

1 **High-frequency monitoring of nitrogen and phosphorus**
2 **response in three rural catchments to the end of the 2011-**
3 **12 drought in England**

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22
23 **Abstract**

24 This paper uses high-frequency bankside measurements from three catchments selected as
25 part of the UK Government funded Demonstration Test Catchments (DTC) project. We
26 compare the hydrological and hydrochemical patterns during the water year 2011-12 from the
27 Wylfe tributary of the River Avon with mixed land use, the Blackwater tributary of the River

1 Wensum with arable land use and the Newby Beck tributary of the River Eden with grassland
2 land use. The beginning of the hydrological year was unusually dry and all three catchments
3 were in states of drought. A sudden change to a wet summer occurred in April 2012 when a
4 heavy rainfall event affected all three catchments. The year-long time-series and the
5 individual storm responses captured by *in situ* nutrient measurements of nitrate and
6 phosphorus (total phosphorus and total reactive phosphorus) concentrations at each site
7 reveal different pollutant sources and pathways operating in each catchment. Large storm-
8 induced nutrient transfers of nitrogen and phosphorus to each stream were recorded at all
9 three sites during the late April rainfall event. Hysteresis loops suggested transport-limited
10 delivery of nitrate in the Blackwater and of total phosphorus in the Wylde and Newby Beck,
11 which was thought to be exacerbated by the dry antecedent conditions prior to the storm. The
12 high rate of nutrient transport in each system highlights the scale of the challenges faced by
13 environmental managers when designing mitigation measures to reduce the flux of nutrients
14 to rivers from diffuse agricultural sources. It also highlights the scale of the challenge in
15 adapting to future extreme weather events under a changing climate.

16

17 **Keywords:** High-frequency monitoring, catchments, nitrogen, phosphorus, hysteresis,
18 Demonstration Test Catchments

19 **1. Introduction**

20 The European Union Water Framework Directive (WFD) (European Parliament, 2000) is one
21 of the most ambitious and encompassing pieces of water policy introduced on an
22 international basis in recent years (Dworak et al., 2005; Johnes, 2007a; Liefferink et al.,
23 2011). The aim of the WFD is to maintain and improve the quality of inland and coastal
24 waterbodies, largely based on ecological rather than chemical status. It is well documented
25 that, throughout Europe, nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) enrichment is contributing to the
26 degradation of surface and groundwater bodies. Enrichment of N and P is leading to non-
27 compliance with legislation, albeit with different sources, mobilisation mechanisms,
28 timescales of loss, transformations, attenuation pathways and types of ecological impact
29 (Withers and Lord, 2002; Cherry et al., 2008; Billen et al., 2011; Grizzetti et al., 2011; Leip et
30 al., 2011). Improved nutrient removal at wastewater treatment plants has been effective at
31 reducing point source inputs to waterbodies, which means that non-point or diffuse sources

1 are becoming relatively more important. Improved monitoring has been identified as integral
2 to the success of the WFD (Dworak et al., 2005; Johnes, 2007b; Lloyd et al., 2014) and,
3 therefore, requires a transition from conventional strategic monitoring networks to those that
4 support a more integrated approach to water management (Collins et al., 2012). The current
5 national water quality monitoring performed by the Environment Agency (EA) in England,
6 despite the deployment of *in-situ* monitoring stations under the National Water Quality
7 Instrumentation Service (NWQIS), largely consists of monthly spot sampling, particularly for
8 the determination of nutrient chemistry. Such infrequent sampling has been widely
9 documented as being inadequate for representative assessment of water quality. Weekly
10 sampling typically misses critical storm events, which undermines characterisation of the
11 close coupling between hydrological and chemical dynamics, and results in erroneous
12 estimation of concentrations and loads (Kirchner et al., 2004; Johnes, 2007b; Palmer-Felgate
13 et al., 2008; Jordan and Cassidy, 2011; Wade et al., 2012; Lloyd et al., 2014). Even daily
14 samples fail to represent the complexity of diurnal patterns of many hydrochemical
15 determinands in catchments (Kirchner et al., 2004; Scholefield et al., 2005; Wade et al.,
16 2012). An accurate understanding of the relative contributions and timing of N and P inputs
17 to rivers and streams is important for targeting effective mitigation (Jarvie et al., 2010). High
18 temporal resolution water quality monitoring is central to the science that will allow
19 achievement of WFD aims in respect of managing nutrient impacts in the freshwater
20 environment (Jordan et al., 2005).

21 The greatest change in concentration and riverine transport of nutrients often happens during
22 storm events (Evans and Johnes, 2004; Haygarth et al., 2005; Heathwaite et al., 2006;
23 Rozemeijer and Broers, 2007; Haygarth et al., 2012). Hysteresis patterns in concentration-
24 discharge plots during periods of high flow can be used to compare nutrient concentrations on
25 the rising and falling limbs of a hydrograph. Hysteresis loops have frequently been used to
26 infer sources and potential pathways of pollutants in catchments (Evans and Davies, 1998;
27 House and Warwick, 1998; McKee et al., 2000; Bowes et al., 2005; Ide et al., 2008; Siwek et
28 al., 2013). “Clockwise” loop trajectories arise from the rapid delivery of the pollutant from
29 source to sampling point, which suggests close proximity of the source (Bowes et al., 2005).
30 “Anticlockwise” trajectories are likely to be associated with slower subsurface pollutant
31 pathways in the case of dissolved determinands (House and Warwick, 1998) and slow
32 transport of coarse suspended sediment, eroded soil and subsequent sediment delivery from
33 upper slopes or bank seepage for pollutants more associated with particle-bound transport

1 (Bowes et al., 2005). Inferences of runoff pathways based on concentration-discharge plots
2 are strongest when additional information is available about prominent hydrograph
3 components and when source end member concentrations are available (Chanat et al., 2002).
4 However, hysteresis plots are simple to construct and the different shapes produced can be
5 used to infer major processes determining pollutant transport, which can inform more
6 intensive studies of source end members and pathways using isotopes and other geochemical
7 tracers.

8 The Demonstration Test Catchments (DTCs) programme in England is based in three
9 representative catchments (Figure 1) with different landscape characteristics and farming
10 systems. The aim of the programme is to assess whether new farming practices, targeted to
11 reduce diffuse pollution from agriculture, can also deliver sustainable food production and
12 environmental benefits (LWEC, 2013). Target sub-catchments have been equipped with high
13 sampling frequency bankside stations which monitor nitrate, total phosphorus (TP) and total
14 reactive phosphorus (TRP) concentrations in the water column at each site. Researchers are
15 using the high-frequency data during the first phase of research to study nutrient dynamics
16 under ‘business as usual’ farm activities before the implementation of a variety of different
17 mitigation measures on participating farms during the second phase of research.

18 The aim of this paper is to examine the hydrological and hydrochemical patterns recorded in
19 the different DTCs during the hydrological year 2011-12, including an examination a sharp
20 transition from drought stress to flood risk across much of England in late April 2012 when a
21 large storm moved over the country. The three study tributaries from each DTC are: the
22 Wylde tributary in the Hampshire Avon catchment; the Blackwater Drain tributary in the
23 Wensum catchment; and the Newby Beck tributary in the Eden catchment. Antecedent
24 conditions, hydrochemical signals, hysteresis loops and export rates have been used to
25 examine the possible nutrient transport mechanisms triggered in response to the unusual
26 meteorological conditions captured in each tributary using data gathered by *in situ* monitors.

27

28 **2. Methodology**

29 **2.1 Site descriptions**

30 The location of the three DTCs is shown in Figure 1 and Table 1 provides a summary of the
31 main characteristics of each catchment. The Cretaceous Chalk, the UK’s principal aquifer

1 dominates the hydrogeology of the Avon catchment. The Hampshire Avon and its tributaries
2 have high base flow indices (>0.7) (Marsh and Hannaford, 2008). The Upper Greensand unit
3 also supports the baseflow (Soley et al., 2012). The River Wylfe sub-catchment is underlain
4 by Chalk, with Upper Greensand in the west of the sub-catchment. The Upper Greensand
5 aquifer is underlain by Gault Clay providing an impermeable layer which means that the
6 overlying shallow aquifers can be very productive (Allen et al., 2014). Farming systems in
7 this sub-catchment tend to be intensive mixed arable and livestock production; N fertiliser
8 application rates on crops such as winter wheat are typically in excess of 200 kg N ha^{-1} .
9 Diffuse sources of N and P dominate stream loads in the headwaters of the Wylfe (Yates and
10 Johnes, 2013), compromising its ecological status under the WFD.

11 As in the Hampshire Avon, the Chalk aquifer underlies the Wensum catchment. To the east
12 of the catchment, the Chalk is overlain by the Pleistocene Wroxham Crag Formation of sands
13 and gravels. A complex sequence of Quaternary strata over much of the catchment is formed
14 of glacial tills, sands, gravels, alluvium, peat and river terrace deposits. Low permeability
15 tills in excess of 15 m in interfluvial areas restrict infiltration to the underlying Chalk aquifer
16 (Hiscock, 1993; Hiscock et al., 1996; Lewis, 2014). In the Blackwater sub-catchment, the
17 western reach is underlain by glacial tills with clay-rich, seasonally wet soils developed on
18 chalky boulder clay, whereas in the eastern reach the deposits comprise glacial sands and
19 gravels with well drained sandy loam soils. The Blackwater sub-catchment is used for
20 intensive arable production with N fertiliser application rates of around 220 kg N ha^{-1} on
21 cereal crops. The ecological status of the Blackwater tributary is compromised by high rural
22 N, P and sediment inputs.

23 The Eden Valley in Cumbria is generally underlain by Permo-Triassic sandstone, which is
24 classed as a Principal Aquifer. Sandstone outcrop covers approximately 20% of the
25 catchment. Superficial deposits cover the remaining 80% of sandstone and consist of glacial
26 tills and sands and river alluvium. Generally, these superficial deposits are thin with less than
27 2 m thickness over 60% of the catchment but do exceed a thickness of 30 m to the west of
28 Brough. Depth to groundwater is significant over much of the Eden catchment (Butcher et al.,
29 2008). Unlike the majority of the Eden catchment, the Newby Beck sub-catchment is
30 underlain by low permeability glacial deposits over Carboniferous limestone. Newby Beck a
31 typical grassland sub-catchment encompassing a mixture of dairy and beef production.
32 Fertiliser application rates on grassland are about 56 kg N ha^{-1} and 17 kg P ha^{-1} , whereas on
33 arable land, rates are about 127 kg N ha^{-1} with variable slurry applications for P and K. The

1 wetter and colder climate in the Eden catchment means there are fewer optimal days for
2 cultivation so that seed beds are established in sub-optimal conditions. This often results in
3 less vegetation cover and in some cases, no establishment, resulting in high inputs of
4 sediment and associated P to receiving waters.

5 **2.2 DTC monitoring infrastructure**

6 Each DTC has installed a monitoring network in target sub-catchments to measure
7 meteorological, hydrological and hydrochemical parameters. Rainfall is monitored using
8 tipping bucket rain gauges. At all monitoring sites, river discharge is gauged at 15- or 30-
9 minute resolution. In the Wylde, discharge is measured at 15 minute resolution at an EA flow
10 monitoring station at Brixton Deverill. Pressure transducers housed in stilling wells in the
11 Blackwater and Newby Beck record stage at 30-minute temporal resolution. Stage data are
12 used in combination with regular flow gauging data to develop stage-discharge rating curves.
13 Further data are being collected using *in situ* acoustic Doppler flow meters (Argonaut-SW,
14 Sontek) in the Blackwater and Newby Beck to estimate discharge using velocity measured
15 from two vertical acoustic beams, together with the stage and stream profile. Nutrient
16 concentration data are collected at 30-minute temporal resolution using walk-in sampling
17 stations located in each sub-catchment. Each station is equipped with Hach Lange nutrient
18 analysers. A Nitratax Plus SC probe is housed in a flow-through cell, which measures nitrate
19 (as NO₃-N) using an optical sensor. A Phosphax Sigma draws samples from the flow-through
20 cell via a Sigmatax SC sampling and homogenisation unit to measure P (as TRP and TP), as
21 documented elsewhere (Owen et al., 2012; Wade et al., 2012).

22 **2.3 Quality Assurance and Quality Control procedures**

23 Quality Assurance (QA) procedures are followed during data collection. The Nitratax Plus
24 SC sensors are calibrated every three months using a standard solution. The Phosphax Sigma
25 is automatically cleaned and calibrated daily using reagents that are replaced every three
26 months. Additional cleaning of removable parts within the Sigmatax is carried out monthly,
27 with pump tubing replaced every three months. This frequency of calibration and
28 maintenance is sufficient to minimise drift in the *in situ* measurements.

29 Regular maintenance activities are carried out at different frequencies across the three sub-
30 catchments but involve at least monthly cleaning of flow-through cells, weekly clearing of in-

1 channel vegetation and debris where stage is monitored and cleaning of rain gauges. All
2 DTCs perform manual flow gauging during periods of extreme high and low flows, which
3 show good agreement with discharge produced by *in situ* flow meters. All field work and
4 maintenance activities are entered into maintenance logs for each site, which are used during
5 data quality control (QC) procedures.

6 QC procedures include the validation of high-frequency nutrient data using routine daily spot
7 samples in the Wylie, weekly spot samples in the Blackwater and monthly spot samples in
8 Newby Beck. These samples are analysed in laboratories following standard methods. Inter-
9 laboratory comparisons are used to check consistency in analytical procedures between sub-
10 catchments. A Pearson correlation has been used to assess the strength of relationship
11 between laboratory data and the *in situ* equipment during the hydrological year 2011-12
12 (Table 1 in the supplementary material) where a positive residual represents an over
13 estimation of nutrient concentration by the *in situ* equipment. Corrections of high-frequency
14 data against laboratory measurements were not necessary for the data included in this
15 manuscript.

16 QC procedures also include the identification of errors in all data sets. Errors flagged as
17 critical include: periods of maintenance when the data may be unrepresentative; equipment
18 and power failures; or data below limits of detection. Flagged data were not included in this
19 analysis. Discharge data from the Blackwater presented here have been smoothed using a
20 moving average window of five measurements. QA and QC procedures were followed for all
21 data reported in this paper.

22 **2.4 Antecedent Precipitation Index calculation**

23 A simple Antecedent Precipitation Index (API) was calculated for the three tributaries to
24 represent the antecedent moisture conditions throughout the hydrological year from October
25 2011 to September 2012. The API was calculated according to Saxton and Lenz (1967) using
26 equation 1:

$$27 \quad API_j = K(API_{j-1} + P_{j-1}) \quad (1)$$

28 where j is the number of days, P is the daily precipitation (mm day^{-1}) and K is a decay
29 constant. The value of K varies seasonally reflecting evapotranspiration losses and is usually
30 between 0.85 and 0.98. A fixed value of 0.9 was chosen for all three sites.

1 **2.5 Hysteresis index calculation**

2 The concentration-discharge relationships of nitrate, TP and TRP, were investigated in each
3 of the events in the Wyllye, Blackwater and Newby Beck (Figures 5-7). To aid comparisons
4 between events and sub-catchments, a hysteresis index, HI_{mid} , was calculated using the
5 method outlined by Lawler et al. (2006). The mid-point discharge (Q_{mid}) was calculated and
6 the nutrient parameter values were interpolated at the Q_{mid} for the rising (N_{RL}) and falling
7 (N_{FL}) limbs. HI_{mid} was then calculated as follows: where $N_{RL} > N_{FL}$, $HI_{mid} = (N_{RL}/N_{FL})-1$, or
8 where $N_{RL} < N_{FL}$, $HI_{mid} = (-1/ (N_{RL}/N_{FL}))+1$. The index indicates whether the hysteresis is
9 positive (i.e. clockwise) or negative (i.e. anticlockwise), and the higher the index value, the
10 greater the difference in concentration of the nutrient on the rising and falling limbs of the
11 hydrograph (Table 4).

12

13 **3. Results**

14 **3.1 Temporal hydrological and hydrochemical trends**

15 Figure 2 shows the high-frequency time-series data for the three sites from October 2011 to
16 September 2012 for nitrate, TP, discharge, rainfall and API for the Blackwater and Newby
17 Beck and the same range of variables for the Wyllye from March to September 2012. There
18 were step changes in the Wyllye discharge data which were caused by the turning on and off
19 of a groundwater borehole discharge point, operated by Wessex Water, as a method of stream
20 support during dry periods, (Figure 2a). Discharge in the Wyllye had relatively few individual
21 discharge peaks relating to specific periods of rainfall, but long recessions after extended
22 periods of rainfall when API values were high. The start of the hydrological year was very
23 dry, with discharge increasing only at the end of April 2012. Two periods of maximum
24 discharge occurred in May, and then again in July to August. The baseflow contribution of
25 nitrate was around 7 mg N L^{-1} throughout the monitored period. The nearest borehole to the
26 sampling point had an average nitrate concentration of 6.9 mg N L^{-1} . The baseflow nitrate
27 signal was consistently diluted during storm periods. The TP record shows that some large
28 peaks occurred in the year, reaching 1 mg P L^{-1} during the late April storm. Large peaks,
29 however, appear to be relatively infrequent occurring only at times with high API values.

1 The Blackwater also experienced a dry winter in 2011-2012 but with some heavier rainfall in
2 January and March. Despite the rainfall in January 2012, discharge only responded with the
3 onset of rainfall in March and then again in April and May for a more sustained period. The
4 hydrograph showed long recession limbs during individual events, but to a lesser extent than
5 the Wylie. Nitrate concentrations in the Blackwater showed dilution patterns from October to
6 December in response to rainfall in the sub-catchment. From January onwards peaks in
7 nitrate concentration beyond the baseflow concentrations were observed with concentration
8 maximum of 14 mg N L^{-1} . Nitrate peaks became less pronounced by August 2012. There
9 were large gaps in the TP record due to equipment failures. From the available record it is
10 clear that TP concentrations responded quite rapidly to rainfall and increased discharge
11 throughout the year and even to small events. Peak TP concentrations were commonly around
12 0.15 mg P L^{-1} which were much lower in the Blackwater than in the Wylie and Newby Beck
13 sub-catchments.

14 In contrast to the Wylie and the Blackwater, the winter rainfall at the end of 2011 in the
15 Newby Beck sub-catchment was fairly typical but, similar to the Wylie, Newby Beck had
16 unusually dry conditions for the early part of 2012 until the late April event. The discharge
17 record showed steep rising and falling limbs during individual storm events. The nitrate
18 concentrations were much lower in Newby Beck than in the Wylie and Blackwater. However,
19 similar to the Blackwater, the nitrate signal was diluted during periods of rainfall at the end of
20 2011 in Newby Beck but from April until July 2012 there were peaks in the nitrate signal in
21 response to peak runoff. Peak nitrate concentrations were much lower than in the Blackwater,
22 at around 6 mg N L^{-1} . Peaks in the TP signal in Newby Beck occurred very rapidly during
23 times of rainfall with concentrations frequently exceeding 0.6 mg P L^{-1} .

24 **3.2 Antecedent conditions and April storm response**

25 In April 2012 there was higher than average rainfall in each DTC prior to a large storm which
26 moved across the country between 25 and 29 April. The impact of this storm event was
27 monitored in all three of the DTCs and marked the transition from an extreme dry period to a
28 wet spring and summer. Table 2 summarises the rainfall characteristics in each DTC during
29 this transition period. Both the Wylie and Blackwater had two stormflow peaks in response
30 to this storm whereas Newby Beck had only one peak, on 25 April. The API values for the
31 Wylie, Blackwater and Newby Beck sub-catchments before the commencement of the storm
32 were 26, 30 and 10, respectively, showing that soils had already begun to wet up in the

1 Wylze and the Blackwater sub-catchments, while conditions in the Newby Beck sub-
2 catchment were extremely dry until the storm event. API values increased to a maximum of
3 74, 44 and 20 in the Wylze, Blackwater and Newby Beck, respectively, during the April
4 storm. The higher starting API and maximum rainfall totals resulted in the largest event API
5 value in the Wylze, whereas the lowest starting API value and the lowest rainfall total in
6 Newby Beck explained the smallest of the maximum event API values of the three sub-
7 catchments.

8 To put these storms at the end of April 2012 in context, exceedance curves for a) flow, b)
9 nitrate concentration and c) TP concentration for each of the monitoring sites were calculated
10 using data from one hydrological year (Oct 2011-Sept 2012). These plots (Figure 3) show the
11 conditions in each sub-catchment prior to the hydrological response and at peak response
12 during the late April event. It should be noted that there are substantial gaps in the TP and
13 nitrate record for the Wylze and the TP record in the Blackwater owing to equipment
14 malfunction. The flow duration curve plot (Figure 3a) shows that prior to the onset of the first
15 event in the Wylze, flow conditions were very low relative to the rest of the year (87.9%
16 exceedance), paralleling the dry antecedent soil conditions. The first rainfall event caused a
17 small hydrological response (18.2 % exceedance) but flows receded quickly before the
18 second, more extreme event occurred (0.02% exceedance). In the Blackwater, by contrast,
19 there were already relatively high flows before the first event (5.9% exceedance), due to
20 heavy rainfall at the end of March and continued wet conditions in April 2012. Hence, in this
21 sub-catchment, both events resulted in extreme high flows (0.04 and 0.9% exceedance,
22 respectively). Newby Beck had a higher relative flow than the Wylze prior to the event (61%
23 exceedance), but a high discharge maximum was recorded (0.6% exceedance). The rainfall
24 associated with this storm event analysis resulted in extreme flows in all three sub-
25 catchments, regardless of antecedent soil moisture conditions.

26 The nitrate exceedance curve for the Wylze (Figure 3b) shows that there was little variation
27 in concentration for the period monitored in the year. Stream nitrate concentration was 6.3
28 mg N L⁻¹ before the rainfall commenced, which was diluted during both hydrograph events
29 (5.3 and 2.7 mg N L⁻¹ and 97.6 and 99.6% exceedance, respectively). During the second
30 event, one of the lowest concentrations of the year was detected. In contrast, nitrate
31 concentrations in the Blackwater prior to both events were relatively high (6.5 and 7.0 mg N
32 L⁻¹ and 31.8 and 9.7% exceedance, respectively). The peak responses were amongst some of
33 the highest nitrate concentrations recorded in the hydrological year (13.5 and 11.6 mg N L⁻¹

1 and 0.8 and 1% exceedance, respectively). There were no nitrate data for Newby Beck during
2 this event as the nitrate sensor was not working.

3 Pre-event TP concentrations were low in all three sub-catchments, with a pre-event
4 concentration and exceedance of 0.1 mg P L⁻¹ and 97.2%, respectively, in the Wylfe; 0.03 mg
5 P L⁻¹ and 82.6%, respectively, in the Blackwater and 0.03 mg P L⁻¹ and 92.7% respectively, in
6 Newby Beck (Figure 3c). All three tributaries had high P concentrations during the peak of
7 the first event with concentrations and exceedance of 0.89 mg P L⁻¹ and 0.3% respectively, in
8 the Wylfe; 0.33 mg P L⁻¹ and 0.4% respectively, in the Blackwater, and 1 mg P L⁻¹ and 0.003%
9 respectively, in Newby Beck. During the second event in the Wylfe, similarly high
10 concentration and exceedance were recorded (0.97 mg L⁻¹ and 0.02%, respectively), whereas
11 in the Blackwater the second event a lower concentration and exceedance were recorded (0.1
12 mg L⁻¹ and 19.4%, respectively) during the second event.

13 **3.3 Hydrograph response**

14 A total of 88 mm of rainfall was recorded in the Wylfe during the large, drought-ending
15 event which occurred on 25-26 April (45 mm) and 29 April (43 mm). The total rainfall in the
16 Wylfe was the highest of the three tributaries. The first amount of rainfall resulted in a small
17 discharge maximum of 0.3 m³ s⁻¹ (<0.1 mm h⁻¹, 134% of pre-event discharge), followed by a
18 second larger peak of 1.6 m³s⁻¹ on 29 April (0.1 mm h⁻¹, 361% of pre-event discharge (Figure
19 4a). In the Blackwater, the total rainfall between the 25 and 26 of April was 19 mm, which
20 largely fell on the 25 April. A maximum discharge of 1.4 m³s⁻¹ was recorded (0.3 mm h⁻¹,
21 699% of pre-event discharge; Figure 4b). Another 20 mm of rain was recorded between 27
22 and 29 April, resulting in a second discharge peak on the 29 April with a maximum flow of
23 0.9 m³s⁻¹ (0.2 mm h⁻¹, 213% of pre-event discharge). In Newby Beck the total rainfall
24 between 25 – 27 April was 32 mm, with 79% falling on 26 April, resulting in maximum flow
25 of 3.7 m³s⁻¹ (1 mm h⁻¹, 2425 % of pre-event discharge; Figure 4c). A small amount of rainfall
26 was also recorded on 29 April, but there was little response recorded in river discharge.

27 **3.4 Nitrate, TP and TRP chemograph response**

28 The chemographs for nitrate, TP and TRP during the study event have showed very different
29 responses in the Wylfe, Blackwater and Newby Beck sub-catchments (Figure 4). In the
30 Wylfe, the stream nitrate chemograph showed dilution with the onset of rainfall, the second

1 event showing greater dilution than the first. In the Blackwater, by contrast, after a small
2 initial dilution in nitrate, concentrations increased far above pre-event values, which peaked
3 after maximum discharge. The nitrate chemograph had a very long recession limb which
4 spanned several days. The peak nitrate concentration was higher in the first event. The
5 chemograph for TP in the Wylde had a very steep rising limb and a much shallower falling
6 limb, which peaked at the same time as discharge in the first event but slightly after in the
7 second events. Peak TP concentrations were similar between the first and second events. TP
8 and TRP chemographs in the Blackwater had steep rising limbs which peaked before
9 maximum flow in the first event but had little response in the second. In Newby Beck the TP
10 chemograph had a double peak on the steep rising limb, which peaked roughly at the same
11 time as discharge and had a shallower falling limb. The TRP chemograph by contrast, had
12 three small peaks, the largest of which occurred after maximum discharge, again, with a long
13 recession limb.

14 Stream N and P loadings were also calculated for each rainfall event listed in Table 3, along
15 with total stream flow volumes. For the purposes of this paper, load calculation did not
16 include any estimation of the associated uncertainty. Nitrate-N exports were an order of
17 magnitude higher in the Blackwater than the Wylde, exporting over a tonne of N in each
18 event. The first event in the Blackwater had the highest load with an export yield to
19 downstream reaches of $0.69 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$. TP exports were slightly higher in the Wylde and
20 Newby Beck compared to the Blackwater. The highest TP export observed was from the
21 second event in the Wylde with an export yield of $0.01 \text{ kg P ha}^{-1}$. TRP exports were, again,
22 comparable, with very similar export rates in the Blackwater and Newby Beck of around
23 $0.004 \text{ kg P ha}^{-1}$.

24 **3.5 Hysteresis response**

25 During the first rainfall event, nitrate hysteresis plots showed anticlockwise trajectories in
26 both the Wylde and Blackwater, but the shapes of the loops were very different. The overall
27 trajectory of the first hysteresis loop in the Wylde was anticlockwise with a negative HI_{mid}
28 value (Table 4), although it started in a clockwise direction (Figure 5a). The second event
29 (Figure 5b) produced a figure-of-eight shaped loop in the Wylde which remained clockwise
30 on the falling limb, hence the positive HI_{mid} value. In the Blackwater, the clockwise nitrate
31 loops for both events started and ended from the bottom left of the plot (Figure 5 c and d), as

1 opposed to the top left of the plot in the case of the Wylfe. The HI_{mid} value in the Blackwater
2 was higher for the first event than the second (Table 4).

3 The TP loop for the first event in the Wylfe was anticlockwise (Figure 6a) with a negative
4 HI_{mid} value (Table 4). In the second event, the loop was a figure-of-eight shape (Figure 6b),
5 which was mostly clockwise with a positive HI_{mid} value (Table 4). The TP concentration
6 exceeded the 1 mg P L^{-1} limit fixed by the instrument at that time. In the Blackwater, both TP
7 (Figure 6c and d) and TRP concentrations (Figure 7c and d) produced clockwise loops in
8 both events. Concentrations were lower in the second event, producing a substantially lower
9 HI_{mid} value (Table 4). In Newby Beck, TP and TRP produced very different shaped loops.
10 The TP loop was narrow but steep (Figure 6e) with a small clockwise trajectory at the
11 beginning, followed by a second, larger clockwise trajectory for the remainder of the rising
12 limb, which switched to an anticlockwise trajectory on the falling limb. The small HI_{mid} value
13 was negative (Table 4). The TRP loop had two clockwise trajectories followed by a large
14 anticlockwise trajectory on the falling limb, hence the negative HI_{mid} value (Figure 7c; Table
15 4).

16

17 **4. Discussion**

18 **4.1 Longer-term hydrological and hydrochemical dynamics**

19 With high-frequency monitoring it is possible to infer a great deal about general influences on
20 riverine water quality (Jordan et al., 2005; Jordan et al., 2007; Halliday et al., 2014). The
21 discharge, nitrate and TP records from the monitoring stations from a water year reveal that
22 hydrological processes and nutrient dynamics were different between the three sub-
23 catchments. In the Wylfe, the high nitrate concentration in the chalk aquifer is likely to
24 account for the relatively stable trend in nitrate concentrations in the channel, diluted at times
25 of rainfall. The dilution of nitrate concentration during events is likely due to the delivery of
26 relatively low nitrate water flushed to the stream from near-surface sources, which dilutes the
27 relatively high nitrate water delivered to the stream from the chalk aquifer. Nitrate
28 concentrations increased on the falling limb of the hydrograph in line with classic nitrate
29 dilution trends reported for permeable catchments in a range of prior publications (Burt et al.,
30 1988; Johnes and Burt, 1993). During storm events in April and July TP concentrations
31 increased and peaked at the same time as the highest API values, representing the flushing of

1 P-rich near-surface sources activated during periods of high saturation in an otherwise
2 subsurface-driven sub-catchment. This is supported by results reported by Yates and Johnes
3 (2013) in a wider study of nutrient hydrochemistry dynamics captured at daily sampling
4 frequency at multiple sites in the Upper Wylye catchment with P flushing to the river from
5 bankside septic tanks during extreme high flow events.

6 In the Blackwater tributary, groundwater in the underlying chalk aquifer has very low nitrate
7 concentrations ($<0.1 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$) due to the restriction of recharge through the cover of low
8 permeability clay loam soils developed on thick glacial deposits. The year-round baseflow
9 nitrate concentration of around 4 mg N L^{-1} at the monitoring point is most likely derived from
10 the high nitrate input of the western tributaries in the sub-catchment which have more
11 impermeable clay soils, high nitrogen inputs from arable land and a dense network of tile
12 drains. Weekly sampling of tile drain discharge has shown that nitrate concentrations were
13 frequently between 3 and 20 mg N L^{-1} , with concentrations in some of the deeper more
14 continuously flowing drains of around 10 mg N L^{-1} , even in the summer months. The upward
15 gradient of low-nitrate, deeper groundwater sources, through the more permeable glacial
16 deposits upstream of the sampling point is thought to dilute this higher nitrate signal arriving
17 from upstream. From October to December 2011, the dilution of stream nitrate with rainfall
18 events occurred at times when the API values were low. From the end of January 2012,
19 nitrate peaks which exceeded the baseflow concentration during the recession periods of
20 individual storms coincided with higher API values. The nitrate peaks were attributed to
21 greater levels of saturation in the sub-catchment which would cause a greater number of tile
22 drains to flow into tributary streams containing high nitrate concentrations from mineral
23 fertiliser input in the upper part of the sub-catchment. The frequent occurrences of TP peaks
24 even with small rainfall events show that P is easily mobilised. Sediment fingerprinting
25 investigations carried out in the western part of the Blackwater suggest that clay-rich topsoils
26 contribute proportionally more to the suspended particulate matter load measured in the
27 stream at the beginning of storm events, whereas calcium-rich, less weathered subsoils
28 exposed in the eroded stream channel bank contribute proportionally more during the
29 recession period (Cooper et al., 2013), the former likely to be rich in P due to the arable field
30 origin.

31 The operation of rapid runoff response pathways (surface runoff and preferential flow in
32 drains) and the lower baseflow index (Table 1) explain the flashy nature of Newby Beck.
33 Groundwater contribution to streamflow is likely to be much less important during stormflow

1 than in the other sub-catchments due to the depth of the aquifer, particularly after a period of
2 drought during which groundwater recharge might be expected. The very low nitrate
3 concentrations under baseflow conditions were due to the lower inputs from nitrogen
4 fertilisers, as arable farming only makes up a small proportion of the land use, and there is no
5 nitrate-rich baseflow contribution in this tributary. The series of nitrate peaks observed
6 between April and July 2012 (Figure 2) are likely to reflect a combination of both incidental
7 and preferential transfers of nitrate as a response to spreading of animal wastes and fertilisers,
8 and the flushing out of mineralised nitrate which accumulated in soil runoff pathways as a
9 result of the winter drought period. Rapid surface runoff generation exacerbated by extensive
10 soil compaction from livestock trampling and silage production is thought to be responsible
11 for soil erosion, resulting in the rapid response in TP concentration to increasing flow at the
12 sampling point. Tramlines created by farm machinery also promote high connectivity
13 between sources and receiving waters by channelling flow downslope. Tile drain flow is also
14 likely to be a significant rapid response pathway once soils have reached field capacity.

15 The hydrochemical trends revealed by the bankside monitors are in agreement with the
16 international literature. Subsurface N transport dominates in sub-catchments with permeable
17 soils and geology, whereas near surface P transfer dominates in sub-catchments with poor to
18 moderately drained soils (Burt et al., 1988; Johnes and Burt, 1993; Melland et al., 2008;
19 Melland et al., 2012; Mellander et al., 2012). In the Blackwater sub-catchment, nitrate
20 concentration on the recession limb of storm events frequently remained elevated for several
21 days at times of high saturation. Such long recession periods may become important for the
22 ecological status of receiving waters as they may persist into ecologically sensitive periods,
23 such as late spring and early summer low flows (Mellander et al., 2012) when reduced flow,
24 higher temperatures and greater light availability favour algal growth (Mulholland and Hill,
25 1997). Permeable catchments such as the Wylie and the Blackwater are common throughout
26 the UK and much of temperate northern Europe. Therefore, in catchments dominated by
27 subsurface flow, improving groundwater quality is essential in order to support good surface
28 water quality (Rozemeijer and Broers, 2007; Allen et al., 2014). Mitigation strategies which
29 target reductions in nitrate leaching include the use of cover crops over winter, limiting N
30 application prior to periods of high drainage, reducing net N inputs to the soil system,
31 synchronising N supply with plant demand and the use of nitrification inhibitors (Di and
32 Cameron, 2002; Hansen et al., 2007; Hooker et al., 2008; Premrov et al., 2012). Preventing
33 the accumulation of N in the soil profile before the leaching season starts is an important step

1 towards reducing nitrate leaching in vulnerable areas (Di and Cameron, 2002). Over time the
2 reduction in leaching will lead to a depletion of vadose zone and groundwater stores of nitrate,
3 which will subsequently reduce stream N loads, although this reduction may be unachievable
4 in chalk catchments within WFD target timescales (Jackson et al., 2008).

5 For catchments such as Newby Beck, where rapid flow response pathways dominate,
6 mitigation measures are required that will attenuate these pathways (Wilkinson et al., 2010;
7 Wilkinson et al., 2013), including reducing runoff and erosion on tracks and tramlines (Deasy
8 et al., 2009a; Deasy et al., 2009b), trapping pollutants in edge-of-field areas (Deasy et al.,
9 2010; Ockenden et al., 2012; Ockenden et al., 2014; Wilkinson et al., 2014) and also
10 promoting strategies that aim to reduce soil compaction.

11 **4.2 Short-term hysteretic behaviour**

12 **4.2.1 Nitrate**

13 In the Wylye, the API value was elevated before the late April storm and there had already
14 been some more gradual dilutions in the baseflow nitrate concentration due to rainfall in the
15 earlier part of April (Figure 2a). The highest API value for the entire year occurred during the
16 second event, which coincided with a large dilution in streamwater nitrate concentration. The
17 thickness of the unsaturated zone and the distance to the river influences the travel time of
18 event water in chalk catchments (Goody et al., 2006; Jackson et al., 2006). The multiple
19 dilutions of the nitrate-rich baseflow of this river is, therefore, likely to be a result of the
20 arrival of event water via multiple pathways with distributed travel times, resulting in
21 anticlockwise hysteresis loops (Figure 5a and b).

22 The anticlockwise loops in the Blackwater (Figure 5c and d) suggest substantial transport of
23 nitrate to the stream as opposed to the dilution of baseflow concentrations observed in the
24 Wylye. The event studied in detail here was not the first to occur since the end of the drier
25 than average winter period (Figure 2b) but these loops show that there was still abundant
26 nitrate in the sub-catchment which had not been exhausted by earlier events and would,
27 therefore, appear to be transport limited (Edwards and Withers, 2008). Shallow groundwater
28 can contribute more nitrate to streamwater during the recession period of flood events, after
29 the rise of the zone of saturation towards upper soil layers enriched by the accumulated
30 nitrate pool (Rozemeijer and Broers, 2007; Oeurng et al., 2010). Soil water extracted at 90

1 cm depth from porous pots contained nitrate concentrations of up to 24.5 mg N L^{-1} in the clay loam soils under arable cultivation in the upper Blackwater. Soil nitrate would be easily mobilised by such events when there is connectivity of groundwater with upper soil layers via under-drainage. Anticlockwise hysteresis trajectories due to high concentration peaks during spring storm events in other catchments have been attributed to the dominance of the subsurface pathway during hydrograph recession combined with the timing of fertiliser application to winter wheat in January to April (Ferrant et al., 2013).

8 **4.2.2 Phosphorus**

9 In the Wylfe, remobilisation of channel bed sediments deposited from the first event may account for the initial clockwise TP hysteresis in the second event (Eder et al., 2014), followed by the delayed delivery of the more distant component (Figure 6a and b), though flushing of P-rich effluent from bankside septic tanks could also account for this behaviour (Yates and Johnes, 2013). TP concentrations in both events reached a concentration of at least 1 mg P L^{-1} showing that TP sources were not exhausted by the first event which had a smaller flow volume suggesting delivery of P from diffuse catchment sources was transport limited (Edwards and Withers, 2008). The API value in the Wylfe before the commencement of the storm was elevated from earlier rain in April, yet TP concentrations were fairly constant before this event (Figure 2a). The lack of TP transport in March and April may indicate a build-up of P soil reserves. Other authors cite soil erosion on upper slopes, bank seepage and remobilisation of coarse bed sediment and associated P for anticlockwise hysteresis in headwater streams (Bowes et al., 2005).

22 In the Blackwater, clockwise TP and TRP hysteresis loops (Figure 6c and d and Figure 7a and b) indicate the flushing of a rapidly available source such as topsoil (Cooper et al., 2013), remobilised bed-sediment (Ballantine et al., 2009), field drains and in-wash of P from the river banks (Laubel et al., 2000; Bowes et al., 2005; Cooper et al., 2013) while road runoff was also likely to be a source (Collins et al., 2010). There were several TP (Figure 2b) and TRP peaks as a result of events in March and early April. Mobilisation of P during these events may explain the rapid response in the event studied here as re-suspension of previously transported P, and would also explain source-limitation during the second event (Bowes et al., 2005; Jordan et al., 2005; Jordan et al., 2007). The clockwise trajectories are in agreement with other studies of under-drained clay soils, attributed to the flushing of fine sediment particles from field drains during the rising limb of a storm (Djodjic et al., 2000).

1 The difference in shape of the TP and TRP hysteresis loops in Newby Beck indicate different
2 sources or pathways of P in this sub-catchment (Figures 6a and 7a) (Haygarth et al., 2004).
3 The initial clockwise trajectories for both TP and TRP maybe a result of rapid mobilisation of
4 a source close to the stream or in the stream itself that was equally composed of reactive and
5 particulate forms of P, perhaps due to runoff from farmyards (Hively et al., 2005; Withers et
6 al., 2009). The second, larger TP clockwise trajectory was most likely the result of overland
7 flow transporting particulate and colloidal P fractions, responding to the physical energy of
8 the period of heaviest rainfall (Haygarth and Jarvis, 1997), perhaps due to soil compaction
9 through animal grazing and farm machinery traffic. Although TRP was present, it comprised
10 a much smaller part of the TP signal at this stage. The large anticlockwise TRP trajectory on
11 the falling limb may be explained by the sub-surface transport of dissolved, colloidal and
12 molybdate-reactive particulate P which had a delay in reaching the stream. As the sub-
13 catchment wetted up and slower sub-pathways were activated, the dissolved forms of P could
14 become well mixed and transported in the soil matrix (Haygarth et al., 2004). The API before
15 the start of this event was low due to low rainfall in preceding months, representing the dry
16 soils. The disproportionately large TP peak produced from the flow generated reflects the
17 lack of previous storms and associated source exhaustion, unlike in the Blackwater. The
18 event which followed had a greater discharge and API but a smaller TP peak. This finding is
19 in agreement with Ide et al. (2008) that the mobility of particulate P increases as soil
20 conditions become drier and Stutter et al. (2008) that steeper gradient headwater streams are
21 high energy systems which quickly mobilise P during times of rainfall.

22 **4.3 Relationships between water quality and meteorological conditions**

23 There is no close modern parallel in the UK to the hydrometeorological conditions
24 experienced over the first half of 2012, with widespread drought at the beginning of the year
25 followed by sudden drought recovery beginning in late spring and early summer when
26 evaporation rates normally exceed rainfall (Marsh and Parry, 2012). The rainfall from April-
27 June 2012 in England was nearly three times that of the preceding three months, which had
28 not been experienced in over one hundred years (Marsh and Parry, 2012). The effects of other
29 national droughts on water quality in the UK have been documented, such as the drought of
30 1976, which mainly focused on nitrate flushing with the onset of autumn rainfall in English
31 catchments with differing geologies (Foster and Walling, 1978; Burt et al., 1988; Jose, 1989).
32 The high nitrate concentrations detected instream after the drought period were attributed to

1 severe desiccation and subsequent wetting of soil resulting in increased rates of
2 mineralisation of organic N and nitrification. The effects of localised drought on P losses
3 from UK catchments have been less well documented although authors previously have
4 recorded that catchment P retention increased in a small groundwater-fed catchment in the
5 east of England over a four year drought period between 1988 and 1992 due to plant uptake
6 (Boar et al., 1995). Others point to markedly reduced P concentrations instream in dry water
7 years compared to wetter water years (Prior and Johnes, 2002; Evans and Johnes, 2004;
8 Evans et al., 2004); and suggest that P accumulation in the catchment, combined with
9 reduced efficiency of delivery pathways linking source to stream, and lack of flushing of
10 accumulated stream sediment P stores accounts for these trends. The highest particulate P
11 concentrations recorded in a lowland river in the south of England during a three-year period
12 were in autumn 1997 after a prolonged drought period due to the accumulation of P-rich
13 sediment (Jarvie et al., 2002).

14 Although the API values show that moisture conditions were not identical among the three
15 sub-catchments prior to the onset of the storm event that affected the whole country on the 25
16 April 2012, all three sub-catchments were in states of drought. The late-April storm event
17 marked the transition from a dry winter to a wet summer in all three sub-catchments. The
18 states of drought which commenced during 2011 could have led to the accumulation of
19 nitrogen and phosphorus stored in the three sub-catchments. Fertiliser applications in the
20 spring could have further contributed to the build-up of nutrients in sub-catchment soils. The
21 increased nutrient reserves combined with high rainfall inputs in April resulted in large peak
22 concentration exceedence (Figure 3) and fluxes (Table 3) of nitrate in the Blackwater and TP
23 in all three sub-catchments, but particularly Newby Beck during the late April storm.
24 Although the three sub-catchments have different characteristics, they all showed signs of
25 transport-limited transfers of nutrients during this large event; nitrate in the Blackwater and
26 TP in the Wylde and Newby Beck. Jordan et al. (2007) categorise such nutrient transfers as
27 'acute, storm-dependent transfers', which were found to make up 92% of the six-month TP
28 flux in a flashy, grassland headwater catchment in Ireland. The authors state that under the
29 WFD it is advisable to implement catchment management necessary to reduce diffuse
30 transfers of this type to reduce the annual P flux to receiving waterbodies. This paper
31 supports this finding and proposes that the same principle applies to the acute storm-
32 dependent nitrogen transfer in the Blackwater and other lowland, under-drained, arable
33 catchments throughout temperate Europe. The total proportion of agricultural land that is

1 underdrained in Europe can range from 33% in the UK to 93% in Finland (De la Cueva,
2 2006). The high nutrient transfers identified here underscore the scale of the challenges faced
3 by environmental managers when designing mitigation measures to reduce the flux of
4 nutrients to UK river systems from diffuse agricultural sources. Environmental factors, such
5 as prolonged dry periods, exacerbate the challenge by increasing the likelihood of acute
6 flushes of pollution when rainfall does occur. Future mitigation options available to land
7 managers need to reflect the heterogeneity of pollutant sources and pathways acting across
8 different landscapes and land use under varying antecedent conditions.

9 **4.4 The benefits of high-frequency water quality monitoring**

10 The potential benefits of bank-side nutrient analysers have been widely discussed (Jordan et
11 al., 2005; Jordan et al., 2007; Palmer-Felgate et al., 2008; Wade et al., 2012). The
12 characterisation of catchments using semi-continuous hydrological and hydrochemical
13 datasets avoids bias towards particular sampling regimes. Extreme events, such as recorded
14 here, can be put in the context of the actual range of variation in complete hydrological years,
15 which is often unknown without high frequency measurements. Even in cases where
16 automatic samplers are triggered several times per year, key storm transfers may be missed
17 outside of deployment periods and details such as the number of bottles available or the
18 trigger threshold may dictate whether selected events are captured in full. High-frequency
19 monitoring equally captures fine-scale patterns during baseflow which may highlight new
20 avenues for research on catchment nutrient transfer processes, such as the significance of
21 chronic less rainfall dependent P transfers on the eutrophic state of streams during low flows
22 (Jordan et al., 2005).

23 Hysteresis is usually not taken into account in load estimation techniques (Eder et al., 2010).
24 The hysteresis loops constructed for the three sub-catchments during the period studied here
25 reveal differences between the study areas and among events within the same sub-catchment.
26 Load estimations have been improved by accounting for hysteresis (Drewry et al., 2009; Eder
27 et al., 2010), by using iterative parameter fitting techniques (Moliere et al., 2004) and
28 creating individual models according to season, hydrograph limb and flow for long-term
29 datasets (O'Connor et al., 2011). Even a small amount of carefully monitored high-frequency
30 water quality data can be valuable in increasing understanding of concentrations, flow and
31 catchment-scale processes (Drewry et al., 2009).

32

1 **5. Conclusions**

2 Hydrochemical trends in three different sub-catchments have been identified using high-
3 frequency water quality data as part of the DTC project. Data from such long-term
4 monitoring infrastructure can be used to investigate relationships between potential
5 environmental influences on water quality, such as meteorological conditions, as discussed
6 here, or land use change using on-farm interventions, to be explored in the second phase of
7 the DTC project. Hysteresis loops are simple to construct from high-frequency chemistry and
8 discharge data and form a good basis for informing further research into catchment processes.
9 Hysteresis patterns also highlight the complex relationship between discharge and
10 concentration, where high-frequency data, such as those demonstrated here, are essential for
11 improving load estimation. In agreement with other authors we have identified acute, storm-
12 dependent transfers of P in all three sub-catchments as a result of a large storm following a
13 dry period. In addition, we identified acute, storm-dependent transfers of N in the drained,
14 lowland, arable Blackwater sub-catchment. Such storm transfers are likely to be repeated in
15 similar catchments throughout Europe and require focused mitigation in order to achieve
16 WFD targets. The spectrum of pollution sources and pathways highlighted by the high-
17 frequency monitoring represents the continuing challenge for environmental managers in
18 mitigating against nutrient pollution from diffuse catchment sources, and also in responding
19 to climate change. Emerging research initiatives in the UK and elsewhere, including the DTC
20 programme, are now beginning to address water quality issues and climate change through
21 integrated understanding of catchment processes and nutrient cycling to inform policy
22 implementation and adaptation responses in nutrient-enriched catchments.

23 **Acknowledgements**

24 The DTC programmes in the Eden, Hampshire Avon and Wensum catchments are funded by
25 the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (Defra) (projects WQ0210,
26 WQ0211 and WQ0212, respectively) and are further supported by the Welsh Assembly
27 Government and the Environment Agency. The Eden project consortium (Eden DTC,
28 www.edendtc.org.uk) includes Lancaster University, University of Durham, Newcastle
29 University, Eden Rivers Trust, Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, British Geological Survey
30 and Newton Rigg College. The Hampshire Avon project consortium (Avon DTC,
31 <http://www.avondtc.org.uk/>) includes Rothamsted Research-North Wyke, ADAS, Queen
32 Mary University of London, the Universities of Bristol, Exeter and Reading, and the Game

1 and Wildlife Conservation Trust. The Wensum project consortium (Wensum DTC,
2 www.wensumalliance.org.uk) includes the University of East Anglia, the Environment
3 Agency, Anglian Water Services Ltd, British Geological Survey, Farm Systems &
4 Environment, NIAB-TAG, Cranfield University and AMEC plc. All three consortia are
5 grateful for the assistance of farmers and land owners in their relevant sub-catchments for
6 providing access to monitoring sites.

7

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1 **Table 1.** Summary characteristics for the Hampshire Avon, Wensum and Eden DTC
 2 tributary sites.

3 ^a From (Robson and Reed, 1999). ^b According to National Soil Research Institute
 4 classification.

5 BNG – British National Grid. m ASL – metres above sea level.

	Hampshire Avon	Wensum	Eden
Sub-catchment	Wylde at Brixton Deverill	Blackwater Drain at Park Farm	Newby Beck at Newby
Sampling location (BNG)	ST 868 401	TG 125 246	NY 600 213
Size of catchment (km²)	50.2	19.7	12.5
Elevation of sampling point (m ASL)	189 ^a	43 ^a	233 ^a
Aspect (° from north)	106 ^a	144 ^a	28 ^a
Soils^b	Sandy loam and silty clay loam soils from Ardington, Blewbury, Coombe and Icknield soil series	Chalky boulder clay and sandy loam soils from Beccles 1, Burlingham 1 and Wick 2 and 3 series	Clay loam and sandy clay loam soils from Brickfield, Waltham and Clifton series
Geology	Cretaceous Chalk and Upper Greensand	Quaternary glacial till, sands and gravels over Pleistocene Crag and Cretaceous Chalk	Glacial till over Carboniferous limestone
Annual average rainfall (mm)	886-909 ^a	655 ^a	1167 ^a
Baseflow index (BFI)	0.93 ^a	0.80 ^a	0.39 ^a
Land use	Livestock and cereals	Arable crops	Livestock

6

1 **Table 2.** Storm event rainfall characteristics in each tributary.

2 *Data not available in the Wylle during the storm event.

3

	Wylle		Blackwater		Newby Beck
	Event 1	Event 2	Event 1	Event 2	Event 1
Date (2012)	25-26 April	29 April	25-26 April	27-29 April	26-27 April
Total rainfall (mm)	45	43	19	20	32
Max intensity (mm h⁻¹)	*	*	5	1.8	4.1

4

5

6 **Table 3.** Nutrient fluxes for each storm event in the Wylye, Blackwater and Newby Beck as absolute load and export.

7

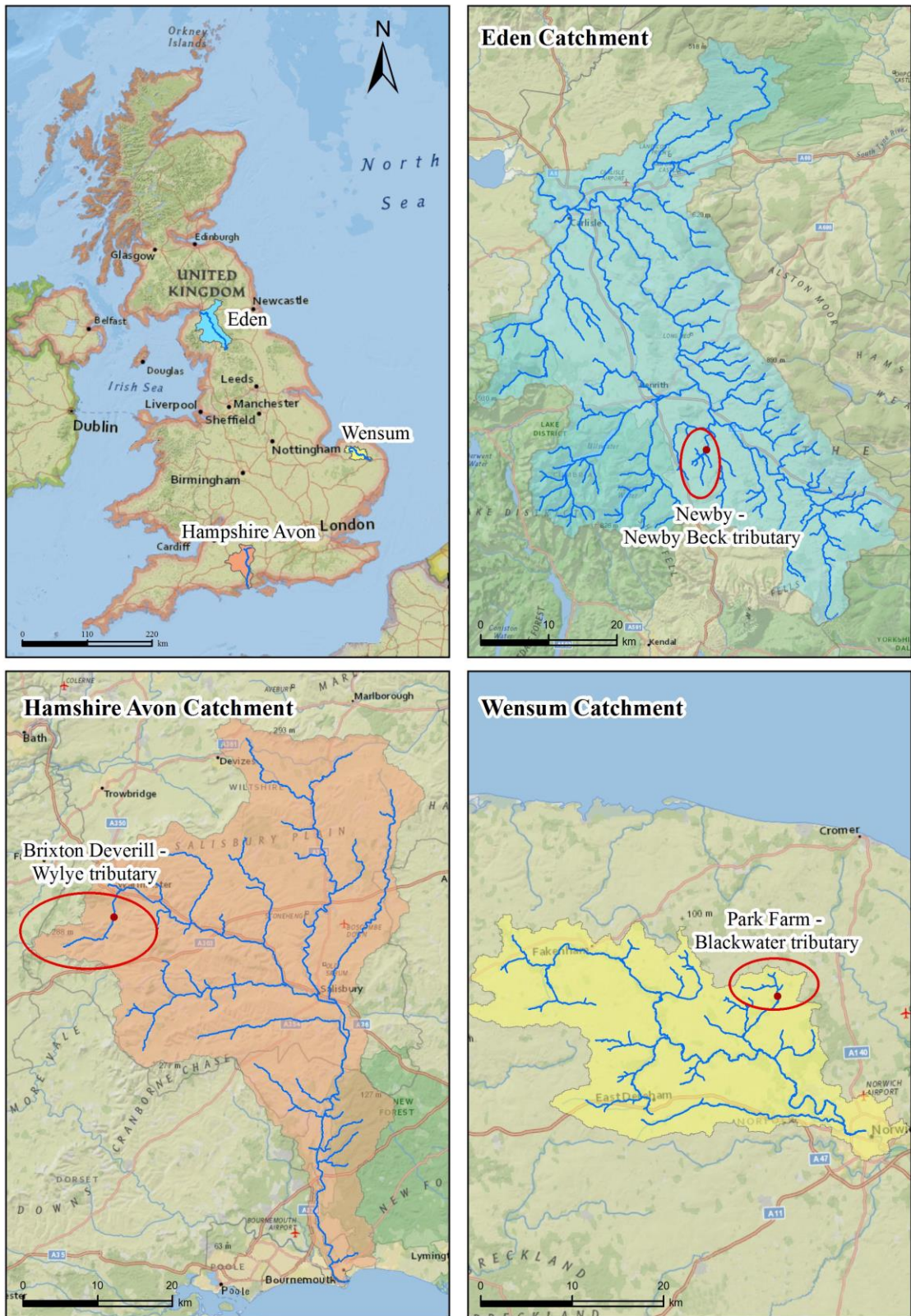
DTC tributary	Event	Total flow volume (m ³) (mm)	NO ₃ -N		TP		TRP	
			Load (kg N)	Export (kg N ha ⁻¹)	Load (kg P)	Export (kg P ha ⁻¹)	Load (kg P)	Export (kg P ha ⁻¹)
Wylye	1	24437 0.44	90	0.018	13	0.003	--	--
	2	90275 1.6	359	0.075	56	0.011	--	--
Blackwater	1	134430 6.8	1364	0.692	14	0.007	8	0.004
	2	96506 4.9	1005	0.510	6	0.003	4	0.002
Newby Beck	1	230846 16.5	--	--	13	0.009	5	0.004

8 **Table 4.** Summary of the hysteresis index values, HI_{mid} , for nitrate, TP and TRP in the Wyllye,
 9 Blackwater and Newby Beck.

10

DTC	Event	NO₃ -N	TP	TRP
Wyllye	1	-0.18	-3.16	--
	2	0.11	0.19	--
Blackwater	1	-1.08	2.25	2.4
	2	-0.43	0.48	0.63
Newby Beck	1	--	-0.02	-0.82

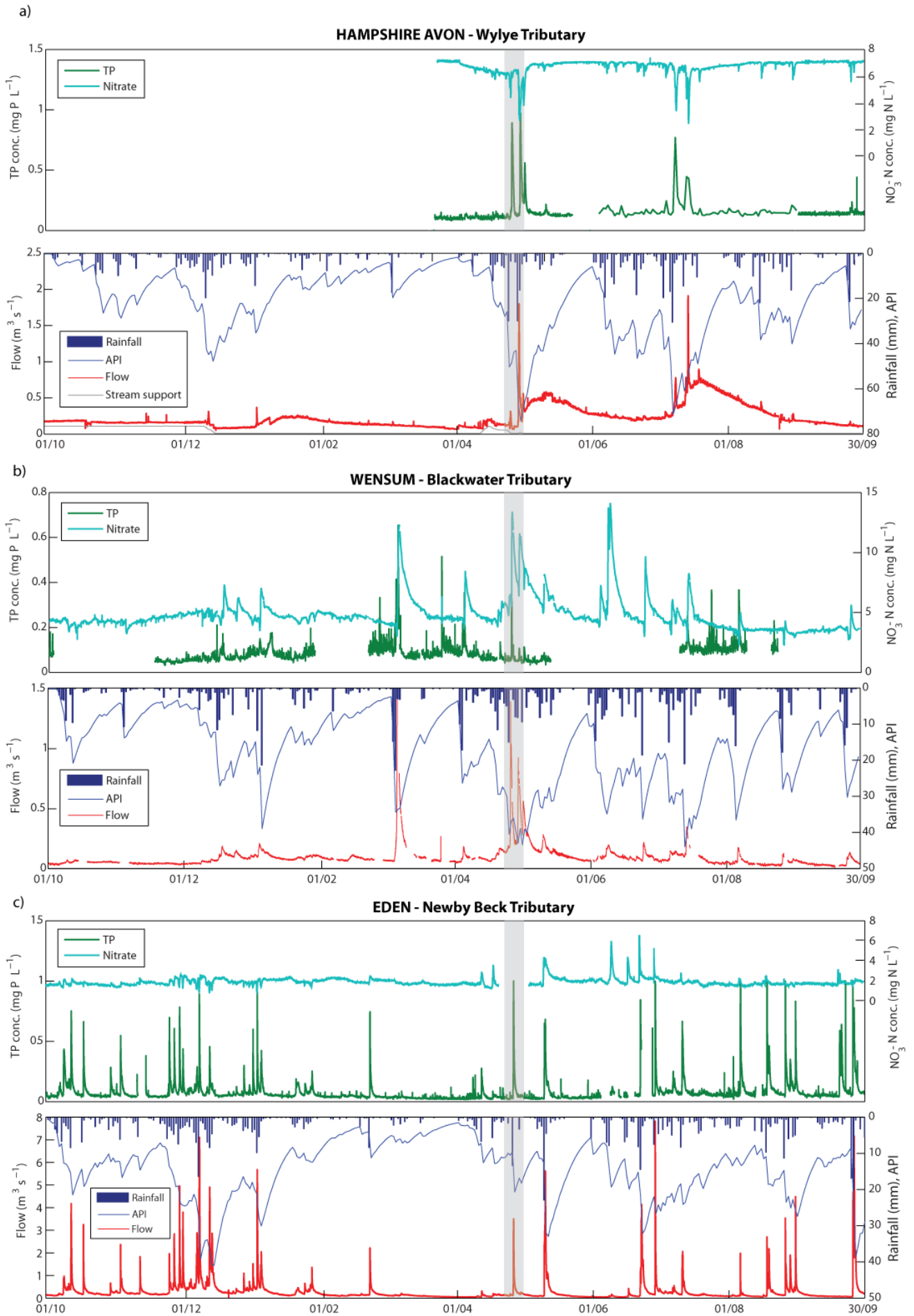
11



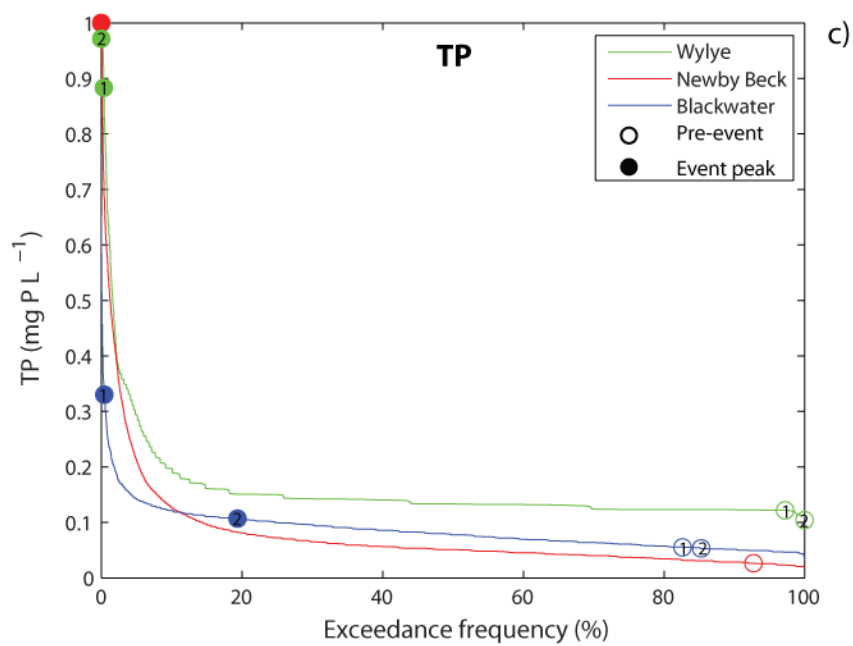
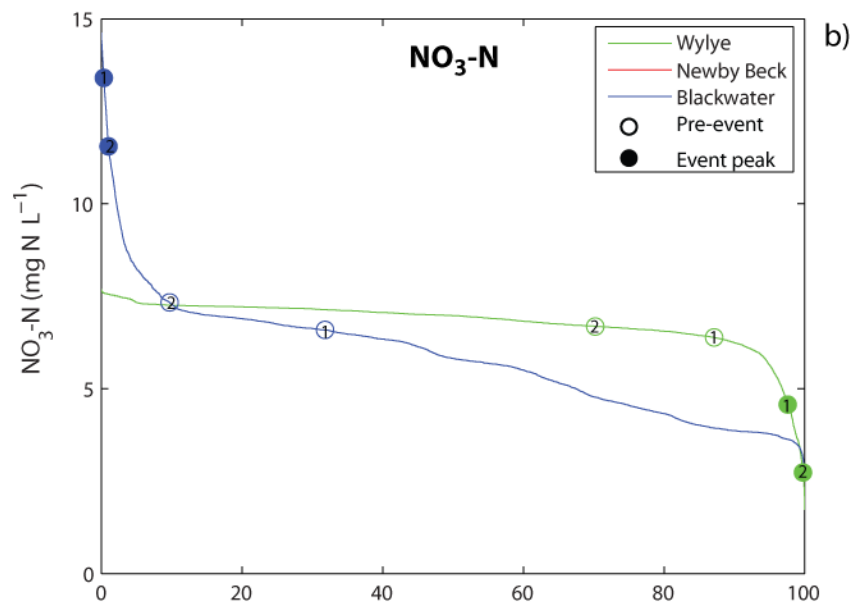
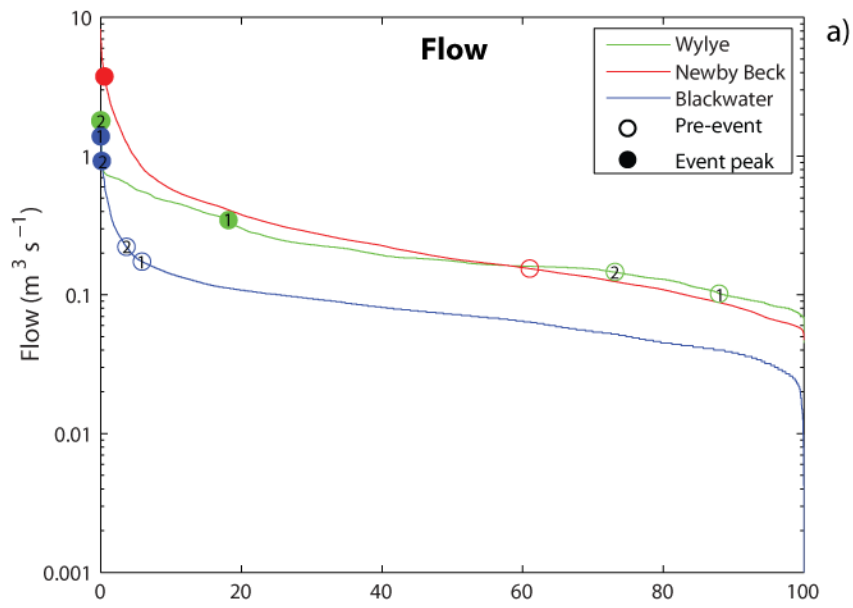
12

13 **Figure 1.** Location map of the UK showing the three Demonstration Test Catchments, the
 14 Hampshire Avon, Wensum and Eden; and the respective tributaries in each catchment, the

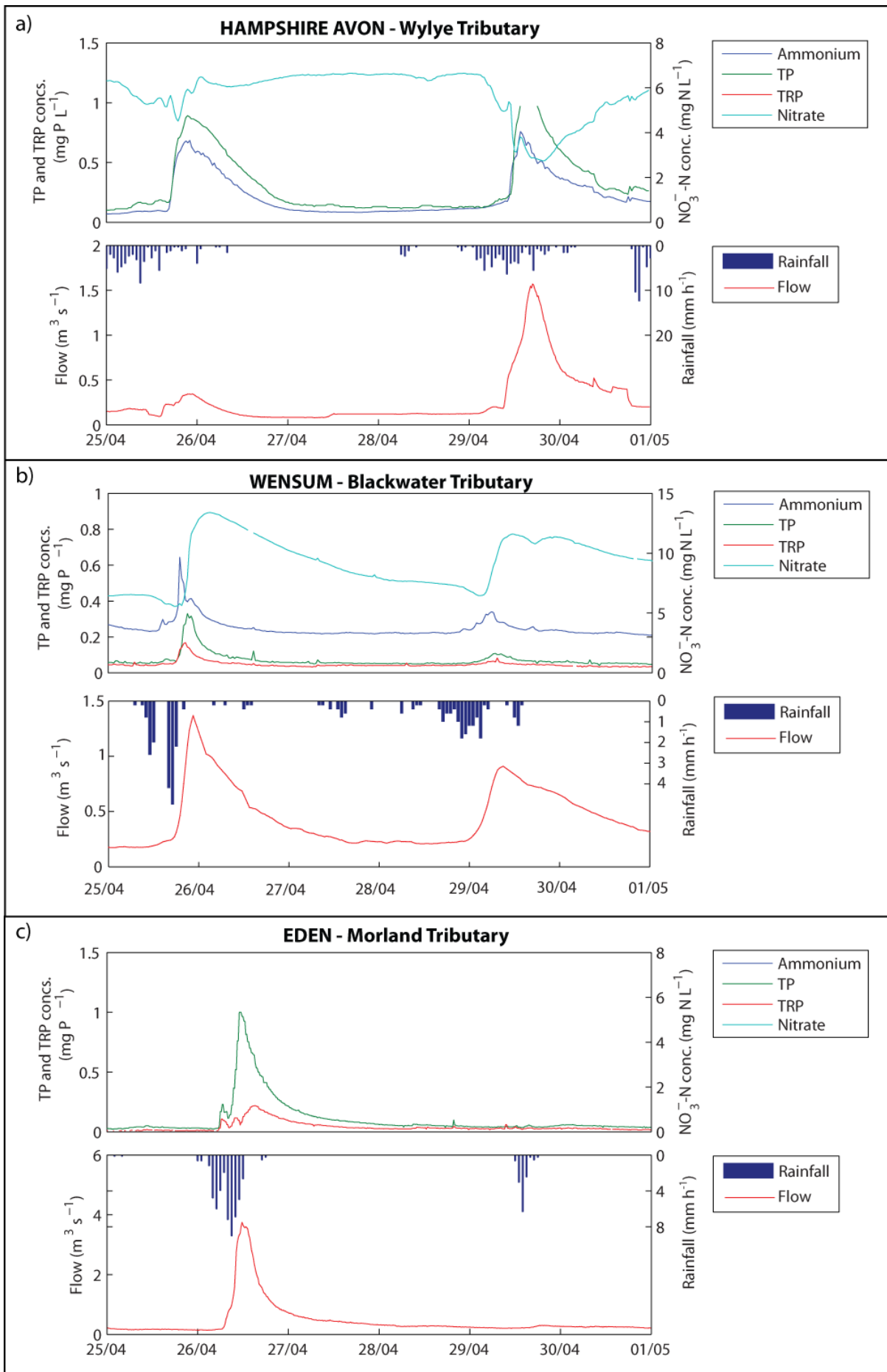
15 Wylze, Blackwater and Newby Beck. The red dots indicate locations of bankside monitoring
16 stations in the tributary sub-catchments. Sources: National Geographic, Esri, DeLorme, NAVTEQ, UNEP-WCMC,
17 USGS, NASA, ESA, METI, NRCAN, GEBCO, NOAA, iPC.



19 **Figure 2.** Plots showing rainfall, river discharge, API, nitrate and TP for the hydrological
20 year 2011-12 for: (a) Hampshire Avon Wylde tributary; (b) Wensum Blackwater tributary;
21 and (c) Eden Newby Beck tributary. The shaded area indicates the storm event between 25
22 and 29 April 2012 examined in this paper. The operation of groundwater pumping for stream
23 support is shown for the Wylde (see further explanation in Section 3.1).

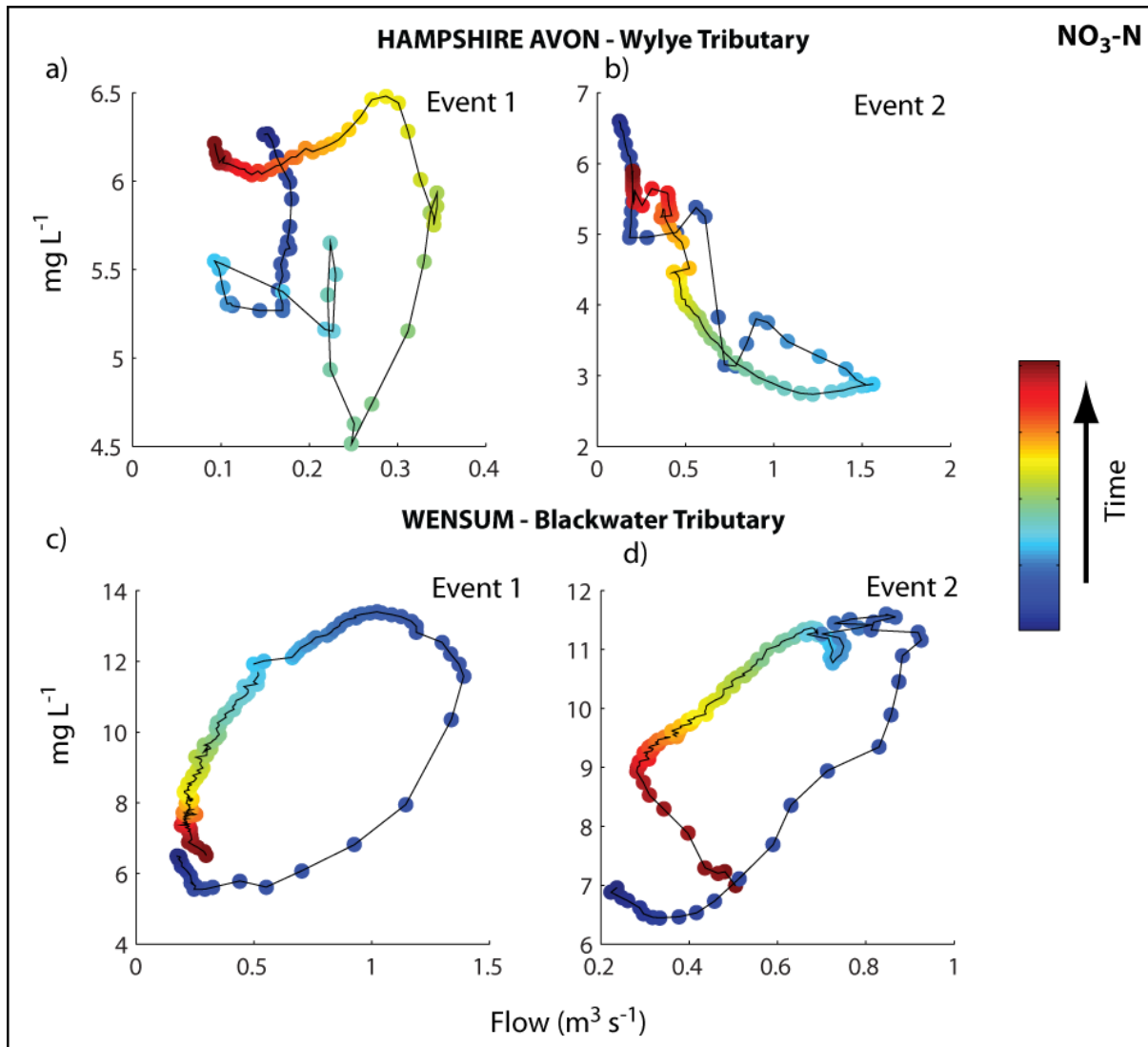


25 **Figure 3.** Exceedance plots for: (a) flow; (b) nitrate; and (c) TP in the Hampshire Avon
26 Wylye tributary, Wensum Blackwater tributary and Eden Newby Beck tributary. Open circles
27 illustrate pre-event values and filled circles illustrate peak-event values. Two storm events are
28 recorded in the Wylye and the Blackwater, numbered 1 and 2, with storm 1 from 25-29 April
29 and storm 2 from 29-30 April 2012.



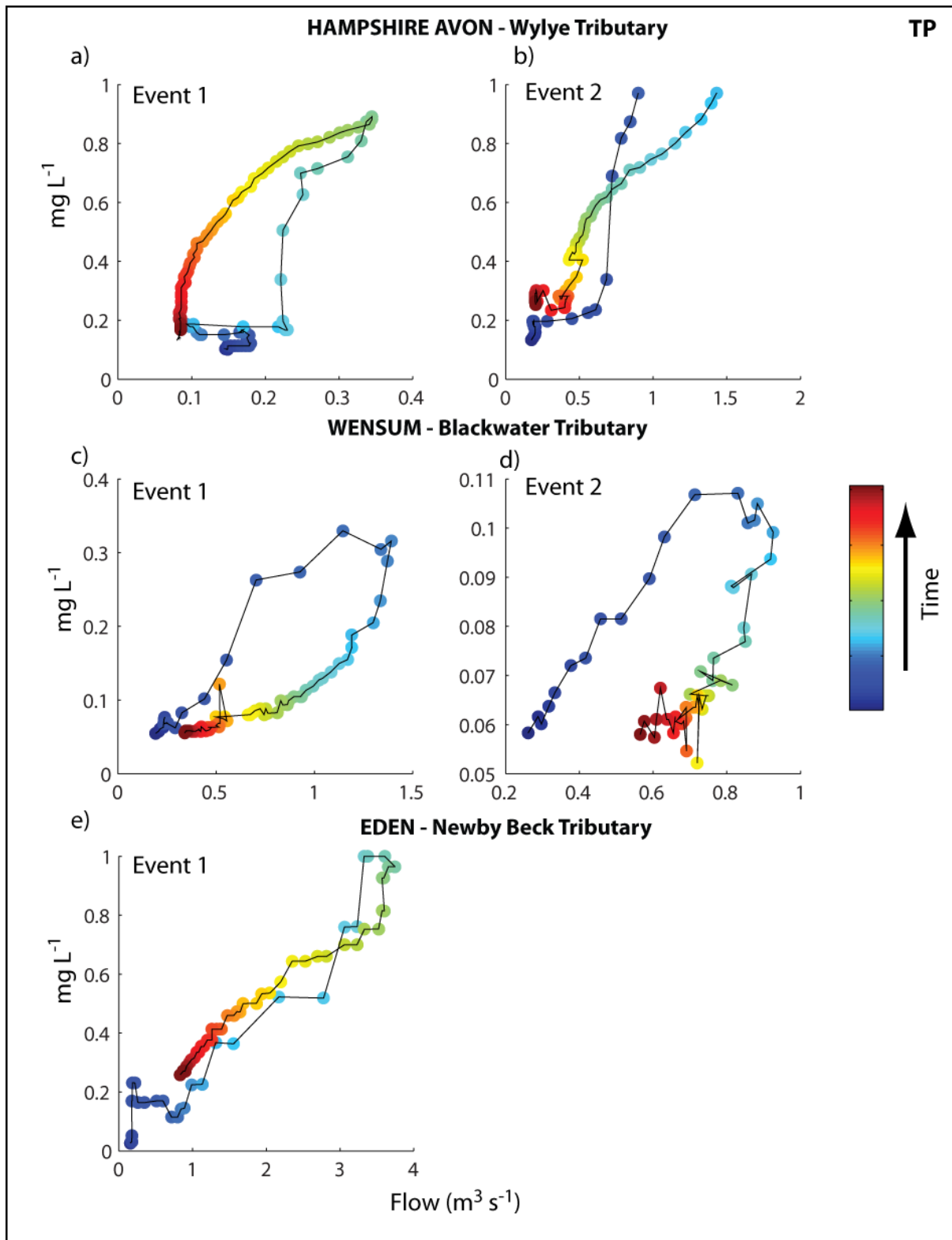
31 **Figure 4.** Plots showing nutrient response to rainfall and flow events in: (a) the Hampshire
32 Avon Wylde tributary; (b) Wensum Blackwater tributary; and (c) Eden Newby Beck
33 tributary.

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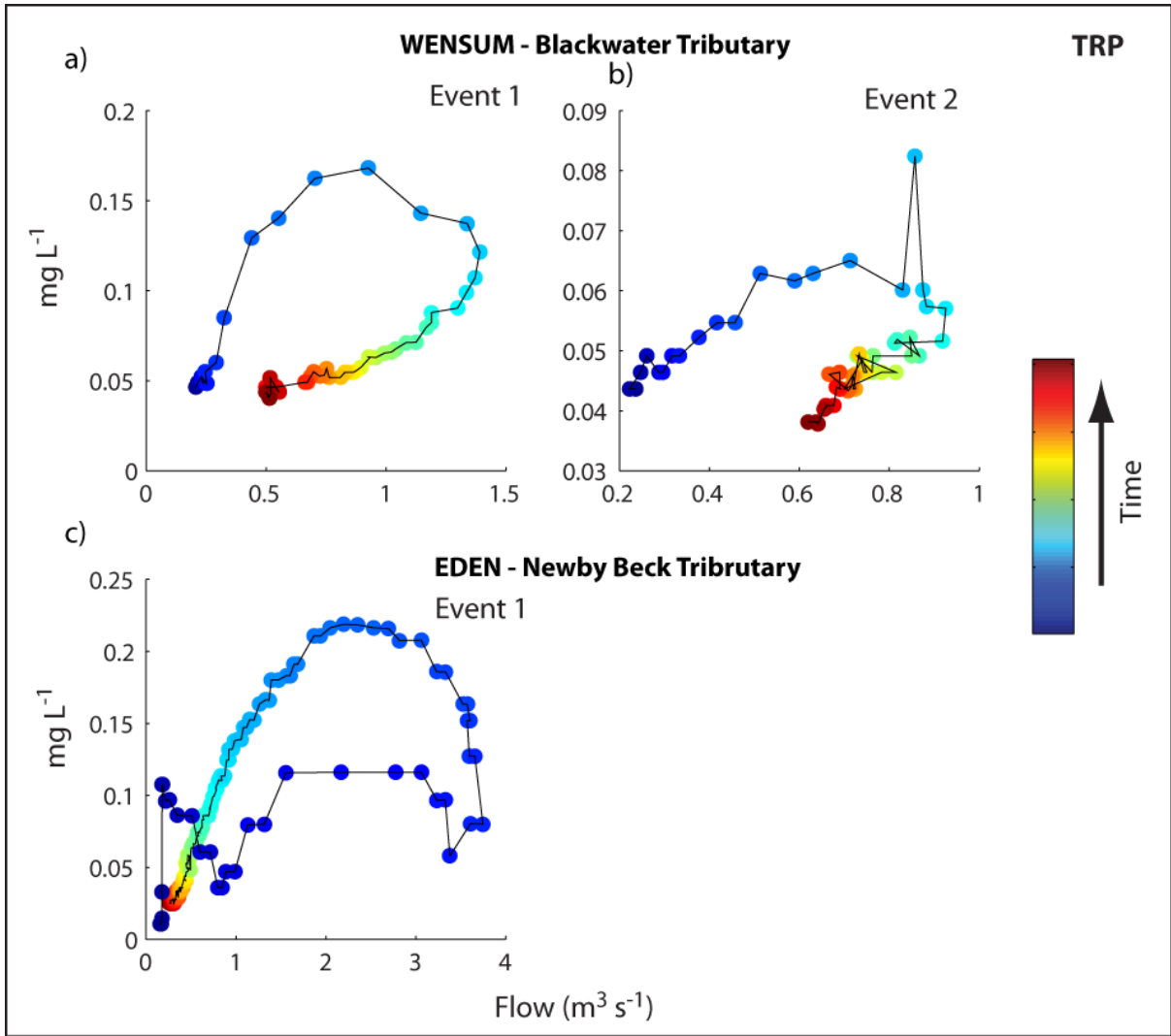
38 **Figure 5** Concentration-discharge plots showing nitrate hysteresis during storm events in (a-
39 b) the Hampshire Avon Wylde and (c-d) Wensum Blackwater tributaries.



40

41 **Figure 6.** Concentration-discharge plots showing TP hysteresis during storm events in (a-b)
 42 the Hampshire Avon Wylde, (c-d) Wensum Blackwater and (e) Eden Newby Beck
 43 tributaries.

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46 **Figure 7.** Concentration-discharge plots showing TRP hysteresis during storm events in (a-b)
 47 the Wensum Blackwater and (c) Eden Newby Beck tributaries.