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The biogeochemistry of basic cations in two forest catchments with contrasting lithology in the Czech Republic

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Abstract. The biogeochemistry of Ca, Mg, K, and Na were investigated in two forested catchments in the Czech Republic, one underlain by leucogranite, the other by serpentine. High weathering rates at the serpentine site at Pluhův Bor resulted in Mg^{2+} as the dominant cation on the soil exchange complex and in drainage water. Other basic cations (Ca^{2+} , K^+ , Na^+) showed relatively low concentrations and outflow in streamwater. The catchment exhibited high base saturation in mineral soils (>70%), and near neutral soil and stream pH, despite elevated inputs of acidic deposition. Slow growth of Norway spruce at Pluhův Bor may be caused by K deficiency, Mg oversupply and/or Ni toxicity. In contrast, the granitic site at Lysina showed low concentrations of basic cations on the soil exchange complex and in streamwater. Soil and drainage water at Lysina were highly impacted by acidic deposition. Soil pH was extremely acidic (<4.5) throughout the soil profile, and the base saturation of the mineral soil was very low (<5%). Supplies of basic cations from atmospheric deposition and soil processes were less than inputs of SO_4^{2-} on an equivalence basis, resulting in low pH and high concentrations of total Al in drainage water. Needle yellowing in Norway spruce was possibly the result of Mg deficiency at Lysina. Because of their extremely different lithologies, these catchments serve as valuable end-members of ecosystem sensitivity to elevated levels of acidic deposition.

Introduction

The cycling of the basic cations (Ca, Mg, K, Na) is important to the biogeochemistry of forest ecosystems; Ca, Mg, and K are essential nutrients for plant growth, and low supply rates may affect forest productivity (Federer et al. 1989; Likens & Bormann 1995). Atmospheric deposition and mineral weathering are the principal sources of soluble basic cations in forest ecosystems, and these inputs are critical in regulating the acid-base status of forest soils and soil solutions (van Breemen et al. 1984). Losses of basic cations occur largely by drainage outflow or, in managed ecosystems, by biomass

removal. Internal processes such as vegetation uptake and release, mineralization of soil organic matter, secondary mineral formation, and cation exchange, all influence the distribution of basic cations in the ecosystem, as well as biological availability.

Lithology may have a strong influence on element cycling and the chemistry of drainage waters. A few comparative studies from experimental catchments have demonstrated the critical role of bedrock geology in regulating the biogeochemistry of forested catchments including: Pond Branch, Maryland, USA (schist) vs. Soldiers Delight, Maryland, USA (serpentinite); Cleaves et al. 1974); Hubbard Brook, New Hampshire, USA (glacial till, schist) vs. Sleepers River, Vermont, USA (calcareous glacial till, calcareous schist; Thorne et al. 1988); and Glendye, Scotland, UK (glacial till, granite) vs. Peatfold, Scotland, UK (glacial till, gabbro; Creasey et al. 1986). Generally, these studies have shown soils and streamwaters in areas underlain by igneous and metamorphosed igneous rock types (e.g. granites, granitic gneisses, and schists) exhibit lower concentrations of basic cations and higher acidity than soils and drainage waters in areas underlain by more reactive rock types (e.g. serpentinite, carbonates, and mafic rocks). These patterns are ultimately due to differences in weathering reactions in these areas.

There is considerable interest in the biogeochemistry of areas underlain by granite and granite-derived rocks because their typically low weathering rates result in high vulnerability to acidic atmospheric deposition (Chadwick et al. 1991). Serpentinite is also intriguing because enrichment of Mg, Fe, Ni, Cr, Co and B, and undersupply in Ca, K, P, Mo and Zn, leads to an unusual chemical environment, resulting in dwarf forms of vegetation (Roberts & Proctor 1992). Only a few detailed biogeochemical studies have been conducted in forested ecosystems underlain by serpentinite (Gasser et al. 1994; Gasser & Dahlgren 1994; Kaupenjohann & Wilcke 1995).

Depletion of soil pools of basic cations by elevated inputs of strong acids may result in nutrient deficiency (Zech et al. 1985; Zoetl et al. 1989) or diminish the long-term productivity of forest stands (Federer et al. 1989). Elevated inputs of strong acid anions to sites with low supply rates of basic cations may result in elevated concentrations of Al and H^+ in drainage waters (Johnson et al. 1981), and conditions which may be toxic to forest vegetation (Cronan & Grigal 1995) or downstream aquatic organisms (Baker & Schofield 1982).

Disturbance associated with acidic atmospheric deposition is particularly severe in the region from the North Bohemian Coal Basin in the Czech Republic, to the southeast of former East Germany, to the Silesian Coal Basin in Poland (the "Black Triangle"; Fanta 1994). Atmospheric deposition of H^+ and SO_4^{2-} to the western part of this region are among the highest values

reported in the world. Throughfall fluxes as high as $230 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ of H^+ , and $470 \text{ mmol m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ of SO_4^{2-} have been reported (Cerný 1993), resulting in extreme acidification of drainage waters and forest dieback (Páček 1986; Moldan & Schnoor 1992).

Managed stands of Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) cover 55% of the forested areas in the Czech Republic. From 1958 to 1992 at least 473 km^2 of dead or dying Norway spruce stands were cut in the Czech Republic. An additional 59 km^2 or more of Czech conifer forests have experienced very heavy damage with more than 50% of the foliage loss, as measured in June 1992 (Anonymous 1993). Large plantations of Norway spruce died in the Ore Mountains (Krušné hory, Erzgebirge) and Jizera Mountains (Jizerské hory, Góry Izerskie) (Moravčík & Cerný 1995). It is generally assumed that air pollution from industrial activities in the North Bohemian Coal Basin and Zittau Coal Basin contributed to forest decline in these mountains. The mortality of Norway spruce appears to be due to a combination of high SO_2 concentrations, acidic deposition, poor nutritional status in highly acidic soil (especially low Mg), and climatic stress (wind, cold, rime), followed by irruptions of insect pests (Innes 1993).

Despite generally high inputs, there is considerable site-to-site variability in the response of forest catchments to acidic deposition in the Black Triangle region. It appears that this variability is largely due to differences in lithology. The objective of this study was to compare biogeochemical patterns of basins in two forested catchments in the Czech Republic exhibiting extremely different lithologies which serve as end-members of ecosystem sensitivity to acidic deposition.

Methods

Site descriptions

Two experimental catchments in western Bohemia were chosen to explore the role of lithology in regulating the chemistry of soil and drainage waters and forest nutrition status under high loadings of acidic deposition. The site selection criteria for the catchments included proximity, similar atmospheric deposition and differing lithology (Figure 1, Table 1). The two catchments are located 7 km apart in the Slavkov Forest (Slavkovský les), south of the heavily damaged Ore Mountains. The region is forested with planted Norway spruce (*Picea abies*) monocultures and some European beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) at lower elevations. The original forests were composed of silver fir (*Abies alba*), European beech, and Norway spruce until the beginning of 19th Century. Approximately 10 km north of the catchments is a highly

Table 1. Characteristics of the study catchments.

Catchment	Lysina	Pluhuv Bor
Location	50°03' N, 12°40' E	50°04' N, 12°46' E
Drainage area (km ²)	0.273	0.220
Altitude (m)	829-949	690-804
Mean slope (%)	11.5	13.0
Aspect	North-East	South-East
Avg. precipitation (mm)	950	850
(1931-1980)		
Avg. runoff (mm)		
(1992-1993)	419	226
Avg. air temperature (°C)		
(1931-1980)	5.0	6.0
Vegetation	Forest >20 years (70%), Young forest and grass (30%)	Forest >20 years (94%), Young forest and grass (6%)
Major tree species	Norway spruce (<i>Picea abies</i>) (100%)	Norway spruce (<i>Picea abies</i>) (92%), Scots pine (<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>) (8%)
Avg. spruce tree:		
Age (yr)	45	115
Height (m)	16	21
Diameter at breast	18	24
height 1.3 m (cm)		
Prevailing soils	Podzolic brown earth	Eutrophic brown earth
Glacial deposits	None	None
Bedrock	Leucogranite	Serpentine

industrialized region, including large power production facilities (Tisová and Vřesová; near the town of Sokolov), supplied by high sulfur coal (2-12% S by weight) from several open-pit coal mines in the Sokolov basin.

The Lysina catchment is underlain by leucogranite composed mainly of quartz and feldspars. The oxides SiO₂ and Al₂O₃ comprise 87% of the rock by weight (Table 2). The CaO content of the leucogranite is 0.52%, one-fourth of the world average for granites, while the MgO content, 0.11%, is one-sixth of the world average (Paces 1983). Soils in the catchment are largely podzolic brown earths and peaty gleys. The catchment is forested with second generation Norway spruce, with an average stand age of approximately 45 years, but with individual stands ranging from a few years to more than 120 years. Semi-mature plantations (>20 years) cover 70% of the catchment.

The Pluhuv Bor catchment is underlain by serpentine consisting primarily of antigorite (Mg₃Si₂O₅(OH)₄). The concentrations of the major oxides (SiO₂, MgO and Fe₂O₃) at Pluhuv Bor (Table 2) are similar to calculated average values for serpentine (Roberts & Proctor 1992). However, the

Figure 1. Upper panel: map of the Czech Republic, showing areas with annual average SO_2 concentrations above $30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in ambient air (dotted) (modified after Moldan & Schnoor 1992). Lower panel: map of the Slavkov Forest with the locations of the experimental catchments Lysina (LYS) and Pluhův Bor (PLB), and major geologic formations (dotted - granite, cross-hatched - serpentinite, A - amphibolite, Gn - gneiss, S - mica schist, T - tertiary sediments, dashed line - fault).

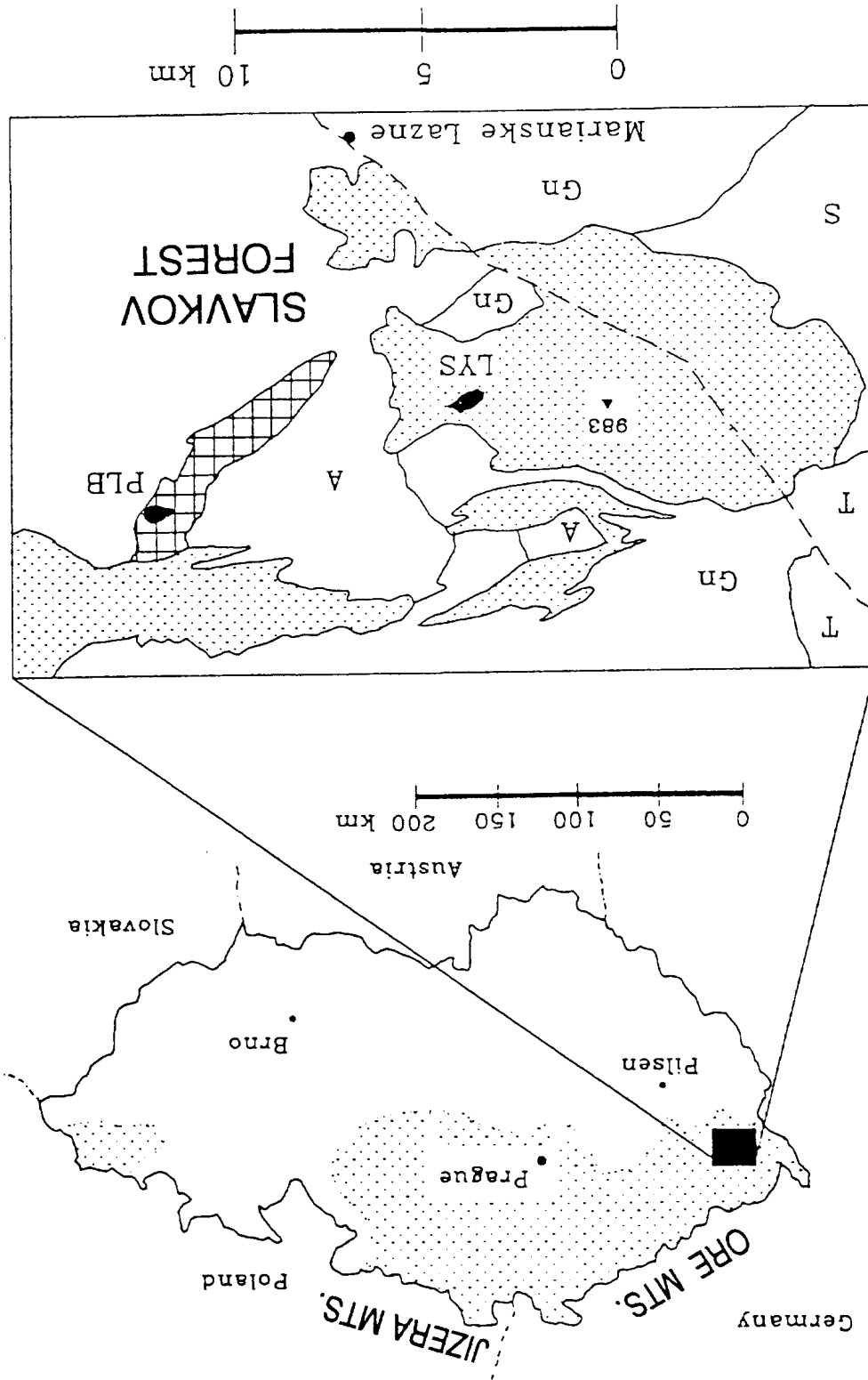


Table 2. Average elemental composition of bedrock at the study areas (calculated using data of Fiala 1961).

	mass%	
	Leucogranite (Lysina)	Serpentine (Pluhuv Bor)
SiO ₂	72.9	38.4
Al ₂ O ₃	14.0	0.61
CrO ₂	0.001	0.41
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.73	6.6
FeO	1.4	1.7
MnO	0.07	0.13
MgO	0.11	36.8
CaO	0.52	Trace
Li ₂ O	0.12	Trace
Na ₂ O	2.9	1.3
K ₂ O	4.4	0.29
P ₂ O ₅	0.30	0.01
CO ₂	BD	0.15
F	0.84	BD
S	Trace	0.04
H ₂ O ⁺	1.2	12.7
H ₂ O ⁻	0.3	0.65
NiO	BD	0.24

BD – below detection limit

serpentine at Pluhuv Bor contains greater amounts of K₂O (ten times) and Na₂O (six times) than "average" serpentine, and a lower amount of Al₂O₃, one-fourth the "average" value. Only trace quantities of CaO are present, which is atypical for serpentine (the average value from the literature is 1.5%, range: 0.04–8.9%). The dominant soils are eutrophic brown soils and peaty gleys. Pluhuv Bor is almost entirely forested with a 100–120 year old Norway spruce stand mixed with Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris*) at higher elevations (Table 1).

Methods and materials

The catchments have been monitored since 1989 (Lysina), and 1991 (Pluhuv Bor). Bulk precipitation was collected bi-weekly using two continuously-open collectors in a clearing within the forest at Lysina catchment. Throughfall was collected monthly on square, 15 × 15 m plots containing five collectors: one in the center and one at each corner. The plots were located randomly in representative forest stands, two plots at Lysina and one at Pluhuv Bor.

Nine zero-tension lysimeters, similar to the design used by Driscoll et al. (1988), were installed in two pits in each catchment in June 1993. Lysimeters were inserted just beneath the organic horizon and beneath A (at Pluhuv Bor) or E horizons (at Lysina) in each pit. One pair of lysimeters was installed below the A horizon in one pit at Pluhuv Bor. The lysimeters were rounded rectangular polyethylene containers 15 cm long by 9 cm wide and 4 cm high (area 132 cm²). The lysimeters were filled with acid-washed silica sand, and drain into polyethylene containers situated in the back-filled soil pit. Soil water was collected continuously in the containers, and sampled at monthly intervals beginning in June 1994 using a sampling tube. All lysimeters were sampled and analyzed separately. The catchment outflow was monitored using V-notch weirs and water-level recorders. Streamwater was collected weekly for chemical analysis using the procedures outlined in the Table 3. Total Al (Al_T), monomeric Al (Al_m) and organic monomeric Al (Al_o) fractions were determined in water. Particulate Al (Al_p) was calculated as Al_T - Al_m, and inorganic monomeric Al (Al_i) was calculated as Al_o - Al_p. Bulk precipitation and throughfall concentrations were multiplied by water quantities of individual samples to determine annual fluxes. Streamwater fluxes for individual solutes were computed using annual discharge-weighted average solute concentrations and annual water flux.

Soils were sampled at nine locations at Lysina and at four locations at Pluhuv Bor. Soil masses were estimated by excavating five 0.5 m² pits by the method described in Huntington et al. (1988). This technique entailed collection of the Oi plus Oe (litter and fermented layers) horizons as a single sample, and then the Oa (humus) horizon. The mineral soils were then collected at ten centimeter intervals from the surface of the mineral soil until the C horizon was reached. All soils were weighed in the field. Sub-samples were taken from each layer and from each visible horizon (E, A, B₁, B₂ and C) with adequate thickness. The samples were then air dried, weighed and passed through either a 5-mm sieve (organic soil) or a 2-mm sieve (mineral soil). Sand and silt were separated from clays by gravimetric sedimentation. Clays were removed by pipetting and centrifugation, repeated at least six times until the majority of clay particles were removed.

Soil analyses were conducted using air dried samples, and the results reported on an oven-dried basis (105 °C; Table 3). Cation exchange capacity (CEC) was computed as the sum of exchangeable Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, H⁺ and Al³⁺. Base saturation was determined as the fraction of CEC associated with basic cations (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, Na⁺). Soil organic matter content was estimated by loss-on-ignition. Element pools were computed using oven-dry soil mass (>5 mm for organic and <2 mm for mineral) and average element concentrations.

Table 3. Methods and reagents, used in the analysis of samples from Lysina and Puhuv Bor (soil analyses after Thomas 1982; spruce tissue analyses after Sherman & Fahey 1994; water analyses after Paukert 1993, Al fractions after McAvoy et al. 1992).

Analyte	Equipment	Reagent	Procedure
Soil analysis			
pH	Potentiometric, glass	H ₂ O	
Total C	Elemental analyzer		Combustion (1020 °C)
Loss on ignition	Muffle furnace		Combustion (550 °C)
Exchangeable Ca ²⁺ , Mg ²⁺ , Na ⁺ , K ⁺	Atomic absorption spectrophotometer	1 M NH ₄ Cl	Mechanical vacuum extractor
Exchangeable acidity, Al ³⁺ , H ⁺	Titration (0.1 M NaOH, 1 M HCl)	1 M KCl	Mechanical vacuum extractor
Spruce tissue analysis			
Total C, N	Elemental analyzer		Combustion (1020 °C)
Total Ca, Mg, Na, K, Al, Ni	Inductively coupled plasma spectrometry	Conc. HNO ₃ + 30% H ₂ O ₂ , then 10% HCl + 10% HNO ₃	Combustion
Water analysis			
pH	Potentiometric, glass combination electrode		
Cl ⁻ , SO ₄ ²⁻ , NO ₃ ⁻	Ion exchange chromatography		
Ca ²⁺ , Mg ²⁺ , Na ⁺ , K ⁺ , Al ³⁺ , Si	Inductively coupled plasma spectrometry		
NH ₄ ⁺	Indophenol blue colorimetry		
ANC	Titration (0.1 M HCl with Gran plot analysis		
DOC	Ultraviolet-enhanced persulfate oxidation, CO ₂ detection by spectrophotometry		
Al _m , Al _o	Pyrocatechol violet colorimetry		

Spruce tissue was obtained from four representative trees within each catchment in July 1994. Whole branches were collected from the upper, middle, and lower canopy. Twigs and foliage, bark and bole wood, and roots

and soil rhizosphere were separated after air-drying. Samples were dried at 70 °C and ground. The samples for the ICP spectrometry were dry-ashed; the ash was dissolved in concentrated HNO₃ plus 30% H₂O₂ and then in 10% HCl plus 10% HNO₃.

Results

Soil properties

The overall thickness of the regolith was slightly greater at Lysina (1–5 m) than at Pluhuv Bor (0.5–4 m) (Hylský 1960; Kram 1989). The mean depth of the upper mineral soil (to the C horizon) was somewhat greater at Pluhuv Bor (0.7 m) than at Lysina (0.5 m) (Table 4). Mass of the forest floor was twice as large at Pluhuv Bor than at Lysina (Table 5). The soils at Pluhuv Bor had a higher content of clay and silt (clay: 0.4–1.8%, silt: 32–43%) than at Lysina (clay: 0.2–0.6%, silt: 24–33%). Also, the mass of clay and silt in the upper 40 cm of mineral soil were greater at Pluhuv Bor (clay: 5 kg m⁻², silt 110 kg m⁻²) than at Lysina (clay: 0.6 kg m⁻², silt 60 kg m⁻²).

Soil organic matter (SOM) and total C concentrations in the mineral soil were distinctly different at the two sites (Tables 4 and 5). The soils at Lysina had typical patterns of SOM and C for podzolic soils (low concentrations of SOM and C in the albic (E) horizon, higher concentrations in the spodic B horizon, and lower concentrations in the C horizon). In contrast, the soil at Pluhuv Bor exhibited a steady decline in SOM and C with increasing depth. The serpentine catchment exhibited a high base saturation (BS), increasing with depth, reaching essentially 100% in the C horizon (Table 4). In contrast, the granitic catchment showed low concentrations of exchangeable basic cations and BS decreased with depth. Soil pH was similar in the forest floor at the two sites, but values in the mineral soil followed the patterns in BS. Soil pH increased with depth to near-neutral values at Pluhuv Bor, while pH remained extremely acidic throughout the profile at Lysina. Patterns in CEC at Lysina were consistent with the SOM and C content of the mineral soil. The BS of soils at Lysina decreased from 37% in the litter layer to <5% in the lower mineral soil. In contrast, Al saturation increased from 28% in the litter to 91% in the C horizon. Overall, Al occupied 78% of all exchange sites at Lysina, and the solum BS was only 7% (Table 5). The increase in CEC with depth in the mineral soil at Pluhuv Bor contrasts with the pattern of decreasing SOM content, but is consistent with the increasing pH and clay content. The increase of BS with depth was largely attributable to Mg, as the Mg saturation increased from 25% in the Oi + Oe horizon to 57% in the Oa horizon, and then again from 68% in the A horizon to 96% in the C horizon

Table 4. Mean values of soil properties at the two study sites.

Horizon	Thickness cm	Concentration										CEC	Exch. acidity	Exch. bases	BS %	SOM %	Total C mass%	Clay mass%	pH _w
		Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Al ³⁺	H ⁺	mmolc kg ⁻¹	mmolc kg ⁻¹	mmolc kg ⁻¹	mmolc kg ⁻¹								
Lysina																			
Oi + Oe	2.8	45.8	8.6	1.1	10.3	48.8	62.8	177	112	65.8	37.4	81.1	42.9	ND	3.7				
Oa	3.9	25.8	6.1	0.71	5.9	96.5	70.8	206	167	38.5	18.1	58.4	31.9	ND	3.5				
E	16.7	1.1	0.32	0.18	0.94	27.8	9.7	40.0	37.5	2.5	6.6	2.9	1.4	0.55	3.9				
B	31.9	2.4	0.48	0.21	1.2	82.7	12.5	99.5	95.2	4.3	4.1	7.6	3.6	0.19	4.0				
C	ND	0.78	0.13	0.14	0.63	34.1	1.7	37.4	35.7	1.7	4.5	3.9	0.67	0.38	4.5				
Pluhuv Bor																			
Oi + Oe	4.0	50.9	59.5	0.93	6.9	46.9	70.9	236	118	118	47.9	74.2	38.3	ND	3.8				
Oa	2.1	38.1	198.0	1.1	7.6	45.0	55.9	346	101	245	48.6	55.6	29.8	ND	4.0				
A	13.1	3.9	70.1	0.18	0.66	22.0	5.4	103	28.2	75	69.2	5.5	1.9	0.39	5.0				
B	60.0	4.4	113.0	0.17	0.81	15.1	3.0	136	18.0	118	77.3	4.3	2.3	1.43	5.8				
C	ND	5.2	157.0	0.22	1.2	0.62	0.0	163	0.62	162	99.6	3.3	0.21	1.79	6.7				

ND – not determined
 CEC – cation exchange capacity
 BS – base saturation
 SOM – soil organic matter
 pH_w – soil pH in water

Table 5. Fine soil mass (<2 mm: mineral soil, <5 mm: organic soil), and pools of exchangeable cations, soil organic matter (SOM), total carbon, and clay at the study sites.

Horizon	Mass/area kg m ⁻²	Pools										SOM	Total C	Clay
		Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Al ³⁺	H ⁺	CEC	Exch. acidity	Exch. bases				
		mmolc m ⁻²										kg m ⁻²		
Lysina														
Oi + Oe	2.3	105	19.8	2.5	23.6	112	144	410	257	150	1.9	1.0	ND	
Oa	11.5	297	69.7	8.2	67.7	1110	814	2370	1920	440	6.7	3.7	ND	
0-10 cm	62.2	114	25.5	72.4	83.0	2020	613	2920	2830	300	2.8	1.7	0.23	
10-20 cm	52.4	76	17.0	60.8	61.5	2410	452	3080	2870	220	2.0	0.8	0.17	
20-30 cm	52.1	96	19.4	63.7	63.8	2730	667	3640	3400	240	2.3	1.7	0.12	
30-40 cm	55.8	85	14.3	67.9	58.8	3010	257	3490	3270	230	3.1	1.0	0.11	
40-43 (to C)	26.2	57	8.7	46.3	34.7	1250	45	1440	1300	150	1.4	0.4	0.09	
Forest floor	13.8	402	89.5	10.7	91.3	1220	958	2780	2180	590	8.6	4.7	ND	
Mineral soil (0-40 cm)	223	370	76.2	265	267	10200	1990	13100	12200	980	10.1	5.2	0.63	
Pluháv Bor														
Oi + Oe	3.1	158	184	2.9	21.3	145	220	730	365	370	2.3	1.2	ND	
Oa	4.1	156	812	4.4	31.0	185	229	1420	414	1000	2.3	1.2	ND	
0-10 cm	39.7	95	245	13.4	41.1	2870	0	3260	2870	390	3.2	1.4	0.42	
10-20 cm	68.2	93	935	21.3	23.0	1950	77	3100	2030	1070	2.3	0.8	0.98	
20-30 cm	88.5	298	3030	23.7	15.0	550	0	3910	550	3360	2.2	0.2	1.65	
30-40 cm	84.3	413	4810	21.1	11.9	103	0	5360	103	5260	2.1	0.1	1.53	
Forest floor	7.2	314	996	7.3	52.3	330	449	2150	779	1370	4.6	2.4	ND	
Mineral soil (0-40 cm)	281	899	9020	79.5	91.0	5470	77	15600	5550	10100	9.8	2.6	4.58	

ND – not determined
CEC – cation exchange capacity

(Table 4). Overall, exchangeable Mg accounted for 58% of CEC, and the solum BS was 65% (Table 5). The forest floor at Pluhuv Bor contained more than ten times the exchangeable Mg than Lysina, even though the soil mass was about one-half that at Lysina. The mineral soil Mg pool at Pluhuv Bor was 120 times larger than at Lysina.

Concentrations and pools of exchangeable Mg increased with increasing depth in the mineral soil with about 80% of the soil exchangeable Mg found below 20 cm at Pluhuv Bor (Tables 4, 5). Concentrations and pools of the other exchangeable basic cations were considerably lower than Mg. Exchangeable Ca pools were low in the 0 to 20 cm layer of the mineral soil, relative to values in the forest floor and in the lower mineral soil. Pools of K were greatest in the upper mineral soil layer, and decreased slightly with increasing depth in the mineral soil. The pools of Na were low in the forest floor, and higher and uniform in the mineral soil at Pluhuv Bor.

Exchangeable Ca was the principal basic cation associated with the soil exchange complex at Lysina (Table 4). More than half of the exchangeable Ca at Lysina was found in the forest floor (Table 5). Pools of exchangeable Mg were higher, while the exchangeable K and Na pools were lower, in the forest floor than in the upper mineral soil at Lysina.

Precipitation chemistry

Bulk precipitation to the study catchments contributed large inputs of NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , H^+ and SO_4^{2-} (Table 6). Sodium and calcium were the major basic cations in precipitation inputs. Throughfall fluxes were greater than bulk precipitation inputs for all solutes except NH_4^+ at Lysina and except NH_4^+ , NO_3^- , and Na^+ at Pluhuv Bor. Throughfall flux was dominated by SO_4^{2-} , H^+ , NO_3^- , and K^+ (Table 6). The very high throughfall fluxes of SO_4^{2-} reflect the high loading of atmospheric sulfur to the region.

Soil solutions

Major solutes in the soil water at Lysina were dissolved organic carbon (DOC), H^+ , SO_4^{2-} and dissolved Si; at Pluhuv Bor DOC, Mg^{2+} , SO_4^{2-} and dissolved Si were predominant (Table 7). At Lysina, acidic throughfall (pH 3.8) below the spruce canopy was further acidified by organic acids leached from the O horizon, resulting in a low pH (3.6) of soil water in the O and E horizons. Soil waters were strongly acidic and exhibited little temporal variation in pH values, ranging from 3.52 to 3.77 in the O horizon and from 3.42 to 3.75 in the E horizon. In contrast, the acidic throughfall (pH 3.9) at Pluhuv Bor was neutralized by the upper soil as reflected in the increased soil solution pH in the O (4.6) and A horizons (5.4). Soil water pH at Pluhuv Bor exhibited

Table 6. Annual volume-weighted ion concentrations and mass fluxes in bulk precipitation, throughfall and streamwater measured at the Lysina (LYS) and Pluhiv Bor (PLB) catchments for the water year 1993 (Nov. 1992–Oct. 1993).

Parameter	Concentration ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)				Fluxes ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$)				
	LYS		PLB		LYS		PLB		
	Bulk	Throughfall	Bulk	Throughfall	Bulk	Throughfall	Bulk	Throughfall	
Water (mm)					1016	699	583	406	221
pH	4.40	3.81	3.90	3.97					
H ⁺	39.8	156	127	107	40.0	109	74.0	44.8	0.0
Ca ²⁺	7.4	49.2	31.4	86.0	7.6	34.4	18.3	34.9	9.9
Mg ²⁺	2.2	14.6	28.9	28.3	2.2	10.2	16.9	11.5	15.2
Na ⁺	11.2	23.6	14.5	89.7	11.3	16.5	8.5	36.4	11.0
K ⁺	1.7	80.8	46.2	24.5	1.7	56.7	27.0	9.9	1.2
Al ³⁺	1.9	6.7	4.6	53.3	1.9	4.7	2.7	21.7	1.5
NH ₄ ⁺	51.0	52.2	25.8	2.2	51.8	36.4	15.0	0.9	0.1
NO ₃ ⁻	42.3	85.2	49.2	32.6	43.0	59.3	28.7	13.2	8.0
SO ₄ ²⁻	31.7	171	130	211	32.2	119	75.7	85.5	98.2
Cl ⁻	12.2	41.0	29.0	39.0	12.4	28.5	16.9	15.8	14.7
ANC	ND	ND	ND	-128	ND	ND	ND	-52.1	97.0
DOC	ND	ND	ND	1360	ND	ND	ND	552	228
H ₄ SiO ₄	ND	3.2	2.6	224	ND	2.2	1.5	75.8	59.7

ND – not determined

ANC – acid neutralizing capacity

DOC – dissolved organic carbon

Table 7. Arithmetic average and standard deviation (in parentheses) of annual ion concentrations in soil solutions at the study sites for May 1994 to April 1995.

Parameter	$\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$			
	Lysina O horizon	Pluhuv Bor O horizon	Lysina E horizon	Pluhuv Bor A horizon
pH (units)	3.62 (0.07)	4.70 (0.48)	3.55 (0.10)	5.38 (0.27)
H ⁺	240 (36)	32 (25)	290 (62)	4.9 (2.4)
Ca ²⁺	39 (10)	88 (71)	28 (7)	24 (7)
Mg ²⁺	9.1 (2.1)	690 (330)	8.2 (1.8)	700 (320)
Na ⁺	39 (9)	69 (24)	33 (7)	65 (22)
K ⁺	52 (39)	120 (130)	71 (9)	19 (15)
Al ³⁺	33 (9)	45 (21)	18 (4)	25 (10)
NH ₄ ⁺	22 (21)	77 (77)	13 (8)	10 (18)
NO ₃ ⁻	71 (43)	95 (160)	110 (42)	90 (150)
SO ₄ ²⁻	150 (63)	600 (240)	160 (34)	580 (270)
Cl ⁻	48 (13)	150 (96)	43 (11)	130 (97)
ANC	-270 (99)	45 (79)	-340 (72)	85 (34)
DOC	2700 (1500)	7300 (5100)	1700 (670)	2900 (1400)
H ₄ SiO ₄	140 (59)	260 (160)	110 (47)	270 (99)

greater temporal variability, ranging from 4.17 to 5.71 in the O horizon and 4.97 to 6.12 in the A horizon. Hydrogen ion was the dominant cation in soil water at Lysina, but contributed little to the cationic equivalence of soil water at Pluhuv Bor. Sulfate was the major anion in soil water at both sites. There were no significant trends in SO₄²⁻ concentrations with depth in either site, but average concentrations of SO₄²⁻ were about four times higher at Pluhuv Bor than at Lysina. Chloride concentrations showed little pattern with depth at both sites, and were about three times higher at Pluhuv Bor. Values of acid neutralizing capacity (ANC) were highly negative in soil solutions at Lysina and generally positive at Pluhuv Bor. Concentrations of DOC were high in forest floor leachate (especially at Pluhuv Bor), but decreased markedly with depth in the mineral soil at both sites.

Magnesium, the dominant cation at Pluhuv Bor, exhibited concentrations between 330 and 1500 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in O horizon solutions and between 300 and 1700 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in A horizon solutions. In contrast, concentrations of Mg²⁺ at Lysina were low (5-13.5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). Concentrations of Mg²⁺ did not exhibit large differences between horizons at either site. Soil water concentrations of Ca²⁺ at Pluhuv Bor decreased with depth, from a mean value of 88 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in the forest floor to 24 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in the upper mineral soil. At Lysina, Ca²⁺ also decreased with depth, but less dramatically than at Pluhuv Bor. At Pluhuv Bor, K⁺ concentrations were high in O horizon (120 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), and

decreased to low values in A horizon ($19 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). Concentrations of K^+ in soil water at Lysina were relatively constant with depth. Sodium exhibited little variation with depth at either site.

Elevated concentrations of Al^+ were observed in O horizon soil solutions, especially at Pluhuv Bor. The particulate fraction Al_p was the dominant fraction of Al^+ at Pluhuv Bor (O horizon: Al_p 43%, Al_o 37%, Al_i 20%; A horizon: Al_p 59%, Al_o 29%, Al_i 12%). In contrast, lower Al^+ concentrations were observed at Lysina, but Al_i was the dominant Al fraction (O horizon: Al_p 11%, Al_o 22%, Al_i 67%; E horizon: Al_p 6%, Al_o 32%, Al_i 62%). Concentrations of Si were high in the forest floor, especially at Pluhuv Bor, and remained elevated in the upper mineral soil.

Streamwater patterns

Different weathering reactions (Kram & Hruska 1994) in the granite and serpentinite catchments were strongly reflected in the composition of the runoff waters (Table 6). Streamwater draining the Lysina catchment was relatively dilute, showing low concentrations of basic cations (Ca^{2+} 86 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Mg^{2+} 28 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Na^+ 90 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; K^+ 25 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). In contrast, streamwater at Pluhuv Bor showed higher ionic strength, largely due to elevated concentrations of Mg^{2+} (Ca^{2+} 45 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Mg^{2+} 690 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; Na^+ 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; K^+ 5.4 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). Indeed, with the exception of Mg^{2+} , concentrations of basic cations were higher at Lysina than at Pluhuv Bor. Weathering of feldspars in the granitic catchment resulted in drainage water with relatively high proportions of dissolved Si, Na^+ and Ca^{2+} . At the serpentinite site, however, the relatively high weathering rate of antigorite contributed to the high concentrations of Mg^{2+} and Si, and low Na^+ , Ca^{2+} and Al^+ .

Sulfate was the dominant anion in streamwater at both sites (Table 6). Bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) was the second most important anion in drainage water at Pluhuv Bor (see ANC), but was negligible at Lysina. At Lysina, stream pH varied between 3.8 and 4.4 and the ANC varied between -180 and -40 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in the 1993 water year. Streamwater at Lysina was characterized by unusually high concentrations of Al^+ (21–81 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). In contrast, stream pH varied between 6.1 and 8.1, and ANC between 100 and 2400 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ in the serpentinite catchment, and concentrations of Al^+ were low (1–11 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). Dissolved organic C was a major solute at both sites. Organic anions (estimated by discrepancy in charge balance) comprised about 19% of total anionic charge at Lysina, and 7% at Pluhuv Bor.

Temporal patterns in concentrations of basic cations occurred with variations in stream flow (Figure 2). Stream discharge was usually low at both sites during the summer, and increased during the late fall and spring. At

the granitic site, concentrations of Na^+ decreased markedly with increasing stream flow (Na^+ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $-38 \cdot \log[\text{discharge} (\text{L s}^{-1})] + 125$, $r^2 = 0.81$). Concentrations of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} showed a similar trend, but the relationships were not statistically significant ($r^2 = 0.24$ and 0.14 respectively). Concentrations of K^+ showed relatively steady concentrations over time, with no relationship with discharge. There was also no correlation between SO_4^{2-} and discharge at Lysina.

At Pluhuv Bor, all basic cations and ANC showed a pattern of dilution with increases in discharge (Ca^{2+} ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $-62 \cdot \log[\text{discharge} (\text{L s}^{-1})] + 75$, $r^2 = 0.73$; Mg^{2+} ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $-200 \cdot \log[\text{discharge} (\text{L s}^{-1})] + 832$, $r^2 = 0.67$; Na^+ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $-15 \cdot \log[\text{discharge} (\text{L s}^{-1})] + 58$, $r^2 = 0.45$; K^+ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $-9.3 \cdot \log[\text{discharge} (\text{L s}^{-1})] + 8.4$, $r^2 = 0.57$); ANC ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $-81.1 \cdot \log[\text{discharge} (\text{L s}^{-1})] + 888$, $r^2 = 0.85$). Sulfate concentrations at Pluhuv Bor increased with increasing discharge (SO_4^{2-} ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $106 \cdot \log[\text{discharge} (\text{L s}^{-1})] + 427$, $r^2 = 0.75$).

Over the study period (1990–93 water years at Lysina and 1992–93 water years at Pluhuv Bor), there were marked decreases in the concentration of SO_4^{2-} in streamwater. At Lysina, concentrations of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} were positively correlated with SO_4^{2-} (Ca^{2+} ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $0.36 \cdot \text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) + 26 , $r^2 = 0.72$, $n = 185$; Mg^{2+} ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) = $0.11 \cdot \text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) + 9.6 , $r^2 = 0.47$, $n = 185$). No relationships were evident with Na^+ or K^+ and SO_4^{2-} . In contrast, at Pluhuv Bor, concentrations of basic cations all showed strong ($r^2 > 0.5$, $n = 76$) inverse relationships with stream SO_4^{2-} and a strong positive correlation with ANC for Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and K^+ ($r^2 > 0.6$, $n = 76$).

Tree tissue chemistry

Among the basic cations, Ca exhibited the highest concentrations in tree tissue at both sites (Table 8). The highest Ca concentrations were found in the bole bark at both sites. At Pluhuv Bor, foliage and roots in mineral soil also had relatively high Ca concentrations. Concentrations of Mg in spruce tissues at Lysina were low. Foliar concentrations of Mg were extremely low, even lower than Mg concentrations in bark and branches. In contrast, the Mg concentrations in foliage, bark, branches and roots of the mineral soil were very high at Pluhuv Bor. Concentrations of K were higher in all vegetation tissues at Lysina than at Pluhuv Bor. At both sites, the highest K concentrations were found in the foliage. Concentrations of Na were very low in tree tissues at both sites. With the exception of bole wood, the Na concentrations were similar or slightly higher at Lysina. Aluminum concentrations were elevated in fine roots from the upper mineral soil at Lysina. Very high concentrations of Ni were observed in spruce tissues at Pluhuv Bor, Ni was especially concentrated in the bole bark.

Figure 2. Temporal patterns in streamwater concentrations of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ and K^+ ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), mean daily runoff (curve) and instantaneous runoff at the time of sampling (circle or arrow) (mm day^{-1}) at Lysina and Pluhuv Bor in 1992-1993 water years.

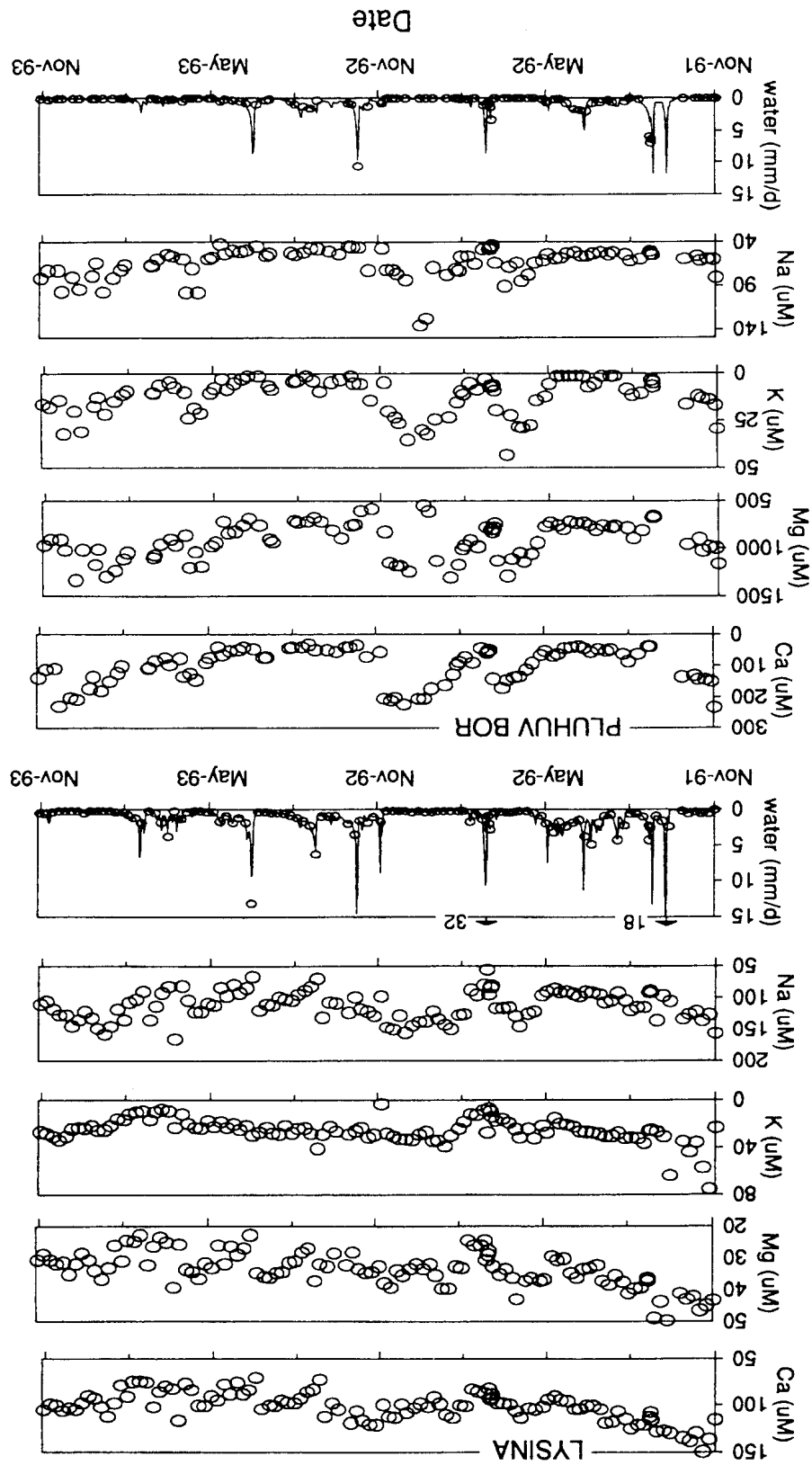


Table 8. Mean total element concentration of Norway spruce tissues at Lysina and Pihlöv Bor.

Spruce tissue	mmol kg ⁻¹							mass %
	Ca	Mg	Na	K	Al	Ni	N	
Lysina								
Foliage	70	13	1.2	141	2.1	0.03	960	49
Branches and twigs	87	20	2.5	81	8.0	0.05	360	43
Bole bark	180	29	0.9	84	3.7	0.06	480	48
Bole wood	16	4	0.1	4	0.33	0.007	100	49
Cones	4	6	1.2	40	1.8	0.03	420	51
Coarse roots (organic horizon)	41	7	0.8	19	1.8	0.01	530	57
Fine roots (organic horizon)	80	19	1.7	61	17	0.03	420	51
Medium roots (mineral horizon)	54	14	2.3	41	33	0.02	380	48
Fine roots (mineral horizon)	33	9	2.7	27	90	0.03	620	58
Pihlöv Bor								
Foliage	160	110	1.2	84	2.5	0.20	860	48
Branches and twigs	92	41	0.7	46	5.4	0.17	640	56
Bole bark	210	62	0.4	51	2.2	0.34	360	49
Bole wood	13	8	0.4	3	0.35	0.012	93	48
Cones	5	16	1.0	28	1.8	0.19	390	52
Coarse roots (organic horizon)	36	14	0.9	13	2.6	0.05	380	45
Fine roots (organic horizon)	100	26	1.2	40	8	0.13	450	51
Medium + fine roots (min. hor.)	150	34	1.1	25	16	0.22	410	42

Discussion

Element cycling

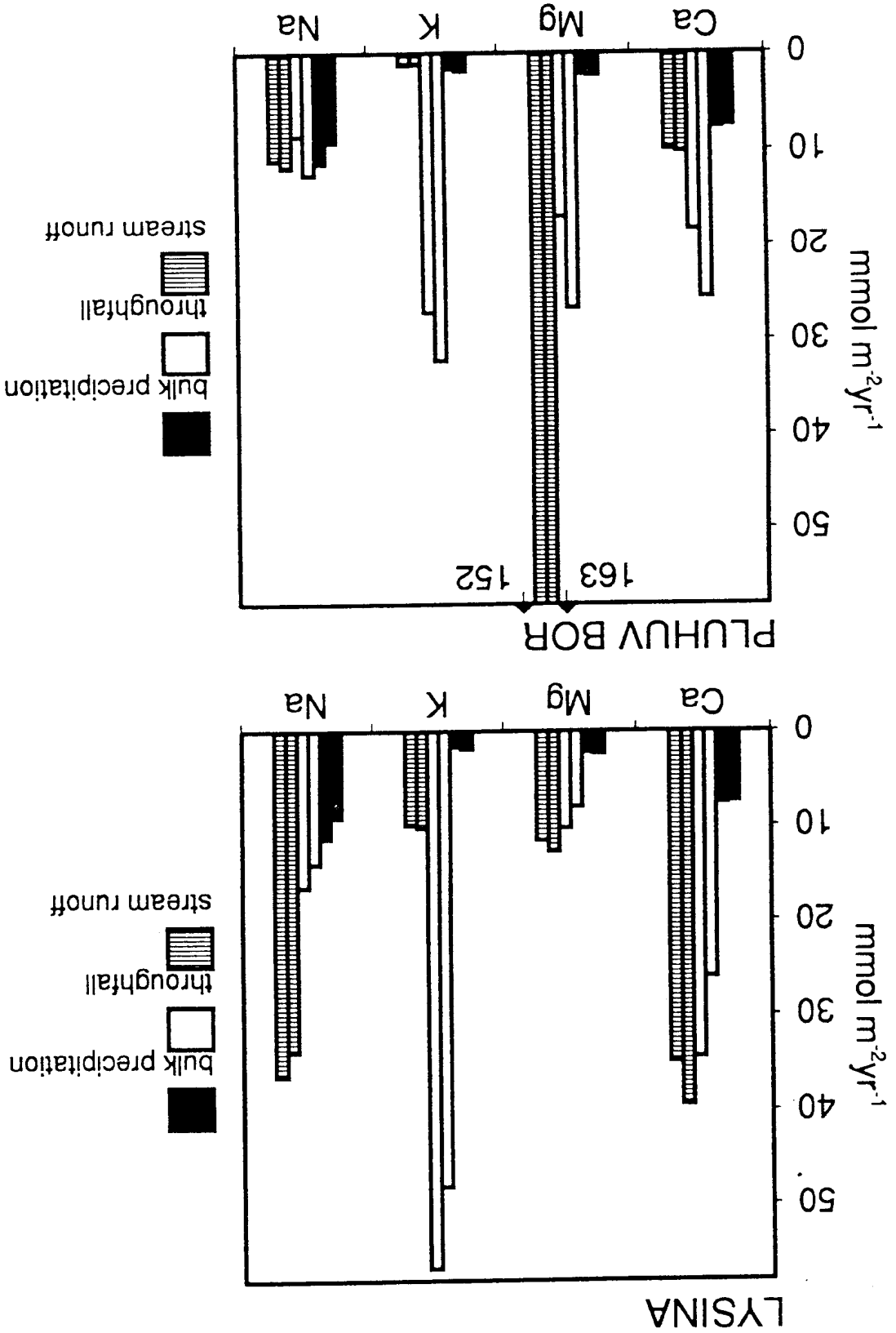
Bulk precipitation is often an underestimate of total atmospheric deposition to forests in polluted areas. In areas of high S deposition the "net throughfall" of S (throughfall flux minus bulk precipitation flux) approximately equals the dry deposition of S to the forest ecosystems (Mayer & Ulrich 1974; Hultberg 1985; Lindberg & Garten 1988). Unfortunately, for other elements there is no reliable method to differentiate the plant-derived component of throughfall from the atmospheric component (Parker 1990). Moreover, some particulate deposition does not represent a true input to the ecosystem (e.g., local soil dust, plant debris and pollen; Likens et al. 1994). In Norway spruce ecosystems, investigators have reported both increases and decreases in throughfall pH values relative to bulk deposition (Farrell et al. 1994).

There is considerable uncertainty in the use of bulk precipitation and throughfall fluxes to estimate atmospheric inputs of basic cations. Through-

fall fluxes of Ca, Mg, and K generally increase with the nutritional status of soils, thus reflecting the internal cycling and leaching from foliage. However, nutrient enrichment in throughfall, relative to bulk precipitation also reflects dry deposition to the forest ecosystem. For example, in a Norway spruce stand at Solling, Germany, about 70% of Ca throughfall flux was attributed to external sources (Matzner & Meiwes 1994). The enrichment of throughfall by internal cycling is especially characteristic of K^+ (Figure 3). The mean enrichment ratio of K^+ (the ratio of throughfall flux to bulk precipitation) for numerous forests throughout the world is approximately 1.3, compared to values of 4.0, 2.8 and 2.4 for Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , and Na^+ , respectively (Parker 1990). In our study, higher enrichment ratios for Ca^{2+} (4.5) and Na^+ (1.5) at Lysina compared to Pluhuv Bor (Ca^{2+} : 2.4, Na^+ : 0.8) (Table 6) were not consistent with the differences in Ca and Na concentrations in foliage (Table 8). Thus, it appears that throughfall enrichment of these elements is largely due to external sources. Marked differences in enrichment ratios for Mg^{2+} and K^+ were also evident between the two sites (Table 6, Figure 3). The enrichment ratio of K^+ was greater at Lysina (33) than at Pluhuv Bor (16), while the ratio for Mg^{2+} was lower at Lysina (4.6) than at Pluhuv Bor (7.7). These patterns were consistent with observed differences in foliage concentrations, suggesting that canopy leaching is a more important contributor to net throughfall for Mg^{2+} and K^+ than for Ca^{2+} and Na^+ .

The net output of basic cations was estimated as the difference between element output via steamwater and element input via bulk precipitation (Table 6, Figure 3). Thus the input values do not consider the portion of dry deposition input of basic cations to the catchments not collected in bulk collectors. The net output from the catchments represents the net loss of cations by drainage water but does not consider the net accumulation of basic cations by forest vegetation. Thus, the net output values reflect only the balance between cation production (via weathering, net cation exchange, and mineralization from SOM) and input by wet deposition and a portion of dry deposition collected in bulk precipitation. Basic cations, dissolved Si, and Al_T showed net production in the Lysina catchment. At Pluhuv Bor, stream outputs of Mg^{2+} and dissolved Si were much higher than atmospheric inputs. Outputs of other basic cations (Ca^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+) and Al_T at Pluhuv Bor were similar to bulk precipitation inputs. The net output of Ca^{2+} was 27 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$, Mg^{2+} was 9.3 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$, Na^+ was 25 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$, K^+ was 8.2 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$ at Lysina. At Pluhuv Bor, the net output of Ca^{2+} was 2.3 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$, Mg^{2+} was 150 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$, Na^+ was -0.3 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$, K^+ was -0.5 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$. The total net output of basic cations for the Lysina catchment (106 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$) was lower than the rate for Pluhuv Bor (304 $mmol\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$) due to the lower weatherability of soil

Figure 3. Annual fluxes of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ and K^+ in 1992 (left columns; Kram & Hruška 1994) and 1993 (right columns) water years (November 1–October 31) in bulk precipitation, throughfall and streamwater at Lysina and Pluhuv Bor.



minerals derived from granite. Cleaves et al. (1974) reported a similar value for net total cation supply at a serpentine catchment in a less-polluted area (281 $\text{mmol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$; Soldiers Delight, Maryland, USA). Total deposition of S at Lysina ($93 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$) and at Pluhuv Bor (73 $\text{mmol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$) was calculated according to the proportion of forested and open area of the catchment (Table 1) using throughfall and bulk precipitation fluxes (Table 6). Total input of SO_4^{2-} was similar to stream outflow of SO_4^{2-} at Lysina, suggesting that transport of SO_4^{2-} was approximately conservative (Table 6). Sulfur output was about one third higher than the input at Pluhuv Bor suggesting export of previously stored S in the soil.

Soil processes

Strong relationships were evident between CEC and SOM for the Oa horizons of both sites (Lysina CEC ($\text{mmol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$) = $0.18 \cdot \text{SOM}(\%) + 11.39$, $r^2 = 0.55$; Pluhuv Bor CEC ($\text{mmol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$) = $0.74 \cdot \text{SOM}(\%) - 6.73$, $r^2 = 0.53$), which is indicative of the role of SOM in regulating CEC. The mineral soil at Lysina showed a strong relationship between CEC and SOM (CEC ($\text{mmol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$) = $0.75 \cdot \text{SOM}(\%) + 0.09$, $r^2 = 0.76$). In contrast, the mineral soil at Pluhuv Bor did not exhibit a significant relationship between CEC and SOM. This pattern may be due to: (1) greater contribution of clays to CEC at lower depths; (2) higher pH at lower depth, resulting in greater CEC of SOM and clay.

Soil chemical properties at the study sites clearly reflect the differences in lithology. Bedrock at Pluhuv Bor contains approximately 35 times the Mg as the Lysina granite (Table 2). The exchangeable Mg pool in Pluhuv Bor soils was 60 times the pool at Lysina, and exchangeable Mg concentrations were up to 1000 times greater (Tables 4, 5). In contrast, soil exchangeable K pools and concentrations were greater at Lysina, where the bedrock had a higher K content, than at Pluhuv Bor. Interestingly, exchangeable concentrations and pools of Ca were greater at Pluhuv Bor, despite the fact that Ca exists in only trace amounts in the bedrock. This may be due to retention of atmospherically-derived Ca within the soils at Pluhuv Bor and differences in soil pH. In the acidic soils at Lysina, there is an abundance of Al. Since Al competes effectively with Ca for exchange sites, levels of exchangeable Ca were low. At Pluhuv Bor, elevated soil pH limits Al concentrations in drainage waters. Thus, inputs of Ca may be retained in larger quantities at Pluhuv Bor, despite the fact that there is little in bedrock.

Organic matter decomposition in the forest floor and immobilization of DOC in the upper mineral soil were evident from soil solution patterns in DOC (Table 7). Differences in DOC concentrations between the study catchments were possibly related to differences in microbial activity, which may be influenced by composition of microorganisms, nutrient content in litter, pH,

and microclimate. There was an apparent decline in Ca^{2+} and K^{+} soil solution concentration with depth at Pluhuv Bor possibly reflecting uptake by forest vegetation. Dissolution of mineral soil pools of Ca and K was probably a minor input of these cations at Pluhuv Bor since concentrations in parent material are very low. Surprisingly no pattern in soil solution concentrations of Mg^{2+} were observed with depth at either site. Absence of a trend of Na^{+} with soil depth reflected its low importance in nutrient cycling.

Elevated Al concentrations in forest floor leachate could be the result of dissolution of minerals by naturally-occurring organic acids generated in the forest floor. Aluminum-bearing minerals occur in the forest floor because of physical processes as tree wind throw, frost heave, and upward movement of water (Lawrence et al. 1995; Geary & Driscoll 1996), bioturbation (burrowing), and vegetative cycling from the mineral soil (Lawrence et al. 1995; LaZerte & Scott 1996). Dissolution of Al in deeper mineral soil resulted in mean Al^T concentration of $120 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ at 80 cm depth at Lysina (Kram et al. 1995). Soil solution Ca/Al_i molar ratios at Lysina were near the critical value of 1.0 reported for trees (Cronan & Grigal 1995) (O horizon: range 0.98–4.1, mean 2.1, median 1.5; E horizon: range 1.5–4.0, mean 2.6, median 2.5). The soil water at Lysina may already be toxic, because the critical value of the Ca/Al_i ratio for Norway spruce may be as high as 1.8 (Cronan & Grigal 1995); 36% of the soil water samples at Lysina had Ca/Al_i ratios below 1.8. The forest floor was the primary rooting layer at Lysina even though its Ca/Al_i ratio was often below critical value of 1.8 for Norway spruce because of its high concentration of nutrients (Table 4). In contrast, Pluhuv Bor tended to have higher Ca/Al_i ratios in both horizons, with very few values below 3.0 (O hor.: 2.8–26.7, A hor. 4.5–35.4) and a relatively deep rooting layer, extending into the mineral soil. Sverdrup et al. (1994) proposed a critical value of 1.2 for the molar ratio (Ca + Mg + K)/Al_i. Soil waters were well above this critical value for this ratio (Lysina: O horizon: 3.2–6.6, E horizon 5.7–16.9; Pluhuv Bor: O horizon 54–177, A horizon 144–665).

Tree nutrition

Values of the elemental composition of spruce tissues may be compared to results from the Fichtelgebirge in Germany, about 70 km west of the Slavkov Forest. The Mg content of needles of Norway spruce at Lysina (Table 8) was similar to sites exhibiting decline at Oberwarmensteinach (13 mmol kg^{-1}), and lower than healthy sites at Wulfersreuth (33 mmol kg^{-1}) of the Fichtelgebirge (Schulze et al. 1989). These results reflect all age classes of needles composited and collected during the same month (July) in both mountains. The Ca content in foliage at Lysina was about 70% of values in Fichtelgebirge stands showing decline (100 mmol kg^{-1}) and only about

35% of the values reported for healthy trees. The N content of foliage at Lysina (960 mmol kg⁻¹) was slightly higher than values for both healthy and declining sites (800 mmol kg⁻¹) of Fichtelgebirge. The Al content in needles (needle age 0-4 years) at Fichtelgebirge was higher (2.5-8 mmol kg⁻¹) than in composite needle samples at Lysina (2.1 mmol kg⁻¹).

The composition of foliage and soil at Pluhuv Bor were similar to values reported by Kaupenjohann & Wilcke (1995) at a serpentine site at Zell in the Fichtelgebirge, Germany. The foliar content (current needles) were slightly lower for Mg (74 mmol kg⁻¹) and slightly higher for Ni (0.27 mmol kg⁻¹) for a 120-year old Norway spruce stand at Zell than at Pluhuv Bor.

Foliar concentrations of basic cations and N at Lysina and Pluhuv Bor are compared with deficiency and optimum concentrations and ratios proposed by several authors in Table 9. Magnesium in foliage was clearly deficient (40-50% of the critical values) at Lysina and K in foliage appeared to be deficient (70-85% of the critical values) at Pluhuv Bor. In contrast, foliar Ca was in the upper optimum range and foliar Mg exceeded upper optimum by 90% at Pluhuv Bor (Table 8).

The visible symptoms of needle-yellowing in the Fichtelgebirge spruce forests have been attributed to Mg deficiencies caused by nutritional imbalance associated with elevated inputs of N from atmospheric deposition (Schulze et al. 1989). The similarities observed for the composition of needles at Lysina and Fichtelgebirge, and the root Al content suggest that the Al-induced base cation deficiency postulated for the Fichtelgebirge may be relevant at Lysina as well. There is not yet evidence of widespread decline of the relatively young and vigorous spruce forest at Lysina. However, the symptoms of yellowing of older needles and canopy thinning of old spruce stands may be linked with the unusually low Mg content of foliage and high Al content in soil solutions, and fine roots. The spruce forest at Lysina showed typical symptoms of decline by needle yellowing attributed to Mg deficiency (Moravčík 1995). Foliar chlorosis can be attributed to excessive removal of Mg from older needles to supply new needles. The chlorosis of foliage at Lysina might be characterized as "Type 1 Norway spruce decline" which is caused by Mg deficiency and possibly Ca and Zn deficiency (Innes 1993).

The forest at Pluhuv Bor showed no visible symptoms of decline (e.g. apparent discoloration). Nevertheless, the annual increment of wood bole biomass of spruce was unusually low at Pluhuv Bor, only about 35% of the increment observed at Lysina when comparing individual trees in approximately 120 year old stands. Foliar reddening of Norway spruce was found at some low elevation sites on Cambisols (brown forest soils) with high Mg and neutral pH in Germany. This nutrient imbalance, called "Type 3 Norway spruce decline", may be attributed to K deficiency (Innes 1993). Despite of the

Table 9. Range of foliage deficiency and optimum concentrations for Norway spruce in comparison with measured values (arithmetic average and standard deviation) at Lysina (n = 12) and Pluhuv Bor (n = 12).

Element	Deficiency concentration ^{†,‡} (mass%)	Deficiency concentration (mmol kg ⁻¹)	Optimum concentration ^{§,†} (mass%)	Optimum concentration (mmol kg ⁻¹)	Concentration at Lysina (mmol kg ⁻¹)	Concentration at Pluhuv Bor (mmol kg ⁻¹)
N	<1-1.3	<710-930	1.7-2.4	1200-1700	960 (200)	860 (87)
K	<0.4-0.45	<100-120	0.5-1.3	130-330	141 (27)	84 (4)
Ca	<0.1-0.2	<25-50	0.03-0.68	8-170	70 (32)	160 (31)
Mg	<0.06-0.08	<25-33	0.07-0.14	29-58	13 (6)	110 (18)
N:K			1-3	3-8	7	10
N:Ca			2-7	5.7-20	14	5.4
N:Mg			8-30	14-52	74	8

[†] after Zech et al. 1985

[‡] after Zoetl et al. 1989

[§] after Innes 1993

low K concentrations only 3–4% of spruce needles at Pluhuv Bor exhibited browning. Thus, Moravčík (1995) attributed this discoloration only to natural senescence of older needles. Magnesium and trace metal toxicity have been noted on serpentine sites; high Mg saturation of the exchange complex can limit the availability of other nutrient cations, such as Ca and K (Roberts & Proctor 1992). However, the availability of Ca did not appear to be inhibited at Pluhuv Bor (Table 9). Foliar concentration of Ni (0.2 mmol kg^{-1}) was about twice the critical level which could have a detrimental effect on spruce growth at Pluhuv Bor (Innes 1993).

Depletion of basic cations

Elevated inputs of acidic deposition may facilitate the depletion of basic cations from forest soils, resulting in soil acidification and potentially altering the function of forest ecosystems. If inputs of strong acids, on an equivalence basis, exceed the rate of supply of basic cations through weathering, depletion of exchangeable cations may occur. If strong acid inputs exceed both weathering release and net exchange of basic cations, increases in the concentrations of H^+ and/or Al^+ in drainage water will result. Assimilation of Ca, Mg and K by forest vegetation, which may be enhanced by from elevated inputs of atmospheric N, can also deplete soil pools of exchangeable basic cations on sites with slow weathering rates (Binkley & Richter 1987). There is evidence of depletion of available pools of basic cations from soil in regions impacted by acidic deposition. Bailey et al. (1996) concluded that about two-thirds of the net export of Ca at the Cone Pond watershed in New Hampshire, USA, was due to depletion of labile Ca pools. Likens et al. (1996) suggested that similar depletion of basic cations occurred at nearby Hubbard Brook.

Our observations of a strong positive relationship between concentrations of Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} in streamwater at Lysina are suggestive of depletion of exchangeable basic cations from the soil exchange complex due to SO_4^{2-} leaching. By 1993, soils in the Lysina catchment showed very low concentrations and pools of exchangeable basic cations. Thus, continued high inputs of H^+ and SO_4^{2-} from atmospheric deposition, coupled with a slow rate of basic cation supply from weathering, has resulted in highly acidic soil water and the mobilization of available soil Al. Indeed, Al concentrations in streamwater at Lysina are among the highest values reported in the literature (Homung et al. 1990; Hruška & Kram 1994a, b; Driscoll & Postek 1995). Podzolization processes and vegetation uptake of nutrients undoubtedly also influence the leaching of basic cations from the soil at Lysina. Because the BS is very low in the mineral soil and sites of the soil exchanger are largely occupied by Al, there is little potential for further depletion. Recovery of exchangeable basic cation pools is likely to be slow because weathering release at Lysina is very slow,

and basic cations compete poorly for exchange sites with Al, which currently occupies 78% of the available exchange sites.

In contrast to Lysina, Pluhuv Bor soils showed large concentrations and pools of exchangeable Mg due to the weathering of the serpentinite. The BS of the mineral soil was high and soil pH was near neutral. This pool of exchangeable Mg provides a large buffer capacity against inputs of strong acids. Stream concentrations of basic cations at Pluhuv Bor showed marked temporal variations associated with changes in discharge, but no dependence on concentrations of sulfate. The pattern of dilution of basic cations with increasing discharge suggests that temporal changes in hydrologic flowpaths are important in regulating changes in concentrations of basic cations. Under low-flow conditions, drainage water is largely derived from deeper flowpaths and basic cations are supplied from weatherable minerals. Under higher flow conditions, streamwater is increasingly derived from shallow flowpaths and has less contact with weatherable minerals. The inverse relationship between concentrations of Mg^{2+} and other basic cations and SO_4^{2-} is consistent with this change in hydrologic flowpaths. As concentrations of basic cations are not coupled with SO_4^{2-} , it seems likely that the geochemistry of Pluhuv Bor has not been severely impacted by acidic deposition, despite the elevated inputs. In all streamwater samples, the Mg^{2+} concentration was higher than SO_4^{2-} . Only under the highest-flow conditions, when SO_4^{2-} concentrations were at a maximum, were the concentrations of Mg^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} nearly equal. Therefore, strong acid weathering of antigorite can not entirely explain the Mg losses. These patterns suggest that the dominant geochemical reaction in Pluhuv Bor soils is bicarbonate weathering of antigorite. Thus, we hypothesize that changes in acidic deposition may affect the level of solute concentrations at Pluhuv Bor, but should have little effect on stream pH and ANC.

Conclusions

The major conclusions of this comparative study are as follows:

1. Different effects of acidic atmospheric deposition can clearly be seen at the two contrasting catchments. The similar inputs of acidic deposition coincided with very different patterns in the biogeochemistry of basic cations at the sites.
2. Soils developed in the slow weathering granite catchment showed small pools of exchangeable basic cations, and low soil, soil solution, and stream pH. Weathering and exchange processes at Lysina were unable to neutralize the high inputs of atmospheric acidity, resulting in elevated

stream H^+ and Al^{3+} concentrations. Visible symptoms of forest decline by needle yellowing was probably caused by Mg deficiency at Lysina.

3. The Pluhův Bor catchment, underlain with the faster weathering serpentine, showed extremely large pools of exchangeable Mg but smaller pools of other basic cations. Exchangeable concentrations and pools of soil Ca were larger at Pluhův Bor, despite the fact that Ca was found only in trace amounts in the serpentine. Interestingly, foliar Ca was in the upper optimum range in Norway spruce. Much of the Ca is probably returned to the soil via canopy leaching and litterfall. Slow tree growth appears to be caused by K deficiency, Mg oversupply and/or Ni toxicity at Pluhův Bor.

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