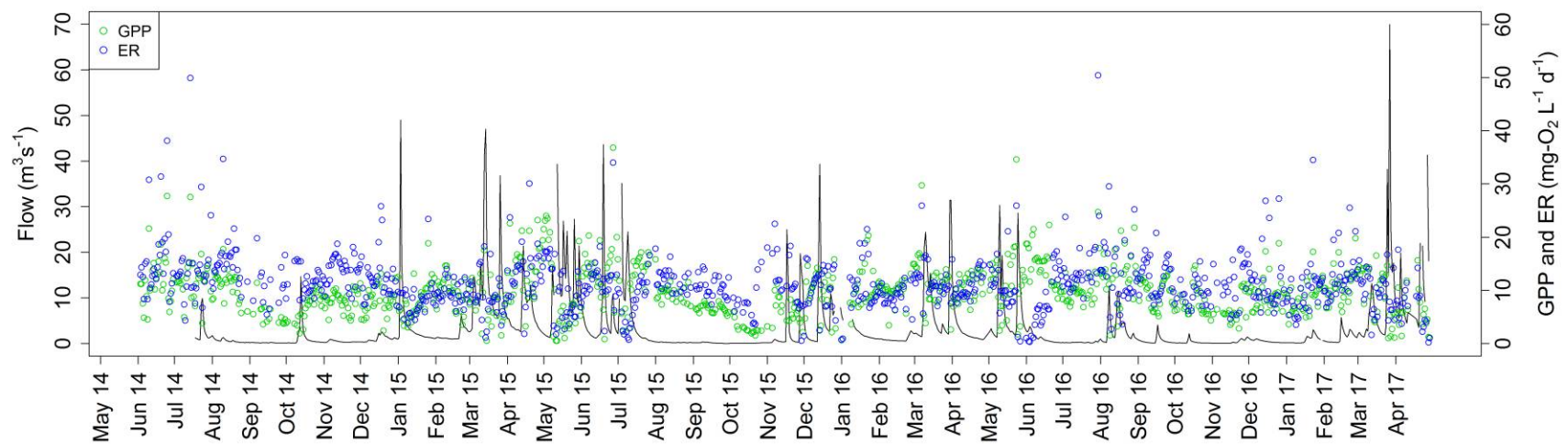
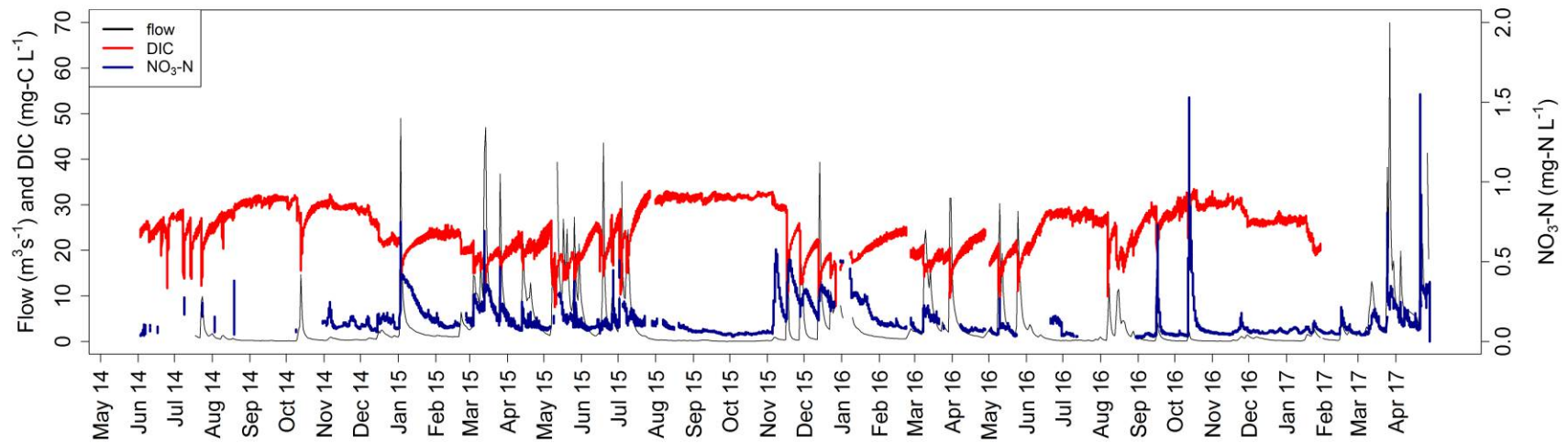
Season	Date range	Instream NO ₃ ⁻ removal rate (U_T) (mg-N L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	Assimilatory NO ₃ ⁻ uptake (U_A) (mg-N L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
Winter	4-13 Feb 2015	0.077 (0.006)	0.212 (0.035)
Spring 1	5-12 Apr 2015	0.072 (0.017)	0.256 (0.050)
Spring 2	24 Apr - 5 May 2015	0.082 (0.018)	0.355 (0.067)
Early Summer	2-10 Jun 2015	0.090 (0.014)	0.269 (0.045)
Mid Summer	11-21 Jul 2015	0.066 (0.030)	0.259 (0.040)
Late Summer	7-16 Aug 2015	0.284 (0.026)	0.180 (0.016)
Autumn 1	1-14 Sept 2015	0.229 (0.019)	0.115 (0.038)
Autumn 2	1-11 Oct 2015	0.656 (0.029)	0.076 (0.028)

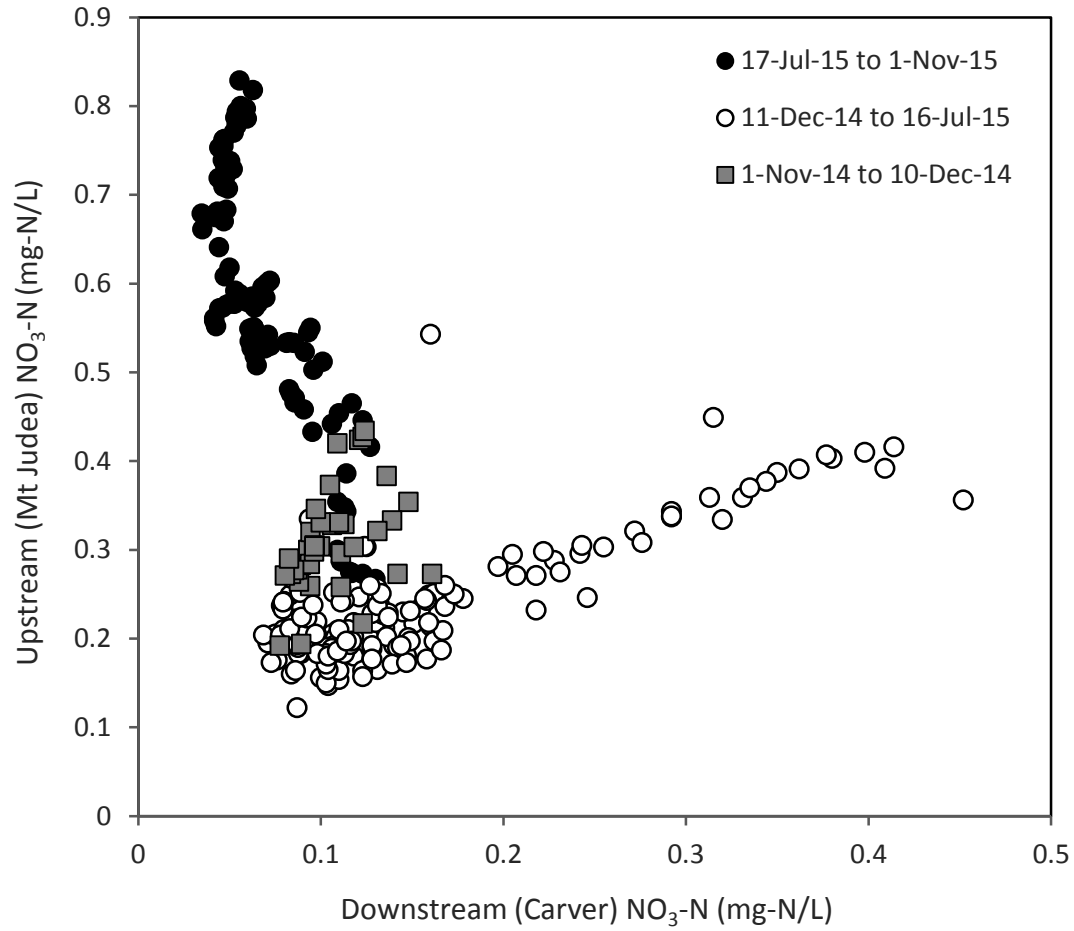
Table 2: Seasonal patterns in mean daily NO₃⁻ removal rate (U_T) along the experimental reach of Big Creek, under low-flow conditions, and mean daily assimilatory uptake of NO₃⁻ by photoautotrophs (U_A). Standard deviations are shown in parentheses.

Season	Date range	Net nitrification (+) or denitrification (-) (mg-N L ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)	<i>GPP/ER</i>	EpCO ₂ (x atm. press.)	DO (mg-O ₂ L ⁻¹)	flow (m ³ s ⁻¹)	% groundwater
Winter	4-13 Feb 2015	0.135 (0.032)	1.14 (0.09)	2.80 (0.20)	11.9 (0.49)	1.15 (0.07)	66.5 (1.34)
Spring 1	5-12 Apr 2015	0.184 (0.039)	1.06 (0.13)	3.64 (0.20)	10.2 (0.33)	3.10 (0.37)	58.6 (2.38)
Spring 2	24 Apr - 5 May 2015	0.273 (0.058)	1.25 (0.16)	3.81 (0.59)	10.3 (0.50)	2.61 (1.16)	61.7 (5.79)
Early Summer	2-10 Jun 2015	0.179 (0.044)	1.34 (0.15)	4.71 (0.49)	9.39 (0.42)	3.30 (1.72)	58.0 (6.48)
Mid Summer	11-21 Jul 2015	0.193 (0.024)	1.97 (0.78)	7.15 (0.46)	8.98 (0.29)	2.54 (1.28)	82.8 (7.21)
Late Summer	7-16 Aug 2015	-0.104 (0.032)	0.78 (0.05)	10.6 (0.83)	6.95 (0.35)	0.23 (0.04)	98.8 (0.98)
Autumn 1	1-14 Sept 2015	-0.102 (0.027)	0.62 (0.10)	9.85 (1.65)	6.50 (0.54)	0.24 (0.06)	96.6 (1.42)
Autumn 2	1-11 Oct 2015	-0.592 (0.015)	0.57 (0.23)	8.17 (1.50)	7.85 (0.64)	0.04 (0.004)	97.8 (0.64)

Table 3: Seasonal patterns in mean daily NO₃⁻ concentration gains by net nitrification and losses by net denitrification along the experimental reach of Big Creek, under low-flow conditions, with mean daily values of the ratio between gross primary production and ecosystem respiration (*GPP/ER*), excess partial pressure of carbon dioxide (EpCO₂), dissolved oxygen (DO), stream flow and the percentage of groundwater contribution to stream flow. Standard deviations are shown in parentheses.







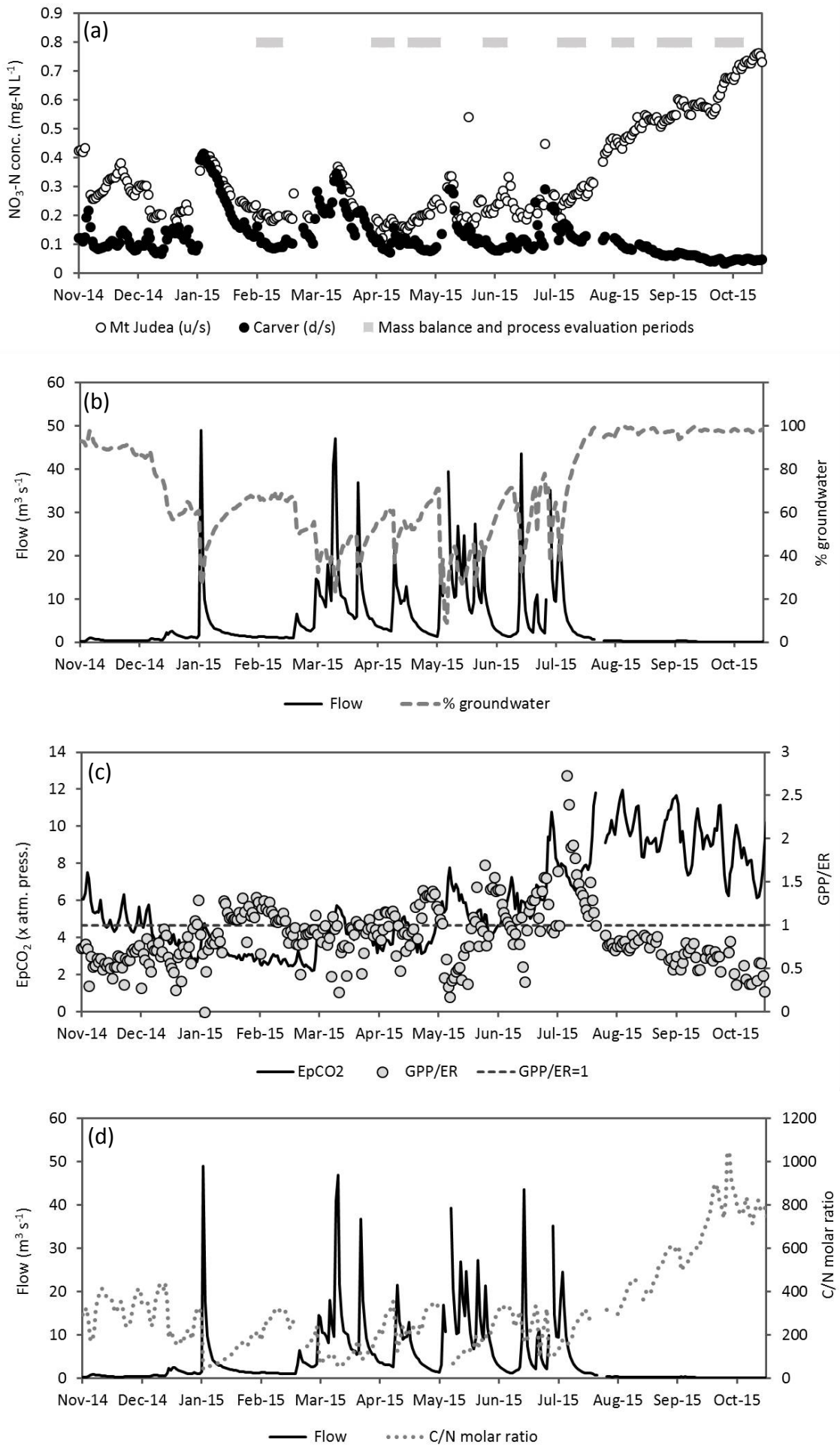


Figure 4

