Trends in long-term hydrological data from European karst areas: insights for groundwater recharge evaluation

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Abstract. Long-term observations of spring discharge provide an alternative to estimate the evolution of groundwater resources based on observational data at the catchment scale. Karst springs can be found in large parts of Europe covering all climate zones of the mid_latitudes. Continuous spring discharge measurements are holistic signals, representing both fast and slow flow components, typical of karstic environments. Due to relatively short response times, karst systems are focus points pivotal in improving our for enhancing the understanding of the impact of climate change on groundwater resources. This work study analyses observational data (precipitation, temperature and discharge) of more than from over 50 springs spatially distributed over-across Europe (AT, FR, GB, SI), offering a to give a continental overview perspective of changes in on groundwater resource changess in karst areas. The work focuses on two different periods spanning of 20 and 40 years, aiming to detect to identify any possible accelerations or moderations in changestrends over time. For both periods, a trend analyse is of the observational data were conducted, using the Mann-Kendall test and Sen's slope, on full time series as well as seasonal data-was performed on the entire time series and per season. Additionally, potential Possible process changes were considered examined throughby analysing also trends in high and low flow values. Structural differences of the among karst systems were accounted forconsidered by using two indices related to the storage and inertia of the system, which were used to i) highlight structural differences and ii) classify karst systems accordingly. In combination, these indices were able to i) highlight structural differences and ii) characterize karst systems accordingly. The results show that the sensitivity of karst aquifers to climate change is not controlled by their degree of karstification. Long-term trends in spring discharge ealeulated observed in this study align withfollow the general patterns of river discharge found in literature. However, the behaviour during but the last 20 years deviate diverges from this these historical patterns behaviour. During In this most recent this period, increasing temperatures plays a more significantimportant role in the evolution of spring discharge than changes in precipitation. These results findings are contextualized with consideration of are discussed in relation to the indirect drivers, influence of other drivers such as changes in land use or land cover, specific regional conditions, and shifts inbut also changes in processes related to groundwater recharge and storage processes. Together, they offer valuable, providing insights for assessing groundwater recharge in the past and in the future.

1 Introduction

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The impact of global change on fresh water availability and quality is mostly associated with changes in hydrological extremes, for example droughts or floods (e.g. Blöschl et al., 2019; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2019; Tramblay et al., 2020; Lorenzo-Lacruz et al., 2022), whereas the future evolution of groundwater recharge - as a key process for sustainable water supply by groundwater - is currently highly uncertain (IPCC, 2021). The complexity and manifold of processes related to groundwater recharge, make it highly variable in space and time with interconnections to various drivers (see Moeck et al., 2020; Riedel and Weber, 2020; Barthel et al., 2021). Moreover In addition, the absence of direct, spatially distributed direct measurements of spatial distributed actual recharge complicates the identification of regional trends, even when are not possible. This makes it difficult to identify trends on regional scale even by analyzing a comprehensive global data set of groundwater recharge measurements is analysed (Moeck et al., 2020).

Hydroclimatic conditions, e.g. precipitation and temperature, are generally considered as primary main-drivers of land surface water fluxes-and makinge groundwater recharge highly susceptible vulnerable to climate change (Mohan et al., 2018). However, Oever recentthe last decades, however, human activities – such asimpact on groundwater recharge increased due to changes of water consumption and land use changes (closely connected to net increases in evaporation) – have exerted a growing influence on groundwater recharge (e.g. Haas and Birk, 2019). The latter is closely connected to net increases in evaporation. In manylarge parts of Europe, impacts of anthropogenic activity are comparable to those caused by changing hydroclimatic conditions (Teuling et al., 2019), reaching the point where they prevail over changes in natural land surface fluxes (Riedel and Weber, 2020). Approaches for groundwater recharge modelling allow for the consideration of these changing conditions on a larger scale (e.g. Lanini and Caballero, 2021; Martinsen et al., 2022; Seidenfaden et al., 2023). However, they have the disadvantage that a validation of derived values with in-situ observations is generally not possible. This leaves hydrological time series based on observations as an essential reference—point for assessing long-term changes studying changes—in water resources.

Long-term spring discharge observations of spring discharge provide an alternative means ofto estimatinge the evolution of groundwater resources evolution based on observational data at catchment scale. In this context, Kkarst aquifers, in particular, appear to be are of ssignificant pecial interest due to their unique specific properties, closely related to the soluble (carbonate) rocks, generating a hierarchical organised groundwater drainage network over large areas (e.g. Palmer, 1991, Ford and Williams, 2007). Therefore, continuous measurements of karst spring discharge offergive a holistic output signal of the aquifer system integrating the various combining all the processes that transforming the recharge signal as is propagates on the way through the system to the outlet. Different to Unlike most other types of aquifer systems, groundwater recharge flow in karst areas is thus highly influenced by differences in hydraulic properties (channels/conduits vs. fractured/porous matrix) preferential flow in fissures and open conduits and needs to be divided into concentrated and diffuse processes (e.g. Hobbs and Smart, 1986). –Hydraulic properties such as permeability, porosity, and storativity govern the time-response of these systems. The storativity of a karst aquifer, which refers to the ability of the aquifer to store and release water, plays a crucial

role in the response of spring discharge to recharge events. The interaction between conduit and matrix flow components introduces a time lag in the aquifer's response to recharge referred to as the system's inertia.

<u>Changes in Concentrated infiltration into the system generally leads to fast flow dynamics_which-makes it potentially possible to detect the impact of changes in groundwater recharge on water resources. Following this reasoning Consequently, spring discharge can be used as a robust regional climate indicator (Fiorillo et al., 2021) and due to their sensitivity, karst aquifer, due to their sensitivity, can be sentinels of global changes (Binet et al., 2020; Binet et al., 2022).</u>

In Europe, karst outcrops cover an absolute area of <u>approximately</u> 2.17 million km² accounting for a total area share of 21.8 % of the continent's total area (Goldscheider et al., 2020). The contribution of water from karst areas to the national fresh h water supply varies widely, ranging from between 5% toand 50% (Hartmann et al., 2014), making karst aquifers together with alluvial formations to the most <u>efficient-important</u> source of fresh water (Bakalowicz, 2005). For water management <u>purposes and but also securing</u> ecological flow <u>maintenance</u> downstream, low_flow characteristics in karst systems and their development are of special importance. Less in focus are high flow characteristics even though flash flood in karst systems can cause hazards for human life (Maréchal et al., 2008).

Most of the global karst springs with long observation records are located in Europe (Olarinoye et al., 2020). While s-Spring discharge analysis is a common tool forto characterizinge karst systems, it but can also be used to analyse changes in hydroclimatic conditions or ealculated recharge values. Over a long period, discharge of European karst spring discharges seems to decline due tocaused by rising temperatures, and the consequent reduction of snow contribution (Chen et al., 2018; Jódar et al., 2020; Lorenzi et al., 2022; Petitta et al., 2022; Fan et al., 2023), and increased evapotranspiration (Leone et al., 2021) rather than changes in precipitation pattern. The latter only seems to have an impact on drought frequency (Leone et al., 2021) and peak discharge (Fan et al., 2023). Additionally, other factors such as Other studies from European karst areas highlight the influence of land use or land cover changes, e.g. large-scale forest disturbance (Kovacic et al., 2020; Vilhar et al., 2022), changes in intensification of agricultural use (Palacios-Cabrera et al., 2022), and water abstraction (Charlier et al., 2015) can obscure the long-term effects of climate change on spring discharge. These influences have the ability to mask the long term influence of climate change on spring discharge. Furthermore, several Notably, studies on Italian karst springs have highlighted a strong correlation between spring discharge and large-scale atmospheric circulations, e.g. North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), with -nNegative (winter) NAO values correlating with increased spring discharge have been resulting in an increase in spring discharge since aroundroughly 2008 correlated to (De Vita et al., 2012; Fiorillo and Guadango 2012; Fiorillo et al., 2015; Fiorillo et al., 2021). However, the influence of various different large-scale atmospheric circulations results in influence the discharge from Italian karst springs resulting in a complex periodicities ranging from biennialtwo years to multi-decadal cycles (De Vita et al., 2012). According to the latterauthors, the impact on spring discharge is high, accounting for a variability of roughly 30%. Differences in the response of the karst systems are detected, which are generally explained by variations in storativity or inertia of the karst system (Fiorillo and Guadango 2012; Fiorillo et al., 2021; Lorenzi et al., 2022).

Thus, the cChanging hydroclimatic conditions are expected to increasingly threaten thus projected to jeopardize_fresh water resources in most karst areas in Europe by reducing absolute groundwater recharge until the end of this century (Hartmann et al., 2017). Although the long-term impact on groundwater resources in other systems is still highly uncertain, it is most likely that climate change will affects karst water resources and therefore the reliable water supply to millions of people negatively. In this context, this paper presents a continental overview of changes in groundwater resources in karst areas over the past decades, based on more than 50 springs spatially distributed over Europe. This study is a multi-decadnal trend analysis of hydroclimatic observational data for European karst systems and designed to answer the following research questions:

- Does discharge from European karst areas change uniformly over time or is it possible to detect regional patterns?
- Does variability significant changes in overall spring discharge have an impact on low and high flow conditions?
 Is it possible to identify sets of karst storage properties which are particularly sensitive to climate change?
 - <u>Is it possible to identify karst areas with certain properties related to storage which are particularly sensitive to climate change</u>

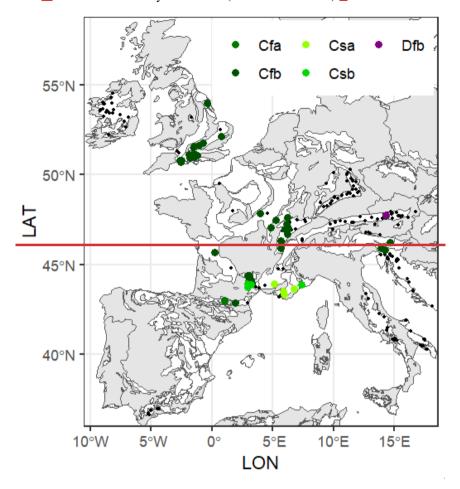
2 Data and methods

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Karst outcrops drained by major karst springs are widespread across can be found in large parts of Europe (Fig.1; Chen et al., 110 2017) covering spanning all climate zones of the mid-latitudes. Hydroclimatic conditions, combined together with the geological history, play an important role in the evolution of karst aquifers leading to resulting in a complex pattern of systems on a continental scale. To evaluate the impact of changing climatic conditions on different types of karst systems, this study focuses onexamines publically publicly available spring discharge data from several-multiple European countries. To be able to analyse assess potential possible impacts of climate change impacts on karst groundwater resources during the last over 115 recent decades, the following method was applied. Long-term trends in karst spring discharge were assessed analysed for all European springs with time series fulfilling meeting the requirements indicated outlined in section 2.1. The assessment was focused on performed over-two different time periods – described herein – following the maxim of a) having as many discharge records as possible among the available data and b) comparing results between two different periods in order to identify any 120 possible acceleration or moderation of changes. The two investigated periods are, first a period spansof 40 years (starting at 01.01.1982) to capture over long-term trends, while the and second coversa shorter period of 20 years (starting date: 01.01.2002). The shorter period enables the examination of a shorter timeframe, comparable to those described for Italian karst springs (e.g., Fiorillo et al., 2021). allows for an investigation of changes on the same time scale that those described for Italian karst springs (e.g. Fiorillo et al., 2021). Changes were evaluated analysed using the Mann-Kendall test and Sen's slope 125 computation (Section 2.3) for both monthly spring discharge and annual extremes, expressed asby different quantiles, namely the 10th and 90th quantile. The two investigated periods are, first a period of 40 years (starting at 01.01.1982) to cover longterm trends and second a shorter period of 20 years (starting date: 01.01.2002). The shorter period allows for an investigation of changes on the same time scale that those described for Italian karst springs (e.g. Fiorillo et al., 2021). Further Additionally,

trends <u>in monthly precipitation and temperature</u> were computed <u>on monthly precipitation and temperature</u> to identify changes in the input signal of the systems. To <u>further investigate explore</u> the influence mpact of groundwater dynamics on observed trends, two specific indices <u>-</u>-related to storativity and inertia (Section 2.1.1/2.1.2) <u>-</u> were calculated for each period.



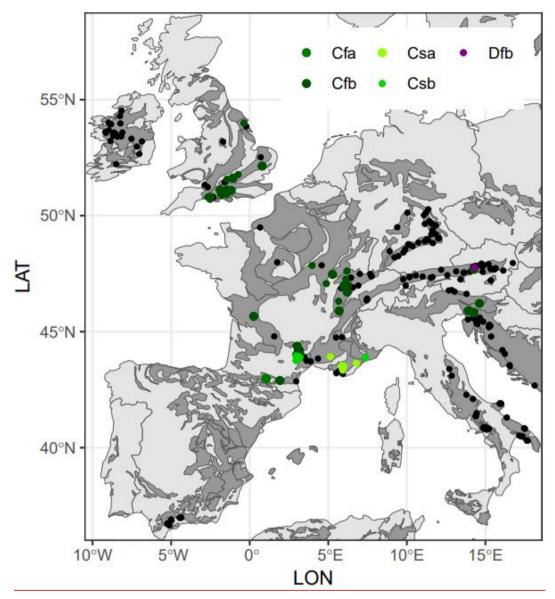


Fig 1: Karst spring location (black dots) according to the WOKAS database (Olarinoye et al., 2020) and carbonate rock outcrop (white area) in Europe according to WoKaM (Chen et al., 2017). Springs used in this analysis are coloured. Colours indicate the climate zone according to the Koepper-Geiger classification (1986-2010) in Table 1.

2.1 Karst spring discharge

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Spring discharge data were derived obtained from the World Karst Spring Hydrograph dataset (WOKAS; Olarinoye et al., 2020) and the French national database Hydroportail (https://www.hydro.eaufrance.fr/). The WOKAS dataset combines aggregates spring discharge data from national agencies as well as and time series collected by many various research groups around the worldwide. In both databases, spring discharge is considered in its broadest sense interpreted broadly, which

means meaning that measurements might may have been also be taken further downstream of the spring itself. From both datasets, all time series satisfying meeting the minimum requirements for the two periods - of 20 years (starting at 01.01.2002) and 40 years (starting at 01.01.1982) - were selected. The minimum requirements were a) continuous daily measurements with and b) less than 10% of-missing data over the respective 20- respectively and 40-year periods. No further pre-processing, for example the interpolation of missing data, was done-performed prior the analysis. In total 54 springs from four 4-different countries satisfied the requirements for the shorter period, and 22 springs from four different countries fit the requirements for the short, respectively -met the criteria for the longer period (Fig. 1) the long period (Fig. 1). Detailed information on spring names, time series, and locations is provided in Table 1 Spring names and basic information regarding the time series and location of the spring can be found in Table 1. Note that nine9 time series from French springs start during the first or the second year, while all other time series were unified aligned to start at on the 1st of January 1 and end 20 or respectively 40 years later (-on the 31st of December 31, 2021). For Austrian springs, data wereis only available until the end of 2019. Most of the springs are located within the temperate oceanic climate zone (Cfb) covering large parts of Western Europe. Springs located in other different climate zones include those can be found in the Pyrenees (Cfa – warm temperate climate), parts of Austria (Dfb – humid continental climate) and in Southern France (Csa/Csb- Mediterranean climate). Some of the investigated karst areas, particularly mainly in Austria and the Grands Causses region in Southern France, are located along climate zone boundaries.

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Table 1: Overview of the European karst springs used in this analysis. Climate zones are according to the Koeppen-Geiger classification (1986-2010). Mean discharge is calculated from the daily values either on the 40-year period or for shorter time series on the 20-year period. Country codes: Austria (AT), France (FR), United Kingdom of Great Britain (GB), Slovenia (SI).

Country	Name	Lat	Lon	Climate zone	Q _{mean} (m ³ /s)	40y	20y
AT	Piessling Ursprung	47.69	14.28	Cfb	2.15	X	0
AT	Rettenbachquelle	47.76	14.31	Dfb	1.06	0	X
FR	Aiguebelle	43.93	3.06	Csb	0.12	0	X
FR	Aliou	42.99	1.05	Cfa	0.43	X	0
FR	Arcier	47.27	6.12	Cfb	1.14	0	X
FR	Argens	43.50	5.91	Csa	0.38	X	X
FR	Baget	42.96	1.03	Cfa	0.45	X	0
FR	Balastière	43.97	3.03	Csb	0.07	0	X
FR	Barbade	44.18	3.09	Cfb	0.08	0	X
FR	Bastide	44.30	3.07	Cfb	0.03	0	X
FR	Bèze	47.47	5.27	Cfb	3.81	X	X
FR	Bleue Dortan	46.31	5.66	Cfb	1.21	0	X
FR	Boundoulaou	44.07	3.05	Cfb	0.23	0	X

FR	Cainea	43.88	7.35	Csb	0.03	0	X
FR	Caramy	43.35	5.92	Csa	0.06	0	X
FR	Ceras	43.75	2.96	Csb	0.99	0	X
FR	Cernon	43.96	3.15	Cfb	0.19	0	X
FR	Doubs	46.71	6.21	Cfb	1.89	X	X
FR	Dragonnière	43.95	2.94	Csb	0.08	0	X
FR	Duc	44.40	3.08	Cfb	0.04	0	X
FR	Durzon	43.99	3.26	Cfb	1.52	0	X
FR	Esperelle	44.12	3.21	Cfb	1.01	0	X
FR	Font de Champdamoy	47.61	6.19	Cfb	2.33	0	X
FR	Fontaine de Vaucluse	43.92	5.13	Csa	15.51	0	X
FR	Fontestorbes	44.89	1.93	Cfb	1.88	X	X
FR	Fosse Dionne	47.86	3.97	Cfb	0.30	0	X
FR	Fousette	43.91	3.12	Csb	0.17	0	X
FR	Gloriette	43.91	3.18	Csb	0.09	0	X
FR	Groin	45.89	5.69	Cfb	3.15	X	X
FR	Ladoix	47.07	4.88	Cfb	0.22	0	X
FR	Ladoux	44.08	3.06	Cfb	0.27	0	X
FR	Lestang	44.41	3.02	Cfb	0.21	0	X
FR	Lison	46.96	6.01	Cfb	5.07	X	X
FR	Loue	47.01	6.30	Cfb	9.56	0	X
FR	Mayrinhac	44.39	2.95	Cfb	0.13	0	X
FR	Mouline	44.99	1.05	Cfb	0.50	0	X
FR	Segala	44.36	3.02	Cfb	0.17	0	X
FR	Sorgue	43.88	3.19	Csb	1.03	0	X
FR	Touvre	45.66	0.26	Cfb	13.05	X	X
FR	Tuves	43.64	6.79	Csa	0.06	0	X
FR	Verneau	46.98	6.00	Cfb	0.44	X	X
GB	Avon	50.93	-1.07	Cfb	15.75	X	X
GB	Brett	52.14	0.79	Cfb	0.13	X	X
GB	Cheriton	51.09	-1.18	Cfb	0.69	X	X
GB	Ewelme	51.62	-1.07	Cfb	0.04	X	X
GB	Hooke	50.80	-2.66	Cfb	0.02	0	X

GB	Manor Farm Brook	51.57	-1.45	Cfb	0.01	0	X
GB	S. Winterbourne	50.71	-2.53	Cfb	0.12	0	X
GB	Sydling Water	50.8	-2.52	Cfb	0.20	X	X
GB	Test Broadlands	50.97	-1.50	Cfb	10.88	X	X
GB	Test Chilbolton	51.15	-1.45	Cfb	5.59	0	X
GB	Wendover Spring	51.77	-0.74	Cfb	0.09	0	X
GB	West Beck	53.99	-0.37	Cfb	2.38	0	X
GB	Wylye	51.10	-1.88	Cfb	4.00	X	X
SI	Hubelj-Ajdovščina I	45.90	13.91	Cfb	2.80	X	X
SI	K. Bistrica-Kamnik	46.22	14.62	Cfb	7.04	X	0
SI	Malenščica-Malni	45.82	14.25	Cfb	6.15	X	X
SI	Unica-Hasberg	45.83	14.26	Cfb	20.89	X	X

Monthly mean discharge was calculated for each spring (Table 1) and used infor the trend analysis. -Additionally Further,

trends were calculated for the annual minimum and maximum flow. These values were derived by accumulating aggregating 165 the discharge below the 10th quantile (Q10) and respectively above the 90th quantile (Q90), using the R package stats. In addition, the karst systems were classified based on two indices derived from the daily discharge time series. In general, Kkarst systems are generally classified based on the description of according to flow patterns; (e.g. Mangin, (1975;) or Quinlan and Ewers, (1985), which are a combination of dominant recharge processes, storativity and flow dynamics within of different karst system compartments (Hoobs and Smart, 1986). All these factors highly dependent on the hydraulic 170 properties, which are, in turn, closely related to the maturity or degree of karstification of the system. To classify the springs based on dominating discharge component and storativity, two frequently commonly used indices were computed. Firstly, to assessdescribe the storage capacity of karst systems, daily discharge was filtered to separate quick and slow flow components and to therefore compute the baseflow index (BFI). Traditionally, the slow flow component is interpreted as baseflow (Smakhtin, 2001), in karst hydrology often conceptually described as the outflow of a single reservoir as a function 175 of the active storage volume (Maillet, 1905). Numerous methods for baseflow separation exist Many different separation methods exist (e.g. Sloto and Crouse, 1996; Rutledge, 1998; Piggott et al., 2005; Eckhardt, 2005). Following the proposal of Ladson et al. (2013), here the "standard approach" by Lyne and Hollick (1979) was chosenselected, implemented inusing the R package BFI (Ladson et al., 2013). This method can be described as a smoothing algorithm usinges a one-parameter recursive digital filter. The filter coefficient α influences the degree of smoothing and sets a threshold to separate high-frequency (quick) 180 flows from low-frequency (slow, baseflow) components. -The baseflow volume and therefore BFI is sensitive to the filter coefficient α which ranges between 0.9 and 0.98. Here, α was set to 0.925 for all springs since the analysis focus only on the evolution of the baseflow and not a quantitative comparison between different springs or periods. After splitting -the time

series into quick flow and baseflow components, the BFI is calculated as the ratio between baseflow and total discharge. In

case of larger gaps, the values are calculated individually for the segments and the BFI for the entire time series is the weighted average of the segments.

Secondly, to describe the inertia of karst systems, the memory effect of the karst systems was calculated. This is determined by using a threshold of 0.2 in the autocorrelation function below which the signal is considered as indistinguishable from noise (Mangin, 1984). The memory effect has been widely used to characterize the storativity iner karst systems and to compare response times across between different systems (e.g. Larocque et al., 1998; Padilla and Pulido-Bosch, 1995; Fiorillo and Doglioni, 2010; Dubois et al., 2020; Cinkus et al., 2021; Bailly-Comte et al., 2023). One autocorrelation function was calculated for each period and spring using the R package *stats*.

2.2 Precipitation and temperature

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Precipitation and temperature data were <u>obtained derived</u> from the daily gridded observational dataset for Europe (E-OBS; Cornes et al 2018). The E-OBS dataset provides <u>hydroclimatic</u> data with a spatial resolution of <u>a</u>0.1-degree regular grid, based on the interpolation of <u>observations hydroclimatic variables</u> from a network of European meteorological stations. <u>Currently, T</u>the dataset <u>currently spans-covers</u> the period between 1950 and 2022. For <u>every each karst spring, the climate variables were extracted selected based on the geographic coordinates of the spring. <u>However, for karst springs with catchments larger than the cell size or high topographical gradient, this approach might not fully capture local variability. Additionally, <u>This means that</u> in areas with high spring density, one <u>single grid cell ean-may</u> represent <u>the hydroclimatic conditions variables</u> for <u>multiple more than one-springs</u>.</u></u>

For trends analysis, daily precipitation values were summed, and daily temperature values were averaged to calculate monthly and seasonal values.

Daily values of precipitation and temperature were accumulated respective averaged to obtain monthly and seasonal values. Even Although the study encompasses a range of climate zones across Europe covers entire Europe and therefore different climate zones, standardized meteorological seasons (winter: DJF, spring: MAM, summer: JJA, and autumn: SON) were used for-consistency comparison purposes.

2.3 Trend analysis

The Mann-Kendall test (Kendall 1948; Mann, 1945) is <u>a widely frequently</u> used <u>method</u> for the trend analysis of observational data and climatic indices. This includes <u>analysis of the the observational</u> E-OBS dataset, which has been <u>analysed evaluated at various temporal resolutions such as for different timely resolution for example monthly, seasonal, and <u>annual scalesyearly before</u> (e.g. Peña-Angulo et al., 2020). However, to compare the observational data at the location of the springs over the two defined periods, the Mann-Kendall test was <u>calculated for applied to</u> spring discharge and hydroclimatic variables. The ranked-based, non-parametric Mann-Kendall test <u>determines assesses</u> the significance of monotonic trends by <u>comparing the evaluating</u> differences between <u>measurements</u> earlier and later <u>measurements in the</u> time <u>series</u>. As a non-parametric test, it is suitable for data with it can be used for time series with non-normal distributions and is, therefore, commonly often applied</u>

in hydrological studies. Here, the modified Mann-Kendall test after Hamed and Rao (1998) was used, which includes a variance correction approach to account for autocorrelation in the time series. Specifically, the test statistic is computed as the sum of the signs of differences between all pairs of data points, with the variance adjusted using a variance inflation factor derived from the autocorrelation structure. For a detailed explanation, readers are referred to Hamed and Rao (1998). -To overcome address the sensitivity toof the confidence levels of the Mann Kendall test, two significance thresholds were used; different statistical significance level were set, the first one with a p-values of 5 %, and the second one with p-values amore relaxed threshold of 10 %. In addition, Sen's slope (Sen, 1968) was calculated to determine the magnitude and direction of the trend, with positive values indicating increasing trends and negative values indicating decreasing trends. Sen's slope (Sen, 1968) is used to calculate the sign and slope of the calculated trend. The Mann-Kendall test and Sen's slope were chosen for their widespread use in monotonic trend analyses were used because they are frequently applied for monotonic trend analysis in both climatic and hydrological contexts studies. They have the advantage of being independent of the data distribution, making them particularly suitable for non-normal data, such as monthly discharge from karst springs, and hence applicable to non-normal distribution as found for monthly discharge data from karst springs (e.g. Fiorillo et al., 2021). Both statistical tests are included in the R package modifiedmk (Hamed and Rao, 1998).

3 Results

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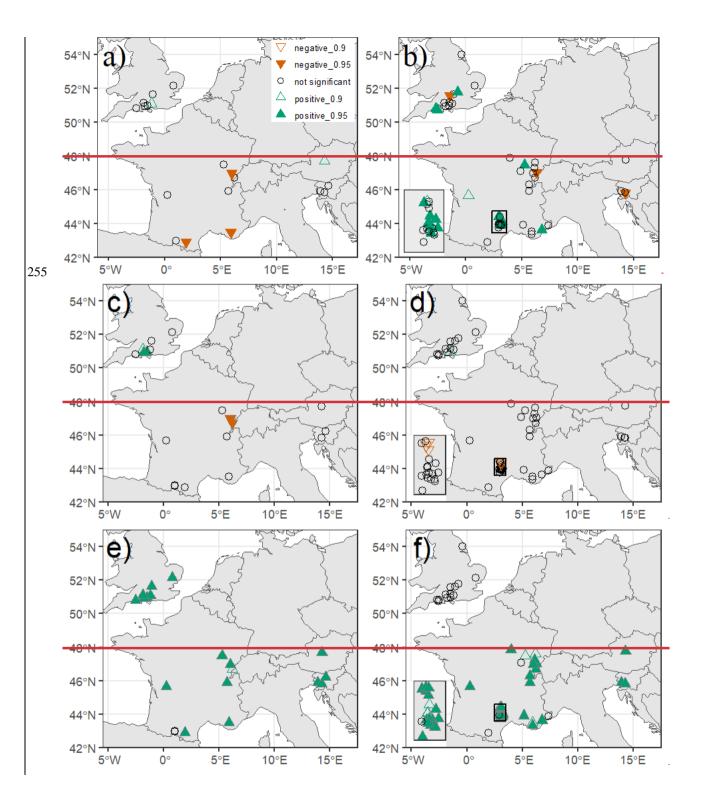
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3.1 Trends in monthly spring discharge and climate variables

Only six -of the analysed springs exhibit significant changes in discharge over the plast 40 years (Fig.2a). Among these, (The three springs with decreasing trends negative changes show have a higher significance (at the 5% probability level) compared to the two springs with increasing trends than the two positive ones (at the 10% probability level). With the exception of Apart from two springs, all springs with discharge records of 40-years discharge records are located in the temperate climate zone (Cfb). Of the exceptions, Both springs, one spring is situated located in the Mediterranean climate zone (Csa), and the other one in the humid subtropical climate zone (Cfa). Both have decreasing show decreasing spring discharge. The latter one spring (spring Fontestorbes) is one of the springs draining drains a mountainous catchment in the Pyrenees. The other two springs with decreasing spring discharge (spring Lison and Verneau) are located in the French Jura mountains, which is also also drain karst systems in a mountainous region, the French Jura mountains. In contrast, the Spring Pissling Ursprung, which drains a karst system on the northern slopes of the Austrian Alps, shows an increasing discharge trend. It is one of the two springs with positive trends, the other being Cheriton Spring in England. The only other spring located in a mountainous region is the spring Pissling Ursprung, draining a karst system on the northern side of the Austrian Alps. This spring is one of two springs with increasing discharge trends. The other one is in England (spring Cheriton).

Discharge trends of over the plast 20 years (Fig. 2b) differ both locally but also on and continentally scale from the long-term trends. Positive trends are dominant in large parts of Europe. Of the Out of 15 springs with positive trend, one each is in the Csa and another in the Csb climate zone, while the remainder are in the Cfb zone and Csb climate zone, the rest are in the Cfb

climate zone. Many of these springs are located in the Grands Causses region Most of them are karst springs in the Grands Causses region, a high plateau under Mediterranean influence in southern France. Conversely, only three springs exhibit negative discharge trends during the 20-year period, distributed across Europe. Importantly, none of the springs that showed significant trends over the 40-year period exhibit significant changes during the shorter 20-year period. Apart from there, positive trends can also be found in other parts of France and in England. Three springs have a negative sign in discharge, spread out over Europe. In addition, none of the springs with trends over the 40-year period has any significant changes in the 20-year period.



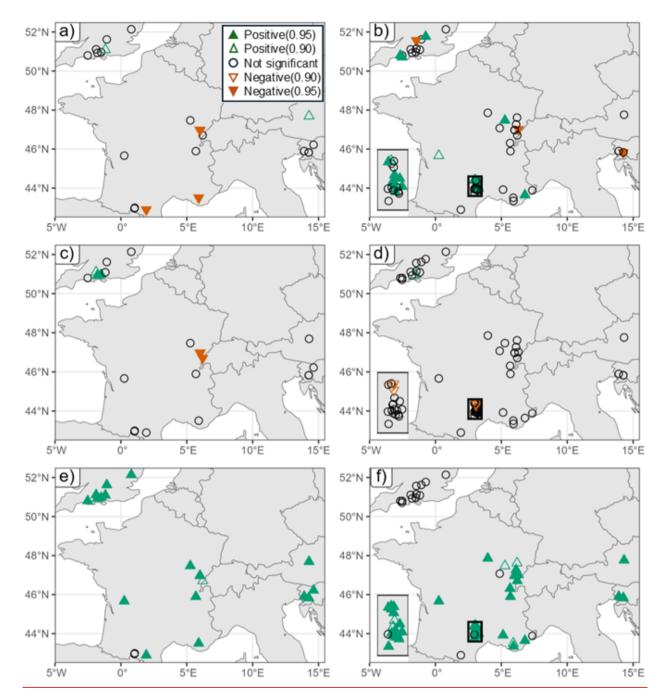


Figure 2: Trends in discharge (a,b), precipitation (c,d) and temperature (e,f) over the 40-year (1982-2021 – left) respectively and the 20-year (2002-2021 – right) period, respectively. Red symbols indicate negative trends while green symbols indicate positive trends.

Despite the number of springs with significant <u>discharge</u> trends in <u>discharge</u>, precipitation <u>remains relatively</u> is <u>rather</u> stable over both periods, <u>with changes occurring only</u>. As <u>presented in Fig 2c</u>) and d), <u>precipitation changes only</u> locally <u>(Fig 2c and 1)</u>

d). Over the 40-year period-of 40 years, significant precipitation trends are detected in just six karst areas represented by E-OBS grid cells, have a significant precipitation trend. Three of these are locations can be found in southern England near the region of the Cheriton spring, although the grid cell containing the spring itself does not show a significant increase, in the same area of the spring Chariton. However, the exact location of the Chariton station does not show a significant increase. The only region with a negative precipitation trends is the French Jura mountains, where two springs of the springs with negative discharge are located. Over the last 20 years, the negative precipitation trend in the Jura Mountains is has slowed, down and no significant changes can be are detected in this area. Further south, in the Grands Causses region, precipitation decrease in the far north of the region, however only at the lower significance level a decrease in precipitation is observed in the far north of the region, but only at a lower significance level. The number of positive trends in UK grid cells located in the UK-also decreases, with just one grid cell showing a to one with lower significance level.

In contrast, a Air temperature shows a uniform significant increasing trend in across Europe over the 40-year period (Fig. 2e).

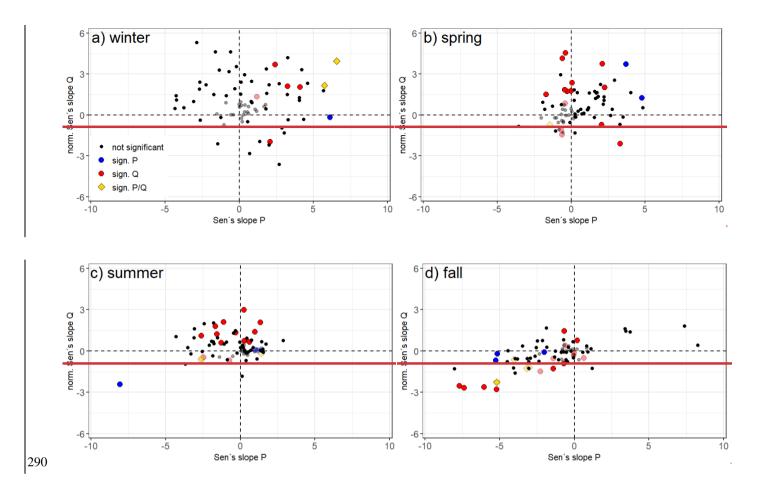
During the last 20 years (Fig. 2f), temperature continues to rise in increases at most of the spring locations, with the exception of apart from England, where no trends are observed.

3.2 Seasonal changes in monthly spring discharge and climate variables

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Spring discharge varies widely between among European karst spring (see Tab. 1). To account for the differences in mean discharge, a normalized Sen's slope (seasonal Sen's slope/Q_{mean}) for discharge—was used to analyse changes in seasonal discharge on the continental scale. In Figure 3, the top-right and bottom-left corners of each seasonal subplots indicate similar positive and negative Sen's slopes for normalized seasonal discharge (Q) and seasonal precipitation (P), respectively. For simplification reasons simplicity, all locations are summarized in a single plot the same irrespective of their climatic zones plot regardless the climatic zone they belong to. Based on the results presented in Figure 2, air temperature was excluded from the seasonal analysis because its uniform increase across all seasons and springs was not considered a key factor influencing interannual discharge variability. Following the results of Fig. 2, air temperature was not included in the seasonal analysis, assuming that its global increase for all spring was not a key explaining factor for inter-annual variability of discharge.



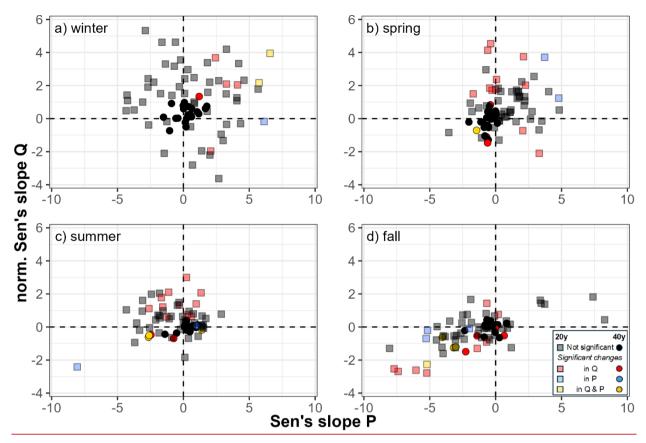


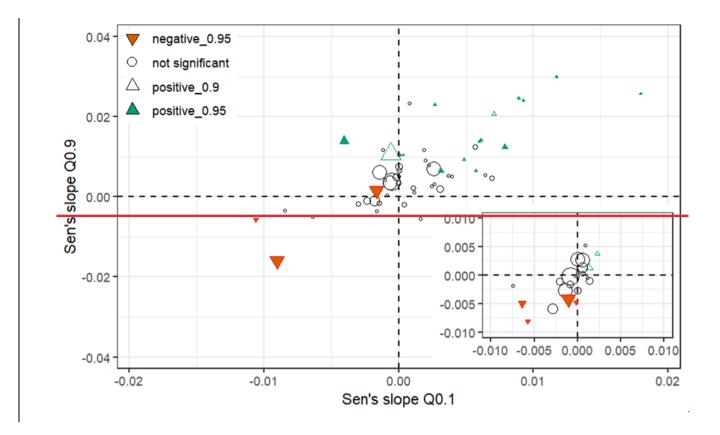
Figure 3: Comparison of changes in precipitation and discharge trends for a) winter, b) spring, c) summer, and d) fall. Springs indicated by red dots have significant changes in discharge, by blue dots in precipitations and diamonds have significant changes in both seasonal precipitation and discharge. Bold symbols represent the 20-year period.

Overall, significant simultaneous changes in both P and Q at the same time are rather few rare, and occuroccurring at only at a small percentage of the springs. Except for one case in summer over the 40-year period, the significant trends in both precipitation and discharge show similar directions. With one exception (in summer over the 40 year period) the signs of these significant trends in precipitation and discharge are similar. Overall, Seignificant changes in Q are more prevalent, are predominant but the direction of these trends varies widely among sign shows a high variation among springs and seasons. Winter is the season with the least significant changes over in both periods but it showsand the greatest highest variation in Sen's slopes for both discharge and precipitation trends. HoweverDespite this, most springs have positive Sen's slopes indicating and therefore an overall increasing trend in discharge during winter. Precipitation trends in winter, however, show a wide range of negative and positive values. Sen's slopes of precipitation changes range widely between negative and positive values. In terms of sign and overall trends, There are no major differences in the sign or overall trends between the two periods. However, the magnitude of changes is much greater in the highly elevated during the short period, a pattern observed which can be found in all seasons except of or fall, where the for which variations in the long period also shows are high as wellvariability. However, at least in winter most changes are not significant. In contrast, sSpring and summer seasons of the significant changes are not significant. In contrast, sSpring and summer seasons of the significant changes are not significant. In contrast, sSpring and summer seasons of the significant changes are not significant. In contrast, sSpring and summer seasons of the significant changes are not significant.

other hand, display show a clear increase in of significant discharge changes during over the last 20 years, with the majority of these changes being significantly positive. For both seasons, most of these changes are significantly positive. Precipitation trends, however, show no clear pattern, although spring appears. Clear trends in precipitation are missing, even though spring seems to become slightly wetter and summer drier on a continental scale. In these twoboth season, differences between the springs are minor compared to the winter. The most pronounced trend The clearest trend of all seasons is the a precipitation decrease in precipitation during fall, often combined with a dominant decrease in discharge. Thisese trends is evident in are equally developed for both periods, though slightly amplified for in the last 20 years. Therefore, it can be concluded stated that the fall is the only season with a clear long-term connection between precipitation and discharge, indicating with a high sensitivity of spring discharge changes to changes in precipitation.

3.3 Low and high flow conditions

To analyse changes in low and high extremes, a trend analysis <u>was conducted</u> on the 0.1 and 0.9 <u>quantilepercentile</u> of spring discharge is done. In Figure 4, trend changes are expressed by Sen's slopes in m³y⁻¹, with changes in high <u>flow</u> (Q0.9) and low <u>flow</u> (Q0.1) <u>flow</u> conditions <u>plotted</u> on the y-axis and x-axis, respectively. <u>Since the springs differ in discharge dynamics, which influence mean annual discharge (see Table 1), directly comparing relative changes in annual high and low flow <u>discharge and total annual discharge is challenging.</u> <u>Relative changes in annual high and low flow discharge and annual discharge are difficult to compare since the spring differ in discharge dynamics influencing mean annual discharge (cf. Table 1). Therefore For this reason, <u>again</u> normalized values are used in Figure <u>is divided into consists of four different</u> quadrants where the upper_-right and lower_-left represent a unison shift of discharge to a higher or lower stage, respectively. The other two quadrants represent conditions where the fluctuation in discharge either increases (upper_-left) or decreases (lower_-right).</u></u>



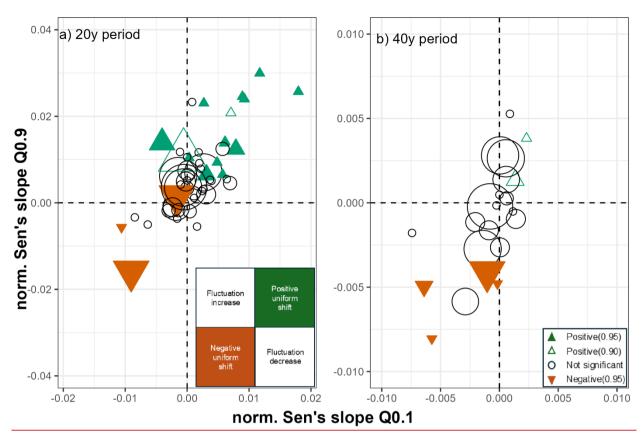


Figure 4: Distribution of high flow (Q0.9) and low flow (Q0.1) trends for a) the 20year period and b) the 40year period. Shape and colour of the symbols refer to the monthly discharge trends presented in Figure 2a and b. The size of the symbols represents the size of the spring expressed by Q_{mean}.

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Comparing the trend development of extremes between the two different periods providesgives valuable insights information inton recharge patterns. For springs with significant changes in annual spring discharge over the last 40 years, the entire spring discharge shifts uniformlyson either to a lower or higher stage, depending on sign-direction of the global trend. All springs with negative trends in annual discharge are located in the bottom_left quadrant, which is associated with-discharge decreases in both low and high flow. Also Mmost other springs without significant trend also follow this pattern and can be found either in the top_right or bottom_left quadrants. Only two springs deviate differ from this general pattern, showing a slightly negative Sen's slope for high flow discharge in connection toalongside positive low flow discharge. For the 20-year period, several springs deviate from this distribution including three with significant changes in annual spring discharge. All of these springs are located in the top_left quadrant, where with opposing trends in low and high flow discharge are observed. In two cases, the increase in high flow discharge leads to a significant increase in annual spring discharge, whereas while one spring even shows a significant decrease in annualing spring discharge despite the increase in high flow discharge. All other springs, located in the lower-lower-left or upper-upper-right quadrant are following the pattern observed infor the long 40-year period.

Springs with significant increasing <u>discharge</u> trends are found exclusively <u>-in the upper-right quadrant</u>, <u>while those with and</u> decreasing <u>trends are located ean be</u> solely <u>found in the upper right quadrant and in the lower-lower-left</u> quadrant, <u>respectively</u>.

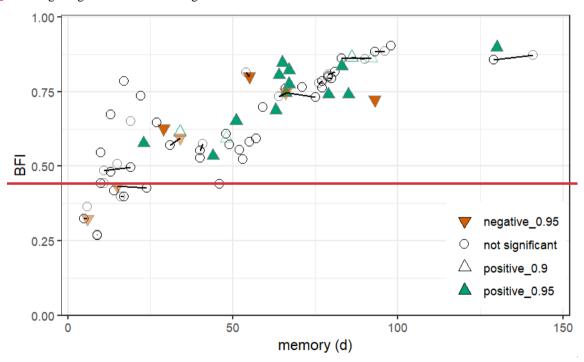
3.4 Sensitivity of different karst systems to changing climatic conditions

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Due to the significant large differences in hydraulic properties, karst systems respond differently to input signals. To characterize the springs according based to their hydraulic properties, a simplified characterization classification using based on BFI and memory index is presented in Figure 5. In this representation, Each each spring is depicted as a represented by one point in the coordinate system, where eEach axis corresponds to represents one of the indices index starting from with zero atin the origin and increasinges the values along the respective axis. The resulting coordinate system allows for athe simplified classification of the systems, with two endmembers located at in the lower-left and the top-right corners of the system. The lower-left corner represents system with a low fraction of the slow flow components and low storativity, typical of and therefore mature karst systems, In contrast, whereas the top-right corner represents fissured system with a high storage capacity and a high degree of diffuse recharge.



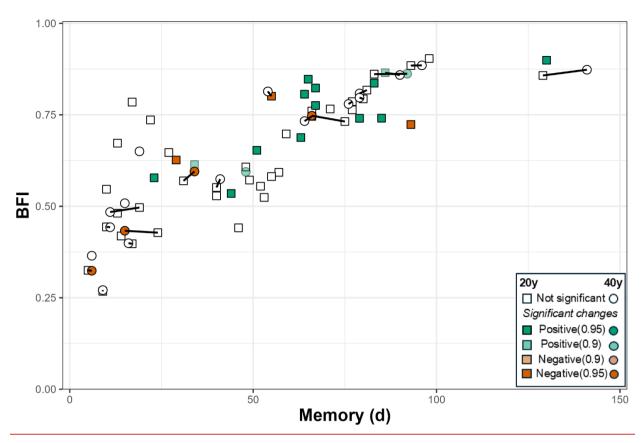


Figure 5: Classification of karst systems based on base flow index (BFI) and memory value. Bold symbols represent the 20-year period, Symbols connected by a line are the same spring, at the two different periods.

Figure 5 captures illustrated the diversity variety—of European karst systems, ranging from fast_-responding systems with memory values of only a few days with and a low fraction of slow flow components, to fractured systems characterized by a high fraction of slow flow components and high inertia. Despite this variability, aAll springs generally follow one general trend with some deviations alternations at the end-extremes of the spectrum. This general trend forms a vertical line from the lower_-left to the top_-right corner. Among the fissured systems, in the range of BFI > 0.85, two spring alternate deviate from thise general trend by exhibiting higher memory values. A second alternation deviation can be seen be observed among the mature karst systems, where several springs show an increased fraction of slow flow components. Despite the clear obvious differences in hydraulic properties, significantly positive and negative trends cover the entire spectrum of springs. However, Only-springs with extremely high values of both BFI (> 0.8) and memory (> 90 d) tend to show increasing or stable discharge trends. Based on these results of rom thise continental discharge dataset, it is not possible to directly link hydraulic properties to climate resilience.

4 Discussion

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Summarizing the continental trends-in-hydroclimatic variables, it can be stated that trends in air temperature trends are the ones that are most pronounced hydroclimatic changes observed during in both analysed periods. Over the plast 40 years, air temperature has basically increaseds consistently across the in all recharge areas of European karst springs. However, dDuring the last 20 years, this trend hasis somehow slowed down in some regionsareas, especially particularly in England. Significant trends in precipitation are rare scarce for both periods. Over the 40-year period, significant precipitation trends are observed only can be detected only locally, and their significance and spatial occurrence further decreases further in over the last 20 years.

When cConsidering only long-term hydroclimatic trends alone, it becomes challenging to fully attribute changes in discharge from karst areas to hydroclimatic variations general trends in observational data over longer periods makes it difficult to explain changes in discharge from karst areas by hydroclimatic changes only. This might be due to the influence of the fact that additional factors such as groundwater abstraction, and other anthropogenic interferences like land coveruse changes, or and shifts in changes in agricultural practices, all of which are not accounted for in this analysis, crop rotations in karst areas are not considered Moreover, trends in spring discharge are not solely driven by long-term hydroclimatic changes but also due to the fact that trends in spring discharge might not only be influenced by long term changes of hydroclimatic conditions but also are also affected by short-term (e.g. seasonal) processes, such as seasonal variations in groundwater recharge and storage dynamicschanges in processes related to groundwater recharge and storage. To better understand these changes, it is necessary to explore potential process changes within specific regional contexts, which follows after a comparison between the general discharge trends with regional variations in river discharge. Following a general comparative analysis with river discharge trends, possible process changes will hence be discussed in a regional context.

4.1 Comparative analysis with surface water

Due to the relative high abundance of hydrometric stations, <u>numerousplenty</u> of trend analysis of river discharge have been <u>conducted both-done</u> on continental and local scales. <u>These studies provide a valuable comparison to trends observed in karst areas. These studies can be used as comparison for the trends in karst areas. In fact, On a European scale, river discharge trends on a European scale exhibit show a clear regional pattern closely connected to climatic drivers over <u>recent the last few decades</u>. The increase in (extreme) precipitation results in positive trends in river discharge at the majority of hydrometric stations in north-western Europe (Harrigan et al., 2018; Blöschl et al., 2019) even though Central and Southern England as well as Northern France only show a few significant trends (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2019). <u>Conversely, -i</u>In southern Europe, regional river discharge trends are spatially negative as a consequence of increasing temperatures and <u>large</u> decline in precipitation (Blöschl et al., 2019; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2019). One exception <u>are is</u> the Pyrenees Mountains, where – on the contrary to karst springs - streamflow trends <u>based on 67 river gauging stations covering the north as well as the south side</u> are largely <u>innet</u>-significant for the period between 1980 and 2013 <u>based on 67 river gauging stations covering the north as well as the</u></u>

south side as concluded by (Clavera-Gispert et al., (2023). Despite the limited Even though the spatial coverage of long-term karst spring data-over a long period is comparably low, the results presented in Fig. 2 demonstrate the ability to detect the showed that it is possible to detect the long-term impact of changing hydroclimatic conditions on water resources in karst areas on a continental scale. The general patterns observed presented for in spring discharge in this study are in linealign with trends in surface runoff, with another key component of the terrestrial hydrological cycle, namely surface runoff.

High flow conditions in the karst system, described by the 10th and 90th percentile, follow the general trends inef monthly discharge over the long period (Fig. 4), consistent with findings from European river systems. This is again coherent with results of continental studies on European river systems. These regional flood trends show distinct patterns, significance in flood trends show a distinct regional pattern, which is somehow equal to the trends in mean river discharge. Increasing trends in flood magnitude and frequency are dominant around the Atlantic (Mangini et al., 2018), with positive trends in high flow indices for all seasons except spring between 1985 and 2014 in the UK (Harrigan et al., 2018). Following this pattern, In southeast France, river discharge in south east France has mainly negative trends are mostly negative (Mangini et al., 2018). Furthermoreand, decreasing flood magnitudes are evident discovered in the southern part of the Alps (Mangini et al., 2018). In the Mediterranean, flood frequency is decreasies but while flood the magnitude trends shows an increaseing trend, both for moderate (95th percentile) and high (99th percentile) floods (Mangini et al., 2018; Tramblay et al., 2019). Additionally, cChanges can also be detected in the characteristics of floods which is most prominent in a considerable increase of medium to large flash flood occurrence in Europe in the 21st century compared to the 1980s (Owen et al., 2018), even though major floods (25 to 100-year return period) show an overall, vet-but insignificant, increase (Hodgkins et al., 2017).

The consistency betweenin European flood trends and karstie flows trends indicates that is a sign that groundwater recharge in karst areas follows aligns with the same trend as surface runoff trends on a catchment scale. This suggests A clear sign that global changes in hydroclimatic variables impact both runoff and infiltration components of the water cycle. But we can assume that Tthe concentrated infiltration typical of karstic zones systems likely amplifies may reinforce the trendspattern, while other aquifer types may experience more buffering effects due to their greater inertia. and that this would probably be buffered for other types of more inertial aquifers.

However, the evolution of high and low flow trends between both periods in high and low flow in karst areas over the different periods indicates potential process changes in the lastrecent decades (Fig.4). Over the 40-year period, most of the springs follow roughly a straight line from the lower left to upper right with : Along this line, springs showing with overall decreasing discharge trends in are located in the lower left, and those with the once with increasing discharge trends in the upper right. This indicates a uniform shift in discharge levels without significant changes in fluctuation patterns. This indicates that the entire time series transverses to a higher or lower level without changes of the fluctuation pattern. In contrastopposite to this, during the last 20 years more springs deviate from this behaviour during the last 20 years. All these springs have a exhibiting positive high flow and negative low flow trends. This suggests an increase in which means that annual fluctuations between high and low flow conditions increase. Some of the springs even have significant trends in overall discharge trends, driven which can be explained by an increase in high flow events for rising overall increasing trends and lower baseflow reduction

but more extreme events for <u>declining overall decreasing</u> trends. This is a strong indication for changes in the <u>partitioning of</u> concentrated and diffuse recharge, <u>suggesting alterations in partitioning and therefore an indication of changes in precipitation</u> patterns. However, considering the results from the analysis of the indices closely related to the maturity or degree of karstification (memory effect and BFI; Fig. 5), it becomes obvious that not only systems with fast flow component are impacted. Hence, the sensitivity of karst aquifers to climate change is not <u>solely</u> controlled by their degree of karstification. <u>Instead, the and the effects linked to hydraulic properties seem to be masked by the regional effect of hydroclimatic changes occurring</u> on different time scales.

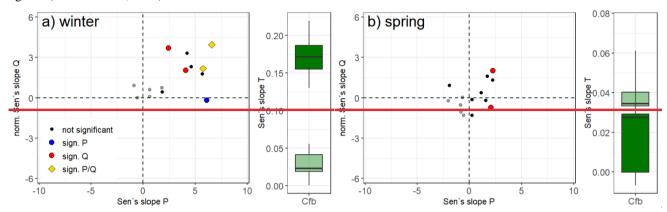
4.2 Hydroclimate-induced changes in karst water resources

Changes on a regional scale depend <u>not only</u> on the climate zone but also <u>on</u> specific regional conditions. Even though a <u>thorough detailed local-scale</u> analysis-<u>is beyond the scope of this studyon a local scale is not focus of the analysis</u>, evidence <u>supporting for</u>-some of the described discharge trends can be given. According to the results, fall is the seasons <u>of with the</u> highest sensitivity of spring discharge <u>changes</u> to changes of precipitation. (Fig. 3). A <u>likely-plausible</u> explanation <u>would be involves</u> the combination of two phenomenon <u>leading to severe with significant</u> consequences: i) the depletion of the aquifers in fall due to the warmer spring/summer temperatures, and ii) a lower recharge at the start of the hydrological cycle. This can be discussed at a smaller scale, for regions specific areas with consistent spatial trends.

Over the last 40 years, discharge has decreased in the Seprings Lison and Verneaum, both situated in the same part of the Jura Mountain and characterized two springs with by long-term discharge records time series (40 years) located in the same part of the Jura Mountain. Looking at the general trends in the area (Fig. 6), temperature, and therefore consequently evapotranspiration, has increased in across all seasons over the last 40 years. This, combined with significantly decreasing fall precipitation contributes to lower discharge in fall resulting together with significantly decreasing fall precipitation for the entire region in lower discharge in fall. In the entire region, the distribution of precipitation shifted, withchanges to more precipitation in winter and spring and but less during the other two seasons. Over 40 years, the partly significant decrease in fall precipitation might explain the local precipitation decreases in the area (Fig. 2d).

During the last 20 years, precipitation during in spring and, especially particularly, winter has increaseds significantly, which might explain the absences of consistent overall-negative discharge trends during this period. Additional to the precipitation increase in winter, winter air temperature has also increased, during winter with a high accelerating overon during the last 20 years. Considering Inthe mountainous regions environment, this likely results in reduceda decrease in snow contribution, especially during the last 20 years can be assumed in coherence with previous studies showing a pattern supported by earlier studies reporting a significant decrease in snow precipitations in the north part of Jura Mountains (Charlier et al., 2022). Therefore In summary, it can be summarized that long-term changes in the Jura Mountain are mainly related to increases in rising temperature, influencing affecting snow contribution during the cold seasons and increasing evapotranspiration during the warm seasons. Both effects related to increasing temperature—have been highlighted in previous studies of karst systems in temperate climates (Fan et al., 2023) but also and mountainous regions in with Mediterranean climates (Lorenzi et

al., 2022). However, in the case of Jura mountains, these changes is does not result in lead to overall regional—wide decreasing discharge. A likely possible explanation is that increased evapotranspiration is offsetcompensated by higher precipitation in cold_seasons precipitation overduring the plast 20 years, a process already previous discussed for a case study in south-western England (Brenner et al., 2018).



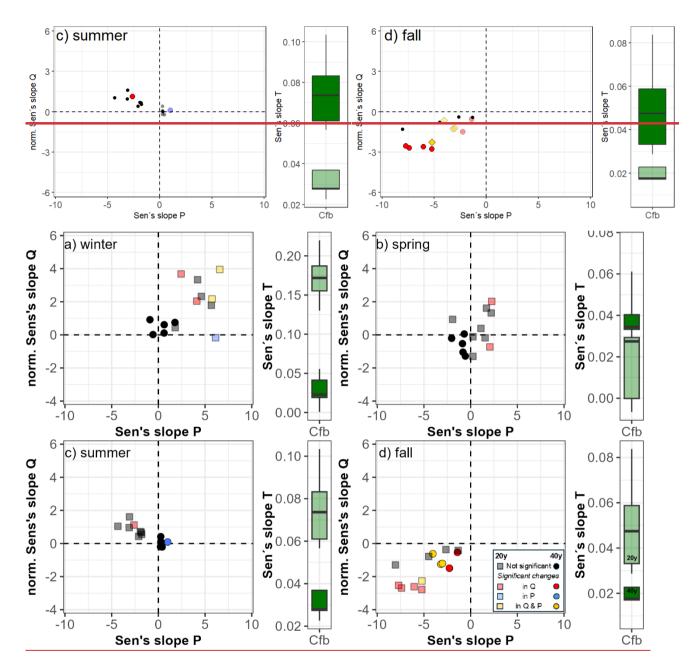
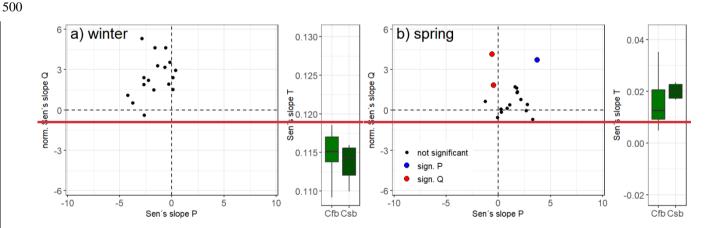


Figure 6: Comparison of changes in precipitation and discharge trends for a) winter, b) spring, c) summer, and d) fall in combination with temperature (boxplot) for all springs located in the Jura mountains (France). Springs indicated by red dots have significant changes in discharge, by blue dots in precipitations and diamonds have significant changes in both seasonal precipitation and discharge. Bold symbols represent the 20-year period. The line in the boxplot represents the median.—

The Grand Causses region is of particular specific interest due to its location along a climate zone boundary. Previous analysis studies have highlighted that such those areas, especially those affected by changes in snow contributions, or areas with changes in snow contribution are prone susceptible to variations in for changes in river discharge (Berghuijs et al., 2014) and groundwater level variability (Nygren et al., 2020; Nygren et al., 2021). The climate boundary in the Grand Causses region is connected to elevation differences, dividing the lower parts with Mediterranean climate from the parts with higher elevation (temperate climate). Summarizing Based on the results from Fig.ure-2-b), several springs in the region show positive discharge trends overfor the plast 20 years. However, precipitation increases mainly in spring and has a clear negative trend in fall and winter for both climate zones (Fig.7), in link withconnected to a lower occurrence of Mediterranean storm events – whichthat historically occurred in fall season - in the last decades. The highest number of most significant discharge changes in discharge occurs are observed in summer, all of them positive. Similar to the Jura mountains, air temperatures have increased acrossing all seasons, most pronounces in winter. Despite the decrease in winter precipitation, spring discharge shows an increases, albeit not even though not significantly. This regional discharge trends indicate increases in discharge can be seen in all seasons except from fall. This last point is coherentaligns with reduced the decrease of precipitation, and, thus consequently, decreased of recharge during the fall season. One potential A possible explanation for the resulting in overall increasing discharge increases, could <u>might</u> be a ssubstantial trong reduction in snow contribution. This, combined with higher spring precipitation, likely leads to system saturation. Despite the elevated temperatures in the warmer seasons, the increased recharge supports greater discharge levels, persisting until the fall season, eading together with increased spring precipitation to a total saturation of the systems. Despite increased temperatures in the warm seasons, this leads to increase discharge until fall.

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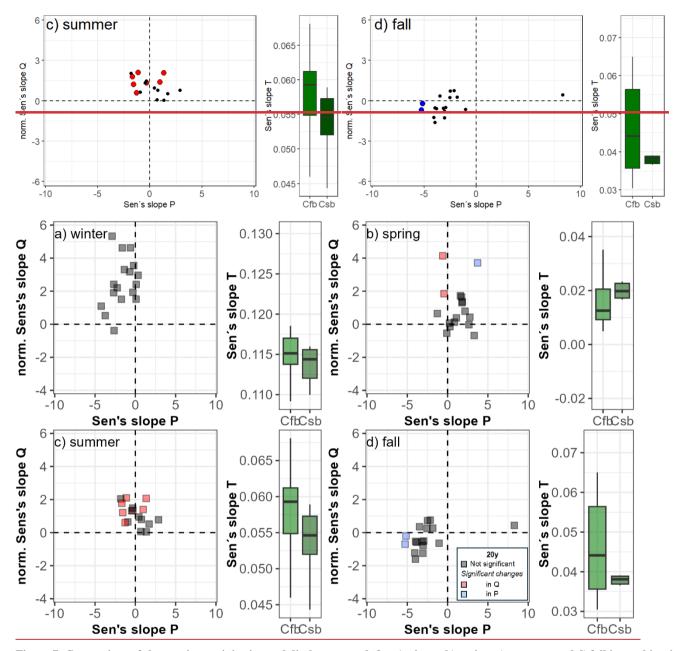


Figure 7: Comparison of changes in precipitation and discharge trends for a) winter, b) spring, c) summer, and d) fall in combination with temperature (boxplot) for all springs located in the Grand Causses region (France). Springs indicated by red dots have significant changes in discharge, by blue dots in precipitations and diamonds have significant changes in both seasonal precipitation and discharge. The line in the boxplot represents the median.

4.3 Additional forcings impacting-karst water resources

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Building on the analysis of Following the reasoning for the two French karst areas of the Jura Mountains and Grands Causses region in the previous section, it can be concluded that, in absence of significant precipitation changes, temperature is the primarythe main driver of climate change related trends in European karst discharge. Anthropogenic warming is closely connected linked to increased evapotranspiration, which affects. This has an impact on the entire hydrological cycle and is closely connected to the occurrence of meteorological (e.g. Hänsel et al., 2019, Philip et al., 2020), soil moisture (e.g. Samaniego et al., 2018, Philip et al., 2020), and groundwater drought (e.g. Bloomfield et al. 2019).

Another factor influencing evapotranspiration is Cehanges in land use or land cover also play a critical role in changes of evapotranspiration. Several studies have highlighted the influence of land use changes on trends in river discharge (e.g. Vicente-Serrano et al., 2019) and extreme events, especially the spatial and temporal occurrence and severity of drought events (e.g. Brunner and Stahl, 2023). Even short-term changes due to crop rotations in agricultural areas have a directly affectimpact on groundwater storage (e.g. Dakhlalla et al., 2016). GloballyOn a global scale, almost 5% of karst regions experienced land use or land cover changes in karst areas could be detected for almost 5% of the surface for the period between 1992 and 2020, predominantly due to most of them related to agricultural reclamation or reforestation (Zhang et al., 2023). However, analysing the impact of these changes on a larger scale is challenging due to lack of difficult to analyse on a larger scale since fundamental research on percolation and recharge processes is karst areas is lacking, especially particularly those for those covered by forest (Vilhar et al., 2022).

Possible explanations for the increase in discharge or moderation-moderated of downward trends - not only in the Grands Causses region - can also be found in the dependency of spring discharge on large-scale atmospheric circulations, as seen in Italian karst areas (e.g. Fiorillo et al., 2021). Sudden Abrupt changes or even breaks in the system behaviour during the plast decades can also be detected in ear evident in other compartments of the hydrological cycle, driven by. These are closely connected to fluctuations in ear large-scale atmospheric circulations. These circulations impact hydroclimatic variables such as wind speed, temperature, and precipitation across Europe which drive different hydroclimatic conditions (e.g. wind speed, temperature, precipitation) over Europe (e.g. Ionita et al., 2022; Deng et al., 2022). For European river basins, the 1980s highlight marked a point starting point where periodic changes in river discharge became closely linked connected to large-scale atmospheric circulations, e.g. the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO), occur for the first time (Lorenzo-Lacruz et al., 2022). This transient connection between periodical fluctuations in European river discharge and large-scale atmospheric circulations can be detected on both continental (e.g. Lorenzo-Lacruz et al., 2022) and regional scales (e.g. Giuntoli et al., 2013; Boé and Habets, 2014) scales. Furthermore, the atmospheric circulations impact has an impact on long-term groundwater level variability (e.g. Holman et al., 2011; Neves et al., 2019; Rust et al., 2018; Rust et al., 2019, Baulon et al., 2022). These periodic signals propagate through processes via recharge to the aquifer and account on average for 40 to 55 % of groundwater level variability and therefore play an as important role as current climate conditions (Neves et al., 2019; Rust et al., 2019).

540 5 Conclusion

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Observational data from European karst areas were analysed for two different period. The first period (1982- 2021) focuses on European springs with the longest available time series, while and the second one covers the last two decades. The shorter period was chosen selected to identify any possible potential acceleration or moderation of trends on a regional scale. By a Analysing trends in observational hydroclimatic and hydrological variables over the last 20 years provide, this study provides a continental insight into these changes and at the same time allow for a higher number of karst springs representing diverse to cover a wide range of hydraulic properties, climates, and topographies.

Although hydrological properties of karst systems differ widely vary significantly, the results highlight the independence of long-term discharge trends in discharge from the maturity or degree of karstification. Both, systems dominated by with a dominant fast flow components as well as and those with predominant systems with a dominant base flow components show significant increasing and decreasing discharge trends, respectively. Out Oof the two investigated hydroclimatic variables, temperature increases played a pivotal role in explaining the observed trends. Conversely, changes in precipitation, including seasonal variations, were insufficient to account for the detected discharge trends, the increase in temperature played a major role in the explanation of the discovered trends. The impact of changes in precipitation, including seasonal changes, is not able to explain the detected changes in discharge. The analysis of observation data inherently simplifies the complex groundwater recharge and flow processes in karst areas to a degree that system changes cannot be detected. As mentioned highlighted, the list of possible drivers of such changes is long extensive, so only a few of them were highlighted here. One important group are changing climatic conditions which can be divided into cyclic changes, due to large-scale atmospheric circulations, and continuous changes related to the timing and intensity of precipitation and temperature changes during short-term periods, e.g. seasons. These dynamics cantypes of changes can be better addressed through considered by process-based groundwater recharge model approaches. Utilizing such models to Applying these types of models and analyseing discharge changes in discharge from karst areas, with their unique hydrologic properties, might may help overcome challenges associated with the disadvantage related to the validation of those model validations.

However, the here presented results have a practical <u>implication</u>relevance for modelling discharge in karst areas. Most time_series are <u>rather_relatively</u> short, which <u>increases</u> <u>bears</u>-the risk of <u>basing analyses on periods influenced using periods which</u> are affected by changing climate conditions <u>without taking account the associated shifts</u>. Moreover, developing numerical models and validating them using trend-affected time series—without accounting for the underlying drivers or evolving processes—risks producing misleading future predictions of spring discharge by assuming continuous linear trends. Building up numerical models and validate them on trend effected time series without considering the drivers or changing processes cause high risk of misleading future predictions of spring discharge. This also includes short term fluctuations in climatic drivers, e.g. caused by large scale atmospheric circulation.

Author contribution

Conceptualization: MG, JBC, YC, AH, Formal Analysis: MG, Funding acquisition: MG, JBC, YC, Methodology: MG, JBC, YC, AH, Software: MG, Visualization: MG, Writing – original draft preparation: MG, JBC, YC, AH, Writing – review & editing: MG, JBC, YC, AH

575 Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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