



1 **Gone or just out of sight? The apparent disappearance of**
2 **aromatic litter components in soils**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 Uncertainties concerning stabilization of organic compounds in soil limit our basic
17 understanding on soil organic matter (SOM) formation and our ability to model and manage
18 effects of global change on SOM stocks. One controversially debated aspect is the
19 contribution of aromatic litter components, such as lignin and tannins, to stable SOM forms.
20 In the present opinion paper, we summarize and discuss the inconsistencies and propose
21 research options to clear them.

22 Lignin degradation takes place step-wise, starting with (i) depolymerisation, followed by (ii)
23 transformation of the water-soluble depolymerization products. The long-term fate of the
24 depolymerization products and other soluble aromatics, e.g., tannins, in the mineral soils is
25 still a mystery. Research on dissolved organic matter (DOM) composition and fluxes
26 indicates dissolved aromatics are important precursors of stable SOM attached to mineral
27 surfaces and persist in soils for centuries to millennia. Evidence comes from flux analyses in
28 soil profiles, biodegradation assays, and sorption experiments. In contrast, studies on
29 composition of mineral-associated SOM indicate the prevalence of non-aromatic microbial-



1 derived compounds. Other studies suggest the turnover of lignin in soil can be faster than the
2 turnover of bulk SOM. Mechanisms that can explain the apparent fast disappearance of lignin
3 in mineral soils are, however, not yet identified.

4 The contradictions might be explained by analytical problems. Commonly used methods
5 probably detect only a fraction of the aromatics stored in the mineral soil. Careful data
6 interpretation, critical assessment of analytical limitations, and combined studies on DOM
7 and solid-phase SOM could thus be ways to unveil the issues.

8

9 **1 Introduction**

10 Storage and quality of soil organic matter (SOM) determine many crucial soil properties and
11 the cycles of carbon (C) and essential nutrients through ecosystems. The storage of SOM is
12 determined by plant litter inputs and decomposition processes. Decomposition of SOM is a
13 significant source of atmospheric CO₂, thus, a critical parameter in climate models
14 (Schlesinger and Andrews, 2000). Decomposition rates are sensitive to global change factors
15 such as temperature, precipitation, and land use. However, our ability to understand and
16 predict such responses is limited by uncertainties about pathways of organic matter
17 transformation in soil. In particular, the question why some SOM components persist in soil
18 for centuries (denoted as `stable SOM` from here on) while others turn over quickly is still
19 puzzling (Schmidt et al., 2011).

20 Recent research challenges traditional theories presuming that stable SOM results from
21 neoformation of complex humic polymers in soil (`humification`). Stable SOM rather seems
22 to be composed of relatively simple organic compounds that are protected against
23 biodegradation, e.g., because tightly bound to mineral surfaces (Schmidt et al., 2011; Kleber
24 et al., 2015). Herein, we hold to this view but argue that, despite extensive research in the last
25 years, chemistry and source of compounds incorporated into stable SOM is still largely
26 uncertain. In particular, the importance of aromatic compounds deriving from abundant plant
27 litter components, such as lignin and tannins, is controversially debated (Figure 1). One line
28 of evidence suggests that they are important contributors to stable SOM. It bases primarily on
29 data from research on fluxes and behaviour of dissolved organic matter (DOM) in soil, hence,
30 we will denote it as the `dissolved phase line of evidence`. A contrasting line of evidence
31 suggesting a quick degradation of aromatic compounds in soil bases primarily on analyses of
32 the composition of solid SOM (`solid phase line of evidence`). Herein, we sum up and



1 confront the arguments of the two views, discuss potential reasons for the controversies as
2 well as their implications for our basic understanding on SOM formation.

3

4 **2 Dissolved phase line of evidence**

5 The view that plant-derived aromatics are a major source of stable SOM bases on the
6 following two main arguments:

7 (1) DOM produced during litter decomposition and leached into mineral soil is a main
8 source of stable SOM adsorbed on mineral surfaces.

9 (2) Aromatic DOM components produced during litter decomposition are resistant
10 against being mineralized and preferentially sorb to mineral surfaces. Hence, they are
11 preferentially stabilized in mineral soil.

12 **2.1 Argument 1: DOM as source of stable SOM**

13 The formation of permanent forest floors (i.e., moder or mor-type) on top of mineral soils is
14 result of little or no bioturbation (e.g., Brussaard and Juma, 1996; Zech et al., 1996). With
15 limited bioturbation, input of aboveground litter carbon to the mineral soil decreases. In turn,
16 carbon leached from permanent forests floor into the mineral soil represents a large fraction
17 (10-25%) of the annual litterfall carbon (data summarized in Guggenberger and Kaiser, 2003).
18 Therefore, it appears reasonable to assume that in forests with permanent forest floors, DOM
19 leaching is the major pathway of organic matter translocation from forest floor into the topsoil
20 horizons. Estimates based on quantifying DOC fluxes suggest that 25-89% of the SOM stored
21 in mineral soils derives from DOM (Neff and Asner, 2001; Michalzik et al., 2003; Kalbitz and
22 Kaiser, 2008). They base on the typical observation of decreasing DOC fluxes with depth of
23 the mineral soil (a large compilation of data from studies on forest and grassland soils is
24 presented by Neff and Asner, 2001). Two processes can explain the decrease: mineralization
25 and sorption.

26 Sorption of DOM to mineral surfaces likely is a major process forming stable SOM in many
27 soils. Evidence for its importance comes from findings that the turnover and storage of SOM
28 in mineral soil horizons is often related to the contents of reactive secondary minerals (e.g., Fe
29 hydrous oxides, short-range ordered Al hydroxides). Such relationships have been found
30 across a wide range of soil types (Kramer et al., 2012; Kleber et al., 2015). Also, higher



1 radiocarbon age of SOM in heavy (i.e., mineral) fractions compared to light density (i.e.
2 organic) fractions indicates that sorption stabilizes organic compounds (e.g., Marschner et al.,
3 2008, Kleber *et al.*, 2015). Density fractionation procedures indicate that the total soil C
4 associated with minerals in any given location can vary from 30% to 90% (see data compiled
5 in Kleber et al., 2015). The relevance of sorptive stabilization depends on soil properties. Low
6 soil pH enhances the formation of reactive secondary minerals and favors the formation of
7 strong bonds between organic matter and the mineral surface (Kleber et al., 2015). Most
8 studies cited herein (for both lines of evidence) examined acidic soils under temperate forests,
9 in which sorptive stabilization clearly should play an important role.

10

11 **2.2 Argument 2: Preferential stabilization of aromatic DOM components**

12 Lignin, a macromolecule composed of phenyl propane units, is a major plant cell wall
13 component (Kögel-Knabner, 2002). Typically, lignin concentrations negatively correlate with
14 litter decomposition rates. They are the predominant control on litter decomposition within
15 biomes worldwide (Cornwell *et al.*, 2008), indicating that the lignin macromolecule is among
16 the most persistent litter constituents. Nevertheless, results of recent studies suggest
17 significant chemical alteration and losses of lignin already within the first months of litter
18 decomposition (e.g., Preston et al., 2009; Klotzbücher et al., 2011). 'Degradation' of lignin
19 has to be considered a step-wise process: (i) the first step is the depolymerization of the
20 macromolecule, releasing (mainly aromatic) water-soluble depolymerisation products of
21 varying molecular weight; (ii) these products can then be further transformed, and low-
22 molecular weight compounds are eventually taken up by microorganisms to produce biomass
23 or CO₂. Hence, losses of lignin-derived C during litter decomposition can occur due to
24 leaching of water-soluble products of an incomplete degradation or as CO₂. Laboratory
25 incubation tests on water-extractable organic matter from various forest floor materials
26 suggest that aromatic components are more resistant to mineralization than non-aromatic
27 components (Kalbitz et al., 2003 a,b; Hansson et al., 2010). This suggests that leaching is an
28 important factor in loss of lignin-derived matter during litter decomposition. In line, the
29 typically high UV absorptivity of DOM leached from forest floors is indicative of a large
30 contribution of aromatic components (e.g., Kalbitz and Kaiser, 2008).



1 Another factor for the export of aromatic DOM from forest floors is leaching of tannins.
2 Tannins are water-soluble polyphenols of a molecular weight ranging from 500 to 3000
3 Daltons. Tannins rapidly leach from fresh litter; most studies report of losses of ~80% within
4 the first year of litter decomposition (Kraus et al., 2003).

5 It has been commonly found that the contribution of components likely deriving from lignin
6 and tannins to DOM decreases with depth of the mineral soil (summarized in Table 1), i.e.,
7 the decrease in fluxes of these compounds with depth is more pronounced than the decrease
8 of bulk DOM. One explanation might be intensive biodegradation of aromatics in mineral
9 soil. However, this would contradict results of the DOM biodegradation studies mentioned
10 above. Hence, a more likely explanation is sorption to mineral surfaces. Laboratory sorption
11 experiments support this view; a typical observation is that lignin-derived aromatic DOM
12 components are preferentially sorbed by minerals and soils (e.g., Kaiser et al., 1996; Chorover
13 and Amistadi, 2001; Hunt et al., 2007), and for some soils it has been shown they displace
14 previously bound organic components from mineral surfaces (e.g., Kaiser et al., 1996). The
15 degree of preferential sorption may depend on the composition of the soil mineral
16 assemblage. Chorover and Amistadi (2001) observed that high molecular weight aromatic
17 components preferentially sorbed onto goethite, while for montmorillonite no preference for
18 aromatic moieties was observed. A likely reason for the preferential sorption is the large
19 content of carboxyl groups linked to the aromatic rings, which bind to metals at mineral
20 surfaces via ligand exchange reactions.

21

22 **2.3. Roots as source of stabilized aromatic SOM?**

23 We so far focused on DOM leached from aboveground litter. However, roots might also be a
24 crucial source of stable SOM. A recent study suggests that particularly in greater profile
25 depth, mineral-associated SOM might derive to a large part from root litter decomposition
26 (Rumpel et al., 2015). This raises the question whether results from aboveground litter
27 decomposition would also apply to root litter decomposition? Data by Crow et al. (2009)
28 suggest that lignin concentrations of roots are in the range of those of leaf and needle litter.
29 Hanssen et al. (2010) showed that DOM production during root decomposition occurs in
30 patterns that are similar to those of needle decomposition. Particularly during later
31 decomposition stages, root-derived DOM is enriched in aromatics resistant to mineralization.



1 Hence, available information suggests that root decomposition is just another important
2 source of soluble aromatics in mineral soils.

3

4 **3 Solid phase line of evidence**

5 Many of the recent conceptual papers on SOM formation built on the assumption that lignin-
6 derived aromatics disappear quickly in soil, while SOM in mineral soils is dominated by non-
7 aromatic and microbial-derived compounds (Grandy and Neff, 2008; Schmidt et al., 2011;
8 Dungait et al., 2012; Miltner et al., 2012; Cotrufo et al., 2013; Castellano et al., 2015).
9 Empirical support is provided by studies characterizing the chemical structure of solid SOM
10 using a variety of analytical methods. In the following, we sum up the most widely cited
11 work.

12 Numerous studies on a wide variety of soil types used the cupric oxide (CuO) method to
13 analyse the distribution of lignin-derived phenols in profiles. Most of them reported of
14 decreasing phenol contribution to SOM from forest floor to A horizons and with depth of the
15 mineral soil (reviewed in Thevenot et al., 2010). It also decreases with increasing density of
16 soil fractions, hence, is relatively small component in heavy (i.e., mineral-associated) and old
17 soil fractions (e.g., Sollins et al., 2009; Kögel-Knabner et al., 2008; Cerli et al., 2012). Similar
18 results are reported by studies using pyrolysis-gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (see
19 e.g., data and references provided by Grandy and Neff, 2008 and by Buurman et al., 2007)
20 and tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAH) thermochemolysis (Mason et al., 2012).

21 Analysis of heavy soil fractions using ^{13}C nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (^{13}C -
22 NMR) typically finds high contents of alkyl and O/N alkyl C, suggesting that primarily
23 microbial remains are stabilized at mineral surfaces (reviewed by Kögel-Knabner et al., 2008
24 and Miltner et al., 2012). Similar conclusions were drawn from near-edge X-ray absorption
25 fine structure (NEXAFS) spectra (Lehmann et al., 2007; Kleber et al., 2011). In line, the
26 heavy soil fraction typically is characterized by low C/N values indicative of microbial tissue
27 (Kögel-Knabner et al., 2008).

28 Lignin turnover times (i.e., transformation into CO_2 or non-lignin products) in temperate
29 arable, grassland, and tropical forest soils have been estimated using a combination of
30 isotopic labeling and compound-specific isotope analysis of lignin-derived aromatics applying
31 the CuO method. Most of the studies using this approach suggest that the turnover of lignin-



1 derived aromatics is faster than the turnover of bulk SOM (Dignac et al., 2005; Heim and
2 Schmidt, 2007; Heim et al., 2010). A modelling study based on the data by Dignac et al.
3 (2005) suggested that about 90% of the lignin is mineralized as CO₂ or transformed into
4 compounds no more showing lignin-type signatures within 1 year (Rasse et al., 2006).
5 However, a study by Hofmann et al. (2009) suggests that after 18 years, approximately two-
6 thirds of the initial lignin phenols remained in an arable soil. The authors concluded that
7 lignin was preferentially preserved in the soil.

8

9 **4 Reasons for the controversies?**

10 The controversies in current literature might (partly) be explained by difficulties in the
11 analyses of aromatic matter in soils. Studies on DOM typically use bulk methods for inferring
12 aromatic content, including UV absorbance and fluorescence spectroscopy. Limitations of this
13 research include lack of identification of the source of aromatic compounds (lignin vs. non-
14 lignin sources, such as tannins) and poor quantification of the fluxes. Also data on
15 contribution of aromatic components to solid SOM are semi-quantitative or qualitative.
16 Commonly applied methods such as CuO oxidation, pyrolysis or TMAH thermochemolysis
17 focus on few defined lignin-derived monomers to estimate the overall contribution of lignin.
18 These estimates, however, can largely differ depending on the method applied (Klotzbücher et
19 al., 2011). Furthermore, it has been shown that lignin-derived aromatics bound to mineral
20 surfaces are only partly assessed by the CuO method (Hernes et al., 2013). A major drawback
21 of solid-state ¹³C-NMR, the other widely applied technique, is its poor sensitivity for
22 aromatics in soils (Simpson and Simpson, 2012). Possible limitations of other methods in
23 detecting mineral-bound organic matter have not yet been tested systematically. Hence, a part
24 of the aromatics stored in mineral soils might be 'hidden', i.e., cannot be detected by
25 conventional analytics of solid-phase SOM (Hernes et al., 2013). Consequently, turnover
26 times of plant-derived aromatics might be underestimated.

27 Another source of uncertainty, possibly explaining the controversies, is that the timescales of
28 the different processes vary considerably. Solubilization, leaching, and sorption of lignin-
29 derived compounds might occur in a few days. In contrast, the composition of SOM as well as
30 the mineral assemblage in soils is the result of years to centuries of biogeochemical
31 processing. Possibly, one cannot simply extrapolate from patterns observed in 'short-term'
32 DOM dynamics to explain 'long-term' SOM formation. In their comprehensive review on



1 organo-mineral interactions, Kleber et al., (2015) question the view that strong bonds between
2 organic matter and mineral surfaces really guarantee long turnover times. Many factors
3 possibly determining the long-term fate of sorbed organic matter are not well understood.
4 They include, for instance, exchange reactions between sorbed organic matter and new
5 organic matter inputs or the impact of mineral weathering activity of roots on stability of
6 sorbed organic matter. Such processes may also exert crucial controls on the long-term
7 storage of aromatics in soil.

8

9 **5 Implications and future research strategies**

10 The contradictions outlined herein limit our basic understanding on SOM formation, and our
11 ability to model and manage effects of global change on SOM stocks.

12 For instance, elevated atmospheric CO₂ levels can induce increasing concentrations of
13 aromatic components in plant litter (Cotrufo et al., 1994; Tuchman et al., 2002), and this
14 raises the question whether this causes enhanced or decreasing storage of SOM in mineral
15 soils. If aromatic matter is quickly degraded, and mineral-associated SOM primarily derives
16 from microbial sources (as suggested by the solid SOM line of evidence), a `microbial filter`
17 would control the built-up of stable SOM, which may then be determined by the microbial
18 substrate use efficiency (i.e., the amount of organic C used by the microbial community to
19 build biomass vs. the amount that is mineralized). Cotrufo et al. (2013), thus, hypothesized
20 that rather input of labile substrates fosters the build-up of stable SOM. Available data on
21 effects of litter quality and SOM formation are, however, inconsistent (Castellano et al.,
22 2015), and we believe that understanding on these effects is in part limited by uncertainties
23 about the incorporation of aromatics into stable SOM.

24 The issue is also related to the question on links between chemical structure of organic matter
25 and its persistence. It is oftentimes assumed that structural properties of plant-derived matter
26 do not determine stable SOM formation. This argument is based on data suggesting that
27 specific compound classes (lignin, cellulose, alkanes, proteins etc.) turn over faster than bulk
28 SOM (Schmidt et al., 2011). However, conclusions of DOM research imply that structure
29 plays a role for the behavior of organic compounds in soil, and eventually their contribution to
30 stable SOM: soluble aromatics may resist oxidation by microbes as they yield less energy
31 than other structures; furthermore, they bind to mineral surfaces due to carboxyl groups
32 attached to the rings.



1 How could we resolve the controversies? We currently see two options to tackle the main
2 problem, which is that each of the analytical tools available offers only one perspective on
3 aromatic matter in mineral soils. Firstly, careful data interpretation, including critical
4 assessment of experimental and analytical limitations, must become standard. This includes
5 extensive testing of new and complicated analytical tools to ascertain the real meaning of
6 results. For instance, the suitability of ^{13}C -NMR methods and the CuO method to study
7 aromatic compounds attached to minerals is still not fully certain. Also, more attention should
8 be paid to possible effects of sample preparation (e.g., losses of mineral-associated organic
9 matter due to sample demineralization used in NMR methods; Eusterhues et al., 2003; Hernes
10 et al., 2013). Secondly, combined studies on DOM and SOM will help to bridge the gap
11 between the opposing views obtained from studying either DOM or SOM. The study by
12 Kramer et al. (2012) is one of the very few trying to offer a comprehensive mechanistic view
13 to organic matter in soils so far.

14

15 **Acknowledgements**

16 TK acknowledges the support of his research on lignin degradation from the German
17 Research Foundation (DFG).

18



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1 Table 1. Evidence from field studies suggesting that aromatic soluble (products of lignin
2 depolymerization or tannins) disappear quickly once entering mineral soils.

3

| Reference | Study site/ soil type | Result |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Qualls and Haines 1991 | Oak-hickory forest in mountain region of North Carolina; soil types: Umbric Dystrochrept, Typic Hapludult, Typic Dystrochrept | Selective removal of hydrophobic acids as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Cronan 1985 | Forests, North-Western USA; soil types: Dystrochrept, Haplothod | Selective removal of hydrophobic acids as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Zech et al. 1994 | Spruce forest in Bavaria, Germany; Soil types: Typic Dystrochrepts, Entic Haplothods, Typic Haplothods | Selective removal of lignin-derived phenols (determined with the CuO method) as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Gallet and Pellissier 1997 | Bilberry-spruce forest in Alps, France; soil type: Humoferric Podzol | Selective removal of lignin-derived phenols (as well as of total phenols) as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Kaiser et al. 2004 | Spruce forest in Bavaria, Germany; Soil type: Haplic Arenosol | Selective removal of lignin-derived phenols, hydrophobic compounds, and total aromatic C as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Dai et al. 1996 | Spruce forest, Maine; Soil type: Aquic Haplothods | Selective removal of hydrophobic acids and aromatics (¹³ C-NMR data) as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Lajtha et al. 2005 | Coniferous forest, Oregon, USA; soil type: Typic Hapludands | Selective removal of hydrophobic acids as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Sanderman et al. 2008 | Mediterranean climate; forest and grassland soils; soil types: Haplustols and Haplohumults | Decrease in UV absorbance (a measure for content of aromatics) as DOM percolates through the mineral soil. |
| Hassouna et al. 2010 | Mediterranean climate; maize field; soil type: fluvic hypercalcaric cambisol | Decrease in contents of aromatic compounds (UV absorbance, fluorescence spectroscopy) in water-extractable organic matter with depth of the mineral soil. |
| Nakashini et al. 2012 | Beech forest, Japan; soil: “brown forest soil” | Decrease in contents of hydrophobic acids in water-extractable organic matter with depth of the mineral soil. |

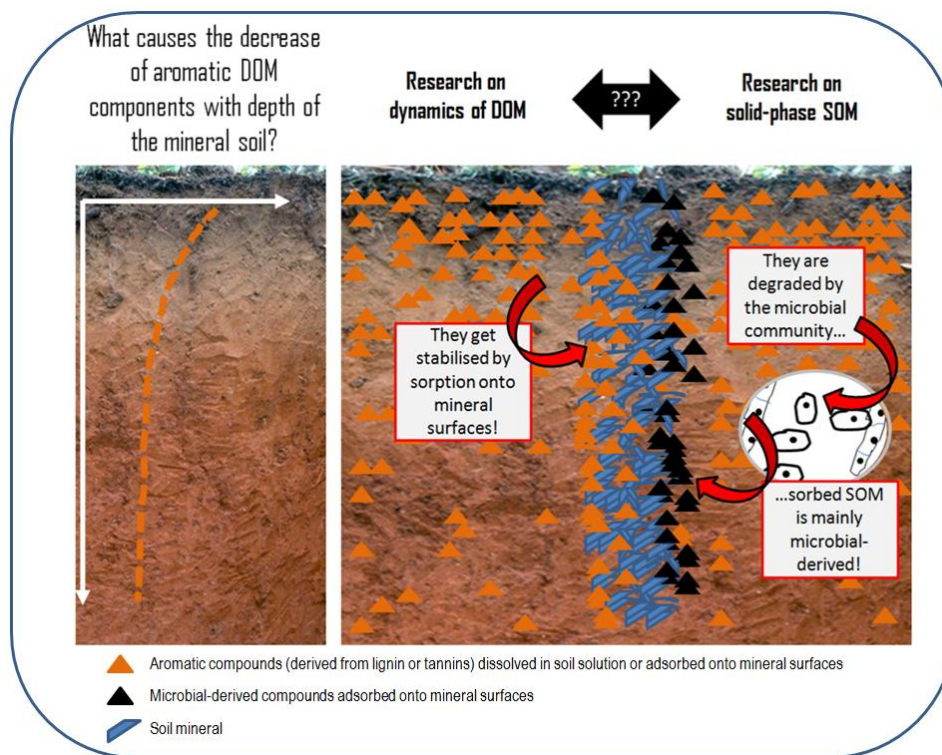
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1

2 Figure 1. Conflicting views on the fate of soluble aromatics once they enter the mineral soil

3 (see text for references).



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