

Dissolved carbon leaching from soil is a crucial component of the net ecosystem carbon balance

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Global Change Biology

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balance

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Abstract

1.2 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹), and 18.3 ± 3.5 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for c

e average flux across land use systems was 19.4 ±

yr⁻¹). Production of DOC in topsoils was positive

n B horizons of subsoils was inversely related to t

mi Estimates of carbon leaching losses from different land use systems are few and their contribution to the net ecosystem carbon balance is uncertain. We investigated leaching of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), and dissolved methane (CH ⁴), at five forests, four grasslands, and three croplands across Europe. Biogenic 60 contributions to DIC were estimated by means of its δ^{13} C signature. Leaching of DOC plus 61 biogenic DIC was 11.9 ± 5.9 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for forests (median: 7.4 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹), 29.4 \pm 8.0 for 62 grasslands (median: $34.2 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), and $18.3 \pm 3.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for croplands (median: 63 17.8 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹). The average flux across land use systems was 19.4 \pm 4.0 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ 64 (median: 15.2 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹). Production of DOC in topsoils was positively related to their C/N ratio and its retention in B horizons of subsoils was inversely related to the ratio of organic 66 carbon to iron plus aluminium (hydr)oxides. Partial pressures of CO_2 in soil air and soil pH determined DIC concentrations and fluxes, but soil solutions were often supersaturated with DIC in relation to soil air CO ². Leaching losses of biogenic carbon from grasslands equalled 5–98% (median: 22%) of net ecosystem exchange (NEE) plus carbon inputs with fertilization minus carbon removal with harvest. Carbon leaching increased the net losses from cropland soils by 24–105% (median: 25%). For the majority of forest sites, leaching hardly affected actual net ecosystem carbon balances because of the small solubility of $CO₂$ in acidic forest soil solutions and large net ecosystem exchange. Leaching of CH ⁴ proved to be insignificant compared with other fluxes of carbon or $CO₂-C$ equivalents. Overall, our results show that leaching losses are particularly important for the carbon balance of agricultural systems.

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annual changes are small compared to stock size,
ements, spatial heterogeneity within ecosystems, a
A possible strategy to validate large-scale estimate
ompare them with independent estimates of carbo
g of CO₂ transport 77 Uptake and release of $CO₂$ by terrestrial ecosystems are crucial modulators of the climate system (e.g., Heimann & Reichstein, 2008). Reliable estimates of net ecosystem carbon balances (Chapin *et al.*, 2006) are therefore fundamental to our understanding of global climate change and the development of appropriate mitigation strategies. Net ecosystem carbon balances can be determined by assessing changes in ecosystem carbon stocks over time (e.g., Liski *et al.*, 2002; Sleutel *et al.*, 2003). This approach is associated with large uncertainties, because annual changes are small compared to stock size, because of error propagation of measurements, spatial heterogeneity within ecosystems, and temporal or spatial extrapolation. A possible strategy to validate large-scale estimates of net ecosystem carbon balances is to compare them with independent estimates of carbon uptake derived from inverse modelling of CO ² transport in the atmosphere (Janssens *et al.*, 2003; Schulze *et al.*, 2009). Such comparisons are hampered by the differing and uncertain system boundaries and the differing types of carbon fluxes measured. Atmosphere-based estimate s of carbon uptake rates are often larger than increases in ecosystem carbon stocks because part of the carbon is exported in plant products (e.g. wood, grains, or forage), lost to the atmosphere in volatile organic forms, or leached in soluble forms (Janssens *et al.*, 2003; Ciais *et al.*, 2008).

Siemens (2003) hypothesized that the leaching of dissolved inorganic and organic carbon from soils can explain a large part of the difference between atmosphere- and land-based estimates of the carbon uptake of European terrestrial ecosystems. Similarly, Ritchey *et al.* (2002), Cole *et al*. (2007), and Battin *et al.* (2009) argued that consideration of inland waters as components of terrestrial carbon budgets is necessary to assess the carbon cycle at the landscape scale. In line with these views, current estimates of carbon balances of European 100 terrestrial ecosystems assume an average loss of 7 g C m^{-2} yr⁻¹ with drainage, based on measurements of riverine fluxes (Schulze *et al.*, 2009). Linking riverine carbon fluxes to those

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carbon leaching from terrestrial ecosystems varies
001) reported a more than five-fold increase in dis-
ears after the conversion of native tall-grass prairi-
ploughing. Parfitt *et al.* (1997) found losses of diss-
 $\text{g$ in terrestrial ecosystems is difficult because measurements of riverine fluxes not only integrate over a number of transformation processes in aquifers and surface waters, they often also average carbon fluxes from various land use systems within a particular catchment. Thus, better data on leaching from soils could considerably improve estimates of carbon budgets of terrestrial ecosystems. Such data are also essential to further assess the active processing of land-borne carbon in aquifers and inland waters (Cole *et al.*, 2007; Battin *et al.*, 2009). There is evidence that carbon leaching from terrestrial ecosystems varies systematically with land use. Brye *et al.* (2001) reported a more than five-fold increase in dissolved carbon leaching during four years after the conversion of native tall-grass prairie to maize cultivation with fertilization and ploughing. Parfitt *et al.* (1997) found losses of dissolved inorganic 113 carbon (DIC) of 14.7 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from pasture and 0.7 $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from a pine forest under 114 similar climatic conditions, but a reduction in soil $pH(H_2O)$ from 5.6–5.9 under pasture to 5.3–5.5 under pine as a result of more intense acidification in the forest. Leaching of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) seems to be affected by ploughing and crop type (Vinther *et al.*, 2006). A better understanding of land use effects on dissolved carbon leaching is important because i) net ecosystem carbon balances are often grouped according to land use classes (e.g., cropland, grassland, forest; Janssens *et al.*, 2003) and ii) trends in riverine dissolved carbon fluxes seem to be related to land use (e.g., Raymond & Cole, 2003).

122 Carbon is dissolved in water not only as DOC and DIC but also as dissolved methane (CH₄). 123 Despite its high global warming potential, dissolved CH₄ is commonly not included in measurements of dissolved carbon concentrations and has only been investigated in a small 125 number of studies. For the Brocky Burn moorland catchment in Scotland, CH₄-C fluxes with 126 stream water were less than 0.04% of CO₂-C fluxes (Dawson *et al.*, 2004). Even when 127 considering a global warming potential factor of 25 for CH₄ (IPCC, 2007), its contribution to

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to identify major factors controlling carbon leach
derspective, determinations of DOC and DIC leach
yses of CH₄ in soil air and soil water. 128 fluxes of CO₂-C equivalents was smaller than 1%. Fiedler *et al.* (2006) found that CH₄ export (in CO ²-C equivalents) from a catchment in the Black Forest, Germany, was approximately 8% of the CO ² export. The small contribution of CH ⁴ to overall carbon losses with stream 131 water or spring water is due its poor solubility in water $(1.5 10^{-5} \text{ mol } l^{-1} kPa^{-1}$ at 20°C). The goal of the present work was i) to determine leaching losses of DIC and DOC from soils of typical European land use systems and to relate them to the respective net ecosystem carbon balances and ii) to identify major factors controlling carbon leaching. In order to achieve a full carbon perspective, determinations of DOC and DIC leaching losses were 137 complemented by analyses of $CH₄$ in soil air and soil water. in soil air and soil water.

Materials and Methods

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Instrumentation and Sampling

cups and 4 gas probes, which allowed for samplin
ive and extensive grazing at Laqueuille) or differe
and hollow at Easter Bush). Suction cups and gas p
il pit by inserting them into boreholes. Half the nu
horizon (at appro Twenty glass suction cups with a pore size <1 µm for soil water collection (ecoTech, Bonn, Germany) and eight Teflon suction cups (ecoTech, Bonn, Germany) for soil gas collection were installed at each of twelve European sites under different land use (Table 1, Fig. 1). Most of these sites were verification sites of the CarboEurope project [\(www.carboeurope.org](http://www.carboeurope.org/)) and/or flux sites of the NitroEurope project (Skiba *et al.*, 2009). The probes were divided into two sets of 10 suction cups and 4 gas probes, which allowed for sampling of different treatments (e.g., intensive and extensive grazing at Laqueuille) or different landscape positions (e.g., slope and hollow at Easter Bush). Suction cups and gas probes were installed horizontally from a soil pit by inserting them into boreholes. Half the number of probes were installed beneath the A horizon (at approximately 30 cm depth), the other half was installed as deep as possible (65–120 cm depth; Table 1). Suction cups were connected to 2-liter glass bottles in an insulated aluminium box placed into the soil pit. Soil water was extracted by applying a vacuum of 40 kPa to the glass bottles after each sampling. In order to correctly 153 measure DIC, degassing of CO₂ was minimized by using a headspace-free sample collection system similar to the one described by Suarez (1986). In this system, the soil water from the suction cup first flows through a 20-ml gas-tight vial before entering the evacuated 2-l bottle via a cannulae, which penetrates the septum of the vials just deep enough to allow the outflow of solution. At the Hainich and Wetzstein sites, soil water was additionally collected from two glass suction plates installed at 20 cm depth.

Sample collection started at different dates. Here, we present and discuss data that span the period from 1 October 2006 until 31 March 2008 at all sites except the Irish sites where soil water sampling commenced until 31 March 2009. Fluxes were calculated separately for summer (1 April until 30 September) and winter (1 October until 31 March).

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Dissolved inorganic carbon in soil water derives from either respiration, dissolution of 184 carbonate minerals, or atmospheric CO_2 . Because partial pressures of CO_2 in soil air are much 185 higher than atmospheric partial pressures, the direct influence of atmospheric CO₂ on DIC concentrations in soil water is negligible. According to the stoichiometry of the reaction of 187 respiratory $CO₂$ with calcium or magnesium carbonate (eq. [1]), the fraction of carbonate-borne DIC in calcareous soils should approach 50% if chemical equilibrium is reached within 189 the residence time of percolating water in the soil (e.g., Amiotte-Suchet *et al.*, 1999).

190
$$
CaCO_3 + CO_2 + H_2O = Ca^{2*} + 2 HCO_3
$$
 [11] $CaCO_3 + CO_2 + H_2O = Ca^{2*} + 2 HCO_3$ [11] 192 [13] In carbonate-free soils, respiratory CO₂ will react with silicates (e.g., feldspars) to form clay minerals and bicarbonate, which in this case is solely from soil respiration (e.g., eq. [2]; Amiotte-Suchet *et al.*, 1999). In these soils, the fraction of DIC from respiration should therefore be close to 100%. [197] $2 \text{ NaAlSi}_3O_8 + 2 \text{ CO}_2 + 3 \text{ H}_2O = \text{Al}_2\text{Si}_2O_5(\text{OH})_4 + 2 \text{ Na}^* + 2 \text{ HCO}_3^- + 4 \text{ SiO}_2$ [2] Since the δ^{13} C values of timestones are close to zero (+2 to -5% e) and the δ^{13} C signature of CO₂ from soil respiration typically ranges from -21% to -25% e, the fraction of biogenic and respiratory DIC can be inferred from δ^{13} C values of DIC (Pawellek & Veizer, 1994; Amiotes - Such et *et al.*, 1999), taking into account the isotope fractionation during the dissolution of CO₂ in water (Zhang *et al.*, 1995). The enrichment of 13 C in soil air CO₂ compared to biomass (δ^{13} C of C3-plants: -28% e) is the result of isotropic enrichment during litter decay and enrichment of CO₂ during diffusion out of the soil into the atmosphere (Amiotte-Suchet *et al.*, 1999). To account for the uncertainty caused by the enrichment of 13 C in soil air CO₂, we used a value of -28% e to calculate a minimum fraction. A value of 0% was used for each air CO₂ to calculate a maximum biogenic fraction. A value of 0% was used for carbonate-C. In addition, a value of -5% was used to assess the sensitivity of the calculated biogenic fraction to variations of this parameter. [

215 influence of isotopic exchange of DIC with atmospheric air (δ^{13} C $\approx -8.5\%$) can be neglected.

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216 Isotopic exchange of DIC with atmospheric CO_2 would shift the $\delta^{13}C$ of DIC towards less negative values, which would cause a systematic overestimation of the carbonate-borne fraction of DIC when applying the two end-member mixing model mentioned above.

en replicate measurements. Measured $\delta^{13}C$ values
fractionation during the dissolution of CO₂ in wate
ng the speciation of total dissolved CO₂ (H₂CO₃^{*}
es for the determination of $\delta^{13}C$ values of DIC we
i 220 Delta 13° C values of DIC were determined using a Delta Plus XL isotope ratio mass spectrometer with GasBench II interface (Thermo-Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany, equipped with a Pal-80 autosampler, CEC Analytics, Zwingen, Switzerland), with an average 223 deviation of 2% between replicate measurements. Measured δ^{13} C values of DIC were 224 corrected for isotopic fractionation during the dissolution of CO_2 in water according to Zhang 225 *et al.* (1995), considering the speciation of total dissolved CO_2 ($H_2CO_3^*$, HCO_3^- , $CO_3^{2^-}$) as a 226 function of pH. Samples for the determination of δ^{13} C values of DIC were collected in October 2007. Because insufficient sample volume was collected during this time as a 228 consequence of drought at Grignon, no δ^{13} C data are available for DIC samples from that site. Therefore, the biogenic fraction of DIC was calculated as the difference between the 230 concentrations of DIC and the sum of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (in mmol l^{-1}) based on the stoichiometry of carbonate dissolution (eq. [1]), assuming i) that carbonate dissolution is the main source of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} in the calcareous soil and ii) that chemical equilibrium is reached. A comparison of the method used for the Grignon site and the isotope method did not always 234 vield identical results at the other sites. The release of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} from litter in deciduous 235 forests or fertilization of cropland with $Ca(NO₃)₂$ caused overestimates of the carbonate-borne DIC fraction exceeding 100%.

Analysis of DOC concentrations

Dissolved organic carbon concentrations of soil water samples were analysed using Pt-catalysed, high-temperature combustion (680°C) with a TOC-5050A analyser (Shimadzu Corp., Kyoto, Japan). Prior to analysis, inorganic carbon was stripped off by adjusting the pH 242 to 2 with HCl and sparging with CO_2 -free synthetic air.

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Determination of iron and aluminium (hydr)oxide concentrations in soil horizons

Concentrations of poorly-crystalline iron and aluminium oxides in the bulk soils at Wetzstein, Sorø, Laqueuille, Easter Bush, Hainich, and Grignon were determined by ammonium-oxalate extraction (pH 3) in the dark after Schwertmann (1964) and measurement of iron and aluminium concentrations in extracts with ICP-OES.

Analysis of CO ² and CH4 in the gas phase

ons in extracts with ICP-OES.
 H₄ in the gas phase

lysed with the GC-2014AF gas chromatograph us

(see above). The $\delta^{13}C$ values of CO₂ in soil air sa

hromatograph equipped with a BPX-5 column (50

bustion inte Gas samples were analysed with the GC-2014AF gas chromatograph used for determination 252 of DIC concentrations (see above). The δ^{13} C values of CO₂ in soil air samples were analysed 253 using a HP 6890 gas chromatograph equipped with a BPX-5 column (50 m \times 0.32 mm \times 0.5 µm), linked via a combustion interface to a MAT 252 isotope ratio mass spectrometer

(Thermo-Finnigan MAT, Bremen, Germany).

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Calculation of fluxes

257 Fluxes of dissolved C were calculated by multiplying concentrations of DOC, DIC, and CH₄, with the volume of leached water, which was derived from a soil water model. We used a capacity or "bucket" model which assumes that leaching from a soil layer commences when the field capacity (FC in mm), is exceeded (eq. [3]),

$$
262 \quad \text{if } SWC_i \le F C \text{, then } D_i = 0 \text{, else } D_i = c(SWC_i - FC) \tag{3},
$$

with *SWC ⁱ* denoting the soil water content at day i (mm), *D* 264 with *SWC_i* denoting the soil water content at day i (mm), D_i the drainage volume at day i (mm d⁻¹), and *c* a rate constant (d⁻¹) defining the fraction of excess water that can drain per day. Changes in soil water contents over time were calculated from the soil water balance according to eq. [4].

269 $SWC_i = SWC_{i-1} + INF_i - ET_i$ [4]

For Eq. 3 and the soil water content at day i (mm), D_i the drainage

ant (d^{-1}) defining the fraction of excess water that

contents over time were calculated from the soil w
 $F = ET_i$

the soil water content of the pre 271 with *SWC_{i-1}* indicating the soil water content of the preceding day (mm), *INF_i* denoting the 272 infiltration at day i (mm), and ET_i the evapotranspiration at day i (mm). The soil water content was allowed to vary between the total pore volume of the soil (mm) and the water content at a soil matric potential of pF 4.2 (mm, wilting point). To this end, infiltration into the A horizon was restricted and diverted as "rapid runoff" when the amount of precipitation exceeded the 276 available pore volume of the soil matrix (mm) or the infiltration capacity (mm d^{-1}). This "rapid runoff" might be discharged as surface runoff or flow through cracks and macropores. We did not consider carbon transport with this rapid runoff because the concentrations of DOC, DIC, and CH ⁴ therein were unknown. Water was replenished by capillary rise when *SWC* dropped below the soil water content at pF 4.2.

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The model subdivided the soil pore volume into a fast and a slowly draining pool, each characterized by a specific total pore volume, field capacity and water content at pF 4.2. The proportion of precipitation entering the fast and the slow pool was assumed constant over time for each site. The model subdivided the soil profile into a topsoil layer and a subsoil layer. The fraction of water taken up by the plants from the subsoil was assumed constant over time and was set equal to the fraction of roots below the A horizon. An exception was the Carlow cropland for which only one soil layer above the gravelly subsoil was considered.

olume, field capacity, and water content at wilting
Is of each soil layer were matched to tabulated val
il texture. In addition, the model parameters menti
way that modelled soil water contents fitted *in sin*
es were prec Values for total pore volume, field capacity, and water content at wilting point for the sum of the two soil water pools of each soil layer were matched to tabulated values (AG Boden, 1994), according to soil texture. In addition, the model parameters mentioned above were adjusted manually in a way that modelled soil water contents fitted *in situ* measured soil water contents. Input variables were precipitation, air temperature, and latent heat flux, which derived from eddy covariance measurements, either taken from the CarboEurope database [\(http://gaia.agraria.unitus.it/database/carboeuropeip/](http://gaia.agraria.unitus.it/database/carboeuropeip/)) or provided by the managers of the CarboEurope and NitroEurope sites. Actual evapotranspiration was calculated by dividing the latent heat flux derived from the database by the temperature-adjusted heat of evaporation. For the sites at Carlow and Laois, evapotranspiration was calculated according to approaches of Allen *et al.* (1998), Priestley & Taylor (1972), and Teklehaimanot & Jarvis (1991) because the gaps in eddy covariance data were too large to allow for calculation of reasonable evapotranspiration estimates. Details regarding the calculations of evapotranspiration at these sites are given in Walmsley (2010).

Statistics

Differences between land use types were tested for statistical significance using the non-

parametric Kruskal-Wallis test, differences between sampling depths or terrain positions were

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Results

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Concentrations of DOC and DIC in soil water

centrations tended to increase in the order forest (\pm an: 33 mg 1^{-1}) < grassland (8.0–90.9 mg 1^{-1} ; mean.
 \pm 3–84.8 mg 1^{-1} ; mean: 57 mg 1^{-1} , median: 57 mg 1^{-1}

atistically significant (Kruskal-Wallis te Dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations beneath topsoils of forest sites (2.5–23.9 mg I^{-1} ; 313 mean: 8 mg 1^{-1} , median: 4 mg 1^{-1} ; Fig. 2a) tended to be smaller than those of cropland (22.7– 50.5 mg l⁻¹; mean: 35 mg l⁻¹, median: 33 mg l⁻¹; Fig 2c, *p* = 0.09, Kruskal-Wallis test). No significant differences were found between mean concentrations of forests and grasslands (6– 316 70 mg l⁻¹; mean: 28 mg l⁻¹, median: 17 mg l⁻¹; Fig. 2b, $p = 0.2$, Kruskal-Wallis test). Also subsoil water DIC concentrations tended to increase in the order forest (2.5–67.7 mg I^{-1} ; 318 mean: 34 mg l⁻¹, median: 33 mg l⁻¹) < grassland (8.0–90.9 mg l⁻¹; mean: 42 mg l⁻¹, median 34 319 mg l⁻¹) < cropland (28.3–84.8 mg l⁻¹; mean: 57 mg l⁻¹, median: 57 mg l⁻¹), but these differences were not statistically significant (Kruskal-Wallis test). Dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations were insensitive to management intensity at Laqueuille (Fig. 2b) or topography at Hainich, Sorø (Fig 2a), and Carlow grassland (Fig 2b). However, topography was important at Easter Bush, with significantly larger concentrations at the bottom of the valley than at the 324 elevated position (Fig. 2b, shallow cups: $p = 0.009$; deep cups: $p = 0.075$, Mann-Whitney U-test).

327 Theoretical concentrations of DIC can be calculated from the partial pressures of soil air $CO₂$ and soil solution pH by applying Henry's law and assuming chemical equilibrium between 329 CO₂ in the gas phase and solution $H_2CO_3^*$, HCO₃⁻, and CO₃²-. Total concentrations of DIC 330 were close to equilibrium with partial pressures of soil air $CO₂$ for the Loobos, Wetzstein, Hainich and Sorø forest sites (Fig. 3). Soil waters from all other sites were supersaturated with DIC relative to soil air CO_2 , especially in subsoils, which might be partly due to selective 333 sampling of CO₂-poor soil air from larger pores. Overall, the measured DIC concentrations were nearly equal to or greater than theoretical concentrations, indicating that outgassing of soil water samples was successfully minimized by the sampling method.

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ched from forest topsoils (median: 24 mg I^{-1} , mear
a), but the differences were not statistically significally significally significally significally significally same observed between
epths and topsoil C/N ratios (Fig Dissolved inorganic carbon concentrations were commonly much larger than DOC concentrations, particularly in subsoils (Fig. 2). Exceptions were the acidic soils at the Wetzstein and Loobos forest sites, with DIC representing less than 10% of the total dissolved carbon leached from topsoils and 16–30% in subsoils. Concentrations of DOC leached from topsoils of grasslands (median: 7 mg 1^{-1} , mean: 8 mg 1^{-1} ; range 1.9–17.1 mg 1^{-1} . Fig 2b) and arable fields (median: $14 \text{ mg } l^{-1}$, mean: $12 \text{ mg } l^{-1}$, range: $3.9-17.3 \text{ mg } l^{-1}$, Fig 2c) tended to be smaller than those leached from forest topsoils (median: 24 mg I^{-1} , mean: 23 mg I^{-1} ; range: 344, 7.1–43.1 mg l⁻¹, Fig. 2a), but the differences were not statistically significant ($p = 0.16$, Kruskal Wallis test). A close positive relationship was observed between DOC concentrations at shallow sampling depths and topsoil C/N ratios (Fig. 4).

Differences between average subsoil DOC concentrations were rather small between the different land use systems: 11 mg l^{-1} for forests (median: 13 mg l^{-1}), 12 mg l^{-1} for arable f fields (median: $14 \text{ mg } l^{-1}$), and $9 \text{ mg } l^{-1}$ for grasslands (median: $8 \text{ mg } l^{-1}$), with the latter value being somewhat lower due to small DOC concentrations in the Laqueuille Andosol (Fig. 2b).

Isotopic signature and sources of dissolved inorganic carbon

354 The δ^{13} C signatures of DIC in samples collected from subsoils clustered into two groups. 355 Samples from the Hainich, Sorø, Laois, and Carlow grassland were all characterized by $\delta^{13}C$ values close to –15‰, with little variation between different suction cups (Fig. 5b). At Früebüel, samples from eight suction cups were close to –15‰, while the sample from one cup showed a value of –22‰ (Fig. 5b). Soils at Hainich, Sorø, Laois, Carlow, and Früebüel all developed from carbonate-containing parent materials, which is Muschelkalk limestone at the Hainich site and glacial till at the other sites. Soils at the Loobos, Wetzstein, Laqueuille, Easter Bush, and Klingenberg sites developed from carbonate-free parent material. Average

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 δ^{13} C values of DIC were all below -20‰ at the Wetzstein, Laqueuille, Easter Bush and Klingenberg sites (Fig. 5b). Less negative values were found in the subsoil at the Loobos site. In contrast to subsoil, dissolved inorganic carbon from shallow depths of the Sorø and 365 Früebüel sites had more negative δ^{13} C values below -20% , reflecting the dissolution of carbonates in topsoils during soil development (Fig. 5a).

of 74–82% was calculated for the calcareous subs

viiel sites and used to estimate leaching losses of to

gles). The fraction was reduced by $1-11\%$ if an exercinc

mate-C. Use of the measured δ^{13} C of soil air CO₂ Using a value of –28‰ for the biogenic end-member and a value of 0‰ for carbonate-C, a biogenic DIC fraction of 74–82% was calculated for the calcareous subsoils of the Hainich, Sorø, Laois, and Früebüel sites and used to estimate leaching losses of total biogenic carbon 371 (Fig. 5b, upright triangles). The fraction was reduced by $1-11\%$ if an extreme value of -5% 372 was assumed for carbonate-C. Use of the measured δ^{13} C of soil air CO₂ increased the calculated biogenic fraction for DIC from the calcareous subsoils to 90–105%. An extreme value of 293% was calculated for the Früebüel site, but this unplausible value likely resulted from a contamination of soil air samples with atmospheric air during the difficult abstraction of air samples from the wet Früebüel soil.

Contrary to geochemical theory (eq. [2]), the biogenic DIC fractions calculated for the carbonate-free subsoils at the Loobos, Wetzstein, and Klingenberg sites, using the end-members –28‰ and 0‰, were much lower than the expected 100%. This might be caused by more intense isotopic exchange of soil air and DIC with atmospheric air. Indeed, when using 382 measured δ^{13} C values of soil air CO₂ in the calculation, the estimated biogenic fraction was >100% for the Klingenberg site. For the Lobos and Wetzstein sites, however, calculated biogenic fractions remained below 100%, which might indicate a contamination of the little 385 DIC pool in the acidic samples from these sites with atmospheric CO_2 during sampling and sample handling. In line with geochemical theory (Eq [2]), we used a biogenic DIC fraction of $\overline{1}$

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100% for calculating the total biogenic carbon leaching loss from the carbonate-free Loobos, Wetzstein, Laqueuille, Easter Bush, and Klingenberg soils.

Water balance of the research sites

Mean annual precipitation during our study period ranged from 710 mm yr^{-1} at Grignon to 1771 mm yr⁻¹ at Früebüel with an average of 1009 mm yr⁻¹ across all sites (Table 2). The 393 average loss of water by evapotranspiration equalled 436 mm yr^{-1} . The average relative deviation of modelled soil water contents from measured ones was 14% for the shallow depths and 6% for subsoils (Table 2). Figure 6 (c, d) provides a visual impression of the goodness of fit between measured and modelled soil water contents for the Carlow grassland site, where the quality of the model fit was exactly the average of all sites.

soil water contents from measured ones was 14%
soils (Table 2). Figure 6 (c, d) provides a visual in
n measured and modelled soil water contents for t
of the model fit was exactly the average of all site
with clayey soils Especially at the sites with clayey soils (Hainich, Laois, and Früebüel), modelled water contents could only be matched to measured ones when large volumes of water (357–489 mm yr^{-1} were discharged by rapid runoff via surface flow or preferential flow paths in the 402 calibrated water balance model (Table 2). On average 429 mm yr^{-1} of water were left over for drainage from the soil profile after subtracting evapotranspiration and rapid runoff from precipitation (Table 2).

Leaching losses of dissolved carbon

407 Across all sites, an average of 4.2 g DOC m^{-2} yr⁻¹ was leached from soils, with rather small differences between land use systems (Table 3). Subtracting DOC leaching from subsoils 409 from DOC fluxes from topsoils indicated that as much as 17 (Wetzstein) to 20 g m⁻² yr^{-1} (Loobos) of DOC was retained in acidic forest B horizons (Table 3). Other forest B horizons 411 retained only 2 (Laois) to 9 g DOC m^{-2} yr⁻¹ (Sorø) and retention in the B horizons of 412 grasslands or arable fields was generally smaller than 5.5 g DOC m^{-2} yr⁻¹ (Table 3).

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Retention of DOC in B horizons decreased exponentially with increasing ratio of organic carbon to the sum of oxalate-extractable iron and aluminium present in the bulk soil (Fig. 7).

The average loss of DIC from forest topsoils was significantly smaller than DIC leaching 417 from grassland topsoils ($p = 0.03$) and tended also to be smaller than leaching from cropland topsoils (*p = 0.09*, Table 4). Leaching losses of DIC from subsoils, however, did not differ significantly between land use types (*p = 0.31*, Kruskal Wallis test).

g retention of DOC and the low DIC concentratio
ing from forest soils tended to be smaller than lea
5). Differences, however, were not significant (*p* ϵ
e variability between sites under similar land use
lyed carbon l As a result of the strong retention of DOC and the low DIC concentrations, total biogenic dissolved carbon leaching from forest soils tended to be smaller than leaching from grasslands or arable fields (Table 5). Differences, however, were not significant (*p* = 0.23, Kruskal Wallis test) because the variability between sites under similar land use was large. The overall average biogenic dissolved carbon loss from soils was 19.3 g C m^{-2} yr⁻¹. This value was strongly influenced by large losses from the forest at Sorø and the grasslands at Easter Bush and Carlow. Consequently, the median flux across all sites was smaller (15.2 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹).

Methane concentrations in soil air and its leaching losses

Methane concentrations in soil air at shallow depths were mostly smaller than global average 431 atmospheric concentrations of 1.7 μ l l⁻¹, indicating that most sites could have acted as sinks for atmospheric CH ⁴ (Table 6). Exceptions were the Laois and Klingenberg Stagnosols. In subsoils, CH ⁴ concentrations larger than atmospheric ones were only found in the Laois Stagnosol and the Easter Bush Gleyic Cambisol in the hollow terrain position.

436 Leaching losses of CH₄ were <5 mg CH₄-C m⁻² yr⁻¹ at most sites. Even the largest loss of 26 ± 2 mg CH₄-C m⁻² yr⁻¹, measured at Klingenberg, was equivalent to a loss of only 0.23 g

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Discussion

Uncertainties of calculated leaching losses

The errors in the estimates of leaching losses, indicated in brackets in tables 3–7, only reflect the uncertainty caused by the spatial variation of DIC, DOC, and dissolved CH 4 concentrations. Additional uncertainties arise from the modelling of the water balance, the spatial variation of water fluxes, and the calculation of the biogenic fraction of DIC from its δ^{13} C signature.

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tainty of evapotranspiration measurements using t
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regression between net radiation and the sum of s
gible net soil heat flux over long-term periods) sh
the available energy We assessed the uncertainty of evapotranspiration measurements using the eddy covariance method by analyzing the energy balance of the Klingenberg site for the years 2006 and 2007 (Vowinckel, 2008). A regression between net radiation and the sum of sensible and latent heat flux (assuming a negligible net soil heat flux over long-term periods) showed that approximately 68% of the available energy was consumed by turbulent heat fluxes only. Using the slope of this regression and monthly means of the Bowen ratio as well as the available energy, measured latent heat fluxes were subsequently corrected. Monthly correction factors ranged from 1.01 to 1.89 and averaged 1.66, which means an underestimation of the eddy covariance-based evapotranspiration at the Klingenberg site during our study period from October 2006 to March 2008 by approximately 182 mm.

This systematic underestimation of evapotranspiration is roughly compensated by a systematic underestimation of precipitation by standard rainfall collectors due to evaporation from the wet funnel surface and wind turbulence (Richter, 1995). Applying the empirical correction of Richter (1995) to precipitation data of the Klingenberg site (assuming that 464 precipitation at temperatures $\langle 0^{\circ}$ C occurs as snow) indicated an underestimation of the rainfall by 216 mm.

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Free also characterized by clayey soils and rapid runch results of the balance model were compared with results of the b, which was extended with a surface runoff routin model deviated from the results in Table 2 by only m A major uncertainty of the soil water model is the calculated rapid runoff. At Laois, the relevance of lateral water flows could easily be deduced from the clayey soil texture and the occurrence of drainage ditches on the plot. Here, micro-catchments were constructed by 470 separating areas of $10-12 \text{ m}^2$ by trenches and wooden boards in a way that lateral runoff could be collected in a down slope trench, so that modelled lateral flows could be matched to measured water volumes (Walsmley, 2010). No micro-catchments were available at Früebüel and Hainich, which were also characterized by clayey soils and rapid runoff. For these sites, the results of our water balance model were compared with results of the BLAU "bucket" model of Huwe (1991), which was extended with a surface runoff routine. For Früebüel, the results of the BLAU model deviated from the results in Table 2 by only 2% for surface/rapid 477 runoff (440 vs. 449 mm) and by 0.3% for drainage from the soil profile (944 vs. 941 mm). A good agreement between results of the two models was also observed for the Hainich site; 479 rapid/surface runoff and drainage from the soil profile deviated by only 4%.

Dissolved carbon fluxes associated with rapid runoff could not be calculated because concentrations in that runoff were not assessed. According to Kaiser *et al.* (2000), leaching losses of DOC from a shallow forest soil (Rendzic Leptosol) via preferential flow paths during heavy rainstorms were similar to mean annual fluxes as determined for soil matrix flow. This potential underestimation of DOC losses due to preferential flow and rapid runoff of soil water might partly have been compensated for in our study by an overestimation of DIC losses since DIC concentrations in soil water rapidly draining through large pores are probably smaller than concentrations in water in slowly draining pores of the soil matrix. We are not aware of any study that has analysed concentrations of DIC in preferential flow.

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mation of biogenic DIC concentrations and fluxes
The potential overestimation of biogenic DIC concentrations of an average $\delta^{13}C$ value of 0% for carbonates was
ated greater isotopic exchange between DIC and a
re-free Biogenic DIC concentrations are also subjected to an error associated with the determination 492 of the fraction of carbonate-borne DIC using the DIC δ^{13} C signature. The largest source of error is contamination or isotopic exchange of DIC with atmospheric air. Contamination and 494 isotopic exchange with atmospheric air would shift the measured δ^{13} C values to less negative values, leading to systematic underestimation of biogenic DIC concentrations. According to the stoichiometry of carbonate dissolution, the fraction of biogenic DIC in soil water of calcareous soils must exceed 50% and, of course, it should be smaller than 100%. This limits the potential underestimation of biogenic DIC concentrations and fluxes from calcareous soils to values of 18–31%. The potential overestimation of biogenic DIC concentrations resulting 500 from the assumption of an average δ^{13} C value of 0% for carbonates was 1–11% (average 5%). Our results indicated greater isotopic exchange between DIC and atmospheric air for samples from carbonate-free subsoils, especially for the acidic forest subsoils at Loobos and Wetzstein. For these subsoils, however, the assumption of 100% biogenic DIC according to the stoichiometry of weathering reactions is safe and the relevance of the small DIC concentrations at these sites for total carbon leaching is limited.

Factors controlling dissolved carbon concentrations and leaching losses

The positive correlation between soil C/N ratios and DOC concentrations and fluxes in terrestrial ecosystems across biomes was first published by Aitkenhead & McDowell (2000). In contrast to the observation of Aitkenhead & McDowell (2000), DOC concentrations and fluxes in our study correlated only to topsoil C/N ratios (upper 5–40 cm, Table 1) and not to C/N ratios of the entire soils down to 65–100 cm depth. Due to the accumulation of organic matter, topsoils and organic layers are regarded as the soil compartments that are the most important for the generation of DOC (e.g., Guggenberger & Kaiser, 2003). The topsoil C/N ratio is indicative of the litter quality and the intensity of microbial transformation processes. Large C/N ratios indicate poorly degradable litter and a slow transformation and recycling of

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t al., 1996; Kalbitz & Knappe, 1997). A hypothesi
explain this relationship was that microbial comm
o process more organic matter to satisfy their N re
vith small C/N ratios. At C/N ratios <<10, most ca
matter is either 517 organic matter. Studies using $\delta^{13}C$ or ^{14}C to track sources and turnover of DOC (Schiff *et al.*, 1997; Flessa *et al.*, 2000; Hagedorn *et al.*, 2004; Fröberg *et al.*, 2007) suggest that dissolved organic matter, which is transported over decimetres or metres down into subsoils, mainly represents highly altered residues of organic matter processing. Processing of N-poor organic matter seems to result in production of more soluble residues, which explains the positive correlation between soil C/N ratios and DOC concentrations. A positive correlation between DOC production and C/N ratios of soil organic matter was also observed in laboratory experiments (Gödde *et al.*, 1996; Kalbitz & Knappe, 1997). A hypothesis put forward by Gödde *et al.* (1996) to explain this relationship was that microbial communities in soils with large C/N ratios have to process more organic matter to satisfy their N requirements than communities in soils with small C/N ratios. At C/N ratios <<10, most carbon associated with processed soil organic matter is either respired or re-assimilated so that only small amounts of DOC are produced. The regression equation in Fig. 4 suggests that above a critical C/N ratio of approximately 8, increasing amounts of soluble C residues are produced with increasing C/N ratio of soil organic matter. It is plausible to expect that DOC leaching from topsoils only occurs if a critical C/N ratio is exceeded.

Leaching of DOC from subsoils was controlled by retention in B horizons, with this retention being related to the ratio of organic carbon to the sum of oxalate-extractable iron plus aluminium (Fig. 7). Oxalate-extractable iron and aluminium are a measure of the concentration of poorly crystalline iron and aluminium (hydr)oxides with a high specific surface area in soils. These iron and aluminium(hydr)oxides are considered to be the most important sorbents for dissolved organic matter in soils (e.g., Kaiser *et al.*, 1996). The ratio of organic carbon to the concentration of iron and aluminium (hydr)oxides in B horizons is therefore an indicator of the saturation of the available sorption capacity of subsoils for the DOC they receive from topsoils. Hence, the relationship presented in Fig. 7 suggests that the

concept of a sorptive control on DOC output from mineral soils (e.g., Guggenberger & Kaiser, 2003) seems to apply for a wide range of soils and land use systems.

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radient of CO_2 from microbial habitats through so
tic retardation of CO_2 outgassing from soil water
supersaturation was larger and more variable thar
r diffusion path into the atmosphere and therefore
en CO_2 product The close relationship between measured and calculated DIC concentrations leached from topsoils indicates that the partial pressure of $CO₂$ in soil air and the pH of soil solution control DIC concentrations (and fluxes), according to carbonate equilibrium. The almost constant degree of supersaturation of soil waters with respect to equilibrium concentrations probably reflects the diffusion gradient of $CO₂$ from microbial habitats through soil air into the 551 atmosphere or the kinetic retardation of $CO₂$ outgassing from soil water into soil air. For subsoils, the degree of supersaturation was larger and more variable than for topsoils, which might reflect the longer diffusion path into the atmosphere and therefore the stronger build-up 554 of disequilibria between CO_2 production in moist soil zones and the partial pressure of CO_2 in soil air in drier zones. On the other hand, any contamination of soil air samples with atmospheric air during sampling or sample handling would probably also lead to an 557 underestimation of equilibrium DIC concentrations because CO_2 concentrations in soil air are commonly much larger than atmospheric concentrations. We did not observe any relationship between the absolute or relative excess of measured compared to calculated DIC concentrations with mean annual precipitation, clay content, air capacity of the soils (air-filled pore volume at field capacity), soil water content, or water-

filled pore space. Likely, the connectivity and spatial arrangement of soil (macro)pores rather than bulk soil properties control gas exchange with the atmosphere (Lange *et al.*, 2009) and

the degree of supersaturation of soil waters (Walmsley, 2010).

 Relevance of DOC plus biogenic DIC leaching for the net ecosystem carbon balance

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ly important for estimating the magnitude of carbon balances in Table 5 cover only few years (<13 yer fore, carbon release as a result of logging or cate not included. According to the latest estimates, look also for Euro Plot-scale balances of carbon fluxes of four forest sites in our study were not significantly affected by carbon leaching (Table 5). Only for the beech forest at Sorø, carbon leaching 570 equalled 25% of the balance of atmospheric CO_2 fluxes (Table 5). Reasons for this large fraction are the comparably small NEE and high leaching losses of biogenic DIC due to the high pH of the calcareous subsoil. Neglecting leaching losses would lead to a substantial 573 overestimation of the net ecosystem carbon balance of the Sorø forest (+145 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ instead of +108 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, Table 5). For forest ecosystems, in particular, the temporal scale of balances is extremely important for estimating the magnitude of carbon sequestration. The forest ecosystem carbon balances in Table 5 cover only few years (<13 years) in relation to a forest's life cycle. Therefore, carbon release as a result of logging or catastrophic events like fire or wind storms are not included. According to the latest estimates, logging reduces the 579 average net carbon uptake of European forests by 63 ± 11 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Schulze *et al.*, 2009). 580 Another 5 ± 1 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ are lost through fires. Due to these losses, the long-term average net biome productivity of European forests, excluding leaching losses, is estimated to 82 g C
582 m⁻² yr⁻¹ (Schulze *et al.*, 2009). The average leaching loss of 12 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ we observed for forests equals 14% of the average net biome productivity of forests.

Grasslands strongly differed with regard to their balance of aboveground carbon fluxes (Table 5). While the grasslands at Laqueuille, Easter Bush, and Früebüel were characterized by a positive balance of NEE, fertilizer addition and carbon removal with harvest (indicating a carbon sink), the Carlow grassland showed a net negative balance due to large harvest of biomass (for silage). At Carlow, net carbon losses nearly doubled from 40 g m⁻² yr 589 biomass (for silage). At Carlow, net carbon losses nearly doubled from 40 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ to 79 g
590 m⁻² yr⁻¹ when leaching losses were considered. At the other sites, 5–29% of the net inputs of carbon into soil were leached. The estimated average net biome productivity of European 592 grasslands, excluding leaching losses, is $64 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Schulze *et al.*, 2009). Our average 593 leaching loss for grasslands of 29 g C m^{-2} yr⁻¹ is almost 50% of that estimate.

In contrast to forests or grasslands, all studied croplands were net sources of carbon (Table 5). Carbon losses with drainage were 24–105% of the sum of NEE plus fertilization minus harvest (median: 25% Table 5). Kutsch *et al.* (2010) reported an average net biome 598 productivity (excluding leaching losses) of $-97 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for five temperate European croplands (including the Carlow and Klingenberg sites) based on eddy covariance measurements and carbon fluxes with organic fertilizers and harvested biomass. The average 601 leaching loss of 18 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ we found equals 19% of the net carbon loss as given by Kutsch *et al.* (2010). According to Schulze *et al.* (2009), European croplands are a smaller net source of carbon (17 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ on average, excluding leaching losses), which is of a similar magnitude to the average leaching losses found in this study.

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Downstream fate of dissolved carbon

E $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$ we found equals 19% of the net carbon according to Schulze *et al.* (2009), European cropl $m^{-2} yr^{-1}$ on average, excluding leaching losses), vage leaching losses found in this study.
 ssolved carbon z an The estimates of Schulze *et al.* (2009) for average greenhouse gas balances of European land use systems accounted for leaching losses of DOC and DIC by assuming a constant average 609 loss of 7 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for all land use systems, which is close to the losses of 5.9 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ reported by Ciais *et al.* (2008). Both estimates are considerably smaller than the average (19.5 611 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) and the median (15.2 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) of leaching losses we found (Table 5). This difference is related to the fact that the losses given by Ciais *et al.* (2008) and Schulze *et al.* (2009) represent the carbon export with rivers to oceans because these studies aimed at the carbon budget of the whole continent. In the studies of Ciais *et al.* (2008) and Schulze *et al.* (2009), the riverine carbon export was divided by the area of the river catchments to derive an 616 average loss per m^2 , whereas our study directly measured leaching from the soil into groundwater. A comparison of our results with the estimates of Ciais *et al.* (2008) and Schulze *et al.* (2009) is therefore only possible when considering the downstream fate of dissolved carbon after being leached from soil.

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(Cole *et al.*, 2007) and to ~66% of the carbon European rivers receive from terrestrial

ecosystems (Ciais *et al.*, 2008). Multiplication of these estimates with our mean carbon

644 leaching loss gives an evasion of 8–13 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ and an evasion of 6–10 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ when

using the median. Subtraction of this evasion from surface waters from our dissolved carbon 646 flux from soils gives a flux of $5-12$ g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ from the continent into the ocean.

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98). Particulate organic matter washed into inland
ibutes to this burial of carbon in the sediments of
we did not include fluxes of organic matter with ϵ
s of carbon burial of Cole *et al.* (2007) and Ciais ϵ
fluxes A fraction of the carbon that is transferred from terrestrial ecosystems to inland waters is buried in the sediments of lakes and reservoirs. Burial of carbon in the sediments of inland waters has been estimated to equal 12% of inputs from land on a global scale (Cole *et al.*, 2007) and 21% of the net ecosystem carbon transfer from European terrestrial ecosystems into rivers (Ciais *et al.*, 2008). Particulate organic matter washed into inland waters due to erosion of soils certainly contributes to this burial of carbon in the sediments of lakes and reservoirs (Stallard, 1998). Since we did not include fluxes of organic matter with eroded soil material in our study, the estimates of carbon burial of Cole *et al.* (2007) and Ciais *et al.* (2008) are difficult to relate to the fluxes of dissolved carbon reported here. Assuming that all carbon buried in the sediments of lakes and reservoirs derived from dissolved carbon indicates that 658 less than 2–4 g m^{-2} yr⁻¹ of DOC and DIC leached from soils are probably stored in the sediments of inland waters, which would reduce the carbon lost from soils that reaches the 660 ocean with rivers to 1–10 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, but this reduction is uncertain. Overall, the carbon ⁶⁶¹ leaching losses reported here correspond to a riverine flux of DOC and biogenic DIC of 5.5 g
⁶⁶² m⁻² yr⁻¹ reported for Europe by Ludwig *et al.* (1998) and the river carbon fluxes of 5.9 and $\frac{7 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}}{2}$ given by Ciais *et al.* (2008) and Schulze *et al.* (2009), respectively, when considering outgassing from inland waters and potential burial in sediments.

Our set of research sites did not include sites from southern, northern, and eastern Europe. In the study of Ciais *et al.* (2008), the yield of river carbon fluxes reaching the continental shelf 668 was twice as large for southern Europe (<42° N; 10.8 g m⁻² yr⁻¹) than for temperate Europe 669 (42–50° N; 5.2 g m⁻² yr⁻¹). The rather good agreement of riverine carbon fluxes with carbon leaching losses in our study when considering outgassing and sedimentation is probably due

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to the small effect of high C export from south European catchments on the overall export due to their small area and small river discharge in relation to temperate and northern Europe.

For Review Only In summary, leaching represents a comparatively small, but continuous loss of carbon from terrestrial ecosystems. Considering these losses for ecosystem greenhouse gas balances is increasingly important when long time periods are examined and net changes of biomass stocks are small. Leaching losses are especially important to local and plot-scale studies, because outgassing of carbon into the atmosphere from surface waters probably occurs outside the boundaries of the studied systems. Leaching losses are particularly important for the net ecosystem carbon balance of grasslands and croplands where dissolved carbon leaching roughly equalled 25% of NEE plus fertilizer carbon minus harvested carbon. Topsoil C/N ratio, the saturation of the subsoils sorption capacity for organic carbon, and its carbonate content were important factors controlling the magnitude of carbon leaching losses.

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Tables

Table 1: Land use, soil characteristics, instrumentation, and temperature, of the investigated sites. Mean annual temperatures, mean annual precipitation, and mean drainage is given for the period of the observations of this study. This period was from 1 October 2006 until 30 March 2009 for Laois and Carlow and from 1 October 2006 until 30 March 2008 for all other sites.

Carlow (c) Cropland Eutric Cambisol Sandy loam 7.3° 6.9 40 9.0 9.3 9.3
down to 60 cm depth, ²down to 30 cm depth, ³down to 50 cm depth. Soil organic carbon data for Früebüel from Roth (2006). ⁶Infiltration into runoff of 287 mm. Carlow (g): Carlow grassland, Carlow (c): Carlow cropland

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Table 2: Water balance of the research sites during the investigated period. Drainage from A-horizon denoted fluxes deeper than the upper instrumentation depth given in Table 1, drainage from soil profile refers to water fluxes deeper than the lower instrumentation depth of Table 1.<u> 1989 - Andrea San An</u>

¹Total lateral runoff including surface runoff of 349 mm; ²Infiltration into B horizon excluding lateral runoff; ³Total lateral runoff including surface runoff of 135 mm yr $^{-1}$.

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Table 3: Leaching losses of dissolved organic carbon from topsoils and subsoils of the research sites. The winter period is from 1 October until 30 March. Winter data are the average of winters 2006/2007 and 2007/2008 (and 2008/2009 for Irish sites). The summer period started on 1 April and ended on 30 September. For Irish sites, the summer value is the average of summers 2007 and 2008, for all other sites it is the value for summer 2007.

Numbers in brackets indicate standard deviations due to spatial variability of concentrations for individual sites and the standard error of the average across sites with the same land use system or across all sites; n.d.: not detectable; ¹excluding lateral runoff of 3.0 g DOC m^{-2} yr^{-1} . Topsoils reach down to the shallow instrumentation depth, subsoil reach down to the deeper instrumentation depth given in Table 1.

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Table 4: Leaching losses of total dissolved inorganic carbon from topsoils and subsoils of the research sites. The winter period is from 1 October until 30 March. Winter data are the average of winters 2006/2007 and 2007/2008 (and 2008/2009 for Irish sites). The summer period started on 1 April and ended on 30 September. For Irish sites, the summer value is the average of summers 2007 and 2008, for all other sites it is the value for summer 2007.

Numbers in brackets indicate standard deviations due to spatial variability of concentrations for individual sites and the standard error of the average across sites with the same land use system or across all sites; the errors do not reflect uncertainties associated with the calculation of the biogenic fraction of DIC with the isotope method (see text); n.d.: not detectable; ¹excluding lateral runoff of 3.7 g DIC m^{-2} yr⁻¹ (Walmsley, 2009). Topsoils reach down to the shallow instrumentation depth, subsoil reach down to the deeper instrumentation depth given in Table 1 .

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 I_n net ecosystem exchange = gross primary productivity minus ecosystem respiration excluding C deprivation with harvest, fires etc., Numbers in brackets indicate standard deviations due to spatial variability of concentrations for individual sites and the standard error of the average across sites with the same land use system or across all sites.² mean 2000-2007 Kutsch et al. (in prep.), ³ mean 1997–2008 Pilegaard et al. (in prep.), ⁴mean 2003–2007 Saunders et al. (in prep.), ⁵mean 1997–2008 Moors et al. (unpublished data), ⁶mean 2002–2007 Rebmann et al. (2009), ⁷ Laqueuille: 2003–
2006; Easter Bush: 2004 2008; a net loss of -255 g m⁻² yr⁻¹ was observed when the application of organic fertilizer to rape in 2004 is excluded from the balance, Prescher et al. (2010).

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Numbers in brackets indicate standard deviations due to spatial variability of concentrations. No data can be given for soil air concentration beneath the Wetzstein topsoil because wild boars destroyed the shallow soil air samplers.
Topsoils reach down to the shallow instrumentation depth, subsoil reach down to the deeper instrumentation de Jny given in Table 1.

Figure captions

Fig. 1: Map of the research sites and their land use.

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Fig. 2: Concentrations of total dissolved inorganic carbon (open), dissolved organic carbon (hatched), and total dissolved carbon (crosshatched) below the soil A horizon (white) and below the main rooting zone (gray). Concentrations represent the arithmetic mean of the median concentrations of all suction cups in one depth over time. Error bars represent the standard error of 5 suction cups (terrain positions) or 10 suction cups (all cups) and indicate the uncertainty due to spatial variability of concentrations.

Fig. 3: Comparison of measured average total DIC concentrations with average concentrations calculated from average partial pressures of soil air $CO₂$ and average soil solution pH using Henry's law. No calculated concentration can be given for topsoil leachates of the Wetzstein site, because wild boars destroyed the shallow soil air samplers.

FOR BOUNDARY

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Fig. 4: Average concentrations of DOC leached from topsoils as a function of topsoil C/N ratio. All sites for which C/N ratios were available were included into the relationship. Averages were calculated as the arithmetic mean of median concentrations of suction cups and suction plates over time. Topsoils reach down to the shallow depth of instrumentation given in Table 1.

FOR BOUTER

Fig. 5: δ^{13} C values (box plots and arithmetic mean as white dot) and the biogenic fraction of DIC (black triangles). The lower value of the biogenic fraction was calculated using a $\delta^{13}C$ of -28% for the biogenic end-member and a δ^{13} C of 0% for carbonates. The upper value of the biogenic fraction was calculated using the δ^{13} C of value of soil air CO₂ at the time of soil δ^{13} C of value of soil air CO water collection and a $\delta^{13}C$ of 0% for carbonates. Use of a $\delta^{13}C$ of -5% for carbonate-C $\delta^{13}C$ of 0% for carbonates. Use of a δ reduced the calculated biogenic fraction on average by 5% (biogenic end-member of –28‰).

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Fig. 6: Precipitation (a), evapotranspiration (b), measured and modeled soil water volumes (c, d), and modelled groundwater recharge (e) for the Carlow grassland. The average relative deviation of the modelled soil water volume was 14% for the A-horizon and 6% for the Bhorizon (Table 2).

FOR ROLLING

Fig. 7: Retention of DOC in B horizons of soils related to the ratio of organic carbon (OC) and the sum of oxalate-extractable iron (Fe_o) and aluminium (Al_o) of B horizons. Data for oxalate-extractable iron and aluminium were only available for the displayed sites.

FOR ROUTER

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

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