



1    **The oxygen budget of a peatland – new approach to estimating ecosystem oxidative ratio**

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16 **Abstract:**

17 The oxidative ratio (OR) of an ecosystem in the terrestrial biosphere is defined as the ratio of  
18 the O<sub>2</sub> released from that ecosystem to the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed by that ecosystem. This study  
19 proposes that the OR of a terrestrial ecosystem could be calculated for the C budget of a  
20 peatland environment where stoichiometry and thermodynamics are constrained. Using  
21 detailed elemental analysis within an ecosystem with a known C and N budget it is possible to  
22 understand the amount of O<sub>2</sub> consumed.

23 The study shows that, for the study site, although the majority of the O<sub>2</sub> is consumed in  
24 the processing of organic-C (68%), 32% of O<sub>2</sub> consumption is due to oxidation of NH<sub>4</sub>. The  
25 total amount of O<sub>2</sub> consumed by organic C processing is not dependent upon the pathway after  
26 surface peat formation: O<sub>2</sub> consumption is independent of production of DOC or CH<sub>4</sub> or of  
27 deep peat. This approach shows that allowing for stoichiometric, energy and energy transfer  
28 efficiency constrains the ecosystem OR = 0.88. The calculated OR is consistent with  
29 disproportionation of C occurring in the environment. The implication of OR < 1 is that the  
30 annual flux of C to the terrestrial biosphere has been underestimated by 12%.

31

32 **1. Introduction**

33 It has been suggested that the magnitude of global carbon sinks for both the terrestrial biosphere  
34 and the oceans could be determined by analyzing the relative changes in atmospheric gases, as  
35 proposed by Keeling and Shertz (1992). This method requires an understanding of the oxidative  
36 ratio (OR). For a terrestrial ecosystem, the OR represents the molar ratio of oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>)  
37 produced relative to carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) sequestered. In simpler terms:

38

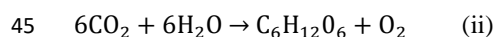
39 
$$OR = \frac{mol(O_2)}{mol(CO_2)} \quad (i)$$



40

41 Where:  $\text{mol}(\text{O}_2)$  = produced from the environment;  $\text{mol}(\text{CO}_2)$  = moles of  $\text{CO}_2$  consumed by  
42 the environment. In a simple photosynthesis reaction where glucose is produced (Equation ii)  
43 the ratio of  $\text{O}_2$  produced to  $\text{CO}_2$  consumed (OR) is 1.

44



46

47 Taking the approach of Keeling and Shertz (1992), Battle et al. (2000) calculated the  
48 annual carbon flux to the terrestrial biosphere and the ocean using the following:

49

50 
$$f_{\text{land}} = -\frac{CS}{OR_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}}} f_{\text{fuel}} + \frac{1}{k_1 k_2 OR_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}}} \frac{d\left(\frac{\text{O}_2}{\text{N}_2}\right)}{dt}$$
 (iii)

51

52 
$$f_{\text{ocean}} = -\frac{1}{k_1} \frac{d(\text{CO}_2)}{dt} - \frac{1}{k_1 k_2 OR_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}}} \frac{d\left(\frac{\text{O}_2}{\text{N}_2}\right)}{dt} - \frac{OR_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}} - CS}{OR_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}}} f_{\text{fuel}} - f_{\text{cement}}$$
 (iv)

53

54 where:  $f_x$  = the annual flux of  $\text{CO}_2$  (Gt C/yr) for ocean, fuel, cement or land;  $(\text{O}_2/\text{N}_2)$  = the molar  
55 ratio of atmospheric  $\text{O}_2$  to  $\text{N}_2$ ;  $CS = 1.43$  (combustion stoichiometry - Battle et al., 2000);  
56  $OR_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}}$  = OR of the global terrestrial biosphere; constants  $K_1 = 0.471$  and  $K_2 = 4.8$ . The  
57 constants  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  convert ppm in the atmosphere to per meg. The term  $OR_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}}$  is also  
58 known as photosynthetic stoichiometry (Battle et al., 2000), as  $\alpha_B$  in the estimation of the  
59 atmospheric potential oxygen (APO; Stephens et al., 1998) and is the reciprocal of apparent  
60 respiratory quotient (ARQ; Helm et al., 2021).



61 The first estimate of OR was 1.1 (Severinghaus, 1995; Keeling et al., 1996) and this  
62 value of OR has been used as  $OR_{terra}^{global}$  in multiple subsequent studies (e.g. IPCC, 2007, 2021;  
63 Steinbach et al. 2011; Nevison et al., 2015; Resplandy et al., 2016; Pickers et al., 2017; Hoshina  
64 et al., 2014; Resplandy et al., 2018; Pickers et al., 2022; Ishidoya et al., 2022). A global  
65 imbalance favouring oxygen production over carbon dioxide drawdown, indicated by an OR  
66 of 1.1, suggests a relatively reduced state of terrestrial organic carbon. Previous studies have  
67 often assumed a fixed OR value for all environments, but a review by Worrall et al. (2013)  
68 suggests a more realistic value of  $1.03 \pm 0.03$ . The commonly used value of 1.1, derived from  
69 a single Biosphere 2 experiment (Severinghaus, 1995), does not represent a global average and  
70 was not intended to be a universal OR value. Keeling and Manning (2014) suggested using a  
71 lower value of 1.05 and in recent years further studies have used this lower value (e.g.,  
72 Resplandy et al. (2019) used a value of 1.05, based upon Randerson et al. (2006); Friedlingstein  
73 et al. (2023) also used 1.05 for global OR). Randerson et al. (2006) based their value on  
74 biomacromolecules composition of vegetation (e.g., lignin) and not of measurement of soils or  
75 vegetation. Although probably not the largest source of uncertainty in Equations (iii) and (iv),  
76 changes in  $OR_{terra}^{global}$  will have a direct consequence for the estimation of  $f_{land}$  and  $f_{ocean}$ .

77 There have been several approaches to calculating OR. The approach of Worrall et al.  
78 (2013) is based on the relationship, showed by Masiello et al. (2008), whereby OR can be  
79 estimated from the oxidation state of the carbon in the organic matter:

80

81 
$$OR = 1 - \frac{C_{ox}}{4} + \frac{3[N]}{4[C]} \quad (v)$$

82

83

84 
$$C_{ox} = \frac{2[O] - [H] + 3[N]}{[C]} \quad (vi)$$



85

86 where:  $[X]$  = molar concentration of C, H, N or O.

87

88 The  $C_{ox}$  is the oxidation state of the C in the analysed organic matter and is the nominal  
89 oxidation state of carbon (NOSC, LaRowe and van Cappellan, 2011). Worrall et al. (2013)  
90 used Equation (iii and iv) to calculate values of OR from compositional data in published  
91 literature, but to estimate a global value of OR they assumed that there was a significant and  
92 substantial difference in OR between different global soil taxa (e.g. vertisols) and between  
93 different global biomes (e.g. deciduous forest; Olson et al., 2001), and that therefore, the global  
94 estimate of OR was a stock or flux weighted combination of the OR of individual soil taxa and  
95 global biomes. Subsequent studies have shown that the significant difference in the OR were  
96 between soil, litter and vegetation and not between mineral soil taxa (Clay and Worrall 2015a,  
97 2015b). Given that differences in OR are dominated by differences between organic carbon  
98 pools (e.g. between vegetation and soil), Worrall et al. (2015b) used a simple box model based  
99 upon differences between soil, litter and vegetation to calculate global OR. This box model  
100 also included the fluvial organic carbon both as dissolved (DOC) and particulate organic carbon  
101 (POC). This box model gave a median value of  $OR_{terra}^{global} = 1.034 \pm 0.02$  (Worrall et al. 2015b).

102 Other studies have used alternative methods to estimate OR. van der Laan et al. (2014)  
103 sampled atmospheric composition using aircraft flasks across western Russia and found an OR  
104 = 0.89. Faassen et al. (2023) used tall tower measurements (up to 125 m above forest surface)  
105 to measure OR and found daytime OR = 0.96 and night-time = 1.03. Battle et al. (2019) used  
106 six years of atmospheric measurement over a US forest and found values of 1.03. van Leeuwen  
107 and Meijer (2015) found OR = 1.04 based on atmospheric measurements in The Netherlands.  
108 Worrall et al. (2023) used long term water quality monitoring records of chemical oxygen



109 demand (COD) to measure the oxidation state of fluvial organic carbon and then incorporate  
110 this into a revised global estimate of OR, which yielded a median value of global OR = 1.059.  
111 Worrall et al. (2016) applied the flux weighted approach to a single environment  
112 (upland blanket bog peatland) where the C budget was well constrained, which gave a value of  
113 OR = 1.04. As an alternative, Worrall et al. (2017), using the approach of Randerson et al.  
114 (2006), reconstructed the OR at the same site as Worrall et al. (2016) based upon a  
115 macromolecular budget, specifically the fate of the relative oxidised C biomacromolecules (e.g.  
116 carbohydrates) compared to relatively reduced C biomacromolecules (e.g. lignin). The  
117 preferential removal of carbohydrates relative to lignin meant that the OR that the atmosphere  
118 over the ecosystem experienced was 0.96 to 0.99. The organic matter accumulating in this  
119 ecosystem had OR > 1, whilst the OR of the material leaving the environment < 1. Given that  
120 C is fixed in the environment via photosynthesis as glucose, which has OR = 1, then we can  
121 see the processing of the fixed carbon through the environment results in a residual organic  
122 matter with OR > 1. Therefore, it is not surprising that the component lost to the atmosphere  
123 would have OR < 1.

124 Previous approaches to measuring OR have relied on extrapolation from elemental  
125 analysis (e.g. Worrall et al., 2013) or have relied upon a small number of expensive  
126 measurements (e.g. van der Lann et al., 2014). An alternative and new approach would be to  
127 measure the oxygen budget relative to the C budget so that Equation (i) could be used directly.

128

## 129 **2. Approach**

130 This study considered the elemental budgets and stoichiometry of the organic matter transition  
131 through a well-studied peatland. To calculate OR (Equation (i)) it would be necessary to  
132 understand both the C and the O budget of an ecosystem. Because peat soils are the  
133 accumulation of partially-decomposed organic matter (International Peatland Society, 2024)



134 the estimates of C budgets have been commonly reported. Initial approaches were based upon  
135 measurement of the dating of peat profiles (e.g. Turetsky et al., 2004). More recently, it has  
136 been possible to measure the range of contemporary carbon fluxes in and out of a peat  
137 ecosystem where the sum of these fluxes is the C budget (also known as C balance) (e.g.  
138 Worrall et al., 2003, Billett et al., 2004, Roulet et al., 2007, Nilsson et al., 2008). If organic  
139 matter is, or has been, accumulating in a peat soil then not only will C have accumulated but  
140 so too will other elements present in the organic matter. With respect to the problem of  
141 estimating OR these include the budgets of redox active elements: nitrogen (e.g. Hemond,  
142 1983, Worrall et al., 2012), sulphur (Novak et al., 2005; Blodau et al., 2007; Boothroyd et al.,  
143 2021), and iron (Boothroyd et al., 2021). Indeed, Worrall et al. (2016) considered the  
144 accumulation of oxygen in the organic matter of deep peat soil and found between 16 and 73  
145 tonnes O km<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, were accumulating each year. However, this estimation of O accumulation  
146 rate is not sufficient to solve Equation (i) and so not sufficient to calculate an OR for this  
147 ecosystem.

148 Worrall et al. (2022) applied the constraints of stoichiometry and energy to the flux and  
149 transition of C into, through and out of peat soil. The results showed how much of a series of  
150 terminal electron acceptors (TEAs: O<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub> and C) were utilised in the production of deep  
151 peat and the resulting effluxes of CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and DOC. However, Worrall et al. (2022) only  
152 considered these constraints on organic matter budgets relative to the C budget of an ecosystem  
153 and not to other budgets. Therefore, this study builds on and advances previous work by  
154 applying stoichiometric and energetic constraints to understand the constraints on both the O  
155 and C budgets. If the O and C budget can be estimated, then the OR of the environment  
156 (Equation i) can be calculated.

157

### 158 3. Methods



159 The peatland ecosystem can be viewed as a system of organic matter reservoirs and the fluxes  
160 of organic matter between these pools (Fig. 1). In this study we use the same approach as  
161 Worrall et al. (2022) whereby the budget of any element of the organic matter in and through  
162 a peatland can be calculated given the constraints of the: (1) the relative stoichiometry; (2) the  
163 oxidation states of the organic carbon in the organic matter; and (3) the energy content of the  
164 organic matter in the important reservoirs.

165 McDermott and Loomis (1981) proposed that production of plant biomass could be  
166 viewed in terms of the amount of biomass of material that could be produced per mass of  
167 glucose utilised, known as the glucose value (GV). Worrall et al. (2022) generalised this  
168 approach for where the substrate could be something other than glucose but still with oxidation  
169 to CO<sub>2</sub>. In this case rather than glucose value (GV) the resulting equation is for the substrate  
170 equivalent value (SEV):

171

$$172 \quad \frac{[C]_{pro}}{[C]_{sub}} - \frac{C_{ox}^{pro} [C]_{pro}}{(C_{ox}^{CO_2} - C_{ox}^{sub}) [C]_{sub}} = SEV \quad (vii)$$

173

174 where: [C]<sub>x</sub> = the molar concentration of C as product (*pro*) or as substrate (*sub*); and  $C_{ox}^y$  = the  
175 oxidation state of the carbon as product (*pro*), substrate (*sub*), or as CO<sub>2</sub>. Equation (vii)  
176 represents the stoichiometric ratio between substrate and product corrected for the energy  
177 requirement of the reaction. It is formulated for O<sub>2</sub> as the terminal electron acceptor. In  
178 McDermott and Loomis (1981) it was only primary production that was considered (i.e.  
179 glucose to aboveground biomass) and therefore the substrate was always glucose and so  $C_{ox}^{sub}$   
180 = 0, and [C]<sub>sub</sub> = 3.33 mol C/100g. However, once the products of primary production are  
181 considered as transitioning in to and through a peat soil then  $C_{ox}^{sub}$  and [C]<sub>sub</sub> will not be the  
182 same values as for glucose.





183           The 100% efficient transfer of energy in any reaction is not possible, and that includes  
184   the oxidation of glucose, or any other substrate, to CO<sub>2</sub>. Furthermore, the extent of energy  
185   transfer efficiency depends upon the biochemical pathway by which oxidation occurs.  
186   Therefore, Equation (vii) is corrected for the energy transfer efficiency of the energy transfer:

187

$$188 \quad PV = E_g SEV \quad (\text{viii})$$

189

190   where: PV = true production value, E<sub>g</sub> = energy transfer efficiency, SEV = substrate equivalent  
191   value. In plant biochemical pathways the value of E<sub>g</sub> has been shown to vary between 0.84 and  
192   0.89 (Lafitte and Loomis, 1988) and that range was used here. Given Equations (vii) and (viii)  
193   it then becomes possible to calculate the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> produced per 100 C atoms going  
194   through a particular transition in the environment from a substrate (sub) such as aboveground  
195   biomass to a product (pro) such as litter:

196

$$197 \quad [C]_{CO_2} = \frac{100}{[C]_{sub}} ([C]_{sub} - PV[C]_{pro}) \quad (\text{ix})$$

198

199           Equations (vii)-(ix) were applied to the organic matter reservoirs and fluxes shown in  
200   Fig. 1 with the reactions considered being:

- 201       1)     Primary production as glucose to aboveground biomass
- 202       2)     Primary production as glucose to below ground biomass
- 203       3)     Aboveground biomass to litter
- 204       4)     Litter to surface peat
- 205       5)     Surface peat to deep peat
- 206       6)     Surface peat to stream water DOM



207 Organic matter was assumed to move from belowground biomass to litter at the same rate as  
208 aboveground biomass moving to litter. Surface peat could become deep peat through three  
209 possible processes: conversion to  $\text{CO}_2$ , DOM or  $\text{CH}_4$ . DOM was considered a final product in  
210 its own right, and its formation did not lead to deep peat formation due to the low energy  
211 released during its formation requiring more surface peat OM to be processed. Thus, stream  
212 water DOM was treated as a separate loss pathway. Knowing the potential energy and carbon  
213 content for each reaction or transition in Fig. 1, and the elemental composition of the organic  
214 matter, the oxygen consumption could be calculated.

215 Worrall et al. (2022) provided balanced reactions for each of the above transitions (Fig.  
216 1). Once the PV and  $[C]_{\text{CO}_2}$  are known for each of the reactions listed above (1 through 6), then  
217 the reactions were balanced with respect to C, carbon oxidation state ( $\text{C}_{\text{ox}}$ ), O and N. Reactions  
218 were finally balanced with respect to H, and it was assumed that plentiful protons were  
219 available, i.e. charge balance was not explicitly required. The balanced reactions were assessed  
220 relative to the appropriate TEA and respective fluxes of  $\text{CO}_2$  and other carbon species, but the  
221 consequences for the flux of  $\text{O}_2$  was not considered. Furthermore, the role of TEAs other than  
222  $\text{O}_2$  have consequences for  $\text{O}_2$  consumption and these non-organic matter,  $\text{O}_2$  consumption  
223 processes were considered. Specifically, we consider the regeneration of  $\text{NO}_3$  from  $\text{NH}_4$  where  
224 the regeneration of  $\text{NO}_3$  from  $\text{NH}_4$  requires  $\text{O}_2$  consumption. However, for S we assume that  
225  $\text{SO}_4$  is not regenerated because  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is lost as gas from ecosystem and that regeneration of  $\text{SO}_4$   
226 from organic-S is negligible.

227

### 228 3.1 Uncertainty analysis

229 The triplicate measurements of the composition of the aboveground biomass, below ground  
230 biomass, litter, peat soil and DOM were used to give the median and the interquartile range  
231 (IQR) of all elemental analysis. Second, the value of  $E_g$  (Equation viii) is taken as varying



232 between 0.85 and 0.89. An estimate of the uncertainty in the OR estimate was made assuming  
233 uniform distribution between these ranges, sampling 500 times from within those distributions,  
234 and with stochastic combination.

235

### 236 **3.2 Study site**

237 The study was conducted at the Moor House National Nature Reserve (NNR) blanket peat  
238 catchment, located in the headwaters of the River Tees in northern England (54.6883° N,  
239 2.3792° W; Fig. 2). This site is part of the UK Environmental Change Network (ECN) and  
240 provides valuable chemical and hydrological data from the Trout Beck catchment, as detailed  
241 by Sykes and Lane (1996).

242 The study site is situated at a high altitude, primarily above 500 meters (1,640 feet)  
243 above sea level. The highest point in the catchment is 848 metres above sea level. The  
244 underlying bedrock consists of Carboniferous limestone, sandstone, and shale formations,  
245 interspersed with intrusions of dolerite known as the Whin Sill (Johnson and Dunham, 1963;  
246 Burt and Tucker, 2020).

247 A layer of glacial till covers this solid geology, hindering drainage and contributing to  
248 the initiation of an extensive blanket peat during the Holocene epoch. The region experiences  
249 a cold climate, with a mean annual temperature of 5.2°C (averaging period: 1931 to 2000). Air  
250 frosts occur on over 100 days per year (period considered: 1991 to 2000, Holden and Rose,  
251 2001). Annual precipitation is high, averaging 1953 mm (averaging period: 1953 to 1997, Burt  
252 et al., 1998), with significant snowfall. Snow cover at 500 meters persists for an average of 55  
253 days annually (Archer and Stewart, 1995).

254 The vegetation is characterized by a dominance of cotton grass (*Eriophorum spp.*),  
255 heather (*Calluna vulgaris*), and moss (*Sphagnum spp.*). There had been no prescribed burning  
256 in the catchment since 1954 (Garnett et al., 2000).



257

### 258 **3.3 Carbon & nitrogen budget**

259 The carbon budget for the study site was established using the findings of Worrall et al. (2009),  
260 with updates incorporated from the N budget presented in Worrall et al. (2012). The C budget  
261 can be summarized as follows:

262

$$263 \quad 100C_{pp} \Rightarrow 35C_R + 26C_{DOC} + 4C_{CH_4} + 4C_{dissco2} + 9C_{POC} + 22C_{RES} \quad (x)$$

$$264 \quad (\pm 4.7) \quad (\pm 21) \quad (\pm 0.6) \quad (\pm 4) \quad (\pm 4.5) \quad (\pm 26)$$

265

266 where:  $C_x$  = carbon in that flux or reservoir, with x as: pp = primary production, R = net  
267 ecosystem respiration, DOC = dissolved organic carbon; CH<sub>4</sub> = methane; dissco<sub>2</sub> = dissolved  
268 CO<sub>2</sub>; POC = particulate organic carbon; and RES = residual carbon stored as peat. The values  
269 in the parentheses beneath the coefficients in Equation (vi) are the 95th percentile confidence  
270 interval.

271

272 Additionally, the budgets for nitrogen, sulphur, and iron for this study site have been  
273 documented in previous research (Worrall et al. 2012, Boothroyd et al., 2021). These  
274 established budgets can be utilized to validate and refine the predictions generated by the new  
275 methodology in this study.

276

### 277 **3.4 Sampling**

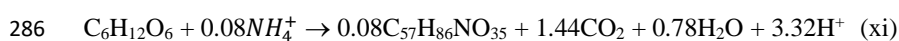
278 No additional sampling was undertaken during for this study that had not already been  
279 described in Worrall et al. (2022).

280



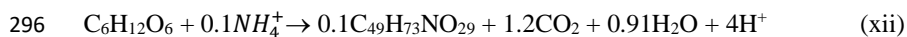
#### 281 4. Results

282 The results of the elemental analysis are summarised in Table 1 (Figure 3). Given the  
283 stoichiometry of the organic matter reservoirs and fluxes, the formation of aboveground  
284 biomass from glucose (i.e., primary production) at this site leads to following best-fit reaction:



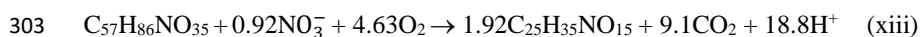
287  
288 It follows from Equation (xi), that for every 100 moles of C fixed as glucose then 76 moles of  
289 C will be fixed as aboveground biomass and 24 moles will be lost as CO<sub>2</sub>. No O<sub>2</sub> was consumed  
290 in this reaction, but NH<sub>4</sub> was required. For every 100 moles C fixed as glucose then 1.33 moles  
291 N as NH<sub>4</sub> are required. Given the range in triplicate measurements of elemental composition  
292 and the accepted range on E<sub>g</sub> then the inter-quartile range (IQR) on [C]<sub>CO2</sub> (Equation ix) is  
293 ±3%.

294 For the production of belowground biomass from glucose (primary production):



297  
298 For 100 moles of C sequestered as glucose 26.5 moles C are released as CO<sub>2</sub> and 73.5 moles  
299 retained as biomass. As for Equation (xi) there is no O<sub>2</sub> consumption in this reaction and 1.6  
300 moles of NH<sub>4</sub> is consumed for every 100 C fixed as glucose.

301 For the conversion of aboveground biomass to litter the best-fit equation was:



304



305 The conversion of litter from aboveground biomass does require O and N, and because O is  
306 required then it was assumed that the N addition would be in the form of NO<sub>3</sub>. Given 100 moles  
307 C as aboveground biomass then 84 moles C as litter would be produced and 16 moles C  
308 converted to CO<sub>2</sub>. Further, that 8.1 moles of O and 1.6 moles of N as NO<sub>3</sub> would be consumed  
309 for every 100 moles C as aboveground biomass.

310 For reaction of litter to the surface peat the best-fit reaction is:

311



313

314 For every 100 moles C in this transition, 17 moles are lost as CO<sub>2</sub> and 83 moles are converted  
315 to surface peat. For every 100 moles of C as litter making this transition then 14.6 moles of O  
316 are consumed, while 1.9 moles of N (as NH<sub>4</sub>) are produced. The NH<sub>4</sub> produced is then available  
317 to be recycled in other reactions in the environment, particularly as a form of N supply to  
318 aboveground biomass (Equations xi & xii). To convert this substrate, litter, this reaction does  
319 not require N as a terminal electron acceptor, and because this reaction will occur near the peat  
320 surface then oxygen will be consumed in the conversion of NH<sub>4</sub> to NO<sub>3</sub>.

321 For the pathway from surface peat to deep peat without the production of CH<sub>4</sub> or

322 DOM the best-fit reaction is:

323



325 (xv)

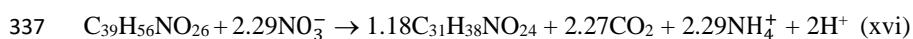
326

327 The relative C/N ratios indicate that nitrogen (N) is released during the transformation  
328 of surface peat to deep peat, similar to the process of surface peat formation (Equation xiv).  
329 This released N contributes to nutrient recycling for primary production, as noted in Equation



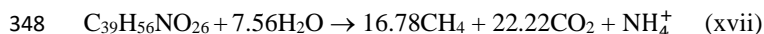
(xii). The oxidation states of the substrate and product suggest the need for an oxidant. Given the release of N, sulphate (SO<sub>4</sub>) is likely the terminal electron acceptor. So for the pathway from surface peat to deep peat for every 100 moles of carbon (C) transitioning through this pathway, 83 moles of C are lost as CO<sub>2</sub>, 16 moles as CH<sub>4</sub>, and 1.4 moles of N are produced as NH<sub>4</sub>.

For the pathway from surface peat to stream water DOM the best-fit reaction is:



This pathway results in the loss of only 6% of the carbon as CO<sub>2</sub>, indicating the highly oxidized state of the stream water dissolved organic matter (DOM). The formation of stream water DOM in this pathway does not require an N source but does necessitate an oxidant. While O may act as the oxidant higher in the peat profile, Equation (xiv) suggests nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) as the terminal electron acceptor. In the pathway described by Equation (xvi), for every 100 moles of carbon lost as dissolved organic carbon (DOC), 6.2 moles of carbon are lost as CO<sub>2</sub>, and 6.3 moles of nitrogen are reduced from nitrate to ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>).

There is also the pathway from surface to deep peat via methane production:



The oxidation state (C<sub>ox</sub>) and C/N ratio changes during the reaction suggest nitrogen (N) is released. The high energy requirement for CH<sub>4</sub> production inhibits the formation of residues like deep peat. Equation (xvii) shows a disproportionation reaction, where both reduced and oxidized forms of carbon (C) are produced from the initial substrate. The CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> ratio in Equation (xvii) depends on the substrate's C<sub>ox</sub>, for example, glucose (C<sub>ox</sub> = 0) would yield CO<sub>2</sub>



355 and CH<sub>4</sub> in equal proportions. However, slightly reduced surface peat ( $C_{ox} = -0.1$ ) favours CO<sub>2</sub>  
356 production. It was assumed sufficient acid-base groups were present for charge balance. The  
357 deep peat substrate's  $C_{ox}$  limits the available oxygen for CO<sub>2</sub> production, crucial for the  
358 reaction's energetics. For every 100 moles of C in surface peat, 46 moles become CH<sub>4</sub>, 54  
359 moles are lost as CO<sub>2</sub>, and 2.5 moles of N are released as N.

360 If we consider 100 moles C fixed as glucose, we can then propagate the progress of C  
361 released and O<sub>2</sub> consumed (Table 2 and summarised in Fig. 3). Because the reaction of C from  
362 surface peat onwards does not consume O, the total amount of O<sub>2</sub> consumed by organic C  
363 processing is not dependent upon the pathway after surface peat formation (i.e. is independent  
364 of production of DOC or CH<sub>4</sub> or of deep peat). For every 100 moles of C fixed in  
365 photosynthesis 7.8 moles of O<sub>2</sub> are consumed, therefore 92.2 moles of O<sub>2</sub> are released, i.e. an  
366 OR = 0.92.

367 Across the reactions considered, 2.9 moles N as NO<sub>3</sub> and 1.3 moles of N as NH<sub>4</sub> are  
368 required, while 3.4 moles of N as NH<sub>4</sub> are produced (assuming Equation x). To meet this N  
369 requirement would mean that 2.1 moles of NH<sub>4</sub> must be converted to NO<sub>3</sub> which in turn means  
370 that 3.2 moles of O<sub>2</sub> will be consumed. The complete conversion of NH<sub>4</sub> to NO<sub>3</sub> would still  
371 require 0.8 moles of N as NO<sub>3</sub> which would be supplied from atmospheric deposition, i.e. the  
372 recycling of N predicted above is not sufficient for the required supply of NO<sub>3</sub>. Worrall et al.  
373 (2012) suggest that atmospheric deposition would supply between 0.1 and 0.46 moles N as  
374 NO<sub>3</sub>, but they also note that the deposition at the study site was not significantly changing.  
375 However, there would be sufficient supply of N if atmospheric NH<sub>4</sub> deposition could be  
376 oxidised. By accounting for O<sub>2</sub> consumption of this additional N from NH<sub>4</sub> deposition means,  
377 in total, 11.5 moles of O<sub>2</sub> are consumed, and thus yields a mean OR = 0.88.

378

## 379 5. Discussion





380 The study has proposed an independent method for finding the OR of an ecosystem via  
381 understanding the element analysis of organic matter fluxes and reservoirs in an environment  
382 constrained by stoichiometric and energy balances. Previous approaches have been based upon  
383 the OR calculated from the CHNO composition of individual organic matter pools (e.g. peat  
384 soil; Worrall et al., 2016) or from the degradation of biomacromolecules (Randerson et al.,  
385 2006; Worrall et al. 2017), but not from the actual O and C budgets as required by the definition  
386 of Equation (i) and now demonstrated in this study.

387 Previously for this site, Worrall et al. (2016) gave a value of  $OR = 1.04$ , assuming that  
388 the OR was that of residual components after processing of organic matter and weighted by the  
389 relative magnitudes of environmental fluxes. Alternatively, Worrall et al. (2017) estimated the  
390 OR of the component of the organic matter that was returned to the atmosphere and not that  
391 which was fixed into the environment, i.e. that organic matter that was processed through, and  
392 out of, the environment, rather than the OR of the fixed organic matter that remained as the  
393 residual in the environment. The value given by Worrall et al. (2017) was  $0.96 - 0.99$ , but this  
394 estimate did not account for  $E_g$  (Equation viii). By accounting for  $E_g$  ( $E_g = 0.84$  to  $0.89$ ) in the  
395 study of Worrall et al. (2017) would lead to a revised value for  $OR = 0.82$  to  $0.88$ .

396 Other published measurements of OR range between  $\sim 0.9$  and  $1.05$  (e.g., van der Laan  
397 et al., 2014; van Leeuwen and Meijer, 2015; Faassen et al., 2023). Some studies have found  
398 larger values of OR from gas flux measurements (e.g.,  $0.7 - 1.6$  from a range of forested sites,  
399 Seibt et al., 2004) implying that a range of results was possible. This study has found an  $OR =$   
400  $0.88$ , which is consistent with the values found by Worrall et al. (2017) (once  $E_g$  is accounted  
401 for) and nearer the bottom range of other previous values.

402 How can values of  $OR < 1$  be explained? We could consider the process of organic  
403 carbon fixation and transfers through, into and out of terrestrial environments as being a  
404 disproportionation reaction. Disproportionation is a redox reaction in which an element (e.g.



405 C) undergoes both oxidation and reduction to form two different products but the weighted  
406 sum of which is the oxidation state of the element in the reactants. It has been little considered  
407 that by reporting  $OR > 1$  this means that the organic carbon in the terrestrial ecosystem is  
408 relatively reduced compared to carbon fixed as glucose through photosynthesis which by  
409 definition  $OR = 1$ . Accepting a value of  $OR > 1$  assumes that the atmosphere is interacting with  
410 a reduced form of terrestrial OM and that this is the residual of the turnover of photosynthetic  
411 products. But to form reduced products from glucose an oxidised form of OM must also have  
412 been produced. The fact that collected and analysed samples give reduced values of OR  
413 (relative to glucose) means that the oxidised form has been lost. Therefore, it is the oxidised  
414 forms of carbon in terrestrial organic matter that have turned over (i.e. decomposed) to the  
415 atmosphere. Previous studies (e.g. Keeling and Shertz, 1992; Stephens et al., 1998; Keeling et  
416 al., 1996; Prentice et al., 2001; Langenfelds et al., 1999) have assumed that it is the reduced  
417 and residual forms that have interacted with the atmosphere, whereas, by definition, it must be  
418 organic matter with  $OR < 1$  that is interacting with the atmosphere. Therefore, we propose that  
419 organic carbon, once fixed in primary productivity, is subject to disproportionation and this  
420 would leave more reduced OM in soils and biomass while a more oxidised form interacts with  
421 the atmosphere.

422 This study has assumed that sulphur plays no role in the consumption of  $O_2$ , that the  
423 role of sulphur as a TEA results in the release of  $H_2S$ , and that there is no oxidation of sulphide.  
424 Furthermore, we assume that no organic-S becomes oxidised within the soil column. If there  
425 is oxidation of sulphides or of organic-S within this terrestrial environment, then that leads to  
426 a lower value of OR. Equation (xiv) implies that for every 100 moles C fixed from the  
427 atmosphere in primary production then 2.01 moles of S as sulphate would be consumed.  
428 However, if this was all regenerated (i.e. oxidised to  $SO_4$  and no loss as  $H_2S$  or formation of  
429 stable stores of solid sulphides) then it would consume 4.02 moles  $O_2$ . Accounting for this



430 additional O<sub>2</sub> consumption, if there were complete regeneration of sulphur, then the OR would  
431 decrease from the current estimate of 0.88 to be 0.8.

432         How is it possible to have an ecosystem OR = 0.88? The OR of glucose is 1 ( $C_{ox} = 0$ )  
433 but the OR of cellulose is 0.98 ( $C_{ox} = 0.05$ ). Equally, the OR of lignin is 1.11 ( $C_{ox} = -0.43$ ) and  
434 that of gluten (a plant protein) is OR = 1.18 ( $C_{ox} = 0.03$ ). The OR measured for this ecosystem  
435 (OR = 0.88) implies that the lost composition is more oxidised than the carbohydrates (e.g.  
436 cellulose, OR = 0.98). A simple resolution is that the lost composition contains a small  
437 proportion of amino acids. Common amino acids have a high positive  $C_{ox}$  and low OR, and  
438 therefore a simple admixture of amino acids and carbohydrates would have OR < 1. Therefore  
439 the disproportionation reaction in this ecosystem is one of the preferential removal of  
440 carbohydrates and transformation of proteins with the preferential preservation of lignin-like  
441 molecules. Such a set of reactions amongst the biomacromolecules would give the OR  
442 observed.

443         In the case of peatlands, this study site is accumulating C and has been doing so for at  
444 least decades if not centuries, but what would happen if the ecosystem were a net source of C?  
445 In this scenario the environment would be oxidising and actively consuming O<sub>2</sub> which would  
446 mean that OR would be even lower than at present. However, if a system was becoming a net  
447 source of carbon, then net uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> would decrease. The approach outlined in this study  
448 assumes a net uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> and it is thus unclear how OR would be defined in a net source  
449 environment.

450         Can this method be applied elsewhere? The method used here required the C and N  
451 budgets to be known, but it needed to know these from stoichiometric and energy constraints  
452 and not necessarily from direct flux measurements. Peatlands are generally considered low  
453 nutrient systems and are reliant on the recycling of their nutrients in the soil profile with  
454 relatively low inputs from external sources (in the case of this study that is atmospheric



455 deposition). In peat ecosystems with higher external inputs of nitrate then regeneration of  $\text{NH}_4$   
456 maybe reduced and OR would be larger. This study site is a blanket bog which by definition  
457 means that water runs off from the peat taking N species away in that runoff. Alternatively, in  
458 peat ecosystems that are raised bogs the hydrological loss is instead dominated by evaporation,  
459 which means that a raised bog exists in a “soup bowl” (Glatzel et al., 2023). In the “soup bowl”  
460 analogy there is no pathway for nutrients to leave and so  $\text{NH}_4$  will be recycled lowering OR.

461 The implication of  $\text{OR} < 1$  can be explored through application of Equations (iii) and  
462 (iv). Assuming all values are as described above then Equation (ii) approximates to:

463

464 
$$f_{\text{land}} = 3.15 - 1.58\text{OR} \quad (\text{xviii})$$

465

466 Therefore, a decrease of 0.1 in the value of OR would result in a 0.16 increase in the global  
467 flux to land. At the presently accepted value of  $\text{OR}_{\text{terra}}^{\text{global}} = 1.1$  then  $f_{\text{land}} = 1.38 \text{ Gt C/yr}$ , at the  
468 preferred value calculated from this study ( $\text{OR} = 0.88$ ) then  $f_{\text{land}} = 1.55 \text{ Gt C/yr}$  (0.17 Gt C/yr  
469 more than present value).

470

## 471 6. Conclusions

472 This study presents a new method for calculating the O budget and the OR for an ecosystem  
473 from a knowledge of the elemental composition and C and N budgets of that ecosystem given  
474 stoichiometric and thermodynamic constraints. The estimation of the O budget in the context  
475 of the C budget makes it possible for oxidative ratio (OR) of an environment to be calculated.  
476 The value of the ecosystem OR was 0.88, 68% of the  $\text{O}_2$  consumption was due to oxidation of  
477 organic C and 32% was due to oxidation of  $\text{NH}_4$ . The value estimated by this study is in line  
478 with the uptake, processing and transfer of organic matter through this terrestrial ecosystem



479 being a disproportionation reaction of the C. That is, C fixed as glucose in photosynthesis must  
480 lose an oxidised form of C if what is left behind is more reduced than glucose. The implication  
481 of  $OR < 1$  at global scale, would be that global terrestrial C sinks have been underestimated by  
482 12%.

483

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#### 491 **Competing interests**

492 The authors know of no competing interests.

493

#### 494 **Author contributions**

495 FW and CH contributed to the study conception. Material preparation, data collection and  
496 chemical analysis were performed by GDC and CM. The data analysis and first draft of the  
497 manuscript was done by FW and all authors commented on previous versions of the  
498 manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

499

#### 500 **Data Availability statement**

501 The data used for this study can be found in the tables and in the Supplementary Material.

502

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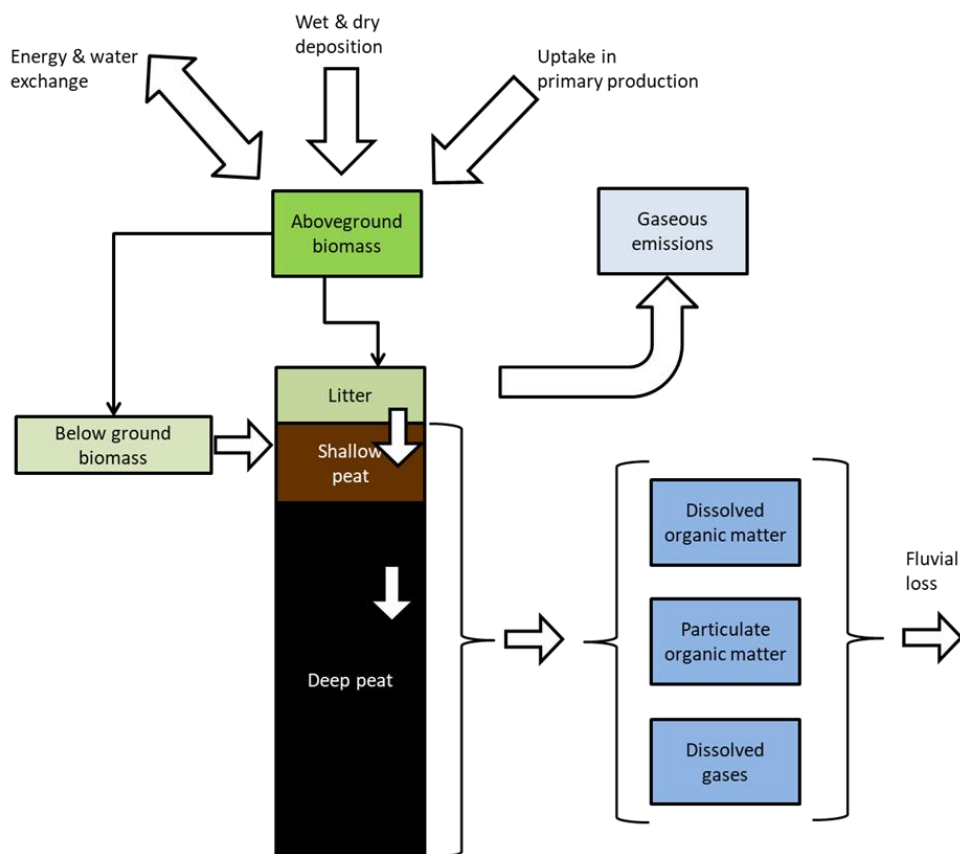
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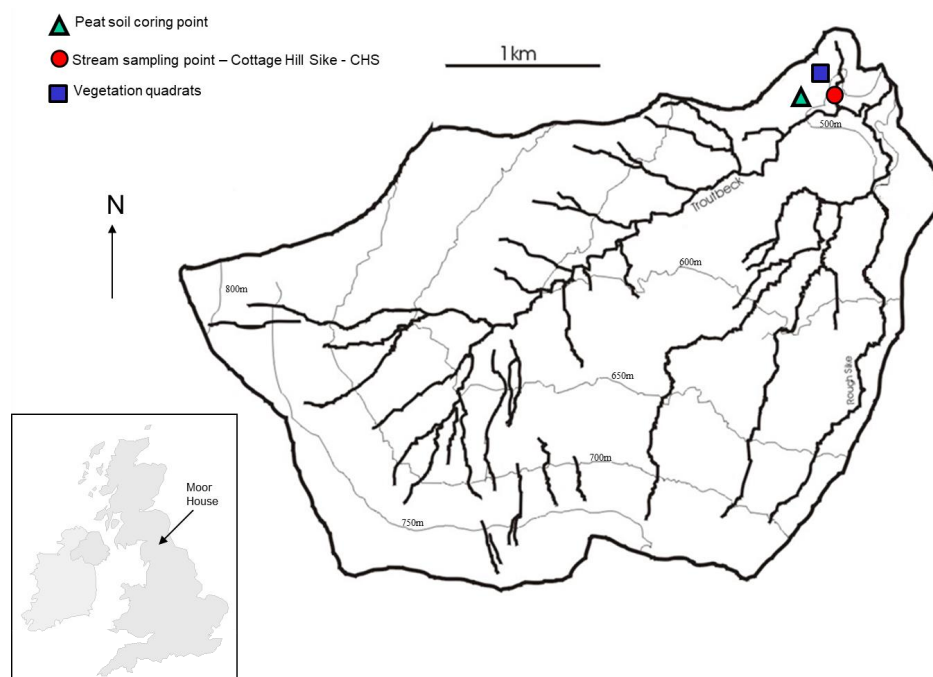


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698 Figure. 1. A schematic diagram of organic matter fluxes and reservoirs, with each arrow

699 representing a carbon flux and boxes being the organic matter reservoirs.

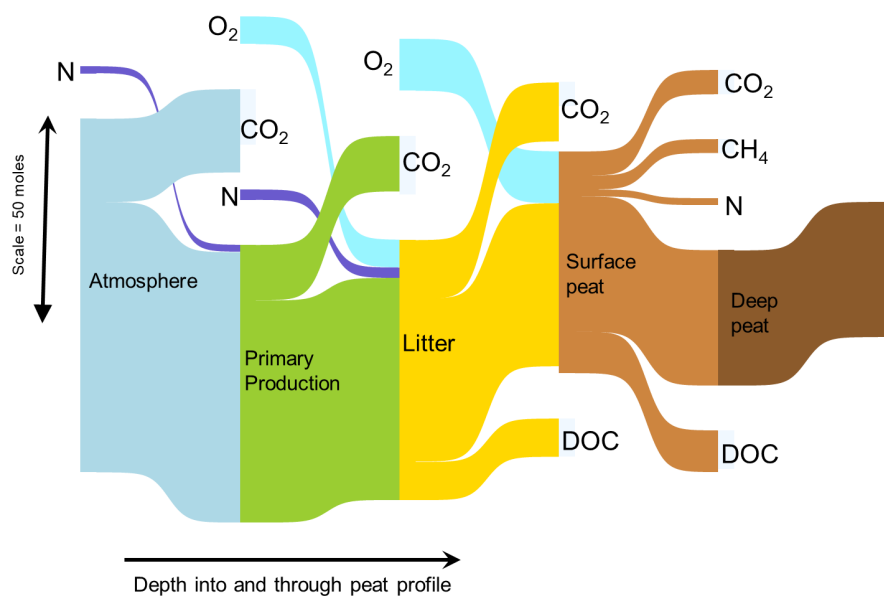
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702 Figure. 2. Map of the study catchment. CHS is Cottage Hill Sike, the stream water sampling  
703 location. Numbers refer to altitude in metres above sea level.

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706 Figure. 3. Sankey diagram of the of the organic matter fluxes relative C,O and N as given in

707 Table 2 and Equation (x), i.e. line thickness is proportional to moles of the element, through

708 environmental compartments given in Table 2.

709





*Table 1. Median composition of the carbon pools examined in the study, with variation indicated by the 95th percentile range. Median stoichiometry is expressed relative to nitrogen content, except for cellulose, which is expressed relative to carbon.*

Carbon reservoir (or flux)	Elemental composition (mol/100g)			
	C	H	N	O
DOM first order stream	3.8±0.1	4.6±0.2	0.12±0.01	2.9±0.1
DOM shallow peat porewater	4.17±0.18	5.24±0.19	0.14±0.009	2.06±0.03
DOM deep peat porewater	4.05±0.16	5.80±0.65	0.13±0.005	1.97±0.08
POM	4.05±0.02	6.40±0.09	0.18±0.01	2.50±0.02
Aboveground biomass	4.15±0.12	6.30±0.09	0.07±0.015	2.55±0.06
Below ground biomass	4.23±0.1	6.30±0.09	0.09±0.01	2.48±0.06
Grass or sedge	4.04±0.1	6.30±0.09	0.12±0.01	2.59±0.06
Mosses	4.03±0.1	6.30±0.09	0.07±0.01	2.65±0.06
Calluna	4.29±0.1	6.58±0.09	0.05±0.01	2.53±0.06
Litter	4.17±0.08	5.90±0.1	0.167±0.007	2.48±0.08
Peat soil (0-5 cm)	4.18±0.01	6.00±0.6	0.10±0.01	2.53±0.11
Peat soil (45-50 cm)	4.44±0.4	5.3±1.4	0.08±0.02	2.40±0.24
Peat soil (90-100 cm)	4.47±0.21	5.27±0.76	0.08±0.02	2.37±0.13
Lignin	5.14±0.01	6.03±0.1	0.06±0.005	1.81±0.01
Cellulose	3.60±0.005	6.25±0.24	0.00	3.21±0.01
Humic acid	2.99±0.01	3.68±0.09	0.06±0.005	2.02±0.02
Protein	4.72±0.06	5.42±0.17	1.24±0.04	1.28±0.05

Carbon reservoir (or flux)	Median stoichiometry	Median C <sub>ox</sub>
DOM first order stream	C <sub>31</sub> H <sub>38</sub> NO <sub>24</sub>	0.4±0.08
DOM shallow peat porewater	C <sub>29</sub> H <sub>41</sub> NO <sub>15</sub>	-0.31±0.05
DOM deep peat porewater	C <sub>30</sub> H <sub>39</sub> NO <sub>15</sub>	-0.22±0.16
POM	C <sub>22</sub> H <sub>35</sub> NO <sub>14</sub>	-0.21±0.03
Aboveground biomass	C <sub>57</sub> H <sub>86</sub> NO <sub>35</sub>	-0.26±0.04
Below ground biomass	C <sub>49</sub> H <sub>73</sub> NO <sub>29</sub>	-0.25±0.04
Grass or sedge	C <sub>33</sub> H <sub>52</sub> NO <sub>21</sub>	-0.19±0.04
Mosses	C <sub>95</sub> H <sub>145</sub> NO <sub>56</sub>	-0.19±0.04
Calluna	C <sub>55</sub> H <sub>86</sub> NO <sub>46</sub>	-0.32±0.04
Litter	C <sub>25</sub> H <sub>35</sub> NO <sub>15</sub>	-0.05±0.05
Peat soil (0-5 cm)	C <sub>39</sub> H <sub>56</sub> NO <sub>26</sub>	-0.10±0.15
Peat soil (45-50 cm)	C <sub>57</sub> H <sub>68</sub> NO <sub>31</sub>	-0.02±0.33
Peat soil (90-100 cm)	C <sub>75</sub> H <sub>107</sub> NO <sub>45</sub>	-0.07±0.18
Lignin	C <sub>87</sub> H <sub>103</sub> NO <sub>31</sub>	-0.43±0.02
Cellulose	C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>10</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.05±0.06
Humic acid	C <sub>49</sub> H <sub>60</sub> NO <sub>33</sub>	0.19±0.04
Protein	C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>5</sub> NO	0.18±0.05



*Table 2. Transformations between different organic matter reservoirs (see Methods). For each reaction: the estimated moles C as CO<sub>2</sub> production; moles O<sub>2</sub> consumed; moles of N consumed; and moles of N produced. All expressed per 100 moles of C of substrate.*

Substrate	Product	C as CO <sub>2</sub> produced	O <sub>2</sub> consumed
Glucose	Aboveground biomass	24	0
Glucose	Belowground biomass	23	0
Aboveground biomass	Litter	16	8.1
Litter	Surface peat	17	14.6
Surface peat	DOM	5.8	0
Surface peat	Deep peat	16	0
Surface peat	CH <sub>4</sub>	54	0

Substrate	Product	N consumed	N produced
Glucose	Aboveground biomass	1.3	0
Glucose	Belowground biomass	1.7	0
Aboveground biomass	Litter	1.6	0
Litter	Surface peat	0	1.9
Surface peat	DOM	0	5.9
Surface peat	Deep peat	0	1.4
Surface peat	CH <sub>4</sub>	0	2.6