

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

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4 Luciana M. Sanders¹, Kathryn Taffs¹, Debra Stokes², Christian J. Sanders³, Alex Enrich-
5 Prast^{4,5}, Leonardo Nogueira Amora^{6,7}, Humberto Marotta^{6,7}

6
7
8
9 ¹*Southern Cross Geoscience, Southern Cross University, P.O. Box 157, Lismore, NSW 2480, Australia.*

10 ²*Marine Ecology Research Centre, Southern Cross University, P.O. Box 157, Lismore, NSW 2480,*
11 *Australia University, P.O. Box 157, Lismore, NSW 2480, Australia.*

12 ³*National Marine Science Centre, School of Environment, Science and Engineering, Southern Cross*
13 *University, Coffs Harbour, New South Wales, Australia.*

14 ⁴*Laboratório de Biogeoquímica, Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro (UFRJ), Rio de Janeiro (RJ),*
15 *21941 971, Brazil.*

16 ⁵*Department of Environmental Change, Linköping University, 581 83, Linköping, Sweden.*

17 ⁶*Ecosystems and Global Change Laboratory (LEMG-UFF) / International Laboratory of Global Change*
18 *(LINCGlobal). Biomass and Water Management Research Center (NAB-UFF). Graduated*
19 *Program in Geosciences (Environmental Geochemistry). Universidade Federal Fluminense*
20 *(UFF), Av. Edmundo March, s/nº – Zip Code: 24210-310, Niteroi/RJ- Brazil.*

21 ⁷*Sedimentary and Environmental Processes Laboratory (LAPSA-UFF). Department of Geography.*
22 *Graduated Program in Geography. Universidade Federal Fluminense (UFF), Av. Gal. Milton*
23 *Tavares de Souza, s/nº - Zip Code: 24210-346, Niteroi/RJ- Brazil.*

24
25
26
27
28 *Corresponding author. E-mail address; l.sanders.13@student.scu.edu.au

32 **Abstract**

33 The forests along the Amazon Basin produce significant quantities of organic
34 material, a portion of which is deposited in floodplain lakes. However, potentially
35 important effects of ongoing deforestation in the watershed on these carbon fluxes is still
36 poorly understood. Here, a sediment core was extracted from an Amazon floodplain lake
37 to examine the relationship between carbon burial and land cover/use. Historical records
38 from 1934 and satellite data from 1975 were used to calculate deforestation rates between
39 1934 and 1975, and 1975 to 2008 in four zones with different distances from the margins
40 of the lake and its tributaries (100, 500, 1000 and 6000-m buffers). Sediment
41 accumulation rates were determined from the $^{240+239}\text{Pu}$ signatures and the excess ^{210}Pb
42 method, reaching near 3.8 and 4.2 mm year⁻¹ in the last ~60 and ~120 years respectively.
43 The carbon burial rates ranged between 91 and 319 g C m⁻² year⁻¹, with pulses of high
44 carbon burial originates from the forest vegetation, as indicated by $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
45 signatures in the 1940s and 50s. Our results revealed a potentially important spatial
46 dependence of the OC burial in Amazon lacustrine sediments in relation to deforestation
47 rates in the catchment. These deforestation rates were more intense in the riparian
48 vegetation (100-m buffer) during the period 1934-1975 and the larger open water areas
49 (500, 1000 and 6000-m buffer) during 1975-2008. The continued removal of vegetation
50 from the interior of the forest was not related to the peak of OC burial in the lake, but
51 only the riparian deforestation which peaked during the 1950s. Our novel findings
52 suggest the importance of abrupt and temporary events in which some of the biomass
53 released by the deforestation, especially restricted to areas along open water edges, might
54 reach the depositional environments in the floodplain of the Amazon Basin.

55

56 **1. Introduction**

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

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

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

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

95

96 **2. Methods**

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

102 quickly expanded, occupying 5.2 km² by the end of the 1970s and 49.3 km² currently
103 (estimated from satellite images LANDSAT/SRTM). Jupindá Lake is 70 km East of from
104 Santarém City, and receives surface water inflow from small streams draining from the
105 forest and the main tributary Curuá-Una River, a large affluent of the Amazon River
106 (Figure 1). The Lake has been affected by the deforestation associated with the expansion
107 of Santarém City. Between the 1940's and 1950's, there was intense deforestation on the
108 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 was dammed (Curuá-Una Dam) 45 km upstream of Jupindá Lake to build the first
111 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 portion was acidified (10% HCl following the procedures outlined in Naidu et al. (2000))
117 to remove carbonate material, then dried and ground to powder for organic carbon (OC),
118 nitrogen (N), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ analyses using a Flash Elemental Analyzer coupled to a
119 Thermo Fisher Delta V IRMS (isotope ratio mass spectrometer). Working standards were
120 used (glucose, 10.7 ppt and urea, 41.3 ppt) to calibrate for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. A pair of standards were
121 measured with every 20 samples. These standards were calibrated initially against
122 international absolute standards LSVEC and NIST8542. Analytical precision: C = 0.1 %,
123 N = 0.1%, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ = 0.1‰ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ = 0.15 ‰.

124 Samples were prepared for Pu dating following the method of Ketterer et al. (2004)
125 with modifications to enable larger sample mass to be processed as a result of the likely
126 lower Pu concentrations in the Southern Hemisphere (Sanders et al. 2016). To obtain a
127 larger mass, sediment intervals were joined and homogenized so the sediment intervals
128 for the $^{240+239}\text{Pu}$ dating was 4 cm intervals. Sample aliquots ranging from 14 to 29 grams
129 were dry-ashed at 600 °C for 16 hours, and leached with 50 mL of 16 M HNO_3 . The
130 leaching was conducted overnight at 80°C with added ^{242}Pu yield tracer (NIST 4334g, 19
131 picograms). Acid leaching (as opposed to complete dissolution with HF) is known to
132 solubilize stratospheric fallout Pu, and there is little possibility that “refractory” HNO_3 -
133 insoluble Pu exists in the South America (Sanders et al. 2014). The leachates were
134 diluted to 100 mL, filtered to remove solids, and the aqueous solutions were processed
135 with TEVA resin (EICHrom, Lisle, IL, USA) in order to chemically isolate 3.0 mL Pu
136 fractions in aqueous ammonium oxalate solution suitable for measurements by sector
137 ICPMS. Pu determinations were performed using a VG Axiom MC operating in the
138 single collector (electron multiplier) mode. The system was used with an APEX HF
139 desolvating micronebulizer system (ESI Scientific, Omaha, NE, USA) with an uptake
140 rate of 0.4 mL/minute. Qualitative mass spectral scans (averages of 50 sweeps over the
141 mass range 237.4 – 242.6) were collected for selected samples prior to the electrostatic
142 sector quantitative scanning of $^{238}\text{U}^+$, $^{239}\text{Pu}^+$, $^{240}\text{Pu}^+$, and $^{242}\text{Pu}^+$. Detection limits were
143 evaluated based upon the analysis of two blanks and considerations regarding the
144 obtained mass spectra. A detection limit of 0.01 Bq/kg of $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ is applicable for
145 samples of nominal 25 g mass.

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

164 The land/use cover analysis was based on documented historical information before
165 1975 and satellite images (Landsat/SRTM, Table 1) from 1975, 1985, 1995 and 2008
166 available from the United States Geological Survey (USGS). No significant deforestation
167 occurred in the catchment area of the Jupindá Lake until early 1940's (Amorim 2000,
168 Cruz et al. 2011). Subsequent land/use changes were determined using satellite images

169 (Gordon 1980, Munyati 2000). All satellite images were from low-water seasons to
170 remove the influence of the flood pulse on the exposed area over years. The resolution of
171 the images was 30 m, except that from the 1970's which was resampled from 90 to 30 m
172 (Table 1). This approach allowed an assessment of changes in land cover which could
173 then be compared to results from carbon accumulation. Results of the spatial assessment
174 were separated into two time periods; 1934-1975, or the timeframe between the onset of
175 land clearing and the first satellite image, and 1975-2008 which provides a more detailed
176 assessment of temporal changes to the study area. The time period 1934-1975 was
177 characterized by a rapid removal (peak until the 1960's) of vegetation established at the
178 margins of inland waters; especially *Aniba rosaeodora* (Pau-rosa) for extraction of oils,
179 and *Mezilaurus itauba* and *Cedrela fissilis* (Louro-itaúba and Cedro, respectively) as
180 hardwoods, and the opening of clearings for crops of textile fibers and subsistence
181 products. Further, intensification of deforestation towards the interior of the forest and
182 following the urban growth of Santarém is reported from the 1970's (Amorim 2000, Cruz
183 et al. 2011). The depleting vegetal resources near to the margins of lakes and running
184 waters in this region is also well documented (Amorim 2000, Cruz et al. 2011).

185 In order to address the spatial dependence of recent OC burial in Jupindá Lake for
186 deforestation, we analyzed the land/cover use in four buffer areas around this lake and
187 contributing rivers or streams. The first buffer of 100 m represented the riparian forest
188 protected area by the Brazilian laws for fluvial channels with a width of 50 to 200 m.
189 Other buffers were progressively higher, with a width of 500, 1000 and 6000 m from the
190 riverbank and lake margins (Figure 2). In addition, we considered only stretches of rivers
191 and streams 65-km long from Jupindá Lake to analyze its catchment area of more direct

192 influence. This criteria also avoids the interference of the artificial flooding on the
193 margins of the Curuá-Una hydroelectric dam, which was built in 1977 (Fearnside 2005).
194 All the statistical tests used in this work were performed using GraphPad Prism 5.0
195 software.

196

197 **3. Results**

198 The analyses of $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ showed no detectable activities from the bottom of the
199 sediment core until the 22-26 cm interval (Figure 3). However, $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ was detected in
200 the 18-22 cm interval (0.029 ± 0.002 Bq/kg $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$) with the highest concentrations
201 (0.047 ± 0.004 Bq/kg $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$) at the 16 cm depth. The $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ activities appears to
202 spike at the 14 to 18 cm interval, which indicates the 1963 stratospheric fallout peak. It
203 may be said with certainty that the material below 22 cm was deposited pre-bomb (that is,
204 prior to the early 1950's). This affixes an upper limit on the average sedimentation rate of
205 near to 3.8 mm year^{-1} . The Pu atom ratio data indicate that the Pu is originating from
206 stratospheric fallout, i.e. plutonium isotopic ratios ($^{240/239}\text{Pu}$) of ~ 0.18 . These results are
207 consistent with the $^{240}\text{Pu}/^{239}\text{Pu}$ of 0.180 ± 0.014 discussed by Kelley et al. (1999).

208 The ^{210}Pb and ^{226}Ra profiles as well as the $^{210}\text{Pb}_{(\text{ex})}$ profile vs cumulative dry mass
209 accumulation reveals a complex depositional environment with sedimentation variations
210 in the upper intervals with disturbances, such as bio-turbation and resuspension in the
211 upper ~ 20 cm of the sediment column (Figure 4). A decrease in $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity was
212 found below the 20 cm depth interval. The $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ data distribution are as follows: $y = -$
213 $0.0749x + 7.5$; $R^2 = 0.73$; $n=19$; $p < 0.01$ from the 20 to the 60 cm interval, below the
214 apparent mixed zone. This indicates that the sedimentation is constant below the 20 cm

215 depth. Both estimates of sediment accretion rate during the 120 years from CIC and CRS
216 models were similar, reaching 4.1 and 4.3 mm yr⁻¹ respectively, which were slightly
217 higher than the ~ 60 year ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu dates (3.8 mm yr⁻¹). In order to obtain a more reliable
218 estimates of the historical carbon burial rates, an average was taken between these the
219 two dating methods, ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu and ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} (4 mm year⁻¹), and multiplied by the DBD and
220 OC content for each interval of the entire sediment core.

221 Because the ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} activities are relatively uniform from the surface to the ~20 cm
222 depth, the short-term measurements are not possible. However, from the ²³⁹⁺²⁴⁰Pu data,
223 one can say with certainty that the material below 22 cm was deposited pre-bomb (that is,
224 prior to the early 1950s). This affixes an upper limit on the sedimentation accumulation
225 rate (SAR), from 1950 to 2010, to be near 3.8 cm/year. This accretion rate is similar to
226 the ²¹⁰Pb rates and we therefore conclude that the sedimentation rates have not changed
227 significantly during previous ~120 years.

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 δ¹³C and
230 δ¹⁵N values showed a shift towards the center of the sediment core (Table 2). The
231 relationship between δ¹³C and δ¹⁵N indicated different origins of OC in the sediment core
232 (Figure 5) contributing to the significant relationship between OC burial and the δ¹³C
233 (Figure 6). The significantly greater δ¹³C peak and lower δ¹⁵N values coupled to higher
234 OC burial rates were observed in the phase between 1934-1975 in Jupindá Lake (one-
235 way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05; Fig. 7). The δ¹³C values were
236 greater in the phase 1934-1975 in relation to those previous and after respectively (one-
237 way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, p<0.05). This peak between 1934-1975 also

238 showed $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values lower and OC burial rates higher than other phases (one-way
239 ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, $p < 0.05$).

240 The OC burial rates indicate an increasing trend from ~ 1930 to 1960 with a peak
241 during the 1940's and 50's (grey area in Figure 7). The carbon burial rates increased,
242 from $\sim 142 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ in the time period 1890 – 1940, and up to $298 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$
243 between 1940 and 1950. Carbon accumulation then decreased to approximately 218 g m^{-2}
244 year^{-1} from 1960 to 1980, after which a gradual decline in carbon burial is noted. In
245 relation to land use/cover in the surrounding fluvial channels and the Jupindá lake, only
246 the smallest buffer (100 m) showed significant changes during 1934-1975. This time
247 period is when deforestation was nearly 75% higher than in the subsequent time period
248 1975-2008 (Figure 8a) and when OC burial was greatest ((Figure 8b).

249

250 **4. Discussion**

251 Overall, similar estimates of sediment accretion were found using different
252 methodologies ($^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ and $^{210}\text{Pb}_{(\text{ex})}$). These accretion rates along with the dry bulk
253 density revealed an insight into changes in the sediment sources. This indicates that even
254 though the origin of the sediment may have been modified, the sediment accumulation
255 has varied little as indicated by the ~ 60 and 120 year rates.

256 The high peak in carbon accumulation observed around 1950 appears to be associated
257 with a shift in the source of organic material, inferred by changes in carbon and nitrogen
258 contents and the isotopic fractioning toward the middle (from 20 to 40 cm depth interval)
259 of the sediment column. This peak for different organic and inorganic variables in
260 intermediate depths revealed changes not only in the amount but also in the type of

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

270 The statistical treatment of variables and OC burial rates, when grouped into different
271 phases, showed assumptions which required parametric analyses, including normal
272 distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, $p > 0.05$) and homogeneity of variance (Bartlett, $p >$
273 0.05). Thus, we used means and standard errors to represent the distribution of values,
274 and parametric tests were conducted to compare different phases. Statistical differences
275 were tested using the one-way ANOVA test followed by Tukey's post test (significance
276 was defined as $p < 0.05$). The stable isotope results and OC burial rates, when grouped
277 into different phases, showed assumptions required for parametric analyses,
278 including normal distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov, $p > 0.05$) and homogeneity of
279 variance (Bartlett, $p > 0.05$) (Figure 7). Thus, when examining the means and standard
280 errors to represent the distribution of values, and parametric tests, different sedimentary
281 phases are noted. These different sedimentary phases are confirmed by statistical
282 differences as tested using a one-way ANOVA test followed by Tukey's post test
283 (significance was defined as $p < 0.05$).

284 When looking for a cause for this change in the source of organic material, we look to
285 the analysis of land use change. Land clearing associated with early occupation from the
286 1940s in the catchment area of the Jupindá Lake reveals a potential cause of the increased
287 carbon burial observed in this lake. Changes in development use and forestation may
288 significantly affect recent OC burial in mid-high-latitude lakes (Anderson et al. 2013,
289 Dietz et al. 2015). Indeed, our results suggest that land clearing during the 1940's and
290 50's might be related to increased organic matter deposition in the region's floodplain
291 lakes. During this period, intense wood extraction and expansion of agricultural
292 settlements occurred (Amorim 2000, Cruz et al. 2011). One important consequence of
293 deforestation in the watershed is the silting up of lakes (Enea et al. 2012), including
294 those at humid low-latitude areas (Cohen et al. 2005, Bakoariniaina et al. 2006).
295 However, the lake is in a region relatively preserved, and therefore there is no other
296 explanation other than deforestation in the margins to have caused the peak in OC burial
297 between 1934 and 1975. The riparian forest systems are generally effective in reducing
298 the sediment transport by surface runoff, with the removal of this vegetation increasing
299 the erosion processes especially in the Amazon Basin as a result of intense rainfall (Neill
300 et al. 2013a). The peak of the significantly greater $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values coupled to
301 higher OC burial rates were observed in the phase between 1934-1975 in Jupindá Lake
302 (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, $p<0.05$; Fig. 7). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were
303 greater in the 1934-1975 phase as related to those previous and after respectively (one-
304 way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, $p<0.05$). This peak between 1934-1975 also
305 showed delta $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values lower and OC burial rates higher than other phases (one-way
306 ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test, $p<0.05$).

307 We also found a spatial dependence of the carbon accumulation in the Lake Jupindá,
308 as the much lower OC burial was coupled to higher deforestation rates in those larger
309 buffers around its margins and main fluvial channels (500, 1000 and 6000 m) in the
310 period after 1975 (1975-2008) than that before (1934-1975). This confirms previous
311 evidences that the recent deforestation process in the region was started in areas near
312 running and lake waters (Amorim 2000, Cruz et al. 2011), and not in the interior of the
313 forest. The enhanced OC burial in lacustrine sediments before 1975 was related to higher
314 deforestation rates only in the riparian vegetation zone (100-m buffers), suggesting a
315 higher influence of deforestation with decreasing distance to water courses. Therefore,
316 the soil carbon enrichment to the aquatic sediments during the peaks of riparian
317 deforestation may cause intense but temporary carbon burial events in the Amazon
318 floodplain, representing a significant part of the total loss of terrestrial organic matter. In
319 contrast, the continued removal of vegetation from the interior of the forest might be not
320 directly related to increases of OC burial, even temporarily, in depositional aquatic
321 ecosystems.

322

323 **5. Conclusion**

324 The $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ and ^{210}Pb dating methods were combined with a spatial analysis of
325 vegetation clearing to firstly calculate carbon accumulation rates, and then to interpret
326 changes in sediment characteristics during the previous century. The Pu dating method
327 closely approximates measurements from the ^{210}Pb chronologies and hence offers
328 mechanism to determine sedimentation rates and carbon accumulation in Amazon
329 sediments. An increase in OC burial, up to 319 OC g m⁻² year⁻¹, coincides with changes

330 in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures, likely influenced by the heavy deforestation in riparian
331 systems of this region during the 1940s and 50's. It is therefore suggested that the net
332 increase in carbon burial towards the center of the sediment core, which represents the
333 highest carbon burial rates during the 1950s, is a result of a change in source of organic
334 matter deposition. The differing carbon burial rates along the sediment core reveals the
335 potential complexity of the Amazon floodplain lakes, directly related to the development
336 within the Basin. This work demonstrates a new understanding on spatial dependence of
337 carbon burial capacity of the Amazon floodplain lakes with respect to advances in
338 deforestation in the Basin.

339

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346

347 **CAPTIONS TO FIGURES**

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

351 **Figure 2.** Different buffer sizes (100m, 500m, 1km and 6km) along the stretch of the
352 Curuá-Una river from Jupindá Lake (red) to the hydroelectric dam upstream (yellow).

353 **Figure 3.** $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ profile, indicating ~ 1950 when these radionuclides were first
354 introduced into the atmosphere.

355 **Figure 4.** Lead-210 (black circles) and ^{226}Ra (white circles) profiles against depth. Grey
356 squares represent the $^{210}\text{Pb}(\text{ex})$ profile vs cumulative dry mass.

357 **Figure 5.** $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ vs $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. The Amazon River POM and Santarem soil organic matter
358 values, adjacent to the study area, are taken from Zocatelli et al (2013).

359 **Figure 6.** Carbon burial as a function of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

360 **Figure 7.** $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and carbon burial rate values in relation to age (year). Panels below
361 each vertical profile represent respective data grouped by the phases >1934, 1934-1975
362 and 1975-2008. Filled square symbols represent means of a given variable in each
363 sediment layer, and the vertical bars show the mean with the standard deviation of the
364 respective phase. Equal letters in each panel represent non-significant differences ($p >$
365 0.05, one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post test).

366 **Figure 8.** Percentage of modified areas in relation to the different buffers (Panel A).
367 Carbon burial (black dots) and changes in the riparian vegetation (grey bars) as related to
368 time (Panel B).

369

370 **CAPTION TO TABLES**

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

373 **Table 2.** Depth profiles of dry bulk density (DBD), total organic carbon (OC%), total
374 nitrogen (TN%) carbon and nitrogen (C/N) molar ratios, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

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Table 1.

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

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418 **Table 2.**
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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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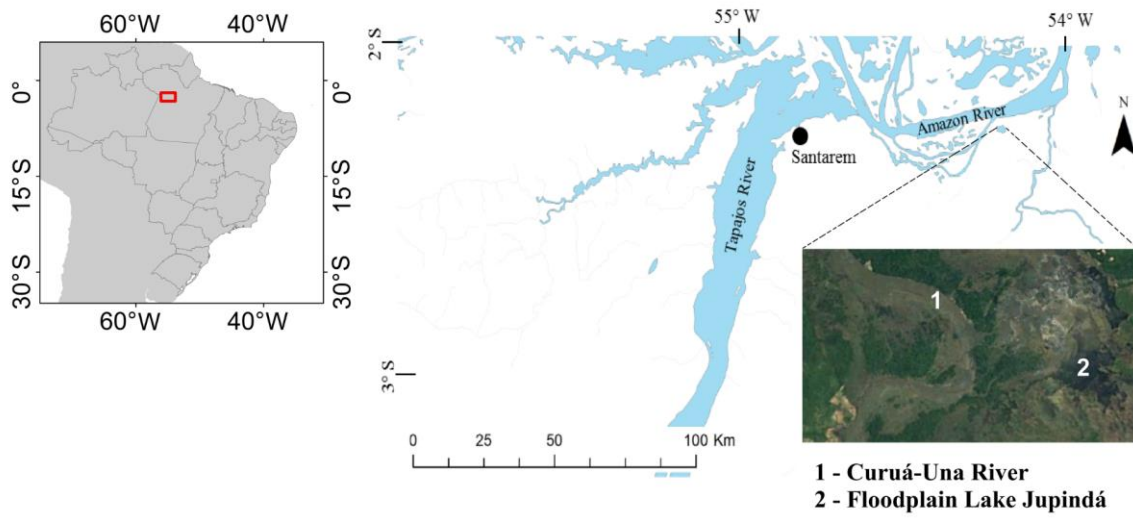
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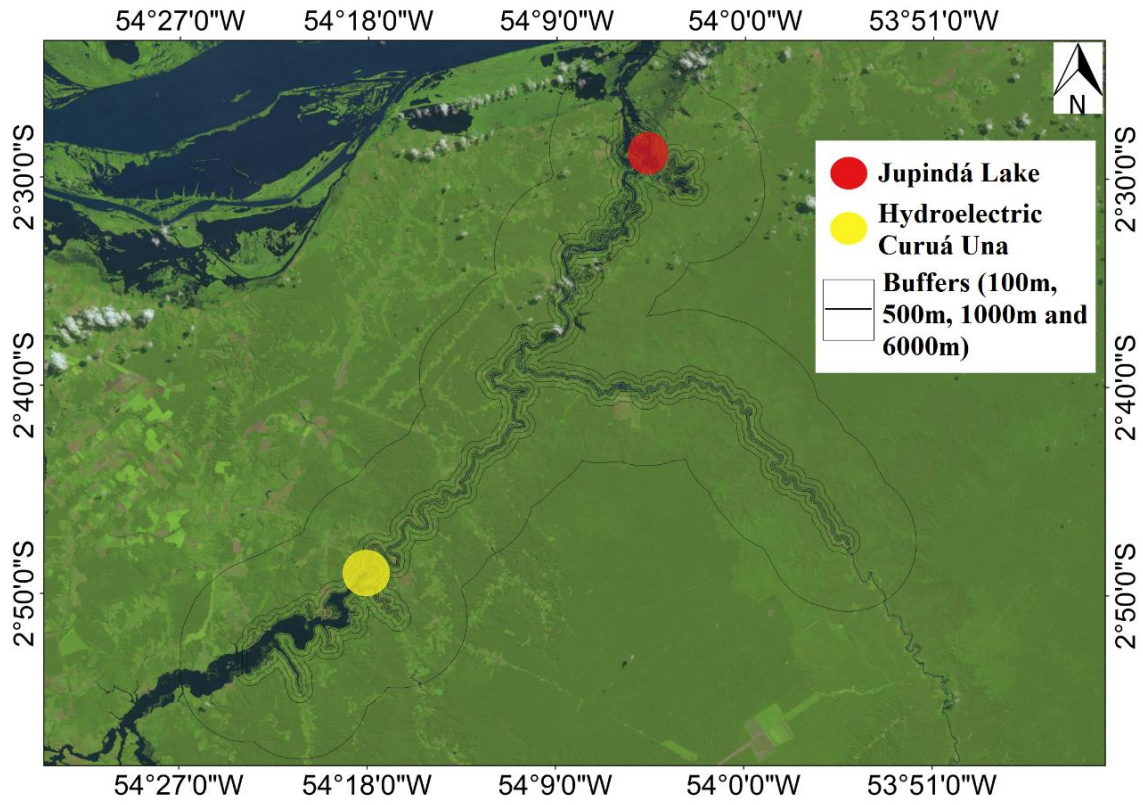
575 **Figure 1.**



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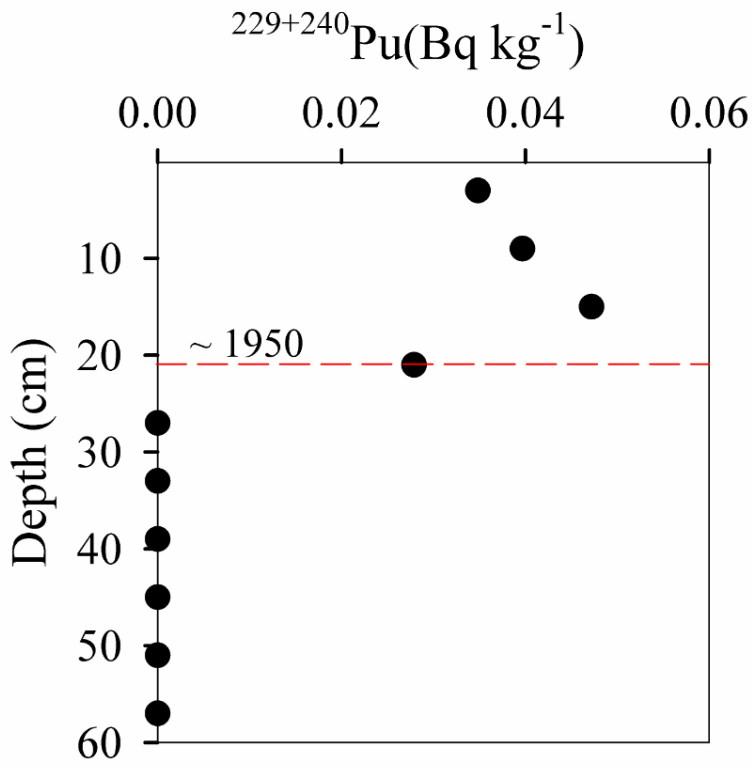
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Figure 2.



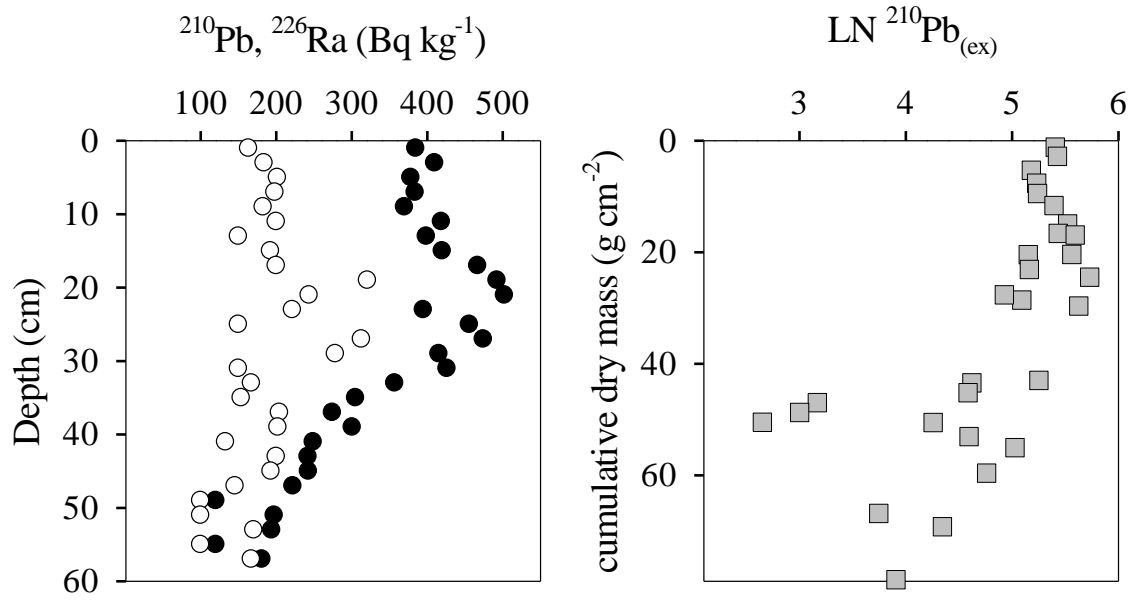
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632 **Figure 3.**



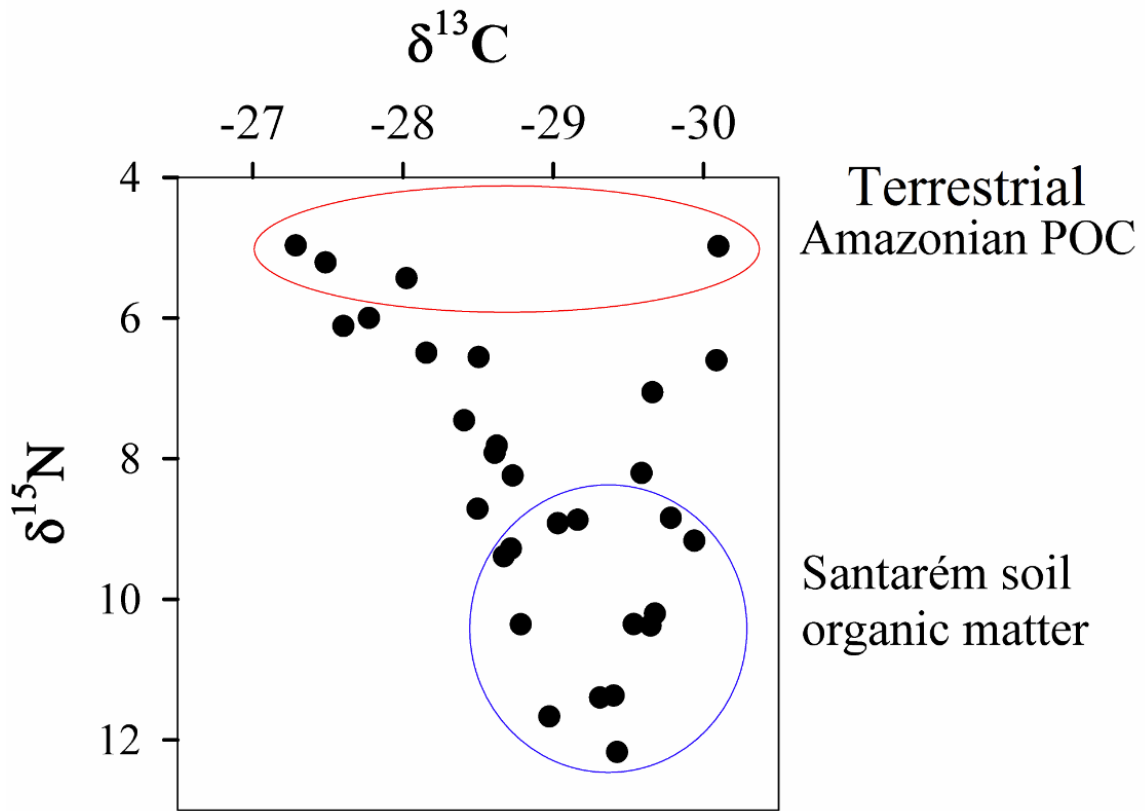
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657 **Figure 4.**
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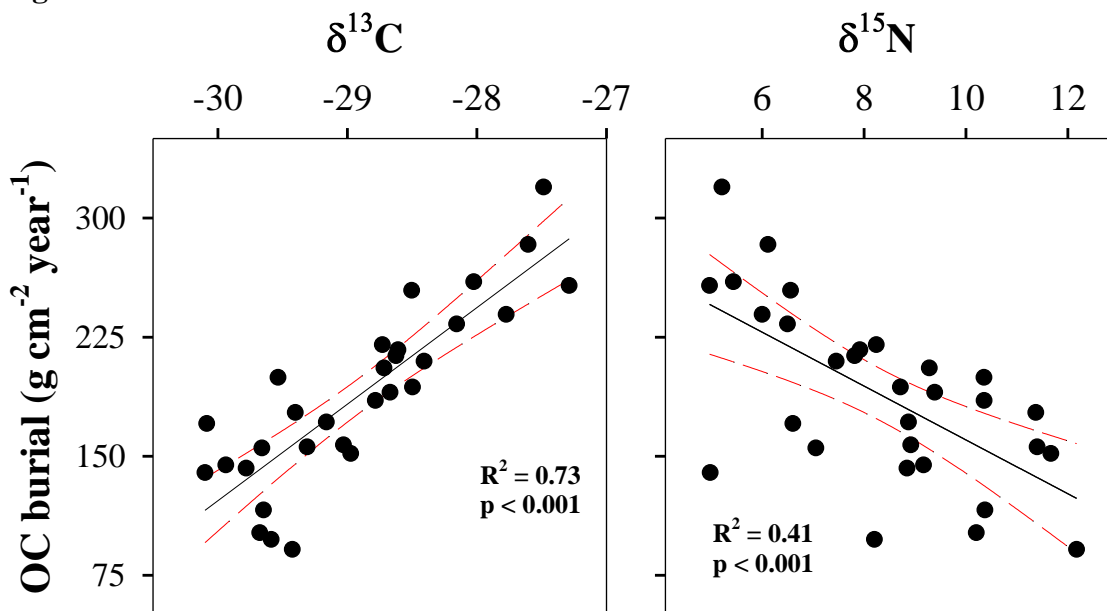
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688 **Figure 5.**



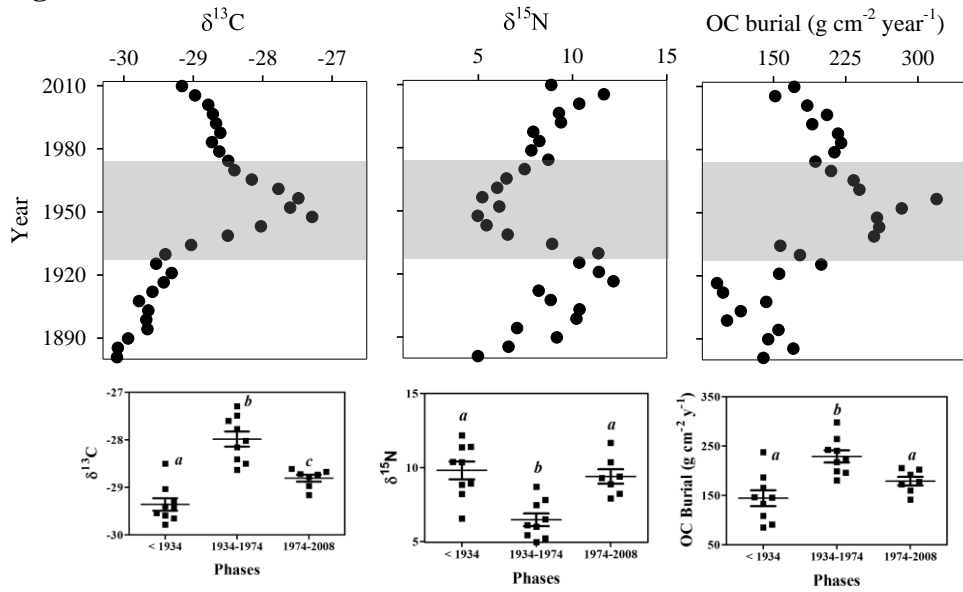
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712 **Figure 6.**



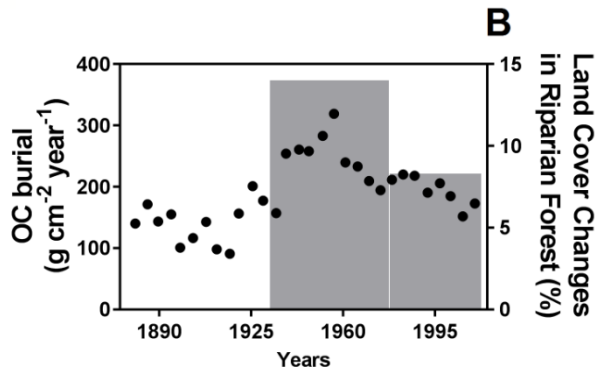
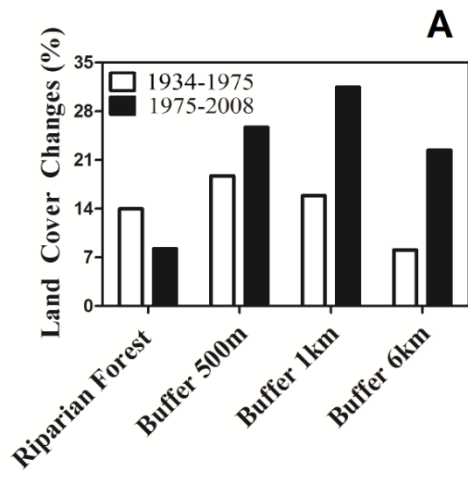
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740 **Figure 7.**



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772 **Figure 8.**



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