Sediment flow-paths and associated organic carbon dynamics across a
 Mediterranean catchment

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13 Abstract14

15 Terrestrial sedimentation buries large amounts of organic carbon (OC) annually, 16 contributing to the terrestrial carbon sink. The temporal significance of this sink will 17 strongly depend on the attributes of the depositional environment, but also on the 18 characteristics of the OC reaching these sites and its stability upon deposition. The goal of 19 this study was to characterise the OC during transport and stored in the depositional 20 settings of a medium sized catchment (111 km²) in SE Spain, to better understand how soil 21 erosion and sediment transport processes determine catchment scale OC redistribution. 22 Total Organic Carbon (TOC), Mineral-Associated Organic Carbon (MOC), Particulate 23 Organic Carbon (POC), Total Nitrogen (N) and particle size distributions were determined 24 for soils (i), suspended sediments (ii) and sediments stored in a variety of sinks such as 25 sediment wedges behind check-dams (iii), channel bars (iv), a small delta in the conjunction 26 of the channel and a reservoir downstream (v) and the reservoir at the outlet of the 27 catchment (vi). The data show that the OC content of sediments was approximately half of that in soils (9.42±9.01 g kg⁻¹ versus 20.45±7.71 g kg⁻¹, respectively) with important 28 29 variation between sediment deposits. Selectivity of mineral and organic material during 30 transport and deposition increased in a downstream direction. The mineralisation, burial or 31 in situ incorporation of OC in deposited sediments depended on their transport processes 32 and on their post-sedimentary conditions. Upstream sediments (alluvial wedges) showed 33 low OC contents because they were partially mobilised by non-selective erosion processes 34 affecting deeper soil layers and with low selectivity of grain sizes (e.g. gully and bank 35 erosion). We hypothesise that the relatively short transport distances, the effective 36 preservation of OC in microaggregates and the burial of sediments in the alluvial wedges 37 gave rise to low OC mineralisation, as is arguably indicated by C:N ratios similar to those in 38 soils. Deposits in middle stream areas (fluvial bars) were enriched in sand, selected upon 39 deposition and had low OC concentrations. Downstream, sediment transported over 40 longer distances was more selected, poorly microaggregated, with a prevalence of silt and clay fractions and MOC pool. Overall, the study shows that OC redistribution in the 41 42 studied catchment is highly complex, and that the results obtained at finer scales cannot be 43 extrapolated at catchment scale. Selectivity of particles during detachment and transport, 44 and protection of OC during transport and deposition are key for the concentration and 45 quality of OC found at different depositional settings. Hence, eco-geomorphological 46 processes during the different phases of the erosion cycle have important consequences for 47 the temporal stability and preservation of the buried OC and in turn for the OC budget.

49 1. Introduction

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51 Terrestrial ecosystems have captured up to 28% (2.6±0.8 Pg y⁻¹) of the CO₂ emitted 52 annually over the last decade (Le Quéré et al. 2013). Among the processes involved in this 53 terrestrial carbon (C) sink, terrestrial sedimentation of eroded soil and replacement of soil 54 organic carbon at eroding sites have been regarded as active components (Stallard, 1998) 55 (Harden et al., 1999; Van Oost et al., 2007) The magnitude of its contribution to the sink has been estimated by some to be between 0.6 and 1.5 Pg of C annually (Stallard, 1998; 56 57 Aufdenkampe et al., 2011) through the burial of large quantities of laterally transported 58 organic carbon (OC). The significance of this contribution, however, will depend on the 59 long-term preservation of the buried OC, an issue that remains under debate (Van Oost et 60 al., 2012 and references therein). The fate of the redistributed OC will ultimately depend on the mechanisms of its physical and chemical protection against decomposition, its 61 62 turnover rates and the conditions under which the OC is stored in sedimentary settings 63 (Van Hemelryck et al., 2011; Berhe and Kleber, 2013).

64 The study of the temporal evolution of buried OC at depositional sites can be approached from different and complementary perspectives. It has been observed that organic matter 65 66 exported from rivers into the sea is not necessarily identical to the organic matter of the plants and soils upstream in the river catchments (Raymond et al., 2001). This indicates that 67 68 tracing sediment from source areas and the processes taking place during transport and deposition of eroded OC can also provide information on the quality and dynamics of the 69 eroded OC (Nadeu et al., 2012 and refs therein). Actually, more than 90% of the sediment 70 71 generated annually in uplands is not exported from catchments (Trimble, 1983; Meade et 72 al., 1990; Walling and Fang, 2003) but remains in transitory depositional sites such as lakes 73 and reservoirs, colluvial deposits at the bases of hillslopes, alluvium in floodplains and 74 channel bars (Meade et al., 1990). In fact, flood plains are expected to represent a key 75 storage site for OC within the catchment C balance, and increasingly this function is fulfilled by reservoirs (Verstraeten et al., 2006; Wisser et al., 2013; Ran et al., 2014). 76 77 Although large efforts are being made to understand the flowpaths of OC at the 78 catchment scale, most of the abovementioned C sinks remain unquantified. Recently Ran 79 et al. (2014) have estimated an OC budget for the Yellow River, concluding that over a 80 period of 60 years, 49.5 % of the OC was buried in different sinks within the river system, 81 27 % was mineralized during the erosion and transport phases and 23.5% was delivered 82 into the ocean. However, there is still large uncertainty over the stability and residence 83 times of OC in many of these sinks, which are affected greatly by geomorphological and 84 hydrological dynamics (Hoffmann et al., 2013). Thus, characterising the OC at these 85 transitory settings and acquiring knowledge on the processes and factors that influence OC stability at these sites contribute to the assessment of the significance of terrestrial 86 87 deposition in the C cycle.

88 Understanding how OC moves along with sediments through the different phases and 89 types of erosion and transport processes is crucial to explain partially the large variation in 90 C contents found in depositional sites. Along these lines, progressively the geomorphic 91 factors that control the redistribution of OC within watersheds are being defined (Berhe 92 and Kleber, 2013; Evans et al., 2013; Hoffmann et al., 2013; Nadeu et al., 2011; Nadeu et 93 al., 2015). The study of OC transport from erosion sites to depositional settings implies the 94 consideration of a large number of factors and processes taking place. Several studies have 95 described the impact of variation of transport and deposition of different OC sizefractions and the role of OC mineralisation, as well as the breakdown of soil aggregates or 96 97 re-aggregation at depositional sites (Wang et al., 2010; Van Hemelryck et al., 2011; 98 Martínez-Mena et al., 2012) and the contribution of new OC formation from vegetation at 99 depositional settings. Altogether, these factors are considered responsible for the 100 transformations undergone by OC from source to sink. Yet, comprehensive studies of 101 source to sink processes are, to the best of our knowledge, lacking.

102 The objective of this study is to characterise the OC in transit and at a range of 103 depositional settings in a medium size catchment and to associate our observations with 104 the catchment sediment dynamics. We aimed to: (i) characterise the OC concentrations in 105 the main sedimentary deposits along the catchment's drainage system; (ii) assess the main 106 processes involved in sediment redistribution; (iii) establish links between these processes 107 and the OC concentration and quality.

109 2. Study area

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111 The study area is located in the headwaters of the Segura catchment (Murcia, SE Spain), which drains to the Taibilla reservoir (Turrilla catchment) and is formed by three adjacent 112 113 subcatchments (Rogativa, Arroyo Blanco and Arroyo Tercero) covering a total area of 114 ~111 km² (Figure 1). The Taibilla reservoir, built in 1974, provides water to more than 2 115 million people. The dominant lithology of the catchment consists of marls, limestones, 116 marly limestones and sandstones of the Cretaceous, Oligocene and Miocene. The mountains are mainly constituted by limestones, while the middle and bottom valley 117 118 sections are dominated by marls (IGME, 1978).

119 The average annual rainfall for the period 1933-2004 was 583 mm and the average annual

- 120 temperature 13.3° C, at a station located in the centre of the basin at 1200 m above sea
- 121 level. Snow in the mountains, especially above 1700 m, is not abundant but is frequent in 122 winter. The dominant soils in the area are Lithosols, Regosols and Cambisols (IUSS-WRB, 123 2006). They have an average OC concentration in the first 10 cm between 3.2 and 1 % 124 depending on the land use, being the lowest for agricultural use mainly on marl lithology 125 (Nadeu et al., 2014). A previous study at the site showed that OC concentration in soil profiles down to 1 meter located in forest and shrub areas in a subcatchment was 1.5±1.4% 126 127 and 2.2±1% in profiles located in forest areas in another Rogativa subcatchment . In both 128 subcatchments average OC concentration in channel sediments down to 80 cm was
- 129 $1.1\pm0\%$ and $1.4\pm0.1\%$ respectively (Nadeu et al., 2012). Boix-Fayos et al. (2009) attributed 130 variation of OC concentration in depth in sediment profiles down to 120 cm located in 131 the main channel of 7 subcatchments of Rogativa to changes in the land use pattern of the 132 drainage area over the last decades.

The landscape is a mix of dryland farming (mainly barley), plantations of walnuts (*Junglans regia* L.), forests and shrublands. The forest is dominated by *Pinus nigra* Arn. subsp. *salzmanii*, although some individuals and masses of *Pinus pinaster* Ait. and *Pinus halepensis* Mill. are located in the lowest parts of the basin. A relevant proportion of the pine forest was planted in the reforestation works associated with dam construction in the 1970s. Nowadays, masses of *Quercus rotundifolia* Lam. are isolated or associated with *P. nigra* subsp.

139 salzmanii.

140 The catchment has been affected by important land use changes since the second half of 141 the twentieth century. These changes consisted mainly of a progressive abandonment of 142 the dryland farming activities and an increase of the forest cover. In the 1970s, a network 143 of check-dams was installed. Previous studies highlighted the important impact of land use 144 changes and check dams on the catchment's sedimentary dynamics (Boix-Fayos et al., 2008; 145 Quiñonero-Rubio et al., 2013; Quiñonero-Rubio et al., 2014), causing important 146 morphological changes in the river bed and accelerated bank erosion processes (Boix-Fayos 147 et al., 2007). Land use changes have been estimated to be responsible for about 50% of the 148 reduction in catchment sediment yield (Boix-Fayos et al., 2008) and have had an important 149 impact on the soil carbon stocks of the catchment (Boix-Favos et al., 2009).

The Turrilla catchment shows a dendritic channel pattern. The main channel has an average slope of 7.7 ° and a total longitude of 22 km. The stream is discontinuous upstream and continuous downstream. Geomorphological characterisations of channel reaches along the main and tributary streams of the Rogativa catchment indicated dominance of nonselective erosion processes affecting deeper soil layers and with no selectivity of grain sizes,

155 such as gully, bank and river bed erosion (Nadeu et al., 2012), often activated as a 156 consequence of the decrease in sediment input from the adjacent slopes caused by a 157 generalised recovery of the vegetation, following agricultural land abandonment and reforestations (Nadeu et al., 2014a). Furthermore land use and morphological 158 159 characteristics of the drainage area were identified to be important driving factors 160 determining the concentration and organic carbon yield exported by lateral fluxes in 161 smaller subcatchments of the Rogativa watershed (Nadeu et al., 2015). In general terms, 162 the main channel of Rogativa moved from an aggradation period with large sediment volumes coming from a well-connected agricultural catchment (1950's-1980's), to an 163 164 incision and degradation phase after afforestation, land abandonment and hydrological control-works (Boix-Fayos et al., 2007). Nowadays the Rogativa catchment is under a 165 166 transition phase with an armoured main channel and sediments being incorporated in the 167 channel through gullies and bank erosion (Boix-Fayos et al., 2007; Nadeu et al., 2011). 168

169 **3.** Methods

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The field experimental design was based on the main pathways of sediment and soil OC
during their transport through the catchment. Therefore, soils and different sedimentary
deposits within the catchment were sampled as shown in Figure 2.

175 **3.1. Soil data**

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Topsoil (0-10 cm) samples were taken from 109 locations distributed from upstream to downstream in the catchment, representing all land uses and their spatial extent. Of these samples, 20 % were from high density forest soils, 30 % from low density forest soils, 20 % from shrubland soils, 10 % from pasture soils and 20 % from agricultural soils. Disturbed samples were taken for laboratory analyses and undisturbed samples (rings of 100 cm³) for estimating soil bulk density.

184 Figure 1 and 2

185 186 **3.2. Sediment data**

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188 a) Alluvial wedges (behind check-dams)

190 The sediment deposited behind the network of check-dams installed in the 1970s was used 191 as representative of material mobilised by erosion processes and fluvial transport from the 192 upper catchment areas (Figure 1 and 2). Nineteen (sub) catchments, evenly distributed, 193 were sampled. The sediment wedges deposited behind each check-dam were sampled at the 194 front (close to the check-dam) to a maximum depth of 1.25 m. In addition, 14 of the 195 sediment wedges were sampled also at the back of the sediment wedge, to a maximum depth of 96 cm. At all points, bulk samples of 100 cm³ were taken at intervals of 7 cm 196 197 depth until the maximum depth was reached. Moreover, for 14 wedges, replicate samples 198 of the first layers were taken at 7-cm intervals, to 35 cm depth. A total of 537 undisturbed 199 samples were collected.

200 201 b) Fluvial bars

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Sedimentary fluvial bars located at two different reaches in the Rogativa main stream, 2 km apart in the middle section of the catchment, were sampled. One of the reaches is a permanent-flow reach where four different bars were sampled during three seasons 206 (autumn 2009, winter and spring 2010), and the other is an intermittent reach where four 207 bars were sampled in autumn 2009 and winter 2010 (the same dates as the bars of the 208 permanent-flow reach). A disturbed sample of the first 5 cm of the bar was taken at each sampling period, as no different layers corresponding to different events could be 209 210 distinguished in these bars.

211 Two more bars, also in an intermittent reach in the middle section of the catchment and in 212 a confluence of a small subcatchment (11 ha, barranco Escalerica 2) and the Rogativa main 213 stream, were sampled. The bars in the stream bed were incised during the last runoff event (winter 2010) that took place a few days before the sampling. The deposited layers 214 215 corresponding to different runoff events could be identified (Figure 1 and 2) and were sampled to a maximum depth of 30 cm (bar 1, seven layers, average depth of each layer 4.2 216 cm) or 20 cm (bar 2, six layers, average depth of each layer 3.3 cm). These bars represented 217 218 a mixture of sediments coming from several erosion processes and were considered representative of the type of sediment being transported along the stream bed from 219 220 further upstream (Nadeu et al., 2011). A total of 46 samples were collected. 221

222 c) Suspended sediment 223

224 Two devices for the sampling of suspended sediments were installed in the main stream of 225 the Rogativa channel in October 2010: one was installed in the downstream area, draining a catchment area of 54.4 km², and the other was installed below the confluence with the 226 perennial stream of Arroyo Blanco, draining a total catchment area of 78.1 km². 227

228 The sampling devices consisted of a column of 6 bottles located at an averaged height 229 difference of 7.5 cm from each other (Figure 1 and 2). At both locations the upper bottle 230 represented bank-full conditions of the incised stream. A total of 69 samples, corresponding to 13 events over a 2.5-year period were collected. 231 232

d) Delta sediments

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235 Sediments in the confluence of the river channel and the reservoir were sampled. This delta area is characterised by a very gentle slope and point bars formed by the meandering 236 contact between the river and the reservoir. A sampling scheme following the convex 237 238 depositional areas of the meanders of the river towards the reservoir was implemented: a 239 total of six positions with two replicates and two depths (0-5, 5-10 cm) were sampled, 240 collecting a total of 24 samples.

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e) Reservoir sediments

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Sediments in the Taibilla reservoir were sampled in March 2010. Water height in the 245 Taibilla reservoir is highly variable between years and during the year. Samples were taken 246 at a distance of 500 m from the confluence of the main stream of Rogativa and the 247 reservoir, in exposed sediments forming a terrace 20 cm above the water level at the 248 moment of sampling. Sampling was done with a Cobra TT hydraulic hammer to a depth of 249 1 m. The 1-m-deep core was divided at 5-cm intervals to 20 cm depth and then at 10-cm 250 intervals. A total of 23 samples were analysed.

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3.3. Laboratory analysis

254 255 All soil and sediment samples (from erosion deposits and deposition bars) were air-dried or 256 dried in an oven at a low temperature (<60°) and then sieved at 2 mm. Primary particle size

- 257 distribution was measured using a combination of wet sieving (particles $>63 \mu m$) and laser 258 diffractometry (particles $<63 \mu m$) using a Coulter LS, for the sand fraction and the silt and 259 clay fractions, respectively. The organic matter in these samples was oxidised with hydrogen 260 peroxide and chemically dispersed with a mixture of sodium hexametaphosphate and 261 sodium carbonate (anhydrous) for 18-24 h. The fractions obtained were classified as: 262 coarse sand (2000-250 µm), fine sand (250-63 µm), coarse silt (63-20 µm), fine silt (20-2 263 μ m) and clay (<2 μ m). The effective particle size distribution was measured by introducing 264 air-dried samples into a Coulter LS, without previous physical or chemical dispersion. From 265 these two measurements, micro-aggregation indices were derived.
- The percentage of micro-aggregated particles of fine sand, coarse silt and fine silt sizes and two aggregation indices that give an indication of the total percentage of micro-aggregated particles were used: IA (Index of Aggregation), as the sum of the differences of the dispersed and non-dispersed material in each size group (Wang et al., 2010), and ASC (Aggregation Silt and Clay) as the difference between dispersed clay and silt and nondispersed clay and silt (Igwe, 2000).
- Given that soil carbon pools might have differences in turnover times, it is of high interest
 to evaluate the behaviour of different carbon pools separately, as this could give us insight
- 274 in the long term stability of the mobilized carbon by lateral fluxes. For this purpose the OC 275 was divided into physical fractions by wet sieving: particulate organic carbon (>53µm) 276 (POC) was separated from mineral associated organic carbon (<53µm) (MOC) after shaking 10 g of air-dried soil sieved at 2 mm with 50 ml of sodium hexametaphosphate for 277 278 18 h (Cambardella and Elliot, 1992). Fractions were oven-dried at 60°C for water 279 evaporation and the dry material was weighed prior to OC determination. The OC and 280 nitrogen contents were determined by dry combustion in an elemental analyser (FLASH 281 EA 1112 Series Thermo). The total organic carbon (TOC) was assumed to be the sum of 282 the POC and MOC. The MOC accounted for micro-aggregate and intra-aggregate OC in 283 the silt and clay size fractions. Duplicate or triplicate soil samples were used for laboratory 284 analysis.
- 286 Table 1
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288 **3.4.** Statistical analysis

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Significant differences between averages were tested using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test at p<0.05. Spearman correlations were performed to explore the relationships between the TOC and pools, as well as C:N ratios and the percentages of primary and micro-aggregated soil particles, together with different aggregation indexes, for all cases or each sediment reservoir type separately. All statistical analyses were performed with the software SPSS 19.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL).

- 297 **4. Results**
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4.1. Primary particle size distribution of soils and sediments

The particle size distribution of soils differed from that of most of the sediments (Figure 303 3). The alluvial bars showed, on average, higher sand contents and lower contents in the 304 fine fractions than the soils (Figure 3). This enrichment in coarse fractions in the alluvial 305 bars was accompanied by the lowest TOC (Figure 4). In contrast, the suspended solids and 306 the delta and reservoir sediments had higher percentages of silt and clay than the soils. The 307 high sand contents in the reservoir and delta sediments were similar to the sand content 308 (around 20%) of the wedges. The particle size distributions of the alluvial wedges were 309 more similar to those of the soils of the catchment than to those of the rest of the 310 deposits (Figure 3).

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312 Figure 3313

314 4.2. Microaggregated particles in soils and sediments

316 Based on the microaggregation data, two groups can be distinguished. Soils and sediment wedges with similar IA and ASC values (Table 2) showed a significantly higher 317 318 microaggregation level than suspended sediment and reservoir sediments. The sediments in 319 alluvial wedges had 10-times more large aggregates (250-63 µm) than the suspended sediment and 6-times more than the reservoir sediments. This was the dominant class in 320 321 soils and alluvial wedges, while no differences between size classes occurred in suspended 322 and reservoir sediments. The percentages of medium-sized microaggregates (63-20 µm) in 323 the alluvial wedges were around 3- and 7-times greater than in the suspended sediment and 324 reservoir sediments, respectively. No significant differences were found between the 325 percentages of microaggregated particles in the suspended sediment and reservoir 326 sediments, regarding the total microaggregated material and size classes. 327

328 Table 2

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4.3. Organic carbon and nitrogen in soils and sediments

The TOC concentrations of sediments were, on average, around half $(9.42\pm9.01 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$ of the average TOC concentrations of surface soils (0-10 cm) $(20.45\pm7.71 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$, being higher in alluvial wedges behind dams, in the suspended solids, in the delta and in the reservoir and lower in alluvial bars in the main channel $(4.44\pm1.98 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$ (Figure 4).

336 The highest particulate organic carbon (POC) content was observed in sediment samples 337 taken from the alluvial wedges, while suspended solids and reservoir profiles contained the highest contents of mineral associated organic carbon (MOC). The lowest MOC content 338 339 was found in the bars (Figure 4). Similar POC:MOC ratios were found on soils, wedges and 340 bars (ranging from 0.5 in bars to 0.8 in soils), whereas much lower POC:MOC ratios were 341 found for the delta and reservoir (~ 0.2), reflecting the prevalence of the MOC pool transported downstream (Figure 4 and 5). Furthermore, while C:N ratios of the MOC and 342 343 POC fractions of soils sampled under different land uses in the catchment did not show 344 significant differences (data not shown, K-W test, p>0.05), most of the sediment deposits 345 (except for alluvial wedges) showed significantly lower C:N ratios than soils (Figure 5). In 346 general a decrease of C:N ratios of sediment deposits along the fluvial path was 347 accompanied by a simultaneous decrease in N, with the exception of suspended load, in 348 which a higher N content was found than in the other deposits (data not shown, K-W test, 349 p<0.05).

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351 Figure 4 and Figure 5

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4.4. Correlations between primary and micro-aggregated particles, OC pools and C:N ratios

The Spearman correlation coefficients showed different patterns in the relationships between the percentages of primary and micro-aggregated particles and the OC pools and 358 C:N ratios across the deposit types (Table 3). The Index of Aggregation (total amount of micro-aggregated particles) was positively correlated with TOC (for all data) and for the 359 360 supended sediment (p<0.06), POC (for all data and alluvial wedges) and C:N ratio (of all data). Furthermore, the percentages of micro-aggregates of 250-63 µm were positively 361 correlated with POC for all data and alluvial wedges and negatively with C:N ratio (for 362 wedges and suspended sediments). Percentages of microaggregates of 63-20 µm were 363 364 positively correlated to TOC and MOC of all deposits data and of alluvial wedges. 365 Furthermore this microaggregate size was positively correlated to C:N of all data, soils and wedges. The smallest microaggregated particles (20-2 µm) were positively correlated to 366 367 TOC and MOC of the reservoir and to POC of all data. In contrast, the ASC index (micro-aggregated material of silt and clay size fractions) was negatively correlated with the 368 369 OC pools, only in the cases that not correlation with fine-sized microaggregates (20-2 μ m) 370 was found. ASC correlated also negatively with C:N ratios for all data, soils and alluvial wedges. In general, it seemed that the TOC content and its fractions correlated positively 371 372 with micro-aggregated material (IA). Some microaggregated sizes showed significant positive correlations with OC of some deposits. Larger microaggregated sizes correlated 373 374 with TOC and POC of alluvial wedges and the finest microaggegated size with TOC an MOC in the reservoir downstream. No consistent correlation patterns were found between 375 the percentages of primary particles and the OC pools and C:N ratio across deposit types. 376 377 OC (total and/or different pools) was associated positively with the sand fraction and 378 negatively with the clay fraction, for all the data considered together, soils (only significant 379 association with sand) and the reservoir. By contrast, the clay fraction was associated 380 positively with TOC in wedges and suspended sediment, and with MOC in alluvial wedges. 381 Overall, as may be expected, the OC content was positively correlated with the clay fraction 382 in some deposits (e.g., alluvial wedges and suspended sediments), indicating selectivity 383 during detachment and transport. However, OC was also positively correlated with the content of sand particles in the soils and reservoir, probably indicating the entrance of 384 385 organic material from other processes (e.g. in situ formation of C in lakes (Tranvik et al., 2009)) in the reservoir and OC formation in the upper layers of sediment. Positive 386 387 correlations of the sand and OC in soils are probably due to the presence of several samples of sandy soils covered by dense forest (25% of dense forest soil samples had 45-388 389 70 % sand).

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5. Discussion

Table 3

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396 Hoffman et al. (2013) pointed out that accounting for the non-steady state of C dynamics 397 along flow-paths from hillslopes through river channels and into oceans is crucial to 398 understand the overall C budget. The redistribution of OC through soil erosion and 399 sediment transport is determined by processes that affect the mineral component of 400 sediment (e.g. selectivity and non-selectivity of material during the detachment, transport 401 and deposition phases) and by processes directly affecting the OC fraction within the 402 sediments (mineralisation, fixation, protection, new OC formation). To better understand 403 the role of soil erosion and sediment transport in the overall C budget, based on the data 404 reported in this study, the following paragraphs discuss the importance of spatial scale and 405 particle size selectivity as well as the C dynamics of eroded sediments during detachment, 406 transport and deposition phases. 407

408 5.1. OC redistribution: effect of scale of observation

409 410 All sediments studied within the Turrilla catchment showed, on average, OC 411 concentrations $(9.42\pm9.01 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$ less than half of those of soils $(20.45\pm7.71 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$, indicating depletion of OC in sediment at this scale. This clearly contrasts with 412 413 experimental data from erosion plots that usually show higher concentrations of OC in 414 sediments than in the original source-soils (Owens et al., 2002; Girmay et al., 2009; 415 Martinez-Mena et al., 2008). These relatively low OC concentrations found in sediments at 416 the catchment scale raise the question: do the erosion and sediment transport processes lead to C losses to the atmosphere, or is there another explanation for this difference in C 417 418 concentration between soils and sediments?

419 Previous studies have also found a depletion of OC in sediments measured at a catchment 420 scale (Avnimelech and McHenry, 1984; Haregeweyn et al., 2008; Chaplot and Poesen, 421 2012). For a small catchment (22 ha), Fiener et al. (2005) observed that sediment deposited in ponds was depleted in OC and clay relative to the source soils, while the sediment 422 423 collected at the outlet of the pond was enriched in OC and clay compared to soils. This 424 demonstrates the important changes in OC content that may occur during different 425 transport and deposition phases due to preferential deposition. Similar results were 426 reported by Wang et al. (2010) and Rhoton et al. (2006), who found OC impoverishment in 427 deposited sediments within their study catchments, while the sediment transported in 428 suspension and exported out of the catchment was enriched in OC (1.2-3 times) compared 429 to the OC concentration in the source soils. Ran et al. (2014) attributes also lower values of 430 OC than soils for different sedimentary settings, based on several methods, to estimate the 431 OC carbon budget of the Yellow River. In our case, the suspended sediments as well as the 432 reservoir sediments showed significantly higher contents of MOC compared to the other 433 sediment deposits, while the MOC contents in soils was similar to that in reservoir 434 sediments and slightly higher than in suspended sediments. This was also found by 435 Amegashi et al. (2011) and can be probably attributed partially to new, in-situ formation of OC in the reservoir (Einsele et al., 2001). We suggest that at these larger scales the decrease 436 437 of OC in sediments compared to soils is due to a combination of factors related to the 438 spatial scale of observation, namely; (i) variety of sediment sources, that dilute the source 439 effect; (ii) interaction of multiple erosion processes, both selective and unselective; (iii) long 440 transport distances that favour continuous remobilisation of sediment facilitating aggregate 441 breakdown and a reduced physical protection of OC; and (iv) the ample time lapse (from 442 hours to several years) that occurred between sediment detachment and its sampling. This 443 contrasts with sediments collected at the plot and hillslope scales, which are collected close to their sources during the detachment and transport phases, and often shortly after the 444 445 erosion event, with little opportunity for OC mineralization.

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448 5.2. Mechanisms of OC loss or gain in sediments

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Among all the factors and processes abovementioned that condition a general decrease of OC in sediments in our studied catchment compared to soils, three of them closely interact: (i) sources of sediment linked to specific erosion processes; (ii) size selectivity; and (iii) processes affecting the organic components of sediments during the erosion and fluvial transport pathway such as burial, mineralisation or new OC formation.

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5.2.1. Size selectivity and sources of sediment

Wang et al. (2010) explained how selectivity of soil material determines the OCconcentration during transport. They concluded that there was very little mineralisation of

460 TOC during the erosion process, since they found higher C:N ratios in sediments than in 461 source soils and similar enrichment ratios of clay and C in deposited sediments. Based on 462 multiple indicators our data show evidence for the contrary in the middle and lower catchment deposits (suspended sediments, delta and reservoir): higher clay contents, lower 463 464 OC and low C:N ratios in sediments than in soils. These findings could indicate C losses by mineralisation during transport over longer distances. However, the interpretation of 465 466 narrowed C:N ratios as indicator of mineralization must be done cautiously and in 467 combination with other indicators (Wang et al., 2010), given the complexity of N behaviour along the fluvial path (Robertson and Groffman, 2007). This is even more complex in 468 469 sediments of intermittent rivers (as in our case) because nitrification and denitrification processes are also dependent on the drying and rewetting cycles of sediments (Gómez et 470 471 al., 2012; Arce et al., 2013). In our study, total TOC and N were lower in all sediment 472 deposits compared to soils, with the exception of suspended load. Increase of N in 473 sediments rich in clay (as suspended load) has been attributed to the presence of 474 ammonium or to the contribution of fresh-water algae (Sánchez-Vidal et al., 2013).

475 The low OC concentration of sediments deposited in the upper catchment may have a 476 differen explanation. The sediments in the alluvial wedges showed textural classes and C:N ratios similar to those of the soils, but lower OC concentrations. The low OC 477 478 concentration may be explained by the fact that the sediments originate from deeper soil 479 layers, mobilised by non-selective erosion processes such as bank, gully and channel 480 erosion, with lower OC concentrations than the surface soil. Geomorphological field 481 assessments in the area indicated that these deeper operating erosion processes are indeed important sources of sediments in the catchment (Boix-Fayos et al., 2007). Yet, sediments 482 483 derived from deep soil layers not only have lower OC concentration but also different OC 484 pool composition (Nadeu et al. 2011) and different turnover rates (Nadeu et al. 2012) than 485 those derived from topsoil. Differences in OC pools between sediment deposits can also be the result of transport conditions due to higher or lower rainfall intensity (Martínez-486 Mena et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013) or to the discharge. Smith et al. (2013) related high 487 488 discharge rates with transport of modern C, associated with erosion and the release of 489 organic matter (Sanchez-Vidal et al., 2013), and C from vascular sources (Goñi et al., 2013). Low flows were associated with export of fossil OC (Smith et al., 2013), from biogenic 490 491 sources dominated by non-vascular plants (Goñi et al., 2013) or from fresh water primary 492 producers (Sanchez-Vidal et al., 2013).

A comparison of the particle sizes of the studied sediments and soils of the catchment points to a selection of transported material in a downstream direction. Finer microaggregated and single particles were present in the suspended load and in the reservoir. In the soils and in the alluvial wedges behind check-dams, the material was much more heterogeneous, having similar particle size distribution and larger microaggregates, indicating again its transport by non-selective erosion processes and over short distances.

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500 5.2.2. Processes affecting organic carbon dynamics during transport and 501 deposition 502

The OC concentration, the variation in C:N ratios and the different associations of OC
with textural classes in the studied deposits indicate different processes of loss or gain of
OC during the transport along the studied catchment.

506 The C:N ratios showed clearly two groups (Figure 5): lower values in suspended sediments, 507 delta and reservoir sediments, and higher values in soils and alluvial wedges. This suggests a 508 relatively low mineralisation of OC in the sediments of alluvial wedges due to efficient 509 burial or a short transport time, as reported also by Smith et al. (2013) and suggested by 510 Ran et al. (2014). Further downstream in the suspended sediments, delta and reservoir 511 sediments, the lower C:N ratios could indicate mineralisation of OC in sediment 512 transported over longer distances (Figure 5) (Bouchez et al., 2010; Hovius et al., 2011; 513 Raymond and Bauer, 2001). Ran et al. (2014) recently reported a mineralization of 27 % during erosion and transport of sediment and associated OC through the Yellow River 514 515 catchment. Although, as previously stated, interpretation of C:N ratios for mineralization must be done with caution. Nevertheless, and interestingly, the observed trend in the C:N 516 ratios in soil and among different sediment deposits was consistent with that found in the 517 518 POC:MOC ratios (Figure 5) which support our statement that the degree of OC 519 mineralisation is increased during transport along the flow-path (prevalence of more 520 recalcitrant fractions downstream).

Apart from the indications of OC mineralisation, the MOC concentration of suspended sediments was low and very variable (3.8-0.1 %) which can be attributed to the diverse characteristics of the events that mobilise material from different sources (Smith et al., 2013; Goñi et al., 2013; Sanchez-Vidal et al., 2013) or to sediments mobilised by different erosion processes (Nadeu et al., 2011; 2012).

- 526 Furthermore, the relatively high OC content of the reservoir sediments could indicate in situ organic matter formation from ecological lake processes stimulating primary 527 production (Einsele, 2001) or allochthonous OC input from the establishment of 528 529 vegetation and soil formation in the frequently exposed upper sediment layers. Moreover, 530 while other deposits (wedges and suspended sediment) showed the well-known relationship 531 between clay and OC (Rodriguez-Rodriguez, 2004; Rhoton et al., 2006; Martínez-Mena et al., 2008), reservoir sediments presented a correlation between the sand fraction and 532 533 concentration of OC in the two pools, that could be indicative of in situ C formation. 534 Autochthonous input of organic matter in river and lakes can account around 50 % of the 535 total organic matter in aquatic ecosystems of tropical-semiarid and dryland areas (Kunz et al., 2011; Medeiros and Arthington, 2011) (Kunz et al., 2011). The fluctuation in 536 autochthonous organic matter production in riverine ecosystems depends on the input 537 538 from terrestrial land uses in the drainage area, with thresholds in which terrestrially derived 539 C is replaced by in-stream algal productivity (Hagen et al., 2010). However, it can also be 540 influenced by river hydrodynamics (Cabezas and Comín, 2010; Devesa-Rey and Barral, 541 2012). In particular, in Mediterranean river ecosystems there is an important seasonal shift 542 between inputs of allochthonous and authochtonous organic matter, with high primary 543 production in spring and allochtonous organic matter inputs in autumn (Romaní et al., 544 2013). Given that C:N ratios of allochtonous organic matter (more recalcitrant and 545 resistant to degradation by microorganisms) tend to be higher than in situ produced organic matter (Devesa-Rey and Barral, 2012), shifts between one and the other will change OC 546 547 decomposition rates and dynamics.
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549 The combined interpretation of OC pools, textural analysis and C:N ratios in the soils and 550 different sediment deposits indicates that catchment scale C redistribution by lateral fluxes 551 is controlled by both the organic and the mineral nature of sediments:

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558 559 (i) Sediments in upstream depositional areas (alluvial wedges) showed significantly lower C concentrations than soils, but sediment texture and C characteristics were more similar to those in soils than to those in sediments transported further downstream, showing little indication of mineralisation (similar C:N than in soils) and low selectivity of particles (similar primary and aggregated particle size distribution to soils). This is probably related to the non-selective character of dominant erosion processes and to the proximity of sediment sources, giving little time for aggregate breakdown or C mineralisation.

- (ii) In middle stream areas, preferential deposition of coarse particles can be seen in
 the channel bars, enriched in the sand fraction and showing the lowest
 concentrations of all C fractions, among all deposits.
- 563 (iii) Downstream, the suspended sediment in transit and the sedimentary deposits (delta 564 and reservoir) showed higher contents of fine particles (clay and silt) accompanied by lower C:N ratios and a slightly higher C concentration, though 565 566 still lower than in soils. The sand contents of the delta and reservoir deposits indicate also bedload contribution to the deposits downstream. The differences 567 in the C:N ratio combined with other indicators could indicate different degrees 568 569 of mineralisation of OC along the flow-path, the OC being protected more when associated with large micro-aggregated particles in soils and in the 570 deposits of the upper catchment areas. 571
- 572 573 574

5.3. Implications for the fate of eroded OC

575 The results from this study suggest that sediment reaching depositional settings is composed of a heterogeneous mixture of OC particles and different states of 576 decomposition. The role of the source area, sediment transport and post-deposition 577 578 processes were revealed as crucial to understanding the characteristics of the OC and 579 differences among the analysed deposits and distinct phases of the erosion process. 580 Although mineralisation fluxes were not addressed directly, the decrease in the level of particle aggregation downstream suggests a potential increase in OC decomposition by 581 582 microorganisms, leading to higher potential mineralisation rates. Distance from source 583 areas, selective transport and deposition of sediments were identified as important factors 584 controlling the characteristics of the OC in sediments and its fate. 585

586 6. Conclusions

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588 A non-homogeneous redistribution of OC by water flow takes place within catchments, 589 which can be associated with the geomorphological processes and dynamics of sediment 590 transport and deposition. The redistribution of OC in sediments at the catchment scale is 591 controlled by factors affecting their organic component (mineralisation, protection of OC 592 within micro-aggregates and new OC formation in some deposits) and by factors affecting 593 their mineral component (selectivity of sediment sizes during the detachment, transport 594 and deposition phases of erosion, and the type of erosion processes: selective versus non-595 selective).

596 The processes that determine OC concentration at different pools are related also to the 597 different phases of erosion (detachment, transport and deposition): (i) during detachment: 598 size selectivity, type of erosion process and source of material; (ii) during transport: size 599 selectivity, protection of OC in micro-aggregates and transport distances, and (iii) during 600 deposition and in the post-deposition phase: size selectivity, protection of OC from 601 mineralisation by stabilisation of micro-aggregates and burial and new OC formation are 602 important.

The OC mobilised in catchments is associated very closely with the sediment dynamics and can have long residence times, linked to the fate of the sediments. In addition, it can be increased by ecological processes and by replacement in eroded areas, converting catchments into relevant sinks for C budgets.

- 607
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- 609

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Table 1. Main location and characteristics of the sampling areas within the catchment

| Location of soil and sediments | Group name | Drainage area (ha) | Deposition areas | Profiles/ Subcatchments /Events | Maximu m depth (cm) | Samples (n) |
|---|--------------------|-----------------------|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|
| Soils | | | | | | |
| Slopes | Soils | 11000 | - | 109 | 10 | 109 |
| Sediments | | | | | | |
| Subcatchments in the third and fourth order channels | Wedges | 8-146 | Sediment wedges behind check- dams | 19 | 125 | 537 |
| Main channel and a tributary stream | Bars | 5000 | Channel bars | 10 | 3-30 | 46 |
| Main channel | Suspended sediment | 5000-7800 | Suspended load | 13 | 7-42 | 69 |
| Main channel | Delta | 11000 | Delta in the conjunction of the main channel and reservoir | 6 | 10 | 24 |
| Reservoir | Reservoir | 32000 | Reservoir sediments at the exit of the catchment | 2 | 100 | 23 |

835 836 837 838 839 Table 2. Percentages of microaggregated particles in different size classes and microaggregation indices (IA, Wang et al., 2010; ASC, Igwe et al., 2000).

| Group name | 250-63 μm | 63-20 μm | 20-2 μm | IA | ASC |
|---------------------------------|----------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Soils (N=16) | 24.99±16.27aA* | 3.91±6.99aB | 7.34±16.06aB | 73.91±21.03a | 12.51±34.91a |
| Wedges (N=25) | 36.49±17.88aA | 9.59±8.87bB | 0 | 92.18±23.50a | 36.48±17.92a |
| Suspended sediment (N=41) | 3.60±9.21bA | 3.19±3.22aA | 2.52±6.40aA | 18.22±12.29b | 0.98±2.26b |
| Reservoir (N=12) | 6.65±7.87bA | 1.46±2.70aA | 2.44±3.46aA | 24.94±14.30b | -0.41±9.71b |

*Different lower case letters mean significant differences among sediments and soil groups.

840 841 842 843 Different capital letters mean significant differences within sediments and soil groups, with regard to micro-aggregated class sizes

(Kruskal-Wallis test, p< 0.05)

Table 3. Spearman correlation coefficients between primary and microaggregated particle indicators and organic carbon pools and C:N ratios.

| | Microaggregated particles | | | | Primary particles | | | | |
|---------------|---------------------------|-------------|---------|-------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|--|
| Groups | 250-63 μm | 63-20 μm | 20-2 µm | IA | ASC | Sand | Silt | Clay | |
| ТОС | | | | | - | | | | |
| All data | | 0.361 | - | 0.329 | - | 0.701 | -0.264 | -0.642 | |
| Soils | - | - | - | - | -0.512 | 0.574 | - | - | |
| Wedges | - | 0.364 | | - | - | -0.494 | - | 0.497 | |
| Suspended sed | - | | - | 0.34ª | - | - | -0.480 | 0.474 | |
| Reservoir | - | - | 0.667 | | - | 0.636 | - | -0.713 | |
| POC | | | | | | | | | |
| All data | 0.586 | - | 0.515 | 0.584 | - | - | - | -0.273 | |
| Soils | - | - | - | - | -0.618 | - | - | - | |
| Wedges | 0.526 | - | - | 0.650 | 0.517 | -0.720 | 0.450 | - | |
| Suspended sed | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| Reservoir | | - | - | - | -0.674 | 0.825 | - | -0.874 | |
| MOC | | | | | | | | | |
| All data | - | 0.462 | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| Soils | - | - | - | - | - | 0.588 | - | - | |
| Wedges | - | 0.579 | | - | - | - | - | 0.724 | |
| Suspended sed | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | |
| Reservoir | - | - | 0.667 | | - | 0.629 | - | -0.72 | |
| C:N | | | | | | | | | |
| All data | | 0.498 | 0.333 | 0.274 | -0.552 | 0.414 | -0.269 | -0.229 | |
| Soils | | 0.517 | | | -0.703 | - | - | - | |
| Wedges | -0.559 | 0.750 | | - | -0.559 | - | - | - | |
| Suspended sed | -0.400 | - | 0.458 | | - | - | -0.259 | - | |
| Reservoir | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | |

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* Only significant correlations are shown. Bold correlation indices are for p<0.005, the rest have p<0.05 a This correlation has p<0.06

855856 Figure 1. Location of the study area and sampling scheme857

Figure 2. Sketch representing the morphological positions selected for sampling of soil and sediments. Soils
were sampled all around the catchment in all the different land use classes, alluvial wedges behind check-dams
predominantly in the upper and middle parts of the catchment, while alluvial bars and suspended solids were
sampled in the middle and downstream areas. Delta and reservoir represent sampling areas downstream.

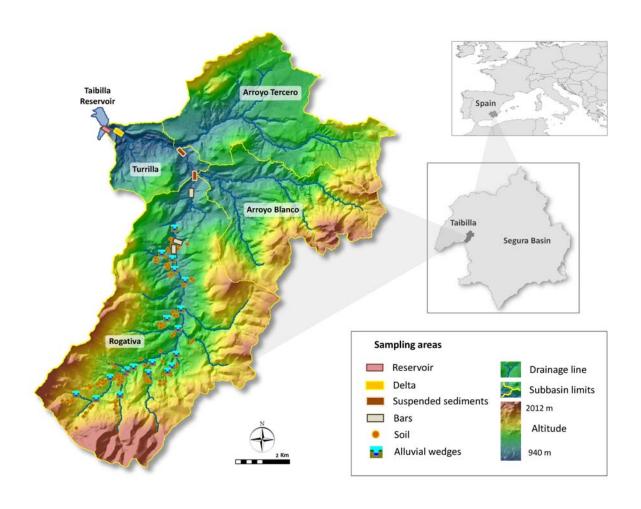
Figure 3. Median, percentiles (10th, 25th, 75th and 90th) and error of the main textural classes (A= sand; B= silt; C= clay) of the different types of sedimentary deposits within the Turrilla catchment. Different letters mean significant differences according to the Kruskal-Wallis test (p < 0.05).

867Figure 4. Median, percentiles (10th, 25th, 75th and 90th) and error of the total organic carbon concentration868(TOC) (A), particulate organic carbon (POC) (B), mineral associated organic carbon (MOC) (C) of soils and869sediments within the Turrilla catchment. Different letters (a-e) indicate significant differences according to870the Kruskal-Wallis test (p < 0.05). * = suspended solids measured contained only the MOC fraction.

873Figure 5. Median, percentiles (10th, 25th, 75th and 90th) and error of C:N ratios (A) and POC:MOC (B)874ratios in soils and sediments within the Turrilla catchment. Different letters (a-e) indicate significant875differences according to the Kruskal-Wallis test (p < 0.05). ND= No data available, * = suspended solids876measured contained only the MOC fraction.

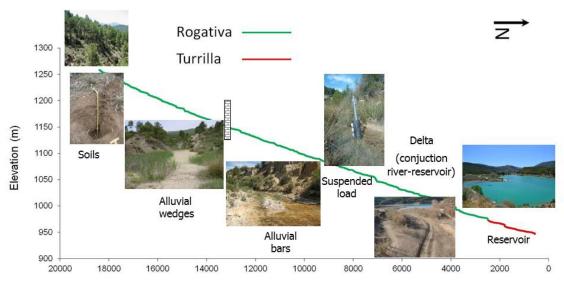
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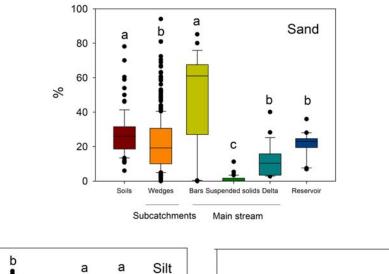
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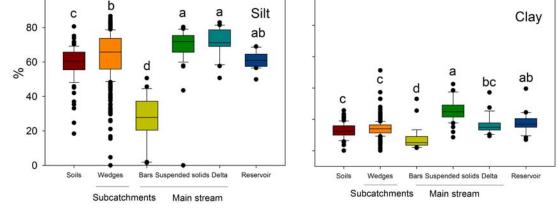
881 Figure 1



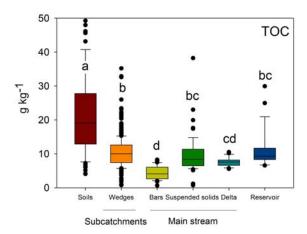
Distance to Taibilla water reservoir (m)

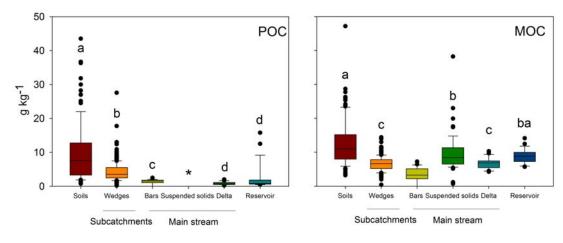
882 883 884 Figure 2



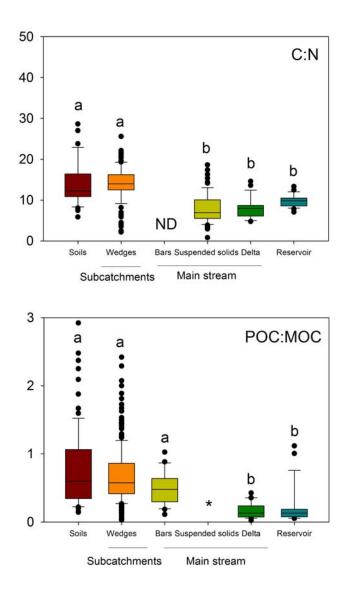


887 Figure 3





890 Figure 4



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