



Can recovery from disturbance explain observed declines in total phosphorus in Precambrian Shield catchments?

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26 Key Words

27 Phosphorus; Disturbance; Lakes; Soil; Wetland; Forest

28 1. Introduction

29 Phosphorus (P) is an essential nutrient (Sharpley et al. 2013) which can limit aquatic productivity
30 (Jeppesen et al. 2005). In the predominantly oligotrophic lakes of the Precambrian Shield landscape
31 in south-central Ontario, declines in stream and lake P concentrations over the past 30 years (since
32 1976) have been linked to an increase in dominance of odorous algae (chrysophytes) (Paterson et
33 al. 2004) and are now a critical concern (Palmer et al. 2011). Understanding the cause of the P
34 decline, and predicting how P concentrations in this landscape may change in the future, is essential
35 to lake management. To date, it has been established that changes in flow alone cannot account for
36 P declines, as alterations in annual and seasonal discharge have been insignificant (O'Brien et al.
37 2013). Exhaustion of mineral supplies is also an implausible explanation, as this area has relatively
38 "young" soils (Kirkwood and Nesbitt 1991).

39 It has been suggested that a more likely explanation for regional long term changes in P
40 concentrations is disturbance events, such as timber harvesting and wetland disturbance, which can
41 lead to an increase in P export from soils due to higher P mobility (Eimers et al. 2009; O'Brien et al.
42 2013; Pinder et al. 2014; Baker et al. 2015). These disturbances are thought to have caused elevated
43 P exports prior to the 1980s, with subsequent declines representing a return to pre-disturbance
44 conditions (Eimers et al. 2009). Proposed "disturbance" mechanisms include changes in soil
45 conditions and vegetation health, associated with tree felling or death, and catchment acidification,
46 which are both regional and likely to have occurred around a relevant time period (Jeziorski et al.
47 2008; Watmough and Dillon 2003a).

48 The addition of large quantities of P to soils can reduce the availability of P adsorption sites, leading
49 to increases in P mobility (Jarvie et al. 2013). Tree death in this predominately forested landscape,

50 characterised by granitic soils with low P weathering rates, can therefore contribute significant
51 quantities of P to streams through decaying biomass (Pinder et al. 2014; Knops et al. 2010). Further,
52 the effect of forest disturbance can be more pronounced in riparian areas or wetlands that are more
53 strongly hydrologically connected to surface waters. Following the initial disturbance event, P inputs
54 decline over time as the majority of nutrients are released during earlier stages of decay (Fahey et al.
55 1991; Knops et al. 2010). This decline is heightened by high P uptake rates of young vegetation as it
56 re-establishes (Jorgensen et al. 1975), which acts to limit the soil P concentrations, increase the
57 availability of soil P binding sites, and to gradually reduce P mobility. Removal of vegetation e.g. by
58 selective tree harvesting, has also been associated with increased P mobility, linked with reduced
59 uptake of nutrients (Pirainen et al. 2004) and an increased supply of organic and inorganic anions
60 which compete with P for sorption sites (Väänänen et al. 2007).

61 Soils within south-central Ontario have also been subject to acidification, due to atmospheric
62 deposition of H_2SO_4 and HNO_3 . In soils with a relatively low pH, such as those overlying the
63 Precambrian Shield, it has been suggested that sulphate (SO_4^{2-}) has a significant influence on P
64 sorption, where competition between SO_4^{2-} and P leads to lower P retention (Geelhoed et al. 1997;
65 Baker et al. 2015). It is unlikely that SO_4^{2-} has been the sole cause of P alterations at all sites, given a
66 weak correlation between SO_4^{2-} and P (Eimers et al. 2009), and the large differences in rates of P
67 declines between catchments. It may, however, be a contributing factor in catchments which have
68 been extensively acidified (Baker 2014).

69 There remains a substantial amount of uncertainty surrounding the causes of P declines, and the
70 impact of catchment disturbance. Process-based models, such as the spatially distributed model
71 INCA-P, can help to provide additional insight, through facilitating integration of site-specific
72 observed data over the subcatchment scale, defining dominant drivers of catchment P-transport
73 mechanisms, and ultimately highlighting appropriate management strategies (Sharpley et al. 2002).
74 In this study the process-based model INCA-P is applied to three catchments, Dickie (DE), Harp (HP)

75 and Plastic (PC), which have undergone varying degrees of P decline, and different forms and
76 degrees of historic disturbance (vegetation-death, timber harvesting, and extensive soil acidification
77 respectively). The aim is to determine whether these disturbance events can account for declines in
78 P exports within the study sites, and if so whether catchments have returned to pre-disturbance
79 conditions, or if further declines in P might be anticipated. The models are calibrated during a period
80 of low disturbance (2000-2007), and hind-casts run from 1978-2007. Hind-casts are run both with
81 and without the inclusion of simulated disturbances, and changes in total phosphorus (TP) loads
82 which may be attributed to historic disturbance events are then quantified.

83 **2. Methods**

84 **2.1 Site description**

85 All three catchments (Figure 1) are located in the Precambrian Shield landscape of south-central
86 Ontario, in the Muskoka-Haliburton region (MHR). The geology of the area is characterised by
87 impermeable Precambrian silicate bedrock (Dillon and Molot 2005) covered with thin basal tills
88 which in DE and PC are predominantly less than 1m thick. In HP, tills may reach up to 4m in upland
89 reaches (Watmough and Dillon 2003a). Owing to the thin coverage by overlying soils in the MHR,
90 ridges are characterised by exposed bedrock, and organic soils are found in wetland areas (covering
91 9.3%, 10% and 1.6% of DE, HP and PC respectively). HP has the largest catchment area (542ha),
92 supporting the deepest lake of the study sites (13.3m). DE has a smaller catchment area (500 ha),
93 but larger lake surface area (93.6ha), and is substantially shallower (5m deep). Finally, PC is the
94 smallest of the study catchments (127ha), with the smallest lake surface area (32.1ha), and an
95 intermediate depth (7.9m). The catchments vary in their extent of residential and road development,
96 with the greatest amount of shoreline housing found in DE (125 houses), followed by HP (83 houses)
97 (Dillon and Molot, 1996). There is no residential development within PC (Table 1). Vegetation in the
98 upland forests of HP and DE is similar; predominantly composed of sugar maple (*Acer saccharum*)
99 and yellow birch (*Betula alleghaniensis*) (O'Brien et al. 2013; Pinder et al. 2014). Eastern cedar (*Thuja*

100 *occidentalis*) and eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*) may also be found in wetland areas, along
101 with black spruce (*Picea mariana*) in DE. PC predominantly supports white pine (*Pinus strobus*),
102 eastern hemlock and red maple (*Acer rubrum*; Watmough and Dillon 2003b).

103 Disturbances to vegetation have been reported at DE and HP. In DE, areas of dead trees in forested
104 wetlands affects up to 52% of riparian areas in some sub-catchments (Pinder et al. 2014). The wide-
105 spread death of trees in the wetlands has been attributed to a rise in water table, possibly caused by
106 road construction around the lake in the mid 1970's (Pinder et al. 2014). In HP, selection timber
107 harvesting (predominantly carried out prior to 1983), has resulted in reduced tree density within
108 some catchments (HP3A, HP4, HP6 and HP6A) (Watmough and Dillon 2003b). There are no records
109 of tree felling or forest death in PC, but the long term impacts of acid deposition and associated soil
110 calcium losses have been linked to nutrient-limitations on vegetation growth. In some areas of this
111 catchment, which has undergone the largest reductions in soil pH, there has been no net increase in
112 forest biomass since 1983 (Watmough and Dillon 2003b).

113 The temperate climate of the three study sites, located within a 30km radius, was similar during the
114 period of record (1978-2007). The catchment average annual temperature was 5.1°C, ranging by less
115 than 0.3°C between sites. Average annual precipitation was 1012mm, differing by less than 12.8mm
116 between sites. Snowfall and seasonal freezing of the lakes was usual in winter (December - February),
117 with an average temperature of -8.4°C. Spring melt occurred in March - May, with an average
118 temperature of 4.4°C.

119 **2.2 INCA-P Model Calibration**

120 INCA-P (v.1.2.1) is a process-based, spatially distributed model, and was chosen for its focus on
121 representing the underlying physical processes that describe system behaviour (Adams et al. 2013;
122 Crossman et al. 2014). The model has been applied to over 40 catchments worldwide, and uses a
123 semi-distributed approach to simulate the daily transport of a variety of water quality variables

124 (including sediments, water and nutrients) in both the terrestrial and the aquatic phase (Whitehead
125 et al. 2011). Simulation of terrestrial processes may be differentiated into an arbitrary number of
126 land cover or landuse types. As a fully branched model, INCA can provide soil export coefficients
127 and daily simulations of stream flow, sediment mass and P concentrations (dissolved DP, particulate
128 PP and total TP) for an unlimited number of tributaries, subcatchments and stream orders.

129 INCA-P requires a daily input time series of precipitation, temperature, hydrologically effective
130 rainfall (HER) and soil moisture deficit (SMD). Whilst precipitation and temperature were obtained
131 from local climate stations (DESC 2012a), HER and SMD were derived from the rainfall-runoff model
132 Nordic HBV (Hydrologiska Byråns Vattenbalansavdelningen) (Saelthun 1995). An individual HBV and
133 associated INCA model set-up was used for each study catchment. The INCA model applications
134 were calibrated following procedures outlined in Crossman et al. (2014), whereby plausibility of
135 calibration values was assessed through a variety of methods including field measurements, GIS and
136 digital elevation assessments, literature values, and model performance statistics. A calibration
137 period from 2000-2007 was initially selected for each catchment, during which time there were
138 fewer reported periods of disturbance (Pinder et al. 2014; Watmough and Dillon 2003a). Intensive
139 monitoring within each catchment over these 8 years facilitated the detailed calibration of INCA-P
140 within multiple subcatchments at each study site.

141 A hydrological network for each study catchment was developed from a digital elevation model,
142 using ArcHydro GIS software. Land use was derived from the Ecological Land Classifications of
143 Ontario data (Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources 2007; adapted by O'Connor et al. 2009), and
144 grouped into five cover classes; cottage developments ("residential"), wetland, coniferous forest,
145 deciduous forest and open water. Within DE and HP, nutrient input rates from cottage septic tanks
146 (0.86 kg P/ha/year in DE, and 1.6kg P/ha/year in HP) were calculated using methods in Dillon and
147 Molot (1996), and applied at a daily rate to the residential landuse sites throughout the summer.
148 Total P input rates from wetlands, coniferous and deciduous forests were calculated at

149 0.88kg/ha/year, 1.18kg/ha/year and 0.71kg/ha/year within DE, HP and PC respectively, using data
150 from Dillon and Molot (1996). Previous studies indicate that the amount of P lost from wetland
151 ecosystems can exceed twice that of forested watersheds (Richardson 1985) and thus 70% of the
152 daily vegetative total was assigned to wetlands, with the remaining 30% split equally between
153 coniferous and deciduous forests.

154 A three-station average of regional atmospheric P deposition data was available from 1976-2007,
155 with daily measurements taken at HP, PC and Heney (adjacent to DE) (DESC 2012b). Atmospheric
156 deposition was input into each model as a daily time series (averaging 0.4g/ha/day). As bulk
157 collectors also collect pollen and other organics, net atmospheric P deposition at the 3 sites may
158 have been overestimated by as much as 40%. A conservative adjustment of atmospheric inputs to
159 the terrestrial watershed was therefore carried out (25% reduction), given that the exact impact of
160 pollen on the atmospheric P records has not yet been established. Atmospheric inputs to the lakes
161 were not altered, as these organic inputs are considered part of the lake P-load. Initial soil P
162 concentrations were based on values measured by Baker (2014), and soil equilibrium coefficients
163 based on laboratory derived equilibrium P concentrations (EPC_0) and Freundlich isotherm values for
164 different soil and land use types (Peltovuori 2006; Väänänen 2008; Koski-Vähälä 2001).

165 **2.2.1 Inclusion of “disturbance” within INCA model**

166 In order to test whether disturbance could explain observed historical changes in stream TP at the
167 three catchments, a sixth landuse class, “disturbance”, was input to the model as an annual time
168 series, with model rates of land-use change calibrated to match observed in-stream TP
169 concentrations, and historic disturbance reports (e.g. Watmough and Dillon 2003a). In every model,
170 calibration of the disturbance class was based upon values from an existing land cover category
171 (“wetlands” in DE, and “forest” in HP and PC), to which changes were made based upon field
172 measurements and existing literature (Pinder et al. 2014; Watmough and Dillon 2003a, 2003b)
173 (Table 2). The disturbance classes of all models contained reduced plant uptake, either to simulate

174 lower vegetation density (DE and HP), or declines in vegetation health (PC). Additional P inputs to
175 the soil were added only to the DE disturbance class (163kg over 30 years), simulating vegetation
176 decay over time, based upon measurements from Pinder et al (2014). In HP, it was assumed that
177 selective timber harvesting resulted in the majority of disturbed vegetation being removed from the
178 site. To replicate changes to P mobility, all disturbance classes also contained elevated equilibrium P
179 concentrations (EPC_0). As the EPC_0 rises, soil adsorption generally becomes increasingly difficult
180 (Shafiqat and Pierzynski 2014). Thus, within INCA v1.2.1 the effects of both reduced P sorption sites
181 under excess P additions (Nzigheba et al. 1998; Jarvie 2013), and of increased competition with
182 anions associated with harvesting and acidification (Giesler et al. 2005; Geelhoed et al. 1997), may
183 be simulated by increasing soil EPC_0 values (Table 2). Whilst all disturbance classes were slightly
184 different, they were based upon a similar theory of simulating changes to soil properties in areas
185 historically characterised by high P mobility, to those currently characterised by lower P mobility.

186 **3. Results**

187 **3.1. Model Performance**

188 **3.1.1 INCA calibration performance**

189 Model outputs from all catchment inflows and lake outflows were compared with observed flow
190 data and grab samples of TP (DESC 2012c). Over the calibration period (2000-2007), the model was
191 successful in representing seasonal fluxes within each catchment with an average catchment R^2 of
192 over 0.9 for stream flow at each site, between 0.5 and 0.7 for TP concentration, and between 0.6
193 and 0.7 for TP load (Figure 2a). Simulation of inter-annual trends (R^2) was however less successful
194 (Figure 2a), although total model error (%) was similar to that of seasonal performance (Figure 2b).
195 The lower inter-annual R^2 indicated that hydrological and meteorological changes, even during a
196 period of low disturbance (2000-2007) were unable to entirely account for observed long-term
197 changes in TP loads. This issue was even more apparent when the model was applied over the

198 complete period of record (1978-2007). The INCA model failed to reproduce the observed large
199 historic changes in TP concentrations in both DE and HP (Figure 3), but was more successful in PC
200 where changes in TP loads have been lower. It was evident, therefore, that additional drivers (e.g.
201 disturbance) were required to explain P declines.

202 **3.1.2 Model hindcast performance**

203 The inclusion of disturbance parameters greatly improved inter-annual model performance (R^2) in TP
204 concentrations and loads from 1978-2007 at all sites (Figures 4a and 5). Model performance of
205 discharge was unchanged (not shown), though total model error (%) for TP concentration was closer
206 to 0 within all catchments (Figure 4b). Improvements were greatest in DE and HP, where larger scale
207 anthropogenic events have been reported. At DE and HP INCA simulated reductions in average
208 annual stream TP concentrations from 50 and 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$ in the early 1980's, to values of 20 and 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$
209 by 2007 respectively, with an average annual reduction in TP load of 6% and 4%. Although INCA
210 simulated a reduction in annual stream flow over this period, at a rate of less than 1% per year, the
211 decline in flow could not account for the modelled alterations in P exports (Figure 3).

212 Even in PC, where anthropogenic influences were low, the addition of disturbance drivers into the
213 model increased performance statistics. Here, simulated long term changes in annual P fluxes were
214 smaller than at DE and HP by an order of magnitude, with a total change in annual TP concentrations
215 of only 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$ over the 30 years (a change greater than the calculated model error of 8.2%; or
216 0.73 $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$), and an average annual reduction in TP load of only 0.4%. In this catchment, the smaller
217 inter-annual P variability can in part be explained by changes in flow (Figure 3). The model
218 performance improvements achieved by inclusion of the disturbance parameters indicate that
219 vegetation decay, forest harvesting and acidification as simulated by INCA-P have all had some
220 influence on long-term P export at DE, HP and PC respectively. As the models successfully
221 reproduced observed long-term P-fluxes (R^2), the difference in exports between the two hindcasts

222 (with and without disturbance) can be used to quantify the proportion of change in P that might be
223 attributed to disturbance events.

224 **3.2 Quantification of disturbance contributions using INCA-P**

225 Source apportionment calculations revealed that within DE and HP, simulated P-outputs from
226 residential, forest and wetland soils remained relatively stable over the hindcast period, and exports
227 from disturbed areas accounted for a large proportion of the observed P declines (Figure 6). Over
228 the hindcast period, dead/decaying forest yielded the greatest P release (3.8kg/ha/year), compared
229 with forest harvesting (0.31kg/ha/year) and soil acidification (0.002kg/ha/year). The total P exports
230 from the DE and HP inflow catchments were calculated at 1626 kg and 1259kg respectively. Of this,
231 63% (1025kg) can be traced back to disturbance events within DE, and 24% (297kg) within HP. In the
232 PC catchment, disturbance accounted for just 0.6% of P exports (0.14kg). At this site, much of the
233 inter-annual variability in P outputs corresponds with meteorological fluxes (Figure 6). Importantly,
234 the results suggest that not all catchments have returned to pre-disturbance conditions, with 1.2%
235 of DE P exports in 2007 continuing to be attributable to the disturbance effect. Until this site has
236 fully recovered, further “declines” in P may be anticipated.

237 Using INCA modelled values, and based upon the methods of Eimers et al. (2009) the average annual
238 percent TP retention (%TPR) over the 1978-2007 period was calculated for each catchment, and for
239 the lakes. Inputs incorporated within these calculations include subsurface flow, atmospheric P
240 deposition, septic additions and vegetation decay, as it has been demonstrated that retention can be
241 underestimated by up to 23% when these are not considered (Dillon and Molot 1996). Over this
242 period, %TPR retention was highest in HP and PC (Figure 7), suggesting these two sites have a higher
243 capacity to adsorb P. In DE, %TPR was notably negative in all inflow catchments, indicating high
244 mobility of P which may help to explain the higher annual exports from this catchment (Figure 6).
245 Positive retention values were estimated within DE lake itself however (Table 3), indicating that
246 some of the P exported from the DE inflows may be stored within lake sediments. Lake %TPR varied

247 seasonally, and was lowest at all sites in spring and autumn, and highest during winter and summer
248 (Table 3). Seasonal variation was greatest within the DE catchment.

249 **3.3. Model simulation of stream and lake nutrient dynamics**

250 Modelled discharges were greatest in both catchment inflows and lake outflows during spring,
251 declining rapidly to a seasonal low occurring in late summer (July in DE and PC; August in HP). Within
252 DE, the TP concentrations of inflow streams were much higher than those of lake outflows. Inflow
253 and outflow concentrations in HP were more similar, and in PC were marginally higher in outflows.
254 In HP and PC, stream discharge and stream TP concentrations were negatively associated
255 throughout the year. This relationship was strongest during winter and autumn ($R^2 = 0.8$ to 0.99).
256 Inflowing TP concentrations peaked during summer low flow periods, with seasonal highs during
257 later summer and early autumn. Seasonal fluxes varied within individual streams, with HP 3a and HP
258 4 showing additional peaks in TP concentration during the spring melt period. In contrast, within DE
259 inflows, TP concentrations were positively correlated with flow throughout winter, spring and
260 autumn ($R^2 = 0.9$ to 0.98). Here, TP concentrations peaked during high flow periods, with highest
261 concentrations during spring, followed by a seasonal low in early summer, and a steady rise
262 throughout the season to a second smaller peak in late autumn.

263 **4. Discussion:**

264 The INCA model indicates that within the DE and HP catchments, inter-annual variability in
265 precipitation and TP deposition, and a 1% annual reduction in flow, are all insufficient to account for
266 the large observed decreases in TP loads at these catchments (4-6%). The inclusion of a disturbance
267 class within INCA was necessary to simulate past changes in catchment export and lake TP
268 concentrations. Disturbance events are believed to elevate soil P mobility, resulting in higher stream
269 and lake TP concentrations, which gradually return to “pre-disturbance” conditions. The assumption
270 that disturbances impacted P export in this region is based on current measurements (e.g. standing

271 dead trees, logging residues), as monitoring began subsequent to the events which occurred more
272 than 30 years ago. The possibility that P declines may represent the tail-end of a historic phase of
273 raised P exports emphasises the dependence of perceived long-term change on the selection of
274 analysis period (Hartmann et al. 2013).

275 Model results indicated that disturbance events such as vegetation decay and selective timber
276 harvesting of forests have had the greatest impact on soil P mobility, and can account for between
277 63% and 24% of P exports within DE and HP respectively, over the 30 year period of record. Decaying
278 forests yielded the greatest P release per hectare of disturbed land cover (3.8kg/ha), compared with
279 selective harvesting (0.31kg/ha). Acidification has had a much lower impact on surface water TP,
280 releasing only 0.002kg P/ha, though it may still be cause for concern, as 0.6% of exports over the
281 past 30 years can be attributed to this form of disturbance within the PC catchment. Importantly,
282 percentage P retention values (%TPR) indicate that following disturbance, the DE catchment had a
283 much lower sorption capacity than either HP or PC (average of -69.2% in DE compared to +59.0 and
284 +85.4% in HP and PC). Low retention values within DE may be a result of the large quantities of P
285 that were added to the catchment during tree death (up to 219kg P from standing deadwood alone;
286 Pinder et al. 2014), which increase competition for soil sorption sites; and are consistent with
287 disturbed conditions (Väänänen et al. 2007; Ardon et al. 2010).

288 At DE, the positive relationship between precipitation, flow and in-stream TP concentrations is
289 further indicative of high P mobility. In areas with elevated soil P concentrations and associated low
290 P sorption capacity (like disturbed soils with decaying vegetation), P may be readily desorbed into
291 solution during precipitation events or saturated conditions (Haygarth et al. 1998; Borling 2003).
292 Where these areas are located close to watercourses, like wetlands, this P may be transported to
293 streams. During periods of surface erosion such as spring melt, P may also be delivered directly to
294 the streams on soil particles (Heathwaite and Dils 2000). These positive relationships (and
295 negative %TPR values) indicate that the catchment is vulnerable to P-flushing events during wet

296 periods. Results suggest that the DE catchment has recovered substantially since disturbance events
297 in the 1970s, however up to 1.2% of total annual P continues to be exported by disturbed sites, and
298 thus further declines may be expected. Whilst the additional P inputs from decaying biomass clearly
299 extended the required recovery period in the DE catchment, the higher impact of disturbance within
300 wetland areas may also in part be associated with the proximity of disturbance to catchment inflows.
301 Disturbances in DE were reported within riparian wetlands, where any change in P exports would be
302 more directly related to the water course; and previous studies have indicated (e.g. Devito et al.
303 2000) that the impacts of disturbance on streams are likely to be greatest where the terrestrial and
304 aquatic environment are directly hydrologically connected. Finally, whilst the model demonstrates
305 that changes in hydrology alone are insufficient to account for observed reductions in P export,
306 a change in hydrological connectivity could have contributed to the impact of disturbance. As the
307 disturbance in DE is thought to originate from an elevated water table caused by road building,
308 connectivity would be higher shortly following the initial disturbance period; and would decline
309 thereafter as vegetation regrowth re-established root systems (Moore and Wondzell 2005).

310 Within HP and PC, where smaller impact disturbance events were recorded, TP retention was higher.
311 At these sites, P was not directly added through disturbance (i.e. the majority of the harvested tree
312 biomass was removed), and effects were limited to indirect P additions through changes to
313 vegetation health (reduced P uptake) and greater competition for soil sorption sites (Giesler et al.
314 2005; Geelhoed et al. 1997). Negative relationships depicted at HP and PC between precipitation,
315 flow and instream TP concentrations are indicative of lower P mobility, where greater quantities of P
316 are adsorbed from throughflow during high flow periods, and released during low flow (e.g. via
317 redox, where low stream flows and high temperatures lead to anoxia, reduction of Fe^{3+} , and P
318 release; O'Brien et al. 2013). Spring peaks in stream TP concentrations at HP3a and 4 could be
319 associated with the proximity of harvested forests to riparian zones in these subcatchments. Here, a
320 spring flush of P from soils with elevated P mobility (due to reduced nutrient uptake and an
321 increased supply of organic and inorganic anions, Väänänen et al. 2007) may more directly enter the

322 watercourse. At both PC and HP, results indicate that disturbance-related P contributions have now
323 ceased.

324 The differences in timing of seasonal TP fluxes between streams and the lakes can be attributed to
325 seasonal variability in lake water residence times and %TPR. The latter was highest in all sites during
326 summer, decreasing through to winter. This may explain the steady decline in lake outflow TP
327 concentrations from summer to early autumn within Dickie lake, which contrasts with those of
328 stream inflows. In addition during both winter and spring, soil erosion carries P-rich sediments to the
329 lake, which due to low TP retention in colder seasons, is likely to be conveyed more directly to the
330 outflow (Dillon and Molot 1996). The lower P-content of sediments carried to HP and PC lakes, in
331 addition to the lower seasonal variability of lake %TPR, could explain the greater similarity in TP
332 concentrations between stream and lake outflow concentrations at these sites.

333 Whilst further declines in P are unlikely at the now-stabilised PC site, additional P reductions might
334 be expected within DE as wetland vegetation continues to recover. Here, although P exports to the
335 lake have decreased, and lake sediments can adsorb some of the fluxes, elevated P mobility persists
336 in 2007, with 1.2% of P exports attributed to disturbance. Soils in DE currently have a lower capacity
337 to retain added P, and therefore subcatchments remain vulnerable to future disturbance.

338 Furthermore, research indicates that although future soil acidification is unlikely in undisturbed
339 areas (due to large decreases in S deposition), it may continue in harvested sites (Watmough and
340 Aherne 2008); thus although P exports from disturbance in HP had ceased by 2007, this site may
341 begin to experience future small P declines related to decreasing soil pH. This study indicates that
342 despite recovery of vegetation, certain types of disturbance may leave a legacy of vulnerability,
343 rendering impacted areas more sensitive to future changes in both climate and landuse. Where
344 disturbance is less extensive, catchments may remain more resilient, e.g. PC.

345 Given the sensitivity of P exports to disturbance events within this naturally low P landscape, results
346 suggest that future water quality within the MHR will likely be affected by landuse change.

347 Modelling is emerging as an important tool in predicting the impacts of management strategies
348 (Baulch et al. 2013) and evaluation of land use scenarios (Oni et al. 2015). The ability of INCA to
349 simulate highly variable P exports under disturbed conditions indicates that this process-based
350 model could be particularly suitable for management applications within the MHR. Future research
351 could look to identify sustainable practices under which stable P exports are maintained, and to
352 determine how changes in climate may impact catchment sensitivity to landuse developments.

353 This study demonstrates that recorded declines in P concentrations and loads within streams and
354 lakes of the MHR may represent the return of systems to a steady-state, following disturbance
355 events that occurred prior to initiation of monitoring programs, over 30 years previous. The INCA
356 model indicates that death and decay of riparian wetland vegetation, and removal of trees through
357 selective harvesting can account for 63 and 24% of P exports respectively, between 1978 and 2007.
358 In areas where no anthropogenic vegetation removal is recorded, smaller declines in inter-annual P
359 loads were recorded, which were predominantly associated with changes in meteorology,
360 atmospheric deposition and flow. Here, effects of soil acidification accounted for only 0.6% of the P
361 export.

362 The model results demonstrate that export of P from disturbed areas can be attributed at all sites to
363 reduced vegetation uptake, higher soil mobility (i.e. reduced capacity to adsorb P due predominantly
364 to an increased availability of competing anions), and additionally, at DE, to the direct addition of P
365 from decaying vegetation. Disturbance of wetlands in the DE catchment had significantly more
366 impact on P export (3.8kg/ha) than disturbance of forests in the HP sites (0.31kg/ha) or soil
367 acidification in PC (0.002kg/ha). Results suggest that whilst HP and PC have now returned to pre-
368 disturbance conditions, DE continues to export 1.2% of P from disturbed areas. The greater impact
369 of wetland disturbance, along with a longer recovery period required for disturbance in DE was
370 attributed in part to the additional P inputs from decaying vegetation, and in part to the proximity of
371 these wetlands to the rivers. As the soil capacity to adsorb P within DE remains low, the study

372 indicates that despite rapid vegetation regrowth, disturbance may leave behind a legacy of
373 vulnerability, rendering extensively disturbed sites more sensitive to future changes in both
374 meteorology and landuse. Those catchments where disturbance was less extensive, or had a lesser
375 impact (HP and PC), may harbour greater resilience. In summary, the study demonstrates the long-
376 term impacts of disturbing vegetation on P-exports, and the significant recovery periods required to
377 achieve nutrient stability once vegetation health is compromised, particularly for riparian wetland
378 areas.

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566 **Tables:**

567	Characteristics	Dickie	Harp	Plastic	
	Catchment area (ha)	500	542	127	
568	Lake area (ha)	93.6	71.4	32.1	
	Lake depth (m)	5.0	13.3	7.9	
569	Mean lake TP (ug/l)	10.2	7.1	5.6	
	Wetland	9.3	10	1.6	
570	Landuse (%)	Coniferous Forest	62.3	57.1	74.2
		Deciduous Forest	2.4	3.5	7.1
571		Disturbed	1.5	4.3	1.5
		Residential (cottages)	5.5	4.4	0
572		Open Water	18.9	20.8	15.6

573 Table 1: Study site characteristics (catchment and landuse data derived from Ontario Ministry of
 574 Environment Ecological Classification of Ontario (2007); residential data from Dillon and Molot (1996)

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Soil Type	Model Parameter	Catchment		
		Dickie	Harp	Plastic
Un- disturbed	P inputs to soils (kg/ha/yr)	0.61	0.22	0.19
	EPC ₀ (µg P/l)	1.00E1	1.00E1	1.00E1
	Plant Uptake (kg/ha/year)	0.05	0.19	0.18
Disturbed	P inputs to soils (kg/ha/yr)	0.68	0.22	0.19
	EPC ₀ (µg P/l)	1.50E3	6.00E2	2.00E2
	Plant Uptake (kg/ha/year)	0.02	0.09	0.17

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589 Table 2: Comparison of soil parameters between disturbed and undisturbed areas in INCA model, for
 590 wetlands (Dickie) and forests (Harp and Plastic).

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Seasonal % Lake P retention			
	Dickie	Harp	Plastic
Spring	25.4	62.0	52.4
Summer	94.4	80.9	92.8
Autumn	22.6	66.9	73.5
Winter	67.4	77.8	75.8

606 Table 3: Seasonal variability of Lake % TP retention (modelled using INCA-P)

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620 **Figures:**

621 Figure 1: Study site schematic demonstrating sub-catchments as used in the INCA-P model

622 application

623 Figure 2: Comparison of seasonal and annual model performance across all streams (lake inflows)

624 and lake outflows, demonstrating a) R^2 and b) model average error (MAE) over 2001-2007

625 calibration period.

626 Figure 3: Model performance at a range of streams (lake inflows) over entire period of record (1978-

627 2007) demonstrating capacity of meteorology to account for inter-annual variability in P fluxes

628 Figure 4: comparison of inter-annual model performance across all streams (lake inflows) and lake

629 outflows, using a) R^2 and b) MAE, with and without inclusion of disturbance landuse classes.

630 Figure 5: Model hindcast at a range of streams (lake inflows) (1978-2007) demonstrating

631 improvement in model performance through inclusion of disturbance class (thick black line)

632 Figure 6: Sources of P soil exports by landuse class, comparing annual fluxes of P with precipitation

633 Figure 7: Range of total phosphorus retention (%TPR) across subcatchments within Dickie, Harp and

634 Plastic, calculated from modelled values over 1978-2007

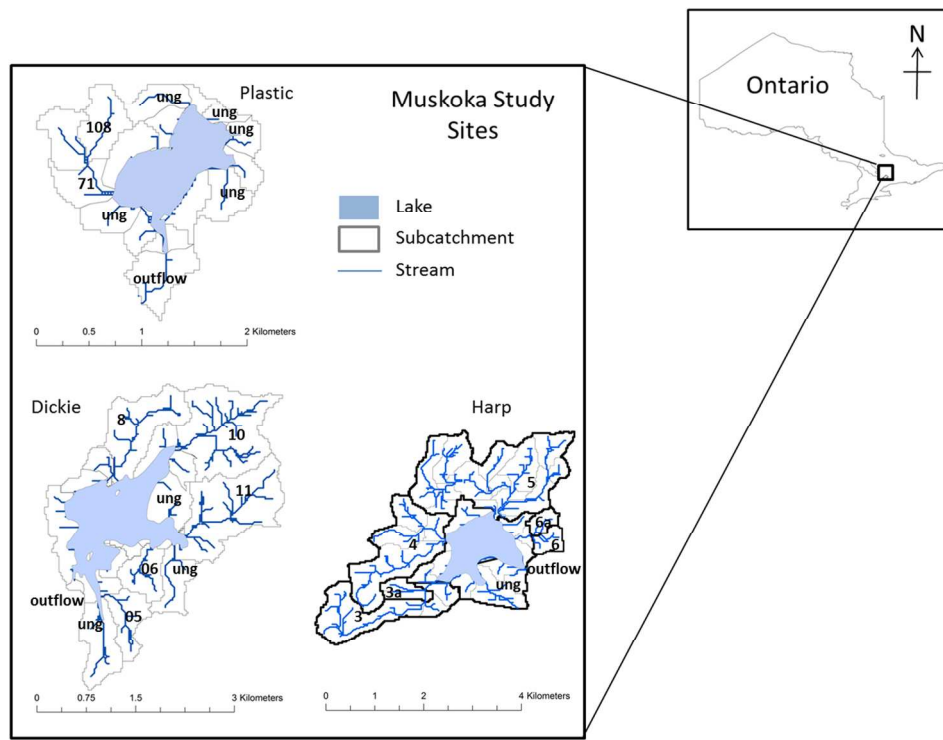


Figure 1: Study site schematic demonstrating sub-catchments as used in the INCA-P model application 254x190mm (150 x 150 DPI)

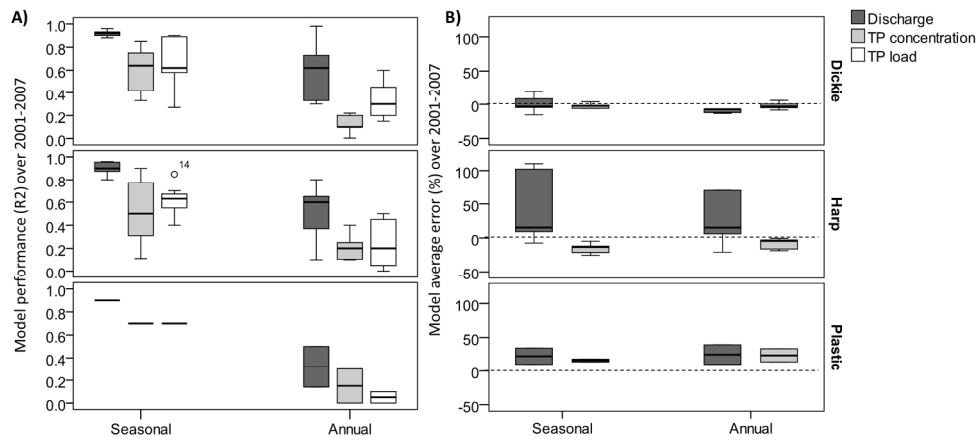


Figure 2: Comparison of seasonal and annual model performance across all streams (lake inflows) and lake outflows, demonstrating a) R^2 and b) model average error (MAE) over 2001-2007 calibration period.
385x176mm (150 x 150 DPI)

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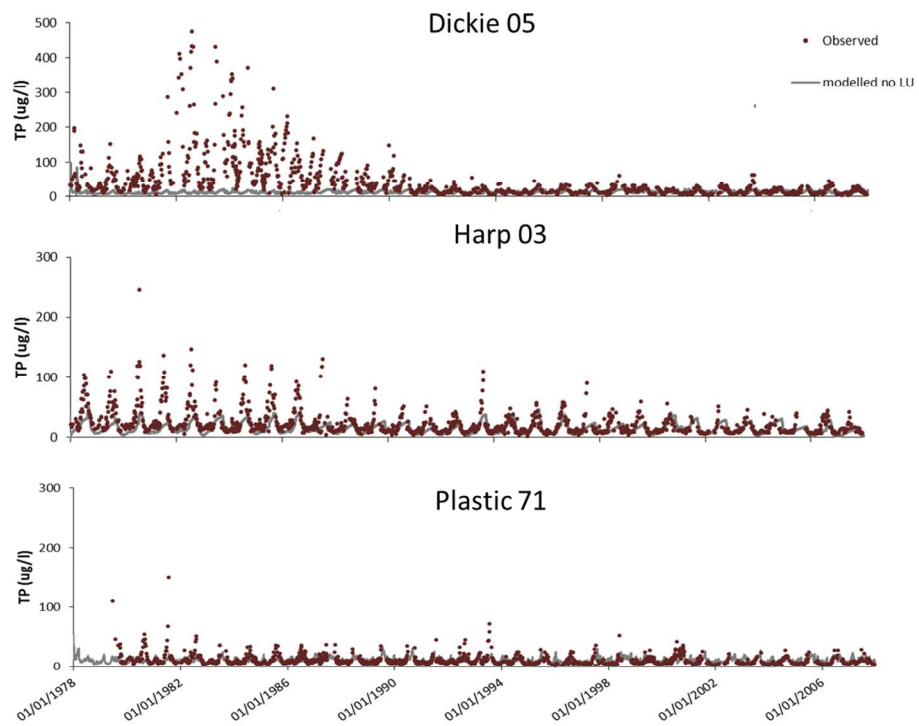


Figure 3: Model performance at a range of streams (lake inflows) over entire period of record (1978-2007) demonstrating capacity of meteorology to account for inter-annual variability in P fluxes
217x168mm (150 x 150 DPI)

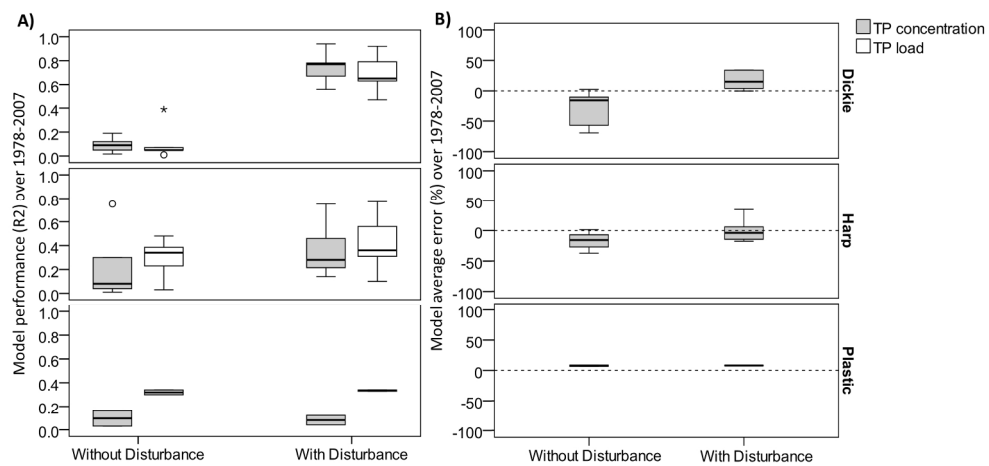


Figure 4: Comparison of inter-annual model performance across all streams (lake inflows) and lake outflows, using a) R^2 and b) MAE, with and without inclusion of disturbance landuse classes.

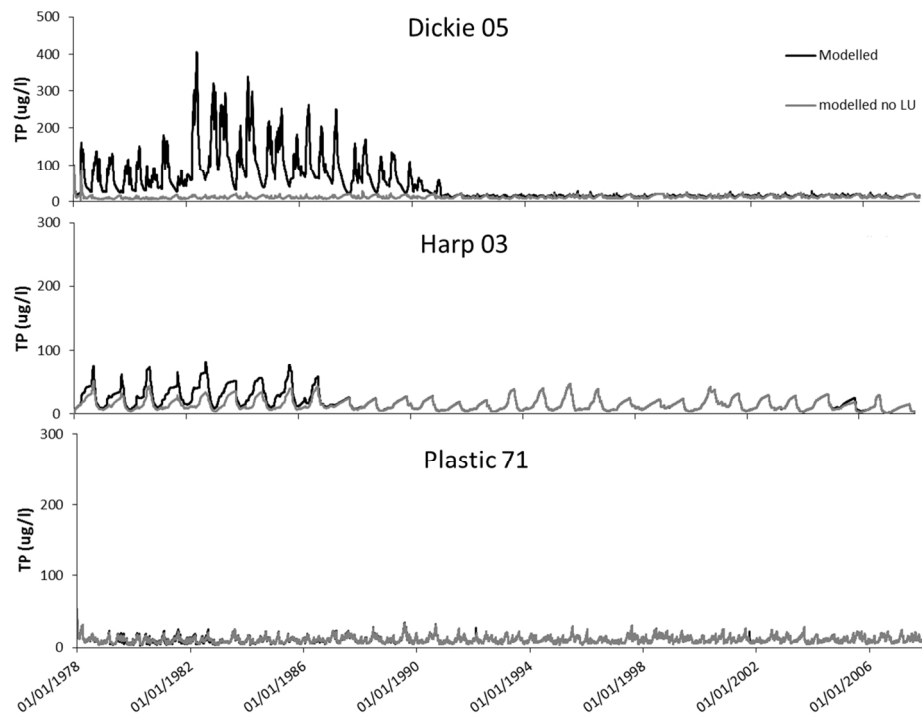


Figure 5: Model hindcast at a range of streams (lake inflows) (1978-2007) demonstrating improvement in model performance through inclusion of disturbance class (thick black line)

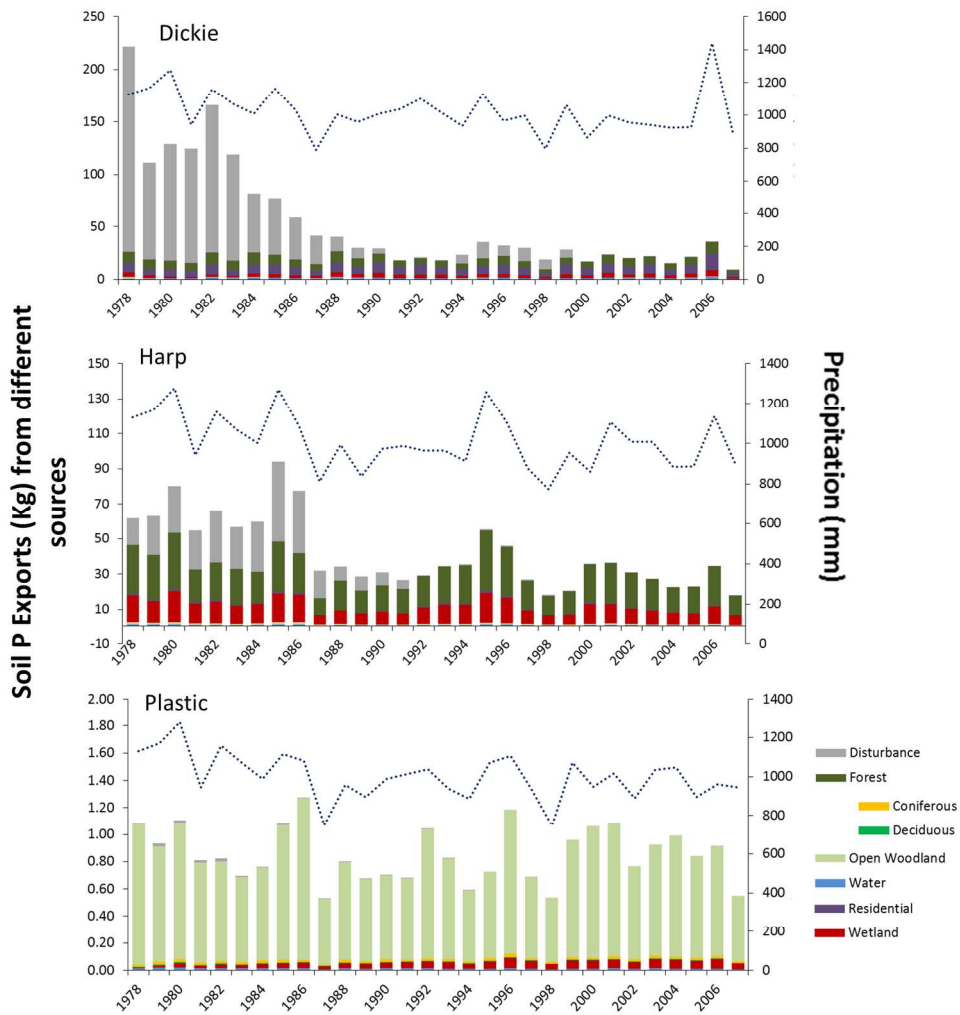


Figure 6: Sources of P soil exports by landuse class, comparing annual fluxes of P with precipitation 292x303mm (150 x 150 DPI)

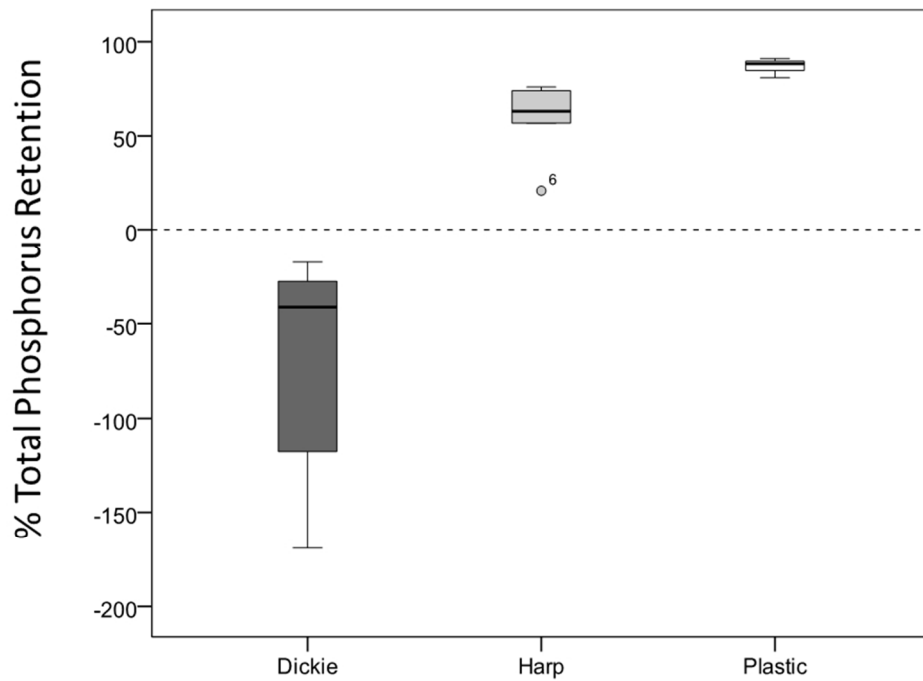


Figure 7: Range of total phosphorus retention (%TPR) across subcatchments within Dickie, Harp and Plastic, calculated from modelled values over 1978-2007
161x123mm (150 x 150 DPI)