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1 **Coupled steel slag and biochar amendment correlated with higher**
2 **methanotrophic abundance and lower CH₄ emission in**
3 **subtropical paddies**

4

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21

22 **Abstract** Aerobic methanotrophs in paddies serve as methane (CH₄) filters and thereby
23 reduce CH₄ emissions. Amending soil with waste products can mitigate CH₄ emissions
24 in crops, but little is known about the impacts of amendments with steel slag and
25 biochar on the populations and activities of aerobic methanotrophs in rice cropland. We
26 used Real-time quantitative PCR detecting system (qPCR) and high-throughput
27 sequencing to determine the effects of slag and biochar amendments on CH₄ emission,
28 abundance and community structure of methanotrophs, and the relationships between
29 soil properties and the abundance and community composition of methanotrophs during
30 the rice growing season in both early and late paddies. Soil salinity and pH were
31 significantly higher for an amendment with both slag and biochar than the control in
32 both the early and late paddies, and pH was significantly higher for a slag amendment
33 in the late paddy. Cumulative CH₄ emission was lower for the slag and slag+biochar
34 amendments than the control in early paddy by - 34.1%. Methanotrophic abundance
35 was three- and six-fold higher for the slag + biochar amendment than the control in the
36 early and late paddies ($p < 0.05$), respectively. The abundance of different groups of
37 methanotrophs varied among the treatments. The relative abundance of *Methylosarcina*
38 was higher for the slag amendment than the control, and the relative abundance of
39 *Methylomonas* was lower for biochar, and slag + biochar amendments than the control.
40 The relative abundance of *Methylocystis* was higher for the slag and slag+biochar
41 amendments than the control in the early paddy, and the relative abundance of
42 *Methylocystis* was higher for the slag, biochar, and slag + biochar amendments in the
43 late paddy. Univariate and multivariate analyses indicated that the higher abundance of

44 methanotrophic bacteria for the slag and slag+biochar amendments was correlated with
45 soil pH, salinity, soil organic carbon (SOC), and C:N ratio, and the relative abundances
46 of *Methylocystis*, *Methylomonas*, and *Methylosarcina* were associated with the
47 effective mitigation of CH₄ emission in the paddies. A discriminant general analysis
48 indicated that the total population of methanotrophs was larger for the slag+biochar
49 amendment than the control and that this effect was only weakly correlated with
50 changes in the soil properties, demonstrating that this effect on the size and species
51 composition of methanotrophic soil populations was mostly associated with a direct
52 effect of the slag+biochar amendment.

53

54 **Keywords** Slag · biochar · greenhouse gases · methanotrophs · paddies

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57

58 **Introduction**

59 Methane is the second most important greenhouse gas after carbon dioxide,
60 contributing approximately 18% of anthropogenic radiative forcing (Bridgham et al.
61 2013). Even small changes of CH₄ concentrations in the atmosphere contribute
62 substantially to global warming, because the global-warming potential of CH₄ is 25-
63 fold higher than that of CO₂ (Bridgham et al. 2013; Lee et al. 2014). CH₄ is an important
64 greenhouse gas due to its geophysical properties, such as its atmospheric residence time
65 of 12.4 years and instantaneous forcing of $1.37 \times 10^5 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ ppb}^{-1}$ (IPCC 2014). Rice
66 paddy fields, which are cultivated worldwide on 155 million ha, contribute about 5-19%
67 of the annual atmospheric CH₄ emissions and are considered the most important
68 anthropogenic source of CH₄ (Ma et al. 2010).

69 CH₄ emission from paddies are governed primarily by two microbial processes,
70 CH₄ production (by methanogens) and CH₄ oxidation (by methanotrophs) (Wang et al.
71 2014; Nguyen et al. 2015). Methanogens are a group of strict anaerobic microorganisms
72 that produce CH₄ using CO₂ or acetate as the final electron acceptor and hydrogen as
73 an electron donor and are phylogenetically affiliated with the phylum Euryarchaeota of
74 the domain Archaea (Woese et al. 1990). Methanotrophs, though, use CH₄ as the main
75 carbon source and can metabolize both aerobically and anaerobically. Aerobic
76 methanotrophs belong to the Proteobacteria and Verrucomicrobia taxa. The former can
77 be broadly divided into two physiological and phylogenetic groups: type I
78 (Gammaproteobacteria) and type II (Alphaproteobacteria) methanotrophs (Sharp et
79 al.2014).

80 Some practices of agricultural management (e.g. water management and addition
81 of straw compost) have been recommended for reducing CH₄ emissions from paddies
82 (Pandey et al 2014; Wang et al. 2014; Nguyen et al. 2015). Biochar amendment may
83 reduce CH₄ emissions mostly by inhibiting methanogenic activity or increasing CH₄
84 oxidation associated with an increase in soil aeration (Liu et al. 2011; Dong et al. 2013;
85 Han et al. 2016). Increasing the abundance of methanotrophs or decreasing the
86 *mcrA/pmoA* ratio can also reduce CH₄ emissions (Feng et al. 2012; Han et al. 2016).
87 The application of biochar may therefore decrease CH₄ emissions, and the structure of
88 biochar can provide a suitable environment for bacterial CH₄ oxidation, but little
89 attention has been paid to the influence of biochar amendments on methanotrophic
90 diversity in paddies.

91 Steel slag is a waste product from the pyro-metallurgical processing of various ores.
92 Interest in finding uses for slag has been steadily increasing, because large volumes, on
93 the order of hundreds of millions of tonnes, of this waste are produced annually
94 worldwide (Piatak et al. 2015). Steel slag contains high concentrations of electron
95 acceptors, such as active and free oxides of iron, and can effectively lower CH₄
96 emissions from temperate paddies (Ali et al. 2008a, 2009). The steel slag should
97 increase the soil redox status, and thus we should expect effects on methane production
98 and oxidation processes (Wang et al. 2018). The addition of steel slag and/or biochar to
99 soil could influence CH₄ emissions by affecting the physicochemical properties of the
100 soil and thus the microorganisms that emit and metabolize CH₄ (Ali et al. 2008b; Wang
101 et al. 2015). However, these effects remain largely unknown

102 By using molecular approaches such as polymerase chain reactions (PCRs)
103 targeting methane monooxygenase (pMMO) genes (Lau et al. 2013; Lima et al., 2014;
104 Lüke et al. 2014; Yun et al. 2015) we aimed to : (1) determine the abundance and
105 community structures of methanotrophs and the relationships between soil properties
106 and the abundance and community composition of methanotrophs during the growing
107 season in both early and late paddies, and (2) analyze the relationship between
108 methanotrophs and CH₄ emission. The results from this study may provide insights into
109 the effects of waste amendments on soil methanotrophic communities and the
110 subsequent effects on CH₄ emissions. In-depth knowledge of these relationships should
111 be particularly important for providing a theoretical and practical basis to control CH₄
112 emissions in paddies.

113

114 **Material and Methods**

115 Study site and experimental design

116 The field experiment was carried out in the Wufeng Agronomy field of the Fujian
117 Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Fujian, southeastern China (Fig. 1). We studied the
118 effect of the application of steel slag, biochar, and slag + biochar on CH₄ emissions and
119 methanotrophs during the early paddy season (16 April to 16 July, Hesheng 10 cultivar)
120 and the late paddy season (25 July to 6 November, Qinxiangyou 212 cultivar) in 2015.
121 Air temperature and humidity during the study period are shown in Fig. S1. Our study
122 site has a “*Warm and humid climate*” according with Köppen (1936) classification. The
123 physicochemical properties in the top 15 cm were shown in Wang et al. (2014, 2015).

124 The management of the paddies (including plowing, water management, and
125 fertilization) was typical for subtropical paddies in China (Zhang et al. 2013; Wang et
126 al. 2015), more detail was shown in the Wang et al. (2015).

127 The experimental field plots were laid out in a randomized block design, with
128 triplicate plots (10 m²) for each of the four treatments (including a control). The
129 experiment tested the following treatments in a completely randomized block design:
130 1) control; 2) steel slag; 3) biochar; and 4) slag + biochar. We applied 8 Mg ha⁻¹ of both
131 steel slag and biochar. The selected steel slag was provided in granular form by Fujian
132 Jinxing iron company and was composed mainly of CaO (34.9%), SiO₂ (40.7%), and
133 Fe₂O₃ (4.8%). This represents C (56.6%), N (1.4%), P (1.0%) and K (1.8%) on dry
134 weight. Rice straw was heated at 600 °C to produce biochar. The chemical compositions
135 of both amendments are presented in Table S1. All control and amended plots received
136 the same amount of water and same mineral fertilizer and urea. More detail seen in
137 Wang et al. (2015).

138

139 Measurement of CH₄ flux

140 Static closed chambers were used to measure CH₄ emissions during the rice growing
141 season (Datta et al. 2013). More detail seen the Wang et al. (2015). We deployed three
142 replicate chambers in each treatment. A wooden boardwalk was built for accessing the
143 plots to minimize disturbance of the soil during gas sampling. Gas flux was measured
144 weekly in all chambers. The sampling CH₄ concentrations in the headspace air samples
145 were determined by gas chromatography (GC) using a stainless steel Porapak Q column

146 (2 m long, 4 mm outside diameter, 80/100 mesh) (Shimadzu GC-2010, Kyoto, Japan).

147 More detail of the gas sampling and concentrations determination were shown in Wang
148 et al. (2015).

149

150 Measurement of soil properties

151 Soil samples were collected from the 0-15 cm layer in triplicate for each treatment using
152 a soil sampler during the elongation stage (Wang et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2018). We
153 only collected one time in the elongation period, i.e. at mid period of rice growth, when
154 the water and fertilizer management was also at the average level between the beginning
155 of the rice transplantation and the rice ripening period. This sampling time was the
156 sampling time also used in previous studies (Wang et al. 2018). The samples were
157 immediately stored in sterile bags in ice coolers and transported to the laboratory.
158 Subsamples were then immediately processed for DNA extraction. The remaining soil
159 was stored at 4 °C until the analysis of physical and chemical properties.

160 Soil properties, such as pH was measured with a pH/temperature meter (IQ
161 Scientific Instruments, Carlsbad, USA), and salinity was measured using a 2265FS EC
162 meter (Spectrum Technologies Inc., Paxinos, USA). Soil water content was measured
163 by weighing the soil before and after drying at 105 °C to a constant weight (Barton et
164 al. 2013). Soil organic carbon (SOC) and TN concentrations were determined using a
165 Vario Max Elemental Analyzer (Elementar Scientific Instruments, Hanau, Germany).

166

167 DNA extraction and PCR amplification

168 When we determined the amount of DNA we use three repeats per plot. However, when

169 we determined the microbe structure we only used the mixed into 0.5-g composite
170 samples per plot, thus following the method applied in several previous studies (Wang
171 et al. 2018). Total genomic DNA was extracted from these samples using an E.Z.N.A
172 TM Soil DNA Kit (Omega, USA). The DNA quality and concentration were assessed by
173 1× TAE agarose gel (1%) electrophoresis and spectrophotometric analysis using a
174 NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific Technologies Inc., Waltham,
175 USA).

176 The *pmoA* genes of methanotrophs were amplified by PCR using the primer pair
177 A189F (5'-GGN GAC TGG GAC TTC TGG-3') and mb661R (5'-CCG GMG CAA
178 CGT CYT TAC C-3')(May et al. 2018). Amplification was performed in a final volume
179 of 25 µL containing 2.5 µL of 10× PCR buffer, 2.5 µL of 2.5 mM dNTPs, 0.25 µL of
180 Taq polymerase (5 U µL⁻¹) (Takara, Japan), 0.5 µL of each primer (final concentration
181 0.3 µM), and 20 ng of extracted DNA. The PCR program had an initial denaturation at
182 94 °C for 3 min followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 45 s, annealing at
183 55 °C for 1 min, and extension at 72 °C for 90 s, with a final extension at 72 °C for 10
184 min. Amplified PCR products were purified with a PCR clean-up kit (Sangon Inc.,
185 Shanghai, China) and stored at -20 °C for further analysis.

186 MiSeq Sequence processing and analysis

187 All PCR products were sequenced by Novogene Corporation, Beijing, China.
188 Index sequences were trimmed, aligned to the SILVA database (Quast et al. 2013),
189 screened, and filtered by the mothur pipeline (Schloss et al. 2009). The sequences were
190 taxonomically classified using the training set, version 9, of the Ribosomal Database

191 Project (Cole et al. 2009), followed by the removal of non-archaeal/bacterial sequences
192 based on the taxonomic classification. Diversity indices and operational taxonomic
193 units (OTUs) at 97% identity with *pmoA* were estimated using mothur
194 (<https://www.mothur.org/>). The *pmoA* sequences have been deposited in the GenBank
195 database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA445632/>) under accession
196 number SRR6901783. Data can be obtained from the Biosample database
197 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/biosample>), accession number SAMN 08794436.

198

199 Quantitative analysis of the methanotrophs by real-time PCR

200 Methanotrophic abundance was determined by qPCR using *pmoA*-targeted primers
201 A189F/mb661R in triplicate 20- μ L reaction mixtures containing SYBR green Master
202 Mix (Sangon Inc., Shanghai, China). The reaction mixture contained 1 \times Master Mix
203 (Sangon Inc., Shanghai, China), 200 nM of each primer, ten-fold diluted DNA
204 extractions, and double-distilled H₂O to a final volume of 20 μ L. Real-time quantitative
205 PCR detecting system (qPCR) was carried out with the protocol for target groups as:
206 denaturation at 95 °C for 3 min followed by 45 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 15
207 s, annealing at 57 °C for 20 s, and plate reading at 83 °C. Standard curves were obtained
208 with serial dilutions of plasmid DNA containing the target genes. The data were
209 analyzed using LightCycler 480 Software Setup (Roche Inc., Shanghai, China).

210

211 Statistical analysis

212 The sequencing data were processed as described by Caporaso et al. (2010) and Wang

213 et al. (2017). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test the
214 differences in soil physicochemical properties and methanotrophic abundances among
215 the treatments in both crop seasons. All statistical analyses used SPSS Statistics 17.0
216 (IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA).

217 We also performed multivariate statistical analyses. We used a principal
218 component analysis (PCA) to determine the overall differences of soil salinity, pH,
219 water content, TN content, C:N ratio, SOC content, bulk density, CH₄ emission, and
220 methanotrophic gene abundance among treatments in the early and in late paddies. We
221 conducted one-way ANOVAs with Bonferroni post hoc tests of the scores of the first
222 PC axis to determine differences among the treatments. We then used a general
223 discriminant analysis (GDA) to determine the overall differences of soil salinity, pH,
224 water content, TN content, C:N ratio, SOC content, bulk density, CH₄ emission, and
225 methanotrophic gene abundance among treatments using the combined data from the
226 two paddy seasons. These analyses also assessed the component of the variance due to
227 the paddy season (early and late) as an independent categorical variable. Discriminant
228 analyses consist of a supervised statistical algorithm that derives an optimal separation
229 between groups established a priori by maximizing between-group variance while
230 minimizing within-group variance (Raamsdonk et al. 2001). GDA is thus an appropriate
231 tool for identifying the variables most responsible for the differences among groups
232 while controlling the component of the variance due to other categorical variables, the
233 two paddy seasons (early and late) in this study. The GDAs were performed using
234 Statistica 8.0 (StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa, USA).

235

236 **Results**

237 Soil physicochemical properties in the paddies

238 The soil physicochemical properties for the treatments and paddy fields are shown in
239 Table 1. Soil salinity and pH were significantly higher ($p<0.05$) in the slag + biochar
240 treatment than the control in both the early and late paddies, and pH was significantly
241 higher ($p<0.05$) in the slag treatment than the control in the late paddy.

242

243 Cumulative CH₄ emission in paddies

244 Total cumulative CH₄ emission varied among the treatments in both the early and late
245 paddies (Fig. 2). Cumulative CH₄ emission was lower in the slag and slag + biochar
246 amendments than the control in both the early and late paddies, by 10.2 and 34.1% and
247 14.9 and 33.5%, respectively. Cumulative CH₄ emission for the biochar treatment,
248 however, was 7.6% higher in the early paddy field but 43.7% lower in late paddy
249 relative to the control.

250

251 Methanotrophic abundance in the paddies

252 Methanotrophic *pmoA* copy number for both the early and late paddies were shown in
253 Fig. 3. Methanotrophic *pmoA* abundance in the control, slag, biochar, and slag + biochar
254 treatments in the early paddies were 2.84×10^5 , 1.35×10^5 , 2.50×10^5 and 1.44×10^6 g⁻¹ dry
255 soil, respectively. The *pmoA* copy number was 52.5 and 12.1% lower in the slag and
256 biochar treatments, respectively, but about three-fold higher in the slag + biochar

257 treatment, than the control. The copy number was significantly higher ($p<0.05$) in the
258 slag + biochar treatment than the control. The *pmoA* copy numbers in the late paddy
259 field were 1.32×10^5 , 5.63×10^4 , 1.91×10^5 , and 9.88×10^5 g⁻¹ dry soil in the control, slag,
260 biochar, and slag + biochar treatments, respectively. The copy number was 57.6% lower
261 in the slag treatment but 43.5% and six-fold higher in the biochar and slag + biochar
262 treatments, respectively, than the control. The *pmoA* copy number was significantly
263 higher ($p<0.05$) in the slag + biochar treatment than the control in both the early and
264 late paddies. The copy number was also significantly higher ($p<0.05$) in the early than
265 the late paddy for the control and slag treatments.

266

267 Relationships between methanotrophic abundance and environmental factors

268 The relationships between the abundance of methanotrophs and environmental factors
269 in both the early and late paddies were shown in Table 3. The *pmoA* copy numbers in
270 both the early and late paddies were strongly positively correlated with soil salinity, pH
271 and, SOC content (Table 3). But CH₄ emission was not strongly correlated the soil
272 parameters, indicating that CH₄ emissions were not directly affected by the
273 physicochemical parameters (Table 3).

274

275 Analysis of alpha and beta diversity of *pmoA* in the paddies

276 The microbial communities in the paddies were analyzed based on *pmoA* gene
277 sequences using high-throughput sequencing. The number of sequences, coverage,
278 number of OTUs, and ecological indices are summarized in Table 2. More than 98%

279 coverage was obtained for all samples, with the number of OTUs ranging from 612 to
280 2537. The heatmap in Fig. 4 shows the abundance cluster of the top 50 ranking species
281 of methanotrophs. The number of unclassified bacterial genera in the paddies ranged
282 from 1.63 to 62.97%. Most methanotrophic species in the paddies belonged to
283 *Methylocystis*, *Methylogaea*, and *Methylococcus*, representing 17.26-79.35% of the
284 total.

285

286 Methanotrophic community composition in the paddies

287 High-throughput sequencing of *pmoA* was used to investigate changes in the
288 composition of the methanotrophic communities in both the early and late paddies (Fig.
289 5). Approximately 24.40-53.36% of the *Proteobacteria* sequencing reads for both the
290 early and late paddies were classified as type I methanotrophs, including
291 *Methylosarcina*, *Methylogaea*, *Methylomonas*, *Methylococcus*, *Methylomicrobium*,
292 *Methylobacter*, *Methylocaldum*, *Methylovulum*, and *Methylomarinum*, and
293 approximately 12.63-63.00% of the sequencing reads were classified as type II
294 methanotrophs, including *Methylocystis* and *Methylosinus*. *Methylocystis* (12.26-
295 59.63%), *Methylosarcina* (6.52-22.69%), *Methylogaea* (3.24-22.27%), and
296 *Methylomonas* (2.48-18.09%) were generally dominant in both the early and late
297 paddies.

298

299 PCA and GDA of CH₄ emission, methanotrophs, and physicochemical parameters

300 The PCA (both in early and in late paddy) found that the amendments containing slag

301 (alone or particularly with biochar) were associated with larger methanotrophic
302 populations and with higher soil pH, salinity, and TN and SOC contents and lower CH₄
303 emissions (Fig.6, 7). The GDA supported these results. We must, however, stress that
304 all treatments were significantly separated (Table S2) and that overall soil traits, CH₄
305 emissions, and methanotrophic abundance differed the most in the slag + biochar
306 treatment (Fig. 8). The GDA found that methanotrophic abundance and soil pH to some
307 extent were most responsible for these differences among the treatments (Table S3).

308

309 **Discussion**

310 Understanding the ecology of methanotrophs and their abundance and taxonomic
311 composition under different waste amendments is crucial for controlling CH₄ emissions
312 in paddies. Our results provided clear evidence that amendments with slag and slag +
313 biochar decreased CH₄ emissions in both the early and late paddies, an effect correlated
314 with the increase in the methanotrophic abundance, specially for the relative
315 abundances of *Methylocystis*, *Methylomonas*, and *Methylosarcina* that were associated
316 with the effective mitigation of CH₄ emission in the paddies. The various treatments,
317 however, were associated with different soil properties. The effect of the treatments was
318 especially important in changing methanotrophic abundance and community
319 composition, evidence that the change of methanotrophic abundance and community
320 composition was due mainly to the components of the treatments, mainly slag.

321

322 Effects of slag amendment on the abundance and community structure of

323 methanotrophs

324 The application of slag inhibited total CH₄ emissions from the paddy fields, consistent
325 with previous reports by Singla et al. (2015) and Wang et al. (2015). The slag
326 amendments in our study slightly increased soil salinity, because slag usually contains
327 a specific suite of salt components (K, Ca, Mg, and Fe) that are important for soil
328 fertility (Ali et al. 2008b). Slag contains large amounts of chemically reactive iron oxide,
329 which increases soil salinity (Ali et al. 2008b). Our results, though, also strongly
330 suggest that the slag amendments increased soil pH, as also reported by Lee et al. (2012),
331 due to the calcium and iron contents in the slag (Susilawati et al. 2015). Methanotrophic
332 abundance, however, was not higher in the slag amendments than the control, perhaps
333 because slag contains iron that can reduce CH₄ emissions. High levels of electron
334 acceptors suppress CH₄ emission (Susilawati et al. 2015). The higher soil salinity and
335 pH due to amendment with slag may not decrease CH₄ emissions by increasing the
336 abundance of methanotrophs, but by changing the community composition or structure
337 or the abundance of methanogens.

338 Slag amendment increased the relative abundance of *Methylosarcina* compared
339 with the control (Fig. 5). *Methylosarcina* is a type I methanotroph dominant in
340 paddies (Lee et al. 2014). The growth of *Methylosarcina* requires a pH of 5.0-9.0 (Wise
341 et al., 2001), so slag amendments with near-neutral pHs (6.90-6.99) may increase the
342 relative abundance of *Methylosarcina* by increasing soil pH. Furthermore, iron is an
343 important element for methanotrophs (Mohanty et al., 2014), because methane
344 monooxygenase, a di-iron protein complex, uses iron as a transition metal (co-factor)

345 at the active site (Guallar et al. 2002), so slag containing iron oxide may inhibit CH₄
346 emissions by increasing soil pH and thereby increasing the relative abundance of
347 *Methylosarcina*. The iron in slag fertilizers may also act as an electron acceptor,
348 suppressing CH₄ emission by decreasing methanogenic activity (Jackel et al. 2000).

349

350 Effects of biochar amendment on CH₄ emission associated with changes of the
351 abundance and community structure of methanotrophs

352 The biochar amendment decreased the total CH₄ emission, but without increasing
353 methanotrophic abundance, during the entire study period compared to the control,
354 highly consistent with previous studies (Castaldi et al. 2011; Zhang et al. 2012). Biochar
355 application can reduce CH₄ emissions (Feng et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2012) and has
356 increased rice yield up to 28% (Zhang et al. 2010, 2012; Wang et al. 2012) by increasing
357 methanotrophic abundance, which would decrease CH₄ emission (Zhang et al. 2010).

358 The impact of biochar on CH₄ emission may be due to the biochar components and the
359 influence of biochar on soil physicochemical properties. The SOC content and the C:N
360 ratio were higher in the biochar and slag + biochar treatments than the control. The
361 highly aromatic chemical structure of biochar provides an organic carbon with higher
362 biochemical activity and thermal stability, allowing the biochar to be preserved in the
363 environment for a long time. The addition of biochar to soil may therefore improve soil
364 stability. The reduced CH₄ emissions from paddies with added biochar are likely due to
365 a lack of substrate (CO₂) availability (Liu et al. 2011; Chang et al. 2012). Kim et al.
366 (2017) reported that biochar inhibited methanogenesis by increasing soil aeration and

367 oxygen availability. The slightly higher pHs due to the alkaline properties of biochar,
368 though, may contribute to the inhibition of CH₄ emissions by changing methanotrophic
369 community structure. The abundance of *Methylobacter* was lower in the slag, biochar,
370 and slag + biochar treatments than the control. The growth of *Methylobacter* requires a
371 pH of 5.0-9.0 and is optimal at pHs of 6.5-7.0 (Lu et al. 2016). Amendments with slag,
372 biochar, or slag + biochar with higher pHs (6.46-7.41) may thus not be suitable for the
373 growth and proliferation of this group. Members of the genus *Methylobacter* require
374 higher oxygen and CH₄ concentrations for CH₄ oxidation than other methanotrophs
375 (Reim et al. 2012). A reduction in the relative abundance of *Methylobacter* by altering
376 soil pH may thus be a mechanism to suppress CH₄ emission under waste amendments.

377 Wang et al. (2012), however, found that CH₄ emission in paddy fields increased
378 significantly when amended with biochar. The addition of biochar in flooded paddies
379 increases the substrate supply and creates a favorable environment for methanogenic
380 activity (Kögel-Knabner et al. 2010; Lehmann et al. 2011). The labile components of
381 biochar can decompose and become the predominant source of substrates for
382 methanogens, particularly in the early stages of the rice growing season (Knoblauch et
383 al. 2008). The effects of biochar amendment on CH₄ emission are thus inconsistent
384 among studies, and the underlying mechanisms may vary with soil type, agricultural
385 management, and origin of the biochar (Lehmann et al. 2011).

386

387 Effects of the slag + biochar amendment on CH₄ emission associated with changes of
388 methanotrophic abundance and community structure

389 Our study demonstrated that the three amended treatments lowered total CH₄ emissions
390 to different extents relative to the control treatment. Slag + biochar was the best
391 amendment for suppressing total CH₄ emissions in early paddy field. Methanotrophic
392 abundance was significantly higher in the slag + biochar treatment than the control,
393 biochar, and slag treatments, likely because biochar can improve soil permeability and
394 the granular texture of slag can further enhance the ability of soil to supply oxygen.
395 Slag and biochar contain K, Ca, Mg, and Fe, which strongly increase CH₄ oxidation,
396 which would increase the abundance of methanotrophs in the slag + biochar treatment.
397 CH₄ emission was inversely correlated with the abundance of methanotrophs, so the
398 increase in methanotrophic abundance would likely decrease in CH₄ emissions under
399 the slag + biochar treatment. The relative abundance of *Methylocystis* in the early paddy
400 was higher in the slag and slag + biochar treatments than the control, especially in the
401 slag + biochar treatment where the abundance was about 183% higher. The three
402 amended treatments increased the relative abundance of methanotrophs in the late
403 paddy. *Methylocystis* can form resting cells, surviving on multi-carbon compounds and
404 using CH₄ at both high and low concentrations (Ho et al. 2013). Some type II
405 methanotrophs (*Methylocella*, *Methylocapsa*, and *Methylocystis*) have recently been
406 characterized as facultative methanotrophs able to conserve energy for growth on multi-
407 carbon compounds such as acetates, pyruvate, succinate, malate, and ethanol (Esson et
408 al. 2016). The slag + biochar treatment in our study also decreased the relative
409 abundance of *Methylomonas*. Bacterial diversity may be affected by SOC and N
410 contents (Chan et al. 2006). We also found that the community composition of

411 methanotrophs was significantly correlated with SOC content and the C:N ratio (Fig.
412 6), suggesting that the combination of slag and biochar, with its high SOC content, may
413 provide a rich substrate for CH₄ synthesis, which would further change methanotrophic
414 community structure. *Methylocystis* has a low minimum threshold concentration
415 (Michaelis constant, K_m) for CH₄ oxidation (Lee et al. 2014). A lower K_m is associated
416 with a higher affinity of enzymes and substrates and stronger CH₄ oxidation. Increasing
417 the abundance of CH₄-oxidizing bacteria would likely have a critical impact on CH₄
418 reduction (Kima et al. 2017). Increasing the relative abundance of *Methylocystis* may
419 therefore reduce CH₄ emission. In conclusion, the slag + biochar treatment likely
420 increased the oxygen content of the soil, which would increase the oxidation of CH₄ by
421 methanotrophs, leading to lower CH₄ emissions.

422

423 **Conclusions and final remarks**

424 Our results indicated that soil amendment with both slag and biochar significantly
425 increased soil salinity and pH in both the early and late paddies and that amendment
426 with slag significantly increased pH in the late paddy. The slag and slag + biochar
427 treatments decreased the cumulative CH₄ emission compared to the control in both the
428 early and late paddies, by 10.2 and 34.1% and 14.9 and 33.5%, respectively. The
429 abundance of methanotrophs in the slag + biochar treatment significantly increased
430 methanotrophic abundance about three- and six-fold in the early and late paddies
431 ($p < 0.05$), respectively. The slag treatment increased the relative abundance of
432 *Methylosarcina*, and biochar, slag + biochar treatments decreased the relative

433 abundance of *Methylomonas*, relative to the control. The slag and slag + biochar
434 treatments increased the relative abundance of *Methylocystis* in the early paddy, and all
435 three amended treatments increased the relative abundance of *Methylocystis* in the late
436 paddy, relative to the control. The application of both slag and biochar provided the best
437 overall results, increasing soil pH, salinity, SOC content, and the C:N ratio associated
438 with methanotrophic abundance and the relative abundances of *Methylocystis*,
439 *Methylomonas*, and *Methylosarcina*, which may effectively mitigate CH₄ emissions in
440 paddies.

441

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641 **Tables**

642 **Table 1** Physicochemical properties for the amended and control plots in the early and late paddy fields

Paddy field	Treatment	Salinity (dS·m ⁻¹)	pH	Bulk density (g·cm ⁻³)	Water content (%)	Soil organic carbon (mg·g ⁻¹)	Total Nitrogen (mg·g ⁻¹)	C/N
Early	Control	0.20±0.03 b	6.33±0.06 b	1.01±0.03 a	59.51±1.60 a	16.96±0.25 a	2.02±0.04 a	8.42±0.08 a
	Slag	0.22±0.03 b	6.99±0.23 ab	1.03±0.01 a	57.92±0.14 a	17.45±0.56 a	2.05±0.07 a	8.51±0.01 a
	Biochar	0.20±0.02 b	6.54±0.08 ab	1.06±0.04 a	56.03±1.95 a	17.91±1.09 a	2.01±0.01 a	8.91±0.58 a
	Slag + biochar	0.57±0.04 a	7.41±0.46 a	1.08±0.02 a	54.69±1.30 a	22.72±5.40 a	2.08±0.09 a	10.76±2.05 a
Late	Control	0.23±0.03 b	6.08±0.22 b	1.05±0.05 a	51.34±2.64 a	15.70±1.24 a	1.93±0.14 a	8.13±0.05 a
	Slag	0.31±0.04 b	6.90±0.03 a	1.04±0.04 a	52.78±3.05 a	16.14±0.55 a	1.97±0.06 a	8.18±0.07 a
	Biochar	0.30±0.02 b	6.46±0.04 ab	1.11±0.01 a	48.40±0.68 a	20.94±3.47 a	2.11±0.08 a	9.84±1.21 a
	Slag + biochar	0.47±0.05 a	7.21±0.39 a	1.08±0.02 a	50.52±1.06 a	21.61±3.78 a	2.12±0.06 a	10.12±1.50 a

643 Different letters within a column indicate significant differences among the treatments at $p<0.05$.

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645

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Table 2 Methanotrophic diversity for the treatments in the growth stage for the early and late paddy fields

Paddy field	Treatment	Sequences	Alpha diversity				
			OTUs	Chao1	ACE	Shannon	Coverage (%)
Early	Control	43989	1929	2328	2396.45	5.08	98.82
	Slag	50324	2098	2500	2650.87	5.31	98.86
	Biochar	84218	2433	2692	2802.28	5.62	99.44
	Slag + biochar	18683	612	940	1244.10	3.52	98.57
Late	Control	42203	2020	2337	2435.33	5.09	98.82
	Slag	26199	1336	1741	1734.17	5.04	98.47
	Biochar	31884	1762	2153	2245.01	5.17	98.39
	Slag + biochar	35717	2537	2811	2971.21	5.36	98.29

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650

651 **Table 3.** Correlations between methanotrophic abundance and environmental factors (soil salinity, pH, SOC content, TN content,
 652 bulk density, water content, and CH₄ flux)

	CH ₄ flux	<i>pmoA</i>	Salinity	pH	SOC content	TN content	Bulk density	Water content
CH ₄ flux	1	-0.36	-0.15	-0.41	-0.45	-0.53	0.04	-0.62
<i>pmoA</i>	-0.36	1	0.90**	0.71*	0.83*	0.61	0.42	-0.11
Salinity	-0.16	0.90**	1	0.79*	0.82*	0.56	0.55	-0.35
pH	-0.41	0.71*	0.79*	1	0.64	0.57	0.24	0.02
SOM	-0.45	0.83*	0.82*	0.64	1	0.88**	0.76*	-0.35
TN	-0.53	0.61	0.56	0.57	0.88**	1	0.60	-0.22
Bulk density	0.04	0.42	0.55	0.24	0.76*	0.60	1	-0.80*
Water content	-0.62	-0.11	-0.35	0.02	-0.35	-0.22	-0.80*	1

653 * and ** indicate significant correlations at the 0.05 and 0.01 levels (2-tailed), respectively.

654

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Location of the study area and sampling sites (▲) in Fujian province, southeastern China

Fig. 2 Cumulative methane emissions for the control and treatments in paddies. Different letters above the bars indicate significant differences among the treatments at $p < 0.05$

Fig. 3 Quantification of methanotrophic *pmoA* copy number for the control and treatments in the early and late paddies. Different letters above the bars indicate significant differences among the treatments at $p < 0.05$

Fig. 4 Heatmap of methanotrophs for the treatments in the early and late paddies. E-SB: slag + biochar amendment in early paddy; E-B: biochar amendment in early paddy; L-S: slag amendment in late paddy; L-B: biochar amendment in late paddy; E-S: slag amendment in early paddy; L-SB: slag + biochar amendment in late paddy; E-C: control in early paddy; L-C: control in late paddy

Fig. 5 Relative abundances of methanotrophs in the treatments determined by high-throughput sequencing of the *pmoA* gene for the early (A) and late (B) paddies

Fig. 6 PCA analysis of physicochemical parameters in the treatments in the early paddy field. SOC, soil organic carbon concentration; Water (%), soil water content; [N], soil total nitrogen concentration; GA, methanotrophic gene abundance; C:N, carbon:nitrogen ratio

Fig. 7 PCA of physicochemical parameters in the treatments in the late paddy field.

SOM, soil organic carbon concentration; Water (%), soil water content; [N], soil total nitrogen concentration; GA, methanotrophic gene abundance; C:N, carbon:nitrogen ratio

Fig. 8 GDA of physicochemical parameters as independent continuous variables, waste amendment as a categorical dependent variable, and crop season (early and late) as a dependent controlling continuous variable. SOC, soil organic carbon concentration; Water, soil water content; [N], soil total nitrogen concentration; GA, methanotrophic gene abundance; C:N, carbon:nitrogen ratio

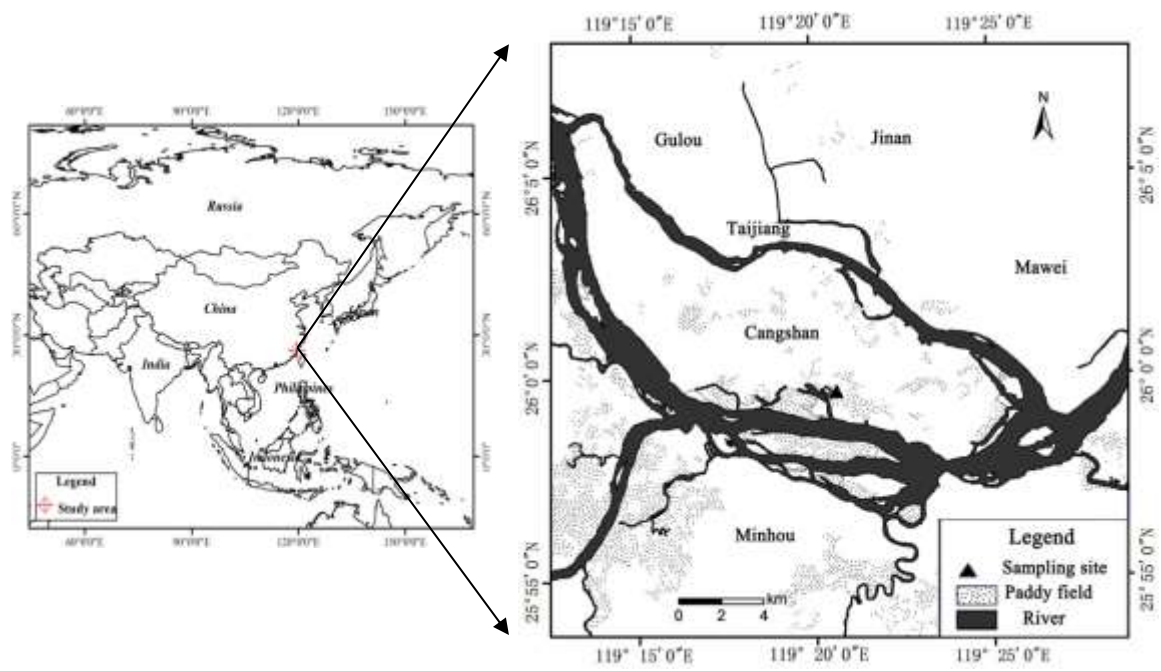


Fig. 1.

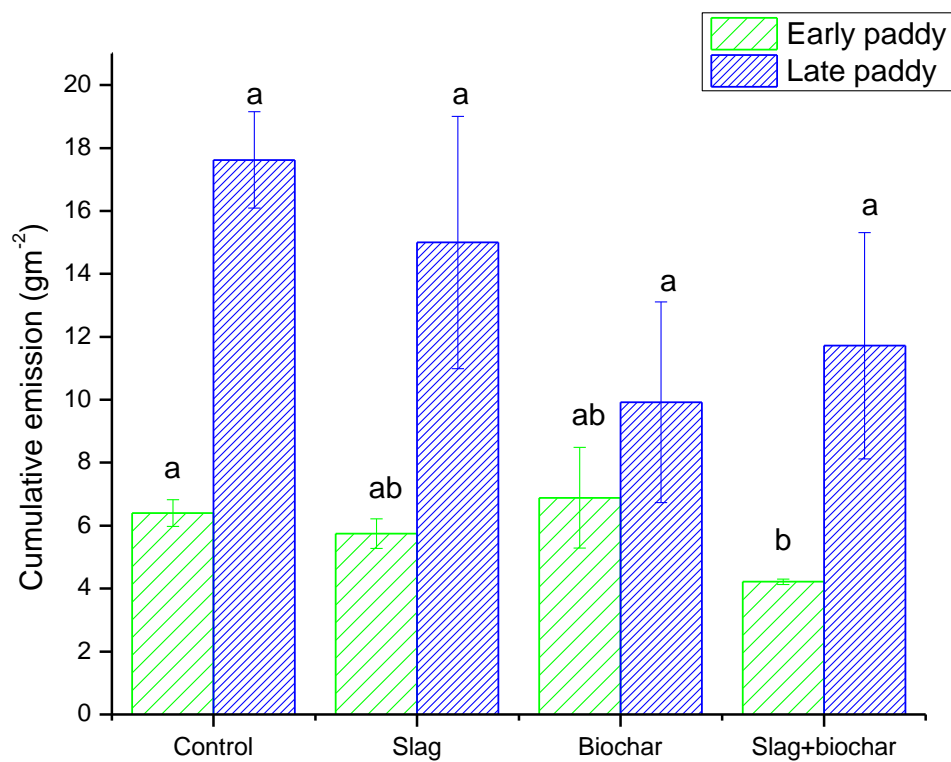


Fig. 2.

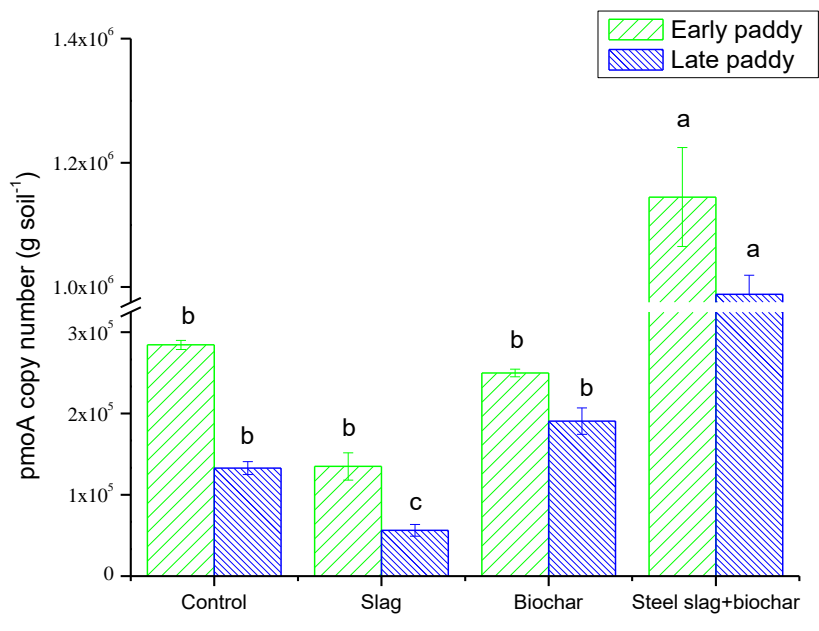


Fig. 3.

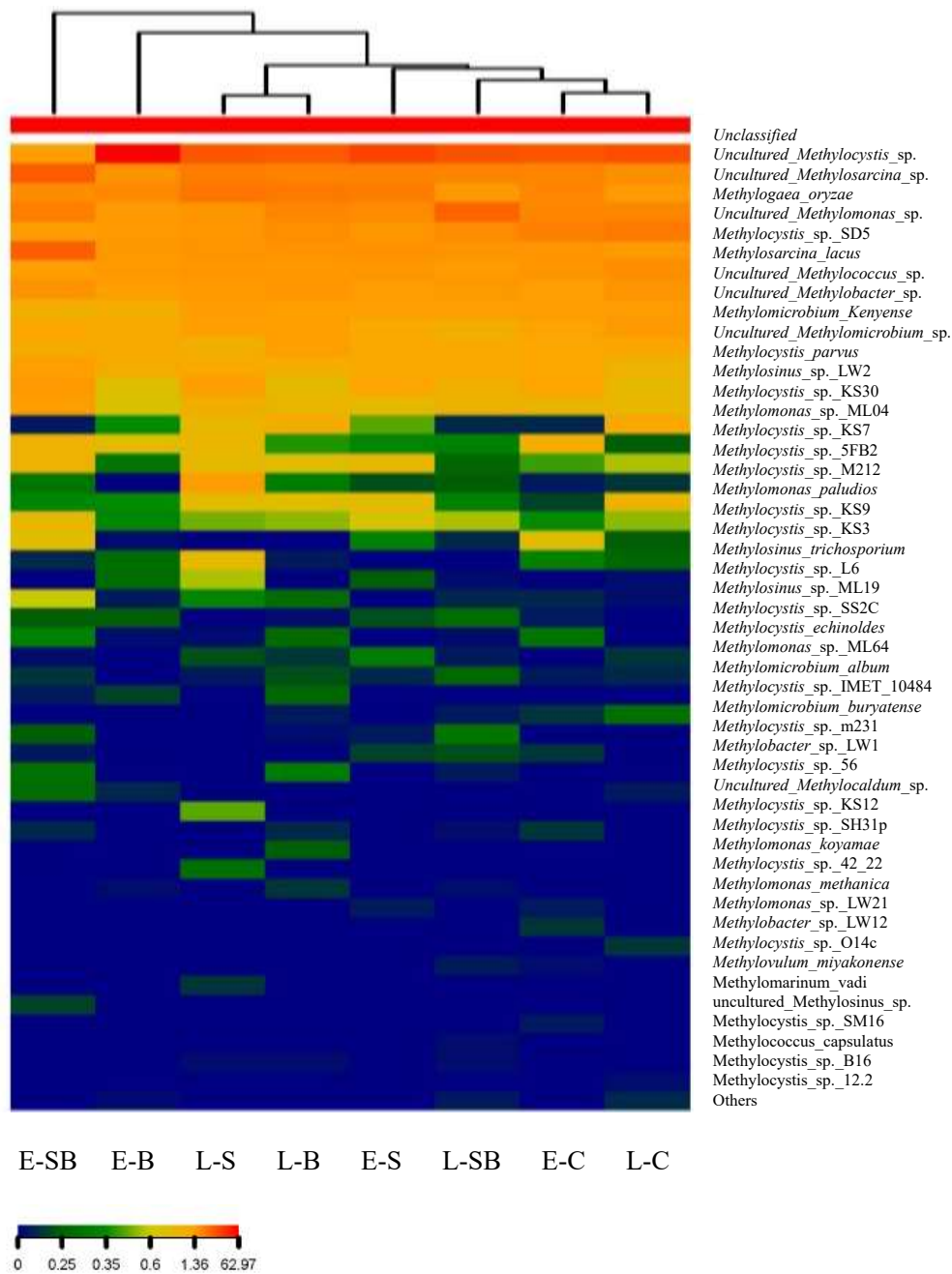


Fig. 4.

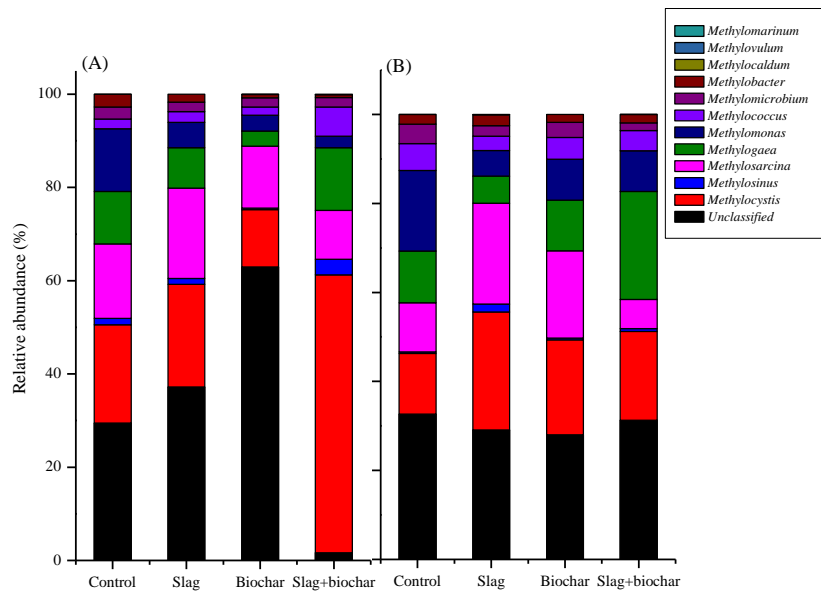


Fig. 5

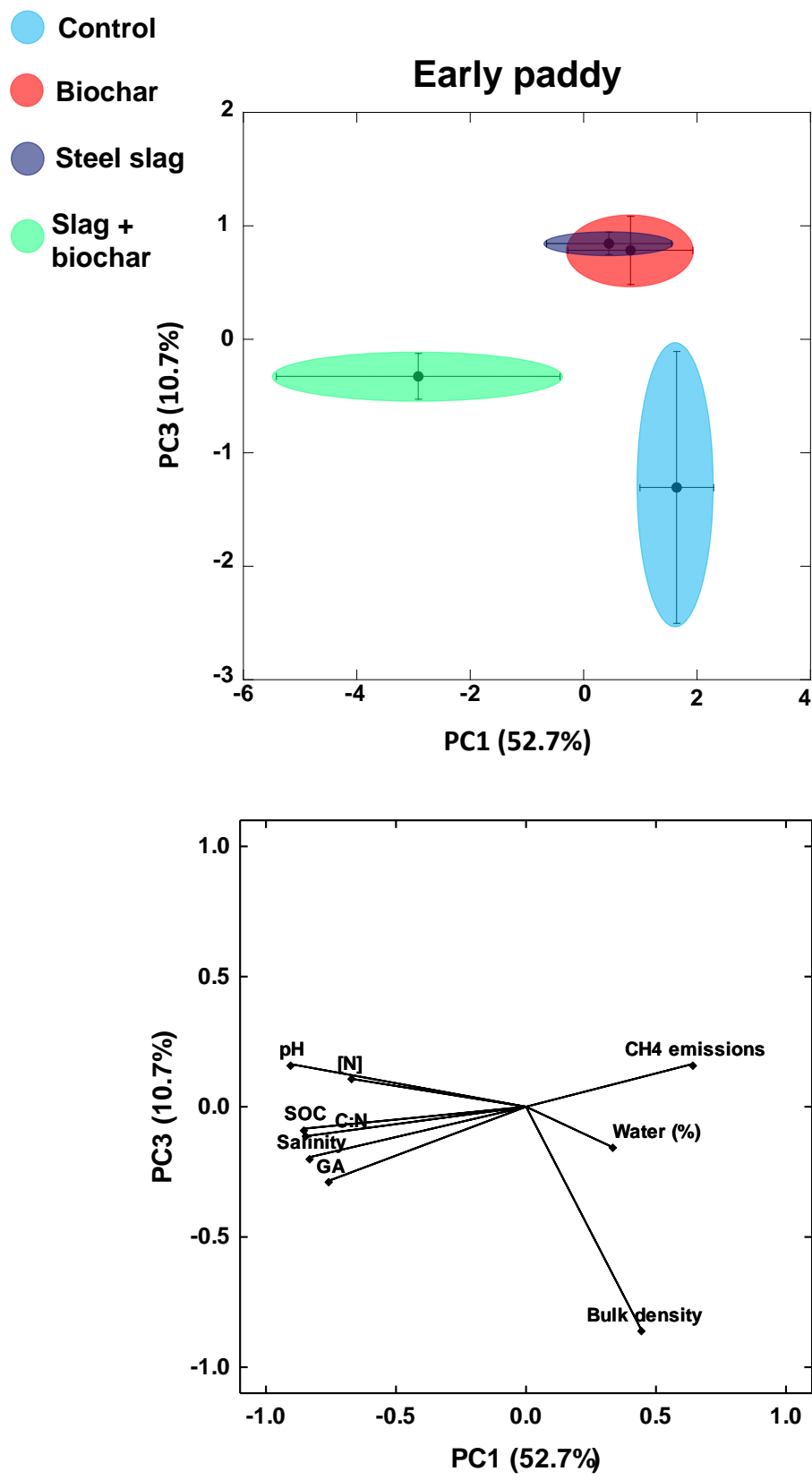


Fig. 6

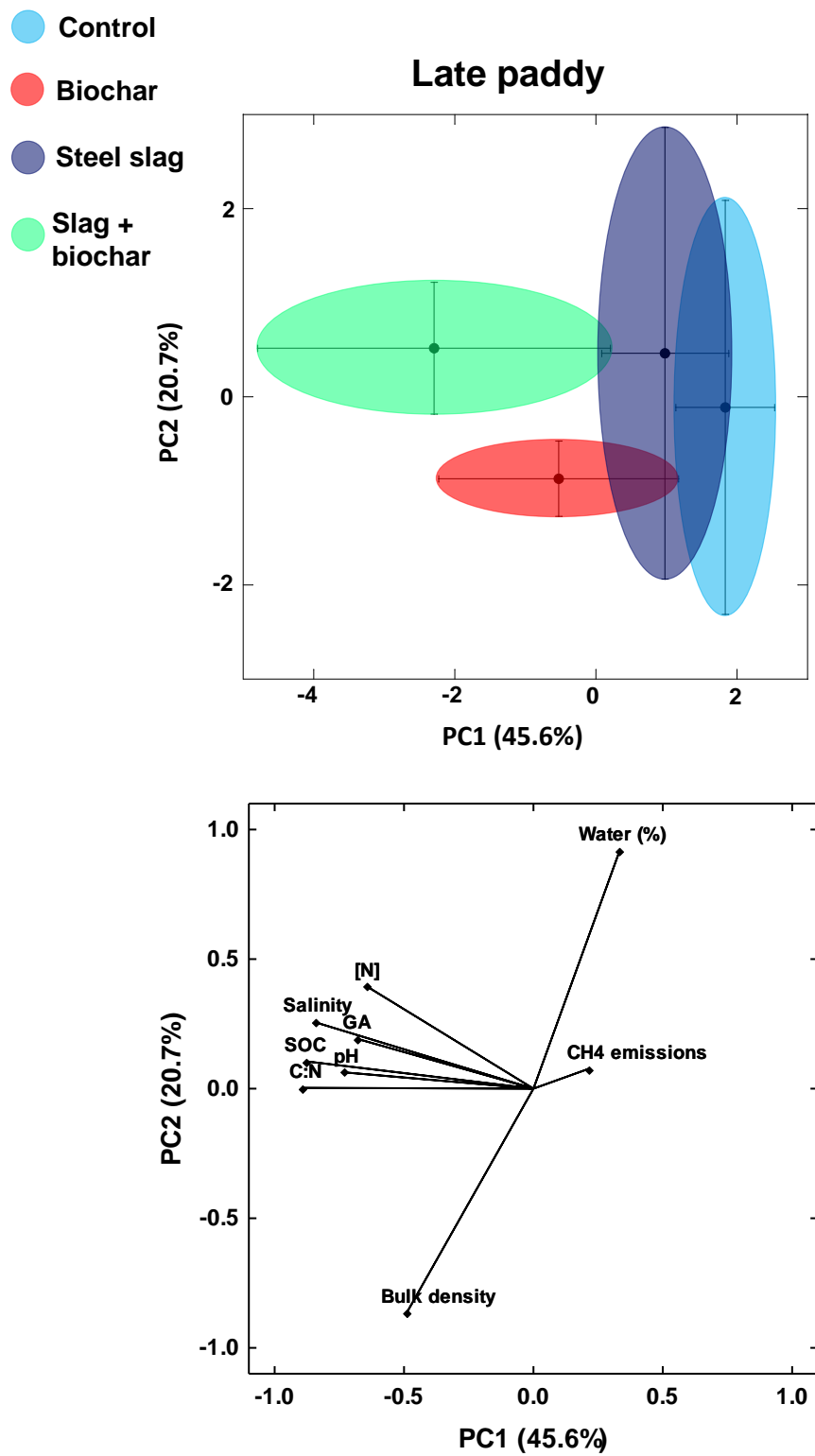


Fig. 7

- Control
- Biochar
- Steel slag
- Slag + biochar

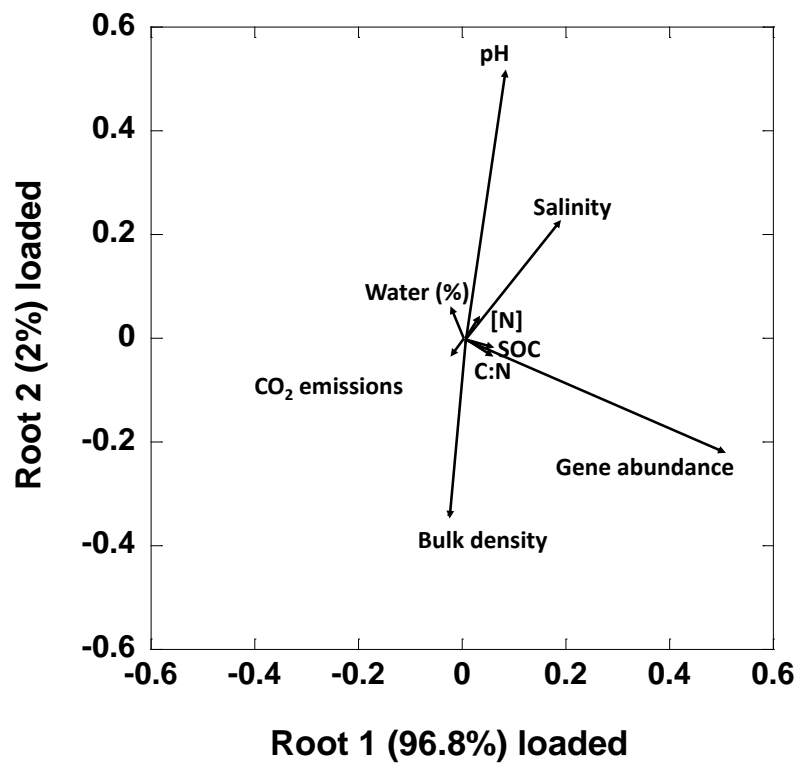
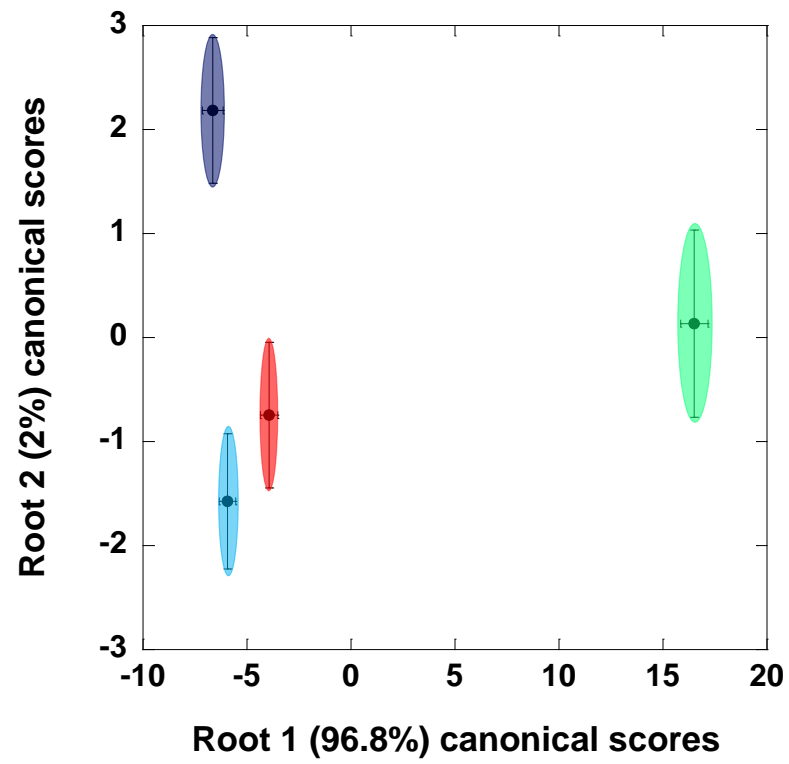


Fig. 8