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1 Sub-daily rates of degradation of fluvial carbon from a peat headwater stream

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3

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5

6 Abstract

7 In-stream processing of allochthonous dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and particulate organic
8 carbon (POC) in peat-sourced headwaters has been shown to be a significant part of the terrestrial
9 carbon cycle, through photo- and bio-degradation, with both DOC and POC converted to carbon
10 dioxide (CO₂). This study reports a series of 70-hour, in-situ experiments investigating rates of
11 degradation in unfiltered surface water from a headwater stream in the River Tees, North Pennines,
12 UK. Half the samples were exposed to the normal day/night cycle (ambient); half were continuously
13 dark. The study found that the DOC concentration of samples in the ambient treatment declined by
14 64% over the 70 hours, compared with 6% decline for the samples kept in the dark. For POC, the
15 loss in the ambient treatment was 13%. The average initial rate of loss of DOC in the ambient
16 treatment during the first day of the experiment was 3.36 mg C/l/hour, and the average rate of
17 photo-induced loss over the whole 70 hours was 1.25 mg C/l/hour. Scaling up these losses, the
18 estimate of total organic carbon loss from UK rivers to the atmosphere is 9.4 Tg CO₂/yr which would
19 be 0.94% of the global estimate of CO₂ emissions from streams and rivers from the 2013 IPCC report.
20 Initial rate kinetics in the light were as high as 3rd order, but the study showed that no single rate law
21 could describe the whole diurnal degradation cycle and that separate rate laws were required for
22 night and day processes. The comparison of dark and ambient treatment processes showed no
23 evidence of photo-stimulated bacterial degradation.

24

25

26 Keywords: DOC, POC, in-stream, upland, river, UK

27

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28 **Introduction**

29 Peatlands, as highly organic soils, are an important, if not the most important, source of dissolved
30 (DOC) and particulate (POC) organic carbon to rivers (Aitkenhead et al. 2007; Rothwell et al. 2008;
31 Tipping et al. 2010). Both DOC and POC are important components of the fluvial carbon cycle,
32 facilitate the transport of pollutants (Rothwell et al. 2007); contribute to the nutrient supply and
33 energy sources in the river (Marschner and Kalbitz, 2003; Tipping et al. 2010); and affect the cost of
34 water treatment (Evans et al. 2012). Across the northern hemisphere there have been widespread
35 reports of increasing concentrations of DOC in river water in recent years (Evans et al. 2005;
36 Freeman et al. 2001); and widespread erosion in UK peatlands has led to an increase in POC fluxes
37 into some headwaters (Evans et al. 2006; Pawson et al. 2008).

38 The fluxes of DOC and POC from World rivers have been measured and modelled (e.g.
39 Harrison et al. 2005), but these studies have calculated flux of organic components at the outlet of
40 the catchments rather than the flux from the terrestrial sources (e.g. peat soils) and thus do not take
41 into account any changes that have occurred along the path of the river, such as in-stream
42 processing of DOC and outgassing of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC; Worrall et al. 2012) and so are
43 poor estimates of how much carbon is being lost from terrestrial environments and how much
44 carbon is contributed from rivers to the atmosphere. In-stream processes can either decrease or
45 increase the DOC concentration of the stream by sorption to POC and/or the autochthonous
46 production of DOC.

47 The extent to which the processing of DOC and POC contribute to the release of atmospheric
48 greenhouse gas depends upon the rates of processes that degrade and convert DOC to greenhouse
49 gases. Gennings et al. (2001) state that 40-70% of annual inputs into boreal lakes are evaded to the
50 atmosphere. At a global scale, Cole et al. (2007) estimated that 1.9 Pg C/yr enters rivers of which 0.8
51 Pg C/yr (42% of the input) is returned to the atmosphere. Battin et al. (2009) suggested a lower
52 removal rate of 21%, and Raymond et al. (2013) estimated a value of CO₂ lost from global rivers of
53 1.8 Pg C/yr and 0.32 Pg C/yr from lakes and reservoirs.

54 Lakes and reservoirs have residence times of weeks to years, which are far longer than the
55 residence times of rivers and especially for rivers in the UK – in-stream residence time in the UK at
56 median flow is only 26.7 hours (Worrall et al. 2014a). Also, due to the long residence times of lakes
57 and reservoirs, the DOC will be “old”, having been in the fluvial network for a longer time. “Young”
58 DOC is readily biodegradable (Marschner and Kalbitz, 2003), and “old” DOC is more refractory
59 (Southwell et al. 2011). Preferential degradation of “young” DOC means that large rivers, reservoirs,
60 lakes and the sea will have larger proportions of “old”, less degradable DOC, and so the rates of
61 degradation of DOC would be lower than in smaller rivers and their headwaters (Raymond and

62 Bauer, 2001). Cory et al. (2014) found that of the 6.11 Gg C/year (0.4g C/m²/yr) DOC converted to
63 CO² in a river basin, up to 92% could be attributed to light processes in headwater streams (photo-
64 mineralized, photo-oxidised or photo-stimulated bacterial respiration). Worrall et al. (2014b) found
65 that the total fluvial flux of carbon from the terrestrial source was 5.0 Tg C/yr (22.2 g C/m²/yr) with
66 3.2 Tg C/yr lost to the atmosphere – equivalent to 13.9 g C/m²/yr or a total loss rate of 63% and
67 including a 20% net loss of POC across watersheds. Moody et al. (2013) performed experimental
68 observations of the fate of DOC and POC in “young”, fresh, peat stream water from the River Tees,
69 northern England, and found an average 73% loss of the DOC over 10 days, with the majority of the
70 loss occurring in the first two days, and between 38 and 87% removal of peat-derived POC. If the
71 majority of degradation and loss of DOC and POC is occurring over a period of 2 days and the
72 residence time of UK rivers is of the order of 1 day then degradation processes need to be
73 considered on the order of hours and not days. As photodegradation, by definition, requires light,
74 the DOC concentration in a stream is likely to exhibit a diurnal cycle of degradation which would not
75 be readily observed if daily or longer timescales were considered (Worrall et al. 2013). Therefore,
76 the aim of this study is to consider fluvial carbon dynamics over periods of hours and not days, with
77 the specific aims of quantifying the changes in DOC and POC concentrations that occur in the
78 normal, day/night cycle compared with changes that occur in total darkness, and attributing a
79 proportion of the change to the effect of the waters exposure to sunlight. The rates of DOC
80 concentration changes in the two treatments, and during each stage of the experiment and during
81 the first hour of the experiments were also quantified with the aim of approximating the order of
82 the reactions, and to investigate the potential for photo-stimulated bacterial degradation of DOC
83 (Cory et al. 2014). This study considered the net changes in DOC concentration in water from the
84 headwater of the River Tees in North-East England over periods of up to 70 hours.

85

86 **Materials and Methods**

87 **Study Site**

88 This study used Cottage Hill Sike (Figure 1; UK national grid ref: NY 744 327) within the Moor House
89 National Nature Reserve (NNR), the most extensively studied of all UK peatlands (Billett et al. 2010),
90 and has a catchment area of 0.2 km², with 100% peat cover. The Moor House NNR is part of the
91 Environmental Change Network (ECN) monitoring programme which means that DOC concentration
92 has been monitored in the stream water weekly since 1993 (www.ecn.ac.uk – Sykes and Lane, 1996;
93 Worrall et al. 2009).

94

95 **Degradation measurements**

96 The degradation experiments were carried out in natural, ambient light and temperature conditions
97 (rather than indoors under artificially controlled conditions). The study considered two treatments,
98 one in which the water was always exposed to ambient light (thus experiencing both night and
99 daylight conditions); and one in which all water samples were exposed to ambient temperature but
100 were covered and therefore always in darkness. These treatments, henceforward referred to as
101 'ambient' and 'dark' were employed so as to distinguish between components of degradation (i.e.
102 the difference between ambient and dark DOC concentration changes is the photo-induced DOC
103 change). Experiments were conducted each month over the course of a year (except January when
104 samples were not obtained as poor weather conditions prevented access to Moor House NNR) so
105 that samples were taken across a range of both meteorological conditions and DOC concentrations
106 and compositions. The water was not pre-filtered, so this study could consider the net fate of DOC
107 and could include production from POC or adsorption by it, as well as in-situ production of both DOC
108 and POC. The measurements made were net changes in the DOC concentrations, and it was
109 assumed that both production and degradation of DOC and POC were happening in the water.

110 Each degradation experiment spanned approximately 70 hours with sacrificial sampling
111 taking place at approximately hour 0, 1, 2, 8, and then at dawn and dusk on day 2, 3 and 4, with
112 ambient and dark treatments on each month. Fixed numbers of hours since the start of the
113 experiment were not used in the experiment because changes in initial river sampling time and
114 changes in day length would mean that samples in daylight one month could be in darkness in a
115 subsequent month, and thus samples were taken relative to dawn and dusk for each period of
116 experimentation each month. Replicate samples (where more than one water sample per treatment
117 and time was sampled) were included within each degradation experiment and over the course of
118 the year each combination of factors was replicated, resulting in more than 11 samples for each
119 sampling time and treatment combination. No hour 0 samples were replicated, but 47% of all other
120 measurements were replicated (187 of 398 samples), approximately 12 replicates per month across
121 all treatments and sampling times. Replication was limited by practical constraints of the amount of
122 equipment available and the time taken to process DOC analysis to ensure the short timescales at
123 the beginning of the experiment.

124 The sampled stream water was poured into acid-washed, quartz glass tubes, so they were
125 approximately half full, with an air headspace, stoppered with a rubber bung at the bottom and
126 loosely stoppered at the top. Quartz glass allows all light wavelengths to pass through it. Dark
127 samples were wrapped in foil to prevent exposure to light. All samples were put outside in trays,
128 with all tubes lying at a slight angle (approximately 15°) to prevent rainfall entering and the sample
129 evaporating or pouring out. The angling of the tubes also stopped the ambient samples being

130 shaded by the top bung and exposed a larger surface area of water to light. The samples were
131 moved to different positions daily to avoid any bias in shading from nearby trees, which could have
132 shaded the water only at the peak of the growing season. A data logger with a PAR
133 (photosynthetically active radiation) meter and thermocouple recorded the radiation levels and air
134 temperature at 15-minute intervals throughout the 70-hour period of each month's experiment.
135 Temperature conditions were summarised as the average conditions over the period for each
136 sample and PAR measurements were summed to give the total radiation experienced by any one
137 sample. UV radiation was not measured.

138

139 **Sample analysis**

140 Samples for DOC analysis were filtered to 0.45 μm , and then "fixed" with concentrated sulphuric
141 acid. There was no visible flocculation after the addition of acid. This technique was used because
142 addition of concentrated sulphuric acid is the first step in the analysis of DOC concentration
143 measured using the wet oxidation method described in Bartlett and Ross, (1988). The measurement
144 of DOC concentration was calibrated using standards of oxalic acid of known concentrations, and
145 only calibration curves with an r^2 of 0.95 or above were used. The Bartlett and Ross method is
146 accurate between 2 and 60 mg/l DOC and samples were diluted with deionised water so as to be
147 within this range; the need for dilution was judged based on colour of the water. At each sampling
148 time a duplicate sample was filtered to 0.45 μm , and used for further analysis. Absorbance at 400
149 nm was measured to provide a basic (visible) colour reading and the specific absorbance was taken
150 as the absorbance at 400 nm divided by the DOC concentration of the sample. All optical
151 measurements were performed using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer, with a 1 cm cuvette. Blanks of
152 deionised water were used.

153 Suspended sediment (SS) concentration in each monthly experiment was measured in 50 ml
154 samples at the beginning, middle and end of each experiment. Samples were filtered through pre-
155 weighed, 0.45 μm , Advantec glass fibre filters; dried to 105 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and the filter paper re-weighed to give
156 the concentration of suspended sediment. In some months, the filter papers were then put in a
157 furnace for 4 hours at 550 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, and then re-weighed. The mass lost in the furnace equates to the
158 mass of particulate organic matter (POM), and 47.5% of this was assumed to be particulate organic
159 carbon (Moody et al. 2013; Worrall et al. 2003). The suspended sediment concentrations were
160 measured in each of the 11 months at the beginning, middle and end of the experiments. Six
161 months of these suspended sediment measurements were analysed further to calculate the
162 particulate organic matter (POM) concentrations, resulting in 62 POM measurements. Extrapolating

163 from the six months of data, the percentage of POM, and therefore POC, was calculated and applied
164 to the whole suspended sediment data set, resulting in a year of calculated POC concentrations.

165 Conductivity, pH and water temperature of water samples as it left each quartz glass vial
166 were measured by electrode methods to provide covariate information in ANCOVAs (analysis of
167 covariance statistics).

168

169 **Statistical methodology**

170 The design of the experiment incorporated three factors: month, sample time and treatment. The
171 month factor had 11 levels (one for each calendar month sampled except for January when weather
172 prevented sampling); sample time had 10 levels (with average times (hh:mm) since start of
173 experiment as: 0:00, 1:00, 2:00, 4:22, 9:00, 21:58, 30:58, 45:05, 54:29, and 68:52); and treatment
174 had two levels (ambient and dark). The sample times are the averaged values (each has a standard
175 error) that represent the samples taken on the first day (average hours 0:00, 1:00, 2:00, 4:22, 9:00),
176 dawn and dusk on day 2 (average hours 21:58, 30:), dawn and dusk on day 3 (hours 45:05, 54:29)
177 and dawn on day 4 (average hour 68:52, henceforward referred to as t_{70}).

178 A similar analysis progression was used to Moody et al. (2013) as the experimental design
179 was similar and this allowed comparisons to be made between the two studies. An analysis of
180 variance (ANOVA) was used to assess the significance of all three factors on the DOC and POC
181 concentrations and where possible the interactions between the factors were also determined.
182 Furthermore, the analysis was repeated including covariates (ANCOVA). The covariates used were:
183 pH, conductivity, specific absorbance; and light and temperature variables. The ANOVA and
184 ANCOVA were performed separately so as to explore what effects existed and whether they could
185 be explained by the available covariates. The concentrations of DOC were analysed in both absolute
186 and relative terms where the relative value for each sample in an experiment was expressed as the
187 ratio of the measured value to measurement at hour 0 (t_0) for that experimental run. The
188 magnitude of the effects and interactions of each significant factor and interaction were calculated
189 using the method of Olejnik and Algina (2003). Main effects plots use the least squares means which
190 are marginal means corrected for the influence of all other factors, interactions and covariates, to
191 visualise the data.

192 Guided by the results of the ANOVA and ANCOVA, stepwise linear regression was used to
193 develop empirical models. Variables whose effect was significant at least at 95% probability of
194 not being zero were included in the developed model with the further caveat that final models
195 were also chosen so as to be physically interpretable. The month factor was transformed into
196 the sinusoidal function: $\left(\sin\left(\frac{m\pi}{6}\right) + \cos\left(\frac{m\pi}{6}\right) \right)$, where m is the month number (January = 1 to

197 December = 12). This was done to make the month factor a continuous variable, rather than one
198 that changes from a value of 12 to 1 in between December and January. Some of the variables
199 were transformed for the sake of physical-interpretability, e.g. reciprocal of the cumulative
200 absolute temperature.

201 The change in DOC concentration and rate of degradation of DOC were considered relative
202 to the two treatments; i.e. (i) the rate of degradation in the ambient treatment (total degradation);
203 (ii) the rate of degradation in the dark (biodegradation); and (iii) the difference between the two
204 treatments which was taken as the rate of photic processes – this was the estimate of photo-
205 induced DOC change, and used to calculate the apparent quantum yield (see below). The photo-
206 induced DOC concentrations will include the effects of both direct and indirect light exposure, such
207 as the photodegradation of DOC and subsequent biodegradation of photodegradation products.

208 To perform an initial rate analysis, the rates of DOC degradation were also calculated for the
209 very first hour of each experiment. Worrall et al. (2013) proposed a simple kinetic model for the loss
210 of DOC based upon two zero-order decay processes, one for daylight hours and one for night time.
211 To test this approach the rate of change for the whole days and nights in the first 48 hours of the
212 experiments were calculated. The rates were calculated for day 1 (between t_0 and dusk on day 1),
213 night 1 (between dusk on day 1 and dawn on day 2), day 2 (between dawn and dusk on day 2) and
214 night 2 (between dusk on day 2 and dawn on day 3) of each experiment. These rates then
215 underwent the same ANOVA, ANCOVA and regression process as the DOC concentrations, with the
216 sample time factor being replaced by a “stage” factor with four levels (day 1, night 1, day 2 and night
217 2).

218

219 **Photo-stimulated bacterial degradation**

220 Photo-stimulated bacterial degradation could result in an increased rate of organic matter
221 degradation following the addition of labile compounds, for example, the products of photo-
222 degradation could stimulate further biodegradation (Tranvik and Bertilsson 2001). In this study it is
223 hypothesized that photo-stimulated bacterial degradation could be expected to lead to increased
224 rate of breakdown of DOC and POC during the night as a result of exposure to daylight during the
225 day, as stated in Cory et al. (2014). The presence of this effect was tested in two ways. Firstly, if
226 there were an effect then there should be a difference between the night time rates measured in
227 samples that have been exposed to light (ambient) from the night time rate for those samples that
228 have always been in the dark. An ANOVA was performed on the night time rates, using treatment
229 and month as factors with the hypothesis that night time rates would be significantly higher for
230 ambient treatments. Secondly, the ratio of the night time rate in the ambient to that in the dark

231 treatments would be one if there was not photo-stimulated biodegradation; therefore, a single
232 value t-test was used to test whether the ratios of night time rates were different from one.

233

234 **Apparent quantum yields and activation energies**

235 The apparent quantum yields (AQYs – the extent of reaction per unit concentration of incident
236 photons) were estimated using the estimates of photo-induced DOC loss using the cumulative light
237 exposure and the number of hours since the beginning of the experiment. The results are presented
238 as a range, due to some instances of photo-production and therefore negative yields. ANOVA and
239 regression analysis were applied to the AQY values, using month and time as factors.

240 The activation energy was calculated to show the effect of temperature on the rate of
241 degradation in the ambient treatment, using the universal gas constant, 0.692 J/K/g C.

242

243 **Results**

244 In total 398 samples with complete covariate information and within the context of the factorial
245 design were conducted and analysed. Summary of the water chemistry over the 70 hours of the
246 study period in ambient conditions are given in Table 1. The conductivity and pH increased between
247 t_0 and t_{70} in both treatment (dark data not shown), suggesting an increase in the bicarbonate
248 concentrations over the course of the experiments. There was a slight increase in the absorbance at
249 400 nm, and decreases in both the POC and DOC concentrations.

250

251 **Changes in DOC concentrations**

252 For nearly every month of measurement the DOC concentration in both treatments decreased
253 (Table 2). The average DOC concentration over time showed a steep initial decline, although the
254 rate of decline was still not zero even after 70 hours (Figure 2). The average decline in the ambient
255 treatment was from 42 to 17 mg C/l (64% loss), whereas the decline in the dark treatment was from
256 42 to 36 mg C/l (6% loss), over the 70 hours. Of all the experiments run, there were 61 experiments
257 from both treatments (out of a total of 398 experiments) where an increase in DOC concentration
258 was observed at any time during the experiment, relative to the initial DOC concentration. In six of
259 the cases there was a higher DOC_{70} concentration than DOC_0 . Given that no raw water samples
260 were filtered prior to inclusion in the experiment it was possible that particles or the microbial
261 population within the sample generated DOC over the course of the experiments. The Anderson–
262 Darling test showed that neither the distribution of DOC concentration nor relative DOC
263 concentration for the ambient or dark treatments, met the condition of normality, therefore all

264 subsequent ANOVA were performed on log-transformed data: re-application of the Anderson-
265 Darling test indicated that no further transformation was necessary.

266 When the relative concentration data for both treatments (ambient and dark) were
267 considered without covariates, all single factors were found to be significant (Table 3). The least
268 important single factor was time (explaining only 7% of the variance in the original dataset). The
269 most important factor was treatment, explaining 28% of the original variance.

270 One of the reasons for using relative DOC concentration was to minimize the difference
271 between months. To show that this has been effective, the same ANOVA was carried out on the raw
272 DOC values, and this found that the variance explained by the month factor was substantially
273 smaller when the relative concentrations were used, even though there was no clear relationship
274 between month and initial DOC concentration. Overall the ANOVA of the relative DOC
275 concentration explained 68% of the variance in the original data. The error term represented 15% of
276 the variance, which represents the unexplained variance in the model, not only due to sampling or
277 measurement error but also variables, factors or their interactions that were not or could not be
278 included in the ANOVA. Possible variables that could not be included are the river discharge and the
279 water chemistry at the start of each experiment – these data are not readily available for Cottage
280 Hill Sike. The ECN water chemistry samples were taken on different days to this experiment, and so
281 the data were not directly comparable.

282 Including covariates in the ANOVA (ANCOVA) showed the most important covariate was the
283 t_0 specific absorbance, followed by DOC_0 concentration. This suggests that degradation rate was
284 concentration and composition dependent. The absorbance at 400 nm showed a slight relationship
285 with month, with the absorbance values being higher in the summer than in the winter. Guided by
286 the results of the DOC ANOVA and ANCOVA it was possible to give the best-fit equation for the
287 change in the DOC concentration (ΔDOC) in the ambient treatment:

288

$$289 \Delta DOC = -1550(\pm 454)Abs_0 + 16.4(\pm 2.8)\ln DOC_0 + 2.31(\pm 0.5)\ln(t) - 39.5(\pm 11.4)$$

290 $p < 0.0001$, $n = 180$, $r^2 = 0.36$ (Eq. 1)

291

292 where Abs_0 is the specific absorbance at t_0 , DOC_0 is the DOC concentration at t_0 (mg C/l), and t is the
293 time since the start of the experiment (hours). Only variables that were found to be significantly
294 different from zero at least at a probability of 95% were included. The values in brackets (e.g. ± 454)
295 give the standard errors on the coefficients and the constant term. This equation showed that the
296 initial DOC concentrations and composition are significant in determining the change in DOC. Visual
297 assessment of the data (Figure 2) suggested that the regression of the ambient treatment may
298 benefit from using two regression lines, one for the initial rapid decrease during the first day and

299 one for the remaining time of the experiment, as there may be linear relationships for the two
 300 sections separately. Analysing the change in DOC concentrations for two time sections separately
 301 found an r^2 of 0.47 for the first 10 hours (Eq. 2), and 0.33 for the last 60 hours of the experiment (Eq.
 302 3). The equations had three factors in common: the initial DOC concentration, the cumulative PAR
 303 and reciprocal of the cumulative temperature, however the parameter estimates suggest that both
 304 of these latter two parameters were more influential in the first 10 hours. It is interesting to note
 305 that neither equation found time of the experiment to be a significant parameter, however both the
 306 cumulative PAR and temperature factors will reflect changes in both time and month, with the PAR
 307 and temperature relationships with month showing a peak in late spring/early summer and the
 308 lowest points in winter. Absorbance at 400 nm which was significant in Eq. 1 was not significant in
 309 either model, suggesting that the composition of the DOC is less important than the light exposure
 310 and temperature when the ambient samples are analysed independent of the dark samples.

311

312 Between t_0 and t_{10} :

$$313 \Delta DOC = 29.6(\pm 4.1) \ln DOC_0 + 0.19(\pm 0.06) \sum PAR + \frac{10800(\pm 6280)}{T}$$

$$314 + 4.50(\pm 1.2) \left(\sin\left(\frac{\pi m}{6}\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi m}{6}\right) \right) - 137(\pm 29.5)$$

315 $p < 0.0001$, $n = 76$, $r^2 = 0.47$ (Eq. 2)

316

317 Between t_{10} and t_{70} :

$$318 \Delta DOC = 16.8(\pm 3.2) \ln DOC_0 + 0.03(\pm 0.01) \sum PAR + \frac{14100(\pm 3140)}{T} - 75.2(\pm 15.2)$$

319 $p = 0.0003$, $n = 96$, $r^2 = 0.33$ (Eq. 3)

320

321 where $\sum PAR$ is the cumulative photosynthetically active radiation experienced by the sample
 322 (W/m^2), T is the cumulative temperature (K), m is the month number and all other terms are as
 323 described above. The model was also calculated using an exponential relationship between the
 324 change in DOC concentration and time, however the r^2 was only marginally better than the linear
 325 relationship, and the results were less physically interpretable.

326

327 The difference between the dark and ambient treatment DOC concentrations in each
 328 experiment was taken as the estimate of the impact of photic processes (Figure 3). The extent of
 329 photo-induced DOC degradation could be estimated in 202 cases, and there were 18 occasions
 330 where the DOC concentration was higher in the ambient treatment than in the dark treatment
 (implying photo-induced production). Of the 18 occasions where an increase was observed, only

331 four were higher than 10 mg C/l, showing the majority of cases have higher dark DOC than light
 332 DOC, or a very small difference between the two.

333 The ANOVA shows that all single factors and all interactions were significant (Table 4). Two
 334 covariates were found to be a significant: the PAR and temperature variables. The month factor,
 335 although significant and explaining the highest proportions of the variance in the ANOVA was no
 336 longer significant in the ANCOVA. The other significant factor, time, and the significant interaction
 337 (time*month) all explain 17% and 11%, respectively, of the variance in the ANOVA. Given the results
 338 of the ANOVA it was possible to identify the best-fit equation for the loss due to photo-induced
 339 degradation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 341 \quad \Delta DOC_{photo} = & -3.66(\pm 1.02) \left(\sin\left(\frac{\pi m}{6}\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi m}{6}\right) \right) - 4.60(\pm 1.32) \ln(t) - 4.59(\pm 3.18) \ln DOC_0 \\
 342 & - \frac{2690(\pm 2040)}{T} + 18.0(\pm 13.1) \\
 343 \quad p < 0.0001, n = 191, r^2 = 0.21 & \quad \quad \quad (Eq. 4)
 \end{aligned}$$

344
 345 where ΔDOC_{photo} is the difference between the dark and light DOC concentrations (mg C/l). The
 346 apparent quantum yields (AQYs) were estimated for the photo-induced DOC loss and was found to
 347 vary between 82 and -56 mmol C/mol photons, and an ANOVA found that there were significant
 348 differences between the month and time factors, and the interaction of month*time. A regression
 349 analysis showed that both month and time were significant:

$$\begin{aligned}
 351 \quad AQY = & -3.06(\pm 1.09) \left(\sin\left(\frac{\pi m}{6}\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi m}{6}\right) \right) + 2.81(\pm 0.72) \ln(t) - 12.2(\pm 2.09) \\
 352 \quad p < 0.0001, n = 173, r^2 = 0.12 & \quad \quad \quad (Eq. 5)
 \end{aligned}$$

353
 354 The seasonal cycle exhibited a similar pattern to that described in Moody et al. (2013), with a peak in
 355 December and a minimum between February and June, showing the DOC in December was more
 356 photodegradable than the DOC in June. The AQY varied with time, having the smallest yields at the
 357 beginning of the experiment (Figure 4), showing that exposure to light had the greatest effect on the
 358 DOC when it was freshest, early in the experiment. The AQY relationship with month is the opposite
 359 of the relationship with absorbance, which peaks in June and is lowest in the winter, suggesting that
 360 there could be a link between the photodegradability of the DOC and its composition.

361 The regression analysis on ΔDOC_{photo} (Eq. 4) showed that the DOC loss due to photo-induced
 362 degradation could be calculated from the seasonal cycle, sample time, DOC_0 and temperature; all

363 variables that can be easily measured, and therefore the equation is easily physically interpretable
364 and easy to apply to other data sets.

365

366 **Changes in POC concentrations**

367 The average changes in POC concentration in the ambient treatment across all months are shown in
368 Table 2; there was a decrease in the POC concentration in the ambient treatment, and an increase in
369 the dark treatment. The Anderson-Darling test showed that the distribution of POC concentration
370 did not meet the conditions of normality, and so the data were log transformed. An ANOVA on POC
371 concentrations found that time and month were significant single factors, as was the interaction
372 between them (Table 5). Month explained the highest proportion of the original variance (26%). An
373 ANCOVA found no covariates were significant, and although a regression was attempted, no
374 significant equation could be calculated, even using only the ambient treatment samples.

375

376 **Rates of DOC degradation**

377 The minimum, maximum, mean and median rates of degradation in the ambient and dark treatment
378 are shown in Table 2. The mean rate of DOC degradation in the ambient treatment was 1.7 mg
379 C/l/hour, and 0.5 mg C/l/hour in the dark treatment. In each treatment, decreases or no change in
380 DOC concentrations were observed in 88 cases out of 91, showing that in the majority of cases the
381 DOC concentration decreased in both treatments (Figure 5). An extremely large maximum DOC loss
382 rate of 37 mg C/l/hour would suggest that there was flocculation of the DOC in this sample, however
383 there were no sub-daily samples analysed for POC and so this cannot be verified. The ANOVA of the
384 rate of degradation for ambient samples showed that only the time factor was significant (Table 6).
385 When included, no covariates were found to be significant, which means that the rate of
386 degradation is not dependent on anything other than time of the experiment. Guided by the results
387 of the ANOVA, the best-fit equation for the degradation rate was calculated:

388

$$389 \ln rate_{ambient} = 0.08(\pm 0.8) - 0.79(\pm 0.1)\ln(t) + \frac{277(\pm 228)}{T} + 0.0002(\pm 0.0005) \sum PAR$$

$$390 p < 0.0001, n = 141, r^2 = 0.57 \quad (\text{Eq. 6})$$

391

392 where $rate_{ambient}$ is the rate of DOC change in the ambient treatment, and all other terms are as
393 described above.

394 The regression analysis showed that the cumulative light exposure and inverse temperature,
395 along with the time since the start of the experiment, were significant in determining the rate of
396 DOC degradation, suggesting that the DOC degradation was influenced by environmental factors,

397 such as the temperature and light levels during the experiments, both factors that change with time.
398 The partial regression coefficients showed that the time variable was the most important variable in
399 the model, with PAR and temperature accounting for only small proportions of the variation.

400 For the rate of degradation in the dark, the ANOVA and ANCOVA show that no factors or
401 covariates were significant (Table 6); even so regression was attempted, but no significant variables
402 were found. There were no significant differences between the rates at different times during the
403 experiment. The processes controlling the degradation of DOC in the dark must therefore not be
404 dependent on any of the measured variables, suggesting that biodegradation is not temperature or
405 concentration dependent.

406 Although the rate of degradation in the dark was minimal, the rate of photo-induced
407 degradation was calculated and analysed in the same way as the individual treatments. The ANOVA
408 on the rate of the photo-induced DOC degradation found that Time was significant (Table 6). No
409 covariates were found to be significant. Guided by the ANOVA, a regression was calculated:

410

$$411 \ln rate_{photo} = 1.80(\pm 0.2) - 1.12(\pm 0.1)\ln(t)$$

$$412 p < 0.0001, n = 59, r^2 = 0.7 \quad (\text{Eq. 7})$$

413

414 where $rate_{photo}$ is the rate of photo-induced degradation (mg C/l/hour) and t is the time in hours
415 since the beginning of the experiment. The regression shows that the only factor affecting the rate
416 of photo-induced degradation is the time since the start of the experiment.

417

418 **Rate of DOC degradation during each day and night**

419 This analysis showed that there were times when there was net DOC production, such as in the dark
420 treatment during both Night 1 and 2, and in the ambient treatment during Night 2 (Figure 6). This is
421 likely to be due to release from POC or production of DOC in the quartz glass tubes being of greater
422 magnitude than the degradation of DOC. The ANOVA found all three factors significant (Table 7), as
423 well as three interactions: treatment*stage, treatment*month, and stage*month. Stage explains
424 the largest proportion of the variance (27%) followed by the interaction of stage*month (14%),
425 showing that the rates of DOC degradation differ significantly between the four stages of the
426 experiment and between months. However, there was no clear seasonal cycle to the rates during
427 each stage. The relationship between treatment and stage showed the significant differences
428 between the average rates per stage for treatments, with the night rates being not significantly
429 different from zero (Figure 6). There were no significant covariates.

430 The rates of degradation in the ambient treatment during the first two days and nights were
431 modelled using ANOVA, and it was found that the stage of the experiment was significant, and no
432 month factor or DOC_0 concentration was significant, i.e. it would be reasonable to use single zero-
433 order rates for day 1, day 2, night 1 and night 2 without correction and that would account for 45%
434 of the original variance. This is a large proportion of the variation accounted for by the rate at each
435 stage, comparable to the results of the more sophisticated ANCOVA above.

436

437 **Initial rates of DOC degradation**

438 The average rate of DOC degradation in first hour of the experiment in the ambient treatment was
439 11.6 mg C/l, and 3.6 mg C/l in the dark treatment. An ANOVA on the rates had two factors,
440 treatment and month. The ANOVA found all factors and interactions were significant (Table 8). The
441 month factor explained the largest proportion of the variance (38%), closely followed by the
442 interaction of month*treatment, showing that the initial rates of DOC degradation differ significantly
443 between the treatments and between months. Again, there was no clear seasonal cycle to the
444 monthly initial rates. Once covariates were added, the DOC_0 concentration was significant, and the
445 month factor was no longer significant. This shows that the initial rate of DOC degradation is
446 dependent in the initial concentration of DOC, and the monthly differences found in the ANOVA are
447 likely due to the monthly differences in the DOC_0 concentration.

448 Guided by the results of the ANCOVA, the following rate equation could be derived for the
449 ambient treatment:

450

$$451 \ln rate_0 = 2.3(\pm 0.7) \ln DOC_0 + 0.6(\pm 0.3) \cos\left(\frac{\pi m}{6}\right) - 6.3(\pm 2.6)$$

$$452 p < 0.0001, n = 18, r^2 = 0.5 \quad (\text{Eq. 8})$$

453

454 where $rate_0$ is the initial rate of DOC change (mg C/l/hour), DOC_0 is the initial DOC concentration and
455 m is month number (1 = January, 12 = December).

456

457 **Photo-stimulated bacterial DOC degradation**

458 The average night time rates of DOC degradation for the two treatments were -0.2 ± 0.13 mg
459 C/l/hour in the dark treatment and 0.1 ± 0.07 mg C/l/hour in the ambient treatment. An ANOVA
460 based on the night time rates, using treatment and month as factors, found no significant
461 differences in the rate of degradation. Secondly, a single sample t-test was used which showed that
462 the mean ratio was 2.15 (95% ci = 0.31 – 3.98) i.e. not significantly different from 1 at the 95%
463 probability. Therefore it was concluded that there was no net photo-stimulated bacterial

464 degradation, however, as the DOC concentrations measure the net changes, it was possible that
465 there was a decrease in the DOC concentrations due to photo-stimulated bacterial degradation, but
466 this was masked by other biological processes.

467

468 **Discussion**

469 Removal rates of fluvial carbon reported in the literature for similar environments range from 21%
470 (Battin et al. 2009) to 70% (Gennings et al. 2001), so the loss of 64% from this study is not
471 unprecedented, however it is towards to higher end of the literature ranges. Recent work by Cory et
472 al. (2014) found DOC losses of 55%, of which approximately 75% was photodegraded, and Jones et
473 al. (in press) indicated 50-80% of DOC is mineralised to CO₂ by photodegradation. The results show
474 that photodegradation is responsible for the majority of the DOC loss, and are similar to this study.

475 The general trends in the data were that the DOC and POC concentrations decreased in the
476 ambient treatment, while a smaller decrease was observed in the dark treatment. However, there
477 were some cases where the DOC concentrations did not decrease: experiments where there was an
478 increase in DOC over the course of the experiment were not removed from the analysis, as the study
479 was interested in the conversion of POC to DOC and the average fate of DOC. The 61 occasions
480 where an increase in DOC concentration was measured occurred in eight of the 11 months, with the
481 largest numbers occurring during the spring months. The six occasions where there was a higher
482 DOC₇₀ concentration than at DOC₀ all occurred in the dark treatment, in March, May, August and
483 October. Jones et al. (in press) also found increases in DOC occurred, especially in their dark
484 treatment, suggesting aphotic production of DOC.

485 Even when using the relative DOC concentrations, there were still some significant
486 differences between the months; this may reflect the importance of the t₀ DOC concentration for
487 the degradation rate (with faster degradation rates associated with higher initial concentrations)
488 rather than a seasonal cycle in degradation behaviour per se, which also explains the significant
489 interactions between the month factor and the sample time and the treatment factors.

490 The model results suggest that the physical process of DOC removal is controlled by time,
491 light exposure, air temperature, composition of the DOC (absorbance at 400 nm) and a seasonal
492 factor, but most importantly by the initial DOC concentration with higher concentrations leading to
493 higher rates of DOC loss. This shows that waters with high natural DOC concentrations, such as
494 peat-sourced rivers, will have higher rates of DOC removal. Comparing these models to those in
495 Moody et al. (2013), the same factors were found to be significant (initial DOC concentration, time,
496 seasonal factor, absorbance at 400 nm, PAR and temperature); however the models presented in

497 this paper are generally simpler and more physically interpretable, showing the benefits of sub-daily
498 sampling.

499 Moody et al. (2013) found 73% DOC removal over 10 days. If this rate of loss were constant,
500 it would result in a 21% loss in 70 hours. This is a lower estimate than found in this study (64%),
501 although the former experiment was conducted over 10 days rather than 70 hours, and presuming a
502 constant rate of loss is unrealistic, as the majority of the decline occurred in the first two days of the
503 experiments. Ten days is much longer than the residence times of most British rivers across a wide
504 range of flows, and so will not provide a reliable estimate of the in-river loss of DOC. The more
505 frequent sampling of this study enabled sub-daily rates to be calculated, and therefore the day/night
506 rates could be compared. This led to the diurnal cycle that would not be observed in experiments
507 where samples were only taken daily which could lead to over/under estimates of DOC losses
508 though degradation.

509 The model of the initial rate of DOC degradation, which was estimated using the DOC
510 concentration change during the first hour of the experiments, found that the factors affecting the
511 initial rate are the initial DOC concentration and a seasonal factor. This method of analysis would
512 suggest that in the ambient treatment, the initial important reaction is of the order 2.3 ± 0.7 which is
513 not significantly different from second or third order. However it is most likely to be fractional or
514 mixed order because of the rate and order of each of the contributing processes.

515 An advantage of recording the PAR and temperature throughout the experiment was the
516 possibility of estimating the AQYs and the activation energy of the DOC degradation, which were
517 calculated to be -4.99 ± 1.10 mmol C/mol photons, and 0.19 ± 0.16 kJ/g C respectively. The range of
518 the AQYs found in this study are larger than the range found by Moody et al. (2013) of 9.6 to -1.7
519 mmol C/mol photons, and the literature values cited therein (Osburn et al. 2009). The activation
520 energy is considerably lower than the value found by Moody et al. (2013) of 2.6 ± 1.2 kJ/g C,
521 suggesting that the degradation for DOC from the headwater site is much less sensitive to changes in
522 temperature than the average of the four sites used in Moody et al (2013). This could be a benefit
523 of using only one site, where the temperature range is known, rather than four sites which are likely
524 to have more variable temperatures.

525 This studies' sub-daily sampling meant that the DOC concentration changes during the night
526 could be calculated, as previous research suggested that there would be an effect of prior light
527 exposure on the dark bacterial degradation rates (such as Tranvik and Bertilsson, 2001 and Cory et
528 al., 2013). However, this study found no difference in the night time rates of DOC degradation
529 between those samples exposed to day light during the day and those kept in the dark. Cory et al.
530 2014 found photo-stimulated bacterial respiration consumed more oxygen than bacterial respiration

531 in the dark, and Judd et al. (2007) found evidence of a long-term benefit to bacterial respiration
532 based on photo-oxidation of DOM.

533 To scale up the DOC loss from the Tees to the whole UK, the UK DOC export estimate for
534 peat-covered catchments of 555-1263 Gg C/yr (Worrall et al. 2012) and the estimate of the POC flux
535 from the UK of 312-2178 Gg C/yr (Worrall et al. 2014b) were used, in conjunction with the 13% loss
536 of POC and the 64% loss of DOC loss from this study. Applying the 64% loss of DOC to this would
537 suggest the DOC flux at the source would have been 1542-3508 Gg C/yr. Loss of DOC to the
538 atmosphere would be 987-2245 Gg C/yr, or 3619-8231 Gg CO_{2eq}/yr (14.86-33.79 Mg CO_{2eq}/km²/yr
539 from the UK). The 13% loss of POC observed in this study would equate to a POC flux at the source
540 of 359-2503 Gg C/yr, and loss of POC to the atmosphere would be 47-325 Gg C/yr, or 171-1194 Gg
541 CO_{2eq}/yr (0.70-4.90 Mg CO_{2eq}/km²/yr from the UK). These CO₂ emission values assume that 100% of
542 the DOC and POC lost from a catchment is lost to the atmosphere. It is likely that they will be over-
543 estimates as the DOC losses from peat-sourced water bodies are higher than from other water
544 bodies, and peat DOC is more photo-reactive than other forms of DOC (Jones et al. in press).

545 The total man-made CO₂ emissions from the UK in 2012 were 580.5 Tg CO_{2eq} (Department of
546 Energy and Climate Change, 2014). The upper estimate from DOC loss of 8.2 Tg CO₂/yr from rivers in
547 the UK is equal to 1.4% of the UK total anthropogenic emissions; however the emissions from DOC
548 would count as 'natural' rather than 'man-made'. Maximum CO₂ from POC losses equates to 1.2 Tg
549 CO₂/yr; it increases the total greenhouse gas contribution from UK rivers to 9.4 Tg CO₂/yr.

550 Recent estimates of the global CO₂ emissions from inland waters are 1.8 Pg/yr (1.5-2.1
551 Pg/yr) from streams and rivers and 0.3 Pg/yr (0.06-0.84 Pg/yr) from lakes and reservoirs (Raymond
552 et al. 2013). The total inland water CO₂ flux from Raymond et al. (2013) is larger than the estimates
553 from the fifth assessment by the IPCC (IPCC, 2013) that has a flux of 1 Pg C/yr degassing from
554 freshwater lakes/reservoirs. The UK is the 80th largest country in the world, covering 0.16% of the
555 Earth's land area (CIA, 2010). The estimate of total organic carbon loss of 9.4 Tg CO₂/yr from this
556 study for UK is 0.52% of the total CO₂ emissions from inland waters from Raymond et al. (2013), or
557 0.94% of the estimate from the 2013 IPCC, implying that the UK inland water CO₂ emissions account
558 for a larger proportion of the global CO₂ water emissions than the total land area suggests it should.
559 This could be because the total inland water CO₂ flux from the UK is higher than expected due to the
560 disproportionately high contribution of low-order streams to the CO₂ flux found by Raymond et al.
561 (2013). The rivers of the UK are generally small and organic-rich, compared with world rivers, and
562 the majority of DOC and POC losses measured in this study were from low-order streams, potentially
563 resulting in over-estimates of loss as CO₂. The higher contribution from the UK inland waters to the
564 global CO₂ flux relative to the land area of the UK suggests it could also be due to the high

565 percentage of land covered by deep peat in the UK. This is linked to high and increasing DOC fluxes,
566 and therefore high losses of organic carbon as CO₂, especially in peat-sourced streams.

567 The water samples in this study were deliberately kept outside to be exposed to natural light
568 and air temperatures; however these would not have been exactly the same conditions as in the
569 stream. The light exposure and penetration experienced by the samples in the quartz glass tubes
570 would have been similar to in the stream when it was a small and shallow headwater, but once it
571 joined with the larger stream and rivers the conditions would have been quite different, such as the
572 depth, light absorbance and turbidity, conditions which could not be replicated in this experiment.

573 This study shows the importance of the diurnal cycle in flux calculations. Previous estimates
574 of flux that do not account for the diurnal cycle of in-stream processing are prone to under/over
575 estimation, due to the times of day at which the majority of samples are taken. Residence times of
576 rivers are rarely an exact multiple of 24, and so estimates of fluxes based on measurements during
577 the day and extrapolated to represent the whole 24 hours will overestimate the flux, as the night
578 time flux is unlikely to be the same as the flux during daylight. Worrall et al. (2013) developed a
579 'correction factor' dependent on the residence time of the water body and the day:night ratio of the
580 biogeochemical process being investigated. They applied their model to the flux on the River Tees
581 and found that fluxes could have been overestimated by between 5 and 25%. Using their model and
582 the median first day and first night rates found in this study for the ambient treatment, it was
583 calculated that sampling at 9am would have underestimated the flux of DOC by 46%, compared to
584 sampling at every hour on every day. This demonstrates the need to take the diurnal cycle into
585 account when scaling up fluxes.

586 In this study, as Moody et al. (2013) and Jones et al. (in press), the DOC concentration does
587 not become zero during the experiment, suggesting that something other than time is limiting the
588 DOC degradation; for example, the nutrient concentration of the river water, non-degradable DOC,
589 or autochthonous production of DOC in nutrient-rich waters, that means over all concentration does
590 not decrease but reaches a position of quasi-equilibrium.

591

592 **Conclusion**

593 This study found the average loss of DOC in ambient conditions was 64% over 70 hours with the
594 majority of the loss occurring within the first 10 hours of daylight. The study found a strong diurnal
595 cycle, with the average rates of headwater DOC degradation during the daylight being approximately
596 30 times higher than those during the night for the same treatment. The analysis of the initial rates
597 of DOC degradation in the ambient treatment found that that a 2nd order, or a mixed order reaction,
598 best explains the process.

599

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603

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691

692 Table 1. Average and coefficient of variation (CV - %) of conductivity, pH, absorbance at 400 nm and
 693 POC and DOC concentrations, across all months of the study, from Cottage Hill Sike in the ambient
 694 treatment, for the initial (t_0) and end (t_{70}) concentrations.
 695

Variable	t_0		t_{70}	
	Mean	CV (%)	Mean	CV (%)
POC (mg C/l)	6.99	31	6.11	14
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$)	35.87	25	78.23	61
pH	4.57	14	6.34	5
DOC (mg C/l)	41.75	30	16.52	85
Abs ₄₀₀	0.16	39	0.17	45

696
 697

698 Table 2. The DOC and POC concentration changes, and the minimum, maximum, mean and median
 699 overall and initial rates, in the two treatments, and the difference between the two treatments (the
 700 photo-induced change).
 701

DOC concentration change			DOC rate (mg C/l/hour)			
Treatment	average change (mg C/l)	% change	min	max	mean	median
Ambient	42 to 17	64	-5.27	37.76	1.73	0.09
Dark	42 to 36	6	-5.10	27.63	0.48	0.01
Photo-induced	0 to -17	58	-13.05	36.44	1.25	0.07

POC concentration change			Initial DOC rate (mg C/l/hour)			
Treatment	average change (mg C/l)	% change	min	max	mean	median
Ambient	7 to 6	13	-6.18	37.76	11.57	6.76
Dark	7 to 12	increase	-7.93	30.33	3.60	1.17

702

703

704 Table 3. Results of ANOVA for relative DOC concentrations for all experiments across both ambient
 705 and dark treatments.

706

Factor (or covariate)	Without covariates		With covariates	
	p	ω^2	p	ω^2
Abs ₄₀₀ /DOC ₀	na		<0.0001	4.94
DOC ₀	na		0.0161	0.67
treatment	<0.0001	27.93	<0.0001	33.31
time	<0.0001	6.67	<0.0001	3.65
month	<0.0001	10.62	ns	-
treatment*time	<0.0001	6.20	<0.0001	4.42
treatment*month	<0.0001	13.48	ns	-
time*month	0.0070	2.65	ns	-
Error		15.19		3.47

707

708

709 Table 4. Results of ANOVA for the difference in DOC concentrations between ambient and dark
 710 treatments, attributed to photo-induced degradation.

711

Factor (or covariate)	Without covariates		With covariates	
	p	ω^2	p	ω^2
1/T	na	-	0.0003	6.10
Σ PAR	na	-	0.0059	3.35
time	<0.0001	16.60	0.002	12.10
month	<0.0001	36.59	ns	-
time*month	0.0008	10.83	ns	-
Error		21.87		1.98

712

713

714 Table 5. The results of ANOVA of the POC concentrations.

715

Factor	Without covariates	
	p	ω^2
time	0.0016	4.70
month	<0.0001	25.96
time*month	<0.0001	19.12
Error		24.32

716

717

718 Table 6. The results of ANOVA on the degradation rates of DOC

719

Variable	Factor	Without covariates		
		p	ω^2	Error
Ambient rate	time	<0.0001	35.21	5.98
Dark rate	-	ns	-	-
Photo rate	time	0.0206	11.19	8.00

720

721

722 Table 7. The results of the ANOVA on the rates of degradation in each stage.

723

Factor	Without covariates	
	p	ω^2
treatment	<0.0001	6.87
stage	<0.0001	27.15
month	0.0383	2.06
treatment*stage	<0.0001	11.76
treatment*month	0.0183	2.59
stage*month	<0.0001	13.91
Error		12.17

724

725 Table 8. The results of the ANOVA on the rates of degradation in the first hour.

726

Factor (or covariate)	Without covariates		With covariates	
	p	ω^2	p	ω^2
DOC ₀	na	-	<0.0001	30.23
treatment	<0.0001	10.94	0.0065	9.84
month	<0.0001	38.29	ns	-
treatment*month	<0.0001	34.20	ns	-
Error		8.25		3.32

727

728

729 **Fig 1.** Location of the site and study catchment.

730

731 **Fig 2.** The main effects plot of relative DOC concentration change for ambient and dark treatments
732 over the course of the experiment. Error bars give the standard error.

733

734 **Fig 3.** The main effects plot of the change in loss due to photo-induced degradation of DOC over the
735 course of the experiment. Error bars give the standard error.

736

737 **Fig 4.** Main effects plot of the apparent quantum yield (AQY) over time in the experiment. Error
738 bars give the standard error.

739

740 **Fig 5.** Main effects plot of rate of DOC loss in ambient and dark treatments over time in the
741 experiment. Error bars give the standard error.

742

743 **Fig 6.** The main effects plot of average rates of DOC degradation per stage of the experiment for
744 both treatments. Error bars give the standard error.