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Reduced acid deposition leads to a new start for brown trout (Salmo trutta) in an acified lake in Southern Norway

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1 2 3	Reduced acid deposition leads to new start for brown trout (<i>Salmo trutta</i>) in an acidified lake in southern Norway
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31 Abstract

Acid deposition has led to acidification and loss of fish populations in thousands of lakes and streams in Norway. Since the peak in the late 1970s acid deposition has been greatly reduced, and acidified surface waters have shown chemical recovery. Biological recovery, in particular fish populations, however, has lagged behind. Long-term monitoring of water chemistry and fish populations in Lake Langtjern, south-eastern Norway, show that around 2008 chemical recovery had progressed to the point at which natural reproduction of brown trout (Salmo trutta) reoccurred. The stocked brown trout reproduced in the period 2008–2014, probably for the first time since the 1960s, but reproduction and/or early life stage survival was very low. The results indicate that chemical thresholds for reproduction in this lake are approximately pH = 5.1, Al_i = 26 μ g/l, ANC = 47 μ eq/l, and ANC_{oaa} = 10 μ eq/l as annual mean values. These thresholds agree largely with the few other cases of documented recovery of brown trout in sites in Norway, Sweden and the UK. Occurrence and duration of acidic episodes have decreased considerably since the 1980s, but still occur and probably limit reproduction success.

54 Introduction

During the 20th century acid deposition caused environmental damage in large regions of 55 56 Europe and eastern North America. In Norway, thousands of lakes and streams were acidified, with 57 the resultant loss and damage to freshwater fish populations (Hesthagen et al. 1999). Southern 58 Norway is particularly vulnerable to acid deposition due to the highly siliceous and weathering-59 resistant bedrock and overburden, and thin and patchy organic-rich soils (Wright and Henriksen 60 1978). Acid deposition in Europe peaked in the late 1970s and has declined sharply over the past 30 61 years (Schöpp et al. 2003), largely as a result of implementation of international agreements to 62 reduce the emissions of acidifying air pollutants (UNECE 2014). Acidified freshwaters in Norway have 63 shown dramatic improvements in water chemistry as a response to declining acid deposition 64 (Skjelkvåle et al. 1998; Garmo et al. 2014; Gray et al. 2016). In many cases, however, biological 65 recovery has lagged behind chemical recovery (Hesthagen et al. 2011; Hesthagen et al. 2016). 66 67 Damage to salmonid fish populations, in particular the brown trout (Salmo trutta), in acidified lakes 68 is usually due to recruitment failure. The eggs and young fry are the most sensitive life stages, and 69 they are often exposed to the acidic water during snowmelt (Overrein et al. 1980; Serrano et al. 70 2008). In marginally-acidified lakes stocking with young fish may be successful, but reproduction 71 often fails. Toxicity is largely due to elevated concentrations of inorganic aluminium species (termed here Al_i) (Baker and Schofield 1982; Rosseland et al. 1990). Toxicity of Al_i is ameliorated by dissolved 72 73 organic carbon (DOC) in the water through formation of Al-humus complexes (Cronan et al. 1986). 74 75 Al_i is mobilized from soils by acidic water. The strong acid anions sulphate (SO_4) and nitrate (NO_3) in 76 acid deposition acidify the soil and mobilize Al_i (Reuss et al. 1990). Acid neutralising capacity (ANC), 77 defined as the equivalent sum of the concentrations of base cations minus the equivalent sum of the 78 concentrations of strong acid anions, is commonly used as a measure of the acidification of

79 freshwaters (Reuss et al. 1987). There was a close relationship between ANC and the brown trout

population status in lakes in Norway during the 1980s when acidification was near its peak (Lien et
al. 1996). Inclusion of organic strong acids (ANC_{oaa}; "organic acid adjusted") slightly improved the
correlation (Lydersen et al. 2004).

83

84 Documentation of chemical and biological recovery in acidified lakes requires systematic long-term 85 monitoring. In southern Norway, Lake Langtjern is one such monitoring site where water chemistry 86 and fish populations have been monitored since the 1970s (Henriksen and Wright 1977; Henriksen 87 and Grande 2002; De Wit et al. 2014). The native brown trout population disappeared around 1960, 88 probably because of acidification (Henriksen and Grande 2002). pH in the lake was generally below 89 5.0 in the 1970s. Since then, the lake has been stocked several times for research purposes with 90 brown trout, brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) and rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) to study 91 the relative tolerance of various fish species to acid water (Grande et al. 1978). The stocking did not 92 result in natural reproduction in the lake, until recent findings of small, non-stocked brown trout. 93 Here we investigate the recent fish recovery in relation to changes in the water chemistry of Lake 94 Langtjern over the 42-year period 1973–2014.

95

96 Materials and methods

97 The catchment and the lake

Lake Langtjern (https://www.niva.no/en/services/environmental-monitoring/langtjern) is a small, headwater lake located in Flå township, Buskerud county, about 75 km north of Oslo, southeastern Norway (Fig. 1). Lake Langtjern has been a site for monitoring and research on acidification since 1972. It is undisturbed from direct human influence and has never been limed. The lake and its catchment are included in several national and international monitoring programs. The lake is 0.23 km² with catchment including the lake 4.7 km². The lake is relatively shallow, with maximum depth 12 m and mean depth 2 m. The catchment is mixed sparse forest of pine, spruce and birch. Soils are

thin and organic-rich podsols developed on weathering-resistant glacial moraine and bedrock of
gneisses and granites. The catchment is 63 % forest, 16 % peatland and 16 % exposed bedrock. Apart
from a minor amount of forest harvesting, there is no other human disturbance or sources of
pollution to the lake or the catchment. The lake and its catchment including exclusive fishing rights
have been leased to the Norwegian Institute for Water Research for research and monitoring
purposes since 1973.

111 The lake has three inflowing streams; only the largest of these (LAE02) and the outlet (LAE01) provide suitable habitat as spawning beds for trout. The width of the outlet stream is 1-2 m. 112 113 The outlet has two dam constructions: an old large stone dam previously used to float timber and a 114 newer concrete dam downstream with v-notch weir installed in 1973 for measuring discharge. The 115 older stone dam restricts free water flow when discharge is large and has an opening at the bottom 116 which allows fish passage both ways at all levels of water discharge. The v-notch weir has a waterfall 117 that effectively prevents any upstream migration of fish. From the lake outlet, it is about 30 m to the 118 stone dam and 100 m to the concrete dam. The main inlet (LAE02) has a width of about 0.5–1 m. 119 Both streams have sections of shallow water, but also some deeper pools. The substrate varies from 120 fine to coarse. Suitable brown trout spawning substrates are more common in the inlet (LAE02) than 121 in the outlet.

122 Deposition data

The nearby stations Brekkebygda (1998–2015) and Gulsvik (1974–1997) are part of the
national atmospheric monitoring programme run by the Norwegian Institute for Air Research (NILU).
Bulk deposition is collected in weekly samples, and volume and concentrations of major ions
measured at NILU and reported annually (Aas et al. 2016).

127 Discharge data

Langtjern is a station in the national hydrology monitoring programme run by The
 Norwegian Water Resources and Energy Directorate (NVE). Discharge is measured continuously by
 water-level recorder at the v-notch weir. The data are reported as mean daily discharge.

131 Water chemistry data

Samples for water chemistry have been collected weekly from the outlet since 1973, except during an 18-month period with no funding in 1984–1985. Water chemistry parameters relevant to acidification have been analysed; these include major cations and anions, aluminium species (from 1986), and dissolved organic carbon (from 1986). The inlets and the lake itself have also been sampled, but not as frequently or as systematically as the outlet. The monitoring data and analytical methods used are reported annually (Garmo et al. 2016).

138 Fish data

Fish catch and stocking information for the period 1906–1971 was derived from log books kept by the local fishermen and other anecdotal information from local people. Beginning in 1972 experimental fish stockings and gill net catches were systematically recorded (Henriksen and Grande 2002). During the period 2000–2003, investigations were conducted to assess the potential for natural recruitment of brown trout in the lake. In autumn 2000, 216 fertilized brown trout eggs of the Nordmarka (Oslo) strain were placed at potential spawning sites in the outlet (72 eggs in 3 boxes) and main inlet (144 eggs in 6 boxes) and then inspected periodically for survival rates to

hatching in May 2001. In September 2002, the streams were sampled by electrofishing with a
backpack apparatus (Bohlin et al. 1989). In August 2003, the lake was sampled by 9 multi mesh
survey nets of 32 m and 4 single mesh nets of 25 m with mesh widths 10 mm, 12.5 mm, 16 mm and
22 mm.

150 In August 2010, October 2011, October 2012, August 2013 and August 2014, the outlet and 151 main inlet were sampled by one or two passes of electrofishing, except 2014 when only outlet was sampled. The outlet stream was sampled in an area of ca. 150 m², covering the full width of the 152 stream from the outlet down to the V-notch weir about 100 m downstream. The inlet was sampled 153 154 in an area of ca. 130 m², covering the full width of the stream from the lake to about 130 m 155 upstream. Length and weight of the captured fish were measured, and the fish then released into 156 the same stream. Young-of-the-year (age 0+) were counted to assess the year specific reproduction. 157 This age class was separated from older classes (>0+) mainly by fish lengths, but also by reading 158 scales samples of some individuals. Gender and sexual maturation were determined only when 159 possible.

160 Statistical methods

We analysed for break points in the various data series by means of the software package Change-Point Analyzer ver. 2.3 (Taylor Enterprises, Inc.), where annual means were analysed for significant changes with 95 % confidence level using 1000 bootstraps without replacements. In some series, data were grouped to avoid violation of the assumptions of independent errors.

165Duration of extremes was estimated by counting days between consecutive measurements166of extreme values, assuming the values to be extreme in the period between the actual

167 measurements. We used the thresholds of ANC 10 μ eq l⁻¹, ANC_{oaa}-5 μ eq l⁻¹, pH 4.8 and Al_i 50 μ g l⁻¹.

168 Days between two consecutive measurements were counted if both measured values were below

the thresholds for ANC, ANC_{oaa} or pH and above the threshold for Al_i. Measurements were weekly

and the expected count between two such values was therefore seven.

171 Results

172 Water chemistry

173 The concentrations of SO₄ in the outlet have decreased sharply since the peak years in the 174 1970s (Fig. 2). This has been in response to the large decrease in SO_4 deposition – from about 40 meq m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the late 1970s to about 10 meq m⁻² yr⁻¹ in the 2010s (Fig. 2). The large decrease in SO₄ 175 176 deposition from 1991 to 1997 corresponds to the decrease in SO₄ concentrations in the outlet from 177 1993 to 2000, with a delayed response of less than two years (Table 1) (Fig. 2). The decreasing 178 concentrations of SO₄ in the outlet have been accompanied in part by lower concentrations of base 179 cations such as Ca, and in part by higher pH and lower concentration of Al_i. The ANC and ANC_{oaa} have 180 increased, and the water has become less toxic to fish (Table 1). At Langtjern concentrations of 181 nitrate (NO₃) are in the range $1-2 \mu eq l^{-1}$, showing lower values in recent decades. Thus nitrogen 182 deposition plays a minor role relative to sulphur in surface water acidification at this site. TOC has 183 increased since the mid 1980s, which is the reason for the slight decline in ANC_{ooa} in the period 184 2008-2014.

The 42-year record of annual SO₄ deposition and mean concentrations of SO₄, Ca, ANC, ANC_{oaa} and pH in the outlet had change-points during 1997–2001, with decreased SO₄ deposition, SO₄ and Ca and increased ANC, ANC_{oaa} and pH (Fig. 2). A second change point was found in 1991– 1992. The change-points for ANC and ANC_{oaa} in 2000 had confidence intervals which included 2002 and 2001, respectively. The decrease in SO₄ of 41 μ eq l⁻¹ was associated with in a decrease of Ca of 11 μ eq l⁻¹ and an increase of ANC of 28 μ eq l⁻¹.

191The occurrence and duration of acidic episodes have decreased considerably since the 1980s192(Fig. 3). During 1973–1992 in the Langtjern outlet, there were many periods of more than 90193consecutive days of pH < 4.8. Before 1995 it was usual to have more than 14 days of pH < 4.8 every</td>194year. Then, in the period 1996–2014, there were 11 years without consecutive weekly

195 measurements of pH < 4.8. Periods of Al_i > 50 µg l^{-1} were more frequent and much longer before

195 than after. Since 1995, only two years had high Al_i periods of 14 days or more. Periods of ANC <
10 μeq l⁻¹were more frequent and of much longer duration before 1990 than after. After 1990, only
three years had such periods: 1991, 1994 and 2000. For ANC_{oaa} < -5 μeq l⁻¹, there were fewer and
shorter periods after year 2001.

200

201 Fish

202 According to anecdotal information from the local fishermen and log books on fish catches in 203 Lake Langtjern, the lake lost its population of brown trout during the 1960s, probably due to 204 acidification. This "original" population was a result of several stockings of brown trout since ca. 205 1906 and the natural offspring of these. Gill net catches were relatively good for the first decades of 206 the 1900s, but then very poor in 1967–1969. From 1972, the lake was managed for research 207 purposes and repeatedly stocked with brown trout and also brook trout usually aged 1+ (Fig. 4) 208 (Henriksen and Grande 2002). The last stocking was of 400 brown trout in June 2006. There was no 209 systematic tagging of the stocked fish, but most were fin clipped. The stocked fish were also 210 captured (and killed), usually by use of gill nets each summer, with the last gill net catch conducted 211 in 2011. The gill net catches usually corresponded to the previous stocking of fish, *i.e.* the stocked 212 fish were recognized (by size and fin clippings) in the catches some 2–4 years after release (Fig. 4). 213 Captured fish were mainly marked (fin clipping) confirming recaptures of stocked fish. Unmarked 214 captures, which could be wild or stocked, were very rare and did not point to an ongoing natural 215 reproduction. During the period 1992–2000, recapture of stocked fish was estimated to 20% 216 (Henriksen and Grande 2002). The remaining 80% of the stocked fish usually disappeared after 6-8 217 years, presumably owing to natural causes, but possibly as a result of the acidification. There usually 218 were mature individuals among the captured fish. Probably, there have been mature fish in the lake 219 in varying numbers since the 1970s, but the gill net captures have not indicated any successful 220 reproduction of trout.

221 The studies of possible trout recruitment starting in the winter 2000-01 gave negative 222 results. In May 2001, all eggs in the experimental boxes in the substrate were dead when inspected. 223 At the same time, dead eggs from natural spawning were also observed. The September 2002 224 electrofishing resulted in no catches in the streams. The August 2003 lake sampling by gill nets gave 225 no catch of non-stocked fish. Studies were resumed in 2010, and for the first time recruitment of 226 young brown trout was observed. The electrofishing in the outlet (LAE01) and the major inlet 227 (LAE02) in 2010–2014 resulted in captures of non-stocked brown trout each year (Table 2). These 228 fish were not fin clipped, and they were much smaller than the expected size of the stocked fish 229 from 2006. In 2011, 2012 and 2014 there were electrofishing catches of young-of-the-year brown 230 trout, with fish lengths < 8 cm in August catches and < 9 cm in October. Mature individuals of both 231 sexes, and of both wild (< 27 cm, n=3) and stocked origin (> 38 cm, n=2), were captured in the outlet 232 in 2011 and 2012.

233

234 Discussion

235 The chemical recovery at Langtjern follows the well-documented pattern seen in acidified 236 lakes and streams in many parts of Europe and eastern North America (Stoddard et al. 1999; Jeffries 237 et al. 2003; Skjelkvåle et al. 2007; Futter et al. 2014; Monteith et al. 2014; Rask et al. 2014; Driscoll et 238 al. 2016). The reduced deposition of SO₄ has led to lower concentrations of SO₄ in surface waters. pH239 and ANC have increased while Ali has decreased. In addition, TOC has increased, which is a result of 240 increasing organic matter solubility related to lower electrolyte concentrations and reduced acidity 241 (De Wit et al. 2007). Also, concentrations of NO₃ decreased, probably as a combined result of climate 242 warming (less snow cover) and lower N deposition (de Wit et al. 2008). 243 The lag time of <2 years between reductions in SO₄ deposition and decrease in 244 concentrations of SO₄ in the lake observed at Langtjern is also not unexpected, as soil processes such

- as adsorption and desorption of SO₄ are minor in young, organic-rich soils such as those atLangtjern
- 246 (Reuss and Johnson 1986). The in-lake processes that also act to dampen changes in SO₄

concentrations are also apparently of minor importance relative to the through-flux of SO₄ in the
lake (Couture et al. 2016).

The fish catches indicate an important qualitative change in the brown trout ecology in Lake Langtjern: the stocked fish now reproduce, *albeit* to a very low extent and maybe not every year. Thus, water quality in the outlet and inlet streams is apparently close to a critical limit for successful brown trout reproduction.

253 The exact year of the first successful reproduction in recent times cannot be ascertained, but 254 we know from the electrofishing that young-of-the-year brown trout were produced in 2011, 2012 255 and 2014 (Table 2). The estimated age of older captured fish suggests that brown trout reproduced 256 also in 2008 and 2009. Gill net sampling, electrofishing and egg exposure experiments indicate that 257 reproduction probably did not occur in in 2001 and 2002. The August 2003 gill net sampling in the 258 lake would not have been able to capture potential young-of-year, as they would have been residing 259 in the stream; thus there are no data on the trout reproduction in 2003. Hence, the first successful 260 reproduction was probably in the period 2003–2008.

261 Langtjern is one of a few acid water monitoring sites in Norway at which long-term data 262 record the recovery of the brown trout following reductions in acid deposition. Hesthagen et al. 263 (2011) have documented the revitalisation of the brown trout population in Lake Saudlandsvatn, 264 southernmost Norway. Here the native population was severely depleted, but never completely lost, 265 and was able to naturally reproduce when water quality improved in the 1990s. Similarly, brown 266 trout recruitment became increasingly successful in streams in the River Vikedal catchment 267 (Hesthagen et al. 2001) during the 1990s, albeit with occasional setbacks due to acidic episodes 268 (Hesthagen et al. 2016).

There are only a few documented cases of recovery of fish populations from acidified waters elsewhere in Europe and eastern North America. This appears to be because of the paucity of longterm data monitoring fish populations, but perhaps also because of factors acting to delay biological recovery in response to chemical recovery. In Sweden, the thousands of acidified lakes have shown

273 chemical recovery since the 1980s (Futter et al. 2014), but there are apparently few lakes in which 274 the long-term data are sufficient to document recovery of fish populations (Holmgren 2014). Valinia 275 et al. (2014) found that in a dataset of 28 Swedish lakes, the roach (Rutilus rutilus) population had 276 been lost in 14 lakes due to acidification in the 1980s, but in 2010 it had reappeared in 5 of these in 277 response to chemical recovery. In Finland there has been widespread recovery of perch (Perca 278 fluviatilis) populations, but the more acid-sensitive roach shows much less recovery (Rask et al. 279 2014). In the United Kingdom two of the 22 sites in the acid waters monitoring network (AWMN) 280 now show recovery of brown trout populations (Malcolm et al. 2014) in response to the general 281 improvement in water quality due to reduced sulphur deposition (Monteith et al. 2014). In the 282 eastern United States long-term monitoring data from 43 lakes in the Adirondack Mountains, New 283 York, show reduced acidity in response to decreased sulphur deposition, but so far there have been 284 no major improvements in populations of brook trout (Baldigo et al. 2016). Likewise in eastern 285 Canada there have been several reports of improved fish populations in acidified lakes and streams 286 of Atlantic Canada (Lacoul et al. 2011) and in acidified lakes near Sudbury, Ontario (Gunn and Keller 287 1990, Snucins et al. 2001).

288 Chemical recovery proceeds along a continuum, whereas biological recovery is often marked 289 by thresholds. There have been many studies of the tolerance of fish species to acidified waters, in 290 particular the brown trout. Empirical data for water chemistry and brown trout populations from 291 synoptic surveys of 1000 lakes in Norway show that there were rather sharp thresholds of ANC for 292 the transition between "not affected" and "reduced" populations, and between "reduced" and 293 "extinct" populations in the 1980s (Bulger et al. 1993, Lien et al. 1996). Fitting a logistic expression to the data explained 54% of the variance. Including organic acids in the expression for ANC_{oaa} 294 increased the strength of these relationships to 56% (Lydersen et al. 2004). ANC₀₀₀₀ is particularly 295 appropriate in humic lakes, such as Langtjern. A threshold for ANC_{oaa} of 8 μ eq/l gave a 95% 296 297 probability for no population damage to brown trout in Norwegian lakes based on the survey data 298 from 1986.

Hesthagen et al. (2008)) revisited these thresholds based on a new survey of the Norwegian
lakes conducted in 1995. Their analysis indicates that in 1995 the threshold for 95% probability for
no population damage to brown trout was ANC_{oaa} 48 µeq/l, substantially higher than the value for
the 1986 data. They suggest that the higher ANC_{oaa} threshold found for the 1995 data might be
caused by a lower pH and a higher Al_i concentration at a given ANC value in 1995 than in the 1980s.
But this difference could also be caused by the lag times between changes in water chemistry and
population status in lakes.

306 Based on the long-term field data from the streams in the River Vikedal catchment Hesthagen et al. (2016) suggest that recruitment of brown trout can give low density of fry at ANCoaa 307 levels of -18 to -5 μ eq l⁻¹, increased but unstable densities at ANC_{oaa}-5 to +10 μ eq l⁻¹, and steady 308 increase in density at ANC_{0aa} above 10 μ eq l⁻¹. They indicate that ANC_{0aa} of 20–25 μ eq l⁻¹ is necessary 309 310 for significant recovery of young brown trout in streams. This value is consistent with the observed 311 fish recovery at Lake Saudlandsvatn (Hesthagen et al. 2011). The UK data of Malcolm et al. (2014) indicate threshold value of ANC_{oaa} in the range 7 to 38 μ eq l⁻¹, for 80% probability of brown trout fry 312 313 present in two of three sampled stream reaches.

The data from Langtjern fit this picture. For the period 2008–2014 during which
reproduction occurred, the outlet water chemistry mean values of ANC_{oaa} was 10 µeq l⁻¹ (Table 1),
the threshold indicated by Hesthagen et al. (2016)) for unstable densities of young brown trout in
running water. Further, the mean values for 2008–2014 were similar to the mean values for 2000–
2007, suggesting that the conditions were close to the critical limits also prior to 2008.

The ANC in Lake Langtjern is not likely to further increase appreciably soon. There is little room for further reductions in SO₄ deposition as levels in 2015 were only 7% of those in the peak year 1980 (Aas et al. 2016). Nitrate makes only a minor contribution to ANC and appears to be declining (De Wit et al. 2008). Thus any major increase in ANC will have to come from increasing concentrations of base cations caused by replenishment of soil base cation pools due to natural weathering, a process that typically takes decades (Hodson and Langan 1999). ANC_{oaa}, on the other

hand, could increase with a decline in TOC. ANCoaa is the organic acid adjusted ANC, where organic
acids (TOC) are subtracted from the base cation concentration to give an adjusted, and reduced,
ANC_{oaa}. However, TOC concentrations do not show any sign of levelling off and may increase further
under a wetter climate (de Wit et al. 2016).

The change-points for ANC and ANC_{oaa} in 2000 may explain why the successful reproduction 329 330 of brown trout started at some point after 2002. Although the estimated change-point in 2000 does 331 not fit with the different investigations indicating no reproduction during 2001–2002, the confidence interval for the ANC change-point was 2000–2002, and the upper limit makes it possible that the 332 333 positive change in ANC level occurred shortly after the known period of non-successful 334 reproduction. The 1997 change-point in SO₄ indicates that the reduced SO₄ concentration was the 335 main cause for the ANC upward change, although the two changes were not estimated to occur at 336 the same time.

337 ANC is a convenient measure of lake acidification. Toxicity to fish, however, is caused by Ali 338 and/or H⁺. The recent reproductive success might better be explained by lower frequency, severity 339 and duration of toxic episodes rather than increased mean ANC levels (Baker et al. 1982). In the 1980s, Lake Langtjern experienced long periods of low pH, low ANC and high Al_i (Fig. 3). Episodes of 340 341 pH < 4.8 decreased considerably both in duration and frequency since the peak in 1989, but periods 342 of pH < 4.8 still occur, e.g. a possible 15-day period in 2012. If these periods cause mortality in the 343 youngest individuals or the fertilized eggs in the stream substrate, the population would still have 344 irregular setbacks in producing offspring. Serrano et al. (2008) proposed that pH, not Al, is most 345 important for trout survival in organic-rich boreal streams. Juvenile brown trout mortality in such 346 streams was modelled with 80 % mortality during 14 days of pH 4.8. The Lake Langtjern outlet had episodes in 2007 and 2009 where pH possibly was below 4.8 for 63 and 35 days, respectively. These 347 348 episodes may have inflicted high mortality in several year-classes of brown trout, even though the yearly means for pH were 5.0 and 5.1, respectively. Longer episodes of $AI_i > 50 \ \mu g I^{-1}$ have been few 349

since 1997, but week-long episodes probably occurred in both 2006 and 2007. Such episodes may
have caused high mortality in young-of-the-year brown trout.

352 In addition to the water chemistry, habitat characteristics probably limit the brown trout 353 population in Lake Langtjern. Suitable spawning areas are few and the number of spawning fish is 354 low, as the remaining individuals from the stocking in 2006 and 2003 probably only exist in small 355 numbers. The inlet stream (LAE02) has more suitable substrate, but it is also a smaller stream than 356 the outlet. Both streams are subject to winter and summer droughts. Our catches document that 357 successful spawning is occurring. The number of spawners has been higher before, without resulting 358 in successful reproductions. The present reproduction therefore indicates that the change in water 359 chemistry is the crucial factor.

360

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Table 1 Lake Langtjern outlet water chemistry mean values ± SD in five periods from 1973 to 2014. No data for
 1984–1985. Data for Al_i, TOC and ANC_{oaa} from 1986

Period	SO ₄	NO ₃	рН	Ali	ANC	ANC_{oaa}	тос	Са
	µeq l⁻¹	µeq l-1		µg l⁻¹	µeq l-1	µeq l ⁻¹	mg C l ⁻¹	µeq l ⁻¹
1973–1979	72 ± 14	1.9 ± 1.3	4.9 ± 0.2		27 ± 11			69 ± 12
1980–1989	66 ± 14	1.7 ± 1.3	4.8 ± 0.2	74 ± 19	13 ± 8	-15.3 ± 8.8	8.8 ± 1.6	57 ± 11
1990–1999	51 ± 14	1.5 ± 1.2	5.0 ± 0.2	46 ± 20	32 ± 12	-2.3 ± 9.1	10.1 ± 2.0	55 ± 10
2000–2007	25 ± 6	0.9 ± 0.7	5.1 ± 0.2	27 ± 9	47 ± 12	10.6 ± 8.7	10.8 ± 1.9	47 ± 10
2008–2014	17 ± 4	0.8 ± 0.7	5.1 ± 0.2	26 ± 7	47 ± 9	9.7 ± 6.9	11.0 ± 2.0	42 ± 8

Table 2 Number of non-stocked fish caught by electrofishing in the outlet and major inlet to Lake Langtjern in

511 the period 2010–2014. No data for inlet 1014

	Age class			Year	Year		
		2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	
Outlet	0+	0	2	13	0	4	
	>0+	6	5	1	2	0	
Inlet	0+	0	0	1	0	n.a.	
	>0+	1	1	2	2	n.a.	

Fig. 1 Map showing the position and the catchment (dotted line) of Lake Langtjern (60.37 N, 9.73 E), a research station for studying acidification of surface waters in Norway. Outlet (LAE01) and inlets (LAE03, LAE02 and LAE08) are indicated Fig. 2 Annual deposition of SO₄, and yearly mean concentrations of SO₄, Ca, ANC, ANC_{oaa}, pH and Al_i in the outlet at Langtjern over the period 1973–2014. Deposition data from Aas et al. (2016)). No outlet data for 1984–1985. TOC and Ali analysed from 1986. Dotted lines indicate levels of significant changes in the data series Fig. 3 Count of consecutive days of pH < 4.8, ANC < 10 μ eq l⁻¹, ANCoaa < -5 μ eq l⁻¹ and Ali > 50 μ g l⁻¹ at the outlet of Lake Langtjern 1973–2014. No data for 1984–1985, and data for ANCoaa and Ali from 1986 Fig. 4 Number of stocked (top) and captured (bottom) brown trout (n/100 m²) in Lake Langtjern in the period 1972-2011.







