

**Institute of
Hydrology**

Scientific Report 1996-97

Centre for Ecology & Hydrology
Natural Environment Research Council

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Institute of Hydrology

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The IH vision

We seek to advance and apply hydrological science to improve the management and sustainable use of fresh water for a better environment and an improved quality of life.

Priority is given to:

- research leading to increased understanding of the hydrological cycle and of its component physical, chemical and biological processes;
- experimentation, monitoring and modelling to investigate variability and change in freshwater systems to reveal and predict the impact of human activities;
- securing relevant data to further such research and provide a sound basis for advice in the broad area of water affairs and public services.

**Scientific Report of the
Institute of Hydrology
1996/97**

Centre for Ecology and Hydrology

Natural Environment Research Council

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human practices in agriculture and industry pollute significant quantities of our freshwater resource?

IH research helps answer these questions by concentrating on three areas: (1) the physical processes that control the mass transfer of water within the hydrological cycle; (2) the physical and chemical processes that affect water quality; (3) studies of water resources, where the focus is on the quantities of available fresh water; and the occurrence of hydrological extremes.

Physical processes are studied across a range of scales. At the smallest (millimetres to metre) we now recognise the importance of below-ground processes which control the net exchange of energy and water with the atmosphere, rivers and aquifers. Specific new areas for research include the study of how soil heterogeneity (variability, cracks, macropores etc.) and soil-root interactions affect the water balance. At a field scale most of the world's vegetation occurs in mixtures, so we have focused more attention on the partitioning of water in the complex plant communities that occur in wetlands, agroforestry and riparian zones. At a complete landscape scale the challenge is to deal with the typical patchwork of different land uses. We are therefore looking at how water flows between different landscape units such as forests, heaths, crops, set-aside, or pasture. As well as taking on the challenge of studying the physical interactions in multi-land use catchments, we are also looking in a more holistic way at the coupling between hydrology, ecology and socio-economic processes. Finally, at the continental to global scale we continue to contribute to research into large-scale land-atmosphere

interactions. Our recent work has been on the development of multi-source and combined energy, water and CO₂ models, and the improved use of remote sensing techniques.

Specific challenges in water quality are driven by the growing concern about the degree to which we may be polluting our freshwater resources, thereby jeopardising their ability to sustain human and ecological requirements. Much of the pollution in our aquatic environment is transported by sediments and so we have formed a new group to address this issue. We are also looking at micro-pollutants: these occur at very low concentrations, but many of them are unidentified and have unknown consequences for human and ecological health. Changes in soil chemical condition, caused by the application of agricultural chemicals, and SO₂ and NO_x deposition, can also affect water quality. At the whole catchment scale, water quality modelling faces a similar challenge to physical process modelling, i.e. the development of distributed water quality models which can cope with heterogeneous areas.

In the field of water resources and hydrological extremes, we are concentrating more effort on the development of consistent and reliable ways of estimating groundwater recharge. This subject is particularly important given the recent interest in re-assessing the UK's freshwater resources. A key impediment to progress is the lack of understanding of surface-groundwater interactions: another new team is therefore looking at the basic processes governing these interactions.

Regional and global freshwater resources are very poorly quantified so we have put greater effort into

the collation of hydrological data and modelling that are required to improve water resources assessment. In flood and drought prediction the problem of non-stationarity in hydrological time series (rainfall and river flows) needs to be taken into account. Current methods assume no long-term trend, a risky assumption given the human influences on river flows and recent evidence of climate change. Both water resource and extreme event assessment also need to address the issue of uncertainty: no data or models are ever without error, so water resource and flow frequency estimation and forecasting must have their uncertainties accurately identified. IH scientists are taking a leading role in addressing these resource and extreme event prediction issues.

Finally, low flows in rivers are occurring more frequently as a result of the combined effects of low rainfall and groundwater abstraction. These low flows can have important effects on aquatic ecology. To address this issue we have strengthened the team researching the interface between hydrology and ecology. Initial projects are quantifying the effects of low flows on fish populations and on the hydrological conditions required to sustain wetlands.

The main body of this report presents selected examples of some of our work in the above areas. The publications appendix contains an impressive list of our complete written output and I encourage readers to scrutinise that literature to assess the true quality and extent of our contribution to hydrological science.

Jim Wallace



Director's Introduction

This report concentrates on scientific issues in hydrology. An overview of the entire science programme of the Centre for Ecology and Hydrology (CEH), its organisation, funding and performance, is contained in the complementary CEH annual report. Organisational and managerial changes within and around IH have provided the opportunity to review our scientific foci. These reviews have led to the formation of new scientific groupings and to greater interactions between hydrologists and ecologists. The emerging research agenda, which is described below, is set in the context of water related issues which are of increasing concern at both national and international scales.

Until quite recently water has been assumed to be available in adequate quantities at a national scale; the main UK issues were therefore to do with water quality. However, the recent spate of exceptionally dry years in the UK has brought the issue of water quantity to the fore and shown politicians and the public that fresh water is not an inexhaustible resource. There are clearly areas of the UK where demand can sometimes outstrip supply.

Another major change to the supply/demand debate relates to a more recent expectation that fresh water will meet not only human needs but also those of the environment. These include support for ecological systems such as the plants and animals in wetlands, and fish and invertebrates in rivers and lakes.

The above issues require some essential hydrological information. The size of the water resource needs to be identified as well as its variation in both space and time. Rainfall and river flows are comparatively well measured in Britain but the rate of recharge to our aquifers, especially those in the south of England that supply much of the local water demand, is not well known. The requirement of each user sector needs to be known. Agricultural, industrial and domestic demands are comparatively easy to estimate, however it is much harder to assess environmental and ecological needs. It is also important to calculate how resources (and demands) may change in the future. Will widespread changes in land use alter water yields to rivers, reservoirs and aquifers? Will climate change sufficiently to affect these resources? Will



CEH is undertaking ten NERC Core Strategic Programmes which provide a science base that underpins national and international requirements in the terrestrial and freshwater sciences. The ten component programmes cover a wide range of topics. They are also dynamic and can be changed to incorporate new and emerging environmental issues.

CEH Core Strategic Programme

1: Soils and Soil-Vegetation Interactions

This programme is designed to improve our understanding and ability to model key soil processes controlling the transformations of materials within soils and the flux of water through the soil-vegetation-atmosphere continuum.

2: Land Use Science

This is aimed at promoting an integrated approach to land use science that is applicable to the wide range of user community requirements. The programme's themes will be developed to provide the basis for large-scale, long-term analytical studies of major land use change.

3: The Urban Environment

This relatively new programme aims to extend the interdisciplinary knowledge base and to understand the key environmental patterns and processes in urban situations and particularly change due to human activities. This knowledge is required to plan more sustainable urban environments.

4: Freshwater Resources

Increasing demands on freshwater resources have resulted in the need for a scientific basis for the effective strategic and sustainable manage-

ment of freshwater resources. This programme will address this by integrating CEH research in the areas of water quantity, water quality, and the ecological aspects of freshwater systems.

5: Biodiversity

Aimed at improving our understanding of microbiological and biological resources at a range of spatial scales. The research considers the underlying processes and resulting functions, and directs knowledge to the sustainable management of biodiversity.

6: Pest and Disease Control and Risk Assessment for GMOs

The primary aim of this programme is to undertake research in the provision of novel pest and disease control strategies whilst addressing any possible risk to the environment. The use of molecular biology is essential to maintain a novel and progressive approach to the themes of pest control and animal disease control.

7: Pollution

This programme is aimed at developing a better understanding of generic processes such as atmospheric transport, fluxes of pollutants and the fate of pollutants,

in order to predict more accurately the likely impacts on environments and organisms.

8: Environmental Risks and Extreme Events

This research programme will develop understanding of how environmental extremes affect mankind and the natural environment, developing quantitative, predictive tools to describe these effects, and contributing to mitigating measures.

9: Global Change

This programme will help to reduce uncertainty in the magnitude of global change and its impacts. The research is focused on improving the accuracy of global change predictions through measurement programmes, the development of scaling-up methods and models, and the identification of ecosystem responses.

10: Integrating Generic Science

Programme 10 has been designed to provide a research framework for those areas of CEH science which underpin the nine other programmes (e.g. providing the data and the technological support), as well as conducting its own fundamental research.

The following section of this Scientific Report describes research that is currently being carried out in eight of the ten programmes by the Institute of Hydrology. Further details of the projects and issues that make up each of the ten Core Strategic Programmes are listed in Appendix 3 of the CEH Annual Report.

One of the most important, yet least understood, parts of the hydrological cycle is the interface between the physical water system in the soil and the physiological water system within vegetation. Because of its sub-surface position and small size, this soil:root interface is one of the least studied parts of the entire soil-plant-atmosphere system. Most attention has focused on the factors determining the rate of water supply to a root, and much less on how roots secure new supplies of water by extension into new soil zones and by subsequent root proliferation. The importance of the soil:root system in controlling evaporation and drainage and, hence, factors influenced by them such as plant growth, water resources and land-atmosphere interactions, is now widely recognised.

Soil and soil/ vegetation interactions

**Models of water
uptake will help
define successful
agroforestry
systems**

**UPTAKE OF WATER BY
ROOTS IN
AGROFORESTRY**

The sustainability of agriculture in the semi-arid tropics can be enhanced by agroforestry unless competition for water between trees and neighbouring crops results in unacceptable loss of yield. To ensure success therefore requires better knowledge of the processes controlling the partitioning of water uptake between trees and crops.

Competition for water is most easily avoided if trees extract water from below the rooting zone of the crop, using deeply-penetrating vertical roots. However, where deep reserves of

water are not accessible, patterns of water uptake do not fit this ideal. A comparison of sap flow in lateral and vertical roots of silky oak (*Grevillea robusta*) trees in an agroforestry system in Kenya, measured using heat balance gauges, showed that uptake occurred almost entirely through lateral roots when the surface layer of the soil was wet and the subsurface was much drier (Figure 1). This type of behaviour should be reflected in the planning and management of agroforestry schemes where such conditions are common. Figure 1 also shows that the competitive effects of trees may be exacerbated when such strong gradients in soil moisture occur, because water was siphoned downwards by the tree

root system, potentially depriving the crop of water - a reversal of the phenomenon of hydraulic lift.

To model the partitioning of water between trees and crops mechanistically, the resistance of roots to the entry of water must be quantified. This value was measured *in situ* for roots of *G. robusta* and maize in Kenya using a high pressure flow meter to measure the hydraulic conductances of roots. Improved estimates of root length are needed to reduce variation in the data. These may be achieved using the fractal properties of root branching.

Contact: John Roberts

SOIL-CANOPY INTERACTIONS IN SPARSE VEGETATION

Most of the world's vegetation grows as mixtures of species where the ground cover is low and there are large areas of bare soil. To predict how these sparse vegetation canopies interact with the atmosphere requires new models known as soil-vegetation-atmosphere transfer schemes (SVATS). The best SVATS describe canopy behaviour using independently acting environmental factors, and allow for a maximum of two sources (usually a canopy with underlying bare soil). At IH we have replaced this empirical approach with physiological parameterisation to include a model of photosynthesis and allow feedback between the canopy and the fluxes.

Typical flux variations in a Sahelian savannah in Niger, West Africa, are shown in Figure 2 demonstrating that the bush

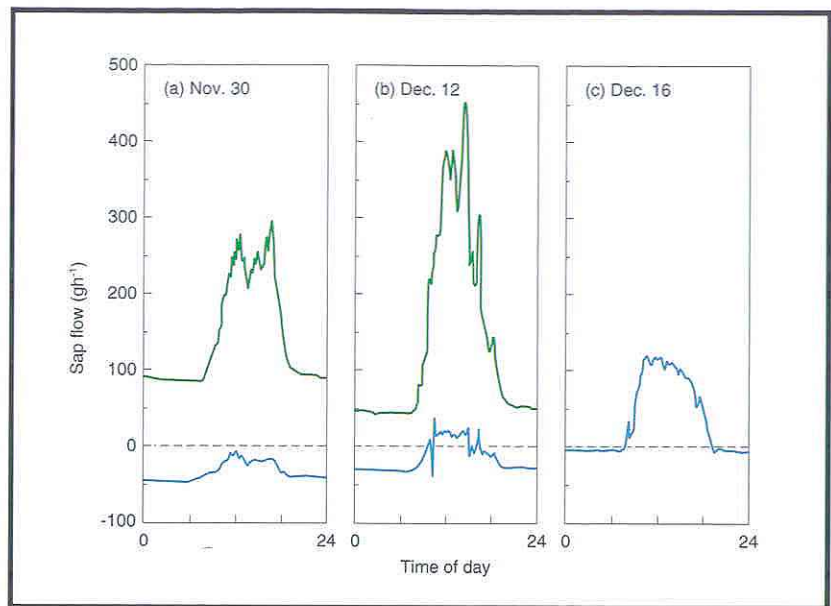


Figure 1. Sap flow in a 30-mm diameter lateral root (solid line) and a 15-mm diameter vertical root (dashed line) of a *Grevillea robusta* tree on three days in 1996. Sap flow towards the trunk is positive; flow towards root tips is negative. In (c), all lateral roots of the tree had been cut, forcing uptake through vertical roots.

transpiration is largest and bare soil evaporation is very small; this means that the sensible heat flux originating from the dry bare soil is very high. The bushes exhibit an interesting diurnal pattern, with positive heat fluxes during the morning dropping sharply to reach negative values of down to -200 W m^{-2} in the afternoon. During these hours the bushes are using energy originating from the relatively hot grasses and bare soil to maintain their high levels of transpiration.

These results show that large quantities of energy are transferred from the soil and ground cover vegetation to the bush canopy which enhances its transpiration rate. Similar interactions may also occur for CO_2 , with respired CO_2 from the soil affecting concentrations around the vegetation canopies and hence their carbon fixation and growth.

Contact: Anna Verboef

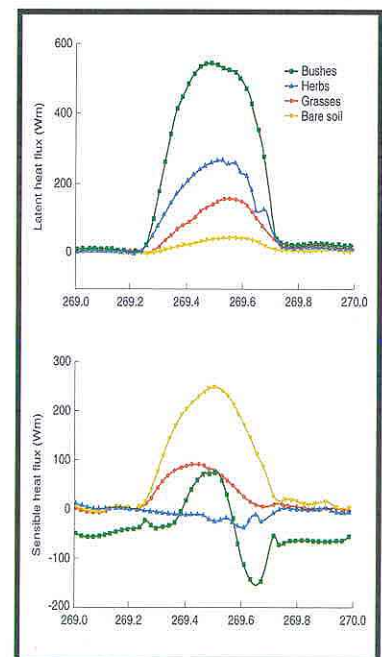


Figure 2. Latent and sensible heat fluxes of the four savannah surface components

Land use and land use change both influences, and is constrained by, the availability of fresh water. Government initiatives such as the planned doubling of afforested area in England, the pressure for alternative renewable energy sources, the European Commission's Common Agricultural Policy reforms and the recognition of the need for sustainable management of interdependent land and water resources provide many scientific challenges. The Institute's projects within this Programme Area have both national and regional dimensions, highlighted by current work in the UK, in Europe and in Asia.

Land use science

In wetter parts of the UK energy coppice should not have a serious impact on water resources

HYDROLOGICAL EFFECTS OF SHORT ROTATION ENERGY COPPICE

Poplar (*Populus* spp.) and willow (*Salix* spp.) are increasingly being grown in Europe as short rotation coppice (SRC) to produce biomass as a sustainable source of energy. The clones selected for biomass plantations are highly productive and use more water than the agricultural crops they replace. There is concern therefore that widespread plantation of SRC might result in reduced aquifer recharge and diminished river flows, particularly in drier areas. Funding has been made available from the Energy Technology Support Unit (ETSU) on behalf of the Department of Trade and Industry to provide information on the potential hydrological impacts of SRC before it is widely planted in the UK. Colleagues from the British Geological Survey have also investigated effects on water quality, especially nitrate leaching.

Extensive measurements have been made mainly on the poplar clone Beaupré (*Populus trichocarpa deltooides*) at two SRC plantations in southern England. Direct estimates of transpiration and interception loss have been made and additional environmental, plant physiological, and biometric data collected. These results provide insights into the mechanisms controlling the water use of SRC. When incorporated into new mathematical models of the daily transpiration and interception loss the measurements confirmed that water use of poplar and willow SRC is high - higher than that reported for other major agricultural crops and broadleaved trees, and second only to pine forest. The high water use of SRC results from its high transpiration rate. For poplar this is typically 500 mm a year, compared with 350 and 390 mm a year for conventional ash and beech forest, respectively. The high value for poplar is a consequence of its high



Gauges for measuring sap flow were used to allow calculation of transpiration rates. Here the gauges are fitted to one-year old poplar stems.

aerodynamic and stomatal conductances and an efficient, adaptable root system. The stomatal conductances remain high even when atmospheric humidity deficits are large and when there are significant soil water deficits. However, the stomatal conductances do eventually reduce very rapidly, in response to a large soil water deficit. The interception loss from poplar SRC over the growing season is about 21% of the rainfall and the annual interception loss, including the unleaved period, is about 14% of the annual rainfall. These values are typical of conventional broadleaved woodland.

The main hydrological implications of these findings are:

- Extensive SRC plantations may result in reduced stream flows and reduced peak flows, except in the unlikely event of it replacing coniferous forest. The size of the reduction will be dependent upon the rainfall, the proportion of the catchment converted and the land use that the SRC replaces.
- Large scale plantation of SRC in the driest parts of the country could result in the annual net recharge to aquifers and drainage to rivers and streams being reduced by up to 80 mm where a grassland catchment is wholly converted to SRC.
- During the summer, SRC may cause springs and ephemeral streams to dry up sooner and for longer, with smaller catchments being at greatest risk because of their smaller potential for storage.
- In general, nitrate leaching should be less than from land under intensive agriculture.

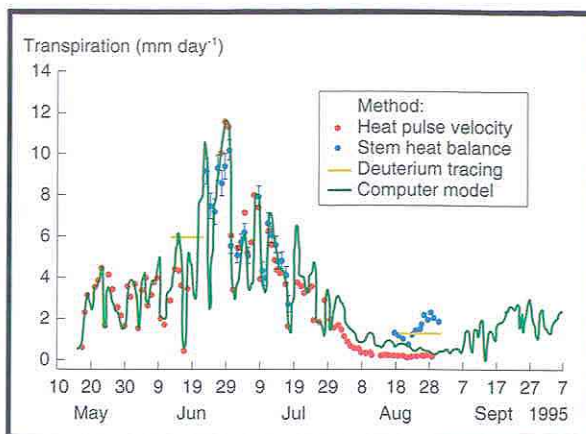


Figure 3. Daily transpiration of poplar SRC, compared with transpiration predicted by a mathematical model

However, in the south east, nitrate concentrations are critically dependent upon the difference between rainfall and evaporation. Where this difference is less than about 150 mm, even for low rates of nitrate leaching, concentrations of nitrate in the water draining beneath SRC could reach the limit for drinking water.

In the light of these effects, it would be wise for extensive plantation of SRC to be in the wetter parts of the country where its high water consumption will not have potentially serious consequences for the water resources. In these areas, and where the solar radiation is not limiting, high yields would be expected.

In drier parts of the country only a small proportion of a catchment should carry short rotation coppice

Contact: Robin Hall

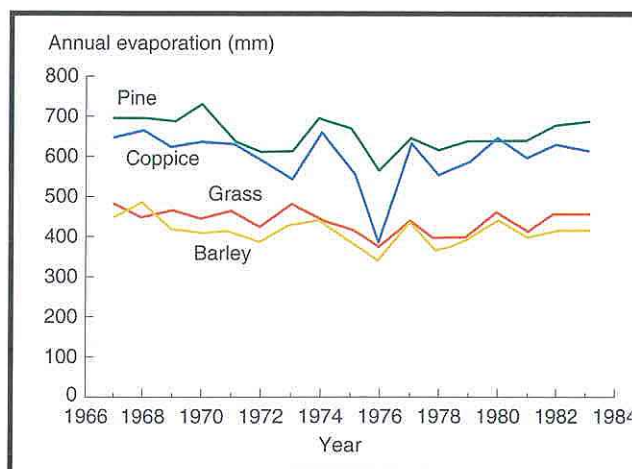
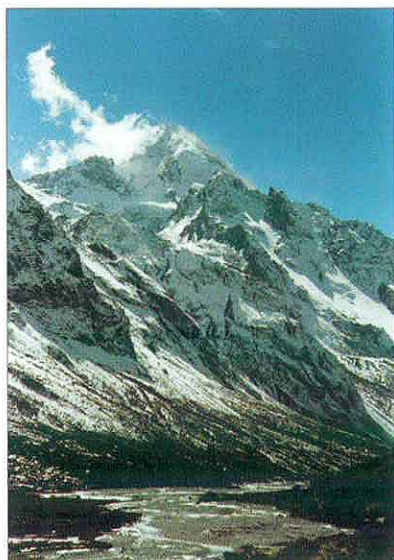


Figure 4. Model estimates of annual water use of SRC compared to three other land uses



Six major river basins in the Hindu-Kush Himalaya surveyed for major sediment sources and land covers

HIMALAYAN RIVER SEDIMENTS

The main sources of sediment in Himalayan rivers are glacial deposits, landslides and intensively cultivated hillslopes. These sources produce immense volumes of material making river sedimentation one of the major river management problems of the region. Himalayan rivers are important for water supply, hydropower generation and irrigation to the densely populated lowlands. High sediment loads cause problems such as siltation of reservoirs, blockage of river channels, reduction in the quality of water supplies, and degradation of biological habitats.

Sustainable management of Himalayan rivers must incorporate qualitative and quantitative understanding of sediment regimes. This requires a detailed knowledge of the rate of sediment supply, the characteristic size and shape of the sediment particles, hillslope and channel sediment storage and the downstream transport of particles.

The characteristics of coarse sediment in channel deposits and the suspended sediment concentrations are related to the source area and the transport processes into, and along, the rivers. First- and second-order tributaries link source areas and the river network while the main rivers provide the transport route from the mountains to the lowlands. The characteristics of the sediments in these locations indicate the dominant sediment sources and the down-river transport rates.

Surveys of coarse sediments (>11 mm) in tributary streams have been undertaken in six river basins from the Pindar in NW India to the Tamur in eastern Nepal. In each

basin the surveys extended from the intensively farmed Middle Mountains to the glaciers of the High Himalaya. The logistics of working in these remote regions can be difficult but even so 151 streams were surveyed, generating a unique data base.

These measurements show that regional influences predominate, with lesser impacts exercised by geology and land-use within the catchments. This reflects the regional contrast in precipitation regime, with the monsoon more intense and of longer duration in the east but more snowfall occurring in the west. Orographic effects also produce regional variations with areas of high rainfall on the southern facing, lower slopes of the major mountain massifs. The higher rainfall regions have greater river flows which increase sediment transport in the rivers. This explains the more mobile, but better sorted, deposits with larger and more rounded particles found in the eastern regions.

Sediment surveys were also undertaken along two major Himalayan rivers, Upper Ganges (NW India) and Trisuli (central Nepal) from the piedmont zone to the glaciers. The size and shape of particles were measured at regular intervals down the rivers in addition to systematic surveys of the sediments on individual bars and the micro-topography of the deposits.

Similar downstream trends in the size, roundness and sorting of the sediments were identified in both rivers but major impacts were more obvious where landslides occur. The micro-topography changes, with landslide deposits losing their fluvial lens shapes and becoming a chaotic mass of sediment. Bench forms eventually develop as the river attempts to become re-established.

The results from these surveys explain the characteristics of sediment deposits found in tributaries and show the processes of downstream transport in the main rivers. River basin models are being developed to link the tributaries to the main river, to estimate sediment loads and the likely changes resulting from future environmental change.

Contact: Dick Johnson

IMPACT OF PARTICULATE OUTPUTS ASSOCIATED WITH TIMBER HARVESTING IN THE UK

Increased river sediment yields associated with forestry are likely to be particularly significant during harvesting. Extensive tree planting took place in the UK during the 20 years after the Second World War, with many forests now reaching maturity. This makes it important to understand the dynamics of particulate outputs arising from modern timber harvesting practices to avoid potential adverse impacts.

The long-term record of sediment fluxes within the IH experimental catchments at Plynlimon provided the foundation for a research project, commissioned by the Environment Agency, to investigate the impact of particulate outputs associated with timber harvesting. The existing monitoring network was intensified to encompass typical harvesting operations used in England and Wales, which normally involve the felling of 10-15 ha plots using a range of methods depending on specific site conditions. Previous investigations at Plynlimon, following the felling of a large proportion of a sub-catchment,

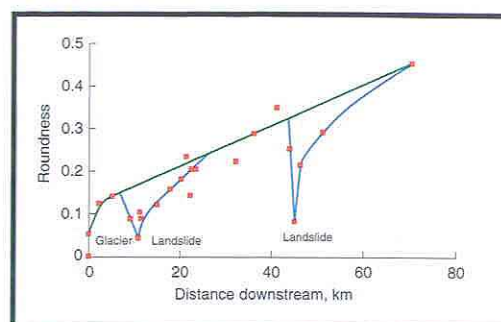
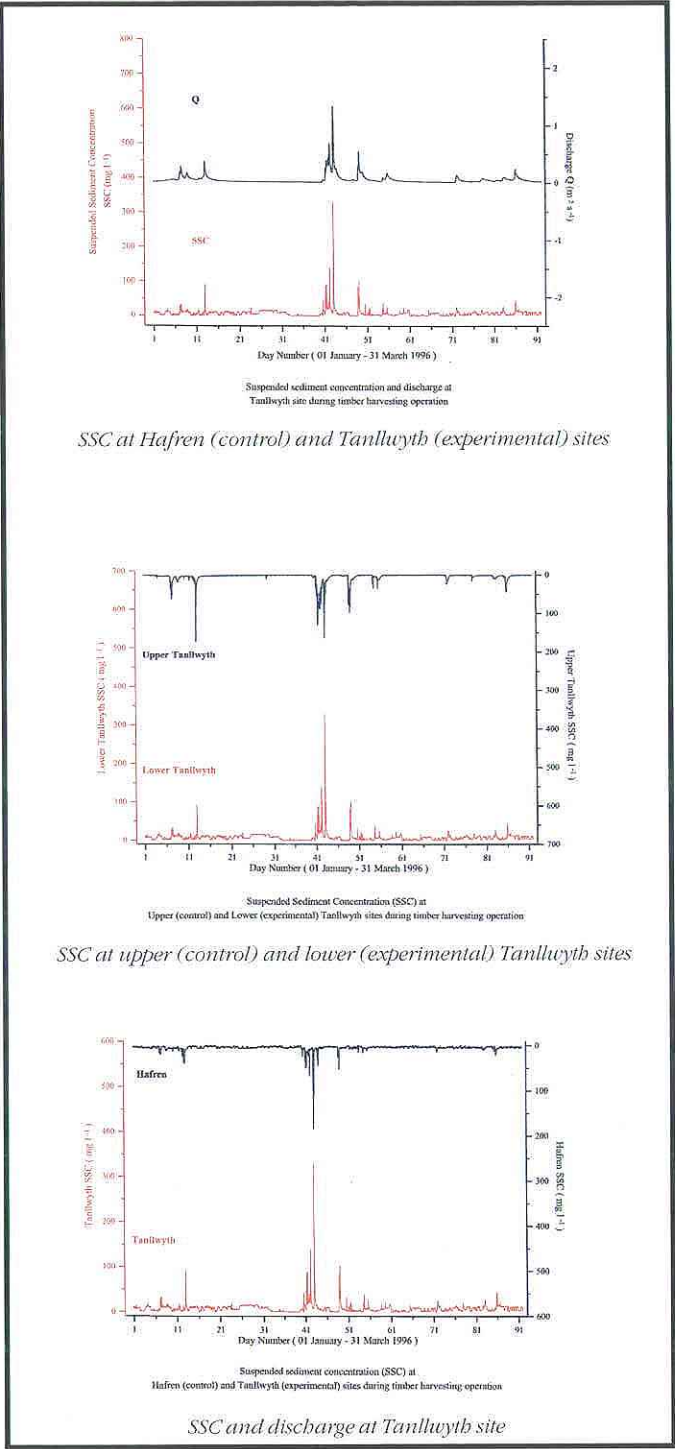


Figure 5. Downstream gradient of sediment roundness in the River Pindar (NW India)

needed to be expanded since that particular operation was not typical of modern forestry practice.

The main study site for this project was a 13 ha plot in the Nant Tanllwyth catchment. Suspended sediment concentrations were monitored continuously at a number of experimental and control sites using WISER (Wallingford Integrated System for Environmental monitoring in Rivers) incorporating turbidity measurement and automatic sample collection. In parallel, a detailed record was built up of the harvesting operation (Jan-June 1996) involving three separate techniques appropriate to the variable site conditions.

Suspended sediment yields for 1995 and 1996 increased by 83% (from 24 to 44 t km² y⁻¹) in the felled Tanllwyth catchment but by only 44% (from 16 to 23 t km² y⁻¹) in the adjacent Hafren catchment which, although afforested, was not influenced by harvesting operations. During 1996, the average suspended sediment concentration in the Nant Tanllwyth above and below the harvesting site was 4 and 9 mg l⁻¹ respectively, while at control sites on the upper and lower Hafren the average suspended sediment concentrations were 5 and 7 mg l⁻¹ respectively. These results indicate enhanced particulate outputs associated with the felling operation. Intensive site investigations have identified the main sources of this material. Other work has



SSC at Hafren (control) and Tanllwyth (experimental) sites

SSC at upper (control) and lower (experimental) Tanllwyth sites

SSC and discharge at Tanllwyth site

Figure 6. Suspended sediment concentrations (SSC) during timber harvesting at Plynlimon sites



Specialist machinery designed for use in erosion sensitive areas can be used to remove timber debris from upland river channels with minimum disturbance of the bed.

concentrated on bed-load yields, impacts on gravel composition and the development of methods for rapid physical impact assessment.

Causes and mechanisms of the particulate outputs associated with timber harvesting identified by this intensive research programme at Plynlimon are supported by additional investigations at other harvesting sites to give a broad view upon which to base recommendations for prevention, amelioration and assessment of these impacts.

Contact: Graham Leeks

COMBINING HYDRO-ECOLOGICAL, AGRICULTURAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC MODELLING (CHASM)

Data from Zimbabwe have been used to demonstrate the rationale for improving benefits assessment and evaluation procedures for rural water supply projects. Most rural water supply projects are evaluated using cost-effectiveness analysis. This means that some sort of target is set (for example, supply x households with water, or construct y boreholes in this area), then the cost to the public agency of meeting this objective is sought. The costs are then compared and a particular option is selected.

The principal weakness of cost effectiveness analysis, particularly in the appraisal of water projects, is that only an indirect evaluation of project benefits is made. CHASM analyses are identifying and attempting to quantify the many extended benefits, market-multiplier effects and non-market or environmental benefits that rural water supply projects often provide, but which are usually left out of the appraisal process. Ultimately, this research will provide the theoretical framework for an improved evaluation of the benefits of enhanced water supply. By matching the economic value of the different benefits of rural water supply projects decision makers will be able to choose a rural water supply option that provides maximum benefits to the community given existing cost constraints.

Similar research is under way in conjunction with the natural resource economists at ICARDA (International Centre for

Agricultural Research in Dry Areas) in Syria. This initiative has been looking at ways of identifying and quantifying the multiple productive uses that small amounts of water are put to, often "informally" within households in dry areas, to enhance fresh water and income security at the household level.

The CHASM project has also reviewed research on modelling the interaction of the physical, social and economic processes which influence the use and management of natural resources. This review led to the identification of Bayesian Belief Networks (BBNs) as a modelling approach to facilitate interdisciplinary data analysis. A preliminary assessment of the potential of BBNs using data from case studies in the UK and in dryland areas has confirmed that this approach can overcome many of the problems that have beset integrated modelling in the past. BBNs allow variables representing system behaviour to be formally linked even if their relationships are uncertain or ill-defined. Models can then be developed and tested even when the relationship between physical and socio-economic dynamics is poorly understood or when the only understanding is expert opinion.

Contact: Dominic Waughbray

CEH scientists are developing methodologies to improve the integration of physical and economic research

Adequate supplies of fresh water are essential to meet public, industrial and agricultural demands and to maintain freshwater ecosystems. The Institute's research in this area seeks to provide an understanding of the main controls on the temporal and spatial variability of both the quantity and quality of freshwater resources. Further to this process-level understanding, the Institute aims to build predictive models capable of decision and planning support at the whole catchment scale.

Freshwater resources

**GLOBAL WATER
SCARCITY: AFRICAN
CASE STUDY**

Adequate supplies of fresh water are essential to support all aspects of human life. Society uses water in many ways: domestically for hygiene and food preparation, in industry, in agriculture, for transport and energy production. Global water consumption has increased sevenfold since the beginning of the 20th century and, as the demand continues to grow, it is vitally important that this precious resource is safeguarded from future over-exploitation.

Many national statistics give an illusion of abundant fresh water supplies. However, water resources are not evenly distributed and often the local demand for water exceeds the local availability of the resource. National figures tend to mask problems of water stress which

occur frequently in areas of high population and/or low precipitation.

The Institute has been investigating spatial variability of water resources to determine indicators of water stress. Innovative - yet practical - methods have been derived for illustrating the local availability of water. By representing the annual, or seasonal, water resources on a grid basis, other spatial data sets such as land-use or urbanisation, can be used to derive indicators of water stress. Combined with digital elevation data, the grids can also be used to model the accumulation of flow within a river's natural drainage system. Such information not only enables the water resource to be calculated at any location but also provides a method for estimating the resource at regional or national scale. The example illustrated opposite is from Africa but IH has also

applied the methodology in Europe.

Decision makers and planners need to identify countries or regions most at risk from the socio-economic disruption resulting from water scarcity, or those areas which are likely to experience water scarcity in the future. To help this process, the Institute has worked with the British Geological Survey and designed user-friendly software to display results. The basic approach relies on a 0.5° by 0.5° grid which allows the spatial variability in both the availability of water and the demands for water to be represented. This differs from most previous studies which have often only examined country-wide aggregates of resources and demand. Several global datasets at this grid resolution are now available, providing some of the input data needed, with the possibility of extension to worldwide coverage.

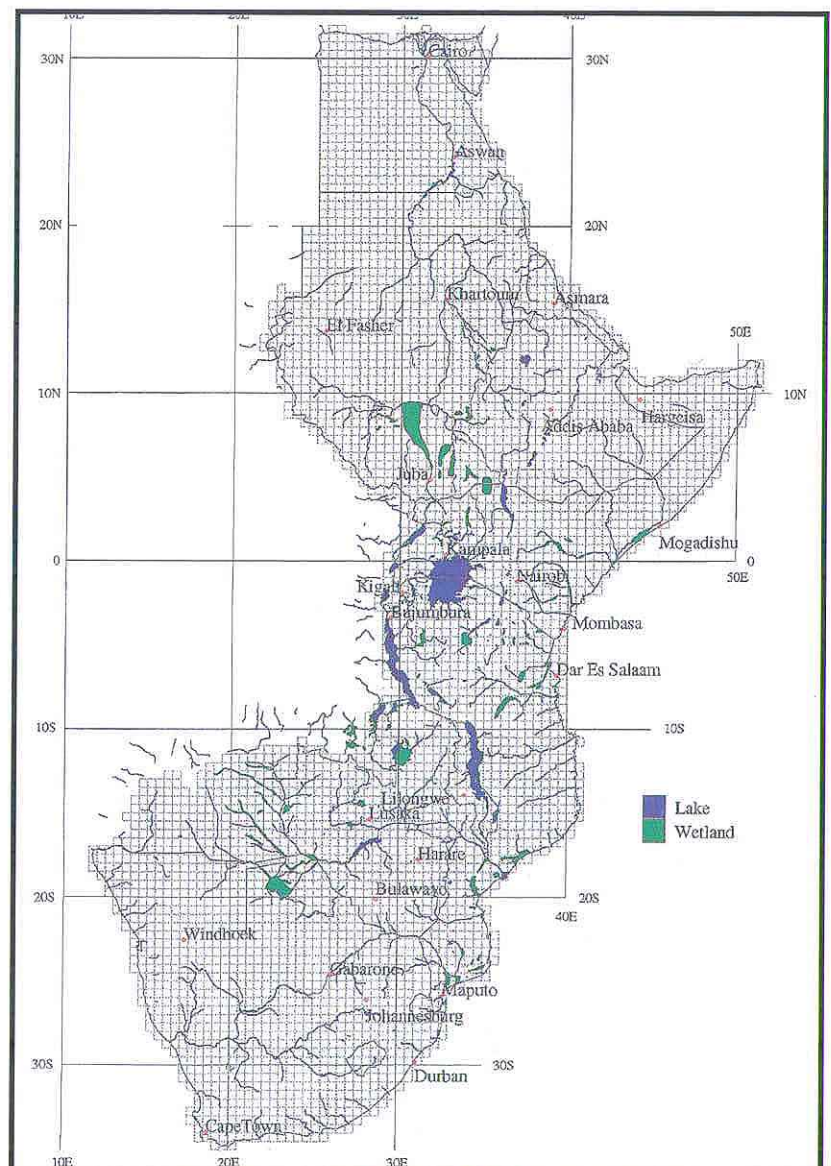
The approach includes the following key elements:

- A consistent methodology is applied in each grid cell, across all countries and regions.
- The individual grid cells are linked to model the flow patterns of the natural drainage basins. The drainage basin is the logical unit for examining resources, allowing problems of transfers between countries sharing the same basin to be considered.
- Within each grid cell the surface water resources are assessed using the Institute's PDM rainfall-runoff model. Both the locally-generated runoff and that arriving from

upstream are considered. Seasonal and year-to-year variations in the surface water flows are taken into account to assess the amount of water which is actually available for use at a given level of reliability. The effects of lakes, reservoirs and wetlands and of water consumed and return flows are included in assessing the surface water availability.

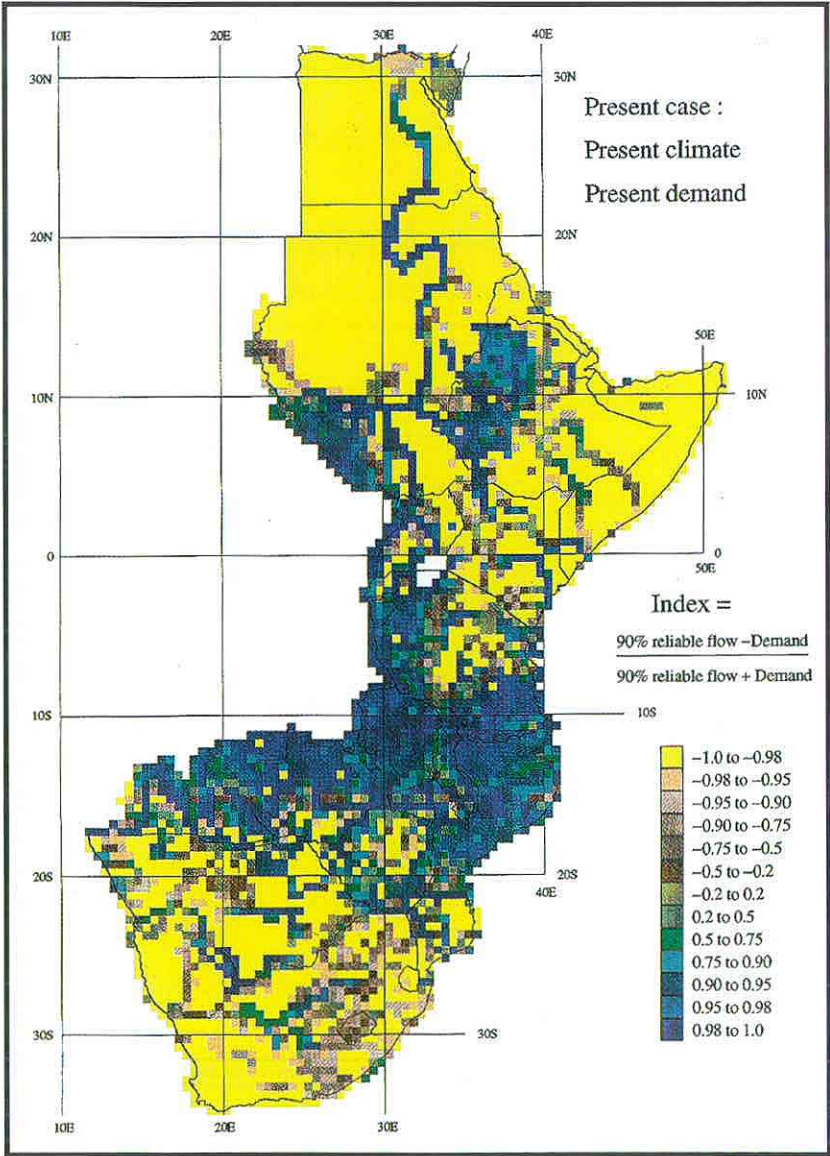
- Groundwater availability in each grid cell, taking into account water quality, is also assessed and added to the surface water availability to provide an estimate of the total water availability for the cell.

Figure 7. Main hydrological features of the area studied, together with the grid squares used in the model



- Water demands, including those for human and livestock consumption, industry and irrigation, are assessed and compared to the water availability for the cell to derive a series of indices of water abundance or scarcity for each grid cell.
- Factors such as population growth, urbanisation, economic development and climate change are putting increasing stress on water resources. The model allows the examination of a range of scenarios of change, or combinations of scenarios, to

Figure 8. Example of results for a water availability index based on surface flow reliability and estimated current demands



estimate the magnitude of possible future water resources problems.

- The results are presented in a geographical information system, with user-friendly software providing a visual index of water surplus or scarcity in different regions.

Initially, the method has been tested on a major portion of eastern and southern Africa (Figure xx). It includes 20 countries and parts of four others in an area representing about half of the continent. Figure xx shows an example of the output. This particular index compares the estimated water requirements in each grid square under present conditions with flows of a given reliability (90%). As might be expected, the index suggests that current demands cannot be met from surface flows alone across major parts of eastern and southern Africa, except near to major rivers and in the equatorial region and the Ethiopian Highlands.

Contacts: Gwyn Rees,
Frank Farquharson

GROUNDWATER RECHARGE IN CENTRAL SPAIN

Groundwater levels have fallen drastically (up to 35 m) in the La Mancha region of Spain since the 1970s due to increasing abstraction for irrigation. The Guadiana river and the Tablas de Daimiel groundwater discharge wetland have dried up, despite measures to reduce abstraction. The situation had been exacerbated by a series of years with below average rainfall and the management of the

groundwater resource is hampered by a lack of knowledge of the annual recharge.

Under the framework of EFEDA II (European Field Experiment in a Desertification-threatened Area) in collaboration with the Complutense University of Madrid and the University of Castilla-La-Mancha, the water balance method was used to study recharge at two agricultural sites - Tomelloso (dry farmed arable and vineyard) and Barrax (dry farmed and irrigated arable). The soils have a very hard caliche layer at about 0.8 m and special methods were required to obtain profile water content and soil water potential measurements using a neutron probe and tensiometers to a depth of 9m. Observations were made for one year through to August 1995. At Barrax, a specially designed borehole tensiometer was used to measure water potential at depths of 2.6 m to 11.6 m.

Over the study period, the rainfall totals at the Tomelloso and Barrax sites were 143 mm and 169 mm respectively, only 33% and 48% of the long term averages of 427 and 354 mm. As a result, there was no infiltration below 0.6 m on the dry farmed plots, and no recharge. However, in years with more 'normal' rainfall, some of the water infiltrating will reach the caliche layer at 0.6 - 1 m depth where it will percolate through cracks and fissures to depths beyond the reach of the roots of annual crops, and become recharge. The total evaporation from the vineyard was only 121 mm during the course of the study, showing that vines can produce a yield even while using remarkably little water. The soil between the vines is cultivated frequently, creating a mulch which reduces soil evaporation and minimises transpiration losses from

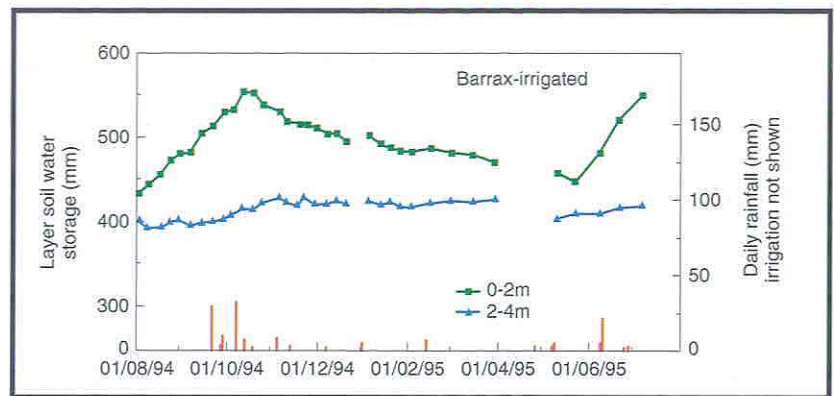


Figure 8. Soil water storage in the 0-2 m and 2-4 m layers

weeds. Recharge is much more likely beneath well managed (weed free) vineyards than from beneath annual, or forage crops, which have higher transpiration rates because of their greater overall leaf area. In contrast to the roots of annual crops, vine roots penetrate the hard caliche layers, but the observed rates of water uptake were very low.

As a result of irrigation in the summers of 1994 and 1995, there were large increases in storage in the 0-2 m layer and evidence of drainage to below 4 m depth. During 1994, the storage increase below the root zone (0.6 m) was 110 mm, indicating excessive application of irrigation water. The very deep wetting of the profile as a result of irrigation was confirmed by the profiles of total hydraulic potential shown in Figure 5 for the period 2 May to 27 July 1995. There is clearly scope for reducing water use through improved irrigation scheduling methods. The introduction of drip irrigation could also lead to large water savings, particularly if driplines were buried.

Investigating recharge in dry areas of Spain shows potential for saving valuable irrigation water.

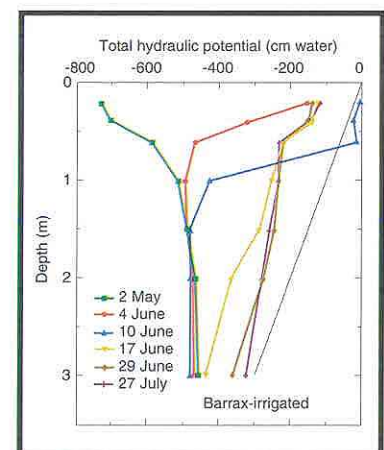


Figure 9. Profiles of total hydraulic potential following the start of irrigation in 1995. Ponding was observed on the caliche layer on 10 June.

Contact: Ragab Ragab

Modern computing systems and recently developed software allow synergistic application of large UK river flow and quality databases for the systematic calculation of 'best' river mass load estimates

ESTIMATION OF ANNUAL RIVER MASS LOADS

Hydrochemical and sediment budgets are key diagnostic tools at a wide range of scales, from small upland catchments, through lowland catchments and estuaries, to coastal waters, shallow seas and beyond. IH has investigated the usefulness of existing national databases in providing information on pollutant fluxes, or river mass loads.

The Harmonised Monitoring Scheme (HMS) aims to fulfil the UK's obligation, as signatory to the Oslo and Paris Conventions, to monitor river pollutant loads entering the sea and to identify long-term trends. Each year, the former Department of the Environment collated river flows and determinand concentrations and stored the data in the HMS database, and reported to the Oslo and Paris Commissions who monitor the land-based discharges of contaminants to the North Sea.

Recent inspection of the HMS database revealed that, since 1988, fewer daily mean flows had been returned than in previous years (see Figure 10). As part of a DETR-commissioned study, the HMS database was enhanced with

daily mean flow data from the National River Flow Archive which IH maintains as one of the major components of the National Water Archive at Wallingford.

Previous work had confirmed that an estimation algorithm which uses additional information from a continuous flow record often gives more precise river mass load estimates than when the HMS database is used in isolation.

For the coastal zones and determinands listed in Box 1, and using special software, the DETR-funded study enabled — for the first time — the systematic estimation of river mass loads from the synergistic application of the NRFA and HMS national databases.

An important aspect of the quality of a time series of aggregated annual river loads for a group of catchments is its temporal consistency. Where the data from a set of catchments for a coastal zone changes through time, or where the number of concentration or flow values is too low in a given year for a reasonable estimate to be made, the annual mass load for a given catchment can be relatively crudely estimated as the product of a mean flow and a mean concentration derived from data for other years or a nearby catchment (Method X).

Figure 11 shows the time series of annual mass loads for inorganic nitrogen aggregated for all 163 near-tidal-limit HMS catchments in Great Britain. The Method X component in this case is modest and does not vary much from year to year, enabling reasonably confident further analysis for trends and relationships with other environmental variables.

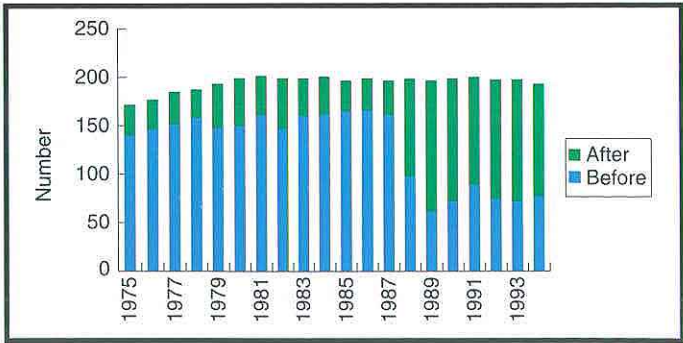


Figure 10. Number of HMS sites with daily mean flows on the HMS database before and after enhancement from the NRFA

Box 1 Coastal zones and selected determinands

<i>Coastal zones:</i>	Atlantic, Irish Sea, Celtic Sea, English Channel and North Sea	
<i>Determinands:</i>	Suspended solids	Cadmium (dissolved and suspended)
	Ammoniacal-N ($\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$)	Copper (dissolved and suspended)
	Nitrite-N ($\text{NO}_2\text{-N}$)	Lead (dissolved and suspended)
	Nitrate-N ($\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$)	Total mercury
	Total nitrogen ($\text{NH}_3\text{-N} + \text{NO}_3\text{-N} + \text{NO}_2\text{-N}$)	Nickel (dissolved and suspended)
	Orthophosphate ($\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$)	Zinc (dissolved and suspended)
	Total phosphorus	Arsenic (dissolved and suspended)
	Gamma-HCH (Lindane)	

Unfortunately, the quality of mass load time series for some of the other HMS determinands is not so good. For example, for determinands where a relatively high proportion of concentrations are recorded as 'less than' values, estimates of mass loads can be very uncertain and further analysis, e.g. for trends, is probably not worthwhile.

Furthermore, the number of HMS samples can be small (e.g. less than 12 per year) or seasonally biased, leading to annual mass load estimates for a particular site which may be grossly in error. For some combinations of (i) aggregations of HMS catchments and (ii) determinand, the Method X component can be large and very

variable between years, making further analysis difficult.

Work is under way to investigate relationships between river mass loads and other environmental factors, such as climate, land-use and atmospheric deposition, using the HMS and other databases. The quality of river mass load estimates derived from river flow and quality measurement networks and databases provides a useful focus for assessing the adequacy with which the objectives of such networks and databases are being met.

Contact: Ian Littlewood

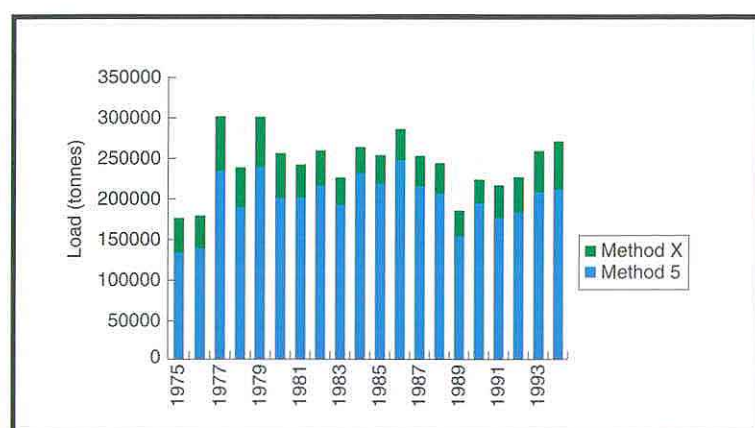


Figure 11. Annual total inorganic nitrogen load ($(\text{NH}_3\text{-N} + \text{NO}_3\text{-N} + \text{NO}_2\text{-N})$) from HMS catchments (Great Britain), 1975-1994

Biodiversity is a measure of the variability of genes, species and ecosystems. High variability is essential to support the ecological processes which keep the planet fit for life, providing our food, water to drink, air to breathe, medicines and much of what we call "quality of life". Understanding of biodiversity is required to build sound national and international policies on ecosystem conservation and the sustainable use of natural resources. Part of the CEH Biodiversity Programme is focusing on the way the hydrology of wetlands responds to improvement management.

Biodiversity

Wetlands are an important genetic reservoir for many plants, invertebrates and birds

DAMBO PROCESSES INTEGRATION EXPERIMENT

Seasonally inundated wetlands, known as dambos in southern Africa, play a significant role in the regional hydrological cycle. They are a vital water reserve for many small-scale farmers, sustaining agriculture during the periods of drought that occur frequently in this part of the world. The Dambo Processes Integration Experiment is a three-year study to quantify

the hydrological processes occurring within dambos in Zimbabwe and to understand their influence on downstream flow regimes, particularly how these regions might be affected by their utilisation for agriculture. Measurements show that, on average, 90% of annual rainfall is lost from the study catchment through evaporation. Preliminary results suggest that dry season evaporation losses from the centre of the dambo exceed those from the wooded upslope regions because throughout the dry season the water-table is maintained closer to the soil surface in the valley bottom.



Monitoring water level changes in a dambo wetland, Zimbabwe

PEVENSEY LEVELS, SUSSEX

The Pevensey Levels, near Eastbourne in Sussex, are a wetland of international ecological value and has an English Nature pilot Wildlife Enhancement Scheme, which encourages farmers

to adopt environmentally friendly practices, including maintenance of high ditch water levels. University College London, supported by the Environment Agency and the Institute, is researching the hydrological functioning of the Levels to determine the sustainability of such water management strategies. Data on rainfall, drainage pumping rates, energy fluxes and evaporation, river flows and groundwater levels have been used to model the water balance of the Levels. The data will be used to determine the hydrological consequences of various water management scenarios and the effects of climate change.

IUCN FRESHWATER POLICY FOR WETLAND CONSERVATION

Founded in 1948, the International Union for Conservation of Nature is a union of some 900 States, government agencies and a diverse range of non-governmental organisations from 136 countries. A key component of IUCN is its Wetlands Conservation Programme, which coordinates a range of field projects in Latin America, Africa and Asia. From 1993-1995, IH provided a Freshwater Management Advisor, based in Switzerland, to ensure that IUCN activities concerned with the conservation, management and sustainable use of freshwater ecosystems and their biodiversity were scientifically and technically sound and based on interdisciplinary cooperation. We continue to provide technical assistance in the development of IUCN policy on freshwater and river basin management.

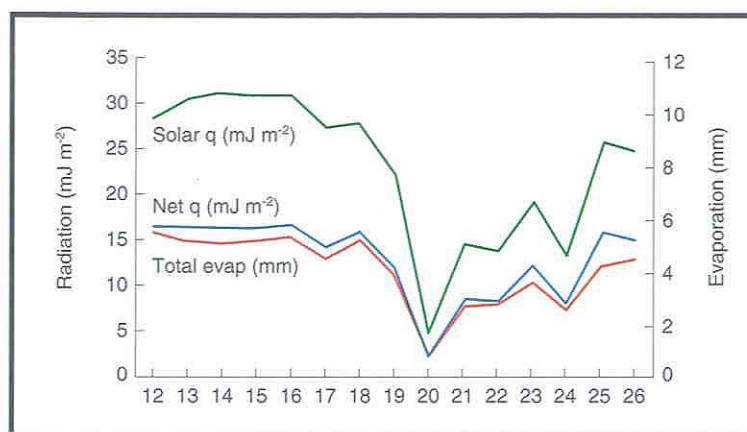


Figure 12. Energy flux, Pevensey Levels, June 1996

ECONOMIC VALUATION OF WETLANDS

Today, most development decisions are made on economic grounds. Hence the goods and services provided by wetlands must be given a quantitative value if wetland conservation is to be considered along with alternative uses of the land itself or the water which feeds the wetland. For many products, such as fish or timber, there is a world market which allows easy calculation of worth of the wetland. The value of a particular wetland function, such as water quality improvement, may be calculated from the cost of building a treatment works to perform the same processes. However, it is much more difficult to value the aesthetic beauty of wetlands as no market exists.

In developing countries the global benefits of wetland conservation are often overlooked unless mechanisms, such as debt-for-nature swaps are involved. To address these problems, the Institute, in collaboration with the University of York, has produced a guide for planners and decision makers on the economic valuation of wetlands for the Ramsar* Convention.

Contact: Mike Acreman

Conflicts between human and ecological needs from wetlands can only be resolved through better understanding of their hydrological behaviour

*Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, signed at Ramsar, Iran, in 1971.

The continuing requirement for legislation, at national and international level, to protect the natural environment and human health from anthropogenic pollutants must be underpinned by an understanding of the sources, movement and fate of pollutants in natural ecosystems. Since water provides the key pollutant transport vector, water quality studies at IH are central to this CEH programme. The wide range of pollutants of current concern dictates that studies are conducted in uplands and lowlands but must be considered at a catchment scale to provide for sustainable and integrated management.

Pollution assessment and control

Studies on acidic and acid-sensitive spruce forest at Plynlimon, mid-Wales, show water quality impacts are relatively short-lived... concern still remains over long-term loss of calcium

THE EFFECTS OF TREE HARVESTING ON STREAM WATER QUALITY

There has been much concern within the water industry over the combined effects of acid deposition and conifer plantation on stream water quality in upland Britain. Certain areas receive very high loads of acidic pollutants from industrial emissions. This deposition is enhanced by aerodynamically rough forest canopies which can increase the capture of acid pollutants by up to 90%. Many of these forests, planted in the 1940s, are now reaching maturity and are ready to be-harvested. Harvesting may eliminate the enhanced capture of pollutants but it also disrupts the

cycling of nutrients between the soil and forest biomass and may generate nitric acid, which may in turn lead to stream acidification and aluminium leaching with detrimental effects on stream ecology. On a decadal time scale, modelling predictions suggest further deterioration in stream water quality due to the uptake of base cations by the forest biomass. Tree felling and replanting operations are set to expand over the next decade and the need to assess and limit their impact on water quality has become urgent.

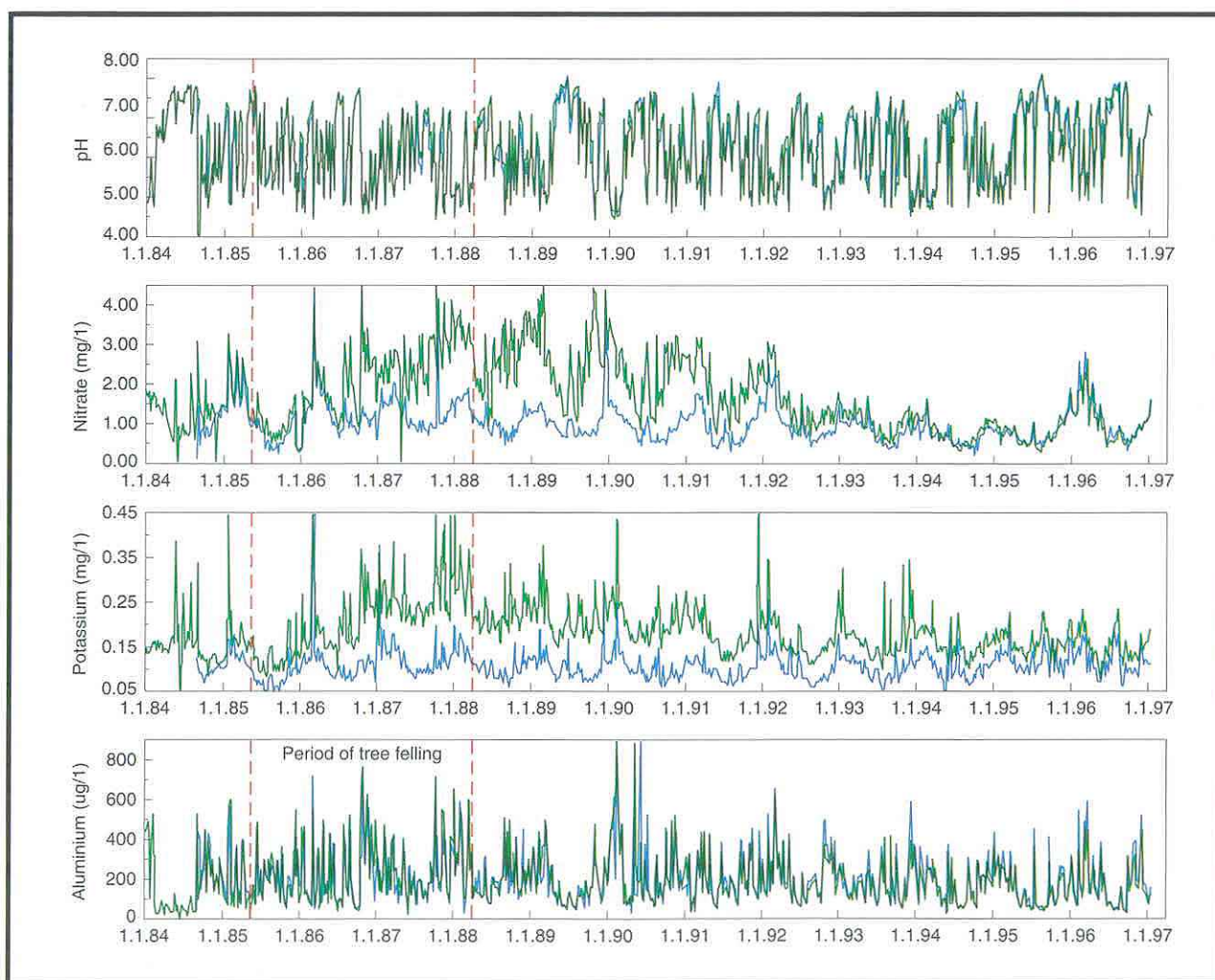
In conjunction with ITE Bangor, IH have been assessing the implications of conifer harvesting and replanting on upland stream water quality in a study centred on the experimental catchments at

Plynlimon, mid-Wales. The aim is to identify 'best practice' management strategies and develop a model and guidelines for environmental impact assessment. The programme is half-way to completion and emphasis remains on the measurement of variations in water quality with felling and replanting for a wide range of major, minor and trace elements. Over the past year monitoring has followed three approaches:

- Long-term weekly sampling of rainfall, cloud water and the main streams draining the upper River Severn. This provides a long term perspective on changes in pollutant inputs and stream water chemistry and sets a

context against which to assess chemical variation at other sites with shorter records. In the Afon Hore, for example, tree-felling-induced nutrient releases to the stream (Figure 1) declined to background levels within five years of felling; there was no significant stream acidification associated with this period. At other sites, where soil water is a major component of flow, a depression in pH and increased aluminium concentrations have been observed. The gradual decline in amplitude of winter peaks in nitrate concentration in the Upper Hore is caused by the accumulating drought from summer 1992 until the drought-breaking storms of

Figure 13. Long-term stream chemistry data from two sites on the Afon Hore at Plynlimon showing the effects of major tree harvesting on pH, nitrate, potassium and aluminium. The orange trace is for samples collected downstream of the felled area while the blue trace shows data for water draining the area upstream of the felling.



Slow transport of pesticides by matrix flow suggests significant quantities may reach groundwater 10-30 years after application

autumn 1995. The wetting-up of the catchment in late 1995 and re-activation of nitrifying bacteria results in the observed large winter peak in nitrate concentration.

- Surface runoff from small ephemeral streams and groundwater from a series of associated boreholes have been monitored at felling and control sites on soils characteristic of upland areas (podzols, gleys and brown earths). Recent data show nitrate and potassium release in surface runoff as a consequence of felling at both the gley and podzol sites. For the gley site, there have been very large increases in dissolved organic carbon (+15 mg l⁻¹), nitrate (+8 mg NO₃ l⁻¹, potassium +3 mg l⁻¹), ammonium and phosphate (+1 mg l⁻¹ each). For the podzol, the main changes are for nitrate (+11 mg NO₃ l⁻¹) and potassium (+0.4 mg l⁻¹). There is little evidence of chemical change in the groundwaters, except for the podzol site where a modest increase in nitrate has been observed.

- A broad regional survey has been undertaken of 65 upland streams in Wales draining felled and mature forest sites on a spectrum of soil types under both storm and baseflow conditions. Preliminary analysis of the 375 samples collected to date demonstrates the great variability in water quality from site to site and between the main soil types: brown earth sites appear to 'leak' the most nitrate. The results do, however, suggest that sites felled between six months and three years prior to sampling have elevated concentrations of the nutrients nitrate, potassium and phosphate compared to other sites.

The absence of an increase in acidity or a significant increase in the leaching of aluminium with tree harvesting for the Hore, small streams and regional survey sites is encouraging. It would appear that although nutrient cycling within the forest system is interrupted and promotes leakage of nitrate from the soil, any release of hydrogen ions into the stream-waters and/or release of aluminium is overcome by the concentration of base-rich groundwaters to the main streams.

The results indicate that the effects of forest felling and replanting on less than the decadal scale are relatively short-lived and the water quality changes are probably not a major cause for environmental concern. Questions still remain over the long term sustainability of upland forestry, given the loss of calcium. These issues demand continued monitoring of forest ecosystems and the questions raised may only be fully addressed once second rotation plantations are well established.

Contact: Colin Neal

PESTICIDES IN THE CHALK AQUIFER

Concerns over groundwater contamination by pesticides have led to the implementation of a joint Institute of Hydrology/British Geological Survey field study. This study has focused on the fate and behaviour of herbicides applied to wheat fields overlying the chalk aquifer of Hampshire to discover if pesticides reach the chalk aquifer and if so, by what process and in what concentrations?

There is recent evidence that a small proportion of herbicide does transverse the soil layer and enter the chalk above the water table. Laboratory sorption and degradation studies have shown little potential for pesticide concentrations in the

chalk to decline: hence herbicide which escapes the soil horizon is likely to eventually reach the groundwater.

Monitoring groundwater through boreholes and sampling chalk pore water by shallow coring shows that the herbicides studied moved through the chalk in two ways: preferentially through fissures (bypassing the matrix) and through the fine matrix pores (piston flow). This is consistent with the conceptual view of the chalk aquifer as a dual porosity/permeability system. The matrix route was found to be dominant. Preferential flow to the groundwater only occurred where the water table was close to the soil surface (4-5 m), and then only occasionally for short periods after significant rainfall. By this pathway small quantities of the applied herbicide Chlorotoluron were able to reach the shallow groundwater within 10 days of application. These conclusions were confirmed using a bromide tracer (Figure 14). The almost total recovery of the tracer suggests that although small amounts do move via preferential means, the vast majority is transported within the fine pores of the chalk matrix. In contrast, where the water table was

much deeper (17 m), no pesticides have been detected in the groundwater although they are present in the chalk unsaturated zone above the groundwater.

Hydrological data from the field site confirms the dual water flow hypothesis (Figure 15). At the upper site with a deep water table, chalk hydraulic potentials at 3 m depth responded to rainfall but do not permit fissures or fractures to hold water. Consequently, peak fluxes are delayed as water moves slowly through the chalk matrix. At the lower site with its shallow water table, capillary rise means that the matrix of the chalk above the water table is largely saturated. Therefore hydraulic potentials in response to the same rainfall are less negative and the movement of the peak water flux down the profile is more rapid. Water is thought to move down the surfaces of chalk blocks as thin-film flow since the large fissures/fractures would still not hold water under these tensions. It is calculated that significant pesticide concentrations could reach the groundwater through the chalk matrix between 10 and 30 years after application at this site, depending on the depth to the groundwater.

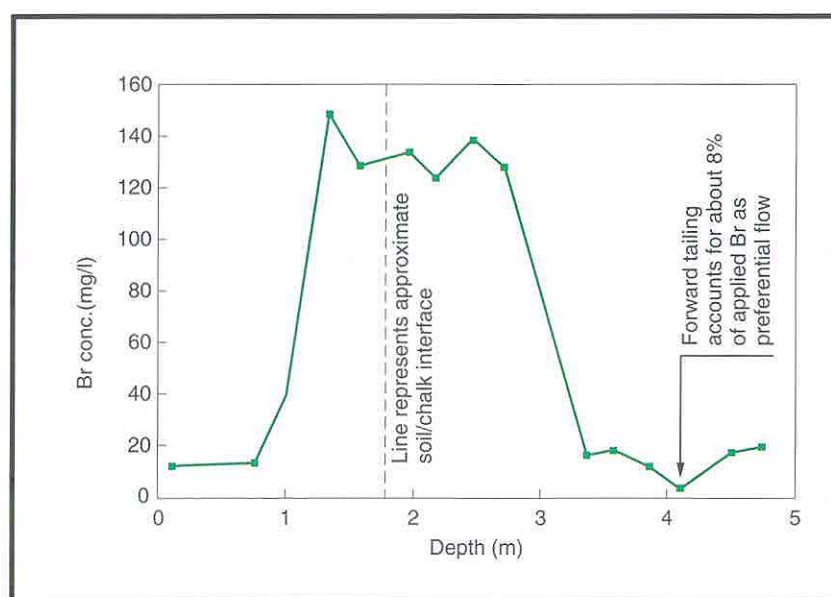


Figure 14. Bromide concentration profile with depth for the lower site

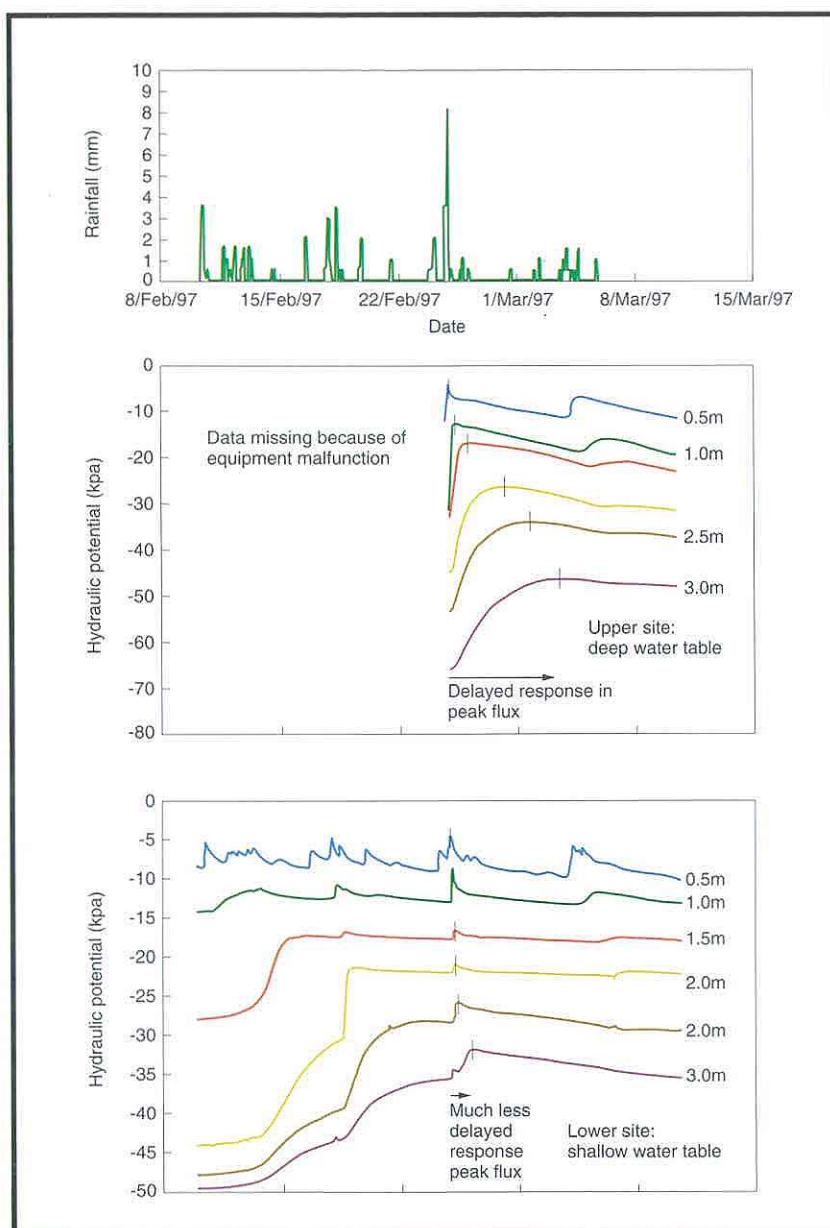


Figure 15. Different flow processes between upper and lower site

Laboratory studies with groundwater samples show that degradation of the pesticide once in the aquifer is spatially and temporally very variable. In addition, incomplete degradation is likely to leave persistent by-products which may remain within the aquifer for many years.

Contact: Atul Haria

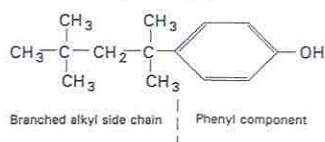
BEHAVIOUR OF OESTROGENIC SUBSTANCES IN RIVERS

The release of oestrogenic compounds (those that turn males into hermaphrodites) into the environment is an issue of increasing concern in the developed world. Several different groups of xenobiotic compounds have been shown to possess an oestrogenic potential. There is still controversy over whether these compounds could be affecting human fertility. There is evidence, however, that fish in British rivers are being affected, as shown by the increase in the proportion of hermaphrodites being found (although it should be noted that fish are always likely to be more sensitive to oestrogen than humans).

A major class of chemical which has been implicated as a likely cause are alkylphenols emanating from some sewage treatment works as by-products of non-ionic surfactants used routinely in industrial and domestic cleaners. Concentrations up to 100 mg l^{-1} have been detected in polluted rivers. In addition, the female steroids themselves, oestradiol and oestrone have been found in sewage effluent. As yet no one knows how these different groups of oestrogenic compounds behave when they enter the freshwater environment. How these compounds persist or partition within the freshwater environment will affect their ecotoxicological impact.

The behaviour of one of these oestrogenic chemicals, octylphenol, in freshwater and sediment samples has been studied at IH and found to have a strong attraction to bed sediments,

4, tertiary-octylphenol



The octylphenol isomer, derived from a commonly used surfactant which acts like oestrogen.

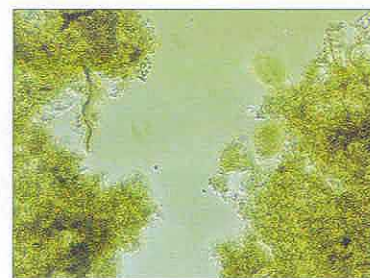
particularly those with a high organic carbon content and small particle size. Being lipophilic, it may enter the food chain by being ingested (along with the sediments) by small benthic organisms, which are themselves eaten by other organisms. Degradation studies have shown octylphenol to be moderately persistent. Figure 16 shows the biodegradation of octylphenol by micro-organisms in a sample of river water from the River Calder (near Wakefield, Yorkshire).

As the residence time of water in many British rivers is not usually longer than seven days, these results indicate that much of the compound would remain intact during its transit down the river. Octylphenol has a strong affinity for the suspended sediments found in the industrial reaches of the Aire and Calder rivers. These

suspended sediments consist largely of aggregates of decaying organic material, very probably originating from the nearby sewage works. It is predicted that high levels of these compounds will concentrate where the sediments settle at low velocity zones in the river. In unpolluted rural river reaches, where the suspended sediments in summer are composed largely of algae, there is much weaker sorption of octylphenol. In these situations most of the compound will remain free in the water.

The results show that when an oestrogenic compound like octylphenol is discharged into a river its behaviour will vary depending on the river type. Much work remains to be done to increase our understanding of this new and critical issue which may threaten the wildlife in our rivers.

Contact: Andrew Johnson



Water from the River Aire (x 100 magnification).

Some compounds are shown to remain largely undegraded in their transport down rivers and may accumulate in sediments

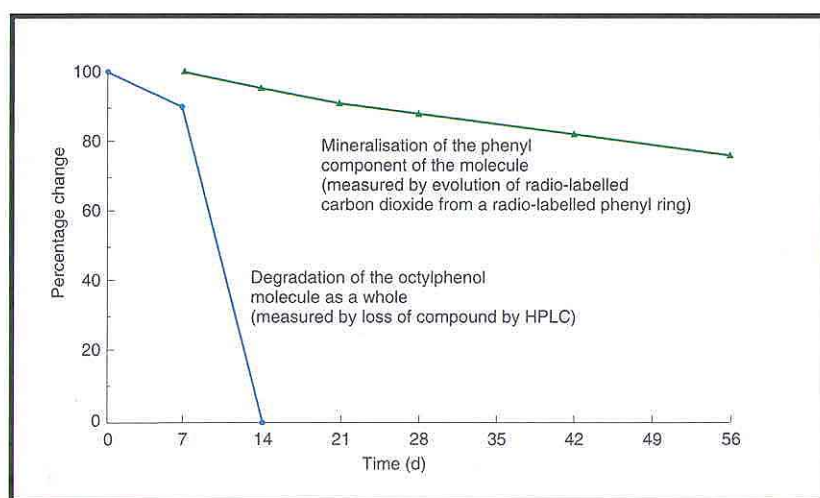


Figure 16. Degradation of the octylphenol molecule in River Calder water incubated at 20°C in the laboratory.

Storm rainfall can culminate at the catchment scale in extreme river flows and the associated risk of flooding and environmental degradation. This risk is related to the spatial and temporal pattern of storm rainfall. Understanding the variation of rainfall, and of its frequency of occurrence, over space and time is thus of fundamental importance to flood hazard assessment.

Environmental risks and extreme events

RAINFALL MAPPING IN UPLAND AREAS

Extreme rainfall frequencies remain the basis on which flood risks are assessed in the UK and elsewhere. Rainfall frequency estimation at IH is based on the analysis of annual maximum rainfall totals of various durations (from 1 hour to 8 days). The index to be mapped across the UK is the median of annual maximum rainfalls at a site, or RMED. This index is used together with the FORGEX rainfall frequency method¹ to provide design rainfall estimates at any location in the UK, as part of the Flood Estimation Handbook research funded by MAFF.

For a given duration, raingauges with at least ten years of record are selected to provide the observed data. For durations of 1, 2, 4 and 8 days, a total of 5591 raingauge records are available

from Great Britain, and 267 from Northern Ireland.

Despite the large number of gauges available for the mapping, their spatial distribution is rather uneven, with high densities in lowland areas but much less in the uplands, especially in Wales and Scotland. Moreover, in Scotland, the gauges are mainly situated in the glens and may not be representative of the mountainous areas. Ordinary mapping methods such as an interpolation technique known as kriging are inadequate.

Topographic information was included in the interpolation to improve the mapping of RMED in upland areas. Rainfall is known to be closely related to topography, particularly in mountainous areas. Topographic variables are calculated from a Met. Office digital terrain model (DTM) which covers Great Britain, complemented in Ireland by an

The objective of this study is to provide improved extreme rainfall estimates at any location in the UK

extract from the US Geological Survey's worldwide DTM.

The mapping method has three steps:

- A regression model is fitted to the observed values of RMED. A four-variable equation was fitted using the gauges in upland areas (south-west England, Wales, north-west England and the Highlands of Scotland). It explains between 57% (RMED-1day) and 75% (RMED-8day) of the variance of RMED in Britain. The variables are: distance to the sea (to the west and south-west directions), average elevation around the raingauge, and "obstruction to the west". The last is an index of the obstruction due to mountains situated to the west. These variables reflect the direction of the prevailing winds (westerly and southwesterly) which bring frontal rainfall to the UK. A different four-variable equation, using the same topographical variables but in different directions, has been fitted to the gauges in Northern Ireland, explaining from 64% (RMED-1day) to 71% (RMED-4day) of the variance.
- At the site of each raingauge, the difference between the regression estimate and the observed RMED (residual) is calculated. The pattern across the country indicates the remaining variability of the rainfall statistic which is not explained by the regression model. This reflects effects such as the rainshadow behind the Grampian mountains in Scotland. Interpolating these residuals (using kriging) gives an estimate of the correction to apply to the regression model

to improve its estimate of RMED.

- The regression estimates are then combined with the interpolated residuals to give a final estimate of RMED for every point on the national 1-km grid. The improvement over ordinary interpolation is particularly noticeable in upland regions, where the effect of relief on rainfall appears on the final map.

Contact: *Christel Prudhomme,*
Duncan Faulkner

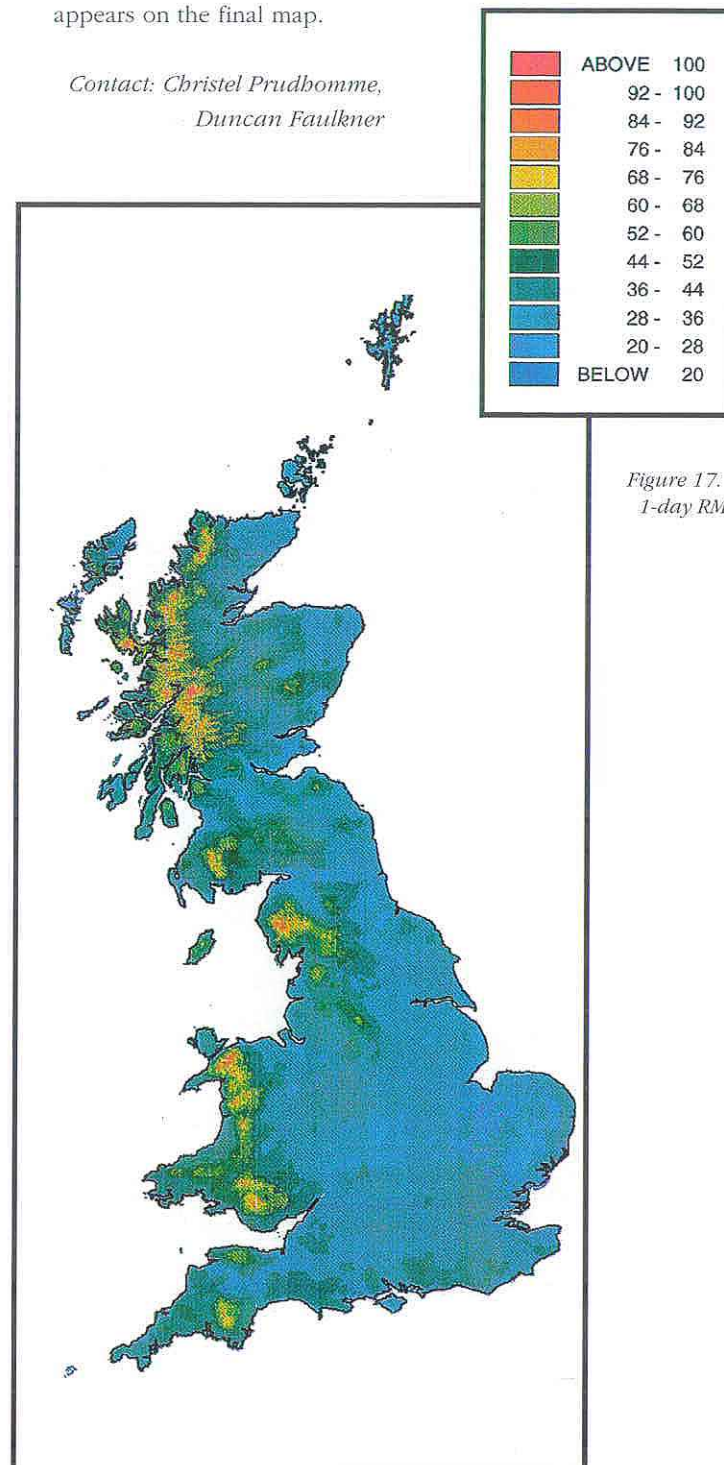


Figure 17. Combined 1-day RMED in mm

It is now accepted that man-made influences, such as emission of greenhouse gasses and land use change, have a profound and global influence on the climate. However, the representation of the earth's surface in climate models remains rudimentary and the incorporation of exchanges of carbon, energy and water, is still in its infancy. In parallel, the interpretation of the climate model output to identify the impact on human and natural systems requires thorough understanding of how these systems work. There is therefore an increasing need for measurements and modelling in the major biomes of the world to develop both the climate models and the impact assessment.

Global change

Certain areas consistently receive more rainfall in any one season than others. Why is this?

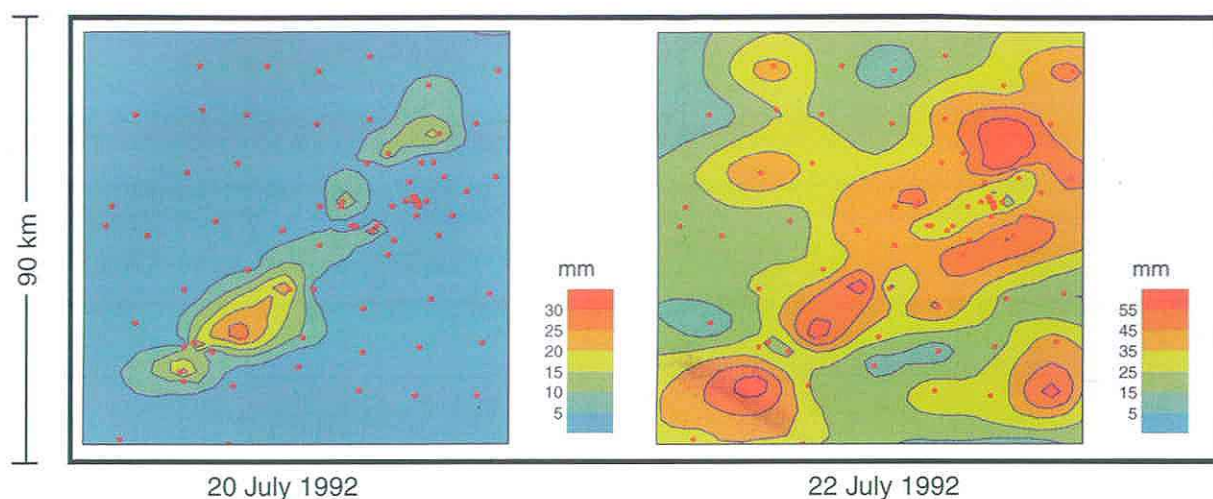
PERSISTENCE OF RAINFALL IN THE SAHEL

In the Sahel, as in all semi-arid regions, soil moisture controls the partition of incoming radiant energy into sensible and latent heat fluxes. Over 50% of rainfall in this region comes from organised convective systems, such as line squalls. Embedded within these systems are individual rain cells which cause considerable variability in rainfall in both time and space. In turn, this variability in rainfall causes spatial inhomogeneity in the soil moisture.

Rainfall observations taken as part of the HAPEX-Sahel study show a remarkable persistence of the spatial patterns of rainfall which can lead to the season's total

rainfall varying by a factor of two over as little as 10 kilometres.

A feedback hypothesis has been proposed to relate the persistence of the rainfall patterns to surface fluxes as the soil dries out after rain. For the first day or two after a rainfall event, evaporation from bare soil is high, and soil albedo and temperature are low. On longer time scales, leaf area develops rapidly in areas of high antecedent rainfall whilst deep soil moisture ensures high rates of transpiration. These effects combine to produce both higher evaporation and net radiation in areas of higher rainfall. As a consequence, variability in sensible heat flux is less than that in evaporation. These horizontal gradients in the surface energy



balance cause marked changes in the humidity in the atmospheric boundary layer above wet and dry areas (confirmed from aircraft observations taken over the region during HAPEX-Sahel).

When meteorological disturbances cross a region with pronounced evaporation patterns due to antecedent rainfall (see Figure 18), the differences in the boundary layer above wet and dry surfaces may significantly influence the dynamics in the passing disturbance, with preferential development of intense storm cells in areas which were previously wet. The surface thus acts as a positive feedback over a series of rainfall events at convective length scales of less than 15 km.

Rainfall patterns such as this have dramatic effects on the local people living in semi-arid regions like the Sahel. In some cases, entire villages may experience crop failure whilst their near-neighbours have reasonable yields. It is therefore of considerable practical interest to understand — and be able to predict — this effect. More detailed investigations are in hand using a fine scale numerical model to study the causes of rainfall persistence.

Contact: Chris Taylor

THE CLIMEX PROJECT

Boreal ecosystems may be quite sensitive to rising atmospheric CO_2 concentrations and the increased temperatures expected from the associated enhanced greenhouse effect. Of particular importance are the net impacts of such climatic changes on ecosystem bio-geochemistry. Ecosystem-scale study of bio-geochemistry is vital for:

- Understanding the overall ecosystem functioning in response to global change; and
- identifying and quantifying the effects on adjacent systems manifest as feedbacks to atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations and as effects on aquatic ecosystems downstream.

From numerous plant and pot scale studies of individual ecosystem compartments in laboratories and in field chambers, a plethora of climate change impacts have been identified. Effects on plants often vary with species and the effects of individual processes in ecosystem bio-geochemical fluxes may oppose each other, making it difficult to predict net effects at the ecosystem or landscape scale.

Figure 18. An example of rainfall persistence: isohyets calculated from the rain gauge network (red dots) over the HAPEX-Sahel study area in Niger. Rainfall patterns from the squall line on 22 July are characterised by "bullseyes" coinciding with wet areas from the storm two days previously.

**Monitoring a
complete ecosystem
in glasshouses
provides a unique
way of investigating
potential CO₂
enrichment and
temperature
increases**

Whole-ecosystem manipulation experiments represent the only tool by which ecosystem response can be measured and with which whole-ecosystem models can be tested. Such models are a key to future negotiations on CO₂ emissions control policy and yet they remain untested at a scale consistent with their structure.

Increased CO₂ and temperature are expected to affect boreal forest ecosystems at many levels. Hence the EU funded a major pilot facility in Norway in which IH was able to cooperate with Scandinavian colleagues. At the individual plant level, elevated CO₂ is expected to promote increased stomatal closure and decreased stomatal density thereby increasing leaf water use efficiency. This leads to increased soil moisture manifest in higher water drainage for the same precipitation. Conversely, in some species, elevated CO₂ may increase leaf area so as to nullify the effect of decreased stomatal density on the transpiration loss of the whole plant. Increased temperature may also increase evapotranspiration to offset the expected increase in drainage flux.

Increased temperature and a longer growing season will tend to increase the volume of standing biomass and annual litter production. We also expect elevated CO₂ to stimulate plant growth even though nutrient availability is low. While nutrient availability may further decrease as a result of increased growth, increased temperature is expected to oppose this effect by stimulating decomposition of litter and mineralization of nutrients, especially of N. These responses should occur rapidly, i.e. within a few years. While soil and plant respiration will increase, fixation of C in biomass plus litter is expected to exceed total respiration, making

the system a net sink of CO₂-carbon. Mineralized N will largely be taken up by the increased plant and microbial biomass, so that leaching of inorganic N into drainage water will remain low. The more rapid cycling of N may also lead to increased soil emissions of N₂O, NO and NO₂. These relatively rapid changes in the biotic compartments are expected to be followed by slower changes in the large, recalcitrant pools of humidified soil organic matter.

To test these hypotheses, the atmospheric CO₂ concentration has been increased to 560 ppmv and air temperature increased by 3-5°C at an enclosed afforested headwater catchment in southern Norway (Figure 19). Treatment began in April 1994. Within three years, elevated temperatures have caused a significant increase in soil N mineralisation. This extra nitrogen helps to sustain increased plant growth caused by elevated CO₂, higher temperatures and longer growing season, but also promotes increased nitrogen export in stream water. Photosynthetic capacity of new leaves of trees and shrubs have not changed significantly. Carbon-to-nitrogen ratios of new leaves also remain unchanged, except in *Pinus sylvestris* needles, where they have decreased, perhaps due to reduced light in the greenhouse. There is no evidence for slower decomposition of litter produced at higher CO₂.

The results suggest that in a boreal afforested ecosystem subjected to a climate change corresponding to earlier global circulation model projections for 2040, mineralisation rates of soil organic matter increase in response to higher temperature. Increased availability of N may further lead to a shift in plant species adapted to higher soil N levels. The fraction of the extra mineralised N that ends up in stream

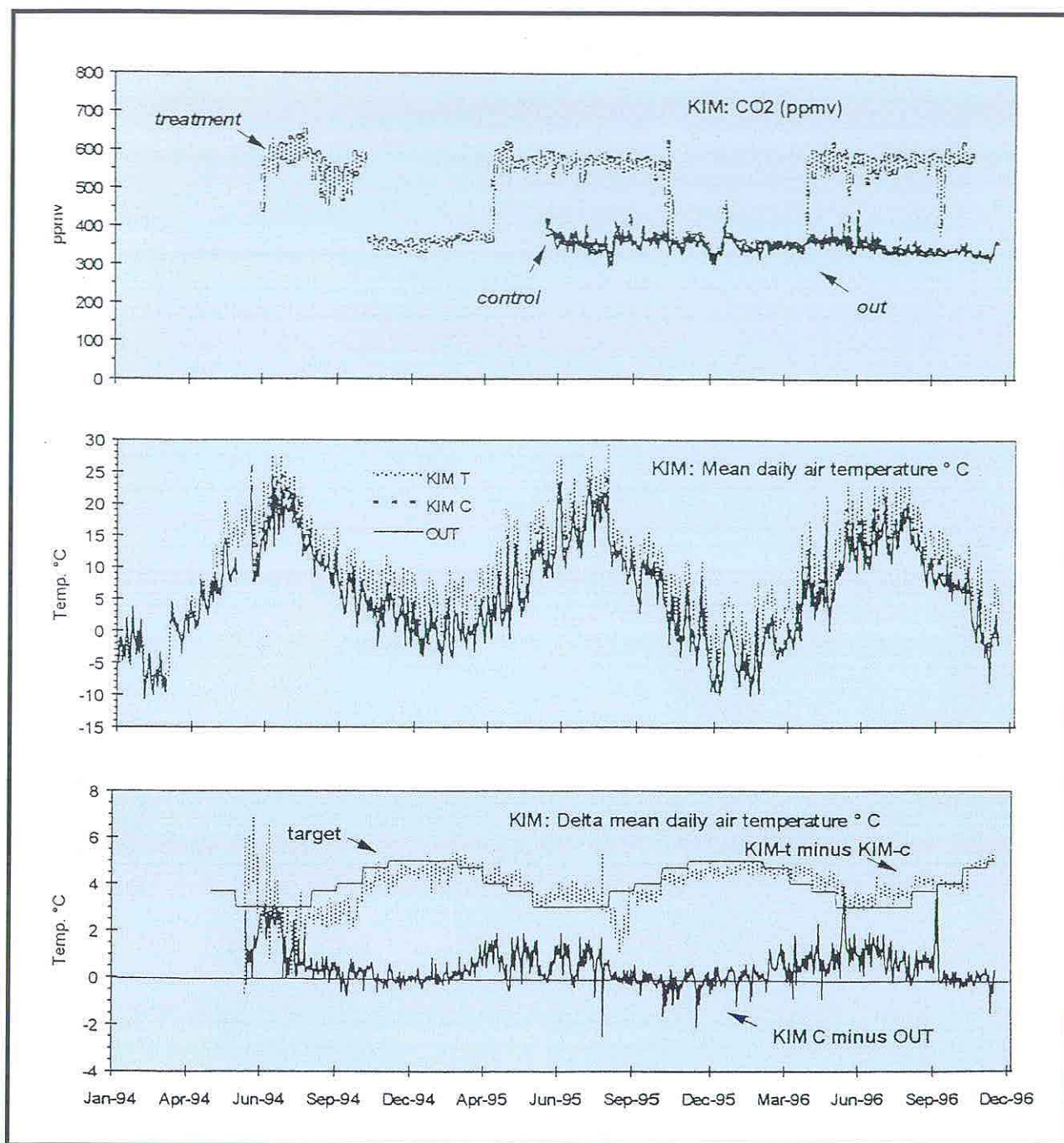


Figure 19. Effects of artificial increases in CO₂ concentration and temperature in an enclosed forest system, part of the CLIMAX experiment in southern Norway

water is small, but comprises a doubling in nitrate concentrations in runoff. In areas impacted by acid deposition such as southernmost Norway, such increased nitrate will be accompanied by cationic aluminium and H⁺ and may

exacerbate acidification of surface waters. Furthermore, increased nitrogen supply to coastal marine waters may cause nutrient imbalance with algal blooms and other undesirable effects.

Contact: Alan Jenkins

WATER AND CARBON IN
TROPICAL BIOMES

Understanding the carbon budget of tropical forests is essential if we are to understand how the global carbon budget remains in balance. The Institute of Hydrology, the University of Edinburgh and the Brazilian National Institute for Amazonian Research (INPA) have addressed this issue by making continuous measurements of water and CO₂ fluxes, climate and soil moisture at a forest site near Manaus, Brazil since 1995.

Both water vapour and CO₂ fluxes are measured using the eddy correlation method. This method is tested and works well during daylight hours, but there is some doubt whether fluxes are measured accurately in the stable conditions usually found at night. This is not important for water vapour because evaporation is small during the night, but CO₂ respiration fluxes do not depend on solar radiation and continue for 24 hours a day. It is important to understand how these nocturnal eddy correlation measurements relate to respiration fluxes and to

identify under what atmospheric conditions the measurements may be unreliable.

The eddy correlation fluxes have therefore been linked to those on atmospheric processes obtained by using a tethered balloon to make simultaneous measurements of CO₂ concentrations in the nocturnal atmospheric boundary layer. The tethered balloon lifted an airline above the forest to heights of up to 250m and air was pumped back to a gas analyser on the ground. A wide range of conditions were found to occur, leading to varied behaviour of the surface fluxes and in-canopy CO₂ storage. The atmospheric concentrations were greater than predicted by the surface flux data, a discrepancy which may be due to spatial variability of the nocturnal flux caused by river valleys, forest edges and storm damage.

Contact: Alistair Culf

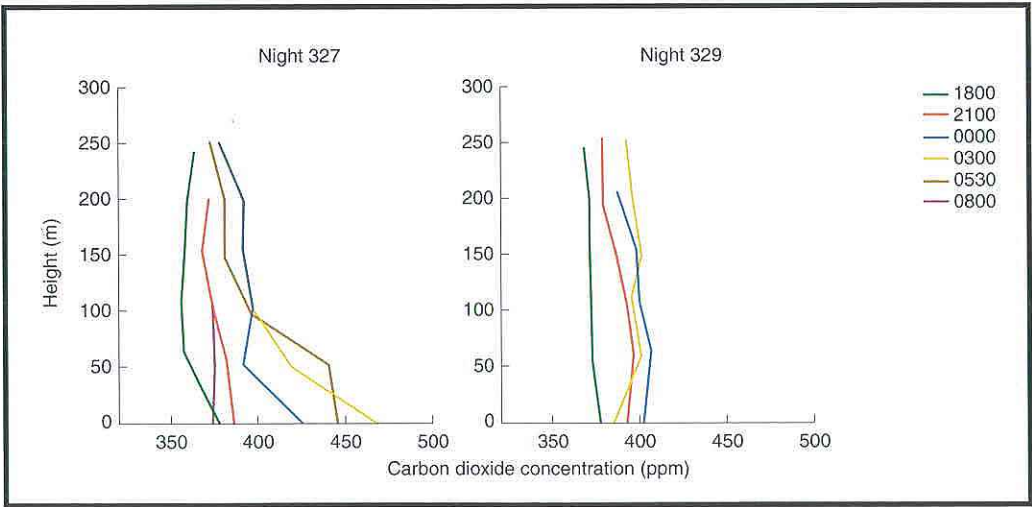


Figure 20. Atmospheric profiles of carbon dioxide above tropical forest for two nights, illustrating the effects of different atmospheric conditions. On Night 327 there was substantial storage of CO₂ in the lowest 150 m of the boundary layer whilst on Night 329 the profile was mixed throughout the night up to 250 m because of afternoon rainfall and the formation of mist.

Laboratories, libraries, collections, instrumentation, remote sensing, software design, data warehouses - all are being affected positively by the information revolution that is given a semblance of order by the World Wide Web. IH makes an important contribution to generic science that supports the CEH nine programme areas and to enabling the widest possible public to access research results by modern information technology. Key achievements during the year have been:

- *An advanced intranet written by local staff at Wallingford has drawn wide interest in NERC because of its efficiency gains.*
- *Transfer function software (IHACRES) for river modelling, written in collaboration with the Australian National University, has been released.*
- *Licensed use of our rainfall radar display system (HYRAD) continues to grow.*

Integrating generic science

USING SATELLITE RADAR TO MONITOR SURFACE SOIL MOISTURE

Synthetic aperture radar (SAR) can detect changes in the dielectric properties of soils which in turn are directly affected by the moisture content of the soil. Data from SARs can be routinely acquired as they can operate successfully through thick cloud cover and at night. Even from

satellite altitudes they can readily detect variations in backscattered microwave energy within small land units such as fields. Previous work was on the variability of soil moisture, vegetation and surface roughness within selected fields, giving a better understanding of the factors controlling radar backscatter. However, at the field scale, surface soil moisture can be very variable due to local variations in soil type and thickness combined with

Catchment studies are better matched to the large area coverage by satellite sensors and less affected by local variations in soil moisture. Radar data offers a way forward.

differences in drainage, both natural and artificial, which in turn are affected by micro-topography. Current studies are therefore taking place at the catchment scale, which is more commonly needed for hydrological applications. Catchment studies are better matched to the large areal coverage afforded by satellite sensors and are less affected by local variations in soil moisture.

The European Space Agency commissioned IH to investigate soil moisture measurement capabilities and accuracy of the SAR operating on the current ERS-2 satellite. In addition, IH has looked at the usefulness of the low resolution SAR products which will become available on the next generation European satellite, ENVISAT.

Validation of the SAR soil moisture information is taking place both in the upper Thames basin, as representative of temperate climates, and in Zimbabwe, which has marked wet and dry seasons. For the UK test area, detailed rainfall distribution comes from combining existing raingauge measurements with ground-based weather radar using a spatially distributed water balance model. The soil moisture distribution

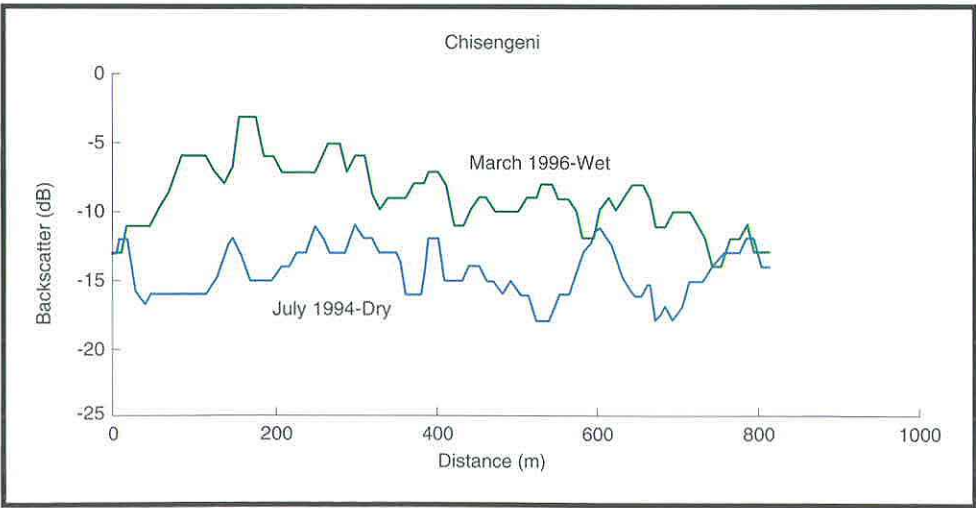


Figure 21. ERS-1 SAR images of the River Mnondo dambo system, Zimbabwe. The image above is for the dry season (July 1994); dambo areas appear as dark (low backscatter) regions around the branching stream system which is depicted by a thin bright line. The wet season image below (March 1996) shows dambos appearing brighter than drier interfluvies, a reversal of the dry season relationship.



within the soil profile is measured at a number of sites each week with neutron probes and at 15-minute intervals with an automatic soil water station. On days when satellite data are acquired,

Figure 22. Profile across Chisengeni dambo (Y-shaped feature near centre of Figure 1) showing >5dB increase in backscatter between dry and wet seasons.



intensive field measurements are carried out at 50 sites distributed within the catchment to measure surface soil moisture and to determine the effects of different vegetation cover and soil roughness.

Results from Zimbabwe show that seasonal changes in soil moisture within dambo (sloping headwater catchment areas) comprising sparse grasslands can be detected with satellite radar as large variations in backscatter, typically in the range 5-10dB. At a larger scale, surface moisture variations resulting from individual storm cells have been detected which means it may be possible to use such satellite derived measurements in regional scale hydrological and energy budget models. Multi-date ERS SAR of the Thames basin have been used to denote current land use patterns, an essential precursor to the modelling of soil moisture.

Contact: Ken Blyth

COMBINED H₂O AND CO₂ FLUX SYSTEM

The close association between transpiration and photosynthesis, plus keen interest in CO₂ budgets and their link to climate change, is creating a strong demand for instruments able to measure the fluxes of both water vapour and CO₂ from vegetation.

The current state of the art are closed-path gas analyser systems. These pipe air from a sonic anemometer array to a infrared gas analyser that has high power requirements and needs regular maintenance for recalibration and replacement of gas scrubbing chemicals. Furthermore, the time lag

between the measurement of vertical windspeed and gas concentration is less than ideal, as is the problem of contamination of the pipe walls and attenuation of the high frequency information by friction in the pipe.

To remove these obstacles, an integrated, open-path, low power instrument for both water vapour and CO₂ flux measurement is under a three stage development at IH. This is based on IH's well-known Hydra system. The stage one prototype evaporation instrument is currently undergoing field trials. This incorporates the Hydra's miniature hygrometer into a commercial 3-D sonic anemometer. The logging system is being adapted to take advantage of the improved computer technologies now available.

The amount of CO₂ in air is typically only 5% of that of water vapour. The second stage of development is, therefore, to achieve significant improvements to the resolution and stability of the current open-path infrared gas analyser, before CO₂ flux measuring capability can be incorporated in the third stage.

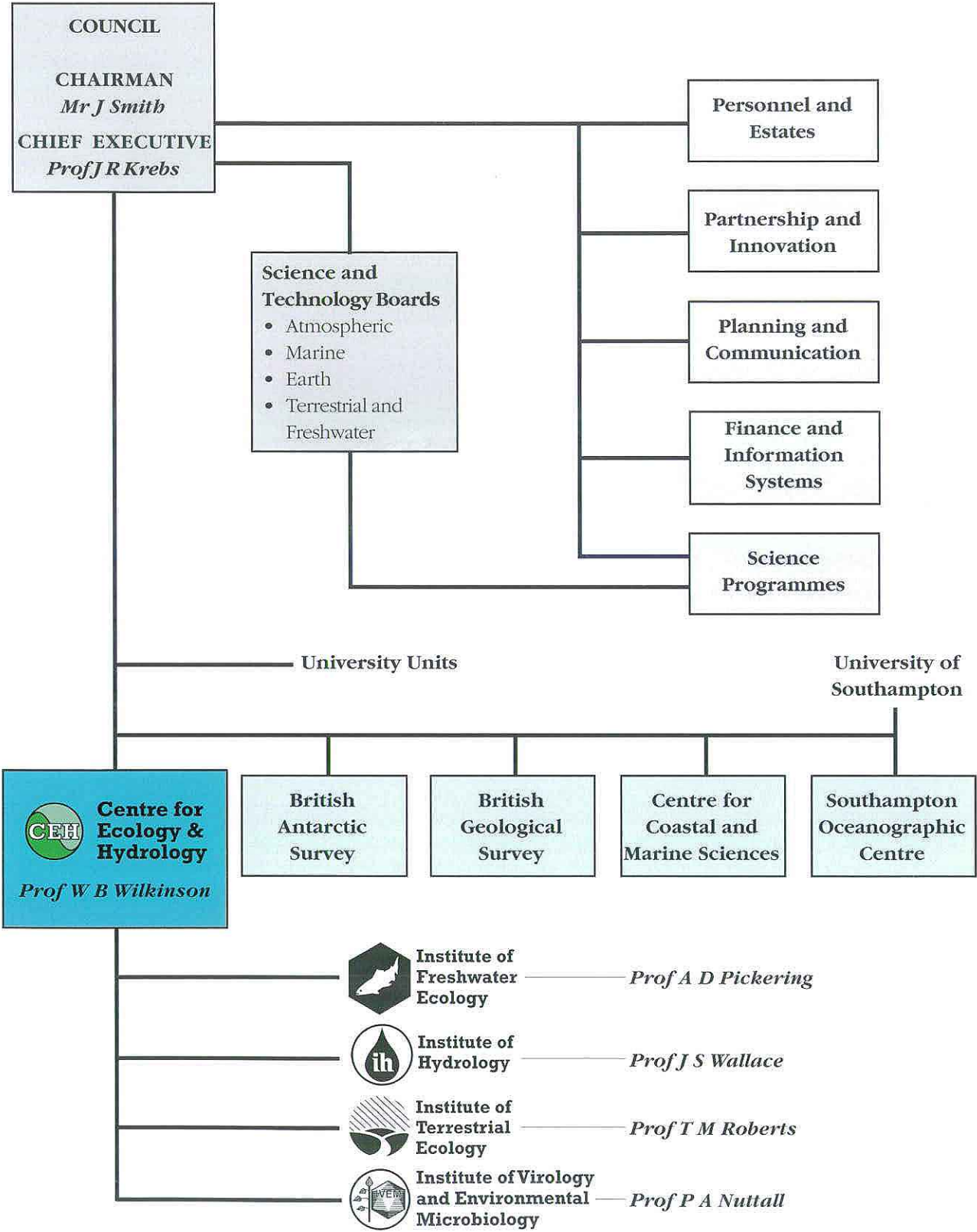
When completed, the instrument will be able to operate unattended for much longer periods than the current closed path system and, being purpose-built and without the need for ancillary equipment, be both cheaper and easier to buy operate.

Contact: David McNeil

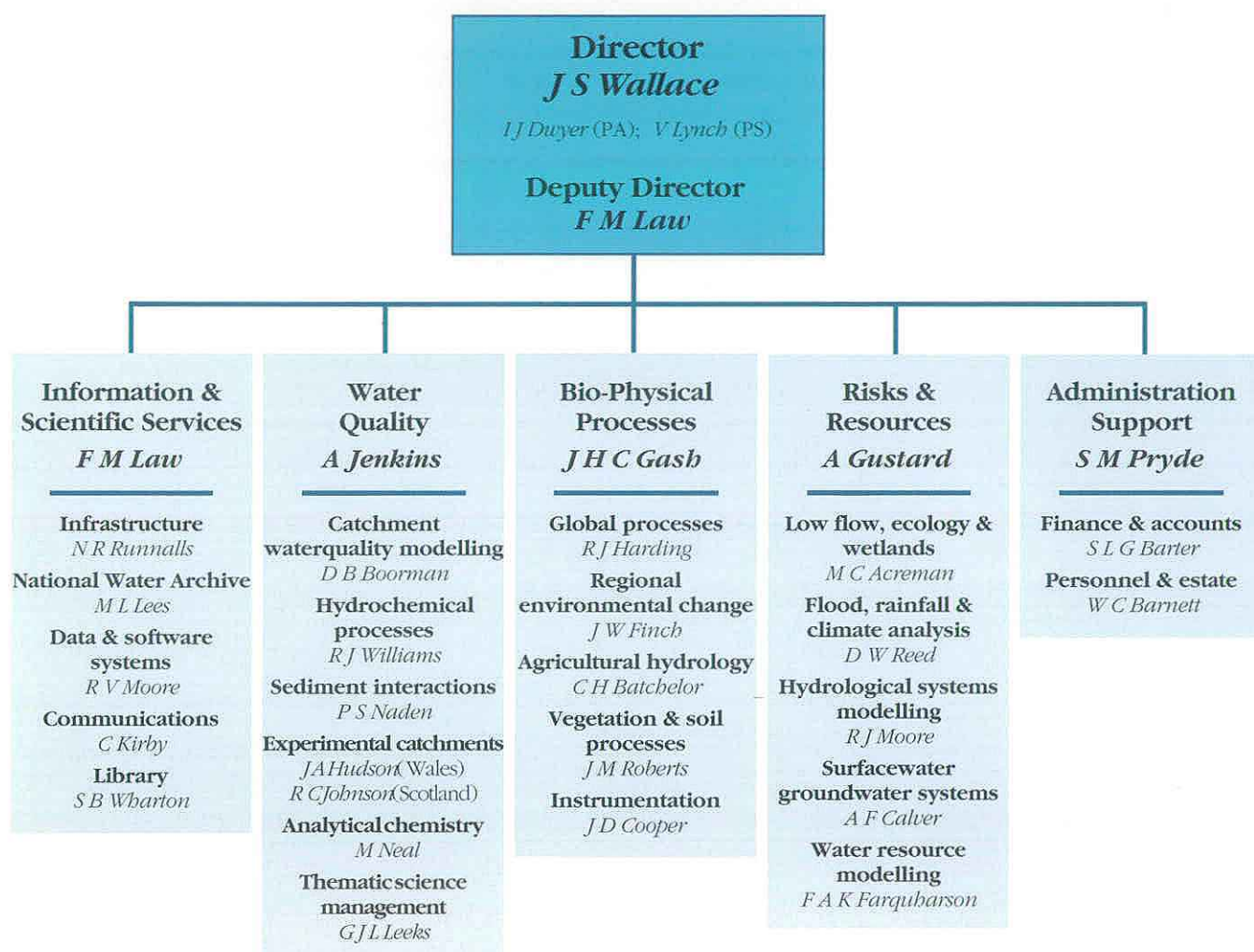


A miniature hygrometer of the type used in the Hydra has been incorporated into a commercial 3-D sonic anemometer.

NERC structure



IH Staff Structure



Frank Law (Deputy Director & Division Head)

Sandie Butterfield (*Secretary*)

Roger Moore (Data & software systems)

Kevin Black *Software development*
Richard Alexander
David Hill

Anne Roberts *Software operations*
Isabella Tindall
Jeff Parker
Susan Jennings
Andrew Tidmarsh

Scientific remit

To provide the technology to ensure the Institute's science thrives. More specifically, the Division is structured:

- to collate, quality control, interpret and publish time series and spatial datasets that describe the hydrological cycle and its variability;
- to reveal the common features of environmental datasets by utilising advanced information technology;

INFORMATION & SCIENTIFIC SERVICES

to program to commercial standards the scientific findings of the Institute as well as publishing them in printed and electronic form; to provide professional library services to IH staff and to achieve the status of the leading UK hydrosociences collection.

Martin Lees (National Water Archive)

Terry Marsh
Dave Morris
Samantha Green
Oliver Swain
Felicity Sanderson
Jackie Carr

Celia Kirby (Communications)

John Griffin
Rob Flavin

Sue Wharton (Library)

Pam Moorhouse

Chris Bottrell (Computing policy)

Penny Kisby (IAHS Press)

Frances Watkins

Henry Gunston (DFID coordinator & IH Training Officer)

Neil Runnalls (Marketing & business development manager)

WATER QUALITY

SCIENCE REMIT

To understand the processes that control surface water quality and, by their representation within computer models, provide tools for improving water quality through environmental management. Research priorities are:

to understand and develop models of key processes that determine river water quality at catchment scale;

to models the impacts of anthropogenic influences on water quality.

Alan Jenkins (Division Head)

Sue Beresford (*Secretary*)

David Boorman (Catchment water quality modelling)

Gareth Roberts
David M Cooper
Andrew Eatherall
Rob Collins
Beate Gannon
Catherine Sefton

Richard Williams (Hydro-chemical processes)

Colin Neal
Andrew Johnson
Atul Haria
Helen Jarvie
Craig White

Pam Naden (Sediment interactions)

Ian Littlewood
Carol Watts
Jeremy Wilkinson

to understand the fate and behaviour of chemicals as they move from catchment surfaces to surface and groundwaters;

Margaret Neal (Analytical chemistry)

Lal Bhardwaj
James Dodd
Martin Harrow
Linda Hill
Heather Wickham

To determine sediment source areas and quantify sediment mass balances throughout entire river systems;

Jim Hudson (Experimental catchments)

(Plynlimon)

Phil Hill
Sean Crane
Sue Hill
Alan Hughes
(Stirling)
Dick Johnson
David Price
Rachel Bronsdon

to develop procedures for chemical analysis of water samples and methods for continuous monitoring of water quality using in-stream sensors.

Graham Leeks (Thematic science management)

Howard Oliver
Ian Dwyer
Stephen Marks
Paul Wass

John Gash (Division Head)

Biddy Hawker (*Secretary*)

Richard Harding (Global processes)

Eleanor Blyth
Alistair Culf
Colin Lloyd
Chris Huntingford
Chris Taylor

SCIENCE REMIT

To improve quantitative understanding of the physical and biological processes in the terrestrial hydrological cycle, from local to global scales, including interaction with human activities. Research priorities are:

John Roberts (Vegetation and soil processes)

Mark Robinson
Robin Hall
Martin Hodnett
Sam Boyle
Nick Jackson
Mark Smith

to measure and model the surface fluxes of water, energy and carbon in the major terrestrial biomes, the interactions between the land surface and the atmosphere, and to identify the sensitivities of the hydrological and

BIO-PHYSICAL PROCESSES

climate systems to anthropogenic and natural changes.

to investigate strategies for sustainable and environmentally acceptable agricultural and natural resource management practices;

to measure and model the effects of vegetation and soil processes on evaporation, carbon and soil water fluxes.

to develop new measurement methods and instruments for hydrology; specialised drilling and hydrogeological interpretation.

Anne Verhoef
Rebecca Hopkins

**Charles Batchelor
(Agricultural hydrology)**

John Bromley
Chris Lovell
Ragab Ragab
Jeremy Cain
Paul Rosier
Dominic Waughray

**Jon Finch (Regional
environmental
change)**

David Biggin
Ken Blyth
Eleanor Burke

**J David Cooper
(Instrumentation)**

Andy Dixon
Dave McNeil
Roger Wyatt
Mike Stroud
Jonathan Evans
Geoff Wicks

Alan Warwick (Workshop)

John White
Geoff Walley

RISKS & RESOURCES

SCIENCE REMIT

To provide advanced techniques for flood and low flow estimation, for forecasting extreme events, and for assessing the availability of water resources. Research priorities are:

to determine the impact of environmental change on the reliability of existing and proposed schemes, including the impact of artificial influences such as land use change and resource development.

developing procedures for estimating and forecasting

Alan Gustard (Division Head)

Sandra Smith (*Secretary*)

**Mike Acreman (Low flow,
ecology & wetlands)**

Andy Young
Ann Sekulin
Craig Elliott
Gwyn Rees
Karen Croker
Mike Dunbar
Gwynneth Cole
Julia Dixon
Clare Round
Ian Gowing

**Duncan Reed (Flood, rainfall
& climate analysis)**

David Marshall
Nick Reynard

Alice Robson
Lisa Stewart
Adrian Bayliss
Duncan Faulkner
Christel Prudhomme
Doerte Jakob

Bob Moore (Hydrological systems modelling)

David Jones
Roger Austin
Vicky Bell

Ann Calver (Surface-groundwater systems)

Dick Bradford
Sue Crooks
Rob Lamb
Sue Morris
Helen Davies

Frank Farquharson (Water resource systems)

Jeremy Meigh
John Packman
Kevin Sene
Tony Andrews
Helen Houghton-Carr
Matthew McCartney
Val Bronsdon
Ned Hewitt
Emma Tate

Stuart Pryde (Head of Administration)

Simon Barter (Finance & Resource Management)

Angie Dickerson
Huw Thomas
Thelma Gibson
Anita Napper
Lyn Ross
Val Lambert

Bill Barnett (Personnel & Estate)

Sue Fenton (*Personnel*)
Trish Sanders
Eileen Younghusband

Melanie Purvey and Anke Watson (*Reception*)

precipitation rates using radar and raingauge information.

to develop techniques for assessing the impact of river flow rgimes and channel morphology on freshwater ecology and the hydrological functions of wetlands.

Heather Turner (*Typing Services*)
Jocelyn Cowley
Brenda Hall

John Fraser (*Site services*)
Denise Dolton
Ivor Standbridge
John Spencer
Harold Jones
Julie Butcher
Andy Sweetland (*Stores*)

ADMINISTRATION

Further details on staff qualifications and job descriptions may be obtained from our WWW pages (see back cover)

APPENDIX 3

CEH Core Strategic Research Programmes

Soil and soil/vegetation interactions

Project 1.1 Physicochemical processes affecting soil-water interactions
Issue 1.1.1 Solid-solution partitioning of chemical species
Project 1.3 Physical and physiological processes controlling soil water balances
Issue 1.3.1 Soil-root interactions at the individual plant root and stand scale
Issue 1.3.2 Soil-plant-atmosphere flux transfers in mixed vegetation
Issue 1.3.3 Root-soil-water interactions adjacent to fluctuating water tables

Land use science

Project 2.2 Land use systems
Issue 2.2.3 Land use manipulation to minimise adverse impacts
Issue 2.2.4 Hydrological impacts of land use change
Issue 2.2.5 Holistic catchment studies
Issue 2.2.6 Development of water resource management strategies
Project 2.4 Landscape function and modelling
Issue 2.4.3 Integrated modelling of land use processes including social and economic variables

The urban environment

Project 3.4 Urban water dynamics, risk and hazard
Issue 3.4.2 Floods and pollution flushes

Freshwater resources

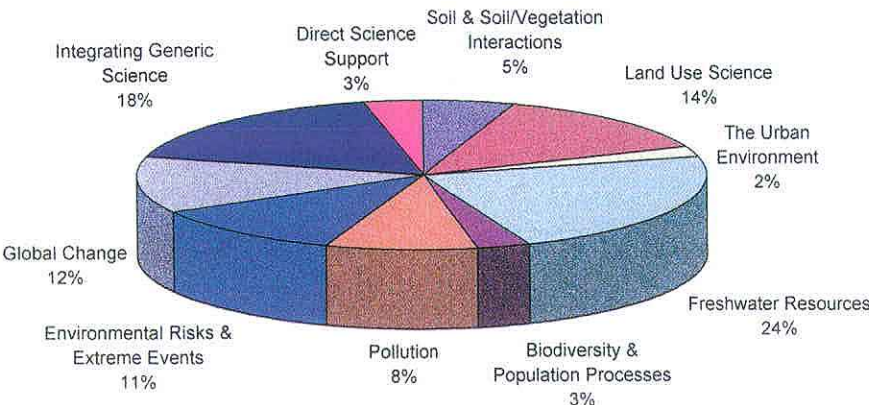
Project 4.1 Surface-groundwater interactions
Issue 4.1.1 The recharge-runoff division
Issue 4.1.2 The river-aquifer boundary and floodplain issues
Issue 4.1.3 Wetland interactions
Issue 4.1.4 Integrated catchment-scale analysis
Project 4.2 Statistical modelling of resource availability
Issue 4.2.1 Estimation of resource availability at ungauged sites
Issue 4.2.2 Drought frequency estimation
Project 4.3 Water resource modelling capabilities
Issue 4.3.1 Improvement of representation of hydrological systems in catchment models
Issue 4.3.3 Integrated decision support facility
Project 4.4 Integrated water quality modelling
Issue 4.4.1 Quantifying point sources
Issue 4.4.2 Catchment models: diffuse sources
Issue 4.4.3 In-stream water quality monitoring
Issue 4.4.5 Modelling uncertainty
Project 4.5 Integrated biotic response modelling
Issue 4.5.1 Flow resistance in channels and river ecosystems health
Issue 4.5.2 Integration of models of water quantity, quality and biotic variability

Biodiversity and population processes

Project 5.1 Biodiversity characterisation, pattern and monitoring
Issue 5.1.6 Biodiversity in rivers
Project 5.4 Conservation and restoration of biodiversity
Issue 5.4.5 Wetland management and restoration

Pest and disease control

Project 6.5 Distribution of pathogens in freshwater
Issue 6.5.1 Monitoring and risk assessment of pathogens in freshwater



Breakdown of IHI research activity by
CEH Core Strategic Programme

Project 7.2 Acidifying pollutants

Issue 7.2.5 Surface water and catchment-scale impacts

Issue 7.2.6 Modelling

Issue 7.2.7 Critical loads

Project 7.4 Toxic metals

Issue 7.4.1 Transport and deposition

Project 7.5 Organic pollutants

Issue 7.5.1 Monitoring

Issue 7.5.4 Physico-chemical processes controlling transport in soils and waters

Issue 7.5.5 Catchment-scale processes

**Pollution assessment
and control****Project 8.1 Risk assessment and estimation of floods and other extreme events**

Issue 8.1.1 Mainstream research

Issue 8.1.2 Generic solutions to 'joint probability' problem

Issue 8.1.3 Collective risk for environmental extremes

Issue 8.1.4 Continuous simulation modelling for flood estimation

Project 8.2 Real-time flow and water quality forecasting and decision support systems

Issue 8.2.2 Development of real-time flow forecasting models for arid regions

Issue 8.2.3 Development of improved water quality forecasting models

Issue 8.2.4 Real-time flood forecasting for gauged and ungauged catchments

Project 8.3 Understanding and modelling the role of rare events on ecological systems

Issue 8.3.1 Rare events and ecological processes

**Environmental risks and
extreme events****Project 9.1 Greenhouse gas budgets and cycles**

Issue 9.1.4 Exchange mechanisms in high-latitude wetlands

Project 9.2 Land-atmosphere-ocean interactions

Issue 9.2.1 Improved hydrological representations within GCMs

Issue 9.2.2 Land surface-climate interactions: tropical deforestation and desertification

Issue 9.2.3 Snow-melt and routing models for northern latitudes

Issue 9.2.4 The use of macroscale hydrological models to validate GCMs

Issue 9.2.5 Dynamic ecosystem modelling

Project 9.3 Forecasting and detecting the impacts of global change

Issue 9.3.1 Regional hydrology and freshwater quality

Issue 9.3.2 Climate impacts on species populations and distributions

Issue 9.3.5 Ecosystem responses to elevated CO₂ concentrations**Global change****Project 10.1 Environmental assessment, economics and history**

Issue 10.1.1 Improved methodology for quantitative prediction of environmental impacts

Project 10.2 Remote sensing

Issue 10.2.1 Algorithm development

Issue 10.2.2 Ground reference and scaling up

Issue 10.2.5 Regional scale evaporation

Project 10.3 Instrumentation

Issue 10.3.1 Intelligent sensor clusters

Project 10.6 Databases and reference collections

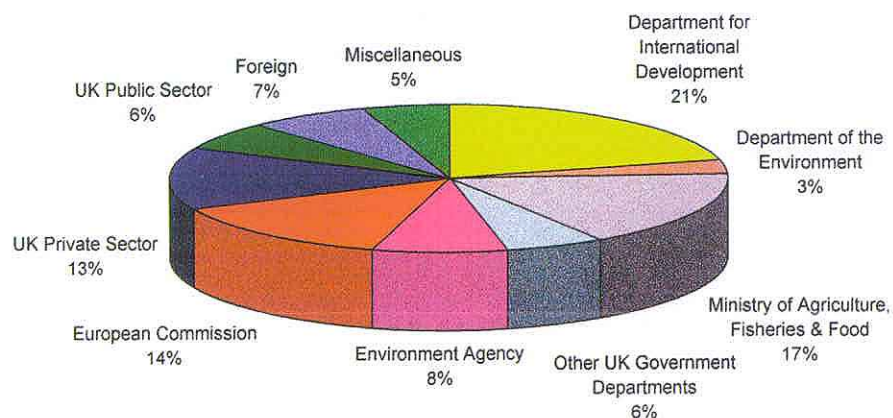
Issue 10.6.1 Integrity and accessibility of databases and collections within CEH

Issue 10.6.3 Environmental management

Project 10.7 Biometrical applications, research and development

Issue 10.7.1 Biometrical collaboration

Issue 10.7.2 Application and development of biometrical methods

**Integrating generic
science**

*Customer composition of
IH science programme*

Publications

1996

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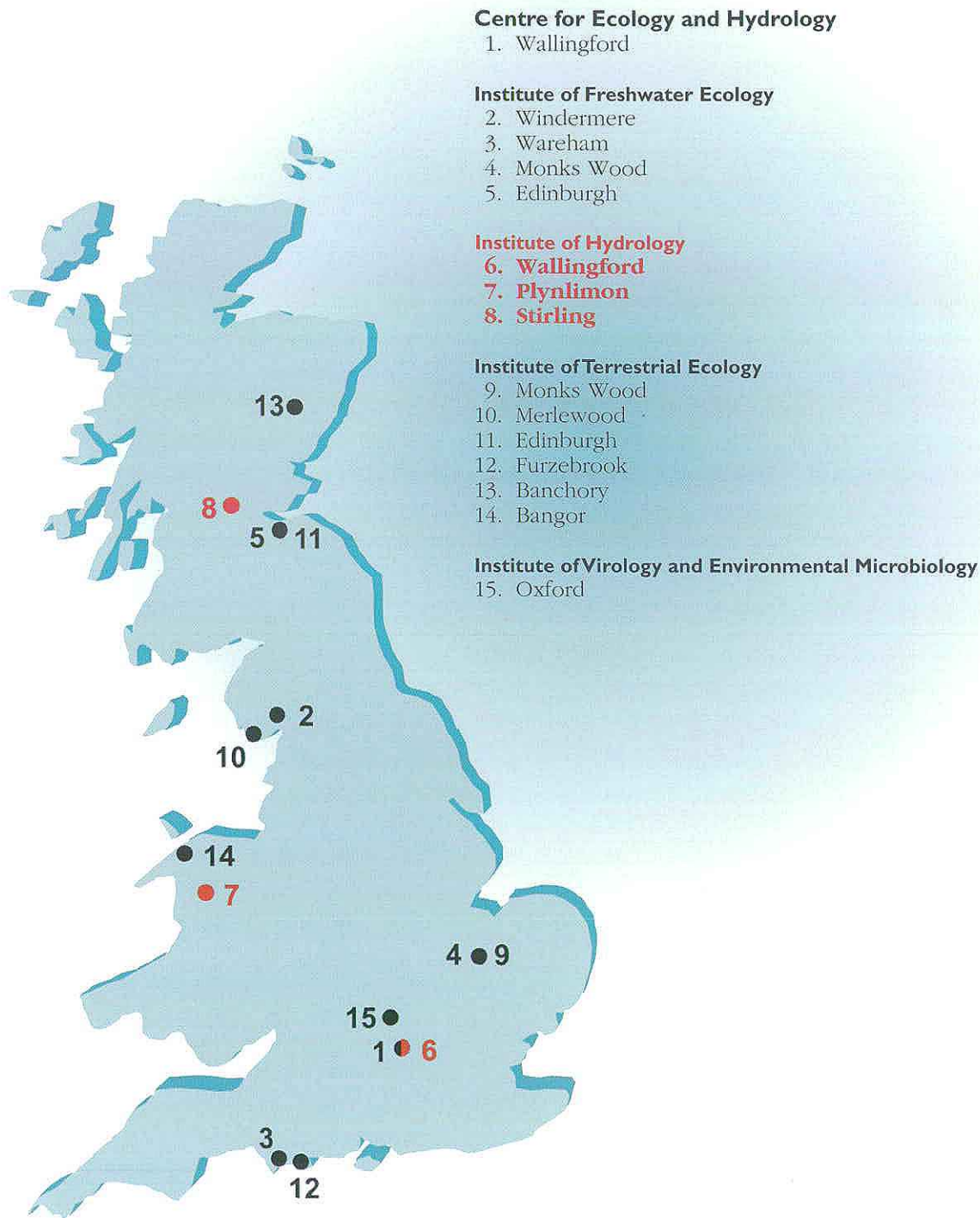
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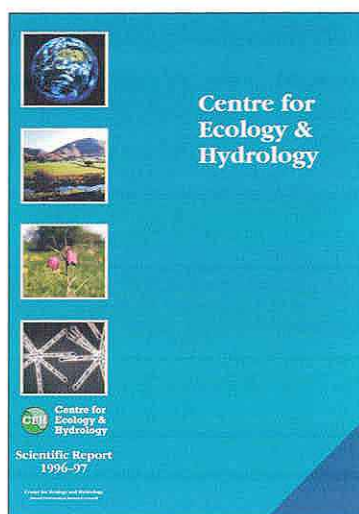
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Location of CEH sites



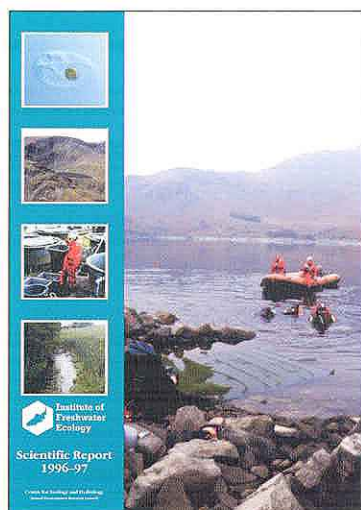
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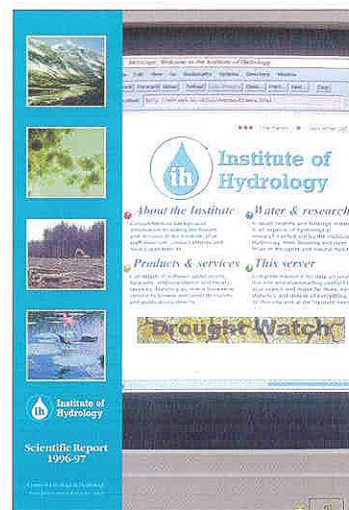
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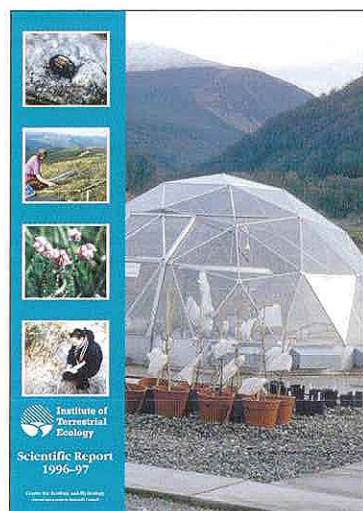
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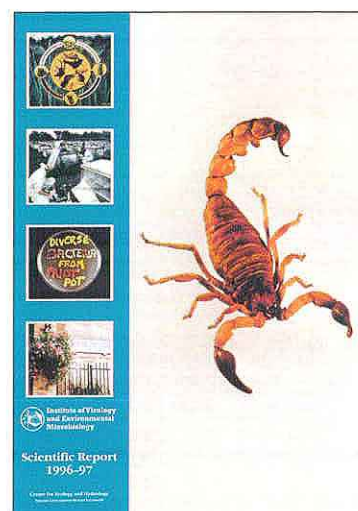
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