# Composition of dissolved organic matter within a lacustrine environment.

3	
4	
5	Margaret V. McCaul <sup>A</sup> , David Sutton <sup>C</sup> , André J. Simpson <sup>B</sup> , Adrian Spence <sup>A</sup> , David J.
6	McNally <sup>B</sup> , Brian. W. Moran <sup>A</sup> , Alok Goel <sup>D</sup> , Brendan O'Connor <sup>D</sup> , Kris Hart <sup>A</sup> , Brian P.
7	Kelleher <sup>A, E</sup>
8	
9	<sup>A</sup> School of Chemical Sciences, Dublin City University, Glasnevin, Dublin 9, Ireland.
10	<sup>B</sup> Department of Chemistry, University of Toronto, Scarborough College, 1265 Military
11	Trail, Toronto, Ontario, M1C1A4.
12	<sup>C</sup> School of Science, Limerick Institute of Technology, Limerick, Ireland.
13	<sup>D</sup> Center for Bioanalytical Sciences and School of Biotechnology, DCU, Glasnevin,
14	Dublin 9, Ireland.
15	<sup>E</sup> Corresponding author. E-mail: brian.kelleher@dcu.ie
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	
26	
27	
28	

## 2 Environmental context.

3

Freshwater dissolved organic matter (DOM) is a complex mixture of chemical components that are central to many environmental processes, including carbon and nitrogen cycling, but questions remain as to its chemical characteristics, sources and transformation mechanisms. We studied the nature of DOM in a lake system and found that it is influenced by anthropogenic activities and also by soil microbial biomass. Human activities can therefore influence the huge amounts of carbon sequestered as DOM.

11

#### 12 Abstract

13

14 Freshwater dissolved organic matter (DOM) is a complex mixture of chemical 15 components that are central to many environmental processes, including carbon and 16 nitrogen cycling. However, questions remain as to its chemical characteristics, sources 17 and transformation mechanisms. Here, we employ 1- and 2-D nuclear magnetic 18 resonance (NMR) spectroscopy to investigate the structural components of lacustrine 19 DOM from Ireland, and how it varies within a lake system, as well as to assess potential 20 sources. Major components found, such as carboxyl-rich alicyclic molecules (CRAM) are 21 consistent with those recently identified in marine and freshwater DOM. Lignin-type 22 markers and protein/peptides were identified and vary spatially. Phenylalanine was 23 detected in lake areas influenced by agriculture while it is not detectable where zebra 24 mussels are prominent. The presence of peptidoglycan, lipoproteins, large polymeric 25 carbohydrates and proteinaceous material supports the substantial contribution of 26 material derived from microorganisms. Evidence is provided that peptidoglycan and silicate species may in part originate from soil microbes. 27

- 29
- 30
- 31
- 32

1 Key words: Dissolved organic matter, NMR, lake, variability.

# 2 **1. Introduction**

3

4 Dissolved organic matter (DOM), both marine and freshwater, comprises of the largest 5 pool of exchangeable carbon on the Earth's surface and is derived from numerous 6 sources that influence its relative reactivity and our ability to predict its storage capacity and turnover times.<sup>[1,2]</sup> Terrestrial and freshwater DOM, whose input to ocean waters is 7 largely controlled by riverine sources, experiences an annual flux of ca.  $0.4 \times 10^{15}$  g 8 C/year to the marine environment.<sup>[3]</sup> The cycling of DOM from fresh to marine water is 9 10 not only important in the global carbon cycle but also plays an important role in the 11 enhanced solubility, bioavailability and fate of chemical contaminants and their global transport.<sup>[4,5]</sup> 12

13 Despite this importance, there is still much to learn about the chemical composition of 14 freshwater DOM and how chemical constituents vary worldwide, and between freshwater and marine environments.<sup>[6,7]</sup> The application of NMR to study structures and interactions 15 in environmental chemistry is growing and is a powerful tool in helping unravel the key 16 structural components in major global carbon pools.<sup>[8-11]</sup> In recent work, 1- and 2-D 17 solution state NMR spectroscopy has shown that major structural components of lake 18 19 freshwater include carboxyl-rich alicyclic molecules (CRAM), heteropolysaccharides and aromatic compounds.<sup>[12]</sup> These components were first reported, and are consistent with 20 those identified, in marine DOM.<sup>[13]</sup> Furthermore, it has been tentatively suggested that 21 CRAM may be derived from cyclic terpenoids.<sup>[12,13]</sup> However, it is not clear whether 22 23 these precursors are of terrestrial or aquatic origin or whether transformations proceed via 24 biological and/or photochemical processes.

Traditional methods of DOM isolation require large sample volumes to overcome the low concentration in natural waters<sup>[14,15]</sup> or are laborious and time consuming.<sup>[16]</sup> Sampling is often carried out over just one or two days, which is unlikely to be long enough to provide a representative sample of the area. The samplers employed in this study were deployed over a four week period and provide a more representative material that is less susceptible to specific daily fluxes. Another advantage of using passive samplers of this kind is that filtration is not required, reducing the possibility of contamination and loss of 1 material. It has also been shown that the material collected on the samplers is similar to 2 that collected using conventional DEAE-cellulose batch extraction, indicating that the 3 passive sampler approach isolates the same components.<sup>[17]</sup> The same study also reported 4 that 72-89% of total DOM can be captured on the sampler, with the majority of lost 5 material comprising low molecular weight sugars.

6 While recent studies have contributed greatly to our knowledge of the overall 7 composition of DOM, less is known of its mechanisms of formation, compositional 8 variation and the origin of the most refractory DOM. Here we use DEAE-cellulose passive samplers, as reported by Lam and Simpson,<sup>[17]</sup> to concentrate DOM from 9 10 different areas in Lough Derg, a large lake system on the River Shannon in Ireland. The 11 River Shannon is the largest catchment within Ireland and Britain, draining a land area of ca. 18.000km<sup>2</sup>. Lough Derg, the third largest lake in Ireland, is located at the southern 12 13 end of the Shannon and covers an area of 120 km<sup>2</sup>. NMR (both 1- and 2-D) is employed 14 to study DOM structure and how it varies within a lake system and assess anthropogenic 15 influence on its composition. The potential of surrounding soil microbial biomass as a 16 source of DOM is also investigated by comparison of the NMR spectra of degraded soil 17 microbial biomass and leachate to the DOM spectra.

- 18
- 19

# 20 2. Materials and Methods

21

# 22 2.1. Sampling and sample preparation

23 Six sampling sites around Lough Derg (Fig. 1) were chosen to represent areas influenced 24 by different aspects of the surrounding landscape. At each site, two passive samplers 25 (containing six membranes) were placed and suspended (using a fishing line) ca. 100 cm 26 below the surface of the water. Samples were removed from the lake after 28 days. 27 Sampling at the same sites was carried out in August 2008 and January 2009, so as to 28 assess temporal variation in DOM components. DOM was isolated using a passive sampler.<sup>[17]</sup> Water from the lough was prefiltered through 0.22 µm poly(vinylidene 29 30 difluoride) (PVDF) filters (Spectrapor). DOM was isolated on diethylaminoethyl 31 cellulose resin (Sigma Aldrich), a selective resin that adsorbs negatively charged species at neutral pH. The cellulose resin is contained within the PVDF tubing and protected via
a high density polyethylene (HDPE) casing with predrilled holes. Prior to use, DEAEcellulose was precleaned using a cycle of acid, base and distilled water washings.
Cleaned DEAE-cellulose (250 mg) was slurry packed with distilled water into 7 cm long
(24 mmwide) PVDF porous membranes, which were pre-soaked in 0.1% sodium azide
for a minimum of 48 h.

7 Extraction of bound DOM from the passive samplers was performed by cutting and 8 removing the resin from the PVDF membranes. The resin was then placed in 50 ml 9 Teflon centrifuge tubes and extracted using ca. 40 ml of 0.1 M NaOH. The tubes were 10 centrifuged (10000 g, 10 min) to pellet the resin, and the supernatant was decanted. The 11 pellet was re-suspended and the previous steps were repeated four times, or until the 12 extracting solvent was colourless, to ensure complete extraction of DOM from the resin. 13 The extracted DOM was ion-exchanged using Amberjet 1200H Plus resin (Aldrich) and 14 freeze-dried. Duplicate samples were freeze-dried and samples were re-suspended in 15 deuterium oxide (D<sub>2</sub>O) for NMR analysis.



**Fig. 1**. Satellite image of Lough Derg (Ireland) and environs showing the six sampling sites.

31

#### 2 2.2. NMR

3 Each sample (100 mg) was dissolved in 1 ml D<sub>2</sub>O and titrated to pH 13.1 using NaOD 4 (40% by wt) to ensure complete solubility. Samples were analyzed using a Bruker Avance 500 MHz NMR spectrometer equipped with a <sup>1</sup>H-BB-<sup>13</sup>C 5 mm, triple resonance 5 broadband inverse probe at 298 K. 1-D solution state <sup>1</sup>H NMR experiments were 6 7 performed with 256 scans, a recycle delay of 3 s, 32768 time domain points, and an 8 acquisition time of 1.6 s. Solvent suppression was achieved by presaturation utilizing relaxation gradients and echoes.<sup>[18]</sup> Spectra were apodized through multiplication with an 9 10 exponential decay corresponding to 1 Hz line broadening, and a zero filling factor of 2. 11 Diffusion-edited (DE) experiments were performed using a bipolar pulse longitudinal encode-decode sequence.<sup>[19]</sup> Scans (1024) were collected using a 2.5 ms, 49 gauss/cm, 12 13 sine-shaped gradient pulse, a diffusion time of 100 ms, 8192 time domain points and 410 14 ms acquisition time Spectra were apodized through multiplication with an exponential 15 decay corresponding to 10 Hz line broadening and zero filling factor of 2.

Total correlation spectroscopy (TOCSY) spectra were obtained in the phase sensitive mode, using time proportional phase incrimination (TPPI). TOCSY with presaturation of the solvent resonance was acquired using 2048 time domain points in the F2 dimension and 128 scans for each of the 128 slices in the F1 dimension. A mixing time of 60 ms was used with a relaxation delay of 1 s. Processing of both dimensions used a sine-squared function with a  $\pi/2$  phase shift and a zero-filling factor of 2. TOCSY data was collected to help confirm the major assignments highlighted on the <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C NMR correlations.

23 Heteronuclear multiple quantum coherence (HMQC) spectra were obtained in phase 24 sensitive mode using Echo/Antiecho gradient selection. The HMQC experiments were 25 carried out using 256 scans with 128 time domain points in the F1 dimension and 1024 time domain points in the F2 dimension. A relaxation delay of 1 s and  ${}^{1}J$   ${}^{1}H$ - ${}^{13}C$  of 145 26 27 Hz were used. F2 dimensions in HMQC experiments were processed using an 28 exponential function corresponding to a 15 Hz line broadening. The F1 dimension was 29 processed using a sine-squared function with a  $\pi/2$  phase shift and a zero-filling factor of 30 2.

1 Spectral predictions were carried out using Advanced Chemistry Development's 2 ACD/SpecManager and ACD/2D NMR Predictor using Neural Network Prediction 3 algorithms (version 10.02). Parameters used for prediction including line shape, spectral 4 resolution, sweep width and spectrometer frequency were set to match those of the real 5 datasets as closely as possible. Please see accessory materials for an example.

6

# 7 2.3. Growth and degradation of soil microbial biomass

8 The soil used in this study is a light clay loam from a cultivated field near Lough Derg. 9 Sampling was carried out according to a modified version of the protocol described 10 processing Joseph et al. (2003). A 25-mm-diameter clean metal core was used to sample 11 100-mm long soil cores from the A horizon, which were transferred to sterile 12 polyethylene bags and sealed at the collection site. Soil cores were transported at the 13 ambient temperature and processed within 24 h of collection. The upper 30 mm of each 14 core was discarded, and large pieces of roots and stones were removed from the 15 remainder, which was sieved through a stainless steel sieve with a 2-mm aperture 16 (IMPACT Laboratory Test Sieve, UK). Sieved samples were pooled, homogenized and 17 stored at 4°C at its field moisture content for further analysis. A CHN combustion 18 analyzer (Exeter Analytical CE440 elemental analyser) was used to determine the soil 19 elemental composition, 4.25% C, 0.58% H, 0.15% N and 0.21% P.

20 Soil microbes were cultivated according to a modified version of the protocol described by Janssen et al.<sup>[20]</sup> Soil (1 g) was added to 100 ml aliquots of sterile distilled water and 21 22 dispersed with a magnetic stirrer. Aliquots (1 ml) of soil suspension were added to 9 ml portions of dilute nutrient broth (DNB), containing  $gl^{-1}$ : Lab-Lemco' powder 1.0; yeast 23 extract 2.0; peptone 5.0 and NaCl 5.0, at a concentration of 0.08  $gl^{-1}$  distilled water 24 25 (Oxoid Ltd., Hampshire, England). Diluted soil suspensions were mixed by vortexing at ca. 150 rpm for 10 s and used to prepare serial dilutions containing  $10^{-2}$  to  $10^{-4}$  g soil 26 27 suspension. Aliquots (100  $\mu$ l) of each dilution series was plated on duplicate LB agar 28 plates containing 0.5% dripstone, 0.25% yeast extract, 0.1% D-glucose, 0.25% NaCl and 29 1.5% agar. Serially inoculated LB plates were incubated at room temperature for 2 days and all isolated colonies were selected from the  $10^{-4}$  dilution of the soil and used to 30 31 inoculate 3.0 ml LB broth. Cultures were incubated at for 48 h.

1 The degradation experiment was conducted according to a modified version of the protocol described by Kelleher *et al.*<sup>[21]</sup> The experimental design attempted to mimic *in* 2 3 situ conditions and enable collection of transformed and leached organic matter (OM) for 4 further analysis. Glass funnels with borosilicate sintered discs, with porosity grade 4 5 were submerged until flush with soil in a clay pot. The soil used was a native light clay-6 loam taken from fields surrounding Lough Derg. The cavity beneath the sintered disc was 7 filled with the native soil and secured with glass wool and 0.4 g of the soil microbial 8 biomass evenly distributed on the surface of the sintered disc. This set up enables 9 microbes in the soil to access the microbial biomass. The biomass was sprinkled with 10 water every second day to mimic rain and the runoff was collected in a vial attached to 11 the end of the funnel. Moisture levels were kept constant throughout the experiment. Runoff and microbial biomass were collected at 6 and 14 weeks post degradation. 12

- 13
- 14
- 15 **3. Results and discussion**
- 16

#### 17 *3.1. General characterisation*

18 Recent studies that have employed multidimensional NMR spectroscopy to study DOM 19 show that marine and freshwater DOM share many structural similarities.<sup>[12,13]</sup> These 20 major structural components are also present in all the DOM isolated from Lough Derg. 21 For example, Fig. 2 shows the conventional <sup>1</sup>H (Fig. 2A) and diffusion edited (Fig. 2B) 22 NMR spectra for the Ballina DOM sample and also show the diffusion edited <sup>1</sup>H 23 spectrum of the Coole Bay sample area of lake (Fig. 2C).

- 24
- 25
- 26
- 27
- 28

- 30
- 31



**Fig. 2.** <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra for (A) Ballina DOM sample, (B) diffusion edited 1H spectrum of Ballina DOM sample, (C) diffusion edited <sup>1</sup>H spectrum of Coole Bay sample area of lake. \*Indicates residual water signal. Designations 1-4 indicate general spectral regions: 1) linear terpenoids; 2) carboxyl-rich alicyclic molecules (CRAM); 3) carbohydrates and amino acids; 4) aromatics and amino acid side chains. Designations i-vi indicate specific assignments: i) aliphatic CH<sub>3</sub>; ii) protein side chain residue; iii) aliphatic methylene (CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>n</sub>; iv) *N*-acetyl group in

2 3 peptidoglycan or other constituents in lipids/waxes; v) aliphatic methylene units  $\beta$  to an acid or ester or double bond; vi) anomeric protons in carbohydrate. Si indicates a natural silicate and not TMS.

4

5 General assignments, consistent with those reported are: (1) aliphatics, including material 6 derived from linear terpanoids; (2) carboxyl-rich alicyclic molecules (CRAM; see also 7 Fig 5); (3) a mixture of carbohydrates and amino acids; (4) aromatics, including resonances from amino acid (AA) side chains.<sup>[12,13]</sup> More specific assignments refer to (i) 8 9 CH<sub>3</sub>, likely including resonances from aliphatic species and methylated amino acid side-10 chain residues in peptides/protein, (ii); consistent with a side chain residue also seen in the <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum for bovine serum albumin, (iii); aliphatic methylene (CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>n</sub>, (iv); 11 12 contributions from both N-acetyl group in peptidoglycans and other units lipids/waxes,  $^{[22,23]}$  (v); mainly aliphatic methylene units  $\beta$  to an acid or ester i.e. R<sub>2</sub>-OCO-13 14  $CH_2$ -R<sub>1</sub> or double bond vi); anomeric protons in carbohydrate. 'Si' indicates a natural 15 silicate species and not TMS (tetramethylsilane,  $Si(CH_3)_4$ ), a commonly used NMR reference standard).<sup>[22]</sup> 16

17 Fig. 2A displays sharp peaks, especially in the carbohydrate region (3). Sharper lines observed in NMR are often characteristic of smaller structures<sup>[21]</sup>, and this may indicate 18 19 the breakdown of the carbohydrates from large polymeric structures into smaller 20 fragments. To test this, diffusion edited (DE) NMR was performed on the Ballina sample. 21 In diffusion edited NMR experiments, small molecules are essentially gated from the 22 final spectrum but signals from macromolecules which display little translational diffusion are not gated and appear in the spectrum.<sup>[19,24]</sup> The diffusion edited spectrum of 23 24 Ballina DOM is shown in Fig. 2B. Aliphatic chains are prominent, indicating that they 25 have restricted diffusion, which suggests that they may be present in rigid domains or 26 macromolecular structures. The relative intensity of the carbohydrate signals is much less 27 in the diffusion edited spectrum vs. the conventional <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum, suggesting a 28 large fraction of the carbohydrates in the DOM is present as relatively small mobile 29 entities. However, there is still a considerable contribution from carbohydrate signals in 30 the diffusion edited spectrum, supporting a second fraction of carbohydrate with greater 31 molecular (or aggregate) size.

1 A characteristic resonance for CH<sub>3</sub> in methylated AA side chain residues (Fig. 2, signal i) 2 is easily distinguishable in the diffusion edited NMR, suggesting the presence of protein/peptide.<sup>[22]</sup> Furthermore, the resonance at ca.1 ppm (Fig. 2, signal ii) is likely 3 attributed to protein/peptide as this peak is also present in the <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum of 4 bovine serum albumin.<sup>[25]</sup> Complimentary evidence for protein/peptide presence is 5 provided by the emergence of  $\alpha$  protons from AAs in Fig. 3. Proteinaceous compounds 6 are viewed as labile in the environment <sup>[26]</sup> and their survival and occurrence have been 7 8 explained through protection mechanisms such as encapsulation and formation of microbially resistant complexes with carbohydrates and lignin.<sup>[27-29]</sup> Lam et al.<sup>[12]</sup> 9 10 detected weak protein/peptide contributions and was considered to be only a minor 11 component in Lake Ontario DOM. However, the spectra generated indicate that the 12 protein/peptide contribution may vary considerably between DOM from different sources 13 in freshwater environments. It is estimated that plants often contain only 1-5% protein by weight and that protein structures are known to degrade rapidly in a soil 14 environment.<sup>[30,31]</sup> It seems unlikely that the preservation of plant-derived peptide/protein 15 16 structures can completely account for the contributions of proteins and peptides in DOM. 17 It is therefore possible that a significant portion of peptide/protein in DOM arises from 18 the cells of dead and living microbes of either aquatic or terrestrial origin.

19 Alternatively, microbially resistant ligno-protein complexes may also account for some of the protein present.<sup>[32]</sup> Lignin-type signatures were not found in the study of Lake 20 Ontario DOM,<sup>[12]</sup> but the possibility of lignin contributions to Lough Derg DOM is 21 highlighted by cross peaks that may represent lignin derived O-CH<sub>3</sub> units (Fig. 3), often 22 the most intense signal in soil OM.<sup>[9,21,33]</sup> Methoxy cross peaks are clearly present in all 23 24 the lake samples (overlapped with carbohydrate crosspeaks), especially Hare Island and 25 Dromineer. Lignin is a strong indicator of terrestrial plant inputs and may be an 26 indication of the age of DOM and/or the influence of the surrounding environment. 27 Proteins originating from microbial cells may be encapsulated by, or sorbed to, lignin, 28 making them less susceptible to degradation.

- 29
- 30
- 31



Fig. 3. Zoom region of DOM <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C HMQC (Dromineer).

18 All Lough Derg DOM samples contain a contribution from carbohydrates that are not 19 removed during diffusion editing (Fig. 2B, C) indicating that there is a polymeric 20 carbohydrate component present that could potentially be associated with the cell walls of microorganisms.<sup>[12]</sup> Signals (iii) and (v) in Fig. 2B and 2C are consistent with aliphatic 21 22 structures. The aliphatic  $(CH_2)_n$  peak is dominant, indicating the presence of stable waxes and lipids.<sup>[34]</sup> Waxes and cutins derived from plants have been identified in abundance in 23 humic extracts,<sup>[24]</sup> and are likely to be preserved because of their cross-linked structure 24 and hydrophobicity.<sup>[35]</sup> Fig. 2C shows the DE <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum for the Coole Bay DOM 25 sample. Signal (v) is particularly prominent and shows similarities to signals from 26 lipoproteins observed in other natural samples.<sup>[22]</sup> Lipoprotein is a key component of 27 28 bacterial cells (also plant, animal, yeast, fungal, algal and insect cells), is structurally diverse and is released during bacterial growth,<sup>[36]</sup> so its presence corroborates the 29 30 importance of terrestrial microbes as sources of DOM. Microbial contributions are also 31 supported by the presence of signal (iv) in Fig. 2C. This is consistent with peptidoglycan,

which comprises up to 90% by weight of Gram-positive bacteria and is the key structural component in all microbial cell walls. That peptidoglycan was found to accumulate is not unexpected since it is resistant (as are microbe cell walls) to many chemical and biological processes and has been found in the most refractory components of soil OM.<sup>[22]</sup>

5

## 6 *3.2 Soil microbial contribution*

7 Despite strong microbial signatures in Fig. 2 it is difficult to know from where the 8 microbial residue originates. It has recently been shown that microbial presence in soil far 9 exceeds presently accepted values and that considering the amounts of fresh cellular 10 material in soil extracts, it is probable that the contributions of micro-organisms in the terrestrial environment are seriously underestimated.<sup>[25]</sup> Therefore, soil microbial biomass 11 12 may also be an important source of freshwater DOM. The potential contribution of 13 surrounding soil microbial biomass to Lough Derg DOM was studied by conducting a 14 complementary laboratory experiment that monitored the degradation of soil microbial 15 biomass cultured from soil sampled near the lake. Degradation occurred over 14 weeks, 16 allowing NMR experiments to be conducted on degraded soil microbial biomass residue and leachate. Fig. 4 compares the DE <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra of the 14 week leachate from 17 18 degraded soil microbial biomass (A), to the "Dromineer" DOM sample from Lough Derg 19 (B). Characteristic resonances, such as CH<sub>3</sub> in methylated AA side chain residues (signal 20 i) and aliphatic methylene  $(CH_2)_n$  (signal ii) that are present in the Dromineer DOM (Fig. 21 4B) are also present in the microbial leachate. These signals also persist in degraded plant 22 matter, so it is not possible to say that they originate solely from soil microbial biomass.<sup>[26]</sup> However, peptidoglycan (PG, Fig. 4A, B) is present in both the DOM and the 23 24 soil microbial biomass leachate, and this is confirmed in the HMQC spectra in Fig. 5. It 25 should be noted that the slight shift in the proton axes of the PG microbial biomass is 26 from the solvent (DMSO) used to swell the microbial biomass for analysis using HR-27 MAS NMR. The presence of peptidoglycan would suggest that complex biomaterials 28 such as those from the cell walls of soil microorganisms can persist in the water 29 environment and that it is possible that the peptidoglycan we see in DOM originally 30 derived from microbes in soil. However, as peptidoglycan may also be produced by 31 aquatic microbes it is not possible to definitively state the source of this material.



19Fig. 4. (A) DE <sup>1</sup>H NMR of 14 week leachate from degraded soil microbial20biomass, and (B), the DE <sup>1</sup>H NMR of the "Dromineer" DOM sample from Lough21Derg. Specific assignments are: (i); CH<sub>3</sub>, likely including resonances from22aliphatic species and methylated amino acid side-chain residues in23peptides/protein, (ii); aliphatic methylene (CH<sub>2</sub>)n, (PG); peptidoglycan (Simpson24et al.<sup>[22]</sup>) and Si indicates a natural silicate species and not TMS (a commonly25used NMR reference standard).

Interestingly, natural silicate species (Si) present in DOM samples are also present in the microbial leachate spectrum. Carbon sequestration in the oceans is known to be coupled with the global cycle of silicon.<sup>[37-39]</sup> Rivers provide the conduit for 5 Tmol of silicon per year to the oceans, which is 80% of the total annual flux.<sup>[37,40]</sup> The remaining 20% comes from dust and submarine hydrothermal sources. It is thought that the ultimate source of

continental silicon flux to the oceans is weathering processes in terrestrial
 biogeosystems.<sup>[41,42]</sup> However, Sommer *et al.*, have pointed out that silicon dynamics in
 terrestrial biogeosystems cannot be understood solely by way of mineral weathering.<sup>[43]</sup>



**Fig. 5**. HMQC of expanded aliphatic region of A. Dromineer and B. 14 week leachate. Abbreviations: CRAM, carboxyl-rich alicyclic molecules; PG, peptidoglycan; MDLT, material derived from linear terpenoids.

21 The silicate species in the NMR spectra are unusual and arise at around zero ppm (also present in HMQC data) and suggest methylated silica.<sup>[44]</sup> It is important to note that these 22 23 signals are not from TMS, the commonly used internal standard for NMR. TMS is 24 insoluble in water and no internal standards (of any kind) were used. Furthermore, similar signals are seen in all the natural water samples that have been analysed directly with 25 26 NMR. In direct NMR, the water sample is studied "as-is", with no pre-concentration or pre-treatment of any type, indicating that these signals must be of natural origin.<sup>[45]</sup> 27 28 Silicate species in the soil microbial leachate would therefore suggest that soil 29 microorganisms accumulate their own stable silicon pools and may play a larger role in 30 silicon cycling than presently thought.

31

17

18

19



affects the distribution of DOM within the lacustrine environment. Fig. 6 displays the <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra for the aromatic region of two sample sites in Lough Derg (Coole Bay and Dromineer). The samples display generally similar profiles and ratios of major chemical constituents. However, strong resonances that can be assigned to phenylalanine<sup>[22]</sup> in the Dromineer spectrum (and to a lesser extent Portumna and Williamstown) are not present

31 in the Coole Bay sample. Phenylalanine is the most commonly found aromatic AA in

1 proteins and enzymes, is invariably present in any animal tissue and is also synthesised 2 by common pathways in phytoplankton and bacteria. It is considered an easily degraded hydrolysable AA,<sup>[46]</sup> so its presence in some samples is of interest. Phenylalanine has 3 been associated with increased concentrations in water of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+,[47]</sup> which in turn is a 4 5 product and indicator of the presence of nitrogenous organic wastes. Dromineer is 6 strongly influenced by the Nenagh River which passes through land utilized for 7 agriculture and raising livestock, and also accommodates a sizable public marina. Higher 8 phenylalanine concentrations may therefore be an indicator of elevated organic wastes 9 from agriculture and industry. Interestingly, there appears to be little phenylalanine in the 10 Coole Bay sample which is south of the Dromineer sampling site. This may be explained 11 by the fact that the site is secluded, surrounded by forestry and is not fed or influenced 12 directly by a river. However, during the sampling period from August to September; an 13 exotic invasive species in Ireland, Zebra mussels (Dreissena polymorpha) were evident at 14 highest concentrations on the eastern side of the lake at Coole Bay. The filtering 15 activities of zebra mussels have been shown to have a large ecosystem-level influence on nitrogen cycling<sup>[48-50]</sup> and organic nitrogen concentrations decrease in water columns in 16 microcosms with live zebra mussels.<sup>[51]</sup> It is therefore possible that the filtering activities 17 18 of Zebra mussels result in recycling of larger organic nitrogen compounds such as 19 phenylalanine. The presence of formate in both samples suggests a pathway of organic carbon degradation mainly reported for anoxic marine sediments<sup>[52]</sup> and indicates that 20 21 anoxic breakdown by various microorganisms takes place in the lake. Formate and other volatile fatty acids (VFAs) are products of hydrolysis and anaerobic fermentation.<sup>[53]</sup> 22

A broad background hump from lignin often centered at 6.9-7.1 ppm is present in the aromatic regions of Fig. 6. The presence of lignin-type material is confirmed by the intense methoxy signal seen in the HMQC data (Fig. 3). In addition, the conjugated double bonds are likely the result of the presence of carotenoid structures known to be produced by aquatic species and present in freshwater DOM.<sup>[12]</sup> The fate of carotenoid structures is not well understood despite an estimated net annual production over 100 million tons from photosynthetic organisms alone.<sup>[54,55]</sup>

30

#### 1 **4. Conclusions**

2

3 Given the influence of terrestrial organic matter on marine DOM and the similarity in the 4 structures of both, it is challenging to assess the source of DOM and whether it is aquatic 5 or terrestrial in origin. The findings here suggest a strong terrestrial input of recalcitrant 6 material. Land management and human activities are important factors influencing the 7 spatial distribution of DOM within the lacustrine environment. The input of plant 8 material is confirmed by the presence of lignin-type signatures, while the influence of 9 microbial biomass from either terrestrial or aquatic sources is highlighted by resonances 10 for peptidoglycan and protein. Soil microbes may also contribute to silicon cycling through stable organo-silicon structures within the cells. The study also confirms the 11 12 presence of CRAM in DOM from an Irish lake, which suggests that it may be globally 13 ubiquitous.

14

#### 15 Acknowledgements

16

17 The authors thank the Science Foundation of Ireland (GEOF509), the Irish 18 Environmental Protection Agency (STRIVE program), the Geological Survey of Ireland, 19 the Natural Science and Engineering Research Council of Canada (Discovery Grant, 20 A.J.S) and the government of Ontario [Early Researcher Award (A.J.S)] for funding. 21 Thank you also to the anonymous reviewers for the very helpful suggestions and 22 criticisms.

- 23
- 24

25

- 26
- 27
- 28

29

30

31

32

#### 1 **References**

- 2
- J. I. Hedges, R. G. Keil, R. Benner, What happens to terrestrial organic matter in
  the ocean? *Org. Geochem.* 1997, 27, 195.
- [2] R. Benner, B. Benitez-Nelson, K. Kaiser, R. M. W. Amon, Export of young
  terrigenous dissolved organic carbon from rivers to the Arctic Ocean. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 2004, *31*, (L05305) 1.
- 8 [3] J. I. Hedges, Global biogeochemical cycles progress and problems. *Mar. Chem.*9 1992, 39, 67.
- [4] C. T. Chiou, R. L. Malcolm, T. I. Brinton, D. E. Kile, Water solubility
  enhancement of some organic pollutants and pesticides by dissolved humic and
  fulvic-acids. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 1986, 20, 502.
- 13 [5] D. Hansell, C. Carlson, *Biogeochemistry of Marine Dissolved Organic Matter*.
  14 Academic Press, New York, 2002, p. 774.
- 15 [6] T. Dittmar, J. A. Paeng, Heat-induced molecular signature in marine dissolved
  organic matter. *Nat. Geosci.* 2009, *2*, 175.
- 17 [7] R. Stone, The invisible hand behind a vast carbon reservoir. *Science* 2010, 328,
  18 5985, 1476.
- 19 [8] L. A. Cardoza, A. K. Korir, W. H. Otto, C. J. Wurrey, C. K. Larive, Applications
  20 of NMR spectroscopy in environmental science. *Prog. Nucl. Mag. Res. Sp.* 2004,
  21 45, 209.
- A. J. Simpson, Multidimensional solution state NMR of humic substances: a
  practical guide and review. *Soil Sci.* 2001, *166*, 795.
- [10] N. Hertkorn, A. Kettrup, Molecular level structural analysis of natural organic
  matter and of humic substances by multinuclear and higher dimensional NMR
  spectroscopy. In: Perminova, I.V., Hertkom,N., Hatfield, K. (Eds.), Use of
  Humates to Remediate Polluted Environments: From Theory to Practice. Springer,
  Dordrecht, 2005, pp. 391–435.
- [11] B. P. Kelleher, A. J. Simpson Humic substances in soils: Are they really
  chemically distinct? *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2006, *40*, 4605.

- [12] B. Lam, A. Baer, M. Alaee, B. Lefebvre, A. Moser, A. Williams, A. J. Simpson,
   Major structural components in freshwater dissolved organic matter. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2007, *41*, 8240.
- [13] N. Hertkorn, R. Benner, M. Frommberger, P. Schmitt-Kopplin, M. Witt, K.
  Kaiser, A. Kettrup, J. I. Hedges, Characterization of a major refractory component
  of marine dissolved organic matter. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* 2006, *70*, 2990.
- 7 [14] A. J. Leenheer, Comprehensive approach to preparative isolation and
  8 fractionation of dissolved organic carbon from natural waters and wastewaters.
  9 *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 1981, 15, 578.
- [15] E. M. Thurman, R. L. Malcolm, Preparative isolation of aquatic humic substances.
   *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 1981, *15*, 463.
- I2 [16] J. P. Simjouw, E. C. Minor, K. Mopper, Isolation and characterization of estuarine
  dissolved organic matter: comparison of ultrafiltration and C18 solid-phase
  extraction techniques. *Mar. Chem.* 2005, *96*, 219.
- 15 [17] B. Lam, A. J. Simpson, Passive sampler for dissolved organic matter in
  16 freshwater environments. *Anal. Chem.* 2006, 78, 8194.
- 17 [18] A. J. Simpson, S. A. Brown, Purge NMR: Effective and easy solvent suppression.
  18 *J. Magn. Reson.* 2005, 175, 340.
- [19] D. Wu, A. Chen, C. S. Johnson Jr., An improved diffusion ordered spectroscopy
  experiment incorporating bipolar-gradient pulses. *J. Magn. Reson. A.* 1995, *115*,
  260.
- [20] P. H. Janssen, P. S. Yates, B. E. Grinton, P. M. Taylor, M. Sait, Improved
  culturability of soil bacteria and isolation in pure culture of novel members of the
  divisions Acidobacteria, Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, and Verrucomicrobia. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 2002, 68, 2391.
- [21] B. P. Kelleher, M. J. Simpson, A. J. Simpson, Assessing the fate and
  transformation of plant residues in the terrestrial environment using HR-MAS
  NMR spectroscopy. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* 2006, 70, 4080.
- [22] A. J. Simpson, G. Song, E. Smith, B. Lam, E. H. Novotny, M. H. B. Hayes,
  Unraveling the structural components of soil humin by use of solution-state
  Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 2007, *41*, 876.

1	[23]	B. G. Pautler, A. J. Simpson, D. J. McNally, S. F. Lamoureux, M.
2		J. Simpson, Arctic Permafrost Active Layer Detachments Stimulate Microbial
3		Activity and Degradation of Soil Organic Matter. Environ. Sci. Technol. 2010, 44,
4		4076.
5	[24]	A. J. Simpson, W. L. Kingery, P. G. Hatcher, The identification of plant derived
6		structures in humic materials using three dimensional NMR spectroscopy.
7		Environ. Sci. Technol. 2003, 37, 337.
8	[25]	A. J. Simpson, M. J. Simpson, E. Smith, B. P. Kelleher, Microbially derived
9		inputs to soil organic matter: Are current estimates too low? Environ. Sci. Technol.
10		<b>2007</b> , <i>41</i> , 8070.
11	[26]	J. Fuhrman, Dissolved free amino acid cycling in an estuarine outflow plume.
12		Mar. EcolProg. Ser. 1990, 66, 197.
13	[27]	J. I. Hedges, G. Eglinton, P. G. Hatcher, D. L. Kirchman, C. Arnosti, S. Derenne,
14		R. P. Evershed, I. Kogel-Knabner, J. W. de Leeuw, R. Littke, W. Michaelis, J.
15		Rullkotter, The molecularly uncharacterized component of nonliving organic
16		matter in natural environments. Org. Geochem. 2000, 31, 945.
17	[28]	E. Tanoue, S. Nishiyama, M. Kamo, A. Tsugita, Bacterial membranes: possible
18		source of a major dissolved protein in seawater. Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 1995,
19		59, 2643.
20	[29]	H. Ogawa, Y. Amagai, I. Koike, K. Kaiser, R. Benner, Production of refractory
21		dissolved organic matter by bacteria. Science 2001, 292, 917.
22	[30]	S. K. Park, N. S. Hettiarachchy, L. Were, Degradation behaviour of soy protein-
23		wheat gluten films in simulated soil conditions. J. Agr. Food Chem. 2000, 48,
24		3027.
25	[31]	R. A. Herman, J. D. Wolt, W. R. Halliday, Rapid degradation of the Cry1F
26		insecticidal crystal protein in soil. J. Agr. Food Chem. 2002, 50, 7076.
27	[32]	A. S. Waksman, K. R. N. Iyer, Contribution to our knowledge of the chemical
28		nature and origin of humus. Soil Sci. 1932, 36, 69.
29	[33]	K. M. Holtman, HM. Chang, H. Jameel, J. F. Kadla, Elucidation of Lignin
30		Structure through Degradative Methods: Comparison of Modified DFRC and
31		Thioacidolysis. J. Agr. Food Chem. 2003, 51, 3535.

1	[34]	A. P. Deshmukh, A. J. Simpson, P. G. Hatcher, Evidence for cross-linking in
2		tomato cutin using HR-MAS NMR spectroscopy. Phytochemistry 2003, 64, 1163.
3	[35]	A. J. Simpson, M. J. Simpson, W. L. Kingery, B. A. Lefebvre, A. Moser, A. J.
4		Williams, M. Kvasha, B. P. Kelleher, The application of <sup>1</sup> H high-resolution
5		magic-angle spinning NMR for the study of clay-organic associations in natural
6		and synthetic complexes. Langmuir 2006, 22, 4498.
7	[36]	H. W. Zhang, D. W. Niesel, J. W. Peterson, G. R. Klimpel, Lipoprotein release by
8		bacteria: Potential factor in bacterial pathogenesis. Infect. Immun. 1998, 66, 5196.
9	[37]	P. Tréguer, D. M. Nelson, A. J. van Bennekorn, D. J. DeMaster, A. Leynaert, B.
10		Quéguiner, The silica balance in the world ocean: a re-estimate. Science 1995,
11		268, 375.
12	[38]	O. Ragueneau, P. Treguer, A. Leynaert, R. F. Anderson, M. A. Brzezinski, D. J.
13		De Master, R. C. Dugdale, J. Dymond, G. Fische, R. Francois, C. Heinze, E.
14		Maier-Reimer, V. Martin- Jezequel, D. M. Nelson, B. Queguiner, A review of the
15		Si cycle in the modern ocean: recent progress and missing gaps in the application
16		of biogenic opal as paleoproductivity proxy. Global Planetary Change 2000, 26,
17		317.
18	[39]	A. Yool, T. Tyrrell, Role of diatoms in regulating the ocean's silicon cycle.
19		Global Biogeochem. Cy. 2003, 17, 14.
20	[40]	D. J. Conley, Terrestrial ecosystems and the global biogeochemical silica cycle.
21		Global Biogeochem. Cy. 2002, 16, 1121.
22	[41]	P. W. Birkeland, Soils and Geomorphology. 3rd Edn Oxford University Press,
23		New York, <b>1999.</b>
24	[42]	N. van Breemen, P. Buurman, Soil Formation. Kluwer Academic Press,
25		Dordrecht, 2002.
26	[43]	M. Sommer, D. Kaczorek, Y. Kuzyakov, J. Breuer, Silicon pools and fluxes in
27		soils and landscapes: a review. J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci. 2006, 169, 310.
28	[44]	R. Brindle, M. Punch, K. Albert, H MAS NMR spectroscopy of chemically
29		modified silica gels: a fast method to characterize stationary interphases for
30		chromatography. Solid State Nucl. Mag. 1996, 6, 251.

1	[45]	B. Lam, A. J. Simpson, Direct <sup>1</sup> H NMR spectroscopy of dissolved organic matter
2		in natural waters. The Analyst 2008, 133, 263.
3	[46]	Y. Yamashita, E. Tanoue, Distribution and alteration of amino acids in bulk DOM
4		along a transect from bay to oceanic waters. Mar. Chem. 2003, 82, 145.
5	[47]	A. B. Jones, W. C. Dennison, G. R. Stmart, Macroalgal responses to nitrogen
6		source and availability: Amino acid metabolic profiling as a bioindicator using
7		Gracilaria edulis (Rhodophyta). J. Phycol. 1996, 32, 757.
8	[48]	E. Mellina, J. B. Rasmussen, E. L. Mills, Impact of zebra mussel (Dreissena
9		polymorpha) on phosphorus cycling and chlorophyll in lakes. Can. J. Fish. Aquat.
10		<i>Sci.</i> <b>1995,</b> <i>52</i> , 2553.
11	[49]	D. L. Arnott, M. J. Vanni, Nitrogen and phosphorus recycling by the zebra mussel
12		(Dreissena polymorpha) in the western basin of Lake Erie. Can. J. Fish. Aquat.
13		<i>Sci.</i> <b>1996</b> , <i>53</i> , 646.
14	[50]	J. D. Conroy, W. J. Edwards, R. A. Pontius, D. D. Kane, H. Zhang, J. F. Shea, J.
15		N. Richey, D. A. Culver, Soluble nitrogen and phosphorus excretion of exotic
16		freshwater mussels (Dreissena spp.): potential impacts for nutrient
17		remineralisation in western Lake Erie. Freshwater Biol. 2005, 50, 1146.
18	[51]	O. Bykova, A. Laursen, V. Bostan, J. Bautista, L. McCarthy, Do zebra mussels
19		(Dreissena polymorpha) alter lake water chemistry in a way that favours
20		Microcystis growth? Sci. Total Environ. 2006, 371, 362.
21	[52]	D. J. Burdige, Sediment pore waters. In: Hansell, D.A., Carlson, C.A.(Eds.),
22		Biogeochemistry of Marine Dissolved Organic Matter. Elsevier Science 2002, 13,
23		pp. 612.
24	[53]	K. Mopper, D. J. Kieber, Distribution and biological turnover of dissolved organic
25		compounds in the water column of the Black Sea. Deep-Sea Res. 1991, 38 (Suppl.
26		2), \$1021.
27	[54]	J. W. Louda, L. Liu, E. W. Baker, Senescence- and death-related
28		alteration of chlorophylls and carotenoids in marine phytoplankton.
29		Org. Geochem. 2002, 33, 12, 1635.
30	[55]	T. Matsuno, New structures of carotenoids in marine animals.
31		Pure Appl. Chem. <b>1985</b> , 57, 5, 659.

## 1 Accessory material

2

Figure 1. Chemical shift prediction and 2D <sup>1</sup>H-<sup>13</sup>C spectral simulation of the backbone 3 4 structure of peptidoglycan. PEP indicates the peptide branches which are not included in 5 the prediction/simulation. Note the chemical shifts of the carbohydrate units should be 6 considered as rough approximations only as the chemical shifts of carbohydrates varies 7 considerably with solution conditions (pH, concentration, salt background etc.). The main 8 purpose of the simulation is to demonstrate the strong CH<sub>3</sub>-(C=O)-N resonance which is characteristic of peptidoglycan and is highlighted with a red oval on the Figure. Spectral 9 10 predictions were carried using Advanced Chemistry Development's out 11 ACD/SpecManager and ACD/2D NMR Predictor using Neural Network Prediction 12 algorithms (version 12.01) and water as the solvent. Parameters used for prediction 13 including spectral resolution, and base frequency were chosen to match those of the real 14 datasets as closely as possible.

