

1 **Title:** Constraints on mineral-associated and particulate organic carbon response to regenerative  
2 management: carbon inputs and saturation deficit

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21 **Abstract**

22 Regenerative management has potential to increase soil organic carbon (SOC), which will be crucial for  
23 mitigating climate change and improving soil health. Distinct fractions of SOC, particulate organic carbon  
24 (POC) and mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC), have been posited as having contrasting  
25 responses to regenerative management. The POC response has been proposed as a leading indicator of  
26 total SOC response, whereas MAOC response has been seen as eventually limiting SOC response due to  
27 its saturation behavior. We explored these and linked expectations of SOC, POC and MAOC response by  
28 leveraging multiple datasets of regenerative management with cover crops or perennial crops as  
29 contrasted with conventional management (n = 45 sites). Across sites, POC as a percentage of SOC was  
30 on average 19%. Regenerative management increased both POC and MAOC but increases in POC were  
31 smaller and narrower ( $0.78 \pm 0.26 \text{ g C kg soil}^{-1}$ ) than increases in MAOC ( $1.41 \pm 0.80 \text{ g C kg soil}^{-1}$ ).  
32 Changes in POC were only weakly correlated with changes in SOC ( $p < 0.001$  but  $R^2 = 0.11$ ), revealing  
33 that absolute changes in POC at any timepoint should not be taken as indicative of total SOC responses.  
34 The MAOC response made up the majority of SOC response at 58% of sites. Changes in POC and  
35 MAOC with regenerative management were also not related ( $p = 0.72$ ), indicating that comprehensive  
36 assessment of POC and MAOC is needed to understand SOC accumulation under regenerative  
37 management. Increases in POC were explained by annual average of increase in root C inputs with  
38 regenerative management, suggesting a limited ability for the current portfolio of regenerative  
39 management practices to increase POC, even when implemented over decadal time scales. In contrast,  
40 increases in MAOC were partially explained by cumulative-for-the-trial increases in root C inputs and  
41

48 were not clearly constrained by silt + clay-estimated saturation deficit. Our results indicate that the  
49 increase of MAOC storage in agricultural soils is not limited by saturation but rather by the extent to  
50 which root C inputs can be augmented, and that increasing POC storage will require novel practices to  
51 overcome current limitations on POC accumulation.

52

## 53 1. Introduction

54

55 Increasing soil organic carbon (SOC) in agricultural lands is a key solution for mitigating climate  
56 change and improving soil health (Bossio et al., 2020; Minasny et al., 2017; Paustian et al., 2016).  
57 Regenerative agricultural practices are designed to accumulate SOC, often by increasing C inputs to soil  
58 (King and Blesh, 2018), as a means to improve soil functioning (Schreefel et al., 2020). Increases in SOC  
59 can either be in the form of particulate organic carbon (POC) or mineral-associated organic carbon  
60 (MAOC). These pools of SOC have distinct formation pathways and mechanism of protection. Inputs of  
61 structural compounds primarily form POC (Cotrufo et al., 2015; von Lützow et al., 2007), which receives  
62 minimal protection from the soil matrix (King et al., 2023), and generally has a fast turnover rate  
63 compared to MAOC (Lutzow et al., 2006; Poeplau et al., 2018). Inputs of low-molecular weight  
64 compounds primarily form MAOC, which is protected from decomposition by the soil matrix (Cotrufo et  
65 al., 2015; Kleber et al., 2015). Each of these pools of SOC has received research attention from somewhat  
66 divergent standpoints, but increasingly there is an awareness that effective SOC management depends on  
67 accurate, holistic understandings of how both POC and MAOC respond to management (Angst et al.,  
68 2023; Cotrufo and Lavallee, 2022).

69

70 Mineral-associated organic carbon has been the focus of an abundance of work elaborating its  
71 empirical properties and theoretical controls (Cotrufo et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2013; Hassink and  
72 Whitmore, 1997). As MAOC receives protection from soil mineral surfaces, and the availability of soil  
73 mineral surfaces varies between soils but is necessarily finite, the concept of a soil-specific upper limit of  
74 MAOC storage has been termed ‘saturation’ (Hassink, 1997; Six et al., 2002; Stewart et al., 2007). An  
75 assumption that saturation dynamics govern MAOC behavior has since proliferated (Angst et al., 2023;  
76 Castellano et al., 2015; Just et al., 2023) and has legitimized soil-texture-derived MAOC saturation levels  
77 being used to estimate MAOC storage capacity regionally (Beare et al., 2014) and globally (Georgiou et  
78 al., 2022). It reasonably follows from current theory of MAOC saturation that resources to promote  
79 regenerative management should target soils farther from MAOC saturation, which could have major  
80 logistic and economic consequences for SOC storage initiatives. While an emerging understanding of  
81 controls on MAOC accumulation indicate soil matrix properties such as exchangeable calcium and  
82 amorphous iron and aluminum are stronger determinants of MAOC storage capacity than silt + clay (King  
83 et al., 2023; Rasmussen et al., 2018; Rowley et al., 2018), there remains insufficient data on these  
84 properties to test any updated formula for determining MAOC saturation level. Even with respect to the  
85 long-standing silt + clay-defined MAOC saturation, there has been little investigation whether a silt +  
86 clay-defined MAOC saturation deficit influences responsiveness of MAOC to regenerative management  
87 specifically in agricultural soils. If soils under annual agriculture are consistently far enough from MAOC  
88 saturation given loss of SOC under agricultural land use (Sanderman et al., 2017), it may be that factors  
89 other than MAOC saturation deficit influence MAOC response to regenerative management.

90

91       Studies focusing on POC response to regenerative management (Janzen et al., 1992; Liu et al.,  
92 2022; Mi et al., 2016; Mirsky et al., 2008) have emerged in part because observing a response to  
93 management in SOC is expected to be challenged by several barriers. The SOC pool is large compared to  
94 annual inputs and outputs, so any improvements in agricultural management usually require multiple  
95 seasons of implementation to realize measurable SOC changes (Smith, 2004). It is also unclear whether  
96 hard-won increases in total SOC are necessary or sufficient for improvements in soil functioning  
97 (Gregorich et al., 1994). These challenges in studying SOC have inspired research seeking to identify  
98 measurable quantities of soil that enable sensitive detection of fractions relevant to SOC functioning  
99 (Cantero-marti et al., 2014; Gregorich and Janzen, 1996; Haynes, 2005), or early indicators of SOC  
100 change (Culman et al., 2012). Amongst this suite of SOC fractions, POC is often included, having been  
101 described in early work as a management-responsive fraction (Hussain et al., 1999; Wander et al., 1994).  
102 Given this research, POC change is often described as an indicator of SOC change (Eze et al., 2023),  
103 although relationship between absolute POC change and SOC change under regenerative management has  
104 received limited synthesis across agricultural soils broadly, which could help to determine the utility of  
105 POC assessments as indicators of SOC change. Another expectation motivating the study of POC is that  
106 POC response to management, not being constrained by inherent soil properties, is instead limited only by  
107 C inputs (Castellano et al., 2015; Six et al., 2002).

108       Carbon inputs to soil are recognized as crucial for maintenance of SOC levels in the face of on-  
109 going SOC decomposition and turnover (Gregorich et al., 1995; Luo et al., 2017). A central pathway  
110 through which regenerative practices increase SOC is therefore by increasing the quantity of C inputs to  
111 soil (King and Blesh, 2018; Kong et al., 2005). Regenerative practices such as cover cropping and  
112 perennial cropping can extend plant growth to the shoulders of traditional growing seasons to increase  
113 total plant productivity and C inputs (King and Blesh, 2018). Replacing annual crops with perennial crops  
114 also increases belowground (root) inputs compared to most annual crops (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2013).  
115 Root inputs are particularly important for SOC accumulation and maintenance due to their preferential  
116 retention compared to shoot inputs (Austin et al., 2017; Kong and Six, 2010; Rasse et al., 2005; Sokol et  
117 al., 2018) and can lead to either formation of MAOC through rhizodeposition or formation of POC due to  
118 persistence of root structural tissues (Fulton-Smith and Cotrufo, 2019; Poirier et al., 2018). Differences in  
119 root or shoot C inputs between a regenerative and conventional practice can be assessed in terms of either  
120 an average annual change (Wooliver and Jagadamma, 2023), or a cumulative-for-the-trial change (Das et  
121 al., 2014), where responsiveness to the latter would indicate longer residence times of C inputs. Despite  
122 the demonstrated importance of C inputs for SOC, it is currently unclear whether increases in C inputs  
123 under regenerative practices similarly affect POC and MAOC, given differences in turnover time and  
124 protection from decomposition between the two fractions. If it were the case that MAOC accumulation is  
125 primarily saturation-limited but that POC is primarily C input limited, we could expect to see little or no  
126 signal of C inputs in increasing MAOC in soils close to saturation while POC accumulation would align  
127 with long-term increases in C inputs.

128       We leveraged datasets from King et al. (2023), Prairie et al. (2023) and Rui et al. (2022) to ask: 1)  
129 What is the response size of SOC, POC and MAOC to regenerative management practices of cover  
130 cropping and perennial cropping, broadly across agricultural soils? We also asked: 2) What are the  
131 relationships between POC, MAOC and SOC response to these forms of regenerative management, and,  
132 finally, 3) Can the expected variability in POC and MAOC response to regenerative management be

135 explained by soil properties or C inputs? Previous studies have examined the role of climate and other soil  
136 properties (silt + clay; soil pH) in mediating the effect of regenerative management on SOC and found  
137 minimal influence (Jian et al., 2020; Poeplau and Don, 2015), however we also investigated these  
138 variables to corroborate the absence of their influence in our dataset. Our overarching hypothesis was that  
139 the response sizes and the controls on response sizes of POC and MAOC to regenerative management  
140 would differ. Specifically, we hypothesized that POC response was more likely to be influenced by C  
141 inputs whereas MAOC was more likely to be influenced by saturation deficit. We focused on cover  
142 cropping and perennial cropping as regenerative practices that have a larger effect on SOC throughout  
143 tillage layer than changing tillage regime alone (Nunes et al., 2020) and can increase SOC via modifying  
144 C inputs (King and Blesh, 2018).

145

## 146 **2. Methods**

147

### 148 *2.2 Use of multiple datasets*

149

150 We extracted data from a meta-analysis on the effect of regenerative agricultural management on  
151 SOC, POC and MAOC (Prairie et al., 2023). From this global dataset, we selected paired observations  
152 from sites that compared cover cropped to non-cover cropped studies, and studies that compared rotations  
153 with a perennial forage to rotations without either a perennial forage or a cover crop (n = 26 studies, 109  
154 paired comparisons, SI Table 1). We included only observations from topsoil (< 20 cm depth, SI Table 1),  
155 and if multiple soil increments were reported for this depth, we used a depth-weighted average to arrive at  
156 a single observation for topsoil C concentration in our analyses. Depth-weighted averages ( $C_{av}$ ) were  
157 calculated as follows:

$$158 C_{av} = C_{upper} \left( \frac{\text{length upper}}{\text{length total}} \right) + C_{lower} \left( \frac{\text{length lower}}{\text{length total}} \right) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

159 where  $C_{upper}$  and  $C_{lower}$  are the concentration of soil C in an upper and lower depth increment,  
160 respectively, *length upper* is the length in cm of the upper soil increment, *length total* is the length in cm  
161 of the entire sampling depth above 20 cm, and *length lower* is the length in cm of the lower sampling  
162 depth. *Length upper* and *length lower* were determined by the sampling depths reported in each study. We  
163 also included data from the site of Rui et al. (2022), which matched criteria for inclusion in the Prairie et  
164 al. 2023 meta-analysis, but was published too recently to be included; this site is included in SI Table 1.  
165 Rui et al. (2022) is reported at 0-15 cm and 15-30 cm, but we use only the 0-15 cm depth in this study for  
166 greatest consistency with other soil depth reports.

167 We also used data on soils collected from 15 long-term agricultural sites in the United States  
168 (King et al., 2023). We analyzed these soils at our Soil Innovation Laboratory at Colorado State  
169 University, and the availability of crop yield data from these sites enabled estimation of C inputs. Sites,  
170 sampling strategies, and soil processing for these 15 sites are described in the subsequent methods. For all  
171 three studies (King et al., 2023; Prairie et al., 2023; Rui et al., 2022) we extracted published information  
172 on climate (mean annual temperature, MAT; the difference between mean annual precipitation and  
173 potential evapotranspiration, MAP-PET) and available soil properties (silt + clay; soil pH).

174

### 175 *2.3 Site selection and soil sampling*

176

177 For the U.S. measured data (King et al., 2023), soils were sampled in the fall of 2020 from 15  
178 agricultural sites (SI Table 2). Sites were chosen to include paired comparisons of regenerative

179 management (cover crop, perennial forage, or perennial bioenergy) compared to conventional cropping  
180 systems without perennial or perennial bioenergy; at one site, the conventional cropping system included  
181 a cover crop (SI Table 2). All treatments were replicated 3-5 times and had been in place at least 5 years,  
182 with maximum study duration of 57 years (SI Table 3). With few exceptions, plots received  
183 agronomically realistic rates of synthetic N fertilizer, most were under no-till, and no plots received  
184 exogenous organic amendments.

185 Soils were sampled from 0 - 20 cm with multiple compositing cores as necessary to achieve  
186 approximately 600 g dry mass equivalent per plot. Where crop management was based on annual crop  
187 rotations with corn or wheat, soils were sampled following harvest (October – November), and  
188 conventional and regenerative treatments were sampled concurrently. Location of soil cores was  
189 standardized with respect to in-row vs. between-row cores in conventional and regenerative treatments  
190 when both were in row crop at the time of sampling and was randomized in perennial-cropped plots. After  
191 sampling, soils were transported to Colorado State University campus on ice and transferred to a 4° C  
192 walk-in refrigerator upon arrival. All soils were passed through an 8 mm sieve while fresh, then 2 mm  
193 sieved, each time removing roots and rocks that remained on the soil surface before soils were allowed to  
194 air-dry.

#### 195 2.4 Soil fractionation into POC and MAOC

196 For the U.S. measured data (King et al., 2023), soils were separated by size into sand + POC (>  
197 53 µm) and silt + clay + MAOC (<53 µm) following Cambardella & Elliott (1992). These fractions are  
198 hereafter referred to as simply ‘POC’ and ‘MAOC’, respectively. Briefly, 5.75 – 6.25 g of 2-mm sieved  
199 bulk soil dried at 60° C was shaken for 18 hours with 12 glass beads in 30 mL 0.5% sodium  
200 hexametaphosphate to disrupt all aggregates. The resulting soil slurry was rinsed with DI water over a 53-  
201 µm sieve to isolate POC and remove the glass beads. Soil solution passing through the sieve was deemed  
202 MAOC. Both the POC and MAOC fractions were dried at 60° C until reaching constant mass. Recoveries  
203 of the initial soil masses in the summed fractions were between 95 and 103% for all samples, with a mean  
204 recovery of 100.5%. Soils containing carbonates (identified by effervescence after addition of 5% HCl, 18  
205 samples) were treated to remove inorganic carbon via HCl fumigation (Harris et al., 2001). Bulk soil,  
206 MAOC, and POC were ground using a mortar and pestle before analysis on a Costech elemental analyzer  
207 to quantify organic C (Costech ECS4010, Analytical Technologies, Inc., Milano, Italy). The average  
208 recovery of SOC in POC and MAOC fractions was 92%.

209 Across all sites, bulk density values were not available with sufficient consistency to justify  
210 calculating C stocks. Therefore, changes in SOC, POC, and MAOC under regenerative management vs.  
211 conventional management are reported as changes in concentration (g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>):

$$212 \Delta C = C_{\text{regenerative}} - C_{\text{conventional}} \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

#### 213 2.5 Crop C inputs to soil

214 For all the sites in King et al. (2023), the best available crop yield data from each site were used  
215 to estimate C inputs from crops to soil (SI Table 4). Allometric equations (Bolinder et al., 2007) were  
216 used to estimate shoot and root + exudate inputs for each crop; belowground inputs were only considered  
217 to the soil sampling depth (0-20 cm) and were truncated using crop-specific root distributions (Fan et al.,

223 2016). For perennial crops grown multiple years, annual root inputs were estimated as 62% of root inputs  
224 from the initial year, following an assumption of partial root turnover (King and Blesh, 2018). Shoot  
225 inputs were reduced by the proportions of shoots that were removed for stover production, if any, and  
226 rotation-average crop inputs were calculated ( $\text{Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ).

227 We conducted an additional search of sites reported in the meta-analysis of Prairie et al. (2023)  
228 for additional data to relate C inputs to changes in soil C pools. From this search, we identified  
229 Poffenbarger et al., (2020), with who also reported C inputs separately by shoot and root for two sites,  
230 which we also included, noting possible differences in method of C input calculations. For the dataset of  
231 Rui et al. (2022), we leveraged C input calculations from Sanford et al., (2012) at the same site. Root C  
232 inputs were estimated to the depth of soil sampling using coefficients representative of the cropping  
233 system (Fan et al., 2016).

### 234 235 2.6 Estimation of MAOC saturation and MAOC saturation deficit

236  
237 We used the dataset of Georgiou et al. (2022) to estimate the theoretical C saturation of the  
238 MAOC fraction in our soils. Given our interest in comparing observed MAOC levels to a *theoretical*  
239 *maximum*, we relied on the dataset of Georgiou et al. (2022) for its strong representation of native  
240 vegetation, which typically has higher MAOC levels than agricultural soils. As soils in the global database  
241 (Prairie et al., 2023) did not consistently report soil order, which has previously been used to coarsely  
242 categorize soils by ‘high activity’ or ‘low activity’ minerals (Georgiou et al., 2022), we adopted a global  
243 slope of  $\text{MAOC} \sim \text{silt} + \text{clay}$  across all observations. To derive the boundary line analysis from the data of  
244 Georgiou et al. (2022), we used the observations for  $\text{g MAOC kg soil}^{-1}$  as a function of silt + clay, and  
245 first identifying observations in the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile or higher MAOC concentration in each of 10 segments  
246 of silt + clay content (i.e., the first segment of observations with < 10 % silt + clay, the next segment of  
247 observations with greater than or equal to 10% silt + clay and < 20%, etc.). Using simple linear regression  
248 of these boundary points with intercept forced through zero, on the assumption that soils without silt +  
249 clay have no MAOC, we estimated the boundary line slope of  $\text{MAOC} \sim \text{silt} + \text{clay}$  to be 0.7323. To  
250 calculate theoretical MAOC saturation in  $\text{g MAOC kg soil}^{-1}$  for all observations across the datasets used  
251 in this study, we multiplied silt + clay by 0.7323 (our boundary line slope). We then took two approaches  
252 to estimate C saturation deficit of measured soils: 1) *absolute C saturation deficit* was calculated by  
253 subtracting observed  $\text{g MAOC kg soil}^{-1}$  from theoretical  $\text{g MAOC kg soil}^{-1}$  at saturation; and 2) *percent C*  
254 *saturation* was calculated by dividing observed  $\text{g MAOC kg soil}^{-1}$  by theoretical  $\text{g MAOC kg soil}^{-1}$  and  
255 multiplying by 100.

### 256 257 258 2.7 Statistical methods

259  
260 To test for the effect of regenerative vs. conventional management on SOC, POC, and MAOC  
261 within the U.S. measured dataset (King et al., 2023), we used t-tests comparing replicated plots ( $n=3-5$ , SI  
262 Table 2) of treatments within sites. Additional tests of linear relationships between change in POC,  
263 MAOC, and SOC and change in POC and MAOC with change in C inputs were leveraged. Regressions  
264 were checked for assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity of residuals using Breusch-Pagan and  
265 Shapiro-Wilk tests, respectively. Relationships between SOC, POC and MAOC change (Figure 2) met  
266 assumptions of homoscedasticity of residuals but did not meet assumptions of normality of residuals.

267 For relationships between change in POC or MAOC with change in root C inputs (Figure 5), all tests met  
268 these assumptions, except for change in POC ~ change in cumulative root C inputs, which returned  $p =$   
269 0.016 in the Shapiro-Wilk. For the relationships described above that did not meet assumptions of  
270 normality and homoscedasticity, data transformations (logarithmic and square root) did not improve  
271 Breusch-Pagan and Shapiro-Wilk test results, therefore we used raw data in subsequent regressions.

272 To compare fixed effects of increases in cumulative root C input and MAOC silt + clay saturation  
273 deficit for their influence over change in MAOC with regenerative vs. conventional management, we used  
274 multiple regression ( $n = 18$  sites). The limited number of observations reporting POC, MAOC, and root C  
275 inputs prevented a more elaborate model with an interaction term between root C input and silt + clay  
276 saturation deficit. All analyses were carried out in R version 4.2.3.

### 277 3. Results

278 Our combined data sets encompassed a range of agricultural SOC concentrations spanning an  
279 order of magnitude (from 5.1 to 64.1 g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>, Fig. 1). Soils were dominated by MAOC, with 90% of  
280 observations containing 74% or greater MAOC as a constituent of SOC. The average MAOC level was 8  
281 times that of POC (interquartile range: 4 – 11 times).

#### 282 3.1 Changes in POC, MAOC and SOC with regenerative vs. conventional management

283 Regenerative management resulted in smaller absolute increases in POC ( $0.78 \pm 0.26$  g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>) compared to MAOC ( $1.41 \pm 0.80$  g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>). The mean and range of POC management response  
284 was even lower if five high values, all on either an Andisol with a highly active soil matrix (Zagal et al.,  
285 2013) or measured only to 2.5 cm (Dieckow et al., 2006), were excluded ( $0.49 \pm 0.14$  g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>).  
286 Measurements of very shallow soil (to 2.5 cm) may not reflect processes occurring throughout the topsoil.  
287 The range of MAOC response to management was much wider than that of POC, with some sites  
288 showing a slight MAOC decrease (-2.38 g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>) but, overall, the magnitude of MAOC increase  
289 exceeded that of POC in 58% of the cases.

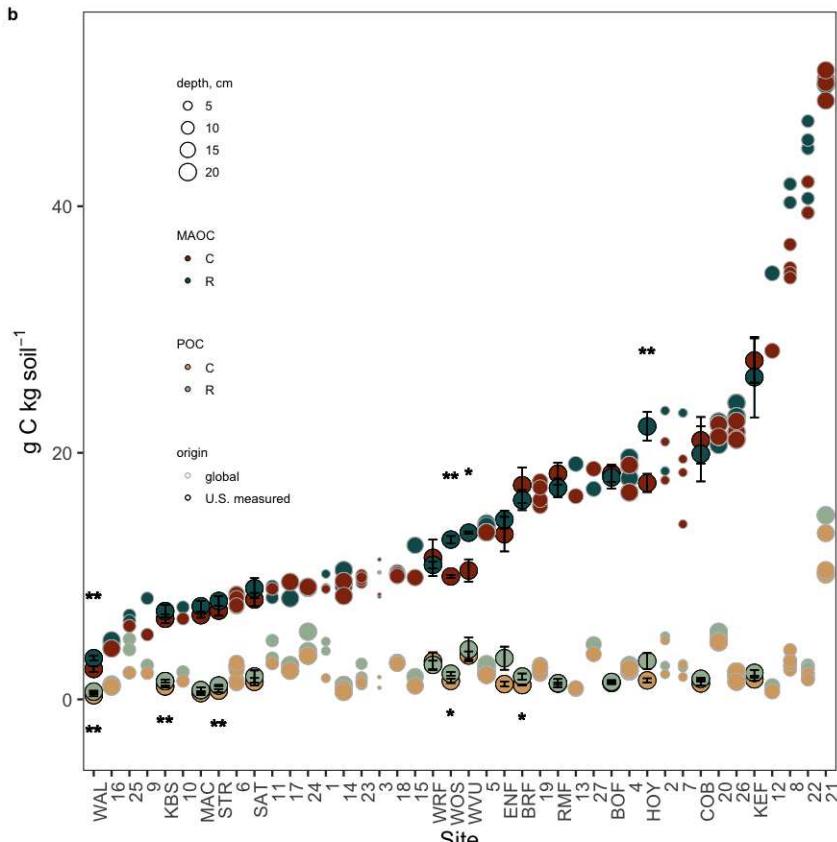
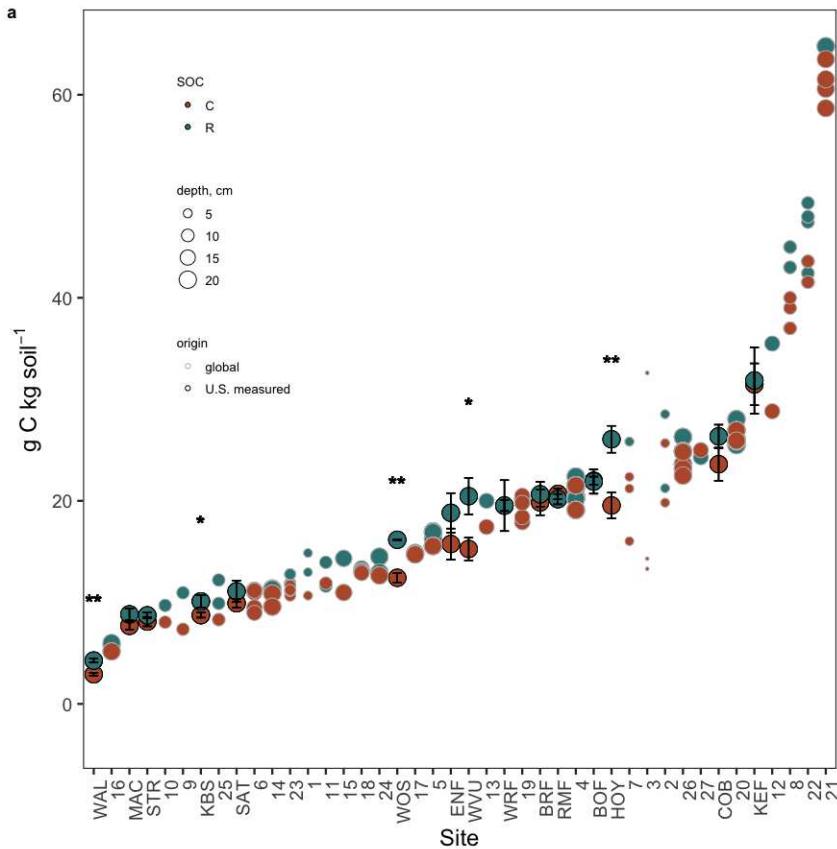
290 The relationship between POC and SOC response was evaluated after the removal of 2 outliers of  
291 POC response greater than 8 g C kg soil<sup>-1</sup> change, as these points had an outsize influence on test results  
292 and were sampled to only 2.5 cm. Using the cleaned dataset, the relationship between POC and SOC was  
293 weak (Fig 2a,  $R^2 = 0.11$ ), but, due to high number of observations available for the test, returned a low p-  
294 value ( $p < 0.001$ ). Increases in POC were not related to increases in MAOC ( $p = 0.72$ , Fig. 2b).

#### 295 3.2 Moderators of regenerative management effect on POC, MAOC, and SOC

296 All soils had theoretical MAOC saturation deficit (Fig. 3), determined by difference from a  
297 theoretical maximum (saturation) based on silt + clay content (Georgiou et al., 2022, SI Figures 3). In our  
298 dataset, 69% and 88% of management comparisons were implemented on soils with at least 20 and 10 g  
299 C kg soil<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, of MAOC saturation deficit. These capacities were 2-4 times larger than the  
300 measured MAOC gains due to regenerative management (Fig. 2). The MAOC saturation deficit explained  
301 little of the variability in MAOC accumulation rates (Fig. 3,  $R^2 < 0.09$ ; SI Fig. 2). Climate, soil pH, and  
302 silt + clay also had minimal detectable effects in moderating SOC, POC and MAOC responses to  
303 regenerative management (SI Figures 6-8).

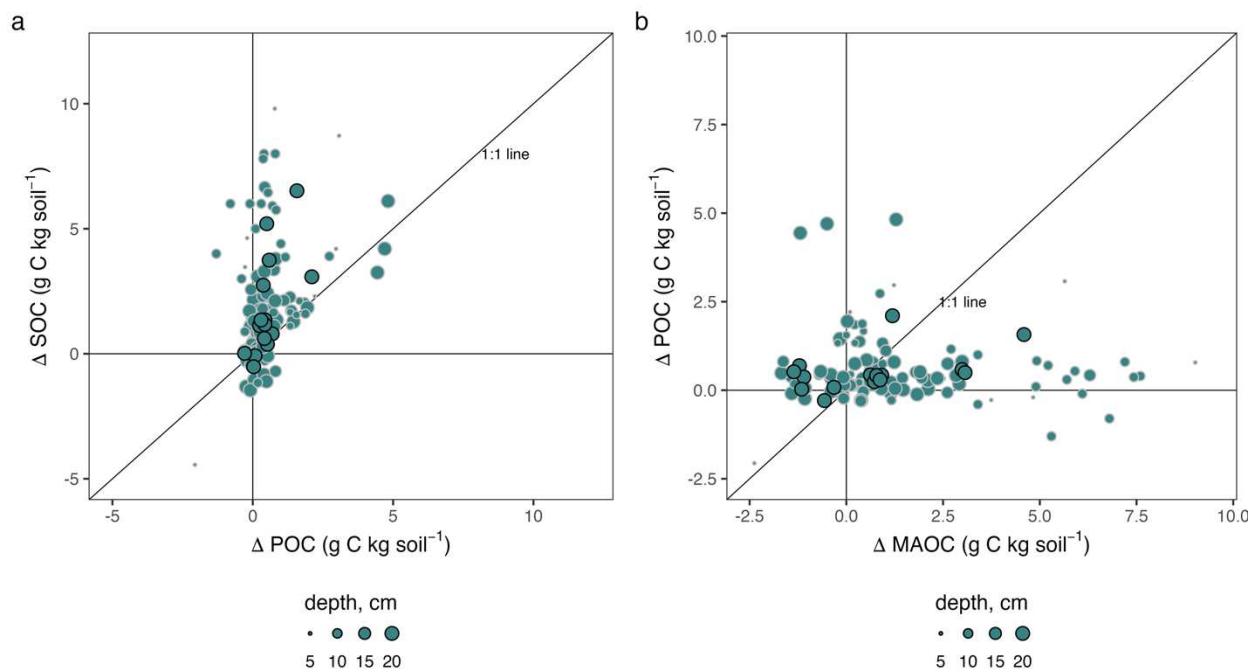
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We investigated changes in C inputs with regenerative vs. conventional management, which were only available in the U.S. measured data and completed with data from Poffenbarger et al. (2020), Rui et al. (2022), and Sanford et al. (2012). At most sites, regenerative management increased root inputs and decreased shoot inputs compared to conventional management (Fig. 4), with larger increases in root inputs associated with larger decreases in shoot inputs ( $R^2= 0.4$ ,  $p = 0.004$ ). Most soils also received greater shoot C inputs than root C inputs (SI Fig. 4), and increases in root C inputs appeared to be constrained by MAP-PET (SI Fig. 5c). We explored relationships between change in C inputs and change in POC and MAOC for both cumulative-for-the-trial change in C inputs (i.e., long-term) and annual average change in C inputs (i.e., short-term, Fig. 5). Long-term change in C inputs was most closely related to observed MAOC, while short-term change in C inputs was more closely related to change in POC (Fig. 5). When long-term change in root C inputs was compared to the theoretical MAOC saturation deficit as a predictor of MAOC change with regenerative management, cumulative root C inputs emerged as a stronger driver of MAOC change (Table 1).



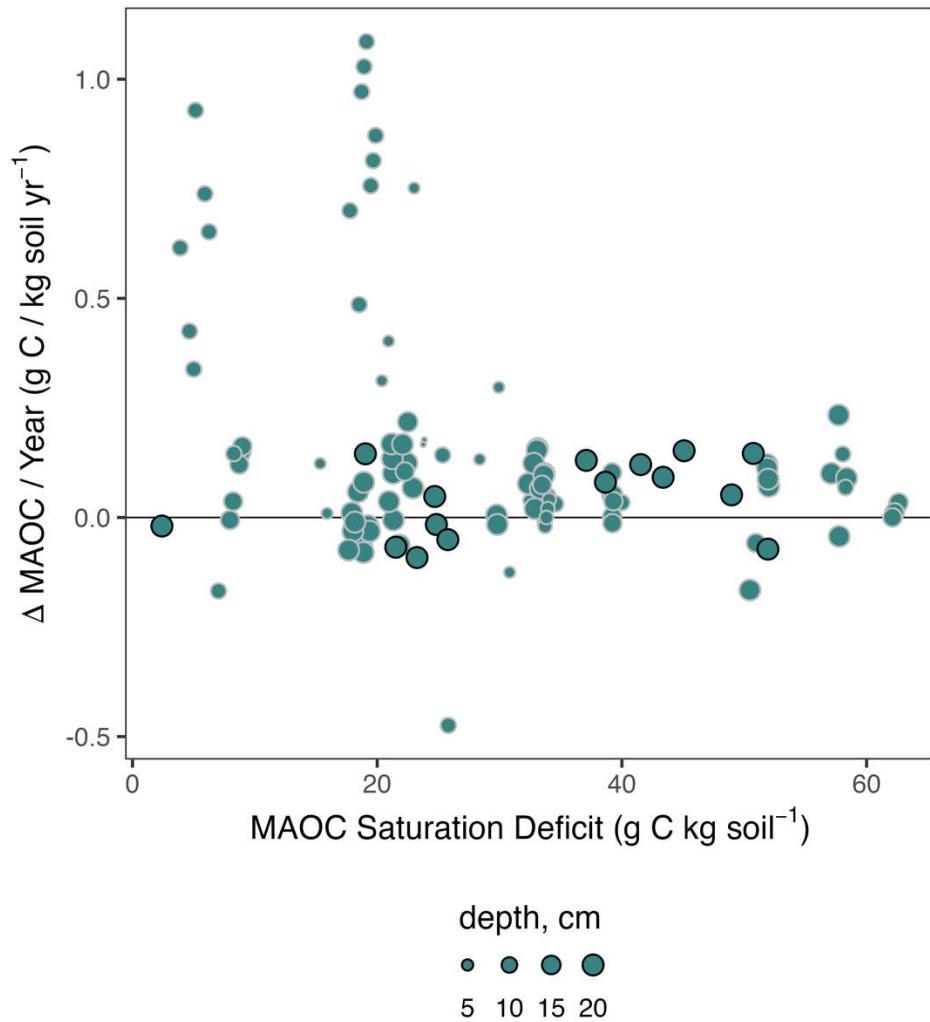
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**Figure 1.** Concentrations of a) soil organic carbon (SOC) and b) particulate organic carbon (POC) and mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC). Both panels show C across sites, as influenced by conventional (C) or regenerative (R) management from two datasets. Site information corresponding to site identifiers for the global dataset (Prairie et al., 2023), supplemented with Rui et al. (2022), is shown in SI Table 1. Site identifiers for the U.S. measured dataset is shown in SI Fig. 1 and SI Table 2. Sites are ordered by increasing values of SOC concentration (a) or MAOC concentration (b). For U.S. measured sites, points represent means of each C fraction by treatment; error bars represent standard error of the mean. For each treatment,  $n = 3-5$  plots. Asterisks represent pair-wise comparisons between sites (unadjusted): \* =  $p < 0.1$  and \*\* =  $p < 0.05$ . Pair-wise statistical comparisons of observations from global dataset and Rui et al. (2022) were not conducted due to only treatment-average observations being consistently available.



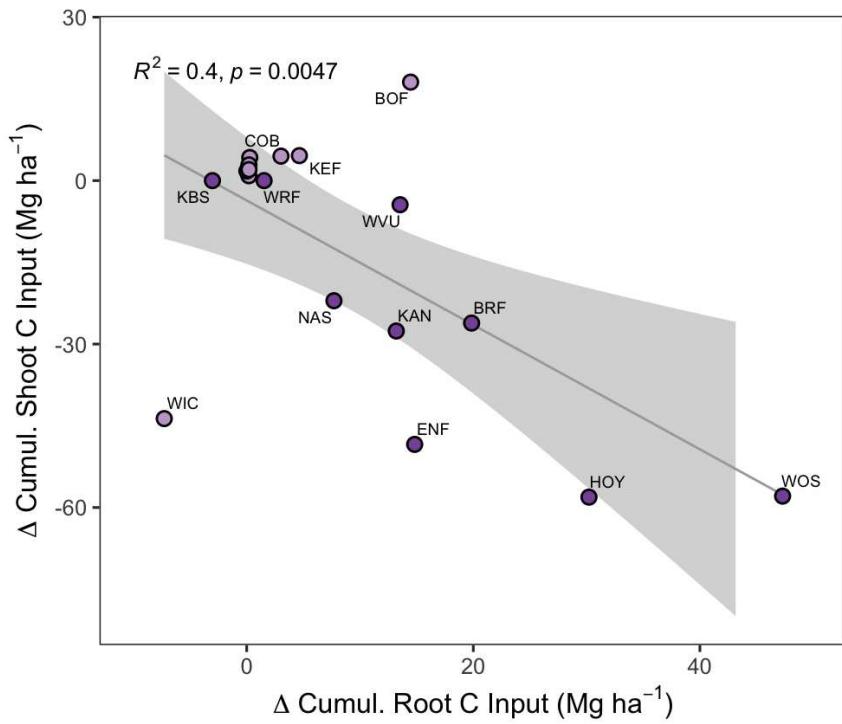
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**Figure 2.** Change ( $\Delta$ ; g C kg soil $^{-1}$ ) in soil organic carbon (SOC), particulate organic carbon (POC) and mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC) due to regenerative compared to conventional management. For panel (a), linear regression (not plotted) returned  $p < 0.001$  and  $R^2 = 0.12$ . For panel (b), a linear regression (not plotted) returned  $p = 0.61$  and  $R^2 < 0.01$ . Size of symbol corresponds to sampled depth. Global dataset (gray symbol outlines, Prairie et al., 2023) includes 109 comparisons across 25 sites, supplemented with Rui et al. (2022). One study (Dieckow et al., 2006), sampled 0 – 2.5 cm, was removed from Prairie et al. 2023 due to extreme  $\Delta$  POC. While U.S. measured dataset (black symbol outlines, King et al., 2023) includes 15 comparisons across 15 sites.



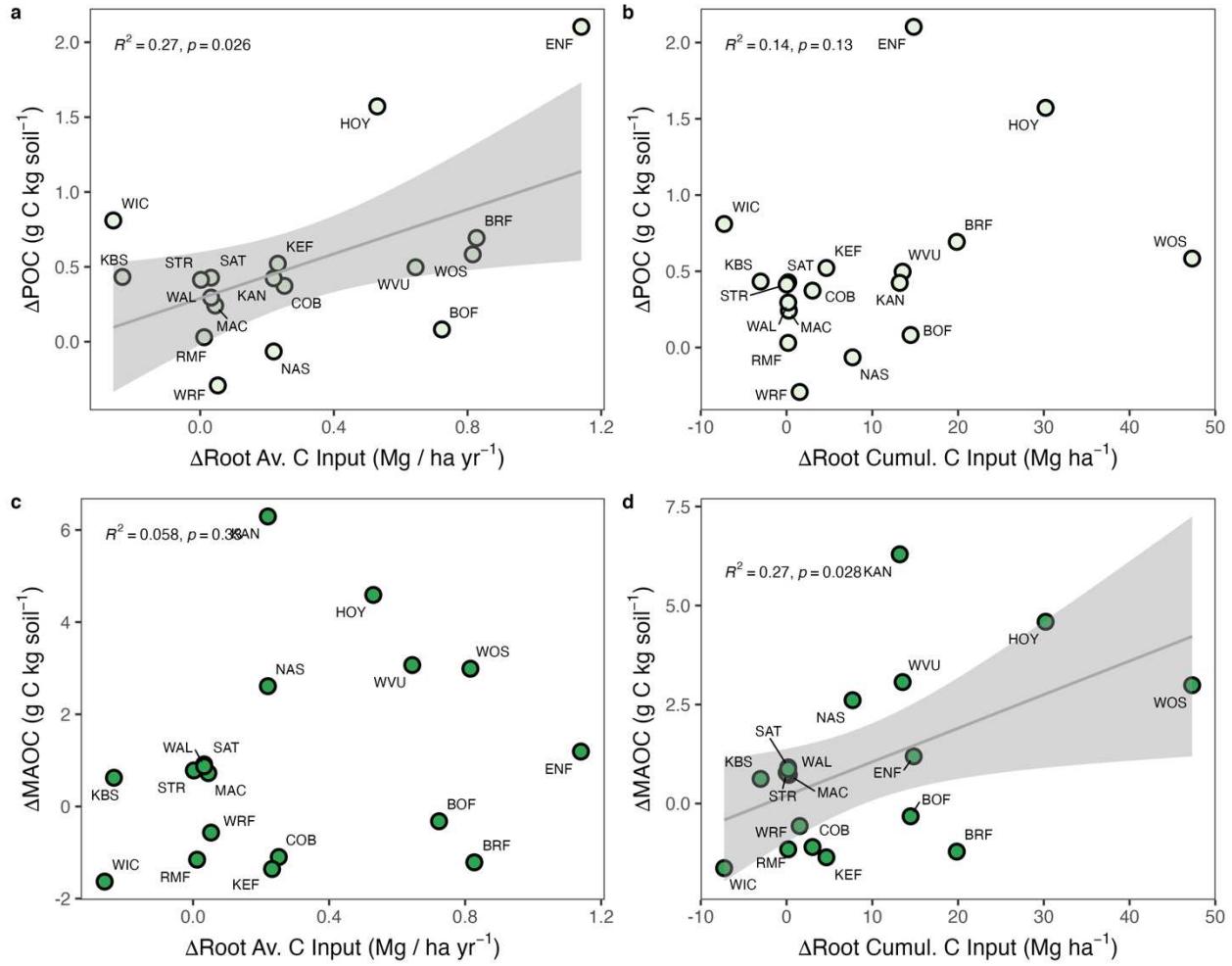
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**Figure 3.** Yearly rates of MAOC change ( $\Delta$ ) in regenerative vs. conventional management, plotted against the corresponding estimated mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC) saturation deficit. The MAOC saturation deficit is determined by silt + clay saturation deficit (Georgiou et al., 2022). Linear regression (not plotted) returned  $R^2 < 0.09$ . Size of symbol corresponds to sampled depth. Global dataset (gray symbol outlines, Prairie et al., 2023) includes 111 comparisons across 26 sites, supplemented with Rui et al. (2022), while U.S. measured dataset (black symbol outlines, King et al., 2023) includes 15 comparisons across 15 sites.



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**Figure 4.** Change ( $\Delta$ ) in cumulative difference in root carbon (C) inputs with change in cumulative shoot C inputs in regenerative vs. conventional treatments across U.S. measured sites (King et al., 2023), supplemented with Poffenbarger et al., (2020) and Sanford et al., (2012), ( $n = 18$  sites, 0-20 or 0-15 cm depth). Regenerative treatments are cover cropped (lighter purple symbols) and perennial cropped (darker purple symbols) compared to conventional cropping. Gray line represents simple linear regressions with a 95% confidence interval. Site information presented in SI Tables 1-2.



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375 **Figure 5.** Effect of change ( $\Delta$ ) in root C inputs on  $\Delta$  particulate organic carbon (POC; a,b) and  $\Delta$  mineral  
376 associated organic carbon (MAOC; c,d) under regenerative vs. conventional management, for 0-20 or 0-  
377 15 cm (only WIC) soil depth. Panels a and c:  $\Delta$  root C inputs expressed as cumulative for the trial (Mg /  
378 ha). Panels b and d:  $\Delta$  root C inputs as annual averages (Mg / ha  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ). Gray lines represent simple linear  
379 regressions with 95% confidence interval; lines not plotted if p-value for the regression was greater than  
380 0.05. Details for sites for NAS, KAN and WIC provided in SI Table 1; details for site all other site IDs (King  
381 et al., 2023) correspond to those in SI Table 2.

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Dependent variable: $\Delta$ MAOC (g C kg soil $^{-1}$ )	
$\Delta$ Root Cumul. C Input	1.067* (0.51)
MAOC Sat. Def.	0.226 (0.51)
Constant	0.962* (0.471)
Observations	18
R <sup>2</sup>	0.275
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.179
Residual Std. Error	1.998 (df = 15)
F Statistic	(df = 2; 15)

Note: \*p<0.1

393

394 **Table 1.** Multiple regression model of change ( $\Delta$ ) in mineral-associated organic carbon (MAOC) with  
395 regenerative vs. conventional management as mediated by  $\Delta$  root C inputs or site-average MAOC  
396 saturation deficit. Both predictor variables scaled before regression.

397

398 **4. Discussion**

399

400 *4.1 POC at any given time does not clearly relate to SOC change at that same time*

401

402 Although POC has often been positioned as a leading indicator of change in SOC (Culman et al.,  
403 2012; Eze et al., 2023), the data in this study showed that absolute increases in POC are not proportional  
404 to absolute increases in SOC (Fig. 2a). Instead, increases in POC were constrained around a narrower  
405 range while SOC change varied more widely due to variability in MAOC change (Fig. 2b). These results  
406 demonstrate that absolute change in POC at any given time cannot be translated to a change in SOC at the  
407 same time, thereby limiting the utility of POC as an indicator of SOC change. An alternate interpretation  
408 of POC as indicator of SOC change, however, would be that measuring POC within a short time frame  
409 after regenerative management is implemented could predict SOC change over the longer term. This  
410 ‘early indicator’ interpretation of POC change could not be conclusively evaluated by the data available  
411 for this synthesis, which lacked the necessary temporal resolution across multiple studies. Nevertheless,  
412 the possibility that early changes in POC may predict eventual changes in SOC with consistent  
413 management cannot be ruled out by these data. As we discuss below, changes in POC were proportional  
414 to short-term increases in C inputs, and changes in MAOC were proportional to long-term changes in C  
415 input. It would therefore be consistent with these findings that a management system with a larger  
416 increase in C inputs could affect a larger initial increase in POC, which if implemented consistently could

417 align over time with larger increases in MAOC than under regenerative management with smaller  
418 increases in C inputs. We emphasize that this hypothesis requires further testing to evaluate.  
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#### 420 *4.2 Average annual C inputs drive POC accumulation in response to regenerative management*

421  
422 Increases in POC with regenerative management were explained by average annual increases in  
423 root C inputs to soil (Fig. 5). This finding aligns with known importance of root C inputs for POC formation  
424 (Austin et al., 2017; Poirier et al., 2018; Puget and Drinkwater, 2001) and adds important nuance to the  
425 emerging understanding that POC is mediated more by drivers of decomposition than by C inputs across  
426 climatic gradients, as shown by limited relationships between C inputs and POC pools (Hansen et al., *in*  
427 *review*; King et al., 2023). When comparing within research sites, as in this study, however, climatic  
428 controls on decomposition are more similar than across global or regional comparisons (Famiglietti et al.,  
429 2008). When these climatic controls on decomposition are held constant, the significance of C inputs for  
430 POC accumulation emerges (Fig. 5,  $p < 0.05$ ). Thus, while a positive relationship between C inputs and  
431 change in POC was observed for roots, we also observed a negative relationship between change in POC  
432 and change in shoot C inputs, likely due to a negative correlation between root and shoot C inputs (Fig. 4).  
433 This correlation was due to aboveground biomass removal in perennial forage and bioenergy systems that  
434 also increased root inputs (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2013; Bolinder et al., 2007; Masters et al., 2016).  
435 Despite a clear signal of root C inputs increasing POC pools within sites, this change was constrained in  
436 magnitude (Fig. 2).  
437

438 The causes of a limited, if distinct, accumulation of POC under regenerative agricultural  
439 management remain open to speculation. Natural grasslands may be considered a point of comparison, as  
440 they generally maintain larger POC levels (Cambardella and Elliott, 1992). Regenerative practices  
441 generally effect a modest increase in root C inputs compared to natural grasslands: in this study, average  
442 increase in root C was  $0.34 \text{ Mg C ha yr}^{-1}$ . In comparison, a grassland may increase root C by more than  $1 \text{ Mg C ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
443 compared to conventional annual grain systems (Dietzel et al., 2015; DuPont et al., 2014). Some perennialized systems in this study approached this magnitude of increase (Masters et al., 2016) but  
444 nevertheless showed little increase in POC. This limited POC increase despite some increase in root C  
445 inputs, combined with the response of POC to short-term rather than cumulative-for-the-trial increases in  
446 root C, together indicate a high rate of POC decomposition preventing its accumulation. Constraints on  
447 the accumulation of POC are further suggested by the non-response of POC fraction to extended duration  
448 of regenerative management (Hu et al., 2023). The rapid decomposition of POC in agricultural systems  
449 may arise from lower soil moisture than in native vegetation promoting decomposition, e.g., in tile  
450 drained systems (Schultz et al., 2007), or from a lack of aggregate protection (King et al., 2019); even in  
451 the largely no-till systems from King et al. (2023), aggregation would be expected to be lower than in  
452 native vegetation due to correspondingly lower SOC (King et al., 2019). Although agricultural systems  
453 receive greater inorganic N inputs than native vegetation, N fertilizer is generally reported to suppress  
454 mineralization of SOC (Mahal et al., 2019; Zang et al., 2016), although this effect may be moderated by  
455 other factors (Averill and Waring, 2018). The precise mechanisms causing low POC in agricultural soils  
456 require further testing.  
457

#### 458 459 *4.3 Carbon inputs, not saturation deficit, limit MAOC accumulation in response to regenerative* 460 *management*

461        The concept of MAOC saturation has been used to explain a limited effect of management on  
462 MAOC pools at some sites (Antonio et al., 2022; Chung et al., 2008). Here, however, we observed that  
463 increases in MAOC with regenerative compared to conventional management were not clearly  
464 constrained by MAOC saturation deficit (Fig. 3, SI Fig. 2). This absence of influence of MAOC  
465 saturation deficit on MAOC accumulation may be due to all soils, regardless of management, having  
466 MAOC saturation deficits, determined by difference from a theoretical maximum (saturation) based on  
467 silt + clay content (Georgiou et al., 2022). Soils with a saturation deficit have previously been posited as  
468 being less influenced by saturation dynamics than soils at saturation (Stewart et al., 2007). Our results  
469 indicate that the response of MAOC to cover cropping and perennial cropping is constrained instead by  
470 crop C inputs, specifically by root C inputs. The importance of C inputs for SOC has been shown before,  
471 both between sites (King et al., 2023; Luo et al., 2017) and within sites (King and Blesh, 2018; Kong et  
472 al., 2005; Novelli et al., 2017; Virtó et al., 2012). Here, we offer the first distinction of C inputs into root  
473 and shoot and simultaneous fractionation of SOC into POC and MAOC across a regional collection of  
474 sites. Using these data, we show that quantifying C inputs as cumulative increase in root C for the trial  
475 due to management allows the effect of C inputs on MAOC to be discerned (Fig. 5, Table 1).

476  
477        Previous reports of the non-response of MAOC to regenerative management may be explained by  
478 lack of root C inputs. For instance, Rui et al. (2022) emphasize that regenerative management practices  
479 did not increase soil C stocks. Based on total C input estimations from the same site (Sanford et al.,  
480 2012), we find that the regenerative grain + cover crop treatment decreased C inputs compared to a  
481 conventional continuous corn (Fig. 4), a probable cause for the lack of MAOC response at this site. The  
482 variability observed in our study for the relationship between cumulative-for-the-trial increases in root C  
483 inputs and increases in MAOC could be attributable to several factors, including differences in C input  
484 quality or microbial communities, which were not assessed in this study, or to differences in soil matrix  
485 protective capacity that were not described by a traditional silt + clay-based MAOC saturation deficit.

486  
487        Increasing evidence demonstrates that features of the soil matrix including calcium, magnesium,  
488 aluminum, and iron more closely reflect MAOC storage capacity than soil texture alone (King et al.,  
489 2023; Rasmussen et al., 2018; Rowley et al., 2021). Future work may examine how these features of the  
490 soil matrix can be synthesized to describe a maximum MAOC storage capacity. At the U.S. sites in this  
491 study, we demonstrated the potential of a matrix capacity index (MCI) that synthesized oxalate-  
492 extractable iron, aluminum, and exchangeable calcium and magnesium to predict MAOC. However, we  
493 chose not to use this MCI to calculate an MCI-based saturation deficit, given limitations in available data.  
494 Normally when calculating a saturation deficit, as with silt + clay, sites with natural vegetation are used to  
495 demonstrate optimum MAOC levels at a given level of silt + clay (Feng et al., 2013; Georgiou et al.,  
496 2022). As sites in our King et al., (2023) study included agricultural systems and not native vegetation,  
497 we did not calculate an MCI-based saturation deficit. Additional study is necessary to explore the concept  
498 of an MCI-based saturation deficit and the extent to which it can illuminate MAOC response to  
499 regenerative management.

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502        *4.4 Strategies for managing and studying MAOC and POC*  
503

504 The analyses presented here highlight the need for approaches we think will accelerate our ability to  
505 understand and manage SOC:

- 507 • *Focusing on C inputs for MAOC accumulation.* When identifying fields as targets for  
508 regenerative management, the data presented here do not justify seeking out soils having MAOC  
509 levels further below a silt + clay-defined saturation, as the MAOC response was not clearly  
510 constrained by a silt + clay-defined saturation deficit. In fact, in the arable soils studied here, even  
511 soils under long-term regenerative management were often far from the silt + clay-defined  
512 MAOC saturation. Given this ‘saturation deficit’ in MAOC even under regenerative management,  
513 the data shown here do not clearly support the use of silt + clay defined saturation maxima to  
514 delineate a level of MAOC that can be achieved in primarily arable systems. Instead, the data  
515 indicate an imperative to increase cumulative C inputs over time for MAOC accumulation.  
516 Although studying saturation deficit alone may provide insights, investigating the upper limit of  
517 increases in C inputs, especially root C inputs, in agricultural systems may more accurately  
518 constrain MAOC accumulation potentials.
- 519
- 520 • *Blue-sky thinking about POC accumulation strategies.* There may be specific features of  
521 regenerative management and environment that could enhance POC accumulation: larger,  
522 consistent increases in root C inputs or ligneous C inputs, combined with periodic restrictions on  
523 decomposition through flooding (as in some native grasslands (Schultz et al., 2007)); amending  
524 soils to recreate the highly active soil matrix in volcanic soils (Zagal et al., 2013), or the  
525 cultivation of fungal-dominated microbial communities (Malik et al., 2016). Investigating these  
526 strategies further may aid in developing agricultural systems able to accrue both MAOC and  
527 POC.
- 528
- 529 • *Towards a comprehensive understanding of POC and MAOC dynamics.* Our work indicates  
530 several avenues of needed study to accelerate our understanding of POC and MAOC responses to  
531 regenerative management. Linking updated concepts of soil matrix C storage capacity with C  
532 input quantification will likely be needed to further resolve the accumulation of MAOC in  
533 agricultural systems. Understanding mechanisms of root C retention in MAOC and the influence  
534 of C input chemistry (Zhang et al., 2022) on POC and MAOC retention will also be valuable.  
535 Studying additional regenerative practices, such as conversion from conventional tillage to no-  
536 tillage, use of manure or compost inputs, livestock integration, or intercropping will provide a  
537 more complete view of moderators of regenerative management. Time-resolved, and subsoil  
538 measurements of SOC will also accelerate our understanding of the dynamics of SOC response to  
539 regenerative management.

## 540

## 541

## 542 5. Conclusions

## 543

544 The absolute response size of the POC pool to management was usually less than that of MAOC  
545 and did not clearly correspond to changes in the SOC pool. The response of MAOC to management was  
546 highly variable across sites and the silt + clay-defined MAOC saturation deficit did not clearly constrain  
547 MAOC response to management. Instead, MAOC response to management was mediated by cumulative-

548 for-the-trial increases in root C inputs. In contrast, POC response to management was mediated by  
549 average annual increases in root C inputs, reinforcing our understanding of this fraction as a fast-turnover  
550 SOC pool but also highlighting limited potential for accumulation of POC under current portfolio of  
551 regenerative management practices.

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553

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