



The dynamics and export of dissolved organic carbon from subtropical small mountainous rivers during typhoon and non-typhoon periods

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Abstract

20
21 Small mountainous rivers (SMRs) are important conveyors of the land-to-ocean organic carbon
22 export. However, relatively few studies have focused on dissolved organic carbon (DOC) compared
23 to particulate organic carbon. In a long-term project (2002 to 2014), stream DOC was monitored in
24 three neighboring subtropical small mountainous rivers of Taiwan. The objective was to relate DOC
25 concentrations to water discharge and to quantify DOC flux during typhoon and non-typhoon periods.
26 Seasonal fluctuations of DOC concentrations were closely correlated with air temperature at all
27 sampling stations. During non-typhoon periods, increasing water discharge led to decreasing DOC
28 concentrations due to a dilution effect. However, during typhoon periods, DOC concentrations
29 increased with some lead time along the hydrograph and reached the annual maximum which likely
30 sources from a significant input of litter and upper soil layers. The mean DOC concentration of the
31 studied systems ($<1.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$), is ranked in the lowest 1% among the world rivers. However, mean
32 DOC yield ($\sim 30 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$), is ranked in the top 30%, which is attributed to high rainfall and
33 substantial organic carbon stocks in the watersheds. Up to $25 \pm 5.6\%$ of the annual DOC flux was
34 contributed by typhoon events, which occupied $\sim 3\%$ of the monitoring period. We conclude that
35 typhoon events are important drivers for the land-to-ocean export of dissolved organic matter.
36 Predicted future increases in frequency and magnitude of typhoon events will likely accelerate the
37 release of terrestrial carbon and enhance its land-to-ocean transfer via dissolved organic matter.
38



1. Introduction

Small mountainous rivers (SMRs) have been shown to be important conveyors of terrestrial organic carbon to the ocean, contributing approx. 20 – 40% of the global land-to-ocean export of organic carbon (Lyons et al., 2002; Schlünz and Schneider, 2000). Most of the studies on SMRs focus on the fluvial export of particulate organic carbon (POC), while the export of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) has received much less attention. DOC yield in SMRs, normalized to the watershed area, is comparable to that observed the large rivers (Lloret et al., 2013). Unlike POC, which is thought to be buried in marine sediments and influences the carbon cycle in geological time scales (Hilton et al., 2012; Kao et al., 2014), the dynamics of DOC, which can be less recalcitrant than POC, might contribute more to the contemporary carbon cycle (Lefèvre et al., 1996). The DOC dynamics are influenced by the rates of microbial respiration and organic matter decomposition, which may be increased by global warming (Freeman et al., 2001; Tian et al., 2013; Huntington et al., 2016).

Hydrology exerts strong control on the nutrient export in subtropical SMRs (Huang et al., 2012; Kao et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2013). The rainfall-driven mixture of water from various flow pathways determines streamwater chemistry (Lee et al., 2015a). The DOC from organic soil layers infiltrates into the mineral soil, contributing to the soil carbon pool in deeper soil horizons (Kalbitz and Kaiser, 2008; Michalzik et al., 2001). Upper soil horizons have been shown to be the primary source of DOC in streamwater (Boyer et al., 1997), consequently affecting carbon export through riverine transport (Huang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014). Increased DOC concentrations along with stormflow and snowmelt have been observed in different forest-dominated catchments (Boyer et al., 1997; Brown et al., 1999; Buffam et al., 2001; Inamdar et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2007). However, the relationship, magnitude and timing varies worldwide because of varying geographic characteristics and climatic conditions (Buffman et al., 2001).

Both DOC production and carbon mineralization increase exponentially with rising temperatures when soil moisture is not limiting the microbial processes (Christ and David, 1996; Rey et al., 2005).



64 In a laboratory experiment increasing temperature increased the leaching of DOC in humic layers
65 (Andersson et al., 2000). A positive correlation between stream DOC concentration and temperature
66 has been observed in peatlands (Billett et al., 2006), (sub)boreal regions (Worrall and Burt, 2007) and
67 subtropical forests (Huang et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the dynamics of stream DOC in subtropical
68 regions has received less attention due to the relatively low DOC concentrations (Huang et al., 2013;
69 Schmidt et al., 2010) compared to the temperate region (Borken et al., 2011; Fröberg et al., 2006; van
70 den Berg et al., 2012; Yano et al., 2004).

71 In this study, we investigated the dynamics and export of DOC from three neighboring subtropical
72 SMRs during typhoon and non-typhoon periods. Our objectives were 1) to analyze DOC
73 concentration in relation to water discharge and temperature, and 2) to understand the effects of
74 typhoon events on DOC dynamics and flux in subtropical SMRs. Rapid responses of fluvial export to
75 watershed environmental changes in SMRs help us to infer their effects on the carbon cycle at the
76 watershed scale. Typhoons of varying magnitude in this study enable us to assess how fluxes change
77 during different events. Our study shall provide a basis for the prediction of fluvial DOC export as
78 typhoons striking East and Southeast Asia will intensify further (Mei and Xie, 2016) and associated
79 nutrient fluxes are known to be significant and increasing for Oceania rivers (Carey et al., 2005;
80 Schlünz and Schneider, 2000).

81 **2. Materials and methods**

82 **2.1. Study area**

83 The study area is located in Beishi Creek watershed, Northern Taiwan (121°42' E, 24°56' N), which
84 is dammed up by the Feitsui Reservoir supplying water to 5.7 million people living in Taipei, the
85 capital of Taiwan (Lee et al., 2014). In this study, three neighboring watersheds in the upstream of
86 the Feitsui Reservoir were investigated, i.e. Pin-Lin (PL), Dai-Yu-Ku (DYK) and Gin-Gua-Liao



(GGL) watershed (Fig. 1). PL station is located in the main stream of Beishi Creek before the convergence of DYK Creek and GGL Creek, representing a drainage area of 110 km². DYK and GGL stations are located at the outlet of DYK Creek (drainage area = 78 km²) and GGL Creek (22 km²), respectively. All the sampling stations have discharge gauges maintained by the Feitsui Reservoir Administration. The average daily discharge for PL, DYK and GGL stations during 2002-2015 is 12.71, 7.70 and 2.01 m³ s⁻¹, respectively (Table 1). The average daily discharge during the wet/dry season is 13.64/11.76, 9.53/5.88 and 2.59/1.40 m³ s⁻¹, respectively. Air temperature records were obtained from a weather station near PL station, maintained by Central Weather Bureau. The mean daily air temperature is ~20 °C with an average of ~24 °C in the wet season (May to October) and ~16 °C in the dry season (November to April). The annual rainfall is ~2,000 – 4,000 mm, and ~65 % of the rainfall occurs during the wet season when typhoon events substantially contribute. The three watersheds have similar land use patterns with more than 90% forest area. Besides, tea farms occupy 5.0%, 2.2% and 5.4% of the watershed area in PL, DYK and GGL watershed, respectively.

2.2. Streamwater sampling and chemistry

Discrete streamwater samples were collected from Jan 2002 to Dec 2014. During the non-typhoon periods, samples were taken twice per week. During the typhoon periods, samples were taken every three hours. There were on average ~4 typhoons per year during the observation period (Table 4). Typhoon samples were taken from four typhoons, i.e. Saola (Jul 31 – Aug 3, 2012), Soulik (Jul 12 – Jul 13, 2013), Trami (Aug 21 – Aug 23, 2013), and Matmo (Jul 22 – Jul 24, 2014). Depth-integrated water samples were obtained using a vertically mounted 1 L bottle attached to a weighted metal frame that was gradually lowered from a bridge. After collection, water samples were immediately filtered through 0.45 µm pore-size GF/F filter and the filtrate was transported in a cooler to the laboratory. The filtrate for DOC analysis was preserved by addition of 0.5 ml 85% ortho-phosphoric acid and stored at room temperature. DOC concentration was determined by wet chemical oxidation



112 using an auto TOC analyzer with detection limit of $4 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (Multi N/C 3100, Analytik Jena AG).

113 **2.3. Flux calculation**

114 The DOC flux is the total amount of DOC export from a watershed within a given period. The DOC
 115 concentrations measured in the stream are transformed into flux by multiplying by the corresponding
 116 discharge. A flux estimator is needed when there is a lack of continuous measurement (e.g., daily) of
 117 a constituent's concentration and water discharge, which is the case for the DOC measurements. The
 118 rating curve method is one of the most appropriate flux estimation methods and has been widely
 119 applied to rivers in Taiwan because the strongly fluctuating discharge usually dominates the fluvial
 120 material export (Kao et al., 2004). This method presumes that a power function (i.e., $F = aQ^b$) exists
 121 between the observed DOC flux (F) and discharge (Q). The coefficients of the power function, a and
 122 b , can be derived from the observed DOC fluxes and the water discharge rates by the log-linear
 123 least-square method. In this study, two rating curves were developed for non-typhoon and typhoon
 124 periods at each sampling station, respectively. Daily discharge was used for the non-typhoon rating
 125 curves and hourly discharge for the typhoon rating curves. Hence, daily discharge and hourly
 126 discharge (for all the typhoon events in a year) were substituted into the non-typhoon and typhoon
 127 rating curves, respectively, to calculate DOC fluxes. The sum of the DOC fluxes within a year is the
 128 annual DOC flux, which may be converted to DOC yield by normalizing to watershed area. The
 129 water discharge data were provided by the Taipei Feitsui Reservoir Administration.

130 **3. Results**

131 Air temperature in Taiwan shows a distinct seasonality. During the observation period, daily air
 132 temperature in the dry (November – April) and wet seasons (May – October) varied from 5.0 to 25.8
 133 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (with a mean of 16.3 ± 4.0 $^{\circ}\text{C}$) and from 14.0 to 29.5 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (with a mean of 24.2 ± 2.8 $^{\circ}\text{C}$),
 134 respectively (Fig. 2). Water discharge showed spiky patterns resulting from rapid rainfall-runoff



response and fluctuated by 3-orders of magnitude mostly during the invasion of tropical cyclones, i.e. typhoons, in summer and autumn. The measured maximum water discharge in the dry/wet seasons was 168/280, 70/363 and 24/84 $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ at PL, DYK and GGL station, respectively, with means of 11.8/13.6, 5.9/9.5 and 1.4/2.6 $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$. The measured minimum water discharge was below 0.1 $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ at all stations.

3.1. Temporal variation of DOC concentrations

During the observation period, the running mean DOC concentration (of 5 adjacent samples, grey curve in Fig. 2) more or less followed the annual air temperature cycle, peaking in the wet season and with lowest values in the dry season. The observed DOC concentrations ranged from 0.23 to 2.91 mg L^{-1} , 0.22 to 4.11 mg L^{-1} , and 0.20 to 2.89 mg L^{-1} , respectively, at PL, DYK, and GGL station. Most of the DOC concentrations in the wet season were significantly higher than those in the dry season (Table 1) and the typhoon samples generally showed the highest DOC concentrations. The variation in DOC concentration could be linked to the water discharge variation. The DOC concentration dropped coincidentally with increasing water discharge (Fig. 2). Simultaneous increase of both, DOC concentration and water discharge, was only observed during the typhoon periods.

3.2. The relationship of DOC concentration and runoff

The DOC concentration – water discharge (C-Q) relation showed a clear dilution effect on DOC concentration with increasing water discharge for the non-typhoon samples in both the wet and dry season (Fig. 3). Conversely, the C-Q relation for the typhoon samples did not show any obvious trends (Fig. 3). Yet, during typhoon events, elevated DOC concentrations were observed; the mean DOC concentration during the typhoon period ($>1.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ for all typhoon events, Table 2) was much higher compared to the non-typhoon period (Table 1). At a given discharge, higher DOC concentrations were generally observed in the wet season (warm season) than in the dry season (cool season), possibly reflecting the influence of temperature on DOC concentrations (Fig. 3). An effect



159 of temperature on DOC concentration is also indicated by statistically-significant positive
160 correlations between monthly mean DOC concentrations and monthly mean air temperature (Fig. 4a),
161 while statistically-significant negative correlations were found between monthly mean DOC
162 concentrations and monthly mean discharge (Fig. 4b). And there is no linear relation between
163 monthly mean air temperature and monthly mean discharge (data not shown).

164 3.3. DOC concentration during typhoon periods

165 Fig. 5 illustrates the time series of DOC concentrations along the hydrograph of the sampled typhoon
166 events and Table 2 shows characteristics of water discharge and DOC concentration during the
167 typhoons. For typhoon Saola, two peaks were observed in the hydrograph at PL, DYK and GGL
168 station (Fig. 5a-1, 5b-1, 5c-1). This event also produced the highest peak discharge among the 4
169 sampled typhoons, reaching 641, 592 and 135 m³ s⁻¹, respectively, at PL, DYK and GGL station.
170 Although the DOC concentrations along the hydrograph showed some variability, two descending
171 trends could be observed, which start before each discharge peak. The DOC concentration responded
172 rapidly to variations in water discharge with pronounced rises at the beginning of the typhoon
173 (compared to the last pre-typhoon sample) and rose again before the 2nd peak of the hydrograph (Fig.
174 5a-1, 5b-1, 5c-1).

175 For typhoon Soulik (Fig. 5a-2, 5b-2, 5c-2), the hydrograph showed the highest fluctuations among
176 the four sampled typhoons, spanning three orders of magnitude. The peak DOC concentration during
177 this typhoon was also the highest concentration among all the samples, reaching 2.79, 4.11, and 2.89
178 mg L⁻¹ at PL, DYK, and GGL station, respectively. The DOC concentration again peaked 3 - 9 hours
179 before the peak discharge. Additionally, at a given water discharge, higher DOC concentrations were
180 observed for the rising limb of the hydrograph than for the recessing limb, resulting in a clockwise
181 hysteresis loop (not shown).

182 For typhoon Trami (Fig. 5a-3, 5b-3, 5c-3), the hydrograph and DOC concentrations showed similar



183 patterns as for typhoon Saola, i.e. two peaks for water discharge and DOC concentration (and two
 184 hysteresis loops for the C-Q relationship). Moreover, the first peak discharge of both typhoons
 185 triggered the highest DOC concentration in the respective typhoon event (except for Saola at PL, Fig.
 186 5a-1). However, unlike typhoon Trami, the first peak discharge in typhoon Saola was smaller than
 187 the second one, which, however, did not trigger higher DOC concentrations. For typhoon Matmo
 188 (Fig. 5a-4, 5b-4, 5c-4), the narrow double peak of discharge was not reflected by variations in DOC
 189 concentration, resulting in similar patterns as found for typhoon Soulik.

190

191 **3.4. DOC fluxes during typhoon and non-typhoon periods**

192 Although a hysteresis loop existed in the C-Q relation of typhoon samples, the relation of DOC flux
 193 to water discharge generally followed a power function with $R^2 \geq 0.92$ for typhoon samples and R^2
 194 ≥ 0.83 for non-typhoon samples (Fig. 6 and Table 3). At each sampling station, all the typhoon and
 195 non-typhoon samples, respectively, were pooled to derive two rating curves that allow predicting
 196 DOC flux from water discharge. We presumed that the two rating curves for each station remained
 197 unchanged during the observation period. Larger a and b in the power function was found for the
 198 typhoon period than for the non-typhoon period, indicating disproportionately higher DOC fluxes
 199 during typhoon events.

200 Table 4 shows the DOC yields during the typhoon and non-typhoon periods. As for the mean annual
 201 DOC yield, the highest value of $37.08 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ was found at DYK station, followed by 33.48 kg
 202 $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at PL and $22.19 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at GGL station. Typhoon/non-typhoon periods yielded $7.21/29.87$,
 203 $7.44/26.04$ and $7.37/14.82 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at DYK, PL and GGL, respectively; hence, approx. 21 – 31%
 204 of the total annual DOC export was flushed out during typhoon events, which lasted for only 3 – 23
 205 days (i.e. 0.8 – 6.3% of the observation time). However, typhoons contributed on average approx. 16
 206 – 23% of the total annual water discharge. Depending on the number of typhoon invasions in every



207 observation year, we can calculate that the historical typhoon events transported 5.5 – 45.2% of the
208 total annual DOC export. Among the three stations, GGL showed the highest typhoon contribution to
209 both water discharge and DOC flux but had the lowest annual DOC yield.

210 **4. Discussion**

211 **4.1. Effects of temperature on streamwater DOC**

212 Soil water is an important source of DOC in streams (Clark et al., 2010), and it has been observed
213 that DOC concentration in soil water increases with increasing temperature around the world
214 regardless of soil type, geological region and land use (Worrall and Burt, 2007; Zaman and Chang,
215 2004). Increase in temperature enhances soil microbial and enzymatic activity and hence breakdown
216 of litter and soil organic carbon (SOC), accelerating carbon turnover in soil (Subke et al., 2003).
217 Schimel and Weintraub (2003) suggested that microbial activity and SOC be included in models that
218 describe the dynamics of DOC in soil. In Taiwan's forest soils, SOC is $>100 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ within 1 m depth
219 (Chen and Hseu, 1997). Given the abundant SOC stocks, temperature fluctuations may trigger strong
220 responses of DOC release in these soils. Our results show that at each of the three stations, DOC
221 concentration was more than 30% higher in the warmer wet season than in the cooler dry season (>6
222 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ difference in mean temperature; Table 1) despite the dilution effect of increasing discharge (Fig.
223 4b).

224 Given the prediction of increasing air temperature by global climate models (IPCC, 2014), rates of
225 heterotrophic microbial activity will be accelerated, increasing the efflux of CO_2 to the atmosphere
226 and the export of DOC to streams by hydrologic leaching (Bardgett et al., 2008). We speculate that
227 the watershed carbon cycle might speed up even more in forested catchments because the amount of
228 litterfall is also positively correlated to air temperature (Lu and Liu, 2012), and increasing litterfall
229 resulted in enhanced annual seepage flux of DOC in a Taiwanese *Chamaecyparis* forest (Chang et al.,



230 2007). Also, typhoon events contribute significantly to the annual litterfall in Taiwan (Wang, 2013);
231 hence, the carbon cycle might be further accelerated by increasing magnitude of typhoons, which has
232 been reported by several studies (Chien and Kuo, 2011; Liu et al., 2009; Tu and Chou, 2013; Mei and
233 Xie, 2016).

234 **4.2. Influence of hydrology on DOC concentration**

235 The changes of geochemical signatures in streamwater have been linked to the mixing of different
236 water sources, i.e. groundwater, subsurface or soil, and surface runoff (Lee et al., 2015a; Salmon et
237 al., 2001). Hydrological controls on streamwater solute concentrations usually exhibit one of the
238 following three general C-Q relations, i.e. dilution, enhanced hydrological access, or hydrologically
239 constant conditions (Salmon et al., 2001). In our study, we found increases in DOC concentration in
240 the rising limb of the hydrograph during typhoons. This is probably due to enhanced hydrological
241 access, which is commonly shown for solutes found in areas of a watershed that are only
242 hydrologically active during periods of high flows (Salmon et al., 2001). Stormflow is likely to
243 accentuate the contribution of DOC sources near the organic-rich soil surface resulting in increased
244 concentrations of DOC (Qualls and Haines, 1991). Although DOC concentration in soil water was
245 not measured in this study, it is well known that DOC concentration generally decreases with
246 increasing soil depth (Inamdar et al., 2004), and also confirmed for natural and secondary hardwood
247 forests in central Taiwan, where DOC concentrations of 20 mg L⁻¹ were found at 15 cm and 10 mg
248 L⁻¹ at 60 cm soil depth (Liu and Sheu, 2003). Besides, the litter layer in the forest floor is a
249 substantial DOC source where DOC concentration can be up to 35 mg L⁻¹ (Chang et al., 2007).

250 It is presumed that flow paths and available sources control the concentrations of dissolved matter
251 during typhoon events (Buffam et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2007), and our results suggest the
252 following processes. Before typhoon events, groundwater likely dominates flow discharge; the
253 groundwater in our study area had DOC concentrations <0.7 mg L⁻¹ (data not published yet). In the



254 rising limb of the typhoon hydrograph, streamwater DOC concentration rises with discharge until a
255 maximum is reached that probably coincides with the saturation of the upper soil and litter layers
256 where DOC concentrations are highest. After the soil is saturated, continuing rainfall generates
257 saturation-excess runoff with significantly lower DOC concentrations (Liu and Sheu, 2003), thus,
258 diluting the DOC concentration in the stream. In the recession period, DOC concentration keeps
259 decreasing as groundwater gradually dominates the flow discharge again. Lee et al. (2013) also
260 addressed similar hydrological processes in three watersheds in central Taiwan but nitrate and
261 phosphate were used as tracers.

262 In our study, DOC concentrations responded rapidly to variations in water discharge and increased
263 before every peak in the hydrograph (Fig. 5a-1, 5b-1, 5c-1, 5a-3, 5b-3, 5c-3). Such rapid response
264 may reflect a fast increase in contribution from near-surface components with DOC-enriched water.
265 Interestingly, the second peak of the hydrograph induced lower DOC concentrations even if the
266 second peak discharge was higher (Fig. 5b-1, 5c-1). Perhaps most of the DOC in the soil had been
267 flushed off during the rising limb of the 1st peak discharge, as explained by Buffam et al. (2001)
268 addressing that soil water DOC concentration would be depleted over time, while the soil was
269 saturated.

270 In the studied watersheds, DOC peaked prior to the peak discharge, resulting in a clockwise C-Q
271 hysteresis loop. The loop is typical for rivers (Meybeck, 1993), which can be explained by a simple
272 mixing model consisting of three constant concentration reservoirs (Evans and Davies, 1998).
273 Buffam et al. (2001) used the three-component mixing model to explain the C-Q relations for stream
274 storm events, which are very similar to ours, based on the relative concentrations of DOC in three
275 source reservoirs, i.e. surface runoff (in the litter layer), soil water, and groundwater. However, we
276 propose that the surface runoff be divided into initial flush-off from the litter layer and the following
277 saturation-excess runoff that leads to the dilution of DOC concentration in the period between the
278 peaks of DOC concentration and water discharge.



279 During non-typhoon periods, increasing discharge did not enhance but rather diluted the DOC
280 concentration in streams (Fig. 2 and 3), opposite to the findings during typhoon events. As mentioned
281 above, soil water should contribute to increasing discharge not only during typhoon events but also
282 during non-typhoon periods (Lee et al., 2013; 2015a). Higher DOC concentration in the soil water,
283 compared to the groundwater, should elevate the streamwater DOC. In our study, however,
284 streamwater DOC concentration seemed to approach the groundwater DOC concentration, i.e. <0.7
285 mg L^{-1} , with increasing discharge during non-typhoon periods, implying that groundwater influence
286 gradually increases. On the other hand, in the low-end flow regime, i.e. $<1 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ at our study sites,
287 where discharge should be only originating from groundwater, streamwater DOC concentration was
288 much higher than groundwater DOC concentration (Fig. 3). A previous study has suggested that
289 in-stream production of DOC can be an important source of streamwater DOC concentration,
290 particularly at low discharge (Mulholland and Hill, 1997). At high discharge, in-stream processes
291 would tend to be less important regulators of streamwater DOC concentration because shorter water
292 residence time and more water from the watershed should reduce the effect of in-stream biological
293 processing. However, currently we do not have evidence to prove that in-stream processes did indeed
294 cause the high stream DOC concentrations during low flow periods. Nevertheless, our results do
295 suggest that soil water input does not play a significant role during rising discharge in non-typhoon
296 periods as it does during typhoon periods (Fig. 3). We speculate that the high infiltration capacity of
297 the soils, mainly Entisols ($\sim 50 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$ of infiltration rate), Inceptisols ($\sim 40 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$), and Ultisols
298 ($\sim 30 \text{ mm h}^{-1}$), promote rapid infiltration to the subsoil or groundwater recharge before the water
299 begins to accumulate in the soil. However, this is not the case during typhoon periods when rainfall
300 intensity and amount are much higher.

301 4.3. DOC export in small mountainous rivers

302 Despite the relatively scattered C-Q relation (Fig. 3), the tightly positive correlations between DOC
303 flux and water discharge illustrate that hydrology exerts a strong control on DOC export during both



304 typhoon and non-typhoon periods in the studied SMR watersheds (Fig. 6). Although the DOC
 305 concentration is diluted by increasing discharge during non-typhoon periods, the 3-order magnitude
 306 increase in discharge compensates the dilution effect (less than 1-order magnitude decrease in
 307 concentration) and leads to higher DOC export. A continuous supply of DOC is likely in the forest
 308 ecosystems of Taiwan because of abundant SOC stocks ($>100 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$; Chen and Hseu, 1997). The
 309 DOC yield ranged from 9 to $80 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Table 4), amounting to $<0.1 \%$ of the SOC stored in the
 310 watershed. Even if the rainfall-driven export of POC, i.e. $210 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, from forested hillslopes
 311 (bedrock excluded) is taken into account (Hilton et al., 2012), such abundant storage of SOC cannot
 312 be depleted by the DOC and POC export off the watershed.

313 Although DOC concentration in our study watersheds and other small mountainous watersheds
 314 (Lloret et al., 2013) is much lower than the global river mean, i.e. 5.29 mg L^{-1} , estimated by Dai et al.
 315 (2012), the DOC yield is comparable to other world rivers. Among the 118 world rivers investigated
 316 by Dai et al. (2012), DOC concentration in this study, i.e. $<1.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, is ranked in the lowest 1%,
 317 but DOC yield, $\sim 30 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, is ranked in the top 30%. Such high DOC yield can be attributed to
 318 the abundant rainfall in combination with substantial carbon stocks in the watershed, and
 319 demonstrates the significance of SMRs in delivering terrestrial organic carbon to the ocean involving
 320 not only the particulate phase but also the dissolved phase.

321 A recent study has analyzed the trends of water and sediment discharge off of Taiwan island over the
 322 past four decades (Lee et al., 2015) and revealed magnified responses to increased rainfall intensity.
 323 On average for the 16 major rivers in Taiwan, the extremes of water discharge rose by 6.5 – 37% in
 324 the recent two decades compared to the previous two decades, and the extremes of sediment
 325 discharge rose by 62 – 94%. As water and sediment are carriers of DOC and POC, respectively,
 326 Taiwan rivers might have delivered much more DOC (and POC) from the terrestrial to the ocean.
 327 Moreover, a recent study has demonstrated that typhoons striking Taiwan will intensify further in the
 328 future (Mei and Xie, 2016), which suggests that DOC (and POC) export will further increase in the



329 decades to come.

330

331 **5. Conclusions**

332 Oceania is a global hotspot of land-to-ocean export of both POC and DOC (Schlünz and Schneider,
 333 2000; Seitzinger et al., 2005), and Taiwan, having relatively abundant observations, is often taken as
 334 a role model (Milliman and Syvitski, 1992; Dadson et al., 2003; Hilton et al., 2012; Bao et al., 2016).
 335 However, much less attention has been paid to DOC, which is masked by the overwhelming POC
 336 yield along with the highest sediment yield in the world (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2013). We found
 337 that the DOC concentrations in the studied subtropical SMRs indeed lie on the lower end, i.e. <1.0
 338 mg L^{-1} , of the spectrum of global stream DOC concentrations; however, the DOC yields, $\sim 30 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$
 339 y^{-1} , are ranked in the top 30% among 118 world rivers, which is due to high rainfall and high SOC
 340 stocks. Taking into account both the POC yield ($\sim 210 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$; Hilton et al., 2012) and the DOC
 341 yield calculated in our study, we estimate the residence time of SOC at approx. 400 year (100 t ha^{-1}
 342 SOC stocks divided by $0.24 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$ POC+DOC yield), which is the shortest among the world large
 343 river basins (Lloret et al., 2013). We think that due to their rapid responses subtropical SMRs might
 344 be the best experimental sites for studying the impacts of environmental changes on watershed
 345 carbon cycles in the future. Our study demonstrates that the DOC yield needs to be considered in
 346 overall budgets of carbon transport. Also, DOC might be more biodegradable than POC, likely
 347 causing more direct impacts on aquatic ecosystems (Raymond and Bauer, 2001).

348 We also found that DOC concentrations increase with rising temperatures and are elevated during
 349 typhoon events. Extreme climatic conditions, like heat waves and severe typhoon events, are very
 350 likely to be more frequent in the future as a result of global warming (Mei and Xie, 2016). We
 351 therefore infer that more DOC will be exported by subtropical SMRs, although the in-stream
 352 production/consumption could not be accounted for in our study. Our observational data supplement



353 the global river database and serve as a scientific background for better understanding and modeling
354 nutrient export from small mountainous watersheds.

355

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363 7. References

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Table 1. The mean and standard deviation (SD) of DOC concentrations [mg L^{-1}], water discharge [$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$] and air temperature [$^{\circ}\text{C}$] at PL, DYK and GGL stations in dry (Nov – Apr) and wet (May – Oct) seasons and for whole calendar years during the observation period. The number in parentheses stands for sample size.

Station	Season	2002	2003	2004	2005	2012 DOC (mg L^{-1} , Mean \pm SD)	2013	2014	All
PL	Dry	0.76 \pm 0.19 (22)	0.72 \pm 0.25 (51)	0.62 \pm 0.18 (54)	0.51 \pm 0.10 (34)	0.50 \pm 0.17 (62)	0.75 \pm 0.36 (48)	0.59 \pm 0.31 (42)	0.63 \pm 0.26 (313)
	Wet	0.76 \pm 0.25 (52)	0.94 \pm 0.22 (53)	0.96 \pm 0.34 (51)	0.72 \pm 0.23 (27)	0.78 \pm 0.37 (62)	1.20 \pm 0.46 (41)	0.69 \pm 0.21 (29)	0.86 \pm 0.35 (315)
	All	0.76 \pm 0.23 (74)	0.83 \pm 0.26 (104)	0.78 \pm 0.32 (105)	0.60 \pm 0.20 (61)	0.64 \pm 0.32 (124)	0.95 \pm 0.47 (89)	0.63 \pm 0.27 (71)	0.75 \pm 0.33 (628)
DYK	Dry	0.76 \pm 0.26 (22)	0.87 \pm 0.30 (51)	0.78 \pm 0.21 (54)	0.58 \pm 0.13 (34)	0.66 \pm 0.56 (62)	0.71 \pm 0.24 (46)	0.62 \pm 0.22 (43)	0.72 \pm 0.34 (312)
	Wet	1.06 \pm 0.36 (52)	1.28 \pm 0.32 (54)	0.99 \pm 0.23 (52)	0.73 \pm 0.46 (27)	0.87 \pm 0.44 (62)	1.11 \pm 0.38 (42)	0.72 \pm 0.30 (31)	0.95 \pm 0.40 (320)
	All	0.97 \pm 0.36 (74)	1.08 \pm 0.37 (105)	0.88 \pm 0.24 (106)	0.65 \pm 0.33 (61)	0.71 \pm 0.51 (124)	0.90 \pm 0.37 (88)	0.67 \pm 0.26 (74)	0.85 \pm 0.40 (632)
GGL	Dry	0.72 \pm 0.27 (21)	0.72 \pm 0.24 (51)	0.70 \pm 0.11 (54)	0.64 \pm 0.13 (34)	0.57 \pm 0.18 (61)	0.86 \pm 0.34 (49)	0.59 \pm 0.21 (43)	0.68 \pm 0.24 (313)
	Wet	1.01 \pm 0.25 (52)	0.98 \pm 0.33 (54)	0.76 \pm 0.37 (52)	0.69 \pm 0.30 (27)	0.83 \pm 0.49 (61)	1.18 \pm 0.30 (42)	0.75 \pm 0.43 (31)	0.88 \pm 0.40 (319)
	All	0.92 \pm 0.39 (73)	0.85 \pm 0.32 (105)	0.73 \pm 0.27 (106)	0.66 \pm 0.22 (61)	0.70 \pm 0.39 (122)	1.00 \pm 0.36 (91)	0.66 \pm 0.33 (74)	0.79 \pm 0.35 (632)
Water discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$, Mean \pm SD)									
PL	Dry	6.12 \pm 6.73 (181)	11.21 \pm 19.53 (180)	11.85 \pm 13.50 (182)	13.81 \pm 12.64 (181)	15.12 \pm 11.56 (182)	11.45 \pm 12.91 (181)	12.77 \pm 11.61 (181)	11.76 \pm 13.35 (1268)
	Wet	9.37 \pm 21.83 (184)	9.90 \pm 17.55 (184)	14.17 \pm 23.16 (182)	21.94 \pm 37.84 (184)	15.30 \pm 25.85 (184)	10.93 \pm 20.24 (184)	13.85 \pm 14.04 (184)	13.64 \pm 24.26 (1286)
	All	7.75 \pm 16.27 (365)	10.55 \pm 18.55 (364)	13.02 \pm 18.99 (364)	17.91 \pm 28.56 (365)	15.21 \pm 10.04 (366)	11.19 \pm 16.98 (365)	13.31 \pm 12.89 (365)	12.68 \pm 19.70 (2554)
DYK	Dry	2.29 \pm 3.25 (181)	3.71 \pm 6.17 (181)	3.55 \pm 6.71 (182)	7.61 \pm 10.14 (181)	9.50 \pm 6.92 (182)	7.03 \pm 6.89 (181)	7.19 \pm 5.66 (181)	5.88 \pm 7.69 (1269)
	Wet	4.67 \pm 12.61 (184)	4.84 \pm 8.29 (184)	6.45 \pm 11.61 (179)	19.65 \pm 40.90 (184)	13.10 \pm 26.16 (184)	8.60 \pm 16.72 (184)	9.41 \pm 10.90 (184)	9.53 \pm 21.72 (1283)
	All	3.49 \pm 9.31 (365)	4.28 \pm 8.26 (365)	5.01 \pm 9.60 (361)	13.68 \pm 30.46 (365)	11.31 \pm 19.24 (366)	7.82 \pm 12.83 (365)	8.31 \pm 8.77 (365)	7.70 \pm 16.42 (2552)
GGL	Dry	0.57 \pm 1.00 (167)	1.34 \pm 1.64 (181)	1.70 \pm 2.25 (182)	2.85 \pm 2.84 (181)	1.29 \pm 1.33 (182)	1.36 \pm 1.82 (181)	0.75 \pm 1.16 (179)	1.40 \pm 2.09 (1253)
	Wet	1.07 \pm 2.82 (171)	1.75 \pm 2.48 (184)	2.27 \pm 3.71 (184)	5.93 \pm 10.80 (184)	2.16 \pm 5.46 (184)	1.81 \pm 4.97 (184)	3.12 \pm 5.68 (184)	2.59 \pm 5.92 (1275)
	All	0.82 \pm 2.13 (338)	1.55 \pm 2.11 (365)	1.99 \pm 3.08 (366)	4.40 \pm 8.06 (365)	1.73 \pm 4.00 (366)	1.59 \pm 3.83 (365)	1.95 \pm 4.28 (363)	2.01 \pm 4.49 (2528)
Air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$, Mean \pm SD)									
Weather station	Dry	17.85 \pm 4.06 (181)	17.47 \pm 4.35 (180)	16.69 \pm 3.78 (182)	17.08 \pm 4.79 (181)	16.70 \pm 3.96 (182)	16.88 \pm 3.44 (156)	15.84 \pm 3.83 (181)	16.25 \pm 4.00 (1243)
	Wet	24.48 \pm 2.35 (184)	24.34 \pm 2.69 (184)	23.71 \pm 2.96 (184)	24.60 \pm 2.49 (184)	23.48 \pm 2.71 (184)	24.54 \pm 2.76 (184)	24.55 \pm 2.71 (184)	24.24 \pm 2.77 (1288)
	All	20.70 \pm 4.97 (365)	20.41 \pm 5.47 (364)	19.99 \pm 5.07 (366)	20.17 \pm 5.78 (365)	19.74 \pm 5.04 (366)	21.02 \pm 5.47 (365)	20.23 \pm 5.47 (365)	20.39 \pm 5.24 (2531)



Table 2. The observed minimum, maximum and mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of DOC concentrations [mg L^{-1}] and the maximum water discharge [$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$] for four sampled typhoon events at PL, DYK and GGL stations.

Station	Year	Typhoon	Water Discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$)	DOC (mg L^{-1})		
			Max	Min	Max	Mean \pm SD
PL	2012	Saola	641.3	0.68	2.36	1.33 \pm 0.49
	2013	Soulik	381.9	0.57	2.79	1.53 \pm 0.81
	2013	Tarmi	365.3	0.64	2.40	1.21 \pm 0.69
	2014	Matmo	203.8	0.76	1.93	1.40 \pm 0.40
DYK	2012	Saola	592.8	0.65	2.17	1.14 \pm 0.38
	2013	Soulik	468.7	0.52	4.11	1.37 \pm 1.08
	2013	Tarmi	291.2	0.63	2.68	1.07 \pm 0.64
	2014	Matmo	201.3	0.69	1.92	1.31 \pm 0.51
GGL	2012	Saola	135.1	0.59	2.73	1.32 \pm 0.55
	2013	Soulik	130.6	0.50	2.89	1.33 \pm 0.85
	2013	Tarmi	76.3	0.52	2.70	1.03 \pm 0.70
	2014	Matmo	97.5	0.62	2.19	1.21 \pm 0.57



Table 3. Non-typhoon and typhoon rating curves derived from the observed DOC flux [g s^{-1}] against water discharge Q [$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$] at PL, DYK and GGL stations.

	Typhoon period			Non-Typhoon period		
	DOC flux [g s^{-1}]	R^2	Sample size	DOC flux [g s^{-1}]	R^2	Sample size
PL	$1.22 Q^{0.99}$	0.92	71	$0.92 Q^{0.86}$	0.83	634
DYK	$1.03 Q^{1.01}$	0.98	68	$0.87 Q^{0.89}$	0.91	636
GGL	$1.11 Q^{0.98}$	0.92	64	$0.71 Q^{0.97}$	0.94	632



Table 4. DOC yield [$\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$] at PL, DYK and GGL stations during typhoon and non-typhoon periods. The percentage of typhoon contribution to the annual total DOC flux and water discharge are also shown. SD stands for standard deviation.

Station	Year	Number of typhoon events	Duration [Days]	DOC yield [$\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$]			Contribution of Typhoon (%)	
				Typhoon	Non-Typhoon	Sum	DOC flux	Water discharge
PL	2002	3	9	6.88	12.98	19.86	34.7	25.6
	2003	5	9	2.57	22.08	24.65	10.4	7.0
	2004	7	19	14.06	20.24	34.30	41.0	31.1
	2005	7	23	16.99	29.27	46.26	36.7	27.4
	2012	3	8	6.26	30.29	36.55	17.1	11.8
	2013	4	9	6.46	20.98	27.44	23.5	16.7
	2014	2	3	1.69	28.87	30.56	5.5	3.7
	Mean±SD	4.25±1.91	11±6.57	7.44±5.38	26.04±9.18	33.48±9.99	22.3±13.7	16.2±10.6
DYK	2002	3	9	4.52	7.46	11.98	37.7	31.2
	2003	5	9	2.16	11.67	13.83	15.6	12.1
	2004	7	19	8.17	72.30	80.47	10.2	7.8
	2005	7	23	21.63	26.27	47.90	45.2	38.1
	2012	3	8	7.29	29.74	37.03	19.7	15.5
	2013	4	9	6.30	19.55	25.85	24.4	19.4
	2014	2	3	1.92	24.34	26.26	7.3	5.6
	Mean±SD	4.25±1.91	11±6.57	7.21±6.24	29.87±21.04	37.08±22.92	21.3±13.7	17.2±11.8
GGL	2002	3	9	3.97	5.49	9.46	42.0	31.4
	2003	5	9	2.35	13.57	15.92	14.8	9.9
	2004	7	19	9.90	13.10	23.00	43.1	32.4
	2005	7	23	22.00	28.90	50.90	43.2	32.6
	2012	3	8	5.22	13.56	18.78	27.8	19.6
	2013	4	9	6.07	11.59	17.66	34.4	24.9
	2014	2	3	2.79	17.18	19.97	14.0	9.4
	Mean±SD	4.25±1.91	11±6.57	7.37±6.38	14.82±6.63	22.19±12.33	31.2±11.9	22.8±9.5

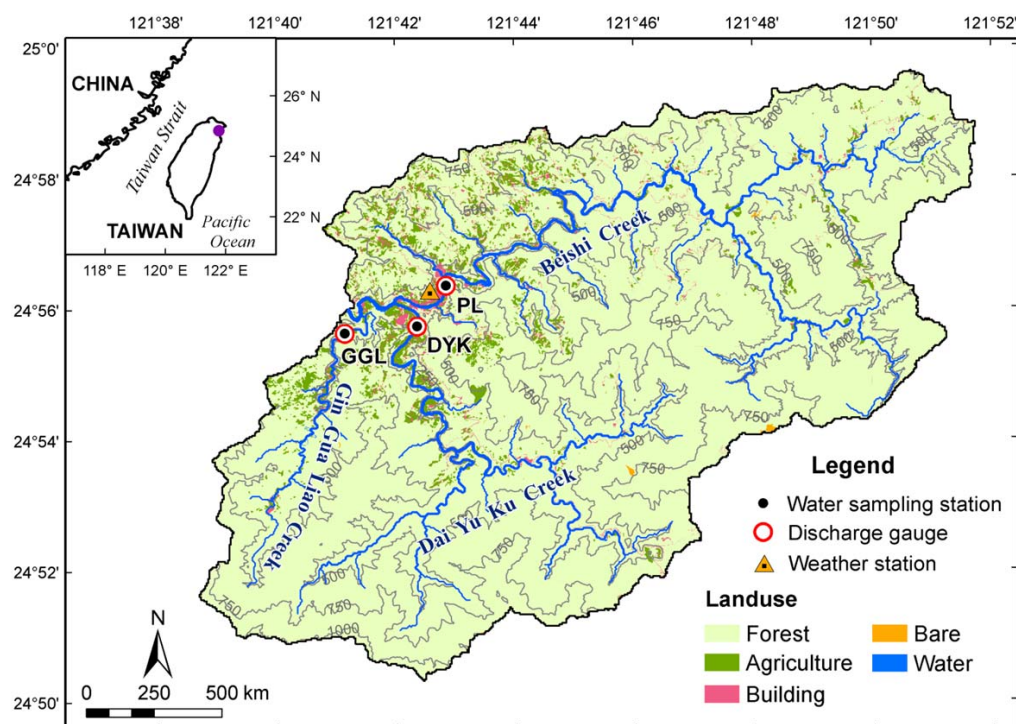


Figure 1. The study watershed, including water sampling sites, discharge gauges, weather station and land use patterns. Water samples were taken from PL, DYK, and GGL watersheds.

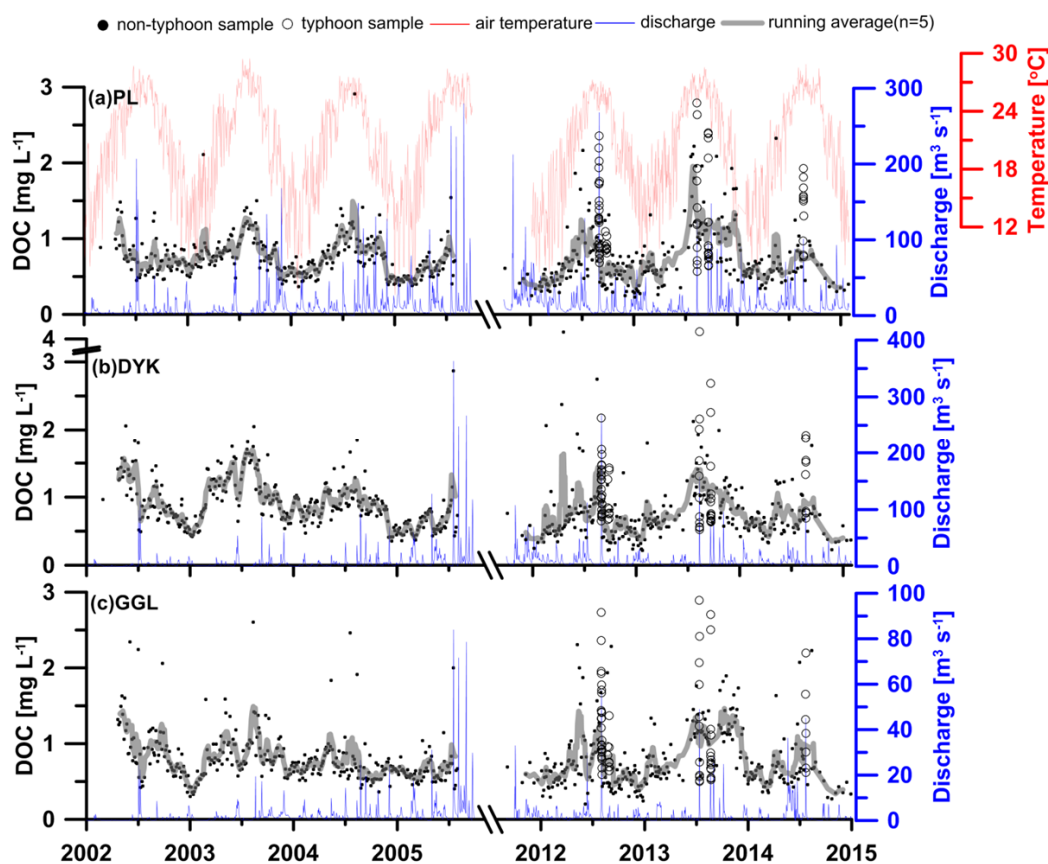


Figure 2. The monitored air temperature [$^{\circ}\text{C}$] (red line), water discharge [$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$] (blue line), and DOC concentration [mg L^{-1}] in the (a) PL, (b) DYK and (c) GGL watersheds. The three watersheds share the same air temperature data shown in panel (a). Water samples include typhoon (open circle) and non-typhoon (black dot) samples. The running average of 5 adjacent DOC samples is illustrated by a thick grey line.

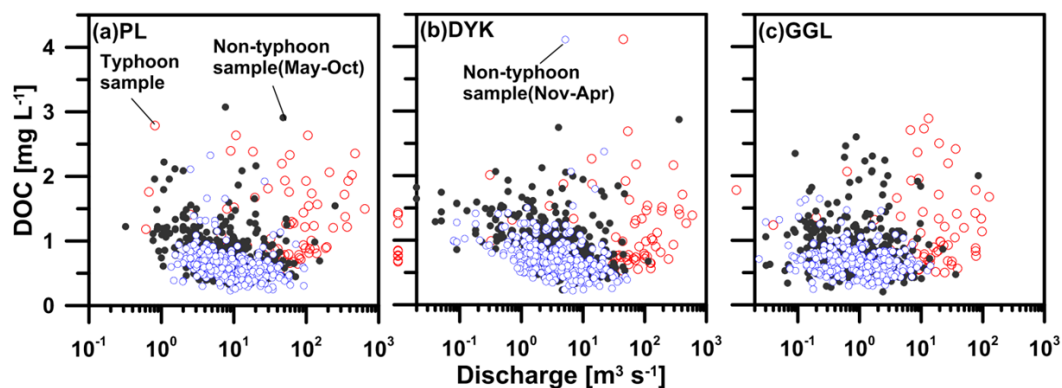


Figure 3. The relation of observed DOC concentration [mg L^{-1}] against water discharge [$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$] in (a) PL, (b) DYK, and (c) GGL watersheds. Blue circles and black dots indicate non-typhoon samples taken in dry (cool) and wet (warm) season, respectively. Red circles stand for typhoon samples.

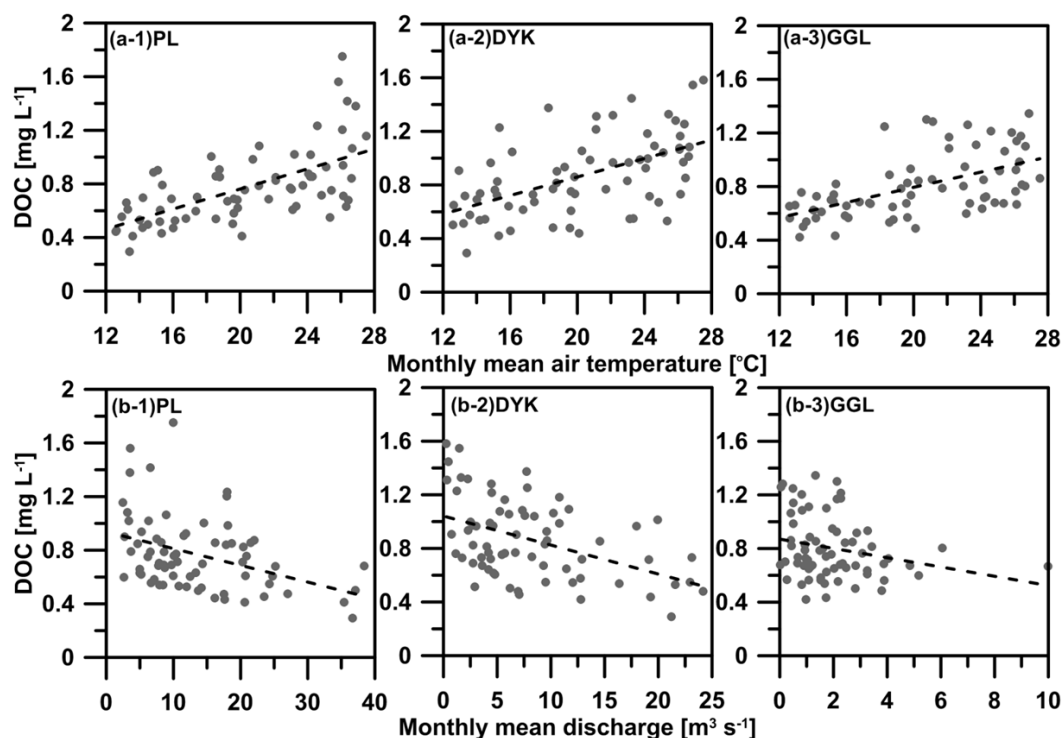


Figure 4. The relations of monthly mean DOC concentration [mg L⁻¹] against (a) monthly mean air temperature [°C] and (b) monthly mean water discharge [m³ s⁻¹] observed at PL (-1), DYK (-2) and GGL (-3) watersheds during the observation period. All the fitted linear regression lines are statistically significant with *p*-value < 0.05.

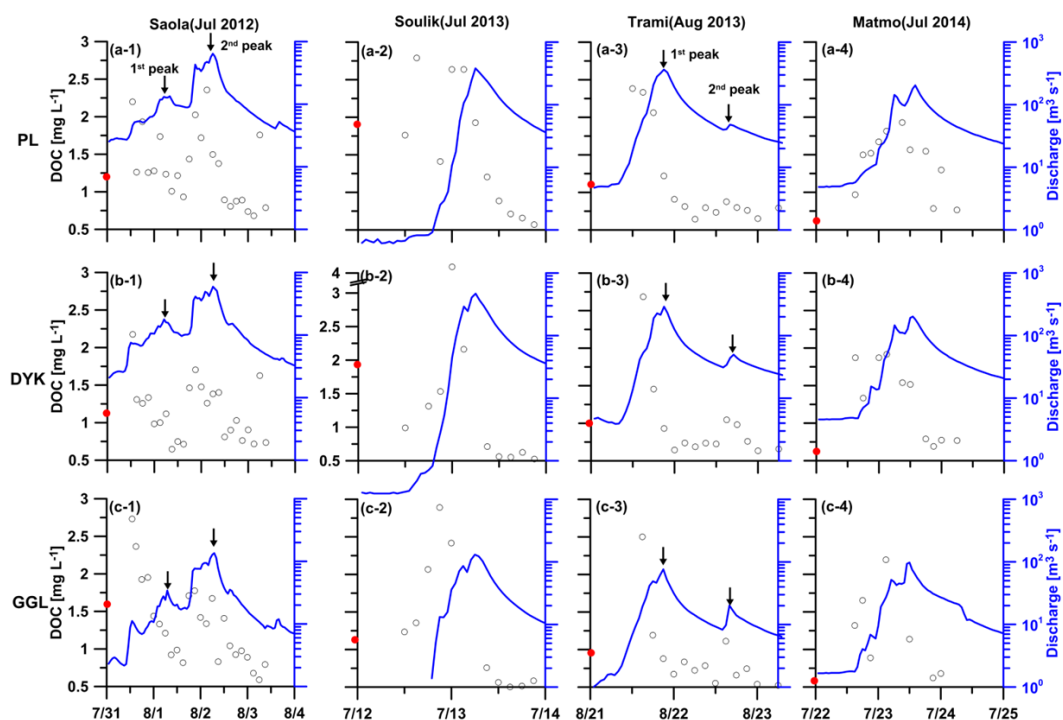


Figure 5. DOC concentrations [mg L⁻¹] (black circle) and water discharge [m³ s⁻¹] (blue line) observed at (a) PL, (b) DYK, and (c) GGL watersheds during the typhoons Saola (-1), Soulik (-2), Trami (-3), and Matmo (-4). The last non-typhoon sample taken before the invasion of the respective typhoon is illustrated as red dot.

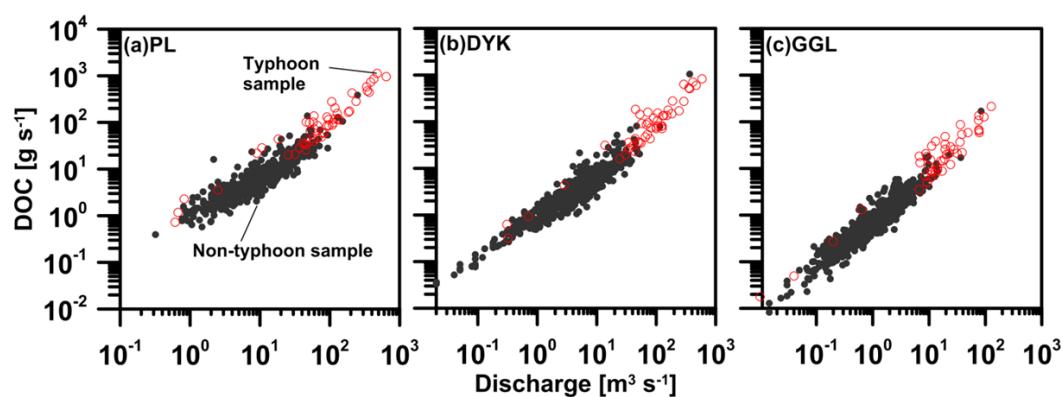


Figure 6. The log-log graphs of observed DOC fluxes [g s^{-1}] against water discharge [$\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$] at (a) PL, (b) DYK and (c) GGL watersheds for both typhoon (red circle) and non-typhoon (black dot) samples.