

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

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50

51 **Abstract**

52 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in surface waters is connected to DOC in soil solution
53 through hydrological pathways. Therefore, it is expected that long-term dynamics of DOC in
54 surface waters reflect DOC trends in soil solution. However, a multitude of site-studies has
55 failed so far to establish consistent trends in soil solution DOC, whereas increasing
56 concentrations in European surface waters over the past decades appear to be the norm,

57 possibly as a result of recovery from acidification. The objectives of this study were therefore
58 to understand the long-term trends of soil solution DOC from a large number of European
59 forests (ICP Forests Level II plots) and determine their main physico-chemical and biological
60 controls. We applied trend analysis at two levels: 1) to the entire European dataset and 2) to
61 the individual time series and related trends with plot characteristics, i.e., soil and vegetation
62 properties, soil solution chemistry and atmospheric deposition loads. Analyses of the entire
63 dataset showed an overall increasing trend in DOC concentrations in the organic layers, but,
64 at individual plots and depths, there was no clear overall trend in soil solution DOC. The rate
65 change of soil solution DOC ranged between $-16.8\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $+23\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (median = $+0.4\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$)
66 across Europe. The non-significant trends (40%) outnumbered the increasing (35%) and
67 decreasing trends (25%) across the 97 ICP Forests Level II sites. By means of multivariate
68 statistics, we found increasing trends in DOC concentrations with increasing mean nitrate
69 (NO_3^-) deposition and increasing trends in DOC concentrations with decreasing mean
70 sulphate (SO_4^{2-}) deposition, with the magnitude of these relationships depending on plot
71 deposition history. While the attribution of increasing trends in DOC to the reduction of SO_4^{2-}
72 deposition could be confirmed in low to medium N deposition areas, in agreement with
73 observations in surface waters, this was not the case in high N deposition areas. In
74 conclusion, long-term trends of soil solution DOC reflected the interactions between controls
75 acting at local (soil and vegetation properties) and regional (atmospheric deposition of SO_4^{2-}
76 and inorganic N) scales.

77 **1 Introduction**

78 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in soil solution is the source of much of the terrestrially
79 derived DOC in surface waters (Battin et al., 2009; Bianchi, 2011; Regnier et al., 2013). Soil
80 solution DOC in forests is connected to streams through different hydrological pathways:
81 DOC mobilized in the forest floor may be transported laterally at the interface of forest floor
82 and mineral soil to surface waters or percolates into the mineral soil, where additional DOC
83 can be mobilized and/or DOC is partly adsorbed on particle surfaces and mineralized
84 thereafter (Fig. 1). From the mineral soil DOC may be either leached laterally or vertically
85 via groundwater into surface waters (McDowell and Likens, 1988). Therefore, it could be
86 expected that long-term dynamics of DOC in surface waters mirror those observed in
87 ecosystem soil solutions.

88 Drivers related to climate change (temperature increase, precipitation change, atmospheric
89 CO_2 increase), the decrease in acidifying deposition or land use change and management may

90 individually or jointly explain trends in surface water DOC concentrations (Evans et al.,
91 2012; Freeman et al., 2004; Oulehle et al., 2011; Sarkkola et al., 2009; Worrall and Burt,
92 2004). Increasing air temperatures warm the soil, thus stimulating soil organic matter (SOM)
93 decomposition through greater microbial activity (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Hartley and
94 Ineson, 2008; Kalbitz et al., 2000). Other drivers, such as increased atmospheric CO₂ and the
95 accumulation of atmospherically deposited inorganic nitrogen are thought to increase the
96 sources of DOC by enhancing primary plant productivity (i.e., through stimulating root
97 exudates or, increased litterfall) (de Vries et al., 2014; Ferretti et al., 2014; Sucker and
98 Krause, 2010). Changes in precipitation, land use and management (e.g. drainage of
99 peatlands, changes in forest management or grazing systems) may alter the flux of DOC
100 leaving the ecosystem but no consistent trends in the hydrologic regime or land use changes
101 were detected in areas where increasing DOC trends have been observed (Monteith et al.,
102 2007).

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

118 Trends of soil solution DOC not only vary among forests but often also within the same site
119 (Borken et al., 2011; Löfgren et al., 2010). Forest characteristics such as tree species
120 composition, soil fertility, texture or sorption capacity may affect the response of soil solution
121 DOC to environmental controls, for instance, by controlling the rate of soil acidification
122 through soil buffering and nutrient plant uptake processes (Vanguelova et al., 2010). Within a

123 site, DOC variability with soil depth is typically caused by different intensity of DOC
124 production, transformation, and sorption along the soil profile (Fig. 1). Positive temporal
125 trends in soil solution DOC (increasing concentrations over time) were frequently reported
126 for the organic layers and shallow soils where production and decomposition processes
127 control the DOC concentration (Löfgren and Zetterberg, 2011). However, no dominant trends
128 are found for the mineral soil horizons, where physico-chemical processes, such as sorption,
129 become more influential (Borken et al., 2011; Buckingham et al., 2008). Furthermore,
130 previous studies have used different temporal and spatial scales which may have further
131 added to the inconsistency in the DOC trends reported in the literature (Clark et al., 2010).

132 In this context, the International Co-operative Programme on Assessment and Monitoring of
133 Air Pollution Effects on Forests (ICP Forests, 2010) compiled a unique dataset containing
134 data from more than 100 intensively monitored forest plots (Level II) which allow to unravel
135 regional trends in soil solution DOC of forests at a European scale, and perform statistical
136 analysis of the main controls behind these regional trends. Long-term measurements of soil
137 solution DOC are available for these plots, along with information on aboveground biomass,
138 soil properties, and atmospheric deposition of inorganic N and SO_4^{2-} , collected using a
139 harmonized sampling protocol across Europe (Ferretti and Fischer, 2013). This dataset has
140 previously been used to investigate the spatial variability of DOC in forests at European scale
141 (Camino-Serrano et al., 2014), but an assessment of the temporal trends in soil solution DOC
142 using this large dataset has not been attempted so far.

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

150 **2 Materials and Methods**

151 **2.1 Data description**

152 Soil solution chemistry has been monitored within the ICP Forests Programme since the
153 1990s on most Level II plots. The ICP Forests data were extracted from the pan-European

154 Forest Monitoring Database (Granke, 2013). A list of the Level II plots used for this study
155 can be found in Supplementary material, Table S1. The methods for collection and analysis
156 of soil solution used in the various countries (Switzerland: Graf Pannatier et al. (2011);
157 Flanders: Verstraeten et al. (2012); Finland: Lindroos et al. (2000); UK: Vanguelova et al.
158 (2010), Denmark: Hansen et al. (2007)) follow the ICP Forests manual (Nieminen, 2011).
159 Generally, lysimeters were installed at several fixed depths starting at 0 cm, defined as the
160 interface between the surface organic layer and underlying mineral soil. These depths are
161 typically aligned with soil “organic layer”, “mineral topsoil”, “mineral subsoil”, and “deeper
162 mineral soil” but sampling depths vary among countries and even among plots within a
163 country. Normally, zero-tension lysimeters were installed under the surface organic layer and
164 tension lysimeters within the mineral soil. However, in some countries zero-tension
165 lysimeters were also used within the mineral layers and in some tension lysimeters below the
166 organic layer. Multiple collectors (replicates) were installed per plot and per depth to assess
167 plots spatial variability. However, in some countries, samples from these replicates were
168 pooled before analyses or averaged prior to data transmission. The quality assurance and
169 control procedures included the use of control charts for internal reference material to check
170 long-term comparability within national laboratories as well as participation in periodic
171 laboratory ring tests (e.g., Marchetto et al., 2011) to check the international comparability.
172 Data were reported annually to the pan-European data center, checked for consistency and
173 stored in the pan-European Forest Monitoring Database (Granke, 2013).

174 Soil water was usually collected fortnightly or monthly, although for some plots sampling
175 periods with sufficient soil water for collection were scarce, especially in prolonged dry
176 periods or in winter due to snow and ice. After collection, the samples were filtered through a
177 0.45 μm membrane filter, stored below 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and then analyzed for DOC, together with other
178 soil solution chemical properties (NO_3^- , Ca, Mg, NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} , total dissolved Al, total
179 dissolved Fe, pH, electrical conductivity). Information on the soil solution chemistry at the
180 studied plots can be found in Supplementary material (Table S4-S11). The precision of DOC
181 analysis differed among the laboratories. The coefficient of variation of repeatedly measured
182 reference material was 3.7% on average. The time span of soil solution time series used for
183 this study ranged from 1991 to 2011, although coverage of this period varied from plot to plot
184 (Supplementary material, Table S1).

185 Soil properties, open field bulk deposition and throughfall deposition of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , and
186 SO_4^{2-} , are measured at the same plots as well as stem volume increment. The atmospheric

187 deposition of NO_3^- , NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} data covers the period 1999-2010 (Waldner et al., 2014).
188 Stem volume growth was calculated by the ICP Forests network from diameter at breast
189 height (DBH), live tree status, and tree height which were assessed for every tree (DBH > 5
190 cm) within a monitoring plot approximately every five years since the early 1990s. Tree stem
191 volumes were derived from allometric relationships based on diameter and height
192 measurements according to De Vries et al. (2003), accounting for species and regional
193 differences. Stem volume growth (in m^3) between two consecutive inventories was calculated
194 as the difference between stem volumes at the beginning and the end of one inventory period
195 for living trees. Stem volume data were corrected for all trees that were lost during one
196 inventory period, including thinning. Stem volume at the time of disappearance (assumed at
197 half of the time of the inventory period) was estimated from functions relating stem volume
198 of standing living trees at the end of the period vs volume at the beginning of the period. The
199 methods used for collection of these data can be found in the Manuals of the ICP Forests
200 Monitoring Programme (ICP Forests, 2010). The soil properties at the plots used for this
201 study were derived from the ICP Forests aggregated soil database (AFSCDB.LII.2.1) (Cools
202 and De Vos, 2014).

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

213 **2.2 Data preparation**

214 We extracted data from plots with time series covering more than 10 years and including
215 more than 60 observations of soil solution DOC concentrations of individual or groups of
216 collectors. Outliers, defined as ± 3 interquartile range of the 25 and 75 quantiles of the time
217 series, were removed from each time series to avoid influence of few extreme values in the
218 long-term trend (Schwertman et al., 2004). Values under 1 mg L^{-1} , which is the detection

219 limit for DOC in the ICP Level II plots, were replaced by 1 mg L⁻¹. After this filtering, 529
220 time series from 118 plots, spanning from Italy to Norway, were available for analysis. Soil
221 solution, precipitation, and temperature were aggregated to monthly data by the median of the
222 observations in each month and by the sum of daily values in the case of precipitation. Data
223 of inorganic N (NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻) and SO₄²⁻ throughfall and open field bulk deposition
224 measured at the plots were interpolated to monthly data (Waldner et al., 2014).

225 The plots were classified according to their forest type (broadleaved/coniferous dominated),
226 soil type (World Reference Base, (WRB 2006)), their stem growth (slow, < 6 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹,
227 intermediate, 6–12 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; and fast, > 12 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and soil solution pH (low, <4.2,
228 intermediate, 4.2–5, high, >5). Plots were also classified based on mean throughfall inorganic
229 N (NO₃⁻ +NH₄⁺) deposition level, defined as: high deposition (HD, >15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹),
230 medium deposition (MD, 5–15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and low deposition (LD, <5 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and
231 mean throughfall SO₄²⁻ deposition level, defined as: high deposition (HD, >6 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹),
232 and low deposition (LD, < 6 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).

233 **2.3 Statistical methods**

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

243 Linear mixed-effects models (LMM) were used to detect the temporal trends in soil solution
244 DOC concentration at the European scale (Fig. 2). For these models, the selected 529 time
245 series were used. For the trend analysis of individual time series, however, we focused on the
246 long-term trends in soil solution DOC at European forests that show monotonicity. Therefore,
247 DOC time series were first analyzed using the Breaks For Additive Seasonal and Trend
248 (BFAST) algorithm to detect the presence of breakpoints (Verbesselt et al., 2010; Vicca et al.,
249 2016) with the time series showing breakpoints, i.e., not monotonic, being discarded (see
250 Description of the statistical methods in Supplementary material). In total, 258 monotonic

251 time series from 97 plots were used for our analysis after filtering (Fig. 2). Then, monotonic
252 trend analyses were carried out from the filtered dataset using the Seasonal Mann Kendall
253 (SMK) test for monthly DOC concentrations (Hirsch et al., 1982; Marchetto et al., 2013).
254 Partial Mann Kendall (PMK) tests were also used to test the influence of precipitation as a
255 co-variable to detect if the trend might be due to a DOC dilution/concentration effect
256 (Libiseller and Grimvall, 2002). Sen (1968) slope values were calculated for SMK and PMK.
257 Moreover, LMMs were performed again with the filtered dataset to compare results with and
258 without time series showing breakpoints (Fig. 2).

259 For this study, five soil depth intervals were considered: the organic layer (0 cm), topsoil (0-
260 20 cm), intermediate (20-40 cm), subsoil (40-80 cm) and deep subsoil (> 80 cm). The slopes
261 of each time series were standardized by dividing them by the median DOC concentration
262 over the sampling period (relative trend slope), aggregated to a unique plot-soil depth slope
263 and classified by the direction of the trend as significantly positive, i.e., increasing DOC over
264 time ($P, p < 0.05$), significantly negative, i.e., decreasing DOC over time ($N, p < 0.05$), and
265 non-significant, i.e., no significant change in DOC over time ($NS, p \geq 0.05$). When there was
266 more than one collector per depth interval, the median of the slopes was used when the
267 direction of the trend (P, N , or NS) was similar. After aggregation per plot-depth
268 combination, 191 trend slopes from 97 plots were available for analysis (Supplementary
269 Material, Table S2). Trends for other soil solution parameters (NO_3^- , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} ,
270 total dissolved Al, total dissolved Fe, pH, electrical conductivity), precipitation and
271 temperature were calculated using the same methodology as for DOC. Since the resulting
272 standardized Sen slope in $\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (relative trend slope) was used for all the statistical analysis,
273 from here on we will use the general term “trend slope” in order to simplify.

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

283 3 Results

284 3.1 Soil solution DOC trends at European scale

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

299 3.2 Soil solution DOC concentration trend analysis of individual time series

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

304 The individual trend analysis using the SMK test showed trend slopes of soil solution DOC
305 concentration ranging from $-16.8\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ to $+23\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (median = $+0.4\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, interquartile range
306 = $+4.3\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Among all the time series analyzed, the majority were not statistically
307 significant trends (40%, 104 time series), followed by significantly positive trends (35%, 91
308 time series) and significantly negative trends (24%, 63 time series) (Table 1). There was,
309 thus, no uniform trend in soil solution DOC in forests across a large part of Europe.
310 Furthermore, the regional trend differences were inconsistent when looking at different soil
311 depth intervals separately (Fig. 3 and 4), which made it difficult to draw firm conclusions
312 about the spatial pattern of the trends in soil solution DOC concentrations in European
313 forests.

314 The variability in trends was high, not only at continental scale, but also at plot level (Fig. 5).
315 We found consistent within-plot trends only for 50 out of the 97 sites. Moreover, some plots
316 even showed different trends (P, N or NS) in DOC within the same depth interval, which was
317 the case for 17 plot-depth combinations (16 in Germany and one in Norway), evidencing a
318 high small-scale plot heterogeneity.

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

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

332 **3.3 Factors explaining the soil solution DOC trends**

333 **3.3.1 Effects of vegetation, soil and climate**

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

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

353 Finally, no significant correlations were found between trends in temperature or precipitation
354 and trends in soil solution DOC, with the exception of a positive correlation between trends
355 in soil solution DOC in the soil depth interval 20-40 cm and the trend in temperature ($r =$
356 $0.47, p = 0.03$).

357 **3.3.2 Effects of mean and trends in atmospheric deposition and soil solution** 358 **parameters**

359 Analyzing different models that could explain the DOC trends using the overall dataset
360 indicated both direct and indirect effects of the annual mean SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- throughfall
361 atmospheric deposition on the trend slopes of DOC. The Structural Equation Model
362 accounted for 32.7% of the variance in DOC trend slopes (Fig. 7A). According to this model,
363 lower mean throughfall SO_4^{2-} deposition resulted in increasing trend slopes of DOC in soil
364 solution and higher mean throughfall NO_3^- deposition resulted in increasing trend slopes of
365 DOC (Fig. 7A). When considering trends in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- deposition, there was no
366 apparent spatial correlation with soil solution DOC trends, with deposition mainly decreasing
367 or not changing over time (Fig. 8) and the DOC trends varying greatly across Europe (Fig. 3
368 and 4). However, when SEM was run using the trend slopes in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- deposition
369 instead of the mean values, we found that trend slopes of DOC significantly increased with
370 increasing trend in NO_3^- and decreased with increasing trend in SO_4^{2-} deposition, but the
371 latter was a non-significant relationship (Supplementary Material, Fig. S3). However, the
372 percentage of variance in DOC trend slopes explained by the model was much twice lower
373 (16%).

374 **Sites with low and medium N deposition**

375 The variables in the model that best explained the temporal changes in DOC were the same
376 for the forests with low and medium N deposition; for both groups, NO_3^- deposition and

377 SO_4^{2-} deposition (directly, or indirectly through its influence on plant growth) influenced the
378 trend in DOC (Fig. 7B). Lower mean SO_4^{2-} deposition again resulted in a significant increase
379 in trend slopes, while increasing NO_3^- deposition resulted in increasing DOC trend slopes.
380 The percentage of variance in DOC trend slopes explained by the model was 33%. The SEM
381 run with the trends in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- throughfall deposition for forests with low and medium
382 N deposition explained 24.4% of the variance in DOC trends, and showed a significant
383 increase of trend slopes of DOC with decreasing trend in SO_4^{2-} deposition (Supplementary
384 Material, Fig. S3).

385 **Sites with high N deposition**

386 For the plots with high N deposition, however, we found no model for explaining the trends
387 in DOC using the mean annual SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- throughfall deposition. In contrast, the best
388 model included the relative trend slopes in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- deposition as well as in median
389 soil solution conductivity ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) as explaining variables (Fig. 7C). Increasing the relative
390 trend slopes of NO_3^- deposition resulted in increasing the DOC trend slopes. Also both the
391 trend slopes of SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- deposition affected the trend slopes of DOC indirectly through
392 an effect on the trends in soil solution conductivity, although acting in opposite directions:
393 while increasing NO_3^- deposition led to decreasing soil solution conductivity, increasing
394 SO_4^{2-} deposition resulted in increasing trends in soil solution conductivity, but the latter
395 relationship was only marginally significant ($p=0.06$). Increasing trends in conductivity, in
396 turn, resulted in increasing trend slopes of DOC. The percentage of the variance in DOC
397 trend slopes explained by the model was 25% (Fig. 7C). Nevertheless, trends in soil solution
398 DOC were not directly affected by trends in SO_4^{2-} deposition in forests with high N
399 deposition.

400 **4 Discussion**

401 **4.1 Trend analysis of soil solution DOC in Europe**

402 **4.1.1 Evaluation of the trend analysis techniques**

403 A substantial proportion (40%) of times series did not indicate any significant trend in site-
404 level DOC concentrations across the ICP Forests network. Measurement precision, strength
405 of the trend, and the choice of the method may all affect trend detection (Sulkava et al., 2005;
406 Waldner et al., 2014). Evidently, strong trends are easier to detect than weak trends. To detect
407 a weak trend, either very long time series or very accurate and precise datasets are needed.

408 The quality of the data is assured within the ICP Forests by means of repeated ring tests that
409 are required for all participating laboratories and the accuracy of the data has been improved
410 considerably over an eight years period (Ferretti and König, 2013; König et al., 2013).
411 However, the precision and accuracy of the dataset still varies across countries and plots. We
412 enhanced the probability of trend detection by the SMK, PMK, and BFAST tests by
413 removing time series with breakpoints caused by artifacts (such as installation effects).

414 Nevertheless, we found a majority of non-significant trends. For these cases, we cannot state
415 with certainty that DOC did not change over time: it might be that the trend was not strong
416 enough to be detected, or that the data quality was insufficient for the period length available
417 for the trend analysis (more than 9 years in all the cases). For example, the mixed-effects
418 models detected a positive trend in the organic layer, and while many of the individual time
419 series measured in the organic layer also showed a positive trend, most were classified as
420 non-significant trends (Table 1; Fig. 3). This probably led to an underestimation of trends that
421 separately might not be strong enough to be detected by the individual trend analysis but
422 combined with the other European data these sites may contribute to an overall trend of
423 increasing DOC concentrations in soils of European forests. Nevertheless, the selected trend
424 analysis techniques (SMK and PMK) are the most suitable to detect weak trends (Marchetto
425 et al., 2013; Waldner et al., 2014), thus reducing the chances of hidden trends within the non-
426 significant trends category.

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

435 **4.1.2 Analysis of breakpoints in the time series**

436 Soil solution DOC time series measured with lysimeters are subject to possible interruptions
437 of monotonicity, which is manifested by breakpoints. For instance, installation effect,
438 collector replacement, local forest management, disturbance by small animals, or by single or
439 repeated canopy insect infestations may disrupt DOC concentrations through abrupt soil

440 disturbances and/or enhanced input from the canopy to the soil (Akselsson et al., 2013;
441 Kvaalen et al., 2002; Lange et al., 2006; Moffat et al., 2002; Pitman et al., 2010). In general,
442 detailed information on the management history and other local disturbances was lacking for
443 the majority of Level II plots, which hinders assigning observed breakpoints to specific site
444 conditions. The BFAST analysis allowed us to filter out time series affected by local
445 disturbances (natural or artefacts) from the dataset and to solely retain time series with
446 monotonic trends. By applying the breakpoint analysis, we reduced the within-plot trend
447 variability, while most of the plots showed similar aggregated trends per plot-depth
448 combinations (Supplementary material, Fig. S4). Thereby, we removed some of the within-
449 plot variability that might be caused by local factors not directly explaining the long-term
450 monotonic trends in DOC and thus complicating or confounding the trend analysis (Clark et
451 al., 2010).

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

463 **4.1.3 Variability in soil solution DOC trends within plots**

464 Even after removing sites with breakpoints in the time series, within-plot trend variability
465 remained high (median within-plot range: $3.3\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$), with different trends observed for
466 different collectors from the same plot (Fig. 5). This high small-scale variability in soil
467 solution DOC makes it difficult to draw conclusions about long-term DOC trends from
468 individual site measurements, particularly in plots with heterogeneous soil and site conditions
469 (Löfgren et al., 2010).

470 The trends in soil solution DOC also varied across soil depth intervals. The mixed-effect
471 models suggested an increasing trend in soil solution DOC concentration in the organic layer,

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

485 Finally, the direction of the trends in soil solution DOC concentrations did not follow a clear
486 regional pattern across Europe (Fig. 3 and 4) and even contrasted with other soil solution
487 parameters that showed widespread trends over Europe, such as decreasing SO_4^{2-} and
488 increasing pH. This finding indicates that effects of environmental controls on soil solution
489 DOC concentrations may differ depending on local factors like soil type (e.g., soil acidity,
490 texture) as well as site and stand characteristics (e.g., tree growth or acidification history).
491 Thus, the trends in DOC in soil solution appear to be an outcome of interactions between
492 controls acting at local and regional scales.

493 In order to compare soil solution DOC trends among sites, trends of DOC concentrations are
494 always expressed in relative trends ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). By using the relative trends, we removed the
495 effect of the median DOC concentration at the “plot-depth” combination and, consequently,
496 the results do not reflect the actual magnitude of the trend, but their importance in relation
497 with the median DOC concentration at the “plot-depth” combination. It implies that the
498 interpretation of our results was done only in relative terms (see Supplementary Material,
499 Table S3, Fig S5).

500 **4.2 Controls on soil solution DOC temporal trends**

501 **4.2.1 Vegetation**

502 Biological controls on DOC production and consumption, like net primary production (NPP),
503 operating at site or catchment level, are particularly important when studying soil solution as
504 plant-derived carbon is the main source of DOC (Harrison et al., 2008). Stem growth was
505 available as a proxy for NPP only for 53 sites and was calculated as the increment between
506 inventories carried out every five years. Similarly to what has been found for peatlands
507 (Billett et al., 2010; Dinsmore et al., 2013), the results suggest that vegetation growth is an
508 important driver of DOC temporal dynamics in forests.. Differences in DOC temporal trends
509 across all soil depths were strongly related to stem growth, with more productive plots, as
510 indicated by higher stem volume increment ($6\text{-}12\text{ m}^3\text{ ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$), more often exhibiting
511 decreasing trends in DOC (Fig. 6 and 7). .

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

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

528 **4.2.2 Acidifying deposition**

529 Decreased atmospheric SO_4^{2-} deposition and accumulation of atmospherically deposited N
530 were hypothesized to increase DOC in European surface waters over the last 20 years (Evans

531 et al., 2005; Hruška et al., 2009; Monteith et al., 2007). Sulphate and inorganic N deposition
532 decreased in Europe over the past decades (Waldner et al., 2014) but trends in soil solution
533 DOC concentrations varied greatly, with increases, decreases, as well as steady states being
534 observed across respectively 56, 41 and 77 time series in European forests (Fig. 3,4 and 8).
535 Although we could not demonstrate a direct effect of trends in SO_4^{2-} and inorganic N
536 deposition on the trends of soil solution DOC concentration, the multivariate analysis
537 suggested that the hypothesis of increased DOC soil solution concentration as a result of
538 decreasing SO_4^{2-} deposition may apply only at sites with low or medium mean N deposition
539 over the last decades.

540 Our results show that DOC concentrations in the soil solution are positively linked to
541 inorganic N deposition loads at sites with low or medium inorganic N deposition, and to N
542 deposition trends at sites with high inorganic N deposition (Fig. 7). The role of atmospheric
543 inorganic N deposition in increasing DOC leaching from soils has been well documented
544 (Bragazza et al., 2006; Liu and Greaver, 2010; Pregitzer et al., 2004; Rosemond et al., 2015).
545 The mechanisms behind this positive relationship are either physico-chemical or biological.
546 Chemical changes in soil solution through the increase of NO_3^- ions can trigger desorption of
547 DOC (Pregitzer et al., 2004), and biotic forest responses to inorganic N deposition, namely,
548 enhanced photosynthesis, altered carbon allocation, and reduced soil microbial activity
549 (Bragazza et al., 2006; de Vries et al., 2009; Janssens et al., 2010; Liu and Greaver, 2010),
550 can increase the final amount of DOC in the soil. As the most consistent trends are found in
551 organic layers, where production/decomposition control DOC concentration (Löfgren and
552 Zetterberg, 2011), effects of inorganic N deposition through increase of primary productivity
553 (de Vries et al., 2014; de Vries et al., 2009; Ferretti et al., 2014) are likely drivers of
554 increasing DOC trends. One proposed mechanism is incomplete lignin degradation and
555 greater production of DOC in response to increased soil NH_4^+ (Pregitzer et al., 2004; Zech et
556 al., 1994). Alternatively, N-induced reductions of forest heterotrophic respiration (Janssens et
557 al., 2010) and reduced microbial decomposition (Liu and Greaver, 2010) may lead to greater
558 accumulation of DOC.

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

564 Similar to our observation for soil solution DOC, decreasing SO_4^{2-} deposition has been linked
565 to increasing surface water DOC (Evans et al., 2006; Monteith et al., 2007; Oulehle and
566 Hruska, 2009). Sulphate deposition triggers soil acidification and a subsequent release of Al^{3+}
567 in acid soils. The amount of Al^{3+} is negatively related to soil solution DOC due to two
568 plausible mechanisms: 1) The released Al^{3+} can build complexes with organic molecules,
569 enhancing DOC precipitation and, in turn, suppressing DOC solubility, thereby decreasing
570 DOC concentrations in soil solution (de Wit et al., 2001; Tipping and Woof, 1991;
571 Vanguelova et al., 2010), and 2) at higher levels of soil solution Al^{3+} in combination with low
572 pH, DOC production through SOM decomposition decreases due to toxicity of Al^{3+} to soil
573 organisms (Mulder et al., 2001). Consequently, when SO_4^{2-} deposition is lower, increases of
574 soil solution DOC concentration could be expected (Fig. 7A, B). Finally, an indirect effect of
575 plant response to nutrient-limited acidified soil could also contribute to the trend in soil
576 solution DOC by changes to plant belowground C allocation (Vicca et al., 2012) (see Sect.
577 4.2.1.).

578 Nevertheless, increasing DOC soil solution concentration as a result of decreasing SO_4^{2-}
579 deposition occurred only at sites with low or medium mean N deposition. Therefore, our
580 results indicate that the response of DOC to changes in atmospheric deposition seems to be
581 controlled by the past and present inorganic N deposition loads (Clark et al., 2010; Evans et
582 al., 2012; Tian and Niu, 2015). It suggests that the mechanisms of recovery from SO_4^{2-}
583 deposition and acidification take place only in low and medium N deposition areas, as has
584 been observed for inorganic N deposition effects (de Vries et al., 2009). In high inorganic N
585 deposition areas, it is likely that impacts of N-induced acidification on forest health and soil
586 condition lead to more DOC leaching, even though SO_4^{2-} deposition has been decreasing.
587 Therefore, the hypothesis of recovery from acidity cannot fully explain overall soil solution
588 DOC trends in Europe, as was also previously suggested in local or national studies of long-
589 term trends in soil solution DOC (Löfgren et al., 2010; Stutter et al., 2011; Ukonmaanaho et
590 al., 2014; Verstraeten et al., 2014). Collinearity between SO_4^{2-} deposition and inorganic N
591 deposition was low (variance inflation factor <3) for both the mean values and temporal
592 trends. We therefore assumed that the proposed response of DOC to the decline in SO_4^{2-}
593 deposition in low to medium N areas is not confounded by simultaneous changes in SO_4^{2-} and
594 NO_3^- deposition, even more so because the statistical models account for the covariation in
595 SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- deposition (Figure 7). Nonetheless, as SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- deposition are

596 generally decreasing across Europe (Figure 8), concomitant changes in NO_3^- deposition may
597 still have somewhat confounded the attribution of DOC changes solely to SO_4^{2-} deposition.

598 Ultimately, internal soil processes control the final concentration of DOC in the soil solution.
599 The solubility and biological production and consumption of DOC are regulated by pH, ionic
600 strength of the soil solution and the presence of Al^{3+} and Fe (Bolan et al., 2011; De Wit et al.,
601 2007; Schwesig et al., 2003). These conditions are modulated by changes in atmospheric
602 deposition but not uniformly across sites: soils differ in acid-buffering capacity (Tian and
603 Niu, 2015), and the response of DOC concentrations to changes in SO_4^{2-} deposition will thus
604 be a function of the initial soil acidification and buffer range (Fig. 7). Finally, modifications
605 of soil properties induced by changes in atmospheric deposition are probably an order of
606 magnitude lower than the spatial variation of these soil properties across sites, making it
607 difficult to isolate controlling factors on the final observed response of soil solution DOC at
608 continental scale (Clark et al., 2010; Stutter et al., 2011).

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

617 **4.3 Link between DOC trends in soil and streams**

618 An underlying question is how DOC trends in soil solution relate to DOC trends in stream
619 waters. Several studies have pointed out recovery from acidification as a cause for increasing
620 trends in DOC concentrations in surface waters (Dawson et al., 2009; Evans et al., 2012;
621 Monteith et al., 2007; Skjelkvåle et al., 2003). Overall, our results point to a noticeable
622 increasing trend in DOC in the organic layer of forest soils, which is qualitatively consistent
623 with the increasing trends found in stream waters and in line with positive DOC trends
624 reported for the soil organic layer or at maximum 10 cm depth of the mineral soil in Europe
625 (Borken et al., 2011; Hruška et al., 2009; Vanguelova et al., 2010). DOC from the organic
626 layer may be transferred to surface waters via hydrologic shortcuts during storm events, when

627 shallow lateral flow paths are activated. On the other hand, trends in different soil layers
628 along the mineral soil were more variable and responded to other soil internal processes.

629 It is currently difficult to link long-term dynamics in soil and surface water DOC. Large scale
630 processes become more important than local factors when looking at DOC trends in surface
631 waters (Lepistö et al., 2014), while the opposite seems to apply for soil solution DOC trends.
632 Furthermore, stream water DOC mainly reflects the processes occurring in areas with a high
633 hydraulic connectivity in the catchment, such as peat soils or floodplains, which normally
634 yield most of the DOC (Ledesma et al., 2016; Löfgren and Zetterberg, 2011). Further
635 monitoring studies in forest soils with high hydraulic connectivity to streams are needed to be
636 able to link dynamics of DOC in forest soil with dynamics of DOC in stream waters.

637 Finally, stream water DOC trends are dominantly controlled by catchment hydrology
638 (Sebestyen et al., 2009; Stutter et al., 2011; Tranvik and Jansson, 2002), since an increase in
639 DOC concentration does not necessarily result in increased DOC transport, which is the
640 product of DOC concentration and discharge. Differences in hydrology among sites may
641 (partly) explain the inconsistent patterns found in soil solution DOC concentration trends at
642 different sites and depths, as previously proposed (Stutter et al., 2011), but data to verify this
643 statement are currently not available. Hence, while this study of controls on trends in DOC
644 concentrations in soil provides key information for predictions of future C losses to stream
645 waters, future studies at larger scale that include catchment hydrology (precipitation, runoff
646 and drainage) are crucial to relate soil and stream DOC trends.

647 **5 Conclusions**

648 Different monotonic long-term trends of soil solution DOC have been found across European
649 forests at plot scale, with the majority of the trends for specific plots and depths not being
650 statistically significant (40%), followed by significantly positive (35%) and significantly
651 negative trends (25%). The distribution of the trends did not follow a specific regional
652 pattern. A multivariate analysis revealed a negative relation between long-term trends in soil
653 solution DOC and mean SO_4^{2-} deposition and a positive relation to mean NO_3^- deposition.
654 While the hypothesis of increasing trends of DOC due to reductions of SO_4^{2-} deposition could
655 be confirmed in low to medium N deposition areas, there was no significant relationship with
656 SO_4^{2-} deposition in high N deposition areas. There was evidence that an overall increasing
657 trend of DOC concentrations occurred in the organic layers and, to a lesser extent, in the deep
658 mineral soil. However, trends in the different mineral soil horizons were highly

659 heterogeneous, indicating that internal soil processes control the final response of DOC in
660 soil solution. Although correlative, our results suggest that there is no single mechanism
661 responsible for soil solution DOC trends operating at large scale across Europe but that
662 interactions between controls operating at local (soil properties, site and stand characteristics)
663 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 type	Layer	[DOC]		LMM			LMM			SMK		
				(with breakpoints)			(without breakpoints)			(without breakpoints)		
			n	rslope	p value	n	rslope	p value	rslope	N	NS	P
TL	O	47.3	3133	6.75	<i>0.078</i>	1168	-0.30	n.s.	-1.03 (±1.65)	1	3	1
	M02	12.9	19311	0.10	n.s.	8917	-1.06	n.s.	0.16 (±4.78)	17	29	21
	M24	4.93	7700	2.69	n.s.	3404	3.66	n.s.	0.6 (±9.03)	11	12	11
	M48	3.66	24614	0.95	n.s.	11065	0.80	n.s.	0.67 (±4.76)	22	30	32
	M8	3.27	9378	6.78	0.0036	3394	3.41	n.s.	1.007 (±8.79)	8	9	16
ZTL	O	37.9	8136	3.75	<0.001	4659	1.63	<i>0.0939</i>	1.7 (±4.28)	3	16	8
	M02	30.7	3389	-0.54	n.s.	445	0.17	n.s.	-0.7 (±1.85)	0	3	1
	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

In broadleaved forests:

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

Collector type	Layer	[DOC]	LMM (with breakpoints)			LMM (without breakpoints)			SMK (without breakpoints)			
			n	rslope	p value	n	rslope	p value	rslope	N	NS	P
TL	O	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

									(±3.98)			
	M24	5.72	5116	2.71	n.s.	2476	3.66	n.s.	-0.3	7	7	8
									(±7.82)			
	M48	4.44	13979	1.24	n.s.	6431	0.05	n.s.	0.3	16	22	11
									(±4.32)			
	M8	3.70	5024	9.93	<0.001	1597	7.58	n.s.	2.89	4	4	10
									(±10.28)			
ZTL	O	42.9	4079	3.59	0.0018	2703	3.09	0.0045	1.85	1	9	5
									(±2.88)			
	M02	36.9	2781	-0.60	n.s.	253	-1.44	n.s.	-0.83	0	3	0
									(±0.4)			
	M24	16.3	645	0.23	n.s.					0	0	0
	M48	44.0	227	-0.39	n.s.	251	-0.55	n.s.	2.14	1	1	1
									(±3.66)			
	M8	4.14	84	13.87	0.0995					0	0	0

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 SO₄²⁻) 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	pH	CEC (cmol _c 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)
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
Belgium (code =2)													
11	P	Dystric Cambisol	3.54	17.7	2.81	6.22	805	11.0	18.7	13.2	0.40	-11.0	-8.00
21	P	Dystric Podzoluvisol	11.2	15.4	3.59	2.41	804	10.3	16.8	13.2	0.00	-9.00	-5.00
Germany (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	21.3	17.7	3.63	6.14	1110	6.20	16.4		0.00	-3.00	-0.40

Code Plot	Trend	Soil Type (WRB)	Clay (%)	C/N	pH	CEC (cmol _c 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)
Cambisol													
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	P	Haplic Calcisol					782	10.2	13.9		0.50	2.00	2.00
707	P	Dystric Cambisol					704	10.7	18.3	8.49	0.00	-10.0	-2.00
806	P	Dystric Cambisol					1349	8.30	23.0	6.81	0.30	-7.00	-6.00
903	P	Dystric Cambisol					905	9.60			0.20	-5.00	-3.00
920	P	Dystric Cambisol					908	8.90			-1.00	-6.00	-0.50
1402	P	Haplic Podzol	8.65	26.2	3.24	9.04	805	6.90	13.5	24.3	1.20	-6.00	9.00
1406	P	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 Kingdom (code = 6)													
922	P	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 _c 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)
Austria (code = 14)													
9	N	Eutric Cambisol	20.1	12.8	5.26	25.9	679	10.8		3.80*	0.40	-1.50	-0.60
Switzerland (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	P	Haplic Podzol	14.7	18.3	3.17	3.59	1473	4.40			-0.80	-5.00	-3.00
Norway (code =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	P		3.05	29.5	3.69		1175	0.35		2.40	-0.90	0.00	0.00

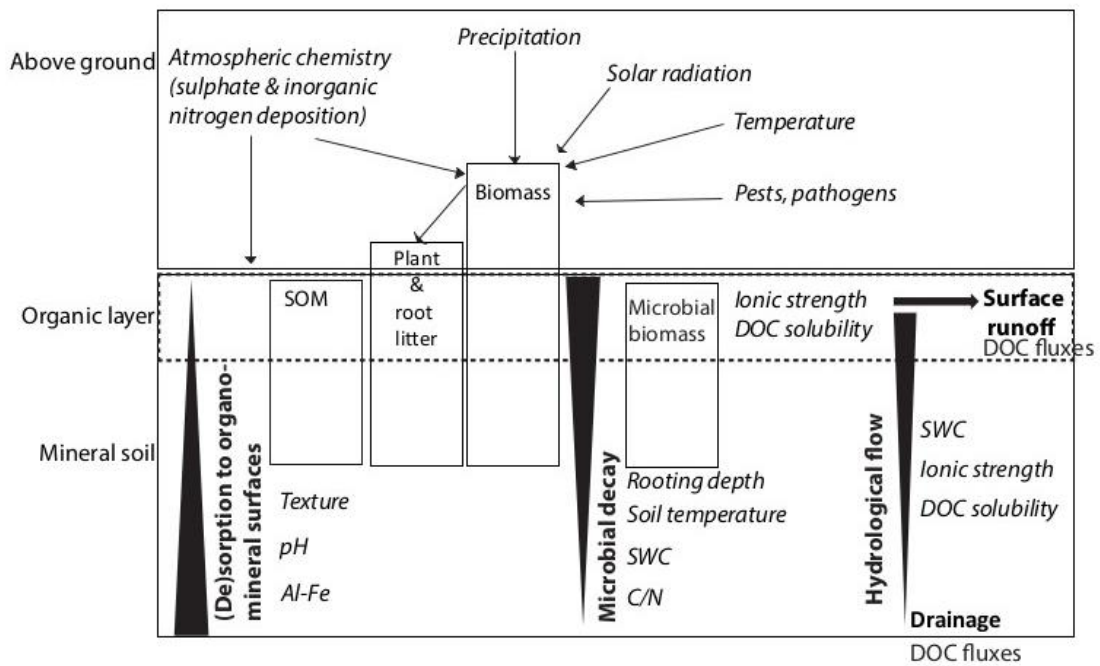
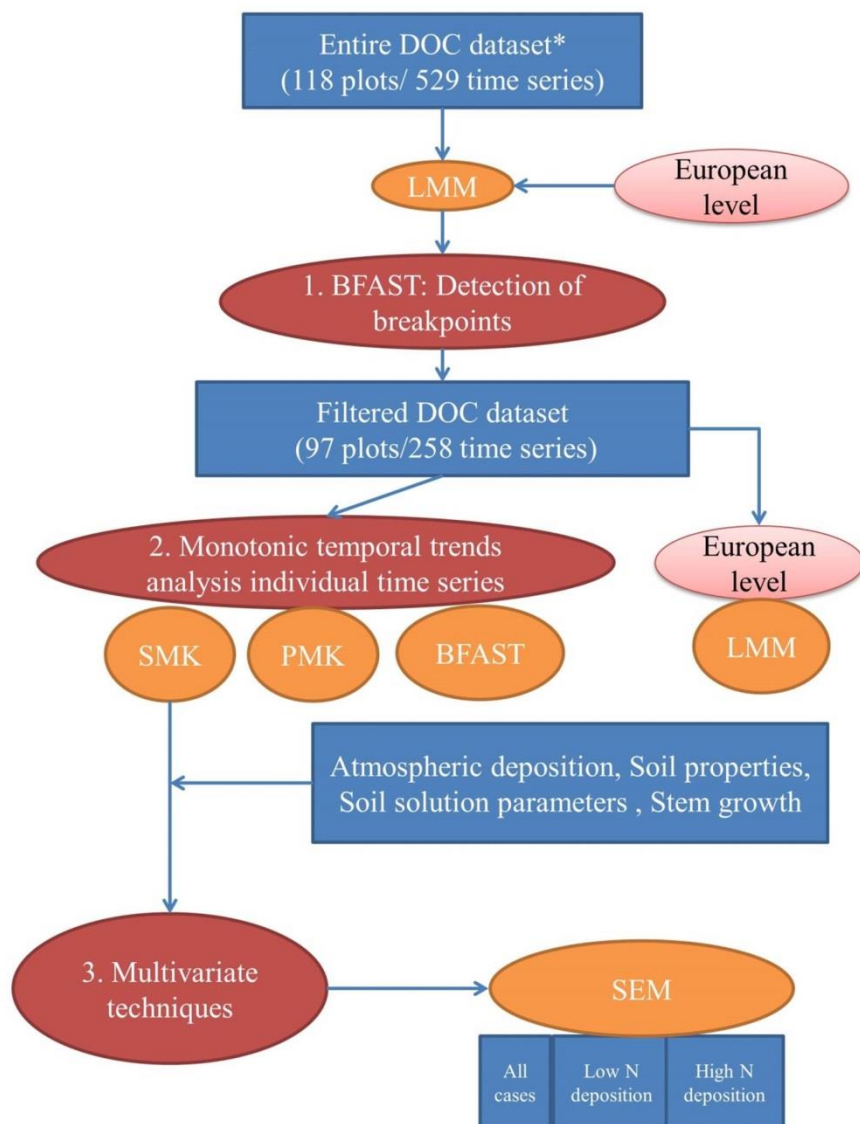


Figure 1. Schematic diagram illustrating the main sources (in boxes) of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and the main processes (in bold) and factors (in italics) controlling DOC concentrations in soils.



* 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
PMK	Partial Mann Kendall test	Monotonic temporal trends
SEM	Structural equation Model	Multivariate analysis (direct/indirect effects)

Figure 2. Flow-diagram of the sequence of methods applied for analysis of temporal trends of soil solution DOC and their drivers.

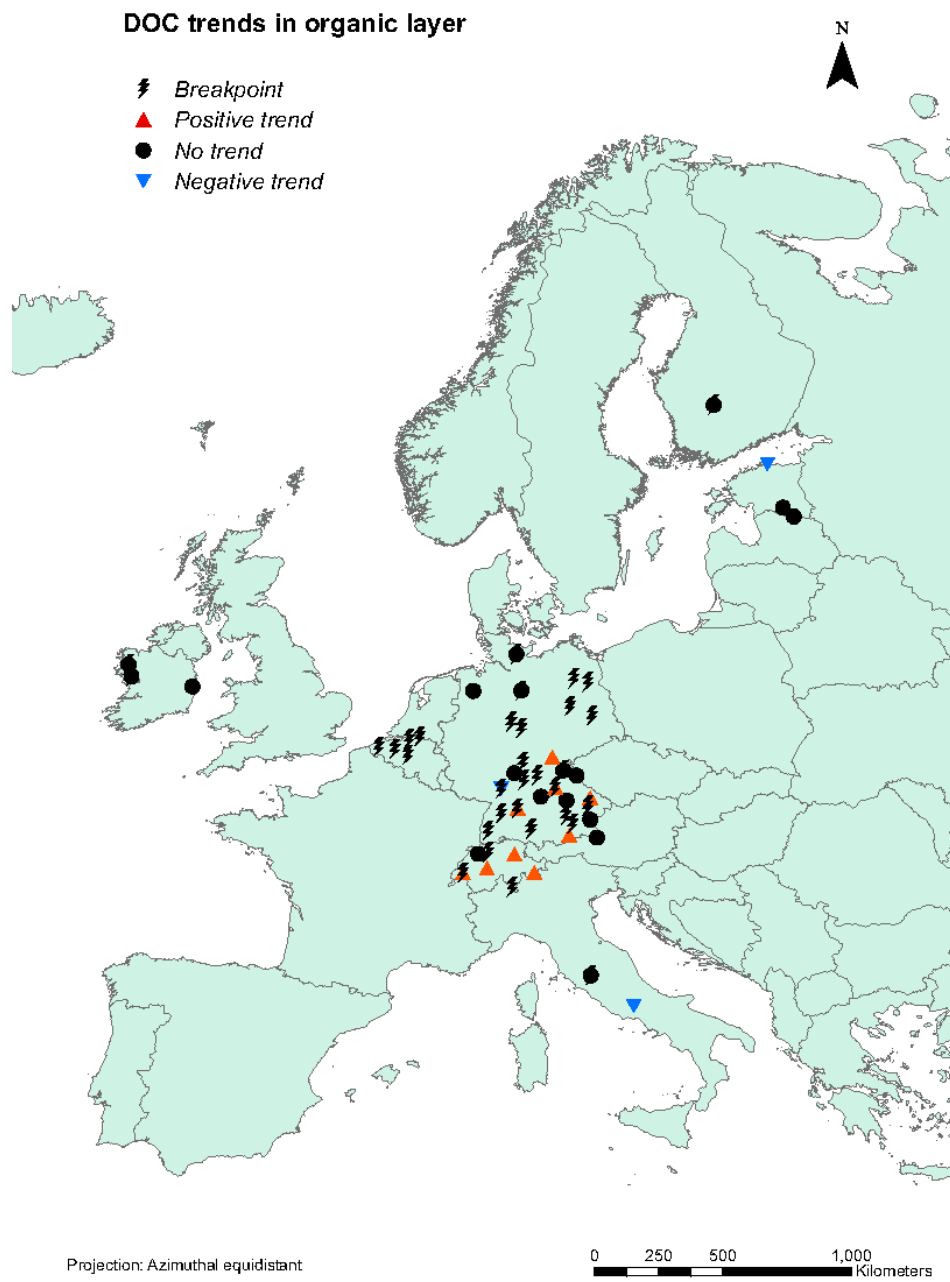


Figure 3. Directions of the temporal trends in soil solution DOC concentration in the organic layer at plot level. Trends were evaluated using the Seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Data span from 1991 to 2011.

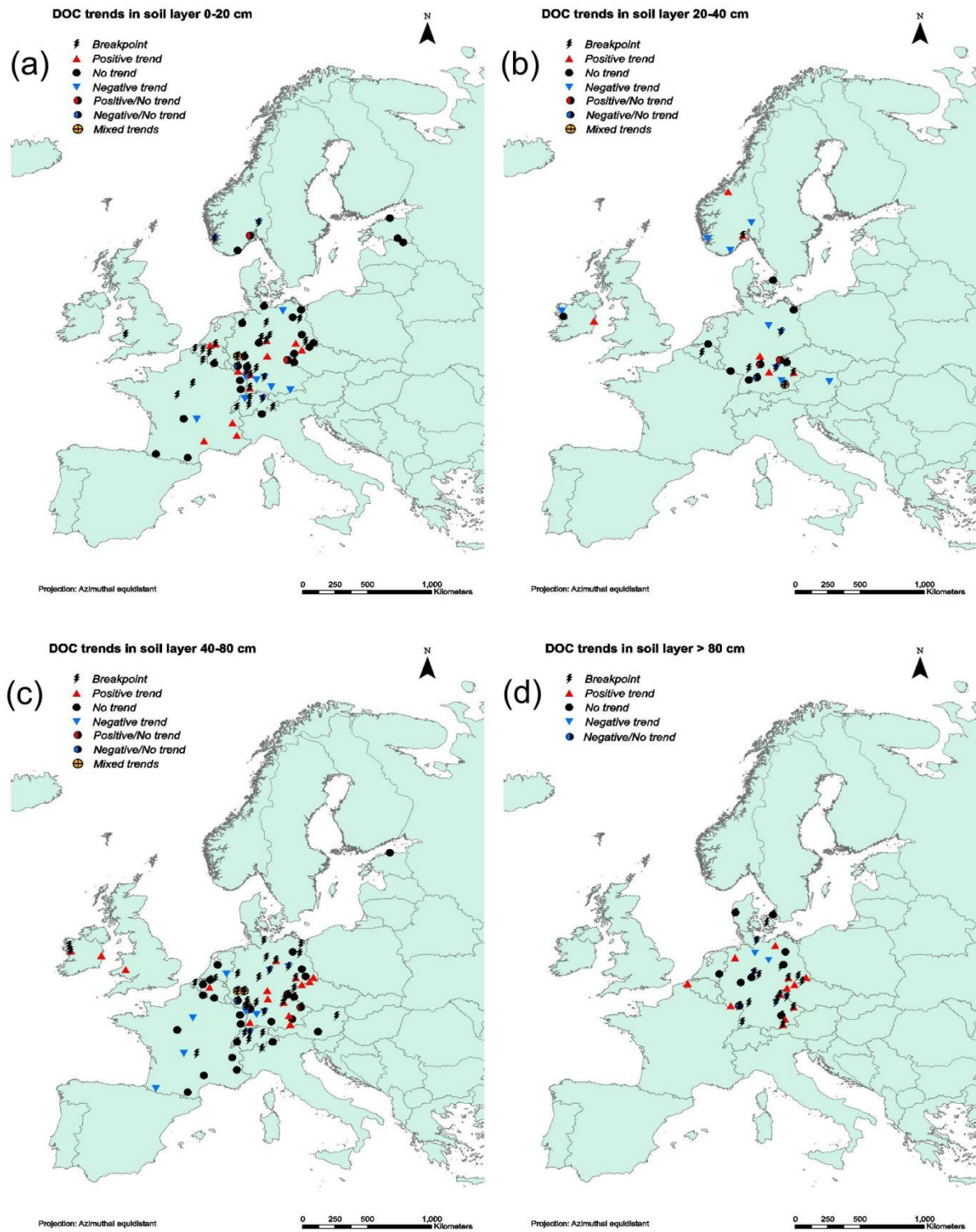


Figure 4. Directions of temporal trends in soil solution DOC concentration at plot level in the mineral soil for soil layers: (a) topsoil (0–20 cm), (b) intermediate (20–40 cm), (c) subsoil (40–80 cm) and (d) deep subsoil (> 80 cm). Trends were evaluated using the Seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Data span from 1991 to 2011.

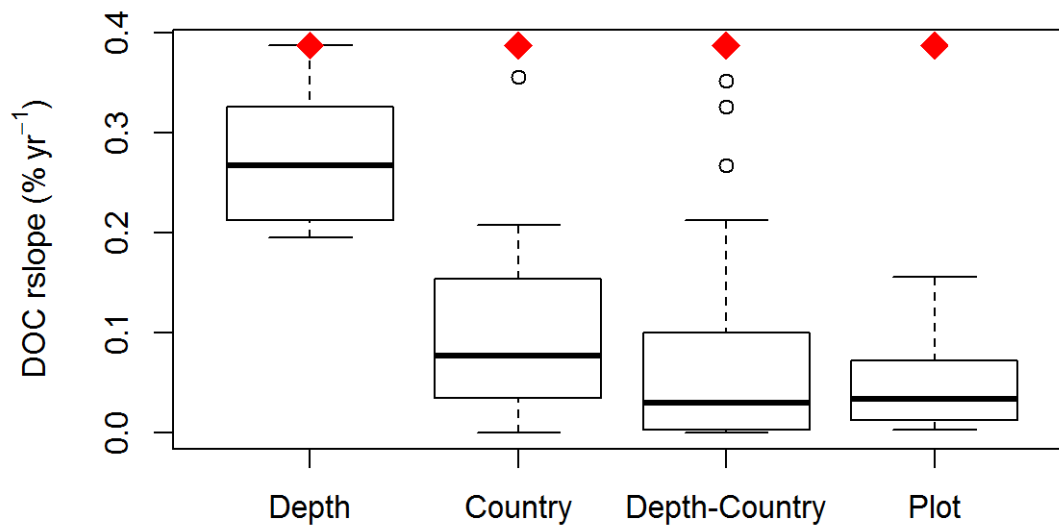


Figure 5. Range of relative trend slopes (max-min) for trends of DOC concentration in soil solution within each 1) depth interval, 2) country, 3) depth interval per country, and 4) plot. The boxplots show the median, 25% and 75% quantiles (box), minimum and 1.5 times the interquartile range (whiskers) and higher values (circles). The red diamond marks the maximum range of slopes in soil solution DOC trends in the entire dataset.

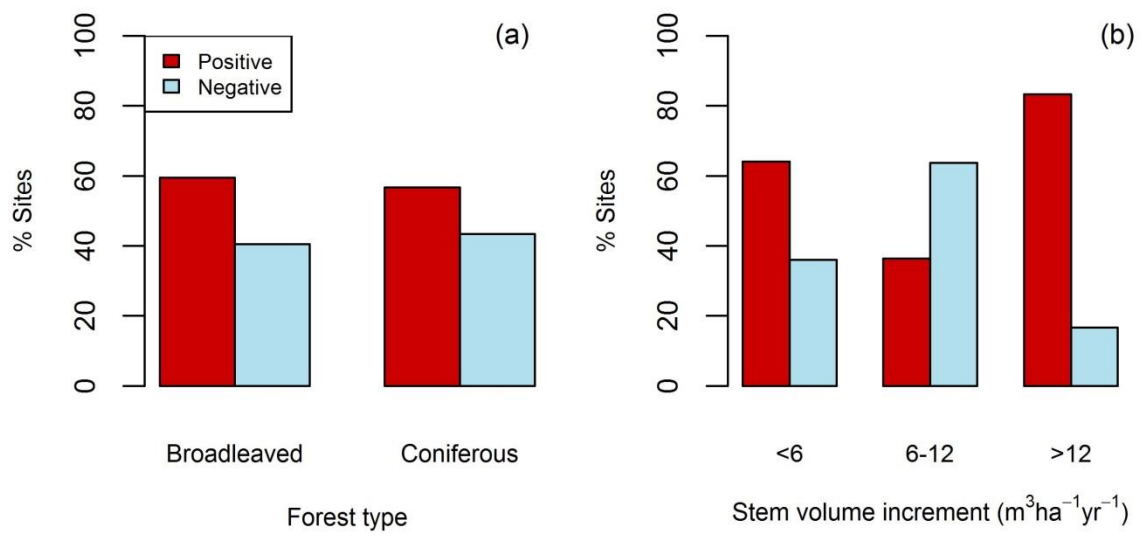


Figure 6. Percentage of occurrence of positive and negative trends of DOC concentration in soil solution separated by A) forest type and B) stem volume increment ($m^3 ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$).

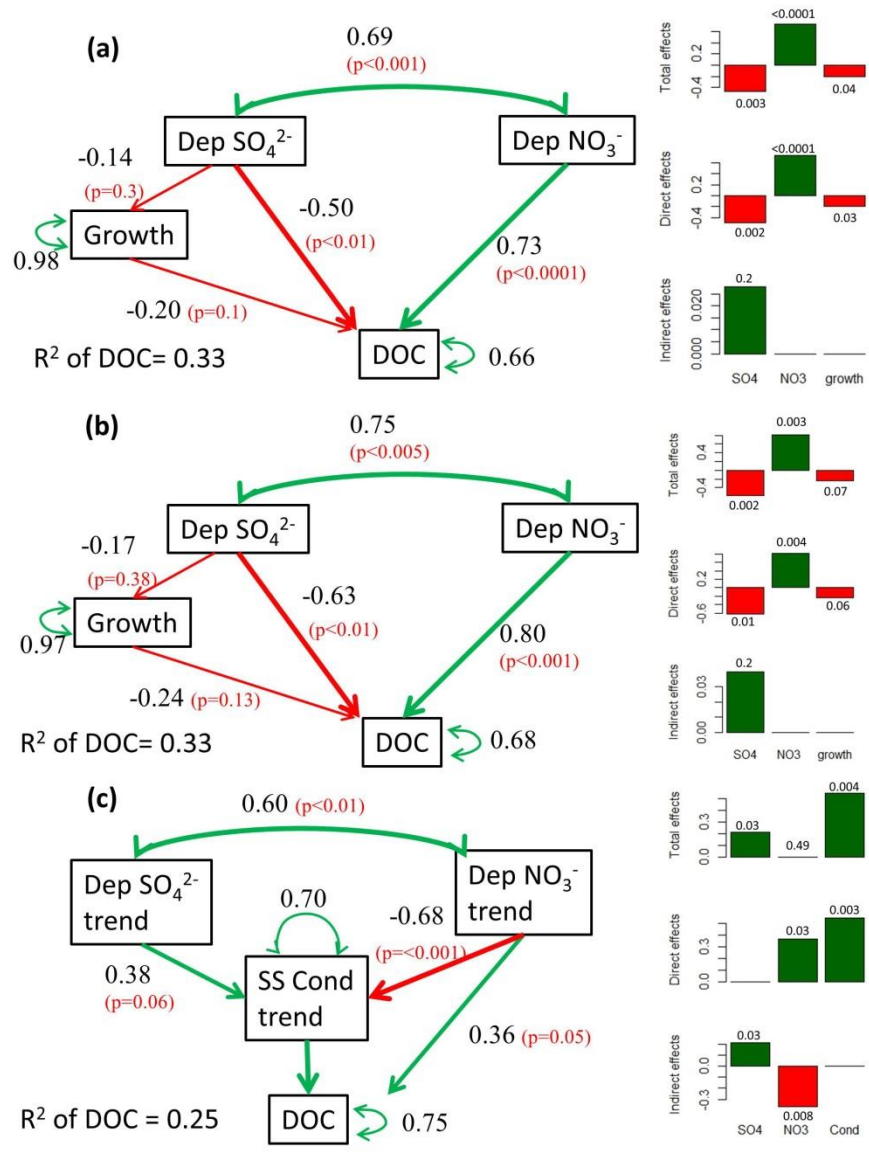


Figure 7. Diagrams of the structural equation models (SEM) that best explain the maximum variance of the resulting trends of DOC concentrations in soil solution for: A) all the cases , B) cases with low or medium throughfall inorganic N deposition ($< 15 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), and C) cases with high throughfall inorganic N deposition ($> 15 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) with mean or trends in annual SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- deposition ($\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) with direct and indirect effects through effects on soil solution parameters (trends of conductivity in $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$) and mean annual stem volume increment (growth) in $\text{m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). 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.

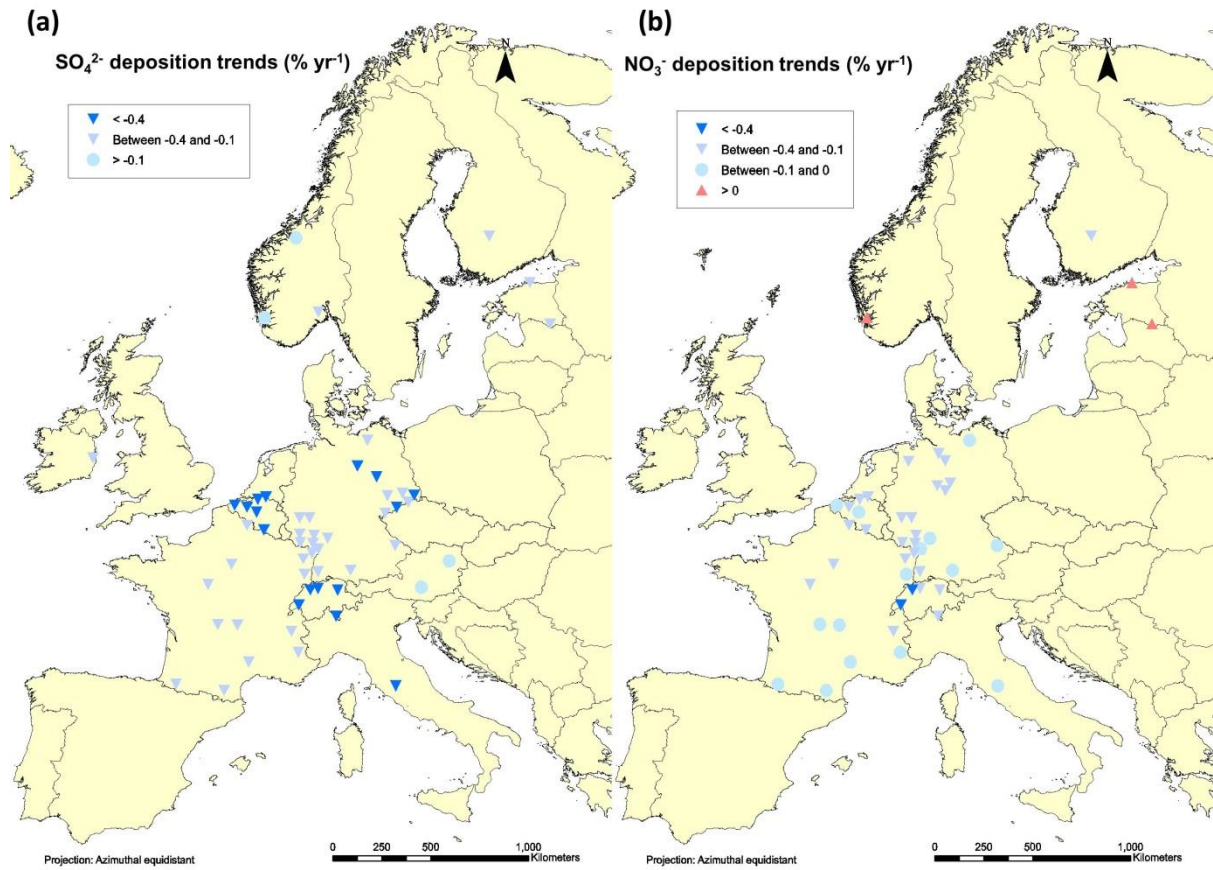


Figure 8. Temporal trends in a) throughfall SO_4^{2-} deposition and b) throughfall NO_3^- deposition at plot level. Trends were evaluated using the Seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Data span from 1999 to 2010.