Nutrient concentrations and nitrogen speciation in tropical

2	watersheds of central Panama
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25 Abstract

We present chemical analyses from rivers and streams in five partly to near-fully forested 26 watersheds in the humid tropics of central Panama. Contrary to the situation observed for 27 temperate watersheds in the Northern Hemisphere, the concentration of dissolved inorganic 28 nitrogen in the Panamanian watersheds is low (mostly <2.6 µmol L⁻¹), whereas concentrations of 29 organic nitrogen are several times higher, mostly >10 μ mol L⁻¹. We provide evidence that almost 30 all NH₄⁺ and much of the NO₃⁻ from precipitation are being converted to DON as nitrogen is cycled 31 32 from the rainforest ecosystem to watershed rivers and streams, and that nitrogen loss from these 33 pristine watersheds occurs mainly via dissolved organic N compounds. Based on this information 34 we conclude that these Panamanian forests are not nitrogen saturated and are sinks for inorganic N. These Panamanian streams have lower DIN concentrations and higher DON concentrations 35 36 than comparable montane forested streams in the Caribbean and Central America. Dissolved 37 soluble phosphate concentrations are also very low (<1 µmol L⁻¹). The TDN, DON and SRP yields are 4.45, 4.28 and 0.26 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, respectively. These are similar to those calculated for Costa 38 39 Rican tropical rain forest streams, with the Panama sites having lower TDN and SRP yields but higher DON yields. The central Panama TDN yield estimate is within the range determined in 40 other tropical undisturbed watersheds $(0.57 - 9.40 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1})$, with the DON yield for Panama at 41 42 the higher end of the range for tropical watersheds.

43 Introduction

Human activities have more than doubled the rate of nitrogen entering the land-based N
 cycle from natural biological N₂ fixation, and this rate is continuing to climb [1-3]. This supply of
 excess nitrogen is stimulating algal and microbial production in aquatic ecosystems, as well as

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accelerating losses of biological diversity [4,5], contributing to the long-term decline in coastal 47 marine fisheries [6], increasing global concentrations of the potent greenhouse gas nitrous oxide 48 [7], increasing acidification of soils and waters [8-10], and reducing long-term soil fertility 49 [1,9,11]. Such drastic consequences have generated increased interest in the understanding of 50 processes that control the terrestrial N cycle, in particular the export of N from watersheds to inland 51 52 lakes and coastal waters, and the chemical speciation of this exported N. In addition, despite the increased nutrient inputs from human activities, most N added to watersheds does not reach coastal 53 systems, and only about 20% of N inputs are exported by rivers to the ocean [12,13]. 54 55 Denitrification, the microbial reduction of NO₃⁻, has been suggested to account for most of the N loss in the northeastern USA [13] and northern Europe [14]. Streams from these regions, however, 56 even those in undisturbed forested watersheds, already contain elevated levels of dissolved 57 inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and the NO₃⁻ fraction of DIN is much higher than the NH₄⁺ or NO₂⁻ 58 fractions [15-17]. As such, it is not a surprise that these temperate regions have elevated 59 denitrification rates, even though the efficiency of these processes decreases with increasing NO3⁻ 60 concentration [18]. In these temperate forested ecosystems, N limitation has been reversed, leading 61 to what is called nitrogen saturation, resulting in excessive loss of NO₃⁻ from streams [19]. 62

The few studies from forested watersheds elsewhere have revealed patterns of N loss that are more complex than what is predicted by current conceptual models derived from studies of nutrient dynamics in temperate regions of Europe and the USA. For instance, hydrologic N losses in pristine temperate forested ecosystems in southern Chile has been shown to occur nearly exclusively as DON (95% of the total N), and that NO_3^- concentrations represent only 0.2% of the total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), with NH_4^+ constituting 4.8% of the total [20]. Stream chemistry data from 100 unpolluted primary forests in temperate South America has shown the same strong

dominance of dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) over inorganic losses of N, as well as extremely 70 low stream water NO₃⁻ concentrations [21]. Some have suggested that the strong dominance of 71 organic over inorganic losses of N in these unpolluted streams is a consequence of their low mean 72 annual temperature (4-11°C), arguing that such low temperatures may inhibit the conversion of 73 DON to NH_4^+ and then to NO_3^- [22]. However, others have documented a similar dominance of 74 75 DON transport in tropical forest systems, where temperature is higher and less variable, suggesting that temperature, although important, may not be the major control on the dominance of organic 76 over inorganic N fractions in undisturbed tropical forested watersheds [23,24]. Work on coastal 77 streams in southwestern Panama has also demonstrated that DON is the dominant fraction of 78 dissolved N entering the coastal zone in both forested and pasture watersheds, at a molar ratio of 79 \sim 3:1 [25]. Our results support these observations. We report dissolved nutrient concentrations from 80 stream samples collected in the humid tropics of central Panama, within the northeastern portion 81 of the Greater Panama Canal Watershed, where the mean annual temperature is about 27°C with 82 a monthly mean annual range of less than 2° C. These data provide a significant contribution to 83 the limited literature on the dynamics of N species and the hydrologic export of DON and DIN in 84 tropical watersheds. 85

86 Material and methods

87 Study area

The area investigated in this study lies in the northeastern eastern portion of the Greater Panama Canal Watershed, which consists of 13 sub-basins, rivers, and dammed lakes that extend over 3,000 km² in the central portion of Panama and comprises five river systems (Fig 1): the Nombre de Dios and Cuango watersheds, which flow northward into the Caribbean Sea; the Pequini and Chagres watersheds, which flow southwestward into the Lago Alahuela (a dammed

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93	lake that provides water to operate the Panama Canal and generate electricity); and the Pacora
94	watershed, where flow is initially east and then southward into the Pacific Ocean.

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Fig 1. Locations of watershed boundaries in the Upper Chagres region of central Panama and sites sampled in this study.

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The headwaters of these rivers lie in pristine tropical rainforest of the Chagres National 99 Park, at elevations between 400 to 1000 meters. The study region has been affected by 100 101 anthropogenic influences to differing extents and degrees. The central core area around the headwaters of the Nombre de Dios, Cuango, Pequini and Upper Chagres (excluding its Rio Indio 102 tributary river) is pristine tropical rainforest. The Rio Indio tributary has been impacted by low-103 density local residential and farm development. The limited removal of forest for subsistence 104 farming is common in the lower reaches of the Nombre de Dios, Cuango, Pequini and Upper 105 Chagres, while the middle to lower reaches of the Pacora watershed have been deforested for 106 residential, agricultural, and/or light industrial land use (Fig 2). 107

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109 Fig 2. Land use in the Upper Chagres region showing the 24 sites sampled in this study.

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The climate of central Panama is humid tropical as a consequence of its near-equatorial position at 7-10° N latitude and the occurrence of moisture-laden winds that alternate seasonally off the Pacific and Caribbean coasts of the isthmus. The region has warm temperatures that vary from 23-27 °C along the coast to about 19 °C in the interior highlands [26]. Seasonal wind patterns determine precipitation over Panama, with most rainfall (~90%) occurring during the May to

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December wet season. The Caribbean coastal region (windward of the continental divide) has
higher annual rainfall (>3000 mm), compared to the Pacific side of the isthmus (~2000 mm),
mainly due to orographic precipitation [27].

Orographic enhancement of precipitation at the headwaters of the rivers sampled in this 119 study is pronounced. The Upper Chagres watershed receives approximately 3500 mm of annual 120 rainfall, producing over 2000 mm of annual runoff. Runoff in this watershed is dominated by 121 groundwater discharge [28] and a similar situation is expected for the Nombre de Dios, Cuango, 122 and Pequini rivers. From 1998 to 2006, the average annual discharge for the Upper Rio Chagres 123 measured at the Chico monitoring station on the lower reaches of the river was 32.2 m³ sec⁻¹. The 124 hydrographs from storm events are very flashy with steep rises and falls [29]. Work using 125 geochemical tracers has indicated that depending on the size of the rain event, water flowpaths 126 from the surface landscape into the streams can vary between groundwater (i.e. baseflow), canopy 127 throughfall, and shallow soil water inputs [30]. Preferential flows in the forested landscape can 128 significantly increase soil infiltration capacity in these systems [31]. 129

Geomorphologically, the mountainous portion of the study area is a strongly dissected 130 landscape, covered with dense tropical forest, with most hillslopes having low-order streams that 131 flow for only short distances before reaching a higher-order channel. The forested area (Fig 2) 132 typically is characterized by a multi-story canopy that extends 20-50 meters above the ground. The 133 tree species diversity in the rainforest of central Panama is high, about 90 species ha⁻¹ [32]. Of the 134 135 total 1,162 tree species catalogued in the Upper Rio Chagres area, 495 are found only on the Atlantic side of the Upper Chagres region, 101 are found on the Pacific side only, and 198 are 136 widespread, among which the most common is *Podocarpus oleifolius* D. Don ex Lamb [33]. 137

The bedrock geology of the Upper Chagres region consists primarily of Late Cretaceous to Early Tertiary age hydrothermally-altered andesites, with lesser amounts of younger mafic and felsic igneous rocks locally predominant [34]. For the Nombre de Dios, Cuango, and most of the Upper Chagres watershed, the outcropping geology is a mixture of all these lithologies. By contrast, mafic gabbro and diorite underlie much of the Rio Indio and Rio Chico sub-basins of the Upper Chagres watershed and all but the lower portions of the Pacora watershed, which is developed on Tertiary marine sediments.

Like other tropical soils worldwide, those in the study area of central Panama are strongly 145 weathered, have high clay but low organic material content, and are enriched in residual elements 146 like Fe, Al, and Si [35]. Translational mass movement, which has rafted weathered soil regolith 147 downslope, appears to be the dominant geomorphic processes, and the base of the translational 148 mass movements appears to be the contact between the pedogenic soil profile and saprolite [35]. 149 Within the highly dissected mountainous portions of the five watersheds, soils developed in 150 transported regolith form the majority (60%) of the land surface within the drainages. In contrast, 151 more stable soil profiles, with higher clay contents and deeper weathering profiles, are present in 152 upper slope positions, and form an estimated 10% of the total land surface area [35]. 153

The major ion chemistry of the upper portions of these rivers reflects the variations of bedrock types within the watersheds [36,37]. For example, the tributaries draining gabbro lithologies have relatively higher total dissolved solid loads and contain more dissolved Ca than those draining basaltic lithologies. Bedrock variations in Panama have also been shown to have a great influence on the concentrations and yields of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), with the highest values associated Tertiary marine sedimentary rocks compared to the igneous dominated terranes [38]. Besides influencing stream compositional character, lithologic distribution exerts an

important geological control on the drainage system of the Upper Chagres watershed and itstributary rivers [34].

163 Sampling procedures

Streams in five watersheds in central Panama (Fig 1) were sampled during a 3-day period 164 between 27 February and 1 March 2007. The physical characteristics of the five watersheds are 165 given in Table 1. Temperature, dissolved solid content, acidity, and dissolved oxygen content were 166 measured in the field using portable meters. Water samples were collected by hand in the center 167 of the stream channel by an individual wearing clean polyvinyl gloves reaching into the flow 168 169 upstream from the sampler's body. Pre-cleaned 60 mL polyethylene bottles were rinsed three times with river/stream water prior to sample collection. Bottles were cleaned as outlined in [39]. After 170 collection, samples were placed in dark, plastic coolers and filtered upon return to Panama City 171 from the field no more than 12 hours after collection. Samples were filtered through 0.4 µm pore-172 size Nuclepore filters, using a bell jar and pre-cleaned plastic filter towers, directly into sample 173 bottles. After filtration, the samples were frozen and shipped back to The Ohio State University 174 (Columbus, OH, USA) in a frozen state and kept frozen until analyzed. Samples were thawed and 175 analyzed for NO₂⁻+NO₃⁻, NO₂⁻, NH₄⁺, total nitrogen (TN) and soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP) 176 using standard techniques on a Lachat FIA analyzer. Dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) was 177 calculated as the difference between total nitrogen (TN) and the sum of the dissolved inorganic N 178 species. Analytical precision of the measurements is <3%. Detection limits for NH₄⁺, NO₂⁻, and 179 SRP are 0.2, 0.9, and 0.3 µmol L⁻¹ respectively. Filtration blanks for NH4⁺, NO3⁻, NO2⁻, and SRP 180 were all below detection. 181

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183 Table 2. Geomorphic characteristics of the five river basins examined in this study.

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Watershed	Area (ha)	Max elevation (m)	Min elevation (m)	Mean elevation (m)	Average slope (%)	Length (km)
Nombre de Dios	6,591	483	0	115	14	15
Cuango	17,435	728	0	205	14	30
Pequini	17,445	836	60	290	14	29
Chagres	55,348	1,008	60	452	16	55
Pacora	36,045	939	0	280	10	44

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185 Sampling locations

The Rio Nombre de Dios watershed (~6,600 ha) was sampled in its lowermost downstream 186 187 reach ~500 m upstream from its outflow point to the Atlantic Ocean (PAN-492). The Rio Cuango watershed (~17,400 ha) was sampled at five locations: the Rio Cuango in its lowermost 188 downstream reach ~500 m upstream from its outflow point to the Atlantic Ocean (PAN-424); in 189 190 its middle reaches at the upstream limit of forest clearance for subsistence farming (PAN-425); downstream of PAN-425, at the confluence with one of the Rio Cuango major tributary rivers 191 (PAN-428); at a small tributary river to the Cuango (PAN-431); and in the upper reaches of the 192 193 Rio Cuango, in pristine rainforest just upstream of its confluence with the second large tributary 194 river (PAN-426).

The Rio Pequini watershed (~17,500 ha) was sampled in three locations: in the Pequini lower reaches, a few kilometers upstream of its outflow into Lago Alajuela, where some deforestation for subsistence farming and livestock grazing has occurred (PAN-432); in its pristine forested upper reaches, just upstream with the Rio San Miguel (PAN-433); and at the Rio San Miguel, the major tributary river of the Rio Pequini (PAN-434). The Rio Chagres is the major river system of the region. It drains about 55,300 ha, most of which is protected by the Panamanian government as the Chagres National Park. The Upper Rio Chagres was sampled in two places: in its pristine upper headwater reaches (PAN-437), and in its lower reaches, a few kilometers upstream of its inflow into Lago Alajuela (PAN-435). Two Upper Rio Chagres tributary rivers in pristine tropical rainforest and two tributary rivers affected by partial deforestation were also sampled.

Four major tributary rivers of the Upper Rio Chagres were sampled - the Esperanza, 206 Chagricito, Piedras, and Indio. The upper reaches of the Esperanza (PAN-449) and the lower 207 208 reaches of the Chagricito (PAN-450) are deep in unspoiled rainforest. The Piedras tributary was sampled at a gauge site (PAN-451) approximately one kilometer upstream of its confluence with 209 the Upper Chagres. The Indio tributary was sampled in its upstream reaches (PAN-455) at a large 210 waterfall, in its upper-middle reaches (PAN-456) at the site of a former hydroelectric plant, and in 211 its middle reaches (PAN-454) in an area of subsistence farming. A small tributary stream to the 212 Rio Indio, whose upper reaches drains an area of sparse residential and farm settlements, was also 213 sampled (PAN-457). 214

The Rio Pacora watershed (~36,000 ha) was sampled in four locations: in its upper-middle reaches (PAN-462) a few kilometers downstream of where deforestation for pastureland commences; in its middle reaches (PAN-461) at the village of San Miguel; in its lower-middle reaches (PAN-460) at the village of Juan Gil; and in its lower reaches (PAN-459) upstream of the Rio Cabobre confluence where it crosses the Pan-American Highway. The Rio Cabobre, sampled just upstream of its confluence with the Rio Pacora (PAN-482), is a major tributary river (~26,500 ha) that joins the Rio Pacora about halfway along its flow across the broad Pacific coastal plain in

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this region of central Panama that has been entirely deforested and currently supports livestock

223 grazing, agriculture, light industry, and residential land uses.

- The general physical and chemical characteristics and a brief description of the 24 sites
- sampled are provided in Table 2.
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Table 2. Chemistry and nutrient concentrations for the 24 sampling sites in central Panama.

Location	Sample #	Land use	Temp (°C)	SPC (mS cm ⁻²)	рН	DO (%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (μmol L ⁻¹) (SRP µmol L ⁻¹	NH4 ⁺)(μmol L ⁻¹) (μ	DON umol L ⁻¹)
1	PAN-492	Deforested	26.63	392	7.69	92	2.58	0.38	ND	17.3
2	PAN-424	Deforested	27.51	286	7.59	101	ND	0.28	ND	8.28
3	PAN-428	Farm/pasture	26.37	272	7.39	96	2.24	0.50	ND	14.4
4	PAN-425	Forested	26.51	269	7.26	81	1.32	0.39	ND	22.4
5	PAN-431	Farm/pasture	26.84	288	8.40	121	1.06	0.69	ND	8.92
6	PAN-426	Forested	26.02	281	7.63	107	2.12	0.91	ND	13.0
7	PAN-433	Forested	26.03	273	8.06	109	ND	0.92	ND	35.6
8	PAN-434	Forested	26.11	282	8.11	115	0.21	0.70	ND	7.42
9	PAN-432	Farm/pasture	27.12	322	7.76	103	ND	0.64	ND	32.3
10	PAN-437	Forested	24.09	148	6.94	96	1.46	0.36	1.59	42.9
11	PAN-450	Forested	25.89	181	8.08	105	0.29	0.24	ND	14.7
12	PAN-449	Forested	26.86	178	8.31	104	0.37	0.24	ND	66.3
13	PAN-451	Farm/pasture	26.14	236	8.02	103	2.40	0.33	ND	19.5
14	PAN-453	Deforested	26.25	223	8.27	114	1.22	0.58	ND	22.1
15	PAN-435	Deforested	27.10	220	7.88	109	ND	0.35	ND	11.5
16	PAN-455	Farm/pasture	23.97	166	7.87	94	11.4	0.08	ND	22.8

17	PAN-456	Farm/pasture	25.05	174	7.93	91	32.4	0.09	ND	19.1
18	PAN-457	Farm/pasture	25.16	190	7.93	102	1.75	0.54	ND	107.8
19	PAN-454	Farm/pasture	28.80	234	8.23	109	2.23	0.14	ND	30.5
20	PAN-462	Farm/pasture	29.34	313	8.40	107	ND	0.45	ND	6.80
21	PAN-461	Developed	29.82	319	7.96	105	ND	0.24	ND	18.1
22	PAN-460	Developed	27.61	337	8.27	112	ND	0.23	ND	10.5
23	PAN-482	Farm/pasture	30.25	330	8.24	112	ND	0.02	ND	26.1
24	PAN-459	Developed	34.03	340	8.07	118	0.24	0.22	0.12	18.4

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ND = not detected; SPC = specific conductance. Detection limits for NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and SRP are 0.2, 0.9, and 0.3 μ mol L⁻¹ respectively.

230 Sample site descriptions:

231 1 Rio Nombre de Dios, downstream reach ~500 m upstream from Atlantic
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- 232 2 Rio Cuango, downstream reach ~500 m upstream from Atlantic coast
- 233 3 Rio Cuango lower-middle reaches at 3-tributary farm, ~10m upstream of large tributary
- 234 4 Large unnamed tributary to Rio Cuango at 3-tributary farm
- 5 Mid-sized tributary to Rio Cuango at 3-tributary farm
- 236 6 Rio Cuango middle-upper reaches upstream of confluence with large tributary river
- 237 7 Rio Pequini, upstream of Rio San Miguel confluence
- 8 Rio San Miguel tributary river to Rio Pequini, ~10 upstream of confluence
- 9 Rio Pequini, lower reaches immediately downstream of Embara village
- 240 10 Upper Rio Chagres, upstream
- 241 11 Rio Chagricito tributary to Upper Rio Chagres, ~10 m upstream of confluence
- 242 12 Rio Esperanza tributary to Upper Rio Chagres in middle
- 243 13 Rio Piedras tributary to Upper Rio Chagres at ACP gauge site
- 14 Rio Chico tributary to Upper Rio Chagres, ~10 m upstream of confluence
- 245 15 Upper Rio Chagres, lower reaches downstream of Embara village
- 246 16 Rio Indio tributary to Upper Rio Chagres, upstream at waterfall
- 247 17 Rio Indio tributary to Upper Rio Chagres, upper reaches at former hydro-electric plant
- 248 18 Small upstream tributary to Rio Indio tributary to Upper Rio Chagres, in middle reaches
- 249 19 Rio Indio tributary to Upper Rio Chagres, in middle reaches
- 250 20 Rio Pacora, middle reaches at road crossing
- 251 21 Rio Pacora, at San Miguel village
- 252 22 Rio Pacora, middle reaches at Juan Gil village
- 253 23 Rio Cabobre tributary to Rio Pacora, lower reaches, ~10 m upstream of confluence

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254 24 Rio Pacora at Highway 1, lower reaches ~10 m upstream of Rio Cabobre confluence

255 **Results**

Measured field data of temperature, dissolved solid content, acidity, and dissolved oxygen 256 content are reported in Table 2. Water temperatures for the 24 sampling sites ranged from 24.1 to 257 34.0 °C. Total dissolved solid contents, measured as specific conductance values, varied from 166 258 to 392 mS cm⁻². All waters were near neutral to slightly alkaline in acidity (pH = 6.9 to 8.4) and 259 well aerated (dissolved oxygen = 81 to 121% of saturation). Water from the main-stem Upper Rio 260 261 Chagres contained the lowest solute load and that from the Rio Nombre de Dios the highest, with 262 the four rivers sampled at multiple points each exhibiting a general trend of increasing solute load 263 downstream.

Nutrient concentrations at the sampling sites are listed in Table 2 and shown in Fig 3. The 264 265 dissolved N fraction was dominated by organic species. DON concentrations varied between 6.8 and 108 µmol L⁻¹, while inorganic species (DIN) represented, on average, only about 8% of the 266 dissolved fraction. Overall, observed NO₃⁻ concentrations were low, with all but two samples 267 having concentrations below 2.6 µmol L⁻¹ and 14 of the 24 samples having NO₃⁻ concentrations 268 below 1.0 μ mol L⁻¹. The highest NO₃⁻ concentration (32.4 μ mol L⁻¹) was observed in the middle 269 reaches of the Rio Indio tributary to the Rio Chagres, downstream from a small farm and livestock 270 pasture (PAN- 454). The Rio Indio headwater sample (PAN-455) also has relatively high NO3⁻ 271 value (11.4 µmol L⁻¹). This headwater area receives a diffuse input of waste runoff from a large 272 industrial chicken farming and processing operation. 273

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Fig 3. Nutrient concentrations (in µmol L⁻¹) at the stream sampling sites in central Panama.

Average NO₃⁻ concentration from forested sites is 0.96 ± 0.78 µmol L⁻¹, while the average 277 from farm/pasture sites is 7.64±11.48 µmol L⁻¹. Average DON concentration from forested sites 278 is 28.9±20.8 μ mol L⁻¹, while the average from farm/pasture sites is 31.9±34.2 μ mol L⁻¹. All NO₂⁻¹ 279 concentrations were below our detection limit and only two river sites, PAN-437 (the headwater 280 reaches of the Upper Rio Chagres) and PAN- 459 (the lower reaches of the Rio Pacora), had NH₄⁺ 281 concentrations above detection. Concentrations of NO3⁻ were below detection at the two Rio 282 Pequini sites (PAN-433 and PAN-432), at the lower Rio Cuango River near the Atlantic coast 283 (PAN-424), at the downstream Upper Rio Chagres site upstream of its discharge point into Lago 284 Alajuela (PAN-435), for three of the four Rio Pacora sites (PAN-460, PAN-461, and PAN-462), 285 and for the Rio Cabobre tributary (PAN-482). 286

Concentrations of soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP) were also low (overall average of 0.40±0.24 μ mol L⁻¹). Average SRP concentration from forested sites is 0.54±0.30 μ mol L⁻¹, while the average from farm/pasture sites is 0.34±0.24 μ mol L⁻¹. The highest concentrations (0.92 and 0.91 μ mol L⁻¹) were observed at two of the pristine rainforest sites, the Rio Pequini upstream site (PAN-433) and Rio Cuango upstream site (PAN-426), respectively, while the lowest concentrations (0.02, 0.08, and 0.09 μ mol L⁻¹) were all observed in deforested sites where the land is being used for pasture or subsistence crop (respectively, PAN-482, PAN-455, and PAN-456).

294 **Discussion**

Nutrient concentrations in Panama's precipitation have been measured in rainfall between 2009-2011 at an island located just off the coast of southwestern Panama [40]. The volume weighted mean annual concentrations were 5.3, 3.7, 0.5, and 17.4 μ mol L⁻¹ for NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, PO₄³⁻ , and DON, respectively. For a low elevation rainforest in Costa Rica – the neighboring country to the west – the respective weighted mean nutrient concentrations in rainwater are 4.1, 7.1, 6.0 and

 $<0.3 \mu$ mol L⁻¹ for NO₃⁻, DON, NH₄⁺ and SRP [41]. These values are considered to be minimally 300 affected by anthropogenic inputs and representative of uncontaminated precipitation. Other work 301 on nitrate and ammonium deposition in tropical forested sites span a wider range of values with 302 modal concentrations of ~ 3 and $\sim 4 \mu mol L^{-1}$ for NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺, respectively [40]. The majority 303 of our stream waters in central Panama have mean values for NO₃⁻ concentrations that are similar 304 to, or less than, these precipitation values, and NH4⁺ concentrations that are less than those 305 observed in both coastal Panama and Costa Rican precipitation. Previous research has clearly 306 demonstrated that a large percentage of the atmospheric input of inorganic species of N from 307 308 precipitation in Panama is retained within the watersheds, with fully forested catchments retaining the least, only 65-80% [40]. If Panamanian rain forest precipitation has a character similar to that 309 in Costa Rica, almost all the NH4⁺ and much of the NO3⁻ from precipitation may be converted to 310 DON as nitrogen is cycled from the rainforest ecosystem to rivers and streams in the watershed. 311 More recently, the global concentrations of dissolved and total nitrogen and phosphorus 312 have been modeled and mapped for over 1400 rivers using data from 1990 to 2016 [42]. From this 313 study, tropical rivers have median concentrations of 4.68, 7.21, 0.08, 49.55, and 2.26 μ mol L⁻¹, for 314 NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , SRP, TN, and TP, respectively. These median concentrations are significantly 315

different than those from temperate rivers of North and South America and Europe: NO_3^- values from tropical rivers are 34% lower, $NH4^+$ values are 35% lower, and SRP values are 20% lower, while TP values are only 4% lower and TN values from tropical rivers are 93% higher than their temperate counterparts [42]. This extensive dataset also corroborates the assertion that the dissolved nitrogen fraction – and, to some extent, the dissolved phosphorus fraction as well – are dominated by organic forms in tropical rivers.

Little work has been undertaken on the nutrient geochemistry of streams in Panama. The 322 Panama Canal Authority collects monthly samples from eight streams of the Greater Panama Canal 323 Watershed and there are abundant data from Costa Rica and other forested tropical regions for 324 comparison. NO₃⁻ concentrations in the Chagres and Pequini collected monthly by the Panama 325 Canal Authority have means of 5.7 and 5.0 µmol L⁻¹, respectively [43,44], and both rivers had 326 NO_3^- concentration ranging from 0.7 and 23 µmol L⁻¹ between 2003-2019. The coastal streams 327 entering the ocean in southwestern Panama have concentrations of 0.83, 2.45, 3.28, 9.73, and 0.37 328 μ mol L⁻¹ for NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻, DIN, DON, and PO₄³⁻, respectively. 329

Analyses from six undisturbed streams of various sizes in Costa Rica [45] have weighted mean concentrations ranging from 8.6 to 21.0 μ mol L⁻¹ for NO₃⁻, 3.6 to 10.0 μ mol L⁻¹ for DON, and 0.26 to 0.93 μ mol L⁻¹ for SRP. These NO₃⁻ values, although in the similar range of our farm/pasture sites, are about 3-fold higher than the concentration range of our forested sites. Regarding DON concentrations, the opposite situation is observed: our values (for both forested and deforested sites) are between 3 and 10 times the concentrations observed in Costa Rica. As for SRP, our values are in a range similar to those from Costa Rica.

Our nutrient values (mean ±SE) for the five central Panama watersheds are $2.64\pm6.76 \mu mol$ L⁻¹ NO₃⁻, 24.9±22.1 µmol L⁻¹ DON, and 0.40±0.25 µmol L⁻¹ SRP. These results are much closer to those observed in forested catchments from the Caribbean. Streams from the islands of Dominica, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent [46] have respective NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and SRP concentrations of 5.7, 1.7 and 0.4 µmol L⁻¹ (Layou River, Dominica), 4.6, 3.4 and 0.1 µmol L⁻¹ (Troumassee River, St. Lucia), and 32.8, 10.0 and 0.2 µmol L⁻¹ (Buccament River, St. Vincent). As in our study, higher NO₃⁻ concentrations in the St. Vincent stream reflect high anthropogenic influence in its catchment, which has a population density 77% higher than the Troumassee River catchment and
181% higher than the Layou River catchment [46].

Our results are also comparable to that of Puerto Rico, another Caribbean Island, where the mean concentrations of nutrients in three tropical montane streams are 0.98 μ mol L⁻¹ NO₃⁻, 0.66 μ mol L⁻¹ NH₄⁺, 9.28 μ mol L⁻¹ DON, and 0.06 μ mol L⁻¹ TDP [23]. Like our findings in Panama, the highest nitrate concentrations in this study are associated with locations downstream from a small farm and pasture area. These results suggest that even small-scale farming operations can have a significant impact on the input of dissolved nitrogen into local drainages.

352 Although the median SRP concentrations in tropical rainforest streams are usually less than 1 μ mol L⁻¹, values as high as 9.7 μ mol L⁻¹ have been recorded at low elevations in pristine streams 353 in Costa Rica [47]. These high SRP values correlate with higher Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Cl⁻, and SO4²⁻ 354 values, and could potentially be derived from the chemical weathering of young basaltic rocks in 355 these watersheds. As noted previously for volcanic terrains [48], P is derived from rock weathering 356 and can be readily depleted in the soils in relatively short periods of geological time, unless it is 357 replaced through continued volcanism or perhaps aeolian dust input. We have argued that, in 358 tectonically active areas where physical weathering continually provides fresh mineral surfaces, P 359 is continuously solubilized for ecosystem use [49]. The Upper Chagres region is such an area in 360 that physical weathering and erosion yields are quite high at 269 ± 63 tons km⁻² yr⁻¹ [50] which, in 361 turn, can lead to high chemical weathering rates [36]. P concentrations in stream sediments of the 362 Upper Chagres watershed range from 5.6 to 18.2 µmol L⁻¹ g⁻¹, with mean concentration of 10.3 363 μ mol L⁻¹ g⁻¹ [51]. These values are much lower than the average value of 93.5 ± 52 μ mol L⁻¹ g⁻¹ P 364 measured in soils within the lower reaches of the Canal Zone drainage [52] and may indicate 365 366 significant loss of P from both the soil and the stream sediment, as soils are produced and then

18

eroded into the river system. These soils/sediments readily provide SRP to the terrestrial andaquatic ecosystems.

Of the five watersheds sampled, mean annual flow data are available only for the lower 369 Rio Pequini, the Upper Chagres, and its Rio Piedras tributary river, so we can only estimate 370 nutrient yields from these sub-basins. The TDN-yields have been calculated using the Panama 371 Canal Authority monthly data collected from the aforementioned eight watersheds draining into 372 the Panama Canal between 2003-2019, and the US Geological Survey's LOADEST model [43,44]. 373 These and our study have two watersheds in common: the Chagres and the Pequini. Over the 17-374 year sampling period, the nitrate-N yields in these watersheds varied between 1.55 and 4.49 kg ha⁻ 375 ¹ yr⁻¹. The average yield of the Charges and Pequini in 2007, the year our calculations were made, 376 was 3.83 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, while mean value for all our watersheds was 4.45 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. These values 377 are also comparable to those calculated for Costa Rican tropical rain forest streams (7.47, 2.32 and 378 0.41 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, respectively) [45], with our Panama sites having lower TDN and SRP yields but 379 higher DON yields. The central Panama TDN yield estimate fits well within the range and the 380 mean $(0.57 - 9.40 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}; \text{ mean of } \sim 3.7 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1})$ determined in other tropical undisturbed 381 watersheds [24], with the DON yield for Panama at the higher end of the range for tropical 382 watersheds. 383

Compared to temperate regions, our central Panama data more closely resemble concentrations and yields from undisturbed forested watersheds in the Southern Hemisphere (Fig 4). The first-order streams used for comparison (old-growth forests with little or no evidence of human disturbance in southern Chile and Argentina) have extremely low NO₃⁻ concentrations (mean = 0.14 µmol L⁻¹), very low NH₄⁺ (mean = 0.35 µmol L⁻¹), but relatively high DON values of 0.6 – 9.6 µmol L⁻¹ [21]. The consequent N yields from these streams are also quite low (0.2 –

3.5 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), with most coming from DON [21]. There has been much debate about the reason
for this excess of DON over DIN. Some have suggested that an excess of DON over DIN implies
plant uptake of DON as well as DIN and that DON might be colloidal in character [53], whereas
others have suggested it to be due to temperature [22]. Our data and some others [23,54-56]
strongly indicate that the enhanced DON concentrations and yields are not due solely to differences
in mean annual temperature.

396

Fig 4. Comparison between dissolved nitrogen concentrations in streams from old growth,
undisturbed forested watersheds in tropical (this study) and temperate regions of the
Northern Hemisphere [16,21] and Southern Hemisphere [21]. SE = Southeastern US (64
streams); W = Western US (90 streams); NE = Northeastern US (102 streams); TN = Great Smoky
Mountains, Tennessee, US; PA = Tionessa National Forest, Pennsylvania, US.

402

Ecosystems vary widely in their capacity to retain N [19], but the lack of NO₃⁻ loss from 403 these montane forested sites in Panama clearly suggests that they are currently not in a state of N 404 saturation. Furthermore, with the abundance of SRP in these forested watersheds, even though at 405 relatively low concentrations, we suggest the system is more N limited in these higher elevation 406 watersheds. It has been previously suggested that montane tropical forests are N limited whereas 407 lowland ones are P limited [57]. Small-scale spatial analysis indicates that the relationship may be 408 409 more complex, with the relative amounts of one nutrient to the other being as important as their individual concentrations in soils [52]. 410

In addition to the samples presented in this study, a large number of samples from these
Panamanian river systems were analyzed over the period 2005-2009, using ion-chromatographic

(IC) techniques. These samples were also filtered through 0.4µm filters, but not preserved in a way 413 to stabilize their nutrient concentrations, especially at low concentrations. These samples had 414 concentrations about 12 to 15% higher than the samples presented in this study, which were 415 analyzed with a Lachat FIA system. This historical dataset is shown in Table 3. Assuming that the 416 IC data are within 15% of the FIA values for concentrations above 10 μ mol L⁻¹, the following 417 observations can be made: the Piedras site at the ACP gauge (site 13) and the Rio Indio site (17) 418 at the former hydroelectric plant, in general, give measurable values of nitrate through our overall 419 sampling period. As noted in Table 2, these are both farmland/pastureland locations, implying that 420 421 the higher concentrations over time at these sites are directly related to agricultural activities. Sites 2, 3, 9, and 15 also yielded IC-measurable NO_3^{-} on at least one sampling period (Table 3). These 422 are all locations impacted by anthropogenic activities. The two forested, most pristine locations, 423 sites 10 and 12, yielded the comparatively lowest IC-measurable concentrations. Although this is 424 a limited dataset, it does suggest generally lower background concentrations of inorganic nutrient 425 species, and that anthropogenic activities such as agriculture are the major contributions to fixed 426 nitrogen input into these waters. 427

428

Table 3. Concentration of NO₃⁻ (μmol L⁻¹) measured by a Dionex Ion Chromatography from
samples collected at various time at some of the locations listed in Table 2.

Location	Feb 2005	Oct/Nov 2005	Jan 2006	Mar 2006	Jul 2007	Feb/Mar 2008	Mar 2009
2					16.0		
3			246				
9				10.4			
10				10.9			

2	1
7	T

12				10.7		
13		12.3	20.3	14.2		
15				32		
17	7.0	46	28.3	261	74	44

431 Conclusion

Our results indicate that the dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) and soluble reactive 432 phosphorus (SRP) concentrations for rivers of central Panama are very low, but that dissolved 433 organic nitrogen (DON) concentrations are relatively high. In this respect, the situation is similar 434 to what has been observed in other pristine forested watersheds in both the tropics and temperate 435 regions of Central and South America and the Caribbean. Based on this information, we conclude 436 437 that these Panamanian forests are not nitrogen saturated and are sinks for inorganic N. Nutrient yields are similar to those from rainforests in nearby Costa Rica. Others have argued that stream 438 ecosystems play a fundamental functional role in watershed landscapes by documenting that small 439 headwater streams can alter the NO₃⁻ flux in a temporally dynamic manner [58]. Further work in 440 central Panama will focus on examining seasonal differences in nutrient cycling to refine our 441 estimates of N export and identify any variability of N fluxes between baseflow and stormflow 442 conditions. 443

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Figure 1





Figure 3



Figure 4