1 **Title**:

2 ORCHIDEE MICT-LEAK (r5459), a global model for the production, transport and

3 transformation of dissolved organic carbon from Arctic permafrost regions, Part
4 2: Model evaluation over the Lena River basin.

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18 Abstract

19 In this second part of a two-part study, we perform a simulation of the carbon and water 20 budget of the Lena catchment with the land surface model ORCHIDEE MICT-LEAK, 21 enabled to simulate dissolved organic carbon (DOC) production in soils and its transport and fate in high latitudes inland waters. The model results are evaluated in their ability 22 to reproduce the fluxes of DOC and carbon dioxide (CO₂) along the soil-inland water 23 24 continuum, and the exchange of CO_2 with the atmosphere, including the evasion 25 outgassing of CO₂ from inland waters. We present simulation results over years 1901-2007, and show that the model is able to broadly reproduce observed state variables 26 27 and their emergent properties across a range of interacting physical and biogeochemical 28 processes, including: 1) Net primary production (NPP), respiration and riverine 29 hydrologic amplitude, seasonality and inter-annual variation; 2) DOC concentrations, 30 bulk annual flow and their volumetric attribution at the sub-catchment level; 3) High 31 headwater versus downstream CO₂ evasion, an emergent phenomenon consistent with 32 observations over a spectrum of high latitude observational studies. (4) These quantities obey emergent relationships with environmental variables like air temperature and 33 topographic slope that have been described in the literature. This gives us confidence in 34 reporting the following additional findings: Of the \sim 34TgC yr⁻¹ left over as input to soil 35 matter after NPP is diminished by heterotrophic respiration, 7 TgC yr¹ is leached and 36 transported into the aquatic system. Of this, over half (3.6 TgC yr⁻¹) is evaded from the 37 38 inland water surface back into the atmosphere and the remainder (3.4 TgC yr⁻¹) flushed 39 out into the Arctic Ocean, mirroring empirically derived studies. These riverine DOC exports represent $\sim 1.5\%$ of NPP. DOC exported from the floodplains is dominantly 40 sourced from recent, more 'labile' terrestrial production, in contrast to DOC leached 41 42 from the rest of the watershed with runoff and drainage, which is mostly sourced from 43 recalcitrant soil and litter. All else equal, both historical climate change (a 44 spring/summer warming of 1.8°C over the catchment) and rising atmospheric CO₂ 45 (+85.6ppm) are diagnosed from factorial simulations to contribute similar, significant increases in DOC transport via primary production, although this similarity may not 46 hold in the future. 47

49 1 Introduction

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51 A new branch of the high latitude-specific land surface component of the IPSL Earth System model, ORCHIDEE MICT-LEAK (r5459), was enabled to simulate new model 52 53 processes of soil dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and CO₂ production, and their 54 advective/diffusive vertical transport within a discretized soil column as well as their 55 transport and transformation within the inland water network, in addition to improved representation of hydrological and carbon processes in floodplains. These additions, 56 57 processes first coded in the model ORCHILEAK (Lauerwald et al., 2017) and 58 implemented within the high latitude base model ORCHIDEE-MICT v8.4.1 (Guimberteau 59 et al., 2018), were described in detail in Part 1 of this study, depicted graphically in Figure S1a,b. This second part of our study deals with the validation and application of 60 our model. We validate simulation outputs against observation for present-day and run 61 transient simulations over the historial period (1901-2007) using the Lena River basin 62 63 as test case. The simulation setup and rationale for choice of simulation basin are 64 outlined below. 65

66 2 Simulation Rationale

67 68 The Lena river basin, which is bounded by the region 52-72°N; 102-142°E, was chosen 69 as the basin for model evaluation because it is the largest DOC discharge contribution amongst the Arctic rivers, according to some estimates (Raymond et al., 2007; Holmes et 70 al., 2012), with its 2.5 million km² area (befitting our coarse-grid resolution) discharging 71 almost 20% of the summed discharge of the largest six Arctic rivers, its large areal 72 coverage by Podzols (DeLuca and Boisvenue, 2012), and the dominance of DOC versus 73 particulate organic carbon (POC) with 3-6Tg DOC-C yr-1 vs. 0.03-0.04 Tg POC-C yr-1 74 75 (Semiletov et al., 2011) in the total OC discharge load -factors all broadly representative of the Eurasian Arctic rivers. Climatological input to the model is from the Global Soil 76 Wetness Project Phase 3 (GSWP3) v.0 data, based on 20th Century reanalysis using the 77 78 NCEP land-atmosphere model and downscaled to a 0.5°, 3-hourly resolution covering 79 the period 1901 to 2007 (Supplement, Table S1). This is then upscaled to 1° resolution 80 and interpolated to a 30 minute timestep to comply with the timestep of ORCHIDEE's 81 surface water and energy balance calculation period. Precipitation was partitioned into rainfall and snowfall, and a correction for wind-induced undercatch was also applied. 82 These are described in greater detail in Guimberteau et al. (2018). Over the simulation 83 84 period under this dataset, the Lena basin experiences a mean thaw period warming of 85 1.8° C, while atmospheric CO₂ concentrations increase by 85.6ppm. The GSWP3 dataset was chosen due to its relative performance in simulating the inter-annual variability and 86 seasonality of Pan-Arctic riverine discharge in ORCHIDEE-MICT (Guimberteau et al., 87 88 2018), as compared to another data-driven climate forcing product, CRUNCEP v7 (Kalnay et al., 1996; New et al., 1999). Indeed, under CRUNCEP v7, ORCHIDEE-MICT 89 90 was shown to underestimate river discharge by as much as 83% over the Yukon basin. 91 An improved floodplains area input file for the Lena basin (Tootchi et al., 2019) was 92 used to drive the simulation of floodplain dynamics (Supplement, Table S1). 93

94 3 Simulation Setup

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As detailed in Part 1 (Section 3.1), the soil carbon stock used by our model was
 reconstituted from a 20,000 year soil carbon spinup of an ORCHIDEE-MICT run from

98 Guimberteau et al. (2018) and run to quasi-steady state equilibrium for the Active and 99 Slow carbon pools (Supplement, Fig. S1b) under the new soil carbon scheme used in the 100 model configuration of the present study (Fig. 1). After some adjustment runs to account 101 for model read/write norms, the model was then run in transient mode under historical 102 climate, land cover and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (Fig. 1). Simulations were run 103 over the Lena river basin (Fig. 3a) for the climate, CO_2 and vegetation input forcing data (Supplement, Table S1) over 1901-2007 at a 1 degree resolution (Fig. 1), to evaluate the 104 105 simulated output of relevant carbon fluxes and hydrologic variables against their 106 observed values, as well as those of emergent phenomena arising from their interplay 107 (Fig. 1). We evaluate at the basin scale because the isolation of a single geographic unit 108 allows for a more refined analysis of simulated variables than doing the same over the 109 global Pan-Arctic, much of which remains poorly accounted for in empirical databases 110 and literature. The literature studies used in this evaluation are summarised in Table 111 S2. In order to derive an understanding of the environmental drivers of carbon cycling in 112 the Lena watershed and analyse the model sensitivity to the corresponding forcing data, 113 alternative simulations were run with constant climate and CO₂ conditions (Table 1, and 114 Supplement Table S1). Thus a factorial simulation was devised, consisting of 2 factors 115 and 3 simulations whose inputs were otherwise identical but for the investigated factor 116 (Table 1). 117

119 4 Results and Interpretation

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121 We refer to different simulations performed in this study according to the sensitivity 122 factors to which they are subjected. The transient, historical climate and atmospheric 123 CO2 -forced simulations are hereafter referred to as the "Control" (CTRL) scenario, for 124 ease of interpretation . The "CLIM" and "CO2" scenarios are those simulations for which 125 climate variability and atmospheric CO₂ were held constant at their pre-industrial levels, 126 respectively (Table 1). The following evaluation sections compare observations solely 127 against the CTRL. The subsequent section will evaluate this comparison against the 128 factorial simulations described above. The overall carbon budgets and their fluxes as 129 generated by each of the simulations are shown in Figs. 2 and 10 and discussed in detail 130 at the end of the evaluation. In the following we report first the broad results of model 131 simulations with respect to the carbon cycle, and follow with an evaluation of river 132 water and DOC discharge, DOC concentration and seasonality and river surface CO₂ 133 outgassing, against available empirical data. Evaluation of NPP and Soil Respiration, 134 which are not considered primary to this study, is covered in Supplementary Text S1.

4.1 Model Output: Carbon Budget136

Fig. 2 summarises the simulated components of the carbon (C) cycle across the Lena 137 basin, averaged over the decade 1998-2007. C inputs to terrestrial ecosystems are 138 139 dominated by photosynthetic input (GPP). GPP assimilates (875 TgC yr⁻¹) are either 140 used as metabolic substrate by plants and lost as CO_2 by plant respiration processes 141 (376 TgC yr¹) or soil respiration processes (465 TgC yr¹), leaving behind annual growth 142 in terrestrial C storage (net biome productivity (NBP)), an atmospheric CO₂ sink of 34 143 TgC yr⁻¹. Further C inputs are delivered to the terrestrial surface via a combination of atmospheric deposition, rainwater dissolved C, and the leaching of canopy C 144 compounds. These sum to a flux transported to the soil surface (4.6 TgC yr^{-1}) by 145 146 throughfall (see Part 1, Section 2.5).

Simon Bowring 24/10/y 18:45 Supprimé: 1 149 DOC in the soil solution as well as a fraction of dissolved CO₂ produced in the root zone 150 from root and microbial respiration is exported to rivers along the model's two hydrological export vectors, surface runoff and deep drainage (Part 1, Section 2.6). For 151 152 the Lena basin simulations, these fluxes of C exported from soils amount to 5.1 and 0.2 TgC yr⁻¹, for DOC and CO_2 respectively. Three water pools, representing streams, rivers 153 and groundwater and each containing dissolved CO₂ and well as DOC of different 154 155 reactivity, are routed through the landscape and between grid cells following the river 156 network in the catchment (Part 1, Section 2.7). In addition, seasonally flooded soils 157 located in low, flat grid cells next to the river network (see Part 1, Section 2.8) export DOC (0.57 TgC yr⁻¹) and CO_2 (1.54 TgC yr⁻¹) to the river network when their inundation 158 159 occurs. Part of this leached inundated material is re-infiltrated back into the soil from 160 the water column during floodplain recession ('Return' flux, 0.45 TgC yr⁻¹). During its 161 transport through inland waters, DOC can be decomposed into CO_2 (2.1 TgC yr⁻¹) and a fraction of river CO_2 produced from DOC and transferred from soil escapes to the 162 163 atmosphere (3.6TgC yr⁻¹) through gas exchange kinetics (Part 1, Section 2.10). This flux is termed ' CO_2 evasion' in Fig. 2 of this study. Carbon that survives the inland water 164 reactor is exported to the coastal ocean in the form of DOC $(3.16 \text{ TgC yr}^{-1})$ and CO₂ (0.26 m^{-1}) 165 166 TgC yr^{-1}). 167

168 4.2.1 Model Evaluation: River Discharge

170 Simulated river water discharge captures the key feature of Arctic river discharge - that of a massive increase in flow to \sim 80,000 m³s⁻¹ in April-June caused by melting snow and 171 172 ice, but underestimates observed river discharge in late summer by around 70% (Figs. 3c, 4b). In addition, the mean spring (June) discharge peak flows are slightly 173 174 underestimated or out of phase in simulations (Figs. 3c, 4b) compared to observations 175 (Ye et al., 2009): this is caused by a large amount of water throughput being simulated in May (~10,000 m³ s⁻¹) in excess of observed rates. Finally, during the winter low-flow 176 177 period, the model consistently under-estimates water flow-through volumes reaching 178 the river main stem (see Fig. 3c, winter months). Although this underestimate is not severe relative to annual bulk flows, the divergence is large as a percentage of 179 observations (see right-hand axis, Fig. 3c), and may point to an issue in how ice is 180 represented in the model, such as the fact that solid ice inclusions in the soil column are 181 182 not represented, or the possibility that much slower groundwater dynamics than those 183 represented in the model are feeding discharge. In addition to this, the presence of a 184 dam on the Vilui tributary of the Lena has been shown to reduce main stem winter low-185 flow rates by up to 90% (Ye et al., 2003), similar to the discrepancy of our low-flow 186 rates: given that our model only simulates 'natural' hydrological flows and thus does not 187 include dams, we expect that this effect is also at play. Causal factors for the apparently 188 poor performance of the hydrological module range from poor model representations 189 (or lack thereof), climatological dataset choices and deficiencies in evaluation datasets 190 themselves, and are covered in detail in the Supplement (Text S2). 191

192 4.2.2 Model Evaluation: DOC Annual Discharge

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194 Our CTRL simulation shows that the yearly sum of DOC output to the Arctic Ocean has
195 increased steadily over course of the 20th Century, from ~1.4Tg DOC-C yr-¹ in 1901 to
~4Tg DOC-C yr-¹ in 2007 (Fig. 4a). Smoothing the DOC discharge over a 30-year

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197 running mean shows that the increasing trend (Fig. 4a) over this averaging scale is

almost linear, at ~0.11TgC per decade, or a net increase of 40% using this averaging scale. Empirically based estimates of total contemporary DOC entering the Laptev Sea

199 scale. Empirically based estimates of total contemporary DOC entering the Laptev Sea 200 from Lena river discharge vary around ~2.5-5.8 TgC-DOC (Cauwet and Sidorov, 1996:

from Lena river discharge vary around ~2.5-5.8 TgC-DOC (Cauwet and Sidorov, 1996;
Dolman et al., 2012; Holmes et al., 2012; Lara et al., 1998; Raymond et al., 2007;

202 Semiletov et al., 2011).

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204 Note however that modelled aggregate DOC discharge is strongly affected by the 205 underestimation of river water discharge. Fig. 4a shows the average simulated DOC 206 discharge (red bar) of the last decade (1998-2007) of 3.2 TgC yr⁻¹, to be compared with estimates of 3.6 TgC yr⁻¹ (black bar) from Lara et al. (1998) and 5.8 TgC yr⁻¹ (orange bar) 207 208 from Raymond et al. (2007) and 5.7 TgC yr⁻¹ from Holmes et al. (2012). The most recent 209 and elaborate of those estimates is that of Holmes et al. (2012) who used a rating curve 210 approach based on 17 samples collected from 2003 to 2006 and covering the full 211 seasonal cycle, which was then applied to 10 years of daily discharge data (1999-2008) 212 for extrapolation. Given that their estimate is also based on Arctic-GRO-1/PARTNERS 213 data (https://www.arcticgreatrivers.org/data), which stands as the highest temporal resolution dataset to date, their estimate is likely the most accurate of the DOC discharge 214 215 estimates. Compared to their average annual estimate of 5.7 TgC yr¹, our simulated 216 DOC export is low by around 43%, due largely to the poor performance of the hydrology 217 module. The DOC discharge underestimate is discussed in depth in Supplement (Text 218 S2).

221 **4.3 Model Evaluation: DOC Concentrations in lateral transport**

223 While total DOC discharge captures the integral of biogeochemical processes leading tha 224 fluvial outflow, simulations of this are highly sensitive to the performance of modelled 225 hydrology and climatological input data. A more precise measure for the performance 226 of the newly-introduced DOC production and transport module, which is less sensitive 227 to reproduction of river water discharge, is DOC concentration. This is because while 228 the total amount of DOC entering river water depends on the amount of water available 229 as a vehicle for this flux (hydrology), the concentration of DOC depends on the rate of 230 soil carbon leaching, itself depending largely on the interaction of soil biogeochemistry 231 with primary production and climatic factors. This we evaluate in Figure 5a, This shows 232 that for the majority of the thaw period or growing season (April-September), which 233 corresponds to the period during which over 90% of DOC production and transport 234 occurs, the model largely tracks the observed seasonality of DOC concentrations in 235 Arctic-GRO data averaged over 1999-2007. There is a large overestimate of the DOC 236 concentration in May owing to inaccuracies in simulating the onset of the thaw period, 237 while the months June-September underestimate concentrations by an average of 18%. 238 On the other hand, frozen period (November-April) DOC concentrations are 239 underestimated by between \sim 30-500%. This is due to deficiencies in representing 240 wintertime soil hydrological water flow in the model, which impedes water flow when 241 the soil is frozen, as discussed in Section S2. Because of this deficiency, slow-moving 242 groundwater flows that contain large amounts of DOC leachate are under-represented. 243 This interpretation is supported by the fact that in both observations and simulations, at 244 low discharge rates (corresponding to wintertime), DOC concentrations exhibit a strong 245 positive correlation with river discharge, while this relationship becomes insignificant at

higher levels of river discharge (Fig. 5b). Thus wintertime DOC concentrations suffer
from the same deficiencies in model representation as those for water discharge. In
other words, the standalone representation of DOC leaching is satisfactory, while when
it is sensitive to river discharge, it suffers from the same shortfalls identified in Sections
S2 and S3. Modelled DOC concentrations in stream, river and ground water are
evaluated against data and discussed in the Supplement (Text S5).

253 **4.4 In-Stream CO₂ Production, Transport, Evasion** 254

255 In our model, the fate of DOC once it enters the fluvial system is either to remain as DOC and be exported to the ocean, or to be degraded to dissolved CO_2 ($CO_{2(aq.)}$), which is 256 257 itself either also transported to the marine system or outgassed from the fluvial surface to the atmosphere (see Part 1, Section 2.10 and Text S6). As noted in Part 1 of this study, 258 259 although the model as a whole conducts simulations at the 1 degree scale, the routing of 260 water and carbon, as well as the evasion of the latter, occurs at the sub-grid scale, such 261 that we are able to simulate spatially explicit rivers whose size approximates Strahler 262 order 4, and through the 'fast' water pool in the model are able to simulate streams of 263 Strahler order 1-3. The seasonality of riverine dissolved CO_2 concentrations ($CO_{2(ac_1)}$, 264 mgC L⁻¹) is evaluated in Fig. 4c to compare $CO_{2(aq.)}$ concentrations with DOC bulk flows, 265 since CO_{2(aq.)} concentrations follow an inverse seasonal pattern to those of DOC, being 266 highest during the winter baseflow period and lowest in summer due to dilution during 267 its high discharge phase (Semiletov et al., 2011). The simulated flow of $CO_{2(ac.)}$ at Kusur 268 (Fig. 4c, dashed red) reproduces the seasonality of observations from Cauwet and 269 Sidorov (1996), who sampled the Lower Lena (Fig. 3a), but somewhat underestimates 270 concentrations. Also included in Fig. 4c is the basin average for all non-zero values, 271 whose shape also tracks that of observations. Thus the model represents on the one 272 hand increasing hydrological flow mobilising increasing quantities and concentrations 273 of DOC while on the other hand those same increasing hydrological flows increasing the 274 flux, but decreasing the concentration, of $\text{CO}_{2(\text{aq.})}$ throughput. 275

276 Evaluation of modelled CO_2 evasion is beset by problems, not least that no data on this 277 quantity have to our knowledge been recorded for the Lena (see Text S6). Figure 6 278 summarises some of the results from the simulated water body CO₂ outgassing flux. 279 Year-on-year variation in basin-wide evasion from river, stream and floodplain sources 280 combined exhibits a marked increasing trend over the course of the 20th Century, 281 increasing from a minimum of \sim 1.6 TgCO₂-C yr⁻¹ in 1901 to a maximum of \sim 4.4 TgCO₂-C 282 yr⁻¹ in 2007 (+300%, Fig. 7a). Smoothing the data over a 30 year running average yields 283 a dampened net increase in basin-wide evasion of $\sim 30\%$ (Fig. 7a). Thus yearly evasion 284 flux is some 105% of yearly DOC discharge to the coast from the Lena basin and 51% of 285 C exported from soils to headwaters as CO_2 or DOC. If we compare the mean yearly rate of increase in absolute (TgC yr¹) CO₂ evasion and DOC discharge based on linear 286 regression over the whole simulation period, it appears that the rate of increase of both 287 fluxes has been strikingly similar over the simulated 20th Century, with mean increases 288 289 of 11.1 GgC yr⁻¹ and 11.5 GgC yr⁻¹ per year for evasion and export, respectively. A 290 summary and evaluation of the source and seasonal heterogeneity of evasion is 291 discussed in the Text S7.

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294 As previously discussed, the proportion of total basin-wide CO₂ evasion attributable to

295 headwater streams and rivers is substantially greater than their proportion of total 296 basin surface area. Figure 6b represents the mean monthly fractional contribution of 297 each surface hydrological water pool to the total evasion flux (unitless) over the period 298 1998-2007. This shows that over the entirety of the thaw period, the stream water pool 299 takes over from the river water pool as the dominant evasion source, particularly at the 300 height of the freshet period, where its fractional contribution rises to >75%. The stream fraction of August outgassing is \sim 57% of the annual total, which is higher than the 301 302 \sim 40% found for streams in Denfeld et al. (2013). However, the values between the two 303 studies are not directly comparable, different basins notwithstanding, due to differences 304 between how 'streams' are defined in the model and in the field (expanded on in Text 305 S8). Also shown in Fig. 6b is the gradual onset of evasion from the floodplain reservoir in 306 April, as the meltwater driven surge in river outflow leads to soil inundation and the 307 gradual increase of proportional evasion from these flooded areas over the course of the 308 summer, with peaks in June-August as water temperatures over these flooded areas 309 likewise peak. We stress the importance of these simulation results as they concur with 310 large numbers of observational studies (cited above) which show smaller headwater 311 streams' disproportionately large contribution to total outgassing (Fig. 7c), this being due to their comparatively high outgassing rates (Fig. 7e). In addition, the contribution 312 313 of floodplains to evasion, an otherwise rarely studied feature of high latitude biomes, is 314 shown here to be significant. A Hovmöller plot (Fig. 7d) of the monthly longitude-315 averaged stream reservoir fraction of total evasion, allows us to infer that: (i) The 316 dominance of stream evasion begins in the most southern upstream headwaters in the lower latitude thaw period (April-May), and trickles northward over the course of the 317 318 next two months, following the riverflow. (ii) The intensity of this evasion is greatest in 319 the lower latitude regions of the basin, which we speculate is the result of higher 320 temperatures causing a greater proliferation of small thaw water-driven flows and 321 evasion. (iii) Areas where the stream fraction is not dominant or only briefly dominant 322 during the summer (58-60°N, 63-64°N, 70-71°N) are all areas where floodplain CO₂ 323 evasion plays a prominent role at that latitudinal band. 324

325 We evaluate the approximate rate of modelled areal CO_2 efflux from the water surface 326 against observations from Denfeld et al. (2013). (The 'approximate' caveat is treated in 327 the Supplementary Text S9). The comparison of simulated results with those from 328 Denfeld et al. (2013) are displayed in Fig. 6d, which shows boxplots for simulated CO_2 329 evasion from the stream water reservoir and river water reservoir averaged over 1998-330 2007. The empirical (Kolyma river) analogue of this data, from which this plot is 331 inspired (Fig. 4d in Denfeld et al., 2013), is shown in inset. Median efflux was 1.1 (6) 332 versus 0.4 (0.8) for stream and river, respectively, in simulations (observations). Like 333 the observations, simulated stream efflux had a substantially greater interquartile range, 334 mean (24.6) and standard deviation (73) than total river efflux (1.3 and 7.2, 335 respectively). 336

337 4.5.Emergent Phenomena: DOC and topographic slope, MAAT

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Subsurface water infiltration fluxes and transformations of dissolved matter represent
an important, if poorly understood and observationally under-represented
biogeochemical pathway of DOC export to river main stems, involving the complex
interplay of slope, parent material, temperature, permafrost material age and soil
physical-chemical processes, such as adsorption and priming. In the Lena basin, as in

344 other permafrost catchments, topographic slope has been shown to be a powerful 345 predictor for water infiltration depth, and concentration and age of DOC (Jasechko et al., 346 2016; Kutscher et al., 2017; McGuire et al., 2005), with deeper flow paths and older, 347 lower DOC-concentrated waters found as the topographic slope increases. This 348 relationship was shown in Fig. 4 of Kutscher et al. (2017) who surveyed DOC concentrations across a broad range of slope angle values in the Lena basin and found a 349 350 distinct negative relationship between the two. Comparing the Kutscher et al. (2017) 351 values with our model output, by plotting stream and river DOC concentrations 352 averaged per gridpoint over 1998-2007 against the topographic map used in the routing scheme (Fig. 8) we find a similar negative relationship between the two variables. The 353 causes of this relationship and a discussion of the model's ability to represent it are 354 355 discussed in Supplementary Text S10. A positive, non-linear relationship between DOC 356 and mean annual air temperature (MAAT), discussed in prior empirical studies, is also 357 reproduced by the model (Fig. 7) and discussed in the Supplement Text S11. 358

359 4.6 DOC Reactivity Pools

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Here we examine the reactivity of DOC leached from the soil and litter to different hydrological export pools. Surface runoff DOC export is dominated by refractory carbon (Fig. 9), with export rates largely following discharge rates as they drain the basin with an increasing delay when latitude increases. As the thaw period gets underway (April), the fraction of labile carbon in surface runoff DOC increases substantially from south to north, reflecting the hydrologic uptake of the previous year's un-decomposed highreactivity organic matter.

369 Refractory C-dominated drainage DOC export (Fig. 9) is highest in June through 370 October, with refractory export rate intensities per latitudinal band during this period 371 consistent with the fraction of inundated area (Fig. S1b) over these bands during the 372 year. The high refractory proportion of drainage flow is expected, as drainage leaches 373 older, relict soil and litter matter. Because of its longer residence time within the soil 374 column, labile DOC carried downward via soil infiltration will tend to be metabolised in 375 situ before it can be exported to the hydrological network, further increasing the 376 proportion of refractory carbon. By contrast floodplain DOC export (Fig. 9) is composed 377 of more nuanced mix of both reactivity classes, reflecting its relatively greater 378 dependence on the current year's 'fresh' biomass as source material (62% labile DOC 379 versus 38% refractory DOC, year-averaged) for carbon leaching. 380

381 For both the river and stream pool, mean DOC concentrations are dominated by 382 refractory carbon sources. When averaged over the year, the dominance of the 383 refractory DOC carbon pool over its labile counterpart is also evident for all DOC inputs 384 to the hydrological routing except for floodplain inputs, as well as within the 'flowing' 385 stream and river pools themselves. This is shown in Table 2, where the year-averaged 386 percentage of each carbon component of the total input or reservoir is subdivided 387 between the 'North' and 'South' of the basin, these splits being arbitrarily imposed as the 388 latitudinal mid-point of the basin itself (63N). This reinforces the generalised finding 389 from our simulations that refractory carbon dominates runoff and drainage inflows to 390 rivers (89% refractory, on average), while floodplains export mostly labile DOC to the 391 basin (64%), these values being effectively independent of this latitudinal sub-division 392 (Table 2). Nonetheless, there is a small consistent difference between North and South

393 in stream and river water DOC makeup, in that the labile portion decreases between

North and South ; this may be an attenuated reflection of the portion of labile DOC that is

395 decomposed to CO_2 within the water column during its transport northward, affecting

396 the bulk average proportions contained within the water in each 'hemisphere'.

398 **5 Discussion**399

400 5.1 Land-Ocean Aquatic Continuum (LOAC)

401 **5.1.1 LOAC Fluxes**

402 403 Overall, our simulation results show that dissolved carbon entering the Lena river 404 system is significantly transformed during its transport to the ocean. Taking the average 405 throughput of carbon into the system over the last ten years of our simulation, our 406 results show that whereas 7 TgC yr¹ (after reinfiltration following flooding of 0.45 TgC 407 yr-1; see Fig. 2 'Return' flux) of carbon enters the Lena from terrestrial sources as 408 dissolved carbon and CO₂, only 3.4 TgC yr⁻¹ is discharged into the Laptev Sea and beyond from the river mouth. The remainder (3.6TgC yr⁻¹) is metabolised in the water column 409 during transport and evaded to the atmosphere (bottom panel, Fig. 10). The terrestrial 410 411 DOC inflow estimate is comparable to that made by Kicklighter et al. (2013), who 412 estimated in a modelling study terrestrial dissolved carbon loading of the Lena is \sim 7.7 413 TgC yr⁻¹.

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415 The relative quantities of carbon inflow, evasion and outflow in the river system that are 416 presented for the Lena in Fig. 10 can be compared to the same relative quantities -that is, the ratios of evasion:in and out:in, where 'in' refers to dissolved terrestrial input, -417 from the global study by Cole et al. (2007), who estimated these fluxes from empirical or 418 419 empirically-derived data at the global scale. This is shown in the top panel of Fig. 10, 420 where we simplify the Cole et al. (2007) data to exclude global groundwater CO_2 flux 421 from the coast to the ocean (because our basin mask has a single coastal pixel whereas 422 coastal groundwater seepage is distributed along the entire continental boundary) and 423 the POC fraction of in-river transport and sedimentation (since ORCHIDEE MICT lacks a 424 POC erosion/sedimentation module) from their budget.

425 426 This gives global terrestrial dissolved carbon input of 1.45 PgC yr⁻¹, 0.7 PgC of which is 427 discharged to the ocean, and the other 0.75 PgC evaded to the atmosphere. Taking the 428 previously mentioned [evasion:in] and [out:in] ratios as a percentage, the outflow and 429 evasion fluxes for the Lena versus the global aggregate are remarkably similar, at 48.6 vs. 48.3% and 51.4 vs 51.7%, for the two respective flows. Thus our results agree with 430 431 the proposition that the riverine portion of the 'land-ocean aquatic continuum' (Regnier et al., 2013) or 'boundless carbon cycle' (Battin et al., 2009) is indeed a substantial 432 reactor for matter transported along it. The drivers of changes in CO₂ and DOC export 433 434 from the soil over the simulation period (temperature and precipitation versus CO_2), 435 which we extract from our constant climate and CO_2 factorial simulations discussed in 436 the Simulation Setup, are similar, if somewhat dominated by temperature (Text S12).

438 **5.1.2 LOAC export flux considerations**

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440 Despite our simulations' agreement with observations regarding the proportional fate of 441 terrestrial DOC inputs as evasion and marine export (Fig. 10), our results suggest 442 substantial and meaningful differences in the magnitude of those fluxes relative to NPP

443 in the Lena, compared to those estimated by other studies in temperate or tropical

444 biomes. Our simulations' cumulative DOC and CO₂ export from the terrestrial realm into

445 inland waters is equivalent to ~ 1.5 % of NPP.

447 This is considerably lower than Cole et al. (2007) and Regnier et al. (2013) who find 448 lateral transfer to approximate $\sim 5\%$ (1.9PgC yr⁻¹) of NPP at the global scale, while 449 Lauerwald et al. (2017) found similar rates for the Amazon. The cause of this 450 discrepancy with our results is beyond the scope of this study to definitively address, 451 given the lack of tracers for carbon source and age in our model. Nonetheless, our 452 analysis leads us to hypothesise the following.

454 Temperature limitation of soil microbial respiration at the end of the growing season 455 (approaching zero by October, SI Fig. S4d) makes this flux neglible from November 456 through May (SI Fig. S4d). In late spring, mobilisation of organic carbon is performed by 457 both microbial respiration and leaching of DOC via runoff and drainage water fluxes. 458 However, because the latter are controlled by the initial spring meltwater flux period, 459 which occurs before the growing season has had time to produce litter or new soil carbon (May-June, Fig. 4b), aggregate yearly DOC transport reactivity is characterised by 460 461 the available plant matter from the previous year, which is overwhelmingly derived 462 from recalcitrant soil matter (Fig. 9) and is itself less available for leaching based on soil 463 carbon residence times.

465 This causes relatively low leaching rates and riverine DOC concentrations (e.g. Fig. 7), as compared to the case of leaching from the same year's biological production. 466 Highlighting this point is floodplain domination by labile carbon sourced from that 467 468 year's production with a mean DOC concentration of 12.4 mgC L-1 (1998-2007 average), 469 with mean riverine DOC concentrations around half that value (6.9 mgC L-1). 470 Nonetheless the May-June meltwater pulse period dominates aggregate DOC discharge. 471 As this pulse rapidly subsides by late July, so does the leaching and transport of organic 472 matter. Warmer temperatures come in conjunction with increased primary production 473 and the temperature driven soil heterotrophic degradation of contemporary and older 474 matter (via active layer deepening). These all indicate that transported dissolved matter 475 in rivers, at least at peak outflow, is dominated by sources originating in the previous year's primary production, that was literally 'frozen out' of more complete 476 477 decomposition by soil heterotrophs. 478

Further, we infer from the fact that all of our simulation grid cells fall within areas of low (<-2°C) MAAT, far below the threshold MAAT (>3°C) proposed by Laudon et al. (2012) for soil respiration-dominated carbon cycling systems (Fig. 7), that the Lena is hydrologically-limited with respect to DOC concentration and its lateral flux. Indeed, the seasonal discharge trend of the Lena –massive snowmelt-driven hydrological and absolute DOC flux, coupled with relatively low DOC concentrations at the river mouth (Fig. 4b, simulation data of Fig. 7), are in line with the Laudon et al. (2012) typology.

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We therefore suggest that relatively low lateral transport relative to primary production
rates (e.g. as a percentage of net primary production, (%NPP)) in our simulations
compared to the lateral transport : NPP percentages reported from the literature in
other biomes is driven by meltwater (vs. precipitation) dominated DOC mobilisation,

which occurs during a largely pre-litter deposition period of the growing season. DOC is
then less readily mobilised by being sourced from recalcitrant matter, leading to low
leaching concentrations relative to those from labile material. As discharge rates
decline, the growing season reaches its peak, leaving carbon mobilisation of fresh

495 organic matter to be overwhelmingly driven by in situ heterotrophic respiration.

497 While we have shown that bulk DOC fluxes scale linearly to bulk discharge flows (Fig. 498 3d), DOC concentrations (mgC L-1) hold a more complex and weaker positive 499 relationship with discharge rates, with correlation coefficients (R^2) of 0.05 and 0.25 for 500 river and stream DOC concentrations, respectively (Fig. 11). This implies that while increasing discharge reflects increasing runoff and an increasing vector for DOC 501 502 leaching, particularly in smaller tributary streams, by the time this higher input of 503 carbon reaches the river main stem there is a confounding effect of dilution by increased 504 water fluxes which reduces DOC concentrations, explaining the difference between 505 stream and river discharge vs. DOC concentration regressions in the Figure. Thus, and 506 as a broad generalisation, with increasing discharge rates we can also expect somewhat higher concentrations of terrestrial DOC input to streams and rivers. Over the 507 508 floodplains. DOC concentrations hold no linear relationship with discharge rates 509 $(R^2=0.003$, SI Fig. S11), largely reflecting the fact that DOC leaching is here limited by 510 terrestrial primary production rates more than by hydrology. To the extent that 511 floodplains fundamentally require flooding and hence do depend on floodwater inputs 512 at a primary level, we hypothesise that DOC leaching rates are not limited by that water 513 input, at least over the simulated Lena basin.

515 As discussed above simulated DOC and CO₂ export as a percentage of simulated NPP over the Lena basin was 1.5% over 1998-2007. However, this proportion appears to be 516 517 highly dynamic at the decadal timescale. As shown in Fig. S12, all lateral flux 518 components in our simulations increased their relative throughput at a rate double to 519 triple that of NPP or respiration fluxes over the 20th century, also doing so at a rate 520 substantially higher than the rate increase in discharge. In addition, differentials of 521 these lateral flux rates with the rates of their drivers (discharge, primary production) 522 have on average increased over the century (Fig. S12). This suggests that there are 523 potential additive effects of the production and discharge drivers of lateral fluxes that 524 could lead to non-linear responses to changes in these drivers as the Arctic environment 525 transforms, as suggested by the Laudon et al. (2012) data plotted in Fig. 4. Acceleration 526 of the hydrological cycle compounded by temperature and CO_2 -driven increases in primary production could therefore increase the amount of matter available for 527 528 leaching, increase the carbon concentration of leachate, and increase the aggregate 529 generation of runoff to be used as a DOC transport vector. Given that these causal 530 dynamics apply generally to permafrost regions, both low lateral flux as %NPP and the 531 hypothesised response of those fluxes to future warming may be a feature particular to 532 most high latitude river basins.

534 6. Conclusion

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This study has shown that the new DOC-representing high latitude model version of
ORCHIDEE, ORCHIDEE MICT-LEAK, is able to reproduce with reasonable accuracy
modern concentrations, rates and absolute fluxes of carbon in dissolved form, as well as
the relative seasonality of these quantities through the year. When combined with a

Simon Bowring 24/10/y 18:43 Supprimé: 3 541 reasonable reproduction of real-world stream, river and floodplain dynamics, we 542 demonstrate that this model is a potentially powerful new tool for diagnosing and 543 reproducing past, present and potentially future states of the Arctic carbon cycle. Our 544 simulations show that of the 34 TgC yr⁻¹ remaining after GPP is respired autotrophically and heterotrophically in the Lena basin, over one-fifth of this captured carbon is 545 removed into the aquatic system. Of this, over half is released to the atmosphere from 546 547 the river surface during its period of transport to the ocean, in agreement with previous 548 empirically-derived global-scale studies. Both this transport and its transformation are 549 therefore non-trivial components of the carbon system at these latitudes that we have 550 shown are sensitive to changes in temperature, precipitation and atmospheric CO_2 551 concentration. Our results, in combination with empirical data, further suggest that 552 changes to these drivers -in particular climate -may provoke non-linear responses in 553 the transport and transformation of carbon across the terrestrial-aquatic system's 554 interface as change progresses in an Arctic environment increasingly characterised by 555 amplified warming. 556

557 Code and data availability

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The source code for ORCHIDEE MICT-LEAK revision 5459 is available via
 <u>http://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/orchidee/wiki/GroupActivities/CodeAvalaibilityPublication/</u>
 <u>ORCHIDEE_gmd-2018-MICT-LEAK_r5459</u>

Primary data and scripts used in the analysis and other supplementary information that
may be useful in reproducing the author's work can be obtained by contacting the
corresponding author.

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572 Authors' contribution

SB coded this model version, conducted the simulations and wrote the main body of the 573 574 paper. RL gave consistent input to the coding process and made numerous code 575 improvements and bug fixes. BG advised on the inclusion of priming processes in the 576 model and advised on the study design and model configuration; DZ gave input on the 577 modelled soil carbon processes and model configuration. PR contributed to the 578 interpretation of results and made substantial contributions to the manuscript text. MG, 579 AT and AD contributed to improvements in hydrological representation and floodplain 580 forcing data. PC oversaw all developments leading to the publication of this study. All 581 authors contributed to suggestions regarding the final content of the study.

583 **Competing interests**

584 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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678 Tables and Figures:679

Table 1: Summary describing of the factorial simulations undertaken to examine therelative drivers of lateral fluxes in our model.

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Abbreviation	Historical Input Data	Input* Held Constant
CTRL	Climate, CO2, Vegetation	None
CLIM	CO2, Vegetation	Climate
CO2	Climate, Vegetation	CO2 (Pre-industrial)
	Abbreviation CTRL CLIM CO2	AbbreviationHistorical Input DataCTRLClimate, CO2, VegetationCLIMCO2, VegetationCO2Climate, Vegetation

*Historically-variable input

 Table 2: Summary of the average carbon reactivity types comprising the hydrological

inputs to rivers and streams (runoff, drainage and floodplain inputs), and within the rivers and streams themselves, subdivided between the 'North' and 'South' of the Lena basin (greater or less than 63N, respectively).

Hydrological Source	Model Carbon Reactivity Pool	North	South
Runoff Input	Refractory	81%	83%
	Labile	19%	17%
Drainage Input	Refractory	96%	94%
	Labile	4%	6%
Flood Input	Refractory	36%	37%
	Labile	64%	63%
Streams	Refractory	91%	89%
	Labile	9%	11%
Rivers	Refractory	92%	90%
	Labile	8%	10%



Figure 1: Flow diagram illustrating the step-wise stages required to set up the model, up to and including the historical period. The two stages that refer to the inverted reading of restart soil profile order point to the fact that the restart inputs from ORCHIDEE-MICT are read by our model in inverse order, so that one year must be run in

696 which an activated flag reads it properly, before the reading of soil profile restarts is re-

697 inverted for all subsequent years.

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Figure 2: Schematic diagrams detailing the major yearly carbon flux outputs (TgC yr⁻¹) from the Control simulation averaged over the period 1998-2007 as they are transformed and transported across the land-aquatic continuum.











709 Figure 3: Map of the Lena (a) with the scale bar showing the mean grid cell topographic 710 711 slope from the simulation, and the black line the satellite-derived overlay of the river 712 main stem and sub-basins. Mountain ranges of the Lena basin are shown in orange. 713 Green circles denote the outflow gridcell (Kusur) from which our simulation outflow 714 data are derived, as well as the Zhigansk site, from which out evaluation against data 715 from Raymond et al. (2007) are assessed. The regional capital (Yakutsk) is also included 716 for geographic reference. Coastal outline and inland water bodies are shown as dashed red and solid black lines, respectively. (b) Maps of river water discharge (log(m³ s⁻¹)) in 717 April, June and September, averaged over 1998-2007. (c) The mean monthly river 718 719 discharge differential between observed discharge for the Lena (Ye et al., 2009) and 720 simulated discharge averaged over 1998-2007, in absolute (m³ s⁻¹) and percentage 721 terms. (d) Regression of simulated monthly DOC discharge versus simulated river 722 discharge at the river mouth (Kusur) over the entire simulation period (1901-2007). 723





729 (c)





732 Figure 4: (a) Yearly DOC discharged from the Lena river into the Laptev sea is shown 733 here in tC yr⁻¹, over the entire simulation period (dashed red line), with the smoothed, 734 30-year running mean shown in asterisk. Observation based estimates for DOC 735 discharge from Lara et al. (1998), Raymond et al. (2007), Dolman et al. (2012) and 736 Holmes et al. (2012) are shown by the horizontal black, green triangle, blue diamond 737 and yellow circle line colours and symbols, respectively, and are to be compared against 738 the simulated mean over the last decade of simulation (1998-2007, horizontal red line), 739 with error bars added in grey displaying the standard deviation of simulated values over 740 that period. (b) Average monthly DOC discharge (solid red, tC month⁻¹) and water 741 discharge (dashed red, m³ s⁻¹) to the Laptev Sea over the period averaged for 1901-1910 742 (circles) and 1997-2007 (squares) are compared, with modern maxima closely tracking 743 observed values. Observed water discharge over 1936-2000 from R-ArcticNet v.4 744 (Lammers et al., 2001) and published in Ye et al. (2009) are shown by the dashed black line. (c) Observed (black) and simulated (red) seasonal DOC fluxes (solid lines) and CO₂ 745 746 discharge concentrations (dashed lines). Observed DOC discharge as published in Raymond et al. (2007) from 2004-2005 observations at Zhigansk, a site ~500km 747 748 upstream of the Lena delta. This is plotted against simulated discharge for: (i) the Lena 749 delta at Kusur (red circles) and (ii) the approximate grid pixel corresponding to the 750 Zhigansk site (red squares) averaged over 1998-2008. Observed CO₂ discharge from a 751 downstream site (Cauwet & Sidorov, 1996; dashed black), and simulated from the 752 outflow site (dashed circle) and the basin average (dashed square) are shown on the 753 log-scale right-hand axis for 1998-2008.



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Figure 5: (a) Simulated and observed (Arctic-GRO/Holmes et al., 2012) DOC 756 concentration seasonality for the Lena basin over the period 1999-2007. (b) Plots of 757 DOC concentration versus river discharge as in observations (Raymond et al., 2007) and 758 simulations, where simulations data points are monthly averages taken over the period 759 1999-2007

- 760 761
- 762 (a)









776 the 30-year running mean of the same variable overlain in thick red (asterisk). Error 777 bars give the standard deviation of each decade (e.g. 1901-1910) for each data point in 778 that decade. (b) The fraction of total CO₂ evasion emitted from each of the hydrological 779 pools for the average of each month over the period 1998-2007 is shown for river, flood 780 and stream pools (blue, green and red lines, respectively), with error bars depicting the 781 standard deviation of data values for each month displayed. (c) Hovmöller diagram 782 showing the monthly evolution of the stream pool fraction (range 0-1) per month and 783 per latitudinal band, averaged over the period 1998-2007. (d) Boxplot for approximate 784 (see text) simulated CO₂ evasion (gC m⁻² d⁻¹) from the streamwater reservoir and river 785 water reservoir averaged over 1998-2007. Coloured boxes denote the first and third 786 quartiles of the data range, internal black bars the median. Whiskers give the mean 787 (solid red bar) and standard deviation (dashed red bar) of the respective data. 788 Empirical data on these quantities using the same scale for rivers, streams and 789 mainstem of the Kolyma river from Denfeld et al., 2013 are shown inset. 790

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Figure 7: Mean summertime DOC concentrations (mgC L-1) plotted against mean annual 794 air temperature (MAAT, °Celsius) for simulated pixels over the Lena river basin (red 795 circles), and observations for largely peat-influenced areas in western Siberia as 796 reported in Frey et al., 2009 (black crosses), and observations from a global non-peat 797 temperate and high latitude meta-analysis (black circles) reported in Laudon et al. 798 (2012). The blue region represents permafrost-affected areas, while the orange region 799 represents permafrost-free areas. The green region bounds the area of overlap in MAAT 800 between the observed and simulated datasets. The dark red shaded area corresponds to 801 the MAAT 'zone of optimality' for DOC production and transport proposed by Laudon et

al. (2012). Regression curves of DOC against MAAT for each of the separate datasets are

shown for each individual dataset.



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Figure 8: Variation of DOC concentrations versus topographic slope in Kutscher et al., 2017 (black triangles) and (red dots) as simulated and averaged for the summer months (JJA) over 1998-2007; observed values were measured during June and July 2012-2013.

(a)









819Figure 10: Simplified 'leaky pipe' diagram representing the transport and processing of820DOC within the land-ocean hydrologic continuum. The scheme template is taken from821Cole et al. (2007), where we reproduce their global estimate of DOC and non-822groundwater discharge portion of this flow in the top panel (PgC yr⁻¹), and the823equivalent flows from our Lena basin simulations in TgC yr⁻¹ in the bottom panel. Thus824easy comparison would look at the relative fluxes within each system and compare them825to the other.





Figure 11; Simulated basin-mean annual DOC concentrations (mg L⁻¹) for the stream

and river water pools regressed against mean annual simulated discharge rates (m³ s⁻¹)
at Kusur over 1901-2007. Linear regression plots with corresponding R² values are
shown.

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