

Reprinted from

W.T. Swank and D.A. Crossley Jr.

Ecological Studies, Vol. 66:

Forest Hydrology and Ecology at Coweeta

© 1988 Springer-Verlag New York, Inc.

Printed in the United States of America



Springer-Verlag
New York Berlin Heidelberg
London Paris Tokyo

25. Stream Chemistry Responses to Disturbance

W.T. Swank

The vegetation on 12 watersheds at Coweeta has been altered by experimentation during the past 50 years. Disturbances include light selection cutting and logging, clearcutting without roads and no products removed, clearcutting with various methods: commercial logging, agricultural cropping, conversion of mixed hardwoods to white pine, and conversion of hardwoods to grass accompanied by applications of lime, fertilizer, and subsequent herbicide application. Also, hardwoods on two of the watersheds have been partially defoliated by insects during the spring for varying periods of time. Two stream-gaging sites are on fourth-order streams and these large drainages contain a combination of undisturbed and treated watersheds. A brief summary of each vegetation type represented during the period of stream chemistry records is given in Table 25.1. (see Chapter 1 for details of treatments).

In this chapter the objectives are (1) to characterize the chemistry of streams draining the variety of disturbed watersheds at Coweeta in terms of mean annual inorganic nutrient concentrations; (2) to compare long-term net nutrient budgets of selected disturbances with their controls; (3) to describe changes in stream chemistry in response to commercial clearcutting and succession; and (4) to examine stream chemistry responses to natural disturbances.

Mean Annual Solute Concentrations

In most cases the initiation of stream chemistry studies postdate watershed treatment. Results therefore represent conditions at varying time periods since disturbance. Mean annual nutrient concentrations of streams have been divided into two groups; those

Table 25.1. Summary of Treatments for Coweeta Watersheds, Vegetation Types, and Year Stream Chemistry Records

Watershed No.	Area (ha)	Vegetation Type Corresponding to Period of Stream Chemistry
1	16.2	White pine at ages 15 and 16 years and at 24 and 25 years
3	9.3	Yellow poplar, white pine and coppice mixture age 20 and 30 years
6	8.9	Grass-to-forest succession at age 2 through 15 years
7	58.7	Mature hardwoods for 4 years and coppice regrowth at ages 1 through 7 years
13	16.2	Coppice at ages 7 and 8 years; 16 and 17 years
8, 9, 16	759.6, 723.6 and 381.6 respectively	Mixture of mature hardwoods and variety of altered vegetation. WS 8 for 1972 through present; WS 9 and 16 1972-73 and 1980-81.
17	13.4	White pine at ages 13 through 25 years
19	28.3	Mature mixed hardwoods, 24 years and 34 years after understory cut
22	24.3	50 percent mature hardwoods; 50 percent coppice at age 18 and 28 years
27	38.8	Mixed hardwoods, period from 1972 through present
28	144.1	Coppice regrowth, poplar cove and mature hardwoods, 9 & 10 years after harvest
36	48.6	Mixed hardwoods, period from 1972-1983
37	43.7	Coppice at ages 9 and 10 years, 19 years
40	20.2	Mostly mature hardwoods, 18 and 28 years after selection cutting
41	28.7	Mostly mature hardwoods, 18 and 28 years after selection cutting

which associated discharge records are available and streams where flow measurements were discontinued in the past. The first group represents flow volume weighted means and the latter are simple arithmetic averages.

The long-term mean flows and flow weighted chemical concentrations of the watersheds indicate several interesting patterns (Table 25.2). On watersheds where hardwood vegetation was most recently clearcut (7, 13, 28, 37), $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentrations 7 to 20 years after treatment range from 0.02 to 0.18 mg L^{-1} , which substantially exceed concentrations for control watersheds. Catchments converted from hardwood to white pine (1, 17) also exhibit elevated $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentrations more than 25 years after treatment. On WS 40, the light selection cut, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ levels are equivalent to control streams. The highest $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentrations (0.67 mg L^{-1}) observed in the Coweeta Basin occur on WS 6, the most severely disturbed watershed. With regard to other solutes, concentrations of Cl, Ca, and Mg are elevated on WS 6 in comparison to other streams, partly in response to previous lime and fertilizer applications. Concentrations of $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and PO_4 are very low and similar to control streams. Levels of nitrate in the fourth-order stream of WS 8 reflect the mixture of water from control and treated watersheds.

Table 25.2. Average Annual Flow Weighted Concentrations^a (mg/L) of Dissolved Inorganic Constituents and Flow (cm) for Streams Draining Treated Watersheds at Coweeta

Watershed Number	Vegetation Type	Flow	NO ₃ -N	NH ₄ -N	PO ₄	Cl	K	Na	Ca	Mg	SO ₄	SiO ₂
1	White pine	67	0.02	0.003	0.008	0.68	0.52	1.06	0.65	0.36	0.41	5.42
6	Grass-to-forest succession	100	0.67	0.005	0.007	1.04	0.55	1.00	0.99	0.60	0.44	6.59
7	Coppice regrowth	118	0.04	0.004	0.007	0.65	0.52	0.95	0.90	0.38	0.52	7.67
8	Combination of control and treated	132	0.01	0.003	0.005	0.52	0.38	0.78	0.81	0.32	0.65	6.65
13	Coppice regrowth	122	0.04	0.003	0.004	0.49	0.38	0.64	0.45	0.26	0.39	5.73
17	White pine	80	0.13	0.004	0.006	0.53	0.39	0.79	0.51	0.23	0.48	6.72
28	Combination coppice regrowth, even-aged poplar cove, and mature hardwoods	196	0.13	0.004	0.005	0.51	0.43	0.85	0.96	0.44	0.47	NA
37	Coppice regrowth	201	0.18	0.004	0.004	0.47	0.38	0.64	0.73	0.31	1.14	4.64
40	Uneven-aged mixed hardwoods	147	0.005	0.004	0.008	0.61	0.54	1.12	1.04	0.40	0.45	NA

^aPeriod of record (June–May water year): For WS 6, 7, 8 and 17 all ions for the period 1973–1983 except for SO₄, 1974–1983 and SiO₂, 1975–1983. For WS 1 and 13 all ions for the periods of 1973–74 and 1982–83 except no SO₄ data in 1973 and SiO₂ data in 1973–74. For WS 28 all ions for the period 1973–74 except no SO₄ in 1973. For WS 37 all ions in 1973–74 and 1983 except no SO₄ data for 1973 and SiO₂ data in 1973–74. WS 40, data available only for 1973.

watersheds. The high SO_4 concentration on WS 37 is in agreement with high concentrations observed for controls, also located at high elevations. Other differences among watersheds are difficult to interpret due to influences of bedrock mineralogy (see Chapter 6).

The second group of treated watersheds represent ungaged streams for the period of chemistry record which typically includes two years of record; i.e., 1972–73 and 1980–81 (Table 25.3). Compared to the other group of treatments, these watersheds received less disturbance and experiments were initiated in earlier years. Nitrate concentrations for most streams equal or only slightly exceed control levels. The highest Ca concentrations are found on WS 3 and are influenced in part by past applications during agricultural management and in part by bedrock composition. Chloride concentrations are rather uniform across watersheds, while cation concentrations show variation that may be related to bedrock mineralogy. The relatively high SO_4 concentrations for all streams compared to the previous group of treated watersheds occur because only one year of record was available (1980–81) and fortuitously coincided with the driest year on record, when SO_4 concentrations in all Coweeta streams were highest.

Taken together, none of these disturbances have produced elemental concentrations sufficient to have an adverse impact on water quality for municipalities or downstream fisheries resources. Even the drastic alterations on WS 6 produced rather moderate increases in nutrient concentrations compared to disturbance responses in other regions of the United States. Elevated concentrations of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ appear to be a sensitive indicator of forest disturbance, and increased concentrations from clearcutting appear to last for at least 20 years following disturbance.

Input–Output Budgets

A second level of watershed response can be derived from nutrient budget (input–output) data (Table 25.4), in which the net water budget is an important consideration in interpreting nutrient fluxes. Due to much greater evapotranspiration from pine and hardwoods, WS 1 and 17 show the lowest discharge and largest net water accumulations. Compared with paired hardwood covered controls, other disturbed watersheds have flows which are elevated above undisturbed conditions that vary with treatment and time of recovery; these have already been quantified (Chapter 22).

Accumulations of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ are also indicated for some treated watersheds, but the differences are lower than for controls. WS 6 shows the most obvious contrast in comparison to other ecosystems with a net N loss of $3.9 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Nitrate inputs and outputs are in balance on clearcut WS 37. Net budgets for Ca and K show the smallest losses and conversely, largest within system accumulations for the white pine ecosystems. Highest elevation treated watersheds also produced the highest net loss of Ca and K, which are mainly attributed to greater annual discharge. All of the disturbed watersheds had large net annual SO_4 accumulations with values comparable to control watersheds.

Table 25.3. Average Annual Concentrations^a (mg/L) of Dissolved Inorganic Constituents for Streams Draining Treated Watersheds at Coweeta

Watershed Number	Vegetation Type	NO ₃ -N	NH ₄ -N	PO ₄	Cl	K	Na	Ca	Mg	SO ₄	SiO ₂	pH
3	White pine and yellow poplar plantations with coppice regrowth	0.013	0.004	0.005	0.55	0.42	1.05	6.28	0.48	0.74	9.30	7.00
10	Uneven-aged mixed hardwoods	0.006	0.004	0.004	0.55	0.49	0.94	1.44	0.41	0.71	9.55	6.91
19	Uneven-aged mixed hardwoods	0.002	0.003	0.004	0.50	0.32	0.70	0.40	0.23	0.80	5.85	6.69
22	50% coppice regrowth and 50% uneven-aged mixed hardwoods	0.010	0.004	0.004	0.49	0.38	0.74	0.55	0.23	0.85	6.13	6.66
41	Uneven-aged mixed hardwoods	0.010	0.005	0.004	0.58	0.49	0.99	0.97	0.40	1.05	8.06	6.79
Combination control and treated												
9		0.034	0.003	0.004	0.53	0.39	0.83	0.72	0.35	0.66	6.64	6.62
16		0.028	0.004	0.003	0.52	0.38	0.83	0.71	0.32	0.74	6.75	6.75

^aAverages based on 2 years of records, 1972-73 and 1980-81 for all ions on all watersheds with the following exceptions: SiO₂ for all watersheds, 1980-81; SO₄ for WS 10, 19, 22 and 41, 1980-81.

Table 25.4. Average Annual Nutrient Budgets (kg/ha) for Treated Watersheds at Coweeta Hydrologic Laboratory

Watershed Number	Net			Net			Net			Net		
	Input	Output	Difference	Input	Output	Difference	Input	Output	Difference	Input	Output	Difference
		Water (cm)			NO ₃ -N			NH ₄ -N			PO ₄ -P	
1	189	67	122	2.83	0.16	+2.67	1.98	0.02	+1.96	0.25	0.05	+0.20
6	195	100	95	2.82	6.68	-3.86	1.89	0.05	+1.84	0.26	0.07	+0.19
7	188	118	70	2.69	0.42	+2.27	1.77	0.04	+1.73	0.25	0.08	+0.17
8	212	132	80	3.04	0.19	+2.85	2.02	0.04	+1.98	0.28	0.06	+0.22
13	218	122	96	3.19	0.50	+2.69	2.17	0.03	+2.14	0.30	0.05	+0.25
17	211	80	131	3.03	1.00	+2.03	2.01	0.03	+1.98	0.29	0.05	+0.24
28	277	196	81	4.10	2.50	+1.60	3.06	0.08	+2.98	0.43	0.09	+0.34
37	244	201	43	3.66	3.66	0.00	2.44	0.09	+2.35	0.35	0.09	+0.26
40	244	147	97	3.58	0.08	+3.50	2.69	0.05	+2.64	0.37	0.11	+0.26
		Cl			K			SO ₄			Na	
1	5.70	4.54	+1.16	1.66	3.44	-1.78	30.32	2.71	+27.61	3.59	7.08	-3.49
6	5.42	10.38	-4.96	1.86	5.53	-3.67	30.58	4.33	+26.25	3.37	10.06	-6.69
7	5.10	7.64	-2.54	1.78	6.11	-4.33	29.20	6.07	+23.13	3.19	11.18	-7.99
8	5.81	6.87	-1.06	2.03	4.98	-2.95	33.10	8.44	+24.66	3.62	10.32	-6.70
13	6.76	5.98	+0.78	1.84	4.58	-2.74	32.25	4.52	+27.73	4.42	7.86	-3.44
17	5.85	4.24	+1.61	2.02	3.11	-1.09	32.83	3.58	+29.25	3.64	6.33	-2.69
28	10.43	9.98	+0.45	2.87	8.41	-5.54	48.01	8.94	+39.07	7.34	16.67	-9.33
37	7.98	9.40	-1.42	2.20	7.62	-5.42	38.78	21.72	+17.06	5.19	12.77	-7.58
40	8.84	8.93	-0.09	2.41	7.90	-5.49	-	-	-	6.21	16.36	-10.15
		Ca			Mg			SiO ₂				
1	3.43	4.34	-0.91	0.77	2.41	-1.64	0.38	36.03	-35.65			
6	3.80	9.93	-6.31	0.78	5.99	-5.21	0.58	62.54	-61.96			
7	3.66	10.60	-6.94	0.76	4.50	-3.74	0.56	87.57	-87.01			
8	4.13	10.63	-6.50	0.87	4.25	-3.38	0.62	83.98	-83.36			
13	3.91	5.45	-1.54	0.87	3.22	-2.35	0.46	58.25	-57.79			
17	4.10	4.04	+0.06	0.87	1.86	-0.99	0.63	49.79	-49.16			
28	5.45	18.92	-13.47	1.17	8.66	-7.49	-	-	-			
37	4.56	14.59	-10.03	1.03	6.18	-5.15	0.57	86.47	-85.90			

Comparison of Control and Treated Watershed Net Budgets

A more quantitative analysis of nutrient responses to treatment can be made by comparing net budgets with the long-term net budgets of adjacent, undisturbed control watersheds (Table 25.5). Comparisons are based on identical periods of record for a treated watershed and its control. However, it should be pointed out that such analyses are somewhat tenuous, because pretreatment calibrations are unavailable. On the other hand, inferences can be made about treatment effects, because this comparison method minimizes differences in geology and weathering rates between watersheds.

Compared to controls, the young white pine plantations show small losses of NO_3^- , no differences in $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$, PO_4 , and SO_4 , but accumulations of 1.2 to 4.4 kg ha^{-1} for other ions (Table 25.5). Accumulations of some nutrients such as Ca, Mg, and K in the pine catchments are 50 to 70% greater than net budgets for control watersheds. The net gain of nutrients in the pine ecosystems is partly due to greater evapotranspiration and reduced flow from pine compared to hardwoods (Chapter 22). But, the average flow reduction of 25% observed for pine accounts for less than half of the estimated accumulation. Biological processes are also apparently important, and the high rates of pine biomass and nutrient accretions (Swank and Schreuder 1973) are major reasons for nutrient conservation by pine ecosystems.

Nitrate-N net budgets for young coppice stands shows a net loss of 2.2 kg ha^{-1} compared to mature hardwoods, and little difference in $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ and PO_4 . Other ions except Mg, show small accumulations, and it appears that biogeochemical cycles rapidly reestablished after clearcutting. The grass-to-forest succession watershed (6) showed large losses of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$, Cl, Ca, Mg; these losses were a response to fertilization and liming as previously noted.

Table 25.5. Net Loss or Gain of Ions for Treated Watersheds with Different Vegetative Cover Based on a Comparison with the Net Budgets of Adjacent Undisturbed Hardwood-Covered Watersheds.

Vegetation Type, Age and Watershed Number	$\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$	PO_4	Cl	K	Na	Ca	Mg	S
Eastern white pine, Age 16 through 26 years (WS 1 and 17)	-0.7	-0.1	0.0	+1.8	+1.7	+4.4	+2.3	+1.2	+
Coppice, age 11 through 21 years (WS 13 and 37)	-2.2	-0.3	0.0	+1.0	+0.9	+2.8	+0.2	-0.6	+
Grass-to-forest succession, age 6 through 16 years (WS 6)	-6.8	-0.1	0.0	-4.4	-0.7	-0.1	-3.3	-2.6	-

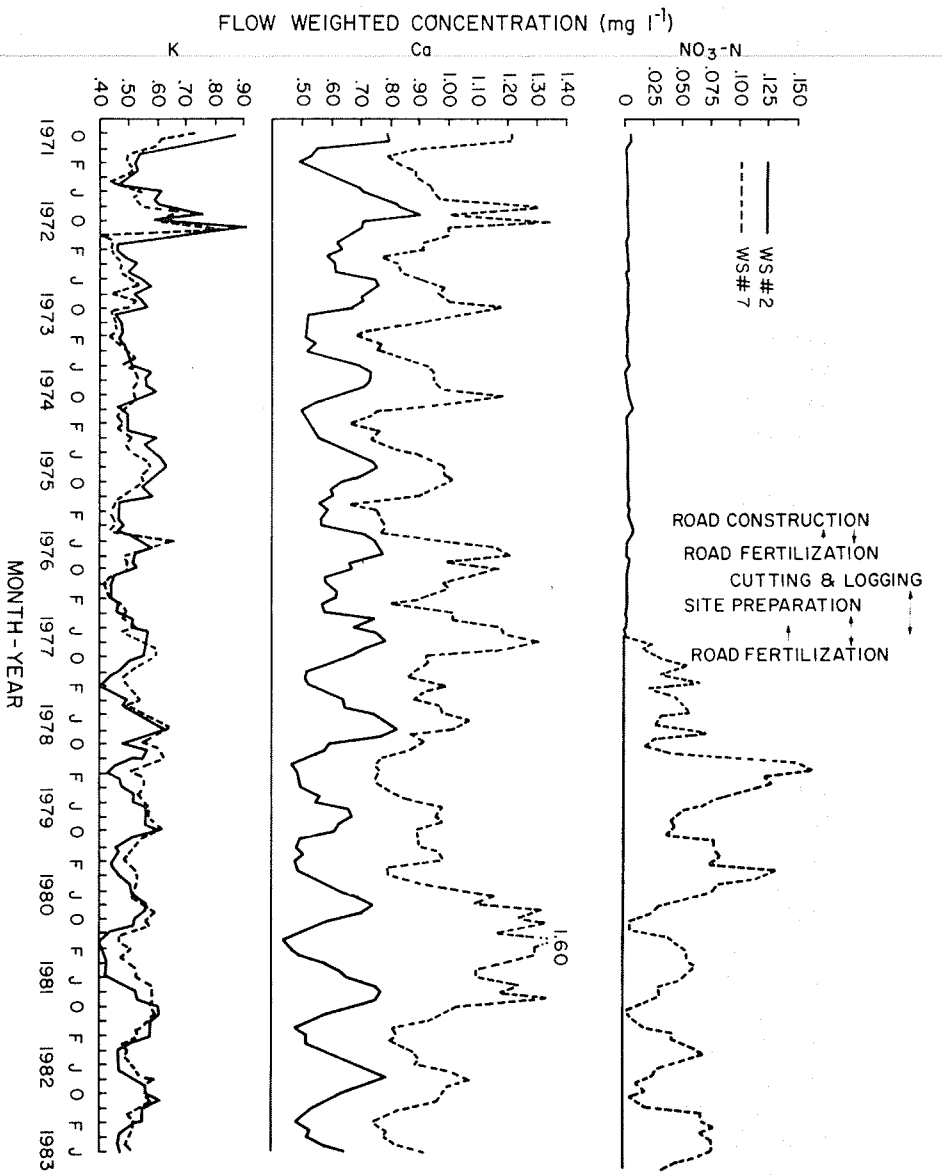
Values in $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

Responses to Clearcutting, Logging, and Early Succession

The most precise documentation of effects of clearcutting and logging on stream chemistry conducted at Coweeta is for WS 7, where pretreatment calibrations were established. Water sample collection in the second order stream draining the 5 watershed was started in 1975 using a flow proportional sampler and also weekly samples; similar methods were used on the adjacent control watersheds (WS 2). Discharge on both watersheds have been measured continuously since 1935, and provide a firm basis for predicting changes in flow volumes on WS 7 due to treatment.

Management of the watershed was separated into three major operations: (1) construction and stabilization; (2) tree felling and logging; and (3) site preparation. Three logging roads totaling 2.95 km were constructed on the watershed between mid-April and mid-June 1976. Immediately after construction, road cuts and fills were stabilized by seeding grass and applying commercial fertilizer (10-10-10) and lime. Seed, fertilizer, and lime were again applied to cuts and fills in July 1977, and to the running surface of the road in June 1978. Logging began in January 1977 and was completed in June. The majority of the logging was conducted from the roads with a mobile cable system and the forest floor generally remained intact. The site was prepared by felling the stems remaining after logging, and this operation was completed in October 1977.

Pre- and post-treatment concentrations of several selected nutrients in stream water of WS 7 and the adjacent control (WS 2) are shown in Figure 25.1. Throughout the year calibration period, mean monthly K concentrations on WS 7 were typically 15% lower than on WS 2. Elevated concentrations were observed during several months early in the summer of 1976 in response to road fertilization. Following construction and logging in 1977, K concentrations on WS 7 usually exceeded those on the control by 10 to 40% and remained elevated during most months through early 1981. Base regression analysis, most of the monthly increases on WS 7 were statistically significant (0.05 level). By late 1981, the fourth year after cutting, K concentrations were near expected pretreatment levels during all seasons except the summer, when concentrations were still moderately elevated. Baseline monthly Ca concentrations were typically 30 to 40 mg L⁻¹ higher on WS 7 compared to WS 2, but the temporal increase in Ca concentrations associated with the treatment were similar to K temporal trends (Figure 25.1). The influence of road fertilization was observed early in 1976. Beginning in the summer of 1977, Ca concentrations increased significantly (0.05 level) and remained elevated through late 1981. The largest changes in Ca concentration on WS 7 (30 to 50 mg L⁻¹) occurred in the third full growing season (1981) after cutting. Examination of Na, Mg, and Cl concentration trends showed a similar lag between time of treatment and maximum response. Baseline concentrations of NO₃⁻ in streams draining undisturbed watersheds at Coweeta are typically near analytical detection limits of 2 µg L⁻¹ (Figure 25.1). In contrast to K and Ca, no measurable increase in NO₃-N was observed at the weir when roads were fertilized in 1976, due to within stream processes which probably depleted NO₃ before it reached the weir (Swank and Caskey, 1982). Increases in NO₃-N on WS 7 began in early fall, about 6 months after the initiation of cutting. Concentration changes remained low (50 to 100 µg L⁻¹) into the following summer and then peaked (100 to 150 µg L⁻¹) during



second winter after treatment (Figure 25.1). Thereafter, NO₃-N increases decline toward baseline values, but were still elevated the fifth year after cutting.

Taken collectively, stream solutes showed small but measurable changes in concentrations. These changes indicate disruption of nutrient recycling processes, but losses must be quantified to evaluate the magnitude of management impacts. Concentration data were combined with flow volumes to calculate total flux. Annual changes in solute fluxes were estimated from pretreatment calibration regressions of monthly flux between WS 7 and its control, WS 2, for each ion. Correlations between the two watersheds were very good with *r*² values ≥ 0.92 for most ions. Exports of NO₃-N, NH₄-N, and PO₄ were very low on both watersheds and mean monthly values during the calibration period were nearly identical for the two catchments. Thus, treatment effects for these ions were simply derived by difference between pre- and post-treatment periods. Annual increases in streamflow and nutrient export during the first 5 years after logging are shown in Table 25.6. Increased export was greatest during the third year after treatment, with annual values for NO₃-N, K, Na, Ca, Mg, SO₄, and PO₄ of about 1.3, 2.4, 2.7, 3.2, 1.4, 1.2, and 2.1 kg ha⁻¹, respectively. Cutting had little effect on NH₄-N and PO₄ exports, with only small increases observed in most years. Increases in nutrient export were substantially diminished by the fifth year and appeared to be approaching prelogging levels. A major factor in increased nutrient export is the increased flow response that results from reduced evapotranspiration following cutting (Swank et al. 1982). In the first two years after cutting, annual flow increased an average of 25.5 cm and then declined to 13 cm in the third year. By the fifth year, flow was only 8 cm above the value expected if the watershed had not been cut. Although significant increases in solute export occurred in the first two years, minimum flow export occurred in the third year, when flow increases showed substantial decline. Thus, the timing of nutrient losses is not entirely related (on an annual basis) to the timing of hydrologic responses and may reflect the influence of decomposition and other nutrient recycling processes.

These relatively small changes and trends in nutrient losses clearly illustrate the concepts of ecosystem resistance and resilience. Previous theoretical analyses suggest that mixed hardwood forests at Coweeta exhibit both high resistance and high resilience as related to changes in the N cycle associated with forest harvesting activities (Sw

Table 25.6. Annual Changes in Streamflow and Solutes Following Clearcutting and Logging, Coweeta WS 7

Time Since Treatment (May–April Water Year)	Flow (cm)	Increase or Decrease in Streamflow and Solute Export ^a							
		NO ₃ -N	NH ₄ -N	PO ₄	K	Na	Ca	Mg	SO ₄
First 4 months	0.5	0.01	<0.01	0.04	0.43	0.42	0.24	0.26	1.17
First full year	27.3	0.26	0.03	0.12	1.98	1.37	2.60	0.96	0.81
Year 2	23.8	1.12	<0.01	0.03	1.95	2.22	2.51	1.15	-0.24
3	13.1	1.27	0.05	0.06	2.40	2.68	3.16	1.42	1.16
4	8.6	0.25	0.15	0.06	0.80	1.07	1.63	0.46	0.93
5	8.0	0.28	0.01	0.02	0.52	0.13	1.19	0.18	0.11

^aIncrease or decrease based on monthly calibration regressions.

and Waide 1980; Chapter 28). Ecosystem resistance is related to the presence of storage pools of organic matter and elements, which turn over slowly (Webster et al. 1975) as illustrated by previously reported Coweeta data and relatively small increases in nutrient losses shown in this study. Rapid recovery or return of nutrient loss to baseline levels are indicative of high ecosystem resilience. Reasons for rapid recovery of ecosystem biochemical cycles are related to high rates of net primary production (NPP) and incorporation and storage of nutrients in successional vegetation (Chapter 12). By the third year after cutting on WS 7, aboveground NPP on mesic sites was approximately 60% the NPP of the original mature hardwood forest. Early successional species exhibit high nutrient concentrations and in the first year after cutting, nutrient pools for N, P, K, Mg, and Ca were already 29 to 44% of the NPP of the mature forest (Boring et al. 1981). The potential roles of woody litter, soil organic matter, and nitrogen transformations in ecosystem nutrient retention for this clearcutting experiment are discussed in Chapters 12 and 16.

Grass-to-Forest Succession

The long-term experiment on WS 6 provides a unique opportunity to further examine the influence of successional vegetation on nutrient recycling processes as reflected in trends in stream chemistry. As noted previously, WS 6 has substantially elevated concentrations of some solutes due to the nature of past disturbance. The period of water stream chemistry determinations span vegetation succession from initial domination by herbaceous species (1969 to 1972) to present day domination by woody species.

Mean monthly concentrations (flow weighted) of several cations for the periods 1969 to 1972 and 1979 to 1982 for WS 18, the nearby control stream, and WS 6 are shown in Figures 25.2 and 25.3 respectively. The seasonal trends of K, Ca, and Mg concentrations for the hardwood forest (WS 18) are replicated for most years, both within and across time periods. Maximum concentrations typically occur during August or October, followed by declining concentrations in November and minimum values during the winter months. Concentrations begin to increase in early spring and continue through the summer until a maximum is reached again in the fall season. This seasonal pattern of stream cation concentrations is typical for other control hardwood watersheds at Coweeta as shown earlier in this chapter, and also for disturbed watersheds with different woody growth such as hardwood coppice and white pine (Johnson and Swank 1973).

Patterns of K, Ca, and Mg concentrations for WS 6 stream water (Figure 25.3) usually showed distinct seasonal trends during the herbaceous vegetation period (1969 to 1972). However, the timing of minimum and maximum concentrations were shifted. That is, minimum concentrations frequently occurred in August or September with a rapid increase in the fall months, maximum values in early winter, and declining concentrations in the spring. In contrast, 10 years later when the cover was dominated by woody vegetation, concentration patterns appear altered (Figure 25.3) and are returning toward trends observed for streams draining forested watersheds. For example, Ca, K, and Mg concentrations showed some evidence of decline during the winter months; minimum concentrations frequently occurred during May or June, and

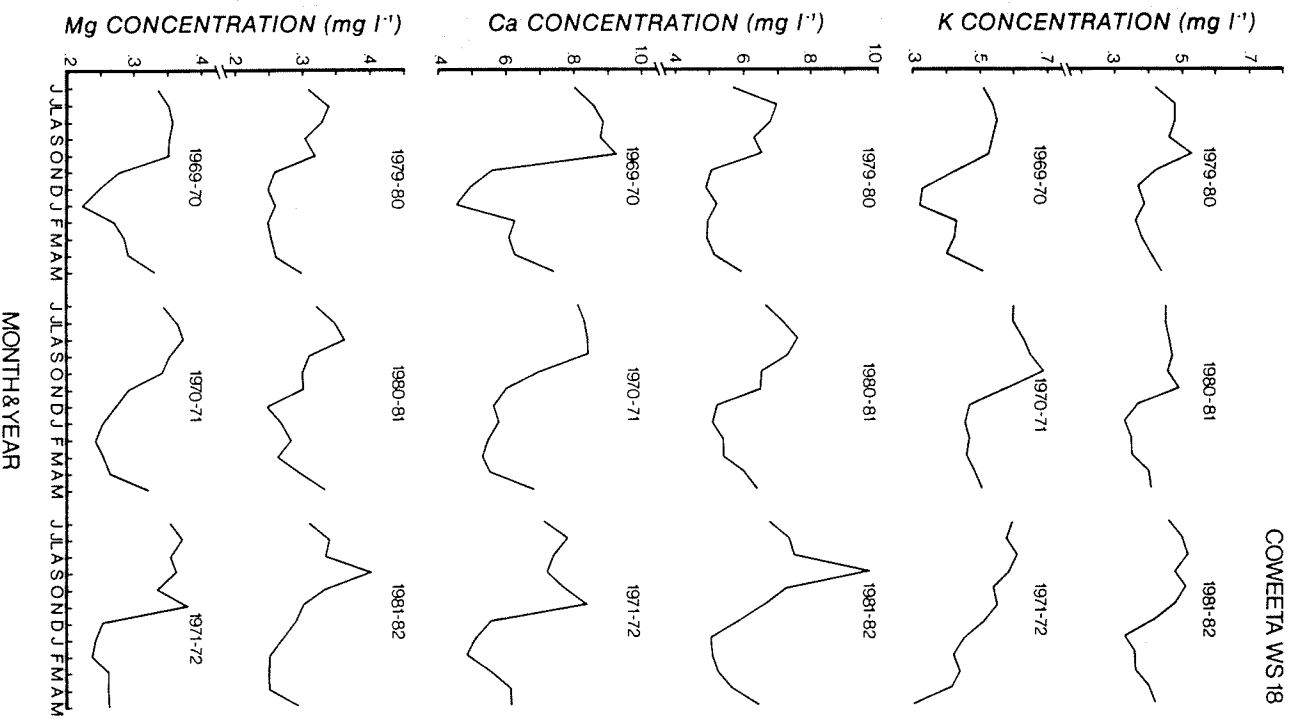


Figure 25.2. Mean monthly concentrations (flow weighted) of Mg, Ca, and K in stream water of control WS 18 during two separate 3-year periods.

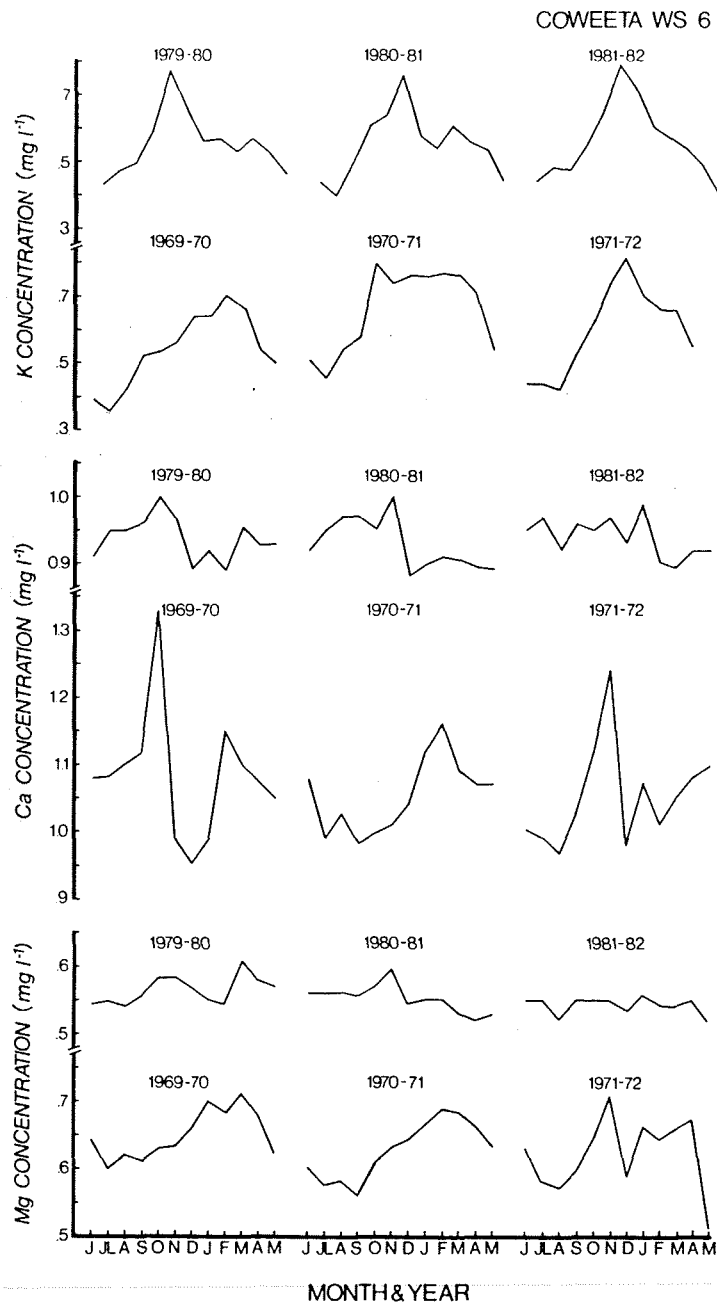


Figure 25.3. Mean monthly concentrations (flow weighted) of Mg, Ca, and K in stream wa of WS 6 during 1969-72, when the vegetation was primarily herbaceous species compared w monthly values in the period 1979-82, when the vegetation was dominated by woody speci

subsequent concentration increases occurred earlier in the fall months. Comparison values for the early and later successional periods also indicates that the amplitudes of some concentrations are damped and overall concentration levels reduced during succession. Monthly concentrations of Ca ranged from about 0.95 to 1.25 mg L⁻¹ in 1969 to 1972 and 0.90 to 1.00 mg L⁻¹ in 1979 to 1982; Mg ranges for the two periods were 0.55 to 0.70 and 0.55 to 0.60 mg L⁻¹, respectively, while K showed little change.

Monthly flow distributions and annual flows on WS 6 during these successional periods were close to those expected for a mature hardwood forest (Chapter 22). The changes in nutrient concentrations are thought to demonstrate the importance of biological processes in regulating temporal trends of cation concentrations. In the early years of succession (1969 to 1972), vegetation was dominated by a dense cover of herbaceous species such as horseweed (*Erigeron canadensis* L.) and cottonweed (*Erechtites acifolia* (L.) Raf.), but by 1980 the vegetation was dominated by woody species at a density of more than 1400 stems ha⁻¹. The magnitude of nutrient uptake, storage, and decomposition are vastly different between herbaceous and woody plants and are postulated to influence both the amount and pattern of nutrient losses. The quantitative contribution of various recycling and other biological processes to nutrient dynamics is unknown and difficult to ascertain, but it is hypothesized that seasonal patterns in stream nutrient concentrations will become reestablished as recycling processes characteristic of woody vegetation continue to develop.

Effects of Natural Disturbances on Stream Chemistry

Natural disturbances are an inherent feature of baseline ecosystems which can affect nutrient supply and mobility. Insect populations and the impact of their associated activities on biogeochemical cycles have been described (Chapter 21) and demonstrated in several Coweeta ecosystems.

In one study, an outbreak population of the fall cankerworm (Lepidoptera: Geomidae), a spring defoliator of hardwood forests, was first observed adjacent to and on Coweeta Basin in 1969. Watershed 27, a 38.8 ha control catchment, was the primary site of infestation. Defoliation began in 1970 at the higher elevations (1400 m) of the catchment and progressed toward lower elevations in ensuing years. During defoliation, mean monthly concentrations of NO₃-N in stream water of WS 27 frequently exceeded 40 mg L⁻¹ (Figure 25.4). High concentrations were observed in late winter and also during and immediately following the time period of cankerworm feeding (April through early June). At the peak of infestation in 1974, 33% of the total leaf area was consumed and NO₃-N concentrations were elevated throughout the year. Subsequently, levels of defoliation were less severe, and in 1978 the population returned to endemic or nonoutbreak levels. The decline in the cankerworm population was accompanied by a return of NO₃-N concentrations toward baseline levels (Figure 25.4).

Increased stream export of NO₃-N concomitant with defoliation was also observed on WS 36 (Figure 25.4), another high elevation catchment at Coweeta. However, cankerworm infestation was not present on the catchment when stream chemistry analyses were initiated; thus, during 1972 and 1973, mean monthly NO₃-N concentrations were representative of other undisturbed forest ecosystems at Coweeta (gene

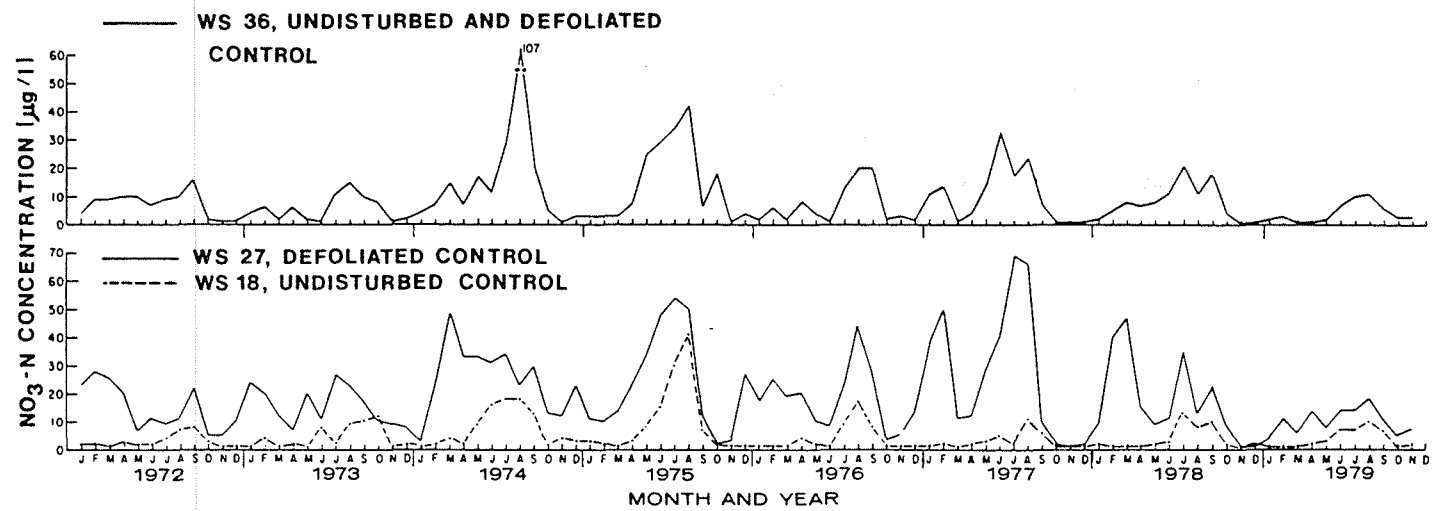


Figure 25.4. Mean monthly concentrations (flow weighted) of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ in stream water of control WS 18 compared to concentrations in streams draining two high elevation control watersheds (WS 27 and WS 36) with outbreak levels of forest defoliators. (After Swank et al. 1981. *Oecologia* 51:297-299.)

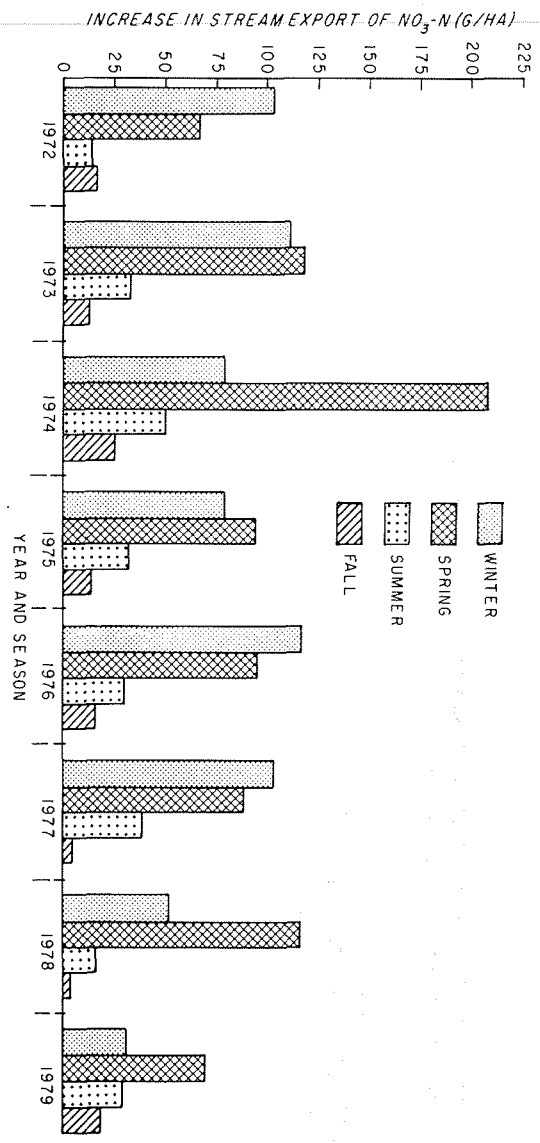


Figure 25. 5. Seasonal increases in NO₃-N export from the partially defoliated hardwood forest on WS 27 during an 8 year period.

below $10 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). In the late spring of 1974, concentrations began to rise and egg m surveys on trees in 1975 confirmed that infestation had occurred on the catchme although defoliation was not as severe as on WS 27. Again, by 1979, concentrati had returned to baseline levels (Figure 25.4). Elevated $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentrations fo “control” stream in association with extensive cankerworm defoliation was a detected for another catchment about 13 km from the Coweeta Basin (Swank et 1981). The impact of defoliation on seasonal exports of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ from WS 27 are sho in Figure 25.5. Annual increased export of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ for the period shown ranged fr about 200 g ha^{-1} in 1978 to 450 g ha^{-1} in 1974, and more than 80% of the increa: export occurred during the winter and spring months. This pattern was due to the co bined factors of elevated concentrations and high streamflow during these seasons co pared to the remainder of the year. Discussion of why defoliation leads to increa: $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ export have been given elsewhere (Swank et al. 1981).

Further evidence for insect regulation of stream nutrient responses at the ecosyst level is found on another catchment at Coweeta. Characteristics and the treatment h tory for WS 6 were previously discussed. During the period of grass and herbaceo to-forest succession, mean annual $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentrations in stream water gradua declined from about 0.75 mg L^{-1} in 1972 to 0.50 mg L^{-1} in 1978 (Figure 25.6). Th in 1979, $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentration showed an abrupt increase to 0.75 mg L^{-1} concurr with a heavy infestation of the locust stem borer (*Megacyllene robiniae*). Since bla locust was the dominant woody species, the infestation was distributed over most

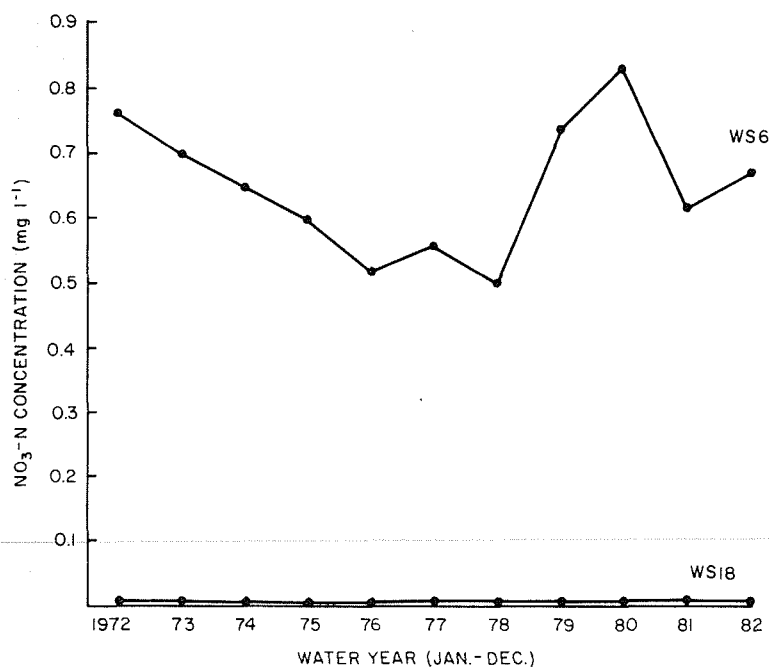


Figure 25.6. Mean annual concentrations (flow weighted) of $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ in streams draining cont WS 18 and WS 6 during the period of grass-to-forest succession.

the catchment. In the subsequent year (1980), $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ concentrations increased to 0.2 mg L^{-1} and has remained above preinfestation levels in ensuing years. By 1982, 50% of the black locust trees were dead, 18% were severely injured, and many of the remaining stems showed some evidence of canopy decline (L.R. Boring, unpublished data). A number of hypotheses are currently under investigation to examine the functional relationship between insect stress and increased NO_3 loss from the ecosystem. These studies are focused on the effects of insect populations on nutrient uptake, quantity and quality of litterfall, nitrification, and nitrogen fixation.

Both of the preceding experiments demonstrate functional, ecosystem-level regulation of nutrient recycling by terrestrial insects under outbreak conditions. The catchment responses represent the integrated functional properties of an entire forest ecosystem and reflect changes in biogeochemical processes within the ecosystem. In both cases, changes in concentrations of other dissolved constituents such as K , Ca , and other cations are difficult to detect because baseline values are usually higher than NO_3 , and differences in bedrock mineralogy between insect infested and noninfested catchments influence ions sufficiently to mask small changes in ionic composition.

Summary

Long-term measurements of dissolved inorganic constituents of streams draining disturbed watersheds have been made at Coweeta. Disturbances include commercial selection cutting, commercial and noncommercial clearcutting, conversion of hardwoods to white pine and grass covers, agricultural cropping, and natural disturbances comprised of insect outbreaks. Initiation of stream chemistry studies post most watershed treatments and represent conditions at varying periods of time since disturbance. Taken together, the responses in stream chemistry to forest disturbance can be summarized by the following points:

1. Over the period of observation beginning in 1972, none of the disturbances produced nutrient concentrations that would have an adverse impact on water quality for municipalities or downstream fisheries.
 2. Compared to other forested regions of the United States, increases in nutrient concentrations of streams are small, even for the most drastic vegetation disturbances.
 3. Nitrate-N is a sensitive indicator of forest disturbance and although concentrations are quite low ($<0.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$), elevated levels in streams draining clearcuts appear to persist for at least 20 years after cutting.
 4. Comparisons of annual nutrient input and output budgets for control versus disturbed watersheds illustrate the importance of evapotranspiration (Et) processes in regulating biogeochemical cycles. Hardwood to white pine conversion increased annual stream discharge, and consequently reduced the export of some dissolved nutrients. Conversely, clearcutting reduced Et , increased water flux, and increased nutrient export.
-

5. Budget data, combined with process research, also demonstrate the importance of biological processes in nutrient retention and loss from forest ecosystems. Decomposition, net primary production, and uptake and storage of nutrients in successional vegetation are important factors that regulate the magnitude and timing of nutrient exports.
 6. Outbreak infestations of two different insects provide evidence for insect regulation of nutrient recycling and losses at an ecosystem level as revealed by changes in stream chemistry.
-
-