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1 Trends in soil solution dissolved organic carbon (DOC)

2 concentrations across European forests

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Abstract

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

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59 at individual plots and depths, there was no clear overall trend in soil solution DOC across Europe with temporal slopes of soil solution DOC ranging between -16.8% yr⁻¹ and +23% yr⁻¹ 60 1 (median= +0.4% yr $^{-1}$). The non-significant trends (40%) outnumbered the increasing (35%) 61 and decreasing trends (25%) across the 97 ICP Forests Level II sites. By means of 62 multivariate statistics, we found increasing DOC concentrations with increasing mean nitrate 63 64 (NO₃) deposition and decreasing DOC concentrations with decreasing mean sulphate (SO₄²) deposition, with the magnitude of these relationships depending on plot deposition history. 65 While the attribution of increasing trends in DOC to the reduction of SO₄²⁻ deposition could 66

dataset showed an overall increasing trend in DOC concentrations in the organic layers, but,

While the attribution of increasing trends in DOC to the reduction of SO₄²⁻² deposition could be confirmed in N-poorer forests, in agreement with observations in surface waters, this was

68 not the case in N-richer forests. In conclusion, long-term trends of soil solution DOC

69 reflected the interactions between controls acting at local (soil and vegetation properties) and

regional (atmospheric deposition of SO₄²⁻ and inorganic N) scales.

1 Introduction

72 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in soil solution is the source of much of the terrestrially 73 derived DOC in surface waters (Battin et al., 2009; Bianchi, 2011; Regnier et al., 2013). Soil 74 solution DOC in forests is connected to streams through different hydrological pathways: 75 DOC mobilized in the forest floor may be transported laterally at the interface of forest floor 76 and mineral soil to surface waters or percolates into the mineral soil, where additional DOC 77 can be mobilized and/or DOC is partly adsorbed on particle surfaces and mineralized 78 thereafter. From the mineral soil DOC may be either leached laterally or vertically via 79 groundwater into surface waters (Mcdowell and Likens, 1988). Therefore, it could be

80 expected that long-term dynamics of DOC in ecosystem soil solutions mirror those observed

81 in surface waters.

82 Drivers related to climate change (temperature increase, precipitation change, atmospheric

83 CO₂ increase), the decrease in acidifying deposition or land use change and management may

84 individually or jointly explain trends in surface water DOC concentrations (Evans et al.,

85 2012; Freeman et al., 2004; Oulehle et al., 2011; Sarkkola et al., 2009; Worrall and Burt,

86 2004). Increasing air temperatures warm the soil, thus stimulating soil organic matter (SOM)

87 decomposition through greater microbial activity (Davidson and Janssens, 2006; Hartley and

88 Ineson, 2008; Kalbitz et al., 2000). Other drivers, such as increased atmospheric CO₂ and the

89 accumulation of atmospherically deposited inorganic nitrogen are thought to increase the

90 sources of DOC by enhancing primary plant productivity (i.e., through stimulating root

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91 exudates, litterfall) (Sucker and Krause, 2010). Changes in precipitation, land use and 92 management (e.g. drainage of peatlands, changes in forest management or grazing systems) 93 may alter the flux of DOC leaving the ecosystem but no consistent trends in the hydrologic 94 regime or due to land use changes were detected in areas where increasing DOC trends have 95 been observed (Monteith et al., 2007). 96 Recent focus was mainly on decreasing acidifying deposition as an explanatory factor for 97 DOC increases in surface waters in Europe and North America by means of decreasing ionic 98 strength (Hruška et al., 2009) and increasing the pH of soil solution, consequently increasing 99 DOC solubility (Evans et al., 2005; Haaland et al., 2010; Monteith et al., 2007). Although the 100 hypothesis of an increase in surface water DOC concentration due to a recovery from past 101 acidification was confirmed in studies of soil solution DOC in the UK and Northern Belgium 102 (Vanguelova et al., 2010; Verstraeten et al., 2014), it is not consistent with observed trends in 103 soil solution DOC concentrations measured in Finnish, Norwegian, and Swedish forests 104 (Löfgren and Zetterberg, 2011; Ukonmaanaho et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2010). This 105 inconsistency between soil solution DOC and stream DOC trends could suggest that DOC in 106 surface water and soil solution responds differently to (changes in) environmental conditions 107 in different regions (Akselsson et al., 2013; Clark et al., 2010; Löfgren et al., 2010). 108 Alternatively, other factors such as tree species and soil type, may be co-governing organic 109 matter dynamics and input, generation and retention of DOC in soils. 110 Trends of soil solution DOC not only vary among forests but often also within the same site 111 (Löfgren et al., 2010). Forest characteristics such as tree species composition, soil fertility, 112 texture or sorption capacity may affect the response of soil solution DOC to environmental 113 controls, for instance, by controlling the rate of soil acidification through soil buffering and 114 nutrient plant uptake processes (Vanguelova et al., 2010). Within a site, DOC variability with 115 soil depth is typically caused by different intensity of DOC production, transformation and 116 sorption along the soil profile. Positive temporal trends in soil solution DOC (increasing 117 concentrations over time) are frequently reported for the organic layers and shallow soils 118 where production and decomposition processes control the DOC concentration (Löfgren and 119 Zetterberg, 2011). However, no dominant trends are found for the mineral soil horizons, 120 where physico-chemical processes, such as sorption, become more influential (Borken et al., 121 2011; Buckingham et al., 2008). Furthermore, previous studies have used different temporal 122 and spatial scales which may have further added to the inconsistency in the DOC trends 123 reported in the literature (Clark et al., 2010).

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124 In this context, the International Co-operative Programme on Assessment and Monitoring of 125 Air Pollution Effects on Forests (ICP Forests, 2010) compiled a unique dataset containing 126 data from more than 100 intensively monitored forest plots (Level II) which allow to unravel 127 regional trends in soil solution DOC of forests at European scale, and perform statistical 128 analysis of the main controls behind these regional trends. Long-term measurements of soil 129 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 130 harmonized sampling protocol across Europe (Ferretti and Fischer, 2013). This dataset has 131 132 previously been used to investigate the spatial variability of DOC in forests at European scale (Camino-Serrano et al., 2014), but an assessment of the temporal trends in soil solution DOC 133 134 using this large dataset has not been attempted so far. The main objective of this study was to 135 understand the long-term temporal trends of DOC concentrations in soil solution measured at 136 the ICP Forests Level II plots across Europe. Based on the increasing DOC trends in surface 137 water, we hypothesized that temporal trends in soil solution DOC would also be positive, but with trends varying locally depending on plot characteristics. We further investigated whether 138 plot characteristics, specifically climate, inorganic N and SO_4^{2-} deposition loads, forest type, 139 140 soil properties, and changes in soil solution chemistry can explain differences across sites in 141 DOC trends.

2 Materials and Methods

143 **2.1 Data description**

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144 Soil solution chemistry has been monitored within the ICP Forests Programme since the 145 1990s on most Level II plots. The ICP Forests data were extracted from the pan-European Forest Monitoring Database (Granke, 2013). A list of the Level II plots used for this study 146 147 can be found in Supplementary material S1, Table S1. The methods for collection and 148 analysis of soil solution used in the various countries (Switzerland: Graf Pannatier et al. 149 (2011); 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, 150 151 2011). Generally, lysimeters were installed at several fixed depth intervals starting at 0 cm, 152 defined as the interface between the surface organic layer and underlying mineral soil. These 153 depths are typically aligned with soil "organic layer", "mineral topsoil", "mineral subsoil" 154 and "deeper mineral soil" but sampling depths vary among countries and even among plots 155 within a country. Normally, zero-tension lysimeters were installed under the surface organic

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156 layer and tension lysimeters within the mineral soil. However, in some countries zero-tension 157 lysimeters were also used within the mineral layers and in some tension lysimeters below the 158 organic layer. Multiple collectors (replicates) were installed per plot and per depth to assess 159 plots spatial variability. However, in some countries, samples from these replicates were 160 pooled before analyses or averaged prior to data transmission. The quality assurance and 161 control procedures included the use of control charts for internal reference material to check 162 long-term comparability within national laboratories as well as participation in periodic laboratory ring tests (e.g., Marchetto et al., 2011) to check the international comparability. 163 164 Data were reported annually to the pan-European data center, checked for consistency and 165 stored in the pan-European Forest Monitoring Database (Granke, 2013). 166 Soil water was usually collected fortnightly or monthly, although for some plots sampling 167 periods with sufficient soil water for collection were scarce, especially in prolonged dry 168 periods or in winter due to snow and ice. After collection, the samples were filtered through a 0.45 µm membrane filter, stored below 4 °C and then analyzed for DOC, together with other 169 soil solution chemical properties (NO₃, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, NH₄, SO₄-2, total dissolved Al, total 170 171 dissolved Fe, pH, electrical conductivity). The precision of DOC analysis differed among the 172 laboratories. The coefficient of variation of repeatedly measured reference material was 3.7% 173 on average. The time span of soil solution time series used for this study ranged from 1991 to 174 2011, although coverage of this period varied from plot to plot (Supplementary material S1, 175 Table S1). 176 Soil properties, bulk and throughfall atmospheric deposition of NO₃, NH₄⁺ and SO₄², 177 meteorological variables and stem volume increment were also measured at the plots. Stem 178 volume growth was calculated by the ICP Forests network from diameter at breast height 179 (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 1990. Tree stem 180 volumes were derived from allometric relationships based on diameter and height 181 measurements according to De Vries et al. (2003), accounting for species and regional 182 183 differences. Stem volume growth (in m³) between two consecutive inventories was calculated 184 as the difference between stem volumes at the beginning and the end of one inventory period 185 for living trees. Stem volume data were corrected for all trees that were lost during one 186 inventory period, including thinning. Stem volume at the time of disappearance (assumed at 187 half of the time of the inventory period) was estimated from functions relating stem volume 188 of standing living trees at the end of the period vs volume at the beginning of the period. The

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189 methods used for collection of these data can be found in the Manuals of the ICP Forests

190 Monitoring Programme (ICP Forests, 2010). The soil properties at the plots used for this

study were derived from the ICP Forests aggregated soil database (AFSCDB.LII.2.1) (Cools

192 and De Vos, 2014).

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193 Since continuous precipitation measurements are not commonly available for the Level II

194 plots, precipitation measurements for the location of the plots were extracted from the

observational station data of the European Climate Assessment & Dataset (ECA&D) and the

196 ENSEMBLES Observations (E-OBS) gridded dataset (Haylock et al., 2008). We used

precipitation measurements extracted from the E-OBS gridded dataset to improve the

198 temporal and spatial coverage and to reduce methodological differences of precipitation

199 measurements across the plots. The E-OBS dataset contains daily values of precipitation and

200 temperature from stations data gridded at 0.25 degrees resolution. When E-OBS data was not

201 available, it was gap-filled with ICP Forests precipitation values gained by deposition

202 measurements where available (open field bulk deposition or throughfall deposition).

2.2 Data preparation

We extracted data from plots with time series covering more than 10 years and including

205 more than 60 observations of soil solution DOC concentrations of individual or groups of

206 collectors. Outliers, defined as \pm 3 interquartile range of the 25 and 75 quantiles of the time

207 series, were removed from each time series to avoid influence of few extreme values in the

208 long-term trend (Schwertman et al., 2004). Values under 1 mg L⁻¹, which is the detection

209 limit for DOC in the ICP Level II plots, were replaced by 1 mg L⁻¹. After this filtering, 529

210 time series from 118 plots, spanning from Italy to Norway, were available for analysis. Soil

211 solution, precipitation, and temperature were aggregated to monthly data by the median of the

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⁻ canopy throughfall and open field bulk deposition

measured at the plots were interpolated to monthly data (Waldner et al., 2014).

215 The plots were classified according to their forest type (broadleaved/coniferous dominated),

216 soil type (World Reference Base, Reference Soil Group (WRB 2006)), their stem growth

217 (slow, $< 6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, intermediate, $6-12 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; and fast, $> 12 \text{ m}^3 \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), and soil pH

218 (low, <4.2, intermediate, 4.2-5, high, >5). Plots were also classified based on throughfall

219 inorganic N (NO₃⁻+NH₄⁺) deposition level, defined as: high deposition (HD, >15 kg N ha⁻¹

220 yr⁻¹), medium deposition (MD, 5–15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and low deposition (LD, <5 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹

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221 1) and throughfall SO_4^{2-} level, defined as: high deposition (HD, >6 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and low

deposition (LD, $< 6 \text{ kg S ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$).

2.3 Statistical methods

The sequence of methods applied is summarized in Fig. 1. The analysis of temporal trends in

225 soil solution DOC concentrations was carried out at two levels: 1) the European level and 2)

the plot level of each individual time series. While the first analysis allows an evaluation of

227 the overall trend in soil solution DOC at a continental scale, the second analysis indicates

whether the observed large scale trends are occurring at local scales as well, and tests whether

local trends in DOC can be attributed to certain driver variables.

230 Linear mixed-effects models (LMM) were used to detect the temporal trends in soil solution

231 DOC concentration at the European scale (Fig. 1). For these models, the selected 529 time

232 series were used. For the trend analysis of individual time series, however, we focused on the

233 investigation of the potential long-term trends in soil solution DOC at European forests that

show monotonicity. Therefore, DOC time series were first analyzed using the Breaks For

235 Additive Seasonal and Trend (BFAST) algorithm to detect the presence of breakpoints

(Verbesselt et al., 2010) with the time series showing breakpoints, i.e., not monotonic, being

discarded (Supplementary material S2.2.) (Fig. 1). Then, monotonic trend analyses were

238 carried out using the Seasonal Mann Kendall (SMK) test for monthly DOC concentrations

239 (Hirsch et al., 1982; Marchetto et al., 2013). Partial Mann Kendall (PMK) tests were also

used to test the influence of precipitation as a 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

243 filtered dataset to compare results with and without time series showing breakpoints (Fig. 1).

244 For this study, five 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 of

each time series were standardized by dividing them by the median DOC concentration over

247 the sampling period, aggregated to a unique plot-soil depth slope and classified by the

248 direction of the trend as significantly positive (P, p < 0.05), significantly negative (N, p <

249 0.05), and non-significant (NS, $p \ge 0.05$). When there was more than one collector per depth,

250 the median of the slopes was used when the direction of the trend (P, N, or NS) was similar.

When the different trends at the same plot-soil depth combination were either P and NS, or N

and NS, it was marked as "Weighted positive" and "Weighted negative" to indicate that there

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soil solution parameters (NO₃⁻, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻, total dissolved Al, total dissolved Fe, pH, electrical conductivity), precipitation and temperature were calculated using the same methodology as for DOC. Finally, two multivariate statistical analyses were performed, General Discriminant Analysis (GDA) and Structural Equation Models (SEM), to investigate the main factors explaining differences in DOC trends among the selected plots (Fig. 1). All the statistical analyses were performed in R software version 3.1.2 (R Core Team, 2014)

was potential predominant direction of the trend but with less significance. Trends for other

using the "rkt" (Marchetto et al., 2013), "bfast01" (de Jong et al., 2013) and "sem" (Fox et

al., 2013) packages, except for the GDA that was performed using Statistica 8.0 (StatSoft,

262 Inc. Tule, Oklahoma, USA) and the LMMs that were performed using SAS 9.3 (SAS

institute, Inc., Cary, NC, USA). More detailed information on the statistical methods used can

be found in Supplementary material S2.

265 3 Results

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3.1 Soil solution DOC trends at European scale

267 First, temporal trends in DOC were analyzed for all the European DOC data pooled together

268 by means of LMM models to test for the presence of overall trends. A significantly increasing

269 DOC trend (p<0.05) in soil solution collected with zero-tension lysimeters in the organic

270 layer was observed mainly under coniferous forest plots (Table 1). Similarly, a significantly

271 increasing DOC trend (p<0.05) in DOC for soil solution collected with tension lysimeters

was found in deep mineral horizon (>80cm) for all sites, but mainly for coniferous forest sites

273 (Table 1). By contrast, non-significant trends were found in other mineral horizons (0-20 cm,

274 20-40 cm, 40-80 cm) by means of the LMM models. When the same analysis was applied to

the filtered European dataset, i.e., without the time series including breakpoints (see Sect.

276 3.2), fewer significant trends were observed: only an overall positive trend was found for

277 DOC in the organic layer using zero-tension lysimeters, again mainly under coniferous forest

sites but no statistically significant trends were found in the mineral soil (Table 1).

3.2 Soil solution DOC trend analysis of individual time series

280 3.2.1 Comparison of methods of individual trend analysis

We applied the BFAST analysis to select the monotonic time series in order to assure that the

overall detected trends were not influenced by breakpoints in the time series. Time series

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283 with breakpoints represented more than 50% of the total time series aggregated by soil depth 284 interval (245 out of 436). In total, 191 plot-soil depth combinations from 97 plots were 285 analyzed after filtering out the time series showing breakpoints and 94% of the analyzed plot-286 depth combinations showed consistent trends among replicates collected at the same depth. In 287 contrast, when also considering the time series with breakpoints, the trends calculated for plot-depth combinations agreed only in 75% of the cases implying that the proportion of 288 289 contradictory trends within plot-depth combinations increased from 6% in the dataset without breakpoints to 25% in the entire dataset (Fig. 2). For both datasets, the majority of the trends 290 291 were not statistically significant (44% and 41%, for the dataset with and without breakpoints, 292 respectively). In other words, filtering the time series for breakpoints reduced the within-plot 293 variability, while most of the plots showed similar aggregated trends per plot-depth 294 combinations. For this reason, the results discussed from here on correspond only to the 295 trends of monotonic (breakpoint filtered) time series of soil solution DOC concentrations. 296 There was a good agreement between results using the three methods: BFAST, SMK, and

301 PMK agreed well.

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302 For virtually all plots, including precipitation as a co-variable in the PMK test gave the same

PMK (Table 2). The direction and significance of the trend agreed for 84.5% of the time

series analyzed. For the majority of the remaining time series for which the trends did not

agree, BFAST did not detect a trend when SMK and PMK did, thus, the latter two methods

seemed more sensitive for trend detection than BFAST. Trends computed with SMK and

303 result as the SMK test, which indicates that precipitation (through dilution or concentration

304 effects) did not affect the DOC concentration trends. Dilution/concentration effect was only

detected in four plots (Supplementary material S1, Table S1).

3.2.2 Soil solution DOC concentration trends using the SMK test

307 The individual trend analysis using the SMK test showed temporal slopes of soil solution DOC concentration ranging from -16.8% yr⁻¹ to +23% yr⁻¹ (median= +0.4% yr⁻¹, interquartile 308 range = +4.3% yr⁻¹). Among all the time series analyzed, the majority were not statistically 309 310 significant trends (40%, 104 time series), followed by significantly positive trends (35%, 91 311 time series) and significantly negative trends (24%, 63 time series) (Table 2). There was, 312 thus, no uniform trend in soil solution DOC in forests across a large part of Europe. Although 313 a slight tendency of increasing trends in central and decreasing trends in north and south 314 Europe was observed (Fig. 3), the uneven number of analyzed time series for each country

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- 315 (few in Austria, Italy or Finland and many in Germany) made it difficult to draw firm
- 316 conclusions about the spatial pattern of the trends in soil solution DOC concentrations in
- 317 Europe. Furthermore, the regional trend differences were inconsistent when looking at
- 318 different soil depth intervals separately (Fig. 4 and 5).
- The variability in trends was high, not only at continental scale, but also at plot level (Fig. 6).
- We found consistent within-plot trends only for 50 out of the 97 sites. Moreover, some plots
- 321 even showed different trends (P, N or NS) in DOC within the same depth interval, which was
- 322 the case for 17 plot-depth combinations (16 in Germany and one in Norway), evidencing a
- 323 high small-scale plot heterogeneity.
- 324 Trend directions often differed among depths. For instance, in the organic layer, we found
- mainly non-significant trends and, when a trend was detected, it was more often positive than
- 326 negative, while positive trends were the most frequent in the subsoil (below 40 cm) (Table 2).
- 327 Nevertheless, it is important to note that a statistical test of whether there was a real
- 328 difference in DOC trends between depths was not possible as the set of plots differed
- 329 between the different soil depth intervals. However, a visual comparison of trends for the few
- 330 plots in which trends were evaluated for more than three soil depths showed that, at first
- 331 sight, there was no difference in DOC trends between soil depths (Supplementary material
- 332 S3, Fig. S1 and S2).

333 3.3 Factors explaining the direction and slopes of the soil solution DOC

- 334 trends
- 335 A stratification of the forests into broadleaved and coniferous forest revealed no direct effect
- 336 of forest type on the direction of the statistically significant trends in soil solution DOC (Fig.
- 337 7C). Both positive and negative trends were equally found under broadleaved and coniferous
- forests ($\chi^2(1, n = 97) = 0.073$, p = 0.8). Increasing DOC trends, however, occurred more often
- under forests with a mean stem growth less than 6 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ over the study period, whereas
- 340 decreasing DOC trends were more often associated with forests with a mean stem growth
- between 6 and 12 m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ ($\gamma^2(2, n = 53) = 5.8, p = 0.05$) (Fig. 7D).
- Mean annual throughfall SO_4^{2-} and inorganic N deposition both had a significant effect on the
- 343 direction of the trends in soil solution DOC (Fig. 7A, 7B). Increasing trends were more
- 344 frequent in forests with high or medium inorganic N deposition than in forests with low
- inorganic N deposition where only decreasing trends were found $(\chi^2(2, N = 57) = 9.58, p =$

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346 0.008). Correspondingly, the probability of positive trends in soil solution DOC was higher at high inorganic N deposition loads (Fig. 8A). Also throughfall SO_4^{2-} deposition significantly 347 influenced the direction of the trend in soil solution DOC, with more positive trends found for 348 sites with high mean throughfall SO₄²⁻ deposition (> 6 kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) than for sites with low 349 SO_4^{2-} deposition ($\chi^2(1, N = 57) = 8.75, p = 0.003$). However, while there were also relatively 350 more positive trends at high and medium SO_4^{2-} than at low SO_4^{2-} , this pattern is less clear 351 352 than for inorganic N deposition (Fig. 8B). 353 Regarding the soil properties, more than half of the plots showing a consistent increasing 354 DOC trend at all evaluated soil depth intervals were located in Cambisols, (6 out of 11 plots), 355 which are rather fertile soils, whereas plots showing consistent negative trends covered six 356 different soil types. Other soil properties, like clay content, cation exchange capacity or pH, did not clearly differ between sites with positive and negative DOC trends (Table 3). It is 357 remarkable that trends in soil solution pH, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ concentrations were similar across 358 plots with both positive and negative DOC trends. Soil solution pH increased distinctly in 359 almost all the sites, while Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ decreased markedly (Table 3). However, we found 360 evidence that soil acidity controlled the SO₄²-deposition effect on the trends of DOC in soil 361 solution (Fig. 9). In very acid soils, a higher mean SO_4^{2-} deposition enhanced the temporal 362 increase in soil solution DOC, while in less acid soils, there was no significant effect of mean 363 SO₄²⁻ on DOC trends. Finally, no significant correlations were found between trends in 364 temperature or precipitation and trends in soil solution DOC, with the exception of an 365 increasing trend in temperature in the soil depth interval 20-40 cm (r = 0.47, p = 0.03). 366 367 Results from the GDA analysis showed a marginally significant separation of plot-soil depth combinations with negative and positive DOC trends (p = 0.06) (Fig. 10). Median soil 368 solution conductivity, median soil solution NO₃, and median soil solution SO₄² were 369 significant in the model and thus played an important role in the distinction between positive 370 371 and negative DOC trends (Table 4). The fitted GDA model was able to predict 63.1% of the 372 variance in DOC trends within the first axis (Fig. 10). 373 To test whether the influence of stem growth and soil solution chemistry was related to the effect of SO₄²⁻ and/or NO₃⁻ deposition on soil solution DOC, we applied SEM to determine 374 the capacity of these variables in explaining variability in the slope of DOC trends. We 375 evaluated the influence of both the annual mean (kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and the trends (% yr⁻¹) in 376 deposition and soil solution parameters. 377

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3.3.1 Effects of mean deposition and soil solution parameters

- 379 Analyzing different models that could explain the DOC trends using the overall dataset
- indicated both direct and indirect effects of the annual mean SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} throughfall
- atmospheric deposition on the slopes of DOC trends. The SEM accounted for 32.7% of the
- variance in DOC trend slopes (Fig. 11A). This model identified a significantly negative direct
- effect of SO₄²- deposition on trends in soil solution DOC. On the other hand, throughfall NO₃
- deposition had a significantly positive direct effect on DOC trends (Fig. 11A).
- 385 The variables in the model that best explained temporal changes in DOC were the same for
- 386 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
- 388 in DOC (Fig. 11B). Mean SO₄²⁻ deposition again had a significant negative effect on DOC
- 389 slopes, while NO₃ deposition had a significantly positive effect. The percentage of variance
- 390 in DOC trend slopes explained by the model was 33%. For the plots with high N deposition,
- however, we found no model for explaining the trends in DOC using the mean annual SO_4^{2-}
- and NO₃ throughfall deposition.

3.3.2 Effects of trends in deposition and soil solution parameters

- When the SEM is applied using the trends in SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ deposition instead of the mean
- values, a positive significant effect of trend in NO₃ and a negative of SO₄² deposition were
- 396 also apparent, but the latter was non-significant (Supplementary material S4, Fig. S3A).
- 397 However, the percentage of variance in DOC trend slopes explained by the model was now
- much lower (16%). The SEM applied with the trends in SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} throughfall
- 399 deposition for forests with low and medium N deposition explained 24.4% of the variance of
- 400 DOC trends, and showed a significantly negative effect of trends in SO₄²⁻ deposition on
- 401 trends in DOC (Supplementary material S4, Fig. S3B).
- 402 For the forests with high N deposition, the best model used the relative trends in SO_4^2 , NO_3
- deposition and in median soil solution conductivity (% yr⁻¹) as explaining variables (Fig.
- 404 11C). The relative trend slopes of NO₃ were positively related to the DOC trend slopes. Also
- both the trend slopes of SO₄² and NO₃ deposition affected the trend slopes of DOC
- 406 indirectly through an effect on the trends of soil solution conductivity, although acting in
- 407 opposite directions: while trends in NO₃ deposition negatively affected the trends on soil
- 408 solution conductivity, trends in SO_4^{2-} deposition had a marginally significant positive effect
- 409 (p=0.06) on the trends on soil solution conductivity. The trends in conductivity, in turn,

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- 410 positively affected the trend slopes of DOC. The percentage of the variance in DOC trend
- slopes explained by the model was 25% (Fig. 11C).
- 412 In summary, long-term trends in soil solution DOC were negatively related to mean SO₄²-
- 413 deposition (except for sites with high N deposition, where the effects of mean and trends in
- 414 SO₄²⁻ deposition were not significant, Fig. 11A and 11B versus 11C) and positively related to
- N deposition (Fig. 11). Also, trends in soil solution DOC were negatively correlated with
- 416 trends in SO₄²⁻ deposition when the N deposition was low or intermediate (Supplementary
- 417 material S4, Fig. S3).

418 4 Discussion

419

4.1 Trend analysis of soil solution DOC in Europe

420 4.1.1 Are the many non-significant trends real?

421 Non-significant trends dominated the site-level DOC concentrations across the ICP Forests 422 network. Measurement precision, strength of the trend, and the choice of the method may all 423 affect trend detection (Sulkava et al., 2005; Waldner et al., 2014). Evidently, strong trends are 424 easier to detect than weak trends. To detect a weak trend, either very long time series or very 425 accurate and precise data are needed. The quality of the data is assured within the ICP Forests 426 by means of repeated ring tests that are required for all participating laboratories and the 427 accuracy of the data has been improved considerably over an eight years period (Ferretti and 428 König, 2013; König et al., 2013). However, the precision and accuracy of the dataset still 429 varies across countries and plots. By filtering out the time series with breakpoints and 430 removing outliers, we improved the overall quality of the data, and thus guaranteed that the 431 detected positive and negative trends were factual at a 0.05 significance level. Nevertheless, 432 we found a majority of non-significant trends. For these cases, we cannot state with certainty 433 that DOC did not change over time: it might be that the trend was not strong enough to be 434 detected, or that the data quality was insufficient for the period length available for the trend 435 analysis (more than 9 years in all the cases). For example, the mixed-effects models detected 436 a positive trend in the organic layer, and while many of the individual time series measured in 437 the organic layer also showed a positive trend, most were classified as non-significant trends (Fig. 4). This probably led to an underestimation of trends that separately might not be strong 438 439 enough to be detected by the individual trend analysis but combined with the other European

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data these sites may contribute to an overall trend of increasing DOC concentrations in soils

441 of European forests.

442 The uncertainty in the interpretation of the non-significant trends was compensated by using

the SMK and PMK tests applied to monthly data for the trend analysis, which can detect

444 weaker trends (Marchetto et al., 2013; Waldner et al., 2014). In summary, while there is

probability (at p<0.05) that the detected statistically significant trends are genuine and not

446 influenced by artifacts in the time series, the group of non-significant trends in DOC might

447 well contain plots with significant trends that could not (yet) be detected statistically.

Nevertheless, the selected trend analysis technique is the most suitable to detect weak trends,

thus reducing the chances of hidden trends within the non-significant trends category.

4.1.2 Analysis of breakpoints in the time series

451 Soil solution DOC time series measured with lysimeters are subject to possible interruptions

of monotonicity, which is manifested by breakpoints. For instance, installation effect,

453 collector replacement, local forest management, disturbance by small animals, or by single or

454 repeated canopy insect infestations may disrupt DOC concentrations through abrupt soil

455 disturbances and/or enhanced throughfall chemical input to soil (Akselsson et al., 2013;

456 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 not

458 available for the majority of Level II plots, which hinders selection of individual monotonic

459 time series based on specific site conditions. The BFAST analysis allowed us to filter out

460 time series affected by local disturbances (natural or artefacts) from the dataset and retain

461 time series that represented monotonic trends. Thereby, we removed some of the within-plot

variability (Fig. 2) that might be caused by local factors not directly explaining the long-term

463 monotonic trends in DOC and thus complicating or confounding the trend analysis (Clark et

464 al., 2010).

465 In view of these results, we recommend that testing for monotonicity of the individual time

series is a necessary first step in this type of analyses and that the breakpoint analysis is an

467 appropriate tool to filter large datasets prior to analyzing the long-term temporal trends in

468 DOC concentrations. It is worth mentioning that, since our main goal was to study general

469 monotonic trends, we did not focus on finding the direct causes of breakpoints in time series.

470 Further work is needed to interpret the causes of these abrupt changes and verify if these are

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471 artefacts or mechanisms, since they may also contain useful information on local factors

472 affecting DOC trends, such as forest management or extreme events (Tetzlaff et al., 2007).

4.1.3 Variability in soil solution DOC trends within plots

Even after removing sites with breakpoints in the time series, within-plot variability remained 474

high (median within-plot range: 3.3% yr⁻¹), with different trends observed for different 475

collectors from the same plot (Fig. 6). This high small-scale variability in soil solution DOC 476

477 makes it difficult to draw conclusions about long-term DOC trends from individual site

478 measurements, particularly in plots with heterogeneous soil and site conditions (Löfgren et

al., 2010). 479

480 The trends in soil solution DOC also varied across soil depth intervals. The mixed-effect

481 models suggested an increasing trend in soil solution DOC concentration in the organic layer,

482 and an increasing trend in soil solution DOC concentration under 80 cm depth when the

entire dataset (with breakpoints) was analyzed. The individual trend analyses seemed to

484 confirm the increasing trend under the organic layer (Table 1), while more heterogeneous

485 trends in the 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; Vanguelova et

487 al., 2010). This difference has been attributed to different processes affecting DOC in the

489 have a more direct effect in the organic layer where interaction between DOC and mineral

organic and shallow soils and in the subsoil. External factors such as acid deposition may

490 phases is less important compared to deeper layers of the mineral soil (Fröberg et al., 2006).

491 However, DOC measurements are not available for all depths at each site, complicating the

492 comparison of trends across soil depth intervals. Hence, the depth-effect on trends in soil

solution DOC cannot be consistently addressed within this study (see Supplementary material

494 S3).

495 Finally, the direction of the trends in soil solution DOC concentrations did not follow a clear

496 regional pattern across Europe (Fig. 4 and 5) and even contrasted with other soil solution

parameters that showed widespread trends over Europe, such as decreasing SO_4^{2-} and 497

498 increasing pH. This finding indicates that effects of environmental controls on soil solution

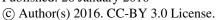
499 DOC concentrations may differ depending on local factors like soil type (e.g., soil acidity) as

500 well as site and stand characteristics (e.g., tree growth or acidification history). Thus, the

501 trends in DOC in soil solution appear to be an outcome of interactions between controls

502 acting at local and regional scales.

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4.2 Controls on soil solution DOC temporal trends

4.2.1 Vegetation

506 or catchment level, are particularly important when studying soil solution as plant-derived 507 carbon is the main source of DOC (Harrison et al., 2008). Stem growth was available only for 508 53 sites as the increment between inventories carried out every five years, and as such no 509 annual growth estimates were available. Nevertheless, our results suggest that vegetation 510 growth is an important driver of DOC temporal dynamics in forests, as reported for peatlands 511 (Billett et al., 2010; Dinsmore et al., 2013). Differences in DOC temporal trends across all

Biological controls on DOC production and consumption, like stem growth, operating at site

512

soil depths were not related to forest type but to stem growth: more fertile plots, as indicated 513 by higher stem volume increment, exhibited more often decreasing trends in DOC (Fig. 7 and

514 11), possibly in response to reduced C allocation to belowground nutrient acquisition system

515 (Vicca et al., 2012).

516 It is well-established that N-enrichment favors the above-ground tissue production (as

517 indicated by a higher stem volume increment) in forests (Janssens et al., 2010; Vicca et al.,

518 2012) at the expense of C allocation to the root system, hence, reducing an important source

519 of belowground DOC. On the other hand, forests with higher production would also have

higher aboveground litterfall (Hansen et al., 2009), providing a higher input of labile carbon

521 as a source for DOC leaching. Nevertheless, fertile forests may exhibit a higher microbial use

522 efficiency, which may lead to proportionally more DOC being consumed, i.e., less DOC

523 remaining in soil solution (Manzoni et al., 2012). Also, compared to vigorously growing

524 forests with dense canopies, slower forest growth with less dense canopies have less

525 interception and higher soil water input, which could stimulate litter decomposition and thus

526 DOC production. Finally, forest growth might indirectly affect DOC trends through changes

527 in soil solution chemistry (via cation uptake) (Vanguelova et al., 2007), but our data did not

528 allow to test these pathways and thus the DOC response to vegetation uptake remains

529 hypothetical.

4.2.2 Acidifying deposition

Decreased atmospheric SO₄²⁻ deposition and accumulation of atmospherically deposited N 531

532 were hypothesized to increase DOC in European surface waters over the last 20 years (Evans

533 et al., 2005; Hruška et al., 2009; Monteith et al., 2007). Sulphate and inorganic N deposition Biogeosciences Discuss., doi:10.5194/bg-2015-632, 2016

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- decreased in Europe over the past decades (Waldner et al., 2014) but trends in soil solution
- 535 DOC concentrations varied largely, with increases, decreases, as well as steady states being
- 536 observed across respectively 56, 41 and 77 time series in European forests (Fig. 4 and 5).
- Although we could not demonstrate a direct effect of trends in SO_4^{2-} and inorganic N
- 538 deposition on the trends of soil solution DOC concentration, we observed a switch in the
- direction of the DOC trends according to the mean SO₄² and inorganic N deposition levels
- 540 (Fig. 7 and 8), with increasing soil solution DOC trends occurring more often in plots with
- high N and, to a lesser extent, SO_4^{2-} deposition. This suggests an interaction between the
- deposition load and the mechanisms underlying the temporal change of soil solution DOC.

Inorganic nitrogen

543

- 544 Our results suggest that at sites with lower N deposition and lower soil NO₃, DOC
- 545 concentration in the soil solution is predominantly decreasing (Fig. 8A and 10) and in these
- forests, we showed that decreasing trends in SO_4^{2-} deposition coincided with increasing
- 547 trends in soil solution DOC (Fig. S3). The role of atmospheric N deposition in increasing
- 548 DOC leaching from soils has been well documented (Bragazza et al., 2006; Pregitzer et al.,
- 549 2004; Rosemond et al., 2015). The mechanisms behind this relationship are either physico-
- 550 chemical or biological. Chemical changes in soil solution through the increase of NO₃ ions
- can trigger desorption of DOC (Pregitzer et al., 2004), and biotic forest responses to N
- 552 deposition, namely, enhanced photosynthesis, altered carbon allocation, and reduced soil
- microbial activity (Bragazza et al., 2006; de Vries et al., 2009; Janssens et al., 2010), can
- affect the final amount of DOC in the soil. One proposed mechanism is incomplete lignin
- degradation and greater production of DOC in response to increased soil NH₄⁺ (Pregitzer et
- al., 2004; Zech et al., 1994). Alternatively, N-induced reductions of forest heterotrophic
- respiration (Janssens et al., 2010) may lead to greater accumulation of DOC.

Sulphate

558

- Similar to our observation for soil solution DOC, decreasing SO_4^{2-} deposition has been linked
- 560 to increasing surface water DOC (Evans et al., 2006; Monteith et al., 2007; Oulehle and
- Hruska, 2009). Sulphate deposition triggers soil acidification and a subsequent release of Al³⁺
- 562 in acid soils. The amount of Al3+ 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, suppress DOC solubility, therefore decreasing
- 565 DOC concentrations in soil solution (de Wit et al., 2001; Tipping and Woof, 1991;

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Vanguelova et al., 2010), and 2) at higher levels of soil solution Al³⁺ in combination with low 566 pH, DOC production through SOM decomposition decreases due to toxicity of Al3+ to soil 567 organisms (Mulder et al., 2001). Consequently, when SO_4^{2-} deposition is lower, increases of 568 soil solution DOC concentration could be expected (Fig. 11A, B). Finally, an indirect effect 569 570 of plant response to nutrient-limited acidified soil could also contribute to the trend in soil 571 solution DOC by changes to plant belowground C allocation (Vicca et al., 2012) (see Sect. 572 4.2.1.). The SO₄²-deposition effect on the trends of DOC in soil solution depended on the soil acidity 573 (Fig. 9). Moreover, the soil chemical characteristics, more specifically the soil solution 574 575 conductivity (which is an indirect measure of ionic strength (Griffin and Jurinak, 1973)), and the soil solution NO₃ and SO₄² concentrations, were the most important factors determining 576 whether DOC concentrations increased or decreased over time (Fig. 10). 577 578 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 579 strength of the soil solution and the presence of Al³⁺ and Fe (Bolan et al., 2011; De Wit et al., 580 2007; Schwesig et al., 2003). These conditions are modulated by changes in atmospheric 581 582 deposition but not uniformly across sites: soils differ in acid-buffering capacity (Tian and Niu, 2015), and the response of DOC concentrations to changes in SO_4^{2-} deposition will thus 583 be a function of the initial soil acidification and buffer range (Fig. 9 and 11). Finally, 584 585 modifications of soil properties induced by changes in atmospheric deposition are probably 586 an order of magnitude lower than the spatial variation of these soil properties across sites, 587 making it difficult to isolate controlling factors on the final observed response of soil solution 588 DOC at continental scale (Clark et al., 2010). 589 In conclusion, the response of DOC to changes in atmospheric deposition seems to be 590 controlled by the past and present N deposition loads and acidification of soils (Clark et al., 2010; Evans et al., 2012; Tian and Niu, 2015). It suggests that the mechanisms of recovery 591 from SO₄²-deposition and acidification take place only in non-N-saturated forests, as it has 592 593 been observed for N deposition effects (de Vries et al., 2009). In high N deposition areas, it is 594 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. Therefore, soil solution 595 DOC concentrations responded as expected to changes in acid deposition, particularly in non 596 597 N-saturated sites but the hypothesis of recovery from acidity cannot fully explain overall 598 trends in Europe, as was also previously suggested in local or national studies of long-term

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trends in soil solution DOC (Löfgren et al., 2010; Stutter et al., 2011; Ukonmaanaho et al.,

600 2014; Verstraeten et al., 2014).

601 Finally, our results confirm the long-term monotonic trends of DOC in soil solution as a

602 consequence of the interactions between local (soil properties, forest growth), and regional

603 (atmospheric deposition) controls acting at different temporal scales. However, further work

604 is needed to quantify the role of each mechanism underlying the final response of soil

solution DOC to environmental controls. We recommend that particular attention should be

paid to the biological controls (e.g., net primary production, stem growth, root exudates or

607 litterfall and canopy infestations) on long-term trends in soil solution DOC, which remains

608 poorly understood.

609

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4.3 Link between DOC trends in soil and streams

610 An underlying question is how DOC trends in soil solution relate to DOC trends in stream

waters. Several studies have pointed out recovery from acidification as a cause for increasing

trends in DOC concentrations in surface waters (Dawson et al., 2009; Evans et al., 2012;

Monteith et al., 2007; Skjelkvåle et al., 2003). Overall, our results point to a noticeable

increasing trend in DOC in the organic layer of forest soils, which is qualitatively consistent

615 with the increasing trends found in stream waters and in line with positive DOC trends

reported for the soil organic layer or at maximum 10 cm depth of the mineral soil in Europe

617 (Borken et al., 2011; Hruška et al., 2009; Vanguelova et al., 2010). On the other hand, while

618 there was also evidence of increasing trends in the deep mineral horizon (> 80 cm), trends at

619 different soil horizons along the mineral soil were more variable and responded to other soil

620 internal processes.

621 Hence, the results from the trend analysis for the overall European dataset points out to a link

between the long-term dynamics in surface and deep soil and surface water DOC. However,

623 the individual trend analysis reflects a high heterogeneity in the long-term response of soil

DOC to environmental controls. In fact, it is currently difficult to link long-term dynamics in

soil and surface water DOC. Large scale processes become more important than local factors

626 when looking at DOC trends in surface waters (Lepistö et al., 2014), while the opposite

627 seems to apply for soil solution DOC trends. Furthermore, stream water DOC mainly reflects

the processes occurring in areas with a high hydraulic connectivity in the catchment, such as

629 peat soils or floodplains, which normally yield most of the DOC (Löfgren and Zetterberg,

630 2011). Further monitoring studies in forest soils with high hydraulic connectivity to streams

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are needed to be able to link dynamics of DOC in forest soil with dynamics of DOC in stream

632 waters.

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5 Conclusions

634 Different monotonic long-term trends of soil solution DOC have been found across European

635 forests at plot scale, with the majority of the trends for specific plots and depths not being

636 statistically significant (40%), followed by significantly positive (35%) and significantly

637 negative trends (25%). The distribution of the trends did not follow a specific regional

638 pattern. There was evidence that an overall increasing trend occurred in the organic layers

and, to a lesser extent, in the deep mineral soil, however, there is less agreement on the trends

640 found in different soil horizons along the mineral soils.

641 A multivariate analysis revealed a negative relation between long-term trends in soil solution

DOC and mean SO₄²⁻ deposition and a positive relation to mean NO₃⁻ deposition. While the

643 hypothesis of increasing trends of DOC due to reductions of SO₄²⁻ deposition could be

confirmed in more N-limited forests, there was no significant relationship with SO_4^{2-}

645 deposition in more N-enriched forests. We found evidence that soil pH determines the

response of trends of DOC in soil solution to SO_4^{2-} deposition, indicating that internal soil

647 processes control the final response of DOC in soil solution. Although correlative, our results

648 suggest that there is no single mechanism responsible for soil solution DOC trends operating

649 at large scale across Europe but that interactions between controls operating at local (soil

650 properties, site and stand characteristics) and regional (atmospheric deposition changes)

scales are taking place at the same time.

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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 relative 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. LMMs for which no statistically significant trend was detected (p>0.1) are represented in grey and the LMMs for which a significant trend (p<0.05) was detected are in bold. (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		LMM	[LMM	SMK					
type		(wit	th break	points)	(with	nout break	xpoints)	(without breakpoints)				
		n	rslope	p value	n	rslope	p value	rslope	N	NS	P	
TL	O	3133	6.75	0.0782	1168	-0.30	n.s.	-1.03 (±1.65)	1	3	1	
	M02	19311	0.10	n.s.	8917	-1.06	n.s.	0.16 (±4.78)	17	29	21	
	M24	7700	2.69	n.s.	3404	3.66	n.s.	0.6 (±9.03)	11	12	11	
	M48	24614	0.95	n.s.	11065	0.80	n.s.	0.67 (±4.76)	22	30	32	
	M8	9378	6.78	0.0036	3394	3.41	n.s.	1.007 (±8.79)	8	9	16	
ZTL	0	8136	3.75	<0.001	4659	1.63	0.0939	1.7 (±4.28)	3	16	8	
	M02	3389	-0.54	n.s.	445	0.17	n.s.	-0.7 (±1.85)		3	1	
	M24	739	0.36	n.s.								

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

In broadleaved forests:

Collector	Layer		LMM	- -		LMM			SMK		
type		(wi	th break _l	points)	(wit	hout break	kpoints)	(withou	t brea	kpoint	ts)
		n	rslope	p value	n	rslope	p value	rslope	N	NS	P
TL	0	637	-5.96	n.s.	475	-0.17	n.s.	-0.3 (±0.9)	0	2	0
	M02	8397	3.07	0.0764	3104	0.51	n.s.	0.89 (±5.94)	4	7	10
	M24	2584	-0.05	n.s.	928	6.01	n.s.	1.03 (±11.31)	3	5	4
	M48	10635	-0.93	n.s.	4634	2.46	n.s.	1.51 (±5.31)	11	8	16
	M8	4354	-6.85	0.0672	1797	-0.10	n.s.	0.3 (±6.28)	4	5	6
ZTL	0	4057	0.37	n.s.	1956	-0.90	n.s.	0.96 (±5.47)	2	7	3
	M02	608	0.26	n.s.	192	1.88	n.s.	2.72			1
	M24	94	11.80	0.026							
	M48	427	-2.84	n.s.				0		1	
	M8	34	-36.18	<0.001							

In coniferous forests:

Collector	Layer		LMM	[LMM		SMK					
type		(wi	th break	points)	(wit	hout break	epoints)	(without breakpoints)					
		n	rslope	p value	n	rslope	p value	rslope	N	NS	P		
TL	O	2496	8.15	0.0633	693	1.33	n.s.	-1.06	1	1	1		

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								(± 2.25)			
	M02	10914	-0.97	n.s.	5813	-1.60	n.s.	-0.04 (±3.98)	13	22	11
	M24	5116	2.71	n.s.	2476	3.66	n.s.	-0.3 (±7.82)	7	7	8
	M48	13979	1.24	n.s.	6431	0.05	n.s.	0.3 (±4.32)	16	22	11
	M8	5024	9.93	<0.001	1597	7.58	n.s.	2.89 (±10.28)	4	4	10
ZTL	O	4079	3.59	0.0018	2703	3.09	0.0045	1.85 (±2.88)	1	9	5
	M02	2781	-0.60	n.s.	253	-1.44	n.s.	-0.83 (±0.4)	0	3	0
	M24	645	0.23	n.s.							
	M48	227	-0.39	n.s.	251	-0.55	n.s.	2.14 (±3.66)	1	1	1
	M8	84	13.87	0.0995							





Table 2. Median relative trend (rslope in % yr⁻¹) of DOC concentrations and interquartile range of rslope and number of time series with statistically significant (p < 0.05) positive (P) and negative (N) trends and with non-significant (NS) trends of DOC using the seasonal Mann-Kendall test (SMK), the partial Mann-Kendall test (PMK) and the Breaks For Additive Seasonal and Trend test (BFAST). (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.)

Soil depth		SMI	K		PMI	ζ.		BFAST				
	rslope	N	NS	P	rslope	N	NS	P	rslope	N	NS	P
0	1.18 (±3.37)	4	19	9	1.0 (±3.44)	4	18	9	1.15 (±3.47)	5	18	9
M02	0.04 (±3.41)	17	32	22	0.10 (±3.29)	16	33	21	-0.40 (±3.56)	19	34	18
M24	0.61 (±8.62)	11	12	11	-0.03 (±8.97)	10	11	11	0.83 (±9.31)	10	11	13
M48	1.01 (±4.79)	23	32	33	0.77 (±4.75)	22	31	33	0.59 (±6.32)	23	33	32
M8	1.18 (±9.39)	8	9	16	1.01 (±8.48)	8	11	14	1.75 (±9.59)	7	9	17





Table 3. 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. When throughfall deposition was not available, bulk deposition is presented with an asterisk. Trends in soil solution pH, Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} concentrations were calculated using the seasonal Mann-Kendall test.

Code Plot	Trend	Soil Type (WRB)	Clay (%)	C/N	Hd	$\mathrm{CEC}\left(\mathrm{cmol_{+}kg^{-1}}\right)$	MAP (mm)	MAT (°C)	N depos. (kg N ha ⁻¹ yr ¹)	SO ₄ ² deposition (kg S ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	$slope\ pH\ (\%yr^{-1})$	slope Ca ²⁺ (% yr ⁻¹)	slope Mg ²⁺ (% yr ⁻¹)
Franc	ce (co	de = 1) Cambic											
30	N	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 (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 Podzo- luvisol	11.2	15.4	3.59	2.41	804	10.3	16.8	13.2	0.00	-9.00	-5.00
Germ	nany ((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
308	N	Albic	3.80	16.5	3.41	1.63	816	9.20	14.2*		0.00	-5.00	-2.00

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Code Plot	Trend	Soil Type (WRB)	Clay (%)	C/N	Hd	CEC (cmol ₊ kg ⁻¹)	MAP (mm)	MAT (°C)	N depos. (kg N ha¹ yr¹)	$\mathrm{SO_4^{2-}}$ deposition (kg S ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	slope pH (%yr¹)	slope Ca ²⁺ (% yr ⁻¹)	slope Mg ²⁺ (% yr ⁻¹)
		Arenosol Cambic											
802	N	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
Unite	d Kiı	ngdom (code	= 6)										
922	P	Umbric Gleysol	34.8	15.6	3.31	10.8	1355	9.50			0.40	-9.00	2.00
Austr	ia (co	ode = 14)											

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Code Plot	Trend	Soil Type (WRB)	Clay (%)	C/N	Hd	CEC (cmol ₊ kg ⁻¹)	MAP (mm)	MAT (°C)	N depos. (kg N ha-¹ yr¹)	$\mathrm{SO_4}^{2\text{-}}$ deposition (kg S ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	slope pH (%yr ⁻¹)	slope $Ca^{2^+}(\% \ yr^{-1})$	slope Mg^{2^+} (% yr ⁻¹)
9	N	Eutric Cambisol	20.1	12.8	5.26	25.9	679	10.8		3.80*	0.40	-1.50	-0.60
Switz	zerlan	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	P	Haplic Podzol	14.7	18.3	3.17	3.59	1473	4.40			-0.80	-5.00	-3.00
Norw	vay (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	P		3.05	29.5	3.69		1175	0.35		2.40	-0.90	0.00	0.00

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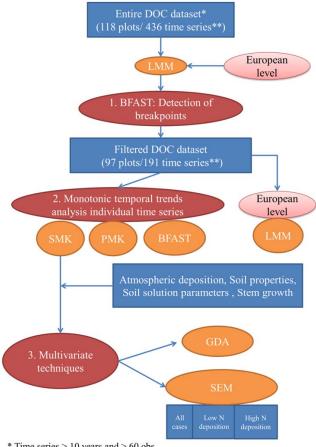


Table 4. Statistics (Wilks' Lambda and p value) of the General Discriminant Analysis among groups of plot-soil depth combinations with different trend in DOC during the last years conducted with 10 different soil solution and deposition variables as independent continuous variables and soil depth as categorical independent variable. Bold type indicates a significant effect of the variable in the model (p < 0.05)

Independent variables	Wilks' Lambda	p value
рН	0.913	0.158
log(NH ₄ ⁺ _TF)	0.973	0.575
log(NO ₃ -BD)	0.944	0.308
log(SO ₄ ²⁻ _BD)	0.920	0.182
log(SO ₄ ²⁻ _SS)	0.857	0.042
log(NO ₃ -SS)	0.814	0.015
log(NH ₄ ⁺ _SS)	0.947	0.331
log(AL_SS)	0.961	0.434
log(FE_SS)	0.930	0.224
log(CONDUCTIVITY_SS)	0.807	0.012







* Time series > 10 years and > 60 obs.

^{*} Time series aggregated per soil depth

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	
GDA	General Discriminant Analysis	Multivariate analysis	
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.

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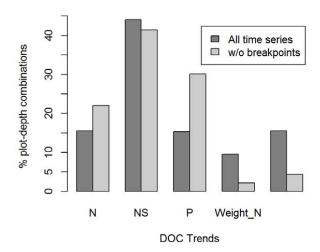


Figure 2. Percentage of plot-soil depth combinations for which negative (N), non-significant (NS), positive (P), negative and non-significant (Weight_N) and positive and non-significant (Weight_P) trends of DOC concentrations were found using SMK (seasonal Mann-Kendall) tests when 1) all the 436 time series were used, 2) only 191 time series without breakpoints (detected using the BFAST (*Breaks For Additive Seasonal and Trend*) analysis) were used.

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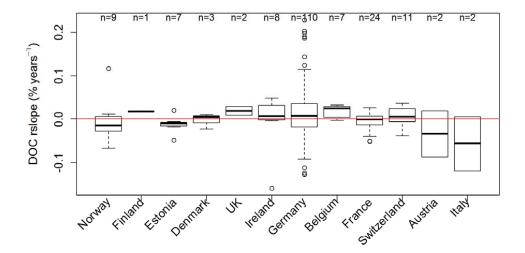


Figure 3. Relative trend slope of DOC trends calculated using the seasonal Mann-Kendall test (SMK) for time series with more than 10 years of measurements and no breakpoints in 12 European countries, ranked from north to south.





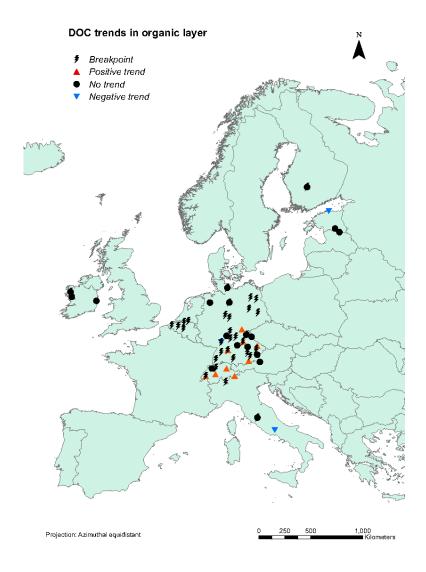


Figure 4. Directions of the temporal trends in soil solution DOC concentration in the organic layer at plot level. Trends were evaluated using the seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Data span from 1991 to 2011.





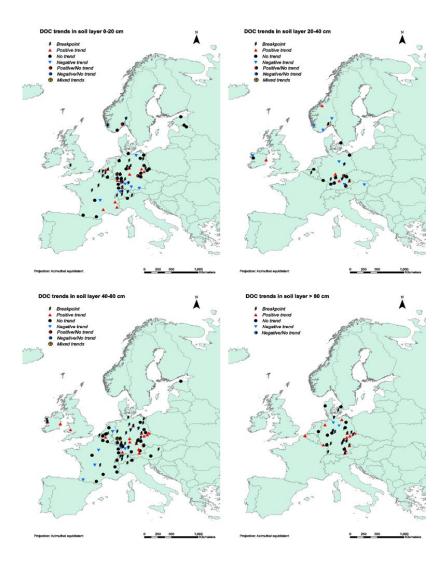


Figure 5. Directions of temporal trends in soil solution DOC concentration at plot level in the mineral soil for soil layers: a) topsoil (0–20 cm), b) intermediate (20–40 cm), c) subsoil (40–80 cm) and d) deep subsoil (> 80 cm). Trends were evaluated using the seasonal Mann-Kendall test. Data span from 1991 to 2011.

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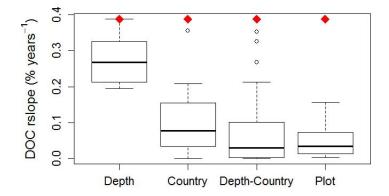


Figure 6. Range of relative trend slopes (max-min) for trends of DOC concentration in soil solution within each 1) depth interval, 2) country, 3) depth interval per country, and 4) plot. The boxplots show the median, 25% and 75% quantiles (box), minimum and 1.5 times the interquartile range (whiskers) and higher values (circles). The red diamond marks the maximum range of slopes in soil solution trends in the entire dataset.





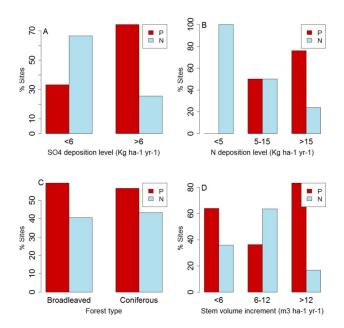


Figure 7. Percentage of occurrence of positive and negative trends in soil solution separated by A) throughfall SO_4^{2-} deposition level (kg S ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), B) throughfall inorganic N deposition level (kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), C) forest type and D) stem volume increment (m³ ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹).





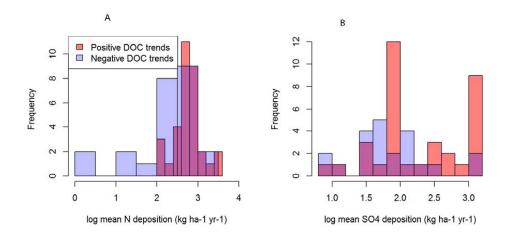


Figure 8. Histograms for natural log-transformed mean throughfall SO₄²⁻ deposition (A) and for log-transformed mean throughfall inorganic N deposition (B) for positive and negative trends of DOC.

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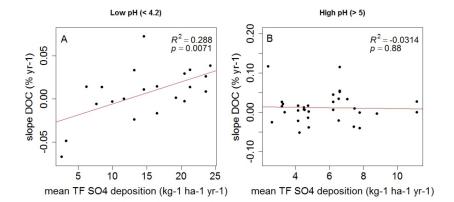


Figure 9. Relationship between mean throughfall SO_4^{2-} deposition and relative slopes of DOC for very acid soils (pH in soil solution < 4.2) (left) and non-acid soils (pH in soil solution > 5) (right).



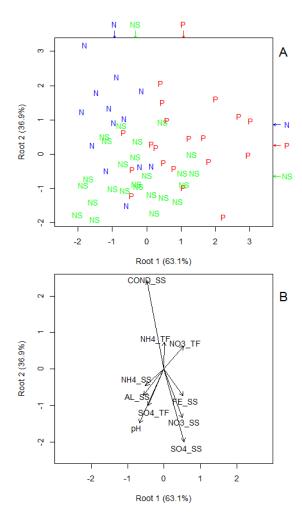


Figure 10. Biplot representing the scores for the single plot-soil depth combinations for the two roots of the General Discriminant Analysis (GDA). (B) Biplot representing the standardized canonical discriminate function coefficients for the two roots of this GDA. The GDA is generated to explain the variance among groups of plot-soil depth combinations with different trend in soil solution DOC (N for negative trends, P for positive trends and NS for non-significant trends) during the last years conducted with 7 soil solution variables (pH, NH4_SS, NO3_SS, FE_SS, SO4_SS, COND_SS, AL_SS) and three throughfall deposition variables (NH4_TF, NO3_TF, SO4_TF) as independent continuous variables and different soil layers as categorical independent variable.





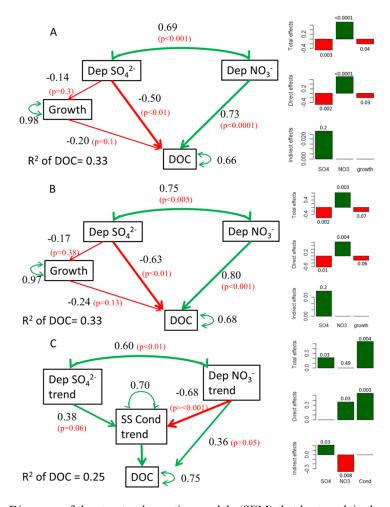


Figure 11. Diagrams of the structural equation models (SEM) that best explain the maximum variance of the resulting trends of DOC concentrations in soil solution for: A) all the cases , B) cases with low or medium throughfall inorganic N deposition (> 15 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and C) cases with high throughfall inorganic N deposition 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) 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-value.