

1   Reviews and Syntheses: Understanding the impacts of peatland catchment  
2   management on DOM concentration and treatability

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 In the UK, most large reservoirs constructed for public water supply are in upland areas and situated  
18 in catchments characterised by organic-rich soils, including peatlands, that are often in poor  
19 condition. Such catchments leach large amounts of dissolved organic matter (DOM) to water, with  
20 water draining peatlands tending to release the most. High and rising DOM concentrations in these  
21 regions raise treatment challenges for the water industry.

22 In the UK, water companies are increasingly considering whether upland catchment peat restoration  
23 measures can slow down or even reverse rising source water DOM concentrations and thus reduce  
24 the need for more costly and complex engineering solutions. There remains considerable  
25 uncertainty around the efficacy of such measures, and a comprehensive overview of the research in  
26 this area remains lacking. Here we review the peer-reviewed evidence for the effectiveness of four  
27 catchment management options in controlling DOM release from peat soils: ditch blocking,  
28 revegetation, reducing forest cover, and cessation of managed burning.

29 Results of plot scale investigations into effects of ditch blocking on DOM leaching are currently  
30 largely equivocal, while there is a paucity of information regarding impacts at spatial scales of more  
31 direct relevance to water managers. There is some, although limited evidence that terrestrial  
32 vegetation type may influence DOM concentrations and treatability. The presence of plantation  
33 forestry on peat soils is generally associated with elevated DOM concentrations, although reducing  
34 forest cover has little short-term benefit and can even exacerbate concentrations further.

35 Catchment management measures have rarely been monitored with downstream water quality as  
36 the focus. To mitigate the uncertainty surrounding restoration effects on DOM, measures should be  
37 undertaken on a site-specific basis, where the scale, effect size and duration of the intervention are  
38 considered in relation to subsequent biogeochemical processing that occurs in the reservoir, the  
39 treatment capacity of the water treatment works and future projected DOM trends.

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41

## 42 Introduction

43 Peatland restoration has become an integral part of the UK environment strategy, particularly in the  
44 drive toward Net Zero (HM Government, 2021). It is founded on the potential to achieve multiple  
45 benefits that include improving biodiversity, enhancing carbon sequestration, and controlling water  
46 runoff and quality, in catchments that are deemed to have been degraded by anthropogenic  
47 stressors. Nearly three quarters of the storage capacity of drinking water reservoirs in the UK is  
48 sourced from peatland areas (Xu et al., 2018). Peatlands release particularly high amounts of organic  
49 matter as dissolved organic matter (DOM) into drainage waters, and DOM concentrations have been  
50 rising since the 1980s (e.g. Naden and McDonald, 1989; Robson and Neal, 1996; Harriman et al.,  
51 2001; Freeman et al., 2001; Worrall et al., 2004). Mean DOM concentrations in UK Upland Waters  
52 Monitoring Network (UWMN) surface waters, most of which are dominated by organic-rich soils,  
53 have approximately doubled over the last three decades (Figure 1). At the sub-catchment scale,  
54 Chapman et al. (2010) found that water colour increased by between 22 and 155 percent over a 20  
55 year period between 1986 and 2006. This phenomenon has now been observed across much of  
56 industrialised North America and north-west Europe, and appears to result largely from a long-  
57 term increase in the solubility of terrestrial organic matter as soils recover from the effects of acid  
58 rain (Monteith et al., 2007; De Wit et al., 2021; Monteith et al., 2023). One consequence of these  
59 changes is that water treatment works in some regions are having to adjust to much higher source  
60 water DOM concentrations than they were originally designed to cope with, since most were built at  
61 a time of much higher atmospheric deposition. Atmospheric deposition of pollutants across the UK  
62 uplands has now declined to a very low level, and it is expected that in future, changes in DOM  
63 export will be increasingly affected by other factors including temperature, changes in precipitation  
64 seasonality and intensity and marine ion deposition (Monteith et al., 2023). Rising levels of DOM in  
65 waters draining many of these peatland catchments pose considerable water treatment challenges,  
66 with respect to increasing treatment costs and risks of regulatory failure (see Figure 1). It has been  
67 proposed that peatland restoration measures might help slow or even reverse these DOM trends,  
68 along with other important benefits including increased terrestrial carbon storage, water retention  
69 and improvements in upland biodiversity (e.g. Glenk and Martin-Ortega, 2018).

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71 Although consumption of DOM in drinking water is not directly harmful to people, coloured water  
72 reduces customer satisfaction (Ritson et al., 2014) and can be indicative of further problems.  
73 Indirectly, elevated DOM concentrations have implications for human health due to their potential  
74 influence on treatment processes and the production of carcinogenic disinfectant by-products  
75 (DBPs) such as trihalomethanes (THMs) during chemical disinfection, which are regulated by the  
76 Drinking Water Inspectorate due to their potential carcinogenic properties (Ding and Chu 2017).  
77 DOM also may hamper the efficacy of chlorine as a disinfectant while simultaneously acting as a  
78 substrate for bacterial regrowth (Prest et al., 2016), thus increasing the risk of regulatory failure  
79 from bacterial contamination and the subsequent loss of customer trust.

80 The composition of DOM can have a large influence on the performance of the water treatment  
81 processes and the formation of DBPs upon chlorination (Matilainen et al., 2010). DOM in water  
82 draining peatland areas tends to be predominantly hydrophobic, and relatively photoreactive  
83 and biologically recalcitrant. It is relatively easily removed by conventional coagulation and filtration  
84 during drinking water treatment due to the presence of charged functional groups (Matilainen et al.,  
85 2010). Hydrophilic DOM, on the other hand, is mostly produced within the waterbodies by  
86 phytoplankton (Imai et al., 2002), and is biologically labile but less easily degraded by sunlight

87 (Berggren and Del Giorgio, 2015; Berggren et al., 2018). The relative balance of hydrophobic to  
88 hydrophilic DOM in water is referred to as hydrophobicity, and is conventionally assessed in the  
89 water treatment system using Specific UV Absorbance measurements at 254 nm ( $SUVA_{254}$ ), i.e.  
90 absorbance at 254 nm per unit dissolved organic carbon concentration (Weishaar et al., 2003).  
91 Values greater than  $4 \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$  indicate hydrophobic dominance, while values less than  $2 \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}$   
92 show the DOM is primarily hydrophilic and will not be effectively removed using conventional  
93 coagulation and filtration alone (Matilainen et al., 2010).

94 Higher concentrations of DOM in raw water necessitate a greater amount of treatment to provide  
95 potable water to customers (Monteith et al., 2021). This may include larger coagulant dosages,  
96 shorter filter run times, and longer and more frequent cleaning of filtration units, and result in  
97 higher energy costs, higher sludge removal costs and an increase in direct and indirect (energy-  
98 related) greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from the treatment process (Jones et al., 2016). Major  
99 additional costs are incurred where capital investment is needed to upgrade treatment  
100 infrastructure designed for lower concentration ranges experienced in the past (Monteith et al.,  
101 2021).

102 Peatland restoration (physical interventions to return them to a more natural state i.e. high water  
103 table and active peat-forming vegetation) has been suggested as a catchment scale method for  
104 reducing DOM concentrations in water draining peatlands (IUCN Peatland Programme). The primary  
105 restoration methods undertaken to date in the UK uplands are: blocking of peatland drainage to  
106 raise the water table, revegetation of bare peat with peatland species, removal of plantation  
107 forestry to allow peatland species to recolonise and water tables to rise, and cessation of managed  
108 burning to encourage growth of peatland plant species (Figure 2) (IUCN Peatland Programme). It is  
109 important, therefore, for water industry decision makers to understand the extent to which  
110 peatland restoration could make a positive contribution to reducing DOM concentrations of raw  
111 water and thus relieve stresses on the treatment system and potentially remove the need for major  
112 additional capital investment in treatment plant. This work reviews the available peer-reviewed  
113 literature and provides an assessment of the impacts of peatland restoration on DOM  
114 concentrations and treatability of raw drinking water.

115

## 116 **2. Evidence for the efficacy of catchment management approaches in the reduction of DOM**

117 To answer the question “will peatland catchment management reduce DOM concentrations in raw  
118 water” we explored the evidence within the peer-reviewed scientific literature for catchment  
119 management approaches within peatland dominated drinking water catchments to influence DOM  
120 concentrations in the soils and waters of peatland catchments. This was achieved by applying a  
121 standard set of Boolean search terms within Web of Science and Google Scholar. The terms were:  
122 (“dissolved organic matter” OR “dissolved organic carbon” OR “DOM” OR “DOC” OR “colour”) AND  
123 (“peatland” OR “bog” OR “fen” OR “moor”) AND (“ditch blocking” OR “forest” OR “plantation” OR  
124 “managed burning”). Initial results, including titles and abstracts, were rapidly reviewed to  
125 determine whether the information within the papers was relevant, both in terms of subject matter  
126 and in region (limited to temperate peatlands), then relevant papers were read in full and included  
127 in the review.

### 128 **2.1. Ditch blocking**

129 Extensive areas of upland peatlands across the UK uplands were drained in the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century in  
130 an attempt to increase agricultural productivity. Peatland drainage reduces water tables, resulting in

131 a loss of peat forming plant species. The consequent drying and cracking of peat surfaces exposes  
132 previously permanently saturated organic matter to oxidative processes, making them more  
133 vulnerable to erosion and dissolution into DOM (e.g. Clark et al., 2009). Extensive efforts have been  
134 made by the water industry and organisations concerned with peatland conservation to block  
135 ditches in an attempt to restore the hydrological, biogeochemical and ecological functions of these  
136 landscapes (IUCN Peatland Programme 2023) (Figures 2 & 3).

137 Search results of the scientific literature showed that the impact of ditch blocking on DOM  
138 concentrations had been assessed in pore waters and in ditches at streams at the sites being  
139 restored. Of the five plot-scale studies of peat soil water identified during this review, four (Table 1)  
140 reported significant changes in DOM concentrations. The studies investigated effects between five  
141 and twenty years following ditch blocking, and reported a cross-study average 34% reduction in DOC  
142 concentration (range 0 to 69%) (Wallage et al., 2006; Holl et al., 2009; Haapalehto et al., 2014;  
143 Strack et al., 2015; Menberu et al., 2017). While therefore suggesting a general tendency for ditch  
144 blocking to reduce pore water DOM concentrations, these studies do not necessarily imply that  
145 effects will be translated through to surface waters and ultimately to the point of abstraction.

146 Changes observed in DOM concentrations at a drainage ditch scale, are more variable than those for  
147 pore waters (Table 1, Figure 3). The eleven studies reviewed showed a mean 8% increase in DOM  
148 concentrations following ditch blocking, although this figure is skewed by the large increases  
149 reported by Worrall et al. (2007b) and Haapalehto et al. (2014) (100% increase immediately  
150 following ditch blocking and 50-75% increases after ten and five years respectively); the median  
151 change is zero. Importantly, no significant change in DOM concentration was reported in over half of  
152 these studies (O'brien et al., 2008; Gibson et al., 2009; Armstrong et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2011;  
153 Evans et al., 2018; Pickard et al., 2022). Likewise, a recent study found no reduction in DOM  
154 concentrations in the restored site compared to the ditched site six years after ditch blocking, while  
155 both drained and restored site DOM concentrations remained elevated compared to the non-  
156 drained control (Pickard et al., 2022). Differences between studies in apparent effect size may in part  
157 be related to experimental design, including whether the work included a simultaneous control and  
158 the time period over which post-restoration monitoring was carried out.

159 Studies of DOM flux changes following ditch blocking report an average 24% reduction (range 0 –  
160 88% reduction) in DOM flux, primarily attributed to decreased water fluxes from the restoration site.  
161 However, the measurement and reporting of water fluxes (and hence DOM fluxes) at a site- or  
162 catchment-scale requires careful consideration of the potential for dominant water flow pathways  
163 to be altered following ditch blocking. For example, Holden et al. (2017) showed that damming of  
164 drainage ditches in North Wales reduced discharge along the original ditch lines, but that most, or  
165 all, of the displaced flow instead left the peatland via overland flow or near-surface through-flow.  
166 Subsequent reporting from the same experiment demonstrated that DOM concentrations in water  
167 displaced along these surficial pathways were approximately the same as those in water travelling  
168 along the ditches, with the result that ditch-blocking was not found to have any clear effect on either  
169 DOM concentrations or fluxes at the catchment scale (Evans et al., 2018).

170 We identified nine studies that have assessed the potential impact of ditch blocking on DOM  
171 treatability and hence the ease of treatability within a conventional water treatment works. The  
172 majority of studies at UK and continental European ditch blocking locations, along with results from  
173 their experimental work, showed little effect of ditch blocking on DOM treatability as measured by  
174 commonly reported metrics such as SUVA, E2:E3 ratios (ratio of light absorbance at 250 and 365 nm)  
175 and E4:E6 ratios (ratio of light absorbance at 465 and 665 nm) (Glatzel et al., 2003; Strack et al.,  
176 2015; Gough et al., 2016; Lundin et al., 2017; Peacock et al., 2018). While none of the studies

177 included direct measures of DOM hydrophobic and hydrophilic fractions, one measured THM  
178 formation potential and found no change between water samples taken from drained and rewetted  
179 blanket bog mesocosms (Gough et al., 2016), suggesting that in the short term ditch blocking may  
180 not reduce THM formation following water treatment.

181 More broadly, therefore, while the evidence suggests that ditch blocking may reduce DOM  
182 concentrations within pore waters (Table 3, Figure 3), there is no published evidence for such  
183 activities to have successfully influenced DOM concentrations in runoff at a catchment scale, and  
184 thus at a level of potential relevance to raw water supply to treatment works. It is important to note,  
185 however, that catchment-scale studies are hugely challenging logistically and financially to design  
186 and maintain.

## 187 **2.2. Revegetation of bare peat**

188 Exposure of bare peat following anthropogenic disturbance has been an extensive problem in a  
189 number of UK peatland regions, most notably in the Peak District (Pilkington et al., 2015). The  
190 subsequent erosion of the peat has caused significant problems for the water industry because of  
191 the high particulate loads from the catchment to the downstream reservoirs. There have been  
192 significant efforts in recent years to revegetate some of the most degraded upland peatland areas in  
193 order to stabilise these systems (Pilkington et al., 2015).

194 Published research on the impacts of revegetation of peatland areas on DOM is limited, but Qassim  
195 et al. (2014) found that pore water DOM concentrations were higher in revegetated sites compared  
196 to bare peat areas and vegetated controls over a five-year period. The initial revegetation mix in this  
197 work was a nurse crop of *Agrostis* sp., *Deschampsia flexuosa* and *Festuca* sp. applied in combination  
198 with additions of lime and fertiliser to ensure grass growth. Heather brush was also applied to  
199 stabilise the peat surface and provide a seed source of peatland species. The use of lime is likely to  
200 have increased DOM solubility through a reduction in acidity of the peat (Evans et al., 2012), and the  
201 re-establishment of vegetation may have increased the production of 'new' DOM via root leachate  
202 and fresh litter decomposition. Particulate losses from peatland systems decreased following  
203 stabilisation of the peat surface through revegetation irrespective of gully blocking activities  
204 (Pilkington et al., 2015), as overland flow velocities are lower on vegetated peat than bare peat  
205 (Holden et al., 2008). However, the same study (Pilkington et al., 2015), and more recent  
206 assessments of the effects of revegetation on DOM concentrations (Stimson et al., 2017; Alderson et  
207 al., 2019), found no long-term changes in DOM concentrations following revegetation at the  
208 headwater catchment scale.

209 Radiocarbon ( $^{14}\text{C}$ ) measurements of DOM in UK upland waters indicate that the principal source of  
210 DOM in waters draining relatively undisturbed soils is recent primary production, probably formed  
211 within the last few years (Evans et al., 2014). It follows, therefore, that plant productivity, and plant  
212 tissue composition and degradability, which depend both on ambient environmental conditions and  
213 species composition, may be important factors, both for DOM concentrations and the treatability of  
214 the DOM produced. In a laboratory-based extraction experiment, DOM leached from *Sphagnum* was  
215 more easily removed by a conventional coagulation process and decomposed more rapidly than  
216 DOM leached from *Molinia caerulea* or *Calluna vulgaris* litter. In addition, *M. caerulea* and *C.*  
217 *vulgaris* litter released more DOM per unit dry weight compared to *Sphagnum* litter (Ritson et al.,  
218 2016). At the field scale, published results are less clear cut: one study found that DOM  
219 concentrations in pore waters were higher in areas of blanket bog dominated by *C. vulgaris*  
220 compared to areas dominated by sedges or *Sphagnum* species (Armstrong et al., 2012). In contrast,  
221 Parry et al. (2015) found no correlation between dominant vegetation type (differentiated into

222 ericoids, grasses, sedges and bare peat) and stream water DOM concentrations in headwater  
223 catchments. This may reflect the greater biotic heterogeneity of peatland environments at the  
224 catchment scale in comparison to single species experiments.

225 The evidence available to date suggests that while revegetation of peatland sites has stabilised bare  
226 peat surfaces (e.g. Pilkington et al., 2015), and is likely to have reduced particulate organic matter  
227 loss, it has not changed DOM export from peat headwater catchments. Laboratory based work has  
228 shown that the species present could impact DOM treatability, with *Sphagnum* derived DOM being  
229 more easily treatable than *M. caerulea* or *C. vulgaris* litter (Ritson et al., 2016). This suggests that  
230 catchment management via revegetation should aim to achieve high cover of *Sphagnum* species  
231 compared to vascular plants to maximise DOM treatability (Table 3).

### 232 **2.3. Plantation forestry / deforestation**

233 It has long been recognised that forestry activities can have detrimental impacts on reservoir water  
234 quality and treatability. For example, in 1984 it was shown that drainage and deforestation resulted  
235 in large sedimentation issues at Crai Reservoir in south Wales (Stretton, 1984 cited in: Hudson et al.  
236 1997), while large pulses of nutrients (N and P) to upland streams were observed after forest-felling  
237 (Neal, 2002). This review covers the impact of ground preparation and forest planting, in-situ forest  
238 growth, and forest removal (including forest to bog restoration) on peat on DOM concentration and  
239 quality.

240 To reduce the impacts of forest operations on sediment and nutrient loss and consequent raw water  
241 quality in the UK, the Forest and Water Guidelines now state that no more than 20% of a drinking  
242 water catchment should be felled in any 3 year period (Forestry Commission, 2017). In addition to  
243 this, although primarily to conserve soil carbon stocks rather than for improved water quality, the  
244 2000 Forestry Commission guidance note on forest and peatland habitats (Patterson and Anderson,  
245 2000) states that approval will no longer be given for forestry planting or regeneration on active  
246 raised bog or inactive raised bogs that could be restored to active bog, and areas of active blanket  
247 bog greater than 25 ha area and > 45 – 50 cm depth.

248 A recent review for Yorkshire Water (Chapman et al., 2017) noted that conventional conifer site  
249 preparation on peat, peaty gley and peaty podzol soils would be expected to increase DOM  
250 concentrations. This would be largely due to the implemented drainage reducing the height of the  
251 water table and consequently increasing the production of DOM via increased aeration of the peat  
252 surface (Clark et al., 2009). Jandl et al. (2007), in their review of studies of the effect of forest  
253 management on soil carbon sequestration, highlighted two Finnish studies where DOM  
254 concentrations increased following drainage ditch installation but returned to pre-drainage levels  
255 later in the forest cycle, while Schelker et al. (2012) observed increased colour in sites being  
256 prepared for forestry in northern Sweden. Furthermore, Rask et al. (1998) reported an increase in  
257 colour in streams draining peat dominated catchments following afforestation in Finland, while in  
258 Sweden afforestation has also been linked to long-term increases in water colour (Skerlep et al.,  
259 2019). At a regional to national scale in the UK, recent work suggests that the presence of plantation  
260 forestry on peat soils is associated with higher DOM concentrations in streams and rivers compared  
261 to peat soils supporting semi-natural vegetation (Williamson et al., 2021).

262

263

264 The presence of conifers on peat soils in a UK and Irish context is associated with higher pore water  
265 DOM concentrations across the four studies covered in this review (Table 2), with a mean difference  
266 of approximately 130%. The exception to this pattern was found in spruce plantations in north Wales  
267 where DOM concentrations in pore waters were 19% lower than in adjacent blanket bog (Gough et  
268 al., 2012). We found only one study (Gaffney et al., 2018) that compared DOM concentrations in  
269 drainage ditches between forested and intact blanket bog areas, with DOM concentrations  
270 approximately 100% higher in the former. The presence of forestry on peat had less clear cut  
271 impacts on streamwater DOM concentrations, with two out of three studies reporting no significant  
272 difference between streams draining catchments with forestry and intact blanket bogs (Shah et al.,  
273 2021; Flynn et al., 2022), and the third showing an DOM concentrations approximately 25% higher in  
274 a stream draining a forested catchment compared to a blanket bog catchment (Cummins and Farrell,  
275 2003).

276 Tree felling tends to cause an increase in DOM, though the effects are not universal across studies  
277 and locations. Three of five studies of streamwater DOM concentrations reported increases  
278 following felling (Cummins and Farrell, 2003; Zheng et al., 2018; Shah and Nisbet, 2019), with a mean  
279 increase of approximately 43%, although the two studies in the Flow Country showed no change  
280 (Muller et al., 2015) and a 6% decrease in concentrations (Muller and Tankere-Muller, 2012), which  
281 was attributed to the success of buffer strips between the plantation and the monitored stream. The  
282 mean increase in DOM concentrations in ditches was nearly 200% (ranging from a 50% increase to a  
283 500% increase, see Table 2) (Cummins and Farrell, 2003; Muller and Tankere-Muller, 2012; Muller et  
284 al., 2015; Gaffney et al., 2018). Most studies measuring DOM concentrations from forestry on peat  
285 were relatively short-term in timeframe, lasting two years or shorter. Only two studies monitored  
286 DOM concentrations for five years or longer.

287 There has been comparatively little research on the effects of forest presence on the treatability of  
288 DOM, although Gough et al. (2012) evaluated DOM concentrations and SUVA<sub>254</sub> values in waters  
289 draining catchments forested with different tree species. They found that pore water leachates from  
290 pine and larch plantation yielded particularly high DOM concentrations relative to a blanket bog  
291 control (19 and 13 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, compared to 9 mg L<sup>-1</sup>). Leachates also had lower SUVA<sub>254</sub>  
292 values (1.2 and 2.4 respectively, compared to 3.3 L mg<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup>). This would suggest that DOM leaching  
293 from plantations dominated by these tree types may be less easily treatable than DOM from blanket  
294 bogs. Similarly, samples taken from Scottish blanket and raised bog sites (Howson et al., 2021)  
295 found that SUVA<sub>254</sub> values were lower from forested sites, again suggesting that forestry on peat  
296 results in less aromatic, hydrophobic DOM that may be less easily removed via conventional  
297 coagulation.

298 Recently there have been attempts to restore previously afforested fen and bog peatlands in parts  
299 of Europe and North America under what is often referred to as ‘forest-to-bog’ restoration (Chimner  
300 et al., 2017; Andersen et al., 2017). Although still a relatively new practice within the UK, this type of  
301 restoration has been carried out for 18 years in the Flow Country in northern Scotland, and national  
302 policies on peat restoration may lead to its expansion in the future. Some of the studies listed in  
303 Table 2 (Muller and Tankere-Muller, 2012; Muller et al., 2015; Gaffney et al., 2018; Shah and Nisbet,  
304 2019; Gaffney et al., 2020; Howson et al., 2021; Shah et al., 2021) monitored the impacts of felling as  
305 part of ongoing forest-to-bog restoration monitoring, with the main differences in management  
306 being that the trees were felled to waste (the practice of leaving felled trees *in-situ* to rot) and there  
307 was less ground disturbance at the site compared with the use of machinery to extract felled timber  
308 (Gaffney, 2017). However, the practice of felling trees to waste has been suggested to provide a



309 potential additional DOM source as the trees slowly decompose (Muller et al., 2015), with mulched  
310 fallen trees providing a major source of water soluble DOM (Howson et al., 2021).

311 As bog vegetation regenerated after such restoration in the Flow Country, DOM concentrations  
312 reduced from elevated levels towards those seen in forest control areas. The time frame for  
313 complete recovery to pre-intervention levels is to date inconsistent, with some areas still showing  
314 elevated DOM in the restoration sites relative to the control sites after 17 years (Gaffney et al.,  
315 2018). In others, DOM concentrations had returned to those seen in intact blanket bog within the  
316 same time frame (Howson et al., 2021), or were showing inconsistent effects across sub-catchments,  
317 with the most upstream catchments showing increased DOM concentrations compared to bog  
318 controls, an effect not seen further downstream (Pickard et al., 2022). Other studies have reported  
319 shorter-term perturbations in DOM (~4-5 years) following forest-to-bog restoration, including within  
320 a Scottish lowland raised bog area, Flanders Moss, where stream water baseline DOM levels were  
321 reached within two years at one site (Shah, 2018). In a Finnish study of the impacts of forest to mire  
322 restoration, a short-term peak in pore water DOM concentration following initial restoration activity  
323 was followed by a return to reference concentrations within six years (Menberu et al., 2017).

324 In summary, coniferous afforestation of peatlands increases DOM concentrations in pore waters and  
325 streams, both during site establishment, potentially during the forest growth, and again as the trees  
326 are felled (by up to 500%) (summarised in Table 3). Forest-to-bog restoration as a method of land  
327 management produces short-term increases in DOM concentrations while trees are felled and brash  
328 remaining on site decomposes. However, given a long enough timeframe, DOM concentrations  
329 appear to reduce back towards levels seen from comparable control locations. From a water  
330 company perspective it is important to note that this time frame can be up to 20 years in blanket  
331 bogs, i.e. considerably longer than the standard funding cycle.

#### 332 **2.4. Managed burning**

333 Managed burning of peatland vegetation (Figures 2 & 5) (primarily the burning of *Calluna* sp. as part  
334 of grouse moor management) is a contentious issue within peatland conservation and management  
335 (e.g. Davies et al., 2016) and has been extensively reviewed over the past decade, particularly in  
336 relation to the impacts on DOM (Worrall et al., 2010; Holden et al., 2012; e.g. Brown et al., 2015),  
337 and most recently by Harper et al. (2018). There is little evidence within these reviews to suggest  
338 that DOM concentrations or colour increase within peat pore waters following managed burns. A  
339 recent study showed no change in DOM concentrations following low and high intensity burning  
340 (Grau-Andres et al., 2019), and in previous studies pore water DOM concentrations were unchanged  
341 (Clay et al., 2009; Clay et al., 2012; Worrall et al., 2013) or decreased (Worrall et al., 2007a). At the  
342 catchment scale, positive correlations between the extent of burning and DOM concentrations and  
343 water colour have been interpreted as causal (Clutterbuck and Yallop, 2010; Yallop et al., 2010;  
344 Ramchunder et al., 2013) although this has been questioned in the literature (Holden et al., 2012).  
345 Burning as a management practice is designed to ensure that there is a mosaic of variously aged  
346 heather habitat so it seems plausible that these effects are linked to changes in vegetation cover. As  
347 previously discussed *C. vulgaris* produced higher amounts of DOM than *Sphagnum* in the laboratory  
348 (Ritson et al., 2016) and at plot scale (Armstrong et al., 2012). It is also worth noting that Evans et al.  
349 (2017b) found that a wildfire in Northern Ireland resulted in a temporary reduction of DOM  
350 concentrations in a downstream monitoring lake, which was attributed to re-acidification of  
351 catchment soils following the fire.

352

353 **3: Discussion and conclusion**

354 Table 3 summarises the range and extent of the current peer-reviewed evidence for the impacts of  
355 peatland restoration on DOM concentrations in raw water and the treatability of the DOM present.  
356 However, considerable knowledge gaps remain regarding the effects of peatland restoration on raw  
357 water DOM concentrations and treatability. Our thorough screening of the literature revealed  
358 remarkably few published studies in this area, to the extent that generalisations of the effects of  
359 most of the interventions examined must be taken with considerable caution.

360 The available literature does indicate that both revegetation of bare peat (particularly to *Sphagnum*  
361 dominated bog) and ditch blocking is associated with decreased DOM concentrations within pore  
362 waters and ditches at the location restoration occurs. However, and in contrast to much more widely  
363 reported positive impacts of these restoration actions with respect to carbon sequestration, soil  
364 particulate losses, flood management and upland biodiversity, evidence that such impacts may  
365 translate to comparable changes within the wider catchments of more relevance to drinking water  
366 resources is generally lacking.

367 There is arguably much stronger evidence pointing to the risks posed by the afforestation of  
368 peatlands, and the subsequent management of such plantations, with plantations felling tending to  
369 lead to increasing DOM concentrations and potentially reduced treatability of exported DOM. In the  
370 published literature we have been unable to find experimental evidence incorporating local changes  
371 in water chemistry in the vicinity of interventions with downstream DOM processing to show  
372 whether water quality effects are detectable at the point of abstraction for water treatment works.  
373 This extension beyond the plot and hillslope scale represents a significant gap in current  
374 understanding, as DOM processing continues within the aquatic environment downstream of  
375 peatland restoration sites.

376 Robust quantification of the impacts of catchment management on DOM concentration and  
377 treatability at the point of abstraction clearly represents a major current evidence gap. The size of  
378 the research challenge with respect to the necessary spatial and temporal scale and need for robust  
379 Before-After-Control Impact (BACI) of any field experiment cannot be underestimated, and perhaps  
380 explains in part the current dearth of reliable information. This is particularly pertinent when  
381 changes in water chemistry may take a number of years to be seen, depending on catchment  
382 dynamics and within reservoir processes. Our review has highlighted that catchment land  
383 management approaches have not been followed downstream to monitor their impacts to the wider  
384 catchment.

385 The general paucity of evidence to support widespread terrestrial-catchment focussed interventions  
386 specifically to manage source water DOM concentrations and treatability leads then to the question  
387 as to whether there are other water quality management options that could be applied within  
388 reservoirs. DOM in rivers and lakes is subject to both biotic and abiotic processing, which change  
389 both concentrations and chemical structure (e.g. Tranvik et al., 2009) and hence affect treatability.  
390 For example DOM is lost to respiration (Koehler et al., 2012; Stets et al., 2010), sedimentation  
391 (Einola et al., 2011; Von Wachenfeldt and Tranvik, 2008), photo-oxidisation (via UV radiation)  
392 (Moody et al., 2013; Koehler et al., 2014) and flocculation with naturally-occurring aluminium and  
393 iron (Mcknight et al., 1992; Koehler et al., 2014).

394 More importantly for treatability, however, DOM is generated within lakes and reservoirs via  
395 photosynthesis (production of algal exudates and release via cell lysis) and through processing of  
396 particulate matter (Tranvik et al., 2009) so that DOM concentrations at the point of abstraction from

397 reservoirs represent the sum of these removal and generation processes. Consequently, the  
398 resulting DOM tends to be relatively transparent and hydrophilic in comparison with DOM  
399 generated by organic rich soils, and thus presents different challenges for treatment, particularly as  
400 the hydrophilic DOM is not easily removed through coagulation (Matilainen et al., 2010) and may  
401 lead to the need for additional capital investment in order to effectively reduce residual DOM in  
402 drinking water.

403 Algal production, and hence within-reservoir generation of DOM, is often limited by the availability  
404 of phosphorus, nitrogen, or both. Hence, waterbodies with high concentrations of inorganic  
405 nutrients, either delivered externally from their catchments or re-released internally from  
406 sediments, are likely to generate additional DOM within the water column (Feuchtmayr et al., 2019;  
407 Evans et al., 2017a). Further, evidence is growing on the importance of lake and reservoir bed  
408 sediments as a direct source of DOM to the water column, with reducing conditions occurring during  
409 stratification of lakes and reservoirs causing redissolution of previously sedimented organic matter  
410 (Peter et al., 2017).

411 In their assessment of DOM in lake inflows and outflows, including those of several reservoirs, Evans  
412 et al. (2017a) concluded that any measures that can reduce N and P export from the catchment or  
413 release from sediments, or which can strip nutrients from the water column, could provide effective  
414 mitigation for high DOM concentrations by reducing algal DOM production. For example, measures  
415 for reducing nutrient loading to lakes from the catchment (Spears and May, 2015) and bed  
416 sediments (Spears et al., 2016) can be effective in reducing algal biomass in UK lakes - although the  
417 effects on algal DOM production in relation to drinking water treatment require further assessment.  
418 To date, this option has rarely been considered in relation to DOM-related treatment issues,  
419 although nutrient management is often considered in relation to other (taste and odour) related  
420 treatment issues. The available evidence therefore suggests that measures to reduce taste and  
421 odour problems could deliver co-benefits in relation to DOM levels.

422 It is pertinent, therefore, to consider whether measures which reduce in-reservoir DOM production,  
423 and/or favour in-reservoir DOM removal, may be as – or perhaps more – effective than measures  
424 aimed at reducing DOM export from the terrestrial catchment. For lakes acting as DOM sources,  
425 management regimes that reduce nutrient (primarily N and P) inputs from catchments and/or  
426 internal loading of nutrients and DOM from sediment to the water column may be more effective  
427 than those focussed on reducing inflowing DOM concentrations directly. Restricting nutrient inputs  
428 is also likely to reduce organic nitrogen concentrations relative to organic carbon concentrations,  
429 which has the added benefit of reducing the formation potential of nitrogenous DBPs. In addition,  
430 Birk et al. (2020) suggest that rising DOM loading from the catchment may act to dampen algal  
431 responses to nutrients through light limitation of primary production within some European lakes. If,  
432 by extension, this also limits in-reservoir DOM production then catchment interventions that relieve  
433 DOM load, but not nutrient load, may result in an increase in in-reservoir DOM production. Even in  
434 the case of less nutrient-rich water bodies, it appears that reducing N and P loadings would be  
435 beneficial for water treatment as this is likely to restrict additional DOM formation.

436 In summary, our review demonstrates that catchment management initiatives, while providing clear  
437 overall restoration benefits for peatlands, have yet to deliver a generalised solution to the challenge  
438 of stabilising or reversing DOM increases in drinking water sources, although there is some evidence  
439 that catchment interventions may provide benefits for DOM export in specific cases. Catchment  
440 management measures that reduce in-reservoir DOM production, or favour in-reservoir DOM  
441 removal, may be as or more effective, particularly with respect to more nutrient rich systems. More  
442 generally, it seems clear that catchment management should be considered part of the response

443 strategy to rising DOM levels, and as part of a process to improve the resilience of source waters,  
444 not a panacea. It is therefore important that the water industry also develops effective tools to  
445 predict likely future DOM levels resulting from a combination of large-scale and catchment-scale  
446 drivers, to ensure that investments in both catchment management measures and DOM treatment  
447 infrastructure are correctly targeted, integrated, timely and cost-effective.

448

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450

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787

788 Tables:

789 **Table 1: Summary of the impacts of drainage ditch blocking on DOM concentrations and fluxes from peatlands, reported**  
 790 **in increasing time since ditch blocking. BA = Before/After, CI = Control/Intervention**

Reference	Location	Sampling scale	Concentration or flux measured	Time since ditch blocking	Experimental Design	Change since ditch blocking
Worrall et al. (2007b)	UK, blanket bog	Ditches	DOM concentration	7 months	BACI	100% increase in DOM concentration.
Turner et al. (2013)	UK, blanket bog	0 and 1 <sup>st</sup> order ditches	DOM concentration and flux	1 year	BACI	DOM concentration decreased by 2.5% compared to control, DOM flux decreased by 2.2 – 9.2% as a result of decreased water export.
Gibson et al. (2009)	UK, blanket bog	Ditches	DOM concentration and flux	1 year	CI	DOM concentrations unchanged, water flux decreased by 39% meaning DOM flux also declined by the same amount.
Wilson et al. (2011)	UK, blanket bog	Ditches and headwater streams	DOM concentration and flux	2 years	BACI	DOM concentrations unchanged, fluxes were 88% lower in streams draining ditch-blocked catchments due to much lower estimated water export.
O'brien et al. (2008)	UK, blanket bog	Headwater streams	DOM flux and water colour	2 years	BACI	Water colour was unchanged. Fluxes decreased by 24% in streams as a result of decreasing water export.
Menberu et al. (2017)	Finland fen, pine mire and spruce mire	Pore water	DOM concentration	3 years	BACI	41% reduction in DOM concentration.
Evans et al. (2018)	UK, blanket bog	Ditches	DOM concentration	4 years	BACI	No change in DOM concentration
Wallage et al. (2006)	UK, blanket bog	Pore water	DOM concentration	5 years	CI	DOM concentration lower in porewaters adjacent to blocked ditches (69% lower compared to open ditches)
Haapalehto et al. (2014)	Finland, raised bog	Pore water	DOM concentration	5 years and 10 years	Chronosequence	DOM concentration approx. 10% lower in sites 5 years post restoration and 25% lower in sites 10 years post restoration
Haapalehto et al. (2014)	Finland, raised bog	Ditches	DOM concentration	5 years and 10 years	Chronosequence	Concentrations approx. 75% higher in sites 5 years post restoration and 50% higher in sites 10 years post restoration
Armstrong et al. (2010)	UK, blanket bog	Ditches	DOM flux	7 years	CI	No change in DOM flux
Strack et al. (2015)	Canada, bog	Pore water and ditch water	DOM concentration	10 years	CI	No change in pore water DOM concentration. Ditch water DOM concentrations

						were similar in spring and summer and up to 30% lower in the restored site in autumn.
Armstrong et al. (2010)	UK, blanket bog	Ditches from a survey in Northern England and Northern Scotland	DOM concentration	6 months to 18 years	Survey	DOM concentrations 28% lower on average in blocked drains compared to unblocked drains.
Holl et al. (2009)	Germany, ex-fenland extraction site	Pore water	DOM concentration	20 years	CI	DOM concentrations 37% lower at restored site compared to drained site.
Urbanova et al. (2011)	Czech Republic, bog	Pore water	DOM concentration	NA comparison between drained and intact sites	CI	No difference in DOM concentration between intact and moderately degraded site, 50% higher DOM concentrations at highly degraded site.
Pickard et al. (2022)	UK, blanket bog	Headwater streams	DOM concentration	6-8 years	CI	No difference in DOM concentration between drained and restored sites. DOM concentrations significantly higher (50% increase) in drained and restored sites compared to non-drained controls.

791

792 **Table 2: UK studies reporting DOM concentration monitoring of forestry activities on peat. Note that where percentage**  
793 **differences are preceded by ~ concentrations were not explicitly listed in text, figures and tables or supplementary**  
794 **information so are estimated from graphs.**

Paper	Location	Forestry activity monitored	Scale	Timescale of monitoring	% difference
Muller and Tankere-Muller (2012)	Flow Country	Felling compared to blanket bog	Stream (upstream and downstream)	1 year post felling	-6%
Zheng et al. (2018)	Central Scotland	Felling compared to windfarm on blanket bog	Stream	1 year ~ 8 years after felling	~ 100%
Muller et al. (2015)	Flow Country	Felling compared to blanket bog	Stream	3 months before ~ 1 year after	No difference
Shah and Nisbet (2019)	Central Scotland (raised bog)	Before / after felling	Stream	1 year before and up to 8 years after	0%, 29% & 51% (mean 27%)
Cummins and Farrell (2003)	Ireland	Before / after felling	Stream	5 years	~0 – 100%
Gaffney et al. (2020)	Flow Country	Before / after felling and	Stream	2 years	No significant difference

		felling compared to blanket bog			
Muller et al. (2015)	Flow Country	Before / after felling	Ditch	3 months before ~ 1 year after	~ 75%
Gaffney et al. (2018)	Flow Country	Before / after felling	Ditch	1 year post felling	~ 150%
Cummins and Farrell (2003)	Ireland	Before / after felling	Ditch	5 years	~50%
Gaffney et al. (2018)	Flow Country	Felling compared to blanket bog	Ditch	0 – 17 years post felling. 1 year of measurement	~500%
Muller and Tankere-Muller (2012)	Flow Country	Felling compared to blanket bog	Ditch	1 year post felling	30-325% (overall average 159%)
Gough et al. (2012)	North Wales	Presence / absence of forestry	Pore waters	1 off sampling	-19% - 111% (average 45%)
Howson et al. (2021)	Flow Country	Presence / absence of forestry	Pore waters	~ 20 months	~ 66%
Howson et al. (2021)	Central Scotland (raised bog)	Presence / absence of forestry	Pore waters	~ 20 months	~14%
Flynn et al. (2022)	Ireland	Presence / absence of forestry	Pore waters	~ 2 years	~400%
Gaffney et al. (2018)	Flow Country	Presence / absence of forestry	Ditch	0 – 17 years post felling 1 year of measurement	~ 100%
Flynn et al. (2022)	Ireland	Presence / absence of forestry	Stream	~ 2 years	No significant difference
Shah et al. (2021)	Flow Country	Presence / absence of forestry – time series	Stream	25 years	No significant difference
Cummins and Farrell (2003)	Ireland	Presence / absence of forestry	Stream	5 years	~25%

795

796 **Table 3: summary of the published impacts of catchment management activities on DOM concentrations and**  
797 **treatability, focussing on those studies relevant in a UK and Irish context. Numbers in brackets refer to the number of**  
798 **studies showing that effect in each case, while the overall impacts on DOM concentration and treatability for water**  
799 **treatment are shown as +/- (positive/neutral/negative) for concentrations and treatability respectively.**

Catchment	Impact on DOM concentration	Impact on DOM treatability
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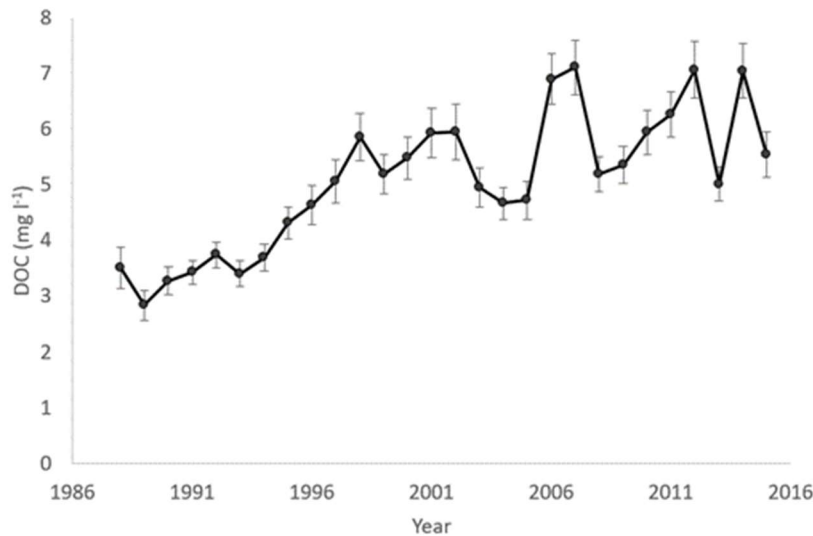
intervention		
Ditch blocking (=/=)	<b>Increase (2)</b> (Worrall et al., 2007b; Haapalehto et al., 2014) <b>No change (8)</b> (O'brien et al., 2008; Gibson et al., 2009; Armstrong et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2011; Urbanova et al., 2011; Turner et al., 2013; Strack et al., 2015; Evans et al., 2018) <b>Decrease (5)</b> (Wallage et al., 2006; Holl et al., 2009; Armstrong et al., 2010; Haapalehto et al., 2014; Menberu et al., 2017)	<b>No change (5)</b> (Glatzel et al., 2003; Strack et al., 2015; Gough et al., 2016; Lundin et al., 2017; Peacock et al., 2018)
Revegetation (to grass species) (=/-)	<b>Increase (2)</b> (Qassim et al., 2014; Ritson et al., 2016) <b>No change (4)</b> (Parry et al., 2015; Pilkington et al., 2015; Stimson et al., 2017; Alderson et al., 2019)	<b>Decrease (1)</b> (Ritson et al., 2016)
Revegetation (to heather) (-/-)	<b>Increase (2)</b> (Armstrong et al., 2012; Ritson et al., 2016) <b>No change (1)</b> (Parry et al., 2015)	<b>Decrease (1)</b> (Ritson et al., 2016)
Revegetation (to <i>Sphagnum</i> ) (+/-)	<b>Decrease (1)</b> (Armstrong et al., 2012)	<b>Improve (1)</b> (Ritson et al., 2016)
Forest presence (-/-)	<b>Increase (5)</b> (Cummins and Farrell, 2003; Gough et al., 2012; Gaffney et al., 2018; Howson et al., 2021; Flynn et al., 2022) <b>No change (2)</b> (Shah et al., 2021; Flynn et al., 2022)	<b>Decrease (2)</b> (Gough et al., 2012; Howson et al., 2021)
Clearfell and forest-to-bog conversion (-/-)	<b>Increase (6)</b> (Cummins and Farrell, 2003; Muller and Tankere-Muller, 2012; Muller et al., 2015; Gaffney et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018; Shah and Nisbet, 2019) <b>No change (3)</b> (Muller and Tankere-Muller, 2012; Muller et al., 2015; Gaffney et al., 2020)	<b>Decrease (1)</b> (Zheng et al., 2018)
Managed burning (-/no evidence)	<b>Increase (3)</b> (Clutterbuck and Yallop, 2010, Yallop et al., 2010, Ramchunder et al., 2013) <b>No change (4)</b> (Clay et al., 2009; Clay et al., 2012; Worrall et al., 2013; Grau-Andres et al., 2019) <b>Decrease (1)</b> (Worrall et al., 2007a)	

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801

802 Figure legends:

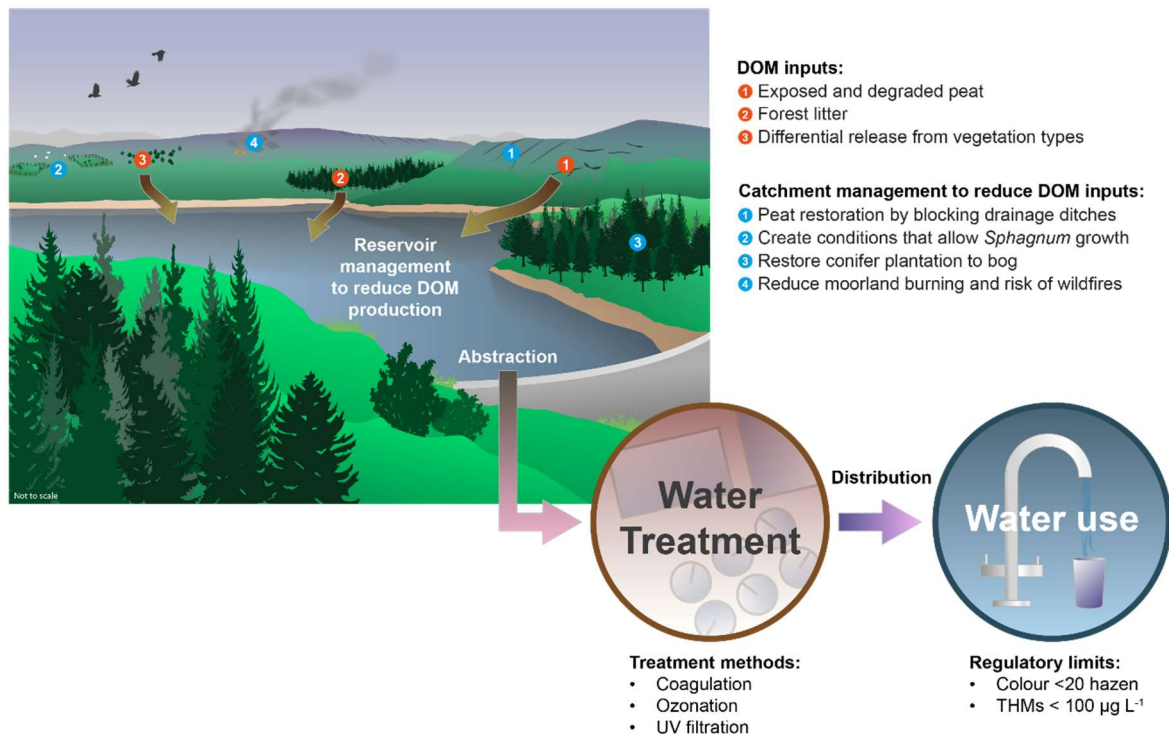
803 Figure 1: Mean (+/- Standard error) annual dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations from the 23 UK Upland Water  
804 Monitoring Network sites. These sites are predominately situated in the north and west of the UK – see [www.uwmn.uk](http://www.uwmn.uk)  
805 for more details.



806

807 Figure 2: Schematic showing anthropogenic pressures on peatland catchments, and the potential peatland management  
808 processes covered in this review.

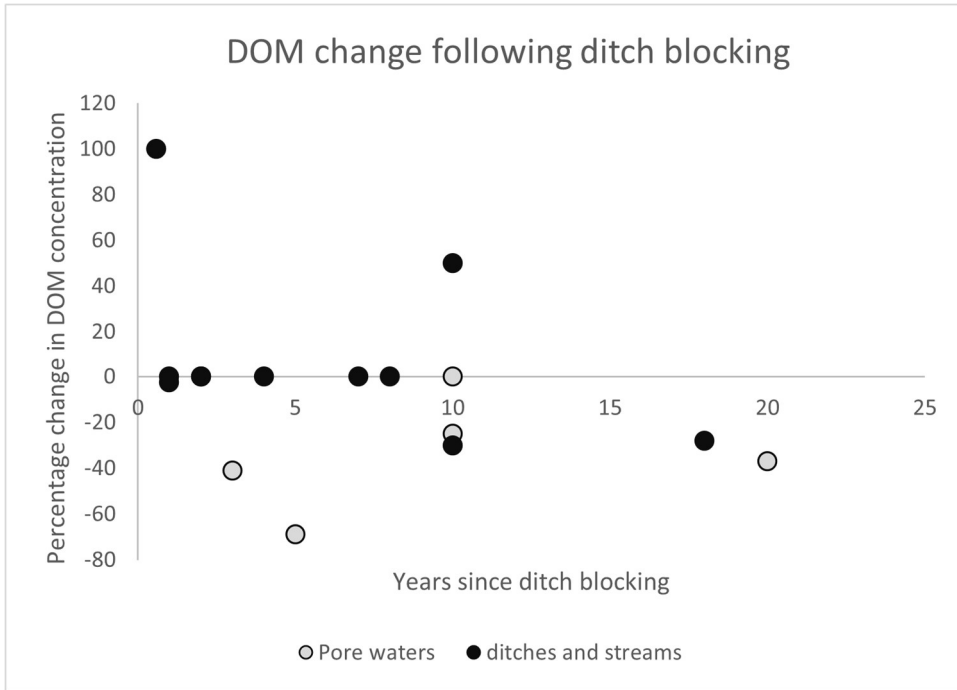
### Anthropogenic land use pressures affecting dissolved organic matter (DOM) export from peat



809

810 Figure 3: Percentage change in DOM concentration following ditch blocking. Grey circles show DOM percentage change  
811 in peatland pore waters, and black circles show DOM percentage change in ditches and streams.





812

813 **Figure 4: Drainage ditches before (left) and after (right) blocking on a blanket bog in North Wales, the ditches run down**  
 814 **the slope and individual dams can be seen crossing the ditches (Photos: Chris Evans).**



815

816 **Figure 5: Burning of vegetation on peat in North Wales (Photo: Chris Evans).**



817