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# **Peatland Water Repellency:**

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DOI: 10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.09.036

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Document Version Peer reviewed version

*Citation for published version (Harvard):* Moore, PA, Lukenbach, MC, Kettridge, N, Petrone, RM, Devito, KJ & Waddington, JM 2017, 'Peatland Water Repellency: Importance of Soil Water Content, Moss Species, and Burn Severity', Journal of Hydrology, pp. 656-665. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.09.036

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1	Peatland Water Repellency: Importance of Soil Water Content, Moss Species, and
2	Burn Severity
3	NOTE: This is a copy of the revised manuscript following peer-review. Accepted manuscript
4	can be accessed @: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2017.09.036
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18	A manuscript submitted to Journal of Hydrology (August 1, 2017)
19	KEY WORDS: water repellency, moss, Sphagnum, feathermoss, wildfire, peatland
20	

#### 21 Abstract

22 Wildfire is the largest disturbance affecting peatlands, with northern peat reserves expected to 23 become more vulnerable to wildfire as climate change enhances the length and severity of the 24 fire season. Recent research suggests that high water table positions after wildfire are critical to 25 limit atmospheric carbon losses and enable the re-establishment of keystone peatland mosses (*i.e.* Sphagnum). Post-fire recovery of the moss surface in Sphagnum-feathermoss peatlands, 26 27 however, has been shown to be limited where moss type and burn severity interact to result in a 28 water repellent surface. While in-situ measurements of moss water repellency in peatlands have 29 been shown to be greater for feathermoss in both a burned and unburned state in comparison to 30 Sphagnum moss, it is difficult to separate the effect of water content from species. Consequently, 31 we carried out a laboratory based drying experiment where we compared the water repellency of 32 two dominant peatland moss species, *Sphagnum* and feathermoss, for several burn severity 33 classes including unburned samples. The results suggest that water repellency in moss is 34 primarily controlled by water content, where a sharp threshold exists at gravimetric water contents (GWC) lower than ~1.4 g g<sup>-1</sup>. While GWC is shown to be a strong predictor of water 35 36 repellency, the effect is enhanced by burning. Based on soil water retention curves, we suggest 37 that it is highly unlikely that Sphagnum will exhibit hydrophobic conditions under field 38 conditions. Moreover, the superior water retention characteristics of Sphagnum compared to 39 feathermoss or burned samples appears to be independent of bulk density.

#### 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Peatlands are wetlands defined, in part, by thick accumulations of organic matter (>0.4m in 42 Canada, National Wetlands Working Group, 1997). While representing less than 3% of global 43 land area, northern peatlands comprise roughly one-third of global soil carbon storage (Yu et al., 44 2010). Fire-prone peatland-dominated regions exist over large areas of western boreal Canada 45 and Siberia (de Groot et al., 2013), where relatively short fire return intervals play an important 46 role for carbon storage and vegetation dynamics (Weber and Flannigan, 1997). Moreover, in 47 western continental Canada, peatlands in a sub-humid climate exist at the limit of their climatic 48 tolerance (Vitt et al., 2000). The contemporary carbon storage rate for peatlands in this region is estimated at 19.4 g C m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> (Vitt et al., 2000), but fires have the potential to release a large 49 50 amount of the long-term carbon stored in these ecosystems (Hokanson et al., 2016) and reduce 51 carbon accumulation rates for years to decades (Turetsky et al., 2002). With an increase in large 52 fires and total burned area for boreal peatlands (Kasischke and Turetsky, 2006; Turetsky et al., 53 2011), the carbon storage function of boreal peatlands may further be degraded. As such, there is 54 concern that the predicted increase in climate change mediated disturbances, such as wildfire 55 and/or drought, will negatively impact the contemporary carbon storage potential of these 56 peatlands (Vitt et al., 2000; Flannigan et al., 2000; Flannigan et al., 2005).

However, peatlands which are not significantly affected by anthropogenic disturbance are considered resilient ecosystems, owing to a number of negative ecohydrological feedbacks (Waddington et al., 2015). Following wildfire, water repellency has recently been suggested to be a potentially important negative feedback acting to conserve water, and potentially aid in vegetation recovery (Kettridge et al., 2017), and is prevalent in post-fire Boreal Plains bogs (Kettridge et al., 2014; MacKinnon, 2016). Whilst well studied in mineral soils (*cf.* Doerr et al.,

63 2000), few studies have examined water repellency in peatland ecosystems, where the soil 64 surface is typically comprised of living mosses (e.g. O'Donnell et al., 2009b; Kettridge et al., 65 2014). Water repellency has been shown to affect capillary forces driving water movement in 66 porous media (Shokri et al., 2009), limiting capillary flow to the evaporating surface from wetter 67 and/or saturated soil layers (Diamantopoulos et al., 2013), thus potentially reducing surface 68 evaporation (Shahidzadeh-Bonn et al., 2007). Therefore, water repellency may constitute an 69 important ecohydrological feedback in peatlands, whereby evaporation is severely limited 70 (Kettridge et al., 2017), amplifying the water table depth - moss resistance feedback (see 71 Waddington et al., 2015), and thus conserving water.

72 While fire may induce or enhance soil water repellency (cf. DeBano, 2000), the degree of soil 73 water repellency has also been linked to soil carbon (Karunarathna et al., 2010) and water 74 content (Fishkis et al., 2015). In general, the soil characteristics, moisture content, and 75 temperature of combustion in organic soil layers will all affect the production of hydrophobic 76 compounds at depth (Doerr et al., 2000). In the case of peatlands which tend to have very high 77 carbon content in near-surface soils (e.g. Yu, 2012) and where smouldering (i.e. low 78 temperature) tends to dominate over flaming combustion on the peat surface during wildfire (e.g. 79 Rein et al., 2008), there is likely a relatively high potential for the production of hydrophobic 80 compounds as a result of wildfire (e.g. Neff et al., 2005).

81

Post-fire near-surface water repellency in peatlands can be created or exacerbated based on botanical origin and depth (O'Donnell et al., 2009b; Kettridge et al., 2014) and is persistent for several years (*e.g.* Kettridge et al., 2014; MacKinnon, 2016). As such, it is necessary to consider the importance of water repellency in relation to both peatland vadose zone hydrology and moss

86 recovery post-fire. However, past studies on peatland water repellency persistence are somewhat 87 contradictory. O'Donnell et al. (2009b) found minimal persistence of hydrophobicity 24 months post-fire at the peat surface for both Sphagnum and feathermoss species. In contrast, two studies 88 89 undertaken in northern Alberta 15 months and 38 months post-fire showed significant and 90 persistent near-surface water repellency for both feathermoss and Sphagnum species (Kettridge 91 et al., 2014; MacKinnon, 2016). Both burned and unburned feathermoss species have been 92 shown to exhibit relatively strong water repellency in the field; however, the degree of water 93 repellency was shown to be greater for the burned feathermosses (Kettridge et al., 2014; 94 MacKinnon, 2016). Comparatively, Sphagnum has been shown to exhibit only slight water 95 repellency in burned locations and essentially none in unburned locations (Kettridge et al., 2014). 96 It is possible that these observed differences of in-situ water repellency are due to differences in 97 water content, given that water repellency in mineral soils has been previously linked to water 98 content (Fishkis et al., 2015). Moreover, it has been suggested that desiccation of peat can 99 exacerbate any water repellency that may be present (Valat et al., 1991); however, no study to 100 our knowledge has examined the effect of water content on the water repellency of moss/peat 101 soils. Examining the influence of water content on peat water repellency, especially in the post-102 fire environment, is essential not only to understand the temporal variability of water repellency 103 but also water repellency persistence. While studies in mineral soils have found that post-fire 104 water repellency can break down during wetting events (e.g. MacDonald and Huffman, 2004), it 105 remains unknown if peatland wetting events (rainfall and/or an increase in water table position), 106 lead to a decline in the spatial extent or severity of water repellency.

108 To address this critical knowledge gap, we sought to determine: 1) whether there were 109 significant interactive effects of water content with burn status and species on the degree of 110 water repellency in peatland moss/soil samples; 2) whether prolonged saturation decreased the 111 degree of water repellency of burned feathermoss peat; and 3) whether moisture retention 112 characteristics of burned and unburned feathermoss and Sphagnum peat varied significantly and 113 thus infer how differences in moisture retention might manifest under in-situ conditions. For the 114 first objective, we hypothesized that the effect of low moisture content, feathermoss species, and 115 burning on near-surface peat water repellency was additive and that this combination would 116 exhibit the greatest degree of water repellency. For the second objective, we hypothesized that 117 prolonged saturation would lead to a decrease in the severity of water repellency.

118

### 119 **2. Methods**

#### 120 2.1 Study area and water repellency sampling

121 Sphagnum (Sphagnum fuscum) and feathermoss (Pleurozium schreberi) samples were collected 122 in July of 2013 from a mature treed bog in the Utikuma Lake Research Study Area (56.107°N, 123 115.561°W) (Devito et al., 2012) that was partially burned in May of 2011. The burned and 124 unburned portions are located ~100 m apart and are approximately  $100 \times 150$  m and  $90 \times 150$  m 125 in size, respectively. Both portions of the bog are characterized by feathermoss (>95% 126 Pleurozium schreberi) hollows, S. fuscum hummocks, vascular vegetation cover of 127 Rhododendron groenlandicum and Rubus chamaemorus, and a dense black spruce (Picea 128 *mariana*) tree canopy. For more details of the local hydrology, see Smerdon et al. (2005) and 129 Lukenbach et al. (2017).

130 Small moss and peat blocks roughly 0.15 x 0.15 x 0.05 m were taken from both burned and 131 unburned areas at three depths spanning 0-0.05 m, 0.03-0.08 m, and 0.06-0.11 m. Target depths 132 of 0, 0.03, and 0.05 m were chosen to reflect changes in water repellency observed in the near-133 surface in other studies (*i.e.* Kettridge et al., 2014). A sample thickness of 0.05 m was chosen so 134 that moss/peat structure could be maintained while having a thin sample which could dry in a 135 relatively uniform manner. Treatments comprising both burn severity and species were defined 136 similar to Lukenbach et al. (2015). There were five treatments consisting of burned and unburned 137 Sphagnum fuscum (hereafter B.Sph and Sph, respectively), burned and unburned feathermoss 138 (hereafter B.FM and FM, respectively), and burned hollows (B.Hol). B.Hol generally 139 corresponds with higher burn severity where we were unable to determine the pre-fire moss 140 cover. B.Sph corresponds with light burn severity where Sphagnum capitula are singed but have 141 not been fully consumed by combustion. For our first research objective, ten samples were 142 collected for each of the five treatments (n=50). For our second research objective, 50 samples of 143 burned feathermoss were collected in order to test whether saturation (see section 2.2) had a 144 significant effect on the persistence of water repellency. A larger sample size was chosen for the 145 second objective because there has been no previous research that we are aware of on which to 146 make an *a priori* assumption of effect size. We focused on feathermoss only for the second lab 147 experiment because field-based measurements of Kettridge et al. (2014), as well as initial results 148 from the first lab experiment had shown that water repellency in burned feathermoss was high, 149 while that for burned *Sphagnum* was comparatively quite low.

150 2.2 Water drop penetration time

Water drop penetration time (WDPT) tests were undertaken on intact samples in the laboratoryevery 24 h. Distilled water was dispensed using a pipette held just above the peat sample surface

and 10 equally sized water drops applied (Fig. 1). The WDPT was measured upon contact until 153 154 the complete infiltration of the drop on the sample surface. WDPT was divided into five ranges, 155 as defined by Bisdom et al. (1993) (see also Doerr, 1998) as (number/name): 1/hydrophilic 156 (WDPT <5 s); 2/slightly hydrophobic (WDPT 5-60 s); 3/strongly hydrophobic (WDPT 60-600 157 s); 4/severely hydrophobic (WDPT 600-3600 s); and 5/extremely hydrophobic (WDPT 3600+ s). 158 Samples were transported from the field and allowed to air dry at constant temperature and 159 humidity (20° C, RH=65%) until constant mass was reached. Prior to saturation, an initial air-dry 160 WDPT test was carried out on all samples to provide a baseline water repellency value. 161 Subsequently, all samples were saturated for 48 hours. Following saturation, samples were, 162 again, air dried in a growth chamber at constant temperature and humidity (20° C, RH=65%). 163 WDPT tests were undertaken every 24 hours until constant mass was reached for three 164 consecutive daily measurements, after which samples were oven-dried for 48 h at 65° C. Sample 165 dry weights were used to calculate gravimetric water content (GWC). A final WDPT test was 166 undertaken following oven drying. Prior to each WDPT test, samples were weighed on a digital 167 balance with 0.01 g precision.

#### 168 2.3 Moisture retention

Moisture retention was measured for ten samples for each burn state and species. Samples consisted of the top 0.06 m of moss/peat, and were collected in 0.098 m diameter PVC pipe. A sharpened PVC tube was inserted into the moss surface, where scissors were used to cut around the periphery when necessary. Once inserted to a depth of 0.06 m, the moss/peat was undercut with scissors, with the bottom of the sample secured in place with cheesecloth. Samples were frozen for transport and storage. Prior to moisture retention measurements, samples were thawed and saturated in deionized water for 48 hr. Moisture retention was determined using a ceramic

176 plate vacuum extractor, with an air entry tension of 1000 mbar. Tensions of 10, 30, 40, 50, 75, 177 100, 150, and 200 mbar were set using a vacuum regulator for at least 24 h, or until total water released from samples was 0.2 g hr<sup>-1</sup> or less. The accuracy of the scale used was 0.2 g, and is 178 179 therefore meant to represent no detectable change. Treatments (i.e. B.Hol, B.FM, FM, B.Sph, and 180 Sph) were run separately, with each run constituting 10 replicate samples on a single extractor plate. The release of water from all samples (sample volume  $\sim 450 \text{ cm}^3$ ) in a given run was 181 182 evaluated by weighing the water trap connected to the vacuum plate extractor. After each 183 pressure step, samples were weighed on a digital balance (0.01 g precision). Samples were 184 subsequently oven-dried at 65°C until constant mass was reached. Dry weights were used to 185 calculate GWC, volumetric water content (VWC), and dry bulk density. Porosity was calculated based on an estimated peat particle density of 1470 kg m<sup>-3</sup> (Redding and Devito, 2006), and 186 subsequently used to calculate saturated GWC and VWC. 187

#### 188 2.4 Statistics and curve fitting

We used classification analysis to determine what water content threshold best separated the data into two groups, one with relatively high water repellency, and the other with low water repellency. The optimal split point (GWC threshold) was determined based on the partitioned data which had the smallest total sum of squared residuals, where the respective group means of the partitioned data was used to evaluate residuals. A Monte Carlo approach was used to quantify the uncertainty in the GWC threshold value. The threshold identification procedure was repeated 500 times, where each iteration used a random sample consisting of ~66% of the original sample.

196 A power function was used to estimate the relation between GWC and tension:

197 
$$GWC = \frac{a}{\psi^b}$$

198 where *a* and *b* are fitted parameters, and  $\psi$  is tension. Parameter estimates were derived using the 199 *nlinfit* function in Matlab (The Mathworks), which uses the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm for 200 nonlinear least squares regression.

201 A two-way ANOVA was used to test for significant effects of burn state – species groupings and 202 GWC on WDPT, where GWC was treated as a continuous variable. The ANOVA was run using 203 rank-transformed WDPT. Tukey's honestly significant difference criteria was used for multiple 204 comparisons. An ANCOVA was used to test for a significant difference in the slope of the 205 relation between VWC and bulk density. The relation was evaluated at the VWC corresponding 206 to a tension of 100 mbar, which is considered an ecohydrologically important value for 207 Sphagnum (Thompson and Waddington, 2008). Unless otherwise stated, averages are reported 208 along with standard deviation.

#### 209 2.5 Methodological limitations

210 While the general response of water repellency in Sphagnum and feathermoss to drying and the 211 relative magnitude of water repellency would very likely hold under different experimental 212 conditions, we recognize that GWC thresholds identified within this study may be specific to the 213 drying rate used in the experiment. Assuming a homogenous sample, during the drying process it 214 is not possible for the water content to be uniform with depth unless the pore-water tension is in 215 equilibrium with the humidity inside of the growth chamber. Even under steady-state conditions, 216 a small pressure gradient would exist within the sample, proportional to the thickness of the 217 sample. Our drying experiment used a single, fixed relative humidity and we measured both 218 weight and water repellency through time even though the water content profile was not in 219 steady state. To try and minimize the effects of non steady-state conditions, our samples were 220 exposed at both ends to allow evaporation from both the top and bottom of the sample.

Moreover, we chose a relatively thin sample size of 0.05 m to limit water content gradients within the sample, while simultaneously keeping the moss/peat structure intact. While a high relative humidity would further ensure relatively small water content gradients within the sample, the maximum sustainable relative humidity we were able to maintain given our experimental setup was 70%.

#### 226 **3. Results**

#### 227 *3.1 Water drop penetration time and gravimetric water content*

228 The degree of water repellency was affected by species, burn status, water content, and their 229 interactions. Following saturation and free drainage, no degree of water repellency was observed 230 in any sample for at least 48 hr of drying (Fig.2). Of the five treatments, only FM, B.FM, and 231 surface B.Hol exhibited appreciable severe or extreme water repellency during the drying 232 process. B.Sph, Sph, and non-surface B.Hol samples were largely hydrophyllic, or only slightly 233 hydrophobic, throughout the drying process. For feathermoss, the burned treatment had a greater 234 proportion of higher water repellency compared to the unburned treatment (Fig. 2), where 235 average WDPT category for *B.FM* and *FM* were 2.52 and 2.25, respectively. The difference was 236 greatest for the 3 cm samples, where average WDPT for B.FM and FM were 2.74 and 2.08, 237 respectively (Fig. 3). Meanwhile, Sphagnum samples had lower average WDPT for burned 238 (1.24) and unburned (1.39) samples compared to feathermoss. In the case of severe burning (i.e. 239 B.Hol), while water repellency was not particularly strong, water repellency appeared to decrease 240 noticeably with depth (average WDPT at: 0 cm = 1.45; 3 cm = 1.12; 6 cm = 1.04). This 241 contrasted with the other burned treatments which had slightly higher water repellency with 242 depth (Fig. 3).

243 The increased water repellency over the drying experiment (Fig. 2) was in part related to water 244 content (Fig. 4 and 5). Upon initiation of drying, all treatments had a relatively high average GWC, on the order of 10 g g<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3). On average, GWC of both burned and unburned 245 246 feathermoss samples decreased more rapidly with time compared to other treatments. For example, it took only 5 days for FM and B.FM to reach a GWC of 1 g g<sup>-1</sup>, while it took 9, 11, 247 248 and 14 days of drying for B.Sph, B.Hol, and Sph, respectively. Across all treatments, with the 249 exception of two sample out of 50, there was no observed water repellency for samples with a GWC greater than 5 g  $g^{-1}$  (Fig.5). Below 5 g  $g^{-1}$ , there is a general increase in water repellency 250 251 with reduced moisture contents for all species and burn states. Based on classification analysis, 252 the estimated threshold GWC for water repellency of all samples lumped together is  $1.4\pm0.2$  g g<sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup>. Individually, threshold estimates for B.Hol, B.FM, FM, B.Sph, and Sph pooled across depths 253 254 are 1.0±0.3, 1.0±0.5, 1.8±0.9, 0.9±0.4, and 3.0±0.6, respectively. An ANOVA was used to 255 compare several different linear mixed effects models to elucidate the significance of GWC, burn 256 state - species, and depth on average WDPT. Table 1 shows that all three fixed factors have a 257 significant effect on WDPT. The fixed-factor coefficients of the linear model show that burn 258 state – species has a greater influence on WDPT than depth (Table 2). While the coefficient for 259 GWC is of a similar magnitude to the depth factor, GWC is a continuous rather than categorical 260 variable. Consequently, GWC has an effect size that is an order of magnitude larger than depth (*i.e.* GWC ranges from ~0-10 g  $g^{-1}$ ), and is thus comparable to the effect size of burn state – 261 262 species. Despite the smaller influence of depth on WDPT compared to the other two fixed 263 factors, the interaction of depth and burn state – species is significant (Table 1), where direction 264 of change in WDPT with depth is variable and large in some cases (Table 2).

#### 265 3.2 Effect of saturation on water repellency of burned moss

266 Overall, saturation had a small, diminishing effect on the degree of water repellency. Based on 267 the large sample size of the second lab run, pre-saturation air-dry samples of B.FM were wetter, 268 with roughly twice the GWC compared to post-saturation air-dry samples (Fig. 6). If water 269 content was the only controlling factor on water repellency, pre-saturation air-dry samples 270 should have been less water repellent compared to air-dry post-saturation B.FM samples. 271 However, the results show the opposite, where the mean pre-saturation air-dry water repellency classification was 4.4 with a mean GWC of 0.016 g g<sup>-1</sup> compared to a mean post-saturation air-272 dry water repellency classification of 3.3 and a mean GWC of 0.008 g  $g^{-1}$ . Figure 6b shows that 273 the difference in air-dry GWC pre- and post-saturation follows a strong (R<sup>2</sup>=0.87) linear relation 274 275 with a slope significantly different than one ( $t_{49} = -20.35$ , p < 2E-16). In fact, the pre-saturation 276 air-dry mean water repellency classification was roughly equal to the mean value after oven 277 drying, post-saturation (Fig. 6a).

#### 278 3.3 Water retention of burned and unburned moss

279 Figure 7 shows that, on a gravimetric basis, there is an apparent distinction between the water 280 retention of *Sphagnum* and feathermoss, where differences between species are larger than 281 differences based on burn state. A simple power function fit (see Methods) provided a good fit to GWC- $\psi$  curves (R<sup>2</sup> of 0.92 to 0.99). Based on the fitted curves, the tension at which *B.FM* was 282 estimated to reach a GWC of 1.4 g g<sup>-1</sup> was 300±54 mbar (95% confidence interval). For all other 283 284 treatments, estimated tensions were >>1000 mbar, with confidence intervals of roughly equal 285 magnitude. Figure 7b shows the same water retention data, but on a volumetric basis. On average, bulk density of the *B*.*Hol* samples was greatest ( $84 \pm 16 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ ), followed by *B*.*FM* (51 286  $\pm$  19 kg m<sup>-3</sup>), *FM* (32  $\pm$  8 kg m<sup>-3</sup>), *B.Sph* (27  $\pm$  11 kg m<sup>-3</sup>), and *Sph* (20  $\pm$  4 kg m<sup>-3</sup>). Because of 287

288 the relatively large difference in bulk density between treatments, *B.Hol* retains more water on a 289 volumetric basis compared to the other treatments. Meanwhile, Sphagnum retained more water 290 on a volumetric basis compared to feathermoss, where differences between species were still 291 greater compared to between burn state. In order to compare VWC across samples, Figure 8 292 shows the relation between bulk density and VWC at a tension of 150 mb. While VWC<sub>150mb</sub> of all treatments have a significant positive correlation ( $R^2$  of 0.67 to 0.92, and p of 2E-08 to 0.03) 293 294 to bulk density, an ANCOVA suggests that the slopes of the relation are significantly different 295  $(F_4=40.7, p << 0.01)$ . While not all pair-wise comparisons are significant, the slope of the relation between VWC<sub>100mb</sub> and bulk density decreases according to Sph > B.Sph > B.Hol > FM > B.FM. 296

#### 297 **4. Discussion**

#### 298 4.1 Water content threshold to water repellency in moss and peat

299 We show that water content is a controlling factor on water repellency in moss and peat and that 300 there was a threshold-like response of water repellency to GWC, where both Sphagnum and 301 feathermoss samples in either a burned or unburned state became water repellent at a GWC less than  $1 - 3 \text{ g s}^{-1}$ . While all treatments exhibited some degree of water repellency, the magnitude 302 303 was much smaller for Sphagnum, similar to Kettridge et al. (2014). However, for 304 horticultural/agricultural soil, *Sphagnum* peat has been shown to have stronger water repellency 305 upon drying, where degree of water repellency increases with level of decomposition (Michel et 306 al., 2001). Similar to our study, Michel et al. (2001) showed that there is a good relation between 307 water repellency and GWC (therein reported as hydration energy and water ratio, respectively). 308 Similarly, in a fen with agricultural peat, a threshold of water repellency was observed when 309 VWC decreased below 25-30% (Berglund and Persson, 1996). Based on their reported bulk densities, this would correspond to a GWC of between roughly 0.4-1 g g<sup>-1</sup>. The data presented by 310

Berglun and Persson (1996), however, are from samples which are much denser than those measured herein, and are heavily decomposed due to cultivation, rather than constituting living moss at the surface.

#### 314 *4.2 Fire and depth dependence of water repellency*

315 During a wildfire, the interface between heated and cooled substrates tends to be only a few 316 centimeters below the surface, and is the location where volatilized organic compounds could 317 condense (Debano, 2000; Certini, 2005). In organic soils, Neff et al. (2005) suggest that the 318 relative abundance of hydrophobic compounds (i.e. lignins and lipids) may increase relative to 319 hydrophilic compounds (i.e. polysaccharides) in the top few centimeters of soil due to wildfire. 320 Herein, feathermoss lawns exhibit an increase in WDPT at depth (Fig. 3). Feathermoss does not 321 possess the same moisture holding properties as *Sphagnum* mosses and, as such, would not have 322 high surface moisture (Fig. 7-8). Since the thermal properties of peat are largely driven by water 323 content rather than botanical origin or degree of decomposition (O'Donnell et al., 2009a), 324 characteristic differences in water retention might lead to systematic differences in where 325 volatilized compounds condense within the peat profile.

Given that water repellency in mineral soils has been linked to the presence of hydrophobic organic compounds (Ma'shum and Farmer, 1985) or high organic content (de Jonge et al., 2007; Fishkis et al., 2015), perhaps it is not surprising that peatland soils, comprised almost entirely of organic matter (*cf.* Kuhry 1994; Turunen et al., 2002), also exhibit water repellency. However, large differences in water repellency, after accounting for water content effects (Table 1 and 2), between peatland moss species is striking, especially when considered in conjunction with the contrasting water retention properties of these mosses (Fig. 7).

#### 333 *4.3 Peatland water repellency following wildfire*

Different studies have reported a range of water contents (GWC of 1.10 to 2.95 g g<sup>-1</sup>) below 334 335 which ignition and combustion may occur in peatlands (Frandsen, 1987; Huang and Rein, 2015; 336 Rein et al., 2008; Benscoter et al., 2011). Since the threshold for peat and moss ignition lies in 337 the upper range of GWC where water repellency is observed, field-based attribution of water 338 repellency to fire may be conflated with antecedent dry conditions necessary for smouldering to 339 occur. This suggests that measuring the degree of water repellency post-fire in the field may be 340 more indicative of antecedent weather conditions, relative water table position, and/or inherent 341 differences in moss/peat water retention. For example, Figure 4 shows that the time necessary to reach the average threshold GWC of 1.4 g  $g^{-1}$  differed by up to a factor of 3 between treatments. 342 343 In the context of field moisture retention, Figure 7 would suggest that water repellent conditions 344 are linked to conditions where water table is deep and/or evaporative potential exceeds capillary 345 rise. Furthermore, given that surface evaporative demand is greater in burned peatlands due to 346 the loss of the canopy (Thompson et al., 2015) and that feathermosses preferentially occupy 347 shaded areas in unburned peatlands (Bisbee et al., 2001), in-situ moisture contents likely differ 348 appreciably between burned and unburned areas, especially for feathermosses. These factors 349 likely explain the contradictory results between O'Donnell et al. (2009b) and Kettridge et al. 350 (2014) in which moisture content was not considered. Given the variation in peatland surface moisture contents observed in the field, ranging from ~0.02 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> in *B*. *FM* sites to ~0.75 m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> 351 <sup>3</sup> in *B.Hol* (Lukenbach et al., 2015), in-situ water repellency is likely to be highly variable 352 353 spatially. Nevertheless, our results support the general findings from other studies where 354 observed differences of in-situ water repellency are primarily due to differences in water content (e.g. Fishkis et al., 2015; Valat et al., 1991). Our results also support the findings of Kettridge et 355

356 al. (2014), where, once dry, water repellency in feathermoss is greater than Sphagnum fuscum, 357 and feathermoss is more water repellent in a burned compared to an unburned state. Although 358 not directly comparable to our results (Fig. 3), Kettridge et al. (2014) found that the field-based 359 average water repellency of burned Sphagnum was greater than unburned Sphagnum, albeit the 360 absolute difference between burned and unburned Sphagnum was small in both their and our 361 study. Field measurement results from other studies could be explained by differences in water 362 content. For a given tension our results (Fig. 7) indicate that unburned Sphagnum has a greater 363 GWC than burned samples (see also Thompson and Waddington, 2013) as well as other 364 treatments, and is therefore less likely to be water repellent, all else being equal. Others have 365 shown that there are significant spatio-temporal differences in near-surface water content 366 associated with burn state – species (Lukenbach et al., 2016). While such differences can easily 367 be measured, accounting for within-site differences in bulk density which tends to be small and 368 not highly variable in the near-surface (*e.g.* Hokanson et al., 2016) would be more challenging.

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370 Following saturation (*i.e.* high water content), all treatments initially were not water repellent, 371 but FM and B.FM treatments quickly developed water repellency compared to other treatments. 372 Contrary to some mineral soils (e.g. MacDonald and Huffman, 2004), prolonged saturation did 373 not permanently decrease the degree of water repellency by a substantial amount. This suggests 374 that even if a water table were to rise to the peat surface it would not appreciably affect the 375 persistence of water repellency in feathermoss peat. Moreover, water repellency was readily re-376 established to its pre-saturation state following oven drying. Given that surface temperatures can 377 exceed 50°C in burned peatlands following wildfire (Kettridge et al., 2017), the degree of water 378 repellency may remain elevated until a substantial shrub and/or tree canopy establishes. Future

379 research should examine under what conditions, or if at all, water repellency diminishes over380 time in peatlands following wildfire, especially peat of feathermoss origin.

### 381 *4.4 Implications for recovery and resiliency*

382 Sphagnum is a keystone species in peatlands, and is the primary species responsible for peatland 383 carbon storage (Yu, 2012). Following wildfire, the ecological succession of groundcover in 384 continental bogs and poor fens is characterized by early pioneer species less than five years post-385 fire, Sphagnum dominance between roughly 20-30 years post-fire, and feathermoss dominance at 386 roughly 70 years post-fire (Benscoter and Vitt, 2008). In continental boreal bogs and poor fens, a 387 sustained crown fire is a function of canopy fine-fuel load (Van Wagner, 1977) and is more 388 likely to occur in mature black spruce canopies (Krawchuk et al., 2006) which tend to be 389 underlain by feathermoss groundcover (Bisbee et al, 2001; Benscoter and Vitt, 2008). 390 Consequently, an extensive post-fire surface cover of lightly burned feather mosses exhibiting 391 significant water repellency can be present. This would imply that a large portion of peatlands 392 post-fire will be strongly water repellent, and is supported by findings of MacKinnon (2016).

393 Relatively low soil water tensions, typically less than 100 mbar, are necessary for Sphagnum 394 recolonization (Price, 1997; Thompson and Waddington, 2008). Post-fire, Lukenbach et al. 395 (2016) demonstrate that near-surface tensions frequently exceed this threshold, particularly for 396 B.FM (therein LB-F). Our results indicate that high post-fire surface tensions may be 397 exacerbated by near-surface water repellency, where imbibition is shown to be suppressed in 398 water repellent soil (Diamantopoulos et al., 2013). A reduction in capillary flow, which has been 399 shown to occur in hydrophobic porous media (Shahidzadeh-Bonn et al., 2007), would likely 400 leave much of the peatland surface unsuitable to germinating moss spores, as they require high 401 moisture contents and humidity at the surface to be successful (Sundberg and Rydin, 2002;

402 Smolders et al., 2003; Koyama and Tsuyuzaki, 2010). Given that high water contents are 403 necessary to decrease the degree of water repellency in feathermosses, this suggests that high 404 water availability (e.g. a shallow WT or ponding) is likely necessary for Sphagnum 405 recolonization on *B.FM* surfaces in peatlands. This is especially relevant for 'over-mature' 406 peatlands (*i.e.* significantly older than a typical fire cycle), where the groundcover is very likely 407 to be heavily dominated by feathermoss (Benscoter and Vitt, 2008). Given that the average depth 408 to Sphagnum in B.FM classified areas at a nearby study site was ~0.2 m (MacKinnon, 2016), and 409 that Sphagnum peat tends to dominate western boreal peat profiles (Kuhry, 1994), high burn 410 severity (large depth of burn) increases the likelihood of exposing *Sphagnum* peat at the surface. 411 While it was not possible to determine the original surface moss species at *B.Hol* locations, our 412 high burn severity B.Hol samples showed low water repellency. Nevertheless, a dense tree 413 canopy and lower moisture retention of feathermoss is likely to lead to greater average depth of 414 burn compared to sites where Sphagnum mosses are present (Thompson et al., 2015). While 415 severe burning would serve to enhance potential recovery post-fire, this would represent a 416 substantial loss of carbon. Conversely, for moderate to light smouldering of feathermoss, 417 persistent strong water repellency would act to limit moss recovery, particularly for Sphagnum 418 mosses, which are thought to be a keystone species for maintaining long-term peatland 419 resilience.

While near-surface water repellency may limit post-fire vegetation recovery, it may be beneficial in restricting peatland-scale water losses due to net water retention (Kettridge et al., 2014). In post-fire peatland sites with a significant portion of burned feathermoss surfaces, such as reported by Lukenbach et al. (2015), ubiquitous water repellency could represent an important feedback for water conservation following wildfire. In the absence of vascular vegetation

immediately post-fire, high surface resistance/tension, particularly in burned feathermoss, 425 426 represents a negative feedback to water loss. Under water-limiting conditions, where the 427 magnitude of near-surface tension is greater than the height above water table, Kettridge and 428 Waddington (2014) showed that surface resistance rapidly increased with tension for burned 429 moss surfaces, which would thereby shutdown surface evaporation. In the short term, the 430 dynamic of water conservation by water repellent surfaces, such as burned feathermoss, 431 combined with the potential for greater water table rise with rainfall may act to increase water 432 availability to low-lying areas within a peatland, thus facilitating recovery in areas that were in a 433 low microtopographic position pre-fire or burned deeply.

#### 434 **5.** Conclusion

435 Water content is a key determinant of water repellency in peatlands, where the degree of water repellency exhibits a threshold-like increase at gravimetric water contents less than 1.4 g  $g^{-1}$  in 436 437 both Sphagnum and feathermoss peat. The prevalence of such water contents under field 438 conditions is likely to be closely associated with the water retention functions of different moss 439 species (*i.e. Sphagnum* vs. feathermosses). In particular, our results suggest that water repellency 440 in peatlands would directly coincide with the presence of feathermosses, regardless of burn 441 status, because 1) feathermoss-derived peat characteristically has a high degree water repellency 442 and 2) feathermosses exhibit poor water retention, resulting in low water contents under field 443 conditions and thus a high degree of water repellency. In contrast, Sphagnum mosses and peat 444 intrinsically exhibit a low degree of water repellency and are more effective at retaining water on 445 a gravimetric basis, decreasing the likelihood of water repellency under field conditions.

Wildfire, while playing a smaller role than water content and moss species in determining waterrepellency, enhances peatland water repellency. This results from: 1) decreasing the ability of

448 mosses to retain water (Fig. 6); and 2) the likely alteration of organic compounds present in peat 449 (cf. Doerr et al, 2000). The latter appears to be related to heating, based on an enhancement in 450 water repellency following oven drying, but an understanding of this mechanism requires further 451 research. Perhaps the largest influence wildfire has on peatland water repellency, however, is the 452 combustion of centimeters to decimeters of water repellent feathermoss, which can expose 453 underlying *Sphagnum* peat that is rarely water repellent under field conditions (*e.g.* Kettridge et 454 al., 2014). Elevated water contents and the absence of water repellency in these locations likely 455 supports post-fire moss recovery. However, if the deep combustion of feathermosses is 456 widespread in a peatland, peatland-scale water losses may be higher following wildfire due to an 457 increase in evaporation. Comparatively, if burned and water repellent feathermosses are still a 458 ubiquitous part of the post-fire surface following wildfire, the amount of water available at the 459 surface is likely low, simultaneously limiting post-fire moss recovery and evaporation. This 460 highlights an important trade-off between recovery and water conservation in the post-fire 461 peatland environment. How these interact at larger scales to influence overall peatland ecosystem 462 hydrology and function requires further research.

Finally, we suggest that future studies may be able to obtain a more direct measure of surface water content by using multispectral imaging, as suggested by Fishkis et al. (2015). Placing results from this study in context of peatland water repellency, we suggest that future studies would benefit from quantifying the persistence of moss water repellency with time since fire while accounting for water content through destructive sample for quantifying GWC.

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#### 469 Acknowledgements

This research was funded by an NSERC Discovery Grant to JMW and an NSERC CRD research grant with support from Canadian Natural Resources Ltd. and Syncrude Canada Ltd. to KJD, NK, RMP and JMW. We thank Samantha Stead and Sarah Irvine for assistance in the field, Carolynn Forsyth for camp facilities at ArtisInn, and Ben Didemus, and Rui Xu for assistance in the lab. We would also like to thank two anonymous reviewers for their helpful suggestions and comments.

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### 651 **Table(s)**

- 652 Table 1: Linear mixed effects models for sample average water drop penetration time (WDPT)
- as a function of different combinations of fixed effect (gravimetric water content (GWC); burn
- 654 state-species (BrnSp); and depth), as indicated by the model formula, and sample as a random
  - WDPT~GWC+BrnSp+Dpth+(1|Sample)  $\chi^2$ Model: d.f р WDPT~GWC+BrnSp+(1|Sample) 0.0025 11.94 2 WDPT~GWC+Depth+(1|Sample) 127.9 4 << 0.001 WDPT~BrnSp+Depth+(1|Sample) 1142 1 << 0.001 WDPT~GWC+BrnSp\*Dpth+(1|Sample) 250.7 8 << 0.001 WDPT~GWC\*BrnSp+Dpth+(1|Sample) 987.2 4 << 0.001
- 655 *effect. Model formula is based on R conventions.*

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Table 2: Summary of fixed effects for linear mixed effects model of sample average water drop penetration time (WDPT) as a function of gravimetric water content (GWC); burn state-species, and depth, and sample as a random effect. Two model variants are presented, one with and without an interaction term between [depth] and [burn state - species]. Results are presented for rank transformed WDPT, where lower rank indicates higher average WDPT.

		Interaction	Estimate	Std. Err	Estimate	Std. Err
			(no interaction)		(/w interaction)	
Intercept			2072	36	2083	44
GWC			-79	2	-80	2
Burn state - species	B.FM		0		0	
	FM		-72	47	72	62
	Sph		-536	48	-433	62
	B.Sph		-740	48	-743	62
	B.Hol		-930	47	-1212	62
Depth	0 cm		-73	23	-189	48
		FM			-70	69
		Sph			-161	69
		B.Sph			70	69
		B.Hol			737	69
	3 cm		-11	23	75	48
		FM			-363	69
		Sph			-132	69
		B.Sph			-47	69
		B.Hol			115	69
	6 cm		0		0	

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665 Figure List

Figure 1: Simple experimental setup of water drop penetration time (WDPT) test using a pipette
to apply water drops from a consistent minimal height above moss/peat surface (a). WDPT test
was applied to surface samples of both feathermoss (b) and *Sphagnum* (c), as well as underlying
peat soil (d). Images are of unburned samples.

670 Figure 2: Summary of water drop penetration time (WDPT) tests for air drying of unburned and 671 burned Sphagnum (Sph and B.Sph), unburned and burned feathermoss (FM and B.FM), and 672 burned hollow (B.Hol) samples at three depths. Results are for up to 26 days of drying, and also 673 include results from pre-saturation air-dry (Pre), and oven-dry (Ovn) state. Colour-coded bars 674 represent the percent of water drops (10 drops per sample  $\times$  10 samples) that infiltrated the sample surface in: <5 s (1 - hydrophilic); 5-60 s (2 - slightly hydrophobic); 61-600 s (3 -675 strongly hydrophobic); 601-3600 s (4 – severely hydrophobic); >3600 s (5 – extremely 676 677 hydrophobic).

Figure 3: Boxplots of average water repellency category for all three depths (0, 3, and 6 cm).
Bars represent the inter-quartile range, notches are the 95% confidence interval on the median,
and open circles beyond whiskers are considered extreme values.

Figure 4: Average gravimetric water content (GWC) of unburned (open) and burned (filled) *Sphagnum* (blue square symbols; Sph and B.Sph), unburned and burned feathermoss (red circle symbols; FM and B.FM), and burned hollow (black triangle symbol; B.Hol) samples throughout the drying experiment. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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Figure 5: Average water repellency category for each sample (based on 10 water drops per sample) over the course of air-drying under constant temperature and humidity. Results are shown for 0 cm (a), 3cm (b), and 6 cm (c) samples. Gravimetric water content (GWC) is displayed on a log scale to provide better visualisation of data points at low water contents.

Figure 6: Comparison of water repellency for large sample (n=70) of burned feathermoss between pre-saturation air-dry state (Pre), post-saturation air-dry state (Post) and oven-dry state (Oven). Colour-coded bars represent the percent of water drops (10 drops per sample  $\times$  10 samples) that infiltrated the sample surface in: <5 s (1 - hydrophilic); 5-60 s (2 - slightly hydrophobic); 61-600 s (3 - strongly hydrophobic); 601-3600 s (4 - severely hydrophobic); >3600 s (5 - extremely hydrophobic). The lower panel shows the relationship between gravimetric water content (GWC) of sample in a pre- and post-saturation air-dry state.

Figure 7: Gravimetric (GWC) (a) and volumetric (b) water content of unburned (white-filled circles) and burned (black-filled circles) *Sphagnum* (Sph and B.Sph – blue lines), unburned and burned feathermoss (FM and B.FM – red lines), and burned hollow (B.Hol – black line). Error bars represent the standard error based on ten replicate samples. Estimated saturation GWC values are arbitrarily plotted along the left y-axis since tension of 0 mbar cannot be plotted in log-log space. Tension values in panel (b) have been jittered to improved data visibility.

Figure 8: Volumetric water content at a tension of 100 mbar as a function of dry bulk density for
unburned (white-filled circles) and burned (black-filled circles) *Sphagnum* (Sph and B.Sph –
blue), unburned and burned feathermoss (FM and B.FM – red), and burned hollow (B.Hol –
black line). Linear least-squares regression forced through zero are shown.

### 709 Figures

710 Figure 1



714 Figure 2















727 Figure 6





736 Figure 8



