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1	Trends and seasonality of river nutrients in agricultural catchments: 18 years of weekly citizen
2	science in France
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14	Highlights:
15	• High schools measured NO_3^{-} , PO_4^{-3-} , and silica weekly in 13 rivers for 18 years
16	• Large decreases of NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} primarily due to elimination of point sources
17	• Despite decline, nutrient seasonality did not change for most catchments
18	• Concentrations remain high and future improvements may be slower than initial gains
19	• Citizen science can produce long-term, medium-frequency water quality data
20	Keywords: eutrophication, nitrogen, phosphorus, silica, time series analysis, citizen science

21 Abstract

Agriculture and urbanization have disturbed three-quarters of global ice-free land surface, 22 delivering huge amounts of nitrogen and phosphorus to freshwater ecosystems. These excess 23 nutrients degrade habitat and threaten human food and water security at a global scale. 24 Because most catchments are either currently subjected to, or recovering from anthropogenic 25 nutrient loading, understanding the short- and long-term responses of river nutrients to 26 changes in land use is essential for effective management. We analyzed a never-published, 27 18-year time series of anthropogenic (NO₃⁻ and PO₄³⁻) and naturally derived (dissolved silica) 28 riverine nutrients in 13 catchments recovering from agricultural pollution in western France. 29 In a citizen science initiative, high-school students sampled catchments weekly, which ranged 30 from 26 to 1489 km². Nutrient concentrations decreased substantially over the period of 31 record (19 to 50% for NO_3^- and 14 to 80% for PO_4^{3-}), attributable to regional, national, and 32 international investment and regulation, which started immediately prior to monitoring. For 33 34 the majority of catchments, water quality during the summer low-flow period improved faster than during winter high-flow conditions, and annual minimum concentrations improved 35 36 relatively faster than annual maximum concentrations. These patterns suggest that waterquality improvements were primarily due to elimination of discrete nutrient sources with 37 seasonally-constant discharge (e.g. human and livestock wastewater), agreeing with available 38 land-use and municipal records. Surprisingly, long-term nutrient decreases were not 39 accompanied by changes in nutrient seasonality in most catchments, attributable to persistent, 40 diffuse nutrient stocks. Despite decreases, nutrient concentrations in almost all catchments 41 remained well above eutrophication thresholds, and because additional improvements will 42 depend on decreasing diffuse nutrient sources, future gains may be much slower than initial 43 rate of recovery. These findings demonstrate the value of citizen science initiatives in 44 quantifying long-term and seasonal consequences of changes in land management, which are 45 necessary to identify sustainable limits and predict recovery timeframes. 46

47 **1. Introduction**

Nutrient pollution of freshwater and estuarine water bodies is degrading ecological 48 functioning and ecosystem services at a global scale. Economic damage from nitrate (NO_3^{-}) 49 contamination alone is estimated to cost 0.2 to 2.3 trillion USD annually-up to 3% of the 50 global gross domestic product (Bodirsky et al., 2014; Sutton and UNEP, 2013). In the past 50 51 years, global fertilizer use increased by over 500% (Foley et al., 2011), and nitrogen and 52 phosphorus pollution are expected to keep pace with population growth and meat 53 consumption, increasing until the middle of the century (Canfield et al., 2010; Seitzinger et 54 55 al., 2010). At the same time, human activity, primarily agriculture, has disturbed approximately three-quarters of the Earth's ice-free land surface (Ellis et al., 2010), reducing 56 57 the capacity of ecosystems to buffer and process nutrient inputs (Pinay et al., 2015; Seitzinger et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2016a). The resulting nutrient excess has contaminated 58 59 groundwater aquifers (Aquilina et al., 2012; Ben Maamar et al., 2015; Jasechko et al., 2017) and increased the flux of nutrients through river systems to the sea, creating eutrophic dead 60 61 zones in many lakes and estuaries, and altering biogeochemistry throughout the ocean (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008; Howarth, 2008; Reed and Harrison, 2016). In response to this 62 63 accelerating environmental crisis, governments have funded a broad range of programs to monitor and improve water quality (Andreen, 2004; Hering et al., 2010; Liu and Yang, 2012; 64 Withers and Haygarth, 2007), but results of interventions have been mixed (Jarvie et al., 65 2013; Jenny et al., 2016; Wilcock et al., 2013). In many developed countries, phosphorus 66 concentration and flux from large catchments have decreased over the last two decades, 67 mostly due to treatment of point sources (e.g. waste water treatment plants), but NO_3^- , which 68 is highly mobile and has many diffuse sources, has showed little change (Minaudo et al., 69 70 2015; Moatar et al., 2017). Furthermore, in small to medium catchments, where the bulk of terrestrial nutrient loading occurs (Abbott et al., 2017a; Alexander et al., 2007), trends are 71 72 even less clear, with nutrient fluxes differing substantially among apparently similar 73 catchments (Aubert et al., 2013b; Burt and Pinay, 2005; Stålnacke et al., 2003). 74 Two primary factors complicate the quantification of water-quality trends in small catchments. First, nutrient concentrations and fluxes through river networks vary strongly at 75 76 event, seasonal, and interannual timescales (Gascuel-Odoux et al., 2010; Moatar et al., 2013; 77 Thomas et al., 2016a), meaning that repeat measurements are necessary to characterize the 78 overall nutrient condition of a catchment. Second, because nutrient residence times can be on the order of decades in soil, unsaturated zone, and groundwater (Howden et al., 2011; Kolbe 79

et al., 2016; Meter et al., 2016; Sebilo et al., 2013), substantial time lags can exist before

changes in management practice are reflected in water quality. Consequently, quantifying the 81 effectiveness of changes in land management requires both long-term (Abbott et al., 2017a; 82 Burt et al., 2011) and high-frequency monitoring (Abbott et al., 2016; Aubert et al., 2013a; 83 McDonald et al., 2016; Vilmin et al., 2016). One approach to achieving this ambitious goal is 84 to involve non-professional community members in sample collection (Bonney et al., 2014). 85 Citizen science has been used both as a tool to extend ecological observation and a 86 mechanism to improve the general public's engagement with science (Bonney et al., 2014; 87 Cohn, 2008; Silvertown, 2009). Though not without limitations in data reliability and 88 89 acceptance by researchers (Conrad and Hilchey, 2011), citizen science has successfully been 90 used for a variety of projects including mapping the distribution of species, quantifying 91 anthropogenic impacts, analyzing visual data, and monitoring water quality (Breuer et al., 2015; Gardiner et al., 2012; Kyba et al., 2013; Savage, 2012). 92

93 In this context, we analyzed a never-published, 18-year time series of riverine nutrient concentrations in 13 catchments recovering from agricultural pollution in western France. 94 95 Samples collected weekly from 1998 to 2016 by volunteer high school students were analyzed for NO_3^{-} , phosphate (PO_4^{-3-}), and dissolved silica (DSi). We analyzed long-term trends and 96 97 changes in seasonality, i.e. periodicity of cycles, timing of maximum and minimum 98 concentrations, and relationships between discharge and concentration. We hypothesized generally that seasonal fluctuations in stream nutrient concentrations would depend on 99 interactions between three factors (Fig. 1): 1. vertical and horizontal location of nutrient 100 101 sources, which is a function of current and past land use and land cover, 2. seasonal changes in water flowpath and associated residence time, and 3. seasonal and long-term changes in 102 biogeochemical nutrient retention and removal (e.g. denitrification or uptake by plants and 103 microorganisms). Based on this hypothesis, we predicted that discharge and concentration 104 would fluctuate asynchronously for nutrients that increase with depth (e.g. DSi, which is 105 106 primarily geogenic, or NO₃⁻ in catchments with a legacy of groundwater pollution) and synchronously for those that decrease with depth (e.g. NO₃⁻ in a catchment with current 107 108 excess nitrogen input; Fig. 1a). We also hypothesized that decreases in diffuse-source nutrients would more rapidly improve stream concentrations during the high-water period 109 110 when shallow flowpaths with shorter residence times contribute a larger portion of discharge, but that elimination of seasonally-constant point sources (e.g. waste water effluents) would 111 result in relatively faster nutrient decreases during low flows (Fig. 1b). We tested these 112 predictions with a variance-partitioning approach, comparing the magnitude of seasonal, 113 114 annual, and interannual changes in nutrient concentrations.

116 **2. Methods**

117 **2.1 Land-use history in far western France**

The peninsula of Brittany is part of the Armorican Massif, which is underlain by 118 crystalline bedrock and overlain by Quaternary loess and alluvial and colluvial deposits 119 (Kolbe et al., 2016). Silty loam is the dominant soil texture. Brittany has a maritime climate 120 with monthly average temperatures ranging from 17.5 °C in July to 5 °C in December and 121 mean annual precipitation of around 1,000 mm, roughly evenly distributed through the year 122 123 (Thomas et al., 2016a). While the peninsula's many coastal catchments have relatively homogeneous climate and lithology, there is a great diversity of current and past land use, 124 providing an ideal template to test the impact of agriculture on water quality. For example, 125 annual NO₃⁻ fluxes vary from 9 to 89 kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ among catchments (Gascuel-Odoux et al., 126 2010), and phosphorus fluxes vary from 0.1 to 1.4 kg P ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Delmas et al., 2015; Dupas 127 et al., 2015), covering most of the range observed throughout western Europe (Dupas et al., 128 129 2013: Poisvert et al., 2017).

The western tip of Brittany, where our 13 study catchments are located, has a long 130 history of intensive animal husbandry and row-crop agriculture (Fig. 2). Brittany represents 131 only 7 % of French agricultural area, but produces 55 %, 40 %, and 25 % of the nation's pigs, 132 poultry, and milk, respectively (Gascuel-Odoux et al., 2010). Cow density gradually grew 133 until 1978 when it peaked at 125 head km⁻², and pig density rapidly increased from 1960 to 134 2005 when it reached 424 head km⁻² (Poisvert et al., 2017). Total nitrogen (N) surplus, an 135 integrative estimate of nutrient inputs and outputs at the soil level, peaked in 1989 at 143 kg 136 per ha of used agricultural area (UAA) per year (Fig. 2; Poisvert et al., 2017). In the 1970s, 137 point and non-point nutrient sources started causing frequent harmful algal blooms in 138 estuaries and bays around the peninsula, triggered by a combination of high nutrient loading 139 140 from coastal rivers, semi-enclosed bays that limit oceanic flushing of estuaries, and clear ocean water that favors rapid algal growth (Perrot et al., 2014). In response to this widespread 141 142 eutrophication of inland and coastal ecosystems, a coordinated and multi-faceted series of mitigation actions and regulation measures were implemented starting in 1992 (MEDD & 143 Agences de l'eau, 2003). Reinforced by international and national regulation in 1998 and 144 2000 (Hering et al., 2010; Piot-Lepetit and Moing, 2007), millions of Euros have been 145 invested to fund local and regional remediation projects (Regional Algal Bloom Plans, 2015; 146 Regional Counsel, 2013). Livestock facilities have been systematically improved to reduce 147 148 seepage of animal waste, application of chemical and organic fertilizer has been regulated,

and some landscape restoration programs have been conducted to replant hedgerows and
preserve wetlands (*e.g.* Breizh Bocage). Considerable efforts have also been made to decrease
urban pollution, with installation or improvement of sewage treatment plants in many towns
and cities since 2000.

153 2.2 Citizen-science program and chemical analysis

We analyzed data from 13 stations in the Ecoflux river monitoring program (data are available at *www-iuem.univ-brest.fr/ecoflux*), which includes 12 small catchments of 26 to 280 km², and 1 medium catchment of 1490 km² (Fig. 1; Table 1). Climate and topography are relatively similar among the catchments, with annual rainfall ranging from 990 to 1395 mm and mean altitude from 70 to 164 m. Long-term, continuous discharge was available for 7 of the 13 catchments, as part of regional environmental monitoring (DREAL;

160 www.hydro.eaufrance.fr/, Table S1).

161 The Ecoflux program was founded in 1998 by the regional government (Conseil Général du Finistère) and the European Institute for Marine Studies (IUEM) to monitor 162 163 nutrient concentrations in agricultural catchments and improve awareness of the importance of water quality for agricultural students who will be the next generation of farmers and land 164 165 managers. Starting in their second year of high school, students from agricultural, natural 166 science, and general academic tracks participated in the sampling. Following a standardized protocol, volunteer students and teachers from primarily rural high schools collected weekly 167 water samples from the 13 stations from September 1998 to December 2015 (5 rivers) or 168 November 2016 (8 rivers; Table 1). Students filled two acid-washed, 100 mL, glass bottles for 169 NO_3^{-1} and PO_4^{-3} , and one 100 mL plastic bottle for DSi. Students filtered samples in the field 170 to 200 μ m with glass fiber filters to remove particulates, and upon returning to the lab, NO₃⁻ 171 and PO_4^{3-} samples were frozen and DSi samples were stored at 4°C until analysis in one of 172 two professional labs (details below). Volunteers from the community collected samples 173 during school vacations. Since the program started, approximately 18 researchers, 10 graduate 174 students, 21 adult volunteers, and 5,000 high-school students from 6 educational institutions 175 176 have participated in sampling and analysis.

The IUEM analyzed all PO_4^{3-} and DSi samples, and LABOCEA-Idhesa, a certified, public laboratory, analyzed all NO_3^{-} samples following international norms (ISO 15923-1). PO₄³⁻ was quantified with a Shimadzu UV1700 spectrophotometer (SHIMADZU, Kyoto, Japan), and NO_3^{-} and DSi with a Technicon Auto Analyser II (SEAL Analytical, Southampton, UK). Analytical precision was $\pm 5\%$ for NO_3^{-} and DSi (inline and automatic addition of reagents) and ± 6 to 10% for PO_4^{3-} (manual addition of reagents). Though few

- 183 nutrient time series exist for comparison, Ecoflux NO_3^- concentration in river 7 showed
- 184 excellent short- and long-term agreement with a professionally operated monitoring station
- located 4 km upstream (Fig. S1). The overall sampling success rate was 79% over the
- 186 monitoring period (i.e. 21% of the week by river combinations were not sampled or
- analyzed), constituting 8,929 sets of nutrient samples. The only major gap in data occurred for
- river 4, which was not sampled from 2004 to 2013, due to budget and personnel constraints.
- 189 **2.3. Data analysis**
- 190 **2.3.1.** Metrics of annual and interannual concentrations and loads

For rivers with discharge data (Tables 1 and S1), we calculated monthly and annual 191 specific discharge (L s⁻¹ km⁻²), and the percentage of total discharge that occurs during the 192 highest 2% of flows (W2), a metric of flow variability (Moatar et al., 2013). To characterize 193 194 annual concentrations and loads, we calculated the median concentration (C50), the flow-195 weighted mean concentration based on discharge at the time of sampling (C*), and the annual load using the following protocol. For each catchment and nutrient combination, we assessed 196 197 the optimal method for estimating load based on the flux variability matrix, which combines hydrologic variability (i.e. W2) and concentration-discharge relationships (Meybeck and 198 199 Moatar, 2012; Raymond et al., 2013). According to this matrix, the discharge-weighted 200 *concentration method* was the most appropriate for the majority of the rivers and nutrients, 201 thus the specific annual load (F_s) was estimated as:

202

$$F_{s} = \frac{k}{A} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} C_{i}Q_{i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Q_{i}} \bar{Q}$$
 Equation 1

where C_i is the instantaneous measured concentration (mg L⁻¹), Q_i is the corresponding 203 instantaneous discharge value (m³ s⁻¹), \overline{O} is the mean annual discharge computed from 204 continuous flow records (m³ s⁻¹), A is the catchment area (m²), and k is a conversion factor 205 that accounts for the sampling period (1 week in this case). An advantage of this approach is 206 that uncertainty intervals can be calculated based on the discharge and concentration 207 variabilities for a given sampling frequency, and estimates can be corrected according to the 208 209 associated bias (Moatar et al., 2013). We calculated Pearson correlations (r) to test for 210 relationships between median stream nutrient concentrations and modeled nitrogen (N) and 211 phosphorus (P) surplus from agriculture, estimated with land use data and a wide range of N and P processes (Dupas et al., 2013; Schoumans et al., 2009). For example, the N module of 212 213 the model included symbiotic fixation, atmospheric deposition, application of synthetic and organic fertilizers, volatilization, and hydrologic N export (Dupas et al., 2013). For the rivers 214

with discharge data, pairwise linear regressions between C50, C*, and annual load were used to assess whether median concentrations were good predictors of annual loads.

217

2.3.2. Time series analysis of nutrient concentrations

218 We modeled the amplitude, frequency, and phase of nutrient concentrations for all catchments except river 4 (excluded because a gap in measurements from 2004 to 2013). 219 First, we calculated long-term trends with simple linear regression to detrend time series with 220 significant interannual slopes, creating stationary series for all subsequent analyses (Legendre 221 and Gauthier, 2014). We then used distance-based Moran's Eigenvector Maps (dbMEMs; 222 223 Borcard et al., 1992; Dray et al., 2006) to model frequency and amplitude of fluctuations for 224 nutrient concentrations. This method yields sine wave variables at multiple frequencies, 225 similar to those obtained from Fourrier transformation, allowing partitioning of overall variance between multiple timescales. The time variables are the result of a principal 226 227 coordinates analysis (PCoA) of the temporal distance matrix. We computed dbMEMs from the oldest to the most recent sampling date for each river-nutrient combination. We analyzed 228 229 the positive temporal structures of the dataset using a lag of 1 week as the threshold for determining neighbors, and performed multiple linear regressions with all positive dbMEMs 230 231 and the associated nutrient concentrations. We used forward selection of explanatory 232 variables to thin significant models. Reduced models were then split in 3 sub-models relating to different timescales: long-term (longer than 64 weeks), seasonal (40 to 64 weeks), and 233 short-term (less than 40 weeks), by grouping and re-computing selected dbMEMS according 234 to their wavelength. We then determined the portion of overall variance explained by each 235 sub-model with hierarchical partitioning of variance, which ranks sub-models according to 236 goodness of fit with temporal structure, and in case of overlap in explained variance, gives 237 precedence to the longer timescale (Legendre et al., 2012). We used the adjusted coefficient 238 of determination $(adj-R^2)$ as an unbiased measure of goodness of fit for all models (Ohtani, 239 240 2004).

To test if rate of recovery was associated with initial anthropogenic pressure, we 241 242 correlated initial concentration (intercept of the linear model) with percent change (based on linear slopes) for each nutrient, using the regressions calculated during the detrending 243 procedure described at the beginning of this section. To allow comparison among nutrients, 244 we calculated linear slopes for both raw and scaled data (after subtracting the mean and 245 dividing by the standard deviation; SD). To test our prediction that elimination of point 246 sources would cause relatively larger nutrient decreases during low flow, while decreases in 247 248 diffuse sources would result in larger high-flow nutrient decreases (Fig. 1), we compared

slopes of interannual trends for mean August concentrations (low flow) and December 249 concentrations (high flow). Additionally, to assess whether annual maximum or minimum 250 concentrations changed faster, we compared slopes of interannual trends for the mean of the 251 five highest and lowest values from each year for each nutrient. We evaluated the significance 252 of long-term trends with Mann Kendall tests and compared parametric detrended slopes with 253 Theil-Sen slope estimates determined following the Siegel method (Komsta, 2005). While 254 uniform land-use and nutrient input data did not exist at these spatial and temporal scales, we 255 re-extracted annual N surplus for each catchment from Poisvert et al., (2017), and analyzed all 256 257 available departmental data on phosphorus loading from livestock to assess changes in nonpoint nutrient sources prior and during the study period (i.e. 1988, 2000, and 2010). To 258 259 quantify changes in point sources, we compiled records from wastewater treatment plants and 260 industrial sites (e.g. slaughterhouses and food processing plants) for 1998, 2001-2006, and 261 2015. The compiled data represented 52 to 100 % (mean = 80 %) of the area for 11 out of the 13 catchments, providing a robust estimate of relative changes in point and non-point nutrient 262 263 inputs.

- All analyses were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2016) with the vegan, adespatial, and ggplot2 packages (Dray et al., 2017; Oksanen et al., 2007; Wickham, 2009), with additional functions from Legendre and Gauthier (2014).
- 267

268 **3. Results**

269 **3.1. Hydrologic and stoichiometric differences among rivers**

For the 7 rivers with long-term hydrologic monitoring, mean annual specific discharge 270 (1966-2016) varied less than a factor of 2 (12.2 to 23.5 L s⁻¹ km⁻²; Table 1). Minimum 271 monthly specific discharge was more variable (2.5 to 7.0 L s⁻¹ km⁻²), with some catchments 272 showing influence from groundwater (e.g. river 10) or reservoirs (e.g. river 7) during low 273 flows (Table 1). Hydrologic variability was highest for rivers 6 and 5, which had flashy 274 hydrographs (W2 > 10%), and lowest for the four northeastern rivers 10-13 (W2 between 7.2 275 and 8.4 %), which showed more buffered discharge during floods. All but 1 catchment (river 276 1) had modeled N-surplus greater than 30 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, and 3 catchments exceeded 60 kg 277 N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (rivers 8-10). P surplus was moderate to high, ranging from 19 to 32 kg P ha⁻¹ 278 year⁻¹. N surplus was not correlated with median NO₃⁻ concentration (p > 0.05), but was 279 correlated with median PO_4^{3-} concentration (r = 0.69, p < 0.05), potentially due to differences 280 in nutrient retention and removal capacity among the catchments. Modeled P surplus was not 281 correlated with any median nutrient concentrations (p > 0.05). 282

There was substantial variation in concentration among the rivers for both 283 anthropogenic (PO_4^{3-} and NO_3^{-}) and naturally-occurring (DSi) nutrients, with the median 284 concentration over the period of record varying approximately 4-fold among rivers for NO₃, 285 3-fold for DSi, and 12-fold for PO_4^{3-} (Table 2). Median DSi and NO_3^{-1} concentrations among 286 rivers were positively correlated (r = 0.67, p < 0.001) as were median NO₃⁻ and PO₄³⁻ (r = 287 0.57, p < 0.05), but DSi and PO₄³⁻ were not correlated (p > 0.05), and N:P and DSi:P ratios 288 varied widely (Fig. S2). The pairwise linear regressions between concentration and load 289 parameters showed that flow-weighted means (C*) were strongly associated with median 290 concentrations (C50; $R^2 > 0.86$, p < 0.01 for all parameters; Table 2). Slopes were near 1 for 291 DSi and NO₃⁻ (0.92 and 0.82, respectively) but less than 1 for PO₄³⁻ (0.66), indicating that 292 median concentration overestimated flow-weighted mean for PO_4^{3-} , due to systematic dilution 293 during high flow events. C50 and C* were good predictors of annual loads for NO_3^{-1} and PO_4^{3-1} 294 (\mathbb{R}^2 between 0.77 and 0.89) but not for DSi ($\mathbb{R}^2 = 0.43$ and 0.38 for C50 and C*, respectively). 295

- **3.2. Long-term trends in nutrient concentrations**
- 297 Between 1998 and 2015, point-source nutrient inputs at the departmental level decreased 91 % for N and 86 % for P due to construction of wastewater treatment plants and 298 299 regulation of industrial discharge (Table S2). Non-point nutrient inputs peaked in 1987 and then decreased an average of 59 % (SD = 8.7) for N by 2015 and 65 % (SD = 6.1) for P by 300 2010 for the catchments with available data (Fig. S3). Between 1999 and 2016, NO_3^{-1} 301 concentration decreased significantly (p < 0.05) for all catchments, PO₄³⁻ decreased for all but 302 303 1 catchment, and DSi showed little or no change (Figs. 3 and 4; Table S3). The parametric regression slopes and the Theil-Sen slope estimates were strongly correlated for all nutrients 304 $(r = 0.97, 0.95, and 0.89, for NO_3^{-}, PO_4^{-3}, and DSi, respectively)$, but the Theil-Sen slopes 305 were consistently shallower for PO_4^{3-} (Table S3), suggesting that changes in extreme values 306 account for much of the long-term decreases. The regression slopes of scaled PO_4^{3-} and NO_3^{-} 307 time series were similar, ranging from $-0.3 \ 10^{-4}$ to $-2.4 \ 10^{-4}$ (Fig. S4; Table S3), representing 308 mean 1998 to 2016 decreases of 34 % (SD = 8.8) for NO₃⁻ and 46 % (SD = 21) for PO₄³⁻ (Fig. 309 4). For PO_4^{3-} , the greatest decreases occurred in rivers with highest initial PO_4^{3-} concentration 310 (r = 0.70, p < 0.01), but changes in NO₃⁻ and DSi were not correlated with initial 311 concentrations (p > 0.1; Fig. 4). For the 7 rivers with discharge data, annual nutrient fluxes 312 followed the same general pattern as concentrations (decreasing for NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} ; no trend 313 for DSi), but were more variable due to inter-annual differences in river discharge (Fig. 6). 314 Annual minimum concentrations decreased faster than maximum concentrations for 315 77 and 92 % of catchments for NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} , respectively, and minimum and maximum 316

trends were only correlated with each other for PO_4^{3-} (r = 0.58, p < 0.05; Fig. 5a). Low-flow 317 concentrations (August) decreased faster than high-flow concentrations (December) for 62 318 and 69 % of catchments for NO_3^- and PO_4^{-3-} , respectively, and low-flow and high-flow trends 319 were only correlated with each other for NO_3^- (r = 0.63, p < 0.05; Fig. 5b). Furthermore, 320 several catchments had extreme differences in long-term low-flow and high-flow trends of 321 DSi and PO_4^{3-} (e.g. in river 5 there was a strongly increasing trend for DSi during low flows, 322 driven by extreme low-flow conditions in 2011, but there was no trend for high flows; Fig. 323 324 5b).

325 **3.3. Partitioning variance between timescales**

Modeled fluctuations in nutrients showed good agreement with measured values (Fig. 7), though the proportion of explained variance varied by nutrient and river (Table 3). Final models explained 52 to 85 % of the temporal variation in NO₃⁻ concentration, 20 to 90 % for PO₄³⁻, and 57 to 87 % for DSi (Table 3). River 11 was particularly well explained by temporal variables for all nutrients (68, 90, and 75 % for NO₃⁻, PO₄³⁻, and DSi, respectively) while river 1 had the poorest fits (54, 28, and 59 % of overall variance explained for NO₃⁻, PO₄²⁻ and DSi, respectively; Table 3).

Short-term timescales (< 40 weeks) tended to account for the smallest portion of 333 variance across nutrients, explaining less than 30 % of the variation in concentrations 334 excepted for DSi in rivers 7 and 12 (38 %). For NO_3^- , the long-term component (> 64 weeks) 335 explained the largest portion of variance for all rivers except river 5, where 52% of variation 336 was explained by seasonal fluctuations. For PO_4^{3-} , the relative importance of seasonal and 337 long-term fluctuations depended on the river (Table 3). For DSi, which showed little to no 338 long-term trend, seasonal fluctuation (40 to 64 weeks) explained the largest proportion of 339 340 variation for most rivers.

341 **3.4. Contrasting seasonal cycles**

For the rivers where seasonal variation accounted for at least 10 % of overall variance, 342 synchrony between concentration and discharge differed by river and nutrient (Fig. 8). For 343 NO_3^{-} , 3 rivers showed synchronous fluctuations (positive concentration-discharge 344 relationship) and 4 rivers showed asynchronous fluctuations (Fig. 9a,b). Contrary to our 345 hypothesis (Fig. 1), the synchronous catchments tended to have lower initial and median NO_3^{-1} 346 concentrations compared to asynchronous catchments, and there was no apparent relationship 347 with magnitude of long-term decrease and fluctuation type (Figs. 4 and 9). For PO_4^{3-} and DSi, 348 all the fluctuations were asynchronous except for river 5, which had a hydrologically 349

350 synchronous cycle for DSi (Fig. 9c-e).

- The relative amplitude of seasonal fluctuations was generally higher for PO_4^{3-} (180-300 % of the C50) than for NO_3^{-} (100-170 %) and DSi (ca. 20 %), with the exception of river 5, which had higher relative amplitude of seasonal fluctuations for both NO_3^{-} (380 %) and DSi (180 %) than PO_4^{3-} (70 %; Figs. 8 and 9). For most catchments, DSi maximum
- concentration occurred later in the season than NO₃⁻ maximum (Fig. 8).

Most catchments showed the same concentration-discharge relationship for each 356 nutrient over the period of record (i.e. each catchment remained either asynchronous or 357 synchronous), but there was an increase through time in variance among asynchronous 358 catchments in the periodicity of seasonal fluctuations for both NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} , primarily after 359 2008 (Fig. 9a,c). Changes in the periodicity and timing of PO_4^{3-} fluctuations in rivers 7 and 13 360 were particularly marked, with both rivers experiencing a shift in minimum PO_4^{3-} 361 concentration from winter to early spring, and a shift in PO_4^{3-} maximum from summer to fall 362 363 or winter (Figs. S5 and S6).

364

384

365 **4. Discussion**

4.1. Using seasonality and interannual trends to infer nutrient legacies

367 Because river flow integrates water from multiple flowpaths with a distribution of residence times, river chemistry is the product of overlapping historical inputs and reaction 368 rates, which are spatially distributed and temporally weighted within the catchment (Abbott et 369 al., 2016; Gu et al., 2017; Meter and Basu, 2015). We hypothesized that the seasonality of 370 nutrient concentrations could reveal net nutrient balance at the catchment scale and that 371 differences in interannual trajectories of low- and high-water nutrient concentrations could 372 indicate whether changes in point or diffuse nutrient sources accounted for improvements 373 (Fig. 1). All of the catchments in our study showed decreasing trends for anthropogenic 374 nutrients (NO₃⁻ and PO₄³⁻) starting from the beginning of the record in 1998. These water 375 376 quality improvements can be attributed to better land management rather than less intensive agricultural land use, because the number of livestock continued to increase through 2005 377 378 (Fig. 2; Poisvert et al., 2017). In line with our predictions for net nutrient losing catchments with bottom-loaded nutrients (Fig. 1b), most catchments showed asynchronous nutrient-379 discharge fluctuations and delayed arrival of DSi peaks compared to NO_3^{-} , though we 380 recognize that both pre- and post-intervention monitoring is necessary to more definitively 381 382 test the link between nutrient seasonality and catchment-scale net nutrient balance. Contrary to observational and modeling studies that concluded increasing agricultural 383

pressure results in chemostatic nutrient behavior due to homogenization of nutrient sources

and saturation of removal capacity (Dupas et al., 2016; Moatar et al., 2017; Musolff et al., 385 2016), we found that catchments with lower nutrients tended to show less temporal variability 386 and synchronous fluctuation of NO_3^- (Figs. 8 and 9). The synchronous seasonal cycles 387 observed in rivers 3, 5, and 6 could be explained by 1. top-loaded NO₃⁻ profiles (Fig. 1a) 388 maintained by autotrophic denitrification deeper in the aquifer or sustained NO_3^- loading 389 (Fovet et al., 2015), or 2. enhanced biological uptake in the catchment or river during summer 390 low flows. Both denitrification and uptake are more likely to affect bulk fluxes when 391 concentrations are low due to mass balance and stoichiometric constraints (Abbott et al., 392 393 2017a; Pinay et al., 2015), supporting the hypothesis of biological regulation of NO₃⁻ concentration during low flows in the less eutrophic catchments (Moatar et al., 2017). 394

395 In addition to land-use legacy, hydrologic or biogeochemical differences among catchments can influence nutrient-discharge synchrony. In agricultural catchments, both 396 397 synchronous (Álvarez-Cabria et al., 2016; Aubert et al., 2013b; Bowes et al., 2009; Dupas et al., 2016; Exner-Kittridge et al., 2016; Mellander et al., 2014; Minaudo et al., 2015) and 398 399 asynchronous (Fovet et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2004; Oulehle et al., 2015) discharge-NO₃ relationships have been observed. However, it remains unclear how much of these patterns are 400 401 due to current and past nitrogen loading versus differences in hydrologic characteristics and inherent resilience to nutrient loading. For PO_4^{3-} , asynchronous fluctuations appear to be the 402 rule in disturbed ecosystems, likely associated with dilution of point sources during high 403 flows and enhanced release of reactive phosphorus during warm periods (Aguilera et al., 404 405 2015; Bowes et al., 2009; Duan et al., 2012; Minaudo et al., 2015). DSi seasonality also appears to be consistently asynchronous with discharge, due to dilution and seasonal 406 differences in uptake by diatoms (Bowes et al., 2009; House et al., 2001; Moatar et al., 2017; 407 Neal et al., 2000). DSi concentration in the sole synchronous river in our study (river 5) is 408 likely due to its large artificial reservoir, which could increase summer uptake or delay 409 410 delivery of dilute winter water. Ultimately, the utility of nutrient seasonality as a proxy of net nutrient balance needs to be tested in a broader set of anthropogenic, topographic, and 411 412 climatic contexts where land use and land management can be better constrained (Dupas et al., 2017; Meter and Basu, 2015; Musolff et al., 2016; Worrall et al., 2015). While such 413 datasets are currently rare, increased efforts to compare catchments and synthesize land use 414 and water chemistry are critical to teasing apart the role of loading legacies, hydrology, and 415 biological dynamics (Abbott et al., 2017b; Dupas et al., 2016; Thomas et al., 2016b). 416

417 **4.2.** Stable seasonality despite deep decreases

Despite large decreases in point and diffuse nutrient inputs and annual river 418 concentrations, seasonality of nutrient fluctuations remained stable across the time series, 419 except for PO_4^{3-} in two catchments. One reason for this stability in seasonality may be that the 420 relatively smaller decreases in diffuse nutrient inputs may not be have fully propagated 421 through soils and aquifers to alter concentration-discharge relationships (Dupas et al., 2016; 422 Meter et al., 2016; Musolff et al., 2015). Groundwater residence time in similar catchments in 423 the region varies from 35 to 74 years (Kolbe et al., 2016), meaning that elimination of diffuse 424 nutrient sources could take decades before influencing river chemistry. Conversely, the large 425 426 decrease of discrete nutrient sources immediately affected nutrient concentrations, resulting in relatively larger low-flow improvements in water quality as predicted. The greater relative 427 decreases in PO_4^{3-} , which has primarily discrete sources, compared to NO_3^{-} , which is mobile 428 and often diffuse, was also in line with large point-source reductions (Bouza-Deaño et al., 429 430 2008; Minaudo et al., 2015; Moatar et al., 2017). In contrast to changes in diffuse sources, which could flip the catchment-scale vertical distribution of nutrients and concentration-431 432 discharge relationships (Dupas et al., 2016), point-source reduction is expected to decrease low-flow peak concentrations but not fundamentally change seasonality (Fig. 1), explaining 433 434 the observed stability in seasonal patterns. While the two catchments that showed evidence of shifting PO_4^{3-} seasonality (rivers 7 and 13) did not have the highest initial PO_4^{3-} 435 concentrations, they did have the highest P surplus and were among those that showed the 436 greatest relative PO_4^{3-} decrease (Fig. 4; Table 1). In these two catchments, decreases in both 437 point and diffuse phosphorus sources could have delayed peak concentrations from summer to 438 fall or winter, when the soils are first hydrologically connected to the stream network after the 439 dry period (Dupas et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2016a). 440

Changes in NO_3^{-1} and PO_4^{-3-1} seasonality have been observed in long time series, due to 441 both anthropogenic and environmental trends (Minaudo et al., 2015; Worrall et al., 2015; 442 Zhang et al., 2015). For example, from 1868-2009, peak concentration of NO₃⁻ concentration 443 in the Thames River (U.K.) shifted several times from late winter to early or late spring, 444 445 independent of interannual changes in concentration, while the timing of annual minimum concentration followed timing of minimum stream flow (Worrall et al., 2015). Additionally, 446 the amplitude of PO_4^{3-} and NO_3^{-} seasonal fluctuations have generally decreased over the last 447 30 years in the Loire River (France) as nutrient concentrations have fallen (Minaudo et al., 448 2015). Finally, timing of seasonal maximum and minimum nutrient concentrations has 449 remained relatively stable for most tributaries of the Chesapeake Bay (U.S.A.) since 1980, 450 except the Susquehanna River, which has experienced major shifts in the timing and 451

magnitude of nutrient seasonality due to dam removal (Zhang et al., 2015). Together these
examples suggest that new metrics of nutrient seasonality should be integrated into analyses
of water quality time series.

455 **4.3. Citizen science as a means and an end**

The Ecoflux program is an example of how citizen science can sustain long-term, 456 457 medium-frequency water quality monitoring, allowing the quantification of seasonal nutrient trajectories on decadal timescales. While less obvious than the quantitative data products 458 459 generated by this program, a secondary benefit is the personal impact on awareness and 460 mentality of the thousands of students and volunteers who have participated over the years. 461 How the general public perceives and values aquatic ecosystems directly influences how they 462 are managed by political and administrative entities (Linton, 2014; Schmidt, 2014). In this sense, participatory water quality monitoring is not only a means of generating understanding 463 464 of how water and nutrients propagate through catchments; it is a mechanism to improve water quality itself. 465

466 Because water quality recovery trajectories are typically far slower than ambitious improvement programs (Hering et al., 2010), maintaining interest and morale of stakeholders 467 468 is central to successful protection and rehabilitation of aquatic ecosystems. Even when water 469 quality does not immediately respond to substantial investment and change in land 470 management, citizen science efforts such as the Ecoflux program are one way to deliver a tangible reward for these efforts by providing quality educational experiences for the children 471 of involved land managers and users (e.g. farmers, politicians, special interest groups etc.). 472 New sensors now allow high-frequency monitoring of water quality, opening up new horizons 473 for detailed, mechanistic study of in-stream and catchment processes (Ruhala and Zarnetske, 474 475 2017; Tunaley et al., 2016). However, these sensors are expensive and difficult to maintain. Though technological solutions are always in vogue, we believe there are substantial ancillary 476 477 benefits of low-tech, participatory monitoring approaches. Ultimately, high-frequency and citizen science approaches are extremely complimentary, but when budget constraints put 478 479 them in competition, the built-in engagement and education associated with citizen science, as well as its low cost, are strong reasons to advocate for wider implementation of this strategy. 480 481

482 **5.** Conclusions

We used 18 years of weekly nutrient data collected by high-school students and
community volunteers to assess how improvements in land management affect interannual
trends and seasonality of nutrient concentrations. Decreases in nutrient concentrations were

apparent from the beginning of the monitoring period, demonstrating that changes in land 486 management can initially improve riverine nutrient concentrations at the catchments scale. 487 There were substantial decreases in annual and seasonal NO_3^- and PO_4^{-3-} concentrations, with 488 more pronounced decreases in annual minimum nutrient concentrations and during low flows. 489 in line with historical observations that improvements are primarily due to the elimination of 490 point sources. However, nutrient concentrations in nearly all rivers remained well above 491 regulatory limits (Hering et al., 2010; MEDD & Agences de l'eau, 2003) and thresholds 492 needed to reduce inland and coastal eutrophication (Dodds et al., 1998; Perrot et al., 2014), 493 suggesting that future gains in water quality will depend on addressing diffuse nutrient 494 sources, which remains challenging. Seasonal covariation of discharge and nutrient 495 496 concentrations was largely asynchronous across the time series, indicating that dilution dynamics are dominant and that biological activity only affects NO₃⁻ flux in the least polluted 497 catchments. This project demonstrates that when institutional support and funding are 498 available, citizen science initiatives can produce high quality data on decadal timescales and 499 500 improve public engagement with socioecological issues.

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512 7. References

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	General					Hydrologic**			Land cover						Geologic substrate			Nutrient loading	
	Area	Population	Altitude (mean)	Relief	Rainfall	Q specific	Q specific min	W2	Pasture	Crops	Hedgerow	Forest	Wetland	Urban	Granite gneiss	Schist	Other	N Surplus (2007)	P Surplus (2010)
River (ID)	km²	hab km ⁻²	m	m	mm	1 s ⁻¹ km ⁻²	1 s ⁻¹ km ⁻²	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	kg N ha ⁻¹	kg P ha ⁻¹
St-Laurent (1)	30	223	90	152	1151	-	-	-	9	28	55	2	3	2	100	0	0	19	19
Ris (2)*	36	92	82	224	1242	-	-	-	3	32	60	1	0	3	90	10	0	-	-
Lapic (3)*	26	64	91	276	1251	-	-	-	5	39	50	0	1	5	18	82	0	46	23
Kerharo (4)*	45	51	85	378	1202	-	-	-	2	32	60	0	0	6	0	84	16	34	24
Aulne (5)	1489	36	164	376	1237	18.2	2.5	10.3	29	28	32	2	0	8	10	81	3	40	21
Douffine (6)	159	27	156	363	1395	23.5	4.1	11.4	18	24	39	7	0	12	0	89	11	51	31
Elorn (7)	279	100	126	380	1277	21.8	7	9.6	10	44	36	1	0	9	35	55	3	60	31
Quillimadec (8)	29	141	70	89	1184	-	-	-	1	33	63	0	0	3	88	0	12	65	21
Fleche (9)	65	64	75	115	1158	-	-	-	0	53	42	0	0	5	88	0	8	75	27
Guillec (10)*	73	77	73	117	1055	16.1	6.2	7.2	0	82	16	0	0	2	15	0	85	65	27
Penze (11)*	142	50	149	373	1167	20.3	4.9	7.7	26	40	29	0	0	5	57	35	0	54	23
Dossen (12)	191	83	153	364	1139	16.7	4.7	7.6	28	31	27	4	0	10	45	49	0	37	29
Dourduff (13)	69	133	94	172	990	12.2	2.8	8.4	6	50	40	0	1	4	0	62	38	39	32

Table 1. Catchment characteristics for the 13 studied rivers in western France

*Monitoring of these rivers stopped at the end of 2015 due to limited budget.

**Interannual mean and interannual monthly minimum of specific discharge were calculated from the nearest hydrologic station (details on hydrologic monitoring in Table S1). Altitudes were derived from a 25 m digital elevation model and lithology was extracted from maps created by the French National Institute for Agricultural Research (INRA).

PO4³⁻ NO₃-DSi C50 C* Load C50 C* Load C50 C* Load River (ID) mg L⁻¹ mg L⁻¹ kg N ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ mg L⁻¹ mg L⁻¹ kg P ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ $mg \ L^{\cdot 1}$ mg L⁻¹ kg Si ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ St-Laurent (1) 41.2 0.033 12.2 Ris (2) 35.0 0.097 14.9 Lapic (3) 41.2 0.209 11.3 Kerharo (4) 35.0 0.086 9.18 Aulne (5) 37 (± 12%) 0.054 0.12 (± 12%) 47 (± 9%) 22.1 26.6 0.061 7.6 7.8 Douffine (6) 19.0 20.4 36 (± 13%) 0.212 0.139 0.34 (± 3%) 5.7 5.4 42 (± 10%) Elorn (7) 34.1 32.3 48 (± 5%) 0.212 0.139 0.28 (± 7%) 9.2 8.5 57 (± 5%) Quillimadec (8) 50.9 0.418 16.1 Fleche (9) 61.1 0.272 14.4 Guillec (10) 77.5 69.5 0.394 0.54 (± 5%) 14.0 81 (± 3%) 0.318 13.2 68 (± 4%) Penze (11) 45.2 45.2 68 (± 10%) 0.397 0.230 0.50 (± 4%) 11.8 11.1 73 (± 8%) Dossen (12) 27.0 26.1 30.4 (± 7%) 0.285 0.239 0.39 (± 2%) 12.4 11.6 59 (± 5%) Dourduff (13) 35.9 33.6 30 (± 7%) 0.224 0.154 0.20 (± 12%) 13.0 12.5 47 (± 5%)

Table 2. Medians, flow-weighted concentrations, and nutrient yields for NO₃, PO₄³⁻ and dissolved silica (DSi; 1998-2016)

2 C* and load were computed for rivers where flow data were available.

		N	03			PO	D_4^{3-}		DSi				
River (ID)	Long- term	Seasonal	Short- term	Total	Long- term	Seasonal	Short- term	Total	Long- term	Seasonal	Short- term	Total	
St-Laurent (1)	0.17	0.10	0.24	0.54	0.02	0.03	0.22	0.28	0.22	0.19	0.15	0.59	
Ris (2)	0.21	0.03	0.24	0.52	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.20	0.31	0.33	0.16	0.83	
Lapic (3)	0.29	0.31	0.11	0.78	0.13	<u>0.41</u>	0.24	0.78	0.22	0.10	0.21	0.61	
Aulne (5)	0.12	<u>0.52</u>	0.12	0.85	0.10	0.09	0.29	0.50	0.13	0.38	0.22	0.87	
Douffine (6)	0.19	0.18	0.18	0.62	0.21	<u>0.42</u>	0.17	0.82	0.13	0.22	0.27	0.63	
Elorn (7)	0.17	0.15	0.22	0.58	0.16	0.27	0.18	0.60	0.09	0.18	0.35	0.69	
Quillimadec (8)	0.18	0.15	0.19	0.57	0.14	0.14	0.21	0.52	0.06	0.32	0.24	0.60	
Fleche (9)	0.19	0.20	0.16	0.57	0.16	0.14	0.27	0.64	0.11	0.25	0.20	0.61	
Guillec (10)	0.32	0.14	0.11	0.63	0.28	0.25	0.18	0.73	0.12	0.21	0.26	0.65	
Penze (11)	<u>0.46</u>	0.04	0.13	0.68	0.34	<u>0.43</u>	0.07	0.90	0.21	0.24	0.24	0.75	
Dossen (12)	0.29	0.07	0.21	0.61	0.20	0.32	0.13	0.71	0.15	0.17	0.38	0.71	
Dourduff (13)	0.30	0.10	0.13	0.55	0.38	0.33	0.08	0.81	0.07	0.32	0.15	0.57	

Table 3. Variance explained by the long-term, seasonal, and short-term components of the nutrient fluctuation models

Reported values are adjusted-R² between observed nutrient concentrations and predicted values from one or more sets of

6 explanatory variables in the dbMEM (see Section 2.3.2). All values are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. To facilitate interpretation,

 $\label{eq:relation} 7 \qquad \text{we bolded values with } R^2 > 0.2 \text{ and underlined values with } R^2 > 0.4.$



8

Figure 1. Hypothesized seasonal and interannual changes stream concentrations of nitrate 9 (NO_3) , dissolved silica (DSi), and phosphate (PO_4^3) in (a) a catchment experiencing net 10 nutrient gain of N and P, and (b) a catchment experiencing net nutrient loss of N and P. 11 12 Concentrations were simulated with a simple mixing model based on water flow and nutrient availability, assuming conservative transport. Key predictions include: 1. opposite seasonal 13 signals for top-loaded and bottom-loaded nutrients with diffuse sources (e.g. NO_3^- in a 14 gaining and losing catchment, respectively), 2. greater interannual change for high-water 15 (HW) relative to low-water (LW) concentrations for nutrients with diffuse sources, 3. greater 16 interannual change for LW concentrations for nutrients with seasonally constant point 17 sources (e.g. PO_4^{3-}), 4. no interannual change in DSi but later arrival of the DSi peak relative 18 to NO_3^{-} , due to deeper DSi sources that are not affected by human activity. In a real 19 20 catchment, the outflow concentration would be further modified by biogeochemical activity, which varies seasonally. However, these predictions are not unrealistic since nutrients are 21 often transported relatively conservatively in highly saturated systems. 22



24

Figure 2. Location of 13 agricultural catchments that were sampled weekly from 1998 to 26 2016 as a part of a citizen science initiative in Brittany, France. Inset figure shows historical 27 agricultural activity for the Department of Finistère where the catchments are located, 28 including nitrogen surplus, determined by soil surface balance, and density of pigs and cows 29 (Poisvert et al., 2017). Catchment names are listed in Table 1.





Figure 3. Statistically significant long-term trends in nutrient concentrations (Mann-Kendall test $\alpha = 0.05$). The shaded rectangles for the NO₃⁻ and PO₄³⁻ plots represent the estimated concentrations necessary to substantially reduce inland and coastal eutrophication (Dodds et al., 1998; Perrot et al., 2014) and the dotted lines represent the nationally standardized "Blue-Green" targets used by all water agencies in France (MEDD & Agences de l'eau, 2003). Trends explained 5 to 37 % (median = 17 %) of total variance of NO₃⁻ concentration, 1 to 23 % (median = 10 %) for PO₄³⁻, and 1 to 3 % (median = 2 %) for DSi. Detailed summary of

40 linear models is provided in Table S3.



42 Figure 4. Percent change in nutrient concentrations from 1998 to 2016 plotted against initial

43 concentration based on the slope and intercept of the linear models (Fig. 3).

44







Figure 6. Trends in nutrient and water fluxes for the 7 rivers where long-term discharge data
were available. We calculated fluxes with the discharge-weighted concentration method,
which was the most robust for these catchments and nutrients (see methods).



Figure 7. Example modeled and observed time series, and modeled long-term and seasonal
subcomponents from four catchments. See Table 3 for overall model performance and
breakdown of timescales.



98

Figure 8: Monthly mean observed concentrations of (a) NO_3^{-} , (b) PO_4^{-3-} , (c) DSi, and (d) monthly specific discharge. We observed two types of seasonal fluctuations: synchronous, where hydrology and nutrient concentration were in phase (annual peak concentration during high flow), and asynchronous, where hydrology and concentration are out of sync (annual minimum concentration during high flow).



Figure 9. Long-term changes in seasonal nutrient fluctuations. Curves are the seasonal component of the variance partitioning models for NO_3^{-1} (**a**), PO_4^{3-1} (**b**), and DSi (**c**). Time series were detrended and centered to facilitate comparison of changes in periodicity through time. Only rivers where at least 10 % of the total variance was explained by the seasonal component are shown (Table 3).