

The effect of drought on dissolved organic carbon (DOC) release from peatland soil and vegetation sources

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Abstract: Drought conditions are expected to increase in frequency and severity as the climate changes, representing a threat to carbon sequestered in peat soils. Downstream water treatment works are also at risk of regulatory compliance failures and higher treatment costs due to the increase in riverine dissolved organic carbon (DOC) often observed after droughts. More frequent droughts may also shift dominant vegetation in peatlands from *Sphagnum* moss to more drought tolerant species. This paper examines the impact of drought on the production and treatability of DOC from four vegetation litters (*Calluna vulgaris*, *Juncus effusus*, *Molinia caerulea* and *Sphagnum spp.*) and a peat soil. We found that mild droughts caused a 39.6% increase in DOC production from peat and that peat DOC that had been exposed to oxygen was harder to remove by conventional water treatment processes (coagulation/flocculation). Drought had no effect on the amount of DOC production from vegetation litters, however large variation was observed between typical peatland species (*Sphagnum* and *Calluna*) and drought tolerant grassland species (*Juncus* and *Molinia*), with the latter producing more DOC per unit weight. This would therefore suggest the increase in riverine DOC often observed post-drought is due entirely to soil microbial processes and DOC solubility rather than litter-layer effects. Long term shifts in species diversity may, therefore, be the most important impact of drought on litter layer DOC flux, whereas pulses related to drought may be observed in peat soils and are likely to become more common in the future. These results provide evidence in support of catchment management which increases the resilience of peat soils to drought, such as ditch-blocking to raise water-tables.

Keywords: Dissolved organic carbon, DOC, drought, peat, drinking water treatment

36 **1.0 Introduction**

37 Organic rich peat soils are a major global carbon (C) sink (Limpens et al., 2008) which have formed due to the
38 limited decay of recalcitrant plant litter found in peatland areas, coupled with anoxic conditions created by high
39 water-tables slowing decay (Billett et al., 2010; van Breemen, 1995). The extent to which conditions favourable
40 to peat formation exist are threatened by climate change (Clark et al., 2010; Gallego-Sala and Prentice, 2012)
41 and altered precipitation patterns and more frequent droughts may destabilise sequestered C (Evans and
42 Warburton, 2010; Fenner and Freeman, 2011; Freeman et al., 2001a).

43 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) represents a significant flux of carbon from peatlands at around 24% of net
44 ecosystem exchange C uptake (Dinsmore et al., 2010) and can also lead to difficulties for downstream drinking
45 water treatment plants. DOC can cause colour, odour and taste problems in drinking water and so must be
46 removed as best as possible during treatment, commonly by coagulation, flocculation and
47 sedimentation/flotation. Any DOC which remains may act as a substrate for microbial growth in the distribution
48 system (Rodriguez and Sérodes, 2001) and can react during disinfection to form disinfection by-products
49 (DBPs) (Rook, 1974) which may have human health implications due to their potential genotoxicity and
50 carcinogenicity (Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2009).

51 Droughts are projected to become more common under future climate conditions in the UK (Jenkins et al.,
52 2009). Droughts can have drastic consequences for peatland C storage and riverine DOC concentrations due to
53 the 'enzymatic latch' mechanism, whereby decomposition is suppressed due to the inhibitory effect of phenolic
54 compounds. Under drought conditions, the water table is lowered, creating oxic conditions which stimulates
55 phenol oxidase enzymes, thereby reducing the concentration of phenolics and their inhibitory effect on
56 hydrolase enzymes (Fenner and Freeman, 2011; Freeman et al., 2001a). Altered redox conditions can also
57 change the controls on DOC solubility, meaning organic C is not solubilised during the drought but instead
58 flushed from the system once redox conditions return to normal (Clark et al., 2006, 2005; Clark et al., 2011).
59 These processes have led to numerous observations of increased riverine DOC after droughts which may remain
60 elevated for years after the event (Evans et al., 2005; Scott et al., 1998; Watts et al., 2001; Worrall and Burt,
61 2004). How drought affects the treatability of dissolved organic matter (DOM) is less well understood although
62 some authors have noted an increase in the hydrophilic component during droughts and more hydrophobic
63 character post-drought (Clark et al., 2011; Scott et al., 1998; Watts et al., 2001). Hydrophobic DOM is
64 commonly regarded as being easier to remove via coagulation than the hydrophilic fraction (Bond et al., 2011;
65 Matilainen et al., 2010).

66 The impact of climate change on DOC production and drinking water treatment is complex and involves a
67 number of biogeochemical cycles (Ritson et al., 2014b). Vegetative change in peatlands has occurred in the
68 recent past (Chambers et al., 2007b) and is projected to continue with *Sphagnum* mosses, which are favoured for
69 peat formation, giving way to vascular plants (Fenner et al., 2007; Weltzin et al., 2003). Many grassland species
70 (*Juncus effusus*, *Molinia caerulea*) have encroached on peatland areas as a result of anthropogenic pressures
71 such as nutrient deposition and management practices (Berendse, 1994; Chambers et al., 2007a; McCorry and
72 Renou, 2003; Shaw et al., 1996). These species are adapted to higher nutrient availability (Aerts, 1999) and thus
73 can out-compete peatland species if nutrient levels are elevated through, for example, nitrogen deposition
74 (Berendse et al., 2001).

75 Vegetative change has implications for C storage in peatlands, as *Sphagnum* is responsible for a number of
76 mechanisms (e.g. the production of recalcitrant litter) which allow C to be stored over long time periods (van
77 Breemen, 1995). Conversely, many vascular plants can destabilise colonised peat, stimulating decomposition by
78 adding labile C at the surface and through their root systems (Fenner et al. 2007; Gogo et al. 2010). As such, a
79 number of programmes have aimed to promote *Sphagnum* dominance for C storage and other ecosystem
80 services by blocking drainage ditches to re-establish high water tables (Grand-Clement et al., 2013). However,
81 further evidence is needed on the water quality outcomes of such interventions and the implications for water
82 treatment.

83 Previous work has highlighted both the vegetative source and climate controls on production affecting the ease
84 of removal of DOC and the formation of DBPs (Gough et al., 2012; Reckhow et al., 2007; Ritson et al., 2014a;
85 Tang et al., 2013). The present research sought to quantify the effect of drought on peatland DOC flux and any
86 interaction with projected changes in litter input. To this end, climate simulations of varying drought severities
87 defined in terms of percentiles of mean monthly rainfall were performed on four typical peatland vegetation
88 types (*Calluna vulgaris*, *Juncus effusus*, *Molinia caerulea* and *Sphagnum spp.*) and a peat soil. After a six-week
89 drought simulation, the DOC released upon rewetting was analysed in terms of optical properties and
90 coagulation removal efficiency with ferric sulphate to determine: (a) whether drought conditions affect DOC
91 production from peatland litter and soil types and (b) whether peatland species and invasive, drought tolerant
92 vegetation produce different quantities and quality of DOC with respect to drinking water treatment.

93

94 **2.0 Methodology**

95 **2.1 Field site and sample collection**

96 Samples were collected from the Spooners site (51° 07'23.3'' N 3° 45'11.8'' W) in Exmoor National Park, UK at
97 approximately 400 m elevation. Further site details can be found in Ritson et al., (2014a). The site is part of the
98 MIRES project (Arnott, 2010) and was chosen as this area has been highlighted as a marginal peatland which
99 may be vulnerable to climate change (Clark et al., 2010).

100 Samples of vegetation and peat soil were collected in one day in May 2014 and were sealed in airtight bags in a
101 chilled container for transport from the field and stored in the dark at 4°C before use. For vascular plants, litter
102 was collected as standing dead biomass. As the decomposition of *Sphagnum* is a continuum process, the section
103 2-4 cm below the capitulum was taken as equivalent to freshly senesced "litter", as in other studies (e.g.
104 Bragazza *et al.*, 2007). Samples were sorted to remove any vegetation not belonging to the target species and
105 then cut to 2 cm length and homogenised. Peat samples were collected using a screw auger and peat from 10-30
106 cm depth was used in the experiments. Peat samples were sorted to remove as many roots as possible but in sites
107 where *Molinia* was present some fine roots remained.

108 The start times of the drought simulations for different DOC sources were staggered by up to two weeks to
109 allow prompt analysis of water extracts at the end of the experiments. Preliminary work suggested chilled
110 storage gave no significant difference in the amount of water extractable DOC or UV absorbance properties
111 after three weeks of storage in the dark at 4°C.

112

113 **2.2 Experimental Design**

114 The vegetation and peat samples were homogenised by hand and randomly assigned a drought treatment in a
115 five (vegetation types) x four (drought treatments) design with five replicates per treatment, giving 100 samples
116 in total. Similar experiments concerning the decomposition of litter have used three replicates per treatment
117 (Fellman et al., 2013; Soong et al., 2015), suggesting our approach of using five samples per treatment is
118 adequate to capture variability between samples.

119 Data were obtained from regional historic climate records of the UK Meteorological Office for the south west of
120 England for the period 1910-2013 (UK Met Office 2014) and these values were used to define three severities of
121 drought and a control value. Data for the months of June, July and August (310 months in total) were used to
122 find the 50th, 25th, 10th and 5th percentile for total monthly rainfall and these values have been used to set
123 monthly rainfall values for control (79.0 mm), mild (51.5), moderate (34.7) and severe droughts (23.3),
124 respectively.

125 The number of days of rain per month was fixed at a baseline value of eleven (regional average for June, July
126 and August) and temperature ranged between the mean daily maximum of 18.9 for twelve hours and then and
127 the mean daily minimum of 10.7 °C for twelve hours, calculated using the same historical UK Meteorological
128 Office datasets for the south west of England.

129

130 **2.3 Experimental procedure and laboratory methods**

131 As in other decomposition studies, vegetation samples were air-dried to constant weight then mixed before
132 subsampling (e.g. Latter et al., 1998). Five subsamples of each vegetation type were then oven-dried at 70 °C
133 until constant weight, to determine the air-dry to oven-dry conversion factor. The peat samples were not air-
134 dried before use as this would have changed the redox conditions within the peat and created a hydrophobic
135 layer which can cause problems for re-wetting (Worrall et al., 2003). This will mean less accuracy in
136 determining the starting weight of the peat sample as some variation in water content may exist, however this
137 was minimised by effective homogenisation. Elemental analysis on a subsample of the starting material revealed
138 C:N to be in the order peat (29.9), *Molinia* (35.7), *Juncus* (42.2), *Calluna* (56.5) and *Sphagnum* (93.7) as
139 reported in Ritson et al. (2016).

140 Buchner funnels fitted into amber-glass bottles were used to hold the sample and collect the simulated rainfall.
141 Approximately 2 g dry-weight of air-dried vegetation/peat was used, however a lower weight of sample was
142 used for *Sphagnum* (~0.65 g) and *Molinia* (~1.5 g) as this was enough to fill the Buchner funnel. The peat
143 samples were spread over the area of the funnel so that a seal was created and the simulated rainwater infiltrated
144 the peat rather than draining directly into the funnel.

145 The samples were then placed in an incubator for six weeks with simulated rainfall applied eleven times per
146 month at regular intervals using high purity reverse osmosis (RO) treated water, following the methodology of
147 Ritson et al. (2016). Data on final water weight, available in the supplement, confirm degrees of desiccation
148 between the treatments.

149 As the samples were collected from the field and had been in contact with litter and soil, no inoculation with
150 microorganisms was required as a suitable decomposer community was likely to be present (Van Meeteren et
151 al., 2007). In this experiment the action of invertebrates and other microfauna was excluded, however their role

152 in the decay of peatland litter is minimal (Dickinson and Maggs, 1974), although their role in DOC production
153 from peat soils may be more significant (Cole et al., 2002).

154 At the end of the six week simulation the samples were air-dried and weighed. Water extractable DOC from the
155 air dried sample was taken to simulate re-wetting following the end of the drought. DOC was extracted from soil
156 and vegetation samples using approximately 20:1 ratio of RO treated water to sample. The samples were then
157 filtered with pre-ashed GF/F filters (Whatman) and the pH measured. Previous work has shown that the amount
158 of water used to extract DOC and whether one extraction is performed or sequential extractions to simulate
159 multiple rainfall events gives no significant variation in DOC quality, only changes in the total amount of C
160 (Don and Kalbitz, 2005; Soong et al., 2014). DOC was measured as non-purgeable organic carbon (NPOC) via a
161 UV/persulphate oxidation method on a Shimadzu TOC-V instrument. The method detection limit was
162 determined by running five blank samples and using the value of three times the standard deviation. This was
163 found to be 0.05 mgC l⁻¹.

164 UV and fluorescence analysis was undertaken before coagulation/flocculation jar testing. UV absorbance was
165 measured on a Perkin Elma Lambda 3 using a 1-cm pathlength quartz cuvette and the specific absorbance,
166 SUVA, was calculated as the absorbance at 254 nm in units of m⁻¹ divided by the NPOC content (mgC l⁻¹).
167 Fluorescence analysis was completed using a Vary Eclipse fluorescence spectrophotometer where samples were
168 scanned at excitation wavelengths between 220 and 450 nm at 5 nm intervals and the resulting emission
169 recorded between 300 and 600 nm at 2 nm intervals. An R script was produced based on existing scripts
170 (Lapworth and Kinniburgh, 2009) which performed a blank subtraction, masked out Rayleigh and Raman
171 scattering, visualised the data and calculated fluorescence indices. Data were normalised to the Raman
172 scattering peak of a RO water sample to allow comparison to other laboratories (Lawaetz and Stedmon, 2009).
173 The 'peak C' measure, related to humic-like character, and the tryptophan-like peak, 'peak T' were defined as in
174 Beggs et al., (2013).

175 Coagulation was performed on 350 ml of sample diluted to 3 mg l⁻¹ DOC using a Phipps and Bird PB-700
176 paddled jar-tester (Phipps and Bird Ltd., Virginia, USA). After settling, the sample was filtered by Whatman
177 qualitative grade 2 filters to remove flocs before NPOC analysis. Preliminary work indicated the following
178 conditions gave effective DOC removal of similar samples: pH 5.5, 30.0 mg l⁻¹ ferric sulphate dosed with 28.5
179 mg l⁻¹ calcium hydroxide for pH control during a flash mix of one minute at 175 rpm, followed by a slow mix of
180 30 minutes at 60 rpm and then one hour of settling. Assessment of DBP formation was attempted, however
181 analysis within the two week period specified in the method was not possible due to instrument failure so data
182 quality could not be assured.

183

184 **2.4 Data analysis and statistical methods**

185 Statistical analysis was performed in the open source programming language, R, and SPSS version 21 (IBM).
186 Due to problems with normality and heteroscedasticity a Box-Cox transform (Box and Cox, 1964) was applied
187 to the variables before testing with a factorial ANOVA. A Tukey HSD post-hoc procedure was used for
188 pairwise comparisons between the DOC sources and drought conditions. Estimates of effect sizes were made
189 using ω^2 as this is suitable for small samples sizes (Keselman, 1975). Interactive effects from the omnibus
190 ANOVA were followed up using multiple one-way ANOVAs with a Holm-Šidák correction to control the
191 inflation of type one error (Holm, 1979; Šidák, 1967). This method changes the value used for alpha, the

192 significance level, based on how many comparisons have been performed starting with the source with lowest p
 193 value and moving to the next lowest until an insignificant comparison is found. Correlations between variables
 194 were tested using Spearman's ρ (Spearman, 1904) and differences between the start and end of the repetition of
 195 the control group were tested using Student's t test and Levene's test for equal variance (Levene, 1960; Student,
 196 1908).

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198 **2.5 Repetition of the control group conditions**

199 To further investigate the effect of oxygenation of peat on DOC production and treatability, the control
 200 condition of this experiment was repeated in August 2015 using peat samples collected from similar
 201 ombrotrophic peatland sites in Dartmoor National Park (site details available in Ritson et al., 2016). Water
 202 extractable DOC was taken from a subsample before the climate simulation began and analysed for fluorescence
 203 and UV properties. Approximately 3.5 g dry weight of peat was then incubated using the same temperature and
 204 rainfall as the control samples of the drought experiment with three replicates. After six weeks water extractable
 205 DOC was again taken for fluorescence and UV analysis to assess any changes in DOC quality.

206

207 **3.0 Results**

208 **3.1 Omnibus ANOVA**

209 A factorial ANOVA was performed exploring the source, drought and interactive effects on DOC, SUVA, DOC
 210 removal efficiency and the removal of SUVA (Table 1). Extractable DOC and SUVA had significant source,
 211 drought and source*drought effects suggesting that there is variation in the sensitivity of the sources to drought.
 212 No drought effects were observed for DOC removal or SUVA removal, although the source had strong effects
 213 on these parameters. For all significant results the effect size for the source was much greater than that for the
 214 drought treatment.

215

216 **Table 1: p-values from factorial ANOVA (significant values have been highlighted in bold and displayed**
 217 **with ω^2 estimate of effect size in brackets)**

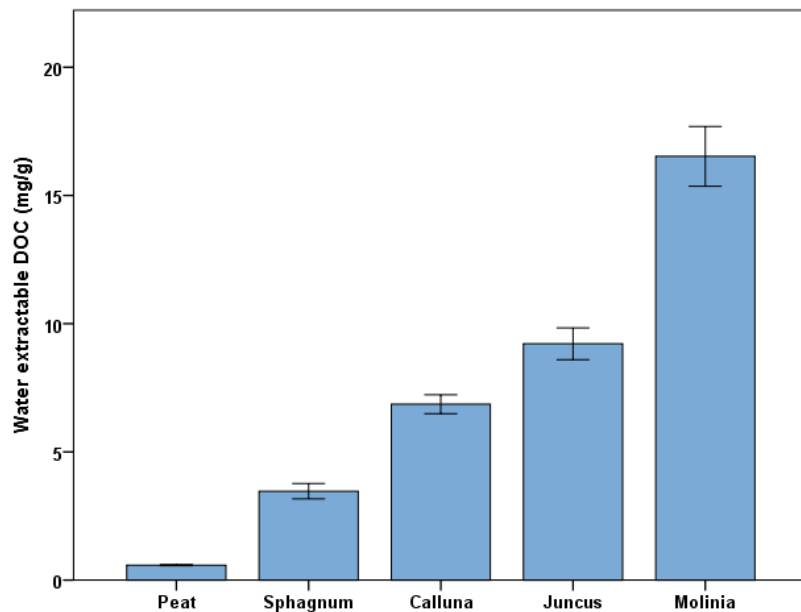
Variable	Water extractable DOC	pH	SUVA	Peak C	Peak T	DOC removal	SUVA removal
DOC source	<0.001 (0.945)	<0.001 (0.429)	<0.001 (0.422)	<0.001 (0.846)	<0.001 (0.675)	<0.001 (0.396)	<0.001 (0.331)
Drought	0.007 (0.004)	0.143	0.007 (0.034)	<0.001 (0.011)	<0.001 (0.035)	0.418	0.475
DOC	0.050	0.157	0.005	<0.001	<0.001	0.234	0.951
source*Drought	(0.004)		(0.054)	(0.095)	(0.177)		

218

219 **3.2 Water extractable DOC**

220 The mean DOC extracted for all samples from each source is shown in Figure 1. The vegetation samples
 221 produced more DOC than the peat soil ($0.58 \pm 0.02 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$) with the peatland species, *Sphagnum* and *Calluna*,
 222 producing 3.47 ± 0.30 and $6.86 \pm 0.37 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$, respectively whereas the grassland species, *Juncus* and *Molinia*,

223 produced much more at 9.21 ± 0.62 and 16.52 ± 1.17 mg g⁻¹, respectively. A Tukey HSD test suggested that all
224 DOC sources have significantly different means at the $p < 0.01$ level except the *Calluna* - *Juncus* comparison
225 which was significantly different at the $p < 0.05$ level.

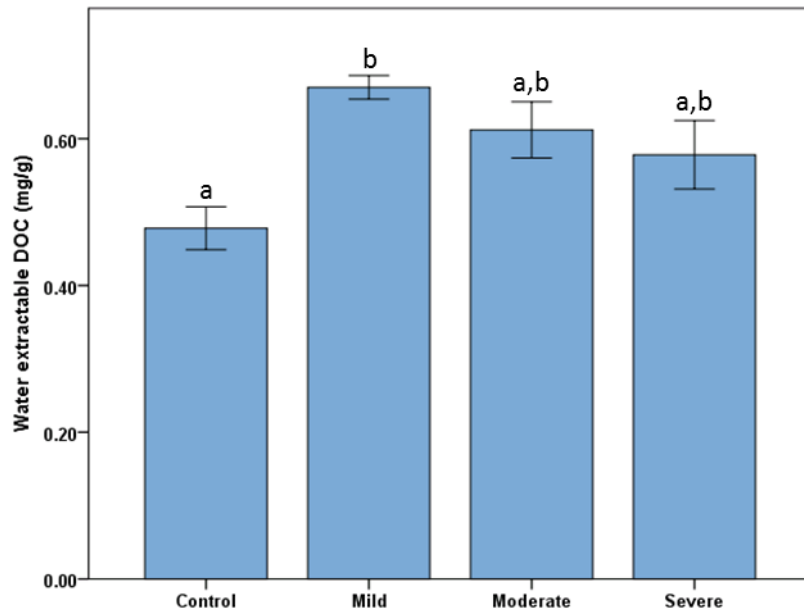


226
227 **Figure 1: Water extractable DOC of all samples across the different DOC sources (n=20 per source).**
228 **Error bars at one standard error.**

229
230 To investigate the source*drought interaction one-way ANOVAs were performed for drought effects on each of
231 the sources using a Holm-Šidák correction to control the inflation of type one error.

232
233 Due to the decrease in the level of significance of the p value in the Holm-Šidák method only the peat source
234 was found to have a drought effect on water extractable DOC ($p=0.010$, $\omega^2=0.393$). The mean values were 0.48,
235 0.67, 0.61 and 0.58 mg g⁻¹ for the control, mild, moderate and severe treatments of the peat DOC, respectively,
236 and this is shown in Figure 2. The mild drought treatment gave a significant increase in extractable DOC,
237 indicated by a Tukey test for comparison to the control group ($p=0.007$). This corresponded to a 39.6% increase
238 in DOC production for the mild drought treatment. A larger standard error in the moderate and severe drought
239 treatments meant that these were not significantly different from the control ($p=0.060$ and $p=0.204$,
240 respectively).

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259 3.3 SUVA and fluorescence

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Figure 2: DOC extracted from peat on rewetting following different severities of drought (n=5 per treatment). Letters indicate statistically similar groups from the Tukey test. Error bars at one standard error.

Variation in peat water content during the experiment was not recorded; however the water content of the peat samples was measured at the end of the experiment. This averaged 16.11, 14.14, 15.11 and 5.95 g with standard errors of 7.7, 3.0, 15.9 and 28.1% for the peat control, mild, moderate and severe drought treatments respectively. The much larger standard error in final water content agrees with observations during the experiment and the variation from group mean in final water content for each sample and the variation from group mean in extractable DOC were found to correlate (Spearman's ρ coefficient 0.484, $p=0.031$). The source also had a significant effect (Table 1) on the pH of the samples with a Tukey test suggesting three statistical subsets with peat and *Calluna* < *Calluna* and *Molinia* < *Sphagnum* and *Juncus*. Mean values were in the order peat (5.92 ± 0.04), *Calluna* (5.98 ± 0.01), *Molinia* (6.03 ± 0.01), *Sphagnum* (6.14 ± 0.02) and *Juncus* (6.17 ± 0.02).

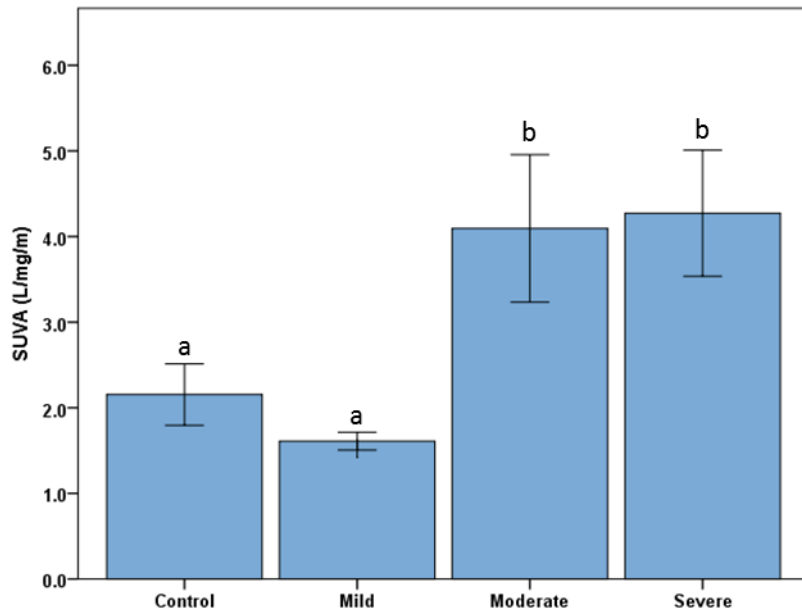
3.3 SUVA and fluorescence

Mean values of SUVA in $L\ mg^{-1}\ m^{-1}$ for the different sources were in the order *Molinia* (3.03 ± 0.38), peat (3.01 ± 0.15), *Juncus* (2.04 ± 0.06), *Calluna* (1.66 ± 0.14) and then *Sphagnum* (1.34 ± 0.13). The Tukey HSD test suggested that the mean values for SUVA formed three subsets with peat and *Molinia* > *Calluna* and *Juncus* > *Calluna* and *Sphagnum*.

To investigate the source*drought interaction one-way ANOVAs were performed for drought effects on SUVA from each of the sources using a Holm-Šidák correction. Only *Molinia* was found to have a significant drought effect on the SUVA value ($p=0.001$, $\omega^2=0.546$).

Tukey's test suggested that both the moderate and severe drought treatments were significantly different than the control ($p=0.045$ and 0.026 , respectively) with means of 2.15, 4.09 and 4.27 $L\ mg^{-1}\ m^{-1}$ for the control,

269 moderate and severe treatment of the *Molinia* DOC, respectively. Figure 3 shows a graph of SUVA for *Molinia*
 270 DOC from the different treatment groups.
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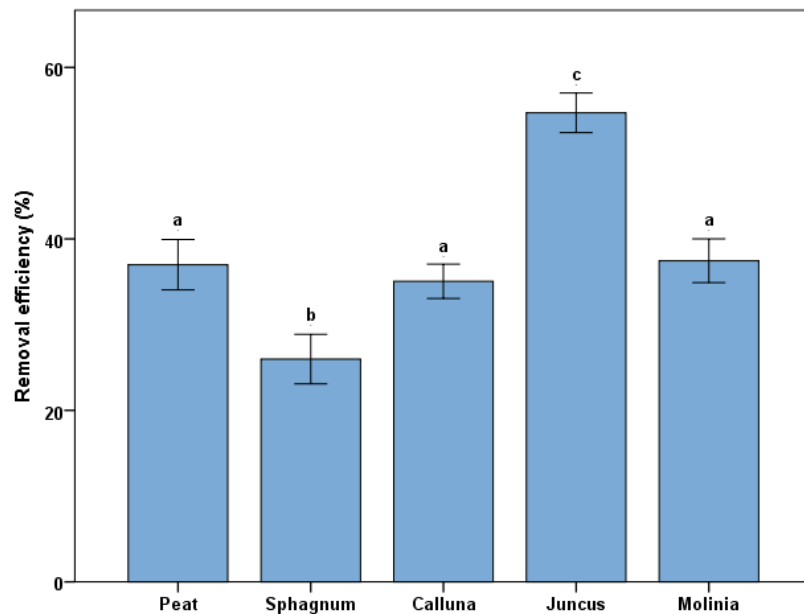
272
 273 **Figure 3: SUVA value of *Molinia caerulea* derived DOC produced under differing severities of drought**
 274 **(n=5 per treatment) with error bars at one standard error. Letters indicate statistically similar groups**
 275 **from the Tukey test.**

276 The fluorescence data suggests interactive effects between drought treatments and the source of the DOC (Table
 277 1) and these was further interrogated using the using a Holm-Šidák method. This suggested that there was a
 278 significant effect of drought on Peak C for both *Juncus* ($p < 0.001$, $\omega^2 = 0.840$) and *Molinia* ($p < 0.001$, $\omega^2 = 0.760$)
 279 with the Tukey test suggesting that the severe drought treatment was significantly lower than the control
 280 ($P < 0.01$). For the peak T fluorescence value drought had a significant effect on *Juncus* DOC ($p < 0.001$, ω^2
 281 $= 0.634$) with the Tukey test suggesting that the severe drought treatment was significantly lower than the
 282 control ($P < 0.01$)

283
 284 **3.4 DOC removal efficiency**

285 The factorial ANOVA suggested no drought effects on removal efficiency ($p = 0.418$). Mean values for DOC
 286 removal by coagulation with ferric sulphate were in the order of *Juncus* (54.7 ± 2.3 %), *Molinia* (37.5 ± 2.6 %),
 287 peat (37.0 ± 2.9 %), *Calluna* (35.1 ± 2.0 %) and then *Sphagnum* (26.0 ± 2.9 %). The Tukey HSD test suggested
 288 that the mean values for DOC removal efficiency fell into three subsets with similar means in the order *Juncus*>
 289 *Molinia*, peat and *Calluna*> *Sphagnum*. The removal efficiency for all samples from each DOC source is shown
 290 in Figure 4.

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293

294 **Figure 4: DOC removal efficiency by coagulation/flocculation for different DOC sources (n=20 for each**
 295 **source, error bars at one standard error, letters indicate statistical subset according to Tukey test).**

296

297 3.5 SUVA removal efficiency

298 The removal of aromaticity, measured by SUVA, is of interest in drinking water treatment as aromatic
 299 compounds have a high propensity to form some of the regulated DBPs on chlorination (Bond et al., 2011).
 300 Large, aromatic compounds are selectively removed by coagulation/flocculation and as expected good removal
 301 (>70%) was observed for most of the samples. The mean values for the reduction in SUVA value following
 302 coagulation with ferric sulphate was in the order of peat (76.6 ± 1.8 %), *Sphagnum* (76.3 ± 2.5 %), *Molinia*
 303 (67.7 ± 4.7 %), *Calluna* (49.6 ± 5.3 %) and then *Juncus* (44.5 ± 2.3 %). The Tukey HSD test suggested that
 304 there were two subsets of DOC sources with similar means with peat, *Sphagnum* and *Molinia* > *Juncus* and
 305 *Calluna*. As with the overall DOC removal efficiency, there were no drought effects on SUVA removal
 306 ($p=0.475$).

307

308 3.6 Correlations between measures of DOC quality and treatability

309 A number of DOC quality indices based on absorbance and fluorescence measures were tested. The correlation
 310 coefficients for the different quality and treatability parameters are shown in Table 2. Peak C, a humic-like
 311 fluorescence peak, showed the best correlation with DOC removal efficiency while the ratio of humic-like to
 312 protein-like fluorescence (Peak C/T) gave a lower but still significant correlation coefficient. The magnitude of
 313 peak C values were in the order *Juncus*>*Molinia*>*Calluna*>peat>*Sphagnum* which is consistent with data on
 314 DOC removal efficiency. The SUVA value showed the best correlation with SUVA removal efficiency,
 315 suggesting that DOM with a lower proportion of aromatic compounds (low SUVA value) contains aromatic
 316 compounds which are harder to remove by coagulation, possibly meaning they are either low molecular weight
 317 and/or also contain hydrophilic groups.

318

319 **Table 2: Spearman's ρ for different DOC quality and treatability measures**

DOC quality measure	Treatability measure	Spearman's ρ
Peak C	DOC removal %	0.578, $p < 0.001$
Peak C/T	DOC removal %	0.268, $p = 0.007$
SUVA	SUVA removal %	0.445, $p < 0.001$
Specific Peak C	SUVA removal %	0.235, $p = 0.019$

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322 **3.7 Repetition of the control group conditions**

323 The data obtained from DOC extracted before and after the repeated simulation were analysed using student's t-
 324 test (equal variances assumed, confirmed using Levene's test) to assess whether the DOC extracted was
 325 significantly different following six weeks of exposure to oxygen without any experimental treatment. The
 326 results of this analysis are shown in Table 3.

327

328 **Table 3: t-tests for pre and post-incubation peat samples (significant differences highlighted in bold)**

Variable	t test	p value	% change
Extractable DOC	5.685	0.005	+41.6
Fluorescence peak C	8.168	0.011	-29.2
Fluorescence C/T	0.180	0.866	Not significant
SUVA	3.195	0.033	-23.0

329

330 Water extractable DOC increased significantly from 0.19 to 0.27 mg g⁻¹, an increase of 41.6%. The SUVA value
 331 decreased at the end of the simulation from 3.62 to 2.85 L mg m⁻¹, as did the fluorescence Peak C measure,
 332 which suggests a decrease in the level of aromaticity and humification of the DOM, respectively. This result
 333 may explain why poorer DOC removal for peat DOC was observed in this experiment than in our previous work
 334 (Ritson et al., 2016) as exposure to oxygen reduces the aromaticity of peat DOM and therefore its amenability to
 335 removal via coagulation.

336

337 **4.0 Discussion**338 **4.1 Water extractable DOC**

339 Taken together, the main effects and interaction ω^2 values suggest that the source of DOC is the most important
 340 factor on extractable DOC and that the effect of drought is significant only for the peat soil and not for the
 341 vegetation. The peat soil was affected by the drought treatment with higher extractable DOC observed at the
 342 mild severity. This finding is consistent with the 'enzymatic latch' hypothesis that increased oxygenation of peat
 343 engages a biogeochemical cascade whereby increased phenol oxidase activity ends the phenol-induced
 344 inhibition of hydrolase enzymes, thus increasing overall organic matter decomposition (Freeman et al., 2001a).
 345 This is also confirmed by the replication of the control treatment which showed exposure to oxygen even in the
 346 absence of drought increased extractable DOC and decreased DOM aromaticity. This finding has implications

347 for all laboratory studies which remove peat from anoxic conditions as these may not be representative of in-situ
348 conditions.

349 No effect was observed with the moderate and severe drought treatments which may be explained by water
350 scarcity limiting microbial activity (Toberman et al., 2008) and/or increased hydrophobic protection decreasing
351 the extractable DOC on rewetting. Observations made throughout the experiment suggested that in the severe
352 treatment there was a large variation in the extent to which each replicate dried out. Once peat becomes dry, a
353 hydrophobic layer forms (Spaccini et al. 2002; Worrall et al. 2003), meaning that less water will infiltrate the
354 sample, therefore possibly increasing the severity of the drought beyond the experimental design. The very low
355 final water content of the severe treatment and observations of drying out and shrinkage of the peat mass
356 throughout the experiment add weight to these possible explanations, although actual rates of microbial
357 respiration were not monitored during the experiment. The correlation between variance in final water content
358 and extractable DOC also suggests the source of variance may be either the application of rainfall or the extent
359 to which each sample dried out. Although hydrophobic protection may limit DOC concentrations on rewetting,
360 in the longer term the effect of oxygenation, described by the enzymatic latch mechanism, will likely mean
361 higher DOC production (Freeman et al., 2001a).

362 The lack of a drought effect on DOC production from any of the vegetation types suggest the pulse in DOC
363 observed post-drought elsewhere in catchment scale studies (Evans et al., 2005; Scott et al., 1998; Watts et al.,
364 2001; Worrall and Burt, 2004) is likely to be due to the oxygenation of peat soils rather than any litter layer
365 effects. Although there was no drought effect, the increase in peat-derived DOC observed on oxygenation
366 (Table 3) is significant for downstream water treatment as our previous work showed this has more
367 environmental persistence than vegetation sources (Ritson et al., 2016) and the UV and fluorescence data
368 suggested DOC from peat exposed to oxygen may be more difficult to remove by conventional treatment
369 measures. High DOC production was noted for the vascular plants, suggesting they may be an important source
370 of DOC within peatland catchments during the period of their senescence, although drought does not affect the
371 amount they produce. Drought conditions may, however, precipitate a change in vegetation type favouring more
372 drought-tolerant species (Bragazza, 2008), which may have longer term effects for peatland biogeochemistry.
373 Correlations between litter C:N ratio, suggesting nutrient availability, and amount of extractable DOC have been
374 found in our previous work (Ritson et al., 2016) and elsewhere in the literature (Soong et al, 2014), suggesting a
375 shift to the drought tolerant *Molinia* and *Juncus* may increase DOC flux from the litter layer.

376

377 **4.2 SUVA and fluorescence**

378 The SUVA value has been linked to the aromaticity of DOM (Weishaar et al., 2003) and is of interest as a
379 predictor of coagulation removal efficiency and DBP formation (Matilainen et al., 2011) in water treatment. The
380 highest SUVA value was observed for the peat soil and *Molinia* litter, and the lowest value for the statistical
381 subset of *Sphagnum* and *Calluna*. In a similar trend to DOM production, it appears that the grassland species
382 produce DOM of greater aromaticity than the peatland species. *Molinia* also showed an interactive effect with
383 the drought treatment, with a greater flux of aromatic compounds at the moderate and severe treatments,
384 suggesting dry conditions are favourable for the breakdown and/or solubilisation of aromatic compounds in
385 *Molinia* litter. *Molinia* DOM may, therefore, contribute to the increase in the aromaticity of peatland DOC

386 observed after droughts at the catchment scale (Scott et al., 1998; Watts et al., 2001), although solubility
387 controls on peat-derived DOM may be more important (Clark et al., 2006, 2005; Clark et al., 2011).
388 No drought effect was found for the SUVA value of peat which is in contrast to field studies which have shown
389 a decrease in aromaticity of DOM during drought due to solubility controls and an increase in aromaticity on
390 rewetting (Evans et al., 2005; Scott et al., 1998; Watts et al., 2001; Worrall et al., 2004). This may be explained
391 by the fact that field studies have shown an increase in DOM aromaticity over many years, whereas this study
392 examined a single rewetting event following drought, so the altered biogeochemical controls on DOM
393 aromaticity may not have had enough time to exert a significant effect. Comparing our results to field findings,
394 then, suggest that a sharp pulse in high aromaticity DOM on rewetting is unlikely but that elevated amounts may
395 be present over longer timescales. The laboratory conditions may also have played a part, as the control sample
396 is likely to have been exposed to more oxygenation through sample collection and setup of the experiment than
397 undisturbed peat in the field, therefore increasing its similarity to the treatment conditions. The changes in DOM
398 properties when the control group was repeated would appear to confirm this hypothesis.

399 A drought effect was observed for peak C (*Juncus* and *Molinia*) and peak T (*Juncus*) with lower values under
400 severe drought. These indices have been described as ‘humic-like’ and ‘protein-like’, respectively, however
401 meaningful interpretation of the moieties responsible is difficult as many compounds can fluoresce in these
402 regions (Aiken, 2014). From Table 2, however, we can suggest that decreases in peak C caused by drought may
403 decrease the amenability of DOC to removal by coagulation.

404 Taken together, the main effects and interaction and ω_2 values suggest that the source of DOM is the most
405 important factor on SUVA and fluorescence and that the effect of drought is significant only for *Molinia* and
406 *Juncus* litter and not for the other vegetation types or the peat soil. These results suggest encroachment of
407 grassland species into the uplands will increase seasonal DOM flux from the litter layer and increase the
408 aromaticity of exported DOM and create a small drought effect where *Molinia* or *Juncus* litter is present. The
409 lack of a drought effect for peat SUVA suggests that short pulses of highly aromatic DOM are unlikely to be
410 observed but long-term effects caused by water table drawdown identified elsewhere in the literature indicate
411 elevated DOC concentration and SUVA values over periods of years following droughts. The effect of more
412 frequent, repeated droughts and the ability of peat soils to recover remains an area for further research.

413

414 **4.3 DOC and SUVA removal**

415 DOC removal for all sources were typical of literature values (Matilainen et al., 2010), with *Juncus* DOC
416 proving the easiest to remove and *Sphagnum* DOC the hardest. *Sphagnum* DOC showed good removal of
417 SUVA despite relatively poor removal of total DOC, suggesting the aromatic compounds present in the sample
418 are easily removed but that a large pool of aliphatic compounds are also present and these are more difficult to
419 treat by conventional means. Repeating the control condition and measuring DOC production and quality
420 parameters allowed an estimate of the effect of oxygen exposure for peat samples. This showed a decrease in
421 SUVA value and humic-like character (fluorescence Peak C) as well as a large increase in extractable DOC.
422 These changes in quality parameters may provide an explanation of why poorer removal by coagulation was
423 achieved for peat following this drought experiment than had been observed in our previous work (Ritson et al.,
424 2016). In Ritson et al. 2016, coagulation experiments were performed on DOC extracted from fresh peat which
425 had been exposed to a minimal amount of oxygenation during transport and very good removal by

426 coagulation/flocculation was found. In contrast, the experiments reported here on peat exposed to oxygen
427 showed comparatively poor removal via coagulation/flocculation. The repetition of the control group indicates
428 that any exposure to oxygenation can decrease the SUVA and Peak C values of DOC extracted from peat and
429 both of these parameters have been linked to ease of treatability of DOC (Matilainen et al., 2011). Poorer
430 removal was observed for *Sphagnum* than in our previous work; the effect of more oxygenated conditions on
431 vegetation decomposition remains an area for further research, particularly as climate change may increase the
432 likelihood of water table draw down in peatlands.
433 The coagulation removal efficiency could best be explained by the Peak C fluorescence index, suggesting humic
434 substances content was the strongest predictor of DOC removal. This is in contrast to our previous work which
435 found the ratio of humic to protein-like DOC to be the most important predictor (Ritson et al. 2014b). Our
436 previous work used DOC collected throughout a two-month simulation rather than a single re-wetting event at
437 the end. The samples will, therefore, have likely undergone microbial processing during this simulation and
438 consequently an increase in the amount of autochthonous DOM, hence the greater importance of the
439 fluorescence measure of protein-like DOM.

440

441 **5.0 Conclusions**

442 Climate projections for the UK vary, however most agree the likelihood of droughts in the future is set to
443 increase. The results of this research suggest the dominant effect of drought on peatland DOC sources is to
444 increase the amount and decrease the treatability of DOC from peat soils. This is likely due to the ‘enzymatic
445 latch’ mechanism increasing decomposition when oxic conditions prevail. No drought effect on the amount of
446 DOC from different vegetation litters was found, although an increase in SUVA value from *Molinia* DOC was
447 observed and could offset decreases in peat DOC. The greatest effect of drought for vegetation may be
448 facilitating shifts to drought-tolerant species dominance rather than altering decomposition processes in the short
449 term. Oxygenation of peat appears to greatly increase extractable DOM and whilst no drought effect was
450 observed, extracts before and after oxygenations showed decreased aromaticity and humification, which may
451 mean it is more difficult to remove at the treatment works. These results provide support for catchment
452 management programmes seeking to increase resilience to drought by raising peatland water tables as a strategy
453 for mitigating against high riverine DOC concentrations following droughts.

454

455 **Author contributions**

456 All authors developed the experimental design and advised on the subsequent analysis. Ritson performed the
457 experiments and data analysis. The manuscript was written by Ritson with contributions from all co-authors.

458

459 **Acknowledgements**

460 This work was supported by the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council [grant number
461 EP/N010124/1]. The authors would also like to thank the Grantham Institute: Climate and Environment and
462 Climate-KIC for the financial support of Jonathan Ritson. The authors would also like to thank South West
463 Water’s Mires project for access to sites as well as Exmoor and Dartmoor National Park Authorities, Natural
464 England and Duchy of Cornwall. Freeman acknowledges NERC Grant NE/K01093X/1.

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