





For information about using isotopes to trace sources of nitrate and organic matter, I have several web-based seminars that can be accessed from the following URLs:

> an informal presentation at the SJR DO TMDL technical working group (TWG) meeting in March 2006 about the status of our DO TMDL-related research: <u>http://www.sjrdotmdl.org/meetings013.html</u> (click on the Kendall link further down on the page).

> a USGS seminar in May 2005 about tracing causes of hypoxia at: <u>http://wwwrcamnl.wr.usgs.gov/wrdseminar/pastseminars2005.html</u> (click on the Kendall link further down on the page).

a CUAHSI seminar in April 2005 about tracing sources of organics and nutrients in watersheds at: <u>http://www.cuahsi.org/sem-</u> <u>archive.html</u> (click on the Kendall link further down on the page).

> a seminar about tracing agricultural contaminants with isotopes given at an EPA workshop on Animal Feeding Operations (AFOs) in December 2004 at: <u>http://www.epa.gov/osp/regions/afo.htm</u> (click on the Kendall link further down on the page).















Isotopic Fractionation (the changes in the isotopic compositions of materials because of processes) can make different sources more distinctive or hide differences between sources.

<u>How does this work?</u> During biological processes (e.g., assimilation, nitrification, denitrification), the lighter isotope (¹⁴N) is concentrated in the products while the heavier isotope (¹⁵N) is concentrated in the residual reactants.

Example: during the reaction $NO_3 \rightarrow N_2$, the resulting N_2 has a lower $\delta^{15}N$ than the residual NO_3 .

The magnitude of the fractionation is dependent on a variety of environmental conditions.

Biological fractionations can make it very difficult to identify sources and quantify mixing proportions.

The following slide is a cartoon showing how fractionation complicates interpretation...



Processes causing fractionation of nitrate isotopes

Common microbial processes that may be expected to fractionate oxygen isotopes in NO₃, leaving the residual NO₃ enriched in ¹⁵N and ¹⁸O, include: <u>assimilation (uptake)</u>, <u>absorption/desorption</u>, and <u>denitrification</u>. Of these three, there are limited data only on denitrification. Denitrification along a flowpath changes the δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N of residual nitrate in a distinctive manner, making the combined analysis of δ^{18} O and δ^{15} N of nitrate a powerful tool for recognizing denitrification. Nitrification also causes isotope fractionation.

There seems to be little information about possible O isotope exchange between water and nitrate. Many have speculated that NO_3 might behave somewhat like SO_4 , with slow exchange rates with water except at high temperatures and low pH values. Experiments in our lab and elsewhere show that nitrate only exchanges in really lowpH water. This needs further testing; however, the consistency of data from field areas argues against significant rapid exchange.

The next few slides will discuss what is known about processes causing fractionation....







How to distinguish mixing from denitrification?

- 1. Geochemical evidence of a reducing environment (e.g., low dissolved O₂, high H₂S, etc).
- 2. Analysis of the NO₃ for δ^{18} O as well as δ^{15} N, to see if there is a systematic increase in δ^{18} O with increase in δ^{15} N and decrease in NO₃, consistent with denitrification.
- 3. Hyperbolic vs exponential relationships between $\delta^{15}N$ and NO_3 (i.e., mixing is a hyperbolic function whereas denitrification is exponential). Hence, if mixing of two sources is responsible for the curvilinear relationship between $\delta^{15}N$ and NO_3 , plotting $\delta^{15}N$ vs $1/NO_3$ will result in a straight line. In contrast, if denitrification (or assimilation) is responsible for the relationship, plotting $\delta^{15}N$ vs In NO_3 will produce a straight line.
- 4. Analysis of dissolved N₂ (produced by the denitrification of NO₃) for δ^{15} N, to show that there are systematic increases in the δ^{15} N of N₂ with decreases in NO₃ and increases in the δ^{15} N of NO₃.
- 5. No change in Δ^{17} O during a process that has δ^{18} O and/or δ^{15} N trends characteristic of denitrification (if material has Δ^{17} O >0).



















In my opinion, the best way to quantify the extent of denitrification – and perhaps be able to quantify the mixing of sources of nitrate prior to denitrification – is to analyze the $\delta^{15}N$ of the dissolved N₂ gas in addition to analyzing nitrate and other isotopes in the water.

The idea is to determine how much of the N₂ is derived from denitrification, apply a fractionation factor, and then back-calculate the original δ^{15} N of the TOTAL original nitrate.

Gas samples are easy to collect, archive moderately well, and are not hard to analyze for $\delta^{15}N$. However, you must also have the gas analyzed for gas ratios, like N₂/Ar or N₂/Xe, to calculate how much of the N₂ is "natural" – i.e., enters during recharge.

The next slides discuss this method of quantifying denitrification....



















Often it has been found that the δ^{18} O of microbial NO₃⁻ is a few ‰ higher than expected for the equation and assumptions above.

A variety of explanations have been offered for these high $\delta^{18}O_{\text{NO3}}$ values including:

(1) nitrification in soil waters with higher than expected δ^{18} O values because of evaporation (Böhlke et al. 1997) or seasonal changes in rain δ^{18} O (Wassenaar 1995);

(2) changes in the proportion of O from H_2O and O_2 sources (i.e., > 1/3 from O_2) (Aravena et al. 1993);

(3) nitrification using $\rm O_2$ that has a high $\delta^{18}\rm O$ due to respiration (Kendall 1998);

(4) nitrification that occurs simultaneously via both heterotrophic and autotrophic pathways (Mayer et al. 2001).

At this time, it is still unresolved how each of these mechanisms affects $\delta^{18}O_{NO3}$ during nitrification reactions. Another mechanism has been proposed for lower $\delta^{18}O$ than expected: that during nitrification there is exchange between the O in nitrate and water (Casciotti et al., 2002).

Hence, nitrification of different materials (manure, waste, ammonium fertilizer) can get distinctive δ^{18} O values if the δ^{18} O of the ambient H₂O and O₂ are different. The δ^{18} O of water is affected by its source and subsequent evaporative fractionation. The δ^{18} O of O₂ gas is affected by all the O-consuming reactions in the subsurface (nitrification, respiration, etc).



What about fractionation of nitrate during assimilation by bacteria or uptake by plants? Fogel & Cifuentes (1993) present an elegant model for ammonium assimilation in aquatic algae that predicts total fractionations of -4, -14, or -27 ‰ depending on whether algae cells are nitrogen limited, enzyme limited, or diffusion limited, respectively. However, for the low pH values and low NH₄⁺ concentrations common to soils and many aguatic environments, the model predicts that availability of N is the limiting condition and the transport of ammonium across cell walls is probably rapid, resulting in a small (< -4 ‰) overall fractionation. More recently, Needoba et al. (2004) demonstrated that NO3- assimilation by marine phytoplankton imparts a large "apparent fractionation" (-13 to -6 ‰) depending on growth rate and conditions. Fractionations are higher at higher concentrations of nitrate. While there have been few studies of the effects of O fractionations during assimilation on the δ^{18} O of the residual NO₃, nitrate assimilation by marine phytoplankton seems to cause ~1:1 changes in the $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$ of nitrate, regardless of species or the magnitude of the isotope effect; hence, these

Our studies in the Mississippi Basin (Battaglin et al., 2001a&b) and San Joaquin Basin (Kratzer et al., 2004) show δ^{15} N fractionations of 4 – 8 ‰, as shown next...

fractionations can be viewed as strongly "coupled" (Granger et al. 2004).



Now some examples of successful applications of nitrate isotopes.











































Relations between δ^{18} O and δ^{17} O values:

In all terrestrial materials, there is a constant relation between the δ^{18} O and δ^{17} O values of any given substance because isotope fractionations are mass dependent.

The mass dependent fractionation results in:

$$\delta^{17}O = 0.52 (\delta^{18}O)$$

In many oxides derived from high atmospheric processes there "excess ¹⁷O" (beyond the ¹⁷O expected from the ¹⁸O value) derived from a mass independent fractionation (MIF) such that:

$$\Delta^{17}O = \delta^{17}O - 0.52 (\delta^{18}O)$$

Hence, Δ^{17} O values > 0‰ are a useful tracer of O derived from atmospheric processes.







NEXT:

A brief review of several potential applications of isotopes to tracing agricultural pollution (and solving agricultural problems) – with my opinions about whether the applications are:

> easily usable tools (i.e., "ready for prime time"), or that they still need more research;

> under what conditions do the tools work best,

> what additional isotope and chemical tracers appear to be beneficial for the application, and

➤ selected examples.

> For more information, see the list of references.



While stable isotopes have become common tools for tracing sources of waters and solutes in small watersheds, they are currently under-utilized in larger basins, especially in agricultural and urban rivers.

Why is this?

Perhaps because one of the first attempts to use natural abundance 15N to understand the causes of the increases in nitrate concentrations in surface waters in many agricultural areas (Kohl et al., 1971, <u>Science</u>) elicited a hyper-critical response by 10 prominent soil scientists and agronomists (Hauck et al., 1972, <u>Science</u>), which concluded that use of 15N was a "questionable approach."

ISOTOPE TRACERS IN CATCHMENT HYDROLOGY





A brief review of several potential applications of isotopes to tracing agricultural pollution (and solving agricultural problems) – with my opinions about whether the applications are:

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Fertilizer vs animal waste source of nitrate: nitrate-δ¹⁵N

Tool often works.

But it is more costly if the <u>soils</u> are clayey or the <u>groundwater</u> is not well-oxygenated, so that significant denitrification is suspected.

In this case, quantification can be successful if ...

the effects of denitrification can be estimated using:

> analysis of dissolved N2 for δ^{15} N (to correct for the N2 produced by denitrification),

> nitrate- $\delta^{18}O$ (this tracer usually is not as useful for this purpose as N2- $\delta^{15}N$); and

> geochemical modeling using chemical data and perhaps DIC- $\delta^{13}C$, SO4- $\delta^{34}S$, $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$, etc.

> use of all 3 methods, along with age-dating of the water using CFCs or 3 He/T, will improve quantification of source contributions.

What about use in rivers, streams, and wetlands?







Soil vs animal waste source of nitrate: nitrate-δ¹⁵N Tool often works...
But sometimes does not work because soil nitrates can be quite variable in δ¹⁵N and sometimes overlap the δ¹⁵N values of animal manure. More likely to work with pigs than other animals because pig waste from lagoons usually has a much higher nitrate-δ¹⁵N.
Quantification using <u>only</u> nitrate-δ¹⁵N can be successful if:
> the groundwater is well-oxygenated, the soils are sandy instead of clayey, so denitrification can be ruled out,
> nitrate from soil organic matter is insignificant (or its δ¹⁵N is similar to fertilizer), and
> nitrates from representative source areas (under the fields, feedlots, manure lagoons, septic fields, etc) are analyzed to insure that the nitrate-δ¹⁵N values of possible sources are a few ‰ different.

Soil vs animal waste source of nitrate: nitrate- $\delta^{15}N$		
Tool often works.		
Do you need hitrate-ô ¹⁰ O?		
No		
but it probably would help improve difference in	the quantification if there is some	
> the water- δ^{18} O of soil water	vs groundwater or lagoon water, or	
\succ in the O2- δ^{18} O in the soil zo	ne or groundwater;	
these instances are not unc	ommon).	
Therefore, obtaining nitrate- $\delta^{18}O$ is	s recommended.	













Why do different kinds of animal waste-derived nitrate have different B-Li-S-Sr-U isotopic signatures?

Mostly because of different sources of washing materials (for B, S, and maybe Sr) used for people vs AFOs (that result in differences in septic waste/WWTPs vs waste lagoons/spraying.

Perhaps also because of different food additives. Li might be useful because pharmaceutical-grade Li has very high (or sometimes very low ⁷Li) because of the nuclear processing industry.

Phosphate from fertilizer vs animal waste/septic waste vs soil organic matter: phosphate- $\delta^{18}O$:

Tool maybe ready for use (needs further study).

There have been a few recent and very promising studies of phosphate sources using various isotope tracers.

<u>**U isotopes:**</u> Uranium is a trace constituent of geologic sources of phosphate. Hence, analysis of ²³⁴U and ²³⁸U can distinguish between "natural" and "geologic" sources.

<u>Sr isotopes</u>: Strontium is a trace constituent of geologic sources of phosphate. Different sources of geologic phosphate (phosphorites vs carbonatites) appear to have different concentrations of trace metals and REEs; hence, these can be used as tracers of phosphate and/or fertilizer source.

All of these isotope tracers will provide more quantitative information if they are combined with other isotope and chemical tracers.



P has only 1 stable isotope so it cannot be used as a natural isotopic tracer. However, the O atoms bound to the P are potentially useful tracers of P sources and sinks.

Since the P-O bond in phosphate is resistant to inorganic hydrolysis, δ^{18} O of phosphate may be used as a tracer of phosphate sources and cycling under certain conditions.



















Water isotopes: Analysis of the water for δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H (these are almost perfect tracers of the water itself) can provide extremely useful information about the sources of the nitrate and other solutes in the water.

Sulfur isotopes: Analysis of sulfate for δ^{34} S and δ^{18} O, or organic matter for δ^{34} S, can provide information about fertilizer and waste sources.

Age-dating nitrate contamination of groundwater: One powerful potential application of technological advances in the agedating of young groundwater is to evaluate the impact of changes in agricultural management practices on water quality. Tracers include tritium (³H), ³H/³He, and CFCs.

Examples of environmental changes that can be assessed by this method include: changes in the amount and types of fertilizers used, different fertilizer application times, relocation of potential pollutant sources, different remediation strategies, determination of timescales for remediation, and the installation of drainage systems.







Some good advice: ALWAYS ARCHIVE SAMPLES

Many of these stable isotope tools archive very well -filtered, preserved, or frozen (depending on type). DIC and DO are the exceptions; they are good for months not years (unless you make special precautions).

So collect many more samples that you can afford to analyze, and archive them. Then used an "adaptive management practice" to decide what to analyze first.

You might also want to archive samples for possible analysis for metal and semi-metal isotopes. In general, these are filtered thru 0.2 micron and then acidified – using very pure reagents that don't contain K or anything that might contribute radiogenic materials.



Analytical methods commonly in use for nitrate isotope samples

For samples just being analyzed for $\delta^{15}N$, most labs are using an ammonium diffusion method (Holmes et al., 1998)

For samples being analyzed for both $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{18}O$, the most common method before the last few years was the Silva et al (2000) method of concentrating the sample on resin columns, eluting the nitrate with NaCI, precipitating the N as silver nitrate, followed by pyrolysis. The main drawbacks of the method are the need for large water samples and inability to use the method for saline samples.

Since the publication of Sigman et al. (2001) and Casciotti et al. (2002) many labs have started using the microbial denitrifier method; it converts nitrate to N2O. It permits analysis of samples almost 3 orders of magnitude smaller samples than the Silva method, is suitable for marine samples, and supposedly is not affected by DOM in the sample.

A new method (McIlvin and Altabet, 2005) that uses sodium azide to reduce nitrate to N2O is gaining popularity because it appears to be less complicated than the microbial method.

L	ab costs?
N e a	Nitrate isotopes are not very expensive compared with the expense of collecting the sample and interpreting the data – and they are a LOT cheaper than being wrong!
⊢ d d	How much do such isotope analyses cost? \$50-\$200, depending on method, one or both isotopes, lab, single vs duplicate analysis, and market forces.
F a	Prices are dropping rapidly (or will!) due to increased automation and new, more automated, methods.
T la b	The best bargain is to interest someone who has an isotope ab – who might add in lots of extra analyses if he/she becomes intrigued or has spare mass spec and/or tech time.
R	

Quality assurance of nitrate isotope samples

Questions to ask:

• Does the laboratory participate in inter-laboratory calibration exercises (round-robins)? Ask to see the documentation of a recent calibration.

What international standards are analyzed with commercial samples, how frequently are they analyzed, and what are the δ values of these standards?

Does the laboratory make corrections for sample size, and if so, how is this done?

Quality assurance of nitrate isotope samples

Many laboratories routinely analyze each sample only once (except for QA/QC samples). If high precision data are required, either request duplicate analysis of each sample (and triplicates if the duplicates do not agree within some predetermined range) or send in "blind" duplicates to verify the "real" precision.

Sending in 10-15% blind duplicates is advisable in any case. If any result seems questionable, immediately request a repeat. Most laboratories keep analyzed samples for a couple months before discarding them and will reanalyze modest numbers of samples at no additional cost.

Quality assurance of nitrate isotope samples

Immediately plot the data on a δ^{18} O vs. δ^{15} N diagram. Data that plot appreciably outside the compositions expected for "terrestrial" sources of nitrate (e.g., nitrification of soil N, ammonium fertilizers, waste N) and do not plot along a "denitrification" slope should be viewed with skepticism and possibly reanalyzed. Few natural processes produce waters that plot significantly outside these ranges.

Exceptions include places where much of the nitrate is derived from atmospheric sources or from the application of nitrate-rich (e.g., Chilean nitrate) fertilizers, producing waters with high δ^{18} O but normal δ^{15} N values.







Biggest problems for isotope studies:

> Different sources can have partially overlapping isotopic compositions.

> Sources can have considerable spatial and temporal variation in isotopic composition.

> Isotope fractionations can blur initially distinctive compositions.

Solution:

use a multi-isotope, multi-tracer, approach – with a lot of hydrologic and chemical data.

Val	ue of isotopes for water resources management:
	 To tell us things about water resources that we didn't know before.
	2) To tell us things about water resources that CONTRADICT what we thought we knew before
	 And therefore, to increase the likelihood that any proposed remediation plans will be effective – because the correct source was identified and quantified.

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^{*} papers not mentioned in current handouts (but should have been!)