

1 **Seasonal and interannual Dissolved Organic Carbon transport process dynamics in a**
2 **subarctic headwater catchment revealed by high-resolution measurements.**

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34 **Abstract**

35 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) dynamics are evolving in the rapidly changing Arctic and a
36 comprehensive understanding of the controlling processes is urgently required. For
37 example, the transport processes governing DOC dynamics are prone to climate driven
38 alteration given their strong seasonal nature. Hence, high-resolution and long-term studies
39 are required to assess potential seasonal and inter-annual changes in DOC transport
40 processes. In this study, we monitored DOC at a 30-minute resolution from September 2018
41 to December 2022 in a headwater peatland-influenced stream in Northern Finland (Pallas
42 catchment, 68° N). Temporal variability in transport processes was assessed using multiple
43 methods, specifically: concentration – discharge (C-Q) slope for seasonal analysis, a
44 modified hysteresis index for event analysis, yield analysis, and random forest regression
45 models to determine the hydroclimatic controls on transport. The findings reveal the
46 following distinct patterns: (a) the slope of the C-Q relationship displayed a strong seasonal
47 trend, indicating increasing transport limitation each month after snowmelt began; (b) the
48 hysteresis index decreased post-snowmelt, signifying the influence of distal sources and
49 DOC mobilization through slower pathways; and (c) interannual variations in these metrics
50 were generally low, often smaller than month-to-month fluctuations. These results highlight
51 the importance of long-term and detailed monitoring to enable separation of inter and intra
52 annual variability to better understand the complexities of DOC transport. This study
53 contributes to a broader comprehension of DOC transport dynamics in the Arctic,
54 specifically quantifying seasonal variability and associated mechanistic drivers, which is vital
55 for predicting how the carbon cycle is likely to change in Arctic ecosystems.

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64 **1. Introduction**

65 The dynamics of Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC) in Arctic catchments are undergoing
66 profound transformations due to the impacts of climate change, recovery from acidification,
67 and land-use change (Anderson et al., 2023; de Wit et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2022; McGuire et al.,
68 2018; Shogren et al., 2021; Tank et al., 2016). Notably, the Arctic region has experienced a
69 fourfold increase in warming compared to the global average since 1979 (Rantanen et al.,
70 2022), fostering substantial changes in hydrological processes, particularly in terms of
71 transport mechanisms (Liu et al., 2022). Climate change-induced alterations are occurring in
72 permafrost extent (Koch et al., 2022), snowpack water storage (Bokhorst et al., 2016;
73 Pulliainen et al., 2020), snowpack duration (Bowering et al., 2023), snowmelt timing (Tan et
74 al., 2011), and hydrological seasonality (Osuch et al., 2022), which have been significantly
75 affecting DOC dynamics (Liu et al., 2022; Shogren et al., 2021). Consequently, these shifts
76 have triggered rapid and consequential transformations within both the Arctic water and
77 carbon cycles that are both climatically sensitive (Bintanja and Andry, 2017; Bruhwiler et al.,
78 2021; McGuire et al., 2009; Vihma et al., 2016).

79 DOC transport processes (referring to the mobilization of DOC from catchment sources to
80 the stream through differing flow paths) in the Arctic exhibit pronounced seasonality and
81 are highly susceptible to change (Bowering et al., 2023; Csank et al., 2019; Shatilla and
82 Carey, 2019). Among the various transport mechanisms, the spring snowmelt flood is the
83 main event and control on annual DOC flux in Arctic catchments (Croghan et al., 2023).
84 Several studies have demonstrated its contribution ranging from 37% to 82% of the annual
85 DOC load, albeit with considerable variations between catchments and years (Dyson et al.,
86 2011; Finlay et al., 2006; Prokushkin et al., 2011). However, in the Arctic, climate change is
87 reducing snow cover duration and increasing the fraction of precipitation in the liquid phase
88 (Bintanja and Andry, 2017). Consequently, storm events are emerging as increasingly
89 important mechanisms for the export of DOC from terrestrial ecosystems (i.e. soils) to
90 stream networks (Day and Hodges, 2018; Speetjens et al., 2022). Furthermore, the
91 lengthening growing seasons, accompanied by potential increases in DOC source supply, are
92 further exacerbating the impact of summer and autumn storm events on DOC dynamics in
93 the Arctic region (Bowering et al., 2020; Pearson et al., 2013). Additionally, while the
94 significance of shoulder seasons (defined in the Arctic as the transitional period between the

95 end of plant senescence and the freezing of the headwaters, and after the onset of thaw till
96 the end of snowmelt) for DOC export has been acknowledged in recent years, their
97 characterization remains limited. Therefore, there is a pressing need for more extensive
98 documentation to elucidate the influence of shifting climate on DOC dynamics in the Arctic
99 (Shogren et al., 2020).

100 Headwater catchments play a crucial role in the transport of DOC into streams (Fork et al.,
101 2020; Lambert et al., 2014). These catchments constitute approximately 90% of the total
102 global stream length and serve as the primary connection for carbon transport between
103 terrestrial landscapes and oceans (Argerich et al., 2016; Li et al., 2021). Allochthonous inputs
104 into the stream, driven by rain and snowmelt events, dominate the dynamics of headwater
105 catchments (Billett et al., 2006; Laudon et al., 2004). Headwater wetland mires are
106 especially abundant in northern latitudes and are significant contributors of carbon to the
107 stream, often exhibiting higher concentrations compared to other landscape types
108 (Campeau and del Giorgio, 2014; Dick et al., 2015; Gómez-Gener et al., 2021). Furthermore,
109 the seasonal dynamics of carbon transfer processes in headwater wetlands differ
110 significantly depending on the season. During snowmelt, rapid superficial pathways are
111 observed, which later evolve into more complex pathways in the landscape during the
112 summer and autumn (Croghan et al., 2023; Laudon et al., 2011). Additionally, headwater
113 catchments are highly vulnerable to the impacts of hydrological extremes (Koch et al.,
114 2022), and they are expected to undergo significant changes due to climate change (Ward et
115 al., 2020). The increasing hydrological stochasticity in Arctic catchments (e.g. occurrence
116 and magnitude of extremes) highlight the need to better understand inter-annual variability
117 using more highly resolved data to characterize event dynamics (Bring et al., 2016).
118 Consequently, longer term and higher frequency study of sensitive headwater catchments is
119 essential to better understand their functioning and response to environmental changes,
120 especially in high latitude conditions (Bruhwiler et al., 2021; Marttila et al., 2022, 2021).

121 To comprehensively investigate the transport processes of DOC across seasons, it is
122 essential to employ high-resolution, long-term monitoring approaches (Shogren et al.,
123 2020). This need is particularly pronounced in headwater environments, where the majority
124 of the DOC input into streams occurs during storm events and snowmelt (Billett et al.,
125 2006). Only through high-frequency monitoring can we adequately identify and understand

126 the transport processes and characteristics associated with sudden episodic and
127 unpredictable storm and snowmelt events, capturing the necessary resolutions for
128 improved process understanding (Blaen et al., 2016). Furthermore, higher-resolution data
129 collection can facilitate the use of multiple analytical techniques, such as hysteresis analysis,
130 which can offer deeper insights into DOC transport dynamics (Croghan et al., 2023; Lloyd et
131 al., 2016b). Historically, limited spatial and temporal field sampling has led to biases in our
132 understanding of the impacts of climate change in Arctic regions (Metcalf et al., 2018;
133 Shogren et al., 2020). Additionally, high-frequency DOC measurements in the Arctic remain
134 relatively rare, especially datasets that cover the shoulder seasons and encompass multi-
135 year measurements for assessing inter-annual differences (Beel et al., 2021; Shogren et al.,
136 2021).

137 The rapid evolution of controlling DOC processes due to climate change emphasizes the
138 need to document transport processes in understudied high-latitude headwater catchments
139 (Shatilla et al., 2023). The scarcity of multi-year, high-frequency datasets in these
140 catchments has impeded our understanding of seasonal and inter-annual DOC dynamics. As
141 the underlying drivers of DOC transport processes are undergoing substantial changes, there
142 is a need to understand baseline levels of variability (Shatilla and Carey, 2019; Shogren et
143 al., 2021). This is particularly essential for assessing the dynamic evolution of the Arctic
144 carbon and water cycles, underscoring the need for a concerted effort to address these
145 knowledge gaps. (Laudon et al., 2017; Marttila et al., 2021; Pedron et al., 2023). To address
146 key knowledge gaps in Arctic headwater DOC transport, our study focused on a peatland-
147 influenced headwater catchment located in subarctic, Northern Finland (68°N), with the
148 overarching aim to identify the drivers of DOC transport processes and explore their
149 seasonal and interannual dynamics. We utilized a unique four-year high-resolution dataset
150 of DOC, allowing us to undertake varied analyses. To enhance understanding of DOC
151 transport processes in the Arctic and their implications for future dynamics the following
152 interlinked research questions were addressed:

- 153 1) How do the main drivers of DOC transport processes vary across different seasons?
- 154 2) To what extent do DOC transport processes and their drivers vary inter-annually? We
155 hypothesized that:

156 **H₁** At the intra annual scale, DOC transport processes would significantly differ between
157 snow melt, snow free, and snow cover seasons;

158 **H₂** At the inter annual scale, the metrics of DOC transport processes would significantly
159 differ between years with the most different hydrometeorological conditions.

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161 **2.0 Methods**

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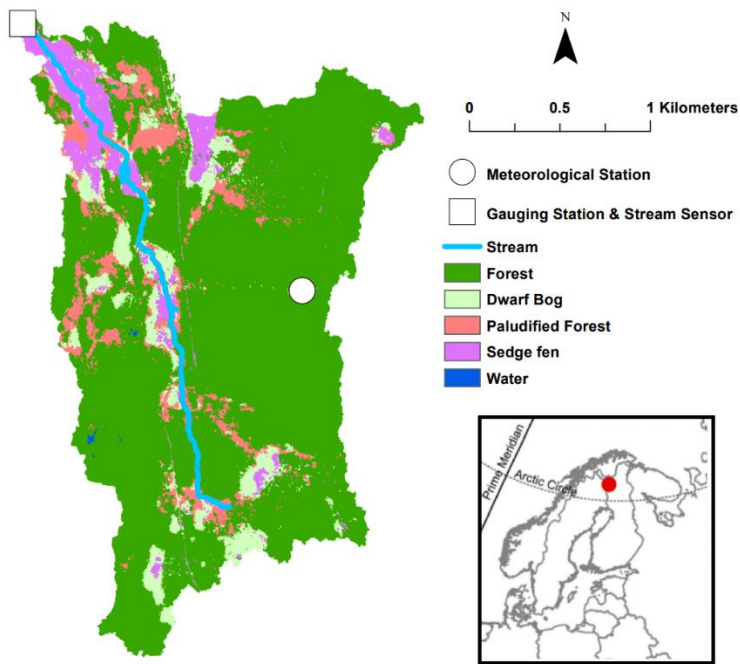
163 **2.1 Site Description**

164 The research was conducted within the Lompolojängänoja catchment, also referred to as
165 the Pallas catchment (Marttila et al., 2021), situated in a peatland-influenced headwater
166 stream (Figure 1). This catchment is located in Northern Finland (68°02'N, 24°16'W) within
167 the Pallas-Yllästunturi National Park. Encompassing a total area of 4.42 km², the Pallas
168 catchment exhibits elevations ranging from 268 m to 375 m above sea level.

169 The stream location is strongly influenced by a peatland, which comprises fens, mires,
170 paludified forest and floodplains. This peatland exerts significant control over the flow
171 dynamics within the catchment, contributing most of the flow at the headwater location
172 (Marttila et al., 2021). Within the broader catchment area, coniferous forests account for
173 79% of the land classification, followed by mixed forests (9%) and peatbogs (8%).

174 The Pallas catchment is categorized as subarctic, characterized by long winters with
175 substantial snowfall and short, rainy summers. Notably, despite its northern latitude, the
176 catchment lacks a permafrost layer, making it one of the most northern research
177 catchments without permafrost (Marttila et al., 2021). The mean annual rainfall in the
178 catchment amounts to 521 mm, with 42% of that precipitation occurring as snowfall.

179 Typically, snowmelt occurs towards the end of April or early May and concludes by late May
180 or early June. Permanent snow cover in the catchment typically commences around late
181 October, though it can extend into late November. For further comprehensive descriptions
182 of the Pallas catchment's characteristics, please refer to Marttila et al., (2021).



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184 **Figure 1** – Map of the study location (inset), catchment and measurement locations within
 185 the catchment. Classification of vegetation in the catchment was derived from (Räsänen et
 186 al., 2021)

187 **2.2 Stream Monitoring**

188 The monitoring of stream variables was conducted during the period from 18th September
 189 2018 to 31st December 2022. To measure these variables, a multiparameter sonde (YSI-
 190 EXO3; Excitation 365 nm, Emission 480 nm) was deployed at the catchment outlet in the
 191 Lompolojängänoja stream (Figure 1). The sonde collected data at 30-minute intervals,
 192 measuring fluorescent dissolved organic matter (FDOM), electrical conductivity, turbidity,
 193 water temperature, and pH. The Finnish Environment Institute (SYKE) installed, calibrated,
 194 and maintained the sensor throughout the study duration. Stream flow was measured at
 195 the same location using a pressure transducer at a 120° V-notch weir, and records were
 196 logged at the same temporal resolution.

197 The FDOM measurements from the sonde were used to model the concentration of DOC.
 198 The instrument internally corrected for temperature effects (i.e. thermal quenching), and
 199 FDOM required corrections for turbidity effects (Downing et al., 2012). Corrections for
 200 turbidity were undertaken using the following equation which was derived using internal lab
 201 calibration of the instrument:

$$DOC_{corrected} = \left(\frac{0.117 \cdot fDOM}{1 - (1.1 \cdot Turbidity) / (120 + Turbidity)} \right) \quad (1)$$

Here, the value 0.117 represents the slope obtained from the lab sample DOC against instrument FDOM. To ensure data accuracy, regular grab samples were taken throughout the study (Supplementary Figure 1). No correction was applied to the instrument for inner-filter effects, as there was no observed deviation from linearity in the relationship between in-stream Absorbance 254nm and stream DOC. The instrument underwent regular manual cleaning every two weeks to prevent fouling, while the sensor also had a self-brushing anti-fouling system. No fouling was apparent over the course of the study.

The calculation of DOC load during the study period was performed using the following equation:

$$C_l = C_c \cdot Q \quad (2)$$

Where C_l is the carbon load (mg h^{-1}), C_c is the carbon concentration (mg L^{-1}), and Q is the stream flow (L h^{-1}).

Throughout the study, various meteorological measurements were collected. A meteorological station located at the Kenttäröva forest site (Figure 1) was utilized to record precipitation, snow depth, and air temperature in 10 minutes resolution. The maintenance of the meteorological station was carried out by the Finnish Meteorological Institute (FMI).

2.3 Data Analysis

The 4-year dataset was transformed into hourly data by calculating hourly means. In our analysis, we delineated three distinct seasonal periods: the snowmelt season, snow-free season, and snow cover season.

The snowmelt season was defined as the period starting from the onset of snowmelt, indicated by a decline in snow depth with a concurrent increase in flow, until snow cover at the Kenttäröva site reached 0 cm (Fig. 1). The spring snowmelt season was classified using both snow depth and flow as snow depth alone varies for reasons not due to melting (e.g. snowpack consolidation). The snow cover season referred to the period when permanent

229 snow cover occurred (i.e. the point of the year snow depth was > 0 cm till the spring
230 snowmelt). . The snow free season referred to the period between the snowmelt and snow
231 cover seasons where snow depth was 0 cm. All analyses were performed using R in RStudio
232 (version 2023.03.0).

233 To conduct event-based analysis, we extracted specific events from the dataset. Events
234 were defined as periods where discharge had to exceed baseflow by 10% for a duration of
235 at least 24 hours, following definitions used in previous studies (Shogren et al., 2021;
236 Vaughan et al., 2017). Baseflow was computed using a Lyne-Hollick baseflow filter
237 implemented in the R package "grwat". In total, 92 events were identified and extracted
238 from the dataset. Among these events, 18 occurred during the snowmelt period, 63 took
239 place during the snow-free period, and 11 events were observed within the snow cover
240 period.

241 Concentration-Discharge (C-Q) analysis was performed to examine variations in transfer
242 processes at seasonal scales. We calculated the slope (β) of the logarithmic relationship
243 between DOC and streamflow (Q) for each year and each month of the study. The months
244 of December to March were not included in the seasonal analysis as flow remained at
245 baseflow during these months throughout the study. A positive slope ($\beta > 0$) suggests a
246 transport-limited relationship, indicating that the concentration of DOC is primarily
247 controlled by the transport processes. Conversely, a negative slope ($\beta < 0$) suggests a
248 source-limited relationship, indicating that the concentration of DOC is primarily influenced
249 by the sources within the catchment. A slope of zero ($\beta = 0$) indicates chemostasis,
250 indicating no significant change in DOC concentration with variations in streamflow. C-Q
251 slopes have been widely employed to assess the extent of transport or source limitation in
252 catchments (Godsey et al., 2009; Zarnetske et al., 2018). The coefficient of variation (CV) for
253 monthly DOC was also calculated alongside monthly C-Q slopes to identify the amount of
254 variation in DOC relative to changes in C-Q slope.”.

255 Hysteresis analysis was conducted to gain insights into flow pathways and transport
256 processes at event scale. The Modified Hysteresis Index (HI) was calculated following Lloyd
257 et al., (2016b). Briefly, the HI is calculated by subtracting the falling limb standardised DOC
258 value from the rising limb standardised DOC value at each 20th flow percentile across the
259 loop. The HI is then calculated as the average HI of the loop for each event. For each event,

260 individual peaks were treated as separate events to allow the HI to be calculated across the
261 rising and falling limb of the flow. Therefore, for multi-peak events, multiple HI were
262 calculated. The HI yielded values between -1 and 1 for each event. Positive values (> 0)
263 indicate clockwise hysteresis, where the peak concentration of DOC occurs on the rising
264 limb of the event. This pattern suggests the presence of near-stream sources or rapid
265 transport of DOC. Negative values (< 0) indicate anticlockwise hysteresis, where the peak
266 concentration of DOC occurs on the falling limb of the event. This pattern indicates the
267 influence of distal sources or slow transport of DOC (Lloyd et al., 2016b; Williams, 1989).

268 DOC load yields and event water yields were calculated for each event by totalling the sum
269 of DOC (measured in kg per km²) and water (measured in mm), and subsequent linear
270 regressions were performed to assess the variability between DOC and event water yields
271 across seasons and years (Vaughan et al., 2017). For comparisons between years, 2018 was
272 excluded as data collection only began in September 2018. Differences in the linear
273 regression relationships signify variations in transport limitation and source activation
274 among seasons and years. Furthermore, the Yield Ratio, defined as the ratio of event DOC
275 load yield to event water yield, was computed to identify potential variations between
276 months, indicating differences in transport processes (Vaughan et al., 2017).

277 To identify hydrometeorological drivers of event-based metrics, we employed a machine
278 learning method (Random Forest regression) using the R package "*randomForest*". This
279 approach was chosen due to observed non-linearity in some of the relationships. We
280 considered a set of hydrometeorological predictors based on their potential significance in
281 prior studies examining stream nutrient transport processes across seasonal timescales
282 (Blaen et al., 2017). The selected predictor variables included maximum discharge, 7-day
283 antecedent rainfall, average air temperature during the event, average water temperature
284 during the event, and total rainfall during the event.

285 The Random Forest regressions were conducted using the entire dataset, as the aim was to
286 identify the most informative predictors. Models (names in brackets) were created to assess
287 the best predictors of Maximum event DOC (MaxDOC), the percentage of change of DOC
288 during events (DOC Change), event C-Q slope (Slope), event hysteresis index (HI), and event
289 Yield Ratio (Yield Ratio). We present the output of the models for the best predictors, as
290 determined by node purity. Higher node purity values indicate better prediction

291 performance. Additionally, we report the variance explained and the mean of squared
292 residuals for each model. These metrics provide insights into the predictive power and
293 goodness of fit of the selected predictors. Only models with variance explained > 10% are
294 featured. Resultantly, no HI models are featured, as they did not meet this threshold.

295 **3.0 Results**

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297 **3.1 Time Series**

298 Flow exhibited a pronounced seasonal pattern (Fig. 2a). Each year, the highest flow occurred
299 during the snowmelt season. In the snow-free season, flow was primarily driven by episodic
300 precipitation events. During the early snow cover season, flow was responsive to some
301 precipitation events, but remained at baseflow for most of the snow cover season (Table 1).

302 DOC concentrations (Fig. 2b; Table 1) generally exhibited a consistent rise throughout the
303 snowmelt season, and remained elevated throughout the snow-free period, albeit with
304 frequent event-driven peaks. During the snow cover period, DOC levels initially declined and
305 then stabilized. DOC load, on the other hand, mirrored the dynamics of flow, and the
306 highest loads occurred during the snowmelt season, with smaller event-driven peaks during
307 the snow-free season.

308 Air temperature (Fig. 2c; Table 1) during the snowmelt season exhibited a positive trend,
309 with some variation around 0 °C meaning regular fluctuation between melting and freezing
310 in the snowmelt season. In the snow-free season, temperatures increased until August and
311 then declined. At the onset of the snow cover season, temperatures dropped below zero.
312 Snow cover typically began in mid-October and reached its peak in March or early April.

313 Water temperature (Fig. 2d; Table 1) remained relatively stable during most of the
314 snowmelt season and gradually increased towards the end of the period. Throughout the
315 snow-free season, water temperature closely tracked air temperature. During the snow
316 cover season, water temperature hovered around 0 °C. Turbidity, on the other hand, peaked
317 during the snowmelt season due to initial flushes, but also reached high levels during large
318 summer events in the snow-free season.

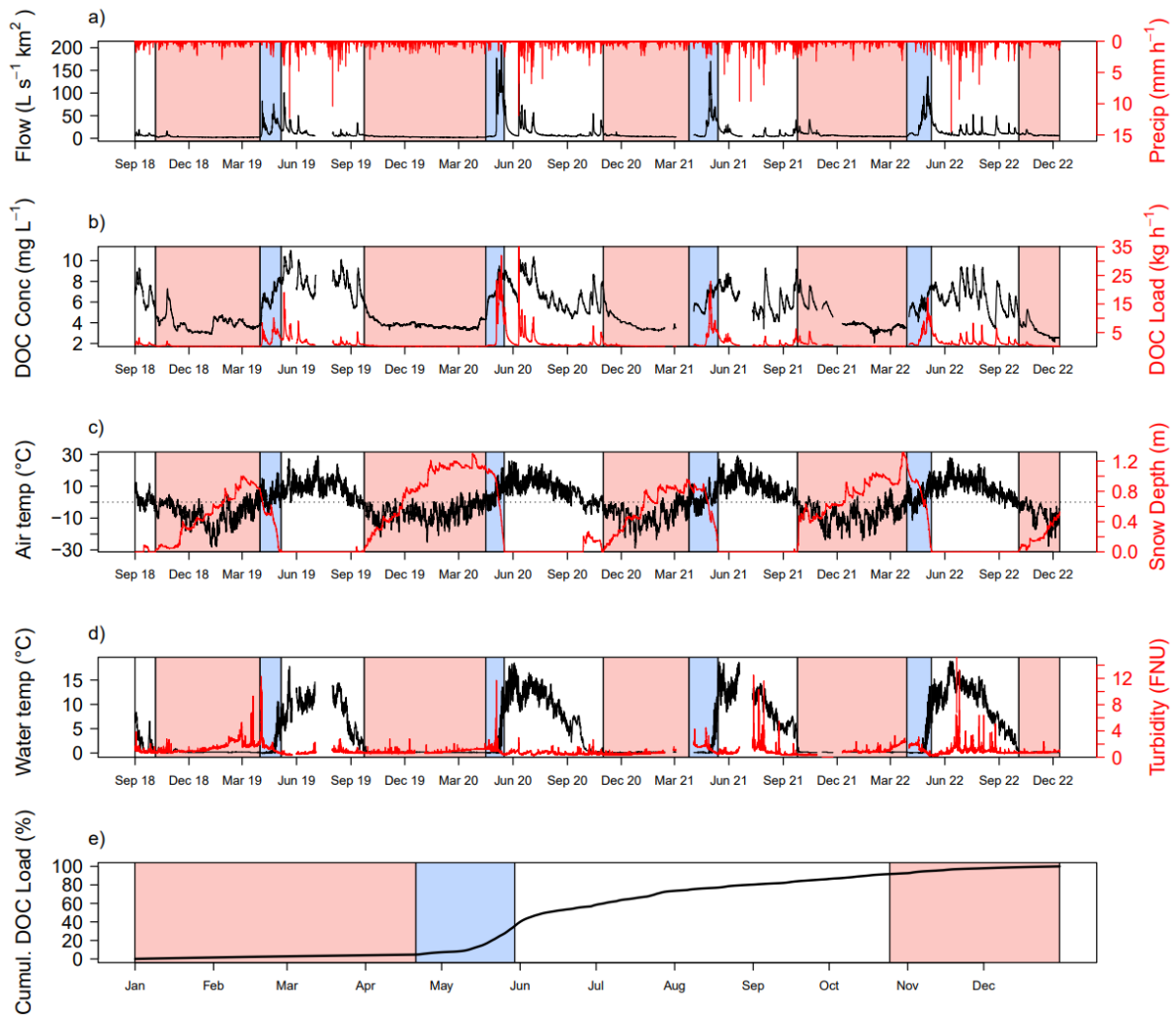
319 When considering the total annual cumulative DOC load averaged across the study (Fig. 2e;
320 Table 1), the ~6 week snowmelt period contributed around 33.4% of the total annual DOC

321 load. In contrast, the snow-free season contributed approximately 59% of the total annual
 322 DOC load, while the snow cover season contributed around 7.6%.

323 **Table 1** – Hydrometeorological variables in the snow cover, snow melt, and snow free
 324 seasons. Values are presented as Mean, except for precipitation, which is shown as the total
 325 for each season.

Year	Season	Turbidity (NTU)	DOC (mg L ⁻¹)	DOC Load (kg h ⁻¹)	Flow (L s ⁻¹ km ⁻²)	Precipitation (mm)	Snow Depth (m)	Water Temp (°C)	Air Temp (°C)
2018	SnowCover	0.86	4.11	0.32	3.90	98.7	0.17	0.25	-4.78
2018	SnowFree	0.90	6.82	0.94	7.16	58	0.02	2.33	1.47
2019	SnowCover	1.31	3.90	0.23	3.10	295.5	0.59	0.19	-7.80
2019	SnowFree	0.68	7.92	2.06	12.81	335.6	0.00	8.39	9.07
2019	SnowMelt	1.60	6.57	3.41	26.76	37.8	0.42	1.70	4.30
2020	SnowCover	0.75	4.30	0.46	4.77	348.4	0.74	0.17	-4.94
2020	SnowFree	0.62	6.88	2.06	13.61	310.6	0.00	10.41	10.51
2020	SnowMelt	1.11	7.20	7.27	47.20	17.5	0.81	1.94	5.14
2021	SnowCover	0.46	4.58	0.73	6.76	304.2	0.63	0.17	-8.21
2021	SnowFree	0.83	6.31	1.21	9.19	289.2	0.00	9.81	10.55
2021	SnowMelt	1.43	6.21	3.92	30.55	74.1	0.67	1.65	2.31
2022	SnowCover	0.98	3.48	0.37	5.63	229.1	0.65	0.17	-6.90
2022	SnowFree	0.89	6.45	1.70	13.50	350.4	0.00	10.26	10.00
2022	SnowMelt	1.31	5.76	4.36	35.11	42.3	0.76	1.79	3.44

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333 **Figure 2** – Time series depicting: a) Flow (black) and Precipitation (red), b) DOC
 334 concentration (black) and DOC load (red), c) Air temperature (black) and snow depth (red),
 335 d) Water temperature (black) and Turbidity (red), and e) Average cumulative DOC load for
 336 the study period. The background shading indicates the different seasons: white background
 337 represents the snow-free season, red background represents the snow cover season, and
 338 blue background represents the snowmelt season. In graph e, the shading represents the
 339 average date of the snow-free, permanent snow cover, and snowmelt seasons.

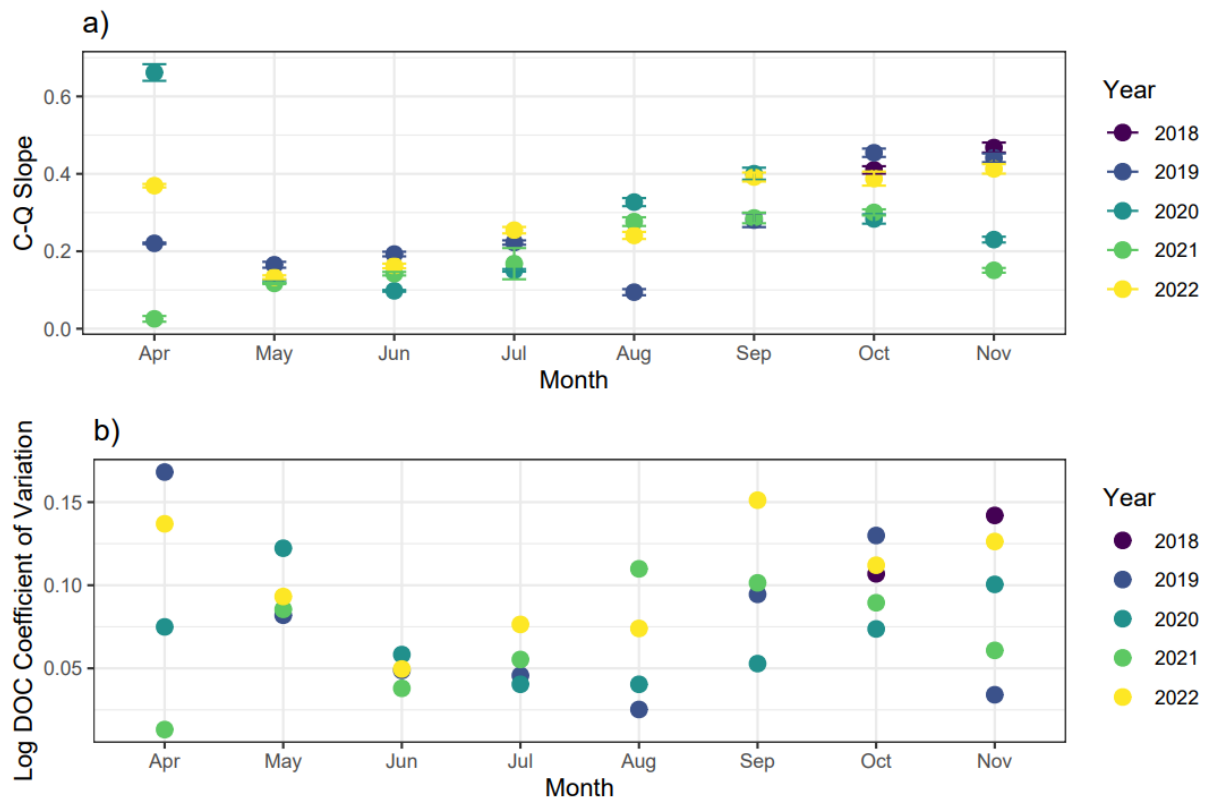
340 **3.2 Concentration-discharge (C-Q) relationships**

341 The analysis of the C-Q relationship revealed consistent positive slopes across all months
 342 and years, indicating transport limitation (Fig. 3a). A pronounced seasonal trend in slope
 343 was observed throughout the study period. From May to November, the slope exhibited a
 344 consistent increase. In April, substantial variation in slopes was observed, primarily driven
 345 by minimal flow changes in most years. Occasional outliers were noted in August 2019, and
 346 November 2020 and 2021; but these were attributable to minimal range in flow in those

347 months. Notably, the variation between years was relatively small and generally smaller
348 than the month-to-month differences. The coefficient of variance data shows strong
349 seasonal and between years differences in variation of the DOC data (Fig. 3b). The largest
350 variation of DOC between years occurred during April and May, while in the summer
351 months of June to August, variation was continuously the lowest, before subsequently
352 increasing again in the Autumn months.

353 In contrast, when considering events only, the C-Q slope showed less pronounced seasonal
354 variation (Fig. 4a). No significant differences were found between months ($df = 7$, $F = 0.77$, P
355 $= 0.62$) or seasons ($df = 2$, $F = 1.54$, $P = 0.22$), although the slope during snow cover
356 exhibited slightly higher values compared to other months. Notably, non-linear relationships
357 emerged between the C-Q slope and 7-day antecedent precipitation for flow events (Fig.
358 4b). During the snow-free season, the slope was significantly negatively correlated with
359 antecedent precipitation up to approximately 20 mm ($R^2 = 0.26$, $P = 0.0006$), beyond which
360 the slope relationship plateaued around 0 despite increasing antecedent precipitation. A
361 similar significant relationship was observed during the snow cover season ($R^2 = 0.57$, $P <$
362 0.004). However, a no significant relationship was observed during the snowmelt season (R^2
363 $= 0.00$, $P = 0.99$). Interestingly, the C-Q slope consistently exhibited higher values during the
364 snow cover season compared to the snow-free season.

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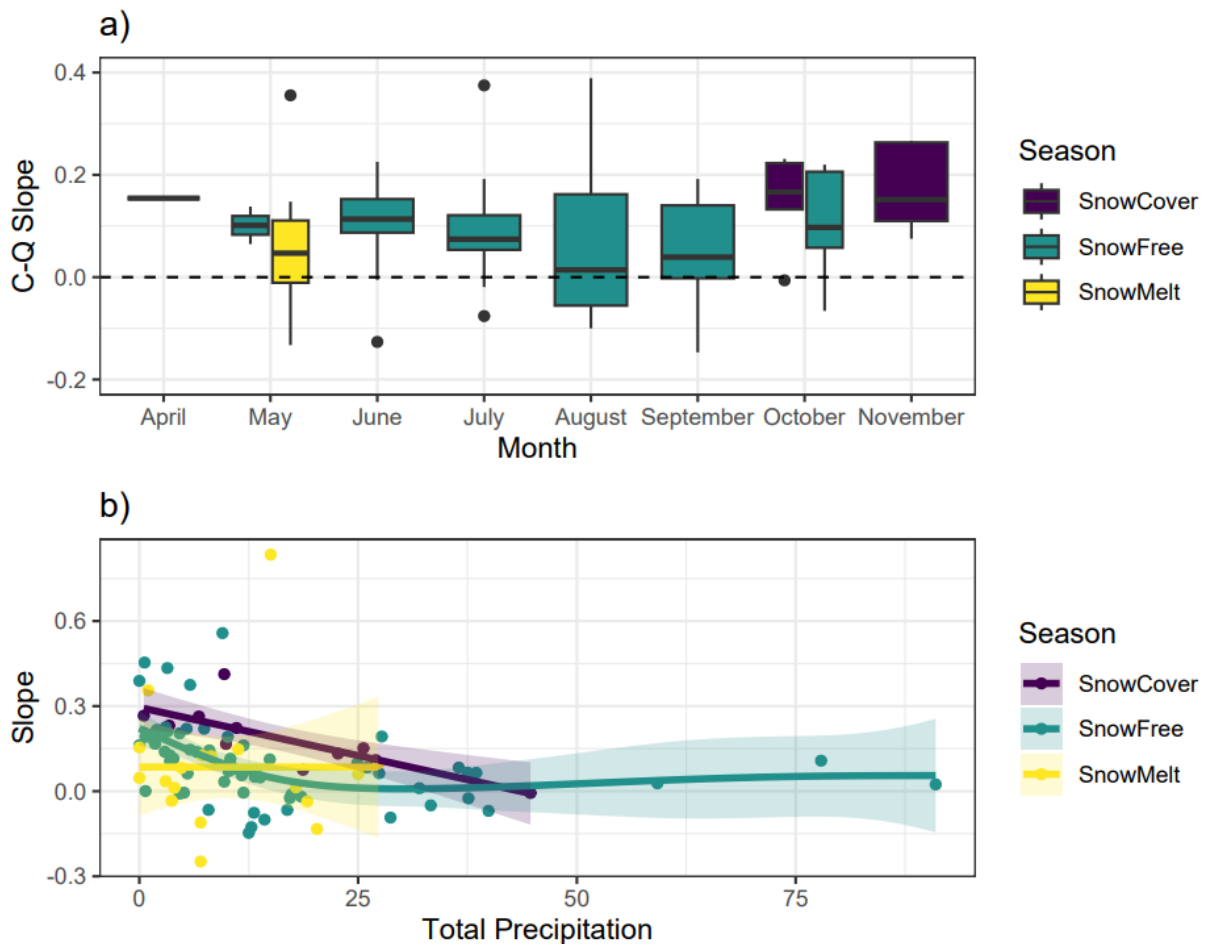
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368 **Figure 3 – a)** All flow C-Q Slope Analysis. Each individual dot represents the slope of the C-Q
 369 relationship for the given month. B) All Log DOC coefficient of variation. Each individual dot
 370 represents the coefficient of variation for Log DOC for the given month, thus showing the
 371 variation in DOC by month. The year of the sample is shown by the colour of the dot.

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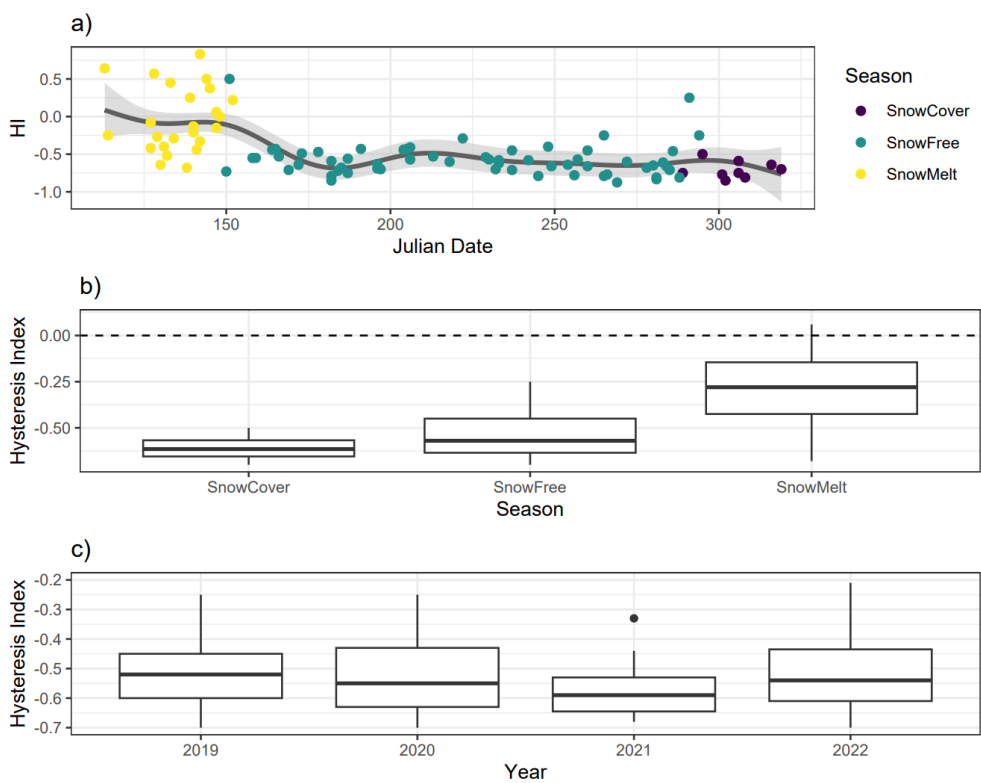
376 **Figure 4** – C-Q slope analysis for individual events. A) Boxplot of C-Q slope for events by
 377 month, b) Relationship of slope of C-Q relationship with 7-day antecedent precipitation.
 378 Shading shows the standard error. Dot colours show season of event, and the line shows the
 379 fitted General Additive Model.

380 **Hysteresis patterns**

381 In the Hysteresis analysis, the HI exhibited significant ($R^2 = 0.41$, $P < 0.0001$) and distinct
 382 seasonal patterns (Fig. 5a). During the snowmelt season, HI values were generally highest,
 383 ranging from positive to weakly negative. However, as the season progressed and
 384 transitioned into the snow-free season, HI values showed a rapid decline and remained
 385 relatively consistent around -0.5. Throughout the snow cover season, HI exhibited a
 386 relatively stable pattern. Notably, a single positive outlier with an HI value of 0.26 was
 387 observed during the snow-free season, which can be attributed to a rare event
 388 characterized by heavy early snowfall followed by subsequent rainfall.

389 Significant differences were found between the snowmelt season and snow free season ($t =$
 390 $7.75, P < 0.001$), and the snowmelt season and snow cover season ($t = 5.98, P < 0.0001$;
 391 Fig. 5b), indicating distinct hysteresis patterns during different periods. However, no
 392 significant difference was observed between the snow cover season and the snow-free
 393 season ($t = 1.31, P = 0.38$), suggesting similar hysteresis behaviour during these periods.
 394 Furthermore, there were no significant differences in HI between different years of the
 395 study ($df = 4, F = 0.87, P = 0.48$; Fig. 5c), indicating consistent hysteresis patterns across the
 396 study duration.

397
 398



399
 400 **Figure 5** – a) Time series of Hysteresis Index against Julian Date with the fitted general
 401 additive model. Dot colours show seasons. Shading shows the standard error of the
 402 predictions from the general additive model B) Boxplot showing Hysteresis Index variation
 403 by season. C) Boxplot showing Hysteresis Index variation by year.

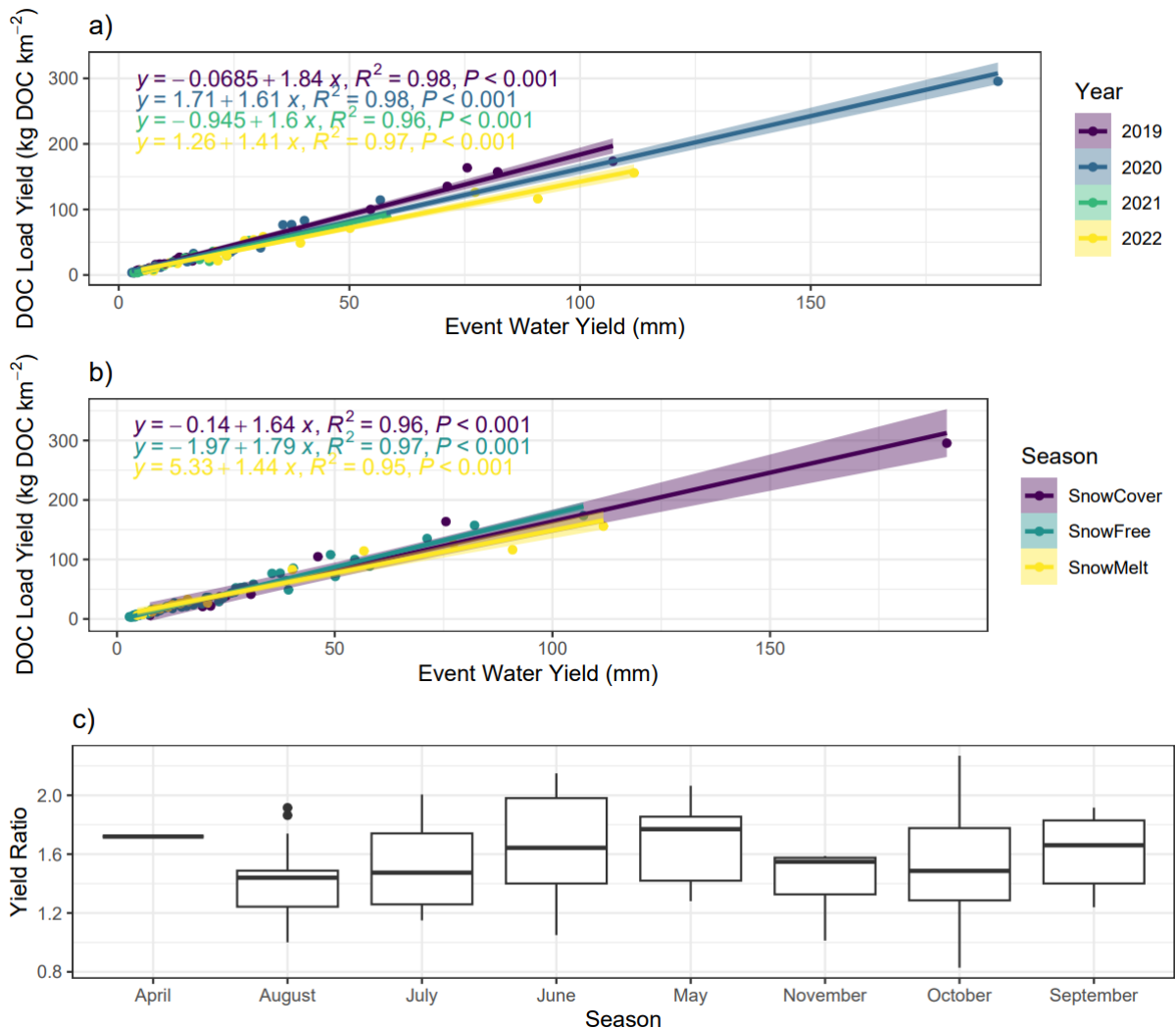
404 **3.3 DOC load and event water yields relationships**

405 The analysis of event yield revealed significant inter-annual variations in the relationship
 406 between DOC load yield and Event Water Yield (Fig. 6a; $df = 3, F = 9.70, P < 0.0001$).
 407 Specifically, the regression for 2019 was significantly steeper than 2020 ($t = 3.35, P = 0.007$)

408 and 2022 ($t = 5.38, P < 0.0001$), while 2020 was also significantly steeper than 2022 ($t =$
 409 $2.77, p = 0.035$), indicating differences in the transport and source dynamics between these
 410 years. Additionally, significant differences were observed between seasons ($df = 2, f = 7.13,$
 411 $P = 0.001$), where the snowfree season had a significantly higher regression than the
 412 snowmelt season ($t = 3.77, P = 0.0008$).

413 Across all years and seasons, the relationship between DOC load yield and Event Water Yield
 414 were strongly linear (all $P < 0.001; R^2 = 0.96 - 0.98$). This suggests a consistent and
 415 predictable relationship between the amount of DOC and event water yield. Furthermore,
 416 the analysis of the yield ratio across months showed no apparent seasonal trends (Fig. 6c),
 417 with no significant differences observed between months ($df = 7, F = 1.07; P = 0.38$).

418



419

420 **Figure 6** – Event yield analysis figures showing a) Linear regression of DOC load yield vs
 421 Event Water Yield separated by year, b) Linear regression of DOC load yield vs Event Water

422 Yield separated by season, c) Boxplot of yield ratio for different months in study.
 423 Additionally, DOC load yield vs event water yield separated by yield only featuring events
 424 with event water yield <50 mm (i.e. removing extreme events) is featured in Supplementary
 425 Figure 2.

426 **3.4 Predictors of Seasonal Variation**

427 During the snowmelt season (Table 2a), the hydrometeorological predictors did not account
 428 for a significant amount of variation. Maximum discharge emerged as the most important
 429 predictor for both the Maximum DOC and C-Q slope models, but the predictive value of
 430 these models was relatively low (19.81% and 10.52% of variance explained, respectively).

431 In contrast, during the snow-free season (Table 2b), the predictors explained a relatively
 432 high amount of variance (55.2%) in the Maximum DOC model, with maximum discharge
 433 identified as the most important predictor (node purity = 50.19). However, for the models of
 434 DOC percentage change and yield ratio, 7-day antecedent precipitation was found to be the
 435 most important predictor, although the predictive value of these models was weak (17.68%
 436 and 11.67% of variance explained, respectively).

437 For the snow cover season (Table 2c), maximum discharge remained an important predictor
 438 for the Maximum DOC model. However, for the C-Q slope model, average water
 439 temperature and event rainfall emerged as the strongest predictors. Both the Maximum
 440 DOC and C-Q slope models showed moderate explanatory capability during the snow cover
 441 season, explaining 34.82% and 32.65% of the variance, respectively.

442 **Table 2** – Random Forest regression prediction results for target variables for a) Snow Melt
 443 Events, b) Snow Free Events, and c) Snow Cover Events. The predictor abbreviations are as
 444 follows: MaxDis = Maximum Discharge, AvgWTemp = Average Water Temperature,
 445 AvgATemp = Average Air Temperature, AntPre = 7-day antecedent precipitation, and
 446 EventPre = Total Event Precipitation. The target variables were Maximum DOC value in
 447 events (MaxDOC), the percentage DOC changed from its starting value (DOC Change), the C-
 448 Q slope of events (Slope), the Hysteresis Index (HI), and the Yield Ratio (Yield Ratio). The
 449 value in the predictors column represents the node purity. Additionally, the table presents
 450 the variance explained (%var) and the mean of squared residuals for each model (Res
 451 Mean). NS = Not significant.

a) Snow Melt							
	Predictors					Model	
Target	MaxDis	AvgW Temp	AvgA Temp	AntPre	EventPre	%Var	Res Mean
MaxDOC	3.18	2.80	2.70	2.15	1.06	19.81	0.61

DOC Change						NS	
Slope	0.227	0.14	0.15	0.07	0.04	10.52	0.04
Yield Ratio						NS	
b) Snow Free							
	Predictors					Model	
Target	MaxDis	AvgW Temp	AvgA Temp	AntPre	EventPre	%Var	Res Mean
MaxDOC	50.19	17.45	15.12	21.51	30.21	55.2	1.04
DOC Change	6712.51	5572.31	5767.61	9270.8	6113.33	17.68	523.9
Slope						NS	
Yield Ratio	1.06	0.95	0.92	1.17	0.96	11.67	0.08
c) Snow Cover							
	Predictors					Model	
Target	MaxDis	AvgW Temp	AvgA Temp	AntPre	EventPre	%Var	Res Mean
MaxDOC	1069.83	1035.79	885.8	585.89	531.53	34.82	285.6
DOC Change						NS	
Slope	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.02	32.55	0.01
Yield Ratio						NS	

452

453 **4.0 Discussion**

454 **4.1 Seasonal Variation in DOC Transport Processes**

455 Distinct seasonal variations were evident in the DOC transport processes, shedding light on
456 their changing characteristics during different periods. Notably, the snowmelt season
457 exhibited the lowest C-Q slope (Fig. 3a), albeit still positive, indicating a relatively lower
458 degree of transport limitation compared to other seasons (Gómez-Gener et al., 2021). This
459 can be attributed to the limited availability of sources during the snowmelt season
460 (Ruckhaus et al., 2023; Shogren et al., 2021). The theory of less source availability during
461 snowmelt is further supported by fact that the regression between snowmelt DOC load yield
462 and event water yield (Fig. 6b) was significantly lower compared to the snow free period.
463 This suggests during snow melt there is less DOC transported per unit of water, possibly
464 reflecting the reduced amount of DOC sources in the snowmelt season compared to the
465 snow free period (Shatilla et al., 2023; Vaughan et al., 2017). During the snowmelt, isotope

466 separation indicated approximately 60% of the stream water is comprised of event water,
467 i.e., the melting snowpack (Noor et al., 2023). The onset of snowmelt is characterized by
468 more rapid melting in the peatland compared to the hillslopes, while surface pathways
469 dominate and facilitate rapid DOC transport compared to later in the year (Laudon et al.,
470 2004). This observation is further supported by the high (positive) HI values during the
471 snowmelt season, indicating the connectivity of new near-stream sources and the rapid
472 flushing of DOC from the catchment during this period (Croghan et al., 2023; Shatilla et al.,
473 2023). However, when exclusively examining event flows rather than encompassing all flow
474 conditions (Fig. 4a), no significant disparity was observed between snowmelt conditions and
475 other months. In contrast, C-Q slope values exhibited a general reduction across all months,
476 when compared to slope values for all flow conditions. This reduction may suggest that
477 transport limitation reduces, and increased source depletion occurs relatively quickly after
478 flow increases beyond baseflow conditions across all seasons.

479

480 During the snow-free season, the C-Q slopes became consistently more transport-limited as
481 the season progressed (Fig. 3a), likely due to increased source availability as the catchment
482 gradually wetted up, activating pathways and connectivity (Birkel et al., 2017; Gómez-Gener
483 et al., 2021). Additionally, enhanced microbial activity and increased vegetation breakdown
484 throughout the growing season could provide more abundant sources of DOC (Campbell et
485 al., 2022), and may also be an explanatory factor in the higher DOC yield during snow free
486 events compared to the snowmelt period. This interpretation is partially supported by the
487 HI, which consistently revealed strong anti-clockwise hysteresis, indicative of likely distal
488 sources and slow DOC transport (Ducharme et al., 2021). However, the HI did not show
489 significant seasonal variation across the snow-free season. Furthermore, while maximum
490 discharge consistently influenced DOC dynamics in all seasons, antecedent precipitation
491 emerged as an important predictor during the snowmelt season, highlighting the role of
492 prior rainfall in supporting transport dynamics (Blaen et al., 2017; Tiefenbacher et al., 2021).
493 For the C-Q slope (Fig. 3c), higher antecedent rainfall led to reduced transport limitation,
494 suggesting the exhaustion of certain sources to some extent. Interestingly, the relationship
495 was non-linear, and with high antecedent rainfall, no further change in the relationship was
496 observed, possibly indicating that high antecedent rainfall enables the transport of new

497 sources of DOC, preventing the system from becoming source limited, even under
498 extremely high antecedent precipitation or large events.

499 Surprisingly, the snow cover season (late October, November) exhibited the highest values
500 for the C-Q slope, indicating that increasing source limitation did not occur despite the
501 presence of snow cover (Fig. 3A), possibly due to the decay of organic matter providing a
502 large source of DOC after the end of the growing season. Interestingly, the C-Q slope was
503 also consistently higher with antecedent rainfall during the snow cover season, compared to
504 the snow free season. This suggests that antecedent rainfall had a lesser impact on reducing
505 source supply during this period. The antecedent rainfall may also come as snow, and the
506 snowmelt vs rainfall contribution to discharge in the early snow season are difficult to
507 identify. One possible explanation is that the snow cover season begins in the hills and
508 forests, where the snow depth is recorded (Kenttäröva station Fig. 1), while the snow cover
509 on the peatland occurs later (Croghan et al., 2023; Marttila et al., 2021). Consequently,
510 during the snow cover season, the hillslopes, which likely contribute less carbon per unit of
511 water, are cut off, while the carbon-enriched peatlands make an increased contribution to
512 streamflow during events compared to other seasons (Gómez-Gener et al., 2021; Rosset et
513 al., 2019). However, neither the HI nor yield analysis showed significant variation during the
514 snow cover season. The use of spatially distributed hydrological models in future studies
515 would be valuable in identifying source contributors and further investigating if the
516 differences in source contributions during the snow cover season drive the observed
517 variations in C-Q relationships (Ala-aho et al., 2018; Birkel et al., 2017).

518 **4.2 Inter-Annual Variation in Transport Processes**

519 Despite significant year-to-year variations in hydrometeorological conditions, including
520 snow cover onset and snowmelt conditions, we found limited inter-annual variation in the
521 C-Q slope and HI (Fig. 3-5), However, exceptions were noted in the shoulder months of April
522 and November, where variations in inter-annual transport metric values stemmed from the
523 fact that, in certain years, minimal flow variation occurred due to the catchment remaining
524 in frozen conditions, whereas in other years, large events occurred during these months.
525 While there were some differences in C-Q slopes between years, the month-to-month
526 variation generally outweighed the year-to-year, suggesting a remarkable consistency in the
527 degree of seasonality in transport limitation throughout the study. This consistency implies

528 activation of consistent sources and flow pathways from year to year (Vaughan et al., 2017;
529 Zarnetske et al., 2018; Shatilla et al., 2023). Similarly, the HI values showed no discernible
530 differences on an annual basis, indicating flow path stability in this system (Lloyd et al.,
531 2016b). Source activation and transport processes have a strong seasonal pattern; however,
532 the differences between years may not have been pronounced enough to drive substantial
533 changes, underscoring the need for longer-term data series for a comprehensive
534 understanding.

535 In contrast, the yield analysis revealed variations between years. Specifically, we observed
536 steeper regressions for 2019 compared to 2020 and 2022, and for 2020 relative to 2022,
537 indicating a higher transport of DOC per unit of water during these years, however when
538 extreme events were removed from the analysis (Supplementary Figure 2), differences
539 between the years disappeared. Thus, the relationship between DOC yield and event water
540 yield appears to be consistent between years, with differences between years driven by
541 differences in the extent of annual extreme events. While previous long-term studies have
542 suggested that warmer years lead to increased mobilization of DOC, possibly due to reduced
543 snowpack duration which creates more potential for soil C to be mobilised and a greater
544 potential breakdown of the humic layer (Bowering et al., 2023, 2020), we did not find
545 notable differences between years for the amount of mobilization of DOC per unit of water,
546 suggesting a strong consistency between the amount of DOC produced year on year, despite
547 differing climatic conditions. Possibly this is because although there were climatic
548 differences between years, they were not strong enough to drive differences in DOC
549 production. Differences were instead driven by the extent of extreme events, thus the
550 expected increase in occurrence and magnitude of extreme rainfall events in the Arctic is
551 likely to be a substantial driver of differences in DOC mobilization in the future (Beel et al.,
552 2021; McCrystall et al., 2021) In the longer term, differences in annual trends may be more
553 apparent as the warming climate will also impact vegetation and peatland formation
554 patterns (Sallinen et al., 2023), which eventually impact also flow paths, connectivity and
555 DOC transport. Thus, highlighting the need to maintain critical environmental monitoring
556 infrastructure in high latitudes.

557 **5.0 Conclusions**

558 Our study provides valuable insights into the seasonal and inter-annual variations in DOC
559 transport processes in the Arctic, stressing the need for comprehensive monitoring across
560 all seasons. By examining various transport metrics, we observed distinct patterns that
561 enhance our understanding of carbon dynamics in Arctic ecosystems. The observed seasonal
562 variations in C-Q slopes indicate a progressive increase in transport limitation as the year
563 progresses from snowmelt to snow-free season to snow-covered season due to increased
564 source supply. The decline in hysteresis index after the snowmelt season highlights the rapid
565 flushing of DOC from the catchment during this period. However, high-resolution DOC
566 monitoring is needed to unravel seasonal variability in DOC storage and transport process
567 and responses to extreme events. Interestingly, despite significant year-to-year variations in
568 hydrometeorological conditions, the intra-annual variation in transport processes was
569 relatively low. This suggests a remarkable consistency in the activation and deactivation of
570 sources and flow pathways over the study period. However, longer-term records are
571 necessary to fully comprehend the impacts of climate change on DOC transport processes as
572 headwater are anticipated to warm and experienced greater and more regular extreme
573 events, which will cause shifts in water sources and paths.

574 Our findings emphasize the sensitivity of DOC transport processes to changing snow and
575 snowmelt seasonality in response to climate change. Our study highlights the importance of
576 long-term monitoring to assess the long-term impacts on DOC transport. To further enhance
577 our understanding, future research should focus on better understanding how DOM
578 compositional changes impact DOC fate in headwater catchments, and establishing causal
579 relationships between transport metrics, in-stream processing and empirical indicators of
580 sources and transport pathways. A promising avenue for further research involves
581 integrating high-resolution stable water isotope monitoring and spatially distributed
582 hydrological modelling with *in-situ* DOC monitoring of quantity and quality (e.g. combined
583 fluorescence and absorbance measurements). This work contributes to advancing our
584 knowledge of DOC transport processes in Arctic ecosystems, providing valuable information
585 for informed decision-making and effective management of these fragile environments in
586 the face of climate change.

587 **Data Availability**

588 Data supporting this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

589 **Author Contribution**

590 Conceptualization: DC, HM, PAA, KK, DMH. Formal Analysis: DC, Funding Acquisition: HM,
591 JW, BK, Investigation: DC, Resources: HM, BK, JW, JV, Visualization: DC, Writing – original
592 draft preparation: DC, Writing – review & editing: DC, PAA, JW, KRM, KK, DMH, JV, BK, HM.

593 **Competing Interests**

594 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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601

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