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1 **Soil carbon sequestration by root exudates**

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9 **Keywords: Root exudates, soil organic carbon, labile, ecosystems, microorganisms,**
10 **rhizosphere**

11 **Abstract**

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

21

22 *Greenhouse gas emissions-a global concern*

23 The annual United Nations climate change conference- **COP26** (Conference of Parties) (See
24 glossary) recently took place in Glasgow, UK (2-11 November, 2021) (<https://ukcop26.org>). One
25 of its prime goals was to work towards the strict compliance of the Paris agreement-COP21,
26 which was signed by more than 170 countries. These countries are required to work towards the
27 reduction of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in such a way that global warming can be limited
28 to less than 2 °C compared to the pre-industrial temperature level. Following this policy, an
29 international initiative was launched on 1st December 2015 and it was termed as the “**4 per 1000**
30 **initiative**”. This initiative aims to increase soil carbon assets by 0.4% annually, within the top
31 30-40 cm layer of soil of agricultural fields, grassland and forests (<https://www.4p1000.org>)
32 [1,2]. Some of the joint statements and declarations during COP26 were actually launched for the
33 purpose of practically working towards increasing carbon sequestration (<https://ukcop26.org>).
34 Soil contains around 2500 gigatons (Gt) of carbon which is far more abundant than that in the
35 atmosphere [3]. The addition of more organic carbon in the soil should result in net
36 removal/reduction of carbon dioxide (CO₂), a common GHG, from the environment. A crude
37 calculation by Kell, (2012) indicates that around 10% additional CO₂ sequestered in soil may
38 result in up to 20% removal of CO₂ from the atmosphere [4]. Thus, increasing organic carbon
39 content in soil is an important process to mitigate climate changes due to CO₂ emission from
40 various natural and **anthropogenic activities**.

41 A number of artificial and natural routes can lead to the sequestration of atmospheric
42 carbon into the soil. Common artificial processes are many, and include **afforestation**,
43 **reforestation**, **natural regeneration**, **reduced impact logging** (RIL), minimum or no tillage,
44 mulch farming, growing perennial crops, judicious nutrient management and manuring, cover

45 residue management, cover cropping, rotational grazing and judicious application of irrigation
46 water [5–7]. Natural processes include plant litter deposition, accumulation of soil
47 microorganism biomass, plant root debris accumulation and root exudation [8,9]. Earlier studies
48 have shown that the belowground carbon inputs are much more important sources of stable soil
49 organic carbon (SOC), compared to aboveground inputs [9–11]. However, the contribution of
50 carbon-rich **root exudates** in **soil carbon sequestration** has not been the focus of much
51 research, perhaps due to the counter effects of microbial processes and the “priming effect”. The
52 priming effect counters the net stability of root exudates in the soil making them a transient or
53 “labile” source of SOC. In this opinion article, we compare the utility of root exudates in
54 enhancing soil carbon content in three ecosystems: agricultural lands (croplands), forests and
55 grasslands. We further highlight the potential of forests and grasslands in increasing soil carbon
56 pools by root exudation of organic carbon compounds. We argue that various properties of the
57 soil and the plant root exudates help to stabilize these compounds within the soil, thus, helping to
58 increase the pool of SOC in the soil of these ecosystems. Therefore, preserving and protecting
59 these ecosystems might significantly add to the SOC content via deposition and stabilization of
60 plant root exudates.

61 *The paradox of soil carbon sequestration by root exudates*

62 A significant amount of soil carbon input comes from below-ground plant processes [9,10,12]
63 (Figure 1A-C). Photosynthetically fixed carbon is deposited within the **rhizosphere** primarily as
64 root biomass, exudates and microbial biomass as soil organic matter (SOM). It has recently been
65 pointed out that there is a “paradox” between stabilization and destabilization of SOC due to
66 plant root-associated processes, including the process of root exudation [13]. A number of
67 studies have categorized root exudates as a “labile” form of SOC [14–18]. Here, it is important to

68 define the term labile in the context of plant root exudates, which indicates that they are easily
69 broken down by soil microorganisms. Freshly added root exudates, can increase SOC utilization
70 by increasing microbial activities in the rhizosphere, leading to a significant amount of CO₂
71 release in the atmosphere. These freshly added carbon compounds can thus lead to the
72 destabilization of already existing carbon pools in the soil, a phenomenon known as the “priming
73 effect” [19]. Interestingly, a few other studies state that despite the visible priming effect, freshly
74 added carbon can still contribute to higher net SOC [20,21]. Multiple factors influence the effect
75 of root exudates on SOC stabilization or SOC replenishment. These include soil texture, species
76 richness, microbial composition (numbers and diversity), C:N ratio of added compounds, relative
77 ratio of rhizosphere and **bulk soil**, nutrient availability, climate and already existing C pools in
78 the soil [9,10,20,22–24]. Thus, the extent to which root exudates can cause “positive” or
79 “negative” priming effects in the rhizosphere predominantly determines their role in soil carbon
80 liberation or sequestration, respectively [25].

81 Root exudates encompass the majority of non-volatile rhizodeposits and include an abundance
82 of soluble organic compounds like sugars, amino acids and organic acids [26]. Both low
83 molecular weight root exudates and mucilages can be used as a carbon source for the microbial
84 community [26]. A number of studies have investigated the role of important root exudate
85 compounds in SOC stabilization. For instance, Landi *et al.* used exogenous application of
86 glucose and oxalic acid, compounds frequently present in root exudates, to study the CO₂
87 emission induced by the forest soil microbial community. Their analysis suggested that the
88 addition of oxalic acid caused a more pronounced **positive priming effect** compared to glucose
89 [27]. Keiluweit *et al.* used ¹³C-labelled artificial exudates along with an artificial root system to
90 mimic natural soil conditions. Despite having slight differences in the methods used, their study

91 also indicated that oxalic acid causes higher respiration compared to glucose [28]. Similarly, Luo
92 *et al.* tested the respiration rates in soil samples of various biotopes, amended with glucose, citric
93 acid and oxalic acid, however, they obtained conflicting results [29]. The highest respiration rate
94 was obtained for glucose amendments, while oxalic acid amendments did not cause a positive
95 priming effect among the various biotopes used. Here, the question arises of why the same
96 components show contrasting results in terms of SOC stabilization? Recently, some groups have
97 argued that the stability of organic carbon added to the soil is largely influenced by the nature
98 and properties of the soil and the below ground ecosystem, and is less dependent upon the
99 chemistry of the added compounds [8,30,31]. For instance, organic acids like oxalic acid can
100 form stable SOC components by binding to aluminium and iron oxides [17,32], while in contrast
101 they can also demineralize existing SOC pools [28]. Thus, it may depend upon the
102 aluminium/iron oxide content and the other properties of the soil in the particular ecosystem.

103 The involvement of soil microorganisms is also important in terms of the SOC stability. Root
104 exudates are well-known for attracting soil microorganisms within the rhizosphere [33]. The
105 accumulation of microorganisms may either lead to SOC destabilization through increased
106 respiration or SOC stabilization due to accumulation of microbial biomass residues (necromass)
107 [24,34,35]. Under this scenario, it is worth doing a comparative study on the role of root
108 exudates in SOC formation and stabilization, between the major ecosystems on Earth. While
109 anthropogenic activities in agricultural land can directly or indirectly affect net SOC gain or
110 stabilization, grasslands and forests can be habitats where net soil carbon sequestration by root
111 exudates is feasible [7,36–39].

112 ***SOC sequestration in agricultural lands is highly affected by anthropogenic activities***

113 One of the major sources of GHG emission is agricultural land, contributing up to 10.3% of total
114 GHG (<https://ourworldindata.org/emissions-by-sector>). While the current COVID19 pandemic
115 situation has led to a temporary decrease in worldwide GHG emission by sectors like power,
116 industry, surface transport and aviation, there are still no signs of reduction in the emissions by
117 the agricultural and forestry sector [40,41]. Agricultural soils can accumulate a significant
118 amount of organic carbon, while at the same time fulfilling the ever-increasing global food
119 demands [42]. The total SOC content of agricultural land and managed areas is around 160.2 Gt
120 [43] . However, many agricultural practices such as soil tillage, removal of crop litter, and deep
121 ploughing lead to increased mineralization of labile SOC [42]. Indeed, there is recent
122 experimental evidence showing SOC stabilization following “no tillage” adoption [44]. Also, the
123 flooding associated with rice cultivation usually results in higher GHG emission from soils [45].
124 There is evidence that the conversion of natural ecosystems to cultivated ones has significantly
125 reduced earth’s soil carbon pools [3,8]. Pausch *et al.* showed that annual crop species allocate a
126 lower amount of belowground carbon compared to grass and tree species (Figure 1A) [46]. The
127 SOC accumulation in the form of fungal and bacterial biomass is also smaller than in forests and
128 grasslands (Table S2). Moreover, the intense application of chemical fertilizers might lead to
129 higher GHG emissions and eutrophication which can revert the overall effect of SOC
130 sequestration by root exudation or any other natural modes of carbon sequestration (plant litter
131 and microbial necromass deposition) [47]. Thus, despite having a very high carbon sink capacity
132 due to its relatively high productivity, agricultural land is often a poor candidate for soil carbon
133 sequestration. This could explain the decrease in soil organic matter on intensely farmed
134 agricultural land since the ‘green revolution’ in the middle of the last century [48].

135 ***Root exudates can help to sequester carbon in forests***

136 Forest soils sequester more soil carbon when compared to cropland soils [4]. The SOC content in
137 forests is around 702 Gt for soil layers up to 100 cm, which is further divided into the topsoils, 0-
138 30 cm (342.6) and subsoils, 30-100 cm (359.5) [43]. Forests can be sub-divided into five major
139 biomes- boreal, polar, temperate, subtropical and tropical. Among these five biomes, tropical
140 forests cover 45% of total forested land [49]. The quantitative data on SOC content in the top
141 100 cm soil of tropical, temperate and boreal forest suggests that tropical forests contain around
142 214–435 Gt of SOC, while temperate and boreal forest soils contain up to 153–195 Gt and 338
143 Gt, respectively [50]. However, there exists a very high uncertainty regarding the SOC content
144 below 100 cm depth in these biomes [50]. Emissions of CO₂ due to the positive priming effect
145 were found to be lower in soils of tropical forests than in other ecosystems such as drylands and
146 croplands [31]. The **negative priming effect** in the soil of tropical forests seems to be a function
147 of their higher initial SOC content. When a **labile carbon** source is added to these soils, the
148 **apparent priming effect** rarely shows up due to the lower microbial turnover activity.
149 Interestingly, these results were obtained by comparing the various factors affecting the priming,
150 such as climate, soil properties and microbial composition of tropical forests, which seem to be
151 favorable for SOC stabilization [31]. Another study suggests that while a single addition of labile
152 carbon may induce a positive priming effect, the continuous addition of root exudates leads to
153 net SOC retention in tropical forest soils [51]. Very few studies have analyzed root exudate
154 composition from tree species probably because of the difficulties in the sampling of exudates
155 from their roots. However, the quantity of carbon added to the soil by trees in the form of root
156 exudates is more than that of crops and grasses (Figure 1A-C, Table S1). Microorganisms such
157 as fungi contribute to stable SOC formation using labile carbon sources [52]. Interestingly, soils
158 of boreal, tropical and temperate forests carry high fungal biomass compared to grasslands and

159 croplands [31,53,54]. Soils of boreal and temperate forests are abundant in slow-decomposing
160 ectomycorrhizal fungi, helping to stabilize recalcitrant SOC, while the tropical and sub-tropical
161 forest soils are rich in arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi biomass that are involved in fast SOC
162 turnover [55]. However, the experimental addition of root exudates in the arbuscular mycorrhizal
163 fungi-dominant forests caused lower priming compared to ectomycorrhizal fungi-dominant
164 forests due to higher physical protection of SOC [56]. Thus, the combination of a lower positive
165 priming effect and higher SOC formation by the fungal population using carbon sources
166 provided by root exudates could lead to accumulation of SOC from root exudates in these forest
167 ecosystems.

168 SOC is often subdivided into two types- Particulate Organic Carbon (**POC**) and Mineral
169 Associated Organic Carbon (**MAOC**) [57]. While the POC fraction of SOC is much more
170 vulnerable to microbial decomposition, the MAOC displays higher persistence due to protection
171 by mineral association [58]. Root exudates are important in the formation of MAOC stock
172 building in soil with high nitrogen content [21,59] (Figure 1D). The abundant stocks of nitrogen
173 in tropical soils can efficiently support MAOC formation in these soils [60]. Macroaggregate
174 formation is well-known to facilitate carbon retention in soil [61]. Root exudates can instigate
175 macroaggregate formation in tropical forest soils with the help of their high clay composition
176 [62–64] (Figure 1D). Polysaccharides including sugar molecules like rhamnose, galactose,
177 arabinose, xylose, mannose and glucose are the “sticky” components found in extracts of
178 mucilages, that help in the stabilization of soil aggregates (Table S1) [65–67]. This phenomenon
179 of SOC formation through high quality labile root litter, termed the “soil centered” approach,
180 leads to long term stabilization (>10 years) compared with stabilization through the recalcitrant

181 “litter-centered” approach (1-10 years) [68]. In this way, root exudates can both increase and
182 stabilize the forest SOC content using the surrounding soil properties.

183 *Role of root exudates in carbon sequestration in grasslands*

184 Just like forests, grasslands also represent a natural reserve of SOC. Grasslands contain around
185 439 Gt of SOC [44]. Grasses exude a plethora of organic compounds with organic acids and
186 amino acids as relatively abundant forms [69]. A positive correlation between root exudation and
187 SOC accumulation was shown in an experiment that manipulated grassland biodiversity. The
188 grasslands with higher species richness showed higher SOC accumulation [24]. The study also
189 indicated that since root exudates drive SOC accumulation by attracting micro-organisms, the
190 carbon storage in soil was mostly due to accumulation of microbial residues [24].

191 The soil microbial content in grasslands shows a higher range of variation as compared to forests
192 and croplands. While one study found a higher proportion of bacterial biomass, and so lower
193 proportion of fungal biomass, in grasslands compared with forests and croplands [53], another
194 study showed that grasslands carry intermediate proportions of bacterial biomass (Table S2)
195 [54]. However, the fungal and bacterial biomass is appreciably high in **pasture lands** [54]. It is
196 hypothesized that the belowground biomass of dead roots and microbial necromass carrying the
197 recalcitrant sources of SOC are stabilized by the processes of aggregation and chemical bonding
198 to the mineral soil matrix. This process is known as the microbial efficiency-matrix stabilization
199 (MEMS) framework, which requires the involvement of labile carbon sources such as root
200 exudates [22,70,71]. The high water holding capacity of mucilages further helps in this
201 aggregation process [72]. SOC formation from dead roots is much more efficient in the deeper
202 soils of grasslands, as compared to forests [73]. The possible reason could be the higher age and
203 rigidity of tree roots compared to the roots of grasses. Though the tree roots are a more

204 recalcitrant reservoir of C, they are mostly accumulated in the top layers of soil and the top
205 layers are more prone to decomposition. The grass roots, on the other hand, form a dense
206 network of fine roots in deeper soils which leads to slower decomposition [74]. Further, the
207 recalcitrance of tree roots usually leads to short term stabilization, while the fine roots of grasses
208 increase SOC stabilization in the longer term through the reaction of microbial products with
209 mineral surfaces in the rhizosphere (for more details please see [68]). Also, The dense vegetation
210 in grasslands with higher species richness also results in lower evaporation rates, thus mitigating
211 the climate effect on SOC decomposition [24].

212 Another study showed that following the pattern of tropical forest, grassland soils also displayed
213 a net negative priming effect after the addition of fresh carbon sources [31]. The reason for the
214 SOC stabilization could be high iron and aluminium oxide content in grassland soils (like
215 Savannahs and Tibetan Alpine grasslands), which leads to mineral protection of labile SOC
216 [75,76]. A significant amount of carbon may be added by root exudates to the grasslands during
217 grazing. There is considerable evidence which suggests that grazing stimulates fine root
218 exudation from C4 grasses and adds to the SOC [77–80]. Overall, the top 0-20 cm layer soil of
219 grazing grasslands, which is closely associated with the roots, carries a high SOC density [81]
220 and the higher SOC content is positively related to the higher total nitrogen content in grasslands
221 [82].

222 Recently, a decade long experimental set up was used to test the utility of **biochar** amendment in
223 increasing the stability of exudates in ferralsols, a common soil type in the grasslands of tropical
224 and sub-tropical regions. They found that biochar can stabilize labile carbon from freshly-added
225 ryegrass root exudates, by enhancing organo-mineral interactions [83]. Further, biochar can
226 increase both POC and MAOC content in ferralsols. The narrow rhizosphere to bulk soil ratio

227 (~1/4) in the top soil of the grasslands is the key to the stable MAOC formation by the root
228 exudates compared to ecosystems where rhizosphere to bulk soil ratio widens ($>1/10$), owing to
229 higher root exudates inputs in the rhizosphere [9]. A few other studies have also supported the
230 effectiveness of biochar in stabilizing SOC built-up by root exudates due to negative priming in
231 the long term [84,85]. Natural biochar can comprise up to 40% of grassland and boreal forest
232 SOM content [30]. Additional inputs of “naturally generated” biochar along with natural
233 exudation processes are efficacious processes in SOC sequestration in tropical and sub-tropical
234 grasslands and pasture lands (Figure 1D).

235 *Concluding remarks and future perspectives*

236 Root exudates are highly rich in organic compounds. However, studies into their potential roles
237 in SOC formation and stabilization largely remain elusive. While human interference has led to
238 disturbances to the SOC pools of agricultural lands, forests and grasslands appear to be much
239 more promising in terms of achieving high soil carbon sequestration [7,36–39]. Most terrestrial
240 soils are far from carbon saturation, and in many places, roots can reach up to several meters in
241 the soil with exudates able to penetrate even further, and so can function in increasing SOC pools
242 [4]. Thus, restoring and preserving degraded tropical forests and grasslands, identifying and
243 sowing seeds of rich root biomass species that can secrete abundant amounts of carbon
244 compounds, addition of naturally generated biochar, and establishment of pasture lands are some
245 of the important practices to enhance SOC sequestration via root exudates in these ecosystems.

246 It is also important to consider the technical issues for the study of root exudates in soil carbon
247 sequestration in natural ecosystems. There is a severe lack of *in situ* studies of root exudates
248 [86,87]. These *in situ* experiments may give a more realistic picture of how root exudates add to

249 SOC pools in forests and grasslands. While the analysis of exudates from short-term experiments
250 in controlled conditions is comparatively simple, the sampling and analysis of exudates from
251 older plants in their native conditions is a technically demanding process which has resulted in a
252 dearth of data regarding the actual composition of root exudates in soil [88–91]. Most exudate
253 studies are based on samples collected in hydroponics and more research is needed to identify
254 the composition of root exudates in real soil [92]. The use of stable ¹³C tracer techniques, to
255 measure root exudates derived from SOC is a better approach compared to the use of artificial
256 exudates within artificial experimental setups, as it can measure net accumulation of root
257 exudates in the rhizosphere and is not biased towards any specific components [91,93–96]. Many
258 studies have used breeding and genetically modified plants for the past two decades to increase
259 their resistance towards multiple stress conditions through increased root exudation [33,97–99].
260 Similar approaches could be tested for native plant species of forests and grasslands to increase
261 SOC in these ecosystems through root exudate deposition. In this way, the goals of dealing with
262 climate change, in addition to increasing food security, might be achieved with the help of
263 cultivars with higher root exudation (**See outstanding question**).

264 **Glossary**

265 **4 per 1000 initiative**- An initiative started by the French government at the COP21, Paris
266 climate summit in 2015 with the purpose of increasing soil carbon by 0.4% each year to deal
267 with climate change and increase food security.

268 **Afforestation**- It is the establishment of a forest or stand of trees (forestation) in an area where
269 there was no previous tree cover.

270 **Anthropogenic activities**- Human activities.

271 **Apparent priming effect-** The change in emission of CO₂ due to microbial
272 decomposition/respiration after addition of labile carbon compounds in the soil.

273 **Biochar-** Charcoal-like substance produced from burnt plant matter.

274 **Bulk soil-** Soil other than the rhizosphere.

275 **COP-** Conference of parties is the decision-making body responsible for monitoring and
276 reviewing the implementation of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.

277 **Labile carbon pools-** The fraction of soil organic carbon which can be broken down very
278 quickly (e.g. during respiration of microorganisms) as compared to the other stable part of SOC

279 **MAOC-**Mineral associated organic carbon. Organic carbon that is associated with soil minerals.
280 These associations help to stabilize organic carbon.

281 **Natural regeneration-** Renewal of forest trees by self-sown seeds, coppice or root suckers

282 **Negative priming effect-** Addition of labile carbon compounds leads to decrease in soil organic
283 matter mineralization

284 **Pasture lands-**Grasslands used for grazing by domesticated animals

285 **POC-** Particulate Organic Carbon. A part of organic carbon which is made up of small particles
286 and is partially undecomposed. It is not associated with minerals.

287 **Positive priming effect-** Addition of labile carbon compounds leads to increase in soil organic
288 matter mineralization.

289 **Reduced impact logging (RIL)-** Careful planning of timber harvest, which results in lower
290 impact on environment as compared to conventional logging methods.

291 **Reforestation**- The process of replanting trees in areas that have been affected by natural
292 disturbances like wildfires, drought, and insect and disease infestations — and unnatural ones
293 like logging, mining, agricultural clearing, and development.

294 **Rhizosphere**- Soil closely associated with the plant roots.

295 **Root exudates**- Root exudates refer to a suite of substances in the rhizosphere that are secreted
296 by the roots of living plants and microbially modified products of these substances. They consist
297 of low- and high-molecular-weight organic compounds that are passively and actively released.

298 **Soil carbon sequestration**- The addition of atmospheric carbon into the soil, resulting in net
299 decrease in carbon dioxide in atmosphere.

300 **SOC**- Soil organic carbon. The measurable part of soil organic matter. Soil organic carbon
301 comes actively or passively from plants, animals and microorganisms

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525 Supplemental references

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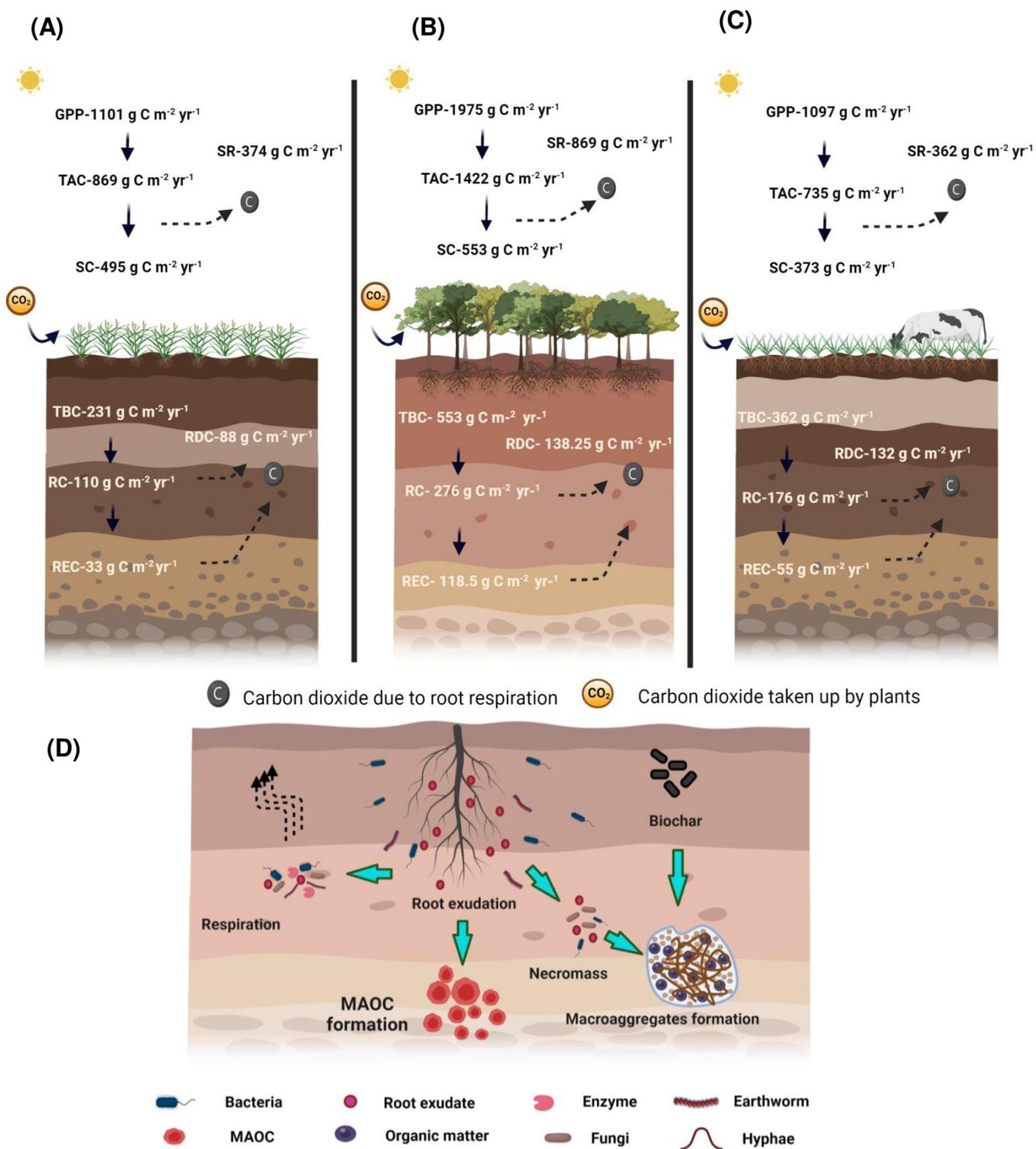


Figure 1. Soil carbon sequestration by root exudates The belowground soil carbon sequestration patterns in three ecosystems (A) agricultural lands (B) forests (C) grasslands. Carbon allocation patterns of crops, trees and grasses represent agriculture, forests and grasslands, respectively. Data for carbon allocation patterns was taken from [46], which is a compilation of 281 datasets. The carbon partitioning is depicted in terms of absolute values with the unit, grams carbon per meter square per year (g C m⁻² yr⁻¹) GPP- Gross Primary Production; TAC-Total Aboveground Carbon; SC-Shoot Carbon; SR-Shoot Respiration; TBC-Total belowground carbon; RC-Root Carbon; REC-Root exudates carbon; RDC-Root Derived Carbon dioxide (released by root respiration). 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 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-aggregates 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. Created with BioRender (<https://biorender.com/>).