

# Iron interference in the quantification of nitrate in soil extracts and its effect on hypothesized abiotic immobilization of nitrate

Eric A. Davidson · D. Bryan Dail · Jon Chorover

Received: 16 May 2008 / Accepted: 6 August 2008 / Published online: 30 August 2008  
© Springer Science+Business Media B.V. 2008

**Abstract** Human alteration of the nitrogen cycle has stimulated research on nitrogen cycling in many aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, where analyses of nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) by standard laboratory methods are common. A recent study by Colman et al. (Biogeochemistry 84:161–169, 2007) identified a potential analytical interference of soluble iron (Fe) with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification by standard flow-injection analysis of soil extracts, and suggested that this interference may have led Dail et al. (Biogeochemistry 54:131–146, 2001) to make an erroneous assessment of abiotic nitrate immobilization in prior  $^{15}\text{N}$  pool dilution studies of Harvard Forest soils. In this paper, we reproduce the Fe interference problem systematically and show that it is likely related to dissolved, complexed-Fe interfering with the colorimetric analysis of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . We also show how standard additions of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to soil extracts at native dissolved Fe concentrations reveal when the Fe interference problem occurs, and permit the assessment of its

significance for past, present, and future analyses. We demonstrate low soluble Fe concentrations and good recovery of standard additions of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  in extracts of sterilized Harvard Forest soils. Hence, we maintain that rapid  $\text{NO}_3^-$  immobilization occurred in sterilized samples of the Harvard Forest O horizon in the study by Dail et al. (2001). Furthermore, additional evidence is accumulating in the literature for rapid disappearance of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  added to soils, suggesting that our observations were not the result of an isolated analytical artifact. The conditions for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction are likely to be highly dependent on microsite properties, both in situ and in the laboratory. The so-called “ferrous wheel hypothesis” (Davidson et al., Glob Chang Biol 9:228–236, 2003) remains an unproven, viable explanation for published observations.

**Keywords** Iron · Nitrate · Nitrite · Nitrogen · Soil extracts · Abiotic immobilization · Ferrous wheel hypothesis

E. A. Davidson (✉)  
The Woods Hole Research Center, 149 Woods Hole  
Road, Falmouth, MA 02540-1644, USA  
e-mail: edavidson@whrc.org

D. B. Dail  
Department of Plant, Soil, and Environmental Sciences,  
University of Maine, Orono, ME 04469, USA

J. Chorover  
Department of Soil, Water and Environmental Science,  
University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721-0038, USA

## Introduction

Nitrogen (N) is among the most commonly measured elements in biogeochemical studies owing to its importance as an essential nutrient for plant, animal, and microbial metabolism. The nitrate ion ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) is frequently measured in studies of atmospheric

deposition, agricultural runoff, and wastewater from human sewage systems. Increasing human alteration of the nitrogen cycle (Galloway et al. 2004; UNEP and WHRC 2007) has stimulated research on nitrogen cycling in many aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, and many studies include analysis of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  by standard water chemistry methods. Common methods for quantifying  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations include ion specific electrodes, ion chromatography, and colorimetric analysis of nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) following  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction (Mulvaney 1996). The latter method is widely used, partly because of commercially available flow injection analyzers (FIA) that automate this analysis, allowing large sample numbers to be analyzed quickly with reasonably good accuracy, precision, and sensitivity.

In the process of carrying out an experiment designed to measure abiotic immobilization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , Colman et al. (2007) discovered a potential analytical interference of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification caused by dissolved iron (Fe) in extracts of thrice-autoclaved soils, leading to an underestimate of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration. These authors demonstrated that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations were underestimated when they used the standard ammonium-chloride–ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid ( $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA) buffer in FIA; that the underestimation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was correlated with soluble Fe concentrations; and that this interference did not appear when they substituted an imidazole buffer. The authors concluded that previously published reports of evidence for abiotic immobilization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  into a dissolved organic-N (DON) fraction (Dail et al. 2001; Davidson et al. 2003) were due to this analytical artifact, because underestimation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations would cause an underestimation of recovery of experimentally added  $^{15}\text{NO}_3^-$  label and an over estimation of DON (estimated by the difference between total dissolved N [TDN] and dissolved inorganic-N [DIN]).

Interference of soluble Fe in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification is a potentially important issue not only for research pertaining to abiotic immobilization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , but also potentially for thousands of other studies that have reported  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in soil extracts, rainwater, streamwater, lakes, groundwater, and seawater. We have recently encountered several graduate students who have read the Colman et al. (2007) paper and who were worried about the validity of their  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration data from a variety of

different experiments and studies. Hence it is very important to accurately characterize this soluble Fe interference of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification when employing the widely used  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer methodology.

Ironically, the standard methodology found in the SSSA Methods for Soil Analysis (Bundy and Meisinger 1994; Mulvaney 1996), which follows standard methods published by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA 1983) and by the American Public Health Association (APHA 1989), recommends using the  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer expressly to remove Fe interference for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification. The reduction of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  is typically accomplished in a copper-coated granulated cadmium (Cd) “reduction column”, and several potential interferences of this step have been identified, including Fe, copper and other transition metals in excess of  $1 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$ , which have been reported to alter the efficiency of the Cd reduction column (Alpkem Corporation 1990). The addition of EDTA results in complexation of these metals, thereby removing the problem (Alpkem Corporation 1990). A commonly used method employs 1 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA to provide excess complexing ligand (EDTA) to solutions with high metal concentrations, thus enhancing and prolonging the use of the Cd reduction column.

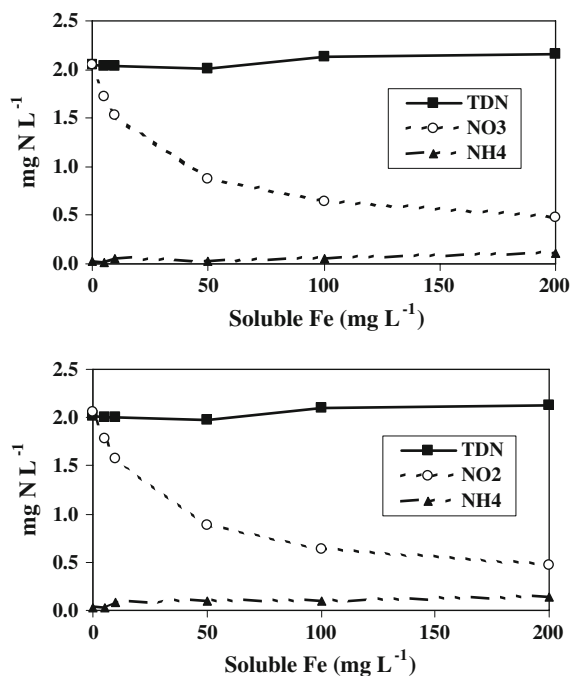
The study by Colman et al. (2007) suggests another, as yet unidentified, mechanism by which dissolved Fe interferes with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification despite the excess of EDTA in the buffer solution, and they propose the use of an imidazole buffer (0.1 M; pH 7.5) instead. However, switching to the imidazole buffer method, as recommended by Colman et al. (2007), has some potentially serious drawbacks, including possible precipitation of metal hydroxides that cause degradation of the cadmium column for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction (Nydahl 1976; Patton et al. 2002). A strong rationale and carefully considered balance of pros and cons would be advisable before the current standard procedure for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  analysis is abandoned, but several issues remain unresolved. For example, what Fe concentration introduces a significant interference with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification by the EDTA method such that a change in buffer system (with increased potential for degradation of Cd column efficiency) is justified? Might there be a way to avoid significant Fe interference without introducing new problems associated with use of the imidazole buffer solution?

Here we report the results of systematic studies intended to provide insight into when Fe interference is important and how to test for it. Our primary objective is to convey this new information to those making decisions in the short-term regarding use of data from previous analyses and regarding current methodologies. We also hope that this discussion will help stimulate more in-depth analyses that will provide a longer-term and more definitive solution. A secondary objective is to discuss the recent evidence for and against the existence of abiotic immobilization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in light of this concern about  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification.

### Iron in nitrate/nitrite standard solutions

As a first step, we repeated the Fe standard addition experiment of Colman et al. (2007) using a LACHAT Quik Chem FIA+ 8000 Series autoanalyzer (Lachat Instruments, Milwaukee, USA) with the  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ -EDTA buffer recommended by the manufacturer for nitrate (QuikChem-Method-10-107-04-1-L 1999), ammonium (QuikChem-Method-10-107-06-2-A 1997), and TDN (QuikChem-Method 10-107-04-3-P, 2000) analyses. Iron additions were derived from an atomic adsorption spectrometry standard, wherein Fe is dissolved in a 2% HCl solution in order to maintain the soluble Fe(II) oxidation state. Aliquots of this Fe(II) standard were added to standard solutions of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  in deionized  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  to obtain a range of dissolved Fe concentrations from 0 to 200  $\text{mg l}^{-1}$ . The addition of this acidic, Fe(II) solution caused a decrease in the apparent concentrations of 2  $\text{mg N l}^{-1}$   $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  standards (Fig. 1). We observed a small increase in  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentration with increasing Fe(II) addition, consistent with a small amount of reduction of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  or  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  by Fe(II) (Ottley et al. 1997). There was no detectable effect of Fe on total dissolved nitrogen (TDN) quantification by the persulfate digest method (Fig. 1).

Because the same effect was observed for both  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  standards, Fe interference evidently does not involve the reduction of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  on the Cd column. An explanation could be that  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reacts with Fe(II) to produce more reduced forms of N, such as NO and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  gases and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . However, reactions that would result in loss of gaseous forms of N apparently are not occurring instantaneously while



**Fig. 1** Recovery of 2  $\text{mg N l}^{-1}$  added as nitrate (upper panel) and as added nitrite (lower panel) in the forms of total dissolved nitrogen (TDN), nitrite/nitrate ( $\text{NO}_2^-/\text{NO}_3^-$ ), and ammonium ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ) in solutions with soluble iron ranging from 0 to 200  $\text{mg Fe l}^{-1}$

the sample is in the queue for analysis, because when solutions of Fe(II) and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  are run through the persulfate digest module of the Lachat instrument, all of the  $\text{NO}_2^-$ -N is recovered as TDN. Therefore, it seems more likely that the EDTA-chelated Fe interferes directly with colorimetric analysis of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ .

This interference does not occur in samples that have undergone persulfate digestion, probably because the persulfate oxidizes all forms of Fe(II) (including EDTA-chelated-Fe) to Fe(III), and the less soluble Fe(III) precipitates out, preventing its subsequent interference with quantification of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . Similarly, by raising the pH to 7.5, the imidazole buffer probably promotes oxidation of Fe(II) to Fe(III) (Herzsprung et al. 2005). Taken together, these data suggest that the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  quantification problems shown in Fig. 1 are related to Fe(II) present in  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ -EDTA buffered solutions interfering with  $\text{NO}_2^-$  quantification. We speculate that EDTA-chelated Fe passes through the cadmium column and then somehow interferes with the Griess-Ilosvay colorimetric reaction used for  $\text{NO}_2^-$

quantification. Reduction of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  with soluble Fe(II) before  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reacts with the coloring reagent is also possible, although unlikely at the circumneutral pH values in these analyses (Van Cleemput and Baert 1983). So far, these results are consistent with those of Colman et al. (2007), and the nature of the interference problem has been narrowed somewhat.

### Iron in soil extracts

The kinetics of Fe(II) oxidation are very rapid at pH  $>5$  in the presence of atmospheric oxygen (Stumm and Morgan 1996). Therefore, in most oxic soils, Fe is present dominantly in relatively insoluble Fe(III) solids (e.g., Fe(III) oxyhydroxides such as goethite). Any Fe(II) that does get extracted will undergo rapid oxidation to Fe(III) in oxic extracts of soils with solution pH  $>5$ . Organically-bound and otherwise chelated forms of Fe in soil extracts could remain soluble in either Fe(II) or Fe(III) states, but we do not know if these forms of soluble Fe have the same effect as the EDTA-chelated Fe that was produced when acidic Fe(II) was added to an EDTA- $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$  buffer solution in the experiments described above.

An unambiguous means of determining whether Fe interference has the potential to occur in a given soil extract solution is to conduct  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  standard additions to those soil extracts with native concentrations of soluble Fe. We conducted standard addition of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  extracts (5:1 ratio of solution to soil, shaken for 1 h) of both

live (pH = 2.6 in 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$ ) and autoclaved (pH = 2.1 in 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$ ) soils of the Harvard Forest Oa horizon taken from the same area studied by Dail et al. (2001). The Oa horizon is well humified and C-rich, possibly containing organically-bound Fe. It also contains a small amount of Fe-containing minerals mixed in from the mineral soil layer below it. Furthermore, autoclaving could release Fe to solution from the solid phase because of reductive dissolution. The  $\text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$  concentrations in  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  extracts of live and sterile soils were 0.1–0.7 mg N  $\text{l}^{-1}$  (Table 1). In all cases, when we added a 0.02 ml aliquot of 1,000 mg N  $\text{l}^{-1}$   $\text{KNO}_2$  or  $\text{KNO}_3$  to 10 ml of these extracts, the concentrations increased approximately by the expected 2 mg N  $\text{l}^{-1}$ . Complete recovery was also obtained when this standard addition was applied to standards in water. These results show that there was not sufficient Fe of any form, or any other constituent in these soil extracts, to interfere with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  quantification using our Lachat QuikChem 8000 with the  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer method.

Dissolved Fe concentrations in these solutions (phenanthroline method after boiling in acid and hydroxylamine; APHA 1989) were  $<1$  mg  $\text{l}^{-1}$  for live soil and 3 mg  $\text{l}^{-1}$  for sterilized soil. Although these dissolved Fe analyses alone might be used to allay concerns about the likelihood of interference, the standard addition protocol provides conclusive proof that there is insufficient dissolved Fe to be of concern. We recommend this standard addition approach to researchers who have archived extracts

**Table 1** Standard additions (2 mg N  $\text{l}^{-1}$ ) of nitrite and nitrate standards to 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  extracts of live and sterilized samples of the Oa horizon (5:1 volume to dry mass ratio) of Harvard Forest soils and to 0.4 mg N  $\text{l}^{-1}$  standards in distilled water

Sample	Replicate	$\text{NO}_2 + \text{NO}_3$ (mg N $\text{l}^{-1}$ )		
		Background	Background + $\text{NO}_2$	Background + $\text{NO}_3$
$\text{NO}_2$ standard	A	0.44	2.62	
$\text{NO}_2$ standard	B	0.45	2.65	
$\text{NO}_2$ standard	C	0.45	2.65	
$\text{NO}_3$ standard	A	0.38		2.59
$\text{NO}_3$ standard	B	0.36		2.57
$\text{NO}_3$ standard	C	0.36		2.54
Live soil	A	0.17	2.01	2.44
Live soil	B	0.13	2.48	2.40
Live soil	C	0.19	2.44	2.46
Sterile soil	A	0.50	2.65	2.48
Sterile soil	B	0.51	2.87	2.64
Sterile soil	C	0.36	2.48	2.68

and who wish to determine if their previous  $\text{NO}_3^-$  analyses were valid. Similarly, new soil samples from the same study site could be extracted and analyzed in this way and this could be a preliminary step to rule out future Fe interference problems before initiating a new study or experiment.

Colman et al. (2007) reported dissolved Fe concentrations ranging up to  $216 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$  in 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  extracts (5:1 ratio) of the thrice autoclaved soils that they studied. The dissolved Fe concentration for an archived Harvard Forest mineral soil provided to them by Bryan Dail was reported as  $97.6 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$  (Colman et al. 2007). Live and twice-autoclaved sterilized subsamples of this same mineral soil sample were subsequently submitted by us for soluble Fe analysis by the University of Maine State Soils Testing Facility, using ICP-AES (TJA model IRIS 1000) where the concentrations were reported as 0.2 and  $1.8 \text{ mg Fe l}^{-1}$  in 10:1 KCl extracts of live and autoclaved samples, respectively. It is possible that there are differences in the techniques used among laboratories to quantify dissolved Fe, but some additional explanation is needed for these huge differences in reported concentrations.

It is possible that the third autoclaving step used by Colman et al. (2007) liberated much more soluble Fe. They also incubated their soil samples in a shaker for 24 h in a saturated solution containing varying concentrations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and then extracted an additional 2 h in 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$ . In contrast, Dail et al. (2001) incubated soils at only 60% water-holding capacity for 24 h, followed by extraction for 20 min in 0.5 M  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  and by washings in water. Similarly, the University of Maine extraction was only 20 min. Incubating the soils under saturated conditions for 24 h and extracting in salt for 2 h may have resulted in solubilization of more Fe in the Colman et al. (2007) study. Dail et al. (2001) also used a  $0.45 \mu\text{m}$  nominal pore size filter, whereas Colman et al. (2007) filtered their extracts with a Pall A/E glass fiber filter with a  $1 \mu\text{m}$  nominal pore size, which could have enabled more colloidal Fe to pass through the filters. A more systematic study of the factors that affect dissolved Fe concentrations in soil extracts is clearly needed. A factorial design that includes soil type, ionic strength of extracting solutions, extractant-to-soil ratios, pore sizes of filters used on extracts, number of autoclaving events, and duration of extraction period would help define the

source of variation in reported dissolved Fe concentrations.

Until a systematic study of this nature can be accomplished, we can note only that the concentrations of dissolved Fe in Harvard Forest extracts observed under the conditions in our laboratories were substantially less than the  $>17 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$  reported by Colman et al. (2007) to cause a significant Fe interference problem for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification. This interpretation is consistent with the lack of interference that we found in standard addition experiments with our soil extracts, where our measurements using the  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer accounted for 100% of the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  added.

### **Why wasn't $\text{NO}_3^-$ immobilization observed by Colman et al. (2007)?**

We have established that dissolved Fe probably did not interfere with quantification of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in extracts of organic and mineral horizon soil samples from the Harvard Forest in the study of Dail et al. (2001), because data from repeated manipulations of soils from this site demonstrate that (1) dissolved Fe concentrations are low; and (2) complete recovery occurs of standard additions of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  to extracts of both live and sterilized samples of these soils at ambient dissolved Fe and pH. Dail et al. (2001) also reported 100% recovery of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  added to Harvard Forest mineral soil samples, demonstrating that there was no Fe interference in extracts of those samples at that time. Hence, we maintain that the results of Dail et al. (2001) are indeed consistent with abiotic immobilization of nitrate. If there is evidence for abiotic immobilization of nitrate from our laboratories, then why did Colman et al. (2007) fail to find evidence for this process in any of the 44 soil samples that they investigated? Besides the differences in details of methodologies already noted above (e.g., ionic strength of extracting solutions, extractant-to-soil ratios, pore sizes of filters used on extracts, number of autoclaving events, and duration of extraction period), we offer three additional plausible explanations.

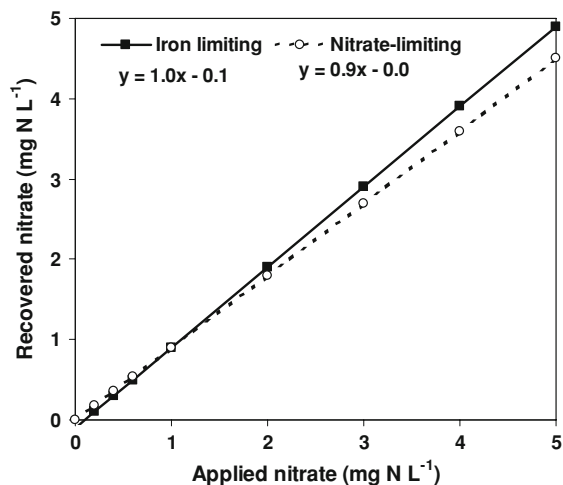
First, Colman et al. (2007) studied primarily mineral soils, although a few of their mineral soils had organic matter contents between 10% and 20%. In the “ferrous wheel hypothesis”, Davidson et al.

(2003) suggested that “ $\text{NO}_3^-$  is reduced to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  in anaerobic microsites of the humus layer, that  $\text{NO}_2^-$  reacts with DOC to form DON, and that oxidized forms of Fe and Mn in soil minerals are eventually reduced again by organic acids and phenolic compounds derived from plants and microorganisms.” There may have been insufficient organic matter and metabolic activity to reduce Fe to the Fe(II) state in microsites in the mineral soils studied by Colman et al. (2007).

Second, the laboratory incubation procedures used by Colman et al. (2007) likely destroyed anaerobic microsites. They used only 4 g of well-mixed, sieved soil in each incubation vial, which would have allowed oxygen to penetrate throughout the sample. It is not surprising that reduction processes did not occur under these conditions. In most laboratory studies of anaerobic processes, such as methanogenesis, denitrification, and  $\text{N}_2$ -fixation, care is taken to mimic undisturbed soil conditions to the extent possible (Davidson and Schimel 1995). In the Dail et al. (2001) study of abiotic immobilization of nitrate, large batches (several kilograms) of moist soil were autoclaved and then moderate amounts (the wet weight equivalent of 30 g dry soil) were aseptically transferred to incubation jars. Subsamples of only 4-g were removed periodically from incubation jars for several analyses conducted at various time points during soil incubation. Hence, these small subsamples were isolated only at the moment of analysis. While autoclaving creates a variety of artifacts, including alteration of the oxidation of some organic soil constituents, it may also promote reductive dissolution of metals, and the oxidation state of metals in solution may then depend on how the soil is subsequently handled while setting up and carrying out incubations (Lotrario et al. 1995). In any case, each study can only claim whether or not abiotic  $\text{NO}_3^-$  immobilization was observed under the particular experimental conditions employed during that study. The conditions employed in the Colman et al. (2007) study were not conducive to maintaining microsites of nitrate reduction, which are a necessary component of the ferrous wheel hypothesis.

Third, Colman et al. (2007) employed a dose-response method that assumes that abiotic immobilization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is a first-order reaction with respect to nitrate. It was assumed that for each dose of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5  $\text{mg NO}_3\text{-N l}^{-1}$ ), the

abiotic immobilization process should remove a constant fraction. If, for example, this first-order process removed 10% of the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  during the incubation period, then the expected recovery would be 0.18, 0.36, 0.54, 0.9, 1.8, 2.7, 3.6, and 4.5  $\text{mg NO}_3\text{-N l}^{-1}$  for each of the respective solutions listed above. The slope of the regression line for this recovery versus the amount added would be 0.9, with an intercept of zero, indicating that 10% was immobilized by the assumed first-order process (Fig. 2). However, the limiting factor is more likely the amount of reactive Fe(II) present in the sample. Most of the Fe in well-aerated soils (especially 4 g of mixed and sieved soil) is in the Fe(III) state, and reduced forms of Fe would occur only in a few microsites. For this process to be quantitatively important at the ecosystem scale, there must be a way that the small number of microsites containing reduced Fe can be regenerated, which is why an abundant supply of organic-C is necessary and why we refer to the hypothesis as a “wheel.” In the Colman et al. (2007) study, if there were still any microsites of reduced Fe in the sieved and aerated



**Fig. 2** Expected results of a dose response experiment when nitrate reduction is limited by either nitrate concentrations or by concentrations of reduced iron. When the reaction is nitrate limited, the reaction is first order with respect to nitrate, and the slope of the line (0.9 in this example) indicates the fraction of added nitrate (10% in this example) that was reduced. When the reaction is limited by microsites of reduced iron in the soil, the slope of nitrate recovery is unity (zero order with respect to nitrate) and the offset (Y-intercept of  $-0.1$  in this example) is a measure of the amount of iron that was available to reduce the nitrate

soil samples when they were treated with the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  solution, they would have been quickly saturated even at the lower end of the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration range; no additional immobilization would be expected with higher  $\text{NO}_3^-$  application rates. If the concentration of Fe(II), rather than  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , is the limiting factor, then one would expect that the slope of recovery in the dose-response relationship should be very near unity, but with a modest offset (a negative intercept) that is equivalent to the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  reduction afforded by the limited number of Fe(II)-containing microsites (Fig. 2). In other words, abiotic immobilization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is probably zero-order with respect to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration and perhaps first order with respect to Fe(II) concentration. A small negative Y-intercept (i.e., a small and identical change in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in all  $\text{NO}_3^-$ -amendment treatments) expected from a zero-order process would be difficult to detect and may not have occurred if all of the reduced Fe in the soil sample had been oxidized during sample preparation. Regardless of whether Fe(II) was present, the method used by Colman et al. (2007) to infer  $\text{NO}_3^-$  immobilization rates based on analysis of slopes in dose-response treatments was flawed by an inappropriate assumption that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was the limiting factor and that the process is first-order with respect to  $\text{NO}_3^-$ .

### Status of the ferrous wheel hypothesis and nitrate quantification

This hypothesized mechanism for abiotic immobilization of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ —that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is reduced to  $\text{NO}_2^-$  by reduced metals [e.g., Fe(II)] in soil microsites, followed by reaction of  $\text{NO}_2^-$  with organic matter to produce organic-N, and subsequent regeneration of reducing microsites by heterotrophic activity in a C-rich medium (Davidson et al. 2003)—remains an unconfirmed hypothesis. It may not be the correct mechanism to explain rapid disappearance of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in live and sterile soils, but, as far as we are aware, it is the only working hypothesis currently under consideration. Meanwhile, evidence for rapid disappearance of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in soils and inferred abiotic immobilization continues to accumulate in the literature (Berntson and Aber 2000; Dail et al. 2001; Davidson et al. 1991; Compton and Boone 2002; Corre et al. 2003, 2006, 2007; Hall and Matson 2003;

Huygens et al. 2008; Magill et al. 2004; Micks et al. 2004; Perakis and Hedin 2001; Sotta et al. 2008; Zogg et al. 2000). While it is possible that some estimates of abiotic immobilization may have been compromised by Fe interference in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification as described by Colman et al. (2007), we have shown that this was not the case in the study of Dail et al. (2001), nor would it have occurred where the imidazole buffer method was used (Huygens et al. 2008), and it is unlikely that all of the other studies contained sufficiently high dissolved Fe concentrations to account for the reported rapid disappearance of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ .

### Conclusions

We have reproduced the effect of high concentrations of dissolved Fe on  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  quantification in an  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer that was reported by Colman et al. (2007), but we have also demonstrated that such high Fe concentrations were not present in the extracts of the Harvard Forest soils under the experimental conditions in our laboratories. Therefore, we stand by our published results on rapid  $\text{NO}_3^-$  disappearance in live and sterilized samples of the O horizon of this forest (Dail et al. 2001). The nature of the Fe interference problem is likely related to EDTA-complexed Fe(II) interfering with the colorimetric analysis of  $\text{NO}_2^-$ , but more work is needed to clarify the mechanism and to refine estimates of the amount of soluble Fe that causes significant error in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  quantification by this analytical method. Such concerns about analytical error certainly merit caution and testing, such as the standard addition of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  described here.

Until this issue can be clarified further, we recommend that before switching buffers in FIA analysis and before discarding old data that were derived from analysis with an  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer, researchers should assess the recovery of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  standard additions on a subset of their soil extracts or water samples to test for possible interferences at native Fe concentrations using the standard  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer in FIA analysis. This approach provides an effective means of determining if Fe interference is potentially important at ambient levels of soluble Fe and pH in any kind of soil extract or water sample. Using the imidazole buffer or some other approach to

precipitate ferric hydroxide, perhaps followed by a method such as dialysis to remove the precipitate, may be necessary for waters and extracts where soluble Fe concentrations are sufficiently high to cause detectable interference of nitrate/nitrite analysis. At present, the  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}$ –EDTA buffer remains the standard method for FIA of nitrite/nitrate and may still be appropriate for many or most circumstances, but checking for potential Fe interference is warranted.

**Acknowledgments** BD would like to thank Bruce Hoskins and Krzysztof Lesniewicz of the Maine Agricultural and Forest Experiment Station Analytical Laboratory for many hours of discussion and analysis regarding N and Fe determinations. This research was supported by NSF grants DEB 0212505, DEB 0212675, and DEB 0212245.

## References

- Alpkem Corporation (1990) Method A303-S170. RFA methodology: nitrate+nitrite nitrogen. Alpkem Corporation, Clackamas
- APHA (1989) Standard methods for the examination of water and wastewater, 17th edn. American Public Health Association, American Water Works Association, Water Pollution Control Federation, Washington
- Berntson GM, Aber JD (2000) The importance of fast nitrate immobilization in N-saturated temperate forest soils. *Soil Biol Biochem* 32:151–156. doi:10.1016/S0038-0717(99)00132-7
- Bundy LG, Meisinger JJ (1994) Nitrogen availability indices. In: Weaver RW, Angle JS, Bottomley PS (eds) *Methods of soil analysis part 2—microbiological and biochemical properties*. Soil Science Society of America, Madison, pp 951–984
- Colman BP, Fierer N, Schimel JP (2007) Abiotic nitrate incorporation in soil: is it real? *Biogeochemistry* 84:161–169. doi:10.1007/s10533-007-9111-5
- Compton J, Boone RD (2002) Soil nitrogen transformations and the role of light fraction organic matter in forest soils. *Soil Biol Biochem* 34:933–943. doi:10.1016/S0038-0717(02)00025-1
- Corre MD, Beese Friedrich O, Brumme R (2003) Soil Nitrogen cycle in high nitrogen deposition forest: changes under nitrogen saturation and liming. *Ecol Appl* 13:287–298. doi:10.1890/1051-0761(2003)013[0287:SNCIHN]2.0.CO;2
- Corre MD, Dechert G, Veldkamp E (2006) Soil nitrogen cycling following montane forest conversion in central Sulawesi, Indonesia. *Soil Sci Soc Am J* 70:359–366. doi:10.2136/sssaj2005.0061
- Corre MD, Brumme R, Veldkamp E, Beese FO (2007) Changes in nitrogen cycling and retention processes in soils under spruce forests along a nitrogen enrichment gradient in Germany. *Glob Chang Biol* 13:1509–1527. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2007.01371.x
- Dail DB, Davidson EA, Chorover J (2001) Rapid abiotic transformation of nitrate in an acid forest soil. *Biogeochemistry* 54:131–146. doi:10.1023/A:1010627431722
- Davidson EA, Schimel JP (1995) Microbial processes of production and consumption of nitric oxide, nitrous oxide and methane. In: Matson PA, Harriss RC (eds) *Biogenic trace gases: measuring emissions from soil and water*. Blackwell Science, Oxford, pp 327–357
- Davidson EA, Hart SC, Shanks CA, Firestone MK (1991) Measuring gross nitrogen mineralization, immobilization, and nitrification by  $^{15}\text{N}$  isotopic pool dilution in intact soil cores. *Eur J Soil Sci* 42:335–349. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2389.1991.tb00413.x
- Davidson EA, Chorover J, Dail DB (2003) A mechanism of abiotic immobilization of nitrate in forest ecosystems: the ferrous wheel hypothesis. *Glob Chang Biol* 9:228–236. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2486.2003.00592.x
- Galloway JN, Dentener FJ, Capone DG, Boyer EW, Howarth RW, Seitzinger SP et al (2004) Nitrogen cycles: past, present and future. *Biogeochemistry* 70:153–226. doi:10.1007/s10533-004-0370-0
- Hall SJ, Matson PA (2003) Nutrient status of tropical rain forests influences soil N dynamics after N additions. *Ecol Monogr* 73:107–129. doi:10.1890/0012-9615(2003)073[0107:NSOTRF]2.0.CO;2
- Herzprung P, Duffek A, Friese K, de Rechter M, Schultze M, Tumpling WV Jr (2005) Modification of a continuous flow method for analysis of trace amounts of nitrate in iron-rich sediment pore-waters of mine pit lakes. *Water Res* 39:1887–1895. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2005.02.017
- Huygens D, Boeckx P, Godoy R, Templer PH, Paulino L, Van Cleemput O, Oyarzun C, Müller C, Godoy R (2008) Mechanisms for retention of bioavailable nitrogen in volcanic rainforest soils. *Nat Geosci* 1:543–548
- Lotrario JB, Stuart BJ, Lam T, Arands RR, O'Connor OA, Kosson DS (1995) Effects of sterilization methods on the physical characteristics of soil: implications for sorption isotherm analyses. *Bull Environ Contam Toxicol* 54:668–675. doi:10.1007/BF00206097
- Magill AH, Aber JD, Currie WS, Nadelhoffer KJ, Martin ME, McDowell WH et al (2004) Ecosystem response to 15 years of chronic nitrogen additions at the Harvard Forest LTER, Massachusetts, USA. *For Ecol Manage* 196:7–28. doi:10.1016/j.foreco.2004.03.033
- Micks P, Aber JD, Davidson EA, Boone RD (2004) Short-term soil respiration and nitrogen immobilization response to nitrogen applications in control and nitrogen-enriched temperate forests. *For Ecol Manage* 196:57–70. doi:10.1016/j.foreco.2004.03.012
- Mulvaney RL (1996) Nitrogen—inorganic forms. In: Sparks DL (ed) *Methods of soil analysis, part 3—chemical methods*. Soil Science Society of America and American Society of Agronomy, Madison, pp 1123–1184
- Nydahl F (1976) On the optimum conditions for the reduction of nitrate to nitrite by cadmium. *Talanta* 23:349–357. doi:10.1016/0039-9140(76)80047-1
- Ottley CJ, Davidson W, Edmunds WM (1997) Chemical catalysis of nitrate reduction by iron(II). *Geochim Cosmochim Acta* 61:1819–1828. doi:10.1016/S0016-7037(97)00058-6



- Patton CJ, Fischer AE, Campbell WH, Campbell ER (2002) Corn leaf nitrate reductase—a nontoxic alternative to cadmium for photometric nitrate determinations in water samples by air-segmented continuous-flow analysis. *Environ Sci Technol* 36:729–735. doi:[10.1021/es011132a](https://doi.org/10.1021/es011132a)
- Perakis SS, Hedin LO (2001) Fluxes and fates of nitrogen in soil of an unpolluted old-growth temperate forest, southern Chile. *Ecology* 82:2245–2260
- Sotta ED, Corre MD, Veldkamp E (2008) Differing N status and N retention processes of soils under old-growth lowland forest in Eastern Amazonia, Caxiuana, Brazil. *Soil Biol Biochem* 40:740–750. doi:[10.1016/j.soilbio.2007.10.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2007.10.009)
- Stumm W, Morgan JJ (1996) *Aquatic chemistry: chemical equilibria and rates in natural waters*, 3rd edn. Wiley, New York
- UNEP and WHRC (2007) Reactive nitrogen in the environment: too much or too little of a good thing. In: Davidson EA, Arden-Clarke C, Braun E (eds) *The United Nations environment programme*, Paris, France
- U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (1983) Nitrogen, nitrate-nitrite. Method 353.2 (colorimetric, automated, cadmium reduction). *Methods for chemical analysis of water and wastes*, EPA-600/4-79-020. USEPA, Cincinnati, pp 353-352.351–353-352.355
- Van Cleemput O, Baert L (1983) Nitrite stability influenced by iron compounds. *Soil Biol Biochem* 15:137–140
- Zogg P, Zak D, Pregitzer K, Burton A (2000) Microbial immobilization and the retention of anthropogenic nitrate in a northern hardwood forest. *Ecology* 81:1858–1866