Geogenic organic carbon in terrestrial sediments and its

2 contribution to total soil carbon

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Abstract

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Geogenic organic carbon (GOC) from sedimentary rocks is an overlooked fraction in soils that has not 16 17 vet been quantified-vet, but influencinges the composition, age and stability of total organic carbon (OC) in soils. In this context, GOC is referred to as the OC in bedrocks deposited during sedimentation. 18 However, the contribution of GOC to total soil OC varies depending-with on the type of bedrock. As 19 yet, no So-far studies have investigateding the contribution of GOC derived from different terrestrial 20 21 sedimentary rocks to soil OC contents are missing. 22 In order to fill this knowledge gap, we analysed 10-10-m long sediment cores at from three sites recovered from Pleistocene Loess, Miocene Sand and Triassic Red Sandstone were analysed and 23 calculated the amount of GOC calculated based on ¹⁴C measurements. The ¹⁴C ages of bulk sedimentary 24 OC revealed that OC represents a mixture is comprised of both biogenic and geogenic components. The 25 Bbiogenic component refers relates to OC that recently entered the sediments recently from plant 26 sources. All the sediments contained considerable amounts of GOC (median amounts of 0.10 g kg⁻¹ at 27 inthe Miocene Sand, 0.27 g kg⁻¹ at thein Pleistocene Loess and 0.17 at in Red Sandstone) in comparison 28 29 compared withto subsoil OC contents (between 0.53-15.21 g kg⁻¹). Long-term incubation experiments revealed that this the GOC seemed to beappeared comparatively stable against biodegradation. Its 30 possible contribution to subsoil OC stocks (0.3-1.5 m depth) ranged from 1 to 26 % is - 2.5 % in soil 31 developed in the Miocene Sand, from 16 to 21 % - 8 % in the Loess soil and from 6 to 36 % - 12 % at 32 the Red Sandstone site. Thus GOC having-with no detectable ¹⁴C contents influencesd the ¹⁴C ages of 33 subsoil OC, and thus may partly explain the strong increase in 14C ages increase observed in many 34 35 subsoils. This is could be particularly important in young soils on terrestrial sediments with 36 comparatively low amounts of OC, where GOC can considerably make a large contributione to total OC

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Keywords Geogenic organic carbon; sedimentary organic carbon; ¹⁴C; terrestrial sediments; incubation experiment

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1. Introduction

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On average, the world's a global average soils store more than 50 % of OC in the subsoil below 30 cm depth (Batjes, 2014). This type of carbon is considered as a highly stabilised stable carbon pool due to its high apparently high ¹⁴C ages (Mathieu et al., 2015, Schrumpf et al., 2013). This, h However, another explanation for this could be may also be explained by an the contribution from of geogenic organic carbon (GOC), which is defined here as OC that originates from deposition during sedimentation and rock formation, and may increasingly influence subsoil OC with increasing depth (Graz et al., 2010, Kögel-Knabner et al., 2008, Schrumpf et al., 2013, Trumbore, 2009). GOC in most cases is devoid of ¹⁴C and thus may lead to an overestimation of ancient OC sources although a number of studies showed the importance of root derived, young OC inputs to subsoils (Angst et al., 2016, Crow et al., 2009). Therefore GOC may significantly influence and affect the overall ¹⁴C signal, particularly in OC-poo subsoils. Vindušková et al. (2015)The investigated the contribution of GOC to soils has been investigated in reclaimed mine soils, and where Vindušková et al. (2015) found GOC contributions to total soil OC of from GOC between 26 and 99 % to total soil OC. Furthermore especially OC OC-rich sediments with contents of 2-7 g kg⁻¹ (Hemingway et al., 2018) or and 28-105 g kg⁻¹ (Frouz et al., 2011) have been investigated with regard to the stability of OC in these sediments, but no conclusion reached about GOC contributions in soils. However, Tthe impact of GOC on soils derived from sediments or sedimentary rocks with lower OC contents, however, has not yet been investigated so far. Considering the fact that approximately 65 % of the continental earth's surface is covered with sediments and sedimentary rocks (Amiotte Suchet et al., 2003), a potentially large fraction of soils could contain GOC that contributes to soil OC stocks, even though a lot of themlarge portion might be derived from recent sedimentation processes. So far Tthere is not yet much literature about sediments with containing only low amounts of OC. There are estimations that assume sandstones to be free of GOC free (van der Voort et al., 2018) or, in contrast, a storage model that assumes generally high GOC amounts of 2.4 g kg⁻¹ for all sandy deposits (Copard et al., 2007). Therefore, more information about the amounts of GOC in sediments is needed.

To estimate the possible contribution of GOC to subsoil OC stocks, it is <u>further-important to establish</u> necessary to know about the amount of OC in sediments that comes from sedimentation (GOC) and to distinguish it from OC <u>that is</u> derived from current vegetation (biogenic OC). There are many soil- and substrate-specific factors that might influence the OC contribution from current vegetation to sedimentary OC, <u>such as like</u> potential rooting depth or <u>pore distributionhydraulic conductivity</u>. So far nNo method <u>could has yet beenbe</u> established <u>that wouldto</u> allow a direct quantification of GOC in different soils or sediments, apart from promising methods to quantify the graphitic part of GOC in soils (Zethof et al., 2019). The only reliable approach to distinguish <u>between</u> both sources is the use of ¹⁴C. <u>Because Since</u> deposition of sediments mostly took place > 50,000 <u>yrs.years</u> BP, they do not contain any ¹⁴C, which has a mean half—life time of 5,730 <u>yrs.years</u> (Libby, 1952). In addition, <u>the</u> δ¹³C values

of OC in the sediments allow to distinguish carbonaceous sources with δ^{13} C values around 0 % to be 86 distinguished from organic sources with δ^{13} C values < -22 \(\text{\text{.}}\). Thus, using the use of both carbon 87 isotopes can could reveal if whether the OC is a mixture of GOC and OC from the vegetation that is 88 younger less than 50,000 yrs. years old. A quantification of the geogenic part of OC in the sediments is 89 only possible if the average ¹⁴C age of biogenic OC is known or can be estimated. 90 91 One important question regarding-about the a-possible contribution from of GOC in soils is whether, if 92 this the GOC will be is mineralised when it becomes part of the soil. Due to the fact that As -GOC resists 93 degradation since once it has been deposited, it can be assumed that it already exhibits a strong inherent 94 recalcitrance. Nevertheless, this could also be due to a physical protection that preventsed microbial accessibility. However, when it becomes part of the subsoil during progressing soil development, the 95 96 this OC pool could be degraded by the infiltration of water, oxygen, fresh nutrients and microorganisms 97 might cause the degradation of this OC pool. The dDirect microbial coal degradation has already been observed via-in incubation experiments in on mine soils (Rumpel and Kögel-Knabner, 2002, Waschkies 98 99 and Huttl, 1999) or in-shale bedrocks directly exposed to the surface (Soulet et al., 2017). H-There has 100 been no study to establish whether GOC is degradable in OC-poor sediments or sedimentary rocks has 101 not been investigated, so far but it could differ might be different since the amount of available OC can 102 also drive microbial respiration (Colman and Schimel, 2013). Therefore these sediments might contain fewer microorganisms that can be spatially separated from the GOC, which may hamper its respiration. 103 104 To the best of our the author's knowledge, there is has only been one study by van der Voort et al. (2018) 105 investigating that has investigated the amount of GOC in soils. They estimated and estimating that GOC 106 this to makes up about around 80 % of soil OC in a moraine—derived soil, suggesting. This reveals that 107 GOC's contribution might considerably contribute to soil OC is large. But However, apart from this 108 study beside the study from by van der Voort et al. (2018) on a very specific sediment, there have been 109 no further direct calculations of the amount of GOC in soils are missing. 110 Our The aim of this study was to quantify GOC in different terrestrial sediments and a sedimentary rock, and investigate its stability in incubation experiments in order to make assumptions about its possible 111 contribution to soil OC stocks in soil profiles at the same site. Our The main research questions were: i) 112 what What is the relationship between sedimentary and subsoil OC contents? ii) is OC in sediments 113 114 ¹⁴C_-free and how much is really geogenic? iii) will-Will sedimentary GOC be degraded? and iv) how How much does GOC contribute to soil OC? 115

2. Material and methods

118 2.1 Site description

- Three sites were selected with different sedimentary bedrocks derived from a single geologic substrate,
- that can be found close to the surface and that is homogeneous down to 10 m depth. The sites represented
- one sedimentary rock and two soft sediments. The sedimentary rock was a sandstone (Solling Formation,
- 122 Triassic) under European beech forest (Fagus sylvatica) 11.5 km north-east of Göttingen (51°35.012'
- N; 10°3.960' O), in the following referred to below as "Red Sandstone". The soil was is classified as a
- 124 <u>Cambisol-Folic Brunic Arenosol</u> according to the World Reference Base for Soil Resources (WRB,
- 2006). The sediments were loessic deposits (Weichselian Glacial) that have been under agricultural land
- use for the past decades, 30 km north of Göttingen (51°48.101 N; 9°58.002' O), referred to as "Loess",
- and terrestrial sandy deposits from the Miocene (Neogene formerly named Tertiary) in a European beech
- forest 13 km south-west of Göttingen (51°28.673 N; 9°45.323' O) referred to as "Miocene Sand". The
- respective soils have been classified as a Haplic Luvisol and a Dystric Chromic Arenosol accordingly.
- The sediments at the Loess site were deposited between the last glacial and interglacial periods between
- 131 115,000 and 400,000 years BP, according to Jordan and Schwartau (1993). To the best of our the
- 132 <u>author's knowledge</u>, the these forest sites were have never been under agricultural use. The associated
- soils are classified as a Luvisol and a Cambisol respectively. Mean annual air temperature and
- precipitation were 9.2 °C and 647 mm (1981-2010) at according to the nearby weather station including
- that covers all three sites.
- 136 *2.2 Sampling and sample preparation*
- Two 10–m long sediment cores with a diameter of 15 cm were drilled at each site in April 2017. For the
- soft sediments (Loess and Miocene Sand), drilling was conducted as percussion drilling, and for the
- hard sediment (Red Sandstone) as cable core drilling with water as the flushing solution. The replicates
- per site were drilled in a distance of approximately 10 m apart. We subdivided tThe sampled cores were
- 141 <u>subdivided</u> into 1_-m increments. For further chemical analysis, we took material was taken from
- respectively a depth of 85-95 cm depth of for each 1-m increment, and removed the outer 5 cm removed
- to avoid possible contaminations. This means e.g. for a sample Thus the increment from 1-2 m_z for
- example, was represented by a sample the sample represents the from a 1.85-1.95 m depth.
- One sample from each depth increment (1-2 m, 2-3 m, 3-4 m, 4-5 m, 5-6 m, 6-7 m, 7-8 m, 8-9 m, 9-10
- m) for chemical analysis was oven dried at 60°C and sieved to pass 2 mm. The Red Sandstone samples
- were crushed with a hammer before <u>being dryingied</u> and <u>sieving sieved</u> was conducted. Additionally,
- approximately 1_m deep soil profiles were dug and soil samples were taken from the different classified
- layers to obtain corresponding soil parameters (Fig. 1).

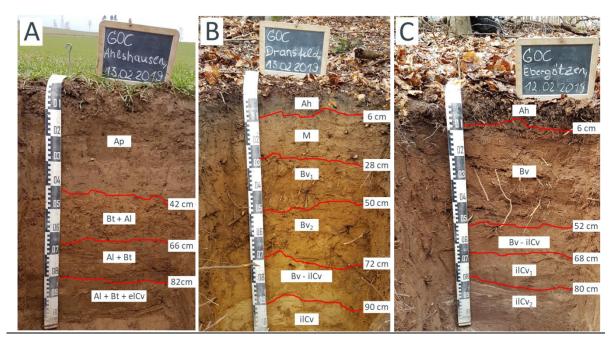


Fig. 1: Respective soil profiles of at the Loess (A), Miocene Sand (B) and Red Sandstone (C) sites. Soil classification was conducted using the German classification system for soil horizons (Eckelmann et al., 2006) and later transferred to the WRB (2006). Depth transitions to the beginning starting sediment were 82 cm for the Loess (Al + Bt + elCv), 72 cm for the Miocene Sand (Bv - ilCv) and 68 cm for the Red Sandstone (ilCv₁).

Samples were oven dried at 60°C and stored and sieved to pass 2 mm. For the determination of OC and ¹³C₂ samples were ground in a planetary ball mill. For ¹⁴C analysis, subsamples were decarbonized with 1M HCl and heated for 1 h at 80 °C followed by 10 h at room temperature.

2.3 Chemical analysis and calculations

Three aliquots of each sieved sample was were analysed by dry combustion for total C and total N content (TruMac CN LECO, St. Joseph, MI, USA). Samples with a pH value of > 6 (measured in 0,01 mol L⁻¹ CaCl) were analysed for carbonates after ignition of the sample was ignited for 16 h in a muffle kiln at 450 °C for 16 h in a muffle kiln to remove the organic part of total Caccording to Nelson and Summers (1983), to remove the organic part of total C. The OC concentration was calculated by subtracting carbonaceous C from total C_1 and expressed as g OC kg⁻¹ dry matter. Homogenised samples were further analysed for δ^{13} C values after removing carbonates removal in an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta Plus, Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA) coupled to an elemental analyser (FLASH EA 1122 NA 1500; Wigan, United Kingdom). Resulting δ^{13} C values (‰) were expressed relative to the international standard of Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite. The bulk densities for the soil samples were obtained with 250 cm³ sampling rings from each layer of the soil profile. For the sedimentary Loess and Miocene Sand samples, the bulk densities without pore space of the intact Red Sandstone cores were determined on four subsamples (from 1.6, 3.6, 7 and 9 m depth) with a Dryflow-pycnometer (GeoPyc 1360) and a gas pycnometer (AccuPyc 1330) respectively. Bulk densities for the

missing depth increments were linearly interpolated. For radiocarbon (¹⁴C) analysis, the sediment samples were first treated with 1% HCl acid to remove inorganic C₂ and where then transferred into precombusted quartz ampoules containing together with copper oxide and silver wool. The ampoules were evacuated, flame—sealed, then combusted at 900°C, and the CO₂ evolved was purified on a vacuum ring (Rethemeyer et al., 2019). The ¹⁴C contents were measured with the MICADAS accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) system at the ETH Zürich, Switzerland. If Where possible, one sedimentary sample per depth increment and site and one sample per soil layer was analysed. Due to the very low OC contents in some sediment samples, ¹⁴C contents could only be determined for three samples from the Miocene Sand (from 1.9, 4.9 and 7.9 m depth) and four from the Red Sandstone (1.9, 4.9, 7.9 and 9.9 m depth). For the Loess, ¹⁴C of bulk OC was measured in all depth intervals (1.9-9.9 m).

Total OC stocks (Mg ha⁻¹) were calculated according to Eq. 1:

$$OC \ stock = OC \cdot BD \cdot (1 - stone \ content) \cdot depth \cdot 0.1$$
 Eq. 1

where *OC* is the weight_based OC content, either in the fine soil <2-mm fraction of the soil profiles, or in the sediments (g kg⁻¹), *BD* is the bulk density of the fine soil (g cm⁻³), stone content is the volume_based proportion of stones (cm³ cm⁻³) and depth is the thickness of the depth increment (cm). To be able to compare OC stocks and contributions from GOC, later on we it was decided to set the boarders between the topsoils- and subsoils to at 0.3 m and the transition from subsoils to the sediments to at 1.5 m. According to Richter and Markewitz (1995) this represents a common boarder for the transition from soil to sediment. We further subdivided the The sediments where further subdivided into an upper and a lower part at a 4-m depth of 4 m.

In a second step, we calculated the amount of GOC and biogenic OC in the sediments was calculated, considering GOC as one carbon pool free of 14 C. For the sediments, we calculated the proportion of biogenic OC ($f_{biogenic}$) on of the total amount of OC was calculated with in a two pool model (Eq. 2) used by Cerri et al. (1985):

$$f_{biogenic}$$
 (%) = $\frac{F_{biogenic\ oc} - F_{GOC}}{F_{sample} - F_{GOC}} \cdot 100$ Eq. 2

where F represents the ¹⁴C content in the fraction modern carbon (F¹⁴C) from a source compared to with the ¹⁴C content of an oxalic standard (Stuiver and Polach, 1977, Torn et al., 2009). The Ssources were the GOC fraction (F_{GOC}), the sample (F_{sample}) and the biogenic OC fraction ($F_{biogenic\ OC}$). Since the ¹⁴C content of the GOC fraction can be set to zero, this equation can could be simplified to:

$$f_{biogenic}$$
 (%) = $\frac{F_{biogenic \ OC}}{F_{sample}} \cdot 100$ Eq. 3

For the biogenic OC in the sediments, we assumed an average ¹⁴C age ranging from 1,000-4,000 yrs.years BP was assumed. We assumed this range based on published ¹⁴C results of dissolved OC reaching greater depths (Artinger et al., 1996, Schiff et al., 1997). The ¹⁴C contents in the sediment from 2 to 4 m depth of the loess led to ages < 3,000 yrs.years BP, and were therefore even younger than in at 74 cm depth (4,413 yrs.years BP). Thus, they were treated like the soil part for the calculation below of a GOC fraction—in—the following. Respective times were converted into ¹⁴C contents (*F*_{biogenic} oc) according to Torn et al. (2009):

$$F_{biogenic \, OC} = e^{\left(\frac{t}{-8033}\right)}$$
 Eq. 4

where t represents the ¹⁴C age (1,000 or 4,000 yrs.years BP respectively) and 8033 yrs.represents the mean life of radiocarbon in years. The proportion of GOC in the sediments (f_{GOC}) consequently is therefore the remaining portion left (Eq. 5):-

$$f_{GOC} = 100 \% - f_{biogenic}$$
 Eq. 5

For the depth increments without measured ¹⁴C ages (Tab. S1), we linearly interpolated the calculated amounts were linearly interpolated with measured ¹⁴C ages from over- and underlying samples above and below. This was done by assuming a depth-dependent correlation and using the adjacent values. To calculate the amount of GOC in the soil profiles, we first calculated the weight-based amount of GOC in the sediments was first calculated by multiplying its fraction (f_{GOC}) with by the respective OC content (in g OC per kg⁻¹ dry mass). We then took tThe median amount of GOC (g GOC per kg⁻¹ dry mass) of these sedimentary values was then taken and calculated its proportion on of the soil OC content calculated (g OC per kg⁻¹ fine soil) in the soil profile. This was done for the proportion of GOC in the sediments calculated with a 1,000 and a 4,000-year-old biogenic OC fraction ($F_{biogenic\ OC}$ in Eq. 3) to obtain a range of GOC contributions. We It was assumed that the GOC fraction resisted degradation during soil formation. Therefore, this proportion represents the highest largest possible amount of GOC that may could contribute to soil OC stocks. Under On this assumption, it was also possible we were also able to define the influence of GOC in the soil profile on the resulting ¹⁴C ages. Since the calculated ¹⁴C ages represent a mixture of the ¹⁴C content from the GOC and the biogenic fraction (Eq. 5), the GOC fraction has the same influence on the soil ¹⁴C age as on bulk OC (according to Eq. 3). Reducing the age by this fraction would therefore represent an "unbiased" age of soil-derived-OC.

2.4 Incubation experiment

To assess the potential stability of OC in the sediments against microbial decay, two laboratory incubation experiments were conducted at 20_°C for 50 and 63 days respectively. This was done to reveal the potential degradation of OC from the sediments. A temperature of 20_°C was chosen because we expected only very low degradation rates were expected at lower temperatures. The first, 50—days lasting experiment was conducted with intact Red Sandstone core samples, while the second experiment

was performed after crushing the Red Sandstone was crushed to sizes pieces < 2 mm. This was done to simulate the process of weathering when the intact sediment or sedimentary rock becomes part of the (sub)soil. For the incubations, four subsamples with of 1,340-6,890 g per sample from different depth intervals were used. The sample material was stored at room temperature until the start of the incubation experiment started. We took fFour samples were taken from each sediment and from each of four depth ranges for the Miocene Sand (1.2-2.8, 3.2-4.8, 6.1-7.8 and 8.2-9.9 m), the Red Sandstone (2-3, 4-5.8, 7-8 and 8.4-9.8 m) and the Loess (1.4-2, 2.7-3, 4.8-6 and 9.1-10 m). A www ater content was adjusted to corresponding to 40 % of the-water-holding capacity based on the poured bulk density, determined by filling the loose material into a defined volume and measuring its weight. was adjusted. The material for the four repetitions was mixed in big large plastic vats and water was added before the respective four subsamples were transferred into incubation vessels. There were also Additionally four blank samples with no material were installed. Based on preliminary tests and its their calculated bulk density and porosity, the intact Red Sandstone samples were kept in a barrel with pure water for 14 hours to reach a water content of nearly 40 %. Samples were placed in polycarbonate vessels with a volume of 7069 cm³ and elosed made air-tight. The lids contained two tube connectors so that the samples could be flushed with ambient air. After flushing, samples were set to a starting pressure of about 1,300 mbar and kept closed until the end of the incubation. Nine gas samples were taken in evacuated glass vials (20 mL), 0, 3, 7, 13, 21, 30, 59 and 63 days after the start of incubation-started. Samples were analysed for CO₂ concentrations by gas chromatography (Agilent 7890A, GC, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) to account for the amount of accumulated CO₂. Three additional gas samples were taken 0, 30 and 63 days after the incubation started and analysed with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta Plus XP, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) to account for the development of δ^{13} C of CO₂ during the respiration. The cCorresponding pressure was measured at on each sampling date. When the over-pressure of a vessel was lost due to leakages, it was removed from the sampling because a contamination with ambient air could not longer be ruled out-be excluded. This happened for one a third of all the samples.

The amount of respired CO₂-C (mg CO₂-C d⁻¹) was calculated with using Eq 6.

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$$CO_2 - C = \frac{0.1 \cdot p \cdot x_i \cdot M \cdot V}{R \cdot T \cdot t}$$
 Eq. 6

where p is the pressure (mbar), x_i is the difference of thein CO₂ concentration between the samplings (ppm), M is the molar mass of C (g mol⁻¹), V is the air volume of the sample (m³), R is the molar gas constant (J kmol⁻¹ K⁻¹), T is the incubation temperature (K) and t is the elapsed time (d) between the samplings. Based on the δ^{13} C values of CO₂ the proportion of CO₂ derived from carbonates was subtracted where necessary according to Bertrand et al. (2007) if necessary. This respiration rate was related to the OC content of the samples (called "OC-normalised respiration") by being dividinged it by the total amount of OC in g in the sample.

Since we observed an <u>almost nearly</u>-linear respiration behaviour <u>was observed</u> in both incubation experiments, we <u>fitted</u> a simple linear regression model <u>was fitted</u> to describe the mineralisation rate per time (mineralised OC (%) = $k \cdot t$).

2.5 Statistics

Statistical analyses were conducted using the statistical environment R (R Core Team (2018)) including the function "Im" to fit linear models and the package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) for graphical presentation. The Mmodels were tested for deviations from homoscedasticity, normality of residuals and absence of collinearity. The tests revealed heteroscedasticity of the residuals, which. This can be explained by an increasing standard deviation with time. It subsequently became apparent that the residuals were not We are further aware of not having normally distributed residuals since the dependent variable, representing the proportion of OC being mineralised, only allows values between 0 and 1. Keeping Bearing this in mind, the results have should to be treated as an indicator for of the differences between the samples and a scale for the mineralisation of a the OC pool. We therefore also omitted calculations of standard errors and significance of the parameters were omitted since this would not lead to produce reasonable results with the used-model used.

3. Results

3.1 Relation Relationship between sedimentary and subsoil organic carbon

Organic carbon was detectable in all the sediments analysed using three laboratory replicates per sample and comparing them with the muffled samples, measurable. In all analysed sediments measured OC contents were above the detection limit. This was ensured by using three laboratory replicates per sample and the comparison with muffled samples. The mean relative standard deviation of the laboratory replicates was 9.5 %. In terms of the detection limit, the sample with the lowest total C content (mean of 0.04 mg C gg C kg⁻¹ soil) showed values between 0.00 and 0.01 mg C gg C kg⁻¹ soil after removal of OC was removed at 450 °C. Thus the range from of 0.00 to 0.01 mg C gg C kg⁻¹ soil was assumed to be the random-mean standard error noise-from the measurement. Despite having the same material down to 10 m depth at each site, there were still some inhomogeneities that were visible and measurable. This was especially true for Loess and Red Sandstone. The amount of OC in the sediments from 1 to 10 m depth was comparatively low in the Miocene Sand and Red Sandstone (0.04-0.71 g kg⁻¹ and 0.01-0.53 g kg⁻¹, respectively), while much. Considerably higher OC contents of 0.21-9.71 g C kg⁻¹ were found in the Loess (Fig. 1-2 a). The median OC content of the sediments was within a range comparable to those that in-of the respective deepest subsoil horizon. This deepest horizon was a Cv horizon in-at 94 cm depth for the Loess, 100 cm depth for the Miocene Sand and 74 cm depth for the Red Sandstone. In detail, the median OC content in the sediments, compared to-with the respective Cv horizons, corresponded to 27 % for the Loess, 29 % for the Miocene Sand and 39 % for the Red Sandstone. The Loess OC contents were highly variable, highlighting the changing sedimentary conditions during the past glacial and interglacial periods (Jordan and Schwartau, 1993). In-At 4-5 m depth, the OC contents of the Loess were even higher (9.7 g kg⁻¹) than in the subsoil (3 g kg⁻¹). This was not an outlier because the high OC content could be visually confirmed by the very dark colour of the sample. In the Miocene Sand and the Red Sandstone, no clear depth gradient of OC was found in at 2-10 m depth (Fig. 4-2 a). Even though the OC content in the sediments are were low, the OC stocks can could be considerable very large. A comparison of OC stocks in topsoils (0-0.3 m), subsoils (0.3-1.5 m) and the sediments down to 10 m depth revealed quite high OC stocks in the sediments. For the Loess, OC in the sediment contributed up to 71 % of the total OC amount while it was 51 % for the Red Sandstone and 21 % for the Miocene Sand (Table 1). The distribution of the δ^{13} C values of OC in the soil and sediment profiles showed an increase of in δ^{13} C with increasing depth in the soil down to 1 m depth (Fig. 1–2 b). In cContrastingly, the δ^{13} C values of OC in the sediments showed no clear trend with increasing depth, but they all were within the range of C₃ plant material. A value above -25 ‰ for the Red Sandstone in at 4 m depth can could be explained by corresponding the high values of inorganic carbon (IC) in at this depth. It can be assumed that decarbonisation of this sample was not completely successful. Unexpectedly high amounts of -IC were found in parts of the Red Sandstone, indicating the presence of calcareous deposits in this terrestrial material (Fig. 4-2 c). The Loess also includeds some distinct calcareous layers in at 5 and 10 m depth, while there were only small amounts of around 0.1 mg IC g-1 soil in at the other depths. This could be due to the fact that the investigated loess deposits belongs to the "Leine Ilme Basin", a region with aoelian loamy loess that has been decalcified during weathering and soil genesis (Wagner, 2011), while the contents in the soil profile can be explained by liming. Meanwhile nNo IC was present in the Miocene Sand.

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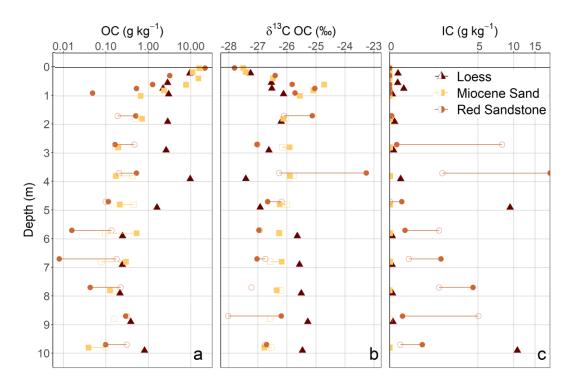


Fig. 2: Depth distribution of different bulk properties of the soil profiles and the deep drilling cores. Presented parameters include the log scale organic carbon (OC) and inorganic carbon (IC) content (a and c) and the δ^{13} C values of the organic carbon (b) related to the amount of fine soil or dry mass respectively. Filled and unfilled symbols represent the two different cores. For the Loess only one core could be analysed.

Table 1: OC stocks and proportions for the three sites down to 10 m- depth. Proportions of biogenic and geogenic OC were calculated based on ¹⁴C results and assumptions described in the material and methods section. Represented ranges are calculated based on the assumption of a 1,000 or 4,000_-year_old biogenic OC fraction reaching the sediments.

	Layer	Depth (m)	TOC		OC stock	as (Mg ha ⁻¹)	Proportion of OC (%) ^b	
Substrate			(Mg·ha ⁻¹)	(%) ^a	geogenic	biogenic	geogenic	biogenic
					4,000 1,000 yrs. yrs.	1,000 4,000 yrs. yrs.	4,000 1,000 yrs. yrs.	1,000 4,000 yrs. yrs.
Loess	Topsoil	0.0 - 0.3	40.6	11	1.1 - 1.2	40 - 39	3 - 3	97 - 97
	Subsoil	0.3 - 1.5	66.0	17	5.1 - 5.3	61 - 61	8 - 8	92 - 92
	Upper Sediment	1.5 - 4.0	218.6	57	10.6 - 11.0	208 - 208	5 - 5	95 - 95
	Lower Sediment	4.0 - 10.0	55.1	15	42.9 - 46.7	8 - 12	78 - 85	15 - 22
Red Sandstone	Topsoil	0.0 - 0.3	22.2	30	0.6 - 0.7	22 - 22	3 - 3	97 - 97
	Subsoil	0.3 - 1.5	13.7	19	1.6 - 1.7	12 - 12	12 - 12	88 - 88
	Upper Sediment	1.5 - 4.0	18.7	25	13.1 - 14.9	4 - 6	70 - 80	20 - 30
	Lower Sediment	4.0 - 10.0	19.3	26	14.1 - 15.7	4 - 5	73 - 82	18 - 27
Miocene Sand	Topsoil	0.0 - 0.3	39.1	31	0.3 - 0.3	39 - 39	1 - 1	99 - 99
	Subsoil	0.3 - 1.5	60.8	48	1.3 - 1.6	59 - 60	2 - 3	97 - 98
	Upper Sediment	1.5 - 4.0	10.6	8	3.7 - 5.8	5 - 7	34 - 55	45 - 66
	Lower Sediment	4.0 - 10.0	16.3	13	8.3 - 10.8	6 - 8	51 - 66	34 - 49

334 ^a % of total OC stock from 0-10 m

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g kg⁻¹ for the Loess.

^b % of OC stock in the respective depth increment

336 3.2 Ages of organic carbon in soils and sediments and contributions from geogenic organic carbon

337 The ages of OC in the Loess soil profiles revealed a modern like-carbon signature (0 yrs. years BP) in at 0.3 m depth, with a sharp increase up to $4.413 \pm 51 \frac{1}{\text{yrs.}}$ years BP in-at 0.7 m depth (Fig. 32 a). For the 338 339 Red Sandstone soil profile there was only an increase in the ages from a modern like-signature in at 0.04 340 m to $532 \pm 41 \frac{\text{yrs.years}}{\text{yrs.years}}$ BP in at 0.3 m depth. The Miocene Sand soil profile in at 0.4 m depth showed an increase from 1,277 \pm 41 to 1,771 \pm 44 $\frac{1}{2}$ yrs. years BP in-at 0.6 m depth. Thus, OC of the subsoil 341 342 (around 0.6 m depth) in the Loess was more than twice as old as in the Miocene Sand. Contrastingly In 343 contrast, the Loess hads a modern like signature in at 0.3 m, while the soil developed in Red Sandstone 344 showed an average age of 532 ± 41 yrs. years BP in at 0.3 m depth. This could be due to the observed plough layer at the Loess site mixing up the upper 30 cm with a predominantly modern ¹⁴C signature. 345 346 The ages of OC in the sediments ranged from 2,200-30,730 yrs. years BP, with respective mean ages of 347 $9,077 \pm 3,234 \frac{\text{yrs.-years}}{\text{yrs.-years}}$ BP for the Miocene Sand, $13,674 \pm 9,632 \frac{\text{yrs.-years}}{\text{yrs.-years}}$ BP for the Loess, and 14,463± 1,992 yrs. years BP for the Red Sandstone. For all sediments, 11 out of 16 samples contained had a ¹⁴C 348 349 content that led to an apparent ¹⁴C age older than the soil age of 11,600 vrs. years BP, which we assumed 350 to be the time assuming that soil development started after the latest glacial period when soil 351 development started at this time (Litt et al., 2007). Therefore the sediments contained a mixture of 352 geogenic (¹⁴C–free) and biogenic (with ¹⁴C) OC. Despite being the youngest sediment, the Loess partly 353 revealed the highest apparent 14 C ages with up to $30,730 \pm 631$ yrs. years BP (Fig. 2-3 a). The ages of OC in the sediment of the Red Sandstone and the Miocene Sand ranged from $12,940 \pm 132$ to $17,390 \pm 100$ 354 206 yrs.years BP and from 6,750 ± 86 to 12,770 ± 151 yrs.years BP, respectively, revealing no depth 356 trend with higher ages in the deeper sediment. The calculated GOC fraction in the sediments was highest for the Red Sandstone, ranging from 67 to 87 %, with a mean of 77 % (Fig. 2-3 b). For the three samples 357 of the Miocene Sand samples, the GOC fraction rangeds from 29 to 77 % with a mean of 53 %. The 358 Loess showed a sharp increase at a depth of five metres where GOC contribution went-rising to between 359 up to 71 to 98 % while it was only 5 to 19 % at thein 2 to 4 m depth. 360 361 The calculated weight-based content of GOC in the sediment revealed a comparatively uniform 362 distribution for all the sediments with depth, except the extremely high contents of the Loess in at 5 m depth (Fig. 2-3 c). The investigated sediment depths revealed a quite a narrow range of GOC contents with 0.10 ± 0.03 g kg⁻¹ for the Miocene Sand, 0.17 ± 0.12 g kg⁻¹ for the Red Sandstone and 0.27 ± 0.08 364

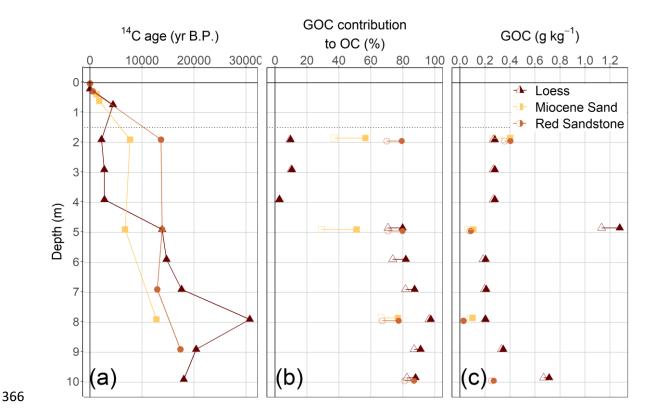


Fig. 3: Depth distribution of apparent ¹⁴C ages (in yrs-years BP) (a), GOC contribution to OC contents in the sediments (b) and resulting weight based amounts of GOC (c) in the sediments. The range in the contribution from GOC is due to the assumption of an average biogenic OC age of 4,000 (empty shapes) and 1,000 years (filled shapes).

3.3 Biodegradability of sedimentary derived organic carbon

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The incubation experiment revealed a potential, but low biodegradability of OC for all samples, but without a clear depth gradient from 1 to 10 m (Fig. 34). To compare the effect of crushing on the respiration of Red Sandstone samples, we compared the mineralisation rates from the first incubation experiment were compared with the mineralisation rates those of the second incubation experiment (Table 32). While the Red Sandstone showed very low mineralisation when the samples were incubated as intact cores (0.3-1.0 mg CO₂-C g⁻¹ OC y⁻¹), the mineralisation rate constants were up to five times higher when the samples were crushed (1.0-2.1 mg CO₂-C g⁻¹ OC y⁻¹). Comparing In a comparison of the Loess and the Miocene Sand, both revealed high-large differences between samples with the lowest (1.2 and 1.8 mg CO₂-C g⁻¹ OC y⁻¹) and highest (34.2 and 12 mg CO₂-C g⁻¹ OC y⁻¹) respiration rate constants. Interestingly, there was no depth gradient for the different substrates, but samples from 7 and 9 m depth of the Miocene Sand tended to show have up to 6.8 times lower respiration rate constants compared than to samples from the 2 and 4 m depth. Additionally, tThere was also a -very high wide variation between samples from the same depth (see Fig. A1) as revealed by the high standard deviations. Assuming a constant mineralisation rate constant over time, the results of the incubation experiment would result in mean residence times of between 29 and 135 yrs. years for the Loess, 83 and 556 yrs. years for the Miocene Sand and between 476 and 1,000 yrs. years for the crushed Red Sandstone. Since the CH₄-

levels of the samples remained <u>on_at_a</u> low level (Fig. A3) there were no indications <u>for_of_oxygen_</u> limited conditions during the incubation.

Table 2: Comparison of mineralisation rate constants between the first (<u>intact_Red Sandstone samples_intact</u>) and the second incubation experiments (crushed Red Sandstone samples) calculated with using linear models.

Substrate	Depth (m)	Mineralisation rate constant (mg CO ₂ -C g ⁻¹ OC y ⁻¹) ^a
	2	12.0
Miocene Sand	4	10.5
Miocene Sand	7	1.8
_	9	2.9
	1.7	7.4
Loess	2.9	34.2
Loess	5.4	10.2
	9.6	1.3
	2.5	0.3
Uncrushed	5	1.0
Red Sandstone	7.5	0.4
	9	0.4
	2.5	1.3
Crushed	5	2.1
Red Sandstone	7.5	2.0
	9	1.0

^a represents the slope of the fitted linear model for the respiration during the incubation experiment-

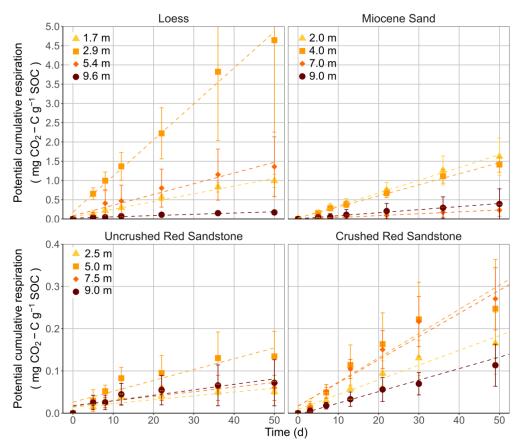


Fig. 4: Potential degradability of sedimentary OC from three sites. Results represent cumulative respiration from Loeses and Miocene Sand samples and both Red Sandstone incubation experiments with uncrushed and crushed samples, with respective standard deviations (n = 4). Dashed lines represent a fitted linear model to the respiration data.

3.4 Possible contribution from geogenic organic carbon to soil organic carbon

When the As bedrock is weather sing, it becomes part of the soil and also GOC also becomes soil OC. The potential amount of GOC in the subsoil was dependent on the sedimentary bedrock (Fig. 45). In the subsoil of the Miocene Sand it the proportion of GOC amounted added up to 2-3 %, at the Loess site it was 8 %, and at the Red Sandstone site it was 12 % (Table 1). For the defined topsoils (0-30 cm depth), contributions of GOC to soil OC were smaller with 0.7-0.9 % for the Miocene Sand, 2.8-2.9 % for the Loess and 2.8-3.0 % for the Red Sandstone The possible contribution of GOC to soil OC was also calculated under the assumption that the biogenic fraction had an unrealistically high average age of 10,000 years (Fig. A5). This resulted in the GOC fraction falling to 0 for Miocene Sand. For Loess the geogenic fraction fell by ~ 25 %, and for Red Sandstone by ~ 16 %.

The presence of ¹⁴C-free GOC toin soil OC reduceds the mean bulk soil OC ¹⁴C ages, depending on its proportion on in soil OC content. Topsoils that developed in the Loess and the Red Sandstone had a modern ¹⁴C content of 1.029 and 1.035 F¹⁴C, similar to the atmospheric ¹⁴C content in 1950. Because Due toof the large proportion of biogenic OC, an no influence of a geogenic fraction is not was detected detectable in the topsoil of these sites. No ¹⁴C data are were available for the topsoil of the Miocene

Sand. For all subsoils, the influence of GOC on bulk soil OC ¹⁴C contents dependsed strongly greatly on the depth and the corresponding OC contents. For the Loess, the possible influence on ¹⁴C ages in the subsoils would bewas quite high, with an average of 10 % reduction in mean apparent ¹⁴C ages in the subsoil. Thus it would therefore reduce the measured age from of 4,413 yrs.years BP in 74 cm depth by 532-555 yrs.years BP. Geogenic OC potentially reduceds the mean apparent radiocarbon age of 1,277 yrs.years BP in at 0.39 m depth in the Miocene Sand by about 7-9 yrs.years, and the radiocarbon age of 1,771 yrs.years BP in at 0.61 m depth by 20-24 yrs.years. This These reductions are reduction is below the respective standard deviations of the measurement. Nevertheless, in at 1 m depth a given possible proportion of 13.1-16.3 % would reduce an interpolated ¹⁴C age of 3,053 yrs.years BP by 399-497 yrs.years For the Red Sandstone the influence of GOC on ¹⁴C ages would be highest in the subsoil. In At 74 cm depth it would influence increase an age of 1,453 yrs.years BP by 451-490 yrs.years BP. Due to the low amounts of soil OC in at 90 cm depth at the Red Sandstone site, the weight—based median amount of GOC in the sediments is was even four times higher than the biogenic amount of soil OC.

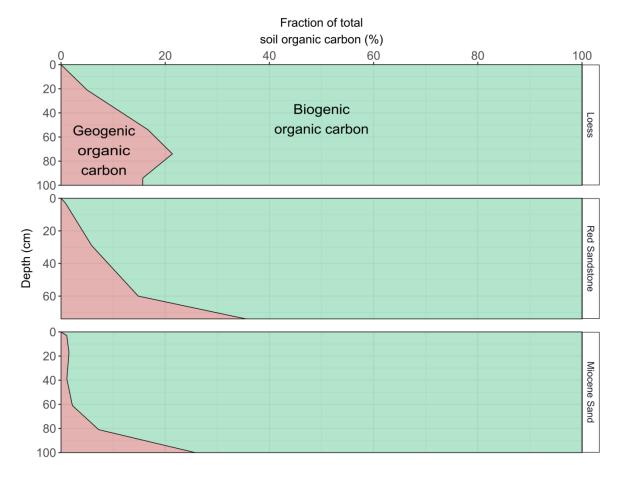


Fig. 5: <u>Highest Largest</u> possible contribution <u>from of GOC</u> to OC (red area) in relation to <u>the bulk OC content, taking into account. Here</u> the median GOC contents of the sediments <u>were taken into account.</u> for the respective horizontal weight based OC contents. The contribution <u>from of GOC</u> is the mean amount based on the assumption of an average biogenic OC age <u>of between 4,000 and 1,000 years</u>

4. Discussion

4.1 Geogenic OC in the sediments

Generally, our calculations on the GOC fraction in the sediments are based on the assumption that biogenic OC in the sediments is not older than 4,000 yrs BP on average. And we also excluded the influence of a biogenic OC fraction that derives from soils that developed before the latest glacial period. Thus, there is uncertainty of a biogenic OC fraction in the sediments since it is unknown when biogenic OC entered the sediments. We assumed a mean age of 1000 to 4000 years based on DO¹⁴C data that was leached from the soil. Nevertheless, even with an assumed age of 10,000 years for the biogenic OC fraction, the highest possible contribution was 15 % for the Loss (94 cm depth) and 22 % for the Red Sandstone (74 cm depth) (Fig. A5). A mean age of 10.000 years is an unrealistic assumption since sediments are open systems and may receive OC input throughout the pedogenic period if vegetation is present and not only at the start of pedogenesis.

4.1.1 Site dependent contents of GOC

Regarding our the calculated contribution from of GOC to OC in the sediments, the assumed range of biogenic ¹⁴C ages from 1,000-4,000 yrs.years BP is-was within the typical range for ages of dissolved OC leaching from soils (Artinger et al., 1996, Jia et al., 2019). Despite this Nevertheless, the range from of 1,000-4,000 yrs.years BP did not greatly influence the range of calculated sedimentary contribution from GOC, especially for the Loess (~ 6 % difference) and the Red Sandstone (~ 9 % difference). The calculated GOC contribution for the Miocene Sand was comparatively low (29-77 %) compared to with the contribution for the Red Sandstone and the Loess, especially in at 5 m depth. Compared to with the Red Sandstone, this could be due to deep biogenic carbon inputs, such e.g. as roots and root exudates from the trees (Angst et al., 2016, John et al., 2016, Kirfel et al., 2017, Tückmantel et al., 2017), since the loosely bedded Miocene Sand allows for a deep infiltration compared to with the Red Sandstone site with its shallow bedrock as a root_restricting layer (Schneider and Don, 2019). Although we could not was not possible to define the exact rooting depth for the Miocene Sand, this depth probably does not exceed 4 m. according to it can be expected that this depth will probably not exceed 4 m referring to Schenk and Jackson (2005). Therefore the increase in sedimentary contribution from 5 to 8 m depth of the Miocene Sand could be due to the decreasing influence of roots and root exudates in at 8 m depth.

In the Loess, the low ¹⁴C ages in at 2-4 m depth (2,200-2,770 yrs. years BP) in contrast to a ¹⁴C age of 4,413 yrs. years BP in at 0.74 m depth were surprising. This might indicate past anthropogenic activities or erosion—driven material movement that might have led to a mixing of mixed up the upper part of the profile. Furthermore, the modern ¹⁴C signature at 21 cm depth could be due to the plough layer at the Loess site mixing the upper 30 cm.—Nevertheless, at depths below 4 m the high ¹⁴C ages of OC in the sediments indicated a large proportion of GOC. This could be due to different sedimentation periods, soil forming and also soil burial processes (Chaopricha and Marin-Spiotta, 2014) that took place during the Pleistocene. These processes can lead to the presence of buried layers in the Loess with varying amounts of rather recalcitrant OC₂ as it was shown by Marin-Spiotta et al. (2014). For the investigated Loess site, we can expect different sedimentation and soil forming processes can be expected due to the

presence of completely different material in the cores in terms of colour and measured OC contents. For example, the very dark Loess at 4 m depth with its high OC content support the assumption of sedimentation circumstances that favoured the accumulation and preservation of OC. This is in accordance to with Jordan and Schwartau (1993) who investigated the same site and assigned the different layers to specific Pleistocene sedimentation periods.

In summary, the contribution from of GOC to sedimentary OC was substrate dependent. A loosely bedded sediment like the Miocene Sand with extremely low concentrations of OC is could be more prone for to infiltration of biogenic OC and dilution of GOC. This resulted in contributions of biogenic OC to the sediments of about 50 %. In contrast, the Loess site with comparatively low infiltration rates or the Red Sandstone site with reduced possibilities for deep rooting seemed to contain relative constant contributions from GOC of around 80 %.

We found that tThe GOC contribution within the sediments did notwas not found to increase with increasing soil depth. This is in contrast to the results of Frouz et al. (2011) showing which showed that different sediment types from a Miocene clay sediment had higher weight—based carbon contents in at 150 m compared to with 30 m depth. However, a comparison with the present study is rather difficult since Frouz et al. (2011) did not distinguish between the geogenic and the biogenic OC fraction—s, and OC contents were by farmuch higher (28-112 g kg-1 dry mass compared to 0.008-10 g kg-1 dry mass in our results). However, But it this also underlines the importance of different sedimentation processes for the amount and depth distribution of OC in sediments and sedimentary rocks.

4.1.2 Geogenic OC in the Miocene Sand and the Red Sandstone compared to with other studies

It is hard to compare A comparison of the weight—based amounts of GOC in terrestrial sediments is difficult, since most studies in that this field rarely determine the amounts of OC in terrestrial sediments, or pre—assume that e.g. sandy sediments, for example, do not contain no considerable large amounts of OC (Artinger et al., 1996). Quite high amounts of OC were—have been found in the skeleton part of different soils on sandstones with 0.61-1.97 t ha-1 (Corti et al., (2002). Nevertheless, they mentioned the possible high-strong influence of organic substances from the soil solution without quantifying it, and they did not directly investigated OC in the sediments. Additionally Copard et al. (2007) assumed an OC amount of 2.4 g kg-1 from an unknown source for all sandy sediments in a global storage modelling approach for the first metre of the—sediments. This would fit to—with the amounts of around 1 and 5 mg OC g-1 found by Krummholz et al. (1997) for Dakota sandstone layers in-at > 180 m depth, but is much higher greater than the median GOC amount in the-Red Sandstone (0.2 g kg-1) and the-Miocene Sand (0.1 g kg-1) in the present study.—More data are thus needed to constrain the OC pool in sedimentary bedrock since it will also influence the soil carbon pool in our study.

4.1.3 Geogenic OC in the Loess compared to with other studies

Loess deposits are comparably relatively well investigated because they provide a record of as archive for-paleoenvironmental conditions (Hatté et al., 1998, Head et al., 1989, Murton et al., 2015, Wang et al., 1996). The median amount of 0.27 g kg⁻¹ from our-the present study is-was low compared with studies from by Hatté et al. (1998), Wang et al. (1996) and Strauss et al. (2012). Hatté et al. (1998) investigated 20-m depth deep loess deposits in the Rhine valley and found OC contents between 1.0-8.6 g kg⁻¹, Wang et al. (1996) investigated 12-m depth deep loess deposits in China and found OC contents of 31.2 ± 30.5 g kg⁻¹ and Strauss et al. (2012) found OC contents of 15 ± 14 g kg⁻¹ in Yedoma loess deposits in Siberia. This shows that the deposits from our the investigated site in the present study stored comparatively low GOC contents, although most of the studies-above-mentioned studies above did not distinguish between a biogenic and a geogenic OC pool. Nevertheless, as also shown in the present study. Loess had a high OC content compared with other sediments. Nevertheless, also in our study Loess is, compared to other sediments, a sedimentary bedrock with a high OC content. This was in line with highest OC contents in subsoils at the Loess site and may indicate the importance and contribution of bedrock OC to subsoil OC.

4.2 Is sedimentary derived organic carbon biodegradable?

The incubation experiment revealed a mineralisation of OC within the sediments with values between 0.1 and 3.4 % of total OC being mineralised after one year, assuming a constant mineralisation rate. Thereby it has to be considered that tThe incubation temperature of 20 °C is above the typical mean temperatures in the subsoils underlining incubation derived mineralisation rates to be potential rates. the investigated sites having a mean annual temperature of 9.2°C. For subsoils with comparable climatic conditions, Wordell-Dietrich et al. (2019) found temperatures at 150 cm depth ranging from 4 to 14.4°C over a two-year period. Assuming a Q₁₀ value of around two2 for the assumable difference (Hamdi et al., 2013), the respiration rate at typical subsoil temperatures would be roughly half as highthat. A direct mineralisation of OC from sediments is in accordance agreement with several studies investigating the direct mineralisation from outcrops (Copard et al., 2007, Horan et al., 2017, Petsch et al., 2000, Soulet et al., 2017) Seifert et al., 2001). The difference to our the present study is, that these those studies observed this mineralisation when the sediments were directly exposed to the surface or/and were part of a very fast rapidly eroding area. Thus with GOC from the sediments already is already being in touch with the atmosphere and to inputs of the recent vegetation. However, Frouz et al. (2011) conducted an incubation experiment with sedimentary samples from OC-rich Miocene clay sediments and. They found quite high respiration rate constants, with values between 3.5-12.3 mg CO₂-C g⁻¹ OC y⁻¹0.4-1.2 % OC loss per year within during a 91 day incubation experiment. They attributed this to the prevailing presence of aliphatic compounds in their samples being decomposed. Also Kieft and Rosacker (1991) also found high respiration rates of sedimentary samples, with values between 0.9-9.50.1-1 % mg CO₂-Cg⁺-OC loss per yeary⁺, which they primarily attributed to the physiological status of the soil microbial community expressed as adenylate energy charge. Those results are in fairly good agreement with the respiration rate constants observed in the present study. These results fit quite well to our observed respiration rate constants (1 _ 34.2 mg CO₂ C g + OC y +). Meanwhile, eCompared to with the subsoil incubation experiments, the mineralisation we found in our the present incubation experiment for sediments was quite low. For example, in a subsoil incubation experiments at 20 °C, Wordell-Dietrich et al. (2017) found that between 5-9.5 mg CO₂-C g -1 OC of OC are mineralised after incubation for 63 days, Wang et al. (2013) reported values between 5-15 mg CO₂-C g -1 OC of after 28 days, and Soucemarianadin et al. (2018) reported values between 10 and 12.5 mg CO₂-C g -1 OC after 70 days. The difference between the observed respiration rates observed in our the present incubation experiment and the results from sedimentary and subsoil incubation experiments might could be due to a result from different microbial communities, quality of OC quality and the physical disconnection between OC and potential decomposers. As it was shown in a meta analysis by Colman and Schimel (2013), different microbial compositions, their abundance and the quality of OC, strongly affects respiration rates. This might also be indicative by theof extreme differences in respiration rates even within the same substrate and sample.

OC in the sediments. Therefore it could be the case that tThe observed mineralisation could therefore be is primarily mainly due primarily to the consumption of this biogenic OC part. Furthermore, the low mineralisation rate of the Red Sandstone during the incubation as intact cores (Fig. S1A1) promoteds the stability of GOC when it is part of the sediments. This might be due to the low accessibility of OC in the sediments for microorganisms and the low the availability of water due to a preferential flow through the sandstone (Swanson et al., 2006).

Altogether, tThe low mineralisation rates of the OC in the sediments might be driven caused by -a_lack of fresh substrates and/or microorganisms that could enhance the degradation of OC (Fontaine et al., 2007). __since_Seifert et al. (2011) showed_have shown_that microorganisms are able to degrade sedimentary OC after the addition of glucose in black slate outcrops. Nevertheless, a_mineralisation of OC could only be observed only bywith the addition of_adding water, which indicates the widely recognised assumptionfact of the presence of an active microbial community in the sediments, which is a largely recognised assumption_(Bomberg et al., 2017, Joergensen and Wichern, 2018, Magnabosco et al., 2018). Since we did not add fresh substrates were not added during the incubation, it has to be taken into account that respiration rates could be even_higher if a fresh substrate_induced priming effect occurs. Furthermore the inherent and active microbial communities in the sediments might have assimilated_14C_free GOC into their biomass_a it has been shown by Schwab et al. (2019). This Thus means that part of the labile OC pool in the sediments might also be derived from metabolised_14C_free microbial biomass.

The <u>long-term-incubation experiment eannot was unable to answer the question if of whether GOC will be is mineralised when it becomes part of the (sub-)soil.- Assuming that a large part of the biogenic OC</u>

preferably the biogenic part of OC in the sediments was mineralised during the incubation experiment, geogenic OC could still be preserved during soil formation especially in the subsoils. This is in accordance to with the an-indirect approach taken by Graz et al. (2010) to determine the mineralisation of sedimentary OC when it becomes part of the subsoil from Graz et al. (2010). They stated that 30 % of GOC resistsed degradation when it becomes part of the soil due to the results from of a quantitative palynofacies analysis of bedrock and soil samples. Hemingway et al. (2018) found that sedimentary OC directly exposed to the surface in a rapidly eroding tropical mountain area exhibits a considerable mineralisation down to 1 m below the surface, also leading to a resistant partaround 30 % of GOC remaining in the soilon similar level. Based on ¹⁴C measurements they found out that on average 67 ± 11 % of the OC fraction in the sediments could be lost during soil formation, but did not distinguished no distinction was made between a biogenic and a geogenic OC fractions. This indicates that a microbial mineralisation of bedrock OC takes place but may be partly restricted to biogenic OC.

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Regarding the depth distribution of GOC in the sediments, the amount of GOC (in g kg⁻¹) does-did not increase with depth, but there were shows clear differences. On the one hand, tThis represents reflects the sedimentation history with different initial amounts of OC and degradation during sedimentation_s. which This is particularly evident by in the high amounts of GOC in at 5 m depth of in the Loess. Meanwhile However, the contents of GOC, especially in the Red Sandstone and Miocene Sand, were are within the same range over for the whole depth. This might indicate that degradation of GOC is not depth_dependendt within the sediments. If there would bewere a stronger degradation of GOC with decreasing depth, one would expect a decreasing amount of GOC could be expected due to the input of water, microorganisms and fresh nutrients from above. Furthermore, there is-was a relatively constant contribution from of biogenic OC within the sediments, meaning. This means that, if biogenic OC enters the sediments, together with possibly degrading microorganisms, this biogenic OC might also be preferably largely mineralised. A study by Heitkötter et al. (2018) demonstrate effectively T-that degradation of OC in subsoils in subsoils is primarily limited to small hotspot areas was shown very well by Heitkötter et al. (2018). Also for in sediments, -Krummholz et al. (1997) showed that microbial communities are especially present can particularly be found in spatially discrete areas. Nevertheless, Heitkötter et al. (2018) also showed that microorganisms outside the hotspots can be activated when substrate is supplied. Thus the bioavailability of GOC might be very site-dependent, since e.g. root channels as microbial hotspots, for example, are less abundant and stable in sandy soils (Schneider and Don, 2019). -With regard to our the investigated sites investigated here, the solid Red Sandstone might only obtain water in preferential flow paths (Swanson, 2006) leading to a comparatively stable OC pool in the sediment. -Meanwhile for the-weathered, poorly structured sandy soils, prevalent matrix flow conditions can be assumed (Flury et al., 1994). Thus the bulk GOC might be supplied with fresh substrates and water from above more frequently often than forcompared to the well-structured Loess soil with more frequent and stable preferential flow paths (Schneider and Don, 2019). This might lead to a lower accessibility and therefore slower turnover rates of OC (Dungait et al., 2012).

The conclusion can be drawn This leads to the conclusion that GOC sediment derived OC can and will be degraded when it becomes part of the subsoil but probably to a comparatively low limited extent and low rates with dominant mineralisation of biogenic OC. Based on the mentioned literature, at least around 30 % of GOC can be assumed to resist degradation when it becomes part of the subsoil.

4.3 How much does GOC contributes to soil organic carbon?

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The contribution of GOC to soil OC stocks in our this study wasis driven by the amount of OC in the soil, the amount of GOC in the respective sediment and also its assumed the turnover of GOC when it becomes part of the soil. Our results revealed that despite differences differing between sediments, GOC content varied in a quite narrow range between 0.1 and 0.3 g kg⁻¹. The contribution of GOC to topsoil OC was negligible. Assuming no degradation of GOC, the greatesthighest possible contributions to total subsoil OC were found for the Red Sandstone (~30 %) and the lowest for the Miocene Sand (0.6 %). This was due to the range of OC contents in the subsoils (0.53 g kg⁻¹-15.21 g kg⁻¹). When soil OC contents were low, the possible contributions from GOC were high and vice versa (Fig. S2). For our the investigated soils, the OC contents of 3 g kg⁻¹ soil allowed for possible GOC contributions of between 5- and 10 %. For OC contents around 1 g kg⁻¹ soil, a GOC contribution of between 10- and 20 % seemeds to be possible. Thereby Thus, greater higher contributions were made bycame from GOC rich sediments like such asthe Loess, while smaller and lower contributions from sandy sediments. In comparison, van der Voort et al. (2018) estimated the contribution from of GOC of in a soil derived from glacial deposits (flysch) at between 80-100 cm depth to be around 40 %. For a soil developed from a poorly consolidated sedimentary rock (calcareous and shaly moraine), they calculated the contribution from of GOC to range from 20 % in at 145 cm depth to 80 % in at 310 cm depth. There has further been aAn attempt has also been made to fractionate subsoils to extract the most stable OC that may be derived from GOC. Paul et al. (2001) investigated a soil developed on loess over till with this 30 % of subsoil OC as a nonhydrolysable fraction non-hydrolysable fraction-showing a ¹⁴C age of 13,000 yrs. years BP. found that 30 % of subsoil OC was non-hydrolysable. The investigated a soil developed on loess over till with this non-hydrolysable fraction showing a ¹⁴C age of 13,000 yrs. years BP. They also concluded that this high ¹⁴C age can partly be explained by a GOC fraction. These results indicate that especially deposits from the past glacial periods, such as like flysch or till in particular, have a much higher greater potential for OC contributions from GOC, possibly due to their higher amounts of GOC in their sediments. Since we only investigated terrestrial sediments were investigated in the present study, it should be noted it has to be taken into account that also marine sediments or shales also contain much higher amounts of OC₃ up to 250 g kg⁻¹ (Hemingway et al., 2018, Petsch et al., 2000). Thus, the Their amount of GOC they conatin and their possible contribution to subsoil OC stocks might therefore be much higher.

Nevertheless, the ¹⁴C ages of OC in the subsoil can be high in soils derived from igneous parent materials without GOC (Rumpel et al., 2002), although even crystalline bedrocks contain microbial communities (Purkamo et al., 2020). Furthermore, on a global scale, the ¹⁴C ages of soil OC are primarily driven by

climatic conditions, clay content and age of the soil, since soil development started (Mathieu et al., 2015). However, But for terrestrial sediments with comparatively low amounts of GOC that started their soil development after the latest glacial period, we could obtain a scale for of possible contributions could be obtained when the amount of OC is known. Thus, at on a global scale, the high ¹⁴C age of subsoils is not only driven just by the GOC fraction but the presence of GOC may considerable greatly influence subsoil ¹⁴C.

5. Conclusions

With our This approach of estimating the GOC contribution to soil OC, we could show showed that common and abundant terrestrial sediments; with low amounts of sedimentary OC; can make a considerable contributione considerably to subsoil OC stocks. One fraction of OC in the sediments is of geogenic origin and could therefore influence measured ¹⁴C ages in soil, in-particularly in subsoils. Subsoils are known for their high ¹⁴C ages and slow turnover rates and slow reaction to changing environmental condition. These properties of subsoil OC properties may partly be derived from the GOC in the subsoil. The sediments at the investigated sites contained OC in a range from of 0.1-0.3 g kg⁻¹, allowing for contributions from GOC of between 10-30 % in subsoils. Incubation of sediments seem to indicated that this geogenic contribution presents a quite stable OC pool, especially for subsoils. Thus, also even sediments with comparatively low amounts of OC were also able to demonstrate the large contribution of GOC, could show considerable contributions from GOC.

Data availability

The data will be made available on request

Author contribution

- AD -conceived -of -and- designed -the -study, FK performed the sampling and analysis, and wrote the
- 671 first draft. All the authors contributed to generating and reviewing the subsequent versions of the
- 672 manuscript.

Competing interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

Acknowledgements

This study was funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) (DO1734/4-2) within the framework of the research unit SUBSOM (FOR1806)-"The Forgotten Part of Carbon Cycling: Organic Matter Storage and Turnover in Subsoils". We would like to thank Frank Hegewald and the student assistants for their support in the field and in the laboratory, Jens Dyckmanns and Lars Szwec from the Centre for Stable Isotope Research and Analysis at the University of Göttingen for ¹³CO₂ measurements,

Reiner Dohrmann from the Federal Institute for Geosciences and Natural Resources for density measurements of sedimentary rocks and Roland Prietz for his excellent soil classification assistance. We would also like to thank the AK laboratory team for their support.

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