Apportioning sources of organic matter in streambed sediments: An integrated hydrogen and carbon stable isotope approach

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10 GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

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12 ABSTRACT

We present a novel application for quantitatively apportioning sources of organic matter in streambed 13 sediments via a coupled $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13}C$ compound-specific isotope analysis (CSIA) of leaf wax *n*-14 alkane biomarkers using a Bayesian mixing model. Leaf wax extracts of 13 plant species were 15 collected from across three sub-environments (aquatic, bankside and terrestrial) and four plant 16 functional types (trees, herbaceous perennials and C₃ and C₄ graminoids) from the agricultural River 17 18 Blackwater catchment, Norfolk, UK. Nine isotopic ratio and n-alkane chain length fingerprints were derived, which successfully differentiated 93% of individual plant specimens by plant functional type. 19 20 The δ^2 H values were the strongest discriminators of plants originating from different functional groups, with trees (mean values ranging from -208‰ to -164‰) and C₃ graminoids (mean values 21 ranging from -259‰ to -221‰) providing the largest contrasts. The δ^{13} C values provided strong 22 distinction between C₃ and C₄ plants, and successfully discriminated between natural and cultivated 23 24 vegetation. *n*-Alkane chain length metrics complemented hydrogen and carbon isotope data by

discriminating between aquatic, bankside and terrestrial sub-environments. Neither $\delta^2 H$ nor $\delta^{13}C$ 25 could uniquely identify plants based on sub-environment, emphasizing a stronger plant 26 physiological/biochemical rather than environmental control over isotopic differences. Bayesian 27 source apportionment results for 18 streambed sediments collected between September 2013 and 28 29 March 2014, revealed considerable temporal variability in organic matter sources. Median organic 30 matter contributions ranged from 22-52% for trees, 29-50% for herbaceous perennials, 17-34% for C_3 31 graminoids and 3-7% for C₄ graminoids. The results presented here clearly demonstrate the 32 effectiveness of an integrated stable isotope and molecular approach for quantitatively apportioning plant specific organic matter contributions to streambed sediments. Future research could investigate 33 whether soils under particular vegetation types are tagged with unique $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13}C$ signatures that 34 35 would allow these isotopes to be used as direct land-use specific soil erosion tracers.

36 HIGHLIGHTS

• Organic contributions from trees, herbs and C_3/C_4 graminoids are apportioned.

• δ^2 H provides strong discrimination between plant functional types.

39 • δ^{13} C provides strong contrasts between C₃ and C₄ plants.

40 • δ^2 H and δ^{13} C values were not influenced by sub-environment.

• *n*-Alkane chain length metrics compliment isotopic discrimination.

42 Keywords: Fingerprinting; *n*-alkanes; CSIA; Bayesian; mixing model; agricultural land-use

43 1. INTRODUCTION

44 Sediment fingerprinting has become a popular technique for apportioning the sources of deposited and suspended sediments across a range of aquatic environments via a mixing model approach 45 (Mukundan et al., 2012; Guzmán et al., 2013; Walling, 2013). As the number and type of source 46 apportionment studies have increased over recent years, there has been a shift in research focus 47 towards re-evaluating and advancing existing fingerprinting procedures (e.g. Koiter et al., 2013; 48 49 Cooper et al., 2014a; Smith and Blake, 2014; Laceby and Olley, 2014; Pulley et al., 2015). Because the majority of existing fingerprinting studies have focused solely on inorganic sediment provenance 50 (e.g. Collins et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2013; Wilkinson et al., 2013), the apportionment of 51 52 organic matter in fluvial sediments in agricultural settings remains largely undeveloped. Understanding the origins of fluvial organic matter is important because organic material can 53 54 constitute a significant percentage of the total sediment volume (e.g. Cooper et al., 2014b). 55 Furthermore, elevated organic matter concentrations are associated with enhanced transport of nutrients and heightened biological oxygen demand, thus leading to the degradation of water quality 56 57 (Evans et al., 2004; Hilton et al., 2006; Withers and Jarvie, 2008). Whilst an understanding of the 58 amount of organic material transported in fluvial systems can be achieved by monitoring the fluxes of dissolved and particulate organic carbon at the catchment outlet (Alvarez-Cobelas *et al.*, 2012;
Némery *et al.*, 2013), such measurements are unable to yield quantitative information on the specific
sources of this organic load.

Addressing this matter, compound-specific isotope analysis (CSIA) has the potential to facilitate 62 identification of organic matter contributions to riverine sediments by exploiting differences in the 63 stable isotopic composition amongst different plants at either the species or plant functional type level 64 (Marshall *et al.*, 2007). Of particular interest in this study are the carbon (δ^{13} C) and hydrogen (δ^{2} H) 65 stable isotopic compositions of plant *n*-alkanes. Although *n*-alkanes represent only a small fraction of 66 67 total organic matter, these compounds have unique biological origins which allow them to be used as 68 plant specific biomarkers of organic matter contributions (Meyers, 1997). Compared with other plant 69 biochemical components, such as carbohydrates, amino acids and lignin, *n*-alkanes also persist in the 70 environment due to a high resistance to degradation (Bourbonniere and Meyers, 1996), thus making them suitable conservative fingerprints for sediment source apportionment. Variability in the carbon 71 72 and hydrogen isotopic compositions of plant *n*-alkanes are driven by a complex combination of 73 differences in plant physiology/biochemistry and a range of environmental factors, including 74 temperature, humidity, light availability, salinity and the isotopic composition of water and CO_2 (O'Leary, 1988; Farquhar et al., 1989; Sessions et al., 1999; Hou et al., 2007; Sachse et al., 2012). 75 Importantly, this means the degree of isotopic fractionation is unique for each individual plant, 76 77 thereby allowing distinct *n*-alkane isotopic signatures to develop which can be used to differentiate 78 between different plant types.

A number of studies have previously been successful in using the δ^{13} C isotopic signatures of soils and 79 80 sediments to identify fluvial sediment contributions derived from allochthonous and autochthonous sources (e.g. McConnachie and Petticrew, 2006; Schindler Wildhaber et al., 2012), or from different 81 land use types based on the dominant vegetation cover (e.g. Fox and Papanicolaou et al., 2007; Gibbs, 82 83 2008; Blake et al., 2012; Hancock and Revill, 2013; Laceby et al., 2014). However, to our knowledge, the usefulness of integrating both the $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13} C$ values of individual organic compounds for 84 quantifying organic matter source apportionment in stream sediments has never been assessed. The 85 main objectives of this study were, therefore: 86

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(i)

- to assess the effectiveness of δ^2 H and δ^{13} C values of *n*-alkanes from higher plants at differentiating among (a) plants derived from different functional types, (b) cultivated vs. natural species, and (c) plants growing in different sub-environments;
- 90 (ii) to determine whether *n*-alkane chain length metrics can enhance discrimination between
 91 plant groups when used in combination with isotopic ratios;

92 (iii) to demonstrate an application of these isotopic ratios and chain length metrics as
93 fingerprints within a Bayesian mixing model by quantitatively apportioning plant
94 contributions to fluvial particulate organic matter.

We applied this novel CSIA fingerprinting technique to streambed sediments collected over a 7month period between September 2013 and March 2014 from an agricultural headwater catchment of
the River Wensum, Norfolk, UK.

98 2. METHODS

99 2.1 Study Location

100 The River Wensum is a nutrient enriched, lowland calcareous river system, which drains an area of 593 km² in Norfolk, UK. The Wensum catchment is divided into 20 sub-catchments, one of which, the 101 20 km² Blackwater sub-catchment, represents the area intensively monitored as part of the River 102 103 Wensum Demonstration Test Catchment (DTC) project (Wensum Alliance, 2014). For observational purposes, the Blackwater sub-catchment is divided into six 'mini-catchments' A to F, each of which 104 has a bankside monitoring kiosk at the outlet. The 5.4 km² mini-catchment A provided the focus for 105 this research (Figure 1). Situated ~ 40 m above sea level with gentle slopes that rarely exceed 0.5° . 106 107 intensively farmed arable land constitutes 92% of this headwater catchment. A 7-course crop rotation 108 is practiced with autumn and spring sown wheat and barley, sugar beet, oilseed rape and spring beans. 109 A small and variable amount of land is also lain down to maize for game bird cover. The remainder of 110 mini-catchment A is covered by 3% improved grassland, 2% semi-natural grassland, 1.5% deciduous woodland, 0.5% coniferous woodland and 1% rural settlements. From May to September, emergent 111 macrophytes dominate stream primary productivity to such an extent that the river is commonly 112 obscured from view (Figure 2a). Towards the end of the growing season (mid-October) this 113 vegetation is cleared to improve catchment drainage and prevent winter flooding of the surrounding 114 arable land (Figure 2b). 115





Figure 1: The Blackwater sub-catchment of the River Wensum, Norfolk, UK, showing minicatchments A-F, surface land cover and the locations of tree, graminoid and herbaceous perennial plant collection within mini-catchment A. Lowercase a and b refer to image locations for Figure 2.



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Figure 2: The River Blackwater in mini-catchment A, showing (a) the dominance of emergent
macrophytes in August and (b) following vegetation clearance in October. Image locations are shown
in Figure 1.

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126 2.2 Sample Collection and Preparation

127 2.2.1 Streambed Sediments

Streambed sediments were collected at the outlet to mini-catchment A at approximately weekly 128 intervals between September 2013 and March 2014, yielding a total of 18 samples for analysis. This 129 130 autumn to spring period was chosen as it represents the most dynamic time with respect to catchment sediment mobilization (e.g. Oeurng et al., 2011). Sediment volumes of 1 liter were obtained from the 131 132 streambed surface (approximately <50 mm depth) using a non-magnetic towel that had been 133 thoroughly washed in the stream prior to sampling. Sediments were transported back to the laboratory 134 in sealed HDPE bottles, where they were immediately oven dried at 40°C for 48-72 hrs. Dried 135 sediments were lightly disaggregated using a pestle and mortar and sieved down to $<63 \mu m$ to isolate 136 the biochemically important clay-silt fraction (Horowitz, 2008) in keeping with common sediment fingerprinting practice (e.g. Walling et al., 2005). These fine sediments were stored in the dark at 137 room temperature in sealed polyethylene bags prior to analysis. 138

139 2.2.2 Plant Specimens

140 Plant leaf samples were collected across mini-catchment A during August and September 2013 for organic matter source area classification. A total of 30 individual plant specimens were collected from 141 142 three sub-environments (aquatic, bankside and terrestrial) and four plant functional types (trees, herbaceous perennials and C₃ and C₄ graminoids), and included a mixture of both cultivated and 143 natural vegetation. For aquatic plants, 12 specimens were collected, all of which were emergent 144 macrophytes owing to their dominance of stream biomass. These included the herbaceous perennials 145 Chamerion angustifolium (rosebay willowherb), Aegopodium podagraria (ground elder), Typha 146 latifolia (reed mace) and Iris pseudacorus (yellow flag iris), as well as three C3 Poaceae graminoid 147 specimens. For the bankside environment, six specimens were obtained including the tree species 148 Carpinus betulus (hornbeam) and Fraxinus excelsior (ash), the herbaceous perennial Typha latifolia 149 (reed mace) and three C3 Poaceae graminoids. Lastly, 12 specimens of both natural and cultivated 150 origin were obtained from the terrestrial environment, which in this study was defined as any 151 location >5 m from the stream channel. Specimens collected included the tree species Crataegus 152 monogyna (hawthorn), Carpinus betulus (hornbeam) and Acer campestre (field maple), herbaceous 153 perennials Raphanus sativus (oilseed radish) and Phaseolus vulgaris (spring beans), the C₄ graminoid 154 Zea mays (maize), the C₃ graminoid Triticum sp. (wheat) and a further three natural C₃ Poaceae 155 graminoids. For each plant specimen, ~10 g of leaves were collected to provide sufficient material for 156 replicate sample analysis. On return to the laboratory, samples were immediately frozen at -80°C prior 157 158 to being freeze-dried for 48 hours and stored in the dark at room temperature in sealed polyethylene 159 bags.

160 2.3 Total Organic Carbon

161 Total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations for the 18 streambed sediments were determined by 162 mixing 25 mg of the fine grained sediments into suspension with 1 liter of Milli-Q water (Merck 163 Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA), which was subsequently vacuum filtered onto quartz fiber filter (QFF) 164 papers with a particle retention rating of 99.3% at 0.45 μ m. Sediment covered filters were oven dried 165 at 105°C for 2 hrs, before being finely ground and the resulting powders analyzed directly by diffuse 166 reflectance infrared Fourier transform spectroscopy (DRIFTS) following the procedure of Cooper *et*

167 *al.* (2014c) . TOC was taken to be 58% of total organic matter (Broadbent, 1953).

168 2.4 *n*-Alkane Extraction

Two different techniques were required to extract aliphatic *n*-alkanes from streambed sediments and 169 170 plant materials. For sediments requiring a more polar solvent to extract both the free and mineralassociated organic material, samples were mixed with Ottawa sand in a 4:1 sand-sediment ratio to 171 improve volatilization of material prior to being run through a Dionex Accelerated Solvent Extractor 172 (ASE) 200TM with HPLC grade dichloromethane solvent operated at 100°C and 1500 psi. For plant 173 174 specimens, alkanes were extracted by repeated sonication (3 x 10 min) of 2 g of leaf material in HPLC 175 grade hexane. This procedure was duplicated for all 30 specimens using different leaves from the 176 same plant to enable evaluation of isotopic variability within individual plants. Extracts from both plants and sediments were concentrated down to 1 ml under nitrogen gas in a Caliper Life Sciences 177 TurboVap WorkstationTM. Final concentration down to dryness was made under nitrogen gas and the 178 179 residues were re-dissolved in 1 ml hexane. The *n*-alkane extracts were purified by elution with hexane 180 during column chromatography through a silica gel (70-230 mesh) stationary phase, and the resulting eluate was concentrated down to 1 ml under nitrogen gas in preparation for molecular and stable 181 182 isotope analyses.

183 2.5 *n*-Alkane Ratios

184 The distribution and abundance of n-alkanes C_{13} - C_{34} were identified using an Aglient Technologies

- 185 7820A gas chromatogram fitted with a flame ionization detector (GC-FID). A temperature ramp of
- 186 20° C min⁻¹ between 50°C and 150°C, and 8°C min⁻¹ between 150°C to 320°C was used. Individual *n*-
- alkanes were identified by comparison of elution times against a known n-C₁₆ to n-C₃₀ standard (A.
- 188 Schimmelmann, Indiana University, USA). Chain length distributions were summarized by the carbon
- preference index (CPI) and the average chain length (ACL) metrics following Zhang *et al.* (2006).
- 190 2.6 *n*-Alkane Carbon and Hydrogen Isotope Analyses
- 191 Compound-specific $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values were determined using a Thermo ScientificTM Delta VTM
- 192 Advantage isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) coupled with a GC-Isolink gas chromatograph.
- 193 The GC oven temperature ramp was the same as that used for the GC-FID and reactor temperatures
- were set to 1000°C for carbon and 1400°C for hydrogen modes, respectively. All samples were run in

duplicate and an *n*-alkane (C_{16} to *n*- C_{30}) standard was run at the beginning and end of every sequence. 195 ¹³C/¹²C isotopic composition was expressed relative to the Vienna Pee-Dee belemnite (VPDB) 196 standard and ²H/¹H isotopic composition relative to Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW). 197 Only compounds ubiquitous to all sediment samples and plant specimens were used as fingerprints for 198 source apportionment. For δ^{13} C, this meant the high-molecular weight *n*-alkanes C₂₇, C₂₉, and C₃₁, 199 whilst C_{27} and C_{29} where selected for $\delta^2 H$. Poor reproducibility of C_{31} for $\delta^2 H$ meant it was excluded 200 from the analysis. Abundance weighted C_{27} - C_{31} values for $\delta^{13}C$ and C_{27} - C_{29} values for $\delta^{2}H$ were 201 included as fingerprints to account for within plant variation in chain length abundance, and were 202 203 calculated as follows:

$$C_{27-29(31)}(\%_0) = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{M} (\delta_m \times \alpha_m)}{\sum_{m=1}^{M} \alpha_m}$$

where δ is the isotopic value in ‰, α is the abundance in pico-volts (pV), *M* is the number of *n*alkanes (three for δ^{13} C, two for δ^{2} H) and *m* is the alkane index. Mean absolute errors between replicate samples (precision) were 2‰ for δ^{2} H₂₇, 1‰ for δ^{2} H₂₉ and 0.1‰ for δ^{13} C₂₇, δ^{13} C₂₉ and δ^{13} C₃₁.

208 2.7 Statistical Source Discrimination and Bayesian Apportionment

The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance and stepwise linear discriminant analysis based on 209 210 the minimization of the Wilk's Lambda criterion were employed to quantitatively determine the 211 proportion of source area samples that could be correctly classified by selected isotopic values and *n*-212 alkane chain length metric fingerprints (Collins et al., 2012). Principal component analysis plots were 213 also generated to visualize the mixing space geometry. Due to differences in plant physiology/biochemistry, the abundance of *n*-alkanes produced per unit of organic matter has been 214 shown to vary between both species and different chain lengths within the same plant (Diefendorf et 215 al., 2011; Bush and McInerney, 2013). Consequently, isotopic ratios and chain length metrics were 216 weighted by *n*-alkane abundances when grouping fingerprints by source prior to running the Bayesian 217 mixing model. This was calculated by replicating fingerprint values for each plant specimen n times, 218 as follows: 219

$$J^{K} = \sum_{i=1}^{l} J_{i} \times (n = \alpha_{i})$$

where J^{K} is the source abundance weighted fingerprint value; J is the unweighted fingerprint value; nis the number of replicate fingerprint values generated and is equal to α , the relative *n*-alkane abundance (pV); I is the number of individual plants in each source; and i is the individual plant index. Mean values and covariance matrices for these source abundance weighted fingerprints were then passed onto the empirical Bayesian mixing model to quantitatively apportion *n*-alkane sources. The model was run in the open source software JAGS 3.3.0 (Just Another Gibbs Sampler; Plummer, 2003) within the R environment (R Development Core Team, 2013). Full structural details of the model employed can be found in the supplementary information (see also Cooper *et al.*, 2014a). In summary,
samples were drawn from the joint posterior probability density function of the variables of interest:

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$$p(S, \Phi, \Sigma^{resZ}, \mu^{\Phi}, \sigma^{2\Phi}|Y) \propto p(Y|S, \Phi, \Sigma^{resZ}) \cdot p(S) \cdot p(\Phi|\mu^{\Phi}, \sigma^{2\Phi}) \cdot p(\Sigma^{resZ}) \cdot p(\mu^{\Phi}) \cdot p(\sigma^{2\Phi})$$

where Y, the concentration of each fingerprint in streambed sediment organic matter, is a function of 230 the concentration of that fingerprint in each plant source group, S, multiplied by the proportional 231 organic matter contribution from each source, $P=ILR^{-1}(\Phi)$. Φ are isometric log-ratio (ILR) 232 transformed proportions (P); Σ^{resZ} is the combined instrument and residual error; Σ are covariance 233 matrices; σ^2 are variances; and μ are means. A Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling 234 procedure of the full parameter distributions was run using three parallel chains of 250,000 iterations 235 each with a 100,000 sample burn-in and a 225 sample jump length to ensure model convergence and 236 minimize autocorrelation between sample runs. A further correction was required to convert the 237 238 mixing model *n*-alkane source apportionment results into contributions of organic matter and was 239 applied as follows:

$$P_{OM} = \frac{\frac{P_k}{\alpha_k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} \left(\frac{P_k}{\alpha_k}\right)}$$

where P_{OM} is the corrected contribution of organic matter from each source; *P* is the mixing model estimated proportion of *n*-alkanes; α is the mean relative *n*-alkane abundance for each source; *K* is the number of sources; and *k* is the source index.

243 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The individual and collective effectiveness of δ^2 H, δ^{13} C and *n*-alkane chain length metrics as fingerprints for differentiating between plants derived from different functional types, between cultivated and natural species and between plants derived from different sub-environments were assessed in turn. The strongest discriminators were then used to quantitatively apportion, with uncertainty, the sources of organic matter in streambed sediments via the comprehensive Bayesian mixing model.

- 250 3.1 Isotopes for Discriminating Plant Functional Types
- 251 *3.1.1 Hydrogen*
- 252 CSIA of the 13 plant species collected from across mini-catchment A revealed that $\delta^2 H$ provided
- strong discrimination between some of the plant functional groups (Figure 3a; Table 1). Tree species
- 254 (Fraxinus excelsior, Carpinus betulus, Crataegus monogyna and Acer campestre) exhibited the most
- ²H-enriched isotopic composition, with $\delta^2 H_{27-29}$ values ranging from -208‰ to -164‰, with an *n*-

256 alkane abundance weighted mean of -185‰. This contrasted strongly with the C₃ graminoids which had the lowest $\delta^2 H_{27,29}$ values, ranging from -259‰ to -221‰ with an abundance weighted mean of -257 246‰. The majority of species representing the herbaceous perennials group (-223‰ to -172‰), 258 which included both natural (Typha latifolia, Aegopodium podagraria, Chamerion angustifolium and 259 Iris pseudacorus) and cultivated (Phaseolus vulgaris and Raphanus sativus) species, overlapped with 260 trees, though some had $\delta^2 H_{27,29}$ values closer to C₃ graminoids. The herbaceous perennial group had 261 an abundance weighted mean of -216‰. The C4 graminoid Zea mays (-195‰), the only C4 species in 262 this study, was ²H-enriched by \sim 50‰ relative to the C₃ graminoids, but overlapped with trees and 263 herbaceous perennials. Overall, there existed a sizeable 94‰ range in $\delta^2 H_{27-29}$ values across all 13 264 plant species with a clear distinction between C₃ graminoids and the other plant functional groups, 265 thus confirming the suitability of $\delta^2 H$ as an effective discriminator and fingerprint of different plant 266 267 types.

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Figure 3: Distribution of δ^2 H and δ^{13} C values (‰) for streambed sediments and individual plant species arranged by plant functional type. [A], [B] and [T] refer to aquatic, bankside and terrestrial sub-environments, respectively. Parentheses refer to the number of specimens for each species/sediment.

274 *3.1.2 Carbon*

The dominant interspecies distinction in $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ values was the ~12‰ difference between the C₄ 275 graminoid Zea mays and the C3 species (Figure 3b). Aside from this C3 versus C4 contrast, the range 276 of $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ values for trees (-39.2‰ to -34.2‰), C₃ graminoids (-37.5‰ to -33.8‰) and herbaceous 277 perennials (-39.0% to -34.1%) had substantial overlaps which prevented discrimination based solely 278 on δ^{13} C values. This contrasts with previous studies that, for example, identified differences in the 279 δ^{13} C values between angiosperm and conifer species (e.g. Pedentchouk *et al.*, 2008). However, there 280 remained relatively large intra-group variability that would allow individual species identification 281 based on $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ values. For example, for herbaceous perennials where *P. vulgaris* (-38.6%) is $\delta^{13}C_{-1}$ 282 depleted relative to the other herbaceous species (-38.3% to -34.1%). The $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ values of the 283 streambed sediments (-36.1% to -34.9%) places them firmly within the isotopic range of the C₃ plant 284 community, indicating limited input from C4 plants. Because such C3 versus C4 discrimination cannot 285 be obtained solely from $\delta^2 H$ values, the results presented here clearly support a combined $\delta^2 H / \delta^{13} C$ 286 isotopic approach for apportioning sources of organic matter, particularly in catchments with a greater 287 288 abundance of C₄ vegetation.

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Table 1: Summary abundance weighted *n*-alkane chain length statistics and isotopic compositions for
 streambed sediments and plant species grouped by plant functional type. ACL is the average chain
 length; CPI the carbon preference index; C_{max} the most abundant *n*-alkane. Full results for individual
 plant specimens are presented in supplementary Table S1.

Source/ Target	Stat.	ACL	СРІ	C _{max}	δ ¹³ C ₂₇ (‰)	δ ¹³ C ₂₉ (‰)	δ ¹³ C ₃₁ (‰)	δ ¹³ C ₂₇₋₃₁ (‰)	δ ² H ₂₇ (‰)	δ ² H ₂₉ (‰)	δ ² H ₂₇₋₂₉ (‰)
Sediments (n=18)	Mean St. dev.	28.9 0.1	6.5 1.1	29 0	-34.7 0.5	-35.7 0.3	-36.0 0.3	-35.6 0.3	-178 9	-203 10	-195 9
Trees (<i>n</i> =10)	Mean St. dev.	29.8 0.5	12.3 5.6	31 1	-35.3 1.0	-38.1 1.4	-37.3 1.8	-37.1 1.7	-163 12	-193 13	-185 14
Herbaceous Perennials (n=28)	Mean St. dev.	29.1 0.5	12.7 3.5	29 1	-34.7 0.8	-35.5 0.9	-35.8 0.9	-35.4 0.9	-195 11	-225 9	-217 10
C3 Graminoids (<i>n</i> =20)	Mean St. dev.	29.3 0.8	22.7 8.9	29 1	-35.7 1.4	-36.5 1.2	-36.5 1.2	-36.4 1.1	-223 17	-254 13	-246 13
C4 Graminoids (n=2)	Mean St. dev.	30.4 0.1	13.4 0.1	31 0	-23.6 0.3	-23.7 0.3	-22.9 0.1	-23.3 0.2	-164 1	-200 1	-194 1

296 3.2 Isotopes for Discriminating Natural vs. Cultivated Species

- Our data showed that $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ values are successful at discriminating between natural vegetation and 297 cultivated crop species (Figure 4a). The range of $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ values for the three C₃ cultivated crop 298 species (-39.0% to -37.2%; Raphanus sativus, Phaseolus vulgaris, Triticum sp.) was lower than that 299 recorded for the 11 natural plant species (-39.2‰ to -33.8‰) and for the C4 cultivated Zea mays (-300 23.3%). No obvious environmental mechanism could explain the ¹³C-depleted isotopic compositions 301 of cultivated C₃ crops relative to natural vegetation, suggesting this distinction was driven primarily 302 by physiological/biochemical differences. These findings support the conclusions of other sediment 303 fingerprinting studies that compound-specific δ^{13} C values can indeed be useful indicators of crop 304 specific contributions to fluvial organic matter (Gibbs, 2008; Blake et al., 2012). 305
- In contrast, $\delta^2 H_{27-29}$ values exhibited no cultivated versus natural isotopic discrimination, with all three groups exhibiting substantial range overlaps (Figure 4a). The isotopic compositions of the 18 streambed sediments placed them firmly within the natural vegetation source range, indicating natural plant communities supplied the majority of the *n*-alkanes present within these sediments. With such cultivated versus natural vegetation discrimination absent from the $\delta^2 H$ data, these results lend further support to adopting a dual isotopic approach for organic matter source apportionment.



Figure 4: *n*-Alkane δ²H₂₇₋₂₉ and δ¹³C₂₇₋₃₁ isotopic mixing space plots for streambed sediments and
 individual plant specimens grouped by (a) sub-environment and (b) cultivated vs. natural vegetation.
 Shaded ellipsoids cover 50% of group range.

317 3.3 Isotopes for Discriminating Sub-Environment

The sub-environment in which plants were growing (i.e. terrestrial, bankside or aquatic) exerted no 318 obvious control over δ^2 H or δ^{13} C values, as revealed by significant overlap between groups in isotopic 319 mixing space (Figure 4b). Mean isotopic values were marginally more enriched in C₃ terrestrial plants 320 $(\delta^2 H = -208\% \pm 33\%; \delta^{13} C = -35.9\% \pm 4.1\%)$ compared with aquatic $(\delta^2 H = -215\% \pm 21\%; \delta^{13} C = -$ 321 36.0% + 0.9%) and bankside ($\delta^2 H = -211\% + 29\%$; $\delta^{13}C = -36.5\% + 1.6\%$) growing species, 322 323 however the range of values observed for all sub-environment groups was substantial. The isotopic 324 composition of the streambed sediments placed them largely within the aquatic plant source group, 325 although little can be inferred from this due to the poor sub-environment source discrimination.

326 The absence of sub-environment discrimination implies that isotopic variability among the studied 327 plants was principally driven by plant physiological and/or biochemical differences rather than the 328 growing environment. Theoretically, one might have expected lower $\delta^2 H$ values in aquatic plants 329 compared to terrestrial species, because higher levels of humidity and water availability in aquatic 330 environments reduce stomatal conductance and thus lower discrimination against ²H during 331 transpiration (Doucett et al., 2007; Sachse et al., 2012). Additionally, one might reasonably expect the δ^2 H values of the stream water absorbed by aquatic plants to differ from the isotopic composition of 332 the soil water used by terrestrial species, with the former being supplied by groundwater and the latter 333 by more recent precipitation. However, no evidence was observed for these mechanisms with the 334 species collected here. This can probably be explained by the shallow nature of this headwater stream 335 (mean stage = 0.25 m), where emergent macrophytes growing >1.5 m tall dominate aquatic primary 336 productivity. In contrast to submerged macrophytes, emergent species will be exposed to similar 337 environmental stressors as their terrestrial or bankside equivalents, thus weakening any sub-338 environment driven differences. As a consequence, we cannot rule out $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13}C$ as potential 339 discriminators between aquatic and terrestrial organic matter sources, but merely highlight that 340 differences in growing environment, particularly in headwater streams, may not impart as large an 341 isotopic fractionation signal as physiological differences linked to plant functional type. Because of 342 343 these findings, plant functional type rather than sub-environment was pursued as the main source 344 group classification for apportionment

345 3.4 Alkanes for Discriminating Plant Types and Sub-Environments

Figure 5 presents the *n*-alkane mixing space plots of ACL and CPI for plant species grouped by (a) plant functional type and (b) sub-environment. Despite considerable scatter between individuals of the same group, it is apparent that tree species generally had longer ACLs (mean = 29.8 ± 0.5 ; Table 1) than the majority of herbaceous perennials (mean = 29.1 ± 0.5), whilst the same was true for

- terrestrial plants (mean = 29.6 ± 0.7) compared to aquatics (mean = 28.4 ± 0.8). For C₃ graminoids, a
- 351 distinct separation existed with terrestrial graminoids having higher ACL and CPI values, whilst
- 352 lower ACL and CPI values were recorded for the aquatic graminoids. Previous studies have suggested
- that higher *n*-alkane ACLs in paleosedimentary records can indicate greater graminoid $(n-C_{31})$ input,
- whilst shifts towards lower ACLs can signify more tree $(n-C_{29})$ derived organic material (Jeng, 2006;
- 355 Zhang et al., 2006). However, the results presented here and elsewhere (e.g. Bush and McInerney,
- 2013) reveal that this relationship does not hold true for all species, with some tree species having
- 357 higher ACLs than graminoids growing in the same environment.
- 358 Despite significant overlaps in the range of ACL and CPI values, there was stronger evidence for a sub-environmental control on these metrics than observed for either $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ or $\delta^{2}H_{27-29}$, although 359 plant functional type still provided better discrimination. The mean terrestrial plant ACL (29.6 + 0.7)360 and CPI (18.8 \pm 10.0) were higher than that observed for aquatic ACL (28.4 \pm 0.8) and CPI (12.2 \pm 361 4.8), with mean bankside ACL (29.1 + 0.9) and CPI (14.3 + 6.5) located between these two sub-362 environments in mixing space. Whilst these *n*-alkane chain length metrics could not be used on their 363 364 own to uniquely identify source groups, they do reveal potential to improve source area identification when used in combination with isotopic ratios by offering improved sub-environment discrimination. 365
- The range of ACL values for the 18 streambed sediments (28.6 to 29.1) indicates higher plants were 366 the dominant sources of *n*-alkanes in this river system (Jeng, 2006). In contrast, sediment CPI values 367 ranged from 4.7 to 8.6, putting them at the lower end of the range observed across all source groups. 368 Lower CPI values can be a sign of increased algal or microbial organic contributions (Jeng et al., 369 370 2006; Zech et al., 2011). However, a chromatogram of mean n-alkane chain length distributions for all 18 streambed samples (Figure 6) revealed sediments to be dominated by longer-chained *n*-alkanes 371 372 with a strong odd-over-even predominance. Such distributions, coupled with terrigenous-to-aquatic ratios (TAR_{HC}) ranging from 15.5 to 64.5, are indicative of higher terrestrial plant origins 373 (Bourbonniere and Meyers, 1996; McDuffee et al., 2004), thus allowing algae and bacteria to be 374 excluded as major organic matter sources during this autumn-to-spring period. Low CPI values can 375 376 also indicate contributions from ancient organic matter weathered out of the soil profile (Pancost and 377 Boot, 2004). Depending on its age, this ancient material may reflect relic plant communities that bear little resemblance to the modern intensive arable system and therefore would not have been 378 represented by the plants specimens collected here to classify source groups 379





Figure 5: Average chain length (ACL) and carbon preference index (CPI) mixing space plots for streambed sediments and individual plant specimens grouped by (a) plant functional type and (b) subenvironment. Shaded ellipsoids cover 50% of group range.



Figure 6: Chromatogram of the mean *n*-alkane chain length distribution for the 18 streambed sediment samples collected between September 2013 and March 2014, expressed relative to C_{29} . High-molecular weight *n*-alkanes ubiquitous to all samples and selected as isotopic fingerprints are highlighted in blue.

389 3.5 Statistical Discrimination of Isotopic and Alkane Fingerprints

Principal component analysis revealed that 95.1% of the variability between the plant species could be 390 explained by the first three components when combining all nine of the measured isotopic and n-391 alkane chain length metric fingerprints (ACL, CPI, $\delta^{13}C_{27}$, $\delta^{13}C_{29}$, $\delta^{13}C_{31}$, $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$, $\delta^{2}H_{27}$, $\delta^{2}H_{29}$ and 392 $\delta^2 H_{27,29}$). PC1, which explained 43.69% of data variance, weighed most heavily upon the four $\delta^{13}C$ 393 fingerprints, with the more positive $\delta^{13}C$ values of C₄ graminoids providing the greatest distinction 394 (Figure 7). The second principal component (33.92% of data variance) highlighted hydrogen isotope 395 composition as a powerful discriminator between the ²H-depleted C₃ graminoids and the 396 comparatively ²H-enriched herbaceous perennials and trees. In the third component (17.51% of 397 variance), ACL was the dominant discriminator, with higher ACL values for trees (mean = 29.7) 398 399 helping to distinguish this group from the herbaceous perennials (mean = 28.8) and C₃ graminoids (mean = 29.0). CPI was also an important distinguishing metric, with values increasing from 400 herbaceous perennials (mean = 12.3), to trees (mean = 13.2) and finally C_3 graminoids (mean = 20.8). 401

402 The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance revealed that eight out of the nine fingerprints could 403 successfully differentiate between plant functional types at the 0.05 significance level (Table 2). 404 Whilst previous studies have used failure to pass this test as a fingerprint rejection criterion in traditional frequentist source apportionment studies (e.g. Collins et al., 2012; Evrard et al., 2013), 405 other research has demonstrated that maximizing the number of fingerprints used in Bayesian mixing 406 models can help to significantly improve differentiation and reduce model uncertainties (Parnell et al., 407 408 2010). All nine fingerprints were therefore passed onto the Bayesian mixing model. In combination, the minimization of Wilks-Lambda procedure revealed 93.1% of plant specimens could be correctly 409 classified by plant functional type from these nine fingerprints, with $\delta^{13}C_{31}$ and $\delta^{2}H_{27,29}$ being the most 410 important discriminants. 411

412 **Table 2**: Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance and minimization of Wilks-Lambda fingerprint

413 discrimination statistics.

	Kruska	ıl-Wallis	Minimization of Wilks-Lambda						
Fingerprint Property	<i>H-</i> value	<i>p</i> -value	Selection step	Wilks- Lambda	F- value	Cumulative <i>p</i> -value	Cumulative % of sources correctly classified		
$\delta^{13}C_{31}$	10.14	0.017	1	0.167	89.9	< 0.001	51.7		
$\delta^2 H_{27-29}$	42.32	< 0.000	2	0.043	68.0	< 0.001	82.8		
ACL	13.48	0.004	3	0.034	42.3	< 0.001	84.5		
$\delta^{13}C_{27}$	7.39	0.060	4	0.028	32.3	< 0.001	89.7		
$\delta^2 H_{29}$	40.08	< 0.000	5	0.024	26.4	< 0.001	93.1		
$\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$	8.24	0.041	6	0.021	22.6	< 0.001	93.1		
$\delta^2 H_{27}$	41.95	< 0.000	7	0.019	19.8	< 0.001	93.1		
$\delta^{13}C_{29}$	9.18	0.027	8	0.017	17.6	< 0.001	93.1		
CPI	8.34	0.039	9	0.016	15.5	< 0.001	93.1		



416 Figure 7: Principal component analysis of plant functional type sources (left) and fingerprint loadings
417 (right) for the first three components. Shaded ellipsoids encompass 50% of the data range.

415

419 3.6 Application of the Bayesian Source Apportionment Mixing Model

420 The 7-month time-series of organic matter source contributions to fine ($\leq 63 \mu m$) streambed sediments 421 in the River Blackwater catchment, as estimated by the nine fingerprint Bayesian mixing model, are presented in Figure 8. Over the entire September 2013 to March 2014 period, TOC concentrations 422 varied between 3-7% of total sediment volume, which is considerably lower than the 10-13% 423 424 recorded for suspended particulate matter (SPM) collected at the same time from the same site (data not shown). Although *n*-alkanes represent only a small fraction of this total organic material, their 425 conservative nature means we can work on the assumption that the sources of *n*-alkane biomarkers are 426 427 representative of the sources of the entire organic matter content of the streambed sediments. In this 428 regard, herbaceous perennials were estimated to account for a mean 39% (13-65% at the 95% credible

429 interval) of sediment organic matter, with a further 33% (12-54%) from trees, 26% (7-46%) from C₃ 430 graminoids and just 4% (0-16%) from C₄ graminoids. The high contribution from herbaceous plants is 431 consistent with the dominance of emergent herbaceous macrophytes in the stream channel during the summer months (Figure 2a). Similarly, whilst only 1.5% of the catchment is deciduous woodland, 432 433 significant tree contribution was not surprising given the proximity of deciduous trees to the stream. There is also an extensive network of *Crataegus monogyna* and *Acer campestre* hedgerows across the 434 catchment, which most likely contributed significant quantities of tree derived organic material 435 following leaf fall during the autumn and winter period. 436

437 In spite of the relatively low precision of the proportional contributions, which arises as a 438 consequence of the comprehensive Bayesian treatment of all perceived uncertainties (Cooper et al., 2014a), considerable temporal variability in apportionment estimates was still apparent. Median 439 contributions from trees ranged from 22-52% (3-70% at the 95% credible interval), herbaceous 440 perennials from 29-50% (2-67%) and C₃ graminoids from 17-34% (4-58%). By contrast, median C₄ 441 graminoid contributions were consistently low across all 7 months at 3-7% (0-22%). As expected 442 from the principal component analysis, variability in sediment $\delta^2 H_{27-29}$ values appeared to exert the 443 dominant control over estimated source contributions. Increases in $\delta^2 H_{27-29}$ values were generally 444 associated with increases in tree contribution and declines in C3 graminoid supply, reflecting the more 445 positive $\delta^2 H$ values of tree derived organic material (Figure 3). Declines in sediment ACL, most 446 notably that occurring in late-February 2014, were associated with increased C₃ graminoid input, 447 whilst the decline in ACL and CPI in November 2013 was associated with a reduced herbaceous 448 449 perennial contribution. None of the source contributions were found to correlate with either stage or weekly precipitation totals. However, TOC concentrations where significantly (p<0.05) positively 450 correlated with herbaceous perennial ($R^2 = 0.275$) and C_3 graminoid ($R^2 = 0.119$) contributions, whilst 451 being negatively correlated with contributions from trees ($R^2 = -0.387$). 452

Despite this variability in source apportionment estimates at the weekly timescale (Figure 8), there 453 was no strong seasonality to estimated contributions, in contrast to what one might intuitively expect 454 considering the strong seasonal nature of plant growth. Whilst tree contribution does increase by 17% 455 during early October, which may relate to autumn leaf fall, this cannot directly explain the peak in 456 457 tree contribution at 52% during mid-February 2014. Similarly, whilst herbaceous perennial 458 contribution is marginally higher (mean = 43%) during the September to November die-back of 459 emergent macrophytes than during the December to March period (mean = 38%), the trend is not 460 significant within the 95% uncertainty intervals of the model. Previous research has shown the $\delta^2 H$ 461 values of individual plant species can vary seasonally in response to environmental stressors (e.g. temperature) by up to 44‰ (Pedentchouk et al., 2008; Eley et al., 2014). Whilst we potentially see 462 evidence for this seasonality here, with the most isotopically depleted sediment $\delta^2 H_{27-29}$ values 463 occurring during the colder winter months (~-202‰) and the most enriched values occurring in 464

autumn and spring (~-191‰) (Figure 8), this does not translate into seasonality in apportionment 465 466 estimates. On reflection, the lack of seasonal apportionment sensitivity most likely reflects the composition of deposited streambed sediments being inherently less dynamic and responsive to 467 catchment processes than fine grained SPM, for example. Streambed sediments represent a 468 cumulative composite of material deposited over a number of days, weeks or months. As such, the 469 470 delivery of a pulse of $\delta^2 H$ enriched autumn tree leaf litter to the river, which may be instantly 471 detectable in SPM, would form just the most recent quantitatively insignificant addition to a larger pool of accumulated organic detritus deposited on the streambed. Additionally, autumn leaf litter may 472 remain on the ground for a prolonged period of time before precipitation of sufficient intensity is 473 capable of initiating surface runoff to entrain and transport this organic material to the stream channel. 474



477 Figure 8: Time-series of organic matter source apportionment estimates and streambed sediment
478 fingerprints for the River Blackwater during September 2013-March 2014. Dark and light shading
479 around median source apportionment estimates represent the 50% and 95% Bayesian credible
480 intervals, respectively. Shading around isotopic ratios and ACL, CPI and TOC measurements
481 represents instrument error.

482 3.7 Significance and Further Research

The novel data presented here clearly demonstrate that an integrated carbon and hydrogen CSIA of 483 leaf wax *n*-alkanes is an effective approach for quantitatively apportioning plant specific organic 484 matter contributions to streambed sediments within a Bayesian uncertainty framework. In particular, 485 the δ^2 H values of leaf waxes proved to be an effective biomarker for differentiating between 486 individual plant species based upon their broad functional type, whilst δ^{13} C values and *n*-alkane chain 487 length metrics provided complimentary discrimination based on C₃/C₄ physiological differences and 488 different sub-environments, respectively. In contrast to the commonly employed inorganic 489 490 fingerprints which have been used to discriminate sediment sources based on catchment geology and soil type in previous sediment source apportionment studies (e.g. Martínez-Carreras et al. 2010; 491 D'Haen et al., 2012), these isotopic differences in n-alkane composition offer considerable potential 492 to quantify land-use specific contributions to fluvial organic matter. In this respect, future research 493 could usefully examine if soils under particular plant types are tagged with unique $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13}C$ 494 signatures, which would allow these isotopes to be used as direct land-use specific soil erosion tracers. 495 496 There would also be utility in applying these techniques to SPM collected at high-temporal resolution during precipitation events as a means of better understanding organic matter provenance and 497 transport during dynamic high-flow conditions. Finally, examination of a greater variety of cultivated 498 plant species would allow for a more robust assessment of the effectiveness of both $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{2}H$ as 499 discriminators between crop and natural vegetation contributions. 500

501 4. CONCLUSIONS

502 Organic matter is an important constituent of the particulate material transported in fluvial systems, yet techniques capable of quantitatively apportioning its origin have largely been overlooked by the 503 504 sediment fingerprinting community. Addressing this deficiency, we successfully demonstrate how a novel combined δ^{13} C and δ^{2} H compound-specific isotope analysis of *n*-alkane plant lipid extracts can 505 506 be used as biomarkers to apportion plant specific contributions to fine (<63 μ m) streambed sediment 507 organic matter in the lowland, arable, River Blackwater catchment, Norfolk, UK. From the lipid 508 extracts of 18 streambed sediments and 30 individual plant specimens collected from across three subenvironments (aquatic, bankside and terrestrial) and four plant functional types (trees, herbaceous 509 perennials and C_3 and C_4 graminoids), nine isotopic ratio and chain length metrics (ACL, CPI, $\delta^{13}C_{27}$, 510 $\delta^{13}C_{29}$, $\delta^{13}C_{31}$, $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$, $\delta^{2}H_{27}$, $\delta^{2}H_{29}$ and $\delta^{2}H_{27-29}$) were derived, which were capable of successfully 511 differentiating 93.1% of plant specimens by functional group. $\delta^2 H_{27-29}$ proved to be the dominant 512 discriminator of plants originating from different functional types, with the largest contrasts arising 513 between trees (-208‰ to -164‰) and C₃ graminoids (259‰ to -221‰). $\delta^{13}C_{27-31}$ provided effective 514 discrimination between the isotopically enriched C₄ graminoids and the other C₃ plants, whilst also 515 providing discrimination between cultivated and natural vegetation. Neither $\delta^2 H$ nor $\delta^{13}C$ could 516

517 robustly identify plants based on sub-environment, emphasizing a stronger physiological rather than 518 growing environment control over isotopic fractionation. The ACL and CPI were, however, more 519 successful at differentiating plants by sub-environment, indicating such chain length metrics can complement source area identification when used in combination with isotopic ratios. Bayesian 520 mixing model source apportionment results took full account of the uncertainties present whilst 521 revealing considerable temporal variability in plant contributions to streambed sediments during the 522 7-month period between September 2013 and March 2014. Median contributions ranged from 22-52% 523 for trees, 29-50% for herbaceous perennials, 17-34% for C₃ graminoids and 3-7% from C₄ graminoids, 524 with apportionment exhibiting no apparent seasonality. The results of this study have clearly 525 demonstrated the effectiveness of an integrated carbon and hydrogen CSIA approach for identifying 526 plant specific contributions to streambed sediment organic matter. Future research should further 527 investigate the potential of $\delta^2 H$ and $\delta^{13} C$ as direct erosion tracers of soils under different land cover 528 529 types.

530 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

RJC acknowledges financial support from a NERC BGS CASE studentship (NE/J500069/1). TK is
funded, through IRI THESys, by the German Excellence Initiative. The authors would like to thank
Yvette Eley and Rebecca Baldwin for laboratory assistance, Jenny Stevenson, Simon Ellis and Zanist
Hama-Aziz for fieldwork support and Gilla Suennenberg for providing the GIS data. This paper is
published with the permission of the Executive Director of the British Geological Survey (Natural
Environment Research Council).

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