Response to Reviewer's comments for the manuscript bg-2017-151:

''Historic carbon burial spike in an Amazon floodplain lake linked to riparian

deforestation near Santarem, Brazil"

Note that the line numbers refer to the revised manuscript.

Editor Comments to the Author:

Your revised version has now been re-evaluated by both original reviewers. As you will see from their comments, both agree that the manuscript has been substantially improved but they also raise a few minor additional comments which should be straightforward to address (Referee # 1) or come back to comments/suggestions that were not adequately addressed (Referee #2, issue of Pu & Pb methodologies to quantify sedimentation rates for both periods considered). I would therefore like to encourage you to revise your manuscript, with particular attention to the issue of sedimentation rates mentioned by Reviewer#2, and provide a detailed response explaining how this is addressed in a new version of the ms.

RESPONSE: We appreciate these construction comments. Below we respond to each comment individually. Note that we have incorporated many of the suggestions on the issue of sedimentation rates as recommended by Reviewer#2. We feel these modifications have strengthened the manuscript substantially.

Reviewer 1

General Comments:

Sanders et al. have revised their manuscript on the organic matter accumulation rates within a floodplain lake in the Amazon. This revised manuscript presents an improved analysis of the data and presentation of methods. In addition to a few small comments below, I have one major question: does any of this impact how these systems should be managed? Currently, neither the abstract nor the conclusion tackle this question. It may not be completely answerable within the scope of this study, but I would welcome an attempt at question of land use management. I believe this would improve the quality of the manuscript, especially as there is significant text spent analyzing the land use change component of this study system.

RESPONSE: We agree and have added the following sentences.

In the abstract:

(Lines 51-53) - "Therefore, this supports the conservation priority of riparian forests as an important management practice for Amazon flooded areas."

In the conclusion:

(Lines 234-235) - "However, any increase of OC burial rates attributed to deforestation might be lower than that loss of terrestrial biomass in the standing crop or soils."

(Lines 328-329) - "This work supports the urgent need for management practices based on the conservation of riparian forests, demonstrating the spatial dependence of carbon burial capacity of the Amazon floodplain lakes with respect to advances in deforestation in the Basin."

Specific Comments:

Lines 115-120: I did not catch this in my initial review, but the d15N results should be interpreted with caution based on this pre-treatment method. The relative differences between samples is possibly retained, but the absolute value of d15N following acid pre-treatment is suspect. In addition, C:N can also be affected as acidification and should be interpreted with caution. I do not believe this invalidates the findings here, however these caveats should be considered when interpreting the data.

Here are two recent references that document these issues:

Brodie, C.R., Casford, J.S.L., Lloyd, J.M., Leng, M.J., Heaton, T.H.E., Kendrick, C.P., Yongqiang, Z., 2011. Evidence for bias in C/N, δ13C and δ15N values of bulk organic matter, and on environmental interpretation, from a lake sedimentary sequence by pre-analysis acid treatment methods. Quaternary Science Reviews 30, 3076–3087.

Kim, M.S., Lee, W.S., Suresh Kumar, K., Shin, K.H., Robarge, W., Kim, M., Lee, S.R., 2016. Effects of HCl pretreatment, drying, and storage on the stable isotope ratios of soil and sediment samples. Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry 1567–1575.

RESPONSE: We agree and have added the following, Line 121-122: "The δ^{15} N results and the C/N ratios results should be interpreted with caution based on this pre-treatment method (Brodie et al. 2011)."

Lines 270-283: This fleshed out handling of the statistical methods if welcome. However, I wonder if some of this detail is not better fit for the methods and/or results sections so that the discussion can focus on the implications of the findings.

RESPONSE: We agree and moved these phrases to the Methods section (Line 197 - 204).

Figure 7: Please consider adding a secondary Y-axis indicating the depth associated with the year.

RESPONSE: We agree and the Y-axis to Figure 7 now contains the depth instead of year as also suggested by Reviewer 2.

Reviewer 2

I have reviewed the first version of this paper, and in my first review, I had concerns about the dating methods. Unfortunately, I do not find that the authors have addressed my concerns appropriately in their revision.

RESPONSE: Reviewer 2 raises some valid points in this review of which we feel has improved the manuscript substantially. We detail how we have changed the manuscript in accordance to this Reviewer's suggestions at the end of this comment, as it all relates to the same topic.

The problem is the following: two different dating methods are used, the Pu method and the Pb method.

The Pu method gives information about the average sediment accumulation rate since ~1950, but does not allow for finer temporal resolution. The authors use it in that sense, and that's fine. AD 1950 was located at ~20 cm depth.

The Pb method can resolve temporal changes in sediment accumulation rate at the scale of years, but in the study lake, the authors state that the Pb profile was disturbed in the upper 20 cm, but declining linearly in the 20-60 layer layer. Therefore, they did not calculate sediment accumulation from the Pb data in upper 20 cm of sediment, and they present an average sediment accumulation rate of 4 mm/yr in the 20-60 cm layer.

The chronology given in this paper is therefore (a) an average sediment accumulation rate since 1950 (0-20 cm sediment depth) from the Pu dating, and (b) an average sediment accumulation rate prior to 1950 (20-60 cm sediment depth) from the Pb dating. The presented data does not give information about how sediment accumulation might have varied during the 1950-present period, or during the ~1850-1950 period. Contrary to what the authors claim (L225-227), the fact that the average sediment accumulation rates for these two periods are similar does not indicate that there was little change of sediment accumulation rates might varied at the scale of years. In fact, when looking at the 210Pb(ex) profile (Fig 4b), there is an intriguing increase in unsupported Pb over the 3-20 cm horizon, possibly indicating non-constant sediment accumulation. Similarly, 210Pb(ex) varies between layers in the 20-60 cm horizon, indicating quite variable sediment accumulation rate, and not a constant sediment accumulation rate, as the authors claim (L212-215).

The lack of time-resolved chronologies is serious when the authors plot chemical data over age (Fig. 7), since there is no information about the exact age each respective layer of sediment. In Figure 7, the authors should instead plot chemical data against sediment depth, and indicate the AD 1950 layer.

The same problem appears when changes in OC burial are attributed to changes in land use (Fig.8B). Over the period where land use change was most intense, e.g. the past 50 years, the authors have only one average value of sediment accumulation rate to rely on, and the values of OC burial cannot be confidently attributed to a certain year. In fact, the calculations of OC burial use one average sediment accumulation rate, and using such averaged OC burial rates to illustrate temporal changes in burial seems unwarranted. Analysis of temporal patterns can only be done with temporally resolved data.

In my opinion, the authors can go two ways: either present the Pb chronologies (i.e. plot depth against age, based on both CIC and CRS models) in order to present evidence for the

attribution of individual sediment layers to certain years. I asked for the Pb chronologies in my first review, but the authors have not responded to that. The other potential way to deal with this issue would be to stay away from giving distinct ages to distinct sediment layers, and analyze the differences between pre-1950 and post-1950 layers (for which there is good data from the Pu dating). The average sediment accumulation rates could still be used to speak about indicative ages, i.e. since the long-term average sediment accumulation was ~4 mm/yr, the 0-4 cm layer may be regarded to represent approximately the past 10 yrs.

Whichever way the authors choose, the ms needs to be revised accordingly prior to publication.

RESPONSE: We have decided to focus the manuscript on general range approximations of the indicative ages, instead of distinct ages to distinct sediment layers as recommended by this Reviewer, i.e., >1930, 1930-1970 and 1970-2010, on Figures 7 and 8A and throughout the manuscript. For instance, Line 39-41: "Historical records from the 1930s and satellite data from the 1970s were used to calculate deforestation rates between 1930 and 1970, and 1970 to 2010 in four zones". We have also changed Figures 7 and 8 to show depths instead of specific year as suggested. We feel these general age ranges best reflects the uncertainties associated with our sediment dating methods, as noted by this Reviewer.

Furthermore, we now use pre-1950 and post-1950 sedimentation rate estimates for the two separate layers as suggested by the Reviewer, i.e. The $^{239+240}$ Pu for the rates from near 1950 to present (3.8 mm year⁻¹) and from ~1890 to approximately the 1950s (4.2 mm year⁻¹) as calculated from the 210 Pb_{ex} profiles. These rates for each sediment depth were multiplied by the DBD and OC content for each interval along the entire sediment core.

Another comment: I found the hypothesis a bit vaguely formulated, "related to the carbon burial capacity" leaves room for interpretation. The authors could be more definitive in their prediction: "historically documented increases in deforestation have increased OC burial rates in the studied floodplain lake" or something similar.

RESPONSE: We agree and have changed the hypothesis to the following, Line 95 - 96: "We hypothesize that the historical deforestation in this region of the Amazon may have influenced the OC burial rates in the studied floodplain lake."

1	Historic carbon burial spike in an Amazon floodplain lake linked to riparian
2	deforestation near Santarem, Brazil
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32 Abstract

Forests along the Amazon Basin produce significant quantities of organic material, a 33 34 portion of which is deposited in floodplain lakes. Deforestation in the watershed may 35 then have potentially important effects on the carbon fluxes. In this study, a sediment 36 core was extracted from an Amazon floodplain lake to examine the relationship between 37 carbon burial and land cover/use. Historical records from the 1930s and satellite data 38 from the 1970s were used to calculate deforestation rates between 1930 and 1970, and 39 1970 to 2010 in four zones with different distances from the margins of the lake and its tributaries (100, 500, 1000 and 6000-m buffers). Sediment accumulation rates were 40 determined from the ²⁴⁰⁺²³⁹Pu signatures and the excess ²¹⁰Pb method, and found to be 41 near 4 mm year⁻¹ for the previous ~ 120 years. The carbon burial rates ranged between 85 42 and 298 g C m⁻² year⁻¹, with pulses of high carbon burial in the 1950s, originating from 43 the forest vegetation as indicated by δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N signatures. Our results revealed a 44 potentially important spatial dependence of the OC burial in Amazon lacustrine 45 46 sediments in relation to deforestation rates in the catchment. These deforestation rates 47 were more intense in the riparian vegetation (100-m buffer) during the period 1930 -48 1970 and the larger open water areas (500, 1000 and 6000-m buffer) during 1970 - 2010. 49 The continued removal of vegetation from the interior of the forest was not related to the 50 peak of OC burial in the lake, but only the riparian deforestation which peaked during the 1950s. Therefore, this supports the conservation priority of riparian forests as an 51 important management practice for Amazon flooded areas. Our novel findings suggest 52 53 the importance of abrupt and temporary events in which some of the biomass released by 54 the deforestation, especially restricted to areas along open water edges, might reach the depositional environments in the floodplain of the Amazon Basin. 55

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58 **1. Introduction**

59 Rivers act as vectors, transporting sediment from land to ocean (Abril et al. 2014). 60 Along this trajectory a significant proportion of the sediment load, including organic 61 material, may be deposited in floodplains, creating zones of carbon accumulation (Smith 62 et al. 2002, Dong et al. 2012, Hoffmann et al. 2013). This process is accelerated during 63 flood events, when rivers and tributaries deposit organic material along the inundated 64 floodplains (Smith et al. 2002). In some climate zones, floodplains are seasonally 65 inundated, with riparian zone vegetation dependent upon this seasonal influx of organic 66 material. The riparian vegetation slows water velocity and traps fine-grained, carbon rich 67 sediments within this low-energy environment (Aalto et al. 2003). Therefore, the riparian vegetation along the floodplains may be important for the organic matter deposition and 68 69 the Amazon carbon cycle.

70 The importance of tropical wetland ecosystems in the carbon cycle is well 71 documented (Downing et al. 1993, Melack et al. 2004, Zocatelli et al. 2013, Abril et al. 72 2014, Marotta et al. 2014). It has been shown that wetlands in the warm tropics are some 73 of the most productive biological communities in the world (Neue et al. 1997), 74 representing an important sink for nutrients (Marotta et al. 2009) and carbon (Peixoto et 75 al. 2016, Sanders et al. 2017), as well as sources of organic substrates to carbon gas 76 production in inland waters (Marotta et al. 2010). However, these wetland ecosystems are 77 also highly threatened by land use activities, especially from deforestation, development 78 of agricultural land and soil degradation (Junk 2013, Lucas et al. 2014).

The Amazon Basin wetlands are being degraded by farming activities such as
 commercial ranching, and an increase in road density (Goulding 1993). Deforestation of

the Amazon Basin accelerated toward the end of the 1970's (Skole and Tucker 1993), when an estimated 15% of the pristine rainforest area was lost by the year 2003, increasing to approximately 18% by 2015 (INPE 2016). The ongoing loss of vegetation is responsible for a substantial increase in erosion rates and subsequent sediment inputs into Amazon rivers and lakes (Neill et al. 2013b). Yet these anthropogenic activities are potential sources of allochthonous organic matter that may increase carbon stores in the associated floodplain areas (Diaz and Rosenberg 2008, Stanley et al. 2012).

88 Jupindá Lake provides an ideal opportunity to investigate historical changes in 89 organic carbon burial in a floodplain lake as a result of the well documented 90 anthropogenic activities. This will aid in identifying the still-little known impacts of land 91 cover changes on recent carbon burial rates in depositional environments of the Amazon 92 floodplain. The objectives of this research are to investigate the effects of deforestation 93 and urban development on carbon burial rates in a tropical floodplain lake. We 94 hypothesize that the historical deforestation in this region of the Amazon may have 95 influenced the OC burial rates in the studied floodplain lake.

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97 **2. Methods**

The city of Santarem, in central Amazon, was established in the mid-eighteenth century, approximately 650 km upstream from the Amazon River mouth and at its confluence with the Tapajós River (02°25'0.28"S and 54°42'41.57"W, Figure 1). In 1940, Santarém was only a small village, less than 0.5 km², surrounded by dense pristine rainforest (estimated from the historical mapping of the Santarém City Hall). This city quickly expanded, occupying 5.2 km² by the end of the 1970s and 49.3 km² currently

104 (estimated from satellite images LANDSAT/SRTM). Jupindá Lake is 70 km East of from 105 Santarém City, and receives surface water inflow from small streams draining from the 106 forest and the main tributary Curuá-Una River, a large affluent of the Amazon River 107 (Figure 1). The Lake has been affected by the deforestation associated with the expansion 108 of Santarém City. Between the 1940's and 1950's, there was intense deforestation on the margins of rivers and streams in this area, used to supply the markets with wood and 109 forestry products (Amorim 2000, Cruz et al. 2011). In the 1970s, the Curuá-Una River 110 111 was dammed (Curuá-Una Dam) 45 km upstream of Jupindá Lake to build the first hydroelectric plant of the Amazon Forest (LigockI 2003). 112

A 60 cm depth sediment core (diameter 7.5 cm) was collected in 2010 using a gravity 113 corer in the center of the Jupindá Lake (02°27'43.60" S, 54° 5'1.30" W). The sediment 114 core was sub sampled at 2 cm intervals. Dry bulk density (DBD, g cm⁻³) was determined 115 as the dry sediment weight (g) divided by the initial volume (cm³). A homogenized 116 117 portion was acidified (10% HCl following the procedures outlined in Naidu et al. (2000)) 118 to remove carbonate material, then dried and ground to powder for organic carbon (OC), nitrogen (N), δ^{13} C, and δ^{15} N analyses using a Flash Elemental Analyzer coupled to a 119 Thermo Fisher Delta V IRMS (isotope ratio mass spectrometer). The δ^{15} N results and the 120 121 C/N ratios results should be interpreted with caution based on this pre-treatment method 122 (Brodie et al. 2011). Working standards were used (glucose, 10.7 ppt and urea, 41.3 ppt) to calibrate for δ^{13} C. A pair of standards were measured with every 20 samples. These 123 standards were calibrated initially against international absolute standards LSVEC and 124 NIST8542. Analytical precision: C = 0.1 %, N = 0.1%, $\delta^{13}C = 0.1\%$ and $\delta^{15}N = 0.15 \%$. 125

126 Samples were prepared for Pu dating following the method of Ketterer et al. (2004) 127 with modifications to enable larger sample mass to be processed as a result of the likely 128 lower Pu concentrations in the Southern Hemisphere (Sanders et al. 2016). To obtain a 129 larger mass, sediment intervals were joined and homogenized so the sediment intervals for the ²⁴⁰⁺²³⁹Pu dating was 4 cm intervals. Sample aliquots ranging from 14 to 29 grams 130 were dry-ashed at 600 °C for 16 hours, and leached with 50 mL of 16 M HNO₃. The 131 leaching was conducted overnight at 80°C with added ²⁴²Pu yield tracer (NIST 4334g, 19 132 133 picograms). Acid leaching (as opposed to complete dissolution with HF) is known to solubilize stratospheric fallout Pu, and there is little possibility that "refractory" HNO₃-134 135 insoluble Pu exists in the South America (Sanders et al. 2014). The leachates were diluted to 100 mL, filtered to remove solids, and the aqueous solutions were processed 136 with TEVA resin (EIChrom, Lisle, II, USA) in order to chemically isolate 3.0 mL Pu 137 138 fractions in aqueous ammonium oxalate solution suitable for measurements by sector 139 ICPMS. Pu determinations were performed using a VG Axiom MC operating in the single collector (electron multiplier) mode. The system was used with an APEX HF 140 141 desolvating micronebulizer system (ESI Scientific, Omaha, NE, USA) with an uptake 142 rate of 0.4 mL/minute. Oualitative mass spectral scans (averages of 50 sweeps over the 143 mass range 237.4 – 242.6) were collected for selected samples prior to the electrostatic sector quantitative scanning of ²³⁸U+, ²³⁹Pu+, ²⁴⁰Pu+, and ²⁴²Pu+. Detection limits were 144 145 evaluated based upon the analysis of two blanks and considerations regarding the obtained mass spectra. A detection limit of 0.01 Bq/kg of ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu is applicable for 146 samples of nominal 25 g mass. 147

For ²¹⁰Pb dating, an intrinsic germanium detector coupled to a multi-channel analyzer 148 149 was used. Freeze dried and ground sediments were packed and sealed in gamma tubes. Lead-210 and ²²⁶Ra activities were calculated by multiplying the counts per minute by a 150 151 factor that includes the gamma-ray intensity and detector efficiency determined from 152 standard calibrations. Identical geometry was used for all samples. Lead-210 activities were determined by the direct measurement of the 46.5 KeV gamma peak. Radium-226 153 activity was determined via the ²¹⁴Pb daughter at 351.9 KeV. For ²²⁶Ra measurements, 154 the packed samples were set aside for at least 21 days to allow for ²²²Rn to ingrow and 155 establish secular equilibrium between ²²⁶Ra and its granddaughter ²¹⁴Pb. Excess ²¹⁰Pb 156 activity was calculated by subtracting the supported ²¹⁰Pb (i.e., ²²⁶Ra activity) from the 157 total ²¹⁰Pb activity. The sediment accretion rate for the previous 120 years was estimated 158 by two methods derived from ²¹⁰Pb dating, the Constant Initial Concentration (CIC) 159 160 model assuming that this rate has not varied during the encompassed time span (Appleby 161 and Oldfield 1992), and the Constant Rate of Supply (CRS) model based on a constant influx of unsupported, atmospheric ²¹⁰Pb that allows a variable sediment rate (Ivanovich 162 and Harmon 1992). Organic carbon accumulation rates were estimated from an average 163 between these the two dating methods ($^{239+240}$ Pu and 210 Pb_{ex}) the dry bulk density (g cm⁻³) 164 165 and carbon content for each interval of the entire sediment core.

The land/use cover analysis was based on documented historical information before 167 1975 and satellite images (Landsat/SRTM, Table 1) from 1975, 1985, 1995 and 2008 168 available from the United States Geological Survey (USGS). No significant deforestation 169 occurred in the catchment area of the Jupindá Lake until early 1940's (Amorim 2000, 170 Cruz et al. 2011). Subsequent land/use changes were determined using satellite images

171 (Gordon 1980, Munyati 2000). All satellite images were from low-water seasons to 172 remove the influence of the flood pulse on the exposed area over years. The resolution of 173 the images was 30 m, except that from the 1970's which was resampled from 90 to 30 m 174 (Table 1). This approach allowed an assessment of changes in land cover which could then be compared to results from carbon accumulation. Results of the spatial assessment 175 176 were separated into two time periods; 1930 to 1970, or the timeframe between the onset 177 of land clearing and the first satellite image, and 1970 to 2010 which provides a more 178 detailed assessment of temporal changes to the study area. The time period 1934-1975 179 was characterized by a rapid removal (peak until the 1960's) of vegetation established at 180 the margins of inland waters; especially Aniba rosaeodora (Pau-rosa) for extraction of 181 oils, and Mezilaurus itauba and Cedrela fissilis (Louro-itaúba and Cedro, respectively) as hardwoods, and the opening of clearings for crops of textile fibers and subsistence 182 183 products. Further, intensification of deforestation towards the interior of the forest and 184 following the urban growth of Santarém is reported from the 1970's (Amorim 2000, Cruz 185 et al. 2011). The depleting vegetal resources near to the margins of lakes and running 186 waters in this region is also well documented (Amorim 2000, Cruz et al. 2011).

In order to address the spatial dependence of recent OC burial in Jupindá Lake for deforestation, we analyzed the land/cover use in four buffer areas around this lake and contributing rivers or streams. The first buffer of 100 m represented the riparian forest protected area by the Brazilian laws for fluvial channels with a width of 50 to 200 m. Other buffers were progressively higher, with a width of 500, 1000 and 6000 m from the riverbank and lake margins (Figure 2). In addition, we considered only stretches of rivers and streams 65-km long from Jupindá Lake to analyze its catchment area of more direct influence. This criteria also avoids the interference of the artificial flooding on themargins of the Curuá-Una hydroelectric dam, which was built in 1977 (Fearnside 2005).

196 The statistical treatment of variables and OC burial rates, when grouped into different phases, showed assumptions which required parametric analyses, including normal 197 distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, p > 0.05) and homogeneity of variance (Bartlett, p > 0.05) 198 199 0.05). Thus, we used means and standard errors to represent the distribution of values, 200 and parametric tests were conducted, allowing to compare different phases. Statistical 201 differences were tested using the one-way ANOVA test followed by Tukey's post test (significance was defined as p < 0.05). All the statistical tests used in this work were 202 203 performed using GraphPad Prism 5.0 software.

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3. Results

The analyses of ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu showed no detectable activities from the bottom of the 206 sediment core until the 22-26 cm interval (Figure 3). However, ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu was detected in 207 the 18-22 cm interval (0.029 \pm 0.002 Bg/kg $^{239+240}$ Pu) with the highest concentrations 208 $(0.047 \pm 0.004 \text{ Bq/kg}^{239+240}\text{Pu})$ at the 16 cm depth. The $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ activities appears to 209 210 spike at the 14 to 18 cm interval, which indicates the 1963 stratospheric fallout peak. It 211 may be said with certainty that the material below 22 cm was deposited pre-bomb (that is, 212 prior to the early 1950's). This affixes an upper limit on the average sedimentation rate of near to 3.8 mm year⁻¹. The Pu atom ratio data indicate that the Pu is originating from 213 stratospheric fallout, i.e. plutonium isotopic ratios (^{240/239}Pu) of ~0.18. These results are 214 consistent with the 240 Pu/ 239 Pu of 0.180 ± 0.014 discussed by Kelley et al. (1999). 215

216 The ²¹⁰Pb and ²²⁶Ra profiles as well as the ²¹⁰Pb_(ex) profile vs cumulative dry mass

217 accumulation reveals a complex depositional environment with sedimentation variations and disturbances, such as bio-turbation and resuspension in the upper ~ 20 cm of the 218 sediment column (Figure 4). A decrease in ²¹⁰Pbex activity was found below the 20 cm 219 depth interval. The ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} data distribution are as follows: y = -0.0749x + 7.5; $R^2 = 0.73$; 220 n=19; p < 0.01 from the 20 to the 60 cm interval, below the apparent mixed zone. Both 221 estimates of sediment accretion rate during the 120 years from CIC and CRS models 222 were similar, reaching 4.1 and 4.3 mm yr⁻¹ respectively, which were slightly higher than 223 the ~ 60 year $^{239+240}$ Pu dates (3.8 mm yr⁻¹). In order to obtain a more reliable estimates of 224 the historical carbon burial rates, the ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu results, from near 1950 to present, were 225 used (3.8 mm year⁻¹) and 210 Pb_{ex} (4.2 mm year⁻¹) was used from ~1890 to approximately 226 the 1950s. These rates for each sediment depth were multiplied by the DBD and OC 227 content for each interval of the entire sediment core. 228

The dry bulk density (DBD), total organic carbon (OC%), total nitrogen (TN%) 229 content as well as the carbon and nitrogen (C/N) molar ratios along with the δ^{13} C and 230 δ^{15} N values showed a shift towards the center of the sediment core (Table 2). The 231 relationship between δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N indicated different origins of OC in the sediment core 232 (Figure 5) contributing to the significant relationship between OC burial and the $\delta^{13}C$ 233 (Figure 6). The significantly greater δ^{13} C peak and lower δ^{15} N values coupled to higher 234 235 OC burial rates were observed in the phase between ~1930 to 1970 in Jupindá Lake (oneway ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05; Fig. 7). The δ^{13} C values were 236 greater in the phase ~ 1930 to 1970 in relation to those previous and after respectively 237 (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05). This peak near 1950 also 238 showed $\delta^{15}N$ values lower and OC burial rates higher than other phases (one-way 239

ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05).

241 The OC burial rates indicate an increasing trend from ~ 1930 with a peak during the 1940's and 50's (grey area in Figure 7). The carbon burial rates increased, from ~ 186 g 242 m^{-2} year⁻¹ before the 1950s, and up to 298 g m^{-2} year⁻¹ between the 1940s and 1950s. 243 Carbon accumulation then decreased to approximately 186 g m⁻² year⁻¹ from 1960 to 244 1980, after which a gradual decline in carbon burial is noted. In relation to land use/cover 245 246 in the surrounding fluvial channels and the Jupindá lake, only the smallest buffer (100 m) 247 showed significant changes during <u>1930-1970</u>. This time period is when deforestation was nearly 75% higher than in the subsequent time period 1970-2010 (Figure 8a) and 248 249 when OC burial was greatest ((Figure 8b).

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4. Discussion

252 Similar estimates of sediment accretion were found using different methodologies $(^{239+240}$ Pu and 210 Pb_(ex)). These accretion rates along with the dry bulk density revealed an 253 insight into changes in the sediment sources of floodplains, and their relationships with 254 255 changing land cover and land use in the Amazon Basin. The Jupindá Lake showed 256 substantial changes in the carbon burial rates following deforestation, supporting the 257 connection between flooded areas and their surrounding vegetation The high peak in 258 carbon accumulation observed around 1950 appears to be associated with a shift in the 259 source of organic material, inferred by changes in carbon and nitrogen contents and the 260 isotopic fractioning toward the middle (from 20 to 40 cm depth interval) of the sediment column. This peak for different organic and inorganic variables in intermediate depths 261 revealed changes not only in the amount but also in the type of material being deposited 262

263 over time. Previous studies have reported two common origins for OC in the Amazon forest. Higher $\delta^{15}N$ and more negative $\delta^{13}C$ values could indicate the presence of 264 Santarém soil organic matter (such as that adjacent to the Jupindá Lake), while lower 265 δ^{15} N and more variable δ^{13} C values indicate particulate organic carbon (POC) from the 266 267 terrestrial vegetation in the catchment (Ometto et al. 2006, Zocatelli et al. 2013). Here, a corresponding increase in OC%, TN% and OC burial rates measured, with a peak near 268 1950, suggesting higher inputs of organic matter into lake. The higher δ^{13} C signature, 269 coupled with a lower δ^{15} N indicates a greater influence from the terrestrial Amazonian 270 271 POC during the same period, around 1950 (Ometto et al., 2006).

272 When looking for a cause for this change in the source of organic material, we look to 273 the analysis of land use change. Land clearing associated with early occupation from the 274 1940s in the catchment area of the Jupindá Lake reveals a potential cause of the increased 275 carbon burial observed in this lake. Changes in development use and forestation may 276 significantly affect recent OC burial in mid-high-latitude lakes (Anderson et al. 2013, Dietz et al. 2015). Indeed, our results suggest that land clearing during the 1940's and 277 278 50's might be related to increased organic matter deposition in the region's floodplain lakes. During this period, intense wood extraction and expansion of agricultural 279 280 settlements occurred (Amorim 2000, Cruz et al. 2011). One important consequence of 281 deforestation in the watershed is the silting up of lakes (Enea et al. 2012), including 282 those at humid low-latitude areas (Cohen et al. 2005, Bakoariniaina et al. 2006). 283 However, the lake is in a region relatively preserved, and therefore there is no other explanation other than deforestation in the margins to have caused the peak in OC burial 284 near the 1950s. The riparian forest systems are generally effective in reducing the 285

286 sediment transport by surface runoff, with the removal of this vegetation increasing the 287 erosion processes especially in the Amazon Basin as a result of intense rainfall (Neill et al. 2013a). The peak of the significantly greater $\delta^{13}C$ and lower $\delta^{15}N$ values coupled to 288 higher OC burial rates were observed in the phase between ~1930 to 1970 in Jupindá 289 Lake (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05; Fig. 7). The δ^{13} C values 290 were greater in the ~ 1930 to 1970 phase as related to those previous and after 291 respectively (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05). This peak 292 between ~1930 to 1970 also showed delta δ^{15} N values lower and OC burial rates higher 293 294 than other phases (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05).

295 We also found a spatial dependence of the carbon accumulation in the Lake Jupindá, 296 as the much lower OC burial was coupled to higher deforestation rates in those larger 297 buffers around its margins and main fluvial channels (500, 1000 and 6000 m) in the 298 period after 1970s (between the ~1970s to 2010) than that before (~1930 to 1970). This 299 confirms previous evidences that the recent deforestation process in the region was started in areas near running and lake waters (Amorim 2000, Cruz et al. 2011), and not in 300 301 the interior of the forest. The enhanced OC burial in lacustrine sediments before ~1970 302 was related to higher deforestation rates only in the riparian vegetation zone (100-m 303 buffers), suggesting a higher influence of deforestation with decreasing distance to water 304 courses. Therefore, the soil carbon enrichment to the aquatic sediments during the peaks 305 of riparian deforestation may cause intense but temporary carbon burial events in the Amazon floodplain, representing potentially only a significant part of the total loss of 306 307 terrestrial organic matter. In addition, the continued removal of vegetation from the

interior of the forest might not <u>be_directly</u> related to increases of OC burial, even
 temporarily, in depositional aquatic ecosystems.

310

5. Conclusion

312 Palaeolimnological techniques were used with a historical spatial analysis of deforestation to interpret changes in sediment characteristics during the past century. 313 The Pu dating method closely approximates measurements from the ²¹⁰Pb chronologies 314 315 and hence offers mechanism to determine sedimentation rates and carbon accumulation in Amazon sediments. An increase in OC burial, up to 298 OC g m⁻² year⁻¹, coincides 316 with changes in the δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N signatures, likely influenced by the heavy deforestation 317 in riparian systems of this region during the 1940s and 1950s. It is suggested that the net 318 319 increase in carbon burial towards the center of the sediment core, which represents the 320 highest carbon burial rates during the 1950s, is a result of a change in source of organic 321 matter deposition. However, any increase of OC burial rates attributed to deforestation 322 might be lower than the loss of terrestrial biomass in the standing crop or soils. The 323 differing carbon burial rates along the sediment core therefore reveals the potential 324 complexity of the Amazon floodplain lakes, directly related to the development within 325 the Basin. The differing carbon burial rates along the sediment core therefore identify the 326 potential complexity of the Amazon floodplain lakes, directly related to the development 327 within the Basin. This work supports the urgent need for management practices based on the conservation of riparian forests, demonstrating the spatial dependence of carbon 328 329 burial capacity of the Amazon floodplain lakes with respect to advances in deforestation in the Basin. 330

332333

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341 CAPTIONS TO FIGURES

Figure 1. Floodplain Lake where the sediment core was collect, near the Amazon River
and the city of Santarém, Brazil. This floodplain lake has a diameter of approximately 3
km.

345 Figure 2. Different buffer sizes (100m, 500m, 1km and 6km) along the stretch of the

346 Curuá-Una river from Jupindá Lake (red) to the hydroelectric dam upstream (yellow).

Figure 3. ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu profile, indicating ~ 1950 when these radionuclides were first

348 introduced into the atmosphere.

349 **Figure 4.** Lead-210 (black circles) and ²²⁶Ra (white circles) profiles against depth. Grey

350 squares represent the 210 Pb(ex) profile vs cumulative dry mass.

351 **Figure 5.** δ^{13} C vs δ^{15} N. The Amazon River POM and Santarem soil organic matter

- 352 values, adjacent to the study area, are taken from Zocatelli et al (2013).
- 353 **Figure 6.** Carbon burial as a function of δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N.

354	Figure 7 . δ^{13} C, δ^{15} N and carbon burial rate values in relation to <u>age-depth (yearcm</u>).
355	Panels below each vertical profile represent respective data grouped by the three general
356	phases $>$ <u>19341930</u> , <u>19341930</u> -197 <u>0</u> 5 and 197 <u>0</u> 5-20 <u>10</u> 08. Filled square symbols
357	represent means of a given variable in each sediment layer, and the vertical bars show the
358	mean with the standard deviation of the respective phase. Equal letters in each panel
359	represent non-significant differences ($p > 0.05$, one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's
360	post test).
361	Figure 8. Percentage of modified areas in relation to the different buffers (Panel A).
362	Carbon burial (black dots) and changes in the riparian vegetation (two grey bars represent

363

365 **CAPTION TO TABLES**

- Table 1. Satellite acquisition data from United States Geological Survey (USGS) and the 366
- 367 Curuá-Una River quota from Brazilian Water Agency (ANA).

the two general phases) as related to time (Panel B).

368 Table 2. Depth profiles of dry bulk density (DBD), total organic carbon (OC%), total

nitrogen (TN%) carbon and nitrogen (C/N) molar ratios, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N. 369

370 371

- 372
- 373
- 374 Table 1. 375

Month/Year	Landsat Data	Curuá-Una River Ouote
Aug/1975	2	5.3
Oct/1985	5	3.7
June/1995	5	6
June/2008	5	No data

Table 2.

Depth (cm)	DBD (g cm ⁻³)	δ ¹⁵ N	δ ¹³ C	C (%)	N (%)	C/N
0-2	1.0	8.9	-29.2	3.8	0.3	17.2
2-4	0.9	11.7	-29.0	3.8	0.3	18.7
4-6	1.0	10.4	-28.8	4.0	0.3	19.2
6-8	1.1	9.3	-28.7	4.3	0.3	20.2
8-10	1.0	9.4	-28.7	4.1	0.3	19.8
10-12	1.1	7.9	-28.6	4.6	0.3	21.2
12-14	1.1	8.2	-28.7	4.3	0.3	19.9
14-16	1.1	7.8	-28.6	4.3	0.3	20.9
16-18	1.0	8.7	-28.5	4.4	0.3	21.2
18-20	1.1	7.5	-28.4	4.4	0.3	19.8
20-22	1.0	6.5	-28.2	5.4	0.3	21.2
22-24	1.0	6.0	-27.8	5.3	0.3	21.5
24-26	1.0	5.2	-27.4	7.3	0.4	25.4
26-28	1.1	6.1	-27.6	6.0	0.3	23.8
28-30	1.0	5.0	-27.3	6.0	0.4	22.7
30-32	1.0	5.4	-28.0	6.1	0.3	27.0
32-34	1.3	6.6	-28.5	4.4	0.2	27.5
34-36	1.6	8.9	-29.0	2.2	0.1	23.1
36-38	1.4	11.4	-29.4	2.9	0.1	30.4
38-40	1.4	10.4	-29.5	3.3	0.1	30.5
40-42	1.5	11.4	-29.3	2.4	0.1	23.8
42-44	1.6	12.2	-29.4	1.3	0.1	15.6
44-46	1.8	8.2	-29.6	1.2	0.1	14.3
46-48	1.5	8.8	-29.8	2.2	0.1	21.6
48-50	0.9	10.4	-29.7	2.9	0.2	25.6
50-52	0.9	10.2	-29.7	2.6	0.1	27.2
52-54	0.9	7.1	-29.7	3.9	0.2	28.6
54-56	0.9	9.2	-29.9	3.6	0.2	27.8
56-58	0.9	6.6	-30.1	4.3	0.2	30.1
58-60	0.9	5.0	-30.1	3.5	0.2	23.1
Average	1.11	8.34	-28.9	4.0	0.2	23.0
Stand Dev	0.24	2.1	0.8	1.9	0.1	4.2

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1 - Curuá-Una River 2 - Floodplain Lake Jupindá











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Figure 5.









