

Responses- Anonymous Referee #1

Responses to General Comments (GC):

Thank you for taking the time to review our manuscript and for your positive feedback on the overall scope of the paper. Below you will find our responses to your comments, which are greatly appreciated and have improved the paper. Please feel free to contact us with any additional questions or comments.

GC1: Overall, manuscript is highly descriptive. Could regret the lack of more specific goals/questions for this study.

Author response: The outer-central coast of British Columbia's perhumid coastal temperate rainforest is largely unstudied with respect to DOC exports, so a primary goal of this manuscript is to establish in the literature a detailed description of DOC exports for this region and put them into a global context. However, we agree that a more specific statement of goals and questions will further strengthen the quality of the manuscript. We have clarified our objectives in terms of quantifying flux and determining compositional characteristics to identify sources and drivers of DOM. We have also included some new simple statistical measures to look at differences between seasons and correlations between variables, as well as conducted a simple regional estimate of DOC flux to emphasize the importance of our results and put them into a global and regional global context.

GC2: Some approximation regarding DOC fluxes/yields that need to be corrected and/or clarified.

Author Response: We have attempted to clarify DOC fluxes/yields per the reviewer's comments. Please see SC19 below for complete description of our approach.

GC3: Data poorly included in the section aiming to describe temporal dynamics of DOM.

Author Response: We have added analysis of the role of both discharge and temperature in relation to our data and have conducted additional analysis examining differences in temporal dynamics in the dynamics of DOM compositional variables and DOC concentration. Please see SC13 and SC24 below for more information.

Responses to Specific Comments (SC):

SC1: Lines 107-110: the scientific objectives of this paper are too general.

Author Response: We have included more specific objectives/hypotheses to replace the text of lines 107-110.

SC2: Line 142: please define GIS.

Author Response: Text was changed to define "GIS" as "geographic information system"

SC3: Line 146: how have been defined the boundaries between organic and mineral soils? It would be very informative to compare a soil map and a map showing the location of wetlands and lakes within catchments.

Author Response: We have added some explanation of the distinction between organic and mineral soil materials in S1.2: “Mineral soil horizons have $\leq 17\%$ organic C, while organic soil horizons have $> 17\%$ organic C, as per the Canadian System of Soil Classification (Soil Classification Working Group, 1998). Boundaries between surface organic horizons and the underlying mineral soil were usually obvious, based on colour, consistence, and presence/absence of mineral grains, but for occasional ambiguous cases, grab samples were collected for laboratory determination of C content by a ThermoFischer Scientific Flash 2000 CHNS analyser at the Ministry of Environment laboratory in Victoria, B.C.”

Further documentation of the soil characteristics of the watersheds will be provided elsewhere by publications in preparation, so in this manuscript we presented only the summary data needed to support the interpretations related to DOC export.

SC4: Line 168: I suggest to use the more common notation ‘ ^{13}C ’ or ‘ $^{13}\text{CDOC}$ ’.

Author Response: Notation was changed to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC throughout the document.

SC5: Line 175: what size of filtration?

Author Response: All samples were filtered in the field using a Millipore Millex-HP Hydrophilic PES 0.45 μm as described in the information on sample collection, lines 158-159.

SC6: Line 240: define PARAFAC.

Author Response: included definition, “..we performed parallel factor analysis (PARAFAC)..”

SC7: Line 301 and 306: change for ‘Table 1’ in the brackets.

Author Response: Changed to “Table 1” in the brackets.

SC8: Lines 304-310: I am not sure that is very significant. Maybe a statistical test could support this.

Author Response: We have conducted additional statistical tests that compare watersheds and seasons (wet versus dry) and that explore the relationships between DOC, stream discharge and temperature. We have reworded parts of this section to include information supported by this new analysis.

SC9: Line 312: why there is no DOC fluxes/yield for WY2014 while sampling for DOC has started in October 2014?

Author Response: We don't have DOC fluxes/yields for Water Year 2014 because "Water Years" are defined by the year they end (defined at the beginning of Section 3.1 "Hydrology"), and we did not have discharge data for the period of September 1, 2013 to October 1, 2014. Discharge data began October 1, 2014, and so the first year of record is Water Year 2015. This is noted in the next line, Line 313.

SC10: Lines 326-328: Such elevated SUVA values are commonly found in tropical rivers (e.g. Lambert et al., 2016, Biogeosciences, 13, 5405-5420) or in streams draining wetlands (e.g. Agren et al., 2008). This should be noted as it is not an exception but rather typical of environments exporting large quantities of highly aromatic DOM.

Author Response: Great point. We included a statement to clarify this, that values were "typical of environments that export large quantities of highly aromatic DOM, such as some tropical rivers (e.g., Lambert et al., 2016) or streams draining wetlands (e.g., Ågren et al., 2008)." We also added the Lambert citation to our references.

SC11: Lines 345-347: maybe this should be moved into the discussion as its interpretation of $\delta^{13}C$ -DOC data.

Author Response: We agree, we moved this into the discussion under Section 4.2 on "DOM Character" as an additional component aimed at better developing the interpretation of DOM sources and temporal trends/controls per the Reviewer's general comment (GC3).

SC12: Lines 325-347: where are the Fluorescence Index and the Freshness Index? Even if they have been measured over a short period, they should be described as they are included in the RDA.

Author Response: We included a paragraph within Section 3.3 ("Temporal and spatial patterns in DOM composition"), on the results of the Fluorescence and Freshness Index data.

SC13: Lines 348-373 & table 2: it would be informative that the corresponding number of PARAFAC components in other studies appears in table 2. For example, it's not clear what component identified in Graeber et al. (2012) matches C1. Also, according to Fellman et al. (2010), components similar to C2 are commonly reported in freshwaters. Overall this paragraph is hard to follow, mainly because figures 6 and S4.4 are not very efficient to support the text. Y-axis in figure S4.4 should be adapted for each PARAFAC component, and figure 6 could be modified in order to present temporal variability for some representative catchments. Also, some statistical tests are welcome in order to support the variability between catchments and between seasons.

Author Response: 1) The corresponding numbers for each of the components identified in previous studies was added to Table 2. A few references from the table were missing so they were also added to the reference list. 2) We edited the text in lines 348-373 for clarity and included some additional language to clarify that C1 and C2 are both considered to be widespread and commonly reported. 3) We adapted the Y-axis in S4.4 for each PARAFAC component and also added means and standard errors across all watersheds to give a better idea

of the spatial variability across watersheds for each component. 4) Figure 6 was modified to a panel figure in order to represent each component for all watersheds. We are hoping this addresses the reviewer's comments and better shows temporal variability for all the catchments. 5). To support the variability described between catchments and seasons, we conducted statistical comparisons to test the difference between seasons and between catchments for each component. We also looked at correlations between PARAFAC components, these are presented in a correlation matrix in the Supplementary material. These relationships are discussed in the text. A table of Pearson correlation coefficients is included as Table S4.2 in Supplementary Material.

SC14: Line 374: DOC export is not investigated in RDA, please change the title accordingly.

Author Response: Title changed to “Relationships between watershed characteristics, DOC concentration, and DOM composition”

SC15: Line 374: because PARAFAC components track different fractions of the DOM pools I would suggest to perform the RDA with all components, or at least to include C3 and C5.

Author Response: We understand the argument here and why utilizing all the components for this type (or other types) of analysis would make sense in some circumstances. Here, we are trying to identify the most important characteristics of DOM as they relate to watershed attributes. C3, C4, and C5 were removed because they were found to be highly correlated and therefore they do not appear to be significantly different from other variables as far as identifying the most important drivers of differences in bulk DOM that can be related to different watershed attributes. Because the RDA is a statistical test, leaving the correlated variables in the analysis inflates the standard errors and increases the variance of the remaining independent variables, making them more difficult to interpret in regards to teasing apart differences in watersheds and drivers of DOM/DOC concentration.

SC16: Line 380: I don't think that the term 'inundation' is relevant here as wetlands are wet environments. Clearly the RDA1 identifies two elements of the landscape (i.e. wetlands and lakes) as being important drivers for the spatial variability in DOC concentrations and DOM composition.

Author Response: The term ‘inundation’ used in this context was meant to suggest that the gradient of wetlands to lakes was a gradient of increasing water coverage (i.e., wetlands being “less inundated” to lakes being “more inundated” with water). However, it seems as though this term may be introducing confusion in this context, so we have replaced the word “inundation” with, what we hope, is a more comprehensive explanation: “a gradient of watershed coverage by inundated ecosystem types, ranging from more wetland coverage to more lake coverage”.

SC17: Line 384: there is no information about soil composition as only the depths of organic and mineral soil horizon have been measured.

Author response: Changed “soil composition” to “soil material thickness”, however an overview of the main soil types for the study area is given in lines 183-188 of the revised manuscript, as

well as in supplementary section S1.2 More details are forthcoming in publications in preparation.

SC18: Lines 394: the title of the section 4.1 needs to be corrected because DOC yields and DOC fluxes are calculated differently and therefore have not the same meaning. See the next comment.

Author response: This is a good point, as we do not discuss DOC flux *per se* in this section, but rather yield as the flux per unit area of watershed. Accordingly, the title of section 4.1 has been corrected to “DOC export from small catchments to the coastal ocean” as export encompasses both flux and yield.

SC19: Lines 395-404: this section is confusing because DOC yields and DOC fluxes have not the same meaning: DOC fluxes are the amount (mass) that passes a given point on the river over a given period of time while DOC yields are the flux per unit drainage area. If it is true that DOC yields of the study sites are higher or comparable to those estimated for some tropical rivers (higher than the Congo and the Amazon rivers but comparable relative to the Siak River), DOC fluxes are clearly lower compared to these systems (see figure). Moreover, as shown by Agren et al. (2007), DOC yields trend to decrease with catchment areas because of (1) better connection between terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems in headwater catchments, (2) reduced in stream losses in small streams and (3) increasing contribution of DOC-poor groundwater in large rivers. Consequently, the authors should compare their DOC yields to tropical catchments having similar drainage areas to support the statement that DOC yields from Calvert and Hecate Island are some of the highest recorded globally (lines 395-396). Furthermore, this statement should be taken with caution because very high DOC concentrations (> 15 mg/l) are commonly found in tropical rivers (e.g. Mayorga et al., 2003), especially in the central part of the Congo Basin where small streams < 100 km² can have DOC concentrations up to 70 mg/l (e.g. Lambert et al., 2016, Biogeosciences, 13, 5405-5420), having thus likely among the highest DOC yields and export for streams.

Author Response: The reviewer makes some very good points. We have made the following changes:

- 1) To put numbers into a more regional and global context we have included a simple regional estimate for total DOC flux from the hypermaritime region of B.C.’s perhumid coastal temperate rainforest.
- 2) We included flux estimates from global to regional scales.
- 3) We removed comparisons of our DOC yields with much larger rivers and instead include comparisons of watersheds of similar size, in particular those that have high amounts of precipitation, and contain extensive organic soils and wetlands. We emphasize that to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that represents the role that these types of small catchments (high latitude, temperate, wetland and peat or organic soil-dominated) play in delivery of DOC directly to the ocean.

SC20: Lines 408-409: is it valid for the sites studied by the authors?

Author Response: We are emphasizing that while our sites represent small catchments, they are not first or second order headwater streams that drain to higher order catchments, but rather low to mid-order streams that drain directly to the ocean.

SC21: Lines 405-431: this part of the manuscript is quite long and looks like more as an introduction for the section 4.2 rather than a discussion including the data.

Author Response: This section of the manuscript was shortened and includes more discussion of the data. Lines 406-420 from the original manuscript were incorporated into the previous paragraph along with the changes discussed in the response to SC19. Lines 421-432 (from original manuscript) have been re-worded and incorporated into the beginning of Section 4.2.

SC22: Line 414: do you have a reference?

Author Response: Sorry, not sure of what is being referenced? Line 414 is a statement about the results of this study. We would be happy to provide a reference, or more detailed response, with clarification.

SC23: Lines 415-417: do you have an idea about how much represent freshwater masses compared to coastal water masses?

Author Response: It is estimated that the coastal freshwater discharge in the northeast Pacific Ocean is at least 40% of the total of freshwater that enters from the atmosphere, and is significant enough to create a freshwater-influenced water mass known as the Riverine Coastal Domain (RCD; Carmack et al. 2015). The RCD fluctuates in size but is influenced by variability in continental runoff (Morrison et al. 2012). We incorporated a sentence in the text that describes the significance of freshwater discharge and its role in the development of the RCD in this region and added the two citations mentioned above.

SC24: Lines 428-430: this phenomenon is commonly referred as 'DOC flushing' (Boyer et al., 1996, Ecological modelling, 86, 183-188) and should be moved to the beginning of section 4.2 (nothing to do with DOC fluxes/yields). Maybe the authors could also exploit their data to discuss about hypothesis around 'DOC flushing'? Indeed, $\delta^{13}C_{DOC}$ values been found to investigate change in sources and pathways of DOC in small catchments (e.g. Sanderman et al., 2009, WRR, 45, W03418; Lambert et al., 2013). It is a pity that isotopic measurements made for this study are not discussed and related to the temporal and spatial variability of DOC.

Author Response: We moved the discussion of seasonal patterns in DOC to a new section ("Section 4.2: Seasonal variability in DOC export"). We also followed your suggestion to use our $\delta^{13}C_{DOC}$ data, along with other measures of DOM quality and DOC concentration per comments below (SC26 re: lines 433-456), and comments from other reviewers, to further explore the relationship between discharge, temperature, DOC concentration and DOM quality. We refined our objectives to include the rationale for this additional analysis (e.g., possible seasonal and spatial trends and drivers) and to address general comments regarding incorporating

DOM data to look at temporal and cross-watershed patterns. Results are included as a figure (Figure S6.1) and two tables (Table S6.1, S6.2) in Supplementary Material.

SC25: Line 432: the manuscript presents no data allowing to investigate the effects of fresh DOC fluxes in coastal waters. Even if I agree that the delivery of fresh terrestrial material likely impact coastal marine foodwebs I would suggest to modify the title of the section.

Author Response: We changed the title of this section to “Sources of DOM and seasonal variability”

SC26: Lines 433-456: it is not clear what are driving the changes in DOM composition. What are the ‘microbial products and plants exudates’ (line 450)? I strongly suggest to use $\delta^{13}C$ -DOC values to go deeper in this section in parallel with optical properties of DOM. How vary the fluorescence index and the freshness index and % of PARAFAC components? Is there difference in temporal variability between catchments?

Author Response: We clarified that “microbial products and plant exudates” represent increased terrestrial primary production and microbial degradation products of lower molecular weight, less aromatic materials. Our RDA analysis looks at the role of various watershed attributes in influencing DOM composition, and in addition to box and whisker plots in Figure 2, is used to identify and discuss differences between catchments. To address questions of temporal variability, we conducted additional analysis with linear mixed effects models to see if there were relationships between DOC concentration, DOM character, and stream discharge or stream temperature. Methods and results are presented in new sections 2.7 and 3.5 “Evaluating relationships in DOC concentration and DOM composition with stream discharge and stream temperature”, as well as additional discussion in section 4.3. Also see response to SC24 above for details. We also modified Figure 6 to show temporal differences between catchments for PARAFAC components. This is noted in the text under Results Section 3.3 (formerly Section 3.4).

SC27: Lines 457-479: ok but speculative. Maybe this could be moved at the end of the discussion. Also, potential implications of the data are included several times along the text (lines 412-414, 417-419, 431. . .) and consequently are quite redundant.

Author Response: To address the redundancy of certain points in the text related to coastal subsidies of DOC/DOM, we removed several lines of text (e.g., 417-419, 431, 478-480 (see below)). We chose to leave the text from lines 457-479 but reduced the length, because it relates to implications of patterns in the sources of DOM.

SC28: Section 4.3: This section can be shortened. Wetlands and lakes are known to be two major elements of the landscape having contrasting effects on DOC and DOM quality (e.g. Frost et al., 2006, Aquatic Science, 68, 40-51; Lambert et al., 2016, Biogeosciences, 13, 2727-2741) and it is relatively obvious from RDA1 that DOM concentrations and composition are largely driven by wetlands and lakes in this study. The authors should better explain the role of wetlands/lakes rather than looking for additional

and questionable drivers that cannot be supported by their data.

Author Response: We agree, DOM concentrations and compositions are largely driven by wetlands and lakes in this study. However, the results of our RDA also indicate other factors have significant relationships with DOM, such as depths of organic and inorganic soil types and physical watershed features such as slope. We believe it is important to include this information here, but agree that this section can be shortened. We condensed and removed much of the text on soils (lines 516-532), and text was moved to the end of the first paragraph to emphasize that the role of wetlands and underlying soils are important, but that there are also other types of non-wetland associated soils contributing sources of DOM.

SC29: Lines 491-492: What is the meaning of ‘alternative DOC-source pools’?

Author response: We have changed the text from “DOC-source pools” to: “the contribution of DOC from sources other than organic soils associated with wetlands...”

SC30: Lines 491-492: watershed residence times are unknown so they can be not considered as a driver because changes between seasons could be very low due to the small size of the catchments.

Author Response: We have removed watershed residence time here as a potential driver.

SC31: Lines 503-506: could you add figures to illustrate this?

Author Response: This information is presented in Table 1 and in Figure 7.

SC32: Lines 515-516: this statement cannot be supported by the data included in the study. Soil analysis are limited to the measurements of organic and mineral horizons depths (please clarify how this has been done), and there is no information regarding soil composition (%Corg, C/N ratio, content in Al- or Fe- minerals. . .) that could help to investigate the role of soil composition on stream DOC dynamics. Moreover, the variability of soil organic and mineral horizons between catchments in table 1 is relatively limited. Finally, I am not convinced by the argumentation based on the RDA. For example, vectors DOC and OrgSoil have respectively negative and positive loadings along RDA1, suggesting a limited correlation. Also, the difference in the lengths of vectors C1 and Slope along RDA3 suggests that slopes are not a strong predictor for C1 (lines 529-531), as also suggested by the lack of relationship between these two vectors along RDA1.

Author Response: We entered additional text to clarify how organic and mineral soil depths were measured (also see response to comment SC3). We have removed most of this paragraph from the discussion (lines 516-532), including the discussion of slope as a predictor for C1 as we agree that the while slope and C1 are highly correlated along RDA3, the vector length of C1 suggests the relationship is not strong. We politely disagree with the comment on the relationship between DOC and OrgSoil, because although DOC and OrgSoil have opposite loading along Axis 1 (gradient of wetlands to lakes) they both show positive loading along Axis 2. In an RDA

with type 2 scaling, the angle between the vectors represents the degree of correlation, with smaller angles representing more correlation. Although DOC is not the most highly correlated with OrgSoil, the angle between these vectors is <90 degrees suggesting some correlation. We changed the wording of the relationship between these variables from “important drivers of DOM composition” to “influence DOM composition” and include the caveat that this relationship is based only on depth: “However, because our study was limited to soil material depth, future work including more detailed measures of soil composition may help better describe the relationship between soils and DOM export from these watersheds.”

SC33: Lines 524-526: according to recent concepts in soil science (e.g. Kaiser & Kalbitz, 2012, Soil biology & biogeochemistry, 52, 29-32), the retention of DOM in soils due to absorption processes on mineral surfaces leads to a greater biodegradation as the residence time in soil is increased. This is consistent with several studies reporting that DOC during base flow has a lower aromaticity as water pathways deepens along the soil profile (e.g. Sanderman et al., 2009, WRR, 45, W03418).

Author Response: This portion of text has been removed (see SC28).

SC34: Figure 7: the variables ‘OrgSoil’ and ‘MinSoil’ are confusing between they suggest different soil composition while they are only dealing with depths. Please change their name. It is surprising that SUVA is related more to lakes rather than wetlands as the latter trend to export aromatic material. Do the authors have an explanation? DOC, d13C-DOC and C4 are clearly related to wetlands, maybe this observation should deserve more attention in the section 4.3?

Author Response: We changed the names to “OrgThick” and “MinThick” on Figure 7.

In response to the reviewer’s second comment, in a RDA of type 2 scaling, the angles between vectors of the ordination reflect their correlations, the longer a vector is along a given axis the more it contributes to that axis. With this in mind, we interpret the RDA as showing SUVA to be slightly more influenced by Axis 2 than Axis 1 (SUVA standardized coefficient score for Axis 1= 0.04, score for Axis 2= 0.07), which may represent a gradient of thicker organic to thicker mineral soil layers. However, SUVA is not strongly associated with any of the axis, suggesting the environmental variables do not explain much about our SUVA results. To help with this interpretation, we included a table (Table S5.6) of standardized coefficient scores for the DOC and DOM (“species”) variables in Supplement Section 5. We also do not interpret the RDA as showing that DOC, d13C-DOC and C4 are clearly related to wetlands (also see Table S5.6). C4 is the most closely related to wetlands, but both DOC and d13C-DOC show similar or stronger correlations to OrgThick (thickness of organic soils) and Axis 2. This relates to our discussion point at the beginning of 4.3, regarding how wetlands appear not to drive the majority of observed variance in these variables. We added an additional line of text in the revised document, line 751, to restate and clarify this point.

SC35: Some references are missing in the reference list: Hopkinson et al., 1998; Tallis, 2009; Lambert et al., 2013

16 May 2017

Author Response: We have added those references.

Responses- Anonymous Referee #2

Thank you for taking the time to review our manuscript and for your positive feedback on the overall scope of the paper. Below you will find our responses to your comments, which are greatly appreciated and have improved the paper. Please feel free to contact us with any additional questions or comments.

Responses to General Comments (GC):

GC1: A large amount of interesting data are presented however, they are not fully exploited to unpick specific research questions further than underlining the important role the catchments studied play in DOC export.

Author Response: A primary goal of this manuscript is to establish in the literature a detailed description of DOC exports for this region of British Columbia and the coastal temperate rainforest and to put the results into regional and global context. However, we agree that more specific goals and questions will further strengthen the quality of the manuscript. To address this comment, we have clarified our objectives and have included additional analysis to investigate controls of flow and temperature on DOC concentration and DOM composition, a more detailed investigation of the relationship between PARAFAC components, and some simple statistical comparisons of variables across both seasons and watersheds. We also included a simple regional estimate of DOC flux to emphasize the importance of our results and put them into a global and regional global context.

GC2: I would have liked to see further analysis of the DOM compositional proxies as at present the manuscript doesn't benefit significantly from the addition of the compositional measurements.

Author Response: We have conducted additional analysis using linear mixed models and multiple linear regression to investigate the of discharge and temperature in relation to DOC concentration and DOM compositional data. We have also conducted additional analysis to look at relationships between PARAFAC components. Please see specific responses below for more information.

Responses to Specific Comments (SC):

SC1: Line 140-142. For those not familiar with mapping software a definition of GIS would be useful. Also were catchments delineated using watershed analysis?

Author Response: We included the definition of GIS as “geographic information system”. Catchments were delineated using a 3m resolution digital elevation model (DEM) derived from airborne laser scanning (LiDAR) (Gonzalez Arriola et al., 2015). This was included in the text at the beginning of Section 2.2.

SC2: Line 156-158. While less frequent sampling due to logistical constraints is understandable, have you considered how this may impact you load estimations given that large quantities of

DOC that are mobilised during periods of intense rainfall? As estimates of load can be skewed significantly if large events are under represented.

Author Response: We made a concerted effort to supplement our routine sampling with additional samples taken during larger events in order to better represent higher peak flows. Comparison of estimates using those additional points resulted in slightly higher load predictions for estimates that include samples from events, but no statistical comparison of the different methods has been made.

SC3: Line 218. What wavelength range did you scan over and at what interval?

Author Response: Included in text, “Samples were run in 1 cm quartz cells over an excitation range of 230-550 nm at 1nm increments.”

SC4: Line 219. Were high absorbing samples diluted if they breached an absorbance threshold?

Author Response: Yes, we diluted if samples had absorbance > 0.05 at 250nm. This is included in text.

SC5: Line 228. What settings were used for your fluorescence scans (ex/em wavelengths etc.)?

Author Response: Included in text: “Samples were run in 1 cm quartz cells and scanned from excitation wavelengths of 230-550 nm at 5nm increments, and emission wavelengths of 210-620 nm at 2nm increments.”

SC6: Line 240. Define PARAFAC

Author Response: Included definition in text, “parallel factor analysis”

SC7: Line 301. Table listed in brackets should be Table 1 not Table 2

Author Response: Oops, sorry! Changed to Table 1.

*SC8: Line 327. The range of SUVA₂₅₄ values reported in the literature is large. Elevated SUVA₂₅₄ values are commonly found in both tropical rivers (Mann, P. J., et al. (2014), *The biogeochemistry of carbon across a gradient of streams and rivers within the Congo Basin*, *J. Geophys. Res. Biogeosci.*, 119, 687–702, doi:10.1002/2013JG002442.) and also have been found upland peat catchment of the UK (Austnes, Kari; Evans, Chrisptoher D.; Eliot-Laize, Caroline; Naden, Pamela S.; Old, Gareth H.. 2010. *Effects of storm events on mobilisation and in-stream processing of dissolved organic matter (DOM) in a Welsh peatland catchment*. *Biogeochemistry*, 99 (1-3). 157-173. 10.1007/s10533-009-9399-4). However, lower values (<3) are also observed in groundwater dominated catchments (Yates, C, Johnes, P & Spencer, R, 2016, ‘Assessing the drivers of dissolved organic matter export from two contrasting lowland catchments, U.K’. *Science of the Total Environment*, vol 569-570., pp. 1330-1340).*

Author Response: We have incorporated these references into the text under the discussion in 4.2.

SC9: Line 333-347. Discussion is creeping in to the results section. Consider deleting or moving some text.

Author Response: We deleted some of this text, and also moved some of it to the discussion section.

SC10: Line 372. Could this variability be quantified in some way?

Author Response: We modified figure 6 to show results from each individual watershed, which we hope better illustrates the variability between catchments. In addition to Figure 6 and Table 1, we don't feel that it is necessary to report and compare the standard deviation associated with each sampling date as this would list the variability between different watersheds at different points in time but the figure already shows this information.

SC11: Line 420-430. I agree with reviewer 1 one on this point. The data could be better exploited to evaluate temporal shifts in DOC/DOM composition as all the data were collected for this purpose. For example it would have been interesting if changes in DOM composition could be in some way evaluated in relation to these change in flow conditions (using either the optical measurements of 13C values). This would have given the paper more of a focus, as reviewer 1 states to investigate 'DOC flushing'.

Author Response: We conducted additional analysis using linear mixed model multiple regression to looking at the relationships between DOC concentration and DOM compositional variables, with discharge and temperature. We refined our objectives to include the rationale for this additional analysis (e.g., possible seasonal and spatial trends and drivers) and to address general comments regarding incorporating DOM data to look at temporal and cross-watershed patterns. The methods for this additional analysis are presented in the new Section 2.7, results are presented in the new Section 3.5, and additional discussion is provided in Section 4.3. Results are also included as a figure (Figure S6.1) and two tables (Table S6.1, S6.2) in Supplementary Material.

SC12: Line 432. Was any work done on investigating the implications of elevated DOC yields on marine foodwebs? If not then remove

Author Response: We removed.

SC13: Line 490-492. What do you mean by DOC-source pools? Are you referring to the flushing of different soil horizons or the mobilising of material from a different source i.e. a source that under normal flow conditions would not be hydrologically connected to the main channel of the river? Also you have not calculated retention time for your catchments? Smaller catchments will always respond quicker than larger ones as they are simpler systems.

Author Response: By "alternate DOC-source pools" we are referring to sources of high DOC that are not associated with wetlands, typically thought of as high-DOC sources. We changed

this text to: “the contribution of DOC from sources other than organic soils associated with wetlands...” We have not calculated retention time, but based on stream flow and precipitation data we do know that catchment response time is rapid following rain events. We have provided some ancillary data in the supplementary material (Supplementary Figure S2.2) to provide a qualitative look at response time, or how quickly streams respond to precipitation. This shows, for example, the lag in response in watersheds with lakes, such as 1015 and 693. To clarify this issue, we have changed the wording “retention time” to “response time” in the text.

SC14: Line 353. Work has already been carried out investigating long term trends in DOC flux from a wide range of catchments in relation to changes in global temperatures. See Worrall (2003). Long term records in riverine DOM. Biogeochemistry 64(2), 165-178. Or Freeman (2001) Export of organic carbon from peat soils. Nature. 412(6849) 785- 785.

Author Response: We note this in the text and include references to previous work (including the one suggested above by Worrall).

SC15: Figure 2. Caption is too long and bordering on discussion. Consider making more concise.

Author Response: We made the caption more concise.

*SC16: Figure 3. Are the box-whisker plots showing 1.5*IQR?*

Author Response: Boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentile and whiskers represent the 5th and 95th percentile. We have included this in the caption for clarification.

SC17: Figure 7. This also applies to the discussion but did you study catchments dominated by organic vs mineral soils or is this referring to the soil horizons? If so then consider renaming for clarity.

Author Response: All watersheds contained varying areal proportions of organic (i.e. Histosols) and mineral (i.e. Podzols) soil types. The latter also contain organic horizons at the surface, of varying thickness, so the reported data for organic horizon thickness includes measurements for such cases, as well as for soils that would be classified as Histosols.

Responses- Anonymous Referee #3

Thank you for taking the time to review our manuscript and for your positive feedback on the overall scope of the paper. Below you will find our responses to your comments, which are greatly appreciated and have improved the paper. Please feel free to contact us with any additional questions or comments.

Responses to General Comments (GC):

GC1: Statements about global relevance should be tempered accordingly because watersheds studied are so small.

Author Response: To put our watersheds into better context, we have included additional comparisons between our watershed yields and yields from watersheds of similar size from around the world. We have also done a simple calculation of regional flux to compare potential DOC export from the region studied here, to other regions within the coastal temperate rainforest. We hope this provides better context for our flux and yield measurements relative to regional and global estimates of riverine carbon exports.

GC2: The extensive dataset on DOM quality could also be better utilized to understand the mechanisms that are driving DOM export rather than just make broad observations about streamwater DOM quality.

Author Response: The outer-central coast of British Columbia's perhumid coastal temperate rainforest is largely unstudied with respect to DOC exports, so a primary goal of this manuscript is to establish in the literature a detailed description of DOC exports for this region and to identify potential sources and patterns in DOM composition. We have included the RDA analysis to assess potential watershed/landscape drivers of DOC concentration and DOM composition. However, we agree that the manuscript benefits from more utilization of the DOM dataset. To address this comment, we have included additional analysis on the relationship between DOC and DOM composition with discharge and stream temperature. We have also done additional analysis on the relationship between PARAFAC components that goes beyond the analysis presented in the RDA. Please see specific comments below for further information.

GC3: There is no such thing as a "globally important" DOC yield... The yields reported here are quite high, however this is largely a function of the fact that DOC yields (flux per area) are inversely related to watershed size and the watersheds in this study are very small and have high wetlands coverage. For this to represent a globally important finding, the authors would have to make the case that the fluxes measured here are broadly representative of the 100,000 km² perhumid coastal forest in BC and thus provide evidence of a substantial mass flux of DOC to the coastal ocean. I understand that the purpose of this paper was not to calculate regional fluxes, however more directly addressing the issue of how regionally representative these high flux watersheds are would: 1) give readers a more concrete sense of the regional/global importance of these fluxes and 2) better justify statements such as "the small watersheds of this region export very high amounts of terrestrial DOC" (Line 477). The only place this issue is addressed in the paper is briefly in the conclusions (lines 552-554).

A similar issue arises in the discussion of the yields in section 4.1. Comparing DOC yields from these 3-10 km² watersheds with yields from the Congo and Amazon doesn't make sense given the difference in scale. The Congo exports more than 10 Tg DOC/yr and all of the watersheds in this study together export probably 1/1000th of a Tg DOC/yr. The claim that DOC yields measured in this study are higher than those reported in southeast Asia should also be clarified given that Moore et al. (2011, 2013) have reported DOC yields >2x those reported here for watersheds in Indonesia that are several orders of magnitude larger than the watersheds in this study (doi:10.5194/bg-8-901-2011; doi:10.1038/nature11818).

Author Response: Thank you for this comment, you make some good points. We have made the following changes:

- 1) To put numbers into a more regional and global context we have included a simple regional estimate for total DOC flux from the hypermaritime region of B.C.'s perhumid coastal temperate rainforest.
- 2) We included flux estimates from global to regional scales.
- 3) We removed comparisons of our DOC yields with much larger rivers and instead include comparisons of watersheds of similar size, in particular those that have high amounts of precipitation, and contain extensive organic soils and wetlands. We emphasize that to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that represents the role that these types of small catchments (high latitude, temperate, wetland and peat or organic soil-dominated) play in delivery of DOC directly to the ocean.

GC4: This is a very rich data set in terms of DOM compositional information. That said, the compositional data were somewhat underutilized in the study. For example, the 13C data were not even mentioned in the Discussion. In addition, the stream gage data are not utilized to elucidate how streamflow impacts DOM quality. Instead there are general statements about how compositional data change between wet and dry seasons (e.g. lines 445-456).

In Fig. 3 it appears that streamwater DOC concentrations are correlated with air temperature. If this is the case it would suggest that there is a link between soil temperature and soil water DOC production that influences the export of DOC to streams. Thus, temperature may be useful for predicting seasonal changes in streamwater DOC concentrations.

Author Response: We conducted additional analysis using linear mixed effects models to look at relationships between DOM compositional data (including 13C-DOC), DOC concentration, discharge and temperature. We refined our objectives to include the rationale for this additional analysis (e.g., possible seasonal and spatial trends and drivers) and to address general comments regarding incorporating DOM data to look at temporal and cross-watershed patterns. The methods for this additional analysis are presented in the new Section 2.7, results are presented in Sections 3.3 and 3.4, as well as included as a figure (Figure S6.1) and two tables (Table S6.1, S6.2) in Supplementary Material. Additional discussion is provided in Section 4.3.

Responses to Specific Comments (SC):

SC1: There is some discussion material mixed in to the Results section of the paper. Examples include: Lines 336-339 and 345-347.

Author Response: This text (and other text that bordered on discussion) has been removed from Results and is now included in Discussion. Examples given by the reviewer are now included in Section 4.3.

SC2: There are a number of references to watershed residence time in the Discussion (for example, lines 433, 492, 502), but it is not clear how this was quantified and whether it was function solely of lake influence or if watershed slope played a role as well.

Author Response: We did not specifically quantify residence time for watersheds, however we do know that based on the very rapid hydrograph response to precipitation events, the response time of these catchments is short. Where appropriate (such as example from line 433) we have changed this to hydrologic “response” time. In other places (such as example from 492) we removed the sentence entirely. Line 502 is providing an example from the literature, so that reference to residence times was left in the text, similar to line 512, but the text was changed here to be more explicit that this wasn’t something we measured directly but an effect we would expect to see based on other watershed factors. In addition to lakes, watershed slope definitely plays a role in response/residence time, this is mentioned in line 530 of the original document and also in the results and discussion related to the RDA analysis. We have also included a figure in the Supplement (Fig. S2.2) that illustrates the response times of our watersheds with and without a high extent of lake area.

SC3: Line 74: The phrase “predictions of ecosystem productivity and food webs” is extremely Vague

Author Response: Changed this to just “predictions of ecosystem productivity”

SC4: Lines 100-101: How and why would you expect DOC export from perhumid forests in Alaska to be different from perhumid forests in British Columbia? In other words, is there a reason to think that the work done in Alaska would not be valid in the same forest type in British Columbia?

Author Response: We have included a few sentences in the text (inserted in 2nd to last paragraph of Introduction in new manuscript) that describe how and why we would expect DOC export to be different in the study region of B.C. versus Alaska:

“Within the large perhumid CTR, there is substantial spatial variation in climate and landscape characteristics that create uncertainty about carbon cycling and pattern. In Alaska, for example, riverine DOC concentrations vary with wetland cover (D’Amore et al. 2015) and glacial cover (Fellman et al. 2014). Previous studies have shown that streams in southeast Alaska can contain high DOC concentrations (Fellman et al., 2010; D’Amore et al., 2015a) and produce high DOC yields (D’Amore et al., 2015b; D’Amore et al., 2016, Stackpoole et al., 2016), but no known field estimates have been generated for the perhumid CTR of British Columbia, an area of approximately 97,824 km² (adapted from Wolf et al., 1995). Within the perhumid CTR of British Columbia, terrestrial ecologists have defined a large (29,935 km²) *hypermaritime* sub-region where rainfall dominates over snow, seasonality is moderated by the ocean, and wetlands are extensive (Pojar et al., 1991; area estimated using British Columbia Biogeoclimatic

Ecosystem Classification Subzone/Variant mapping Version 10, August 31, 2016, available at: <https://catalogue.data.gov.bc.ca/dataset/f358a53b-ffde-4830-a325-a5a03ff672c3>). Previous work in the hypermaritime CTR showed that DOC concentrations are high in small streams and tend to increase during rain events (Gibson et al., 2000; Fitzgerald et al., 2003; Emili and Price, 2013). Taken together, these conditions should be expected to generate high yields and fluxes of DOC from hypermaritime watersheds to the coastal ocean.”

SC5: Lines 104-105: The fact that discharge was directly measured is a strength of this study, however it is somewhat misleading to compare this highly localized study to continental and global scale studies where modeling discharge is a necessity.

Author Response: This information was originally included to highlight the need for studies in this region that include the direct measurement of discharge, because the only work that has attempted to quantify DOC flux have been large scale studies using modeled discharge. These studies may not be appropriately capturing the heterogeneity of this complex region (see response to comment 4 above) and highlights the challenge of working in these remote locations (modelling discharge has been the only option until our paper). However, we have removed this specific text and comparison with global scale studies and now only make comparisons with regional, smaller scale studies and estimates of flux.

SC6: Line 273: It seems redundant to report climate data in the study site and in the results. Also the values reported for mean annual precipitation differ between the study site (line 115) and the results (line 273).

Author Response: We removed the second reference to climate data in the results. Mean annual precipitation (MAP) for the study sites (line 115) is taken from sea level and central to all the study watersheds. The MAPs reported in the results (line 273 and 276) are taken from the exact location of our rain gauge and from the location of our high elevation weather station. The spatial distribution of rain in this area is extremely heterogeneous, and the range of values is presented to illustrate the differences across the landscape.

SC7: Line 278: The comparison of precipitation at the study site to “most regions of the world” is vague and does not illustrate anything meaningful.

Author Response: We removed “most regions of the world”

SC8: Lines 291-295: This sentence is repetitive and very hard to follow with all of the parenthetical data references. Recommend simplifying it to make the point about the difference in wet season flow without all of the Q data. It is also interesting that wet season Q differed by >20% between the two years while wet season precipitation only varied by 5%.

Author Response: We removed most of the parenthetical data references except for two that describe total discharge and range for water year 2015 and water year 2016. The difference in precipitation and flow between the two years is a function of, 1) precipitation arriving as snow at higher elevations that is not captured in the rain gauge, and 2) heterogeneity of rainfall across the study region. The rain gauge is centrally located in one catchment within the study region,

however this gauge probably does not capture the full range of precipitation being delivered across the islands. However, these differences would more likely be reflected in differences in Q.

SC9: Line 326: It would be more clear to say that SUVA values were at the high end of the range rather than “relatively high compared to the range”.

Author Response: Modified the text as recommended.

SC10: Line 417: “Catchment” looks like it should be plural.

Author Response: This sentence has been removed.

SC11: Line 419: The term “a significant biogeochemical hotspot for coastal carbon cycling” is somewhat vague. Many of the studies cited in this paper calculate end of pipe DOC fluxes “directly to the coastal ocean”. It would be helpful to more specifically explain why the watershed DOC fluxes in this study are “significant” from the standpoint of the coastal C cycle.

Author Response: The paragraph containing this sentence has been removed during modification of this section based on other reviewer comments.

SC12: Lines 425-6: Does the term “high precipitation event” refer to intensity or magnitude. Also, it seems like the slope of these watersheds (typically >30%) is an important factor in the short hydrologic residence times that is not mentioned in this paragraph.

Author Response: “High precipitation event” refers to both. We modified this sentence to reflect those details “Therefore, frequent precipitation of high magnitude or intensity” We agree that slope is potentially an important factor influencing DOC export, and have mentioned it in Section 4.2 several times both in reference to high-gradient catchments, and the role of slope in variation between watersheds.

SC13: Lines 430-431: I agree that seasonality is important for ecological processes and it would be helpful to provide more analysis about why this would be the case in this region.

Author Response: These specific lines have been removed during modification of this section, however, we have incorporated text in the same area of discussion to highlight that the seasonal contribution of DOC from these watersheds to the ocean “may represent a relatively fresh, seasonally-consistent contribution of terrestrial subsidy from streams to the coastal ecosystem, which is relatively lower in carbon and nutrients throughout much of the year (Whitney et al., 2005, Johannessen et al., 2008).” The importance of seasonality in ecological processes is widely known in terms of production (both primary and secondary), and additional analysis on the importance of seasonality in terms of broader ecological processes is outside the scope of this paper.

SC14: Line 455-456: Again, the consequences should be explained or this sentence should be removed.

Author Response: This sentence was moved to the beginning of the following paragraph (last paragraph of Section 4.3) where we describe some of the effects of composition on biological utilization.

SC15: Line 546: Because yields are a measure of the per area export (flux) of DOC the term “export the highest yields” is redundant.

Author Response: Changed “export” to “contribute”

1 **A global hotspot for dissolved organic carbon in hypermaritime watersheds of coastal**
2 **British Columbia.**

3
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Deleted: Globally significant yields of dissolved organic carbon from small watersheds of the Pacific coastal temperate rainforest

37 **Abstract**

38 The perhumid region of the coastal temperate rainforest (CTR) of Pacific North America
39 is one of the wettest places on Earth and contains numerous small catchments that discharge
40 freshwater and high concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) directly to the coastal
41 ocean. However, empirical data on the flux and composition of DOC exported from these
42 watersheds is scarce. We established monitoring stations at the outlets of seven catchments on
43 Calvert and Hecate Islands, British Columbia, which represent the rain dominated hypermaritime
44 region of the perhumid CTR. Over several years, we measured stream discharge, stream water
45 DOC concentration, and stream water dissolved organic matter (DOM) composition. Discharge
46 and DOC concentrations were used to calculate DOC fluxes and yields, and DOM composition
47 was characterized using absorbance and fluorescence spectroscopy with parallel factor analysis
48 (PARAFAC). The areal estimate of annual DOC yield in water year 2015 was 33.3 Mg C km⁻²
49 yr⁻¹, with individual watersheds ranging from an average of 24.1-37.7 Mg C km⁻² yr⁻¹. This
50 represents some of the highest DOC yields to be measured at the coastal margin. We observed
51 seasonality in the quantity and composition of exports, with the majority of DOC export
52 occurring during the extended wet period (September-April). Stream flow from catchments
53 reacted quickly to rain inputs, resulting in rapid export of relatively fresh, highly terrestrial-like
54 DOM. DOC concentration and measures of DOM composition were related to stream discharge
55 and stream temperature, and correlated with watershed attributes, including the extent of lakes
56 and wetlands, and thickness of organic and mineral soil horizons. Our discovery of high DOC
57 yields from these small catchments in the CTR is especially compelling as they deliver relatively
58 fresh, highly terrestrial organic matter directly to the coastal ocean. Hypermaritime landscapes
59 are common on the British Columbia coast, suggesting that this coastal margin may play an

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Comment [AO1]: Here is abstract is where we include more specific objectives per R1.GC1

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75 important role in the global processing of carbon and in linking terrestrial carbon to marine
76 ecosystems.

77 1. Introduction

78 Freshwater aquatic ecosystems process and transport a significant amount of carbon
79 (Cole et al., 2007; Aufdenkampe et al., 2011; Dai et al., 2012). Globally, riverine export is
80 estimated to deliver around 0.9 Pg C yr⁻¹ from land to the coastal ocean (Cole et al., 2007), with
81 typically >50% quantified as dissolved organic carbon (DOC)(Meybeck, 1982; Ludwig et al.,
82 1996; Alvarez-Cobelas et al., 2012; Mayorga et al., 2010). Rivers draining coastal watersheds
83 serve as conduits of DOC from terrestrial and freshwater sources to marine environments
84 (Mulholland and Watts, 1982; Bauer et al., 2013; McClelland et al., 2014) and can have
85 important implications for coastal carbon cycling, biogeochemical interactions, ecosystem
86 productivity, and food webs (Hopkinson et al., 1998; Tallis, 2009; Tank et al., 2012; Regnier et
87 al., 2013). In addition, because the transfer of water and organic matter from watersheds to the
88 coastal ocean represents an important pathway for carbon cycling and ecological subsidies
89 between ecosystems, better understanding of these linkages is needed for constraining
90 predictions of ecosystem productivity in response to perturbations such as climate change. In
91 regions where empirical data are currently scarce, quantifying land-to-ocean DOC export is
92 therefore a priority for improving the accuracy of watershed and coastal carbon models (Bauer et
93 al., 2013).

94 While quantifying DOC flux within and across systems is required for understanding the
95 magnitude of carbon exchange, the composition of DOC (as dissolved organic matter, or DOM)
96 is also important for determining the ecological significance of carbon exported from coastal
97 watersheds. The aquatic DOM pool is a complex mixture that reflects both source material and

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110 processing along the watershed terrestrial-aquatic continuum, and as a result can show
111 significant spatial and temporal variation (Hudson et al., 2007; Graeber et al., 2012; Wallin et al.,
112 2015). Both DOC concentration and DOM composition can serve as indicators of watershed
113 characteristics (Koehler et al., 2009), hydrologic flow paths (Johnson et al., 2011; Helton et al.,
114 2015), and watershed biogeochemical processes (Emili and Price, 2013). DOM composition can
115 also influence its role in downstream processing and ecological function, such as susceptibility to
116 biological (Judd et al., 2006) and physiochemical interactions (Yamashita and Jaff , 2008).

117 The coastal temperate rainforests (CTR) of Pacific North America extend from the Gulf
118 of Alaska, through British Columbia, to Northern California and span a wide range of
119 precipitation and climate regimes. Within this rainforest region, the “perhumid” zone has cool
120 summers and summer precipitation is common (>10% of annual precipitation) (Alaback,
121 1996)(Fig. 1). The perhumid CTR extends from southeast Alaska through the outer coast of
122 central British Columbia and contains forests and soils that have accumulated large amounts of
123 organic carbon above and below ground (Leighty et al., 2006; Gorham et al., 2012). Due to high
124 amounts of precipitation and close proximity to the coast, this area represents a potential hotspot
125 for the transport and metabolism of carbon across the land-to-ocean continuum, and quantifying
126 these fluxes is pertinent for understanding global carbon cycling.

127 Within the large perhumid CTR, there is substantial spatial variation in climate and
128 landscape characteristics that create uncertainty about carbon cycling and pattern. In Alaska, for
129 example, riverine DOC concentrations vary with wetland cover (D’Amore et al. 2015a) and
130 glacial cover (Fellman et al. 2014). Previous studies have shown that streams in southeast Alaska
131 can contain high DOC concentrations (Fellman et al., 2009a; D’Amore et al., 2015a) and
132 produce high DOC yields (D’Amore et al., 2015b; D’Amore et al., 2016; Stackpoole et al.,

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139 2016), but no known field estimates have been generated for the perhumid CTR of British
140 Columbia, an area of approximately 97,824 km² (adapted from Wolf et al., 1995). Within the
141 perhumid CTR of British Columbia, terrestrial ecologists have defined a large (29,935 km²)
142 hypermaritime sub-region where rainfall dominates over snow, seasonality is moderated by the
143 ocean, and wetlands are extensive (Pojar et al., 1991; area estimated using British Columbia
144 Biogeoclimatic Ecosystem Classification Subzone/Variant mapping Version 10, August 31,
145 2016, available at: [https://catalogue.data.gov.bc.ca/dataset/f358a53b-ffde-4830-a325-
146 a5a03ff672c3](https://catalogue.data.gov.bc.ca/dataset/f358a53b-ffde-4830-a325-a5a03ff672c3)). Previous work in the hypermaritime CTR showed that DOC concentrations are
147 high in small streams and tend to increase during rain events (Gibson et al., 2000; Fitzgerald et
148 al., 2003; Emili and Price, 2013). Taken together, these conditions should be expected to
149 generate high yields and fluxes of DOC from hypermaritime watersheds to the coastal ocean. ▼
150 **The objectives of this study** were to provide the first field-based estimates of DOC
151 exports from watersheds in the extensive hypermaritime region of British Columbia's perhumid
152 CTR, to describe the temporal and spatial dynamics of exported DOC concentration and DOM
153 composition, and to identify relationships between DOC concentration, DOM composition, and
154 watershed characteristics. ▼

155 2. Methods

156 2.1 Study Sites

157 Study sites are located on northern Calvert Island and adjacent Hecate Island on the
158 central coast of British Columbia, Canada (Lat 51.650, Long -128.035; Fig. 1). Average annual
159 precipitation and air temperature at sea level from 1981-2010 was 3356 mm yr⁻¹ and 8.4 °C
160 (average annual min= 0.9°C, average annual max= 17.9°C) (available online at
161 <http://www.climatewna.com/>; Wang et al., 2012), with precipitation dominated by rain, and

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Comment [AO2]: Objectives redefined.

Deleted: we conduct the first field-based estimates of DOC flux from relatively undeveloped perhumid Pacific coastal temperate rainforest watersheds of the British Columbia outer-coast. We examine temporal and spatial trends in flux, and describe compositional characteristics of DOM exported from these watersheds to the coastal ocean. Finally, we describe relationships between measures of DOC quantity, DOM character, and watershed attributes.

183 winter snowpack persisting only at higher elevations. Sites are located within the hypermaritime
184 region of the CTR on the outer coast of British Columbia. Soils overlying the granodiorite
185 bedrock (Roddick, 1996) are usually < 1 m thick, and have formed in sandy colluvium and
186 patchy morainal deposits, with limited areas of coarse glacial outwash. Chemical weathering and
187 organic matter accumulation in the cool, moist climate have produced soils dominated by
188 Podzols and Follic Histosols, with Hemists up to 2 m thick in depressional sites (IUSS Working
189 Group WRB, 2015). The landscape is comprised of a mosaic of ecosystem types, including
190 exposed bedrock, extensive wetlands, bog forests and woodlands, with organic rich soils (Green,
191 2014; Thompson et al., 2016). Forest stands are generally short with open canopies reflecting the
192 lower productivity of the hypermaritime forests compared to the rest of the perhumid CTR
193 (Banner et al., 2005). Dominant trees are western redcedar, yellow cedar, shore pine and western
194 hemlock with composition varying across topographic and edaphic gradients. Widespread
195 understory plants include bryophytes, salal, deer fern, and tufted clubrush. Wetland plants are
196 locally abundant including diverse *Sphagnum* mosses and sedges. Although the watersheds have
197 no history of mining or industrial logging, archaeological evidence suggests that humans have
198 occupied this landscape for at least 13,000 years (McLaren et al., 2014). This occupation has had
199 a local effect on forest productivity near habitation sites (Trant et al., 2016) and on fire regimes
200 (Hoffman et al., 2016). We selected seven watersheds with streams draining directly into the
201 ocean (Fig. 1). These numbered watersheds (626, 693, 703, 708, 819 844, and 1015) range in
202 size (3.2 to 12.8 km²) and topography (maximum elevation 160 m to 1012 m), are variably
203 affected by lakes (0.3 – 9.1% lake coverage), and – as is characteristic of the perhumid CTR–
204 have a high degree of wetland coverage (24– 50%)(Table 1).

205 2.2 Soils and watershed characteristics

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210 Watersheds and streams were delineated using a 3 m resolution digital elevation model
211 (DEM) derived from airborne laser scanning (LiDAR) ~~and flow accumulation analysis using~~
212 ~~geographic information systems (GIS)~~ to summarize watershed characteristics for each
213 watershed polygon and for all watersheds combined (Gonzalez Arriola et al., 2015; Table 1).
214 Topographic measures were estimated from the DEM, and lake and wetland cover estimated
215 from Province of British Columbia Terrestrial Ecosystem Mapping (TEM) (Green, 2014), and
216 soil material thickness estimated from unpublished digital soil maps (Supplemental S1). We
217 recorded thickness of organic soil material, thickness of mineral soil material, and total soil depth
218 to bedrock at a total of 353 field sites. Mineral soil horizons have < 17% organic C, while
219 organic soil horizons have > 17% organic C, per the Canadian System of Soil Classification (Soil
220 Classification Working Group, 1998). In addition to field-sampled sites, 40 sites with exposed
221 bedrock (0 cm soil depth) were located using aerial photography. Soil thicknesses were
222 combined with a suite of topographic, vegetation, and remote sensing (LiDAR and RapidEye
223 satellite imagery) data for each sampling point and used to train a random forest model
224 (randomForest package in R; Liaw and Wiener, 2002) that was used to predict soil depth values.
225 Soil material thicknesses were then averaged for each watershed (Table 1). For additional details
226 on field site selection and methods used for ~~predictions of soil thickness~~, see Supplemental S1.1.

Deleted: (Gonzalez Arriola et al., 2015). We then

Deleted: used GIS

227 2.3 Sample Collection and Analysis

228 From May 2013 to July 2016, we collected stream water grab samples from each
229 watershed stream outlet every 2-3 weeks ($n_{\text{total}}=402$), with less frequent sampling (~monthly)
230 during winter (Fig. 1). All samples were filtered in the field (Millipore Millex-HP Hydrophilic
231 PES 0.45 μm) and kept in the dark, on ice until analysis. DOC samples were filtered into 60 mL
232 amber glass bottles and preserved with 7.5M H₃PO₄. Fe samples were filtered into 125 mL

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236 HDPE bottles and preserved with 8M HNO₃. DOC and Fe samples were analyzed at the BC
237 Ministry of the Environment Technical Services Laboratory (Victoria, BC, Canada). DOC
238 concentrations were determined on a TOC analyzer (Aurora 1030; OI-Analytical) using wet
239 chemical oxidation with persulfate followed by infrared detection of CO₂. Fe concentrations
240 were determined on a dual-view ICP-OES spectrophotometer (Prodigy; Teledyne Leeman Labs)
241 using a Seaspray pneumatic nebulizer.

242 In May 2014, we began collecting stream samples for stable isotopic composition of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
243 in DOC ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC; n= 173) and optical characterization of DOM using absorbance
244 spectroscopy (n= 259). Beginning in January 2016, we also analyzed samples using fluorescence
245 spectroscopy (see section 2.6). Samples collected for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC were filtered into 40 mL EPA
246 glass vials and preserved with H₃PO₄. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC samples were analyzed at GG Hatch Stable
247 Isotope Laboratory (Ottawa, ON, Canada) using high temperature combustion (TIC-TOC
248 Combustion Analyser Model 1030; OI Analytical) coupled to a continuous flow isotope ratio
249 mass spectrometry (Finnigan Mat DeltaPlusXP; Thermo Fischer Scientific)(Lalonde et al. 2014).
250 Samples analyzed for optical characterization using absorbance and fluorescence were filtered
251 into 125 mL amber HDPE bottles and analyzed at the Hakai Institute (Calvert Island, BC,
252 Canada) within 24 hours of collection.

253 2.4 Hydrology: Precipitation and Stream Discharge

254 We measured precipitation using a TB4-L tipping bucket rain gauge with a 0.2 mm
255 resolution (Campbell Scientific Ltd.) located in watershed 708 (elevation= 16 m a.s.l). The rain
256 gauge was calibrated twice per year using a Field Calibration Device, model 653 (HYQUEST
257 Solutions Ltd).

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261 We determined continuous stream discharge for each watershed by developing stage
262 discharge rating curves at fixed hydrometric stations situated in close proximity to each stream
263 outlet. Sites were located above tidewater influence and were selected based on favourable
264 conditions (i.e., channel stability and stable hydraulic conditions) for the installation and
265 operation of pressure transducers to measure stream stage. From August 2014 to May 2016 (21
266 months), we measured stage every 5 minutes using an OTT PLS –L (OTT Hydromet, Colorado,
267 USA) pressure transducer (0-4_m range SDI-12) connected to a CR1000 (Campbell Scientific,
268 Edmonton, Canada) data logger. Stream discharge was measured over various intervals using
269 either the velocity area method (for flows $< 0.5 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$; ISO Standard 9196:1992, ISO Standard
270 748:2007) or salt dilution (for flows $> 0.5 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$; Moore, 2005). Rating curves were developed
271 using the relationship between stream stage height and stream discharge (Supplemental S2).

272 **2.5 DOC flux**

273 From October 1, 2014 to April 30, 2016, we estimated DOC flux for each watershed
274 using measured DOC concentrations ($n=224$) and continuous discharge recorded at 15-minute
275 intervals. The watersheds in this region respond rapidly to rain inputs and as a result DOC
276 concentrations are highly variable. To address this variability, routine DOC concentration data
277 (as described in section 2.2) were supplemented with additional grab samples ($n=21$) collected
278 around the peak of the hydrograph during several high flow events throughout the year. We
279 performed watershed-specific estimates of DOC flux using the “rloadest” package (Lorenz et al.,
280 2015) in R (version 3.2.5, R Core Team, 2016), which replicates functions developed in the U.S.
281 Geological Survey load-estimator program, LOADEST (Runkel et al., 2004). LOADEST is a
282 multiple-regression adjusted maximum likelihood estimation model that calibrates a regression
283 between measured constituent values and stream flow across seasons and time and then fits it to

284 combinations of coefficients representing nine predetermined models of constituent flux. To
285 account for potentially small sample size, the best model was selected using the second order
286 Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) (Akaike, 1981; Hurvich and Tsai, 1989). Input data were
287 log-transformed to avoid bias and centered to reduce multicollinearity. For additional details on
288 model selection, see Supplemental Table S3.1.

289 2.6 Optical characterization of DOM

290 Prior to May 2014, absorbance measures of water samples (n= 99) were conducted on a
291 Varian Cary-50 (Varian, Inc.) spectrophotometer at the BC Ministry of the Environment
292 Technical Services Laboratory (Victoria, BC, Canada) to determine specific UV absorption at
293 254 nm (SUVA₂₅₄). After May 2014, we conducted optical characterization of DOM by
294 absorbance and fluorescence spectroscopy at the Hakai Institute field station (Calvert Island, BC,
295 Canada) using an Aqualog fluorometer (Horiba Scientific, Edison, New Jersey, USA). Strongly
296 absorbing samples (absorbance units > 0.2 at 250 nm) were diluted prior to analysis to avoid
297 excessive inner filter effects (Lakowicz, 1999). Samples were run in 1 cm quartz cells and
298 scanned from 220-800 nm at 2 nm intervals to determine SUVA₂₅₄ as well as the spectral slope
299 ratio (S_R). SUVA₂₅₄ has been shown to positively correlate with increasing molecular aromaticity
300 associated with the fulvic acid fraction of DOM (Weishaar et al., 2003), and is calculated by
301 dividing the Decadic absorption coefficient at 254 nm by DOC concentration (mg C L⁻¹). To
302 account for potential Fe interference with absorbance values, we corrected SUVA₂₅₄ values by Fe
303 concentration according the method described in Poulin et al., (2014). S_R has been shown to
304 negatively correlate with molecular weight (Helms et al., 2008), and is calculated as the ratio of
305 the spectral slope from 275 nm to 295 nm ($S_{275-295}$) to the spectral slope from 350 nm to 400 nm
306 ($S_{350-400}$).

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311 We measured excitation and emission spectra (as excitation emission matrices, EEMs) on
312 samples every three weeks from January to July 2016 (n= 63). Samples were run in 1 cm quartz
313 cells and scanned from excitation wavelengths of 230-550 nm at 5nm increments, and emission
314 wavelengths of 210-620 nm at 2 nm increments. The Horiba Aqualog applied the appropriate
315 instrument corrections for excitation and emission, inner filter effects, and Raman signal
316 calibration. We calculated the Fluorescence Index and Freshness Index for each EEM. The
317 Fluorescence Index is often used to indicate DOM source, where higher values are more
318 indicative of microbial-derived sources of DOM and lower values indicate more terrestrial-
319 derived sources (McKnight et al., 2001), and is calculated as the ratio of emission intensity at
320 450 nm to 500 nm, at an excitation of 370 nm. The Freshness Index is used to indicate the
321 contribution of autochthonous or recently microbial-produced DOM, with higher values
322 suggesting greater autochthony (i.e., microbial inputs), and is calculated as the ratio of emission
323 intensity at 380 nm to the maximum emission intensity between 420 nm and 435 nm, at
324 excitation 310 nm (Wilson and Xenopoulos, 2009).

325 To further characterize features of DOM composition, we performed parallel factor
326 analysis (PARAFAC) using EEM data within the drEEM toolbox for Matlab (Mathworks, MA,
327 USA) (Murphy et al., 2013). PARAFAC is a statistical technique used to decompose the
328 complex mixture of the fluorescing DOM pool into quantifiable, individual components
329 (Stedmon et al., 2003). We detected a total of six unique components, and validated the model
330 using core consistency and split-half analysis (Murphy et al., 2013; Stedmon and Bro, 2008).
331 Components with similar spectra from previous studies were identified using the online
332 fluorescence repository, OpenFluor (Murphy et al., 2014), and additional components with
333 similar peaks were identified through literature review. Since the actual chemical structure of

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342 fluorophores is unknown, we used the concentration of each fluorophore as maximum
343 fluorescence of excitation and emission in Raman Units (F_{max}) to derive the percent contribution
344 of each fluorophore component to total fluorescence. Relationships between PARAFAC
345 components were also evaluated using Pearson correlation coefficients in the R package “Hmisc”
346 (Harrell et al., 2016).

347 **2.7 Evaluating relationships in DOC concentration and DOM composition with stream** 348 **discharge and temperature**

349 We used linear mixed effects models to assess the relationship between DOC
350 concentration or DOM composition ($\delta^{13}C$ -DOC, S_R , $SUVA_{254}$, Fluorescence Index, Freshness
351 Index, PARAFAC components), stream discharge, and stream temperature. Analysis was
352 performed in R using the nlme package (Pinheiro et al., 2016). Watershed was included as a
353 random intercept to account for repeat measures on each watershed. For some parameters, a
354 random slope of either discharge or temperature was also included based on data assessment and
355 model selection. Model selection was performed using AIC to compare models fit using
356 Maximum Likelihood (ML) (Burnham and Anderson, 2002; Symonds and Moussalli, 2010). The
357 final model was fit using Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML). Marginal R^2 , which
358 represents an approximation of the proportion of the variance explained by the fixed factors
359 alone, and conditional R^2 , which represents an approximation of the proportion of the variance
360 explained by both the fixed and random factors, were calculated based on the methods described
361 in Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2013) and Johnson (2014).

362 **2.8 Redundancy analysis: Relationships between DOC concentration, DOM composition,** 363 **and watershed characteristics**

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366 We evaluated relationships between stream water DOC and watershed characteristics by
367 relating DOC concentration and measures of DOM composition to catchment attributes using
368 redundancy analysis (RDA; type 2 scaling) in the package rdaTest (Legendre and Durand, 2014)
369 in R (version 3.2.2, R Core Team, 2015). To maximize the amount of information available, we
370 performed RDA analysis on samples collected from January to July 2016, and therefore included
371 all parameters of optical characterization (i.e., all PARAFAC components and spectral indices).
372 We assessed the collinearity of DOM compositional variables using a variance inflation factor
373 (VIF) criteria of > 10 , which resulted in the removal of PARAFAC components C2, C3, and C5
374 prior to RDA analysis. Catchment attributes for each watershed included average slope, percent
375 area of lakes, percent area of wetlands, average depth of mineral soil, and average depth of
376 organic soil. Relationships between variables were linear, so no transformations were necessary
377 and variables were standardized prior to analysis. To account for repeat monthly measures per
378 watershed and potential temporal correlation associated with monthly sampling, we included
379 sample month as a covariable (“partial-RDA”). To test whether the RDA axes significantly
380 explained variation in the dataset, we compared permutations of residuals using ANOVA (9,999
381 iterations; test.axes function of rdaTest).

382 3. Results

383 3.1 Hydrology

384 We present work for water year 2015 (WY2015; October 1, 2014 – September 30, 2015)
385 and water year 2016 (WY2016; October 1, 2015 – September, 30, 2016). Annual precipitation
386 for both water years was lower than historical mean annual precipitation (WY2015= 2661 mm;
387 WY2016= 2587 mm). It is worth noting that mean annual precipitation at our rain gauge location
388 (2890 mm yr⁻¹, elevation = 16 m) is substantially lower than the average amount received at

Deleted: estimated at the location of our rain gauge (Fig. 1), which was approximately 2890 mm yr⁻¹ for the years 1981-2010 (Wang et al., 2012; available at <http://www.climatewna.com/>).

393 higher elevations, which from 1981-2010 was approximately 5027 mm yr⁻¹ at an elevation of
394 1000m within our study area. This area receives a very high amount of annual rainfall
395 (<http://data.worldbank.org>) but also experiences strong seasonal variation, with an extended wet
396 period from fall through spring, and a much shorter, typically drier period during summer. In
397 WY2015 and WY2016, 86-88% of the annual precipitation on Calvert Island occurred during the
398 8-months of wetter and cooler weather between September and April (~75% of the year),
399 designated the “wet period” (WY2015 wet= 2388 mm, average air temp= 7.97°C; WY2016 wet=
400 2235 mm; average air temp= 7.38°C). The remaining annual precipitation occurred during the
401 drier and warmer summer months of May – August, designated the “dry period” (WY2015 dry=
402 314 mm, average air temp= 13.4°C; WY2016 dry= 352 mm, average air temp= 13.1°C). Overall,
403 although WY2015 was slightly wetter than WY2016, the two years were comparable in relative
404 precipitation during the wet versus dry periods.

405 Stream discharge (Q) responded rapidly to rain events and as a result, closely tracked
406 patterns in total precipitation. (Fig. 2). Total Q for all watersheds, was on average 22% greater for
407 the wet period of WY2015 (total Q= 223.02 * 10⁶; range= 5.13 * 10⁶ – 111.51 * 10⁶ m³)
408 compared to the wet period of WY2016 (total Q= 182.89 * 10⁶; range= 4.17 * 10⁶ – 91.45 * 10⁶
409 m³). Stream discharge and stream temperature were significantly different for wet versus dry
410 periods (Mann-Whitney tests, p< 0.0001).

411 3.2 Temporal and spatial patterns in DOC concentration, yield and flux

412 Stream waters were high in DOC concentration relative to the global average for DOC
413 concentration in freshwater discharged directly to the ocean (average DOC for Calvert and
414 Hecate Islands = 10.4 mg L⁻¹, std= 3.8; average global DOC= ~ 6 mg L⁻¹)(Meybeck, 1982;
415 Harrison et al., 2005) (Table 1; Fig. 3). Q-weighted average DOC concentrations were higher

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429 than average measured DOC concentrations (11.1 mg L^{-1} , Table 1), and also resulted in slightly
430 different ranking of the watersheds for highest to lowest DOC concentration. Within watersheds,
431 flow-weighted DOC concentrations ranged from a low of 8.4 mg L^{-1} (watershed 693) to a high of
432 19.3 mg L^{-1} (watershed 819), and concentrations were significantly different between watersheds
433 (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.0001$). Seasonal variability tended to be higher in watersheds where
434 DOC concentration was also high (watersheds 626, 819, and 844) and lower in watersheds with
435 greater lake area (watersheds 1015 and 708) (Table 1; box plots, Figure 3). On an annual basis,
436 DOC concentrations generally decreased through the wet period, and increased through the dry
437 period, and concentrations were significantly lower during the wet period compared to the dry
438 period (Mann-Whitney test, $p = 0.0123$). Results of our linear mixed effects (LME) model
439 (Supplemental Table S6.1) indicate that DOC concentration was positively related to both
440 discharge ($b = 0.613$, $p < 0.001$) and temperature ($b = 0.162$, $p = 0.011$) (model conditional $R^2 =$
441 0.57 , marginal $R^2 = 0.09$).

442 Annual and monthly DOC yields are presented in Table 1. For the total period of
443 available Q (October 1, 2014 - April 30, 2016; 19 months), areal (all watersheds) DOC yield was
444 $52.3 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2}$ (95% CI = 45.7 to $68.2 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2}$) and individual watershed yields ranged from
445 24.1 to $43.6 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2}$. For WY2015, areal annual DOC yield was $33.3 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (95%
446 CI = 28.9 to $38.1 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Total monthly rainfall was strongly correlated with monthly
447 DOC yield (Fig. 4), and average monthly yield for the wet period ($3.35 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$; 95%
448 CI = 2.94 to $4.40 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$) was significantly greater than average monthly yield during
449 the dry period ($0.50 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$; 95% CI = 0.41 to $0.62 \text{ Mg C km}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$) (Mann-Whitney
450 test, $p < 0.0001$).

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Comment [AO3]: There are no DOC fluxes/yields for Water Year 2014 because we did not have discharge data yet for this period (Oct 1, 2013 to Sep 30, 2014). Discharge data began October 1, 2014, and so the first year of record is Water Year 2015. This is noted in the next line down, when we describe the total period of available discharge (Q).

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465 Across our study watersheds, DOC flux generally increased with increasing watershed
466 area (Fig. 5). In WY2015, total DOC flux for all watersheds included in our study was 1562 Mg
467 C (95% CI= 1355 to 1787 Mg C), and individual watershed flux ranged from 82 to
468 276 Mg C. DOC flux was significantly different in wet versus dry periods (Mann-Whitney test, p
469 < 0.0001). Overall, 94% of the export in WY2015 occurred during the wet period, and export for
470 the wet period of WY2015 was lower than export for the wet period of WY2016 (Fig. 5).

471 **3.3 Temporal and spatial patterns in DOM composition**

472 The stable isotopic composition of dissolved organic carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC) was relatively
473 tightly constrained over space and time (average $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC= -26.53‰, std= 0.36; range= -
474 27.67‰ to -24.89‰). Values of S_R were low compared to the range typically observed in surface
475 waters (average S_R = 0.78, std= 0.04; range= 0.71 to 0.89) and Fe-corrected SUVA₂₅₄ values
476 were at the high end of the range compared to most surface waters (average SUVA₂₅₄ for Calvert
477 and Hecate Islands= 4.42 L mg⁻¹ m⁻¹, std= 0.46; range of SUVA₂₅₄ in surface waters = 1.0 to 5.0
478 L mg⁻¹ m⁻¹) (Spencer et al., 2012). Values for both Fluorescence Index (average Fluorescence
479 Index= 1.36, std= 0.04; range= 1.30 to 1.44) and Freshness Index (average Freshness Index=
480 0.46, std= 0.02; range= 0.41 to 0.49) were relatively low compared to the typical range found in
481 surface waters (Fellman et al., 2010; Hansen et al., 2016). Differences between watersheds were
482 observed for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC (Kruskal-Wallis test, p= 0.0043), S_R (Kruskal-Wallis test, p= 0.0001),
483 Fluorescence Index (Kruskal-Wallis test, p= 0.0030), and Freshness Index (Kruskal-Wallis test,
484 p= 0.0099), but watersheds did not differ in SUVA₂₅₄ (Kruskal-Wallis test, p= 0.4837).

485 We did not observe an obvious seasonal trend in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC (Fig. 3), but LME model
486 results (Supplemental Table S6.1) indicate that $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC declined with increasing discharge
487 (b = -0.049, p = 0.014) and stream temperature (b = -0.024, p < 0.001) (model conditional R^2 =

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502 0.35, marginal $R^2=0.10$). In contrast, although $SUVA_{254}$ appeared to exhibit a general seasonal
503 trend of values ~~increasing~~ over the wet period and ~~decreasing~~ over the dry period, $SUVA_{254}$ was
504 not significantly related to either discharge or stream temperature in the LME model results. S_R
505 also appeared to fluctuate seasonally, with ~~lower~~ values ~~during~~ the wet season and higher values
506 during the dry season. S_R was negatively related to discharge ($b=-0.026$, $p<0.001$) and
507 positively related to the interaction between discharge and stream temperature ($b=0.0015$, $p<$
508 0.001) (model conditional $R^2=0.62$, marginal $R^2=0.28$). Freshness Index was negatively related
509 to stream temperature ($b=-0.003$, $p=0.008$) (model conditional $R^2=0.59$, marginal $R^2=0.23$),
510 while Fluorescence Index was not significantly related to either discharge or stream temperature.

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511 **3.4 PARAFAC characterization of DOM**

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512 Six fluorescence components were identified through PARAFAC (“C1” through “C6”)
513 (Table 2). Additional details on PARAFAC model results are provided in Supplemental Table
514 S4.1, Fig. S4.2, and Fig. S4.3. Of the six components, four were found to have close spectral
515 matches in the OpenFluor database (C1, C3, C5, C6; minimum similarity score >0.95), while
516 the remaining two (C2 and C4) were found to have similar peaks represented in the literature.
517 The first four components (C1 through C4) are described as terrestrial-derived, whereas
518 components C5 and C6 are described as autochthonous or microbially-derived (Table 2). In
519 general, the rank order of each components’ percent contribution to total fluorescence was
520 maintained over time, with C1 comprising the majority of total fluorescence across all
521 watersheds (Fig. 6).

522 Across watersheds, components fluctuated synchronously over time and variation
523 between watersheds was relatively low, although slightly more variation between watersheds
524 was observed during the beginning of the dry period relative to other times of the year (Fig 6).

530 The percent contributions of components C1, C3, C5 and C6 to total fluorescence were not
531 significantly different across watersheds (for all components Kruskal-Wallis test, $p > 0.05$),
532 however percent composition of both C2 and C4 were different (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p = 0.0306$
533 and $p = 0.0307$, respectively) and higher for watersheds 819 and 844 relative to the other
534 watersheds (Supplemental Fig. S4.4).

535 PARAFAC components exhibited significant relationships with stream discharge and
536 stream temperature, although predicted changes (beta, or b) in fluorescence components with
537 discharge and/or stream temperature were small (Supplemental Table S6.2). C3 increased with
538 discharge ($b = 0.006$, $p = 0.003$), whereas C2, C4, and C5 decreased with discharge (C2: $b = -$
539 0.005 , $p = 0.022$; C4: $b = -0.008$, $p = 0.002$; C5: $b = -0.008$, $p = 0.002$). C1, C4, and C6 increased
540 with temperature (C1: $b = 0.001$, $p = 0.050$; C4: $b = 0.003$, $p < 0.001$; C6: $b = 0.005$, $p = 0.005$),
541 while both C3 and C5 decreased with temperature (C3: $b = -0.003$, $p = 0.003$; C5: $b = -0.003$, $p =$
542 0.027). Conditional R^2 values for the models ranged from 0.28 to 0.69, while marginal R^2 ranged
543 from 0.20 to 0.46. Overall, greater changes in component contribution to total fluorescence were
544 observed with changes in discharge relative to changes in stream temperature.

545 **3.5 Relationships between watershed characteristics, DOC concentrations, and DOM**

546 **composition**

547 Results of the partial-RDA (type 2 scaling) were significant in explaining variability in
548 DOM concentration and composition (semi-partial $R^2 = 0.33$, $F = 7.90$, $p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 7). Axes
549 1 through 3 were statistically significant at $p < 0.001$, and the relative contribution of each axis to
550 the total explained variance was 47%, 30%, and 22%, respectively. Additional details on the
551 RDA test are provided in Supplemental Figs. S5.1-S5.2 and Tables S5.3 – S5.5. Axis 1 described
552 a gradient of watershed coverage by water-inundated ecosystem types, ranging from more

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554 wetland coverage to more lake coverage. Total lake coverage (area) and mean mineral soil
555 material thickness showed a strong positive contribution, and wetland coverage (area) showed a
556 strong negative contribution to this axis. Freshness Index, Fluorescence Index, S_R and
557 fluorescence component C6 were positively correlated with Axis 1, while component C4 showed
558 a clear negative correlation. Axis 2 described a subtler gradient of soil material thickness ranging
559 from greater mean organic soil material thickness to greater mean mineral soil material
560 thickness. DOC concentration, $\delta^{13}\text{C-DOC}$, SUVA_{254} , and fluorescence component C1 all showed
561 a strong, positive correlation with Axis 2. Axis 3 described a gradient of watershed steepness,
562 from lower gradient slopes with more wetland area and thicker organic soil material to steeper
563 slopes with less developed organic horizons. Average slope contributed negatively to Axis 3 (see
564 Supplemental Table S5.5), followed by positive contributions from both wetland area and
565 thickness of organic soil material. $\delta^{13}\text{C-DOC}$ showed the most positive correlation with Axis 3,
566 whereas fluorescence components C1 and C4 showed the most negative.

567 4. Discussion

568 4.1 DOC export from small catchments to the coastal ocean

569 In comparison to previous studies, our estimate of freshwater DOC yields from Calvert
570 and Hecate Island watersheds are in the upper range predicted for this region based on global
571 models (Mayorga et al., 2010) and DOC exports quantified for southeastern Alaska (D'Amore et
572 al., 2015a; D'Amore et al., 2016; Stackpoole et al., 2017). Compared to watersheds of similar
573 size, DOC yields from Calvert and Hecate Island watersheds are some of the highest observed
574 (see reviews in Hope et al., 1994; Alvarez-Cobelas et al., 2012), including DOC yields
575 determined from many tropical rivers, despite the fact that tropical rivers have been shown to
576 export very high DOC (e.g., Autuna River, Venezuela, DOC yield= 56,946 kg C km⁻² yr⁻¹;

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587 Castillo et al., 2004), and are often regarded as having disproportionately high carbon export
588 compared to temperate and Arctic rivers (Aitkenhead and McDowell, 2000; Borges et al., 2015).
589 Our estimates of DOC yield are comparable to, or higher than, previous estimates from high-
590 latitude catchments of similar size that receive high amounts of precipitation and contain
591 extensive organic soils and wetlands (e.g. Naiman, 1982 (DOC yield= 48,380 kg C km⁻² yr⁻¹);
592 Brooks et al., 1999 (DOC yield= 20,300 kg C km⁻² yr⁻¹); Ågren et al., 2007 (DOC yield= 32,043
593 kg C km⁻² yr⁻¹)). However, many of these catchments represent low (first or second) order
594 headwater streams that drain to higher order stream reaches, rather than directly to the ocean.
595 Although headwater streams have been shown to export up to 90 % of the total annual carbon in
596 stream systems (Leach et al., 2016), significant processing and loss typically occurs during
597 downstream transit (Battin et al., 2008).

598 Over much of the incised outer coast of the CTR, small rainfall-dominated catchments
599 contribute high amounts of freshwater runoff to the coastal ocean (Royer, 1982; Morrison et al.,
600 2012; Carmack et al., 2015). Small mountainous watersheds that discharge directly to the ocean
601 can exhibit disproportionately high fluxes of carbon relative to watershed size, and in aggregate
602 may deliver more than 50% of total carbon flux from terrestrial systems to the ocean (Milliman
603 and Syvitski, 1992; Masiello and Druffel, 2001). Extrapolating our estimate of annual DOC yield
604 from Calvert and Hecate Island watersheds to the entire hypermaritime subregion of British
605 Columbia's CTR (29,935 km²), generates an estimated annual DOC flux of 0.997 Tg C yr⁻¹
606 (0.721 to 1.305 Tg C yr⁻¹ for our lowest to highest yielding watersheds, respectively), with the
607 caveat that this estimate is rudimentary and does not account for spatial heterogeneity in
608 controlling factors such as wetland extent, topography, watershed size. Regional comparisons
609 estimate that Southeast Alaska (104,000 km²), at the northern range of the CTR, exports

610 approximately 1.25 Tg C yr⁻¹ (Stackpoole et al., 2016), while south of the perhumid CTR, the
611 wet northwestern United States and its associated coastal temperate rainforests export less than
612 0.153 Tg C yr⁻¹ as DOC (reported as TOC, Butman et al., 2016). This suggests that the
613 hypermaritime coast of British Columbia plays an important role in the export of DOC from
614 coastal temperate rainforest ecosystems of western North America, in a region that is already
615 expected to contribute high quantities of DOC to the coastal ocean.

616 4.2. Seasonal variability in DOC export

617 Despite having an ocean-moderated climate compared to continental interiors, the study
618 area experiences seasonal patterns in precipitation dominated by a longer wet period and a
619 shorter, drier period. Flashy stream hydrographs indicate that hydrologic response times for
620 Calvert and Hecate Island watersheds are rapid, presumably as a result of small catchment size,
621 high drainage density, and relatively shallow soils with high hydraulic conductivity (Gibson et
622 al., 2000; Fitzgerald et al., 2003). Rapid runoff is presumably accompanied by rapid increases in
623 water tables and lateral movement of water through shallow soil layers rich in organic matter
624 (Fellman et al., 2009b; D'Amore et al., 2015b). During drier periods DOC pools increase in soils
625 and are flushed to streams when water tables rise (Boyer et al., 1996).

626 Precipitation is a well-established driver of stream DOC export (Alvarez-Cobelas et al.,
627 2012), particularly in systems containing organic soils and wetlands (Olefeldt et al., 2013; Wallin
628 et al., 2015; Leach et al., 2016). Frequent, high intensity precipitation events and short residence
629 times are expected to result in pulsed exports of stream DOC that are rapidly shunted
630 downstream, thus reducing time for in-stream processing (Raymond et al., 2016). On Calvert and
631 Hecate Islands, the combination of high rainfall, rapid runoff, and abundant sources of DOC
632 from organic-rich soils, wetlands, and forests, result in high DOC fluxes. The process of “DOC

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642 flushing” has been shown to increase stream water DOC during higher flows in coastal and
643 temperate watersheds (e.g., Sanderman et al., 2009; Deirmendjian et al., 2017). In our study, the
644 relationship between DOC concentration and discharge varied by watershed (see Supplemental
645 Fig. S6.1), but overall DOC concentrations increased with both discharge and temperature. This
646 indicates that while watershed characteristics are important for influencing the magnitude and
647 variability of DOC concentrations and export, the hydrologic coupling of precipitation and
648 discharge with seasonal production and availability of DOC is an overarching driver of DOC
649 export (Fasching et al., 2016).

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Comment [AO7]: Panel of scatter plots showing DOC concentration vs discharge for all watersheds showing different fits for each.

650 **4.3 DOM character: Sources and variability**

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651 Measures of DOM composition from Calvert and Hecate Islands suggest that carbon and
652 organic matter exported from these systems is highly terrestrial. Values for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC were
653 relatively constrained, suggesting terrestrial carbon sources from C3 plants and soils were the
654 dominant input to catchment stream water DOM (Finlay and Kendall, 2007). Measures of S_R and
655 SUVA_{254} were typical of environments that export large quantities of high molecular weight,
656 highly aromatic DOM such as some tropical rivers (e.g., Lambert et al., 2016; Mann et al., 2014),
657 streams draining wetlands (e.g., Ågren et al., 2008, Austnes et al., 2010), or streams draining
658 small undisturbed catchments comprised of mixed forest and wetlands (e.g. Wickland et al.,
659 2007; Fellman et al., 2009a; Spencer et al., 2010, Yamashita et al., 2011). This suggests the
660 majority of the DOM pool is comprised of larger molecules that have not been extensively
661 chemically or biologically degraded through processes such as microbial utilization or
662 photodegradation, and therefore are potentially more biologically available (Amon and Benner,
663 1996).

Deleted: This is consistent with findings from previous studies on DOM exports from streams draining small headwater catchments (Yamashita et al., 2011), and undisturbed catchments comprised of mixed forest and wetlands (e.g. Wickland et al., 2007; Fellman et al., 2009a; Spencer et al., 2010).

674 Seasonal variability in DOM composition may be attributed to seasonal changes in
675 biological activity and shifting flow paths that affect hydrologic interactions with different DOM
676 source materials (Fellman et al., 2009b). On Calvert and Hecate Island watersheds, some
677 measures of DOM composition, such as $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC and S_R , exhibited seasonal patterns. In our
678 study, discharge was significantly related to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC and S_R , with higher discharge resulting in
679 more terrestrial-like DOM (i.e., more depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC and lower S_R) as saturated conditions
680 promote the mobilization of a wider range of DOM from soil material (McKnight et al., 2001;
681 Kalbitz et al., 2002). This is similar to findings of Sanderman et al. (2009), who observed distinct
682 relationships between discharge and both $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC and $SUVA_{254}$, and postulated that during
683 the rainy season, hillslope flushing shifts DOM sources to more aged soil organic material
684 because plant productivity is not rapid enough to meet microbial demand, forcing microbes to
685 switch to metabolizing more aged DOM within soils. It has also been shown that rising water
686 tables can establish strong hydraulic gradients that initiate and sustain prolonged increases in
687 metrics like $SUVA_{254}$, until the progressive drawdown of upland water tables constrain flow
688 paths (Lambert et al., 2013).

689 During the drier and warmer period, DOM decreased in molecular weight (S_R) and
690 Freshness Index, as well as increased in C6, a component comprised of protein-like composition.
691 This suggests a shift in the source of DOM and/or increased contributions from less aromatic,
692 lower molecular weight material, such as DOM derived from increased terrestrial primary
693 production (Berggren et al., 2010), and perhaps deeper flow paths that contribute to mineral
694 binding and export of older, more processed terrestrial material (McKnight et al., 2001; van Hees
695 et al., 2005). Proportions of fluorescence components were generally consistent across
696 watersheds during the dry period, but diverged during the wet period, further suggesting that

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701 water table draw down and unsaturated soils lead to more diverse flow paths and hydrologic
702 interaction with different sources of DOM.
703 Interestingly, more depleted values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC were also related to warmer
704 temperature. The positive relationship between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC and both discharge and temperature,
705 as well as the overall low variability in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DOC, suggests that the availability or production of
706 terrestrial DOM is enough to keep up with microbial demand, allowing the supply of terrestrial
707 material to remain relatively seasonally consistent. The positive relationship of temperature and
708 Freshness Index, as well as with C1 and C4, further suggests that warmer periods contribute to a
709 fresh supply of terrestrial material available for microbial degradation and export (Fellman et al.,
710 2009a; Fasching et al., 2016).
711 The interaction of sources and flow paths during wet versus dry periods may have
712 important consequences for the downstream fate of this material. For example, biological
713 utilization of DOM is influenced by its composition (e.g. Judd et al., 2006; Fasching et al.,
714 2014), therefore differences in the nature of DOM exports will likely alter the downstream fate
715 and ecological role of freshwater-exported DOM. The majority of the fluorescent DOM pool was
716 comprised of C1, which is described as humic-like, less-processed terrestrial soil and plant
717 material (see Table 2). This may represent a relatively fresh, seasonally-consistent contribution
718 of terrestrial subsidy from streams to the coastal ecosystem, which is relatively lower in carbon
719 and nutrients throughout much of the year (Whitney et al., 2005; Johannessen et al., 2008). For
720 example, pulsed contributions of less-processed humic material exported from rivers to lakes
721 have been shown to stimulate bacterial production (Bergström and Jansson, 2000). While
722 previous studies have suggested that bacteria prefer autochthonous carbon sources, they readily
723 utilize allochthonous terrestrial DOC subsidies (Bergström and Jansson, 2000; Kritzberg et al.,

Deleted: Rising water tables can establish strong hydraulic gradients that initiate and sustain prolonged increases in metrics like SUVA_{254} , until the progressive drawdown of upland water tables constrain flow paths (Lambert et al., 2013).

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Deleted: In comparison to the more humic fractions, the tryptophan-like component, C6, represents a portion of the DOM pool comprised of a higher proportion of proteins that are preferred and readily utilized by microbial communities (Stedmon and Markager, 2005). Although C6 represents a minor, more variable proportion of total fluorescence in comparison to the more humic compounds such as C1, even a small proteinaceous fraction of the overall DOM pool can play a major role in overall bioavailability and bacterial utilization of DOM (Berggren et al., 2010; Guillet and Giorgio, 2011).

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746 2004; McCallister and Giorgio, 2008; Berggren et al., 2010), enabling humic and fulvic material
747 to fuel a low but continuous level of bacterial productivity after more labile sources have been
748 consumed (Guillemette and Giorgio, 2011). In addition, although the tryptophan-like component
749 C6, represents a minor, more variable proportion of total fluorescence in comparison to the more
750 humic compounds such as C1, even a small proteinaceous fraction of the overall DOM pool can
751 play a major role in overall bioavailability and bacterial utilization of DOM (Berggren et al.,
752 2010; Guillemette and Giorgio, 2011).

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753 **4.4 Relationships between watershed attributes and exported DOM**

754 Previous studies have implicated wetlands as a major driver of DOM composition (e.g.,
755 Xenopoulos et al., 2003; Ågren et al., 2008; Creed et al., 2008), however the analysis of
756 relationships between Calvert and Hecate Island landscape attributes and variation in DOM
757 composition suggests that controls on DOM composition are more nuanced than being solely
758 driven by the presence of wetlands. Ågren et al. (2008) found that when wetland area comprised
759 >10% of total catchment area, wetland DOM was the most significant driver of stream DOM

Deleted: Given that the small watersheds of this region export very high amounts of terrestrial DOC, there is clear potential for this stream-exported DOM to provide pulsed contributions of terrestrial subsidies to coastal foodwebs.

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760 composition during periods of high hydrologic connectivity. Although wetlands comprise an
761 average of 37% of our study area, they do not appear to be the single leading driver of variability
762 in DOC concentration and DOM composition. Other factors, such as watershed slope, the depth
763 of organic and mineral soil materials, and the presence of lakes also appear to be influence DOC
764 concentration and DOM composition.

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765 In these watersheds, soils with pronounced accumulations of organic matter are not
766 restricted to wetland ecosystems. Peat accumulation in wetland ecosystems results in the
767 formation of organic soils (Hemists), where mobile fractions of DOM accumulate under
768 saturated soil conditions and limited drainage, resulting in the enrichment of poorly

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Deleted: In our study, although we observed characteristics of DOM commonly found in wetland exports, wetlands do not appear to be the single leading driver of variability.

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790 biodegradable, more stable humic acids (Stevenson, 1994; Marschner and Kalbitz, 2003).
791 Although Hemist soils comprise 27.8% of our study area, Folc Histosols, which form under
792 more freely drained conditions, such as steeper slopes, occur over an additional 25.7% of the
793 region (Supplemental S1.2). In freely drained organic soils, high rates of respiration can result in
794 further enrichment of aromatic and more complex molecules, and this material may be rapidly
795 mobilized and exported to streams (Glatzel et al., 2003). This suggests the importance of widely
796 distributed, alternative soil DOM source-pools, such as Folc Histosols and associated Podzols
797 with thick forest floors on hillslopes, available to contribute high amounts of terrestrial carbon
798 for export.

799 Although lakes make up a relatively small proportion of the total landscape area, their
800 influence on DOM export appears to be important. The proportion of lake area can be a good
801 predictor of organic carbon loss from a catchment since lakes often increase hydrologic
802 residence times and thus increase opportunities for biogeochemical processing (Algesten et al.,
803 2004; Tranvik et al., 2009). In our study, watersheds with a larger percentage of lake area
804 exhibited slower response following rain events (Supplemental Fig. S2.2), lower DOC yields,
805 and lake area was correlated with parameters that represent greater autochthonous DOM
806 production or microbial processing such as higher Freshness Index, S_R , Fluorescence Index, and
807 higher proportions of component C6. In contrast, watersheds with a high percentage of wetlands
808 contributed DOM that was more allochthonous in composition. Lakes are known to be important
809 landscape predictors of DOC, as increased residence time enables removal via respiration, thus
810 reducing downstream exports from lake outlets (Larson et al., 2007). The proximity of wetlands
811 and lakes within the catchment and their proximity to the watershed outlet can also play an
812 important role in the composition of DOM exports (Martin et al., 2006).

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- Comment [A08]: Included some additional commentary on the role of lakes.
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- Moved up [3]: Therefore, the relative location of wetlands and lakes within the catchment and their proximity to the watershed outlet also likely plays an important role in the overall composition of DOM exports.
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Changing environmental conditions, such as shifting precipitation and temperature regimes, may affect future DOC fluxes. Long term patterns in DOC flux have been observed in many places (e.g., Worrall et al., 2004; Borke et al., 2011; Lepistö et al., 2014) and continued monitoring of this system will allow us to better understand the underlying drivers of export. For example, changes in soil temperature and moisture could influence the stability of the organic matter pool, as processes such as organic matter production and sorption have strong relationships with temperature and oxidation state. Therefore, additional research is needed to assess soil properties relevant to DOM mobility (e.g., texture, sesquioxide content), landscape attributes, and flow paths for predicting DOM export in this region and the consequences of shifting conditions such as those associated with altered land use or climate change. .

851 **5. Conclusions**

852 Previous work has demonstrated freshwater discharge is substantial along the coastal
853 margin of the North Pacific temperate rainforest, and plays an important role in processes such as
854 ocean circulation (Royer, 1982; Eaton and Moore, 2010). Our finding that small catchments in
855 this region contribute high yields of terrestrial DOC to coastal waters suggests that freshwater
856 inputs may also influence ocean biogeochemistry and food web processes through terrestrial
857 organic matter subsidies. Our findings also suggest that this region may be currently
858 underrepresented in terms of its role in global carbon cycling. Currently, there is no region-wide
859 carbon flux model for the Pacific coastal temperate rainforest or the greater Gulf of Alaska,
860 which would quantify the importance of this region within the global carbon budget. Our
861 estimates represent the hypermaritime outer-coast zone of the CTR, where subdued terrain, high
862 rainfall, ocean moderated temperatures and poor bedrock have generated a distinctive 'bog-
863 forest' landscape mosaic within the greater temperate rainforest (Banner et al. 2005). Even
864 within our geographically limited study area, we observed a range of DOC yields across
865 watersheds. To quantify regional scale fluxes of rainforest carbon to the coastal ocean, further
866 research will be needed to estimate DOC yields across complex spatial gradients of topography,
867 climate, hydrology, soils and vegetation. Long term changes in DOC flux have been observed in
868 many places (e.g., Worrall et al., 2004; Borken et al., 2011; Lepistö et al., 2014; Tank et al.,
869 2016) and continued monitoring of this system will allow us to better understand the underlying
870 drivers of export and evaluate future patterns in DOC yields. Coupled with current studies
871 investigating the fate of terrestrial material in ocean food webs, this work will improve our
872 understanding of coastal carbon patterns, and increase capacity for predictions regarding the
873 ecological impacts of climate change.

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Deleted: Further study on the controls of DOC export from watersheds, such as the role of landscape type (e.g., different wetland and forest types within the ecosystem mosaic), watershed attributes (e.g., stream connectivity, slope, etc.), and detailed characterization of soils, are warranted.

899 **Author Contributions**

900 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

901 A.A. Oliver prepared the manuscript with contributions from all authors, designed analysis
902 protocols, analyzed samples, performed the modeling and analysis for dissolved organic carbon
903 fluxes, parallel factor analysis of dissolved organic matter composition, and all remaining
904 statistical analyses. S.E. Tank assisted with designing the study and overseeing laboratory
905 analyses, crafting the scope of the paper, and determining the analytical approach.

906 I. Giesbrecht led the initial DOC sampling design, helped coordinate the research team, oversaw
907 routine sampling and data management, and led the watershed characterization.

908 M.C. Korver developed the rating curves, and conducted the statistical analysis of discharge
909 measurement uncertainties and rating curve uncertainties. W.C. Floyd lead the hydrology
910 component of this project, selected site locations, installed and designed the hydrometric
911 stations, and developed the rating curves and final discharge calculations. C. Bulmer and P.
912 Sanborn collected and analyzed soil field data and prepared the digital soils map of the
913 watersheds. K.P. Lertzman conceived of and co-led the overall study of which this paper is a
914 component, helped assemble and guide the team of researchers who carried out this work,
915 provided input to each stage of the study.

916

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924 [Owen, James McPhail](#), and the entire staff at Hakai Energy Solutions for installing and
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934

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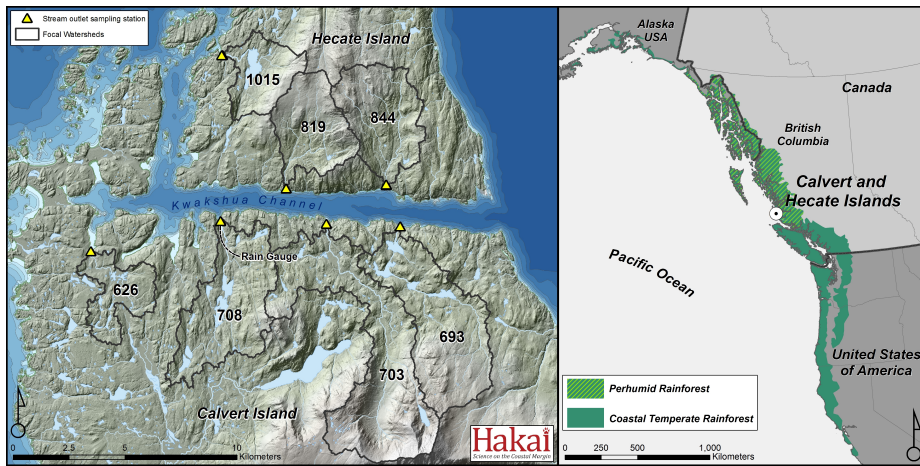
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1521 **Figure 1.** The location of Calvert Island, British Columbia, Canada, within the perhumid region
1522 of the coastal temperate rainforest (right) and the study area on Calvert and Hecate Islands,
1523 including the seven study watersheds, corresponding stream outlet sampling stations, and
1524 location of the rain gauge (left). Characteristics of individual watersheds are described in Table
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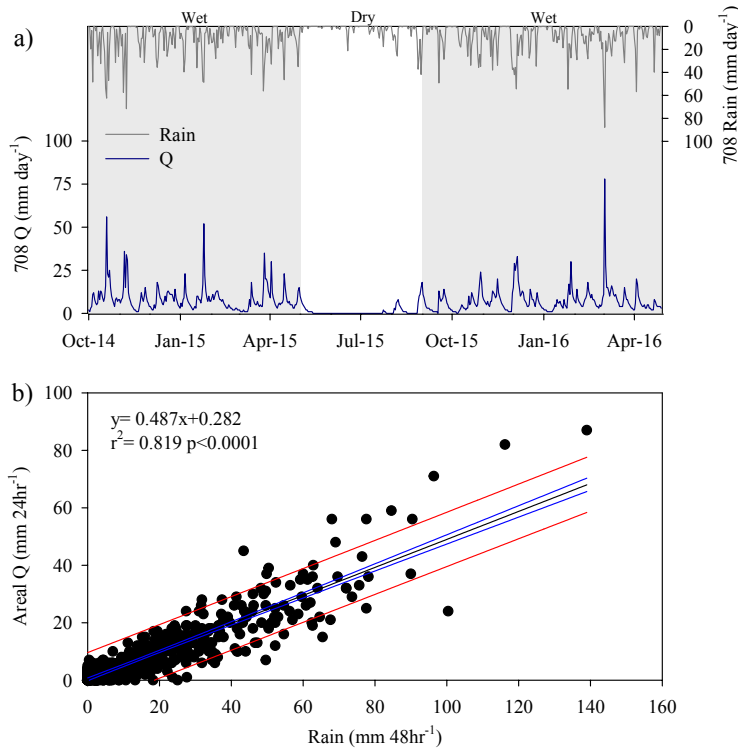


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1550 **Figure 2.** Hydrological patterns typical of watersheds located in the study area (a) the
 1551 hydrograph and precipitation record from Watershed 708 for the study period of October 1,
 1552 2015-April 30, 2016. Grey shading indicates the wet period (September 1-April 30) and the
 1553 unshaded region indicates the dry period (May 1-August 30) (b) Correlation of daily (24 hour)
 1554 areal runoff (discharge of all watersheds combined) to 48 hour total rainfall recorded at
 1555 watershed 708. For the period of study, comparisons of daily runoff to 48-hr rainfall
 1556 (runoff:rainfall mean= 0.92, std ±0.27) indicated rapid discharge response to rainfall.

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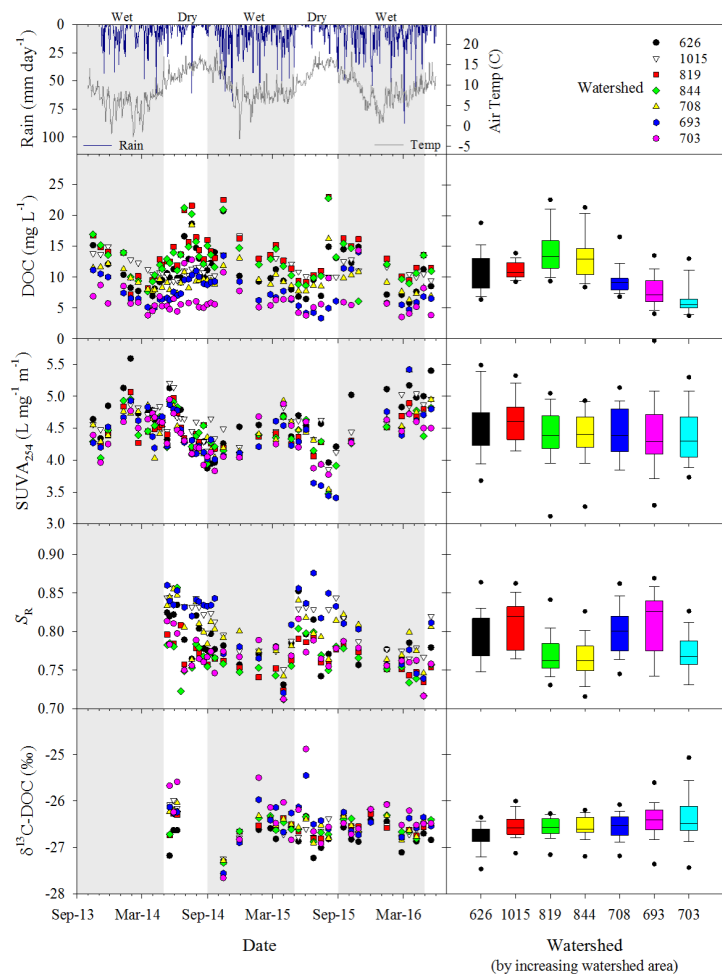
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1569 **Figure 3.** Seasonal (timelines, by date) and spatial (boxplots, by watershed) patterns in DOC
 1570 concentration and DOM composition for stream water collected at the outlets of the seven study
 1571 watersheds on Calvert and Hecate Islands. Boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentile, while
 1572 whiskers represent the 5th and 95th percentile. Daily precipitation and annual temperature are
 1573 shown in the top left panel. Grey shading indicates the wet period (September 1-April 30) and
 1574 the unshaded region indicates the dry period of each water year.
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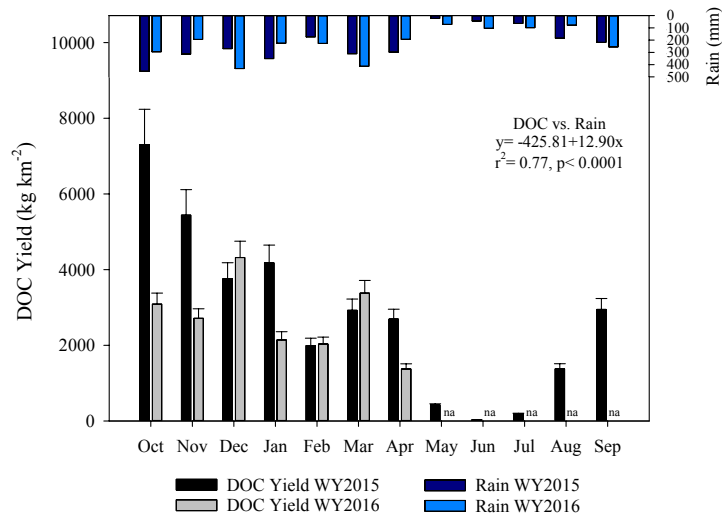
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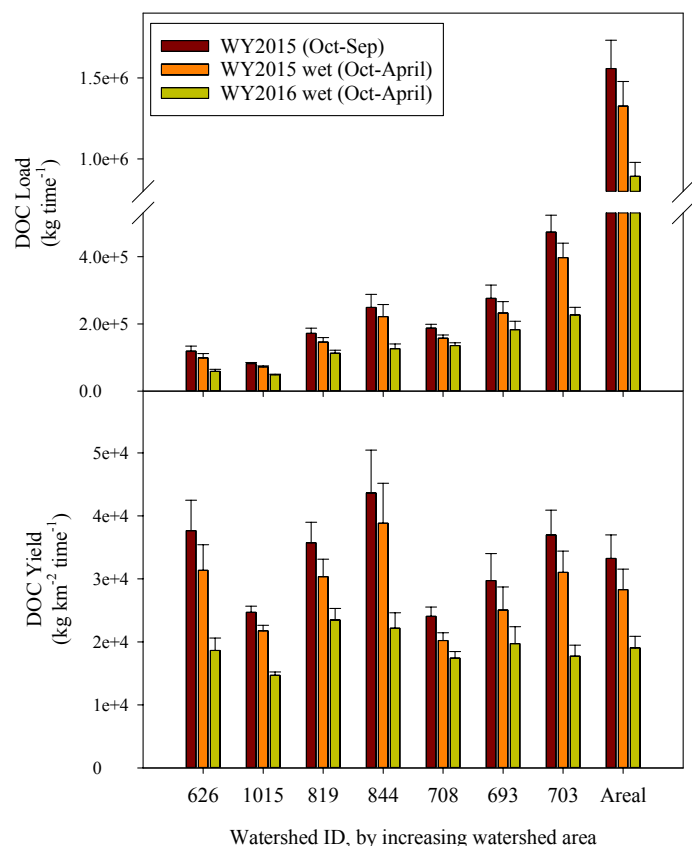
1578 **Figure 4.** Monthly areal DOC yields and precipitation for water year 2015 (WY2015) and the
 1579 wet period (October 1-April 30) of water year 2016 (WY2016). Error bars represent standard
 1580 error. Total rain and DOC yield were significantly correlated ($r^2 = 0.77$) and months of higher
 1581 rain produced higher DOC yields. In WY2015, the majority of DOC export (~94% of annual
 1582 flux) occurred during the wet period (~88% of annual precipitation).

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1602 **Figure 5:** DOC fluxes and yields for the seven study watersheds and the total area of study
 1603 (“areal”, all watersheds combined) on Calvert and Hecate Islands for water year 2015 (WY2015;
 1604 Oct 1 - Sep 30), and October 1- April 30 of the wet period for water year 2015 (WY2015 wet)
 1605 and water year 2016 (WY2016 wet). Because DOC yields were only available for September in
 1606 WY2015, this month was excluded from the wet period totals in order to make similar
 1607 comparisons between years. Error bars represent standard error.

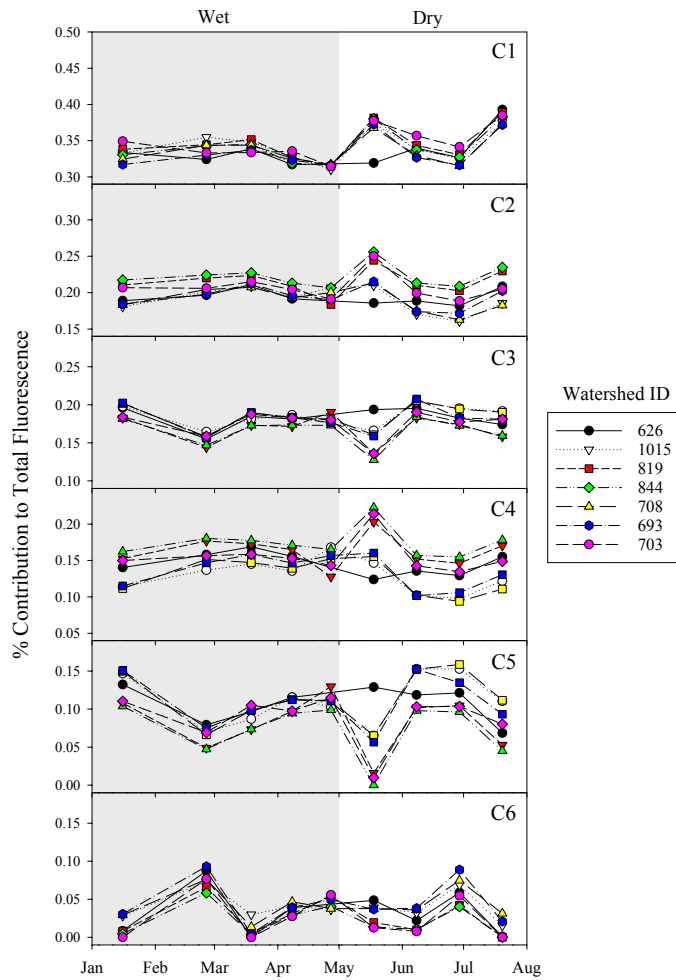


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Deleted: Total DOC load tended to increase by increasing watershed area, and the total amount of DOC exported during the wet period was higher in WY2015 compared to WY2016. DOC yield was also higher for the wet period of WY2015 compared to WY2016, but differences between watersheds were independent of total watershed area, indicated different drivers of DOC export on a per-area basis.

1608 **Figure 6:** Percent contribution of the six components identified in parallel factor analysis
 1609 (PARAFAC) for samples collected every three weeks from January-July, 2016 from the seven
 1610 study watersheds on Calvert and Hecate Islands. The grey shading indicates the wet period and
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1625 the unshaded region indicates the dry period. Note that while the y-axis for each panel has a
1626 range of 20%, the max and min for each y-axis varies by panel.

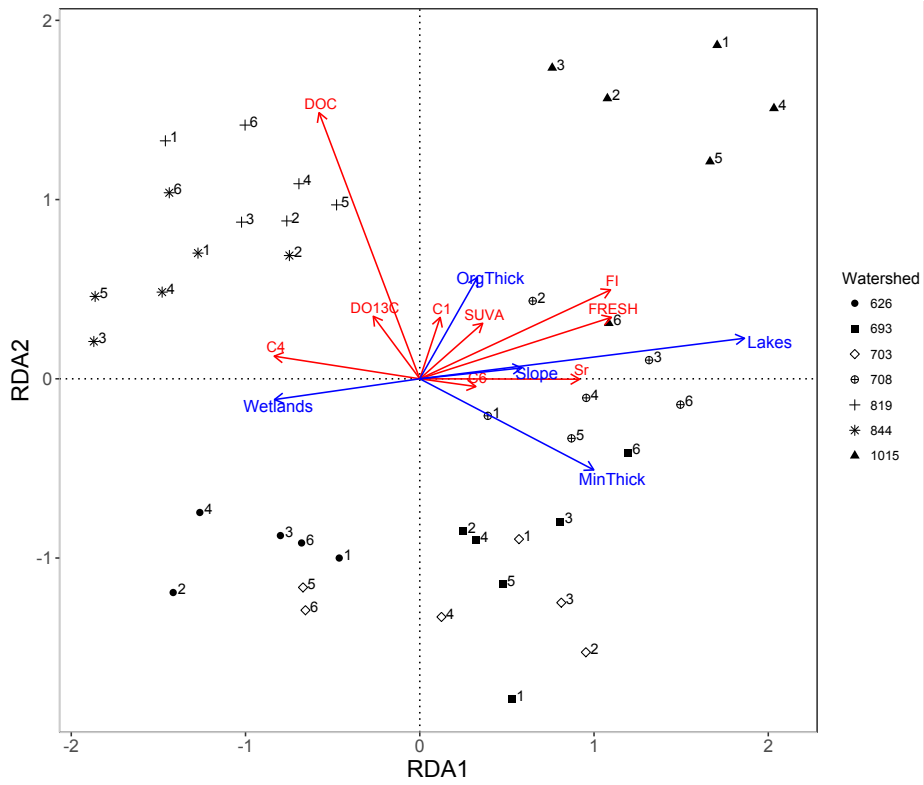


Comment [AO9]: New figure created and inserted.
New figure shows individual points for each watershed
instead of mean +/- std.

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1628 **Figure 7:** Results from the partial-Redundancy analysis (RDA; type 2 scaling) of DOC
1629 concentration and DOM composition versus watershed characteristics. Angles between vectors
1630 represent correlation, i.e., smaller angles indicate higher correlation. Symbols represent different

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1632 watersheds, and numbers on symbols represent the sample month in 2016: 1= January, 2=
1633 February, 3= March, 4= early April, 5= late April, and 6= May.
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Table 1: Watershed characteristics, discharge, DOC concentrations, and DOC yields for the seven study watersheds on Calvert and Hecate Islands. Additional details on the methods used to determine watershed characteristics can be found in [Supplemental Material](#).

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Watershed	Area (km ²)	Avg. Slope (%)	Lakes (% Area)	Wetlands (% Area)	Avg. Depth Organic Soils (cm)	Avg. Depth Mineral Soils (cm)	Total Q Yield* (mm)	DOC** (mg L ⁻¹)	Q-weighted Avg. DOC* (mg L ⁻¹)	DOC Annual Yield ^b WY2015* (Mg C km ⁻²)	DOC Monthly Yield ^b Wet Season** (Mg C km ⁻²)	DOC Monthly Yield ^b Dry Season*** (Mg C km ⁻²)
626	3.2	21.7	4.7	48.0	39.4 ±24.3	30.8 ±8.3	3673	11.0 ±3.5	15.3	37.7 (31.9 – 44.2)	3.59 (3.05 – 4.18)	0.62 (0.49 – 0.77)
1015	3.3	34.2	9.1	23.8	39.5 ±17.2	33.7 ±8.6	3052	11.2 ±1.6	12.9	24.7 (23.6 – 25.8)	2.56 (2.45 – 2.78)	0.27 (0.25 – 0.28)
819	4.8	30.1	0.3	50.2	37.9 ±19.1	29.8 ±5.7	3066	14.0 ±3.5	19.3	35.7 (31.7 – 40.2)	3.80 (3.37 – 5.10)	0.57 (0.48 – 0.67)
844	5.7	32.5	0.3	35.2	35.4 ±18.0	29.1 ±6.4	4129	13.1 ±3.6	15.9	43.6 (34.2 – 54.9)	4.24 (3.36 – 5.30)	0.54 (0.36 – 0.77)
708	7.8	28.5	7.5	46.3	36.2 ±19.7	29.9 ±6.0	3805	9.5 ±2.4	10.9	24.1 (22.2 – 26.0)	2.67 (2.46 – 4.07)	0.38 (0.34 – 0.43)
693	9.3	30.2	4.4	42.8	35.4 ±16.1	30.2 ±6.4	5866	7.7 ±2.5	8.4	29.7 (25.9 – 34.0)	3.19 (2.79 – 4.94)	0.41 (0.32 – 0.52)
703	12.8	40.3	1.9	24.3	37.3 ±16.5	35.8 ±13.4	6058	6.3 ±2.6	9.0	37.0 (32.5 – 42.0)	3.48 (3.07 – 4.02)	0.64 (0.52 – 0.77)
All	46.9	32.7	3.7	37.1	37.4 ±17.7	32.2 ±9.2	4730	10.4 ±3.8	11.1	33.3 (28.9 – 38.1)	3.35 (2.94 – 4.40)	0.50 (0.41 – 0.62)

* Calculated for water year 2015 (WY2015; Oct 1, 2014–Sep 30, 2015)

** Wet period average monthly yield calculated from October–April and September, WY2015 and October–April, WY2016

*** Dry period average monthly yield calculated from May–August, WY2015

^a Mean ± standard deviation^b Total ± 95% confidence interval

1640 **Table 2:** Spectral composition for the six fluorescence components identified using PARAFAC, including excitation (Ex.) and
 1641 emission (Em.) peak values, percent composition across all samples, and likely structure and characteristics of the fluorescent
 1642 component based on previous studies.

Component	Ex. (nm)	Em. (nm)	% Composition ^a	Potential structure/Characteristics	Previous studies with comparable results
C1	315	436	34.1 ±2.2 (31.1-39.3)	Humic-like, less processed terrestrial, high molecular weight, widespread but highest in wetland and forest environment	Garcia et al. 2015(C1); Graeber et al. 2012(C1); Walker et al. 2014(C1); Yamashita et al. 2011(C1); Cory & McKnight, 2005(C1)
C2	270/ 380	484	20.2 ±1.9 (16.1-25.6)	Humic-like, resembles fulvic acid, widespread, high molecular weight terrestrial	Stedmon and Markager, 2005(C2); Stedmon et al. 2003(C3); Cory & McKnight, 2005(C5)
C3	270	478	17.8 ±1.8 (12.8-20.8)	Humic-like, highly processed terrestrial; suggested as refractory	Stedmon & Markager, 2005(C1); Yamashita et al. 2010(C2)
C4	305/ 435	522	14.8 ±2.6 (9.4-22.3)	Not commonly reported, similarities to fulvic-like, contributed from soils	Lochmuller & Saavedra, 1986(E)
C5	325	442	9.8 ±3.5 (0.0-15.9)	Aquatic humic-like from terrestrial environments; autochthonous, microbial produced; may be photoproduct	Boehme & Coble, 2000(Peak C); Coble et al. 1998(Peak C); Stedmon et al., 2003(C3)
C6	285	338	3.4 ±2.5 (0.0-9.3)	Amino acid-like/Tryptophan-like. Freshly added from land, autochthonous. Rapidly photodegradable	Murphy et al. 2008(C7); Shutova et al. 2003(C4); Stedmon et al. 2007(C7); Yamashita et al. 2003(C5)

^a Mean ± stdev (min-max) from all samples

Comment [AO11]: Table modified per comments from Reviewer 1

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3.3 Characterization of DOM- PARAFAC

[A01] Six fluorescence components were identified through PARAFAC (“C1” through “C6”)(Table 2). Additional details on PARAFAC model results are provided in Supplemental Table S4.1, Fig. S4.2, and Fig. S4.3. Of the six components, four were found to have close spectral matches in the OpenFluor database (C1, C3, C5, C6; minimum similarity score > 0.95), while the other two (C2 and C4) were found to have similar peaks represented in the literature. The first four components (C1 through C4) are described as terrestrial-derived. C1 comprised the majority of total fluorescence across all watersheds (Fig. 6), representing a consistent supply of humic-like terrestrial material in stream water outflows that is relatively fresh (i.e., less-processed). Components C5 and C6 are described as autochthonous or microbially-derived. C5 likely represents autochthonous-produced material of humic-like composition, whereas C6 was the only component representing a distinct protein or tryptophan-like contribution likely derived from autochthonous production. In general, the rank order of the components’ percent contribution to total fluorescence and variability between watersheds was maintained over time. C1 comprised the majority of total fluorescence across all watersheds (Fig. 6), representing a consistent supply of humic-like terrestrial material in stream water outflows that is relatively fresh (i.e., less-processed).

Over time, components were relatively synchronous across watersheds although slightly more variation was observed during the beginning of the dry period relative to other times of the year (Fig 6). Of the terrestrial-like components, C1, C2, and C4 exhibited similar temporal patterns in contribution to total fluorescence (Fig. 6;) and were positively correlated with one another (Supplemental[A02] Table S4.2) [A03]Component C3 exhibited the lowest spatial

variability and was negatively correlated to C1 through C4 but positively correlated to C5
Concentrations of C5 and C6 were not correlated and negatively correlated to C1 through C4,
with the exception of a strong positive correlation between C5 and C3.

Percent composition of components C1, C3, C5 and C6 were not significantly different
across watershed (for all components Kruskal-Wallis test, $p > 0.05$), however percent
composition of both C2 and C4 different (Kruskal-Wallis $p = 0.0306$ and $p = 0.0307$,
respectively) and higher for watersheds 819 and 844 relative to the other watersheds
(Supplemental Fig. S4.4).

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