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1 **Modelling changes in nitrate leaching using the MAGIC model with linked microbial**  
2 **and nitrogen processes**

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19  
20 **Abstract**

21  
22 We apply a new formulation of nitrogen (N) and carbon (C) cycling in the acidification  
23 model MAGIC to simulate changes in water chemistry over the past 30 years at three  
24 coniferous-forested sites in the Czech Republic where deposition of sulphur (S) and N has  
25 decreased by > 80% and 40%, respectively. Sulphate concentrations in waters have declined  
26 commensurately, but nitrate concentrations have shown much larger decreases relative to  
27 deposition. This behaviour is inconsistent with most conceptual models of N saturation, and  
28 with earlier versions of MAGIC which assumed that N retention was functionally  
29 proportionate to N deposition or related to the soil C/N ratio; neither can reproduce the  
30 observed changes in NO<sub>3</sub>. The new formulation effectively simulates observed changes in  
31 nitrate, as well as changes in soil C/N. The model suggests that, despite recent apparent  
32 recovery, progressive N saturation will lead to increased future nitrate leaching, ecosystem  
33 eutrophication and re-acidification.

34  
35 **Capsule**

36  
37 Process-based modelling of the carbon and nitrogen dynamics in forest ecosystems

38  
39 **Key words**

40  
41 Nitrogen; saturation; leaching; acidification; Norway spruce

42  
43 **1. Introduction**

44  
45 Surface waters in acid-sensitive regions of Europe have been severely affected by decades of  
46 elevated sulphur (S) and nitrogen (N) deposition. During the past 25 years deposition of S has  
47 decreased by >80% (Schöpp et al., 2003) following implementation of international  
48 agreements on reduction of emissions of air pollutants under the auspices of the United  
49 Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Convention on Long-Range  
50 Transboundary Air Pollution (LRTAP) (UNECE, 2002). Despite substantial decreases in

1 emissions of N compounds ( $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ ) (Kopáček and Posch, 2011), reductions in N  
2 deposition are often proportionally much smaller (Fowler et al., 2005). In response to the  
3 decreased S and N deposition, surface waters have begun to recover from acidification  
4 (Jenkins et al., 2003; Stoddard et al., 1999; Wright et al., 2005). As sulphate ( $\text{SO}_4$ )  
5 concentrations have decreased, nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3$ ) has become increasingly important as a  
6 proportion of the acid anion leaching from many catchments (e.g. Curtis et al., 2005). In acid  
7 soils, much of the  $\text{NO}_3$  leached from soil is accompanied by the acid cations  $\text{H}^+$  and inorganic  
8 aluminium ( $\text{Al}_i$ ). Chronic deposition of elevated amounts of N also affects the nutrient status  
9 of terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems and can cause changes in biodiversity (De Vries et al.,  
10 2010).

11  
12 Process-oriented catchment-scale biogeochemical models provide tools to simulate changes  
13 in surface water and soil chemistry in response to changes in S and N deposition. These  
14 models commonly include processes to describe the retention and loss of N in terrestrial  
15 ecosystems. MAGIC (Model for Acidification of Groundwater In Catchments) is one such  
16 model (Cosby et al., 2001; Cosby et al., 1985a; Cosby et al., 1985b). MAGIC has been  
17 widely used in a variety of applications to simulate acidification of soil and surface water  
18 (Cosby et al., 2001).

19  
20 In the early versions of MAGIC (versions 1-5) retention of N was calculated simply as the  
21 difference between N deposition and runoff output. The fraction retained was assumed to be  
22 unchanged for the historical and future simulated years. With version 7 (Cosby et al., 2001)  
23 the fraction N retained was described as a function of the N richness of the ecosystem. This  
24 was largely based on empirical data such as the synoptic data from forested sites in Europe  
25 (Dise et al., 1998; Gundersen et al., 1998) and subsequently North America (Aber et al.,  
26 2003; Lovett et al., 2002), and from experimental studies such as the NITREX experiments  
27 (Emmett et al., 1998). These data showed that N-rich sites leach a larger fraction of incoming  
28 N relative to N-poor sites. The soil C/N ratio is often used as a measure of N-richness. The  
29 C/N ratio is a measure of the state of the system, and as such is the product of N retention  
30 processes such as microbial N immobilisation and N mineralisation.

31  
32 Because the organic matter pool in soils is often quite large, the C/N ratio changes only  
33 slowly in response to retention of N from deposition. Furthermore, as a measure of the bulk  
34 properties of the whole soil, the C/N ratio does not necessarily reflect the N-richness of the  
35 actively cycling component of the organic matter. Forest floor C/N ratio appears to be a  
36 particularly robust indicator of catchment N export across large regional gradients and long  
37 time-frames (Dise et al., 1998; Gundersen et al., 1998), and is useful in understanding spatial  
38 patterns among the Czech catchments (Oulehle et al., 2008). However, it does not appear to  
39 be useful in understanding relatively short-term changes in N dynamics (1–2 decades). Data  
40 from the NITREX experiment in Sweden (Moldan et al., 2006) show that the soil C/N ratio is  
41 unresponsive to short-term environmental change. The non-linear nature of the relationship  
42 between soil C/N and  $\text{NO}_3$  export also makes it more difficult to apply in a predictive  
43 framework, as small (and difficult to detect) changes in soil C/N can result in large  $\text{NO}_3$   
44 increases once the threshold for accelerated  $\text{NO}_3$  leaching (C/N of approximately 22–25) has  
45 been passed. Thus, large and rapid changes in N leaching cannot be accounted for simply by  
46 the C/N ratio of the soil, or the bulk “N-richness” of the ecosystem. It is more likely that the  
47 actual strength of the various N sinks and the factors that control them determine the fate of  
48 the incoming N within the ecosystem (Lovett and Goodale, 2011).

1 Here we describe an alternative formulation of N retention and loss in soil based directly on  
2 the microbial processes which determine the balance of N mineralisation and immobilisation,  
3 and incorporate this into MAGIC (MAGIC 7ext). This new model formulation is tested using  
4 long-term (>15 year) data from three monitoring sites in the Czech Republic. The sites are  
5 located within a region that experienced exceptionally high rates of S and N deposition in the  
6 1980s-90s, followed by very large and rapid reductions during the last two decades. They  
7 include soil, stream and lake catchment data, and thus provide a robust test of model  
8 performance for multiple ecosystem components over a period of major change in pollutant  
9 loadings.

## 11 **2. Materials and methods**

### 13 *2.1. The model*

15 MAGIC is a lumped-parameter model of intermediate complexity, developed to predict the  
16 long-term effects of acidic deposition on surface water chemistry (Cosby et al., 2001; Cosby  
17 et al., 1985a; Cosby et al., 1985b). The model simulates soil and surface water chemistry in  
18 response to changes in drivers such as deposition of S and N, silvicultural practices, and  
19 climate. MAGIC calculates for each time step (in this case year) the concentrations of major  
20 ions under the assumption of simultaneous reactions involving SO<sub>4</sub> adsorption, cation  
21 exchange, dissolution-precipitation-speciation of aluminium and dissolution-speciation of  
22 inorganic and organic C. MAGIC accounts for the mass balance of major ions in the soil by  
23 bookkeeping the fluxes from atmospheric inputs, chemical weathering, net uptake in biomass  
24 and loss to runoff.

26 Data inputs required for calibration of MAGIC comprise lake and catchment characteristics,  
27 soil chemical and physical characteristics, input and output fluxes for water and major ions,  
28 and net uptake of base cations and N by vegetation. Here, we describe the new formulation of  
29 the MAGIC N model for the first time.

31 The soil organic matter (SOM) pool is the central feature of the N dynamics in the new  
32 version of MAGIC (Figure 1). The dynamics of the SOM pool are driven by decomposer  
33 activity and exchanges with the soil solution. Decomposers process the C and N content of  
34 SOM, using part of the organic matter for energy and part to generate new biomass (which  
35 remains in the SOM). The turnover of SOM results in the release of CO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>, dissolved  
36 organic carbon (DOC) and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) to soil solution as the result of  
37 decomposition and solubilisation, and the removal of inorganic N from soil solution as the  
38 result of decomposer growth.

40 The plant litter flux provides inputs of organic C and N to the soil organic matter (SOM)  
41 pool. This flux includes below ground components of plant litter as well as inputs from N  
42 fixing species. The plant uptake flux removes inorganic N from soil solution. MAGIC does  
43 not explicitly model plant dynamics. The plant uptake fluxes, therefore, are provided as  
44 inputs to the model. Observed litter data (C flux and C/N ratio) are used to set the organic C  
45 and N inputs to SOM. The plant uptake of inorganic N from soil solution are then estimated  
46 as the amount necessary to replace the annual plant N losses through litter, with perhaps a  
47 small additional increment to represent the annual storage of N in woody tissue.

49 Inorganic N enters the model as deposition (wet and dry) of NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>. Inorganic nitrogen  
50 (N<sub>2</sub>) is lost to the atmosphere as a result of denitrification in the soil. Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>)

1 resulting from respired SOM is lost to the atmosphere through gas exchange. Within the soil  
2 solution,  $\text{NH}_4$  can be nitrified to  $\text{NO}_3$ . As water moves through the soil at each time step, the  
3 dissolved C and N constituents are transported out of the soil as dissolved  $\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_4$ , DON  
4 and DOC in solution. When a multiple soil layer version of MAGIC is implemented, these C  
5 and N fluxes would pass to the next soil layer. After the last layer, these fluxes enter the  
6 surface water compartment.

7  
8 Time series of plant litter and N fixation (FC1 and FN1) (Figure 1) are external inputs to  
9 SOM. At each time step, decomposers process some of the C and N content of SOM (FC2  
10 and FN2). A portion of this C and N turnover returns to the SOM as decomposer biomass  
11 (FC3 and FN3), while the remainder is lost from SOM to soil solution as  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_4$   
12 (decomposition and mineralization; FC4 and FN4), or as DOC and DON (solubilisation; FC5  
13 and FN5).

14  
15 The fraction of total organic C in SOM turnover that is returned to the SOM as C in new  
16 decomposer biomass (i.e., the ratio FC3/FC2) is specified in the model using the parameter  
17 Cfrac (which is optimized during calibration as described below). Similarly, the fraction of  
18 total organic N in SOM turnover that is incorporated in new decomposer biomass (i.e., the  
19 ratio FN6/FN2) is specified by the parameter Nfrac (also optimized as described below). The  
20 new decomposer biomass that is produced in this cycle must have the characteristic C/N ratio  
21 of the decomposer organism and this ratio must be maintained in the return fluxes FC3 and  
22 FN3 entering the SOM. If the N flux from SOM turnover (FN6) is smaller than the N flux  
23 needed for the new decomposer biomass (i.e.,  $\text{FN6} < \text{FN3}$ ), the additional N required for the  
24 new decomposer biomass is obtained from soil solution (immobilization; FN7). This process  
25 of immobilization of inorganic N from soil solution will vary in time as the C/N ratio of the  
26 SOM changes. As nitrogen accumulates in the SOM, the C/N ratio of the SOM declines and  
27 more of the N needed for new decomposer biomass can be derived from the SOM turnover  
28 (FN6). In turn, the immobilization flux (FN7) will decline leaving higher concentration of  
29 inorganic N in soil solution.

30  
31 The organic C lost from SOM to soil solution during turnover can appear as  $\text{CO}_2$   
32 (decomposition; FC4), or as DOC (solubilisation; FC5). The fraction of organic C lost from  
33 SOM as DOC (i.e.,  $\text{FC5}/(\text{FC4}+\text{FC5})$ ) is specified in the model by the parameter Dfrac. This  
34 parameter is optimized to match observed DOC in soil runoff. The C/N ratio of the DOC in  
35 runoff is assumed to be the same as the C/N of the SOM, thus allowing calculation of the  
36 DON flux (FN5). The amount of N released to the soil solution as  $\text{NH}_4$  (mineralization; FN4)  
37 is determined at each time step by mass balance ( $\text{FN4} = \text{FN2} - \text{FN5} - \text{FN6}$ ).

## 38 39 2.2. Site descriptions

40  
41 Three sites in the Czech Republic, representing a stream, a lake and a terrestrial monitoring  
42 plot (i.e. soil water) respectively, were selected on the basis of long-term monitoring data that  
43 showed dramatic changes in acidic deposition and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  leaching during the last decades  
44 (Hruška et al., 2002; Majer et al., 2003; Oulehle et al., 2007).

45  
46 The Načetín forest plot (soil water site) is located on the ridge of the Ore Mountains,  
47 northwestern Czech Republic, in the centre of the so-called "Black Triangle" – formerly one  
48 of the most polluted regions in Europe, with the highest areal  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions (Figure 2, Table  
49 1)(Oulehle and Hruska, 2009). The region was not glaciated. Extremely high sulphur  
50 emissions from nearby power plants burning high-sulphur lignite (a maximum S deposition

1 of 800 mmol m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the late 1980s; Berge, 1997) caused widespread forest dieback in the  
2 region (Moldan and Schnoor, 1992). The spruce forest at the site is one of the few remaining  
3 mature forest stands in the region. Monthly measurement of bulk precipitation, throughfall  
4 and soil water (90 cm depth) started in 1994 (Oulehle et al., 2006).

5  
6 The Lysina catchment (stream water site) is located in the large spruce forest on the  
7 unglaciated plateau of the Slavkov Forest in western Czech Republic (Figure 2, Table 1). The  
8 catchment has been monitored since 1989 and 1990 for runoff (stream water) and deposition  
9 (bulk and throughfall), respectively. The chronically acidic stream at Lysina experienced  
10 marked declines of sulphate (SO<sub>4</sub>), nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>), calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg)  
11 concentrations in the 1990s (Hruška and Krám, 2003).

12  
13 Čertovo Lake (lake water site) is a small (10 ha) lake of glacial origin located in the  
14 Bohemian Forest in the southwestern Czech Republic (Figure 2, Table 1). It has been a nature  
15 reserve since the 1930s. The lake has maximum depth of 36 m and water retention time of 1.8  
16 yr. The catchment is a forest of mature spruce trees. The lake has been the object of irregular  
17 hydrobiological research since the 1870s (Vrba et al., 2003). Regular chemical monitoring  
18 began in 1984 (Veselý et al., 1998), and mass budgets of major element fluxes in the  
19 catchment-lake system have been available since 1998 (Kopáček et al., 1998). Bulk  
20 deposition and throughfall have been measured since 1991 (Hruška et al., 2000) and were  
21 reconstructed back to 1860 (Kopáček et al., 2001).

### 22 23 2.3. Deposition

24  
25 Deposition (both bulk and throughfall) has been measured at the three sites since the  
26 beginning of the 1990s. These data show a dramatic decrease in S deposition and to a lesser  
27 extent also N deposition since 1990 (Figure 3). Throughfall data were used here for S and N.  
28 At Načetín S deposition declined from 66 kgS ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to 13 kgS ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (81%) and N  
29 deposition decreased from 29 kgN ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to 17 kgN ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (41%) compared to the peak in  
30 1980s. At Lysina S deposition decreased from 44 kgS ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to 6.4 kgS ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (85%) and  
31 N deposition decreased from 13 kgN ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to 8.7 kgN ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (33%). At Čertovo S  
32 deposition declined from 42 kgS ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to 7.2 kgS ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (83%). N deposition declined  
33 from 25 kgN ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to 17 kgN ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (32%) (Table 1).

34  
35 For the period prior to observations we use estimates of S and N deposition derived by  
36 Kopáček et al. (2001) and Schöpp et al. (2003) based on historical estimates of European S  
37 and N emissions. The trends were scaled to the measured deposition at each of the sites for  
38 the period of observations (1991–2009). For the future period to the year 2050 we use the  
39 current models (Current Legislation scenarios – CLE) of the ‘Co-operative Programme for  
40 Monitoring and Evaluation of the Long-range Transmission of Air Pollutants in Europe  
41 (EMEP, <http://www.ceip.at/emission-data-webdab>), which project lower emissions of S and  
42 N compounds in Central Europe in 2010 and 2020 than the values originally based on the  
43 Gothenburg Protocol (Schöpp et al., 2003).

44  
45 Deposition in base cations and chloride (Cl) were modelled by a procedure similar to that  
46 used by Majer et al. (2003), with the exception for the 1991–2009 period, when the measured  
47 data were used. The trends in base cations and Cl deposition were similar (but less steep) to  
48 the trend in SO<sub>4</sub> deposition (Figure 3), with maxima in the 1980s, reflecting maximum dust  
49 emissions from coal consumption and industrial processes (Hedin et al., 1994) and Cl  
50 emissions associated with coal consumption (Evans et al., 2011) and industry (Veselý et al.,

1 2002) in this period. Future deposition of base cations and Cl were held constant at 2009  
2 levels.

#### 3 4 *2.4. Calibration procedure*

5  
6 MAGIC was calibrated to the average water chemistry for the period 1994-1995 (Načetín),  
7 1991-1992 (Lysina) and 2000 (Čertovo Lake), respectively, and the soil chemistry for each  
8 site. The calibrations at each site proceeded by sequential steps. The first steps involved  
9 calibration of the strong-acid anions; Cl and SO<sub>4</sub> were calibrated by adjusting the deposition  
10 inputs as described by Wright and Cosby (2003) such that for both ions mass balance for the  
11 catchment-lake systems were obtained.

12  
13 Calibration of the NO<sub>3</sub> concentrations in water came next. For simulation at a given site, the  
14 values Cfrac and Nfrac, and the initial C and N content of the SOM pool were specified.  
15 These values were jointly selected in an optimization procedure that minimized the  
16 differences between simulated and observed values of a number of criteria, given the input  
17 time-series of litter, runoff, and inorganic N deposition at each site. The values to be matched  
18 included the C content, the C/N ratio of the soil organic matter at the site, and the  
19 concentrations of inorganic N, DON and DOC in runoff. The simulated values for the pools  
20 of C and N and the C/N ratio in the soil were forced to match the observed values for the year  
21 for which soil measurements were available. The C/N ratio (mol/mol) of new microbial  
22 biomass was assumed to be 10 (Cleveland and Liptzin, 2007).

23  
24 This optimisation procedure resulted in the modelled sum of strong acid anions (SAA) in  
25 water equal to that observed. The next steps involved calibration of the base cations Ca, Mg,  
26 Na, and K. A trial and error process was used to adjust the weathering rates of Ca, Mg, Na,  
27 and K and initial soil exchange pools of these four cations until modelled concentrations of  
28 base cations in the streamwater and modelled pools of base cations in the soil matched the  
29 observed for the calibration period. This step calculated the soil-soil solution selectivity  
30 coefficients for base cations and Al exchange. At this point the modelled sum of base cations  
31 (SBC) equalled the observed for the calibration period, and thus also the modelled acid  
32 neutralising capacity (ANC) equalled the observed ANC (ANC was defined as SBC-SAA).

33  
34 The final step entailed calibration of the weak acids and bases such that the simulated  
35 concentrations of H<sup>+</sup>, Al<sub>i</sub> and organic anions (A<sup>-</sup>) matched observations. This was achieved  
36 by adjusting the dissociation constants for organic acids, aluminium hydroxide, fluoride, and  
37 sulphate species, and organic aluminium complexes. We used tri-protic model for organic  
38 acids with dissociation constants given by Hruška et al. (2003).

### 39 40 **3. Results**

#### 41 42 *3.1. Model outputs*

43  
44 The model with the new N dynamics was successfully calibrated to the observed water NO<sub>3</sub>  
45 data at all three sites. The model simulated the observed large decreases in NO<sub>3</sub>  
46 concentrations over the period 1990-2010 at Načetín and Lysina, as well as the observed rise  
47 and fall in NO<sub>3</sub> concentrations over the 50-year period at Čertovo Lake (Figure 4).

48  
49 The calibrated C and N parameters were quite similar among the three sites (Table 2). The  
50 parameter Cfrac was 21-25% and Nfrac 45-80%. The C fluxes used to calibrate the model at

1 the three sites were held constant throughout the 200-year simulation period, with the  
2 exception of the annual amount of organic C processed in soil organic matter (SOM) turnover  
3 (flux FC2 in Figure 1), which was reduced during the period of severe soil acidification  
4 (1970-1990). The resulting C fluxes for three key years at Načetín are shown in Table 3.

5  
6 The N fluxes into and out of the ecosystem were either measured or estimated, and linked to  
7 the C fluxes by means of C/N ratios of organic matter in the various pools. The resulting N  
8 fluxes within the soil compartment show large changes during the 145-year period 1860 to  
9 2005, here shown for Načetín (Table 3). Under the assumptions that plant uptake of N and  
10 litterfall of organic N are constant over the entire period, the changes in N deposition give  
11 rise to large changes in inorganic N leaching. The other two sites behaved similarly (Suppl.  
12 Tab. S1, S2).

13  
14 During the simulation N mineralization (FN4) increased as N accumulated in the SOM.  
15 Consequently inorganic N immobilization decreased as more N needed by microbes was  
16 directly derived from the mineralization of SOM. As the organic C processed in SOM  
17 turnover was assumed to decrease during the 1980s, however, more inorganic N was left in  
18 the soil solution as a result of lower inorganic N immobilization (FN7) and was thus directly  
19 available for leaching (fN1).

20  
21 The simulations suggest that the inorganic N inputs in deposition over the 150-year period  
22 1860-2009 have gone to a small amount of denitrification (7-14%), and increases in N stored  
23 in the soil organic matter pool (26-72%), leached as organic N (4-25%), and leached as  
24 inorganic N (2-42%) (Table 4). At Načetín and Lysina the largest fraction of the input N has  
25 gone to the soil, while at Čertovo Lake, the largest fraction has been lost by leaching. This  
26 indicates that Čertovo Lake is the most “N saturated” of the three sites, in that for the past  
27 several decades, N outputs by leaching approximately balance N inputs by deposition.

28  
29 The acid-base calibration was also successful. The simulated concentrations of major ions,  
30 pH and  $Al_i$  in runoff (or soilwater in the case of Načetín) matched observed values for the  
31 calibration year (Figure 6).

### 32 33 *3.2. Long-term trends*

34  
35 At the three sites the large observed changes in  $NO_3^-$  in surface and soil water were well  
36 simulated by the model (Figure 6). At Čertovo Lake the measured and simulated  
37 concentrations of nitrate ( $NO_3^-$ ) went from very low levels prior to 1950, peaked in the 1980s  
38 at 100-120  $\mu eq L^{-1}$  and then showed a sharp decline back to about 40  $\mu eq L^{-1}$  by the year  
39 2000 (Figure 6). At all three sites the observed and modelled concentrations of  $NO_3^-$  have  
40 declined sharply during the last 25 years, much more steeply than the N deposition during  
41 this same period.

42  
43 The new microbial formulation of C and N processes in MAGIC 7ext captured the observed  
44 changes in  $NO_3^-$  leaching at the three sites. Neither the MAGIC version 5 (constant fraction of  
45 N deposition retained) nor version 7 (N retention linked to C/N of soil organic matter) gave a  
46 satisfactory simulation of the observed large declines in  $NO_3^-$  flux in leachate at the three  
47 sites. The simulations were improved further by including the negative effect of acidification  
48 on turnover of SOM during the period of peak S deposition (Figure 4). The descriptions of N  
49 retention in the earlier versions of MAGIC were unable to simulate declines in N leaching



1 greater that the decline in N deposition, without invoking some other major change in  
2 ecosystem N cycling, such as N uptake by vegetation.

3  
4 Over the 200-year simulation period the soil C pool was assumed not to change at the three  
5 modelled sites. In contrast the soil N pools increased over the entire 200-year period, due to  
6 the partial retention and storage of N deposition from the atmosphere. The simulated C/N  
7 ratio in the SOM thus decreased at all three sites over the 200-year simulation period (Figure  
8 5).

9  
10 The long-term trends in  $\text{SO}_4$  are also well described by the model (Figure 6).  $\text{SO}_4$  has  
11 declined sharply since the mid-1980s, in response to the large declines in S deposition  
12 (Figure 3). Because of the large decreases in concentrations of strong acid anions ( $\text{SO}_4+\text{NO}_3$ ),  
13 the acid neutralising capacity (ANC) has increased dramatically since the 1980s (Figure 6).  
14 The increased ANC is reflected in increased pH and decreased  $\text{Al}_i$ .

15  
16 The long-term simulated changes in soil base saturation at the three sites followed the typical  
17 pattern of decrease during the period of increasing acid deposition, and then a reduction in the  
18 rate of decrease since about 1990 as the S and N deposition declined, with a projected slight  
19 increase (recovery) over the next 40 years given implementation of the CLE scenario for  
20 future S and N deposition (Figure 5).

## 21 22 **4. Discussion**

### 23 24 *4.1. Processes controlling N saturation*

25  
26 Observations of sharply decreasing N leaching in the Czech forests do not follow the  
27 assumption that, under ambient N deposition, ecosystems will continuously move towards  
28 progressive N saturation, demonstrated by increasing trends in  $\text{NO}_3$  leaching. All sites have  
29 undergone substantial recovery from acidification in last two decades as a result of large  
30 reduction in S deposition. Therefore, the strength of possible sinks for incoming N could have  
31 been impaired in the past via negative feedbacks on the ecosystem capacity to retain N. It has  
32 been previously shown that forest productivity is negatively affected by atmospheric  
33 pollution as mirrored in  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  in tree rings at Čertovo Lake (Šantrůčková et al., 2007) and in  
34 tree ring widths in respect of Načetín (Oulehle et al., 2006). However, changes in biomass  
35 increment were insufficient to explain large decrease in  $\text{NO}_3$  leaching in soil water at Načetín  
36 (Oulehle et al., 2011) as the net sink in woody biomass is limited by high C/N ratio.  
37 Detection of changes in soil N retention is complicated by the fact that expected changes in  
38 the soil pools are usually smaller than the precision with which they can be measured  
39 (Moldan et al., 2006). As  $\text{NO}_3$  in the soil/stream leachate appears to be predominantly cycled  
40 through the microbial pool (Curtis et al., 2011), controls over the soil N retention rate could  
41 be attributable to the “efficiency” of microbial community within the soil environment. Hart  
42 et al. (1994) showed a strong relationship between microbial respiration and gross rates of N  
43 mineralization and immobilization, suggesting that labile C availability is an important  
44 control on internal N cycling. Higher C availability (e.g. caused by declining soil acidity, or  
45 higher belowground C allocation by trees) might stimulate faster turnover rates of microbial  
46 biomass with tightly coupled  $\text{NH}_4$  production and  $\text{NH}_4$  immobilization leading to efficient  
47 retention of mineral N through microorganisms, corroborated by very low N losses as  
48 proposed by Corre and Lamersdorf (2004). The stage of N saturation under elevated N  
49 deposition is therefore the consequence of dynamic factors that control the strength of the  
50 ecosystem N sinks (Lovett and Goodale, 2011) rather than continual progress through series

1 of stages of N saturation as originally proposed by Aber et al. (1998, 1989) and Stoddard  
2 (1994). According to this alternative conceptual understanding of N saturation, modelling the  
3 internal dynamics of the SOM combined with a long-term mass balance approach appears  
4 necessary to simulate changes in ecosystem N status.

#### 6 *4.2. Assessment of model performance*

8 The new formulation of C and N processes in the soil applied here clearly gives a more  
9 satisfactory simulation of the observed trends in NO<sub>3</sub> in water compared to previous versions  
10 of MAGIC model. This new formulation uses the rates of two key microbial processes that  
11 govern the amount of C and N fixed in the soil by microbial growth, and the amounts  
12 released from the soil by microbial decomposition of SOM. The new microbial formulation  
13 simulates both the rapid (and amplified) ecosystem responses to changes in deposition of N,  
14 as well as the long-term changes in soil C/N resulting from chronic N deposition and  
15 accumulation in SOM.

17 The earlier formulation in MAGIC 7 was based on the soil C/N ratio and on the empirical  
18 observation that N-rich sites generally leach a larger fraction of incoming N as compared to  
19 N-poor sites (Gundersen et al., 1998). This formulation has two shortcomings: first, since the  
20 C/N ratio of soil organic matter changes only slowly, over the short term large changes in N  
21 leaching cannot be accounted for by changes in the C/N ratio; and secondly, the C/N ratio of  
22 bulk soil organic matter is in reality a consequence rather than the driver of the long-term  
23 retention and loss of N from the soil pool. The new microbially-based formulation thus gives  
24 a more realistic simulation of observed changes in N leaching. The observed NO<sub>3</sub> leaching at  
25 the three Czech sites has decreased much more than can be accounted for simply by  
26 decreased N deposition. Whereas NO<sub>3</sub> concentrations in leachate decreased by 65-95% from  
27 peak levels in the late 1980s, N deposition at the sites decreased by only 30-45% (Figure 3).  
28 The previous C/N-based approach predicted that over short time periods (< 20 years), the  
29 C/N ratio of soil organic matter would not change significantly, the fraction of N retained  
30 would not change, and thus the leaching of N would closely match the reduction in N  
31 deposition (Figure 4).

33 The C/N-based approach still remains useful, especially for ecosystems that have experienced  
34 long-term slower changes in N deposition. The C/N approach reflects empirical synoptic data  
35 on soil C/N ratio and N retention. Both the C/N approach and the new microbial formulation  
36 presented here simulate observed long-term changes in N leaching, but the rapid changes  
37 observed during the 1950-2010 at the three sites in the Czech Republic are better simulated  
38 by the new microbial formulation in MAGIC.

40 The new formulation also provides a reasonable simulation of the long-term changes in C and  
41 N pools (and C/N ratio) in SOM. The simulation is compatible with expectations that the C/N  
42 ratio was higher in the past before the onset of chronically-elevated N deposition, and has  
43 gradually decreased as a result of retention of incoming N in soil organic matter (Figure 5).

#### 45 *4.3. Limitations of the current model*

47 The model applications assume a balanced C cycle through the simulation, i.e. a constant soil  
48 C pool. A number of factors might invalidate this assumption. First, forest management  
49 (thinning, harvesting) and climate could significantly alter soil C accumulation in the long-  
50 term. Second, there is considerable evidence that ecosystem productivity increases in

1 response to N deposition in forests (e.g. de Vries et al., 2009; Högberg et al., 2006; Hyvonen  
2 et al., 2008; Magnani et al., 2007) and heathlands (Evans et al., 2006a). N enrichment can  
3 also suppress decomposition rates (e.g. Berg and Matzner, 1997; Waldrop et al., 2004).  
4 Although the magnitude of the effect of N deposition on C accumulation has been debated  
5 (e.g. De Schrijver et al., 2008; de Vries et al., 2008; de Vries et al., 2009), it is generally  
6 accepted that moderately elevated N deposition does lead to some C accumulation in forest  
7 soils. However, this positive effect of N on soil C probably declines, or ceases, at higher N  
8 loadings, as ecosystems become N-saturated and productivity is therefore no longer N  
9 limited. Given the high rates of NO<sub>3</sub> leaching at the study sites, it is therefore likely that C  
10 responses to change in N deposition, at least during recent decades, have been minor. On the  
11 other hand, Oulehle et al. (2011) have shown evidence of C accumulation, and subsequent  
12 release from the organic horizon of the Načetín plot during the last 15 years due to changes  
13 that appear to be driven by soil acidification and recovery during the peak of S deposition.  
14 Although this process was not fully modelled here, changes in the turnover of organic matter  
15 have been approximated by varying the C fraction term as a function of S deposition. As  
16 shown in Figure 4, only a small change in C fraction leads to an improved simulation of NO<sub>3</sub>  
17 leaching, which is consistent with the concept of microbial N production and immobilization  
18 as described above.

19  
20 One other recognised limitation of the model is that the projections for future N leaching and  
21 acidification to the year 2050 at the three sites assume that current climate and forest  
22 management will continue with no change. Both can significantly affect water chemistry. The  
23 two microbial processes included in the new formulation of MAGIC are both influenced by  
24 climate variables such as soil temperature and moisture, and rates of these processes can be  
25 set dependent on these climate variables. This should provide greater potential to simulate  
26 climate impacts on N cycling and water chemistry than previous versions of the model.  
27 Climate-dependencies remains to be fully parameterised, and will be tested with data from  
28 large-scale climate experiments such as CLIMEX (van Breemen et al., 1998), VULCAN  
29 (Beier et al., 2009) and CLIMAITE (Andresen et al., 2010), as well as long-term monitoring  
30 records at sites with year-to-year variations in weather. The overall objective for future model  
31 development and application will be to include the dynamic simulation of C and N turnover  
32 as a function of N and S deposition, climate and forest management, in order to evaluate the  
33 combined effects of multiple drivers on ecosystem eutrophication and acidification.

#### 34 35 *4.4. Implications for future nitrogen status*

36  
37 The model suggests that over the next few decades the NO<sub>3</sub> concentrations in water will  
38 again increase at Načetín and Lysina, despite assumed constant rates of N deposition. The  
39 model simulations indicate that Načetín and Lysina will move towards the situation already  
40 reached at Čertovo Lake, whereby N availability from mineralization and deposition exceeds  
41 the rate of microbial immobilization. However, susceptibility to inorganic N leaching is  
42 generally higher at exposed catchments with shallow soil profiles (in our case Čertovo Lake)  
43 (Kopáček et al., 2005) and with lower total soil C pool (Curtis et al., 2011; Evans et al.,  
44 2006b). As a consequence, at all three sites NO<sub>3</sub> leaching is expected to gradually become a  
45 dominant process causing soil and water acidification, as well as a cause of terrestrial and  
46 aquatic eutrophication.

47  
48 The projections for soil and water acidification in the future at these three sites point to the  
49 need for further reductions in S and N deposition in order to reach the environmental target of  
50 no undesirable ecological damage to the terrestrial or aquatic ecosystems. Even with the

1 substantial reduction in acid deposition that has occurred since the late 1980s, the ANC and  
2 pH of water are still below, and the concentrations of  $Al_i$  still above, acceptable limits for  
3 sensitive organism groups such as salmonid fish and benthic macroinvertebrates (Gensemer  
4 and Playle, 1999; Herrmann, 2001).

5  
6 N plays an increasingly important role in the acidification of soil and water at these sites, and  
7 elsewhere in Europe (Curtis et al., 2005), as S deposition and leaching of  $SO_4$  has decreased.  
8 There is thus a growing need for realistic process-based simulation models for N leaching.  
9 The new microbial formulation presented here, based on a relatively simple representation of  
10 known processes, and a small number of additional parameters, has the potential to fill this  
11 role.

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20 funded by Swedish EPA.

## 1 **Figure captions**

2  
3 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of compartments, fluxes and processes for C and N  
4 used to simulate N retention and leaching from terrestrial ecosystems.

5  
6 Figure 2. Map of the Czech Republic showing the locations of the three sites.

7  
8 Figure 3. Deposition of S and N at the three sites over the period 1850-2050. The  
9 estimated historical trends are from (Schöpp et al., 2003), and the future trends  
10 assume full implementation of the CLE scenario (solid line). Circles show the  
11 measured annual deposition. Observed data from Lysina (Hruška and Krám,  
12 2003), Načetín (Oulehle et al., 2006) and Čertovo Lake (Kopáček et al., 2009;  
13 Kopáček et al., 2001) and unpublished newer data from all sites.

14  
15 Figure 4. NO<sub>3</sub> concentrations in water observed and simulated by MAGIC at the  
16 three sites in the Czech Republic. Top panels show the MAGIC simulations using  
17 the current version 7ext (microbial processes) compared with simulations from  
18 version 7 (retention of N deposition related to C/N of soil organic matter) and  
19 version 5 (constant fraction of N deposition retained in soil). Bottom panels show  
20 the results when the parameter Cfrac is held constant compared with the current  
21 version (7ext) in which the Cfrac is assumed to be influenced by soil acidity.

22  
23 Figure 5. Simulated and observed sizes of the N pools (mol m<sup>-2</sup>) and C/N ratio  
24 (mol mol<sup>-1</sup>) in soil organic matter and % of the soil base saturation at the three  
25 sites.

26  
27 Figure 6. Volume-weighted annual mean concentrations of SO<sub>4</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub>, ANC, pH,  
28 and Al<sub>i</sub> simulated (solid lines) and observed (circles) at the three sites.

1 **Table captions**

2  
3 Table 1. Characteristics of the three sites. Estimated (1984-86) and measured  
4 (2007-09) S and N deposition are based on throughfall data (Hruška and Krám,  
5 2003; Kopáček et al., 2009; Kopáček et al., 2001; Oulehle et al., 2006) and  
6 unpublished newer data from all sites.

7  
8 Table 2. Values of key C and N pools and fluxes used in calibration and resulting  
9 calibrated parameters for the calibration year at the three sites.

10  
11 Table 3. Annual C and N fluxes at Načetín for three years (1860 early acid  
12 deposition, 1985 peak acid deposition, and 2005 present-day). For the C fluxes  
13 only the annual amount of organic C processed in soil organic matter (SOM)  
14 turnover (FC2) and hence the rate of C entering the soil as new microbial biomass  
15 (FC3) were assumed to change during the simulation period. Codes refer to the  
16 fluxes shown in Figure 1. Units:  $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ .

17  
18 Table 4. Long-term (1850-2009) integrated N budgets at the three sites as  
19 simulated by MAGIC with the microbial formulation for N dynamics.

20  
21 Table 5. Values of soil fixed parameters and resulting calibrated parameters for  
22 the calibration year at the three sites.

1 Table 1  
2

	Načetín	Lysina	Čertovo Lake
Location	50°35'N 13°15'E	50°03'N 12°40'E	49°10'N 13°12'E
Altitude (m)	784	829-949	1028-1343
Drainage area (ha)	-	27	86
Precipitation (mm)	842	950	1554
Runoff (mm)	410*	430	1380
Mean annual temperature (°C)	6.3	5.0	4.2
Forest cover	Norway spruce	Norway spruce	Norway spruce
Average age (yr)	75	50	>120
Soil type	Spodo-dystric Cambisol	Spodo-dystric Cambisol	Spodo-dystric Cambisol
Bedrock	Gneiss	Leucogranite	Mica-schist and quartzite
S deposition (meq m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> ) 1984-86/2007-09	413/80	274/40	264/45
N deposition (mmol m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> ) 1984-86/2007-09	204/120	93/62	180/121

\*estimated (Oulehle et al., 2007)

3  
4

1 Table 2  
2

<b>Input parameters</b>	Units	Načetín Soil	Lysina Stream	Čertovo Lake
Initial C pool in soil	mol m <sup>-2</sup>	1110	935	1351
Initial N pool in soil	mol m <sup>-2</sup>	29	26	54
Initial C/N in soil	mol mol <sup>-1</sup>	38	36	25
Plant uptake NH <sub>4</sub>	mmol m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	210	218	357
Plant uptake NO <sub>3</sub>	mmol m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	30	18	178
Nitrification	% of inputs	15	15	50
Denitrification	mmol m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	7	7	7
Litter C flux	mmol m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	13212	13000	22600
Litter C/N	mol mol <sup>-1</sup>	55	55	42
<b>Calibrated parameters</b>				
C frac	%	24.5	21.5	23
N frac	%	45	55	80
Decomp frac	%	1	3	2.5

3  
4  
5



1 Table 3  
2

		1860	1985	2005
<b>Carbon fluxes</b>				
organic C from plant litter	FC1	13212	13212	13212
organic C processed in SOM turnover	FC2	17499	16433	17499
C in new microbial biomass (new SOM)	FC3	4287	3221	4287
SOM C respired (CO <sub>2</sub> in soil solution)	FC4	13080	13080	13080
SOM C solubilised (DOC in soil solution)	FC5	132	132	132
<b>Nitrogen fluxes</b>				
organic N from plant litter	FN1	240	240	240
organic N processed in SOM turnover	FN2	464	571	634
N in new microbial biomass (new SOM)	FN3	429	322	429
SOM N mineralised (NH <sub>4</sub> in soil solution)	FN4	346	457	473
SOM N solubilised (DON in soil solution)	FN5	4	5	5
organic N from SOM used by microbes	FN6	207	255	283
inorganic N immobilisation by microbes	FN7	222	67	146
organic and inorganic N in runoff	fN1	4	148	5
inorganic N uptake by plants	fN2	240	240	240
denitrification of inorganic N	fN3	7	7	7
atmospheric deposition of inorganic N	fN4	53	206	118

3  
4

1 Table 4  
2

N Budget 1850-2009	Načetín Soil		Lysina Stream		Čertovo Lake	
<i>Inputs</i>	mol m <sup>-2</sup>		mol m <sup>-2</sup>		mol m <sup>-2</sup>	
Total N deposition	16016		7993		14567	
<i>Outputs</i>	mol m <sup>-2</sup>	%	mol m <sup>-2</sup>	%	mol m <sup>-2</sup>	%
Denitrification	1120	7	1120	14	1120	8
Soil N pool change	11593	72	4716	59	3828	26
Organic N leaching	641	4	2028	25	3741	24
Inorganic N leaching	2654	17	172	2	6141	42

3  
4

1 Table 5

<b>Fixed parameters</b>	Units	Načetín	Lysina	Čertovo Lake
Discharge, annual	m	0.41	0.43	1.38
Precipitation, annual	m	0.84	0.95	1.44
Soil depth	m	0.9	0.9	0.65
Bulk density of fine soil	kg.m <sup>-3</sup>	706	530	345
CEC	meq.kg <sup>-1</sup>	37.9	59	106
Al(OH) <sub>3</sub> solubility constant	log 10	9.1	7.7	8.2
SO <sub>4</sub> adsorption half saturation	meq.m <sup>-3</sup>	500	500	100
SO <sub>4</sub> maximum adsorption capacity	meq.kg <sup>-1</sup>	15	3	20
pCO <sub>2</sub>	atm	0.65	0.65	0.45
Temperature	°C	6.3	5	4.5
pK1 of organic acids	-log 10	2.5	2.5	2.6
pK2 of organic acids	-log 10	4.1	4.1	5.7
pK3 of organic acids	-log 10	6.7	6.7	5.9
Dissolved organic acid	meq.m <sup>-3</sup>	30	110	85
<b>Optimised parameters</b>				
Weathering Ca	meq.m <sup>-2</sup>	5.0	29.6	1.8
Weathering Mg	meq.m <sup>-2</sup>	15	11.5	32.4
Weathering Na	meq.m <sup>-2</sup>	0.8	21.1	2.1
Weathering K	meq.m <sup>-2</sup>	0.5	4.3	0.0
Weathering of Σ(Ca+Mg+K+Na)	meq.m <sup>-2</sup>	21.3	66.5	36.3
Weathering F	meq.m <sup>-2</sup>	3	5	0.6
Selectivity coeff. Al-Ca	log	-1.57	1.09	-1.92
Selectivity coef. Al-Mg	log	-0.33	1.5	-0.28
Selectivity coeff. Al-Na	log	-2.17	-0.58	-3.29
Selectivity coeff. Al-K	log	-5.27	-4.24	-5.86
Ca initial condition	% of CEC	6.4	17.5	6.0
Mg initial condition	% of CEC	5.8	5.5	4.1
Na initial condition	% of CEC	1.0	1.2	1.2
K initial condition	% of CEC	1.2	3.3	2.2
Initial base saturation Σ(Ca+Mg+K+Na)	% of CEC	14.4	27.5	13.5

2

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Figure 1

**Soil Solution Carbon & Nitrogen Fluxes**

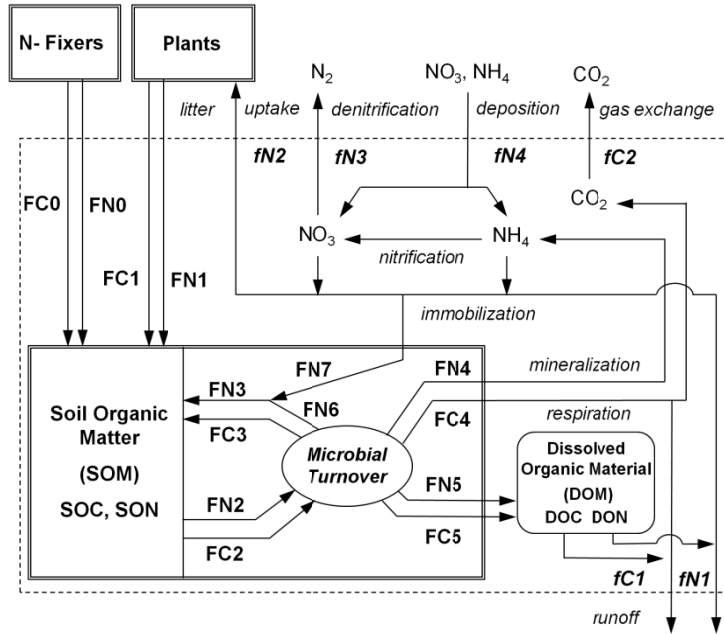
*fC1* = organic and inorganic C in runoff  
*fC2* = inorganic C exchange with the atmosphere  
*fN1* = organic and inorganic N in runoff  
*fN2* = inorganic N uptake by plants  
*fN3* = denitrification of inorganic N  
*fN4* = atmospheric deposition of inorganic N

**Soil Organic Matter Carbon fluxes**

FC0 = organic C from N-fixers  
 FC1 = organic C from plant litter  
 FC2 = organic C processed in SOM turnover  
 FC3 = C in new microbial biomass (new SOM)  
 FC4 = SOM C respired (CO<sub>2</sub> in soil solution)  
 FC5 = SOM C solubilized (DOC in soil solution)

**Soil Organic Matter Nitrogen fluxes**

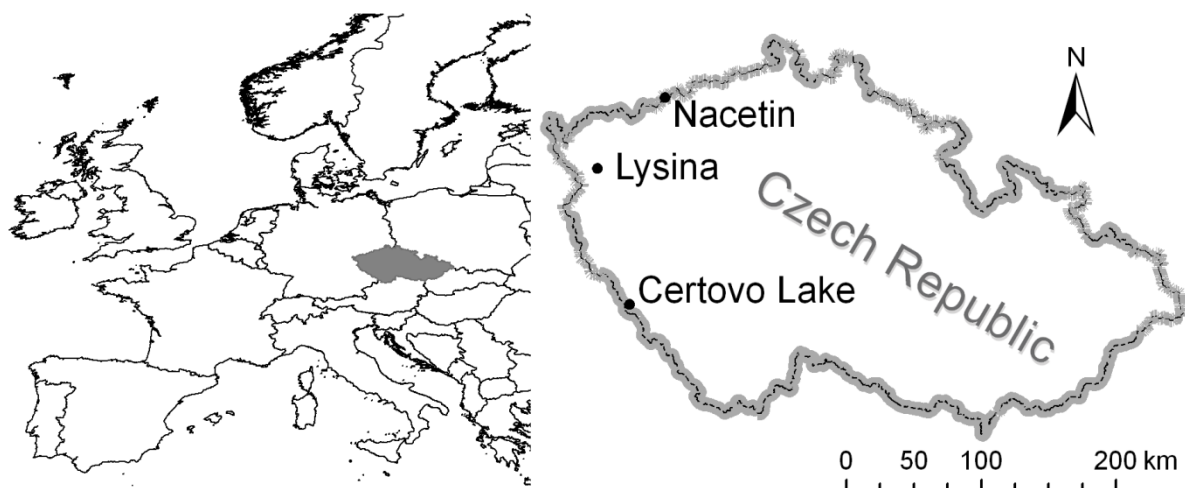
FN0 = organic N from N-fixers  
 FN1 = organic N from plant litter  
 FN2 = organic N processed in SOM turnover  
 FN3 = N in new microbial biomass (new SOM)  
 FN4 = SOM N mineralized (NH<sub>4</sub> in soil solution)  
 FN5 = SOM N solubilized (DON in soil solution)  
 FN6 = organic N from SOM used by microbes  
 FN7 = inorganic N immobilization by microbes



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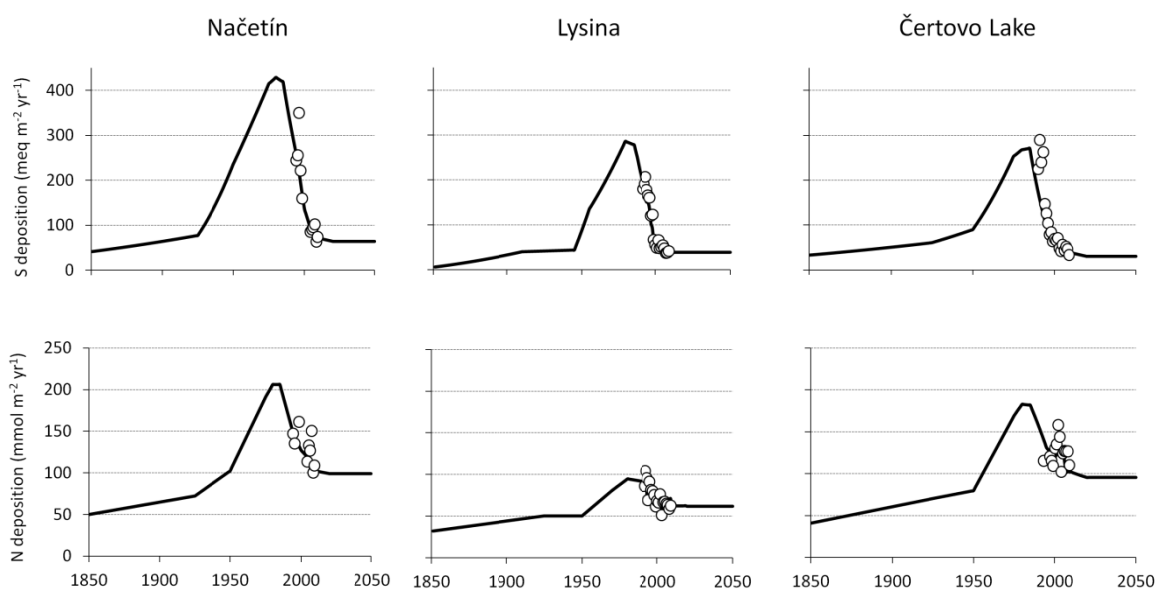
Figure 2



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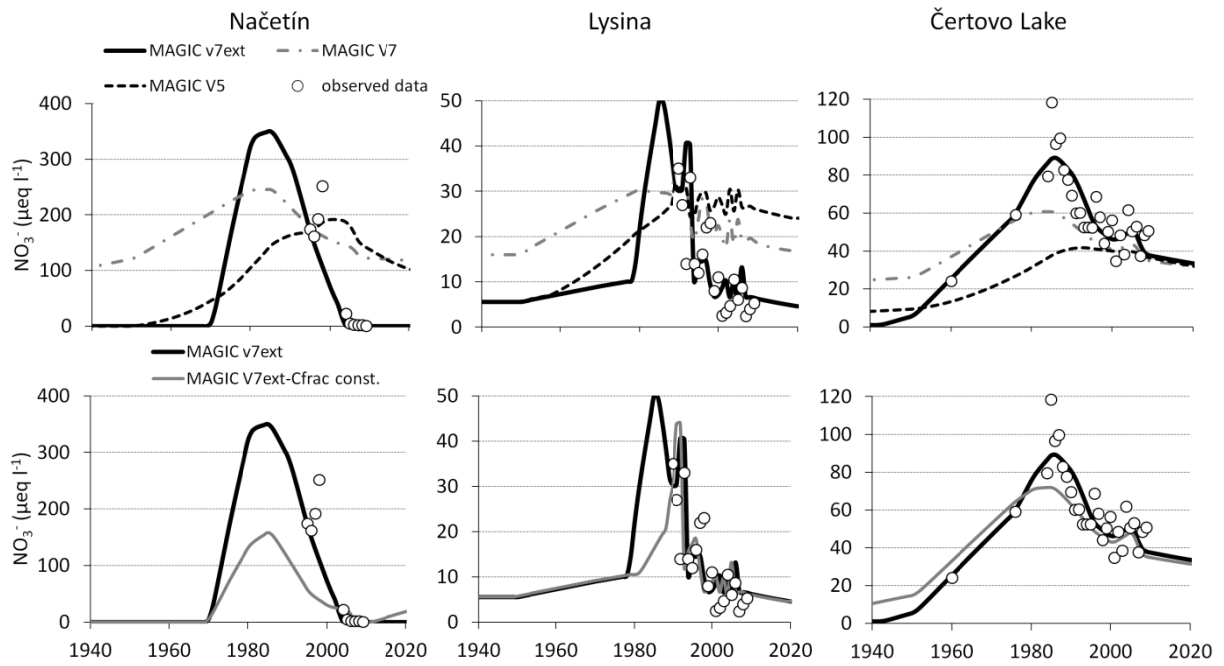
Figure 3



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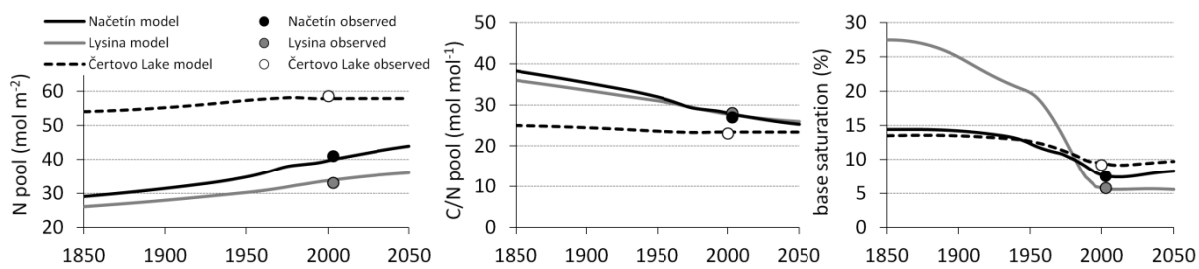
Figure 4



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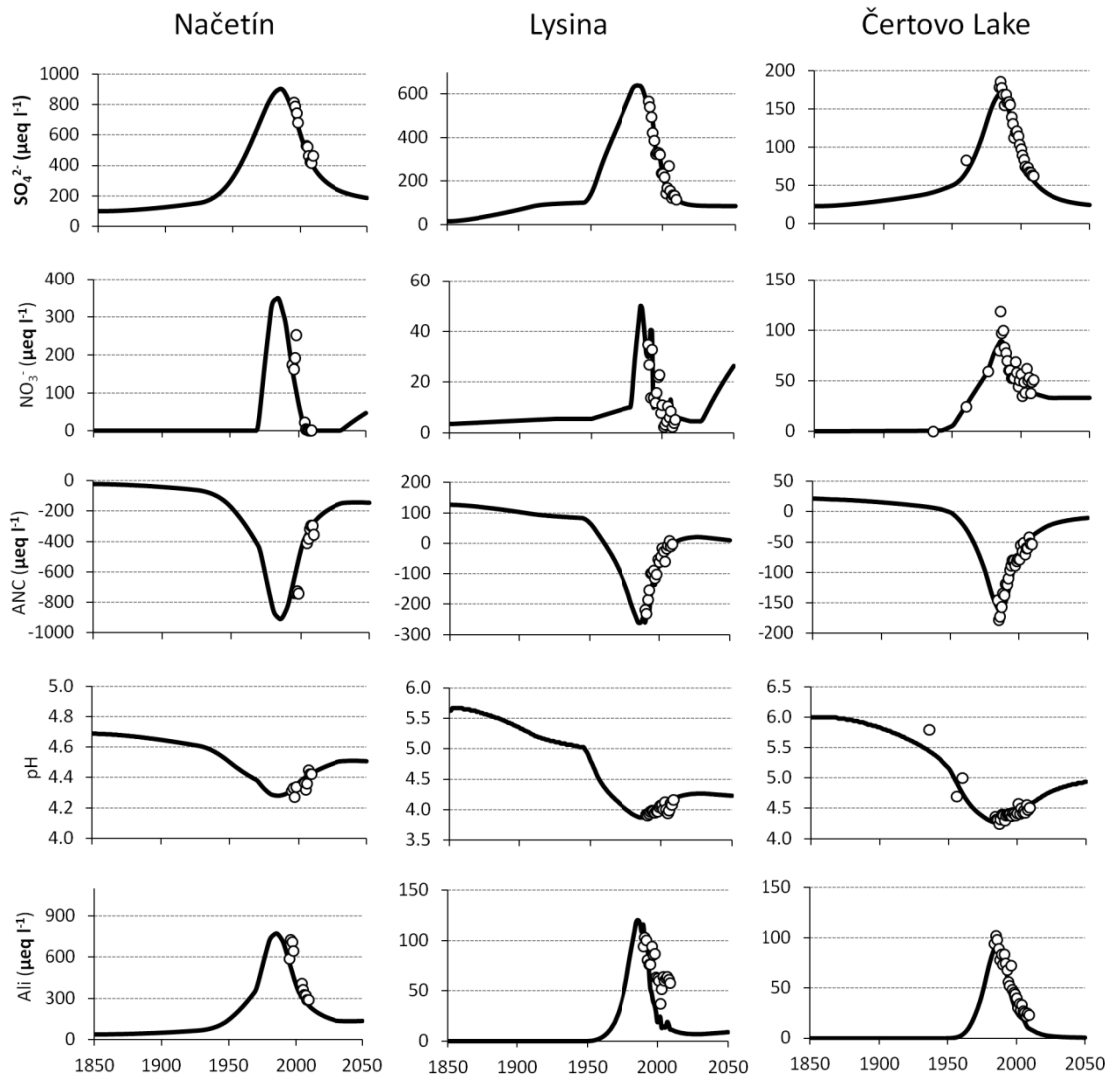
Figure 5



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Figure 6



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