

**First of all, we would like to thank the referee for his/her positive and constructive comments on the present manuscript.**

*“As high-resolution monitoring reveals the temporal variability and heterogeneity in river water chemistry, questions arise as to the efficacy of existing regulatory monitoring approaches for determining the requirement for, and effect of, mitigation measures in reducing nutrient loss to surface water systems. The cost of any given monitoring approach needs to be weighed against the expense of unnecessary mitigation where nutrient fluxes are overestimated, and ecological damage where fluxes are underestimated and measures not implemented. Accuracy is important and environmental agencies with responsibilities for water quality need to ensure that monitoring strategies are optimised to suit the scales of variation in each river system, and provide value C2869 for investment. With these issues in mind, this paper compares three approaches for nutrient monitoring in rivers – grab sampling, time-proportional composite sampling and passive flow-proportional samplers- tested both in controlled flumes and 2 rivers in Denmark. The costs of each approach (in terms of investment, installation, transport, power, time and analysis) are compared and evaluated against their efficacy in estimating nutrient loads, providing a real insight into the factors which need to be considered in developing monitoring strategies and identifying viable new technologies and sampling approaches. The paper falls well within the scope of HESS and will be of interest to its readership. It is clearly structured, well-written and could be published as is. There are a few places where some clarification might be helpful though and I have detailed these below.”*

*“Section 2.3 and 2.4: It would be useful to have more information on water chemistry and discharge for the flumes and rivers Odderbaek and Gelbaek. For the flume tests it would be useful to know the set up for the flume experiments in a little more detail. It is not clear whether all the SC samplers were deployed at the same time in each flume –which would give a similar concentration exposure for the duration of the deployment? It might also be helpful to list the 6 flow rates used, rather than just the range. It appears that all are shown in Figure 2a, although two have very similar velocities ( $\sim 0.12\text{m/s}$ ), yet differ in responses in terms of tracer salt loss, so it would be interesting to know if there was any physical difference between these flumes.*

*This leads to a further query regarding the linear relationship shown between cartridge throughflow and P and N accumulations (figure 2b and 2c; Page 7593 lines 11-13) which is provided as further confirmation of the flow-proportionality of the samplers. For a linear relationship with throughflow to exist it is assuming that the concentration profile would be the same in each flume for the duration of the*

*multiple deployments. Some additional information on the concentration ranges in the stream feeding the flumes and during the deployment periods would be useful.”*

**We apologize for the lack of clarity in the description of the experimental setup. All six flumes received water from the same stream, i.e. with the same water chemistry, and the SC samplers were all deployed at the same time in the flumes. The substrate in the flumes was the same, only velocities differed, therefore no physical difference was expected. This experiment was done in summer, at base-flow condition, when the concentrations were rather stable.**

**In the revised manuscript, the experimental design will be clarified, the velocities in each flume will be listed, and more details about the range of concentration will be given.**

*“It would also be interesting to know if there were any deployments in the flumes for longer than a week, given that the river deployments were for 2 weeks? Could the sequestration of N and P deteriorate in time if the pore space in the SC-sampler becomes clogged and how might that have affected the longer duration river deployments? Would a 1 week SC-sampler deployment in the rivers have performed any better?”*

**This a very good point raised by the referee. Only few SC samplers (4) were deployed in the flumes for 2 weeks and therefore it was difficult to interpret the data with confidence which is the reason why these data are not shown. However, based on these data, the assumption of flow proportionality of the samplers seemed valid. Nevertheless, it is not possible to exclude that deployment time has an effect on the performance of the SC sampler and therefore this point will be added to the discussion.**

*“Likewise for the river sites it would be informative to know the base flow concentrations of N and P and to give some idea of the flashiness of river discharge, for example the q5:q95 ratio.”*

**We thank the referee for these suggestions, more information on the flashiness of the rivers and nutrient concentrations at base flow will be added to the manuscript.**

*“Was there any variation in the thalweg in the rivers at different stage heights which might have led to the SC-samplers being located in a lower or higher velocity part of the river cross-section at different flows and thus impact on the flow proportionality?”*

**We thank the reviewer for raising this issue. We will revise and include in the new manuscript that the passive samplers were installed at 0.6 x water height to ensure installation at average flow velocity as a comparable position in the logarithmic velocity profile in the channel cross-section. Hence the position was adjusted according to water depth at every sampling date.**

*“Finally just a small query on laboratory costs – were the SC-samplers analysed in house or transported to the manufacturers for analysis and was that part of the transport costs or included in analysis costs?”*

**In our study the SC-samplers were sent by post to the manufacturer for analysis. However, in our cost calculations we assumed that the transport costs included the delivery to the laboratory. If the SC-samplers are sent to the manufacturers the cost is about 4€ at every sampling and therefore this can slightly increase the total cost.**

*“Technical Corrections*

*Page 7586 Line 4: via water supplies –doesn’t need the “the”*

*Page 7587 Line 6: via drinking water supplies*

*Page 7587 Line 13: change “of 19 000 t N” to “by 19 000 t N”*

*Page 7587 Line 23: “in cooling box” to “in a cooling box”*

*Page 7587 Line 19: Kronvang et al 1993 – there is nothing in the references corresponding to this*

*Page 7588 Line 3: “with power supply” to “with a power supply”*

*Page 7589 Line 2: “when the water” to “when water”*

*Page 7590 Line 17: Should reference be just Strahler, 1957?*

*Page 7591 Line 11: “transducer by establishing” to “transducer and establishing”*

*Page 7595 Line 19: suggest changing “Especially” to “In particular”*

*Figure 6: Proportional misspelled in both x-axes.”*

**All the technical corrections will be incorporated in the revised manuscript.**

**We thank referee #2 for the relevant and constructive comments made on our manuscript. These will certainly help to strengthen the manuscript.**

*“This manuscript describes a series of comparative monitoring techniques to determine annual fluxes of P leaving study catchments. The comparisons of grab and passive sampling are made against a benchmark of time-proportional composite sampling. Estimates of resource allocation are also made. It is an interesting comparison and adds to a body of work in this area of hydrological science. There is one very large and unqualified assumption in the work; that the time proportional composite sampling approach is a true benchmark from which to make comparisons of other methods using bias and precision as the metrics. Very late in the manuscript there is some discussion on 1) a better composite sampling method – the flow-proportional method – and 2) a comparison with a 7hr time integrated approach (not composite) to qualify the approach taken by the authors – pages 12-13. For 1) a comparison of time- and flow-proportional composite sampling methods, the authors should refer to the work by Ort et al., 2010 (ES&T, 44(16), 6024-6035) and references therein. Here the two methods, amongst others, are considered in varying sewage discharges. Time-proportional composite sampling is assumed to provide a poor estimate of annual chemical flux owing to a poor representation of higher discharges in the composite sample: “Conceptually it is clear that a time-proportional sampling mode will systematically under- or overestimate pollutant loads when the flow varies, and when flow and concentration are positively or negatively correlated.” p.6028. “Generally, . . .a time-proportional mode implies that low flows, with a higher proportion of less polluted (extraneous, infiltrating) water during the night, are over-represented in a composite sample; consequently, influent loads will generally be underestimated.” p.6030 Also, the work by Abtew and Powell, 2004 (Journal of the American Water Resources Association, 50(5), 1197-1204): “Weekly flow proportional composite auto-sampling resulted in the least bias in load estimation with competitive operational cost compared to daily grab, weekly grab sampling and time proportional auto-sampling.” Abstract. The authors need to provide some reassurance and evidence early in the manuscript that this isn’t a fatal flaw in the comparisons. From my understanding and brief review of the literature, the time-proportional method should be an additional method to compare with a ‘true load’ however this is (better) defined.”*

**We do agree with the referee, flow-proportional method is a better approach to measure the true load in comparison to time proportional method. The use of a flow-proportional method would have certainly given more assurance on the accuracy and bias of the results obtained by passive samplers and grab sampling. However, when comparing passive samplers, grab sampling and time-proportional**

sampling, we find it safe to rely on the time-proportional sampling as our best estimate of the true load. However, we will make sure to state and carefully word this assumption in the revised manuscript so that it is clearer for the readers. We do agree that we need to discuss this assumption more into details and furthermore, we will provide more details on the differences of performance between flow- and time-proportional methods from the international literature and own studies.

We thank the referee for the relevant references that were suggested — these will be added to the text.

*“For 2), above, the comparison between time-proportional composite sampling and time-integrated sampling (effectively a higher resolution grab sampling where discharge and concentration have discrete datapoints) cannot be made and so cannot justify time-proportional composite sampling. Without qualification to the assumption that time-proportional composite sampling is a ‘true’ method, then it would be an unsafe benchmark and the subsequent quantitative comparisons on bias, precision and resource allocation with other methods would also be unsafe. This qualification is therefore essential for the work to go forward.”*

The referee is correct, we cannot use the comparison between time-proportional composite sampling and time-integrated sampling to justify the use of time-proportional composite sampling. We apologize for this mistake and we will delete this part of the manuscript. As stated above, we will provide more insights into the assumptions and limitations of the time proportional method in the new revised manuscript.

*“General*

*Page 2 line 10 amend to: “Assuming hourly time-proportional”*

*Page 2 line 19 amend to: “a major transport route for”*

*Page 2 lines 25-26 amend to: “In recent decades, the transport of. . .has attracted particular attention”*

*Page 3 line 6 edit: Change to ‘pose’ and delete ‘the’*

*Page 3 line 9 amend to: “to establish at least”*

*Page 3 lines 11-12 delete: “And such mitigation is a costly affair”*

*Page 4 line 8 delete: “interesting” and amend to “as they do not”*

*Page 11 line 10 amend to: “using a minimum of equipment”*

*Page 12 and global check required – consistency in use of phosphorus abbreviations*

*e.g. line 19.*

*Page 12 and 13 not safe comparisons see specific comments”*

**All these corrections will be incorporated in the revised manuscript.**

1 **Comparison of sampling methodologies for nutrient monitoring in streams: uncertainties, costs and**  
2 **implications for mitigation**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 Eutrophication of aquatic ecosystems caused by excess concentrations of nitrogen and phosphorus may have  
18 harmful consequences for biodiversity and poses a health risk to humans via ~~the~~ water supplies. Reduction  
19 of nitrogen and phosphorus losses to aquatic ecosystems involves implementation of costly measures, and  
20 reliable monitoring methods are therefore essential to select appropriate mitigation strategies and to  
21 evaluate their effects. Here, we compare the performances and costs of three methodologies for the  
22 monitoring of nutrients in rivers: grab sampling, time-proportional sampling and passive sampling using flow  
23 proportional samplers. Assuming hourly time-proportional sampling to be the best estimate of the “true”  
24 nutrient load, our results showed that the risk of obtaining wrong total nutrient load estimates by passive  
25 samplers is high despite similar costs as the time-proportional sampling. Our conclusion is that for passive  
26 samplers to provide a reliable monitoring alternative, further development is needed. Grab sampling was the  
27 cheapest of the three methods and was more precise and accurate than passive sampling. We conclude that  
28 although monitoring employing time-proportional sampling is costly, its reliability precludes unnecessarily  
29 high implementation expenses.

30

31



## 32 1 Introduction

33 Rivers act as a major ~~route of~~ transport route for particulate and dissolved matter at catchment scale  
34 (Meybeck, 1982; Seitzinger et al., 2002). Information on the geochemical composition of the transported  
35 substances is valuable to improve our knowledge of these and quantify the erosive processes affecting the  
36 continental surface as well as to estimate nutrient fluxes towards aquatic recipients such as lakes, estuaries,  
37 fjords, seas and oceans (Meybeck, 1982).

38 In recent decades, ~~especially~~ the transport of nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) has attracted particular  
39 attention. Anthropogenic activities, such as increasing use of fertilizers for agricultural purposes or poor  
40 wastewater treatment capacity, have greatly affected the nutrient cycle, causing enhanced release towards  
41 aquatic ecosystems (Vitousek et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1999).

42 Excessive concentrations of N and P are responsible for the eutrophication of aquatic ecosystems (Carpenter  
43 et al., 1998; Birgand et al., 2007; Moss, 2008), which may lead to hypoxia and loss of biodiversity and poses a  
44 health risk to humans via ~~the~~ drinking water supplies (Smith et al., 1999). In consequence of this, in 2000 the  
45 European Union adopted the Water Framework Directive (WFD) to mitigate nutrient pollution of aquatic  
46 ecosystems. The WFD requires member states to establish at least “good” ecological status in their water  
47 bodies and requires that mitigation strategies – i.e. the chosen measures and implementation – should be  
48 cost effective. ~~And such mitigation is a costly affair.~~ As an example, in Denmark, fulfilment of WFD  
49 requirements on a national scale involves reduction of nitrogen and phosphorus loads of by 19000 t N and  
50 210 t P, respectively (<http://naturstyrelsen.dk/vandmiljoe/vandplaner/>), and Jensen et al. (2013) estimates  
51 the total cost of achieving these reduction targets to be around EUR 218 million. Therefore, reliable  
52 monitoring estimates of nutrient transport in rivers are required to select appropriate mitigation strategies  
53 and evaluate their effects.

54 In Denmark, the monitoring of nutrients in streams and rivers includes fortnightly or monthly sampling  
55 (Kronvang et al. 1993). The same is true for many monitoring programs in Europe; for example, in France,

56 80% of water quality surveys since 1971 are based on monthly samplings (Moatar and Meybeck, 2005). Most  
57 monitoring water quality programmes are based on grab sampling involving collection of a small volume of  
58 water, generally 1-2 L, in the river. The sample is stored in a cooling box and sent directly for laboratory  
59 analysis. This method is quick and simple but has some disadvantages in that it only reveals the geochemical  
60 composition of the water at the precise moment of sampling and does not take into account that the  
61 composition may change rapidly over time (Kronvang and Bruhn, 1996; Jordan and Cassidy, 2011).  
62 Consequently, to obtain water samples depicting the temporal variability of nutrient concentrations in  
63 streams, continuous monitoring methods have been developed. These rely on flow proportional sampling,  
64 time proportional sampling or high frequency sampling and *in situ* analyses (Kronvang and Bruhn, 1996;  
65 Jordan and Cassidy, 2011). These methods are, however, costly because they require an on-site station with  
66 a power supply and perhaps also a cooling device to refrigerate and preserve the samples. Also, in areas with  
67 winter temperatures below zero, a heating device may be necessary to prevent freezing of the sampling  
68 system.

69 Passive samplers enabling *in situ* continuous sampling over time may be an interesting alternative to the  
70 above methods as it-they does not require a power supply or storage and refrigeration equipment  
71 (Rozemeijer et al., 2010). However, tests to confirm the reliability of passive samplers, such as the flow  
72 proportional SorbiCell sampler (SC-sampler) (de Jonge and Rothenberg, 2004), should be conducted under  
73 different flow conditions in streams (Jordan et al., 2013).

74 The objectives of this study were: (1) to test the SC-sampler under controlled conditions in flumes and in two  
75 different natural lowland streams; (2) to compare the reliability of utilising SC-samplers, grab sampling and  
76 time proportional composite sampling to estimate nitrate and phosphorusP concentrations; (3) to compare  
77 the costs of the SC-sampler, grab sampling and time proportional composited sampling, and (4) to compare  
78 monitoring costs with the costs of implementing river basin management plans under the WFD.

79

## 80 2 Material and methods

### 81 2.1 Sampling methodologies

82 Three sampling methodologies were tested in this study — passive samplers, grab sampling and automated  
83 time ~~composited~~-proportional sampling. The flow proportional passive sampler SorbiCell (SC-samplers; de  
84 Jonge and Rothenberg, 2004) manufactured by Sorbisense A/S, Tjele, Denmark, which is capable of  
85 measuring average concentrations of nutrients and other substances over time (weeks-months), was applied.

86 The sampler contains an adsorbent that captures nutrients and a soluble tracer salt (calcium-citrate) that  
87 dissolves when ~~the~~ water passes through the sampler. The flow of water through the SC-sampler is estimated  
88 from the dissolution of the salt tracer. SC-samplers are equipped with a filter (mesh size 40-100 µm) to  
89 prevent entry of large particles to the cartridge. Average solute concentration for the installation period is  
90 calculated based on the mass of solute adsorbed and on the mass of tracer salt lost. Further details on SC-  
91 samplers are provided in de Jonge and Rothenberg (2004). Grab sampling involved filling a 2000 mL bottle  
92 with stream water collected in running water in the middle of the stream. Automatic time composited  
93 samples were taken on an hourly basis using an ISCO Glacier® Sampler (Teledyne ISCO, Lincoln NE, USA). The  
94 collected samples were kept refrigerated in the sampler until recollection and home transport for analysis.

95

### 96 2.2 Nutrient analysis

97 The SC-sampler samples were analysed for nitrate and phosphorusP (a detailed description of the analysis of  
98 nitrate is provided in Rozemeijer et al. (2010)). Phosphorus was determined as molybdate reactive  
99 phosphorusP (without filtration) after extraction with 2M HCl and was designated as SC-P. Tracer was  
100 extracted in 0.2 M HCl and measured as Ca in solution by atomic absorption spectroscopy. Nitrate in the  
101 water samples collected by grab sampling and continuous sampling was analysed on a Dionex ICS-1500 IC  
102 system (Dionex corp.; Sunnyvale, USA) after filtration at 0.22 µm (nylon membrane SNY 2225; Frisenette,  
103 Denmark), and total phosphorusP (non-filtrated; TP), total dissolved phosphorusP (0.45µm filtration; TDP)

104 and dissolved inorganic ~~phosphorus~~ (DIP) were analysed following the standard method DS/EN ISO 6878  
105 (2004).

106

### 107 **2.3 Flume experiment**

108 The main aim of this first experiment was to determine the flow conditions suitable for use of SC-samplers.

109 The passive samplers were tested in six flumes (12 m long and 0.6 m wide) ~~having constant flow velocity~~

110 ~~with flow velocities ranging from 0.05 (0.05, 0.08, 0.13, 0.15, 0.18 and 0.25-0.3 m s<sup>-1</sup>),~~ representing well the

111 normal velocities and flow conditions of smaller lowland streams (Ovesen et al., 2000). The substrate was

112 identical in all the flumes and consisted of a mixture of gravel and sand, mimicking the substrate commonly

113 encountered in Danish streams. The flumes received water pumped from a nearby stream and therefore the

114 water chemistry was the same in the six flumes. The experiment was conducted in late summer, during base-

115 flow condition of the stream and therefore nutrient concentrations were relatively stables. Two to four SC-

116 samplers were ~~deployed~~installed at the same time day in the six flumes (Figure 1) and retrieved after 7

117 days; at the same time ~~grab samples were taken of flume water and~~ flow velocity was measured with a

118 current meter OTT-Kleinflügel at the different SC-sampler positions in the flumes. During the deployment,

119 water samples were collected using time proportional sampling method and the ~~The grab~~ samples were

120 analysed for nitrate, TP, TDP and DIP.

### 121 **2.4 In situ stream experiment**

122 Nutrients were monitored at two stations located in two differently shaded lowland streams located in

123 Jutland, Denmark, one in the open Odderbaek stream and one in the more shaded Gelbaek stream. The

124 Odderbaek stream is a second order stream (~~Sensu~~ Strahler, 1957) and has a catchment size of 27.6 km<sup>2</sup>, of

125 which 68% is used for agricultural purposes. The monitoring station at Odderbaek was placed near the mouth

126 of the stream before it flows into Lake Kulsø (latitude N 55.932°, longitude E 9.310°). Upstream of the station,

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127 a 1-km stretch was restored in December 2010 by raising the stream bed, creating meanders and  
128 disconnecting tile drains (Audet et al., 2013). The Gelbaek station was positioned at Lyngby Bridge (lat. N  
129 56.225°, long. E 9.881°). The Gelbaek stream is a first order stream draining 11.6 km<sup>2</sup> of intensively farmed  
130 (>95% arable land) catchment with a corridor of trees in the buffer strip along the lower 2 km of the stream  
131 channel (Kronvang et al., 1997).

## 132 **2.5 Sampling strategy and hydrology**

133 The streams were visited at approx. 2-4 week intervals during June 2010–May 2011 at Odderbaek and  
134 November 2010–October 2011 at Gelbaek. On each occasion, grab sampling was performed, SC-samplers  
135 (triplicates) were collected, new passive samplers were installed and the composite sample from the  
136 automatic ISCO sampler was collected. The position of the passive samplers in the water column was adjusted  
137 at every deployment to be set at approx. 0.6 x water height to ensure comparable position in the velocity  
138 gradient of the stream cross-section. At Gelbaek, automatic sampling was interrupted between December  
139 and February due to freezing of the sampling system. Water samples obtained from grab and automatic  
140 sampling were analysed for nitrate and TP, whereas the SC-samples were analysed for nitrate and  
141 phosphorus<sub>P</sub> (SC-P).

142 For both streams, water discharge was calculated from continuous measurements of stage utilising a vented  
143 pressure transducer and by establishing a stage-discharge relationship at different water stages to cover the  
144 entire hydrological regime.

145 The monthly transport of nutrients was estimated by multiplying the daily discharge with the daily  
146 concentration derived from the three methods. For the grab sampling, the concentrations were linearly  
147 interpolated between sampling dates, while for the passive and continuous samplers the average  
148 concentrations obtained were used for each measurement period (ca. 2-week periods).

## 149 **2.6 Statistics**

150 Accuracy (bias) and precision were used to compare the results derived from the three sampling methods,  
151 the results from the time proportional composited sampling being regarded as our best estimate of the “true”  
152 concentration (See section 4.2). Accuracy ( $\bar{\epsilon}$ ) was evaluated by calculating the mean of the relative errors ( $\epsilon$ ),  
153 and the standard deviation ( $s$ ) gave a measure of the precision of  $\epsilon$ . Root-mean-square error (RMSE) was also  
154 used as it combines these two concepts (Dolan et al., 1981).

$$155 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\bar{\epsilon}^2 + s^2}$$

156 To check if the concentrations obtained from the SC-cells and the grab samples differed significantly from  
157 those of the time proportional composited samples (i.e. the “true” concentrations), we used paired student’s  
158 t-test.

## 159 **2.7 Measuring the costs of the sampling methods**

160 The total costs of implementing the different sampling methods can be decomposed into different categories  
161 such as investment costs, operational costs and maintenance costs whose relative weight varies. Investment  
162 costs refer to one-time costs for equipment and facilities, operational costs include salary and other input  
163 and service costs, for instance sampling bottles and analyses, and maintenance costs refer to costs associated  
164 with maintenance of equipment, in our case only relevant for water level measurements. The costs are  
165 assessed in welfare economic prices (Johansson, 1993) and thus reflect the welfare economic costs of  
166 implementation. Assessing the costs in welfare economic prices rather than factor prices allows comparisons  
167 to be made with mitigation costs. As investment costs are one-time costs, they should be spread over the life  
168 time of the investment. In our study, investment costs were converted into annual costs using a discount rate  
169 of 4% and assuming a life time of 5 years. Costs for laboratory analyses are an important component for all  
170 monitoring methods and are assessed using list prices including both-transport of the samples to the lab,  
171 salary, materials and equipment costs. In the present case, cost calculations of the SC-sampling method were  
172 based on duplicate measurements, i.e. simultaneous use of two SC-samplers. Salary costs were calculated

173 using an average salary of EUR 37 h<sup>-1</sup> (average salary for laboratory staff at Aarhus University, Denmark).  
174 Common for all methods is that sampling requires visits to the monitoring site with ensuing salary and  
175 transport costs. Assuming that a technician was responsible for the sampling (salary EUR 37 h<sup>-1</sup>) and that the  
176 study sites were located at an average distance of 50 km from the laboratory, the time requirement and  
177 transport were assessed following the unit costs provided by the Danish Ministry of Energy ( EUR 0.2 km<sup>-1</sup>).  
178 The need for transport was considered identical for all three monitoring methods as was the need for  
179 conducting water level and water flow measurements, implying that the three cost components only affected  
180 total monitoring costs and not the absolute difference in costs between the three methods.

181

### 182 **3 Results**

#### 183 **3.1 Testing of passive samplers in flumes**

184 The testing of the passive samplers (SC-samplers) for a range of flow velocities revealed that the flow-through  
185 volume estimated from the dissolution of the tracer salt contained in the SC-samplers was directly  
186 proportional to the measured flow velocity in the flumes (Figure 2a). This result demonstrates that the SC-  
187 samplers work at a flow-proportional rate when installed in running waters to estimate nutrient  
188 concentration. This was confirmed by the linear relationship traced between **phosphorusP** accumulated in  
189 the passive samplers and the volume of tracer salt dissolved during the one-week monitoring period (Figure  
190 2b). Similarly, a linear relationship was found between accumulated nitrate and the volume of salt dissolved  
191 (Figure 2c). Nitrate concentrations obtained from the SC-samplers installed for one week compared well with  
192 the results of **grab-time proportional** sampling (Table 1). Regarding **phosphorusP**, the results from the SC-  
193 samplers were comparable between the two monitoring periods but slightly lower than the TP results from  
194 the grab sampling. However, SC-P was higher than TDP and DIP (Table 1).

195

#### 196 **3.2 In situ stream sampling methods**

197 The comparison of nitrate and **phosphorusP** concentrations obtained by the three different sampling  
198 methods employed in two streams showed some contrasting results. For both streams, the nitrate  
199 concentrations obtained from grab and time-proportional sampling were comparable (Figures 3) and did not  
200 differ significantly ( $p>0.05$ ; t-test), whereas the nitrate concentration from the SC-samplers exhibited marked  
201 differences (Figure 3). Assuming that the time-proportional method yielded the best estimate of the “true”  
202 concentration over the sampling period, the nitrate concentrations determined from the passive sampler  
203 samples were almost always overestimated at Odderbaek and generally underestimated at Gelbaek.  
204 However, the difference between the automatic samplers and the SC-samplers was only significant at  
205 Odderbæk ( $p<0.01$ ). For **phosphorusP**, the concentration results from grab sampling and passive samplers  
206 were generally lower than for time-proportional sampling (Figure 4). The **phosphorusP** concentrations  
207 obtained from SC-samplers and grab sampling differed significantly from those of the time-proportional  
208 method at Odderbaek ( $p<0.05$  and  $p<0.01$ , respectively), whereas no significant differences appeared at  
209 Gelbaek although the discharge was more “flashy” than at Odderbaek (ratio q5:q95; 0.07 at Gelbaek and  
210 0.21 at Odderbaek). However, pronouncedly large differences between the SC-sampler and grab sampling  
211 results were observed for **total-phosphorusTP** concentrations in Odderbaek during the months of December  
212 and January (Figure 4), which might be due to an increase in the transport of particulate **phosphorusP** derived  
213 from erosion following heavy precipitation event as well as the restoration activities affecting the stream bed  
214 upstream of the monitoring station.

215 We found significant positive relationships between stream velocity and SC-sampler sampling rates ( $p=0.02$   
216 at Gelbaek and  $p=0.02$  at Odderbaek), but variability was high as illustrated by the low  $R^2$  (Figure 5). Accuracy,  
217 precision and RMSE of the SC-samplers and grab sampling methods compared to the time proportional  
218 method are presented in Table 2. For both streams, grab sampling concentrations gave a better estimate of  
219 the reference concentrations than the SC-sampler concentrations. Nevertheless, grab sampling performance  
220 was still relatively poor for nitrate (RMSE: 23% and 17% at Odderbaek and Gelbaek, respectively) and even  
221 poorer for **phosphorusP** (RMSE: 53% and 54% at Odderbaek and Gelbaek, respectively).



222 The results obtained for the annual transport of nitrate calculated from passive sampler concentrations  
223 showed an overestimation of 47% at Odderbaek and an underestimation of 32% at Gelbaek relative to the  
224 reference load (i.e. time proportional sampling) (Table 3). For ~~total-phosphorus~~TP, the annual transport was  
225 underestimated by 43% and 23% at Odderbaek and Gelbaek, respectively. The transport derived from the  
226 grab sampling compared well with the reference transport for nitrate (-6% and 6% at Odderbaek and  
227 Gelbaek, respectively) but clearly underestimated the ~~TP~~total-phosphorus-transport (-54% and -35%) in both  
228 streams (Table 2).

229

### 230 3.3 Costs of the sampling methods

231 Estimated welfare economic costs of the sampling methods are given in Figure 6a, which shows that SC  
232 sampling costs are nearly identical with those of time proportional sampling, i.e. approximately €3700  
233 annually per site. From an economic point of view, the SC method has the advantages of not requiring any  
234 significant investments and allowing greater flexibility for change of sampling site. In contrast, the cost of  
235 grab sampling is much lower (EUR 2000 year<sup>-1</sup> per site) as no investments are required and samples are  
236 collected using a ~~minimum of equipment~~cheap bottle. Figure 6b shows the costs of the three methods  
237 including water level measurement, flow level measurement and transport to and from the sampling site.  
238 Despite a substantial cost increase, this does not influence the relative cost ranking of the methods. As can  
239 be seen, non-method specific costs account for a large proportion of the total costs, revealing that monitoring  
240 is expensive irrespective of method used (Figure 6b).

## 241 4 Discussion

### 242 4.1 Monitoring of nutrients in stream waters using passive samplers

243 SorbiCell passive samplers (SC-samplers) have been shown to be capable of reproducing the nitrate  
244 concentration level and seasonal pattern in a stream, ditch and three tile drains in The Netherlands  
245 (Rozemeijer et al., 2010). In the Dutch study, although the SC-sampler underestimated the nitrate  
246 concentration in the summer months, calculated loads based on the SC samples were nearly similar to the  
247 loads derived from continuous measurements of nitrate concentrations using Hydrion sensor equipment  
248 (Rozemeijer et al., 2010). To some extent these findings corroborate the results of our controlled flume  
249 experiment but are not supported by our field results in the two streams. The SC-sampler had a high RMSE  
250 for both nitrate-N measurements (111% and 59%) and phosphorusP measurements (72% and 107%) for both  
251 study streams (Table 2), these results being much inferior to those of a fortnightly grab sampling procedure  
252 for nitrate-N (23% and 17%) and phosphorusP (53% and 54%).

253 In our stream experiment, flow velocities in the channel were not correctly mimicked by the SC-sampler,  
254 which in turn influences the capability of the SC-sampler to measure nutrient concentrations. This is  
255 evidenced from a comparison of datasets on *in situ* measured flow velocities where the SC-samplers were  
256 mounted in the cross-sectional profile and the flow through the SC-samplers was measured from the loss of  
257 tracer salt. The linear relationships linking sampling rate to flow velocity had a slope of 0.04 in the Odderbaek  
258 stream and 0.05 in the Gelbaek stream. This is much lower than the rates recorded in our initial flume  
259 experiment where the slope was 0.10 and less water flowed through the SC-samplers in the streams than in  
260 the flumes at comparable stream velocities. We believe that the responsible factor is physical blocking of the  
261 SC-samplers with vegetation detritus and periodically fine sediments from the stream bed and banks in  
262 Odderbaek due to restoration activities involving heavy machinery. Furthermore, Jordan et al. (2013)  
263 questioned the assumption of a linear increase in SC-sampler flow through at enhanced flow velocities  
264 produced by the increasing risk of recirculating wakes developing downstream of the cartridge. In addition,  
265 it is unclear which fraction of P is recovered in the passive samplers, which complicates comparison with

266 standard methods. ~~Especially in particular~~ the recovery of particulate ~~phosphorus~~P may be poor because of  
267 the sampler's filter and potential occurrence of desorption processes in the sampler cartridge (Jordan et al.,  
268 2013). In our flume study, the ~~phosphorus~~P fraction recovered from the passive samplers comprised between  
269 total P and total dissolved P. ~~Finally, the deployment duration may also have influenced the results from the~~  
270 ~~SC-samplers as they were deployed for one week in the flumes in contrast with the streams where the~~  
271 ~~sampling time was two weeks. This may have affected the performance of the passive samplers because of~~  
272 ~~possible clogging and desorption processes.~~

#### 273 4.2 Evaluation of time proportional and grab sampling strategies

274 ~~In the present study, time proportional composite sampling was used as the best estimate of the true load.~~  
275 ~~However, in dynamic systems such as streams, flow proportional composite sampling is conceptually a better~~  
276 ~~approach to estimate nutrient fluxes (Abteu and Powell, 2004; Ort et al., 2010).~~ The advantages of flow  
277 proportional composite sampling versus time proportional composite sampling were compared in a study  
278 conducted in three small-sized streams in Norway (Haraldsen and Stålnacke, 2006). The results showed that  
279 annual nitrate-N loads were highest when calculated from flow proportional sampling in two of the streams  
280 (0.4-7.2%) but lower in the third stream (20.4%) compared to time proportional sampling. For total P, one of  
281 the streams had a higher annual transport for flow proportional than for time proportional sampling (38.4%),  
282 whereas transport was lower for flow proportional sampling in two of the streams (8.2-9.6%). ~~These results~~  
283 ~~do not allow a conclusion to be drawn on which sampling method gives better accuracy and precision.~~ ~~The~~  
284 ~~use of time-proportional composite sampling (hourly sampling) against a flow-proportional sampling~~  
285 ~~programme has been evaluated in a smaller Danish stream based on a Monte Carlo evaluation of the bias~~  
286 ~~and precision (standard deviation) of the two methods utilizing a one year sampling effort with 2300 single~~  
287 ~~measurements of the concentration of total phosphorus (Kronvang and Iversen, 2002). The estimated annual~~  
288 ~~total P load from time-proportional sampling had a higher bias (-12.2%), than the annual load calculated~~  
289 ~~based on flow-proportional sampling (-0.2%). Both sampling methods showed, however, a nearly similar~~

290 precision (standard deviation: 0.8% for time-proportional and 0.3% for flow-proportional sampling).  
291 Therefore, flow-proportional sampling is superior to time-proportional sampling in delivering more unbiased  
292 load estimates of total P. A similar conclusion is, however, not to be expected in the case of total N because  
293 of the more smoothed concentration pattern during the year and the absence of spikes (Kronvang and Bruhn,  
294 1996).

295 We therefore find it safe to conclude that time-proportional composite sampling in the case of both total N  
296 and P yields precise load estimates, but with a lower accuracy (more bias) in the case of total P than flow-  
297 proportional sampling. The accuracy of the load estimates of especially total P will, however, be strongly  
298 dependent on the stream monitored regarding its hydrological regime and P pathways (Kronvang et al., 1996;  
299 Haraldsen and Stålnacke, 2002; Jordan and Cassidy, 2011).~~In a former study, a Monte Carlo evaluation was~~  
300 ~~conducted on the reliability of flow proportional composite sampling compared to time proportional~~  
301 ~~composite sampling in a Danish small stream (Iversen et al., 1999). Introduction of flow proportional sampling~~  
302 ~~clearly improved the accuracy of annual transport estimates of total phosphorus (-12.2% to -0.2%), whereas~~  
303 ~~precision was almost identical (0.3% and 0.8%, respectively). We therefore find it safe to conclude that flow~~  
304 ~~proportional composite sampling yields the “true” transport estimate; however, precision is nearly as high~~  
305 ~~with time proportional composite sampling. In their study of sampling methodologies, Jordan and Cassidy~~  
306 ~~(2011) also concluded that use of a time integrated approach sampling every 7 hours during a week (24/7~~  
307 ~~solution) was the least uncertain sampling strategy compared to 15 other sampling strategies employed to~~  
308 ~~obtain accurate annual load estimates in an Irish stream.~~

309 In a study of two smaller streams in Denmark, Kronvang and Bruhn (1996) found an RMSE of 1.1-5.4% for  
310 total N and 10.5-20.2% for total P using fortnightly grab sampling, increasing to 4.4-5.3% for total N and 16.9-  
311 28.7 for total P with monthly grab sampling when compared to high frequency sampling (4 to 24 hours  
312 interval). In another study of the River Loire in France, Moatar and Meybeck (2005) compared monthly grab  
313 sampling against high frequency sampling (1-4 day intervals) and found the RMSE of the annual load to be

314 6% for nitrate and 9% for TP. These values were much lower than in our study showing RMSE values of 17-  
315 23% for total N and 53-54% for total P for fortnightly grab sampling. A likely explanation may be that the  
316 small streams investigated in our study exhibited a more dynamic pattern in nutrient concentrations than  
317 larger rivers such as the River Loire.

318 Some common features emerge from our study and those previously conducted on sampling methodology  
319 and transport estimation: 1) grab sampling nearly always underestimates the “true” annual loads of total P  
320 and has high RMSE values (Table 2 and 3); grab sampling may both underestimate and overestimate “true”  
321 annual loads of nitrogenN (Table 2 and 3); and 3) use of SC-samplers did not improve the annual load  
322 estimates for either nitrogenN or phosphorusP in our two investigated streams.

323

#### 324 **4.3.1 Method costs**

325 The per site monitoring costs of the three different sampling methods reveal almost identical costs per year  
326 for use of SC-samplers and time proportional sampling. Hence, economic considerations do not change the  
327 conclusion that time-proportional sampling seems preferable to passive sampling. This may, though, change  
328 in the future if the passive sampling method can be improved to enhance measurement accuracy, rendering  
329 duplicate measurements unnecessary. Important advantages of the passive sampling method are the  
330 absence of investment costs and its flexibility in allowing easy relocation of monitoring stations. Comparison  
331 of time-proportional sampling with grab sampling provides a less clear choice – time-proportional sampling  
332 was still the most reliable method, but the difference was not as pronounced as for the passive sampling  
333 method. There is, though, a substantial difference in costs, and this – combined with the other advantages  
334 of grab-sampling in terms of investment costs and flexibility – suggests that grab sampling may, in some  
335 situations, be the best choice.

336

337 **4.42 Implications for the costs of river management plans and the implementation of the WFD**

338 Both over- and underestimation of nutrient concentrations may have serious implications for the magnitude  
339 of the costs involved in meeting the load reduction targets specified by the WFD. Regarding method  
340 measurement certainty, we have previously mentioned that passive sampling overestimated the annual N  
341 load by 47% and underestimated the annual P load by 43% at Odderbaek using the time-proportional method  
342 as reference. For Gelbaek, both N and P were underestimated by the passive sampling method. These over-  
343 and/or underestimations of the true nutrient concentrations by passive samplers may have significant – both  
344 economic and environmental – implications if the passive sampling method is used as the base for WFD  
345 implementation.

346 If nutrient concentrations are overestimated (i.e. the measured concentrations exceed the true  
347 concentration), the need for reduction of nutrient emissions will be overestimated too; the current status  
348 will thus appear to be farther away from the target of good ecological status than actually is the case. This  
349 may lead to over-implementation of mitigation measures. Seen from a strictly environmental point of view  
350 this would be positive in that the ecological status would be improved to a status even better than “good”,  
351 but from a welfare-economic point of view this would be a wasteful expenditure of society’s resources. In  
352 contrast, if nutrient concentrations are underestimated, also the need for additional mitigation measures will  
353 be underestimated, likely leading to non-compliance with the requirements of the WFD. Seen from an  
354 ecological point of view this is not desirable, as the ecological condition will not be sufficiently improved;  
355 seen from a -economic point of view, costs will be reduced, which may seem advantageous from a farmer’s  
356 perspective; but from a welfare economic (society’s) aspect, assuming that the set target reflects society’s  
357 preferences, this will entail damage (or resource) costs and inefficient use of society’s resources.

358 If mitigation efforts are based on erroneous estimates of nutrient concentrations implications may be severe  
359 and vary significantly from case to case depending on the required reduction (i.e. the current state) and the  
360 availability or feasibility of employing different mitigation measures. To illustrate the extent of the costs, for

361 Ringkoebing catchment, the recipient for Odderbaek, the average cost of N reduction is estimated to EUR 5  
362 per kg N (Jacobsen, 2012) and the total costs of achieving the required reduction are estimated to EUR 2.2  
363 million per year (Jacobsen, 2012). If N loads at all monitoring sites in the catchment are assumed to be  
364 overestimated by the 47% observed at Odderbaek, total annual costs for attaining the N target for  
365 Ringkoebing fjord would increase to EUR 2.9 million per year. The more specific consequences will vary  
366 between catchments as the load reduction targets and the costs per kg reduction are dissimilar due to  
367 differences in loads and production and in the feasibility of implementing low-cost measures. For another  
368 Danish catchment, the Limfjorden catchment for which load reductions requirements are higher and the  
369 estimated costs per kg N almost twice as high, the costs would increase from EUR 40 to 57 million per year.  
370 The fact that the mitigation costs are not linear but most often marginally increasing supports our conclusion  
371 (Hasler et al., In Press). Although a 47% overestimation of N loads cannot be assumed for all sites, the  
372 example shows that significant costs may arise from basing WFD implementation on incorrect measurement  
373 results. As illustrated above, the costs of overestimation are fairly straightforward to assess as they may be  
374 expressed in terms of the costs of the measures that are implemented in excess of the measures necessary  
375 for meeting the target. In contrast, the costs of underestimation are more difficult to calculate as there are  
376 no readily available prices of the damage costs of one kg N (as the damage of one kg N varies between  
377 recipients). Underestimation results in failure to meet the ecological target, and this may be seen as  
378 equivalent to failure to obtain the level of environmental quality given by the difference between the set  
379 target and the achieved target. Valuation studies assessing the value of achieving different levels of ecological  
380 status, including "good", are available (Jørgensen et al., 2013) where the value may be interpreted as the  
381 value lost, or damage cost, incurred if good ecological status is not achieved. The results of these studies  
382 cannot, however, be readily transferred to ours, and since no valuation studies have been performed for  
383 Ringkoebing fjord, we will not attempt to estimate the potential costs associated with underestimation of  
384 nutrient concentrations.

## 385 **5 Conclusions**

386 No definite conclusions can be drawn regarding best measurement practices based on the cost assessments  
387 made in this study, but several important points have arisen that are worth contemplating. Thus, we found  
388 that monitoring costs vary significantly between methods but that there was no clear relationship between  
389 costs and quality. When comparing passive sampling with time proportional sampling, the superiority of time  
390 proportional sampling is fairly obvious, whereas the differences between passive sampling and grab sampling  
391 are less clear – which method is the best depends on the specific situation. More importantly, our analysis  
392 illustrates that monitoring costs are likely much lower than mitigation costs. Consequently, one should be  
393 careful not to put much focus on monitoring-related cost savings, particularly if these entail decreased  
394 measurement certainty. Hence, the welfare economic costs incurred by basing mitigation efforts on  
395 erroneous measuring results probably greatly exceed monitoring cost savings.

396 To synthesise our findings, we present a summary table of the advantages and disadvantages associated with  
397 the three sampling methodologies studied (Table 4). As can be seen, if time proportional sampling is not  
398 feasible, for instance due to the relatively high costs, grab sampling should be favoured over passive  
399 samplers, as further development is required to make them a reliable nutrient sampling alternative. The  
400 resources spent on increasing the reliability and certainty of monitoring results save implementation costs  
401 that are far higher than the monitoring costs.



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480

481

482 Table 1 Nitrate and phosphorus concentration in the flume experiments determined by SC-samplers and ~~grab~~  
 483 time proportional sampling. The SC-samplers were installed in the flumes for one week (n=14).  
 484 Concentrations ± standard error.

485

	SC-sampler		<del>Grab-Time proportional</del> sampling			
	Nitrate mg N L <sup>-1</sup>	SC-P mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	Nitrate mg N L <sup>-1</sup>	TP mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	TDP mg P L <sup>-1</sup>	DIP mg P L <sup>-1</sup>
Week 1	0.95 ± 0.05	0.034 ± 0.002	<del>01.9701 ± 0.02</del>	0.056 ± 0.004	0.0181 ± 0.001	0.011 ± 0.014

486

487 Table 2 Accuracy (mean relative error), precision (standard deviation of the relative error) and root-mean-squared error (RMSE) of SorbiCells passive  
 488 samplers and grab sampling compared to time proportional ~~composited~~ sampling for monitoring nitrate and phosphorus in streams.

Stream	Nitrate						Phosphorus					
	SorbiCells			Grab sampling			SorbiCells			Grab sampling		
	Accuracy	Precision	RMSE	Accuracy	Precision	RMSE	Accuracy	Precision	RMSE	Accuracy	Precision	RMSE
Odderbaek	0.76	0.81	1.11	0.17	0.16	0.23	0.62	0.37	0.72	0.49	0.20	0.53
Gelbaek	0.51	0.29	0.59	0.15	0.08	0.17	0.67	0.83	1.07	0.40	0.37	0.54

489

490 Table 3 Nitrate and phosphorus loads for three sampling methods in two streams. Deviation from the  
 491 reference is given as a percentage.

Sampling method	Odderbaek <sup>1</sup>				Gelbaek <sup>1</sup>			
	N Load		P load		N Load		P load	
	t N	kg P			t N	kg P		
Sorbicells	55.5	47%	524	-43%	2.3	-32%	99	-23%
Grab sampling	35.4	-6%	420	-54%	3.6	6%	84	-35%
Time proportional sampling (reference)	37.7	-	915	-	3.4	-	129	-

492 <sup>1</sup>Load measured for the period 01-06-2010 to 31-05-2011 at Odderbaek and for the period 10-02-2011 to 31-  
 493 10-2011 at Gelbaek.

494

495 Table 4 Advantages and disadvantages of the three nutrient monitoring methods tested in the present study.

Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Passive sampler	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Flow integrated (i.e. continuous sampling over time relative to flow conditions in the stream)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lack of documentation</li> <li>- Reliability (still under development)</li> <li>- Difficult to compare P results with other international standards for filtration and analysis</li> <li>- Costs</li> <li>- Malfunctions with loss of data</li> </ul>
Grab sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Fast</li> <li>- Simple</li> <li>- Cheap (only a bottle + analysis)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Representative only for the conditions at the time of sampling; thus, short-lasting peak flow events are most often not represented. If they are a false signal for a too long/for a prolonged period is obtained when utilising linear interpolation between each grab sample in time.</li> </ul>
Time proportional sampling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Time integrated</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Equipment costs</li> <li>- Power supply required</li> <li>- Maintenance</li> <li>- Malfunctions with loss of data</li> </ul>

496



497 Figure captions:

498 Figure 1. Picture of SorbiCell passive samplers installed in a study flume.

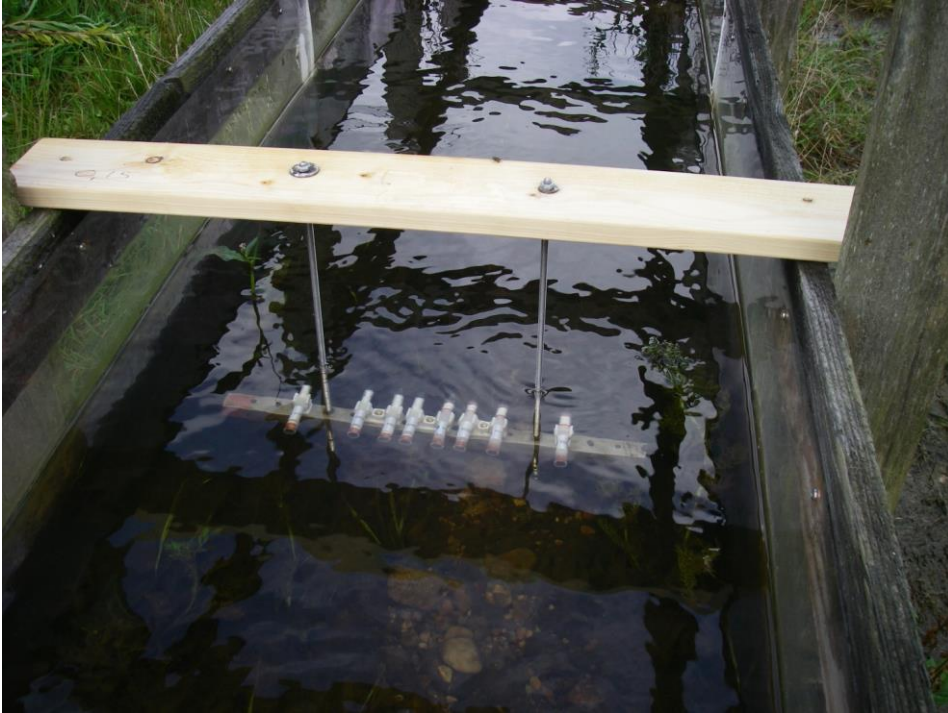
499 Figure 2. Relationships between (a) stream flow velocity in the flumes and sampling rate of the passive  
500 samplers, (b) between dissolved tracer salt and accumulated phosphorus in the passive samplers, (c)  
501 between dissolved tracer salt and accumulated nitrate in the passive samplers. The passive samplers were  
502 installed for one to two weeks in the flumes.

503 Figure 3. Nitrate concentrations at Odderbaek and Gelbaek determined by passive samplers, grab sampling  
504 and time proportional sampler. The monitoring by the time proportional sampler at Gelbaek was interrupted  
505 in winter because of freezing.

506 Figure 4. Phosphorus concentrations at Odderbaek and Gelbaek determined passive samplers, grab sampling  
507 and time proportional sampler. The monitoring by the time proportional sampler at Gelbaek was interrupted  
508 in winter because of freezing.

509 Figure 5. Relationships between stream flow velocity at Odderbaek and Gelbaek and the sampling rate of the  
510 passive samplers.

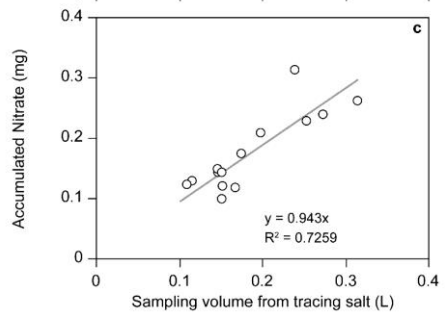
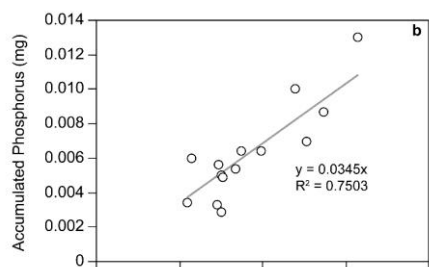
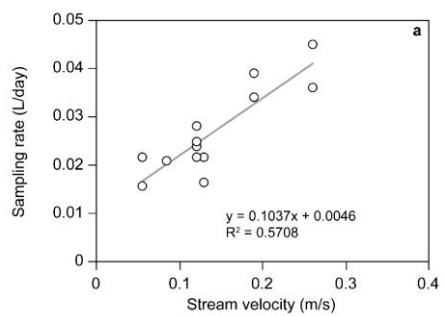
511 Figure 6. Comparison of costs and cost distribution per sample site and year ~~(€)~~(EUR) (top) and total annual  
512 costs of the sampling methods per site, including water level and flow metering (bottom).  
513



514

515 Figure 1

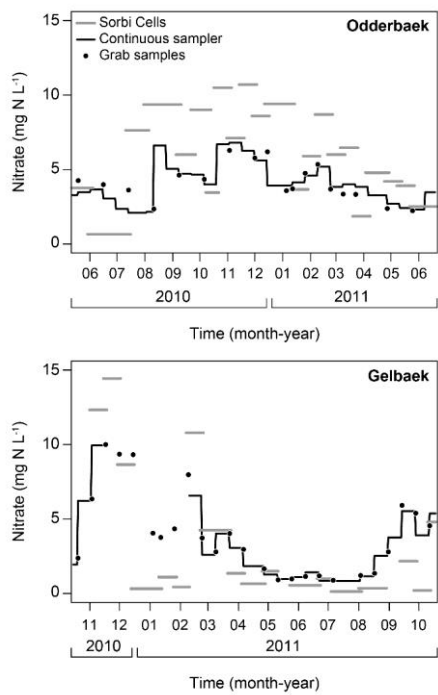
516



○ Week 1      — Linear (week 1)

517  
518 Figure 2

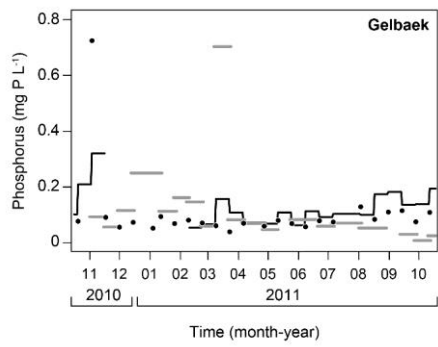
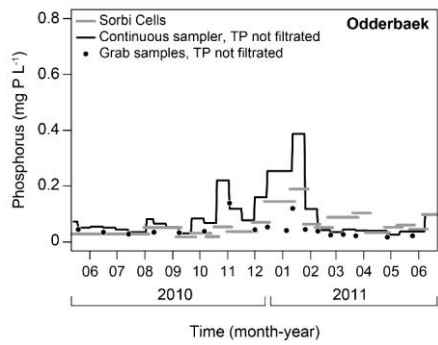
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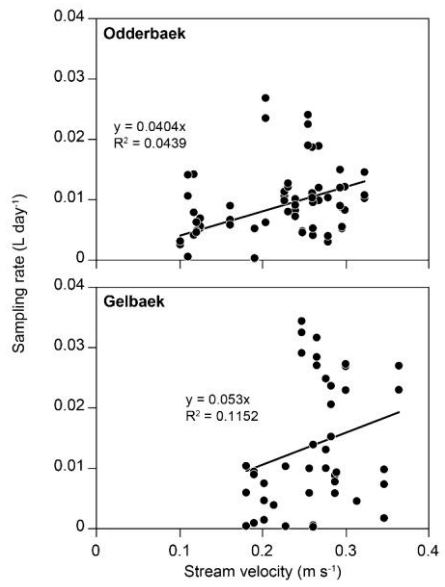
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521 Figure 3

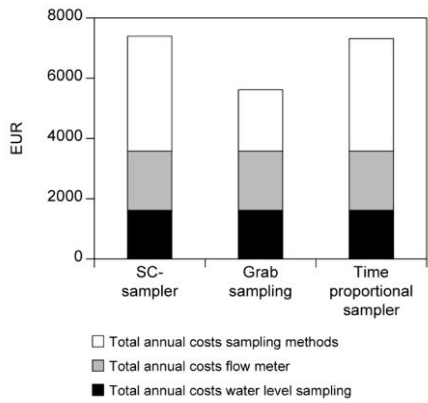
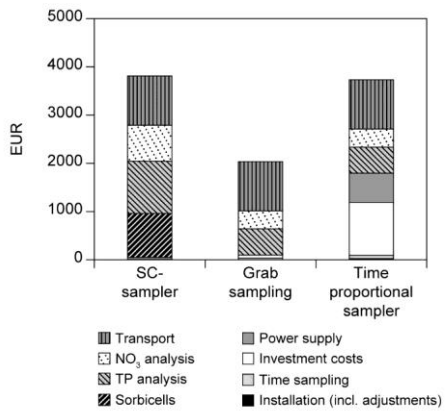
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523  
 524 Figure 4  
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526  
527 Figure 5



528  
529  
530

Figure 6