

1 **Effective carbon sequestration in tilled agricultural soils by *in situ***  
2 **photocatalyzed polymerization of soil organic matter**

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20 **Current practices adopted in agriculture to mitigate climate change induce little and**  
21 **temporary soil organic matter stabilization, while they negatively affect crop yields.**

22 **Facing an increasing intensification of agriculture to match an exploding population**  
23 **growth, new chemical technologies are being sought to control CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from soil.**

24 **Here we report that an effective organic carbon sequestration in cropped soils is**  
25 **obtained by an innovative technology based on an *in situ* photo-oxidative coupling**

26 **among organic matter molecules catalysed by a biomimetic synthetic iron-porphyrin. A**  
27 **three-years long field study shows that the catalyst-assisted *in situ* photo-polymerization**

28 **of organic matter enables significant sequestration of soil organic carbon under a**  
29 **conventional tillage management without reducing crop yields and soil biological**

30 **quality. This “green” catalytic technology is a promising soil management practice that**  
31 **concomitantly provides the *in situ* stabilization and maintenance of carbon in arable**

32 **soils, the protection of soil qualities and the sustainable mitigation of climate change,**  
33 **even within an intensified agricultural productivity.**

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35 Agricultural lands under food and bio-energy crops, managed grass and permanent crops  
36 including agro-forestry, account for about 40-50% of the Earth's land surface<sup>1</sup>. Land-use  
37 changes, technological advancement and varietal improvement enabled world grain harvests  
38 to double from 1.2 to 2.5 billion t y<sup>-1</sup> between 1970 and 2010, thus ensuring food to  
39 population growth<sup>2</sup>. This occurred at the cost of an annual total greenhouse gases (GHGs)  
40 emission from cropland, that in 2010 is estimated to be 5.2 to 5.8 Gt CO<sub>2</sub>-eq y<sup>-1</sup> and  
41 comprises 10-12% of global anthropogenic emissions<sup>3</sup> However, only agricultural non-CO<sub>2</sub>  
42 sources are reported as anthropogenic GHG emissions in IPCC calculations<sup>3</sup>, since emitted  
43 CO<sub>2</sub> is assumed to be neutral, being associated to annual cycles of carbon fixation and  
44 oxidation through photosynthesis<sup>3</sup>. It is thus overlooked that much of carbon lost from  
45 cropland upon conventional tillage practices is due to the heterotrophic respiration of the most  
46 stable organic carbon pool contained in soil aggregates and hardly reestablished by a short-  
47 term photosynthetic cycle<sup>4-7</sup>.

48 The increasing need for cropland for food production and renewable forms of energy  
49 to support a global population of 10 billion by 2050<sup>8</sup>, put soils at larger risk of SOC depletion,  
50 and, consequently, erosion and desertification<sup>9</sup>. Measures to mitigate GHGs emission from  
51 agricultural soils by reducing SOC oxidation are now limited to management practices such  
52 as the use of leys and green manures in crop rotation, addition of organic fertilizers, crop  
53 residue incorporation, no-till (NT)/reduced tillage (RT) management, agroforestry, and return  
54 to natural vegetation<sup>3</sup>. These practices do not only fail in substantially reducing GHGs  
55 emissions from soil or permanently stabilizing soil organic matter<sup>10-12</sup>, but are also predicted  
56 to hardly match more than a maximum of 25% of the GHGs reductions required by the Kyoto

57 Protocol within 2050<sup>13</sup>. For example, the RT practice for SOC sequestration is ineffective on  
58 poorly drained soils<sup>14</sup>, or when crop residues are removed from soil<sup>15</sup>. Despite the widespread  
59 adoption of NT/RT farming, its global rate of SOC sequestration is rather small ( $< 0.5 \text{ t C ha}^{-1}$   
60  $\text{y}^{-1}$ )<sup>16</sup>, highly variable among soils and land uses ( $> 50\%$  error)<sup>17, 18</sup>, and effective only over a  
61 long-term<sup>19</sup>. Moreover, NT/RT practices do not persistently sequester SOC in  
62 microaggregates, since C is concentrated in upper soil layers<sup>20</sup>, and as tillage is resumed  
63 (possibly by lack of sufficient incentives to farmers), the temporary fixed carbon may be  
64 rapidly lost again from soil<sup>21</sup>. Finally, the potential contribution of no-till to the sustainable  
65 intensification of agriculture to feed increasing population has been recently questioned<sup>22</sup>. It is  
66 thus necessary to find alternatives to current soil management practices for carbon  
67 sequestration in agriculture in order to enable soils to support the expected intensification of  
68 food production, while still contributing to mitigate GHG emissions.

69 The humified organic matter in soil (70-80% of SOM)<sup>23</sup> represents the most persistent  
70 SOC pool with mean residence time of several hundreds of years<sup>24</sup>, and, thus, the principal  
71 long-term C sink in the biosphere. It is expected that any advanced comprehension of the  
72 chemical nature and reactivity of soil humus should help to devise novel technologies to  
73 mitigate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from soil<sup>25</sup>. Humic matter is a complex mixture of heterogeneous  
74 aliphatic and aromatic molecules of plant and microbial origin<sup>26, 27</sup>, which accumulate on soil  
75 particles<sup>28</sup> by progressively separating from the soil solution for thermodynamic reasons<sup>29, 30</sup>,  
76 and, thus giving rise to chemical and physical protection of SOC<sup>28, 31</sup>. Recent scientific  
77 evidence changed the paradigm on the chemical nature of humus by describing humic  
78 molecules as heterogeneous but relatively small in mass ( $\leq 1000 \text{ Da}$ )<sup>32</sup>, rather than the  
79 previously assumed macropolymers<sup>33</sup>. Humic molecules were shown to be associated in  
80 supramolecular structures, which are prevalently stabilized by weak non-covalent bonds and  
81 may be easily disrupted by interactions with organic acids<sup>34, 35</sup>. This new view even led some

82 scientists to the extreme assumption that the persistence of SOM should be due less to the  
83 structure of humic components and their arrangement with clay particles than to the prevailing  
84 environmental and biological conditions in soil<sup>36</sup>.

85 We still believe that the chemical structure and reactivity of organic molecules in the  
86 soil matrix are crucial to develop effective measures for the control of SOC persistence. For  
87 example, it is known that oxidative enzymes induce a free-radical driven coupling reaction  
88 among small humic-like aromatic molecules<sup>37</sup>, and this catalyzed formation of intermolecular  
89 covalent bonds may be usefully exploited to enhance OC fixation in soil<sup>38</sup>. Synthetic  
90 biomimetic metal-porphyrin catalysts that mimic the activity of oxidative enzymes, were  
91 found to produce large and chemically-stable humic molecules during oxidative (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)  
92 treatments of dissolved organic matter<sup>39, 40</sup>. Even the simple solar irradiation under both  
93 homogeneous and heterogeneous metal-porphyrin catalysts enabled the photo-oxidative  
94 formation of intermolecular C-C and C-O-C bonds among humic phenolic molecules<sup>41, 42</sup>.

95 We thus conceived that a photo-oxidative polymerization of SOM can be activated  
96 directly *in situ* by spreading a biomimetic catalyst on soil. The catalytic formation of multiple  
97 covalent bonds among humic molecules and the consequent increase of chemical energy in  
98 SOM would result in a reduction of its bioaccessibility to microbial mineralization and in a  
99 concomitant OC accumulation in soil. Furthermore, larger and branched humic molecules  
100 would promote the association of soil particles into greater soil aggregates, thus improving  
101 soil physical quality<sup>43-45</sup>. These hypotheses were proved by treating whole soils with  
102 biomimetic catalysts in either laboratory or mesocosm experiments, whereby the enhanced  
103 chemical stabilization of SOC both significantly reduced microbial respiration<sup>46, 47</sup> and  
104 improved soil structural stability even after several wetting and drying cycles<sup>47</sup>.

105 The field scale effectiveness in SOC fixation by a water-soluble iron-porphyrin  
106 treatment (FeP) is reported here for different soils under conventional soil management for

107 wheat production. In the silty-loam soil of Torino (Table SI-2 in supplementary information),  
108 the FeP added to soil significantly enhanced the OC content of the bulk soil after the first year  
109 in respect to that of both control and original soil (Fig. 1). The significant increase of OC  
110 fixation in the bulk soil was confirmed after the second year, whereas this increasing trend  
111 lost significance after the third year (Table SI-2). However, a significant SOC stabilization by  
112 the FeP treatment after both the second and third year of management was shown by the sum  
113 of OC content in the water-stable aggregates (WSA), which were separated by wet sieving  
114 from the bulk soil. In fact, despite the inherent loss of the soluble OC during wet-sieving  
115 separation<sup>48</sup>, the FeP-treated field soil maintained up to 97% of SOC in WSA at the end of the  
116 third year of cultivation, as compared to only 93% of SOC retention in WSA of the control  
117 soil (Fig.1, Table SI-2). The evidence of SOC fixation in the Fe-amended soil was also  
118 supported by the significant shift of carbon content in WSA towards larger size-aggregates  
119 after the second and third experimental year, whereby the relative SOC enhancement in larger  
120 particles (0.50-0.25 mm) corresponded to a concomitant decrease of OC content in the <0.25  
121 mm microaggregates (Fig.1, Table SI-2). This indicates that the occurred coupling among  
122 humic phenolic molecules and consequent enhancement of SOM hydrophobicity, determined  
123 the association of microaggregates and formation of larger soil particle-sizes<sup>43, 49</sup>.

124 The FeP treatment on the silty clay loam soil of Piacenza (Table SI-3) produced an  
125 increase of OC content in the bulk soil that was significantly larger than control only after the  
126 second experimental year, whereas a significant OC fixation as sum of WSA was evident for  
127 every year (Fig. 2, Table SI-3). In fact, the mechanical particles separation in water depleted  
128 only about 2 % of SOC for the FeP-treated soil, whereas the OC loss from control was  
129 significantly greater than this value for each experimental year (Fig. 2, Table SI-3). The  
130 stabilization of SOM by the photo-catalyzed reaction after the second year was confirmed by  
131 the significant enhancement of OC content in each separated aggregate-size (Table SI-3).

132 Moreover, the overall improvement of soil aggregation due to the FeP treatment was shown  
133 by the significant relative increase in OC content in the largest size-aggregate (4.75–1.00 mm)  
134 at each experimental year

135 The effect of the catalyst addition to the clay-loam soil of the Napoli site was still  
136 slightly different from the other two soils. A significant SOC increase (>10%) in the bulk soil  
137 of FeP-treated plots was found only after the third experimental year (Fig. 3, Table SI-4).  
138 Nevertheless, a different carbon distribution between FeP-treated and control soils was noted  
139 already after the first experimental year in the separated size-aggregates. In fact, the  
140 significant reduction in OC content induced by the catalyst treatment in the 1.00–0.50 mm  
141 aggregate fraction (Fig. 3) is in line with the observed relative percent increase of OC content  
142 for the largest (4.75–1.00 mm) size-aggregate (Table SI-4), thus indicating a progressive  
143 incorporation of carbon-rich particles into soil macroaggregates. The occurred OC fixation by  
144 the FeP treatment after the second and third year of cultivation was shown by the significantly  
145 larger OC content in the sum of WSA, in respect to control (Fig.3, Table SI-4). This effect  
146 was accompanied by a significant OC stabilization in the 0.50–0.25 and <0.25 mm size-  
147 aggregates after the second year, and a definite increase of OC content and relative percentage  
148 in the largest aggregates (4.75–1.00 mm) in the third year.

149 These results showed that the soil treatment with the biomimetic water soluble iron-  
150 porphyrin in field conditions determined a significant sequestration of organic carbon in  
151 respect to untreated soils in all three experimental plots of this study. Already after one year  
152 of wheat cultivation following the FeP amendment, the catalyzed photo-polymerization of  
153 SOM in Torino and Piacenza bulk soils provided an OC fixation of 3.15 and 1.56 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
154 larger than control, respectively, while it was not effective for the Napoli soil (Table 1).  
155 However, the FeP treatment produced a significant net increase of OC fixation after the  
156 second and third experimental year for all three field plots with values as low as 2.75 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup>

157 and as large as 5.46 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> for Torino and Piacenza bulk soils, respectively. The magnitude  
158 of carbon sequestration obtained by the photo-oxidative catalyzed coupling of humic  
159 molecules was also evident from the sum of WSA, whose OC content larger than control  
160 varied from 1.96 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> in Torino field soil after the first year of cultivation, to 7.41 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
161 in Piacenza plot soil for the second experimental year (Table 1). The differences in fixed  
162 carbon among soils and years are likely to depend on the specific soil properties or rainfall  
163 events which may vary the activity of the biomimetic catalyst, depending on either its  
164 adsorption equilibrium on surfaces of soil particles or its transport down the soil profile.

165 Despite the variability in OC fixation due to heterogeneity of soil matrix and inherent  
166 randomness of representative sampling, the carbon sequestered in bulk soil by the photo-  
167 activity of the iron-porphyrin catalyst for three consecutive years reached an average of 3.54,  
168 3.90, and 2.24 Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> for the Torino, Piacenza and Napoli experimental sites, respectively  
169 (Table 1). These significant amounts of fixed SOC were achieved under conventional tillage  
170 (CT) management, whereas the current highly experimented NT or RT practices are far from  
171 reaching such a large OC increase in cropped bulk soils even after several years, whether  
172 under boreal North European<sup>50</sup> or Mediterranean<sup>51</sup> agroecosystems. This considerable SOM  
173 incorporation even under CT management was not due to a reduced exposure of SOC to  
174 microbial respiration, as in NT and RT management<sup>12</sup>, but rather to an enhanced chemical and  
175 biochemical stabilization of SOM achieved by the *in situ* catalyzed photo-oxidative coupling  
176 among soil organic molecules. The phenolic molecules undergone the catalyzed coupling  
177 reaction in soil are likely to originate from either humic moieties already existing in soil, or  
178 lignin monomers released from heterotrophically respired crop residues, or exudates of plant  
179 roots, or metabolites of soil microbial activity<sup>47</sup>.

180 The SOC accumulation in the cropped field plots of this study is to be attributed to the  
181 sole abiotic coupling reaction induced by the synthetic FeP catalyst, without any involvement

182 of biological processes. The invariance of soil biological activity upon FeP treatment was  
183 shown by the phospholipids fatty acids (PLFA) (Fig. 4) and the activities of soil  $\beta$ -  
184 glucosidase, phosphatase, urease, and invertase enzymes (Tab. SI-5), which were measured  
185 on the same cultivated soils and over the three experimental years<sup>52</sup>. The PCA multivariate  
186 elaboration of PLFA results failed to reveal significant differences between untreated and  
187 FeP-treated plots in terms of structure and activity of living soil microorganisms (Fig. 4). In  
188 particular, results from Torino and Piacenza plot soils grouped separately according to  
189 sampling year, while in the Napoli soil the grouping became evident only at the third year. No  
190 significant clustering was instead found as a result of the catalyst treatment, being control and  
191 treated samples grouped together in all three sites at each year (Fig. 4). The PCA description  
192 of results were confirmed by applying the distance-based redundancy analysis (db-RDA)  
193 model, in order to verify the significant effect of either sampling year or FeP treatment, as a  
194 function of PLFA patterns found for the three experimental sites. The model showed a  
195 significance ( $P < 0.05$ ) for sampling year in each site, with percent of explained variance  
196 ranging from 26.7% in Napoli to 40.2% in Piacenza and 61.2% in Torino. Conversely, the  
197 model did not reveal any significant difference between the control and catalyst-treated soil,  
198 since the FeP effect showed a very low percent of explained variance (<4%) and was never  
199 significant (Table SI-6). These results confirm that the considerable SOC accumulation  
200 observed in FeP plots (Table 1) was not linked to changes in structure and activity of  
201 microbial communities, and it must be most likely related to the abiotic catalyst-assisted  
202 photopolymerization of SOM. Furthermore, the biochemical index of soil quality alteration<sup>53</sup>  
203 based on the enzymes activities measured in plot soils of this study, excluded that the catalyst  
204 treatments had any effects on the biological quality of soils (Table SI-5). It is also important  
205 to underline that the significant SOC sequestered by the *in situ* catalytic treatment of these  
206 field plots did not imply any reduction in crop yield and yield attributes<sup>54</sup>. Plant N uptake was



207 not affected either, thus confirming that soil mineralization was not modified by the  
208 treatment<sup>54</sup>. This indicates that such an *in situ* sequestration technology is not only effective  
209 towards SOC sequestration, but it also conserves the full plant nutrition capacity of soil and  
210 its potential crop productivity. Conversely, the NT and RT practices aimed to increase carbon  
211 sequestration by reducing the bio-oxidation of SOM, limit the mineralization of plant  
212 nutrients in soils and result in lower crop yields<sup>22, 55, 56</sup>.

213 The conceptual approach of soil organic matter fixation has long considered  
214 decreasing the rate of its biological decomposition by reducing tillage intensity and frequency  
215 and adding organic materials to soil<sup>57</sup>, despite their temporary effectiveness due to limited  
216 SOM stabilization<sup>58</sup>. But this view is evolving and many now try to develop chemical  
217 technologies to both reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from soil and increase SOM, such as replacement  
218 of agricultural lime with silicates<sup>59</sup> or promotion of carbonation with additions of Ca-and Mg-  
219 rich salts to soils<sup>60, 61</sup> or use of polyphenols to complex SOM or inhibit enzymes that  
220 decompose it<sup>62</sup>. Here we demonstrate that an *in situ* photo-oxidative coupling reaction among  
221 humic molecules catalyzed in soil by an eco-friendly water-soluble metal-porphyrin is highly  
222 effective in organic carbon sequestration even under conventional soil management. This  
223 catalyst-assisted abiotic enhancement of covalent bonds in soil molecular components favours  
224 the processes of chemical and physical protection of OC in soil and reduces the extent of  
225 microbial mineralization of SOM, without either altering the soil biological quality or  
226 questioning the maximum crop yields required to feed an increasing population. This  
227 innovative catalytic technology of SOC fixation may become an easy soil management  
228 practice to control SOM dynamics and sustain the intensification of agriculture, while  
229 contributing to mitigate climate change.

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232 **Methods**

233 The biomimetic catalyst used here was a water-soluble iron–porphyrin (FeP) synthesized in  
234 the laboratory as meso-tetra (2,6-dichloro-3-sulfonatophenyl)porphyrinate of iron(III)  
235 chloride, [Fe-(TDCPPS)Cl], as previously described<sup>39,47</sup>.

236 Three different sites along an Italian North-South climate gradient were selected for the field  
237 experiments to represent important conditions of intensive agricultural production. The sites  
238 are located within the Experimental Stations of the University of Torino, the Catholic  
239 University of Sacro Cuore at Piacenza, and the University of Napoli Federico II. At all sites,  
240 volumetric (undisturbed soil cores) and bulk soil mixed samples were collected from surface  
241 horizons (0-30 cm). Core samples were used to determine soil bulk density, whereas mixed  
242 samples were stored at field moisture at 4°C until further use (see Supplementary Table SI-1  
243 for soil classification, textural composition and other properties of selected soils).

244 The field experiments were conducted for three consecutive years (2007-2009) on triplicates  
245 of 1 x 1 m plots inserted in larger plots cultivated with wheat (*Triticum Durum*) and managed  
246 with a 35 cm depth ploughing, followed by surface harrowing. Treatments were: 1. control  
247 soils managed with conventional tillage and mineral fertilization with urea at the rate of 130  
248 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> of N; 2. soils managed as control but added with the water-soluble iron-porphyrin at a  
249 rate 10 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. For each replicate of the FeP-treated plot, 1g of catalyst was dissolved in 10 L  
250 of water and added to soil plots by a sprinkling irrigation each year before sowing. At the end  
251 of the cropping cycle, about 1 kg of soil was sampled from the first 30 cm of control and FeP-  
252 treated soils, air dried and stored for subsequent analyses.

253 Water-stable aggregates were isolated from bulk soils as reported earlier<sup>63</sup> by applying a wet  
254 sieving method<sup>64</sup>. An air-dried sub-sample (30 g) was placed on the top sieve of a set of three  
255 nested sieves (1.0, 0.50, and 0.25 mm). The sample was gently rewetted and then submerged  
256 into 2 cm of distilled water for 30 min. After this time, the sieves were manually oscillated

257 (up and down 4 cm) for 30 times during 1 min. Recovered aggregate fractions were oven-  
258 dried at 60°C, weighed, and stored at room conditions.

259 Total amount of OC in bulk soils and in water-stable aggregates (WSA) were determined on  
260 finely ground samples by an Elemental Analyzer EA 1108 (Fisons Instrument). The amount  
261 of OC (%) in each aggregate fraction was normalized to the weight of each fraction: OC  
262 content in fraction ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )  $\times$  mass of recovered fraction ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) / total OC recovered ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ).

263 Phosphatase (E.C. 3.1.2.1), B-glucosidase (E.C. 3.2.1.21), urease (E.C. 3.5.1.5) and invertase  
264 (E.C. 3.2.1.26) soil enzymatic activities were determined by colorimetry using, respectively,  
265 *p*-nitrophenyl- $\beta$ -D-glucoside<sup>65</sup>, *p*-nitrophenyl-phosphate<sup>66</sup>, urea<sup>67</sup> and saccharose<sup>66</sup> as  
266 substrates. PLFAs were quantified with an Agilent 5973N GC-MS, equipped with a 30 m x  
267 0.25 mm ID cross-linked methyl silicone (0.25 mm film thickness) HP-5-MS capillary  
268 column after extraction of the soil lipid phase with a mixture of methanol, dichloromethane  
269 and sodium bromide, transesterification of fatty acids by saponification and column  
270 separation of phospholipids<sup>68</sup>.

271 Results were statistically elaborated with ANOVA and Tukey's alternate test. PLFA patterns  
272 were explored by Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and distance-based Redundancy  
273 Analysis (db-RDA).

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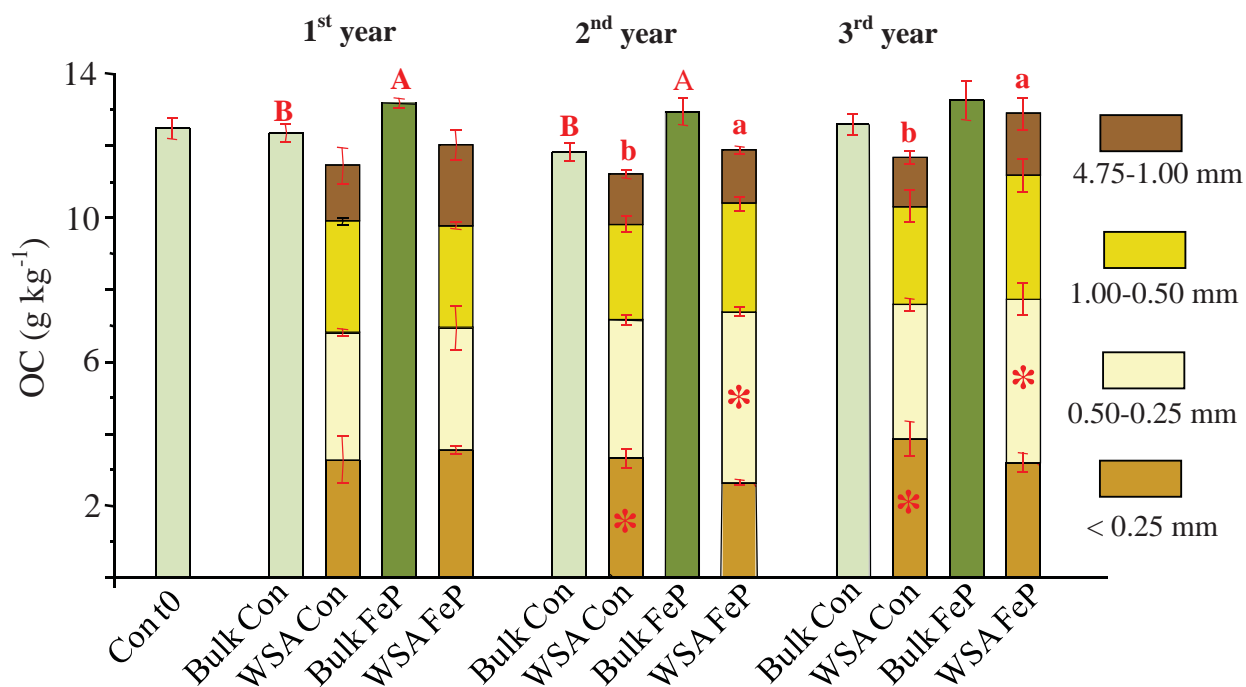
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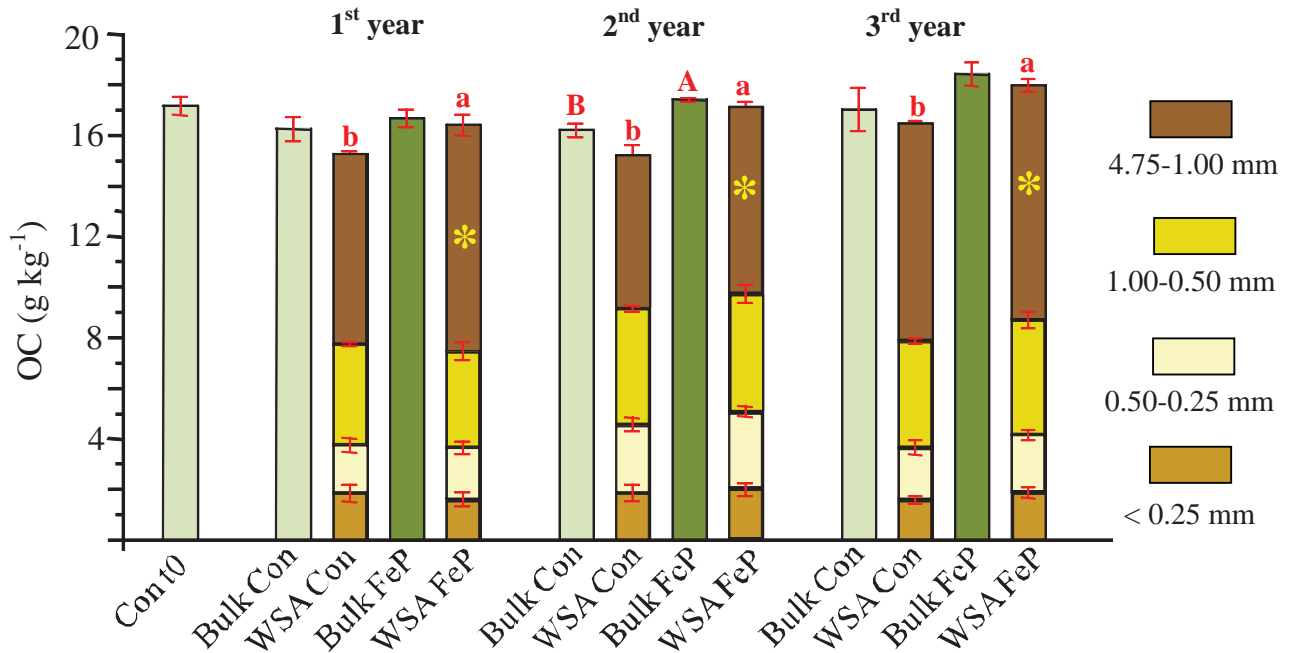
**Supplementary Information** is available in the online version of the paper.

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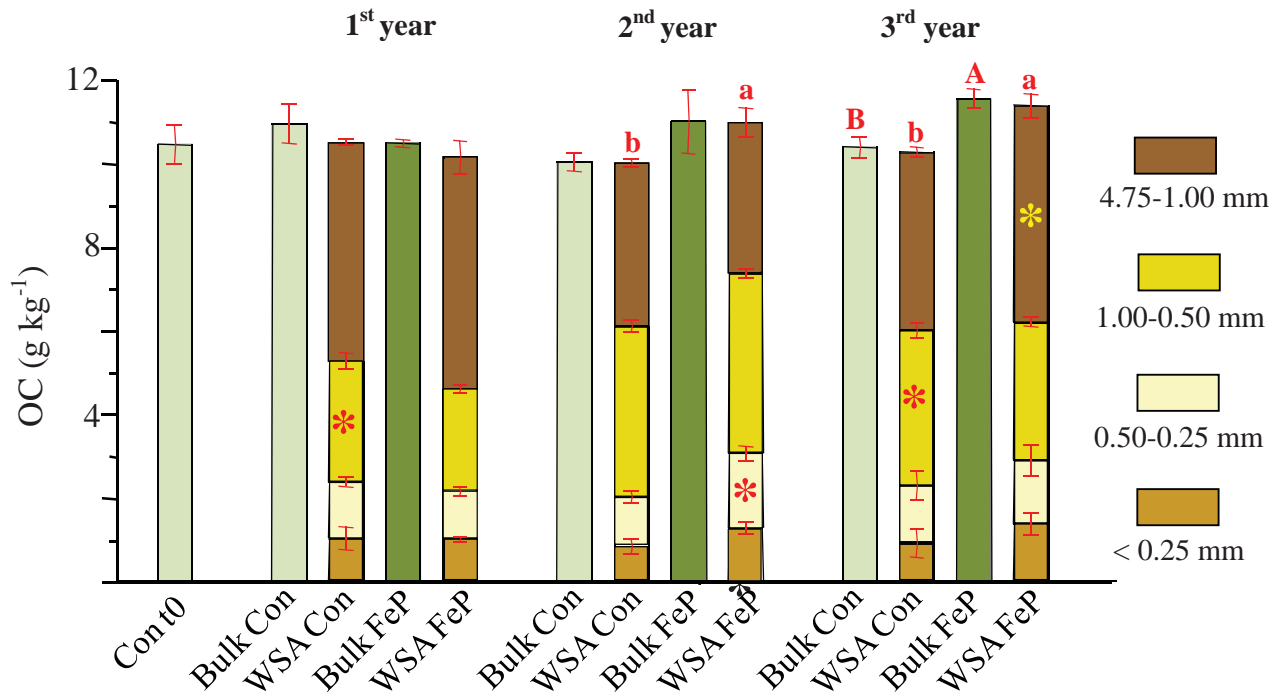


**Figure 1.** TOC content (g.kg<sup>-1</sup>) in bulk soils and sum of separated classes of water-stable aggregates (WSA) for original soil (ContT0) and control and FeP-treated soils from the Torino experimental field plots. The OC content in size-aggregates was calculated by multiplying the OC value in fraction by the ratio of the weight of each fraction over that of the sum of fractions. Error bars indicate standard error (n=3). The asterisk denotes significant differences among size-aggregates at the P=0.05 level. Capital and small letters indicate significant differences at the P=0.05 level for bulk samples and sum of fractions, respectively. Analyses were conducted separately for each year

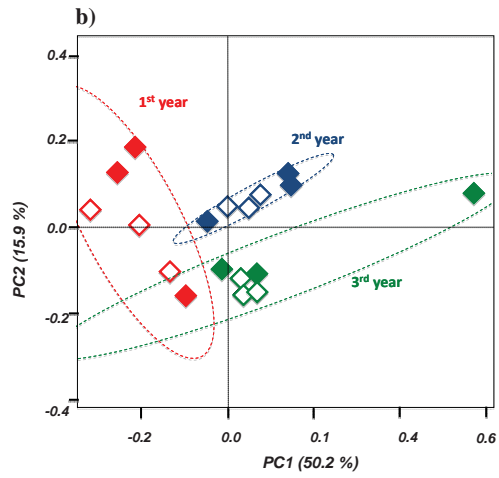
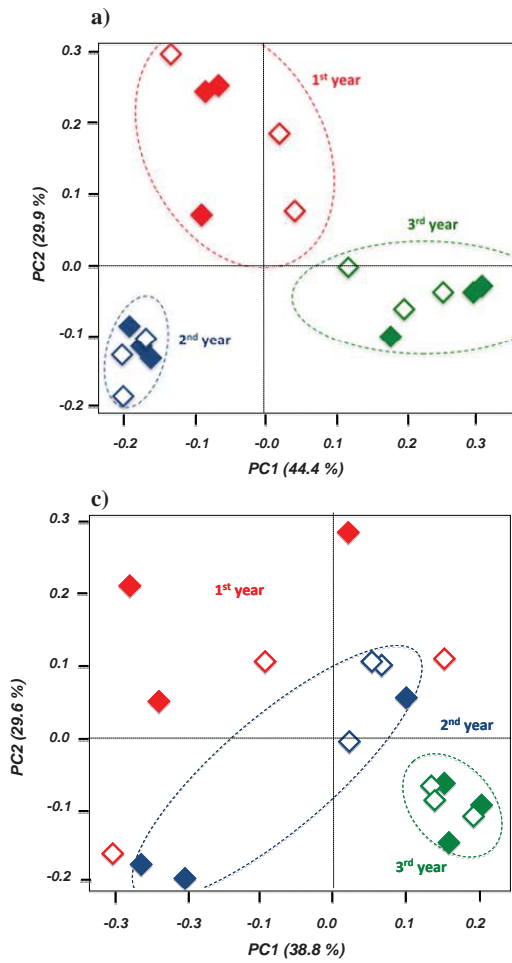


**Figure 2.** TOC content ( $\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ ) in bulk soils and sum of separated classes of water-stable aggregates (WSA) for for original soil (ContT0) and control and FeP-treated soils from the Piacernza experimental field plots. The OC content in size-aggregates was calculated by multiplying the OC value in fraction by the ratio of the weight of each fraction over that of the sum of fractions. Error bars indicate standard error ( $n=3$ ). The asterisk denotes significant differences among size-aggregates at the  $P=0.05$  level. Capital and small letters indicate significant differences at the  $P=0.05$  level for bulk samples and sum of fractions, respectively. Analyses were conducted separately for each year.





**Figure 3.** TOC content ( $\text{g.kg}^{-1}$ ) in bulk soils and sum of separated classes of water-stable aggregates (WSA) for original soil (ContT0) and control and FeP-treated soils from the Napoli experimental field plots. The OC content in size-aggregates was calculated by multiplying the OC value in fraction by the ratio of the weight of each fraction over that of the sum of fractions. Error bars indicate standard error ( $n=3$ ). The asterisk denotes significant differences among size-aggregates at the  $P=0.05$  level. Capital and small letters indicate significant differences at the  $P=0.05$  level for bulk samples and sum of fractions, respectively. Analyses were conducted separately for each year.



**Figure 4.** Principal Component Analysis of total PLFA patterns found in the plot soils of a) Torino, b) Piacenza, and, c) Napoli. Results for control and FeP treatments are indicated with empty and solid diamonds, respectively, while the three sampling years are highlighted in different colors with ordination ellipses.

**Table 1.** Sequestered carbon ( $\text{Mg ha}^{-1} \text{y}^{-1}$ ) in both bulk soil and sum of separated WSA for three field plots (Torino, Piacenza, Napoli) under wheat cropping, due to treatment with water-soluble iron-porphyrin for three consecutive years. Values were obtained by multiplying the difference in average OC content ( $\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) between FeP-treated and untreated soil samples (Figs. 1-3; Tabs. SI2-4) by soil depth interested to conventional tillage (0.3 m), soil bulk density ( $\text{Mg m}^{-3}$  in Tab. SI-1), and hectare surface ( $10000 \text{ m}^2$ )

Bulk soil				Sum of WSA			
1 <sup>st</sup> year	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	3 <sup>rd</sup> year	<b><u>Average</u></b>	1 <sup>st</sup> year	2 <sup>nd</sup> year	3 <sup>rd</sup> year	<b><u>Average</u></b>
<u>Torino</u>							
3.15	4.72	2.75	<b>3.54</b>	1.96	2.75	4.71	<b>3.14</b>
<u>Piacenza</u>							
1.56	4.68	5.46	<b>3.90</b>	4.29	7.41	5.85	<b>5.85</b>
<u>Napoli</u>							
-2.10	4.20	4.62	<b>2.24</b>	-1.26	4.20	4.62	<b>2.52</b>