

Content of soil organic matter-carbon and labile fractions depend on specific-local combinations of mineral phase parameters-combinations

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Abstract. Soil organic matter (SOM) is an indispensable component of terrestrial ecosystems. Soil organic carbon (SOC) dynamics are influenced by a number of well-known abiotic factors such as clay content, soil pH or pedogenic oxides. These parameters interact with each other and vary in their influence on SOC depending on local conditions. To investigate the latter, the dependence of SOC accumulation on parameters and parameter combinations was statistically assessed that vary on a local scale depending on parent material, soil texture class and land use. To this end, topsoils were sampled from arable and grassland sites in southwestern Germany at four regions with different soil parent material. Principal component analysis (PCA) revealed a distinct clustering of data according to parent material and soil texture that varied largely between the local sampling regions, while land use explained PCA results only to a small extent. The ~~obtained PCA clusters were differentiated into total/global clusters that contain the entire dataset or major large proportions of it the entire dataset and local clusters which only representing only a smaller part of the dataset.~~ ~~and the different local clusters of the dataset were further~~ All clusters were analyzed for the relationships between SOC concentrations (SOC %) and mineral phase parameters in order to assess specific parameter combinations explaining SOC and its labile fractions hot water-extractable C (HWE) and microbial biomass C (MBC). Analyses were focused on soil parameters that are known as possible predictors for the occurrence and stabilization of SOC (e.g. fine silt plus clay and pedogenic oxides). Regarding the ~~total global clusters dataset~~, we found significant ~~relationships, correlations by bivariate models,~~ between SOC ~~and~~ its labile fractions ~~hot water-extractable C (HWE) and microbial biomass C (MBC), respectively~~ and the applied predictors. ~~Yet some correlation coefficients indicate a partly were partially low explained variances indicated the limited suitability of bivariate models. Mixed-Hence, mixed~~ effect models were used to identify specific parameter combinations that significantly explain SOC and its labile fractions of the different clusters. Comparing measured and mixed effect models-predicted SOC values revealed acceptable to very good regression coefficients ($R^2 = 0.41-0.91$) ~~and low to acceptable root mean square error, (RMSE = 0.20-0.42 %)~~. Thereby, the predictors and predictor combinations clearly differed between models obtained for the whole data set and the different cluster groups. At a local scale site specific combinations of parameters explained the variability of organic ~~matter-carbon~~ notably better, while the application of ~~total/global~~ models to local clusters resulted in less ~~explained variability variance and a higher RMSE sufficient performance~~. Independent from that, the ~~overall~~ explained variance ~~by marginal fixed effects generally~~ decreased in the order SOC > HWE > MBC, showing that labile fractions depend less on soil properties but presumably more on processes such as than presumeably on organic ~~carbonmatter~~ input and turnover in soil.

37 1 Introduction

38 Soil as an inherent part of terrestrial ecosystems acts as a major regulator of the organic carbon (OC) cycle especially through the
39 function of OC storage (Heimann and Reichstein, 2008; Scharlemann et al., 2014). Hence, it is of utmost relevance and a focus of
40 ongoing research to define models and parameter sets that best describe and predict soil organic carbon (SOC) contents of soils.
41 Further it is required to identify the drivers for SOC storage at different scales and sites to adapt the management of soils. Overall,
42 the relevance of parameters for quantification of SOC is often described by bivariate relationships (Hassink et al., 1993; Barré et
43 al., 2017). Yet, SOC and its potential sequestration by formation of organo-mineral associations depends on combinations and
44 interactions of several environmental factors or soil properties, so that the number of multivariate applications to estimate the
45 accumulation of SOC is increasing- (Hobley et al., 2015; Heinze et al., 2018).

46 In addition to total SOC, its labile subfractions such as hot water extractable carbon (HWEC) or microbial biomass carbon (MBC)
47 are more and more recognized as fast reacting SOC pools in order to analyze carbon dynamics in soils (Weigel et al., 2011; Lal,
48 2016). The HWEC is known as a measure of the bioavailable and mineralizable fraction of SOC (Spohn and Giani, 2011; Heller
49 and Zeitz, 2012). The MBC is a quantitative measure of the microbial community that plays an indispensable role for the turnover
50 of SOC. ~~Additionally, Because of the faster turnover labile carbon fractions~~ such as MBC quantitatively dominate in short-term
51 ~~turnover processes, should be considered more frequently to improve the understanding of~~ while changes in SOC will only become
52 ~~significant over periods of decades~~ dynamics in various regions. Therefore, MBC is expedient to explain SOC dynamics (Liang et
53 al., 2017). ~~Determination of HWEC and MBC, allows to get a representative measure of the labile SOC pool. Labile carbon fractions~~
54 ~~were recently simulated~~ (Wieder et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2021) ~~but In contrast, much less research and attempts for quantitative~~
55 ~~modeling of these labile fractions~~ compared to SOC ~~they were less considered~~ have been done in the past (Liddle et al., 2020).
56 ~~Because of the faster turnover labile carbon fractions should be considered more frequently to improve the understanding of SOC~~
57 ~~dynamics in various regions.~~

58 It is well known that factors such as climate, topography, vegetation, parent material and time are major factors influencing contents
59 and storage of SOC (Jenny, 1941). Accordingly, large scale (often national or continental) surveys often include geographical
60 properties, vegetation types, general forms of land use as well as climatic site conditions to explain the variability of SOC
61 (Wiesmeier et al., 2014; Gray et al., 2015). Consequently, vegetation and anthropogenic influence by land use and land use changes
62 are essential factors to model SOC accumulation and dynamics (Poepflau and Don, 2013; Dignac et al., 2017). The relevance of the
63 parent material for SOC sequestration and stocks was discussed for sites and small landscapes of a few km² (Barré et al., 2017;
64 Angst et al., 2018) as well as for large areas on the scale of regions or countries (Wiesmeier et al., 2013; Vos et al., 2019). The
65 potential influence of parent material on SOC is mostly considered by parameters of soil mineralogy and texture (Herold et al.,
66 2014). Factors such as climate, topography, parent material, vegetation or land use are well suited to explain the variability of SOC
67 at larger scales or at landscapes with a high variability concerning these factors. In contrast, for smaller, local study areas or rather
68 uniform areas with a low factor variability an inclusion of these factors as variables is less ~~suitable~~ expedient (Wiesmeier et al.,
69 2019).

70 In addition to ~~or even instead of~~ these general factors, further parameters describing the soil composition in a more specific way,
71 become relevant at regional or local scale setting boundaries for SOC accumulation, e.g. by the formation of organo-mineral
72 associations. For an identification of SOC variations due to site specific characteristics selected parameters are used which are
73 mostly known as indicators for stabilization of SOC such as content of fine silt, clay and pedogenic oxides or microbial parameters
74 such as microbial biomass and amino sugars (Angst et al., 2018; Quesada et al., 2020). There are indications that for the explanation
75 of SOC variability on a local to regional scale soil parameters (~~e.g.e.g., pedogenic oxides, texture fractions~~) instead of factors (~~e.g.,~~
76 ~~parent material or climate~~) are especially suitable. Models based on soil parameters also allow to identify possible drivers of SOC
77 stabilization while using the above mentioned general factors would not deliver a satisfying result (Wiesmeier et al., 2019; Adhikari
78 et al., 2020).

79 Organo-mineral associations are highly relevant for stabilization and accumulation of SOC and its labile fractions (Lützow et al.,
 80 2006). It is well known that the different mineral particle size classes vary in their ability to interact with SOC, forming organo-
 81 mineral associations (Arrouays et al., 2006; Lützow et al., 2007). On one hand coarse particle size fractions such as sand, coarse silt
 82 (cSilt) and medium silt (mSilt) contribute less to interactions between SOC and the mineral phase while on the other hand fine silt
 83 (fSilt) and clay dominate such interactions (Ludwig et al., 2003). In addition, the mineral composition of the fine fraction, i.e. types
 84 of clay minerals and pedogenic oxides, is relevant for the interactions of SOC with the mineral phase (Kleber et al., 2015; Porras et
 85 al., 2017). Especially iron and aluminum oxides interact with SOC leading to its sequestration (Mikutta et al., 2006). Stabilization
 86 of SOC is further enhanced by multivalent cations such as Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ going along with higher soil pH (Kaiser et al., 2012;
 87 O'Brien et al., 2015). Covering on one hand all quantitative relevant cations and on the other hand being an overall measure of soils
 88 sorptive properties the effective cation exchange capacity (ECEC) provides an overall measure to model cation impact on SOC
 89 storage (Kaiser et al., 2012; O'Brien et al., 2015). Rock fragments (soil skeleton) contribute only little to SOC storage (Poeplau et
 90 al., 2017). Anyhow, the fraction of rock fragments is considered as a relevant parameter to assess SOC accumulation due to a
 91 potential saturation effect in soils with a high rock fragment content in consequence of a disproportionately high input of organic
 92 matter in the fine soil fraction (Bornemann et al., 2011).

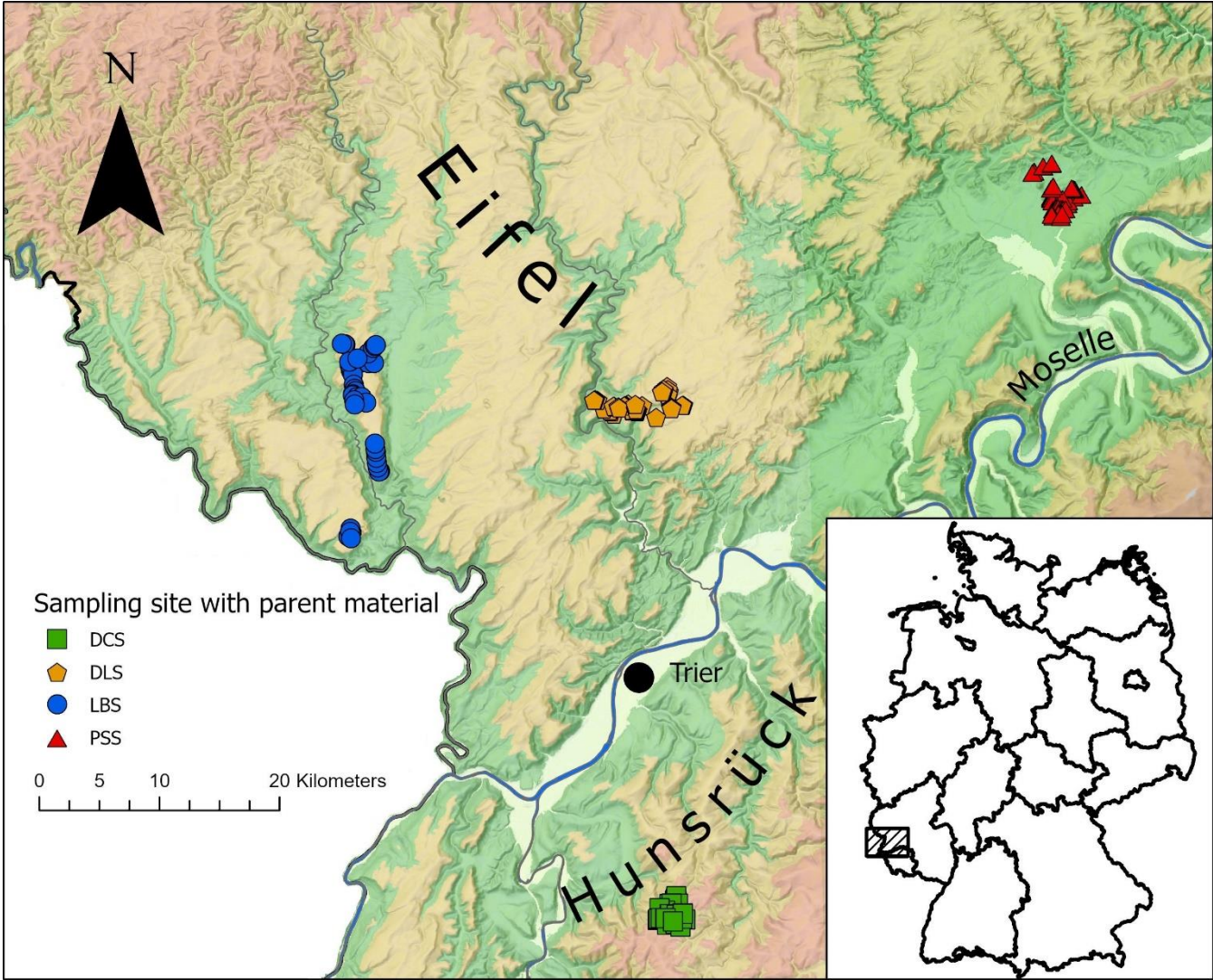
93 Consequently, understanding SOC as a dynamic equilibrium of heterogeneous compounds with distinct relationships to various
 94 components of the soil mineral phase (Lehmann and Kleber, 2015) implements that SOC accumulation is best described and
 95 predicted by a variety of soil mineral phase parameters instead of a single predictor. Thereby combinations of parameters or factors
 96 can differ according to the considered scale. Consequently, multivariate approaches better explain the SOC variability (Heinze et
 97 al., 2018; Liddle et al., 2020) compared to bivariate linear regression~~correlation~~ models that are often unsuited at the level of local
 98 and regional soils (Jian-Bing et al., 2006). The latter especially applies for studies that are limited to a single specific location
 99 or only contain a limited number of categorical variables or estimated soil parameters (Liddle et al., 2020). On the other hand,
 100 predictions based on totalglobal models, based on the majoritylargest part of the dataset, are often less site-specific and thus can
 101 possibly lead to an insufficient quantification of SOC at certain sites.

102 Consequently, it is required to determine parameter sets to estimate SOC and its labile fractions HWEC and MBC at a regional or
 103 landscape scale. It is necessary to identify predictor parameters and categorical environmental factors that are able to predict SOC
 104 as well as its labile fractions by using models based on local and totalglobal datasets~~models~~. Differences regarding the relevance of
 105 a predictor in local vs. totalglobal models have to be identified to boost model performance and to fit adequate datasets using the
 106 best set of parameters for the prediction of SOC at the investigated location. This overall aim was investigated in this study using a
 107 dataset from four local agricultural areas in the greater region of Trier (each with a size of 5-10 km²), thus with similarity in the
 108 global factors but distinct local properties such as parent ~~rock~~ material, soil texture and land use. Regarding the composition of the
 109 soil mineral phase the four local areas differ among each other, but as a totalglobal dataset they represent a broad range of soil
 110 properties typical for soils in temperate regions. Therefore, the dataset enables to verify whether the totalglobal dataset is able to
 111 cover the local variability of SOC and its labile fractions. Objectives of this study were, (i) based on identified differences in soil
 112 properties~~to determine best fitting factors and parameter combinations~~, based on identified differences in soil properties, that explain
 113 the variability in SOC and its labile fractions HWEC and MBC. (ii) It was aimed to determine the suitability~~relevance~~ of local
 114 models in comparison to total-global models to achieve an improved-sufficient quantification, on a comparable similar level, of SOC,
 115 HWEC and MBC for local landscapes with distinct properties. To this end, bivariate linear regression, principal component analysis
 116 (PCA) and mixed effect models were used in order to find out whether totalglobal models or local models are better fitting. (iii) It
 117 was assessed if local datasets show a distinct combination of significantly contributing predictor parameters compared to other local
 118 datasets and the entire dataset.

120 2.1 Study area

121 The study was conducted in the greater area of Trier in southwestern Germany (Fig. 1). Bulk samples from topsoil horizons, i.e. 0-
122 25 cm for arable and 0-15 cm for grassland soils, were taken in spring 2017 and 2018 from 199 agricultural sites used as arable land
123 (150) and grassland (49). Similar numbers of samples were taken from four regional areas with different parent materials. Parent
124 materials were Devonian clay schist (DCS, n= 50), Luxemburg sandstone (LBS, n= 50), sandy dolomitic limestone (DLS, n= 50)
125 from the Muschelkalk, and Permian siltstone and fine sandstone (PSS, n= 49) from the Rotliegend (Wagner et al., 2011). Across
126 the different parent materials, a similar proportion of samples were taken at sites under arable or grassland management. Climatic
127 conditions in the greater area of Trier are classified as warm-temperate, fully humid with warm summer temperate (Cfb) (Kottek et
128 al., 2006). According to the German Weather service (DWD) mean annual precipitation is 784 mm and mean annual temperature is
129 9.8°C. Investigated sites were dominated by the soil groups Regosol and Cambisol. The main cultivated crop plants are wheat,
130 barley, triticale, maize and rapeseed.

132 **Fig. 1.** Study area in the greater Trier region; sampling sites at the four regions with different parent material are indicated, i.e.
133 Devonian clay schist (DCS), sandy dolomitic limestone (DLS) from the Muschelkalk, Luxemburg sandstone (LBS), and Permian
134 siltstone and fine sandstone (PSS) from the Rotliegend (©GeoBasis-DE).



137 2.2 Analysis of soil properties

138 Samples were sieved < 2 mm and the stone content (> 2 mm) was determined gravimetrically. ~~For further analysis, Each samples~~
139 ~~were divided~~ was split and stored at -20°C ~~on one hand and/or~~ air-dried ~~on the other hand; for subsequently biological and chemical~~
140 soil analysis, respectively. Soil pH was measured in 0.01 M CaCl₂ solution using a pH/Con 340i glass electrode (WTW GmbH,
141 Weilheim). Particle size distribution was determined by a combination of wet sieving and pipette method according to Blume et al.
142 (2011). Dithionite-citrate extractable Fe (Fe_d) was measured according to Mehra and Jackson (1958). To this end, 2 g air-dry soil
143 were extracted with a mixture of 1 g sodium dithionite, 40 ml sodium citrate and 10 ml NaHCO₃. Oxalate extractable Fe and Al
144 (Fe_o, Al_o) were determined according to ~~Schwertmann~~ (1964). For extraction, 1 g air-dry soil was shaken for 2 h in the dark in 50
145 ml NH₄⁺-oxalate (pH 3) and filtered afterwards. Extraction for the determination of the effective cation exchange capacity (ECEC)
146 was conducted using 1 M NH₄Cl. Elemental analyses for pedogenic oxides and ECEC (Na, K, Fe, Mn, Al, Ca, Mg) were done using
147 atomic absorption spectrometry (Varian AA240 FS Fast Sequential Atomic Absorption Spectrometer; Darmstadt, Germany).
148 For estimation of total carbon (TC) and nitrogen soil was dried at 105°C, grinded and measured by an Elemental ~~Analyzer~~ Analyser
149 EA3000 Series (HEKAtech GmbH, Wegberg). For carbonate containing soils the inorganic carbon (IC) was determined following
150 carbonate destruction using phosphoric acid at a temperature of 100°C (IC Kit combined with Elemental ~~Analyzer~~ Analyser EA3000
151 Series, HEKAtech GmbH, Wegberg). SOC content was calculated as the difference of TC and IC. HWEC and hot water extractable
152 nitrogen (HWEN) were determined following Körschens et al. (1990), using a Gerhardt Turbotherm TT 125 (Gerhardt, Bonn,
153 Germany) for extraction of 10 g soil with distilled water (50 ml) at 100°C for 1 h. After extracts cooled down 1 ml of 0.2 M MgSO₄
154 was added and samples were centrifuged at 1476 g for 10 minutes. Microbial biomass was estimated by using chloroform fumigation
155 extraction according to Joergensen (1995) with 0.01 M CaCl₂. Extracts of HWEC, HWEN, microbial biomass carbon (MBC) and
156 nitrogen (MBN) were ~~analyzed~~ analysed with a TOC-VCPN ~~analyzer~~ analyser (Shimadzu, Duisburg, Germany). For MBC and
157 MBN correction factors k_{EC} = 0.45 and k_{EN} = 0.4 respectively, were used (Joergensen, 1996; Joergensen and Mueller, 1996). Soil
158 respiration was measured according to Heinemeyer et al. (1989)–. Following a week of incubation at room temperature (20
159 °C) Therefore, 25 g dry matter equivalent of sieved field moist soil were weighted in a tube that was flushed with 200 mL min⁻¹ of
160 CO₂-free, humid air for 24 hours. Evolved CO₂ was determined by air one-hour intervals after the soil passage using an infrared
161 gas ~~analyzer~~ analyser (ADC 225 MK3, The Analytical Development, Hoddesdon, England).

162 2.3 Data analysis

163 Principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out to identify clusters within the dataset. For that purpose, 24 parameters
164 describing the mineral phase as well as SOM were included (Table 1). To conduct the PCA applied variables were log transformed,
165 centered and scaled to achieve standardized and comparable variables. Ellipses were defined by 95 % of the confidence interval
166 according to Fox and Weisberg (2019). The cluster of clayey soils was not included in the analysis due to a small number of samples
167 (n = 5). Using single predictors, L-linear regressions were performed to identify significant impact of mineral phase parameters (e.g.
168 Fe_o [g kg⁻¹] or fSilt plus clay [%])–on SOC, HWEC and MBC for the entire dataset as well as for the identified clusters. Residues
169 of the bivariate linear regressions were checked for normality.–Mixed effect models were determined for the entire dataset and for
170 identified clusters. To this end, selected soil properties of the mineral phase (Fe_{d-o} [g kg⁻¹], Fe_o [g kg⁻¹], Al_o [g kg⁻¹], sand [%], cSilt
171 plus mSilt [%], fSilt plus clay [%], (Ca + Mg)_{ECEC} [mmolc kg⁻¹], stones [%] and pH) were used as fixed effect while, ‘parent
172 material’, ‘soil texture group’ or ‘land use’ were used as random effect. In general, as random effects only categorical variables
173 were selected, while for the fixed effects variable mineral phase parameters were selected. Parent material as a random effect
174 includes the four different soil parent materials that dominate at the four sampling sites. For the soil texture group as random effect
175 four levels were applied (sandy, silty, clayey and loamy soils). The additional implementation of the soil texture groups was done
176 to consider the potential different intercepts of the specific groups. Land use as random effect comprised the two management
177 practices arable and grassland. Restricted Mmaximum likelihood was applied as estimation procedure for the mixed effect models.
178 At the beginning, all selected soil properties were included in each model. Stepwise removal of the most the least significant

parameters—was conducted until all properties included in the models significantly contributed to SOC, HWEC or MBC, respectively. Additionally, the relevance of variables was visualized by the mean values of the clusters multiplied with their coefficient received from the mixed effect models. All parameters involved as fixed parameter in the mixed effect models were checked for collinearity. To avoid collinear behavior of the soil texture related parameters either ‘sand’ or ‘coarse silt plus medium silt’ (cSilt plus mSilt) were used for model development. The two models received were compared by their Akaike information criterion (AIC) using ANOVA to identify the best model. Furthermore, ECEC was excluded from mixed effect models to avoid overfitting due to collinearity with $(Ca+Mg)_{ECEC}$. Residuals of models were examined for homoscedasticity and normality. In case these criteria were not fulfilled, the response variable was square root transformed to achieve variance homogeneity and normality. For the mixed effect models a marginal R^2 (R^2_{marg}) and conditional R^2 (R^2_{cond}) coefficients was estimated according to Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2013). Thereby R^2_{marg} examines the explained variance of the fixed effects while R^2_{cond} also includes the variance including the effect of the random effects. Next to this, The root mean squared error (RMSE) was estimated as a measure of the model performance. For the mixed effect models, RMSE was estimated based on the comparison of predicted and measured values. To transfer the mixed effect models of a total dataset to a local dataset, predictions were conducted by applying the total dataset models onto a local datasets. Measures to inspect these results (R^2 and RMSE) were received from comparisons of predicted values of SOC, HWEC and MBC received from the different mixed effect models were compared with the measured values using bivariate linear regressions. This yielded of SOC, HWEC and MBC R^2 and RMSE as measures of goodness. To examine performance of mixed effect models, predicted values were tested against measured values of SOC, HWEC and MBC, respectively using bivariate linear regressions. Data—All data are shown as mean (\pm SE) if not indicated otherwise. Statistical significance was indicated with * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ and *** $p < 0.001$. Statistical analyses were carried out using the R statistical package version 4.1.13-6.2 (R Core Team, 2021).

Table 1. Soil properties in agricultural topsoils for the complete dataset and defined group levels according to parent material, land use and soil texture class. Values are means \pm SD.

	Dataset (n=199)	DCS (n=50)	LBS (n=50)	DLS (n=50)	PSS (n=49)	Sandy soils (n=54)	Loamy soils (n=98)	Silty soils (n=42)	Arable (n=150)	Grassland (n=49)
SOC [%]	1.94 \pm 0.87	3.03 \pm 0.78	1.61 \pm 0.39	1.92 \pm 0.49	1.17 \pm 0.33	1.41 \pm 0.45	2.08 \pm 0.87	2.08 \pm 0.76	1.82 \pm 0.73	2.29 \pm 1.11
Nitrogen [%]	0.20 \pm 0.10	0.33 \pm 0.08	0.14 \pm 0.03	0.19 \pm 0.04	0.13 \pm 0.04	0.13 \pm 0.03	0.22 \pm 0.10	0.21 \pm 0.08	0.19 \pm 0.08	0.23 \pm 0.12
Hydrogen [%]	0.56 \pm 0.29	0.94 \pm 0.25	0.33 \pm 0.07	0.59 \pm 0.15	0.38 \pm 0.12	0.33 \pm 0.08	0.64 \pm 0.31	0.63 \pm 0.22	0.57 \pm 0.29	0.54 \pm 0.27
Oxygen [%]	3.77 \pm 1.93	6.15 \pm 0.97	2.45 \pm 0.63	3.87 \pm 2.00	2.56 \pm 0.70	2.18 \pm 0.53	4.23 \pm 1.63	4.67 \pm 2.46	3.62 \pm 1.82	4.24 \pm 2.14
HWEC [$\mu\text{g}/\text{g}^{-1}$]	753 \pm 322	1071 \pm 353	661 \pm 163	732 \pm 214	545 \pm 252	570 \pm 199	813 \pm 319	782 \pm 276	669 \pm 231	1010 \pm 410
HWEN [$\mu\text{g}/\text{g}^{-1}$]	99.4 \pm 42.0	130 \pm 35.5	78.9 \pm 28.2	107 \pm 37.2	80.4 \pm 43.8	70.4 \pm 31.0	106 \pm 39.9	116 \pm 40.3	93.8 \pm 39.9	116 \pm 43.5
MBC [$\mu\text{g}/\text{g}^{-1}$]	247 \pm 143	325 \pm 159	130 \pm 42.1	320 \pm 118	209 \pm 117	123 \pm 47.2	271 \pm 132	322 \pm 119	205 \pm 93.0	377 \pm 186
MBN [$\mu\text{g}/\text{g}^{-1}$]	41.2 \pm 23.5	53.5 \pm 25.3	22.6 \pm 8.78	50.8 \pm 23.2	37.1 \pm 17.7	22.9 \pm 10.2	44.5 \pm 22.1	52.3 \pm 21.7	35.5 \pm 18.3	58.5 \pm 28.5
Respiration [$\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C}/(\text{g}^{-1}\text{dry-matter-h})$]	0.26 \pm 0.11	0.29 \pm 0.11	0.21 \pm 0.05	0.30 \pm 0.12	0.22 \pm 0.10	0.20 \pm 0.07	0.27 \pm 0.11	0.28 \pm 0.10	0.23 \pm 0.09	0.32 \pm 0.13
MBC/SOC	1.36 \pm 0.71	1.05 \pm 0.31	0.89 \pm 0.61	1.75 \pm 0.72	1.73 \pm 0.62	0.97 \pm 0.51	1.42 \pm 0.67	1.71 \pm 0.82	1.23 \pm 0.66	1.74 \pm 0.70
SOC/N	11.7 \pm 2.13	10.5 \pm 0.98	13.7 \pm 2.20	11.9 \pm 2.11	10.7 \pm 1.25	12.9 \pm 2.58	11.1 \pm 1.55	11.5 \pm 2.06	11.6 \pm 2.24	12.0 \pm 1.76
HWE-C/N	9.90 \pm 4.98	9.76 \pm 2.33	11.1 \pm 5.02	8.60 \pm 2.85	10.2 \pm 7.61	11.64 \pm 6.77	9.66 \pm 4.45	8.20 \pm 2.15	9.80 \pm 5.64	13.3 \pm 6.40
MB-C/N	7.41 \pm 2.57	7.62 \pm 2.66	7.54 \pm 3.36	7.83 \pm 2.00	6.66 \pm 1.81	7.02 \pm 3.17	7.57 \pm 2.44	7.55 \pm 2.01	7.36 \pm 2.79	7.55 \pm 1.68
IC [%]	0.37 \pm 1.18	-	-	1.43 \pm 1.98	-	-	0.12 \pm 0.62	1.36 \pm 2.04	0.39 \pm 1.24	0.29 \pm 0.98
pH	4.98 \pm 0.89	4.78 \pm 0.61	4.70 \pm 0.72	5.89 \pm 0.77	5.47 \pm 0.57	4.79 \pm 0.73	5.02 \pm 0.76	5.46 \pm 0.90	5.02 \pm 0.87	4.88 \pm 0.87
ECEC [mmolc/kg]	65.6 \pm 29.2	66.8 \pm 21.0	38.8 \pm 14.4	96.7 \pm 26.3	58.6 \pm 15.2	40.1 \pm 12.9	66.6 \pm 21.6	94.7 \pm 28.5	65.6 \pm 28.6	65.5 \pm 31.1
Ca + Mg _{ECEC} [mmolc/kg]	55.7 \pm 28.5	54.2 \pm 21.2	30.8 \pm 14.3	86.4 \pm 26.6	50.0 \pm 13.6	32.4 \pm 12.9	55.5 \pm 21.1	84.9 \pm 28.5	54.9 \pm 27.6	58.3 \pm 31.0
Fe _o [g/kg^{-1}]	2.34 \pm 1.18	3.95 \pm 0.72	1.40 \pm 0.40	2.24 \pm 0.80	1.77 \pm 0.66	1.32 \pm 0.32	2.69 \pm 1.12	2.66 \pm 1.05	2.30 \pm 1.14	2.49 \pm 1.27
Fe _d -Fe _o [g/kg^{-1}]	4.57 \pm 2.18	6.92 \pm 2.00	3.27 \pm 1.18	4.50 \pm 1.48	3.54 \pm 1.74	2.91 \pm 1.15	5.22 \pm 2.20	5.10 \pm 2.04	4.67 \pm 2.23	4.27 \pm 1.97
Al _o [g/kg^{-1}]	1.26 \pm 1.13	2.98 \pm 0.89	0.84 \pm 0.44	0.62 \pm 0.30	0.61 \pm 0.21	0.77 \pm 0.45	1.53 \pm 1.25	1.10 \pm 0.98	1.21 \pm 1.07	1.42 \pm 1.28
Sand [%]	44.2 \pm 23.1	26.8 \pm 5.80	69.1 \pm 17.9	24.6 \pm 8.71	57.6 \pm 13.5	75.1 \pm 10.8	38.4 \pm 13.5	21.0 \pm 5.09	44.8 \pm 23.8	42.3 \pm 20.9
cSilt+ mSilt [%]	29.1 \pm 13.3	30.8 \pm 4.53	17.6 \pm 13.6	43.7 \pm 6.67	23.4 \pm 7.97	13.5 \pm 8.39	30.5 \pm 7.11	45.1 \pm 6.59	28.8 \pm 13.5	29.9 \pm 12.8
fSilt + clay [%]	26.8 \pm 12.7	42.4 \pm 4.95	13.2 \pm 4.75	31.7 \pm 5.74	19.0 \pm 7.01	11.5 \pm 3.22	31.1 \pm 10.6	33.9 \pm 6.67	26.4 \pm 13.0	27.8 \pm 11.7
Stones [%]	14.3 \pm 12.3	29.3 \pm 8.91	6.70 \pm 6.51	13.1 \pm 8.99	7.59 \pm 8.29	6.88 \pm 4.52	18.0 \pm 14.0	14.5 \pm 10.1	15.0 \pm 12.7	11.9 \pm 10.7

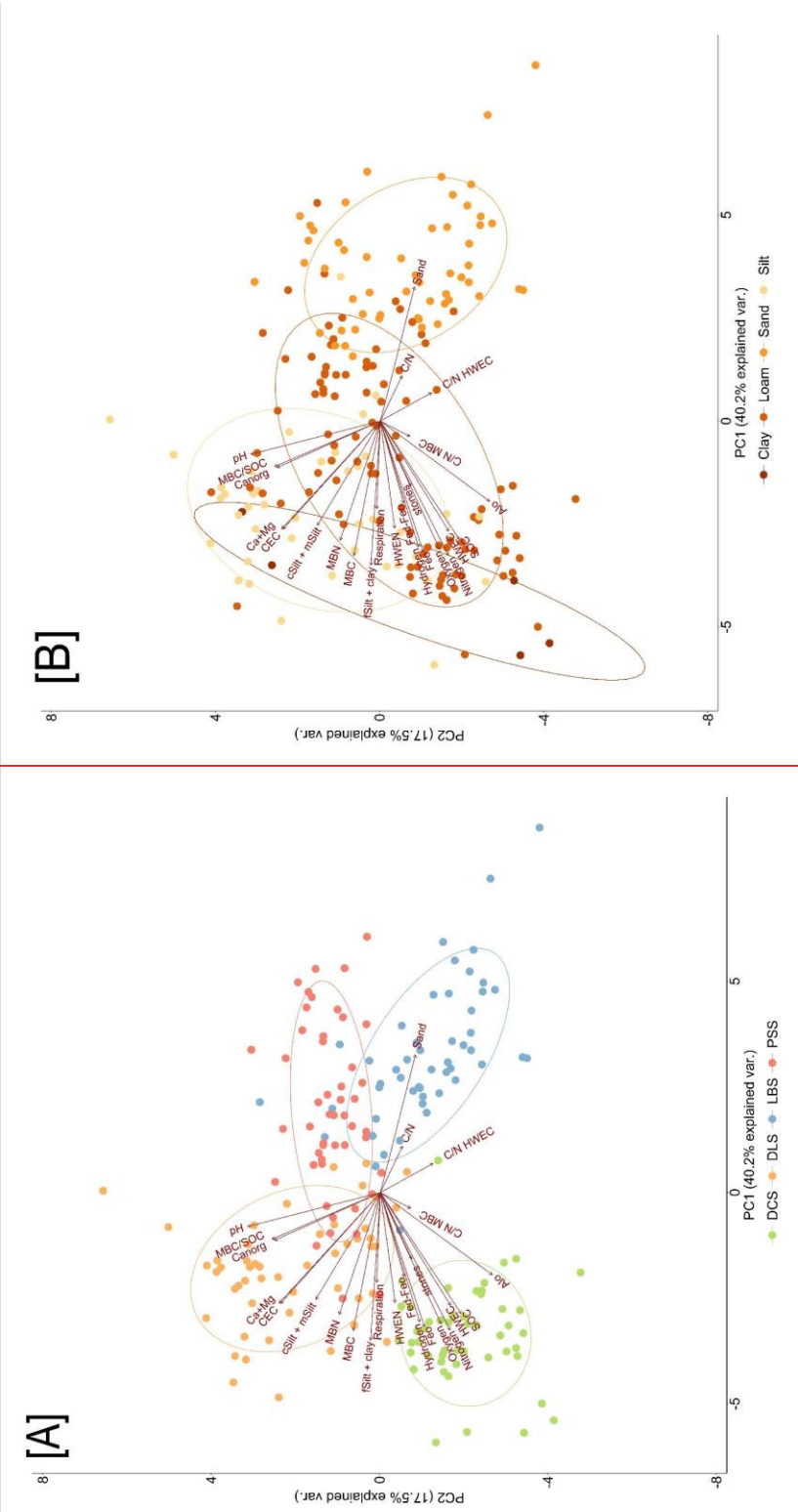
3 Results

3.1 Soil properties and cluster identification

The dataset covers soil ~~ss and topsoil properties~~ with broad ranges of 24 parameters and parameter ratios, ~~respectively~~, of SOM, soil mineral phase and microbial biomass (Table 1). For example, soil pH ranged from very strongly acidic (pH 3.8) to slightly alkaline (pH 7.4); soil texture varied from sandy to clayey texture. ~~Thereby,~~ Parent materials essentially influenced characteristics of the mineral phase related parameters such as texture. ~~e.g.~~ AsFor example soils developed from sandy parent material such as LBS had a sandy texture with sand content of up to 91.9 %. Soils developed from DCS and DLS parent material had elevated contents of fine silt plus clay (33.4-53.3 % and 16.7-44.8 %, respectively). Additionally, high contents of pedogenic oxides were found in soils from DCS while ECEC and especially the contents of the polyvalent cations $(Ca+Mg)_{ECEC}$ were high in soils developed from DLS (Table 1). Higher contents of SOC, HWEC and MBC were found for all parent material substrates in grassland soils compared to arable soils (Table 1 and ~~SI~~ Table S1A). For the entire dataset, SOC ranged from 0.38 to 5.32 %, while ranges from 237 to 1889 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and 52.4 to 810 $\mu\text{g/g}$ were determined for HWEC and MBC, respectively. SOC was strongly correlated with HWEC ($R^2 = 0.75$) while the ~~regression~~ correlation with MBC was substantially lower ($R^2 = 0.40$). The dissimilar ~~regression~~ correlations of SOC with the two labile fractions indicate differences between HWEC and MBC, which was further confirmed by the mediocre ~~correlation~~ regressions between HWEC and MBC ($R^2 = 0.55$).

To identify possible local clusters due to different sampling sites, parent material or land use systems within the dataset, PCA was conducted including all 24 soil parameters and parameter ratios (Fig. 2). Principal component (PC) 1 to 3 explained 65 % of the variance and had eigenvalues > 1 (Table 2). Parameters related to the soil mineral phase loaded on all three PCs. Additionally, highest loadings on PC 1 were found for parameters describing the composition of SOM such as content of SOC, nitrogen, hydrogen or oxygen as well as HWEC or MBC. For PC 2 high loadings were further found for parameters related to soil acidity (pH, IC, ECEC, $(Ca+Mg)_{ECEC}$), as well as for SOC and the microbial ratio MBC/SOC. ~~The~~ HWEC and respiration further loaded on PC 3 (Table 2). A plot of the first two PCs shows clear clusters that were strongly related to the parent materials according to the different sampling sites (Fig. 2 A). In addition, samples clustered ~~somewhat~~ differently when assigned to different soil texture classes (Fig. 2 B). Land use, however, was insufficient to explain separation into different local clusters (Fig. S1). Instead, ~~the land use clusters~~ it represent could be used as a total global clusters covering covered soils from all sampling regions and property combinations, and thus represented total clusters with a differentiation according to its with separated effects due to land use management. Compared to the entire dataset ~~or the land use clusters~~, the identified clusters based on parent material and soil texture ~~showed covered~~ distinct property ranges of ~~the SOM-SOC~~ and the mineral phase (Table 1). In contrast to the local clusters, the ~~total global~~ cluster according to land use classes showed mostly properties quite similar to the entire dataset. Overall, identified clusters strongly depended on the composition of SOM as well as on specific properties of the soil mineral phase, e.g. texture or soil pH related properties. With a smaller relevance, parameters regarding the characteristics of soil microorganisms separated the dataset into clusters (Table 2).

Fig. 2. Principal components 1 and 2 with loadings of the variables indicating the clustering of the dataset according to parent material [A] and soil texture [B]. Parent materials are Devonian clay schist (DCS), sandy dolomitic limestone (DLS), Luxembourg sandstone (LBS), and Permian siltstone and fine sandstone (PSS).



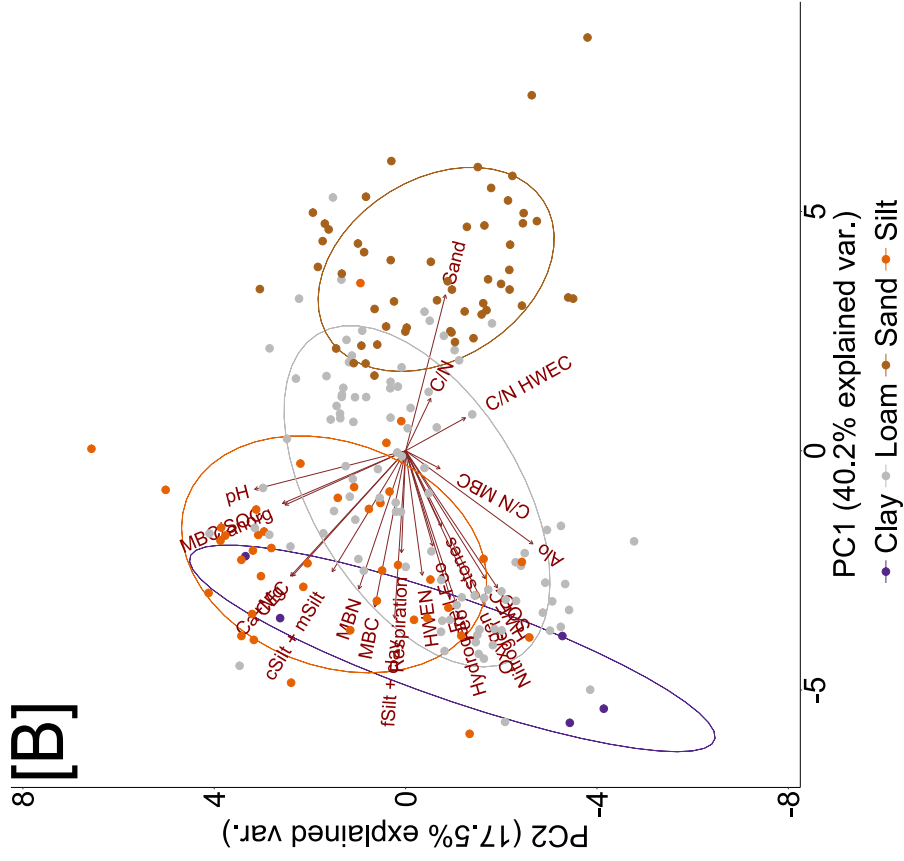
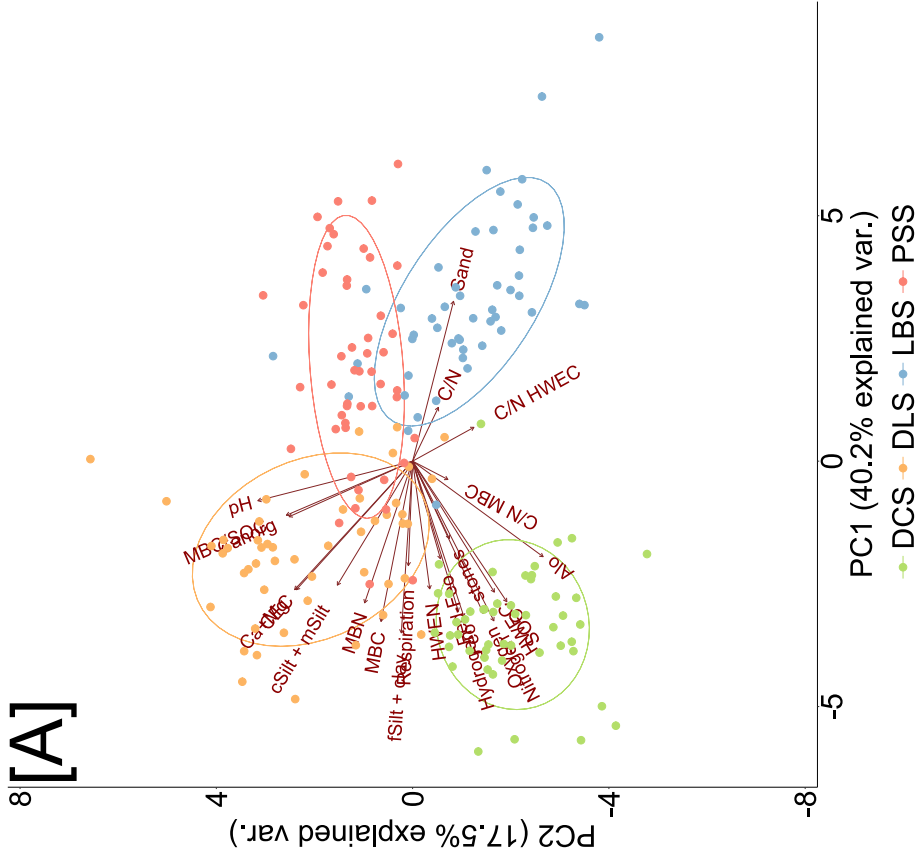


Table 2. Loadings of the variables on the first three principal components.

	PC1	PC2	PC3
SOC	-0.24	-0.24	-0.19
Nitrogen	-0.27	-0.21	-0.04
Hydrogen	-0.26	-0.12	0.17
Oxygen	-0.26	-0.18	0.07
HWEC	-0.22	-0.21	-0.36
HWEN	-0.22	-0.04	-0.19
MBC	-0.27	0.08	-0.26
MBN	-0.24	0.12	-0.26
Respiration	-0.18	0.01	-0.36
MBC/SOC	-0.09	0.33	-0.12
C/N SOM	0.09	-0.07	-0.36
C/N HWEC	0.06	-0.16	-0.13
C/N MB	-0.03	-0.09	0.04
IC	-0.09	0.32	-0.09
pH	-0.07	0.4	0.03
ECEC	-0.22	0.3	0.07
(Ca+Mg) _{ECEC}	-0.22	0.3	0.06
Feo	-0.27	-0.13	0.12
Fed-Feo	-0.17	-0.07	0.37
Alo	-0.16	-0.34	0.14
Sand	0.27	-0.11	-0.11
cSilt + mSilt	-0.21	0.19	0.12
fSilt + clay	-0.29	0.03	0.18
Stones	-0.13	-0.09	0.29
Proportion of Variance	40.2	17.5	7.47
Cumulative Proportion	40.2	57.8	65.23
Eigenvalue	9.66	4.21	1.79

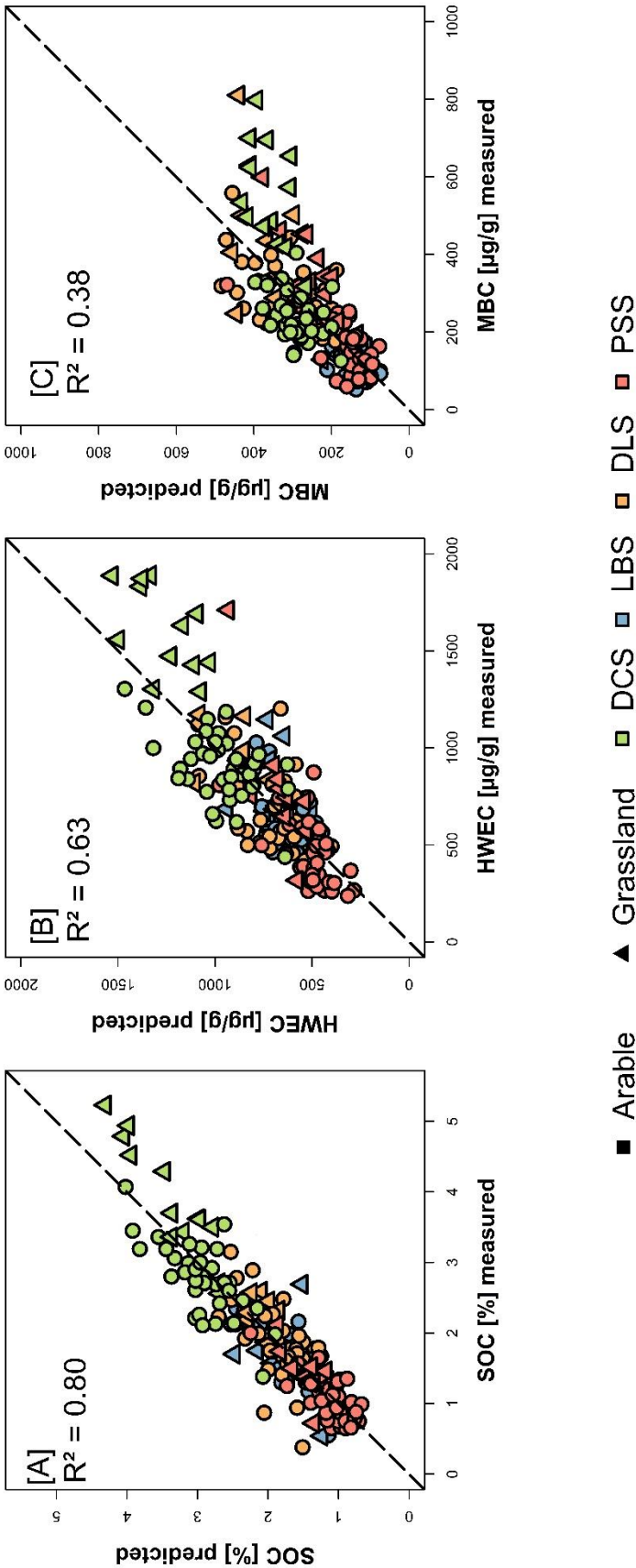
3.2 Bivariate relationships of mineral phase and SOC and its labile fractions

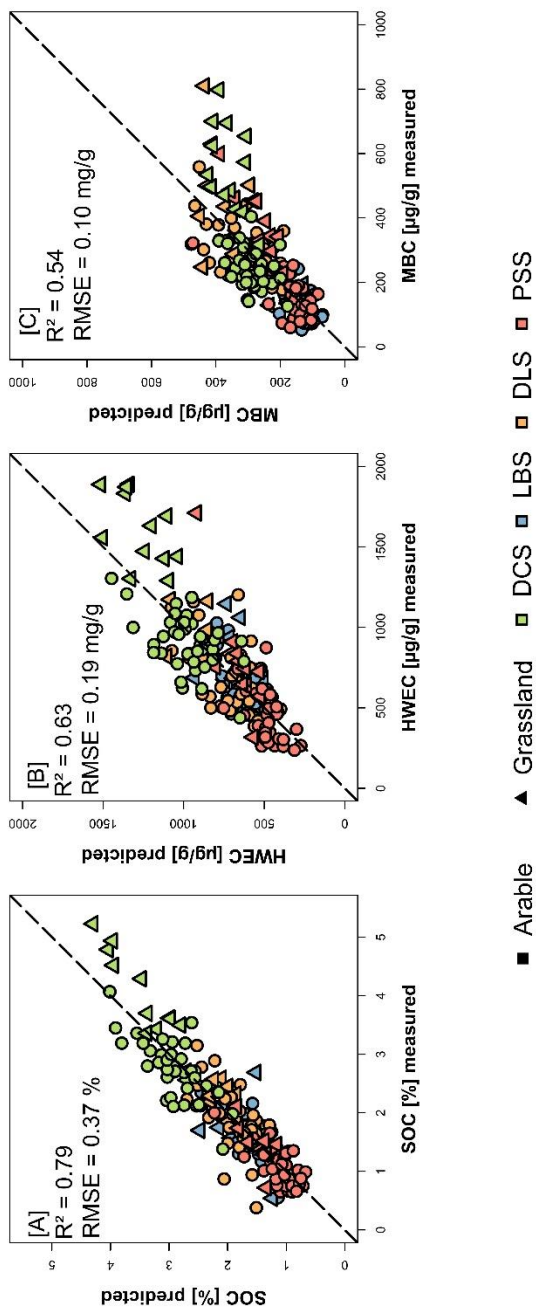
In order to test whether single parameters are suitable predictors of SOC, HWEC and MBC ten independent parameters describing the properties of the soil mineral phase were selected from the dataset (Table 1, Table 3). Bivariate linear regressions were calculated based on the total dataset ($n = 199$), for further ~~total/global~~ clusters (e.g. arable or grassland soils) and the local clusters that were identified in PCA, i.e. subgroups based on the four parent ~~rock~~-materials and major texture classes (Table 3). Using the complete dataset, highly significant regressions of SOC, HWEC and MBC to most soil mineral phase parameters were found, yet predominantly at a low level of explained variance (Table 3). Compared to the complete dataset substantially different soil parameters explained SOC, HWEC and MBC especially for smaller clusters such as soils from the parent materials DCS or LBS. Yet, clusters comprising large sample numbers, where soil parameters cover broad ranges such as the clusters of loamy, arable or grassland soils, showed significantly contributing parameters that ~~were~~ largely ~~in line with~~~~matched with~~ those found ~~as significant~~ for the complete dataset. All clusters differed in their pattern of significant parameters. However, for the complete dataset as well as for the clusters the explained variance decreased from SOC to the labile fractions HWEC and MBC (Fig. 3 and Table 3). Only some properties such as sand, ECEC or $(Ca+Mg)_{ECEC}$ showed for MBC ~~a~~ higher explained variance compared to SOC and HWEC (Table 3). For the entire dataset the content of SOC was best explained by Al_o and Fe_o as predictor parameter ($R^2 = 0.63$ ~~–~~0.58 and 0.56, respectively) while soil texture related properties such as sand or fSilt plus clay explained SOC on a lower level (Table 3). Other determined mineral phase parameters such as cSilt plus mSilt or ECEC explained variance to a negligible extent (Table 3). With lower values for R^2 , HWEC was explained by similar soil mineral phase parameters, as it was the case for SOC. With R^2 of 0.39 and a variance of 0.38 HWEC was best explained by pedogenic oxides (Fe_o and Al_o , Table 3). In contrast, the predictors for MBC were quite distinct. Especially parameters related to soil texture such as fSilt plus clay ($R^2 = 0.43$) or sand ($R^2 = 0.45$) better explained the variance of MBC compared to HWEC ($R^2 = 0.27$ and 0.16, respectively). Nevertheless, none of the applied parameters could explain in all cases the complete variance of SOC, HWEC or MBC to a ~~highersufficient~~ extent ($R^2 > 0.75$). Explained variance of SOC and its labile fractions varied strongly between the parent material clusters. In general, the variance in these clusters was explained to a substantially lower extent compared to the whole dataset (Table 3). In most cases, parameters of soil texture and pedogenic oxides correlated significantly with SOC, HWEC and MBC. Additional to these parameters, $(Ca+Mg)_{ECEC}$ was useful to predict SOC and MBC for some parent material clusters (Table 3). Highest values of R^2 were reached for the regression between SOC and Al_o and Fe_o (0.47, 0.42) in the cluster DCS and fSilt plus clay (0.37) in the cluster PSS. R^2 was even lower in the clusters LBS and DLS with maximum values of 0.21 and 0.20 respectively. Further, the cluster of loamy soils was also best described by parameters representing pedogenic oxides and texture. Much lower R^2 were found for the sandy and silty soil clusters with Al_o and texture parameters (sandy) and additionally Fe_o (silty) as best descriptors. While for SOC, HWEC and MBC mostly the same descriptors were found (yet on different level of R^2), they were partially different for MBC of the clusters silty and loamy soils.

Table 3. Bivariate \underline{L} linear regression coefficient R^2 for parameters explaining the variance of SOC [%], HWEC and MBC [$\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$] respectively, for soils groups of different parent material, major textural class and land use

		Fe _o [g kg ⁻¹]	Fe _d -Fe _o [g kg ⁻¹]	Al _o [g kg ⁻¹]	Sand [%]	cSilt + mSilt [%]	fSilt + clay [%]	Stones [%]	ECEC [mmolc kg ⁻¹]	(Ca+Mg) _{ECEC} [mmolc kg ⁻¹]	pH
		All samples									
Dataset n = 199	SOC	0.56***	0.16***	0.58***	0.23***	0.04**	0.46***	0.24***	0.07***	0.05**	0.02
	HWEC	0.39***	0.05**	0.38***	0.16***	0.04**	0.27***	0.11***	0.03*	0.02*	0.06***
	MBC	0.29***	0.07***	0.10***	0.45***	0.29**	0.43***	0.06***	0.29***	0.28***	0.04**
Land use											
Arable n = 150	SOC	0.51***	0.25***	0.61***	0.23***	0.05**	0.46***	0.29***	0.09***	0.05**	0.02
	HWEC	0.37***	0.11***	0.37***	0.18***	0.06**	0.28***	0.17***	0.08***	0.04*	0.03*
	MBC	0.25***	0.15***	0.06**	0.64***	0.52***	0.51***	0.12***	0.61***	0.53***	0.21***
Grassland n = 49	SOC	0.73***	0.08*	0.73***	0.25***	0.02	0.59***	0.44***	0.04	0.04	0.00
	HWEC	0.67***	0.03	0.59***	0.21***	0.02	0.47***	0.30***	0.00	0.00	0.05
	MBC	0.54***	0.07	0.24***	0.41***	0.13**	0.67***	0.15**	0.11*	0.11*	0.00
Parent material											
DCS n = 50	SOC	0.42***	0.25***	0.47***	0.00	0.04	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02
	HWEC	0.17**	0.24***	0.17**	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.04
	MBC	0.14**	0.18**	0.06	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.01
LBS n = 50	SOC	0.01	0.11*	0.18**	0.11*	0.11*	0.08*	0.00	0.10*	0.11*	0.10*
	HWEC	0.03	0.03	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.05	0.04	0.00
	MBC	0.16**	0.04	0.00	0.21***	0.19**	0.21***	0.00	0.20**	0.17**	0.06
DLS n = 50	SOC	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.08*	0.20**	0.20**	0.20**	0.03
	HWEC	0.07	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.02
	MBC	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.05	0.00	0.11*	0.08*	0.19**	0.19**	0.06
PSS n = 49	SOC	0.35***	0.00	0.28***	0.36***	0.23***	0.37***	0.04	0.30***	0.27***	0.02
	HWEC	0.20**	0.03	0.21***	0.30***	0.29***	0.20**	0.12*	0.10*	0.09*	0.08*
	MBC	0.15**	0.00	0.28***	0.44***	0.37***	0.35***	0.02	0.16**	0.17**	0.10*
Texture											
Sandy n = 54	SOC	0.00	0.01	0.40***	0.18**	0.19***	0.07	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.04
	HWEC	0.00	0.06	0.29***	0.08*	0.06	0.08*	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.11*
	MBC	0.13**	0.08*	0.04	0.08*	0.12*	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.05	0.01
Silty n = 42	SOC	0.25***	0.02	0.33***	0.01	0.22***	0.27***	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.01
	HWEC	0.20**	0.00	0.12*	0.00	0.08	0.08	0.04	0.01	0.02	0.04
	MBC	0.01	0.06	0.00	0.16**	0.00	0.07	0.05	0.17**	0.19**	0.06
Loamy n = 89	SOC	0.63***	0.16***	0.70***	0.41***	0.01	0.56***	0.36***	0.04*	0.02	0.10**
	HWEC	0.36***	0.02	0.36***	0.20***	0.01	0.24***	0.13***	0.00	0.00	0.15***
	MBC	0.08**	0.00	0.04*	0.12***	0.02	0.13***	0.00	0.14***	0.15***	0.00

Fig. 3. Predicted vs. measured content of SOC [A], HWEC [B] and MBC [C] for the global (complete) dataset, based on mixed effect models. Parent materials are Devonian clay schist (DCS), sandy dolomitic limestone (DLS), Luxembourg sandstone (LBS), and Permian siltstone and fine sandstone (PSS).





Comprising soils from all identified clusters, the sets of descriptor parameters of the land use clusters were comparable to those of the totalglobal dataset (Table 3). Yet, the variance of SOC and its labile fractions were explained by bivariate linear regressions to a much higher extent for the totalglobal dataset and the clusters of arable soils and especially grassland soils compared to the clusters based on parent material and texture (Table 3). Both The clusters of both land use types largely overlapped and contained a similar proportion of samples from each parent material include an equal weight of samples from each parent material Therefore they can be regarded as totalglobal clusters. While SOC was explained by complex interactions of several-numerous different parameters (up to eight) for the distinct fractionsfactors, less variables showed a significant contribution to explain the variability of HWEC and MBC (Table 3).

3.3 Estimation of SOC and its labile fractions by mixed effect models

Since bivariate linear models insufficiently explained SOC, HWEC and MBC, respectively, mixed effect models were developed. In these models, mineral phase parameters were applied as fixed effects, and land use, parent material and texture were used as random effects (Table 4, Fig. 4 and Fig. 5). Variability of SOC, HWEC and MBC were much better explained than by linear regressions indicating that organic matter depends on complex interactions of several components of the mineral phase. In general, Based on marginal effects, of the mixed effect models mostly explained the variance in most cases in the order SOC > HWEC > MBC (Fig. 3, and Table 4 and Table 5). By the mixed effect models, R^2_{cond} reached a higher explained variance and mostly lower RMSE for SOC ($R^2_{cond} = 0.39-0.89$, $RMSE = 0.21 - 0.42$ %) compared to the bivariate regressions ($R^2 = 0.00-0.73$, $RMSE = 0.27-1.12$ %). Data for RMSE are listed in Table SI3. Also Accordingly, the mixed effect models for HWEC and MBC yielded and higher explained variance for HWEC and MBC was estimated by the mixed effect models. Representing the explained variance of the fixed effects, the R^2_{marg} revealed, for the majority of the clusters, a larger parts of the explained variance. Anyhow, But even in the cases of low R^2_{marg} several of that clusters provide had a high R^2_{con} even if R^2_{marg} was low. This highlights the overall importance relevance of the random effects (Table 4). By applying different random effects resulted in large differences, explained variance in (R^2_{cond}) differed larger for some clusters (e.g., 'sandy soils'). In particular, modelling the labile fractions were as more affected by the different random effects, showing in majority mostly highest R^2_{cond} values if land use was applied as random effect. RMSE of the mixed effect models was mostly lower compared to the bivariate linear regression (Table SI3).

Independent from the applied random effect, explained variance increased with sample number and width of the data range of parameters. Consequently, best model performance was achieved for the complete dataset as well as for the total clusters. Similar model performance was only found for some local clusters (e.g. DCS), while models for other local clusters such as LBS, DLS or sandy soils revealed the poorest, yet still sufficient ($R_{cond} \geq 0.39$, $RMSE \leq 0.40$ %) estimates of SOC (Table 4). In general, applying random effects such as parent material, land use or texture for mixed effect models led to distinct results for the prediction of SOC, HWEC or MBC (Table 4). For clusters according to land use variance was explained to a high extent (mean R^2_{con} of 0.66 and 0.77 for cluster of arable soils and grassland, respectively). Models using parent material or texture as random effect mostly showed minor differences for predictions of SOC, HWEC or MBC. Anyhow for some local clusters (e.g. DCS, LBS and DLS) distinct results were found. Models using land use as random effect were partly distinct, though, indicating the different influence of land use on SOC and its labile fractions (Table 4).

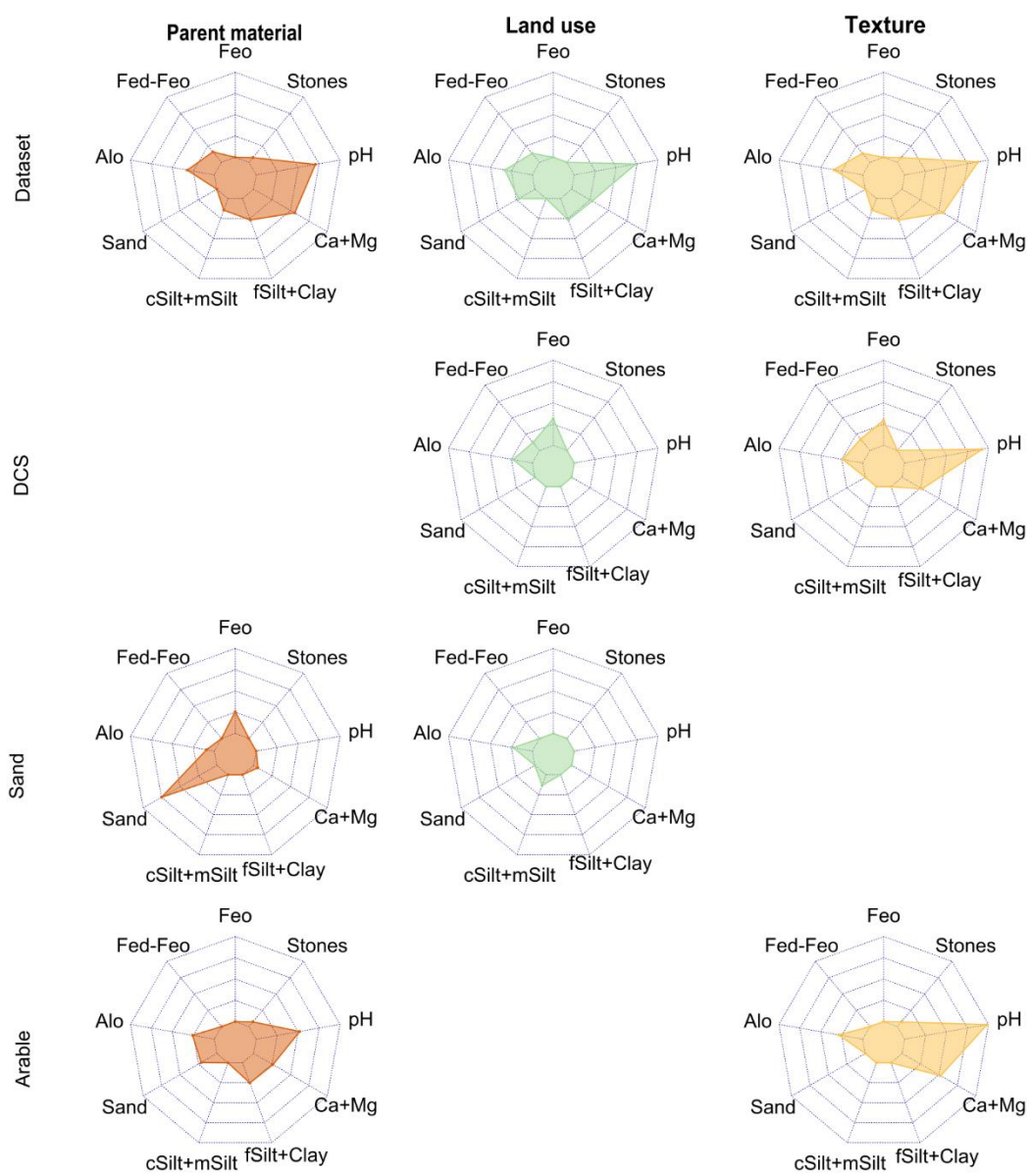
The different mixed effects models particularly comprised variables (Fig. 4, Fig. 5) that also proved significant in the bivariate linear regressions (Table 3). Mineral phase parameters contributed with different significance to the models for SOC, HWEC

and MBC. The SOC and HWECC were primarily explained by pedogenic oxides followed by soil texture related parameters. Not least, soil acidity specified by pH and $(Ca+Mg)_{ECC}$ was also relevant. MBC, compared to SOC or HWECC, was better explained by parameters linked to soil texture. Contribution of the variables, on SOC and its labile fraction was visualized using the mean values multiplied with their coefficients (Fig. 4, Fig 5). Distinct significant parameter combinations explaining SOC, HWECC and MBC were also found between the total data set and local clusters (Table 3, Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, SI Table 2). For example, within the soil texture related clusters pedogenic oxides, $(Ca+Mg)_{ECC}$, pH and texture parameters were relevant to estimate SOC, HWECC and MBC (Table 3, Fig. 4 and Fig. 5). Regarding the random effects, applied mixed effect models using parent material as random effect explained variability of SOC best (Table 4). For MBC and HWECC, however, highest explained variance were mostly obtained with land use as random effect (Table 4). Only estimates of HWECC for the texture clusters were better when parent material was used as random effect.

Measured and predicted data using the mixed effect models showed a close relationship along the 1:1 prediction line while scatter increased at higher contents of HWECC and especially of MBC, showing that estimates for grassland soils were inferior. Anyhow, bivariate linear regression correlations between measured data and predictions predicted data from of the mixed effect models ($R^2=0.29-0.91$) were mostly higher than for bivariate linear regressions ($R^2=0.00-0.73$). Independent from the applied random effect, precision of prediction results increased with sample number and data range of parameters, respectively. Consequently, best model performance was achieved for the complete dataset as well as for some of the local clusters (e.g. DCS, loamy soils), while models for other local clusters such as LBS, DLS or sandy soils revealed the poorest estimates of SOC (Table 4). In general, applying random effects such as parent material, land use or texture for mixed effect models led to distinct results for the prediction of SOC, HWECC or MBC (Table 4). For clusters according to land use variance was explained to a high extent (mean R^2 of 0.68 and 0.80 for cluster of arable and grassland respectively). Models using parent material or texture as random effect mostly showed minor differences for predictions of SOC, HWECC or MBC. Models using land use as random effect were partly distinct, though, indicating the different influence of land use on SOC and its labile fractions (Table 4).

	Land use						Parent material						Texture					
	<u>SOC</u>		<u>HWEC</u>		<u>MBC</u>		<u>SOC</u>		<u>HWEC</u>		<u>MBC</u>		<u>SOC</u>		<u>HWEC</u>		<u>MBC</u>	
	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>	<u>R²marg</u>	<u>R²con</u>
Data	<u>0.74</u>	<u>0.76</u>	<u>0.48</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.78</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.78</u>	<u>0.47</u>	<u>0.59</u>	<u>0.57</u>	<u>0.59</u>	<u>0.76</u>	<u>0.76</u>	<u>0.56</u>	<u>0.59</u>	<u>0.51</u>	<u>0.57</u>
Araable																		
Grassland																		
DCS	<u>0.38</u>	<u>0.82</u>	<u>0.10</u>	<u>0.84</u>	<u>0.03</u>	<u>0.89</u>							<u>0.52</u>	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.68</u>	<u>0.17</u>	<u>0.72</u>
LBS	<u>0.40</u>	<u>0.43</u>	<u>0.13</u>	<u>0.36</u>	<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.57</u>							<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.27</u>	<u>0.27</u>	<u>0.1</u>	<u>0.46</u>
DLS	<u>0.48</u>	<u>0.48</u>	<u>0.33</u>	<u>0.34</u>	<u>0.14</u>	<u>0.42</u>							<u>0.48</u>	<u>0.48</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.37</u>	<u>0.25</u>	<u>0.25</u>
PSS	<u>0.57</u>	<u>0.58</u>	<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.61</u>	<u>0.09</u>	<u>0.86</u>							<u>0.50</u>	<u>0.59</u>	<u>0.54</u>	<u>0.56</u>	<u>0.42</u>	<u>0.56</u>
Sandy soils	<u>0.52</u>	<u>0.52</u>	<u>0.45</u>	<u>0.48</u>	<u>0.15</u>	<u>0.75</u>	<u>0.13</u>	<u>0.85</u>	<u>0.29</u>	<u>0.61</u>	<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.35</u>						
Silty soil	<u>0.69</u>	<u>0.69</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.47</u>	<u>0.43</u>	<u>0.73</u>	<u>0.33</u>	<u>0.86</u>	<u>0.45</u>	<u>0.45</u>						
Loamy soils	<u>0.75</u>	<u>0.81</u>	<u>0.47</u>	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.19</u>	<u>0.75</u>	<u>0.55</u>	<u>0.76</u>	<u>0.49</u>	<u>0.56</u>	<u>0.41</u>	<u>0.41</u>						
Mean	<u>0.57</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.36</u>	<u>0.57</u>	<u>0.20</u>	<u>0.69</u>	<u>0.54</u>	<u>0.80</u>	<u>0.40</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.52</u>	<u>0.54</u>	<u>0.61</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.45</u>	<u>0.52</u>	<u>0.41</u>	<u>0.58</u>

341 **Fig. 4.** Coefficients of the mixed effect models to predict SOC, multiplied with the mean values of the specific cluster indicating
342 the impact of the applied variables. Differentiation into clusters and used random factors. Variables are scaled from 0 to 1.

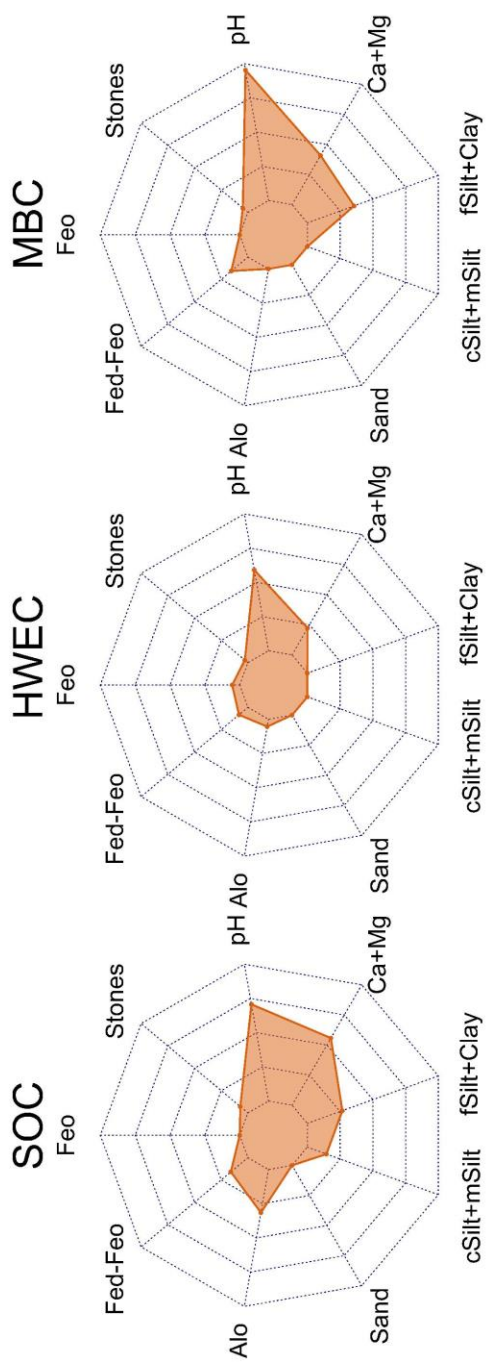


applied random factors



Fig. 5. Comparison of the coefficient impact for mixed effect models to predict SOC, HWEC and MBC for the entire dataset by using parent material as random factor. Variables are scaled from 0 to 1.





3.4 Comparison of total and local explained variability.

The different mixed effects models particularly comprised variables (Fig. 4, Fig. 5) that also proved significant in linear regressions (Table 3). Mineral phase parameters contributed with different significance to the models for SOC, HWEC and MBC. The SOC and HWEC were primarily explained by pedogenic oxides followed by soil texture related parameters. Not last, soil acidity indicated by pH and $(Ca+Mg)_{ECEC}$ was also relevant. MBC, compared to SOC or HWEC, was better explained by parameters linked to soil texture. Contribution of the variables, on SOC and its labile fraction was visualized using the mean values multiplied with their coefficients (Fig. 4, Fig 5). Distinct significant parameter combinations explaining SOC, HWEC and MBC were also found between the global data set and local clusters (Table 3, Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, SI Table 2). For example, within the soil texture related clusters pedogenic oxides, $(Ca+Mg)_{ECEC}$, pH and texture parameters were relevant to estimate SOC, HWEC and MBC (Table 3, Fig. 4 and Fig. 5). Regarding the random effects, applied mixed effect models using parent material as random effect explained variability of SOC best (Table 4). For MBC and HWEC, however, best model fits were mostly obtained with land use as random effect (Table 4). Only estimates of HWEC for the texture clusters were better when parent material was used as random effect.

Predictions for SOC, HWEC and MBC were conducted based on the mixed effects models. Subsequent linear regression between measured and predicted data showed a close relationship along the 1:1 prediction line leading to a high explained variance (Fig. 3, Table 5). For these regressions the explained variance was mostly comparable similar to R^2_{con} . Especially for the total clusters, i.e. all the total dataset and data clustered according to arable or grassland land use, best results were found obtained.

The R^2 of model predictions was best for the global clusters tested in this study, i.e. all data and data clustered according to arable or grassland land use. Yet, this was at least partly due to a larger sample size and a broader range of parameter values compared to the various local clusters. Applying the total global model for SOC estimation to a smaller local cluster data set clearly revealed an inferior explained variance performance of the total global compared to the local model (Fig. 6). Alongside with decreasing explained variance, RMSE values were mostly increasing if a total model of a total dataset was applied to a local dataset. The higher explained variance better performance of specific local models and parameter combinations was also found for other local clusters (Table 65 and SI Table 34).

By transferring a total model to local clusters, the explained variance differed for SOC by up to 20 % while RMSE differed by up to 0.25 %. local. Even if also in case a total model was transferred to a local dataset to estimate HWEC or MBC, the explained variance decreased and RMSE mostly increased. Thereby, explained variance decreased by up to 17 % for HWEC and MBC. The RMSE increased by up to 0.07 or 0.06 mg g⁻¹ for HWEC and MBC, respectively.

Table 5. R^2 and RMSE of the models for prediction of SOC, HWEC, and MBC based on the results of mixed effect models. RMSE is given in % for SOC and in μ mg/g for HWEC and MBC.

		Parent material ⁺			Land use ⁺			Texture ⁺			Mean model prediction
Sample		SOC	HWEC	MBC	SOC	HWEC	MBC	SOC	HWEC	MBC	R^2
Dataset	R^2	0.79*	0.63*	0.55*	0.77*	0.68*	0.71*	0.77*	0.61*	0.56*	0.67*
	RMSE	0.37	0.19	0.10	0.41	0.18	0.08	0.42	0.20	0.10	0.40 % / 0.14 mg g ⁻¹
Land use											
Arable	R^2	0.80*	0.59*	0.70*				0.72*	0.53*	0.71*	0.68*
	RMSE	0.33	0.15	0.05				0.39	0.16	0.05	0.36 % / 0.10 mg g ⁻¹
Grassland	R^2	0.91*	0.78*	0.76*				0.89*	0.67*	0.76*	0.80*
	RMSE	0.33	0.19	0.09				0.36	0.24	0.09	0.35 % / 0.15 mg g ⁻¹
Parent Material											
DCS	R^2				0.81*	0.78*	0.79*	0.74*	0.62*	0.55*	0.72
	RMSE				0.34	0.17	0.07	0.40	0.22	0.11	0.37 % / 0.14 mg g ⁻¹

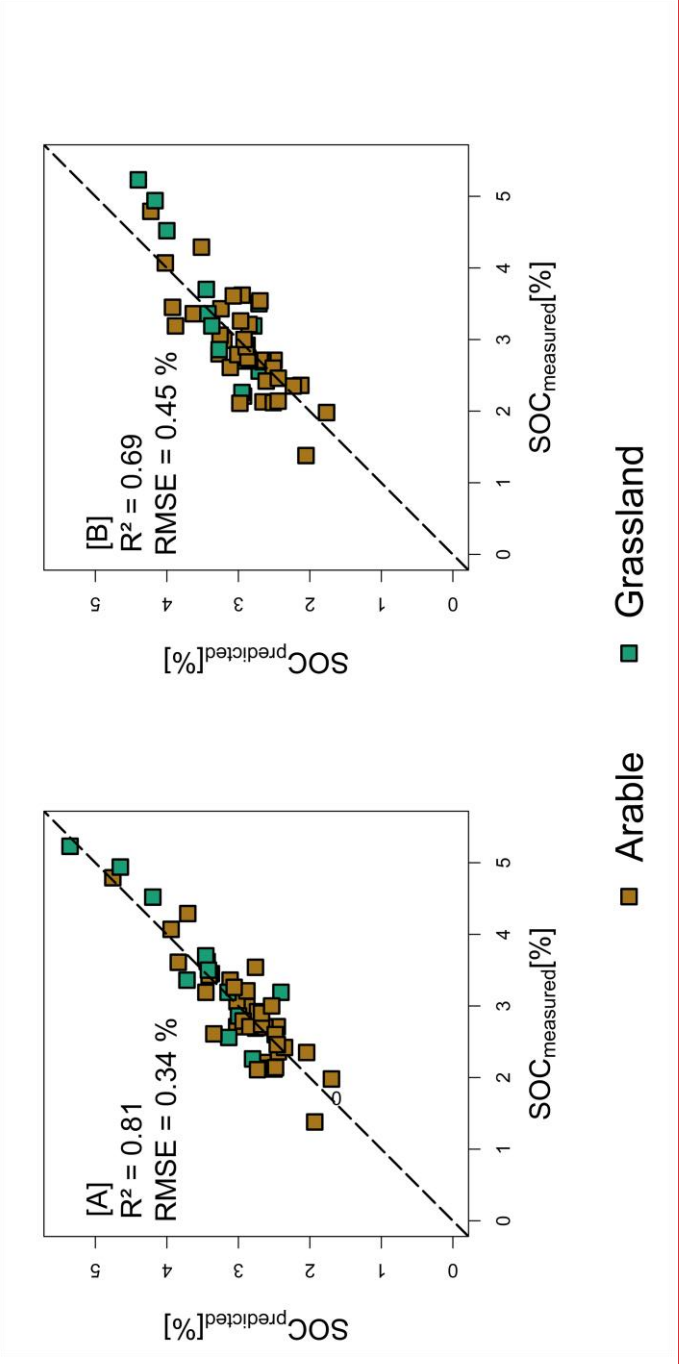
<u>LBS</u>	<u>R²</u>				<u>0.43*</u>	<u>0.27*</u>	<u>0.48*</u>	<u>0.41*</u>	<u>0.29*</u>	<u>0.41*</u>	<u>0.38</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>				<u>0.30</u>	<u>0.14</u>	<u>0.03</u>	<u>0.30</u>	<u>0.14</u>	<u>0.03</u>	<u>0.30 % / 0.09 mg g⁻¹</u>
<u>DLS</u>	<u>R²</u>				<u>0.50*</u>	<u>0.36*</u>	<u>0.32*</u>	<u>0.50*</u>	<u>0.37*</u>	<u>0.26*</u>	<u>0.39</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>				<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.17</u>	<u>0.10</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.17</u>	<u>0.10</u>	<u>0.35 % / 0.13 mg g⁻¹</u>
<u>PSS</u>	<u>R²</u>				<u>0.61*</u>	<u>0.62*</u>	<u>0.74*</u>	<u>0.63*</u>	<u>0.56*</u>	<u>0.60*</u>	<u>0.62</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>				<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.16</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>0.20</u>	<u>0.16</u>	<u>0.07</u>	<u>0.21 % / 0.11 mg g⁻¹</u>
<u>Texture</u>											
<u>Sandy</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.79*</u>	<u>0.61*</u>	<u>0.28*</u>	<u>0.54*</u>	<u>0.51*</u>	<u>0.58*</u>	=	=	=	<u>0.55</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.12</u>	<u>0.04</u>	<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.14</u>	<u>0.03</u>				<u>0.26 % / 0.08 mg g⁻¹</u>
<u>Silty soils</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.74*</u>	<u>0.75*</u>	<u>0.48*</u>	<u>0.72*</u>	<u>0.66*</u>	<u>0.50*</u>	=	=	=	<u>0.64</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.14</u>	<u>0.09</u>	<u>0.40</u>	<u>0.16</u>	<u>0.08</u>				<u>0.40 % / 0.12 mg g⁻¹</u>
<u>Loamy</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.83*</u>	<u>0.59*</u>	<u>0.41*</u>	<u>0.81*</u>	<u>0.66*</u>	<u>0.64*</u>	=	=	=	<u>0.66</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.20</u>	<u>0.10</u>	<u>0.38</u>	<u>0.19</u>	<u>0.08</u>				<u>0.37 % / 0.14 mg g⁻¹</u>
<u>Mean model prediction</u>											
<u>Mean</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.81</u>	<u>0.66</u>	<u>0.53</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.57</u>	<u>0.59</u>	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.52</u>	<u>0.55</u>	
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.33</u>	<u>0.17</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>0.34</u>	<u>0.16</u>	<u>0.07</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.18</u>	<u>0.08</u>	

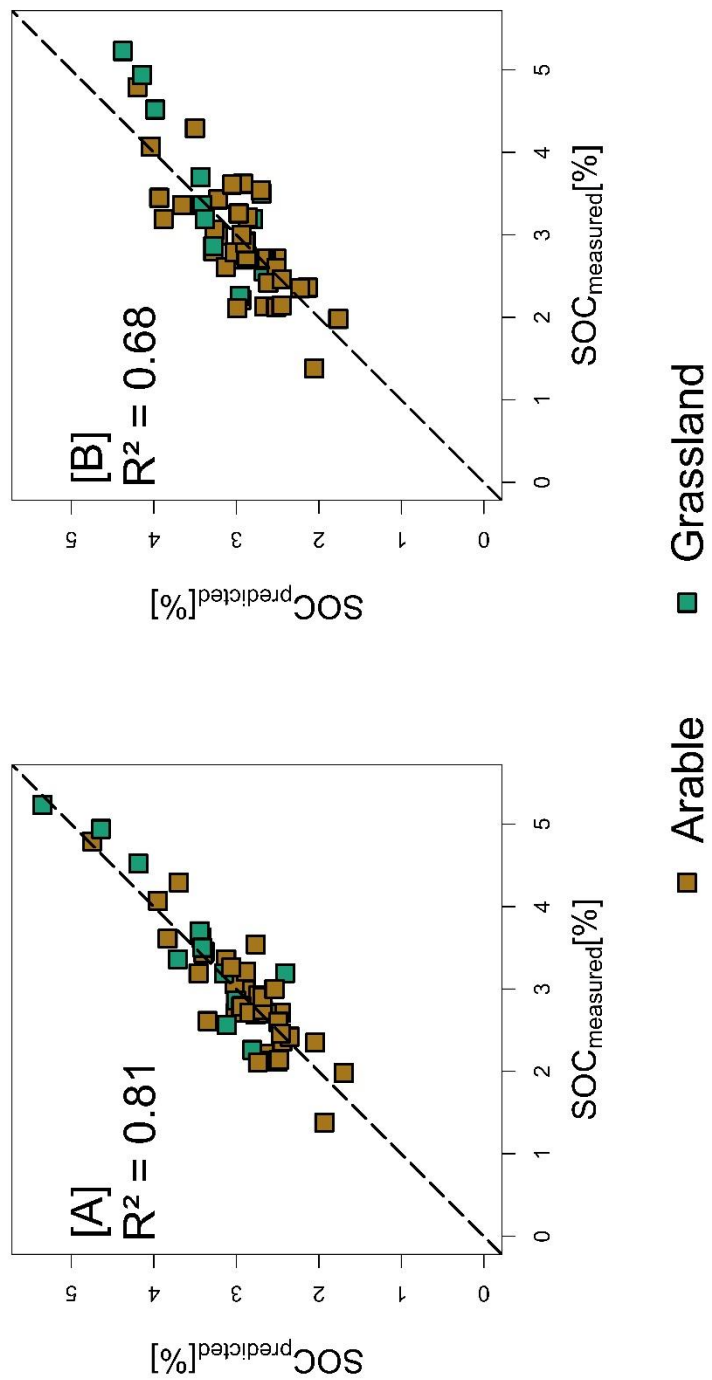
+Applied random effect; ~Not all random effects could applied to this group of clusters because of missing factor levels. *Significant on a level of <0.05

Table 56. R² and RMSE for implementation of the totalGlobal dataset to local clusters to estimate SOC.

<u>SOC</u>						
<u>Sample subgroups</u>		<u>Parent material</u>		<u>Land use</u>		<u>Texture</u>
		<u>Cluster specific</u>	<u>totalGlobal</u>	<u>Cluster specific</u>	<u>totalGlobal</u>	<u>Cluster specific</u>
		<u>mModel</u>	<u>model to local cluster</u>	<u>mModel</u>	<u>model to local cluster</u>	<u>mModel</u>
<u>Dataset</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.79</u>		<u>0.77</u>		<u>0.77</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.37</u>		<u>0.41</u>		<u>0.42</u>
<u>DCS</u>	<u>R²</u>	-		<u>0.81</u>	<u>0.69</u>	<u>0.74</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>			<u>0.34</u>	<u>0.44</u>	<u>0.40</u>
<u>LBS</u>	<u>R²</u>	-		<u>0.43</u>	<u>0.23</u>	<u>0.41</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>			<u>0.30</u>	<u>0.41</u>	<u>0.30</u>
<u>DLS</u>	<u>R²</u>	-		<u>0.50</u>	<u>0.30</u>	<u>0.50</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>			<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.42</u>	<u>0.35</u>
<u>PSS</u>	<u>R²</u>	-		<u>0.61</u>	<u>0.57</u>	<u>0.63</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>			<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.38</u>	<u>0.20</u>
<u>Sandy soils</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.79</u>	<u>0.68</u>	<u>0.54</u>	<u>0.37</u>	-
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.21</u>	<u>0.26</u>	<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.36</u>	
<u>Silty soils</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.74</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.72</u>	<u>0.60</u>	-
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.45</u>	<u>0.40</u>	<u>0.48</u>	
<u>Loamy soils</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.83</u>	<u>0.83</u>	<u>0.81</u>	<u>0.79</u>	-
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.36</u>	<u>0.38</u>	<u>0.40</u>	
<u>Arable</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.80</u>	<u>0.80</u>			<u>0.72</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.33</u>	<u>0.34</u>			<u>0.39</u>
<u>Grassland</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>0.91</u>	<u>0.87</u>			<u>0.89</u>
	<u>RMSE</u>	<u>0.33</u>	<u>0.44</u>			<u>0.36</u>

Fig. 6. Predicted vs. measured content of SOC of soil samples from the DCS cluster; predictions based on the local model [A] and the global model [B].





4 Discussion

Our study showed that interactions of SOC with the mineral phase are highly relevant for the content of SOC as well as of its labile fractions HWE and MBC in soils. High ~~correlations-regression coefficients~~ of SOC to fSilt plus clay (Table 3) agree with reports on the relevance of organo-mineral associations for the stabilization of SOC and related to this the accumulation of the labile fraction HWE and MBC (Lützow et al., 2006). Furthermore, sandy soils contained the lowest content of SOC while loamy and silty soils had an equally higher content of SOC (Table 1). This is typically expected and confirms numerous previous reports, e.g. Ludwig et al. (2003) and Vos et al. (2018). In contrast, ~~for the LBS cluster with its very sandy soils,~~ a slightly positive effect of sand on SOC was found. ~~for the in total very sandy soils in the parent material cluster of LBS.~~ This, however, is most likely a consequence of agricultural practice, with high manure application to the LBS soils in the sampled area. This was further confirmed by a factor of 1.2 higher ratios of SOC/N and HWE/N as well as by a lower oxygen content of SOM compared to soils of the other parent material clusters (factor of 0.6; Table 1). Besides parameters directly related to soil texture, pedogenic Al- and Fe-oxides were found to be strong predictors of SOC in soils. Accordingly, Al- and Fe-oxides were shown to have a relevant influence on ~~the accumulation the sequestration~~ and stabilization of SOC (Kaiser and Guggenberger, 2000; Lützow et al., 2006) as well as to have a high affinity to retain components of the labile SOC fractions (Kaiser and Zech, 1998; Kaiser et al., 2002). Although soil acidity strongly affects soil processes such as microbial activity and turnover that are relevant for SOC accumulation (Kemmitt et al., 2006), no clear ~~regressionrelation coefficients~~ ~~correlation~~ between pH and SOC or its labile fractions was found by ~~bivariate~~ linear regression. Yet, soil parameters that are strongly related to soil acidity, i.e. ECEC as well as the content of exchangeable polyvalent cations such as Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} , were suitable predictors for SOC and its labile fractions in this and previous studies (O'Brien et al., 2015; Rasmussen et al., 2018). This is causally explained by the stabilization of SOC in organo-mineral associations and the contribution of multivalent cation bridges (Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}) to it (Kaiser et al., 2012). The ~~minor ability of ECEC and $(\text{Ca}+\text{Mg})_{\text{ECEC}}$ and the even~~ higher ability of ~~the content of~~ pedogenic oxides to explain variance of SOC and its labile fractions ~~was indicated~~ in this study ~~for several clusters (total and local) by bivariate regressions~~ (Table 3). ~~This corresponds to findings of Rasmussen et al. (2018). They found a prevalence of pedogenic oxides in humid areas with moderately acidic soils, while exchangeable Ca and clay prevailed in soils of dry climates with circumneutral to alkaline pH. Such a case-specific prevalence of parameters to predict SOC, HWE or MBC demonstrates that it is preferred to use specific parameter sets when it is aimed to focus on local areas. In this study Ability of ECEC and $(\text{Ca}+\text{Mg})_{\text{ECEC}}$ were not generally applicable as predictors but it was further strongly dependent on the observed parent material and texture cluster. For example, ECEC and $(\text{Ca}+\text{Mg})_{\text{ECEC}}$ were found to be relevant for the clusters of DLS and PSS, while for DCS they were of minor importance. More often than ECEC the was in mixed effect models This shown using combined~~ ~~snee of SOC, HWE or MBC better. As example ECEC and $(\text{Ca}+\text{Mg})_{\text{ECEC}}$ was found as relevant for the clusters of DLS and PSS, while for DCS it show a minor importance.~~ The bivariate models revealed that the stone content had only a small impact on SOC, HWE and MBC. Hence, a funnel effect of the stone content, by funneling more SOC into the remaining fine textured soil (Bornemann et al., 2011) was irrelevant. The combinations of factors and soil properties affecting SOC and SOC fractions, respectively, were dissimilar between the different local areas investigated in this study. The PCA revealed that differences according to parent material and soil texture were most relevant to separate the dataset into various local clusters based on different factors (Fig. 2 A and B; Table 2). At the same time, this illustrates the importance of the mineral composition (parent material) and grain size (soil texture) for the accumulation of SOC as well as its labile fractions HWE and MBC. In contrast, land use was not useful for a separation into clusters. This was unexpected because typically topsoils under grassland have higher SOC contents compared to arable soils (Poepplau et al., 2020), which was largely confirmed for the samples investigated in this study (Table 1). This went along with differences in the composition of SOM (Table 1 and Table SI). However, data

433 ranges of SOC, HWEC and MBC contents were largely overlapping and similarities even increased in PCA when further soil
434 properties were included. In comparison, mineral phase soil properties clearly separated the dataset while composition of SOM
435 was less enabled for this purpose. Consequently, a broad scatter of the land use clusters was obtained by PCA, suggesting to
436 treat the land use clusters as ~~totalglobal~~ datasets as well.

437 Several studies with large datasets covering national or continental scales, e.g. soil inventories, pointed out the relevance of
438 combinations of multiple factors and parameters instead of using single predictors to estimate SOC or its labile fractions. (Wieder
439 et al., 2015; Vos et al., 2018; Gray et al., 2019). ~~(Vos et al., 2018).~~ Furthermore, local studies covering small areas with narrow
440 ranges of soil properties often show weak bivariate relationships between SOC and components of the mineral phase or
441 environmental factors (Jian-Bing et al., 2006; Liddle et al., 2020). Accordingly, models focused on specific local clusters and
442 combined with multiple parameter sets were superior compared to the ~~totalglobal~~ model that was developed for the ~~totalglobal~~
443 ~~(complete)(entire)~~ dataset to estimate SOC, HWEC or MBC (Fig. 6). The different parameter combinations indicate that distinct
444 properties of the mineral phase control SOC, HWEC and MBC in the soils of the different clusters.

445 Understanding SOC as continuum (Lehmann and Kleber, 2015) implies that accumulation of SOC is a multidimensional process
446 with various interacting factors and soil properties, respectively. The substantially lower ability of bivariate models to estimate
447 SOC compared to multiple parameter models is in line with~~confirmed~~ this assumption. Accordingly, it was superior to use
448 multiparameter mixed effect models to estimate SOC and the two labile fractions. Especially parameter combinations within the
449 land use clusters gained a high-explained variance (Table 3, Table 4). A comparison with studies on regional or national scale
450 (Vos et al., 2018; Mayer et al., 2019) suggests that the importance of factors such as land use, soil texture or parent material
451 varies with the observed scale. Wiesmeier et al. (2019) reported that soil texture, land use and land management are relevant to
452 explain SOC variability at all scales. On regional or larger scale, also environmental factors such as climate, geology, soil use,
453 topography are relevant for SOC. Yet, at a local or smaller scale factors such as climate become less important, while parameters
454 representing small-scale soil physico-chemical properties gain importance for explaining the variability of SOC. Thereby,
455 different factor and parameter combinations were identified for the different local clusters by mixed effect modelling. The
456 prevalence of a parameter for quantification of SOC can differ dependent on environmental factors (Rasmussen et al., 2018).

457 Consequently, the quality of the multiparameter models was further improved by the implementation of local specific random
458 effects such as parent material or land use. Dependent on the random factors parent material, soil texture class and land use
459 different parameter combinations explained SOC, HWEC or MBC (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5). For the ~~totalglobal (complete)~~ dataset,
460 nearly all predictor parameters showed a significant contribution to the explanation of SOC. Most of these soil mineral phase
461 parameters were also significant in linear regression. In contrast to the bivariate models, most mixed effect models revealed
462 parameters related to soil acidity as significantly important to estimate SOC, HWEC and MBC. This highlights the importance
463 of soil acidity on SOC dynamics due to its effects on the reactivity of the mineral phase and the activity of microorganisms
464 (Hillel, 2004). In order to explain the variability of HWEC and MBC for the various local clusters, different combinations of
465 mineral phase parameters were required that also clearly differed from the parameter combinations used in the models for SOC
466 (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5). Such differences concerning significantly contributing parameters were also found by other studies for
467 specific clusters or local sampling sites (Heinze et al., 2018; Quesada et al., 2020). This emphasizes that local models are required
468 and superior when it is the aim to estimate SOC and SOC fractions on a local scale. The ~~totalglobal~~ models used for the
469 ~~totalglobal~~ datasets in this study reached the best predictions for SOC, HWEC and MBC. Nevertheless some local cluster
470 revealed a smaller RMSe than the total clusters. Yet, this was largely biased by the large samples size; applying the same
471 ~~totalglobal~~ models to local samples sets produced clearly poorer estimates compared to the more specific local models as
472 indicated by the explained variance and the RMSE (Fig. 6; Table 45 and Table 65). This was found even for the explained

~~variance as well as for the RMSE.~~ Consequently, aggregation of smaller datasets, e.g. from a local scale, to a larger dataset enables to predict SOC and its labile fractions to a ~~satisfying-higher~~ extent. In opposite a ~~model that was derived from a totalglobal~~ dataset ~~and is applied to the a local area and its dataset~~ with ~~defined-smaller ranges of~~ properties is ~~partially practicableless suitable~~, resulting in a variance explained on a lower level. ~~Dependend~~~~Dependent~~ on the properties of the soil mineral phase, each specific cluster was controlled by other properties, which best explain the accumulation of SOC and its labile fractions. This implies the importance for analysis of local clusters to avoid a subordination by models of ~~totalglobal~~ datasets.

Comparing the results of mixed effect models using the different random effects (parent material, soil texture, land use), the models using parent material yielded ~~highest explained variancebest results~~ for the estimation of SOC. For HWEC and MBC best predictions at a ~~high sufficient-quality~~ level of explained variance were obtained by models using land use as random effect (Table 4). ~~RMSE was mostly in line with founding concerning explained variance. High explained variance resulted mostly inwent along with smaller RMSE values.~~ The parent material predefines the boundaries for accumulation and stabilization of organic matter (Gray et al., 2015). The importance of land use as random effect especially for the labile fractions results from the fact that these are especially influenced by soil management (Cardoso et al., 2013; Lal, 2016).

In general, the variance explained by the mixed effect models was not similar, but varied between SOC and its labile fractions HWEC and MBC. It became clear that SOC and the labile fractions HWEC and MBC are not fully correlated but quantitatively quite distinct SOM pools with different ~~annual~~ dynamics (Wander, 2004; Tokarski et al., 2020). Not last, the faster turnover of the labile fractions is one of the reasons for the lower explained variability by the different models. HWEC is a measure of bioavailable and degradable organic carbon (Weigel et al., 1998). Although it is closely correlated to SOC ($R^2=0.75$) it is best estimated by distinct parameter combinations compared to SOC, which is explained by the substantially higher variability of HWEC (Table 3 and 4). Changes in HWEC are mostly assigned to inputs of organic fertilizer substrates (Weigel et al., 1998) and the soil management (Ghani et al., 2003). For MBC especially soil management and factors such as C-input, climate, soil texture and soil pH are relevant (Wardle, 1992). Accordingly, the effect of land use but also of soil texture was most relevant for MBC accumulation. Similar to findings of Ludwig et al. (2015), MBC increased with the content of silt and clay but declined with sand, which is explained amongst other by the contribution of MBC to aggregate formation, the habitable surface and accessibility of SOC (Totsche et al., 2018). Additionally, management practices such as tillage and the application of organic fertilizer directly influence MBC (Liang et al., 1997). ~~DecreasingLower explained variance of HWEC and MBC compared to SOC were based on a smaller relevance of the mineral phase parameters for their accumulation. FurtherLabile fractions such as HWEC and MBC, containing larger proportions of bioavailable and easily degradable compartmentsorganic compounds, leading to are subject to a faster turnover~~ (Landgraf et al., 2006; Lorenz et al., 2021) ~~and a lower ability to interact with the mineral phase.~~

5 Conclusions

The reliable estimation of SOC and of its labile fractions HWEC and MBC is a task of growing importance in order to manage soil properties and functioning. That task will most often focus on local soilscales with minor variation range in soil properties. This study showed that local models are superior to ~~totalglobal~~ models. Mixed ~~parameter effect~~ models combined with random effects yielded best estimates and highest explained variance for SOC and even its labile and quite dynamic fractions HWEC and MBC. For this purpose, the application of multivariate approaches to estimate SOC, HWEC and MBC clearly ~~resulted in a higher explained variance compared tooutperforms~~ models based on bivariate ~~linear regressionse correlations~~. Even a reduced

dataset, representing parameters of the soil mineral phase is suited to estimate contents of SOC as well as HWEC and MBC. ~~Application of models from total datasets to local lead to a smaller explained variance while RMSE increased.~~ The inclusion of overall factors such as parent material, soil texture class and land use as random effects further improves the models. ~~Total Global or even global~~ models, developed from large-scale studies across countries or continents, often reach best estimates; however, they are subordinate for the above-mentioned small-scale areas and low sample numbers. Application of total models to local datasets leads to a smaller explained variance and higher RMSE. For further research we suggest to identify possible clusters and to prove if these clusters were well explained by the overall total dataset. If otherwise we suggest to search of most relevant parameters to achieve a site adapted estimation to improve the overall understanding to SOC and its labile fractions on different landscapes. From a practical perspective, the selected set of soil mineral phase parameters can be easily determined by using well-established methods and the parameters are rather stable over a longer-term. Thus, using such parameters for the ~~sufficient~~ estimation of SOC, HWEC and MBC is expedient. The presented research will be further enlarged by studying larger datasets containing more clusters in order to better identify local drivers of SOC and of its labile fractions. ~~s~~ Our research shows that local models, considering site-specific parameter combinations, are superior to total models, although they are based on much smaller datasets. If such local datasets and models are available, they should be preferred. For further research we suggest to assess even larger datasets, in order to find out whether local subclusters can be identified and to examine if these clusters are best explained by total or local models. Furthermore, research is needed to determine most relevant parameters for a site adapted estimation of SOC and its labile fractions on different landscapes.

6 Code/Data availability

The raw data is available upon request to the authors.

7. Author contribution

MO, TU, MV, STB conceived, and designed the study. MO, MS, SS performed the sampling and analysis. MO wrote the first draft. All authors (MO, MS, SS; UT, MV, STB) contributed to generating and ~~and~~ reviewing the subsequent versions of the manuscript.

8. Competing interests

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

9 Acknowledgements

This study was founded by the German Environment Agency in the framework of the ScreeSOM project (“Screening methods for a cost effective detection of supply with SOM in arable and grassland soils”, project no. 371 673 208 0). ~~The authors thank the reviewers for their valuable comments. Further the authors thank the editor for its efforts.~~ The authors thank the colleagues of the Soil Science Department of Trier University, P. Ziegler and E. Sieberger and the students A. Forens, M. Heinrich, K. Struwe and A. Hergert for assistance during field and laboratory work.

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