1	Long-term effects of changing atmospheric pollution on throughfall, bulk deposition
2	and streamwaters in a Mediterranean forest
3	
4	
5	Laura Aguillaume ¹ , Anselm Rodrigo ^{1,2} , Anna Avila ^{1,2*}
6	
7	¹ CREAF, Cerdanyola del Vallès 08193, Spain.
8	² Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Cerdanyola del Vallès 08193, Spain.
9	*Corresponding author, Anna Avila: <u>anna.avila@uab.cat;</u> Tel: 935814669 ; Fax: +34935814151
10	Laura Aguillaume: aguillaume.laura@gmail.com
11	Anselm Rodrigo: <u>anselm.rodrigo@uab.cat</u>
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	This is the author's version of a work that was accepted for publication in Science of the total environment (Ed. Elsevier). Changes resulting from the publishing process, such
22	as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms may not be reflected in this document. Changes may have been made to
23	this work since it was submitted for publication. A definitive version was subsequently published in Aguillaume, L., Rodrigo A. and Àvila, A. "Long-term effects of changing
24	atmospheric pollution on throughfall, bulk deposition and streamwaters in a Mediterranean forest" in Science of the total environment, vol. 544 (Feb. 2016), p. 919- 928. DOI 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.12.017"

25 Abstract

The abatement programs implanted in Europe to reduce SO₂, NO₂ and NH₃ emissions are here evaluated by analysing the relationships between emissions in Spain and neighbouring countries and atmospheric deposition in a Mediterranean forest in the Montseny Mountains (NE Spain) for the last 3 decades. A canopy budget model was applied to throughfall data measured during a period of high emissions (1995-1996) and a period of lower emissions (2011-2013) to estimate the changes in dry deposition over this time span.

Emissions of SO₂ in Spain strongly decreased (77%) and that was reflected in reductions for $nssSO_4^{2-}$ in precipitation (65% for concentrations and 62% for $SO_4^{2-}S$ deposition). A lower decline was found for dry deposition (29%).

Spanish NO₂ emissions increased from 1980 to 1991, remained constant until 2005, and decreased thereafter, a pattern that was paralleled by NO₃⁻ concentrations in bulk precipitation at Montseny. This pattern seems to be related to a higher share of renewable energies in electricity generation in Spain in recent years. However, dry deposition increased markedly between 1995 and 2012, from 1.3 to 6.7 kg ha⁻¹y⁻¹. Differences in meteorology between periods may have had a role, since the recent period was drier thus probably favouring dry deposition.

43 Spanish NH_3 emissions increased by 13% between 1980 and 2012 in Spain but NH_4^+ 44 concentrations in precipitation and NH_4^+ -N deposition showed a decreasing trend (15% 45 reduction) at Montseny, probably linked to the reduction ammonium sulphate and 46 nitrate aerosols to be scavenged by rainfall. NH_4^+ -N dry deposition was similar between 47 the compared periods.

The N load at Montseny (15-17 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) was within the critical load range proposed for Mediterranean sclerophyllous forests (15-17.5 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹). The onset of N saturation is suggested by the observed increasing N export in streamwaters.

51

Key-words: Emission reductions, Atmospheric deposition, Nitrogen, Sulfate, Throughfall,
Canopy.

54 1. Introduction

55 High atmospheric deposition of sulphur (S) and nitrogen (N) in the last century has lead to the acidification and eutrophication of many terrestrial ecosystems in Europe and 56 57 North America, peaking in the 1970-1980 (Aber et al., 1998; EC, 2001; Reuss and Johnson, 1986). To counteract these adverse effects, transboundary amendment 58 59 programs were launched by the Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution (CLRTAP) in the frame of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE, 60 2011). Upon the implementation of national emission limits, significant declines were 61 observed since the mid 1980s in SO₂ emissions and S in precipitation in Europe (Tørseth 62 et al., 2012). Nitrogen emissions were also significantly reduced in many European 63 countries, although higher variability was found among regions and the changes were 64 different for oxidized or reduced N (Fagerli and Aas, 2008; Konovalov et al., 2008; 65 Lövblad et al., 2004). A summary of the major results following the implementation of 66 67 pollution control measures can be found in Grennfelt and Hov (2005). Concerning Spain, SO₂ emissions were readily cut, but the country still exceeded in 2012 the NO_x and NH₃ 68 emissions ceilings for 2010, established at 847 and 353 Gg respectively (EC, 2001). The 69 link between emissions, air concentrations and deposition is complex because of the 70 interplay of the meteorological conditions, the chemical interaction between pollutants 71 in the atmosphere and the spatial scale of the region of influence. In this sense non-72 73 linearities have been found between emission reductions and the decline in rainwater 74 concentration (Fowler et al., 2007).

75

76 Dry deposition of airborne pollutants makes also a significant contribution to the 77 atmospheric load of most ecosystems. However, long time records of changes in dry 78 deposition for the last decades are scarce. Changes in dry deposition have also been 79 found to change non-linearly with emissions (Fowler et al. 2005). This has been 80 attributed to the fact that for SO_2 , the deposition velocity (V_d) is controlled by the NH_3/SO_2 ratio, where SO_2 deposition increases as leaf pH raises in response to NH_3 81 82 deposition (Erisman et al., 1998; Fowler et al., 2001). Thus, dry deposition will not only 83 depend on SO₂ concentrations, but also on its relative abundance respect to NH₃. Also, declining air SO₂ concentrations will affect the partitioning of gaseous NH₃ and 84

particulate NH_4^+ , which in turn will affect the spatial range affecting deposition, since NH₃ will tend to be locally deposited while fine-sized NH_4^+ -sulfate aerosols have a longer residence time in the atmosphere and will be mostly transported to longer distances (van Jaarsveld et al., 2000).

89

Throughfall (TF), the water flux collected under the forest canopy, has been widely used 90 91 to provide an estimation of dry deposition (De Vries et al., 2003; Lindberg and Lovett, 1992). However, throughfall does not truly represent total deposition, since it also is 92 93 affected by chemical exchanges at the canopy level (Parker, 1983). When using 94 throughfall measurements to derive dry deposition fluxes, a distinction has to be made 95 between dry deposition and canopy exchange processes. These include the leaching of elements from internal plant pools and/or the uptake by the canopy of gases or 96 97 dissolved solutes (Lovett and Lindberg, 1984; Schaefer and Reiners, 1990). To sort this 98 out, a canopy budget model has been widely used (Draaijers and Erisman, 1995; 99 Staelens et al., 2008) and will be here applied to estimate dry deposition from throughfall measurements. 100

101 The Iberian Peninsula, in the south-western corner of the European continent, is 102 influenced by air masses from contrasting provenances. Five main air mass movements 103 have been established based on the frequency of back trajectories: 1) European or 104 continental, 2) from the Atlantic Ocean, 3) from North Africa, 4) from the 105 Mediterranean, 5) from shorter pathways, as recirculating air masses over the Iberian 106 Peninsula (Calvo et al., 2012; Escudero et al., 2007; Izquierdo et al., 2012). A cluster 107 classification of daily back-trajectories for the periods 1984-1993 and 1998-2009 108 indicated that the most frequent air flows at the Montseny mountains in NE Spain were 109 from the Atlantic Ocean (39 and 31% for the two study periods) and the Peninsular 110 recirculation (27-25%). Thus, the major air pollution influence at the north-east coast of 111 Spain may be from emissions from the Iberian Peninsula itself. However, during winter, 112 a good correlation was observed between air masses from the Mediterranean and NO₃⁻ 113 deposition (Izquierdo et al., 2014). Also, source receptor models indicated the influence 114 of emissions from eastern provenances on the rain chemical composition in NE Spain 115 (Izquierdo et al., 2012).

117 The aim of this work is to examine the relationships between S and N emissions in Spain 118 and neighbouring countries from the early 1980s to 2014 and rain concentrations and deposition at a site in the NE of the Iberian Peninsula, in order to check whether the 119 abatement measures implemented by CLRTAP protocols are reflected in reduced 120 deposition. This has been undertaken by comparing the evolution of bulk deposition 121 trends at a rural forested site (La Castanya, Montseny) in NE Spain and the evolution of 122 emissions in the Iberian Peninsula, France, Italy and the totals for the European Union 123 (EU28) for this period. Previous studies have documented a SO_4^{2-} decrease in bulk 124 deposition in NE Spain (Avila, 1996; Avila and Rodà, 2002); here we expand these 125 studies for a longer time series and incorporate the examination of changes in dry 126 127 deposition. Changes in dry deposition along the last 3 decades cannot be traced in NE Spain because of the lack of a continuous monitoring scheme for dry deposition. 128 129 However, throughfall measurements in two contrasting periods over this time span (in 130 1995-1996, a period of high emissions and in 2011-2013, a period of lower emissions) 131 can provide and insight on dry deposition changes, particularly for S.

132

Several studies have reported changes in surface stream water chemistry after reduction of pollutant emissions in temperate forests in central and north Europe and North America (Driscoll et al., 1998; Evans et al., 2007; Skjelkvåle et al., 2005). This paper also tackles this issue by exploring the response at the ecosystem level of emissions reductions, by studying changes in streamwater chemistry for a stream draining an undisturbed forested catchment representing a typical Mediterranean forest.

140

141 **2. Material and methods**

142 **2.1. Study site**

The study site was located in La Castanya valley (LC, 41º46'N, 2º21'E, 700 m.a.s.l), within the Montseny mountains (Fig.1) about 40km NNE from Barcelona and 25km from the Mediterranean coast. Dominant vegetation is a closed-canopy forest of holm-oak (Quercus ilex L.). Forests at La Castanya valley were exploited in the past for charcoal production, but these activities were abandoned about 60 years ago and the forest is increasing in biomass (Rodà et al., 1999). The upper part of La Castanya valley comprises a belt of beech forest at 1100-1200m, while heathlands and grasslands extend above this altitude up to 1350m. Dominant lithology is metamorphic schist and phyllite. Soils are shallow with an organic layer 0-5cm deep and an average total depth of 60 cm (Hereter and Sánchez, 1999). Soils are classified as Entisols or Inceptisols (Soil Survey Staff 1992).

153 Climate is meso-Mediterranean sub-humid, with a clear seasonal cycle of higher 154 precipitation in spring and summer. Variability among years is very high (Fig. 2). At the 155 LC station, mean precipitation from 1983 to 2014 was 862mm y⁻¹ (range from 518 to 1601 mm y⁻¹; Fig. 2) and mean air temperature $9.5^{\circ}C$.

This site is considered as a rural background station that is topographically sheltered to some extent from air pollution from the Barcelona metropolitan area. However, during the warm half of the year diurnal sea-land breezes carry pollution from the coast and lowland plains to the upper Montseny slopes, where LC lies, by midday (Pérez et al., 2008).Besides, long-range pollutant transport also influences atmospheric deposition at this site (Izquierdo et al., 2012).

Stream discharge was recorded in a stream named Torrent de la Mina (TMO) which is gauged with a 120° V-notch weir. This catchment has a surface of 205 ha and comprises two distinct zones: an upper plateau with grassland and heathlands (30% of the catchment) and holm-oak forests covering the steep slopes that conform the rest of the catchment (Fig 1).

168

169 **2.2. Field sampling**

170 Open field measurements

Weekly bulk deposition samples were obtained from August 1983 to August 2014 (interrupted from September 2000 to March 2002). Wet-only deposition (ESM Andersen instruments) was sampled in parallel to bulk deposition during 2008-2013 but because of the longer bulk deposition record, we will deal here with bulk deposition 175 data for the comparison of emissions and deposition trends. Bulk/wet deposition 176 collectors, a rain tipping bucket gauge and a meteorological station (Campbell with CR1000 data logger) were located at a clearing in the forest close to the throughfall 177 178 plots (Open field sites, Fig. 1). The open field measurements were located at site LC1 since August 1983 to September 2000. Since March 2002, they were located at site LC2 179 180 (Fig. 1), about 850 m distant from the first site. Bulk collectors consisted on 19-cmdiameter funnels connected by a looping tygon tube to a 10-L polyethylene bottle for 181 182 the period 1983-2010. In 2011, NILU-type (Norwegian Institute for Air Research) funnels 183 were used and a plastic membrane was fitted in the funnels neck which connected to a 2-L polyethylene bottle. Funnels were directly connected to the bottles, which were 184 185 kept in the dark to avoid the growth of microorganisms. Four (1983-1996) and two 186 (1997-2014) replicate collectors were used.

187 Throughfall measurements

The throughfall chemistry was sampled in two periods separated by a 15-year span: the 188 189 first one, in 1995-1996, took place during a period of still high emissions in Spain while 190 the second one, in 2011-2013, corresponded to a period of much lower emissions. To 191 characterize the throughfall chemistry in the first period we used throughfall data 192 measured in two plots in Montseny from June 1995 to June 1996 (Table 1). One plot was 193 located at La Castanya valley facing to the north (LC1, Fig 1). The second plot was at Riera de Sant Pere (RP1) 8 km apart from La Castanya, in the Montseny slopes that face 194 195 to SW and had a similar aspect to that of the LC2 throughfall plot. It was considered that the averaged throughfall composition of RP1 and LC1 better represented the canopy 196 197 changes on incident precipitation in the early period. Throughfall collectors in this 198 period consisted of a 10-cm funnel connected to a 2-L bottle, kept in the dark (Rodrigo 199 et al., 2003). Throughfall in the period March 2011-March 2013, was sampled in location 200 LC2, using 12 collectors of NILU-funnel type. Details on the forest structure of the 3 201 throughfall sampling sites are given in Table 1. Although differences in location will 202 introduce uncontrolled spatial variation in throughfall measurements, the plots had a 203 similar forest structure: they formed a continuous closed monospecific canopy of holm-204 oak submitted to similar climate, although the difference in aspect may have some 205 effect. A review of the rainfall partitioning by vegetation in Mediterranean conditions has shown that the forest structural parameters that mostly influence throughfall are
age, height, diameter at breast height (DBH) and basal area (Llorens and Domingo,
2007). Differences in some of these variables between the plots were small (Table 1)
and probably within the error of regressions provided by Llorens and Domingo (2007).
Further details on throughfall field sampling can be found in Rodrigo et al. (2003) and
Aguillaume (2015).

For bulk deposition and throughfall, volume weighted mean (VWM) concentrations were calculated based on weekly samples weighted by weekly precipitation volume. The corresponding fluxes were obtained by multiplying annual VWMs by annual precipitation/throughfall volume and are expressed as kg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹, except for H⁺ and alkalinity, in eq ha⁻¹ y⁻¹.

Non sea salt sulphate (nss SO_4^{2-}) concentrations in bulk deposition (BD) were calculated as:

219 nss
$$SO_4^{2-}BD = SO_4^{2-}BD - (Na_{BD}^+ * 0.12),$$

220 where
$$SO_4^{2^-}$$
 sea salt / Na^+ sea salt = 0.12 (Drever, 1982)

221 Streamwater measurements

Streamwater was collected from a stream draining a 200 ha catchment named Torrent de la Mina (TMO) within the La Castanya valley (Fig. 1). The recording period for discharge and streamwater chemistry comprised an initial (1990 to 1999) and a recent period (2010 to 2014). Water level was measured with an OTT $^{\text{M}}$ water level recorder in the initial period and with a pressure probe (Schlumburger Water Services) in the recent one. Annual discharge ranged between 150 and 888 mm y⁻¹ (Fig. 2).

Grab samples of stream water were collected with an approximate weekly schedule from a sampling point upstream from the stilling pond. They were collected in highdensity polyethylene 250-mL bottles after a previous triple rinse with stream water.

231 We calculated annual VWM for bulk precipitation and stream waters, expressed in μ eq 232 L⁻¹ for hydrological water years defined from 1 September. For throughfall, a more restricted data record obliged to consider different annual periods (June 1995 to June
1996 in the initial and March 2011 to March 2013 for the recent period).

For the stream waters, we first calculated annual fluxes (F, in kg ha- 1 y⁻¹) by:

236
$$F = \sum_{i=1}^{N} C(t_i) * Q[T_i]$$
 (1)

Where C (t_i) is the instantaneous concentration of the studied elements at time t_i (in mg L⁻¹) and $Q[T_i]$ is the discharge (in L) for the period T_i = ($\tau_i - \tau_{i-1}$), with $\tau_{i-1} < t_i < \tau_i$, and N is the number of samples taken during the whole year. To give the annual VWM concentrations, fluxes were divided by the accumulated stream discharge for the year.

241 Several works have attempted to determine the best unbiased estimate of flow-242 weighted solute concentrations and fluxes, since the appropriateness of the estimate 243 depends on the frequency of sampling related to the duration of stormflows 244 (Rekolainen et al., 1991; Stone et al., 2000; Swistock et al., 1997). Calculations based on 245 weekly sampling and the water flow corresponding to each one of the samples, the 246 procedure used here, have been recommended as a compromise between the effort of sampling and the accuracy of the estimate. The accuracy of estimates with this 247 procedure has been found to lie within 10% of expected values (Rekolainen et al., 1991; 248 249 Stone et al., 2000; Swistock et al., 1997).

250

251 2.3. Chemical analyses

252 Samples were taken to the laboratory and were analyzed for pH, conductivity and alkalinity within 24-48 h from sampling. Samples were filtered with 0.45µm size pore 253 acetate cellulose membrane filters and 60-mL aliquots were frozen until analysis. 254 Concentrations of Na⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ were measured by ion 255 256 chromatography (Dionex, Sunnyvale, USA). Data quality was checked with the inclusion of 257 synthetic samples of known ionic concentrations during analytical runs. The quality of 258 the analytical data was checked by a: 1) conductivity index (ratio of measured conductivity to conductivity calculated from the concentration of all measured ions and 259 260 their specific conductivities), 2) an ionic index (ratio of the sum of cations to the sum of anions). For bulk and wet deposition, a 20% variation about the central index value (1.00) was accepted, according to the ICP-Forest manual (ICP-Forest Manual, 1998). Because TF contains weak acids that may not have been included in our alkalinity measurements, we did not impose the 20% restriction about the central value to throughfall ionic index checks. Further analytical checks were undertaken by participating in international comparisons (AQUACON Med-Bas, Mosello et al., 1998), with highly satisfactory results.

268 2.4. Canopy budget method

To separate canopy exchange from dry deposition, a Canopy Budget Model (CBM) has 269 270 been generally used (Draaijers and Erisman, 1995; Staelens et al., 2008; Adriaenssens et 271 al., 2012). The CBM is based on the following balance between fluxes above and below 272 the canopy: TF+SF = PD + DD + CE, where TF stands for throughfall, SF for stemflow, PD for Precipitation Deposition, DD for Dry Deposition and CE for Canopy Exchange. Canopy 273 274 exchange, if positive, indicates the leaching of ions from the canopy (CL), and if negative, the uptake of ions (CU). Stemflow at the LC site contributed only 3% of total rainfall 275 (Rodrigo et al., 2003) and because of its small contribution, SF fluxes have not been 276 277 considered here. Then,

278 TF-PD = net TF = DD+CE

279 In this procedure, dry deposition is estimated based on a tracer ion that is assumed not 280 to be influenced by canopy exchange processes and assuming that aerosols containing 281 the other ions of interest have a similar deposition behaviour than the ion chosen as reference (Ulrich, 1983). Here Na⁺ was used as an inert tracer as recommended in 282 several studies (Staelens et al., 2008) to derive DD for base cations, SO₄²⁻ and Cl⁻. To 283 characterise PD, either wet or bulk deposition can be used, but using wet deposition will 284 285 result in the estimation of fine plus coarse aerosol dry deposition, while bulk deposition 286 would mostly indicate dry deposition of fine aerosols (Balestrini et al., 2007); thus wet 287 deposition is used here.

Nitrogen compounds can be taken up in the canopy (Boyce et al., 1996; Ignatova and Dambrine, 2000) and there is a need to estimate this flux in order to derive dry

deposition. To estimate nitrogen canopy uptake (CU), we considered that NH₄⁺ uptake 290 can be equated to the net leaching of base cations, and NO₃ is considered to be 291 retained at a fixed efficiency rate related to NH_4^+ . To balance the charges, NO_3^- uptake is 292 then equated to H⁺ uptake (Staelens et al., 2008; Adriaenssens et al., 2012). It is well 293 known that NH_4^+ is preferentially retained by leaves relative to NO_3^- and an efficiency 294 factor of 6 for $NH_4^+ vs NO_3^-$ uptake has been proposed for forests in Europe (de Vries et 295 al., 2003; Schmitt et al., 2005; Thimonier et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2006) and will be also 296 297 applied here:

$$CU(\text{NH4} + \text{NO3}) = \left(\frac{xNH4 * (TF)\text{NH4} + (TF)\text{NO3}}{xNH4 * (TF)\text{NH4}}\right) * CU(\text{NH4})$$

298 with x=6.

299 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

Air pollution emissions per country were obtained from the EMEP database site:
 http://www.ceip.at/ms/ceip home1/ceip home/webdab emepdatabase/reported emissiondata/).

Local urban NO_x air concentration data was obtained from the Catalan Air Quality network for Barcelona (Gràcia station; Direcció General de QualitatAmbiental, Generalitat de Catalunya). Data from electricity generation in Spain were downloaded from Red Eléctrica Española (<u>http://ree.es/es/publicaciones</u>).

306 Mann-Kendall test were used to analyze trends in emissions for the years reported by 307 EMEP (1980-2012), and for bulk deposition measured at Montseny (1983-2014). Sen's 308 slope estimator was used to indicate the rate of change, a robust method for estimating 309 the true slope of a linear trend (Gilbert, 1987). Stream water concentration and fluxes 310 presented a non-continuous record which prevented using the Mann-Kendall tests, thus differences between an initial (1990-1999) and recent period (2010-2014) were tested 311 312 with ANOVA tests. Percent changes for emissions and bulk deposition were also 313 recalculated for the same years of streamwater data for a more accurate comparison. 314 Stepwise regressions were used to determine principal contributors to N and S rain concentrations and deposition at Montseny. 315

317 3. Results

318 **3.1. Changes in emissions**

The evolution of emissions in Spain and its neighbouring countries can be seen in Fig. 3. The significance of the trends was checked with the Mann-Kendall test and percent reductions or increases were calculated comparing 5-year averages at the beginning and the end of the reported periods. The significance of the Mann-Kendall Tau, and the % difference between the 5-yr initial and recent period are shown in Table 2.

324 Sulfur dioxide reductions were similar in all countries, decreasing between 75 and 85%. For NO₂, Italy and France accomplished higher reductions (51 and 42% respectively) 325 326 than Spain and Portugal (34 and 32%). In all countries except Spain, the Mann-Kendall 327 Tau was significant for NO₂ (Table 2). The evolution of emissions in France and Italy showed a change of trend in the early 1990s with a clear declining evolution thereafter 328 329 (Fig 2). For Spain, there was an increasing trend until the early 1990s, emissions remained stable at high levels until around 2005, and since 2006 a sharp declining trend 330 331 was initiated (Fig 3).

332

For NH_3 , Spain and France increased emissions by 13% and 1%, respectively, while NH_3 emission declined in Italy and Portugal (Table 2).

335

336 3.2. Relationship of rain and throughfall chemistry with emissions

Rain concentrations are strongly influenced by precipitation amounts. The time trend of annual precipitation did not show a significant pattern during the study period (Fig. 2). Hence, trends in element concentrations in precipitation, though partly influenced by the variability of the rainfall amount, were probably more influenced by atmospheric emission and transport processes.

The temporal evolution of $SO_4^{2^-}$, NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ VWM concentrations in bulk deposition at Montseny are compared to SO_2 , NO_2 , and NH_3 , Spanish emissions in Figs. 4a, b and c, respectively. Pearson regression analysis indicated that $SO_4^{2^-}$ VWM concentrations were strongly correlated with the Iberian Peninsula (sum of Portuguese and Spanish) SO_2 emissions (Pearson R=0.85; p<0.0001), with France and Italy emissions (both R=0.82

p<0.0001) and with the EU28 emissions as a whole (R=0.65; p=0.0002). SO_4^{2-} -S 347 deposition fluxes at Montseny were also highly correlated with emissions (Pearson R 348 significant to p<0.001 for the Iberian Peninsula, France, Italy and the EU28). Thus, the 349 effective widespread measures undertaken in Europe since the early 1980 to reduce SO₂ 350 emissions have been translated into a reduction in precipitation SO_4^{2-} concentrations and 351 S deposition fluxes. However, the rate of reduction was not proportional: while SO₂ 352 emissions were reduced around 80% (Table 2), SO₄²⁻ concentrations and S fluxes were 353 only reduced by 55-63% when comparing the values in 1995-1996 to those in 2011-2013 354 (Tables 3 and 4). 355

356 The evolution of NO₂ Spanish emissions from 1980 to 2014 showed different phases: an 357 increase from 1980 to 1991, a plateau around 1400 Gg NO₂ from 1992 to 2005, and a 358 decrease thereafter (Fig 4b). However, when breaking the series considering 2005 as a tipping year, a significant increase occurred in the first period (p<0.001; Sen slope = 17.9 359 Gg y⁻¹), and a significant decrease from 2005 on (p=0.003, Sen slope= -78 Gg y⁻¹). 360 Similarly, nitrate VWM in bulk precipitation at Montseny increased until 2005 and 361 362 decreased thereafter, being significantly correlated with the Iberian Peninsula NO_2 emissions (Pearson R=0.66; p<0.0001), but not correlated to France, Italy or the EU28 363 NO₂ emissions (p>0.05). Mann-Kendall trend test indicated a significant increasing trend 364 until 2005 (p=0.001, Sen slope= 0.51 μ eq L⁻¹ y⁻¹), and a decrease for the second period 365 (p=0.019) at a rate of -1.65 μ eq L⁻¹ y⁻¹ (Fig. 4b). When considering emissions for the 366 whole EMEP record (1980 to 2012), neither NO₂ emissions nor NO₃-concentrations 367 368 showed a significant pattern (p= 0.26 and 0.18, respectively).

No significant correlation was found between NO_3 -N fluxes at Montseny and emissions, except for Spanish NO_2 emissions (p=0.014).

The relevance of the different contributions to NO_3^- VWM concentrations was tested with a stepwise regression considering NO_2 emission data from EMEP (France, Italy, the Iberian Peninsula and the EU28) and a proxy of local emissions (near-ground NO_x air concentrations in the center of Barcelona from the Catalan Air Quality network) as independent variables. Precipitation amount was also included due to the marked dilution effect of rain on N concentrations (Prado-Fiedler, 1990). The model included precipitation (standardized coefficient B=-0.31; p=0.012); NO_x Barcelona emissions (B= 0.42; p=0.005) and Iberian Peninsula emissions (B=0.43; p=0.011). Correlation coefficient for this model was r=0.92. Thus, both local and national emissions strongly affect NO₃⁻ deposition in Montseny.

Spanish NH₃ emissions significantly increased between 1980 and 2012 (Table 2), but 381 NH4⁺ concentrations in bulk deposition did not show a significant temporal trend in this 382 383 period (p=0.26). From Fig. 4c it can be seen that emissions increased steadily until the 384 early 2000s and thereafter remained approximately stable. The correlation between Spanish NH₃ emissions and NH₄⁺ concentrations in bulk deposition was marginally 385 significant (R= 0.32; p=0.056), but the correlation increased when considering the 386 Iberian Peninsula emissions (R=0.36; p= 0.027). No correlations were found between 387 NH4⁺VWM concentrations in bulk deposition and Italian and France or the EU 28 NH3 388 emissions, nor for NH_4^+ -N fluxes and emissions of all the above considered countries. 389

390

391 Throughfall was sampled at two moments in this time series: the first (1995-1996) can 392 be taken to represent the period of high N emissions. The more recent one (2011-1013) 393 can be taken to represent the current situation, where SO₂ and NO_x emissions have been 394 reduced but NH₃ emissions still increase. Bulk deposition and throughfall VWM concentrations for these two periods are presented in Table 3. Non sea salt-SO₄²⁻ 395 396 concentrations in bulk deposition and throughfall declined between the two studied 397 periods (with reductions of 63 and 60% for bulk deposition and throughfall, 398 respectively). Changes in Spanish and the Iberian Peninsula SO₂ emissions during this 399 time span decreased by 72 and 76%, respectively.

Nitrate concentrations decreased in bulk deposition between periods but increased by 23% in throughfall (Table 3). Ammonium concentrations in bulk deposition and throughfall decreased between periods, with reductions of 46 and 72% for bulk deposition and throughfall (Table 3) while Spanish NH₃ emissions increased by 8% in this period. Since atmospheric ammonia is principally involved in neutralizing SO₂ to form ammonium sulfate aerosols, the strong decrease of SO₂ may have resulted in a reduced formation of ammonium aerosols and may have facilitated NH₃ dry deposition close to sources. However, the N changes in throughfall do not directly show the changes in dry
deposition, since N can be taken up at the canopy level (Ignatova and Dambrine, 2000;
Staelens et al., 2008). To deduce N dry deposition a canopy budget model was applied
which is commented below.

411

412 **3.3. Dry deposition fluxes derived from a canopy budget model**

The methodology used here has been recommended in ICP-Forest manual even though some uncertainties remain for the estimation of NO₃⁻-N exchanges and dry deposition (Adriaenssens et al., 2012; Staelens et al., 2008). Since the assumptions included in the model were identical for the two study periods, results may be comparable between periods. Bulk and wet deposition were recalculated to coincide with the throughfall periods (Table 4).

The changes for the element fluxes in wet deposition for the years of throughfall data also indicated strong declines for $SO_4^{2^-}$ -S (59%), NH_4^+ -N (54%) and NO_3^- -N (42%, Table 4). However, based on the CBM estimations, dry deposition decreased for $SO_4^{2^-}$ -S (28%) and NH_4^+ -N (5%) while it strongly increased for NO_3^- -N from 1.26 to 6.76 kg NO_3^- -N ha⁻¹y⁻¹ (Table 4). Thus, while in the first period, NH_4^+ -N accounted for most of total inorganic N dry deposition (94%), in the second it only accounted for 47%. Changes in meteorology between periods may explain part of these differences, as discussed below.

426 **3.4. Changes in streamwater chemistry**

We hypothesized that the described changes in N atmospheric deposition will be 427 428 transferred to the stream water, given the low residence time of water within this 429 catchment which makes it highly responsive to inputs (Bernal et al., 2013). Streamwater SO_4^{2-} concentrations decreased by 22% between an initial (1990-99) and a more recent 430 period (2010-2014, Table 5), a lower decline than that of deposition that suggests soil 431 sulphate retention. NO₃ concentrations in streamwater more than doubled (significant 432 to p<0.1) but the change in NO₃-N export was smaller due to the fact that fluxes result 433 434 from the product of concentrations by water export which was lower in the second 435 period. In Fig. 5, a clear change in the ecosystem response relative to N inputs is shown: 436 for similar dissolved inorganic N, (DIN = NO_3 -N + NH_4 -N) deposition, higher exports were 437 found in the more recent period (2010-2014), suggesting the onset of N saturation.

438 4. Discussion

Large changes in the emission of acidifying pollutants have been achieved in Europe 439 440 following the implementation of abatement measures in the 1980s. These measures are 441 costly and there is an interest in contrasting their long-term effectiveness regarding 442 changes in air quality, precipitation chemistry, atmospheric deposition and the response 443 of ecosystems. However, the link between emissions, concentrations and deposition is complex and non-linearities between emission reductions and precipitation 444 445 concentrations have been described (Fowler et al., 2005; 2007). Part of the lack of 446 correlation may be due to the influence of meteorological conditions, which may impose a high variability to the rain chemistry and deposition series, especially in the 447 448 Mediterranean because of its very high precipitation variability. However, long time series may reveal trends robust enough to describe the relationships between emissions 449 and deposition. Here, we compared a simultaneous record of 30 years of emissions and 450 precipitation chemistry and deposition at a site in NE Spain for a period encompassing 451 452 marked changes in S and N emissions (Figs. 2 and 3).

In this study we observed similar declines in SO₂ emissions in Spain (77%) than in neighbouring countries and the EU28 (75-85%, Table 3). However, the decline in nssSO₄²⁻concentrations in precipitation and SO₄²⁻-S deposition was lower (65% and 62%, respectively) than emissions. A similar pattern was found in a study of emission and deposition changes for 5 defined source regions in Europe for the period 1980-2000, in which the regions to which Spain belonged presented a 80% reduction in SO₂ emissions and 40-50% reduction in SO₄²-S deposition (Fowler et al., 2007).

For the period of common measures of wet deposition and throughfall, while S wet deposition decreased by *ca.* 60%, the estimated change in dry deposition between 1995-96 and 2011-13 was only 28% (Table 4), indicating a shift towards a higher contribution of dry deposition to total deposition (from 25 to 40%) at this site as SO₂ emissions are reduced. This may be explained by a drier meteorology in the second 465 period (30% less precipitation) but is also consistent with an increase in the SO_2 466 deposition velocity as ambient SO_2 concentrations are reduced (Fowler et al., 2001).

When considering total deposition amounts (wet + dry), a 55% decline was found. This decline in S deposition can translate through soils to drainage waters. A previous study of small headwater streams in the Montseny mountains indicated a 30% decrease of SO_4^{2-} concentration in streamwaters from 1980 to 2007 (Avila and Rodà, 2012). The results of the present work corroborate this trend by showing significant differences in streamwater SO_4^{2-} concentrations in the TMO stream, and about half S exports from the catchment in the recent period (Table 5).

474 The emissions of oxidized N declined by 32% in Spain, a higher reduction than model 475 estimates for the regions that include Spain in Fowler et al. (2007) which ranged 476 between a small 2% reduction and a 6% increase. Overall, from 1983 to 2014, NO3⁻ concentrations in precipitation and NO₃-N deposition slightly increased (3-4%). Nitrate 477 concentrations in precipitation were explained (R^2 = 0.92) by a model that included 478 variations in precipitation amount, local NO_x emissions in Barcelona, and emissions at a 479 Peninsular scale. Spanish NO₂ emissions from 1980 to 2013 showed a clear increasing 480 trend until 2005 and a steep decline thereafter and NO₃⁻ concentrations closely tracked 481 482 these changes (Fig. 3b). Main contributors to NO_x emissions in Spain are road transport (33%) and energy use + electricity supply for transport (60%; EEA 2012). Electricity 483 generation has shifted in recent years in Spain from coal and natural gas to a higher role 484 485 of renewable energies. NO₂ Spanish emissions closely tracked this change (linear correlation coefficient r= 0.94, p<0.001), suggesting the important role of electricity 486 generation on NO_x emissions and eventually in NO_3^- deposition. 487

Ammonia emissions increased by 13% in Spain between 1980 and 2012 (Table 2). However, NH_4^+ in precipitation and NH_4^+ -N deposition at the Montseny site showed a decreasing trend (15% reduction). This can be due to several processes and the interaction between them. Opposite time trends are involved in the formation of NH_4^+ aerosols (increasing NH_3 and decreasing SO_2 and NOx emissions): with declining SO_2 and NO_2 emissions in recent years there is a decreasing formation of ammonium sulphate and nitrate aerosols, thus lower NH_4^+ is available to be scavenged by precipitation and lower NH_4^+ in precipitation is expected. However, due to the reduced formation of aerosols, there are changes in the partitioning between NH_3/NH_4^+ and this may affect the residence time of NH_4^+ in the atmosphere and thus the spatial scale of NH_3/NH_4^+ deposition. Fine NH_4^+ aerosols are long-range transported so that decreasing SO_2 and NO_x emissions will tend to decrease NH_4^+ wet deposition at sites remote from sources, but enhance local dry deposition of NH_3 .

Dry deposition changes for N were estimated from throughfall measurements by 501 502 applying a canopy budget model that indicated increasing NO₃-N dry deposition (Table 503 4). A reason for this increase may be the very low initial throughfall NO_3 -N values in the 504 year 1995-1996, a period that was 30% rainier than usual, thus restraining the dry spells 505 for dry deposition. As a further check of the validity of the N dry deposition estimates, 506 we calculated dry deposition with the inferential method using a record of aerosol 507 concentrations and gases (HNO₃, NO₂, NH₃) at the La Castanya plot and taking their 508 deposition velocity (V_d) from reported values for forests. This estimation was only done for the 2012 period because of lack of gas measurements in the 1995 period. The 509 calculation produced a dry deposition estimate of 6.22 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for N-oxidized and 510 4.04 kg ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ of N-reduced forms which compared well with the dry deposition 511 estimate of NO₃⁻-N calculated with the CBM (6.76 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) but underestimated 512 NH_4^+ -N deposition by 50%. However, as a first approach, we can frame the dry 513 deposition in 2011-2013 for NO₃⁻-N and NH₄⁺-N in 6-7 kg ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ and 4-6 kg ha⁻¹yr⁻¹, 514 respectively. Total N deposition in both periods was similar (16-17 kg ha⁻¹yr⁻¹, Table 4), 515 516 but the contribution of the dry and wet modes varied between periods: while in 1995 dry and wet deposition fluxes were similar (around 50%), in the recent period dry 517 deposition dominated (75%). 518

519 Chronic addition of N amounts in the range of 15-17 kg ha⁻¹yr⁻¹ are within the critical 520 loads proposed for Mediterranean sclerophyllous forests (15-17.5 kgha⁻¹yr⁻¹; (Bobbink et 521 al., 2010). Thus, the holm oak forests in the NE Iberian Peninsula may be at the brink of 522 experiencing adverse effects. One way to explore the N status of an ecosystem is to 523 monitor the changes in the drainage waters of unperturbed catchments. At present, a 524 shift is observed towards higher N export.

525 **5. Conclusions**

Emissions of S in Spain, as in other European countries, have strongly decreased (77%) and that was reflected in reductions for $nssSO_4^{2-}$ concentrations in precipitation and $SO_4^{2-}S$ deposition (around 60%) during the period from 1980 to 2012. The observed lower decline (29%) in dry deposition was consistent with reports of lower SO_2 deposition velocity as ambient SO_2 is reduced.

NO₂ emissions in Spain increased from 1980 to 1991, remained constant until 2005, and decreased thereafter, a pattern that was paralleled by NO₃⁻ in bulk precipitation at Montseny. This pattern seems to be related to a shift in electricity generation from coal and natural gas to a higher role of renewable energies in Spain. However, dry deposition increased markedly in the recent period, from 1.3 to 6.7 kg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹. Differences between the 2 periods were probably related to differences in rainfall amount, since the latter period was drier and the contribution from dry deposition was higher.

538 NH₃ emissions have increased by a 13% between 1980 and 2014 in Spain but NH₄⁺ 539 concentrations in precipitation and NH₄⁺-N deposition at the Montseny site showed a 540 decreasing trend (15% reduction). We suggest that the reduction of SO₂ and NO_x 541 emissions precludes the formation of ammonium sulphate and nitrate aerosols to be 542 scavenged by rainfall. The estimations with a canopy budget model showed similar 543 NH₄⁺-N dry deposition between the compared periods.

The N loads at Montseny were in the range of 15-17 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, within the critical loads proposed for Mediterranean sclerophyllous forests (15-17.5 kg ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹; (Bobbink et al., 2010). The onset of N saturation at this Mediterranean holm oak forests is suggested since higher DIN export during the more recent period sampled was registered under similar DIN loads.

549

550 Acknowledgements

The financial support from the Spanish Government projects CGL2009-13188-C03-01 and MONTES-Consolider CSD-2008-00040 is fully acknowledged. LA was supported by the Ministry of Science and Innovation, Spanish Research Council (BES-2010-033274). We thank an anonymous reviewer for suggestions on the manuscript.

555 References

- Aber J, McDowell W, Nadelhoffer K, Magill A, Berntson G, Kamakea M, et al. Nitrogen saturation
 in temperate forest ecosystems. BioScience 1998: 921-934.
- Adriaenssens S, Staelens J, Wuyts K, Samson R, Verheyen K, Boeckx P. Retention of dissolved
 inorganic nitrogen by foliage and twigs of four temperate tree species. Ecosystems
 2012; 15: 1093-1107.
- 561Avila A. Time trends in the precipitation chemistry at a mountain site in northeastern Spain for562the period 1983–1994. Atmospheric environment 1996; 30: 1363-1373.
- Avila A, Rodà F. Assessing decadal changes in rainwater alkalinity at a rural Mediterranean site in
 the Montseny Mountains (NE Spain). Atmospheric environment 2002; 36: 2881-2890.
- Avila A, Rodà F. Changes in atmospheric deposition and streamwater chemistry over 25years in
 undisturbed catchments in a Mediterranean mountain environment. Science of the
 Total Environment 2012; 434: 18-27.
- Balestrini R, Arisci S, Brizzio MC, Mosello R, Rogora M, Tagliaferri A. Dry deposition of particles
 and canopy exchange: Comparison of wet, bulk and throughfall deposition at five forest
 sites in Italy. Atmospheric Environment 2007; 41: 745-756.
- Bernal S, Belillas C, Ibáñez J, Àvila A. Exploring the long-term response of undisturbed
 Mediterranean catchments to changes in atmospheric inputs through time series
 analysis. Science of the Total Environment 2013; 458: 535-545.
- Bobbink R, Hicks K, Galloway J, Spranger T, Alkemade R, Ashmore M, et al. Global assessment of
 nitrogen deposition effects on terrestrial plant diversity: a synthesis. Ecological
 applications 2010; 20: 30-59.
- 577 Boyce RL, Friedland AJ, Chamberlain CP, Poulson SR. Direct canopy nitrogen uptake from 15N578 labeled wet deposition by mature red spruce. Canadian Journal of Forest Research 1996;
 579 26: 1539-1547.
- Calvo A, Pont V, Olmo F, Castro A, Alados-Arboledas L, Vicente A, et al. Air masses and weather
 types: a useful tool for characterizing precipitation chemistry and wet deposition.
 Aerosol and Air Quality Research 2012; 12: 856-878.
- 583 De Vries W, Vel E, Reinds G, Deelstra H, Klap J, Leeters E, et al. Intensive monitoring of forest 584 ecosystems in Europe: 1. Objectives, set-up and evaluation strategy. Forest Ecology and 585 Management 2003; 174: 77-95.
- 586 Draaijers G, Erisman J. A canopy budget model to assess atmospheric deposition from 587 throughfall measurements. Water, Air, and Soil Pollution 1995; 85: 2253-2258.
- Drever JI. The geochemistry of natural waters. 126-128. Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs. N.
 Jersey, 1982.
- Driscoll C, Likens G, Church M. Recovery of surface waters in the northeastern US from
 decreases in atmospheric deposition of sulfur. Water, Air, and Soil Pollution 1998; 105:
 319-329.
- 593 EC. Directive 2001/81/EC, OJ L 309, 22–30, 27 November, 2001.
- 594 EEA. Air Quality in Europe-2012 Report. 2012
- Erisman J, Mennen M, Fowler D, Flechard C, Spindler G, Grüner A, et al. Deposition monitoring in
 Europe. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment 1998; 53: 279-295.
- Escudero M, Querol X, Avila A, Cuevas E. Origin of the exceedances of the European daily PM
 limit value in regional background areas of Spain. Atmospheric Environment 2007; 41:
 730-744.
- Evans C, Reynolds B, Hinton C, Hughes S, Norris D, Grant S, et al. Effects of decreasing acid
 deposition and climate change on acid extremes in an upland stream. Hydrology and
 Earth System Sciences Discussions Discussions 2007; 4: 2901-2944.

- Fagerli H, Aas W. Trends of nitrogen in air and precipitation: Model results and observations at
 EMEP sites in Europe, 1980–2003. Environmental Pollution 2008; 154: 448-461.
- Fowler D, Smith R, Muller J, Cape JN, Sutton M, Erisman JW, et al. Long term trends in sulphur
 and nitrogen deposition in Europe and the cause of non-linearities. Water, Air, & Soil
 Pollution: Focus 2007; 7: 41-47.
- Fowler D, Smith R, Muller J, Hayman G, Vincent K. Changes in the atmospheric deposition of
 acidifying compounds in the UK between 1986 and 2001. Environmental Pollution 2005;
 137: 15-25.
- Fowler D, Sutton M, Flechard C, Cape J, Storeton-West R, Coyle M, et al. The control of SO2 dry
 deposition on to natural surfaces by NH3 and its effects on regional deposition. Water,
 Air and Soil Pollution: Focus 2001; 1: 39-48.
- 614 Gilbert RO. Statistical Methods for Environmental Pollution Monitoring 1987. Van Nostrand 615 Reinhold. New York.
- 616 Grennfelt P, Hov Ø. Regional air pollution at a turning point. AMBIO: A Journal of the Human 617 Environment 2005; 34: 2-10.
- Hereter A, Sánchez JR. Experimental areas of Prades and Montseny. Ecology of Mediterranean
 evergreen oak forests. Springer, 1999, pp. 15-27.
- Ignatova N, Dambrine É. Canopy uptake of N deposition in spruce (Picea abies L. Karst) stands.
 Annals of forest science 2000; 57: 113-120.
- Izquierdo R, Alarcón M, Aguillaume L, Avila A. Effects of teleconnection patterns on the
 atmospheric routes, precipitation and deposition amounts in the north-eastern Iberian
 Peninsula. Atmospheric Environment 2014; 89: 482-490.
- Izquierdo R, Benítez-Nelson CR, Masqué P, Castillo S, Alastuey A, Àvila A. Atmospheric
 phosphorus deposition in a near-coastal rural site in the NE Iberian Peninsula and its
 role in marine productivity. Atmospheric Environment 2012; 49: 361-370.
- Konovalov I, Beekmann M, Burrows J, Richter A. Satellite measurement based estimates of
 decadal changes in European nitrogen oxides emissions. Atmospheric Chemistry and
 Physics 2008; 8: 2623-2641.
- Lindberg S, Lovett G. Deposition and forest canopy interactions of airborne sulfur: results from
 the integrated forest study. Atmospheric Environment. Part A. General Topics 1992; 26:
 1477-1492.
- Llorens P, Domingo F. Rainfall partitioning by vegetation under Mediterranean conditions. A
 review of studies in Europe. Journal of Hydrology 2007; 335: 37-54.
- Lovett G, Lindberg S. Dry deposition and canopy exchange in a mixed oak forest as determined
 by analysis of throughfall. Journal of Applied Ecology 1984: 1013-1027.
- Lövblad G, Tarrasón L, Tørseth K, Dutchak S. emeP assessment Part i: european Perspective.
 Norwegian Meteorological Institute, PO Box 2004; 43.
- Manual ICP-Forest. Manual on methods and criteria for harmonized sampling, assessment,
 monitoring and analysis of the effects of air pollution on forests. UN-ECE, Fed. Res.
 Centre for Forestry and Forest Products (BFH) 1998.
- Mosello R, Bianchi M, Geiss H, Marchetto A, Morselli L, Muntau H, et al. Italian Network for the
 Chemistry of Atmospheric Deposition. Intercomparison 1/98. Consiglio Nazionale delle
 Ricerche. Istituto Italiano di Idrobiologia. Verbania Pallanza. 81 pp, 1998.
- Parker G. Throughfall and stemflow in the forest nutrient cycle. Advances in ecological research
 1983; 13: 57-133.
- Prado-Fiedler R. On the relationship between precipitation amount and wet deposition of
 nitrate and ammonium. Atmospheric Environment. Part A. General Topics 1990; 24:
 3061-3065.

Pérez N, Pey J, Castillo S, Viana M, Alastuey A, Querol X. Interpretation of the variability of levels of regional background aerosols in the Western Mediterranean. Science of the total environment 2008; 407: 527-540.

- Rekolainen S, Posch M, Kämäri J, Ekholm P. Evaluation of the accuracy and precision of annual
 phosphorus load estimates from two agricultural basins in Finland. Journal of Hydrology
 1991; 128: 237-255.
- 657 Reuss J, Johnson D. Ecological studies 59. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1986.
- Rodrigo A, Avila A, Roda F. The chemistry of precipitation, throughfall and stemflow in two holm
 oak (Quercus ilex L.) forests under a contrasted pollution environment in NE Spain.
 Science of the Total Environment 2003; 305: 195-205.
- Rodà F, Retana J, Gracia CA, Bellot J Ecology of Mediterranean evergreen oak forests. Vol 37:
 Springer Publ, 1999.
- 663 Schaefer DA, Reiners WA. Throughfall chemistry and canopy processing mechanisms. Acidic 664 precipitation. Springer, 1990, pp. 241-284.
- Schmitt M, Thöni L, Waldner P, Thimonier A. Total deposition of nitrogen on Swiss long-term
 forest ecosystem research (LWF) plots: comparison of the throughfall and the inferential
 method. Atmospheric Environment 2005; 39: 1079-1091.
- Skjelkvåle B, Stoddard J, Jeffries D, Tørseth K, Høgåsen T, Bowman J, et al. Regional scale
 evidence for improvements in surface water chemistry 1990–2001. Environmental
 Pollution 2005; 137: 165-176.
- Staelens J, Houle D, De Schrijver A, Neirynck J, Verheyen K. Calculating dry deposition and
 canopy exchange with the canopy budget model: review of assumptions and application
 to two deciduous forests. Water, Air, and Soil Pollution 2008; 191: 149-169.
- Stone K, Hunt P, Novak J, Johnson M, Watts D. Flow-proportional, time-composited, and grab
 sample estimation of nitrogen export from an eastern Coastal Plain watershed.
 Transactions of the ASAE 2000; 43: 281-290.
- Swistock BR, Edwards PJ, Wood F, Dewalle DR. Comparison of methods for calculating annual
 solute exports from six forested Appalachian watersheds. Hydrological Processes 1997;
 11: 655-669.
- Thimonier A, Schmitt, Waldner P, Rihm B. Atmospheric deposition on Swiss long-term forest
 ecosystem research (LWF) plots. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment 2004; 30: 1 38.
- Tørseth K, Aas W, Breivik K, Fjæraa A, Fiebig M, Hjellbrekke A, et al. Introduction to the
 European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP) and observed atmospheric
 composition change during 1972–2009. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics 2012; 12:
 5447-5481.
- 687 Ulrich B. Interaction of forest canopies with atmospheric constituents: SO2, alkali and earth
 688 alkali cations and chloride. Effects of accumulation of air pollutants in forest ecosystems.
 689 Springer, 1983, pp. 33-45.
- 690 UNECE. Protocols to the Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution 2011,,
 691 <u>http://www.unece.org/env/Irtap/status/Irtap_s.htm</u> [accessed 8 May 2011]. 2011.
- van Jaarsveld BC, Krijnen P, Pieterman H, Derkx FH, Deinum J, Postma CT, et al. The effect of
 balloon angioplasty on hypertension in atherosclerotic renal-artery stenosis. New
 England Journal of Medicine 2000; 342: 1007-1014.
- Zhang G, Zeng GM, Jiang YM, Yao JM, Huang GH, Jiang XY, Tan W, Zhang XL, Zeng M. Effects of
 weak acids on canopy leaching and uptake precesses in a coniferous-decideous mixed
 evergreen forest in central-south China. Water, Air and Soil Pollution 2006; 172: 39-55.
- 699

703 Table 1. Study site characteristics.

	1995-96	1995-96	2011-13
	LC1	RP1	LC2
Altitude (m)	731	535	765
Orientation	N	SW	SW
Diameter at breast high (cm)	11.3 ± 4.8	12.0 ± 4.2	13.0 ± 4.1
Basal area (m^{-2})	2127	223	2371
	20.5	22.5	25.0

725	Table 2. Emission trends for Spain and surrounding countries between 1980 and 2012
726	(Portugal, between 1992 and 2012). Negative percent change indicates reduction and
727	positive percent, increase between 5-yr initial and final periods. Man-Kendall p value is
728	also indicated.

		Mann-	5-year		5-year		
		Kendall	initial		final		
		p value	Gg		Gg		
Emission			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	%change
SO ₂	Portugal	<0.0001	305	31	48	5	-84
	Spain	<0.0001	1870	233	430	26	-77
	France	<0.0001	1004	220	255	29	-75
	Italy	<0.0001	1302	262	195	18	-85
	Iberian P.	<0.0002	2175	249	479	28	-78
NO ₂	Portugal	0.003	257	7	170	8	-34
	Spain	0.265	1391	28	942	19	-32
	France	<0.0001	1746	107	1017	44	-42
	Italy	<0.0001	1863	201	904	53	-51
	Iberian P.	0.245	1648	31	1112	26	-33
NH_3	Portugal	<0.0001	61	2	47	1	-22
	Spain	<0.0001	339	26	384	6	13
	France	0.049	688	9	697	22	1
	Italy	<0.0001	455	10	388	14	-15
	Iberian P.	< 0.0001	339	25	437	7	8

Table 3. Water volume (mm y⁻¹) and ion VWM concentrations (in ueq L^{-1}) in bulk

740 deposition (BD) and throughfall (TF) and their percent change between an initial (6 June

1995 to 25 June 1996) and final period (1 March 2011 to 1 March 2013) at Montseny.

742 Negative percent change indicates reduction and positive percent, increase, between

the two periods.

	Water												
	vol.	pH^1	Н	Alk	Na⁺	K^+	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	NH_4^+	NO_3^-	SO4 ²⁻	nssSO4 ²⁻	Cl
1995-1996													
BD	1161.5	5.28	8.7	19.1	21	3.78	36.9	7.88	32.7	29.5	41.1	38.6	26.6
TF	858.5	6.11	1.25	76.2	32	64.1	79.5	26.2	41.9	33.6	71.2	67.4	55.5
2011-2013													
BD	860	6.06	1.9	41.5	20.3	3.2	53.3	11.1	17.6	18	16.6	14.2	21.2
TF	694	5.93	1.4	75.7	44.4	60.8	108	43	11.8	41.3	32	26.7	63.7
%change													
BD	-26.0	14.8	78.2	117.3	-3.3	-15.3	44.4	40.9	-46.2	-39.0	-59.6	-63.3	-20.3
%change													
TF	-19.2	-2.9	12.0	-0.7	38.8	-5.1	35.8	64.1	-71.8	22.9	-55.1	-60.4	14.8
7/6	¹ Median i	ъH											
747	i i i cuiul i												
/ - /													
748													

756	Table 4. Fluxes in wet deposition (WD), net throughfall (nTF) and Total deposition (TD).
757	Dry deposition (DD) and canopy exchange (CE) fluxes have been derived from a
758	throughfall canopy budget model for an initial (1995-1996) and a recent period (2011-

759 2013). Units in kg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹.

	Na^+	K^+	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	NH_4^+-N	NO ₃ ⁻ -N	sum N	SO4 ²⁻ -S	Cl⁻
1995-1996									
WD	4.10	1.13	6.29	0.74	5.13	3.51	8.64	6.17	7.23
nTF	2.08	19.5	7.11	1.95	-0.29	0.37	0.08	3.37	9.27
DD	2.08	0.58	3.12	0.37	6.36	1.26	7.62	2.31	3.75
CE	0.00	18.9	3.99	1.58	-6.65	-0.89	-7.54	0.59	5.52
TD	6.18	1.72	9.41	1.11	11.5	4.77	16.3	9.34	11.0
2011-2013									
WD	4.59	0.98	9.78	1.17	2.36	2.03	4.39	2.52	6.44
nTF	3.02	18.4	8.02	3.10	-1.04	2.60	1.56	1.53	11.5
DD	3.02	0.65	6.40	0.77	6.07	6.76	12.8	1.66	4.24
CE	0.00	17.8	1.58	2.33	-7.12	-4.16	-11.3	-0.13	7.23
TD	7.61	1.63	16.2	1.94	8.43	8.79	17.2	4.18	10.7
WD %change	12.0	-13.3	55.5	58.1	-54.0	-42.2	-49.2	-59.2	-10.9
DD %change	45.2	12.1	105.1	108.1	-4.6	436.5	68.4	-28.1	13.1
TD %change	23.1	-5.2	72.4	74.8	-26.7	84.3	5.8	-55.2	-2.7

Table 5. Comparison of stream conductivity, ion VWM concentrations (in μ eq L⁻¹), water drainage (mm y⁻¹) and fluxes in streamwater (in kg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹) from the TM0 catchment. Differences between periods were tested with ANOVA (initial period=1990-1994. recent period =2010-2014) and significant differences are highlighted in bold.Percent

700 period =2010 2014) and significant differences are highlighted in 50

769 differences between periods are also indicated.

	Water	Cond.	Alk	Na^+	K ⁺	Ca ²⁺	Mg ²⁺	NO ₂ ⁻	SQ₄ ²⁻	CI
		Contai	7.000			Cu			004	0.
VWM										
1990-1999	-	53.6	291	197	8.2	203	192	4.5	157	90.7
2010-2014	-	63.7	383	219	7.2	253	145	11.2	123	95.4
p-value	-	0.001	0.012	0.053	0.36	0.002	0.064	0.081	0.005	0.47
%change		19	32	11	-12	25	-24	250	-22	5
Export flux								NO₃ ⁻ N	SO ₄ -S	
1990-1999	403		1105	17.7	1.29	15.9	6.1	0.33	10.1	12.9
2010-2014	283		1043	14	0.84	14.4	4.9	0.49	5.65	9.6
p-value	0.35		0.83	0.47	0.3	0.68	0.47	0.55	0.15	0.4
%change	-30		-6	-21	-35	-9	-20	48	-44	-26

782 Figure captions

Fig. 1 Study site at La Castanya (Montseny mountains, NE Spain). LC1 corresponds to
1983-2000 bulk deposition and 1995-1996 throughfall measurements. LC2 corresponds
to 2002-2014 bulk deposition and 2011-2013 throughfall measurements. The Torrent

- 786 de la Mina catchment (TM0) is also indicated.
- Fig 2. Precipitation and drainage from the Torrent de la Mina stream for the period
 1983-2014. Units are mm y⁻¹. Hydrologic years defined from 1 September.
- Fig 3. Temporal evolution of emissions reported to EMEP (in Gg) for Spain and
 neighbouring countries. a) SO₂, b) NO₂, c) NH₃.
- 791 Fig 4. Temporal evolution of annual VWM concentrations in bulk deposition at la
- 792 Castanya (Montseny)and annual Spanish emissions. a) SO₄ mean concentrations in bulk
- deposition and SO₂ emissions, b) NO₃ mean concentrations in bulk deposition and NO₂
- emissions, c) NH_4 mean concentrations in bulk deposition and NH_3 emissions.
- Fig 5. Dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN = NO3-N + NH4-N) annual fluxes in the
- streamwaters draining the TMO catchment *vs.* annual DIN bulk deposition fluxes at thesite, for two recording periods.
- 798
- 799
- 800
- 801
- 802
- 803
- 804
- 805
- 806
- 807
- 808
- 809
- 810
- 010
- 811













1975 1980 1985 1990 1995 2000 2005 2010 2015

837



