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## Temporal deconvolution of vascular plant-derived fatty acids exported from terrestrial watersheds

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### Abstract

Relatively little is known about the amount of time that lapses between the photosynthetic fixation of carbon by vascular land plants and its incorporation into the marine sedimentary record, yet the dynamics of terrestrial carbon sequestration have important implications for the carbon cycle. Vascular plant carbon may encounter multiple potential intermediate storage pools and transport trajectories, and the age of vascular plant carbon accumulating in marine sediments will reflect these different pre-depositional histories. Here, we examine down-core <sup>14</sup>C profiles of higher plant leaf wax-derived fatty acids isolated from high fidelity sedimentary sequences spanning the so-called “bomb-spike”, and encompassing a ca. 60-degree latitudinal gradient from tropical (Cariaco Basin), temperate (Saanich Inlet), and polar (Mackenzie Delta) watersheds to constrain integrated vascular plant carbon storage/transport times (“residence times”).

Using a modeling framework, we find that, in addition to a “young” (conditionally defined as < 50 y) carbon pool, an old pool of compounds comprises 49 to 78 % of the fractional contribution of organic carbon (OC) and exhibits variable ages reflective of the environmental setting. For the Mackenzie Delta sediments, we find a mean age of the old pool of 28 ky (±9.4, standard deviation), indicating extensive pre-aging in permafrost soils, whereas the old pools in Saanich Inlet and Cariaco Basin sediments are younger, 7.9 (±5.0) and 2.4 (±0.50) to 3.2 (±0.54) ky, respectively, indicating less protracted storage in terrestrial reservoirs. The “young” pool showed clear annual contributions for Saanich Inlet and Mackenzie Delta sediments (comprising 24% and 16% of this pool, respectively), likely reflecting episodic transport of OC from steep hillside slopes surrounding Saanich Inlet and annual spring flood deposition in the Mackenzie Delta, respectively. Contributions of 5–10 year old OC to the Cariaco Basin show a short delay of OC inflow, potentially related to transport time to the offshore

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basin. Modeling results also indicate that the Mackenzie Delta has an influx of young but decadal material (20–30 years of age), pointing to the presence of an intermediate reservoir.

Overall, these results show that a significant fraction of vascular plant C undergoes pre-aging in terrestrial reservoirs prior to accumulation in deltaic and marine sediments. The age distribution, reflecting both storage and transport times, likely depends on landscape-specific factors such as local topography, hydrographic characteristics, and mean annual temperature of the catchment, all of which affect the degree of soil buildup and preservation. We show that catchment-specific carbon residence times across landscapes can vary by an order of magnitude, with important implications both for carbon cycle studies and for the interpretation of molecular terrestrial paleoclimate records preserved in sedimentary sequences.

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**Keywords:** Terrestrial carbon; Organic matter; Radiocarbon; Leaf waxes; Sediment; Residence time

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The transfer of organic matter from continents to the sea by rivers (Hedges et al., 1997; Keil et al., 1997; Raymond and Bauer, 2001) and wind (Gagosian and Peltzer, 1986; Conte and Weber, 2002) involves a myriad of processes that collectively are linked to the evolution of Earth's climate through the regulation of carbon, oxygen, and nutrient cycles (Bernier, 1989; Crowley, 1995). These processes are likely to also play an important role in future climate change (Fig. 1). Rivers alone supply enough dissolved and particulate organic carbon (DOC and POC, respectively) to the ocean on an annual basis to account for the turnover of all DOC in the oceans and all POC accumulating in underlying sediments, yet little (<10%) land-derived material is found in either reservoir (Hedges et al., 1997; Schlunz and Schneider, 2000; Martin et al., 2013). Although remineralisation is clearly the primary fate of land-derived organic carbon (OC) delivered to the marine environment is remineralisation (Burdige, 2005), implying that only a small portion of the OC derived

from terrestrial photosynthesis is buried, this minor “leakage” of carbon from the biosphere to the geosphere forms a significant carbon sink with long-term carbon cycle implications (Galy et al., 2007; Hilton et al., 2015), and yields a valuable window into past dynamics of the terrestrial biosphere.

Organic matter storage within, and transfer between, intermediate pools (e.g., soils or floodplain sediments) likely exerts a strong influence on the overall timescales of transmission of OC from biological source to sedimentary sink, the nature of exported OM as well as the overall efficiency of OC translocation. The non-contemporary (aged, or “pre-aged”) radiocarbon signatures (i.e.,  $^{14}\text{C}$  age older than 1950) of certain DOC and especially POC fractions in an array of soils (Trumbore and Harden, 1997; Lichtfouse, 1999; Rethemeyer et al., 2004; van der Voort et al., 2017), rivers and estuaries (Raymond and Bauer, 2001; Goñi et al., 2005; Galy and Eglinton, 2011; Tao et al., 2015), and oceanic settings proximal to continental margins (Goñi et al., 2005; Drenzek et al., 2007, 2009; Griffith et al., 2010; Walker et al., 2014; Tao et al., 2016; Bröder

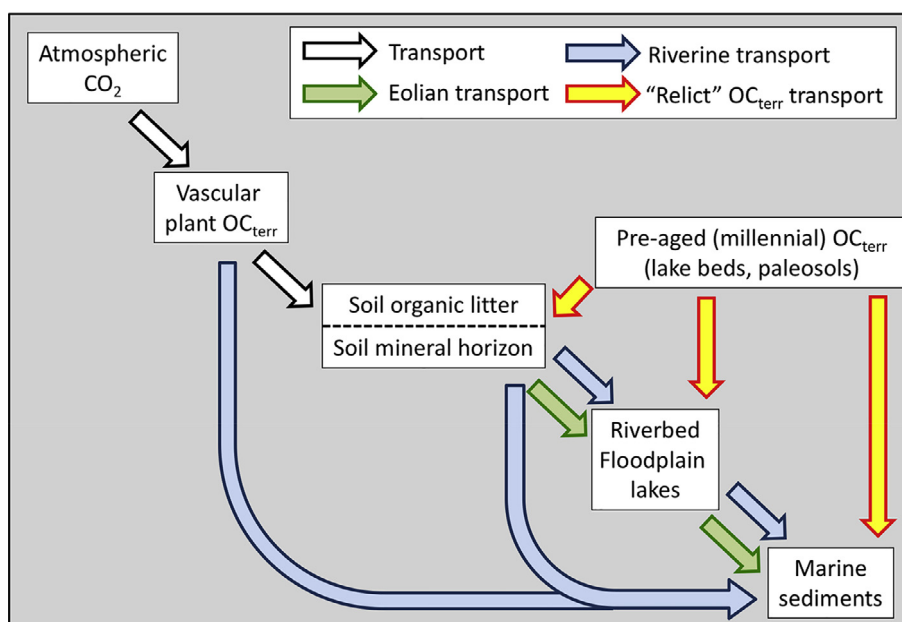


Fig. 1. Simplified schematic of potential transport pathways and intermediate storage reservoirs of terrestrial organic carbon (OC<sub>terr</sub>) from biological source to marine sedimentary sink. Note that pre-aged OC (petrogenic or biospheric) also originates from atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and vascular plant OC but arrows are not shown here.

et al., 2018) must at least partly reflect these storage and transport times. However, such  $^{14}\text{C}$  depletions may also reflect the presence of petrogenic material weathered from ancient sedimentary rocks that has resisted complete destruction by diagenetic and catagenetic forces for millions of years (Yunker et al., 2002; Goñi et al., 2005; Drenzek et al., 2007; 2009; Galy et al., 2008; Hilton et al., 2011; Van der Voort et al., 2017). In contrast to the burial of OC from the terrestrial biosphere, the exhumation and reburial of petrogenic OC has no net effect on atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (Galy et al., 2008). Therefore, differentiating between petrogenic OC and vascular plant OC is crucial in assessing residence times of the latter, and bears directly upon our understanding of carbon cycle processes.

While  $^{14}\text{C}$  measurements on bulk OC typically integrate signatures from several OC sources (e.g., vascular plant and petrogenic inputs), isotopic measurements on source-diagnostic organic compounds (biomarkers) enable  $^{14}\text{C}$  signatures to be assigned to specific inputs. Plant leaf wax lipids, including long-chain ( $\geq n\text{C}_{24}$ ), even-carbon-numbered alkanolic (fatty) acids, are one such example. These biomarkers are almost exclusively produced by higher plants (Eglinton and Hamilton, 1967; Kunst and Samuels, 2003), and inherit the  $^{14}\text{C}$  signature of the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  from which they are synthesized. Long-chain, odd-carbon-numbered  $n$ -alkanes have been commonly employed as plant wax biomarkers, and have been extensively investigated in terms of their carbon number distribution and stable isotopic composition (e.g., Wiesenberg et al., 2004; Smittenberg et al., 2006). However,  $n$ -alkane  $^{14}\text{C}$  signatures are sensitive to even trace amounts of petrogenic  $n$ -alkanes of natural or anthropogenic origin, while  $n$ -alkanoic acids provide a less contaminated target (van der Voort et al., 2017).

Here, we examine the temporal evolution of  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  signatures of plant waxes ( $n$ -alkanoic fatty acids) exported from three different terrestrial basins during the course of the 20th century recorded in adjacent aquatic (coastal) sediments. These sites were selected because of their environmental and latitudinal variability, yet relatively stable depositional settings. High accumulation rates coupled with a lack of bioturbation in these settings affords highly precise, independent chronologies by which lipid  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values can be decay-corrected to their values at the time of deposition, and then directly compared to well-established historical variations in the radiocarbon content of atmospheric carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$   $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ ). Comparison with atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  variations during the period of atmospheric nuclear weapons testing provides a large input signal (Levin and Hesshaimer, 2000) and allows us to quantitatively resolve the fractional abundances and ages of plant wax populations that contribute to the overall apparent residence time of vascular plant OC associated with its translocation from biological source to aquatic sedimentary sink.

## 2. SETTINGS AND METHODS

### 2.1. Study sites

The Cariaco Basin, located off of the northern coast of Venezuela, is a tectonic, pull-apart depression consisting

of two ca. 1400 m deep sub-basins separated by a ca. 900 m deep ridge (Fig. 2a). Its subsurface waters are isolated from the abyssal Caribbean by a shallow (ca. 150 m) sill, allowing only waters from the oxygen minimum zone to infill the deep basin. Strong wintertime trade winds accompanying a southward migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) promote upwelling of nutrient-rich waters that fuel high rates of primary production (Astor et al., 2003), while heavy rainfall associated with the northward return of ITCZ during boreal summer increases terrigenous runoff from several rivers (including the Unare, Neveri, Tuy, and Manzanares; Fig. 2a) draining both rainforest and grassy highland in northern South America. Fluvial inputs to the Cariaco Basin are mainly from these local rivers (with the Unare River dominating; Elmore et al., 2009) instead of more distant rivers such as the Orinoco and the Amazon Rivers (Martinez et al., 2007). The Santa Clara dam in the Unare River was built in 1963 (<http://www.fao.org/nr/water/aquastat/dams/>). The high vertical organic matter fluxes in the Cariaco Basin efficiently strip the remaining oxygen from waters below ca. 300 m (Ho et al., 2004), yielding annually laminated (varved) underlying sediments that are virtually devoid of bioturbation (Hughen et al., 1996). Although lithogenic grains comprise several tens of percent by weight of the total sediment mass (Yarincik et al., 2000), the contribution of terrigenous organic matter to the total organic carbon (TOC) inventory is generally considered to be small (Thunell et al., 2000; and data presented herein). Terrigenous OC inputs in the basin are dominated by fluvial as opposed to eolian transport (Elmore et al., 2009; Martinez et al., 2010).

The Saanich Inlet is a 26 km long, 8 km wide, ca. 235 m deep coastal fjord in British Columbia, Canada (Fig. 2b), that receives the majority of its freshwater and terrigenous sediment in fall and winter from the Cowichan River located approximately 10 km to the northwest (Blais-Stevens et al., 1997; Tunnicliffe, 2000; Price and Pospelova, 2001). Lesser terrigenous contributions come from the much larger Fraser River (mostly during summer) draining into the Strait of Georgia (Gucluer and Gross, 1964; Hamilton and Hedges, 1988; Tunnicliffe, 2000; Price and Pospelova, 2001) and the small Goldstream River at the head of the fjord itself. The Cowichan River watershed is nearly 800 km<sup>2</sup> in size and originates in Cowichan Lake. The river was modified and channelized (McLean et al., 2013) in the second half of the last century. Smittenberg et al. (2006) found that soils surrounding the Saanich Inlet are actively accumulating refractory OC, and likely exhibit soil OC turnover times of several thousands of years. The relatively steep topography within these drainage basins is overlain by thick forests of conifers, cedar and oak, characteristic of the cool, moist maritime climate (Pellatt et al., 2001). Deep water ventilation within the Saanich is limited by a ca. 65 m deep sill at the entrance to the fjord, which, combined with high surface productivity, maintains deep-water dysoxia and seasonal anoxia (Anderson and Devol, 1973; Timothy and Soon, 2001), preserving annual varves in sediments below 70–150 m water depth (Gucluer and Gross, 1964). Analysis of lignin oxidation products led

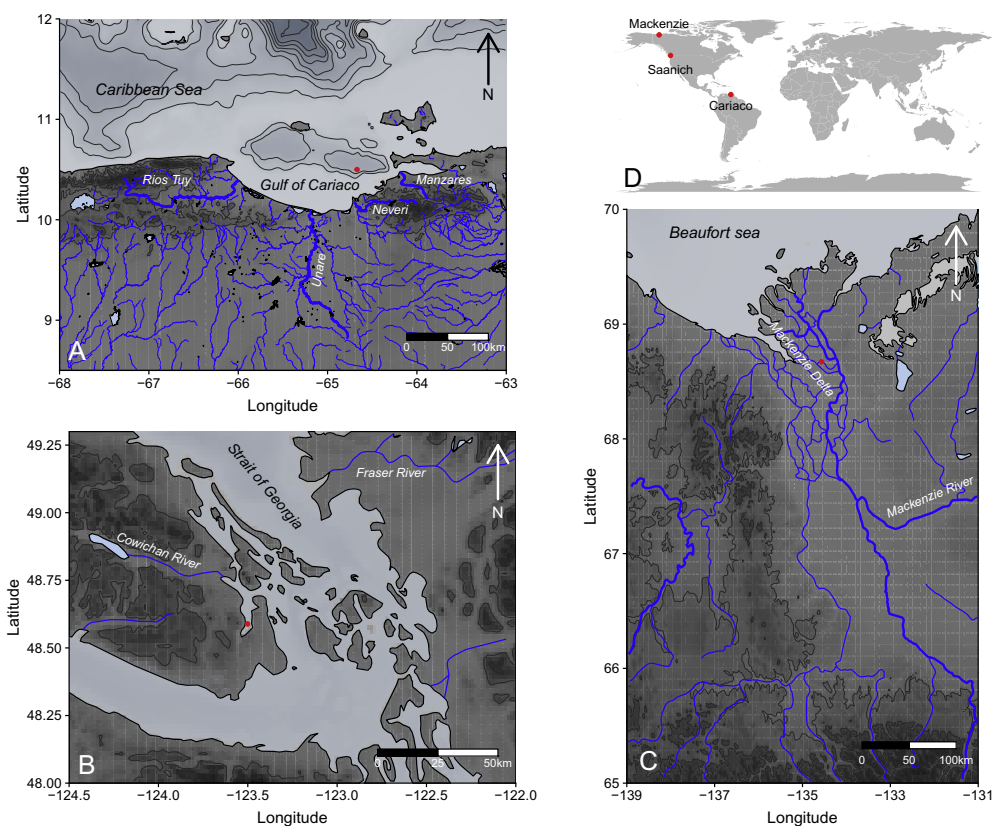


Fig. 2. Maps of the (a) Cariaco Basin, (b) Saanich Inlet, and (c) Mackenzie Delta systems with major rivers, topography (contour lines at 500 m interval), and coring sites (red) indicated, and (d) world map with locations indicated. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Hamilton and Hedges (1988) and Cowie et al. (1992) to conclude that vascular plant debris contributed between 10 and 25% of the TOC in Saanich sediments, while Timothy et al. (2003) put it closer to 40% using bulk elemental and isotopic analyses.

The Mackenzie Delta (Northwest Territories, Canada) is the second-largest Arctic delta (Emmerton et al., 2007), and nearly all of its freshwater ( $316 \text{ km}^3/\text{y}$ ) and sediments (128 Mt/y) come from the Mackenzie River (Carson et al., 1998; Holmes et al., 2013). The Mackenzie River watershed covers about  $1,750,000 \text{ km}^2$ , consists of (boreal) forests, wetlands, tundra, and is partly underlain by continuous (16%) or discontinuous (29%) permafrost (Holmes et al., 2013). The delta is covered with  $>45,000$  lakes that efficiently trap sediments and organic matter from the Mackenzie River (Carson et al., 1998; Emmerton et al., 2007). The main stem of the Mackenzie River is not dammed, but the Peace River, one of the largest tributaries, contains two dams (Bennett Dam, constructed in 1968 and Peace Canyon Dam, constructed in 1980) that have caused significant weakening of the Spring freshet discharge (Woo and Thorne, 2003).

The large differences between the three study sites - a deep oceanic setting, coastal fjord, and arctic delta - and their catchment conditions and climate (mean annual temperature (MAT) ranging from  $30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to  $-5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) provide an

interesting contrast in studying the characteristics of their terrestrial organic matter export.

## 2.2. Core sampling and processing

Cariaco Basin sediments from the northwestern flank of the eastern sub-basin were retrieved by a six-barreled multicorer onboard the R/V *Hermano Gines* in May 2004. Three of the cores (CB2, CB5, and CB6) were immediately sectioned at 0.5 cm intervals into pre-combusted glass jars, and stored frozen.

Saanich Inlet depocenter sediments were recovered in August 2003 from the R/V *Clifford Barnes* using a custom-fabricated aluminum freeze corer filled with a dry ice/isopropanol slurry. Core slabs were wrapped in aluminum foil and plastic film and stored frozen. Three of these cores (SI3, SI4, and SI7) were then sectioned into individual varves while still frozen using a band saw equipped with a diamond-coated blade. Core sections were kept frozen during this process by periodic immersion in liquid nitrogen. Each cut varve was transferred to pre-combusted glass jars and stored frozen until analysis, with turbidites (see Section 2.3) archived as a whole unit.

Mackenzie Delta lake sediments were retrieved from ice-covered lake LD-1 in the lower delta in March 2007 and March 2009 using piston coring (system built in-house at

Geology and Geophysics, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution (WHOI), core diameter 2 and 3 in.). Coring locations were selected using ground penetrating radar surveys that aimed for lakes with water depths greater than 2.5 m, and away from lacustrine deltas. Cores were shipped in cooled conditions, and split lengthwise. The 2007 core (84 cm; MK07#6) was used for bulk organic geochemical analysis, and the 2009 core (187 cm; MK09#2) was used for radioisotopic measurements (one half), and molecular isotopic analysis (other half, sectioned into 1-cm slices).

### 2.3. Chronology development

Select horizons from Cariaco multicores CB2, CB5, and CB6 and Saanich freeze core SI3 were freeze dried, pulverized, and analyzed for  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity via gamma spectroscopy. For Cariaco Basin sediments, a  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ -based mean sedimentation rate of  $0.1 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  was calculated based on:

$$S = -\lambda/\text{slope} \quad (1)$$

where  $S$  is the sedimentation rate,  $\lambda$  the decay constant of  $0.031 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and the slope is taken from the plot of  $\ln^{210}\text{Pb}$ -xs (excess Pb) against depth (Fig. 3b). This was anchored

to the (assumed) 1963 maximum in atmospheric  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fallout (Robbins et al. 2000) (although likely the sediment deposition was not until 1964; Klaminder et al., 2012) (Fig. 3a). The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  peak was 0.5 cm lower in both CB2 and CB6; thus individual sedimentary horizons from these cores were combined with those from one level higher in CB5 to yield sufficient biomarker quantities for  $^{14}\text{C}$  analysis.

For Saanich Inlet sediments, the freeze cores were photographed and stratigraphically correlated with one another via enumeration of individual varves – each visually consisting of one light lamina from a succession of spring/summer diatom blooms and one dark lamina from terrigenous runoff in the autumn/winter – as well as through the comparison of episodic, earthquake-emplaced turbidite deposits (Blais-Stevens et al., 1997). Depth from the top and bottom of one particularly large turbidite to the base of each varve above and below it, respectively, was carefully noted to aid the development of an ancillary  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{137}\text{C}$ -based chronology. The chronology above and below the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  spike in SI3 was principally established by annual varve counting, indicating that the uppermost and lowermost horizons were deposited in 1987 and 1810 CE, respectively (Fig. 4a). This approach yielded an average sedimentation

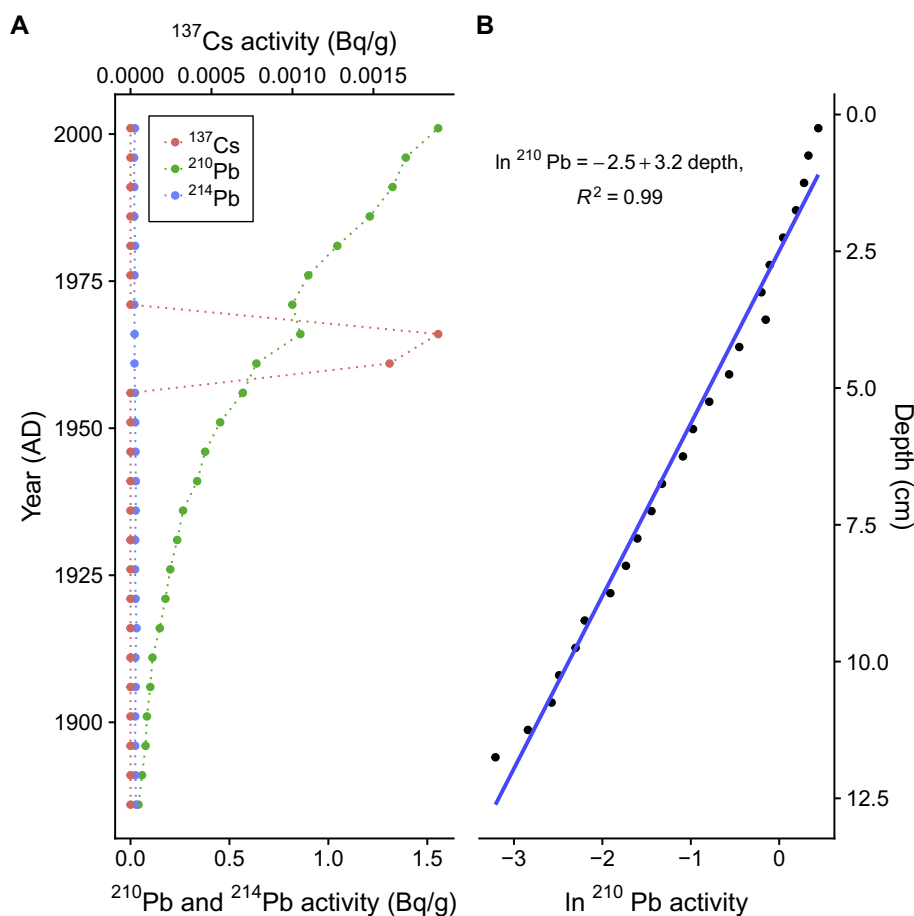


Fig. 3. Chronology development for Cariaco Basin core #MC5 with (a) isotope activities of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  (green),  $^{214}\text{Pb}$  (blue), and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  (red circles), and (b) plot of  $\ln^{210}\text{Pb}$ -xs against depth. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

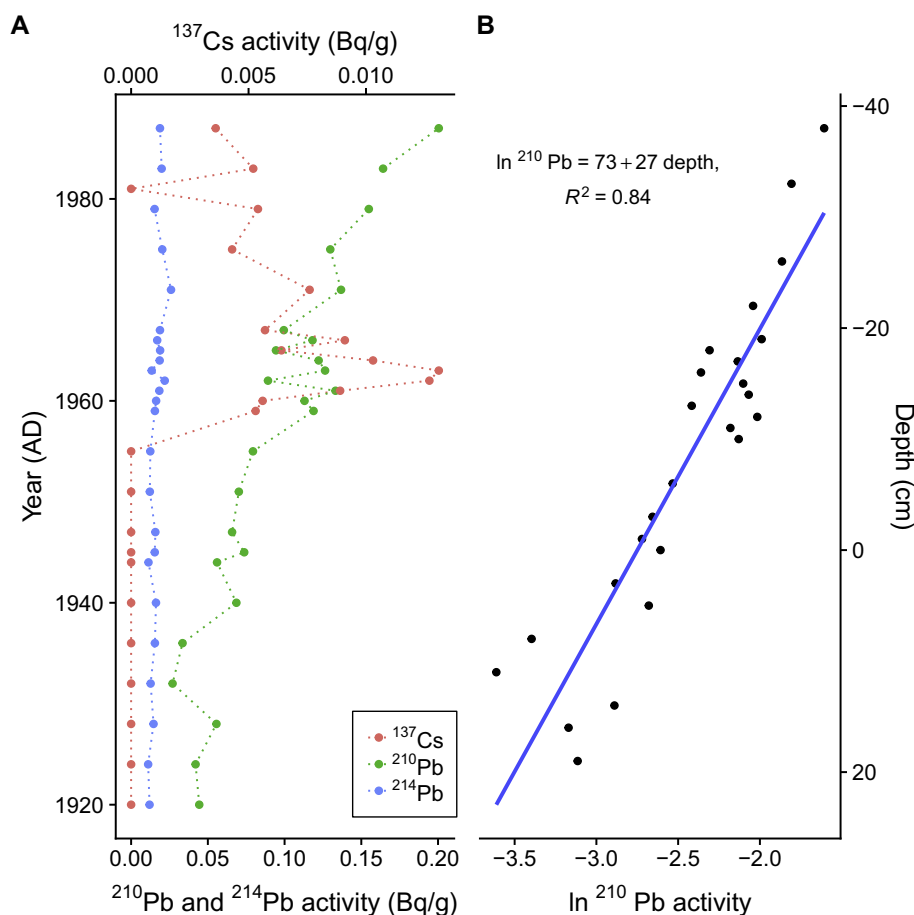


Fig. 4. Chronology development for Saanich Inlet core #SI3 with (a) isotope activities of  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  (green),  $^{214}\text{Pb}$  (blue), and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  (red circles), and (b) plot of  $\ln ^{210}\text{Pb}$ -xs against depth. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

rate of  $0.85 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ , in reasonable agreement with a value of  $1.0 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  calculated from the  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  profile (Fig. 4b). This also fits with previous varve counting in two 6000-year cores in Saanich Inlet (Nederbragt and Thurow, 2001) showing recent annual varve thicknesses between 0.75 and 1.25 cm. For our cores, individual varves representing the same year in SI3, SI4, and SI7 were then combined for biomarker  $^{14}\text{C}$  analysis.

Horizons from Mackenzie Delta sediment core MK09#2 were analyzed for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity, as described in Vonk et al. (2015a,b) (MK09#2 indicated with LD-1). Briefly, the onset of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity (corresponding to 1951) was observed at 60 cm depth, the peak (corresponding to 1963 or 1964; Robbins et al., 2000; Klaminder et al., 2012) at 52.5 cm, which resulted in a sedimentation rate of  $1.17 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  for 1964–2009 and  $0.58 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  for 1951–1964 (Fig. 5). These sedimentation rates were corroborated with lamina counting (Vonk et al., 2015a,b).

#### 2.4. Bulk isotopic analyses

Cores CB6, SI3, and MK07#6 were also profiled for total carbon (TC), total nitrogen (TN), and TOC (following the removal of carbonate minerals via gaseous and aqueous

2 N hydrochloric acid treatment at 60–65 °C) by high temperature combustion on a Carlo Erba 1108 Elemental Analyzer. TOC  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values were measured following established protocols at the National Ocean Sciences Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (NOSAMS) facility at WHOI (McNichol et al., 1994). Details of the method for analysis of MK09#2 are also described in Vonk et al. (2015a,b).

#### 2.5. Molecular isotopic analyses

Sediments from Cariaco Basin and Saanich Inlet were extracted and isolated at the Department of Marine Chemistry and Geochemistry (at WHOI) and analyzed at the NOSAMS facility at WHOI, whereas sediments from the Mackenzie Delta (MK09#2) were extracted and isolated at the Geological Institute (ETH-Zürich) and analyzed at the AMS facility of the Laboratory of Ion Beam Physics (ETH-Zürich).

##### 2.5.1. Extraction and work-up

Remaining sediments from Cariaco Basin cores CB2, CB5, and CB6 and Saanich Inlet cores SI3, SI4, and SI7 were combined into chronologically equivalent horizons. These horizons were spiked with several internal standards

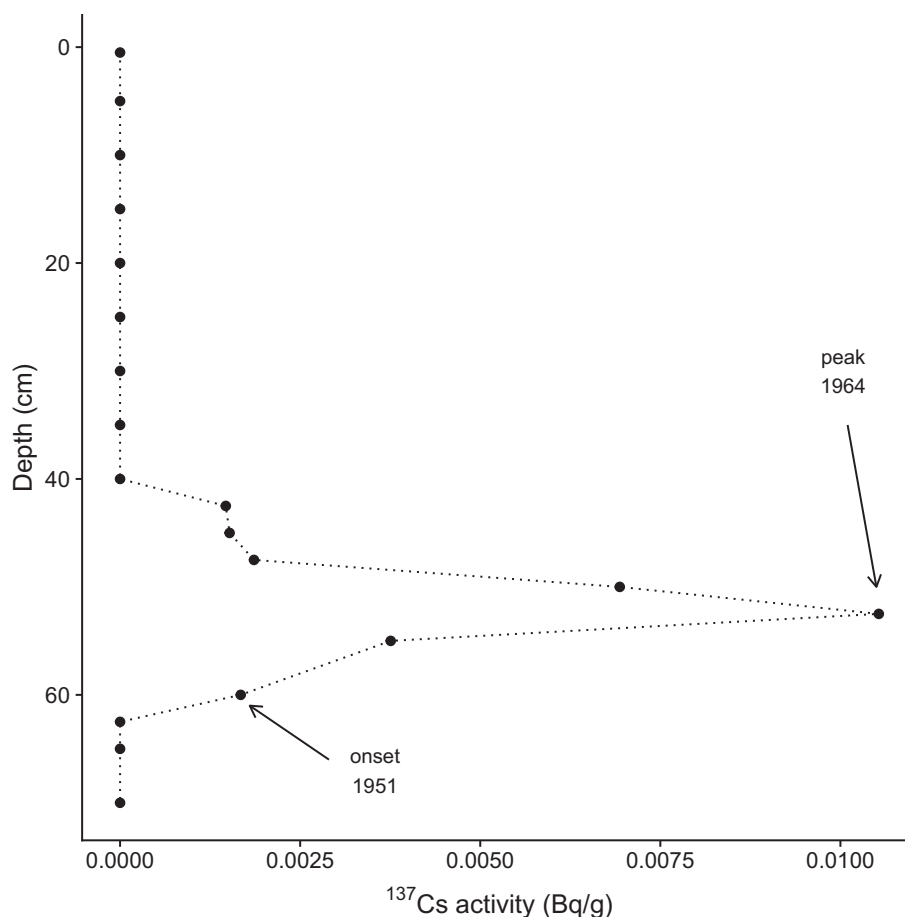


Fig. 5. Chronology development for Mackenzie Delta lake core MK09#2 with isotope activity of <sup>137</sup>Cs, where the onset occurs at 60 cm depth (corresponding with 1951) and the peak at 52.5 cm depth (assuming to correspond to sedimentary deposition in 1964 from the atmospheric peak in 1963; Robbins et al., 2000, Klaminder et al., 2012).

of known  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  composition and extracted in dichloromethane (DCM):methanol 9:1 v/v with an Accelerated Solvent Extraction (ASE) system. The resulting extract was dried over  $\text{NaSO}_4$ , solvent-exchanged into hexane, and chromatographically separated into different fractions using glass columns packed with fully activated silica gel and elution with successive additions of the following solutions (v/v): f1 = hexane, f2 = 50/50 hexane/toluene, f3 = 80/20 hexane/diethyl ether, f4 = 75/25 hexane/ethyl acetate, f5 = 99.85/0.15 diethyl ether/acetic acid, and f6 = methanol. The f5 fraction contained unesterified or “free” acids and was further purified by solvent-exchanging into DCM and passing through smaller glass columns containing aminopropyl-doped silica gel with f1 = 15 mL of 90/10 DCM/acetone, f2 = 20 mL of 98/2 DCM/formic acid, and f3 = 15 mL of methanol. Free fatty acids in the f2 fractions from this second chromatographic step were then esterified overnight in a solution of 95/5 anhydrous methanol/hydrochloric acid of known carbon isotopic composition. The corresponding fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) were subsequently extracted into hexane, re-dried over sodium sulfate, and further purified by elution through Pasteur pipette columns containing 5 % (wt.) deactivated silica gel with f1 = 4 mL hexane, f2 = 4 mL 95/5

hexane/ethyl acetate, and f3 = 4 mL methanol. Each resultant f2 fraction was then solvent-exchanged into a known volume of hexane and injected along with authentic standards on a Hewlett Packard (HP) Series II gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) to measure individual FAME abundances. Compound-specific  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analyses on all even carbon-numbered homologues between  $n\text{C}_{16}$  and  $n\text{C}_{32}$ , along with a co-injected  $n\text{C}_{36}$  alkane standard of known isotopic composition, were performed in triplicate on a HP 6890 GC coupled to a Finnigan Delta<sup>plus</sup> isotope ratio mass spectrometer (GC/IRMS) via a modified combustion interface.

Sediments of MK09#2 (Mackenzie Delta) were freeze-dried and extracted as 1-cm core horizons (5–7 g per horizon) in 10–15 mL DCM:methanol 9:1 v/v using a MARS unit from CEM operated at 1700 W and 100 °C for 20 min. Microwave vessels were blank-extracted prior to sample introduction. The total lipid extracts were dried under  $\text{N}_2$  and saponified with 0.5 M potassium hydroxide in methanol at 70 °C for 2 h. After addition of 5–10 mL Milli-Q water-salt (sodium chloride) solution the ‘neutral’ fraction was obtained through back-extraction with hexane, and subsequently, an ‘acid’ fraction was obtained after acidification down to pH 2 (with concentrated hydrochloric



acid) and back-extraction with hexane:DCM 4:1 v/v. The acid fraction was derivatized with  $\text{BF}_3$ -methanol for 30 min at 80 °C, and back-extracted with DCM after addition of Milli-Q water. The resulting FAME fraction was further purified onto a 5 % (wt.) deactivated silica gel Pasteur pipette column topped of with sodium sulfate and eluted with (1) hexane, (2) hexane:DCM 4:1 v/v, and (3) DCM. Fraction 2, containing FAMEs, was injected along with authentic standards on a GC-FID (7890A, Agilent Technologies) to check purity.

### 2.5.2. Isolation and $^{14}\text{C}$ analysis of individual compounds

For Cariaco Basin and Saanich Inlet samples, individual  $n\text{C}_{16}$ ,  $n\text{C}_{24}$ ,  $n\text{C}_{26}$ , and  $n\text{C}_{28}$  homologues, as well as the  $n\text{C}_{14+18}$  and  $n\text{C}_{30+32}$  homologue combinations, were isolated for  $^{14}\text{C}$  analysis by preparative capillary gas chromatography (PCGC) and subsequently combusted to  $\text{CO}_2$  using standard techniques (Eglinton et al., 1996). A subset of samples ranging in mass from 31 to 102  $\mu\text{gC}$  was converted to graphite with a powdered cobalt catalyst and analyzed by standard small sample procedures at NOSAMS (Pearson et al., 1998). Remaining samples of 5–63  $\mu\text{gC}$  were graphitized over iron powder within specially designed reactors containing magnesium perchlorate desiccant and analyzed at the Keck Carbon Cycle Accelerator Mass Spectrometry facility (KCCAMS; see Santos et al., 2007a,b for detailed methods). In order to compensate for the proportional increase in procedural blank contamination at the ultra-small sample level (i.e. <25  $\mu\text{g}$  carbon; Santos et al., 2010), a solution of standards whose isotopic compositions encompass the full range of  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values ( $n\text{C}_{19}$  alcohol,  $\Delta^{14}\text{C} = -999$  ‰;  $n\text{C}_{21}$  fatty acid,  $\Delta^{14}\text{C} = -389$  ‰; *iso*- $\text{C}_{21}$  fatty acid,  $\Delta^{14}\text{C} = -32.9$  ‰) was added to separate pre-combusted aliquots of sea sand in several mass increments over this range, extracted, isolated into individual compounds, graphitized, and analyzed on the same KCCAMS wheels according to the procedures described above. Twelve oxalic acid I (NIST SRM 4990B) and eight, neat  $n\text{C}_{19}$  alcohol standards of similarly varying mass were also combusted, graphitized, and co-analyzed in order to assess blank contributions from these steps alone. Detailed mathematical treatment of all blank corrections can be found in Santos et al. (2007b, 2010). Total masses and mass errors of modern and “dead” ( $^{14}\text{C}$ -free) blank carbon calculated under this approach were  $0.8 \pm 0.4$   $\mu\text{g}$  (all derived from graphitization as well as combustion) and  $1.0 \pm 0.5$   $\mu\text{g}$  (75% derived from the sample preparation steps preceding combustion), respectively, and are applied to the molecular  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  results reported below.

For Mackenzie Delta sediments, long-chain fatty acids were isolated individually ( $n\text{C}_{20}$ ,  $n\text{C}_{22}$ ,  $n\text{C}_{30}$  homologues) or in combinations ( $n\text{C}_{16+18}$  and  $n\text{C}_{24+26+28}$ ) using PCGC (Vonk et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2015). Isolated fractions were eluted using DCM through a silica gel column (1% deactivated), and run on a GC-FID to detect impurities (all < 5%). The  $n\text{C}_{30}$  and  $n\text{C}_{24+26+28}$  fractions were combined and transferred to pre-combusted quartz-tubes, and gently evaporated under  $\text{N}_2$ . After addition of precombusted  $\text{CuO}$ , the tubes were flame-sealed under vacuum, combusted at 850 °C for 5 h, and the resulting  $\text{CO}_2$

(7.7–22  $\mu\text{g}$ ) was cryogenically purified and quantified before analysis on a miniaturized radiocarbon dating system (MICADAS) at the Laboratory of Ion Beam Physics at ETH-Zürich using a gas feeding system (Wacker et al., 2013). We did unfortunately not assess blank values. However, calculations using a later processing blank from the same PCGC and AMS laboratory (Tao et al., 2015) resulted in blank-corrected values that fell within error of the uncorrected values, and would not have changed our interpretations.

All of the  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  results, given in ‰ and reported relative to standard Oxalic II (NIST SRM 4990C), are corrected for the ester methyl group addition from the derivatization agent via an isotope mass balance.

## 3. RESULTS

### 3.1. Bulk geochemical data

Sedimentary TOC is about twice as high in the Cariaco Basin at (6.0–6.5%) than in the Saanich Inlet (ca. 3.0%), whereas the Mackenzie Delta exhibits the lowest and most stable TOC values (ca. 1.3%; Fig. S1a). The TOC/TN ratios of the Cariaco Basin (between 7.5 and 10) and Saanich Inlet (ca. 10) are lower than those of the Mackenzie Delta (10.5–12), consistent with higher contributions from marine or coastal biomass for the two former systems. The TOC/TN ratios of Mackenzie Delta sediments show a slight decrease downcore, likely indicative of diagenetic processes. There are no systematic down-core trends in either TOC or TOC/TN in Cariaco sediments, indicating that the overall flux and provenance of organic matter are in approximate steady state relative to the 100-year timeframe considered. In the Saanich Inlet, however, the TOC/TN profile varies in a more systematic fashion (Fig. S1b), with low ratios in the 1920s and 1930s, transitioning to higher ratios during the mid 1940s, 1950s, 1970s, and 1980s, and a sharp decline just before the 1990s.

The down-core bulk  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  signatures ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{TOC}}$ ) of the three sites correspond with the increasing marine and decreasing terrestrial character when going from Mackenzie Delta (ca. –26.4‰ showing a greater influence of  $\text{C}_3$  vascular plant-derived OC) to Saanich Inlet (ca. –22 to –23‰), to Cariaco Basin (ca. –20‰, consistent with predominantly marine OC) (Fig. S1c). This gradient from terrestrial to marine dominance is also corroborated by the TOC/TN ratios. The  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  signatures of TOC ( $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{TOC}}$ ) show a sharper contrast between the three sites, with relatively modern values for the Cariaco Basin (between –90 and 50‰) and Saanich Inlet (between –225 and –80‰), and low values for the Mackenzie Delta sediments (between –750 and –800‰) (Fig. S1d). The down-core  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{TOC}}$  profiles at the two “younger” sites generally trend toward more positive values towards the present, reflecting biosynthetic incorporation of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -enriched atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and ocean mixed layer DIC associated with the bomb effect (Levin and Hesshaimer, 2000). The  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{TOC}}$  profile of the Mackenzie Delta core does not show the positive trend, yet does show an enrichment of the signal from ca. 1970 to 1975, perhaps indicative of a lag in the bomb effect.

### 3.2. Molecular geochemical data

In the Cariaco Basin, fatty acid  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values remain between ca.  $-22$  to  $-24$  ‰ for  $n\text{C}_{14}$  through  $n\text{C}_{26}$  homologues, and then decrease rapidly towards  $n\text{C}_{32}$  (Figs. S2 and S3). While there is also a sharp isotopic contrast between short and long-chain fatty acids in Saanich Inlet sediments, the isotopic shift occurs in two steps, with intermediate chain-length homologues ( $n\text{C}_{20}$ – $n\text{C}_{26}$ ) consistently displaying intermediate  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values (Fig. S3). Unfortunately, *n*-alkanoic acid  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analyses could not be performed on the MK09#2 Mackenzie Delta core (due to low C concentrations, we prioritized  $^{14}\text{C}$  analyses), however Drenzek et al. (2007) reported a 4–5‰ difference between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of short ( $n\text{C}_{14}$ – $\text{C}_{16}$ – $\text{C}_{18}$ ,  $-25$  to  $-29$ ‰) and long ( $n\text{C}_{24}$ – $\text{C}_{26}$ – $\text{C}_{28}$ ,  $-29$  to  $-33$ ‰) in Beaufort shelf sediments in front of the Mackenzie Delta.

Long-chain fatty acid  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values are lower with increasing chain length, from ca. 65‰ ( $n\text{C}_{24}$ ) to  $-250$ ‰ ( $n\text{C}_{30+32}$ ) for the Cariaco Basin, and  $-100$ ‰ ( $n\text{C}_{24}$ ) to  $-290$ ‰ ( $n\text{C}_{30+32}$ ) for the Saanich Inlet (Table S3a, Fig. 6). Long-chain fatty acid homologues were combined for the Mackenzie Delta sediment core due to low abundance of individual chain lengths (sum of  $n\text{C}_{24-26-28-30}$ ), and their composite  $^{14}\text{C}$  signature (between  $-630$  and

$-430$ ‰) was significantly lower (older) than corresponding composite  $^{14}\text{C}$  values of the Saanich Inlet (ca.  $-220$ ‰) or the Cariaco Basin (between  $-160$  and  $10$ ‰) (Table S3a, b).

### 3.3. Model development and description

The analyzed lipid biomarkers in our sampled sediment cores consist of a mixture of components with different “reservoir ages” reflecting their prior storage and transport history. In order to quantitatively resolve the fractional contribution of these reservoir ages, we use a model that considers components that are deposited at time  $t$ , with  $t$  increasing back in time. A detailed model code is available at [https://github.com/mskoldSU/Vonk\\_et\\_al\\_2018](https://github.com/mskoldSU/Vonk_et_al_2018). Our model is related to approaches used in other studies (Harrison, 1996; Tegen and Dörr, 1996; Mills et al., 2013), except that we use molecular markers instead of bulk soil OC and are therefore able to trace their storage and transport pathways more specifically. We denote the proportions of material with residence time  $\tau$  in these samples by  $f_t(\tau)$  and this proportion’s contribution to the observed lipid biomarker  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ -signal by  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}(t, \tau)$ . By mass-balance, the signal at time  $t$  of the sample is then:

$$\Delta^{14}\text{C}(t) = \int_0^{\infty} \Delta^{14}\text{C}(t, \tau) \cdot f_t(\tau) d\tau. \quad (2)$$

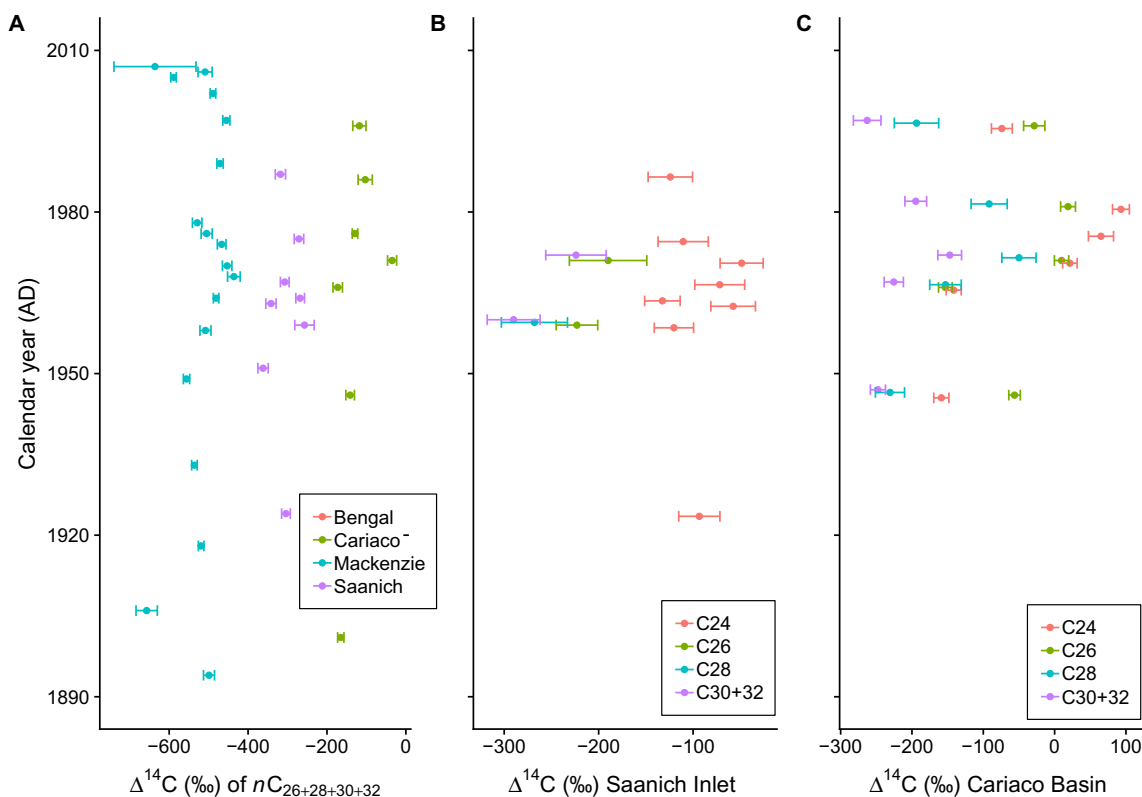


Fig. 6. Fatty acid long-chain  $^{14}\text{C}$  composition of (a)  $n\text{C}_{26+28+30+32}$  combined for Cariaco Basin (red), Saanich Inlet (blue) and  $n\text{C}_{24+26+28+30+32}$  combined for Mackenzie Delta (MK09#2; green circles), and individual long-chain *n*-alkanoic acids for (b) Saanich Inlet and (c) Cariaco Basin sediments. Note that in panel (a) the summed long-chain *n*-alkanoic acids are different from Mackenzie Delta ( $n\text{C}_{24+26+28+30+32}$ ) than for the other locations ( $n\text{C}_{26+28+30+32}$ ). The black dashed line represents the sedimentary deposition (1964) of the atmospheric bomb-spike signal in 1963. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

To ensure that the terms in Eq. (2) are identifiable, we make several assumptions:

- (i) The petrogenic contribution to long-chain fatty acid markers is zero (i.e., there is no additional reservoir of  $^{14}\text{C}$ -dead material);
- (ii) The year of sedimentary deposition is known;
- (iii) Bioturbation does not compromise the sediment record;
- (iv) The proportions of different soil reservoirs are constant over deposition times  $t$ , i.e.  $f_i(\tau) = f(\tau)$ .
- (v) The signal  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}(t, \tau)$ , corresponding to deposition time  $t$  and residence time  $\tau$ , can be decomposed into the atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  signal at the time of deposition and radioactive decay as:

$$\Delta^{14}\text{C}(t, \tau) = \Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}(t + \tau) + 1000 \cdot (e^{-(\tau+t-t_0)\lambda} - 1) \quad (3)$$

where  $t_0$  is the time of analysis of the sample and  $\lambda = 1/8267\text{yr}^{-1}$  is the radioactive decay rate of  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ .

Inserting Eq. (3) into Eq. (2), we get:

$$\Delta^{14}\text{C}(t) = \int_0^\infty \Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}(t + \tau) \cdot f(\tau) d\tau + 1000 \cdot \int_0^\infty (e^{-(\tau+t-t_0)\lambda} - 1) \cdot f(\tau) d\tau \quad (4)$$

where we used  $\int_0^\infty f(\tau) d\tau = 1$  by mass-balance. In this equation, the function  $f$  represents the frequency distribution of material with deposition time  $\tau$ . Based on data at deposition times  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  (in increasing order;  $t_n$  representing the deepest measurement depth in the core) we can make the following inferences about  $f$ :

1. By tracing the delayed input from the “bomb-spike” in the observed signal, we can use its timing and amplitude to make inference about the “shape” of  $f(\tau)$  for  $0 \leq \tau \leq t_{\text{bomb}} - t_1$  under the assumption that the atmospheric signal is zero for  $t > t_{\text{bomb}}$ .
2. Using data deposited at  $t > t_{\text{bomb}}$  (i.e., prior to 1963), we may estimate an average level of radioactive decay, which in turn could be used to infer longer residence times. As a detailed inference on  $f(\tau)$  for  $\tau > t_{\text{bomb}} - t_1$  is not possible due to the lack of data points (i.e. lack of variability within the signal), we chose to introduce a single deposition time  $\tau_{\text{Old}}$  representative for older (before the bomb-spike) material in the catchment. The residence time of this material is so long that it is not affected by the bomb  $^{14}\text{C}$  inputs over the period 1963 to present. This material is older than 50 years and can be centennial and/or millennial in age. The second term of Eq. (4) can then be approximated by  $1000 \cdot (\exp(-\tau_{\text{Old}} \cdot \lambda) - 1) \cdot f_{\text{Old}}$ , where  $f_{\text{Old}}$  is the proportion of material with deposition time  $\tau_{\text{Old}}$  and hence  $\int_0^{t_n - t_{\text{bomb}}} f(\tau) d\tau = 1 - f_{\text{Old}}$ .

Since  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values from the Mackenzie Delta show a clear decreasing trend prior to the bomb-spike (highlighted in Fig. 6a), presumably reflecting either the “Suess effect”

(Levin and Hesshaimer, 2000) and/or a potential recent increase of old OC release from the catchment, we chose to add a linear term outside the mass-balance equation starting at calendar year 1900 (50 years BP). This term with slope  $b$  has also been applied for the Cariaco Basin and Saanich Inlet sediment data except from the  $\text{C}_{30-32}$  Cariaco Basin data due to limited data resolution before 1950.

Our final model for sample data is then:

$$\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{obs}}(t_i) = \int_0^{\max(t_{\text{bomb}} - t_i, 0)} \Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{CO}_2}(t_i + \tau) \cdot f(\tau) d\tau + 1000(e^{-\tau_{\text{Old}} \cdot \lambda} - 1) \cdot f_{\text{Old}} + b \cdot (t - 50) + \epsilon_i \quad (5)$$

for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , where  $\epsilon_i$  is a normally distributed (Gaussian) measurement error. Parameters to be estimated from this relation are  $f(\tau)$  (for  $0 \leq \tau \leq t_{\text{bomb}} - t_1$ ),  $\tau_{\text{Old}}$ ,  $f_{\text{Old}}$ , and the slope  $b$  of the linear term. Residence time  $\tau$  is reported in calendar years, as it is derived from the core chronology (based on  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{210}\text{Pb}$ ). Note that material with residence time  $\tau$  larger than  $t_{\text{bomb}} - t_1$ , but not sufficiently large to show substantial radioactive decay, will not be detected by the current resolution of data since this leaves  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}(t_i, \tau) \approx 0$  for all  $i$ .

To facilitate comparison between the different sites, we choose to estimate  $f$  for  $0 \leq \tau \leq 50\text{yrs}$  for all three sediment core data. For the Mackenzie Delta sediments, we used  $^{14}\text{C}$  values of the combined fraction of  $\text{C}_{24-26-28-30-32}$   $n$ -alkanoic acids and for Cariaco Basin and Saanich Inlet sediment we used  $^{14}\text{C}$  values of  $\text{C}_{26-28-30-32}$ . For Cariaco Basin we also analysed  $\text{C}_{30-32}$  separately, which was not done for Saanich Inlet since those series only consisted of two observations. Note that it is only data from Mackenzie that contains sufficiently recent ( $t < 50$  years) data to estimate  $f$  in the higher ends of this interval at any resolution.

Best-fit curves were determined (Fig. 7) by minimizing the average residuals between calculated and measured  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}(t)$  values (that have been corrected for decay in sediments) as a function of the remaining variables. We followed a Bayesian approach, fitting the model using Markov chain Monte Carlo (Clark and Gelfand, 2006) with software JAGS run from the R computing environment. Best-fit curves were determined (Fig. 7) as posterior means computed from the Markov chain Monte Carlo samples. We judged an observation to be a potential outlier (with respect to the model) if it deviated by more than three standard deviations from the estimated mean curve (Fig. 7). Note that this definition includes extreme values as well as observations where the standard deviation of the curve is severely underestimated. In order to check the influence of outliers, they were sequentially removed from the analysis until the results were free from outliers. Saanich Inlet was free from outliers after removing data from 1959 and Mackenzie Delta after removing data from 1906, 1978 and 2005. For these sites, results without outliers were broadly similar to those with outliers (see Supplementary Online Material, Figs. S5–S7). For the  $\text{C}_{26+28+30+32}$  best-fit curve of Cariaco Basin, either 1971 or 1976 can be considered as an outlier. Removing these points resulted in similar parameters related to the old pool, but, after removal of the 1971

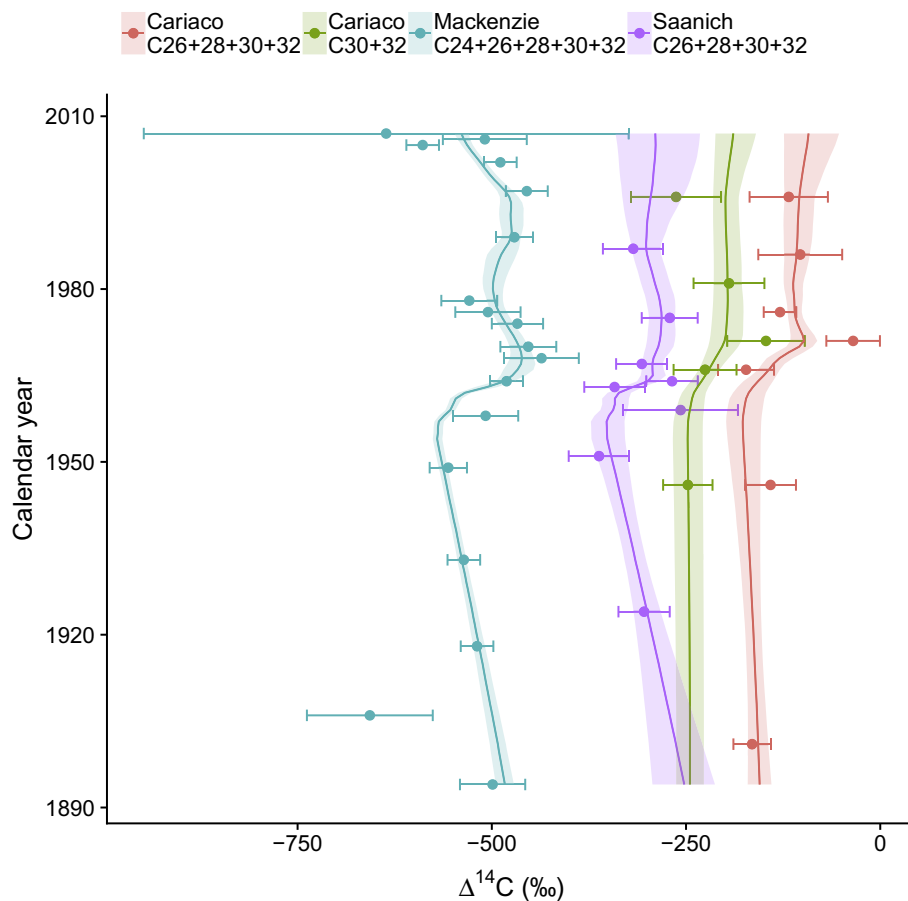


Fig. 7. Model fits of estimated mean  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{obs}}(t)$  from Eq. (5) together with 90% credible interval and data, against calendar year in sediment cores, with (from left to right) Mackenzie Delta (light blue,  $n\text{C}_{24+26+28+30+32}$ ), Saanich Inlet ( $n\text{C}_{26+28+30+32}$ ), and Cariaco Basin (green,  $n\text{C}_{30+32}$  and red,  $n\text{C}_{26+28+30+32}$ ). All data points are included in the model fit. Note that the  $n\text{C}_{30+32}$  model fit for Cariaco Basin is not corrected for the Suess effect. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

outlier, the temporal distribution of the young pool shifted (see Supplementary Online Material). We also determined best-fit curves without including parameter  $b$  (the linear term) but the fit was not as good as the best-fit curve where this parameter was incorporated (Figs. S8 and 7).

## 4. DISCUSSION

### 4.1. Organic matter characterization

Whereas ratios of TOC/TN seem to be relatively consistent downcore for both Mackenzie Delta, as well as Cariaco Basin sediments, the TOC/TN profile for the Saanich Inlet exhibits stronger variability (Fig. S1b). This behavior might reflect non-steady state organic matter input to Saanich sediments, something that our model cannot take into account, unfortunately, such as periods of enhanced soil erosion in the latter half of the 20th century as a consequence of large-scale deforestation from the late 1800s through 1960 (Tunnicliffe, 2000). The Saanich Inlet may be sensitive to the location and small size of the Cowichan watershed (795 km<sup>2</sup>) that drains into it, which would expe-

rience multi-annual oscillations from large-scale weather patterns – such as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) – that could influence both marine production and terrigenous runoff (McQuoid and Hobson, 1997; Dean and Kemp, 2004).

The Mackenzie River watershed holds relict, petrogenic source rock material that affects the <sup>14</sup>C-OC ages (Vonk et al., 2015a,b; Yunker et al., 2002), which is reflected in our bulk <sup>14</sup>C signatures of TOC (between –750 and –800‰ for Mackenzie Delta compared with –90 to –50‰ for Cariaco Basin and –225 to –80‰ for the Saanich Inlet; Fig. S1d). The differences between the catchments also likely indicate that the Saanich Inlet and the Mackenzie Delta have a relatively high inflow of aged (by up to several thousand years) biospheric, terrestrial OC. This is supported by earlier published <sup>14</sup>C ages of 6500 years BP for long-chain *n*-alkanes at Saanich Inlet (Smittenberg et al., 2006), or biospheric OC ages of 5800–6100 years BP for the Mackenzie Delta (Vonk et al., 2015a,b, and Hilton et al., 2015).

At the molecular level, fatty acids from all sites exhibit bimodal abundance distributions of short ( $\leq n\text{C}_{20}$ ) and long

( $\geq nC_{24}$ ) chains, with maxima at  $nC_{16}$  and  $nC_{24}$  or  $nC_{26}$  (see supplementary Table S1 and S2, Fig. S2) that typically reflect contributions from autochthonous primary and secondary production (algal/bacterial biomass) and allochthonous higher plant leaf wax inputs, respectively. Although extracts from leaf surfaces exhibit similar distribution patterns (Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2006), it is generally assumed that faster degradation rates for the short-chain homologues (e.g., Canuel and Martens, 1996) results in efficient replacement of these compounds during fluvial transport with those emanating from autochthonous sources (Gong and Hollander, 1997; Tao et al., 2016). Corresponding  $\delta^{13}C$  and  $\Delta^{14}C$  compositions can be used to further constrain sources since (a)  $\delta^{13}C$  values of individual lipid homologues synthesized by the same aquatic or terrestrial plant species generally vary by no more than a few per mil (Collister et al., 1994; Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2006), and (b) all biomolecules inherit the (fractionation-corrected)  $\Delta^{14}C$  value of the carbon substrate from which they were synthesized (Pearson, 1999). Because this study focuses on constraining the terrestrial reservoir ages, we focus most of the following discussion on the long-chain ( $\geq nC_{24}$ )  $n$ -alkanoic acids, because these compounds are almost exclusively higher plant leaf waxes. Concentrations of the shorter homologues, as well as their  $\delta^{13}C$  and  $\Delta^{14}C$  molecular signatures can be found in the Supplementary Information (Table S1 and S2, Figs. S2 and S3).

The difference in  $\delta^{13}C$  trends (Fig. S2) with fatty acid chain lengths for Cariaco Basin (a gradual decrease from  $-22\text{‰}$  to  $-24\text{‰}$  towards  $-32\text{‰}$ ) and Saanich Inlet (a two-step decrease from around  $-22\text{‰}$  to  $-27\text{‰}$ , and then to  $-32\text{‰}$ ) may reflect different species of terrigenous and aquatic plants (Collister et al., 1994), seasonality, diagenetic fractionation (Chikaraishi and Naraoka, 2006), and/or varying amounts of algal (Ratnayake et al., 2005) or bacterial (Gong and Hollander, 1997) components. The clear depletion of long-chain fatty acid  $\Delta^{14}C$  values with increasing chain lengths (Table S3a) implies that OC in terrestrially-influenced aquatic sediments contains both contemporary or recently produced vascular plant OC (soil litter/plant debris), as well as aged terrestrial OC (e.g., from mineral soils), with the proportions of the components, and the age of the latter, varying with location. As noted by others, release of terrestrial OC previously stored in catchment reservoirs is an important source pathway (Smittenberg et al., 2006; Vonk et al., 2015a,b; Hilton et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2013).

The individual  $\Delta^{14}C$  values of the long-chain homologues at any point in time will represent a composite of different populations of molecules that have been aged to varying degrees as they follow different transport trajectories and pass through a broad continuum of terrigenous reservoirs (Fig. 1). Further insights into the underlying processes can be attained when these molecular isotopic profiles are considered in relation to each other and to the atmospheric bomb-spike (Hua et al., 2013). First, all long-chain fatty acids in both records are markedly lower in  $^{14}C$  relative to atmospheric  $CO_2$ , with the magnitude of depletion systematically increasing with increasing chain length (Fig. 6b and c). This is a general trend that has been

observed in other molecular-level radiocarbon studies of sedimentary fatty acids (Pearson, 1999; Pearson et al., 2001; Uchida et al., 2001; Ohkouchi et al., 2003; Drenzek et al., 2007, 2009), yet the underlying cause(s) of this phenomenon remains unclear. It may be an artifact of mixing between the  $\Delta^{14}C$  signatures of long-chain homologues derived from autochthonous and allochthonous production. Alternatively, slower degradation rates for longer-chain homologues (Canuel and Martens, 1996) might allow for protracted storage in intermediate reservoirs. The latter scenario appears to be more consistent with the observation of the same  $\Delta^{14}C$  trend in an aerosol sample from Japan (Matsumoto et al., 2001). Third, greater hydrophobicity of the longer chain homologues may promote their association with mineral matter in soils, lakes, and river beds, thereby rendering them more resistant to degradation, as well as to leaching and aqueous transport. Irrespective of which of the above applies, and in the absence of bioturbation, the discrepancy between  $\Delta^{14}C$  values of the long-chain FAs relative to that of more modern mixed layer DIC indicates their origin is unrelated to marine photoautotrophy. Together with their corresponding stable carbon isotopic compositions, these observations imply a significant contribution of aged vascular plant waxes to sediments at each of the three investigated sites.

Despite the overall depletion in  $^{14}C$  relative to atmospheric  $CO_2$ , the incorporation of bomb radiocarbon is reflected in the  $^{14}C$  enrichments displayed by long-chain homologues extracted from post-1950 sediments over those from pre-1950 horizons. In the Cariaco Basin, maximum values in all fatty acid homologues do not occur until the early/mid-1970s (Fig. 6a and c), a period when the  $^{14}C$  content of the atmosphere was already in decline. Moreover, minimal enrichment over pre-bomb  $^{14}C$  levels (i.e., a small amplitude change in  $\Delta^{14}C$  values) is generally observed during the peak in  $^{14}C$  activity. This delayed response implies that some portion of these fatty acids were recently synthesized and deposited (within one or two decades) in Cariaco sediments, whereas there are no significant contributions from a more instantaneously (e.g., seasonally or annually) delivered component. This “decadal” signature is superimposed on an additional plant wax pool that is substantially older. These preliminary interpretations appear consistent with a relatively rapid supply of recently synthesized vascular plant carbon (illustrated by a swift response of the leaf wax  $\Delta^{14}C$  to bomb-spike enrichment), accompanied by an older [soil] signature from the small watersheds of the two main rivers (Unare and Tuy) that discharge in close proximity to the Cariaco Basin. While eolian transport can deliver terrestrial organic matter on short timescales, this input is considered improbable because the prevailing northeast trade winds establish a persistent onshore or alongshore flow in this region.

In contrast, the distinct, albeit subtle,  $^{14}C$  enrichment in the long-chain fatty acids from Saanich Inlet (measured as the combined  $nC_{26+28+30+32}$  homologues; Fig. 6a) is coeval with the peak in atmospheric bomb  $\Delta^{14}CO_2$ . Unlike the Cariaco Basin, prevailing winds and the inland setting of Saanich may allow rapid eolian delivery of some fraction of the leaf wax flux, however direct runoff from the heavily

vegetated and steeply sloping hillsides surrounding the inlet seems more likely. The generally lower  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values and lower amplitude enrichment over pre-bomb values in the Saanich record, however, imply the presence of a larger and/or more extensively aged plant wax component, presumably derived from protracted storage in an intermediate reservoir such as soils.

The composite long-chain fatty acid ( $n\text{C}_{24+26+28+30}$ )  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  values for the Mackenzie Delta show a clear maximum around 1968 (in contrast with the  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}_{\text{TOC}}$  peak in 1975), which is in between the initial responses found in the Saanich Inlet (1964) and Cariaco Basin (1975) cores, and could be indicative of a relatively responsive pool of OC (Fig. 6a). The onset of bomb-spike enrichment appears relatively early, however, indicating a greater contribution from an “annual” pool than for the other two locations. A second, lower amplitude peak is also evident in the mid/late 1990s, possibly indicating OC release from an intermediate reservoir. Apart from these two peaks, we observe a slowly decreasing composite  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  value of  $n\text{C}_{24+26+28+30}$  from 1890 to 1950, pointing towards a gradual but consistent aging during this period of more than 50%. This trend may continue during the rest of the 20th century, but is superimposed by other trends and not visible. The slow increase in age is larger than would be expected based on the Suess effect alone (Levin and Hesshaimer, 2000), and thus may reflect increased contributions of (permafrost) soil OC of millennial age. This decreasing  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  trend was corrected in the model by introducing a linear term (see Section 3.3).

#### 4.2. Constraining (soil) reservoir ages

Constraining the age and fractional contribution of each source of lipid biomarkers is beyond the scope of this study, because they likely integrate organic matter that encounters

and passes through a broad continuum of reservoirs ranging from those with very short (such as the atmosphere) to potentially very long (soils and wetlands, permafrost) residence times. Nonetheless, the relationship between the evolution in the  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  profiles of the fatty acid homologues and that of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  over the course of the bomb-spike can be exploited in a modeling framework to quantitatively apportion their sedimentary inventories into several temporally distinct components. Based on the above (Section 3.3), these components are initially defined as contributions from vascular plant material delivered to sediments (i) from annual to decadal reservoirs after the bomb-spike (defined as the ‘young’ pool; younger than ca. 50 years), and (ii) from centennial to millennial reservoirs prior to the bomb-spike (defined as the ‘old’ pool; older than 50 years). This apportionment is broadly analogous to  $^{14}\text{C}$ -based modeling studies of soil C turnover (e.g., Harrison, 1996; Tegen and Dörr, 1996; Mills et al., 2013). Because we consider the vascular plant-derived ( $>n\text{C}_{24}$  long-chain *n*-alkanoic acids) material indicative solely of the terrigenous contribution to the sediments, we have not incorporated contributions from marine material.

The model results show that the contribution of old leaf wax material to the sediments in our systems is quite substantial, from 49–52% for the Saanich Inlet and Mackenzie Delta, to 64–78% in the Cariaco Basin, depending on the modeling results of  $\text{C}_{26-28-30-32}$  and  $\text{C}_{30-32}$  chains for the latter location, respectively (Fig. 7 and Table 2). Note, however, that the modelled (calendar) age of old material ( $\tau_{\text{Old}}$ ) for these different systems is rather variable (Table 2, Fig. 9), from relatively young in Cariaco (both sets of chain-lengths analyzed; 2400–3200 years), to intermediate old ages at Saanich Inlet (close to 7900 years) to significantly older material in Mackenzie (28,000 years; Fig. 3C and Table 1). However, the absolute values of  $\tau_{\text{Old}}$  should be interpreted with care and viewed as approximations also

Table 1  
Sampling and watershed information for the Cariaco Basin, Saanich Inlet, and Mackenzie Delta.

	Cariaco basin	Saanich inlet	Mackenzie delta
Core IDs	CB2; CB5; CB6	SI3; SI4; SI7	MK07#6; MK09#2
Sampling location	10.500°N 64.670°W <sup>a</sup>	48.587°N 123.504°W <sup>a</sup> ; 48.588°N 123.505°W; 48.590°N 123.504°W	68.672°N 134.566°W; 68.671°N 134.565°W
MAT (°C) <sup>b</sup>	30	10	−5
MAP (mm) <sup>c</sup>	ca. 800	ca. 900	250–500
Dominant vegetation	Tropical forest, plains, lowlands	Forest (conifers, cedars, oak)	Boreal forest (conifers), tundra, wetlands
Climate	Tropical	Moist maritime	Subarctic
Characteristics	Anoxic marine basin	Coastal fjord	Arctic delta
Dominant watershed	Unare River	Cowichan River	Mackenzie River
Watershed size (km <sup>2</sup> )	3200 <sup>d</sup>	800	1,750,000 <sup>h</sup>
Discharge (km <sup>3</sup> /year)	1.8 <sup>e</sup>	1.66 <sup>g</sup>	316 <sup>h</sup>
Runoff (mm/year) <sup>f</sup>	560	2075	181 <sup>h</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Cariaco Basin: Three core barrels from one cast (multicorer-5, 305 m water depth); Saanich Inlet: cores taken at 224 m water depth.

<sup>b</sup> Approximate Mean Annual Temperature (MAT) based in watersheds derived from ArcGIS World MAT map (Hijmans et al., 2005).

<sup>c</sup> Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP) from [www.climate-data.org](http://www.climate-data.org).

<sup>d</sup> Data from [www.es.wikipedia.org](http://www.es.wikipedia.org).

<sup>e</sup> Data from Bonell et al. (1993).

<sup>f</sup> Calculated from watershed size and discharge.

<sup>g</sup> Data from Wateroffice Canada [www.wateroffice.ec.gc.ca](http://www.wateroffice.ec.gc.ca) (station ID #08HA011, average 1960–2016).

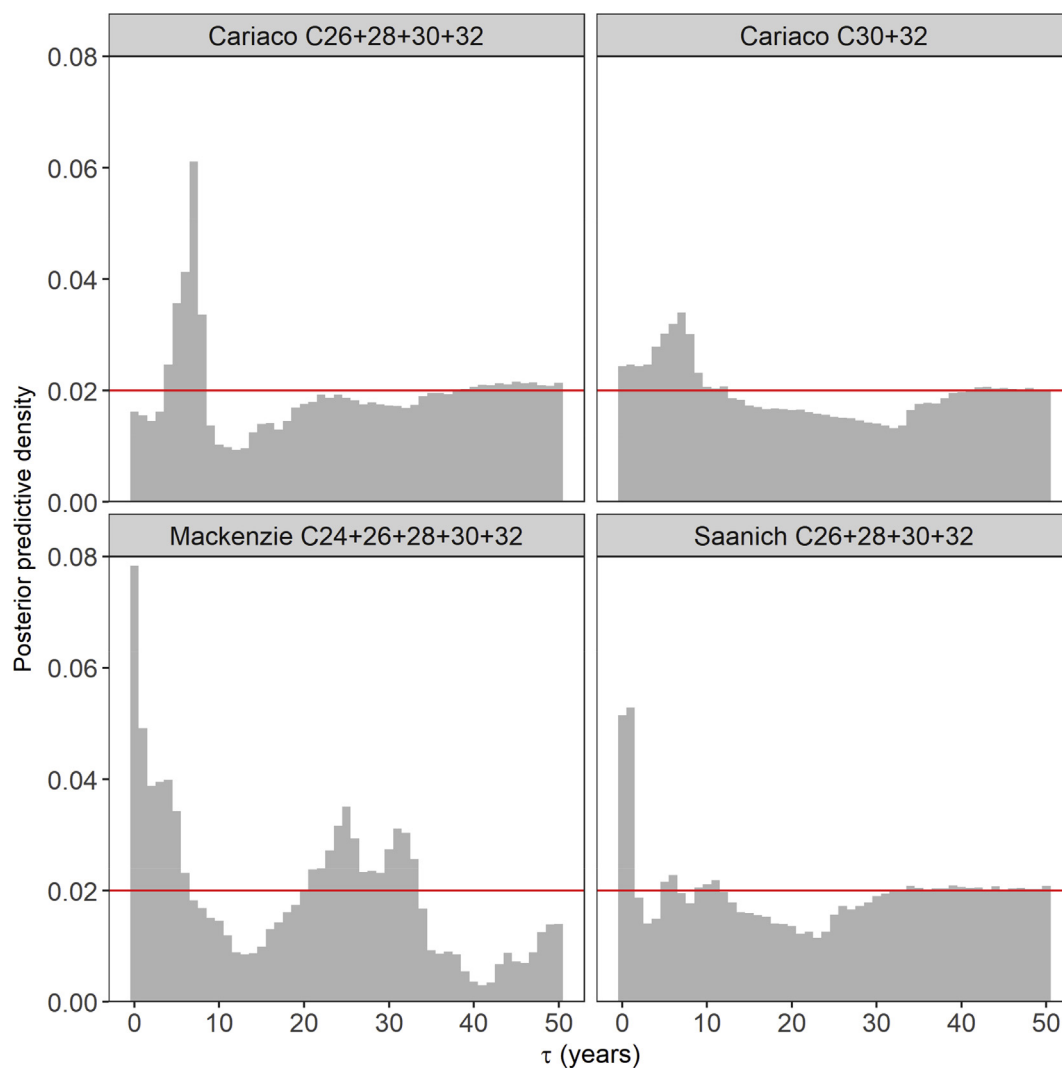
<sup>h</sup> Data from Holmes et al. (2013).

because our model works with the assumption that source proportions (and hence their mean age) are constant which is not accurate. The variable results for the two different modeling exercises of Cariaco Basin fatty acids ( $C_{26-28-30-32}$  and  $C_{30-32}$  chains) indicate that longer chain lengths exhibit, on average, longer residence times in the system, potentially reflecting their relatively recalcitrant nature. This finding touches upon the age-reactivity distribution in organic matter in general, that may be further investigated using different techniques such as ramped pyrolysis  $^{14}C$  analysis (e.g. [Rosenheim and Galy, 2012](#)).

Looking at the detailed modeled profiles for residence times less than 50 years ([Fig. 8](#); [Table 2](#); [Fig. S4](#)), the younger, more dynamic fatty acid pool in the Mackenzie Delta is dominated by an instantaneous/annual contribution (0–2 years; 24%) and a decadal contribution of 15–35 year old material. Saanich Inlet also shows a distinct

annual contribution (0–2 years; 16% of young pool), while Cariaco Basin shows a relatively high contribution of material between 5 and 10 years old (24% of young pool, [Fig. 8](#); [Table 2](#)). For Cariaco Basin and Saanich Inlet, the proportion of leaf wax derived acids approaches the estimated contribution for residence times of 30 years and higher, which is a consequence of low data resolution deeper in the sediment cores.

A recent study by [French et al. \(2018\)](#) used a different, yet broadly comparable, two-component isotope-mixing model combined with modeling of a fast- and slow-cycling component on downcore fatty acid  $\Delta^{14}C$  data from a core collected in the Bay of Bengal that receives material from the Ganges-Brahmaputra watershed. They find that 79–83% of the fatty acids in this core have resided for 1000–1200 years in the catchment, while the remainder was stored for an average of 15 years. We tested running



**Fig. 8.** Estimated predictive distribution of residence times  $\tau$  (in years) less than 50 years against relative contribution of leaf wax derived fatty acids. The red line corresponds to an estimated initial uniform distribution that we chose to set in order to compare between sites. The Mackenzie Delta data are of sufficiently high resolution to “modify” that initial value. The Saanich Inlet and Cariaco Basin, however, show a clear pattern for the first 30 years but the lack of data points results in distributions that approach the estimated value beyond ca. 30 years, meaning that our model predictions are not reliable for this interval.

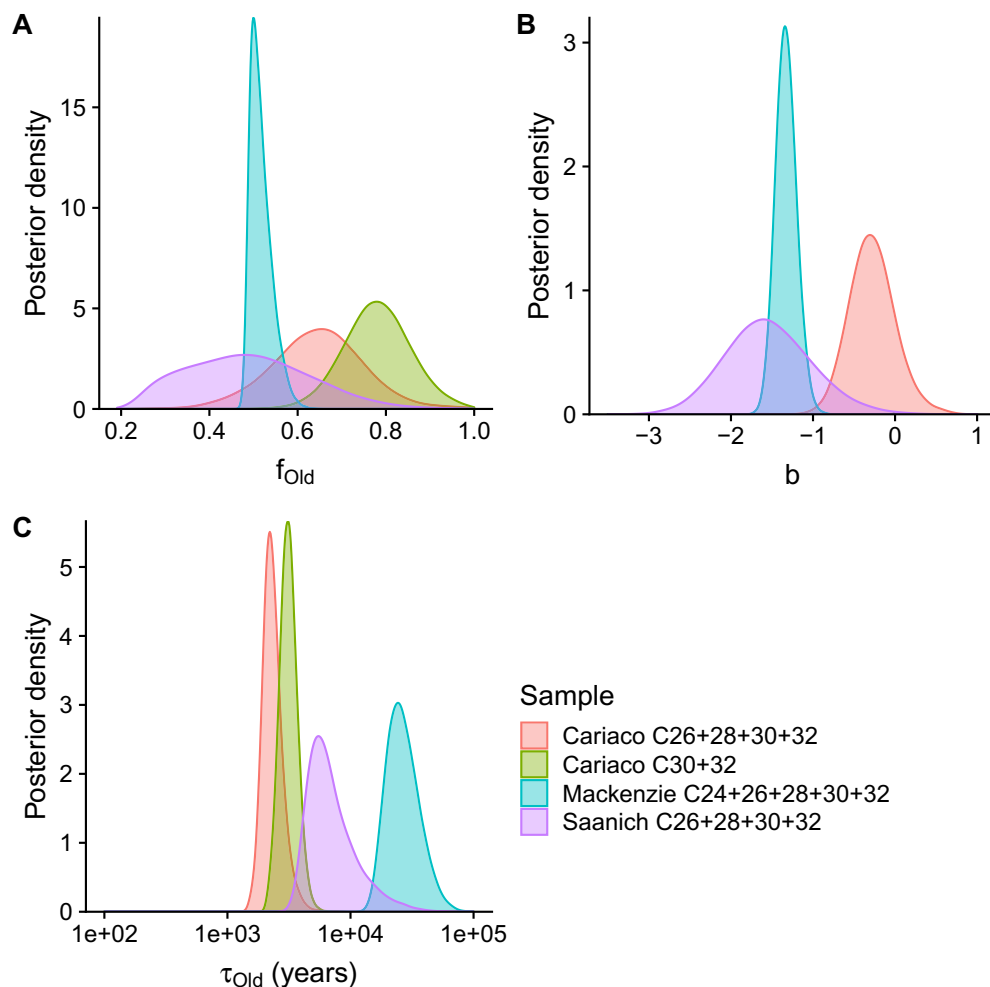


Fig. 9. Estimated parameter densities for (a) fraction old ( $f_{Old}$ ), (b) the slope of the linear term  $b$  correcting for trends observed prior to the bomb-spike (not applied for Cariaco  $C_{30}$ – $C_{32}$ ), and (c) residence time of the old pool ( $\tau_{Old}$ ). Note the logarithmic axis scale of  $\tau_{Old}$ .

Table 2

Estimated mean and standard deviations (between brackets) of the estimated predictive distributions of parameters  $b$ ,  $f_{Old}$ , and  $\tau_{Old}$  as well as the fractional contributions (0–2 years, 0–5 years, 0–10 years, and 10–50 years). The young pool is operationally defined as  $< 50$  years, and all ages are reported in calendar years. Note that the young pool fractions consist of a total of 22–51% ( $1-f_{Old}$ ), but are presented as a total contribution of 100%.

	Old pool contributions/age (y)		Young pool contributions/age (y)				$b$
	$f_{Old}$	$\tau_{Old}$	0–2	0–5	0–10	10–50	
Mackenzie C24-26-28-30-32	0.52 (0.02)	28,290 (9353)	0.24 (0.04)	0.32 (0.04)	0.42 (0.02)	0.58 (0.02)	–1.33 (0.13)
Saanich C26-28-30-32	0.49 (0.14)	7856 (5042)	0.16 (0.04)	0.18 (0.04)	0.28 (0.05)	0.72 (0.05)	–1.54 (0.53)
Cariaco C26-28-30-32	0.64 (0.1)	2382 (502)	0.04 (0.02)	0.08 (0.03)	0.32 (0.05)	0.68 (0.05)	–0.28 (0.28)
Cariaco C30 + 32	0.78 (0.07)	3174 (534)	0.08 (0.04)	0.13 (0.05)	0.30 (0.06)	0.70 (0.06)	0

their data with our model to test if results were comparable. We found that  $73 \pm 2\%$  of the fatty acids were stored for  $1330 \pm 76$  years when modeling the composite  $\Delta^{14}C$  value of  $nC_{24+26+28+30+32}$  while  $75 \pm 4\%$  of the fatty acids were stored for about  $1310 \pm 150$  years (Table S4) when modeling only the  $nC_{28}$  homologue and treating 1975 as an outlier. French et al. (2018) did not incorporate any linear term to correct for trends observed prior to the bomb-spike (our parameter  $b$ ), as their core started in 1945. For

that reason, we also set parameter  $b$  to 0. These results show that our model is capable of predicting the age and residence time of fatty acid components across a wider range of catchments than the three included in this work.

### 4.3. Analysis and implications

The residence time of vascular plant OC in continental drainage basins may be expected to vary as a function of



intrinsic physicochemical properties such as structure, size, polarity, reactivity and mineral association, as well as environmental and geomorphic properties including temperature, permafrost, aridity, soil development, wind stress, and the size and topographic relief of a particular catchment basin (Trumbore and Harden, 1997; Wang et al., 1999; Quideau et al., 2001). Moreover, anthropogenic activities such as urbanization, damming, deforestation and cultivation of previously wooded landscapes in the last few centuries have not only shifted the type of OC delivered to the aquatic environment (Smittenberg et al., 2004; Wiesenberg et al., 2004), but have also altered its rate of discharge as water flow patterns and/or structural integrity of soils are modified (Wang et al., 1999; Smittenberg, 2003).

The observed variability within the younger (more responsive) pool of vascular plant matter being delivered to our study sites (Fig. 8) can be explained by the factors described above. The pronounced Spring freshet in the Mackenzie River generates a strong flushing of surface soil and litter, delivering very recent material of 1–2 years old to the fluvial network, as also supported by young DOC ages (Raymond et al., 2007). In contrast, the distinct “annual” signal in the Saanich Inlet sediments most likely reflects rapid transport from the steep, densely vegetated hillslopes in the nearby Cowichan River catchment, strengthened by a high annual runoff of 2075 mm (Table 1). Cariaco Basin sediments do not show a clear “annual” signal but instead indicate the presence of material that is 5–10 years old. We hypothesize that this is annually-delivered terrestrial (fluvial) matter influenced by transport time offshore, possibly mixed with minor contributions of eolian inflow (Elmore et al., 2009; Martinez et al., 2010) and/or resuspended sediment from the continental slope. A decadal signal (20–30 years) within the young pool is also observed in the model results of the Mackenzie Delta, pointing to a pool of plant waxes that undergo storage and/or transport on slightly longer timescales (Fig. 8). This delayed pattern may be a consequence of cascading deposition and resuspension processes acting upon recent Spring flood materials as sediments move through the delta. Alternatively, the decadal signal may be the integrated signal of seasonal growth and runoff reflecting the annual export from the large drainage basin (nearly 1.8 million km<sup>2</sup>). The amount of precipitation within these drainage basins may also play an important role, especially with respect to the decadal pool. While more seasonal over northern South America than in coastal British Columbia, annual mean rainfall is comparable between locales with ca. 750 and 900 mm, respectively (Table 1). The large Mackenzie River watershed has on average a more continental setting with an annual mean rainfall of 250–500 mm.

The disparity in the age of the old reservoirs in the Cariaco Basin, Saanich Inlet, and Mackenzie watersheds indicates these respond to different properties of the drainage basin. Potential factors include size and topographic relief of local rivers and their associated watersheds, the age and development of the underlying soils, the presence/absence of permafrost, floodplain dynamics, and annual and seasonal patterns of temperature and precipitation. Differences in MAT for our catchments, ranging from

–5 °C to 30 °C (Table 1) may be the most obvious parameter explaining the order of magnitude difference in old residence times. Currently, resolving other key controls is not possible in the absence of similar molecular <sup>14</sup>C information for a broader range of fluvial systems. Many previous investigations have uncovered evidence for annual to multi-millennial residence times for lipids and bulk OC in soils (e.g., Harrison, 1996; Tegen and Dörr, 1996; Rethemeyer et al., 2004; Smittenberg et al., 2006; Vonk et al., 2015a,b; Hilton et al., 2015; Van der Voort et al., 2017). Smittenberg et al. (2006) found that soil redevelopment following glacial retreat in British Columbia was accompanied by a steady increase in the age of higher plant alkanes accumulating in Saanich Inlet sediments over the Holocene. The temporal resolution of that study (covering the past ca. 12,000 years) was far too coarse to resolve a decadal component, but the reported <sup>14</sup>C-age of *n*-alkanes extracted from surficial sediments (from 4800 to 7900 yrs BP; Smittenberg et al., 2004) reveals the presence of ancient carbon reservoirs in this system that are similar in age to the residence time for the old pool calculated here. Such close correspondence indicates that the age of this reservoir may be linked to soil properties in a particular drainage basin, and predicts that OC in soils surrounding the Saanich Inlet is more slowly cycled than that in northern South America (Cariaco Basin). In the more northern Mackenzie Delta, recent studies report the average <sup>14</sup>C-age of biogenic terrestrial OC (i.e. corrected for the simultaneously released petrogenic component) delivered to the delta to be 5800–6100 years BP (Hilton et al., 2015; Vonk et al., 2015a,b). This is lower than the old residence time calculated here (28 ky; Table 2), but these biogenic terrestrial OC ages are a composite of various pools of organic compounds with different average residence times in the watershed, likely also including a large fraction of younger compounds such as short-chain fatty acids, lignin or hydroxy phenols that were measured to have approximate ages of 20, 2800, and 2900 years BP in Mackenzie shelf sediments, respectively (Feng et al., 2015). An important factor for the northern soils in this region is the presence of permafrost, which generally acts as a delay for release of soil organic matter into fluvial systems, and increases the mean soil OC residence time when the continuity of permafrost increases (Gustafsson et al., 2011). However, the age of recalcitrant terrestrial compounds, such as plant wax lipids, tends to be higher in regions of discontinuous permafrost, potentially due to increased hydrological connectivity that affords OC mobilization from deeper soil horizons (Gustafsson et al., 2011; Feng et al., 2013, 2015). A large fraction of the Mackenzie watershed is underlain by discontinuous permafrost, potentially explaining the modeled 28 ky for the residence time of the old pool.

Lastly, it is important to point out that some portion of these residence times may not be exclusively attributable to terrestrial reservoirs. Rather, vascular plant OC might age significantly during repeated deposition/resuspension cycles in deltaic and inner shelf sediments before ultimate burial in the lower energy regions of the continental margins (Hedges and Keil, 1995; Bao et al., 2016). Although not expected to be a major effect in the relatively small, steep-sided basin

that comprises Saanich Inlet (turbidite deposits being the notable exception) and perhaps only minor in the annually-flooded, but extensive Mackenzie Delta, this effect might have a larger impact on  $^{14}\text{C}$  ages of fatty acids in the Cariaco Basin, where the mouths of the Tuy and Unare rivers are separated from the basin by a relatively broad (up to ca. 50 km) shelf. Irrespective of the underlying processes responsible for the translocation of terrestrial OC from its location of production to receiving basin, it is clear that resulting sedimentary signatures incorporate convoluted storage and transport histories that must be considered in carbon cycle studies and in interpretation of sedimentary records.

## 5. CONCLUSION

Compound-specific radiocarbon analysis of long-chain fatty acids isolated from the Cariaco Basin, Saanich Inlet, and Mackenzie Delta sediments indicates that a portion of vascular plant OC is aged for several millennia on the continents prior to delivery to adjacent sedimentary deposits. Comparison of down-core  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  profiles of fatty acids to  $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$  variations in atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  over the 20th century in a modeling framework indicates that approximately 50 to >75% of the plant wax input was retained within the watershed for several millennia, while the remainder experienced a much shorter delay of only a few years to a few decades prior to export and deposition in the receiving basin. Together with petrogenic debris, this old terrestrial material likely represents a primary source of old OC currently being buried in deltaic and continental margin sediments.

The relative contributions of annual vs. decadal material in the young pool of our catchments is likely determined by landscape-specific factors such as discharge, or catchment relief. We reason that the strikingly different ages of the millennially-aged old carbon pool at our study sites (ranging between 2.4 and 28 ky old) may be driven by larger-scale climatic factors such as MAT. As our catchments cover about 60 degrees of latitude, the MAT values vary from +30 °C to –5 °C, which may be an important driver for these age contrasts, as MAT drives e.g. rates of soil formation, OC turnover, and stability (e.g., permafrost), which may in turn impact the vascular plant OC residence times in terrestrial systems.

While we should not neglect the limitations of our modeling approach, it seems that our model is sufficiently robust to predict comparable age and residence time of terrestrial OC from the Ganges-Brahmaputra watershed that was recently modeled by French et al. (2018). Pre-aging of vascular plant OC in terrestrial reservoirs prior to sedimentary accumulation may have important implications for the interpretation of paleoclimate records based on vascular plant biomarkers and their temporal relationships to other proxies of marine and terrestrial conditions. Down-core variations in the distributions and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta\text{D}$  compositions of leaf waxes are being increasingly employed to reconstruct fluctuations in continental aridity (Meyers, 1997; Schefuss et al., 2003; Hughen et al., 2004; Makou et al., 2007; Giosan et al., 2017). Although decadal residence times alone would have a minimal impact on the

interpretation of these records, supply of extensively aged biomarkers may result in phase-shifted or muted signals relative to marine and other terrestrial proxies, especially across rapid transitions in temperature and precipitation (e.g., Hughen et al., 2004). In general, any kind of paleoenvironmental material used in reconstructions (e.g. pollen, diatoms, charcoal) may be affected by this 'pre-aging' when prone to long-term storage and transport. Further research is therefore clearly needed to fully capture the extent and consequence of multi-millennial terrestrial residence times for any kind of fossil OC.

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## APPENDIX A. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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