



Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

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Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics in an agricultural headwater catchment

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[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



Abstract

Several controls are known to affect water quality of stream networks during flow recession periods such as solute leaching processes, surface water – groundwater interactions as well as biogeochemical in-stream retention processes. Throughout the stream network combinations of specific water and solute export rates and local in-stream conditions overlay the biogeochemical signals from upstream sections. Therefore, upstream sections can be considered as functional units which could be distinguished and ordered regarding their relative contribution to nutrient dynamics at the catchment outlet. Based on synoptic sampling of flow and nitrate concentrations along the stream in an agricultural headwater during the summer flow recession period, we determined spatial and temporal patterns of water quality for the whole stream. A data-driven, in-stream-mixing-and-removal model was developed and applied for analyzing the spatio-temporal in-stream retention processes and their effect on the spatio-temporal fluxes of nitrates from sub-catchments. Thereby, we have been able to distinguish between nitrate sinks and sources per stream reaches and sub-catchments. For nitrate sources we have determined their permanent and temporally impact on stream water quality and for nitrate sinks we have found increasing nitrate removal efficiencies from up- to downstream. Our results highlight the importance of distinct nitrate source locations within the watershed for in-stream concentrations and in-stream removal processes, respectively. Thus, our findings contribute to the development of a more dynamic perception of water quality in streams and rivers concerning ecological and sustainable water resources management.

1 Introduction

Dissolved nutrients such as nitrate and soluble reactive phosphorus control surface water trophic status (e.g. Likens and Bormann, 1974). Therefore, increasing concentrations of nitrate in streams and rivers of agricultural landscapes pose a severe risk for

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[⏪](#)[⏩](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

their ecological status and downstream for drinking water resources. Local nitrate concentrations in streams and rivers depend largely on two antagonistic controls: nitrate export processes from landscapes to the stream network (e.g. Carpenter et al., 1998; Lam et al., 2012; Schilling and Zhang, 2004; Tesoriero et al., 2013) and in-stream removal processes (e.g. Bowes et al., 2014; Burgin and Hamilton, 2007; Covino et al., 2012; Hill, 1996; Montreuil et al., 2010; Mulholland et al., 2008). The stream network itself can be treated as an interface that connects the different landscape components and determine the dynamics of the water quality (Hunsaker and Levine, 1995). Moreover, the convolution of water and matter fluxes from up- to downstream can be dominated by hydrological turnover processes (i.e. the sum of stream–groundwater exchange fluxes) throughout the stream network (Mallard et al., 2014).

Nitrate export processes comprise various interacting processes and drivers. Depending on present landuse (Mulholland et al., 2008) and land management (Basu et al., 2010; Marwick et al., 2014; McCarty et al., 2014), the balance between nitrogen (N) inputs (fertilizers, N deposition, N fixation) and N uptake by plants is the main driver, especially in agricultural landscapes. Organic nitrogen mineralization in soils plays also a major part, in relation with biological activity (Bormann and Likens, 1967), climate (Mitchell et al., 1996), hydrology (Montreuil et al., 2010) and landscapes hydrogeological and pedological characteristics (Schilling and Zhang, 2004). Denitrification in anoxic zones, and particularly the riparian zone, acts as an important sink of nitrate (Aquilina et al., 2012; Wriedt et al., 2007). During recession periods (e.g. in summer) the connectivity between groundwater (GW) and surface waters plays a key role (Molnát et al., 2008; Smethurst et al., 2014). In agricultural landscapes this is important due to dense artificial surface and sub-surface drainage networks (Buchanan et al., 2013; Guan et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2012), because they drain superficial GW which is well known to store N excess from many years.

In-stream removal summarizes various processes contributing to a decrease of apparent nitrate concentrations within the stream channel and the adjacent hyporheic zone or stream sediments (Ranalli and Macalady, 2010). The intensity of in-stream

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)

removal processes is variable and depends on local conditions and the combination of occurring removal processes. Local stream bed morphology determines available mineral and vegetation surfaces for the development of microbial biofilms, which can decrease nitrate concentrations by denitrification processes (Triska et al., 1989). For example microbial biofilm thickness is an important control for in-stream respiration processes (Haggerty et al., 2014) and thus for denitrification (Burgin and Hamilton, 2007). The impact of photoautotrophic nitrate assimilation depends on incoming solar radiation and occurs mainly during the hours of highest ecosystem productivity (e.g. Fellows et al., 2006; Hall and Tank, 2003). Streambed permeability and the hydraulic conductivity of underlying sediments govern hyporheic exchange fluxes in dependence of local hydraulic gradients (Krause et al., 2012) and thus largely control denitrification processes (by controlling available nitrate loads) in the anaerobic compartments of the hyporheic zone. There is a large body of literature studying denitrification processes in the hyporheic zone (e.g. Briggs et al., 2013; Harvey et al., 2013; Lewandowski and Nützmann, 2010; Zarnetske et al., 2011, 2012). Without additional information, such as isotopic data, dissolved oxygen concentration dynamics or dissolved organic carbon concentration changes, it is difficult to distinguish biotic and abiotic processes properly. Hence, these processes are summarized as in-stream removal processes, which are either estimated using land use/-scale (e.g. Covino et al., 2012), water temperatures (e.g. Lomas and Glibert, 1999), water levels (e.g. Basu et al., 2011; Hensley et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2011) or discharge (e.g. Flewelling et al., 2014). Compared to hydrological export processes (concentration and dilution processes) in-stream removal processes have a smaller impact on total in-stream nitrate concentrations, but they can be responsible for nitrate removal (apparent decrease of nitrate concentrations, excluding dilution processes) in the range of 2–10 % at the reach scale (i.e. 100–200 m) (Harvey et al., 2013; Hensley et al., 2015), 10–30 % for entire river networks (Dupas et al., 2013; Windolf et al., 2011) and up to around 70 % of total exported nitrate-nitrogen at larger scales (i.e. total retention, including retention processes in the riparian zone, wetlands, ...) (Dupas et al., 2013; Howarth et al., 1996).

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



In agricultural landscapes, nitrate export is a diffuse pollution even if nitrate fluxes can have distinct locations of inflow into the stream network according to sub-catchments and related drainage network outlets. Groundwater might enter streams and rivers at spatially distinct locations, due to topography, local heterogeneity of streambeds and hydrogeological settings (Binley et al., 2013; Krause et al., 2012). Hence, changes in total water and nitrate fluxes occur frequently all along the stream network.

In this study we define the different sub-catchments and stream reaches where nitrate fluxes can vary as nitrate sinks or sources: nitrate sources are tributaries which cause an increase in stream nitrate loads; nitrate sinks are stream sections where nitrate load is decreasing. One has to note that a nitrate source does not necessarily result in an increase of in stream nitrate concentration, but does always increase the total nitrate load.

The temporal variations of hydrological and nitrate export processes along different spatial scales have been reproduced by varying modeling approaches (e.g. Donner et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2014; Johnes, 1996; Smethurst et al., 2014; Wagenschein and Rode, 2008; Wriedt and Rode, 2006). Nevertheless, there is still a lack of knowledge on how the spatial patterns of in-stream nitrate concentrations evolve throughout stream networks and whether these patterns are constant over time or vary in time. We analyze this complex interplay of different processes by investigating two main research questions:

1. Can we quantify the spatio-temporal impact of distinct nitrate sinks and sources on stream network nitrate dynamics?
2. Can we determine underlying processes and drivers?

Answering these questions is relevant for a future improvement of water quality threshold compliances in agricultural landscapes, ecological water quality management e.g. planning of river restoration and the implementation of environmental guidelines, such as the European Water Framework Directive.

In this study we use a set of discharge and water quality data gathered during 10 synoptic sampling campaigns along the main stream of a small agricultural headwater catchment. A dense artificial drainage network and a predominantly impervious streambed allowed detecting distinct groundwater inflow locations. This unique setting allowed us to quantify and model the dynamics of nitrate sinks and sources in the stream network during the summer period. Thus we can distinguish between conservative mixing and dilution processes and biogeochemical in-stream processes on the network scale.

2 Study area

The study area is in the Löchernbach catchment, a 1.7 km² agricultural headwater catchment. It is located in southwestern Germany within the wine-growing area of the Kaiserstuhl (Fig. 1), with a temperate climate characterized by warm summers and evenly distributed precipitation (Koeppen-classification: Cfb). Mean annual precipitation was 765 mm between 2008 and 2013 with a mean air temperature of 10.9 °C. Event runoff coefficients vary between 6 and 20 % (e.g. Gassmann et al., 2011; Luft et al., 1985). The dominant soil is a silty calcaric regosol with gleizations in the colluvium (10 % sand, 80 % silt and 10 % clay). The underlying geology is a deep layer of aeolian loess (> several 10 s of m) over tertiary volcanic basalts. Due to agricultural landscape management in the 1970s the catchment is divided into an upper area with large artificial terraces covered with vineyards (63.2 % of the area) and the main valley where arable crops (e.g. cabbage, corn, beetroots) are dominating (18.3 %). Other surfaces are paved roads (4.6 %), steep terrace acclivities (10.3 %) and beech forest (3.5 %) in the uppermost part of the catchment. The catchment's elevation spans from 213 to 378 m a.s.l. The stream length of the main stream is 1330 m from the spring (256 m a.s.l.) to the catchment outlet; the main tributary has a length of 600 m (Fig. 1). The mean streambed slope is 3.2 %. A dense sub-surface pipe network (about 9 km total length) drains the terraces and the fields in the open valley down to the stream.

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



The road drainage system connects to these pipes as well. Considering non-turbulent in-stream conditions during low flow, active drainpipes and mixing lengths in the stream for optimal sampling positions have been determined using handheld thermal imaging (Schuetz and Weiler, 2011). Since the 1970s we observe an increase of the unsaturated zone area (> 30 m) in some parts of the catchment and the disconnection of the saturated zone from the stream during summer; that is why during summer months base flow is only generated through the artificial drainage system. Clogging effects and artificially fixed streambanks and -beds cause a predominantly impervious streambed, which prevents almost completely discharge losses during summer low flows.

3 Methods

3.1 Sampling methods and water quality data

Sampling campaigns were carried out during base flow periods from June to August 2012. Two types of campaigns were conducted (Table 1): we sampled: (a) a 100 m stream reach (Reach 1, Fig. 1) at 5 positions during 5 campaigns for water temperatures (T), electrical conductivity (EC) and major anion concentrations (chloride, nitrate, sulfate) and (b) the main stream upstream, downstream and inside all active drainpipes/tributaries (Fig. 1) during 10 campaigns for T , EC and during 2 campaigns (No. 1, No. 10) for major anion concentrations (chloride, nitrate, sulfate). During each campaign discharge was determined with salt dilution gauging (slug injection) at the catchment outlet and at several locations (0–4) throughout the stream network (Fig. 1).

For T absolute measurement uncertainty was 0.2 K and the relative accuracy for EC was 0.5 % of the measurement (WTW LF92). Water samples were taken with 100 mL brown glass bottles, which were stored in a refrigerator and analyzed for major anions (chloride, nitrate, sulfae) within two to four weeks after sampling with ion chromatography (Dionex DX-500). Measurement uncertainty was 0.1 mgL^{-1} for major anions.

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

Climate data (Air temperatures (T_{air}), rel. humidity, global radiation, wind speed) were taken from a nearby climate station (1.3 km distance to the south).

Channel geomorphology and streambed structural characteristics such as channel widths and depths, rock outcrops and vegetation at the stream banks and in the stream bed were mapped once at 23 random locations distributed throughout the stream network.

3.2 Stream network discharge patterns

Patterns of relative stream network discharges are determined by the successive application of mixing equations on EC data (and T , chloride or sulfate data at reaches where two active drain pipes were found) obtained upstream, downstream and inside all active drain pipes from the catchment outlet up to the main spring. Fractions f of reach drain water discharge f_{di} relative to downstream stream discharge (Q_i) are calculated after Genereux et al. (1998) based on the conservative mixing equations for two or three endmembers (EC and T , alternatively chloride and sulfate, when available (the majority (66 %) of the reaches have only one active drain pipe, thus the equations are reduced to two end-members which can be solved using one parameter only (EC))):

$$Q_i = Q_{\text{di}_1} + Q_{\text{di}_2} + Q_{i-1}, \quad (1)$$

$$1 = f_{\text{di}_1} + f_{\text{di}_2} + f_{i-1} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{EC}_i = f_{\text{di}_1} \text{EC}_{i_1} + f_{\text{di}_2} \text{EC}_{\text{di}_2} + f_{i-1} \text{EC}_{i-1} \quad \text{and} \quad (3)$$

$$T_i = f_{\text{di}_1} T_{i_1} + f_{\text{di}_2} T_{\text{di}_2} + f_{i-1} T_{i-1} \quad (4)$$

where the subscript i represent the total number of upstream stream reaches (i.e. the number of the actual reach of interest) with $i = 0$ at the stream network main source and the subsubscripts $_1$ and $_2$ stands for the drain pipes leading to the stream at the upstream end of reach i . Resulting fractional drain pipe water contributions are then used to calculate relative discharge patterns throughout the stream network for all sampling

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

campaigns with following equations

$$f_{\text{net,di}} = f_{\text{net},i} \cdot f_{\text{di}} \quad (5)$$

and

$$f_{\text{net},i-1} = f_{\text{net},i} - f_{\text{net,di}_1} - f_{\text{net,di}_2}, \quad (6)$$

5 where the subscript f_{net} stands for fractional water fluxes of all stream reaches (and drain pipes) relative to the discharges at the catchment outlet. This simple conceptual stream-source-model was possible due to the disconnection of the saturated zone to the stream, the visual exclusion (thermal imaging (e.g. Schuetz and Weiler, 2011)) of other groundwater sources and the assumption of negligible water losses to the (anthropogenically restructured) colluvium. Absolute stream network discharge patterns and drain pipe discharges are then derived by combining absolute discharge measurements from the catchment outlet ($Q_{i=9,\text{obs}}$) with the fractional results of the stream-source-model (Eq. 7) for each stream reach (Q_i) and each drainpipe, respectively in following form

$$15 \quad Q_{\text{di}} = f_{\text{net,di}} \cdot Q_{i=9,\text{obs}}. \quad (7)$$

Measurement errors and associated uncertainties of calculated stream network discharges and drain pipe discharges are propagated applying the equations given in Genereux (1998) for mixing equations with two and three components, respectively. Stream network discharges ($Q_{i,\text{obs}}$) observed with salt dilution gauging (with an approximated error of 10% (e.g. Moore, 2005)) are then used to validate derived stream network discharge patterns.

3.3 Nitrate source concentrations

Nitrate concentrations measured inside all active drainpipes ($C_{\text{di,obs}}$) during sampling campaigns No. 1 and No. 10 are used to assess nitrate source concentrations for the

whole study period: assuming a groundwater system with slow seasonal nitrate dynamics drain pipe nitrate concentrations for all sampling campaigns (campaigns No. 2 to No. 9) are derived by linearly interpolating between the observed nitrate concentrations from the first and the last sampling campaign (sampling campaigns No.1 and No. 10). This assumption is in line with observations made in the following summer (results not shown).

3.4 In-stream nitrate removal

The sum of all nitrate removal processes in surface waters (i.e. in-stream removal) under stationary conditions regarding discharge input and conservation (i.e. change in concentration equals change in load) is commonly simulated with a kinetic first-order removal model following an exponential function (e.g. Stream Solute Workshop, 1990)

$$C_{i,obs}(\tau_i) = C_{i,obs}(0) \cdot \exp(-k_i \tau_i), \quad (8)$$

where $C_{i,obs}(0)$ stands for the nitrate concentration observed at the beginning of a stream reach i and $C_{i,obs}(\tau_i)$ stands for the nitrate concentration observed at the end of stream reach i . k stands for the removal rate (T^{-1}) and τ stands for the stream reach residence time (T). τ is determined by

$$\tau = \frac{l}{v}, \quad (9)$$

where l stands for the reach length (L) and v for the mean flow velocity (LT^{-1}). v can be approximated with the ratio of discharge to the wetted stream cross section A (L^2)

$$v = \frac{Q}{A} \quad (10)$$

For a trapezoidal stream bed with a known stream bank angle α ($^\circ$), stream bed width b (L) and mean water depth h (L), A can be estimated with

$$A = b \cdot h + h^2 \cdot \tan \alpha \quad (11)$$

Combining the Manning–Strickler equation

$$v = n^{-1} \cdot R_{\text{hy}}^{2/3} \cdot s^{1/2} \quad (12)$$

where n stands for Mannings' n ($T^{1/3}L^{-1}$), R_{hy} (L) for the hydraulic radius, s stands for the hydraulic gradient (approximated with stream bed slope (LL^{-1})) with following assumption after Moore and Foster (1990)

$$R_{\text{hy}} = \xi \cdot A^{1/2}, \quad (13)$$

where the constant ξ (–) depends on the side slope ratio of the stream bank and stream bed width to depth ratio (Moore and Foster, 1990) Eqs. (10) to (13) can be transformed into

$$h = \frac{b + \left(b^2 + 4 \cdot \tan \alpha \left(\frac{Q \cdot n}{s^{1/2} \cdot \xi^{2/3}} \right)^{3/4} \right)^{1/2}}{2 \cdot \tan \alpha}. \quad (14)$$

Applying Eqs. (9), (10) and (14) with actual stream reach discharges (Q_i), τ can be determined individually for each stream reach and discharge.

Empirical nitrate removal rates k_i for the five data sets observed at Reach 1 and for the two data sets (campaign No. 1 and No. 10) observed throughout the stream network can then be determined by rearranging Eq. (8) to

$$k_i = -\frac{\ln \frac{C_i(\tau_i)}{C_i(0)}}{\tau_i}. \quad (15)$$

In order to calculate k_i for all the sampling campaigns we try to relate observed k_i (for campaigns No. 1 and No. 10 and the five detailed sampling campaigns in Reach

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion

1) with parameters measured systematically. For this, we developed the conceptual transfer T_{AWET} ($^{\circ}\text{CL}^{-1}$; **Air-Water-Energy-Transfer**)

$$T_{AWET,i} = T_{\text{air}} \frac{\Delta T_i}{(T_{\text{air}} - T_i)} \quad (16)$$

which is based on observed mean daytime air temperatures T_{air} ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) on the day of each sampling campaign (8 a.m. to 8 p.m.), reach scale stream water heating ΔT ($^{\circ}\text{CL}^{-1}$) and the temperature gradient between T_{air} and stream water temperatures T_i ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). We try to consider the spatial variability of energy inputs into the stream system as a control of biological activity by accounting for the effect of shading (slows down the increase of ΔT) and the effect of local groundwater contributions at the upstream end of a stream reach, which cools down T_i and thus increases the gradient between air and water temperatures.

Uncertainties for empirical in-stream nitrate removal rates k_i and removal rates estimated with the empirical relationship for T_{AWET} are calculated by propagating (Gaussian error propagation) measurement errors and associated uncertainties of observed water and air temperatures and nitrate concentrations.

Standardized comparison of in-stream nitrate removal processes with stream/catchment specific properties is commonly done following the recommendations of the Stream Solute Workshop (1990) by calculating (amongst others) in-stream uptake rates k_C , which equals k_i introduced above, and areal nitrate uptake U_i ($\text{ML}^{-2}\text{T}^{-1}$), which is defined by

$$U_i = C_i(0) \cdot h_i \cdot k_i. \quad (17)$$

3.5 Implementation of the in-stream-mixing-and-removal-model

Accounting for lateral drain pipe discharges (Sect. 3.2) and stream network discharge patterns, lateral source/drain pipe nitrate concentrations (Sect. 3.3) and in-stream ni-

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



trate removal processes (Sect. 3.4) we define a conceptual data-driven in-stream-mixing-and-removal model by combining previous equations as follows:

$$C_{i+1} = \frac{C_i(0) \cdot \exp(-k_i \tau_i) \cdot Q_i + C_{di+1_1} \cdot Q_{di+1_1} + C_{di+1_2} \cdot Q_{di+1_2}}{Q_{i+1}} \quad (18)$$

Model application is done by using the measured/estimated $C(0)$ of the uppermost reach, the measured/estimated C_{di} of the drain pipes, the Q_i/Q_{di} calculated from the endmember mixing and k_i estimated with T_{AWET} as input variables for the successive calculation of stream network nitrate concentrations from up- to downstream. All parameters, nitrate concentrations and discharges integrated into Eq. (18) are estimated without any calibration. Taking into account that modelling uncertainties will be influenced not only by the uncertainties of Q_i (successively estimated from down- to upstream) and k_i estimated with T_{AWET} , but as well by the uncertainties implied through the assumptions which were made for the estimations of τ_i and drain pipe nitrate concentrations, the uncertainties in our modelling results will be larger than the differences within our simulations. Hence, we will refrain from an uncertainty analysis of stream network modelling results.

4 Results

4.1 Nitrate spatio-temporal patterns on the reach and stream network

Besides the main spring, we detected in total 11 active drainpipes (plus one tributary, Fig. 1) of which six were intermittent. At three locations two pipes drain at one point into the stream. Stream network nitrate concentrations sampled during campaign No. 1 and No. 10 upstream, downstream and inside all active drainpipes revealed a spatial concentration patterns with increasing concentrations from up- to downstream (Fig. 2) and with different concentration changes among the stream reaches. Nitrate concentrations in the drainpipes differed clearly from in-stream concentrations. In most of the

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



centrations than others. The simulation results were tested against in-stream nitrate concentrations observed during sampling campaigns No. 1 and No. 10 (Fig. 4b (blue and red lines/symbols) and c). With an R^2 of 0.91 for sampling campaign No. 1 and an R^2 of 0.97 for sampling campaign No. 10 (Fig. 4c) the observations are reproduced quite well. This includes the temporal changes of in-stream nitrate concentrations: at the beginning of the study (sampling campaign No. 1) in-stream nitrate concentrations were generally less variable throughout the stream network than at the end of the study (sampling campaign No. 10), when very low concentrations occurred as well.

4.4 Hierarchy of nitrate sinks and sources

The time-variant effects of nitrate sinks and sources on in-stream nitrate dynamics are visualized considering the spatial and temporal distribution of nitrate loads throughout the stream network (Fig. 5a). For each sampling campaign distinct nitrate load distributions and contributions were found. The detailed spatial representation of nitrate sinks and sources in Fig. 5 shows that absolute and relative impacts of distinct sinks and sources on total nitrate load at the catchment outlet are more pronounced than the variations of nitrate concentration (Fig. 4b) and discharge dynamics (Fig. 3a). Median relative nitrate removal per source (i.e. the magnitude of in-stream removal per source at the catchment outlet (Fig. 5b)) clearly depends on the position of a source in the stream network ($R^2 = 0.95$; $p < 0.0001$; $n = 12$). Nitrate loads emitted at the catchment spring are removed between 20 and 50 %, while loads emitted in the lower sections of the stream network show a much lower relative removal. In contrary, the differences of relative nitrate load removal per source between adjacent nitrate sources are not related to the specific reach lengths.

Nitrate sources show a distinct hierarchy among the different sources (Fig. 6a), which is more controlled by drainpipe discharge (median nitrate load vs. drainpipe discharge: $R^2 = 0.85$; $p < 0.0001$; $n = 120$) than by nitrate concentrations (no significant correlation between median nitrate loads and drainpipe nitrate concentrations). Some sources contribute during most of the days the major part of total nitrate loads (D8, D6, D4.1)

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



while other sources are varying between major nitrate load contributions and no contributions at all (i.e. intermittent drain pipes, e.g. D7.1, D7.2). Positioning along the stream shows no correlation with the rank of the source contribution.

When comparing the rankings of median in-stream nitrate removal k_i (Fig. 6b) and median areal nitrate uptake rates U_i (Fig. 6c) we find a different order of stream reaches: while in-stream nitrate removal rates decrease from upstream to downstream ($R^2 = 0.74$; $p = 0.0029$; $n = 9$), the areal nitrate uptake rates U_i do not show such a clear pattern. In the downstream reaches (Reach 7, 9, and 8) areal uptake rates are the highest but there is no significant relation within the ranking of areal nitrate uptake U_i and the spatial location along the stream network.

5 Discussion

We have quantified nitrate sinks and sources, which contribute to the spatial patterns of in-stream nitrate concentrations along the stream network and their evolution in time. We could show how distinct nitrate sinks and sources persistently dominate these patterns over time. These findings are supported by several recent studies which show for larger scales the uniqueness of spatial water quality composition based on stream sampling campaigns (e.g. Lam et al., 2012; Vogt et al., 2015) or based on modelling approaches describing the spatial distribution of nitrate export in stream networks (e.g. Isaak et al., 2014). Both approaches show the importance of spatial “hot spots” regarding nitrate sources. The originality of our work, in comparison to these studies, is that we have studied the temporal variations of nitrate contributions with an emphasis on local flux contributions based on a data-driven modelling approach.

5.1 Nitrate sources

The unique setting in our study area (known locations of groundwater inflow and negligible stream water losses) allowed inferring water and nitrate fluxes and flux changes

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)

along the stream without neglecting important contributions. Looking at the longitudinal stream profiles of absolute and relative discharges (Fig. 3a and b) we find a high temporal variability within the spatial patterns of the catchment drainage system. This can be explained by specific discharge recessions for different landscape elements/hydrogeological storages during baseflow periods (Payn et al., 2012). The different sub-catchments (or rather the areas connected to the drain pipes) show differences regarding their spatial extent, elevations and land use combinations. This high variability was not expected before, though Mallard et al. (2014) show that for specific catchments (e.g. with a certain shape and channel network) characteristic longitudinal stream discharge profiles can be found. Our data show for the observed time period that these patterns are rather unstable. Consequently, the impact of certain sub-catchments on total nitrate export changes over time and the spatial changes can be more or less dominant.

5.2 Nitrate sinks

In this study stream network nitrate sinks are defined as the sum of all in-stream nitrate removal processes on each reach. For other catchments, additional nitrate mass losses along the stream channel (i.e. indirect groundwater recharge) have to be considered. Mallard et al. (2014) showed that cumulative gross channel discharge losses could retain large parts of the discharges generated in the headwaters (and thus large parts of the nitrate loads emitted from the headwaters). Depending on the spatial differences in groundwater nitrate concentrations the hydrological turnover could then overlay partly the processes described in this study. But the hydrological turnover will likewise influence downstream groundwater nitrate concentrations and thus the magnitude of downstream nitrate sources.

We estimated in-stream nitrate removal rates k_i using the empirical transfer coefficient T_{AWET} , which describes the energy limitation of a specific stream reach. Comparing the ranking of in-stream nitrate removal rates k_i and areal uptake rates U_i (Fig. 7a) we find an increasing uptake-efficiency (i.e. lower removal rates cause equal areal up-

take) from up- to downstream. Considering that for a given reach, U_i and k_i are linked by stream reach water levels and nitrate concentrations (Eq. 17), we can conclude that the increase in uptake-efficiency can be caused by increasing water levels or nitrate concentrations, likewise. Nonetheless, observable changes in in-stream nitrate concentrations are larger in up-stream reaches than in the downstream reaches.

However, on smaller scales (such as the study area) the temporal variability of in-stream nitrate concentrations cannot be explained by land use alone (e.g. Mulholland et al., 2008; Ruiz et al., 2002). A higher spatial resolution of geomorphic or physico-chemical information is needed. Although we know that gross primary production and in-stream nitrate turnover in stream ecosystems is directly linked to water temperatures and incoming radiation (e.g. Fellows et al., 2006; Hall and Tank, 2003; Lomas and Glibert, 1999), the high spatial resolution of our study did not allow a direct comparison of observed in-stream nitrate removal to atmospheric conditions. We found a significant correlation for T_i and empirical removal rates k_i on the reach scale (Reach 1), which was not valid on the network-scale. This can be explained by the spatial variability of inflowing groundwater/nitrate sources, channel geomorphology or vegetation density. Hence, we consider explicitly the impacts of local shading, upstream stream water temperatures (which is a measure of surface travel time) and local cooling effects of inflowing groundwater for the derivation of T_{AWET} . In many studies (e.g. Alexander et al., 2009; Basu et al., 2011; Hensley et al., 2015) water levels were used for the estimation of in-stream removal processes. Though existing hydraulic information is commonly used to estimate stream reach residence times (Stream Solute Workshop, 1990) and areal nitrate uptake rates U_i (Eq. 14), we think that the independent estimation of k_i , by using additional measurements of stream water temperatures, groundwater temperatures and air temperatures improves the liability of the presented non-calibrated and data-driven modelling approach. Nonetheless, one must consider that hyporheic exchange processes (and thus denitrification by heterotrophic organisms) contribute to nitrate removal processes as well (Harvey et al., 2013; Kiel and Cardenas, 2014; Zarnetske et al., 2011). Hence, the interdependency of hydraulic conditions and en-

HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)

ergy availability at the reach scale cannot be easily resolved. For the present study we could show that the change in nitrate concentrations per reach relates almost 1 : 1 to the change in nitrate-N/chloride ratios per reach for all our observations (Fig. 7b). This is also true for the three observations where an increase in nitrate concentrations occurred from up- to downstream. Nitrate-N to chloride mass ratios has been used before as a signature that other processes as dilution (Schilling et al., 2006) or rather denitrification processes (Tesoriero et al., 2013) are responsible for the change in nitrate concentrations. Hence, we conclude that both controls are relevant for a specific stream network and thus the decision for one or the other measurement should be made with great care.

5.3 Hierarchy of nitrate sinks and sources

Considering the relationship of in-stream water fluxes and nitrate concentrations with water and nitrate flux contributions from landscape units along the stream network, in-stream nitrate concentrations can change clearly from upstream to downstream through enrichment and dilution processes. The effect of the spatial arrangement of nitrate source areas and stream reaches along the stream network with high or low retention potential is manifested in the longitudinal nitrate concentration patterns observable along a stream or river (e.g. Figs. 2 and 4a). It becomes clear that there is a direct impact of the location of a tributary or a groundwater source of nitrate and stream reaches with high nitrate turnover rates on downstream nitrate concentrations. Nitrate loads emitted by specific upstream sources can be removed to a large extent on their way through a stream network (Fig. 5).

Due to the stationary or slowly changing conditions during low flow periods, spatial water quality patterns are little affected by hydrodynamic and geomorphic dispersion of point source/sub-catchment nitrate emissions (Botter and Rinaldo, 2003). Hence, observed step changes of in-stream concentrations can be expected as a frequently occurring phenomenon. In most studies published on nitrate export the focus is on nitrate concentrations observed at a single location in the stream (i.e. catchment outlet).

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

⏪

⏩

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[⏪](#)[⏩](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

Our results (specifically Figs. 2b and 4b) illustrate that there is a clear need to better understand the spatio-temporal hydrological connectivity (and thus water and matter fluxes) of landscapes to the fluvial systems. For the in-stream-mixing-and-removal model applied to the Löchernbach catchment distinct boundary conditions could be defined. In other systems where export processes to the stream occur more diffusely and where non-negligible stream water losses occur (i. e. groundwater – surface water interaction) an improved understanding of nitrate sinks and sources is even more important. For these systems we have to additionally consider the variable interplay of local gradients between groundwater and surface water (Krause et al., 2012) and their influence on water and matter turnover processes in the stream network and the reverse effect of in-stream-mixing-and-removal processes on local groundwater quality dynamics. The study of Mallard et al. (2014) provided a first step into a longitudinally more dynamic system understanding of water flux dynamics (and thus water quality dynamics) in stream and river networks. We could show that for biogeochemically active substances, such as nutrients, their approach should be supplemented by the consideration of in-stream cycling and retention processes and their masking effects from up to downstream.

Our findings imply that a more complex understanding of the hydro-ecological functioning of a specific stream or river system regarding the origin of water and of matter fluxes has to be applied for the planning of ecological measures or sustainable water resources management. In densely populated countries, as in the mid-western part of Europe, the implementation of e.g. river restoration measures is usually done at places where property rights (and legal terms) allow the implementation of the measure. Amendatory, the integral impact of local ecological in-stream measures on downstream nitrate concentration patterns, which are more relevant for water quality threshold compliances than nitrate loads should be considered as well. This might be even economically useful in river systems with downstream drinking water production plants and occurring stream bank filtration processes. Moreover, the planning and operation

of water quality monitoring networks could be improved by regarding the spatial and temporal covering of important nutrient sinks and sources.

6 Conclusions

Summarizing the findings of this study we can show that the effect of nitrate sinks and sources on stream network water quality and its dynamics and total catchment nitrate export can be quantified and ordered regarding their impact along the stream. We could directly derive the impact of specific nitrate sinks and sources on downstream water quality variations. In accordance with other studies, we find that spatially distinct nitrate sources can dominate catchment nitrate export and that “hot spots” of in-stream nitrate removal can be found at the reach scale. Moreover, the specific boundary conditions of the study area allowed to fully distinguish between mixing and dilution processes and biogeochemical in-stream removal processes along the stream network. Simulating in-stream nitrate removal by applying a novel transfer coefficient based on energy availability, we show that N-cycling in agricultural headwater streams can be predicted by other than hydraulic information as well. Contributing to the actual discussion in stream-ecohydrology our findings imply that a more dynamic anticipation of water quality from up- to downstream has to be considered for the setup of ecohydrological studies but as well for the implementation of ecological measures and stream or river restoration.

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HESSD

12, 8577–8614, 2015

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



References

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Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)[Abstract](#)[Introduction](#)[Conclusions](#)[References](#)[Tables](#)[Figures](#)[⏪](#)[⏩](#)[◀](#)[▶](#)[Back](#)[Close](#)[Full Screen / Esc](#)[Printer-friendly Version](#)[Interactive Discussion](#)

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Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)

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Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)

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Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)

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HESSD

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Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion



Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)

Table 1. Overview on the measurements and samples obtained/taken during June and August 2012. The number of samples taken at a specific location is given in Arabic numbers. The number of sampling locations is given in Roman numbers.

Parameter	Catchment outlet	Synoptic sampling campaigns	
		Stream network (1330 m)	Reach No. 1 (100 m)
Discharge (salt dilution gauging)	10	10× 0–IV	
Physical water parameters	10	10× XXXVI	5× V
Major ions	2	2× XXXVI	5× V
Meteorological observations	10 (Dist. 1.3 km)		
Channel geomorphology		XXIII	II

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

Table 2. Overview on stream reach residence times τ and stream reach specific parameters applied in Eqs. (9) to (12).

Reach No.	Reach length [m]	Stream bed slope [m m^{-1}]	Mean discharge [L s^{-1}]	Max. discharge [L s^{-1}]	Min. discharge [L s^{-1}]	Mean residence time [s]	Min. residence time [s]	Max. residence time [s]
1	100	0.075	0.2	0.5	0.02	642	441	1092
2	150	0.052	0.5	1.1	0.1	836	640	1184
3	195	0.039	0.8	1.5	0.2	1068	854	1517
4	185	0.022	1.1	1.9	0.2	1133	937	1583
5	140	0.019	1.5	2.4	0.4	820	704	1138
6	50	0.023	1.6	2.4	0.4	267	234	358
7	145	0.014	2.0	3.0	0.6	877	772	1178
8	235	0.019	2.4	5.2	1.1	1211	969	1428
9	35	0.021	3.1	5.2	1.7	163	140	188

[Title Page](#)
[Abstract](#)
[Introduction](#)
[Conclusions](#)
[References](#)
[Tables](#)
[Figures](#)
[Back](#)
[Close](#)
[Full Screen / Esc](#)
[Printer-friendly Version](#)
[Interactive Discussion](#)

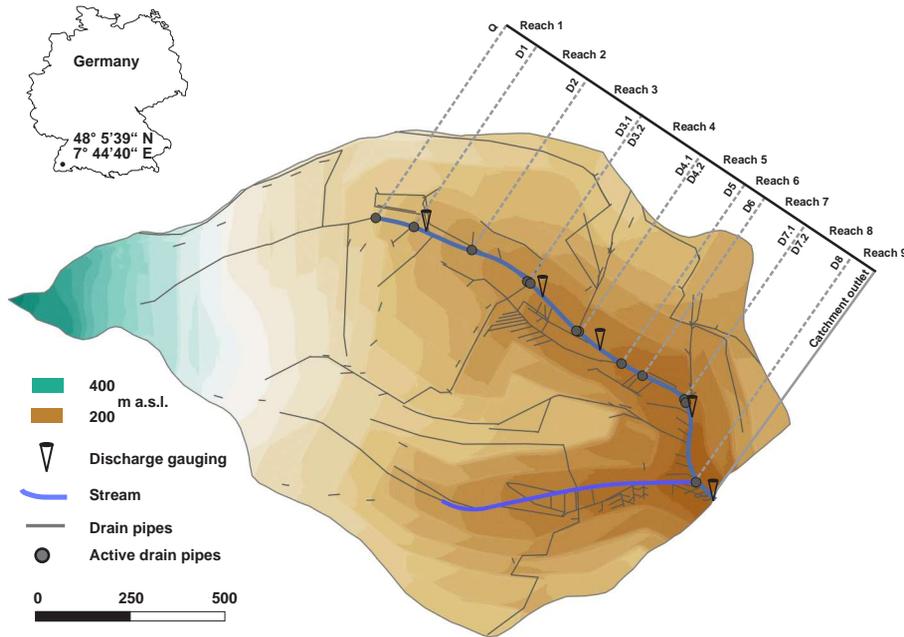


Figure 1. Topographical map of the Löchernbach catchment. The sharp elevation steps in the map represent the vineyard terraces within the catchment. Locations of active drain pipes and stream reaches are marked (dashed lines) with the names referred to throughout the manuscript.

[Title Page](#)

[Abstract](#)

[Introduction](#)

[Conclusions](#)

[References](#)

[Tables](#)

[Figures](#)

[⏪](#)

[⏩](#)

[◀](#)

[▶](#)

[Back](#)

[Close](#)

[Full Screen / Esc](#)

[Printer-friendly Version](#)

[Interactive Discussion](#)



Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

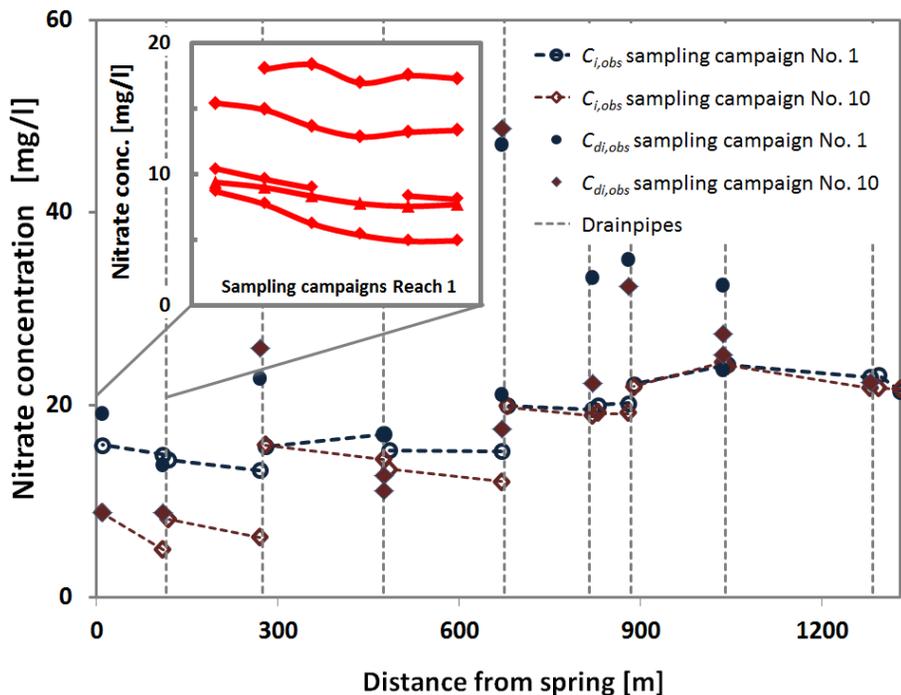


Figure 2. Observed spatio-temporal variations in in-stream and drainpipe nitrate concentrations along the stream network for sampling campaigns No. 1 (27 June 2012) and No. 10 (9 August 2012) and during 5 sampling campaigns at Reach 1 (inset).

[Title Page](#)
[Abstract](#)
[Introduction](#)
[Conclusions](#)
[References](#)
[Tables](#)
[Figures](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[Back](#)
[Close](#)
[Full Screen / Esc](#)
[Printer-friendly Version](#)
[Interactive Discussion](#)

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

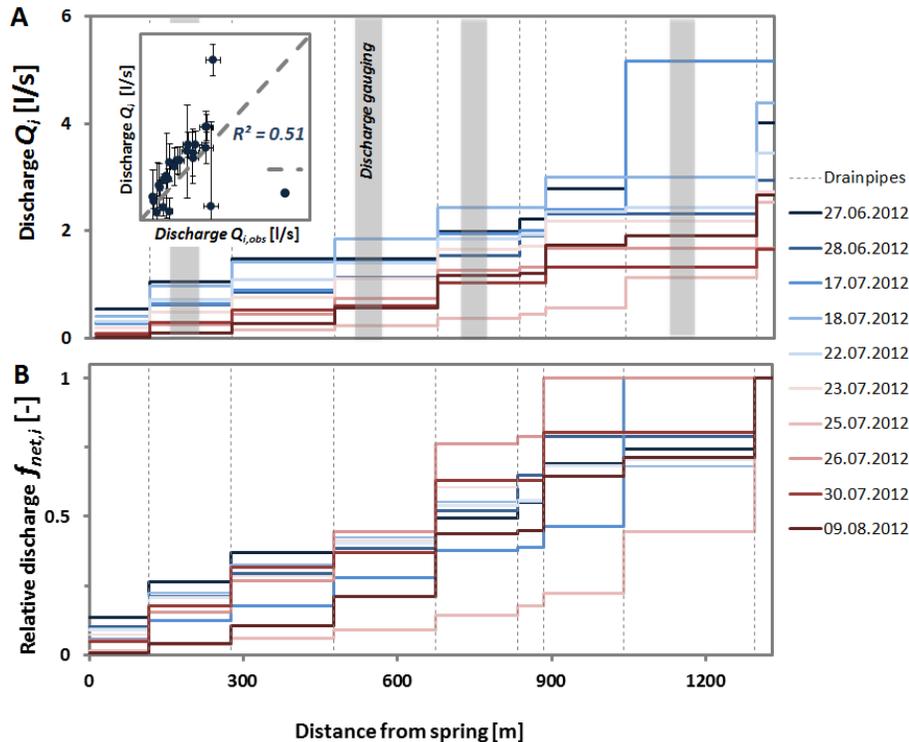


Figure 3. (a) Simulated stream network discharge patterns Q_i for all days. A-inset: comparison of calculated (Q_i) and measured discharges ($Q_{i,obs}$). (b) Calculated patterns of relative discharges $f_{net,i}$ for all days. Sampling Campaigns No. 1–No. 10 are color-coded from blue to red. Dashed lines (a, b) symbolize the positions of the drainpipes. Shaded bars (a) represent the locations of salt dilution gauging.

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

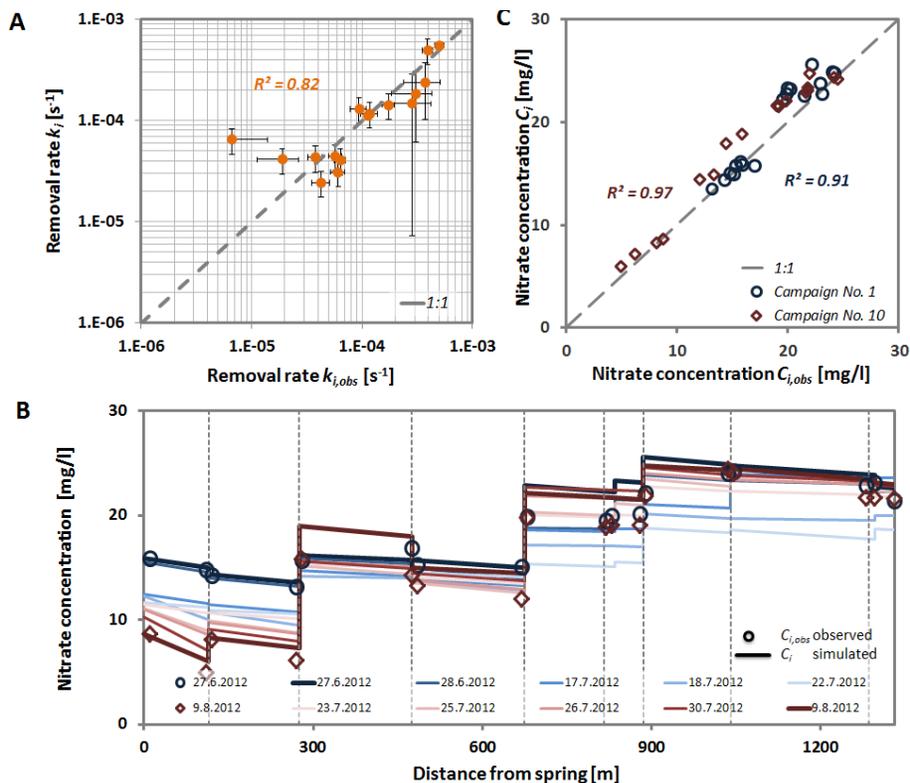


Figure 4. (a) Estimated (k_i) and empirical ($k_{i,obs}$) in-stream nitrate removal rates. (b) Observed ($C_{i,obs}$ symbols) and calculated (C_i lines) in-stream nitrate concentration patterns for all days. Sampling Campaigns No. 1–No. 10 are color-coded from blue to red. Dashed lines symbolize the positions of the drain pipes. (c) Comparison of modelled and observed in-stream nitrate concentrations for campaigns No. 1 (blue circles) and No. 10 (red diamonds).

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

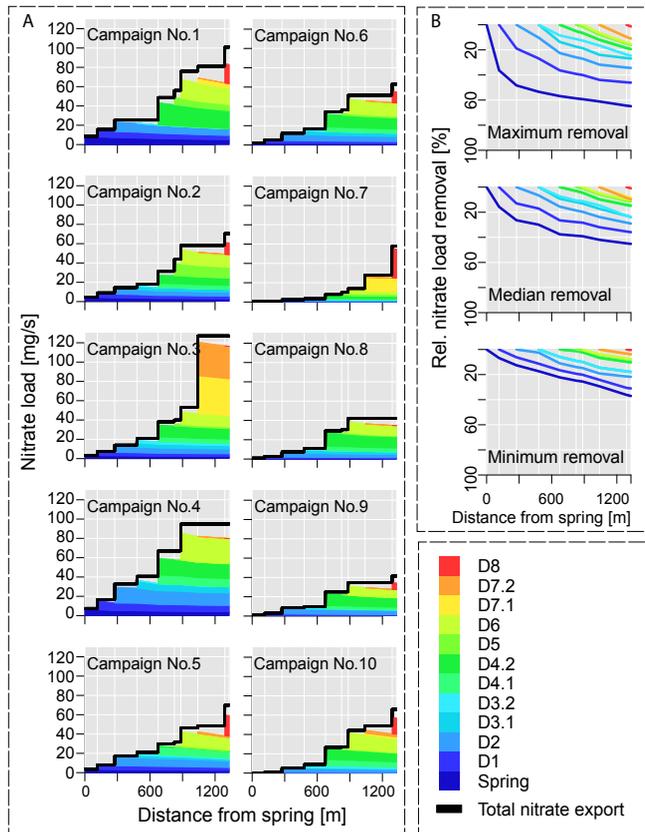


Figure 5. (a) In-stream nitrate loads per source for all days (the black line presents cumulative nitrate load emissions without in-stream removal). (b) Maximum, median and minimum in-stream nitrate load removal per source relative (%) to the total emitted nitrate load.

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

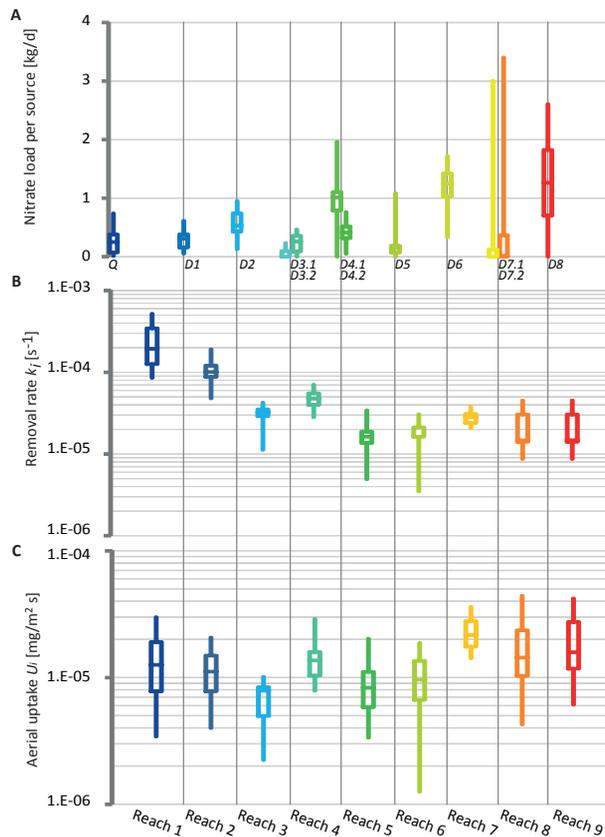


Figure 6. (a) Hierarchy and range of nitrate loads per source ranked by their median nitrate load emission. (b) Hierarchy and range of in-stream nitrate removal rates k_i per reach sorted from up-to downstream. (c) Range of areal uptake rates U_i per reach sorted from up-to downstream. Boxplots present the 0.01, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75 and 0.99 quantiles of each measure.

[Title Page](#)
[Abstract](#)
[Introduction](#)
[Conclusions](#)
[References](#)
[Tables](#)
[Figures](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[◀](#)
[▶](#)
[Back](#)
[Close](#)
[Full Screen / Esc](#)
[Printer-friendly Version](#)
[Interactive Discussion](#)

Nitrate sinks and sources as controls of spatio-temporal water quality dynamics

T. Schuetz et al.

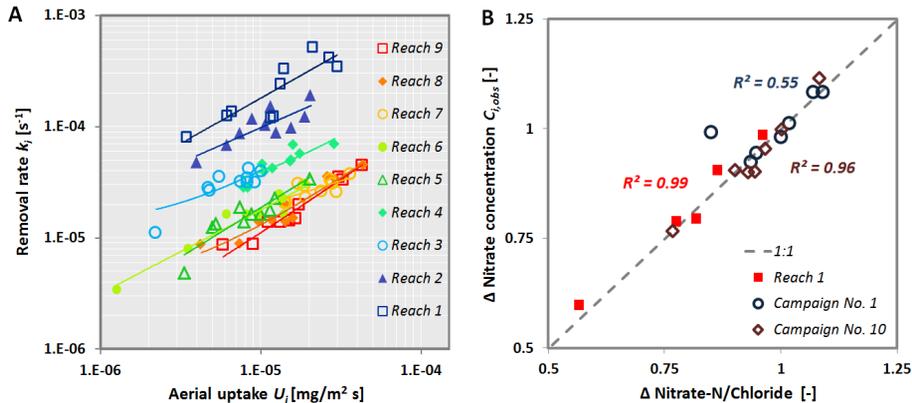


Figure 7. (a) Comparison of estimated in-stream nitrate removal rates k_i (s^{-1}) and areal nitrate uptake rates U_i ($\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{s}$) per stream reach. (b) Comparison of observed relative changes in nitrate concentrations with observed relative changes in the ratio of nitrate/chloride per stream reach observed during the sampling campaigns No. 1 and No. 10 and during the additional sampling campaigns at reach 1.

Title Page

Abstract

Introduction

Conclusions

References

Tables

Figures

◀

▶

◀

▶

Back

Close

Full Screen / Esc

Printer-friendly Version

Interactive Discussion