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Catchment Similarity Concepts for Understanding Dynamic Biogeochemical Behaviour of River Basins

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Quantitative assessment of the effectiveness of water quality mitigation measures such as Nitrate Vulnerable Zones (NVZ) and Agricultural Stewardship Programmes (Worrall *et al.*, 2009; Deasy *et al.*, 2010; Mian *et al.*, 2010; Kay *et al.*, 2012) is impeded by the current limitations of both process-based models (Rode *et al.*, 2010; Guber *et al.*, 2011) and empirical models (Rothwell *et al.*, 2010) at catchment and regional scales. The current failure of models to provide accurate water quality predictions at catchment scales and beyond is founded in significant observational uncertainties of water quality parameters (McMillan *et al.*, 2012) linked to our partial understanding of temporally dynamic source area contributions to water quality responses at the catchment outlet (Kirchner *et al.*, 2000, 2004; Jordan *et al.*, 2005; Harris & Heathwaite, 2005; Haygarth *et al.*, 2005; Jarvie *et al.*, 2010). These limitations critically restrict the predictive capacity of risk assessment frameworks for scientists and practitioners to forecast variable catchment scale water quality response and, in turn, to assess the resilience to environmental change, including human impacts (McIntyre *et al.*, 2003). As a consequence, quantifications of the likelihood of exceedance of critical thresholds as well as identification of dynamic source area activation that may be used to target amelioration measures or adaptation and mitigation strategies are inhibited.

28 Therefore, the challenge is to improve predictions of chemical catchment behaviour in
29 response to dynamic hydrological conditions at management relevant scales.

30 **1. Current limitations in predicting dynamic chemical behaviour of river basins:**

31 A major reason for the limited understanding of dynamic catchment hydrochemical
32 behaviour is the current lack of appropriate monitoring data to derive mechanistic process
33 understanding addressing the aforementioned challenges (Howden et al., 2011a). If
34 catchments may be understood as diverse chemical reactors, characterised by spatially
35 heterogeneous patterns of chemical reactivities, residence time distributions and flow
36 proportioning, observations are usually limited to chemical conditions at the catchment
37 outlets or, at its best, sub-catchment level. In contrast, most detailed biogeochemical
38 process studies naturally range from small plot to hillslope scales, causing a paucity of
39 overarching concepts that integrate small-scale process information and large-scale
40 biogeochemical behaviour at the catchment outlet. This lack of large-scale perspectives on
41 water quality variation inhibits a detailed quantitative analysis of complex spatio-temporal
42 dynamics in chemical cycling required to underpin setting of environmental standards,
43 development of assessment tools and evaluation of management options (*Beck, 1987;*
44 *Zheng & Keller, 2006, 2007a, b; Chin, 2009; Rode et al., 2010*).

45 Substantial progress has been made in high-frequency in-situ water quality sampling (*Jordan*
46 *et al., 2007, Cassidy & Jordan, 2011, Mellander et al., 2012; Neal et al., 2013*) as well as
47 statistical data analysis and signal processing to learn about intrinsic system behaviour (*Neal*
48 *et al., 2012; Kirchner et al., 2000, 2004; Kirchner & Neal, 2013*). However, improvements in
49 signal disaggregation for identifying process inference including interlinked spatial and
50 temporal dynamics of source area contributions remain a challenge, limiting the
51 quantification of catchment-scale implications of biogeochemical hotspots (*McClain et al.,*
52 *2003; Lautz & Fanelli, 2008*). Certainly, novel distributed sensor network technologies and
53 advancements in remote sensing will continue to improve the spatial and temporal resolution

54 of monitoring networks for both hydrological and hydrochemical parameters, but
55 observations of everything, everywhere will surely remain a dream. Hence, there is
56 continued demand for improvement in the intelligent design of observational networks and
57 the key question remains: “How to best design experimental networks that are capable of
58 utilising spatially and temporally unsatisfying data?”.

59 In comparison to discharge observation networks (reviewed by Hannah et al., 2011),
60 monitoring networks of water quality parameters are even more sparsely distributed; e.g. the
61 National River Flow Archive (<http://www.ceh.ac.uk/data/nrfa/>) of England and Wales covers
62 > 1400 river flow stations with average record length ~25 yrs for at least daily time series
63 while water quality parameters are usually monitored on a monthly basis at best. These
64 spatially and temporally constrained water quality monitoring intervals limit the assessment
65 of reactive transport at the catchment-scale, critically affecting in particular the interpretation
66 of event-based transport and transformation of diffuse pollutants (*Jordan et al., 2005,*
67 *Cassidy & Jordan, 2011*).

68 Answers to this practically relevant question require improving the understanding of
69 underlying mechanistic organisational principles that shape the distributions of observational
70 data at the catchment scale. The International Association of Hydrological Sciences (IAHS)
71 decade (2003-2012) on Predictions in Ungauged Basins (PUB) finished in 2012. This global
72 initiative aimed to reduce uncertainties in hydrological predictions in poorly monitored river
73 basins (*Sivapalan, 2003, Hrachowitz et al., 2013*). Although many open questions remain,
74 significant advances have been made in conceptualisation of catchment hydrological
75 behaviour, including spatially and temporally dynamic runoff generation and streamflow
76 contributions, resulting in subsequent improvements in the capacity of predictions of
77 catchment scale hydrological behaviour (*Blöschl et al., 2013*).

78 **2. Utilising PUB knowledge to learn about catchment biogeochemistry:**

79 We propose that lessons learned from *PUB*, and in particular the developed catchment
80 similarity schemes can help to improve the understanding of catchment biogeochemical
81 behaviour. Transfer of *PUB* type thinking and concepts of catchment comparison to water
82 quality predictions in poorly monitored basins has the potential to improve mechanistic
83 process understanding, including the conceptualisation of process transferability between
84 and across catchments. Comparative hydrology is based on the principle of investigating the
85 specific event, seasonal or management related hydrological responses of catchments and
86 analysing for similarity in other places in order to understand the complexity of process
87 drivers and controls (*Wagener et al., 2007; Blöschl et al., 2013*). As Figure 1 indicates, this
88 concept could be extended with adequate water quality data to better understand catchment
89 biogeochemical responses to variable source area contributions, catchment physical
90 properties, land use and land management practice or climatic forcing. This would improve
91 capabilities not only for analysis and prediction of current conditions but also for projections
92 of scenarios of environmental change, thus, linking to *Panta Rhei*, the ongoing IAHS
93 Scientific Decade on “Change in Hydrology and Society”
94 (<http://distart119.ing.unibo.it/pantarhei/>).

95 To date, a range of catchment classification schemes have been developed in order to
96 improve the understanding of hydrological process dynamics and conceptualise hydrological
97 behaviour at catchment scales and across catchments (*McDonnell & Woods, 2004,*
98 *Wagener et al., 2007; McDonnell et al., 2007; Ali et al., 2012*). Such schemes find
99 application for predicting similarities in specific hydrologic signatures [e.g. flood frequency
100 indices (*Acreman & Sinclair, 1986; Castellarin et al., 2001; Sauquet & Catalogne, 2011*) or
101 subsurface and baseflow responses (*Lyon & Troch., 2010, Kirkby et al., 2011*)], or use
102 combinations of hydrologic signatures for a more generic large scale organization of
103 catchments (*Hannah et al., 2005; Sawicz et al., 2011*).

104

105 The general objective of catchment classification schemes is the organization of catchments
106 into groups of similar hydrologic behaviour. The analysis is often based on observable
107 physical catchment properties, assuming that these can be linked to hydrological behaviour,
108 e.g. variability in streamflow (*Yadav et al., 2007*). This link can be implicit or explicit
109 depending on the classification strategy followed. There have also been attempts to directly
110 link the grouping of catchments to the parameters of specific models. There has, however,
111 been evidence that the assumed relationship between “apparent similarity” as defined by the
112 analysed catchment properties, and the expected “behavioural similarity” as output of
113 hydrological model application, does not always coincide (*Bower et al., 2004; Oudin et al.,*
114 *2010*). The mismatch between apparent and behavioural similarity seems to be most
115 pronounced across regions with similar catchment properties but marked variability in
116 climatic forcing (*Bower et al., 2004*), or when the role of subsurface properties on catchment
117 hydrological behaviour was poorly defined, or when such properties are simply unknown
118 (*Oudin et al., 2010*). This highlights the important role of adequately selected physical
119 properties as descriptors of hydrological behaviour. Although generally all classification
120 schemes focus on identification and analysis of different types of similarity indices, usually
121 based on catchment specific hydrological responses, there are open questions about
122 appropriate metrics (*Ali et al., 2012*).

123

124 The last couple of years have seen the development of a wide range of classification
125 metrics, comprising catchment typology, topography and topology. Classifications are based
126 on measures of fluxes, storages, mean transient times and response timescale as well as
127 combinations thereof and include approaches that combine static catchment properties and
128 dynamic catchment response (see *Ali et al., 2012; Carrillo et al., 2011; Hrachowitz et al.,*
129 *2010; Patil & Stieglitz, 2011; Bouma et al., 2011; Capell et al., 2012; Sawicz et al., 2011*).
130 Conceptually, significant progress has been made in the synthesis of catchment hydrological

131 behaviour by learning from other disciplines about the functioning of organisational principles
132 and resulting spatial patterns and temporal response dynamics (e.g. *Schroeder*, 2006).

133

134 While the chemical signature of catchment discharge has been used partly to explain the
135 hydrological behaviour of catchments, very few attempts have been made to apply recent
136 catchment classification methods and similarity analysis approaches for the analysis of
137 catchment biogeochemical behaviour (e.g. *Poor et al.*, 2008). This seems rather surprising
138 given the continuing high demand for improved conceptualisation of scale and time
139 dependent catchment chemical behaviour for the efficient implementation of regulatory
140 frameworks such as the European Water Framework and Nitrate Directives (WFD;
141 2000/60/EU) that struggle in prioritising target areas for management and mitigation
142 measures.

143

144 **3. Strategies for comparison of catchment biogeochemical behaviour:**

145

146 There has been a long history of catchment and river comparison studies aiming to improve
147 understanding of controlling process dynamics of up-land export of dissolved organic
148 carbon, and lowland and riparian nitrogen turnover. For example, the LINX (Lotic Intersite
149 Nitrogen eXperiments) experiments provided valuable comparison of the nitrogen removal
150 potential across biomes (*Mulholland et al.*, 2008; 2009). Recently, there has furthermore
151 been an increase in the development and application of quantitative approaches to estimate
152 nitrogen or carbon delivery at catchment to national scales (*Hellivell et al.*, 2007, *Worrall et*
153 *al.*, 2012a,b,c). The later are based on the development of export coefficient models using
154 physical catchment characteristics to explain observed process dynamics and behaviour at
155 the catchment outlet. Although these studies yield promising results, in particular with regard
156 to the understanding of average, long term system dynamics, they mainly focus on analysing
157 mean annual or seasonal behaviour, and thus do not usually consider event based nutrient

158 transport phenomena. These annual and seasonal metrics obscure important spatio-
159 temporal heterogeneity, notably “hot spots” or “hot zones” of biogeochemical cycling that
160 may have a disproportionately important impact (compared to their space-time scale) on
161 nutrient turnover at catchment scales relevant for water and land resource management
162 (*Peterjohn & Correll, 1984; Johnston et al., 1990; McClain et al., 2004*). Furthermore, the
163 focus on long-term averages of system dynamics limits potential for assessment of
164 intermediate system behaviour including system memory at seasonal and sub-seasonal
165 scales.

166

167 If catchment comparison approaches are to be deployed to support an adequate design of
168 adaptation and mitigation strategies then these have to synthesise the complexity and high
169 resolution of biogeochemical catchment responses to variable loading terms, source zone
170 activation and heterogeneous biogeochemical reactivity at definitely sub-annual scale,
171 probably even sub-seasonal to event scale (Figure 1). They have to be able to incorporate
172 potentially fast dynamics and turnover but also account for long-term residence-time
173 controlled memory effects of the system. Building on a successful UK example, we propose
174 that current regional to national scale Export Coefficient Models (ECM, see *Worrall et al.,*
175 *2012 a, b, c*) can be adapted to inform the development of similarity frameworks that account
176 for dynamic biochemical catchment behaviour and responses.

177

178 Incorporation of short-term system dynamics into current ECM at management relevant
179 catchment scales would ideally require long-term datasets of high temporal resolution. Most
180 existing datasets are either high resolution and short-term or lower resolution (often with
181 variable sampling frequency) and longer term. However, long-term high resolution archives
182 are rare. Hence, the implementation of new types of ECM for comparison of catchment
183 chemical responses will require creative approaches and innovative strategies to combine
184 spatially and temporally “unsatisfying” data. There are several possible ways of bridging the

185 gap between what we would like and what we have. Firstly, while most data from monitoring
186 programmes is of low temporal frequency (e.g. monthly) we often have long series of it. In an
187 extreme case the longest monitoring record in the World (River Thames, UK) goes back to
188 1868 (*Howden et al.*, 2010, 2011a) and 30 years of monthly spot samples, representing the
189 numeric equivalent to a year's worth of daily spot. However, although similar in numbers, the
190 coverage of characteristic flow conditions would obviously be likely to differ between daily
191 and monthly spot sampling. The problem with comparing long-term spot sampling to high
192 frequency spot sampling is to ensure that the long term record can be made stationary with
193 respect to time (*Howden et al.*, 2011b). Secondly, many water quality monitoring sites are
194 co-located with streamflow gauging stations and so the context of each water quality data
195 point can be known. Therefore, one issue for this research is the development of statistical
196 techniques that can contextualise data in order to reconstruct data distributions of interest
197 (e.g. removal of systematic bias diurnal variations (*Worrall et al.*, 2013)) and can handle
198 situations where water quality and gauging stations are not co-located. Thirdly, many
199 monitoring programmes have reasonable spatial coverage, e.g. in the UK there are 272
200 monitoring points used as part of the *Harmonised Monitoring Scheme* (*Simpson*, 1980). With
201 this third possibility in mind there is a great potential for applying concepts developed during
202 the PUB initiative for the analysis of similarity in catchment hydrological behaviour resolution.
203 This will help to strengthen mechanistic understanding of the conceptual relationship
204 between observed apparent similarity based on observations of chemical dynamics at the
205 catchment outlet and inferred behavioural similarity.

206

207 In addition, the development of new, high-frequency sampling schemes has promising
208 potential for improved conceptualisation of high-resolution chemical responses to
209 hydrological dynamics. In the UK, high frequency (sub hourly) monitoring of nutrient
210 speciation at the DEFRA DTCs (Demonstration Test Catchments) are providing first insights
211 into selected management implications on water quality at sub-daily and sub-catchment

212 scales (*Owen et al.*, 2012). Further efforts will be required to conceptualise the knowledge
213 gained from the generally rather small-scale, impact oriented studies in order to support
214 transferability to unmonitored and larger scales. Furthermore, the nearly 30 year time series
215 of sub-daily sampling of discharge and water quality parameters of the Plynlimon study (*Neal*
216 *et al.*, 2012; 2013) provide suitable data for identifying catchment chemical responses to
217 dynamic hydrological behaviour. Even though the unique dataset with observations of up to
218 7-hour intervals provides mainly information on major element dynamics and does not
219 include redox-sensitive speciation of nutrients for instance, the application of fractal scaling
220 technologies for the analysis of water quality trends (*Kirchner et al.*, 2000; 2013) highlights
221 the enormous potential for the inference of process behaviour from high-resolution chemical
222 data. Such high frequency datasets can not only be examined to understand hydrological
223 behaviour but also to develop methods for improved handling of low frequency data [e.g.
224 assessing bias in low frequency methods (*Cassidy and Jordan*, 2011)] and for improving our
225 approaches to low frequency data (*Worrall et al.*, in press).

226

227 Future investigations may focus in particular on the comparison of the trend behaviour of
228 reactive and rather conservative species with variable transport properties and chemical
229 kinetics to deduce chemical behaviour of different systems. The identification and
230 comparison of lag time variance and response functions provides the potential to learn about
231 the compound specific “system memory” resulting from flow path dependent chemical
232 turnover and residence time distributions (Figure 1).

233

234 In addition to improved sampling frequencies at a limited number of selected monitoring
235 locations, the increasing application of novel distributed sensor networks such as Fibre-Optic
236 Distributed Temperature Sensing (*Selker et al.*, 2006; *Tyler et al.*, 2009; *Krause et al.*, 2012;
237 *Krause & Blume*, 2013) or such in-situ analysis technologies as ion selective electrodes (*Le*
238 *Goff et al.*, 2003; *Scholefield et al.*, 2005) and real-time fluorometry (*Carstea et al.*, 2009;

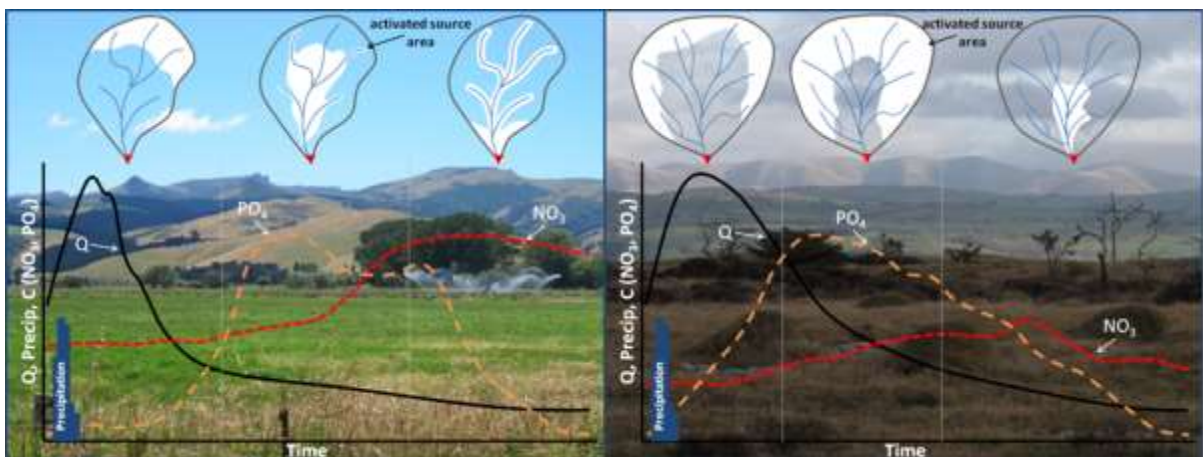
239 2010) will improve the current toolkit for analysing dynamic catchment responses. In addition
240 to improving spatial and temporal data resolution in support of catchment chemical similarity
241 studies, the developed classification schemes provide the potential for identifying trade-offs
242 between spatially and temporally limited data in order to help to improve future designs of
243 intelligent and adaptive monitoring networks.

244

245 Hence, we encourage the scientific community to seek further integration of applications of
246 advanced real time sensing technologies and novel distributed sensor networks to enhance
247 the data base of improved comparative analyses of catchment similarity. We would,
248 therefore, like to stimulate a discussion that uses the legacy of PUB and other initiatives as
249 an inspiration for a continued community effort advancing these investigations from a rather
250 observational character towards predictions of catchment chemical responses and
251 behaviour.

252

253



254

255 Figure 1: Comparison of variable catchment responses to similar precipitation events with
256 example hydrographs and phosphate, nitrate response functions (bottom) in relation to
257 catchment properties and source area activation (top) of an example upland catchment with
258 extensive moorland and shallow soil depth (right, Southern Cumbria, UK) and a catchment

259 with extensive, agricultural floodplain sections and deep soils surrounded by partly
260 deforested foothills (left, Canterbury Plains, NZ)

261

262

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