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6	Quantification of natural DOM from UV Absorption at Two							
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Environmental Context. Dissolved organic matter (DOM) is part of the global carbon cycle, ecologically and geochemically active, and costly to remove in water treatment. Spectroscopic monitoring at a single wavelength provides some indication of DOM concentration, but variations in optical properties mean that accurate determinations currently rely on slow and costly laboratory methods. We show that for water samples containing non-anthropogenic DOM, ultraviolet absorbance at two wavelengths can quantify DOM rapidly, cheaply and accurately, and also indicate its quality.

Abstract. A two-component model permitted the precise simulation of ultraviolet 41 absorption by 23 contrasting surface-water DOM samples. Although a unique set of 42 model parameters could not be established, the results could still be used to predict 43 44 [DOC] in water samples simply from absorbance values at two wavelengths (we used 45 254 and 340 nm). The parameterised model was used to predict [DOC] for a separate 46 dataset obtained by combining results for 12 samples each from a UK river draining upland pasture, UK groundwaters from a range of formations, stream and lake waters 47 48 from a forested region of Ontario, and high-altitude alpine and subalpine streams from 49 Colorado. A close correlation ( $R^2 = 0.997$ ) was obtained, with only slight underestimation of the true [DOC]. Precise prediction of [DOC] from absorbance data at 50 a single wavelength was not possible, because of differences in DOM extinction 51 52 coefficients among the samples. When the model was applied to samples collected from 53 river locations in a heterogeneous UK catchment with areas of industry and high human 54 population, [DOC] was underestimated in many cases, which may indicate the presence 55 of non-absorbing pollutant DOM.

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57 *Keywords.* dissolved organic carbon - dissolved organic matter - two-component model
 58 - UV spectra

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Dissolved organic matter (DOM) is a ubiquitous collection of components in surface, soil 60 and ground waters, comprising the partial decomposition products of living material, 61 62 chiefly plants and algae, but also derived from agricultural, industrial and domestic 63 human activities. Differences in source material and rates of decomposition, and physical 64 fractionation processes, generate substantial heterogeneity in DOM concentrations and properties. DOM participates in many ecological and geochemical reactions, and is costly 65 66 to remove from water intended for domestic and industrial supply. Interest in the 67 formation and transport of DOM has intensified because of widespread increases in DOC concentrations and fluxes seen over recent years<sup>[1]</sup>, with possible links to changes in the 68 69 terrestrial carbon cycle. Routine methods for the accurate determination of DOM in 70 different samples are based on the measurement of DOC, usually after conversion to 71  $CO_2$ . This requires the return of samples to the laboratory, and is both time-consuming 72 and fairly expensive. Optical absorbance at a single wavelength in the UV-visible range 73 usually correlates strongly with [DOC], and is therefore often used to monitor natural 74 DOM. However, differences in DOM properties among waters, and temporally within a given water, mean that this can only be an approximate method. Indeed, variation in 75 the ratio of absorbance to [DOC] is widely used to characterise the quality of DOM, 76 notably through the specific UV absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA)<sup>[2]</sup>. 77

The measure of optical properties used here is the extinction coefficient (E; also referred 78 to as specific absorbance and specific absorptivity) obtained as the ratio of optical 79 absorbance at a given wavelength ( $\lambda$  nm) to [DOC], and with units of I g<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>. Thacker 80 et al.<sup>[3]</sup> determined the extinction coefficients of 23 concentrated samples of DOM from a 81 82 variety of surface waters in northern England. They demonstrated a monotonic increase 83 of the  $E_{340}/E_{254}$  ratio with  $E_{340}$  (Figure 1), which suggests that [DOC] can be deduced from absorbance data alone, by the following argument. For a given water sample, the 84  $E_{340}/E_{254}$  ratio is exactly the same as the ratio of optical absorbances  $A_{340}/A_{254}$  since both 85 measurements refer to the same [DOC]. Therefore the A<sub>340</sub>/A<sub>254</sub> ratio of the sample 86 corresponds to a single value of  $E_{340}$ , which can be divided into  $A_{340}$  to obtain [DOC]. If 87 the monotonic relationship of Figure 1 applies generally, optical absorbance values at two 88 89 wavelengths offer a means to estimate [DOC] accurately, despite variations in sample 90 extinction coefficients at the individual wavelengths.

In fact, the relationship in Figure 1 is expected for a two-component system. Theextinction coefficient at any wavelength is given by

$$E_{\lambda} = f_A E_{\lambda,A} + f_B E_{\lambda,B} = f_A E_{\lambda,A} + (1 - f_A) E_{\lambda,B}$$
(1)

94 where  $f_A$  and  $f_B$  are the fractions of components A and B ( $f_A$  +  $f_B$  = 1). For the 23 samples studied by Thacker et al.<sup>[3]</sup> there are 46 versions of this equation if two 95 wavelengths are considered, and 23 values of  $f_A$ . We treated the  $f_A$  values and the four 96 97 extinction coefficients as adjustable parameters, and used Microsoft Excel Solver to optimise them by minimizing the sum of the squares of  $(E_{\lambda,obs}-E_{\lambda,calc})/E_{\lambda,obs}$ . Excellent fits 98 could be obtained, with average differences between observed and calculated values < 99 100 2%, thereby supporting the two-component hypothesis. However, the model is overparameterised and so a unique parameter set cannot be obtained from this relatively 101 102 small data set.

We constrained the model by specifying the value of  $E_{254,A}$  to be 60 l g<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> (equivalent 103 to 6.0 I mg<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> in commonly used SUVA units). This can be justified from the SUVA 104 values of isolated DOM<sup>[2]</sup> and from the results of streamwater surveys at a variety of 105 locations<sup>[3-8]</sup>. In none of these reports is a SUVA value exceeding 6.0 l mg<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> 106 reported, although values exceeding 5.0 I mg<sup>-1</sup> m<sup>-1</sup> are not uncommon<sup>[3,4,7,8]</sup>. Therefore 107 108 we can make the reasonable approximation that an  $E_{254}$  value of 60 l g<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> represents an end-member, i.e. the sample in question is entirely component A. Refitting the model 109 with  $E_{254,A}$  set to 60 l g<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, and using data for three wavelengths (254, 280, 340 nm) 110 to increase the ratio of observations to parameters, reduced the range of parameter sets 111 112 that fitted the model. Consistent values of  $E_{254,A}$ ,  $E_{280,A}$  and  $E_{340,A}$  were now obtained, but ranges of values of  $E_{254,B}$ ,  $E_{280,B}$  and  $E_{340,B}$ , combined with different sets of  $f_A$  values, gave 113 equally good fits. The same goodness-of-fit was obtained for any value of  $E_{254,B}$  in the 114

range 14 to 22 l g<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>, since the other model parameters could change to compensate (Table 1). Outside this range of  $E_{254,B}$  however, the fits were always worse. Although fixing  $E_{254,A}$  reduces the parameter ranges that can fit the data, the prediction of [DOC], (see below), is not affected. However, constraining the parameters to physically realistic values may lead to useful correlations with other DOM physico-chemical properties.

120 Any of the sets of extinction coefficients shown in Table 1, or indeed any intermediate 121 set, can be used to compute  $f_A$  in a new water sample from the following equation, 122 obtained by combining the versions of equation (1) for each wavelength;

$$f_{A} = (E_{\lambda 1,B} - R E_{\lambda 2,B}) / (R E_{\lambda 2,A} - R E_{\lambda 2,B} - E_{\lambda 1,A} + E_{\lambda 1,B})$$
(2)

where R is the ratio of optical absorbance values (A  $_{\lambda 1}$ /A  $_{\lambda 2}$ ) for the sample in question. The value of f<sub>A</sub> can be substituted into equation (1) to obtain E<sub> $\lambda 1$ </sub> and E<sub> $\lambda 2$ </sub> for the sample, which can then be divided into either A<sub> $\lambda 1$ </sub> or A<sub> $\lambda 2$ </sub> respectively to obtain [DOC].

127 We used  $E_{254,A}$ ,  $E_{254,B}$   $E_{340,A}$  and  $E_{340,B}$  to predict [DOC] for a set of 48 data assembled 128 from the results of monitoring by four separate research organisations. The field 129 locations were judged to be free of local anthropogenic influences, and none of the samples was noticeably turbid. Samples from the River Tarnbrook were collected by the 130 131 Centre for Ecology and Hydrology as part of a river monitoring programme on the Ribble-Wyre catchment of north-west England (see below). The river drains an area of upland 132 133 pasture with low human population. The water samples were passed through Whatman GF/F glass-fibre filters (0.7 µm nominal size cut-off), concentrations of DOC were 134 determined by a combustion method using a Shimadzu TOC-VCPH instrument, and 135 absorption spectra were measured with an Agilent 8453 diode array instrument. The 136 137 British Geological Survey collected groundwater samples from piezometers or where they emerged as springs from formations in the UK. Samples for DOC and absorbance 138 analysis were filtered using silver filters (0.45  $\mu$ m Millipore<sup>TM</sup>) and analysed using a 139 Thermalox<sup>™</sup> C analyser after acidification and sparging (DOC) and a Varian<sup>™</sup> 140 spectrophotometer (optical absorbance). Trent University collected stream and lake 141 samples from a forested region of the Precambrian Shield in Ontario; the data used here 142 refer to November 2007. Samples were filtered with Millipore<sup>™</sup> 0.45 µm membrane 143 144 filters, and analysed for DOC (Shimadzu TOC-VPH) and optical absorbance (Cary 59 145 UV/Vis spectrophotometer). Colorado samples were collected from alpine and subalpine stream sites in the Green Lakes Valley and adjacent Como Creek watershed. The Green 146 147 Lakes Valley is part of the Niwot Ridge Long Term Ecological Research (NWTLTER) site and is not influenced by direct human impacts. Samples were filtered with Whatman GF/F 148 glass-fibre filters (0.7 µm nominal pore size), DOC was measured by high temperature 149 catalytic oxidation with a Shimadzu 5050A TOC analyzer, and absorption spectra were 150 measured on an Agilent 8453 UV-visible spectroscopy system. Twelve data points were 151

used for each sub-set, this being the total available for the River Tarnbrook; values fromthe other sub-sets were chosen at random.

154 Values of  $A_{254}$  and  $A_{340}$  for each sample were used to calculate  $f_A$  from equation (2) using calibrated extinction coefficients, then the overall sample extinction coefficients  $E_{\lambda}$  were 155 calculated with equation (1), and [DOC] obtained from the ratio  $A_{254}/E_{254}$ . 156 157 Indistinguishable results were obtained whichever of the three parameter sets of Table 1 was used. The model predicted [DOC] well (Figure 2), with  $R^2$ =0.997 and a root-mean-158 squared-deviation (RMSD) of 0.7 mg  $l^{-1}$ . The slope of 0.98 and intercept of -0.3 mg  $l^{-1}$ . 159 (significant at p<0.01) result in slight underestimation of [DOC] on average, and a 160 161 proportionately greater error at low [DOC]. The calculated values of f<sub>A</sub> differed among the sub-sets; with  $E_{254,B}$  set to 18 |  $g^{-1}$  cm<sup>-1</sup>, the averages were 0.86 for the River 162 Tarnbrook, 0.18 for the groundwaters, 0.42 for the Ontario samples, and 0.46 for the 163 Colorado samples. Of course the absolute  $f_A$  values depend upon the choice of  $E_{254,B}$ , but 164 their relative order is always the same. 165

An important feature of the data sub-sets is that they differ appreciably in their extinction coefficients at a single wavelength. For each sub-set there is quite a strong correlation of  $A_{254}$  with [DOC] (Figure 2), but the slopes and intercepts differ noticeably; the results are still more divergent at 340 nm. Use of the  $A_{254}$  regression for the full data set ( $R^2$ =0.955) to predict [DOC] produces an RMSD of 1.86 mg l<sup>-1</sup>, more than twice the value from the two-component model.

A study by CEH and Lancaster University of the catchments of the Rivers Ribble and 172 173 Wyre has involved fortnightly sampling of 26 representative river sites (including the 174 River Tarnbrook site of Figure 2) in north-west England. The total catchment area of 1920 km<sup>2</sup> has a wide range of agricultural land-uses, including pasture, arable and 175 176 upland moorlands. There are also several intensely urban locations in the main towns of 177 Accrington, Blackburn and Burnley, as well as considerable current industrial activity and 178 the legacy of past heavy industry. We analysed 251 samples collected over the period 179 October 2008 to February 2009, using the methods described above for the River 180 Tarnbrook. As shown by Figure 3, the model underestimates [DOC] in many cases, but there are only two significant overestimates, and even these are probably outliers. The 181 fact that the cloud of data points has a well-defined upper edge that corresponds to the 182 183 1:1 line suggests that the model provides good estimates of "natural" [DOC] but, inevitably, fails to predict concentrations of non-absorbing DOM produced by human 184 activities. From the results, excluding likely outliers, the average non-absorbing [DOC] is 185 1.3 mg  $l^{-1}$ , with a 5/95 percentile range of 0.2/3.3 mg  $l^{-1}$ . Note that interference by 186 nitrate, the most common non-DOM chromophoric compound in surface waters<sup>[9]</sup>, is 187 188 unlikely to be serious in these samples, since the highest nitrate concentration in these

189 waters is c. 7 mg  $l^{-1}$ , which would add less than 0.5 mg  $l^{-1}$  to [DOC] estimated 190 spectroscopically. The three parameter sets of Table 1 gave nearly identical results.

The spectral analysis described here is a simple idea that has apparently not been 191 proposed before, although there are some relevant reports. Mattson et al.[10] used 192 absorbance at 546 nm to correct values at 254 nm for turbidity. Simonsson et al.[11] 193 performed Principal Components Analysis on absorbance data in the range 210-300 nm 194 to estimate [DOC] and [nitrate] in different forest floor leachates, but the samples did 195 196 not vary greatly in DOM quality and so a generally-applicable model was not derived. Downing et al.<sup>[12]</sup> used absorbance data only in the visible range (412-715 nm) to derive 197 a statistical model for samples from a tidal wetland, but this covered only a small range 198 of [DOC]  $(2.4 - 4.0 \text{ mg l}^{-1})$  and again the range of DOM quality would have been limited. 199 The book edited by Thomas & Burgess<sup>[9]</sup> devotes a chapter to the UV-visible 200 spectroscopy of natural waters<sup>[13]</sup> which considers "humic like substances" (equivalent to 201 202 the DOM that we are interested in) and recognises variations in their UV-visible spectra, 203 but does not discuss their absolute quantification from multi-wavelength data. Therefore 204 we believe that ours is a novel approach.

205 Our method is a significant improvement over single-wavelength monitoring, since it can provide accurate estimates of [DOC] for samples with differing DOM quality, at least in 206 natural waters not highly impacted by anthropogenic activities. The non-zero intercept 207 when [DOC] predictions are regressed against conventionally-measured values (Figure 2) 208 209 leads to reduced accuracy for samples with low [DOC], which tend to be dominated by DOM with weak light absorption, but for [DOC] > c. 2 mg l<sup>-1</sup> spectroscopic data alone can 210 be used to determine both concentration and quality rapidly and cheaply. The true 211 detection limit of the dual-wavelength method remains to be established, in part because 212 of inevitable uncertainty in conventionally-determined [DOC]. These findings could 213 214 significantly widen the scope of DOM research in both the laboratory and the field, including the possibility of continuous monitoring in situ, if turbidity influences could be 215 taken into account. For polluted waters, the model does not provide good estimates of 216 217 total [DOC] but may prove useful in distinguishing natural and pollutant DOM. The method should be tested on a wider range of DOM and water types, and there is clearly a 218 need to improve the parameterisation, to define component B in particular; as noted 219 220 above, this might lead to useful correlations with DOM physico-chemical properties. We 221 also need to understand why a simple two-component model appears to account so well 222 for the complex mixture of compounds that constitute natural DOM.

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- 280Table 1 Fitting results for the two-component model. Parameter values in **bold** were281fixed, those in *italics* are fitted. Within the precision shown, exactly the same282calculated values were obtained with each of the three parameter sets.

Parameters										
E <sub>254,A</sub>	60	60	60							
E <sub>280,A</sub>	49	49	49							
E <sub>340,A</sub>	23	23	23							
E <sub>254,B</sub>	14	18	22							
E <sub>280,B</sub>	8	11	15							
E <sub>340,B</sub>	0	2	4							
				С	Calculations			Observations		
	f <sub>A</sub>	f <sub>A</sub>	f <sub>A</sub>	E <sub>254</sub>	E <sub>280</sub>	E <sub>340</sub>	E <sub>25</sub>	<sub>54</sub> E <sub>280</sub>	E <sub>340</sub>	
	0.19	0.12	0.02	22.9	15.8	4.7	23.	3 15.4	4.7	
	0.24	0.16	0.07	24.8	17.5	5.6	24.	8 17.7	5.6	
	0.27	0.20	0.12	26.4	19.0	6.4	26.	0 19.1	6.5	
	0.28	0.21	0.13	27.0	19.5	6.7	26.	2 19.4	6.8	
	0.29	0.23	0.14	27.5	19.9	7.0	26.	9 19.9	7.1	
	0.31	0.24	0.16	28.1	20.5	7.3	28.	0 20.5	7.3	
	0.33	0.26	0.19	29.1	21.4	7.8	28.	3 21.2	8.0	
	0.35	0.29	0.21	30.0	22.2	8.2	30.	5 22.7	8.1	
	0.32	0.25	0.17	28.5	20.9	7.5	30.	6 22.2	7.1	
	0.40	0.34	0.27	32.4	24.3	9.4	32.	5 24.4	9.4	
	0.47	0.42	0.36	35.5	27.2	11.0	34.	5 26.2	11.6	
	0.47	0.42	0.35	35.4	27.1	11.0	37.	1 27.0	10.8	
	0.55	0.51	0.46	39.5	30.7	13.0	39.	2 30.4	13.2	
	0.60	0.56	0.51	41.5	32.5	14.0	42.	5 32.9	13.7	
	0.68	0.65	0.62	45.5	36.1	16.1	45.	8 35.8	16.1	
	0.76	0.74	0.71	48.9	39.2	17.8	47.	7 38.8	18.4	
	0.75	0.73	0.70	48.5	38.9	17.6	49.	0 39.1	17.4	
	0.79	0.77	0.74	50.1	40.3	18.4	49.	2 40.0	18.8	
	0.79	0.78	0.75	50.6	40.7	18.6	49.	7 40.4	19.0	
	0.78	0.76	0.74	49.9	40.1	18.3	50.	7 40.8	17.9	
	0.82	0.80	0.78	51.6	41.6	19.2	50.	9 41.4	19.5	
	0.79	0.77	0.75	50.4	40.6	18.6	52.	2 41.4	17.9	
	0.90	0.89	0.87	55.2	44.8	21.0	55.	0 44.9	21.1	



Figure 1. Relationship between the ratio of extinction coefficients at 340 and 254 nm and the extinction coefficient at 340 nm for 23 samples of DOM from four differing waters collected at different times. Key to symbols: squares, eutrophic lake; triangles and diamonds, two streams draining mineral soils; circles, peatland stream. The line is calculated from the model output shown in Table 1.



Figure 2. Predicted vs observed [DOC] in mg  $l^{-1}$  for samples of UK groundwaters (open circles), River Tarnbrook (closed circles), Ontario sites (closed squares) and Colorado sites (open squares). Panels (a) and (b) show the same data on different scales. Panel (c) shows the contrasting relationships between A<sub>254</sub> and [DOC] for the different sub-sets of samples, in the low concentration range.

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Figure 3. Observed and calculated [DOC] for 26 river sites in the Ribble-Wyre catchment, 9 or 10 points for each. The 9 filled circles are judged to be outliers, by comparison with other data for the sites in question. The 1:1 line is shown.