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1 Fluvial organic carbon fluxes reveal deep instability of deforested 2 tropical peatlands

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18 **Tropical peatlands contain one of the largest pools of terrestrial organic carbon (C), amounting to
19 ~89,000 Tg¹ (1 Tg = 10¹² g). Approximately 65% of this C store is located in Indonesia, where
20 extensive anthropogenic degradation in the form of deforestation, drainage and fire are converting
21 it into a globally significant atmospheric CO₂ source¹⁻³. Here we quantify the annual export of
22 fluvial organic C from both intact peat swamp forest (PSF) and PSF subject to past anthropogenic
23 disturbance. We find that the total fluvial organic carbon (TOC) flux from disturbed PSF is ~50%
24 larger than that from intact PSF. ¹⁴C dating of the largest organic fraction of TOC, dissolved organic
25 carbon (DOC, >91% of TOC) reveals that, while DOC leaching from intact PSF derives mainly from
26 recent primary production, DOC from disturbed PSF is predominantly comprised of much older
27 (centuries to millennia) C from deep within the peat column. Including the routinely-ignored
28 fluvial C loss term in the C budget increases the estimate of total C lost from disturbed peatlands
29 by 22%. We estimate that, since 1990, peatland disturbance has resulted in a 32% increase in
30 fluvial organic C flux from Southeast Asia, an increase that alone, is more than half of the entire
31 annual fluvial organic C flux from all European peatlands. Given the unprecedented levels of
32 anthropogenic modification to tropical peatlands, our study highlights the risks to climate of
33 continued peatland deforestation and underscores the need to properly quantify fluvial C losses if
34 true estimates of the impact of deforestation and drainage on tropical peatland C balances are to
35 be achieved.**

36 Peatlands, by virtue of their high water-table and consequent low decomposition rates, form large
37 carbon stores⁴. Southeast Asian PSFs currently experience extensive anthropogenic degradation in
38 the form of deforestation, drainage and associated fire, all of which are converting C stored in peat
39 into atmospheric CO₂ via either direct combustion or through oxidation within the peat column^{2,3}.
40 Unlike boreal and temperate forests^{5,6}, and higher latitude wetlands⁷, however, the loss of fluvial
41 organic carbon from tropical peats has yet to be fully quantified.

42 To quantify the effect of peatland degradation on fluvial organic C loss, we monitored DOC and
43 particulate organic C (POC) concentrations and water discharge rates from channels draining areas of
44 both intact and disturbed PSF in a portion of Central Kalimantan (Indonesia, Borneo) affected by

1 severe deforestation, drainage and fire associated with the implementation of the Mega Rice Project
2 (MRP). Initiated in 1995, the MRP was a failed agricultural development project which aimed to
3 convert one million hectares of peatland into rice fields⁸. We selected three PSF land-cover classes
4 that differed in their recent disturbance history, located in or near to the Sebangau River basin (Fig.
5 S1; Supplementary): (1) intact PSF (IPSF) (3 channels in the Sebangau forest), (2) moderately drained
6 disturbed PSF (DPSF1) (2 channels in Tubangnusa) and (3) severely drained disturbed PSF (DPSF2) (3
7 channels in Kalampangan). All DPSF catchments to the east of the Sebangau River were comprised of
8 lowland PSF of similar topography, peat thickness and vegetation to IPSF prior to the MRP
9 disturbance⁹, and experienced similar annual rainfall (Table 1).

10 TOC (DOC+POC) fluxes were monitored from each channel outlet at weekly intervals from June 2008
11 to May 2009. Results demonstrate larger mean annual TOC fluxes in both DPSF1 and DPSF2 (105 and
12 88 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively) than in IPSF (63 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹; Fig. 1). This represents a 55% increase in
13 TOC export from the disturbed sites (DPSF1 and 2) over IPSF. Of the annual TOC flux from each land-
14 cover class, 94% was lost during the wet season (October-June), the result of higher measured
15 discharge rates (3.9 m³ s⁻¹ cf. 1.0 m³ s⁻¹ in the dry season). This was associated with high rainfall
16 rather than changes in C concentration, which remained relatively constant over the study period.
17 As with seasonal flux variability, differences in discharge between land-cover classes determined TOC
18 flux with higher discharge rates causing larger fluxes in DPSF1 and DPSF2 (1744 mm and 1724 mm,
19 respectively) than in IPSF (907 mm). These higher discharge rates in disturbed land-cover classes
20 were not counterbalanced by lower TOC concentrations, and occurred despite uniform rainfall across
21 sites (Table 1). This likely reflects a decline in evapotranspiration and increased runoff as a
22 consequence of large scale biomass loss and drainage in both disturbed land-cover classes. DOC
23 accounted for between 91-98 % of the TOC lost, with lower DOC:POC ratios for disturbed sites (Table
24 1) suggesting that the drained and exposed peat is vulnerable to mechanical breakdown associated
25 with the increased runoff.

26 Surface water DOC can derive from multiple sources, ranging from recent photosynthates to
27 decomposition or dissolution products from deep within the peat column. We used radiocarbon (¹⁴C)
28 measurements to evaluate whether increased fluvial C loss from disturbed sites was due to increased
29 inputs of fresh material or the result of destabilisation and loss from peat that had been
30 accumulating since the Last Glacial Maximum¹⁰. Previous DO¹⁴C measurements from waters draining
31 intact, peat-dominated catchments in North America¹¹, Siberia¹² and Europe^{13,14} commonly show
32 enrichment of DOC with 'bomb' carbon (associated with above-ground nuclear testing in the 1950s-
33 60s), suggesting that the bulk of DOC leached from these systems is of recent origin probably
34 dominated by C fixed from the atmosphere within the last 1-10 years¹⁵. This implies that DOC export
35 does not represent a major loss pathway for long-term stored carbon¹⁴. However, none of these
36 studies specifically examined disturbed (e.g. deforested and drained) peatlands, and to our
37 knowledge no measurements of DO¹⁴C from tropical peatlands, either pristine or disturbed, have
38 previously been reported.

39 We collected samples for DO¹⁴C analysis from all sites at which we determined TOC fluxes, in August
40 2008 (dry season) and May 2011 (wet season). Significant between-land-cover class differences were
41 observed during both seasons (Fig. 1; Table 2). DOC lost from intact PSF was ¹⁴C-enriched in both
42 seasons (average of 110-108% modern). If all C in these samples is assumed to be of post-bomb
43 origin¹⁵, this ¹⁴C signature can be reproduced by a simple model with >99% of DOC deriving from C

1 fixed from the atmosphere within the last 50 years (Fig. 2c). In contrast, DOC from channels draining
2 disturbed land-cover classes was ^{14}C -depleted, ranging from 98.9-75.5% modern (equivalent to ^{14}C
3 ages of 92-2260 years BP). This ^{14}C depletion was observed in both dry and wet season samples.
4 These data indicate that the increased DOC fluxes from disturbed peatlands are derived from
5 previously stable C stored within the peat column, and suggest that this loss of C from depth is
6 occurring throughout the seasonal hydrologic cycle. Application of an age attribution model (Fig. 2d)
7 suggests that two-thirds of DOC in runoff from the DPSF2 site derives from peat carbon of 500-5000
8 years age.

9 We also measured DO^{14}C from two channels draining oil palm plantations in Peninsular Malaysia that
10 were previously PSF. Approximately 28,000 km^2 of industrial plantations are found in Peninsular
11 Malaysia, Sumatra and Borneo¹⁶, making them a major contributor to PSF deforestation in the
12 region. These samples had even lower DO^{14}C levels of 59% and 67% modern, corresponding to mean
13 ages of 4180 and 3180 years BP respectively (Table 2). To our knowledge, these are among the oldest
14 surface water DO^{14}C measurements ever reported. We do not have comparable TOC flux data from
15 these sites, although we note that measured concentrations at the time of sampling were lower than
16 in Borneo (Table 2), and that these had fallen markedly from our initial measurements at the site in
17 1995 (48.8 and 64.3 mg l^{-1} for IPSF and DPSF sites respectively). Our findings demonstrate that
18 destabilisation of the peat column at depth is responsible for the increases in organic C fluxes we
19 observe from disturbed PSF. These large fluvial losses of old peat-derived C play an important role in
20 altering the C balance of such ecosystems, yet because they are assumed to be small in comparison
21 to gross primary productivity and ecosystem respiration, they are seldom measured. While
22 measurements of net ecosystem exchange (NEE) for intact PSF are rare, we have a peat core derived
23 C accumulation rate estimate of 94 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ from the IPSF¹⁷ site (Fig. 2a). Including our fluvial C
24 loss estimate of 63 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, this suggests an approximate gaseous exchange (NEE) of -157 g C m^{-2}
25 yr^{-1} for IPSF. Measured NEE within our DPSF sites is +433 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ⁽¹⁸⁾ which results in an increased
26 net ecosystem C balance (NECB) of 530 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ (net C loss), when including our intermediate DPSF
27 fluvial C loss estimate (97 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$, the mean value for DPSF1 and 2). Thus, including fluvial C
28 losses resulted in a 22% higher estimate of C loss from this disturbed site than was previously
29 inferred from gaseous exchange measurements alone.

30 Applying our calculated TOC fluxes of 63 $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for intact PSF and our intermediate value of 97 g
31 $\text{C m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ for disturbed PSF, we estimate the annual TOC loss from the Sebangau basin (5,200 km^2) to
32 be 0.41 Tg yr^{-1} . This is within 10% of a basin scale TOC loss estimate (0.46 Tg yr^{-1}) for the River
33 Sebangau¹⁹ obtained during our study period. The broad agreement in flux estimates derived over
34 contrasting scales gives us confidence that our calculated flux estimates for sub-catchments are
35 representative of fluxes occurring at larger scales.

36 To quantify the impact peatland disturbance has had on regional long-term fluvial C loss, we applied
37 our TOC flux estimates to land areas of intact and deforested PSF prior to and after peatland
38 disturbance. We omitted industrial plantations from our calculations as, to our knowledge, there are
39 no quantitative data on fluvial C flux from this land cover class, although our DO^{14}C data suggest that
40 these ecosystems may also be highly unstable due to land-use change. We estimate that since 1990,
41 the conversion of intact PSF into disturbed peatland has resulted in around a 45% increase in the
42 fluvial TOC flux, from 4.7 Tg C yr^{-1} to 6.8 Tg C yr^{-1} in Borneo, Sumatra and Peninsular Malaysia, and a
43 32% (2.4 Tg C yr^{-1}) increase across the whole of SE Asia (Table 3). This increase alone is more than

1 half the entire annual European peatland fluvial organic C flux (4.3 Tg C yr⁻¹; estimated using
2 European peatland area of 292,000 km² (20) and an average fluvial C flux estimate of 14.6 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹
3 (21,22)). Given the exclusion of peatland converted to plantations in our calculations, our estimated
4 increase in regional fluvial organic C flux should be considered conservative.

5 The eventual fate of this additional fluvial carbon loss remains to be fully characterised, but it is
6 known from other studies that the majority of DOC is processed and emitted to the atmosphere as
7 CO₂ and/or CH₄ through biotic decomposition in aquatic systems^{23,24} and that in other, less perturbed
8 catchments in the humid tropics, evaded CO₂ originates from the degradation of terrestrially-derived
9 organic C²⁵. It has also been shown that old terrestrially-derived organic matter is biologically
10 processed in both rivers and estuaries²⁶. Our analysis of the relative aromaticity of the DOC, (an
11 indicator of the recalcitrance of organic C within the sample as derived by specific UV absorbance
12 (SUVA); Table 2) suggests no significant difference in the relative lability of both young and old DOC
13 leaching different land cover classes. We therefore expect that much of the additional, old fluvial
14 carbon loss will be converted to CO₂ in the aquatic system, indirectly adding to greenhouse gas
15 emissions from the disturbed sites.

16 Our data show that drainage of tropical peat leads to destabilisation and an ongoing collapse of its C
17 store, resulting in the hitherto overlooked yet quantitatively important release of C via fluvial organic
18 pathways. Our findings emphasise the need to include these fluxes in models which seek to quantify
19 the impact of disturbance on the peatland C balance, and in the emission factors used by the
20 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change²⁷. Given that the oil palm biofuel industry contributes to
21 regional forest destruction, our findings highlight, in the United Nations International Year of
22 Sustainable Energy for All, that it is essential to incorporate fluvial organic carbon losses within
23 guidelines for the measurement, reporting and verification of carbon emissions under the UN REDD
24 programme. On current understanding, such omissions may undervalue the benefits to SE Asian
25 nations of maintaining and restoring the peatland C sink function²⁸.

26

27 **Methods Summary**

28 DOC and POC samples were collected and discharge measurements taken at weekly intervals for two 12 week
29 periods during the peak of the dry and wet seasons (Dry season; June - August 2008, Wet season; February -
30 May, 2009) and fortnightly for the remaining weeks in the year, totalling 38 weeks. 2008 was unexceptional
31 with respect to fire incidences and climate, being neither an El Niño nor La Niña year. For the remaining weeks,
32 samples were collected and discharge data were inferred from rainfall data (via catchment-specific
33 relationships between weekly rainfall data and discharge data). Five replicate flow rates and water samples
34 were collected from each catchment outlet, representing the drainage channel cross-sectional area. Samples
35 were collected in pre-rinsed 60ml Nalgene[®] bottles and water temperature, pH and electrical conductivity (EC)
36 were recorded immediately after collection using portable pH (Hanna HI9024D) and EC (Hanna HI8633) meters.
37 To derive POC concentration, a known volume of river water was filtered using pre-rinsed 0.45µm cellulose
38 acetate membrane filters (Whatman[®]) under partial vacuum (Mityvac, Nalgene[®]). The residue and filter were
39 retained and oven dried (24 hours at 40°C) to quantify particulate matter, assumed equal to particulate organic
40 matter (POM) given the dominance of peat soil in the catchment. POM was converted to POC assuming a 50%
41 carbon content²⁹. Samples of filtrate were acidified to pH 2.0 with dilute sulphuric acid (20%), stored at ~2°C
42 and analysed upon return to the UK. DOC was determined using a Total Organic Carboniser (Shimadzu, TOC-
43 V_{CPN}) following the non-purgeable organic carbon (NPOC) method. DOC/POC concentrations were then
44 combined with discharge rates to calculate the TOC flux from each of the catchments. The analysis,
45 interpretation and age attribution of DO¹⁴C data are described in the Supplementary Information. UV-visible

1 absorbance measurements were performed on a Molecular Sciences plate reader (model M2e) and a Milli-Q
2 blank reading was taken to subtract from each sample. A quartz cell with 1.0 cm path length was used.
3
4

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12

13 **Author contributions**

14 V.G., S.E.P. and C.D.E. conceived and led the research conducted in Kalimantan. S.M., V.G., S.E.P. and C.D.E.
15 designed the study and S.M. performed all the Kalimantan field data collection and analysis. C.D.E. and M.G.
16 coordinated, analysed and interpreted the radiocarbon component of the work. S.M., V.G. and S.E.P.
17 performed the up-scaling calculations. C.F. conceived and led the Malaysian study, T.J. performed the field
18 data collection and analysis, A.H. provided hydrological data and interpreted land surface information to allow
19 catchment definition. A.W. provided modelled estimates of evapotranspiration. S.L. provided expertise on
20 history of land-cover change and field site selection. S.M., V.G., S.E.P. and C.D.E. led the writing of the paper.
21 All authors discussed results and commented on the manuscript.
22

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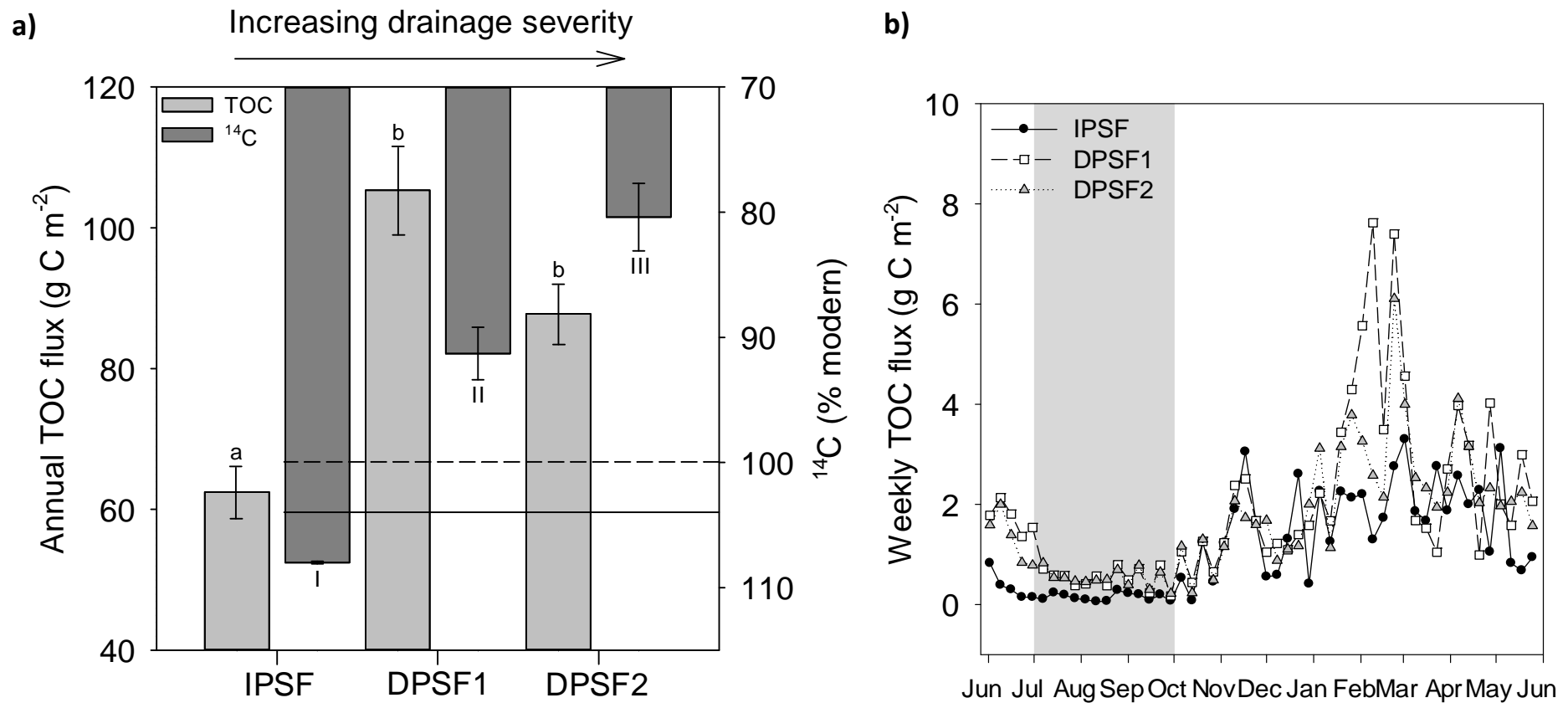


Figure 1: a) Annual TOC flux (\pm s.e.m), 'a' and 'b' denote significant differences between land-cover classes ($p < 0.05$, unpaired, two-sample t-test) and mean radiocarbon (^{14}C) levels (\pm s.e.m) measured in DOC (wet season samples), 'I', 'II' and 'III' denote significant differences ($p < 0.05$, unpaired, two-sample t-test). Solid horizontal line (104% modern) represents the current atmospheric $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ level, dashed horizontal line (100% modern) represents the composition of the atmosphere in 1950, in the absence of any anthropogenic influences (i.e. fossil fuel burning and above-ground nuclear testing), b) Weekly TOC flux from all land-cover classes from June 2008 to June 2009 (grey shading indicates dry season). IPSF TOC is the sum of fluxes from 3 channels, DPSF1 is the sum of 2 channels and DPSF2 is the sum of 3 channels, all divided by the total area of the land-cover class.

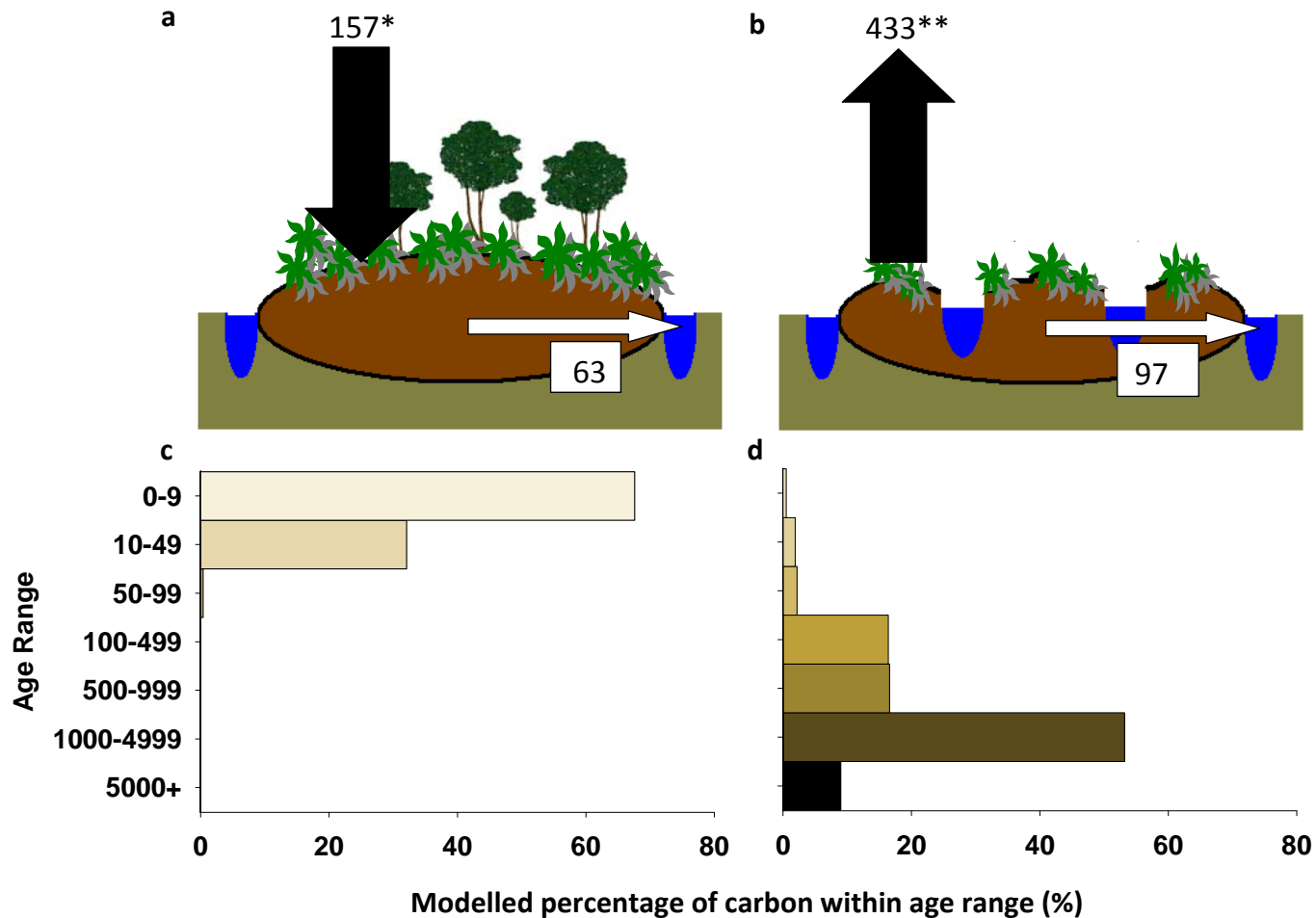


Figure 2. Schematic showing NEE (black arrows) and fluvial C loss (TOC) (white arrows) estimates in a) IPSF and b) DPSF land-cover classes. *NEE estimated from average 500 year long-term apparent rate of carbon accumulation (LORCA) from a peat core taken within IPSF¹⁷ to which mean fluvial C loss (63 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) has been added thus approximating NEE as would be measured by gaseous exchange alone. C gain of intact PSF estimated to be 94 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ (net C sink). ** NEE measured from tower-based gaseous exchange measurements (eddy covariance) within the DPSF catchments, with N, S, E and W fetches covering flat, deforested areas of the MRP that are drained but not containing drainage channels (which are beyond fetch extremities)¹⁸. NECB of DPSF estimated to be 530 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ (net C source). c) and d) modelled down-profile attribution of DO¹⁴C age from IPSF and DPSF2 land-cover classes respectively (wet season) as estimated from an age attribution model of DO¹⁴C age (see supplementary information for explanation).

Table 1. Borneo study sites and land-cover class properties.

Land-cover class	Number of channels	Area (km ²)	Rainfall (mm)	Total Discharge (mm)	Mean DOC Con ^c (mg l ⁻¹)	Mean POC Con ^c (mg l ⁻¹)	Mean TOC Con ^c (mg l ⁻¹)	DOC:POC ratio	Annual TOC flux (g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)
IPSF	3	34.2	2810	907	68.0 ± 0.3	1.4 ± 0.1	69.5 ± 0.4	49:1	62.5 ± 7.5
DPSF1	2	13.2	2810	1744	55.0 ± 0.7	5.3 ± 0.2	60.3 ± 0.8	10:1	105.3 ± 12.6
DPSF2	3	64.0	2810	1724	48.3 ± 0.5	3.6 ± 0.1	51.9 ± 0.5	13:1	87.8 ± 8.6

Number of channels, Area (total area of land-cover class), Rainfall (total annual, standardised using ground station records and TRMM), Total annual discharge (area standardised), Mean annual DOC concentration (± s.d.m), Mean annual POC concentration (± s.d.m), Mean annual TOC concentration (± s.d.m), DOC:POC ratio (DOC con^c/POC con^c), Annual TOC flux (± s.d.m).

Table 2. Bornean and Malaysian study sites - Hydrological, DOC, DO¹⁴C and qualitative (SUVA₂₅₄ and % aromaticity) data.

Land-cover class	Number of channels	Season	Total rainfall (mm; during 3 months prior to sampling)	Mean DOC Conc (mg l ⁻¹)	DO ¹⁴ C (%modern)	DO ¹⁴ C age (yrs BP)	SUVA ₂₅₄ (l mg ⁻¹ C ⁻¹ m ⁻¹)	Aromaticity (%)
IPSF	3	Dry	172	62.0	109.1 ± 0.3	modern	4.06 ± 0.04	30.10
	3	Wet	1141	64.1	108.0 ± 0.1	modern	4.03 ± 0.08	29.91
DPSF1	2	Dry	263	62.4	97.7 ± 0.6	188 ± 47	3.95 ± 0.15	29.38
	2	Wet	1018	54.7	91.3 ± 2.1	735 ± 179	3.69 ± 0.19	27.69
DPSF2	3	Dry	100	39.1	85.0 ± 0.6	1308 ± 54	4.00 ± 0.14	29.71
	3	Wet	922	47.9	80.4 ± 2.7	1760 ± 268	3.94 ± 0.10	29.32
Malaysia (OP - abandoned)	1	Dry	499	6.0	67.3 ± 0.3	3184 ± 37	4.93 ± 0.30	35.80
Malaysia (OP - active)	1	Dry	499	13.3	59.4 ± 0.3	4183 ± 37	4.14 ± 0.10	30.60

OP = Oil Palm. DO¹⁴C levels (mean from 3 DOC replicate samples) ± 1 s.e.m, DO¹⁴C Age (deduced from % modern, mean of three samples) ± 1σ level for overall analytical confidence. Specific UV Absorbance (SUVA₂₅₄) and % aromaticity data are means of 10 samples collected at weekly intervals during the wet and dry season. SUVA₂₅₄ is an indicator of relative aromaticity of aquatic humic substances and DOC as a whole with high aromaticity being indicative of a high degree of recalcitrance.

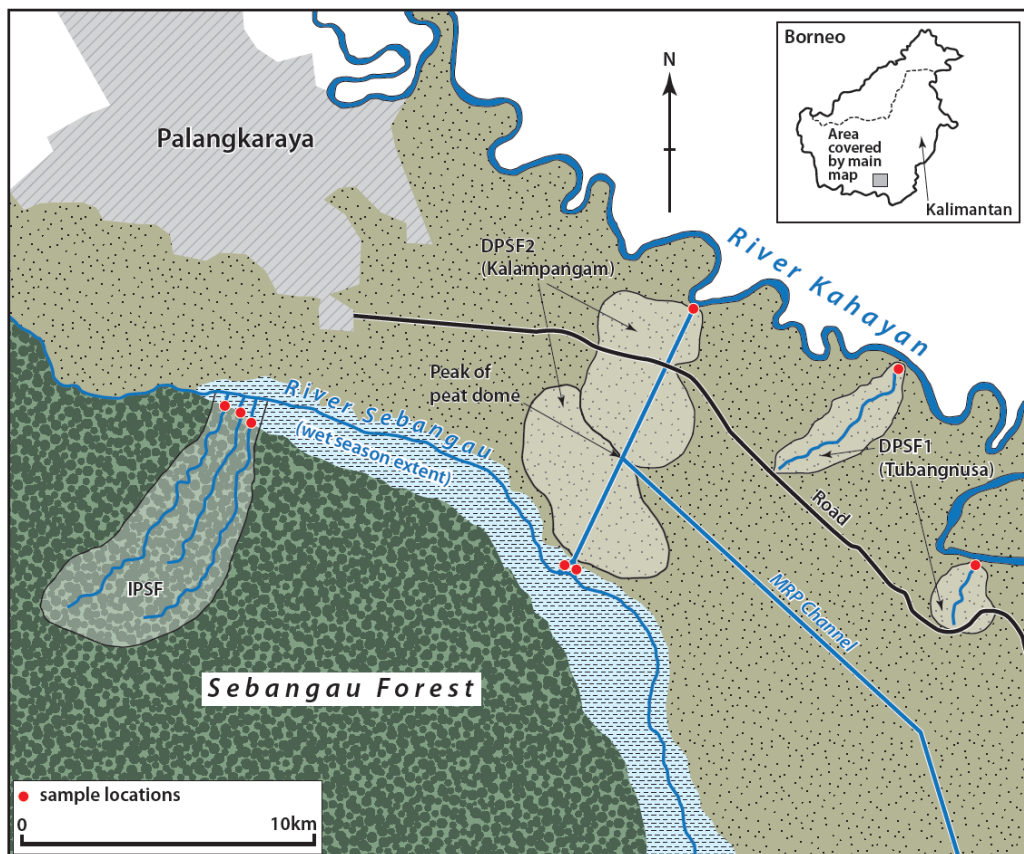
Table 3. Annual TOC fluxes pre and post disturbance at various spatial scales.

Region	Intact area 'pre' (km ²)	Intact area 'post' (km ²)	Disturbed area (km ²)	Total TOC flux 'pre' (Tg)	Total TOC flux 'post' (Tg)	Increase (Tg)
MRP*	15604	11102	4502	1.0	1.2	0.2
Borneo, Sumatra and Peninsular Malaysia	75805 [†]	15600	60205	4.7	6.8	2.1
South East Asia	121272 ^{††}	49344	71928 [§]	7.6	10.0	2.4

The MRP forms part of the ~155,000 km² of peatlands that cover Borneo (Kalimantan, Sabah and Sarawak), Sumatra and Peninsular Malaysia (~60% of total peatlands in Southeast Asia¹⁶). In 1990, approximately 50% (75,800 km²) of this land area was classed as intact PSF, with 'minor or no sign of human activity'¹⁶. In 2008 it was estimated that as a result of anthropogenic peatland disturbance, only 10% (15,600 km²) of intact PSF remained, which equates to a PSF loss of 2.15 % yr⁻¹⁽¹⁶⁾. 'Pre'/'Post' dates for regions as follows: MRP, 1991/2000; Borneo, Sumatra and Peninsular Malaysia & South East Asia, 1990/2008. TOC fluxes used in calculations are: 62.5 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for intact PSF and 96.6 g C m⁻² yr⁻¹ for disturbed PSF. * Area data taken from Boehm & Siegert, 2001⁽³⁰⁾. [†] Area of remaining intact PSF in 1990: 48.9% of 155,020 km² (data taken from Miettinen & Liew, 2010⁽¹⁶⁾) ^{††} Area of remaining intact PSF in 1990: 48.9% of 248,000 km² (data taken from Miettinen & Liew, 2010⁽¹⁶⁾ & Page et al. 2011⁽¹⁾). [§] Area of disturbed peatland (excluding industrial plantations) calculated using actual rates of PSF loss for individual regions (as reported in Miettinen & Liew, 2010⁽¹⁶⁾ & Hooijer et al. 2010⁽³⁾).

1 **Supplementary information**

2 **Site Descriptions:** IPSF is situated in the Sebangau National Park to the west of the River Sebangau
3 and consists of a continuum of forest types from the river (riverine forest) to the centre of the peat
4 dome (tall interior forest)^{S1}. The peat dome that makes up IPSF ranges in thickness from <1 m at the
5 edge to 12.6 m in the centre, averaging 7.8 m over the whole dome^{S1}. The water table is above the
6 surface for most of the year and reaches a maximum depth of 40 cm during the dry season in dry
7 years^{S2}. DPSF1 was deforested, moderately drained (3-6 m wide, 2-3 m deep channels, peat
8 thickness <1 – 5 m) and had been subject to three fire events prior to the study and since MRP
9 implementation (1997, 2002 and 2006). DPSF2 was also deforested, but subject to more intense
10 drainage (15-25 m wide, 4-7 m deep channels, peat thickness <1 – 8 m) and had burned on two
11 occasions prior to the study (1997 and 2006). The vegetation at DPSF1 and DPSF2 is dominated by
12 ferns with limited woody re-growth. Stream flow in all study sites is unregulated. Water tables
13 fluctuate according to rainfall but as a consequence of artificial drainage in DPSF1 and 2, they remain
14 below the peat surface for most of the year reaching maximum depths of 140 cm in dry years^{S3}. The
15 effect of such extreme drainage includes high rates of subsidence, indicative of aerobic
16 decomposition of the peat, concentrated in the first few hundred metres from drainage channels^{S3}.
17 This is not the case in drained industrial plantations where, under usual practice, the water table is
18 regulated at the most favourable depths for crop growth (ideally 60-80 cm for oil palm and Acacia
19 but often deeper).



20 **Figure. S1:** Location of study sites in Central Kalimantan, Borneo, Indonesia (inset). All sites lie within
21 30 km of Palangka Raya, the provincial capital of Central Kalimantan and formed part of the same
22 ecosystem, prior to disturbance induced by the MRP in 1995. IPSF (3 channels) drains into the River
23 Sebangau. DPSF1 (2 channels) drains into the River Kahayan. DPSF2 (3 channels) 2 channels drain
24 into the River Sebangau and 1 channel into the River Kahayan.

1 **Discharge measurement, hydrology and flux calculation**

2 The cross-sectional area (*CSA*) and five replicate flow rate measurements (*FR*) (converted from
3 impeller counts (*C*) per minute using the formula: $FR = 0.000854C + 0.05$) using a handheld impeller
4 flow meter were also taken and used to calculate the discharge (*Q*) from each channel using the
5 formula: $Q \text{ (m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}\text{)} = FR \text{ (m s}^{-1}\text{)} \times CSA \text{ (m}^2\text{)}$. Precision for this method was better than $\pm 5\%$. Weekly
6 TOC fluxes were estimated by multiplying TOC concentration by discharge for each catchment which
7 was divided by the total catchment area. For each of the three study catchments, areas were
8 estimated on the basis of the limited data available on elevation and peat depth, derived from the
9 Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM) 90 data and field surveys. These areas were then refined
10 using field observations of artificial drainage systems, which dominate discharge patterns in the DPSF
11 sites. This enabled us to make estimates of discharges and C fluxes at each measurement time point
12 which were then annualized. We evaluated whether these specific discharges, in combination with
13 rainfall rates as determined from field measurements and “Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission”
14 (TRMM) satellite monitoring^{S4}, yielded acceptable evapotranspiration (ET) values as judged against
15 literature values and where no data exist (i.e. for deforested DPSF type catchments), simulations in
16 the JULES land surface model.

17
18 ET for each land-cover class was inferred as the difference between rainfall and the sum of discharge.
19 Inferred ET rates are estimated as IPSF = 1903 mm/yr; DPSF1 = 1066 and DPSF2 = 1086. For tropical
20 lowland forest with rainfall over 2000 mm/yr, worldwide, values of between 1200 to 1800 mm/y are
21 reported^{S5} and for high rainfall sites such as ours (i.e. >2500-2700mm rainfall), ET rates as high as
22 2180 and 2420 mm have been recorded^{S6}. It is thought that at such high rainfall rates, canopy
23 interception and potential evaporation take on far greater importance than is currently represented
24 in models^{S7} causing such models to underestimate ET. After forest clearing, ET has been shown
25 generally to decrease^{S8}, but there are no known measurements of ET for deforested areas of the
26 MRP with which to validate our estimates. We therefore performed simulations of the effect of
27 forest clearance on evapotranspiration for the Palangkaraya region using the Joint UK Land
28 Environment Simulator JULES version 3.0^{S9, S10}. The model was parameterised to represent DPSF1 and
29 DPSF2 as combinations of C3, C4 grasses and bare soil. The model was spun-up by looping over 1950-
30 1970 until soil moisture stores stabilised and then run between 1970-2000 to derive 30 year
31 climatology values of evapotranspiration for our two DPSF sites. The model does not simulate the
32 effects of drainage and is parameterised using ancillary information on soil properties taken from the
33 Harmonised Soils and Wetlands Database (HWSD)^{S11}.

34
35 The model was forced by extracting a single half-degree gridbox of meteorological forcing data from
36 the WATCH 20th Century forcing data set^{S12}. In addition the model was forced with seasonally
37 varying leaf area index (LAI) for vegetated surface types. These were derived from climatological
38 values of LAI from MODIS 1km product classified using IGBP land cover classes and aggregated to the
39 half-degree scale. Results of the simulations yielded ET rates of 799 mm/yr for bare soil and ~1150
40 mm/yr for C3/C4 grasses which are consistent with our inferred ET rates using the stated
41 measurement approach given that much of our catchments are sparsely vegetated bare soil. Finally,
42 we checked our estimates of ET for the IPSF and DPSF areas against measured concentrations of
43 chloride (Cl⁻, measured by ion chromatography) for samples collected across all sites. The chloride
44 balance approach to ET estimation assumes that all runoff Cl⁻ is derived from atmospheric
45 deposition, that these inputs are consistent across the sites, and that it is unreactive during transport
46 through the catchment (e.g. S13). Based on our water balance estimates, we predicted that Cl⁻
47 concentrations in the DPSF channels should be 53% of those from the IPSF areas, due to reduced
48 evaporative concentration. The measured value was 43%, agreeing fairly well with this prediction,
49 and suggesting that, if anything, ET reduction between the IPSF and DPSF might be greater than our
50 hydrological measurements suggest. In this case, our calculated increases in DOC flux following
51 peatland drainage and deforestation would represent conservative estimates.

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Table S1: Individual DO¹⁴C sample data and DOC concentration at point of sample collection.

Site	RCL Code	Country	Land cover class	Season	Drainage Status	Drainage spacing (m)	DOC mg l ⁻¹	DO ¹⁴ C (% modern)	Age Years BP
ID1	SUERC-28121	Indonesia	IPSF	Dry	Undrained		60.1	109.75	modern
	SUERC-35171			Wet	Undrained		60.2	107.90	modern
ID2	SUERC-28122	Indonesia	IPSF	Dry	Undrained		62.5	108.74	modern
	SUERC-35172			Wet	Undrained		70.8	108.09	modern
ID3	SUERC-28123	Indonesia	IPSF	Dry	Undrained		63.5	108.80	modern
	SUERC-35173			Wet	Undrained		61.5	107.91	modern
ID4	SUERC-28126	Indonesia	DPSF2	Dry	Drained	> 1000	42.0	83.82	1417
	SUERC-35174			Wet	Drained	> 1000	51.4	84.62	1342
ID5	SUERC-28127	Indonesia	DPSF2	Dry	Drained	> 1000	35.6	85.49	1259
	SUERC-35175			Wet	Drained	> 1000	49.2	81.16	1677
ID6	SUERC-28128	Indonesia	DPSF2	Dry	Drained	> 1000	39.6	85.60	1249
	SUERC-35176			Wet	Drained	> 1000	43.1	75.47	2260
ID7	SUERC-28129	Indonesia	DPSF1	Dry	Drained	> 1000	62.6	98.86	92
	SUERC-35179			Wet	Drained	> 1000	64.6	95.35	382
ID8	SUERC-28130	Indonesia	DPSF1	Dry	Drained	> 1000	61.7	97.18	229
	SUERC-35180			Wet	Drained	> 1000	50.2	89.94	852
ID9	SUERC-28131	Indonesia	DPSF1	Dry	Drained	> 1000	62.8	97.07	239
	SUERC-35181			Wet	Drained	> 1000	49.3	88.61	972
MY1	SUERC-26030	Malaysia	Oil palm plantation (abandoned)	Dry	Drained	70	6.0	67.28	3184
MY2	SUERC-26031	Malaysia	Oil palm plantation (active)	Dry	Drained	70	13.3	59.41	4183

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Radiocarbon data and DOC age attribution model

Samples were prepared for ¹⁴C analysis at the NERC Radiocarbon Facility using standard methods described by Evans et al.^{S14}, and analysed by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) at the Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre, East Kilbride. ¹⁴C results were normalised to δ¹³C -25‰ and expressed as %modern and conventional radiocarbon years (BP; before present, where 0 BP = AD 1950); see Evans et al.^{S14} and references within.

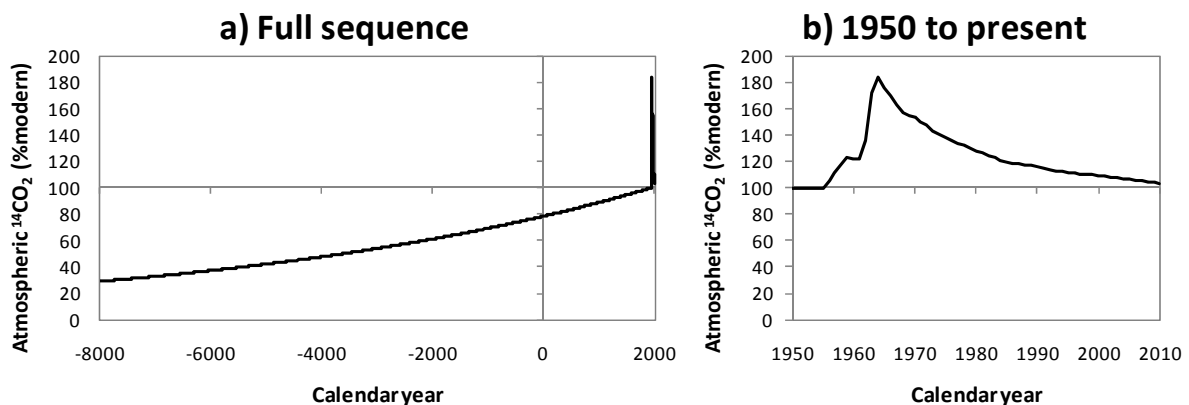
DO¹⁴C levels in water samples represent the composite signal obtained by mixing organic matter from a range of ages. Although this is conventionally represented by a single, indicative ‘mean age’, this observed value may be obtained by different combinations of old (pre-bomb, i.e. pre-1950s) and new (post bomb) material. Furthermore, samples dominated by bomb carbon cannot be assigned a mean age using this approach. To infer an estimated age distribution for the organic carbon in each sample, we therefore applied a simple model of DOC production as a function of peat depth, which corresponds to carbon age. We assumed that the largest input of DOC production occurred from carbon fixed via photosynthesis in the year of sampling, and that the amount of DOC production declined exponentially with each subsequent year (i.e. down the peat profile). This conceptual model is consistent with general understanding of the relationship between peat depth and decomposition rates^{S15}, and with a previous model of DOC input relative to age applied to Arctic river samples by Raymond et al.^{S16}. To permit a unique solution to this model, Raymond et al.^{S16} assumed that all DOC

1 included in their samples was derived from post-1970 material, accumulated since the atmospheric
 2 $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ peak. This assumption does not hold for all of our data, since some samples clearly contained
 3 pre-bomb carbon, therefore we applied a similar model extended to 10,000 years, based on a
 4 reconstructed sequence of atmospheric $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ concentrations^{S17} (Fig. S2). The model applied was:

$$DO^{14}\text{C} = t = 1 - t = 10,000 - ({}^{14}\text{CO}_2 t \times \exp^{-kt} / D),$$

(Equation S1)

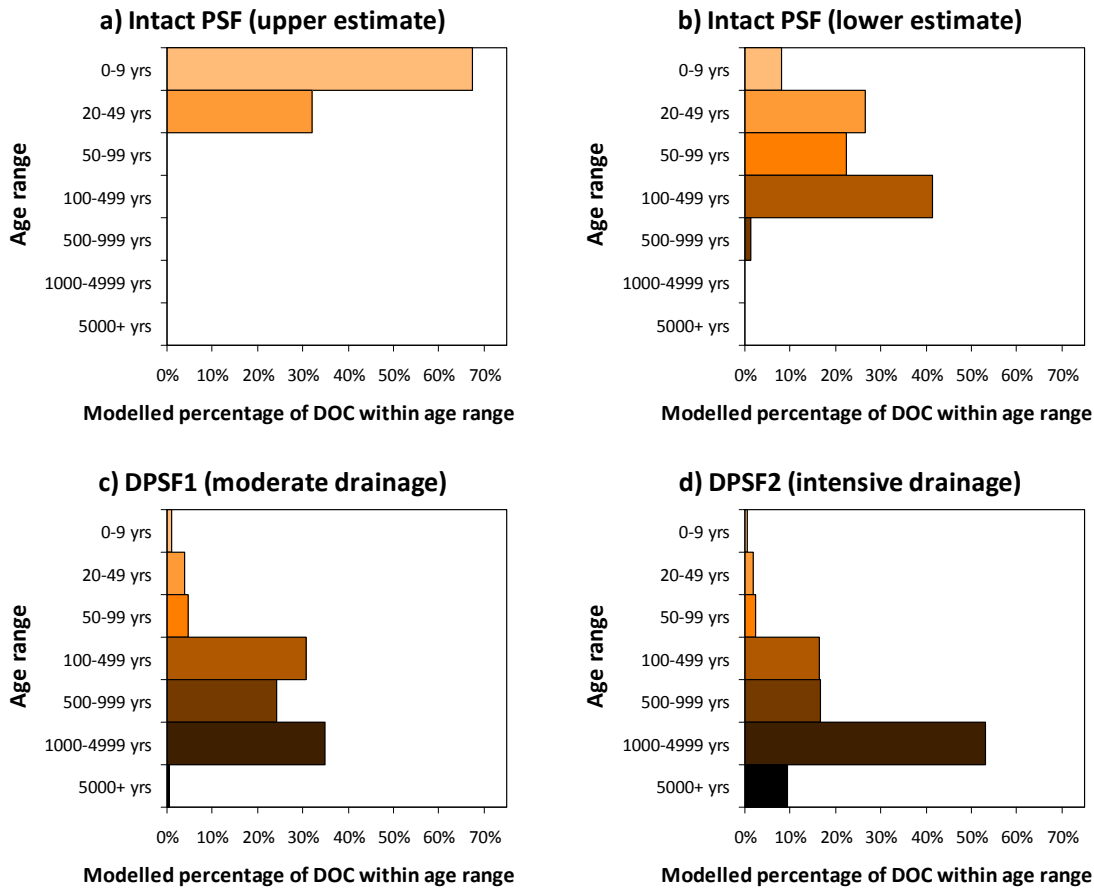
9 Where $DO^{14}\text{C}$ is the measured ^{14}C level of the sample, t is year prior to present day, ${}^{14}\text{CO}_2 t$ is the ^{14}C
 10 level of atmospheric CO_2 in year t , and k is a decay constant with a value between 0 and 1. For each
 11 sample, the value of k was solved iteratively based on measured $DO^{14}\text{C}$ and the atmospheric $^{14}\text{CO}_2$
 12 sequence shown in Fig. S2, using the Microsoft Excel Goal Seek function.



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 16 **Figure. S2.** Atmospheric $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ sequence used for age attribution model for a) full period of model
 17 application and b) period of ‘bomb’ atmospheric $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ enrichment, 1950 to present day^{S7}.

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 19 For all samples with $DO^{14}\text{C} < 104.63$ % modern (atmospheric $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ in the year of sampling), equation
 20 S1 can be solved with a unique value of k . For samples with a higher bomb carbon content, two
 21 solutions are possible. The first (with a value of $k > 0.033$) assigns virtually all the carbon to years
 22 after the peak of atmospheric $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ in 1964. The second (with $k < 0.033$) includes a greater
 23 proportion of C fixed prior to the bomb peak. Although it is not possible to conclusively determine
 24 which of these solutions is correct for these samples, we note that the former solution is consistent
 25 with the model of Raymond et al.^{S16}, and with many studies in high-latitude peatlands that have
 26 inferred a largely recent (< 10 year) source of runoff DOC based on ‘modern’ $DO^{14}\text{C}$ measurements
 27 (see main manuscript). The age attribution model was applied to all samples, and the DOC was
 28 apportioned into 0-9, 10-49, 50-99, 100-499, 500-999, 1000-4999 and 5000+ year age categories.
 29 Samples from each land-use class were then aggregated to give a mean modelled percentage of DOC
 30 within each age range (Fig. S3). For samples with $DO^{14}\text{C} > 104.63$ % modern, all of which were
 31 collected from the intact PSF, age distributions based on the two possible solutions to the model are
 32 shown.

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 34 The age attribution model is indicative, since different assumptions about the decrease in DOC
 35 production down the peat profile would somewhat alter the distributions obtained. However the
 36 differences in $DO^{14}\text{C}$ measured between intact and disturbed sites is so great that altering the
 37 assumptions in the model would not greatly alter the interpretation of relative age distributions; the
 38 lower values measured in the disturbed sites (combined with higher fluxes) can only be explained by
 39 a much larger release of DOC from much older, and thus deeper, peat organic matter.
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4 **Fig. S3.** Modelled age distribution of DOC samples collected from intact PSF (wet season); deforested
5 and moderately drained (DPSF1); and deforested and intensively drained (DPSF2) sites in Borneo.
6 Modelling approach is described in text. Upper and lower estimates for intact PSF reflect alternative
7 model solutions to fit observed DO^{14}C .

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11 **Malaysian DO^{14}C samples**

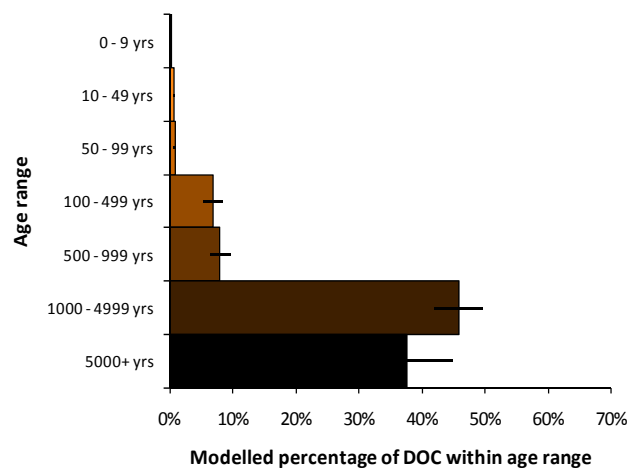
12 Two exploratory samples for DO^{14}C analysis were collected from an area of oil palm plantation on
13 former PSF near Kuala Lumpur. One sample was collected from an active plantation, and one from an
14 adjacent area of abandoned plantation, with sparse oil palm and secondary re-growth. Both locations
15 were located within a dense (70 m spacing) ditch drainage network. The two samples had
16 exceptionally low DO^{14}C values (67.3 and 59.4% modern respectively). Application of the age
17 attribution model described above based on mean DO^{14}C of the two sites (Figure S4) suggests that
18 83% of the DOC derives from peat carbon over 1000 years old, and 37% from peat carbon over 5000
19 years old.

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21 Given that only two measurements are available, we report these data to provide an indication of
22 the potential impact of oil palm plantation on peat fluvial C losses, and to highlight the need for
23 further measurements for this major SE Asian land-use class. We note that the DOC concentrations in
24 the samples collected were much lower (mean 10 mg l^{-1}) than in the drained Borneo sites (mean 51
25 mg l^{-1}). The reasons for this are unclear; one possibility is that the DOC production in the upper part
26 of the peat profile at intensively drained Malaysian sites has largely ceased due to severe water table
27 drawdown and drying, resulting in only a small residual DOC loss from depth within the peat profile

1 as suggested by the extreme age measurements, and supported by the higher DOC concentrations
2 observed when the site was first studied in 1995.

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5 We examined the data from these sites to evaluate whether other factors could explain the very low
6 observed DO^{14}C values, such as autotrophic conversion of geogenic dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC)
7 within the drainage channels. Since the samples collected were highly acid (pH 4.1 and 3.1
8 respectively), we believe it is highly unlikely that the signal could be explained by assimilation of DIC
9 from the water column. Furthermore, measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values on the samples were similar to those
10 obtained from the drained Borneo sites (Malaysia site mean -27.3‰ (VPDB), Borneo site mean -29.7
11 ‰). These values are typical for DOC derived from peatlands, and thus suggest that the very low
12 DO^{14}C values can only be explained by release of stored carbon from depth within the peat profile at
13 these sites.
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17 **Fig. S4.** Modelled age distribution of DOC measured in ditches draining oil palm plantation sites in
18 Peninsular Malaysia. Error bars represent standard error of two samples. Modelling method
19 corresponds to that used for Borneo samples.

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