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Amine Boukra, Matthieu Masson, Corinne Brosse, Mahaut Sourzac, Edith Parlanti, et al.. Sampling terrigenous diffuse sources in watercourse: Influence of land use and hydrological conditions on dissolved organic matter characteristics. Science of the Total Environment, 2023, 872, pp.162104. 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.162104 . hal-04286276

HAL Id: hal-04286276

<https://hal.science/hal-04286276>

Submitted on 15 Nov 2023

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Title. Sampling terrigenous diffuse sources in watercourse: influence of land use and hydrological conditions on dissolved organic matter characteristics.

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10 **Highlights:**

11

- 12 • This study addresses the sampling of non-point sources of DOM in watercourses
- 13 • A combination of land use markers discriminated DOM terrigenous signature in streams
- 14 • Hydrological conditions impacted the signature of watercourse DOM
- 15 • New indicators from HPSEC/UV-fluorescence improved the study of DOM
- 16 composition

Abstract

Diffuse and point sources of dissolved organic matter (DOM) in streams influence its composition, interactions and fate in the aquatic ecosystem. These inputs can be very numerous at the scale of a watershed, and their identification remains a challenge especially in the case of diffuse sources related to land use. The complexity of the transfer mechanisms and the reactivity of DOM throughout the soil-water column continuum raise questions about the sampling of diffuse sources in watercourses. To answer this question, we compared the characteristics of soil-extracted DOM influenced by a particular land use (homogenous sub-catchment of forest and vineyard) and DOM collected from the watercourse adjacent to the soil samples. A 28-day incubation experiment of soil extracts was designed to remove the labile fraction of DOM. During the first 3 days, between 40 and 70 % of the DOC mass was lost for both types of soils. A set of optical indicators (UV-Visible, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence) showed that the labile fraction was mostly composed by low (<1 kDa) and high (>10 kDa) protein-like molecules. At the end of the incubation, soil-extracted DOM was mainly composed of medium molecules (1-10 kDa) associated to terrigenous humic-like compounds. Its optical and size molecular signature tended towards that in the adjacent watercourses and was specific to land use. However, the characteristics of DOM in watercourses was also influenced by the hydrological conditions, probably due to a transfer of top soil DOM during high water periods and both deep soil and autochthonous DOM during low water periods. These results were obtained by a set of indicators including novel ones derived from high-pressure size exclusion chromatography (HPSEC/UV-fluorescence). Finally, this study demonstrated that it is possible to sample the DOM representative of a land use directly in the river downstream of the homogeneous sub-basin by multiplying the samples during contrasting hydrological conditions.

Keywords: Dissolved organic matter; non-point sources; land-use; optical fingerprint

1 Introduction

Dissolved organic matter (DOM) is a complex set of organic compounds operationally defined as material obtained after water filtration (commonly ranging from 0.2 to 0.7 μm) (Zsolnay, 2003; Zark and Dittmar, 2018) with an average molecular size distribution that ranges from <100 Da to >100000 Da (Nebbioso and Piccolo, 2013; Hawkes et al., 2019). DOM plays a major role in environmental biogeochemistry, particularly as the main driver of terrestrial carbon to the aquatic environment, as a substrate for the growth of microorganisms (Bolan et al., 2011; Mladenov et al., 2022), but also in the fate and bioavailability of pollutants (Reuter and Perdue, 1977; Aiken, 2014). At the scale of a watershed, DOM inputs to the rivers can originate from a wide range of natural and anthropogenic sources (Nebbioso and Piccolo, 2013). These sources can be either point sources (e.g. wastewater treatment plants and storm overflows) or diffuse discharges (e.g. terrigenous inputs related to land use, underground inputs, autochthonous production; Carstea et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2016). Point discharges of DOM can be easily located and their sampling is often representative of these sources. For example, DOM from wastewater treatment plant discharges, constitutes a mixture of organic molecules including microbial degradation products, surfactants, pharmaceutical products, phytosanitary products (herbicides, fungicides, insecticides) and disinfection by-products (Michael-Kordatou et al., 2015; Verkh et al., 2018).

Diffuse sources of DOM are more difficult to locate and study due to the complexity of geochemical interactions, degradation processes and the uncontrolled meteorological events at the origin of these DOM sources. In the case of terrigenous contributions of diffuse DOM sources, studies have shown that the soil type governs the amount of DOM transferred to the aquatic downstream environment (Bolan et al., 2011). Organic type soils discharge more DOM than mineral type soils. Land use as well as soil biomass influence the composition of DOM transferred to the watercourse (Kalbitz et al., 2003). This could be explained by the fact that

DOM is considered to be the most active and labile part of soil organic matter (Guigue et al., 2014). Low molecular weight labile compounds make up the organic matter in the surface layers of the soil. Their proportion decreases in depth soils giving way to higher fraction of refractory compounds of high molecular weight. In addition, the hydrology of the watershed, or more specifically, the direction of water flow along the soil, determines the type of organic matter transferred to rivers. Indeed, Sanderman et al., 2009 demonstrated that vertical flow would favor the transfer of the more refractory denatured organic matter, whereas lateral flow would transfer labile organic matter characteristic of the surface soil layers. However, establishing DOM fingerprints in rivers related to land uses and occupations, driven hydrology, is a complex task. The high reactivity of DOM labile fraction coupled with environmental conditions and the nature of the soils make difficult the establishment of reliable DOM fingerprints. Here we define a DOM fingerprint as a set of physico-chemical markers calculated from one or several analytical techniques (e.g. optical characteristics, molecular size distribution), which are relevant to discriminate a given source. At present, classically used techniques such as UV-Visible spectroscopy and excitation emission matrix (EEM) fluorescence have brought major advances in the study of chromophoric and fluorescent DOM. The application of these spectroscopic techniques has allowed, for example, to differentiate between types of DOM depending on the sources and the state of evolution (Li and Hur, 2017). Another analytical technique that showed relevance to characterize DOM composition, is the size exclusion chromatography (HPSEC). The principle of HPSEC is based on the separation of molecules according to their size or hydrodynamic volume. Previous studies have shown that HPSEC can be used to determine the distribution of molecular weight for DOM by calculating indicators used to characterize polymers such as average molecular weight (M_w), number average molecular weight (M_n) and polydispersity (p) (Huang et al., 2021). Detection by diode arrays and fluorescence (HPSEC/UV-fluorescence) allowed to specifically target absorbing and

91 fluorescent compounds in organic matter, providing further qualitative information on the size
92 continuum of DOM molecules (Asmala et al., 2021; Brezinski and Gorczyca, 2019). However,
93 the combined information of molecule size and type, provided by HPSEC/UV-fluorescence,
94 could be further explored to propose relevant indicators improving DOM fingerprints. In this
95 context, the aim of this paper was to determine the representativeness of sampling a terrigenous
96 diffuse source of DOM in watercourses. More precisely, we studied the link between soil-
97 extracted DOM, characterized by a particular land use, and DOM collected in the soil-adjacent
98 watercourse. A second objective was to improve the study of DOM optical fingerprints by
99 introducing new indicators from size exclusion chromatography HPSEC/UV-fluorescence.

100 To achieve this, the characteristics of i) DOM extracted from soils defined by distinct land use
101 (forest and vineyard), and ii) DOM from adjacent watercourses collected during high and low
102 water periods were compared. . The starting hypothesis is that during the high water period,
103 there would be a greater contribution of the terrigenous source. This comparison was performed
104 by characterizing DOM properties using a combination of optical analysis techniques including
105 UV-Visible spectrophotometry, EEM fluorescence spectroscopy and HPSEC/UV-
106 fluorescence.

107

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Site description

All sampling areas were located in Ardière-Morcille watershed (152 km²) in eastern France. The catchment area, in its downstream part, is characterized by vineyard activities representing more than 32 % of total landscape (Peyrard et al., 2016). Other land uses such as forests (37 %) and pastures (21 %), are also present in the upstream watershed (Figure 1).

The region's climate is semi-continental with a mean annual rainfall of 940 mm and episodic snowfalls during winter (Gouy et al., 2021). The soils are mostly sandy and erodible and the geological characteristics are an altered hercynian crystalline basement of mostly porphyric biotite granite. The watershed is characterized by very steep slopes, ranging between 5 and 30-35 % favoring surface runoff. In addition, numerous and fast hydrological events make the riverbed, rarely dry (Rabiet et al., 2015).

2.2 Sampling design and samples preparation before experimentations in laboratory

Water samples were collected manually from rivers, downstream of 10 homogenous sub-catchment areas characterized by 5 forest land occupations and 5 vineyard land uses (Figure 1). Sub-catchment land uses were determined based on Corine Land Cover 2018 using Qgis 3.14 software. Sampling was carried out during two campaigns: A first sampling campaign in January 2021 during a period of high water (3.65 and 0.2 m³.s⁻¹ respectively for Ardières and Morcille Rivers) and a second sampling campaign in July 2021 during the period of low water (0.65 and 0.03 m³.s⁻¹ respectively for Ardières and Morcille Rivers). The flow data was obtained at Villié-Morgon and Beaujeu stations located downstream of the Ardières and Morcille rivers. The water samples were collected in 250 mL borosilicate glass bottles previously cleaned by an automatic washer at 90°C, then calcined in an oven at 500°C. The samples were filtered in the field using polypropylene syringe and polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) filters with a

porosity of 0.45 μm . The filtrate was first used to rinse the 250 mL borosilicate glass bottle three times before filling them completely. The samples were then stored in a cooler (at $\pm 4^\circ\text{C}$) protected from light during their transport to the laboratory, then stored at 4°C in the dark until analysis. Experimental blanks using ultrapure water (resistivity at $18.2 \text{ M}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$) were prepared in laboratory using the same protocol as in the field, in order to identify possible contamination due to bottles, syringes or filters.

Soils were sampled in the forest and vineyard sub-catchment areas upstream of water samples (radius of 30 to 50 m) during the high water sampling campaign. Detailed geographic coordinates are available in supplementary material 1. In each site, 20 cm of top soils were taken with an auger; four subsamples were randomly selected to collect approximately 1 kg of soil. Each subsample was placed in a polypropylene bag. Once all 4 subsamples were collected, the bulk sample was mixed in the bag. The 10 soil samples were stored at 4°C protected from light until preparation in the laboratory where the soils were sieved with a 2 mm stainless steel sieve, placed in aluminum trays (40x60 cm) and dried for 96 h at 40°C in an oven.

To summarize, for each sub-catchment area, one water sample was collected during high water period as well as one soil sample (composite of 4 randomly collected subsamples). During low water periods, an additional water sample was collected.

2.3 Dissolved organic matter extracted from soils (soil extracts)

Dissolved organic matter was extracted from soil samples by stirring 20 g (dry weight) of soil in 200 mL of ultrapure water with 10 mM CaCl_2 (Supplementary Material 2). Stirring was performed at 180 rotations per minute in a Lovibond thermoregulator cabinet at 20°C in dark condition. After 6 h of agitation, the samples were centrifuged at 4500 g during 15 min and the supernatant was filtered through 0.45 μm (PVDF filter). An initial 60 mL sample was collected before the incubation experiment.

2.4 Incubation experiment

Two inoculums of forest and vineyard soils were prepared 48 h before the incubation experiment. To obtain better microbial diversity, both forest and vineyard inoculums were prepared from, respectively, a mixture of the 5 forest soils and the 5 vineyard soils (Kalbitz et al., 2003; Guigue et al., 2014). For each inoculum, 5 g of the 5 corresponding soil samples were added to 200 mL of ultrapure water. These preparations were then shaken at 20° for 48h in the dark. A nutrient solution of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ and KH_2PO_4 (C:N:P:S:K molar ratio of <5:1:1:1:1) was also prepared 1h prior to the incubation. The addition of nutrients allows optimizing the activity of the microorganisms during the following incubation.

Incubation of DOM extracted from soils was performed by adding 35 μL of inoculum and 1 mL of nutrient solution to the samples immediately after the soil DOM extraction step (Guigue et al., 2014) (Supplementary Material 2). Controls without inoculum nor nutrient solution (inoculum blanks) and controls without soil extracted DOM (extraction blanks) were performed. All samples and controls were incubated at 20°C in the dark, with continuous shaking at 180 rotations per minute during 28 days. The incubation period of 28 days was chosen based on previous work that studied the time required to degrade the labile fraction of DOM from soil samples (Guigue et al., 2014). Sub-samples at 3, 7, and 14 days of incubation were collected to monitor changes in DOM quantity and quality (optical properties).

2.5 Analytical strategy

2.5.1 Dissolved organic Carbon

Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) analyses were performed by high temperature catalytic combustion according to the standard NF EN 1484 and using an Analytik Jena multi N/C® 3100 TOC analyzer. The calibration, rinsing, quality controls solutions, as well as samples, were introduced in precombusted (at 500°C during 2 h) glass vials, where they were acidified

to pH=1 with hydrochloric acid (HCl 37% RPE). The detection limit was 0.2 mgC.L⁻¹ and the analytical uncertainty was 12%. The accuracy of the analyses (105%) was routinely checked using a certified standard of potassium hydrogen phthalate (5 mg.L⁻¹, Fluka®) different from that used for the calibration (0.2–25 mgL⁻¹, Sigma-Aldrich®).

2.5.2 UV-Visible spectroscopic analysis

UV-Visible spectroscopy analyses were performed using a Shimadzu UV 1900 spectrophotometer with a 1 cm path length quartz cell (Hellma Analytics®). Absorbance spectra were acquired between 200 and 800 nm with a resolution of 1 nm and a scan speed of 0.2 s.nm⁻¹. A baseline correction was carried out using an ultrapure water blank over the same wavelength range. A series of classical descriptive indicators (SUVA₂₅₄, absorbance ratios and spectral slopes) were calculated from the generated absorbance spectra (Table 1).

2.5.3 EEM fluorescence spectroscopy and PARAFAC decomposition

Excitation-emission matrix (EEM) fluorescence analyses were performed using an Aqualog (Horiba Scientific) spectrofluorometer in a 1 cm path length quartz cuvette (Hellma Analytics®) thermostated at 20°C. The Aqualog instrument was equipped with a 150 W Xenon arc lamp and excitation wavelengths were scanned using a double-grating monochromator from 240 to 800 nm at 5 nm intervals, while the emission spectra were obtained using a high-gain CCD detector at intervals of approximately 0.58-nm (1-pixel) for wavelengths from 240 to 800 nm. All EEM spectra were corrected for instrumental biases and normalized to the area under the Raman peak of water, at 350 nm excitation, acquired daily. Fluorescence intensities are therefore expressed in Raman units (R.U). In order to avoid inner filter effects, all samples with maximum absorbance > 0.1 were diluted. Raman and Rayleigh scattering peaks were removed by subtracting blank spectrum. The generated spectra were treated using TreatEEM-V1 software developed by Dario Omanović (Ruđer Bošković Institute, Zagreb, Croatia;

<https://sites.google.com/site/daromasoft/home/treateem>). The fluorescence indices HIX (Zsolnay), BIX, FI, YFI (Table 1) were calculated for an excitation wavelength of 250, 310, 370 and 280 nm respectively (Heo et al., 2016; Huguet et al., 2009; Mcknight et al., 2001; Zsolnay et al., 1999)

The multi-way parallel factor analysis (PARAFAC) was applied to a set of 103 EEM spectra (corresponding to 83 soil extracts and 20 water samples collected from the adjacent streams). The PARAFAC model was run, using the drEEM toolbox under MatLab R2020a, for 4 to 8 components with non-negativity constraints (Murphy et al., 2013). Four components were validated based on split-half analysis and compared to previously reported components using the OpenFluor fluorescence database.

2.5.4 Size exclusion chromatography HPSEC/UV-fluorescence

High performance size exclusion chromatography (HPSEC; LC-2030C 3D Plus, Shimadzu) coupled with photodiode array (Deterium D2 Lamp PDA) and fluorescence (RF-20A xs) detectors was used to determine the molecular size distribution of DOM. The injection volume was 10 μL with a flow rate at 0.8 $\text{mL} \cdot \text{mn}^{-1}$ of phosphate buffer mobile phase (NaCl , KH_2PO_4 and K_2HPO_4). Two columns (Shodex OHpak SB-803 HQ, Shodex OHpak SB-802 HQ) coupled in series were used for the chromatographic separation. The first column covered an exclusion range between 1 kDa and 100 kDa and the second one between 0.2 kDa and 1 kDa. Analytical standards PSS (polysulfonate) were used as references of average molecular weights (0.246, 1.6, 4.3, 6.8, 10, 17, 32, 77 kDa). Other standards were also used to cover a wider range of molecule types, such as nitrates (0.063 kDa), Bovin Serum Albumin BSA (66 kDa) and Polyacrylic Acid PAA standards (1, 2.6 and 3.6 kDa). A calibration curve of molecular weight (from 0.2 - to 77 kDa) according to elution volume was calculated using these analytical standards (Brezinski and Gorczyca, 2019).

The UV-DAD detector allowed the acquisition of chromatograms on an absorbance range between 200 and 450 nm with an increment of 1.2 nm every 300 ms. Regarding the fluorescence detector, 3 couples of excitation-emission wavelengths (Ex-Em) were retained for all the analyses. The fluorescence intensities were measured for the wavelengths corresponding to the humic-like components (315-443 nm), protein-type components (280-330 nm), and tryptophan-type components (278-354 nm) were measured every 400 ms.

To optimize the use of the data generated by HPSEC/UV-fluorescence, a Gaussian decomposition was performed. The aim was to decompose the size continuum obtained in each HPSEC chromatogram into distinct Gaussian components (Eq. 1). For this, the toolbox «peakfit.m » (O'Haver, 2020) was applied on MatLab *R2020a*.

$$\text{Eq. 1 : } A(x; \mu; \sigma; \varphi) = \sum_{i=0}^{nC} \varphi_i e^{\frac{-(x-\mu_i)^2}{2\sigma^2 i}} + \varepsilon$$

where nC is the number of Gaussian components, ε is the residuals which represent the variability not taken into account by the model, x is the peak area, μ is the peak position parameter (elution volume), σ is the peak width and φ is the proportion of each fitted Gaussian distribution.

The number of detected components was validated using the Bayesian Information Criterion (Asmala et al., 2021). Areas of the identified Gaussian components were summed in order to calculate the total sec absorbance (TSA) from chromatograms obtained with detection at UV 254 nm (Asmala et al., 2021). The total sec fluorescence TSF was calculated from chromatograms obtained with fluorescence detection at three excitation-emission (Ex-Em) wavelengths (nm): Ex: 315-Em: 443, Ex: 280-Em: 330 and Ex: 278-Em: 354. These wavelengths are classically used to characterize DOM properties (Table 1). The calibration

curve allowed classifying each Gaussian component in a molecular weight fraction, based on the peak position (elution volume). In this study, three molecular weight fractions were defined as: low molecular weight fraction (LMW) with an average molecular weight < 1 kDa, medium molecular weight fraction (MMW) with an average molecular weight ranging from 1 to 10 kDa, and high molecular weight (HMW) with an average molecular weight >10 kDa. The LMW, MMW and HMW fractions represent the relative percentages of respectively small, medium and large molecules detected at the measured wavelengths.

2.6 Mathematical and statistical analyses

Anova analysis coupled with a Tukey test (packages stats and rstatix; R 4.0.2 software) were used to compare both forest and vineyard soil extracts, the temporal kinetics of the incubation study and also for the comparison between soil extracts and adjacent natural waters for all UV-Vis, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators. Principal component analysis (PCA; package factoextra, R 4.0.2 software) was also used for the comparison of soil extracts vs. natural adjacent waters, and a linear discriminant analysis (LDA; packages MASS and klaR, R 4.0.2 software) for the selection of the most relevant DOM markers of forest and vineyard soil occupations.

3 Results

3.1 Dissolved organic carbon

Before incubation, dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations (Figure 2.A) in the 5 forest soil extracts ranged from 22.7 to 48.2 mg.L⁻¹ with a mean value of 32.7 ± 9.4 mg.L⁻¹. For the 5 vineyard soil extracts, DOC concentrations varied between 16.14 and 34.14 mg.L⁻¹ with a mean value of 23.8 ± 6.6 mg.L⁻¹. These values are consistent with those obtained in previous studies (Rinot et al., 2021). No significant difference (Tukey test, $p > 0.05$, $n=50$) in DOC concentrations was found between forest and vineyard soil extracts before incubation.

The percentage of DOC (Figure 2.B) was calculated for the duration of the experiment (28 days). For forest soil extracts, the percentage of DOC decreased by 67 ± 8 %, with a significant decrease (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$) of 42 ± 9 % within the first three days of incubation. For vineyard soil extracts, the percentage of DOC decreased by 61 ± 3 %, with a significant decrease of 46 ± 5 %, again during the first three days of incubation. Previous studies showed DOC losses range from 5 to 93% depending on soil types (forest, pasture, arable) and extraction protocols (pressurized hot-water, water extraction, leaching extraction) (Guigue et al., 2014; Kalbitz et al., 2003).

DOC concentrations of samples collected in streams adjacent to forest soils ranged from 2.2 to 3.0 mg.L⁻¹ during high water periods (Figure 2.A). For these same sites, DOC concentrations were significantly higher (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=20$) ranging between 3.3 mg.L⁻¹ and 4.6 mg.L⁻¹ during low water periods. In the streams adjacent to vineyard soils, DOC ranged from 3.1 to 4.4 mg.L⁻¹ during high water. Non-significant difference was observed during low water periods with DOC concentrations ranging between 3.5 and 4.6 mg.L⁻¹. In addition, DOC concentrations were significantly higher in the vineyard stream samples than in the forest stream samples only during high water.

3.2 UV-Visible

UV-Visible spectra (Supplementary Material 3) show a classical pattern, i.e. an exponential decrease between 200 and 250nm, followed by a slight decrease between 250 and 400 nm. Then the signal is close to the background for wavelength superior to 400 nm. A decrease in absorption is observed between the soil extracts before and after 28 days of incubation, at wavelengths from 250 to 400 nm, i.e. the range classically used to characterize the chromophoric DOM. $SUVA_{254}$ (Table 1) increased significantly (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$) over the 28-day incubation period of the experiment, from 0.98 ± 0.11 to $2.02 \pm 0.12 \text{ L.mg}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ for forest soil extracts, and from 1.44 ± 0.45 to $3.02 \pm 0.51 \text{ L.mg}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$ for vineyard soil extracts (Figure 3.A). A significant difference (Tukey, test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$) was observed between forest and vineyard soils only after the 3rd day of incubation. During the first 3 days, spectral slope $S_{275-295}$ and E2.E3 index (Table 1) values decreased significantly (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$) and then stabilized during the rest of the incubation period (Figure 3.B, C). Overall, values of $S_{275-295}$ for forest and vineyard extracts respectively decreased from 0.023 ± 0.002 to 0.017 ± 0.001 and from 0.022 ± 0.003 to 0.017 ± 0.003 ; and the E2.E3 index values decreased from 7.60 ± 0.47 to 6.33 ± 0.59 and from 6.86 ± 0.92 to 5.91 ± 0.90 . The values of the SR, E2.E4 and E3.E4 (Table 1) ratios did not vary significantly between the soil extraction and the last day of the experiment (Figure 3.D, E, F).

Regarding samples collected in adjacent streams, no significant difference was observed according to land use. However, the indicator SR showed significant differences between high water and low water sampling periods (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=20$). Indeed, values of SR varied between 0.751 ± 0.0497 to 0.808 ± 0.012 and 0.775 ± 0.027 to 0.833 ± 0.011 for both forest and vineyard adjacent water samples. Previous studies on soil extracts and stream water samples (Sanderman et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021) have reported UV-Visible index values in the same ranges as those presented in this work.

3.3 EEM fluorescence spectroscopy

The humification index (HIX; Table 1) showed a significant increasing trend during the first days of incubation (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$). These values stabilized for vineyard soil extracts while they decreased for forest soil extracts at the end of incubation (Figure 4.A). Indeed, the values increased from 3.1 ± 1.0 to 3.7 ± 1.5 for the forest soil extracts and from 2.9 ± 0.4 to 6.6 ± 0.7 for the vineyard soil extracts. Therefore, a significant difference (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$) is also observed between the two types of soils at the end of the experiment. No particular trend was observed for the indicator of biological activity (BIX; Table 1) and the Freshness index (FI; Table 1) during the incubation period (Figure 4.B, C). BIX values ranged from 0.71 ± 0.08 to 0.79 ± 0.08 for forest soil extracts; and from 0.63 ± 0.05 to 0.67 ± 0.02 for vineyard soil extracts; FI values from 1.40 ± 0.06 to 1.42 ± 0.04 for forest soil extracts; and from 1.31 ± 0.08 to 1.36 ± 0.04 for vineyard soil extracts. The YFI indicator (Table 1), showed a decrease according to incubation time (Figure 4.D). This decrease, however, is very limited for both soil extracts during the incubation experiment (YFI values from 0.89 ± 0.27 to 0.71 ± 0.06 and from 0.74 ± 0.04 to 0.61 ± 0.04 respectively for forest and vineyard soil extracts).

For water samples, only HIX showed a significant difference between water collected during high and low water (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=20$). HIX values varied between 8.44 ± 0.88 and 7.28 ± 1.11 for the streams adjacent to the forest, sampled during high and low water periods. For vineyard streams, it varied between 9.05 ± 0.34 and 7.39 ± 0.53 during the two sampling periods. The other indices BIX, FI and YFI showed no significant differences between forest and vineyard waters, nor between sampling periods. Values of fluorescence indices in this work are consistent with previous studies obtained on forest soils, peat soils, and subsoil extracts (Hansen et al., 2016; Olshansky et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2022)

3.4 PARAFAC modeling

The contour plots of the 4 components determined by PARAFAC analysis are shown in supplementary material 4. Components C1 to C4 were identified from the literature and successfully matched in the OpenFluor database with similarity scores above 0.97. Component C1 showed two excitation maxima, a first one at ≤ 240 nm and a second one with lower intensity at 320 nm with an emission maxima at 420 nm. The component C1 has been described as terrestrial DOM degraded from lignin (Peleato et al., 2018) typical of soils and terrestrial sources in aquatic environments (Garcia et al., 2018; Yamashita et al., 2021). This component has further been attributed to bioavailable organic matter, microbially derived and/or sensitive to photodegradation (Cawley et al., 2012; Eder et al., 2022). Component C2 showed an excitation maxima at ≤ 240 and a lower intensity one at 390 nm with a maximum emission intensity at 510 nm. Previous studies have reported the component C2 as an ubiquitous terrestrial material with high molecular weight (MW) and aromatic content (Cawley et al., 2012; Wünsch et al., 2018; Yamashita et al., 2021). It has also been reported as fluorophores derived from higher plants and associated with photochemical (Coulson et al., 2022; Eder et al., 2022) or microbial (Cory and McKnight, 2005) degradation. Component C3 showed an excitation maximum at 365 nm and an emission at 443 nm. It has been reported to be high MW, aromatic and hydrophobic molecules, corresponding to lignin-like compounds (Dainard et al., 2015; Derrien et al., 2018; Rinot et al., 2021). Other studies reported component C3 as organic matter of plant origin that has undergone little transformation in the soil after production (Catalá et al., 2021; Retelletti Brogi et al., 2019). Finally, the component C4 showed an excitation maximum at 280 nm and an emission at 330 nm. Numerous studies have reported this component to be attributed to amino acids, either free or bound to proteins, or to phenolic-type compounds (Coble, 1996; Kida et al., 2019; Parlanti et al., 2000; Wauthy et al., 2018).

Of the four components identified, only component C4 showed a decreasing trend during the incubation experiment (Figure 5). Indeed, for both soil extracts, the maximum fluorescence intensity of the C4 component decreased significantly (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$), from 2.6 ± 0.3 to 0.8 ± 0.2 for the forest soil extracts and from 1.9 ± 0.7 to 0.5 ± 0.1 for the vineyard soil extracts. On the other hand, all components showed significant differences between streams adjacent to the forest sampled during high and low water periods. In these samples, component C1 varied between 0.62 ± 0.1 and 0.97 ± 0.19 R.U, C2 between 0.34 ± 0.06 and 0.58 ± 0.11 R.U, component C3 between 0.22 ± 0.03 and 0.34 ± 0.06 R.U and component C4 varied between 0.10 ± 0.02 and 0.16 ± 0.01 R.U.

3.5 Size exclusion chromatography and Gaussian decomposition

The HPSEC/UV-fluorescence chromatograms provided additional information on the size distribution of DOM molecules contained in the samples. The Gaussian decomposition of the chromatograms revealed 6 to 8 fractions, depending on wavelength detection, distributed throughout the chromatogram. The percentage contribution of the LMW fraction (Section 2.5.4), for UV detection at 254 nm (Figure 6.A) and fluorescence at 280-330 and 278-354 nm (Figure 6.C, D), was significantly higher, before incubation, in forest soil extracts compared to vineyard soil extracts (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$). At the end of the experiment, the percentage of LMW was different only for UV detection at 254 nm (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$). For the adjacent water streams, significant differences were observed on the 280-330 and 278-354 nm fluorescence ranges according to the low vs. high water hydrological regime and this for both soil occupations (Figure 6.C,D). The MMW fraction, which corresponds to all Gaussian components classified between 1 kDa and 10 kDa, showed the least variation. Nevertheless, the percentage of MMW at UV 254 nm were significantly different between the two types of soil extracts at the end of the incubation period (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$). The HMW fraction (> 10 kDa) showed very low percentages ($< 10\%$) compared to the LMW and MMW fractions

387 for UV detection at 254 nm and fluorescence at 315-443 nm (figure 6B). However, the HMW
388 fraction was higher for 280-330 and 278-354 nm fluorescence detection with a significant
389 difference (Tukey test, $p < 0.05$, $n=50$) between forest and vineyard soil extracts before
390 incubation. For adjacent streams, the HMW fraction was also present at very low percentages
391 and no difference was observed between soil occupations nor between low and high water
392 regimes.

4 Discussion

4.1 Incubation experiment: from labile to refractory DOM in soil extracts

In the natural environment, the labile fraction of DOM is mainly degraded in the soil before being transported to the adjacent stream. Thus, the incubation experiment was designed to remove a possible labile fraction of DOM in the soil extracts before comparison with DOM from adjacent streams. During the 28-day incubation, most of the DOC mass was lost in the first 3 days for both soils (Figure 2A). The percentage of DOC loss stabilized between 40 and 70 % after 3 days incubation. These results are consistent with those obtained in previous studies investigating the biodegradation of water-extracted DOM from different soil types such as forest, pasture and agricultural soils (Guigue et al., 2014; Kalbitz et al., 2003). DOC loss is mostly explained by the degradation of labile DOM that is easily assimilated by microorganisms. It is well known that certain organic molecules, such as amino acids or carboxylic acids, are considered as labile while other molecules, such as lignins, are considered more recalcitrant (Eilers et al., 2010). The variability of the percentage of DOC loss observed in this study (between 40 and 70 %) could be explained by differences in the microorganisms communities contained in the soil samples. Indeed, it has been shown that a greater diversity of microorganisms in soils favors the DOC degradation (Raczka et al., 2021). Different proportions of labile and recalcitrant DOM pools in the soils could also explain the variability of DOC loss. Thus, soils containing higher levels of labile DOM will be degraded to a greater proportion than soils containing high levels of refractory DOM.

The degradation of labile molecules induced an increase in the average aromaticity content, average size and molecular weight of molecules, as highlighted by the indicators SUVA₂₅₄, E2:E3 and SR. Previous studies have also shown that degraded organic matter has relatively higher aromaticity content and molecular weight (Guarch-Ribot and Butturini, 2016; Hansen et al., 2016). The E3:E4 indicator being inversely correlated to the humification of DOM (Claret

et al., 2003) can be interpreted with the HIX indicator. The HIX and E3/E4 indicators show that the degree of humification of soil extracts was low at the beginning of incubation, and then increased to stabilize after 3 days of incubation for vineyard soils. For forest soils, a gradual increase was observed throughout the incubation period until 28 days where a significant decrease occurred. The unexpected decrease observed for forest soil extracts at the end of incubation could be explained by the very high values of γ band (280-330 nm); linked with protein-like compounds. The HIX index corresponds to the ratio of areas 435-480 nm and 300-345 nm of the emission spectrum for an excitation at 255 nm, thus a high γ band intensity can make the HIX values vary drastically. The other explanation could come from the humic fraction of forest soils. Indeed, it is a complex fraction consisting of functional groups such as phenols, quinones, methoxyls and carbonyls (Maccarthy, 2001), that are recalcitrant with a slow kinetic of degradation due to its complex chemical nature (Marschner et al., 2008). Humification is a process of DOM condensation resulting from several interactions such as plant alteration with partially degraded lignins or the transformation of polyphenols, amino acids and some sugars into quinones under the enzymatic action of microorganisms (Stevenson, 1995). This slow process can sometimes take years.

The BIX index showed a significant variability in forest soil extracts contrary to vineyard soils. This could be explained by a more contrasted biological activity in forest soil extracts than in vineyard soils. Based on the hypothesis that biological activity is directly related to the diversity of microbial communities, vineyard soil extracts may have less microbial diversity due to intensive soil exploitation allowing an homogenization of the communities present in the soil (Jangid et al., 2008). Other studies mention the concept of "priming effect", which reflects a greater mineralization of organic matter in soils enriched with fresh litter (Derrien et al., 2019). This could be the case for forest soils which are subject to a contribution of fresh organic matter through vegetation cover. In addition, the significant decrease of the YFI indicator shows a

lower contribution of protein-like compounds at the end of the experiment. EEM fluorescence and PARAFAC decomposition bring details on the nature of the degraded molecules along the incubation. The component C4 (275-350) allows to affirm that some degraded labile molecules are tryptophan-like with recent biological production (Fellman et al., 2008). No significant difference was observed in the evolution of the other components C1, C2 and C3 which are characteristic of the following typical compounds: terrestrial humic-like (plant derived), humic-like matter, commonly found in agricultural catchments and terrestrial high aromatic and hydrophobic macromolecules (Derrien et al., 2018; Jørgensen et al., 2011; Rinot et al., 2021). It has been reported in previous studies that the degraded molecules are generally low molecular weight compounds (Fujii et al., 2010; Ondrasek et al., 2019). However, the size exclusion chromatography showed a decrease in the contribution of low molecular weight molecules LMW < 1k Da, and also high molecular weight macromolecules HMW > 10 kDa at the same time. Based on these results, protein-like content of DOM is likely to be composed of both LMW and HMW fractions. The fraction of medium molecular weight (MMW) compounds, linked to C1, C2 and C3 PARAFAC components (lignin compounds and terrestrial derived DOM), did not vary significantly and seemed to be recalcitrant and not easily degradable.

4.2 Evolution of DOM characteristics from soils to adjacent streams

The evolution of soil extracted DOM during the incubation experiment in comparison with the adjacent watercourse DOM is shown in the the principal component analysis (PCA), plotted with the 26 optical indicators calculated from UV-Visible, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence (Figure 7). The PCA shows that the optical fingerprints of forest and vineyard soil extracts are more distinct at the end of incubation experiment (82 days) than before. . This could be explained by the nature and the proportion of labile vs refractory fractions of DOM before and after incubation. This suggests that the labile fraction of DOM is not so different between the two soil types. For all indicators, the evolution of DOM optical fingerprints during the

incubation tends towards that of adjacent watercourse (Figure 7). The adjacent stream samples show relatively high contribution of medium weighted molecules MMW and a lower contribution of both low and high molecules of the protein and humic types (LMW and HMW). This could be explained by the fact that watercourse DOM has already undergone mineralization processes, mainly through microorganisms in top soil layers, before it reaches the adjacent watercourses. Other abiotic ways such as photodegradation and adsorption can influence DOM composition, which can explain the observed differences between samples at the end of incubation and the adjacent watercourse samples. The PCA also showed that water samples taken downstream of the forest soils seem more heterogeneous than downstream of the vineyard soils, whatever the hydrological regime. This heterogeneity could be explained by in-situ complex abiotic processes as well as by the difference in vegetation cover in the Ardières-Morcille watershed. Indeed, the forest sources considered in this study are mostly influenced by coniferous forests, but broad-leaved forests and natural grasslands can represent up to 35% of the total sub-catchment areas (calculation based on land use maps, CLC 2018). A previous study highlighted different DOM quality between deciduous and coniferous forests (Thieme et al., 2019). On the contrary, the viticultural sub-catchments are very homogeneous in terms of vegetation cover as they are subject to strict local regulations. The hydrologic regime also seems to have an influence on DOM quality especially for vineyard adjacent watercourses. This could be explained by the contribution of an autochthonous source being more heightened during low water periods. Autochthonous DOM is essentially produced locally by the microbial activities (Münster, 1993) and it was demonstrated previously that there is an impact of agriculture on increasing carbon and nutrient inputs to downstream watercourses (Williams et al., 2010). These nutrient inputs provide energy support for microbial activity which can affect DOM quantity and quality.

4.3 How do the fingerprints match between DOM in soil extracts after incubation and that in downstream watercourses during high and low water periods?

As discussed in the previous section, hydrological regime influences the quantity and quality of the DOM in the watercourses. It is therefore more appropriate to look for markers of forest and vineyard soils downstream of the waterways draining these soils considering both high and low water sampling periods. To do this, a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) was applied in two steps. In a first step, the construction of the LDA 1 was conducted with 3 groups: i) a first group, called Forest DOM HW (high water), containing samples of degraded forest soils and adjacent forest streams collected at high water. ii) A second group, called Vineyard DOM HW, which contained samples of degraded vineyard soils with water from adjacent vineyard streams collected at high water, and iii) a third group called low water samples, which contained all the samples from adjacent watercourses taken during low water periods. The purpose of the first LDA (Figure 8.A) was to identify if there was similarities between DOM markers from soil extracts and DOM from the adjacent watercourse during high water period. In a second step, a LDA 2 was carried out by reversing the groups of water samples, thus considering i) a first group Forest DOM LW (low water), which contained the samples of forest soil extracts and forest adjacent watercourses taken during low water. ii) a second group of Vineyard DOM LW with samples from degraded vineyard soils and low water vineyard watercourses; and iii) a third group of high water samples containing all the samples of the adjacent watercourses taken during high water. The second LDA (Figure 8.B) was conducted to determine any similarities between soil extracts and adjacent watercourses during low water periods.

Among the 26 optical indicators (UV-Visible, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence) considered in this study, 6 indicators were able to correctly classify the samples into Forest DOM HW, Vineyard DOM HW and Low water samples groups (Figure 8). They correspond to one UV-Visible indicator (slope ratio SR), two EEM fluorescence indicators

(HIX and PARAFAC component C1) and three HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators (LMW-TSA 254, MMW TSF 278-354 and MMW TSF 280-330). The results from LDA 2 also allowed the selection of 6 indicators that classified the samples into Forest DOM LW, Vineyard DOM LW and High water samples groups (Figure 8.B). There were one UV-Visible indicator (SUVA₂₅₄), three EEM fluorescence indicators (HIX, FI and YFI) and two HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators (MMW TSF 278-354 and MMW TSF 280-330). Through this supervised cross-sectional analysis, we have highlighted a series of indicators of terrigenous contribution in both high water and low water periods. These results reveal that: (i) there is an influence of land use on the quality of DOM in adjacent streams using selected optical indicators, and (ii) this influence is present as well in periods of high water as in periods of low water. During high water, DOM sampled downstream of forest soils comprise of relatively lower molecular weight compounds with low degrees of humification and higher contribution of protein-type molecules smaller than 1000 Da. On the contrary, the vineyard DOM carries a higher molecular weight, a higher degree of humification and a lower contribution of small protein-type molecules. During the low water period, DOM sampled downstream of the forest soils has higher aromaticity and molecular weight than the vineyard DOM which contains relatively low molecules. Indeed, vineyard DOM could be impacted by higher microbial activity (Chavarria et al., 2021; Williams et al., 2010). The differences observed between DOM sampled downstream forest and vineyard regardless the hydrological conditions can be explained by several mechanisms. First, the presence of a biodegraded form of DOM in vineyard soils probably due to the intensive exploitation of the soils and the low rooting networks. Indeed, previous studies reported an higher organic matter oxidation in agricultural soils which are more prone to erosion than forest soils and to an accelerated phenomenon of open-air oxidation in the upper soil layers (Graeber et al., 2012; Shang et al., 2018). Secondly, given the very steep slopes that favore surface runoff in the Ardières-Morcille watershed, the

differences observed between high and low water could be explained by a contribution of surface soil organic matter during high water and a contribution of deeper and more degraded soil organic matter during low water period.

It is important to note that DOM fingerprints presented in this study are not generalizable to other watersheds. Considerable differences can be observed from one watershed to another depending on topography, flow direction and soil characteristics. However, the fingerprints of DOM sampled in a stream downstream of a homogeneous watershed while accounting for hydrologic conditions provides a good representation of land use type. This sampling method can be applied to other land use types with different agricultural and livestock types and pressures. Moreover, given the complexity of DOM composition and reactivity, the combination of optical indicators was essential. The result of the LDA, when calculated with UV-Visible, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators separately, could not provide a good differentiation between forest and vineyard DOM (Supplementary Material 5). At last, indicators from HPSEC/UV-fluorescence proposed in this study, have shown potential as good markers of diffuse sources of DOM in streams as discussed more in depth in the next part 4.4 .

4.4 Relevance of HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators to study DOM

The HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators presented in this study provided additional information regarding classical optical proxies (Table 1). For example, the SUVA indicator highlight the aromatic content of DOM and the LMW TSA 254 indicator reflects the contribution of molecules lower than 1 k Da (Supplementary Material 6). A negative correlation (Pearson test, $p < 0.05$, $n=70$) between the two indicators demonstrates that the low molecular weight compounds detected at 254 nm are poorly aromatic and that the aromatic content of DOM is mostly found in compounds larger than 1 k Da. The correlation matrix (Supplementary

Material 6) also shows that the indicator HMW TSF 280-330 is positively correlated with the component PARAFAC C4 associated with protein-like compounds. This suggests that the C4 component is composed of relatively large molecules (> 10 k Da). In the context of this study, this showed that DOM labile pool was also composed of high molecular weight compounds in contrast to what has been reported in previous studies (Curtis-Jackson et al., 2009; Derrien et al., 2019). Other indicators of HPSEC/UV-fluorescence (e.g. HMW TSF 278-354) point out the limitations of using classic indicators like slope ratio SR indicator (Table 1). Indeed, in some soil extract, the SR indicator showed the presence of DOM mostly consisting of low molecular weight compounds, while the HMW TSF 278-354 indicator showed a relatively high contribution of amino-acid type compounds larger than 10 k Da. This result suggests that the SR indicator could be limited to the description of certain types of molecules that exclude acid-amine like compounds. Finally, the indicators from HPSEC/UV-fluorescence could be used on a larger scale like in monitoring studies of agricultural, industrial and urban discharges. The information provided by these indicators would allow better identification of anthropogenic compounds (e.g. pesticides, pharmaceuticals) that are very complicated to detect using classical optical proxies as most of these compounds have almost similar optical properties (Hassoun et al., 2017). Also, the establishment of databases of HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators specific to anthropogenic compounds of interest, could facilitate their detection at lower cost than with current techniques using chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry.

5 Conclusion

The objective of this study was to provide insight into the sampling of terrigenous diffuse sources of DOM directly into streams using relevant land use markers. These markers were identified by comparing DOM from soil extracts with adjacent watercourse DOM, sampled at the outlet of homogenous sub-catchments during low and high water.

The UV-Visible, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence techniques showed an evolution of DOM extracted from forest and vineyard soils during a 28-day incubation experiment. Indicators calculated from these techniques showed that the evolution of DOM mainly occurred in the three first days of incubation. This resulted in the degradation of high (>10 k Da) and low (<1 k Da) MW protein-like molecules (labile fraction of DOM), leading to an increase of aromaticity and humification mostly observed in medium molecular weight compounds (from 1 to 10 k Da). The labile fraction of DOM did not differ according to the land use.

Adjacent stream samples had distinct optical fingerprints influenced mostly by the hydrological regime, as DOM sampled during high water periods showed a large contribution of LMW and HMW than DOM sampled during low water periods. At the end of the incubation study, forest and vineyard soil extract tend to fingerprints of the adjacent watercourse samples. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) revealed the relevance of 9 indicators to differentiate forest DOM and vineyard DOM fingerprints during high and low water sampling. These results demonstrate that a representative sampling of a diffuse source of DOM in rivers should take into account both the homogeneity of the upstream sub-catchments in terms of land use but also the hydrological conditions. The cross exploitation of the data from these three techniques seems appropriate to establish DOM fingerprints. However, the fingerprints of forest and vineyard diffuse sources studied in this work are not exhaustive contrary to the methodological approach,

609 which can be applicable to other types of diffuse sources. Indeed, application of this approach
610 on a larger scale would provide specific fingerprints for terrigenous diffuse sources in streams.

Acknowledgements

This study was part of the “CHYPSTER” project supported by the French National Research Agency (ANR-21-CE34-0013-01) and “IDESOC” project granted by Zone Atelier Bassin du Rhône (ZABR) and Rhône Méditerranée Corse Water Agency (AERMC). The authors wish to acknowledge Loïc Richard and Alexandra Gruat for their assistance in field sampling, samples preparation and chemical analysis.

Credit Author Statement

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Figures

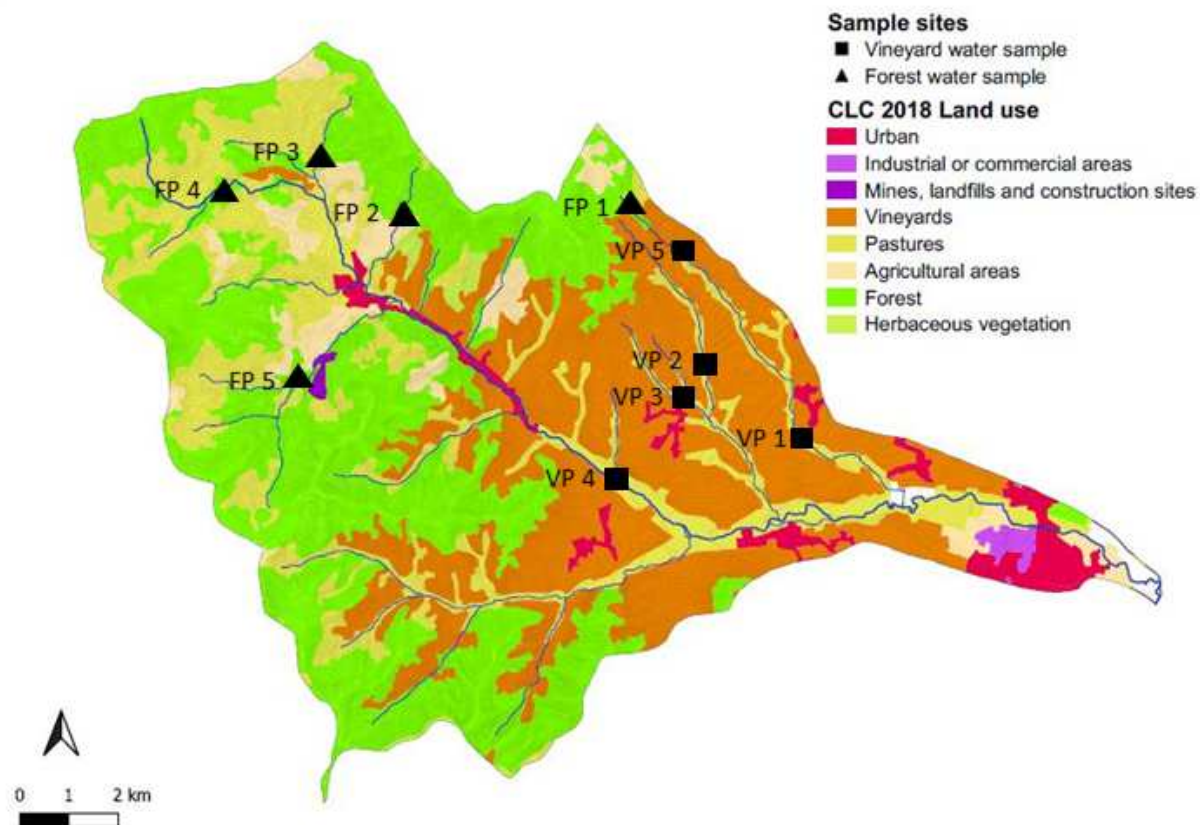


Figure 1. Map of Ardieres-Morcille catchment showing the location of the water-sampling sites (FP: forest sampling points, VP: vineyard sampling points) and the land-use boundaries (Corine Land Cover CLC 2018). The soil samples were collected upstream the water sampling points.

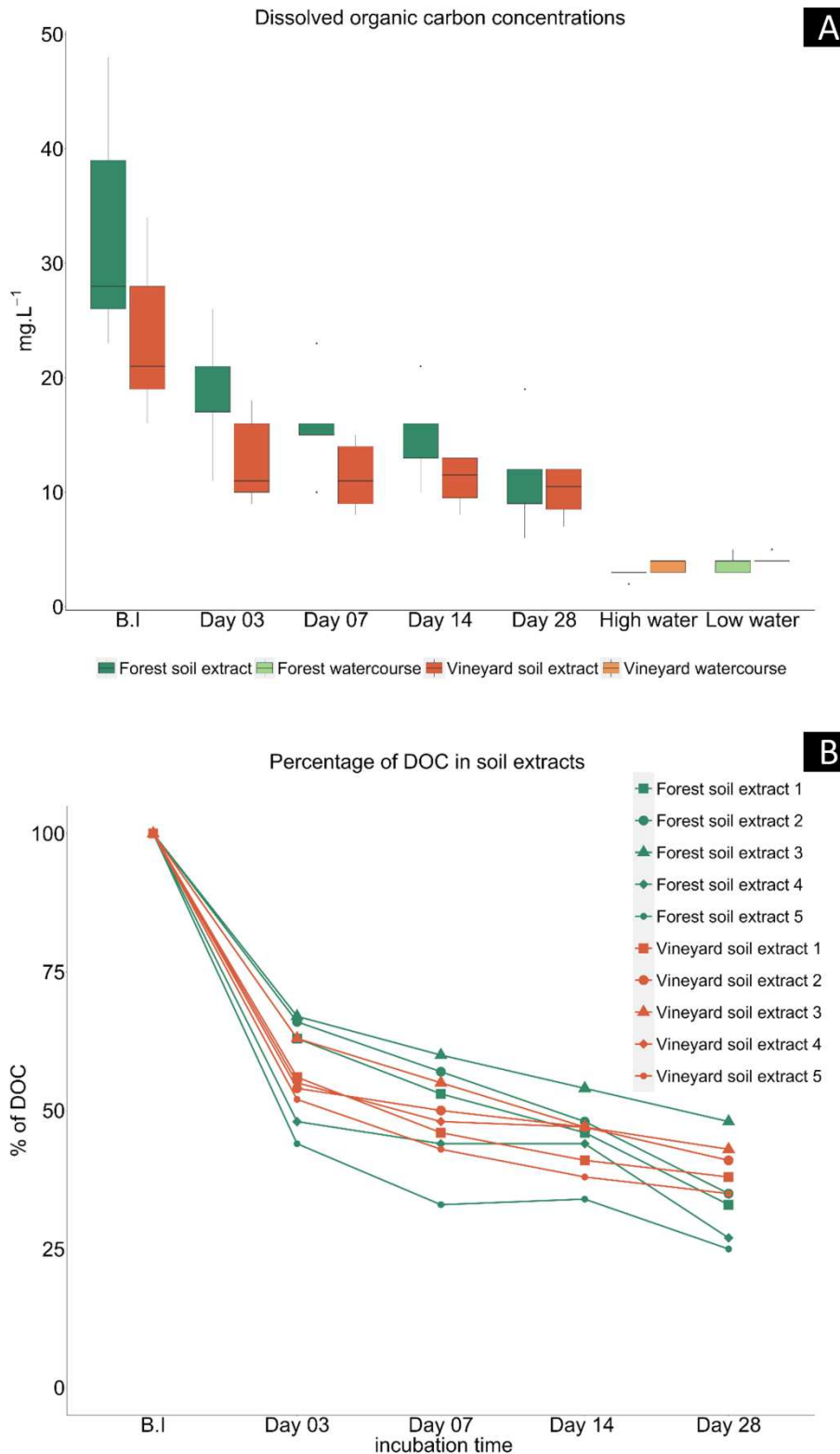
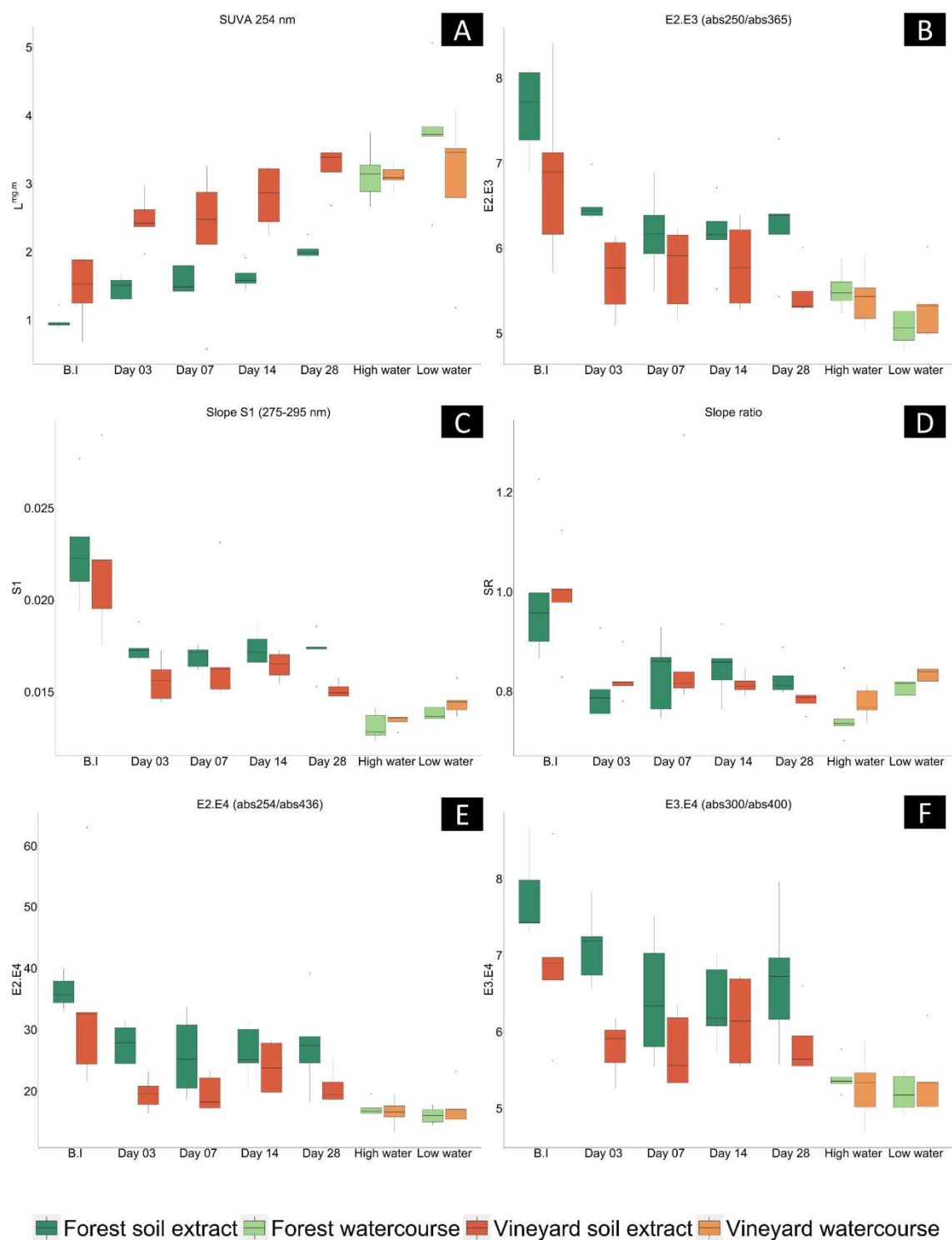


Figure 2. A: Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations measured i) in soil extracts (forest in dark green and vineyard in dark orange) before incubation (B.I) and after 3, 7, 14 and 28 days of incubation, and ii) in water samples collected from streams adjacent to the forest (in light green) and vineyard (in light orange) soils during high and low water periods. B: Percentage of DOC for soil extracts during the 28 days incubation experiment relative to the DOC concentration measured before incubation.



916 **Figure 3.** UV-Visible indicators measured i) in soil extracts (forest in dark green and vineyard
917 in dark orange) before incubation (B.I) and after 3, 7, 14 and 28 days of incubation, and ii) in
918 water samples collected from streams adjacent to the forest (in light green) and vineyard (in
919 light orange) soils during high and low water periods. A: SUVA₂₅₄, B: E2.E3 (abs250/abs365),

920 C: Slope S1 (275_295 nm), D: Slope ratio SR (S275_295nm/S350_400nm), E: E2.E4
921 (abs254/abs436) and F: E3.E4 (abs300/abs400).

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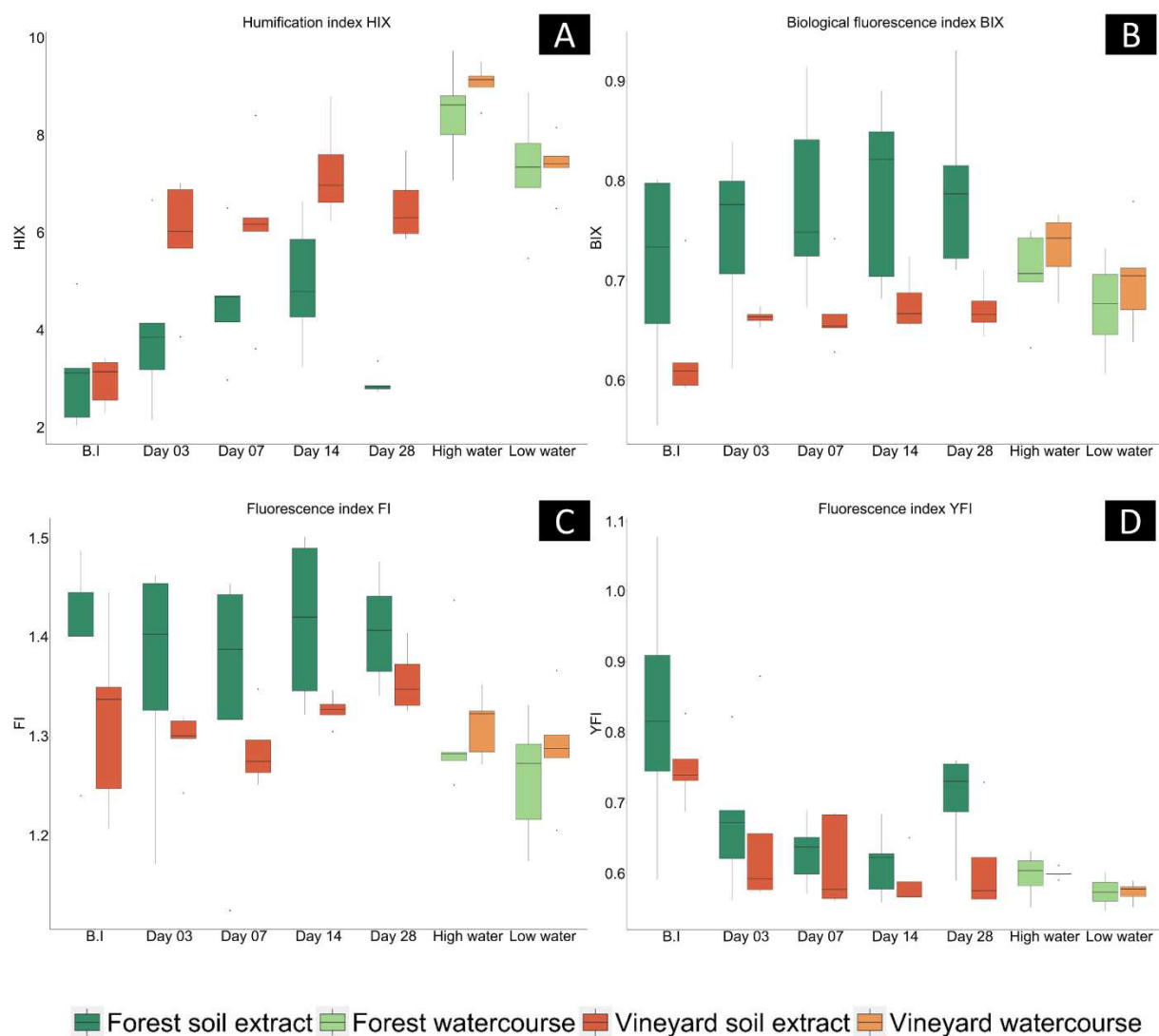


Figure 4. EEM fluorescence indicators measured i) in soil extracts (forest in dark green and vineyard in dark orange) before incubation (B.I) and after 3, 7, 14 and 28 days of incubation, and ii) in water samples collected from streams adjacent to the forest (in light green) and vineyard (in light orange) soils during high and low water periods. A: humification index HIX, B: biological fluorescence index BIX, C: fluorescence index FI and D: fluorescence index YFI.

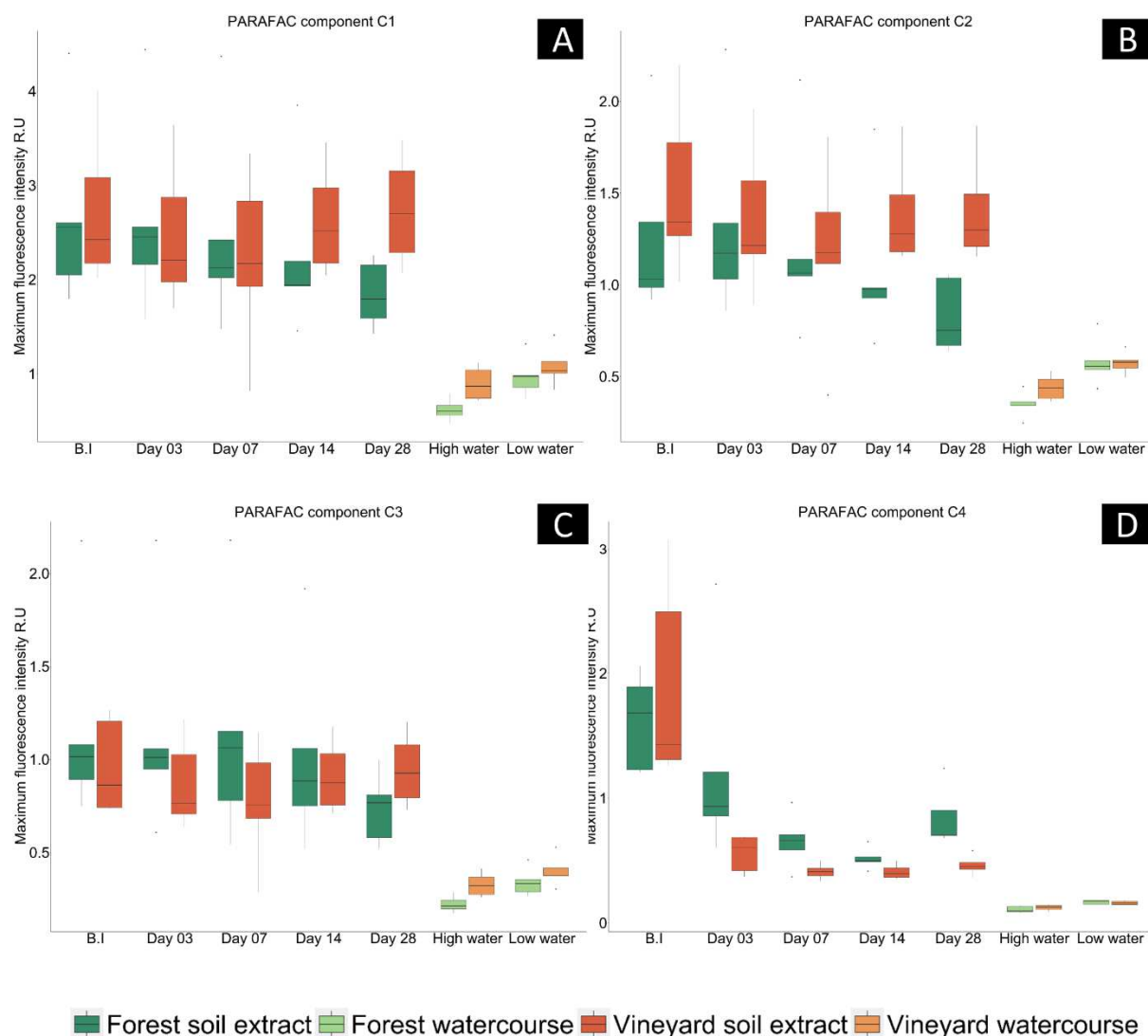
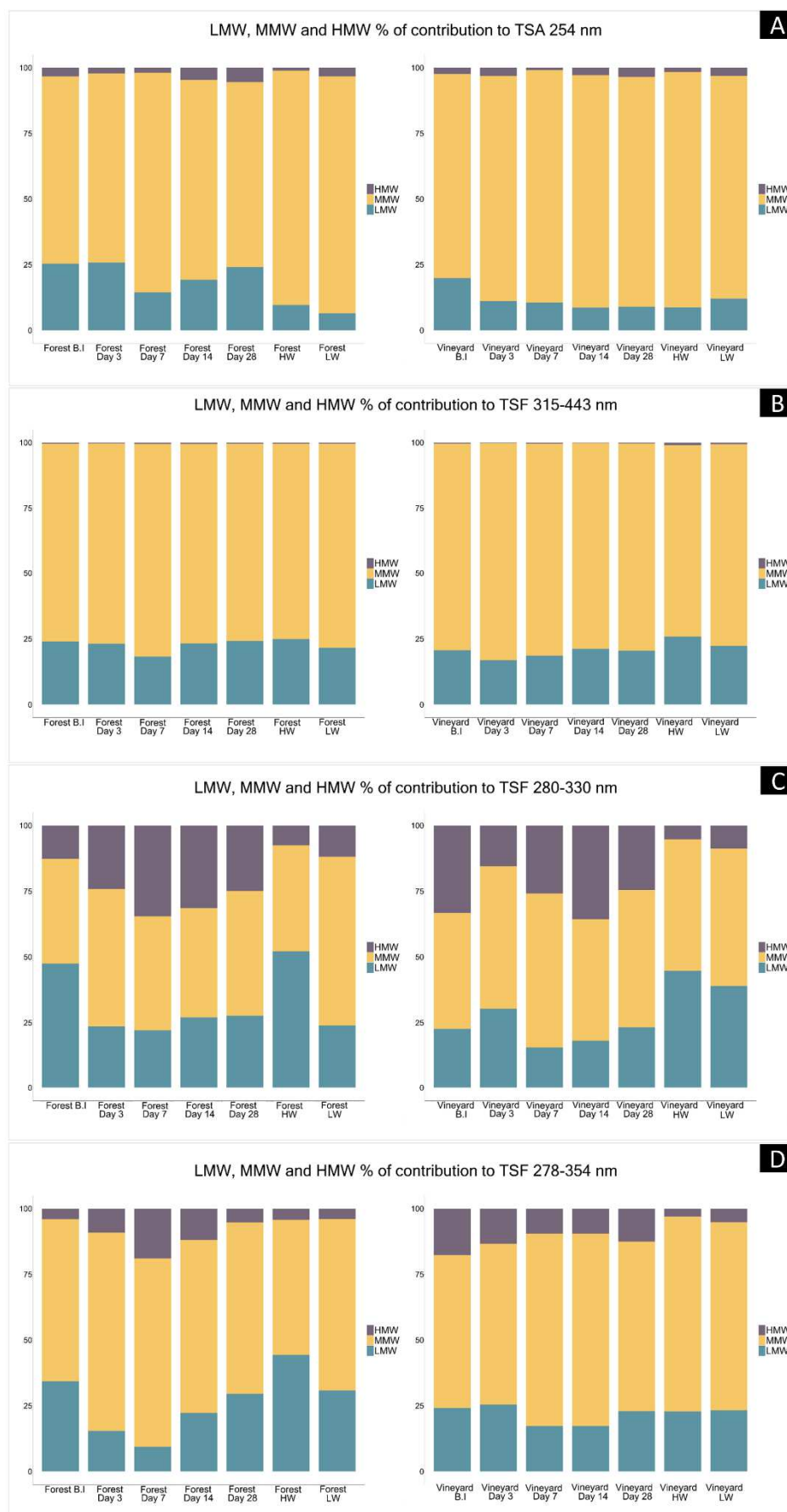


Figure 5. PARAFAC components C1 (<240(320)-420 nm), C2 (<240(390)-510 nm), C3 (365-443 nm) and C4 (280-330 nm) measured i) in soil extracts (forest in dark green and vineyard in dark orange) before incubation (B.I) and after at 3, 7, 14 and 28 days of incubation, and ii) in water samples collected from streams adjacent to the forest (in light green) and vineyard (in light orange) soils during high and low water periods.



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943 **Figure 6.** Low Molecular Weight (LMW; blue bars), Medium Molecular Weight (MMW;
944 orange bars) and High Molecular Weight (HMW; purple bars) percentage of contribution to:
945 A: Total Sec Absorbance TSA at PDA 254 nm, B: Total Sec Fluorescence TSF at Excitation
946 Emission wavelengths 345-443 nm, C: TSF at fluorescence Excitation Emission wavelengths
947 280-330 nm, D: TSF at fluorescence Excitation Emission wavelengths 278-354 nm.. Samples
948 plotted are soil extracts before incubation (B.I) and then at 3, 7, 14 and 28 days of incubation
949 as well as for water samples collected from streams adjacent to the forest and vineyard soils
950 during high and low water periods.

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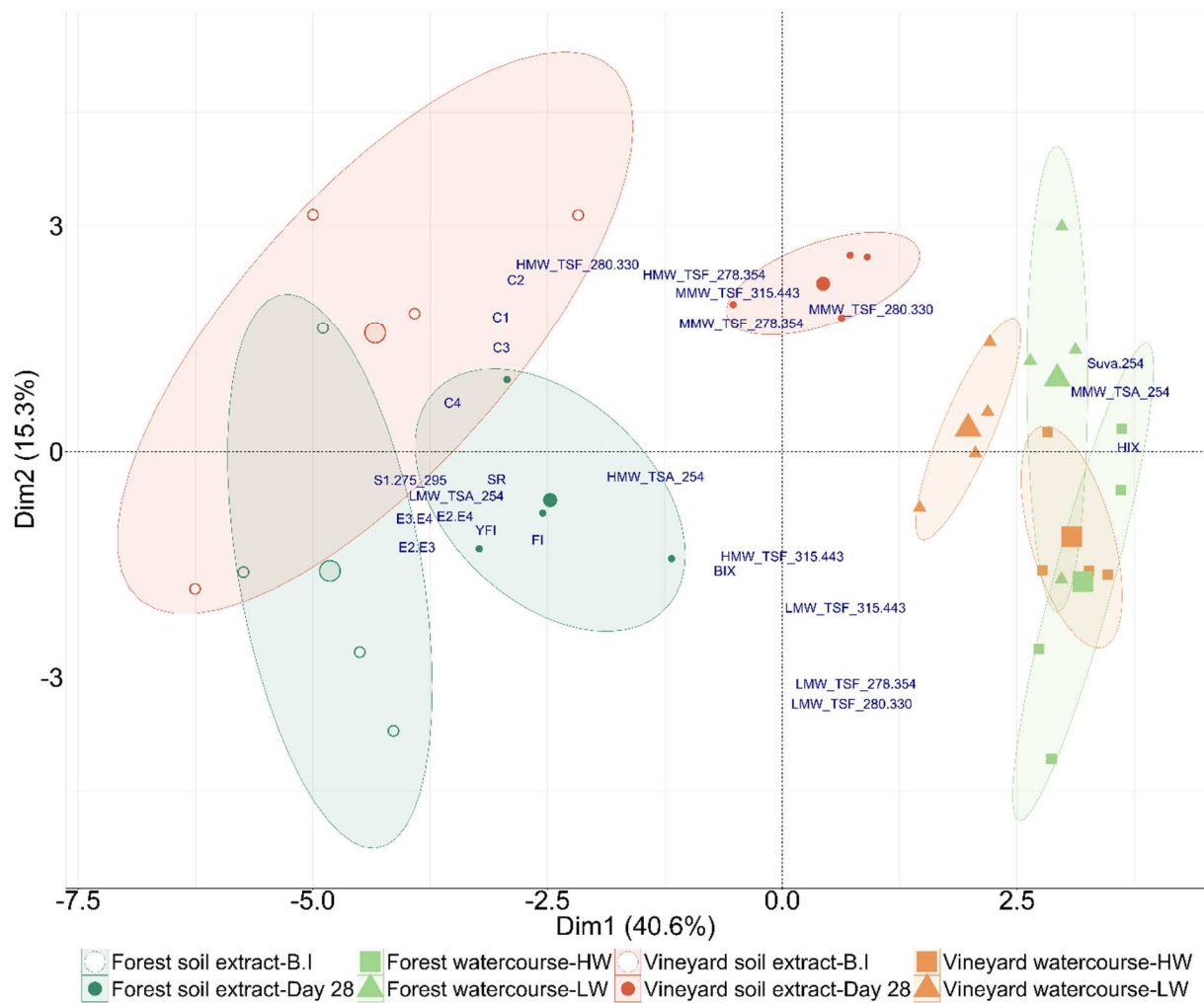


Figure 7. First factorial plane of the principal component analysis (PCA) performed on data from forest and vineyard soil extracts before incubation (B.I), after 28 days of incubation and their adjacent water stream samples collected during high and low water periods. The variables considered in the PCA are the UV-Visible, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence indicators.

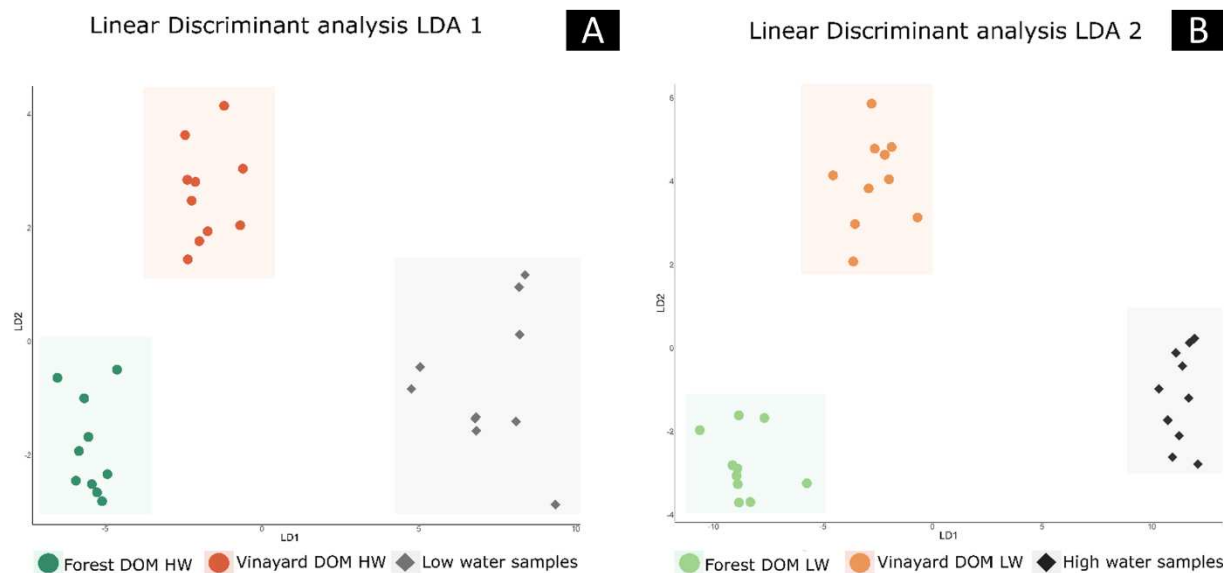


Figure 8. A. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA1) calculated with 26 indicators from UV-Visible, EEM fluorescence and HPSEC/UV-fluorescence to discriminate forest and vineyard DOM taken during high water from low water DOM. B. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA2) calculated with the same indicators to discriminate forest and vineyard DOM taken during low water periods from High water DOM.

987 Table 1. Classical UV-Visible and fluorescence indicators to characterize dissolved organic
 988 matter.

Indicator	Calculation	Interpretation	References
SUVA ₂₅₄	$\frac{Abs\ 254\ nm}{[DOC]}$	Correlated with the aromaticity of DOM.	(Weishaar et al., 2003)
E2.E3	$\frac{Abs\ 250\ nm}{Abs\ 365\ nm}$	Negatively correlated to organic molecules size	Helms et al., 2008
E2.E4	$\frac{Abs\ 254\ nm}{Abs\ 436\ nm}$	Autochthonous versus terrestrial DOM	Jaffé et al., 2004; Li and Hur, 2017
E3.E4	$\frac{Abs\ 300\ nm}{Abs\ 400\ nm}$	Negatively correlated to humification degree	Claret et al., 2003; Li and Hur, 2017
S ₁ (275-295 nm)	$\alpha_{\lambda} = \alpha_{\lambda 0} e^{S(\lambda 0 - \lambda)}$ α_{λ} : absorption coefficient at specific wavelength	Negatively correlated to aromatic carbon content	Stedmon et al., 2000 Helms et al., 2008
S ₂ (350-400 nm)	$\lambda 0$: reference wavelength S: exponential slope		

SR	$\frac{S1}{S2}$	Negatively correlated to molecular weight	Helms et al., 2008
HIX	$\frac{\sum IF\ 435-480}{\sum IF\ 300-445}$ at 255 nm	Correlated to the aromatic carbon content/humification degree of DOM	Zsolnay et al., 1999
BIX	$\frac{IF\ 380}{IF\ 430}$ at 310 nm	Indicator of recent autochthonous production of DOM due to biological activity	(Huguet et al., 2009)
FI	$\frac{IF\ 450}{IF\ 500}$ at 370 nm	Terrigenous vs microbial DOM	Mcknight et al., 2001
YFI	$\frac{FEI\ 350-400}{FEI\ 400-450}$ at 280 nm FEI : average fluorescence intensities	Increases the resolution of FI indicator	Heo et al., 2016

