



Climate change
increases riverine
carbon outgassing

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Climate change increases riverine carbon outgassing while export to the ocean remains uncertain

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Abstract

Carbon fluxes in the Amazon Basin are considerably influenced by annual flooding during which terrigenous organic material is imported to the river. This regular interaction affects carbon pools within the riverine system, terrestrial carbon, and carbon exported to the ocean and released to the atmosphere. The processes of generation, conversion, and transport of organic carbon in this coupled terrigenous–riverine system strongly interact and are climate-sensitive, yet their response to climate change is still largely unknown. To quantify climate change effects on carbon pools and on carbon fluxes within the river and to the ocean and the atmosphere, we developed the riverine carbon model RivCM, which is directly coupled to the well-established dynamic vegetation and hydrology model LPJmL. We show here that RivCM successfully reproduces observed values in exported carbon and riverine carbon concentration. We evaluate future changes in riverine carbon by applying RivCM for climate forcing from five climate models and three CO₂ emission scenarios (SRES). We find that climate change causes a doubling of riverine organic carbon in the Southern and Western basin while reducing it by 20 % in the eastern and northern parts. In contrast, the amount of riverine inorganic carbon shows a 2- to 3-fold increase in the entire basin, independent of the SRES scenario. The export of carbon to the atmosphere increases as well with an average of about 30 %. In contrast, changes in future export of organic carbon to the Atlantic Ocean depend on the SRES scenario and are projected to either decrease by about 8.9 % (SRES A1B) or increase by about 9.1 % (SRES A2). Such changes in the terrigenous–riverine system could have local and regional impacts on the carbon budget of the whole Amazon Basin and parts of the Atlantic Ocean. Changes in the riverine carbon could lead to a shift in the riverine nutrient supply and pH, while changes in the exported carbon to the ocean leads to changes in the supply of organic material that acts as food source in the Atlantic. On the larger scale the increased outgassing of CO₂ could turn the Amazon Basin from a sink of carbon to a considerable source. There-

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fore we propose that the coupling of terrestrial and riverine carbon budget should be included in subsequent analysis of the future regional carbon budget.

1 Introduction

The Amazon River and in particular, the annually recurring flooding of parts of the forests, shape the manifold Amazonian ecosystems. The flooding is most decisive for the coupling of terrestrial and aquatic processes by transferring organic material from the terrestrial ecosystems in the river (Hedges et al., 2000). The water rises with an amplitude of only some centimetres in small tributaries to up to 15 m in the main stem (Junk, 1985). In central Amazonia during high water about 16% of the area is flooded, while only 4% are flooded permanently (Richey et al., 2002). During flooding, deposited litter and soil carbon which originates from terrestrial vegetation is one source of organic material imported into the river system. The input of terrigenous organic material affects the riverine system enormously on a local scale (Melack and Forsberg, 2001; Waterloo et al., 2006). It acts, for instance, as fertilizer and food source (Anderson et al., 2011; Horn et al., 2011), and is a modifier of habitats and interacting local carbon cycles (Hedges et al., 2000; Irmler, 1982; Johnson et al., 2006; McClain and Elsenbeer, 2001). Whereas in most limnic systems additional organic material produced by aquatic photosynthesis plays a major role for the riverine organic carbon pools (Lampert and Sommer, 1999; Schwoerbel and Brendelberger, 2005), the aquatic photosynthesis rate in large parts of the Amazon River network is comparably low and submerged plants rarely occur (Junk and Piedade, 1997). Here, the input of allochthonous material produced in the floodplain forests is more relevant than the production of organic matter within the river (Abril et al., 2014; Cole and Caraco, 2001; Druffel et al., 2005; Mayorga et al., 2005). The low aquatic productivity in the river system is caused by high sediment load and thus high turbidity in white water rivers and low nutrient supply in the black water rivers (Benner et al., 1995; Richey et al., 1990; Sioli, 1957).

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On a larger scale, the release of carbon into the atmosphere and the export to the ocean are the most relevant factors, when it comes to estimating the effects of Amazon ecosystems on climate change. Approximately $32.7 \times 10^{12} \text{ gCyr}^{-1}$ (Moreira-Turcq et al., 2003) of total organic carbon (TOC) is exported to the Atlantic Ocean, in comparison to about $470 \times 10^{12} \text{ gCyr}^{-1}$ (Richey et al., 2002) exported to the atmosphere as CO_2 . While the carbon released to the atmosphere proliferates climate change immediately, the carbon exported to the ocean affects the marine ecosystems over hundreds of square kilometres off the mouth of the Amazon River thereby possibly influencing ocean–atmosphere carbon exchange over several weeks to months (Cooley et al., 2007; Cooley and Yager, 2006; Körtzinger, 2003; Subramaniam et al., 2008).

Hydrologic or limnic production as well as transformation and export of carbon have been estimated in a number of empirical (case) studies. These studies highlight different aspects of the system, e.g. showing that the carbon within the river mainly originates from tree leaves and other non-woody material from *Várzea* systems (Hedges et al., 2000; Moreira-Turcq et al., 2003), describing reasons for temporal and spatial differentiations of organic matter within the river (Aufdenkampe et al., 2007; Devol et al., 1995), and modelling the hydrological and biochemical aquatic carbon budget over a 2000 km-reach (Bustillo et al., 2011). Several studies already combined the aquatic and the terrestrial compartment of the system by including the adjacent forests (Johnson et al., 2006; Cole et al., 2000; Richey et al., 2002; Neu et al., 2011; Abril et al., 2014), but these studies focus on estimating carbon budgets under current climate conditions.

By improving the understanding of how future climate change could influence the largest interconnected ecosystem on Earth (Bauer et al., 2013; Sjögersten et al., 2014), an in-depth analysis of the coupled terrigenous–riverine carbon fluxes and pools in the Amazon basin is required. Climate and atmospheric CO_2 , terrestrial productivity, water discharge and flooding patterns strongly interact and thus control the amount of carbon in the Amazon river. But they also influence its further conversion and transport within the river system, which finally determine carbon export to either atmosphere or ocean.

This tight coupling of the terrigenous–riverine system makes the Amazon Basin highly sensitive for climate change impacts.

This study aims at taking first steps towards an understanding of carbon fluxes in the terrigenous–river–ocean system under future climate change by addressing the following research questions:

1. How will the highly interdependent and strongly climate-controlled carbon fluxes and pools in the Amazon Basin change during the 21st century?
2. Which regions in the Amazon Basin are likely to be most strongly impacted by climate change?
3. How does climate change alter the proportion of carbon immediately released to the atmosphere vs. carbon exported to the ocean?
4. How relevant is the amount of riverine outgassed carbon for the basin-wide carbon budget in a changing climate?

To address these questions we developed and applied the **Riverine Carbon Model** (RivCM) for the Amazon Basin that is directly coupled to the dynamic vegetation and hydrology model LPJmL (Bondeau et al., 2007; Gerten et al., 2004; Rost et al., 2008; Sitch et al., 2003). RivCM focuses on the export, transport and conversion of terrestrial fixed carbon. Carbon pools and fluxes for the most important transport and transformation processes are validated for current conditions based on observational data.

To investigate potential future changes in the different carbon fluxes and pools, the model was forced by climate change scenarios that cover a large range of uncertainty in climate change projections for the Amazon Basin. Based on these simulations, we identify areas most heavily affected by climate change. We estimated temporal changes in the different carbon fluxes and pools, as well as the carbon released to the atmosphere and exported to the ocean. To additionally assess the benefit of including inundated areas in the model, a full factorial experiment was conducted.

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2 Methods

The **Riverine Carbon Model** (RivCM) is a grid-based model simulating riverine carbon dynamics on monthly time steps. It is coupled to the process-based dynamic global vegetation and hydrology model LPJmL (Bondeau et al., 2007; Gerten et al., 2004; Rost et al., 2008; Sitch et al., 2003). RivCM is driven by current and future climate and atmospheric CO₂ data. An overview about the interconnection between the models and scenarios is given in Fig. 1.

2.1 Model descriptions

2.1.1 The dynamic global vegetation and hydrology model LPJmL

The process-based dynamic global vegetation and hydrology model LPJmL (Bondeau et al., 2007; Gerten et al., 2004; Rost et al., 2008; Sitch et al., 2003) calculates carbon and corresponding water fluxes globally with a spatial resolution of $0.5 \times 0.5^\circ$ (lat/lon) and daily time steps. For the simulation of potential natural vegetation and the main processes controlling its dynamics, LPJmL uses climate data (temperature, precipitation and cloud cover), atmospheric CO₂, and soil texture as input. The main processes are photosynthesis based on Farquhar et al. (1980) and Collatz et al. (1992), auto- and heterotrophic respiration, establishment, mortality and phenology. These processes lead to dynamic changes in carbon stored in the vegetation, litter and soil. Simulated water fluxes include evaporation, soil moisture, snowmelt, runoff, discharge, interception and transpiration. Globally, LPJmL calculates the performance of nine plant functional types in each grid cell, each of these representing an assortment of species classified as being functionally similar. In the Amazon Basin, LPJmL primarily simulates three of these plant functional types, representing tropical evergreen and deciduous forest and C4 grasses. The monthly aggregated amounts of carbon stored in litter and soil, as well as the grid-cell's amount of discharged and stored water are used as an input to RivCM.

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et al., 2011; Melack et al., 2004; Richey et al., 2002). We therefore considered only the outgassing of CO₂ in the model (CO₂ in Fig. 2).

An overview of model input, comprising static data (describing fixed site conditions), and dynamic data, like climate, atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and terrigenous organic carbon, is given in Table 1. Physical constants are listed in Table 2. The following sections describe the input data, modelling approach of individual processes and the coupling to LPJmL.

Input data and RivCM model initialization

River type and *river order* (Fig. 3), as well as *river area* which represents about 25 % of the potential floodable area (Langerwisch et al., 2013), prescribe the size and characteristics of the river stretch. The *river type* of each cell was defined by combining information published by Sioli (1957), Irion (1976), and Diegues (1994), and can be either white, black or clear water. The river colour depends on the amount of sediments and dissolved organic material in the water. It determines amongst others the pH and the temperature. For simplification, very small catchments (smaller than the simulated resolution) of deviating river types were neglected and the dominant river type was used. River order is represented by three classes and defined by total annual discharge ($< 8 \times 10^3$, 8×10^3 to 2×10^5 , $> 2 \times 10^5$ m³ yr⁻¹). Additionally, the grid cell that receives the routed water (*rout cell*) is determined by a digital elevation model (as also in Rost et al., 2008). The water is routed with a slope depending flow velocity v [ms⁻¹] (Langerwisch et al., 2013).

Data input from LPJmL to RivCM

Monthly discharge (Mdis, m³ s⁻¹), amount of water (Mwat, m³), soil water content for two soil layers (Mswc₁ within the upper soil layer (soildepth₁ = 200 cm) and Mswc₂ within the lower soil layer (soildepth₂ = 300 cm), %) are provided by LPJmL. Addition-

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ally, annual litter carbon (ALitc, g m^{-2}) and soil carbon (ASoicL, g m^{-2}) are provided by LPJmL (see also Figs. 1 and 2).

Atmospheric CO_2 concentration (atmCO_2 , ppm) and monthly temperature (T , $^\circ\text{C}$) prescribing abiotic atmospheric conditions are derived from the climate input data sets (see Sect. 2.2).

Water temperature

Water temperature at time t [$^\circ\text{C}$] depends on air temperature ($T_{\text{air},t}$) [$^\circ\text{C}$] and river colour, given by river type. In white and clear water rivers the temperature is below air temperature. The calculation of water temperature of these rivers is conducted according to Eq. (1) based on Bogan et al. (2003), with T_t calculated as

$$T_t = 0.6946 \cdot T_{\text{air},t} + 5.19. \quad (1)$$

The temperature in black water rivers is close to air temperature.

Temperature response

The respiration reaction calculated in RivCM at time t is adjusted according to the water temperature T_t by a coefficient for temperature response Tresponse_t (Eq. 2) (Lampert and Sommer, 1999). Additionally to the temperature response in water (and water saturated soil), a temperature response for (unsaturated) soils was calculated with Eq. (3).

$$\text{Tresponse}_t = e^{308.56 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{56.02} - \frac{1}{T_t + 46.02} \right)} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Tresponse}_{\text{dry},t} = \text{Tresponse}_t \cdot \frac{1 - \left(e^{-\frac{\text{Mswc}_1 \cdot \text{soildepth}_1 + \text{Mswc}_2 \cdot \text{soildepth}_2}{\text{soildepth}_1 + \text{soildepth}_2}} \right)}{1 - (e^{-1})} \quad (3)$$

This is based on the empirical relationship of temperature response in soils (Lloyd and Taylor, 1994, also applied in LPJmL) which is valid for temperatures above -40°C .

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Initialization of litter and soil carbon

As initialization for L_{itc} and S_{oilc} in the first simulated month, RivCM uses the litter and soil carbon stocks (A_{litc} , A_{soilc}) from LPJmL. Analogue to LPJmL, a further division of S_{oilc} into a fast respiring fraction (10% $S_{oilc_{fast}}$) and a slow respiring fraction (90% $S_{oilc_{slow}}$) was calculated. Additionally, the annually produced litter prior respiration is used in RivCM. Since LPJmL does not account for inundation, which changes respiration, the respiration of litter in (partly) water-saturated soils is calculated within RivCM.

In general, in tropical forests litter falls continuously throughout the year (Müller-Hohenstein, 1981). In forests, where the flooding triggers litter fall, a peak of litter fall occurs during rising and high water stage (Irmeler, 1982). Because this is not accounted for in LPJmL, the annual un-respired litter carbon pool provided by LPJmL, $A_{litc_{unresp}}$ was heterogeneously partitioned over 12 months to initialize the monthly litter amount ($L_{itc_{unresp}}$) in RivCM (Fig. 2, INPUT box). With Eqs. (4) and (5) the maximum amount of carbon was distributed to the month with high water and the minimum (at least 10% of annual litter) was distributed to the month with low water. This depended on the distance between the current month to the distance between the month with high water peak and the month with low water peak ($dist_{highlow}$). With this approach we achieved a skewed distribution of litter carbon. The factor for the monthly fraction ($fraction_{mt}$) was calculated with

$$fraction_{m_t} = \cos\left(\frac{m_t}{dist_{highlow}} \cdot \pi\right) + (1.0 + litfrac_{min}) \quad (4)$$

if the current month number (m_t ; from 0–11) is smaller than the distance between high and low water peak ($dist_{highlow}$), to distribute the maximum amount of carbon to the month with high water, or with

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$$\text{fraction}_{m_t} = -\cos\left(\frac{m_t - \text{dist}_{\text{highlow}}}{12 - \text{dist}_{\text{highlow}}}\cdot\pi\right) + (1.0 + \text{litfrac}_{\text{min}}) \quad (5)$$

if the current month number (m_t ; from 0–11) is larger than the distance between high and low water peak ($\text{dist}_{\text{highlow}}$) to distribute the minimum amount of carbon ($\geq 10\%$ of annual litter) to the month with low water. Eq. (4) calculates the convex part of the function, while Eq. (5) calculates the concave part of the function. The first part of both equations represents the cosine portion, and the second part sets the minimum of litter for the month with the low water peak $\text{litfrac}_{\text{min}}$.

By calculating the fraction of current monthly litter production vs. total litter production in the course of each year (Eq. 6), the total monthly un-respired litter carbon ($\text{Litc}_{\text{unresp}_t}$) can be determined with Eq. (7).

$$\text{mfraction}_t = \frac{\text{fraction}_{m_t}}{\sum_{t=0}^{11} \text{fraction}_{m_t}} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Litc}_{\text{unresp}_t} = \text{mfraction}_t \cdot \text{ALitc}_{\text{unresp}} \quad (7)$$

Respiration of litter and soil carbon

The initialized litter and soil carbon pools (Litc , Soilc) are respired and re-filled with the amount of the respiration of un-respired litter carbon ($\text{Litc}_{\text{unresp}}$). The calculation of respiration of organic matter depends on soil water content and temperature. The soil water content (Mswc) in un-inundated grid cells was provided by LPJmL, while the soil water content of (partly) inundated cells was calculated depending on the fraction of cell covered with water in RivCM. In inundated parts of the grid cell the soil water content was set to 100%. The respiration of the un-respired litter carbon and the soil carbon was calculated analogous to the LPJmL routine (for details see also Supplement Eqs. S1 to S12).

$$\text{Litc}_{t_{\text{corr}}} = \text{Litc}_t \cdot \text{carboncorr} \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Soilc}_{t_{\text{corr}}} = \text{Soilc}_t \cdot \text{carboncorr} \quad (12)$$

For simplicity the following equations do only refer to Litc, instead of to the corrected value Litc_{corr} in case of *Igapó*.

5 The mobilization of litter and soil carbon at time t (mLitc_t , mSoilc_t , $10^6 \text{ g C cell}^{-1}$) is calculated using the specific mobilization rates for litter and soil carbon (Table 3, Eqs. 13 and 14).

$$\text{mLitc}_t = \text{Litc}_t \cdot \text{FloodplainArea}_t \cdot \text{mobil}_{\text{litter}} \quad (13)$$

$$\text{mSoilc}_t = \text{Soilc}_t \cdot \text{FloodplainArea}_t \cdot \text{mobil}_{\text{soilc}} \quad (14)$$

10 According to Irmler (1982), litter carbon is mobilized with a rate of 0.4 month^{-1} . After a sensitivity analysis this rate ($\text{mobil}_{\text{litter}}$) was calibrated to 0.7 month^{-1} (see Supplement). Soil carbon mobilization takes place at a much smaller rate. Since no detailed value is available, the rate of soil mobilization ($\text{mobil}_{\text{soilc}}$) was calibrated after a sensitivity analysis to 0.05 month^{-1} . Mobilized carbon [$10^6 \text{ g C cell}^{-1}$], originating from litter and soil, consists of a particulate (mPOC_t) and a dissolved (mDOC_t) carbon pool with the fractions of mobil_p and $(1.0 - \text{mobil}_p)$, respectively (Table 3, Eqs. 15 and 16).

$$\text{mPOC}_t = (\text{mLitc}_t + \text{mSoilc}_t) \cdot \text{mobil}_p \quad (15)$$

$$\text{mDOC}_t = (\text{mLitc}_t + \text{mSoilc}_t) \cdot (1.0 - \text{mobil}_p) \quad (16)$$

20 The fraction of mobilized particulate carbon (mobil_p) was set to 0.5 according to McClain and Elsenbeer (2001) and Johnson et al. (2006) and was evaluated in a sensitivity analysis (Supplement).

Decomposition

Depending on the rate of decomposition (decomp , month^{-1} , Table 3), the model calculates the conversion from particulate (mPOC_t) into dissolved organic carbon (dDOC_{t+1})

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Outgassing

The model calculates the monthly saturation concentration of CO₂ saturationC_t in the water Mwat_t [m³] (Eq. 25)

$$\text{saturationC}_t = k_H^\theta \cdot e^{d \ln k_H \cdot \left(\frac{1}{T_t + 273.15} - \frac{1}{T^\theta} \right)} \cdot \frac{\text{atmCO}_{2t}}{10^6} \cdot \text{ctoco2} \cdot \text{Mwat}_t \cdot 10^3 \quad (25)$$

5 using Henry's Law (Sander, 1999) and applying Henry's law constant (k_H^θ , g CO₂ L⁻¹ atm⁻¹) under standard conditions ($T^\theta = 298.15$ K), temperature dependence of the Henry's law constant ($d \ln k_H$, K), the ratio of carbon to carbon dioxide (ctoco2), and monthly temperature T_t in °C. Afterwards, monthly saturation is multiplied with a monthly saturation factor (co2satur, Eq. (26), Table 3), which accounts for the super-
10 saturation of the water with CO₂. These values depend on the hydrograph and were extracted from Richey et al. (2002). The difference between inorganic carbon amount and saturation concentration was added to the atmosphere carbon pool (lcoutgas_{t+1}, Eq. 27), while carbon in the river equals the saturation concentration (oIC_{t+1}, Eq. 28).

$$\text{saturationCcorr}_t = \text{saturationC}_t \cdot \text{co2satur} \quad (26)$$

$$15 \text{ lcoutgas}_{t+1} = \text{lcoutgas}_t + (rIC_{t+1} - \text{saturationCcorr}_t) \quad (27)$$

$$\text{oIC}_{t+1} = \text{saturationCcorr}_t \quad (28)$$

2.2 Climate data sets

For model evaluation, climate forcing data from a homogenized and extended CRU
20 TS2.1 global climate dataset (Österle et al., 2003; Mitchell and Jones, 2005) were used. Annual atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were prescribed as given by Keeling and Whorf (2003).

For the assessment of climate change impacts, three SRES scenarios (A1B, A2, B1) (Nakićenović et al., 2000) were applied. Five General Circulation Models (GCMs)

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remains dry to emulate no coupling of land and river. In this simulation experiment no export of organic material from the land to the river was calculated. Hence, no discharge of carbon to the ocean, no outgassing, but release of CO₂ from the terrestrial heterotrophic respiration was calculated.

- Setting 3 (*NoRiv*) includes calculations in which the original LPJmL results for CO₂ release from vegetation only were used, i.e. the influence of the river and inundation were not accounted for. In these simulations no outgassing from the water and no discharge of carbon to the ocean was calculated. In contrast, outgassing from the heterotrophic respiration of the forest, also in the areas in which RivCM simulates river area, was calculated.

In a full factorial design, all inundation scenarios (*Standard*, *NoInun* and *NoRiv*) were run for all climate scenarios for future and current climate.

2.5 Analyses of future changes in the coupled terrigenous–riverine system

The effect of climate change is estimated by calculating the differences between carbon values in a future period (2070–2099) and a reference period (1971–2000). Four different carbon pools were analysed, namely outgassed carbon (atmospheric), riverine particulate organic carbon (POC) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC), as well as the riverine inorganic carbon pool (IC) and. The relative changes in POC and DOC are spatially and temporally similar (Fig. S4). Therefore, only POC is shown and discussed in detail.

The spatial distribution of climate change effects (E_{CC}) on the different carbon pools and fluxes (indicated by f_n) were estimated by calculating for each cell the quotient (Eq. 29) of future values (mean of 2070–2099) and reference values (mean of 1971–2000). To equalize a tenfold increase (10^{+1}) and a reduction to one tenth (10^{-1}), the quotient was log-transformed (\log_{10}).

$$E_{CC_n} = \log_{10} \frac{\sum_{n=2070}^{2099} C_n}{\sum_{n=1971}^{2000} C_n} \quad (29)$$

To show model uncertainty that arises from differences in climate model projections an indicator of the agreement between simulation results was calculated, it indicates a common significant increase or decrease, respectively, of three, four or all five climate models. In addition, the significance (p value < 0.05) of the difference between reference and future was assessed by a Wilcoxon Rank-Sum Test (Bauer, 1972). This test can be used for datasets that are not normally distributed and is therefore applicable to these data with high intra-annual fluctuations.

Additionally to the analysis of spatial patterns, an analysis of changes in mean carbon pools over time was conducted. As above, changes were expressed as the logarithm of the quotient between annual future values and mean reference values. In addition to these relative changes, the absolute values in both periods were compared. The analysis was conducted both for the whole Amazon Basin and for three selected sub-regions. These three regions, indicated in Fig. 6a, were identified according to future changes in inundation patterns, discussed in Langerwisch et al. (2013). These areas include a region in the Western basin with projected increase in inundation length and inundated area (R1), a region covering the Amazon main stem (R2) with intermediate changes in inundation and a region with projected decrease in duration of inundation and inundated area (R3). For details of the exact position of these regions see Table 5.

All statistical analyses were conducted using several packages in R. For the sensitivity analysis the package “vegan” (Oksanen et al., 2011) and for the analysis of the projections the packages “stats” (R Core Team, 2014) and “maptools” (Bivand and Lewin-Koh, 2012) were used.

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3 Results

3.1 Changes in riverine carbon under future climate projections

The amount of outgassed carbon (Fig. 4a) is simulated to remain constant compared to 1971–2000 until about 2020. This is followed by a clear increase. This increase is strongest in region R1 (mean +70%) while it is moderate in R2 and R3 (+30 and +20%, respectively). Generally, the simulated increase is largest for the SRES A2 scenario, followed by the A1B and the B1 scenario (see also Fig. 5). The spread of simulated outgassed carbon is comparably large between the five climate models. Outgassed carbon shows a basin wide increase (Fig. 6g–i). In most parts of the basin the outgassed carbon increases only slightly but significantly ($p < 0.05$; up to 2.5-fold, $10^{0.4}$). In parts of the Andes the increase is up to 6-fold ($10^{0.8}$), shown by at least four of the five climate models (as indicated by crosses in Fig. 6). In a few areas in the Southern Andes the outgassed carbon decreases (0.3-fold, $10^{-0.3}$).

The changes in POC (Fig. 4b) show a slight basin wide increase of about +10% (SRES mean) until the end of the century. In region R1 this increase is larger, with +50% (SRES A2) and +35% (SRES B1). In the regions R2 and R3 the POC amounts remain nearly constant (+5 and $\pm 0\%$, respectively). A wide range of possible paths of simulated POC amounts is spanned by the five climate models, whereas the three emission scenarios only result in minor differences in simulation results (see also Fig. 5). The spatial changes for POC show an up to 2.5-fold increase ($10^{0.4}$) in the western and south-western part of Amazonia for all three SRES emissions scenarios (Fig. 6a–c) with high agreement between the five climate models compared to the reference period. In contrast, climate model agreement in the northern and north-western basin is lower and shows a decreasing trend in the POC pool with a factor of 0.4 ($10^{-0.4}$). For the central part of the basin, no clear trend is visible. POC seems to be less sensitive to different changes in atmospheric CO_2 concentrations compared to IC as only small regional differences were simulated with POC increasing in the western

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part of the basin under the A2 scenarios and decreasing in the northern part of the basin under the A1B scenario.

In contrast to outgassed carbon and DOC, riverine inorganic carbon (IC) increases basin wide (Figs. 4c and 5) during the entire 21st century. Here, clear differences in the SRES emission scenarios are found. In the SRES A2 scenario the increase is largest, with a basin wide increase by +150 % (+220 % in R1, +150 % in R2, and +140 % in R3). In the B1 scenario the average increase is smallest, with basin wide +50 % (+80 % in R1, +60 % in R2, and +50 % in R3). The spatial distribution of changes in riverine inorganic carbon (IC, Fig. 6d–f) shows an overall increase compared to the reference period. For at least four climate models this increase in IC is significant ($p < 0.05$), especially in the western part of the basin. Here, the largest changes are found for the SRES emission scenario A2 (up to 6-fold increase; $10^{0.8}$).

3.2 Changes in the export of riverine carbon to ocean and atmosphere under future climate

Riverine outgassed carbon makes up on average 10 % of total outgassed carbon along the river network during the reference period (Fig. 8a). Total outgassed carbon includes carbon evaded from the river and the forest. The carbon evaded from the forest reflects the amount of terrestrial respired carbon (autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration). The average changes in this proportion caused by climate change and the agreement of climate models (indicated by crosses) on the direction of change are depicted in the three maps in Fig. 8b–d. The largest differences are found under the SRES A2 scenario with the largest area in agreement between the climate models (Fig. 8c). Here an increase of up to 7 % in the proportion is found in the western and south-western part of the Amazon Basin. This increase is less pronounced in the other two emission scenarios (Fig. 8b and d). For all SRES scenarios a slight decrease in the proportion of up to 2 % (-0.02) can be seen in parts of the north-western basin and scattered in the very south (Fig. 8b–d), this occurs because rivers will contribute increasingly to respiration losses of carbon.

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3.4 Relevance of the riverine outgassed carbon

To assess the relevance of riverine carbon for total carbon export to the atmosphere, either from the forest (heterotrophic respiration) or from the water, the standard RivCM results (*Standard*) were compared to results of the *Nolnun* experiment and the *NoRiv* experiment (Table 6). In the reference period the total outgassed carbon is estimated to be about $440 \times 10^{12} \text{ g month}^{-1}$, calculated in the standard RivCM simulations (*Standard*). Under climate change this amount increases by 23, 28, and 21 % for emission scenarios A1B, A2 and B1, respectively. The proportion of outgassed carbon from the river to total outgassed carbon is about 3.6 % in the reference period. This proportion increases in all emission scenarios to up to 3.9 to 4.3 %. During the reference period the amount of riverine outgassed carbon makes up about 3.5 % of the net primary production (NPP). In the future this proportion increases significantly to up to 4.25 %.

The simulations without input of terrigenous organic material to the river, caused by suppressed inundation (*Nolnun*), lead to a reduction of total outgassed carbon. During the reference period it is significantly reduced to about $425 \times 10^{12} \text{ g month}^{-1}$ (-3.30 %). During the future period this reduction remains relatively constant for all SRES scenarios. If the river area is substituted by potential forest cover (*NoRiv*), the total terrestrial outgassed carbon is about 0.1 % lower than the sum of terrestrial and riverine outgassed carbon in the standard simulations. This proportion decreases slightly to 0.07–0.10 % in the future period.

4 Discussion

The main goal of our study was to assess changes of riverine carbon pools and fluxes under climate change. To achieve this we coupled the newly developed riverine carbon model RivCM to the terrestrial vegetation model LPJmL. In the following we discuss the mechanisms leading to projected changes in riverine carbon, and the performance of

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the coupled model system. Finally, we elaborate on the importance of incorporating the terrestrial-riverine coupling in models to better understand Amazon Basin processes.

4.1 Riverine carbon pools

The riverine carbon pools and fluxes in this tightly coupled system may change during the 21st century in several ways. According to our results climate change will induce a basin wide increase in riverine carbon pools. Areas most affected are the central and western basin. Here the outgassing of CO₂, as well as the organic and inorganic carbon pools increases most clearly.

Our results indicate that projected climate change may alter outgassed carbon (CO₂ evasion) by several means. Firstly, a higher production of terrestrial material leads to an increase of organic carbon available for respiration; secondly, the higher atmospheric CO₂ concentration leads to an increase in dissolved inorganic carbon in the water. Thirdly, higher water temperatures decrease the solubility of CO₂ in the water, but also increase the respiration rates. Overall a combination of these factors may lead to a considerable increase in CO₂ evasion and a slight increase of exported riverine carbon. Spatially the results are heterogeneous. The amount of outgassed carbon increases in most parts of the basin. This pattern is mainly driven by the increased amount of organic carbon available for respiration. However, even in areas where organic carbon does not increase, or even decreases, the amount of outgassed carbon is elevated. This is mainly caused by the increased respiration rate at higher temperatures. Thus, even with less carbon available, higher temperatures lead to an elevated outgassing of CO₂. As a consequence of an increased evasion of CO₂, an additional increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration can occur. However, the simulated amount of outgassed carbon under current conditions is underestimated in comparison to observations by a factor of up to 1/6. The observations are based on a combination of small scale measurements of CO₂ evasion and remotely sensed estimates of inundated area (Belger et al., 2011; Moreira-Turcq et al., 2003; Richey et al., 1990, 2002). In contrast, the outgassing calculated in RivCM is a more aggregated estimate. In reality during rising

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water stage, small changes in discharge can lead to a comparably larger non-linear increase in inundated area. This is not taken into account in RivCM. In RivCM the outgassing depends only on the inorganic carbon concentration in the water and the partial pressure of CO₂. Additionally to the inundated area, also the vegetation coverage affects the outgassing of CO₂ from flooded area as Abril et al. (2014) show. Furthermore, including the evasion of CO₂ from inundated soils, which represents a process that might lead to a further increase of simulated CO₂ outgassing, into RivCM would help to simulate outgassing that is more in agreement with observed estimates.

Besides riverine carbon fluxes such as outgassed carbon, climate change also affects riverine carbon pools. However, these changes are not homogeneously distributed across the basin. The increase in organic carbon (POC and DOC) is on one hand caused by the change in inundation patterns. This can be seen mainly in the Western part of the basin, resulting from an projected increase in precipitation, particularly in the SRES-A2 scenario (Langerwisch et al., 2013). On the other hand, more rainfall and increased atmospheric CO₂ concentration may lead to increased amounts of available organic carbon, i.e. more biomass under future climate conditions (e.g. Huntingford et al., 2013), which may directly increase the POC and DOC pools. As a consequence of the additional riverine organic carbon, a depletion of oxygen caused by enhanced respiration in the water can occur (Junk and Wantzen, 2004; Melack and Fisher, 1983). The resulting anoxia can lead e.g. to denitrification or production of methane (Lampert and Sommer, 1999). In areas with already reduced O₂ levels, such as flooded forests during falling water, the further depletion of oxygen can potentially affect fish and other animal groups inhabiting the water (Hamilton et al., 1997; Melack and Fisher, 1983). The comparison with measured data (Cole and Caraco, 2001; Ertel et al., 1986; Hedges et al., 1994; Moreira-Turcq et al., 2003; Neu et al., 2011) shows that the concentrations of the different simulated carbon pools fit in the range of observations, with only a slight overestimation for POC. The agreement of simulated with observed POC, DOC and IC concentrations shows the reliability of RivCM, because the errors in measurements are small.

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The amount of riverine inorganic carbon which remains in the water and does not evade to the atmosphere is projected to increase under climate change. Here, the lower solubility resulting from higher temperatures is not able to balance the effect of a higher atmospheric CO₂ concentration resulting in more dissolved CO₂. This pattern is consistent within the emission scenarios and the climate models and can be found in most parts of the basin. The two- to threefold increase in inorganic carbon in the water might have serious consequences for fish and fungi, since dissolved inorganic carbon directly lowers the pH in the water (Lampert and Sommer, 1999). In combination with the oxygen depletion discussed above this might severely affect riverine fauna.

4.2 Riverine outgassing and export to the Atlantic Ocean

Our results indicate that climate change alters the proportion of carbon evaded from the river to carbon exported to the ocean. Climate change increases the outgassing of CO₂ with a higher rate than it increases the discharge of organic carbon.

During the reference period, the outgassed carbon from water bodies contributes on average about 3.6 % of all evaded carbon from the entire Amazon Basin. This seems to be only a small amount, but in river-dominated regions, this fraction may represent up to 10–50 % of total evaded carbon, which is especially obvious in the Eastern part of the basin. The basin-wide proportion of riverine vs. total carbon evasion (including riverine outgassing and CO₂ release during autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration) increases from 3.6 % to up to 4.3 % from the reference to the future period, which indicates the increasing contribution of riverine outgassed carbon to the total outgassed carbon. Our results show that 3.5 % of the carbon accumulated in terrestrial NPP is released to the atmosphere by outgassing from the river. It can be expected that climate change will alter this fraction to up to 4.2 % which is caused by a combination of increased NPP and increased CO₂ partial pressure. Inland waters receive about $19 \times 10^{14} \text{ g C yr}^{-1}$ from the terrestrial landscape, of which about $8 \times 10^{14} \text{ g C yr}^{-1}$ are returned to the atmosphere (Cole et al., 2007). Globally the riverine input from land to ocean of organic carbon is estimated to be between 4.5×10^{14} and $9.0 \times 10^{14} \text{ g C yr}^{-1}$,

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which is at least the same amount of carbon that is taken up by the oceans from the atmosphere (Bauer et al., 2013; Cole et al., 2007).

The annual export of freshwater from the Amazon river of about 6300 km³ to the Atlantic Ocean (Gaillardet et al., 1997) is accompanied by 40×10^{12} g of organic carbon, which represents 8–10 % of the global organic carbon transported to oceans by rivers (Moreira-Turcq et al., 2003; Richey et al., 1990). Our estimates of the discharge of organic carbon to the Atlantic are larger. As already shown in other studies (Gerten et al., 2004; Langerwisch et al., 2013) LPJmL is able to reproduce observed discharge patterns. The combination of the simulated concentration and amount of discharge determines discharged carbon to the Atlantic Ocean which is slightly overestimated by RivCM. Here small deviations between observed and simulated discharge or even a small shift in seasonality (1–2 months) can lead to a comparably large difference in discharged carbon. In addition to that, the overestimation of export to the ocean is partly caused by up and downscaling of observation data. Our estimates of riverine TOC export represents about 1–2 % of the net basin primary production (Moreira-Turcq et al., 2003) is in agreement with the results of our study (1 % during reference period). Our results suggest that this proportion will change by –10 to +10 % due to climate change. The continuous input of organic matter into the ocean fundamentally impacts the primary production of the Atlantic Ocean off the coast of South America (Körtzinger, 2003; Cooley and Yager, 2006; Cooley et al., 2007; Subramaniam et al., 2008). In addition to organic carbon, also nutrients, which are only marginally taken up by the low primary production within the river, are exported to the ocean fuelling oceanic heterotrophy and primary production, respectively.

The inclusion of inundation and the corresponding transport and conversion of organic material leads to an increase in outgassed carbon of more than 3 %, which equals to about 14.5×10^{12} g month⁻¹. This amount increases to up to 18.3×10^{12} g month⁻¹ due to climate change. The proportion of outgassed carbon from water bodies is an indicator for the importance of the riverine system to carbon dynamics of the entire basin. It emphasizes the importance of the implementation of floodplain systems to vegetation

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models, especially for Amazonia. Only coupled models can cover the interconnection between land and river, which might be important to identify non-linear feedbacks on climate change (Bauer et al., 2013). Our approach serves as a basis for simulating carbon modification and transport from the terrestrial biosphere through river systems to the oceans and establishes the link between continental and oceanic systems on a continental scale.

5 Summary

With our study we were able to estimate potential changes in exported and riverine carbon pools and fluxes from present until 2100 for the Amazon Basin. We showed that the export to the atmosphere could increase by $60 \times 10^{12} \text{ gCyr}^{-1}$, while the export of carbon to the Atlantic Ocean could increase by about $0.6 \times 10^{12} \text{ gCyr}^{-1}$. To estimate these changes we coupled the newly developed riverine carbon model RivCM to the well-established vegetation and hydrology model LPJmL. These large export fluxes are accompanied with changes in terrestrial organic carbon and riverine organic and inorganic carbon. Our results suggest that a coupling terrestrial with riverine carbon is an important step towards a better understanding of the effects of climate change on large scale catchment carbon dynamics.

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Table 2. List of physical constants.

Constant name	Value	Unit	Source
k_H^θ	1.496323	$\text{g CO}_2\text{L}^{-1} \text{atm}^{-1}$	Sander (1999)
dlnkH	2400	K	Sander (1999)
T^θ	298.15	K	Sander (1999)
ctoco2	0.2729	–	

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Table 3. List of parameters.

Parameter name	Value	Unit	Source	Original value
terrestrial respiration				
$\text{respi}_{\text{litc}}$	30	%	LPJmL	
$\text{respi}_{\text{soilcfast}}$	3	%	LPJmL	
$\text{respi}_{\text{soilcslow}}$	0.1	%	LPJmL	
$\text{respipart}_{\text{soilcfast}}$	98	%	LPJmL	
$\text{respipart}_{\text{soilcslow}}$	2	%	LPJmL	
mobilization				
carboncorr	0.65	month^{-1}	Worbes (1997)	0.65 ± 0.15
$\text{mobil}_{\text{litc}}$	0.7	month^{-1}	Irmler (1982)	0.4 ± 0.1
$\text{mobil}_{\text{soilc}}$	0.05	month^{-1}	Irmler (1982)	
mobil_{ρ}	0.5	–	Johnson et al. (2006), McClain and Elsenbeer (2001)	0.5 ± 0.25
decomposition				
decomp	0.3	month^{-1}	Furch and Junk (1997)	0.3 ± 0.1
decompcorr	0.1	month^{-1}	Furch and Junk (1997)	0.1 ± 0.01
respiration				
respi	0.04	day^{-1}	Cole et al. (2000)	0.045 ± 0.01
outgassing				
co2satur	7.25 to 17.0	–	Richey et al. (2002)	7.25 to 17.0

Table 4. List of data used for calibration and validation.

	Observation	Initial simu	diff	Calibrated simu	diff	Unit	Source
annually outgassed CO ₂							
basin wide	4.7	0.70	–85 %	1.28	–73 %	10 ¹⁴ gC yr ^{–1}	Richey et al. (2002)
in central part *	2.1 ± 0.6	0.27	–87 %	0.51	–76 %	10 ¹⁴ gC yr ^{–1}	Richey et al. (2002)
per km ^{–2}	1.2 ± 0.3	0.12	–90 %	0.21	–82 %	10 ⁸ gC km ^{–2} yr ^{–1}	Richey et al. (2002)
	6.4 ± 6.0	0.12	–98.1 %	0.21	–96.7 %	10 ⁸ gC km ^{–2} yr ^{–1}	Abril et al. (2014)
	8.0 ± 1.8	0.12	–98.5 %	0.21	–97.4 %	10 ⁸ gC km ^{–2} yr ^{–1}	Belger et al. (2011)
	60 ± 6.8	0.12	–99.8 %	0.21	–99.7 %	10 ⁸ gC km ^{–2} yr ^{–1}	Neu et al. (2011)
annually exported carbon to Atlantic Ocean							
TOC *	0.36 ± 0.1	0.26	–27 %	0.64	+80 %	10 ¹⁴ gC yr ^{–1}	Richey et al. (1990), Moreira-Turcq et al. (2003)
POC	0.12 ± 0.05	0.08	–32 %	0.19	+63 %	10 ¹⁴ gC yr ^{–1}	Junk (1985), Moreira-Turcq et al. (2003)
DOC	0.27 × 10 ¹⁴	0.18	–33 %	0.45	+67 %	10 ¹⁴ gC yr ^{–1}	Moreira-Turcq et al. (2003)
carbon concentration							
TOC *	9.85 ± 4.5	3.15	–68 %	7.46	–24 %	10 ^{–3} gC L ^{–1}	Ertel et al. (1986), Moreira-Turcq et al. (2003)
POC	1.50 ± 0.5	0.95	–37 %	2.16	+44 %	10 ^{–3} gC L ^{–1}	Moreira-Turcq et al. (2003)
DOC	7.35 ± 4.0	2.20	–70 %	5.30	–28 %	10 ^{–3} gC L ^{–1}	Ertel et al. (1986), Hedges et al. (1994), Moreira-Turcq et al. (2003)
IC	1.50 ± 1.0	1.64	+09 %	1.64	+09 %	10 ^{–3} gC L ^{–1}	Cole and Caraco (2001), Neu et al. (2011)
Willmott's Index of Agreement							
calibration data		0.870		0.893			
other data		0.413		0.635			
all data		0.427		0.615			

Comparison of observed values with results of the simulations using initial parameter setting (before calibration) and calibrated parameter setting. Difference (diff) is relative difference to observation [%]. A Willmott's Index of Agreement of 1.0 indicates full agreement. * indicated data used for calibration.

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Table 6. Mean monthly export of carbon during reference and future period.

	TOC discharge to ocean		outgassed carbon to atmosphere				NoInun ^b		NoRiv ^c	
	sum	prop of NPP [%]	Standard ^a SUM	terr. [%]	riv. [%]	prop of NPP [%]	sum 100% terr.	rel. to SUM [%]	sum 100% terr.	rel. to SUM [%]
BASIN WIDE										
reference period										
	54.1	1.0	439.3	96.4	3.6	3.5	424.8	-3.3	438.9	-0.10
future period										
A1B prop. to ref	49.3 (-8.9)	0.75	539.1 (+22.7)	95.9	4.1	4.0	521.5 (+22.8)	-3.3	538.6 (+22.7)	-0.10
A2 prop. to ref	59.1 (+9.1)	0.87	562.8 (+28.1)	95.7	4.3	4.2	544.5 (+28.2)	-3.2	562.4 (+28.1)	-0.07
B1 prop. to ref	56.6 (+4.6)	0.90	531.7 (+21.0)	96.1	3.9	3.9	514.4 (+21.1)	-3.3	531.3 (+21.1)	-0.07
MAIN STEM (R2)										
reference period										
			65.4	95.0	5.0	4.9	62.8	-4.0	65.0	-0.61
future period										
A1B prop. to ref			77.1 (+17.8)	94.4	5.6	5.7	74.0 (+17.9)	-3.9	76.7 (+17.9)	-0.54
A2 prop. to ref			80.0 (+22.3)	94.1	5.9	6.1	76.8 (+22.3)	-3.9	79.5 (+22.2)	-0.54
B1 prop. to ref			77.5 (+18.4)	94.7	5.3	5.6	74.4 (+18.5)	-3.9	77.1 (+18.5)	-0.53

Mean export of carbon in reference period (1971–2000) and future period (2070–2099), averaged over five climate models. Discharged carbon in [10^{12} g yr^{-1}], outgassed carbon in [10^{12} g month^{-1}] from the forest (terr.) and the river (riv.). List of discharged total organic carbon into the Atlantic Ocean and basin wide monthly outgassed carbon produced via heterotrophic respiration. NPP is net primary production. Proportional differences [%] between reference and future period are in round brackets. Differences in total outgassed carbon between future and reference values are in all cases highly significant (Wilcoxon Rank-Sum Test; $p < 0.001$).

Negative (positive) values indicate a decrease (increase) compared to the *Standard* simulations. ^a *Standard* RivCM simulations; ^b RivCM simulation without additional inundation (*NoInun*), therefore no export of terrigenous organic carbon; ^c LPJmL calculating forest instead of river (*NoRiv*). For details of river area calculation see Langerwisch et al. (2013).

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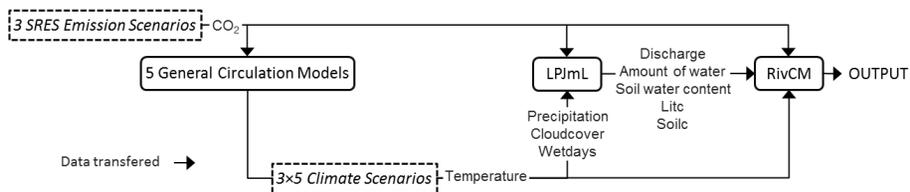


Figure 1. Overview about the transfer of data between the models and scenarios.

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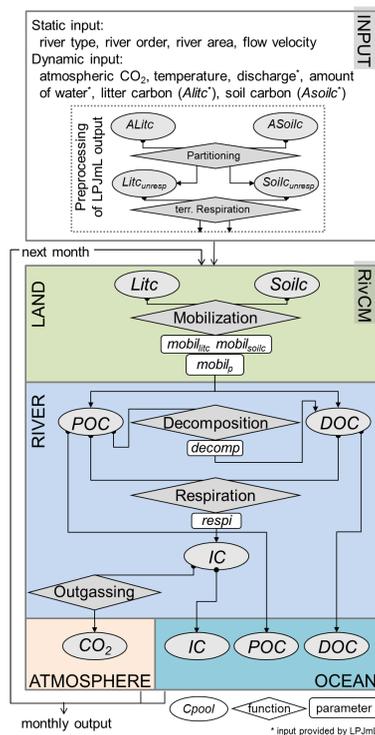


Figure 2. Input and flow chart of RivCM. The four spatial components “LAND”, “RIVER”, “ATMOSPHERE”, and “OCEAN” are connected by the exchange of carbon between different carbon pools (ovals), to, within, and from the river. The carbon pools are transformed through the most relevant processes (diamonds) with specific rates and ratios (rectangles). After the initialization of the input, calculations are conducted on a monthly basis. Litc = carbon in litter, Soilc = carbon in soil, POC = particulate organic carbon, DOC = dissolved organic carbon, IC = inorganic carbon.



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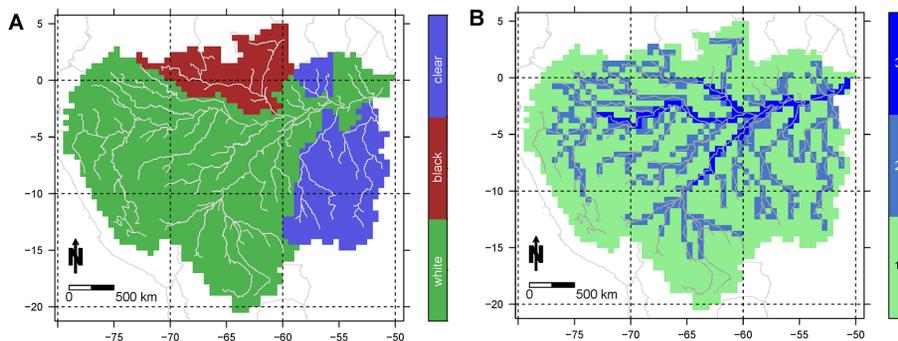


Figure 3. River type (a) and river order (b). Cells of river order 1 (headwater) have a mean annual discharge of less than $8 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$; cells of river order 2 have a discharge between 8×10^3 and $2 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$; cells of river order 3 have a discharge higher than $2 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

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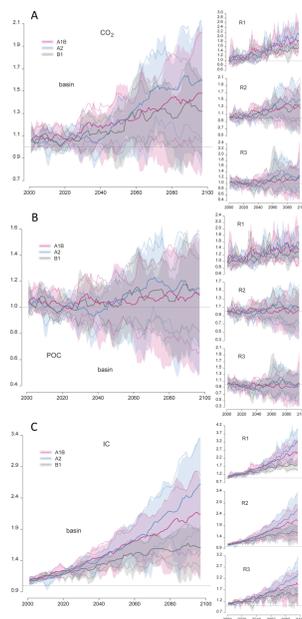


Figure 4. Temporal change in riverine carbon pools caused by climate change. **(a)** showing results for outgassed carbon, **(b)** for particulate organic carbon (POC) and **(c)** for inorganic carbon. Results are shown as the quotient of annual carbon amount and mean annual carbon amount in reference period, for the whole basin and the three subregions (R1–R3). Different colors represent different SRES emission scenarios. The shaded area for each scenario is spanned by the minimal and maximal values of all five climate models/scenarios. Bold lines represent the 5-year-mean of the climate models/scenarios and thin lines represent mean ± 1.0 standard deviation. Positive values indicate an increase in outgassed CO_2 in the future compared to reference period, and negative values indicate a decrease. The horizontal line at $y = 1$ indicates no change compared to the reference period 1971–2000.

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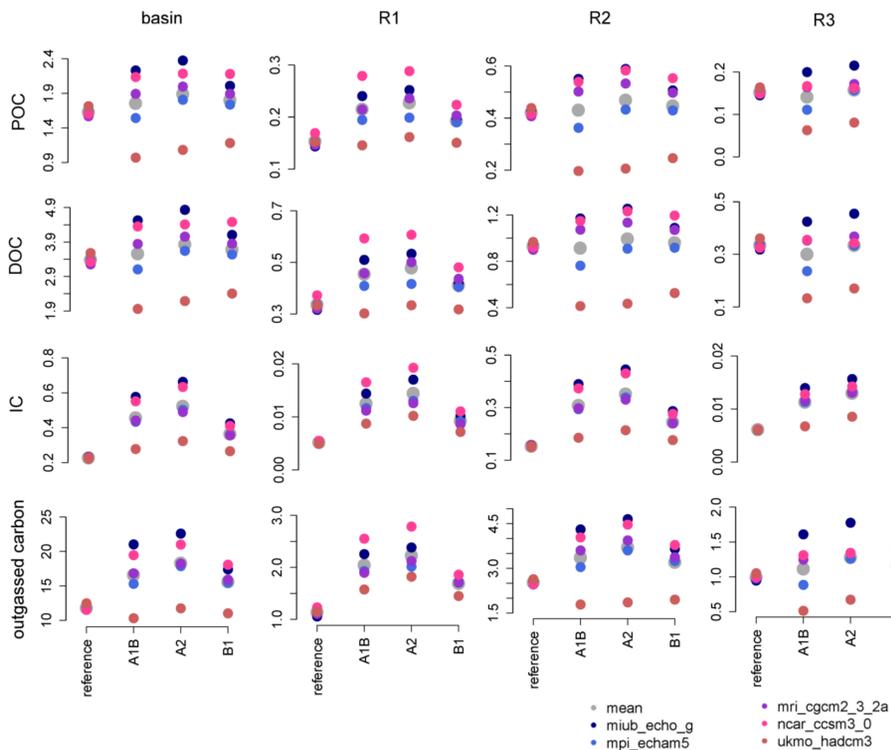


Figure 5. Mean annual sums of carbon pools [10^{12} g] for the whole basin and three subregions for the reference period (1971–2000) and the future period (2070–2099, SRES A1B, A2 and B1). Each for five climate models/scenarios.

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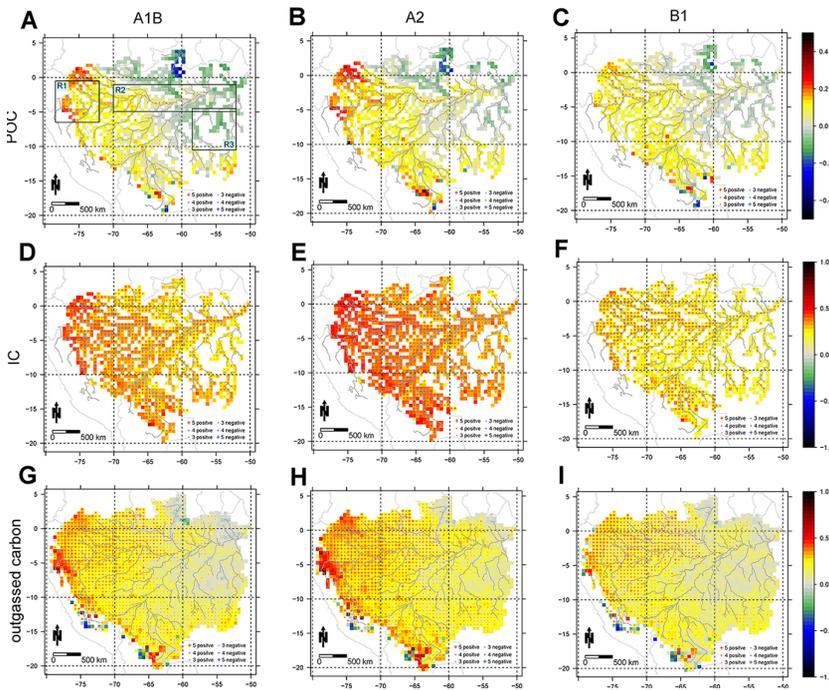


Figure 6. Change in riverine and outgassed carbon caused by climate change. Model mean (log10) of the quotient of future mean and reference mean of POC (a–c) and IC (d–f) and outgassed carbon (g–i). Left hand side panels (a, d, g) show the mean of the quotient for SRES A1B emission scenario, middle panels (b, e, h) A2, right hand side (c, f, i) B1, averaged over five climate models/scenarios. Positive values (yellow and red) indicate an increase and negative values (green and blue) indicate a decrease. Additionally to the mean, the number of climate models/scenarios leading to significant trends ($p < 0.05$, Wilcoxon Rank-Sum Test) is indicated by crosses. In white cells the differences between future and reference values are not significant.

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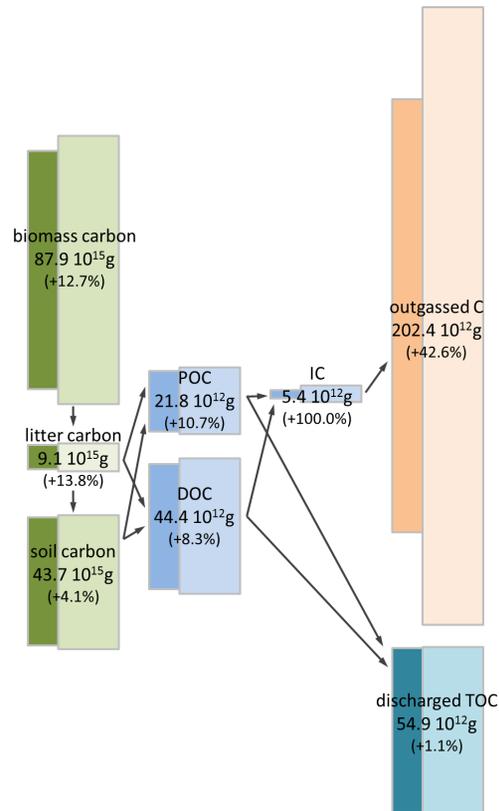


Figure 7. Averaged change in the basin carbon budget due to climate change (**b**). Dark boxes indicate the amount of carbon during the reference period, light boxes during the future period (average over all SRES scenarios and GCMs). Amount is given for future period with relative change compared to reference. Arrows indicate the direction of carbon transport.

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Climate change increases riverine carbon outgassing

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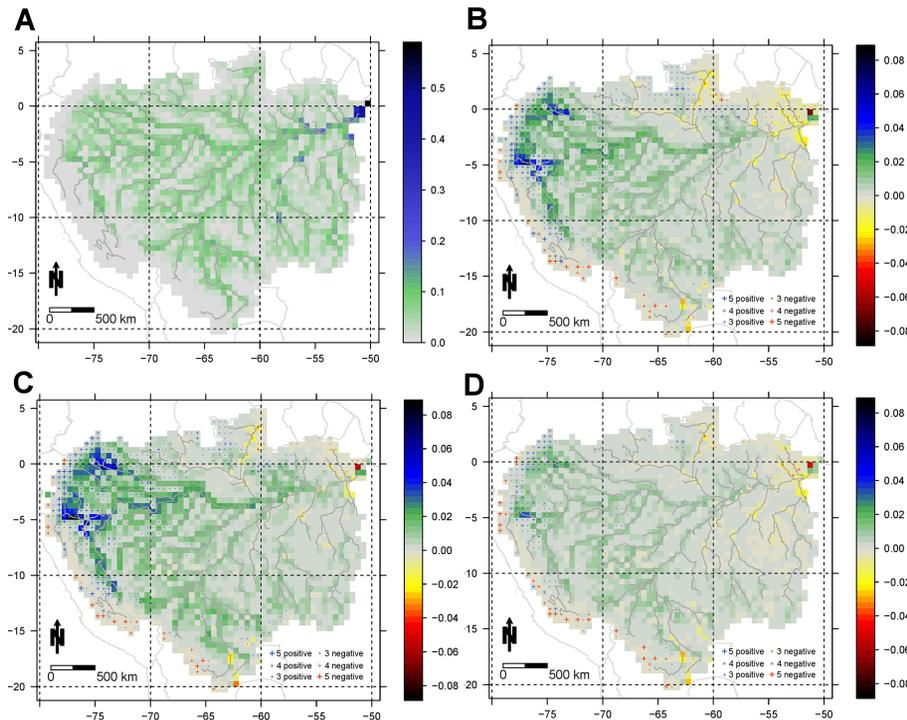


Figure 8. Proportion of outgassed carbon from the river to total outgassed carbon. Proportion of riverine outgassing to total outgassing of carbon **(a)** during the reference period (1971–2000) and the difference in this proportion between future (2070–2099) and reference period caused by climate change averaged over five climate models/scenarios in emission scenario A1B **(b)**, A2 **(c)** and B1 **(d)**, positive values indicate an increase and negative values indicate a decrease in the future period.

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