

1 **Title:** Hydrologic Compartments are More Important than Ecozone in Size-Based
2 Characterization of Freshwater Dissolved Organic Matter across Canada

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4 **Running Head:** DOM Composition across Canadian Ecozones

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16
17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Dissolved Organic Matter (DOM) represents a mixture of organic molecules that vary due to different
19 source materials and degree of processing. Characterizing how DOM composition evolves along the
20 aquatic continuum can be difficult. Using a size-exclusion chromatography technique (LC-OCD), we
21 assessed the variability in DOM composition from both surface and groundwaters across a number of
22 Canadian ecozones (mean annual temperature spanning -10 to +6 C). A range in DOM concentration
23 was found from 0.2 to 120 mg C/L. Proportions of different size-based groupings across ecozones were
24 variable, yet similarities between specific hydrologic compartments, regardless of location, suggest
25 commonality in the processes dictating the evolution of DOM composition. A principal-component
26 analysis identified 70% of the variation in LC-OCD derived DOM compositions could be explained by
27 the hydrological compartment. We find that hydrologic compartment has a greater influence on DOM
28 composition than differences in climate or surrounding vegetation.

29
30 **Keywords:**

31 Dissolved organic matter, size-exclusion chromatography, DOM composition, hydrologic compartment,
32 Canadian ecozones

33 1 INTRODUCTION

34 Dissolved organic matter (DOM) is a ubiquitous component of terrestrial and aquatic
35 ecosystems. DOM influences light penetration within lakes (Schindler et al. 1996) and provides an
36 energy source for microbial metabolism (Biddanda and Cotner 2002). Comprised of thousands of
37 molecules with differing structures and properties, DOM concentration and composition can vary
38 greatly among environments due to different physical, chemical, and biological processes. Future
39 drinking water treatment options may be significantly impacted as climate change is predicted to alter
40 the quantity and quality of DOM in surface waters (Ritson et al. 2014). Harmful disinfection by-products
41 (DBP), formed by reactions between DOM and chlorine, are increasingly found in most municipal
42 drinking water supplies (Krasner et al. 2006). Further, DBP formation is more strongly correlated with
43 DOM composition than overall DOM concentration (Awad et al. 2016). Increased terrestrial DOM
44 contributions observed among northern surface waters are thought to result in the ‘brownification’ of
45 these systems, affecting lake characteristics and food webs (Creed et al. 2018; Wauthy et al. 2018).
46 Hence, the evolution of DOM composition across the aquatic continuum has important implications for
47 downstream ecosystems, and must be monitored or observed to better understand its impact on water
48 treatment effectiveness and downstream ecosystems.

49 Watershed characteristics, such as terrestrial land cover or number of upstream lakes, can
50 dictate the concentration and composition of DOM that is transported through the aquatic continuum
51 (Mueller et al. 2012; Jaffé et al. 2012). The persistence of DOM within freshwaters has been linked to its
52 initial composition (Kellerman et al. 2015). Determination to the variability in DOM composition across
53 the aquatic continuum can indicate potential avenues of change, allowing us to better anticipate water
54 treatment requirements and costs related to future DOM changes. However, the inherent complexity
55 and heterogeneity of DOM makes it difficult to rely on a single method to quantify compositional
56 differences.

57 Characterizing DOM can involve a number of different techniques, yet many measure either
58 bulk characteristics or only a subset of all DOM by capturing specific components. A comprehensive

59 chemical characterization of DOM would involve the identification and quantification of thousands of
60 individual compounds, would be computationally and economically intensive, and may not actually be
61 possible with current technologies. Fortunately, this level of analysis is not required to make useful
62 predictions on how DOM will behave in the environment. DOM composition has been assessed via
63 molecular ratio assays (Hunt et al. 2000), light absorption (Weishaar et al. 2003), fluorescence (Jaffé et al.
64 2008), resin fractionation (Kent et al. 2014), and mass spectrometry (Kellerman et al. 2014; Hutchins et
65 al. 2017). Generally, the need for enhanced information on DOM composition and molecular moieties
66 results in increased cost and complexity to implement (McCallister et al. 2018). Bulk optical indices,
67 although common due to the relative ease of analysis, only respond to compounds that absorb or
68 fluoresce in a specific range of wavelengths and can include non-organic components in the matrix
69 (Weishaar et al. 2003) or miss non-absorbing DOM components (Her et al. 2002). The ideal DOM
70 characterization method, or combination of methods, would provide sufficient detail on the key aspects
71 of DOM composition that control its fate and function, yet be analytically simple enough to be cost
72 effective and practical for environmental applications.

73 Size exclusion chromatography (SEC) has been used to characterize DOM in a variety of
74 settings including marine systems (Ogawa et al. 2001), lakes (Kent et al. 2014), rivers or streams (He et
75 al. 2016), and groundwaters (Szabo and Tuhkanen 2010). Liquid Chromatography – Organic Carbon
76 Detection (LC-OCD) is a simple and quantitative SEC method that separates DOM based upon
77 hydrodynamic radii and electrostatic properties (Huber et al. 2011). This technique is relatively fast
78 (<120 minutes per sample) and characterizes both absorbing and non-absorbing DOM components.
79 Studies using LC-OCD have focussed on wastewater and water treatment applications (Ciputra et al.
80 2010). Some LC-OCD environmental data exists from agricultural and forested catchments in Germany
81 (Heinz et al. 2015) and rivers in South Korea (He et al. 2016) and Spain (Catalán et al. 2017). LC-OCD-
82 based DOM groupings provide a relatively easy measure of DOM size-based composition across a large
83 suite of environments.

84 Light absorbing and fluorescing components of DOM vary in the environment (Jaffé et al. 2008,
85 2012) but few studies examine how non-light absorbing DOM components differ across areas with
86 different climate and vegetation. Here we determine the effectiveness of using size-based groupings of
87 DOM to quantify differences in DOM composition and, to our knowledge, present one of few studies
88 that pairs DOM characterization of both groundwater and surface water across a gradient of climate
89 and vegetation regimes. The objectives of this study are: 1) to determine whether differences in DOM
90 composition across a gradient of ecozones can be identified by LC-OCD alone, and 2) to quantify the
91 degree of similarity in DOM composition among hydrological compartments in different ecozones.

92

93 **2 METHODS**

94 *2.1 Site Descriptions*

95 Samples were collected in the summer months (June to August) across various Canadian
96 ecozones (Marshall et al. 1999) that span a mean annual temperature from -9.8 to 6.5°C, precipitation
97 from 313 to 940 mm, and overlie continuous to no permafrost (Figure 1; Suppl. Table 1). Surface water
98 samples were collected from the Boreal Shield (IISD Experimental Lakes Area (ELA)), Mixedwood
99 Plains (agriculturally-impacted Grand River (GR)), Taiga Shield (Yellowknife (YW) and Wekweètì
100 (WK)), and Southern Arctic ecozones (Daring Lake (DL); Suppl. Info Table 1). Groundwater, defined
101 here as water collected beneath the ground surface, was sampled from various depths from the Boreal
102 Shield (Turkey Lakes Watershed (TLW)) Mixedwood Plains (Nottawasaga River Watershed (NRW)),
103 Atlantic Maritime (Black Brook Watershed (BBW)), Taiga Shield (YK, WK), and Southern Arctic (DL).
104 Both NRW and BBW are areas of extensive agriculture. Shallow subsurface samples were collected from
105 the Northwest Territories (deepest extent of active-layer in July or August, ~0.1 to 0.5 meters below
106 surface) and TLW (between 0 to 7 m.b.s), while samples from NRW and BBW were collected at depths
107 ranging between 1 and 30 m.b.s.

108 *2.2 DOM Characterization*

109 All samples were filtered to 0.45 μ m (Whatman GD/X) into acid-washed and pre-rinsed glass
110 vials. Samples were immediately stored cool (<4°C) and dark until analyses (within two weeks). DOM
111 composition was quantitatively assessed using LC-OCD (DOC-Labor, Karlsruhe, Germany; Huber et al.
112 2011) at the University of Waterloo. The sample is injected through a size-exclusion column (Toyopearl
113 HW-50S, Tosoh Bioscience) that separates DOM based on hydrodynamic radii into five hydrophilic
114 fractions (from largest to smallest): biopolymers (BP; polysaccharides or proteins), humic substances
115 fraction (HSF; humic and fulvic acids), building blocks (BB; lower weight humic substances), low
116 molecular weight neutrals (LMWN; aldehydes, small organic materials), and LMW-acids (LMWA;
117 saturated mono-protic acids). A portion of the sample bypasses the column for measurement of total
118 dissolved organic carbon concentration. The difference between the overall DOM concentration and the
119 sum of the five eluted fractions is used to quantify a ‘hydrophobic parameter’. As hydrophobics are not
120 a measured parameter from the LC-OCD, and that the hydrophilic component comprised 90 \pm 9% across
121 all DOM samples, group percentages were normalized to the sum of the eluted components (total
122 hydrophilic fraction, herein referred to as DOM_{hyphl}). Duplicates run at six concentrations yield a
123 precision for the LC-OCD of \pm 0.09 mg C/L or better. Samples also pass through a UV-Detector
124 (Smartline UV Detector 200, Germany) for determination of the specific ultra-violet absorbance at 254
125 nm (SUVA), calculated by normalizing the absorbance at this wavelength to the concentration of DOM.

126 *2.3 Statistical Analyses*

127 Multiple sampling events from the same site have been averaged into one value per site (Suppl.
128 Fig S1) and can be viewed in the online data repository (Aukes et al. 2020). Principal component
129 analyses (PCA) was performed using R (R Core Team 2019).

130

131 **3 RESULTS**

132 *3.1 DOM Quantity*

133 Highest DOM concentrations were found in groundwater samples in organic-rich peats from
134 Yellowknife (mean: 97 mg C/L, 1 σ : \pm 40 mg C/L) and ELA (48 \pm 22 mg C /L; Figure 2a, Table 1). Lowest

135 concentrations were found in organic-poor groundwater sites (BBW: 0.6 ± 0.4 mg C/L; NRW: 2.1 ± 0.5 mg
136 C /L). The agriculturally-impacted river (GR: 6.1 ± 1.0 mg C /L) contained similar DOM concentrations to
137 Canadian Shield subarctic rivers (YW: 6.6 ± 3.1 mg C /L). Groundwater DOM concentration exhibited
138 greater difference between ecozones than surface water DOM, and were lower in southern than
139 northern areas. In general, a larger range in DOM concentration was found across groundwater than
140 surface water sites.

141 *3.2 DOM UV-Absorbance*

142 The UV-absorbing capability of DOM can be compared across samples using SUVA values.
143 Lowest SUVA values were measured in agriculturally-impacted groundwater DOM and highest in
144 northern groundwater and boreal stream DOM (Figure 2b; Table 1). Unlike samples from ELA, northern
145 ecozone groundwaters (DL, WK, and YW) had higher SUVA values than surface water. Highest SUVA
146 values were encountered in three Boreal Shield lakes at depth (~5-10 m below surface) and may
147 represent samples with iron interference (Weishaar et al. 2003) and are not included in subsequent
148 discussion. Overall, SUVA values were generally similar across ecozones and hydrologic compartments.

149 *3.3 LC-OCD Characterization*

150 Proportions of BP were similar across ecozones, yet different hydrological compartments within
151 an ecozone contained different proportions of BP. Biopolymers ranged from 1-45% of DOM_{hyphl} but
152 generally contributed less than 15% to DOM_{hyphl} (Figure 3a; Table 1). Streams and lakes contained
153 higher BP proportions than groundwaters. Further, groundwater samples from agricultural sites
154 contained the lowest BP proportions (0.4 and 1.3%, respectively). High BP proportions were found in
155 Boreal and Arctic lakes, while moderate BP proportions were found in rivers, close to values found in
156 similar hydrological environments in other studies using LC-OCD (He et al. 2016; Catalán et al. 2017)
157 (Figure 3). The BP fraction of DOM_{hyphl} is more similar across hydrological compartments than
158 comparing different compartments within an ecozone, and high BP proportions are indicative of surface
159 water DOM.

160 The HSF comprised the largest proportion, representing up to 85% of DOM_{hyphl} in some
161 environments (Figure 3b). Overall, the HSF proportion ranged from 15-85% with the highest proportions
162 found in Taiga Shield groundwater and Boreal streams (Figure 3). Taiga Shield and Southern Arctic
163 lakes and ponds contained higher HSF proportions than Boreal lakes (Table 1). Taiga Shield rivers had
164 slightly lower proportions than an agriculturally-impacted river. Boreal and agriculturally-impacted
165 groundwaters had the lowest HSF proportions, as well as Boreal wetland groundwater (Table 1; Figure
166 3).

167 Smaller molecular weight humics, defined as building blocks (BB), ranged from 5 to 37% of
168 DOM_{hyphl}. High BB proportions were found from southern agricultural groundwater samples, while
169 lowest proportions were observed among groundwater samples in organic rich peats in YW and ELA
170 (<10%; Figure 3c). Across ecozones, surface waters had comparable proportions of BB between 10-30%
171 of DOM_{hyphl}.

172 Proportions of LMWN ranged from 3-76% and were much lower than HSF except among
173 groundwater samples (Figure 3d). DOM from Boreal wetland groundwater sites contained higher
174 LMWN proportions than any other environment (Table 1). Groundwater environments with the lowest
175 HSF proportion had higher LMWN proportions, specifically the agriculturally-impacted sites. Lowest
176 proportions were found from Boreal streams and Arctic groundwater and pond samples. LMWA
177 generally comprised a minor component of total DOM (Figure 3e).

178 The variability across different sites in LC-OCD defined DOM composition was assessed using
179 PCA. Initially, two principal axes accounted for 60% of the variability within the dataset (Suppl. Fig S2).
180 However, high LMWN proportions from Boreal wetland groundwaters did not allow for a good
181 resolution of other components. For this reason, wetland groundwater samples were omitted (n=28) and
182 the PCA was recalculated based on the remaining samples (n=122; Figure 4). Two principal axes now
183 account for 71% of the variability and illustrates a similarity in DOM composition when comparing
184 hydrologic compartments across ecozones. Distinct compositions are observed comparing lake and
185 groundwater DOM, while rivers and streams contain intermediary compositions between these.

186 Differences in groundwater DOM composition were identified by HSF and LMWN or BB proportions,
187 while higher BP proportions were common for surface waters. Groundwater DOM from Arctic
188 ecozones (for organic soils) grouped separately from other groundwater samples (from mineral
189 substrate), but were similar in composition to Boreal streams. Lakes can be identified by higher BB and
190 LMWN, lower HS, and occasionally high BP.

191

192 **4 DISCUSSION**

193 *4.1 Can LC-OCD Analyses Differentiate DOM Composition?*

194 This study provided a comprehensive dataset to examine how size-based groupings of DOM
195 can be used to quantify DOM heterogeneity across a range of environmental conditions that spans the
196 Southern Arctic, with long-cold winters and short-cool summers, to the Mixedwood Plains with warm-
197 wet climates and productive soils. Differences in both the absorbing and non-absorbing DOM fractions
198 are apparent (Figure 2, 3) and result from differences in organic matter sources, catchment
199 characteristics, residence times, and processing history (Curtis and Schindler 1997; Jaffé et al. 2008;
200 Mueller et al. 2012). We find that size-based groupings can identify differences in DOM composition not
201 observed measuring optical properties alone. For instance, ELA and TLW wetland groundwater samples
202 contained similar SUVA values (Figure 2b) but different LC-OCD compositions: a greater proportion of
203 degraded humics at TLW than ELA (Figure 3c; Table 1). The use of various characterization techniques
204 would provide different information on DOM and may be the best way to holistically quantify DOM.
205 Differences in size-based groupings of DOM provide additional information suited to identifying
206 differences in DOM composition that is not provided by UV-based techniques alone.

207 *4.2 The Similarity in Groundwater DOM*

208 Groupings of similar hydrologic compartments in the PCA indicates a commonality of DOM
209 composition across spatial scales. The general conception, especially in groundwater environments, is
210 that processing of DOM results in a loss of heterogeneity. For instance, leachate degradation resulted in
211 a convergence towards similar DOM optical properties and degradation kinetics (Harfmann et al. 2019),

212 while physiochemical and biological processes conformed South Carolina soil DOM composition (Shen
213 et al. 2015). The grouping of groundwater DOM in the PCA supports these observations as various
214 ecozones contain similar mixtures of LC-OCD defined components. Groundwater DOM is differentiated
215 from surface water DOM by the proportion of BP, but can be even further separated by HS and LMWN
216 to compare organic-rich contributions (ELA and TLW) to agriculturally-impacted sites (BBW and NRW;
217 Figure 3a; Figure 4). Biodegradation and accumulation of DOM in porewaters (Chin et al. 1998) may be
218 responsible for wetland subsurface DOM from Boreal shield sites being easily identified by high
219 proportions of LMWN. Hence, size-based groupings of groundwater DOM indicates that, while
220 composition can differ among groundwater environments, groundwater contains much different DOM
221 than in surface waters.

222 4.3 Trends in DOM Composition across Hydrological Compartments

223 Photolysis and *in-situ* production are two processes that occur among surface waters that alter
224 the composition of DOM, and can be identified in changes to size-based groupings of DOM along the
225 aquatic continuum. Exposure of DOM to sunlight and photochemical transformations of humics results
226 in smaller molecules and increased proportions of BB (Tercero Espinoza et al. 2009; He et al. 2016). This
227 is observed in the dataset by a shift in PCA groupings towards higher BB and LMWN among surface
228 water DOM (Figure 4). High BP in lakes and streams indicate the presence of high molecular weight
229 polysaccharides or proteins that form during *in-situ* production of autochthonous DOM or microbial
230 processing of DOM (Ciputra et al. 2010; Huber et al. 2011; Catalán et al. 2017).

231 Rivers and streams can act as conduits of DOM transport and internal producers and processors
232 of DOM (Creed et al. 2015), producing a DOM composition intermediary between lake and groundwater
233 end-members. Further, stream DOM composition can identify DOM source as some samples plot closely
234 with either groundwater or lake DOM (Figure 4). Thus, size-based DOM groupings can be used to
235 evaluate the importance of autochthonous versus groundwater sources of DOM in rivers and streams.

236 Along a hypothetical flow path, terrestrial subsurface DOM is mobilized into surrounding
237 ponds and lakes, and eventually exported from the watershed via rivers or streams. Changes to LC-

238 OCD components, concurrent with decreases to overall DOM concentration, are found along this
239 hypothetical flow with high-HSF from the subsurface being lost as LMW and BP proportions increase
240 (Figure 3, 4). These changes are in agreement with watershed-scale observations of DOM composition
241 change along a continuum, shifting from relatively high-molecular weight subsurface components to
242 smaller, more degraded, and more aliphatic components (Kellerman et al. 2014; Hutchins et al. 2017).
243 The similarity in DOM composition within hydrological compartments across different ecoregions
244 (Figure 4) represents how intrinsic properties of DOM may be similarly processed regardless of
245 surrounding vegetation or climate.

246 *4.4 Implications of Different Size-Based Groupings of DOM*

247 Differences in DOM composition are linked to its hydrologic compartment, hence shifts or
248 changes to the hydrological regime, such as recent increases to terrestrial-derived DOM, can alter DOM
249 composition, reactivity, and its effect upon the surrounding environment (Creed et al. 2018). Size-based
250 groupings of DOM composition can quantify changes that may help identify lakes experiencing
251 stronger terrestrial influences, such as higher HSF and lower BP. In particular, a shift towards heavier
252 fall rains in the Northwest Territories, Canada (Spence et al. 2011), can enhance terrestrial DOM
253 contributions to surrounding surface waters, which may result in increased pre-treatment costs (Ritson
254 et al. 2014) and higher DBP concentrations (Awad et al. 2016). The ability to characterize and compare
255 specific DOM compositions is important to better predict, plan, and adapt water treatment methods for
256 these climate-induced changes.

257

258 **5 CONCLUSION**

259 Size exclusion DOM analyses provides a quantitative measure of DOM composition variability
260 across aquatic environments. In some cases, LC-OCD alone identified differences in DOM among
261 hydrologic compartments rather than SUVA. Overall, PCA analyses indicates similar size-based
262 mixtures of DOM among hydrologic compartments regardless of ecozone. Certain characteristics can be
263 used to identify specific hydrologic compartments; namely, proportions of BP and LMWN differentiate

264 surface from groundwater DOM. Groundwater DOM evolves with enhanced processing time and
265 sorption to mineral surfaces into a composition dominated by smaller components. Surface water DOM
266 is much different than groundwater DOM and contains high proportions of processed humics and
267 microbial-like DOM. Implementation of this size-based grouping scheme provides a quantitative tool to
268 measure DOM composition while acknowledging the inherent heterogeneity when attempting to
269 characterize DOM.

270

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282

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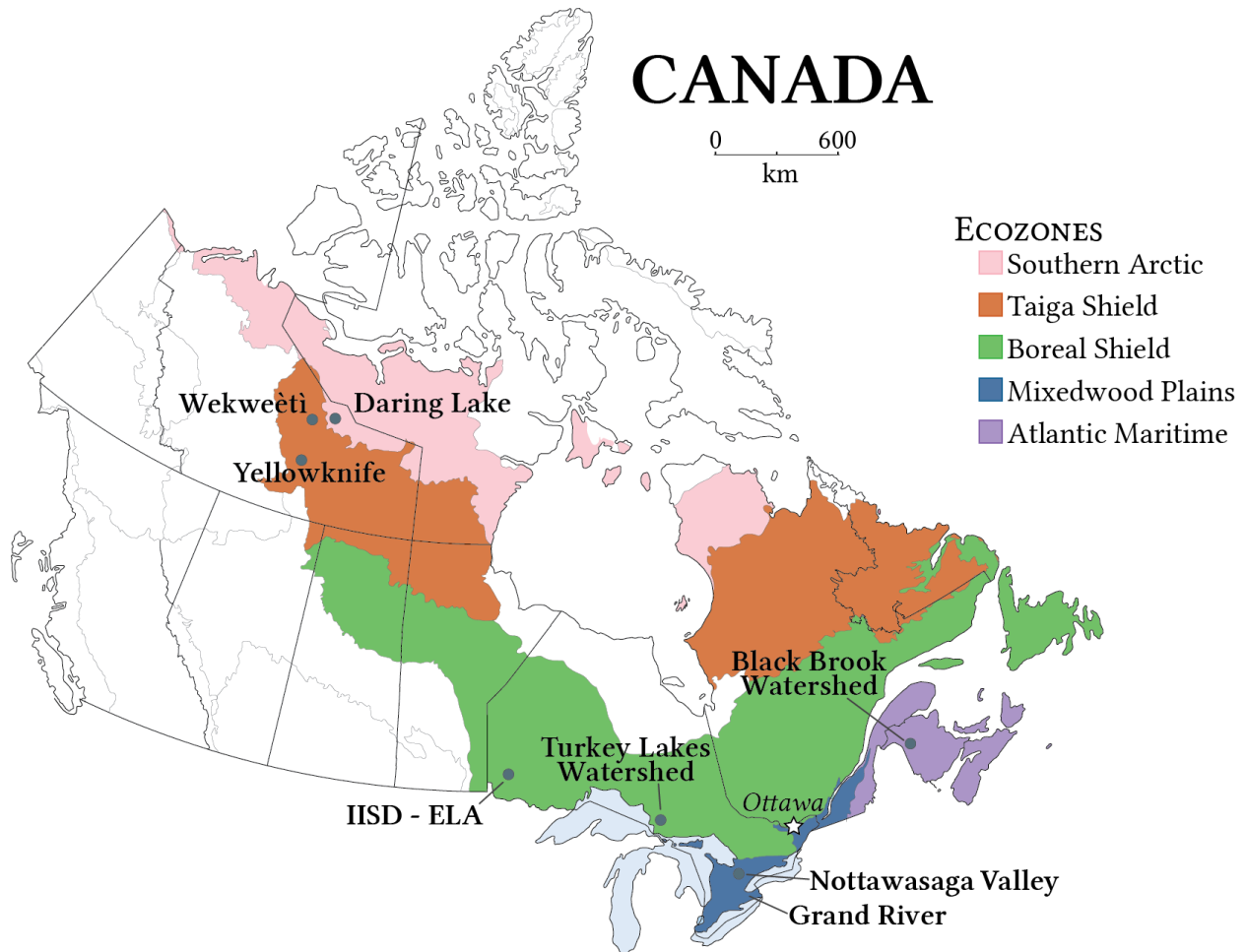
381 **TABLES**

382 *Table 1: Dissolved organic matter concentration, specific UV-absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA), and LC-OCD characterization for different sites and hydrological compartments across a*
 383 *range of Canadian ecozones. The LC-OCD percentages are relative to the total hydrophilic fraction of the samples and include biopolymers (BP), humic substances (HS), building*
 384 *blocks (BB), low molecular weight neutrals (LMW-N), and LMWN acids (LMWA).*

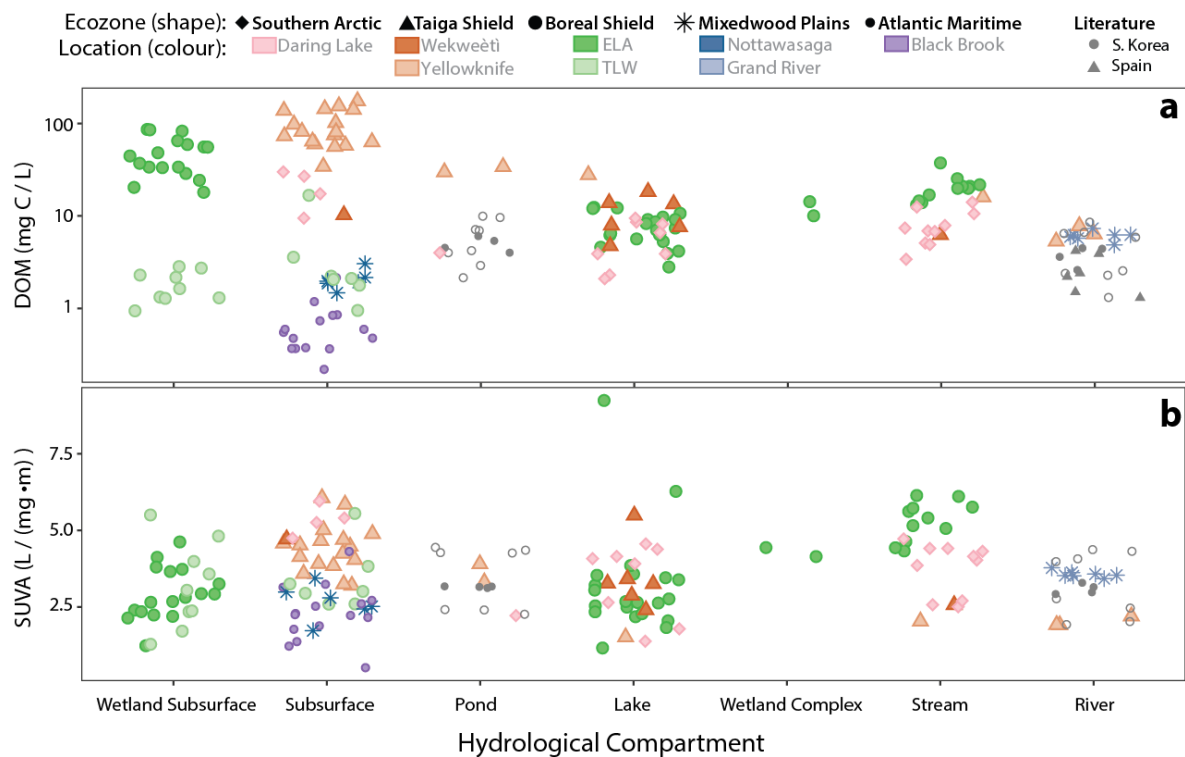
Ecozone	Location	Hydrological Compartment Type	n	DOM (mg C/L)		SUVA (L / (mg m))		BP (%)		HS (%)		BB (%)		LMWN (%)		LMWA (%)	
				Mean	σ (\pm)	Mean	σ (\pm)	Mean	σ (\pm)	Mean	σ (\pm)	Mean	σ (\pm)	Mean	σ (\pm)	Mean	σ (\pm)
Southern Arctic	Daring Lake	Subsurface	4	21.0	9.35	5.3	0.5	5.39	3.95	73.1	4.52	14.8	2.75	6.39	2.37	0.30	0.35
		Pond	1	4.00		2.2		33.5		39.8		15.3		11.3		0.00	
		Lake	8	5.64	2.95	3.4	1.2	14.6	14.4	58.5	15.8	15.6	3.41	10.8	1.93	0.54	0.42
Taiga Shield	Wekweètì	Stream	10	7.96	3.44	3.8	0.8	13.3	9.50	57.4	10.4	17.4	3.30	11.0	1.15	0.95	0.48
		Subsurface	1	10.2		4.7		2.09		70.1		14.8		6.91		6.18	
		Lake	6	11.0	5.05	3.4	1.1	7.24	4.07	59.9	10.3	20.7	4.75	10.3	2.90	1.91	2.36
Taiga Shield	Yellowknife	Stream	1	6.24		2.6		12.3		57.2		19.6		9.94		0.91	
		Subsurface	17	94.1	41.4	4.4	0.8	5.79	3.90	75.8	5.93	10.3	2.91	7.15	1.61	1.02	1.75
		Pond	2	31.9	2.97	3.6	0.4	5.08	1.89	70.5	1.70	14.8	0.53	8.56	0.65	1.04	0.31
		Lake	1	27.8		1.5		21.9		52.0		15.8		9.84		0.60	
Boreal Shield	IISD- Experimental Lakes Area	Stream	1	16.0		2.0		19.5		55.4		15.8		8.67		0.64	
		River	3	6.49	1.25	2.0	0.2	10.7	3.10	59.8	2.36	17.0	1.27	10.7	0.56	1.76	2.08
		Wetland	17	47.8	22.3	2.9	0.9	7.21	2.76	37.2	13.6	7.82	2.65	46.9	15.0	0.81	1.60
		Subsurface	21	7.53	2.80	3.2	1.7	14.8	6.21	49.2	6.95	23.0	3.74	12.2	1.82	0.79	0.57
		Wetland Complex	2	12.2	3.00	4.3	0.2	11.8	0.71	58.7	4.41	18.1	2.85	10.7	0.54	0.83	0.30
Mixedwood Plains	Nottawasaga Valley	Stream	11	20.4	6.77	5.3	0.6	2.50	2.66	80.7	2.85	9.40	3.60	7.27	1.62	0.17	0.27
		Wetland	9	1.83	0.69	3.2	1.4	3.20	4.22	43.5	17.7	21.5	5.05	28.0	18.8	6.49	15.8
Mixedwood Plains	Grand River	Subsurface	7	4.20	5.56	3.4	1.0	0.51	0.40	58.3	12.2	23.5	7.20	17.3	11.5	0.68	1.13
		Subsurface	6	2.07	0.53	3.6	0.1	0.42	0.26	54.9	8.02	28.8	5.30	15.9	3.24	0.03	0.08
		River	7	6.07	0.73	2.6	0.6	9.54	0.77	65.9	1.78	14.6	0.93	9.60	0.79	0.28	0.45

Atlantic Maritime	Black Brook	Subsurface	15	0.67	0.47	2.3	0.9	1.32	1.39	53.6	10.2	27.3	7.87	17.7	6.66	0.12	0.47
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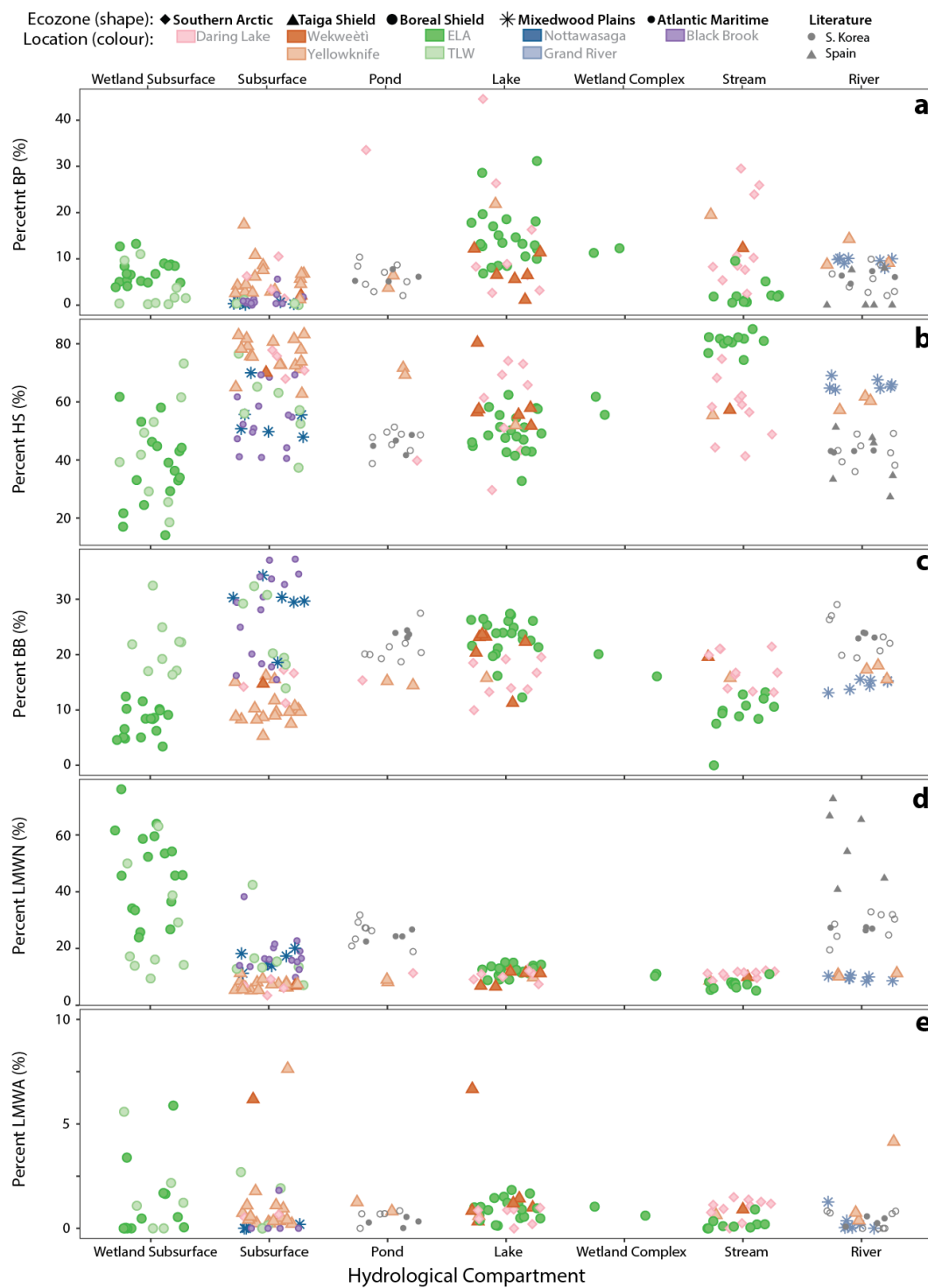
386 FIGURES



387
388 *Figure 1:* Ecozones (Marshall et al. 1999) and DOM collection sites: Daring Lake (DL; Southern Arctic ecozone),
389 Wekweëti (WK; Taiga Shield ecozone), Yellowknife (YW; Taiga Shield ecozone), International Institute for
390 Sustainable Development - Experimental Lakes Area (IISD-ELA; Boreal Shield ecozone), Turkey Lakes Watershed
391 (TLW; Boreal Shield ecozone), Nottawasaga Valley (NW; Mixedwood Plains ecozone), Grand River Watershed
392 (GR; Mixedwood Plains ecozone), and Black Brook Watershed (BBK; Atlantic Maritime ecozone).

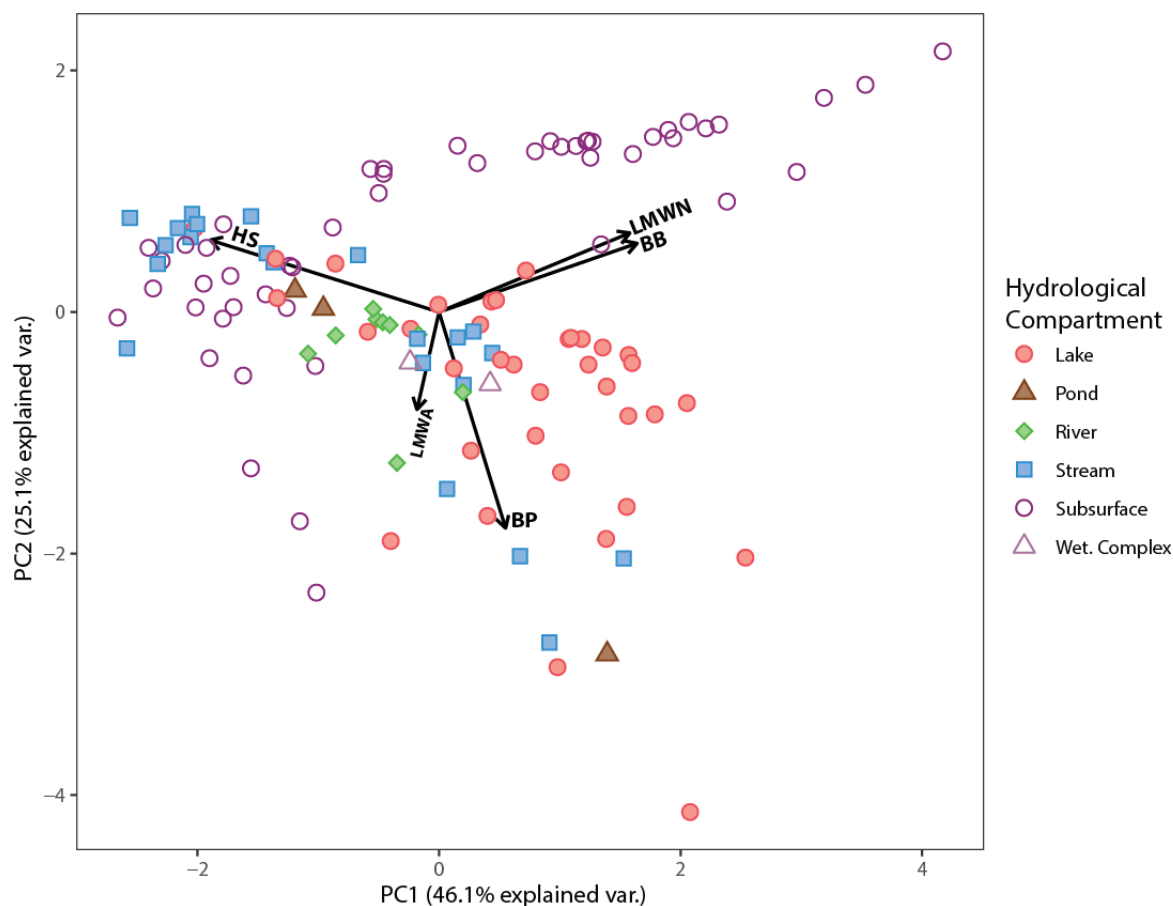


393
 394 *Figure 2:* Comparison of dissolved organic matter concentration (DOM; logarithmic y-scale, a) and specific ultra-violet
 395 absorbance at 254 nm (SUVA; b) across different hydrological compartments. Different ecozones are denoted by different
 396 shapes, and separate locations within each ecozone are differentiated by colour. Included are literature values that use LC-OCD
 397 in South Korea (He et al. 2016) and Spain (Catalán et al. 2017), and are denoted by symbols in grey. Literature values from
 398 South Korea include a maximum and minimum value found within the study (open circle). Random scatter is introduced in the
 399 x-axis for ease of seeing all data points.



400
 401 *Figure 3: Differences in the composition of DOM based on proportions of LC-OCD groups across hydrological compartments:*
 402 *biopolymers (BP; a), humic substances (HS; b), building blocks (BB; c), low molecular weight neutrals (LMWN; d), and low*
 403 *molecular weight acids (LMWA; e). Different ecozones are denoted by different shapes, and separate locations within each*
 404 *ecozone are differentiated by colour. Included are literature values that use LC-OCD in South Korea (He et al. 2016) and Spain*

405 (Catalán et al. 2017), and are denoted by symbols in grey. South Korea include a maximum and minimum value found within
406 the study (open circle). Random scatter is introduced in the x-axis for ease of seeing all data points.



407
408 *Figure 4:* Principal component analyses (PCA) of LC-OCD data (minus wetland groundwater samples) with first and second
409 principal component axes plotted. PCA vectors are included for the proportion of DOM for each LC-OCD group: biopolymers
410 (BP), humic substances fraction (HS), building blocks (BB), low molecular weight neutrals (LMWN), and low molecular weight
411 acids (LMWA).