Aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides modulate aggregation and related carbon contents in soils of the humid tropics

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Abstract

Aggregation affects a wide range of physical and biogeochemical soil properties with positive effects on soil carbon storage. For weathered tropical soils, aluminous clays (kaolinite and gibbsite) and pedogenic Fe (oxyhydr)oxides (goethite and hematite; termed 'Fe oxides') have been suggested as important building units for aggregates. However, as aluminosilicates, aluminum hydroxides, and Fe oxides are part of the clay-sized fraction it is hard to separate, how certain mineral phases modulate aggregation. In addition, it is not known what consequences this will have for organic carbon (OC) persistence after land-use change. We selected topsoils with unique mineralogical compositions in the East Usambara Mountains of Tanzania under forest and cropland land uses, varying in contents of aluminous clay and Fe oxides. Across the mineralogical combinations, we determined the aggregate size distribution, aggregate stability, OC contents of aggregate size fractions as well as changes in aggregation and OC contents under forest and cropland land use. Patterns in soil aggregation were rather similar across the different mineralogical combinations (high level of macroaggregation and high aggregate stability). Nevertheless, we found some statistically significant effects of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides on aggregation and OC storage. An aluminous clay content $> 250\,\mathrm{g\,kg^{-1}}$ in combination with pedogenic Fe contents $< 60\,\mathrm{g\,kg^{-1}}$ significantly promoted the formation of large macroaggregates > 4 mm. In contrast, a pedogenic Fe content $> 60\,\mathrm{g\,kg^{-1}}$ in combination with aluminous clay content of $< 250\,\mathrm{g\,kg^{-1}}$ promoted OC storage and persistence even under agricultural use. The combination with low aluminous clay and high pedogenic Fe contents displayed the highest OC persistence, despite conversion of forest to cropland caused substantial disaggregation. Our data indicate that aggregation in these tropical soils is modulated by the mineralogical regime, causing moderate but significant differences in aggregate size distribution. Nevertheless, aggregation was little decisive for overall OC persistence in these highly weathered soils, where OC storage is more regulated by direct mineral-organic interactions.

1. Introduction

Many functions of soils such as food production, water purification as well as climate regulation are tightly linked to soil structure (*Bronick* and *Lal*, 2005; *FAO*, 2015; *Six* et al., 2004). Aggregates are the structural backbone of soil and changes in aggregation impacts various processes such as root development, soil erosion, and soil organic carbon (OC) accumulation (*Chaplot* et al., 2010; *Le Bissonnais* et al., 2018). Based on their size, soil aggregates are typically classified into small microaggregates (< 20 µm), large microaggregates (20–250 µm), and macroaggregates (> 0.25 mm) (*Tisdall* and *Oades*, 1982). Cementing agents such as clay minerals, metal (oxyhydr)oxides, as well as organic matter (OM) are considered as primary building units of microaggregates (*Totsche* et al., 2018), which provide the basis for the formation of larger soil structural units (*Asano* and *Wagai*, 2014). The study by *Six* et al. (2002) points to the special role of inorganic compounds such as clay minerals and pedogenic metal oxides in the formation of aggregates in the tropics. Pedogenic iron (Fe_d) (oxyhydr)oxides (summarized as 'Fe oxides') have been reported to facilitate macroaggregation (*Peng* et al., 2015) and aggregate stability (*Duiker* et al., 2003). Under the acidic conditions of weathered tropical soils, Fe oxides provide positively charged surfaces capable of reacting with negatively charged inorganic constituents, like clay minerals or OM (*Kaiser* and *Guggenberger*, 2003; *Kleber* et al., 2015; *Six* et al., 2004; *Totsche* et al., 2018). Aggregation might be ascribed to inorganic or organic cementing agents with no consensus about the relevance of each individual agent. Understanding the effects of individual cementing agents for aggregation is needed to disentangle their potential contribution to soil aggregation. For example, the extent of aggregation has been either positively related to the contents of clay and OC (*Chaplot* and *Cooper*, 2015; *Paul* et al., 2008; *Spaccini* et al., 2001), or to differences in the clay mineral composition (*Fernández-Ugalde* et al., 2013). Furthermore, *Barthès* et al. (2008) showed that texture had no effect on macroaggregation over a range of tropical soils characterized by low-activity clay minerals. Uncertainty also derives from the fact that the clay size particle fraction (< 2-µm) not only contains OM and different types of clay minerals, but also variable contents of pedogenic Fe and aluminum (Al) oxides (*Barré* et al. 2014; *Fernández-Ugalde* et al. 2013; *Wagai* and *Mayer* 2007). *Denef* et al. (2004) showed that significant differences in the amount of

microaggregates encased in macroaggregates can be related to the clay mineral composition (2:1, mixed layer, 1:1 clays). They assume that interactions of 1:1 clay minerals with Fe oxides cause a higher aggregate stability compared to those involving 2:1 clay minerals (*Denef* et al., 2002, 2004). Such mutual interactions between typical aluminous clay-sized minerals (e.g. kaolinite, gibbsite) and pedogenic Fe oxides are thus possible drivers of aggregation in weathered tropical soils (*Durn* et al., 2019).

As indicated above, soil aggregation is considered to be an important process that increases OC persistence, because of the physical separation of OM from microorganisms and their exoenzymes (*Six* et al., 2004). Thus, improved aggregation could contribute to enhanced OC storage in soils (*Kravchenko* et al., 2015; *Marín-Spiotta* et al., 2008; *Schmidt* et al., 2011). Managing aggregation, *e.g.*, for climate change mitigation, requires profound knowledge on the controls of aggregation and their effects on OC persistence (*Paul* et al., 2008). To the best of our knowledge there are no studies available, which investigated the influence of changes in the content of clay minerals with low activity and the content of pedogenic metal oxides on aggregation under comparable mineralogical conditions for weathered tropical soils. Macroaggregates are particularly susceptible to soil management (*Six* et al., 2000a; *Totsche* et al., 2018). Consequently, destruction of macroaggregates upon changes from forests to cropland might account for OC losses that were observed in tropical soils (*Don* et al., 2011; *Kirsten* et al., 2019; *Mujuru* et al., 2013). The stability of aggregates should thus determine OC losses induced by land-use change and higher losses should be related to lower aggregate stability (*Denef* et al., 2002; *Le Bissonnais* et al., 2018; *Six* et al., 2000b). We are currently not aware of any studies that solve the puzzle to which extent the amount of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides controls soil aggregation and OC storage in highly weathered soils of the humid tropics.

This study takes advantage of soils under natural forest and cropland in the East Usambara Mountains of Tanzania. The mineralogical composition of the study soils is very homogeneous with kaolinite and gibbsite as the main aluminous minerals of the clay fraction and goethite and hematite as dominant pedogenic Fe oxides (*Kirsten* et al., 2021). Yet, the ratio of aluminous clays to Fe oxides differed strongly, giving rise to unique mineralogical combinations under both land use types. Thus, the

102 conversion of natural forest to cropland in the study region enables us to evaluate the effect of land-use

103 change under each mineralogical combination on soil physical properties and related OC persistence. In

104 the precursor study, we found a positive relationship between the storage of mineral-associated OC and

105 the ratio of pedogenic Fe to aluminous clay under forest and cropland land use, suggesting that a larger

106 share of Fe oxides is linked to larger OC storage and persistency against land-use change (*Kirsten* et al.,

107 2021). In the present study, we test whether aggregation and its contribution to OC storage follow similar

108 patterns, or are decoupled from the individual contribution main mineral constituents. In detail, our main

109 research goal was to investigate the individual role of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides for

110 determining (i) the soil aggregate size distribution, (ii) aggregate stability, (iii) the consequences for OC

111 allocation into different aggregate size fractions, and (iv) the consequences for OC persistence related to

112 land-use change. We hypothesize that the mineralogical combination resulting in the largest aggregate

113 stability also results in the largest OC persistence. For this purpose, we determined the aggregate size

114 distribution of soils under both land uses, determined the OC contents of obtained aggregate fractions, and

115 tested the stability of the two largest aggregate size fractions (2–4 mm and > 4 mm). As a measure of OC

116 persistence, the OC content of aggregate size fractions was compared between the two land uses in the

117 same mineralogical combination. We generally focused on soil samples from 0–10 cm to test our current

118 hypothesis since land-use induced OC losses from soils of the study region largely occur in this depth

119 increment (*Kirsten* et al., 2019).

2. Material and methods

2.1 Study area and soil sampling

The study was conducted in the Eastern Usambara Mountains of Tanzania close to the village Amani (5°06′00″ S; 38°38′00″ E). The climate is humid monsoonal with a mean annual precipitation of 1,918 mm, and a mean annual temperature of 20.6°C with low variability within the study area (*Hamilton* and *Bensted-Smith*, 1989). The dominating Acrisols and Alisols, developed from Precambrian crystalline bedrock, are deeply weathered and highly leached, with visible clay illuviation in the subsoil (*Kirsten* et al., 2019). Briefly, all soil samples were collected on mid-slope position. We sampled six plots under forest and three under annual cropping. The site selection was done based on total clay amount determined in the field and the associated total Fe amount measured with a portable XRF device (*Kirsten* et al., 2021). We did not observe systematic differences in vegetation composition of the forest sites and NMR spectra showed a similar composition of litter for each of the two land uses investigated (*Kirsten* et al., 2021) . Furthermore, several visits in the study region over the last decade (2012, 2013, 2015, and 2018) combined with personal talks to farmers and local partners working in the region, enabled us to select cropland sites with similar agricultural management (cultivation of cassava (*Manihot esculenta*), hand hoe tillage, biomass burning before seed bed preparation). At each plot, mineral soil from three adjacent and randomly distributed soil pits at mid-slope position was sampled at 0–5 and 5–10 cm depths. Living roots were removed and aliquots of the soils were sieved to < 2 mm after drying at 40°C. For each depth increment, three undisturbed soil cores (100 cm^3) were collected for bulk density determination.

2.2 Soil analyses

Basic soil properties and selected mineralogical combinations

Bulk density was determined after drying the soil at 105°C and corrected for coarse fragments (*Carter* and *Gregorich*, 2008). Soil pH was measured in 0.01 M CaCl$_2$ at a soil to solution ratio of 1 : 2.5. Extraction of poorly crystalline Fe and Al phases as well as of Fe and Al complexed by OM was done with ammonium oxalate according to *Schwertmann* (1964). Effective cation exchange capacity (CEC$_{eff}$) and

146 base saturation (BS) were determined following the procedure provided by *Trüby* and *Aldinger* (1989).

147 Contents of OC and total N were analyzed by high temperature combustion at 950°C and thermo-

148 conductivity detection (Vario EL III/Elementar, Heraeus, Langenselbold, Germany). A combined

149 dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate extraction and subsequent texture analysis was applied to determine the

150 contents of aluminous clay and total pedogenic Fe (Fe_d). Briefly, 5–6 g soil pre-treated with 30% H_2O_2

151 were extracted with 30 g sodium dithionite ($Na_2S_2O_4$) and 1.35 L buffer solution (0.27 M trisodium citrate

152 dihydrate ($C_6H_5Na_3O_7 \cdot 2H_2O$) + 0.11 M sodium bicarbonate ($NaHCO_3$)) at 75°C in a water bath for

153 15 min (*Mehra* and *Jackson*, 1958). The Fe concentration of the extracts were measured by inductively

154 coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES) using a CIROS-CCD instrument (Spectro,

155 Kleve, Germany). The residues of the extraction were then subjected to a texture analysis using the pipette

156 method (*Gee* and *Bauder*, 1986). Details of the procedure are described in *Kirsten* et al. (2021). Based on

157 the respective content of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxide in the 5–10 cm depth increment, each

158 sample was assigned to a certain mineralogical combination. The threshold values for aluminous clay and

159 pedogenic Fe oxides to distinguish between "high" and "low" were set to 250 g kg^{-1} and 60 g kg^{-1},

160 respectively. We differentiated four groups varying in contents of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides

161 under forest (i.e. ꞌlow clay–low Feꞌ, ꞌlow clay–high Feꞌ, ꞌhigh clay–low Feꞌ, ꞌhigh clay–high Feꞌ), and

162 three analogous groups under cropland (i.e. ꞌlow clay–low Feꞌ, ꞌlow clay–high Feꞌ, ꞌhigh clay–high Feꞌ).

163

164 *Aggregate size distribution, aggregate stability and carbon contents*

165 Aggregate size distribution was determined by dry sieving as it most closely resembles soil conditions at

166 the end of the long dry season. Undisturbed soil was dried at 40°C for 48 hours. Separation of aggregate

167 sizes was conducted with a sieving machine (AS 200 control "g", Retsch, Hanau, Germany) combined

168 with a set of four sieves with meshes of 4, 2, 1, and 0.25 mm, respectively (*Larney*, 2008). The amplitude

169 was set to 1.51 mm (7.6 *g*-force), which was applied over a sieving duration of three minutes. Aggregate

170 stability was tested for the two largest aggregate size fractions (2–4 mm and > 4 mm). The fast wetting

171 pretreatment was applied to both fractions (*Le Bissonnais*, 1996) using a wet-sieving apparatus

172   (Eijkelkamp, Giesbeek, Netherlands) with sieve openings of 63 μm. This procedure simulates the

173   transition of aggregates from dry to rainy season. Sieving was conducted in ethanol for three minutes

174   (stroke 1.3 cm, f = 34 min^{-1}). All aggregates remaining on the sieve were dried at 105°C. Water-stable

175   aggregates were subsequently introduced to a sieving apparatus with a set of five sieves with mesh sizes of

176   4, 2, 1, 0.63, and 0.25 mm, respectively (*Larney*, 2008). For each obtained aggregate fraction by dry

177   sieving, OC contents analyzed by high temperature combustion at 950°C and thermo-conductivity

178   detection (Vario EL III/Elementar, Heraeus, Langenselbold, Germany). The mass corrected OC content of

179   a certain aggregate fraction was calculated using equation 1 to resemble the contribution to total soil OC,

180    $Mass - corrected\ OC_{Aggregate} = \frac{m_i}{\sum_{i=0}^{n} m_i} \times OC_{Aggregate}$ (Eq. 1)

181   where m_i represents the mass of an aggregate size fraction (g), $\sum m_i$, the sum of masses of all size

182   fractions (g), and $OC_{Aggregate}$ the OC content of aggregate fraction "*i*".

183   The mean weight diameter (MWD) of aggregates was calculated using equation 2 for undisturbed soil to

184   describe the initial aggregate size distribution, and for the large aggregate size fractions after exposure to

185   the stability test to evaluate the effect of fast wetting on aggregate stability,

186    $MWD = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{m_i}{\sum m_i} \times d_i$ (Eq. 2)

187   where m_i represents the mass of an aggregate size fraction (g), $\sum m_i$, the sum of masses of all size

188   fractions (g), and d_i the mean mesh diameter of fraction "*i*" (mm). The MWD of the aggregate fraction

189   > 4 mm was estimated by doubling the largest sieve size diameter (*Youker* and *McGuinness*, 1957).

190

191   **2.3 Statistics and calculations**

192   The mean and standard deviation of data were calculated with the software package R (version 3.6.0). To

193   test for significant differences between treatments, linear model function [lm()] was used in combination

194   with analysis of variance [aov(lm()]. The Tukey-HSD test was used as a post-hoc comparison of means;

195   the LSD-test was applied in the case of non-equality of variances. Regression analysis was used to test for

196   relationships between mineralogical properties and MWD, masses of aggregate size fractions, aggregate

197   stability, and OC losses due to land-use change. Statistical differences are reported at a significance level

198   of p < 0.05. Based on our selected threshold values for aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides, we were

199   able to achieve the following number of replicates for the mineralogical combinations: 'low clay–low Fe'

200   under forest ($n = 4$), 'low clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 4$), 'high clay–low Fe' under forest ($n = 3$), 'high

201   clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 7$); all cropland combinations ($n = 3$).

202

3. Results

3.1 Mineralogical composition and general soil properties

The selected mineralogical combinations represent a broad spectrum of possible combinations mineral aluminous clay and Fe oxide constituents. Amounts of aluminous clay varied between 149 and 438 g kg^{-1}, and Fe$_d$ between 21 and 101 g kg^{-1} across all sites and land uses. Amorphous Fe and Al phases contributed little to pedogenic oxides as indicated by low proportions of oxalate-extractable Fe and Al (Table 1). The advanced weathering state of study soils was also reflected in low pH and CEC$_{eff}$ values (Table 1).

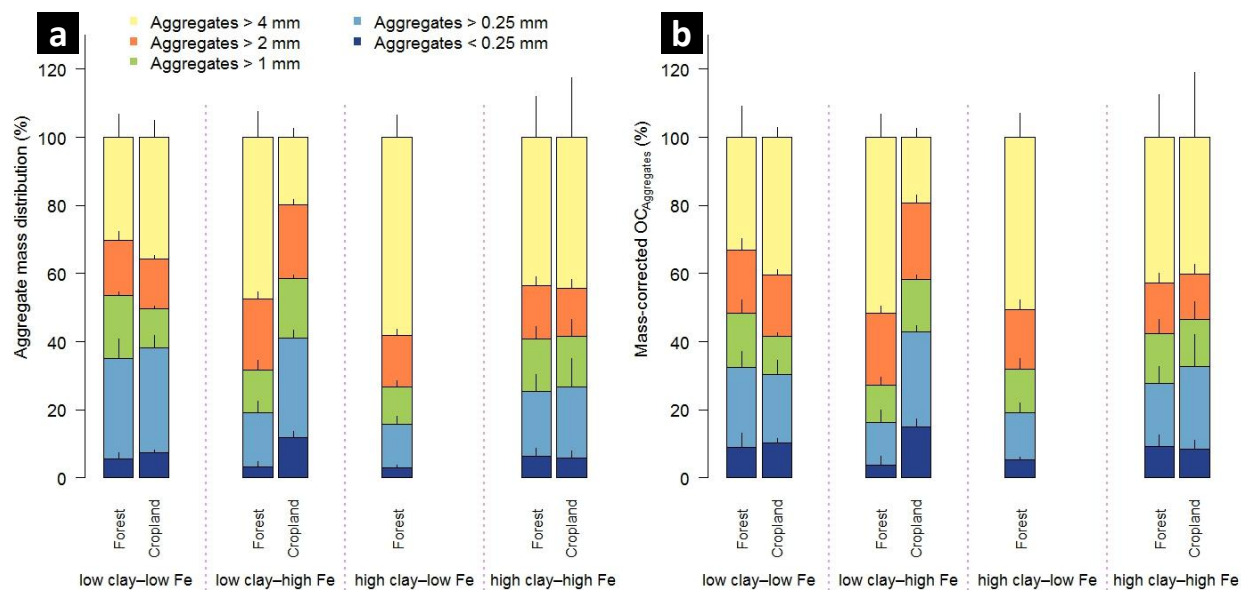
211 **Table 1**: Basic properties of the two soil depth increments sampled along the mineralogical combinations with aluminous clay
212 (clay), dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate-extractable Fe (Fe_d), total soil organic carbon content (OC), Fe_d to aluminous clay ratios
213 (Fe_d/clay), effective cation exchange capacity (CEC_{eff}), hydrogen peroxide- and dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate-treated sand and
214 silt contents, and oxalate-extractable Fe and Al content (Fe_o and Al_o). Aluminous clay represents the weight sum of kaolinite and
215 gibbsite present in the < 2-μm fraction after removal of OM and pedogenic Fe oxides. Lower case letters indicate significant
216 differences within a certain land use as separated by depth. Sample numbers for the combinations are as follows: 'low clay–low
217 Fe' under forest ($n = 4$), 'low clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 4$), 'high clay–low Fe' under forest ($n = 3$), 'high clay–high Fe'
218 under forest ($n = 7$); all cropland combinations ($n = 3$).

Land use	Mineralogical Combination	Depth	Sand	Silt	Clay	Fe_d	Fe_d/clay	Fe_o	Al_o	OC	pH	CEC_{eff}
		(cm)	(g kg⁻¹)					(g kg⁻¹)			(0.01 M CaCl₂)	(cmol_c kg⁻¹)
Forest	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	**788ᵃ** (21)	**63ᶜ** (24)	**149ᵇ** (19)	**21ᵈ** (4)	**0.15ᵇ,ᴬ** (0.04)	**1.4ᵃ** (0.3)	**1.2ᵃ** (0.2)	**76ᵃᵇ,ᴬ** (27)	**3.5ᵇ** (0.1)	**5.7ᵃ** (2.6)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**712ᵃ** (46)	**107ᵇ** (57)	**181ᵇ** (19)	**38ᵇ** (13)	**0.21ᵇᶜ,ᴬ** (0.09)	**1.8ᵃ** (0.3)	**1.4ᵃ** (0.2)	**34ᵃ,ᴬ** (6)	**3.7ᵇ** (0.1)	**2.9ᵃ** (0.1)
Forest	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	**617ᵇ** (36)	**201ᵃ** (52)	**182ᵃ** (38)	**78ᵃ** (14)	**0.45ᵃ,ᴬ** (0.12)	**1.3ᵃ** (0.2)	**1.5ᵃ** (0.2)	**57ᵇ,ᴬ** (14)	**3.8ᵃ** (0.2)	**5.6ᵃ** (1.7)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**647ᵇ** (49)	**179ᵃ** (26)	**174ᵇ** (42)	**77ᵃ** (4)	**047ᵃ,ᴬ** (0.13)	**1.3ᵇ** (0.1)	**1.6ᵃ** (0.3)	**37ᵃ,ᴬ** (7)	**3.8ᵃᵇ** (0.1)	**3.2ᵃ** (0.9)
Forest	**High** aluminous clay–	0–5	**571ᶜ** (19)	**131ᵇ** (32)	**298ᵃ** (41)	**36ᶜ** (5)	**0.12ᵇ** (0.01)	**0.9ᵇ** (0.0)	**1.3ᵃ** (0.2)	**43ᵇ** (6)	**4.0ᵃ** (0.2)	**5.2ᵃ** (1.1)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**489ᶜ** (24)	**137ᵃᵇ** (1)	**374ᵇ** (24)	**44ᵇ** (7)	**0.12ᶜ** (0.02)	**1.0ᵇ** (0.1)	**1.5ᵃ** (0.3)	**23ᵇ** (5)	**3.9ᵃᵇ** (0.1)	**3.0ᵃ** (0.4)
Forest	**High** aluminous clay–	0–5	**530ᶜ** (28)	**152ᵇ** (24)	**318ᵃ** (41)	**67ᵇ** (5)	**0.22ᵇ,ᴬ** (0.03)	**1.2ᵃᵇ** (0.3)	**1.9ᵃ** (0.8)	**95ᵃ,ᴬ** (31)	**4.1ᵃ** (0.2)	**7.8ᵃ** (1.8)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**473ᶜ** (35)	**178ᵃ** (45)	**349ᵃ** (40)	**81ᵃ** (6)	**0.23ᵇ,ᴬ** (0.02)	**1.3ᵇ** (0.1)	**1.7ᵃ** (0.2)	**35ᵃ,ᴬ** (5)	**4.0ᵃ** (0.1)	**4.9ᵃ** (4.0)
Cropland	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	**670ᵃ** (8)	**103ᶜ** (4)	**227ᵇ** (6)	**30ᶜ** (2)	**0.13ᵇ,ᴬ** (0.01)	**0.6ᶜ** (0.0)	**1.1ᶜ** (0.1)	**19ᶜ,ᴮ** (0)	**5.0ᵇ** (0.1)	**5.1ᵇ** (0.2)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**669ᵃ** (8)	**118ᵇ** (28)	**213ᵇ** (24)	**29ᶜ** (4)	**0.14ᵇ,ᴬ** (0.03)	**0.6ᶜ** (0.0)	**1.1ᵇ** (0.1)	**19ᶜ,ᴮ** (1)	**5.0ᵃᵇ** (0.1)	**5.1ᵇ** (0.2)
Cropland	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	**602ᵇ** (17)	**200ᵃ** (13)	**198ᵇ** (29)	**101ᵃ** (4)	**0.51ᵃ,ᴬ** (0.06)	**1.5ᵃ** (0.0)	**4.1ᵃ** (0.2)	**47ᵃ,ᴬ** (1)	**4.9ᶜ** (0.1)	**5.1ᵇ** (0.2)

	Depth										
High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**579**[b] (19)	**206**[a] (4)	**215**[b] (23)	**100**[a] (5)	**0.47**[a, A] (0.07)	**1.7**[a] (0.1)	**4.3**[a] (0.6)	**48**[a,A] (5)	**4.8**[b] (0.1)	**5.0**[b] (1.2)
Cropland **High** aluminous clay–	0–5	**437**[c] (14)	**129**[b] (12)	**434**[a] (18)	**63**[b] (3)	**0.15**[b, B] (0.01)	**1.2**[b] (0.0)	**1.4**[b] (0.0)	**34**[b,B] (1)	**5.4**[a] (0.0)	**9.4**[a] (0.5)
High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**399**[c] (18)	**163**[ab] (35)	**438**[a] (17)	**66**[b] (4)	**0.15**[b, B] (0.01)	**1.2**[b] (0.1)	**1.3**[b] (0.2)	**30**[b,A] (3)	**5.2**[a] (0.1)	**7.3**[a] (0.7)

3.2 Aggregate size distribution

The studied soils were highly aggregated and showed significant variation in their aggregate size distribution across the mineralogical combinations (Table 2). For most combinations, about 74% of soil mass was present in aggregates > 2 mm (Figure 1a), whereas in forest soils with low contents in both aluminous clay and Fe oxides only 40% could be assigned to aggregates > 2 mm. Only 3–12% of total soil mass remained in < 0.25 mm aggregates (Table 2). The low clay–low Fe combination under forest displayed the significant smallest MWD, with 2.9 mm in 0–5 cm depth and 3.7 mm in 5–10 cm depth (Table 2). In contrast, the low clay–high Fe combination always had the largest MWD (4.8 mm in 0–5 cm depth, and 4.6 mm in 5–10 cm depth) among the other forest combinations. Our data suggest that the MWD under forest is significantly positively influenced by the Fe_d content ($MWD_{Forest\ 0–5\ cm}$: $r^2 = 0.4$, $p < 0.001$; $MWD_{Forest\ 5–10\ cm}$: $r^2 = 0.15$, $p = 0.06$), whereas nearly no effect was observed for aluminous clay ($MWD_{Forest\ 0–5\ cm}$: $r^2 < 0.01$, $p = 0.79$; $MWD_{Forest\ 5–10\ cm}$: $r^2 < 0.01$, $p = 0.30$, Table S1). Contrary to the mineralogical combinations under forest, the significant smallest MWD under cropland was within the low clay–high Fe combination (2.7 mm in 0–5 cm depth and 2.7 mm in 5–10 cm depth; Table 2). The low clay–low Fe and high clay–high Fe cropland combinations showed no strong differences in their MWDs. Nonetheless, a significant negative linear relationship existed between MWD and the pedogenic-Fe to aluminous clay ratio ($MWD_{Cropland\ 0–5\ cm}$: $r^2 = 0.47$, $p = 0.03$; $MWD_{Forest\ 5–10\ cm}$: $r^2 = 0.47$, $p = 0.02$) for the mineralogical combinations under cropland (Table S1).

Corresponding to the smallest MWD, the low clay–low Fe forest combination contained the smallest fraction of > 4 mm aggregates. The contribution of these large aggregates under forest increased in the order: low clay–low Fe < low clay–high Fe = high clay–high Fe < high clay–low Fe (Figure 1a). For croplands, the low clay–high Fe combination comprised the smallest amount of > 4 mm aggregates whereas the high clay–high Fe combination exhibited the respective highest share (Figure 1a). The explained variance of > 4 mm aggregate mass due to aluminous clay and Fe_d was generally low, except for the cropland combinations (positive effect of aluminous clay and negative effect of pedogenic Fe; Table S1).

245
246 **Figure 1**: Aggregate size distribution of the combined 0–5 and 5–10 cm depth increments (a), and relative
247 mass-corrected OC contents (b) along the mineralogical combinations. Clay represents the weight sum of
248 kaolinite and gibbsite present in the < 2-μm fraction after removal of OM and pedogenic Fe oxides, and
249 Fe denotes the content of pedogenic Fe oxides extracted with dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate. Sample
250 numbers for the combinations are as follows: 'low clay–low Fe' under forest ($n = 4$), 'low clay–high Fe'
251 under forest ($n = 4$), 'high clay–low Fe' under forest ($n = 3$), 'high clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 7$); all
252 cropland combinations ($n = 3$).

253

254   The mineralogical combinations affected the amounts of 2–4 mm aggregates differently than those

255 of > 4 mm aggregates. The low clay–high Fe combination under forest and cropland contained slightly but

256 significantly more 2–4 mm aggregates (Figure 1a), being associated with a significantly higher Fe_d to

257 aluminous clay ratio (Table 1). In fact, in a multiple regression model for the entire data set (combined

258 land uses and depths), we observed a positive relationship between the mass of 2–4 mm aggregates and

259 Fe_d content, whereas the content of aluminous clay had a negative effect ($r^2 = 0.57$, $p < 0.001$; Table S1).

260 The same model separated by soil depth showed similar relationships (Table S1). Across all mineralogical

261 combinations, amounts of < 0.25 mm aggregates were principally comparable, despite of significantly

262 higher shares in the low clay–low Fe and high clay–high Fe combinations under forest. In contrast, a

263 significant larger amount of < 0.25 mm aggregates was observed in the low clay–high Fe combination

264 under cropland. In this mineralogical combination, land-use change caused a quadrupling of < 0.25 mm

265 aggregate mass from about 30 to nearly 120 g kg^{-1} (Table 2). In contrast to the macroaggregate fractions

266   shown above, there was no correlation between mineralogical parameters and the mass of < 0.25 mm

267   aggregates, neither for the entire data set (combined land uses and depths) nor when separated by soil

268   depth (Table S1). Only under cropland we observed a negative effect of aluminous clay and a positive

269   influence of Fe_d on microaggregate contents (aggregate mass < 0.25 $mm_{0-5 \text{ cm}}$: $r^2 = 0.8$, $p = 0.004$;

270   aggregate mass < 0.25 $mm_{5-10 \text{ cm}}$: $r^2 = 0.61$, $p = 0.03$).

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Table 2: Aggregate masses (mass) and OC content of aggregate size fractions (dry sieving) within different combinations of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides, OC change (ΔOC) between land uses within a certain mineralogical combination and depth, and related mean weight diameter (MWD). Aluminous clay represents the weight sum of kaolinite and gibbsite present in the <2-µm fraction after removal of OM and pedogenic Fe oxides. Lower case letters indicate significant differences within a certain land use separated by depth, and capital letters denote significant differences between land uses. Sample numbers for the combinations are as follows: 'low clay–low Fe' under forest (n = 4), 'low clay–high Fe' under forest (n = 4), 'high clay–high Fe' under forest (n = 3), 'high clay–low Fe' under forest (n = 7); all cropland combinations (n = 3).

Land use	Mineralogical Combination	Depth (cm)	>4 mm mass ($g\,kg^{-1}$)	>4 mm OC	>4 mm ΔOC (%)	2–4 mm mass ($g\,kg^{-1}$)	2–4 mm OC	2–4 mm ΔOC (%)	1–2 mm mass ($g\,kg^{-1}$)	1–2 mm OC	1–2 mm ΔOC (%)	0.25–1 mm mass ($g\,kg^{-1}$)	0.25–1 mm OC	0.25–1 mm ΔOC (%)	<0.25 mm mass ($g\,kg^{-1}$)	<0.25 mm OC	<0.25 mm ΔOC (%)	MWD (mm)
Forest	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	$249^{c,A}$ (33)	$76^{a,A}$ (32)	na	$144^{b,A}$ (21)	$83^{a,A}$ (22)	na	$191^{a,A}$ (4)	$65^{a,A}$ (9)	na	$345^{a,A}$ (40)	$56^{ab,A}$ (18)	na	$70^{a,A}$ (15)	$125^{ab,A}$ (51)	na	$2.9^{c,A}$ (0.3)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	$343^{b,A}$ (61)	$40^{a,A}$ (8)	na	$176^{ab,A}$ (21)	$39^{a,A}$ (10)	na	$181^{a,A}$ (15)	$27^{a,A}$ (9)	na	$257^{a,A}$ (36)	$28^{a,A}$ (5)	na	$44^{ab,B}$ (11)	$51^{a,A}$ (17)	na	$3.7^{a,A}$ (0.4)
Forest	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	$493^{ab,A}$ (99)	$68^{ab,A}$ (19)	na	$210^{a,A}$ (20)	$65^{a,A}$ (22)	na	$115^{b,B}$ (38)	$62^{a,A}$ (25)	na	$150^{c,B}$ (42)	$49^{b,A}$ (25)	na	$33^{b,B}$ (14)	$62^{b,A}$ (36)	na	$4.8^{a,A}$ (0.7)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	$451^{ab,A}$ (36)	$40^{a,A}$ (11)	na	$210^{a,A}$ (27)	$36^{ab,B}$ (5)	na	$139^{ab,B}$ (10)	$29^{a,A}$ (7)	na	$166^{b,B}$ (24)	$31^{a,A}$ (11)	na	$34^{a,B}$ (20)	$44^{a,A}$ (18)	na	$4.6^{a,A}$ (0.3)
Forest	**High** aluminous clay–	0–5	604^{a} (84)	38^{b} (5)	na	140^{b} (21)	63^{a} (34)	na	100^{b} (21)	80^{a} (51)	na	125^{c} (31)	62^{ab} (28)	na	31^{b} (13)	101^{ab} (59)	na	4.3^{ab} (0.4)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	561^{a} (47)	26^{a} (14)	na	163^{b} (12)	28^{b} (7)	na	118^{b} (17)	22^{a} (3)	na	127^{b} (21)	25^{a} (6)	na	30^{a} (1)	43^{a} (18)	na	4.1^{a} (0.2)
Forest	**High** aluminous clay–	0–5	$397^{b,A}$ (91)	$86^{a,A}$ (21)	na	$157^{a,A}$ (27)	$89^{a,A}$ (32)	na	$163^{a,A}$ (32)	$99^{a,A}$ (50)	na	$208^{b,B}$ (36)	$91^{a,A}$ (38)	na	$74^{a,A}$ (14)	$133^{a,A}$ (47)	na	$4.0^{b,A}$ (0.6)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	$474^{ab,A}$ (139)	$35^{a,A}$ (7)	na	$156^{a,A}$ (27)	$33^{ab,A}$ (4)	na	$146^{ab,A}$ (41)	$30^{a,A}$ (4)	na	$172^{b,A}$ (61)	$34^{a,A}$ (4)	na	$52^{a,A}$ (26)	$51^{a,A}$ (6)	na	$4.6^{a,A}$ (1.0)
Cropland	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	$347^{a,A}$ (69)	$20^{b,B}$ (3)	-73	$147^{b,A}$ (13)	$21^{c,B}$ (1)	-75	$115^{b,B}$ (4)	$17^{c,B}$ (1)	-74	$318^{a,A}$ (52)	$11^{c,B}$ (3)	-80	$74^{b,A}$ (12)	$24^{c,B}$ (1)	-81	$3.6^{a,A}$ (0.5)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	$368^{b,A}$ (28)	$20^{b,A}$ (1)	-50	$143^{b,A}$ (8)	$22^{b,B}$ (5)	-44	$113^{b,B}$ (10)	$17^{b,B}$ (2)	-37	$299^{a,A}$ (15)	$11^{c,B}$ (2)	-61	$77^{b,A}$ (1)	$24^{c,A}$ (3)	-53	$3.7^{b,A}$ (0.2)
Cropland	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	$201^{b,B}$ (39)	$47^{a,A}$ (7)	-30	$212^{a,A}$ (12)	$49^{a,A}$ (2)	-25	$173^{a,A}$ (18)	$42^{a,A}$ (3)	-32	$296^{a,A}$ (33)	$46^{a,A}$ (1)	-6	$119^{a,A}$ (4)	$62^{a,A}$ (2)	±0	$2.7^{b,B}$ (0.3)

High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**194**[c, B] (11)	**47**[a, A] (13)	+18	**224**[a, A] (15)	**49**[a, A] (4)	+36	**177**[a, A] (1)	**42**[a, A] (6)	+45	**287**[a, A] (13)	**45**[a, A] (3)	+45	**118**[a, A] (29)	**58**[a, A] (9)	+32	**2.7**[c, B] (0.1)
Cropland **High** aluminous clay–	0–5	**296**[ab, A] (40)	**26**[b, B] (6)	-71	**159**[b, A] (8)	**29**[b, B] (7)	-67	**191**[a, A] (2)	**28**[b, B] (4)	-71	**278**[a, A] (25)	**35**[b, A] (2)	-62	**77**[b, A] (10)	**41**[b, B] (1)	-69	**3.3**[ab, A] (0.3)
High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	**593**[a, A] (95)	**25**[b, A] (3)	-29	**118**[b, A] (21)	**26**[b, B] (2)	-21	**107**[b, A] (29)	**25**[b, A] (4)	-17	**138**[b, A] (37)	**32**[b, A] (3)	-6	**43**[b, A] (10)	**41**[b, B] (5)	-20	**5.3**[a, A] (0.6)

na = not applicable.

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In summary, mineralogical combinations and land use significantly affected the aggregate size distribution of soils, despite quantitative relations to mineralogical proxies could not be observed for each aggregate class. In undisturbed forest soils, higher pedogenic Fe contents resulted in increasing MWD especially in 0–5 cm depth and significantly larger amounts of > 2 mm aggregates. The conversion from forest to croplands either decreased MWD, as particularly observed for the low clay–high Fe combination, or had no effect (low clay–low Fe). Overall, the observed differences in aggregate masses and MWD were surprisingly moderate, given the widely differing contents in aluminous clay and Fe oxides across the mineralogical combinations.

3.3 Aggregate stability

In general, there was little variation of MWD values for > 4 mm aggregates over all mineralogical combinations. In fact, the MWD of this fraction was always close to its calculated mean diameter (6 mm; calculation was done after (*Youker* and *McGuinness*, 1957)), overall indicating a high stability. Nevertheless, there were some minor differences in aggregate stability across mineralogical combinations. The low clay–low Fe and high clay–low Fe combinations had a significantly lower aggregate stability in comparison with the two other combinations under the two land uses (Table 3). The slightly higher abundance of 2–4 mm aggregates in the low clay–high Fe combination under forest and cropland was accompanied by a significantly higher aggregate stability under both land uses (Table 2 and 3). In summary, all aggregates can be classified as stable with only minor differences imposed by the mineralogical combinations. Slightly higher aggregate stability was associated with a larger amount of pedogenic Fe, and increasing Fe_d to aluminous clay ratios, whereas differences in the amount of aluminous clay had almost no effect on the aggregate stability (Table S2).

Table 3: Aggregate stability of selected aggregate size fractions after applying the fast wetting procedure along the different combinations of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides, indicated by the resulting mean weight diameter (MWD). Aluminous clay represents the weight sum of kaolinite and gibbsite present in the < 2-µm fraction after removal of OM and pedogenic Fe oxides. Lower case letters indicate significant differences within a certain land use separated by depth, and capital letters denote significant differences between land uses. Sample numbers for the combinations are as follows: 'low clay–low Fe' under forest ($n = 4$), 'low clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 4$), 'high clay–low Fe' under forest ($n = 3$), 'high clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 7$); all cropland combinations ($n = 3$).

Land use	Mineralogical combination	Depth	MWD	
			Fast wetting > 4 mm	Fast wetting 2–4 mm
		(cm)	(mm)	
Forest	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	4.9[b, A] (0.4)	2.6[b, A] (0.1)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	5.1[a, A] (0.3)	2.4[b, A] (0.3)
Forest	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	5.6[a, A] (0.2)	2.8[a, A] (0.1)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	4.9[a, A] (0.9)	2.7[a, A] (0.1)
Forest	**High** aluminous clay–	0–5	5.4[ab] (0.4)	2.7[b] (0.0)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	4.5[a] (1.2)	2.4[b] (0.3)
Forest	**High** aluminous clay–	0–5	5.5[a, A] (0.2)	2.6[b, A] (0.1)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	5.2[a, A] (0.4)	2.6[ab, B] (0.1)
Cropland	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	4.4[b, A] (0.1)	2.6[c, A] (0.0)
	Low pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	4.9[b, A] (0.3)	2.4[b, A] (0.1)
Cropland	**Low** aluminous clay–	0–5	5.2[a, A] (0.2)	2.9[a, A] (0.0)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	5.3[ab, A] (0.1)	2.8[a, A] (0.0)
Cropland	**High** aluminous clay–	0–5	4.9[a, B] (0.2)	2.7[b, A] (0.1)
	High pedogenic Fe oxides	5–10	5.6[a, A] (0.2)	2.8[a, A] (0.0)

3.4 Organic carbon in soils and aggregate size fractions

Variation in mineral constituents caused different soil OC contents, ranging between 19 to 95 g OC kg^{-1} across all sites including both land use and depth (Table 1). A significant proportion of the total OC content of all forest soils was present in > 4 mm aggregates in both depth increments (low clay–low Fe:

318   33% < high clay–high Fe: 43% < high clay–low Fe: 51% < low clay–high Fe: 52%; Figure 1b). Forest to

319   cropland conversion caused OC losses from most aggregate size fractions (Figure 2). For the > 4 mm

320   aggregates this was significantly modified by the mineralogical combinations at least at 0–5 cm depth,

321   generally following the order: low clay–high Fe < high clay–high Fe < low clay–low Fe (Table S3).

322   Losses of OC from aggregate size fractions were generally higher at 0–5 than at 5–10 cm depth (Figure 2).

323   As mentioned above, no significant loss of total OC occurred for the low clay–high Fe combination,

324   irrespective of the significant mass redistribution of the > 4 mm aggregate fraction into smaller aggregate

325   fractions (Table 2). Although there were differences in OC losses among mineralogical combinations,

326   there was little indication that coarser aggregate size fractions lost more OC than smaller ones (Table 2).

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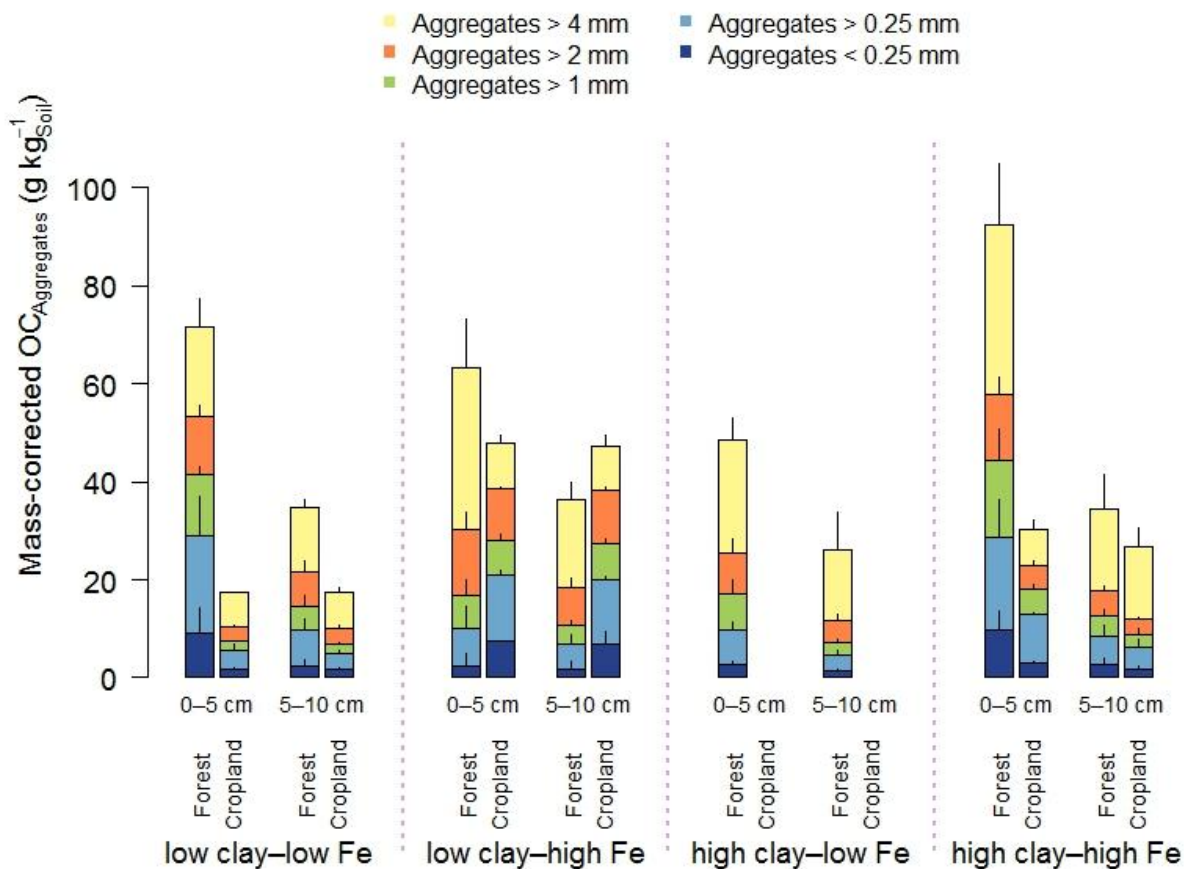
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329   **Figure 2**: Mass-corrected OC contents of aggregate size fractions along the mineralogical combinations.
330   Clay represents the weight sum of kaolinite and gibbsite present in the < 2-μm fraction after removal of
331   OM and pedogenic Fe oxides, and Fe denotes the content of pedogenic Fe oxides extracted with
332   dithionite-citrate-bicarbonate. Sample numbers for the combinations are as follows: 'low clay–low Fe'

333   under forest ($n = 4$), 'low clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 4$), 'high clay–low Fe' under forest ($n = 3$), 'high
334   clay–high Fe' under forest ($n = 7$); all cropland combinations ($n = 3$).
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4. Discussion

The aggregate size distribution of soils along the mineralogical combinations under both land uses were in the range of values reported for African soils. For example, soils with strongly contrasting clay content (220 and 650 g kg^{-1}) but similar clay mineralogy (kaolinite) in the central highlands of Kenya displayed macroaggregate contents of 245 and 636 g kg^{-1} soil, respectively (*Gentile* et al., 2010). In addition, for soils from the catchment of the Riru river also located in the central highlands of Kenya it was shown that macroaggregates (2−4.2 mm) displayed a large stability (*Kamamia* et al., 2021). The reported MWD's after application of the fast-wetting stability test were 2.5 mm for cropland and 3.2 mm for indigenous forest sites (*Kamamia* et al., 2021). These values are close to those observed in our study soils for 2–4 mm aggregates. In contrast, soils in Brazil under native forest vegetation and similar mineral composition (kaolinite, gibbsite, hematite) even subsumed over 90% of total aggregate mass in > 2 mm aggregates (*Maltoni* et al., 2017). Nonetheless, reported data all point at a better soil structure and aggregate stability of tropical soils dominated by low-activity clay minerals and well-crystalline Fe oxides, which is consistent with all mineralogical combinations of this study.

4.1 Aggregation and aggregate stability as controlled by aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides

Our data demonstrates relatively small differences in aggregation among the generally well-aggregated study soils, being characterized by high aggregate stability despite of large variations in aluminous clay (factor three) and pedogenic Fe (factor five) contents. Yet, we noticed some distinct modifications of the aggregation size distribution and aggregate stability in both forest and cropland soils. The low clay–low Fe soil under forest had a significantly smaller amount of > 4 mm and 2–4 mm aggregates and a significantly lower MWD than all other mineralogical combinations. Notably, a combined increase in aluminous clay and Fe oxides did not necessarily cause a shift towards larger aggregates and thus higher MWD (see low clay–high Fe forest). Furthermore, the low clay–low Fe and high clay–high Fe combinations under forest contained more < 0.25 mm aggregates. Thus, under undisturbed soil conditions it appears that the formation of larger aggregates is promoted if one of the two aggregate-forming mineral

362 fractions is more abundant than the other (high clay–low Fe and low clay–high Fe combinations). We

363 assume that the positive effect of increasing aluminous clay content on the aggregate mass > 4 mm is

364 related to the hybrid electrostatic properties of kaolinite on edges (variable) and surfaces (permanent

365 negative), which enable the formation of characteristic cards-house structures (*Qafoku* and *Sumner*, 2002).

366 In addition to this increase in aggregation caused by the dominance in kaolinitic properties (i.e. high

367 clay–low Fe), we also expect that, similar to the study by *Dultz* et al. (2019), there are mixing ratios

368 between aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe minerals, which lead to improved aggregation (greater MWD;

369 i.e. low clay–high Fe). This effect is probably explained by changes in the electrostatic properties of the

370 mineralogical combinations, as was shown in the study by *Hou* et al. (2007) for kaolinite in different

371 relative combinations with goethite and hematite. Nevertheless, aluminous clay is the decisive control for

372 macroaggregation in these weathered tropical soils, confirming the often described promoting effect of

373 increasing clay content on aggregation (*Feller* and *Beare*, 1997). Furthermore, the high clay–low Fe and

374 high clay–high Fe combinations under forest also nicely demonstrate how nearly equal amounts of

375 aluminous clay plus pedogenic Fe oxides (i.e. similar clay contents) cause different amounts of > 4 mm

376 aggregates. Consequently, the connection between textural properties and aggregation can remain hidden

377 (*Barthès* et al., 2008) without considering the mineralogical composition of the whole clay fraction

378 (*Fernández-Ugalde* et al., 2013; *King* et al., 2019; *West* et al., 2004).

379   Land-use change had a distinct impact on aggregate distribution like indicated in other studies

380 (*Feller* and *Beare*, 1997; *Six* et al., 2002) and depended also on the mineralogical combinations, though

381 croplands not followed the trajectory observed under forest. A significantly lower MWD under low

382 clay–high Fe rather than low clay–low Fe can be mainly attributed to a reduced amount of > 4 mm

383 aggregates. We assume that differences in the ratio of pedogenic Fe to aluminous clay in the low clay–low

384 Fe and high clay–high Fe (0.13 to 0.15) in comparison with the low clay–high Fe combination (0.47 to

385 0.51) under cropland explains the stability of 'card-house' structures like described for mineralogically

386 similar Oxisols from Brazil and India (*Bartoli* et al., 1992). Accordingly, a higher Fe_d to aluminous clay

387 ratios seems to be disadvantageous for the formation of such structures, especially in > 4 mm aggregates.

388 The different pH-dependent charge characteristics of kaolinite and pedogenic Fe oxides (*Kaiser* and

389 *Guggenberger*, 2003), and their relative share can lead to altered charge properties of soils (*Anda* et al.,

390 2008). We hypothesize, that an increasing amount of Fe oxides in the investigated mineralogical

391 combinations adds more positive charge, thus possibly reducing structural integrity and aggregate stability

392 if not sufficiently compensated by OM or clay minerals. Furthermore, in the low clay–high Fe cropland

393 combination, land-use change caused a significant four-fold increase of < 0.25 mm aggregates due to the

394 breakdown of > 4 mm aggregates. Nonetheless, our results show that agricultural management does not

395 necessarily decreases macroaggregation and related MWD's, like reported in *Rabbi* et al. (2015).

396   The dominant role of pedogenic Fe oxides for macroaggregation under undisturbed tropical soil

397 conditions proposed by *Six* et al. (2002) cannot be confirmed in our study. This is because the low

398 clay–high Fe forest soil contained a smaller amount of > 4 mm aggregates compared to the high clay–low

399 Fe forest soil in both depth increments. Consequently, this rather points at the importance of kaolinite for

400 macroaggregation, which is in line with results from two Oxisols in Brazil (*Vrdoljak* and *Sposito*, 2002),

401 showing kaolinite being the backbone of the investigated aggregate size fractions. The less intense

402 formation of > 4 mm aggregates in the low clay–high Fe forest combination was also observed under

403 cropland, whereas the low clay–low Fe and high clay–high Fe croplands showed either no significant

404 decrease or even an increase in > 4 mm aggregate mass. Thus, simultaneous abundance of large amounts

405 of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides preserved a higher aggregate stability than under

406 mineralogically imbalanced conditions, although no conclusions can be drawn for the high clay–low Fe

407 combination. Nonetheless, > 4 mm aggregates had a higher resistance to field operations in mineralogical

408 combinations with lower Fe_d to aluminous clay ratios (0.13 to 0.15).

409   In contrast to the > 4 mm aggregates, 2–4 mm aggregates corresponded more clearly to the positive

410 effect of pedogenic Fe oxides on aggregation and aggregate stability as proposed for weathered tropical

411 soils (*Igwe* et al., 2013; *Peng* et al., 2015; *Six* et al., 2002). Both, the low clay–high Fe forest and low

412 clay–high Fe cropland soils contained somewhat but significantly more 2–4 mm aggregates than other

413 mineral combinations in concert with a higher aggregate stability of this particular fraction. This finding

414   also demonstrates that mineral interactions forming water-stable aggregates in tropical soils are differently

415   affected by a given mineralogical combination. Higher Fe_d to aluminous clay ratios (> 0.45) modulate

416   aggregate distribution towards aggregates 2–4 mm, whereas distinctly lower values (high clay–low Fe

417   forest: 0.12) shifted the maximum to > 4 mm aggregates. Overall, the two macroaggregate fractions

418   discussed above are differentially affected by the mineralogical combinations, although the magnitude was

419   less than expected, given the pronounced variation in aluminous clay and Fe contents.

420

421   **4.2 Importance of aggregation for OC persistence – effects of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe ox-**

422   **ides**

423   Clay minerals and Fe oxides are considered as important mineral constituents fostering aggregation and

424   subsequent OC storage via physical protection (*Denef* et al., 2004). The overwhelming portion of OC in

425   the studied topsoils resided in mineral-organic associations (35−81%), whereas OC occluded in

426   aggregates amounted to 7−24%, with a lower share under cropland than forest as determined by density

427   fractionation (*Kirsten* et al., 2021). The low clay–high Fe cropland had an OC content more than twice

428   larger than that of the low clay–low Fe cropland, but comprised a significantly smaller MWD. Thus, a

429   shift towards more macroaggregation, indicated by a larger MWD in certain mineralogical combinations,

430   did not result in higher total OC storage, like shown for other tropical soils (*Barthès* et al., 2008; *Bartoli* et

431   al., 1991; *Spaccini* et al., 2001). The OC content of the > 4 mm aggregate and 2–4 mm aggregate fractions

432   accounted for 42 to 73% of the total soil OC content (Figure 1b). This, however, does not *per se* indicate

433   the relevance of macroaggregation for OC storage in weathered tropical soils like proposed by others

434   (*Feller* and *Beare*, 1997; *King* et al., 2019; *Six* et al., 2002). The high clay–low Fe forest with the highest

435   share in > 4 mm and 2–4 mm aggregates had significant lower OC contents in these fractions than most

436   other mineralogical combinations. Comparing forest with cropland soils (Table 2), we observed

437   significantly reduced OC contents in the majority of macroaggregate fractions of the low clay–low Fe and

438   high clay–high Fe croplands, as reported in other studies (*Blanco-Canqui* and *Lal*, 2004; *Lobe* et al.,

439   2011). In contrast, fewer changes of aggregate-associated and total soil OC contents was observed in the

low clay–high Fe combination, despite it experienced the strongest disaggregation of the largest macroaggregates (Figure 1a and Figure 2). We conclude that larger amounts of > 2 mm aggregates or higher stability during wet sieving not automatically translates into higher aggregate-associated OC contents, as reported for Ferralsols (*Maltoni* et al., 2017). Given all these observations and the fact that occluded OM determined by density fractionation was mostly of subordinate relevance, particularly in croplands, OC storage in study soils seems rather disconnected from their aggregation status. Consequently, the loss of large aggregates and the mass redistribution into smaller aggregate size fractions does not automatically imply a loss of soil OC, because a substantial part of the OC in aggregate fractions is bound to minerals with a higher persistence against land-use change (*Kirsten* et al., 2021). Here, density fractionation could shed more light on the nature and quantity of OM located in certain aggregate size fractions.

Microaggregates contained the highest OC content per unit of mass for almost all mineralogical combinations, depth increments, and land uses (Table 2). This is in line with the findings of *Chenu* and *Plante* (2006) and *Lobe* et al. (2011) that microaggregates can significantly contribute to OC storage. As aggregates were isolated by dry sieving, these microaggregates were not located inside larger aggregates, rendering them principally better accessible for OC allocation. Particularly OC contained in the < 0.25 mm aggregates of the low clay–high Fe combination revealed a strong persistence against land-use change, which explains well the unaltered soil OC contents upon land-use change.

5. Conclusions

Classification of soils into mineralogical combinations of aluminous clay and pedogenic Fe oxides revealed significant effects of mineral constituents on soil structure and related OC storage in weathered tropical soils. Despite that, overall patterns across combinations were more similar than different, *i.e.*, always comprising a high level of macroaggregation and aggregate stability. Aggregates > 4 mm of the low clay–low Fe and high clay–high Fe combinations were less affected by land-use change, thus pedogenic Fe in a certain relation with aluminous clay (0.13 to 0.23) seems beneficial to maintain the structural integrity of macroaggregates. Despite the high physical stability, OC contents of macroaggregates declined substantially in most mineralogical combinations during forest–cropland conversion. This highlights the fact that structural integrity of macroaggregates during land-use change cannot be equated with OC persistence. For the low clay–high Fe combination, substantial destruction of > 4 mm aggregates during land-use change due to agricultural management was also not accompanied by higher OC losses. Hence, we must reject our initial hypothesis that the mineralogical combination that results in the greatest aggregate stability best preserves OC during the conversion from forest to cropland. Thus, the formation of macroaggregates cannot be considered as a main stabilization process for OC in strongly weathered soils of the humid tropics. We suggest that the formation of mineral-organic associations as part of the aggregate size fractions is the most important process that preserves OC during land-use change in these soils.

7. Author contribution

KK, RM, MK, and KHF designed the project. MK, KK, RM, DNK, and KHF collected soil or data to supported the sampling campaign. MK, KK, RM, and KHF evaluated data and all authors conducted a thorough critical review of the manuscript. MK, KK, and RM wrote the manuscript with contribution of all authors.

8. Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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