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Labilization and diversification of pyrogenic dissolved organic matter by microbes

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Abstract

With the increased occurrence of forest fires around the world, interest in the chemistry of pyrogenic organic matter (pyOM) and its fate in the environment has increased. Upon leaching from soils by rain events, significant amounts of dissolved pyOM (pyDOM) enter the aquatic environment and interact with microbial communities that are essential for cycling organic matter within the different biogeochemical cycles. To evaluate the bio-reactivity of pyDOM, aqueous extracts of laboratory-produced chars were incubated with soil microbes and the molecular changes to the composition of pyDOM were probed using ultrahigh resolution mass spectrometry (Fourier transform – ion cyclotron resonance – mass spectrometry). Given that photo-degradation also affects the composition and reactivity of pyDOM during terrigenous-to-marine export, the effects of photochemistry were also evaluated in the context of the bio-reactivity of pyDOM.

Ultrahigh resolution mass spectrometry revealed that, after incubation, many different (both aromatic and aliphatic) compounds were degraded, and new labile compounds, 22 – 40% of which were peptide-like, were produced. This indicated that a portion of pyDOM has been labilized into microbial biomass during the incubations. Fluorescence excitation-emission matrix spectra revealed that some fraction of these new molecules is associated with fluorophores from proteinaceous and/or autochthonous/microbial biomass origin. Two-dimensional ¹H-¹H total correlation NMR spectroscopy identified a peptidoglycan-like backbone within the microbiologically produced compounds. These results are consistent with previous observations of nitrogen from peptidoglycans within the soil and ocean nitrogen cycles.

Interestingly, the exact nature of the bio-produced organic matter was found to vary drastically among samples indicating that the used microbial consortium may produce different exudates based on the composition of the initial pyDOM. Another potential explanation for the vast diversity of molecules is that microbes only consume low molecular weight compounds, but they also produce reactive oxygen species (ROS), which initiate oxidative and recombination reactions that produce new molecules. The observed microbiologically-mediated diversification of pyDOM suggests that pyDOM contributes to the observed large complexity of natural organic matter. More broadly, pyDOM can be substrate for microbial growth and be incorporated in environmental food webs.

1 Introduction

Pyrogenic organic matter (pyOM), the carbonaceous solid residue that is left after biomass burning (e.g., forest fires, biochar production), has been gaining attention in recent years as an important active component of
the global biogeochemical cycles. Compositionally, pyOM is mainly comprised of condensed aromatic compounds (ConAC) of various degrees of condensation and functionalization (Masiello, 2004; Schneider et al., 2010; Wagner et al., 2018). These molecules have been found in various environmental matrices such as soils and sediments (Schmidt and Noack, 2000; Skjemstad et al., 2002; Reisser et al., 2016) and atmospheric aerosols (Wozniak et al., 2008; Bao et al., 2017). In these environmental matrices, ConAC were originally thought to be exclusively stable (“recalcitrant”) due to their highly condensed character (Goldberg, 1985; Masiello and Druffel, 1998). However, more and more studies report the presence of pyrogenic molecules in different aquatic environments (Hockaday et al., 2006; Dittmar and Paeng, 2009; Roebuck et al., 2017; Wagner et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019). These studies support the estimates that riverine systems annually export large amounts of pyrogenic dissolved organic matter (pyDOM) to the global ocean (Dittmar et al., 2012; Jaffé et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016; Marques et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2020). During export, pyDOM is likely altered by various processes resulting in degradation and alteration of its physico-chemical characteristics (Masiello, 2004; Coppola et al., 2019; Wagner et al., 2019). Using laboratory-prepared chars and conservative assumptions, Bostick et al. (2018) approximated that 86% of the leached pyDOM is degradable (e.g., mineralizable to CO₂), which indicates that pyDOM is a very active component within the global carbon cycle, as previously suggested (Druffel, 2004; Lehmann, 2007; Riedel et al., 2016).

In sunlit aquatic environments, photo-degradation is the most significant sink for the ConAC fraction of pyDOM (Stubbins et al., 2012). The photochemistry of ConAC and pyDOM has been studied utilizing either laboratory-prepared pyDOM (Ward et al., 2014; Fu et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Bostick et al., 2020b; Goranov et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020) or ConAC-rich natural organic matter (Stubbins et al., 2010, 2012; Wagner and Jaffé, 2015). These studies have reported that ConAC are exceptionally photo-labile and they degrade through a series of oxygenation, ring-opening, and decarboxylation reactions leading to a pool of smaller aliphatic by-products. Additionally, pyDOM photochemistry has been associated with the production of high fluxes of reactive oxygen species (ROS), important transients involved in the photo-degradation of pyDOM (Fu et al., 2016; Li et al., 2019; Goranov et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). These studies have contributed to a better understanding of the biogeochemical cycling of pyDOM in the presence of sunlight in the environment. Microbial (biotic) pathways are another degradative pathway with high potential for altering and/or mineralizing pyDOM, but they are far less understood.

Biotic reworking of organic molecules is a key mechanism for producing the diverse molecular composition of natural organic matter (Lechtenfeld et al., 2015; Hach et al., 2020). Due to the highly condensed character of pyOM, it is often regarded as bio-recalcitrant, though several studies have shown that a fraction (about 0.5 to 10 %) is indeed bio-degradable (Kuzyakov et al., 2009, 2014; Zimmerman, 2010; Zimmerman et al., 2011). PyOM is mainly comprised of ConAC (Bostick et al., 2018; Wozniak et al., 2020), which contributes to its low bio-degradability (Zimmerman, 2010). By contrast, pyDOM is highly heterogeneous (Wozniak et al., 2020), and in addition to ConAC, it contains numerous low molecular weight (LMW) species (e.g., acetate, methanol, formate; Bostick et al., 2018; Goranov et al., 2020) as well as various pyrogenic aliphatic compounds and inorganic nutrients (Hockaday et al., 2007; Mukherjee and Zimmerman, 2013; Goranov et al., 2020; Wozniak et al., 2020). The very solubility of pyDOM is imparted by the greater abundance of polar functional groups, which would also allow for greater microbial accessibility. To date, there is no study that evaluates the molecular-scale bio-degradability of pyDOM. It is unknown whether and how (e.g., mechanistic pathways, kinetic rates) these different compound groups are bio-degraded.

Additionally, there are concerns that leachates of fire-derived substances may be toxic due to the presence of condensed and ligninaceous aromatics. It has been shown that cellulose- and pinewood-derived biochar water-extracts (pyDOM of laboratory-made biochars) inhibit the growth of cyanobacteria while pyDOM of lignin-derived biochar has no inhibitory effects (Smith et al., 2016). The toxicity has been mainly attributed to polysubstituted phenols in the above-mentioned biochars. In natural systems, however, it is likely that other pyDOM components also play a role in controlling the bio-reactivity of pyDOM. An important very recent finding is that pyOM and pyDOM contain organochlorine compounds (both aliphatic and aromatic; Wozniak et al., 2020), which may enhance the toxicity of these pyrogenic substances. Thus, biotic incubations of pyDOM are needed to reveal if microbial growth can be sustained in a pyDOM/ConAC-rich environment.
To explore these questions, we incubated aqueous biochar leachates with a soil-derived microbial consortium and evaluated the compositional changes to pyDOM using numerous analytical techniques. Laboratory-produced biochars can be considered model pyrogenic substances as they are similar to what is produced during forest fires in the environment (Santín et al., 2017) but have not experienced environmental aging which impacts their physico-chemical properties (Ascough et al., 2011). We have used oak wood because most of riverine dissolved organic matter (DOM) is exported from forested catchments (Hedges et al., 1997), and used two pyrolysis temperatures (400 and 650 °C) representative of forest fire temperatures (Santín et al., 2015, 2016). As photochemistry has been shown to increase the bio-lability of various types of DOM (Kieber et al., 1989; Lindell et al., 1995; Wetzel et al., 1995; Benner and Biddanda, 1998; Moran and Covert, 2003; Qualls and Richardson, 2003; Obernosterer and Benner, 2004; Abboudi et al., 2008; Chen and Jaffé, 2014; Antony et al., 2018), we also incubated pyDOM that had been photo-irradiated. Previous studies of these pyDOM samples showed significant compositional and structural changes after photo-irradiation, which certainly implies different bio-reactivity (Bostick et al., 2020b; Goranov et al., 2020).

In a parallel study of the same samples (Bostick et al., 2020a), we quantified the total organic carbon (TOC) loss, respired CO₂, as well as the changes to the bulk structural composition as determined by one-dimensional ²H nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. Additionally, in that study, benzenepolyarboxylic acids (BPCA) molecular markers were used to quantify the changes specific to the condensed (ConAC) fraction of pyDOM. It was found that pyDOM leachates derived from biochars of higher pyrolysis temperature (650 °C) were less bio-degradable than those from lower temperature (400 °C) leachates, and photo-irradiation increased the bio-lability of pyDOM. Over the 96-day incubation, up to 48% of the carbon was respired to CO₂ following first-order kinetics, with LMW compounds (e.g., acetate, formate, methanol) being preferentially degraded. To elucidate the molecular-level changes taking place during the bio-incubation of pyDOM, and probe the various molecules that are being degraded or produced by soil biota, we examined these samples using ultrahigh resolution mass spectrometry (Fourier transform – ion cyclotron resonance – mass spectrometry, FT-ICR-MS), two-dimensional NMR, and fluorescence spectroscopy. The collective results from these two studies improve our understanding of the degradative pathways of pyDOM and ConAC in the environment and allow us to better interpret observations pertaining to terrigenous-to-marine transfers and global cycling of organic matter.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Preparation of pyDOM samples

Two biochars were prepared by heating laurel oak wood (Quercus hemisphaerica) under N₂ atmosphere at 400 and 650 °C for 3 hours. After grinding and sieving to particles of uniform size (0.25 – 2.00 mm), the chars were leached in 18.1 mΩ MilliQ laboratory-grade water (5 g in 500 mL) over 50 hours on a shaker table. The obtained pyDOM leachates, hereafter referred to as “Oak 400 Fresh” and “Oak 650 Fresh”, were filtered using 0.2 µm Millipore GSWP mixed cellulose ester filters. Physico-chemical characteristics of similarly-produced solid chars and their leachates were reported in several previous studies (Zimmerman, 2010; Mukherjee et al., 2011; Bostick et al., 2018; Wozniak et al., 2020). A fraction of each leachate was also subjected to photo-irradiation for 5 days in a custom-made solar simulator equipped with Q-Lab Corporation UV-A lamps (295 – 365 nm, λMAX = 340 nm, 40 watt) equivalent to natural photo-irradiation of 12 days. Photo-transformation rates, structural changes, photo-irradiation apparatus design, and other relevant information has been published previously (Bostick et al., 2020b; Goranov et al., 2020). Photo-irradiated pyDOM samples will be hereafter referred to as “Oak 400 Photo” and “Oak 650 Photo”. The four samples were diluted to a uniform TOC concentration of 4.7 mgC·L⁻¹ prior to microbial incubation.

2.2 Incubation of pyDOM
Microbial incubation was performed using a soil-derived microbial consortium as an inoculum. Soil from the Austin Cary Memorial Forest (Gainesville, FL) was chosen, because this area is frequently subjected to prescribed burns (Johns, 2016), and its soil microbes likely interact with pyOM and pyDOM on a regular basis. Taxonomic details of its soil microbial characteristics have been published previously (Khodadad et al., 2011). The collected soil was treated to remove roots and detritus, and its water-extract was centrifuged to obtain a pellet. The pellet was then dissolved in 10 mL MilliQ laboratory-grade water to obtain an inoculate, 100 ng mL of which was used to spike 50 mL of each pyDOM substrate. Additionally, microbial nutrients (KH$_2$PO$_4$ and (NH$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$) were provided following Zimmerman (2010) to support a healthy growth medium. Samples were incubated in gas-sealed amber vials on a shaker table at 28 ± 5 °C for 10 days in the dark. Using a double-needle assembly, CO$_2$-free air (Airgas, Zero) was flushed through the samples on days 0, 2, 5, and 10, which oxygenated the samples and removed dissolved inorganic carbon for its measurement, and is reported by Bostick et al. (2020a). A procedural blank and control samples were prepared in the exact same way but were poisoned with HgCl$_2$ immediately following the mixing of the different components (pyDOM, inoculate, nutrients). Additionally, a solution of sucrose (0.5 g C$_{12}$H$_{22}$O$_{11}$ in 40 mL MilliQ laboratory-grade water) was also incubated in the same manner. All incubated samples were poisoned with HgCl$_2$ to terminate microbial activity before shipment to Old Dominion University (Norfolk, VA) for spectroscopic and spectrometric analyses. Prior to spectroscopic analysis (see Sect. 2.3 below) or spectrometric analysis (see Sect. 2.4 below), samples were filtered using acid-washed 0.1 µm Teflon (PTFE) syringe filters. Further details about sample preparation can be found in the parallel study (Bostick et al., 2020a).

### 2.3 Analysis of chromophoric and fluorophoric dissolved organic matter

Chromophoric DOM (CDOM) measurements were performed on a Thermo Scientific Evolution 201 ultraviolet-visible (UV-VIS) spectrophotometer operated in a double-beam mode. A matched Starna quartz cuvette with MilliQ water was used as a reference during all spectral measurements. Spectra were recorded from 230 – 800 nm using a 1 nm step, 0.12 s integration time, and 500 nm/min scan speed. In addition to the double-beam referencing, the average noise in the 700-800 nm spectral region was subtracted from the spectra to correct for any instrument baseline drifts, temperature fluctuations, as well as scattering and refractive effects (Green and Blough, 1994; Helms et al., 2008). After consecutive procedural-blank corrections, the spectra (kept in decadic units) were normalized to the cuvette path length (1.0 cm) and the TOC content (in mg·L$^{-1}$) to convert them to specific absorbance (L·mgC$^{-1}$·cm$^{-1}$; Weishaar et al., 2003). CDOM was quantified by integrating the spectra from 250 – 450 nm (Helms et al., 2008) and is reported in L·mgC$^{-1}$·cm$^{-1}$·nm units.

Fluorophoric DOM (FDOM) measurements were performed on a Shimadzu RF-6000 spectrofluorometer operated in 3D acquisition mode. Samples were analyzed without dilution as no sample yielded absorbance at 230 nm above 0.07 (Miller et al., 2010). Samples were excited from 230 – 500 nm (5 nm step) and emission was recorded over 250 – 650 nm (5 nm step) to obtain excitation-emission matrices (EEMs). Additionally, five replicate water Raman scans were acquired on MilliQ water in 2D emission mode by exciting the sample at 350 nm and fluorescence intensity was monitored over 365 – 450 nm (0.5 nm steps). All measurements were done with 5 nm slit widths of the monochromators, 600 nm/min scan speed, and in high-sensitivity mode.

EEMs were processed in MATLAB using the drEEM toolbox (version 0.4.0.) using previously published routines (Murphy et al., 2010, 2013). Briefly, using the FDOMcorrect.m function, the raw EEMs were adjusted for instrumental bias, blank-corrected using an EEM of the procedural blank, and scaled to adjust for any inner-filter effects using the raw UV-VIS spectra (Kothawala et al., 2013). This function also normalized the EEMs to Raman units (RÚ) after the area of the water Raman peak (peak maximum at 397 nm) had been determined by the ramanintegrationrange.m function (Murphy, 2011) on the averaged water Raman spectrum. The EEMs were then processed using the smootheem.m function to remove 1st and 2nd order Rayleigh signals and Raman scattering. EEMs are visualized and difference plots are generated using an in-house MATLAB script.

### 2.4 Fourier transform - ion cyclotron resonance - mass spectrometry (FT-ICR-MS)
Procedural blank, control, and incubated samples were loaded onto solid-phase extraction cartridges (Agilent Technologies Bond Elut PPL, 100 mg styrene divinyl copolymer) as previously described (Dittmar et al., 2008). Cartridges were eluted with methanol (Fisher Scientific, Optima LC-MS grade) and infused into an Apollo II electrospray ionization (ESI) source interfaced with a Bruker Daltonics Apex Qe FT-ICR-MS operating at 10 T and housed in the College of Sciences Major Instrumentation Cluster (COSMIC) facility at Old Dominion University (Norfolk, VA). The instrument is externally calibrated daily with a polyethylene glycol standard, and a surrogate laboratory pyDOM standard was analyzed before and after pyDOM analyses to verify for the lack of instrumental drift. Additionally, an instrumental blank of methanol was analyzed between samples to verify for the absence of sample carryover. ESI spray voltages were optimized for each sample to assure for consistent spray currents among the samples. For each sample, 300 transients with a 4MWord time domain were collected, co-added, and the resultant free induction decay was zero-filled and sine-bell apodized. After fast Fourier transformation, internal calibration of the resultant mass spectra was performed using naturally abundant fatty acids, dicarboxylic acids, and compounds belonging to the CH$_2$-homologous series as previously described (Sleighter et al., 2008). Then, using an in-house MATLAB script, salt, blank, and isotopologue ($^{13}$C, $^{37}$Cl) peaks were removed. Molecular formulas within ±1 ppm error were assigned to FT-ICR-MS spectral peaks (S/N ≥ 3) using the Molecular Formula Calculator from the National High Magnetic Field Laboratory (Tallahassee, FL). Formula assignments were restricted to elemental composition of $^{12}$C$_{5-n}$, $^1$H$_{1-n}$, $^{14}$N$_{0-5}$, $^{16}$O$_{0-30}$, $^{32}$S$_{0-2}$, $^{31}$P$_{0-2}$, and $^{35}$Cl$_{0-4}$, and were refined using previously established rules (Stubbins et al., 2010). Any ambiguous peak assignments were refined by inclusion within homologous series (CH$_3$, H$_2$, COO, CH$_2$O, O$_2$, H$_2$O, NH$_3$, HCl) following Kujawinski and Behn (2006) and Koch et al. (2007). For all samples, at least 80% of the mass spectral peaks were assigned, and they accounted for at least 93% of the mass spectral magnitude.

Molecular composition was evaluated by plotting the molecular formulas on van Krevelen (vK) diagrams, scatterplots of the formulas’ hydrogen to carbon (H/C) versus oxygen to carbon (O/C) ratios (Van Krevelen, 1950; Kim et al., 2003). Formulas were further categorized using the modified aromaticity index ($A_{\text{MOD}}$), a proxy for the aromatic character of the associated molecule (Koch and Dittmar, 2006, 2016) and calculated as shown in Eq. 1.

$$A_{\text{MOD}} = \frac{1 + C - \frac{1}{2}O - S - \frac{1}{2}(N + P + H + Cl)}{C - \frac{1}{2}O - N - S - P} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

Formulas were classified as following: Condensed aromatic compounds ($\text{ConAC}$, $A_{\text{MOD}}$ ≥ 0.67, number of C-atoms ≥ 15), aromatic (0.67 < $A_{\text{MOD}}$ ≤ 0.50), olefinic/acyclic (0 < $A_{\text{MOD}}$ < 0.50), and aliphatic ($A_{\text{MOD}}$ = 0). Additionally, N-containing formulas falling in the ranges of 1.5 ≤ H/C ≤ 2 and 0.1 ≤ O/C ≤ 0.67 were classified as peptide-like. Statistical evaluation of means was performed in MATLAB using the “anova1” function which performs one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Post-hoc Scheffé’s assessments were performed using the “multicomp” function in the same software.

For the Kendrick Mass Defect (KMD) series analysis (described later in the manuscript), Kendrick Mass (KM) was first calculated using the molecular weight of each compound (i.e., calculated mass from its molecular formula) following Eq. 2. Then, the Kendrick Nominal Mass (KNM) was calculated as the rounded integer (no decimals) of the Kendrick Mass (KM) as shown in Eq. 3. The Kendrick Nominal Mass (KMD) is the difference between KM and KNM, i.e., the decimals (Eq. 4). This analysis was performed for oxygen (O), carbonyl (CO), and carboxyl (COO) series (S).

$$\text{KM} = \text{Molecular Weight} \times S \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

where $S = \frac{15.9949146}{16.000000}$ for O series; $\frac{27.9949146}{28.000000}$ for CO series; and $\frac{43.9988292}{44.000000}$ for COO series
2.5 Two-dimensional Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) spectroscopy

One-dimensional $^1$H NMR spectra of the samples of this project were published and evaluated in the parallel study (Bostick et al., 2020a). For the study of this manuscript, a select sample was analyzed using two-dimensional $^1$H-$^1$H total correlation spectroscopy (TOCSY) to further evaluate several functional groups of interest. Analyses were performed on a 400 MHz (9.4 Tesla) Bruker BioSpin AVANCE III spectrometer fitted with a double-resonance broadband z-gradient inverse (BBI) probe in the COSMIC facility. Samples were analyzed without pre-concentration and volumetrically diluted with deuterated water (D$_2$O, Acros Organics, 100% D) to obtain a 90:10 H$_2$O:D$_2$O solution. Further details of sample preparation and acquisition of 1D $^1$H spectra are published elsewhere (Bostick et al., 2020a). To obtain ultraclean NMR spectra, NMR tubes were soaked with aqua regia, rinsed extensively with ultrapure water, and individually tested as blanks to verify that no background peaks are present. While $^1$H spectra were originally processed using an exponential multiplication function (line broadening) of 5 Hz to obtain higher signal-to-noise for a more accurate and precise integration (Bostick et al., 2020a), here they were re-processed using a multiplication function of 1.5 Hz to better observe the splitting (multiplicity) patterns of the peaks of interest. TOCSY spectra were acquired using the phase-sensitive gradient-enhanced mlevgpphw5 pulse program. It utilizes a 17-step Malcolm Levitt (MLEV-17) composite scheme (Bax and Davis, 1985) for magnetization transfer between any coupled nuclear spins, and a W5-WATERGATE element for water suppression (Liu et al., 1998). Both short-range and long-range spin-spin couplings were observed using 30 ms and 100 ms mixing times, respectively. The data were then zero-filled to a 4096 x 1024 matrix and then fitted with a π/2-shifted (SSB = 2) sine-squared window function. Linear prediction to 256 points was used in the F$_1$ dimension. All spectra were internally calibrated to the sharp distinguishable methanol singlet at 3.34 ppm (Gottlieb et al., 1997), and then were phased and baseline-corrected. T$_1$-noise removal was performed by calculating the positive projection of rows with no resonances and the summed projections were subtracted from all rows in the spectrum (Klevit, 1985). The same procedure was performed for all columns (F$_2$ dimension).

3 Results

3.1 Molecular changes to pyDOM after microbial degradation

Ultrahigh resolution mass spectrometric analysis of the bio-incubated and corresponding control pyDOM leachates revealed significant changes in molecular composition after the 10-day incubation (Fig. 1). The identified molecular formulas for these samples were classified into one of three groups using a presence-absence approach (Stubbins et al., 2010; Sleighter et al., 2012). This approach identifies any common formulas among the two samples being compared (control and bio-incubated), as well as any formulas that are unique to each sample. It is important to note that the electrospray ionization (ESI) source is prone to biases, and the analytical window of FT-ICR-MS depends most critically on it. Thus, it may not identify compounds that are present if they are not ionizable (Stenson et al., 2002; Patriarca et al., 2020). Therefore, it is essential that observations by FT-ICR-MS are always paired with supplementary quantitative techniques (optical analyses, NMR, etc.) in order to determine if the identified trends are real or an artifact of ESI charge competition (D’Andrilli et al., 2020).

\[
\text{KNM} = \text{integer of } \text{KM} \quad \text{Eq. 3}
\]
\[
\text{KMD} = \text{KM} - \text{KNM} \quad \text{Eq. 4}
\]
Figure 1. Van Krevelen (vK) diagrams of 10-day microbially incubated pyDOM leachates. Formulas are classified as bio-labile (molecular formulas only found in the “killed” control pyDOM leachates) and bio-produced (formulas that are only found in the bio-incubated samples). Formulas that are present in both the control and bio-incubated samples are operationally classified as bio-resistant and not shown for clarity. These three classes of molecules are separately plotted on vK diagrams and shown in Sect. 2 of the Supplement (Figs. S2-4). The number of formulas found in each of these pools is listed in the legends along with corresponding percentages (relative to total number of formulas in the two sample being compared). The black lines indicate modified aromaticity index cutoffs (AI$_{MOD}$; Koch and Dittmar, 2006, 2016), and the red box indicates the peptide region (valid only for N-containing formulas).

In all samples, nearly a third of the formulas (23–31%) present in the control samples were not observed after the biotic incubations, which is proportional to the organic carbon losses observed by Bostick et al. (2020a). Interestingly, for all leachates the degraded (“bio-labile”) molecules were not from a specific area of the vK diagrams but rather represent a broad range of H/C and O/C ratios and compound types (see Fig. S2). This variety of compound characteristics among bio-labile molecules suggests that the degradation pathway may not be from microbial consumption alone. It would be unlikely for the soil microorganisms to utilize organic matter compounds as food indiscriminately. Most interestingly, it is evident that large numbers of aromatic (AI$_{MOD}$ ≥ 0.50) and some ConAC (AI$_{MOD}$ ≥ 0.67) formulas are lost, in agreement with observed losses in CDOM (Fig. S1 in the Supplement), as well as aryl functional groups (measured by $^1$H NMR) and ConAC (measured by BPCA analysis) reported in the parallel study (Bostick et al., 2020a). Losses of specific compound classes, especially...
ConAC (due to their low ionizability) might be considered an artifact due to competition processes in the ESI source (Stenson et al., 2002; Patriarca et al., 2020). The agreement between FT-ICR-MS and other quantitative data (UV-VIS, NMR, TOC, BPCA) confirms the interpretation of degradation. Approximately half of the formulas (37 – 56%) in the original pyDOM leachates are classified, using the presence/absence approach, as bio-resistant (observed before and after biotic degradation). These formulas are located in all areas of the vK diagram (Fig. S3), showing variable oxygenation and aromaticity. Furthermore, the relative peak magnitudes of these formulas did not change significantly ($R^2 > 0.95$, Fig. S9; Sleighter et al., 2012), suggesting that a wide variety of pyDOM molecules appear to be recalcitrant to microbial degradation. Using the available molecular data, it is not possible to attribute the observed recalcitrance to any molecular property. Therefore, it is likely that some of these molecules are still bio-labile and would have degraded in due time if the incubations were sampled at later time points. Longer biotic incubations should be conducted in future studies to fully differentiate between labile and recalcitrant pyDOM molecules.

The use of hydrogen-to-carbon ratio (H/C) versus molecular weight (MW) plots has also been useful in interpreting ultrahigh resolution mass spectrometry data (e.g., Gonsior et al., 2018; Powers et al., 2019; Valle et al., 2020). Such graphs are presented using the presence-absence approach in Figs. S5-8 in Sect. 3 of the Supplement. These graphics help evaluate how different types of compounds (aliphatic vs aromatic) change relative to their MW. For both Oak 400 leachates, it is clear that large aromatic molecules (H/C < 1.5, MW > 550 Da) are removed during the biotic degradation, and smaller (300 < MW < 550) aromatic compounds are produced. These aromatic molecules that are being degraded into smaller ones are mainly ligninaceous and not ConAC, in agreement with the BPCA data published by Bostick et al. (2020a). With regards to the aliphatic molecules (H/C > 1.5), it is clear that molecules of a wide range of sizes are removed and created during the incubation suggesting that molecular weight is not a critical factor in their bio-lability. This is in apparent disagreement with the general knowledge that microbes preferentially consume low molecular weight substrates (e.g., Søndergaard and Middelboe, 1995), which was also concluded for these samples by Bostick et al. (2020a). The consumption of large molecules indicates that microbes utilize extracellular enzymes to degrade them into smaller substrates (Billen et al., 1990) or secondary degradative pathways are also at play.

### 3.2 Composition of bio-produced organic matter

The bio-produced organic compounds can be evaluated in various ways to examine the processes that may have occurred during the incubations. Using a presence/absence approach (Sleighter et al., 2012), the bio-produced formulas of each sample are compared with those of the other samples (Table 1). No significant overlap was found (2 – 320 formulas, 0 – 12%) among the molecules produced in the incubated pyDOM samples. Furthermore, no significant match was found between the bio-produced formulas of incubated pyDOM and those of the sucrose control sample (63 – 94 formulas, 3%, Table 1). These observations indicate that the products of the incubations were either vastly different for each sample and may depend on the starting substrate or were further altered post-exudation to result in their diversification.

#### Table 1. Overlap of bio-produced molecular formulas among samples. The number of formulas corresponds to the formulas in common between the two samples being compared, and the percentage is relative to the total number of formulas in the two formula sets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Oak 400 Fresh</th>
<th>Oak 400 Photo</th>
<th>Oak 650 Fresh</th>
<th>Oak 650 Photo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oak 400 Fresh</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oak 400 Photo</td>
<td>320 (12%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oak 650 Fresh</td>
<td>126 (4%)</td>
<td>104 (5%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oak 650 Photo</td>
<td>165 (5%)</td>
<td>81 (3%)</td>
<td>2 (0%)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sucrose</td>
<td>94 (3%)</td>
<td>63 (3%)</td>
<td>68 (3%)</td>
<td>83 (3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A significant fraction of the bio-produced organic matter was characterized as peptide-like (N-containing, 1.5 ≤ H/C ≤ 2.0, 0.1 ≤ O/C ≤ 0.67). This indicates that microbes convert a part of pyDOM into labile DOM (Moran et al., 2016; Vorobev et al., 2018), a process hereafter referred to as “microbial labilization”. Given that the pyDOM samples used in this study were poor in organic nitrogen, the microbes must have used the inorganic nitrogen (NH$_4^+$) that was provided as a nutrient and converted some or all of it into microbial biomass. The peptide-like microbiologically-produced formulas comprise 22 – 40% of the bio-produced formulas (Table S2 in the Supplement), and the results of the comparative analyses described above also imply that these proteinaceous formulas are of highly variable composition. Their molecular diversity is additionally evaluated using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) reported in Sect. 6 of the Supplement. This statistical tool indicated high molecular variability supporting the findings by the presence/absence comparisons presented earlier (Table 1). The results from these statistical assessments support the findings by the presence/absence comparisons and these findings collectively conclude that the microbial incubations of pyDOM created pools of new, very diverse molecules, a process hereafter referred to as “microbial diversification”. As FT-ICR-MS was performed with soft electrospray ionization with no fragmentation, the structure of the observed molecules is inferred from the elemental composition of the assigned molecular formulas. Another possibility for these N-containing molecules is that they were formed by radical processes that coupled pyDOM molecules with the NH$_4^+$ nutrient that was added to support microbial growth. A preliminary experiment (data not shown) showed that mixing pyDOM with NH$_4^+$ did not result in abiotic formation of new molecules (for example via Michael addition; McKee et al., 2014), but abiotic formation was not tested in the presence of radicals.

To confirm that these formulas were associated with proteinaceous structures and are not just N-containing compounds that coincidentally plotted in the 'peptide region', spectrofluorometric analysis was performed to obtain excitation-emission matrices (EEMs) of the pyDOM samples before and after bio-incubation (Fig. 2). The data for Oak 650 Photo is not reported as the produced EEM spectra were of questionable quality, and as the sample was in very limited amounts, analytical validation and quality assessment were not possible.
Figure 2. Fluorescence excitation-emission matrices (EEMs) of control (left panels) and bio-incubated (middle panels) pyDOM samples. Difference spectra are shown in the right panels. The black box indicates the region where compounds of proteinaceous and autochthonous/microbial origin fluoresce (Coble, 1996; Coble et al., 2014), with tyrosine-like ($B_1$ and $B_2$) and tryptophan-like ($T_1$ and $T_2$) peaks labeled on the difference plots (right panels).

Proteinaceous organic matter has a highly characteristic fluorophoric signature due to the distinguishable signals of the aromatic amino acids tyrosine and tryptophan. The short Stokes’ shifts of these fluorophores allow them to spectroscopically separate on the EEM plot allowing for identification of related labile substances (Wünsch et al., 2019). Other amino acids, namely histidine and phenylalanine, are also fluorophoric, but are not easily identified in EEM data of complex matrices. A simplistic approach to evaluate the change after the bio-incubation is to use difference plots (e.g., Hemmler et al., 2019). For all samples, strong proteinaceous signals evolve after biotic incubations indicating that molecules of proteinaceous and autochthonous/microbial origin are produced (Coble, 1996; Coble et al., 2014). This indicated that peptide-like molecules observed using FT-ICR-
MS are not an artifact due to charge competition in the source, but are truly bio-produced, validating the findings of the presence/absence analysis. There are subtle differences among the EEMs of all control and bio-incubated samples indicative of the high variability in fluorophoric content of these samples. This agrees with the observed variability in molecular composition described earlier. An interesting observation is that in the two Oak 400 pyDOM incubations, tyrosine-like fluorescence (peaks B₁ and B₂) decreases after biotic incubation while tryptophan fluorescence (peaks T₁ and T₂) increases. In contrast, the tryptophan-like fluorophores are degraded and tyrosine-like ones are produced after biotic incubation of Oak 650 Fresh pyDOM. It must be noted that there are proteinaceous fluorophores (and peptide-like formulas) in the control samples resulting from the addition of the microbial inoculate, but the associated fluorophores were present in low amounts. Thus, proteinaceous fluorescence signals in the control samples are not unexpected. However, a decrease in proteinaceous fluorophores is opposite of what is expected after significant microbial growth. Therefore, it is possibly due to fluorophoric compounds in this system being highly bio-labile and/or susceptible to oxidation by specific ROS, but the residual post-oxidation by-products would be still detectable by FT-ICR-MS and classified as peptide-like compounds. The loss of tyrosine-like fluorophores in the Oak 400 samples, and loss of tryptophan-like fluorophores in Oak 650 Fresh, are indicative of different microbial physiology and exudates in these incubations. The complexity of these EEM spectra and the compound-specific changes observed here indicate that proteomic and/or metabolomic analyses (e.g., Nalven et al., 2020) are necessary in future microbiological studies of pyDOM in order to fully understand the changes in molecular composition during such incubations.

To determine if the bio-produced formulas are from true proteins, or are compounds with residual proteinaceous fluorophores, the formulas were evaluated in the context of possible combinations of amino acids that would be singly charged. Given that microbes exude large proteins (molecular weight > 30 kDa) such as lignin peroxidases, manganese peroxidases, and laccases (Higuchi, 2004), the peptide-like formulas observed by FT-ICR-MS (analytical window of 200-1000 Da) may have resulted from hydrolysis of the above-mentioned enzymes (or other proteinaceous exudates). If that is the case, the hydrolysates would likely have had a simple oligomeric composition. To test this, the bio-produced peptide-like formulas in each sample were compared to a library of 888,009 possible combinations of 20 amino acids (oligomeric sequences of 2-7 residues). Only a small number of oligopeptides were identified (5 – 18 oligopeptides of 2 – 5 amino acids, Tables S2 and S3 in the Supplement) which is counter to the proposed idea that hydrolysis of microbial exudates produced these newly observed peptide-like formulas. The lack of identified oligopeptides also calls into question the idea that microbial processes were solely responsible for the high variability of the bio-produced organic matter observed after the microbial incubation of pyDOM.

In an attempt to further elucidate the composition of these bio-produced N-containing substances, we re-evaluated the previously published ¹H NMR data of these samples (Bostick et al., 2020a) in greater detail. Additionally, to further elucidate the connectivity between observed functional groups, two-dimensional ¹H-¹H total correlation NMR spectroscopy (TOCSY) was utilized on a select sample. Figure 3 shows the TOCSY spectra of the bio-incubated Oak 650 Fresh sample.
There are three groups of resonances that were found in all samples, even in the controls (although of small contributions relative to the total spectral signal). These resonances have not been previously observed in the $^1$H NMR spectra of these pyDOM samples (Bostick et al., 2018; Goranov et al., 2020) indicating that they represent by-products of the microbial incubations, likely microbial biomass. In the control samples, the compounds associated with these resonances must be from the soil inoculant that was added. The three resonances are also observed to be in the same coupling network indicating that they are a part of the same or similar structures. Due to the very low concentration of these samples ($3.5 - 4$ mgC·L$^{-1}$), the NMR analysis did not allow for a high-resolution structural elucidation, but some distinct signatures were nonetheless observed. The deshielded aliphatic peaks at $\delta = 2.1 - 2.3$ ppm have a complex multiplicity pattern, a characteristic feature of alicyclic structures. These are likely residual carbohydrate moieties which have lost most of their O-containing groups through various cleavage processes and their backbone C$_{\text{alicyclic}}$·H resonances have been shifted upfield. The peak at 1.55 ppm is from $\beta$-hydrogens to a heteroatom (H$\beta$·C$_{\alpha}$·X, where X = O, N, S), and these are known to be associated with peptidoglycans (Spence et al., 2011). The TOCSY analysis was performed with two different mixing times ($\tau$) of 30 (blue) and 100 ms (red), respectively. The 1D $^1$H spectrum is shown as a projection on top (black).

Figure 3. Two-dimensional $^1$H-$^1$H total correlation spectroscopy (TOCSY) NMR spectra of the bio-incubated Oak 650 Fresh sample. Short- and long-range couplings were allowed to evolve during mixing times ($\tau$) of 30 (blue) and 100 ms (red), respectively. The 1D $^1$H spectrum is shown as a projection on top (black).
mixing times (τ = 30 and τ = 100 ms) in order to evaluate short-range (2 – 3 bond) and long-range (4 – 6 bond) connectivities. Based on the observed couplings the observed resonances are vicinal to each other (3 bonds away). This indicates that these functional groups are closely bound in the peptidoglycan substances they likely represent.

All of these analyses of the molecules observed after the biotic incubation of the four pyDOM samples conclude that the observed biochemical processes in these systems are complex and difficult to unambiguously interpret. Based on the findings above it is clear that these formulas can originate from three different sources:

1) exoenzymes, which microbes use to extracellularly degrade larger molecules into smaller ones (Hyde and Wood, 1997; Higuchi, 2004);

2) peptidoglycans, which likely leached into solution after bacterial death and cell lysis (Yavitt and Fahey, 1984); and

3) other metabolites and exudates involved in the physiology of the different microbes in the used consortium (e.g., signaling compounds).

The significant degradation of pyDOM and production of these biological compounds indicates that microbes successfully converted the presumably carbon-rich recalcitrant pyrogenic molecules into more labile substances, a process we hereafter refer to as “microbial labilization”. However, the fact that the observed bio-produced labile molecules are not identifiable as simple oligopeptides, and are present in significantly different composition among the four samples, suggests that this molecular diversity may not be caused by predictable biotic reactions but by random radical-driven processes. Further evidence for the random radical-driven processes comes from the observed degradation of molecules across the whole vK space (Figs. 1 and S2), which is unusual because microbes generally preferentially consume smaller aliphatic species (Berggren et al., 2010a,b; Kirchman, 2018).

3.3 Radical oxygenation as a potential source of molecular diversity

Microbial physiology has been associated with the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which have been shown to be important in the degradation of various types of organic compounds (e.g., Scully et al., 2003; McNally et al., 2005; Porcal et al., 2013; Trustiak et al., 2018; Xiao et al., 2020). A recent study showed that radicals can degrade various types of ligninaceous molecules (Waggoner et al., 2017) suggesting that microbi ally induced radical reactions can target a variety of pyDOM molecules. While there were no ROS measurements made in this study, we have performed Kendrick Mass Defect (KMD) analysis of the FT-ICR-MS data (Kendrick, 1963; Hughey et al., 2001) to seek evidence for radical action. The KMD analysis identifies formulas that differ by any repeating structural moiety (e.g., -CH2-). To identify potential products of radical attack, we have evaluated the FT-ICR-MS data in the context of oxygenation, i.e., searched the mass lists for formulas differing by one oxygen atom (addition of hydroxyl group), carbonyl group (addition of aldehydes or ketones), and carboxyl groups (Fig. 4).
Figure 4. Kendrick Mass Defect (KMD) analysis using oxygen (O) series of the bio-produced formulas of Oak 400 Fresh pyDOM. Panel a) shows the whole KMD plot while panel b) shows an expanded region of it. Formulas not part of the O KMD series are colored in gray. Formulas in dark green are proposed substrates, and their oxygenation products are colored in light green. Only the molecular formulas for one of the series (KMD = 0.4174 Da) are labeled on panel b), while for the rest of the molecules, only the substrate formula and the number of oxygens in the oxygenation products are listed for clarity. The red arrows in panel b) show the formation of the four oxygenation products of the \( \text{C}_{24}\text{H}_{40}\text{O}_{5} \) substrate after a sequential attack by hydroxyl radicals (•OH). Panel c) shows possible chemical reactions that can cause an increase of number of oxygens. Panel d) shows further oxidative processes involving the formation of keto and carboxyl groups which can contribute to the degradation of pyDOM, as well as to the formation of DOM. The KMD plots for all samples are shown on Figs. S10-12 in the Supplement.

The mathematics behind the KMD analysis (see Sect. 2.4) convert the mass of the molecular formula (also known as the IUPAC mass) to a “Kendrick” mass, whose mass is on a different scale which is specific for the selected structural moiety. On Fig. 4a, an example is shown with the KMD analysis for molecules differing by one oxygen (-O-). On the regular (IUPAC) mass scale, such formulas would differ by 15.994915 Da, but on the Kendrick “O” mass scale, they differ by 16 Da. The difference between the Kendrick Mass, KM (e.g., 408.2876...
Da) and the Kendrick Nominal Mass, KNM (408 Da) is the Kendrick Mass Defect, KMD (i.e., 0.2876 Da), and formulas with the exact same KMD differ by one or more oxygens, and lie on a KMD series. Visually these formulas would plot on horizontal lines on the KMD plot as indicated by the dashed lines in Fig. 4b. Taking the series of KMD = 0.4174, this evaluation shows that there are five formulas in this particular KMD series that differ in number of oxygens (C_{24}H_{40}O_{5-10}). This implies that once C_{25}H_{40}O_{5} is produced, it acts as a substrate and the other four formulas (C_{24}H_{40}O_{6-10}) are produced by oxygenation (likely in a sequential manner: C_{24}H_{40}O_{5} \rightarrow C_{24}H_{40}O_{6} \rightarrow C_{24}H_{40}O_{7} \rightarrow C_{24}H_{40}O_{8} \rightarrow C_{24}H_{40}O_{10}). This can happen via oxygenation by hydroxyl radical (•OH) attacks. This ROS can abstract a hydrogen from C-H bonds and the hydrogen is substituted with an OH- group, resulting in the formation of alcohols (C-HOH) as shown in Fig. 4c. This is likely how the oxygenation products shown in Fig. 4a and 4b have formed. Evidence for such reactions will be found on the KMD plots as evolution of a new molecule within the same KMD series, but with a different number of oxygens. Further radical attack results in formation of polyols (Fig.4c). In the case of formation of geminal diols (two alcohol groups on the same carbon atom), they can rearrange to aldehydes or ketones via keto-enol tautomerism (Fig. 4d). Further radical attack would produce carboxyl groups, which can also be radically cleaved, and DOM radicals be formed. These radicals (as well as any other radical intermediate in this pathway) can be then further paired with hydrogen radicals (•H) from the solution, other •OH radicals, or other radicalized pyDOM or proteinaceous species.

Using KMD analysis, formulas produced by oxygenation were identified and plotted individually (Fig. 5). It is assumed that the smallest molecule in each series is the substrate and any molecules with more oxygens are oxygenation products.
Figure 5. Van Krevelen diagrams evaluating oxygenation products among the bio-produced formulas of the four incubated pyDOM samples. Formulas not part of any of the oxygenation KMD series (O, CO, or COO) are colored in gray. Formulas in dark green are substrates with their oxygenation products colored in light green. The number of formulas in each of these pools are shown in the legends (along with corresponding percentages). The black lines indicate modified aromaticity index cutoffs (AI\textsubscript{MOD}; Koch and Dittmar, 2006, 2016).

KMD analysis revealed that about a third (34 – 748, 3 – 42%) of the bio-produced formulas in these pyDOM samples could be classified as products of oxygenation reactions, likely driven by ROS species such as the hydroxyl radical (•OH). This is in agreement with previously observed cross-linking of microbial compounds through oxidative processes (Sun et al., 2017). The majority of the formulas, however, were not found to be products of oxidation as they did not lie on neither of the evaluated KMD series (O, CO, nor COO). Therefore, these compounds are likely formulas of exudates which were resistant to radical attacks or are formulas of compounds which have already been radically coupled with other compounds to result in unrecognizable molecules by the KMD analysis.

Additional evidence for intense radical processes in these systems is the evolution of bio-produced unsaturated aliphatic compounds (1 < H/C < 2, O/C <2) on the vK diagrams (Figs. 1 and S4). ROS can attack aliphatic and aromatic compounds, open aromatic and alicyclic rings, cleave oxygen- or nitrogen-containing functionalities, and produce highly aliphatic molecules, as previously observed after photo-irradiation of pyDOM (Goranov et al., 2020), ConAC (Zeng et al., 2000a,b), and radical-based degradation studies of lignin (Waggoner et al., 2015, 2017; Waggoner and Hatcher, 2017; Khatami et al., 2019a, b). ROS can also attack any of the proteinaceous exudates and peptidoglycans cleaving them from many of their functional groups and converting them into the observed unsaturated aliphatic compounds. These produced aliphatic compounds could also contribute to the newly produced N-containing (“peptide-like”) compounds observed by FT-ICR-MS if they are oxygenated by ROS post-formation. However, this seems unlikely as data from the supplementary fluorescence and NMR analyses support the formation of microbial biomass. These indirect observations of intense radical processes indicate that the microbial incubations of pyDOM are extremely complex systems, and future studies need to employ specialized more bio-analytical techniques to fully understand the processes occurring in them.

While FT-ICR-MS peak magnitudes are considered to be semi-quantitative, making it generally impossible to quantify the different bio-labile and bio-produced compounds, the ultrasensitivity of this technique ensures detection of all compounds that are within its analytical window. Here, the number of molecular formulas can be used as a quantitative measure for molecular diversity (e.g., Gurganus et al., 2015). Previously published liquid-state \textsuperscript{1}H NMR data for the same samples (Bostick et al., 2020a) provide a quantitative measure of functional group content. Strong positive and negative correlations were observed between the numbers of bio-labile and bio-produced formulas and the percent NMR spectral signal accounted for by olefinic functionalities and methanol, respectively (Fig. 6 and Table S4). These correlations suggest that the diversity of bio-degraded (bio-labile) and bio-produce molecules was related in some way with a process related to the availability of methanol (CH\textsubscript{3}OH) and olefinic functionalities (C=C) in pyDOM.
Figure 6. Correlation analysis between the number of bio-labile and bio-produced formulas detected by FT-ICR-MS and relative intensity (in %) of olefinic functionalities (C=C) and methanol (CH$_3$OH) as measured by liquid-state $^1$H NMR and reported by Bostick et al. (2020a). No significant correlations were found between other functional groups and the number of bio-produced or bio-labile formulas (data shown in Table S4 of the Supplement).

Olefinic functionalities have been recently identified as important structural motifs in the composition of pyDOM and were observed to degrade in photochemical experiments due to their high reactivity with ROS species (Goranov et al., 2020). Although they are in low abundance in pyDOM (< 10%), it is likely they act as important intermediates in the degradative pathways of pyDOM. The olefinic bonds can be homolytically cleaved when attacked by radicals and effectively act as radical-accelerators that further propagate radical-mediated organic matter transformations. Thus, the abundance of olefins can further increase the abundance of radicals and contribute to the elevated molecular diversity resulting in the linear relationship shown in Fig. 6.

The other correlation between molecular diversity and NMR data is observed to be with methanol (CH$_3$OH), a very sharp highly distinguishable singlet at $\delta = 3.34$ ppm in $^1$H NMR spectra (Gottlieb et al., 1997). As it is a common contaminant in NMR analysis, special precautions were taken to obtain ultraclean spectra (see Sect. 2.5). Methanol is a species that is naturally present in pyDOM (Bostick et al., 2018), and while it is generally considered to be toxic to microbes (Dyrda et al., 2019), there are methylotrophic bacteria and fungi (microbes of the families methylcoccaceae and methylbacteriaceae) that can utilize it as a substrate (Chistoserdova et al., 2003; Kolb and Stacheter, 2013; Chistoserdova and Kalyuzhnaya, 2018). These species have been previously observed in the soil from the area where the microbial inoculum was extracted from (Khodadad et al., 2011), suggesting that the degradation of methanol may be biotic. In fact, in these samples, methanol, along with the other two measured low molecular weight substances, acetate and formate, was nearly completely degraded over the 10-day incubation (Bostick et al., 2020a).

The inverse relationship between the content of methanol and molecular diversity (Fig. 6) can be interpreted in several ways. Firstly, methanol could be exhibiting toxicity to the microbes that assimilate pyDOM, as has been observed previously (Dyrda et al., 2019). This, however, is unlikely for the pyDOM systems studied here because the sample with the highest amount of methanol (Oak 400 Photo, ~3.7% CH$_3$OH) was the second most bio-reactive (Bostick et al., 2020a). Instead, the observed strong negative correlation may be explained by the fact that methanol is a known radical-scavenger (Múčka et al., 2013). If, as we propose, the molecular diversity
results from the activity of radical processes, an increasing concentration of methanol would quench these radicals thereby decreasing their activity and limiting the molecular diversity. This would explain the negative relationship depicted by the correlation shown in Fig. 6.

4 Discussion

4.1 Multiple pathways for the alteration of pyDOM by microbes

Using a variety of analytical platforms in this and the parallel study (Bostick et al., 2020a), significant quantitative and qualitative losses were observed when pyDOM was subjected to incubation with a microbial consortium collected from a site impacted by forest fires. Additionally, labile and diverse compounds were produced during these incubations. Due to the high complexity of pyDOM, the changes are not straightforward, and there are at least two important pathways at play, 1) degradation through microbial assimilation (consumption of pyDOM), and 2) degradation/transformation via radical-mediated reactions (e.g., oxygenation) by ROS produced from microbial exoenzymes. These two pathways are discussed in the context of degradation of pyDOM and formation of new labile and diverse molecules.

4.1.1 Molecular degradation of pyDOM

A surprising observation in this study is that there was a uniform loss of pyDOM molecules from all regions of the V diagrams. Microbes, it is generally presumed, preferentially assimilate small non-aromatic substances such as carbohydrates, proteins, low molecular weight acids (Berggren et al., 2010a,b; Kirchman, 2018). Thus, the aromatic fraction of pyDOM, mainly the ConAC, are generally considered to be bio-recalcitrant (Goldberg, 1985; Masiello, 2004). In addition to the condensed character of many of the molecules, there are significant numbers of potentially toxic organochlorine compounds, of both aliphatic and aromatic character, in pyDOM (Wozniak et al., 2020). Thus, the finding of the major biological activity in these samples and the significant amount of carbon, including aromatic carbon, that was mineralized, is a very significant finding for the wildfire biogeochemistry community (Bostick et al., 2020a).

Although pyDOM is highly heterogeneous (Wozniak et al., 2020), the observation of diverse molecular consumption is not unique to it. In a recent microbial degradation study of snow DOM, Antony et al. (2017) observed that both aromatic (including ConAC, lignin, and tannins) and aliphatic formulas were bio-degraded. This is likely due to microbes evolving chemical mechanisms to thrive in the extreme conditions of glaciers (Antony et al., 2016). Analogously, as there have been previous prescribed fires in the area from which the microbes for this study were extracted (Johns, 2016), it is also possible that our organisms have adapted to the presence of ConAC and other pyrogenic substances, developing mechanisms for their assimilation (Judd et al., 2007).

While microbial assimilation of pyDOM compounds certainly occurred, our molecular data show that there was a second degradative pathway which likely contributed to the extensive molecular alteration, and to the significant loss of carbon that was quantified in the parallel study (Bostick et al., 2020a). While some microbial exoenzymes operate via hydrolytic pathways (amylases, lipases, proteases, cellulases, β-galactosidases, etc.), many other enzymes operate through oxidative (electron-withdrawing) pathways. Examples of such enzymes are the various lignin-modifying enzymes in the peroxidase (lignin peroxidases, manganese peroxidases, etc.) and phenoloxidase (e.g., laccases) families (Higuchi, 2004). Thus, reactive oxygen species are usually produced and involved in the microbial degradation of organic matter in the environment.

The bio-labile molecules in the studied pyDOM samples are of highly variable degree of oxygenation, aromaticity, and size (some MW > 550 Da). Thus, microbial exoenzymes would have been needed to reduce the size of substrates into smaller units that could pass through microbial cell membranes (Sinsabaugh et al., 1997; Fuchs et al., 2011; Burns et al., 2013) and be consumed by the biota. The presence of enzymatic compounds is confirmed by observation of peptide-like compounds (FT-ICR-MS analysis) and proteinaceous fluorophores (spectrofluorometric analysis). An important finding is that a preferential degradation of ConAC of smaller
molecular weights was observed (Bostick et al., 2020a). As small ConAC (i.e., oxygenated PAHs) are known to be toxic (e.g., Idowu et al., 2019), it is unlikely that they were directly consumed by the microbes. These substances are highly susceptible to attacks by ROS, which is likely how they were degraded in these samples. Thus, we speculate that microbes are most likely not directly consuming ConAC, but rather, are degrading them indirectly using ROS. These radicals can oxygenate pyDOM with various functional groups (e.g., hydroxy, aldehyde/keto, carboxyl), and can also cleave functional groups (e.g., methoxy functionalities), open aromatic rings, and completely mineralize compounds to inorganic carbon (CO, CO₂, HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻) as shown on Fig. 4. ROS have been previously shown to be very important in pyDOM photochemistry (Ward et al., 2014; Fu et al., 2016; Goranov et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020), and it is likely that they play an important role in the microbial degradation of pyDOM as well.

More evidence for radical species involvement is provided by the peptidoglycan molecules produced during pyDOM incubation. While these molecules are generally large (Vollmer et al., 2008) and would not be detected as singly-charged molecules using FT-ICR-MS (analytical window covering m/z 200-1000), their hydrolytic products (small oligopeptides) would be observed. Very few peptide sequences (5 – 18 oligopeptides of 2 – 5 residues) were identified among the bio-produced formulas indicating that such hydrolysates did not exist in the samples at the time of measurement. However, if there were abundant radical reactions occurring in the system, as we suggest, it is very possible that these hydrolysates were altered into unrecognizable organic structures that would still be classified as “peptide-like” but would have different molecular composition than the predicted linear peptide sequences. It is also possible that instead of peptidoglycan hydrolysis followed by consecutive oxygenation, ROS directly cleaved the peptidoglycans into smaller substances of peptide-like molecular composition.

4.1.2 Labilization and Diversification of pyDOM

The production of labile unrecognizable biological substances during these incubations correlates well with previous findings showing the formation of thousands of new biological compounds during biotic incubations unrelated to microbial metabolic pathways (Lechtenfeld et al., 2015; Wienhausen et al., 2017). However, in difference with previous studies, an insignificant overlap of bio-produced formulas was observed among the four pyDOM samples after the incubations (2 – 320 formulas, 0 – 12%). Insignificant numbers of matching formulas from pyDOM were also found in the bio-produced formulas of an incubation of sucrose with the same soil microbes (63 – 94 formulas, 3%). This indicates that microbes diversified the composition of these pyDOM samples.

The observed diversity can be explained by a scenario wherein the microbes secreted labile molecules whose identities differed depending on the growth medium and/or food source, yielding high variability among bio-produced formulas after the incubation of pyDOM. Additionally, it is possible that different microbial species (different bacteria, fungi, archaea, etc.) have proliferated in response to the sample-specific pyDOM composition, yielding different microbial populations growing during each different incubation, sequentially producing different bio-produced compounds (Fitch et al., 2018).

The finding of extreme molecular diversity contrasts with previous observations made by Lechtenfeld et al. (2015) in a study evaluating the molecular composition of microbially produced DOM. In their study, marine microbes were supplied with two different substrates (glucose and glutamic acid; and a mixture of oligosaccharides and oligopeptides), and a significant overlap (67 – 69 %) in the bio-produced organic matter was observed. The difference in observations between the work presented in this manuscript and by Lechtenfeld et al. (2015) is likely caused by a large difference in the composition of the pyDOM substrates relative to those in the Lechtenfeld et al. (2015) study. While the four pyDOM samples used here are highly heterogeneous to one another (Goranov et al., 2020; Wozniak et al., 2020), the substrates by Lechtenfeld et al. (2015) were of much higher similarity. Another possible reason is that the physiology of the soil microbes used here may be producing more diverse molecules than the marine microbes used by Lechtenfeld et al. (2015). It is likely that that aquatic microbes have a much different degradation strategy. As soils are far less rich in labile molecules, it is possible that soil microbes have adapted to produce much higher fluxes of ROS to degrade the more recalcitrant soil.
organic matter, which can also explain the larger dissimilarity in bio-produced organic molecules after the incubations of pyDOM.

An important observation using the H/C vs molecular weight plots (Fig. S5) was that the bio-produced compounds after incubation of pyDOM were of various molecular weights. Thus, it is likely that the microbial biomass produced during the incubation is radically coupled with pyDOM molecules. This has been recently proposed as an important process in marine DOM cycling (Hach et al., 2020). In that study, when isotopically labeled organisms were incubated with oceanic surface waters, microbially produced compounds were quickly coupled to the ambient marine DOM molecules. This “recombination” process occurred within hours of the production of microbial oxidates, followed by the observation of a highly diversified DOM pool. This process is likely driven by radical coupling reactions, and such pathways have also been observed in incubations in the presence of sunlight (Sun et al., 2017). Another possible explanation is that chemically reactive species, such as quinones, reacted with microbially produced compounds via nucleophile-driven reactions (such as the Michael addition; McKee et al., 2014) to produce highly diverse pools of molecules after each incubation.

The observations from this study are compared to previous work by Waggoner et al. (2017) where a ligninaceous sample was treated with three different ROS: hydroxyl radical (⋅OH), singlet oxygen (\(\text{O}_2^\bullet\)) and superoxide (\(\text{O}_2^\bullet^-\)). Each different radical degraded a specific pool of ligninaceous compounds, which showed that different ROS can degrade a variety of types of organic matter. However, there was a significant overlap observed between the three pools of molecules that were degraded indicating that degradation pathways solely based on ROS attacks are still ordered. Thus, because ROS on their own do not produce completely diversified molecular pools, the combination of the two pathways we describe here must have occurred to produce the great variability in the bio-produced microbial biomass observed in our study.

Clearly, the chemistry behind these microbially induced compositional changes of pyDOM is highly complex, and the observed molecular diversity after these biotic incubations contrasts with previous studies. These discrepancies cannot be interpreted unambiguously using the employed analytical approaches, and future studies need to involve measurements of radicals and their effects, as well as various DNA sequencing and “omics” approaches.

**4.2 Implications for the cycling of pyDOM in the environment**

The present study provides a detailed evaluation of the compounds that microbes degrade and produce in samples mimicking pyDOM in hydrologically dynamic environmental systems such as riverine and groundwater systems. It brings new knowledge about the properties and reactivity of pyDOM and challenges the conventional idea that pyDOM is stable towards biotic degradation. Several studies have already shown that pyrogenic substances have soluble DOM components (Hockaday et al., 2007; Mukherjee and Zimmerman, 2013; Wagner et al., 2017; Bostick et al., 2018) and that more soluble components are produced with environmental aging (Abiven et al., 2011; Ascough et al., 2011; Roebuck et al., 2017; Quan et al., 2020). A recent study incubated pyDOM using riverine microbes and observed a significant degree of degradation as well (Qi et al., 2020). However, rather than using an extracted inoculate, in that work, the authors directly incubated pyOM in riverine water. Therefore, these incubations can be considered primed by the more labile riverine molecules (Guenet et al., 2010; Bianchi, 2011). The experiments presented in our study, in parallel with Bostick et al. (2020a), show that a large portion of pyDOM can be respired (bio-degraded) without priming, which indicates that these pyrogenic molecules may be far less resistant to degradation than previously presumed.

The involvement of pyDOM within the global carbon cycle is complex, and in many cases poorly understood. There is a growing body of literature showing that significant amounts of pyOM are solubilized and exported to the global ocean (Dittmar et al., 2012; Jaffé et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016; Marques et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2020). However, the estimated pyDOM production and seepage rates of 1440 TgC⋅y\(^{-1}\) (Bostick et al., 2018) are greater than previously reported riverine flux estimates (203 Tg⋅C⋅y\(^{-1}\); Jaffé et al., 2013; rescaled by Bostick et al., 2018). In addition to the implied 86% loss of carbon during export, a recent study also reported that the stable carbon isotopic signature (\(\delta^{13}\text{C}\)) of oceanic ConAC are not terrigenous, but rather, marine-like (Wagner et al., 2019). This suggests that either all of the riverine-exported ConAC are being mineralized before reaching
the global ocean or are chemically altered significantly to change its $\delta^{13}$C isotopic signature (Jones et al., 2020).

Furthermore, microbial and photochemical processes have been found to transform DOM with characteristic terrigenous DOM composition (compounds with lower H/C and higher O/C ratios) into compounds having characteristics of marine-derived DOM (compounds with higher H/C, lower O/C ratios; Rossel et al., 2013). Thus, pyDOM may simply be losing its diagnostic molecular and isotopic fingerprints during riverine export due to a variety of degradative post-production processes, as shown by the diversification observed in our study.

The cycling of organic matter in the environment has always been an enigma, and there has been a long-standing effort to explain the fate of land-derived DOM (terrigenous DOM including pyDOM) in the global ocean (Hedges et al., 1997). In a previous manuscript evaluating the photochemical transformation of pyDOM (Goranov et al., 2020), we suggested that biotic consumption of photo-degradation products of pyDOM (“small aliphatic compounds”) could result in the formation of marine-like DOM. This hypothesis was tested by comparing our incubation products (the bio-produced formulas) to FT-ICR-MS formulas of several marine DOM samples (reported in Sect. 5 of the Supplement). An insignificant number of CRAM-like marine formulas (Hertkorn et al., 2006) was observed in these comparisons (4 – 272 common formulas, 0 – 6% overlap) contrasting with this proposition and suggesting that biotic incubations of photo-degraded pyDOM do not produce significant numbers of marine-like molecules.

An alternative idea is that the bio-produced molecules observed in this study are part of the fast-cycling, labile DOM pool per Hansell’s model (Hansell and Carlson, 2015), and are quickly depleted in the natural environment. This parallels the findings of a recently published study (Hach et al., 2020) observing that microbiologically produced molecules are extremely labile and are, within hours, broken down and recombined with ambient DOM molecules. The closed laboratory systems in our study, may have enabled the observation of these highly labile molecules, whereas in the natural environment, they would have been quickly transformed, diluted, or mineralized to inorganic carbon resulting in their removal from analytical detection. The richness in nitrogen and peptide-like character of these new molecules suggest greater potential lability (Hach et al., 2020), and it is likely that the by-products of biotic degradation of pyDOM are readily incorporated into microbial food webs. This is consistent with the idea that terrigenous DOM is either mineralized to CO$_2$ or incorporated into food webs (Berggren et al., 2010a; Ward et al., 2013; Fasching et al., 2014). It is also consistent with the fact that the majority of organic nitrogen in the oceans is derived from microbial peptidoglycans (McCarthy et al., 1997, 1998; Simpson et al., 2011), and with observations of nitrogen from peptidoglycans in soil and sedimentary porewater systems (Schulten and Schnitzer, 1998; Hu et al., 2018, 2020).

The production of these highly variable and diverse molecules, compositionally, is likely a contributing factor to the large complexity of natural organic matter (Hertkorn et al., 2007; Hawkes et al., 2018). They contribute to the highly variable microbial exometabolomes observed previously (Antón et al., 2013; Watrous et al., 2013; Romano et al., 2014) and stimulate further questions about their function and fate within the global carbon cycle. In this study, we have used soil microbes, as the corresponding degradation by-products can be observed in both soil, groundwater, and partially in the upstream of rivers. Therefore, it would be critical to perform further studies with different microbial consortia (riverine, estuarine, marine, etc.) to fully understand the biological degradation of pyDOM in different environments.

5 Conclusions

This study probing the molecular changes occurring after biotic degradation of pyDOM revealed that soil microbes can effectively recycle and transform a significant portion of pyDOM molecules into labile microbial biomass. After the 10-day incubations, it appears that a wide range of molecules, both aromatic and aliphatic, were degraded, forming a highly diverse pool of compounds, including N-containing compounds with proteinaceous signatures and a peptidoglycan-like backbone. These observations are consistent with the previous identification of nitrogen from peptidoglycans in soils and oceans. These bio-produced compounds were highly specific for each pyDOM sample (very few common bio-produced molecular formulas among samples). The observed molecular labilization and diversification have implications for the studies of wildfire biogeochemistry, as this shows that microbial reworking of pyDOM can contribute to the large complexity and variability of natural
organic matter. This study reveals that 1) pyDOM can be a medium for microbial growth, and 2) previously considered “recalcitrant” pyrogenic molecules can be incorporated into microbial food webs. This suggests that pyDOM is a much more active component in the global carbon and nitrogen cycles, and future studies need to further evaluate the bio-reactivity of pyDOM with microbial consortia of different environments, as well as in the context of wetted soils, groundwater processes, cycling within the riverine and marine water columns, and other aspects of the global carbon and nitrogen cycles.

Data Availability. Research Data associated with this article can be accessed at https://doi.org/10.17632/kjhky3tfys.1

Competing Interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.


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