

ASSESSMENT OF THE MAIN FACTORS AFFECTING THE DYNAMICS OF NUTRIENTS IN TWO RAINFED CEREAL WATERSHEDS

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Abstract

Nutrient dynamics and factors that control nutrient exports were observed in two watersheds, namely Latxaga and La Tejería, with similar climatic and management characteristics throughout 10 years (2007-2016).

Similar patterns were observed in intra-annual and inter-annual dynamics with higher NO_3^- concentration and NO_3^- -N yield during the humid seasons (i.e., winters and hydrological year 2013). Regarding concentration, Latxaga showed a higher decrease of nitrate due to a higher development of vegetated areas. High discharge events produced nitrate dilution due to the presence of tile-drainage at La Tejeria. At Latxaga, where tile-drainage was not observed, an increase in concentration occurred as a response to high discharge events. Comparing both watersheds, La Tejería presented ca. $73 \pm 25 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ while at Latxaga, the concentration observed was almost three times lower, with ca. $21 \pm 15 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ throughout the study period. Similar patterns were observed for the NO_3^- -N yield, with $32 \text{ kg NO}_3^- \text{-N ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ and $17 \text{ kg NO}_3^- \text{-N ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ at La Tejería and Latxaga, respectively.

27 Regarding phosphorous, the observed concentrations were $0.20 \pm 0.72 \text{ mg PO}_4^{3-} \text{ L}^{-1}$ and $0.06 \pm$
28 $0.38 \text{ mg PO}_4^{3-} \text{ L}^{-1}$ at La Tejería and Latxaga, respectively, with $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ yields being $71 \text{ kg PO}_4^{3-}\text{-}$
29 $\text{P ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ and $33 \text{ kg PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$. Annual phosphate-P yield distribution in both
30 watersheds followed similar patterns to those observed for the nitrate-N yield, with higher yields
31 in the humid season. Regarding concentration, highly erosive rainfall that occurred in summer,
32 mobilizing sediments and probably generating desorption of phosphorous in the stream channel,
33 increased phosphate concentration.

34 This research adds to the knowledge base regarding the dynamics of nutrients and the
35 controlling factors in complex agricultural systems with Mediterranean characteristics.

36 **Keywords:**

37 Water quality, Tile-Drainage, Riparian vegetation, Nitrate, Phosphate

38

39 1. INTRODUCTION

40 The intensification of agricultural activity throughout the world is, at least partially, responsible
41 for the decline of water quality and, as a consequence, of the deterioration of freshwater and
42 coastal ecosystems (Berka et al., 2001; Van Meter et al., 2016). In particular, the application
43 of fertilization doses above crop necessities and/or the intensification of livestock production
44 are usually associated with a surplus of nutrients in soils. This means an excess of available
45 nutrients that are subject to losses via runoff and/or leaching, plus the aforementioned off-site
46 effects (Durand et al., 2011; Merrington et al., 2002).

47 Nitrogen is considered the nutrient that generates one of the best crop responses, increasing
48 yields. Therefore, nitrogenous fertilization is the most employed in the world, with over
49 100 million tonnes applied each year (Delgado et al., 2016). N fertilizers are available in a
50 range of forms (straight, such as urea or ammonium, compound forms such as di-ammonium
51 phosphate, or organic fertilization with manure). Soil N is mainly lost in the form of nitrate, via
52 leaching (Billen et al., 2011; Oelmann et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2018), although other types of
53 losses can also be significant (Huang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2003). Nitrate loss is relevant both
54 from a farmer's perspective, as it entails a loss of economic resources, and due to
55 environmental reasons, worsening water quality for human supply (World Health Organization
56 2011) or contributing to eutrophication (Merrington et al., 2002; Le Moal et al., 2019). Other
57 environmental impacts have been reported, such as air pollution or greenhouse gas emissions
58 (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2011; Moldanová et al., 2011).

59 In contrast, the effects of phosphorus (P) on the environment are mostly associated with
60 eutrophication, being habitually the limiting nutrient in inland water ecosystems. An increase of
61 0.01 mg L⁻¹ has been reported as sufficient to transform oligotrophic inland waters into
62 eutrophic (Merrington et al., 2002). P exportation is controlled by soil erosion and sediment
63 exports, as a considerable proportion of P is fixed or precipitated due to prevailing soil pH
64 values (Withers and Jarvie, 2008). Although wastewater is commonly the main P-contributor

65 to inland waters, especially in developing countries, agriculture is a proven, but variable,
66 contributor of P to many affected waters (Sharpley, 1995).

67 There are multiple factors that influence nutrient export processes. Riparian vegetation located
68 near the water bodies act as filters or sinks of sediments and nutrients (Chase et al., 2016;
69 Dosskey et al., 2010; Tabacchi et al., 2000; Neilen et al., 2017). In particular, width, density,
70 and diversity of riparian vegetation have been reported to affect nutrient transport to streams
71 (Broadmeadow and Nisbet, 2004; de Souza et al., 2013). For instance, herbaceous vegetation
72 improves water infiltration and protects from runoff and erosion while woody vegetation
73 protects streambanks from mass failure, and, in the case of senescent species, its leaves
74 increase the soil roughness, reducing runoff (Dosskey et al., 2010). Besides riparian
75 vegetation, the presence of aquatic vegetation can influence the export of nutrients altering the
76 amount in the watershed outlet (Soana et al., 2019). A greater sinuosity of the stream causes
77 a higher interaction of water with the hyporheic zone of the bed (Peterson and Benning, 2013),
78 increasing the potential of denitrification and nitrogen uptake in riparian areas. Soil
79 characteristics such as cracks and tile drainage also influence nitrogen exports, reducing the
80 residence times of dissolved nutrients and decreasing denitrification (Arenas Amado et al.,
81 2017; Brady and Weil, 2008; Randall and Goss, 2008). In addition, other factors have been
82 also reported to significantly influence nutrient export, such as soil pH (Merrington et al., 2002)
83 and climatic conditions (Chen et al., 2002), for example.

84 These factors, plus other physical factors, can trigger biogeochemical processes such as
85 denitrification (Mastrocicco et al., 2019). Denitrification is the process where microbial activity
86 reduces compounds, namely nitrate, to gaseous forms found in the environment. Denitrification
87 occurs mainly when denitrifying microorganisms do not have sufficient oxygen, and therefore
88 carry out anaerobic respiration, transforming soluble nitrogen compounds into gases such as
89 nitrous oxide and nitrogen (Martens, 2004; Skiba, 2008). Assessment of these factors can
90 underpin the extension of knowledge on the different pathways of nutrients in diverse
91 watersheds.

92 Rainfed winter cereal is the most extended agricultural land use around the world, representing
93 approximately 20% of the cultivated area (FAO, 2011). For instance, in Europe and Spain, the
94 main rainfed winter crops, wheat, and barley, occupy ca. 36% and 40 % of the total arable
95 area, respectively (EUROSTAT, 2016; MAPAMA, 2018). Although this land use is considered
96 essential to the agriculture sector, the effects on water quality are widely acknowledged (e.g.,
97 Durand et al., 2011). The European Union has even promoted the Nitrates Directive to address
98 pollution from agricultural sources (91/676/EEC). Many European countries have implemented
99 networks of agricultural watersheds to investigate diffuse source pollution (e.g., Fučík et al.,
100 2017; Hooda et al., 1997; Kyllmar et al., 2006; Lagzdins et al., 2012; Lloyd et al., 2016;
101 Ockenden et al., 2016; Povilaitis et al., 2014). However, there is an apparent under-
102 representation of watersheds in Mediterranean climate conditions, which presumably present
103 remarkable differences in nutrient dynamics and exports. In fact, to the best of our knowledge,
104 only a few studies have reported nutrient dynamics for the Mediterranean climate or in locations
105 under its influence (De Girolamo et al., 2017a; Ferrant et al., 2011; Lassaletta et al., 2012).
106 The Mediterranean climate is characterized by mild, wet winters and hot, dry summers.
107 Evapotranspiration is high in summer, with crop management being a challenge, and irrigated
108 agriculture is a frequent practice. Besides, rainfed cereal fertilization in Mediterranean areas
109 occurs at approximately the same period in which most of the runoff is generated. Therefore,
110 its contribution to nutrient exports is significant.

111 In Navarre (northern Spain), the impact of agriculture on soil erosion and water quality has
112 been analysed in a network of small watersheds implemented by the former Department of
113 Agriculture, Livestock, and Food of the Government of Navarre. These studies have mainly
114 focused on the characterization of hydrological and erosion (Casalí et al., 2008, 2010), factors
115 controlling sediment exports (Giménez et al., 2012), assessment of the AnnAGNPS model for
116 runoff and sediment yield simulation (Chahor et al., 2014), and the dynamics of dissolved solids
117 and suspended sediment (Merchán et al., 2019). Specific work on nutrient dynamics was also
118 conducted at one of these watersheds (Merchán et al., 2018), although some information

119 regarding nutrient dynamics in the remaining watersheds was presented in Casalí et al. (2008,
120 2010). In a study conducted at two watersheds representing rainfed cereal land use under
121 relatively similar management conditions, surprising different behaviours were reported for
122 nutrient exports (especially nitrate). Although no detailed study was carried out, differences in
123 the watersheds' morphology, riparian and stream channel vegetation were proposed to be the
124 leading causes of the differences observed (Casalí et al., 2008).

125 This paper builds upon and extends the work of Casalí et al. (2008) by elaborating on nutrient
126 concentration and export dynamics in two relatively similar watersheds, which were expected
127 to behave similarly. However, the watersheds presented distinct behaviours, as previously
128 reported. In this study, we aim to improve the knowledge base on the nutrient dynamics in
129 rainfed agricultural watersheds under the Mediterranean climate and, mainly, on the factors
130 that could explain the differences observed between two similarly managed watersheds. The
131 specific objectives were: (a) to characterize the behaviour of both watersheds, in terms of
132 concentration and exports of nitrate and phosphate, for a range of temporal scales (in response
133 to rainfall events, seasonally, and inter-annually); (b) to estimate a long-term (10 years)
134 average nitrate-N and phosphate-P concentration and yield in each of the watersheds; and (c)
135 to gain insight on the controlling factors influencing these processes, through comparisons
136 between the watersheds and with information available in scientific literature.

137

138 **2. METHODS**

139 **2.1. Experimental watersheds**

140 This section describes the monitored watersheds selected, namely Latxaga and La Tejería,
141 within the agricultural watershed network monitored by the former Department of Agriculture,
142 Livestock, and Food of the Government of Navarre. The main characteristics of these two
143 watersheds can be observed in Table. 1.

144 **2.1.1. Latxaga experimental watershed**

145 The watershed of Latxaga, with an extension of 207 ha, is located in the east of Navarre, in
146 Spain (Fig. 1). At Latxaga, the average rainfall is 861 mm per year, with an average
147 temperature of 11.8 °C, according to data collected by the weather station located at the
148 watershed (Government of Navarre, 2019). The average altitude of the watershed is 576 m,
149 with an average slope of 17%. The predominant geology is composed of flysch and marls with
150 levels of 50 cm of thickness, alternating with sandstones 1-3 cm thick (Government of
151 Navarre, 1994). A detailed soil map was developed at La Tejería, where Paralithic Xerorthent
152 (SSS, 2014) was the prevailing soil (Government of Navarre, 2005).

153 Although the predominant land use at this watershed is rainfed cereal, approximately the 11%
154 of the area of the watershed is occupied by non-cultivated plots with natural grassland
155 vegetation and emerging forests (Fig. 2A). The riparian vegetation of Latxaga is considered
156 dense and developed for a Navarrese agro-system. The presence of woody species around
157 all the streambanks is usual. The most common tree species are *Salix alba*, *Populus nigra*,
158 and *Fraxinus angustifolia* (Government of Navarre, 2005), occupying a continuum in the
159 streambanks and generating a canopy in the channel. Multiple herbaceous and shrubs species
160 appeared around the channel, where *Buxus sempervirens*, *Rosa Sp.*, *Rubus ulmifolius*, and
161 *Cornus Sanguinea* predominate (Government of Navarre, 2005). The width of the riparian
162 vegetation at Latxaga varied between 2 and 5 meters, being wider at the lower part of the
163 watershed. Due to the seasonality of the stream channel, no aquatic vegetation was found at

164 this watershed. Channel sinuosity (i.e., ratio between channel length and a straight line) was
165 1.13 m m⁻¹.

166 The fertilization rate of the arable land at Latxaga was ca. 170 kg N ha⁻¹, as reported by the
167 agricultural extension services (Government of Navarre, 2018). Fertilization was divided into
168 two stages: the first application occurred at the beginning of tillering, generally in January, with
169 an application of 60 kg N ha⁻¹ from urea fertilizer, and the second application occurred
170 approximately in March (Casalí et al., 2008) with an application of 110 kg N ha⁻¹ from urea
171 fertilizer. Phosphorous was applied in the sowing stage (November) with di-ammonium
172 phosphate, with a biennial or triennial periodicity (Casalí et al., 2008).

173 The productivity of the watershed, considering the production of the region to be representative
174 of the study area, was 5,000 kg ha⁻¹ for common wheat and 4,700 kg ha⁻¹ for barley, considering
175 the period 2000-2016 (Government of Navarre, 2018). The average N surplus was
176 41.9 kg N ha⁻¹, computed through the balance of fertilization applied and the nitrogen fraction
177 of the production of each year, based on data provided by the Government of Navarre.

178 **2.1.2. La Tejería experimental watershed**

179 The experimental watershed of La Tejería covers an area of 169 ha and is located in the central
180 Western part of the Navarre region in Spain (Fig. 1). At this watershed, the average rainfall is
181 755 mm per year, with an average temperature of 12.3 °C (Government of Navarre, 2019). The
182 average altitude at La Tejería is 577 m, with an average slope of 15.5%. The predominant
183 geology of the area includes yellow silts and clays with occasional alternation of sandstones of
184 the Middle Miocene, and silt, gravels, sands in valleys, and colluvial material in hillslopes
185 (Government of Navarre, 1994). As well as for Latxaga, a detailed soil map was developed at
186 La Tejería, where Vertic Haploxerept (SSS, 2014) was the prevailing soil at the watershed
187 (Government of Navarre, 2005).

188 The predominant land use in this watershed was rainfed cereal, with a surface of 93%. There
189 is also a reduced area (2.3%) of the watershed with non-cultivated areas (Figure 2.B). In

190 contrast with Latxaga, the riparian vegetation at La Tejería is poorly developed. The banks of
191 the stream are not densely vegetated. Most of the agricultural plots developed in detriment of
192 riparian vegetation, with only a few trees of *Salix alba* and *Populus nigra*, and some herbaceous
193 vegetation constituted of prickly plants, where the most predominant genus is *Rubus*
194 (Government of Navarre, 2005). The width of the riparian vegetation was always under two
195 meters and inexistent in more than half of the watershed's stream. Unlike Latxaga, tile drainage
196 was observed in this watershed, with an estimated density of ca. 25 m ha⁻¹ (field observations).
197 Channel sinuosity was lower than that observed in Latxaga, with a sinuosity value of 1.04 m
198 m⁻¹.

199 According to agricultural extension services, the fertilization rate of the arable land at La Tejería
200 was 190 kg N ha⁻¹ (Government of Navarre, 2018), divided into the same two stages described
201 previously for Latxaga, with 67 kg N ha⁻¹ in January, and 123 kg N ha⁻¹ in March (urea fertilizer).
202 Phosphorous was applied in the sowing stage, with di-ammonium phosphate, of biennial or
203 triennial periodicity (Casalí et al., 2008).

204 The productivity of La Tejería, considering the production of the study area as being
205 representative of the region, was 4,500 kg ha⁻¹ for common wheat and 4,100 kg ha⁻¹ for barley,
206 considering the period 2000-2016 (Government of Navarre, 2018). The average N surplus was
207 46.7 kg N ha⁻¹, based on data provided by the Government of Navarre.

208 **2.2. Data Collection**

209 The former Department of Agriculture, Livestock, and Food of the Government of Navarre
210 monitored the two watersheds to measure the agricultural impacts on water quality, with the
211 following equipment:

212 An automatic meteorological station, which recorded meteorological data every 10 minutes.
213 The parameters registered by this station are air temperature, rainfall, relative air moisture,
214 wind speed, wind direction, soil temperature, and solar radiation.

215 A hydrological station installed at the watershed outlet, where water level was recorded at 10–
216 minute intervals. The water discharge measurement was obtained through V-notch weir
217 devices (Fig. 3A). Water level measurements were used for the calculation of runoff, which
218 was monitored with a pressure probe and a data logger.

219 Water quality was monitored by collecting samples at the outlet of the watershed. Samples
220 were collected every six hours, four times a day, and mixed to generate a single composite
221 sample per day, to avoid possible concentration fluctuations that could have occurred during
222 the day. The four daily samples were collected from a hemispheric hollow located just after the
223 V-notch weir, as shown in Fig. 3A. The daily samples collected throughout the day were stored
224 in a sampler located inside the building next to the weir (Fig. 3B, 3C). This sampler stored each
225 of the daily samples, and was automated to collect samples throughout 20 days. After this
226 period, the samples were taken to the laboratory.

227 Water samples were analysed following the analytic methods for water quality parameters
228 established by the Agricultural Laboratory of the Department of Agriculture and Food of the
229 Government of Navarre. The major dissolved compounds were analysed, including nitrate
230 (NO_3^-), phosphate (PO_4^{3-}), and chloride (Cl^-), among others not used herein. The analytic
231 methods employed were ion chromatography for NO_3^- and Cl^- (HPLC; Thermo Fischer
232 Scientific Dionex DX-120, Bremen, Germany) and spectrophotometry (ammonium molybdate)
233 for PO_4^{3-} . In all cases, the detection limit of dissolved compounds was 0.05 mg L^{-1} .

234 **2.3. Data treatment**

235 The study period covered the hydrological years (October to September) 2007-2016,
236 constituting the most complete record in the database. Meteorological and runoff data were
237 processed hourly, daily, and monthly so that different time trends could be analysed.

238 Daily NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} concentration values of the database were revised to detect possible
239 errors related to issues with the water sampler. With the aim of understanding the NO_3^-
240 dynamics, the $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratio was computed so that different effects produced by events in each

241 watershed could be observed (i.e., concentration increase/dissolution). Cl^- is considered a
242 stable constituent that does not participate in any redox reaction, not used by biological
243 species, and does not participate in the cycles of the most common soil elements, such as
244 nitrogen and phosphorous (Clark and Fritz, 1997).

245 A local regression method was used to establish a relationship between time and
246 concentrations and detect seasonal patterns. The regression method selected was the locally
247 estimated scatterplot smoothing (LOESS). The LOESS line was obtained with the R statistical
248 software, and the selected span was 0.33, which was the best fit for the available data.

249 Daily concentration and discharge data (aggregated to daily values) were used to estimate
250 loads of nitrate-nitrogen (NO_3^- -N) and phosphate-phosphorous (PO_4^{3-} -P). The load estimation
251 methods employed were numeric integration, regression, and ratio estimator, proposed by the
252 USEPA and described in Meals et al. (2013): a) the numeric integration method is based on
253 the integration of the daily load. In days with an absence of data, the monthly median
254 concentration of the sampled period was employed; b) the regression method fits a rating curve
255 to the observed data, which is used to estimate the load for the selected study period. Daily
256 loads were estimated based on the relationship between observed loads and discharge, time,
257 and season. The LOADEST software developed by the United States Geological Survey was
258 utilized (Runkel et al., 2004); c) the ratio estimator method assumes that the flow weighted
259 concentration in the period with available data is representative of the complete study period.
260 To correct any bias, the ratio between complete flow and sampled flow was used. The use of
261 different methods to obtain load estimations enables the detection of any uncertainties
262 generated in this calculation.

263 Finally, the load result was transformed into a specific load or yield, dividing the load by the
264 watershed surface. Afterward, the yield was aggregated into monthly, annual, and for the entire
265 study period.

266 **3. RESULTS**

267 **3.1. Rainfall and runoff distribution**

268 Annual rainfall average and standard deviation were 793 ± 227 mm at La Tejería and
269 947 ± 301 mm at Latxaga. The driest and wettest years were 2012 and 2013, respectively, with
270 531 mm and 511 mm for La Tejería and Latxaga in 2012, and 1,324 mm and 1,665 mm at La
271 Tejería and Latxaga in 2013, respectively (Fig. 4A). The humid season lasted from November
272 to March in both watersheds, with ca. 100 mm per month at La Tejería and 120 mm per month
273 at Latxaga (Fig. 4B).

274 Regarding runoff, the annual average and standard deviation at La Tejería was 222 ± 126 mm,
275 while at Latxaga it was 249 ± 129 mm. The percentage of rainfall converted into runoff was
276 very similar for both watersheds (31% at La Tejería and 33% at Latxaga). The runoff registered
277 in the hydrological year 2012 was the lowest, with 4 mm at La Tejería and 38 mm at Latxaga.
278 In contrast, the following year (2013) was the year with the highest runoffs, with 415 mm at La
279 Tejería and 513 mm at Latxaga (Fig. 4A). Seasonally, runoff is dependent on rainfall and similar
280 for both watersheds (Fig. 4B). An increase in runoff generally started in November-December,
281 and decreased in May-June-July. Usually, rainfall events in the first part of the hydrological
282 year (October-December) did not generate significant runoff (Fig. 4B). In general, hydrograph
283 recessions presented higher slopes (i.e., were faster) at La Tejería than at Latxaga. The events
284 that occurred during or after summer generated less discharge at both watersheds than those
285 events occurred in spring. The aridity of soil was higher after summer, contrasting with spring,
286 which coincided with the most humid season of the year.

287 **3.2. Nutrient concentration trends at both watersheds.**

288 Considering the entire study period, the nitrate concentration (NO_3^-) measured at La Tejería
289 was nearly four times higher than at Latxaga. Median NO_3^- at La Tejería was $72 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{ L}^{-1}$,
290 which exceeded the $50 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ threshold (e.g., Nitrates Directive). Indeed, 85% of the
291 collected samples were over this value. At Latxaga, median NO_3^- was $21 \text{ mg NO}_3^- \text{ L}^{-1}$.

292 Conversely to La Tejería, only 3% of the collected samples at Latxaga were over 50 mg NO₃⁻
293 L⁻¹ (Table 2).

294 Differences in NO₃⁻ between hydrological years were observed at both watersheds. At La
295 Tejería, the highest median was observed in 2007 (87.4 mg NO₃⁻ L⁻¹) and the lowest in 2013
296 (47.1 mg NO₃⁻ L⁻¹). The minimum concentration coincided with the most humid year (Fig. 4A).
297 Oppositely, at Latxaga this pattern was not present, with a maximum median concentration in
298 2015 (26.0 mg NO₃⁻ L⁻¹) and a minimum in 2012 (11.4 mg NO₃⁻ L⁻¹), which was the driest year
299 of the study period. In contrast with La Tejería, the average and median concentrations in the
300 humid year at Latxaga (2013) increased considerably compared with the previous year, which
301 coincides with the driest year and also with the minimum median of NO₃⁻. This demonstrated
302 the different behaviours of the watersheds (Fig. 4A).

303 The seasonal distribution within each year was similar for both watersheds. The high NO₃⁻
304 period for both watersheds occurred mainly in late autumn and winter months, whereas lower
305 NO₃⁻ was registered after the harvest, during the summer and the early autumn (Fig. 4B).
306 September and October presented the lowest NO₃⁻ values. Regarding the NO₃⁻ trend
307 throughout the year, for both watersheds, the increase in concentration started with the first
308 rainfall events, reaching its maximum peak in December-January and then decreasing during
309 the spring until the summer. After late March, the concentration at Latxaga decreased,
310 approaching 0 mg L⁻¹ in the late summer (Fig. 5).

311 Although the general patterns observed in the seasonal cycle were similar in terms of NO₃⁻,
312 some behaviour differed. Whereas Latxaga presented a relatively stable line (Fig. 6), at La
313 Tejería this line presented more ups and downs (see the two local maxima in Fig. 6) probably
314 as a consequence of higher inter- and intra-annual variability in concentration.

315 Remarkably, the response to specific flow events was different for each watershed (Fig. 7). At
316 La Tejería, a rainfall event caused an increase in the watershed discharge and a decrease in
317 concentration, generating a dilution effect in the stream. Also, from late march and after the

318 harvest, the concentration of NO_3^- remained stable or decreased slightly over time until the
319 sowing period. Conversely, at Latxaga the NO_3^- concentration increased considerably with a
320 rainfall event, along with runoff. Although the response in terms of NO_3^- concentration was
321 different, the $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratio demonstrated an important increase in specific flow events at both
322 watersheds (Fig. 7).

323 Finally, at both watersheds the median phosphate concentration (PO_4^{3-}) was below the
324 detection limit ($<0.05 \text{ mg PO}_4^{3-} \text{ L}^{-1}$) (Table 2). Only 15.4% and 27.2% of the samples were
325 above that threshold at Latxaga and La Tejería, respectively. PO_4^{3-} differed across years, with
326 yearly median values above the detection limit only for a few years (Fig. 8). No clear seasonal
327 patterns were detected for PO_4^{3-} . However, an increment of concentration from spring until the
328 end of summer was observed at La Tejería (Fig. 9).

329 **3.3. Nutrient yields at both watersheds**

330 The estimations obtained by different methods were consistent and showed approximately
331 twice as much NO_3^- -N yield at La Tejería ($31.8 \pm 16.0 \text{ kg NO}_3^-$ -N $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) than at Latxaga
332 ($17.0 \pm 8.6 \text{ kg NO}_3^-$ -N $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) (Table 3). Regarding the NO_3^- -N yield, a similar pattern was
333 observed at both watersheds, where the NO_3^- -N yield was generally controlled by the runoff of
334 each watershed. The highest NO_3^- -N yields were observed in the years with the highest runoffs,
335 and vice versa. The year with the lowest NO_3^- -N exportation at both watersheds was 2012
336 (1.1 and $0.6 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ at Latxaga and La Tejería, respectively). The highest NO_3^- -N yield
337 at Latxaga occurred in 2015, and at La Tejería in 2016 (29.8 and $51.8 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$, Fig. 10A).

338 Seasonal distribution of the NO_3^- -N yield was similar at both watersheds, with the winter period
339 (January, February, and March) presenting the higher exports, and summer and early autumn
340 presenting the lower exports. February presented the higher exports at both watersheds, with
341 8.6 and $4.4 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$ at La Tejería and Latxaga, respectively. At both watersheds, around
342 51% was exported in winter (January-March) (Fig. 10B), whereas only 0.6% and 1.3% of the
343 annual yield was exported in summer (July-September).

344 Regarding phosphate, La Tejería exported twice as much $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ ($71 \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$, Table 3)
345 than Latxaga ($33 \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$). As shown for $\text{NO}_3^- \text{-N}$, differences in $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ yield across years
346 followed a pattern similar to that of runoff. Throughout the study period, the year with the lowest
347 $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ yield was 2012, with $8 \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ at Latxaga and $10 \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ at La Tejería. In
348 contrast, the year with the highest $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ yield was 2013, with 63 and $267 \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ at
349 Latxaga and La Tejería, respectively (Fig. 11A). The seasonal distribution of the $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$ yield
350 was also similar for both watersheds: winter presented the highest exports (40%) and summer
351 presented the lowest (2%). At La Tejería, January was the month with higher exports
352 ($22 \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ month}^{-1}$) while the month with the highest exports at Latxaga was February (7 g ha^{-1}
353 month^{-1}) (Fig. 11B).

354

355 **4. DISCUSSION**

356 **4.1. Hydrology patterns at both watersheds**

357 At Latxaga and La Tejería, low rainfall in the summer as well as higher evapotranspiration
358 requirements led to a lower soil moisture content in these months. Despite the existence of
359 significant rainfall events, these did not generate considerable increases in runoff. At both
360 watersheds, the increase of discharge started in autumn with the humid season. The role of
361 antecedent soil moisture conditions in runoff generation is widely acknowledged. (e.g., Feki et
362 al., 2018; Montaldo et al., 2007; Teegavarapu and Chinatalapudi, 2018; Wang et al., 2018).
363 Higher soil moisture content implies, among other effects, a more significant response of a
364 watershed to an event, generating increased runoff. This has been also reported by previous
365 works carried out at these watersheds (Casalí et al., 2008; Giménez et al., 2012).

366 In contrast with the seasonal pattern of the runoff observed in Navarre and in other
367 Mediterranean watersheds (Kalogeropoulos and Chalkias, 2013; Tuset et al., 2016), in
368 northern Europe runoff was relatively homogeneous throughout the year (Lagzdins et al., 2012;
369 Lloyd et al., 2016; Ockenden et al., 2016). In these regions, there was no significant difference
370 between the dry period and the wet period as in the Mediterranean watersheds. This fact has
371 enormous implications in the seasonal pattern of nutrient exports, as will be discussed in the
372 following sections.

373 Hydrograph recessions were faster at La Tejería than at Latxaga, which could be related to the
374 presence of tile drainage in the former (Gramlich et al., 2018). Tile drainage generates an
375 increase in hydraulic conductivity while reducing the water storage capacity of the soil (Blann
376 et al., 2009), leading to a faster recession to baseflow in the hydrographs.

377 **4.2. NO₃⁻ dynamics in response to storm events**

378 Events with high runoffs produced different responses at both watersheds. At Latxaga, high-
379 flow events generally indicated higher NO₃⁻ during the event, whereas at La Tejería these
380 events meant lower NO₃⁻. These responses suggest a difference in the predominant pathways,

381 with an apparent *piston effect* (mobilization of NO_3^- enriched water previously stored in soils)
382 acting at Latxaga, and a dilution effect occurring at La Tejería, which is consistent with the
383 probable effects of tile-drainage (Keller et al., 2008). Despite the apparent dilution, the
384 increasing $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{Cl}^-$ ratio indicates that new NO_3^- is being mobilized by high-flow events at both
385 watersheds. In other words, net mobilization of new NO_3^- is occurring at La Tejería despite the
386 significant decrease in concentration. The presence of tile drainage avoids a higher residence
387 time of water and limits soil denitrification, not increasing the NO_3^- concentration of the
388 subsurface water and generating this apparent dilution. However, these events enable the
389 mobilization of NO_3^- from areas where it is not generally supplied, therefore producing this new
390 supply of NO_3^- .

391 Despite these observations, the response to high-flow events did not influence the long-term
392 behaviour of NO_3^- at the watersheds. There was a contradictory behaviour, in which the
393 watershed experiencing a decrease in NO_3^- concentration (La Tejería) presented higher
394 concentrations and yield throughout the study period. Again, tile drainage at La Tejería could
395 have been a critical factor in explaining this behaviour. The increase in the concentration and
396 export of nutrients due to the presence of tile drainage has been reported by several authors
397 (David et al., 2010; Gramlich et al., 2018; Li et al., 2010; McIsaac and Hu, 2004). This dilution
398 occurs as a consequence of lower residence times, bypass of riparian areas, etc. Besides, in
399 particular cases, dilution could also enhance the hydrological response (higher peak flows,
400 Gramlich et al., 2019), potentially diluting the NO_3^- . That is in fact what we observe at La
401 Tejería, higher concentrations and yields. In contrast, at Latxaga, with the negligible presence
402 of tile drainage, NO_3^- was lower throughout the entire study period, due to a longer residence
403 time of nitrate, which produces higher denitrification. However, NO_3^- increased in high flow
404 periods due to the absence of the dilution effect caused by lower connectivity between soil and
405 stream.

406

407

408 **4.3. Seasonal NO₃⁻ dynamics**

409 Both watersheds followed a similar seasonal pattern, with winter maxima in concentration and
410 loads. NO₃⁻ concentration started to increase in November following the basal application of
411 fertilizers. Side-dressing application throughout winter and spring maintained NO₃⁻ relatively
412 high, with a decline in March-May. Later on, after the harvest of winter cereal, minima
413 concentrations and loads were observed. It is interesting to note the different behaviour across
414 watersheds, with Latxaga reaching negligible NO₃⁻ values probably as a consequence of its
415 wider, more diverse, and denser riparian vegetation (Section 2.1.). Riparian vegetation is
416 considered one of the main factors limiting nutrient exports from watersheds
417 (Dosskey et al., 2010; Tabacchi et al., 2000). In contrast, La Tejería presented nearly no
418 riparian vegetation (farm plots reach the edge of the stream) and, as a consequence, higher
419 NO₃⁻ values remained until the stream dried. The NO₃⁻/Cl⁻ ratio provides an additional line of
420 evidence to distinguish between dilution and evapoconcentration effects and NO₃⁻ sources or
421 sinks. At the end of the crop cycle, the NO₃⁻/ Cl⁻ ratio at La Tejería remained relatively stable,
422 with only a minor decrease, which suggests that no significant NO₃⁻ sinks were at work. At
423 Latxaga, in contrast, the NO₃⁻/ Cl⁻ ratio decreased down to nearly zero values, clearly indicating
424 a NO₃⁻ sink.

425 The seasonal distribution of NO₃⁻-N yield was heavily conditioned by runoff, with the minor
426 influence of concentration values. Approximately 51 % of the annual yield was generated
427 between January and March, at both watersheds. This observation significantly differs from
428 those obtained under different climatic conditions. For instance, at watersheds located in
429 northern Europe, the yield was usually evenly distributed throughout the year, with no specific
430 season accounting for most of the yield (e.g., Iltal et al., 2014). Many authors have manifested
431 the preponderance of discharge over concentration in NO₃⁻-N export processes (e.g.,
432 Darwiche-Criado et al., 2015; Fučík et al., 2015; Sorando et al., 2018).

433

434 **4.4. Interannual NO₃⁻ dynamics**

435 According to the NO₃⁻-N yields, a high runoff generally increases the nutrient yields
436 (Fučík et al., 2017). In the case of Latxaga and La Tejería, years with higher runoffs produced
437 higher NO₃⁻-N yields. Runoff and NO₃⁻-N yields followed similar patterns. Differences in NO₃⁻-
438 N yields could be explained by several factors such as antecedent soil moisture, tile drainage,
439 and possible different fertilization practices in different watershed areas. The increase of the
440 2013 NO₃⁻-N yield in comparison with 2012 was considerable. The leaching of NO₃⁻-N
441 produced in 2013 probably was generated not only by fertilization excess in 2013 but also by
442 nitrogen surplus in 2012, when productivity was probably limited (very dry year), leading to a
443 higher nitrogen surplus in this particular year. In addition, denitrification during 2012 was
444 probably limited due to the low soil moisture and prevailing aerobic conditions in the soils
445 (Skiba, 2008; Martens, 2005).

446

447 **4.5. PO₄³⁻ concentration dynamics**

448 Although dissolved P is considered the form with less contribution to P losses (Wu et al., 2012;
449 Yaşar Korkanç and Dorum, 2019), it is the form measured at the watersheds assessed herein.
450 The median PO₄³⁻ concentration at both watersheds was lower than the threshold detection
451 limit. Such a low concentration occurred due to the low solubility of the phosphorous form
452 present in soils with high pH (Brady and Weil, 2008; Merrington et al., 2002). Regarding
453 seasonal distribution, an increase of concentration, above the detection limit, was appreciated
454 in the spring and summer (April-August) at the La Tejería watershed. This high concentration
455 appeared when the runoff was lower. The more energetic storm events are concentrated in
456 these periods in Mediterranean catchments (Giménez et al., 2012). Storm events generate an
457 energy-intensive runoff, mobilizing a substantial amount of sediments. Generally, an increase
458 of flow during a storm event supposes an increment of sediments and, as a consequence, of
459 particulate-P transport, as this is the main P-form in soils with high pH (Drewry et al., 2009).

460 An increase of sediments and particulate-P would facilitate desorption of phosphorous in the
461 stream channel, producing an increase of PO_4^{3-} concentration (Sharpley et al., 1995).
462 Conversely, at Latxaga these patterns were not observed, which could be associated with a
463 more intense presence of riparian vegetation. It was verified that PO_4^{3-} and NO_3^- behave
464 somewhat independently. While PO_4^{3-} concentration tends to increase in high flow events, as
465 aforementioned, the behaviour of NO_3^- presented high variability across watersheds. NO_3^- is
466 highly soluble while PO_4^{3-} was related to sediment concentration.

467 **4.6. PO_4^{3-} -P yield**

468 Both watersheds presented similar PO_4^{3-} -P yield patterns. Although the dynamics of PO_4^{3-} -P
469 are influenced not only by the soluble form of P but also by particulate-P, the runoff is
470 considered a crucial factor in the PO_4^{3-} -P yield (Sharpley, 1995) producing an increment of
471 water discharge and increase of PO_4^{3-} -P yield (Fučík et al., 2017). Consequently, months with
472 higher runoff also presented high PO_4^{3-} -P yield, differing from those with higher concentration,
473 as aforementioned. Similarly, PO_4^{3-} -P yields are higher in years with higher runoff. However, it
474 must be mentioned that the total P yield could be higher than the PO_4^{3-} -P yield reported herein.
475 The phosphorous form considered herein only involved dissolved PO_4^{3-} , which can be 45-90%
476 of total P (Merrington et al., 2002). In contrast with what has been described for concentrations,
477 NO_3^- -N and PO_4^{3-} -P yield behaviours followed relatively similar patterns, as their exports were
478 controlled by the available water flow.

479 **4.7. Nutrient export controlling factors**

480 This section enumerates the main factors that could be present at the studied watersheds (Fig.
481 12), focusing on understanding the differences in nutrient concentrations and yields, according
482 to our observations and the available scientific literature on the topic. Although other factors
483 could be important to other case studies, those included herein were considered to be relevant
484 for La Tejería and Latxaga. It must be highlighted that it is not attempted to infer the controlling

485 factors in agricultural watersheds from the two watersheds studied herein, but rather the other
486 way around, using the available literature to underpin our knowledge of the processes at work.

487 Soil characteristics and their effects on nutrient dynamics have been assessed previously
488 (Lehmann and Schroth, 2003; Pärn et al., 2018). Empiric studies and simulation models have
489 suggested that differences in organic matter quantity and quality led to differences in organic
490 pools and carbon and nitrogen mineralization. The influence of texture is not sufficiently clear,
491 although it is known that clay soils retain more organic matter than sandy ones when the same
492 organic inputs are applied (Matus and Mairie, 2000). Denitrification regarding soil
493 characteristics and texture has been also widely studied (Cambardella et al., 1999; Mastrocicco
494 et al., 2019, 2011). Although some studies evidence a strong influence of texture on
495 denitrification processes, with higher rates observed in soils with high content of clay and lower
496 rates in soils with a high content of sand (D'Haene et al., 2003), other studies reported no
497 significant differences regarding texture (Hofstra et al., 2005). Besides, a high preferential flow
498 suggests higher nutrient transports to the subsoil (Brady and Weil, 2008) and lower residence
499 time of nitrates in the soil, which could hinder denitrification processes. Despite the diversities
500 between watersheds regarding soil organic matter content, depth, and texture, the differences
501 were not sufficient to draw conclusions. Subtle differences in preferential flow (vertic conditions
502 through the soil profile in ca. 40% of La Tejería's surface), however, could have contributed to
503 nitrate leaching.

504 Every agrosystem encompasses a share of land that is not cultivated (i.e., unproductive areas).
505 In general, these areas present limitations for cultivation – e.g., excessive slope or shallow
506 soils. Casal et al. (2019) verified that non-cultivated areas retained an important fraction of
507 nitrogen, leading to a decrease in the active fertilized area and consequently reducing nitrogen
508 exports at a French catchment. Herein the share of unproductive areas at Latxaga (10.6 %)
509 was almost five times higher than at La Tejería (2.3 %), and was, in general, closer to the
510 stream. These unproductive areas did not receive any fertilization and could act as sinks of the

511 nutrients originating from the upper parts of each watershed, affecting the total yield of
512 nutrients.

513 Even if the riparian vegetation occupies a reduced area of the total watershed, its location near
514 the water bodies enables it to act as a filter and/or sink of sediments and nutrients (Chase et
515 al., 2016; Dosskey et al., 2010; Janssen et al., 2018; Neilen et al., 2017; Tabacchi et al., 2000).
516 The width, density, and diversity of riparian vegetation have been reported to affect nutrient
517 transports to streams (Broadmeadow and Nisbet, 2004; de Souza et al., 2013). For instance,
518 herbaceous vegetation improves water infiltration and protects from runoff and erosion while
519 woody vegetation protects streambanks from mass failure, and, in the case of senescent
520 species, the leaves increase the soil roughness, reducing the runoff (Dosskey et al., 2010).
521 Moreover, the content of biomass is the primary indicator of nutrient uptake (Dosskey
522 et al., 2010). As exposed in Section 2.1., there are essential differences in the riparian
523 vegetation of the two watersheds: at Latxaga there is wider, denser, higher, and more diverse
524 and developed riparian vegetation near the stream. At La Tejería, croplands reach the edge of
525 the channel in many cases, with negligible riparian vegetation. According to scientific literature,
526 when other conditions are similar, lower nutrient exports would be expected at Latxaga rather
527 than at La Tejería.

528 The stream sinuosity index (ratio between the real length of a stream and the shortest straight
529 line) is a parameter related to riparian vegetation, and its value at Latxaga was 1.13 m m^{-1}
530 while La Tejería presented 1.04 m m^{-1} . Higher sinuosity causes a higher interaction of the water
531 with the hyporheic zone of the bed (Peterson and Benning, 2013), increasing the potential of
532 denitrification and nitrogen uptake in riparian areas. Although differences in sinuosity values
533 could seem trivial, Lassaletta (2007) reported changes in average sinuosity, from 1.14 to 1.07
534 after land consolidation works, which could have induced changes in riparian vegetation and
535 nutrient exports. Thus, the differences verified at Latxaga and La Tejería could be sufficient to
536 produce higher interaction of water with the hyporheic zone and, as a consequence, decrease
537 NO_3^- in stream water.

538 Although the natural characteristics of each watershed play essential roles regarding NO_3^-
539 dynamics, management practices are also relevant. The impact of N fertilization on NO_3^- -N
540 exports depends on different factors such as N fertilization rate, time and type of application,
541 type of fertilizer, soil condition before the application, and crop phenology and characteristics.
542 A linear relationship has been established between N application rates and the total nitrate
543 leaching from soils - meaning that, under similar circumstances, an increase in N fertilizer rates
544 produces an increase in mean leaching losses of NO_3^- -N (Liang et al., 2011; Muschietti-Piana
545 et al., 2017). Consequently, it is imperative to control N fertilization rates, as N surplus (the N
546 supplied in excess to the crop necessities) is considered the primary driver of N losses in
547 croplands (Thorburn and Wilkinson, 2013). According to the recommended fertilization rates
548 and average productivities, the N surplus at La Tejería ($46.7 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) was 11 % higher
549 than at Latxaga ($41.9 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$). Interestingly, a higher surplus was estimated for La
550 Tejería (which received a lower amount of N) due to the higher productivities obtained at
551 Latxaga. The nitrate yield from watersheds depends mainly on N surplus. Although this
552 relationship is not linear, it requires a threshold value below which N yield is negligible (Fenn
553 et al., 2006; Ventura et al., 2008). At La Tejería, the N surplus 11 % higher supposed a NO_3^- -N
554 yield 87 % higher. Besides, this threshold over which significant amounts of NO_3^- are leached
555 depends on the available N retention capacity of the watershed. By comparing N yields and
556 surplus N in the Navarrese watersheds, these thresholds can be estimated as approximately
557 15 and $25 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ for La Tejería and Latxaga, respectively, which are consistent with
558 the differences previously discussed in riparian vegetation and other factors.

559 The presence of tile drainage at one of the watersheds is a relevant management practice that
560 influences N exports (Arenas Amado et al., 2017). Tile drainage is typically employed in
561 productive agricultural areas where natural drainage is poor (Randall and Goss, 2008;
562 Gramlich et al., 2018). Several studies have remarked that tile drainage causes a considerable
563 increase in the NO_3^- -N yield (Gentry et al., 1998; McIsaac and Hu, 2004; Woodley et al., 2018).
564 Tile drainage acts as a bypass and decreases residence time and thus the interaction with

565 soils and riparian vegetation, limiting in this way denitrification and nutrient uptake (McIsaac
566 and Hu, 2004). For instance, in two wide regions in which the main differences were related to
567 the intensity of drainage, McIsaac and Hu (2004) reported a N yield almost four times higher
568 at an extensively drained area (21 m ha^{-1}) than at a relatively undrained area (0.7 m ha^{-1}). Tile
569 drainage was present at La Tejería, and its density was estimated as approximately 25 m ha^{-1}
570 ¹. At Latxaga, no tile drains were observed nor reported by farmers. Given the importance of
571 tile drainage in N exports, its presence/absence could be sufficient to explain the differences
572 verified in the NO_3^- -N yield values of Latxaga and La Tejería.

573 Finally, explicitly focusing on PO_4^{3-} exports, several studies reported that sediments and
574 phosphorous dynamics share an important connection (Drewry et al., 2009; Kotti et al., 2000;
575 Odhiambo, 2018; Shore et al., 2016). A fraction of particulate-P can be desorbed from
576 sediments when the latter is mobilized under high-flow conditions and transformed into a
577 bioavailable form, generally PO_4^{3-} (Sharpley et al., 1995). Previous works carried out at the
578 Navarrese watersheds reported that the median suspended sediment concentration was
579 approximately five times higher and sediment yield was three times higher at La Tejería than
580 at Latxaga (Merchán et al., 2019). This was mainly explained by the different characteristics in
581 morphology and topography of each watershed (Casalí et al., 2008). Thus, the observed
582 differences in PO_4^{3-} -P exports could be justified by these differences in sediment dynamics.

583 So far, the feasible influence of these controlling factors, according to our observations and
584 available literature on the topic, has been examined separately, i.e., without considering
585 possible interactions. The quantification of the effect of each factor and any possible synergies
586 or counter effects deserve additional analyses such as statistical assessments and process
587 modelling, which are outside the scope of the present study.

588 **4.8. Comparison with other studies**

589 The observations made at the Navarrese watersheds, regarding NO_3^- -N yields, were in
590 agreement with those reported for arable watersheds all across Europe. In the United Kingdom,

591 three catchments comparable to the Navarrese ones exported ca. 7-19 kg NO₃⁻-N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹,
592 with an average nitrate concentration of ca. 6.5-35 mg NO₃⁻ L⁻¹(Lloyd et al., 2016). In
593 agricultural watersheds of the Baltic countries, Deelstra et al. (2014) reported nitrate yields of
594 ca. 5-47 kg NO₃⁻-N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. Other studies have confirmed the range of NO₃⁻-N yield values:
595 in Latvia (Lagzdins et al., 2012), Sweden (Kyllmar et al., 2014), Estonia (Iital et al., 2014) and
596 Lithuania (Povilaitis et al., 2014) . In Central Europe, a range of 10-50 kg NO₃⁻-N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹
597 was reported at different areas of a small catchment in the Czech Republic (Fučík et al., 2017).
598 Regarding agricultural catchments in the Mediterranean region, the highest export of NO₃⁻-N
599 occurred in the December-March period (De Girolamo et al., 2017b). To the best of the authors'
600 knowledge, there is scarce data regarding NO₃⁻-N exports at small scale watersheds in
601 Mediterranean regions. Larger watersheds in the Iberian Peninsula export 5-21.5 kg NO₃⁻-N
602 ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, according to Romero et al. (2016). The results obtained for the Navarrese
603 watersheds were of the same order of magnitude than those reported above.

604 Concerning water quality, the most critical P form is considered to be PO₄³⁻ due to its biological
605 availability. However, phosphate usually does not represent an essential fraction of the total
606 phosphorus load. Consequently, the PO₄³⁻-P yield estimated at the Navarrese watersheds is
607 only a fraction of the total P yield. Indeed, studies developed in northern Europe reported P
608 loads that were two and three orders of magnitude higher than those observed at La Tejeria
609 and Latxaga (Kyllmar et al., 2006; Pengerud et al., 2015).

610

611 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

612 Two experimental watersheds with similar climatic characteristics and management practices,
613 and cultivated with rainfed cereals, have been assessed throughout ten years. Differences
614 regarding water quality, mainly nitrate and phosphate concentrations and exports, have been
615 observed.

616 Differences in nutrient concentration and yield obtained at these watersheds have
617 demonstrated the relevance of the intrinsic characteristics of each watershed. Vegetation, tile
618 drainage, and stream channel sinuosity were crucial factors affecting nutrient exports at the
619 studied watersheds. Besides, riparian vegetation was considered to be a buffering factor in
620 nutrient concentration, smoothing the nutrient concentration peak in specific periods.

621 An increase of vegetative elements in specific locations, better drainage management, and
622 sufficient width of the riparian forest (which enables the stream to develop a specific sinuosity)
623 would not only improve the water quality of streams in agricultural watersheds but would also
624 produce more significant carbon sequestration, improvement in soil structure and soil fauna,
625 decrease in erosion, and increase in the presence of aquatic organisms. These facts,
626 combined with correct management choices, would contribute to the progress towards
627 sustainable agriculture.

628 Although long-term water quality monitoring implemented in these watersheds and the suitable
629 traceability of management practices within the watershed - which includes the influence of tile
630 drainage, the evolution of riparian vegetation, development of non-cultivated areas, and land
631 use - will help quantify the effect of each factor on the exports of nutrient pollution, a thorough
632 analysis of the obtained data would be necessary. In this context, a non-linear time series
633 analysis would be particularly suitable. These nature analyses would permit to obtain a causal
634 interaction network among nutrient export controlling factors, thereby enabling the
635 quantification of retention/export of nutrients by herein described controlling factors in the
636 watershed. The knowledge of the interactions of factors would permit a better understanding

637 of nutrient transport. In addition, the observations made in these watersheds, the in-depth
638 analysis of controlling factors for nutrient export carried out in this study, and the time series
639 analysis that is expected to be carried out, will allow an adequate evaluation of agricultural
640 watershed management tools to assess consequences in different scenarios regarding land
641 use and management.

642

643

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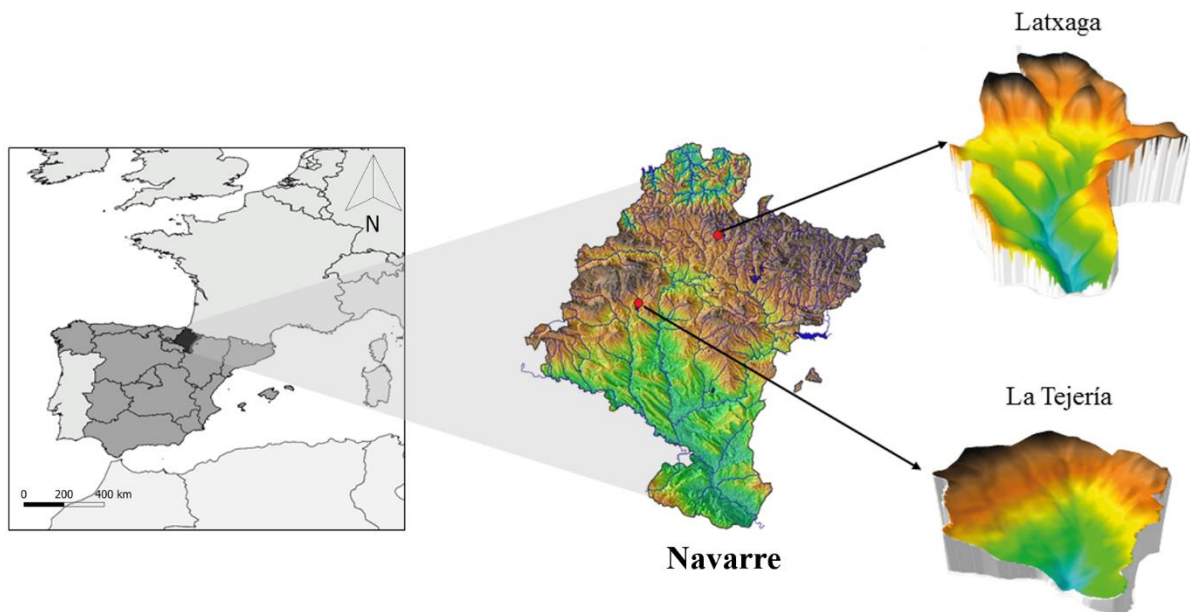
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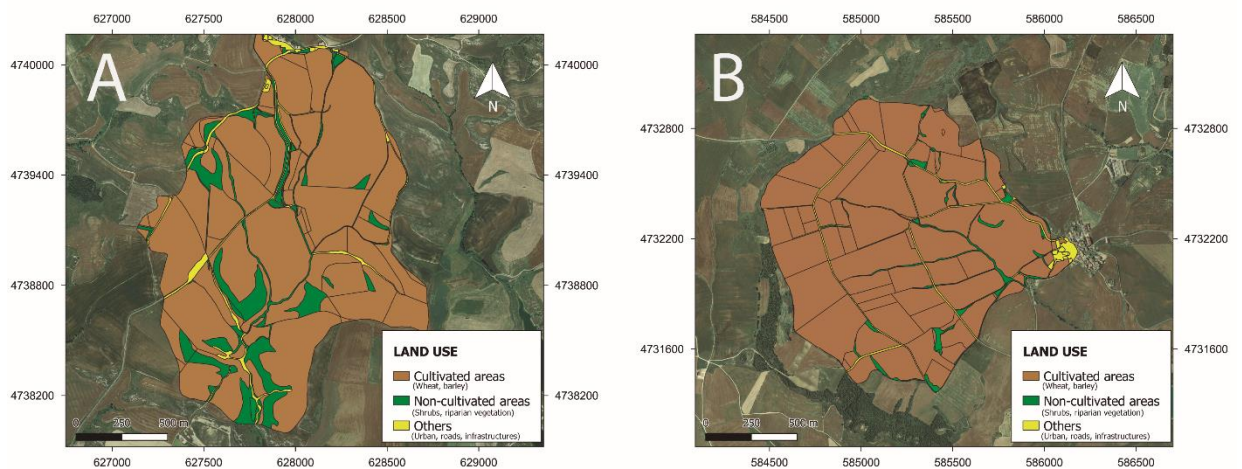


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1003 **Figure 1.** Location of the Latxaga and La Tejería watersheds, two experimental agricultural watersheds
 1004 of the Government of Navarre. (Source: IDENA, 2010)

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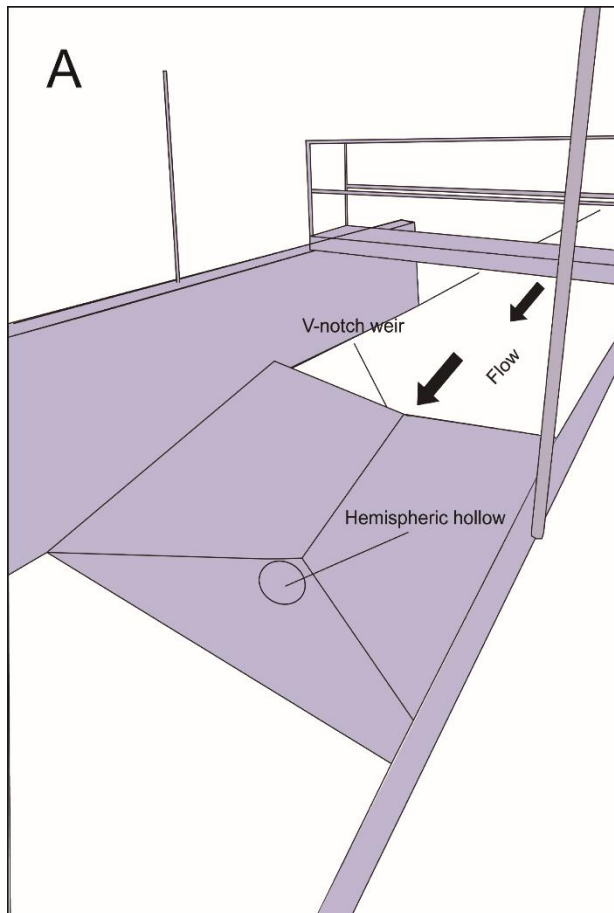
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1008 **Figure 2.** Land use distribution at (A) Latxaga and (B) La Tejería. (Source: IDENA, 2017)

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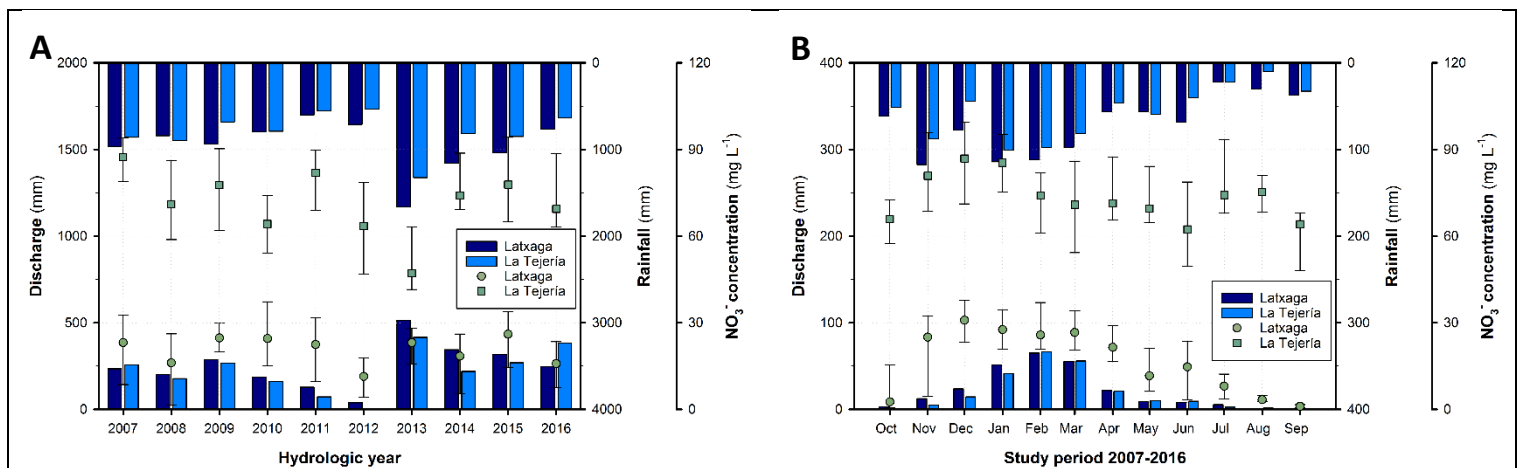


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1011 **Figure 3.** (A) Hydrological station at the watershed outlet and hemispheric hollow, and (B, C) the
 1012 automatic sampler.

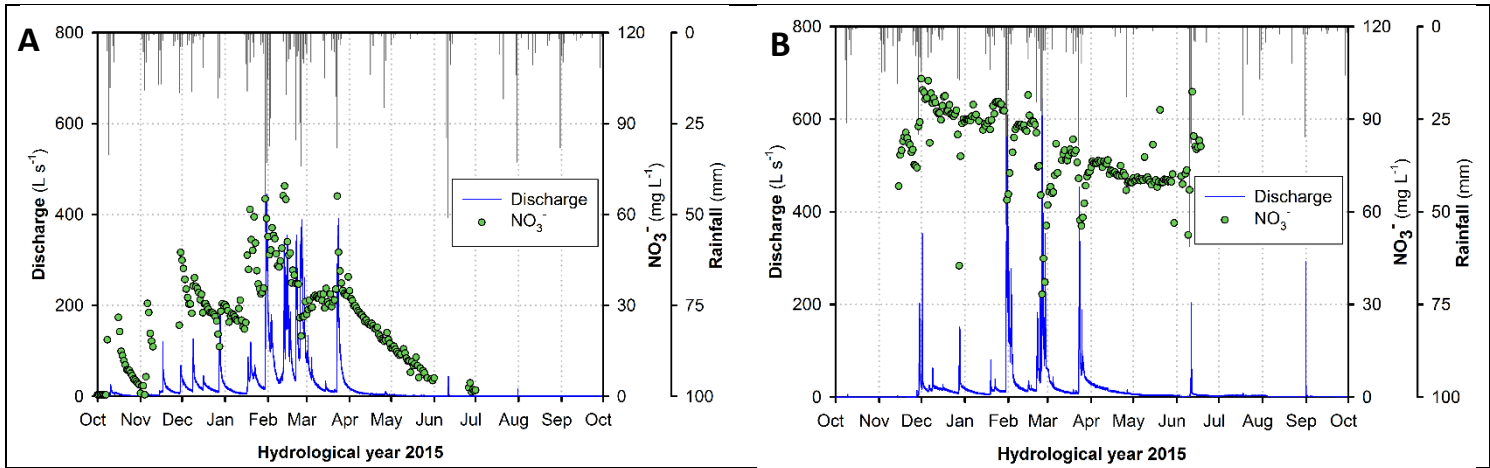
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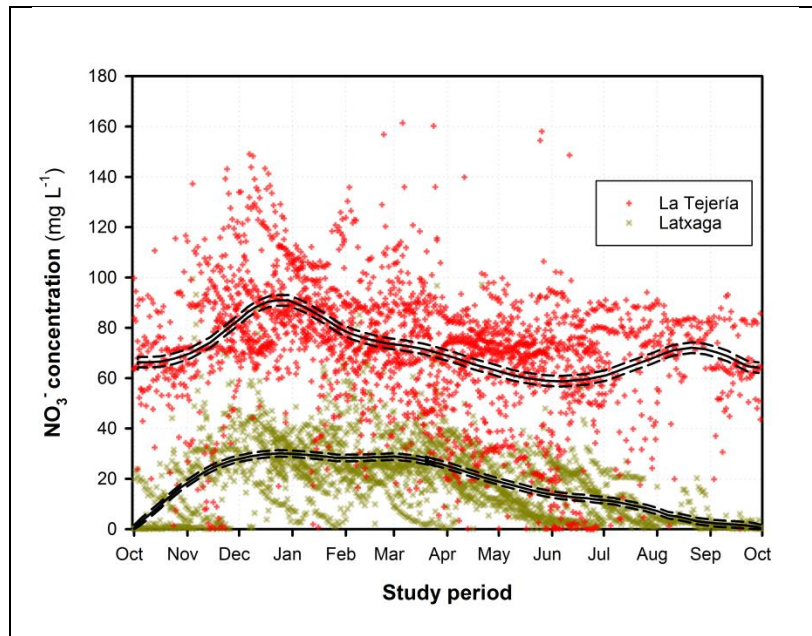
1015 **Figure 4.** Annual (A) and monthly (B) distribution of rainfall, runoff, and median nitrate concentration
 1016 with 25th and 75th percentiles at Latxaga and La Tejería.¶

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1018 **Figure 5.** Rainfall, discharge, and nitrate concentration distribution in a typical hydrological year (2015)
 1019 at Latxaga (A) and La Tejería (B)

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1021 **Figure 6.** LOESS smoothing method nitrate results for the Latxaga and La Tejería watersheds

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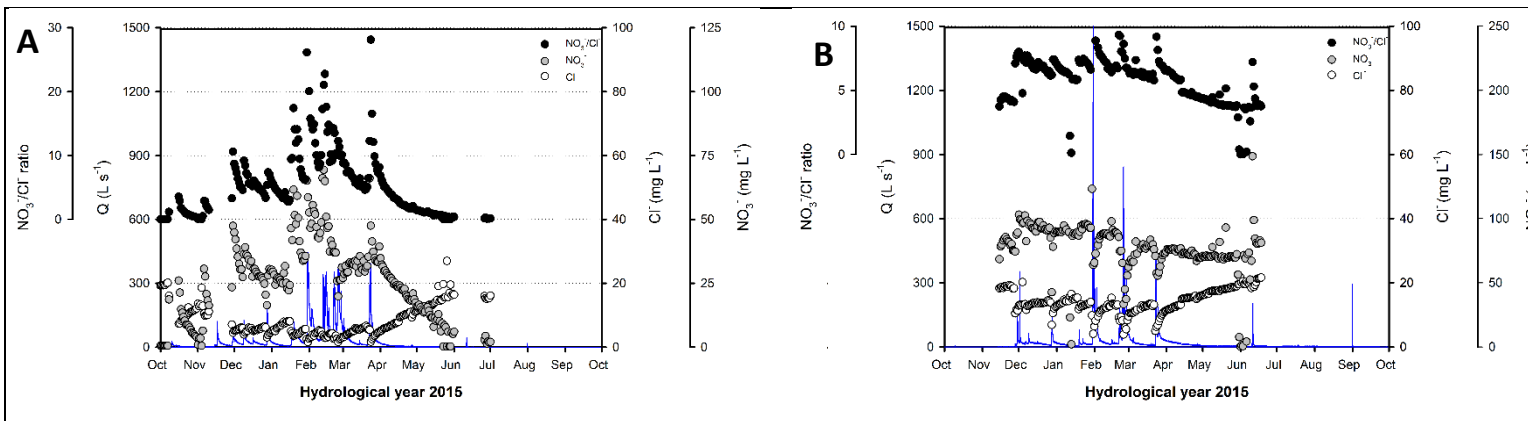
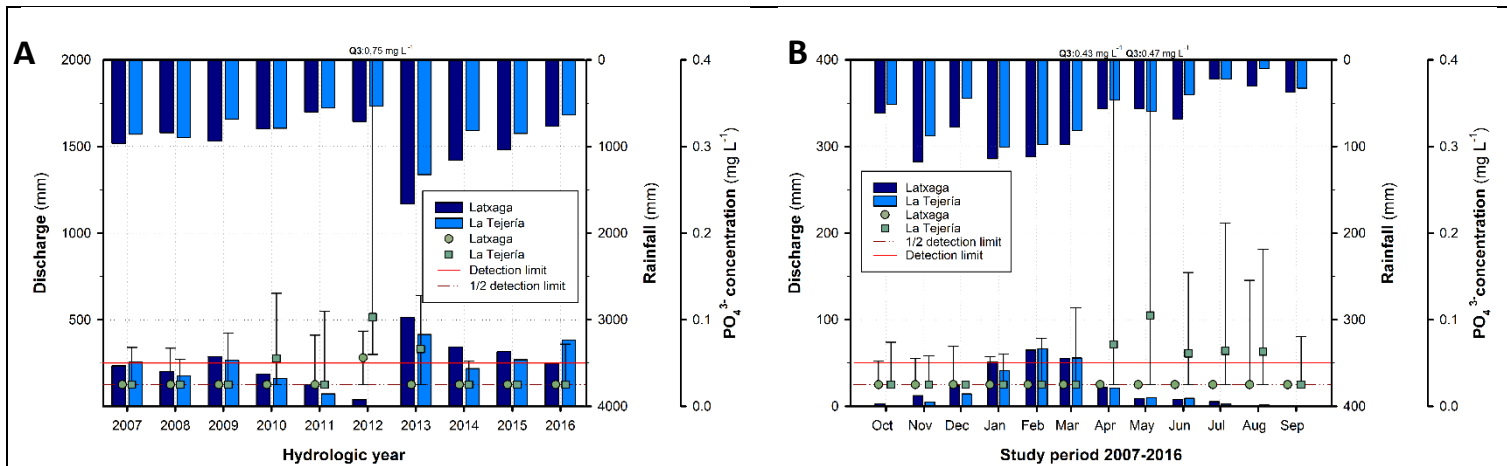
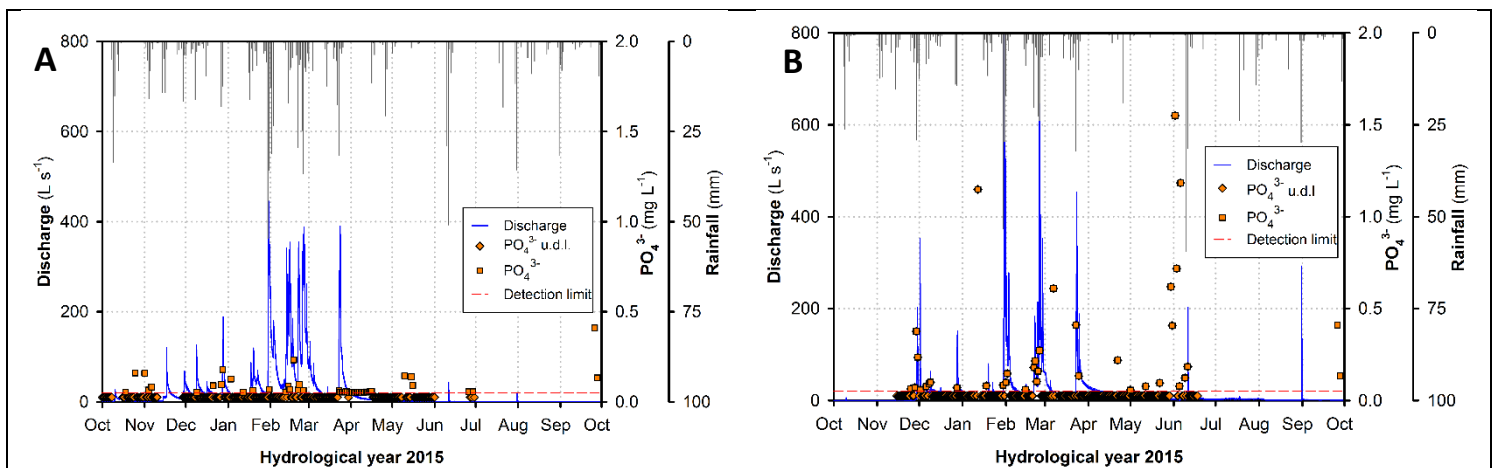


Figure 7. Nitrate concentration, chloride concentration, and nitrate/chloride ratio at the Latxaga (A) and La Tejería (B) watersheds.



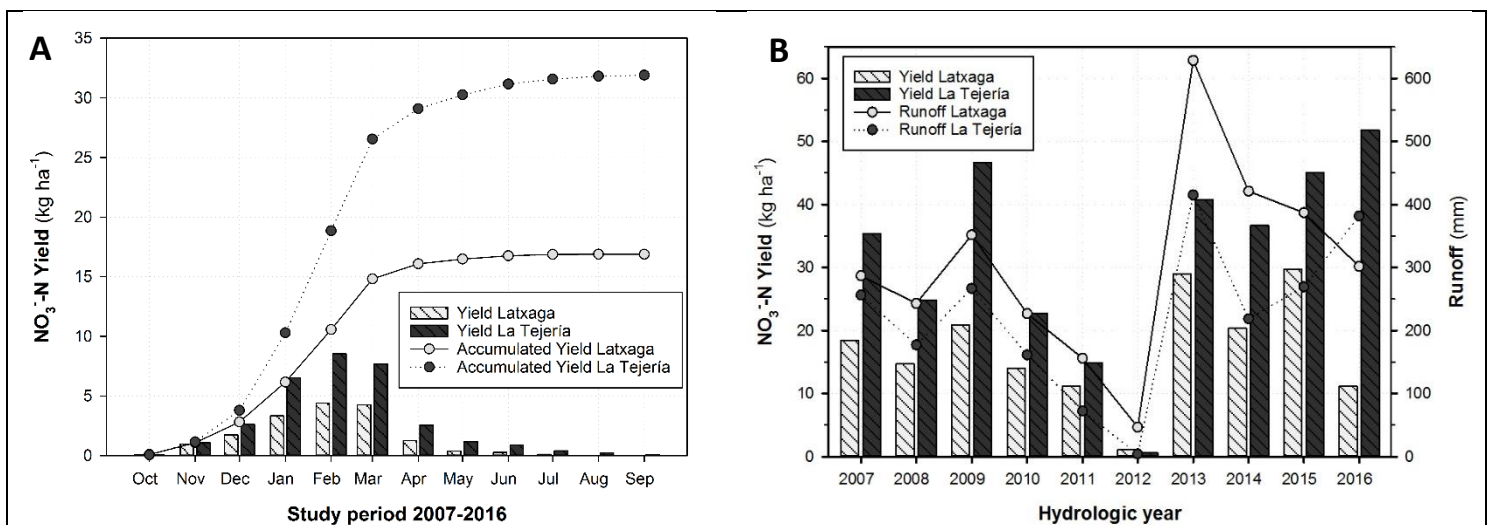
1024 **Figure 8.** Annual (A) and monthly (B) distribution of rainfall, discharge, and median phosphate
 1025 concentration with 25th and 75th percentiles at Latxaga and La Tejería.

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1027 **Figure 9.** Rainfall, discharge, and phosphate concentration distribution in a typical hydrological year
 1028 (2015) at Latxaga (A) and La Tejería (B)

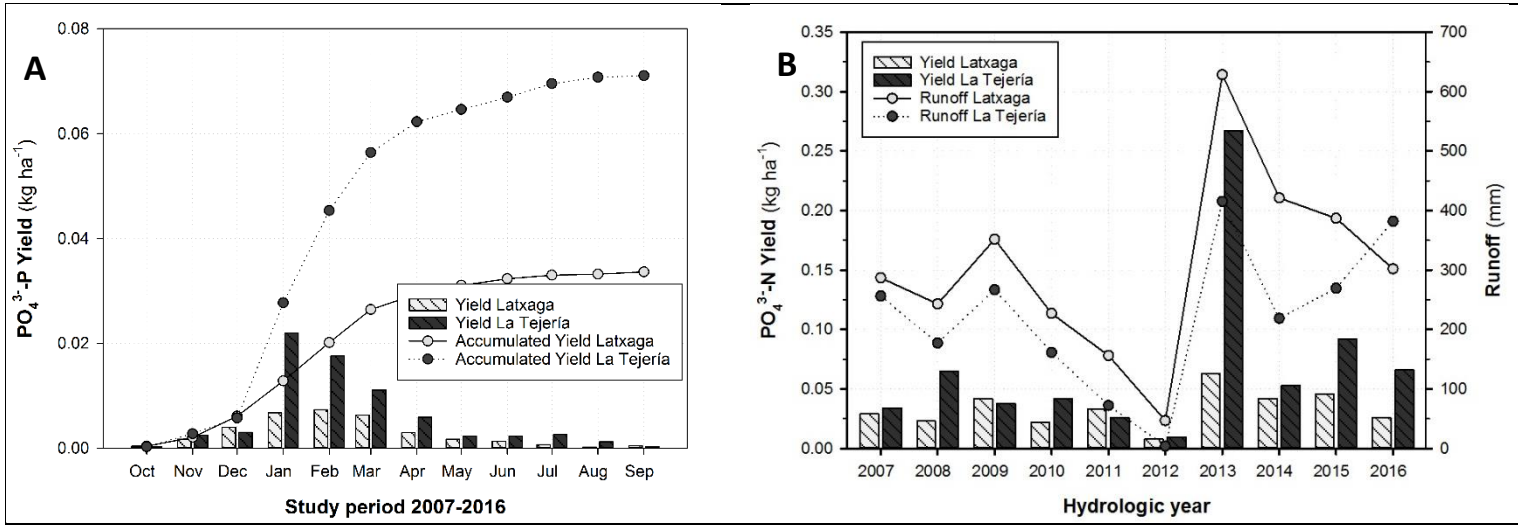
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1030 **Figure 10.** Monthly and monthly accumulated nitrate- N yield (A) and annual nitrate-N yield and runoff
 1031 (B) at the Latxaga and La Tejería watersheds.

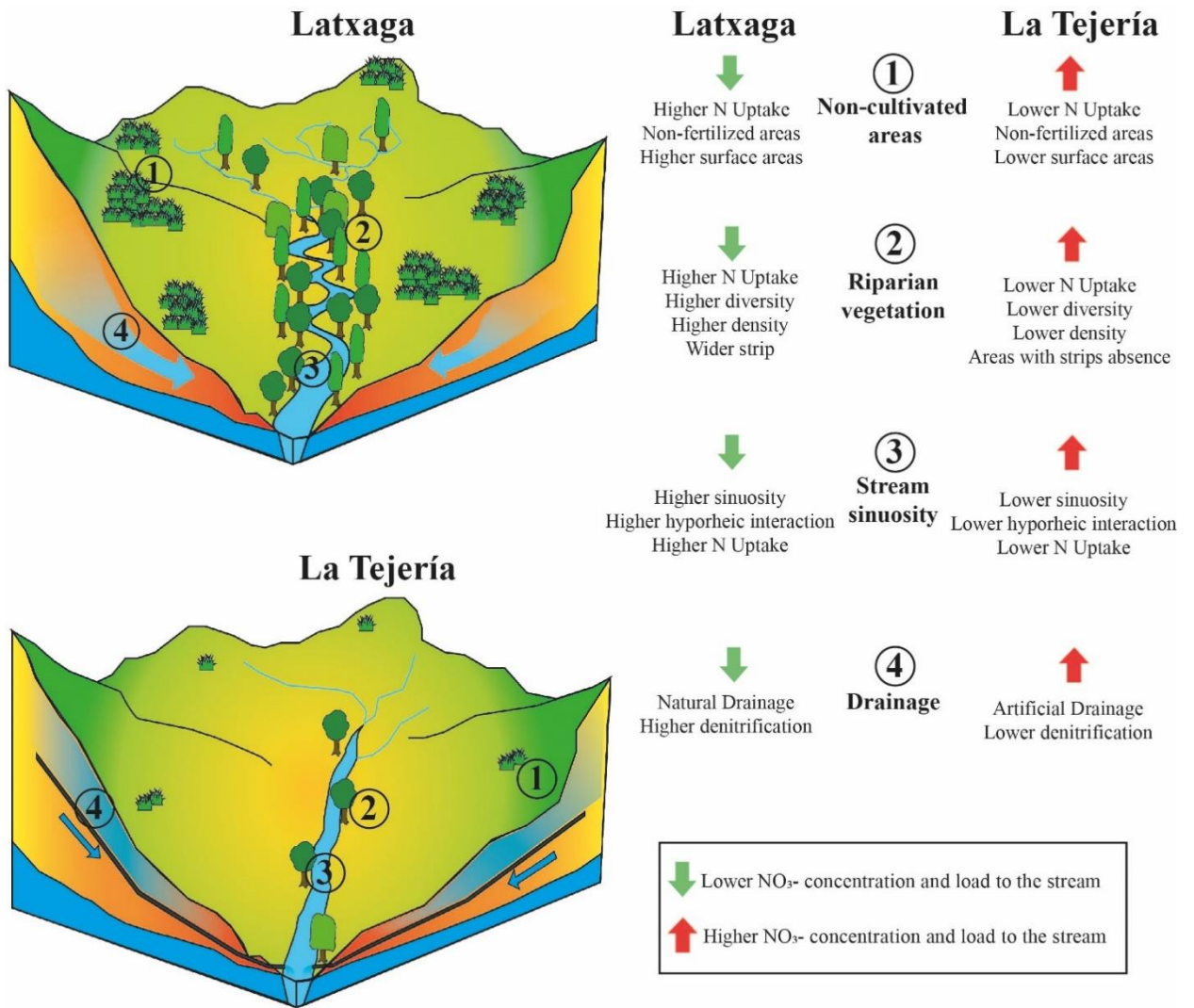
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1034 **Figure 11.** Monthly and monthly accumulated phosphate-P yield (A), and annual phosphate-P yield and
1035 runoff (B) at the Latxaga and La Tejería watersheds.

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Figure 12. Schematics of the main controlling factors of nitrate dynamics

1040 **Table 1.** Main characteristics of the Latxaga and La Tejería watersheds.

	Latxaga	La Tejería
Area (ha)	207	169
Average Temperature (°C)	11.8	12.3
Average Precipitation (mm)	850	750
Average Slope (%)	17	15.5
Land Use (ha)		
Cultivated area (Wheat, barley)	178 (85%)	157 (93%)
Non-cultivated vegetated area (Shrubs, riparian vegetation)	21 (11%)	4 (2%)
Others (Roads, infrastructures)	8 (4%)	8 (5%)
Fertilization (kg ha⁻¹)	190	170
Productivity (Mg ha⁻¹)	4,9	4,3
Stream sinuosity index (m m⁻¹)	1.13	1.04
Tile drainage density (m ha⁻¹)	0	25

1041

1042 **Table 2.** Parametric and non-parametric statistics of nitrate and phosphate concentration at the Latxaga
1043 and La Tejería watersheds in the 2007-2016 period.

Conc. (mg L ⁻¹)	NO ₃ ⁻		PO ₄ ³⁻	
	Latxaga	La Tejería	Latxaga	La Tejería
p10	2.09	37.34	0.025	0.025
p25	8.07	62.02	0.025	0.025
p50	20.99	73.49	0.025	0.025
p75	29.76	86.08	0.025	0.089
p90	38.79	98.11	0.083	0.365
Average	20.78	71.81	0.060	0.201
S.D.	14.84	24.62	0.376	0.723

1044 Conc.: Concentration

1045 S.D.: Standard deviation.

1046

1047

1048 **Table 3.** Yield estimations of nitrate-N and phosphate-P at Latxaga and La Tejería, with the methods
1049 described in Meals et al., 2013

Yield estimations (kg ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹)	Nitrate-N		Phosphate-P	
	Latxaga	La Tejería	Latxaga	La Tejería
Ratio estimator*	17.04	31.81	0.033	0.071
Regression**	20.11	37.84	0.033	0.068
Numeric integration	16.61	32.19	0.032	0.066

1050 *The ratio estimator method employed was the Beale Ratio (Meals et al., 2013).

1051 **The LOADEST software, developed by the US Geological Survey, was utilized for the Regression
1052 (Runkel et al., 2004).