



1 **High-resolution Carbon cycling data from 2019 to 2021 measured at six**
2 **Austrian LTER sites**

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17

18 Abstract

19 Seven long-term observation sites have been established in six regions across Austria, covering major
20 ecosystem types such as forests, grasslands and wetlands across a wide bioclimatic range. The
21 purpose of these observations is to measure key ecosystem parameters serving as baselines for
22 assessing the impacts of extreme climate events on the carbon cycle. The data sets collected include
23 meteorological variables, soil microclimate, CO₂ fluxes and tree stem growth, all recorded at high
24 temporal resolution between 2019 and 2021 (including one year of average climate conditions and
25 two comparatively dry years). The DOIs of the dataset can be found in the data availability chapter.
26 The sites will be integrated into the European Research Infrastructure for Integrated European Long-
27 Term Ecosystem, Critical Zone, and Socio-Ecological Research (eLTER RI). Subsequently, new data
28 covering the variables presented here will be continuously available through its data integration
29 portal. This step will allow the data to reach its full potential for research on drought-related
30 ecosystem carbon cycling.

31

32 1. Introduction

33 Climate change has been affecting ecosystems globally with strong implications for the terrestrial
34 carbon cycle, which in turn feeds back to the climate system (Heimann and Reichstein, 2008). As an
35 emerging feature of climate change, extreme climatic events (ECEs) are expected to occur with
36 increasing frequency and intensity in the coming decades (IPCC, 2021). ECEs are considered to exert
37 stronger impacts on ecosystems and the services they provide to mankind than gradual changes in
38 climate (Frank et al., 2015; Reichstein et al., 2013; Grünzweig et al., 2022; Anderegg et al., 2020).
39 Understanding, predicting and managing extreme climate events and their consequences for
40 ecosystems and societies will therefore be one of the big challenges in the coming decades. To detect



41 and attribute impacts of ECEs on ecosystem processes and services they need to be evaluated on the
42 background of the typical interannual range of these processes (Ciais et al., 2005; Bernal et al., 2012;
43 Fu et al., 2020; Schindlbacher et al., 2012) and analyses of ecosystem resilience to ECEs require a
44 robust quantification of baselines of ecosystem functioning (Bahn and Ingrisch, 2018; Ingrisch and
45 Bahn, 2018). For deriving such baselines as well as interannual variability of ecosystem carbon cycling
46 coordinated and representative observation networks need to be in place to enable data retrieval as
47 well as rapid-response scientific campaigns to study after-effects and post-disturbance trajectories
48 resulting from ECEs (Kulmala, 2018; Mahecha et al., 2017; Mirtl et al., 2018; Dirnböck et al., 2019;
49 Müller and Bahn, 2022). Datasets obtained through such observation networks are also essential for
50 benchmarking models (Futter et al., 2023; Baatz et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2018) and for comparison
51 with ecosystem experiments (Kröel-Dulay et al., 2022).

52 Within a research infrastructure project focusing on ecosystem carbon, nitrogen, and water fluxes
53 (LTER-CWN, <https://www.lter-austria.at/cwn/>), we equipped seven long-term observation sites in six
54 regions, which are part of the existing Long-Term Ecological Research Network of Austria (LTER), with
55 high temporal resolution (30-60 minutes) C cycle measurements. The sites cover three major
56 ecosystem types occurring across Austria (forests, managed mountain grassland, wetlands) and most
57 of them are part of socio-ecological research platforms for transdisciplinary studies (Figure 1). Here,
58 we provide observational ecosystem response data capturing naturally-occurring ECEs from the first
59 three years after the onset of the infrastructure, 2019 to 2021. These data sets include
60 meteorological variables, soil microclimate, CO₂ flux measurements using automated chambers (soil
61 CO₂ efflux) and eddy covariance techniques (net ecosystem exchange), respectively and tree stem
62 radial increments and shrinkage in forested plots.

63

64 2. Site descriptions

65 The sites are key research infrastructures for ecosystem-related greenhouse gas observations in
66 Austria. They include forests (Klausen-Leopoldsdorf and Rosalia in Lower Austria, Zöbelboden in
67 Upper Austria, and Kaserstattalm in Tyrol), mountain grassland (Kaserstattalm, Tyrol), and wetlands
68 (Pürgschachen Moor, Styria and Lake Neusiedl reed belt, Burgenland). This network of sites covers
69 typical forest, alpine and wetland ecosystems of Central Europe (Figure 1). Furthermore, the sites
70 represent different geological characteristics, from crystalline rock in the central Alps to the
71 limestone in the northern Alps to unconsolidated Holocene sediments in lowlands. All sites are part
72 of the Austrian LTER network and, once officially launched, will be included in the European eLTER
73 research infrastructure. For a detailed description of the sites, we refer to the site metadata
74 catalogue DEIMS-SDR (Table 1).

75 2.1. Rosalia Forest Demonstration Centre (Mixed beech forest)

76 The Rosalia Forest Demonstration Centre was settled in 1972, as a cooperation between BOKU and
77 the Austrian Federal Forests, and has approximately 1000 ha in the western slopes of the Rosalia
78 Mountains (Rosaliengebirge) in Lower Austria (Figure 1, Table 1). The forest hosts all major tree
79 species occurring in Austria, i.e. European beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.), Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.)
80 H.Karst.), Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.), Larch (*Larix decidua* Mill.), and Fir (*Abies alba* Mill.). The
81 altitude ranges from 320 to 725 m a.s.l., and mean annual temperature and mean annual
82 precipitation are 6.5 °C and 796 mm, respectively. Substrate is mainly composed by crystalline rocks,
83 and soils are predominantly cambisols (FAO, WRB); sporadically in combination with planosols (in
84 plains and moderate slopes), with fluvisols (in valleys) or podzolic cambisols (steep slopes) (Füst et
85 al., 2021).



86 The demonstration forest holds several experimental and observation sites distributed along its area,
87 including water, soil, vegetation and air observations (e.g. Gillespie et al., 2023). A watershed (220
88 ha) is subject to hydrological observations (Fürst et al., 2021), and the forest is regularly monitored
89 on permanent plots (Gollob et al., 2020). The meteorological data presented here originates from
90 three stations located at 385 (Mehlbeerleiten), 500 (Kuhwald) and 640 m a.s.l. (Heuberg). The C cycle
91 data was measured on the DRAIN site, a long-term experiment launched in 2012. The site is located
92 in a pure mature beech stand at 600 m a.s.l. (47° 42' 26" N; 16° 17' 59" E). It faces north-west, with a
93 slope of approximately 20 %. The DRAIN experiment focuses on investigating the effect of changing
94 precipitation patterns for selected soil biogeochemical and microbiological processes (Leitner et al.,
95 2017; Liu et al., 2019; Schwen et al., 2015; Gillespie et al., 2024). Monitoring is performed on control
96 and on manipulated plots. The data from both natural and manipulated plots is published with this
97 paper. Manipulation involves the use of rain-out-shelters (for simulating drought periods of different
98 length) and of an irrigation system (for recreating rainfall events of different intensity). The
99 monitoring infrastructure involves the measurements of greenhouse gases (GHG) (N₂O, CH₄ and CO₂)
100 fluxes, soil nutrients (suction cups) and microclimate parameters.

101 2.2. Klausen-Leopoldsdorf (Beech forest)

102 The site, Klausen-Leopoldsdorf, is located about 40 km south-west of Vienna on a NNE-facing slope
103 and was founded in the 1990ies as one of Austria's ICP Forests site (Neumann and Starlinger, 2001).
104 The site is divided into four different sub-areas within a small catchment: 1) the ICP Forests Level 2
105 site, 2) a weather station, located 2.7 km from the ICP intensive plots at 398 m a.s.l., 3) a catchment
106 runoff weir (475 m a.s.l.), and 4) the LTER-CWN measurement plot (520 m a.s.l.), where the C-cycle
107 data presented here was measured (Figure 1, Table 1). The forest within the measurement plot is a
108 pure beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) stand. The mean annual temperature is 8°C, mean annual
109 precipitation is 801 mm (2010-2022). The geological substrate is sandstone, the soil type is mainly
110 stagnic cambisol/dystric cambisol (FAO, WRB). Instruments installed on the LTER-CWN measurement
111 area include a sap flow and dendrometer measurement system on 10 trees, 12 GHG automated
112 measurement chambers for CO₂ respiration, soil moisture and soil temperature sensors in different
113 soil depths (5 – 30 cm).

114 In addition to the data presented here, many other data sets are available. Soil GHG fluxes (manual
115 sampling) were measured starting in the year 2001 (Kitzler et al., 2006). On the ICP forest Level 2 site
116 instruments for long-term monitoring (since 1996) such as soil moisture, air temperature and
117 humidity, soil temperature, soil solution with suction cups, throughfall deposition, litterfall traps,
118 stemflow, and manual and automatic dendrometers are installed and the data is available under
119 <https://bfw.ac.at/lms/level2.daten> or via the ICP Forests Program Centre.

120 2.3. Lake Neusiedl (reed belt)

121 The measurement site is located in the eastern reed belt of the lake and as such inside the National
122 Park Lake Neusiedl - Seewinkel (Figure 1, Table 1). The region (average altitude 120 m a.s.l.) is
123 characterized by a (sub)-continental Pannonian climate with a mean annual precipitation of 576 mm
124 (2013-2022). The reed belt is a dynamic ecosystem consisting of a mosaic of reed stocks (*Phragmites*
125 *australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud.), sediment and open water areas. Increasing dry periods and thus
126 successive drying of the reed belt since 2018 have led to an increase in reed stocks within the belt, as
127 well as an increase in sediment areas and a strong decline in open water areas, according to a 2021
128 study that investigated the spatial and temporal variations within the reed ecosystem at Lake
129 Neusiedl (Buchsteiner et al., 2023). Processes driving CH₄ emissions from the reed belt have recently
130 been investigated in detail (Baur et al., 2024).



131 The data presented here stems from devices permanently installed on site. They include an eddy
132 covariance tower for CO₂, CH₄ and water vapor fluxes and relevant accompanying meteorological
133 parameters as well as soil heat flux, soil moisture, and soil temperature sensors.

134 2.4. Pürgschachen Moor (peat bog)

135 The Pürgschachen Moor is located on the bottom of the Styrian Enns valley at an altitude of 632 m
136 a.s.l. (Figure 1, Table 1). It is a pine peat bog with an extent of about 62 ha. Thus, it is the largest (to a
137 large part) intact valley peat bog in Austria with a closed peat moss cover and a good example of the
138 formerly widely distributed peatlands of inner-alpine valleys of the European Alps. The mean average
139 temperature is 8.2 °C and mean annual precipitation is 1233 mm (2013-2022). The typical vegetation
140 of the peat bog is constituted of three associations of plants *Pino mugo-Sphagnetum magellanicum*
141 (pine peat bog association), *Sphagnetum magellanicum* (coloured bog moss association), and *Caricetum*
142 *limosae* (bog sedge association), depending on the prevailing hydrological site conditions. The
143 current mean water table depth is about 14 cm below soil surface at the central peat bog area. Peat
144 decomposition and related CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes were subject of a series of research studies (Drollinger
145 et al., 2019; Knierzinger et al., 2020; Müller et al., 2022; Glatzel et al., 2023).

146 The data presented here stems from devices permanently installed roughly in the center of the peat
147 bog. They include an eddy covariance tower for CO₂, CH₄ and water vapor fluxes and relevant
148 accompanying meteorological parameters as well as soil heat flux, soil moisture, and soil
149 temperature sensors.

150 2.5. Stubai (subalpine hay meadow, Larch and Spruce forest)

151 The two sites reported here are part of the LTER Site Stubai (Table 1), which is located in the Stubai
152 Alps in Tyrol, Austria (Figure 1). Research at the study site was established in 1993. The two
153 observation plots are a mountain grassland and a subalpine forest at an alpine pasture area called
154 “Kaserstattalm”. The underlying rock is siliceous and calcareous. The average air temperature is
155 about 3°C and the precipitation approx. 1100 mm. About 35% of the annual precipitation occurs as
156 snow during winter months.

157 The grassland site is located at an altitude of 1810 -1850 m a.s.l on a south-east facing slope with an
158 inclination of ca. 20°. The site is an extensively managed meadow that is harvested once a year in
159 early August and grazed lightly in late summer. The soil is a dystric cambisol (FAO, WRB). The
160 vegetation type is a *Trisetetum flavenscens* and consists of perennials grasses and forbs dominated
161 by *Agrostis capillaris* L., *Festuca rubra* L., *Anthoxanthum odoratum* L., *Ranunculus montanus* Willd.,
162 *Leontodon hispidus* L., *Trifolium repens* L. and *T. pratense* L. (Bahn et al., 2009; Schmitt et al., 2010).

163 The forested observation plot is located close to the tree line at 1960 m a.s.l. on a slope with an
164 inclination of 20-35°. It is dominated by the two common tree species European larch (*Larix decidua*
165 Mill.) and Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) H.Karst.). In former years, the plot was a pasture and it was
166 reforested in the 1980s (Oberleitner et al., 2022).

167 Both observation plots are equipped with micrometeorological stations, soil environment monitoring
168 (soil moisture, soil temperature), and soil CO₂ devices. At both observation plots, we measured soil
169 CO₂ fluxes with automated chambers during the summer. The forest plot is additionally equipped
170 with tree dendrometers and tree sapflow sensors. In the grassland, land use and drought related
171 carbon cycle research was carried out over the last two decades (Fuchslueger et al., 2014; Hasibeder
172 et al., 2015; Ingrisch et al., 2020; Ingrisch et al., 2018). Research using the forest plot started only
173 recently (Oberleitner et al., 2022).

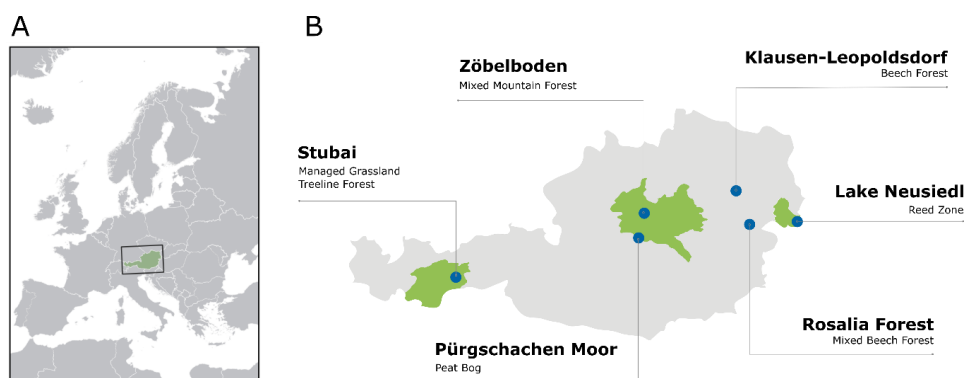
174 2.6. Zöbelboden (mixed Beech forest)



175 LTER Zöbelboden is located in the National Park Kalkalpen in the Northern Limestone Alps, Austria
 176 (Figure 1). The site Zöbelboden was established in 1992 as part of the UNECE Integrated Monitoring
 177 network (ICP IM) covering a 90 ha catchment with an elevation range of 550 to 956 m a.s.l. (Table 1).
 178 The main underlying rock type is Norian dolomite (*Hauptdolomit*), partly overlain by limestone
 179 (*Plattenkalk*). According to long-term meteorological measurements (1993-2022), mean annual air
 180 temperature and precipitation are 8.2 °C and 1645 mm, respectively. Maximum precipitation occurs
 181 in summer and snowfall usually between December and April.

182 The data presented here was measured at the Intensive Plot II situated on a steep (36° on average)
 183 north-westerly exposed slope at 880 m a.s.l. The soils of the plot are lithic and rendzic leptosols (FAO,
 184 WRB). The plot is dominated by beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) with intermixed sycamore (*Acer*
 185 *pseudoplatanus* L.), European ash (*Fraxinus excelsior* L.) and spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) H.Karst.). Since
 186 the year 1995, this plot is equipped with a number of field measurement devices for long-term
 187 monitoring (throughfall deposition, litter fall traps, lysimeters, soil moisture and temperature
 188 sensors, manual dendrometers) and supplemented by other monitoring activities (tree inventory,
 189 needle and leaf chemistry, soil chemistry, etc.; see e.g. Leitner et al., 2020; Kobler et al., 2019;
 190 Dirnböck et al., 2016; Dirnböck et al., 2020). Drought-impacts on carbon allocation in the forests of
 191 the catchment is currently one of the research foci for which long-term observation data exists (see
 192 e.g. Hartl-Meier et al., 2014) as well as experimental plots with rainout shelter.

193 The instruments and data included here are soil respiration automated chambers, soil water
 194 potential and temperature sensors as well as automated dendrometers. The meteorological data
 195 stems from a station in close proximity at the plateau at 890 m a.s.l.. The site is also equipped with
 196 an Eddy covariance tower, but this data will be published elsewhere.



197
 198 *Figure 1.* Location of sites in A) Europe and B) Austria. Blue dots indicate the sites; green areas are socio-ecological research
 199 platforms (from left to right: LTSER Tyrolian Alps, LTSER Eisenwurzen, and LTSER Lake Neusiedl) within the LTER Austria
 200 network.

201 *Table 1.* Metadata of the sites and observation plots including geographic boundaries, linked data sets, etc. can be found in
 202 the site and dataset registry system DEIMS-SDR.

Site	Site Code	Observation plot	DEIMS.iD
Rosalia Forest Demonstration Centre	ROS		https://deims.org/77c127c4-2ebe-453b-b5af-61858ff02e31
		Heuberg Meteorological Station	https://deims.org/locations/44854b32-64c3-4c9d-9aec-9b0b74f8ac70



		Kuhwald Meteorological Station	https://deims.org/locations/1225d57e-02da-47fd-9760-ab39d64999ef
		Mehlbeerleiten Meteorological Station	https://deims.org/locations/0becf0ce-98d7-4f64-a074-f89046083e5e
		DRAIN Station	https://deims.org/locations/b7008603-fca2-452f-9b3d-aad30cdafc7a
Klausen-Leopoldsdorf	KLL		https://deims.org/bb472a51-f85f-4de0-8358-f21ecbe2a102
		Measuring station	https://deims.org/locations/d5cba3ce-7489-46d1-8d97-61641ffb5758
Lake Neusiedl	NSS	Same as site	https://deims.org/locations/4234987b-9031-4332-9bdd-f869d503ac51
Pürgschachen Moor	PUE	Same as site	https://deims.org/locations/ab2d021b-f318-487a-a85b-ab34566e4c02
Stubai	KAS		https://deims.org/324f92a3-5940-4790-9738-5aa21992511c
		Kaserstattalm meadow	https://deims.org/locations/cf7843b7-32d6-44e9-ba82-9a8d915036a7
		Kaserstattalm forest	https://deims.org/locations/af2afdad-d6fb-4580-b6e3-be7d07b56f8e
Zöbelboden	ZOE		https://deims.org/8eda49e9-1f4e-4f3e-b58e-e0bb25dc32a6
		Intensive Plot II	https://deims.org/locations/bc96a499-1b20-4da8-be2d-17306d64b788

203

204 3. Dataset description, measuring methods, QA/QC

205 We followed routine quality assurance (QA) and quality control (QC) procedures to ensure
 206 functionality of the sensors and data quality comprising remote function control, on-site check of
 207 sensors and cables, regular sensor calibration, data checks through different quality assurance
 208 procedures (e.g. exceedance of thresholds, outlier detection, deviations from other measurements),
 209 and data quality flagging.

210 3.1. Meteorology, soil temperature and soil moisture

211 All meteorological stations are located within the boundaries of the respective sites except for
 212 Klausen-Leopoldsdorf, where the station is at a distance of 2.7 km from the site. Meteorological
 213 measurements in the wetland sites were implemented next to the Eddy Covariance tower. In
 214 addition to the routine data checks, we compared the measurements with nearby stations where
 215 appropriate. Meteorological measurements were detected in a one-minute-interval and averaged
 216 over half-hour periods while rain data was summed. The measurements include air temperature,
 217 precipitation, humidity, wind speed and direction, air pressure, and several radiation variables (at
 218 least global radiation, but also short- and longwave radiation, photosynthetic active radiation, etc.).

219 We used different types of soil temperature and soil moisture or soil water potential sensors,
 220 respectively (PT100 or thermoelements for soil temperature, TDR or FDR-sensors for soil moisture, and
 221 soil water potential sensors). Before we buried the soil temperature or soil moisture and soil water
 222 potential sensors into the soil, they had been calibrated or at least tested for consistency. Mostly, we
 223 used gravimetric samples to calibrate the TDR and FDR soil moisture sensors. At Zöbelboden, where
 224 stony, organic rich soils occur, we corrected the TDR values using water potential sensor data installed
 225 in the same soil profiles together with soil water retention functions derived from undisturbed soil



226 cores. In addition to the regular QC procedures, we checked the data for consistency of the values
 227 across sensors (e.g. along the soil profiles) and compared them with other measurements (air
 228 temperature and precipitation).

229 3.2. Carbon fluxes

230 3.2.1. Soil CO₂ efflux

231 We measured soil CO₂ efflux at five of the seven observation plots. The automated soil CO₂ respiration
 232 measurement systems are capable of operating autonomously during the snow-free periods. The
 233 measurement chambers and measurement systems collected air from the chamber headspace
 234 continuously to determine the exchange of CO₂ between soil and atmosphere at the observation plots.
 235 In all sites, we used non-steady state, non through-flow chambers (Pumpanen et al., 2004). In addition
 236 to the automated systems, manual flux measurements were also performed which served to validate
 237 the automated measurement systems. Table 2 provides detailed information on the measurement
 238 systems used at the sites.

239 Two different automated chamber systems were used: a LI-COR System and custom-made chambers
 240 in combination with LI-COR trace gas analysers (Table 2). The custom-made soil chambers are
 241 equipped with a fan and a thermometer. The controlling unit and the gas analyzer (either a CH₄/CO₂
 242 LI-COR 7810, a LI-COR 840, or a LI-COR 8100A, LI-COR Biosciences, USA) are located in already
 243 existing measurement containers. Remote access to the devices allows for checking plausibility of the
 244 data and chamber leakage in real time. We visited the instruments at weekly to monthly intervals,
 245 with maintenance and supervision works including a check of the tightness of the gas lines,
 246 connections and chamber lids, the correct closing and opening of the chambers and the functioning
 247 of ventilation fans inside the chambers, ingrowth of plants, and the gas analyser. The gas analysers
 248 were calibrated once a year in the laboratory with calibration gases. We de-installed and serviced the
 249 chambers during winter but frames stayed permanently on site to avoid disturbance of the soil.

250 At Klausen-Leopoldsdorf, the gas fluxes of readings were determined using the R package "gasfluxes"
 251 (Fuss, 2020). At Rosalia, a custom-made Python script was used. Zöbelboden and Kaserstattalm
 252 process the data with SoilFlux Pro Software (LI-COR Biosciences, 2019). We used the R² of the fitted
 253 empirical models to select valid data. We refer to Table 2 and the metadata published with the data
 254 for the detailed specifications.

255 *Table 2.* Specifications of the different soil CO₂ flux systems following the standard of (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2021).

Field Name	Description	Unit	Klausen-Leopoldsdorf	Stubai grassland	Rosalia	Zöbelboden
System			auto	auto	auto	auto
GHG chambers			Custom-made (n=12)	LI-8100-104 (n=4)	Custom-made (n=12)	LI-8100-104 (n=6)
INSTRUMENT	Measurement instrument model		LI-COR LI-7810	LI-8100A	LI-840	LI-8100A
MSMT_VAR	Type of flux measured		Soil respiration (Rs)			
AREA	Soil surface measurement area	cm ²	2500	317.8	2500	317.8



VOLUME	Volume of measurement chamber	cm ³	37500	4076.1	37500	4076.1
V/A	Volume/Area ratio	cm	15	12.83	15	12.83
COLLAR_DEPTH	Depth of collar insertion	cm	5	2	10	2
OPAQUE	Opaque chamber		no	yes	no	yes
chamber system	static chamber - closed or open		non-steady state, non through-flow chambers			
closing time	closing time of chamber (=time used for flux calculation)	sec	175	depending on year	1620	210
PLANTS_REMOVED	Plants removed from inside the collar		no, but hardly any	yes	no, but hardly any	no plants
flow_rate	sample flow rate through tubing	l min ⁻¹	1	1 to 2	0.25	1.7
FAN	Mixing fan in chamber?		yes	no	yes	no
CRVFIT_CO2	Flux computation method ("Lin" or "Exp" for linear and exponential, others)		linear	automated ¹	Lin/HMR ²	Automated ¹
R2_CO2	R ² of flux computation	fraction	0.90	0.95	0.95	0.99
Calculation of flux			R Package gasfluxes	LI-COR Soilflux Pro	custom-made python script	LI-COR Soilflux Pro

¹ "Exp" in the data indicates that the exponential fit was better than the linear fit (Exp_SSN < Lin_SSN). "Lin" indicates that the linear fit was better after the maximum number of iterations; the non-linear coefficients have therefore been derived from the linear fit.

² Hutchinson and Mosier (1981)

256 3.2.2. Eddy Covariance measurements at wetland sites

257 In both wetland sites, the Pürgschachen Moor and Lake Neusiedl, fully equipped Eddy-Covariance
 258 systems are in place. Wind speed and direction were measured using a three-axis ultrasonic
 259 anemometer (WindMaster Pro, Gill Instruments, Lymington, UK). CO₂ and H₂O mixing ratios were
 260 measured using the closed-path infrared gas analyser LI-7200 while CH₄ was detected with the open
 261 path gas analyser LI-7700 (both LI-COR Inc, Lincoln, USA). The measurements were performed with a
 262 sampling rate of 10 Hz. We installed the devices at a vegetation dependent height, 3.05 m above
 263 ground in the Pürgschachen Moor and in the reed belt of Lake Neusiedl 8.6 m, respectively. The Eddy
 264 Covariance devices were checked daily via remote access, calibrated once a year, and monthly in the
 265 field.



266 The EC data contains half-hour eddy covariance flux measurements for CO₂, CH₄ and water vapor. We
267 calculated the fluxes with the EddyPro® Software package in the Express mode with default settings
268 (double rotation, block averaging, covariance maximization, etc.) as part of the SmartFlux® 2 System,
269 providing fully corrected and valid fluxes with quality flags ranging from 0-2. The final flags are based
270 on a combination of partial flags accounting for steady state and turbulent conditions. Only fluxes
271 flagged with 0 (best quality fluxes) or 1 (fluxes suitable for general analysis such as annual budgets)
272 are shown in the data. Gaps in the data-set result from missing micro-meteorological conditions,
273 from data cleaning due to the quality flags or from power breakdowns.

274 3.3. Radial tree stem growth at forest sites

275 Zöbelboden, Klausen-Leopoldsdorf, Rosalia used the DR26 sensor (EMS, Brno, Czech Republic), Stubai
276 used Ecomatic DC2 (Germany) for registering the radial stem increment. Maintenance involved
277 avoiding any shift of the sensor during the operation. Concerning data quality and control methods the
278 Mini32 software (EMS, Brno, Czech Republic), includes graphical features to process the measured
279 stem increment data. Data processing comprises outlier detection by visual assessment based on
280 expert knowledge. Ecomatic raw data was treated with custom-made R scripts. In both cases,
281 unrealistic values beyond the slowly increasing linear growth rates were visually assessed and deleted.

282 4. Data file structure

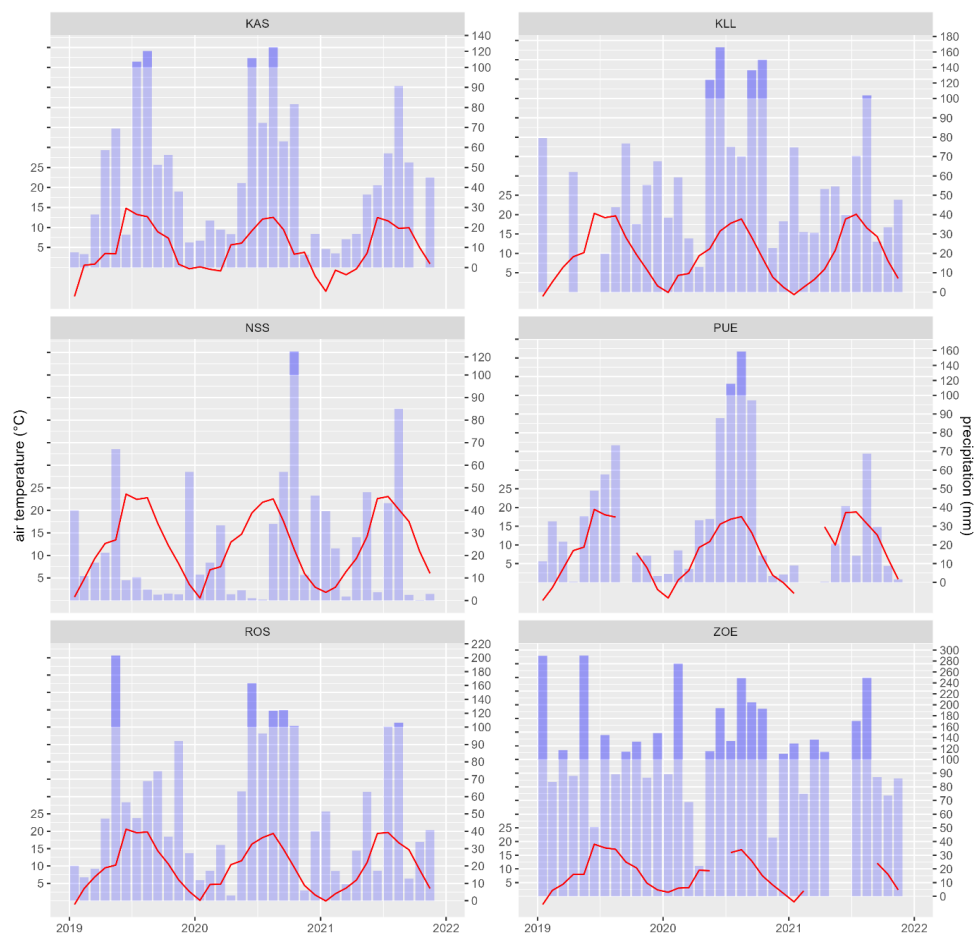
283 We used the eLTER Data specification, which is available on Zenodo
284 (www.doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6373409). Apart from the data files, the measurement locations
285 (Station files) and the sensors (methods) are included.

286

287 5. Data validation

288 In most sites, the year 2020 did resemble an average climate with mean annual temperatures and
289 precipitation sums close to the long-term averages, whereas either 2019 or 2021 were drier and, in
290 some cases, also warmer compared to the long-term average (Figure 2). Differences in the seasonal
291 precipitation patterns between these years vary a lot between sites. In sum, the dry periods resulted
292 in lower precipitation in 2019 and 2021 in all sites. The mean annual temperature maxima (90
293 percentile) were between 0.3 °C (KAS) and 2.3 °C (ZOE) higher in 2019 than in 2020. These
294 differences were lower in 2021 (< 0.5 °C). At KAS, the maximum temperatures in the year 2021 were
295 lower (0.6 °C). In accordance with precipitation and temperature, soil water content showed the
296 lowest values during the years 2019 and 2020, and soil temperature were higher during these years
297 (Figure 3).

298



299

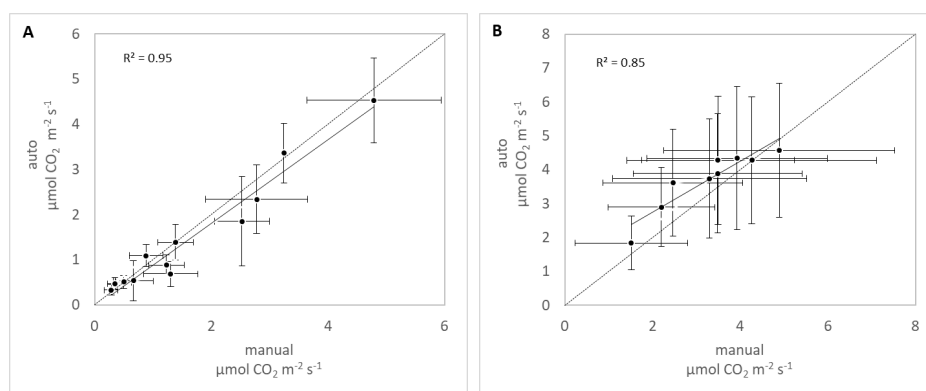
300 *Figure 2.* Monthly mean air temperature (red line) and monthly precipitation sums (blue bars; different scale > 100 mm) at
301 the six regions.

302 We measured soil CO₂ respiration at four sites (Figure 4). The complexity of automated chamber
303 measurements resulted in some data gaps: at KAS and ROS during the years 2019 and 2021
304 respectively; at KLL and ZOE, the respiration data covers most of the snow-free period.

305 At Klausen-Leopoldsdorf (KLL) and Zöbelboden (ZOE), we compared the automatically measured soil
306 CO₂ flux rates with manual measurements. For both sites, we used a portable infrared gas analyzer
307 (EGM-4) connected to a manual soil respiration chamber (SRC) (PP Systems International Inc.,
308 Amesbury, MA, USA). The two measurement sites were equipped with permanently installed collars
309 (KLL: randomly distributed within the site in immediate vicinity of the automated chambers (n = 12);
310 area = 284 cm² and 2 cm insertion depth; Zöbelboden: regular grid covering the entire plot (n = 30),
311 area = 78 cm² and 1.5 cm insertion depth). The chamber closure time was 60 and 100 seconds in KLL
312 and ZOE, respectively. Manual measurements took place in monthly intervals from Oct. 2019–Jun.
313 2020 at Klausen-Leopoldsdorf and from Jun. 2019 until Oct. 2019 (monthly interval) and in July 2020
314 (diurnal variation) at ZOE. Rs was calculated automatically by fitting a linear (KLL) or quadratic
315 function (ZOE; quadratic fit for flow rates > 0.2 ppm s⁻¹, otherwise a linear fit was used) to the
316 increasing CO₂ headspace concentration.



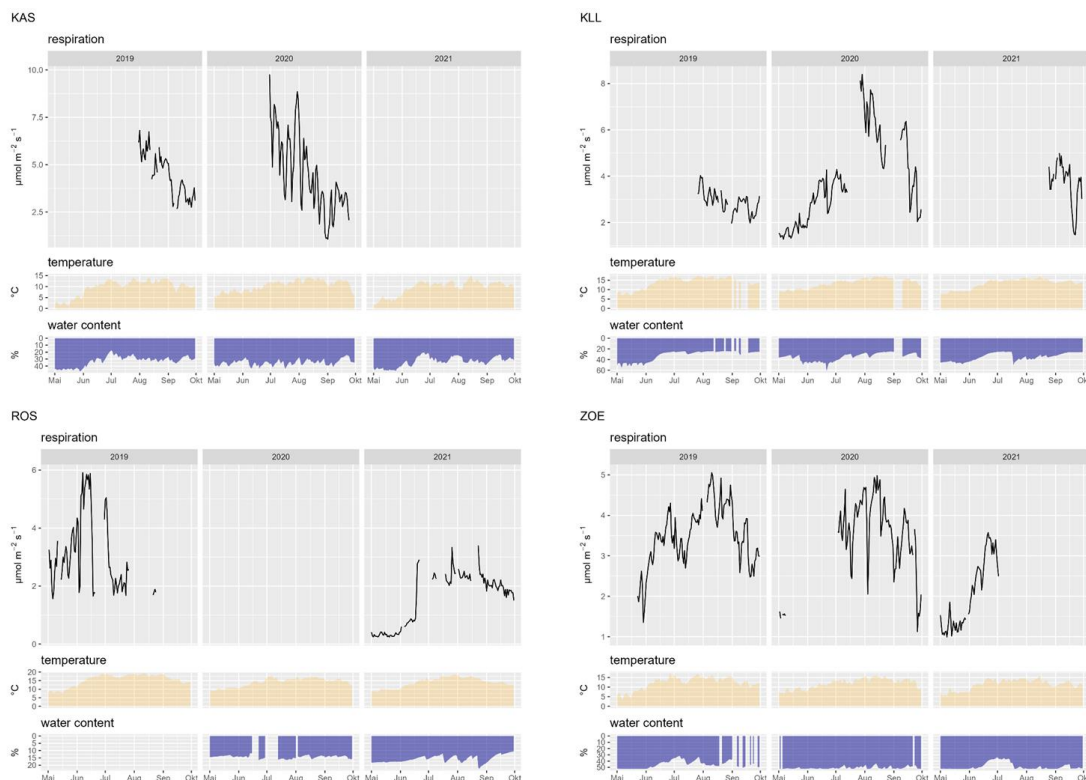
317 The mean CO₂ fluxes of the automated chambers correlated well with the manually measured fluxes
318 during the measurement campaigns (Figure 3). At KLL, the R² was 0.95 (p-value < 0.05), at ZOE it was
319 0.85 (p-value < 0.05). In both sites, neither the intercept nor the slope was significantly different
320 from 0 (p-value > 0.2) and 1 (p-value > 0.49), respectively. At ZOE, the spatial flux variation was much
321 higher than at KLL (Figure 3A and 3B). This reflects the heterogeneity of the soil conditions (shallow
322 rendzic leptosols with interspersed fine-scale patches of deeper soils), the canopy gaps (with lower
323 root density), and the uneven distribution of litter due to the steep slope at the plot, more effectively
324 captured in the manual measurement (n=30) than by the automated chambers (n=6). In summary,
325 we conclude that the spatial variation in CO₂ fluxes was higher at both sites than the difference in
326 fluxes caused by the measurement devices.



327

328 *Figure 3.* Comparison of automated and manual soil CO₂ fluxes at A) Klausen-Leopoldsdorf and B) Zöbelboden. See *Table 2*
329 for the specification of automated chamber data. Error bars indicate spatial variation (standard deviations).

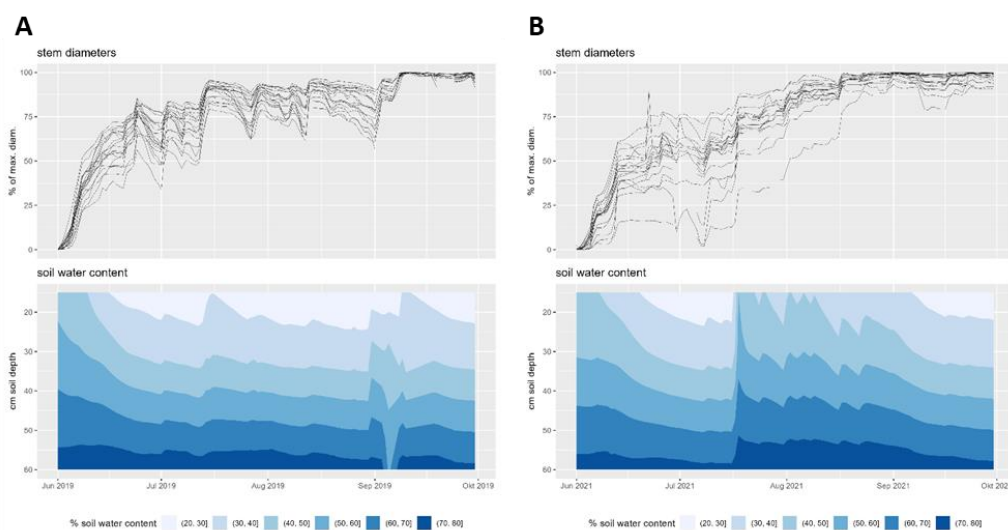
330



331

332 *Figure 4. Soil CO₂ respiration (mean of all chambers), soil temperature (mean of sensors in 5-15 cm depth) and soil water*
333 *content (mean of sensors in 5-15 cm depth) in the forested sites Kaserstattalm forest (KAS), Klausen-Leopoldsdorf (KLL),*
334 *Rosalia (ROS), and Zöbelboden (ZOE).*

335 Soil CO₂ fluxes are temperature dependent, thus closely follow soil temperature (Figure 4). Their
336 additional limitation through soil water availability for plant metabolism and microbial activity is
337 much less pronounced. For an interpretation of the CO₂ respiration fluxes and their limiting factors,
338 we refer to the citations listed in the site description chapter. Drollinger et al. (2019) provides
339 interpretations of the patterns of CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes, measured using Eddy covariance techniques at
340 the bog site Pürgschachen Moor (PUE), and likewise, Baur et al. (2024), for the reed belt of
341 Neusiedler See (NSS). Stem growth limitations can, on the other hand, be closely related to soil water
342 content, particularly at sites with relatively low precipitation such as Klausen-Leopoldsdorf (KLL)
343 (Figure 5). For an in-depth study of drought related effects on tree growth at the treeline forest at
344 Kasterstattalm (KAS), we refer to Oberleitner et al. (2022).



345

346 *Figure 5.* Relative stem diameters and soil moisture at the site Klausen-Leopoldsdorf (KLL) during the dry years 2019 (A) and
347 2021 (B). Stem diameter values were scaled to an annual amplitude of 100.

348

349 6. Discussion

350 We provide baseline ecosystem data related to the carbon cycle and capture naturally occurring ECEs
351 across various ecosystem types typical for Austria and other regions of Central Europe. Such data sets
352 are scarce because the measurements are demanding in terms of maintenance and funding.
353 Automated soil respiration data in high temporal resolution, as we report it here, is rare too owing to
354 a lack of dedicated monitoring or research infrastructures (Bond-Lamberty et al., 2021). However,
355 soil CO₂ respiration constitutes the second-largest flux in the global carbon cycle, hence is key in
356 estimating ecosystem response to ECEs (Bond-Lamberty and Thomson, 2010). In addition, we
357 provide soil temperature and moisture measurements in the same resolution, being key variables
358 determining soil respiration (Pumpanen et al., 2015). High-resolution measurements of tree stem
359 circumference have been developed as complementary data to relate drought stress with changes in
360 carbon allocation in trees (Zweifel, 2016; Zweifel et al., 2021). The microclimatic, soil, and tree
361 physiological data is complemented by CO₂ and CH₄ fluxes between the vegetation and the
362 atmosphere measured with Eddy covariance techniques of the two wetland sites.

363 Our data is particularly useful for drought-related research. Triggered by the pan-European drought
364 of 2003 (Ciais et al., 2005), a key scientific question has been how droughts affect greenhouse gas
365 sinks and sources in ecosystems (Rödenbeck et al., 2020; Reichstein et al., 2013; Anderegg et al.,
366 2020). Droughts usually reduce soil respiration due to the decrease in autotrophic respiration but
367 also because soil microbial activity drops due to water limitation (Grünzweig et al., 2022).
368 Furthermore, rewetting can result in pulses of high soil respiration (Borken and Matzner, 2009).
369 Drought effects on the ecosystem C cycle can persist for years (Kannenberg et al., 2020; Müller and
370 Bahn, 2022) and novel approaches are being developed for assimilating high-resolution data for
371 understanding and quantifying such legacies (Yu et al., 2022; Fu et al., 2020). In this context, the
372 availability of long-term, high-resolution measurements of key ecosystem parameters is key for
373 understanding and quantifying the effects of recurrent droughts (Oberleitner et al., 2022).



374

375 The sites presented here are currently being upgraded towards their implementation in the
376 European Research Infrastructure for Integrated European Long-Term Ecosystem, critical zone and
377 socio-ecological Research (eLTER RI), together with another ~200 sites in Europe (Mirtl et al., 2018).
378 Climate change impacts on ecosystem processes including the carbon cycle are among the targeted
379 research areas the eLTER RI will focus on. The measurements resulting in the data presented here
380 will continue in future under the umbrella of eLTER RI. Compiling longer-term data series depends
381 upon the availability of already validated data sets - as it is presented here - before the RI is being
382 operational. Furthermore, long-term ecosystem observations already exist in these sites with regard
383 to water and nitrogen cycle allowing for a contextual interpretation of the trends seen in C related
384 parameters.

385 Combining several research and monitoring activities at already heavily instrumented sites not only
386 saves money but widens the data analyses portfolio (Futter et al. 2023; Kulmala 2018). Even though
387 we provide Eddy covariance data for two of our sites, Austria is not part of the International Carbon
388 Observation System (ICOS). A combination of data capturing long-term boundary layer exchange of C
389 together with soil C fluxes, microclimate, and, in forests, tree physiological data obviously holds great
390 potential (Zweifel et al., 2023; Ramonet et al., 2020). Hence, using the sites simultaneously for other
391 research infrastructures, such as ICOS, providing high-quality Eddy covariance measurements would
392 obviously be ideal. The more so because European Research Infrastructures follow the FAIR data
393 principles to make data Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable (Wilkinson et al., 2016).

394 While the eLTER RI data infrastructure is still under development, we comply with the standards
395 already implemented. We used DEIMS-SDR (<https://deims.org/>) as the catalogue documenting the
396 sites (Wohner et al., 2019; Wohner et al., 2022). It issues persistent identifiers for sites (see Table 1)
397 that allow to uniquely identify sites across research projects and networks. Tools are being
398 developed to query available information about sites programmatically (Oggioni et al., 2023;
399 Wohner, 2023) providing contextual ecosystem information.

400

401 7. Data availability

402 7.1 Data access

403 The data and metadata is accessible at B2SHARE (<https://b2share.eudat.eu/>), a service provided by
404 the EUDAT Collaborative Data Infrastructure. DOIs of the datasets are listed in Table 3. The site
405 metadata in DEIMS-SDR (Table 1) is part of the data metadata so that site information can easily be
406 accessed. In chapter 3, we provide a jupyter notebook to download and merge the single datasets,
407 and to visualize parameters.

408 *Table 3. Dataset DOIs*

Site	Dataset	DOI	Reference
Klausen- Leopoldsdorf	Meteorology	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.8f872a37513c4768b16ce755eca4bb57	(Gartner et al., 2024a)
	Soil climate	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.8d49c0b557f1455a9e66689e035b8cce	(Gartner et al., 2024b)
	Soil CO ₂ respiration	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.5286bd1bc6aa491f874b9bb12d1c5673	(Kitzler and Hofbauer, 2024)
	Stem increment	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.68d84a913f0c4875be5c680ad4d6959e	(Gartner and Gollobich, 2024)



Rosalia Forest Demonstration Centre	Meteorology	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.96c52c247eb846deb2a3ec5e2c27b4f1	(Diaz-Pines, 2024a)
	Soil climate	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.c68143fc11224c44ae5529bd6a35a76d	(Diaz-Pines, 2024c)
	Soil CO ₂ respiration	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.d167e727abe947abbc8efc04057557f6	(Diaz-Pines, 2024b)
	Stem increment	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.d0d185f1eb184ae48f6d06ea9aa8dbdf	(Diaz-Pines, 2024d)
Zöbelboden	Meteorology	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.762e665273234b129d09ef017416bcfb	(Kobler et al., 2024a)
	Soil climate	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.46e19191ce9c427d90f48ce38f56a0e1	(Kobler et al., 2024c)
	Soil CO ₂ respiration	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.4f44006b932142e68981106a016f1f56	(Kobler et al., 2024b)
	Stem increment	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.2de5b37a0cad4f82a19f477531d6af24	(Pröll et al., 2024)
Stubai - Kaserstattalm	Meteorology	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.77462914dc0b43cb8c24a967e6851665	(Ingrisch and Bahn, 2024c)
	Soil climate	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.026d76094e8f4512b09b35b7a0d2a9d7	(Ingrisch and Bahn, 2024d)
	Soil CO ₂ respiration	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.cfe8c7ad1965433484650ea9026512ca	(Ingrisch and Bahn, 2024a)
	Stem increment	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.0e3eed54ff30418f8720806b5f05cca9	(Ingrisch and Bahn, 2024b)
Pürgschachen Moor	Meteorology	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.5442510ad03e4968afb4e2108e85a64d	(Maier and Glatzel, 2024e)
	Soil climate	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.9380364098d14978b876a87517652d62	(Maier and Glatzel, 2024f)
	Eddy Covariance	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.4f783e3ff2884abca5c59960db0b7955	(Maier and Glatzel, 2024d)
Lake Neusiedl	Meteorology	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.f7176c9ee982464f947d2fe9fb8f389d	(Maier and Glatzel, 2024b)
	Soil climate	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.4e6474cd55f9487d97e3d31e83baa530	(Maier and Glatzel, 2024c)
	Eddy Covariance	https://doi.org/10.23728/b2share.b83caca3efe44868a1ed49129b4a576a	(Maier and Glatzel, 2024a)

409

410 7.2 Data visualization, workflow integration

411 The software stack used to store, import and quality control the provided data is built on PostgreSQL
 412 database with a Post-GIS extension. The database structure is derived from the Time Series
 413 Management (TSM) system developed by the Research Center Jülich (Wohner, C., Dirnböck, T.,
 414 Peterseil, J., Pröll, G., Geiger, S., 2021) and originally deployed during the LTER CWN project but was
 415 repurposed to better fit the needs of the data management and working group. Now, for the import
 416 and quality control of data, a number of Python scripts deployed in a Jupyter environment are used.
 417 This is also includes scripts to visualise the data on the fly in Jupyter.

418

419 8. Code availability



420 A Jupyter notebook to access, merge, and visualize the data from all sites is available at
421 <https://gist.github.com/10/9bbe44a03f12801c6c742202b005db57>.

422

423 9. Author contribution

424 DT, BM, DPM, EM, GK, GG, HA, IJ, KB, KJ, MA, PG, VS, ZA, and GS designed the measurements and
425 carried them out. WC, PJ designed and constructed the database. KK, VS, and PG customized and
426 filled the database. OI developed the Jupyter notebook. DT prepared the manuscript with
427 contributions from all co-authors.

428

429 10. Competing interests

430 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

431

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435

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