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Preface

Monitoring and modelling the impacts of global change on European freshwater ecosystems.

Freshwater ecosystems are important resources, providing sources of water for drinking, industrial and agricultural usage, recreation and conservation. Diffuse and point source pollution continues to threaten the quality of these resources, and has already changed the chemistry and biology of many European river-systems. In addition to pollution derived from agriculture, industry and sewage disposal, freshwater ecosystems now face new problems likely from climate change, both directly and through the interaction with other drivers of change. In relation to water chemistry and ecology, the agencies responsible for the management of water resources face the problems of:

- recognising and quantifying the pollutant effect against some perception of good ecological status;
- resolving the potential conflict of different uses and interests within a catchment which are likely to have socio-economic consequences;
- predicting the change in the hydrology, water quality and ecology likely to result from future changes in pollutant inputs and climate change.

These problems are urgent. The adoption of the Water Framework Directive by the European Union has bound its participants to improve the chemical and ecological status of their freshwaters by 2015, and the improvement of the freshwater water resource and biodiversity is desirable throughout the World. The science to underpin the environmental management in river-systems is much needed. The Euro-limpacs project (GOCE-CT-2003-505540), funded by the European Union under Framework6, has been designed to help provide the science. It focuses on the key drivers of aquatic ecosystem change (land-use, nutrients, acid deposition and toxic substances) and examines their interactions with climate change using time-series analysis, space-for-time substitution, palaeolimnology, experiments and process modelling. It considers these interactions at three critical time-scales: (i) hours/days, concerned with changes in the magnitude and frequency of extreme events; (ii) seasons, concerned with changes in ecosystem function and life-cycle strategies of freshwater biota; and (iii) years/decades concerned with the ecological response to environmental pressure. A

central activity is the creation of a tool-kit for integrated catchment modelling to simulate hydrological, hydrochemical and ecological processes at the catchment scale for use in assessing the potential impact of climate and socio-economic scenarios.

This special issue provides the vanguard results from the Euro-limpacs project. It also takes European understanding of rivers, lakes and estuarine studies further. It provides information on the likely impacts of climate change on freshwater ecosystems and gives new insight into the factors and processes operating in freshwater ecosystems that must be considered when making model-based assessments of the impacts of climate-change and management decisions. The volume covers five areas:

- Catchment hydrology and hydrochemistry;
- The links between hydrochemistry and ecology;
- Quantifying the effects of climate change, land management and effluent inputs on freshwater chemistry;
- Model uncertainty
- Freshwater ecosystem and socio-economic linkages

In this volume, new work is presented on understanding nutrient transport and retention at the field, catchment and national scale. A major component of the volume is the application of models to assess the likely impacts of climate change on freshwater chemistry and the likely ecological consequence in a range of European climates and landscapes. The fifteen papers in the issue compliment the activities to disseminate the results of the project at meetings around the world including meetings of the American Society of Limnology and Oceanography(ASLO), Acid Rain 2005 – the 7th International Conference on Acid Deposition and the 5th International Symposium on Ecosystem Behaviour – Biogeomon 2006. The volume also highlights the commitment of the European Union and its scientists to improve the freshwater water resource.

The Guest Editor

Andrew Wade

Aquatic Environments Research Centre, School of Human and Environmental Sciences, The University of Reading, Reading, RG6 6AB, UK.

Introduction

Monitoring and modelling the impacts of global change on European freshwater ecosystems.

Andrew J Wade

Aquatic Environments Research Centre, School of Human and Environmental Sciences,
The University of Reading, P.O. Box 227, Reading, RG6 6AB, UK

In 2000, the European Union adopted the Water Framework Directive (2000/60/EC) which aims to protect and improve the water resources and freshwater ecology of Europe. It is hoped that the aim will be achieved by setting standards on water quality and ecological status that will be met by reducing pollutant inputs to freshwaters from the surrounding catchments. The aims of the Directive are laudable and worth pursuing, but the practical application of the Directive and the assessment of its success are difficult for four reasons. Firstly, whilst the study of the relationships between the physical and chemical processes and the ecology within lakes is established, the equivalent science in rivers and wetlands is still relatively new. The understanding of how fluvial hydrochemistry controls the ecology and the feed-back mechanisms are not sufficiently understood to predict the ecological response in rivers and wetlands with certainty. Secondly, changes in the climate, which are currently predicted to exceed natural variability, may confound our current understanding of chemical cycles in the soils, groundwater, lakes, rivers and wetlands. Thirdly, the pollutants which affect the ecology, either directly within a catchment or indirectly by contributing to air pollution or climate change, are typically by-products of industry, farming, transport and power generation; all are essential to the economy of Europe and therefore pollution controls in these economic sectors will have social and economic consequences, which are not fully understood. Finally, questions remain over what “good” ecological status means.

Given the current state of scientific knowledge (European Environment Agency, 2003), research projects have been commissioned at the national and international scales to investigate how changes in pollutant inputs to river-systems, coupled with future predictions of climate change, will affect the chemical and ecological status of freshwaters (e.g. Euroharp; EuroLakes; CLIME; Lowland Catchment Research, LOCAR). One such project funded by the European Union is Euro-limpacs

(www.eurolimpacs.ucl.ac.uk) which aims to determine how the chemistry and ecology of freshwater systems throughout Europe will change in response to changes in land-management, atmospheric deposition and effluent inputs set against the background of expected climate change.

This volume brings together the first monitoring and modelling results of the Euro-limpacs project and other contemporary work to define the current state of the modelling effort; and to provide new data and considerations requiring attention by environmental modellers. The volume provides the foundation papers on which further modelling efforts will be built and describes the study sites used. Most importantly the papers provide new model-based assessments of the factors and processes controlling the behaviour of the water quality and ecology in river-systems and quantitative estimates of the likely response of freshwater ecosystems to climate change. Gaps in the data and model-based assessments are identified in the individual papers.

Euro-limpacs: an overview

Euro-limpacs began in February 2004 and will finish in January 2009. The project is ambitious. It brings together scientists from universities, research institutes and environmental consultancies in 19 different countries. The project includes both experimental and modelling studies and is split into ten work-packages (Figure 1).

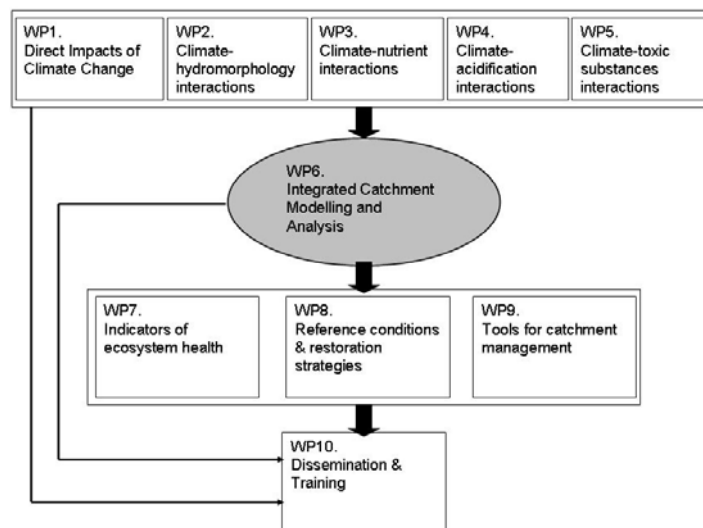


Figure 1. The work-package structure of the Euro-limpacs project.

The first five concentrate primarily on experimental work to determine the likely impacts on freshwaters from direct changes in hydrology; changes in channel geomorphology and sediment accumulation rates; eutrophication; acidification; and toxic substances, such as

mercury and persistent organic compounds. Additional research is focusing on establishing indicators of ecosystem health, strategies for remediation of freshwaters where the biodiversity has been reduced, and methods of disseminating the knowledge accumulated in the project to all those interested in it. The tenth work-package deals with the administration of the project, training provision for the tools and methods developed in the project and the maintenance of the web-site. Catchment-scale modelling is central to the integration of knowledge derived from the experimental studies and the delivery of forecasts of change to the indicator, restoration and information dissemination work-packages.

Mathematical models that simulate the storage and transport of pollutant inputs through the soils and groundwater of a river-system are required to understand and quantify the likely response-time between a pollutant entering the system and its subsequent emergence in the surface-waters, and thereby determine what management options are viable to improve river ecology within the time-scale of the Directive. The aims of the catchment-scale modelling work-package are (i) to improve process understanding within freshwater ecosystems through modelling approaches and (ii) to provide quantitative estimates (with uncertainty) of the likely impacts of global change on freshwater ecosystems. At the catchment-scale, steady-state models integrate knowledge of flow-pathways and source areas to determine the output from the land or river based on the input mass and an empirical method of estimating the retention in the soils and the groundwater; dynamic models incorporate also ideas of transient storage and representations of biochemical cycling. As such, catchment-scale models are useful as they can be used to investigate the possible controls on the water quality and ecology, though there are problems due to an inability to identify the optimum model structure and parameter-set (Beven, 2002). Despite this, models are still useful as they are a means of considering all the factors and processes that affect the water quality and the modelled forecasts of the response to climate change compliment other techniques, such as space-for-time substitution and analogue matching which rely on finding surrogate components of a river-system, such as a lake or wetland, for the predicted temperature and precipitation conditions. A wide variety of models are being developed in the Euro-limpacs project ranging in complexity from perceptions of how a system works, illustrated in a report or paper, to dynamic, mass-balance chemical and ecological models,

formalised as a set of equations coded as computer software. The catchment-scale models are described in this volume.

Catchment monitoring

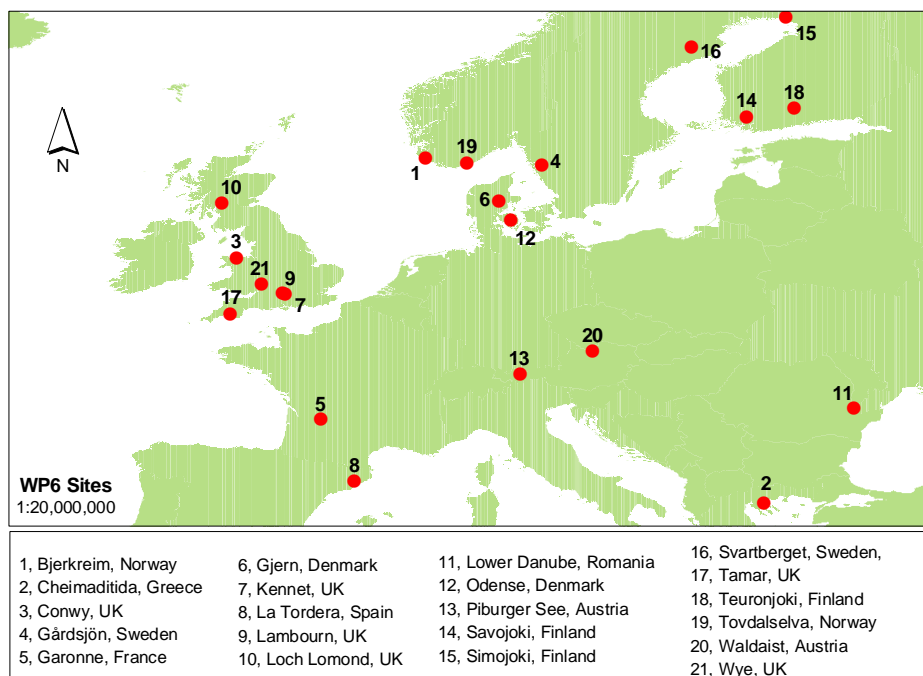


Figure 2. The location of the key sites for catchment-scale modelling in the Euro-limpacs project.

Given the history of hydrological, biogeochemical and ecological research in European lakes, rivers and wetlands, the project is able to draw upon substantial existing data sets. Twenty-one sites have been chosen which cover Europe (Figure 2) and are representative of different pollution issues, spatial scales, climates and river-system components (Table 1). The study-areas are in Austria, Denmark, Greece, Finland, France, Norway, Romania, Spain, Sweden and the UK (Table 1). The areas of the study sites range over 8 orders of magnitude, from small research sites such as Svartberget and Gårdsjön, to large river-systems which have a number of water pollution issues and competing water uses (Table 1).

Country	Study Area	Area km ²	System Components Present			Key Issues	Climate	Eco-region
			River	Lake	Wetland			
Austria	Piburger See	2	✓	✓		Eutro.	Cool Continental	Mountainous
	Waldaist	275	✓			Sediment	Cool Continental	Mountainous
Denmark	Gjern	110	✓	✓		Eutro.	Warm-humid	Atlantic
	Odense	486	✓			Eutro.	Warm-humid	Atlantic
Greece	Cheimadidita	35		✓	✓	Eutro.	Mediterranean/Cool Continental	Mediterranean
Finland	Savijoki	15.4	✓		✓	Eutro.	Sub-artic	Boreal
	Simojoki	3160	✓	✓	✓	Acid., N sat.	Sub-artic	Boreal
	Tueronjoki	439	✓	✓	✓	N sat, Eutro.	Sub-artic	Boreal
France	Garonne	56500	✓	✓	✓	Eutro.	Warm-humid	Atlantic
Norway	Bjerkreim	685	✓	✓	✓	Acid., N sat., C	Warm-humid	Boreal
	Tovdalselva	1855	✓	✓	✓	N sat, Eutro.	Warm-humid	Boreal
Romania	Lower Danube Wetland	210			✓	Eutro.	Cool Continental	Continental
Spain	La Tordera	124	✓		✓	✓	Mediterranean	Mediterranean
Sweden	Gårdsjön	0.005		✓		Acid., N sat., C	Warm-humid	Boreal
	Svartberget	0.5	✓	✓		Acid., Hg	Sub-artic	Boreal
UK	Conwy	590	✓		✓	Acid., Eutro., C	Warm-humid	Atlantic
	Kennet	1030	✓		✓	Eutro.	Warm-humid	Atlantic
	Lambourn	263	✓		✓	Eutro.	Warm-humid	Atlantic
	Loch Lomond	781	✓	✓		Eutro.	Warm-humid	Atlantic
	Tamar	917	✓		✓	Eutro.	Warm-humid	Atlantic
	Wye	4140	✓	✓		Acid., Eutro., C	Warm-humid	Atlantic

Table 1. A summary of the key study areas used in the Euro-limpacs project for catchment-scale modelling. Acid. = Acidification, Eutr. = Eutrophication, N sat. = N saturation, C = Carbon.

Study Area	Number of Monitoring Sites	Period of Collection
Piburger See		
Waldaist	1	1997 - ongoing
Gjern	2	1987 - 2000
Odense	1	1950 - ongoing
Cheimaditida		
Savojoki	1	1971 - ongoing
Simojoki	2	1970 - ongoing
Teuronjoki	2	1981 - ongoing
Garonne		
Bjerkreim	4	1980 - ongoing
Todalselva	3	1973 - ongoing
Lower Danube	2	1950 - ongoing
La Torderra	2	1994 - ongoing
Gårdjsön	3	1980 - ongoing
Svartberget	2	1981 - ongoing
Conwy		2000 - ongoing
Kennet	10	1960 - ongoing
Lambourn	2	1962 - ongoing
Loch Lomond	4	1963 - ongoing
Tamar	7	1956 - ongoing
Wye	13	1950 - ongoing

Table 2. A summary of the site and river-system discharge monitoring.

Study Area	Number of Monitoring Sites	Frequency of Collection	Period of Collection	Determinands
Piburger See	1	Monthly	1975 - ongoing	NO ₃ , NH ₄ , TP, TDP, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk
Waldaist	1	Monthly	1997 - ongoing	NO ₃ , NO ₂ , NH ₄ , PO ₄ , TOC, DOC, pH, Alk, BOD/COD, O ₂ saturation
Gjern	2	Fortnightly	1987 - 2000	TN, NO ₃ , NH ₄ , TP, DRP, PO ₄ , SRP, pH, SS
Odense	1	Fortnightly	1987 - 2002	TN, NO ₃ , TP, DRP, pH, SS
Cheimaditida				
Savojoki	1	Fortnightly	1984 - ongoing	TN, NO ₃ , NH ₄ , TP, DRP, TOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk, SS,
Simojoki	1	Monthly	1984 - ongoing	TN, NO ₃ , NH ₄ , TP, PO ₄ , TOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk, Hg, SS
Teuronjoki	1	Monthly	1969 - 1988	TN, NO ₃ , NH ₄ , TP, PO ₄ , pH, Alk
Garonne				
Bjerkreim	20	Fortnightly	1980- ongoing	TN, NO ₃ , TP, PO ₄ , TOC, DOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk
Todalselva	2	Fortnightly	1980- ongoing	TN, NO ₃ , TP, TOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk,
Lower Danube				
La Torderra	3	Monthly	1994 – ongoing	TON, NO ₃ , NH ₄ , TP, PO ₄ , DIC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk, Hg, other trace metals, BOD/COD, O ₂ saturation, CO ₂
Gårdjsön	3	Monthly	1980 - ongoing	NO ₃ , NH ₄ , DON, TP, DOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Hg
Svartberget	3	Weekly	1981 - ongoing	TN, TON, NO ₃ , TP, PO ₄ , TOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk, Hg, other trace metals, CO ₂
Conwy	31	Quarterly	2004 – ongoing	TN, NO ₃ , NH ₄ , DON, TOC, DOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk,
Kennet	20	Quarterly	1973 - ongoing	TON, NO ₃ , NO ₂ , NH ₄ , TP, PO ₄ , DHP, SUP, PP, TDP, DOC, SRP, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk, SS, CO ₂
Lambourn	2	Weekly	2002 - 2004	TN, NO ₃ , NO ₂ , NH ₄ , DON, TP, DHP, DOC, pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk, other trace metals, SS
Loch Lomond	45	Monthly	1965 - ongoing	NO ₃ , NO ₂ , BOD/COD, O ₂ saturation
Tamar				
Wye	742	Monthly	1992 – ongoing	TON, NO ₃ , NO ₂ , PO ₄ , pH, base cations, acid anions, Alk, SS

Table 3. A summary of the site and river-system water chemistry monitoring

Study Area	Number of monitoring sites	Frequency of collection	Period of Collection	Determinands
Piburger See	1	Monthly	1972 - 1988	ChlA
Waldaist	2		1994 – ongoing	macro-invertebrates, diatoms
Gjern				
Odense			1980 - ongoing	fish, macro-invertebrates
Cheimaditida	1			ChlA, diatoms
Savojoki				
Simojoki	2	Quarterly	2002 - ongoing	ChlA
Teuronjoki	1		1975 - ongoing	ChlA, macrophytes
Garonne				
Bjerkreim	5	Annual	1996 - ongoing	macrophytes, fish, macro-invertebrates, zooplankton
Todalselva	5	Annual	1996 - ongoing	macrophytes, fish, macro-invertebrates, diatoms
Lower Danube				
La Torderra	2	Monthly	1994 – ongoing	ChlA, macro-invertebrates, diatoms
Gårdjsön				
Svartberget				
Conwy	20	Single study	2002	macro-invertebrates
Kennet	3	Monthly	1974 – 1975 and 1997 - 2000	macrophytes, epiphytes, macro-invertebrates
Lambourn	1	Weekly	2002 2004	ChlA, macrophytes, macro-invertebrates, diatoms
Loch Lomond	6		1987 - ongoing	ChlA
Tamar				
Wye			1992 - ongoing	ChlA

1 **Table 4.** A summary of the site and river-system biological and ecological monitoring
2 Many of the study-areas have a long history of hydrological monitoring, beginning in
3 the 1950s at four of the sites (Table 2). A wide-range of determinands are sampled at
4 the 21 study-areas, covering the key water pollutants central to the Euro-limpacs
5 project: sediment, nitrogen, phosphorus, carbon and mercury (Table 3), and many
6 sites have biological data available (Table 4). In addition, a broad range of other
7 measurements are available describing the hydrology (i.e. precipitation, air
8 temperature), effluent-inputs and deposition. Water chemistry has been monitored
9 routinely at 12 of the study-areas since the 1980's or before. Table 3 describes the
10 long-term monitoring only and does not include additional measurements made
11 during short-term projects. Compared to the monitoring of water chemistry, the

12 measurements of the biology and ecology in the 21 study areas are made at fewer sites,
13 with shorter periods of sampling and less frequent measurements. Despite this, these
14 data-sets are amongst the best in Europe with surveys of fish, macrophytes, macro-
15 invertebrates, diatoms, zooplankton and Chlorophyll 'a' concentrations (Table 4).

16 Based on differences in temperature and precipitation, climate zones can be defined
17 for Europe: southern Spain, Italy and Greece can be classified as 'Mediterranean', the
18 Alps as 'cool continental', northern Norway, Sweden and Finland (i.e. above 60° N)
19 as 'sub-arctic' and the remaining area as 'warm humid'. Thus, the 21 study-areas
20 selected for the model-based assessment of pollutant impacts on European freshwater
21 ecosystems cover a range of climate zones, ranging from the sub-Arctic north to the
22 Mediterranean, and from maritime 'warm humid' sites in the western UK, an Alpine
23 'cool continental' catchment in Austria to a continental site in the Lower Danube. The
24 study-areas can be also classified according to eco-region (Table 1). The salient
25 features of the sites are as follows:

26 **Austria.** There are two catchment sites in Austria. The Piburger See is a mountain
27 lake in the eastern Alps, which suffered from eutrophication during the 1960s.
28 Comprehensive restoration measures were undertaken in the 1970s: sewage diversion,
29 deep water with-drawl and change in agricultural practice. These efforts were
30 successful and the trophic-status was restored to oligo-mesotrophic. The Waldaist is
31 located to the north of the Danube and drains coniferous forest on an acid-bedrock.
32 This catchment is one of the sites used in the experimental work package to study the
33 effects of changing hydrology on sediment transport, channel morphology, inundation
34 frequency and extent, and the impact on the aquatic environment. Data describing the
35 land-use, hydromorphology and the biological community are available.

36 **Denmark, France, UK.** The Gjern, Odense, Garonne, Kennet, Lambourn, Wye,
37 Conwy and Tamar river-systems are all dominated by agriculture and have some
38 sewage effluent inputs. The River Gjern drains an area of 110 km² in Denmark and
39 includes one lake with an area of 0.39 km². Due to the input of nutrients from
40 agriculture and sewage the Gjern is eutrophic. The River Odense, also in Denmark, is
41 larger (486 km²) but is also eutrophic. Both systems are monitored long-term by the
42 National Environmental Research Institute and time-series describing the flow, water
43 chemistry and ecology are available from 1950.

44 The study site in south-west France is the Garonne river-system (56 536km²). In an
45 Atlantic Pyrennean climate, the Garonne is one of the largest west European alluvial
46 rivers in a non-industrialized region. Thus, the Garonne provides an example of a
47 fluvial landscape essentially modified by agriculture and, more recently, by
48 urbanisation. The fish assemblages of the Garonne have been mapped in detail and
49 provide a key ecological data-set with which to investigate the relationship between
50 fish assemblages and the controlling environmental factors.

51 The Kennet (1164 km²) and one of its tributaries, the Lambourn (263 km²) are typical
52 of Cretaceous Chalk catchments in southern England. Much of the precipitation
53 percolates into the Chalk aquifer and consequently the flow response in the
54 catchments is highly damped. The catchments are mainly rural, with arable agriculture
55 being the predominant land-use. There are several large towns along the main channel,
56 from which treated sewage is discharged directly into the Kennet. The catchment
57 provides water for public and industrial supply by means of direct surface and
58 groundwater abstractions, and there is concern that the nutrient concentrations in the
59 rivers and wetlands have caused ecological problems, in particular the growth of
60 unsightly algae which may suppress the growth of macrophytes. The Lambourn has
61 been the focus of a major national research programme to study the hydrology, water
62 quality and ecology of a lowland UK river-system. Detailed measurements of
63 macrophyte and epiphyte and biomass in the Kennet and Lambourn are available
64 (Flynn et al., 2002; Wright et al., 2002).

65 The River Wye is a large (4136 km²) and diverse catchment which spans the border of
66 Wales and England. The upland north-west of the catchment is composed of outcrops
67 of Ordovician and Silurian sandstones, shales, grits and mudstones. The lowland
68 catchment, south east of Hay-on-Wye is underlain by Old Red Sandstone, comprising
69 readily-weathered marls of the Herefordshire lowlands and the more resistant
70 sandstones of the Black Mountains. There is a marked contrast in precipitation across
71 the catchment, with mean annual rainfall of 2450 mm (1951 – 1995) at Cefyn Brwyn
72 in the upland north-west catchment, compared with 717mm (1971 – 1995) at Yarkhill
73 in the lowland east of the catchment (Marsh and Lees, 2003). The high precipitation
74 inputs to the upland catchment and low groundwater inputs mean that the river
75 regimes in the west tend to be flashier whereas, in the eastern lowlands, there is a
76 more substantial groundwater supply, resulting in the lowland tributaries exhibiting

77 less variable flow regimes. Land use in the Wye catchment is dominated by
78 agriculture and the type of agriculture varies considerably across the catchment,
79 largely according to topography. Sheep farming is the main agricultural activity on the
80 grassland and moorland of the upland west of the catchment, whereas in the lowland
81 eastern part of the catchment, arable and dairy farming predominate, with fruit, potato
82 and hop production. In 1994, the lower River Wye (from Hereford to the tidal limit)
83 and the River Lugg were designated 'Eutrophic Sensitive' areas under the Urban
84 Wastewater Treatment Directive (1991). As a result of this, tertiary treatment to
85 reduce phosphorus discharges was introduced at some of the larger STWs in the lower
86 Wye catchment during the latter part of the study period. The headwaters are
87 recovering from acidification.

88 The 590 km² Conwy catchment drains a predominantly rural, upland area of North
89 Wales, with a low population and minimal industry. The catchment contains a range
90 of soils and land-use that may be considered characteristic of many upland regions in
91 the UK: blanket peat bog (part of the largest peatland area in Wales); high montane
92 areas with thin organic and organo-mineral soils; conifer forests; and improved
93 grassland. Land-use is largely restricted to low-density sheep grazing in the uplands,
94 and higher density sheep and some cattle grazing on improved grasslands. The
95 catchment is the subject of detailed spatial surveys of riverine DOC, particulate
96 organic carbon (POC), nutrient and major ion chemistry, and samples have also
97 recently been collected for ¹⁴C analysis of DOC, to enable source attribution and
98 determination of organic matter age. Due to the extensive area of blanket peat, high
99 catchment exports of DOC to estuarine and coastal waters have also been the subject
100 of detailed study (EU DOMAINE project). Like the Wye, the headwaters are also
101 recovering from acidification.

102 The River Tamar is a large (917 km²), predominately rural catchment of moderate
103 relief in the south-west of England. There are significant alluvial flats (wetlands) in
104 the middle reaches, and the land-use is a mixture of arable agriculture, grazing and
105 forestry. Climatic conditions over the middle and upper Tamar catchment are typical
106 of Atlantic Britain, with mild wet winters and cool, moist summers.

107 Loch Lomond is a large lake in western Scotland (71 km²). The main rivers draining
108 into the loch are Endrick Water and the River Falloch both of which have
109 mountainous catchments. In total the loch drains an area of 781 km². Endrick Water,

110 which drains the Campsie Fells, is developed on Old Red Sandstone overlain by drift,
111 and the flow in the river is diminished by export of water from the Carron Reservoir
112 into the River Forth. The River Falloch is a very wet (approximately 2900 mm a⁻¹),
113 mountainous catchment developed on ancient metamorphic formations. There is a
114 slight eutrophication threat to the loch from diffuse agricultural pollution in the
115 southern catchments.

116 **Norway, Sweden, Finland.** There are two catchment sites in Norway. The Bjerkreim
117 river-system in southern Norway is a large (685 km²) mountain to fjord catchment,
118 dominated by mountains and heathlands; it is a salmon river, which has been acidified
119 by long-range transported sulphur and nitrogen compounds. The Tovdalselva
120 catchment, in southern-most Norway, is larger (1855 km²) but also has been acidified.
121 Both river-systems have a 25-year history of hydrological and water quality
122 monitoring.

123 The 0.50 km² Svartberget Catchment lies 70 km inland from Sweden's east coast.
124 Half of the runoff occurs during the snow-free half of the year (June to November),
125 and a third of runoff occurs during 3-4 weeks of spring flood in April or May. The
126 catchment is forested with Norway Spruce (*Picea abies*) in low, wetter areas and
127 Scots Pine (*Pinus sylvestris*) on higher, better-drained areas. The source of the stream
128 is 0.08 km² of mire. Monthly stream chemistry data are available since 1981. Weekly
129 samples have been collected since 1996 and analyzed for major anions, cations,
130 nutrients and DOC. Several transects have been studied in detail for hydrology and
131 soil solution chemistry. Detailed studies of trace elements (e.g. Hg, Al speciation),
132 DOC character, stable and radioactive isotopes have been conducted at various times.

133 The experimental site at Gårdjsön is located about 10 km from the Swedish west coast,
134 50 km north of Gothenburg. The region has a humid climate, and the research area is
135 characterised by an acid lake whose terrestrial catchment is dominated by forest and
136 podsollic soils, with inclusions of barren rock and peaty soils. The Gårdjsön study-area
137 receives moderately high deposition of sulphate, nitrate and ammonium, and has been
138 used for nitrogen addition experiments to simulate the impacts of increased deposition
139 (Wright and VanBreemen, 1995).

140 The River Simojoki, Finland discharges to the Gulf of Bothnia in the Baltic Sea. The
141 river drains an area of 3160 km², and is a salmon river in near-natural state. The

142 dominant human impact is forestry, and there are concerns that drainage and tree-
143 felling may adversely impact the nitrogen cycle. In contrast, the Savijoki catchment is
144 located in south-western Finland in the southern boreal zone; it is a small (16 km²),
145 agriculture-dominated sub-catchment of the River Aurajoki that discharges into the
146 Baltic Sea. Savojoki contains no lakes and belongs to the Finnish network of small
147 representative catchments, originally established for hydrological research in 1957.
148 Agriculture, mainly spring cereals, is assumed to be the main source of diffuse
149 nutrient losses. The River Teuronjoki catchment (439 km²), in southern Finland,
150 includes the intensively studied Lake Pääjärvi which is part of the EuroWaterNet
151 monitoring network.

152 **Greece, Spain.** Lake Cheimaditida is located 20 km south-east of Florina in north-
153 west Greece. The land surrounding the lake is mainly agricultural, deciduous and
154 shrub-woodland or wetlands. Historically, the lake has been used as a freshwater
155 supply for drinking and irrigation. The catchment is close to the main mountain range
156 of Greece and therefore has a climate that resembles a more mid-European type, with
157 a mean annual temperature of approximately 12.3 °C and a mean annual rainfall of
158 520 mm. The lake and the surrounding area have an important ecological function
159 supporting approximately 140 different bird species and 21 rare plants; however, the
160 biodiversity of the lake is currently falling.

161 La Tordera is a predominantly forested catchment in north-east Spain (868 km²). The
162 climate is typically Mediterranean: precipitation falls mainly in autumn and spring
163 with only occasional storms in summer. A sub-catchment of La Tordera will be used
164 initially (124 km²) for the modelling work, which includes areas of agriculture and a
165 waste-water treatment plant.

166 **Romania.** The Small Island of Braila, declared a natural reserve in 1994, is a complex
167 of wetlands in the Lower Danube area. This is one of the rare areas bordering the river
168 which has preserved its natural hydrological conditions and which contains a
169 representative sample of habitats, which are characteristic of floodplains as well as an
170 ancient inland delta. Comprising seven small islands with a total surface area of 210
171 km² (including Danube arms), the area is a site of major interest for birds, both for the
172 quality of the habitats present and for its location on the migration routes midway
173 between the nesting areas in the north of Europe and the wintering areas in Africa.

174 **Catchment-scale data analysis**

175 The volume starts with the latest results from data analysis of nitrogen dynamics in
176 clay and chalk catchments (Neal et al., 2006a), P dynamics in agricultural soils
177 (Heathwaite et al., 2006), and the long-term changes in carbon export from upland
178 and forested systems (Vourenmaa et al., 2006). All three nutrients are central to the
179 Euro-limpacs project and the implications of each study provide considerations that
180 must be factored into the modelling effort: the differences in the nitrogen dynamics in
181 chalk and clay catchments; the effect of tile drains on phosphorus and nitrogen
182 residence times in agricultural systems and the long-term trends in carbon
183 concentrations and the possible causal factors and processes which should be
184 investigated in a model-based assessment. Hilton et al. (2006) and Neal et al. (2006b)
185 make a significant progress in understanding how algae concentrations are determined
186 in river-systems. Hilton et al. (2006) propose a new conceptual model for predicting
187 the predominance of algae or macrophytes based on residence time. Neal et al.
188 (2006b) support the conceptual model of Hilton et al. (2006) with an analysis of the
189 chlorophyll 'a' concentrations measured in two of the major river-systems of England:
190 the Thames and Humber.

191 **Economic integration**

192 Birol et al. (2006) provide a paper on using economic methods to inform water
193 resources management. The paper reviews the methods available and provides a case-
194 study of how interviews with the public can be used to determine a perceived value of
195 the Cheimaditida wetland and lake in Greece. This is an important topic as public
196 participation is central to the philosophy of the WFD. Based on this study, it is
197 possible to visualise how economic valuation of environmental restoration can be
198 integrated with the catchment modelling: the models can be used to predict the likely
199 changes hydrology and water quality (and ultimately the ecology) as a result of global
200 change and management options, and then the Choice Method or Contingent
201 Valuation Method can be used to calculate how much the public is willing to pay for
202 the engineering required to reduce water pollution or regulate flows. This would be
203 useful as it would provide civil-engineers with a budget for the restoration of a
204 specific site.

205 **Catchment modelling**

206 *Component model development*

207 Over the duration of the project, individual models are being applied at the study sites
208 depending upon the key pollution issues. Specifically, MIKE11-TRANS and the
209 NAMS models are being applied to assess nitrogen, sediment and phosphorus
210 dynamics in the Gjern and Odense (Andersen et al., 2006); the PEARLS model has
211 been applied to the Conwy , and is currently being applied to Bjerkreim (Evans et al.,
212 2006; Cooper et al., 2000); INCA-Sed is being applied to the Kennet, Lambourn,
213 Gjern and Odense (Jarritt and Lawrence, 2006); INCA-P is being applied to the
214 Lambourn, Wye, Savijoki and Tuuronjoki sites (Wade et al., 2002a); INCA-N is being
215 applied to the Piburger See, Gjern, Odense, Garonne, Kennet, Lambourn, Tamar,
216 Endrich, Falloch, Tovdalselva, Gårdjsön, Savijoki, Tuuronjoki, and La Tordera
217 (Whitehead et al., 1998; Wade et al., 2002b). Further applications are planned for
218 Cheimaditida, and Neajlov. In addition, a new carbon model has been created and a
219 mercury model is under development; both are based on the INCA framework.

220 *Replication*

221 A central theme to the catchment-scale modelling work-package is that of replication.
222 This had two facets. In the first, a single model is applied to river-systems across
223 Europe to assess the likely changes in stream water nitrate concentrations, key source
224 areas and the relative export of nitrate from point and diffuse sources. In the first
225 instance, this will be the INCA-N model which will be applied to the 16 sites listed in
226 the previous section. This work builds on the earlier EU-INCA project (Neal, 2002;
227 Wade and Neal, 2004). The second facet is that different models will be applied at the
228 same site so that structural uncertainty can be factored into predictions of the water
229 quality response to climate change. For instance, INCA-N, INCA-P, INCA-Sed and
230 MIKE11-TRANS are being applied to the River Gjern, Denmark to assess the impacts
231 of climate and land-use change on nitrogen, phosphorus and suspended sediment
232 concentrations; specifically, to determine the differences in prediction of the general
233 trends in flow and in-stream nutrient and sediment concentrations.

234 *Model Chains*

235 Model chains are also being developed where models that simulate either a river or a
236 lake are used in combination. The purpose is to simulate the hydrology, chemistry and
237 ecology, and the dynamic behaviour of rivers, lakes and wetlands as a single

238 continuum, rather than considering these as individual components of the river-system.
239 The linkage of MAGIC, HBV, INCA-N and the Fjord model is reported in this
240 volume (Kaste et al., 2006). Other models will be chained to describe the continuum
241 of nutrient flow in the rivers and lakes. For example, INCA-N and INCA-P will be
242 linked with a deep lake model, HYDRO-1D to simulate the impacts of climate change
243 on algal growth in Loch Lomond, UK whilst INCA-P will be linked with MyLake to
244 simulate algal growth in Lake Pääjärvi, Finland. MAGIC was combined with the
245 PEARLS model to simulate the recovery from acidification across the distributed
246 network of a river-system (Evans et al., 2006).

247 *Model integration*

248 Models are also being integrated rather than chained: instead of the data being
249 transferred between models using text files, the individual models become one. For
250 example, INCA-P and INCA-Sed are being integrated to provide a better
251 representation of particulate phosphorus transport. INCA-P simulates macrophyte
252 dynamics and therefore links the flow and water quality with macrophyte growth
253 (Wade et al., 2001). With model integration, care is required so that the model
254 complexity does not become such that it is difficult to calibrate and test the resultant
255 model. Ideally catchment-scale models should be able to reproduce the observed data
256 whilst minimising complexity.

257 *Equifinality*

258 Water quality modelling is difficult because of an inability to scale point-flux
259 measurements typical of routine monitoring to a value representative of an area which
260 is generally required in models. This inability prevents the identification of the model
261 which best represents a system since the optimum model structure and parameter set
262 can not be found. A key component of the modelling work in Euro-limpacs is to use
263 appropriate methods for examining parameter sensitivity and uncertainty. This has
264 begun with the use of Markov-Chain Monte-Carlo methods for assessing scenario-
265 data and parameter uncertainty in the MAGIC model, and a general sensitivity
266 analysis of both INCA-Sed (Jarritt and Lawrence, in press) and INCA-C. The use of
267 measurements of nitrogen processes as a possible way to reject parameter-sets during
268 model calibration of INCA-N was investigated by Rankinen et al. (2006).

269 *Model based assessments of the factors and processes controlling water chemistry*
270 *and ecology at the catchment-scale.*

271 Within the project, Artificial Neural Networks were used by Park et al. (2006) to
272 classify and predict fish assemblages from physical catchment characteristics at the
273 local and regional scale. The sensitivity of the MAGIC model to climate change
274 factors was considered by Wright et al. (2006) to provide a basis for future
275 acidification modelling studies. Evans et al., (2006) estimated the recovery from
276 acidification in a distributed river-network, and linked the predicted water quality to
277 the presence of the invertebrate species, *Baetis rhodani*, a biological indicator of
278 acidification. The storage and release of sulphur during and after periods of drought
279 was modelled by Aherne et al., (2006), who also considered the implications of this
280 mechanism in delaying the recovery of soils and a lake from acidification.

281 Three papers in this volume report the use of models to determine the likely change in
282 nutrient retention in large river systems. The first was a national scale estimation of N
283 leaching and retention in Finnish river-systems using the N_EXRET model (Lepistö
284 et al., 2006). The second quantified the response of the nitrogen concentrations
285 throughout the river continuum from the acidified headwaters to the estuary of the
286 Bjerkreim river, and used these predictions to estimate the changes in the primary
287 productivity of the Fjord in response to climate change (Kaste et al., 2006). The
288 affects of predicted changes in precipitation on the in-stream nitrogen dynamics in a
289 large river-system which contains a lake in the Gjern catchment were estimated by
290 Andersen et al. (2006).

291 Whitehead et al., (2006) provide a modelling assessment of nitrogen concentrations in
292 the River Kennet in response to climate change, and extend the study by considering a
293 series of management options which may help to mitigate the effects of climate
294 change. The results highlight the variation in the predictions from the General
295 Circulation Models (GCMs). In the Kennet system, the three different models all
296 predict a general warming but at different rates, whilst for precipitation the HadCM3
297 model predicts less and the CSIRO and CGCM model predicts more.

298 **Wider comment**

299 Given the discrepancy in the climate scenarios from the three different GCMs, any
300 modelling assessment of climate impacts must consider a range of climate models and

301 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) scenarios. A new methodology,
302 based on Monte Carlo, for incorporating uncertainty estimates resultant from down-
303 scaling Global Circulation Models within hydrological and hydro-chemical models
304 has been proposed by Wilby and Harris (in press). This technique appears promising
305 to provide a common framework for creating the ensemble of nitrogen predictions
306 throughout Europe; it is capable of estimating the cumulative uncertainty from the
307 GCMs, the down-scaling method, the choice of hydrochemical model and the chosen
308 parameters in the hydrochemical model.

309 Many of the catchment-scale models used in Euro-limpacs are spatially distributed
310 and therefore simulation results are available for points throughout the catchment and
311 within the river-network. The model-based assessments of climate change presented
312 in this volume suggest that the models are sensitive enough to predict the changes in
313 the freshwater chemistry. A major challenge is to link the ecology to the chemistry;
314 this has been done at a conceptual level for algae and as formal equations for
315 macrophyte growth and the presence of an invertebrate, sensitive to acidification
316 (Hilton et al., 2006; Wade et al. 2001; Evans et al., 2006). However, there is a need to
317 keep complexity and data requirements to a minimum whilst still producing useful
318 model results.

319 Hilton et al. (2006) and Neal et al. (2006b) suggest that residence time is key to
320 determining the growth of algae in river-systems. Lepistö et al. (2006) found that the
321 highest retention of nitrogen is in river-systems with the highest percentage of lakes:
322 biological uptake of nitrogen is greater as residence time increases. Thus catchment-
323 scale models of algal growth must account for the residence time in reservoirs, lakes
324 and canals; the total length of the river, the distribution of the river-network and its
325 fractal character, if present, must be represented. This would require the extension of
326 the model of algal growth proposed by Whitehead and Hornberger (1984) to the entire
327 river network from its basis of simulating the main channel only. The implication of
328 the work by Hilton et al. (2006) and Neal et al. (2006b) is that residence time is more
329 important than nutrient concentration in determining the algal biomass; rivers in the
330 UK are typically saturated with nutrients and these are unlikely to be a limiting factor.
331 This has implications for catchment management: removing nutrients from sewage
332 works or imposing controls on farming may not reduce algal growth. Further work on
333 light limitation is required.

334 Questions still remain over the key sources of, and the factors and processes
335 controlling, nutrients in river-systems. The relative impact of phosphorus from
336 agriculture and sewage remains unclear given phosphorus from agriculture may be
337 bound to sediment whilst that from sewage is in a soluble form (Neal and Jarvie,
338 2005). Over the next 3 years the catchment modelling in Euro-limpacs will aim to
339 determine the effects of these forms of phosphorus on the in-stream macrophyte
340 population. The dynamic models will also be used to determine the stores of nitrogen,
341 sediment and phosphorus in catchments in order to estimate if nutrient concentrations
342 in rivers can be reduced within the timescales of the WFD.

343 Carbon concentrations in river-systems in North America and Europe are increasing
344 though the cause is unknown; climate controls have been proposed (Evans et al.,
345 2005). The movement of mercury in the environment is closely related to the carbon
346 cycle in soils and rivers. It is intended that Euro-limpacs modelling work-package will
347 deliver the latest methods to simulate the transport and fate of nutrients, sediment and
348 mercury in catchments.

349 In all these model developments and applications there is a need to incorporate all the
350 latest process understanding and data. Current emphasis within the UK and the US
351 seems to be upon large integrated-projects that measure many catchment variables in
352 an attempt to explain the hydrology and hydro-chemistry observed in-stream, as in the
353 case of the UK Lowland Catchment Research programme (LOCAR). It is unclear if
354 such data will help to define model structures and parameter sets given the infinite-set
355 of possible combinations, or overcome the inability to scale point measurements to
356 area-based flux estimates. The monitoring of stream-water chemistry at high-
357 frequencies (hourly) over long time-periods (decades) for selected determinands may
358 help to characterise the range of residence times for different pollutants and determine
359 any fractal character that is not simulated by current 'bucket' models such as INCA-N
360 (Kirchner et al., 2001). The latter approach is appealing because it does not rely on
361 constructing a conceptual model of the system but allows the residence-time
362 distribution to be determined from measurement. The fractal approach should,
363 however, be used in conjunction with process-based studies to help discriminate
364 between "true age" and "apparent age", the latter which is caused by the mixing of
365 waters of different age, and deterministic models are still required to quantify the
366 mass of pollutant, such as nitrogen, transferred from the soil-system to the unsaturated

367 zone and/or groundwater. The modelling work within the Euro-limpacs project will
368 begin to explore these ideas.

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467 **Nitrate concentrations in river waters of the upper Thames and its tributaries**

468

469 Colin Neal*, Helen P. Jarvie, Margaret Neal, Linda Hill and Heather Wickham

470

471 Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Maclean Building, Crowmarsh Gifford,

472 Wallingford, OXON, OX10 8BB, UK.

473 * Corresponding author: email address cn@ceh.ac.uk

474 **Abstract**

475 The spatial and temporal patterns of in-stream nitrate concentrations for the upper
476 Thames and selected tributaries are described in relation to point and diffuse sources
477 for these rural catchments. The rivers associated with catchments dominated by
478 permeable (Cretaceous Chalk) bedrock show a smaller range in nitrate concentrations
479 than those associated with clay and mixed sedimentary bedrock of lower permeability.
480 The differences reflect the contrasting nature of water storage within the catchments
481 and the influence of point and diffuse sources of nitrate. Nitrate concentrations often
482 increase in a gradual way as a function of flow for the rivers draining the permeable
483 catchments, although there is usually a minor dip in nitrate concentrations at low to
484 intermediate flow due to (1) within-river uptake of nitrate during the spring and the
485 summer when biological activity is particularly high and (2) a seasonal fall in the
486 water table and a change in preferential flow-pathway in the Chalk. There is also a
487 decrease in the average nitrate concentration downstream for the Kennet where
488 average concentrations decrease from around 35 to 25 mg NO₃ l⁻¹. For the lower
489 permeability catchments, when point source inputs are not of major significance,
490 nitrate concentrations in the rivers increase strongly with increasing flow and level off
491 and in some cases then decline at higher flows. When point source inputs are
492 important, the initial increase in nitrate concentrations do not always occur and there
493 can even be an initial dilution, since the dilution of point sources of nitrate will be
494 lowest under low-flow conditions. For the only two tributaries of the Thames which
495 we have monitored for over 5 years (the Pang and the Kennet), nitrate concentrations
496 have increased over time. For the main stem of the Thames, which was also
497 monitored for over five years, there is no clear increase over time. As the Pang and
498 the Kennet river water is mainly supplied from the Chalk, the increasing nitrate
499 concentrations over time clearly reflect increasing nitrate concentrations within the

500 groundwater. It primarily reflects long-term trends for agricultural fertilizer inputs and
501 significant aquifer storage and long water residence times.

502

503 The results are discussed in terms of hydrogeochemical processes and the Water
504 Framework Directive and are compared with data from other eastern UK rivers. The
505 importance of diffuse sources of nitrate contamination is highlighted. On a flow
506 weighted basis, the average diffuse component of nitrate is around 95% for the
507 Thames Basin rivers draining Chalk and for the corresponding rivers draining less
508 permeable strata, there is a more significant but not major point source component (at
509 least in terms of flux); the average diffuse component is 79% in this case. These data
510 fit well with earlier assessments of agricultural sources to UK surface waters. Under
511 baseflow conditions the diffuse sources remain dominant for the Chalk fed Thames
512 Basin rivers, but point sources can be dominant for the low permeability cases. On a
513 proportionate basis, the Thames Basin rivers are similar to the rural rivers of the
514 Tweed and Humber Basins in terms of percentage diffuse components although the
515 lower intensity agriculture occurring for the rivers monitored means that the average
516 nitrate concentrations are lower for the rural rivers of central and northern England
517 and the borders with Scotland: the Humber and Tweed.

518

519 **Key words**

520 Nitrate, RELU, river, Chalk, aquifer, Cherwell, Dun, Kennet, Lambourn, LOCAR,
521 LOIS, Pang, Ray, Thame, Thames, Water Framework Directive.

522 **FIELD DRAINS AS A ROUTE OF RAPID NUTRIENT EXPORT FROM**
523 **AGRICULTURAL LAND RECEIVING BIOSOLIDS**

524
525 *A. L. Heathwaite^{1*}, S.P. Burke² and L. Bolton³*

526
527 ¹Centre for Sustainable Water Management, Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster
528 University, Lancaster, LA1 4YQ

529 ²Environment Agency, Olton Court, 10 Warwick Road, Solihull, West Midlands, B92
530 7HX.

531 ³Environment Agency, Scarrington Road, West Bridgford, Nottingham NG2 5FA
532

533 **ABSTRACT**

534 We report research on the environmental risk of incidental nutrient transfers from land
535 to water for biosolids amended soils. We show that subsurface (drainflow) pathways
536 of P transport may result in significant concentrations, up to 10 mg total P l⁻¹, in the
537 drainage network of an arable catchment when a P source (recent biosolids
538 application) coincides with a significant and active transport pathway (rainfall event).
539 However, the high P concentrations were short-lived, with drainage ditch total P
540 concentrations returning to pre-storm concentrations within a few days of the storm
541 event. In the case of the drainflow concentrations reported here, the results are
542 unusual in that they describe an ‘incidental event’ for a groundwater catchment where
543 such events might normally be expected to be rare owing to the capacity of the
544 hydrological system to attenuate nutrient fluxes for highly adsorbed elements such as
545 P. Consequently, there is a potential risk of P transfers to shallow groundwater
546 systems. We suggest that the findings are not specific to biosolids-alone, which is a
547 highly regulated industry, but that similar results may be anticipated had livestock
548 waste or mineral fertilizer been applied, although the magnitude of losses may differ.
549 The risk appears to be more one of timing and the availability of a rapid transport
550 pathway than of P source.

551
552 **KEY WORDS:** biosolids, sewage sludge, phosphorus, diffuse pollution, drainage,
553 agriculture

554 **Increasing trends of total organic carbon concentrations in small forest lakes in**
555 **Finland from 1987 to 2003**

556 Jussi Vuorenmaa*, Martin Forsius, Jaakko Mannio

557 Finnish Environment Institute, P.O.Box 140, FIN-00251, Helsinki, Finland

558 **Abstract**

559 Trends in total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations over the period 1987-2003 were
560 studied in 13 small forest lakes. Recovery from acidification (reduced SO₄ deposition)
561 and long-term changes in runoff as potential drivers for the trends were examined.
562 The results showed that TOC concentrations have increased throughout Finland. Ten
563 of the 13 lakes showed a significant increasing TOC trend ($p < 0.05$), and included
564 both clear water and humic lakes. The largest annual increase in TOC occurred in
565 lakes with the largest average concentrations. The magnitude of the TOC trends were
566 not significantly related to the proportion of peat soils in the catchment but the
567 catchment size was an important predictor. Decreasing SO₄ deposition and improved
568 acid-base status in soil due to the recovery from acidification implied an increased
569 mobilisation of organic acids and TOC. There was little evidence that the long-term
570 increasing trend in TOC concentrations was related to long-term changes in runoff.
571 However, large seasonal and inter annual fluctuations in runoff did appear to affect
572 TOC concentrations for a number of years.

573

574 *Keywords:* organic carbon; DOC; TOC; lakes; acidification; runoff; climate

575 **Using Economic Valuation Techniques to Inform Water Resources**
576 **Management: A survey and critical appraisal of available techniques and an**
577 **application.**

578 *Ekin Birol*

579 Corresponding Author. Address: Department of Land Economics and Homerton
580 College, University of Cambridge, Hills Road, Cambridge, CB2 2PH, UK.

581 Tel: + 44 (0) 1223 507230, Fax: + 44 (0) 1223 507206, Email: eb337@cam.ac.uk

582 *Katia Karousakis*

583 Address: Department of Economics, University College London, Gower Street,
584 London, WC1E 6BT, UK. Email: k.karousakis@ucl.ac.uk

585 *Phoebe Koundouri*

586 Address: Department of International and European Economic Studies, Athens
587 University of Economics and Business, Greece, 76 Patission Street, Athens 104 34,
588 Greece. Email: pkoundouri@aueb.gr;

589 **Abstract:**

590 The need for economic analysis for the design and implementation of efficient water
591 resources management policies is well documented in the economics literature. This
592 need is also emphasised in the European Union's recent Water Framework Directive
593 (2000/60/EC), and is relevant to the objectives of Euro-limpacs, an EU funded project
594 which *inter alia*, aims to provide a decision-support system for valuing the effects of
595 future global change on Europe's freshwater ecosystems. The purpose of this paper is
596 to define the role of economic valuation techniques in assisting in the design of
597 efficient, equitable and sustainable policies for water resources management in the
598 face of environmental problems such as pollution, intensive land use in agriculture

599 and climate change. The paper begins with a discussion of the conceptual economic
600 framework that can be used to inform water policy-making. An inventory of the
601 available economic valuation methods is presented and a critical discussion is
602 presented on the scope and suitability of each for studying various aspects of water
603 resources. Recent studies that apply these methods to water resources are reviewed.
604 Finally, an application of one of the economic valuation methods, namely the
605 contingent valuation method, is presented using a case study of the Cheimaditida
606 wetland in Greece.

607 **Keywords:** water resources, economic value, cost benefit, hedonic pricing, travel cost,
608 contingent valuation, choice experiment.

609 **How green is my river? A new paradigm of eutrophication in rivers**

610 John Hilton*, Matthew O'Hare, Michael J Bowes and J Iwan Jones

611

612 Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Winfrith Technology Centre, Winfrith Newburgh,
613 Dorchester, Dorset DT2 8ZD United Kingdom.

614 Corresponding author: Telephone: (0) 1305 213625, Fax: (0) 1305 213600,

615 E-mail: jhi@ceh.ac.uk

616 **Abstract**

617 Although the process of eutrophication is reasonably well understood in lakes, there is
618 currently no conceptual understanding of how eutrophication develops in rivers. This
619 issue is addressed here. A review of the main processes controlling the development
620 of eutrophication in lakes has been carried out as a precursor to considering the effect
621 in rivers. The importance of hydraulic flushing in controlling algal growth suggests
622 that short-retention-time rivers will show different effects compared to long retention-
623 time, impounded rivers. The latter are likely to operate like lakes, moving from
624 macrophyte domination to phytoplankton domination whereas the former move to
625 benthic and filamentous algal domination. Subsequently, a conceptual model of the
626 development of eutrophic conditions in short-retention-time rivers is developed.
627 Although there is general agreement in the literature that an increase in nutrients,
628 particularly phosphorus, is a pre-requisite for the eutrophic conditions to develop,
629 there is little evidence in short-retention-time rivers that the plant (macro and micro)
630 biomass is limited by nutrients and a good case can be made that the interaction of
631 hydraulic drag with light limitation is the main controlling factor. The light limitation
632 is brought about by the development of epiphytic algal films on the macrophyte leaves.

633 The implications of this conceptual model are discussed and a series of observable
634 effects are predicted, which should result if the model is correct.
635 *Keywords:* eutrophication, river, macrophyte, epiphytic algae, nutrient, model, review

636 **Chlorophyll-a in the rivers of eastern England.**

637

638 **Colin Neal^{1*}, John Hilton², Andrew J Wade³, Margaret Neal¹ and Heather**
639 **Wickham¹**

640 1. Centre for Ecology and Hydrology Wallingford, Maclean Building, Crowmarsh
641 Gifford, Wallingford, OXON, OX10 8BB, UK.

642 2. Centre for Ecology and Hydrology Dorset, Winfrith Technology Centre, Winfrith,
643 Dorchester, Dorset, DT2 8ZD, UK.

644 3. Aquatic Environment Research Centre, School of Human and Environmental
645 Sciences, The University of Reading, Reading, RG6 6AB, UK.

646 Corresponding author, email address cn@ceh.ac.uk

647

648 **Abstract**

649 Chlorophyll-a concentration variations are described for two major river basins in
650 England, the Humber and the Thames and related to catchment characteristics and
651 nutrient concentrations across a range of rural, agricultural and urban/industrial
652 settings. For all the rivers there are strong seasonal variations, with concentrations
653 peaking in the spring and summer time when biological activity is at its highest.
654 However, there are large variations in the magnitude of the seasonal effects across the
655 rivers. For the spring-summer low-flow periods, average concentrations of
656 chlorophyll-a correlate with soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP). Chlorophyll-a is also
657 correlated with particulate nitrogen (PN), organic carbon (POC) and suspended
658 sediments. However, the strongest relationships are with catchment area and flow,
659 where two straight line relationships are observed. The results indicate the importance
660 of residence times for determining planktonic growth within the rivers. This is also
661 indicated by the lack of chlorophyll-a response to lowering of SRP concentrations in
662 several of the rivers in the area due to phosphorus stripping of effluents at major
663 sewage treatment works. A key control on chlorophyll-a concentration may be the
664 input of canal and reservoir waters during the growing period: this too relates to issues
665 of residence times. However, there may well be a complex series of factors
666 influencing residence time across the catchments due to features such as
667 inhomogeneous flow within the catchments, a fractal distribution of stream channels
668 that leads to a distribution of residence times and differences in planktonic inoculation
669 sources. Industrial pollution on the Aire and Calder seems to have affected the
670 relationship of chlorophyll-a with PN and POC. The results are discussed in relation
671 to the Water Framework Directive.

672

673 **Key words**

674

675 Chlorophyll, rivers, nutrients, nitrate, particulate nitrogen, organic carbon, phosphate,
676 silica, sediments, Aire, Calder, Don, Humber, Kennet, Lambourn, Pang, Thames,
677 Trent, LOCAR, LOIS, RELU, Water Framework Directive.

678 **An application of the GLUE methodology for estimating the parameters of the**
679 **INCA-N model**

680 Katri Rankinen¹, Tuomo Karvonen², Dan Butterfield³

681 ¹Finnish Environment Institute, P.O.Box 140, FIN-00251 Helsinki, Finland

682 ²Water Resources Engineering, Helsinki University of Technology, P.O.Box 5200,
683 FIN-02015 HUT, Finland

684 ³Aquatic Environments Research Centre, Department of Geography, University of
685 Reading, Reading, RG6 6AB, UK

686 *Corresponding author:*

687 Katri Rankinen; tel: +358 9 40300 244 ; fax: +358 9 40300 290 ; e-mail:

688 Katri.Rankinen@ymparisto.fi

689 **ABSTRACT**

690 The conceptual and parameter uncertainty of the semi-distributed INCA-N (Integrated
691 Nutrients in Catchments - Nitrogen) model was studied using the GLUE (Generalized
692 Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation) methodology combined with quantitative
693 experimental knowledge, the concept known as 'soft data'. Cumulative inorganic N
694 leaching, annual plant N uptake and annual mineralization proved to be useful soft
695 data to constrain the parameter space. The INCA-N model was able to simulate the
696 seasonal and inter-annual variations in the stream-water nitrate concentrations,
697 although the lowest concentrations during the growing season were not reproduced.
698 This suggested that there were some retention processes or losses either in
699 peatland/wetland areas or in the river which were not included in the INCA-N model.
700 The results of the study suggested that soft data was a way to reduce parameter
701 equifinality, and that the calibration and testing of distributed hydrological and

702 nutrient leaching models should be based both on runoff and/or nutrient concentration
703 data and the qualitative knowledge of experimentalist.
704 **Keywords:** GLUE, INCA, soft data, uncertainty analysis, nitrogen, fuzzy rule.

705 **Stream fish assemblages and basin land cover in a river network**

706

707 Young-Seuk PARK^{1,*}, Gaël GRENOUILLET², Benjamin ESPERANCE² & Sovan

708 LEK²

709 ¹Department of Biology, Kyung Hee University, Dongdaemun-gu, Seoul 130-701,

710 Korea

711 ²Laboratoire Dynamique de la Biodiversité (LADYBIO), UMR CNRS-Université

712 Paul Sabatier, 118 route de Narbonne, 31062 Toulouse cedex 4, France.

713

714 * Correspondance : Young-Seuk Park

715 Email : parkys@khu.ac.kr

716 tel: (82) 2 961 0946

717 fax: (82) 2 961 0244

718

719 **Abstract**

720 This study focused on characterizing fish assemblages in the Adour-Garonne basin
721 and identifying the relative influences of landscape-scale features on observed
722 patterns in stream fish assemblages. Two different artificial neural network algorithms
723 were used: a self-organizing map (SOM) and a multilayer perceptron (MLP). A SOM
724 was applied to determine fish assemblage types, and a MLP was used to predict the
725 fish assemblage types defined by the SOM. Thirty four species were collected at 191
726 sampling sites in a major river-system, the Adour-Garonne basin, and topographical
727 factors, namely altitude, distance from source and surface area of drainage basin were
728 measured. Using GIS, land cover types (agricultural land, forests and urbanized
729 artificial surface) were calculated for each site and expressed as percentage of the
730 surface area of basin. These variables were introduced to the MLP and factorial

731 discriminant analysis for the prediction of assemblage types. As a result, the SOM
732 distinguished three fish assemblage types according to the differences of species
733 composition, and the assemblage types were better predicted with landscape-scale
734 features by MLP than discriminant analysis. The percentages of agricultural land and
735 the surface area of a basin showed the greatest influence on assemblage types 1 and 2,
736 and distance from source was the most important factor to determine assemblage type
737 3.

738 **Keywords:** fish, assemblages, river, basin, land cover, ANN, GIS

739 **Modelling the effect of climate change on recovery of acidified freshwaters:**
740 **relative sensitivity of individual processes in the MAGIC model**
741
742 R.F. Wright¹, J. Aherne², K. Bishop³, L. Camarero⁴, B.J. Cosby⁵, M. Erlandsson³, C.
743 D. Evans⁶, M. Forsius⁷, D. W. Hardekopf⁸, R. Helliwell⁹, J. Hruška¹⁰, A. Jenkins¹¹, J.
744 Kopáček¹², F. Moldan¹³, M. Posch¹⁴ and M. Rogora¹⁵

745

746 ¹Norwegian Institute for Water Research, Box 173, N-0411 Oslo, Norway

747 ²Environmental and Resources Studies Programme, Trent University, Peterborough,
748 Ontario, K9J 7B8, Canada

749 ³Department of Environmental Assessment, Swedish Agricultural University, Box
750 7070, SE75007 Uppsala, Sweden

751 ⁴Centre d'Estudis Avancats de Blanes – CSIC, Acces Cala St. Francesc, 14, E-17300
752 Blanes, Spain

753 ⁵Department of Environmental Sciences, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA
754 22904-4123, USA

755 ⁶Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Deiniol Road, Bangor, Gwynedd, LL57 2UP,
756 UK

757 ⁷Finnish Environment Institute, Box140, FIN-00251 Helsinki, Finland

758 ⁸Institute for Environmental Studies, Charles University, Benátská 2, CZ-12801
759 Prague 2,

760 Czech Republic

761 ⁹Macaulay Institute, Craigiebuckler, Aberdeen, AB15 8QH, UK

762 ¹⁰Czech Geological Survey, Klárov 3 CZ -11821 Prague, Czech Republic

763 ¹¹Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford, OX 10 8BB, UK

764 ¹²Hydrobiological Institute, AS CR and Faculty of Biological Sciences, USB, Na
765 Sadkach 7, CZ-370 05 Ceske Budejovice, Czech Republic

766 ¹³Swedish Environmental Research Institute, Box 5302, SE-40014 Gothenburg,
767 Sweden

768 ¹⁴Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency, PO Box 303, NL-3720 AH
769 Bilthoven, the Netherlands

770 ¹⁵CNR Institute for Ecosystem Study, Section of Hydrobiology and Ecology of Inland
771 Waters, L.go Tonolli, I-28922 Verbania Pallanza, Italy

772

773 Keywords: freshwaters, model, acid deposition, acidification, climate change

774 **Abstract**

775 The MAGIC model was used to evaluate the relative sensitivity of several possible
776 climate-induced effects on the recovery of soil and surface water from acidification. A
777 common protocol was used at 14 intensively-studied sites in Europe and Eastern
778 North America. The results show that several of the factors are of only minor
779 importance (increase in pCO₂ in soil air and runoff, for example), several are
780 important at only a few sites (seasalts at near-coastal sites, for example) and several
781 are important at nearly all sites (increased concentrations of organic acids in soil
782 solution and runoff, for example). In addition changes in forest growth and
783 decomposition of soil organic matter are important at forested sites and sites at risk of
784 nitrogen saturation. The trials suggest that in future modelling of recovery from
785 acidification should take into account possible concurrent climate changes and focus
786 specially on the climate-induced changes in organic acids and nitrogen retention.

787 **A linked spatial and temporal model of the chemical and biological status of a**
788 **large, acid-sensitive river network**

789

790 Chris D. Evans^{1*}, David M. Cooper², Steve Juggins³, Alan Jenkins² and Dave Norris¹

791

792 ¹*Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Deiniol Road, Bangor, LL57 2UP, UK*

793 ²*Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Crowmarsh Gifford, Wallingford, OX10 8BB,*

794 *UK*

795 ³*School of Geography, Politics & Sociology, University of Newcastle, NE1 7RU, UK*

796

797 **cev@ceh.ac.uk*

798

799 **Keywords:** Acidification, surface waters, dynamic, modelling, PEARLS, MAGIC

800

801 **Abstract**

802

803 Freshwater sensitivity to acidification varies according to geology, soils and land-use,
804 and consequently it remains difficult to quantify the current extent of acidification, or
805 its biological impacts, based on limited spot samples. The problem is particularly
806 acute for river systems, where the transition from acid to circum-neutral conditions
807 can occur within short distances. This paper links an established point-based long-
808 term acidification model (MAGIC) with a landscape-based mixing model (PEARLS)
809 to simulate spatial and temporal variations in acidification for a 256 km² catchment in
810 North Wales. Empirical relationships are used to predict changes in the probability of
811 occurrence of an indicator invertebrate species, *Baetis rhodani*, across the catchment
812 as a function of changing chemical status. Results suggest that, at present, 27% of the
813 river network has a mean acid neutralising capacity (ANC) below a biologically-
814 relevant threshold of 20 $\mu\text{eq l}^{-1}$. At high flows, this proportion increases to 45%. The
815 model suggests that only around 16% of the stream network had a mean ANC < 20
816 $\mu\text{eq l}^{-1}$ in 1850, but that this increased to 42% at the sulphur deposition peak around
817 1970. By 2050 recovery is predicted, but with some persistence of acid conditions in
818 the most sensitive, peaty headwaters. Stream chemical suitability for *Baetis rhodani* is
819 also expected to increase in formerly acidified areas, but for overall abundance to
820 remain below that simulated in 1850. The approach of linking plot-scale process-
821 based models to catchment mixing models provides a potential means of predicting
822 the past and future spatial extent of acidification within large, heterogeneous river
823 networks and regions. Further development of ecological response models to include
824 other chemical predictor variables and the effects of acid episodes would allow more
825 realistic simulation of the temporal and spatial dynamics of ecosystem recovery from
826 acidification.

827 **Climate variability and forecasting surface water recovery from acidification:**
828 **modelling drought-induced sulphate release from wetlands**

829 J. Aherne^{1*}, T. Larssen², B.J. Cosby³ and P.J. Dillon¹

830 Affiliations:

831 1. Environmental and Resource Studies, Trent University, Ontario, Canada

832 2. Norwegian Institute for Water Research (NIVA), Oslo, Norway

833 3. Department of Environmental Science, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, USA

834

835 Author for correspondence:

836 Julian Aherne, Canada Research Chair in Environmental Modelling,

837 Department of Environmental and Resource Studies,

838 Trent University, 1600 West Bank Drive, Peterborough, Ontario, K9J 7B8

839 Telephone: +1-705-748 1011 extn 5351

840 Facsimile: +1-705-748 1569

841 E-mail: julian.aherne@ucd.ie

842 * Collaborator, via a fellowship under the OECD Co-operative Research Programme:

843 Biological Resource Management for Sustainable Agriculture Systems.

844 **Abstract.**

845 Climate-induced drought events have been shown to have a significant influence on

846 sulphate (SO₄²⁻) export from forested catchments in central Ontario, subsequently

847 delaying recovery of surface waters from acidification. Field and modelling studies

848 have demonstrated that water table drawdown during drought periods promotes

849 oxidation of previously stored (reduced) sulphur (S) compounds in wetlands, with

850 subsequent efflux of SO₄²⁻ upon re-wetting. Although, climate-induced changes in

851 processes are generally not integrated into soil-acidification models, MAGIC (Model

852 of Acidification of Groundwater in Catchments) includes a wetland compartment that
853 incorporates redox processes driven by drought events. The potential confounding
854 influence of climate-induced drought events on acidification recovery at Plastic Lake,
855 south-central Ontario (under proposed future S emission reductions) was investigated
856 using MAGIC and two climate scenarios: monthly precipitation and runoff based on
857 long-term means (average-climate scenario), and variable precipitation and runoff
858 based on the past 20-years of observed monthly data (variable-climate scenario). The
859 variable-climate scenario included several periods of summer drought owing to lower
860 than average rainfall and higher than average temperature. Nonetheless, long-term
861 regional trends in precipitation and temperature suggest that the variable-climate
862 scenario may be a conservative estimate of future climate. The average-climate
863 scenario indicated good recovery potential with acid neutralising capacity (ANC)
864 reaching approximately $40 \mu\text{mol}_c \text{L}^{-1}$ by 2020 and $50 \mu\text{mol}_c \text{L}^{-1}$ by 2080. In contrast,
865 the forecasted recovery potential under the variable-climate scenario was very much
866 reduced. By 2080, ANC was forecasted to increase to $2.6 \mu\text{mol}_c \text{L}^{-1}$ from $-10.0 \mu\text{mol}_c$
867 L^{-1} in 2000. Elevated SO_4^{2-} efflux following drought events (introduced under the
868 variable-climate scenario) has a dramatic impact on simulated future surface water
869 chemistry. The results clearly demonstrate that prediction of future water quality,
870 using models such as MAGIC, should take into account changes or variability in
871 climate as well as acid deposition.

872 **Key words:** wetlands, climate variability, drought, MAGIC, redox-oxidation
873 processes, sulphate, Plastic Lake, Canada

874 Nitrogen in river basins: sources, retention in the surface waters and peatlands, and fluxes to
875 estuaries in Finland
876

877 AHTI LEPISTÖ, KIRSTI GRANLUND, PIRKKO KORTTELAINEN & ANTTI RÄIKE

878 Finnish Environment Institute, SYKE

879 P.O.Box 140, FIN-00251 Helsinki, Finland

880 tel. +358 9 40300238

881 fax +358 9 40300291

882 E-mail: Ahti.Lepisto@ymparisto.fi

883 **Key words:** catchment, lake, nitrogen, export, retention, peatland, river basin

884 **Abstract.** Nitrogen export from diffuse and point sources and its retention in the
885 major river basins of Finland is quantified and discussed. The estimated total export
886 from river-basins in Finland was 119 000 tonnes N a⁻¹ for the period 1993 to 1998
887 based on N export from different land use types defined in a GIS-based assessment
888 model, incorporated with estimates of N inputs from atmospheric deposition and
889 point sources. Agriculture contributes 38% of the total export, varying in the range
890 35-85% in the south-western basins and 0-25% in the northern basins. This estimate
891 of N export from agriculture was based on regional N balances together with data
892 from small agricultural research catchments. Forestry contributes on average 9%,
893 with increasing dominance towards eastern and northern parts of the country: from
894 2-15% in the southern-mid-western Finland basins to 10-30% in the large northern
895 basins. 'Background' N export from forests on both mineral and organic soils
896 contributes 27% on average; in the northern basins it may contribute from 40% up
897 to 90% of the total load. The estimate was calculated based on practically all data
898 available from 42 small, experimental catchments in Finland. Of the total N input to
899 Finnish river-systems,

900 0 to 68% was retained in surface waters and/or peatlands, with a mean-retention of
901 22%. The highest retention of N (36-61%) was observed in the basins with the
902 highest lake percentages. The lowest retention (0-10%) of N was in the coastal
903 basins with practically no lakes. In the national N mass balance, 38 000 tonnes N a⁻¹
904 (32%) was estimated as lake retention and 4 000 tonnes N a⁻¹ (3%) as retention in
905 peatlands. On the basis of mass balances and sensitivity analysis, retention was in
906 most cases estimated to be in the range of 7.5-12.5 kg ha⁻¹a⁻¹ in lakes and 0-1.5 kg
907 ha⁻¹a⁻¹ in peatlands. The model results were tested using the split-sample technique
908 and uncertainty estimates for different data sources are provided and discussed.

909 **Linked models to assess the impacts of climate change on nitrogen in a**
910 **Norwegian river basin and fjord system**

911
912 Ø.Kaste¹, R.F. Wright², L. J. Barkved², B. Bjerkgeng², T. Engen-Skaugen³, J.
913 Magnusson², and N. R. Sælthun²

914
915 ¹Norwegian Institute for Water Research, Southern Branch, Televeien 3, N-4879
916 Grimstad, Norway

917 ²Norwegian Institute for Water Research, P.O. Box 173, N-0411 Oslo, Norway

918 ³Norwegian Meteorological Institute, P.O. Box 43 Blindern, N-0313 Oslo, Norway

919

920 **Abstract**

921 Dynamically-downscaled data from two Atmosphere-Ocean General Circulation
922 Models (AOGCMs), ECHAM4 from the Max-Planck Institute (MPI), Germany and
923 HadAm3H from the Hadley Centre (HAD), UK, driven with two scenarios of
924 greenhouse gas emissions (IS92a and A2, respectively) were used to make climate
925 change projections. These projections were then used to drive four effect models
926 linked to assess the effects on hydrology, and nitrogen (N) concentrations and fluxes,
927 in the Bjerkreim river basin (685-km²) and its coastal fjord, southwestern Norway.
928 The four effect models were the hydrological model HBV, the water quality models
929 MAGIC, INCA-N, and the NIVA FJORD model. The downscaled climate scenarios
930 project a general temperature increase in the study region of approximately 1°C by
931 2030-2049 (MPI IS92a) and approximately 3°C by 2071-2100 (HAD A2). Both
932 scenarios imply increased winter precipitation, whereas the projections of summer and
933 autumn precipitation are quite different, with the MPI scenario projecting a slight
934 increase and the HAD scenario a significant decrease. As a response to increased
935 winter temperature the HBV model simulates a dramatic reduction of snow
936 accumulation in the upper parts of the catchment, which in turn lead to higher runoff
937 during winter and lower runoff during snowmelt in the spring. With the HAD
938 scenario, runoff in summer and early autumn is substantially reduced as a result of
939 reduced precipitation, increased temperatures and thereby increased

940 evapotranspiration. The water quality models, MAGIC and INCA-N project no major
941 changes in nitrate (NO_3^-) concentrations and fluxes within the MPI scenario, but a
942 significant increase in concentrations and a 40-50% increase in fluxes in the HAD
943 scenario. As a consequence the acidification of the river could increase, thus
944 offsetting ongoing recovery from acidification due to reductions in acid deposition.
945 Additionally, the increased N loading may stimulate growth of N-limited benthic
946 algae and macrophytes along the river channels and lead to undesirable eutrophication
947 effects in the estuarine area. Simulations made by the FJORD model and the HAD
948 scenario indicate that primary production in the estuary might increase up to 15-20%,
949 based on the climate-induced changes in river flow and nitrate concentrations alone.

950 **Keywords:** climate change, nitrogen, acidification, runoff, freshwater, marine
951 eutrophication.

952 **Climate-change impacts on hydrology and nutrients in a Danish lowland river**
953 **basin**

954 Hans Estrup Andersen^{1*}, Brian Kronvang¹, Søren E. Larsen¹, Carl Christian

955 Hoffmann¹, Torben Strange Jensen² and Erik Koch Rasmussen²

956 *National Environmental Research Institute, Vejlshøvej 25, P.O. Box 314, DK-8600*

957 *Silkeborg, Denmark*

958 ²*Danish Hydraulic Institute, Agern Allé 5, DK-2970 Hørsholm, Denmark*

959 * *Corresponding author, email: hea@dmu.dk*

960 **Abstract**

961 The Mike 11-TRANS modelling system was applied to the lowland Gjern river basin
962 in Denmark to assess climate-change impacts on hydrology and nitrogen retention
963 processes in watercourses, lakes and riparian wetlands. Nutrient losses from land to
964 surface waters were assessed using statistical models incorporating the effect of
965 changed hydrology. Climate-change was predicted by the ECHAM4/OPYC General
966 Circulation Model (IPCC A2 scenario) dynamically downscaled by the Danish
967 HIRHAM regional climate model (25 km grid) for two time slices: 1961-1990
968 (control) and 2071-2100 (scenario). HIRHAM predicts an increase in mean annual
969 precipitation of 47 mm (5%) and an increase in mean annual air temperature of 3.2 °C
970 (43%).

971 The HIRHAM predictions were used as external forcings to the rainfall-runoff model
972 NAM, which was set up and run for 6 sub-catchments within and for the entire, Gjern
973 river-basin. Mean annual runoff from the river basin increases 27 mm (7.5%, $p < 0.05$)
974 when comparing the scenario to the control. Larger changes, however, were found
975 regarding the extremes; runoff during the wettest year in the 30 year period increased
976 by 58 mm (12.3%). The seasonal pattern is expected to change with significantly

977 higher runoff during winter. Summer runoff is expected to increase in predominantly
978 groundwater fed streams and decrease in streams with a low base-flow index. The
979 modelled change in the seasonal hydrological pattern is most pronounced in 1st or 2nd
980 order streams draining loamy catchments, which currently have a low base-flow
981 during the summer period. Reductions of 40-70% in summer runoff are predicted for
982 this stream type.

983 A statistical nutrient loss model was developed for simulating the impact of changed
984 hydrology on diffuse nutrient losses (i.e. losses from land to surface waters) and
985 applied to the river basin. The simulated mean annual changes in TN loads in a loamy
986 and a sandy sub-catchment were, respectively, +2.3 kg N ha⁻¹ (8.5%) and +1.6 kg N
987 ha⁻¹ (6.9%).

988 The rainfall-runoff model and the nutrient loss model were chained with Mike 11-
989 TRANS to simulate the combined effects of climate-change on hydrology, nutrient
990 losses and nitrogen retention processes at the scale of the river basin. The mean
991 annual TN export from the river basin increased from the control to the scenario
992 period by 7.7%. Even though an increase in nitrogen retention in the river system of
993 4.2% was simulated in the scenario period, an increased in-stream TN export resulted
994 because of the simulated increase in the diffuse TN transfer from the land to the
995 surface-waters.

996 **Keywords:** Climate-change; modelling; runoff; nutrient loss; nutrient retention; total
997 nitrogen; total phosphorus; NAM; Mike 11; TRANS

998 **Impacts of Climate Change on In-stream Nitrogen in a Lowland Chalk Stream:**
999 **An Appraisal of Adaptation Strategies**

1000 Whitehead, P.G.¹, Wilby, R.L.², Butterfield, D.¹, and Wade, A.J.¹

1001 ¹Aquatic Environments Research Centre, Department of Geography, University of
1002 Reading, Reading, RG6 6AB, UK.

1003 ²Environment Agency, Trentside Office, Scarrington Road, West Bridgford,
1004 Nottingham NG2 5FA

1005 Corresponding author P.G.Whitehead (email p.g.whitehead@reading.ac.uk, Fax
1006 01189755865)

1007 **ABSTRACT**

1008 The impacts of climate change on nitrogen (N) in a lowland chalk stream are
1009 investigated using a dynamic modelling approach. The INCA-N model is used to
1010 simulate transient daily hydrology and water quality in the River Kennet using
1011 temperature and precipitation scenarios downscaled from General Circulation Model
1012 (GCM) output for the period 1961-2100. The three GCMs (CGCM2, CSIRO and
1013 HadCM3) yield very different river flow regimes with the latter projecting significant
1014 periods of drought in the second half of the 21st century. Stream-water N
1015 concentrations increase over time as higher temperatures enhance N release from the
1016 soil, and lower river flows reduce the dilution capacity of the river. Particular
1017 problems are shown to occur following severe droughts when N mineralization is high
1018 and the subsequent breaking of the drought releases high nitrate loads into the river
1019 system. Possible strategies for reducing climate-driven N loads are explored using
1020 INCA-N. The measures include land use change or fertiliser reduction, reduction in
1021 atmospheric nitrate and ammonium deposition, and the introduction of water
1022 meadows or connected wetlands adjacent to the river. The most effective strategy is to
1023 change land use or reduce fertiliser use, followed by water meadow creation, and

1024 atmospheric pollution controls. Finally, a combined approach involving all three
1025 strategies is investigated and shown to reduce in-stream nitrate concentrations to those
1026 pre-1950s even under climate change.

1027 **KEY WORDS**

1028 Kennet, climate change, water quality, nitrate, ammonia, Thames, land use,
1029 adaptation.