1	Belowground allocation and dynamics of recently fixed plant carbon in a California annual						
2	grassland soil						
3	Christina Fossum ^{1*} , Katerina Estera-Molina ¹ , Mengting Yuan ¹ , Don Herman ¹ , Ilexis Chu-						
4	Jacoby ¹ , Peter Nico ² , Keith Morrison ³ , Jennifer Pett-Ridge ^{3,4} , Mary Firestone ^{1,2}						
5	Author Affiliations						
6	¹ Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and Management, University of California,						
7	Berkeley, CA; ² Earth Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley CA;						
8	³ Physical and Life Sciences Directorate, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore,						
9	CA; ⁴ Life and Environmental Sciences Department, University of California, Merced, CA						
10							
11	Keywords: soil organic matter, annual grassland, ¹³ CO ₂ pulse labeling, SOM density						
12	fractionation, ¹³ C-NMR						
13	Corresponding author: Mary Firestone, Department of Environmental Science, Policy, and						
14	Management, 140 Mulford Hall, University of California, Berkeley CA 94720						
15	(mkfstone@berkeley.edu)						
16							
17	<u>Summary</u>						
18	Plant roots and the organisms that surround them are a primary source for stabilized						
19	organic C, particularly in grassland soils, which have a large capacity to store organic carbon						
20	belowground. To quantify the flow and fate of plant fixed carbon (C) in a Northern California						
21	annual grassland, we tracked plant carbon from a five-day ¹³ CO ₂ pulse field labeling for the						
22	following two years. Soil and plant samples were collected immediately after the pulse labeling,						
23	and again at three days, four weeks, six months, one year, and two years. Soil organic matter was						

24 fractionated using a sodium polytungstate density gradient to separate the free-light fraction 25 (FLF), occluded-light fraction (OLF), and heavy fraction (HF). Using isotope ratio mass spectrometry, we measured ¹³C enrichment and total C content for plant shoots, roots, soil, soil 26 27 dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and the FLF, OLF, and HF. The HF was further analyzed by solid state ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. 28 At the end of the labeling period, the largest amount of ¹³C was recovered in plant shoots 29 (60%), but a substantial amount (40%) was already found belowground in roots, soil, and soil 30 31 DOC. Density fractionation of 4-week soil samples (from which living roots were removed) 32 indicated that the highest isotope enrichment was in the mineral-rich heavy fraction, with similar enrichment of the FLF and OLF. At the 6-month sampling, after the dry summer period during 33 34 which plants senesced and died, the amount of label in the FLF increased such that it was equal to that in the HF. By the 1-year sampling, ¹³C in the FLF had declined substantially and 35 continued to decline by the 2-year sampling. ¹³C recovery in the OLF and HF, however, was 36 qualitatively stable between sampling times. By the end of the 2-year experiment, 69% of 37 38 remaining label was in the HF, 18% in the FLF and 13% in the OLF. While the total ¹³C content of the HF did not change significantly from the 4-week to the 39 2-year sample time, ¹³C NMR spectroscopic analysis of spring HF samples from 2018, 2019, and 40

2-year sample time, ¹³C NMR spectroscopic analysis of spring HF samples from 2018, 2019, and
2020 suggests that the relative proportion of aliphatic/alkyl functional groups declined in the
newly formed SOC over the 2-year period. Simultaneously, aromatic and carbonyl functional
groups increased, and the proportion of carbohydrate groups remained relatively constant. In
summary, our results indicate that initial associations between minerals and root-derived organic
matter are significant and form rapidly; by 4 weeks, a substantial amount (17%) of the total
plant-derived ¹³C had become associated with the heavy fraction (HF) of soil. While the majority

47 of annual C input cycles rapidly (<2-year timescale), a sizeable proportion (~12% of the original
48 inputs) persisted for 2 years.

49

50

51 **1.** Introduction

California annual grasslands occupy over 10 million ha (Heady et al., 1992), and have 52 53 been predicted to be a more resilient and therefore effective carbon sink than California's fire-54 prone forests (Dass et al., 2018). According to a recent metaanalysis, grassland soils also have an increased capacity to store soil carbon in the face of increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentrations 55 56 (Terrer-Moreno et al., 2020). As such, these ecosystems have become an attractive target for 57 California state policy initiatives aimed at mitigating atmospheric CO₂ levels through soil carbon 58 sequestration (Biggs & Huntsinger, 2021; Baker et al., 2020). However, our scientific 59 understanding of soil carbon cycling, the fate of plant residues belowground, and how annual 60 grasslands can broadly act as a viable carbon sink remains incomplete (Bradford et al., 2019). To 61 effectively manage carbon stocks, further research is required to better understand the ecological 62 parameters that regulate soil carbon cycling in these globally significant ecosystems.

Belowground carbon dynamics in California annual grasslands reflect the annual plant life cycle (Eviner & Firestone, 2007). Plant communities are dominated by annual grasses and forbs, species whose reproductive strategies are well-adapted to a Mediterranean climate where seasonal moisture limitations largely regulate nutrient cycling. This climate is characterized by cool wet winters and a warm summer period with no rainfall, a defining feature of which is the misalignment of two critical conditions for plant growth: rainfall and solar energy. Moisture

69 limits plant growth in the summers, and sunlight and temperature limit plant growth in the 70 winters (Bartolome et al., 2007; Eviner and Firestone, 2007). The plant life cycle begins with the 71 first germinating rainfall in the autumn, proceeds slowly through the winter due to sunlight and 72 temperature limitations, peaks in the spring when both soil moisture and sunlight are usually 73 optimized, and ends with plant senescence once soil moisture has declined with the onset of the 74 summer dry period (Eviner 2016; Eviner and Firestone, 2007). Throughout the winter/spring 75 growing season, carbon enters the soil primarily via a constant "drip" of plant root exudation 76 (Sokol & Bradford, 2019; Pett-Ridge et al., 2021); over the summer dry period, plant senescence 77 and subsequent litter input, coupled with low-moisture conditions drives the transient accumulation of litter; in the autumn at the onset of the rainy season, a large portion of 78 79 accumulated carbon is rapidly released as CO₂ in a decomposition "pulse" (Blankinship & Schimel, 2018). 80

81 The characteristic seasonal soil moisture variability in Mediterranean climates can impact 82 the persistence of soil organic matter (SOM) via multiple mechanisms. Following 4-6 months of no precipitation, autumn's first major rainfall event strongly impacts the soil biota, physically 83 84 stresses soil aggregates, chemically alters soil minerals, and destabilizes SOM, driving a pulse of respiration known as the Birch Effect (Barnard et al., 2020; Blazewicz et al., 2020; Birch, 1958). 85 86 This release of CO₂ is generally understood to result from the stimulation of microbial 87 respiration and high availability of substrate (Schimel, 2018; Barnard et al., 2020). Plant germination usually occurs in the Autumn, temperature limits growth in the winter, and the peak 88 89 period of plant growth occurs in the spring when both temperature and moisture are optimized. 90 The majority of rhizosphere-derived SOC generation occurs during this spring growth period. Then, in late spring when soil moisture conditions no longer support growth, new root C inputs 91

92	decline as plant senescence occurs and annual species set seed. During this dry-down period,							
93	decreasing soil moisture reduces hydrological connectivity between soil pores, isolating							
94	microbes from carbon substrates and resulting in a decline in ecosystem activity (Manzoni and							
95	Katul, 2014; Barnard et al., 2013; Blankinship and Schimel, 2018). Decomposition of plant							
96	biomass and transfer of carbon belowground continue to be limited throughout the summer dry							
97	period (Chou et al., 2008; Eviner and Firestone, 2007). While not fully understood, these wet-dry							
98	cycles characteristic of California annual grasslands may be important drivers of SOM							
99	persistence, and may be susceptible to future climate conditions that either amplify or minimize							
100	their stabilizing or destabilizing effects (Bailey et al., 2019).							
101	Soil carbon is often considered in terms of distinct soil organic matter "pools": either							
102	associated with minerals, occluded within microaggregates, or "free" (not subject to either							
103	chemical or physical protection) (Poeplau et al., 2018). Recent studies have shown that labile							
104	carbon substrates can play an important role in SOM formation and stabilization in both							
105	physically (occluded) and chemically (mineral-associated) pools (Cotrufo et al., 2015; Totsche et							
106	al., 2017; Villarino et al., 2021), while plant litter is generally understood to largely comprise the							
107	free-light fraction material. The mineral-associated or "heavy fraction" is of particular interest							
108	for soil organic carbon persistence; it is typically the oldest distinct pool (Torn et al., 1997) and							
109	represents carbon stabilized via mineral sorption and co-precipitation mechanisms (Kogel-							
110	Knabner et al., 2008). This fraction of SOM, commonly termed MAOM (mineral-associated							
111	organic matter) (Cotrufo et al., 2019), is largely of microbial origin and thought to be derived							
112	from relatively labile C substrates (Clemente et al., 2011; Cotrufo et al., 2013; Villarino et al.,							
113	2021). Recent work has suggested that microbial necromass may be a primary precursor to stable							
114	organic matter in grasslands (Angst et al., 2021).							

115 In this study, we followed plant-fixed C entering the soil and moving into various soil 116 organic matter pools, and also tracked its form and transformations over the course of multiple growing seasons. Initially, we exposed soil to the stable isotope ¹³C, via a 5-day ¹³CO₂ field 117 118 labeling of a California annual grassland plant community. To quantify the distribution and twoyear dynamics of added ¹³C tracer in aboveground plant biomass, plant roots, soil, and various 119 120 soil organic matter pools, we sampled biomass and soil at multiple timepoints following the field pulse labeling (immediately, 3 days, 4 weeks, 6 months, 1 year, and 2 years), and physically 121 122 fractionated soil samples with a sodium polytungstate density gradient procedure. We isolated 3 123 soil density fractions: (HF) the heavy fraction (mineral-associated soil organic matter, MAOM), 124 (OLF) the occluded-light fraction (micro-aggregate occluded soil organic matter), and (FLF) the free-light fraction (accessible soil organic matter debris) (Golchin et al., 1994; Sollins et al., 125 2009). We further characterized the chemistry of the heavy fraction ¹³C using solid state CPMAS 126 127 ¹³C NMR spectroscopy, in order to better understand both the composition of carbon newly 128 incorporated into this fraction, as well as the influence of new inputs on the total mineralassociated carbon pool. By combining ¹³C labeling, soil density fractionation, and solid-state ¹³C 129 NMR, we sought to temporally characterize the flow and fate of newly fixed C entering this 130 annual grassland soil and understand the dynamics of plant-derived soil organic carbon 131 formation and persistence. 132

133 **<u>2. Methods</u>**

134 2.1 Field site description

Field work was conducted at the University of California Hopland Research and
Extension Center (HREC), in southwestern Mendocino County, CA (39.004056, -123.085872).

137 Climatic conditions at the field site are similar to conditions across Mediterranean California, with cool and wet winters, and hot, dry summers. Germination of the annual plant community 138 139 occurs in the fall, following the first significant rainfall of the winter rainy season. Growth is 140 limited throughout much of the winter by sunlight and temperature, and then peaks in the spring, 141 followed by seed production and senescence by early summer (Becchetti et al., 2016). The 142 vegetation community is dominated by naturalized annual grass and forb species including 143 Avena spp., Festuca spp., Erodium spp., and Bromus spp. (Bartolome et al., 2007). Today, 144 HREC is operated by the UC system as a working sheep ranch. Our field plots have been fenced 145 off from grazing for >20 years. The soil at our field site belongs to the Squawrock-Witherell 146 complex, a loamy-skeletal, mixed, superactive, thermic Typic Haploxeralf. Underlying parent 147 material is colluvium derived from sandstone (Soil Survey Staff, 2020). Our measurements 148 suggest the dominant clays are muscovite, chlorite, and kaolinite; dominant non-clay minerals 149 are quartz and plagioclase (Table 1).

150 **2.2 Experimental design**

Samples collected for this study are a subset from a larger ¹³CO₂ labeling and 151 precipitation manipulation field experiment. In the spring of 2017, sixteen 3.24 m² plots were 152 153 established, each delineated by a 1-m deep plastic liner to limit soil water equilibration with 154 surrounding soils, and each containing six 40-cm diameter circular subplots. Circular subplots 155 were surrounded by a 15cm deep PVC "collar" designed to be fitted with an above-ground cylindrical chamber for labelling plants with either ¹²C or ¹³C-CO₂ (Supplemental Figure 1A). 156 157 Each circular subplot was subdivided into four 15-cm deep sections via plexiglass dividers; this "wedge" design allowed us to destructively harvest ¹³CO2-labeled soil and biomass from a single 158 circular subplot at multiple timepoints following a labeling event (Supplemental Figure 1B). 159

Removable rain-exclusion shelters were installed above all plots and precipitation manipulation began in the fall of 2017 and continued through the 2019-2020 growing season. Of the 16 plots, eight received 50% of average annual precipitation and eight received 100%, where average annual rainfall was calculated from precipitation data collected at HREC dating back to 1951 (Supplemental Figure 2). Depending on the timing and quantity of natural rainfall events, field plot precipitation was augmented via manual watering with natural spring water and limited through application of the rain-out shelters.

Experimental plots were labeled with ¹²C or ¹³C-CO₂ (99 atm %, Cambridge Isotopes) for 167 168 5 days from February 11-15, 2018, timed to correspond with the expected maximum root 169 development phase of Avena spp. plant growth (the plots were seeded the prior year to encourage 170 a Avena spp. dominated community). CO₂ levels during the pulse labeling event were monitored with a Picaroon G2200-I analyzer (for ¹³C) and infrared gas analyzer (IRGA) (for ¹²C). For the 171 172 labeling, well-sealed cylindrical chambers made of PAR transmissive PVC film were fitted over 173 two circular subplots per plot (Supplemental Figure 1A). Plants within these chambers were exposed to either ¹²CO₂ or an isotopically labeled analog, ¹³CO₂, resulting in 16 ¹²CO₂-labeled 174 175 'control' subplots and 16¹³CO₂-labeled subplots. The headspace CO₂ concentrations within the 176 chambers were maintained between 400-1500ppm during the daytime, and chambers were removed from plots at night. ¹³C enrichment of ¹³CO₂-labeled subplots was maintained between 177 178 30-75 atom%. Within each CO₂ group, 8 of the 16 subplots were under the 50% precipitation regimen, and 8 under the 100% regimen. 179

180 2.3 Field harvests of ¹³C labeled biomass and soil

Soil was harvested at six times following the ¹³CO₂ labeling event: (1) immediately after 181 182 the 5-day labeling period, (2) three days later, (3) four weeks after the first harvest, (4) six 183 months after the first harvest, (5) one year after the first harvest, and (6) two years after the first 184 harvest. We subsequently refer to these harvest sampling times both by the time elapsed since the 185 ¹³C labeling event (0 days, 3 days, 4 weeks, 6 months, 1 year, and 2 years), as well as by the 186 season in which the harvest occurred: Spring '18 (4 weeks), Fall '18, Spring '19, and Spring '20. 187 At each sampling time, we harvested 4 replicate samples from each experimental treatment: ¹²C-188 labeled, ¹³C-labeled, 50% precipitation, 100% precipitation. We did not detect a statistically significant (p < 0.05) precipitation treatment effect on any soil or plant characteristics measured 189 190 in this study; thus, replicates from these treatments were pooled for final analyses such that n=8 191 for most of the analyses presented.

Root and shoot biomass samples were collected at three times following the ¹³CO₂ pulse 192 labeling: (1) at zero days, when we expected the maximum ¹³C-labeled shoot biomass, (2) at 193 three days, and (3) at four weeks, by which point we expected a measurable fraction of ¹³C label 194 195 to have been translocated to root biomass and the surrounding soil. Shoot biomass was collected 196 by clipping all live aboveground plant tissue from a single subplot "wedge", and then scaling up to g/m^2 . Root biomass was collected from three 2.45-cm cores that were installed in each wedge 197 198 at the time of harvest and scaling up to the full wedge volume $(1/4 \times 40 \text{ cm subplot } \times 15 \text{ cm})$ 199 depth), and then g / m^2 . Prior to the 6-month sampling time (Fall18), aboveground litter 200 remaining from the 2017-2018 growing season was removed from the plots.

At each of the first four sampling times, we harvested 16 "wedges" of soil. Once soil wedges were harvested, visible roots were removed and soil was homogenized, 500g subsamples were collected, air-dried, and stored at ambient temperature for further analysis. At each

204 of the final two sampling times (Spring19 and Spring20), we harvested two cores per wedge (2.54 cm diameter X 15cm deep) rather than the whole wedge to preserve the remaining soil for 205 206 future experiments, however, we harvested the same number of samples as in the previous two 207 harvests. In these two cores we removed roots and homogenized the soil (~300g) as above, then 208 air dried and stored the soil for further analyses. Additional subsamples at each of the four 209 harvests were immediately aliquoted from homogenized soil for analyses requiring fresh soil. Altogether, eight ¹³C-labeled and eight ¹²C-labeled shoot, root, and soil samples were 210 211 harvested at 0 days, 3 days, and 4 weeks after labeling. Senescence of ¹³C-labeled plants 212 occurred over the summer of 2018, between the 4-week and 6-month sampling times. Therefore, 213 for the remaining sampling times (6-month, 1-year, and 2-year), only soil samples were collected (eight ¹³C-labeled and eight ¹²C-labeled). 214

215 2.4 Processing and diagnostic analyses of soil, root, and shoot biomass

Aboveground biomass dry weight was determined by drying harvested biomass at 65 °C until a stable dried weight was achieved. Root biomass dry weight was determined by hand picking live roots from collected root biomass cores, washing, and drying at 65 °C until dried weights reached a stable plateau. Dry root biomass per wedge was then calculated by scaling the dried root weights to the volume of the wedge.

Soil pH was determined in a 1:1 ratio of fresh homogenized soil to 0.01M CaCl₂. Soil gravimetric water content was assessed by drying a 10g subsample of fresh homogenized soil at 105 °C until dried weights reached a stable plateau when weighed, then calculating percent water. DOC was extracted from 5g fresh soil with 20ml 0.5M K₂SO₄; DOC and ¹³C-DOC was assessed by the Yale Analytical and Stable Isotope Center (YASIC) via wet oxidation method

(Lang et al., 2012). Remaining analyses were conducted on homogenized air-dry soil. Soil
texture analysis was conducted by the UC Davis Analytical Lab via the hydrometer method
(Sheldrick et al., 1993). Aggregate stability was conducted using a wet sieving method
previously adapted by Sher et al. (2020), using a custom wet-sieve apparatus (Singer et al., 1992;
Sher et al., 2020).

231 2.5 Soil quantitative X-ray diffraction analysis

232 Soil mineralogy was determined at Lawrence Livermore National Lab (Zhou et al., 233 2018). Soil samples were dried, crushed and passed through a 500 μ m sieve. Then 3 grams of 234 soil was ground with 15 mL of methanol in a McCrone mill with corundum grinding elements 235 for 5 minutes. The sample was transferred into a plastic tray, air dried and homogenized on a 236 vortex mixer with 10 mm plastic beads for 3 minutes (Bakker et al., 2018). The random powders 237 were then side loaded into XRD sample holders and analyzed on a Bruker D8 advance XRD 238 scanning from 3 to 65° 20 with a step size of 0.011° at a rate of 5 seconds per step. Quantitative 239 analysis was done using BGMN Rietveld refinement and the Profex interface software (Doebelin 240 et al., 2015). The XRD patterns were refined to fit crystal unit cell parameters, size, site 241 occupancy and preferred orientation.

242 2.6 Soil density fractionation

Soil density fractionation was performed on samples collected at 4-weeks, 6-months, 1year, and 2-year sampling times. Air-dried soil was sieved to 2mm before being density fractionated into three discrete pools of soil organic matter using a sodium polytungstate (SPT) density gradient: free-light fraction (FLF, $\rho < 1.75$ g-cm⁻³), occluded-light fraction (OLF, $\rho < 1.75$ g-cm⁻³), and mineral-associated or heavy fraction (HF, $\rho > 1.75$ g-cm³). The density of

1.75g-cm⁻³ was chosen due to the similarities in mineralogy and soil physical characteristics
between this sampling site and the site sampled in *Neurath et al., 2021*, which used this same
SPT approach.

251 The method for density fractionation used in our study was adapted from Hicks Pries et 252 al. (2017), previously adapted from Strickland & Sollins (1987). For each sample, 50mL of sodium polytungstate (SPT-0, Geoliquids) prepared to a density of 1.75g-cm⁻³ was added to a 253 254 250mL centrifuge tube containing 20g of air-dried soil. The mixture was inverted by hand to ensure all soil came into contact with the SPT; soil remaining on the lid and sides was rinsed 255 256 down with an additional 50mL of SPT. The SPT-soil solutions were allowed to settle for 1 hour, 257 then centrifuged for 1 hour at 3,700 RCF in a swinging bucket rotor (Beckman Avant J-20 Floor 258 Centrifuge with JS-5.3 rotor). Following centrifugation, samples were allowed to settle again 259 until no particles remained suspended within the SPT solution. Particles floating on top of the 260 SPT solution were defined as the FLF and were isolated by aspirating onto a 0.7µm glass 261 microfiber filter (Wattman), and rinsed with MilliQ water to remove residual SPT. Then, the 262 FLF filters were transferred into drying tins in a 55 °C oven until standing water had evaporated.

To release the OLF from microaggregates, the remainder of the soil-SPT mixture was mixed with a benchtop mixer for 1 minute, followed by sonication for 90 seconds. As above, the soil was then rinsed, allowed to settle, centrifuged for 1 hour, and the floating fraction isolated via aspiration and dried.

267 The remaining sediment ($\rho > 1.75$ g-cm⁻³) was defined as the HF. This fraction was rinsed 268 with 150mL Milli-Q H2O, vigorously shaken by hand, centrifuged for 20 minutes, followed by 269 aspiration and disposal of the supernatant. This was repeated 5 times, or until the density of the

supernatant ~ 1g-cm⁻³. The HF was transferred into drying tins and dried at 55 °C. Once standing
water had evaporated, all three fractions were transferred into a 105 °C oven for 48 hours. Ovendried samples were cooled in a desiccator before being weighed, ground with a mortar and
pestle, and stored in glass vials.

274 **2.7 Isotopic and elemental analysis**

275 Prior to elemental analysis, samples were ground to a fine powder and weighed into 276 aluminum tins, with sample weight proportional to expected carbon content (4mf for the FLF, 277 2mg for the OLF, 50mg for the HF and bulk soil, 0.35mg for shoot biomass, and 0.30mg for root 278 biomass samples). Bulk and density fractionated soil were ground using a mortar and pestle, 279 aboveground biomass was ground using a coffee grinder, and root biomass was ground by hand. Total C, N, and ¹³C enrichment were measured via total combustion using an elemental analyzer 280 281 coupled with a continuous flow Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (IRMS) at the Stable Isotope 282 Facility at the University of California, Davis (AOAC Official Method 972.43).

283 **2.8**¹³C-NMR

284 Subsamples of heavy fraction (HF) material were analyzed by ¹³C-NMR to assess broad 285 chemical composition of mineral-associated organic matter. Solid-state ¹³C cross polarization 286 magic angle spinning (CPMAS) spectroscopy was run on one ¹³C-labeled HF sub-sample from the 4-week, 1-year, and 2-year sampling times, as well as one ¹²C-labeled control HF subsample 287 288 from the 4-week timepoint as a control comparison. These four spectra were acquired using a 289 4mm log-gamma CPMAS probe on a 500 MHz Bruker Avance 1 NMR spectrometer at the UC 290 Davis NMR facility. Samples were spun at 10 kHz with an acquisition time of 41 ms. Scan 291 number ranged from 75,000 - 102,400. Glycine (176ppm) was used as the external reference.

Using Topspin software, data were zero filled to 8k; an exponential function with 500 Hz of line
broadening was used for signal processing, with zero order phase correction, followed by manual
baseline correction.

- Broad C functional groups were defined based on the following chemical shift regions: aliphatic/alkyl C (0-45ppm), O-alkyl C (45-110ppm), aromatic and aryl C (110-162ppm), and carbonyl C (162-190ppm) (Helfrich, 2006). Integration of chemical shift regions was conducted using Topspin 3 software to calculate relative contribution of different functional group regions to total peak area (0-190ppm).
- 300 2.9 Statistical analyses

Effect of sampling time on C, N, and ¹³C content was determined using ANOVA.
Statistical significance was determined using Tukey's HSD post-hoc test with the R package
'agricolae' (Mendiburu, 2015). Data was visualized using the R package 'ggplot2' (Wickham,
2016).

305 2.10 Calculation of ecosystem ¹³C assimilation

We define ecosystem assimilated 13 C as that quantifiable in (1) aboveground (plant 306 biomass) and (2) belowground (soil + root biomass) pools, in other words net ¹³C gain rather 307 than gross ecosystem exchange. Ecosystem ¹³C assimilation was calculated by converting the ¹³C 308 concentration of each pool (aboveground biomass, root biomass, soil in mg / g) to quantity (g 13 C 309 $/m^2$ over a 15cm sampling depth) and then summing. For simplicity, the sum of ¹³C recovered in 310 311 aboveground biomass plus soil and root biomass immediately after the pulse labeling period (0days) was interpreted to equal 100% of assimilated ¹³C. The percentage of assimilated ¹³C 312 313 remaining at each subsequent sampling timepoint was then calculated relative to this original

314	amount (Table 2). We note that, at the 6-month, 1-year and 2-year sampling times, ¹³ C-labeled
315	aboveground biomass and roots had senesced and the aboveground pool was not measured, and
316	roots were not physically separately from the soil as was done for the 0-days and 4-weeks
317	timepoints. Average ¹³ C recovery based on summing the FLF + OLF + HF was approximately
318	72% that of the bulk soil, which is within the range for density fractionated soil C recovery
319	values cited in the literature (Crow et al., 2007; Cusack et al., 2018).

320 **<u>3. Results</u>**

321 **3.1 Ecosystem ¹³C Incorporation**

322 Immediately following the ¹³CO₂ labeling period, all four ecosystem pools that we 323 analyzed (soil, shoot and root biomass, DOC) were enriched in ¹³C (Figures 1, 2). We defined the total amount of ¹³C present at the 0-day to be 100% and calculated pools thereafter relative to 324 this starting point. During the 5-day labeling period, over $12g^{13}C / m^2$ derived from plant 325 326 photosynthate had accumulated in these ecosystem pools, accounting for roughly 0.2% of total 327 ecosystem C content (aboveground biomass, root biomass, and soil in the 0-15cm depth 328 horizon). By 4 weeks, shoot biomass ¹³C content had declined to 61.7% of the initial amount (p 329 = 0.015) (Figure 1, Table 2). Transfer of plant-fixed ¹³C to below ground pools was immediate, accounting for 40% of total ecosystem ¹³C immediately after the labeling. Belowground ¹³C 330 331 content reached a peak 6 months post-labeling. Between the 6-month, 1-year, and 2-year sampling times, assimilated ¹³C in the ecosystem decreased stepwise: 64% of the original ¹³C 332 333 remained at 6 months, 37% at 1 year, and 23% at 2 years (Figure 1, Table 2).

334 Samples collected at 0 days, 3 days, and 4 weeks following ¹³CO₂ labeling were used to
 335 assess the initial dynamics of ¹³C in shoots, roots and DOC (Figure 2). Shoot ¹³C enrichment (g

336	13 C / m ²) declined significantly over the 4 weeks post labeling. While not statistically significant
337	at p < 0.05, mean shoot biomass 13 C appeared to decline slightly by 3 days post-labeling, despite
338	no detectable change in shoot biomasspossibly due to loss of recently fixed ¹³ C via plant
339	respiration. Allocation of ¹³ C-labeled photosynthate to the roots occurred immediately, and did
340	not significantly change over the 4 weeks, despite expected dilution of the atom-% 13 C by
341	continued root growth. ¹³ C enrichment of the DOC pool did not significantly change between 0
342	days, 3 days, and 4 weeks following the ¹³ CO ₂ labeling event.

343 **3.2 Soil Density Fractions**

We used density fractionation to assess changes in the quantity of newly-fixed plant-344 345 derived C in soil samples collected in March of 2018 (Spring18 = 4-week sampling time), the 346 Fall of 2018 (Fall18 = 6-month), April of 2019 (Spring19 \sim 1-year), and March of 2020 (Spring20 ~ 2-year). Of the three fractions assessed, the HF accounted for roughly 99% of the 347 348 total recovered soil mass (Table 3) and contained the highest amount of C, accounting for 66% 349 of the total on average, while the OLF was 20%, and FLF 14% (Figure 3). The distribution of total N followed a similar pattern to total C, but with an even greater proportion of N 350 351 accumulating in the HF (Table 3): 83% in the HF, 10% in the OLF, and 7% in the FLF. The C:N 352 ratio varied significantly by fraction type: highest in FLF ($\sim 20:1$), intermediate in OLF ($\sim 18:1$), 353 and lowest in HF (\sim 8:1), and these differences were statistically significant (p < 0.05). Total C, 354 N, and C:N (Table 3, Figure 3) did not exhibit detectable seasonal fluctuations between the Spring and Fall sampling times. For all density fractions, total C was generally lower at the 355 356 Spring20 sampling than at other sampling times (Figure 3).

357	The ¹³ C labeling event occurred during the growing season in February 2018, and
358	samplings occurred in Spring 2018, Fall 2018, Spring 2019, and Spring 2020. Four weeks after
359	the ¹³ C labeling, 24% of the initial ecosystem ¹³ C was recovered in soil density fractions (Table
360	2). Of that, significantly more was recovered in the HF than in the OLF or FLF. While
361	accumulation of total C was higher in the OLF than FLF, ¹³ C was in the FLF at the 4-week
362	sample time. ¹³ C enrichment (atom-% ¹³ C) was generally highest in the FLF and lowest in the
363	OLF. Between the 4-week and 6-month sampling times, soil organic ¹³ C-labeled carbon (SO ¹³ C)
364	recovered in the density fractions roughly doubled, with the majority of additional SO ¹³ C
365	accumulating in the FLF (Figure 3, Table 2). At 6 months, the amount of ¹³ C recovered in the
366	FLF was similar to that in the HF. Between 6 months and 1 year after labeling, SO ¹³ C content of
367	the density fractions declined by 40%, with a particularly large decrease observed in FLF
368	material. The 2-year ¹³ C recovery in the soil density fractions was 55% of that recovered in the
369	1-year samples. By Spring20, over two years after the original ¹³ C addition, isotopically labeled
370	carbon persisted in all three fractions, with over 50% of the remaining ecosystem ^{13}C
371	(representing 13.5% of the initial ecosystem ¹³ C content) found in protected forms, either
372	occluded within soil microaggregates (OLF) or associated with soil minerals (HF) (Table 2).

373 **3.3** ¹³C NMR analysis of mineral-associated carbon

Heavy fraction (HF) material from 4-week, 1-year, and 2-year sampling times was
analyzed by ¹³C NMR to assess the molecular forms taken by the newly fixed ¹³C and present in
the HF. Likely due to the presence of paramagnetic minerals in these soils, the peaks in the ¹³C
NMR spectra were broad and hence we were not able to identify specific compounds. Instead,
we assessed relative proportions of broad chemical classes based on chemical shift regions in the

NMR spectra: alkyl C 0-45ppm, O-alkyl C 45-110ppm, aromatic C 110-162ppm, and carbonyl C
162-190ppm (Figure 4, Supplemental Figure 5).

Labeling plants with ¹³CO₂ allowed us to follow the functional group characteristics of 381 newly fixed C incorporated into the mineral-associated pool (Figure 4). The SO¹³C-HF appeared 382 383 to be relatively enriched in alkyl C with lesser amounts of aromatic and carboxyl C. In the ¹³C 384 NMR spectra, the relative proportion of alkyl C declined over time from 4 weeks to 1 year to 2 385 years after the ¹³C labeling period. Over this same period, the relative proportion of carboxyl C increased, while the relative proportion of aromatic C and O-alkyl C remained constant. While 386 the proportion of C functional groups in the ¹³C-labeled HF material was distinct from the ¹²C-387 388 labeled control HF material at all sampling times, the relative proportions of C functional groups in the ¹³C-labeled material appeared to become more similar to those observed in the control 389 390 material over time.

391 **<u>4. Discussion</u>**

392 4.1 Ecosystem ¹³C Incorporation

In this California annual grassland soil, growing plants quickly allocated a substantial proportion of photosynthate belowground. We traced the translocation of plant photosynthate to belowground carbon pools during a 5-day ¹³CO₂ field labeling (Figure 1). Our labeling period occurred in late winter (February 11-15, 2018), which was intended to correspond to the plant growth stage of maximum allocation of aboveground photosynthate C to root growth (Jackson et al., 1989). By the end of this 5-day period, 40% of assimilated ¹³C had been allocated belowground (Figure 1).

400	¹³ C recovery in plant roots is a clear indication of the incorporation of fresh plant-derived								
401	carbon inputs into the soil, particularly as these ¹³ C-labeled roots decompose over time. We								
402	observed evidence of this phenomenon at the 6-month sampling time, when ¹³ C recovery in FLF								
403	material reached its peak. We presume this was primarily due to incorporation of ¹³ C labeled root								
404	litter from the previous growing season. However, at the 4-week sampling time, we already								
405	observed high ¹³ C recovery (nearly 38%) in all our soil density fractions, from which we had								
406	removed live roots. This suggests that substantial ¹³ C was exuded into the soil by the roots								
407	during this period of plant growth, or that other types of rhizodeposits (sloughed root tip cells,								
408	cell hairs) had become part of the soil's organic matter pools (Table 2).								
409	In our study, the ¹³ C enrichment of root tissue was similar to the enrichment of the DOC								
410	pool when measured either immediately or 3 days after the end of the labeling period (Figure 2).								
411	This suggests that root exudates were in equilibrium with root biomass enrichment during this								
412	plant growth stage. By the 4-week sampling time, ¹³ C enrichment appears to slightly increase in								
413	plant roots and decline in soil DOC (although neither increase nor decrease was statistically								
414	significant), which could imply a shift of plant C allocation from labile root exudates, to root								
415	structural compounds. Furthermore, we observed a slight decline in belowground ¹³ C content								
416	between 0 days and 4 weeks following the ¹³ C labeling (Figure 1), which is likely from root and								
417	microbial respiration. These findings indicate that as plants continue to grow, recently-fixed								
418	photosynthate was rapidly translocated within the plant and released into the soil as labile C								
419	compounds exuded by roots (and perhaps also by associated arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi								
420	(AMF) (Kakouridis et al., 2021)). Almost just as rapidly, these labile exudates are metabolized								
421	by the active rhizosphere microbial communities (Waldrop & Firestone, 2006).								

We found that total ecosystem ${}^{13}C$ assimilated (above + belowground ${}^{13}C$ content) at the 422 423 4-week sampling time was statistically indistinguishable from the belowground assimilated ¹³C at the 6-month sampling time. Root growth of annual species characteristic of these systems has 424 425 been shown to decline by March (Jackson et al., 1989), suggesting that the ¹³C recovered in the 426 belowground pool at the 4-week sampling time may have been primarily composed of structural 427 plant root compounds. Additionally, under typical rainfall conditions, soil respiration in 428 California annual grasslands has been shown to greatly decline by early April (Eviner, 2001), as 429 sources of labile C substrates dwindle, and soil moisture begins to decline. This could explain why we saw little evidence of late growing-season decomposition or loss of ¹³C. ¹³C recovery in 430 the belowground pool at our 6-month sampling time was 64% of the total ¹³C present 431 432 immediately following the labeling period. Other studies in California annual grassland 433 ecosystems have described similarly high accumulations of C (Schaeffer et al., 2017), and added 434 ¹³C (Castanha et al., 2018) over the summer dry period. This appears to occur because of the 435 large C input as dead root litter (following annual plant senescence and death in June-July each 436 year), and the reduced ability of microbes to access and decompose this C due to the very low 437 soil moisture characteristic of the Mediterranean-type summer; desiccation results in very low 438 activity of decomposers as well as physical isolation from C substrates (Blankinship & Schimel, 439 2018).

440 4.2 Soil density fractions

In our study, the vast majority of soil organic carbon was recovered in the HF pool. We
assume the heavy fraction is primarily composed of mineral-associated organic matter (MAOM),
i.e. organic matter stabilized via mineral sorption and co-precipitation mechanisms (KogelKnabner et al., 2008). Mineral-associated SOM generally has a C:N ratio that aligns with the

C:N ratio of microbes (~10), as opposed to living plant material (>20), (Clemente et al., 2011).
The C:N ratio of the HF in our study was consistently near 9:1, suggesting this HF carbon is
largely of microbial origin. It has been shown that microbial products are more efficiently and
effectively adsorbed to and thus stabilized by soil minerals than are plant-derived compounds
(Lavallee et al., 2019). Furthermore, microbial transformation of detrital carbon inputs has been
shown to be a critical precursor to long-term carbon stabilization (Cotrufo et al., 2013).

451 The C:N ratios of the FLF and OLF were approximately 20:1 and 17.5:1 respectively, 452 reflecting a more plant-like signature than the HF material, and the C:N ratio of the OLF was 453 consistently slightly lower than that of the FLF. As well, we found slightly higher total carbon in 454 the OLF than in the FLF. California annual grasslands are typically dominated by annual 455 herbaceous plant communities whose litter decomposes completely within three years (Eviner & 456 Firestone, 2007), resulting in minimal FLF accumulation compared to other ecosystems (Crow et 457 al., 2007). C-rich fungal hyphae, bacterial EPS, and plant mucilage promote soil aggregation 458 both as physical structuring agents as well as major contributors to aggregate-associated soil carbon (Six et al. 2004). OLF material has been found to be largely dominated by fine root 459 460 fragments and fungal hyphae (Kakouridis et al., 2021). The intermediate OLF C:N ratio we 461 measured (between that of FLF and HF) suggests that microbial constituents and aggregation 462 mechanisms such as fungal hyphae and bacterial EPS may have contributed to OLF formation in 463 our samples, although extensive microbial processing of OLF material is likely limited due to 464 physical protection mechanisms. If we interpret C:N ratios as an indicator of decomposition, then 465 our data suggests increasing decomposition progressing from FLF to OLF to HF (Hyvonen et al., 466 1996).

467	The source compounds of ¹³ C recovered in the density fractions likely differs by season.
468	¹³ C recovered from Spring18-harvested soil likely represent mostly rhizodeposits and labile
469	carbon substrates exuded by roots and possibly consumed by root-associated bacteria and fungi
470	as well as AMF-mediated carbon flow from ¹³ CO ₂ -labeled plants (Kakouridis et al., 2021). By
471	our Fall18 sampling, which occurred at the end of the summer dry period, much of the ¹³ C in
472	FLF would have been composed of senesced/dead ¹³ CO ₂ - labeled root detritus; we assume that
473	most of the ¹³ C in the HF and OLF was root-derived (Jackson et al., 2017). The onset of the
474	2018-2019 growing season (due to fall and winter rainfall), likely triggered decomposition of this
475	senesced ¹³ C- labeled shoot material derived from the previous growing season. Some of this
476	decomposing ¹³ C-labeled material could have been incorporated into the soil, representing an
477	additional potential ¹³ C source by the Spring19 sampling time. By Spring20 we assume that ¹³ C
478	recovered in the soil density fractions largely represents soil organic carbon that persisted from
479	Spring19.

¹³C-SOC was recovered in all three density fractions at 4 weeks, 6 months, 1 year, and 2 480 years after ¹³C labeling (Figure 3). We observed a conspicuous increase in FLF ¹³C content 481 482 between 4-weeks and 6-months sampling times due to rapid incorporation of ¹³C-labeled root detritus into this fraction following plant senescence and death, as well as likely incorporation of 483 some aboveground litter; however, an equally conspicuous decrease in ¹³C within this fraction 484 485 was observed between 6 months and 1 year after ¹³C labeling. Between the Fall of 2018 and 486 Spring of 2019, about 38% of FLF material was either converted into more protected forms or 487 lost as CO₂. Such seasonal transience was not as apparent in the OLF or HF.

Additionally, of the three fractions, ¹³C enrichment was generally lowest in the OLF,
indicating that this fraction is not as dynamic as the FLF, or perhaps even as the HF. This could

490 suggest that the incorporation of "new" carbon into soil aggregates occurs less rapidly than does 491 association of this carbon with minerals, or that stable aggregate formation requires repeated 492 iterations of certain environmental conditions, such as annual plant growth periods or seasonal 493 wet-dry cycles, the extent of which were not captured in the timespan of this study (Totsche et 494 al., 2018). However, over this 2-year study, we see the distribution of ¹³C among the density 495 fractions approaching that of total C; it is likely that with additional time, the quantity of ¹³C 496 remaining in the OLF will exceed that remaining in the FLF (Figure 3).

The rapid association of rhizosphere-derived carbon with mineral surfaces was also 497 498 observed by Neurath et al. 2021, in similar soils, who characterized the short-term dynamics (3 499 months) of root-input carbon. In that study, over the course of a 2-month incubation, the flux of 500 new carbon onto and off of the mineral surfaces was substantial (accounting for over 6% of total 501 C) while total mineral-associated C remained constant. For our study, this finding implies that 502 some of the HF association with ¹³C OM could in fact be more dynamic than what we observed. By our two-year sampling, 77% of initial ¹³C stock had been lost from the system. However, of 503 504 the carbon remaining, over 50% was in a protected form (occluded within soil microaggregates 505 or associated with soil minerals) (Table 2). Furthermore, by four weeks after ¹³C labeling, we recovered 61% of soil ¹³C in the HF (Table 2), and quantity of ¹³C recovered in HF material did 506 not detectably decline over the course of the study. This observation supports the importance of 507 508 root and rhizosphere-derived carbon inputs in SOM formation (Sokol & Bradford, 2019; Pett-509 Ridge & Firestone, 2017), and is consistent with rapid microbially-mediated stabilization of 510 carbon onto mineral surfaces (Kallenbach et al., 2016).

511 Our work indicates that initial associations between minerals and root-derived organic
512 matter are significant and form rapidly. While the majority of annual C inputs to soil cycle

513	rapidly (<2-year timescale), a sizeable proportion (11.5% original ¹³ C inputs persist in HF by
514	year 2) can potentially persist longer. In a study modeling soil carbon turnover in a California
515	grassland site with similar physical characteristics to ours, Torn et al. (2013) calculated that 7%
516	of HF carbon sampled from the 1-15cm depth was "fast" cycling (<2 year turnover) and 93%
517	cycled on a centennial timescale. Our observations provide support for the existence of this small
518	yet rapidly cycling HF carbon pool, but also suggest that the HF does not represent a single C
519	pool operating on a single timescale, but rather multiple pools operating on multiple timescales
520	(Lehmann & Kleber, 2015).

521 4.3 ¹³C NMR on heavy fraction

The combination of techniques used in this study provides a window into the dynamics and chemical characteristics of MAOM formation. The labeling of field plots with ¹³CO₂ with subsequent sampling and soil density fractionation allowed us to trace the flow and fate of plantderived inputs into organo-mineral associations. By applying ¹³C CPMAS NMR spectroscopy to our ¹³C labeled heavy fraction samples, we sought to further resolve the chemistry of "new" plant-derived carbon in the heavy fraction.

It is generally accepted that microbial products are a dominant source of mineralstabilized organic matter that builds up in heavy fraction material over time (Preston et al., 2009; Creamer et al., 2019). The alkyl C functional group may represent a variety of microbial and plant-derived aliphatic compounds such as lipids, proteins, and waxes (Kögel-Knabner, 1997). In fact, in HF material isolated from a similar site at HREC, Neurath et al. found mineral-associated lipids were largely microbially derived (Neurath et al., 2021). Peaks in the O-Alkyl C region may represent various carbohydrates, proteins, and amino acids (Mathers et al., 2007), including

535 plant-derived carbohydrates such as cellulose and hemicellulose (Kögel-Knabner, 1997), as well 536 as N-rich proteins and root-exudate derived sugars (Angst et al., 2018). However, O-Alkyl C 537 proportions in HF samples have also been attributed to carbohydrates of microbial origin 538 (Schöning et al., 2006). The aromatic C functional group can contain plant-derived phenolic 539 compounds such as lignin and tannins, aromatic portions of proteins and amino acids, as well as 540 condensed, chemically resistant "black carbon" derived from historically frequent wildfires that 541 occurred in California annual grasslands (Sanderman et al., 2008; Czimczik & Masiello, 2007). 542 The carboxyl C functional group has been described to encompass highly oxidized C forms such 543 as organic acids, ketones, and aldehydes (Mathers et al., 2007), and can be used as an indicator 544 of microbial processing (Ng et al., 2014).

¹³C NMR spectra are only sensitive to molecules containing ¹³C. In Spring, 2018, we 545 546 introduced ¹³C into the soil. The NMR spectra of the mineral-associated samples collected over the following two years show a decline in the proportion of ¹³C in the alkyl C functional group, 547 and an increase in the proportion of ¹³C in the carboxyl C, aromatic C, and carboxyl C functional 548 groups. The relatively constant quantity of ¹³C present in the HF over the course of the study 549 550 suggests that alkyl ¹³C is being converted to carboxyl ¹³C, or that perhaps, that a portion of HF 551 ¹³C is transient as suggested by Neurath et al., (2021), and that over the course of our study, some alkyl ¹³C is lost and some carboxyl ¹³C is accumulated. Carboxyl C content can be 552 553 indicative of highly oxidized organic matter (Kogel-Knabner et al., 2008). As such, the increase 554 in the relative proportion of carboxyl C we see over the 2-year study period could have resulted 555 from the oxidation of organic matter during the process of decomposition (Baldock et al., 1992). The fact that we see a higher proportion of alkyl C shortly after the ¹³CO₂ labeling period than 556 we do two years later suggests that rhizodeposit C is a substantial source of rapidly forming 557

mineral-alkyl C associations, whether as plant waxes such as cutin, or microbial lipids as
suggested by Neurath et al., (2021).

560	Within a two-year period, we see an evolution of the effect of newly introduced 13 C on
561	the ¹³ C NMR spectra of the heavy fraction (Figure 4). We expect that some of the added ¹³ C in
562	this fraction underwent chemical transformations during this period and that over time, only the
563	most persistent ¹³ C-HF associations will be retained as less persistent associations disappear.
564	This could leave a legacy of the added ¹³ C label that persists for decades or even centuries
565	(Baisden et al., 2002), while the overall effect of the added ¹³ C label should decline over time.

566

5. Conclusion and future directions

Understanding the patterns and control of soil organic carbon cycling in California annual 567 568 grasslands is a critical precursor to any soil carbon management efforts within these ecosystems. 569 Our study traced soil organic carbon formation from plant photosynthesis through its movement 570 into and between soil fractions—and chemical forms in the heavy fraction—for two years. By 571 applying a combination of analytical and spectroscopic techniques, we followed plant carbon 572 from living roots to root detritus to occluded carbon and mineral-associated pools. About a 573 quarter of the C fixed during the 5-day labeling was still present two years after the labeling; 574 most of that "2-year old" carbon was found in the mineral associated heavy fraction. Solid-state 575 ¹³C NMR spectroscopy was sufficiently sensitive to the ¹³C introduced that we were able to 576 detect the photosynthetically derived carbon movement into and through the components of the 577 mineral-associated carbon pool. This "new" carbon appears to have a distinct chemical 578 fingerprint from the total background C; that spectroscopic profile declines over the 2 years in 579 the field.

580	¹³ C analysis and ¹³ C NMR both revealed that the movement of carbon into the heavy
581	fraction occurred rapidly in our system, within four weeks of plant photosynthesis, and that the
582	influence of this "new" carbon on the total background C persisted over the course of our study.
583	Future research that distinguishes between the labile vs. litter inputs on stabilized soil organic
584	carbon formation, and that tracks those dynamics over decadal timescales, would further resolve
585	how plant community characteristics (plant growth stage, lifecycle, seasonal climate parameters)
586	influence the accrual and persistence of soil organic carbon and help us to better predict the
587	responsiveness of annual grassland ecosystems to soil carbon management.

588

589 Acknowledgements

590 This research was supported by the US Department of Energy (DOE) Office of Science, Office

591 of Biological and Environmental Research Genomic Science program under award DE-

592 SC0016247 (to MKF) and awards SCW1589, SCW1421 and the LLNL Soil Microbiome SFA,

593 SCW1632 (to JPR). Work conducted at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory was supported

under the auspices of the U.S. DOE under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344. Work conducted at

Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory was supported under Contract DE-AC02-05CH11231.

596 Soil and plant collection and field plot management was supported by the Hopland Research and

597 Extension Center.

598 <u>5. Citations</u>

599 Angst, G., Messinger, J., Greiner, M., Häusler, W., Hertel, D., Kirfel, K., ... Mueller, C. W.

600 (2018). Soil organic carbon stocks in topsoil and subsoil controlled by parent material,

601	carbon input in the rhizosphere, and microbial-derived compounds. Soil Biology and
602	Biochemistry, 122, 19-30. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2018.03.026
603	Angst, G., Mueller, K. E., Klass, G. J. N., Simpson, M. J. (2021). Plant- or microbial-derived? A
604	review on the molecular composition of stabilized soil organic matter. Soil Biology and
605	Biochemistry, 156. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2021.108189
606	AOAC Official Method 972.43, Microchemical Determination of Carbon, Hydrogen, and
607	Nitrogen, Automated Method, in Official Methods of Analysis of AOAC International,
608	16th Edition (1997), Chapter 12, pp. 5-6, AOAC International, Arlington, VA.
609	Bailey, V. L., Pries, C. H., & Lajtha, K. (2019). What do we know about soil carbon
610	destabilization? Environmental Research Letters, 14(8), 083004.
611	https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ab2c11
612	Baker, S. E., Peridas, G., Stolaroff, J. K., Goldstein, H. M., Pang, S. H., Lucci, F. R., Li, W.,
613	Slessarev, E. W., Pett-Ridge, J., Ryerson, F. R., and Aines, R. D., (2019). Getting to
614	Neutral: Options for Negative Carbon Emissions in California (No. LLNL-TR-796100).
615	Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL), Livermore, CA (United States).
616	Baisden, W. T., Amundson, R., Cook, A. C., & Brenner, D. L. (2002). Turnover and storage of C
617	and N in five density fractions from California annual grassland surface soils. Global
618	Biogeochemical Cycles, 16(4), 64-1. https://doi.org/10.1029/2001gb001822
619	Bakker, E.; Hubert, F.; Wander, M.M.; Lanson, B. Soil Development under Continuous
620	Agriculture at the Morrow Plots Experimental Fields from X-ray Diffraction Profile
621	Modelling. Soil Syst. 2018, 2, 46. https://doi.org/10.3390/soilsystems2030046

622	Baldock, J. A.,	Oades I M	Waters A	G Peng X	Vassallo A	M	Wilson	ΜA	(1992)
022	Daluoun, J. A.,	Oaucs, J. 11.,	waters, n. v	\mathbf{O} ., I Ulle, \mathbf{A} .	, v assano, r	J . 181."	w noon.	1 γ 1 1 γ 1 1 γ 1 1 γ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	(1)/4/

- Aspects of the chemical structure of soil organic materials as revealed by solid-state ¹³C
 NMR spectroscopy. Biogeochemistry, 16(1), 1-42.
- Barnard, R., Blazewicz, S., and Firestone, M. (2020). Rewetting of soil: revisiting the origin of
 soil CO2 emissions. Soil Biol Biochem. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2020.107819
- 629 Barnard, R. L., Osborne, C. A., & Firestone, M. K. (2013). Responses of soil bacterial and fungal
- 630 communities to extreme desiccation and rewetting. The ISME Journal, 7(11), 2229-2241.
- 631 https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2013.104

628

632 Bartolome, J. W., J. Barry, T. Griggs, and P. Hopkinson. (2007). Valley Grasslands. M. G.

Barbour, T. Keeler-Wolf, and A. A. Schoenherr (Ed.), *Terrestrial Vegetation of*

634 *California* (pp. 367-393). University of California Press, Berkeley, California.

- Becchetti, T., George, M., et al. (2016). Rangeland Management Series: Annual Range Forage
 Production. University of California ANR Publication 8018, 1-12.
- Biggs, N. B., Huntsinger, L. (2021). Managed grazing on California annual rangelands in the
 context of state climate policy. Rangeland Ecology and Management, 76(1), 56-68.
- 639 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rama.2021.01.007
- 640 Birch, H. F. (1958). The Effect of soil drying on humus decomposition and nitrogen availability.
- 641 Plant and Soil, 10(1), 9-31. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf01343734
- 642 Blankinship, J., & Schimel, J. (2018). Biotic versus Abiotic Controls on Bioavailable Soil
- 643 Organic Carbon. Soil Systems, 2(1), 10. https://doi.org/10.3390/soilsystems2010010
- Blazewicz, S. J., Hungate, B. A., Koch, B. J., Nuccio, E. E., Morrissey, E., Brodie, E. L., ...
- 645 Firestone, M. K. (2020). Taxon-specific microbial growth and mortality patterns reveal

- 646 distinct temporal population responses to rewetting in a California grassland soil. The
 647 ISME Journal. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-020-0617-3
- 648 Bradford, M. A., Carey, C. J., Atwood, L., Bossio, D., Fenichel, E. P., Gennet, S., ... Wood, S. A.
- 649 (2019). Soil carbon science for policy and practice. Nature Sustainability, 2(12), 1070–
- 650 1072. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-019-0431-y
- 651 Castanha, C., Zhu, B., Hicks Pries, C. E., Georgiou, K., Torn, M. S. (2018). The effects of
- heating, rhizosphere, and depth on root litter decomposition are mediated by soil

653 moisture. Biogeochemistry, 137(1), 267-279. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533-017-0418-6

654 Chou, W. W., Silver, W. L., Jackson, R. D., Thompson, A. W., & Allen-Diaz, B. (2008). The

sensitivity of annual grassland carbon cycling to the quantity and timing of rainfall.

Global Change Biology, 14(6), 1382-1394. https://doi.org.10.1111/j.1365-

- 657 2486.2008.01572.x
- 658 Clemente, J. S., Simpson, A. J., & Simpson, M. J. (2011). Association of specific organic matter
 659 compounds in size fractions of soils under different environmental controls. Organic

660 Geochemistry, 42(10), 1169–1180. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orggeochem.2011.08.010

- 661 Cotrufo, M. F., Wallenstein, M. D., Boot, C. M., Denef, K., & Paul, E. (2013). The Microbial
- 662 Efficiency-Matrix Stabilization (MEMS) framework integrates plant litter decomposition

663 with soil organic matter stabilization: do labile plant inputs form stable soil organic

664 matter? Global Change Biology, 19(4), 988–995. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.12113

- 665 Cotrufo, M. F., Soong, J. L., Horton, A. J. Campbell, E. E., Haddix, M. L., Wall, D. H., &
- 666 Parton, W. J. (2015) Formation of soil organic matter via biochemical and physical
- pathways of litter mass lost. Nature Geoscience, 8(10), 776-779.
- 668 https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo2520

- 669 Cotrufo, M. F., Ranalli, M. G., Haddix, M. L., Six, J., & Lugato, E. (2019). Soil carbon storage
- 670 informed by particulate and mineral-associated organic matter. Nature Geoscience,
- 671 12(12), 989–994. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-019-0484-6
- 672 Creamer, C. A., Foster, A. L., Lawrence, C., McFarland, J., Schulz, M., Waldrop, M. P. (2019).
- 673 Mineralogy dictates the initial mechanism of microbial necromass association. Geochim
- 674 Cosmochim Acta, 260, 161-176. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gca.2019.06.028
- 675 Crow, S. E., Swanston, C. W., Lajtha, K., Brooks, J. R., Keirstead, H. (2007). Density
- 676 fractionation of forest soils: methodological questions and interpretation of incubation
- 677 results and turnover time in an ecosystem context. Biogeochemistry, 85, 69-90.
- 678 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533-007-9100-8
- 679 Czimczik, C. I. & Maseillo, C. A. (2007). Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 21(1), GB3005.
 680 https://doi.org/10.1029/2006GB002798
- Dass, P., Houlton, B. Z., Wang, Y., Warlind, D. (2018). Grasslands may be more resilient carbon
 sinks than forests in California. Environ. Res. Lett. 13(7). https://doi.org/10.1088/17489326/aacb39
- Doebelin, N.; Kleeberg, R. (2015). Profex: A graphical user interface for the Rietveld refinement
 program BGMN. J. Appl. Cryst. 48, 1573–1580.
- 686 Eviner, V. (2001). Linking plant community composition and ecosystem dynamics: interactions
- 687 of plant traits determine the ecosystem effects of plant species and plant species mixtures.
- 688 PhD Dissertation. Integrative Biology. The University of California, Berkeley. 404 pp.
- 689 Eviner, V. T., & Firestone, M. K. (2007). Mechanisms Determining Patterns of Nutrient
- 690 Dynamics. M. Stromberg, J. Corbin, and C. D'Antonio (Ed.), *California Grasslands:*

Golchin, A., Oades, J., Skjemstad, J., Clarke, P. (1994). Study of free and occluded particulate

691	Ecology and Management, (pp. 94-106). University of California Press, Berkeley,
692	California

694	organic matter in soils by solid state 13C CP/MAS NMR spectroscopy and scanning
695	electron microscopy. Soil Res. 32, 285-309. https://doi.org/10.1071/SR9940285
696	Heady, H. F., Bartolome, J. W., Pitt, M. D., Savelle, G. D., Stroud, M. C. (1992). California
697	Prairie. Pages 313-335 in R. T. Coupland, editor. Natural Grasslands. Ecosystems of the
698	World 8A. Elsevier, New York, New York.

- Helfrich, M., Ludwig, B., Buurman, P., & Flessa, H. (2006). Effect of land use on the
- composition of soil organic matter in density and aggregate fractions as revealed by
 solid-state ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. Geoderma, 136(1-2), 331-341.
- 702 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2006.03.048

693

- 703 Hicks Pries, C. E., Bird, J. A., Castanha, C., Hatton, P.-J., & Torn, M. S. (2017). Long term
- decomposition: the influence of litter type and soil horizon on retention of plant carbon
 and nitrogen in soils. Biogeochemistry, 134(1–2), 5–16. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533017-0345-6
- Hyvonen, R., Agren, G. I., & Andren, O. (1996). Modelling Long-Term Carbon and Nitrogen
 Dynamics in an Arable Soil Receiving Organic Matter. Ecological Applications, 6(4),
 1345–1354. https://doi.org/10.2307/2269612

710	Jackson, L. E., Schimel, J. P., & Firestone, M. K. (1989). Short-term partitioning of ammonium				
711	and nitrate between plants and microbes in an annual grassland. Soil Biology and				
712	Biochemistry, 21(3), 409-415. https://doi.org/10.1016/0038-0717(89)90152-1				
713	Jackson, R. B., Lajtha, K., Crow, S. E., Hugelius, G., Kramer, M. G., & Piñeiro, G. (2017). The				
714	Ecology of Soil Carbon: Pools, Vulnerabilities, and Biotic and Abiotic Controls. Annual				
715	Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, 48(1), 419-445.				
716	https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-112414-054234				
717	Kakouridis, A., Yuan, M., Hagen, J., Fossum, C., Moore, M., Herman, D., Nico, P., Weber, P.,				
718	Pett-Ridge, J., Firestone, M. (2021). AMF transport of plant carbon into soil alters the				
719	characteristics of soil organic carbon as well as the soil microbial community. bioRxiv				
720	https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.09.21.305409				
721	Kallenbach, C. M., Frey, S. D., & Grandy, A. S. (2016). Direct evidence for microbial-derived				
722	soil organic matter formation and its ecophysiological controls. Nature Communications,				
723	7(1). https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms13630				
724	Kögel-Knabner, I. (1997). ¹³ C and ¹⁵ N NMR spectroscopy as a tool in soil organic matter				
725	studies. Geoderma, 80(1), 243-260.				
726	Kögel-Knabner, I., Guggenberger, G., Kleber, M., Kandeler, E., Kalbitz, K., Scheu, S.,				
727	Eusterhues, K., Leinweber, P. (2008). Organo-mineral associations in temperate soils:				
728	Integrating biology, mineralogy, and organic matter chemistry. Journal of Plant Nutrition				
729	and Soil Science, 171(1), 61-82. https://doi.org/10.1002/jpln.200700048				

730	Lang, S. Q., Bernasconi, S. M., & Früh-Green, G. L. (2012). Stable isotope analysis of organic				
731	carbon in small (μ g C) samples and dissolved organic matter using a GasBench				
732	preparation device. Rapid Commun. Mass Spectrom, 26(1), 9-16.				
733	https://doi.org/10.1002/rcm.5287				
734	Lavallee, J. M., Soong, J. L., & Cotrufo, M. F. (2019). Conceptualizing soil organic matter into				
735	particulate and mineral-associated forms to address global change in the 21st century.				
736	Global Change Biology, 26(1), 261–273. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14859				
737	Lehmann, J., & Kleber, M. (2015). The contentious nature of soil organic matter. Nature,				
738	528(7580), 60-68. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature16069				
739	Mathers, N. J., Jalota, R. K., Dalal, R. C., Boyd, S. E. (2007). ¹³ C-NMR analysis of decomposing				
740	litter and fine roots in the semi-arid Mulga Lands of southern Queensland. Soil Biology				
741	and Biochemistry, 39(1), 993-1006. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2006.11.009				
742	Manzoni, S., & Katul, G. (2014). Invariant soil water potential at zero microbial respiration				
743	explained by hydrological discontinuity in dry soils. Geophysical Research Letters,				
744	41(20), 7151-7158. https://doi.org/10.1002/2014g1061467				
745	Mendiburu, F. D. (2015). Agricolae: statistical procedures for agricultural research. Version 1.2-				
746	3. http://CRAN.R-project.org/package=agricolae				
747	Neurath, R., Pett-Ridge, J., Chu-Jacoby, I., Herman, D., Whitman, T., Nico, P., Lipton, A. S.,				
748	Kyle, J., Tfaily, M. M., Thompson, A., Firestone, M. K. (2021). Root carbon interaction				
749	with soil minerals is dynamic, leaving a legacy of microbially-derived residues. bioRxiv.				
750	https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.03.23.436628				
751	Ng, EL., Patti, A. F., Rose, M. T., Schefe, C. R., Wilkinson, K., Smernik, R. J., Cavagnaro, T.				
752	R. (2014). Does the chemical nature of soil organic carbon drive the structure and				

functioning of soil microbial communities? Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 70(1). 54-61.

754 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.12.004

- Pett-Ridge, J., & Firestone, M. K. (2017). Using stable isotopes to explore root-microbe-mineral
 interactions in soil. Rhizosphere, 3, 244–253.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rhisph.2017.04.016
- 757 Pett-Ridge, J., Shi, J., Estera-Molina, K., Nuccio, E. E., Yuan, M., Rijkers, R., Swenson, T.,

758 Zhalnina, K., Northern, T., Zhou, J., Firestone, M. K. (2021). Rhizosphere Carbon

- 759 Turnover from Cradle to Grave: The Role of Microbe-Plant Interactions. In: Gupta V.,
- 760 Sharma A. (eds) Rhizosphere Biology: Interactions Between Microbes and Plants.
- 761 Rhizosphere Biology. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-6125-2_2.
- Poeplau, C., Don, A., Six, J., Kaiser, M., Benbi, D., Chenu, C., ... Nieder, R. (2018). Isolating
- 763 organic carbon fractions with varying turnover rates in temperate agricultural soils A
 764 comprehensive method comparison. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 125, 10–26.
- 765 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2018.06.025
- 766 Preston, C. M., Nault, J. R., & Trofymow, J. A. (2009). Chemical changes during 6 years of
- 767 decomposition of 11 litter in some Canadian forest sites. Part 2. ¹³C abundance, solid-
- state 13 C NMR spectroscopy and the meaning of "lignin". Ecosystems, 12(1), 1078-1102.

769 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10021-009-9267-z

- Sanderman, J., Baldock, J. A., & Amundson, R. (2008). Dissolved organic carbon chemistry and
 dynamics in contrasting forest and grassland soils. Biogeochemistry, 89(2), 181-198.
- 772 Schaeffer, S. M., Homyak, P. M., Boot, C. M., Roux-Michollet, D., & Schimel, J. P. (2017). Soil
- carbon and nitrogen dynamics throughout the summer drought in a California annual
- grassland. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 115, 54–62.
- 775 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2017.08.009

776	Schimel I P	(2018) Life in Dry	Soils: Effects of Drought on	Soil Microbial Communities and
//0	SCHIIICI, J. F.	(2010). Life in Div	Sons. Enects of Diought on	Son Microbial Communities and

- Processes. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics, 49(1), 409-432.
- 778 https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-110617-062614
- 779 Schöning, I. & Kögel-Knabner, I. (2006). Chemical composition of young and old carbon pools
- throughout Cambisol and Luvisol profiles under forests. Soil Biology and Biochemistry,
- 781 38(1), 2411-2424. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2006.03.005
- 782 Sheldrick, B. H. and Wang, C. 1993. Particle-size Distribution. pp. 499-511. In: Carter, M. R.
- (ed), Soil Sampling and Methods of Analysis, Canadian Society of Soil Science, Lewis
 Publishers, Ann Arbor, MI.
- 785 Sher, Y., Baker, N. R., Herman, D., Fossum, C., Hale, L., Zhang, X., ... Firestone, M. (2020).

Microbial extracellular polysaccharide production and aggregate stability controlled by
switchgrass (Panicum virgatum) root biomass and soil water potential. Soil Biology and
Biochemistry, 143, 107742. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2020.107742

- Singer, M. J., Southard, R. J., Warrington, D. N., & Janitzky, P. (1992). Stability of Synthetic
 Sand-Clay Aggregates after Wetting and Drying Cycles. Soil Science Society of America
 Journal, 56(6), 1843–1848. https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1992.03615995005600060032x
- Six, J., Bossuyt, H., Degryze, S., & Denef, K. (2004). A history of research on the link between
 (micro)aggregates, soil biota, and soil organic matter dynamics. Soil and Tillage
 Research, 79(1), 7–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.still.2004.03.008
- Soil Survey Staff. Web Soil Survey. Natural Resources Conservation Service, United States
 Department of Agriculture. Available online June 1, 2020.

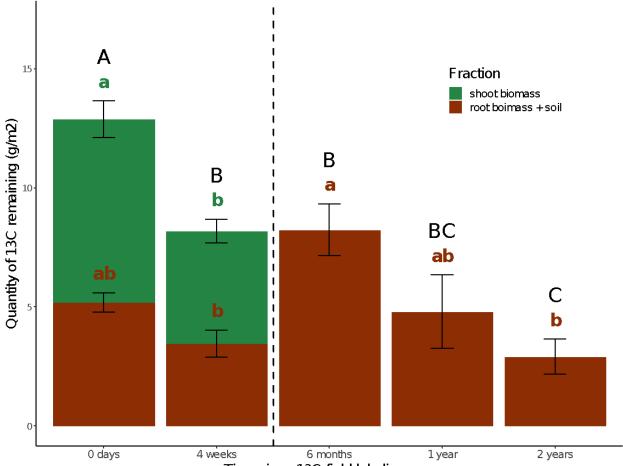
797	Sokol, N. W., Sanderman, J., & Bradford, M. A. (2018). Pathways of mineral-associated soil
798	organic matter formation: Integrating the role of plant carbon source, chemistry, and
799	point of entry. Global Change Biology, 25(1), 12-24. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14482
800	Sokol, N. W., & Bradford, M. A. (2019). Microbial formation of stable soil carbon is more
801	efficient from belowground than aboveground input. Nature Geoscience, 12(1), 46-53.
802	https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-018-0258-6
803	Sollins, P., Kramer, M. G., Swanston, C., Lajtha, K., Filley, T., Aufdenkampe, A. K., Bowden,
804	R. D. (2009). Sequential density fractionation across soils of contrasting mineralogy:
805	evidence for both microbial- and mineral-controlled soil organic matter stabilization.
806	Biogeochemistry, 96(1-3), 209-231. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10533-009- 9359-z
807	Strickland, T. C., & Sollins, P. (1987). Improved Method for Separating Light- and Heavy-
808	Fraction Organic Material from Soil. Soil Science Society of America Journal, 51(5),
809	1390–1393. https://doi.org/10.2136/sssaj1987.03615995005100050056x
810	Terrer, C., R. P., Phillips, B. A., Hungate, J. Rosendale, J. Pett-Ridge, M. Craig, K. J. van
811	Groenigen, T. F. Keenan, B. N. Sulman, B. D. Stocker, P. B. Reich, A. F. A. Pellegrini,
812	E. Pendall, H. Zhang, R. D. Evans, Y. Carrillo, J. B. Fisher, R. B. Jackson. (2020). A
813	trade-off between plant and soil carbon under elevated CO ₂ . Nature 591: 599-603.
814	doi.org/10/1038/s41586-021-03306-8
815	Torn, M. S., Trumbore, S. E., Chadwick, O. A., Vitousek, P. M., and Hendricks, D. M. (1997).
816	Mineral control of soil organic carbon storage and turnover. Nature, 389(6647), 170-173.
817	https://doi.org/10.1038/38260

- 818 Torn, M. S., Kleber, M., Zavaleta, E. S., Zhu, B., Field, C. B., Trumbore, S. E. (2013). A dual
- 819 isotope approach to isolate soil carbon pools of different turnover times. Biogeosciences,
- 820 10(1), 8067-8081. https://doi.org/10.5194/bg-10-8067-2013
- 821 Totsche, K. U., Amelung, W., Gerzabek, M. H., Guggenberger, G., Klumpp, E., Knief, C., ...
- 822 Kögel-Knabner, I. (2017). Microaggregates in soils. Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil
- Science, 181(1), 104–136. https://doi.org/10.1002/jpln.201600451
- 824 Villarino, S. H., Pinto, P., Jackson, R. B., Piñeiro, G. (2021). Plant rhizodeposition: A key factor
- for soil organic matter formation in stable fractions. Science Advances, 7(16), 1-13.
- 826 10.1126/sciadv.abd3176
- Waldrop, M. P., & Firestone, M. K. (2006). Response of Microbial Community Composition and
 Function to Soil Climate Change. Microbial Ecology, 52(4), 716–724.
- 829 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-006-9103-3
- 830 Wickham, H. (2016). ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Springer-Verlag New York.

831 ISBN 978-3-319-24277-4, https://ggplot2.tidyverse.org

- 832 Zhou, X., Liu, D., Bu, H., Deng, L., Liu, H., Yuan, P., Du, P., & Song, H. (2018). XRD-based
- quantitative analysis of clay minerals using reference intensity ratios, mineral intensity
- factors, Rietveld, and full pattern summation methods: A critical review. Solid Earth
- 835 Sciences, 3, 16-29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sesci.2017.12.002
- 836

837 <u>6. Figures & Tables</u>





Time since 13C field labeling

Figure 1. Ecosystem ¹³C assimilation. Total excess ¹³C measured in shoot biomass (green) and
root biomass + soil (brown). The 0-day timepoint occurred immediately following completion of
the 5-day ¹³CO₂ labeling. Vertical black dashed line between the 4-weeks and 6-months
timepoint marks plant senescence at the end of the spring growing season—hence, no shoot
biomass ¹³C measurements occurred beyond that point and previously living root ¹³C biomass

has become part of the soil ¹³C. Letters indicate significant differences within a given ecosystem

845 fraction (shoots in green vs. root biomass + soil in brown text), and overall (in black text)

between timepoints by Tukey's HSD (p-value = 0.05). Error bars represent 1 SE.

847

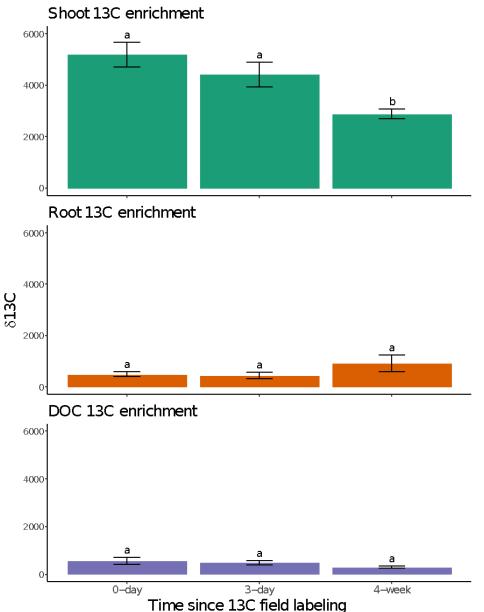


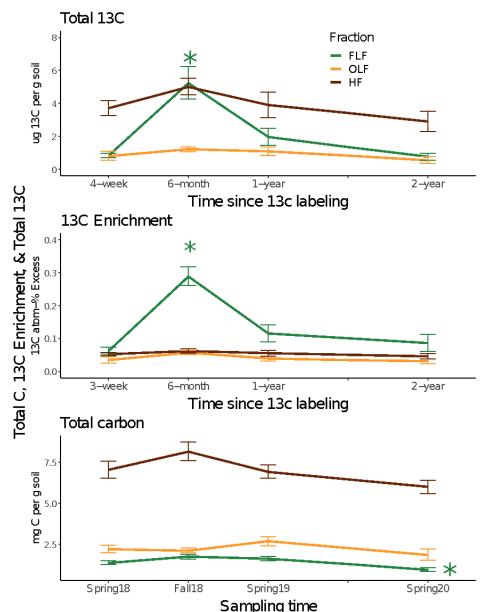
Figure 2. Short-term ecosystem ¹³C dynamics. Delta ¹³C values measured in shoot biomass

(top), root biomass (middle), and soil DOC (bottom). Timepoints correspond to 0 days, 3 days,

and 4 weeks following the completion of the 5-day ¹³CO₂ field labeling. Letters indicate

significant differences within a given ecosystem fraction (aboveground biomass, roots, DOC)

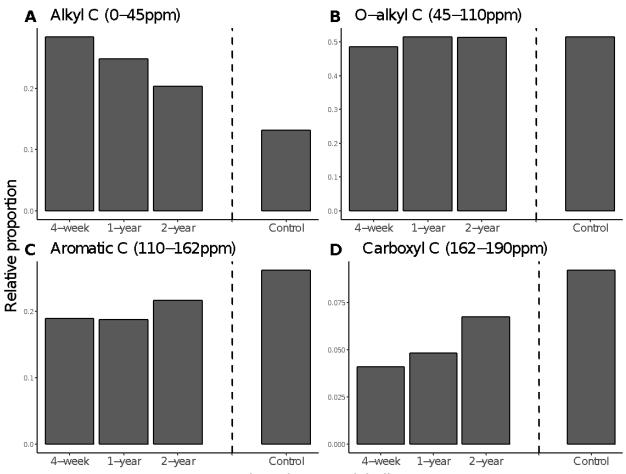
between timepoints by Tukey's HSD (p-value = 0.05). Error bars represent 1 SE.



860

Figure 3. Total ¹³C, ¹³C enrichment, and total C distribution among soil density fractions. 861 Total ¹³C (ug / g soil), ¹³C enrichment (atom-% excess), and total carbon (mg / g soil) measured 862 863 for soil density fractions: free-light fraction (FLF), occluded-light fraction (OLF), and heavy 864 fraction (HF). Soil density fractions were determined in Spring18, Fall18, Spring19, and 865 Spring20. These sampling times correspond to 4-weeks, 6-months, 1-year, and 2-years following the ¹³CO₂ field labeling. Error bars represent 1 SE. Significant differences by Tukey's HSD (p-866 867 value = 0.05) between times are indicated by stars with color coordinating to respective soil 868 density fraction. 869

870



871

Time since 13C labeling

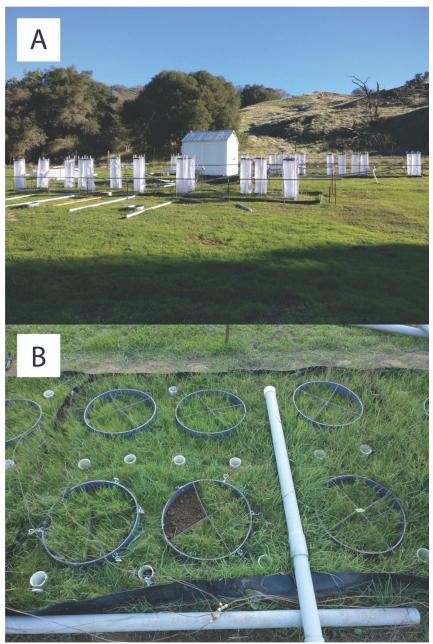
872 Figure 4: Heavy fraction ¹³C functional groups. Relative proportion of four major carbon

functional groups in heavy fraction separated from soil calculated from ¹³C NMR spectra.
Proportions were calculated by integrating functional group regions A. alkyl C, B. O-alkyl C, C.

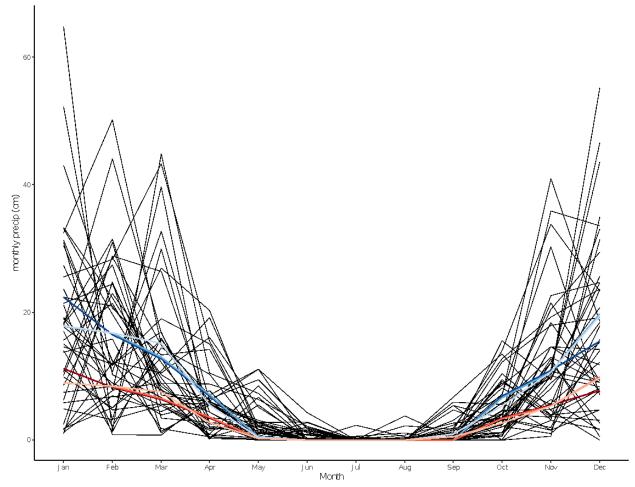
Proportions were calculated by integrating functional group regions A. alkyl C, B. O-alkyl C, C
aromatic C, and D. carboxyl C using Topspin software, and analyzed separately for each

spectrum. X axis refers to spectra obtained for ¹³C-labeled Heavy Fraction soil 4 weeks, 1 year,

- and 2 years following the 13 C-labeling, as well as a 12 C-labeled control sample collected in the
- 878 Spring of 2018. Atom percent ¹³C for the 4 samples (4-wk, 1 year, 2 years, and control) was
- 879 1.145, 1.139, 1.133, and 1.076 respectively.
- 880
- 881

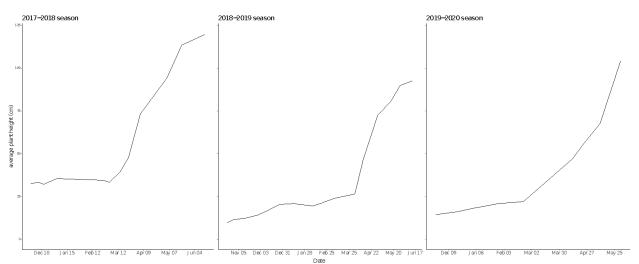


- 883 **Supplemental Figure 1. Field site ¹³CO₂ labeling and sampling design.** (A) ¹³CO₂ labeling chambers, (B) Field plot with 6 circular subplots; subplots divided into 4 "wedges" for
- destructive sampling-ex. Bottom row center.

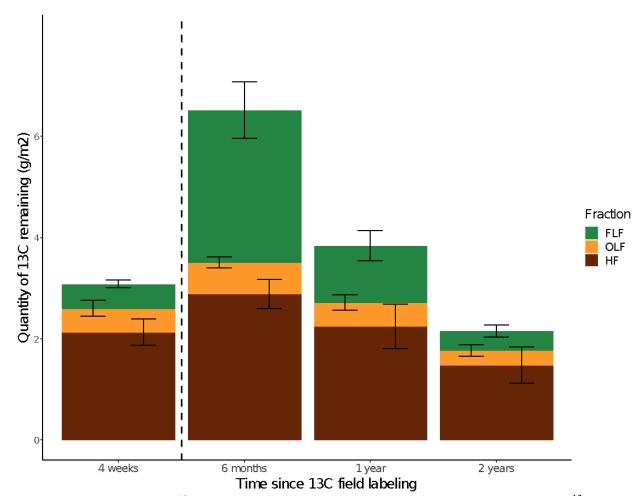


Supplemental Figure 2. 50-year annual precipitation + Annual rainfall for 50% and 100%
 precipitation treatment plots for 2017-2018, 2018-2019, and 2019-2020 growing seasons.
 Black lines indicate monthly precipitation at Hopland Research and Extension Center (HREC),

our study site, dating back to 1970. Blue lines indicate manipulated rainfall received by our
100% of average annual precipitation treatment plots and red lines indicate manipulated rainfall
received by our 50% of average annual precipitation treatment plots. Color shade scales from
dark light with darkest blues and reds corresponding to the 2017-2018 growing season, and
lightest shades corresponding to the 2019-2020 growing season.



- 910 each plot (n=16) and was measured in cm.

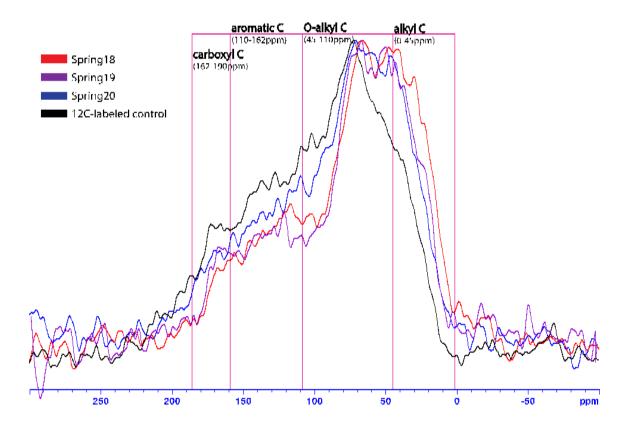




922 Supplemental Figure 4. ¹³C assimilation among soil density fractions. Total excess ¹³C

923 content of soil density fractions: free-light fraction (FLF); occluded-light fraction (OLF) and
924 heavy fraction (HF), scaled to soil volume (15cm sampling depth). Error bars represent 1 SE.

- 925
- 926
- 927



928

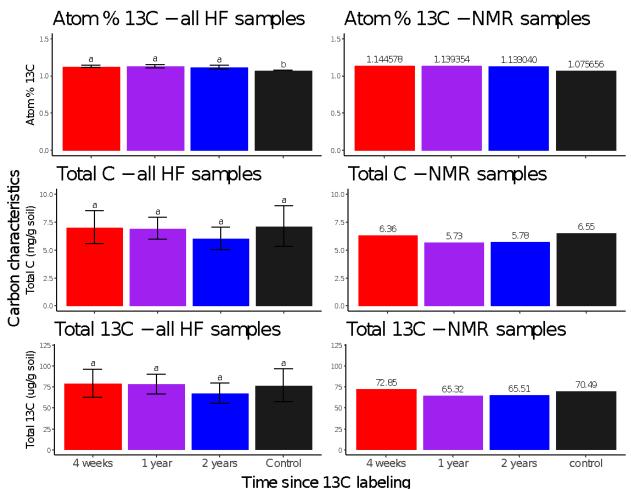
929 Supplemental Figure 5. ¹³C CPMAS NMR Spectra on Heavy Fraction 4 weeks, 1 year, and

930 2 years after ¹³C labeling relative to control sample. ¹³C NMR spectra of heavy fraction soil

931 collected in Spring18 (4 weeks after ¹³C field labeling), Spring19 (1 year after), Spring20 (2

932 years after), and a ¹²C-labeleled control (collected in Spring18). Carbon functional groups

- 933 outlined in pink.
- 934



Supplemental Figure 6. Heavy fraction variability and ¹³C content. 13C content (calculated

from total C content X atom-%¹³C) measured for all 8 HF replicates of individual samples for which ¹³C NMR spectra were acquired (left column), and for individual samples for which ¹³C NMR spectra were acquired (right column). Error bars represent 1 SD. Significant differences by Tukey's HSD (p-value = 0.05) between timepoints are indicated by letters. Atom-% ¹³C, total C, and total ¹³C values for the HF samples for which ¹³C NMR spectra were acquired (right column) label each bar. Colors represent timepoints and correspond to spectra represented in Supplemental Figure 2.

Characteristic

Field Site: HREC

Location	39°00'14.6"N 123°05'09.1"W			
Elevation (m)	244			
MAT (°C)	14			
MAP (cm)	94			
Soil type	Typic Haploxeralf			
Series name	Squawrock-Witherell Complex			
Bulk density	1.457 g/cm3			
Aggregate stability	39 +/- 7 18.75			
CEC (meq/100g)				
SOC (mg/g soil)	13.1 +/- 1.7			
TN (mg/g soil)	1.3 +/1 9.7 +/4			
C/N				
Texture	48, 35, 17			
Clays (30%)	Muscovite (17.8%) Chlorite (11.8%) Kaolinite (0.7%) Quartz (47.3%) Plagioclase (22.4%)			
Non-clays (70%)				
pH (Spring)	5.9 +/1			
pH (Fall)	7.3 +/1			
Soil Moisture % (Spring)	14.3 +/- 2.6			
Soil Moisture % (Fall)	1.9 +/3			

Table 1. Site characteristics and soil physicochemical properties. Location and soil pedological information determined via NRCS Web Soil Survey. Elevation and climate characteristics described by HREC. Soil texture and CEC determined by UC Davis analytical lab. Mineralogy determined at LLNL. Aggregate stability defined as % water-stable aggregates, was measured on soil collected March 2018. DOC, SOC, TN, C/N was collected in Spring 2018; pH and soil moisture was sampled in Spring 2018 during the rainy season and fall 2018 during the dry season.

Time after	Ecosystem	Total C pool (g / m2)	Total 13C pool (mg	% of plant-fixed
13C labeling	pool		13c / m2)	13CO2 remaining

	Total	7152 +/- 899	12887 +/- 3321	100%
0 days	Aboveground	146 +/- 39	7699 +/- 3066	60%
	Belowground (roots + soil)	7006 +/- 888	5187 +/- 1160	40%
	Total	7464 +/- 997	8188 +/- 2307	64%
	Aboveground	158 +/- 60	4729 +/- 1969	37%
4 weeks	Belowground (roots + soil)	7307 +/- 1007	3459 +/- 1588	27%
	FLF	795 +/- 186	489 +/- 217	(4%)
	OLF	1274 +/- 356	468 +/- 449	(3.6%)
	HF	4043 +/- 849	2130 +/- 740	(16.5%)
	Total (soil)	9058 +/- 874	8247 +/- 3058	64%
0	FLF	1003 +/- 230	3012 +/- 1588	(23.4%)
6 months	OLF	1236 +/- 217	627 +/- 318	(5%)
	HF	4691 +/- 922	2883 +/- 808	(22.4%)
	Total (soil)	8267 +/- 1319	4797 +/- 3778	37%
	FLF	936 +/- 202	1128 +/- 725	(8.8%)
1 year	OLF	1428 +/- 407	467 +/- 429	(3.6%)
	HF	3982 +/- 570	2246 +/- 1080	17.4%)
	Total (soil)	7072 +/- 999	2910 +/- 2072	23%
0	FLF	534 +/- 155	390 +/- 338	(3%)
2 years	OLF	1090 +/- 496	285 +/- 322	(2%)
	HF	3468 +/- 583	1480 +/- 1010	(11.5%)

976

Table 2: Distribution of ¹³C label within ecosystem pools. We defined 100% remaining plantfixed ¹³CO₂ as that present in the system (aboveground + belowground pools) immediately after
the ¹³CO₂ labeling period ("0 days" timepoint). The aboveground pool consists of aboveground
plant biomass, and the belowground pool consists of root biomass + bulk soil. For the "6
months", "1 year" and "2 year" timepoints, ¹³C-labeled roots had senesced and so were not
measured separately from the bulk soil was done for the "0 days" and "4 weeks" timepoints. The

bulk soil was further separated into three sub-pools via soil density fractionation, yielding the
free-light fraction (FLF), occluded-light fraction (OLF), and heavy fraction (HF). Average ¹³C
recovery based on FLF + OLF + HF was about 72% that of the bulk soil, which is within the
range for C recovery in density fractionated soil generally cited in the literature (Crow et al.,
2007; Cusack et al., 2018).

988 989

Sampling time	Density Fraction	Total C (mg/g)	Total N (mg/g)	C/N Ratio	δ 13C	Total 13c (ug/g)	Dry mass (g)
	FLF	1.6 +/5 b	.08 +/03 b	19.9 +/- 3.0 c	30.1 +/- 26.6	0.9 +/- 0.4 b	.1 +/03
Spring 2018	OLF	2.1 +/6 b	.1 +/03 b	17.5 +/- 1.1 b	-0.8 +/- 18.7	0.8 +/- 0.8 b	.1 +/03
	HF	7.1 +/- 1.6 a	.9 +/1 a	8.2 +/6 a	21.9 +/- 14.4	3.7 +/- 1.3 a	19.5 +/2
	FLF	1.9 +/- 6 b	.09 +/03 b	20.7 +/- 2.8 c	238.0 +/- 74.4	5.3 +/- 2.8 a	.2 +/04
Fall 2018	OLF	2.3 +/6 b	.1 +/04 b	17.5 +/- 1.0 b	23.2 +/- 26.9	1.2 +/- 0.4 b	.1 +/03
	HF	7.8 +/- 1.6 a	.9 +/1 a	8.5 +/5 a	30.7 +/- 17.1	5.0 +/- 1.4 a	19.4 +/2
	FLF	1.6 +/4 b	.09 +/02 b	19.1 +/- 1.8 c	78.3 +/- 57.2	2.0 +/- 1.3 ab	.1 +/04
Spring 2019	OLF	2.4 +/6 b	.1 +/04 b	17.3 +/9 b	12.9 +/- 17.9	1.1 +/- 0.6 b	.1 +/04
	HF	7.1 +/- 1.6 a	.8 +/1 a	8.5 +/8 a	24.5 +/- 20.5	3.9 +/- 1.9 a	19.4 +/2
	FLF	0.9 +/2 c	.05 +/01 b	18.7 +/- 2.1 b	51.3 +/- 64.4	0.8 +/- 0.6 b	.1 +/03
Spring 2020	OLF	1.8 +/7 b	.1 +/04 b	17.8 +/8 b	0.4 +/- 16.6	0.6 +/- 0.6 b	.1 +/04
	HF	6.3 +/- 1.1 a	.8 +/1 a	8.0 +/6 a	15.8 +/- 19.3	2.9 +/- 1.6 a	19.6 +/2

990

Table 3: Characteristics of soil density fractions. Means shown +/- 1SD. Elemental

992 characteristics are shown in units of quantity of element per gram of soil. δ^{13} C values represent 993 absolute ¹³C enrichment. Total ¹³C values represent total ¹³C added during the ¹³C labeling 994 period (calculated from atom-% excess ¹³C). Dry mass (g) value represents quantity of starting 995 soil sample (~20g) recovered in each density fraction.

996