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[noraceh@ceh.ac.uk](mailto:noraceh@ceh.ac.uk)

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Corresponding Author: Mr Mike Anthony Peacock, MSc

Corresponding Author's Institution: Bangor University

First Author: Mike Peacock, BSc, MSc

Order of Authors: Mike Peacock, BSc, MSc; Annette Burden; Mark Cooper; Christian Dunn; Chris D Evans; Nathalie Fenner; Chris Freeman; Rachel Gough; David Hughes; Steve Hughes; Tim Jones; Inma Lebron; Mike West; Piotr Zieliński

1            **Quantifying Dissolved Organic Carbon Concentrations in Upland**  
2            **Catchments Using Phenolic Proxy Measurements**

3    Mike Peacock<sup>a\*</sup>, [bspa32@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:bspa32@bangor.ac.uk)

4    Annette Burden<sup>b</sup>, [anrd@ceh.ac.uk](mailto:anrd@ceh.ac.uk)

5    Mark Cooper<sup>ab</sup>, [markcooper84@gmail.com](mailto:markcooper84@gmail.com)

6    Christian Dunn<sup>a</sup>, [c.dunn@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:c.dunn@bangor.ac.uk)

7    Chris D. Evans<sup>b</sup>, [cev@ceh.ac.uk](mailto:cev@ceh.ac.uk)

8    Nathalie Fenner<sup>a</sup>, [n.fenner@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:n.fenner@bangor.ac.uk)

9    Chris Freeman<sup>a</sup>, [c.freeman@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:c.freeman@bangor.ac.uk)

10   Rachel Gough<sup>a</sup>, [chpc16@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:chpc16@bangor.ac.uk)

11   David Hughes<sup>a</sup>, [bspa02@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:bspa02@bangor.ac.uk)

12   Steve Hughes<sup>b</sup>, [shug@ceh.ac.uk](mailto:shug@ceh.ac.uk)

13   Tim Jones<sup>a</sup>, [t.jones@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:t.jones@bangor.ac.uk)

14   Inma Lebron<sup>b</sup>, [inmbin@ceh.ac.uk](mailto:inmbin@ceh.ac.uk)

15   Mike West<sup>a</sup>, [bspa1e@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:bspa1e@bangor.ac.uk)

16   Piotr Zieliński<sup>ac</sup>, [p.zielinski@uwb.edu.pl](mailto:p.zielinski@uwb.edu.pl)

17   <sup>a</sup>Wolfson Carbon Capture Laboratory, School of Biological Sciences, Bangor University,  
18   Deiniol Road, LL57 2UW, United Kingdom.

19   <sup>b</sup>Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Environment Centre Wales, Deiniol Road, Bangor,  
20   LL57 2UW, United Kingdom.

21   <sup>c</sup>Institute of Biology, University of Białystok, Świerkowa 20 B, 15-950 Białystok, Poland.

22   \* corresponding author. [bspa32@bangor.ac.uk](mailto:bspa32@bangor.ac.uk), 44 01248 383090

23

## 24 **Abstract**

25 Concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in soil and stream waters in upland  
26 catchments are widely monitored, in part due to the potential of DOC to form harmful by-  
27 products when chlorinated during treatment of water for public supply. DOC can be  
28 measured directly, though this is expensive and time-consuming. Light absorbance in the  
29 UV-vis spectrum is often used as a surrogate measurement from which a colour-carbon  
30 relationship between absorbance and DOC can be derived, but this relationship can be  
31 confounded by numerous variables. Through the analysis of data from eight sites in England  
32 and Wales we investigate the possibility of using the concentration of phenolic compounds in  
33 water samples as a proxy for DOC concentration. A general model using data from all the  
34 sites allowed DOC to be calculated from phenolics at an accuracy of 81-86%. A detailed  
35 analysis at one site revealed that a site-specific calibration was more accurate than the general  
36 model, and that this compared favourably with a colour-carbon calibration. We therefore  
37 recommend this method for use where estimates of DOC concentration are needed, but where  
38 time and money are limiting factors, or as an additional method to calculate DOC alongside  
39 colour-carbon calibrations. Tests demonstrated only small amounts of phenolic degradation  
40 over time; a loss of 0.92 mg L<sup>-1</sup> after 8 months in storage, and so this method can be used on  
41 older samples with limited loss of accuracy.

42 | Keywords: Dissolved organic carbon, phenolics, absorbance, peatland, water colour,  
43

## 44 **1. Introduction**

45 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) is a fluvial export from organic rich soils. Its  
46 concentration is affected by various factors, such as soil carbon pool, peat cover (Aitkenhead  
47 *et al.*, 1999), hydrology (Dawson *et al.*, 2004), and vegetation (Palmer *et al.*, 2001), as well  
48 as autochthonous production (Hope *et al.*, 1994). DOC concentrations have been increasing

49 in waters draining upland catchments in the UK (Freeman *et al.*, 2001a), with similar trends  
50 being observed in waters in North America (Stoddard *et al.*, 2003) and Scandinavia  
51 (Skjelkvåle *et al.*, 2005). One hypothesis is that these increases are driven by a recovery  
52 from atmospheric deposition (Monteith *et al.*, 2007, Ekström *et al.*, 2011, Evans *et al.*, 2012)  
53 although experimental studies also demonstrate that DOC loss can be strongly affected by  
54 climate (e.g. Fenner & Freeman, 2011), and other factors such as hydrology, land  
55 management, and atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration (Clark *et al.*, 2010). Rising  
56 DOC concentrations have implications for human health, as harmful by-products can be  
57 formed when DOC is chlorinated during water treatment (Chow *et al.*, 2003). Additionally,  
58 high levels of DOC result in increased water treatment costs due to the use of a higher  
59 coagulant dose, increased filter backwashing, and the production of larger amounts of sludge  
60 (McDonald *et al.*, 1991). DOC cycling is also of interest to those studying carbon budgets,  
61 and significantly affects aquatic ecosystem functioning via its influence on light penetration,  
62 mobility and form of toxic substances, and the supply of energy and nutrients.

63         DOC is typically measured by high temperature combustion using infra-red detection  
64 either as ‘non-purgeable’ organic carbon (i.e. that part of the total dissolved carbon that is not  
65 removed following acidification of the sample and sparging with oxygen gas), or by  
66 calculating and then subtracting inorganic carbon from total carbon. These methods are  
67 expensive and time-consuming, and require access to specialist analytical equipment. A  
68 second method is to use absorbance at certain wavelengths in the ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis)  
69 range as a proxy for DOC. Wavelengths used include 254 nm (e.g. Edzwald, 1985), 330 nm  
70 (e.g. Moore, 1987), 360 nm (e.g. Collier, 1987) and 400 nm (e.g. Gibson *et al.*, 2009).  
71 Routinely, a calibration curve is established between the chosen wavelength and a limited  
72 series of DOC measurements, so that further DOC concentrations can be calculated from the  
73 calibration. Wallage and Holden (2010) demonstrate that caution must be used when using

74 absorbance as a proxy for DOC, as relationships between DOC and absorbance change over  
75 time, with depth, and with management practices. Tipping *et al.* (2009) created a DOC  
76 model for non-polluted waters, using absorption at 254 nm and 340 nm, but Grayson &  
77 Holden (2012) argued that wavelengths under 300 nm are unsuitable as DOC proxies, as they  
78 display rapid fluctuations in absorbance and a lack of differentiation between wavelengths.  
79 However, wavelengths in the 400 nm region can sometimes be unsuitable as iron can  
80 interfere with absorbance readings (Kritzberg & Ekström, 2012) Other colorimetric methods  
81 exist to measure DOC, whereby the chemically-induced colour change of a sample is  
82 measured with a spectrophotometer, such as that proposed by Bartlett & Ross (1988).  
83 Finally, fluorescence spectroscopy can be used as a method to characterise DOC, but not to  
84 measure total DOC. This approach is valuable due to its high specificity and sensitivity  
85 (Chen *et al.*, 2003). An alternative method, rather than UV-vis, may therefore prove useful as  
86 a surrogate DOC measure.

87         One feature of waters draining from wetlands, including peatlands, is the presence of  
88 recalcitrant phenolics (Wetzel, 1992), which are secondary plant metabolites (Hättenschwiler  
89 & Vitousek, 2000). Their concentrations vary seasonally (Kaiser *et al.*, 2001) and are  
90 controlled by plant characteristics (Wetzel, 1992), and physical and chemical factors such as  
91 photodegradation (Faust & Holgne, 1987). They accumulate due to a lack of oxygen in  
92 waterlogged soils, which limits the activity of the extracellular enzyme phenol oxidase  
93 (Freeman *et al.*, 2004). Phenolics are part of the coloured component of DOC (Toberman *et*  
94 *al.*, 2008). They are aromatic, but DOC also includes aliphatic compounds (Leenheer &  
95 Croué, 2003). Relationships between DOC and phenolics have been noted previously (Kang  
96 *et al.*, 2002, Hagedorn & Machwitz, 2007). The aim of this analysis is therefore to determine  
97 if an empirical relationship exists between the concentrations of DOC and phenolic-OH  
98 (hydroxyl group) in upland waters, and under what conditions such a relationship might exist:

99 whether it is the same for different sites, soils and samples types, and how stable it is in the  
100 long term. Based on the results of this analysis, the potential for using phenolics as a  
101 surrogate measure for DOC is critically evaluated.

102

## 103 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 104 *2.1. Study Sites*

105 A total of 2020 water samples were taken from eight sites in northern Wales and northern  
106 England, UK, summarised in table 1. At Ffynnon Eidda 192 samples were from ditch water  
107 and 132 samples were from pore water. The Migneint site was split into three sub-sites: pore  
108 waters from two different soil types (blanket peats and peaty podzols) and soil leachate  
109 samples. The Peaknaze site was split into two sub-sites (again with pore water samples from  
110 blanket peat and peaty podzols). For each peat and podzol sub-site approximately 600 data  
111 points were available, but random selections of 300 were taken so as not to bias the model  
112 towards these sites. Other samples were taken from either standing water bodies or pore  
113 water (using piezometers or Rhizon samplers at 10 cm depth), or were generated from soil  
114 samples (from 10 cm or 30 cm depth) in the laboratory (leachate). At all sites, sampling was  
115 repeated at fixed locations on a number of occasions.

116 Table 1. Location of field sites (ordered by sample type), including soil type, sample type, and the time period  
117 over which sampling took place. For pore waters, P indicates a piezometer sampler, and R indicates a Rhizon  
118 sampler. The fen mesocosms consisted of rafts of vegetation floating in individual pools.

119

### 120 *2.2 Phenolics Assay*

121 Samples were filtered through Whatman 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  cellulose nitrate filters, and phenolic  
122 concentrations were determined using a method adapted from Box (1983). 0.25 ml of sample

123 was added to a clear microplate well. 12.5  $\mu\text{l}$  of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent was added (using a  
124 pipette calibrated to 1.98% accuracy with a covariance of imprecision of 0.57%), followed by  
125 37.5  $\mu\text{l}$  of  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  (200  $\text{g L}^{-1}$ ). After 1.5 hours the absorbance was measured at 750nm on a  
126 BMG Fluostar Galaxy or Molecular Devices M2e Spectramax plate-reader. Phenolic  
127 concentrations were then derived from the preparation of a standard curve using laboratory-  
128 prepared standards of known concentration (0, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ). Additional  
129 standards (0.2, 0.5, 0.75, 1.5  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) were used for the analysis of samples from Llyn  
130 Cwellyn, Llyn Conwy and Llyn Teyrn as phenolic concentrations from these sites were  
131 frequently found to be  $< 1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ . Box (1983) cited a limit of detection of 6  $\mu\text{g phenol L}^{-1}$   
132 and a standard deviation of 4.1% at 1  $\text{mg phenol L}^{-1}$  for this assay, although more recently the  
133 limit of detection has been cited as 25  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (Thoss *et al.*, 2002).

### 134 2.3 DOC Analysis

135 All samples were filtered through Whatman 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  cellulose nitrate filters and analysed  
136 using an Analytical Sciences Thermalox Total Carbon analyser. Samples were acidified (pH  
137  $< 3$ ) and sparged with oxygen to remove any inorganic carbon, and DOC concentrations  
138 calculated using a seven point calibration curve (plus a quality control sample), with  
139 additional standards to check for drift, and several samples (1-3 per run) duplicated to check  
140 for reproducibility. Each individual sample was injected 5 times, and the result accepted if  
141 the coefficient of variation of the five injections was less than 3%.

142 Plynlimon samples were analysed differently. They were diluted with sulphuric acid  
143 and purged with oxygen (to remove inorganic carbon), after which a digestion reagent  
144 (consisting of 0.044 M  $\text{K}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ , 0.089 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) was added. Following exposure  
145 to a UV source, radicals react with the organic material in the sample, which is converted into  
146  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . By gas dialysis the  $\text{CO}_2$  is lead into a colour reagent. Colour intensity



147 (measured at 550 nm) then decreases proportionally to the change in pH caused by the CO<sub>2</sub>,  
148 and this decrease is in relation to the DOC.

149

#### 150 *2.4 UV-vis analysis*

151 UV-vis analysis was conducted on 192 samples from the Ffynnon Eidda site using a  
152 Molecular Devices M2e Spectramax plate-reader. Light absorbance at the 254 nm and 400  
153 nm wavelengths was measured.

154

#### 155 *2.5 Statistics*

156 Phenolic and DOC values were paired together in order to examine any relationship between  
157 them, and statistical analysis carried out using SPSS v16.0.1 (IBM Corporation, [http://www-  
158 01.ibm.com/software/analytics/spss/products/statistics/](http://www-01.ibm.com/software/analytics/spss/products/statistics/)). Different sites and samples were  
159 compared using t-tests and ANOVAs or, where data were not normally distributed (identified  
160 by Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test), Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis tests, with Bonferroni-  
161 adjusted p values. The Bonferroni correction is a method to control the familywise error rate,  
162 but does increase the probability of missing real differences in the data.

### 163 **3. Results**

#### 164 *3.1 General model*

165 The linear regression gave the fit shown in Figure 1.

166

167 **Figure 1. Observed relationship between phenolic concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) and DOC concentrations (mg  
168 L<sup>-1</sup>) for all 2020 water samples.  $r^2 = 0.84$ , residual variance = 72.051,  $p < 0.001$ .**

169

170 This linear regression allowed DOC concentrations to be calculated directly from phenolic  
171 concentrations, according to the formula:

172 
$$\text{DOC} = (5.68 \times \text{Phenolics}) + 1.99 \quad (1)$$

173 where DOC is calculated in  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ , and Phenolics is the measured phenolic concentration,  
174 also in  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ . Standard errors of the model parameters are respectively  $(5.68) \pm 0.06$  and  
175  $(1.99) \pm 0.32$ . Confidence intervals at 95% were 2.24 (lower) and 2.33 (upper).

176 This general model was then tested using phenolic and DOC data from other sites in  
177 north Wales (figure 2). These were stream samples from the Nant y Brwyn (an upland  
178 stream in a peat catchment, 410 m ASL), leachate samples from Alwen Reservoir (an upland  
179 forested peat catchment, 390 m ASL), and pore water samples from Llyn Serw (an upland  
180 peat catchment, 460 m ASL). Fits were generally good ( $R^2 \geq 0.75$ ) although the model  
181 tended to overestimate DOC concentrations at the Nant y Brwyn and underestimate them at  
182 Llyn Reservoir and Llyn Serw. The model calculated DOC to a mean accuracy of 86%  
183 (modelled values were on average  $1.69 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  different to measured, standard error  $0.32 \text{ mg}$   
184  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) at the Nant y Brwyn, 81% (mean difference of  $2.21 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  $\text{SE} = 0.36 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) at Alwen  
185 Reservoir, and 86% (mean difference of  $7.65 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ,  $\text{SE} = 0.94 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) at Llyn Serw.

186

187 **Figure 2. Regression between measured DOC and modelled DOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) in Nant y Brwyn stream water,**  
188  **$n=24$ ,  $r^2=0.90$  (A), Alwen Reservoir leachate samples,  $n=25$ ,  $r^2=0.88$  (B), and Llyn Serw pore water**  
189 **samples,  $n=44$ ,  $r^2=0.75$  (C).  $p<0.001$  for each relationship. Dashed line shows 1:1 relationship.**

190

191 Despite the strength of the model, there was variation in the relationship between  
192 DOC and phenolics at the different sites. Figure 3 shows the median ratio of phenolic to  
193 DOC concentrations at each site, which ranged from 0.14 : 1 to 0.27 : 1. Differences in the  
194 ratios were tested using the Kruskal Wallis test, followed by Mann-Whitney tests with  
195 Bonferroni corrections to control the probability of false positive results. A total of 26 tests  
196 were performed (table 2). The highest mean phenolic:DOC was found at Llyn Teyrn but  
197 there is no significant difference when compared to the other two lakes Llyn Cwellyn and

198 Llyn Conwy. The lowest mean phenolic:DOC was in the Peaknaze podzol and the fen  
199 mesocosms. It can be noted that spatial proximity of sampling sites is sometimes, but not  
200 always, associated with a similar response between DOC and phenolics. For instance, the  
201 peat and podzol sub-sites at Peaknaze are approximately 200 m apart and have no significant  
202 difference in their ratios. However, the Migneint peat and podzol pore water sample sites  
203 which are 500 m apart do show a significant difference.

204 **Figure 3. Median phenolic concentrations ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) per  $1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  DOC concentrations for each site used in**  
205 **the model.**

206

207 Table 2. Results of Mann Whitney tests to compare for site differences in the median ratio of phenolics to DOC.  
208 Asterisks indicate a significant difference at a Bonferroni corrected p value  $<0.05$ . NS indicates no significant  
209 difference. A blank space shows where no comparison was carried out. It is unfeasible to run all possible  
210 pairwise comparisons as the Bonferroni correction would then produce a critical value of significance that is too  
211 restrictive. Sites along the top are abbreviated, but are in the same order as those down the side.

212

213 A further investigation of different samples types is useful. For instance, there is no  
214 significant difference between the two podzol soils at Peaknaze and the Migneint. Figure 4  
215 displays this amalgamated podzol data against its peat equivalent. The mean ratio of  
216 phenolics to DOC is significantly different between the two soil types:  $0.15 : 1$  in the podzol,  
217 and  $0.18 : 1$  in the peat. Additionally, the concentrations of DOC and phenolics cover a  
218 larger range and increase to higher values in the peat soil. Phenolic concentrations had a  
219 range of  $21.05 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  with a maximum of  $21.53 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in the two peat soils, compared with  
220 a range of  $15.83 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and maximum of  $16.27 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in the podzols. There is also a  
221 difference between surface water and pore water when all sites are considered (figure 5). The  
222 mean proportion of phenolics to DOC is  $0.20 : 1$  in pore water compared to  $0.17 : 1$  in surface  
223 water. The three lakes all possessed a high proportion of phenolics but their relatively small

224 sample sizes compared to other surface waters reduced their influence on the mean.  
225 Concentrations of phenolics and DOC ranged more in the pore water and reached higher  
226 levels. Maximum pore water phenolic concentration was 21.53 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, whilst the highest  
227 surface water value was 12.71 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

228

229 **Figure 4. Regression between phenolic and DOC concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) for the Migneint and Peaknaze**  
230 **podzol (white circles) and peat (black circles) sites.  $n=600$  for each soil type. Podzol  $r^2=0.71$ . Peat  $r^2=0.79$ .**  
231 **For both soils  $p<0.001$ .**

232

233 **Figure 5. Regression between phenolic and DOC concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) for surface waters (from**  
234 **Ffynnon Eidda, Llyn Cwellyn, Llyn Conwy, Llyn Teyrn, and fen mesocosms –  $n=608$ ) and pore waters**  
235 **(from Migneint peat, Migneint podzol, Peaknaze peat, Peaknaze podzol, and Plynlimon –  $n=767$ ). Surface**  
236 **waters  $r^2=0.88$ . Pore waters  $r^2=0.84$ . For both samples types  $p<0.001$ .**

237

238 As phenolic concentrations are affected by factors such as vegetation growth,  
239 microbial processes and phenol oxidase activity (Freeman *et al.*, 2001b), their concentrations  
240 vary seasonally. Figure 6 details these variations for a time period of just over four years.  
241 Although not always consistent, there are occasions when all four sites respond similarly; this  
242 is perhaps most pronounced in March 2011 when all sites show a large spike, with a lesser  
243 peak following in July/August 2011. There are also occasions where just two sites respond  
244 simultaneously, such as peaks for both Migneint sites during October 2009. There is  
245 extensive interannual variation, however, with peaks and troughs in the relationship occurring  
246 at different times during different years.

247

248 **Figure 6. Changes in the mean proportion of phenolics to DOC for four sites from September 2007 to**  
249 **January 2012, with an approximate monthly sampling frequency. Sites are: Migneint peat – solid line,**

250 **Migneint podzol – dotted line, Peaknaze peat – dashed line, Peaknaze podzol – dotted/dashed line. For**  
251 **each site and each date the mean is generated from  $n=12$ .**

252

### 253 *3.2 Site-specific model and comparison with UV-vis method*

254 Results indicate: 1) that the general model calculated DOC to a mean accuracy of 81-  
255 86%; 2) that there was considerable difference between sites and soils in the mean ratio of  
256 phenolics to DOC. Therefore we investigated the possibility of using phenolic measurements  
257 as a proxy for DOC on a specific site basis, with the hope of improving the accuracy and  
258 giving more appropriate modelled DOC values. To investigate this a random selection of 100  
259 paired phenolic and DOC measurements were selected from surface water samples from the  
260 Ffynnon Eidda site, and a regression fitted to give the site-specific equation ( $r^2=0.87$ ,  
261  $p<0.001$ ) :

$$262 \text{ DOC} = (5.83 \times \text{Phenolics}) - 0.59 \quad (2)$$

263 where DOC and phenolics are calculated in  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ . Equation 2 was then applied to the  
264 remaining 92 surface water phenolic measurements from Ffynnon Eidda to calculate DOC, as  
265 was equation 1. Equation 1 (the model using data from all sites) calculated DOC to a mean  
266 accuracy of 83.67% (standard error = 1.96%) whilst equation 2 (site-specific model) gave a  
267 mean accuracy of 86.54% (SE = 1.57%). A paired t-test (after the data was normalised by  
268 subtracting each value from 100% followed by square root transformation) showed this  
269 difference to be significant ( $p<0.05$ ).

270 We also compared a site-specific phenolics model against a colour-carbon model: that  
271 is, a regression of DOC concentration against light absorbance at a certain wavelength. For  
272 this, 192 data points from the Ffynnon Eidda surface water dataset were used, and phenolic  
273 concentrations compared against absorbance at 254 nm and 400 nm (figure 7). Absorbance

274 at 254 nm gave the best fit, closely followed by phenolic concentration, whilst absorbance at  
275 400 nm gave the weakest fit.

276

277 **Figure 7. Regressions of DOC concentration against A) phenolic concentration, B) absorbance at 254 nm,**  
278 **C) absorbance at 400 nm, for 192 ditch water samples from Ffynnon Eidda.  $r^2$  values A) 0.87, B) 0.9, C)**  
279 **0.79. For all regressions  $p < 0.001$ .**

280

281 Finally, if phenolic concentration is to be used as a proxy for DOC it is useful to know  
282 if a calibration can be established using a small number of measurements, and how this  
283 compares to a colour-carbon calibration. To test this a random sub-sample of 25  
284 measurements was taken from the Ffynnon Eidda data-set and analysed by regression;  $r^2$  and  
285 regression equation were noted – to allow a simple comparison the regression was forced  
286 through the origin. This method was repeated twenty times for DOC and phenolics, DOC  
287 and absorbance at 400 nm, and DOC and absorbance at 254 nm. The mean  $r^2$  values were  
288 0.83 for the phenolics model, 0.71 for the 400 nm model, and 0.85 for the 254 nm model.  
289 ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference in the mean  $r^2$  between the  
290 phenolic and 254 nm model, but that the 400 nm model differed significantly from both  
291 ( $p < 0.001$ ). The mean slope of all twenty regression equations was then compared against the  
292 slope of the regression that used all 192 data points; this gives a measure of the magnitude of  
293 error that using a small calibration brings. The mean slope difference was 2.65% for the  
294 phenolic model, 5.59% for the 400 nm model, and 3.16% for the 254 nm model. The only  
295 significant difference was between the phenolic model and the 400 nm model ( $p < 0.05$ ).

296

### 297 *3.3 Phenolic degradation in stored samples*

298 To investigate how phenolics degrade in stored water samples a small number of  
299 samples from the Ffynnon Eidda site were reanalysed for phenolic concentrations. One set of

300 samples had been in storage for 13 months whilst the second set had been stored for 8  
301 months. They had been stored in plastic Nalgene® bottles (Thermo Scientific) in the dark at  
302 4°C. The site-specific model was then applied to phenolic concentrations that had been  
303 measured both before and after storage (table 3). The mean loss of phenolics during storage  
304 was 0.74 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (11.7%) for the 8 month samples and 0.58 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (8.3%) for the 13 month  
305 samples. The smaller value for the 13 month samples is due to the fact that phenolic  
306 concentration increased in two samples. Removing these numbers gave a mean of 0.77 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  
307 (12.9%). After 8 months in storage the phenolic measurements calculated DOC, on  
308 average, to within a mean of 2.77 mg L<sup>-1</sup> or 91.4% (compared to 1.87 mg L<sup>-1</sup> or 93.9% before  
309 storage). After 13 months DOC could be calculated to 5.29 mg L<sup>-1</sup> or 84.6% (compared to  
310 3.43 mg L<sup>-1</sup> or 89.3% before storage). Additional analysis of pore water samples from  
311 Ffynnon Eidda revealed that after 8 months the mean loss of phenolics was 0.92 mg L<sup>-1</sup>  
312 (12.4%), but after 13 months there was a mean increase of 0.62 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (9.4%) (table 4).

313 Table 3. The extent of phenolic degradation in stored water samples taken from ditch water at Ffynnon Eidda.  
314 ‘Phenolics’ is the concentration taken immediately after sampling. ‘Phenolics<sup>8</sup>’ or ‘Phenolics<sup>13</sup>’ is the  
315 concentration of the same sample after either 8 or 13 months of storage in the dark at 4°C in plastic Nalgene®  
316 bottles. ‘Phenolics<sup>diff</sup>’ is the concentration change following storage, - indicates a loss, + indicates a gain. ‘Meas  
317 DOC’ is the measured DOC concentration. ‘Mod DOC’ is the estimate DOC concentration using the site-  
318 specific model, calculated using the original phenolic measurement. ‘Mod DOC<sup>8</sup>’ and ‘Mod DOC<sup>13</sup>’ are the  
319 estimated DOC concentrations using the site-specific model, calculated using the phenolic measurements after  
320 either 8 or 13 months of storage. All concentrations are in mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

321

322 Table 4. The extent of phenolic degradation in stored water samples taken from pore water at Ffynnon Eidda.  
323 ‘Phenolics’ is the concentration taken immediately after sampling. ‘Phenolics<sup>8</sup>’ or ‘Phenolics<sup>13</sup>’ is the  
324 concentration of the same sample after either 8 or 13 months of storage in the dark at 4°C in plastic Nalgene®  
325 bottles. ‘Phenolics<sup>diff</sup>’ is the concentration change following storage, - indicates a loss, + indicates a gain. All  
326 concentrations are in mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

327

328 **4. Discussion**

329 *4.1 Using the general phenolic model to calculate DOC*

330                   This analysis shows that phenolic concentrations can be used to give an  
331 estimate of DOC concentrations for the pore waters and drainage waters of peaty soils. A  
332 general model using data from numerous sites allowed DOC to be calculated for three new  
333 sites at a mean accuracy of 81-86%; these three sites included pore water, surface water, and  
334 leachate samples. For each of the three sites, there was some evidence of small systematic  
335 errors in DOC predictions, due to site-specific variations in the ratio of phenolics to DOC,  
336 relative to the whole-dataset mean. One of the reasons for the high phenolic concentrations  
337 typically observed in wetlands and uplands seems to be due to the occurrence of certain plant  
338 species. *Sphagnum* species, *Vaccinium myrtillus*, *Calluna vulgaris*, *Empetrum*  
339 *hermaphroditum*, and *Erica australis* are all phenolic-rich species (Rudolph & Samland,  
340 1985, Gallet & Lebreton, 1995, Kähkönen *et al.*, 1999, Castells, 2008, Carballera, 1980) and  
341 are typical of upland bog vegetation. High water levels that maintain anaerobic conditions  
342 constrain phenol oxidase activity and prevent the decomposition of phenolics, causing waters  
343 drained from these areas to have high phenolic concentrations (Freeman *et al.*, 2004).  
344 Variations in factors such as water table, temperature, soil type and vegetation may therefore  
345 explain some of the variability in the relationship between sites. For instance, the Migneint  
346 podzol site displays very low concentrations of phenolics per unit of DOC compared to the  
347 nearby Migneint peat site and this could be attributed to vegetation; the podzol site is typified  
348 by *Festuca ovina* and *Juncus squarrosus* and lacks the *Calluna* species that dominate the peat  
349 site. There is therefore less potential for the vegetation to release high concentrations of  
350 phenolics. In addition, it is a well drained soil so phenol oxidase activities will be higher,  
351 resulting in higher rates of phenolic degradation (Freeman *et al.*, 2001b).



352 A full understanding of site differences is complex, however. Despite the Migneint  
353 peat and podzol sites showing differences in the phenolic to DOC ratio, the adjacent  
354 Peaknaze peat and podzol sites do not. Like the Migneint sites, the peat site is predominantly  
355 comprised of *Calluna* and other bog species, whilst the podzol site largely features *Festuca*  
356 *ovina*, although *Calluna* is present. It therefore seems likely that the presence of *Calluna*  
357 could account for the lack of an observed difference at Peaknaze. Alternatively, it is possible  
358 that other environmental factors are the primary controller of phenolic concentrations at  
359 Peaknaze, such as shared precipitation and temperature. The long-term data sets from the  
360 paired Peaknaze and Migneint sites clearly show shared changes in the phenolic to DOC  
361 ratio. Some of these will be due to large scale weather events; a severe drought across the  
362 UK could stimulate phenol oxidase activity at all sites, thus causing an associated decline in  
363 phenolic concentrations. Drought conditions have also been shown to enhance both the  
364 abundance and diversity of bacteria that are capable of degrading phenolic compounds  
365 (Fenner *et al.*, 2005). On a similar theme, a localised mountain storm on the Migneint would  
366 be observed as a spike in the phenolic to DOC ratio as phenol oxidase is suppressed due to  
367 aerobic conditions facilitating the accumulation of phenolics (Freeman *et al.*, 2004). Where  
368 only one of the four locations shows a change this must be attributable to localised factors,  
369 such as vegetation controls.

370 There was no significant difference in the ratio of phenolics to DOC in the three lakes  
371 (Llyn Teyrn, Llyn Cwellyn and Llyn Conwy), and they all showed relatively high proportions  
372 of phenolics. This can partly be explained by the fact that all three are humic lakes; Shimp  
373 and Pfaender (1985) showed that when microbial communities become adapted to increased  
374 levels of humic acids, their capability to degrade phenolics is reduced. Processing of fresh  
375 DOC can occur rapidly in lakes (Tranvik *et al.*, 2009) and, coupled with the high dilution  
376 effect, differences in phenolic:DOC are unlikely to be observed on the same magnitude as

377 those occurring in soils. Phenolic concentrations and the other fractions of lake DOC will  
378 vary throughout the year, due to changing hydrological conditions (Sachse *et al.*, 2001), and  
379 differences in the efficiency of photolysis and microbial degradation (Hwang *et al.*, 1986).

380 Leachate samples from the Migneint were not significantly different from pore water  
381 samples from the Migneint peat site but the phenolic content of the leachate samples varied  
382 by an order of magnitude; the lowest concentration of phenolics to 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> of DOC was 0.07  
383 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, whilst the highest was 0.72 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Other work from forest ecosystems has  
384 demonstrated that one of the main components of fresh leachate is phenolics (Yavitt &  
385 Fahey, 1986, Beggs & Summers, 2011) so it seems likely that these differences are driven by  
386 the depth of samples from the soil profile, and the availability of phenolics from adjacent  
387 vegetation. A comparison of sample types revealed that the ratio of phenolics to DOC was  
388 higher in pore water than surface water, and it can be hypothesised that this is due to the  
389 increased leaching of phenolics into pore water from fresh litter (Beggs & Summer, 2011).  
390 Additionally, precipitation will contribute to surface water, and organic carbon in rainfall has  
391 been shown to consist of <1% phenolics (Likens, 1983).

392 Taken together these findings suggest that a general model can be used to calculate  
393 DOC, but that variations in sample type, soil type, vegetation, and climate will all contribute  
394 a degree of error. Therefore the general model should be a 'last resort' for situations where a  
395 site-specific calibration isn't possible. For instance, Worrall *et al.* (2012) applied a general  
396 colour-carbon calibration to sites where a site-specific calibration was unavailable. For  
397 similar cases, the general phenolics model can be used to provide an additional estimate of  
398 DOC concentrations.

399

400 *4.2 Using a site-specific model to calculate DOC*

401           Considering the uncertainty that environmental and climatic factors induce in a  
402 general model, it is unsurprising that a site-specific regression of phenolics and DOC at  
403 Ffynnon Eidda gave a stronger fit and was significantly more accurate. The exact accuracy  
404 of any site-specific model will depend on the extent of phenolic variation throughout the  
405 year, which will be controlled by the aforementioned external factors. To generate a robust  
406 model, sampling should take place at different times throughout the year (assuming the model  
407 will be used on to calculate DOC for an annual data series) and under different climatic  
408 conditions. This should allow an ‘average’ model to be produced, rather than one that  
409 systematically over- or underestimates DOC.

410

#### 411 *4.3 Comparison of phenolic-based and absorbance-based DOC estimation*

412           A comparison of the performance of the site-specific phenol model to colour-carbon  
413 models indicated that a model based on absorbance at 254 nm produced a slightly better  
414 calibration than using phenolics, but that a model based on 400 nm model was not as strong  
415 as either. It should be noted that none produced fits that were as good as those produced by  
416 Tipping *et al.*, (2009) using a two wavelength (254 nm and 340 nm) model, but this method  
417 was not directly investigated here.

418           The models were all created using a large number (192) of data points. A useful  
419 model would, in reality, be constructed from as few data points as possible to save on the  
420 costs of directly measuring DOC. Repeatedly generating models for each proxy (phenolics,  
421 254 nm, 400 nm) using just twenty five randomly selected data points showed that the 254  
422 nm model was the strongest on average, with the phenolics model only slightly weaker.  
423 Again, the 400 nm model was considerably weaker compared to the other two. However, the  
424 phenolic model was the most accurate; on average the twenty five point regression only

425 deviated from the full (192 point) model by 2.65%. This was significantly better than the 400  
426 nm model (5.59%) but showed no difference to the 254 nm model (3.16%).

427         These results therefore suggest that a small-dataset, site-specific calibration of  
428 phenolics to DOC can be as or more accurate than a colour-carbon calibration, depending on  
429 the wavelength of light absorbance used. Accuracy will vary throughout the year as phenolic  
430 concentrations fluctuate, but the same problem is true of colour-carbon calibrations, as these  
431 also vary seasonally (Watts *et al.*, 2001, Wallage & Holden, 2010). Additionally, this study  
432 shows that a colour-carbon calibration at 254 nm is more accurate than one using 400 nm as a  
433 proxy, at least for the site examined. Part of the reason for this could be iron interference, as  
434 iron can contribute to absorbance measurements at approximately 400 nm (Kritzberg &  
435 Ekström, 2012). Wilson *et al.* (2011) found that the best proxy for DOC concentrations from  
436 different catchments on blanket bog was either absorbance at 254 nm or 400 nm. The results  
437 presented here suggest that studies using colour-carbon calibrations should investigate the  
438 potential of both wavelengths, as many just use 400 nm (e.g. Gibson *et al.*, 2009, Wallage &  
439 Holden, 2010, Rowson *et al.*, 2010).

440         UV-vis scanning of water samples for these models must take place within a week of  
441 sampling to ensure accuracy, and it is often desirable to analyse samples within a day of  
442 collection (e.g. Wilson *et al.*, 2011), but phenolics are relatively stable to microbial  
443 degradation (Chian, 1977) and thus samples do not have to be assayed immediately. There is  
444 a lack of information in the literature concerning the exact time samples can be stored for, but  
445 Afghan *et al.* (1974) noted no apparent loss after 16 days, provided samples were stored in  
446 glass bottles. However, our results demonstrate only a small loss of phenolics from plastic  
447 bottles after 8 months in storage in the dark at 4°C. These samples still enabled DOC to be  
448 calculated to an acceptable degree of accuracy. Samples stored for 13 months allowed DOC  
449 to be calculated accurately, but interestingly two samples showed an increase in phenolics

450 following storage. Theoretically this could be an analytical error, but the fact that pore water  
451 samples also showed phenolic increases after 13 months suggests it is a real effect. It may be  
452 that the increase is due to phenolic compounds leaching into the sample from the plastic  
453 bottle, but it is unknown why only some samples showed increases. More detailed work  
454 could focus on the specific rate of phenolic degradation over time which, if known, could  
455 then be incorporated into a model to allow DOC to be calculated accurately from older  
456 samples. Considering these results, however, and it can be concluded that a phenolics-based  
457 model is preferential to a UV-vis-based one if it is not feasible to analyse samples  
458 immediately. Where samples can be analysed immediately, it is likely that the two  
459 wavelength model of Tipping *et al.* (2009) will be more accurate.

460

#### 461 *4.4 Practical applications*

462 If direct DOC measurements are unavailable or unaffordable then this method can be  
463 considered an effective substitute, considering: 1) the equipment needed is minimal,  
464 consisting of a few chemicals and access to a spectrophotometer able to determine  
465 absorbance at 750nm; 2) preparation time for the samples is quick; 3) a microplate can be  
466 used for the analysis, thereby allowing up to eighty four samples to be analysed at once; 4)  
467 only a small amount (0.25 ml) of sample is needed; and 5) it can be used on older samples.

468 Some caution may be required in extending this approach to different sample types,  
469 for example natural waters draining non-peaty soils, or leachate samples from other types of  
470 organic matter. Certain substances will also interfere with the phenolics assay; notably, iron  
471 concentrations higher than 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. This was not considered to be an issue for the sites used  
472 in this study; monthly samples from the Ffynnon Eidda site taken between September 2006  
473 and September 2011 had a mean iron content of 0.86 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, and only exceeded 2 mg L<sup>-1</sup> on  
474 four occasions out of eighty four sampling dates (CEH unpublished data). None of the

475 incidences of high iron concentrations coincided with high phenolic concentrations. Iron  
476 levels for a peatland stream at the Plynlimon site averaged  $0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  for the period 1990-  
477 2005, with a maximum value of  $0.81 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  (Neal *et al.*, 2008). If iron is present in samples,  
478 then adding a centrifugation step to the method can remove the error (Box, 1983).

479         This model therefore seems ideal for certain situations, such as those involving  
480 practitioners and conservation agencies. For example, in the UK the incidence of drain  
481 blocking on peatlands is increasing, often under the stewardship of environmental agencies  
482 and land managers (Armstrong *et al.*, 2010). Some of these projects include monitoring of  
483 DOC, but are more often focused on other objectives such as restoration of vegetation,  
484 biodiversity enhancement and erosion control (Walker *et al.*, 2008). With limited funds and  
485 equipment for detailed scientific monitoring, it may not be possible to robustly evaluate the  
486 impacts of restoration on water quality. The method described here offers a viable solution to  
487 gather data on the effects of restoration on DOC, a key parameter of concern from a water  
488 supply and ecological perspective. This approach could replace or augment more commonly  
489 used colour-carbon calibrations.

490

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719 **Table 1**

Site	Lat	Lon	Soil Type	Sample Type	No. Samples	Altitude (m)	Sampling dates
Ffynnon Eidda	52.97N	3.84W	Peat	Ditch/Pore (P)	326	490	Oct 2010 - Nov 2011
Migneint	52.99N	3.82W	Peat	Pore (R)	300	450	Aug 2007 - Jan 2012
Migneint	52.99N	3.81W	Podzol	Pore (R)	300	480	Sept 2007 - Jan 2012
Peaknaze	53.47N	1.91W	Peat	Pore (R)	300	440	Aug 2007 - Jan 2012
Peaknaze	53.47N	1.91W	Podzol	Pore (R)	300	430	Aug 2007 - Jan 2012
Plynlimon	52.46N	3.74W	Peat	Pore (R)	167	530	May 1992 – Sept 1992
Migneint	52.99N	3.82W	Peat	Leachate	45	450	Sept 2011, Jan 2012
Fen Mesocosms	53.22N	4.13W	Peat	Pool	210	20	June 2011 - July 2011
Llyn Cwellyn	53.07N	4.15W	Peat/Loam	Lake	24	140	Nov 2009 - Oct 2011
Llyn Conwy	52.99N	3.82W	Peat	Lake	24	450	Nov 2009 - Oct 2011
Llyn Teyrn	53.07N	4.03W	Peat	Lake	24	370	Nov 2009 - Oct 2011

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721 **Table 2**

	Ppe	Mpod	Ppod	Mle	Lcw	Lco	Lt	Fe	Fen	Plyn
Migneint Peat	*	*	*	NS	*	NS	*	*	*	*
Peaknaze Peat		NS	NS					*		*
Migneint Pod			NS	NS		*		*		
Peaknaze Pod										
Migneint Leach								NS		
Llyn Cwellyn						NS	NS		*	
Llyn Conwy							NS		*	
Llyn Teyrn									*	
Ffynnon Eidda										*
Fen Mesocosms										
Plynlimon										

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**Table 3**

Sample	Phenolics	Phenolics <sup>8</sup>	Phenolics <sup>diff</sup>	Meas DOC	Mod DOC	Mod DOC <sup>8</sup>
1	6.13	5.61	-0.52	30.3	32.8	30.2
2	4.99	4.94	-0.05	25.9	27.1	26.8
3	5.76	5.34	-0.43	28.9	31.0	28.8
4	5.71	5.06	-0.65	30.7	30.7	27.4
5	6.41	5.32	-1.09	31.4	34.2	28.7
6	6.35	5.19	-1.17	31.1	33.9	28.1
7	5.66	4.90	-0.76	29.9	30.4	26.6
8	7.09	5.85	-1.24	36.3	37.7	31.4
9	5.97	5.41	-0.56	29.2	32.0	29.2
10	6.52	4.94	-1.58	33.2	34.8	26.8
11	6.30	5.53	-0.77	35.4	33.7	29.8
12	4.77	4.75	-0.02	28.9	26.0	25.9
Sample	Phenolics	Phenolics <sup>13</sup>	Phenolics <sup>diff</sup>	Meas DOC	Mod DOC	Mod DOC <sup>13</sup>
13	6.92	5.54	-1.38	45	36.8	29.8
14	5.21	4.84	-0.37	29.4	28.2	26.3
15	5.46	4.96	-0.50	29	29.4	26.9
16	1.93	2.26	+0.33	14.1	11.6	13.3
17	5.92	5.23	-0.68	32.1	31.7	28.3
18	4.66	5.04	+0.37	30.8	25.4	27.3
19	4.87	4.79	-0.08	33.1	26.5	26.1
20	7.02	6.03	-0.98	42.2	37.3	32.3
21	5.88	5.15	-0.73	31.8	31.5	27.9
22	7.72	5.65	-2.07	35.1	40.8	30.4
23	6.23	5.38	-0.86	33.1	33.3	29.0
24	3.43	3.41	-0.02	24.6	19.2	19.1

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**Table 4**

Sample	Phenolics	Phenolics <sup>8</sup>	Phenolics <sup>diff</sup>
1	5.39	4.53	-0.85
2	7.20	6.39	-0.81
3	8.00	7.22	-0.78
4	6.88	6.52	-0.36
5	6.94	6.61	-0.32
6	5.66	5.14	-0.52
7	9.23	6.71	-2.52
8	7.25	6.85	-0.40
9	7.03	5.41	-1.62
10	8.43	6.36	-2.07
11	8.94	8.55	-0.39
12	5.48	5.05	-0.43
Sample	Phenolics	Phenolics <sup>13</sup>	Phenolics <sup>diff</sup>
13	5.54	6.45	+0.90
14	7.40	7.11	-0.29
15	6.10	6.52	+0.42
16	9.61	10.10	+0.49
17	7.57	7.31	-0.26
18	6.72	7.93	+1.21
19	6.95	8.82	+1.87

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Figure 1

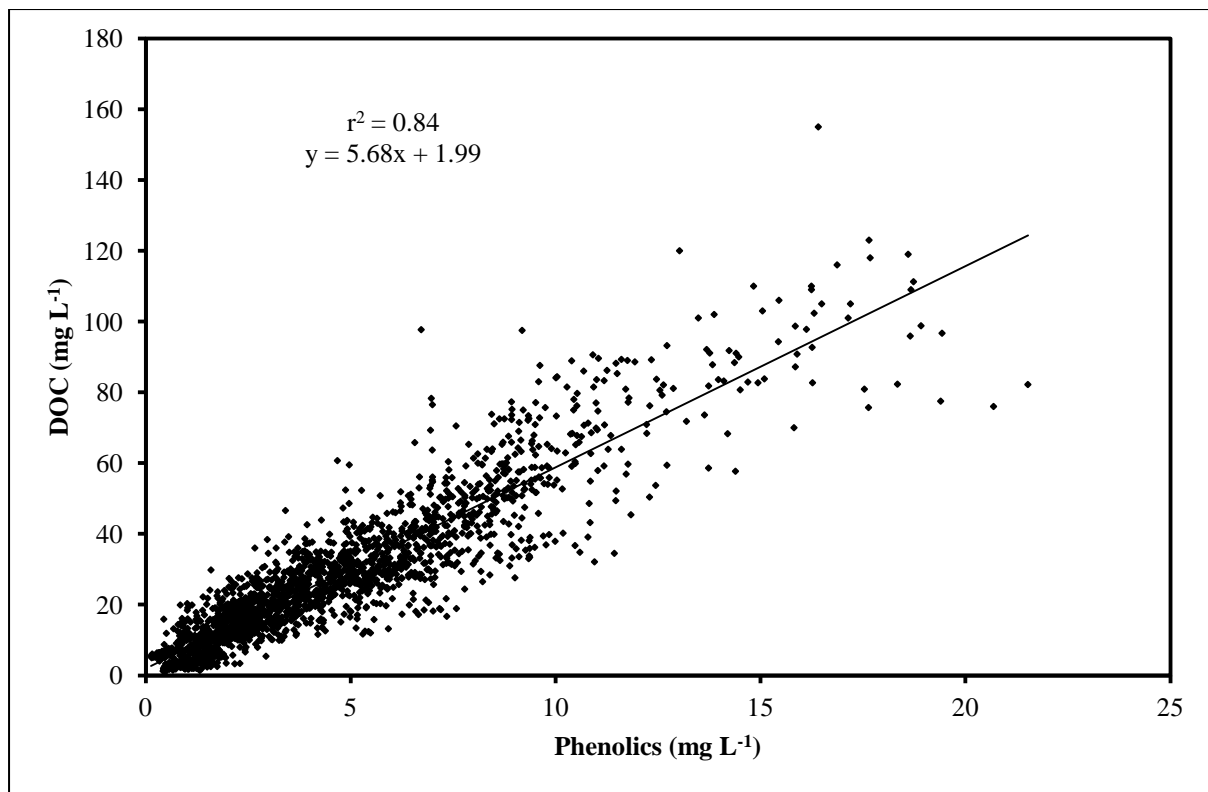


Figure 1. Observed relationship between phenolic concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) and DOC concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) for all 2020 water samples.  $r^2 = 0.84$ , residual variance = 72.051,  $p < 0.001$ .

Figure 2

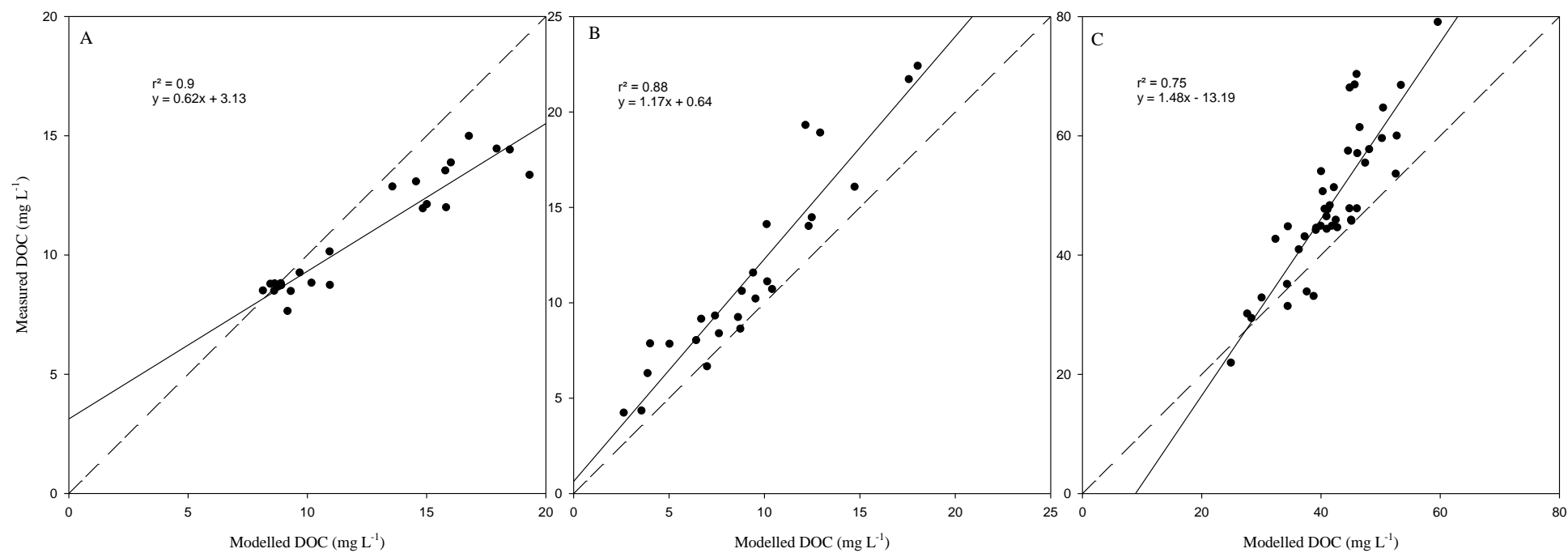


Figure 2. Regression between measured DOC and modelled DOC (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) in Nant y Brwyn stream water,  $n=24$ ,  $r^2=0.90$  (A), Alwen Reservoir leachate samples,  $n=25$ ,  $r^2=0.88$  (B), and Llyn Serw pore water samples,  $n=44$ ,  $r^2=0.75$  (C).  $p<0.001$  for each relationship. Dashed line shows 1:1 relationship.

Figure 3

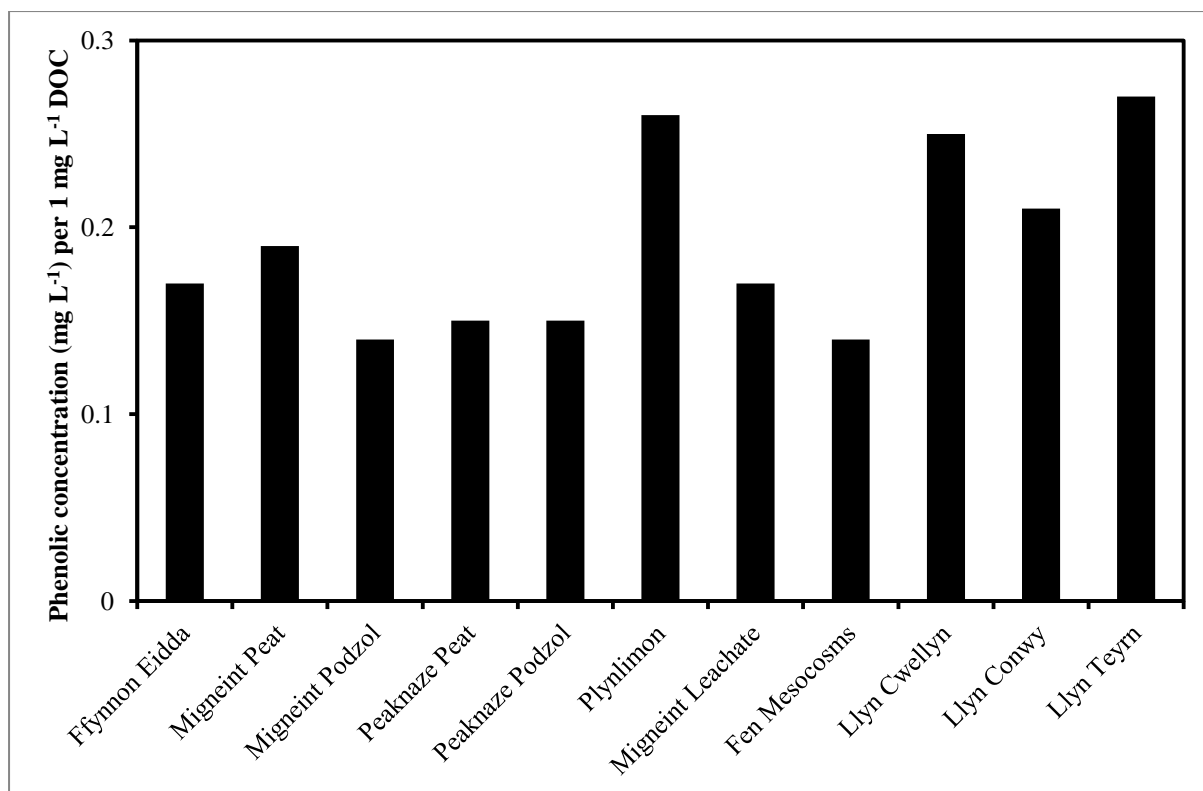


Figure 3. Median phenolic concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) per 1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> DOC concentrations for each site used in the model.

Figure 4

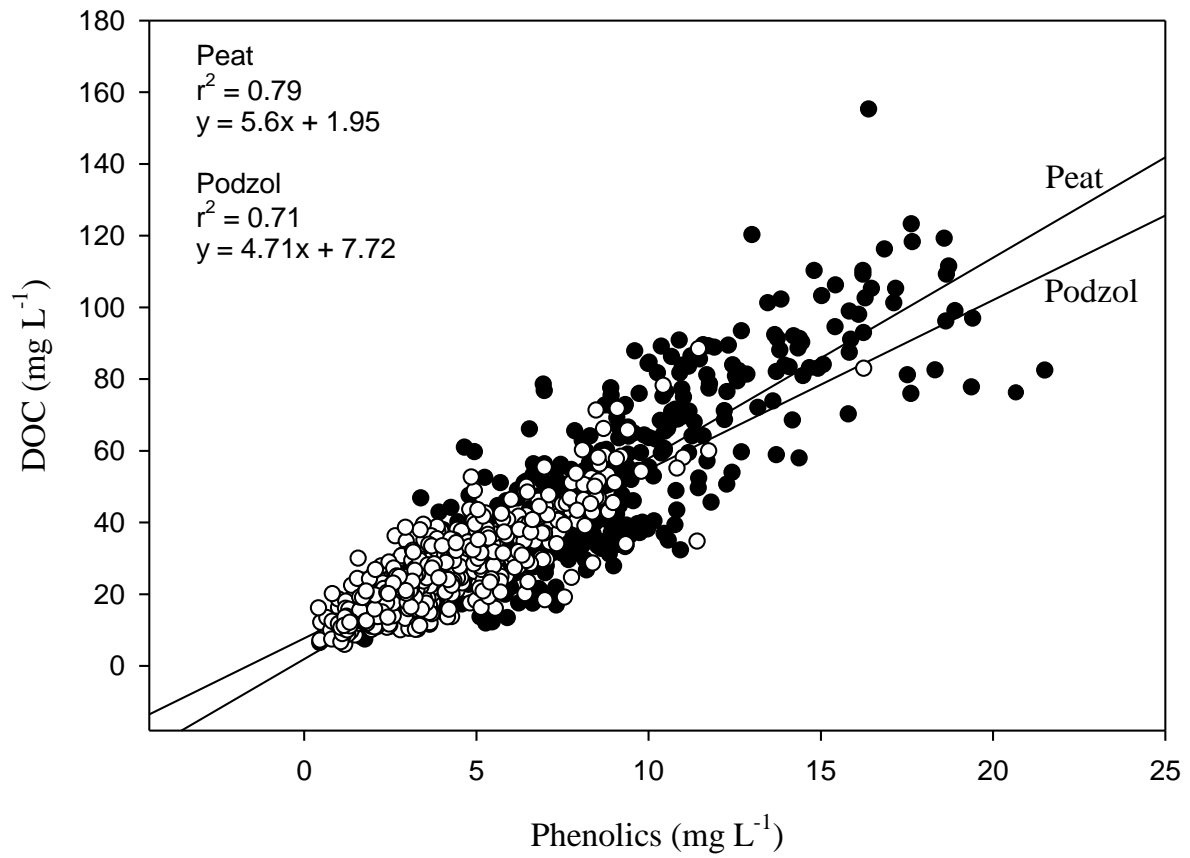
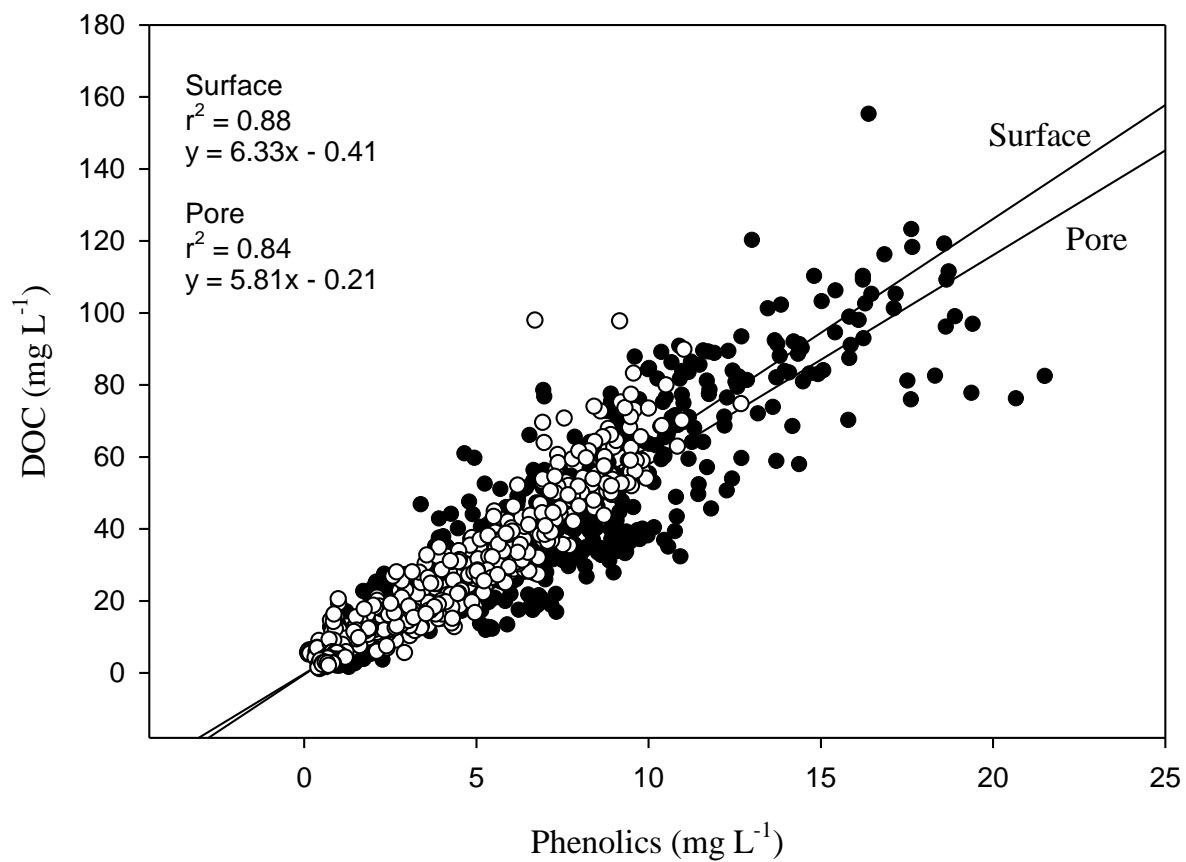
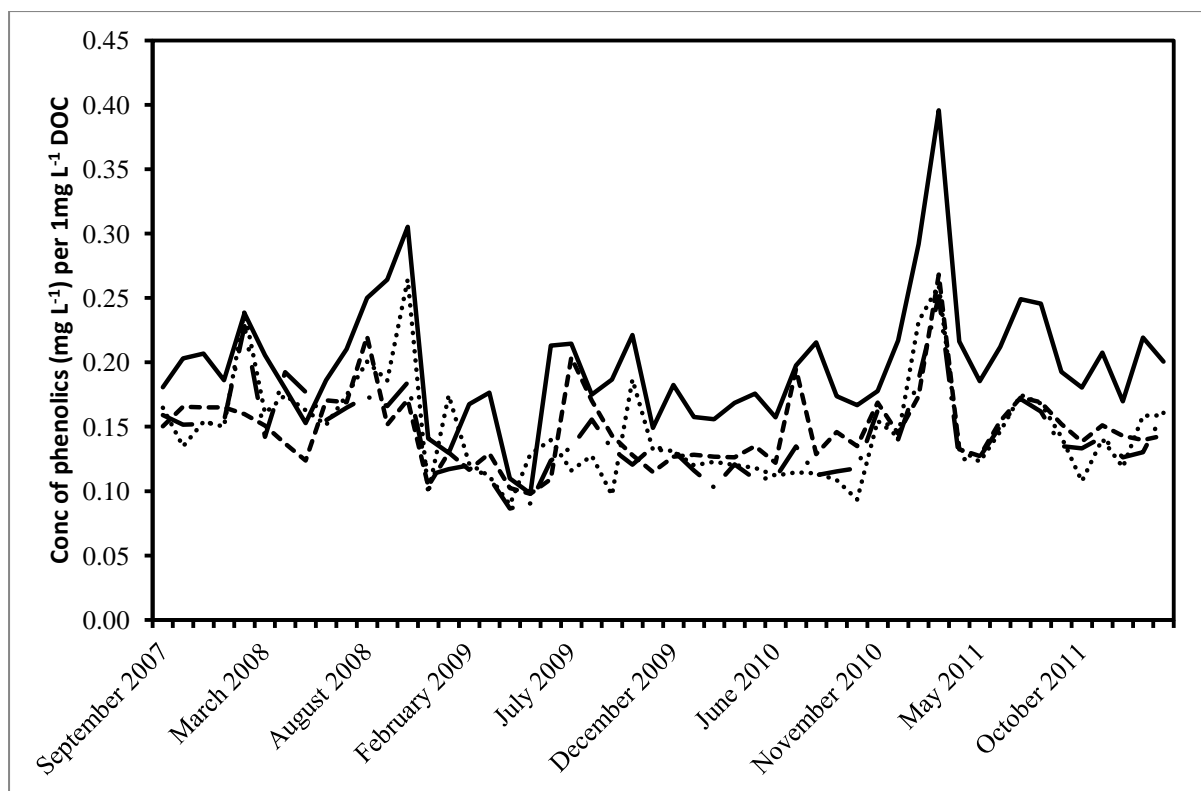


Figure 4. Regression between phenolic and DOC concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) for the Migneint and Peaknaze podzol (white circles) and peat (black circles) sites.  $n=600$  for each soil type. Podzol  $r^2=0.71$ . Peat  $r^2=0.79$ . For both soils  $p<0.001$ .

Figure 5



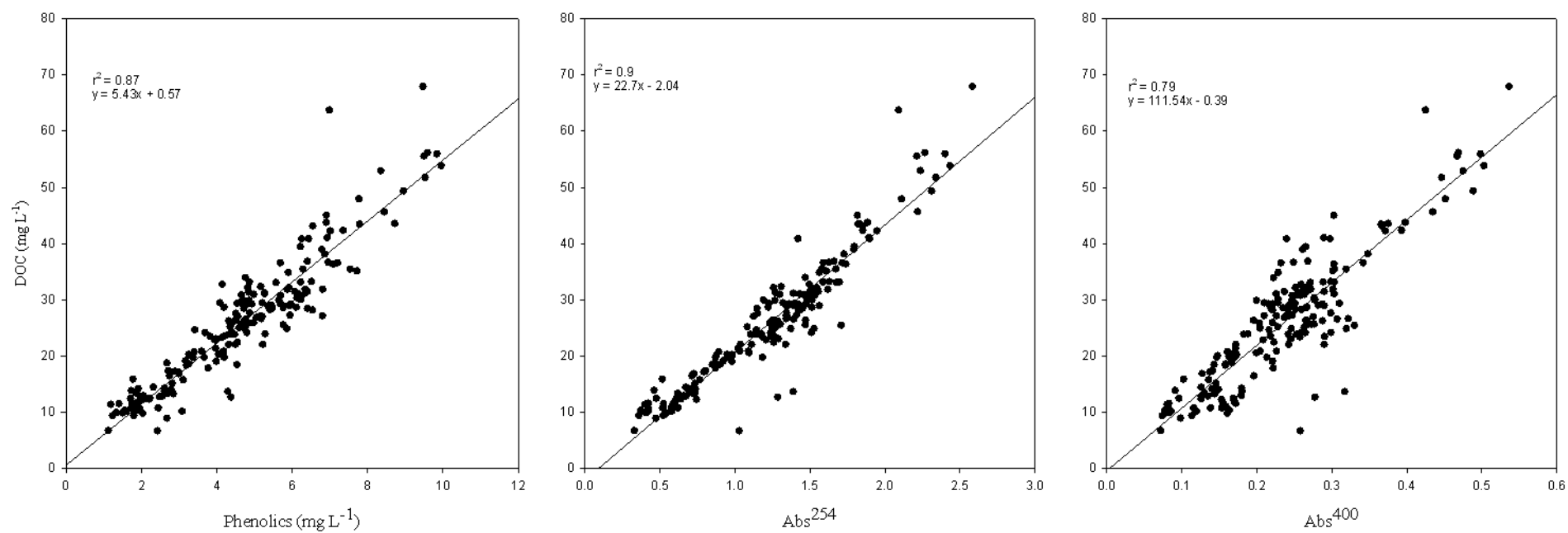
**Figure 5. Regression between phenolic and DOC concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) for surface waters (from Ffynnon Eidda, Llyn Cwellyn, Llyn Conwy, Llyn Teyrn, and fen mesocosms –  $n=608$ ) and pore waters (from Migneint peat, Migneint podzol, Peaknaze peat, Peaknaze podzol, and Plynlimon –  $n=767$ ). Surface waters  $r^2=0.88$ . Pore waters  $r^2=0.84$ . For both samples types  $p<0.001$ .**



**Figure 6.** Changes in the mean proportion of phenolics to DOC for four sites from September 2007 to January 2012, with an approximate monthly sampling frequency. Sites are: Migneint peat – solid line, Migneint podzol – dotted line, Peaknaze peat – dashed line, Peaknaze podzol – dotted/dashed line. For each site and each date the mean is generated from  $n=12$ .



**Figure 7**



**Figure 7. Regressions of DOC concentration against A) phenolic concentration, B) absorbance at 254 nm, C) absorbance at 400 nm, for 192 ditch water samples from Ffynnon Eidda.  $r^2$  values A) 0.87, B) 0.9, C) 0.79. For all regressions  $p < 0.001$ .**