1 Changes in microbial utilisation and fate of soil carbon following the addition of different

2 fractions of anaerobic digestate to soils

- 3 Marta Cattin^{*1}, Kirk T. Semple¹, Marc Stutter³, Gaetano Romano², Alfonso Jose Lag-Brotons¹, Chris
- 4 Parry⁴ and Ben W.J. Surridge¹
- ¹Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Bailrigg, Lancaster, LA1 4YW
- 6 ²Department of Mathematics and Statistics, Lancaster University, Bailrigg, Lancaster, LA1 4YW
- 7 The James Hutton Institute, Aberdeen, AB15 8QH
- 8 ⁴Cockerham Green Energy Ltd, Cockerham, Lancaster LA2 0DX
- 9 * Telephone: +44 (0)1524 593338; Email: <u>m.cattin@lancaster.ac.uk</u>
- 10 **Key words:** digestate, soil nutrient status, carbon use efficiency, carbon cycle, microbial community,
- microbial respiration, carbon dioxide flux

12 Abstract

24

Applying digestate, the residue from anaerobic digestion, to soil as a replacement for inorganic 13 14 fertiliser is of growing interest in agriculture. However, the impacts of different fractions of digestate 15 on the soil carbon (C) cycle remain unclear and provide the focus for the research reported here. We 16 examined the effects of applying whole digestate (WD) and solid digestate (SD) on carbon dioxide 17 (CO₂-C) efflux, the concentrations of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), microbial biomass C (C_{micro}) and 18 phospholipid fatty acids, alongside carbon use efficiency (CUE). A 21-day laboratory microcosm 19 incubation was used to investigate the impacts of digestate when applied to two grassland soils of 20 high versus low initial nutrient content. Application rates for SD and WD were based on 21 recommended nitrogen (N) inputs to grassland soils for these organic materials. Compared to 22 control treatments, cumulative CO₂-C efflux and the concentration of DOC increased significantly 23 after WD and SD application, although only within the low nutrient soil. Both C_{micro} and the fungal to

bacterial ratio increased significantly following SD application, regardless of the initial soil nutrient

content. These observations likely reflect the larger input of C, alongside the dominance of more strongly lignified compounds, associated with SD compared to WD to achieve a constant N application rate. Our results also indicate that the two digestate fractions generated significantly different CUE. The application of SD led to increases in C_{micro} and positive values of CUE, whilst decreases in C_{micro} and negative values of CUE were observed following WD application. These findings emphasise the need to carefully plan the management of digestate in agricultural production systems, to minimise negative impacts on C storage within soils whilst maximising the agronomic value derived from digestate.

Highlights

- Past research has not fully elucidated the impacts of digestate fractions on the soil C cycle
- Soil nutrient status + digestate fraction shown to impact microbial community and CO₂-C
 efflux.
 - Solid digestate fraction has positive impacts on microbial biomass and carbon use efficiency.

1. Introduction

Agricultural soil is the largest active terrestrial reservoir in the global carbon (C) cycle. However, some agricultural practices, including deep tillage, over-application of inorganic fertilisers and intensification, have significantly impacted soil structural, chemical and biological conditions, increasing carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions from soil and reducing soil organic matter (SOM) content (FAO, 2017). In contrast, soil C stocks may be increased by the promotion of agricultural practices that sequester soil organic C (FAO, 2017; Rumpel & Kögel-Knabner, 2011), through fixing atmospheric CO₂ within soil following plant photosynthesis and the transfer of CO₂ to plant biomass, or through the addition of allochthonous organic matter to soil. Additional practices may also help to

reduce the environmental impacts of agricultural production, including crop rotation, improved nutrient and water application practices and the reduction of tillage intensity (IPCC, 2014). However, due to microbial metabolism, the application of organic materials to agricultural soil may also result in the release of significant quantities of CO_2 , methane (CH₄) or nitrous oxide (N₂O) to the atmosphere (WRAP, 2016).

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

49

50

51

52

53

Interest in the application of digestate, the residue remaining after anaerobic digestion, to agricultural soil has grown substantially given the potential agronomic value of this material. Digestate generally has a low C to N ratio, is rich in NH₄⁺, P, K⁺, Na⁺, Mg²⁺ and other macronutrients, can improve soil structure, water infiltration rate and water-holding capacity (García-Albacete et al., 2014; Möller & Müller, 2012; Tambone et al., 2010). However, there are significant uncertainties surrounding the impact of digestate application on the C cycle within agricultural soils. This is particularly true following solid-liquid separation and the application of different factions of digestate to soil. Separation allows for differentiation of the total nutrient content of digestate into individual phases, enhancing the potential to match digestate application to crop nutrient requirements when compared with the whole fraction of digestate without separation (Marcato et al., 2008). Whole digestate is a mixture of fibre and liquid, with high viscosity and low infiltration potential. It is generally rich in N, P, K⁺ and other macronutrient elements that are present in plantavailable forms and usually has a C:N <10 (Tambone et al., 2010). In contrast, the solid fraction is rich in total P (up to 90% of total P in whole digestate may be retained in the solid fraction), much present as water extractable P, alongside Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, S and Mn, usually with a C:N >10 (Bachmann et al., 2016; Hjorth et al., 2010; Lukehurst et al., 2010; Marcato et al., 2008; Panuccio et al., 2016). The forms of organic C present in the whole and solid fractions of digestate can also differ substantially. The whole fraction has been shown to be a mixture of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), which is readily available to microorganisms after application to land, and lignin compounds. In contrast, the

solid fraction is dominated by recalcitrant organic C compounds, including lignin, cutin, humic acids and other complex compounds, considered as humus precursors with high biological stability (Nkoa, 2014; Tambone et al., 2009) that can promote SOM accumulation.

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

74

75

76

The application of digestate as a fertiliser in agriculture may influence C metabolism by the soil microbial community, which biosynthesizes the C into compounds for growth and/or emits CO₂ through respiration. This balance dictates the Carbon Use Efficiency (CUE), which may be defined as the efficiency of the biosynthesis of organic C from a source material relative to its respiration (Manzoni et al., 2012). Usually, when CUE is positive and high the soil microbial community utilises a C source for biosynthesis and growth, favouring the anabolic pathway, leading to C stabilization in soil. In contrast, when CUE is low and/or negative, microbial utilisation of a C source for biosynthesis is less efficient, the catabolic pathway is favoured, respiration rate and CO2 production are enhanced and C sequestration in soil is reduced (Geyer et al., 2016; Wang & Post, 2012; Wang et al., 2013). Many factors influence the CUE, including temperature, moisture, quality of the C source (e.g. C:N) and nutrient availability in soil. For example, Sinsabaugh et al. (2013) report that application of an organic material to soil that is rich in recalcitrant C (often C:N>20), such as the solid fraction of digestate, can increase bacterial catabolism in order to produce extracellular enzymes to hydrolyse C compounds and, consequently, CO2 is produced. In contrast, the addition of organic matter with C:N<20 to soil, such as the whole fraction of digestate, can promote bacterial biosynthesis of C and, consequently, reduced CO₂ production.

94

95

96

97

Soil nutrient availability, particularly the concentrations of N and P, may also influence CUE. When soil is not N or P limited relative to C (e.g. low soil C:N), CUE tends to increase because bacteria seek to maintain a balanced intracellular composition between C and nutrients (Roller & Schmidt, 2015;

Manzoni et al., 2012) and thus microbial biomass concentration tends to increase. However, when an organic material containing liable C (e.g. the whole fraction of digestate) is applied to a low-nutrient soil (high soil C:N ratio and, potentially, N limitation) (Blagodatskaya et al., 2014; Moorhead & Sinsabaugh, 2006), bacteria tend to respire C that has been applied because maintenance respiration is increased. This is also true after application of poor-quality resources (e.g. recalcitrant compounds, such the solid fraction of digestate) to a stressed-environment (e.g. low nutrient availability, high temperature or low water availability), because there is an increase in the cost of producing intra/extracellular catabolism under these conditions and an increase in CO₂ production (Malik et al., 2019; Sinsabaugh et al., 2009). Further, bacteria and fungi within the soil microbial community have potentially different effects on CUE. For example, fungi are able to degrade organic material with high C:N without emitting CO₂-C, thereby maintaining a high CUE, whilst bacteria are less efficient at degrading organic material with high C:N (Blagodatskaya & Kuzyakov, 2008). For bacteria, CUE also differs between r (growth strategists; high CUE) and K (competitive strategists; low CUE) communities (Keiblinger et al., 2010; Roller & Schmidt, 2015).

However, the impacts of digestate on the soil C cycle via microbial effects on CUE remain poorly understood, especially when different physical fractions of digestate with varying nutrient form and stoichiometry are applied to soils. The differing composition of whole and solid digestate may influence soil bacterial and fungal communities differently, with potential effects on C cycling and CUE. There has also been insufficient research focussed on the interactions between digestate application and soil nutrient status, which has been considered as one of the main drivers influencing bacterial and fungal activity and, subsequently, soil C stocks and other soil health parameters. In this context, the research reported here tested the following hypotheses: i) for soil at lower initial nutrient status, the application of either WD or SD stimulates microbial respiration and reduces CUE to a greater extent than for soil at higher initial nutrient status; ii) at low or high soil

nutrient status, the application of WD will stimulate microbial respiration and reduce CUE compared to SD; and iii) the application of SD increases fungal:bacterial in soils at both low and high initial nutrient status, when compared to WD.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Soil sampling and initial characterization

Soils were sampled from two fields adjacent to a commercial biogas plant (Cockerham Green Energy Ltd, Northwest England, UK; latitude: 53.972, longitude: -2.822) on 17th September 2018. The two fields were selected to provide contrasting initial soil nutrient properties (Table 1) as driven by the management history of each field. Topsoil to 15 cm depth was sampled from each field using a gouge auger and following a 'W' sampling protocol (Natural England, 2008), in which samples from 20 points along a 'W' were combined into a single integrated soil sample for each field. High nutrient soil (HN) was under grass production at the time of sampling and used for grazing and silage production during previous years. This field receives liquid digestate four times per year, with the last application occurring at the end of July 2018. The low nutrient soil (LN) was fallow grassland at the time of soil sampling and had never previously received digestate. Following collection and homogenisation, soils were sieved through a 2 mm mesh and stored in sealed plastic bags at 4 °C until the incubations began.

ADD TABLE 1 HERE

2.2. Digestate sampling and characterization

On 24th September 2018, whole and solid fractions of anaerobic digestate were collected from Cockerham Green Energy Ltd, following sampling protocols detailed by Agriculture and Horticulture Development Board (2017), and stored at 4°C prior to the start of the incubations. Digestate from Cockerham Green Energy Ltd is fermented in a mesophilic, single stage digester with a retention time of 50 days. The feedstock is livestock and poultry manure, co-digested with food waste including wheat, potatoes, tea bags and whey. Whole digestate is unpasteurised and separated into liquid and solid fractions using a screw-press. The liquid fraction is collected in covered lagoons, whilst the solid fraction is stored in an uncovered open-space. Whole digestate was sampled directly from the anaerobic digester before separation, whilst the solid fraction was sampled from material that had been stored for seven days prior to collection. The two fractions of digestate were chosen to provide contrasting properties for the experiment (Table 2).

ADD TABLE 2 HERE

2.3. Experimental design

A microcosm incubation was carried out between 8th – 30th October 2018, involving control (Ctr), whole digestate (WD) and solid digestate (SD) treatments. Each amendment was conducted in triplicate for both HN and LN soil types, with soil × amendment combinations placed randomly in amber and Duran bottles inside a temperature-, pressure- and moisture-controlled room in the dark. The WD and SD amendments were added to soils inside separate glass containers in order to achieve the same N application rate (170 kg N (as NH₄⁺-N) ha⁻¹ year⁻¹), after Agriculture and Horticulture Development Board (2017). This resulted in the addition of c.12,500 mg kg⁻¹ dry weight (DW) soil of C for SD and 625 mg kg⁻¹ DW soil of C for WD treatments to both soils. Digestate fractions were

mixed thoroughly with soil and then sub-divided into Duran (for respirometry) or amber bottles (destructive samples) prior to the incubation.

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

170

171

The moisture content of the soils was set at 50% water holding capacity (WHC) using milliQ water (>18.2 M Ω .cm at 25°C). Control soils were left un-amended without any digestate addition and only received milliQ water in order to maintain 50% WHC. Respirometry measurements were carried out using a Micro-Oxymax Respirometer (Columbus Instruments International Corp. Columbus, USA), with an automated 20-channel closed-circuit and with two empty bottles used as analytical blanks. For respirometry samples, the respirometer maintained a constant moisture content throughout the incubation. The concentration of CO₂ in the headspace of each Duran bottle was monitored at a partial pressure of 1063.9125 hPa and a temperature of 23 ±1°C, via a specialised GL 45 three-port connection at 2 hr intervals, with emission rates of CO₂-C and cumulative CO₂-C expressed as a rate (mg C h⁻¹) and as a mass (mg C) respectively. In addition, a parallel set of destructive samples was prepared using amber bottles in order to monitor changes in soil properties through time. These destructive samples were analysed at 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 14 and 21 days (for the 21-day time point, respirometry samples were destructively sampled). The moisture content of the destructive samples was checked daily by weighing the amber bottles without lids and adding milliQ water to maintain 50% WHC. The destructive samples were placed inside the same dark controlled room as the respirometry samples.

189

190

191

192

193

2.4. Soil analyses

Destructive soil samples were analysed for microbial biomass C (C_{micro}) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC). Additional samples were taken at 0 and 21 days for analysis of phospholipid fatty acid (PLFA) content. Extraction for C_{micro} was carried out following the chloroform fumigation method (Brookes

et al., 1985; Vance et al., 1987). Duplicate, fresh soils were extracted with and without chloroform fumigation according to Brookes et al (1985) and Vance et al. (1987) (1:5 w/v, 0.5 M K₂SO₄, pH~7, filtered Whatman No 42). The determination of TC for the two set of extracts was carried out using a TOC-L/TN Series Analyser (Shimadzu, Japan) based on a combustion-reduction method. Microbial biomass C was calculated as the difference in concentration between fumigated and unfumigated samples, with subsequent correction by K_{ec} for C evolved as CO₂ (Brookes et al., 1985; Joergensen, 1995, 1996).

Fresh soil samples were extracted in milliQ water (1:10 w/v; 15 minutes shaking) for DOC analyses (Jones & Willett, 2006), filtered (Whatman No 42) and the extract was analysed using a TOC-L/TN Series Analyser (Shimadzu, Japan) after sample acidification to remove inorganic C.

The PLFA extraction was carried out as described by Quideau et al. (2016), using a three-stage extraction. Frozen soil (-80° C) was freeze-dried and between 1-1.5 g of soil was used for the extraction. Extracted samples were analysed using a Gas Chromatograph-FID (Agilent Technology 6890N, USA). A C13 (Methyl tridecanoate) and C19 (Methyl nonadecanoate) mixed standard was used as an internal standard in order to identify the range of the retention time of the PLFAs of interest.

Soil pH was determined on fresh soil samples (1:5 w/v; 30 minutes shaking) using milliQ water. Airdried soil samples were analysed for Olsen P as described by Murphy & Rilely (1962) and Olsen et al. (1954). Samples were extracted (1:20 w/v; 30 minutes shaking) with a 0.5 M NaHCO₃ solution, with pH adjusted to 8.5, and subsequently filtered (Whatman No 42). The extracted samples were analysed using a SEAL Autoanalyzer AA3 (Seal Analytical, UK;Method No G-103-92 Rev1; Multitest Mt7/MT8) based on the molybdenum blue colorimetric reaction. Soil dry matter (DM) and loss-onignition (LOI) were determined using a gravimetric method (Allen, 1989; Gardner, 1986).

Approximately 12g of fresh soil was oven-dried at 105°C for 48 h to constant weight to determine DW. Subsequently, around 1.5g of oven-dried soil was heated at 550°C for 6h in a muffle furnace,

220	left to cool overnight and subsequently weighed to determine LOI. The TC and TN content of soils
221	was determined using an automated Dumas procedure on a Carbo Erba NA 1500 analyser (Erba
222	Science, UK), working with 30±1 mg of oven-dried and ball-milled soil. Fresh soil samples were also
223	extracted for available N using 1 M KCl (1:5 w/v, 1 hour shaking) (Bremmer, 1965; McTaggart &
224	Smith, 1993) and filtered (Whatman No 42). The filtrate was subsequently analysed for NH_4^+ and
225	NO ₃ content using a SEAL Autoanalyzer AA3 (Seal Analytical, UK; Method No G-102-93 Rev 2;
226	Multitest MT7/MT8) with two different colorimetric reactions (ISO 11732, 1997 and ISO 13395,
227	1996 respectively).
228	
229	2.5. Calculations for % TC respired, CUE and statistical analysis
230	The % TC respired from soils after the addition of digestate was calculated as:
231	
232	% TC respired at each time point = (cumulative CO ₂ -C produced at each time point/(TC present in the
233	soil at day 0 + TC applied in digestate amendment)) * 100
234	
235	where all C terms were expressed in mg.
236	
237	The CUE was estimated as described by Frey et al. (2001) and Tiemann & Billings (2011), using the
238	following equation:
239	
240	$CUE=dBc/(dBc+\Sigma CO_2-C)$
241	

where dBc is the change in C_{micro} and ΣCO_2 -C is the cumulative C lost through microbial respiration during the incubation, both expressed in mg C. For both WD and SD treatments, C_{micro} and ΣCO_2 -C were standardised by the Ctr treatment, in order to focus on the fate of C that was added to the soil with digestate, following Tiemann & Billings, (2011). The CUE of Ctr treatments was not calculated, because no C was added to soils.

Statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019). One-way and two-way ANOVA was employed to assess the significance of the factors 'soil' (HN, LN) and 'digestate amendment' (Ctr, WD, SD) and their interaction. Levene's tests were used to check the homogeneity of variance assumption of ANOVA, with log₁₀ or square root transformations applied to data where necessary. A Tukey-test (HDS) was employed to compare individual levels where a significant factor was identified in ANOVA. For CUE, a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to assess the significance of the factors soil type and digestate amendment.

Due to the non-linear nature of many response variables across the incubations, multivariate polynomial regression was used to model time \times soil type \times digestate amendment interactions. Time was treated as a numerical variable and expressed from 0 to 21 days. For C_{micro} and DOC, in order to fully capture the nonlinear nature of changes through time, a cubic polynomial regression was used, whilst for cumulative CO_2 -C efflux, %TC respired and fungal:bacterial linear regression models were applied. Where significant regression models were identified, T-tests were performed on cumulative CO_2 -C efflux, %TC respired and fungal:bacterial data in order to determine the nature of the time \times soil type \times digestate amendment interaction.

In all statistical analyses, p-values < 0.05 were deemed as significant, whilst p-values between 0.05 and 0.06 were marked as borderline significant after Hofmann & Meyer-Nieberg (2018). Residual plots (S-L, Q-Q, Residual-Leverage and Cook's distance - leverage) were employed to assess the quality of the model fits and the assumption of normally distributed residuals for ANOVA, as well as the presence of leverage points or outliers. Missing observations were excluded from the analysis and no data imputation was performed. Clear outliers, assumed to represent sample error or contamination, were removed from the datasets prior to analysis.

3. Results

INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

3.1. Influence of treatments on CO₂-C efflux from soils

Cumulative CO₂-C efflux from HN soils was significantly greater than from LN soils across the incubations (p<0.001). Further, digestate amendment exerted significant control on cumulative CO₂-C efflux (p<0.0001), with higher cumulative CO₂-C efflux observed after the application of digestate to soils compared to control treatments, in the order Ctr<WD \approx SD. However, an interaction between soil type and digestate amendment was observed (p<0.0001), with significant increases in cumulative CO₂-C efflux after WD and SD application only occurring within LN soils and not within HN soils.

A significant three-way interaction between time, soil type and digestate amendment was also observed for cumulative CO_2 -C efflux as shown in Figure 1(p < 0.0001). Within the LN soil, both WD and SD amendments increased cumulative CO_2 -C efflux rapidly and significantly through time when compared to the control treatment, reaching +563% (SD) and +377% (WD) at 21 d compared to fluxes in the control treatment. Further, SD and WD diverged significantly from each other from 14 d

onwards. Within the HN soil, only the SD amendment generated significantly higher cumulative CO₂-C efflux and only from 14 d of the incubation onwards (+20% at 21 d when compared with Ctr), whilst WD and Ctr did not differ significantly.

INSERT FIGURES 1 AND 2 HERE

Figure 2 reports the percentage of TC present in the combination of soil and digestate amendment that was respired as CO_2 -C during the incubations. In contrast to cumulative CO_2 -C efflux, no significant difference in %TC respired was observed between HN and LN soils. However, both WD and SD amendments resulted in significant increases in %TC respired compared to the Ctr (p< 0.001), in the order Ctr<WD \approx SD. Further, a significant interaction between soil and digestate amendment (p<0.001) indicated that significant increases in %TC respired following SD or WD application only occurred in the LN soil, consistent with observations related to cumulative CO_2 -C efflux.

A highly significant three-way interaction between time, soil type and digestate amendment was observed (p<0.0001), indicating that the temporal pattern in %TC respired after the addition of digestate depended on the nature of the soil at the start of the incubation. In the HN soil, digestate amendments followed the same temporal trend as the Ctr treatment. However, in the LN soil the %TC respired increased significantly through time following both WD (+372% at 21d) and SD (+369% at 21d) applications compared to the control treatment, an effect that was observed from 1 d onwards in the incubations.

3.2. Influence of digestate amendments on the soil microbial community

Microbial biomass C was significantly higher in HN compared to LN soil (p< 0.001). Further, C_{micro} increased significantly after the application of SD compared to either Ctr or WD treatments (p< 0.0001), by +29% at 21 d in the HN soil and by +36% at 21d in the LN soil compared to the Ctr treatment (Figure 3). No significant interactions between soil type, digestate amendment or time were observed for C_{micro} , confirming that the significant increase following the application of SD was observed in both HN and LN soils and throughout the duration of the incubations.

Similarly to C_{micro} , the fungal to bacterial ratio increased significantly under the SD treatment compared to either the Ctr or WD treatments (p<0.01), an effect that was also consistent across both HN and LN soils. Further, time significantly affected the fungal:bacterial (Figure 4), with a marginally significant three-way interaction observed between time, soil type and digestate amendment (p<0.049). The fungal to bacterial ratio increased significantly between 0 and 21 d following application of SD in both soils (+58% HN and +18% LN compared to Ctr), whilst the ratio decreased slightly (-8%) in the LN soil following the application of WD compared to the control (p = 0.05).

INSERT FIGURES 3 AND 4 HERE

3.3. Influence of digestate amendments on Dissolved Organic Carbon concentration

The concentration of water-extractable DOC was significantly higher in HN compared to LN soils

(p<0.0001). Further, the application of SD to soils resulted in a significant increase in the concentration of water-extractable DOC, compared to either WD or Ctr treatments (p<0.0001).

However, the impact of SD application differed between soil types, with a significant increase in DOC

concentration following SD application only observed in the LN soil (Figure 5). No interaction between time, soil type and digestate amendment was observed with respect to DOC concentration.

INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE

3.4. Estimation of CUE after digestate amendment

Table 4 reports the CUE for each combination of soil type and digestate amendment used within the incubation reported here. No significant difference in CUE was observed between the two soil types. However, digestate amendment exerted significant control on CUE (p< 0.05), with positive values of CUE observed following the application of SD and negative values after application of WD to soils; these effects were consistent across the two soil types used in the incubations.

ADD TABLE 4 HERE

4. Discussion

The application of digestate strongly influenced the C cycle within the soils examined during this research. This was evidenced by significant changes in the loss of C via gaseous pathways, the production of water-soluble DOC, and the biomass and composition of the soil microbial community. However, for many parameters the impact of digestate application depended on the initial soil nutrient status, on the physical fraction of digestate that was applied, and on time across the 21 d incubation. It should be noted that the history of soil management within the HN and LN soils likely drove different responses between these soils to the treatments applied in the experiments reported here. For example, past digestate application to the HN soil may have been responsible for differences in microbial community composition and functional traits, compared to the LN soil.

Further, our experimental system did not include the input of labile C to soil from root exudates that may alter microbial requirements for digestate-derived C. Future research will be required in order to examine the interactions within plant-microbial-soil systems including the net impacts of these interactions for the fate of C derived from inputs of digestate to agricultural soil, and the impacts of a wider range of soil management histories.

4.1. The influence of digestate application on CO₂-C efflux

The efflux of CO₂-C from soil, whether expressed as an absolute flux or as a proportion of the TC within the combination of soil and digestate, increased significantly following the application of digestate. This observation is consistent with both previous laboratory and field research (e.g. Pezzolla et al., 2012; WRAP, 2016; Johansen et al., 2013), spanning grassland and arable soils. For example, field experiments have reported an increase in cumulative CO₂ efflux occurring across a 12-month period following four whole digestate application, (WRAP, 2016) and across a 5-month period following three applications of whole digestate (Pezzolla et al., 2012). Further, a 9-day laboratory experiment on arable soil revealed a two-fold increase in cumulative CO₂-C efflux after whole digestate addition when compared with untreated soil (Johansen et al., 2013). Whilst the research we report above used digestate from a single feedstock, it should also be noted that some past research has demonstrated significant effects on CO₂ efflux associated with variation in digestate feedstock and post-digestion processing (i.e. separation) techniques (e.g. Askri et al., 2016). These variables were not incorporated within the experimental system used in the research reported here.

The data reported above confirm that CO₂-C efflux was influenced by a significant interaction between soil type and digestate, in which increases in this gaseous flux of C following either WD or SD application only occurred in the LN soil. Increases in CO₂-C efflux following digestate application are partly consistent with de la Fuente et al. (2013) and Grigatti et al. (2011), who report mineralization rates after the application of different fractions of digestate and their effects on CO₂-

C efflux. However, de la Fuente et al. (2013) and Grigatti et al. (2011) report higher CO₂-C efflux following the application of SD compared to WD, whilst in the research reported here CO₂-C efflux did not differ significantly between the two fractions of digestate. It should be noted that the research of de la Fuente et al. (2013) involved a calcareous soil with nutrient content similar to the HN soils used in our research, whilst Grigatti et al. (2011) also used a soil more similar in nutrient content to the HN compared to LN soil used in the current research. Differences in soil type may help to explain why no significant difference in CO₂-C efflux was observed between SD and WD within the LN soil in the research reported above. However, further work would be required in order to understand why similar variation in CO₂-C fluxes after application of different fractions of digestate were not observed in the HN soils. The efflux of CO₂-C increased rapidly from the early stages of the incubations following the application of either SD or WD to the LN soil, whether expressed as cumulative CO₂-C or as a percentage of TC present in the soil-digestate system. The effects of digestate application in the LN soil likely reflect the activation of dormant bacteria and stimulation of maintenance respiration after the application of either fraction of digestate (Mondini et al., 2006). In the LN soil, rapid increases in bacterial catabolism likely followed the application of WD due to the input of readily available DOC, suggesting that this C source may have been utilised quickly for enzyme production and maintenance respiration within a few days after application and consistent with other research (e.g. Wang et al. 2013; Wang and Post, 2012). After exhaustion of readily available C in WD, bacteria may have started to mine SOM present in the soil to meet continued demand for nutrients (Fontaine et al., 2004, 2011), or alternatively turnover of the bacterial community may have occurred through the course of the incubation (Blagodatskaya et al., 2007), consistent with negative CUEs following the application of WD. However, the increase in CO₂-C efflux was higher and more persistent following the application of SD to the LN soil, possibly because fungal degradation of recalcitrant C compounds in SD produced C by-products which were subsequently consumed by bacterial catabolism. Alternatively, bacteria may have invested directly in enzymatic degradation of

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

recalcitrant C such as lignin within SD, as reported by Sierra (2012). In turn, this likely resulted in prolonged increases in respiration and CO₂-C efflux, consistent with Fontaine et al. (2003), Sinsabaugh et al. (2013) and Winogradzky (1924).

In contrast, within the HN soil, only during the later stages of the experiment and only after SD application were increases in CO₂-C efflux observed, and only when CO₂-C was expressed as a cumulative flux rather than as a percentage of TC present in the system. Following exhaustion of readily-available C during the earlier stages of the incubation, by-products from fungal or bacterial degradation of recalcitrant C within SD likely supported the higher efflux of CO₂-C from bacterial respiration towards the end of the incubation (Six et al., 2006). In contrast, rapid exhaustion of readily available C, combined with the absence of an input of more recalcitrant C in WD, meant that CO₂-C efflux under this treatment did not differ significantly compared to the control within the HN soil.

Varying effects of digestate application on CO₂-C efflux between HN and LN soils also likely reflects differences in physico-chemical conditions between the two soil types that influenced microbial metabolic responses to the input of resources within digestate (e.g. Larsson et al., 1995; Manzoni et al., 2012; Russell & Cook, 1995). Within the HN soil, existing neutral soil pH, higher C_{micro}, higher DOC and lower C:N meant that the changes in microbial respiration following digestate input were relatively small compared to the control soil treatment. In contrast, the adverse soil conditions in the LN soil (low pH, C_{micro}, DOC and nutrient concentration) created an environment in which respiration of CO₂ from control soils was relatively low, and in which activation of dormant bacteria and subsequent increases in respiration followed the application of resources within both WD and SD (Mondini et al., 2006).

4.2. Changes in the soil microbial community following digestate application

Both C_{micro} and the fungal to bacterial ratio increased significantly following the application of SD, a pattern that was consistent across both HN and LN soils. Increases in C_{micro} following the application of SD were likely driven by higher inputs of TC compared to the WD treatment, in order to achieve a consistent N application rate across both fractions of digestate. The additional input of C resources allowed greater opportunity for biosynthesis and the accumulation of C within new soil microbial biomass under the SD treatment. These observations related to C_{micro} are supported by other research that has examined the impact of digestate application on the soil microbial community. For example, de la Fuente et al. (2013) report increases in C_{micro} only 7 days after the application of SD, driven by the high TC applied to soil with this fraction of digestate. Further, Chen et al. (2012) carried out a 21d incubation and report an increase in C_{micro} which was related to a shift from r-strategists to K-strategists in soil that received biogas residues.

The fungal to bacteria ratio of control HN and LN soils indicated a microbial community that was dominated by bacteria, consistent with other research focussed on agricultural grasslands (Bardgett et al., 1996, 1995, 1993). However, this ratio increased significantly following the application of SD to both soils used in the incubations reported here, driven by an increase in fungal PLFA rather than a decrease in bacterial PLFA. This observation likely reflects the significant input of more recalcitrant C compounds, such as lignin, associated with SD compared to WD (Noka, 2014). Hydrolysis of these C compounds has been shown to rely predominantly on the action of fungi rather than bacteria (Hammel, 1997), consistent with the increase in total fungal PLFA through the incubations reported here following the application of SD and in agreement with other research (e.g. Rousk and Bååth 2011; Walsh et al., 2012). Fungal-produced C by-products following degradation of recalcitrant C within SD may also have sustained bacterial production (e.g. Dashtban et al., 2010; Bugg et al., 2011; Rüttimann et al., 1991), including through generating a flush of DOC which is available for the microbial community (Möller et al., 1998). In contrast, the limited input of recalcitrant C following WD application produced no significant change in fungal:bacterial within the HN soil, alongside a

relatively small and marginally significant decrease in this ratio within the LN soil, reflecting a decrease in total fungal PLFA within the microbial community under this treatment.

Whilst the concentration of DOC was significantly greater in soil following the application of SD compared to either Ctr or WD treatments, this effect was only observed within LN and not within HN soils. Within the HN soil, DOC generated following the application of SD appeared to be efficiently metabolised by the microbial community, evidenced by an increase in C_{micro} but no increase in CO₂-C efflux compared to control soils. In contrast, the application of SD to the LN soil increased DOC concentrations by the end of the incubation. This likely reflects unfavourable conditions for the microbial community within the LN soil, including low pH and nutrient availability, which can limit microbial metabolism of DOC as noted in previous research (David et al., 1989; Jardine et al., 1989; Vance and David, 1989; Guggenberger et al., 1994).

4.3. Changes in CUE following digestate application

Carbon use efficiency varied significantly between the digestate treatments used in the experiments reported here, with consistent patterns observed across both soil types. The application of WD resulted in negative values of CUE, driven by greater decreases in C_{micro} and by increased CO₂-C fluxes compared to control treatments during the incubations. Decreases in C_{micro} may reflect grazing by protozoa and/or microbial turnover (Frey et al., 2001). The input of readily degradable C substrates within WD likely promoted the catabolic pathway and maintenance respiration of bacteria to a greater extent compared to the anabolic pathway, resulting in enhanced CO₂-C effluxes and decreased biosynthesis of C within microbial cells (Manzoni et al., 2012; Geyer et al., 2016). The magnitude of the effect of WD on CUE was more pronounced in HN compared to LN soils. This observation reflects the smaller cumulative CO₂-C efflux in HN soils compared to the respective controls, generating a more negative value of CUE following the application of WD. Whilst C_{micro} also decreased following the application of WD to LN soils, the relatively large increase in CO₂-C efflux

compared to control soils resulted in a smaller value of CUE for LN soils compared to the HN soils. These observations emphasise the potential for application of WD to result in net decreases in C_{micro}, rather than net accumulation of C within soil microbial biomass, due to the stimulation of maintenance respiration and associated utilisation of C from both native soil and substrate pools (e.g. Blagodatskaya et al., 2014; Moorhead & Sinsabaugh, 2006).

In contrast to WD, positive values of CUE were observed following the application of SD to both soil types, with CUE in the range 0 – 0.55 as reported for soil microbial communities by Sinsabaugh et al. (2013) who accounted for substrate C:N, the assimilation efficiency of N, bacterial C:N and a CUE_{max} in their research. However, it is notable that a higher CUE was observed after application of SD to HN compared to LN soils, reflecting substantial increases in C_{micro} and relatively small increases in cumulative CO₂-C efflux in HN soils following SD application, compared to control soils. Whilst C_{micro} also increased in LN soils after the application of SD compared to control soils, the increases in CO₂-C efflux was far more pronounced, resulting in lower values of CUE compared to HN soils. Increase in C_{micro} following SD application to soils indicate the potential for net accumulation of C within soil microbial biomass, in particular associated with increases in soil fungal community anabolism and biomass (Keiblinger et al., 2010). However, it should also be recognised that cumulative CO₂-C fluxes following the application of SD exceeded those under all other treatments used in our experiments. Therefore, application of SD to soils can potentially generate adverse effects on absolute fluxes of CO₂ to the atmosphere, whilst at the same time contributing positively to the accumulation of C within soils.

5. Conclusions

The research reported here provides important new insights into how changes in the soil C cycle may follow the application of digestate to agricultural grasslands. The precise nature of these impacts is

contingent on the physical fraction of digestate applied to land and on the nutrient status of the soils that receive digestate. The solid fraction of digestate drove substantial increases in CO₂-C efflux, an effect that appears to be inversely related to soil nutrient status. Microbial biomass C and the fungal to bacterial ratio in soil also increased following the application of the solid fraction of digestate, regardless of initial soil nutrient status. The effects of applying whole digestate to soil were more variable. Whilst CO₂-C efflux increased following the application of whole digestate to soil at low initial nutrient status, no significant changes in microbial biomass C or in fungal to bacterial ratio followed the application of whole digestate. Carbon use efficiency in soils receiving solid digestate was positive, indicating the potential for C accumulation within soil microbial biomass. However, the accumulation of C within soil was exceeded by the additional C lost from soils via CO₂-C efflux. Further, CUE was negative in both soil types following treatment with whole digestate, driven by decreases in C stored within microbial biomass and loss of C as CO₂-C.

These findings emphasise the need to carefully plan the management of digestate in agricultural production systems, in order to minimise negative impacts on C storage within soils whilst maximising the agronomic value derived from digestate. Future research should seek to examine the impacts of a broader range of digestate fractions (whole, liquid, solid) on the soil C cycle in long term field experiments, including the effects of plant-soil interactions and longer-term changes in CUE and SOM. In addition, research should seek to quantify the impacts of digestate application on other environmental parameters of concern, including the emission of greenhouse gases beyond CO₂ and the potential leaching of pollutants into the subsurface.

Acknowledgements

We are indebted to the contribution from Chris Parry who provided access to the digestate fractions and soils used during this experiment. We are also grateful to Dr. Annette Ryan for the technical support and training provided related to analysis of the samples reported in this paper. We also thank two anonymous reviewers for their comments that helped to substantially improve this paper. **Conflict of interest** The authors declare no relevant conflict of interest with respect to the content of this paper. **Funding** This project was funded by the Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) and Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) through the STARS Centre for Doctoral Training (CDT). References Agriculture and Horticulture Development Board. (2017). Nutrient Management Guide (RB209), section 2 (May). Askri, H.S., Laville, A. P., & Tre, A. (2016). Influence of Origin and Post-treatment on Greenhouse Gas Emissions After Anaerobic Digestate Application to Soil. Waste Biomass Valorisation, 7, 293-306. doi: 10.1007/s12649-015-9452-6 Bachmann, S., Uptmoor, R., & Eichler-Löbermann, B. (2016). Phosphorus distribution and availability in untreated and mechanically separated biogas digestates. Scientia Agricola, (February), 9-17. doi: 10.1590/0103-9016-2015-0069

Bardgett, R.D., & Leemans, D. K. (1995). The short-term effects of cessation of fertiliser applications,

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

558	liming and grazing on microbial biomass and activity in a reseeded upland grassland soil.
559	Biology and Fertility of Soils, 19 (2-3), 148–154. doi: 10.1007/BF00336151
560	Bardgett, R. D., Frankland, J. C., & Whittaker, J. B. (1993). The effects of agricultural management on
561	the soil biota of some upland grasslands. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment, 45(1–2),
562	25–45. doi: 10.1016/0167-8809(93)90057-V
563	Bardgett, R. D., Hobbs, P. J., & Frostegård, Å. (1996). Changes in soil fungal:bacterial biomass ratios
564	following reductions in the intensity of management of an upland grassland. Biology and
565	Fertility of Soils, 22(3), 261–264. doi: 10.1007/BF00382522
566	Blagodatskaya, E., Blagodatsky, S., Anderson, T. H., & Kuzyakov, Y. (2014). Microbial growth and
567	carbon use efficiency in the rhizosphere and root-free soil. PLoS ONE, 9(4).
568	doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0093282
569	Blagodatskaya, E., & Kuzyakov, Y. (2008). Mechanisms of real and apparent priming effects and their
570	dependence on soil microbial biomass and community structure: Critical review. Biology and
571	Fertility of Soils, 45 (2), 115–131. doi: 10.1007/s00374-008-0334-y
572	Blagodatskaya, E. V., Blagodatsky, S. A., Anderson, T. H. & Kuzyakov, Y. (2007). Priming effects in
573	Chernozem induced by glucose and N in relation to microbial growth strategies. Applied Soil
574	Ecology, 32 (1-2), 95-105. doi: 10.1016/j.apsoil.2007.05.002
575	Brookes, P. C., Landman, A., Pruden, G., & Jenkinson, D. S. (1985). Chloroform fumigation and the
576	release of soil nitrogen: A rapid direct extraction method to measure microbial biomass
577	nitrogen in soil. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 17(6), 837–842. doi: 10.1016/0038-
578	0717(85)90144-0
579	Bugg, T. D. H., Ahmad, M., Hardiman, E. M., & Rahmanpour, R. (2011). Pathways for degradation of
580	lignin in bacteria and fungi. Natural Product Reports, 28(12). doi:10.1039/c1np00042j

581	Chen, R., Blagodatskaya, E., Senbayram, M., Blagodatsky, S., Myachina, O., Dittert, K. & Kuzyakov,
582	Y.(2012). Decomposition of biogas residues in soil and their effects on microbial growth kinetics
583	and enzyme activities. Biomass and Bioenergy, 45, 221–229. doi:
584	10.1016/j.biombioe.2012.06.014
585	Dashtban, M., Schraft, H., Syed, T. A., & Qin, W. (2010). Fungal biodegradation and enzymatic
586	modification of lignin. Journal Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Education, 1(1), 36–50.
587	David, M.B., Vance, G.F., Rissing, J.F., & Stevenson, F.J. (1989). Organic carbon fractions in extracts of
588	O and B horizons from a New England spodosol: Effect of acid treatment. Journal of
589	Environmental Quality, 18, 212–217. doi: 10.2134/jeq1989.00472425001800020014x
590	de la Fuente, C., Alburquerque, J. A., Clemente, R., & Bernal, M. P. (2013). Soil C and N mineralisation
591	and agricultural value of the products of an anaerobic digestion system. Biology and Fertility of
592	Soils, 49 (3), 313–322. doi: 10.1016/j.agee.2011.03.007
593	FAO (2017). Soil organic carbon the hidden potential. FAO. doi: 10.1038/nrg2350
594	Fernández-Calviño, D., & Bååth, E. (2010). Growth response of the bacterial community to pH in soils
595	differing in pH. FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 73(1), 149–156. doi: 10.1111/j.1574-
596	6941.2010.00873.x
597	Fontaine, S., Mariotti, A., & Abbadie, L. (2003). The priming effect of organic matter: a question of
598	microbial competition? Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 35(6), 837–843. doi: 10.1016/S0038-
599	0717(03)00123-8
600	Fontaine, S., Bardoux, G., Abbadie, L., & Mariotti, A. (2004). Carbon input to soil may decrease soil
601	carbon content. <i>Ecology Letters</i> , 7 (4), 314–320. doi: 10.1111/j.1461-0248.2004.00579.x
602	Fontaine, S., Henault, C., Aamor, A., Bdioui, N., Bloor, J. M.G., Maire, V., Mary, B., Revaillot, S., &
603	Maron, P. A. (2011). Fungi mediate long term sequestration of carbon and nitrogen in soil

604	through their priming effect. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 43(1), 86–96. doi:
605	10.1016/j.soilbio.2010.09.017
606	Frey, S. D., Gupta, V. V. S. R., Elliott, E. T., & Paustian, K. (2001). Protozoan grazing affects estimates
607	of carbon utilization efficiency of the soil microbial community. Soil Biology and Biochemistry,
608	33 (12–13), 1759–1768. doi: 10.1016/S0038-0717(01)00101-8
609	García-Albacete, M., Tarquis, A. M., & Cartagena, M. C. (2014). Risk of leaching in soils amended by
610	compost and digestate from municipal solid waste. Hindawi Publishing Corporation. The
611	Scientific World Journal, 2014, 8. doi: 10.1016/S0038-0717(01)00101-8
612	Geyer, K. M., Kyker-Snowman, E., Grandy, A. S., & Frey, S. D. (2016). Microbial carbon use efficiency:
613	accounting for population, community, and ecosystem-scale controls over the fate of
614	metabolized organic matter. <i>Biogeochemistry</i> , 127 (2–3), 173–188. doi: 10.1007/s10533-016-
615	0191-у
616	Grigatti, M., Di Girolamo, G., Chincarini, R., Ciavatta, C., & Barbanti, L. (2011). Potential nitrogen
617	mineralization, plant utilization efficiency and soil CO ₂ emissions following the addition of
618	anaerobic digested slurries. Biomass and Bioenergy, 35(11), 4619–4629. doi:
619	10.1016/j.biombioe.2011.09.007
619620	10.1016/j.biombioe.2011.09.007 Guggenberger, G., Glaser, B. & Zech, W. (1994). Heavy metal binding by hydrophobic and hydrophilic
620	Guggenberger, G., Glaser, B. & Zech, W. (1994). Heavy metal binding by hydrophobic and hydrophilic
620 621	Guggenberger, G., Glaser, B. & Zech, W. (1994). Heavy metal binding by hydrophobic and hydrophilic dissolved organic carbon fractions in a spodsol A and B horizon. <i>Water, Air, and Soil Pollution</i> ,
620 621 622	Guggenberger, G., Glaser, B. & Zech, W. (1994). Heavy metal binding by hydrophobic and hydrophilic dissolved organic carbon fractions in a spodsol A and B horizon. <i>Water, Air, and Soil Pollution</i> , 72 , 111–127.
620 621 622 623	Guggenberger, G., Glaser, B. & Zech, W. (1994). Heavy metal binding by hydrophobic and hydrophilic dissolved organic carbon fractions in a spodsol A and B horizon. <i>Water, Air, and Soil Pollution</i> , 72 , 111–127. Hammel, K. E. (1997). Fungal degradation of lignin. <i>Driven by nature: plant litter quality and</i>

627	Springer Verlag/EDP Sciences/INRA, 30(1). doi: 10.1051/agro/2009010
628	Hofmann, M., & Meyer-Nieberg, S. (2018). Time to dispense with the p-value in OR?: Rationale and
629	implications of the statement of the American Statistical Association (ASA) on p-values. Central
630	European Journal of Operations Research, 26 (1), 193–214. doi: 10.1007/s10100-017-0484-9
631	IPCC. (2014). Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change. Working Group III Contribution to
632	the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. doi:
633	10.1017/CBO9781107415416
634	Jardine, P.M., N. L. Weber, & J. F. M. (1989). Mechanism of dissolved organic carbon adsorption on
635	soil. Soil Science Society of America, 53 , 1378–1385. doi:
636	10.2136/sssaj1989.03615995005300050013x
637	Joergensen, R. G. (1995). The fumigation-extraction method to estimate soil microbial biomass:
638	extraction with 0.01 M CaCl ₂ . Agribiological Research., (December), 319.
639	Joergensen, R. G. (1996). The fumigation-extraction method to estimate soil microbial
640	biomass:calibration of the Kec value. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 28(1), 25–31.
641	Johansen, A., Carter, M. S., Jensen, E. S., Hauggard-Nielsen, H., & Ambus, P. (2013). Effects of
642	digestate from anaerobically digested cattle slurry and plant materials on soil microbial
643	community and emission of CO ₂ and N ₂ O. Applied Soil Ecology, 63 , 36–44. doi:
644	10.1016/j.apsoil.2012.09.003
645	Jones, D. L., & Willett, V. B. (2006). Experimental evaluation of methods to quantify dissolved organi
646	nitrogen (DON) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in soil. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 38(5)
647	991–999. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2005.08.012
648	Keiblinger, K.M., Hall, E. K., & Wanek, W., Szukics, U., Hämmerle, I., Ellersdorfer, G., Böck, S., Strauss
649	J., Sterflinger, K., Richter, A., & Zechmeister-Boltenstern, S. (2010). The effect of resource

650	quantity and resource stoichiometry on microbial carbon-use-efficiency. FEMS Microbiology
651	Ecology, 73 (3), 430–440. doi: 10.1111/j.1574-6941.2010.00912.x
652	Kuzyakov, Y. (2010). Priming effects: interactions between living and dead organic matter. Soil
653	Biology and Biochemistry, 42 , 1363-1371.
654	Larsson, C., Vonstockar, U., Marison, I., & Gustafsson, L. (1995). Metabolic uncoupling in
655	Saccharomyces cerevisiae. <i>Thermochimica Acta</i> , 251 (94), 99–110.
656	Lukehurst, C., Frost, P., & Seadi, T. Al. (2010). Utilisation of digestate from biogas plants as
657	biofertiliser. <i>IEA Bioenergy</i> , 1–36.
658	Malik, A. A., Puissant, J., Goodall, T., Allison, S. D., & Griffiths, R. I. (2019). Soil microbial communities
659	with greater investment in resource acquisition have lower growth yield. Soil Biology and
660	Biochemistry, 132(November 2018), 36–39. doi: 10.1016/j.soilbio.2019.01.025
661	Manzoni, S., Taylor, P., Richter, A., Porporato, A., & Ågren, G. I. (2012). Environmental and
662	stoichiometric controls on microbial carbon-use efficiency in soils. New Phytologist, 196(1), 79–
663	91. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-8137.2012.04225.x
664	Marcato, C. E., Pinelli, E., Pouech, P., Winterton, P., & Guiresse, M. (2008). Particle size and metal
665	distributions in anaerobically digested pig slurry. Bioresource Technology, 99(7), 2340–2348.
666	doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2007.05.013
667	Möller, J., Miller, M., & Kjöller, A. (1999). Fungal-bacterial interaction on beech leaves: Influence on
668	decomposition and dissolved organic carbon quality. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 31(3), 367-
669	374. doi: 10.1016/S0038-0717(98)00138-2
670	Möller, K., & Müller, T. (2012). Effects of anaerobic digestion on digestate nutrient availability and
671	crop growth: A review. Engineering in Life Sciences, 12(3), 242–257. doi:
672	10.1002/elsc.201100085

673	Mondini, C., Cayuela, M. L., Sanchez-Monedero, M. A., Roig, A. & Brookes, P. C. (2006). Soil microbial
674	biomass activation by trace amounts of readily available substrate. Biology and Fertility of Soils,
675	42 (6), 542-549. doi: 10.1007/s00374-005-0049-2
676	Moorhead, DL & Sinsabaugh, R. (2006). A theoretical model of litter decay and microbial interaction.
677	Ecological Monographs, 76 (151–174). doi: 10.1890/0012-
678	9615(2006)076[0151:ATMOLD]2.0.CO;2
679	Natural England. (2008). Soil sampling for habitat recreation and restoration (February).
680	Nkoa, R. (2014). Agricultural benefits and environmental risks of soil fertilization with anaerobic
681	digestates: A review. Agronomy for Sustainable Development, 34(2), 473–492. doi:
682	10.1007/s13593-013-0196-z
683	Panuccio, M. R., Attinà, E., Basile, C., Mallamaci, C., & Muscolo, A. (2016). Use of recalcitrant
684	agriculture wastes to produce biogas and feasible biofertilizer. Waste and Biomass
685	Valorization, 7 (2), 267–280. doi: 10.1007/s12649-015-9445-5
686	Pezzolla, D., Bol, R., Gigliotti, G., Sawamoto, T., López, A. L., Cardenas, L., & Chadwick, D. (2012).
687	Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from soils amended with digestate derived from anaerobic
688	treatment of food waste. Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry, 26(20), 2422–2430.
689	doi: 10.1002/rcm.6362
690	Quideau, S. A., McIntosh, A. C. S., Norris, C. E., Lloret, E., Swallow, M. J. B., & Hannam, K. (2016).
691	Extraction and analysis of microbial phospholipid fatty acids in soils. Journal of Visualized
692	Experiments, 114 , 1–9. doi: 10.3791/54360
693	Roller, B. R. K., & Schmidt, T. M. (2015). The physiology and ecological implications of efficient
694	growth. <i>ISME Journal</i> , 9(7), 1481–1487. doi: 10.1038/ismej.2014.235
695	Rousk, J., & Bååth, E. (2011). Growth of saprotrophic fungi and bacteria in soil. FEMS Microbiology

Ecology. 78. 17-30. doi: 10.	1111/j.1574-6941.2011.01106.x
------------------------------	-------------------------------

- Rumpel, C., & Kögel-Knabner, I. (2011). Deep soil organic matter-a key but poorly understood component of terrestrial C cycle. *Plant and Soil*, **338**(1), 143–158. doi: 10.1007/s11104-010-
- 699 0391-5

- Russell, J. B., & Cook, G. M. (1995). Energetics of bacterial growth: balance of anabolic and catabolic reactions. *Microbiological Reviews*, **59**(1), 48–62. doi: 10.1128/mmbr.59.1.48-62.1995
- Ruttimann, C., Vicuna, R., Mozuch, M. D., & Kirk, T. K. (1991). Limited bacterial mineralization of
- fungal degradation intermediates from synthetic lignin. *Applied and Environmental*
- 704 *Microbiology*, **57**(12), 3652–3655.
- Sierra, C. A. (2012). Temperature sensitivity of organic matter decomposition in the Arrhenius
- equation: some theoretical considerations. *Biogeochemistry*, **108**, 1–15. doi: 10.1007/S10533-
- 707 01
- 708 Sinsabaugh, R. L., Hill, B. H., & Follstad Shah, J. J. (2009). Ecoenzymatic stoichiometry of microbial
- 709 organic nutrient acquisition in soil and sediment. *Nature*, **462**(7274), 795–798. doi:
- 710 10.1038/nature08632
- 711 Sinsabaugh, R. L., Manzoni, S., Moorhead, D. L., & Richter, A. (2013). Carbon use efficiency of
- 712 microbial communities: stoichiometry, methodology and modelling. Ecology Letters, **16**(7),
- 713 930–939. doi: 10.1111/ele.12113
- 714 Six, J., Frey, S. D., Thiet, R. K., & Batten, K. M. (2006). Bacterial and fungal contributions to carbon
- 715 sequestration in agroecosystems. Soil Science Society of America Journal, **70**(2), 555–569. doi:
- 716 10.2136/sssaj2004.0347
- 717 Tambone, F., Scaglia, B., D'Imporzano G., Schievano, A., Orzi, V., Salati, S., & Adani, F. (2010).
- 718 Assessing amendment and fertilizing properties of digestates from anaerobic digestion through

719	a comparative study with digested sludge and compost. Chemosphere, 81(5), 577–583. doi:
720	10.1016/j.chemosphere.2010.08.034
721	Tambone, F., Genevini, P., D'Imporzano, G., & Adani, F. (2009). Assessing amendment properties of
722	digestate by studying the organic matter composition and the degree of biological stability
723	during the anaerobic digestion of the organic fraction of MSW. Bioresource Technology,
724	100 (12), 3140–3142. doi: 10.1016/j.biortech.2009.02.012
725	Tiemann, L. K., & Billings, S. A. (2011). Changes in variability of soil moisture alter microbial
726	community C and N resource use. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 43(9), 1837–1847. doi:
727	10.1016/j.soilbio.2011.04.020
728	Vance, G. F., & David, M. B.(1989). Effect of acid treatment on the leachate chemistry of a New
729	England spodosol: Importance of the B horizon on dissolved organic carbon retention. Soil
730	Science Society of America Journal, 53 , 1242–1247. doi:
731	10.2134/jeq1989.00472425001800020014x
732	Vance, E. D., Brookes, P. C., & Jenkinson, D. S. (1987). An extraction method for measuring soil
733	microbial biomass C. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 19(6), 703–707. doi: 10.1016/0038-
734	0717(87)90052-6
735	Walsh, J. J., Rousk, J., Edwards-Jones, G., Jones, D. L., & Williams, A. P. (2012). Fungal and bacterial
736	growth following the application of slurry and anaerobic digestate of livestock manure to
737	temperate pasture soils. Biology and Fertility of Soils, 48(8), 889–897. doi: 10.1007/s00374-
738	012-0681-6
739	Wang, G., & Post, W. M. (2012). A theoretical reassessment of microbial maintenance and
740	implications for microbial ecology modeling. FEMS Microbiology Ecology, 81(3), 610–617. doi:
741	10.1111/j.1574-6941.2012.01389.x

Wang, G., Post, W. M., & Mayes, M. A. (2013). Development of microbial-enzyme-mediated decomposition model parameters through steady-state and dynamic analyses. *Ecological* Applications, 23(1), 255–272. doi: 10.1890/12-0681.1 Winogradzky, S. (1924). Sur la microflore autochthone de la terre arable. Compte Rendu de l'Academie Des Sciences (Paris), 178, 236–1239. WRAP (2016). DC-Agri; field experiments for quality digestate and compost in agriculture. Final report.

Table 1 Initial physio-chemical characteristics of soils used in the microcosm incubations (mean values reported, ±1 SE in parentheses, n=3)

Soil characteristics	High nutrient soil	Low nutrient soil
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	1.54 (0.14)	1.48 (0.014)
pH water (1:5 w/v)	7.31 (0.035)	5.06 (0.018)
NO ₃ (mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	71.05 (0.51)	66.66 (0.32)
NH ₄ ⁺ (mg kg ⁻¹ DW soil)	0.47 (0.044)	1.94 (0.10)
Olsen P (mg kg ⁻¹ DW	40.66 (1.18)	10.42 (1.10)
soil)		
P index UK	4	1
(Agriculture and		
Horticulture		

Development Board,		
2017)		
Water extractable	228.61 (14.23)	61.43 (0.76)
Total Organic C (mg		
kg ⁻¹ DW soil)		
Soil Tot C (mg C kg ⁻¹	50298.14 (68.49)	31817.73 (39.3)
DW soil)		
Soil Tot N (mg N kg ⁻¹	4396.73 (160.30)	
DW soil)		
2363.93 (199.82)		
TC:TN	11.46 (0.07)	13.68 (0.50)
DM (%)	73.06 (0.10)	75.49 (0.02)

DM (Dry Matter); Tot C (Total Carbon, non-acidified analysis); Tot N (Total Nitrogen); Water Tot C (Water Extractable Total Organic Carbon, acidified analysis); NH₄⁺ (Ammonium); NO₃⁻ (Nitrate); P (Phosphorus); P index (mg L⁻¹ P Olsen)

Table 2 Physio-chemical characteristics of whole and solid digestate used in the microcosm incubations (n=1)

Parameter in fresh weight (FW)	Whole digestate (WD)	Solid digestate (SD)
DM (%)	11.6	24.3
Organic Matter (%)	8.36	84.3
pH (1:6 w/v)	8.18	8.20
TN (mg kg ⁻¹ FW)	8500	4836
NH ₄ ⁺ -N (mg kg ⁻¹ FW)	4921	752.81
TP (mg kg ⁻¹ FW)	2869	4209
TC (mg kg ⁻¹ FW)	37000	109107
TC:TN	4.35	22.56

DM (Dry Matter); TP (Total Phosphorus); TC (Total Carbon); TN (Total Nitrogen); NH₄⁺-N (Ammonium Nitrogen)

Table 3 Summary of one-way and two-way ANOVA results from microcosm incubations. Columns from left to right describe effects of initial soil nutrient status (high (HN) vs low (LN)); effects of digestate amendment (Control (Ctr), whole digestate (WD), solid digestate (SD)); and interactions between soil nutrient status and digestate amendment. "n.s" represents effects that were not

statistically significant (p>0.05). Tukey tests were employed to determine differences between individual levels of soil type and digestate amendment, with significant differences between levels denoted using superscript letters. For interactions between soil type and digestate amendment, first superscript letter represents differences between digestate amendments within each soil type, second superscript letter represents differences between soil type within each digestate. amendment.

	Soil	Mean	Std error	p-value	Digestate	Mean	Std error	p-value	Soil × digestate interaction	Mean	Std error	p-value
CUE	HN LN	-0.087 -0.025	0.038 0.013	n.s.	WD SD	-0.22 ^a 0.11 ^b	0.17 0.05	0.015				n.s.
Cumulative CO ₂ -C (mg C kg DW soil ⁻¹)	HN LN	1382.18 ^a 942.62 ^b	133.9 125.3	0.0009	Ctr WD SD	738.02 ^a 1250.56 ^b 1417.88 ^b	132.20 156.50 192.50	0.00002	HN LN	Ctr: 1247.67 ^{a,a} WD: 1323.85 ^{a,a} SD: 1413.04 ^{a,a} Ctr: 228.88 ^{a,b}	228.53 239.73 275.16 45.75	0.00007
										WD: 1178.26 ^{b,a} SD: 1420.72 ^{b,a}	204.43 275.34	
% TC respired	HN LN	1.44 1.60	0.25 0.34	n.s.	Ctr WD SD	1.43 ^a 2.66 ^b 2.38 ^b	0.39 0.38 0.40	0.0002	HN	Ctr: 2.22 ^{a,a} WD: 2.06 ^{a,a} SD: 1.25 ^{a,a}	0.47 0.43 0.41	0.0001
									LN	Ctr: 0.63 ^{a,b} WD: 3.21 ^{b,a} SD: 3.18 ^{b,a}	0.14 0.63 0.71	
C _{micro} (mg kg DW soil ⁻¹)	HN LN	796.31 ^a 698.01 ^b	24.38 21.63	0.0007	Ctr WD SD	684.60 ^a 663.18 ^a 891.38 ^b	20.14 22.78 30.93	4.3*10 ⁻¹⁰				n.s.
Fungal:bacterial	HN LN	0.11 0.11	0.0052 0.0035	n.s.	Ctr WD SD	0.11 ^a 0.11 ^a 0.13 ^b	0.0030 0.0031 0.0067	0.005				n.s.
DOC (mg kg DW soil ⁻¹)	HN LN	166.11 ^a 117.03 ^b	9.66 10.15	0.000002	Ctr WD SD	110.45 ^a 120.15 ^a 194.12 ^b	10.68 10.87 12.72	4*10 ⁻⁹	HN	Ctr: 157.12 ^{a,a} WD: 161.93 ^{a,a} SD: 179.30 ^{a,a}	15.68 15.66 19.10	0.000002
211									LN	Ctr: 63.79 ^{a,b} WD: 78.36 ^{a,b} SD: 208.94 ^{b,a}	5.69 9.36 16.75	

Table 4 Carbon Use Efficiency (CUE) following whole (WD) and solid fraction (SD) digestate amendments in high nutrient (HN) or low nutrient (LN) soils (mean values reported, ±1 SE in parentheses, n=3).

Amendment	Estimation of CUE				
HN × WD	-0.37 (0.33)				
HN × SD	0.20 (0.050)				
LN × WD	-0.07 (0.035)				
LN × SD	0.02 (0.042)				

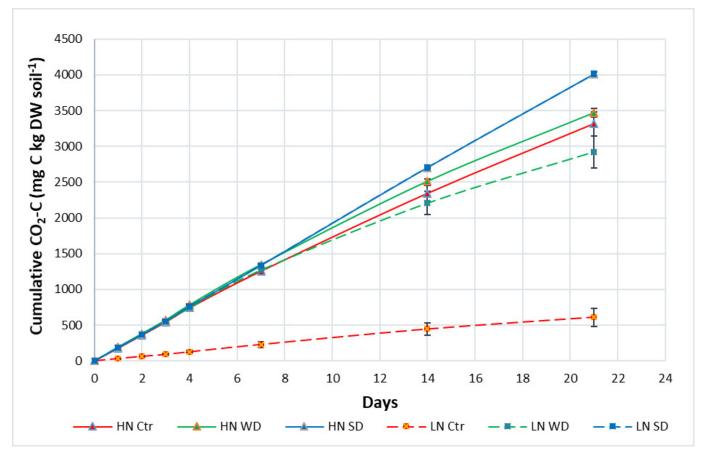


Figure 1 Cumulative CO₂-C produced from control (Ctr) soils or after addition of whole (WD) or solid (SD) fractions of digestate in soils at high (HN) or low (LN) initial nutrient status. HN \times SD and LN \times SD overlapping in the figure. Error bars \pm 1SE

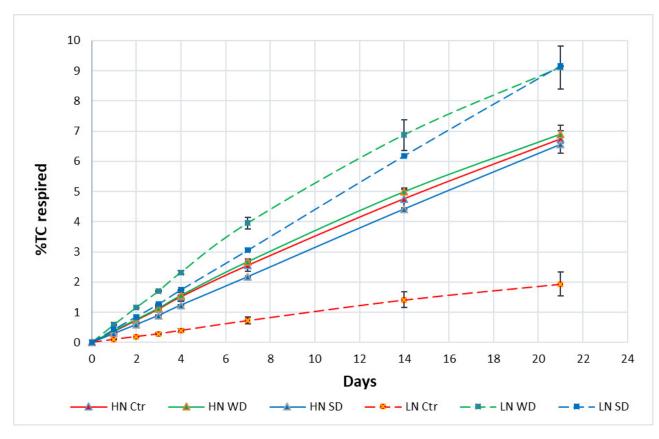


Figure 2 %TC respired in control (Ctr) soils or after addition of whole (WD) or solid (SD) fractions of digestate in soils at high (HN) or low (LN) initial nutrient status. Error bars \pm 1SE

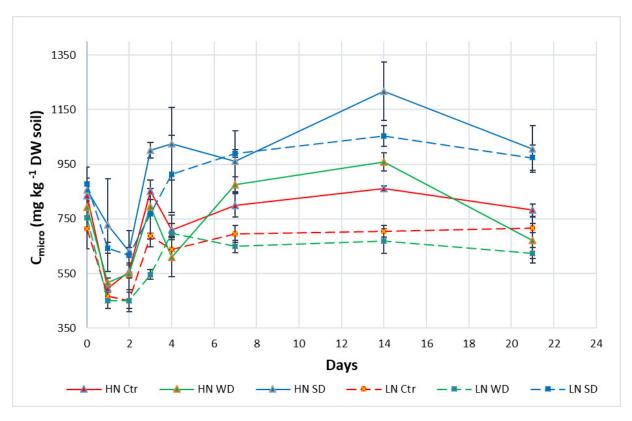


Figure 3 C_{micro} trends over time in control (Ctr) soils or after addition of whole (WD) or solid (SD) fractions of digestate in soils at high (HN) or low (LN) initial nutrient status. Error bars \pm 1SE

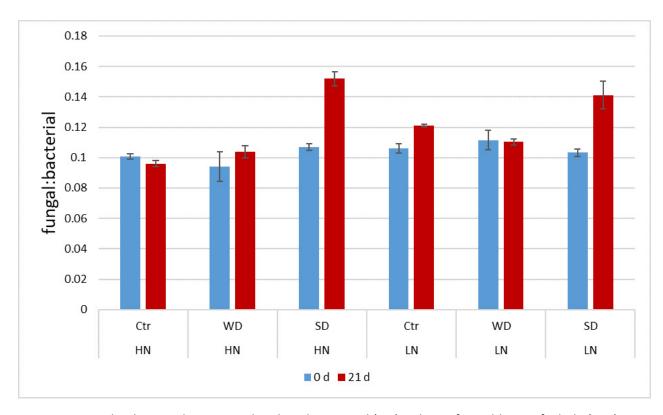


Figure 4 Fungal to bacterial ratio at 0 d and 21 d in control (Ctr) soils or after addition of whole (WD) or solid (SD) fractions of digestate in soils at high (HN) or low (LN) initial nutrient status. Error bars \pm 1SE

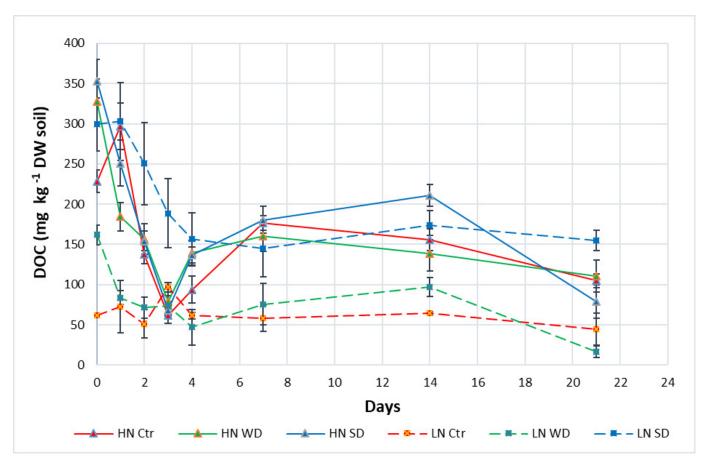


Figure 5 Dissolved organic carbon trends through time in control (Ctr) soils or after addition of whole (WD) or solid (SD) fractions of digestate in soils at high (HN) or low (LN) initial nutrient status. Error bars \pm 1SE