Trends in soil solution dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations across European forests

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- M. Camino-Serrano¹, E. Graf Pannatier², S. Vicca¹, S. Luyssaert^{3,22}, M. Jonard⁴,
 P. Ciais³, B. Guenet³, B. Gielen¹, J. Peñuelas^{5,6}, J. Sardans^{5,6}, P. Waldner², S.
 Etzold², G. Cecchini⁷, N. Clarke⁸, Z. Galić⁹, L. Gandois^{10,11}, K. Hansen¹², J.
 Johnson¹³, U. Klinck¹⁴, Z. Lachmanová¹⁵, A.J. Lindroos¹⁶, H. Meesenburg¹⁴,
 T.M. Nieminen¹⁶, T.G.M. Sanders¹⁷, K. Sawicka¹⁸, W. Seidling¹⁷, A. Thimonier²,
 E. Vanguelova¹⁹, A. Verstraeten²⁰, L. Vesterdal²¹, I.A. Janssens¹
 [1]{Department of Biology, PLECO, University of Antwerp, Belgium}
- 11 [2] {WSL, Swiss Federal Institute for Forest, Snow and Landscape Research, Zürcherstrasse
- 12 111, 8903, Birmensdorf, Switzerland}
- 13 [3] {Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, LSCE/IPSL, CEA-CNRS-
- 14 UVSQ, Université Paris-Saclay, F-91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France}
- 15 [4] {UCL-ELI, Université catholique de Louvain, Earth and Life Institute, Croix du Sud 2,
- 16 BE-1348 Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium}
- 17 [5] {CREAF, Cerdanyola del Vallès, Catalonia, Spain}
- 18 [6] {CSIC, Global Ecology Unit CREAF-CSIC-UAB, Cerdanyola del Vallès, Catalonia,
- 19 Spain}
- 20 [7] {Earth Sciences Department, University of Florence, Italy}
- 21 [8] {Norwegian Institute of Bioeconomy Research, N-1431, Ås, Norway}
- 22 [9] {University of Novi Sad-Institute of Lowland Forestry and Environment, Serbia}
- 23 [10] {Université de Toulouse: UPS, INP, EcoLab (Laboratoire Ecologie fonctionnelle et
- 24 Environnement), ENSAT, Castanet-Tolosan, France}
- 25 [11] {CNRS, EcoLab, Castanet-Tolosan, France}
- 26 [12] {IVL Swedish Environmental Research Institute, Natural Resources & Environmental
- 27 Effects, SE-100 31, Stockholm, Sweden}

- [13] {UCD School of Agriculture and Food Science, University College Dublin, Belfield,Ireland}
- 30 [14] {Northwest German Forest Research Institute, Grätzelstr. 2, D-37079, Göttingen,
 31 Germany}
- 32 [15] {FGMRI, Forestry and Game Management Research Institute, Strnady 136, 252 02

33 Jíloviště,Czech Republic}

- 34 [16] {Natural Resources Institute Finland (Luke), P.O. Box 18, 01301 Vantaa, Finland }
- 35 [17] {Thünen Institute of Forest Ecosystems, Alfred-Möller-Strasse 1, D-16225, Eberswalde,
 36 Germany}
- 37 [18] {University of Reading, Environmental Science, UK}
- 38 [19] {Centre for Ecosystem, Society and Biosecurity, Forest Research, Alice Holt Lodge,
- 39 Wrecclesham, Farnham, Surrey GU10 4LH, UK}
- 40 [20] {Research Institute for Nature and Forest (INBO), Kliniekstraat 25, BE-1070 Brussels,
 41 Belgium}
- 42 [21] {University of Copenhagen, Department of Geosciences and Natural Resource
 43 Management, Rolighedsvej 23, DK-1958 Frederiksberg C, Denmark}
- 44 [22] now at {Free University of Amsterdam, Department of Ecological Science, Boelelaan
 45 1085, NL-1081HV, the Netherlands}
- 46 Correspondence to: M. Camino-Serrano (marta.caminoserrano@uantwerpen.be)

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48 Abstract

49 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in surface waters is connected to DOC in soil solution 50 through hydrological pathways. Therefore, it is expected that long-term dynamics of DOC in 51 surface waters reflect DOC trends in soil solution. However, a multitude of site-studies has 52 failed so far to establish consistent trends in soil solution DOC, whereas increasing 53 concentrations in European surface waters over the past decades appear to be the norm, 54 possibly as a result of recovery from acidification. The objectives of this study were therefore 55 to understand the long-term trends of soil solution DOC from a large number of European 56 forests (ICP Forests Level II plots) and determine their main physico-chemical and biological 57 controls. We applied trend analysis at two levels: 1) to the entire European dataset and 2) to

58 the individual time series and related trends with plot characteristics, i.e., soil and vegetation 59 properties, soil solution chemistry and atmospheric deposition loads. Analyses of the entire 60 dataset showed an overall increasing trend in DOC concentrations in the organic layers, but, 61 at individual plots and depths, there was no clear overall trend in soil solution DOC. The rate change of soil solution DOC ranged between -16.8% yr⁻¹ and +23% yr⁻¹ (median= +0.4% yr⁻¹) r^{-1} 62 ¹) across Europe. The non-significant trends (40%) outnumbered the increasing (35%) and 63 64 decreasing trends (25%) across the 97 ICP Forests Level II sites. By means of multivariate 65 statistics, we found increasing trends in DOC concentrations with increasing mean nitrate (NO_3) deposition and increasing trends in DOC concentrations with decreasing mean 66 sulphate (SO_4^{2}) deposition, with the magnitude of these relationships depending on plot 67 deposition history. While the attribution of increasing trends in DOC to the reduction of SO_4^{2-} 68 deposition could be confirmed in low to medium N deposition areas, in agreement with 69 70 observations in surface waters, this was not the case in high N deposition areas. In 71 conclusion, long-term trends of soil solution DOC reflected the interactions between controls acting at local (soil and vegetation properties) and regional (atmospheric deposition of SO_4^{2-} 72 73 and inorganic N) scales.

74 **1** Introduction

75 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in soil solution is the source of much of the terrestrially 76 derived DOC in surface waters (Battin et al., 2009; Bianchi, 2011; Regnier et al., 2013). Soil 77 solution DOC in forests is connected to streams through different hydrological pathways: 78 DOC mobilized in the forest floor may be transported laterally at the interface of forest floor 79 and mineral soil to surface waters or percolates into the mineral soil, where additional DOC can be mobilized and/or DOC is partly adsorbed on particle surfaces and mineralized 80 81 thereafter. From the mineral soil DOC may be either leached laterally or vertically via groundwater into surface waters (McDowell and Likens, 1988). Therefore, it could be 82 83 expected that long-term dynamics of DOC in surface waters mirror those observed in 84 ecosystem soil solutions.

Drivers related to climate change (temperature increase, precipitation change, atmospheric CO₂ increase), the decrease in acidifying deposition or land use change and management may individually or jointly explain trends in surface water DOC concentrations (Evans et al., 2012; Freeman et al., 2004; Oulehle et al., 2011; Sarkkola et al., 2009; Worrall and Burt, 2004). Increasing air temperatures warm the soil, thus stimulating soil organic matter (SOM) decomposition through greater microbial activity (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Hartley and 91 Ineson, 2008; Kalbitz et al., 2000). Other drivers, such as increased atmospheric CO_2 and the 92 accumulation of atmospherically deposited inorganic nitrogen are thought to increase the 93 sources of DOC by enhancing primary plant productivity (i.e., through stimulating root 94 exudates or, increased litterfall) (de Vries et al., 2014; Ferretti et al., 2014; Sucker and 95 Krause, 2010). Changes in precipitation, land use and management (e.g. drainage of 96 peatlands, changes in forest management or grazing systems) may alter the flux of DOC 97 leaving the ecosystem but no consistent trends in the hydrologic regime or land use changes 98 were detected in areas where increasing DOC trends have been observed (Monteith et al., 99 2007).

100 Recent focus was mainly on decreasing acidifying deposition as an explanatory factor for 101 DOC increases in surface waters in Europe and North America by means of decreasing ionic strength (De Wit et al., 2007; Hruška et al., 2009) and increasing the pH of soil solution, 102 103 consequently increasing DOC solubility (Evans et al., 2005; Haaland et al., 2010; Monteith et 104 al., 2007). Although the hypothesis of an increase in surface water DOC concentration due to 105 a recovery from past acidification was confirmed in studies of soil solution DOC in the UK 106 and northern Belgium (Sawicka et al., 2016; Vanguelova et al., 2010; Verstraeten et al., 107 2014), it is not consistent with trends in soil solution DOC concentrations reported from 108 Finnish, Norwegian, and Swedish forests (Löfgren and Zetterberg, 2011; Ukonmaanaho et 109 al., 2014; Wu et al., 2010). This inconsistency between soil solution DOC and stream DOC 110 trends could suggest that DOC in surface water and soil solution responds differently to 111 (changes in) environmental conditions in different regions (Akselsson et al., 2013; Clark et 112 al., 2010; Löfgren et al., 2010). Alternatively, other factors such as tree species and soil type, 113 may be co-drivers of organic matter dynamics and input, generation and retention of DOC in 114 soils.

115 Trends of soil solution DOC not only vary among forests but often also within the same site 116 (Borken et al., 2011; Löfgren et al., 2010). Forest characteristics such as tree species 117 composition, soil fertility, texture or sorption capacity may affect the response of soil solution 118 DOC to environmental controls, for instance, by controlling the rate of soil acidification through soil buffering and nutrient plant uptake processes (Vanguelova et al., 2010). Within a 119 120 site, DOC variability with soil depth is typically caused by different intensity of DOC 121 production, transformation, and sorption along the soil profile. Positive temporal trends in soil solution DOC (increasing concentrations over time) were frequently reported for the 122 123 organic layers and shallow soils where production and decomposition processes control the

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DOC concentration (Löfgren and Zetterberg, 2011). However, no dominant trends are found for the mineral soil horizons, where physico-chemical processes, such as sorption, become more influential (Borken et al., 2011; Buckingham et al., 2008). Furthermore, previous studies have used different temporal and spatial scales which may have further added to the inconsistency in the DOC trends reported in the literature (Clark et al., 2010).

129 In this context, the International Co-operative Programme on Assessment and Monitoring of 130 Air Pollution Effects on Forests (ICP Forests, 2010) compiled a unique dataset containing 131 data from more than 100 intensively monitored forest plots (Level II) which allow to unravel 132 regional trends in soil solution DOC of forests at a European scale, and perform statistical 133 analysis of the main controls behind these regional trends. Long-term measurements of soil 134 solution DOC are available for these plots, along with information on aboveground biomass, soil properties, and atmospheric deposition of inorganic N and SO₄²⁻, collected using a 135 harmonized sampling protocol across Europe (Ferretti and Fischer, 2013). This dataset has 136 137 previously been used to investigate the spatial variability of DOC in forests at European scale 138 (Camino-Serrano et al., 2014), but an assessment of the temporal trends in soil solution DOC using this large dataset has not been attempted so far. 139

140 The main objective of this study is to understand the long-term temporal trends of DOC 141 concentrations in soil solution measured at the ICP Forests Level II plots across Europe. 142 Based on the increasing DOC trends in surface waters, we hypothesize that temporal trends in 143 soil solution DOC will also be positive, but with trends varying locally depending on plot 144 characteristics. We further investigated whether plot characteristics, specifically climate, 145 inorganic N and SO_4^{2-} deposition loads, forest type, soil properties, and changes in soil 146 solution chemistry can explain differences across sites in DOC trends.

147 2 Materials and Methods

148 **2.1 Data description**

Soil solution chemistry has been monitored within the ICP Forests Programme since the 150 1990s on most Level II plots. The ICP Forests data were extracted from the pan-European 151 Forest Monitoring Database (Granke, 2013). A list of the Level II plots used for this study 152 can be found in Supplementary material, Table S1. The methods for collection and analysis 153 of soil solution used in the various countries (Switzerland: Graf Pannatier et al. (2011); 154 Flanders: Verstraeten et al. (2012); Finland: Lindroos et al. (2000); UK: Vanguelova et al.

(2010), Denmark: Hansen et al. (2007)) follow the ICP Forests manual (Nieminen, 2011). 155 Generally, lysimeters were installed at several fixed depths starting at 0 cm, defined as the 156 157 interface between the surface organic layer and underlying mineral soil. These depths are typically aligned with soil "organic layer", "mineral topsoil", "mineral subsoil", and "deeper 158 159 mineral soil" but sampling depths vary among countries and even among plots within a 160 country. Normally, zero-tension lysimeters were installed under the surface organic layer and 161 tension lysimeters within the mineral soil. However, in some countries zero-tension 162 lysimeters were also used within the mineral layers and in some tension lysimeters below the 163 organic layer. Multiple collectors (replicates) were installed per plot and per depth to assess 164 plots spatial variability. However, in some countries, samples from these replicates were 165 pooled before analyses or averaged prior to data transmission. The quality assurance and 166 control procedures included the use of control charts for internal reference material to check 167 long-term comparability within national laboratories as well as participation in periodic 168 laboratory ring tests (e.g., Marchetto et al., 2011) to check the international comparability. 169 Data were reported annually to the pan-European data center, checked for consistency and 170 stored in the pan-European Forest Monitoring Database (Granke, 2013).

171 Soil water was usually collected fortnightly or monthly, although for some plots sampling 172 periods with sufficient soil water for collection were scarce, especially in prolonged dry 173 periods or in winter due to snow and ice. After collection, the samples were filtered through a 174 0.45 µm membrane filter, stored below 4 °C and then analyzed for DOC, together with other soil solution chemical properties (NO₃⁻, Ca, Mg, NH₄⁺, SO₄⁻², total dissolved Al, total 175 dissolved Fe, pH, electrical conductivity). Information on the soil solution chemistry at the 176 177 studied plots can be found in Supplementary material (Table S4-S11). The precision of DOC 178 analysis differed among the laboratories. The coefficient of variation of repeatedly measured 179 reference material was 3.7% on average. The time span of soil solution time series used for 180 this study ranged from 1991 to 2011, although coverage of this period varied from plot to plot 181 (Supplementary material, Table S1).

Soil properties, open field bulk deposition and throughfall deposition of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and SO₄²⁻, are measured at the same plots as well as stem volume increment. The atmospheric deposition of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and SO_4^{-2-} data covers the period 1999-2010 (Waldner et al., 2014). Stem volume growth was calculated by the ICP Forests network from diameter at breast height (DBH), live tree status, and tree height which were assessed for every tree (DBH > 5 cm) within a monitoring plot approximately every five years since the early 1990s. Tree stem 188 volumes were derived from allometric relationships based on diameter and height measurements according to De Vries et al. (2003), accounting for species and regional 189 differences. Stem volume growth (in m³) between two consecutive inventories was calculated 190 as the difference between stem volumes at the beginning and the end of one inventory period 191 for living trees. Stem volume data were corrected for all trees that were lost during one 192 193 inventory period, including thinning. Stem volume at the time of disappearance (assumed at 194 half of the time of the inventory period) was estimated from functions relating stem volume 195 of standing living trees at the end of the period vs volume at the beginning of the period. The 196 methods used for collection of these data can be found in the Manuals of the ICP Forests 197 Monitoring Programme (ICP Forests, 2010). The soil properties at the plots used for this 198 study were derived from the ICP Forests aggregated soil database (AFSCDB.LII.2.1) (Cools 199 and De Vos, 2014).

200 Since continuous precipitation measurements are not commonly available for the Level II 201 plots, precipitation measurements for the location of the plots were extracted from the 202 observational station data of the European Climate Assessment & Dataset (ECA&D) and the 203 ENSEMBLES Observations (E-OBS) gridded dataset (Haylock et al., 2008). We used 204 precipitation measurements extracted from the E-OBS gridded dataset to improve the 205 temporal and spatial coverage and to reduce methodological differences of precipitation 206 measurements across the plots. The E-OBS dataset contains daily values of precipitation and 207 temperature from stations data gridded at 0.25 degrees resolution. When E-OBS data were 208 not available, they were gap-filled with ICP Forests precipitation values gained by deposition 209 measurements where available.

210 **2.2 Data preparation**

211 We extracted data from plots with time series covering more than 10 years and including more than 60 observations of soil solution DOC concentrations of individual or groups of 212 213 collectors. Outliers, defined as \pm 3 interquartile range of the 25 and 75 quantiles of the time 214 series, were removed from each time series to avoid influence of few extreme values in the long-term trend (Schwertman et al., 2004). Values under 1 mg L⁻¹, which is the detection 215 limit for DOC in the ICP Level II plots, were replaced by 1 mg L⁻¹. After this filtering, 529 216 217 time series from 118 plots, spanning from Italy to Norway, were available for analysis. Soil 218 solution, precipitation, and temperature were aggregated to monthly data by the median of the 219 observations in each month and by the sum of daily values in the case of precipitation. Data

of inorganic N (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) and SO₄²⁻ throughfall and open field bulk deposition measured at the plots were interpolated to monthly data (Waldner et al., 2014).

222 The plots were classified according to their forest type (broadleaved/coniferous dominated), soil type (World Reference Base, (WRB 2006)), their stem growth (slow, $< 6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, 223 intermediate, 6–12 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; and fast, > 12 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and soil solution pH (low, <4.2, 224 225 intermediate, 4.2–5, high, >5). Plots were also classified based on mean throughfall inorganic N (NO₃⁻ +NH₄⁺) deposition level, defined as: high deposition (HD, >15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), 226 medium deposition (MD, 5–15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and low deposition (LD, <5 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and 227 mean throughfall SO_4^{2-} deposition level, defined as: high deposition (HD, >6 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), 228 229 and low deposition (LD, $< 6 \text{ kg S ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).

230 2.3 Statistical methods

Time series can typically decomposed into random noise, seasonal, and trend components 231 232 (Verbesselt et al., 2010). In this paper, we used methods to detect the actual trend (change in 233 time) after removing the seasonal and random noise components. The sequence of methods 234 applied is summarized in Fig. 1. The analysis of temporal trends in soil solution DOC 235 concentrations was carried out at two levels: 1) the European level and 2) the plot level. While the first analysis allows an evaluation of the overall trend in soil solution DOC at a 236 237 continental scale, the second analysis indicates whether the observed large scale trends are 238 occurring at local scales as well, and tests whether local trends in DOC can be attributed to 239 certain driver variables.

240 Linear mixed-effects models (LMM) were used to detect the temporal trends in soil solution DOC concentration at the European scale (Fig. 1). For these models, the selected 529 time 241 242 series were used. For the trend analysis of individual time series, however, we focused on the 243 long-term trends in soil solution DOC at European forests that show monotonicity. Therefore, 244 DOC time series were first analyzed using the Breaks For Additive Seasonal and Trend (BFAST) algorithm to detect the presence of breakpoints (Verbesselt et al., 2010; Vicca et al., 245 246 2016) with the time series showing breakpoints, i.e., not monotonic, being discarded (see 247 Description of the statistical methods in Supplementary material). In total, 258 monotonic 248 time series from 97 plots were used for our analysis after filtering (Fig. 1). Then, monotonic 249 trend analyses were carried out from the filtered dataset using the Seasonal Mann Kendall 250 (SMK) test for monthly DOC concentrations (Hirsch et al., 1982; Marchetto et al., 2013). Partial Mann Kendall (PMK) tests were also used to test the influence of precipitation as a 251

co-variable to detect if the trend might be due to a DOC dilution/concentration effect
(Libiseller and Grimvall, 2002). Sen (1968) slope values were calculated for SMK and PMK.
Moreover, LMMs were performed again with the filtered dataset to compare results with and
without time series showing breakpoints (Fig. 1).

256 For this study, five soil depth intervals were considered: the organic layer (0 cm), topsoil (0-20 cm), intermediate (20-40 cm), subsoil (40-80 cm) and deep subsoil (> 80 cm). The slopes 257 258 of each time series were standardized by dividing them by the median DOC concentration 259 over the sampling period (relative trend slope), aggregated to a unique plot-soil depth slope 260 and classified by the direction of the trend as significantly positive, i.e., increasing DOC over 261 time (P, p < 0.05), significantly negative, i.e., decreasing DOC over time (N, p < 0.05), and 262 non-significant, i.e., no significant change in DOC over time (NS, $p \ge 0.05$). When there was more than one collector per depth interval, the median of the slopes was used when the 263 264 direction of the trend (P, N, or NS) was similar. After aggregation per plot-depth combination, 191 trend slopes from 97 plots were available for analysis (Supplementary 265 Material, Table S2). Trends for other soil solution parameters (NO₃⁻, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻ 266 , total dissolved Al, total dissolved Fe, pH, electrical conductivity), precipitation and 267 268 temperature were calculated using the same methodology as for DOC. Since the resulting standardized Sen slope in % yr⁻¹ (relative trend slope) was used for all the statistical analysis, 269 270 from here on we will use the general term "trend slope" in order to simplify.

271 Finally, Structural Equation Models (SEM) were performed to determine the capacity of the several factors $(SO_4^{2-} \text{ and/or } NO_3^{-} \text{ deposition, stem growth and soil solution chemistry) in$ 272 273 explaining variability in the slope of DOC trends among the selected plots (Fig. 1). We evaluated the influence of both the annual mean (kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and the trends (% yr⁻¹) in 274 275 deposition and soil solution parameters.. All the statistical analyses were performed in R software version 3.1.2 (R Core Team, 2014) using the "rkt" (Marchetto et al., 2013), 276 277 "bfast01" (de Jong et al., 2013) and "sem" (Fox et al., 2013) packages, except for the LMMs that were performed using SAS 9.3 (SAS institute, Inc., Cary, NC, USA). More detailed 278 279 information on the statistical methods used can be found in Supplementary material.

280 3 Results

3.1 Soil solution DOC trends at European scale

282 First, temporal trends in DOC were analyzed for all the European DOC data pooled together 283 by means of LMM models to test for the presence of overall trends. A significantly increasing 284 DOC trend (p < 0.05) in soil solution collected with zero-tension lysimeters in the organic 285 layer was observed mainly under coniferous forest plots (Table 1). Similarly, a significantly 286 increasing DOC trend (p < 0.05) in soil solution collected with tension lysimeters was found 287 in deep mineral soil (> 80 cm) for all sites, mainly for coniferous forest sites (Table 1), but 288 this trend is based on a limited number of plots which are not especially well distributed in 289 Europe (75 % of German plots). By contrast, non-significant trends were found in the other mineral soil depth intervals (0-20 cm, 20-40 cm, 40-80 cm) by means of the LMM models. 290 291 When the same analysis was applied to the filtered European dataset, i.e., without the time 292 series showing breakpoints, fewer significant trends were observed: only an overall positive 293 trend (p < 0.05) was found for DOC in the organic layer using zero-tension lysimeters, again 294 mainly under coniferous forest sites but no statistically significant trends were found in the 295 mineral soil (Table 1).

3.2 Soil solution DOC concentration trend analysis of individual time series

We applied the BFAST analysis to select the monotonic time series in order to assure that the detected trends were not influenced by breakpoints in the time series. Time series with breakpoints represented more than 50% of the total time series aggregated by soil depth interval (245 out of 436).

301 The individual trend analysis using the SMK test showed trend slopes of soil solution DOC concentration ranging from -16.8% yr⁻¹ to +23% yr⁻¹ (median= +0.4% yr⁻¹, interquartile range 302 = +4.3% yr⁻¹). Among all the time series analyzed, the majority were not statistically 303 304 significant trends (40%, 104 time series), followed by significantly positive trends (35%, 91 305 time series) and significantly negative trends (24%, 63 time series) (Table 1). There was, 306 thus, no uniform trend in soil solution DOC in forests across a large part of Europe. 307 Furthermore, the regional trend differences were inconsistent when looking at different soil 308 depth intervals separately (Fig. 2 and 3), which made it difficult to draw firm conclusions 309 about the spatial pattern of the trends in soil solution DOC concentrations in European 310 forests.

The variability in trends was high, not only at continental scale, but also at plot level (Fig. 4). We found consistent within-plot trends only for 50 out of the 97 sites. Moreover, some plots even showed different trends (P, N or NS) in DOC within the same depth interval, which was

- the case for 17 plot-depth combinations (16 in Germany and one in Norway), evidencing a
- 315 high small-scale plot heterogeneity.

316 Trend directions (P, N or NS) often differed among depths. For instance, in the organic layer, 317 we found mainly non-significant trends and, if a trend was detected, it was more often 318 positive than negative, while positive trends were the most frequent in the subsoil (below 40 319 cm) (Table 1). Nevertheless, it is important to note that a statistical test of whether there was 320 a real difference in DOC trends between depths was not possible as the set of plots differed 321 between the different soil depth intervals. However, a visual comparison of trends for the few 322 plots in which trends were evaluated for more than three soil depths showed that there was no 323 apparent difference in DOC trends between soil depths (Supplementary material, Fig. S1 and 324 S2).

Finally, for virtually all plots, including precipitation as a co-variable in the PMK test gave the same result as the SMK test, which indicates that precipitation (through dilution or concentration effects) did not affect the DOC concentration trends. Dilution/concentration effect was only detected in four plots (Supplementary material, Table S1).

329 **3.3** Factors explaining the soil solution DOC trends

330 **3.3.1** Effects of vegetation, soil and climate

There was no direct effect of forest type (broadleaved vs. coniferous) on the direction of the 331 statistically significant trends in soil solution DOC (Fig. 5A). Both positive and negative 332 trends were equally found under broadleaved and coniferous forests ($\chi^2(1, n = 97) = 0.073$, p 333 = 0.8). Increasing DOC trends, however, occurred more often under forests with a mean stem 334 growth increment below 6 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ over the study period, whereas decreasing DOC trends 335 were more common in forests with a mean stem growth increment between 6 and 12 m^3 ha⁻¹ 336 $vr^{-1}(\gamma^2(2, n = 53) = 5.8, p = 0.05)$ (Fig. 5B). Only six forests with a mean stem growth above 337 12 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ were available for this study (five showing increasing DOC trends and one 338 339 showing a decreasing DOC trend) and, thus, there is not enough information to draw 340 conclusions about the relationship between stem growth and soil solution DOC trends for forests with very high stem growth (> $12 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). 341

342 The DOC trends also varied among soil types, more than half of the plots showing a consistent increasing DOC trend at all evaluated soil depth intervals were located in 343 344 Cambisols, (6 out of 11 plots), which are rather fertile soils, whereas plots showing consistent 345 negative trends covered six different soil types. Other soil properties, like clay content, cation 346 exchange capacity or pH, did not clearly differ between sites with positive and negative DOC 347 trends (Table 2). It is remarkable that trends in soil solution pH, Mg and Ca concentrations 348 were similar across plots with both positive and negative DOC trends. Soil solution pH 349 increased distinctly in almost all the sites, while Ca and Mg decreased markedly (Table 2).

Finally, no significant correlations were found between trends in temperature or precipitation and trends in soil solution DOC, with the exception of a positive correlation between trends in soil solution DOC in the soil depth interval 20-40 cm and the trend in temperature (r = 0.47, p = 0.03).

354 3.3.2 Effects of mean and trends in atmospheric deposition and soil solution 355 parameters

Analyzing different models that could explain the DOC trends using the overall dataset 356 indicated both direct and indirect effects of the annual mean SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} throughfall 357 atmospheric deposition on the trend slopes of DOC. The Structural Equation Model 358 359 accounted for 32.7% of the variance in DOC trend slopes (Fig. 6A). According to this model, lower mean throughfall SO_4^{2-} deposition resulted in increasing trend slopes of DOC in soil 360 solution. On the other hand, higher mean throughfall NO_3^- deposition resulted in increasing 361 trend slopes of DOC (Fig. 6A). When SEM was run using the trend slopes in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} 362 deposition instead of the mean values, we found that trend slopes of DOC significantly 363 increased with increasing trend in NO_3^- and decreased with increasing trend in SO_4^{2-} 364 deposition, but the latter was a non-significant relationship (Supplementary Material, Fig. 365 S3). However, the percentage of variance in DOC trend slopes explained by the model was 366 367 much twice lower (16%).

368 Sites with low and medium N deposition

The variables in the model that best explained the temporal changes in DOC were the same for the forests with low and medium N deposition; for both groups, NO_3^- deposition and SO_4^{2-} deposition (directly, or indirectly through its influence on plant growth) influenced the trend in DOC (Fig. 6B). Lower mean SO_4^{2-} deposition again resulted in a significant increase

in trend slopes, while increasing NO₃⁻ deposition resulted in increasing DOC trend slopes.

- The percentage of variance in DOC trend slopes explained by the model was 33%. The SEM
- run with the trends in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} throughfall deposition for forests with low and medium
- 376 N deposition explained 24.4% of the variance in DOC trends, and showed a significant
- 377 increase of trend slopes of DOC with decreasing trend in SO_4^{2-} deposition (Supplementary
- 378 Material, Fig. S3).

379 Sites with high N deposition

For the plots with high N deposition, however, we found no model for explaining the trends 380 in DOC using the mean annual SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} throughfall deposition. In contrast, the best 381 model included the relative trend slopes in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} deposition as well as in median 382 soil solution conductivity (% yr⁻¹) as explaining variables (Fig. 6C). Increasing the relative 383 384 trend slopes of NO_3^- deposition resulted in increasing the DOC trend slopes. Also both the trend slopes of SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} deposition affected the trend slopes of DOC indirectly through 385 an effect on the trends in soil solution conductivity, although acting in opposite directions: 386 while increasing NO_3^- deposition led to decreasing soil solution conductivity, increasing 387 SO_4^{2-} deposition resulted in increasing trends in soil solution conductivity, but the latter 388 relationship was only marginally significant (p=0.06). Increasing trends in conductivity, in 389 390 turn, resulted in increasing trend slopes of DOC. The percentage of the variance in DOC 391 trend slopes explained by the model was 25% (Fig. 6C). Nevertheless, trends in soil solution DOC were not directly affected by trends in SO_4^{2-} deposition in forests with high N 392 393 deposition.

394 **4 Discussion**

395 **4.1** Trend analysis of soil solution DOC in Europe

4.1.1 Evaluation of the trend analysis techniques

397 A substantial proportion (40%) of times series did not indicate any significant trend in sitelevel DOC concentrations across the ICP Forests network. Measurement precision, strength 398 399 of the trend, and the choice of the method may all affect trend detection (Sulkava et al., 2005; 400 Waldner et al., 2014). Evidently, strong trends are easier to detect than weak trends. To detect 401 a weak trend, either very long time series or very accurate and precise datasets are needed. 402 The quality of the data is assured within the ICP Forests by means of repeated ring tests that 403 are required for all participating laboratories and the accuracy of the data has been improved considerably over an eight years period (Ferretti and König, 2013; König et al., 2013). 404

However, the precision and accuracy of the dataset still varies across countries and plots. We
enhanced the probability of trend detection by the SMK, PMK, and BFAST tests by
removing time series with breakpoints caused by artifacts (such as installation effects).

408 Nevertheless, we found a majority of non-significant trends. For these cases, we cannot state 409 with certainty that DOC did not change over time: it might be that the trend was not strong 410 enough to be detected, or that the data quality was insufficient for the period length available 411 for the trend analysis (more than 9 years in all the cases). For example, the mixed-effects 412 models detected a positive trend in the organic layer, and while many of the individual time 413 series measured in the organic layer also showed a positive trend, most were classified as 414 non-significant trends (Table 1; Fig. 2). This probably led to an underestimation of trends that 415 separately might not be strong enough to be detected by the individual trend analysis but 416 combined with the other European data these sites may contribute to an overall trend of 417 increasing DOC concentrations in soils of European forests. Nevertheless, the selected trend 418 analysis techniques (SMK and PMK) are the most suitable to detect weak trends (Marchetto 419 et al., 2013; Waldner et al., 2014), thus reducing the chances of hidden trends within the non-420 significant trends category.

421 On the other hand, evaluating hundreds of time series may introduce random effects that may 422 cause the detection of false significant trends. This multiple testing effect was controlled by 423 evaluating the trends at a 0.01 significance level: Increasing the significance level hardly 424 changed the number of detected significant trends (positive trends: 91 (p<0.05) vs. 70 425 (p<0.01); negative trends: 63 (p<0.05) versus 50 (p<0.01)). Since the detected trends at 0.01 426 significance level outnumbered those expected just by chance at the 0.05 level (13 out of 258 427 cases), it is guaranteed that the detected positive and negative trends were real and not a 428 result of a multiple testing effect.

429 **4.1.2** Analysis of breakpoints in the time series

Soil solution DOC time series measured with lysimeters are subject to possible interruptions of monotonicity, which is manifested by breakpoints. For instance, installation effect, collector replacement, local forest management, disturbance by small animals, or by single or repeated canopy insect infestations may disrupt DOC concentrations through abrupt soil disturbances and/or enhanced input from the canopy to the soil (Akselsson et al., 2013; Kvaalen et al., 2002; Lange et al., 2006; Moffat et al., 2002; Pitman et al., 2010). In general, detailed information on the management history and other local disturbances was lacking for 437 the majority of Level II plots, which hinders assigning observed breakpoints to specific site 438 conditions. The BFAST analysis allowed us to filter out time series affected by local 439 disturbances (natural or artefacts) from the dataset and to solely retain time series with 440 monotonic trends. By applying the breakpoint analysis, we reduced the within-plot trend 441 variability, while most of the plots showed similar aggregated trends per plot-depth 442 combinations (Supplementary material, Fig. S4). Thereby, we removed some of the within-443 plot variability that might be caused by local factors not directly explaining the long-term 444 monotonic trends in DOC and thus complicating or confounding the trend analysis (Clark et 445 al., 2010).

446 In view of these results, we recommend that testing for monotonicity of the individual time 447 series is a necessary first step in this type of analyses and that the breakpoint analysis is an 448 appropriate tool to filter large datasets prior to analyzing the long-term temporal trends in 449 DOC concentrations. It is worth mentioning that, by selecting monotonic trends, we selected 450 a subset of the trends for which it is more likely to relate the observed trends to 451 environmental changes. A focus on monotonic trends does not imply that the trends with 452 breakpoints are not interesting, further work is needed to interpret the causes of these abrupt 453 changes and verify if these are artefacts or mechanisms, since they may also contain useful 454 information on local factors affecting DOC trends, such as forest management or extreme 455 events (Tetzlaff et al., 2007). This level of detail is, however, not yet available for the ICP 456 Forests Level II plots.

457 **4.1.3** Variability in soil solution DOC trends within plots

Even after removing sites with breakpoints in the time series, within-plot trend variability remained high (median within-plot range: 3.3% yr⁻¹), with different trends observed for different collectors from the same plot (Fig. 4). This high small-scale variability in soil solution DOC makes it difficult to draw conclusions about long-term DOC trends from individual site measurements, particularly in plots with heterogeneous soil and site conditions (Löfgren et al., 2010).

The trends in soil solution DOC also varied across soil depth intervals. The mixed-effect models suggested an increasing trend in soil solution DOC concentration in the organic layer, and an increasing trend in soil solution DOC concentration under 80 cm depth only when the entire dataset (with breakpoints) was analyzed. The individual trend analyses confirmed the increasing trend under the organic layer (Table 1), while more heterogeneous trends in the 469 mineral soil were found, which is in line with previous findings (Borken et al., 2011; Evans et al., 2012; Hruška et al., 2009; Löfgren and Zetterberg, 2011; Sawicka et al., 2016; 470 471 Vanguelova et al., 2010). This difference has been attributed to different processes affecting 472 DOC in the organic layer and top mineral soil and in the subsoil. External factors such as acid 473 deposition may have a more direct effect in the organic layer where interaction between DOC 474 and mineral phases is less important compared to deeper layers of the mineral soil (Fröberg et 475 al., 2006). However, DOC measurements are not available for all depths at each site, 476 complicating the comparison of trends across soil depth intervals. Hence, the depth-effect on 477 trends in soil solution DOC cannot be consistently addressed within this study (see 478 Supplementary material, Fig. S1, Fig. S2).

479 Finally, the direction of the trends in soil solution DOC concentrations did not follow a clear regional pattern across Europe (Fig. 2 and 3) and even contrasted with other soil solution 480 parameters that showed widespread trends over Europe, such as decreasing SO_4^{2-} and 481 482 increasing pH. This finding indicates that effects of environmental controls on soil solution 483 DOC concentrations may differ depending on local factors like soil type (e.g., soil acidity, 484 texture) as well as site and stand characteristics (e.g., tree growth or acidification history). 485 Thus, the trends in DOC in soil solution appear to be an outcome of interactions between 486 controls acting at local and regional scales.

In order to compare soil solution DOC trends among sites, trends of DOC concentrations are always expressed in relative trends (% yr⁻¹). By using the relative trends, we removed the effect of the median DOC concentration at the "plot-depth" combination and, consequently, the results do not reflect the actual magnitude of the trend, but their importance in relation with the median DOC concentration at the "plot-depth" combination. It implies that the interpretation of our results was done only in relative terms (see Supplementary Material, Table S3, Fig S5).

494 **4.2** Controls on soil solution DOC temporal trends

495 **4.2.1 Vegetation**

Biological controls on DOC production and consumption, like net primary production (NPP),
operating at site or catchment level, are particularly important when studying soil solution as
plant-derived carbon is the main source of DOC (Harrison et al., 2008). Stem growth was
available as a proxy for NPP only for 53 sites and was calculated as the increment between

inventories carried out every five years. Similarly to what has been found for peatlands (Billett et al., 2010; Dinsmore et al., 2013), the results suggest that vegetation growth is an important driver of DOC temporal dynamics in forests.. Differences in DOC temporal trends across all soil depths were strongly related to stem growth, with more productive plots, as indicated by higher stem volume increment (6-12 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), more often exhibiting decreasing trends in DOC (Fig. 5 and 6). .

506 The drivers of variation in forest productivity and its relationship with trends in DOC 507 concentrations are yet unclear. Forest productivity might indirectly affect DOC trends 508 through changes in soil solution chemistry (via cation uptake) (Vanguelova et al., 2007), but 509 the available data do not allow to test this. Alternatively, variation in plant carbon allocation 510 and therefore in the relationship between aboveground productivity and belowground C inputs can strongly influence the relationship between forest productivity and DOC trends. 511 512 For example, nutrient availability strongly influences plant C allocation (Poorter et al., 2012; 513 Vicca et al., 2012), with plants in nutrient rich soils investing more in aboveground tissue at 514 the expense of belowground C allocation. Assuming that more productive forests are located 515 in more fertile plots, the decreasing trends in DOC concentrations may result from reduced C 516 allocation to the belowground nutrient acquisition system (Vicca et al., 2012), hence, 517 reducing an important source of belowground DOC.

518 Further research assessing nutrient availability and determining the drivers of variation in 519 forest productivity, allocation and DOC is needed to verify the role of nutrients and other 520 factors (e.g., climate, stand age, management) in DOC trends and disentangle the 521 mechanisms behind the effect of forest productivity on soil solution DOC trends.

522 4.2.2 Acidifying deposition

Decreased atmospheric SO₄²⁻ deposition and accumulation of atmospherically deposited N 523 524 were hypothesized to increase DOC in European surface waters over the last 20 years (Evans 525 et al., 2005; Hruška et al., 2009; Monteith et al., 2007). Sulphate and inorganic N deposition 526 decreased in Europe over the past decades (Waldner et al., 2014) but trends in soil solution 527 DOC concentrations varied greatly, with increases, decreases, as well as steady states being 528 observed across respectively 56, 41 and 77 time series in European forests (Fig. 2 and 3). Although we could not demonstrate a direct effect of trends in SO_4^{2-} and inorganic N 529 deposition on the trends of soil solution DOC concentration, the multivariate analysis 530 531 suggested that the hypothesis of increased DOC soil solution concentration as a result of decreasing SO_4^{2-} deposition may apply only at sites with low or medium mean N deposition over the last decades.

534 Inorganic nitrogen

535 Our results show that DOC concentrations in the soil solution are positively linked to 536 inorganic N deposition loads at sites with low or medium inorganic N deposition, and to N 537 deposition trends at sites with high inorganic N deposition (Fig. 6). The role of atmospheric 538 inorganic N deposition in increasing DOC leaching from soils has been well documented 539 (Bragazza et al., 2006; Liu and Greaver, 2010; Pregitzer et al., 2004; Rosemond et al., 2015). 540 The mechanisms behind this positive relationship are either physico-chemical or biological. 541 Chemical changes in soil solution through the increase of NO₃⁻ ions can trigger desorption of 542 DOC (Pregitzer et al., 2004), and biotic forest responses to inorganic N deposition, namely, 543 enhanced photosynthesis, altered carbon allocation, and reduced soil microbial activity 544 (Bragazza et al., 2006; de Vries et al., 2009; Janssens et al., 2010; Liu and Greaver, 2010), 545 can increase the final amount of DOC in the soil. As the most consistent trends are found in 546 organic layers, where production/decomposition control DOC concentration (Löfgren and 547 Zetterberg, 2011), effects of inorganic N deposition through increase of primary productivity 548 (de Vries et al., 2014; de Vries et al., 2009; Ferretti et al., 2014) are likely drivers of 549 increasing DOC trends. One proposed mechanism is incomplete lignin degradation and 550 greater production of DOC in response to increased soil NH_4^+ (Pregitzer et al., 2004; Zech et 551 al., 1994). Alternatively, N-induced reductions of forest heterotrophic respiration (Janssens et 552 al., 2010) and reduced microbial decomposition (Liu and Greaver, 2010) may lead to greater 553 accumulation of DOC.

Moreover, our results suggested that only at sites with lower and medium inorganic N deposition, decreasing trends in SO_4^{2-} deposition coincided with increasing trends in soil solution DOC (Supplementary Material, Fig. S3), as previously hypothesized for surface waters, indicating an interaction between the inorganic N deposition loads and the mechanisms underlying the temporal change of soil solution DOC.

559 Sulphate

560 Similar to our observation for soil solution DOC, decreasing $SO_4^{2^-}$ deposition has been linked 561 to increasing surface water DOC (Evans et al., 2006; Monteith et al., 2007; Oulehle and 562 Hruska, 2009). Sulphate deposition triggers soil acidification and a subsequent release of Al^{3+} 563 in acid soils. The amount of Al^{3+} is negatively related to soil solution DOC due to two

plausible mechanisms: 1) The released Al³⁺ can build complexes with organic molecules, 564 enhancing DOC precipitation and, in turn, suppressing DOC solubility, thereby decreasing 565 DOC concentrations in soil solution (de Wit et al., 2001; Tipping and Woof, 1991; 566 Vanguelova et al., 2010), and 2) at higher levels of soil solution Al^{3+} in combination with low 567 pH, DOC production through SOM decomposition decreases due to toxicity of Al³⁺ to soil 568 organisms (Mulder et al., 2001). Consequently, when SO_4^{2-} deposition is lower, increases of 569 soil solution DOC concentration could be expected (Fig. 6A, B). Finally, an indirect effect of 570 571 plant response to nutrient-limited acidified soil could also contribute to the trend in soil 572 solution DOC by changes to plant belowground C allocation (Vicca et al., 2012) (see Sect. 573 4.2.1.).

Nevertheless, increasing DOC soil solution concentration as a result of decreasing SO_4^{2-} 574 575 deposition occurred only at sites with low or medium mean N deposition. Therefore, our 576 results indicate that the response of DOC to changes in atmospheric deposition seems to be 577 controlled by the past and present inorganic N deposition loads (Clark et al., 2010; Evans et al., 2012; Tian and Niu, 2015). It suggests that the mechanisms of recovery from SO_4^{2-} 578 deposition and acidification take place only in low and medium N deposition areas, as has 579 580 been observed for inorganic N deposition effects (de Vries et al., 2009). In high inorganic N 581 deposition areas, it is likely that impacts of N-induced acidification on forest health and soil condition lead to more DOC leaching, even though SO_4^{2-} deposition has been decreasing. 582 583 Therefore, the hypothesis of recovery from acidity cannot fully explain overall soil solution 584 DOC trends in Europe, as was also previously suggested in local or national studies of longterm trends in soil solution DOC (Löfgren et al., 2010; Stutter et al., 2011; Ukonmaanaho et 585 586 al., 2014; Verstraeten et al., 2014).

587 Ultimately, internal soil processes control the final concentration of DOC in the soil solution. The solubility and biological production and consumption of DOC are regulated by pH, ionic 588 strength of the soil solution and the presence of Al^{3+} and Fe (Bolan et al., 2011; De Wit et al., 589 590 2007; Schwesig et al., 2003). These conditions are modulated by changes in atmospheric deposition but not uniformly across sites: soils differ in acid-buffering capacity (Tian and 591 Niu, 2015), and the response of DOC concentrations to changes in SO_4^{2-} deposition will thus 592 be a function of the initial soil acidification and buffer range (Fig. 6). Finally, modifications 593 594 of soil properties induced by changes in atmospheric deposition are probably an order of 595 magnitude lower than the spatial variation of these soil properties across sites, making it

difficult to isolate controlling factors on the final observed response of soil solution DOC atcontinental scale (Clark et al., 2010).

598 In conclusion, our results confirm the long-term trends of DOC in soil solution as a 599 consequence of the interactions between local (soil properties, forest growth), and regional 600 (atmospheric deposition) controls acting at different temporal scales. However, further work 601 is needed to quantify the role of each mechanism underlying the final response of soil 602 solution DOC to environmental controls. We recommend that particular attention should be 603 paid to the biological controls (e.g., net primary production, root exudates or litterfall and 604 canopy infestations) on long-term trends in soil solution DOC, which remains poorly 605 understood.

606 **4.3** Link between DOC trends in soil and streams

607 An underlying question is how DOC trends in soil solution relate to DOC trends in stream 608 waters. Several studies have pointed out recovery from acidification as a cause for increasing 609 trends in DOC concentrations in surface waters (Dawson et al., 2009; Evans et al., 2012; 610 Monteith et al., 2007; Skjelkvåle et al., 2003). Overall, our results point to a noticeable 611 increasing trend in DOC in the organic layer of forest soils, which is qualitatively consistent 612 with the increasing trends found in stream waters and in line with positive DOC trends 613 reported for the soil organic layer or at maximum 10 cm depth of the mineral soil in Europe 614 (Borken et al., 2011; Hruška et al., 2009; Vanguelova et al., 2010). DOC from the organic 615 layer may be transferred to surface waters via hydrologic shortcuts during storm events, when 616 shallow lateral flow paths are activated. On the other hand, trends in different soil layers 617 along the mineral soil were more variable and responded to other soil internal processes.

618 The results from the trend analysis for the overall European dataset revealed that the long-619 term trends in surface and deep soil were positive as trends reported for surface water DOC. 620 However, the individual trend analysis reflects a high heterogeneity in the long-term response 621 of soil DOC to environmental controls. It is currently difficult to link long-term dynamics in 622 soil and surface water DOC. Large scale processes become more important than local factors 623 when looking at DOC trends in surface waters (Lepistö et al., 2014), while the opposite 624 seems to apply for soil solution DOC trends. Furthermore, stream water DOC mainly reflects 625 the processes occurring in areas with a high hydraulic connectivity in the catchment, such as 626 peat soils or floodplains, which normally yield most of the DOC (Löfgren and Zetterberg, 627 2011). Further monitoring studies in forest soils with high hydraulic connectivity to streams are needed to be able to link dynamics of DOC in forest soil with dynamics of DOC in streamwaters.

630 5 Conclusions

631 Different monotonic long-term trends of soil solution DOC have been found across European 632 forests at plot scale, with the majority of the trends for specific plots and depths not being 633 statistically significant (40%), followed by significantly positive (35%) and significantly negative trends (25%). The distribution of the trends did not follow a specific regional 634 635 pattern. A multivariate analysis revealed a negative relation between long-term trends in soil solution DOC and mean SO_4^{2-} deposition and a positive relation to mean NO_3^{-} deposition. 636 While the hypothesis of increasing trends of DOC due to reductions of SO_4^{2-} deposition could 637 be confirmed in low to medium N deposition areas, there was no significant relationship with 638 SO_4^{2-} deposition in high N deposition areas. There was evidence that an overall increasing 639 trend of DOC concentrations occurred in the organic layers and, to a lesser extent, in the deep 640 641 mineral soil. However, trends in the different mineral soil horizons were highly heterogeneous, indicating that internal soil processes control the final response of DOC in 642 643 soil solution. Although correlative, our results suggest that there is no single mechanism 644 responsible for soil solution DOC trends operating at large scale across Europe but that 645 interactions between controls operating at local (soil properties, site and stand characteristics) 646 and regional (atmospheric deposition changes) scales are taking place.

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Table 1. Temporal trends of DOC concentrations obtained with the linear mixed models (LMM) built for different forest types, soil depth intervals and collector types with the entire dataset (with breakpoints) and with the dataset without time series showing breakpoints (without breakpoints) and the Seasonal Mann Kendal tests (SMK). The table shows the median DOC concentrations in mg L⁻¹ ([DOC]), relative trend slope (rslope in % yr-1), the number of observations (n) and the p value. For the SMK tests, the number of time series showing significant negative (N), non-significant (NS) and significant positive (P) trends are shown and the interquartile range of the rslope is between brackets. LMMs for which no statistically significant trend was detected (p>0.1) are represented in grey, the LMMs for which a significant trend is detected are in bold (p<0.05) and in italics (0.05<p<0.1). (O: organic layer, M02: mineral soil 0-20 cm, M24: mineral soil 20-40 cm, M48: mineral soil 40-80 cm, M8: mineral soil > 80 cm/ TL: tension lysimeter, ZTL: zero-tension lysimeter/ n.s.: no significant.)

In broadleaved and coniferous forests:

| Collector | Layer | [DOC] | (with | LMM breakn | oints) | LMM (without breakpoints) | | | SMK (without breakpoints) | | | | |
|-----------|-------|-------|-------|---------------|---------|------------------------------|------------|------------------------|------------------------------|----|----|----|--|
| type | | | (*** | roreunp | onns) | (white | Jut broukp | ("millout broukpoints) | | | | | |
| | | | n | rslope | p value | n | rslope | p value | rslope | Ν | NS | Р | |
| TL | 0 | 47.3 | 3133 | 6.75 | 0.078 | 1168 | -0.30 | n.s. | -1.03 | 1 | 3 | 1 | |
| | | | | | | | | | (±1.65) | | | | |
| | M02 | 12.9 | 19311 | 0.10 | n.s. | 8917 | -1.06 | n.s. | 0.16 | 17 | 29 | 21 | |
| | | | | | | | | | (±4.78) | | | | |
| | M24 | 4.93 | 7700 | 2.69 | n.s. | 3404 | 3.66 | n.s. | 0.6 | 11 | 12 | 11 | |
| | | | | | | | | | (±9.03) | | | | |
| | M48 | 3.66 | 24614 | 0.95 | n.s. | 11065 | 0.80 | n.s. | 0.67 | 22 | 30 | 32 | |
| | | | | | | | | | (±4.76) | | | | |
| | M8 | 3.27 | 9378 | 6.78 | 0.0036 | 3394 | 3.41 | n.s. | 1.007 | 8 | 9 | 16 | |
| | | | | | | | | | (±8.79) | | | | |
| ZTL | 0 | 37.9 | 8136 | 3.75 | <0.001 | 4659 | 1.63 | 0.0939 | 1.7 | 3 | 16 | 8 | |
| | | | | | | | | | (± 4.28) | | | | |
| | M02 | 30.7 | 3389 | -0.54 | n.s. | 445 | 0.17 | n.s. | -0.7 | 0 | 3 | 1 | |
| | | | | | | | | | (±1.85) | | | | |
| | M24 | 17.3 | 739 | 0.36 | n.s. | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | |

| M48 | 4.73 | 654 | -3.37 | n.s. | 336 | 1.05 | n.s. | 1.07 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
|-----|------|-----|-------|------|-----|------|------|---------|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | | (±3.08) | | | |
| M8 | 3.7 | 118 | 1.39 | n.s. | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Collector type | Layer | [DOC] | LMM (with breakpoints) | | | (with | LMM nout break | points) | SMK (without breakpoints) | | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------|---------------------------|--------|---------|-------|-------------------|---------|------------------------------|----|-----|----|--|
| | | | n | rslope | p value | n | rslope | p value | rslope | N | NS | Р | |
| TL | 0 | 41.4 | 637 | -5.96 | n.s. | 475 | -0.17 | n.s. | -0.3 (±0.9) | (|) 2 | 0 | |
| | M02 | 8.80 | 8397 | 3.07 | 0.0764 | 3104 | 0.51 | n.s. | 0.89 (±5.94) | 4 | 7 | 10 | |
| | M24 | 3.78 | 2584 | -0.05 | n.s. | 928 | 6.01 | n.s. | 1.03 (±11.31) | 3 | 5 | 4 | |
| | M48 | 2.60 | 10635 | -0.93 | n.s. | 4634 | 2.46 | n.s. | 1.51 (±5.31) | 11 | 8 | 16 | |
| | M8 | 2.60 | 4354 | -6.85 | 0.0672 | 1797 | -0.10 | n.s. | 0.3 (±6.28) | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| ZTL | 0 | 33.3 | 4057 | 0.37 | n.s. | 1956 | -0.90 | n.s. | 0.96 (±5.47) | 2 | 7 | 3 | |
| | M02 | 4.26 | 608 | 0.26 | n.s. | 192 | 1.88 | n.s. | 2.72 | 0 | 0 | 1 | |
| | M24 | 20.4 | 94 | 11.80 | 0.026 | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| | M48 | 3.42 | 427 | -2.84 | n.s. | | | | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| | M8 | 2.42 | 34 | -36.18 | <0.001 | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 | |

In broadleaved forests:

In coniferous forests:

| | 1005 101 | 0000. | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------|-------|-------|----------|---------|-----------------------|--------|---------|---------|----|----|----|
| Collector | Layer | [DOC] | | LMM | | | LMM | | SMK | | | |
| type | | | (wit | h breakp | points) | (without breakpoints) | | | | | | |
| | | | n | rslope | p value | n | rslope | p value | rslope | N | NS | Р |
| TL | 0 | 49.0 | 2496 | 8.15 | 0.0633 | 693 | 1.33 | n.s. | -1.06 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | | | | | | | | | (±2.25) | | | |
| | M02 | 15.7 | 10914 | -0.97 | n.s. | 5813 | -1.60 | n.s. | -0.04 | 13 | 22 | 11 |

| | M8 | 4.14 | 84 | 13.87 | 0.0995 | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|-----|--------------|------|-------|-------|--------|------|-------|--------|------------------|-----|----|----|
| | 14140 | ++.0 | 221 | -0.37 | 11.5. | 231 | -0.55 | 11.5. | (±3.66) | 1 | T | 1 |
| | M48 | 44 0 | 227 | -0.39 | ns | 251 | -0.55 | ns | 2 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| | M24 | 16.3 | 645 | 0.23 | n.s. | | | | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | | | | | | (±0.4) | | | |
| | M02 | 36.9 | 2781 | -0.60 | n.s. | 253 | -1.44 | n.s. | -0.83 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| | | | | | | | | | (± 2.88) | | | |
| ZTL | 0 | 42.9 | 4079 | 3.59 | 0.0018 | 2703 | 3.09 | 0.0045 | 1.85 | 1 | 9 | 5 |
| | | | | | | | | | (±10.28) | | | |
| | M8 | 3.70 | 5024 | 9.93 | <0.001 | 1597 | 7.58 | n.s. | (±4.52) 2.89 | 4 | 4 | 10 |
| | M48 | 4.44 | 13979 | 1.24 | n.s. | 6431 | 0.05 | n.s. | (+4.32) | 16 | 22 | 11 |
| | N (40 | | 12070 | 1.04 | | 6401 | 0.05 | | (±7.82) | 1.0 | 22 | 11 |
| | M24 | 5.72 | 5116 | 2.71 | n.s. | 2476 | 3.66 | n.s. | -0.3 | 7 | 7 | 8 |
| | | | | | | | | | (± 3.98) | | | |

Table 2. Site properties for the 13 plots showing consistent negative trends (N) of DOC concentrations and for the 12 plots showing consistent positive trends (P) of DOC concentrations. Soil properties (clay percentage, C/N ratio, pH(CaCl₂), cation exchange capacity (CEC)) are for the soil depth interval 0-20 cm. Mean atmospheric deposition (inorganic N and SO_4^{2-}) is throughfall deposition from 1999 to 2010. When throughfall deposition was not available, bulk deposition is presented with an asterisk. Relative trend slopes (rslope) in soil solution pH, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ concentrations were calculated using the Seasonal Mann-Kendall test.

| Code Plot | Trend | Soil Type (WRB) | Clay (%) | C/N | Hq | $CEC (cmol_+ kg^{-1})$ | MAP (mm) | MAT (°C) | N depos. (kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ¹) | SO_4^{2-} deposition (kg S ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) | rslope pH (%yr ⁻¹) | rslope Ca^{2+} (% yr ⁻¹) | rslope Mg^{2+} (% yr^{-1}) |
|-----------|-------------------|------------------------------|----------|------|------|------------------------|----------|----------|---|--|--------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|
| Franc | France (code = 1) | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 30 | N | Cambic Podzol | 3.79 | 16.8 | 3.96 | 1.55 | 567 | 11.9 | 7.28 | 4.25 | 0.10 | -0.90 | -1.00 |
| 41 | N | Mollic Andosol | 23.9 | 16.6 | 4.23 | 7.47 | 842 | 10.6 | 4.43 | 4.15 | 0.00 | -1.10 | -1.30 |
| 84 | N | Cambic Podzol | 4.09 | 22.8 | 3.39 | 4.07 | 774 | 10.5 | 7.66 | 3.77* | 0.50 | 2.00 | 1.00 |
| Belgi | um (c | code =2) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11 | Р | Dystric Cambisol | 3.54 | 17.7 | 2.81 | 6.22 | 805 | 11.0 | 18.7 | 13.2 | 0.40 | -11.0 | -8.00 |
| 21 | Р | Dystric Podzo- luvisol | 11.2 | 15.4 | 3.59 | 2.41 | 804 | 10.3 | 16.8 | 13.2 | 0.00 | -9.00 | -5.00 |
| Germ | any (| code:= 4) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 303 | N | Haplic Podzol | 17.3 | 16.5 | 3.05 | 8.77 | 1180 | 9.10 | 17.5 | | 0.40 | -5.00 | -2.00 |
| 304 | N | Dystric Cambisol | 21.3 | 17.7 | 3.63 | 6.14 | 1110 | 6.20 | 16.4 | | 0.00 | -3.00 | -0.40 |

| | | | | | | | | | | <u> </u> | | | |
|-----------|-------|---------------------|----------|------|------|------------------------|----------|----------|---|--|---------------------------------|--|--|
| Code Plot | Trend | Soil Type (WRB) | Clay (%) | C/N | hd | $CEC (cmol_+ kg^{-1})$ | MAP (mm) | MAT (°C) | N depos. (kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ¹) | SO_4^{2-} deposition (kg S ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) | rslope pH (% yr ⁻¹) | rslope Ca^{2+} (% yr ⁻¹) | rslope Mg^{2+} (% yr ⁻¹) |
| 308 | N | Albic Arenosol | 3.80 | 16.5 | 3.41 | 1.63 | 816 | 9.20 | 14.2* | | 0.00 | -5.00 | -2.00 |
| 802 | N | Cambic Podzol | 6.00 | 25.7 | 3.35 | 4.33 | 836 | 11.9 | 25.2 | 13.2 | 0.50 | -2.40 | -1.50 |
| 1502 | N | Haplic Arenosol | 4.40 | 23.8 | 3.78 | 2.35 | 593 | 9.40 | 9.79 | 5.66 | | -16.0 | -14.0 |
| 306 | Р | Haplic Calcisol | | | | | 782 | 10.2 | 13.9 | | 0.50 | 2.00 | 2.00 |
| 707 | Р | Dystric Cambisol | | | | | 704 | 10.7 | 18.3 | 8.49 | 0.00 | -10.0 | -2.00 |
| 806 | Р | Dystric Cambisol | | | | | 1349 | 8.30 | 23.0 | 6.81 | 0.30 | -7.00 | -6.00 |
| 903 | Р | Dystric Cambisol | | | | | 905 | 9.60 | | | 0.20 | -5.00 | -3.00 |
| 920 | Р | Dystric Cambisol | | | | | 908 | 8.90 | | | -1.00 | -6.00 | -0.50 |
| 1402 | Р | Haplic Podzol | 8.65 | 26.2 | 3.24 | 9.04 | 805 | 6.90 | 13.5 | 24.3 | 1.20 | -6.00 | 9.00 |
| 1406 | Р | Eutric Gleysol | 15.9 | 23.1 | 3.59 | 6.67 | 670 | 8.80 | 15.3 | 6.23 | 1.11 | -4.00 | -3.00 |
| Italy (| code | = 5) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | N | Humic Acrisol | 3.14 | 12.2 | 5.32 | 31.6 | 670 | 23.3 | | | -0.30 | -10.0 | -10.0 |
| United | d Kin | igdom (code | = 6) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 922 | Р | Umbric Gleysol | 34.8 | 15.6 | 3.31 | 10.8 | 1355 | 9.50 | | | 0.40 | -9.00 | 2.00 |

| Code Plot | Trend | Soil Type (WRB) | Clay (%) | C/N | pH | $CEC (cmol_+ kg^{-1})$ | MAP (mm) | MAT (°C) | N depos. (kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ¹) | $SO_4^{2^-}$ deposition (kg S ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) | rslope pH (% yr ⁻¹) | rslope Ca^{2+} (% yr ⁻¹) | rslope Mg^{2+} (% yr^{-1}) |
|-----------|--------|---------------------|----------|------|------|------------------------|----------|----------|---|---|---------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|
| Austr | ia (co | ode = 14) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | N | Eutric Cambisol | 20.1 | 12.8 | 5.26 | 25.9 | 679 | 10.8 | | 3.80* | 0.40 | -1.50 | -0.60 |
| Switz | erlan | d (code = 50 |)) | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15 | N | Dystric Planosol | 17.6 | 14.7 | 3.73 | 7.76 | 1201 | 8.90 | 15.1 | 4.67 | -0.10 | -13.0 | -4.00 |
| 2 | Р | Haplic Podzol | 14.7 | 18.3 | 3.17 | 3.59 | 1473 | 4.40 | | | -0.80 | -5.00 | -3.00 |
| Norw | ay (c | ode =55) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14 | N | Cambic Arenosol | 9.83 | 25.4 | 3.46 | | | | 14.7 | 21.9 | 0.10 | -1.70 | -3.30 |
| 19 | N | | 10.5 | 18.7 | 3.79 | | 836 | 4.60 | 1.54 | 2.61 | 0.50 | -7.00 | -4.00 |
| 18 | Р | | 3.05 | 29.5 | 3.69 | | 1175 | 0.35 | | 2.40 | -0.90 | 0.00 | 0.00 |



* Time series > 10 years and > 60 obs.

| Acronym | Model | Type of analysis |
|---------|--|---|
| LMM | Linear mixed-effects models | Temporal trends |
| BFAST | Breaks For Additive Seasonal and Trend | Analysis of breakpoints in time series |
| SMK | Seasonal Mann Kendall test | Monotonic temporal trends |
| РМК | Partial Mann Kendall test | Monotonic temporal trends |
| SEM | Structural equation Model | Multivariate analysis (direct/indirect effects) |

Figure 1. Flow-diagram of the sequence of methods applied for analysis of temporal trends of soil solution DOC and their drivers.



Figure 2. Directions of the temporal trends in soil solution DOC concentration in the organic layer at plot level. Trends were evaluated using the Seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Data span from 1991 to 2011.



Figure 3. Directions of temporal trends in soil solution DOC concentration at plot level in the mineral soil for soil layers: a) topsoil (0-20 cm), b) intermediate (20-40 cm), c) subsoil (40-80 cm) and d) deep subsoil (> 80 cm). Trends were evaluated using the Seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Data span from 1991 to 2011.



Figure 4. Range of relative trend slopes (max-min) for trends of DOC concentration in soil solution within each 1) depth interval, 2) country, 3) depth interval per country, and 4) plot. The boxplots show the median, 25% and 75% quantiles (box), minimum and 1.5 times the interquartile range (whiskers) and higher values (circles). The red diamond marks the maximum range of slopes in soil solution DOC trends in the entire dataset.



Figure 5. Percentage of occurrence of positive and negative trends of DOC concentration in soil solution separated by A) forest type and B) stem volume increment ($m^3 ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$).



Figure 6. Diagrams of the structural equation models (SEM) that best explain the maximum variance of the resulting trends of DOC concentrations in soil solution for: A) all the cases , B) cases with low or medium throughfall inorganic N deposition (< 15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and C) cases with high throughfall inorganic N deposition (>15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) with mean or trends in annual SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} deposition (kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) with direct and indirect effects through effects on soil solution parameters (trends of conductivity in μ S cm⁻¹) and mean annual stem volume increment (growth) in m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). p-values of the significance of the corresponding effect are between brackets. Green arrows indicate positive effects and red arrows indicate negative effects. Side bar graphs indicate the magnitude of the total, direct and indirect effects and their p-values.