

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  $200 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ .  
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  $220 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  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  $56 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  and  $17 \text{ kg P ha}^{-1}$ , whereas on  
33 arable land, rates are about  $127 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  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 NO<sub>3</sub>-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 Wylze, 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 ( $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ ) 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 Wylfe, 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 Wylfe from March to September 2012. There  
18 were step changes in the Wylfe 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 Wylfe 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  $7 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$  throughout the monitored period. The nearest borehole to the  
26 sampling point had an average nitrate concentration of  $6.9 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$ . 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  $1 \text{ mg P L}^{-1}$  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 Wylfe. 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  $14 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$ . 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  $0.15 \text{ mg P L}^{-1}$  which were much lower in the Blackwater than in the Wylfe and Newby Beck  
13 sub-catchments.

14 In contrast to the Wylfe 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 Wylfe, 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 Wylfe 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  $6 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$ . Peaks in the TP signal in Newby Beck occurred very rapidly during  
23 times of rainfall with concentrations frequently exceeding  $0.6 \text{ mg P L}^{-1}$ .

### 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 Wylfe 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 Wylfe, 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 relatively low flow prior to the event (61% exceedance), but  
23 a high discharge maximum was recorded during the event (0.6% exceedance). The rainfall  
24 associated with this storm event analysis resulted in high flows in all three sub-catchments,  
25 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<sup>-1</sup> before the rainfall commenced, which was diluted during both hydrograph events  
29 (5.3 and 2.7 mg N L<sup>-1</sup> 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<sup>-1</sup> 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<sup>-1</sup>

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<sup>-1</sup> and 97.2%, respectively, in the Wylfe; 0.03 mg  
5 P L<sup>-1</sup> and 82.6%, respectively, in the Blackwater and 0.03 mg P L<sup>-1</sup> 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<sup>-1</sup> and 0.3% respectively, in  
8 the Wylfe; 0.33 mg P L<sup>-1</sup> and 0.4% respectively, in the Blackwater, and 1 mg P L<sup>-1</sup> 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<sup>-1</sup> and 0.02%, respectively), whereas  
11 in the Blackwater the second event a lower concentration and exceedance were recorded (0.1  
12 mg L<sup>-1</sup> 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 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (<0.1 mm h<sup>-1</sup>, 134% of pre-event discharge), followed by a  
18 second larger peak of 1.6 m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> on 29 April (0.1 mm h<sup>-1</sup>, 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 m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> was recorded (0.3 mm h<sup>-1</sup>,  
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 m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> (0.2 mm h<sup>-1</sup>, 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 m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> (1 mm h<sup>-1</sup>, 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 Wylye 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 Wylye, 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 Wylye and  
20 Newby Beck compared to the Blackwater. The highest TP export observed was from the  
21 second event in the Wylye 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 Wylye and Blackwater, but the shapes of the loops were very different. The overall  
27 trajectory of the first hysteresis loop in the Wylye 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 Wylye 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  $1 \text{ mg P L}^{-1}$  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  $4 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$  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  $20 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$ , with concentrations in some of the deeper more  
14 continuously flowing drains of around  $10 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$ , 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 Wylfe 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  $24.5 \text{ mg N L}^{-1}$  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 Wylde, 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  $1 \text{ mg P L}^{-1}$  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 Wylde 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.

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7

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40

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

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

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

	<b>Hampshire Avon</b>	<b>Wensum</b>	<b>Eden</b>
<b>Sub-catchment</b>	Wylde at Brixton Deverill	Blackwater Drain at Park Farm	Newby Beck at Newby
<b>Sampling location (BNG)</b>	ST 868 401	TG 125 246	NY 600 213
<b>Size of catchment (km<sup>2</sup>)</b>	50.2	19.7	12.5
<b>Elevation of sampling point (m ASL)</b>	189 <sup>a</sup>	43 <sup>a</sup>	233 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Aspect (° from north)</b>	106 <sup>a</sup>	144 <sup>a</sup>	28 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Soils<sup>b</sup></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
<b>Geology</b>	Cretaceous Chalk and Upper Greensand	Quaternary glacial till, sands and gravels over Pleistocene Crag and Cretaceous Chalk	Glacial till over Carboniferous limestone
<b>Annual average rainfall (mm)</b>	886-909 <sup>a</sup>	655 <sup>a</sup>	1167 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Baseflow index (BFI)</b>	0.93 <sup>a</sup>	0.80 <sup>a</sup>	0.39 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Land use</b>	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

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

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4

5

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

7

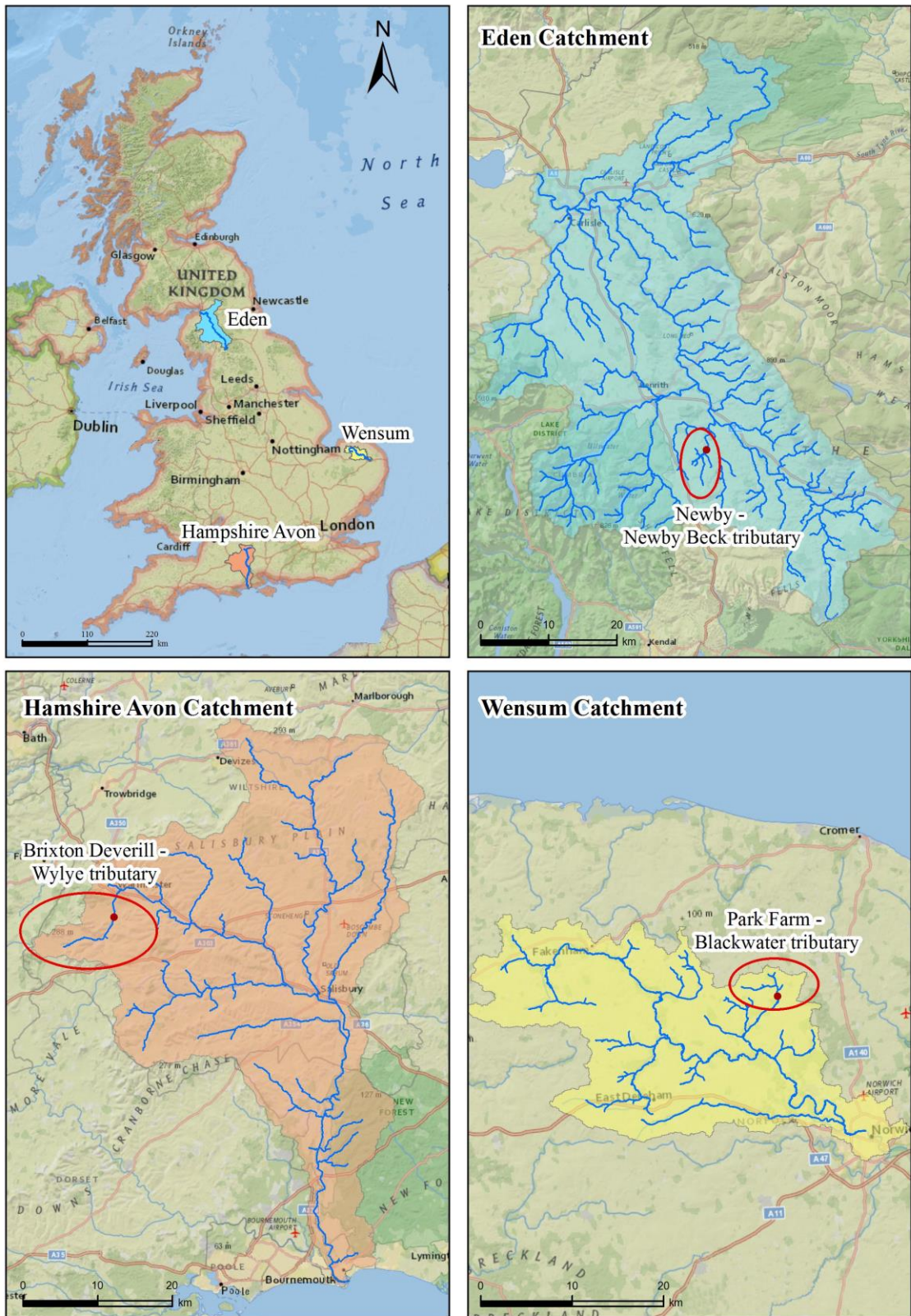
DTC tributary	Event	Total flow volume (m <sup>3</sup> ) (mm)	NO <sub>3</sub> -N		TP		TRP	
			Load (kg N)	Export (kg N ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Load (kg P)	Export (kg P ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Load (kg P)	Export (kg P ha <sup>-1</sup> )
Wylye	1	24437 0.44	90	0.018	13	0.003	--	--
	2	90275 1.6	359	0.075	56	0.011	--	--
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.

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<b>DTC</b>	<b>Event</b>	<b>NO<sub>3</sub> -N</b>	<b>TP</b>	<b>TRP</b>
<b>Wyllye</b>	1	-0.18	-3.16	--
	2	0.11	0.19	--
<b>Blackwater</b>	1	-1.08	2.25	2.4
	2	-0.43	0.48	0.63
<b>Newby Beck</b>	1	--	-0.02	-0.82

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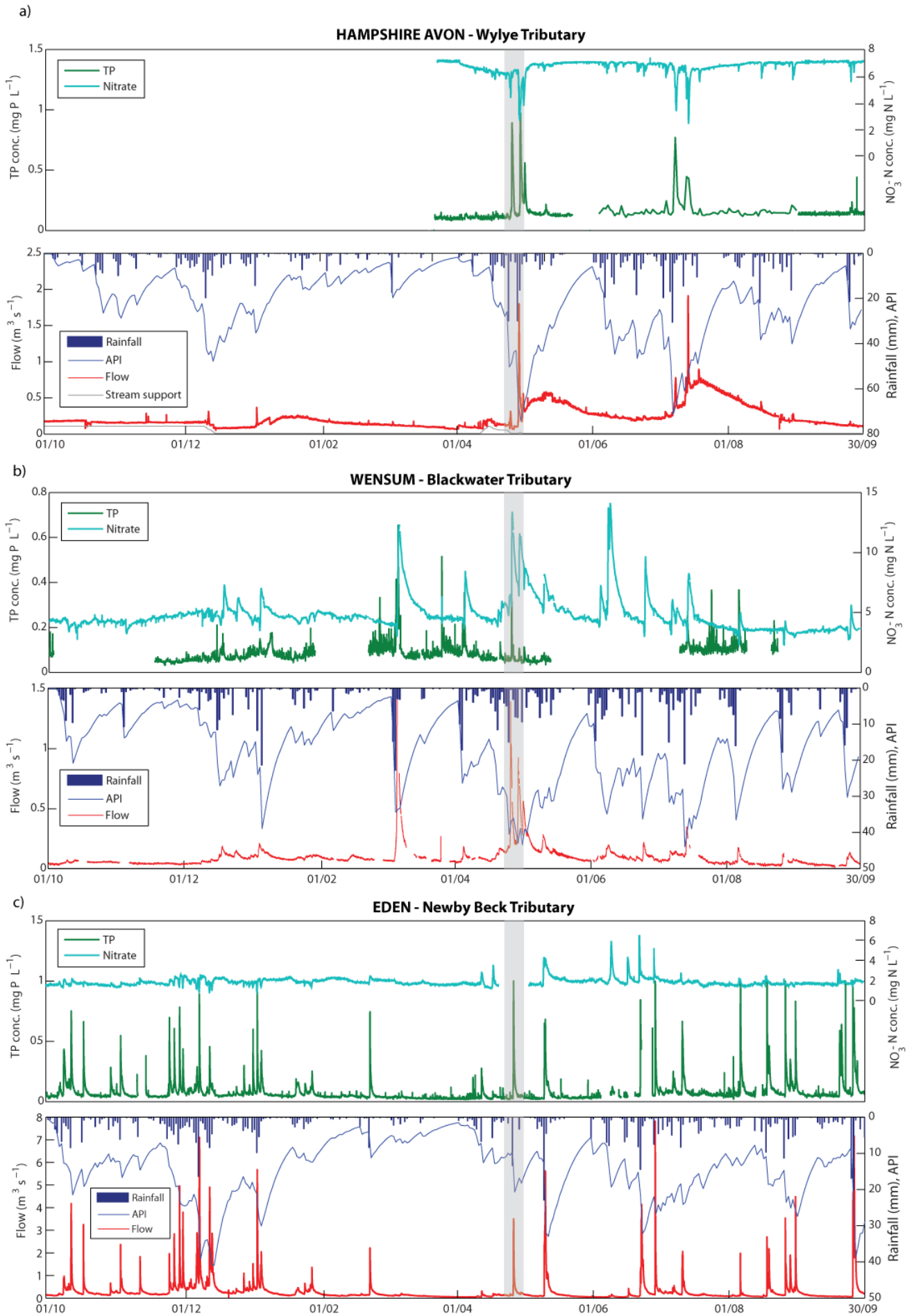


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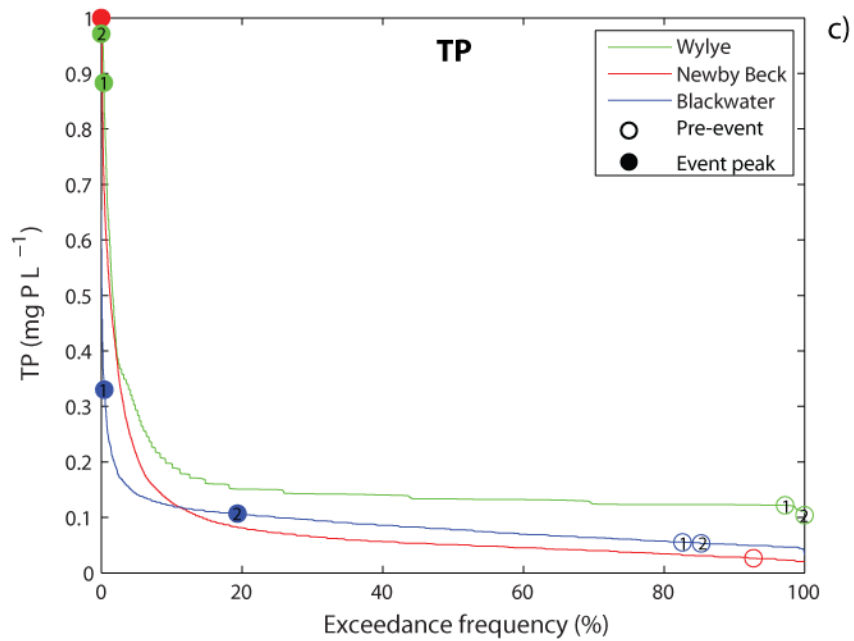
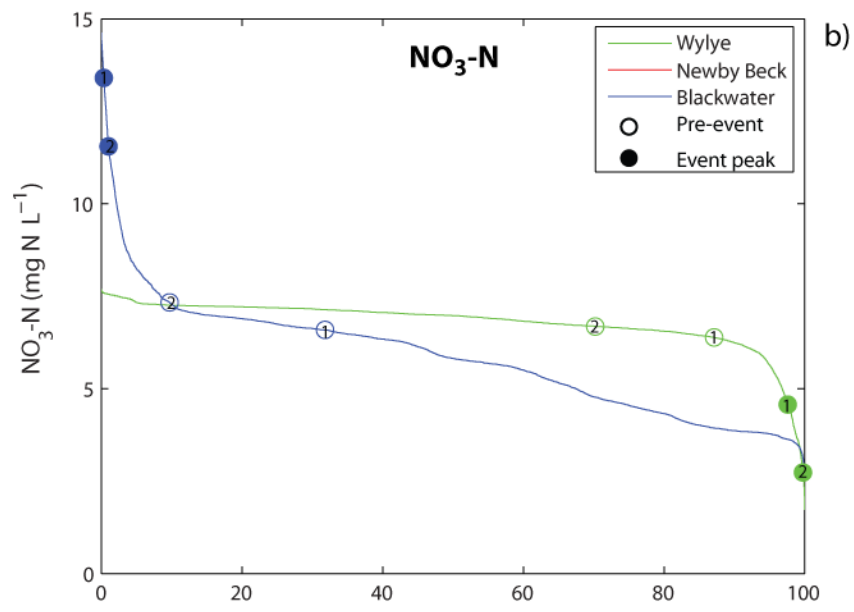
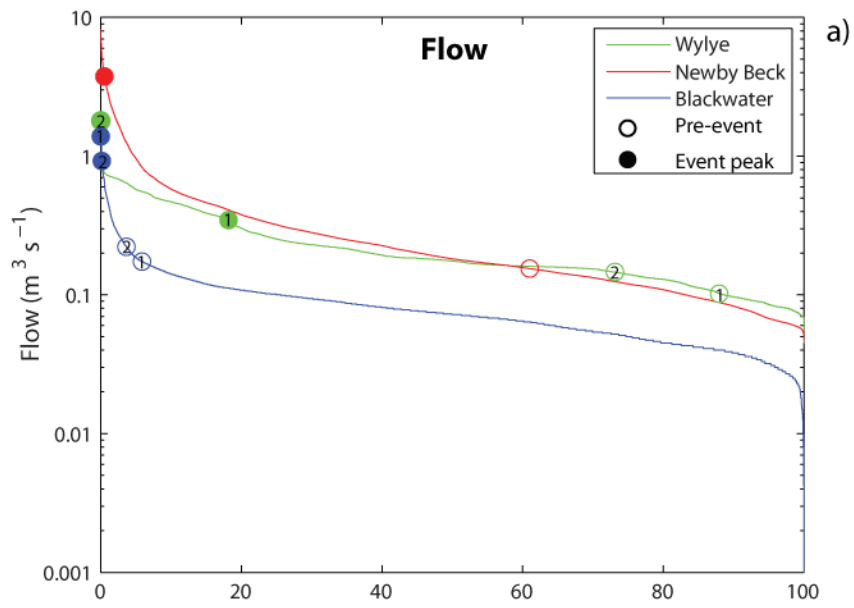
13 **Figure 1.** Location map of the UK showing the three Demonstration Test Catchments, the  
 14 Hampshire Avon, Wensum and Eden; and the respective tributaries in each catchment, the



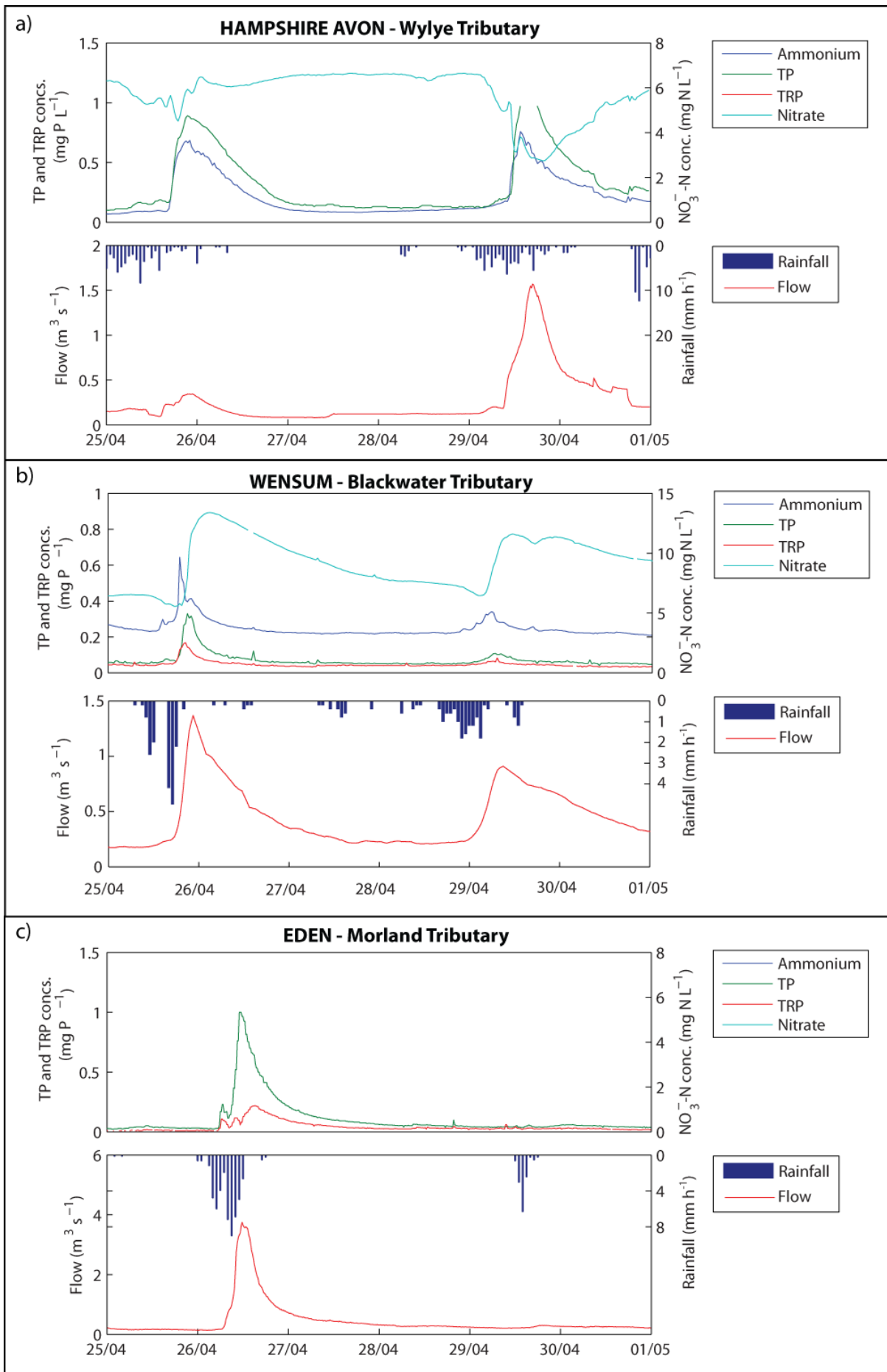
15 Wylze, Blackwater and Newby Beck. The red dots indicate locations of bankside monitoring  
16 stations in the tributary sub-catchments. Sources: National Geographic, Esri, DeLorme, NAVTEQ, UNEP-WCMC,  
17 USGS, NASA, ESA, METI, NRCAN, GEBCO, NOAA, iPC.



19 **Figure 2.** Plots showing rainfall, river discharge, API, nitrate and TP for the hydrological  
20 year 2011-12 for: (a) Hampshire Avon Wylfe 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 Wylfe (see further explanation in Section 3.1).

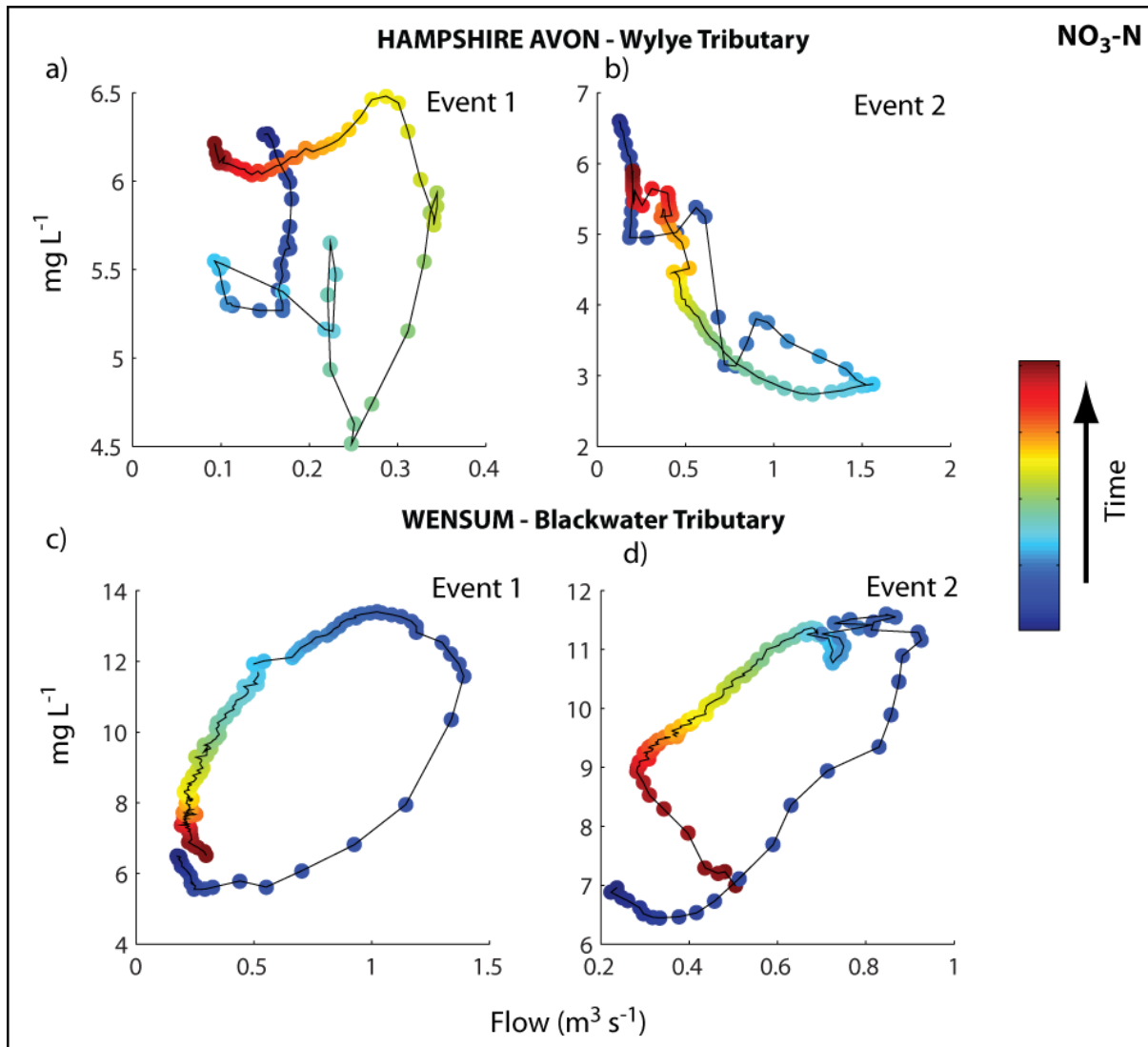


25 **Figure 3.** Exceedance plots for: (a) flow; (b) nitrate; and (c) TP in the Hampshire Avon  
26 Wylye tributary, Wensum Blackwater tributary and Eden Newby Beck tributary. Open circles  
27 illustrate pre-event values and filled circles illustrate peak-event values. Two storm events are  
28 recorded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



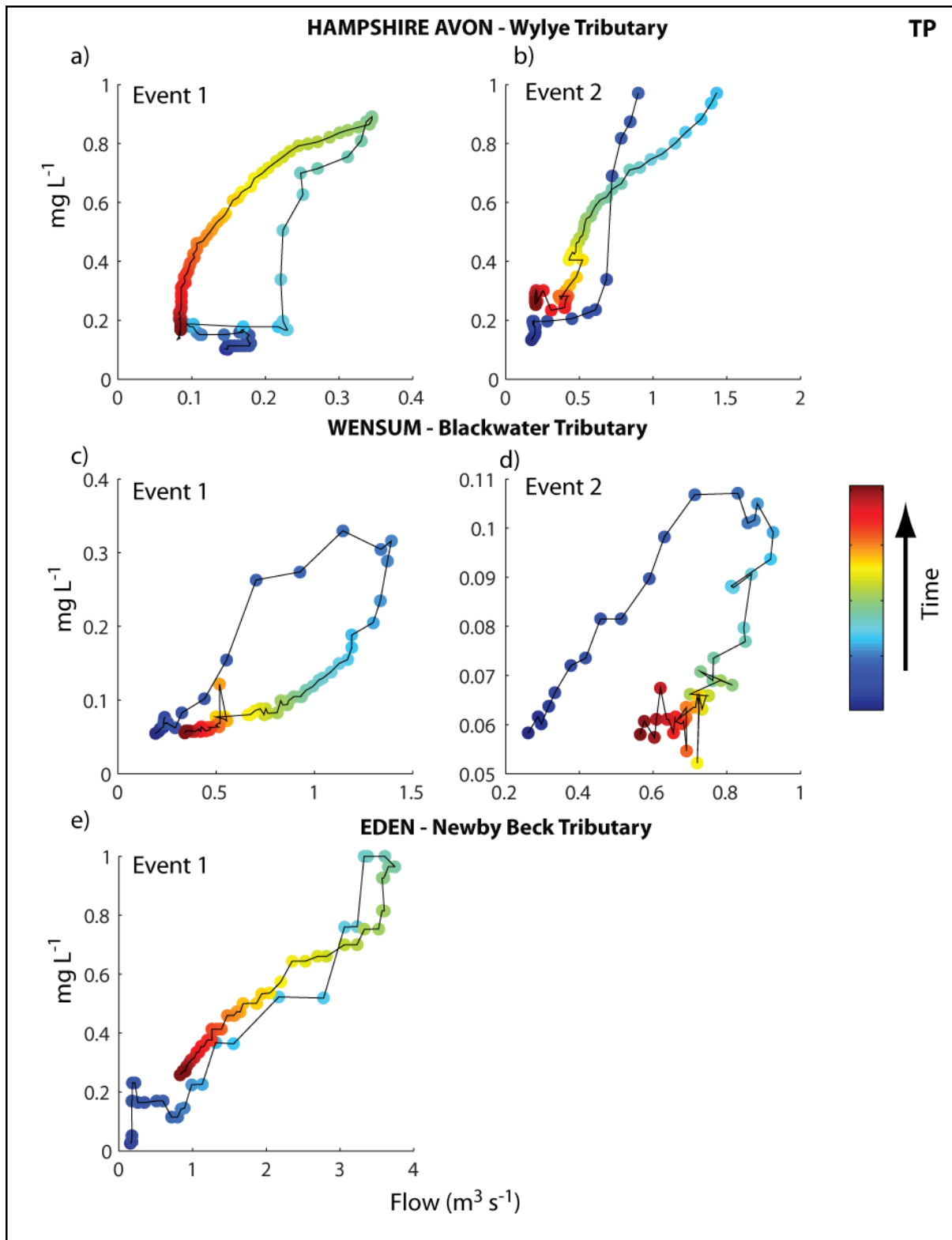
31 **Figure 4.** Plots showing nutrient response to rainfall and flow events in: (a) the Hampshire  
32 Avon Wylde tributary; (b) Wensum Blackwater tributary; and (c) Eden Newby Beck  
33 tributary.

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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.

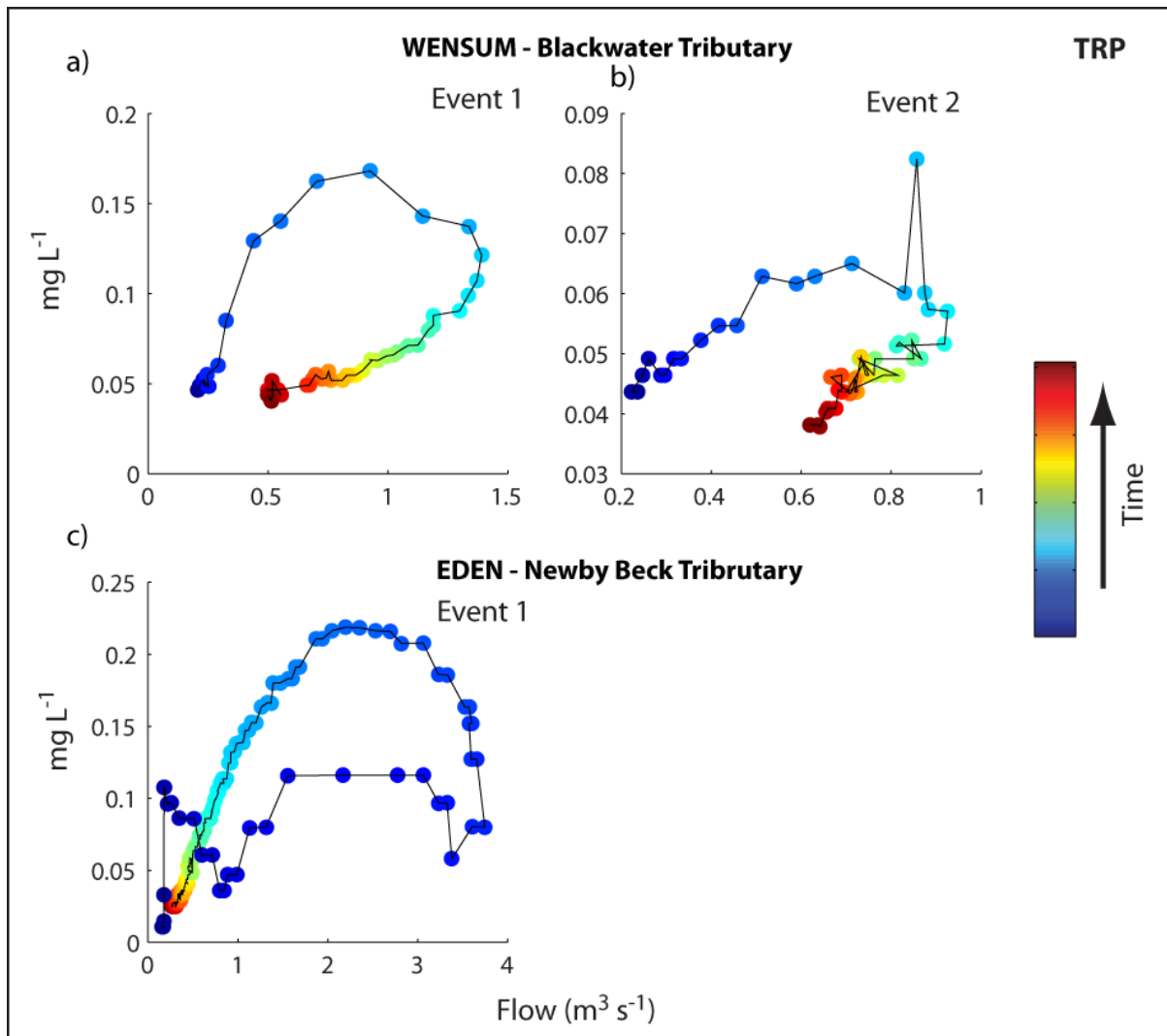


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41 **Figure 6.** Concentration-discharge plots showing TP hysteresis during storm events in (a-b)  
 42 the Hampshire Avon Wylde, (c-d) Wensum Blackwater and (e) Eden Newby Beck  
 43 tributaries.

44





45

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.