

Corrections to the revised version of manuscript HESS-2014-85 by Carolina Boix-Fayos et al.

Journal: HESS

Title: Coupling sediment flow-paths with organic carbon dynamics across a Mediterranean catchment

Author(s): C. Boix-Fayos et al.

MS No.: hess-2014-85

MS Type: Research Article

Iteration: Correction

Comments of the editor:

The only comment I have on review of this revision is that the figures need to be revised so that they have the constituent label on the y-axis label (with the units) rather than in the corners of the plots. Figures with multiple plots should have letters within them that identify each panel, and then the figure captions should reflect the panel letters to describe each one individually. Please revise as indicated.

Authors: Many thanks to the editor for his constructive and dedicated work. The Figures 3, 4 and 5 have been revised accordingly.

Furthermore slight corrections (including a couple of typographic and grammar errors) have been corrected along the text in the manuscript, we include a track-changes version of the correction to locate them.

Please do not hesitate to contact us for any question that might arise.

Sincerely yours, Carolina Boix-Fayos (on the behalf of the authors).

1 Sediment flow-paths and associated organic carbon dynamics across a 2 Mediterranean catchment

3
4
5 Carolina Boix-Fayos^{1*}, Elisabet Nadeu¹, Juan M. Quiñonero², María Martínez-Mena¹, María
6 Almagro¹, Joris de Vente¹

7
8 ¹Soil Erosion and Conservation Research Group. CEBAS-CSIC (Spanish Research Council), Campus de
9 Espinardo 30100, PO BOX 164, Murcia, Spain.

10 ² Department of Geography. University of Murcia. Campus de la Merced, 30001, Murcia, Spain

11 *Corresponding autor: cboix@cebas.csic.es

12 13 Abstract

14
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
28 of that in soils (9.42±9.01 g kg⁻¹ versus 20.45±7.71 g kg⁻¹, respectively) with important
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
41 clay fractions and MOC pool. Overall, the study shows that OC redistribution in the
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.

48 49 1. Introduction

50
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
56 has been estimated by some to be between 0.6 and 1.5 Pg of C annually (Stallard, 1998;
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
61 on the mechanisms of its physical and chemical protection against decomposition, its
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
65 from different and complementary perspectives. It has been observed that organic matter
66 exported from rivers into the sea is not necessarily identical to the organic matter of the
67 plants and soils upstream in the river catchments (Raymond et al., 2001). This indicates that
68 tracing sediment from source areas and the processes taking place during transport and
69 deposition of eroded OC can also provide information on the quality and dynamics of the
70 eroded OC (Nadeu et al., 2012 and refs therein). Actually, more than 90% of the sediment
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
76 fulfilled by reservoirs (Verstraeten et al., 2006; Wisser et al., 2013; Ran et al., 2014).
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
86 stability at these sites contribute to the assessment of the significance of terrestrial
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 size-
96 fractions and the role of OC mineralisation, as well as the breakdown of soil aggregates or
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

110
111 The study area is located in the headwaters of the Segura catchment (Murcia, SE Spain),
112 which drains to the Taibilla reservoir (Turrilla catchment) and is formed by three adjacent
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
117 mountains are mainly constituted by limestones, while the middle and bottom valley
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
122 in 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
126 profiles down to 1 meter located in forest and shrub areas in a subcatchment was 1.5±1.4%
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±0% and 1.4±0.1% 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.

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

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-Fayos et al., 2009).

150 The Turrilla catchment shows a dendritic channel pattern. The main channel has an average
151 slope of 7.7 ° and a total longitude of 22 km. The stream is discontinuous upstream and
152 continuous downstream. Geomorphological characterisations of channel reaches along the
153 main and tributary streams of the Rogativa catchment indicated dominance of non-
154 selective 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
158 reforestations (Nadeu et al., 2014a). Furthermore land use and morphological
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
163 volumes coming from a well-connected agricultural catchment (1950's-1980's), to an
164 incision and degradation phase after afforestation, land abandonment and hydrological
165 control-works (Boix-Fayos et al., 2007). Nowadays the Rogativa catchment is under a
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

170

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

174

175 3.1. Soil data

176

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

183

184 Figure 1 and 2

185

186 3.2. Sediment data

187

188 a) Alluvial wedges (behind check-dams)

189

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 ~~upstream,~~ at the back of the sediment wedge, to a
196 maximum depth of 96 cm. At all points, bulk samples of 100 cm³ were taken at intervals
197 of 7 cm depth until the maximum depth was reached. Moreover, for 14 wedges, replicate
198 samples of the first layers were taken at 7-cm intervals, to 35 cm depth. A total of 537
199 undisturbed samples were collected.

200

201 b) Fluvial bars

202

203 Sedimentary fluvial bars located at two different reaches in the Rogativa main stream, 2 km
204 apart in the middle section of the catchment, were sampled. One of the reaches is a
205 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
209 sampling period, as no different layers corresponding to different events could be
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
214 (winter 2010) that took place a few days before the sampling. The deposited layers
215 corresponding to different runoff events could be identified (Figure 1 and 2) and were
216 sampled to a maximum depth of 30 cm (bar 1, seven layers, average depth of each layer 4.2
217 cm) or 20 cm (bar 2, six layers, average depth of each layer 3.3 cm). These bars represented
218 a mixture of sediments coming from several erosion processes and were considered
219 representative of the type of sediment being transported along the stream bed from
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
226 catchment area of 54.4 km², and the other was installed below the confluence with the
227 perennial stream of Arroyo Blanco, draining a total catchment area of 78.1 km².

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,
231 corresponding to 13 events ~~and collected~~ over a 2.5-year period, were collected.

232 233 **d) Delta sediments**

234
235 Sediments in the confluence of the river channel and the reservoir were sampled. This
236 delta area is characterised by a very gentle slope and point bars formed by the meandering
237 contact between the river and the reservoir. A sampling scheme following the convex
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.

241 242 **e) Reservoir sediments**

243
244 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.

251 252 253 **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 µm) and laser
258 diffractometry (particles <63 µm) 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 µm) and clay (<2 µm). 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.

266 The percentage of micro-aggregated particles of fine sand, coarse silt and fine silt sizes and
267 two aggregation indices that give an indication of the total percentage of micro-aggregated
268 particles were used: IA (Index of Aggregation), as the sum of the differences of the
269 dispersed and non-dispersed material in each size group (Wang et al., 2010), and ASC
270 (Aggregation Silt and Clay) as the difference between dispersed clay and silt and non-
271 dispersed clay and silt (Igwe, 2000).

272 Given that soil carbon pools might have differences in turnover times, it is of high interest
273 to evaluate the behaviour of different carbon pools separately, as this ~~could~~^{will} give us
274 insight in the long term stability of the mobilized carbon by lateral fluxes. For this purpose
275 the OC was divided into physical fractions by wet sieving: particulate organic carbon
276 (>53µm) (POC) was separated from mineral associated organic carbon (<53µm) (MOC)
277 after shaking 10 g of air-dried soil sieved at 2 mm with 50 ml of sodium
278 hexametaphosphate for 18 h (Cambardella and Elliot, 1992). Fractions were oven-dried at
279 60°C for water evaporation and the dry material was weighed prior to OC determination.
280 The OC and nitrogen contents were determined by dry combustion in an elemental
281 analyser (FLASH EA 1112 Series Thermo). The total organic carbon (TOC) was assumed
282 to be the sum of the POC and MOC. The MOC accounted for micro-aggregate and intra-
283 aggregate OC in the silt and clay size fractions. Duplicate or triplicate soil samples were
284 used for laboratory analysis.

285
286 Table 1

287 288 **3.4. Statistical analysis**

289
290 Significant differences between averages were tested using the non-parametric Kruskal-
291 Wallis test at $p < 0.05$. Spearman correlations were performed to explore the relationships
292 between the TOC and pools, as well as C:N ratios and the percentages of primary and
293 micro-aggregated soil particles, together with different aggregation indexes, for all cases or
294 each sediment reservoir type separately. All statistical analyses were performed with the
295 software SPSS 19.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL).

296 297 **4. Results**

298 299 300 **4.1. Primary particle size distribution of soils and sediments**

301
302 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).

311
312 Figure 3

314 4.2. Microaggregated particles in soils and sediments

315
316 Based on the microaggregation data, two groups can be distinguished. Soils and sediment
317 wedges with similar IA and ASC values (Table 2) showed a significantly higher
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
320 sediment and 6-times more than the reservoir sediments. This was the dominant class in
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

330 4.3. Organic carbon and nitrogen in soils and sediments

331
332 The TOC concentrations of sediments were, on average, around half ($9.42 \pm 9.01 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) of
333 the average TOC concentrations of surface soils (0-10 cm) ($20.45 \pm 7.71 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$), being
334 higher in alluvial wedges behind dams, in the suspended solids, in the delta and in the
335 reservoir and lower in alluvial bars in the main channel ($4.44 \pm 1.98 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) (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
338 highest contents of mineral associated organic carbon (MOC). The lowest MOC content
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
342 transported downstream (Figure 4 and 5). Furthermore, while C:N ratios of the MOC and
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 $p < 0.05$).

350
351 Figure 4 and Figure 5

353 4.4. Correlations between primary and micro-aggregated particles, OC pools and 354 C:N ratios

355
356 The Spearman correlation coefficients showed different patterns in the relationships
357 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
359 micro-aggregated particles) was positively correlated with TOC (for all data) and for the
360 suspended sediment reservoir ($p < 0.06$), POC (for all data and alluvial wedges) and C:N ratio
361 (of all data in soils). Furthermore, the percentages of micro-aggregates of 250-63 μm were
362 positively correlated with POC for all data and alluvial wedges and negatively with C:N
363 ratio (for wedges and suspended sediments). Percentages of microaggregates of 63-20 μm
364 were positively correlated to TOC and MOC of all deposits data and ~~to TOC and MOC~~
365 of alluvial wedges. Furthermore this microaggregate size was positively correlated to C:N of
366 all data, soils and wedges. The smallest microaggregated particles (20-2 μm) were positively
367 correlated to TOC and MOC of the reservoir and to POC of all data. In contrast, the
368 ASC index (micro-aggregated material of silt and clay size fractions) was negatively
369 correlated with the OC pools, only in the cases that not correlation with fine-sized
370 microaggregates (20-2 μm) was found. ASC correlated also negatively with C:N ratios for
371 all data, soils and alluvial wedges. In general, it seemed that the TOC content and its
372 fractions correlated positively with micro-aggregated material (IA). Some microaggregated
373 sizes showed significant positive correlations with OC of some deposits. Larger
374 microaggregated sizes correlated with TOC and POC of alluvial wedges and the finest
375 microaggregated size with TOC an MOC in the reservoir downstream. No consistent
376 correlation patterns were found between the percentages of primary particles and the OC
377 pools and C:N ratio across deposit types. OC (total and/or different pools) was associated
378 positively with the sand fraction and negatively with the clay fraction, for all the data
379 considered together, soils (only significant association with sand) and the reservoir. By
380 contrast, the clay fraction was associated positively with TOC in wedges and suspended
381 sediment, and with MOC in alluvial wedges. Overall, as may be expected, the OC content
382 was positively correlated with the clay fraction in some deposits (e.g., alluvial wedges and
383 suspended sediments), indicating selectivity during detachment and transport. However,
384 OC was also positively correlated with the content of sand particles in the soils and
385 reservoir, probably indicating the entrance of organic material from other processes (e.g. in
386 situ formation of C in lakes (Tranvik et al., 2009)) in the reservoir and OC formation in the
387 upper layers of sediment. Positive correlations of the sand and OC in soils are probably
388 due to the presence of several samples of sandy soils covered by dense forest (25% of
389 dense forest soil samples had 45-70 % sand).

390
391 Table 3

392 393 394 **5. Discussion**

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 ($9.42 \pm 9.01 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$) less than half of those of soils ($20.45 \pm 7.71 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$),
412 indicating depletion of OC in sediment at this scale. This clearly contrasts with
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
417 lead to C losses to the atmosphere, or is there another explanation for this difference in C
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
422 in ponds was depleted in OC and clay relative to the source soils, while the sediment
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
436 OC in the reservoir (Einsele et al., 2001). We suggest that at these larger scales the decrease
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
444 to their sources during the detachment and transport phases, and often shortly after the
445 erosion event, with little opportunity for OC mineralization.

446

447

448 **5.2. Mechanisms of OC loss or gain in sediments**

449

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

455

456 **5.2.1. Size selectivity and sources of sediment**

457

458 Wang et al. (2010) explained how selectivity of soil material determines the OC
459 concentration 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
463 catchment deposits (suspended sediments, delta and reservoir): higher clay contents, lower
464 OC and low C:N ratios in sediments than in soils. These findings could indicate C losses by
465 mineralisation during transport over longer distances. However, the interpretation of
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
468 along the fluvial path (Robertson and Groffman, 2007). This is even more complex in
469 sediments of intermittent rivers (as in our case) because nitrification and denitrification
470 processes are also dependent on the drying and rewetting cycles of sediments (Gómez et
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 different explanation. The sediments in the alluvial wedges showed textural classes and C:N
477 ratios similar to those of the soils, but lower OC concentrations. The low OC
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
482 important sources of sediments in the catchment (Boix-Fayos et al., 2007). Yet, sediments
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
486 be the result of transport conditions due to higher or lower rainfall intensity (Martínez-
487 Mena et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013) or to the discharge. Smith et al. (2013) related high
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).
490 Low flows were associated with export of fossil OC (Smith et al., 2013), from biogenic
491 sources dominated by non-vascular plants (Goñi et al., 2013) or from fresh water primary
492 producers (Sanchez-Vidal et al., 2013).
493 A comparison of the particle sizes of the studied sediments and soils of the catchment
494 points to a selection of transported material in a downstream direction. Finer micro-
495 aggregated and single particles were present in the suspended load and in the reservoir. In
496 the soils and in the alluvial wedges behind check-dams, the material was much more
497 heterogeneous, having similar particle size distribution and larger microaggregates,
498 indicating again its transport by non-selective erosion processes and over short distances.

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

502
503 The OC concentration, the variation in C:N ratios and the different associations of OC
504 with textural classes in the studied deposits indicate different processes of loss or gain of
505 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 %
514 during erosion and transport of sediment and associated OC through the Yellow River
515 catchment. Although, as previously stated, interpretation of C:N ratios for mineralization
516 must be done with caution. Nevertheless, and interestingly, the observed trend in the C:N
517 ratios in soil and among different sediment deposits was consistent with that found in the
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 [\(prevalence of more](#)
520 [recalcitrant fractions downstream\)](#).

521 Apart from the indications of OC mineralisation, the MOC concentration of suspended
522 sediments was low and very variable (3.8-0.1 %) which can be attributed to the diverse
523 characteristics of the events that mobilise material from different sources (Smith et al.,
524 2013; Goñi et al., 2013; Sanchez-Vidal et al., 2013) or to sediments mobilised by different
525 erosion processes (Nadeu et al., 2011; 2012).

526 Furthermore, the relatively high OC content of the reservoir sediments could indicate *in*
527 *situ* organic matter formation from ecological lake processes stimulating primary
528 production (Einsele, 2001) or allochthonous OC input from the establishment of
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 (Rodríguez-Rodríguez, 2004; Rhoton et al., 2006; Martínez-Mena et
532 al., 2008), reservoir sediments presented a correlation between the sand fraction and
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
536 al., 2011; Medeiros and Arthington, 2011) (~~Kunz et al., 2011~~). The fluctuation in
537 autochthonous organic matter production in riverine ecosystems depends on the input
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 autochthonous organic matter, with high primary
543 production in spring and allochthonous organic matter inputs in autumn (Romani et al.,
544 2013). Given that C:N ratios of allochthonous organic matter (more recalcitrant and
545 resistant to degradation by microorganisms) tend to be higher than *in situ* produced organic
546 matter (Devesa-Rey and Barral, 2012), shifts between one and the other will change OC
547 decomposition rates and dynamics.

548
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:

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

- 560 (ii) In middle stream areas, preferential deposition of coarse particles can be seen in
561 the channel bars, enriched in the sand fraction and showing the lowest
562 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) -
565 accompanied by lower C:N ratios and a slightly higher C concentration, though
566 still lower than in soils. The sand contents of the delta and reservoir deposits
567 indicate also bedload contribution to the deposits downstream. The differences
568 in the C:N ratio combined with other indicators could indicate different degrees
569 of mineralisation of OC along the flow-path, the OC being protected more
570 when associated with large micro-aggregated particles in soils and in the
571 deposits of the upper catchment areas.

572 573 **5.3. Implications for the fate of eroded OC**

574
575 The results from this study suggest that sediment reaching depositional settings is
576 composed of a heterogeneous mixture of OC particles and different states of
577 decomposition. The role of the source area, sediment transport and post-deposition
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
581 particle aggregation downstream suggests a potential increase in OC decomposition by
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**

587
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
597 The processes that determine OC concentration at different pools are related also to the
598 different phases of erosion (detachment, transport and deposition): (i) during detachment:
599 size selectivity, type of erosion process and source of material; (ii) during transport: size
600 selectivity, protection of OC in micro-aggregates and transport distances, and (iii) during
601 deposition and in the post-deposition phase: size selectivity, protection of OC from
602 mineralisation by stabilisation of micro-aggregates and burial and new OC formation are
603 important.

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

608 609 **Acknowledgements**

610

611 This work has been financially supported by the project ESUMA (11859/PI/09) of the
612 Seneca Foundation, Regional Government of Murcia (Spain) and by the project SOGLO
613 (P7/24 IAP BELSPO) from the Belgian Government. Joris de Vente was supported by a
614 contract 'Juan de la Cierva' (JCI-2011-08941). Elisabet Nadeu acknowledges financial
615 support from an FPI predoctoral fellowship of the former Ministry of Science and
616 Innovation (BES-2008-002379). We also thank the MIRAGE project (EC, FP7-ENV-2007-
617 1) and Gonzalo G. Barberá; for facilitating the installation of the suspended solids
618 sampling devices. Gonzalo G. Barberá advised also about the statistical approach. Rosa
619 Gómez Cerezo, María del Mar Sánchez Montoya and Marisa Arce are thanked for
620 providing a part of the samples of the fluvial bars group. Many thanks to Pedro Pérez
621 Cutillas for producing Figure 1.

622

623 **References**

- 624 Amegashie, B.K., Quansah, C., Agyare, W.A., Tamene, L. and Vlek, P.L.G., 2011. Sediment-
625 bound nutrient export from five small reservoir catchments and its implications for
626 the Sudan savanna zone of Ghana. *Lakes & Reservoirs: Research & Management*,
627 16(1): 61-76.
- 628 Arce, M. I., Gómez, R., Suárez, M. L., and Vidal-Abarca, M. R., 2013. Denitrification rates
629 and controlling factors in two agriculturally influenced temporary Mediterranean
630 saline streams, *Hydrobiologia*, 700, 169-185, 2013.
- 631 Aufdenkampe, A.K., Mayorga, E., Raymond, P.A., Melack, J.M., Doney, S.C., Alin, S.R.,
632 Aalto, R.E. and Yoo, K., 2011. Riverine coupling of biogeochemical cycles between
633 land, oceans, and atmosphere. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, 9(1): 53-
634 60.
- 635 Avnimelech, Y. and McHenry, J.R., 1984. Enrichment of transported sediments with
636 organic carbon, nutrients and clay. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 48(2):
637 259-266.
- 638 Berhe, A.A. and Kleber, M., 2013. Erosion, deposition, and the persistence of soil organic
639 matter: Mechanistic considerations and problems with terminology. *Earth Surface
640 Processes and Landforms*, 38(8): 908-912.
- 641 Berhe, A.A., Harte, J., Harden, J.W. and Torn, M.S., 2007. The significance of the erosion-
642 induced terrestrial carbon sink. *Bioscience*, 57(4): 337-346.
- 643 Boix-Fayos, C., Barbera, G.G., Lopez-Bermudez, F. and Castillo, V.M., 2007. Effects of
644 check dams, reforestation and land use changes on river channel morphology: Case
645 study of the Rogativa catchment (Murcia, Spain). *Geomorphology*, 91: 103-123.
- 646 Boix-Fayos, C., de Vente, J., Martínez-Mena, M., Barberá, G.G. and Castillo, V., 2008. The
647 impact of land use change and check-dams on catchment sediment yield.
648 *Hydrological Processes*, 22(25): 4922-4935.
- 649 Boix-Fayos, C., de Vente, J., Albaladejo, J., Martínez-Mena, M., 2009. Soil carbon erosion
650 and stock as affected by land use changes at the catchment scale in Mediterranean
651 ecosystems. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment* 133: 75-85.
- 652 Bouchez, J., Beyssac, O., Galy, V., Gaillardet, J., France-Lanord, C., Maurice, L. and
653 Moreira-Turcq, P., 2010. Oxidation of petrogenic organic carbon in the Amazon
654 floodplain as a source of atmospheric CO₂. *Geology*, 38(3): 255-258.
- 655 Cabezas, A., and Comín, F. A.: Carbon and nitrogen accretion in the topsoil of the Middle
656 Ebro River Floodplains (NE Spain): Implications for their ecological restoration,
657 *Ecological Engineering*, 36, 640-652, 2010.
- 658 Cambardella, C.A. and Elliot, E.T., 1992. Particulate soil organic-matter changes across a
659 grassland cultivation sequence. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 56(3): 777-
660 783.

661 Chaplot, V., and Poesen, J.: Sediment, soil organic carbon and runoff delivery at various
662 spatial scales, *Catena*, 88, 46-56, 2012

663 Cole, J.J., Prairie, Y.T., Caraco, N.F., McDowell, W.H., Tranvik, L.J., Striegl, R.G., Duarte,
664 C.M., Kortelainen, P., Downing, J.A., Middelburg, J.J. and Melack, J., 2007.
665 Plumbing the global carbon cycle: Integrating inland waters into the terrestrial
666 carbon budget. *Ecosystems*, 10(1): 171-184.

667 Devesa-Rey, R., and Barral, M. T., 2012. Allochthonous versus autochthonous naturally
668 occurring organic matter in the Anllóns river bed sediments (Spain), *Environmental*
669 *Earth Sciences*, 66, 773-782.

670 Einsele, G., Yan, J. and Hinderer, M., 2001. Atmospheric carbon burial in modern lake
671 basins and its significance for the global carbon budget. *Global and Planetary*
672 *Change*, 30(3-4): 167-195.

673 Evans, W., Hales, B. and Stratton, P.G., 2013. PCO₂ distributions and air-water CO₂ fluxes
674 in the Columbia River estuary. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*, 117: 260-272.

675 Fiener, P., Auerswald, K. and Weigand, S., 2005. Managing erosion and water quality in
676 agricultural watersheds by small detention ponds. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and*
677 *Environment*, 110(3-4): 132-142.

678 Girmay, G., Singh, B.R., Nyssen, J. and Borrosen, T., 2009. Runoff and sediment-associated
679 nutrient losses under different land uses in Tigray, Northern Ethiopia. *Journal of*
680 *Hydrology*, 376(1-2): 70-80.

681 Gómez, R., Arce, I. M., Sánchez, J. J., and Sánchez-Montoya, M. M., 2012. The effects of
682 drying on sediment nitrogen content in a Mediterranean intermittent stream: A
683 microcosms study, *Hydrobiologia*, 679, 43-59.

684 Goñi, M.A., Hatten, J.A., Wheatcroft, R.A. and Borgeld, J.C., 2013. Particulate organic
685 matter export by two contrasting small mountainous rivers from the Pacific
686 Northwest, U.S.A. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences*, 118(1): 112-
687 134.

688 Hagen, E. M., McTammany, M. E., Webster, J. R., and Benfield, E. F.: Shifts in
689 allochthonous input and autochthonous production in streams along an agricultural
690 land-use gradient, *Hydrobiologia*, 655, 61-77, 2010.

691 Harden, J. W., Sharpe, J. M., Parton, W. J., Ojima, D. S., Fries, T. L., Huntington, T. G., and
692 Dabney, S. M., 1999. Dynamic replacement and loss of soil carbon on eroding
693 cropland, *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 13, 885-901.

694 Haregeweyn, N., Poesen, J., Deckers, J., Nyssen, J., Haile, M., Govers, G., Verstraeten, G.
695 and Moeyersons, J., 2008. Sediment-bound nutrient export from micro-dam
696 catchments in Northern Ethiopia. *Land Degradation & Development*, 19(2): 136-
697 152.

698 Hoffmann, T., Mudd, S.M., van Oost, K., Verstraeten, G., Erkens, G., Lang, A.,
699 Middelkoop, H., Boyle, J., Kaplan, J.O., Willenbring, J. and Aalto, R., 2013. Short
700 Communication: Humans and the missing C-sink: erosion and burial of soil carbon
701 through time. *Earth Surf. Dynam.* Discuss., 1(1): 93-112.

702 Hovius, N., Galy, A., Hilton, R.G., Sparkes, R., Smith, J., Shuh-Ji, K., Hongey, C., In-Tian,
703 L. and Joshua West, A., 2011. Erosion-driven drawdown of atmospheric carbon
704 dioxide: The organic pathway. *Applied Geochemistry*, 26(SUPPL.): S285-S287.

705 Igwe, C.A., 2000. Nutrient losses in runoff and eroded sediments from soils of central
706 eastern Nigeria. *Polish Journal of Soil Science* 33, 67-75.

707 IUSS Working Group WRB, 2006. World reference base for soil resources. *World Soil*
708 *Resources Report 103*. FAO, Rome.

709 Jin, K., Cornelis, W.M., Gabriels, D., Baert, M., Wu, H.J., Schiettecatte, W., Cai, D.X., De
710 Neve, S., Jin, J.Y., Hartmann, R. and Hofman, G., 2009. Residue cover and rainfall
711 intensity effects on runoff soil organic carbon losses. *Catena*, 78(1): 81-86.

- 712 Kuhn, N.J., 2007. Erodibility of soil and organic matter: Independence of organic matter
713 resistance to interrill erosion. *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*, 32(5): 794-
714 802.
- 715 Kunz, M. J., Anselmetti, F. S., West, A., Wehrli, B., Vollenweider, A., Thüring, S., and Senn,
716 D. B., 2011: Sediment accumulation and carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus
717 deposition in the large tropical reservoir Lake Kariba (Zambia/Zimbabwe), *Journal*
718 *of Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences*, 116,.
- 719 Lal, R., 2003. Soil erosion and the global carbon budget. *Environment International*, 29(4):
720 437-450.
- 721 Le Quéré, C., Raupach, M.R., Canadell, J.G., Marland, G., Bopp, L., Ciais, P., Conway, T.J.,
722 Doney, S.C., Feely, R.A., Foster, P., Friedlingstein, P., Gurney, K., Houghton, R.A.,
723 House, J.I., Huntingford, C., Levy, P.E., Lomas, M.R., Majkut, J., Metzl, N., Ometto,
724 J.P., Peters, G.P., Prentice, I.C., Randerson, J.T., Running, S.W., Sarmiento, J.L.,
725 Schuster, U., Sitch, S., Takahashi, T., Viovy, N., Van Der Werf, G.R. and Woodward,
726 F.I., 2009. Trends in the sources and sinks of carbon dioxide. *Nature Geoscience*,
727 2(12): 831-836.
- 728 Ludwig, W., 2001. The age of river carbon. *Nature*, 409(6819): 466-467.
- 729 Martínez-Mena, M., Lopez, J., Almagro, M., Boix-Fayos, C. and Albaladejo, J., 2008. Effect
730 of water erosion and cultivation on the soil carbon stock in a semiarid area of
731 South-East Spain. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 99(1): 119-129.
- 732 Martínez-Mena, M., López, J., Almagro, M., Albaladejo, J., Castillo, V., Ortiz, R. and Boix-
733 Fayos, C., 2012. Organic carbon enrichment in sediments: Effects of rainfall
734 characteristics under different land uses in a Mediterranean area. *Catena*, 94: 36-42.
- 735 Medeiros, E. S. F., and Arthington, A. H., 2011. Allochthonous and autochthonous carbon
736 sources for fish in floodplain lagoons of an Australian dryland river,
737 *Environmental Biology of Fishes*, 90, 1-17.
- 738 Nadeu, E., de Vente, J., Martínez-Mena, M. and Boix-Fayos, C., 2011. Exploring particle
739 size distribution and organic carbon pools mobilized by different erosion processes
740 at the catchment scale. *Journal of Soils and Sediments*, 11(4): 667-678.
- 741 Nadeu, E., Berhe, A.A., De Vente, J. and Boix-Fayos, C., 2012. Erosion, deposition and
742 replacement of soil organic carbon in Mediterranean catchments: A
743 geomorphological, isotopic and land use change approach. *Biogeosciences*, 9(3):
744 1099-1111.
- 745 Nadeu, E., Van Oost, K., Boix-Fayos, C., and de Vente, J., 2014.: Importance of land use
746 patterns for erosion-induced carbon fluxes in a Mediterranean catchment,
747 *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 189, 181-189.
- 748 Nadeu, E., Quiñonero-Rubio, J.M., de Vente, J., Boix-Fayos, C., 2015. The influence of
749 catchment morphology, lithology and land use on soil organic carbon export in a
750 Mediterranean mountain region. *Catena*. 10.1016/j.catena.2014.11.006
- 751 Owens, L.B., Malone, R.W., Hothem, D.L., Starr, G.C. and Lal, R., 2002. Sediment carbon
752 concentration and transport from small watersheds under various conservation
753 tillage practices. *Soil & Tillage Research*, 67(1): 65-73.
- 754 Quiñonero-Rubio, J.M., Boix-Fayos, C. and de Vente, J., 2013. Development and
755 application of a multi-factorial sediment connectivity index at the catchment scale.
756 *Desarrollo y aplicación de un índice multifactorial de conectividad de sedimentos a*
757 *escala de cuenca*, 39(2): 203-223 (in spanish).
- 758 Quiñonero-Rubio J.M., Nadeu, E., Boix-Fayos, C., de Vente, J., 2014. Evaluation of the
759 effectiveness of forest restoration and check-dams to reduce catchment sediment
760 yield. *Land Degradation & Development* doi: 10.1002/ldr.2331
- 761 Ran, L., Lu, X.X., Xin, Z., 2014. Erosion-induced massive organic carbon burial and
762 carbon emission in the Yellow River basin, China. *Biogeosciences*, 11, 945-959.

- 763 Raymond, P.A. and Bauer, J.E., 2001. Riverine export of aged terrestrial organic matter to
764 the North Atlantic Ocean. *Nature*, 409(6819): 497-500.
- 765 Rhoton, F.E., Emmerich, W.E., Goodrich, D.C., Miller, S.N. and McChesney, D.S., 2006.
766 Soil geomorphological characteristics of a semiarid watershed: Influence on carbon
767 distribution and transport. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*, 70(5): 1532-
768 1540.
- 769 Rodriguez-Rodriguez, A., Guerra, A., Arbelo, C., Mora, J.L., Gorrín, S.P. Armas, C., 2004.
770 Forms of eroded soil organic carbon in andosols of the Canary Islands (Spain).
771 *Geoderma*, 121: 205-219.
- 772 Romaní, A. M., Amalfitano, S., Artigas, J., Fazi, S., Sabater, S., Timoner, X., Ylla, I., and
773 Zoppini, A., 2013. Microbial biofilm structure and organic matter use in
774 mediterranean streams, *Hydrobiologia*, 719, 43-58.
- 775 Sanchez-Vidal, A., Higuera, M., Martí, E., Lique, C., Calafat, A., Kerhervé, P. and Canals,
776 M., 2013. Riverine transport of terrestrial organic matter to the North Catalan
777 margin, NW Mediterranean Sea. *Progress in Oceanography*, 118: 71-80.
- 778 Smith, J.C., Galy, A., Hovius, N., Tye, A.M., Turowski, J.M. and Schleppe, P., 2013. Runoff-
779 driven export of particulate organic carbon from soil in temperate forested
780 uplands. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 365: 198-208.
- 781 Stallard, R. F.: Terrestrial sedimentation and the carbon cycle: coupling weathering and
782 erosion to carbon burial, *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 12, 231-257, 1998.
- 783 Stallard, R.F., 1998. Terrestrial sedimentation and the carbon cycle: coupling weathering
784 and erosion to carbon burial. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 12(2): 231-257.
- 785 Tranvik, L.J., Downing, J.A., Cotner, J.B., Loiselle, S.A., Striegl, R.G., Ballatore, T.J., Dillon,
786 P., Finlay, K., Fortino, K., Knoll, L.B., Kortelainen, P.L., Kutser, T., Larsen, S.,
787 Laurion, I., Leech, D.M., Leigh McCallister, S., McKnight, D.M., Melack, J.M.,
788 Overholt, E., Porter, J.A., Prairie, Y., Renwick, W.H., Roland, F., Sherman, B.S.,
789 Schindler, D.W., Sobek, S., Tremblay, A., Vanni, M.J., Verschoor, A.M., Von
790 Wachenfeldt, E. and Weyhenmeyer, G.A., 2009. Lakes and reservoirs as regulators
791 of carbon cycling and climate. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 54(6 PART 2): 2298-
792 2314.
- 793 Tranvik, L.J., Downing, J.A., Cotner, J.B., Loiselle, S.A., Striegl, R.G., Ballatore, T.J., Dillon,
794 P., Finlay, K., Fortino, K., Knoll, L.B., Kortelainen, P.L., Kutser, T., Larsen, S.,
795 Laurion, I., Leech, D.M., Leigh McCallister, S., McKnight, D.M., Melack, J.M.,
796 Overholt, E., Porter, J.A., Prairie, Y., Renwick, W.H., Roland, F., Sherman, B.S.,
797 Schindler, D.W., Sobek, S., Tremblay, A., Vanni, M.J., Verschoor, A.M., Von
798 Wachenfeldt, E. and Weyhenmeyer, G.A., 2009. Lakes and reservoirs as regulators
799 of carbon cycling and climate. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 54(6 PART 2): 2298-
800 2314.
- 801 Van Hemelryck, H., Govers, G., Van Oost, K. and Merckx, R., 2011. Evaluating the impact
802 of soil redistribution on the in situ mineralization of soil organic carbon. *Earth
803 Surface Processes and Landforms*, 36(4): 427-438.
- 804 Van Oost, K., Govers, G., Quine, T.A., Heckrath, G.J., Olesen, J.E., De Gryze, S. and
805 Merckx, R., 2005. Landscape-scale modeling of carbon cycling under the impact of
806 soil redistribution: The role of tillage erosion. *Global biogeochemical cycles*, 19: 1-
807 13.
- 808 Van Oost, K., Quine, T. A., Govers, G., De Gryze, S., Six, J., Harden, J. W., Ritchie, J. C.,
809 McCarty, G. W., Heckrath, G., Kosmas, C., Giraldez, J. V., da Silva, J. R. M., and
810 Merckx, R., 2007. The impact of agricultural soil erosion on the global carbon cycle,
811 *Science*, 318, 626-629.
- 812 Verstraeten, G., Bazzoffi, P., Lajczak, A., Rădoane, M., Rey, F., Poesen, J. and De Vente, J.,
813 2006. Reservoir and Pond Sedimentation in Europe, pp. 757-774.

- 814 Walling, D.E. and Fang, D., 2003. Recent trends in the suspended sediment loads o the
815 world's rivers, *Global and Planetary Change*, 39, 111-126.
- 816 Wang, Z., Govers, G., Steegen, A., Clymans, W., Van den Putte, A., Langhans, C., Merckx,
817 R. and Van Oost, K., 2010. Catchment-scale carbon redistribution and delivery by
818 water erosion in an intensively cultivated area. *Geomorphology*, 124(1-2): 65-74.
- 819 Wisser, D., Froking, S., Hagen, S. and Bierkens, M.F.P., 2013. Beyond peak reservoir
820 storage? A global estimate of declining water storage capacity in large reservoirs.
821 *Water Resources Research*, 49(9): 5732-5739.
- 822 Yeomans, J.C. and Bremner, J.M., 1988. A rapid and precise method for routine
823 determination of organic carbon in soil. *Communications in Soil Science & Plant*
824 *Analysis*, 19(13): 1467-1476.
- 825 Zhang, X., Li, Z., Tang, Z., Zeng, G., Huang, J., Guo, W., Chen, X. and Hirsh, A., 2013.
826 Effects of water erosion on the redistribution of soil organic carbon in the hilly red
827 soil region of southern China. *Geomorphology*, 197(0): 137-144.
- 828
- 829

830
831
832
833

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	Maximum 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

Tabla con formato

834
835

836
837
838
839
840

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 \pm 16.27aA*	3.91 \pm 6.99aB	7.34 \pm 16.06aB	73.91 \pm 21.03a	12.51 \pm 34.91a
Wedges (N=25)	36.49 \pm 17.88aA	9.59 \pm 8.87bB	0	92.18 \pm 23.50a	36.48 \pm 17.92a
Suspended sediment (N=41)	3.60 \pm 9.21bA	3.19 \pm 3.22aA	2.52 \pm 6.40aA	18.22 \pm 12.29b	0.98 \pm 2.26b
Reservoir (N=12)	6.65 \pm 7.87bA	1.46 \pm 2.70aA	2.44 \pm 3.46aA	24.94 \pm 14.30b	-0.41 \pm 9.71b

841
842
843
844
845

*Different lower case letters mean significant differences among sediments and soil groups.
Different capital letters mean significant differences within sediments and soil groups, with regard to micro-aggregated class sizes
(Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.05$)

846
847
848
849
850
851

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

Groups	Microaggregated particles				Primary particles			
	250-63 µm	63-20 µm	20-2 µm	IA	ASC	Sand	Silt	Clay
TOC					-			
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	-	-	-	0.34 ^a	-	-	-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	-	-0.727
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	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

* Only significant correlations are shown. Bold correlation indices are for $p < 0.005$, the rest have $p < 0.05$

^a This correlation has $p < 0.06$

852
853
854
855

856
857 Figure 1. Location of the study area and sampling scheme
858

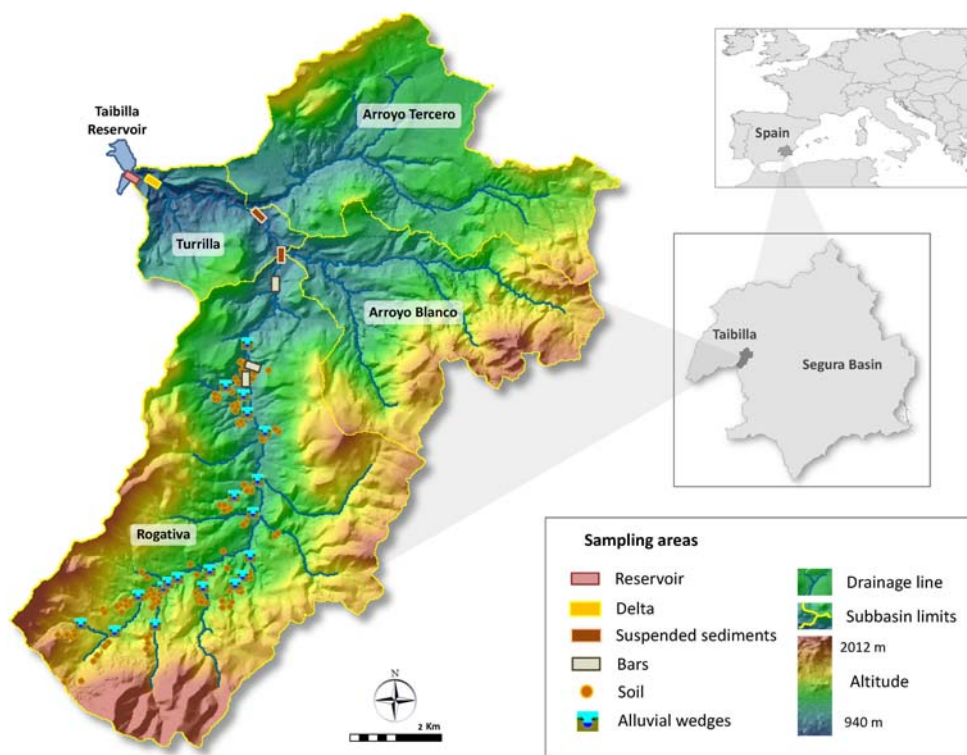
859 Figure 2. Sketch representing the morphological positions selected for sampling of soil and sediments. Soils
860 were sampled all around the catchment in all the different land use classes, alluvial wedges behind check-dams
861 predominantly in the upper and middle parts of the catchment, while alluvial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

863
864 Figure 3. Median, percentiles (10th, 25th, 75th and 90th) and error of the main textural classes (A= sand; B=
865 silt; C= clay) of the different types of sedimentary deposits within the Turrilla catchment. Different letters
866 mean significant differences according to the Kruskal-Wallis test ($p < 0.05$).

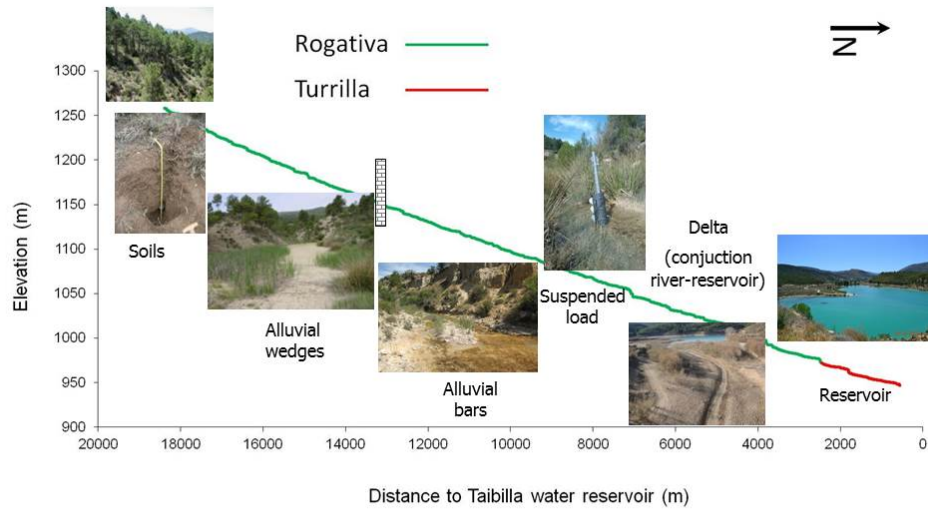
867
868 Figure 4. Median, percentiles (10th, 25th, 75th and 90th) and error of the total organic carbon concentration
869 (TOC) (A), particulate organic carbon (POC) (B), mineral associated organic carbon (MOC) (C) of soils and
870 sediments within the Turrilla catchment. Different letters (a-e) indicate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

872
873
874 Figure 5. Median, percentiles (10th, 25th, 75th and 90th) and error of C:N ratios (A) and POC:MOC (B)
875 ratios in soils and sediments within the Turrilla catchment. Different letters (a-e) indicate significant
876 differences according to the Kruskal-Wallis test ($p < 0.05$). ND= No data available, * = suspended solids
877 measured contained only the MOC fraction.

878
879



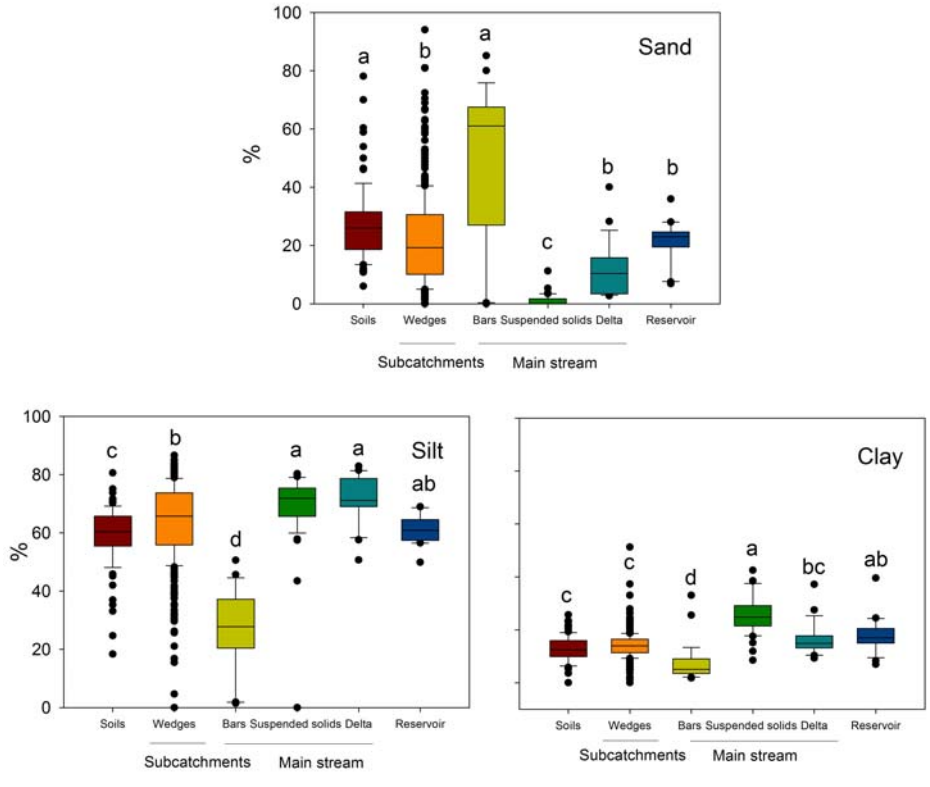
880
881 Figure 1
882



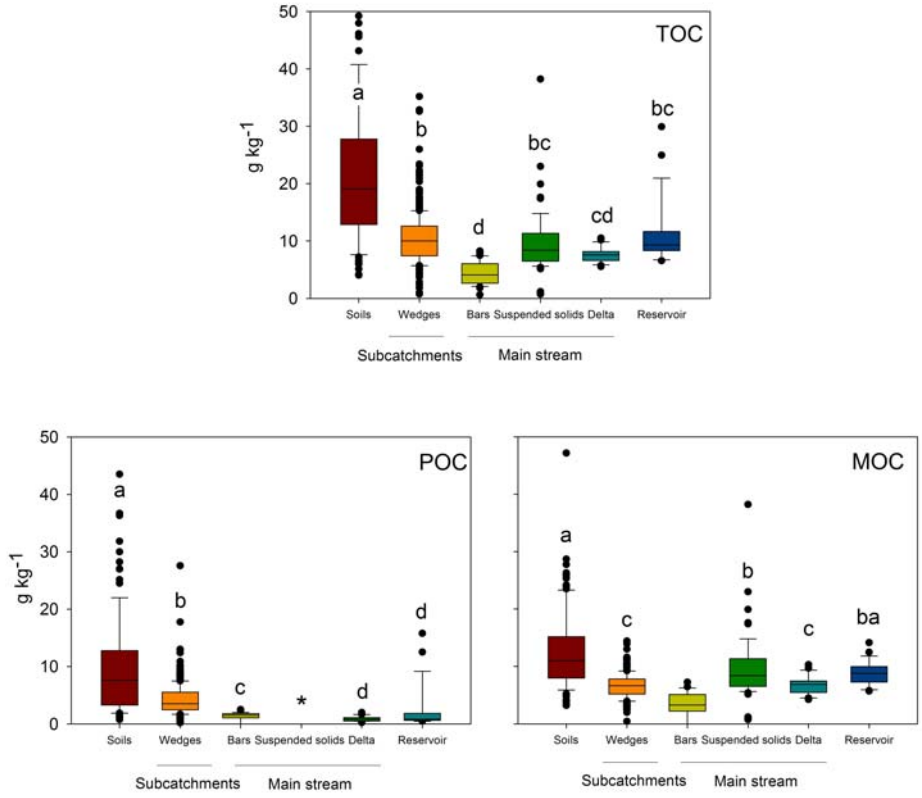
883

884

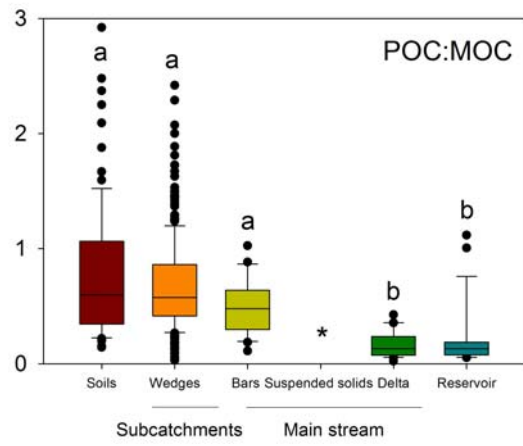
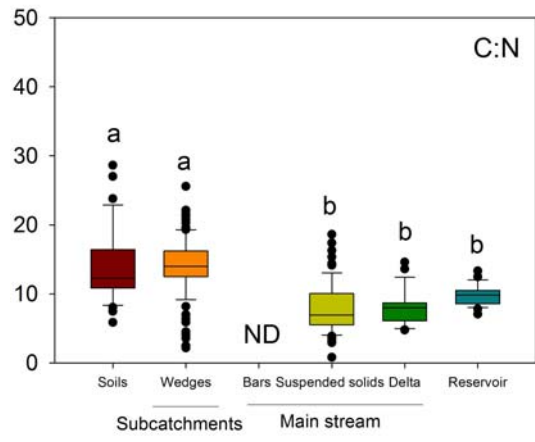
885 Figure 2



886
 887
 888 Figure 3



889
890
891 Figure 4



892
893
894 Figure 5