1	Rapid ecosystem reco	very from diffuse pollution after the Great Irish
2	Famine	
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1 Abstract

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3 Remarkably little is known about the effectiveness or rates of recovery of aquatic 4 ecosystems from reductions in human-associated pressures at landscape scales. The 5 retention of anthropogenic contaminants within ecosystems can retard rates of recovery 6 considerably, while the trajectories of recovery processes vary with the extent of 7 anthropogenic disturbance and the resilience of biotic assemblages. The Great Irish Famine 8 of 1845-1850 comprised one of the most significant human disasters of the nineteenth 9 century, causing the death of approximately one million people and the emigration of a 10 further two million from the country between 1845 and 1855. We found, through analysis 11 of detailed historical census data combined with paleolimnological investigation of 12 sedimentary nutrient concentrations, stable isotope ratios and diatom assemblages, that the 13 trophic level of Lough Carra, a largely shallow calcareous lake in the west of Ireland with 14 no urban areas or point sources of any significance, reduced considerably during and 15 immediately after the Great Famine, shifting to new equilibria within just 2 to 10 years. 16 Our results demonstrate that the reduction of human pressures from diffuse sources at 17 landscape scales can result in the rapid and monotonic recovery of aquatic ecosystems. 18 Moreover, the recovery of ecosystems from diffuse pollution need not necessarily take 19 longer than from pollution from point sources. 20

Keywords: disturbance, resilience, point source, nutrients, landscape, depopulation,
eutrophication

1 Introduction

2 As the extent and intensity of human influence on the biosphere continue to 3 increase, there is a critical need to manage ecosystems in ways that maximize their 4 integrity. Inherent in this is the ability to predict rates and trajectories of recovery after 5 disturbance (Peterson et al. 2003, Lotze et al. 2006). Remarkably little is known, however, 6 about the effectiveness or rates of ecosystem recovery from rapid and large-scale human 7 depopulation and the consequent reduction in their associated pressures. Anthropogenic 8 contaminants can be retained within ecosystems for long periods (Withers et al. 2001, 9 Kretzschmar and Schäfer 2005, Banks et al. 2006) and can, thus, retard rates of recovery 10 considerably (Peterson et al. 2003, Schippers et al. 2006). Consequently, historic land use 11 can have persistent effects for centuries (Knops and Tilman 2000, Fraterrigo et al. 2005, 12 McLauchlan et al. 2007, Matamala et al. 2008). Further, in some cases, full recovery may 13 never occur owing, for example, to hysteretic shifts in ecosystem structure, loss of native 14 species pools and genotypic diversity, shifts in species dominance and trophic structure or 15 changes in landscape connectivity and organization (Rietkerk et al. 2004, Suding et al. 16 2004, Reusch et al. 2005, Lotze et al. 2006). Moreover, both rates and trajectories of 17 recovery can differ significantly from those of impact processes (Hjermann et al. 2004, 18 Zhao et al. 2005, Ibelings et al. 2007) which makes our ability to predict the nature and 19 rates of recovery at ecosystem scales remarkably poor. 20 Eutrophication from nutrient enrichment comprises a globally important 21 anthropogenic pressure on aquatic ecosystems (Smith et al. 2006, Smith and Schindler 2009). Increased transfer of phosphorus to water is considered as the primary cause of 22

eutrophication of freshwaters, particularly in northern temperate lakes (Schindler 1978).

1	Lake restoration efforts based on reducing external loading of phosphorus have, however,
2	met with varied levels of success and can be affected significantly by, for example, the
3	relative importance of internal nutrient loading (Marsden 1989, Sas 1989, Søndergaard et
4	al. 2003, Jeppesen et al. 2005), historical loading history (Jeppesen et al. 1991), lake
5	retention time (Kilinc and Moss 2002, Søndergaard et al. 2005) and fish community
6	structure (Jeppesen et al. 1990, Hansson et al. 1998). The length of time required to
7	achieve discernable decreases in lake water column total phosphorus concentrations after
8	reduction in point source nutrient loading has been shown to vary commonly from 10 to 15
9	years (Jeppesen et al. 2005). Some lakes have, however, shown no signs of recovery even
10	20 years after reduction of phosphorus input (Jeppesen et al. 2005, Moss et al. 2005).
11	The great majority of, if not all, efforts to restore lakes through the reduction of
12	external nutrient loading have been based primarily upon diversion, removal or improved
13	treatment of point sources of nutrients (see, for example, Marsden 1989, Sas 1989,
14	Jeppesen et al. 2005). Owing, however, to the considerable difficulties involved with the
15	effective manipulation and management of whole catchments, little is known about rates of
16	lake recovery from catchment-scale reductions in anthropogenic disturbance. Rates of lake
17	recovery from diffuse pollution may be lengthened considerably compared with that from
18	point sources due to the retention of nutrients and other substances within soil matrices (e.g.
19	Johnston and Poulton 1992, Withers et al. 2001, Kretzschmar and Schäfer 2005, Banks et
20	al. 2006, Bunemann et al. 2006). Lag times of the order of years to decades might,
21	therefore, be expected to occur between initial reductions of agricultural intensity and
22	consequent decreases in rates of diffuse nutrient transfer to drainage networks (Schippers et
23	al. 2006).

1	The Great Irish Famine of 1845-1850 comprised one of the most significant human
2	disasters of the nineteenth century, causing the death of approximately one million people
3	and the emigration of a further two million from the country between 1845 and 1855
4	(Póirtéir 1995). This altered permanently the demographic, political and cultural landscape
5	not only of Ireland, but also, in particular, of the United States and Great Britain. The
6	famine resulted in the dramatic depopulation of the Irish landscape, particularly in western
7	regions where reductions of over 40% of the human population were recorded between
8	1841 and 1851. As lakes act as sinks for materials from their catchments, paleolimnology
9	comprises one of the few techniques supporting quantification of rates of ecosystem-scale
10	change over discrete intervals of time (Carpenter 2003, Smol 2008) and has, therefore, the
11	potential to provide holistic insight into rates and trajectories of ecosystem recovery after
12	the Great Famine. To this end, we took two sediment cores from the two deepest and most
13	geochemically distinct basins (Hobbs et al. 2005) of Lough Carra, a mostly shallow (mean
14	depth 1.8 m; max depth 19 m) calcareous lake (surface area 15.6 km ²) located in a low-
15	lying (mean elevation 30 m ASL) agricultural landscape in the west of Ireland (Fig. 1). The
16	catchment of Lough Carra (area 114 km ²) has never contained urban areas or contaminant
17	point sources of any significance and, thus, provides an excellent location for the
18	examination of rates of ecosystem recovery from human depopulation and associated
19	reductions in diffuse nutrient pollution at the landscape scale. After establishing
20	radiometric chronologies for the cores, we quantified the structure of historic diatom
21	assemblages, ratios of the stable isotopes $\delta^{13}C$ (for organic material only) and $\delta^{15}N$ and the
22	concentrations and accumulation rates of particulate organic matter and key nutrients.
23	Further, using historic census data with high spatial and temporal resolutions, we were also

1 able to estimate human and livestock population densities for the Carra catchment and use

2 those data to estimate changes in the primary sources of nutrients to the lake from the

3 period immediately subsequent to the Great Famine through to the present day.

4 Material and methods

5 *Core sampling and analyses*

6 Sediment cores were taken from the deepest points in the northern (53.731° N, 7 09.263° W) and middle (53.714° N, 09.253° W) basins of Lough Carra (Fig. 1) in July 8 2002 using a Lincoln piston corer of 5 cm diameter. Core sediments were extruded into 1 9 cm segments immediately after collection, placed in polygrip plastic bags and stored in 10 darkness at 4°C. Quantification of total phosphorus (TP) followed Eisenreich et al. (1975) after nitric acid digestion in a CEM[®] MDS-2000 microwave (CEM Corporation, North 11 12 Carolina, USA). Percent organic matter was determined by loss-on-ignition of 13 approximately 2 g of dry sediment at 550°C for 3 hours (Heiri et al. 2001). Organic carbon and nitrogen were quantified by flash combustion at 900°C in a Carlo Erba® 1112 Series 14 15 Elemental Analyzer (Thermo Scientific Inc., Massachusetts, USA) after removal of inorganic carbon with sulfurous acid. Ratios of the stable isotopes δ^{15} N and δ^{13} Corg, the 16 latter corrected for historic δ^{13} C depletion of atmospheric CO₂ (Schelske and Hodell 1995), 17 were quantified with a Thermo[®] Deltaplus continuous flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer 18 19 (Thermo Scientific Inc., Massachusetts, USA) and are reported relative to, respectively, air 20 and Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite.

2 After grinding to less than approximately 1 mm particle size, the concentrations of gamma-emitting ²¹⁰Pb, ²¹⁴Pb, ²¹⁴Bi, ¹³⁷Cs and ²⁴¹Am were determined by placing dried 3 4 sediments in a calibrated geometry and counting in a high-resolution, low-background, p-5 type germanium well detector. Energy and efficiency calibration was done using a mixed 6 radionuclide standard supplied by Cerca Framatome ANP (Pierrelatte, France; code: 7081/4) and a separate ²¹⁰Pb standard supplied by Amersham International (Amersham, 7 UK; code: S6/19/110). ²¹⁰Pb_{excess} (excess or unsupported ²¹⁰Pb) activity was calculated 8 from the total ²¹⁰Pb activity by subtracting the terrestrial (supported) ²¹⁰Pb component, 9 which was calculated as the mean activity of ²¹⁴Pb and ²¹⁴Bi for the sample. Chronologies 10 11 and sediment accumulation rates were estimated using the constant rate of supply (CRS) 12 model (Appleby and Oldfield 1978). Modeled CRS chronologies were validated using 13 dates determined independently from the well-known pattern of nuclear fallout input from anthropogenic ¹³⁷Cs and ²⁴¹Am. The mean sediment accumulation rate quantified directly 14 15 for the CRS-dated portion of the core was used to estimate chronologies for the lower regions of the core where ²¹⁰Pb_{excess} activity was not detectable. The core from the northern 16 17 basin was dated radiometrically with chronological control extended to the middle basin 18 core by correlation of down-core variation in sediment properties. Chemical accumulation rates, expressed as g m⁻² a⁻¹, were calculated as the product of chemical concentrations and 19 20 dry mass accumulation rates.

21 Census data and modeling of historic TP loads

Data on historical human population densities were obtained from the Central
Statistics Office of Ireland for the period 1841-2002, with a mean (± s.d.) of 8 ± 4.2 years

1	between each census (range = $2-20$ years). Human population data were available for the
2	entire period at the level of the District Electoral Division (DED), which is the finest census
3	resolution possible. The Carra catchment encompasses 10 DEDs, each with a mean (\pm s.d.)
4	area of $28.1 \pm 9.3 \text{ km}^2$. Historical land cover, livestock density and farm holding data were
5	obtained for the period 1851-2002, with a mean (\pm s.d.) of 8.3 \pm 3.1 years between each
6	census (range = 3-15 years). These data were, however, available at DED level only for
7	1851 and from 1937-2000 and were recorded at the level of the Rural District (RD)
8	between 1861 and 1933. The Lough Carra catchment is located within two RDs; Castlebar
9	(588 km ² ; 14% in catchment) and Ballinrobe (570 km ² ; 6% in catchment). Calculations of
10	human and livestock densities, land cover and farm holdings in the catchment were
11	estimated by weighted averaging based on the proportion of DEDs and, where necessary,
12	RDs located within the catchment. This method thus assumed a homogenous distribution
13	of people, livestock and land use within DEDs and RDs.
14	Historic TP loads from the catchment of Lough Carra to the lake were estimated
15	using the export coefficient model of Johnes et al. (1996) for calcareous catchments. The
16	application of this model to the Carra catchment works extremely well and has been
17	validated with actual measurements of nutrient loading from the catchment in addition to
18	measurements of in-lake nutrient concentrations (Donohue, unpublished data). Due,
19	however, to high variation in the spatial resolution, and hence representativeness, of the
20	agricultural census data, the model was used only to elucidate temporal patterns in the
21	proportional contribution of key nutrient sources over the period examined.

1 Diatom analyses

2	Diatom remains were quantified from, respectively, 10 and 11 samples located
3	throughout the north and middle basin cores within which high quality of valve
4	preservation was found. Diatom slides were prepared following Battarbee et al. (2001),
5	with 300-500 valves counted per slide, all of which were identified to species level
6	following Krammer and Lange-Bertalot (1986-1991). Variation in the structure of diatom
7	assemblages in these samples among the three main phases of lake productivity indicated
8	by the biogeochemical data from the cores (<i>i.e.</i> pre-famine; 1870-1960 and post-1960; see
9	Results) was examined with permutational multivariate analysis of variance
10	(PERMANOVA; Anderson 2001, McArdle and Anderson 2001). Lake basin (random
11	factor) and productivity phase (fixed factor) were independent variables in this mixed-
12	effects model, which was based on a Bray-Curtis (Bray and Curtis 1957) similarity matrix
13	calculated from $log(x+1)$ -transformed proportional abundance data and was done with 9999
14	permutations under the reduced model as recommended by Anderson (2006) using
15	PRIMER [®] Version 6.1.

16 The composition of diatom assemblages from the north basin core was used to infer 17 historic water column TP concentrations in Lough Carra using European Diatom Database 18 (EDD) software for palaeoenvironmental reconstructions (Juggins 2001). Match analogue 19 technique (Birks et al. 1990, Jones and Juggins 1995) was used to identify datasets with the 20 closest matches to the fossil samples. Historic diatom-inferred water column TP (DI-TP) 21 concentrations were estimated using locally-weighted weighted averaging (Birks et al. 22 1990) with inverse de-shrinking because reconstructed values lay closer to the mean of the 23 training set values (Juggins 2001). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then used to

examine whether temporal patterns in modeled DI-TP concentrations concurred with those
of the biogeochemical data from the cores by examining whether they varied among the
three lake productivity phases described previously. No attempt was made to model DI-TP
concentrations from the mid basin core as in excess of 25% of diatom taxa from the core
were absent from the EDD (Birks 1998).

6 **Results**

²¹⁰Pb_{excess} activity concentrations declined exponentially with depth in the North 7 8 Basin core (Fig. 2), consistent with a relatively constant rate of sediment accumulation. 9 Application of the constant rate of supply (CRS) radiometric dating model yielded a mean (± s.d.) sediment accumulation rate of 0.156 ± 0.03 g cm⁻² a⁻¹. The core chronology is 10 supported strongly by the ¹³⁷Cs profile (Fig. 2), which shows two relatively well-resolved 11 12 peaks corresponding to radioactive fallout from Chernobyl (1986) and global nuclear weapons fallout (onset: 1954; peak: 1963). The presence of ²⁴¹Am in the layers 13 corresponding to the deeper peak in ¹³⁷Cs confirm its origin as weapons fallout. 14

15 Chronologies for the highly consistent profiles from the two sediment cores show a 16 dramatic and monotonic decline in both sedimentary $\delta^{15}N$ and organic matter in the period 17 immediately following the Great Famine of 1845-1850 (Fig. 3). Considerable depletions in δ^{15} N of the order of, respectively, 1.25 and 1.13‰ in the northern and middle basin cores 18 19 were found over a two year period immediately after the famine while the concurrent 20 monotonic reduction in sedimentary organic matter content took place over approximately 21 These decreases were coincident with a 39.8% reduction in the human ten vears. 22 population recorded between 1841 and 1861 (Fig. 3). These shifts to new equilibria were 23 also contemporaneous with monotonic reductions in concentrations of sedimentary

1 phosphorus (Fig. 4). Although following a similar pattern, phosphorus accumulation rates 2 were considerably more variable during this period, particularly in the core from the northern basin. Molar ratios of C_{org} : N and sedimentary $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ (Fig. 4) were highly 3 consistent (Pearson Product-Moment correlation; r = 0.906, p < 0.0001, df = 28) and 4 5 generally increased over an approximately 20 year period during and subsequent to the 6 famine. This pattern was, however, punctuated by a distinct peak in both ratios which took place immediately subsequent to the phase of declining sedimentary $\delta^{15}N$ stable isotope 7 8 ratios and organic matter after the famine. Simultaneous and consistent enrichment of sedimentary $\delta^{15}N$, organic matter content and both concentrations and accumulation rates 9 10 of phosphorus were found towards the top of both cores, from the latter half of the 11 twentieth century to the present and particularly in the last two decades, concurrent with 12 declining molar organic Corg:N ratios (Figs. 3 & 4).

13 Even though the structure of lake diatom assemblages differed significantly between 14 the two sediment cores, significant differences were also found among the three main 15 phases of lake productivity indicated by the biogeochemistry of the cores (*i.e.* pre-famine; 16 1870-1960 and post-1960; Table 1(a)). A posteriori pairwise tests found that the structure 17 of diatom assemblages during the post-famine (1870-1960) phase differed significantly 18 from those prior to the famine (t = 2.06, p = 0.02). DI-TP concentrations estimated from 19 the north basin core also varied significantly with lake productivity phase (Table 1(b)) and comprised (mean \pm s.d.) 15 \pm 2.6 µg L⁻¹ for the period prior to the famine, 12.2 \pm 2.4 µg L⁻¹ 20 for 1870-1960 and $19.6 \pm 1.8 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$ since 1960. A posteriori tests found, however, that DI-21 22 TP concentrations differed significantly only between the post-1960 and 1870-1960 23 productivity phases (least significant difference *post hoc* test; p = 0.003).

appear to have changed considerably in the last 150 years, with human effluent comprising the main source up to 1900, whereas cattle have provided the majority of TP loading to the lake since 1970 (Fig. 5(a)). This increase in the relative importance of cattle farming has

been concurrent with a consistent increase in the number of larger farms (>20 ha) in the
catchment (Fig. 5(b)) owing to the aggregation of small farms and the associated removal
of field boundaries.

The relative importance of the primary sources of phosphorus to the lake (Table 2)

8 **Discussion**

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9 Our results suggest strongly that the trophic level of Lough Carra (sensu Rodhe 10 1969, Wetzel 2001) reduced dramatically over less than 10 years after the rapid and large-11 scale depopulation of the landscape and reduction of associated human pressures that occurred as a result of the Great Famine. The sedimentary profiles of δ^{15} N and organic 12 13 matter from the two sediment cores indicate that considerable and monotonic declines in 14 the transfer of nutrients and particulate organic matter from the catchment and associated 15 reductions in lake productivity took place over approximately, respectively, 2 and 10 years, 16 concurrent with a 40% decline in human population density. The depletion in sedimentary δ^{15} N during this period likely reflect both reduced input of diffuse N from the catchment 17 18 and associated decreased utilization of nitrate by algae in the lake (Bunting et al. 2007). 19 Although abandonment of agriculture and the associated tightening of the N-cycle has also been found to reduce δ^{15} N in upper soil layers (Compton et al. 2007), it is unlikely that 20 21 decreases of the magnitude observed here could be accounted for by this mechanism over 22 such a short timescale as 2 years. These shifts to new equilibria were also concurrent with 23 reductions in both concentrations and accumulation rates of sedimentary phosphorus, which

further support the premise that nutrient losses from the catchment to the lake declined as a result of reductions in human population pressure and associated agricultural intensity. The possibility of post-depositional mobilization of phosphorus upon sediment deposition is considered to be low in Lough Carra owing to the low likelihood of historical changes in redox states in the lake (Hobbs et al. 2005).

6 The remarkable similarity and consistency between the two cores, which were taken 7 from the two most geochemically distinct basins in the lake (Hobbs et al. 2005), 8 demonstrate that the patterns found here occurred throughout the lake system. Corg:N ratios 9 from both cores suggest strongly that the organic matter deposited in Lough Carra 10 comprised significant contributions from both allochthonous (produced in the catchment) and autochthonous (produced in the lake) sources. Profiles of both C_{org} :N and $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ 11 12 indicate that the relative contributions of these sources has varied considerably over the last 200 years and particularly after the Great Famine. Increasing ratios of both Corg:N and 13 $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ during this period indicate reduced contribution of lacustrine productivity to 14 15 sedimentary organic matter and increased dominance of terrestrial organic matter, for which C_{org}:N ratios vary typically between 20 and 100 (Jasper and Gagosian 1989). This is 16 17 consistent with reduced nutrient losses from the catchment after the famine resulting in decreased in-lake productivity. These gradual increases in both C_{org} :N and $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ were 18 19 punctuated by a dramatic peak in both ratios in both cores at the end of the period of 20 decreasing trophic level after the famine which is highly indicative of a pulse of terrestrial 21 organic matter into the lake. Historical records (Board of Public Works 1853) suggest 22 strongly that this pulse is attributable to drainage works that took place in the lake 23 catchment in the summer of 1852 and subsequent extreme flooding, the worst in living

1 memory at the time, that obliterated those works later that winter, two years after the 2 famine. The estimated CRS date for this event, however, which was estimated indirectly 3 using the mean sedimentation rate from the upper portion of the core, is 1866. After 4 extensive searches, however, we could find nothing else either in the literature or from local 5 knowledge that may have accounted for this event. On balance, therefore, our results 6 would suggest that the accumulation rate of sediment in the lower portion of the core where 7 the chronology was estimated indirectly was slightly higher than that estimated for the 8 upper region of the core and that the observed reduction of trophic level of Lough Carra 9 took place during, rather than immediately subsequent to, the Great Famine of 1845-1850.

10 Sources of phosphorus to the lake appear to have changed dramatically since the 11 famine, driven initially directly by reductions in human populations in the catchment. The 12 majority of recent inputs of phosphorus to the lake was, however, derived directly from 13 intensification of catchment use associated with cattle farming, and demonstrates a 14 dramatic change in catchment land use and sources of nutrients over the last 150 years. 15 Further, the size of farms has also increased considerably, in particular since the 1950s. 16 These factors, coupled with the associated removal of field boundaries, suggest that the 17 process of recovery from current anthropogenic pressures would likely differ from, and 18 could be more difficult and lengthy than, that which occurred as a result of the Great 19 Famine. Further, there is evidence that the surface lakebed sediments in Lough Carra have 20 approached their maximum sorption capacity for phosphorus (Hobbs et al. 2005). Beyond 21 this point, there is a strong possibility that the lake could switch rapidly from its current 22 state of relatively clear water with extensive macrophyte growth to an alternative stable 23 state with a highly turbid water column (Scheffer et al. 2001). Recovery from the latter

state would be expected to take considerably longer than required after the Great Famine
 and would necessitate much management effort, potentially incurring substantial financial
 cost.

4 Results from our biogeochemical indicators of historical catchment conditions and 5 inferred shifts in ecosystem equilibria are supported strongly by the fact that diatom 6 assemblages varied significantly among the three phases of lake productivity indicated by 7 the cores. Further, diatom-inferred TP concentrations also varied significantly among the 8 lake productivity phases and were lowest in the period subsequent to the famine. Results 9 from the analyses of diatom assemblages in the cores therefore support the assertion that 10 biological change occurred in the lake coincident with the biogeochemical shifts to new 11 equilibria that occurred after the Great Famine. Even though this study suffers from the 12 constraints associated normally with uncontrolled observational studies, the fact that such 13 consistent results were obtained from the analysis of a number of independent proxies 14 provides strong support for our conclusions.

15 The fact that Lough Carra is largely shallow with, therefore, a relatively important 16 contribution of benthic processes to lake ecology, would have been expected to retard 17 recovery of the lake significantly (Moss et al. 1996). The rapid establishment of new 18 ecosystem equilibria within two to ten years following the Great Famine is, however, 19 comparable with the most expeditious response of lakes whose nutrient loading from point 20 sources have been reduced using modern engineering solutions (Jeppesen et al. 2005). This 21 is in spite of the fact that nutrients and other substances can be retained by soil matrices for 22 long periods, potentially delaying recovery from landscape-scale anthropogenic disturbance 23 significantly (Schippers et al. 2006). The legacy of historic anthropogenic disturbance can

potentially last for centuries, even after rapid human depopulation has taken place (Webb and Newman 1982, Paul 1991, Knapp 1992, Brown 2000). Our results demonstrate, however, that the swift reduction of human-associated pressures from diffuse sources at landscape scales can, in some circumstances, result in the rapid and monotonic recovery of lake ecosystems. Recovery of ecosystems from diffuse pollution need not necessarily, therefore, take longer than from pollution from point sources.

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12	

- 1 Tables
- 2
- 3 Table 1. Results of analyses of diatom assemblage structure (a; PERMANOVA) and DI-

4 TP concentrations (b; ANOVA) during the three main phases of lake productivity indicated

- 5 by the biogeochemistry of core sediments.
- 6

Source of variation	df	Sum of	Mean	F-ratio	р
		squares	square		
Lake basin, B	1	5401.4	5401.4	6.8*	≤0.0001
Productivity phase, P	2	4616.9	2308.4	2.6*	0.033
B*P	2	1776.8	888.4	1.1*	0.33
Residual	15	11944	796.3		
Productivity phase	2	83.3	41.7	5.3	0.039
Residual	7	54.6	7.8		
	Source of variation Lake basin, B Productivity phase, P B*P Residual Productivity phase Residual	Source of variationdfLake basin, B1Productivity phase, P2B*P2Residual15Productivity phase2A7	Source of variationdfSum of squaresLake basin, B15401.4Productivity phase, P24616.9B*P21776.8Residual1511944Productivity phase283.3Residual754.6	Source of variationdfSum ofMeansquaressquaressquareLake basin, B15401.45401.4Productivity phase, P24616.92308.4B*P21776.8888.4Residual1511944796.3Productivity phase283.341.7Residual754.67.8	Source of variationdfSum ofMeanF-ratiosquaressquaressquaresquareLake basin, B15401.46.8*Productivity phase, P24616.92308.42.6*B*P21776.8888.41.1*Residual1511944796.3Productivity phase283.341.75.3Residual754.67.8

7 * Pseudo-*F*-ratio

Table 2. Mean (\pm s.d.) and range of percentage contributions of the primary sources of2phosphorus to the total modelled annual catchment TP loading to Lough Carra for the3period 1851-2002 (n = 19).

Source	Mean contribution (%)	Range of contribution (%)		
Cattle	33.8 ± 14.3	14.1 – 59.8		
Humans	29.1 ± 11.8	15.1 – 52.3		
Tillage	13.4 ± 6.9	0.6 - 25.5		
Grassland	10.5 ± 5.4	0-17		
Sheep	9.5 ± 3.3	4.5 - 14.8		
Pigs	3.8 ± 1.2	0-5.4		

1 Figure legends

2

Fig. 1. Lough Carra and its catchment, showing the locations of the north (1) and mid (2)
basin cores.

5

Fig. 2. Activity profiles (± s.d.) of ²¹⁰Pb_{excess} (a), ¹³⁷Cs (b) and ²⁴¹Am (c) (the latter two
profiles with CRS dates) in the north basin core. ²⁴¹Am was above detection limits in only
a limited section of the core.

9

10 **Fig. 3.** Estimated human population density of the Lough Carra catchment, 1841-2002 (a) 11 and profiles (with CRS dates) of sedimentary $\delta^{15}N$ (b) and organic matter (c) in the cores 12 taken from the north (closed squares) and middle (open circles) basins of Lough Carra. 13

Fig. 4. Profiles (with CRS dates) of concentrations (a) and accumulation rates (b) of total phosphorus and ratios of C_{org} :N (c) and $\delta^{13}C_{org}$ (d) in the cores taken from the north (closed squares) and middle (open circles) basins of Lough Carra

17

18 Fig. 5. Historical change in the percentage of modeled total TP load to Lough Carra

19 attributable to humans (closed squares) and cattle (open circles) (a) and the number of

20 farms <20 ha (closed squares) and >20 ha (open circles) in area in the lake catchment (b).



Fig. 1. Donohue et al.



Fig. 2. Donohue et al.



Fig. 3. Donohue et al.



Fig. 4. Donohue et al.



Fig. 5. Donohue et al.