

Special issue: Climate change and sustainability II

Opinion

Soil carbon sequestration by root exudates

Poonam Panchal, ¹ Catherine Preece, ^{2,3} Josep Peñuelas, ^{3,4} and Jitender Giri ¹ ^{1,*}

Root exudates are well-known 'labile' sources of soil carbon that can prime microbial activity. Recent investigations suggest that the stability of labile carbon inputs in soil mostly depends upon the physical, chemical, and biological properties of the surroundings. Here, we propose that, in some ecosystems, such as forests and grasslands, root exudates can function as a source of soil organic carbon (SOC) that can be stabilized through various mechanisms leading to long-term sequestration. Increasing soil carbon sequestration is important for capturing atmospheric CO₂ and combating climate change issues. Thus, there is an urgent need to preserve existing ecosystems and to adopt strategies such as afforestation, reforestation, and establishment of artificial grasslands to foster carbon sequestration through higher root exudate inputs in the soil.

Greenhouse gas emissions: a global concern

The annual United Nations climate change conference, Conference of Parties (COP) 26 (see Glossary) recently took place in Glasgow, UK (2–11 November 2021). One of its prime goals was to work toward the strict compliance of the Paris Agreement (COP21), which was signed by more than 170 countries. These countries are required to work toward the reduction of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in such a way that global warming can be limited to less than 2°C compared with preindustrial temperature levels. Following this policy, an international initiative was launched on 1 December 2015 termed the '4 per 1000 initiative'. This initiative aims to increase soil carbon assets by 0.4% annually within the top 30-40 cm layer of soil of agricultural fields, grassland, and forests [1,2]. Some of the joint statements and declarations during COP26 were launched for the purpose of finding practical solutions for increasing carbon sequestration. The Earth's soil contains around 2500 gigatons (Gt) of carbon, which is more than three times the level of carbon in the atmosphere [3]. The addition of more organic carbon in the soil should result in net removal and/or reduction of CO2, a common GHG, from the environment. A crude calculation by Kell indicated that around 10% more CO₂ sequestered in soil may result in the removal of up to 20% of CO₂ from the atmosphere [4]. Thus, increasing organic carbon content in soil is an important process to mitigate climate change resulting from CO₂ emission from various natural and anthropogenic activities.

Several artificial and natural routes can lead to the sequestration of atmospheric carbon into the soil. There are many common artificial processes, such as **afforestation**, **reforestation**, **natural regeneration**, **reduced-impact logging (RIL)**, minimum or no tillage, mulch farming, growing perennial crops, judicious nutrient management and manuring, cover residue management, cover cropping, rotational grazing, and judicious application of irrigation water [5–7]. Natural processes include plant litter deposition, accumulation of soil microorganism biomass, plant root debris accumulation, and root exudation [8,9]. Earlier studies showed that belowground carbon inputs are more important sources of stable **SOC** than are aboveground inputs [9–11]. However, the contribution of carbon-rich **root exudates** in **soil carbon sequestration** has not been the focus of much research, perhaps due to the counter-effects of microbial processes and the 'priming effect'. The priming effect counters the net stability of root exudates in

Highlights

Soil and plants are pivotal to the processes important for maintaining the integrity of biogeochemical cycles, such as the carbon cycle. Over the past few decades, anthropogenic activities have disturbed the atmospheric carbon cycle, leading to severe CO_2 emissions into the atmosphere.

Soil carbon sequestration by plant root exudates is an important means for net removal of ${\rm CO_2}$ content from the atmosphere.

The rhizosphere environment in natural ecosystems, such as forests and grasslands, can help to stabilize root exudates in soil, while conditions in croplands do not appear favorable to stabilize root exudates as a soil organic carbon (SOC) source.

Thus, preserving forests and grasslands with plant species secreting a high amount of carbon compounds might increase the SOC content in the soil of these ecosystems.

¹National Institute of Plant Genome Research, Aruna Asaf Ali Marg, New Delhi 110067, India ²Plants and Ecosystems (PLECO), Biology Department, University of Antwerp, BE-2610 Wilrijk, Belgium ³CREAF, Cerdanyola del Vallès 08193, Catalonia, Spain ⁴CSIC, Global Ecology Unit CREAF-CSIC-UAB, Bellaterra 08193, Catalonia, Spain

*Correspondence: jitender@nipgr.ac.in (J. Giri).





the soil, making them a transient or 'labile' source of SOC. In this opinion article, we compare the utility of root exudates in enhancing soil carbon content in three ecosystems: agricultural lands (croplands), forests, and grasslands. We highlight the potential of forests and grasslands to increase soil carbon pools by root exudation of organic carbon compounds. We argue that various properties of the soil and plant root exudates help to stabilize these compounds within the soil, thus, helping to increase the pool of SOC in the soil of these ecosystems. Therefore, preserving and protecting these ecosystems might significantly add to the SOC content via deposition and stabilization of plant root exudates.

The paradox of soil carbon sequestration by root exudates

A significant amount of soil carbon input comes from belowground plant processes [9,10,12] (Figure 1A–C). Photosynthetically fixed carbon is deposited within the **rhizosphere** primarily as root biomass, exudates, and microbial biomass, as soil organic matter (SOM). It was recently pointed out that there is a 'paradox' between stabilization and destabilization of SOC due to plant root-associated processes, including the process of root exudation [13]. Several studies have categorized root exudates as a 'labile' form of SOC [14-18]. Here, we define 'labile' in the context of plant root exudates that they are easily broken down by soil microorganisms. Freshly added root exudates can increase SOC utilization by increasing microbial activities in the rhizosphere, leading to a significant amount of CO₂ release into the atmosphere. Thus, these freshly added carbon compounds can lead to destabilization of already existing carbon pools in the soil, a phenomenon known as the 'priming effect' [19]. Interestingly, other studies reported that, despite the visible priming effect, freshly added carbon can still contribute to higher net SOC [20,21]. Multiple factors influence the effect of root exudates on SOC stabilization or SOC replenishment. These include soil texture, species richness, microbial composition (numbers and diversity), C:N ratio of added compounds, relative ratio of rhizosphere and **bulk soil**, nutrient availability, climate, and already existing carbon pools in the soil [9,10,20,22–24]. Thus, the extent to which root exudates can cause 'positive' or 'negative' priming effects in the rhizosphere predominantly determines their role in soil carbon liberation or sequestration, respectively [25].

Root exudates encompass the majority of nonvolatile rhizodeposits and include an abundance of soluble organic compounds, such as sugars, amino acids, and organic acids [26]. Both lowmolecular-weight root exudates and mucilages can be used as a carbon source by the microbial community [26]. Various studies have investigated the role of important root exudate compounds in SOC stabilization. For instance, Landi et al. used an exogenous application of glucose and oxalic acid, compounds frequently present in root exudates, to study CO2 emissions induced by a forest soil microbial community. Their analysis suggested that the addition of oxalic acid caused a more pronounced positive priming effect compared with glucose [27]. Keiluweit et al. used ¹³C-labeled artificial exudates along with an artificial root system to mimic natural soil conditions. Despite slight differences in the methods used, their study also indicated that oxalic acid causes higher respiration compared with adding glucose [28]. Similarly, Luo et al. tested the respiration rates in soil samples of various biotopes, amended with glucose, citric acid, and oxalic acid, although with conflicting results [29]. The highest respiration rate was obtained for glucose amendments, while oxalic acid amendments did not cause a positive priming effect among the various biotopes used. Here, the question arises why the same components showed contrasting results in terms of SOC stabilization. Recently, some groups have argued that the stability of organic carbon added to the soil is largely influenced by the nature and properties of the soil and the belowground ecosystem, and is less dependent upon the chemistry of the added compounds [8,30,31]. For instance, organic acids, such as oxalic acid, can form stable SOC components by binding to aluminium and iron oxides [17,32], while, by contrast, they can also

Glossarv

activities.

rhizosphere

4 per 1000 initiative: initiative started by the French Government at the COP21, Paris climate summit in 2015 with the purpose of increasing soil carbon by 0.4% each year to deal with climate change and increase food

Afforestation: establishment of a forest or stand of trees (forestation) in an area where there was no previous tree cover. Anthropogenic activities: human

Apparent priming effect: change in emission of CO₂ due to microbial decomposition/respiration after addition of labile carbon compounds in the soil. Biochar: charcoal-like substance produced from burnt plant matter. Bulk soil: soil other than the

Conference of Parties (COP): decision-making body responsible for monitoring and reviewing the implementation of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. Labile carbon pools: fraction of soil organic carbon that can be broken down very quickly (e.g., during respiration of microorganisms) compared with the stable part of SOC.

Mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC): organic carbon that is associated with soil minerals. These associations help to stabilize organic

Natural regeneration: renewal of forest trees by self-sown seeds, coppice, or root suckers.

Negative priming effect: addition of labile carbon compounds leads to a decrease in soil organic matter mineralization.

Particulate organic carbon (POC): part of organic carbon comprising small particles and that is partially undecomposed; not associated with minerals

Pasture lands: grasslands used for grazing by domesticated animals. Positive priming effect: addition of labile carbon compounds leads to increase in soil organic matter mineralization.

Reduced-impact logging (RIL): careful planning of timber harvest, which has a lower impact on environment compared with conventional logging methods.

Reforestation: process of replanting trees in areas that have been affected by natural disturbances, such as wildfires,



demineralize existing SOC pools [28]. Thus, SOC stability may depend upon the aluminium/iron oxide content and the other properties of the soil in the particular ecosystem.

The involvement of soil microorganisms is also important in terms of SOC stability. Root exudates are well known for attracting soil microorganisms within the rhizosphere [33]. The accumulation of microorganisms may lead to either SOC destabilization through increased respiration or SOC stabilization due to accumulation of microbial biomass residues (necromass) [24,34,35]. Under this scenario, a comparative study would be informative on the role of root exudates in SOC formation and stabilization within the major ecosystems on Earth. While anthropogenic activities in agricultural land can directly or indirectly affect net SOC gain or stabilization, grasslands and forests can be habitats in which net soil carbon sequestration by root exudates is feasible [7,36-39].

SOC sequestration in agricultural lands is highly affected by anthropogenic

One of the major sources of GHG emission is agricultural land, contributing up to 10.3% of total GHGiii. While the current Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID19) pandemic situation has led to a temporary decrease in worldwide GHG emission by sectors such as power, industry, surface transport, and aviation, there are still no signs of a reduction in emissions by the agricultural and forestry sectors [40,41]. Agricultural soils can accumulate a significant amount of organic carbon, while at the same time fulfilling the ever-increasing global food demand [42]. The total SOC content of agricultural land and managed areas is around 160.2 Gt [43]. However, many agricultural practices, such as soil tillage, removal of crop litter, and deep ploughing, lead to increased mineralization of labile SOC [42]. Indeed, there is recent experimental evidence showing SOC stabilization following 'no tillage' adoption [44]. In addition, flooding associated with rice cultivation usually results in higher GHG emission from soils [45]. There is evidence that the conversion of natural ecosystems to cultivated ones has significantly reduced the Earth's soil carbon pools [3,8]. Pausch et al. showed that annual crop species allocate a lower amount of belowground carbon compared with grass and tree species (Figure 1A) [46]. SOC accumulation in the form of fungal and bacterial biomass is also smaller than in forests and grasslands (Table S1 in the supplemental information online). Moreover, the intense application of chemical fertilizers might lead to higher GHG emissions and eutrophication, which can revert the overall effect of SOC sequestration by root exudation or any other natural modes of carbon sequestration (plant litter and microbial necromass deposition) [47]. Thus, despite having a very high carbon sink capacity due to its relatively high productivity, agricultural land is often a poor candidate for soil carbon sequestration. This could explain the decrease in soil organic matter on intensely farmed agricultural land since the 'green revolution' in the middle of the past century [48].

Root exudates can help to sequester carbon in forests

Forest soils sequester more soil carbon compared with cropland soils [4]. The SOC content in forests is close to 702 Gt for soil layers up to 100 cm, which is further divided into topsoils, 0-30 cm (342.6) and subsoils, 30-100 cm (359.5) [43]. Forests can be subdivided into five major biomes: boreal, polar, temperate, subtropical, and tropical. Among these five biomes, tropical forests cover 45% of total forested land [49]. The quantitative data on SOC content in the top 100-cm soil of tropical, temperate, and boreal forest suggest that tropical forests contain 214-435 Gt of SOC, while temperate and boreal forest soils contain up to 153-195 Gt and 338 Gt, respectively [50]. However, high uncertainty exists regarding the SOC content below a depth of 100 cm in these biomes [50]. Emissions of CO₂ due to the positive priming effect were found to be lower in soils of tropical forests than in other ecosystems, such as drylands and croplands [31]. The negative priming effect in the soil of tropical forests appears to be a function drought, and insect and disease infestations, and by unnatural ones, such as logging, mining, agricultural clearing, and development.

Rhizosphere: soil closely associated with plant roots.

Root exudates: suite of substances in the rhizosphere that are secreted by the roots of living plants and microbially modified products of these substances. They comprise low- and high-molecularweight organic compounds that are passively and actively released.

Soil carbon sequestration: addition of atmospheric carbon into the soil. resulting in a net decrease in CO2 into the atmosphere.

Soil organic carbon (SOC): measurable part of soil organic matter. SOC comes actively or passively from plants, animals, and microorganisms.



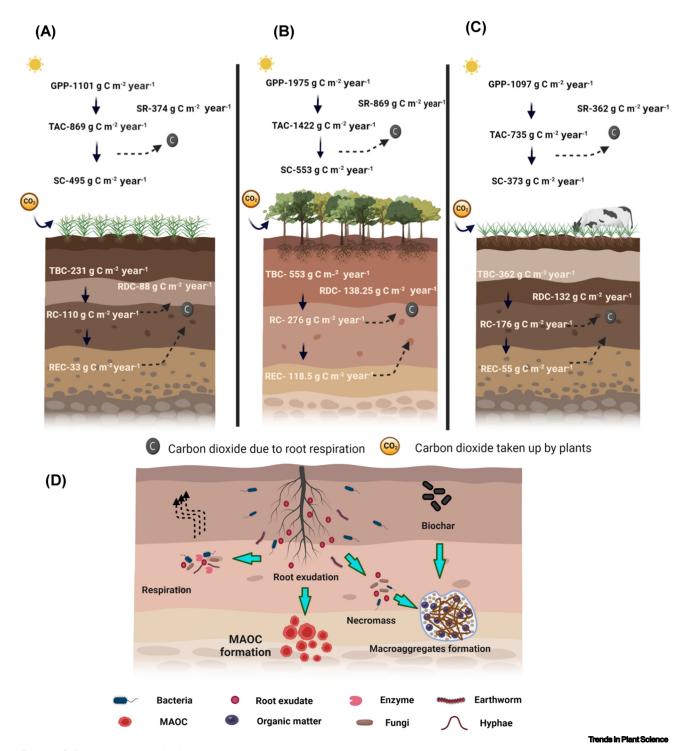


Figure 1. Soil carbon sequestration by root exudates. The belowground soil carbon sequestration patterns in three ecosystems: (A) agricultural lands, (B) forests, and (C) grasslands. Carbon allocation patterns of crops, trees, and grasses represent agriculture, forests, and grasslands, respectively. Data for carbon allocation patterns were taken from [46], which is a compilation of 281 data sets. Carbon partitioning is depicted in terms of absolute values using the unit, grams of carbon per meter square per year (g C m⁻² year⁻¹) GPP values for crops were taken from [100] and for grasslands from [101], while GPP values for forests were calculated by taking averages of GPP (Figure legend continued at the bottom of the next page.)



of their higher initial SOC content. When a labile carbon source is added to these soils, the **apparent priming effect** rarely shows up due to the lower microbial turnover activity. Interestingly, these results were obtained by comparing the various factors affecting the priming, such as climate, soil properties, and microbial composition of tropical forests, which appear to be favorable for SOC stabilization [31]. Another study suggests that, while a single addition of labile carbon may induce a positive priming effect, the continuous addition of root exudates leads to net SOC retention in tropical forest soils [51]. Very few studies have analyzed root exudate composition from tree species probably because of the difficulties in the sampling of exudates from their roots. However, the quantity of carbon added to the soil by trees in the form of root exudates is more than that of crops and grasses (Figure 1A-C; Table S2 in the supplemental information online). Microorganisms, such as fungi, contribute to stable SOC formation using labile carbon sources [52]. Interestingly, soils of boreal, tropical, and temperate forests carry high fungal biomass compared with grasslands and croplands [53,54]. Soils of boreal and temperate forests are abundant in slow-decomposing ectomycorrhizal fungi, helping to stabilize recalcitrant SOC, while tropical and subtropical forest soils are rich in arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi, which are involved in fast SOC turnover [55]. However, the experimental addition of root exudates in arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi-dominant forests caused lower priming compared with ectomycorrhizal fungi-dominant forests due to higher physical protection of SOC [56]. Thus, the combination of a lower positive priming effect and higher SOC formation by the fungal population using carbon sources provided by root exudates could lead to the accumulation of SOC from root exudates in these forest ecosystems.

SOC is often subdivided into two types: particulate organic carbon (POC) and mineralassociated organic carbon (MAOC) [57]. While the POC fraction of SOC is more vulnerable to microbial decomposition, the MAOC displays higher persistence due to protection by mineral association [58]. Root exudates are important in the formation of MAOC stock piling in soil with a high nitrogen content [21,59] (Figure 1D). The abundant stocks of nitrogen in tropical soils can efficiently support MAOC formation in these soils [60]. Macroaggregate formation is well known to facilitate carbon retention in soil [61]. Root exudates can instigate macroaggregate formation in tropical forest soils with the help of their high clay composition [62-64] (Figure 1D). Polysaccharides, including sugar molecules, such as rhamnose, galactose, arabinose, xylose, mannose, and glucose, are the 'sticky' components found in extracts of mucilages that aid the stabilization of soil aggregates (Table S2 in the supplemental information online) [65–67]. This phenomenon of SOC formation through high-quality labile root litter, termed the 'soil centered' approach, leads to long-term stabilization (>10 years) compared with stabilization through the recalcitrant 'litter-centered' approach (1-10 years) [68]. In this way, root exudates can both increase and stabilize the forest SOC content using the surrounding soil properties.

Role of root exudates in carbon sequestration in grasslands

As with forests, grasslands also represent a natural reserve of SOC, given that they contain around 439 Gt of SOC [43]. Grasses exude a plethora of organic compounds, with organic acids and amino acids as relatively abundant forms [69]. A positive correlation between root exudation and SOC accumulation was shown in an experiment that manipulated grassland biodiversity. Grasslands with higher species richness showed higher SOC accumulation [24]. The study also indicated that, since root exudates drive SOC accumulation by attracting

of tropical, temperate and boreal forest ecosystems from [50] (D) Root exudates can act as a carbon source in soil and are also stabilized by processes such as MAOC formation and macro-aggregate formation. Root exudates also help in incorporation of plant and microbial residues into the stable SOC content by aggregates formation and chemical bonding. Addition of biochar further increases the stability of root exudates in soil. Exudates also attract micro-organisms. This leads to the emission of CO₂ as a result of their respiration. Abbreviations: GPP, gross primary production; MAOC, mineral-associated organic carbon; RC, root carbon; RDC, rootderived carbon dioxide (released by root respiration); REC, root exudate carbon; SC, shoot carbon; SR, shoot respiration; TAC, total aboveground carbon; TBC, total belowground carbon. Created with BioRender (https://biorender.com/).



microorganisms, the carbon storage in soil was mostly due to accumulation of microbial residues [24].

The soil microbial content in grasslands shows a higher range of variation compared with forests and croplands. While one study found a higher proportion of bacterial biomass and, thus, a lower proportion of fungal biomass, in grasslands compared with forests and croplands [53], another study showed that grasslands carry intermediate proportions of bacterial biomass (Table S1 in the supplemental information online) [54]. However, the fungal and bacterial biomass is appreciably high in pasture lands [54]. It is hypothesized that the belowground biomass of dead roots and microbial necromass carrying the recalcitrant sources of SOC are stabilized by the processes of aggregation and chemical bonding to the mineral soil matrix. This process is known as the microbial efficiencymatrix stabilization (MEMS) framework, which requires the involvement of labile carbon sources, such as root exudates [22,70,71]. The high water-holding capacity of mucilages further helps this aggregation process [72]. SOC formation from dead roots is more efficient in the deeper soils of grasslands compared with forests, possibly because of the higher age and rigidity of tree roots compared with grass roots. Although tree roots are a more recalcitrant reservoir of carbon, they mainly occur in the top layers of soil, which are more prone to decomposition. By contrast, grass roots form a dense network of fine roots in deeper soils, which leads to slower decomposition [73,74]. Furthermore, the recalcitrance of tree roots usually leads to short-term stabilization, while the fine roots of grasses increase SOC stabilization in the longer term through the reaction of microbial products with mineral surfaces in the rhizosphere (for more details, please see [68]). In addition, the dense vegetation in grasslands with higher species richness also results in lower evaporation rates, thus mitigating the effect of climate on SOC decomposition [24].

Another study showed that, following the pattern of tropical forest, grassland soils also displayed a net negative priming effect after the addition of fresh carbon sources [31]. The reason for this SOC stabilization could be high iron and aluminium oxide content in grassland soils (e.g., savannah and Tibetan alpine grasslands), which leads to mineral protection of labile SOC [75,76]. A significant amount of carbon may be added by root exudates to grasslands during grazing. There is considerable evidence suggesting that grazing stimulates fine root exudation from C4 grasses and adds to the SOC [77–80]. Overall, the top 0–20-cm soil layer of grazing grasslands, which is closely associated with the roots, carries a high SOC density [81] and the higher SOC content is positively correlated with the higher total nitrogen content in grasslands [82].

Recently, a decade-long experimental set-up was used to test the utility of **biochar** amendment in increasing the stability of exudates in ferralsols, a common soil type in the grasslands of tropical and subtropical regions. It was observed that biochar can stabilize labile carbon from freshly added ryegrass root exudates by enhancing organo—mineral interactions [83]. Furthermore, biochar can increase both the POC and MAOC content. The narrow rhizosphere-to-bulk soil ratio (~1/4) in the topsoil of the grasslands is the key to stable MAOC formation by root exudates compared with ecosystems in which the rhizosphere-to-bulk soil ratio widens (>1/10), owing to higher root exudates inputs in the rhizosphere [9]. Other studies have also supported the effectiveness of biochar in stabilizing SOC built-up by root exudates due to negative priming in the long term [84,85]. Natural biochar can comprise up to 40% of grassland and boreal forest SOM content [30]. Additional inputs of 'naturally generated' biochar along with natural exudation processes are efficacious processes in SOC sequestration in tropical and subtropical grasslands and pasture lands (Figure 1D).

Concluding remarks and future perspectives

Root exudates are rich in organic compounds. However, studies of their potential roles in SOC formation and stabilization largely remain elusive. While human interference has led to

Outstanding questions

How can we develop methods to get precise *in situ* data on root exudate compositions in natural ecosystems?

How can we select plant species that efficiently secrete root exudates that can increase SOC content?

Is it possible to measure the SOC resulting exclusively from root exudates in situ, separating it from the SOC associated with aboveground plant inputs and microbial inputs?

Which methods can be used to minimize CO_2 emissions from natural ecosystems, such as forests and grasslands, so that they do not become a net source of atmospheric carbon?

Can root exudates and root litter of a range of plant species increase stable soil organic carbon content, and do they do this more efficiently compared with aboveground plant inputs?



disturbances of the SOC pools of agricultural lands, forests and grasslands appear to be more promising in terms of achieving high soil carbon sequestration [7,36-39]. Most terrestrial soils are far from carbon saturation and, in many places, roots can reach up to several meters in the soil, with exudates able to penetrate even further and, thus, can function in increasing SOC pools [4]. Therefore, restoring and preserving degraded tropical forests and grasslands, identifying and sowing seeds of root biomass-rich species that can secrete abundant amounts of carbon compounds, addition of naturally generated biochar, and establishment of pasture lands, are some of the important practices to enhance SOC sequestration via root exudates in these ecosystems.

It is also important to consider the technical issues for the study of root exudates in soil carbon sequestration in natural ecosystems. There is a severe lack of in situ studies of root exudates [86,87]. Such in situ experiments may give a more realistic picture of how root exudates add to SOC pools in forests and grasslands. While the analysis of exudates from short-term experiments in controlled conditions is comparatively simple, the sampling and analysis of exudates from older plants in their native conditions is a technically demanding process that has resulted in a dearth of data regarding the actual composition of root exudates in soil [88-91]. Most exudate studies are based on samples collected in hydroponics, and more research is needed to identify the composition of root exudates in real soil [92]. The use of stable ¹³C tracer techniques to measure root exudates derived from SOC is a better approach compared with the use of artificial exudates within artificial experimental set-ups, because it can measure the net accumulation of root exudates in the rhizosphere and is not biased toward any specific components [91,93–96]. Many studies have used breeding and genetically modified plants for the past two decades to increase their resistance toward multiple stress conditions through increased root biomass and exudation [33,97–99]. Similar approaches could be tested for native plant species of forests and grasslands to increase SOC in these ecosystems through root exudate deposition. In this way, the goals of dealing with climate change, in addition to increasing food security, might be achieved with the help of cultivars with higher root exudation (see Outstanding questions).

Acknowledgments

P.P. acknowledges a research fellowship from UGC, India, a Newton Bhabha PhD placement fellowship from DBT, India, and the British Council, UK. J.G. acknowledges a Swarna Jayanti Fellowship (DST/SJF/LSA-02/2018-19) from DST, India. C.P. acknowledges a research fellowship from the Research Foundation - Flanders (FWO); C.P. and J.P. acknowledge Spanish Government grant PID2019-110521GB-I00, Catalan Government grant SGR 2017-1005, and Fundación Ramón Areces grant CIVP20A6621.

Declaration of interests

None declared by authors.

Resources

https://ukcop26.org

"www.4p1000.org

iihttps://ourworldindata.org/emissions-by-sector

Supplemental information

Supplemental information associated with this article can be found at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2022.04.009.

References

- Nath, A.J. et al. (2018) Managing India's small landholder farms for food security and achieving the '4 per Thousand' target. Sci. Total Environ. 634, 1024-1033
- Rumpel, C. et al. (2018) Boost soil carbon for food and climate. Nature 553, 27
- Lal, R. (2004) Soil carbon sequestration impacts on global climate change and food security. Science 304,
- Kell, D.B. (2012) Large-scale sequestration of atmospheric carbon via plant roots in natural and agricultural ecosystems:



- why and how. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. 367,
- Abdullahi, A.C. et al. (2018) Carbon sequestration in soils: the opportunities and challenges. Carbon Capture Util. Sequestration 1 3-16
- Haddaway, N.R. et al. (2017) How does tillage intensity affect 6. soil organic carbon? A systematic review. Environ. Evid. 6.
- Lal, R. (2004) Soil carbon sequestration to mitigate climate change Geoderma 123 1-22
- 8. Navarro-Pedreño, J. et al. (2021) The increase of soil organic matter reduces global warming, myth or reality? Sci 3, 18
- Sokol, N.W. and Bradford, M.A. (2018) Microbial formation of stable soil carbon is more efficient from belowground than aboveground input, Nat. Geosci. 12, 46-53
- Sokol, N.W. et al. (2019) Evidence for the primacy of living root inputs, not root or shoot litter, in forming soil organic carbon. New Phytol. 221, 233-246
- Chen, S. et al. (2018) Plant diversity enhances productivity and soil carbon storage. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 115,
- Rasse, D.P. et al. (2005) Is soil carbon mostly root carbon? 12. Mechanisms for a specific stabilisation. Plant Soil 269, 341-356
- Dijkstra, F.A. et al. (2021) Root effects on soil organic carbon: a double-edged sword. New Phytol. 230, 60-65
- Girkin, N.T. et al. (2018) Root exudate analogues accelerate CO₂ and CH₄ production in tropical peat, Soil Biol. Biochem. 117, 48-55
- Girkin, N.T. et al. (2018) Composition and concentration of root exudate analogues regulate greenhouse gas fluxes from tropical peat. Soil Biol. Biochem. 127, 280-285
- Shahzad, T. et al. (2015) Contribution of exudates, arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and litter depositions to the rhizosphere priming effect induced by grassland species. Soil Biol. Biochem. 80, 146-155
- Merino, C. et al. (2015) Soil carbon controlled by plant, microorganism and mineralogy interactions. J. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr.
- Cheng, W. et al. (2014) Synthesis and modeling perspectives of rhizosphere priming. New Phytol. 201, 31-44
- Zhou, J. et al. (2021) Strong priming of soil organic matter induced by frequent input of labile carbon. Soil Biol. Biochem. 152, 108069
- Liang, J. et al. (2018) More replenishment than priming loss of soil organic carbon with additional carbon input. Nat. Commun. 9, 1-9
- 21. Villarino, S.H. et al. (2021) Plant rhizodeposition: a key factor for soil organic matter formation in stable fractions. Sci. Adv. 7,
- Cotrufo, M.F. et al. (2013) The Microbial Efficiency-Matrix Stabilization (MEMS) framework integrates plant litter decomposition with soil organic matter stabilization: do labile plant inputs form stable soil organic matter? Glob. Chang. Biol. 19,
- Liang, C. et al. (2017) The importance of anabolism in microbial control over soil carbon storage. Nat. Microbiol. 2, 1-6
- Lange, M. et al. (2015) Plant diversity increases soil microbial activity and soil carbon storage. Nat. Commun. 6, 6707
- Hamer, U. and Marschner, B. (2005) Priming effects in different soil types induced by fructose, alanine, oxalic acid and catechol additions. Soil Biol. Biochem. 37, 445-454
- Dennis, P.G. et al. (2010) Are root exudates more important than other sources of rhizodeposits in structuring rhizosphere bacterial communities? FEMS Microbiol. Ecol. 72, 313-327
- Landi, L. et al. (2006) Root exudate effects on the bacterial communities CO2 evolution, nitrogen transformations and ATP content of rhizosphere and bulk soils. Soil Biol. Biochem. 38 509-516
- Keiluweit, M. et al. (2015) Mineral protection of soil carbon counteracted by root exudates. Nat. Clim. Chang. 5, 588-595
- Luo, Y.Q. et al. (2014) Artificial root exudates and soil organic carbon mineralization in a degraded sandy grassland in northern China. J. Arid Land 6, 423-431
- Schmidt, M.W.I. et al. (2011) Persistence of soil organic matter as an ecosystem property. Nature 478, 49-56

- Bastida, F. et al. (2019) Global ecological predictors of the soil priming effect. Nat. Commun. 10, 1-9
- Jeewani, P.H. et al. (2020) Rusty sink of rhizodeposits and associated keystone microbiomes. Soil Biol. Biochem. 147, 107840
- Panchal, P. et al. (2021) Organic acids: versatile stressresponse roles in plants. J. Exp. Bot. 72, 4038-4052
- Miltner, A. et al. (2011) SOM genesis: microbial biomass as a significant source. Biogeochemistry 111, 41-45
- Hu Y et al. (2020) Direct measurement of the in situ decomposition of microbial-derived soil organic matter. Soil Biol. Biochem. 141, 107660
- Lal, R. (2001) World cropland soils as a source or sink for atmospheric carbon. Adv. Agron. 71, 145-191
- Morais, T.G. et al. (2019) Detailed global modelling of soil organic carbon in cropland, grassland and forest soils. PLoS
- Davidson, E.A. and Ackerman, I.L. (1993) Changes in soil carbon inventories following cultivation of previously untilled soils. Biogeochemistry 20, 161-193
- Delgado-Baquerizo, M. et al. (2017) Climate legacies drive global soil carbon stocks in terrestrial ecosystems. Sci. Adv. 4, 1–8
- Forster, P.M. et al. (2020) Current and future global climate impacts resulting from COVID-19, Nat. Clim. Chang. 10. 913-919
- Le Quéré, C. et al. (2020) Temporary reduction in daily global. CO2 emissions during the COVID-19 forced confinement. Nat. Clim. Chang. 10, 647-653
- Lal, R. (2009) Sequestering atmospheric carbon dioxide. CRC. Crit. Rev. Plant Sci. 28. 90-96
- Montanarella, L. et al., eds (2015) Status of the World's Soil Resources: Main Report, FAO
- Cooper, H.V. et al. (2021) Long-term zero-tillage enhances the protection of soil carbon in tropical agriculture. Eur. J. Soil Sci. 72. 2477-2492
- Weller, S. et al. (2015) Methane and nitrous oxide emissions from rice and maize production in diversified rice cropping systems. Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosyst. 101, 37-53
- Pausch, J. and Kuzyakov, Y. (2018) Carbon input by roots into the soil: quantification of rhizodeposition from root to ecosystem scale. Glob. Chang. Biol. 24, 1-12
- Chai, R. et al. (2019) Greenhouse gas emissions from synthetic nitrogen manufacture and fertilization for main upland crops in China. Carbon Balance Manag. 14, 1-10
- Rumpel, C. and Chabbi, A. (2021) Managing soil organic carbon for mitigating climate change and increasing food security. Agronomy 11, 1553
- FAO (2020) Global Forest Resources Assessment 2020: Main Report, FAO
- Lorenz, K. and Lal, R. (2009) Carbon Sequestration in Forest Ecosystems, Springer
- Qiao, N. et al. (2014) Labile carbon retention compensates for CO₂ released by priming in forest soils. Glob. Chang. Biol. 20,
- Kallenbach, C.M. et al. (2016) Direct evidence for microbialderived soil organic matter formation and its ecophysiological controls, Nat. Commun. 7, 1-10
- Smith, L.C. et al. (2021) Large-scale drivers of relationships between soil microbial properties and organic carbon across Europe. Glob. Ecol. Biogeogr. 10, 2070-2083
- He, L. et al. (2020) Global biogeography of fungal and bacterial biomass carbon in topsoil. Soil Biol. Biochem. 151, 108024
- Crowther, T.W. et al. (2019) The global soil community and its influence on biogeochemistry. Science 365. eaav0550
- Sulman, B.N. et al. (2017) Feedbacks between plant N demand and rhizosphere priming depend on type of mycorrhizal association. Ecol. Lett. 20, 1043-1053
- Lavallee, J.M. et al. (2020) Conceptualizing soil organic matter into particulate and mineral-associated forms to address global change in the 21st century. Glob. Chang. Biol. 26, 261-273
- Cotrufo, M.F. et al. (2019) Soil carbon storage informed by particulate and mineral-associated organic matter. Nat Geosci, 12, 989-994



- Lehmann, J. and Kleber, M. (2015) The contentious nature of soil organic matter, Nature 528, 60-68
- Lu, X. et al. (2021) Nitrogen deposition accelerates soil carbon sequestration in tropical forests. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 118 1-7
- Six, J. et al. (2000) Soil macroaggregate turnover and 61. microaggregate formation: a mechanism for C seguestration under no-tillage agriculture, Soil Biol, Biochem, 32, 2099–2103
- Baumert, V.L. et al. (2018) Root exudates induce soil macroaggregation facilitated by fungi in subsoil, Front, Environ. Sci. 6, 1-17
- Chhabra, A. et al. (2003) Soil organic carbon pool in Indian forests. For. Ecol. Manag. 173, 187-199
- Baumert, V. et al. (2018) Artificial rhizospheres: exudate effects on soil organic carbon content, aggregation and microbial community composition in topsoil vs. subsoil. EGU Gen. Assem. Conf. Abstr. 2018, 8612
- Clifford, S.C. et al. (2002) Mucilages and polysaccharides in Ziziphus species (Rhamnaceae): localization, composition and physiological roles during drought-stress. J. Exp. Bot. 53,
- Mizuta, K. et al. (2015) Soil aggregate formation and stability induced by starch and cellulose. Soil Biol. Biochem. 87, 90-96
- Oades, J.M. (1984) Soil organic matter and structural stability: mechanisms and implications for management. Plant Soil 76. 319-337
- 68. Poirier, V. et al. (2018) The root of the matter: linking root traits. and soil organic matter stabilization processes. Soil Biol. Biochem 120 246-259
- Dietz, S. et al. (2020) Root exudate composition of grass and forb species in natural grasslands, Sci. Rep. 10, 1-15
- Cagnarini, C. et al. (2019) Zones of influence for soil organic matter dynamics: a conceptual framework for data and models. Glob. Chang. Biol. 25, 3996-4007
- 71. Liang, C. et al. (2019) Quantitative assessment of microbial necromass contribution to soil organic matter. Glob. Chang. Biol. 25, 3578-3590
- Vetterlein, D. et al. (2020) Rhizosphere spatiotemporal organizationa key to rhizosphere functions. Front. Agron. 2, 1-22
- Yang, Y. et al. (2019) Soil carbon sequestration accelerated by restoration of grassland biodiversity. Nat. Commun. 10, 1-7
- Guo, L.B. and Gifford, R.M. (2002) Soil carbon stocks and land use change: A meta analysis, Glob, Chang, Biol, 8, 345-360
- Fang, K. et al. (2019) Al/Fe mineral controls on soil organic carbon stock across Tibetan alpine grasslands. J. Geophys. Res. Biogeosci. 124, 247-259
- Chen, L. et al. (2019) Regulation of priming effect by soil organic matter stability over a broad geographic scale. Nat. Commun. 10. 1-10
- Augustine, D.J. et al. (2011) Rhizosphere interactions, carbon allocation, and nitrogen acquisition of two perennial North American grasses in response to defoliation and elevated atmospheric CO₂. *Oecologia* 165, 755–770
- Henry, Ã. and Vesterga, M. (2008) Evidence for a transient increase of rhizodeposition within one and a half day after a severe defoliation of Plantago arenaria grown in soil. Soil Biol. Biochem. 40, 1264-1267
- Hamilton, E.W. and Frank, D.A. (2001) Can plants stimulate soil microbes and their own nutrient supply? Evidence from a grazing tolerant grass. Ecology 82, 2397-2402
- Wilson, C.H. et al. (2018) Grazing enhances belowground carbon allocation, microbial biomass, and soil carbon in a subtropical grassland. Glob. Chang. Biol. 24, 2997-3009

- 81. An, S. et al. (2010) Soil organic carbon density and land restoration: example of southern mountain area of Ningxia Province, Northwest China. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal. 41, 181-189
- Xue, Z. and An, S. (2018) Changes in soil organic carbon and total nitrogen at a small watershed scale as the result of land use conversion on the Loess Plateau. Sustainability 10, 4757
- Han Weng, Z. et al. (2017) Biochar built soil carbon over a decade by stabilizing rhizodeposits. Nat. Clim. Chang. 7, 371-376
- Weng, Z.H. et al. (2015) Plant-biochar interactions drive the negative priming of soil organic carbon in an annual ryegrass field system, Soil Biol, Biochem, 90, 111-121
- Maestrini, B. et al. (2015) A meta-analysis on pyrogenic organic matter induced priming effect. GCB Bioenergy 7, 577-590
- Tückmantel, T. et al. (2017) Root exudation patterns in a beech forest: dependence on soil depth, root morphology, and environment. Soil Biol. Biochem. 107, 188-197
- Akatsuki, M. and Makita, N. (2020) Influence of fine root traits on in situ exudation rates in four conifers from different mycorrhizal associations. Tree Physiol. 40, 1071-1079
- Jaitz, L. et al. (2011) LC-MS analysis of low molecular weight organic acids derived from root exudation. Anal. Bioanal. Chem. 400, 2587-2596
- Herz, K. et al. (2018) Linking root exudates to functional plant traits, PLoS One 13, 1-14
- Shi, S. et al. (2013) Challenges in assessing links between root exudates and the structure and function of soil microbial communities. Mol. Microb. Ecol. Rhizosph. 1, 125-135
- Kuzvakov, Y. and Domanski, G. (2000) Carbon input by plants into the soil, J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci. 163, 421-431
- Oburger, E. and Jones, D.L. (2018) Sampling root exudates mission impossible? Rhizosphere 6, 116-133
- Meharg, A.A. (1994) A critical review of labelling techniques used to quantify rhizosphere carbon-flow. Plant Soil 166,
- Werth, M. and Kuzyakov, Y. (2008) Root-derived carbon in soil respiration and microbial biomass determined by ¹⁴C and ¹³C. Soil Biol. Biochem. 40, 625-637
- Paterson, E. et al. (2009) Through the eye of the needle: a review of isotope approaches to quantify microbial processes mediating soil carbon balance. New Phytol. 184, 19-33
- Wang, R. et al. (2021) A novel ¹³C pulse-labelling method to quantify the contribution of rhizodeposits to soil respiration in a grassland exposed to drought and nitrogen addition. New Phytol. 230, 857-866
- López-Bucio, J. et al. (2000) Enhanced phosphorus uptake in transgenic tobacco plants that overproduce citrate. Nat. Biotechnol, 18, 450-453
- Delhaize, E. et al. (2004) Engineering high-level aluminum tolerance in barley with the ALMT1 gene. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 101, 15249-15254
- Zhao, J. et al. (2004) Characterization of root architecture in an applied core collection for phosphorus efficiency of soybean germplasm, Chin. Sci. Bull. 49, 1611-1620
- Falge, E. et al. (2002) Seasonality of ecosystem respiration and gross primary production as derived from FLUXNET measurements. Agric. For. Meteorol. 113, 53-74
- 101. Riederer, M. et al. (2015) Partitioning NEE for absolute C input into various ecosystem pools by combining results from eddycovariance, atmospheric flux partitioning and ¹³CO₂ pulse labeling, Plant Soil 390, 61-76