

1 **Modeling dissolved organic carbon in temperate forest soils:**
2 **TRIPLEX-DOC model development and validation**

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Abstract

Even though dissolved organic carbon (DOC) is the most active carbon (C) cycling in soil organic carbon (SOC) pools, it receives little attention from the global C budget. DOC fluxes are critical to aquatic ecosystem inputs and contribute to the C balance of terrestrial ecosystems, but few ecosystem models have attempted to integrate DOC dynamics into terrestrial C cycling. This study introduces a new process-based model, TRIPLEX-DOC, that is capable of estimating DOC dynamics in forest soils by incorporating both ecological drivers and biogeochemical processes. TRIPLEX-DOC was developed from Forest-DNDC, a biogeochemical model simulating C and nitrogen (N) dynamics, coupled with a new DOC process module that predicts metabolic transformations, sorption/desorption, and DOC leaching in forest soils. The model was validated against field observations of DOC concentrations and fluxes at white pine forest stands located in southern Ontario, Canada. The model was able to simulate seasonal dynamics of DOC concentrations and the magnitudes observed within different soil layers, as well as DOC leaching in the age-sequence of these forests. Additionally, TRIPLEX-DOC estimated the effect of forest harvesting on DOC leaching, with a significant increase following harvesting, illustrating that land use change is of critical importance in regulating DOC leaching in temperate forests as an important source of C input to aquatic ecosystems.

Keywords: DOC simulation; soil DOC leaching; terrestrial carbon cycle; pine forest; land use change

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Recent climatic change projections have led to a great deal of attention being paid to
51 carbon (C) cycling patterns and controls, particularly those factors that determine whether an
52 ecosystem, from catchment to regional scales, is a net source or sink of atmospheric carbon
53 dioxide (CO₂) (e.g. Jenerette and Lal, 2005; Chapin III et al., 2006; Cole et al., 2007; Buffam
54 et al., 2011). Northern ecosystems have been identified as being especially important for CO₂
55 exchanges that take place between land and the atmosphere, with temperate forests regarded
56 as a potential C sink (Chapin et al., 2000; Dunn et al., 2007). In contrast to terrestrial
57 ecosystems, temperate aquatic ecosystems are a net C source owing to the mineralization of
58 organic C imported from terrestrial ecosystems and the resultant degassing of inorganic C in
59 lakes and streams (Sobek et al., 2003; Roehm et al., 2009; Humborg et al., 2010; Kosten et al.,
60 2010; Butman and Raymond, 2011; Dennis et al., 2012; Lapierre et al., 2012). Only a handful
61 of studies have attempted to comprehensively integrate terrestrial watershed C balances with
62 their aquatic components. As a result, net ecosystem exchanges (NEE) of temperate terrestrial
63 ecosystems are typically investigated without taking into account C runoff to aquatic
64 ecosystems and the resultant C loss. Therefore, an integrative approach to examine C budgets
65 for both terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems will help us to understand and estimate net C
66 balances on both catchment and regional scales (Grimm et al., 2003; Jenerette and Lal, 2005;
67 Chapin III, 2006; Cole et al., 2007; Buffam et al., 2011).

68 Understanding the interactive dynamics between terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems has
69 been hampered by uncertainties. Processing DOC is one such uncertainty (Hanson et al.,

70 2004; Chapin III, 2006; Cole et al., 2007; Buffam et al., 2011). DOC plays a key role in the
71 transport of soil nutrients (Qualls et al., 1991; Kaiser et al., 2001; Kaiser and Kalbitz, 2012),
72 leaching from the forest litter layer into mineral soil and then discharged into streams and
73 lakes. Globally, terrestrial ecosystem DOC export to oceans was estimated at approximately
74 0.17 to 0.36 Pg C yr⁻¹ (Aitkenhead and McDowell, 2000; Harrison et al., 2005; Dai et al.,
75 2012). Although DOC exports to water bodies are small relative to other terrestrial C fluxes
76 (Neff and Asner 2001; Cole et al., 2007), they are nonetheless critical to C biogeochemical
77 cycling and budgets in aquatic ecosystems (del Giorgio et al., 1999; Hanson et al., 2004;
78 McCallister and del Giorgio, 2008).

79 Disturbances in the forested watershed or catchments resulting from forest management
80 activities can alter biogeochemical processes in soils by changing species composition, soil
81 characteristics, soil moisture and soil temperature regimes, soil microbial activity, and water
82 flux, thereby potentially causing extensive alterations to occur to soil DOC dynamics
83 (Kreutzweiser et al., 2008). Little attention has been paid to the question of how DOC
84 concentrations, fluxes, and chemistry vary with land use and forest management practices.

85 In the past decade, considerable progress has been made in modeling approaches used to
86 estimate DOC flux, such as improvements in soil and watershed C dynamics (Boyer et al.,
87 1996; Currie and Aber, 1997; Band et al., 2001; Raymond et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2012).
88 Models have used a variety of physical and chemical watershed properties to predict DOC
89 concentration or export either regionally or globally, based on empirical relationships
90 between DOC and watershed attributes. Examples are basin size and slope (Clair et al., 1994;

91 Clair and Ehrman, 1996), soil characteristics (Nelson et al., 1993; Hope et al., 1997;
92 Aitkenhead et al., 1999; Aitkenhead and McDowell, 2000), and land cover type (Eckhardt
93 and Moore, 1990; Dillon and Molot, 1997; Aitkenhead et al., 1999). However, these
94 empirical models often contain numerous environmental variables, some of which may be
95 qualitative in nature, making it impossible to apply to conditions of climate change and
96 human activity over long time spans. To overcome the shortcomings of empirical models,
97 simplistic, process-based mechanistic models that couple hydrological, biological, and
98 geochemical processes have been developed to predict DOC dynamics (Band et al., 2001; Xu
99 et al., 2012).

100 A handful of more complex process-based soil DOC models have recently been developed.
101 Neff and Asner (2001), for example, have proposed a model related to DOC transport for
102 terrestrial ecosystems, involving rates of production of DOC by vegetation and organic soil
103 compounds, soil profile transport, mineral soil horizon adsorption, and the eventual export
104 from a system. Michalzik et al. (2003) relied on ^{14}C data to determine the age of soil organic
105 matter. Lumsdon et al. (2005) simulated changing organic matter solubility as a function of
106 competitive cation adsorption and hydrophobicity in a single soil horizon. Although these
107 DOC models reasonably simulate soil DOC dynamics, they are currently incapable of
108 investigating the potential impacts of land use change on the fate of DOC, such as forest
109 management practices.

110 The broad aim in this study is to develop a general and quantitative approach at the
111 landscape scale to simulate changes in soil DOC concentration and flux resulting primarily

112 from successional changes in forest type, productivity, aboveground biomass, litterfall, and
113 forest floor biomass accumulation through stand development. The specific objectives are: (a)
114 to introduce the development of TRIPLEX-DOC, a new DOC process-based model was used
115 in conjunction with the forest soil C model to simulate seasonal and annual DOC
116 concentration and flux patterns from precipitation to subsoil seepage; and (b) to assess land
117 use impacts on dynamics and temporal changes in DOC soil leaching.

118 **2. Model description and methods**

119 DOC concentrations and fluxes were assigned for a vertical profile for a given forest
120 ecosystem as follows (see Fig. 1): input through precipitation and throughfall; forest floor
121 biological production and leaching; subsequent transfer to soil A, B, and C layers, including
122 physical sorption/desorption processes; and the eventual export from a given forest
123 ecosystem.

124 Fig. 1 provides an overall structure and framework of TRIPLEX-DOC which includes
125 forest growth, soil carbon, hydrological and thermal conditions, and DOC dynamics
126 simulation. This model is primarily based on Forest-DNDC (Li et al., 2000), a process-based
127 biogeochemical model that simulates C and N dynamics and trace gas emissions in upland
128 forest ecosystems.

129 The forest growth submodel (Li et al., 2000) was adopted from the PnET model (Aber and
130 Federer, 1992), a forest physiology model developed to predict forest photosynthesis,
131 respiration, organic C production and allocation, and litter production. This submodel is

132 driven by solar radiation, temperature, water and N availability, and transfers litter production,
133 water and N demands, and root respiration data to the soil climate submodel or the
134 decomposition submodel.

135 Soil C is divided into three organic matter pools (Li et al., 2000): residues (primary plant
136 residues), microbial biomass, and humads. Each pool has both a labile and resistant
137 component (Fig. 1). Soil organic matter (SOM) content is related to litter quantity and quality.
138 The forest growth submodel predicts litter production and the litter C/N ratio. After litterfall,
139 the decomposition submodel allocates fresh litter to the very labile, labile, and resistant litter
140 pools based on the litter C/N ratio; then quantifies the decomposition of organic matter
141 resulting in DOC substrate concentrations, ammonium (NH_4^+), nitrate (NO_3^-), and CO_2 , based
142 on decay rates (k-values) that are dependent on organic matter quality and soil environmental
143 conditions (e.g., soil temperature, soil moisture, and clay content in soil).

144 The soil climate submodel converts daily climate data into soil temperature and moisture
145 profiles and is used to calculate soil oxygen availability within the forest soil profile. The
146 hydrological submodel (Li et al., 2000) simulates soil water flux. The soil profile is divided
147 into layers exhibiting different characteristics (e.g., organic soils and mineral soils). This
148 submodel takes into account water input (e.g., precipitation, surface inflow, snow and ice
149 melt), output (evaporation and transpiration), runoff, and water transfer within the
150 unsaturated zone (infiltration, gravity drainage, and matrix redistribution).

151 Forest-DNDC has previously been used to successfully predict trace gas emissions in
152 regional studies (Kesik et al., 2005; Kiese et al., 2005) and effects of forest management

153 practices on soil environmental factors (Sun et al., 2006; Dai et al., 2012). Additionally, the
154 model is currently parameterized for 12 forest ecosystem tree species/genera: pine, spruce,
155 hemlock, fir, hardwoods, oak, birch, beech, slash pine, larch, cypress, and evergreen oak (Li
156 et al., 2000). It is particularly useful when investigating DOC dynamics for different forest
157 types at a landscape level.

158 Although Forest-DNDC was developed to competently administer the production of DOC
159 by microorganisms associated with litter C, microbial biomass, and humads decomposition
160 (Li et al., 2000), the model does not include throughfall DOC production. Because mean
161 annual concentrations of DOC in throughfall are between 3 and 35 mg l⁻¹ in temperate forests,
162 and the fluxes of DOC range from 40 to 160 kg DOC ha⁻¹ y⁻¹ (Michalzik et al., 2001), it is an
163 important source that derives as rainfall passes through forest canopies. Moreover,
164 Forest-DNDC also does not adequately estimate DOC consumption and does not include the
165 capacity to simulate sorption/desorption, two key processes that determine DOC
166 decomposition and stabilization in soils (Neff and Asner, 2001). As a result, Forest-DNDC
167 overestimates DOC concentrations in different soil layers (Fig. 2) and makes it impossible to
168 reliably simulate DOC leaching from soils. To overcome these shortcomings, the DOC
169 dynamics submodel incorporates a more precise algorithm describing contributions of
170 throughfall, DOC consumption, and DOC sorption/desorption was integrated into
171 Forest-DNDC. The new model is named as TRIPLEX-DOC, which is more suitable in
172 predicting forest soil DOC metabolic transformations, sorption/desorption, and leaching in
173 changing environmental conditions.

174 Soil C pools and decomposition processes, forest growth, and hydrological dynamics have
175 been well documented and are described in detail in the DNDC (Li et al., 1992), PnET (Aber
176 and Federer, 1992), and Forest-DNDC models (Li et al., 2000). However, the scope of this
177 study was only to describe DOC processes and the newly redesigned TRIPLEX-DOC,
178 including DOC production and consumption as well as sorption/desorption.

179 **2.1 DOC production and consumption submodel**

180 The biological production and consumption of DOC play an important role in the
181 regulation of soil DOC flux. DOC production *via* throughfall was calculated as follows:

$$182 \quad \text{DOC}_{Interception} = R_i \times [DOC] \quad (1)$$

183 where $\text{DOC}_{Interception}$ is DOC production via throughfall; DOC is the concentration in
184 throughfall; and R_i is interception, a highly simplified function based on the Leaf Area Index
185 (LAI) by Rutter et al. (1971). The other production processes of DOC by microorganisms
186 associated with litter C, root exudates and humified organic matter were adopted from
187 Forest-DNDC (Li et al., 2000).

188 The major factors affecting DOC biodegradation and the size of these pools included its
189 molecular size, chemical composition (e.g. quantities of carbohydrates, lignin, etc.), polarity
190 and acidity, as well as the chemical characteristics of the solution itself, such as pH, nutrient
191 content, oxygen and metal concentrations (Marschner and Kalbitz, 2003). Because the
192 estimates of decomposition rates are difficult to model by a simple approach considering all
193 the above-mentioned factors, numerous studies have focused on DOC fractions that

194 decompose over a range of time spans (Dahm, 1981; Zsolnay and Steindl, 1991; Qualls and
195 Haines, 1992; Jandl and Sollins, 1997; Yano et al., 1998; Kalbitz et al. 2003). Two kinetically
196 distinct pools of biodegradable DOC have been recognized as fast and slow, and a double
197 exponential equation for two distinct DOC pools with different mineralization rate constants
198 fitted well to the measured data (Qualls and Haines 1992; Kalbitz et al. 2003; Kiikkila et al.,
199 2006; McDowell et al., 2006).

$$200 \quad \text{DOC}_{\text{remain}}(\%) = (100 - b) \times 10^{-k_1 t} + b \times 10^{-k_2 t} \quad (2)$$

201 where t is time (units of day); $100-b$ and b are the initial percentages of rapidly and slowly
202 decaying components, respectively; and k_1 and k_2 are the rate constants of the two
203 components determined from a range of litters and soils in Canadian forests (Turgeon, 2008).

204 **2.2 DOC sorption/desorption submodel**

205 Sorption and desorption are two key processes related to soil DOC stabilization and
206 production. Because DOC continuously moves in and out of solutions in soil, the Initial Mass
207 (IM) isotherm best represents DOC sorption reactions (Nodvin et al., 1986; Kaiser et al.,
208 1996). This is described by the following linear isotherm:

$$209 \quad RE = mX_i - b \quad (3)$$

210 where RE is the amount of DOC released into or removed from a solution; m is the
211 dimensionless regression parameter; X_i is the initial concentration of DOC (mg g soil^{-1}); and
212 b is the intercept ($\text{mg DOC released per gram of soil when } X_i = 0$). Functionally, m and b can
213 be viewed as measures of the tendency of soil to adsorb and release DOC. This linear
214 sorption isotherm model is the most widely used by researchers and successfully describes

215 the dissolved organic matter (DOM) sorption phenomena in soil horizons with low sorption
216 capacity or cases that occur within a narrow concentration range (Vandenbruwane et al.,
217 2007).

218 For DOC, the affinity of soils is closely linked to a number of soil properties. Generally,
219 there are positive correlations between m and soil clay content, dithionite extractable iron,
220 and oxalate extractable aluminum (Moore et al., 1992; Nelson et al., 1993; Kaiser et al., 1996;
221 Kaiser and Zech, 1998; Kothawala et al., 2009). Pedotransfer functions (PTF) used in
222 estimating the two parameters (m and b) were developed by Moore et al. (1992):

$$223 \quad m_o = 0.451 + 0.02 \log(Fe_{cbd}) + 0.032 \sqrt{Al_{ox}} + 0.064 \log(OC) \quad (4)$$

$$224 \quad b_o = 0.145 + 0.103 \log(OC) - 0.055 \sqrt{Al_{ox}} - 0.045 \log(Fe_{cbd}) \quad (5)$$

225 where OC , Al_{ox} , and Fe_{cbd} denote the contents (in mass %) of organic C, oxalate extractable
226 aluminum, and dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate extractable iron; soil properties of Al_{ox} and Fe_{cbd} .
227 were established from Canadian soils (Kothawala et al., 2009). Parameters m and b are given
228 as a fraction and in units of $g\ kg^{-1}$, respectively.

229 Hydrologic conditions influence the leaching and apparent reactivity of DOC. Within soils,
230 factors such as hydraulic conductivity and bypass flow capacity affect the concentration and
231 flux of inorganic elements in a solution (Prendergast, 1995) and it is likely that DOC behaves
232 in a similar manner (Radulivich et al., 1992). Weigand and Totshe (1998) have provided
233 strong evidence that water flow rates through soil layers affect the fate of DOC. A recent
234 analysis of stream discharge and DOM measurements from 30 forested watersheds in the

235 eastern United States revealed the importance of hydrologic events in regulating the transport
236 of DOC to downstream ecosystems (Raymond and Saiers, 2010).

237 Sorption affinity m is reduced by a modifier (H_m) that scales with the rate of movement of
238 a solution through soil:

$$239 \quad m = m_o - H_m \quad (6)$$

240 This parameterization denotes a kinetic aspect of sorption reaction and a maximum flow rate
241 induced variation in m of 20% for soils with a 100% clay content:

$$242 \quad H_m = m_o \times 0.2 \times \left(\frac{v}{v_s} \right) \times \left(\frac{\%Clay}{100} \right) \quad (7)$$

243 where v is the actual pore water velocity, and v_s is the pore water velocity in saturated
244 conditions (a soil-specific parameter). These parameters were established from Forest-DNDC
245 (Li et al., 2000). The equation scales with clay content because the rate of sorption does not
246 appear to be affected by hydrologic flux rates in sandy soils (Weigand and Totsche, 1998).

247 In contrast to sorption flux, desorption flux appears to be driven by concentration gradients
248 that increase with solution flow (Weigand and Tosche, 1998). Thus, b is increased and
249 calculated as follows:

$$250 \quad b = b_o + H_b \quad (8)$$

$$251 \quad H_b = b_o \times 0.2 \times \left(\frac{v}{v_s} \right) \times \left(\frac{\%Clay}{100} \right) \quad (9)$$

252 As it is with the down-regulating H_m modifier, H_b scales with flow velocity and clay content;
253 however, in contrast to how flow affects m , b is incremented by H_b , establishing a
254 flow-dependent desorption coefficient.

255 The above DOC submodel was incorporated into Forest-DNDC to simulate DOC flux in
256 temperate forest soils. The program of DOC submodel was developed using the C⁺⁺ language
257 as used in the Forest-DNDC. The Forest-DNDC model is available at
258 <http://www.dndc.sr.unh.edu>, and its program code is not changed in this study. For
259 simulations, the soil profile (1.0 m) was divided into horizontal layers with a typical thickness
260 of 4 cm. Each layer was assumed to have uniform properties (e.g., temperature, moisture,
261 substrate and microbe concentrations, etc.), and all decomposition calculations were carried
262 out layer by layer. The model was run in a daily time step.

263 **3. Model input and validation data**

264 TRIPLEX-DOC inputs and file format are same as Forest-DNDC model, including daily
265 climate data (maximum and minimum temperature, and precipitation), soil properties (soil
266 type, soil texture, and pH), and forest characteristics and management (forest type, stand age,
267 and percentage of trees removed or harvested).

268 DOC data used to test and validate our model were measured at the Turkey Point Flux
269 Station and have been reported in Peichl et al. (2007). These data provided an opportunity to
270 quantify the role of DOC in upland forest ecosystems and through comparisons between sites
271 to identify critical controls as well as to test model performance. Turkey Point Flux Station is
272 located on the northern shore of Lake Erie in southern Ontario, Canada (Arain and
273 Restrepo-Coupe, 2005; Peichl et al., 2010). It consists of four eastern white pine (*Pinus*
274 *strobus* L.) forests that were planted in 2002 (2 year-old), 1989 (15 year-old), 1974 (30
275 year-old), and 1939 (65 year-old), respectively. All four stands are located within a 20 km

276 radius of each other. The average altitude of the sites is 220 m, the 30 year mean annual
277 temperature is 7.8°C and annual precipitation is 1010 mm, of which 438 mm falls from May
278 to September (Environment Canada norms from 1971 to 2000 taken at Delhi, Ontario). Mean
279 annual snowfall is 133 cm, the mean annual frost-free period is 160 days and the mean
280 growing season length is approximately 212 days (Presant and Acton, 1984). Turkey Point
281 sites are situated on lacustrine sandy plains with Brunisolic Luvisol and Gleyed Brunisolic
282 Luvisol sandy soils (about 98% sand, 1% silt, 1% clay) which are well drained and have
283 low-to-moderate water holding capacity. Meteorological and soil temperature and soil
284 moisture (at several depths at two locations at each site) data were collected at all four
285 age-sequence sites using automatic weather stations. Further site and instrumentation details
286 are given in Table 1 and Peichl and Arain (2006) and Peichl et al. (2010).

287 DOC data used in our study were collected at monthly intervals from the end of May to the
288 end of November 2004 and at biweekly intervals from early April to November 2005 and
289 from April to mid-May 2006. Throughfall DOC was collected in plastic buckets equipped
290 with a 10 cm radius funnel with necks fitted with glass wool. Leachates from beneath the
291 forest floor and the organic-rich Ah-horizon were sampled using zero-tension lysimeters.
292 Porous cup suction lysimeters at 25, 50, and 100 cm depth were used to sample mineral soils.
293 A detailed description of DOC measurements is given in Peichl et al. (2007).

294 To mimic forest harvesting, a model simulation was performed for a 80 year-old stand
295 where 50% of the trees were excluded, while biomass was left on the forest floor.

296 **4. Model validation**

297 **4.1 Carbon density at different forest ages**

298 The model was run along a series of different forest ages, applying default forest parameter
299 settings of pine (Li et al., 2000) for temperate forest growth. Fig. 3 shows simulation results
300 for 2, 15, 30, and 65 year-old white pine stands compared to observed C density in foliage,
301 wood, forest floor, and soil. Values approximate to 1:1 indicating that the forest growth
302 submodel performed well and therefore has the potential to predict temperate pine forest
303 growth for different stand ages.

304 **4.2 DOC concentrations and leaching in different soil layers**

305 Temporal variation in soil water DOC concentrations and fluxes were simulated and the
306 model was able to capture reasonably well the temporal variations (maximum in summer and
307 minimum in winter) in DOC concentrations in the forest floor or litter layer compared to
308 observations at the 65 and 30 year-old forests (Fig. 4). However, model simulations yielded
309 less temporal variation in DOC concentrations than observed in summer for a 15 year-old
310 forest stand. Model simulations showed good agreement with field observations of DOC in
311 the Ah layer with respect to seasonality and magnitude for the 65 and 15 year-old forest
312 stands but yielded lower DOC concentrations in summer than observed in the 30 year-old
313 forest stand (Fig. 4).

314 Model simulations showed that DOC concentrations throughout a one year period clearly
315 decreased from the litter layer, to the A horizon and the B mineral horizon, reasonably

316 consistent with observations for both the 65 and 15 year-old forest stands which data had
317 been previously measured (Fig. 5).

318 Simulated DOC leaching from forests of 2, 15, 30, and 65 year-old stands (Fig. 6) showed
319 a decreasing trend with increasing stand age, in good agreement with field observations
320 throughout the age-sequence investigation. Overall performance indicated that the model was
321 able to capture the primary mechanisms responsible for the variability and dynamics in
322 observed DOC concentrations and leaching in these white pine forest soils.

323 **4.3 Sensitivity analysis**

324 A variety of equations have been used within TRIPLEX-DOC to numerically describe
325 processes involved in C cycle and DOC leaching in forest ecosystems and to quantify their
326 sensitivity to environmental factors. A sensitivity analysis examined the impact of changes in
327 environmental conditions (daily maximum and minimum temperature, and precipitation) on
328 eight model predictions (net primary productivity (NPP), total biomass, floor carbon, soil
329 carbon, annual mean DOC concentration in floor layer, annual mean DOC concentration in
330 Ah layer, annual mean DOC concentration in mineral 50cm, and DOC leaching), that are
331 considered to be the most important variables for overall forest C dynamics and DOC
332 processes in soil at different age forests (Table 2). It provides an opportunity to test the basic
333 behavior of the new model. The sensitivity was tested for model drivers by varying one factor
334 and keeping all others constant, applying a 1°C increase/decrease in daily maximum and
335 minimum temperature, and a 10% increase/decrease in precipitation to baseline scenarios.

336 As expected, NPP and total biomass for all age forests responded positively to increases in
337 both daily minimum temperature and precipitation (Table 2). A 1°C increase in minimum
338 temperature resulted in the increases of 1.9 to 7.5% and 2.8 to 9.2% in NPP and total biomass,
339 respectively, with more response for the young forests. The responses of NPP and total
340 biomass to a 10% increase in precipitation were less pronounced (only 0.1 to 3.1% increase).
341 On the other hand, the NPP and total biomass responded negatively to increases in the
342 maximum temperature. The model predictions of positive soil carbon responses with
343 decreasing temperature and precipitation were also observed (Table 2).

344 The annual mean DOC concentrations in the forest floor layer, Ah layer, and in mineral
345 soil responded negatively to changes in the minimum temperature and precipitation. However,
346 this relationship was reversed to changes in the maximum temperature (except the 2 year-old
347 forest). The DOC leaching responded positively to the increase of precipitation for all four
348 age forests. The response of DOC leaching to precipitation change (-22.8 to 35.7%) was more
349 significant than the response to temperature (-4.5 to 4.8%).

350 **5. Discussion**

351 **5.1 Comparison to previous models**

352 The aim of this study was to introduce TRIPLEX-DOC, a newly redesigned process-based
353 model developed to investigate soil DOC processes. It incorporates many of the best features
354 of existing C processing models, including DOC production and decomposition,
355 sorption/desorption into soil solids, and transport by water percolation. It extends

356 Forest-DNDC in predicting C cycles by including detailed model representations of soil DOC
357 dynamics and leaching.

358 The key innovations compared to previous DOC models (Neff and Asner, 2001; Michalzik
359 et al., 2003; Lumsdon et al., 2005) are that TRIPLEX-DOC is the first DOC cycling model to
360 explicitly include land cover type effects for different forest stand ages, soil C
361 biogeochemistry, and hydrological flow on DOC dynamics. TRIPLEX-DOC was validated
362 using observed data, showing that the model can successfully simulate soil DOC
363 concentrations and leaching for different aged forest stands.

364 The TRIPLEX-DOC modeled DOC production includes fresh litter, root exudates, and
365 humified organic matter, all of which contribute substantial amounts of belowground DOC
366 (Li et al., 1992; Guggenberger, 1994) whereas DOC was produced only from litter in the
367 DocMod model (Currie and Aber, 1997) and only from humified organic matter in the
368 DyDoc model (Michalzik et al., 2003). TRIPLEX-DOC shares similar features to the DOC
369 model (Neff and Asner, 2001) in that both models generate DOC from both litter and soil
370 organic matter. However, estimates from litter in the DOC model (Neff and Asner, 2001) are
371 based on statistical relationships between DOC production and the ratio of lignin to N in
372 incoming litter, whereas estimates from TRIPLEX-DOC are based on Forest-DNDC (Li et al.,
373 2000), a process-based model. In this case, fresh litter is partitioned into very labile, labile,
374 and resistant litter pools based on the input litter C/N ratio, after which each litter pool
375 produces DOC based on its specific decomposition rate, temperature, and soil moisture.

376 TRIPLEX-DOC adopted a two-fold DOC pool approach to DOC decomposition, with
377 labile and recalcitrant fractions and based on the two-component exponential decay model
378 (Qualls and Haines, 1992; Kalbitz et al. 2003; Kiikkila et al., 2006; McDowell et al., 2006).
379 In contrast, the DyDoc model (Michalzik et al., 2003) is composed of three humic fractions
380 corresponding approximately to hydrophilic (Hum-1), hydrophobic acids (Hum-2), and
381 humic acid and aged humin (Hum-3) for which metabolic transformations are described with
382 first-order decay. The DOC model (Neff and Asner, 2001) only comprises a DOC pool,
383 recycling into soil microbial biomass. Another difference between the models is that DyDOC
384 tracks ^{14}C through a plant-soil-water system, thereby providing additional timescale
385 information but TRIPLEX-DOC confines itself to an overall daily DOC leaching flux.

386 **5.2 Environmental controls on DOC production and transport**

387 Knowledge of factors and processes that regulate DOC production and transport in forest
388 soils is important for the prediction of soil C cycles under a varying climate. Production of
389 DOC in the forest litter layer is thought to be primarily controlled by biological processes
390 (e.g., decomposition of litter, humus, and root exudation), suggesting a high sensitivity to
391 changes in soil temperature and moisture (Kalbitz et al., 2000). Simulations carried out for
392 this study showed a seasonal pattern, the highest DOC concentration occurring in summer in
393 the litter layer and in the Ah layers (Fig. 4). These predications are consistent with results
394 from field observations (Michalzik and Matzner, 1999; Solinger et al., 2001; Kaiser et al.,
395 2002) and laboratory studies (Clark and Gilmour, 1983; Christ and David, 1996; Gødde et al.,
396 1996; Moore et al., 2008), which documented a generally increasing DOC production with

397 increasing soil temperature and moisture. DOC concentrations are higher in the growing
398 season than in non-growing seasons mainly because of the greater microbial activity in
399 response to higher temperatures and moisture of the forest floor (Kalbitz et al., 2000; Yano et
400 al., 2000; Kaiser et al., 2001).

401 Our results revealed a strong relationship between water flux and DOC flux in all soil
402 layers, exhibiting linear relationships when summed to weekly fluxes (Fig. 7). These results
403 are to be expected since DOC and water move in unison, but they imply that hydrologic flux
404 rather than production mechanisms are the limiting factors of DOC flux. Results were similar
405 to the conclusions based on DOC model simulations (Neff and Asner, 2001) and confirmed
406 by a plot scale experiment carried out in the field (Tipping et al., 1999), reporting an increase
407 in DOC flux with increasing amounts of water passing through the soil.

408 **5.3 Impact of land use on DOC leachate**

409 Understanding the effects of land use change on DOC concentrations and export is
410 imperative when attempting to predict large-scale C dynamics and changes in landscape C
411 budgets. Large areas have undergone land use change through forest regeneration and more
412 recently through afforestation on marginal agricultural land, affecting ecosystem C dynamics
413 (Quideau and Bockheim, 1997; Khomutova et al., 2000; Mattson et al., 2005).
414 TRIPLEX-DOC successfully simulated increases in DOC concentrations in solutions
415 obtained from the litter floor and Ah layer with the increasing age of forest stands (Fig. 4)
416 accompanied with an increasing accumulation of tree and forest floor biomass. Despite
417 higher DOC concentrations found in soil solutions of older stands, results suggest that soil

418 DOC leaching may be decreased by up to 4-fold for the 65 year-old stand (Fig. 6) compared
419 to a recently established forest stand (2 year-old). This decrease in DOC leaching was mainly
420 attributable to a decline in water loss due to increased water uptake by forest
421 evapotranspiration, indicating the importance of hydrological controls on DOC processes.

422 TRIPLEX-DOC predicted a significant increase (approximately 4-fold) in DOC leaching
423 from soil following removal of 50% trees compared pre-removal conditions (Fig. 8). This
424 result is in general agreement with results from a number of studies that measured increased
425 DOC export or concentrations (by 2 to 5 fold) in watershed soil water shortly after logging
426 (Plamondon et al., 1982; Hinton et al., 1997; Startsev et al., 1998). This increase in DOC
427 leaching may be attributable to the quantity of biomass (leaves, stem, and roots) left on the
428 ground and soil, which is considered to be a primary source of increased DOC concentration
429 and flux (Qualls et al., 2000; Piirainen et al., 2002). On the other hand, an increase in
430 microbial activity could also be responsible for increased forest DOC concentrations and flux
431 after forest harvesting. This is because temperature and moisture, critical factors for microbial
432 activity, generally increases after harvesting due to more open canopy and reduction in
433 evapotranspiration from the root zone (Londo et al., 1999) and may result in an increased
434 production of DOC (Kaiser et al., 2001; Kalbitz et al., 2000; Neff and Asner, 2001). Water
435 flux also contributes to the release of soil DOC (Kalbitz et al., 2000; Judd and Kling, 2002).
436 It is important to note that forest canopy interception of precipitation and evapotranspiration
437 would decrease after harvesting, increasing water flux to soils and thus resulting in an
438 increase in soil DOC leaching.

439 **6. Conclusion and future improvements**

440 TRIPLEX-DOC is a useful tool when quantifying DOC concentrations and leaching in
441 temperate forest soils as well as in predicting how changes in land use may impact DOC. It is
442 compatible with most ecosystem models related to soil C dynamics and forest growth, and
443 provides an effective way to integrate forest management effects and DOC leaching in forest
444 soils at an ecosystem level. Validation and sensitivity tests demonstrated that TRIPLEX-DOC
445 is capable of simulating DOC processes for forest stands of different ages to a reasonable
446 accuracy. The model provides an insight into the mechanisms that control soil DOC
447 concentrations and export, and may be useful in scaling up DOC leaching from landscape to
448 regional scales. Furthermore, this process-based model can be used to project DOC
449 concentrations and leaching under future climate scenarios.

450 DOC simulation in this study includes the DOC production from throughfall. Although the
451 interception simulation (Rutter, 1971) represents the physically-based process by a running
452 water balance of rainfall input, storage and output in the form of drainage and evaporation,
453 the interception loss depends strongly on the timing and intensity of rainfall, the vegetation
454 structure and the meteorological conditions controlling evaporation during and after rainfall
455 (Rutter et al., 1975; Dingman, 2002; Brutsaert, 2005). As the Rutter model (1971) used in this
456 study was only treated as a simplified process based on a single-layer vertical vegetation
457 structure and a constant storage capacity, further improvements need to involve more detailed
458 interception processes in the future.

459 TRIPLEX-DOC recognizes the role of DOC consumption and sorption/desorption as two
460 key mechanisms that regulate DOC concentrations and export rates. Although our
461 simulations do not provide a more detailed validation of the DOC submodel for different
462 forest types, results indicate that DOC consumption and sorption/desorption-based soil
463 submodels can reasonably capture general patterns in DOC concentration and flux rates
464 related to soil depth, at least for temperate pine forests that we studied and where observed
465 DOC flux data were available. Results also underscore the need for more detailed field
466 experiment studies related to different types of forest ecosystems in major climatic regions
467 and DOC sorption/desorption results from TRIPLEX-DOC are limited due to its use of an
468 equilibrium distribution constant rather than using a time-dependent dynamical process
469 (Qualls, 2000). This last point reflects the fact that TRIPLEX-DOC is in its early stage of
470 model development as it pertains to DOC sorption/desorption and improvements could be
471 made by incorporating more dynamic DOC sorption/desorption processes in more realistic
472 ways.

473 With the future coupling of TRIPLEX-DOC and Geographic Information Systems (GIS)
474 which would contribute a detailed database of regional soil distribution, climate
475 characteristics, and land use patterns, it is anticipated the new model could be a useful tool in
476 improving not only estimations of net C flux and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from
477 forest soils on a regional scale, but also DOC export from soils. As the DOC from terrestrial
478 ecosystem is critical to C budgets in the aquatic ecosystems, this estimate of DOC export will
479 improve our understanding of the connectivity between terrestrial and aquatic C cycles,
480 reducing the uncertainty in C fluxes of entire lake-watershed systems. TRIPLEX-DOC would

481 take advantage of the TRIPLEX-GHG simulator (Peng et al., 2013) as well as important C
482 loss pathways entering into aquatic ecosystems (TRIPLEX-Aquatic model) as described in an
483 accompanying paper by Wu et al. (2013). Coupling the two efforts would be a strong
484 contribution to understanding the processing and partitioning of organic C across both
485 terrestrial and aquatic C cycles, resulting in a full regional integration between terrestrial and
486 aquatic ecosystems.

487

488

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773 **Figure Captions**

774 **Figure 1:** Modular structure of TRIPLEX-DOC. The model is composed of four submodels
775 that predict forest growth, soil hydrologic and thermal conditions, C decomposition,
776 and DOC dynamics. The simulations of forest growth, soil carbon, hydrological
777 and thermal conditions were adopted from the Forest-DNDC model, the DOC
778 dynamics simulation is the newly redesigned submodel.

779 **Figure 2:** Comparison of annual mean DOC concentrations in different soil layers between
780 Forest-DNDC simulations (Li et al., 2000) and field measurements in a 15 year-old
781 temperate pine forest in southern Ontario

782 **Figure 3:** Observed versus predicted C densities in foliage (green), wood (blue), forest floor
783 (dark yellow), soil (orange), and the summed total (black) in an age-sequence of
784 temperate pine forests in southern Ontario.

785 **Figure 4:** Time series of measured DOC concentrations versus simulated daily values in litter
786 layer and Ah soils layer in an age-sequence of temperate pine forests in southern
787 Ontario.

788 **Figure 5:** Measured versus simulated annual mean DOC concentrations in soils in 65 and 15
789 year-old temperate pine forests in southern Ontario. Error bars denote standard
790 deviations.

791 **Figure 6:** Comparison between measurements and simulations of annual DOC leaching in an
792 age-sequence of temperate pine forests in southern Ontario. Error bars denote
793 standard deviations.

794 **Figure 7:** Relationship between weekly soil DOC flux and water flux in litter layer and
795 mineral soil.

796 **Figure 8:** Sensitivity analysis on the effects of land use on annual DOC leaching before and
797 after 50% forest harvesting.

798 **Table 1** Soil and stand characteristics of an age-sequence of temperate pine forests
 799 in southern Ontario.

Characteristics	65 year old	30 year old	15 year old	2 year old
Location	42.7098N, 80.3574W	42.7068N, 80.3483W	42.7742N, 80.4588W	42.6609N, 80.5595W
Dominant tree species	White pine (<i>Pinus strobes</i>)	White pine (<i>Pinus strobes</i>)	White pine (<i>Pinus strobes</i>)	White pine (<i>Pinus strobes</i>)
Major understory vegetation species	<i>Quercus vultina</i> , <i>Abies balsamifera</i> , <i>Prunus serotina</i>	<i>Quercus vultina</i>	<i>Quercus vultina</i>	none
Max. LAI (m ² m ⁻²)	8.0	5.9	12.8	1.0
Mean tree height (m)	22	12	9	1
Mean tree diameter at DBH (cm)	35	16	16	2.5 (tree base)
Stem density (trees ha ⁻¹)	429	1492	1242	1683
Aboveground tree biomass (g C m ⁻²)	8416	4488	3236	22
Forest floor (g C m ⁻²)	1211	545	745	83
Forest floor thickness (cm)	2.5	2.0	3.0	0.5
Tree roots (>2 mm)	1920	923	502	5
Litterfall throughout 2004–2005 (g C m ⁻² year ⁻¹)	340–400	220–290	440–520	no data
Soil type	Brunisolic Luvisol	Brunisolic Luvisol	Gleyed Brunisolic Luvisol	Brunisolic Luvisol
Soil texture	Fine sandy	Fine sandy	Fine sandy loam	Fine sandy
Soil pH (upper 20 cm)	5.5	5.5	6.2	7.4
Soil C (g C m ⁻²)	3700	3000	3400	3700

800 Data from Peichl and Arain (2006) and Peichl et al. (2007).

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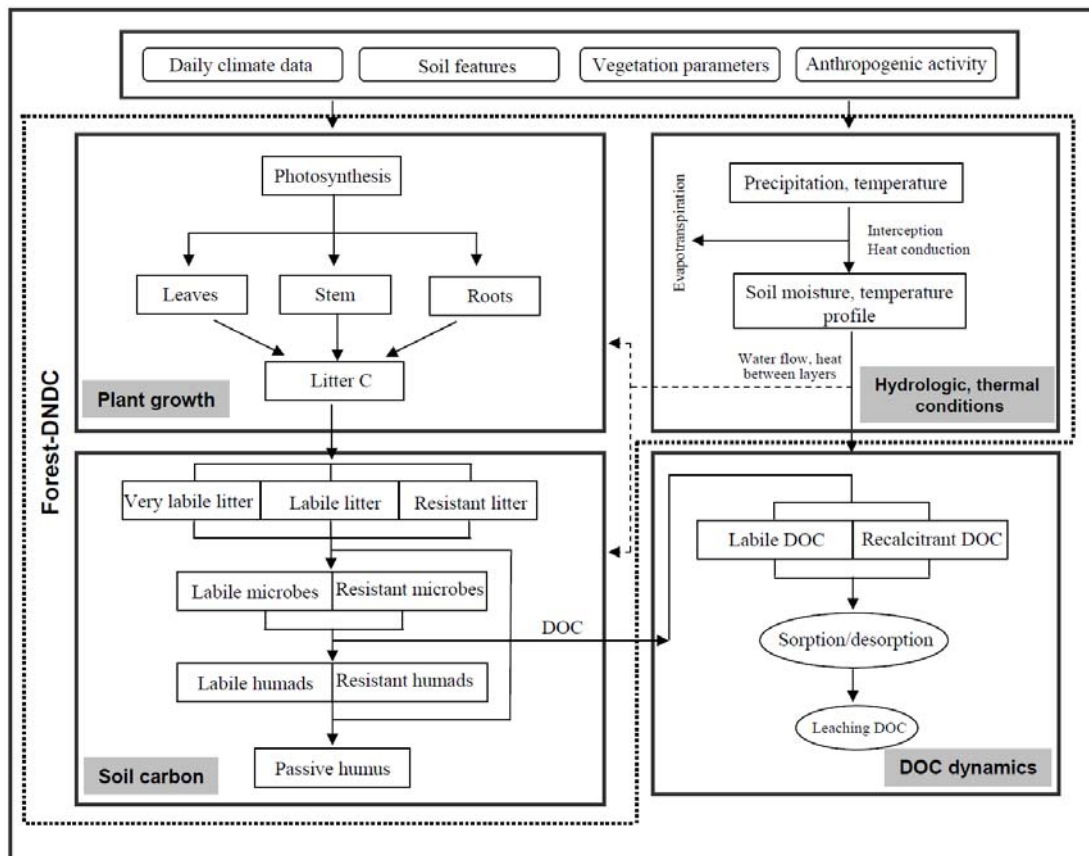
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807 **Table 2** Results of sensitivity of key variables to changes in climatic variables for
 808 different age temperate pine stands used in this study
 809

Pine stands	Minimum		Maximum		Precipitation	
	Temperature		Temperature		+10%	-10%
	+1°C	-1°C	+1°C	-1°C		
2 yr						
NPP	+7.5	-4.1	+0.5	+0.7	+0.1	-0.2
Total biomass	+9.2	-5.3	0.0	+1.1	+0.1	-0.2
Floor carbon	-2.1	+1.4	-2.2	+1.5	-0.2	+0.3
Soil Carbon	-2.3	+2.3	-1.3	+1.1	-1.9	+2.3
DOC concentration in floor layer	-3.2	+2.9	-3.1	+2.8	-1.4	+1.7
DOC concentration in Ah layer	-3.7	+4.4	-1.6	+1.8	-4.6	+5.1
DOC concentration in mineral 50cm	-3.8	+9.1	+0.2	+4.8	-1.0	+4.4
DOC leaching	-2.8	+4.8	-1.4	+3.6	+15.7	-9.7
15 yr						
NPP	+2.4	-2.0	-2.2	+2.0	+2.0	-2.1
Total biomass	+3.3	-2.8	-2.9	+2.4	+2.4	-2.6
Floor carbon	+0.2	+0.3	0.0	+0.6	+0.9	-1.0
Soil Carbon	-3.1	+3.1	-1.6	+1.3	-2.7	+3.5
DOC concentration in floor layer	-1.4	+1.3	-0.5	+0.5	-2.1	+3.0
DOC concentration in Ah layer	-1.7	+1.8	+0.3	-0.4	-3.8	+4.6
DOC concentration in mineral 50cm	-5.2	+8.3	+2.7	-0.1	-5.5	+8.7
DOC leaching	-0.1	+3.2	-4.3	+2.8	+19.6	-20.2
30 yr						
NPP	+2.3	-1.7	-2.9	+2.7	+2.3	-2.4
Total biomass	+3.0	-2.5	-3.5	+3.0	+2.7	-2.6
Floor carbon	+0.6	0.0	+0.4	+0.2	+1.0	-1.2
Soil Carbon	-3.0	+3.2	-0.8	+0.7	-3.0	+3.8
DOC concentration in floor layer	-0.1	+0.6	+1.4	-1.0	-2.8	+3.1
DOC concentration in Ah layer	-1.7	+1.7	+1.1	-1.3	-4.6	+5.5
DOC concentration in mineral 50cm	-3.8	+5.9	+3.9	-2.2	-6.6	+8.1
DOC leaching	-0.9	-0.7	-4.5	-0.4	+35.7	-9.0
65 yr						
NPP	+1.9	-1.3	-4.9	+4.5	+2.9	-3.4
Total biomass	+2.8	-2.3	-5.1	+4.4	+3.1	-3.3
Floor carbon	+0.6	0.0	+0.5	+0.2	+0.9	-1.0
Soil Carbon	-2.1	+2.6	0.0	+0.4	-2.1	+2.8
DOC concentration in floor layer	-0.3	+0.5	+1.6	-1.4	-3.0	+3.9
DOC concentration in Ah layer	-1.0	+1.3	+2.8	-2.4	-4.6	+5.7
DOC concentration in mineral 50cm	-3.1	+4.8	+5.0	-2.9	-6.1	+8.8
DOC leaching	-0.3	-4.9	-3.6	-4.4	+26.1	-22.8

810 Values given represent percent of change compared to the baseline scenario.

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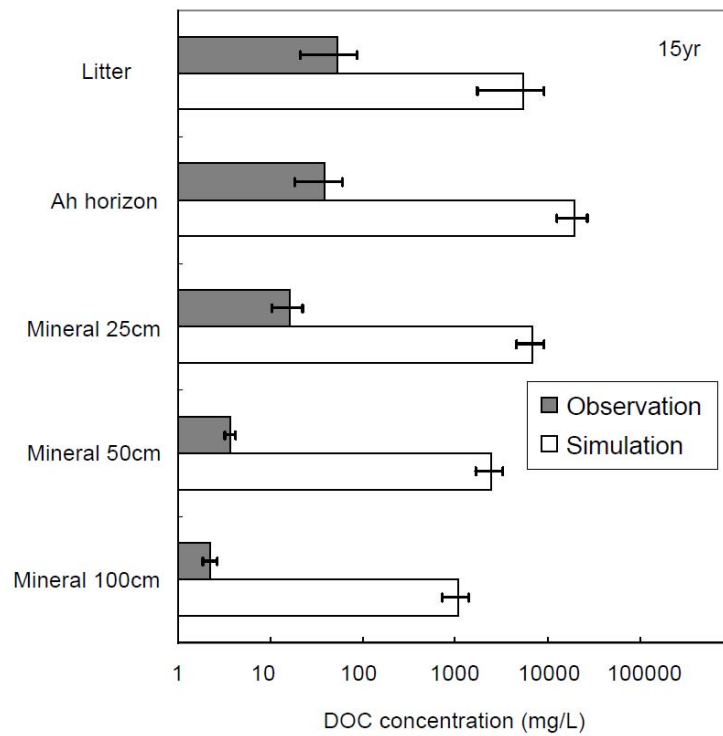
815 **Figure 1:** Modular structure of TRIPLEX-DOC. The model is composed of four
 816 submodels that predict forest growth, soil hydrologic and thermal conditions, C
 817 decomposition, and DOC dynamics. The simulations of forest growth, soil carbon,
 818 hydrological and thermal conditions were adopted from the Forest-DNDC model, the
 819 DOC dynamics simulation is the newly redesigned submodel.

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827 **Figure 2:** Comparison of annual mean DOC concentrations in different soil layers

828 between Forest-DNDC simulations (Li et al., 2000) and field measurements in a 15

829 year-old temperate pine forest in southern Ontario.

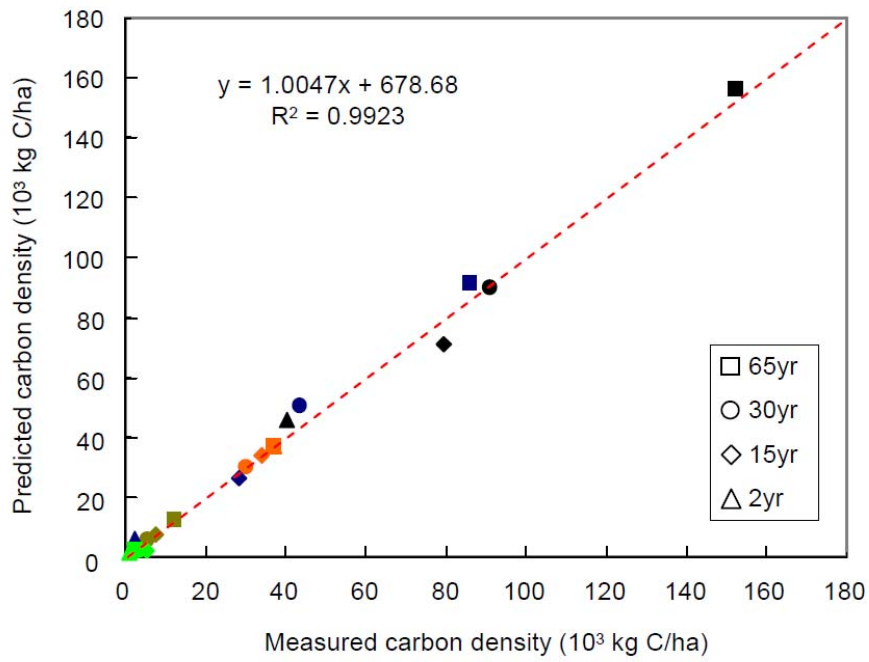
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838 **Figure 3:** Observed versus predicted C densities in foliage (green), wood (blue),

839 forest floor (dark yellow), soil (orange), and the summed total (black) in an

840 age-sequence of temperate pine forests in southern Ontario.

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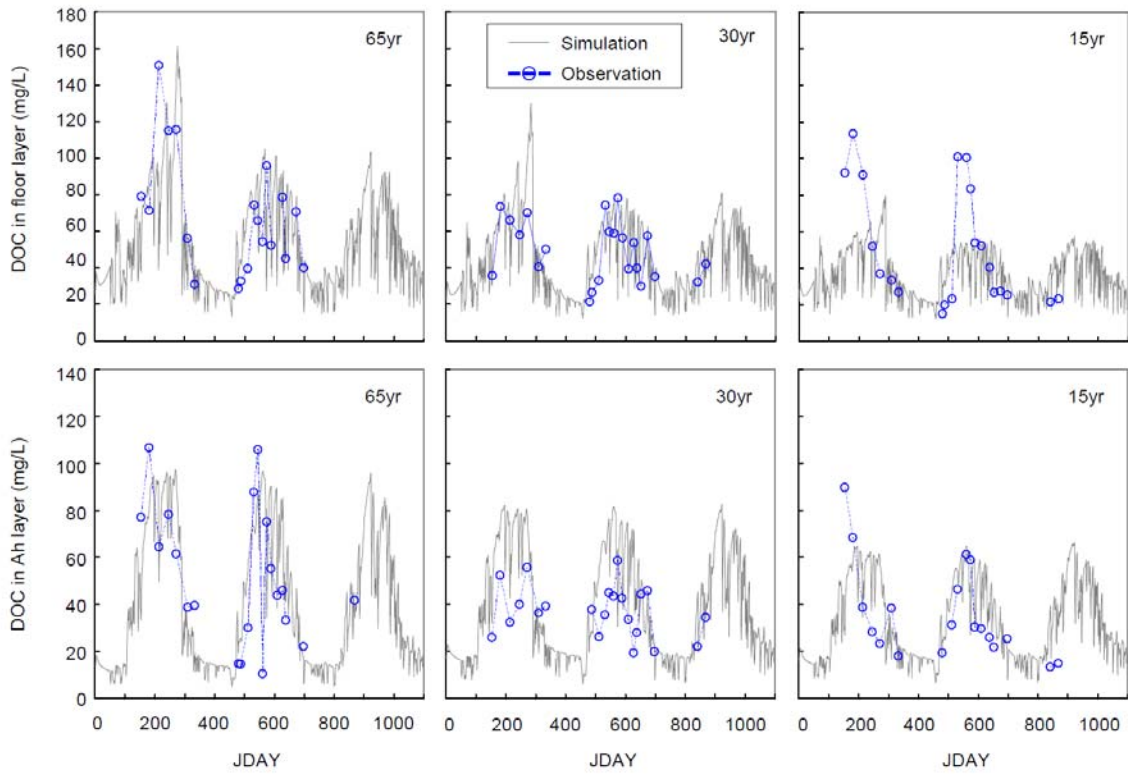
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849 **Figure 4:** Time series of measured daily DOC concentrations versus simulated
850 values in litter layer and Ah soils layer in an age-sequence of temperate pine forests
851 in southern Ontario.

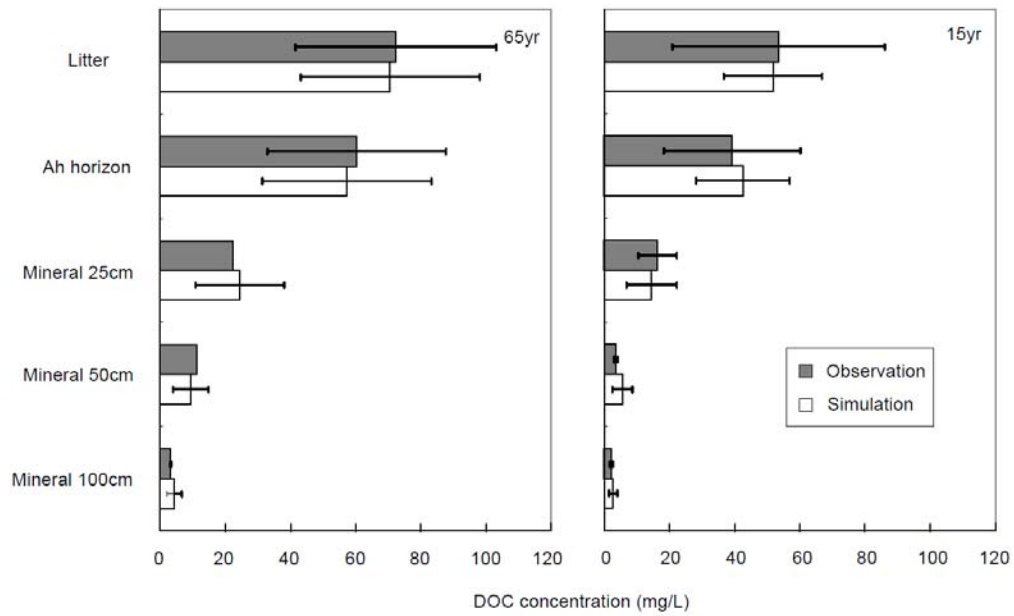
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859 **Figure 5:** Measured versus simulated annual mean DOC concentrations in soils in
 860 65 and 15 year-old temperate pine forests in southern Ontario. Error bars denote
 861 standard deviations.

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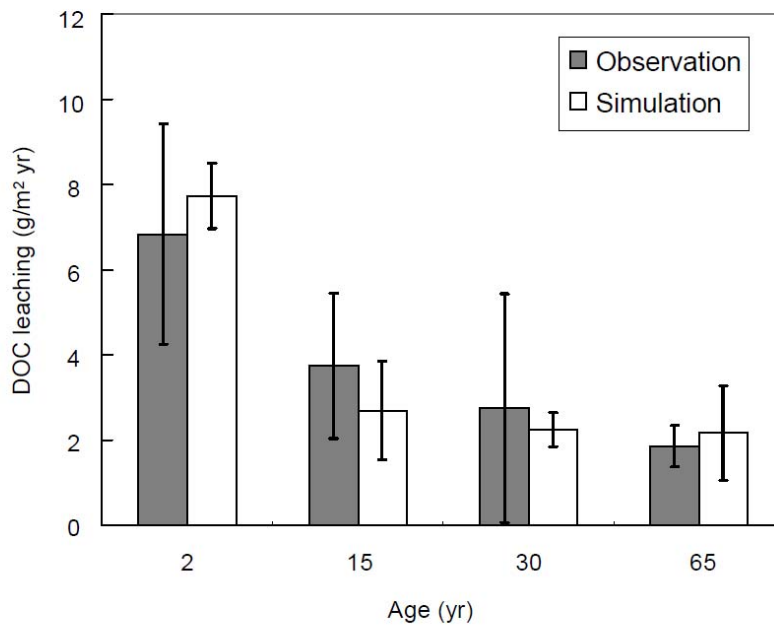
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872 **Figure 6:** Comparison between measured and simulated annual DOC leaching in an

873 age-sequence of temperate pine forests in southern Ontario. Error bars denote

874 standard deviations.

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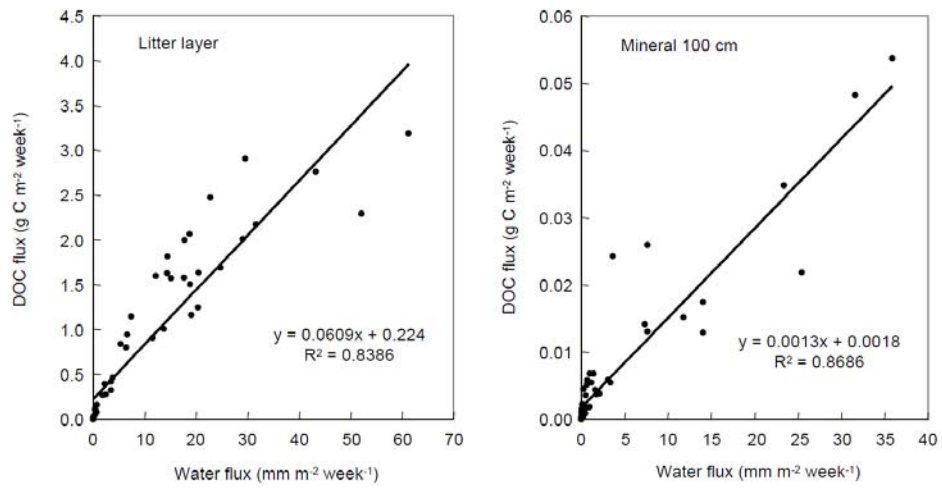
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885 **Figure 7:** Relationship between weekly soil DOC flux and water flux in litter layer

886 and mineral soil.

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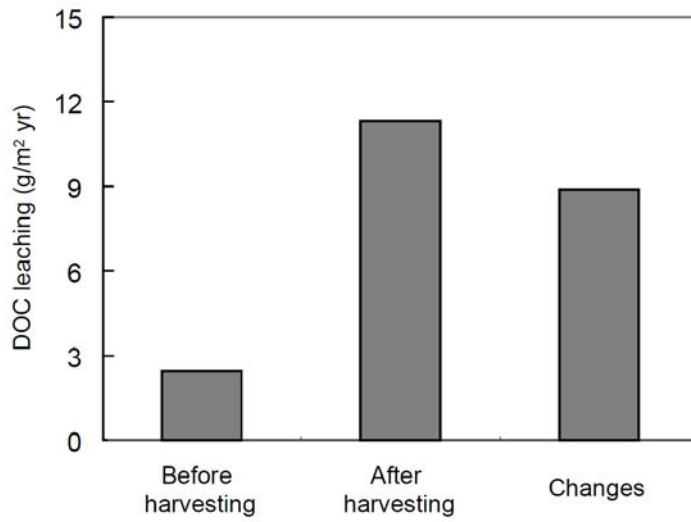
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907 **Figure 8:** Sensitivity analysis on the effects of land use on annual DOC leaching

908 before and after 50% forest harvesting.

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