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1 Efficient transport of fossil organic carbon to the ocean by steep  
2 mountain rivers: An orogenic carbon sequestration mechanism

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 Mountain building exposes fossil organic carbon ( $OC_{\text{fossil}}$ ) in exhumed sedimentary  
15 rocks. Oxidation of this material releases carbon dioxide from long-term geological storage to  
16 the atmosphere.  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  is mobilised on hillslopes by mass wasting and transferred to the  
17 particulate load of rivers. In large fluvial systems it is thought to be oxidised in transit, but in  
18 short, steep rivers that drain mountain islands,  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  may escape oxidation and re-enter  
19 geological storage due to rapid fluvial transfer to the ocean. In these settings, the rates of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$   
20 transfer and their controls remain poorly constrained. Here we quantify the erosion of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$   
21 from the Taiwan mountain belt, combining discharge statistics with measurements of particulate  
22 organic carbon load and source in 11 rivers. Annual  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  yields in Taiwan vary from  $12 \pm 1$ –

23  $246 \pm 22 \text{ tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , controlled by the high physical erosion rates that accompany rapid crustal  
24 shortening and frequent typhoon impact. Efficient transfer of this material ensures that  $1.3 \pm$   
25  $0.1 \times 10^6 \text{ tC yr}^{-1}$  of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  exhumed in Taiwan is delivered to the ocean, with  $<15\%$  loss due to  
26 weathering in transit. Our findings suggest that erosion of coastal mountain ranges can force  
27 efficient transfer and long-term re-accumulation of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  in marine sediments, further  
28 enhancing the role of mountain building in the long-term storage of carbon in the lithosphere.

## 29 INTRODUCTION

30 About  $15 \times 10^{15} \text{ tC}$  of carbon is stored in rocks as fossil organic matter. This is almost 400  
31 times the amount of carbon present in the atmosphere and oceans (Sundquist and Visser, 2004).  
32 The balance between the growth of this geological reservoir through burial of newly  
33 photosynthesised organic matter, and its decrease through oxidation of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  plays a crucial  
34 role in the long-term evolution of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2$ , and thus global climate (Berner,  
35 1982; Berner and Canfield, 1989; Derry and France-Lanord, 1996; Hayes et al., 1999). It is  
36 commonly assumed that during mountain building, exhumed  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  is completely converted to  
37  $\text{CO}_2$  by chemical weathering (Lasaga and Ohmoto, 2002; Bolton et al., 2006).  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  can escape  
38 oxidation when physical erosion delivers it to the solid load of mountain rivers (Kao and Liu,  
39 1996; Blair et al., 2003; Leithold et al., 2006; Hilton et al., 2008a). But when it enters large river  
40 systems ( $>100,000 \text{ km}^2$  area), up to 85% is oxidised in transport (Galy et al., 2008a; Bouchez et  
41 al., 2010). In contrast, short mountain rivers that drain to the ocean could deliver  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  more  
42 efficiently to marine basins due to rapid transport in turbid waters (Dadson et al., 2005; Hilton et  
43 al., 2008b). Despite its potential importance, the transfer of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  from mountain islands has  
44 remained poorly constrained (Blair et al., 2003), due to both a lack of constraint of the source of  
45 particulate organic carbon (POC) in river sediments in these settings (Stallard, 1998; Lyons et

46 al., 2002) and its transport behavior over the large range of water discharges in steep mountain  
47 catchments (Blair et al., 2003; Hilton et al., 2008a). To address this issue, we have determined  
48 the source of POC and the relation between  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  transport and water discharge in rivers  
49 draining the mountain belt of Taiwan.

## 50 **STUDY AREA, SAMPLING AND METHODS**

51 Located along the western edge of the Pacific Ocean, mountain building in Taiwan is  
52 driven by collision between the Luzon Arc on the Philippine Sea plate and the Asian continental  
53 margin since 7 Ma (Teng, 1990). Steep rivers draining Taiwan's Central Range pass over narrow  
54 coastal plains to the ocean (Dadson et al., 2003). Inside the mountain belt, they have incised  
55 Mesozoic and Cenozoic siliciclastic and carbonate rocks, which have been metamorphosed up to  
56 greenschist and amphibolite facies (Ho, 1986). These rocks contain on average 0.2%  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$ ,  
57 mainly of marine origin (Hilton et al., 2010). The western flank of the Central Range comprises  
58 Late Cenozoic turbiditic mudstones, sandstones and near-shore foreland sediments (Ho, 1986).  
59 These lithologies contain on average 0.4% mainly terrestrial  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  (Hilton et al., 2010).  
60 Metamorphic grade decreases from East to West across the Central Range and surface rocks  
61 contain  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  of varying thermal maturity and structure, ranging from poorly organized  
62 carbonaceous matter to polycrystalline graphite (Beysac et al., 2007). Due to rapid crustal  
63 shortening (Teng, 1990) and the prevailing subtropical cyclonic climate, rates of mass wasting  
64 and physical erosion in river catchments of the Central Range are exceptionally high, averaging  
65  $\sim 6 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$  over the last four decades (Dadson et al., 2003), and Taiwan Rivers supply  $384 \times 10^6 \text{ t}$   
66  $\text{yr}^{-1}$  of suspended sediments and  $\sim 120 \times 10^6 \text{ t yr}^{-1}$  of river bed load to the ocean.

67 To determine the concomitant  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  transfer, we measured suspended sediment  
68 concentration (SSC,  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ),  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  concentration in the particulate load ( $POC_{\text{fossil}}$ ,  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) and

69 water discharge ( $Q_w$ ,  $m^3 s^{-1}$ ) in 11 main Taiwan Rivers over an 18 month period following  
70 established methods (Dadson et al., 2003; Hilton et al., 2008b; Hilton et al., 2010). The  
71 catchments ranged in size from 310  $km^2$  to 2,906  $km^2$  (covering a total area of  $9.6 \times 10^3 km^2$ ,  
72 27% of the islands surface) and were sampled 1–3 times per month over two typhoon seasons  
73 (March 2005-September 2006) to cover the dynamic range of  $Q_w$ . All catchments drain more  
74 than one of the major geological formations, sourcing rocks with  $OC_{fossil}$  content ranging  
75 between 0.2% and 0.4% (Hilton et al., 2010). Determination of the source of POC in each  
76 sample has been described in detail elsewhere (Hilton et al., 2010). Briefly, an end-member  
77 mixing model was used to quantify the fraction of  $OC_{fossil}$  ( $F_f$ ) in the total POC using  
78 measurements of the nitrogen to organic carbon ratio and the stable carbon isotopes of organic  
79 matter.  $F_f$  was tested against independent constraints from radiocarbon, and  $F_f$  average precision  
80 and accuracy are 0.09 and 0.05, respectively.  $POC_{fossil}$  for a suspended sediment sample is the  
81 product of SSC, total organic carbon concentration and  $F_f$ .

82 To quantify river solid load yields we defined rating curves that link the  $Q_w$  measured at a  
83 station to the river load constituent concentration (SSC and  $POC_{fossil}$ ,  $mg L^{-1}$ ), and applied them  
84 to the continuous daily record of  $Q_w$  at that station to estimate the mass transfer of suspended  
85 load materials over the sampling period. Following common practice for small catchments, we  
86 used power law rating curves (Fig. 1a) with a least squares best fit to available data (Hilton et al.,  
87 2008b). Quoted errors on mass transfer estimates combine the rating curve exponent error (Fig.  
88 1b) and the error in  $F_f$  (Hilton et al., 2010).

## 89 **FLUVIAL TRANSPORT OF $OC_{fossil}$ AND ITS CHEMICAL ALTERATION**

90 In all rivers,  $OC_{fossil}$  was present in the suspended load throughout the sampling period.  
91 General, positive relationships between measured  $Q_w$ , and SSC and  $POC_{fossil}$  in these rivers are

92 described well by power laws (Fig. 1a) with very similar least squares best fit exponents for SSC  
93 and  $\text{POC}_{\text{fossil}}$  in a given catchment (Fig. 1b). The link between  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  and suspended sediment  
94 confirms their common rock source in mountain catchments (Leithold et al., 2006; Hilton et al.,  
95 2008a).

96 Following the observed relationship between  $\text{POC}_{\text{fossil}}$  and  $Q_w$  and the derived power law  
97 rating curves,  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  yields for all rivers ranged between  $12 \pm 1$  and  $246 \pm 22 \text{ tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  over  
98 the gauged period (Fig. 2). These yields are significant natural transfers of carbon and two rivers  
99 had  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  yields  $>225 \text{ tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , greater than the highest total POC yield (fossil+non-fossil)  
100 previously reported for mountain rivers (Stallard, 1998; Lyons et al., 2002; Hilton et al., 2008a).  
101 The average  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  yield for the 11 studied catchments was  $82 \text{ tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ .

102 High  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  yields in Taiwan are closely linked to the yield of suspended sediment (Fig.  
103 2) and are therefore controlled by physical erosion rate. This concurs with previous findings  
104 which suggest  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  is delivered to river channels by mass wasting, e.g., bedrock landslides  
105 (Hilton et al., 2008a), and gully erosion (Leithold et al., 2006), processes which can drive rapid  
106 physical erosion rates in mountain belts. Here, erosion of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  must occur faster than its  
107 chemical alteration (Petsch et al., 2000), leading to incomplete oxidation in the weathering zone.  
108 The lack of substantial sediment storage in the bedrock channels of the Central Range implies  
109 that the fluvial transit time is very short (Dadson et al., 2005), further restricting alteration of  
110  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  during transport, in notable contrast to large river systems (Galy et al., 2008a; Bouchez et  
111 al., 2010).  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  weathering may still occur within catchments, since sediment may reside for  
112 longer periods of time in regoliths and soils on hillslopes where the production of mineral  
113 surface area through physical erosion may enhance  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  weathering rates (Petsch et al., 2000;  
114 Bolton et al., 2006; Lasaga and Ohmoto, 2002).

115  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  oxidation in catchments can be quantified by comparing the measured fluvial  
116 export of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  to that predicted by eroding surface bedrock at known erosion rates. Measured  
117 fluvial exports imply a  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  content of  $0.35 \pm 0.03\%$  ( $\pm\sigma$ ) in suspended sediments from  
118 Taiwan (Fig. 2). Surface rocks have an average organic carbon content of  $0.24 \pm 0.19\%$  ( $\pm\sigma$ ,  $n =$   
119 31) which varies between geological formations (Hilton et al., 2010). The highest average  
120  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  content of the main geological formations is 0.41%, which is similar to the  $+\sigma$  bound of  
121 all samples. If we assume little variability of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  content with grain size, demonstrated by  
122 previous work (Galy et al., 2008a; Bouchez et al., 2010; Hilton et al., 2010), this can be used to  
123 estimate that a maximum of  $15 \pm 7\%$  of the exhumed  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  is weathered prior to export (Fig.  
124 2). This moderate weathering loss would correspond to a transfer of geological carbon to the  
125 modern hydrosphere and atmosphere of  $12 \pm 6 \text{ tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  in the sampled catchments. However,  
126 the measured average  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  in rock precludes any weathering loss and is within one standard  
127 deviation of the  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  content of suspended sediments (Fig. 2) making it difficult to estimate  
128 chemical alteration of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  by this method. We conclude that the bulk of exhumed  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  is  
129 exported to the ocean from Taiwan in river sediment and that the magnitude of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  oxidation  
130 requires further investigation.

### 131 **DELIVERY OF $OC_{\text{fossil}}$ TO THE OCEAN**

132 We estimate that the sampled mountain rivers delivered  $0.9 \times 10^6 \text{ tC yr}^{-1}$  of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  to the  
133 ocean during the study period (Fig. 3). To quantify the  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  transfer from the island over a  
134 longer period, we note that mean sediment yields in sampled catchments were  $23,600 \pm 6,800 \text{ t}$   
135  $\text{km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  ( $\pm$  standard error on the mean) during our study, and  $21,700 \pm 3,900 \text{ t km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  in the  
136 period 1970-1999 (Dadson et al., 2003) suggesting the measured  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  yields are a natural  
137 feature of this mountain belt. On decadal timescales the spatial pattern of physical erosion in

138 Taiwan is set by the incidence of earthquakes and typhoons, and by bedrock erodability (Dadson  
139 et al., 2003), and this is likely also the case for the erosion of  $OC_{fossil}$ . We therefore combine the  
140 published decadal suspended sediment transfer (Dadson et al., 2003) with the average  $OC_{fossil}$   
141 concentration in the suspended load ( $0.35 \pm 0.03\%$  calculated by regression across 11  
142 catchments; Fig. 2) to estimate a total fluvial export of  $1.3 \pm 0.1 \times 10^6$  tC yr<sup>-1</sup> of  $OC_{fossil}$  to the  
143 ocean as suspended sediment. This equates to a normalized yield of  $37 \pm 3$  tC km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> over the  
144 total area of Taiwan ( $35,980$  km<sup>2</sup>). Addition of bed load transport, assuming an average  $OC_{fossil}$   
145 content of  $0.27 \pm 0.12\%$  ( $\pm\sigma$ ) measured in 14 river catchments (Hilton et al., 2010), results in a  
146 total export of  $\sim 1.7 \times 10^6$  tC yr<sup>-1</sup>. The suspended flux alone represents  $\sim 1\%$  of the estimated 90-  
147  $240 \times 10^6$  tC yr<sup>-1</sup> total POC (fossil+non-fossil) input to the oceans (Stallard, 1998; Lyons et al.,  
148 2002) from only  $\sim 0.02\%$  of Earth's landmass.

149  $OC_{fossil}$  transported through the modern erosion system can be re-buried in long-lived  
150 marine sediments (Dickens et al., 2004; Galy et al., 2008a). Locally this can alter the  
151 geochemical record of the organic matter because  $OC_{fossil}$  has a variable isotopic signature  
152 (Hayes et al., 1999; Hilton et al., 2010). If  $OC_{fossil}$  re-burial is globally significant then it will  
153 influence the residence time of carbon in the lithosphere and our understanding of the long-term  
154 cycles of carbon and oxygen (Bernier and Canfield, 1989; Galy et al., 2008a), while also  
155 influencing our interpretation of the isotopic mass balance of carbon in the oceans (Derry and  
156 France-Lanord, 1996; Hayes et al., 1999). In large river systems with long transport pathways  
157 and significant sediment storage, only refractory graphitic  $OC_{fossil}$  is resilient to chemical  
158 weathering and physical attrition during transport (Galy et al., 2008a). In the case of the Madeira  
159 floodplain of the Amazon,  $>85\%$  of the eroded  $OC_{fossil}$  may escape geological storage to the  
160 atmosphere (Bouchez et al., 2010). In contrast, the steep mountain rivers of Taiwan export



161  $OC_{fossil}$  eroded from rocks with a range in thermal maturity (Hilton et al., 2010), with little

162  $OC_{fossil}$ -loss across the island irrespective of its graphitization state (Fig. 2).

163         The fate of  $OC_{fossil}$  exported from Taiwan is not well constrained, but several  
164 observations suggest that a significant proportion is re-buried in marine sediments. First, by its  
165 nature  $OC_{fossil}$  is associated with mineral surfaces, and this has been shown to enhance organic  
166 carbon burial efficiency (Hedges and Keil, 1995). Second, offshore Taiwan rapid accumulation  
167 of clastic sediment is likely to optimize organic carbon preservation (Canfield, 1994).  
168 Hyperpycnal sediment discharge in very turbid river plumes, and deposition of turbidites may be  
169 especially important in this process (Hilton et al., 2008b). Hyperpycnal discharge represented  
170 30%–42% of the sediment export from Taiwan to the ocean in 1970–1999, and may be even  
171 more important on longer time scales (Dadson et al., 2005). Accounting for bed load transport,  
172 and assuming full preservation of hyperpycnal  $OC_{fossil}$  on long time scales, this results in a re-  
173 burial flux of  $0.5\text{--}0.7 \times 10^6 \text{ tC yr}^{-1}$  in basins around Taiwan. The closest constraint on the fate of  
174  $OC_{fossil}$  comes from the Images core MD012403 collected from the Okinawa Trough to the NE  
175 of Taiwan (Fig. 3). There, the radiocarbon age of bulk organic carbon in sediments is offset by  
176  $\sim 7,000$  years from the age of planktonic foraminifera, throughout the Holocene (Kao et al.,  
177 2008). Assuming a binary mixture of radiocarbon-dead  $OC_{fossil}$  and contemporaneous organic  
178 matter, the authors estimate that of the  $\sim 0.7\%$  organic carbon in sediments at this site,  $\sim 0.3\%$  is  
179  $OC_{fossil}$ . If this material is present even at a site  $\sim 150\text{ km}$  from Taiwan's coastline and with  
180 limited hyperpycnal input, then our re-burial estimate of  $0.5\text{--}0.7 \times 10^6 \text{ tC yr}^{-1}$  is likely to be  
181 conservative.

182 **WIDER IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

183 To assess their wider significance, our findings can be compared to observations from a  
184 much larger orogenic system. Erosion of the Himalaya is thought to have resulted in re-burial of  
185  $0.3\text{--}0.5 \times 10^6 \text{ tC yr}^{-1}$  of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  in the deep marine Bengal fan (Galy et al., 2008a). Averaged over  
186 the source area, the  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  re-burial flux in the Bengal fan represents  $0.2\text{--}0.3 \text{ tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . The  
187 equivalent re-burial flux estimated here for Taiwan is  $14\text{--}19 \text{ tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  which is likely to  
188 represent a lower bound as discussed previously. This large discrepancy is due in part to a lower  
189  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  content in Himalayan surface rocks, typically  $<0.20\%$  (Galy et al., 2008a), associated  
190 with older, higher-grade Proterozoic to Early Paleozoic meta-sediments. The discrepancy is also  
191 related to erosion rates which are 2–3 times higher in Taiwan (Galy and France-Lanord, 2001;  
192 Dadson et al., 2003). However, these factors cannot explain the factor  $\sim 70$  difference in the  
193 normalized  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  re-burial flux. Its main cause is the transit length and time of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  in the  
194 terrestrial environment. While fluvial entrainment and delivery of sediment to the ocean typically  
195 occur within a single flood event in steep rivers of Taiwan (Dadson et al., 2005; Hilton et al.,  
196 2008b), Himalayan sediment is routed through the Gangetic plain, with a large capacity for  
197 sediment storage and subsequent  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  alteration (Galy et al., 2008b), as such only the most  
198 refractory components of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  persist at the river mouth (Galy et al., 2008a).

199 Our data suggest that where sedimentary bedrock is prevalent and clastic sediment yields  
200 exceed  $3,000 \text{ t km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Fig. 2),  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  should be present in river sediments. These conditions  
201 are met throughout the mountainous islands of Oceania, and on active margins throughout the  
202 world (Milliman and Syvitsky, 1992). If our findings from Taiwan apply more widely to those  
203 settings, then one effect of mountain building on the organic carbon cycle may be felt through  
204 the repeated exhumation, erosion and re-burial of previously sequestered  $\text{CO}_2$  and the inhibition  
205 of its reflux to the atmosphere. This effect is likely to be governed disproportionately by re-burial

206 of  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$  in basins adjacent to steep, coastal mountain ranges. At present, the combined  $OC_{\text{fossil}}$   
207 re-burial flux in the Taiwanese and Himalayan source-to-sink systems is at least  $0.8\text{--}1.2 \times 10^6$  tC  
208  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ , accounting for  $>1\%$  of the present day total organic carbon burial in marine sediments  
209 (Berner, 1982; Schlünz and Schneider, 2000). Globally, this flux is presently unaccounted for in  
210 models of carbon cycling and atmospheric evolution (Berner and Canfield, 1989; Derry and  
211 France-Lanord, 1996; Lasaga and Ohmoto, 2002; Bolton et al., 2006;), yet should be sustained  
212 during orogenesis and contribute to geological storage of carbon derived from the atmosphere.

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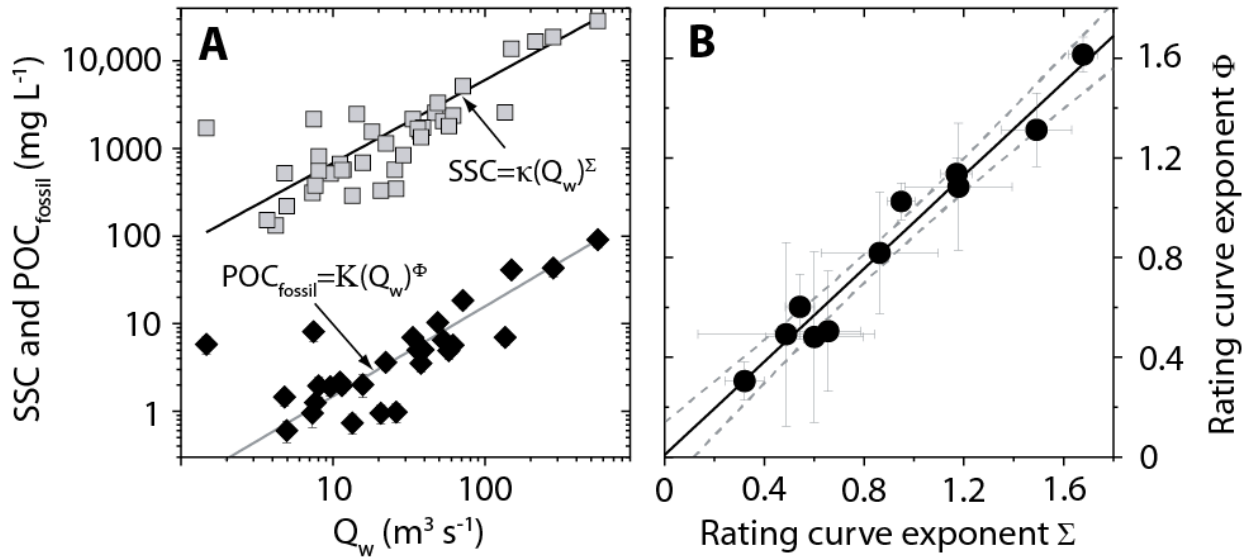
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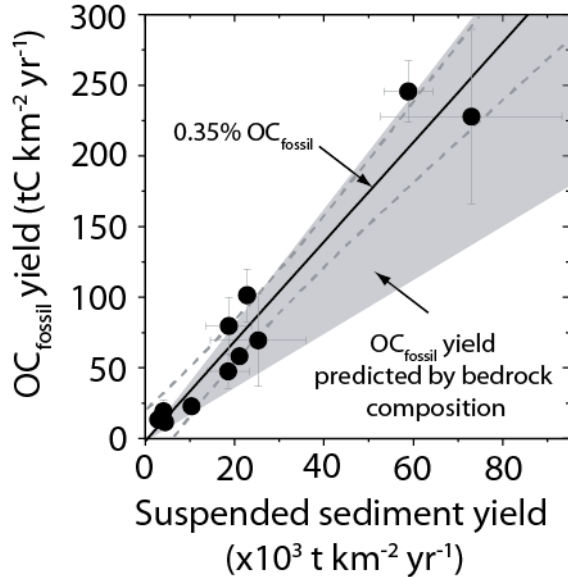
317 FIGURES CAPTIONS



318  
319 Figure 1. Relationships between water discharge ( $Q_w$ ,  $m^3 s^{-1}$ ) and fossil particulate organic  
320 carbon concentration ( $POC_{fossil}$ ,  $mg L^{-1}$ ) and suspended sediment concentration (SSC,  $mg L^{-1}$ ) in  
321 Taiwan Rivers. (a) Direct measurements of  $Q_w$ , SSC and  $POC_{fossil}$  for the Chenyoulan River in  
322 Taiwan. Whiskers show error in concentration where large than the point. Power law rating  
323 curves for SSC (black line) and  $POC_{fossil}$  (gray line) were determined by a least squares best fit  
324 with exponents  $\Sigma$  and  $\Phi$ , respectively. (b) Power law rating curve exponent between  $Q_w$  and  
325 solid load constituents ( $\Sigma$  and  $\Phi$ ) for 11 Taiwanese rivers determined by a least squares best fit.  
326 Whiskers are errors on the fit. Solid line show linear regression through the data ( $y = (0.93 \pm$   
327  $0.06)x + 0.01 \pm 0.06$ ;  $R^2 = 0.97$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) and dashed lines 95% confidence intervals.

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330 Figure 2. Relationship between suspended sediment yield ( $\text{t km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) and fossil organic carbon

331 ( $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$ ) erosion yield ( $\text{tC km}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) in Taiwan Rivers. A linear regression of the data ( $y =$

332  $(0.0035 \pm 0.0003)x - 1 \pm 10$ ;  $R^2 = 0.94$   $P < 0.0001$ ), dashed gray showing 95% confidence

333 intervals, implies an average  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  concentration of  $0.35 \pm 0.03\%$  in suspended sediments and

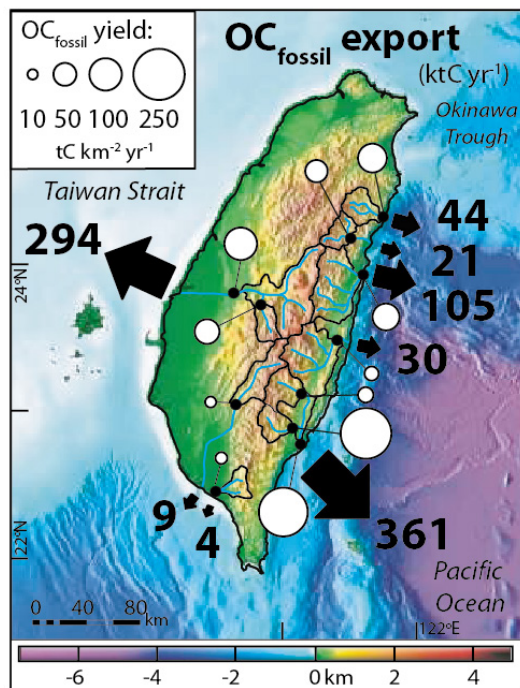
334 that clastic sediment transfer is the dominant control on  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  yield. Shaded region (gray)

335 indicates the predicted range of  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  yields for the measured suspended sediment yields using

336 the  $\text{OC}_{\text{fossil}}$  concentration measured in rock samples from the major geological formations in

337 Taiwan (Hilton et al., 2010).

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339

340 Figure 3. Fossil organic carbon ( $OC_{fossil}$ ) export ( $ktC yr^{-1}$ ) to the ocean from Taiwan over the  
341 sampling period. The sampling locations and gauging stations (black circles), their catchment  
342 area (black line) and main rivers (blue line) are overlain on topography bathymetry. The relative  
343 magnitude of the  $OC_{fossil}$  yield is indicated by the circles (gray).

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