

1 **Predicting soil water repellency by hydrophobic organic**
2 **compounds and their vegetation origin**

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15 **Abstract**

16 It is widely accepted that soil water repellency (SWR) is mainly caused by plant-derived
17 hydrophobic organic compounds in soils; such hydrophobic compounds are defined as SWR-
18 markers. However, the detailed influence of SWR-markers on SWR is yet unclear and the
19 knowledge of their original sources is still limited. The aims of this study are to select
20 important SWR-markers to predict SWR based on their correlation with SWR and to
21 determine their origin. In our study, sandy soils with different SWR were collected, along
22 with their covering vegetation, i.e. plant leaves/needles and roots. A sequential extraction
23 procedure was applied to the soils to obtain three organic fractions: DCM/MeOH soluble
24 fraction (D), DCM/MeOH insoluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract (AI) and DCM/MeOH
25 soluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract (AS), which were subdivided into ten dominant SWR-
26 marker groups: (D) fatty acid, (D) alcohol, (D) alkane, (AI) fatty acid, (AI) alcohol, (AI) ω -
27 hydroxy fatty acid, (AI) α,ω -dicarboxylic acid, (AS) fatty acid, (AS) alcohol and (AS) ω -
28 hydroxy fatty acid. Waxes and biopolyesters of the vegetation were also sequentially
29 extracted from plants. The soils with higher SWR have significantly higher relative
30 concentrations of (AS) alcohols. A number of indications suggest that (AS) alcohols are
31 mainly derived from roots and most likely produced by microbial hydrolysis of biopolyesters
32 (mainly suberins). In addition, the strong correlation between the biomarkers of plant tissues
33 and SWR-markers in soils suggests that it is more accurate to predict SWR of topsoils using
34 ester-bound alcohols from roots, and to predict SWR of subsoils using root-derived ω -
35 hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω -dicarboxylic acids. Considering the sandy soils studied here, our
36 relations obtained need to be tested for other types of soils. Our analysis indicates that plant
37 roots have a primary role influencing SWR relative to plant leaves.

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Soil water repellency (SWR) is one of the important properties that can interrupt soil water
41 infiltration and potentially lead to soil erosion, and occurs globally in a wide range of soil
42 types under various kinds of vegetation (Franco et al., 1995, 2000; Doerr et al., 2000, 2005;
43 Michel et al., 2001; Poulénard et al., 2004; Hansel et al., 2008; de Blas et al., 2010). SWR is
44 caused by hydrophobic organic compounds in soils. These compounds originate from
45 vegetation (McGhie and Posner, 1981; Bisdorf et al., 1993; de Blas et al., 2010; Horne and
46 McIntosh, 2000) or microorganisms (Bond and Harris, 1964; McGhie and Posner, 1980) and
47 have been defined as SWR-markers by Mao et al. (2014). Different groups of SWR-markers
48 have been isolated from water repellent soils by a number of extraction techniques with
49 selective organic solvents and have been identified by using several types of analytical
50 instruments in previous research (Ma'shum et al., 1988; Franco et al., 1995, 2000; Hansel et
51 al., 2008; Atanassova and Doerr, 2010; de Blas et al., 2010; Mao et al., 2014).

52 Although numerous SWR-markers have been identified, the relation between these
53 markers and the severity of SWR is still not clear. Significantly more organic matter was
54 found in water repellent soils than in wettable soils, but there was no clear correlation
55 between the extracted amounts of organic matter and SWR severity (Atanassova and Doerr,
56 2010; Mainwaring et al., 2004, 2013). Few studies have attempted to explain the possible
57 relation between hydrophobic organic compounds and SWR. De Blas et al. (2013) found a
58 significant correlation between the amount of free lipids and SWR; however, the amount of
59 bound lipids did not correlate with soil hydrophobicity. Ester-bound biopolymers (in
60 particular suberins) have been shown to lead to relatively stronger SWR compared to free
61 lipids in sandy soils (Mao et al., 2014). Hence, it is clear that not only the amount but also the
62 type of SWR-markers affect the severity of SWR (Contreras et al., 2008; de Blas et al.,
63 2013).

64 The severity of SWR significantly varies depending on vegetation species and soil depths
65 (Doerr et al., 2002, 2005; Buckzo et al., 2005; de Blas et al., 2010, 2013; Neris et al., 2012;
66 Mao et al., 2014; Zavala et al., 2014). For instance, soil under eucalyptus always showed
67 more severe water repellency than under pine during dry periods in northwest Spain
68 (Rodríguez-Alleres and Benito, 2011, 2012). Morley et al. (2005) found large variation in
69 SWR from extreme repellent to non-repellent sandy soil under grasses, at depths ranging
70 from 0 to 40 cm. As vegetation is the primary input of organic matter in soils (Van Bergen et
71 al., 1997; Kögel-Knabner, 2002), it is now well accepted that SWR is mainly the result of
72 accumulated hydrophobic organic compounds in soils originally derived from vegetation
73 (Bisdorf et al., 1993; DeBano, 2000; Doerr et al., 2000; Horne and McIntosh, 2000; Hansel et
74 al., 2008; de Blas et al., 2010, 2013) and to a smaller extent from microbes (Hallett and
75 Young, 1999; Feeney et al., 2006).

76 In this paper we aim to predict SWR based on the occurrence of different types and
77 amounts of SWR-markers in sandy soils and to understand and link the SWR-markers to their
78 origin, i.e. the vegetation type (leaf or root). We therefore use sandy soils under different
79 vegetation types similar to our previous study (Mao et al., 2014), in which the soils contain
80 more than 100 different SWR-markers. Sandy soils have been chosen because they contain
81 hardly any organo-mineral complexes, leading to negligible interactions between soil
82 particles and organic matter, in contrast to clay or silt soils (Schulten and Leinweber, 2000;
83 Kleber et al., 2007). To predict SWR from specific leaf/root biomarkers, we apply linear
84 regression data analysis to the SWR-markers both as individual compounds and combined in
85 compound groups from the three different fractions: DCM/MeOH soluble fraction (D),
86 DCM/MeOH insoluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract (AI) and DCM/MeOH soluble fraction of
87 IPA/NH₃ extract (AS), as analysed by Mao et al. (2014).

88

89 **2. Materials and methods**

90 **2.1 Sampling**

91 The sand dunes of the Zuid-Kennemerland National Park in The Netherlands were chosen as
92 a sampling site. Soils and vegetation samples were collected along two perpendicular
93 transects, with a variety of vegetation cover. All the soils were classified as Cambic
94 Arenosols (FAO, 2006), and more details about the soil characteristics and transects are given
95 in Mao et al. (2014). The soils were sampled from maximal three different soil horizons at
96 spots under different types of vegetation (Table 1). The living plant leaves and roots were
97 taken separately from each vegetation species, except for sheep fescue, of which the roots
98 found in the field were very fine and therefore the leaves and roots were decided to be
99 collected together. All collected soils were oven-dried at 30°C for 48 hours, and passed a 1.4
100 mm diameter sieve to remove large leaf and root fragments. All vegetation samples were
101 freeze-dried and stored in a dry place prior to further analysis.

102

103 **2.2 Soil characteristics measurements**

104 A 1:2.5 (w/w) soil to water ratio was used to determine soil pH value (Metson, 1956), which
105 was measured by using a pH meter (Consort C830). To determine total organic carbon (TOC)
106 and total nitrogen (TN), all soils were decalcified using 1 M HCl to remove inorganic carbon
107 (Van Wesemael, 1955) and ground into fine powder by using planetary ball mills
108 (Pulverisette[®]5, Fritsch). The TOC and TN contents of the soils were measured using a CNS
109 analyser (Fisons Instruments NA1500).

110

111 **2.3 Water repellency assessment**

112 The water drop penetration time (WDPT) test is widely accepted and used to evaluate the
113 extent of SWR (Van't Woudt, 1959; Krammes and DeBano, 1965; Wessel, 1988; Dekker and

114 Ritsema, 1994; Doerr et al., 2005). To obtain the WDPT of all oven-dried soils before
115 extraction, the WDPT value of each soil was determined based on the average penetration
116 time of twenty individual water droplets. Based on the WDPT method, the severity of SWR
117 was classified as follows: wettable (<5 s), slightly repellent (5-60 s), strongly repellent (60-
118 600 s), severely repellent (600-3600 s) and extremely repellent (>3600 s) (Bisdorn et al.,
119 1993; Dekker and Ritsema, 1996). The repellency classes of all the soils are presented in
120 Table 1.

121

122 **2.4 Soil and vegetation extraction**

123 To investigate different fractions of SWR-markers, sequential extraction methods have been
124 applied to all the soils (see for details Mao et al. (2014)) and vegetation samples. To isolate
125 free lipids from the soils and the plants, the oven-dried soils, leaves and roots were weighed
126 and extracted by dichloromethane/methanol (DCM/MeOH (9:1, v:v)) by using a Soxhlet
127 apparatus for 24 hours to give the D fraction (Bull et al., 2000; Nierop et al., 2005; Jansen et
128 al., 2006). The residual soils were air-dried and extracted using a Soxhlet apparatus
129 containing *iso*-propanol/ammonia solution (IPA/NH₃, 7:3 (v:v), 32% ammonia solution) for
130 48 hours. The soils became wettable after IPA/NH₃ extraction. The soluble lipids (AS
131 fraction) were separated from the dried IPA/NH₃ extracts by DCM/MeOH (9:1), and the
132 residues resulted into so-called AI fractions, which involved ester bonds.

133 All the D and AS fractions of the soils and DCM/MeOH extracts of the plants were
134 methylated using diazomethane (CH₂N₂). The AI fractions and the lipid-free air-dried leaves
135 and roots were depolymerised by trans-methylation using BF₃-MeOH at 70 °C for 16 hours
136 (Riederer et al., 1993). Prior to analysis, all the aliquots were eluted through a small silicagel
137 60 column (0.063-0.2 mm diameter, 79-230 mesh) with ethyl acetate and silylated using N,O-
138 *bis* (trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) in pyridine at 60°C for 20 min.

139

140 **2.5 Gas Chromatography (GC) and GC- Mass Spectrometry (MS) analysis**

141 A HP 6890 Series GC fitted with a flame ionisation detector (FID) was used to analyse
142 derivatised extracts. A CP-Sil 5 CB capillary column (Agilent Technologies, 30 m length ×
143 0.32 mm diameter, 0.10 µm film thickness) was used to separate compounds, using helium as
144 carrier gas with a constant pressure at 100 kPa. The oven heating programme started with an
145 initial temperature of 70 °C, increased to 130 °C at 20 °C min⁻¹, then heated from 130 °C to
146 320 °C at 4 °C min⁻¹, and finally held at 320 °C for 20 min.

147 GC-MS analysis of extracts was performed on a Thermo Trace GC Ultra GC connected to
148 Finnigan Trace DSQ mass spectrometer with a mass range of m/z 50-800, using helium at a
149 1.0 ml min⁻¹ flow rate as the carrier gas. The GC-MS was equipped with a similar capillary
150 column as the GC-FID, and the same oven temperature mode was used as for the GC-FID
151 analysis.

152 Based on GC-FID and GC-MS analyses, the relative response factors of compound groups
153 (alkanes, alcohols, fatty acids, ω-hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω-dicarboxylic acids) were rather
154 similar and hardly discriminating between various types of compounds. Therefore, a known
155 amount of squalane as an internal standard was added to extracts to quantify compounds by
156 peak area integration from GC-MS chromatograms to correct for possible co-eluting
157 compounds. Both for GC-FID and GC-MS analyses, 1 µl of derivatised extracts were
158 injected onto the column. Compound identification was conducted on mass spectra using a
159 NIST library or by interpretation of the spectra, and combined with their retention times or by
160 comparison with literature data.

161

162 **2.6 Statistical data analysis**

163 The correlation between SWR-markers and SWR can be clearly interpreted by linear
164 regression analysis. Here we applied simple linear regression between measured SWR value
165 (i.e. the WDPT) at log scale ($\log(s)$) to the concentrations of individual SWR-markers and
166 each compound group. To assess both the quantitative and qualitative effects, we carried out
167 regression analysis on the absolute amount ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}\text{soil}$) and the relative amount ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}\text{TOC}$)
168 of SWR-markers. In our study the quantity of every compound group was defined as absolute
169 amount ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}\text{soil}$) and the quality as the ratio of the concentrations of two different
170 compound groups (Group1/Group2, [-]). We will distinguish these functional compound
171 groups, based on the extraction type (D, AI and AS) and their compound types, i.e. alkanes,
172 fatty acids, alcohols, ω -hydroxy fatty acids or α,ω -dicarboxylic acids.

173 **3. Results**

174 **3.1 Single compounds analysis**

175 **3.1.1 Single SWR-markers from soils**

176 For all soils, the majority of compounds had negative but no significant correlations between
177 their relative concentrations ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}\text{TOC}$) and SWR. In Table 2 only the significant
178 correlations between relative concentrations of individual markers and SWR are given, in
179 which we analysed this for 1) all soils, 2) topsoils and 3) subsoils, respectively.

180 For all soils ($n=15$), in the D fraction we only found that C_{24} alcohol significantly
181 positively related to SWR (\log_{10} WDPT; Table 2; $r=0.575$, $p=0.025$). For the AS fraction,
182 three even-numbered alcohols (C_{20} , C_{24} and C_{30}) and C_{20} ω -hydroxy fatty acid had significant
183 positive relations with SWR. Other, in general short-chain fatty acids, alcohols and alkanes
184 from different fractions exhibited significant negative relations with SWR (Table 2).

185 For all the topsoils ($n=10$) the longer chain AS-alcohols (C_{20} , C_{24} and C_{30}), which had
186 significant relations with SWR for all soils, were no longer significant in the topsoils. Only
187 negatively related compounds were found for the topsoils. For the AI-fraction, similar
188 significant negatively correlated markers for the topsoils were found as compared to all soils.
189 For the AS fraction C_{22} , C_{23} and C_{24} fatty acids had significant negative correlations with
190 SWR for all the topsoils, which could not be found for all soils. In contrast, AS alcohols did
191 not show significant relations with SWR for the topsoils. For all the subsoils ($n=5$), short-
192 chain alcohols (C_{16} and C_{18}) in the D fraction and fatty acids (C_{18} and C_{21}) in the AI fraction
193 showed negatively significant correlations with SWR, while none of the compounds in the
194 AS fraction had a significant correlation with SWR.

195

196 **3.1.2 Single biomarkers from vegetation**

197 The compound groups fatty acids, alcohols and alkanes were identified in DCM/MeOH
198 extracts from plant leaves and roots (Fig. 1a-c). Besides these three main groups mentioned
199 above, β -sitosterol was abundantly present in all the leaves and roots, but was found in soils
200 with much lower abundance and had an insignificant correlation with SWR, as similar as
201 other identified sterols (e.g. stigmasterol in mosses). Other typical biomarkers were found in
202 leaves and roots of one or more species but hardly found in all soils, for instance,
203 dehydroabietic acid in black pine needles, in the leaves of oak and sea-buckthorn, therefore
204 those biomarkers were not taken into account as an SWR marker to predict SWR.

205 For the fatty acids in all leaves and roots a strong even-over-odd preference was found, in
206 which chain lengths of most plant extracts ranged between C_{16} - C_{32} . The sheep fescue and
207 hypnum moss clearly showed the largest range of abundant fatty acids, in which C_{28} was
208 most abundant for both species. For sea-buckthorn and hawthorn, roots had more different
209 kinds of fatty acids than the leaves. C_{30} was most abundant in leaves of hawthorn, C_{24} in roots
210 of hawthorn, C_{22} in both leaves and roots of sea-buckthorn. For pine needles, C_{16} and C_{18}
211 fatty acids were the only fatty acids found, while the pine roots contained a large range with
212 C_{24} as dominating one. Long-chain even-numbered fatty acids were more abundant in the
213 leaves (with C_{20} as most dominant) than in the roots of common oak, with C_{16} as most
214 dominant. In summary the number of different fatty acids found in roots was larger than in
215 leaves, with highest concentrations in sea-buckthorn roots and oak leaves.

216 In contrast to fatty acids, the alcohols observed in plants ranged between C_{16} - C_{32} and were
217 only even-numbered (Fig. 1b). The most abundant alcohol in sheep fescue and hypnum moss
218 was C_{26} . C_{22} was the most dominating in sea-buckthorn leaves while in their roots C_{18} , C_{22}
219 and C_{26} alcohols had similar predominance. For hawthorn, C_{26} was most the abundant in
220 leaves and C_{24} in roots. C_{24} alcohol was predominant in pine needles and oak leaves while
221 their roots showed a more uniform distribution (C_{18} - C_{24} and C_{18} - C_{26} , respectively). To

222 summarise, the number of different alcohols found in roots was larger than in the leaves,
223 which is similar as found for the fatty acids, but abundance of the alcohols in the leaves was
224 much higher.

225 Only long-chain odd-numbered alkanes (C₂₁-C₃₁) were observed in the leaves, except for
226 pine needles in which no alkanes were found (Fig. 1c). C₂₇ dominated oak leaves, C₂₉
227 dominated all the other leaves and roots except sea-buckthorn roots that were dominated by
228 C₂₁ and had a larger range of alkanes than all other plant tissues. Fatty acids, alcohols, ω-
229 hydroxy fatty acids, and α,ω-dicarboxylic acids were released from the ester-bound lipids
230 (cutin and suberin) upon BF₃-MeOH hydrolysis of all leaves and roots (Fig. 2 a-d). In
231 addition, several di- and trihydroxy fatty acids, common cutin and suberin monomers, were
232 identified, but as they were hardly or not found in our soils (Mao et al., 2014) they do not
233 play a major role in our correlation analysis. Therefore, we limited ourselves to the
234 previously mentioned compound groups.

235 The even-over-odd-numbered fatty acids (C₁₆-C₃₀) dominated all leaves and roots (Fig.
236 2a). Interestingly, C₁₆ fatty acid was the most dominating ester-bound fatty acid for all above-
237 ground plant tissues in relative high concentrations, in contrast to the roots. All roots had a
238 large range of fatty acids, dominated by C₂₄, except for hawthorn that contained only C₂₀ and
239 C₂₂ fatty acids.

240 Compared to leaves, a larger number of ester-bound alcohols in greater abundance were
241 found in the roots. For sheep fescue, C₂₀ alcohol was the dominant one, while C₁₈ was the
242 only one found in hypnum moss (Fig. 2b). No ester-bound alcohol was found in sea
243 buckthorn and hawthorn leaves. Pine needles only showed C₂₄, while oak leaves showed only
244 C₂₀. The most dominant ester-bound alcohol in the roots of sea-buckthorn and pine was C₁₆,
245 while in those of hawthorn and oak C₂₄ and C₂₀ were, respectively.

246 Sheep fescue showed a large range of ω -hydroxy fatty acids dominated by C_{18:1} (Fig. 2c),
247 whereas hypnum moss contained only C₁₆. The roots of sea-buckthorn had the widest range
248 of ω -hydroxy fatty acids, from C₁₆ to C₂₈, while the roots of hawthorn had the narrowest
249 range from C₁₆ to C₂₂ excluding C_{18:1}. C₂₄ was most dominant for sea-buckthorn roots while
250 in hawthorn roots C₂₀ was most abundant. C₁₂ and C₁₄ ω -hydroxy fatty acids were only
251 observed in pine needles, whereas longer-chain ones ($> C_{18}$) were present only in its roots
252 maximising at C₂₂. C_{18:1} ω -hydroxy fatty acid predominated in both oak leaves and roots.

253 Even-numbered α,ω -dicarboxylic acids (C₁₆-C₂₈) as typical suberin-derived biomarkers
254 were only found in the plant roots (Fig. 2d). No α,ω -dicarboxylic acids were found in sheep
255 fescue and hypnum moss while in the roots of the other species the dominating α,ω -
256 dicarboxylic acid differs: sea buckthorn (C_{18:1}), hawthorn (C₁₆), oak (C₁₆) and pine (C₂₂).

257

258 **3.1.3 Soil-vegetation link based on single compounds**

259 Compared to leaves, roots contained a larger number of different extractable and ester-bound
260 biomarkers, except for the alkanes. The concentrations of most extractable lipids in roots
261 were lower than in leaves, while the opposite was generally true for ester-bound lipids.

262 Comparing the D fraction with extractable lipids of plants, C₁₆, C₁₇ and C₁₈ fatty acids in
263 the D fraction of soils are negatively related to SWR for all soils and the topsoils (Table 2),
264 which were most abundant in sheep fescue (Fig. 1a). The oak leaves contained the highest
265 concentration of C₂₄ alcohol, which in the D fraction was the only compound that positively
266 related to SWR. Alcohols C₂₀ and C₂₄ in the ester-bound lipids of the hawthorn roots were
267 most abundant and can clearly be related to C₂₀ and C₂₄ alcohols in the AI fraction of soils.

268

269 **3.2 Compound groups analysis**

270 **3.2.1 SWR-marker groups from soils**

271 To get a more general view on the relation between certain compounds and SWR, we have
272 analysed compound groups (i.e. sum of all compounds of the same type). For all soils, the
273 absolute total amounts of the main compound groups in the D, AI and AS fractions ranged
274 from 1.61 to 63.80 mg g⁻¹soil, from 0.84 to 62.18 mg g⁻¹soil and from 0.27 to 40.24 mg
275 g⁻¹soil, respectively. For all soils, all compound groups, i.e. (D) fatty acid, (D) alcohol, (D)
276 alkane, (AI) fatty acid, (AI) alcohol, (AI) ω-hydroxy fatty acid, (AI) α,ω-dicarboxylic acid,
277 (AS) fatty acid, (AS) alcohol and (AS) ω-hydroxy fatty acid, had significant positive relations
278 between quantity (log₁₀ (μg g⁻¹soil)) and SWR (log₁₀ WDPT) (Table 3). For all the topsoils,
279 all compound groups significantly correlated to SWR except (AI) α,ω-dicarboxylic acid and
280 (AS) fatty acid. For all the subsoils less compound groups had significant relations with
281 SWR. For the high TOC soils, no group had a significant correlation with SWR, while for the
282 low TOC soils, all groups significantly related to SWR except (AI) fatty acid and (AS) ω-
283 hydroxy fatty acid.

284 As absolute values highly correlate with organic matter content and therefore with SWR,
285 relative amounts are more interesting to understand the importance of one component over
286 the other. For all soils, the relative total amounts of the main compound groups in the D, AI
287 and AS fractions ranged from 0.74 to 2.74 mg g⁻¹TOC, from 0.48 to 2.01 mg g⁻¹TOC and
288 from 0.24 to 1.43 mg g⁻¹TOC, respectively. To this end the correlation between the relative
289 concentrations (log₁₀ (μg g⁻¹TOC)) of compound groups and SWR was analysed. Only (AS)
290 alcohol group had a positive significant correlation for all soils and the subsoils (Table 3).
291 The other groups either had a negative or positive relation with SWR but not significant. No
292 compound group significantly related to SWR for the topsoils.

293

294 **3.2.2 Vegetation biomarker groups**

295 Considering the biomarker groups of extractable lipids of sea-buckthorn, hawthorn, pine and
296 oak, oak leaves had much more abundant fatty acids and alcohols than the leaves of other
297 plants (Table 4). The roots of sea-buckthorn were richer in fatty acids and alcohols than the
298 other roots. Alkanes were observed in all leaves except pine needles, whereas a relatively
299 small amount of alkanes was found in pine roots. The leaves of hawthorn had the highest
300 amount of alkane while no alkanes were found in its roots. Sea-buckthorn was the only plant
301 species containing alkanes in both its leaves and roots.

302 Ester-bound fatty acids and ω -hydroxy fatty acids occurred in all leaves and roots,
303 whereas the leaves and roots of hawthorn had the highest abundance of fatty acids of all
304 leaves and the highest ω -hydroxy fatty acids of all roots (Table 4). Much less ester-bound
305 alcohols were observed in leaves than in roots. The roots of hawthorn had the most abundant
306 alcohol group. As expected, no α,ω -dicarboxylic acids were present in leaves but only in
307 roots.

308

309 **3.2.3 Soil-vegetation link based on compound groups**

310 Fig. 3 shows the relative concentrations of the compound groups subdivided between top-
311 and subsoils. Interestingly, although the composition within each compound group is
312 different, there is almost no significant difference between the concentrations of compound
313 groups in top- and subsoils. The relative abundance of (AI) α,ω -dicarboxylic acids in the
314 topsoils was significantly higher than in the subsoils ($p=0.013$), while such compounds only
315 derive from roots. There was no significant difference between relative abundances of all
316 other summed compound groups between top- and subsoils. Although more extractable fatty
317 acids were found in leaves than in roots, except for sea-buckthorn (Table 4), no clear
318 differences for (D) fatty acids were observed between top- and subsoils (Fig. 3). The amounts
319 of (D) alkanes in top- and subsoils were almost equal, while leaves had much more alkanes

320 than roots. Comparing the AI fraction, AI-fatty acids was equal in the topsoils and subsoils
321 (Fig. 3) while the ester-bound fatty acids were more abundant in leaves than in roots (Table
322 4). The ω -hydroxy fatty acids were slightly lower in the topsoils than in the subsoils, whereas
323 the concentration of this group was lower in leaves than in roots.

324

325 **3.3 Quality relation of two compound groups to SWR**

326 From the above analysis, individual compound groups in absolute concentrations ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}\text{soil}$)
327 were in general able to understand the SWR behaviour, while using the relative amounts (μg
328 g^{-1}TOC) were not. As a next step, we analysed the ratio of two different compound groups
329 reflecting a quality parameter of SWR markers in relation to SWR. To understand if this
330 quality factor is able to describe the SWR, the linear correlation of such a ratio and SWR was
331 analysed. For all soils, (AS) alcohol was essential for a significant combination (Table 5).
332 When (AS) alcohol was the numerator, the correlation between the ratio of two groups and
333 SWR was positive, otherwise, it was negatively correlated. Also for the topsoils and the
334 subsoils, (AS) alcohol occurred in all significant combinations and had a positive relation
335 when (AS) alcohol was the numerator. In contrast to all soils, for the topsoils, not all the
336 groups that combined with (AS) alcohol showed a significant relation. Among those
337 significant combinations, all three compound groups from the D fraction were included;
338 however, (AI) alcohol was the only group from the AI fraction, while (AS) fatty acid was the
339 only one from the AS fraction. For the subsoils it is interesting that significant combinations
340 coincided with all AI compound groups except (AI) alcohol. None of the significant
341 combinations were the same for the topsoils and subsoils. All the significant combinations for
342 the top-/subsoils were also obtained in those for all soils. Similar to all soils, (AS) alcohol as
343 the numerator achieved positive correlations between the quality ratios and SWR for the
344 topsoils.

345 For the topsoils, all the groups from the D fraction were included in the significant
346 combinations. Linking those groups to the extractable lipids of the plant leaves, oak leaves
347 had the highest concentrations of both fatty acids and alcohols. All the D fraction groups
348 were abundantly present in the roots of sea-buckthorn. The leaves and the roots of hawthorn
349 had the highest abundances of ester-bound alcohols. For the subsoils, among the significant
350 combinations, all three AI groups, i.e. fatty acid, ω -hydroxy fatty acid and α,ω -dicarboxylic
351 acid, occurred in the ester-bound lipids of vegetation. The ester-bound fatty acids were most
352 abundant in the leaves of hawthorn and the roots of sea-buckthorn, respectively (Table 4).
353 Hawthorn roots were richer in ω -hydroxy fatty acids than the other plant roots, whereas pine
354 needles had the highest ω -hydroxy fatty acids for all leaves. α,ω -Dicarboxylic acids were
355 richest in oak roots.

356 **4. Discussion**

357 **4.1 Single SWR-markers**

358 As known, the extracted SWR-markers are all hydrophobic (Hansel et al., 2008; Atanassova
359 and Doerr, 2010; de Blas et al., 2013); however, still significant negative correlations have
360 been shown as relative abundances. For all soil categories, compared to long-chain
361 compounds, the short-chain ones showed more negative linear relations with SWR.
362 Atanassova and Doerr (2010) also detected more abundant short-chain dicarboxylic acids in
363 less water repellent soils. Mainwaring et al. (2004) mentioned low molecular weight polar
364 compounds diffuse quickly through soil water. Referring to that, a possible explanation of
365 those more negative relations is that the short-chain compounds are supposed to be more
366 mobile and less hydrophobic, inducing a relative lower SWR. Since the measured SWR is an
367 average value reflecting the contribution of all components, the contribution of the short-
368 chain compounds to cause SWR is apparently relatively smaller than the average contribution
369 induced by all SWR-markers resulting in negative relations. In addition, it also implies that
370 other long-chain compounds have a relatively larger contribution to SWR, which is supported
371 by the positive relations. Soil organic matter composition and hence SWR-markers differ
372 between soils under various vegetation. From either ecological or chemical point of view, the
373 influence of single SWR-markers on SWR cannot be accurately quantified, and thus, single
374 compounds are not good SWR-markers to predict the extent of SWR well.

375

376 **4.2 Role of compound groups**

377 Since single SWR-markers may not be capable to predict SWR, we analysed the possible
378 correlations between compound groups and SWR. We are the first to discuss about the
379 quantity and quality of SWR-markers to predict SWR. For all soils, the positive relations
380 between the absolute amounts of all the compound groups and SWR follow the significant

381 positive relation between TOC and SWR shown by Mao et al. (2014). Therefore, it is not
382 surprising that the absolute quantity of the single SWR-marker groups showed its potential of
383 predicting SWR. However, the quality of compounds is more important than the quantity by
384 influencing SWR (Lozano et al., 2013). Regarding the relative concentrations of SWR-
385 marker groups, (AS) alcohol was the only group to show a significant relation with SWR for
386 all soils and the subsoils, respectively. In addition, alcohols have been detected in water
387 repellent soils and associate with SWR (Mainwaring et al., 2004; Hansel et al., 2008;
388 Atanassova and Doerr, 2010). As (AS) alcohol does not comprise an abundant group in all
389 AS extracts, the relation between compound groups and SWR might not be simply explained
390 only by a single compound group. Therefore, the ratio of two different groups, namely the
391 quality of the compound groups in our study, was used to demonstrate the significant
392 combinations predicting SWR for different soil categories.

393 For the topsoils, there are fewer groups from AI and AS fractions combined with (AS)
394 alcohol that significantly related to SWR than for all soils. For instance, α,ω -dicarboxylic
395 acids in the AI fraction and ω -hydroxy fatty acids in both AI and AS fractions in combination
396 with (AS) alcohols did not predict SWR well in topsoils. It is reasonable that those
397 combinations were no longer significant because of the different original sources of SWR-
398 markers. The main source of SWR-markers in the topsoils is most likely plant leaves (Bull et
399 al., 2000a; Naafs et al., 2004a), whereas both α,ω -dicarboxylic acids and ω -hydroxy fatty
400 acids are typically derived from roots (Kolattukudy et al., 1981, 2001; Pollard et al., 2008).
401 For the subsoils, the entire D fraction originating from leaf waxes were not involved in the
402 significant combinations with (AS) alcohol, suggesting little contribution of organic
403 compounds to the sandy subsoils is from leaves (Nierop and Verstraten, 2004). All three
404 groups that successfully combined with (AS) alcohol are from the root-derived AI fraction

405 revealing that the primary source of organic matter in subsoils is roots (Bull et al., 2000b;
406 Nierop et al., 2006) and those combinations could well predict the subsoil SWR.

407 (AI) alcohol was not on the list of significant group combinations for the subsoils but was
408 the only AI group present in one significant combination for the topsoils, potentially
409 implying that (AI) alcohol combined with (AS) alcohol can be a good predictor of SWR in
410 the topsoils. Based on the analysis of the significant combinations of the top- and subsoils,
411 the original source of SWR-markers probably plays a vital role on selecting best
412 combinations to predict soil SWR. However, the relations observed between SWR-marker
413 groups and SWR may not be directly applicable to other types of soils with different soil
414 texture, structure and vegetation cover (Bisdorn et al., 1993; Doerr et al., 2000; De Blas et al.,
415 2010).

416

417 **4.3 Role of the AS fraction**

418 Interestingly, only (AS) alcohol positively related to SWR significantly. It implies that SWR
419 is higher when the soil organic matter contains relatively more (AS) alcohol. In addition,
420 (AS) alcohol was most frequently appearing in significant group combinations. Although the
421 AS fraction seems an important SWR fraction, compared to the other two fractions, the AS
422 fraction contained the least amount of extracted SWR-markers, the AS fraction as such and
423 its origin is poorly understood. Mao et al. (2014) speculated that the AS fraction physically
424 blocked by the suberin-derived AI fraction are mainly from leaves and a smaller part from
425 roots. However, in this paper:

426 1. As observed earlier, there were no alkanes occurring in the AS fractions (Mao et al.,
427 2014), while in the present study alkanes was one of the main groups present in leaves while
428 hardly or not in roots, suggesting a negligible leaf signal in the AS fraction.

429 2. The ω -hydroxy fatty acids in the AS fraction were mainly C₂₂ and C₂₄, which are typical
430 of suberin-derived compounds from roots (Kolattukudy et al., 1980; Nierop et al., 2006;
431 Spielvogel et al., 2014).

432 3. For the subsoils, only the ratios of (AS) alcohol/ (AI) compounds had significant
433 positive relations with SWR. Here (AI) compounds included (AI) fatty acid, (AI) ω -hydroxy
434 fatty acid and (AI) α,ω -dicarboxylic acid, which are suberin-derived compounds (Mao et al.,
435 2014). Those significant combinations suggest that the origin of (AS) alcohol may be
436 relevant to the origin of the (AI) fraction, namely roots. (AS) alcohol/(AI) alcohol was the
437 only ratio of AS alcohol/AI compounds that did not predict SWR in the subsoil well,
438 implying that (AI) alcohol is different to some degree from the other (AI) groups when it is
439 associated with (AS) alcohol.

440 4. For the topsoils, the ratio of (AS) alcohol/ (AI) compounds (except (AI) alcohol) did not
441 have strong correlations with SWR. (AI) compounds mainly originate from roots,
442 demonstrating that roots-derived compounds possibly do not respond to the SWR of the
443 topsoils. For the topsoils, the ratio of (AS) alcohol/ (AI) alcohol significantly related to SWR,
444 implying that the relation between (AS) alcohol and (AI) alcohol is unique and different than
445 the relations between (AS) alcohol and other (AI) compounds.

446 5. ω -Hydroxy fatty acid group in the AI fraction had a positive significant relation ($r=0.58$,
447 $p=0.02$) with (AS) alcohol, but none of the compound groups in the D fraction well correlated
448 to (AS) alcohol. As previously pointed out, the D fraction and AI fraction are mainly derived
449 from leaf-waxes and roots, respectively (Mao et al., 2014). The correlations reflect that the
450 (AS) alcohol did not have the same original source as (D) compounds but probably originate
451 from the same source as (AI) compounds. All arguments together suggest that roots are the
452 likely main original source of the AS fraction.

453 As described in our previous study, the AS fraction does not directly have contact with
454 water in soils as it is physically blocked by the AI fraction by definition (Mao et al., 2014).
455 The DCM-MeOH insoluble, larger ester-bound components in the AI fraction can be turned
456 into an AS fraction by microbial hydrolysis producing monomeric compounds that are
457 extractable (Fernando et al., 1984; Martins et al., 2014). Kolattukudy (2001) proposed a
458 structure of suberin, in which ω -hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω -dicarboxylic acids are ester
459 bonded to form (linear) polymers. Possessing only one functional group, alcohols are likely
460 bound on the edge of such large molecules. Upon degradation, these alcohols could be
461 hydrolysed easier to become monomers than ω -hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω -dicarboxylic
462 acids which both contain two functional groups that occur more inside the polymers. α,ω -
463 Dicarboxylic acids were not found in the AS fraction, which may imply that their position
464 within the suberin polymers is apparently different from that of the ω -hydroxy fatty acids
465 through which they are less easily hydrolysed than the other groups.

466 We speculate that an AI fraction is turned into an AS fraction by microbial hydrolysis. The
467 more microbial activity in soils, the more decomposed of organic matter becomes (Schnürer
468 and Rosswall, 1982), and as a result a larger amount of a given AI fraction could be
469 transformed into an AS fraction. Consequently, according to linear regression analysis, the
470 larger the AS fraction, the stronger SWR gets. Over time, when the AI fraction decreases by
471 microbial hydrolysis, the amount of the AS fraction increases, the SWR is raising until the
472 remaining AI fraction becomes too small to cover the whole AS fraction. As such, the ratio of
473 AS/AI fractions becomes a tipping point to indicate the optimal SWR. Once part of the AS
474 fraction is not blocked anymore by the AI fraction and becomes directly extractable by
475 DCM-MeOH, it automatically becomes part of the D fraction. Before that, the role of AS
476 fraction may be a kind of catalyst that binds (and is blocked by) the predominantly root-

477 derived AI fraction to mineral soil particles meanwhile inducing SWR. The proportion of the
478 AS fraction in soil organic matter may be an important predictor of SWR.

479 If we extrapolate this from the molecular level to the level of young soils, their amount of
480 organic matter is small. Therefore, the microbial activity is also small and only a small
481 amount of (AS) fraction can be produced, and thus SWR is relatively small. When the soil
482 becomes more developed, there is more organic matter, and also more time to produce a
483 larger AS fraction, the SWR also becomes higher. Over time, when organic matter input and
484 output is in equilibrium, the size of the AS fraction may also become stable; the level of
485 SWR for that particular soil may become stable as well. As the AS fraction is mainly derived
486 from roots and is produced upon microbial hydrolysis of the predominantly root-derived AI
487 fractions, we expect plants with larger root biomass in older, more developed soils will lead
488 to highest SWR. Compared to shrubs and trees, smaller plants such as grasses and mosses
489 which have smaller and thinner root systems and produces smaller organic matter contents
490 will likely cause smaller SWR.

491

492 **4.4 Plant signals in soils**

493 Soil organic matter composition of different soils varies largely due to differences in
494 vegetation cover (Van Bergen et al, 1997; Nierop, 2001; Kögel-Knabner, 2002). In this study,
495 the main groups of the extractable and ester-bound lipids present in the leaves and roots were,
496 in general, all identified in D, AS and AI fractions of the soils under the given vegetation. No
497 significant difference between the summed relative abundances of the groups (except (AI)
498 α,ω -dicarboxylic acid) in the top- and subsoils was found in our study. This means that the
499 signals of leaves and roots are mixed in both top- and subsoils potentially due to a mixed
500 cover of vegetation sources or vegetation succession at the field site. In such a situation, (AI)

501 α,ω -dicarboxylic acids still showed significantly higher concentrations in the subsoils than in
502 the topsoils, strongly reflecting the root contribution to the subsoils.

503 The covering plants are the main sources of the SWR-markers and the extractable and
504 ester-bound lipids in soils reflect, therefore, the leaf and root signals of these plants (Nierop
505 et al., 2003; Naafs et al., 2004a). Within the extractable lipids, alkanes and alcohols are more
506 suitable than fatty acids to indicate the origin of the soil lipids, since fatty acids are not
507 sufficiently specific to be used as biomarkers (Van Bergen et al., 1997; Jansen et al., 2006).
508 The C_{27} and C_{29} alkanes are the dominating alkanes in all soils analysed (Mao et al., 2014);
509 they were also the major alkanes found in most of our vegetation leaves, strongly suggesting
510 a close relation between the soil alkanes and those occurring in plant leaves (Bull et al.,
511 2000a; Naafs et al., 2004a; Nierop et al., 2006). Since C_{26} alcohol is typical of grass (Walton,
512 1990; Van Bergen et al., 1997), which predominated both the sheep fescue and the soils
513 under sheep fescue (Mao et al., 2014), implying that C_{26} alcohol in the soils most likely
514 indeed originated mainly from grasses. Similarly, C_{24} alcohol, which is an indicator of oak
515 leaves (Bull et al., 2000), was abundantly present in the soils under oak. Regarding the
516 alcohol group, more alcohols were observed in leaves than in roots and more alcohols were
517 found in the topsoils than in the subsoils, suggesting a large contribution of extractable lipids
518 from plant leaf waxes to the directly underlying (top)soils.

519 The ester-bound lipid biomarkers represent the cutin and suberin-derived compounds in the
520 plant leaves/needles and roots, respectively. α,ω -Dicarboxylic acids are typically derived
521 from suberins (Kolattukudy, 2001), which were only found in roots, and similar to the ester-
522 bound alcohols and ω -hydroxy fatty acids, they were more enriched in subsoils rather than in
523 topsoils, implying that the organic matter in the sandy subsoils well reflects a root origin (e.g.
524 Nierop et al., 2006). The small amounts of α,ω -dicarboxylic acids in the topsoils may derive
525 from shallow roots plants such as grasses providing suberins to the topsoils. An alternative

526 source may be bark which also contains suberin albeif their contribution to soils is smaller
527 than that of roots (Preston et al., 1994). As aforementioned, most likely the AS fraction has
528 mainly the same root origin as the AI fraction.

529 **5. Conclusion**

530 The prediction of SWR from the quantity of the SWR-markers follows the relation between
531 soil TOC and SWR. The relative amounts of the most single short-chain SWR-markers
532 negatively relate to SWR, while the long-chain markers have positive but insignificant
533 relations with SWR. It implies that a single SWR-marker is not suitable to explain and
534 predict the behaviour of SWR. The analysis of the quality of SWR-marker groups suggests
535 that (AS) alcohol combined with suberin-derived ω -hydroxy fatty acids and α,ω -dicarboxylic
536 acids can well predict the SWR of subsoils. For the topsoils, the combination (AS) alcohol/
537 (AI) alcohol is a good predictor of the SWR. The relatively more (AS) alcohol a soil
538 contains, the more water repellent it becomes. The relations between the SWR of sandy soils
539 and SWR-markers may not be entirely suitable for other types of soils, as soil textures and
540 structures may impact it differently. A combined number of indications suggest that in this
541 study the AS fraction is mainly root-derived and likely produced by microbial hydrolysis of
542 ester-bound lipids. Together, roots produce markers that induce SWR stronger than above-
543 ground plant tissues, and root-derived compounds more sufficiently predict SWR. To what
544 extent this holds for other soil types with different texture and structure needs further
545 research.

546

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Table 1. Soil profile and vegetation description

Profile	Sample label	Sampling depth (cm)	Horizon	pH	TOC (mg g ⁻¹ soil) ^c	TN (mg g ⁻¹ soil)	C/N ratio	WDPT (s)	log ₁₀ WDPT (s)	Repellency class	Vegetation	Vegetation sampled
1	WRC-1 ^a	0 – 7	A	8.79	0.76	0.16	4.82	0	-1.00	wettable	<i>Festuca sp.</i> (sheep fescue)	Leaves combined with roots
	WRC-2	7 - 14	Ahb ^b	8.33	4.83	0.51	9.54	35	1.55	slight	<i>Festuca sp.</i>	
	WRC-3	14 - 20	B	8.72	1.40	0.25	5.66	0.3	-0.48	wettable	<i>Festuca sp.</i>	
2	WRC-6	0 – 1	A	8.26	3.47	0.38	9.20	1	0.00	wettable	Algae	None
3	WRC-8	0 – 5	Ah	7.87	5.49	0.49	11.15	148	2.17	strong	<i>Hypnum Laconosum</i> (hypnum moss)	Whole moss plants
	WRC-9	5 – 10	B	8.70	1.57	0.25	6.21	2	0.36	wettable	<i>Hypnum Laconosum</i>	
4	WRC-10	0 – 10	Ah	6.92	26.80	2.00	13.42	18	1.25	slight	<i>Hypnum Laconosum</i>	
5	WRC-13	0 – 16	Ah	5.84	14.98	1.01	14.80	240	2.38	strong	<i>Pinus nigra</i> (black pine)	Green needles and roots
6	WRC-14	0 – 9	Ah	7.09	31.08	2.40	12.96	417	2.62	strong	<i>Crataegus sp.</i> (hawthorn)	Leaves and roots
	WRC-15	9 – 15	B	7.55	5.02	0.53	9.49	550	2.74	strong	<i>Crataegus sp.</i>	
7	WRC-25	0 – 7	Ah	7.66	10.22	0.82	12.47	4786	3.68	extreme	<i>Hippophae rhamnoides</i> (sea-buckthorn)	Leaves and roots
	WRC-26	7– 12	B	8.10	4.77	0.45	10.57	331	2.52	strong	<i>Hippophae rhamnoides</i>	
8	WRC-30	0 – 2	Ah1	5.76	87.44	6.35	13.77	1905	3.28	severe	<i>Quercus robur</i> (common oak)	Leaves and roots
	WRC-31	2 - 4.5	Ah2	5.79	20.71	1.59	13.04	2512	3.40	severe	<i>Quercus robur</i>	
	WRC-32	4.5 – 20	B	8.08	2.46	0.27	9.05	14	1.14	slight	<i>Quercus robur</i>	

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^a WRC-1 consisted of a top soil, which was formed by wind-blown sand deposition at a grass covered soil.

^b WRC-2 consisted of a dark brownish Ah horizon with grass roots, which was buried by wind-blown sand deposition.

^c Soil TOC had a significant positive correlation ($r=0.76$, $p=0.001$) with SWR (Mao et al., 2014): $\log_{10}WDPT(s) = 1.96^* \log_{10}TOC + 0.01$

Table 2. The relative concentrations ($\log(\mu\text{g g}^{-1}\text{TOC})$) of single SWR-markers significantly related to SWR

SWR-marker ^a	Soil category					
	All soils (n=15)		Topsoils (n=10)		Subsoils (n=5)	
	Coef. ^b	Sig. ^c	Coef.	Sig.	Coef.	Sig.
(D)C ₁₆ fatty acid	-0.811	0	-0.905	0		
(D)C ₁₇ fatty acid	-0.612	0.015	-0.73	0.017		
(D)C ₁₈ fatty acid	-0.768	0.001	-0.811	0.004		
(D)C ₂₁ fatty acid	-0.555	0.032				
(D)C ₁₅ alcohol	-0.741	0.002	-0.873	0.001	-0.94	0.017
(D)C ₁₆ alcohol	-0.675	0.006	-0.662	0.037		
(D)C ₁₇ alcohol	-0.729	0.002	-0.756	0.011		
(D)C ₁₈ alcohol	-0.581	0.023			-0.951	0.013
(D)C ₂₄ alcohol	0.575	0.025				
(D)C ₂₀ alkane	-0.797	0.000	-0.819	0.004		
(D)C ₂₃ alkane	-0.571	0.026				
(D)C ₂₄ alkane	-0.67	0.006	-0.713	0.021		
(AI)C ₁₆ fatty acid	-0.547	0.035	-0.659	0.038		
(AI)C ₁₈ fatty acid	-0.733	0.002	-0.668	0.035	-0.909	0.033
(AI)C ₂₁ fatty acid	-0.773	0.001	-0.726	0.018	-0.925	0.025
(AS)C ₂₂ fatty acid			-0.687	0.028		
(AS)C ₂₃ fatty acid			-0.639	0.047		
(AS)C ₂₄ fatty acid			-0.653	0.040		
(AS)C ₂₀ alcohol	0.596	0.019				
(AS)C ₂₄ alcohol	0.613	0.015				
(AS)C ₃₀ alcohol	0.532	0.041				
(AS)C ₂₀ ω -hydroxy fatty acid	0.524	0.045				

^aD, AS and AI refers to DCM/MeOH soluble fraction, DCM/MeOH soluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract and DCM/MeOH insoluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract, respectively. ^blinear correlation coefficient. ^csignificance;

Table 3. Correlation coefficients of single SWR-marker groups significantly (< 0.05) related to SWR

Soil category	Absolute amount (log ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ soil))			Relative amount (log ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ TOC))		
	SWR-marker ^a	Coef. ^b	Sig. ^c	SWR-marker	Coef.	Sig.
All soils	(D) fatty acid	0.797	0.000	(AS) alcohol	0.706	0.003
	(D) alcohol	0.777	0.001			
	(D) alkane	0.778	0.001			
	(AI) fatty acid	0.694	0.004			
	(AI) alcohol	0.758	0.001			
	(AI) ω -hydroxy fatty acid	0.701	0.004			
	(AI) α,ω -dicarboxylic acid	0.650	0.009			
	(AS) fatty acid	0.624	0.013			
	(AS) alcohol	0.821	0.000			
	(AS) ω -hydroxy fatty acid	0.543	0.037			
Top soils	(D) fatty acid	0.796	0.006	None		
	(D) alcohol	0.780	0.008			
	(D) alkane	0.779	0.008			
	(AI) fatty acid	0.688	0.028			
	(AI) alcohol	0.740	0.014			
	(AI) ω -hydroxy fatty acid	0.675	0.032			
	(AS) alcohol	0.786	0.007			
(AS) ω -hydroxy fatty acid	0.691	0.027				
Subsoils	(D) fatty acid	0.937	0.019	(AS) alcohol	0.904	0.035
	(D) alcohol	0.907	0.034			
	(D) alkane	0.882	0.048			
	(AI) fatty acid	0.903	0.036			
	(AI) alcohol	0.917	0.029			
	(AS) alcohol	0.969	0.006			

^aD, AS and AI refers to DCM/MeOH soluble fraction, DCM/MeOH soluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract and DCM/MeOH insoluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract, respectively. ^blinear correlation coefficient. ^csignificance;

Table 4. The group abundances of both DCM/MeOH extractable lipids and ester-bound lipids upon BF3-MeOH hydrolysis of leaves and roots ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dried material)

Lipid type	Compound name	Vegetation species									
		<i>Festuca ovina</i> (sheep fescue)	<i>Hypnum Lacunosum</i> (hypnum moss)	<i>Hippophae rhamnoides</i> (sea-buckthorn)		<i>Crataegus sp.</i> (hawthorn)		<i>Pinus nigra</i> (black pine)		<i>Quercus robur</i> (common oak)	
		Leaves+ roots	whole plants	leaves	roots	leaves	roots	needles	roots	leaves	roots
Extractable	fatty acid	771.5	103.1	125.3	902.4	49.2	145	35.2	27.8	598	109.6
	alcohol	632.6	55.7	413.7	236.9	394.7	53.3	65.6	25.7	1105.6	47.6
	alkane	109.3	18.0	284.3	84.9	2263.1	0.0	0.0	2.7	50.8	0.0
Ester-bound	fatty acid	1170.2	927.4	336.5	994.9	1320.6	128.7	566.8	327.2	574.1	97.4
	alcohol	37.9	3.7	0.0	544.4	0.0	851.8	51.0	201.8	2.5	455.1
	ω -hydroxy fatty acid	1382.6	51.1	39.8	821.6	274.0	1369.2	2053.6	229.4	161.6	1037.2
	α,ω -dicarboxylic acid	0.0	0.0	0.0	175.3	0.0	284.2	0.0	25.5	0.0	414.7

Table 5. Correlation coefficients and significance levels of combinations of two SWR-marker groups significantly (< 0.05) related to SWR based on the quality factor (Group1/Group2)

Soil category	Group1 ^a	Group2	Coef. ^b	Sig. ^c
All soils	(D) fatty acid	(AS) alcohol	-0.710	0.003
	(AS) alcohol	(D) alcohol	0.658	0.008
	(AS) alcohol	(D) alkane	0.645	0.010
	(AS) alcohol	(AI) fatty acid	0.681	0.005
	(AS) alcohol	(AI) alcohol	0.689	0.050
	(AS) alcohol	(AI) ω-hydroxy fatty acid	0.631	0.012
	(AS) alcohol	(AI) α,ω-dicarboxylic acid	0.654	0.008
	(AS) alcohol	(AS) fatty acid	0.607	0.016
	(AS) ω-hydroxy fatty acid	(AS) alcohol	-0.579	0.024
Top soils	(D) fatty acid	(AS) alcohol	-0.680	0.030
	(AS) alcohol	(D) alcohol	0.661	0.037
	(AS) alcohol	(D) alkane	0.637	0.048
	(AS) alcohol	(AI) alcohol	0.664	0.036
	(AS) alcohol	(AS) fatty acid	0.642	0.045
Subsoils	(AS) alcohol	(AI) fatty acid	0.993	0.001
	(AS) alcohol	(AI) ω-hydroxy fatty acid	0.955	0.011
	(AS) alcohol	(AI) α,ω-dicarboxylic acid	0.925	0.024

^aD, AS and AI refers to DCM/MeOH soluble fraction, DCM/MeOH soluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract and DCM/MeOH insoluble fraction of IPA/NH₃ extract, respectively.

^b linear correlation coefficient. ^csignificance;

Figure Captions

fig 01. Chain length distribution of DCM/MeOH extractable lipids ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dried material) of vegetation leaves and roots. a: fatty acids; b: alcohols; c: alkanes.

fig 02. Chain length distribution of ester-bound lipids ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dried material) upon $\text{BF}_3\text{-MeOH}$ hydrolysis of vegetation leaves and roots. a: fatty acids; b: alcohols; c: ω -hydroxy fatty acids; d. α,ω -dicarboxylic acids.

fig 03. The relative average concentrations ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}\text{TOC}$) of compound groups in the top- and subsoils. Error bars represent standard deviations of concentrations for compound groups. * means significant differences between top- and subsoils.

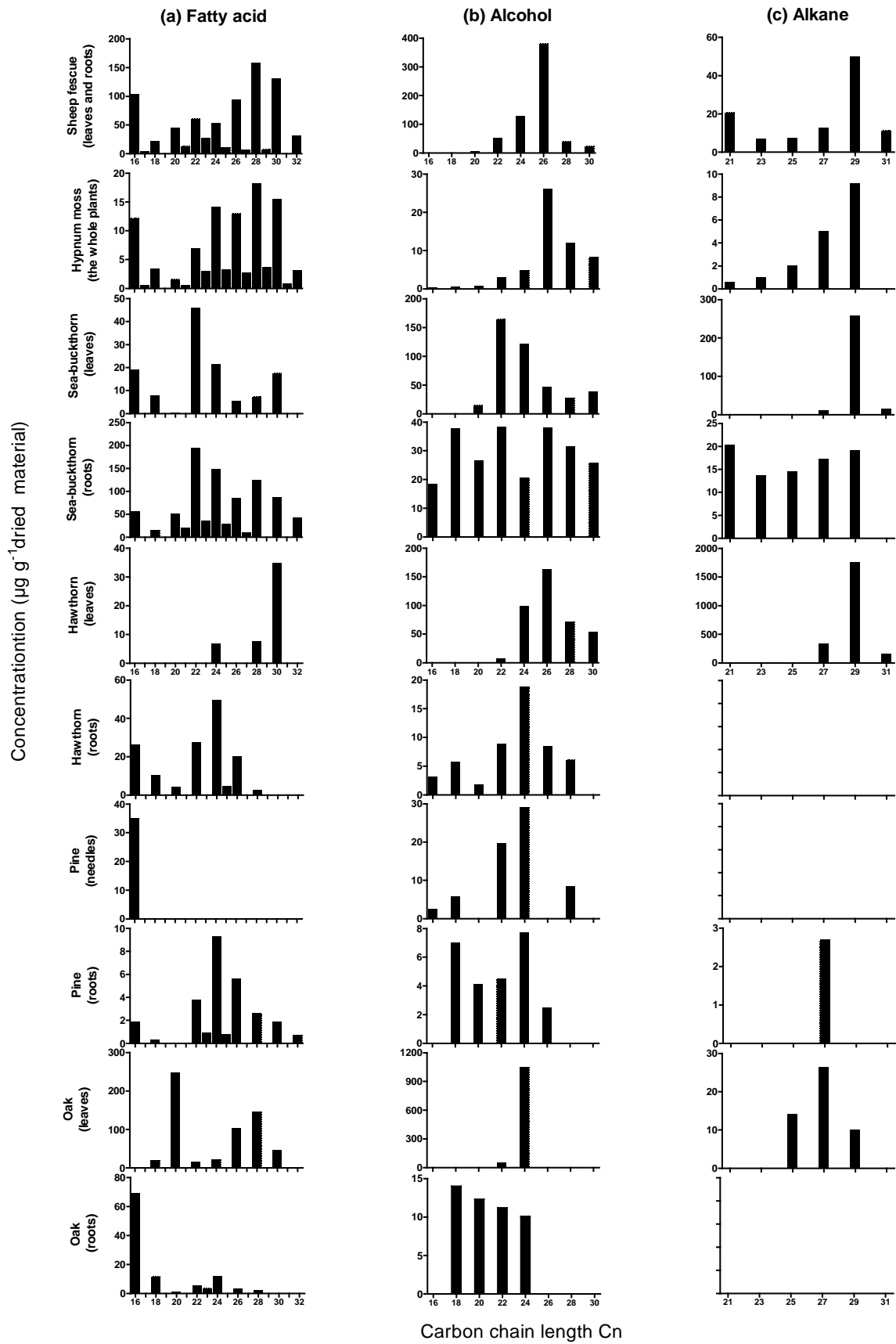


fig 01

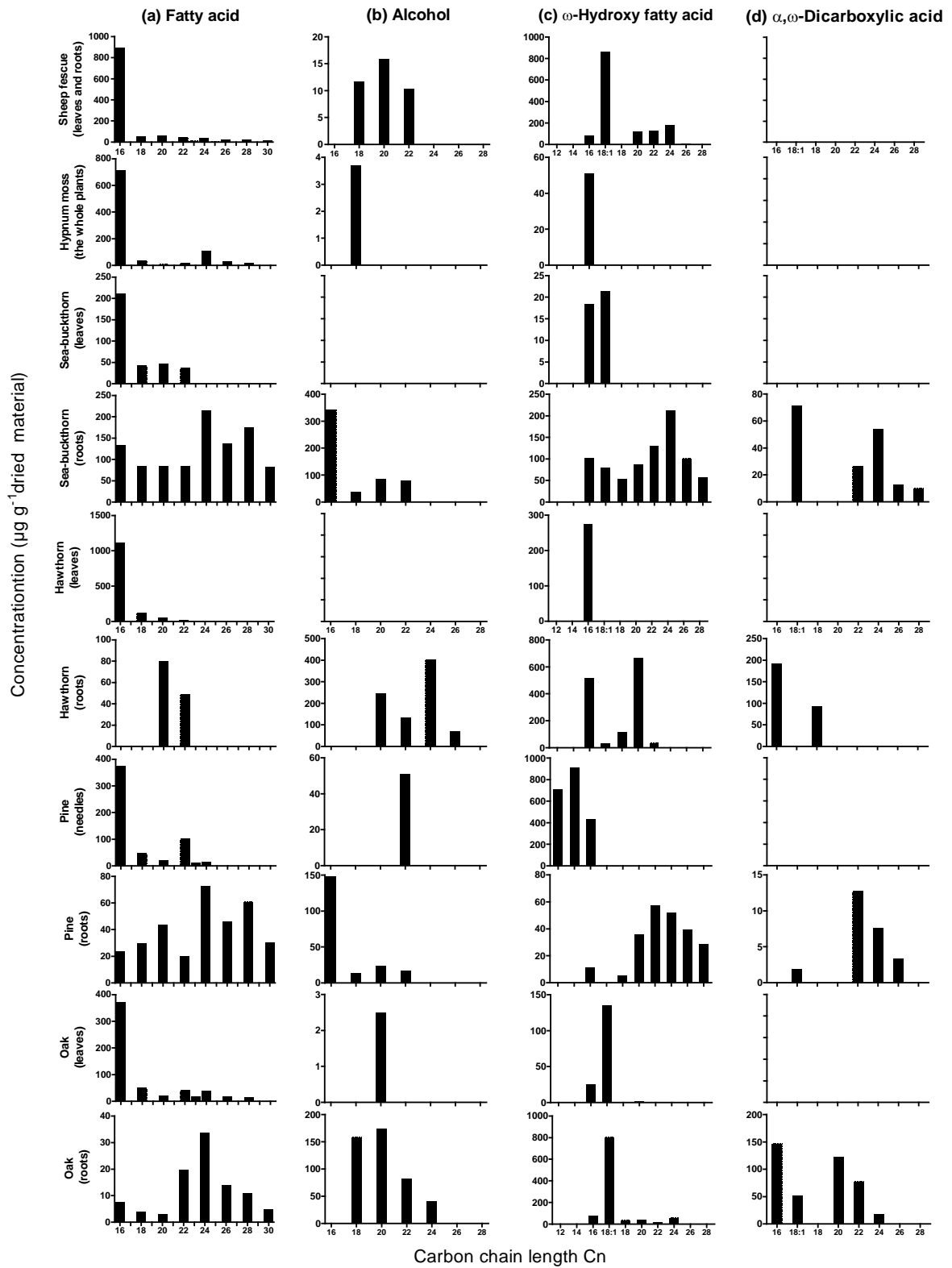


fig 02

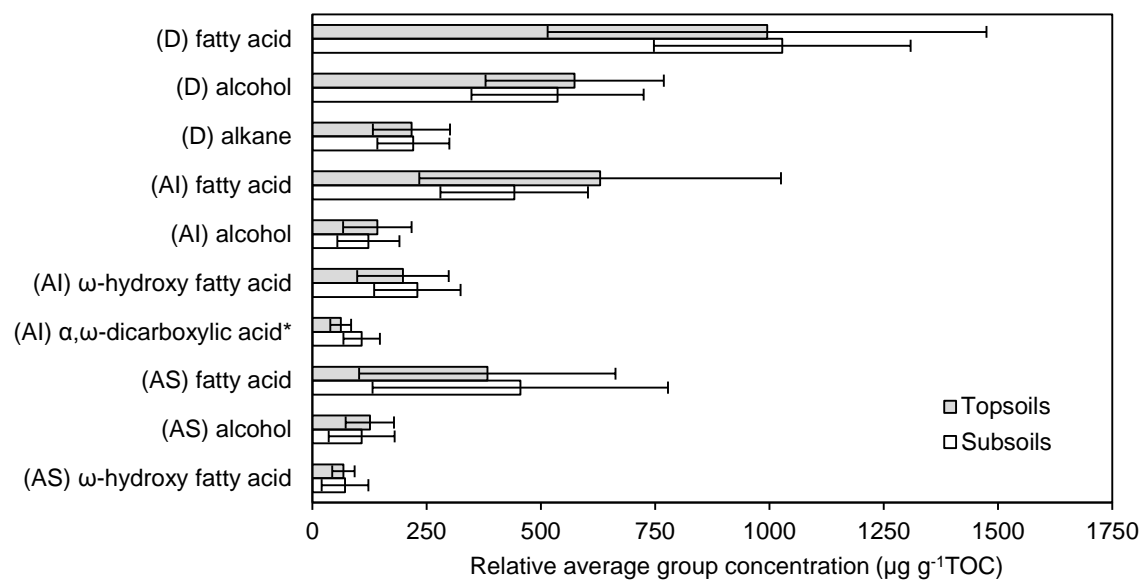


fig 03