# 1 Current, steady-state and historical weathering rates of base

2 cations at two forest sites in northern and southern Sweden:

# **3** A comparison of three methods

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## 26 Abstract

27 Reliable and accurate methods for estimating soil mineral weathering rates are required tools in evaluating the 28 sustainability of increased harvesting of forest biomass. A variety of methods that differ in concept, temporal and 29 spatial scale and data requirements are available for measuring weathering rates. In this study, release rates of 30 base cations through weathering were estimated in podsolised glacial tills at two experimental forest sites, Asa 31 and Flakaliden, in southern and northern Sweden, respectively. Three different methods were used: (i) historical weathering since deglaciation estimated with the depletion method, using Zr as assumed inert reference; (ii) 32 33 steady-state weathering rate estimated with the PROFILE model, based on quantitative analysis of soil 34 mineralogy; and (iii) base cation budgetmass balance at stand scale, using measured deposition, leaching and 35 changes in base cation stocks in biomass and soil over a period of 12 years.

36 In the 0-50 cm soil layer at Asa, historical weathering of Ca, Mg, K and Na estimated by the depletion 37 method was 4.7, 3.1, 0.8 and 2.0 mmole m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Corresponding values at Flakaliden were 11.0, 12.9, 38 3.2 and 7.07.3, 9.0, 1.7 and 4.4 mmole m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Steady state weathering rate for Ca, Mg, K and Na 39 estimated with PROFILE was 8.9, 3.8, 5.9 and 18.5 mmole m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, at Asa and 11.9, 6.7, 6.6 and 40 17.5 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, at Flakaliden. Thus aAt both sites, the PROFILE results indicated that steady-41 state weathering rate increased with soil depth as a function of exposed mineral surface area, reaching a maximum 42 rate at 80 cm (Asa) and 60 cm (Flakaliden). In contrast, the depletion method indicated that the largest postglacial 43 losses were in upper soil layers, particularly at Flakaliden.

44 With the exception of Mg and Ca in shallow soil layers, PROFILE appeared to produce consistently higher 45 weathering rates than the depletion method, particularly of K and Na in deeper soil layers. In contrast, the 46 depletion method appeared to to-produce consistently lower rather than higher weathering rates, due to natural 47 and anthropogenic variability in (reference)-Zr gradients. The base cation budgetmass balance approach produced 48 significantly higher weathering rates of Ca, Mg, and K (65, 23, 40 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>at Asa and 35, 14 and 22 mmol<sub>c</sub> 49  $m^2$  yr<sup>-1</sup>at Flakaliden), but lower Na weathering rates similar to the depletion method (6.6 and 2.2 mmol<sub>c</sub>  $m^2$  yr<sup>-1</sup> 50 <sup>1</sup>at Asa and Flakaliden). The large discrepancy in weathering rates for Ca, Mg and K between the base cation 51 budget approachmass balance and the other methods suggest that there were additional sources for tree uptake in 52 the soil besides weathering and measured depletion in exchangeable base cations.

54 Keywords. Weathering; minerals; soil layers; nutrient mass-balance; *Picea abies*; PROFILE model; depletion;

- 55 <u>base cation budgetmass balance</u> approach
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61	Definitions and abbreviations
62	Mineralogy = The identity and stoichiometry of minerals present in a certain geographical unit, a particular site
63	(site-specific mineralogy) or a larger geographical province (regional mineralogy)
64	Quantitative mineralogy or mineral composition = Quantitative information (wt.%) on the abundance of specific
65	minerals in the soil.
66	Weathering rate = Weathering of a mineral resulting in release of a base cations per unit area per unit time.
67	Definitions Abbreviations:
68	$W_{depletion}$ = Historical weathering rate based on calculation of loss of mobile elements since last deglaciation
69	$W_{profile}$ = Steady-state weathering rate estimated using the PROFILE model
70	$W_{mb}$ - $W_{budgeteb}$ = Current weathering rate based on <u>base cation budgetmass balance</u> calculations
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#### 87 1. Introduction

88 Silicate weathering is the major long-term source of base cations in forest ecosystems (Sverdrup et al., 1988) and 89 is therefore crucial for sustainable plant production and for proton consumption, counteracting soil and water 90 acidification (Nilsson et al., 1982; Hedin et al., 1994; Likens et al., 1998; Bailey et al., 2003). These effects of 91 weathering are important in areas where historical-in the past high sulphur (S) deposition (S)-has causeds severe 92 acidification of forest soils and waters (Reuss and Johnson, 1986), particularly for example in southern 93 Scandinavia where acid-felsic igneous silicate bedrock and less readily weatherable soils are abundant (Likens 94 and Bormann, 1974). By 1990 in most European countries countries, the trend of increasing S emissions since the 95 1950s started to abate (Grennfelt and Hov, 2005) and recovery from acidification began (Warfvinge and Bertills; 96 2000; Bertills et al., 2007). This The recovery of the soil is mainly driven by silicate weathering (Evans et al., 97 2001: Skielkvåle et al., 2001), but the process is slow (Futter et al., 2012: Akselsson et al., 2013: Futter et al., 98 2012). At the same time, forest growth has become a more important source of acidity caused by theand 99 accumulation of base cations in tree biomass in excess of ver anion uptake has become a more important source 100 of acidity to the soil (Nilsson et al., 1982). The biomass extraction rate at harvesting determines the extent to 101 which soil acidity produced by forest growth can be neutralised by decomposition of biomass left on site. Whole-102 tree harvesting can thus result in more acid, base cation-depleted soils than stem-only harvesting (Olsson et al., 103 1996; Zetterberg et al., 2013), due to the smaller return of alkalinity. The combined effect of increased productivity 104 of forests in Sweden, resulting in increased stocks of forest biomass, and increased use of whole-tree harvesting 105 for energy purposes can therefore impede recovery from acidification and place increasing demands on nutrient 106 supply. The current Swedish environmental quality objective "Natural Acidification Only" targets a reduction in 107 acid load due to forest growth and harvesting and to acid deposition (Bertills et al., 2007).

108 In society there is a need to know if current forestry practices are sustainable, that is if current weathering provides 109 enough base cations to at least balance their export by forestry. The role of weathering in maintaining base cation 110 balance in Swedish forest soils has been examined in several previous studies (Sverdrup and Rosén, 1998; 111 Akselsson et al., 2007). A regional-scale study on Swedish forest soils found that, in parts of Sweden, base cation 112 depletion losses can occur at rates that lead to very low base saturation of the soils, possibly leading to negative 113 effects on e.g. soil fertility and runoff water quality within one forest rotation (Akselsson et al., 2007). The 114 methods used to determine base eation balance in that study included predicting weathering rates based on the 115 PROFILE model and analysing regional data for deposition, leaching and base cation losses in harvested biomass. 116 Negative balances, which indicate soil bBase cation depletion in the soil, werewas found to be more frequent 117 after whole-tree harvesting than stem-only harvesting, especially for Norway spruce-compared with Scots pine, 118 with the effect deficits being more common in southern than in northern (boreal) Sweden. Among the elements 119 studied, Ca was most frequently subject to lossesdepletion. However, uncertainties in estimating the terms of the 120 base cation balance can accumulate to produce large uncertainties in the overall balance, and therefore it is difficult 121 to draw firm conclusions about the sustainability of different harvesting options based on base cation balance 122 alone. There are also conflicting opinions about the consequences of long term negative base cation balance in 123 soils for sustainable forest production (Binkley and Högberg, <u>1997;</u>2016). Experimental studies have 124 demonstrated that growth of boreal forests is strongly limited by nitrogen (N), whereas co-limitation with 125 phosphorus (P) may occur in hemiboreal and temperate forests (e.g. Tamm, 1991). Thus, concerns about base 126 cation depletion in Swedish forest soils following increasing use of whole tree harvesting have so far been about 127 soil acidification rather than tree nutrition, <u>the latter</u> expressed for example by the Swedish Forest Agency (2008) 128 in their recommendation on nutrient compensation with wood ash.

In regional assessments of the sustainability of different harvesting regimes, the value of estimated weathering rate
used has a strong influence on the base cation balance. Klaminder et al. (2011b) found that different approaches
to estimating weathering rates yielded results that differed substantially, and that uncertainties in the methods had
a great influence on the predicted sustainability of different harvesting practices.

133 Futter et al. (2012) compiled weathering rates estimated at 82 sites, using different methods, and found both large 134 between-site as well as within-site differences in the values. They concluded that the sources of uncertainties were 135 as follows: input data > parameters > weathering concepts/assumptions. Differences in input data can be attributed 136 to different time scales used when acquiring different input data, different time scales, challenges determining 137 accurate mineralogical compositions and the use of field laboratory-data compared with laboratoryfield data (Van 138 der Salm, 20014; Futter et al., 2012Klaminder et al., 2011b). Thus, they recommend that at least three different 139 approaches be applied per study site to evaluate increase the precision in weathering estimates. The approaches 140 examined in the present paper include (1) 'historical weathering' based on geochemical investigation of the soil 141 profile, (2) modelled present weathering rate and (3) present weathering rate based on cation balances at the 142 ecosystem level. Comparing weathering estimates based on these concepts requires that the methods are tested at 143 the same spatial scale. The choice of methods is primarily based on the fact that- rates of weathering may vary 144 over time (Klaminder et al., 2011; Stendahl et al., 2013). The average weathering under long-term environmental 145 change, i.e. 'historical weathering', is thus different from the weathering potential under present-day 146 environmental conditions, i.e. 'present-day weathering', which is why we need to be able to consider historical 147 weathering when assessing current/present-day weathering rates. Moreover, present-day weathering rates 148 estimated based on the steady-state concept, which lacks the dimension of time, may differ from dynamic 149 estimates of weathering rates derived from measured base cation budgets. These three different concepts of 150 estimating weathering cannot be covered by a single method (Klaminder et al., 2011; Futter et al., 2012). 151 Weathering estimates based on these concepts have often differed largely from pedon to catchment scale, whereas 152 truly harmonized comparisons of methods require that methods are tested uniformly at the same spatial scale. This 153 spatial scale can be the pedon, which also contains the major part of the mineral nutrient sources in the soil 154 available for forest growth. To our knowledge, Kolka et al. (1996) is the only study to have previously used this 155 approach. To our knowledge, Kolka et al. (1996) is the only study to have previously used this approach. 156 157

The first approach, the depletion method, makes use of soil profile based mass balances (Chadwick et al., 1990;
 Brimhall et al., 1991) to estimate total base cation losses in the soil above a reference soil depth. An element in a

160 weathering-resistant mineral is used as a standard, most commonly zirconium (Zr, present in e.g. zircon) or 161 titanium (Ti, present in e.g. rutile) (Sudom and St.Arnaud, 1971; Harden et al., 1987; Chadwick et al., 1990; Bain 162 et al., 1994), due to their stability at low temperatures (Schützel et al., 1963). To yield an annual average 163 weathering rate (mmolcm<sup>-2</sup>), calculated element losses are commonly divided by an estimated soil age. In Nordic 164 glacial tills situated above the marine limit, soil age is conventionally considered to be the number of years lapsed 165 since the site of interest was finally deglaciated at the end of the Weichselian. Since the rate of weathering may 166 vary over time (Klaminder et al., 2011; Stendahl et al., 2013), the average 'historical weathering' rate may differ 167 from the present-day weathering rate. tThe depletion method is most widely used in Sweden to estimate 168 weathering rates, specifically at the regional scale (Olsson et al., 1993). 169 In society there is a pressing need to know if current forestry practices are sustainable, that isi.e. if current/present-170 day weathering provides is enough base cations (BC) to at least balance BC their export by forestry. Therefore, 171 our goal should be to determine current/present day mineral weathering rates in soil. All soils are, by definition, 172 composed of biogeochemically altered material . The rates extent/rate of alteration that haves occurred over the 173 past as well as that the one that occuroccurrings at present may differ (Klaminder et al., 2011; Stendahl et al., 174 2013; Klaminder et al., 2011). (i.e. the The average weathering potential under average long term environmental 175 ehange, i.e. 'historical weathering', is thus different from the) as well as the one that occurs at present (i.e. 176 weathering potential under present day environmental conditions, i.e. 'present day weathering', which is why we 177 need to be able to consider historical weathering when assessing current/present-day weathering rates..) may differ 178 (Stendahl et al., 2013; Klaminder et al., 2011). Moreover, present-day weathering rates when estimated based on 179 the steady state concept, which lacks time the dimension of time, may differ from dynamic estimates of 180 weathering rates derived from measured base cation budgets. These three different concepts of estimating 181 weathering cannot be covered by a single method (Klaminder et al., 2011;, Futter et al., 2012),, and wWeathering 182 estimates based on these concepts have often differed largely from pedon to catchment scale, whereas. truly This, 183 which iis the reason why they harmonized comparisons of methods requires require a should be applied 184 uniformmly at the spatial scale of interest, i.e. the soil pedon. This spatial scale can be the pedon, which also 185 contains the major part of the mineral nutrient sources in the soil available for , which is the source of mineral 186 nutrients for forest growth. To our knowledge, Kolka et al. (1996) areis the only onesstudy thatto havesve 187 previously triedused this approach. However, when comparing soil-profile based methods, it is important to 188 understand variation with soil depth that exceeds 0 50em, since the depletion method calculates weathering for 189 the entire soil pedon.

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deglaciation in the soil above a reference soil depth<sub>z</sub>, using <u>A</u>an element in a weathering-resistant mineral <u>is used</u>
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(Sudom and St.Arnaud, 1971; Harden et al., 1987; Chadwick et al., 1990; Bain et al., 1994), due to their stability

at low temperatures (Schützel et al., 1963). To yield an annual average weathering <u>rate</u> (mmol<sub>e</sub>m<sup>-2</sup>), calculated
element losses are commonly divided by an estimated number of years lapsed since the onset of weathering.
Steady state weathering rate may differ from the average during soil formation, which is one reason why
weathering rates obtained using PROFILE and the variation in rate with depth in the soil can be expected to differ
from those obtained using the depletion method (Stendahl et al., 2013). Observed discrepancies between these
methods may therefore reflect 'true' differences or conceptual differences between the methods.

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204 The second approach commonly involves the mechanistic PROFILE model, by which estimates steady state 205 release rates of base cations are estimated using steady state mass balances based on the dissolution kinetics of a 206 user-defined set of minerals present in the soil, and the physical and chemical conditions that drive the dissolution 207 of minerals. Since it is a mechanistic model, its strength is its transparency, while its main weakness is the 208 difficulty in setting values of model parameters and input variables to which it may have high sensitivity. 209 Akselsson et al. (this issue) concluded that the most important way to reduce uncertainties in modelled weathering 210 rates is to reduce input data uncertainties, e.g. regarding soil texture, although there is also still a need to improve 211 room for improvement in process descriptions of e.g. biological weathering and weathering brakes (e.g. Lampa 212 Erlandsson Lampa et al., this issue). The sensitivity of PROFILE to variations in soil physical parameters (e.g. 213 soil texture, soil bulk density) and mineral composition wais discussed by Jönsson et al. (1995) and Hodson et al. 214 (1996), while the importance of the ability to determine the precise identity and quantity of the minerals wais 215 analysed by Casetou-Gustafson et al. (this issue).

217 An The third alternative approach to estimating weathering rate is the base cation budget approach mass balance 218 method (Velbel, 1985; Likens et al., 1998; Velbel, 1985). This method H has been applied to estimate current 219 weathering rates at various temporal and spatial scales, and components elements of the budget approach mass 220 balance have been used in different ways in some popular models, e.g. MAGIC (Cosby et al., 1985). The w-Using 221 thebase cation budget based on the mass balance mass balance approachW, weathering rate is estimated indirectly 222 as by the base cation budget approach from the the difference between other sinks and sources of elements-base 223 cations, which are measured within a system with defined boundaries. The missing source in the mass balance 224 equation is assumed to contain represent the weathering, but can also contain other unidentified sources. The base 225 cation budget mass balance approach is most reliable when based on long-term data from well-defined systems, 226 although even then estimateds of weathering rates tend to suffer from large uncertainties, as errors in the sinks 227 and sources ean be expected to accumulate in the mass balancee equation (Simonsson et al., 2015). The bln 228 situation where the base cation uptake in biomass is high, it dominates the flux of the elements included in the 229 base cation budget. NeverthelessFurthermore, the Bbase cation budgets mass balance approach has rarely mostly 230 been applied under non-steady state conditions where accumulation in biomass were not directly measured but 231 estimated to be small, or base cation BC-stocks in the soil were assumed to be at steady-state (i.e. including 232 measures of soil exchangeable pools), due to lack of long-term data on base cation fluxes(e.g. Kolka et al., 1996; 233 Sverdrup et al., 1998; Whitfield et al., 2006). Consequently, at the pedon scale, the PROFILE model and the 234 depletion method are the most frequently used methods in Sweden to estimate weathering rates. The benefit of

eomparing these two methods is that, taken together, they can provide complementary information about soil
 weathering potential (i.e. historical versus steady state weathering) in individual soil layers.

237 In this study, we applied the our aim was to apply three conceptually different methods of estimating weathering 238 on , the depletion method, the PROFILE model and the BC budget approach, to two well-defined forest 239 ecosystems, Asa and Flakaliden in southern and northern Sweden, to allow a harmonized comparison of methods, 240 and to place weathering in the context of other base cation fluxes in aggrading Norway spruce forests. These 241 optimum (tree) nutrition experimental sites were selected for the study to obtain a well-defined system with 242 uniform spatial scale for observations, in line with the suggestion ofby Futter et al. (2012). In addition, BCThe 243 base cation budgets were estimated at the period of stand development when nutrient demand was expected to 244 peak. In combination with access to highly accurate data on biomass production, these conditions also provided 245 opportunities to relate weathering to base cationBC accumulation in biomass at high nutrient uptake rates, and 246 possible simultaneous depletions of extractable base cationBC stocks in the soil. Furthermore, iInput data to 247 PROFILE wereas characterised by high quality quantitative mineralogical data, measured directly by X-rRay 248 Ppowder Ddiffraction (XRPD), as and has been critically previously discussed inby Casetou-Gustafson et al. 249 (2018).

Three test criteria were used to examine the outputs of the depletion method and PROFILE model: (1) similarity
 in weathering estimates for the 0-50 cm soil profile; (2) similarity in depth gradients in weathering for the 0-100
 cm soil profile; and (3) similarity in ranking order of the base cations released.

#### 253 2. Materials and methods

#### 254 2.1 Study sites

Two forest sites planted with Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) Karst) were chosen for the study, Flakaliden in northern Sweden (64°07'N, 19°27'E) and Asa in southern Sweden (57°08'N, 14°45'E), because they have been used for long-term experimental studies on the effects of climate and nutrient and water supply on tree structure and functiongrowth and element cycling (Linder, 1995; Bergh et al., 1999; Ryan, 2013).

260 The experiment at Flakaliden was established in 1986 in a 23-year-old Norway spruce stand, planted in 1963 with 261 four-year-old seedlings of local provenance after prescribed burning and soil scarification (Bergh et al., 1999). 262 The experiment at Asa was established one year later (1987), in a 12-year-old Norway spruce stand planted in 263 1975 with two-year-old seedlings after clear-felling and soil scarification. The experimental design was similar at 264 both sites and included control, irrigation and two nutrient optimisation treatments (Bergh et al., 1999). All 265 treatments had four replicate were replicated in 50 m x 50 m plots, arranged in a randomised block design. Only 266 two of the four treatments were used in the present study; the control (C) and plots receiving an annual dose of an 267 optimised mix of solid fertiliser (F), which among other elements per year contained about 10 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> Ca, 8 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> 268 <sup>1</sup> Mg and 45 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> K (Linder, 1995). For further details, see Linder (1995).

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Flakaliden is located in the central boreal sub-zone with a harsh climate, with long cool days in summer and short cold days in winter. Mean annual temperature for the period 1990-2009 was 2.5 °C, and mean monthly temperature varied from -7.5 °C in February to 14.5 °C in July. Mean annual precipitation in the period was ~650 mm, with approximately one-third falling as snow, which usually covers the frozen ground from mid-October to early May. Mean length of the growing season (daily mean temperature  $\geq$  5 °C) was 148 days, but with large between-year variations (Table 1) (cf. Sigurdsson et al., 2013).

Asa is located in the hemi-boreal zone, where the climate is milder than at Flakaliden, which is reflected in a
longer growing season (193 days). Mean annual temperature (1990-2009) was 6.3 °C, mean monthly temperature
varied from -1.9 °C in February to 16.0 °C in July and mean annual precipitation was ~750 mm. The soil is
periodically frozen in winter. The difference in climate is reflected in differences in site productivity, which
broadly follows climate gradients in Sweden (Bergh et al., 2005).

283 The soils at Asa and Flakaliden differ in age due to differences in the time since deglaciation (Table 1), -Soil age 284 is from approximately 14,-3-000 thousand years at Asa and 10,-150 thousand years at Flakaliden (based on 285 National Atlas of Sweden; estimated from Fredén, 2009). The soil type at both sites is an Udic Spodosol, with a 286 mor humus layer overlying glacial till derived from felsicacid igneous silicate bedrock. The soil texture is 287 classified as sandy loammy till. The transition between the B- and C-horizonsB-horizon transitions to C-horizon 288 is mostly located at 35-5040 cm depth at Flakaliden and 50-6040 cm depth at Asa. The natural ground vegetation 289 at Flakaliden is dominated by Vaccinium myrtillus (L.) and V. vitis-idaea (L.) dwarf-shrubs, lichens and mosses 290 (Kellner, 1993; Strengbom et al., 2011). T, while the ground vegetation at Asa is dominated by Deschampisa 291 flexuosa, (L.) and mosses (Strengbom et al., 2011; Hedwall et al., 2013).

#### 292 2.2. Soil sampling and analyses of geochemistry and mineralogy

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A detailed description of soil sampling, geochemical analyses and determination of mineralogy can be found inCasetou-Gustafson et al. (2018). The procedures are summarised below.

295 Soil sampling was performed in October 2013 (Flakaliden) and March 2014 (Asa), in the border zone of four plots 296 at each site. Plots selected for sSampling was performed inere untreated control plots (K1 and K4 at Asa and; 10B 297 and 14B at Flakaliden) and fertilised (F) plots (F3, F4 at Asa and -15A and -11B at Flakaliden) in October 2013 298 (Flakaliden) and March 2014 (Asa), in the border zone of four plots at each site. One intact soil core per plot at 299 Flakaliden and in plot K1 at Asa was extracted using aA rotary drill (17 cm inner diameter) was used to extract 300 one intact soil core per plot at Flakaliden and in plot K1 at Asa. In plots K4, F3 and F4 at Asa, soil samples were 301 instead taken from the wall of 1 m deep manually dug soil pits, due to inaccessible terrain for the rotary drill forest 302 machinery. Maximum soil depth was shallower at Flakaliden (70-90 cm) than at Asa (90-100 cm). The volume 303 of stones and boulders was determined for each plot at the two study sites using the penetration method described 304 by Viro (1952) to a maximum depth of 30 cm and by applying the fitted function described by Stendahl et al. 305 (2009). Mean stone and bolder content was higher at Flakaliden (39% vol) than at Asa (28% vol).

Soil samples were taken from each 10-cm soil layer. Prior to chemical analysis, these samples were dried at 3040 °C and sieved to <(2 mm-mesh). <u>Analysis of pParticle size distribution was performedanalysed</u> by wet sieving
and sedimentation (pipette method) in accordance with ISO 11277. Geochemical analyses were conducted by
ALS Scandinavia AB and comprised inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) on HNO<sub>3</sub> extracts
of fused samples that were milled and ignited (1000 °C) prior to fusion with LiBO<sub>2</sub>.

311 Quantitative soil mineralogy was determined with the X-ray powder diffraction (-X-ray powder diffraction XRPD) 312 technique (XRPD) (Hillier 1999, 2003). Samples for measurement determination of XRPD patterns were prepared 313 by spraying and drying slurries of micronised soil samples (<2 mm) micronised in ethanol. A full pattern fitting 314 approach was used for qQuantitative mineralogical analysis of the diffraction data was performed using a full 315 pattern fitting approach (Omotoso et al., 2006). This In this fitting process involved the modelling of, the measured 316 diffraction pattern is modelled as a weighted sum of previously measured and verified standard reference patterns 317 of the previously-identified mineral components. The The determination of cehemical compositions of the various 318 minerals present in the soils was conducted determined by electron microprobe analysis (EMPA) of mineral grains 319 subsampled from the sifted (< 2 mm) soil samples.

## 320 2.3 Historical weathering determined with the depletion method

## 321 2.3.1 Method description

The depletion method <u>(Table X2)</u>, as defined by Marshall and Haseman (1943) and Brimhall et al. (1991), estimates the accumulated mass loss since soil formation (last deglaciation for our sites) as a function of loss of a mobile (weatherable) element and enrichment of an immobile (weathering resistant) element<u>according to the</u> following general function introduced by Olsson and Melkerud (1989) and based on the same theories as the mass transfer function described in Brimhall et al. (1991):

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327 W_{\text{depletion},i} = \frac{d \cdot \rho}{100} \cdot \frac{x_c \cdot z_{r_w,i}}{z_{r_c}} - X_{w,i}
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328 where W denotes loss of the *i*th element  $-i_{-}(g m^{-2})_{-}$ , X denotes mobile element concentrations (%)-, Zr denotes 329 immobile element concentrations (%), w and denotes a weathered soil layer, c denote a weathered soil layer and 330 s-the assumed unweathered reference layer, respectively, d is layer depththickness (m), and  $\rho$  is bulk density (g 331  $m^{-3}$ ).-Zirconium is commonly used as the immobile element due to the inert nature of the mineral zircon (ZrSiO<sub>4</sub>), 332 although Ti is sometimes used due to the resistance of the Ti-containing minerals anastase and /rutile (TiO<sub>2</sub>) to 333 weathering (Olsson and Melkerud, 1989). The unweathered reference layer The maximum weathering depth, 334 which weathering is assumed to cease, is defined by a reference layer that is located in the soil-C 335 horzionhorizon, and and hasve X to Zr ratios that are assumed to represent pristine conditions of the presently 336 weathered layers above it. In the weathered layers, X to Zr ratios are smaller; that is, Zr is the reference layer, Zr 337 is enriched compared with the mobile other elements (i.e. the base cations). The method is based on the 338 assumptions that Zr, hosted in zircon, was uniformly distributed throughout the soil profile at the time of 339 deglaciation, that weathering only occurs above the reference layer and that zircon does not weather. The latter 340 implies that the Zr concentrations gradient and Zr/base cation BC ratios are constant below the reference layer.

(1)

Table 2-3 shows the reference depths for different base cations compared with Zr, which were used as the depths of immobile element concentrations. The Zr/base cation ratio (Fig. S3) was used to help selectdefining the reference soil layer as it highlightsshows heterogeneities in parent material with depth. In cases of heterogeneities in the profile, the reference layer was chosen above this heterogeneity. This choice was precluded-not given for soil profile 11B, where Zr concentrations and Zr/base cationCe ratios peaked directly below the B-horizon s(i.e. at 50-60 cm).<sub>x</sub>

#### 347 2.3.2. Assumption testingApplication

348 Prior to calculating base cation weathering rates with the depletion method, fractional volume change (Vp) was 349 calculated according to White et al. (1996) in order to -assess if there were any large volume changes (collapse) 350 in the mineral soil with implications for which depth the weathering should be calculated to. Similar to White et 351 al. (1996), it was assumed that values close to zero indicate no volumetric change, which was the case below 30-352 40 cm of soil depth at Asa and Flakalidenboth sites (Table S5). Tehe homogeneity of the parent material was also 353 evaluated (Fig. 1) using the criterion that- Since zircon and anastase and /rutile are weathering resistant minerals, 354 it was assumed that the ratio of Ti to Zr would should be more or less stable with as soil depth in an originally 355 homogeneous material increases and, as suchif so, uniformity of the parent material could be assumedensured. 356 Use of the ratio of two immobile elementsresistant minerals to establish uniformity of parent material has been 357 suggested previously (Sudom and St.Arnaud, 1971; Starr et al., 2014). This was the case for plots F3, K4 and F4 358 at Asa, but in plot K1 where there was somewhat more variability in plot K1 (i.e. the Zr concentrations decreased 359 towards the soil surface; Fig. 25), Cconsequently, Ti was used as the immobile element instead of Zr for this 360 profile. At Flakaliden, variability in both the Zr and Ti gradients was observed, but the parent material was 361 considered sufficiently uniform for all plots except 15A. seliminated consideration The homogeneity criterion 362 was not met using Zr in plot K1 at Asa (i.e. the Zr concentrations decreased towards the soil surface; Fig. 2)-; here 363 Ti was used as the immobile element instead. Furthermore, the plots 15A and 11B at Flakaliden had to be 364 eliminated from the calculations, because relatively large variability in both the Zr and Ti gradients was observed. 365 These large heterogeneities led to an overall gain of base cations in the rooting zone, which is opposite to what 366 would be expected (i.e. that losses and gains can occur at specific soil depths due to eluviation and illuviation 367 processes in podzolic soils). For this reason, soil profiles 15A and 11B were eliminated from further consideration 368 in calculations of historical weathering rates using the depletion method. Thus, apart from heterogeneities, 369 transportation processes (eluviation and illuviation) and/or erratic Zr or Ti gradients could lead to "negative" 370 weathering, i.e. leading to a calculated relative accumulation of elements. Such negative values were not 371 considered in the calculation of historical weathering losses.

## 372 2.3.3. Input data

Bulk density was estimated for each soil layer except in some plots where density measurements could not be
made below a certain soil depth-or where a large and sudden decrease in bulk density with increasing soil depth

375 was observed. Bulk density in these cases was estimated using an exponential model for total organic carbon

376 (TOC) and bulk density (BD, g/cm<sup>3</sup>) based on our own data. For Asa (soil layers F3: soil layer 70-90 cm; F4: 0-

```
    377 10, 30-40, 50-60, 60-70, 70-80, 80-90, 90-100 cm; and K4: 70-80, 80-90, 90-100 cm), the following function was
    378 used:
```

```
      379
      \rho BD = 1.3 e^{-0.1 \times BD} = 1.3 e^{-0.1 \times BD}

      380
      (2+)

      381
      where x is TOC content (% of dry matter).

      382
      For Flakaliden (soil layers 14B: 80-90cm; 10B: 60-70 cm; and 11B: 40-70 cm), the function used was:

      383
      \rho BD = 1.8 e^{-0.2 \times BD} = -1.8 e^{-0.2 \times BD}

      384
      (32)
```

## 385 2.4 The PROFILE model

# 386 2.4.1 Model description

**387** The steady state weathering of soil profiles was estimated using tThe biogeochemical PROFILE model (Table**388** 2X)can be used to estimate the steady state weathering of soil profiles, whereas weathering of the *i*th base cation**389** ( $W_{profile, i}$ ) is described by long-term mineral dissolution kinetics at is known to be primarily determined by soil**390** physical properties at the interface of wetted mineral surfaces and the soil solution. PROFILE is a multilayer**391** model, where parameters are specified for each soil layer based on field measurements and estimation methods**392** (Warfvinge and Sverdrup, 1995).

#### 393 2.4.2 PROFILE parameter estimation

A detailed description of <u>the</u> application of the PROFILE model to the soils and sites in the present study can be
found in Casetou-Gustafson et al. (*this issue*). The parameters used are listed in Table <u>4</u>3.

Exposed mineral surface areas were estimated from soil bulk density and texture data using the algorithm specified
in Warfvinge and Sverdrup (1995). Volumetric field soil water content for each soil profileit in Flakaliden and
Asa was estimated to be 0.25 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> according to the moisture classification scheme described in Warfvinge and
Sverdrup (1995) (Table S4).

400 The aAluminium (Al) solubility coefficient, a soil chemical parameter needed for solution equilibrium reactions, 401 was defined as  $\log{Al^{3+}}+3pH$ . It was estimated by applying a function developed from previously published data 402 (Simonsson and Berggren, 1998) and existing total carbon and oxalate-extractable Al measurements for our sites 403 (Casetou-Gustafson et al., 2018) (Table S4). For partial CO2 pressure in the soil, the default value of Warfvinge 404 and Sverdrup (1995) was used. Data on measured dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in the soil solution at 50 cm 405 depth were available for plots K4 and K1 at Asa and plots 10B and 14B at Flakaliden, and these values were also 406 applied for deeper soil horizons. Shallower horizons (0-50 cm) were characterised by higher DOC values, based 407 on previous findings (Fröberg et al., 2006, 2013) and the DOC classification scheme in Warfvinge and Sverdrup 408 (1995) (Table S4).

409 The site-specific parameters used were evapotranspiration, temperature, atmospheric deposition, precipitation,

410 runoff and nutrient uptake in biomass (<u>Table 4</u>). Mean evapotranspiration per site was estimated from mean annual

411 precipitation and runoff data, using a general water balance equation.

412 Total deposition was calculated using deposition data from two sites of the Swedish ICP Integrated Monitoring 413 catchments, Aneboda (for Asa) and Gammtratten (for Flakaliden) (Löfgren et al., 2011). Na was used as a tracer 414 ion iIn order to distinguish canopy exchange forom dry deposition for Ca, Mg and K-Na was used as a tracer ion. 415 Dry deposition for Na and Cl was calculated as the difference between wet and throughfall deposition. As outlined 416 in Zetterberg et al. (2016), wet deposition for all elements was calculated by 6 correcting bulk deposition for dry 417 deposition using wet-only to bulk deposition ratio. Finally, total deposition for all elements was estimated by 418 summing up dry deposition and wet deposition. The canopy budget method of Staelens et al. (2008) was applied 419 as in Zetterberg et al. (2016). The canopy budget model is commonly used for elements that are prone to canopy 420 leaching (Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) or canopy uptake (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and it calculates total deposition as the sum 421 of dry deposition and wet deposition. Wet deposition was estimated based on the contribution of dry deposition 422 to bulk deposition, both for base cations and anions, using dry deposition factors from Karlsson et al. (2012,2013). 423 Finally, total deposition for all elements was calculatedestimated by summing from the sum of dry and wet 424 deposition.

425 Net base cation and nitrogen uptake in aboveground tree biomass (i.e. bark, stemwood, living and dead branches, 426 needles) was estimated as mean accumulation rate over a 100-year rotation period in Flakaliden and a 73-year 427 rotation period in Asa. These calculations were based on Heureka simulations using the StandWise application 428 (Wikström et al., 2011) for biomass estimates, in combination with measured nutrient concentrations in 429 aboveground biomass as described in section 2.5.4 below (Linder, unpubl. data).

#### 430 2.4.3 PROFILE sensitivity analysis

431 The sensitivity of PROFILE to a-changes in soil physical and mineralogical input was analysed, to test to what 432 extent whether the depth gradients of weathering rates as predicted by PROFILE were affected primarily by could 433 be explained by either soil physical properties or by soil mineralogy. Independent PROFILE runs were performed, 434 after replacing horizon-specific input values with soil profile average values regarding either (1) soil bulk density 435 and specific exposed mineral surface area ('homoghomogenousenised soil physics'), or (2) soil mineral 436 percentages ('homogenousnised mineralogy'), or (3) both ('homogenousised soil physics and mineralogy').for 437 each of the following three test scenarios: (1) homogeneous soil physical properties (soil bulk density and specific 438 exposed mineral surface area); (2) homogeneous mineralogy; and (3) homogeneous soil (i.e. soil physics and mineralogy). For homogeneous soil, all soil layers (0 100 cm) were given the same value of the test variable, 439 440 which wasi.e. the average value for the actual soil profile (0-100 cm). In each scenario, the squared deviation in 441 weathering rate was calculated for each base cation and horizon, compared to the normal simulation based on 442 horizon-specific inputs for soil physics and soil mineralogy. The sum of squares over base cations and horizons 443 was used as a measure of the overall error caused by the 'homogenousenised' input data. The ratios of sum of

444 445	squares, of scenario (1) over (3) and of scenario (2) over (3), was used to estimate the percent contribution of soil physics and soil mineralogy, respectively, to the overall weathering gradients in the soil profile.	
446	2.5 The base cation budget approachmass balance method	
447	2.5.1. General concepts of the base cation budget approachmass balance method	
448	The average weathering rate of the <i>i</i> th base cation according to base cation budget, W <sub>budget, i</sub> of base cations (W <sub>BC</sub> )	
449	over a period of time can be estimated with base cation budgets (Table 2) using the base cation budgetmass balance	
450	approach, which assumes that total deposition $(TD_{BCI}TD_{BC})$ and weathering are the major sources of mobile and	
451	plant-available base cations in the soil, and that leaching $(L_{BCi}L_{BC})$ and accumulation of base cations in biomass	
452	$(\Delta B_{BCi} \mathbf{B}_{BC})$ are the major sinks. A change in the extractable soil stocks of base cations over time $(\Delta S_{BCi} \Delta \mathbf{S}_{BC})$ can	
453	bear considered as a sink if stocks have increased, or as a source if stocks have been depleted (Simonsson et al.,	
454	2015). Each of these terms is measured independently over a specific period of time. Hence,	
455	(3)	
456	$\underline{W_{\text{budget, }i}} = \underline{L}_{i} + \Delta \underline{B}_{i} + \Delta \underline{S}_{i} - T\underline{D}_{i} $ (4)	
457		
458	2.5.2 Atmospheric deposition, <u><i>TD<sub>i</sub></i> TD<sub>BC</sub></u>	
459	The same estimates of total atmospheric deposition as used in parameter setting of the PROFILE model (section	
460	2.4.2) were used in the mass balance base cation BC budget, Eq. (4) equation $43$ .	
461	2.5.3. Changes in exchangeable soil pools, Δ <u>SucSi</u>	
462	Changes in extractable base cation stocks in the soil were calculated from the difference between two soil	
463	samplingslinear regressions of stocks measured at repeated soil samplings, performed in 1986 and 1998 at	
464	Flakaliden, and in 1988 and 2004 at Asa. The organic layer was sampled with a 5.6 cm diameter corer, whereas a	
465	2.5 cm diameter corer was used to sample 10 cm sections to 40 cm depth in the mineral soil. For each plot and	
466	layer, 25 cores were combined into one sample. The organic layer and the mineral soil were sampled to 40 cm or	
467	deeper in 1986 and 1998 at Flakaliden, and in 1988 and 2004 at Asa.	
468		
469	At Flakaliden, soil sampling for chemical analyses was carried out in September 1986 in the border zone of the	
470	four control plots, using a 5.6 cm diameter corer for the organic layer and a 2.5 cm diameter corer for the mineral	
471	soil. In each plot, 25 samples were taken and lumped togethercombined to make one sample for each soil layer,	
472	i.e., the humus layer, and 10 cm layers down to as most 40 cm in the mineral soil. The plots were re sampled in	
473	1998 for chemical analyses, in the same way as in 1986. Soil sampling at Asa was conducted in 1988, prior to the	
474	start of the experimental treatments, using the same method as at Flakaliden. The transition from the humus layer	
475	to the mineral soil was less clear at Asa than at Flakaliden.	

477 Exchangeable base cation content in the soil (<2 mm) in theall Flakaliden samples from 1986 and 1998 and thein 478 As a samples from 1988 was determined by extraction of dry samples with 1 M NH<sub>4</sub>Cl using a percolation method, 479 where 2.5 g of sample was leached with 100 mL of extractant solution was percolated through 2.5 g of sample at 480 a rate of around 20 mL h<sup>-1</sup>. The base cations were analysed by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS). For 481 the Asa samples from 2004, batch extraction was performed extraction was performed using the same extractant 482 in a batch extraction method, and the base cations were determined with ICP. A separate test was made to compare 483 the yield of the percolation and batch extraction methods. No consistent difference between the methods was 484 observed, but the results were inconclusive and therefore no correction was made to account for possible 485 differences between the extraction methods.

487 The amount of fine soil (<2 mm) per unit area was calculated from the volume of fine soil\_earth (<2 mm) in the 488 soil profiles and the average bulk density of the soil in the 0-10, 10-20 and 20-40 cm layers. Bulk density and 489 volume proportion of stoniness at Flakaliden were determined from samplings in 1986 in 20 soil profiles (0.5 m 490 x 0.5 m and about 0.5 m deep) outside plots. At Asa, stoniness was determined with the penetration method of 491 Stendahl et al. (2009) and the bulk density of soil <2 mm was calculated using a pedotransfer function that 492 included soil depth and measured carbon concentrations as variables.

## 493 2.5.4 Net uptake in biomass, <u>△ *B*</u><sub>*i*</sub>B<sub>BC</sub> (1987-2003)

494 Accumulation of base cations in tree biomass, i.e. net uptake of base cations, was calculated as a mean value of 495 control plots over the period 1989-2003, . The calculations were based on increments in aboveground biomass at 496 Asa and Flakaliden for this period (Albaugh et al., 2009, 2012) and on the concentrations of elements in different 497 tree parts. The increment in aboveground biomass was based on measurements of stem diameter at breast height 498 (DBH) of all individual trees in the plots, and applying DBH data to allometric functions developed for Norway 499 spruce at Asa and Flakalidenthe sites (Albaugh et al., 2009, 2012). The allometric functions were based on 500 destructive samplings (1987 - 2003) of 93 and 180 trees at Asa and Flakaliden respectively. The increment in 501 belowground biomass was estimated from general allometric functions for Norway spruce stumps and roots in 502 Sweden (Marklund, 1988). Since Marklund's functions (1988) underestimate belowground biomass by 11%, a 503 factor to correct for this was included (Petersson and Ståhl, 2006). Furthermore, the finest root fraction (<2 mm), 504 which is not included in the functions of Marklund (1988) and Petersson and Ståhl (2006), was assumed to be 505 20% of needle biomass at Asa and 33% at Flakaliden, respectively, based on data from Helmisaari et al. (2007). 506

507 Data on element concentrations in biomass were available from measurements on harvested trees (S. Linder,
508 unpubl-<u>ished</u> data). At Flakaliden, total element concentrations were analysed in trees sampled for biomass
509 determination in 1992 and 1997. <u>Analyses of Nn</u>eedles and branches (dead and live) were conducted on the same
510 tree parts in the biomass sampled in 1993 and 1998. Base cation concentrations in biomass were determined from
511 acid wet digestion in HNO<sub>3</sub> and HClO<sub>4</sub>, followed by determination of elements by ICP-atomic emission
512 spectrophotometry (ICP-AES) (Jobin Yvon JY-70 Plus).

513

514 Data on element concentrations in belowground biomass fractions were taken from literature from the Nordic 515 countries (Hellsten et al., 2013). Specifically, data on stump and root biomass of Norway spruce were available 516 for Asa and data from Svartberget was used for Flakaliden (Table 7 in Hellsten et al., 2013). 517 2.5.5. Leaching, Li LBC 518 Base cation leaching was quantified in 6six-month intervals from modelled daily runoff multiplied by average 519 element concentrations in soil water collected with tension lysimeters at 50 cm soil depth. 520 521 Soil water was collected from five ceramic tension -lysimeters (P80) installed at 50 cm depth in each experimental 522 plot. Soil water was collected on 2.3 occasions per year-during frost-free seasons, applying an initial tension of 523 70 kPa in 250 mL sampling bottles, and left overnight. These soil water samples were pooled by plot. The base 524 cation concentration in the soil solution was determined with ICP-AES. 525 Soil water sampling was performed twice every year, i.e. in the spring and in the autumn, which isare the periods 526 of highest water flux and which means that the most important leaching events arewere covered. The spring 527 samples were collected soon after the snowmelt and depending on current the weather in a specific year this meant 528 that the yearly spring sampling date varied between the last week of April and the last week of May. The 529 fallautumn samples were collected when late, i.e. frost risk increased. That meant that the fallautumn sampling 530 dates varied from year to year, i.e. from the first week in September to mid-November. The seasonal variation in 531 soil water chemistry is shown in Fig. S4). 532 533 An additional illustration of the variation in water chemistry with time of the year could be given as Fig.S4 to 534 show base cation fluxes for this period and to compare with the drainage flux (Fig.S5). Base cation leaching was 535 quantified in 6-month intervals from modelled runoff multiplied by average element concentrations in soil water collected with tension lysimeters at 50 cm soil depth. Runoff was calculated using CoupModel (Jansson, 2012). 536 537 The drainage flux out of the profile was calculated by the CoupModel (Jansson, 2012). The model was 538 parameterised based on hydraulic soil properties measured at the sites. The model was run with hourly mean 539 values of locally measured climate variables (precipitation, global radiation, wind speed, air temperature and 540 humidity) and model outcomes were tested against tensiometer data, i.e. bi-weekly tensiometer readings at 15, 30 541 and 45 cm depth were used for model calibration. The parameters were then adjusted slightly to obtain goodthe 542 best agreement between measured and calculated soil water content. Annual precipitation varied considerably 543 during the period 1990-2002, ranging from 906 to 504 mm at Flakaliden (mean 649 mm) and from 888 to 575 544 mm at Asa (mean 736 mm). 545 Annual evapotranspiration increased by about 50 mm at both sites, during the period 1987-2003 at Flakaliden and 546 1990-2002 at Asa, due to the increment in tree- leaf areabiomass. Monthly means and standard deviation of drainage (mm) at 50 cm depth in the soil of control plots at Asa during 1990 - 2004 and at Flakaliden during 547 548 1988-2004 are shown in and Fig. S5. 549

Annual precipitation varied considerably during the period 1990-2002, ranging from 906 to 504 mm at Flakaliden
 (mean 649 mm) and from 888 to 575 mm at Asa (mean 736 mm).

CoupModel was parameterised based on measured hydraulic soil properties. <u>MThe model was run with hourly</u>
 <u>mean values of local measured measured climate variables (global radiation, wind speed, air temperature and</u>
 humidity) and model outcomes were tested against tensiometer data, i.e. bi weekly tensiometer readings at 15, 30
 <u>and 45 cm depth were used for model calibration.</u>

557 . The parameters were then adjusted slightly to obtain the best agreement between measured and calculated soil
 558 water content. Annual evapotranspiration increased by about 50 mm at both sites, during the period 1987-2003 at
 559 Flakaliden and 1990-2002 at Asa, due to the increment in tree biomass. Soil water was collected from five ceramic
 560 tension lysimeters (P80) installed at 50 cm depth in each experimental plot. Soil water was collected on 2-3
 561 occasions per year during frost free seasons, applying an initial tension of 70 kPa in 250 mL sampling bottles,
 562 and left overnight. These soil water samples were pooled by plot. The base cation concentration in the soil solution
 563 was determined with ICP-AES.

## 564 2.5.6. Assessment Judgement of data quality in base cation budget mass balance

565 The precision and accuracy of a <u>base cation budgetmass balance</u> estimate of  $\frac{W_{budget, j}}{W_{budget, j}}$  determined by 566 the quality of estimates of each individual term in Eq. (3)equation 3, in proportion to the magnitude of each term 567 (Simonsson et al., 2015). Significant uncertainty in the estimate of a quantitatively important term will therefore 568 dominate the overall uncertainty in estimates of  $W_{\frac{bebudgetBC}{2}}$ . Firstly, tThe quality of data for each term in Eq. 569 (3) equation 3 was assessed based on the spatial and temporal scales of measurements and the quality of 570 measurements (Table 54). Using Based on these criteria, we consider the estimates of deposition, leaching and 571 accumulation in biomass to be of moderate to high quality. The measurements of changes in extractable soil pools 572 were of lower quality because extraction methods were not identical for samples collected 1986/1988 and 573 1998/2004 of bias in methods in repeated samplings, which would cause significant uncertainty if soil changes 574 were an important part of the element budget. To partly overcome this uncertainty, we used the estimates  $\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1$ 575 obtained by the PROFILE  $(W_{\text{profile}}, W_{\text{profile}})$  and depletion method  $(W_{\text{depletion}}, W_{\text{depletion}})$ s in additional base cation 576 budgetmass balance calculations where the change in soil was determined from the base cation budgetmass 577 balance. These additional base cation budgetmass balance estimates, which are conceptually analogous to the 578 regional mass balances presented by Akselsson et al. (2007), were also used to place the PROFILE and depletion 579 method estimates of  $\frac{W_{BC}}{W_{i}}$  in the context of other base cation fluxes at the ecosystem scale.

## 580

552

## 581 2.6 Statistical analyses

Site mean values and standard error (SE) of  $W_{depletion}$ ,  $W_{profile}$  were calculated based on the four (or two) soil profiles studied at each site. For  $W_{budget}$  an average based on the four control plots at each site was calculated as well as a combined standard uncertainty. The latter was partly based on standard errors derived from plot-wise replicated data of the present experiments (for leaching and changes in exchangeable soil pools, SE( $L_i$ ) and SE( $\Delta S_i$ ), respectively), partly on standard uncertainties (u) derived from Simonsson et al. 2015, where replicated data were missing in the present study (for accumulation in biomass and total deposition,  $u(\Delta B_i)$  and  $u(TD_i)$ , respectively). Because total deposition and bioaccumulation differed substantially from those in the study of Simonsson et al. 17 589 2015, relative standard uncertainties were derived from that study, and multiplied with the average deposition and

590 bioaccumulation rates at Asa and Flakaliden, respectively, to yield realistic standard uncertainties for the present

sites. For the weathering rate of the *i*th base cation according to Eq. (4), a combined standard uncertainty ( $u_c$ ) was calculated as:

593 
$$u_{c}(W_{budget, i}) = \sqrt{(SE(L_{i}))^{2} + (u(\Delta B_{i}))^{2} + (SE(\Delta S_{i}))^{2} + (u(TD_{i}))^{2}}$$
 (5)

594 Confidence intervals were calculated by multiplying the combined standard uncertainties with a coverage factor595 of 3.

596 Site mean values and standard error (SE) of weathering rates were calculated based on the four (or two) soil 597 598 site. TheA combined standard uncertainty of W<sub>budget</sub>W<sub>beb</sub> was estimated as the square root of the sum of squared 599 standard errors of the from the sums of 95% confidence interval of the terms in the right hand terms side of Eq. 600 (4) equation (4). The confidence intervals for soil change and leaching was based on measured between-plot 601 variation (n=4) using 1.96 as coverage factor. Standard errors The confidence interval for deposition and base 602 cation biomass accumulation in biomass and deposition waswere based on calculations from Simonsson et al. 603 (2015; Table 4-8 in that paper) of an experimental study site in southern Sweden (Skogaby), since  $L_i$  and  $\Delta B_i L_{\mu c}$ 604 and B<sub>BC</sub> data were not available for individuals plots. A coverage factor of 3 was then used.

## 606 3. Results

605

## 607 3.1 Depletion method estimates of historical weathering rates

608 At both Asa and Flakaliden, historical weathering rates estimated with the depletion method  $(W_{depletion})$  were 609 highest in the upper soil layers and showed a gradual decrease down to the reference depth, which was defined in 610 most plots at 60-70 cm at Flakaliden and for most plots at 80-90 cm at Asa (Fig. 32). Weathering had also taken 611 place below the reference depth. In line with the younger age of the soils at Flakaliden (indicated also by higher 612 abundance of thehad- a higher-content of more easily weatehrbale weatherable minerals amphibole, trioctahedral 613 phyllosilicates and calcic plagioclase), and also athe higher historical annual weathering rate to 90 cm soil 614 depthwas higher at Flakaliden, 37.8 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>, compared tothan Asa, 12.8 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>. The base cation 615 weathering down to 90 cm soil depth amounted to 12.8 mmole m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>4</sup> at Asa and <u>37.8</u>25.1 mmole m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>4</sup> at 616 Flakaliden.; Tthe corresponding value for the 0-50 cm horizon depth was 34.1 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup> at Flakaliden and 617  $10.5 \text{ mmol}_{c} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  at Asa and  $34.122.4 \text{ mmol}_{c} \text{ m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$  at Flakaliden. The gradients with depth showed that  $W_{\text{depletion}}$ 618 increased towards the surface, although this trend was more pronounced at Flakaliden than at Asa. Furthermore, 619 aAt Flakaliden, W<sub>depletion</sub> was highest for Mg, followed by Ca, Na and K (Figs. 2 and 33 and 4): -aAt Asa, the 620 largest average mass loss was observedit was highest for Ca, closely followed by Mg, Na and K (Figs. 32 and 43).

621 3.2 PROFILE model estimates of steady state weathering rates

622 The steady state weathering rate estimated by the PROFILE model (Wprofile) differed from the historical rate with 623 respect to all aspects covered by the three starting hypothesestest criteria, i.e. (1) total weathering rate in the 0-50 624 cm soil layer, (2) variation in weathering with depth and (3) ranking order of base cations (Figs. 3 and 4Figs. 2 625 and 3). Firstly, regarding-base cation weathering rate in the upper 50 cm of the mineral soil, W<sub>profile</sub> estimates for 626 Asa and Flakaliden (Asa: 37.1 mmole m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>, Flakaliden: 42.7 mmole m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>) were around 3.5 and 1.3-fold higher 627 than W<sub>depletion</sub> estimates, respectively. Secondly, the total modelled base cation weathering rate for the soil profile 628 down to 90 cm was around 7-fold higher than the rate estimated using the depletion method at Asa (89.4 mmol<sub>c</sub> 629 m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>), and almost 3.45-fold higher at Flakaliden (127.6 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>). U-Secondly,

630 <u>unlike the historical weathering based on the depletion method</u>, PROFILE predicted that weathering rates 631 increased with soil depth at <u>both sites</u>Asa (down to 90 cm) and Flakaliden (down to 60 cm). At Flakaliden, 632 anomalously-high contents of K- and Mg-bearing tri-octahedral mica (Casetou-Gustafson et al., 2018) gave rise 633 to <u>increased-particularly high</u> weathering rates at 70-80 cm. <u>Thirdly, as opposed to  $W_{depletions}$ . Apart from in that 634 specific soil layer, at both sites  $W_{profile}$  was largest for Na <u>at both sites</u>, followed by Ca. However,  $W_{profile}$  was 635 larger for K than for Mg at Asa, while the reverse was true at Flakaliden.</u>

In general, PROFILE also predicted much higher weathering rates than the depletion method (Fig. <u>32</u>). However,
both methods estimated consistently higher weathering rates at Flakaliden than Asa. The total modelled base
eation weathering rate for the soil profile down to 90 cm was around 7-fold higher than the rate estimated using
the depletion method at Asa (89.4 mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>), and almost 5-fold higher at Flakaliden (127.6 mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>).

640 Weathering rates are often reported for the upper 50 cm soil layer, as an approximation of the root zone. On 641 restricting the base cation weathering rate to the upper 50 cm of the mineral soil, W<sub>profile</sub> estimates for Asa and 642 Flakaliden were more similar (Asa: 37.1 mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>, Flakaliden: 42.7 mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>yr<sup>-1</sup>). This was not the case 643 for W<sub>depletion</sub> as shown above, as the estimate for Flakaliden was more than twice that obtained for Asa. However, 644 W<sub>depletion</sub> was higher than W<sub>profile</sub> for Mg. In relative terms, the difference between sites in W<sub>depletion</sub> in the 0-50 cm 645 layer was similar to the difference observed for the whole soil profile.

646 The sensitivity analysis of the PROFILE model using homogeneous soil physical and/or mineralogical properties 647 demonstrated that the variations in soil physical parameters properties (i.e. soil bulk density and specific exposed 648 mineral surface areasoil texture and density) with depth had a greater influence , rather than mineralogy, was the 649 most important input data explaining on the observed change in  $W_{\text{profile}}$  with soil depth. Applying homogeneous 650 mineralogy had little effect, with the original gradient of Wprofile (Fig. 32) being similarly reproduced with depth. 651 However, when homogenous soil physical conditions were applied (i.e. a combination of homogeneity in soil 652 physics and soil mineralogy), there were some small variations in Wprofile between soil layers (Tables S1 and S2). 653 In terms of the ratios of sums of squaresd error, the 'homogenousised ealeulated from the difference in W<sub>profile</sub> 654 between actual and homogeneous soil, 75-85% of the total error at Flakaliden was due to homogeneity in soil 655 physics only, while the error due to homogeneous mineralogy was 2-17%. soil physics' of scenario (1) produced 656 75% or more of the error obtained with 'homogenousnised soil physics and mineralogy' (scenario (3)), leaving a 657 mere 25% or less to the 'homogenousised mineralogy' of scenario (2); The corresponding error values

658 were 76-94% and 1-4%, respectivelyalso see Tables S1 and S2. One exception to these findings was plot 10B at 659 Flakaliden, which showed somewhat higher error (17%) resulting from homogeneous mineralogy. This was due 660 to the anomalously high content of trioctahedral micas at 70 80 cm depth, as previously reported by Casetou-661 Gustafson et al. (2018). At Asa, an outlier to the results was plot F3, where homogeneous soil physical properties 662 produced 109% of the error resulting from homogeneous soil. This was because, by coincidence, soil profile F3 663 had relatively high bulk density and exposed mineral surface area in the uppermost soil layer, compared with the 664 average soil physical input data, and therefore the homogeneous soil test produced lower weathering rates., The 665 sSoil physical input parameters that were more important for PROFILE weathering rates are indicated in Figs. S1 666 and S2. There was a strong linear and positive relationship between exposed mineral surface area and W<sub>profile</sub> for 667 all elements at both sites, with R<sup>2</sup> values ranging from 0.65 to 0.89 (Fig. S1). The relationship between bulk density 668 and W<sub>profile</sub> was also strong and showed the same linear response, although R<sup>2</sup> values were lower, 0.40-0.70 (Fig. 669 S2).

670 3.3 <u>Base cation budget Mass balance</u> estimates of current weathering rates

671 A comparison of weathering rates estimated by base cation budgets mass balance (Wheehudgetmb), Wprofile and 672 W<sub>depletion</sub> was made for the 0-50 cm soil layer. The physical boundary for the base cation budget mass balance was 673 defined by the depth of soil solution sampling (50 cm). It was found that, for most elements, Wmb-WbudgetWbeb in 674 the 0-50 cm layer was higher, or much higher, than  $W_{\text{profile}}$ -(Fig. <u>43</u>). Compared with the PROFILE model 675 estimates, the base cation budgetmass balance estimates of weathering were 6- to 7-fold higher for Ca, Mg and K 676 weathering at Asa, and about 2- to 3-fold higher for Ca, Mg and K at Flakaliden. At Asa, the sum of base cations 677 was on average 13-fold and 3.6-fold larger than W<sub>depletion</sub> average annual long term weathering rates based on the 678 depletion method and  $W_{\text{profile}}$ PROFILE method, respectively. The closest fit-resemblance between methods was 679 found between  $W_{\text{depletion}}$  and  $W_{\text{mb}}$ - $W_{\text{budget}}$  for Na. The budget calculations suggested that weathering was a 680 dominant source of K and Mg, but contributed a somewhat smaller proportion of Ca (61% at Asa and 43% at 681 Flakaliden).

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#### 684 3.4 FBase cation fluxes in measured base cation budgetsmass balances

As to the -general pattern in <u>fbase cation fluxes (terms) of in-the base cation budget, mass balances was the</u> difference between Na showed patterns different from those of , on the one hand, and K, Mg and Ca on the other (Fig. <u>54</u>). For Na, uptake in biomass was negligible and leaching was the dominant sink. For the latter three elements, <u>This difference was largely due to accumulation in biomass being was</u> the dominant sink for the latter elements, whereas Na uptake in biomass was negligible and leaching was the dominant sink. Compared with biomass uptake, <u>IL</u>oss by leaching was a negligible <u>sink</u> for K, but <u>significant significant sink</u> for Mg and Na.

Deposition <u>generally represented only was a minor small source of base cation inputs</u>, except for Na at Asa. The
measured decreases in soil stocks of exchangeable base cations indicated that a change in this pool was a
particularly important source of Ca. There were minor increases in exchangeable stocks for Na, K and Mg at Asa.

In summary, the base cation budgetmass balance calculations indicated that weathering was a particularly
 dominant source of K and Mg, but weathering contributed a relatively smaller proportion of the total Ca sources
 than for K and Mg (61% at Asa and 43% at Flakaliden).

The combined uncertainty of W<sub>bebbudget</sub> was larger for Ca and K, both dominated by the bioaccumulation term in
 Eq. (4), than for Na and Mg (Table 6). In relation to the mean W<sub>budget</sub>, the combined uncertainty was of the same
 order of magnitude for Na, about the half for Ca, one-third for K, and lower for Mg.In-relation to the mean
 W<sub>bebbudget</sub>, the combined uncertainty was about 3 times higher for Na, 2 times higher for Ca and of the same order
 or lower for K and Mg. The contribution of the combined uncertainty from the different terms in equation (4)
 reflected their quantitative importance in the budget for each element. For example, uncertainty in biomass
 accumulation dominated in the combined uncertainty for Ca and K, but was negligible for Na.

708 By using the weathering estimates obtained using with PROFILE and the depletion method in the base cation 709 budgetmass balance equation, (Eq.uation (43), in combination with measured estimates of deposition, leaching 710 and uptake in biomass, alternative soil balances were estimated (Fig. 54). Since the base cation budgetmass 711 balance method predicted much higher weathering rates than the other methods, a balance of sources and sinks 712 consequently required more marked decreases in exchangeable soil stocks for K, Ca and Mg when weathering 713 rates were based on PROFILE of or the depletion method-was used. Furthermore, as a consequence of the 714 substantially higher W<sub>profile</sub> for Na, the PROFILE based <u>base cation budgetmass balance</u> suggested substantial 715 increases in exchangeable Na stocks.

## 716 4. Discussion

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#### 717 4.1 Comparison of conceptually different methods

718 A number of studies have used multiple approaches to estimate weathering rates, with the aim of validating 719 methods and finding a best estimate for a particular site or catchment (Langan et al., 1995; Kolka et al., 1996; 720 Sverdrup et al., 1998; Futter et al., 2012). A common problem encountered is that differences in quantities, the 721 approaches are not only complicated to interpret due toby used are so-conceptually differences between the 722 approaches, but also due toby the fact that the comparisons are not carried out in an harmonized way, i.e. at the 723 same scale (pedon/catchment), using exactllyidentical the same-sampling locations and methods for common 724 input data, and-whenever methods are compared, using the consistent assumptions about the same-weathering 725 zone (i.e. 0-50 cm or 0-100 cm)-. Cnt that the comparisons do not deal with similar quantities at spatial or temporal 726 scale. Concerning the spatial scale, to our knowledge\_the base cation mass balance approach has most often more 727 commonly been applied at the catchment and forest stand scale, whereas the depletion method and the PROFILE 728 model are normally applied at the smaller pedon scale. In the present study, the base cation budget mass balance 729 approach included data at stand level over a period when the stand showed aed high nutrient demand. Concerning 730 the temporal scale, the concepts of the depletion method and the PROFILE model are conceptually different, 731 although they can be applied at similar spatial scale. In the present study, T these two methods are based on direct

732 measurements of soil properties, i.e. quantitative mineralogy, soil bulk density and soil stone content, which is 733 was rarely the case in previous comparable studies. Since the -three approaches used here do not measure similar 734 quantities at spatial and temporal scale, and all of them have obvious weaknesses, no estimate can be taken as a 735 safe reference value of the "true" weathering rate at the study sites. However, for the purposes of the following 736 discussion, we are of the view that the conceptual differences between these three approaches are an asset-in-our 737 ease, as they provide complementary information about weathering at different scales that helps to identifying 738 strengths and weaknesses of each method and establishprovide reasons as to why these methods tend to vary in 739 estimated overestimate or underestimate weathering rates of a particular elements.

# 4.2 Depletion method estimates versus PROFILE model estimates Pedon scale weathering rates - a eomparison with other studies

Modelled  $(W_{\text{profile}})$  and historical  $(W_{\text{depletion}})$  base cation weathering rates were within the range of recently published data for similar forest sites on podzolised glacial till (Stendahl et al., 2013). However, the historical weathering rates at Asa were similar to the lowest historical weathering rate observed by Stendahl et al. (2013) and the historical weathering rates for Flakaliden were similar to their highest rates, at least with regard to Ca and Mg.

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749 Our first test criterion was the overall weathering rate to see if there are similarities in weathering estimates forover 750 the 0-50 cm depth in the soil profile. A major finding of this study-was that, in the 0-50 cm soil profile, W<sub>profile</sub> 751 was higher than W<sub>depletion</sub> for Na and K, and the methods generally failed to fulfil our first test criterion concerning 752 weathering in the soil profile as a whole. Similarly, high ratios of  $W_{\text{profile}}/W_{\text{depletion}}$  of 4 were found at catchment 753 scale by Augustin et al. (2016). At the pedon scale, Stendahl et al. (2013) found W<sub>profile</sub>/W<sub>depletion</sub> ratios of- on 754 average 2.7 for 16 Swedish study sites (with average max. and min. ratios of 7.9 and 0.4, respectively)2.3 and 2.2 755 at Vindeln and Svartberget close to Flakaliden; this ese ratio s was larger than the one found for are even larger 756 than obtained for Flakaliden in our study (1.53) and lower than the one found for Asa (5.1). -By-contrast, the 757 geographically closest site to Asa (Lammhult, approx. 10 km) had a much lower ratio (1.1, compared with 3.5 in 758 our study). Similar to Flakaliden, ly-low ratios have been reported for the Lake Gårdsjön site situated in south-759 western Sweden (Sverdrup et al., 1998; Stendahl et al., 2013), while the high ratio we obtained for Asa was close 760 to that (4.6) reported by Stendahl et al. (2013) for Skånes Värsjö, another site located in south-western Sweden 761 (in the county of Skåne). An exception to the general trend of higher steady-state PROFILE weathering rates 762 compared to historical rates calculated by the depletion method, was found for Mg at the Flakaliden site, where 763  $W_{depletion}$  was 1.9-fold greater than  $W_{profile}$  in the upper mineral soil, but only at Flakaliden. This exception with 764 regard to Mg was also found by Stendahl et al. (2013) for all of their 16 study sites. 765

However, the estimated weathering rates are relevant for estimated by the depletion method and the PROFILE
 model can be expected to differ due to differences indifferent temporal scales. Several studies have concluded
 that the average historical weathering rate should generally be higher than the present weathering rate, since soil
 development involves loss of easily weatherable minerals and ageing of mineral surfaces (Bain et al., 1993; Taylor

770 and Blum, 1995; White et al., 1996). In a study using the Historic-SAFE model, applied to the Lake Gårdsjön 771 catchment in southwestern Sweden, Sverdrup et al. (1998) predicted a decline in weathering rates due to assumed 772 disappearance of fine particles and loss of minerals. Their results suggested an increase in weathering rates - from 773 the end of the deglaciation 12,000 years B.P. towards a peak at 9000 years B.P., followed by a gradual decrease 774 to below initial levels. 775 776 With this background, it may not seem surprising that our 777 Further, the comparison of results from testing our first criterion with results from other studies can be done by 778 estimates from the magnitude of weathering for soils of similar pedogenesis but also from the proportions of the 779 estimates of depletion versus PROFILE. In terms of the magnitude of the estimates, aA general finding of this 780 study concerning weathering at the pedon scale was that total modelled (Warofile) and historical (Waterlation) base 781 eation weathering rates were lies within the range of in good agreement with recent published data for similar 782 forest sites on podsolic till soils (Stendahl et al., 2013). However, the historical weathering rates at Asa were of 783 similar magnitude to the lowest historical weathering rate observed by Stendahl et al. (2013) and the historical 784 weathering rates for Flakaliden were of similar magnitude to their highest rates, at least with regard to Ca and Mg. 785 Most Nordie studies on historical weathering rates have been conducted in the boreal region 786 (Tamm, 1920, 1931; Land et al., 1999; Olsson and Melkerud, 2000; Stendahl et al., 2013; Starr et al., 2014), Even 787 though soil profile depth and soil age in these weathering studies differ from those in ours, they obtained higher rates (Land et al., 1999; Olsson and Melkerud, 2000; Stendahl et al., 2013), similar rates (Stendahl et al., 2013) 788 789 or lower rates (Starr et al., 2014) for soils developed on glacial tills. 790 4.2.1 Depletion method estimates versus PROFILE model estimates 791 A major finding of this study was that, in the 0-50 cm soil profile, W<sub>profile</sub> was higher than W<sub>depletion</sub> for all elements 792 except Na, and the methods generally failed to fulfil our first test criterion concerning weathering in the soil profile 793 as a whole. However, weathering rates estimated by the depletion method and the PROFILE model can be 794 expected to differ due to differences in temporal scale. Several studies have concluded that the average historical 795 weathering rate should generally be higher than the present weathering rate, since soil development involves loss 796 of easily weatherable minerals and ageing of mineral surfaces (Bain et al., 1993; Taylor and Blum, 1995; White 797 et al., 1996). In a study using the Historic-SAFE model, applied to the Lake Gårdsjön catchment in southwestern 798 Sweden, Sverdrup et al. (1998) predicted a decline in weathering rates due to assumed disappearance of fine 799 particles and loss of minerals. Their results suggested an increase in weathering rates, from the end of the 800 glaciation 12,000 years B.P. towards a peak at 9000 years B.P., followed by a gradual decrease below initial 801 levels. 802 In terms of the proportion of the estimates of depletion versus PROFILE, However, in the present study PROFILE 803 generally yielded higher weathering rates than the depletion method at both study sites. Similar results have been 804 found in other studies, as indicated by high modelled to historic weathering rate ratio (Wprofile/Wdepletion). At 805 catchment scale, Augustin et al. (2016) found that weathering estimated by PROFILE was on average 4 fold 806 greater than weathering based on the depletion method. At the pedon scale, Stendahl et al. (2013) found 807 Wprofile/Wdepletion ratios of 2.3 and 2.2 for two sites near Flakaliden, namely\_Vindeln and Svartberget, which are 808 similar larger than values compared to that found for Flakaliden in our study (12.30). However, the geographically

809 elosest site to Asa (Lammhult, approx. 10 km) had a much lower ratio (1.1, compared with 3.5 in our study). 810 Similarly low ratios have been reported for the Gårdsjön site situated in south-western Sweden (i.e. county of 811 Västra Götaland) (Sverdrup et al., 1998; Stendahl et al., 2013), while the high ratio we obtained for Asa was close 812 to that (4.6) reported by Stendahl et al. (2013) for Skånes Värsjö, another site located in south-western Sweden 813 (i.e.in the county of Skåne). An exception to the general trend of higher steady state PROFILE weathering rates 814 compared to historical rates calculated by the depletion method, was found for Mg at the Flakaliden site, where 815 W<sub>depletion</sub> was 1.1.23-fold greater than W<sub>profile</sub> in the upper mineral soil, but only at Flakaliden.. This exception with 816 regard to Mg was also found by Stendahl et al. (2013) for all of their 16 study sites.

818 Our second test, postulating similarity between methods concerning the weathering rate gradient with soil depth, 819 was not fulfilled. We may imagine a front of intense weathering moving downward through the soil profile over 820 the millennia. Each horizon would undergo an episode, limited in time, of intense weathering followed by slower 821 weathering in the ageing material., The sensitivity test performed with PROFILE revealed that the model output 822 was only little affected by the differences in mineralogy between horizons. Therefore, if processes are correctly 823 modelled with PROFILE, the notion of a weathering front should primarily be associated with changes in bulk 824 density and exposed mineral surface area, as also suggested by the positive correlation between  $W_{\text{profile}}$  and 825 exposed mineral surface area and bulk density (Figs. S1-S2) and by the findings of Jönsson et al. (1995).

827 The intense weathering at depth simulated by PROFILE is obviously in contrast with the classic notion of 828 weathering rates being highest in the A- or E-horizon of podzolised soils (Tamm, 1931). To test whether the high 829  $W_{\text{profile}}$  values were possible to reconcile with the observed historical weathering, because the PROFILE model 830 predicted increasing weathering rates with increasing soil depth, which was contrary to the depletion method. 831 Since soil forming processes and ageing of minerals suggest that the present weathering rate might differ from 832 the average historical value, we calculated the hypothetical time needed for the simulated current\_PROFILE 833 weathering rates to accomplish the element losses determined with the depletion method was calculated. 834 Specifically, one can imagine This approach corresponds to a situation where there is a front of intense weathering 835 moving down through the soil profile, during which a pristine horizon would undergo an episode, limited in time, 836 of intense weathering followed by slower weathering in the ageing material. In concert with this notion, the highest weathering rate, presently prevailing at approximately 80 cm (Asa) or 60 cm (Flakaliden) depth according to 837 838 PROFILE (Fig. 2), would cause the observed depletion losses within less than half of the soil age ('max rates' in 839 Fig. 6), potentially in concert with the concept of a weathering front. However, the calculation also showed that 840 the present minimum weathering rate, presently simulated for the topmost 1-3 layers (Fig. 2), would often result 841 in a more severe base cation depletion withsuffice "do the job" in less than the postglacial period than observed 842 by the depletion method ('min rates' in Fig. 6), particularly at Flakaliden, and for K and Na also at Asa. Hence, 843 the current minimum weathering rates according to PROFILE are not generally sustainable within the limits set 844 by the depletion method Provided that the current weathering rate did not substantially exceed the historical 845 average, this suggests a positive bias in W<sub>profile</sub> at the investigated sites, indicating either bias in either of the 846 methods, or a current weathering pressure that is correctly modelled but exceeds the historical average.

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848 The weathering rates of PROFILE may also be criticized based on discrepancies in the ranking order of weathering 849 of elements, compared to historical weathering; this is our third test criterion. PROFILE predicted the highest 850 steady-state weathering for Na at both sites. However, historical weathering at Asa was greatest for Ca among the 851 base cation elements, whereas Mg was the most abundant element released at Flakaliden. The latter was also 852 found by Olsson and Melkerud (2000), who reported the same ranking order of individual base cation weathering 853 (i.e. Mg>Ca>Na>K) for other sites in northern Sweden. At the mineralogical level, Casetou-Gustafson et al. (this 854 issue) could demonstrates that K-feldspar was the dominant source of all steady state PROFILE weathering of K 855 and there are indications that the dissolution rate for K-feldspar is too high compared with mica. For example, 856 Thompson and Ukrainczyk (2002) described differences in the plant availability of K via weathering from these 857 two mineral groups. In addition, Simonsson et al. (2016) found that, although K-feldspar contained approximately 858 90% of the bulk was the dominant K in the soil, 25-50% of the weathering of K had occurred in bearing mineral 859 in a till soil in south-western Sweden, a large proportion of the K loss was explained by-mica. Furthermore, and 860 in more general terms, Hodson and Langan (1999) suggested that the PROFILE model overestimates weathering 861 rates because it does not consider the decrease in mineral reactivity that has taken place over time and because it 862 assumes that all mineral surface areas are reactive. If this is not accounted for, PROFILE can be expected to 863 generate-overestimates rather than underestimates for base cation weathering rates. The weathering rates of 864 PROFILE may be criticized based on discrepancies in the ranking order of weathering of elements, compared to 865 historical weathering; this is our third test criterion. PROFILE predicted the highest steady-state weathering for 866 Na at both sites. However, historical weathering at Asa was greatest for Ca among the base cation elements, 867 whereas Mg was the most abundant element released at Flakaliden. The latter was also found by Olsson and 868 Melkerud (2000), who reported the same ranking order of individual base cation weathering (i.e. Mg>Ca>Na>K) 869 for other sites in northern Sweden. 870

872 As to possible errors in weathering rates according to PROFILE, the sensitivity test indicated that the within-873 profile variability of soil physical properties had a much greater effect on simulated weathering rates than the 874 differences in mineralogy between different horizons. Therefore, the notion of a weathering front, significantly 875 ehanging the mineralogical composition of the soil, does not appear to be able to result in any episodic modelled 876 weathering for the studied soils; the decline in weathering rate with time is more likely to be attributable to 877 disappearance of fine particles, as also indicated by the positive correlation between W<sub>profile</sub> and exposed mineral 878 surface area and bulk density (Figs. S1-S2). Moreover, given the variability of physical and mineralogical 879 properties in the investigated soils, fine tuning parameters related to the exposed mineral surface area is most 880 likely to affect the model output, similarly to the findings of Jönsson et al. (1995). Furthermore, the discrepancy 881 between W<sub>profile</sub> and W<sub>depletion</sub> with respect to soil depth gradient implies that the PROFILE model produces 882 weathering rate patterns that are not in line with the classic notion of weathering rates being highest in the A- or 883 E-horizon (Tamm, 1931). However, it is consistent with the more recent notion that mineral dissolution decreases 884 with increasing time/exposure to weathering (White et al., 1996; Parry et al., 2015). In line with this, the results 885 support the view that historical weathering rates do not show identical depth gradients to steady-state weathering

rates, and thus W<sub>profile</sub> and W<sub>depletion</sub> could both be accurate estimates, of steady-state and historical weathering
 rates, respectively.

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889 As to possible bias in the historical weathering rates, underestimates are possible at Asa, where the low values of 890  $W_{\text{depletion}}$  can be attributed to the low gradient of Zr in the soil (Fig. 5). This might, in turn, be the result of soil 891 mixing by different means. Mechanical soil scarification was carried out at both Asa and Flakaliden prior to 892 planting of the present stand, which would at least have caused partial mixing or inversion of surficial soil layers. 893 In addition, clearance cairns of unknown age were found in the experimental area at Asa, indicating small-scale 894 agriculture in the past. Moreover, if burrowing earthworms have been abundant in the past, they might have 895 produced soil mixing in the upper soil horizons (Taylor et al., 2019), resulting in a complicated and erratic 896 disturbed Zr gradient (Fig. 25) and resulting in low estimates of historical weathering in the rooting zone (Whitfield 897 et al. 2011). High or near-neutral soil pH and deciduous litter can promote high population densities of burrowing 898 earthworms following forest clearing and agriculture; partly deciduous vegetation indeed dominated at Asa until 899 only 1000-2000 years BP, with species such as Scots pine (Pinus sylvestris), Corylus avellana (L.), Betula spp., 900 Quercus spp. and Tilia spp. (Greisman et al., 2009).

902 Apart from disturbances, natural variability in weathering rates can likely be attributed to differences in soil 903 texture (i.e. exposed mineral surface area), climate (i.e. temperature and water percolation rate) and mineralogy. 904 At Flakaliden, it was reasoned that complicated heterogeneous Zr gradients (Fig. 25) and Zr/base cation ratios 905 (Fig. S3) disqualified two soil profiles from further analysis, which would have otherwise indicatedeaused 906 unreasonable net gains of elements in the rooting zone (0-50 cm) (i.e. for soil profile 15A -for all elements and 907 for soil profile 11B with regard to Na and K). Whitfield et al. (2011) used the same argumentation for excluding 908 single profiles from their calculations, emphasizing that overall gains in the rooting zone are not expected without 909 external additions of base cations to the soil profiles. Several alternative reasons could have contributed to the 910 observed peaks of Zr in the B/C-horizon at Flakaliden, such as local heterogeneities of the deposited till, which 911 was suggestedindicated by the unstable Ti/Zr ratio in soil profile 15A and 11B. However, the observed peaks in 912 the Ti/Zr gradients were only explained by irregularities in Ti gradients (i.e. increases in the Ti/Zr ratio indicate 913 that Ti concentrations are increasing) the latter has to be treated carefully since in cases where both Zr and Ti 914 show inconsistent patterns with soil depth, the Ti/Zr ratio will still be stable and hereby overshadows 915 heteroegeoeneities observed with soil depth for both elements (Fig. -S3 and Fig. SX1, 2). Thus, 916 heeterogenitesheterogeneities in Zr gradients observed in the B/C horizon can be attributed to local heterogeneities 917 of the parent material irrespective no matter iof if the Ti/Zr gradientns are stable at these depths. At Flakaliden, 918 the small-scale variation in Zr mobility might be one of the driving forces behind the large within site variation 919 in Zr gradient (Fig. 25)... The latter is exemplified in different patterns of Zr enrichment for different soil profiles 920 (Fig. 25). An increase with depth could indicate Zr transport from shallow to deeper soil layers, most significantly 921 reflected in the Zr/base cation ratio for K (Fig. S3). In relation to this, in a column experiment Hodson et al. (2002) 922 found that K was the most sensitive element to Zr mobility and that redistribution of Zr led to insignificant 923 underestimations of base cation weathering. An alternative explanation for the increased subsoil Zr content could 924 be related to the distinct peaks of rare earth metals in the B-horizons of Swedish podsolic soils reported by Tyler 26

et al. (2004), who related them to increased solubility. Increasing Zr concentration in the B-horizon of forest soils
in northern Sweden has also been reported by Melkerud et al. (2000) and, in particular, in a study by Olsson and
Melkerud (2000).

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929 Regardless of errors in the Zr gradients, both W<sub>depletion</sub> and W<sub>profile</sub> showed more marked gradients with soil depth 930 at Flakaliden compared to Asa. This could be expected based on the more well-developed podszol profile at 931 Flakaliden. It has been postulated that the formation of podszols is enhanced by long duration and great depth of 932 snow cover (Jauhiainen, 1973; Schaetzl and Isard, 1996), which would imply that podsols soil formation had 933 progressed further have developed better at Flakaliden than at Asa (Lundström et al., 2000). At Flakaliden, the 934 average mass loss of Ca and Mg was 4.0-fold larger in the E-horizon than in the B-horizon, which is similar to 935 findings by Olsson and Melkerud (2000) of a 5-fold higher ratio between losses of base cations in the E- compared 936 with the B-horizon.

937 The weathering rates of PROFILE may be criticized based on discrepancies in the ranking order of weathering of 938 elements, compared to historical weathering; this is our third test criterion. PROFILE predicted the highest steady-939 state weathering for Na at both sites. However, historical weathering at Asa was greatest for Ca among the base 940 eation elements, whereas Mg was the most abundant element released at Flakaliden. The latter was also found by 941 Olsson and Melkerud (2000), who reported the same ranking order of individual base cation weathering (i.e. 942 Mg>Ca>Na>K) for other sites in northern Sweden.

## 943 4.3 Weathering in a <u>base cation budgetmass balance</u> perspective

The base cation budget approach consistently resulted in much higher weathering rates than PROFILE and the depletion method for all base cations except Na. However, as was shown by the large combined uncertainties given in Table 6, base cation budget estimates of weathering are associated with substantial uncertainties from different sources. Similar large uncertainties associated with estimates of W<sub>budget</sub> were observed by Simonsson et al. (2015) for the Skogaby site in south-western Sweden, a Norway spruce site of similar stand age and soil condition as Asa.. Accounting for all sources of uncertainty, they found that the 95% confidence interval in estimates of base cation weathering was 2.6 times the mean (33 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>).

Despite the considerable uncertainties in W<sub>budget</sub> estimates, the base cation budget approach illustrated that
accumulation in biomass was a dominant sink for all base cation elements except Na. This is in line with findings
by Nykvist (2000) for two Norway spruce sites in Sweden and the study by Simonsson et al. (2015). However, it
contrasts to conditions in other studies of no change in soil and tree biomass stocks of base cations (e.g. Sverdrup
et al., 1998). The higher estimates of weathering rate at Asa reflected the higher productivity and nutrient demand
of the stand at this site (Bergh et al., 1999), which has resulted in 1.4-fold greater accumulation of base cations in
biomass than at Flakaliden.

Despite the considerable uncertainties in <u>W<sub>budges</sub></u>-W<sub>bebmb</sub> estimates, the mass balance approach illustrated that
 accumulation in biomass was a dominant sink for all base cation elements except Na. This is in line with findings
 by Nykvist (200<u>1</u>0) for two Norway spruce sites in Sweden and by Simonsson et al. (2015) for an aggrading

961 Norway spruce forest in south-western Sweden. However, it <u>contrasts to conditions</u> contradicts findings in other 962 studies of no change in soil and tree biomass stocks of base cations (e.g. Sverdrup et al., 1998). The higher 963 estimates of weathering rate at Asa reflected the higher productivity and nutrient demand of the stand at this site 964 (Bergh et al., 1999), which has resulted in 1.4 fold greater accumulation of base cations in biomass than at 965 Flakaliden.

966 The Na fluxes differed from those of the other base cations, probably because Ca, Mg and K are important plant 967 nutrients whereas Na is not. Calcium and Mg uptake in forest trees is considered to be more or less passive flow 968 driven by transpiration fluxes, whereas K uptake is an energy-demanding active process (Nieves-Cordones et al., 969 2014). Considering that Na was the dominant base cation in the soil solution at 50 cm soil depth (Fig. 5), the 970 negligible accumulation of Na in tree biomass suggests that Na uptake in trees is physiologically blocked. Low 971 concentrations of Na seem to be a general feature of terrestrial plants in boreal forests, in contrast to aquatic plants, 972 which explains why the latter are considered important Na sources for large herbivores like moose (Ohlson and 973 Staaland, 2001). Thus, the negligible Na accumulation in tree biomass and the particularly low deposition at 974 Flakaliden simplify the Na budget mass balance to only three major counterbalancing fluxes: weathering, 975 deposition and leaching. Since  $W_{depletion}$  and  $\frac{W_{mb}-W_{budgeteb}}{V}$  of Na were fairly similar, and were much lower than 976  $W_{\text{profile}}$ , our results provide additional support for the claim that the PROFILE model produced consistently too 977 high Na weathering.

978 Accumulation of Ca, Mg and K in biomass made up the dominant sink. Since deposition and measured depletion 979 of extractable Ca, K and Mg in the soil did not balance this sink, substantial missing sources, there estimated as 980 an apparent weathering rate,) were needed to reach a balance. Using the alternative weathering estimates by 981 PROFILE and the depletion method in the base cation budgetmass balance resulted in even larger estimated 982 depletion in the soil to balance the sinks than was actually measured. Assuming that the measurements of 983 accumulation in biomass, deposition and leaching were reasonably accurate, the results either indicate large 984 uncertainties in measures of soil changes and/or that additional sources of base cations in the soil balanced the 985 sinks. Uncertainties in estimating soil changes were probably significant, since the estimates of soil depletion 986 were based on two single measurements over 12 years and the extraction procedures were not identical over time. 987 Nevertheless, the changes observed in extractable Ca stocks in the soil are in line with observations over 22 years 988 of aggrading Norway spruce forests by Zetterberg et al. (2016), who reported exchangeable Ca depletion rates of 989 5-11 and 23-39 mmol<sub>c</sub>  $m^{:2}$  yr<sup>-1</sup> for sites in south-western and northern Sweden, respectively. The higher value for the northern site reflected higher Ca saturation in the soil. The corresponding values for Asa and Flakaliden were 990 991 larger, but of similar magnitude (34.5 and 40.5 mmol<sub>c</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). Brandtberg and Olsson (2012) 992 studied the same sites as Zetterberg et al. (2016) over a 10-year period and found a general minor increase in 993 extractable K soil stocks and a substantial decrease in the Ca stocks, a result much similar to the findings of the 994 present study. Moreover, exchangeable K stocks in the soil normally show little variation over time (B.A. Olss 995 unpublished data). Great depletion in exchangeable K stocks in the soil is therefore unlikely. The results therefore 996 suggest that other sources of nutrient base cations exist in the soil, apart from weathering ( $W_{depletion}$ ,  $W_{profile}$ ) and 997 depletion of ammonium-chloride-extractable base cation stocks. It is well known that the exchangeable

998 extractable\_nutrient stock in the soil is defined by the extraction medium and procedure. A test of different 999 extractants used on the soils in the present study revealed that using NH4OAc posed a risk of underestimating the 000 amounts of base cations in the soil and that the yield of exchangeable extractable base cations decreased in the 1001 order aqua regia > HCl > EDTA > BaCl<sub>2</sub> > NH<sub>4</sub>OAc (Olofsson, 2016). Using a more potent extractant than 1 M 002 NH4Cl would probably have resulted in different findings on the change in extractable and plant available base 1003 eations in the soil. Regarding K, fixed or structural K in clay minerals provides a dynamic pool of K that is not 1004 included in modelled weathering or in NH4Cl-extractable K (Simonsson et al., 2016). Regarding Ca and Mg, 1005 dissolution from non-crystalline/amorphous compounds can be an important source in soils depleted of these 1006 elements (Van der Heijden et al., 2017).

1007 There are Another possible explanations for the higher weathering rates with the base cation budgetmass balance 1008 approach is compared to that PROFILE for K, Mg and Ca. First, it is possible that the assumption made that no 1009 base cationBC uptake takes place below 50 cm in the soil was wrong. If trees can take up base cationsBC from 1010 deeper soil horizons (e.g. Brantley et al., 2017), the discrepancy in weathering rates between the two methods 1011 would be reduced since PROFILE predicted higher weathering rates with increasing depth. Second, PROFILE 1012 may produce conservative estimates of present-day weathering because the model only captures steady-state 1013 chemical processes. It has been postulated that e.g. mycorrhizae play an important role in nutrient uptake in forest 1014 trees through active foraging by mycelia at mineral surfaces, but the nature and potential-quantitative importance 1015 of biotic control or stimulation of weathering has been much debated in recent decades (Finlay et al., 20098; 1016 Sverdrup, 2009; Smits and Wallander, 2017: Finlay et al., this issue). Based on the results of the present study, 017 the hypothesis of significant biological control of weathering was not rejected. Thus, the results from the present 018 study do not contradict the view that such processes can be quantitatively important in field situations.

## 1020 <u>5. Conclusions</u>

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021 The release rate of important plant nutrients from the mineral soil has been previously shown to differ largely 022 when estimated with different methods due to a lack of uniformity in method comparison and data collection, 023 which has made it impossible to understand conceptual similarities and dissimilarities between methods. Three 1024 conceptually different methods were compared in a harmonized fashion for 8 soil profiles at two long-term 025 experimental forest sites with the aim of quantifying variability in weathering rate estimates and making concrete 026 suggestions for an improved future applicability of these methods. We compared in a first step weathering rates 1027 estimates by the PROFILE model and the depletion method in the 0-100 cm horizon, since a detailed assessment 028 of the latter method can only be made by consideration of the whole soil profile where a reference depth is define 029 In a second step, weathering rate estimates of the three methods where compared for the upper 0-50 cm soil 1030 horizon.

In the first comparison, tThe results indicated that historical weathering estimated by the depletion method was
 probably underestimated, particularly at Asa, or was reasonably accurate (Ca, Mg). Reasons for underestimated
 weathering rates at Asa was that all criteria for application of the method wereas not well fulfilled. The weakly

1035 developed and possibly erratic Zr gradients in the soil at Asa could have been caused by natural and anthropogenic 1036 disturbances. Future studies based on the depletion method should ensure that the Zr gradient with depth show a 037 net enrichment of Zr towards the soil surface. This condition was not fulfilled for soil profiles at the Asa site. 1038 Another important outcome of the study was to show that within-site variations in Zr gradients can be large, as 039 was the case at Flakaliden. At that site, two soil profiles showed obviously erratic Zr gradients for unknown 040 reasons and were not included in estimates of site mean weathering rates. In sharp contrast to the depletion method, 041 steady-state weathering by PROFILE increased with increasing soil depth, and weathering rates were also 042 generally higher. PROFILE probably produced reasonably accurate estimates of present-day weathering 043 rates, rather than underestimates, but likely overestimated weathering of Na and K. This conclusion was based on 044 differences between historical and steady-state estimates in rank-order of elements, and that the back-calculation 045 of current PROFILE weathering rates to simulate historic base cationBC losses suggested a rapid depletion of Na 046 and K even at the lowest PROFILE weathering rates. A possible reason for that also K weathering rates were also 047 overestimated by the PROFILE method were inaccurate inappropriate dissolution rates for K-bearing minerals 048 applied in the model, which should be accounted for in future PROFILE based weathering estimate. 049

In the second comparison including three methods, the base cation budget method produced much higher estimates of present-day weathering compared to estimates by the other methods, except for Na. This discrepancy was largely an effect of the large uptake rates of Ca, K and Mg in the biomass, in contrast to negligible accumulation of Na, and that this uptake was only partly balanced by measured depletion of extractable soil pools, Ca in-particularly for Ca. The large discrepancy in weathering rates between the base cation budget method and the other methods suggest that there were additional sources available for uptake of particularly of Ca and K by trees in the soil besides weathering and the measured depletion in extractable base cations.

060 5. Conclusions

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061 The depletion method, PROFILE model and mass balance approach was used to estimate weathering rates at two coniferous forest sites in Sweden. The methods estimated weathering rates at different spatial and temporal scale, 062 063 and no estimate was taken as a reference value of the true (current) weathering rate. There was no similarity in weathering estimates between the depletion method and the PROFILE model with respect to BC weathering in 064 065 the 0 50 cm soil layer and the soil depth gradient in weathering rates except that both methods indicated higher 066 weathering rates and more marked depth gradients at Flakaliden compared to Asa. The PROFILE model produced 067 eonsistently higher weathering rates than the depletion method except for Mg, and while the depletion method 068 estimated decreasing weathering rates with increasing soil depth, the PROFILE model predicted the opposite. The 069 mass balance method produced significantly higher weathering rates for all elements except Na. A cross-1070 examination of the estimates stressed the importance of that all criteria for application of the depletion method 1071 must be satisfied. Erratic or weakly developed Zr gradients in the soil, possibly caused by natural and

1072anthropogenic disturbances can be a cause to why the depletion method underestimates weathering rates. The1073higher weathering rates of K by PROFILE compared to the depletion method could be an indication of that1074inaccurate dissolution rates of K bearing minerals was used in the model. On the other hand, high mass balance1075estimates for K, Ca and Mg weathering suggests that there were additional sources of base cations for tree uptake1076in the soil besides weathering and measured depletion in exchangeable base cations, and that PROFILE produced1077conservative estimates of base cation supply to forest trees.

## 1078 6. Authors contribution

Authors contributed to the study as in the following: S. Casetou-Gustafson: study design, data treatment, analyses,
interpretation and writing. Magnus Simonsson: study design, analysis, interpretation and writing. Johan Stendahl:
study design, analysis, interpretation and writing B.A. Olsson: study design, data treatment, analysis,
interpretation and writing. S. Hillier: interpretation and writing. Sume Linder: Provided long-term experimental
data, interpretation and writing. Haerald Grip: Provided long-term experimental data, interpretation, and writing

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- 1398
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- 1400Table X: Shown is a short description of characteristics of three different approaches that are used in thi study to<br/>estimate base cation release rates at the pedon scale using a harmonized set of input data. The difference<br/>between methods reflect differences can be expected due to different time scales, conceptual differences,<br/>assumptions about weathering kinetics and pedogenesis.

<b>Description</b>	PROFILE	Depletion	Base cation budget	•	-	Formatted: Font color: Auto
Time scale	Present-day	Long-term	Present-day	•		Formatted: Line spacing: 1,5 lines
Concept	Steady-state	Historical	Dynamic/Current	•		Formatted: Font color: Auto
Weathering kinetics	Long term kinetics	No assumption	No assumption	4		Formatted: Line spacing: 1,5 lines
it eathering kineties	Long term kinedes		<u>ito ussumption</u>		$\langle \rangle \langle \rangle$	Formatted: Font color: Auto
Pedogenesis	No assumption	Zr immobility, unweathered and	No assumption	•		Formatted: Line spacing: 1,5 lines
		homgeneous parent material	~			Formatted: Font color: Auto

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 Table 1. Soil profile characteristics at 50 cm depth in the mineral soil at the Asa and Flakaliden sites

C:44	Plot	Clay (%wt)	Silt (%wt)	Sand	Coarse	Density	Soil age
Sile				(%wt)	(%wt)	(g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	(calendar years)
Asa	K1	9.49	25.04	45.30	20.18	1.10	14300
	K4	7.65	22.59	39.21	30.48	1.09	14300
	F3	4.95	25.26	40.54	29.25	0.99	14300
	F4	8.64	25.69	40.13	25.54	0.94	14300
Flakaliden	15A	1.92	9.21	68.98	19.68	1.89	10150
	14B	7.71	34.09	33.71	24.17	1.35	10150
	10B	7.75	45.17	37.23	8.90	1.36	10150
	11B	9.56	45.07	33.91	10.72	1.47	10150

**Table 2.** A short description of characteristics of the three different approaches that are used in the study to estimate base cation release rates at the pedon scale using a harmonized set of input data. The difference between methods reflect expected differences due to different time scales, conceptual differences, assumptions about weathering kinetics and pedogenesis.

Description	PROFILE	Depletion	Base cation budget
Time scale	Present-day	Long-term	Present-day
Concept	Steady-state	Historical	Dynamic
Weathering kinetics	Long-term kinetics	No assumption	No assumption
Padagapasis	No assumption	Zr immobility, unweathered and	No assumption
redogenesis	NO assumption	homgeneous parent material	No assumption

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Table <u>3</u> 2. Ex	tractable cConcentrations	s of different ele	ements at the r	eference depths u	sed for calculating
historical				_	

Site	Plot	Ref. depth (cm)	Ca (%)	Mg(%)	K(%)	Na (%)	Zr ( <u>ppm</u> %)
Asa	K1	80-90	1.41	0.51	0.93	1.06	
	K4	80-90	1.29	0.44	0.88	1.00	<u>288.1</u> 0.00029
	F3	60-70	1.41	0.55	0.87	1.04	<u>282.6</u> 0.00028
	F4	80-90	1.26	0.49	0.85	0.98	<u>293.3</u> 0.00029
Flakaliden	10B	60-70	1.09	0.57	0.88	0.87	<u>243.8</u> 0.00024
	<u>14B</u> 11B	<u>60-70</u> 50-60	<u>1.59</u> 1.63	<u>0.70</u> 0.79	<u>0.81</u> 0.82	<u>1.03</u> 1.06	<u>336.1</u> 0.00043
-	<del>14B</del>	<del>60-70</del>	<del>1.59</del>	<del>0.70</del>	0.81	<del>1.03</del>	0.00034
_	<del>15A</del>	<del>60-70</del>	1.46	0.59	<del>0.94</del>	1.15	0.00025

Parameter	Source	Asa	Flakaliden	
Temperature (°C)	Measurements at Asa and Flakaliden	6.1	2.3	
Precipitation (m yr <sup>-1</sup> )	Measurements at Asa and Flakaliden	0.736	0.642	
Total deposition (mmol <sub>c</sub> m <sup>-2</sup>	Measured data on open field and throughfall	SO <sup>2-</sup> 4: 27.0	SO <sup>2-</sup> 4: 13.1	
yr-1)	deposition available from nearby Swedish ICP Integrated Monitoring Sites	Cl <sup>-</sup> : 38.3	CI <sup>-</sup> : 5.6	
		NO <sup>-</sup> 3: 30.7	NO <sup>-</sup> <sub>3</sub> : 10.5	
		NH <sup>+</sup> 4: 21.6	NH <sup>+</sup> 4: 9.9	
		Ca <sup>2+</sup> : 7.2	Ca <sup>2+</sup> : 5.2	
		Mg <sup>2+</sup> : 6.8	Mg <sup>2*</sup> : 1.9	
		K⁺: 1.9	K*: 1.1	
		Na*: 31.5	Na*: 5.6	
Base cation net uptake	Previously measured data for Asa and	Ca <sup>2+</sup> : 46.2	Ca <sup>2+</sup> : 26.7	
	Linder (unpublished data). Biomass data from	Mg <sup>2+</sup> : 10.6	Mg <sup>2+</sup> : 4.4	
	neureka simulations.	K*: 17.8	K*: 6.7	
Net nitrogen uptake (mmol <sub>c</sub> m² yr¹)	Previously measured data from Asa and Flakaliden: Concentrations in biomass from Linder (unpublished data). Biomass data from Heureka simulations.	81.0	32.4	
Base cations in litterfall (	Literature data from Hellsten et al. (2013)	Ca <sup>2+</sup> : 116.8	Ca <sup>2+</sup> : 40.6	
mmol <sub>c</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )		Mg <sup>2+</sup> : 15.1	Mg <sup>2+</sup> : 4.6	
		K⁺: 10.5	K*: 3.2	
Nitrogen in litterfall (mmol <sub>c</sub> m <sup>2</sup> yr <sup>1</sup> )	Literature data from Hellsten et al. (2013)	179.8	47.5	
Evapotranspiration (Fraction)	Precipitation data and runoff data. Runoff data calculated based on proportion of runoff to precipitation (R/P) at Gammtratten and Aneboda.	0.3	0.6	

## Table 4b. Soil\* parameters used in the PROFILE model.

Parameter	Unit	Source
Exposed mineral surface area	m² m-3	Own measurements used together with Eq. 5.13 in Warfvinge and Sverdrup (1995)
Soil bulk density	kg m <sup>-3</sup>	Own measurements
Soil moisture	m <sup>3</sup> m <sup>-3</sup>	Based on paragraph 5.9.5 in Warfvinge and Sverdrup (1995)
Mineral composition	Weight fraction	Own measurements
Dissolved organic carbon	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	Previously measured data for Asa and Flakaliden: Measurements for B-horizon from Harald Grip and previously measured data from Fröberg et al. (2013)
Aluminium solubility coefficient	kmol m <sup>-3</sup>	Own measurements for total organic carbon and oxalate-extractable Al together with function developed from previously published data (Simonsson and Berggren, 1998)
Soil solution CO <sub>2</sub> partial pressure	atm.	Based on paragraph 5.10.2 in Warfvinge and Sverdrup (1995)

\*Physical and chemical soil layer specific input data are given in supplements (Table S3-S4)

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## 1447 Table 3. Description of parameters used in the PROFILE model

Parameter	Description	Unit	Source
Temperature	Site	<u>°</u> €	Measurements at Asa and Flakaliden
Precipitation	Site	<del>m yr</del> +	Measurements at Asa and Flakaliden
Total deposition	Site	<del>mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>4</sup></del>	Measured data on open field and throughfall deposition available from nearby Swedish ICP Integrated Monitoring Sites
Base cation net uptake	Site	mmol <sub>e</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	Previously measured data for Asa and Flakaliden: Concentrations in biomass from Linder (unpublished data). Biomass data from Heureka simulations.
Net nitrogen uptake	Site	mmol <sub>e</sub> m <sup>2</sup> yr <sup>4</sup>	Previously measured data from Asa and Flakaliden: Concentrations in biomass from Linder (unpublished data). Biomass data from Heureka simulations.
Base cations in litterfall	Site	mmol <sub>e</sub> -m <sup>-2</sup> -yr <sup>-1</sup>	Literature data from Hellsten et al. (2013)
Nitrogen in litterfall	Site	mmol <sub>e</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	Literature data from Hellsten et al. (2013)
Evapofraction	Site	Fraction	Precipitation data and runoff data. Runoff data been calculated based on proportion of runoff to precipitation (R/P) at Gamttratten and Anneboda.
Exposed mineral surface area	Soil	$m^2 m^3$	Own measurements used together with Eq. 5.13 in Warfvinge and Sverdrup (1995)
Soil bulk density	Soil	kg m <sup>-3</sup>	Own measurements
Soil moisture	Soil	m <sup>3</sup> -m <sup>-3</sup>	Based on paragraph 5.9.5 in Warfvinge and Sverdrup (1995)
Mineral composition	Soil	Weight fraction	Own measurements
Dissolved organic carbon	<del>Soil</del>	mg L <sup>-1</sup>	Previously measured data for Asa and Flakaliden: Measurements for B-horizon from Harald Grip and previously measured data from Fröberg et al. (2013)
Aluminium solubility coefficient	<del>Soil</del>	<del>kmol m<sup>-3</sup></del>	Own measurements for total organic carbon and oxalate-extractable AI together with function developed from previously published data (Simonsson and Bergeren, 1998)
Soil solution CO <sub>2</sub> partial pressure	Soil	<del>atm.</del>	Based on paragraph 5.10.2 in Warfvinge and Sverdrup (1995)

Term	Spatial scale	<del>Temporal</del> <del>scale</del>	<del>Data source</del>	Quality of term quantification
<del>Deposition</del>	Adjacent sites	Annual or monthly measurements	Svartberget experimental forest, and Integrated Monitoring site	Moderate: high quality of data, but estimates are not site-specific
Soil stock change	Site (initial) and plot (repeated)	Repeated samplings (4)	Unpublished data from J. Bergholm and H. Grip. Olofsson (2016)	Moderate/low: repeated sampling biased by differences in methods of sampling and soil extraction.
Leaching	Plot	Sampling of soil water at 50 em depth repeated 3 times per year. Water flux modelled (COUP).	H. Grip, unpublished data	High/moderate: High spatial and temporal resolution in soil chemistry, but uncertainty in separating lateral and vertical flow (Flakaliden).
Biomass accumulation	Site (control plots)	Growth increment measured from biomass studies at start and after 12 years.	Growth Albaugh et al. (2009) Nutrient content: S: Linder unpublished data	High/moderate: High quality in growth estimates and nutrient content at treatment seale, data lacking at plot seale

# 1450 Table 54. Assessment of data quality for terms included in the mass balance estimate of weathering

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Table 5. Judgement of data quality for terms included in the base cation budget estimate of weathering

Term	Spatial scale	Temporal scale	Data source	Quality of term quantification
Deposition	Adjacent sites	Annual or monthly measurements	Svartberget experimental forest, and Integrated Monitoring site	Moderate: high quality of data, but estimates are not site-specific
Soil stock change	Site (initial) and plot (repeated)	Repeated samplings (2)	Unpublished data from J. Bergholm and H. Grip.	Moderate/low: repeated sampling biased by differences in methods of sampling and soil extraction.
Leaching	Plot	Sampling of soil water at 50 cm depth repeated 2 times per year. Water flux modelled (COUP).	H. Grip, unpublished data	High/moderate: High spatial and temporal resolution in soil chemistry, but uncertainty in separating lateral and vertical flow (Flakaliden).
Biomass accumulation	Site (control plots)	Growth increment measured from biomass studies at start and after 12 years.	Growth Albaugh et al. (2009) Nutrient content: S: Linder unpublished data	High/moderate: High quality in growth estimates and nutrient content at treatment scale, data lacking at plot scale

**1473** Table 6: Standard errors and standard uncertainties (mmol<sub>c</sub>  $m^{-2}$  yr<sup>-1</sup>) for the terms in the base cation budget, Eq.

(4). Combined standard uncertainty, plot average value and confidence interval for the weathering rate of base

1475 <u>cation *i* derived from base cation budgets  $W_{\text{budget, i}}$  (mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). Estimated combined uncertainty (mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup>)</u>

1476 <u>yr<sup>+</sup>) of weathering rates calculated by the BC budget approach. The combined uncertainty is the sum of 95%</u>

1477 <u>confidence intervals of each term in the BC budget (Eq. 4).</u>

Site	Element	<u>Deposition</u>	<u>Soil</u> change	Biomass accum.	Leaching	<u>Combined</u> <u>standard</u> <u>uncertainty</u>	<u>W</u> budget	<u>Confidence</u> interval (combined <u>standard</u> uncertainty × 3)
Asa	<u>Ca</u>	<u>1.1</u>	<u>12.9</u>	<u>19.5</u>	<u>3.2</u>	<u>24</u>	<u>58</u>	<u>±71</u>
	<u>Mg</u>	<u>1.1</u>	<u>0.6</u>	<u>2.5</u>	<u>1.6</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>29</u>	<u>±10</u>
	<u>K</u>	<u>0.3</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>9.7</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>±29</u>
	<u>Na</u>	<u>4.0</u>	<u>0.9</u>	<u>0.0</u>	<u>5.1</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>±20</u>
<u>Flakaliden</u>	<u>Ca</u>	<u>0.8</u>	<u>10.5</u>	<u>13.3</u>	<u>0.7</u>	<u>17</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>±51</u>
	Mg	<u>0.3</u>	<u>1.1</u>	<u>1.5</u>	<u>0.3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>±6</u>
	<u>K</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>0.6</u>	<u>6.7</u>	<u>0.2</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>±20</u>
-	<u>Na</u>	<u>0.7</u>	<u>1.2</u>	<u>0.0</u>	<u>0.8</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>±5</u>

Element	Deposition	Soil change	Biomass accum.	Leaching	Combined uncertainty
Ca	<u>3.4</u>	<u>25.3</u>	<u>58.5</u>	<u>6.3</u>	<u>93.5</u>
Mg	<u>3.2</u>	<u>1.2</u>	<u>7.4</u>	<u>3.1</u>	<u>14.9</u>
K	<u>0.9</u>	<u>2.0</u>	<del>29.2</del>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>32.3</u>
Na	<u>11.9</u>	<u>1.73</u>	<u>0.0</u>	<u>10.0</u>	<del>23.6</del>
Ca	<u>2,5</u>	<u>20.6</u>	<u>40.0</u>	<u>1.4</u>	<u>64.4</u>
Mg	<u>0.9</u>	2.2	<u>4.6</u>	<del>0.6</del>	<u>8.3</u>
K	<u>0.5</u>	<del>1.2</del>	<del>20.2</del>	<u>0.4</u>	<u>22.2</u>
Na	<u>2.2</u>	<u>2.4</u>	<u>0.0</u>	<u>1.6</u>	<u>6.1</u>
	<u>Hg</u> K <u></u> Na	Em         2.2           Mg         0.9           K         0.5           Na         2.2	$\frac{\text{Ke}}{\text{Mg}} \qquad \frac{2.2}{9.9} \qquad \frac{2.00}{2.2}$ $\frac{\text{Ke}}{\text{Ke}} \qquad \frac{0.5}{2.2} \qquad \frac{1.2}{2.4}$	$\underline{x_{12}}$ $\underline{x_{10}}$ $\underline{x_{10}}$ $\underline{x_{10}}$ $\underline{x_{10}}$ $\underline{x_{10}}$ Mg         0.9 $\underline{2.2}$ $\underline{4.6}$ $\underline{4.6}$ $\underline{4.6}$ $\underline{4.6}$ $\underline{4.6}$ $\underline{4.6}$ $\underline{4.6}$ $\underline{2.2}$ $\underline{2.4}$ $\underline{20.2}$ $\underline{2.4}$ $\underline{20.2}$ $\underline{2.4}$ $\underline{0.0}$ $\underline{2.2}$ $\underline{2.4}$ $\underline{0.0}$	$M_{2}$ $0.9$ $2.2$ $4.6$ $0.6$ $K$ $0.5$ $1.2$ $20.2$ $0.4$ $N_{2}$ $2.2$ $2.4$ $0.0$ $1.4$

## 1485 Figure captions

Figure 1. Titanium (Ti) to zirconium (Zr) ratio (by concentration) used as an indicator of uniform parent material
in all soil layers at Asa (F3, F4, K1, K4) and Flakaliden (10B, 11B, 14B, 15A).

## 1488 Figure 25. Zirconium (Zr) gradient in the soil at Asa (KI, K4, F3, F4) and Flakaliden (10B, 11B, 14B, 15A)

**Figure 32**. (Left) Historical weathering rate of base cations (mmol<sub>e</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) estimated by the depletion method and (right) steady-state weathering rate estimated by the PROFILE model in different soil layers at Asa and Flakaliden.

1492 Figure 43. Comparison of weathering rates (mmole m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) for Ca, Mg, Na and K determined with the depletion 493 method, the PROFILE model and the base cation budgetmass balance method for the 0-50 cm layer at Asa and 494 Flakaliden. For the weathering rates based on the depletion method and the PROFILE model, error bars represents 495 the standard error calculated based on-\_four soil profiles at each study site, except for Flakaliden, where the 496 depletion method was only applied in two soil profiles. For weathering rates based on the base cation budget 497 approach, error bars represent combined standard uncertainties, which are, based on standard errors derived from 498 plot-wise replicated data of the present experiments (for leaching and changes in exchangeable soil pools) and on 499 standard uncertainties derived from Simonsson et al. 2015, where replicated data were missing in the present study 500 (for accumulation in biomass and total deposition).

501 Figure 54. (Left) Sinksources and (right) sourcesinks of base cations in ecosystem net fluxes at Asa and 502 Flakaliden. The soil is a net source oif soil base cation stocks decrease and a net sink if they increase. 'BC 503  $\underline{budgetMass \ balance'} = current \ base \ cation \ weathering \ rate (W_{\underline{budgetBc}}) \ estimated \ with \ the \ \underline{base \ cation \ budgetmass}$ 504 balance method, including measured changes in soil extractable base cation stocks; 'PROFILE' = soil extractable 505 pools estimated from <u>base cation budgetmass balance</u> using PROFILE estimates of steady-state weathering rate; 506 'Historical' = soil extractable pools estimated from base cation budgetmass balance using estimates of historical 507 weathering rate by the depletion method. 'Measured soil change' and 'Base cation budgetMass balance estimated 508 soil change' indicates that equation 43 was used to estimate weathering rate or the soil change, respectively.

1509 Figure 5. Zirconium (Zr) gradient in the soil at Asa (KI, K4, F3, F4) and Flakaliden (10B, 11B, 14B, 15A)

Figure 6. Time (years) required to achieve the measured historical element loss in different soil layers withmaximum or minimum PROFILE weathering rates at (a) Flakaliden and (b) Asa.

- 1512
- 1513
- 1514





1525 Figure 1.

















## 1545 Figure <u>5</u>4.





1550 <u>R</u> e	esubmission letter
1551	
1552 <u>De</u>	ear Prof. Andersson,
1553 _	
1554 <u>Th</u>	ank you for providing the reviews and for your editorial comments on our manuscript and the
1555 <u>op</u>	portunity to submit a revised version. Your suggestions (marked in grey color) were:
1556 1557 <u>Or</u>	iginal comments:
1558	
1559 1560 <u>As</u> 1561 <u>ch</u>	ssociate Editor Decision: Publish subject to minor revisions (review by editor) (12 Apr 2019) anged to major revision (review by editor) (15 Apr 2019) by Suzanne Anderson Comments
1562 <u>to</u> 1563 <u>  h</u>	the Author: have received three reviews of the manuscript, of which two were quite positive and one was
1564 <u>ex</u> 1565 <u>att</u> 1566 <u>cc</u>	tremely negative. My own reading lies somewhere between these poles. I think with tention to the comments of the reviewers the authors will be able to produce an acceptable <u>intribution.</u>
1567 1568 <u>Tr</u> 1569 <u>we</u>	ne goal of the manuscript is to assess different methods to determine current mineral eathering rates in soils. The question is of more than academic importance, as mineral
1570 <u>we</u> 1571 <u>cc</u>	eathering must in the long run replace cation loss resulting from forest harvesting and insequent soil acidification. The work is conducted in the context of a Swedish environmental
1572 <u>go</u> 1573 <u>ra</u> 1574 im	tes are tested in two well-characterized forest soils in Sweden. While the work is clearly uportant from this perspective, the question and the methods used are not an approach that
1575 <u>is</u> 1576	likely to bring about a paradigm shift or blinding insight.
1577 <u>Re</u> 1578 <u>m</u> 1579 no	eviewer #1 offered the very negative appraisal, based mostly on two points—first that the ethods and models used have been compared in other sites before, and therefore there is othing new. The second complaint was that little data was used from the two study sites.
1580 <u>sy</u> 1581 <u>of</u>	mpathize with the authors response that this study is distinguished from others by the quality the data available for the method comparison (a key being uniformity of collection and here we have been available to the method comparison the study of the second study o
1582 <u>ar</u> 1583 <u>pr</u> 1584 <u>cc</u>	oviding a much clearer description of how the data used is generated. I suggest the authors me up with a way to highlight responses to this reviewer very early and with some panache
1585 <u>in</u> 1586 <u>mi</u> 1587	the text. The text is rather long overall, and while methodical in its presentation, it is easy to iss the point amidst some of the details.
1588 <u>G</u> 1589 <u>1)</u>	eneral points to attend from Reviewers 2 & 3: Terminology: Reviewer #2 found the manuscript very interesting, but also offers some
1590 he 1591 <u>th</u> 1592 <u>sta</u> 1593 <u>th</u>	e methods was hard to keep straight. In short, these are "depletion method", the "steady- ate method", and the "mass balance method". For instance, the depletion method (based on e assumption of Zr immobility) is in essence a mass balance calculation. I wonder if the
1594 <u>au</u>	thors could come up with a small table that would summarize the 3 methods? It would be 58

1595 helpful to have these briefly outlined and set apart from the text in a way that the reader can 596 circle back quickly when confusion sets in. 1597 1598 I believe some terminological confusion arises because the goals of this study are narrowly 1599 focused on determining the weathering rate going on in Swedish forests now, to address the 1600 needs of forest management now. Some of the methods employed (depletion method in 601 particular) are averaged over much longer timescale than the present (more on this below). Moreover, choices such as focusing only on the top 50 cm are driven by interest in weathering 1602 603 in the rooting zone. I think the authors might rewrite the introduction and parts of the discussion 1604 to highlight how their motivations might differ from those of a pedologist, interested in the full 605 history and depth of soil development, or from a geochemist interested in weathering rates 606 over long time scales. 1607 608 2) Soil age: I disagree with Reviewer #2 on soil age changing with depth in the soil profile. It 1609 is standard soil science to use soil age in the manner used by the authors. However, the 1610 authors need to correct an error in their reporting of soil ages. Asa is reported to be 143 000 1611 thousand years old (or 1.43 x 10<sup>^</sup>8 years.... Cretaceous!), while Flakaliden is reported as 10 150 thousand (1.015 x 10^7 years). I'm pretty sure the authors mean 143 ka and 10.15 ka, 1612 1613 respectively. These ages are significantly different. Asa has been exposed and weathering 1614 since the last interglacial, while Flakaliden is only Holocene. The significant difference in 1615 weathering (disintegration of boulders, accumulations of clay and organic matter, etc) in till 1616 from different glaciations is an important tool in determining relative ages. I am surprised that 1617 the influence of the much longer pedogenesis at the Asa site is not addressed in the 1618 manuscript. Since Asa was apparently not glaciated in the last glaciation, I would guess it was instead subjected to periglacial processes for ~100 ka of its age. I also wonder about any 1619 1620 eolian (e.g. loess) deposition during the last glaciation? In any case, I would like the authors 1621 to address the very different history of weathering at these sites and how this impacts the weathering rates they assess. (In line 218-219, the soils are described as similar in B horizon 1622 1623 thickness-- guite surprising given the 1000 fold difference in age of these soils that the B 1624 horizons are similar in thickness. You will need to explain why-- it's striking that the very old 1625 soil in the warmer climate seems to be quite similar to the very young soil in the colder climate.) 1626 1627 3) Table 4 "quality of term quantification". Several reviewers were unimpressed with a vague 628 and subjective description of the quality of quantification of different terms in the mass balance method. Is there a better way to do this? 1629 1630 631 Reviewer #2 offers a number of useful comments on minor points in the manuscript, please 1632 address these. 1633 1634 4) I found the Conclusions section to be unsatisfying. As the 11th group to compare different 1635 weathering rate computation methods, is our knowledge of weathering rates improved? Did 1636 using more carefully collected data and uniform sampling methods improve these numbers? I 1637 am not sure from reading the conclusions. Nor am I sure what recommendation would be 1638 made to land managers on the basis of this work for how to measure weathering rates. I 1639 suggest pulling back out to the big picture, and addressing the reader who has skipped from 1640 introduction straight to conclusions in rewriting this section.

1642 My own minor comments:

- 1643 Line 65: The definition of "weathering rate" given does not define a rate (dimensionally).
- Line 182: I'm surprised at lack of attention to till mineralogy: does this differ between sites?
- 1645 Line 200: Describe the solid fertilizer used.
- Line 218: "sandy loam till" is not a texture. "sandy loam" is.

Line 607-608: Pinus is conifer, not deciduous. What was the vegetation at Asa during the last glaciation?
Response:
We have carefully read through all the comments and have critically discussed possible changes. We
hope that you will find all major points sufficiently addressed and that the manuscript is acceptable
to you in revised form.
In terms of changes we have focused mainly on your principal suggestions, i.e. to "describe very early
and with panache" that three methods are required to cover three very different conceptual views on
weathering (i.e. steady-state, historical and dynamic weathering). To our knowledge this has not been
done to the same extent previously based on harmonized implementation of all methods for the same
sites. Kolka et al. (1996) is the only group that used a similar approach, however, that study was based
on less detailed data. We hope that our discussion of these different estimates in a mass balance
perspective adds further novel insights into now these methods relate to other ecosystem sources
Details of the changes in the manuscript are as follows :
1. Terminology:
- Throughout the manuscript: We have changed the name of the third method used to estimate
weathering from "mass balance approach" to "base cation budget". We have also added a new table
(Table 2) that summarizes major differences (conceptual, scales etc.) between the methods.
- Additionally, we have rewritten parts of the introduction and discussion to highlight our rationale
behind the use of the perspective of historical versus present-day weathering estimates.
2. Soil age (Line 284): The soil age at Asa should be 14,300 years, not 143,000 years. This was an
unfortunate typo in the text (but the correct age was given in Figure 6). The soil age at Flakliden is
younger, but both soils were formed during the end of the latest (Wechselian) ice age, and there is no
eolian loess deposition at either site (Fréden 2009).
60

by estimating combined uncertainty, which is given in a separate Table (Table 6). The combine
uncertainty provides a better picture of the uncertainty of weathering estimates by the base catio
budget approach. New text describing the method of calculation, material and methods, results an
discussion is now inserted at appropriate places in the manuscript, i.e., at Lines 582-595, 700-706 an
<u>945-946.</u>
4. Conclusions: We have made a new improved version of the conclusions that we hope is clear an
informative with respect to the novelty of our study, and has more obvious links with the context an
rational given in the Introduction. We stress that a contribution of new knowledge is gained from
using a harmonized study design, i.e. (1) where similarities and dissimilarities of methods occur with
regard to different test criteria, and (2) in terms of the similarities and dissimilarities of different
methods with regard to their relative importance in the overall base cation budgets. All of which
enable us to identify some important issues for future research.
5. Minor comments:
-Line 66: We have changed the definition of weathering rate so that dimensions are evident.
-Line 247-249: We have cited Casetou-Gustafson (2018) where all details can be found about so
mineralogy at Asa and Flakaliden.
Line 267 260. We have added the information about which have estions were contained in the call
fertilizer mix
-Line 287: We changed soil texture to sandy loam.
-Lines 899-900: We improved this sentence. Furthermore, we would like to clarify that there was n
vegetation during the last glaciation as Asa was glaciated.
Additional changes:
- We found an unfortunate error in the calculation of fine-root biomass which is now corrected (Lin
505). The change has no effect on how the calculation is described in the Materials and Method
section, but the consequences is a reduced fine root biomass leading to ca 5% lower BC uptake i
biomass for Ca, Mig and K. This had no impact on the conclusions and the general picture, but the
substantial discrepancies between present-day weathering rates produced by the base cation budge
e

1715 1716	and PROFILE are now slightly less pronounced. The new calculations are now included in the revised Figures 4 and 5 (former Fig. 3 and 4).
1717	
1718 1719 1720	- The description of how base cation budgets were calculated is now expanded with detailed information about sampling procedures and sampling sizes (section 2.5), as was requested by several reviewers. Additional graphs showing temporal changes in soil water chemistry and runoff are
1721 1722 1723	included in the Supplementary material (Figure S4-S5; see also below). Apparently, reviewer 1 in particular got the impression that the base cation budgets were based on a quite limited sampling. We hope the present text will change that view.
1724 1725 1726	-By mistake error bars in Figure 3 (now Fig 4) have been switched between K and Na and we have corrected for this.
1727 1728 1720	-We have revisited our results that we obtained from applying the depletion method and came to the
1730 1731	<u>complicated Zr gradients observed in two soil profiles at the Flakaliden site (i.e. 11B and 15A; Fig.5).</u> By removing these profiles from the calculations (described now in Lines 363-367 and Line 904-917),
1732 1733	predictions of historical weathering losses for Ca and Mg are more in line with the general view of declining rates over time. It makes more sense to observe Ca and Mg losses that are of similar
1734 1735 1736	hornblende, which is an important mineral in the Svecofennian granitic bedrock. An editorial consequence of this was that we also moved former Fig. 5 to Fig. 2.
1737 1738	Referee 1:
1739	-In order to strengthen our study we have attempted to be clear about the novelty from the beginning

- 1740 1741 of the manuscript (i.e. Introduction). Furthermore, as described above, we have added an additional assessment of uncertainty of the data that are used to construct the base cation budget (Table 6).
- 1742 Referee 2:
- 1743 Historical weathering:
- 1744 1745 We have corrected for the wrong unit used for Zr in former Table 2 (now Table 3). ż
- We have added an equation (1) to the manuscript in the method section which describes the 1746 calculation by the depletion method (Line 327).
- 1747 We have added estimated volume change (strain calculations according to a formula in White et al.1996) in the Supplements (Table S5) and a mentioning in Lines 348-352.
- 1748 1749 Steady-state weathering:

-	We included a short mentioning of the steady-state concept in the introduction (Line 148) an
	in Table 2.
<u> </u>	We have enlarged former Table 3 (now Table 4) and added a column that contains genera
D	information for each site. Layer-specific information is given in Supplementary Table S3-S4.
Base c	ation budget:
-	We have added a more detailed description of how total deposition was calculated. The sam
	deposition data was used for parameter setting of PROFILE and in the base cation budget.
-	We have added two supplementary figures (Figure S4-S5) to illustrate monthly mean an
	standard deviation of drainage (mm) in soil water at 50 cm depth in the soil of the four contro
	plots at Asa and Flakaliden (Figure S5) and mean and standard error of BC ions (mg/l) in so
	water sampled at 50 cm depth in the soil of four control plots at Asa and Flakaliden (Figur
	<u>S4).</u>
<u> </u>	We have added a new table to the manuscript (Table 6) that contains estimated uncertaint
	ranges for the different terms in the base cation budget and their combined uncertainty
	Inese uncertainties are based on standard errors derived from plot-wise replicated data c
	the present experiments (for leaching and changes in exchangeable soil pools) and o
	standard uncertainties derived from simonsson et al. 2015, where replicated data wer
	missing in the present study (for accumulation in biomass and total deposition). A detaile description of the statistical procedure is given in Lines 522–505
	description of the statistical procedure is given in Lines 362-333.
W	e have improved section 4.2.
Figure	<u>s:</u>
-	We have inserted an explanation of error bars in Line 1494-1500 and in Lines 582-595.
Refer	<u>ee 3</u>
_	We have removed site names in figure 4 (now figure 5).
_	Apart from issues that were already raised by the other referees, we have corrected
	for minor errors, such as misspellings and we have changed to "extractabl
	concentrations" instead of "concentrations" in the table description of former Table
	2 (Now Table 3).
In add	lition to the revised manuscript we have also provided a corresponding version with tracke
chang	es on, so that the revisions are clearly visible. We have also been carefully through the whol
text ar	nd made some additional minor revisions which we believe aid clarity.
We ho	ppe you will find our revised manuscript acceptable for publication in Biogeosciences and loo
forwa	rd to hearing from you in due course.

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1790	
1791	On behalf of all authors, yours sincerely,
1792	-
1793	Sophie Casetou-Gustafson,
1794	
1795	Corresponding author
1796	
1797	