BG-2015-17 Editorial Review 1

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3 **Major Comments**

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5 There is a general problem with data being discussed which are not presented, therefore the 6 statements referring to them are unsupported. For example, SUVA, deoxyC5/C6 and 7 proportion of plant markers are not stated or plotted for the SOM or soil DOM. Therefore 8 the statement at the beginning of section 4.1 about the provenance of inter-storm river 9 DOM is unsupported, as is the end-member mixing model statement that follows it. Please 10 extend figure 3 and Table 1 to include the missing data. The reader should not have to refer to another paper in order to substantiate the claims made in your text. 11

12 The values of the proportion of plant-derived markers for soil DOM sampled in the organo-

13 mineral and mineral horizons were added on Figure 3. This value is used to quantify the

14 proportions of DOM flushed from organo-mineral and mineral horizons. The evolution of

15 SUVA and deoxyC6/C5 are not displayed since they are not used in this calculation.

16 Moreover the beginning of the section 4.1 was changed.

17

18 You also have the opposite problem of including data which are not discussed. Your 19 discussion does not comment upon or explain the noted changes in SUVA or percentage 20 plant derived markers that you describe in your results section. Please insert a discussion of 21 those data or remove them from your methods and results.

22 SUVA was not necessary for the discussion. As a consequence the description of the 23 evolution of this parameter in the result section was removed (first paragraph of section 24 3.3). Moreover the beginning of section 4.4 was re-worded in order to take into account 25 the fact that SUVA was not displayed. SUVA was also removed from Table 1 and Figures 4 26 and S1. As a result figure 5 was removed.

27 However the proportion of plant-derived markers is important for two reasons. (1) It is 28 used to approximate the proportion of DOM flushed from organo-mineral and mineral 29 horizons. (2) It is the complementary value of the proportion of microbial markers that is 30 used in the discussion in the section 4.2.

31

At one point in your response to reviews you use the text copied below. This is a more 32 33 detailed argument than you employ in your manuscript. Please add the argument given 34 below to the appropriate section of your discussion.

35 The section 4.3 has been reorganized in order to add this argument to the discussion.

36

37 The partitioning from particulate phase occurs continuously in soils but with a high ratio soil/water creating 38 39 a specific DOM with a low C/V (around 0.2). During storm event, erosion carries particles in water. These low soil/water conditions induce a displacement of the equilibrium between OM in the solid phase and OM 40 in the dissolved phase, which seems to lead to DOM with a high C/V (higher or equal to 0.8). Since the lignin ratio C/V remains high even after turbidity has decreased to pre-event value, an additional 41

42 mechanism inducing low soil/water conditions is necessary. This could be the erosion of macropore walls

1 but also as suggested by the first referee, the destabilization and disaggregation of soil aggregates. Those 2 explanations are hypothetic and at this stage need further investigation to be supported.' 3 4 Please include the end member mixing model equation as suggested by reviewer 2. 5 Three equations were added. Equation 1 for the end member mixing approach allows 6 calculating the proportion of microbial CAR. Equation 2 allows the calculation of the 7 proportion of microbial markers. Equation 3 allows the calculation of the proportion of 8 plant-derived markers. 9 10 The use of English throughout the manuscript contains minor errors, and these occasionally 11 tend to obscure the intended meaning. Please seek to have the manuscript copy-edited for 12 use of English (the journal can provide this if necessary, but only at additional cost). The manuscript was copy-edited by Dr BW Abbott, a native English speaker. 13 14 **Minor Comments** 15 16 17 Abstract: Please re-write the first few sentences of the abstract, as the use of English is a little awkward, and one sentence is over-long. This is also true of the first paragraph of the 18 19 introduction. 20 The first sentences of the abstract and the first paragraph of the introduction have been 21 reworded. 22 23 Page 3 line 26. You begin a sentence with 'Answering these questions...', but no question has 24 actually been posed. Please re-phrase. 25 This sentence has been reworded. 26 27 Page 4 line 12. Be more explicit about how your markers allow distinction between DOM 28 from different soil horizons, At the moment this is simply stated rather than explained. 29 Soil DOM from surface horizons was characterized by high proportion of plant-derived 30 markers, while soil DOM from deep horizons was characterized by high proportions of 31 microbial markers. This has been added in this sentence. 32 33 Page 4 line 29; Delete 'do we see trends?' (unnecessary). 34 It has been deleted. 35 36 Page 16 line 7; replace 'on' with 'in' (October).

37 It has been performed (Page 7 line 16).

1	
2	Page 8 line 27. You refer to published data here, so please add in the relevant references.
3	Two references have been added: Nierop and Verstraten, 2004 and Nierop et al., 2005.
4	
5	Page 9 line 14. Please add 's' to the end of 'follow'.
6	It has been performed.
7	
8	Page 10 line 4-5. This sentence does not make sense. Please re-phrase.
9	This sentence has been re-phrased.
10	
11 12 13 14 15	Section 3.1. This section makes reference to compounds (specific lignins) which were not mentioned in the methods section. Please clarify in the methods section which aspects of the methods (presumably TMAH GC-MS) involved the identification and quantification of these different lignin compounds. Similarly, you also refer to SUVA data in your results section. Please therefore provide your method for measuring SUVA.
16 17 18 19	A paragraph has been added at the beginning of the section 2.5 in order to clarify where those lignin-tannins (LIG-TAN) compounds come from and how the LIG-TAN proxies were calculated. Moreover the trivial names of the compounds used in the calculation of those proxies were added in table S2.
20	
21 22	Figure 4. The legend for this figure needs correcting, as it currently does not distinguish between the line for discharge and the line for DOC concentration.
23	The legend has been changed.
24	
25 26	Please add a note to your results text to explain that data are visually presented for example events rather than for all events.
27	A precision has been added at the beginning of section 3.3.
28	
29 30	Page 12 line 7. The sentence starting 'The highest value' is unclear. Please re-word to make the meaning clear (do you mean 'higher' instead of 'highest'?).
31 32	The beginning of the section 4.2 has been reworded. "Highest" was misused and has been replaced by "higher".
33	
34	Page 12 line 14. Please state exactly what you mean (i.e. what data) by 'other microbial-

35 derived biomarkers'.

1 "Other microbial-derived biomarkers" referred to the microbial FA and microbial CAR included in the calculation of the proportion of microbial markers. The sentence has been 2 3 reworded. 4 5 Page 12 line 30. Explain what you mean by 'the extreme value'. Extreme value of which 6 parameter? In which figure can this data be seen? Are these last lines of the section referring 7 to your own study or to other previously reported studies? Please clarify. 8 The last lines of this section refer to previously reported studies. This point was clarified by 9 rewording the paragraph. 10 11 Figure 6 caption please remove the phrase 'Time diagram'. It has been performed. 12 13 14 Page 13 line 28. Please replace 'liquid' with 'dissolved'. 15 It has been performed. 16 17 Figure 7 caption. Please remove the words 'Difference of'. 18 It has been performed. 19 20 Figure 7 legend. The black diamonds should be labelled 'entire event', not 'falling limb'. 21 It has been changed. 22 23 Page 14, first paragraph. Please explain why disaggregation of aggregates and erosion of 24 macropore walls would transfer lignins into solution but not add to the suspended particle 25 load. 26 The disaggregation of aggregates and erosion of macropore walls could lead to a 27 modification of the composition of DOM produced within the different soil horizons and

flushed to the stream, without adding suspended solid in the stream, the latter particles

29 being physically trapped by the soil matrix. This explanation has been added at the end 30 of the section 4.3.

31

1 Sources of dissolved organic matter during storm and

2 inter-storm conditions in a lowland headwater catchment:

- 3 constraints from high-frequency molecular data
- 4

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10

11 Abstract

12 The transfer of dissolved organic matter (DOM) at soil-river interfaces controls the 13 biogeochemistry of micropollutants and the equilibrium between continental and oceanic C 14 reservoirs. Then determiningUnderstanding the mechanisms controlling this transfer 15 mechanisms of DOM is of main importance forfundamental to ecology and geochemistry 16 ecological and geochemical reasons. Is stream DOM delivery to streams during storms is 17 assumed to come from the flushing of the result of the flushing of pre-existing soil DOM 18 reservoirs activated mobilized by the modification of water flow paths? ... We tested this hypothesis by investigating the The evolution of the chemical composition of stream DOM 19 during inter-storm conditions and five storm events monitored with a high-frequency 20 sampling. The composition of DOM was investigated analyzed usingby thermally assisted 21 22 hydrolysis and methylation (THM) using tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAH) coupled to a gas chromatograph and mass spectrometer-(THM GC MS) during inter storm conditions 23 and five storm events with a high frequency sampling gives new insights on this question. In 24 25 inter-storm conditions, stream DOM is derived from the flushing of soil DOM, while during 26 storm events, the modification of the distribution of chemical biomarkers allows the 27 identification of three additional mechanisms. The first one corresponds to the destabilization 28 of microbial biofilms by due to the increase in water velocity resulting in the fleeting export 29 of a microbial pool. The second mechanism corresponds to the erosion of soils and river 30 banks leading to a partition of organic matter between particles and dissolved phase. The third

mechanism is linked to the increase in water velocity in soils that could induce the erosion of 1 2 macropore walls, leading to an in-soil partitioning between soil microparticles and dissolved 3 phase. The contribution of this in-soil erosive process would be linked to the magnitude of the hydraulic gradient following the rise of water table and could persist after the recession, 4 5 which could explain why the return to inter-storm composition of DOM does not follow the 6 same temporal scheme as the discharge. Those results are of main importance to understand 7 the transfer of nutrients and micropollutants at the soil-river interfaces during the hot 8 moments that are storm events.

9

10 **1** Introduction

11 The transfer of dissolved organic matter (DOM) at across soil-river interfaces is a globally relevant carbon flux (Cole et al., 2007) and a major controls on the biogeochemistry of 12 micropollutants and the equilibrium between continental and oceanic C reservoirs 13 (Corapcioglu and Jiang, 1993; Raymond et al., 2013). Then determining While the 14 mechanisms governing this transfer mechanisms of DOM is of main importance for have clear 15 16 ecological, societal and geochemical reasonsimplications, key unknowns persist concerning 17 the production and transfer of DOM across terrestrial-aquatic interfaces (Kicklighter et al., 18 2013; Lambert et al., 2014). Understanding DOM dynamicsin headwater catchments is 19 particularly important because over 90% of stream length occurs in small catchments (Bishop 20 et al., 2008) and DOM yield per square meter is highest in headwaters . The concentration of DOM generally decreasing from headwater to large river catchments (Ågren et al., 2007),), 21 resulting in a large proportion of river DOM ultimately coming from headwater catchment 22 23 soils (Billett et al., 2006; Morel et al., 2009). there is nowadays a widely accepted consensus 24 that a large proportion of river DOM ultimately come from headwater catchment soils (Billett et al., 2006; Morel et al., 2009). Unraveling the processes by which DOM is transferred from 25 soils to headwater streams and understanding how these processes control the chemistry of 26 27 the exported DOM are therefore two challenging issues of this research. 28 Organic matter sources are typically abundant in headwater catchment soil, meaning that 29 DOM flux depends primarily on water flow path (McDonnell, 2003; Morel et al., 2009), 30 which changes at seasonal and event scales in response to hydroclimatic conditions The

31 export of soil DOM in headwater catchments is controlled by water flow paths which may

32 change both at seasonal and event scales, depending on hydroclimatic conditions (Hinton et

al., 1998). Because storm events connect a larger portion of the landscape with surface waters, 1 more than 60% of annual dissolved organic carbon (DOC; the parameter commonly used to 2 3 quantify DOM concentration) load can occur More than 60% of the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) exported annually is transferred during storm events highlighting them as hot 4 5 moments in the continental C cycle (Morel et al., 2009). During storm events, the increase in discharge is associated with an increase in DOC concentrations typically increases during 6 7 storm events as elevated water table and enhanced near-surface flow cause leaching of (the 8 parameter commonly used to quantify DOM concentrations) associated with changing flow 9 path circulations due to the rise of water table, which results in the leaching of DOM-rich soil 10 horizons (Maurice et al., 2002; McGlynn and McDonnell, 2003).

11 The shift in flow paths during Sstorm events can also cause are also associated with changes 12 in DOM composition and biodegradability (McLaughlin and Kaplan, 2013). Low frequency 13 spectroscopic measurements of Compositional changes have been recorded using different 14 spectroscopic measurements namely UV-absorbance and fluorescence suggested that . The 15 first results were obtained using low frequency spectroscopic measurements and have 16 highlighted that DOM aromaticity increased increases during storm events, potentially due to 17 mobilization of aromatic DOM from surface soil horizons (Hood et al., 2006; Maurice et al., 2002). It has been attributed to the mobilization of aromatic DOM from surface soil horizons 18 19 with the rise of water table. However high frequency spectroscopic measurements have 20 shown that concentration and composition were are not always linked and that compositional 21 differences in DOM can persist long after concentration returns to pre-event levels the return to pre event values was much longer for compositional indices than for concentration 22 23 (Austnes et al., 2010; Knorr, 2013; Saraceno et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2013). This was-shift in 24 DOM signature has been attributed to interpreted as an evidence for in-stream production of 25 fluorescing DOM (Austnes et al., 2010) or for a continuoussustained hydrologic contribution 26 of from surface soil horizons to the DOM export, even after the return to low-flow conditions 27 (Strohmeier et al., 2013).

28 <u>Molecular</u> <u>Analysis of the molecular composition of DOM during low and high-flow</u> 29 <u>conditions is considerably less data investigating the differences in DOM composition</u> 30 <u>between low flow and high flow conditions are less</u> common than spectroscopic data <u>due to</u> 31 <u>analytical cost and complexity. However, and comprise mostly</u> low frequency lignin phenol 32 data indicate that less-degraded lignins are mobilized during storm events potentially due to

the mobilization of particles by erosion combined with partitioning of the lignin compounds 1 between the solid and dissolved phase (Dalzell et al., 2005; Hernes et al., 2008). Those data 2 3 on lignin phenols highlight a modification in the DOM composition with less degraded ligning being mobilized during storm events. Since those modifications were correlated with 4 the amount of suspended sediments in the water column, they have been interpreted as the 5 mobilization of particles by erosion combined with partitioning of the lignin compounds 6 7 between the solid and dissolved phase. This partitioning process could be linked to the in-8 stream production of fluorescing DOM suggested by(-Austnes et al., (2010). However 9 because molecular data are typically collected those data have been acquired using low 10 frequency water sampling strategies (one sample per storm event), it is not possible to evaluate the persistence of shifts in DOM and cannot be used therefore to investigate the 11 12 persistence of the DOM-aromatic fingerprint after storm events. 13 Thus, according to the existing database on These asymmetrical shifts in DOM composition

14 variation-during and after storm events suggest, it appears that in addition to changing flow 15 path and DOM transport, storm events alter mechanisms of DOM production or processing. 16 To test this hypothesis, we collected high-frequency molecular data during five successive 17 storm events and we compared them with the transfer of DOM in headwater catchments could not be regarded as simply the passive transfer of a surface soil DOM component leached by 18 the water table rise. Other processes seems to be involved implying either a modification of 19 the DOM composition on its way from its soil source to the stream or the involvement of 20 additional DOM sources specifically generated and mobilized during the storm events. 21 22 Answering these questions requires acquiring (i) high frequency data on DOM composition during storm events, at a level sufficient to allow identification of theses possible additional 23 24 sources and mechanisms and (ii) background information on the molecular composition of soil organic matter (SOM), soil DOM and inter-storm river DOM in a lowland headwater 25 26 catchment in Brittany, France. Moreover those data should be comparable with spectroscopic 27 and molecular data available in the literature.

Among the different techniques available to study the molecular composition of DOM, Molecular data generated by thermally assisted hydrolysis and methylation (THM) using tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAH) coupled to a gas chromatograph and mass spectrometer (THM-GC-MS) seems to be particularly suitable. This technique can be used to simultaneously analyze phenol markers from lignins (LIG) and tannins (LIG-TAN),

carbohydrates (CAR) and fatty acids (FA) (Grasset et al., 2009). LIG-and-TAN are 1 2 commonly used to monitor the input of terrestrially-derived OM to oceans (Hedges and 3 Parker, 1976) and their investigation has led to the partitioning process invoked for lignin compounds during storm events (Dalzell et al., 2005; Hernes et al., 2008). Analysis of CAR 4 5 can differentiate between plant-derived and microbial inputs (Rumpel and Dignac, 2006) 6 since the distribution of non-cellulosic monosaccharides is dominated by pentose (C5) for 7 plant-derived inputs and by hexose (C6) and deoxyhexose (deoxyC6) for microbial inputs. 8 Similar to CAR, the distribution of FA differs in plant-derived and microbial inputs 9 (Cranwell, 1974; Eglinton and Hamilton, 1967; Lucas García et al., 2001; Matsuda and 10 Koyama, 1977). The combination of those markers allows the investigation of the balance between microbial and plant-derived markers differentiating between soil DOM from organic-11 12 rich, characterized by high proportion of plant-derived markers, and organic-poor horizons, 13 characterized by high proportion of microbial markers, in a wetland submitted to fluctuating water-table level and being correlated with the specific UV absorbance (SUVA) at 254 nm 14 15 (Jeanneau et al., 2014). 16 In this study, high frequency molecular data were obtained on five successive storm events 17 that were sampled at the outlet of the Kervidy Naizin catchment, a lowland headwater catchment occurring in Brittany, France. This catchment was preferentially selected due to 18

previous studies on its hydrological responses to storm events (Aubert et al., 2013; Durand 19 and Juan Torres, 1996; Morel et al., 2009), and on its DOM sources and transfer processes 20 (Lambert et al., 2011, 2013, 2014; Morel et al., 2009). Moreover this study takes advantages 21 of previous knowledge acquired during the hydrologic year 2010 2011 on (i) the temporal 22 variations of the distribution of biomarkers, including lignin phenols, in soil DOM of the 23 24 Mercy Wetland (France) that is the main contributor of DOM in the Kervidy catchment 25 (Jeanneau et al., 2014; Morel et al., 2009) and (ii) the high frequency sampling of stream water during winter storm events with previously investigated isotopic (δ^{43} C) and 26 hydrochemistry ([DOC], [Cl⁻], [NO₃⁻], [SO₄²-]) data at the outlet of the Kervidy catchment 27 (Lambert et al., 2014). Three Two main issues are addressed in this paperquestions motivated 28 29 our work. First,: (i) how does the molecular composition of DOM vary during one single 30 storm event, and in between the five investigated storm events; do we see seasonal trends? ; 31 (ii)Second, what new insights can molecular data provide on the sources and transfer 32 mechanisms of DOM during storms? is there a correlation between the variability of 33 molecular biomarkers during storms and the variation of more global DOM characteristics

1 such as the UV absorbance? (iii) What new constraints do the molecular data set on the

- 2 sources and transfer mechanisms of DOM during storms in this catchment?
- 3

4 2 Materials and methods

5 2.1 Site description

6 We collected samples from the outlet of the Kervidy-Naizin catchment, a 4.9 km² lowland 7 catchment located in central Brittany in western France (Figure 1). The catchment is a part of 8 a long-term monitoring research program aimed at understanding the impact of agricultural 9 intensification and climate change on hydrologic processes and water quality. Numerous 10 hydrological and biogeochemical studies have already been undertaken at this site (Lambert et 11 al., 2013 and references therein) including investigating the effect of storm events on hydrology (Aubert et al., 2013; Durand and Juan Torres, 1996; Morel et al., 2009) and DOM 12 sources and transfer processes (Lambert et al., 2011, 2013, 2014; Morel et al., 2009). This 13 14 research was conducted in the Kervidy Naizin catchment which is a 4.9 km² lowland 15 catchment located in central Brittany, western France (Figure 1). Numerous hydrological and 16 biogeochemical studies have already been undertaken at this site, which belongs to a long-17 term monitoring research program aimed at understanding the impact of agricultural intensification and climate change on water pathways and water quality (Aubert et al., 2013; 18 Lambert et al., 2013 and references therein). Only the information required for this study is 19 presented here. 20

21 The Kervidy-Naizin catchment has a temperate oceanic climate- with The-mean annual temperature and precipitation (1993-2011) are-of_10.7°C and 814 mm, respectively. Rainfall 22 23 events rarely exceed 20 mm per day, with and 80% of rainfall events having have an intensity of less than 4 mm per hour. The stream is ephemeral and aften does not flow generally dries 24 25 up-from the end of August to October due to the small volume of water stored in the bedrock. 26 The hH igh-flow stage generally lasts from December to April, with maximum discharges 27 occurring duringin February and March. Catchment topography is gentle, with hillslope gradients of less than 5% and elevation ranging from 93 to 135 m above sea level. Soil depth 28 29 ranges from 0.5 to 1.5 m with soils classified as silty loams, specifically Stagnic fluvisols (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2006) developed from alluvial material and Brioverian schist. 30

1 2 locally fractured but generally impermeable unmodified bedrock. 3 The elevation ranges from 93 to 135 m above sea level, with hillslope gradients of less than 4 5%. The soils are silty loams, with depths ranging from 0.5 to 1.5 m, and are classified as 5 Stagnic fluvisols (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2006) developed from alluvial material and 6 Brioverian schists. The aquifer in the Kervidy Naizin catchment consists mainly of the 7 unconsolidated weathered bedrock, the deeper fresh bedrock, though locally fractured, being 8 generally considered impermeable. In this aquifer, the groundwater flows from upland down 9 to bottom land all the year round and feeds the stream. The hydrologic regime is characterized by three distinct periods (Lambert et al., 2013; 10 Molenat et al., 2008). First, in the autumn, the water table reaches the riparian zone but 11 12 remains below the surface in the upland domain (period A). Second, as precipitation increases 13 through the winter, the water table rises in the upland domain, connecting upland and riparian 14 areas hydrologically and consequently increasing upland groundwater flow towards the 15 riparian zone (period B). Third, in late spring and summer, upland groundwater flow 16 decreases progressively resulting in a gradual air-drying of wetland soils (period C). 17 The extent of interaction between the organic-rich soils and groundwater fluctuates strongly 18 with hydroclimatic conditions within and between years. During dry hydrologic years, it may 19 be restricted to riparian or wetland areas, which represent less than 5% of the total catchment 20 area. Conversely, during wet hydrological years, water table may be in contact with 20% of 21 the total catchment surface area (Crave and Gascuel-Odoux, 1997). 22 Along hillslopes, the water table depth is typically 0-10 m. In bottom land areas, the water 23 table is near the soil surface during the wet season and the uppermost layer of the 24 groundwater thus flows through the organic rich horizon of the soils. The surface area of this 25 domain of interaction between the organic rich part of soils and the groundwater flow depends strongly on the hydroclimatic conditions. During dry hydrologic years, it may be 26 27 restricted to the riparian, wetland domains representing less than 5% of the total catchment area. During wet hydrological years, the upper limit moves upwards in the hillslopes, and the 28 surface area of this domain may increase up to 20% of the total catchment surface area (Crave 29 30 and Gascuel Odoux, 1997).

31 Previous studies have evidenced the occurrence of three distinct hydrological periods in the 32 Kervidy Naizin on the basis of the seasonality of water table depth fluctuations in wetland

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Mis en forme : Éviter veuves et orphelines, Espacement automatique entre les caractères asiatiques et latins. Espacement automatique entre les caractères asiatiques et les chiffres, Taquets de tabulation : Pas à 0,99 cm + 1,98 cm + 2,96 cm + 3,95 cm + 4,94 cm + 5,93 cm + 6,91 cm + 7,9 cm + 8,89 cm + 9,88 cm + 10,86 cm 11,85 cm

and upland domains (Lambert et al., 2013; Molenat et al., 2008). First, after the dry summer,
 the water table starts to rise in the riparian zone but remains deep in the upland domain
 (period A). Second, as precipitation increases, the water table rises in the upland domain
 resulting in the establishment of a hydrological connection between riparian and upland
 domains and the subsequent increase of upland groundwater flow towards the riparian zone
 (period B). Third, in late spring and during summer, upland groundwater flow decreases
 progressively resulting in a gradual air drying of wetland soils (period C).

8 2.2 Previous data

9 2.2.1 Molecular data on SOM and soil DOM

10 The molecular composition of SOM and the spatio-temporal variation of the molecular composition of soil DOM were investigated in the central, most widespread wetland zone of 11 12 the catchment (so-called Mercy wetland) during the hydrologic year 2010-2011 (Jeanneau et al., 2014). Concerning SOM, the proportion of LIG-TAN, CAR and FA were 16, 29 and 55 % 13 14 and 4, 3 and 93 % in the organo-mineral and mineral horizons, respectively. The deoxyC6/C5 15 ratio was 0.4 and 0.2 in the organo-mineral and mineral horizons, respectively and the proportion of plant-derived markers was 88 and 71 % in the organo-mineral and mineral 16 17 horizons, respectively.

18 During hydrologic period B, when the five studied storm events were sampled, there was a 19 clear differentiation between surface (10 cm) and deep (50 cm) soil DOM. In the surface 20 horizons, the proportion of plant-derived markers remained higher than 70% with a mean 21 value of 0.8 ± 0.1 (standard deviation) for the ratio deoxyC6/C5. while While in the deep 22 horizon, this proportion was lower than 30% with a mean value of 1.3±0.2 (standard 23 deviation) for the ratio deoxyC6/C5. Molecular data were well correlated along the depth 24 profile with SUVA values at 254 nm (SUVA against deoxyC6/C5, R² = 0.75, p value < 0.0001, n = 37) that exhibited a clear differentiation between soil DOM sampled in surface 25 $(4.1 \pm 0.4 \text{ Lmg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1})$ and deep $(2.5 \pm 0.7 \text{ Lmg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1})$ horizons (Lambert et al., 2013). 26

27 2.2.2 Previous data on river samples

28 The composition of DOM in the river during the five studied storm events was previously 29 investigated using δ^{13} C values (Lambert et al., 2014). The intra-storm variability of δ^{13} C

30 values ranged between the values recorded in the soil solution of the organic-rich surface

horizon at the beginning of storm events and of the organic-poor deep horizon at the end of 1 2 storm events. We separated the storm-flow hydrograph into three successive components: 3 Those data were in accordance with the end member mixing approach (EMMA) developed using nitrate, sulfate and DOC concentrations in order to determine the contributions of rain 4 water, deep groundwater, shallow riparian groundwater and hillslope groundwater. The 5 storm flow generation was decomposed in three successive steps: (i) an overland flow above 6 7 the saturated wetland soil horizons; (ii) a subsurface flow through the uppermost organic-rich 8 horizon of wetland soils; and (iii) a-subsurface return flow from shallow hillslope 9 groundwater flowing passing through deeper organic-poor soil horizons in of-wetlands soils (Lambert et al., 2011, 2014). Those data tend to support the concept of a storm DOM flux 10 generated by the mobilization of pre-existing DOM pools via the rise of the water table. These 11 12 patterns supported the hypothesis that a portion of DOM flux during storm is generated by 13 mobilization of pre-existing DOM pools during water table rise.

14 2.3 Sampling

Soils from the Mercy wetland were sampled <u>using with a hand auger on in October 2010</u>.
Three sample subsets were collected in the organo-mineral (0-10 cm) and the mineral (30-40
cm) horizons. After removal of roots and gravels by <u>eyehand</u>, all samples were freeze-dried and crushed using an agate mortar.

19 The five studied Five storm events were sampled between December 04, 2010 and February 20 19, 2011, during hydrological period B, when wetland soils are most hydrologically connected to stream flow (Figure 2). Their nNumbering corresponds to those used in the 21 22 previous paper byof storm events follows Lambert et al. (2014). Events 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 were 23 sampled on December 4, December 19, January 6, February 13 and February 19, respectively. 24 An automatic gauge station at the outlet of the catchment recorded stream discharge Stream discharge was recorded every minute with an automatic gauge station located at the outlet of 25 the catchment. The beginning and the end of a flood are was determined respectively by an 26 increase and a decrease of the stream discharge of > 1 L s⁻¹ in over 10 minutes at the stage 27 recorder. Turbidity was monitored using anby a APC-TU Ponselle sensor with a measure 28 every 30 seconds, with averaged every 10 minute averages reordeds. Cumulative 29 30 rainfallRainfall amounts arewas continuously monitoredrecorded every hour at on an hourly 31 interval basis using a weather station located ca. 300 m away from the catchment outlet. Storm stream water samples (1 L) were collected 0.4 m above the river bed using a 32

refrigerated (4°C) An automatic sampler (Sigma 900 Max) collected 1 L stream water during 1 2 storms which were stored at 4°C in polypropylene (PP) bottles in a shed at the outlet of the 3 catchment installed in a technical hut located at the outlet of the catchment (Figure 1) and 4 were stored in polypropylene (PP) bottles. Sampling frequency during the monitored storm 5 events varied from one sample every 30 min to one sample every hour, depending on the hydrograph variations. Base flow During baseflow conditionsbetween storms, we collected 6 7 manual samples daily waters between each storm event were collected manually on a daily basis (5 p.m.) in 60 mL PP bottles for DOC monitoring and fortnightly every two weeks in 1 8 9 L glass bottles for isotopic and molecular investigationsanalyses. Stream water was filtered at 0.22 µm using cellulose acetate membrane filters previously-pre-washed with 500 mL of de-10 ionized water and rinsed with a few mL of the sample itself. Filtered water samples were then 11 12 acidified using 1 N HCl (1 mL per L of sample) to remove inorganic carbon, and finally and 13 then were frozen and freeze-dried.

14 2.4 Analytical procedure

15 Approximately We introduced approximately 2 mg of solid residue (soil or lyophilizate) was 16 introduced-into an 80 µL aluminum reactor with an excess of solid tetramethylammonium 17 hydroxide (TMAH - ca. 10 mg). The THM reaction was performed on-line using a vertical 18 micro-furnace pyrolyser PZ-2020D (Frontier Laboratories, Japan) operating at 400°C during 19 for 1 minute. The products of this reaction were injected into a gas chromatograph (GC) GC-20 2010 (Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with a SLB 5MS capillary column in the split mode (60 m 21 \times 0.25 mm ID, 0.25 µm film thickness)-in the split mode. The split ratio was adapted 22 according to the sample and ranged from 15 to 30. The temperature of the transfer line was 321°C and the temperature of the injection port was 310°C. The oven temperature was 23 programmed from to maintain an initial temperature of 50°C (held for 2 minutes, then rise) 24 25 rising to 150°C at 15°C 4min⁻¹, and then rise rising from 150°C to 310°C at 3 °C min⁻¹ where it stayed for 14 minutes(held for 14 min) at 3°C/min. Helium was used as the carrier gas, with 26 27 a flow rate of 1.0 ml/min. Compounds were detected using a QP2010+ mass spectrometer 28 (MS) (Shimadzu, Japan) operating in the full scan mode. The temperature of the transfer line was set at 280°C, the ionization source at 200°C, and molecules were ionized by electron 29 impact using an energy of 70 eV. The temperature of the ionization source was set at 200°C. 30 31 The list of analyzed compounds and m/z ratios used for their integration are given in the 32 supplementary materials (Table S1). Compounds were identified on the basis of their full-

Mis en forme : Exposant Mis en forme : Exposant

scan mass spectra by comparison with the NIST library and with published data (Nierop et al., 1 2005; Nierop and Verstraten, 2004). They were classified into three categories: lignin (LIG) 2 3 and tannin (LIG-TAN) markers, carbohydrates (CAR) and fatty acids (FA). The peak area of 4 the selected m/z for each compound was integrated and corrected by a mass spectra factor 5 (MSF) calculated as the reciprocal of the proportion of the fragment used for the integration and (used for the integration) relating to the entire fragmentogram provided by the NIST 6 7 library. The proportion of each compound class was calculated by dividing the sum of the 8 areas of the compounds in this class by the sum of the peak areas of all analyzed compounds 9 multiplied by 100 in order to expressed it as a percentage. Since no internal standards were 10 used, these data must be handled in a qualitative waywere interpreted qualitatively. Five samples were analyzed in triplicate in order to investigate the experimental repeatability of the 11 12 analysisto quantify reproducibility of the analysis. The relative standard deviation (RSD) 13 calculated for CAR-carbohydrate proxy, LIGlignin-tannin proxies and the proportion of plant-14 derived markers was 9, 10 and 6%, respectively. The uncertainties given in Figures 3, 4, 5 and 15 S1 correspond to these mean RSD values. The use of THM-GC-MS to investigate the temporal variability of the DOM composition meant that it was necessary to assume that the 16 17 ionization efficiency and matrix effects are equivalent for all analyzed compounds in all 18 samples.

19

2.5 Treatment Analysis of molecular data

We used two metrics to investigate the distribution of lignin-tannin markers produced by the
 THM reaction. First, we used the ratio of the sum of coumaric and ferulic acid to the sum of
 vanillic acid, vanillaldehyde and acetovanillone (C/V ratio). Second, we used the ratio of
 vanillic acid to vanillaldehyde (Ac/Al (V) ratio).

The classification of <u>We classified</u> molecular markers generated by THM-GC-MS into microbial and plant-derived markers <u>as described by has been performed according to</u> Jeanneau et al. (2014). Briefly, the analyzed compounds were classified as follow. LIG-TAN<u>lignin-tannins were</u> are characteristic of DOM <u>inherited_derived</u> from plant-derived inputs_sources_whereas <u>CAR-carbohydrates</u> and <u>fatty acidsFA</u> can <u>be inheritedcome</u> from both plant-derived and microbial sources. The proportion of microbial <u>CAR-carbohydrates</u> was calculated using an end-member mixing approach (EMMA; <u>Equation 1</u>) based on the 1 deoxyC6/C5 ratio, assuming that it is 0.5 and 2.0 for plant-derived (deoxyC6/C5_{plant}) and 2 microbial (deoxyC6/C5_{mic}) inputs, respectively (Rumpel and Dignac, 2006):

 $f_{mic}^{CAR} = \left(\frac{deoxyC6}{C5} - \frac{deoxyC6}{C5}_{plant}\right) \div \left(\frac{deoxyC6}{C5}_{mic} - \frac{deoxyC6}{C5}_{plant}\right)$ (1)

-C6 were not considered since they can derive from the THM of cellulose leading to an 3 4 increase of the plant-derived C6 signal. The proportion of microbial FA-fatty acids was 5 calculated as the % low molecular weight FA-fatty acids (< C19) by excluding C16:0 and 6 C18:0, which that can be inherited derive from plant derived or microbial inputs. The 7 microbial FA were composed of C12:0, C13:0, C14:0, C15:0, C17:0, anteiso and iso C15:0 8 and C17:0, iso C16:0, C16:1 and C18:1, which are commonly used as bacterial indicators 9 (Frostegård et al., 1993). The proportion-fraction of microbial markers (f_{mic}) was calculated as the sum of the proportion of microbial CAR (f_{mic}^{CAR}) multiplied by the proportion of CAR 10 $(\%_{CAR})$ plus the proportion of microbial FA (f_{mic}^{FA}) multiplied by the proportion of FA $(\%_{FA})$ 11 (Equation 2):-12

$$f_{mic} = f_{mic}^{CAR} \times \mathscr{N}_{CAR} + f_{mic}^{FA} \times \mathscr{N}_{FA}$$
(2)

From this value, it is possible to calculate the proportion of plant-derived markers among the analyzed compounds (f_{plant}) (Equation 3):

$$f_{mic} + f_{plant} = 100 \tag{3}$$

15 -For this-those_calculations, it is assumed we assume that the modification of the distribution 16 of CAR-carbohydrates and fatty acids was conserved during transport, attributing all 17 differences to the FA would only be due to the relative proportion between these of plant-18 derived and microbial inputs. Although these assumptions still need to be validated by 19 investigating pure and known mixtures of vegetal and microbial sources, this approach can be 20 used to approximate the proportions of plant derived and microbial CAR f_{mic} and f_{plant} .

21

22 3 Results

23 3.1 Soils and soil solution

- 24 Ratios of lignin-tannin composition were poorly associated with spatio-temporal variations of
- 25 the composition of soil DOM in the Mercy wetland Compared with its companion study

(Jeanneau et al., 2014),). However they can differentiate stream DOM between inter-storm 1 and storm conditions (Dalzell et al., 2005; Hernes et al., 2008) leading to the assumption of 2 3 stream DOM produced by an erosive processeompositional ratio on LIG TAN markers were 4 calculated for SOM and soil DOM. In SOM from the Mercy wetland, the ratio C/VC/V ratio, 5 that is the ratio of the sum of coumaric acid and ferulic acid on the sum of vanillic acid, 6 vanilline and acetovanillone, was 1.3 and 1.6 in surface and deep horizons, respectively. The 7 ratio-Ac/Al (V) ratio, that is the ratio of vanillic acid on vanilline, was 2.6 and 1.6 in surface 8 and deep horizons, respectively. In soil DOM from November 29, 2010 to March 11, 2011, 9 the C/V ratio ranged from 0.2 to 0.4 in the surface horizon and remained stable at 0.2 in the deep horizon. The Ac/Al (V) ratio ranged from 7.1 to 12.1 (9.1 \pm 1.7, mean value \pm standard 10 deviation<u>SD</u>) in the surface horizon and from 3.6 to 6.9 (4.7 \pm 1.2, mean value \pm standard 11 deviation<u>SD</u>) in the deep horizon. 12

13 **3.2** River DOM in inter-storm conditions

In river samples from November 28, 2010 to March 8, 2011, f_{plant} the proportion of plantderived markers ranged from 34 to 48% of the all analyzed compounds (Figure 3). Among CARcarbohydrates, the ratio deoxyC6/C5 ranged from 1.0 to 1.6 and heptoses have never been detected in those samples. For LIG TANlignin-tannin, the C/V ratio remained lower than 0.2 with the exception of the sampling of January 7, 2011, which had with a value of 0.5.

19 The Ac/Al (V) ratio ranged from 4.5 to 7.7.

20 3.3 River DOM during storm events

During the five recorded_sampled_storm events, the composition_of_DOM_composition 21 showed shifts in isotopes was modified as highlighted by isotopic (Lambert et al., 2014); 22 23 spectroscopic and molecular markers analyses (Figures 4 and S1, Table 1). The modifications, 24 displayed on Figure 4 for the events 3 and 4, were similar-relatively consistent for the five 25 storm events. At the beginning of storm events, the first sample was characterized by low values of SUVA at 254 nm comprised between 2.0 and 2.8, depending of the storm event. 26 27 Then this value increased from the second sample and remained stable up to the end of the 28 sampling. The higher SUVA values were 3.0 (event 6), 3.2 (event 2), 3.3 (event 5), 3.4 (event 29 3) and 3.5 (event 4).

1	At the molecular level, dDuring the five recorded storm events, f_{plant} the proportion of plant
2	derived makers among the analyzed compounds has_increased from an initial value of 31%
3	(events 2, 4 and 6), 49% (event 3) and 14 % (event 5), reaching maximal values of 63%
4	(event 6) to 82 % (event 3) during peak flow (Figure 5-4 and Table 1). The initial value was
5	31 (events 2, 4 and 6), 49 (event 3) and 14 % (event 5). It increased with the discharge and
6	reached its maximum with the peak flow. This maximum value ranged from 63 (event 6) to
7	82 % (event 3). After the peak flow, f_{plant} the proportion of plant derived markers decreased
8	regularly of by approximately 10 % (events 2, 4, 5 and 6) or remained stable (event 3) up
9	to <u>until</u> the end of the recordingsample collection.
10	The cComposition of CARcarbohydrate, recorded as reflected in by the deoxyC6/C5 ratio,
11	was-also modified-varied during storm events, decreasing with discharge from initial values
12	ranging from 1.5 to 2.7, and reaching its. The initial value was 1.5 (event 3), 1.6 (event 2 and
10	

4), 1.9 (event 6) and 2.7 (event 5). This ratio decreased with the increase of discharge, reached
its-minimal value at the peak flow and then remained remaining stable up to through the end of
the recordingsampling. Among CAR, hHeptoses were detected in the first samples at the
beginning of the all storm events and up to the fifth sample for the event 2 (Figure S2).

The composition of LIG TAN, recorded by the C/V and Ac/Al (V) ratios, metrics of the 17 composition of lignin-tannin werewas modified during storm events. The C/V ratio increased 18 19 with the discharge from 0.2 at the beginning of storm events to 0.5 (event 5), 0.6 (events 2 20 and 4), 0.7 (event 3) and 0.8 (event 6). Depending of the storm event, this value slightly 21 decreased or remained stable up tothrough the end of the samplingrecording. The evolution of 22 the Ac/Al (V) ratio was storm-dependant. For the events 2, 4 and 6, it remained stable around 23 5.0 with a few extreme values that could be considered as outliers, while for the events 3 and 24 5, it decreased from 7.0 to 5.0 with the increase of the discharge and then remained stable up 25 tothrough the end of the recordingsampling.

26

27 4 Discussion

28 4.1 Inter-storm stream DOM

29 The f_{plant} molecular composition of inter-storm stream DOM samples-was characterized by 30 values comprised between composed of a mix of soil DOM from the organic-rich and the

organic-poor horizons (Figure 3). This is in agreement with the flowpath geometry during 1 inter storm conditions, with the wetland being saturated and the lower mineral soil horizon 2 3 characterized by an hydraulic pressure higher than the upper organic mineral horizon. Since fplant the proportion of plant derived markers of clearly differentiated soil DOM differed 4 5 strongly betweenfrom organo-mineral and mineral horizons and was fairly stable during the investigated period (Figure 3Jeanneau et al., 2014), it can be used in an end member mixing 6 7 approach in order to determine the proportions of relative DOM contributions of coming from 8 organo-mineral and mineral horizons. From November 29, 2010 to March 11, 2011 the 9 proportion of stream DOM originating from organo-mineral horizon ranged from 23 and-to 59 % (37 ± 13%, average-mean ± standard errorSE). This confirms previous findings that near-10 surface, organic-rich soils in riparian wetland zones are important DOM sources event during 11 12 non-storm conditions (Strohmeier et al., 2013)., which is in line with the conclusions of 13 Strohmeier et al. (2013) stating that upper organic rich soils in riparian wetland zones are 14 important DOM contributors, even in non-storm conditions.

4.2 Beginning of floods: export of a microbial pool A pulse of microbial DOM at the beginning of storms

17 At the beginning of the storm events f_{plant} the proportion of plant derived markers in of stream DOM was lower than in stream DOM during antecedent inter storm 18 19 conditions decreased, with the exception of event 3. The highest higher value recorded for 20 event 3 was probably-likely due to an increase in discharge the previous day the 62% increase (from 48 to 78 l s⁻¹) of the discharge recorded the day before the event (; Table S2), which 21 could have mobilized microbial compounds before the first sampling. The sStream DOM at 22 23 beginning of storm events was also characterized by higher deoxyC6/C5 ratio than during inter-storm stream DOMconditions and by the occurrence of heptoses. Heptoses have been 24 quantified detected in microbial exopolysaccharides (Jiao et al., 2010) and 25 lipopolysaccharides (Sadovskaya et al., 1998). This-The export of a-microbial pool as 26 27 denoted DOM, evidenced by the high concentrations inpresence of heptoses and other high 28 f_{mic} microbial derived biomarkers was the most important most prevalent for event 5 with where 86% of the analyzed biomarkers being from were of microbial origin during the earliest 29 30 stages of this event the storm. This was the first flood after the establishment onset of reducing 31 conditions in wetland soils (Lambert et al., 2013), when the riparian wetland zones located at the soil-river interface played the role of were a hotspot for of iron biogeochemical reduction
 processes.

3 This microbial pool of microbial DOM could derived come from the flushing of from the microbial lysis products accumulated occurring in soils over the dry period and that would 4 5 have been flushed during the wetting up phase (Christ and David, 1996). However, the five 6 recorded sampled storm events were occurred during the hydrological phase B, where 7 characterized by permanent waterlogging of riparian wetland soils are continuously 8 waterlogged, precluding the possibility of lysis from dessication. As a consequence the 9 wetting up phase, denoted A, had already occurred. Moreover, heptoses were not detected nor 10 in soil DOM ornor in stream DOM sampled-samples in during inter-storm conditions. Alternatively, microbbially-derived DOM Then those compounds could come from be 11 12 characteristic of microbial biofilms in soil macropores or at the wetland-stream interface that 13 likely developed in these zones at that time either directly in the soil macroporosity or at the 14 wetland stream interface (Knorr, 2013), and that could have been are destabilized and 15 transported into the stream by the increase of water velocity at the beginning of storm events 16 (Trulear and Characklis, 1982) at the beginning of storm events. Regardless the mechanism, 17 this pulse of microbial DOM

The export of this microbial pool at the beginning of storm events could perhaps be responsible account for the extreme valuecompositional shift in stream DOM observed with recorded using high-frequency fluorescence measurements and displayed in the literature. The Indeed soil DOM of the first storm samplings samples are is often associated with characterized by high contributions proportions of protein-like chromophores, and low contribution proportions of humic-like chromophores (Knorr, 2013), high fluorescence index, and low SUVA (Inamdar et al., 2011; Vidon et al., 2008).

25 **4.3 Soil erosion as a DOM producer**

Storm events caused a shift in the compositional ratios of lignin-tannin. The C/V ratio
increased from 0.2 to 0.8 and the Ac/Al (V) ratio decreased from 7 to 5 with the exception of
event 6 where it remained stable around 5. These modifications of lignin-tannin transfer from
soils to rivers during flood events are in accordance with data on lignin phenols obtained
along the Big Pine Creek watershed (Dalzell et al., 2005) and the Willow Slough watershed
(Hernes et al., 2008). In both of those watersheds, stream DOM during storms was

1 characterized by higher C/V and lower Ac/Al (V) ratios than DOM sampled during inter-2 storm conditions. Although the differences in analytical techniques makes direct data comparison difficult (Wysocki et al., 2008), the compositional ratios show the same pattern 3 4 during biodegradation with a decrease in the C/V ratio and an increase in the Ac/Al (V) ratio 5 (Kabuyah et al., 2012; Vane et al., 2005). The aforementioned modifications of C/V and Ac/Al (V) ratios have consequently been attributed to the mobilization of less-degraded 6 7 lignins during flood events (Dalzell et al., 2005; Hernes et al., 2008). 8 In soils, the partitioning of OM between the particulate phase (SOM) and the soil solution 9 (soil DOM) occurs continuously with a high soil/water ratio producing soil DOM 10 characterized by low C/V (around 0.2). During storm events, the values of the C/V ratio in 11 stream DOM increased to values higher than those recorded in the soil solutions. Thus stream 12 DOM during storms cannot only result from the passive transfer of pre-existing soil DOM to the stream. Of all the known DOM sources in the catchment, only SOM has C/V values that 13 14 could explain the elevated storm DOM values (Figure 5). In the Willow Slough catchment, 15 the concentration in lignin markers is correlated with the concentrationof suspended matter 16 indicating that a portion of DOM during storm events can be inherited from the partitioning of 17 organic compounds between solid and dissolved phases (Hernes et al., 2008). Lignin-tannin 18 and suspended sediment were also correlated in the present study, as seen in the regression 19 between turbidity and C/V ratio (Figure 6). During storm event, erosion carries particles in 20 water. These low soil/water conditions could induce a displacement of the equilibrium 21 between OM in the solid phase and OM in the dissolved phase, which would lead to DOM 22 with a high C/V (higher or equal to 0.8). Soil erosion and the equilibrium between solid (soil 23 particles) and dissolved (river) phases is likely an additional source of DOM transfer from soil 24 to rivers during storm events. 25 However, the positive relationship between turbidity and C/V ratio occurs primarily during 26 the rising limb of the hydrograph (grey square, $R^2 = 0.68$, p-value < 0.0001, n = 23), whereas 27 after peak discharge, turbidity decreased while the C/V ratio remained high leading to a 28 weaker correlation when all the samples are considered (black square, $R^2 = 0.11$, p-value = 29 0.008, n = 64). The persistence of high C/V ratios during the falling limb of the hydrograph 30 highlights how other DOM production mechanisms inducing low soil/water conditions are 31 also active during storms in addition to soil erosion. This could come from the exposure of

32 new surfaces within soil structure following destabilization and the disaggregation of soil

aggregates during the erosion of macropores walls during storm flow (Wilson et al., 2005).
 Such a mechanism could modify DOM production in soil profile, causing a shift in DOM
 composition persisting past peak flow, without adding suspended solid in the stream, the latter
 particles being physically trapped by the soil matrix.

5 During the five monitored storm events, the compositional ratios calculated on LIG were modified. The C/V ratio increased from 0.2 to 0.8 and the Ac/Al (V) ratio decreased from 7 to 6 7 5 with the exception of event 6 where it remained stable around 5. Those modifications of the 8 composition of LIG transferred from soils to rivers during flood events are in accordance with 9 data on lignin phenols obtained along the Big Pine Creek watershed (Dalzell et al., 2005) and 10 the Willow Slough watershed (Hernes et al., 2008). In both of those watersheds, storm stream DOM was characterized by higher C/V and lower Ac/Al (V) ratios than DOM sampled in 11 12 inter storm conditions. Although the differences in analytical techniques makes the comparison of data difficult (Wysocki et al., 2008), the compositional ratios evolve similarly 13 14 during the biodegradation process with a decrease for the C/V ratio and an increase for the 15 Ac/Al (V) ratio (Kabuyah et al., 2012; Vane et al., 2005). The aforementioned modifications 16 of C/V and Ac/Al (V) ratios have then been attributed to the mobilization of less degraded lignins during flood events (Dalzell et al., 2005; Hernes et al., 2008). 17

18 The values of the C/V ratio recorded during storm events were higher than the values in soil 19 solutions. Thus stream DOM recorded during storm events cannot be viewed simply as 20 resulting from the passive transfer of soil DOM to the stream. Among the different 21 constituents analyzed so far in the catchment, only the SOM presented C/V values that could 22 explain the high storm DOM values (Figure 6). In the Willow Slough catchment, the 23 concentration in lignin markers has been shown to be correlated to the concentration in suspended matter indicating that DOM transferred during storm events can be, in part, 24 25 inherited from the partitioning of organic compounds between solid and dissolved phases 26 (Hernes et al., 2008). Such a correlation between lignin compounds and suspended sediment was also found in the present study, as highlighted by the regression between turbidity and the 27 C/V ratio (Figure 7). Thus, soil erosion and the equilibrium between solid (soil particles) and 28 29 liquid (river) phases is likely to be an additional source of DOM transferred from soil to rivers 30 during storm events. However, this positive relationship was only found for the samples 31 collected during the rising limb of the hydrograph (grey square, $R^2 = 0.68$, p value < 0.0001, n 32 = 23). After the peak discharge, turbidity decreased while the C/V ratio remained high leading

1	to a poor correlation when all the samples are considered (black square, $R^2 = 0.11$, p value =
2	0.008, n = 64). This highlights that the aforementioned soil erosion process alone cannot
3	explain the persistence of high C/V ratios during the falling limb of the hydrograph. Since the
4	complementary DOM production process must have let the C/V ratio high and that the only
5	component that brings a high C/V is SOM, it should be similar to soil erosion, that is to say
6	consisting of a transfer of SOM born components into the circulating water. This could come
7	from the destabilization and the disaggregation of soil aggregates during the erosion of
8	macropores walls due to the increase in water velocity during storm event (Wilson et al.,
9	2005) that could lead to a modification of the composition of DOM produced within the
10	different soil horizons.

11 4.4 Temporal scheme of DOM producing processes during storm events

12 Divergent behavior in the response of DOM concentration and composition to storms as we observed here has been documented in other catchments in various climates, with 13 modifications to DOM composition typically persisting after concentration has returned to 14 15 pre-event levels The increase in the proportion of aromatic DOM during the rising limb of the hydrograph that remained high even after the recession as observed in the present study has 16 17 been described under different climates and for different catchments (Austnes et al., 2010; 18 Knorr, 2013; Singh et al., 2015). This suggests that the mechanisms controlling DOM 19 transport during different hydrologic conditions are general. Our work, in combination with 20 previous results suggests a succession of four distinct mechanisms. It is then probable that the 21 succession of DOM producing mechanisms leading to this pattern can be generalized. The 22 combination of previous and present results could be used to decompose this succession into 23 four distinct mechanisms. First, between storms, DOM comes from the flushing of wetland soils horizons without major compositional changes of DOM during transport. The water 24 25 table level would determine the contriution of organo-mineral and mineral soil horizons during this period. In inter storm conditions, DOM would be derived from the passive 26 (without compositional changes of the DOM during transport) flushing of organic rich and 27 organic poor wetland soil horizons. The contribution of each soil horizon would be controlled 28 29 by the water table level. During Second, at the beginning of a rain events, the increase in 30 water velocity would could induce the destabilization of microbial biofilms, resulting in the export-release of a pulse of microbially-derived DOMof a microbial pool. Third, the rise of 31 the water table, This first stage would be followed by the rise of the water table, which in 32

association with the decrease of lateral hydraulic conductivity with depth (Seibert et al., 2009) 1 2 would induce an increase of the proportion of the water flowing through the upper, organic-3 rich wetland surface horizon in the wetland, causing. This would result in an increase of the 4 stream DOC concentration. In-At the same time, erosion of soils and river-banks would 5 induce an increase of the turbidity, leading to a partition of organic matter between particles and dissolved phase. The contribution-magnitude of the effect of this soil surface erosive 6 7 process on the DOM chemistry would depend on the concentration in-of suspended matter 8 and would therefore decrease during the falling limb of the hydrograph. In the same 9 timeFinally, the increase in water velocity in soils could induce the erosionerode of macropore walls in the soil profile, leading to an in-soil partitioning between soil 10 microparticles and dissolved phase. The contribution of this in-soil erosive process would be 11 12 linked to the magnitude of the hydraulic gradient following the rise of water table. Since the 13 recovery return toof pre-event conditions is takes longer in the soil profile for in soil 14 hydraulic gradient than for discharge (Lambert et al., 2014 – Fig 3.b), this could explain why the compositional proxies of DOM, including biomarkers and spectroscopic measurements, 15 do not recover their pre event values with the same kineticas quickly as stream DOC 16 concentrations. High-frequency sampling Sampling of soil solutions during and after storm 17 events and up to the recovery of until return to pre-event values at the same high frequency 18 19 than deployed for monitoring stream variations-would be necessary to test this these proposed 20 mechanismsin soil erosive process.

21 **4.5 Summary and implications**

22 The results from this study thus highlight We observed striking changes in DOM sources and 23 DOM transfer processes during and between storm and inter storm conditionsevents. 24 Although the source of While DOM during inter-flow-storm conditions appears to be derived 25 from the passive transfer of DOM from riparian wetland soils, during storm periods the DOM have been the DOM contained in the soil horizons of the riparian wetland zones which was 26 passively transferred into the stream, the DOM source and DOM transfer processes were 27 more complex during storm periods. During these periods, the DOM-transferred from soil to 28 the stream was not only due to the flushflushing of DOM already occurring present in soils 29 30 but also to additional sources and production processes that lead to the occurrence increase the 31 proportion of less-degraded molecules in the dissolved phase. Based on the current literature, these Those findings, which appear characteristic to quite general of DOM transfer in lowland 32

catchments worldwide as far as the current literature is concerned, and have two important
 implications.

3 First, these results enhance our understanding of The first one concerns the transfer of 4 micropollutants, which is mainly largely controlled by the complexing properties of OM. The 5 partitioning between soil particles and the dissolved phaseleaching of DOM from SOM 6 during storm events highlighted in this study induced the occurrence in the dissolved 7 phaseincreased the prevalence of of less-biodegraded but molecules, that is to say a DOM of 8 more hydrophobic composition molecules (Kleber and Johnson, 2010). SOM hydrophobicity 9 is assumed believed to be the main driving force of the retention of hydrophobic 10 micropollutants in soils, such as many pesticides and antibiotics (Ji et al., 2011). Increases in less-biodegraded, hydrophobic DOM during storms This DOM producing process could 11 12 therefore lead to hot moments in the<u>enhanced</u> transfer of these harmful compounds from soils to the dissolved phase of streamstreams, water increasing their bioavailability and then 13 consequently their potential for creating undesirable effects, such as antibiotic resistance 14 15 (Hellweger et al., 2011).

The second Secondly, our work has implications for concerns the modeling of the export of 16 DOM from export in headwater catchments. In lowland headwater catchments, up to 80% of 17 18 DOM is transferred during storm events (Raymond and Saiers, 2010), and. In many modeling 19 studies, it is assumed that the DOM transfer process during storm events consists of the flushing of pre-existing soil pools. Since these soil DOM pools-latter are calibrated for 20 21 concentration and composition in term of size (concentration) and nature (composition) using 22 samples taken in inter-storm conditions, these models don't take into account for 23 additionalalternative DOM producing processes which could occur during the water transfer 24 processactivated during storms, such as the surface and subsurface erosion processes 25 proposedsuggested here. This lack-This oversight could explain why modeling studies 26 succeed in reproducing inter-storm DOM concentrations, but not storm flow DOM contents 27 dynamics (Birkel et al., 2014). Increased interactions between geochemists and modelers 28 could accelerate the conceptualization of temporally and spatially variant DOM production mechanisms and should help in improving improve modeling of DOM export-modeling. 29

30

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Table 1. Changes in discharge, DOC concentration and <u>metrics of DOM</u> compositional proxies during the storm events. The v<u>V</u>alues are given for the first, peak discharge_a and final samples.

Event	_	2	3	4	5	6
Date		Dec 4, 2010	Dec 19, 2010	Jan 6, 2011	Feb 13, 2011	Feb 19, 2011
D' 1	beg. ^a	79.8	88.8	59.1	72.8	77.7
Discharge $(\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{s}^{-1})$	max.	177.3	453.1	169.8	167.3	245.1
	end	127.4	113.1	104.0	96.2	102.5
DOC	beg. ^a	7.4	6.6	6.4	7.4	8
$(\text{mg } \text{L}^{-1})$	max. ^b	11.6	12.4	11.5	12.8	15.5
(ing 2)	end	9.8	7.4	8.0	11	9.1
Plant-	beg. ^a	31	49	31	14	31
derived markersf	max. ^b	67	78	70	71	59
(%)	end	57	72	58	60	25
	beg. ^a	1.6	1.5	1.6	2.7	1.9
deoxyC6/C5	max. ^b	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.3
	end	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.2	1.4
	beg. ^a	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
C/V	max. ^b	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.8
	end	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3
	beg. ^a	5.0	7.3	5.5	6.6	5.2
Ac/Al (V)	max. ^b	5.2	5.3	4.6	5.5	4.5
	end	4.7	4.9	4.3	4.8	4.6

Tableau mis en forme



^a Value recorded at the beginning of storm events.

^b Value recorded at the peak discharge.

1 Figure captions

Figure 1. Location mMap of the Kervidy-Naizin critical zone observatory (Brittany, France).
Grey areas located along the channel network indicate the maximum extent of the wetland
zones. The global positioning system cCoordinates of the outlet are 48.0057 North, 2.8313
East (decimal degrees).

Figure 2. Discharge (white area), daily rainfall (black area) and water table level in the
wetland domain (dashed line) during the hydrologic year 2010-2011. Monitored-Sampled
storm events are indicated by numbers and arrows.

9 Figure 3. Temporal change Variation of the molecular composition of inter-storm stream 10 DOM in stream (: compositional ratios included C/V (white triangles LIG TAN), 11 deoxyC6/C5 (black square CAR) and the proportion of f_{plant}) (black triangles). The grey 12 area is delimited by the f_{plant} in soil DOM from the organo-mineral and mineral horizons.

Figure 4. Temporal change in flow and DOC concentration and composition during storm events 3 and 4. The Various units are given indicated in on the axes axis labels. The uncertainties for deoxyC6/C5, f_{plant} C/V and Ac/Al (V) are the mean RSD calculated for five samples analyzed in triplicate.

17 Figure 5. Temporal change in flow (dashed line) and proportion of plant derived markers

18 (black triangles) expressed as the percentage of analyzed compounds during storm event 5.

19 The uncertainties are the mean RSD calculated for five samples analyzed in triplicate.

Figure 6<u>5</u>. Time diagram comparing the v<u>V</u>ariation of the C/V ratio (lignin proxy) in SOM<u></u>.
 soil DOM and DOM from organo-mineral and mineral horizons, and the variation of the C/V

22 ratio in river<u>stream</u> DOM <u>sampled</u> during inter-storm and storm conditions.

23 Figure 7<u>6</u>. Difference of the e<u>C</u>orrelation between turbidity and the C/V ratio (lignin proxy)

during the rising limbs (grey diamonds -p-value < 0.0001) and during entire storm events (grey and black diamonds -p-value = 0.008).

1 Figure 1









Inter-storm stream DOM

deoxyC6/C5







