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Dynamic interactions at the mineral-organic matter interface

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43 Abstract

Minerals are widely assumed to protect organic matter (OM) from degradation in the environment, promoting the persistence of carbon in soil and sediments. In this Review, we describe the mechanisms and processes operating at the mineral-organic interface as they relate to OM transformation dynamics. A broad set of interactions occur, with minerals adsorbing organic compounds to their surfaces and/or acting as catalysts for organic reactions. Minerals can serve as redox partners for OM through direct electron transfer or by generating reactive oxygen species, which then oxidize OM. Finally, the compartmentalization of soil and sediment by

⁵¹ minerals creates unique microsites that host diverse microbial communities. Acknowledgement

⁵² of this multiplicity of interactions suggests the general assumption that the mineral matrix

⁵³ provides a protective function for organic matter is overly simplistic. Future work must

⁵⁴ recognize adsorption as a condition for further reactions instead of as a final destination for

organic adsorbates, and should consider the spatial and functional complexity that is

⁵⁶ characteristic of the environments where mineral-OM interactions are observed.

57

- 58 [H1] Introduction
- 5**9**

The vast majority of organic carbon in the biosphere (5410 - 6545 PgC; including vegetation, 60 permafrost, soils, coastal systems, and marine sediments¹) occurs at solid earth interfaces in close 61 spatial proximity to some form of mineral matter. For this reason, carbon flowing through the 62 biosphere will at some point almost inevitably come into contact with mineral surfaces as it 63 undergoes the many transformations inherent in the carbon cycle. Consequently, the interactions 64 between organic and mineral phases have long been the subject of scientific inquiry. For 65 example, most soil organic carbon is associated with colloidal [G] -sized minerals^{2,3}, prompting 66 early suggestions that this association is critical for soil fertility and, by extension, is "vital to 67 life"⁴. When toxic organic chemicals were found to be accumulating in the biosphere⁵, mineral 68 phases were investigated for their ability to break down organic contaminants in the environment 69 ⁶⁻⁸. More recently, interest has turned towards using soils and sediments as repositories for excess 70 atmospheric carbon ^{9,10}, resulting in intensive research into the mechanisms determining the 71 formation, strength, and durability of mineral-OM associations¹⁰⁻¹³. These latter research efforts 72 have confirmed that minerals can protect OM from degradation. However, observed correlations 73 between individual predictor values such as clay content ¹⁴ or abundance of poorly crystalline 74 [G] minerals ¹⁵ tend to be specific to certain situations and soil types. To date, no carbon cycle 75 model has succeeded in predicting carbon turnover dynamics based on a generalised, broadly 76 applicable set of mineral phase parameters. 77

Several principles are critical to understanding mineral-OM interactions. First, soils and 78 sediments originate from a combination of destructive and constructive processes. Weathering 79 processes and organic matter decomposition disassemble rocks and organic debris into basic 80 molecular units, which combine to create micron-sized agglomerations ¹⁶. Biotic and abiotic 81 processes organise the resulting microfabric into a porous, internally-structured medium¹⁷. 82 Second, minerals generally dominate over OM in soils and sediments in terms of mass 83 proportions, with organic materials (including living organisms) rarely contributing more than 84 single-digit percentages to total mass ¹⁸⁻²⁰ (although exceptions are found in organic soils and 85 organic surface horizons). Owing to the quantitative dominance of the mineral phase, particle 86 size distribution serves as a major constraint on the physical shape of the pore system as it 87 evolves over time ²¹. Third, liquid water is the most abundant phase in pore systems²², enabling 88 geochemical and biological processes^{23,24}. Therefore, it is useful to consider even unsaturated 89 soils [G] and sediments as fundamentally aqueous systems. Finally, the mineral phase, the 90 organic phase, and the pore system are habitats for biota, which constantly modify both physical 91 shape of pores and biogeochemical activities within the system ²⁵ 92

In this Review, we undertake a broad appraisal of the complexity of the mineral organic interface and derive a perspective for future research efforts. The diverse roles of minerals in the environment are described (**Fig. 1a**), including OM adsorption [**G**], catalysis, chemical reactions participation, and reactive oxygen species [**G**] (ROS) generation. The role of the mineral matrix in creating distinct reaction spaces, and its importance of this compartmentalization [**G**] in the fate of OM, are examined. Finally, we urge the field to move towards considering mineral-OM
 interactions as multidimensional and multifaceted, and to reconsider the current notion of
 mineral protection of OM.

101 102

[H1] Fundamental properties

Mineral-organic interactions depend on several characteristic properties of the individual
 mineral and organic phases, which are briefly described below.

106

107 [H2] Organic phase

Organic molecules can be produced by abiotic processes ^{26,27} and by chemotrophic microorganisms ²⁸, but phototrophic **[G]** algae in the oceans and vascular plants on land are responsible for the bulk of modern biomass production, in roughly equal proportions ²⁹. Primary production in the oceans creates mostly lipids, proteinaceous materials, and carbohydrates other than cellulose ³⁰, whereas lignin and cellulose together account for around half of primary production on land ¹⁸.

Heterotrophic [G] organisms use the resulting biomass as a combined source of carbon, 114 energy, and nutrients. Because cell wall passage is restricted to molecules with relatively small 115 molecular masses (< 600-1000 Da)³⁰, the size of biomacromolecules must be reduced before 116 assimilation into the cell is possible. Depolymerization [G] and oxidation reactions inherent to 117 extracellular molecular disassembly add ionizable oxygen-containing functional groups to 118 decomposition products³. The resulting increasing abundances of polar functional groups (Fig. 119 2) enhance the aqueous solubility of the products, as well as their chemical reactivity towards 120 metal cations and mineral surfaces, particularly when these functional groups are ionized. 121 Moreover, the smaller molecular size facilitates diffusion ³¹ of solubilized, reactive organic 122 fragments towards mineral microstructures where they can become entrapped and adsorbed. 123 Once an organic molecule comes close to a mineral surface, the abundance and type of organic 124 functional groups constrain options for further reactions between matrix surfaces and mobile 125 organic adsorbates. 126

127 120 **[H2] M**

128 [H2] Mineral phase

A diverse suite of minerals occur in soils and sediments, including phyllosilicates and
aluminosilicates (collectively referred to as silicates); metal oxides, hydroxides, and
oxyhydroxides (collectively referred to as oxides); and metal carbonates and sulfides (Figs. 3 &
4). In most soils and sediments, phyllosilicates are the predominant component of the finegrained fraction [G] ^{32,33}. Metal oxides are an order of magnitude less abundant than
phyllosilicates except in highly weathered systems and metal-dominated marine benthic habitats
(such as hydrothermal vent deposits and ferromanganese crusts), but they contribute distinct

reactivity ^{22,34} (**Fig. 4**).

Minerals possess both permanent (structural) and variable (pH-dependent) surface charge 137 distributions. Subsequent coulombic interactions [G] dictate many physical and chemical properties, such as dispersion [G] behavior, coagulation [G], colloidal stability, solubility, and 139 adsorptive bonding mechanisms ³⁵⁻³⁷. Mineral surface reactivity is also driven by surface 140 topography ³⁸, which results from deviations in atomic crystal structure (such as steps or 141 vacancies), in tandem with particle shape and size. In altering the configuration and number of 142 reactive surface groups per unit mass, topographic surface drivers (steps, edges, and kinks, for 143 example) can thus influence the composition, abundance, and bond strength of compounds at the 144 mineral surface. Surface defects can facilitate the formation of stronger surface complexes or 145 reveal edges that offer unsaturated atoms available for direct complexation ³⁹⁻⁴², and particle size 146 modulates the relative number of reactive surface groups per unit mass of mineral. Finally, the 147 presence and size distribution of pores within mineral grain assemblages also affects the 148 available surface area for organic ligands, as well as exposure kinetics through steric constraints 149 **[G]** and diffusion limitation $^{43-46}$. 150

Beyond surface charge and topography, the key properties of fine-grained minerals that 151 determine their interactions with OM (that is, mineral size, shape, charge, and covalent 152 reactivity) are fundamentally derived from their crystal structures (Fig. 3). Notably, interfacial 153 energies [G] of the different crystal facets [G] have a strong influence on particle size and shape 154 ⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹. For layer-type minerals (phyllosilicates, gibbsite, and layered manganese (Mn) oxides such 155 as birnessite), one facet carries only surface O atoms or OH groups that are fully saturated 50, 51. The low interfacial energy of this crystal facet explains the tendency of the associated minerals 157 to adopt a lamellar shape. In turn, this lamellar shape minimizes the tendency towards crystal 158 growth [G] and hence favors the persistence of small particles ⁵². 159

The iron (Fe) oxides and framework Mn oxides are exceptions to the condition presented 160 above, in that all their crystal facets carry under- or over-coordinated surface O atoms ⁵³. One 161 consequence of this imperfect surface O coordination state is that these minerals are primed for 162 covalent reactions with appropriate organic functional groups. Another consequence is that these 163 minerals tend to grow and dissolve readily, and form particles in a variety of shapes depending 164 on the aqueous chemistry ³⁴. Finally, the relatively high interfacial energy of these minerals 165 enables the coexistence of multiple Fe oxides in most soils, as differences in surface and bulk 166 energies cause reversals in the order of thermodynamic stability as a function of particle size and 167 aqueous chemistry ⁴⁷. For example, poorly-crystalline ferrihydrite is often the initial product of 168 Fe^{III} crystallization owing to its favorable surface energy. However, at sizes greater than ~5 nm 169 ferrihydrite becomes unstable relative to more crystalline goethite and hematite owing to its less 170 favorable bulk energy ⁴⁸ 171

172

173 **[H1] Adsorption**

Adsorption has long stood as an explanation for the spatiotemporal preservation of organic matter in soils and sediments ⁵⁴. However, mounting recognition of the dynamism occurring at the mineral-organic interface, buoyed by diversifying intersectionality in expertise and analytical techniques^{14,55-58}, has emerged in the last decade of biogeochemical research.
Rather than a static and irreversible binding mechanism, it is increasingly clear that adsorption
itself encapsulates a series of fundamentally kinetic processes: diffusion, competition, and
exchange reactions are concurrent and continuous as organic matter accumulates at the mineral
surface. The dynamic mineral-OM interface evolves continuously with changes in the chemistry
of aqueous phases, OM, and mineralogy, and influences both magnitude and rate of OM
adsorption.

Observed complexity in OM adsorptive processes is rooted in the inherent diversity of the reactants. Organic matter encompasses a complex, heterogeneous continuum of structure, 185 processing, and functional diversity ⁵⁹⁻⁶¹. Even among small organic compounds, this variety 186 enables adsorption through a combination of multiple anchoring points and mechanisms ^{62,63} 187 (Fig. 2). In tandem, a diverse suite of mineral phases occurs in soils and sediments, varying in 188 surface charge and distribution, topography, and particle size (Fig. 4). OM adsorption almost 189 invariably involves a combination of several mechanisms. However, mechanisms of 190 organomineral adsorption can be grouped by the surface chemistry of the mineral (Fig. 5), as it 191 affects surface-ligand bond types, coordination state, and spatial organization. These surface 192 chemistries fall into three general groups: variably-charged, non-charged, and negatively 193 charged. 194

Variably-charged surfaces of metal oxides and phyllosilicate crystallite edges carry 195 hydroxyl groups that are increasingly protonated with decreasing pH, thereby acquiring positive 196 charge. This protonation, in turn, enables the retention of organic ligands through rapid ligand-197 exchange ^{64,65}. In many phyllosilicates, substitution of octahedral aluminum (Al) and tetrahedral 198 silicon (Si) with cations of lesser charge will generate permanently charged surfaces. The 199 prevailing negative charge of these surfaces allows for electrostatic attraction of metal cations ⁶⁶. 200 When isomorphic substitution is absent, as in some 2:1 phyllosilicates and kaolin-group 201 minerals, the resulting surfaces are electrostatically neutral and thus allow nonpolar organic 202 molecules to accumulate via entropy-driven hydrophobic exclusion phenomena in combination 203 with Lifshitz - van der Waals forces and H-bond formation 3,67 (Fig. 5).

As organic ligands partition from solution [G] to mineral surfaces, monolayer coverage 205 of the mineral surface converges into a multilayer molecular architecture ^{68,69,70} (Fig. 5). Organic 206 ligands tend to have a variety of functional groups (Fig. 2), thus there can be multiple bonding 207 mechanisms between the mineral and OM. This diversity of bonding reactions, paired with the 208 competition of organic compounds for sorptive sites both between themselves and with inorganic 209 ions 71 , results in complex multidimensional structures at the mineral surface (Fig. 5). Ion 210 concentrations are well known to modulate adsorption rates and extents, with variations amongst 211 bonding mechanisms and ion composition ^{72,73}. However, the importance of competition between 212 organic compounds in structure-selective adsorption (molecular fractionation) is less well-213 constrained. 214

215 Similarly, a plethora of recent work has probed the formation and structure of this 216 multilayer over a range of time and length scales based on nanometer-scale microscopy and spectroscopy ⁷⁴, temporal partitioning of organic ligands from solution onto the mineral surface
 ^{75,76}, and detection of uneven structures at the mineral surface ⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹.

Adsorption of OM at the mineral-water interface occurs at a rapid rate and reaches 219 equilibrium with aqueous phase in 24 hours for many organic moieties and non-porous minerals 220 ⁸⁰. The initial adsorption step is typically fast, and a majority of adsorption is completed within the first few hours after the solid-phase is exposed to aqueous OM. Slow adsorption can follow this first step and is most likely caused by the diffusion of molecules into the intra-particle regions [G] ^{45,65,81}. Most kinetic datasets regarding OM sorption on soils and sediments come 224 from studies conducted on xenobiotic compounds [G]⁶⁵. However, studies carried out on 225 organic molecules isolated from soil and aquatic environments suggest that the variables that 226 control the magnitude of sorption, also control its kinetics ^{82,83}. Some of these variables include 227 the size, charge, hydrophobicity, charge density, and concentration of OM, solution composition 228 (pH, ionic strength, ion type), and mineral type (such as metal oxides versus silicates). For 229 example, rapid adsorption is more common at lower pH values, high OM concentration, and in 230 the presence of cations⁸²⁻⁸⁵, where adsorption rates are faster under conditions that promote 231 weaker adsorption affinity, such as in alkaline solutions⁸³. Notably, newly adsorbed organics might compete with and actually induce the release of previously adsorbed organic compounds⁸⁶. 233 though this process is not well studied in situ. 234

Once bound to a mineral surface, an organic ligand [G] only rarely remains undisturbed 235 and instead is vulnerable to desorption and exchange processes, mineralization, and catalytic 236 transformations in situ (Fig. 6). During these processes, organic molecules on mineral surfaces 237 might experience changes to their hydration, structure, isomerization, rotation, and electron 238 delocalization, depending on the type of chemical bonding at mineral-water interface. The 239 overall chemical or electronic state of the adsorbed molecule tends to be similar to the molecule 240 in solution when the adsorbed molecules exhibit H-bonding, Van der Waals interactions, or 241 retain their solvated water (Fig. 6). Conversely, the adsorbed molecule tends to experience 242 substantial changes to its chemical state if it forms covalent or ionic interactions and directly 243 coordinates to the metal atoms at the mineral-water interface, such as during ligand-exchange. 244 These distinct responses are relevant to hydrolysis, electron transfer, and radical mediated 245 reactions, as well as photochemical lability [G] ^{87,88}. Although electron transfer amongst weakly-246 coordinated species can be limited in some of these complexes, for directly-bound covalent 247 complexes, not only the chemical state of the organic molecule is changed but also the electronic 248 state of the metal atom on the surface (**Fig. 6**). Unlike alkali and alkaline earth elements, 249 transition metal ions in solution or at mineral-water interfaces, such as Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, and Zn, 250 play an important role in modifying the electronic states of the interacting organic functional 251 groups⁸⁹⁻⁹¹. 252

Adsorption potentially impacts not just the adsorbed OM, but also the minerals: adsorption invariably lowers interfacial energy ⁹², so accumulation of OM on mineral surfaces should both facilitate the nucleation **[G]** of new particles and inhibit the growth of existing particles. This should favor the formation and persistence of smaller particles, a phenomenon observed experimentally in the apparent stabilization of short-range-ordered [G] (SRO) metal oxides (ferrihydrite) and aluminosilicates (proto-imogolite) ⁹³⁻⁹⁶. A logical consequence of this is that correlations between OM and fine-grained minerals, though generally interpreted as reflecting the impacts of minerals on OM, should additionally reflect (to an unknown extent) impacts of OM on mineral nucleation, growth, and transformation.

The transformations summarized here, and the subsequent temporal persistence of 262 adsorbed molecules, are critical to parameterization of organic C cycling in environmental 263 systems. Yet, comparatively few studies have assessed the susceptibility of organic ligands to 264 desorption and exchange despite widespread attribution of adsorptive temporal persistence 265 ^{12,58,97,98}. Even relatively short desorption experiments using minerals and whole soils reveal 266 partial removal of adsorbed ligands from all surfaces except variable-charge hydrous oxides. 267 However it is likely that there is continuous exchange even with these minerals, masked by near-268 zero net solubility^{58,99}. Mineral transformation and dissolution could also mediate release of 269 adsorbed compounds into the aqueous phase. Anoxic events and biotic reductive dissolution of 270 oxides ¹⁰⁰⁻¹⁰⁴, acidity-driven deprotonation in low-Fe systems ¹⁰⁵, and secretion of root exudates 271 ^{106,107} could all serve a weathering-like role in releasing adsorbed ligands. 272

A presumed link between particular bonding mechanisms and biotic mineralization of ligands has not been systematically addressed. Laboratory biodegradation studies suggest OM 274 adsorption, particularly to high-surface area oxides in low-pH systems ¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹¹, can hinder 275 decomposition. It is not clear, however, how such findings translate to natural soils and 276 sediments, where dynamic weathering and solution chemistry will alter surface functionality, and 277 where exoenzymes from fungi and bacteria can be abundant in solution. Indeed, whole-soil 278 isotope tracer experiments suggest that metabolism of adsorbed ligands is continuous ¹¹². Besides 279 microbial degradation and consumption after direct desorption, displacement by biotic exudates 280 can contribute to the decomposition of previously-adsorbed molecules ¹¹³, supported by 281 observations that a substantial proportion of mineral-adsorbed organic matter is microbial in 282 origin ¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁶. Such evidence for the multifaceted role of biotic consumption, exchange, and 283 deposition of organic ligands highlights the uncertainty in underlying controls and their 284 quantitative effect on mineralization rates. 285

286 287

288 [H1] Catalysis

The potential of a mineral surface to act as a catalyst **[G]** and enhance reaction rates 289 results from the combined action of multiple factors. For instance, minerals can concentrate 290 organic compounds to several orders of magnitude higher than the bulk solution^{117,118}, thus 291 increasing the pre-exponential frequency factor in the Arrhenius equation. Association with a 292 mineral surface can reduce the degree of orientational freedom [G] of an adsorbate by aligning 293 monomers along two dimensions at planar surfaces ¹¹⁹, thereby facilitating recurring reaction 294 patterns. Minerals also create centers of reactivity by providing coordinatively unsaturated sites 295 and steric enhancement [G] of reactions at surfaces with substantial topography³⁸. Furthermore, 296

mineral surfaces can transfer protons to a sorbate as well as offer empty electron orbitals for the
reception of bonding electron pairs (Broensted- and Lewis-acid/base functionalities¹²⁰). Lastly,
minerals entirely made of transition metals (such as Fe and Mn oxides) or acting as solid
supports for adsorbed transition metals at their surfaces and in interlayers (phyllosilicates) can
contribute transition metal specific catalytic functionality ^{121,122}.

Laboratory observations made on the catalytic reactivity of different minerals can be used to recognize three mineral types of chemical reactivity (**Fig. 6**), although the intensity of the organomineral interactions within each class varies with changes in mineralogy, OM concentration, and geochemistry of the environment.

³⁰⁶ Class I minerals are dioctahedral 2:1 clays that adsorb large organic molecules through ³⁰⁷ cation-bridging and through hydrophobic expulsion and aromatic ring π -interactions with ³⁰⁸ surfaces or Lifshitz - van der Waals forces. Direct complexation of OM can occur at edge sites. ³⁰⁹ Because hydrophobic expulsion is the primary driver for adsorption, kinetics of adsorption are ³¹⁰ fast, macromolecular structures are rarely disturbed, and limited electron transfer is expected. ³¹¹ However, heterogeneous oxidation of OM can occur on clay surfaces in the presence of adsorbed ³¹² O₂ and transition metals ^{123,124}. Overall, the catalytic activity of Class I minerals is expected to be ³¹³ low with slow kinetics ^{123,125}.

Class II minerals are metal oxides, silicates, and 1:1 clays, and exhibit high adsorption capacity (**Fig. 6**). These minerals tend to catalyze moderate changes to the structure and electronic state of adsorbed molecules, primarily through direct bonding, hydrolytic breakdown from reactions with surface OH, and heterogeneous oxidation with adsorbed O₂ ^{123,126,127}.

Finally, Class III minerals are highly reactive in terms of magnitude of sorption, and in terms of hydrolytic and electrolytic breakdown and heterogeneous oxidation (**Fig. 6**). Reduced clays (those with substituted transition metals), Mn oxides, sulfides and magnetite belong to this category ^{123,127-129}. Mineral carbonates and sulfides, through major changes of surface acidity at the interface, play an important role in the hydrolytic breakdown of macromolecular organic

molecules. Breakdown of large molecules into small molecules is possible, as is the subsequent

transformation into larger molecules through nucleophilic addition, radical mediated

polymerization and large molecule formation reactions (**Fig. 6** $^{129-131}$).

Because of these changes, substantial alterations to mineral surface structure, including even eventual dissolution, are anticipated in the case of Class III minerals (**Fig. 6**). Strongest proof for all of these observations comes from solution studies, rather than from spectrometric work directed at the interface ^{123,132,133}. The solution studies reveal the progress of catalytic reactions

directed at the interface ^{125,152,155}. The solution studies reveal the progress of catalytic reactives and their rates; however, not the reaction mechanisms at the interface.

The impact of mineral catalytic behavior on OM stability is expected to be greater where there is direct organomineral interaction, or where there are monolayer coverages of OM (**Fig. 6**). As a consequence, the intensity of organomineral interactions should be strongest during monolayer OM adsorption. In multilayer adsorption, conversely, the overall role of minerals as catalysts should be comparatively diminished as OM-OM interactions increasingly predominate over mineral-OM interactions (**Fig. 6**). Although a majority of molecular studies conducted on ³³⁷ soils or sediments belong to the latter category ^{74,134,135}, the impact of layer thickness on OM

behavior remains relatively poorly understood because of the analytical difficulties in exploring
 these systems.

Metal atoms of mineral surfaces in the proximity of adsorbed molecules also tend to 340 experience changes to the adsorbed water and surface hydroxyls, and to their electronic state. 341 These can be three-fold: changes in the metal-ligand coordination (and hydration and hydrolysis) 342 environment; complete e-transfer and oxidation or reduction of surface metal atoms; and 343 perturbations to the energy levels of valence electrons ^{133,136,137}. Although changes are less 344 notable during the formation of weak H-bonded complexes, the formation of direct ionic and 345 covalent interactions impact the binding of metal atoms of mineral surface strongly, with some 346 additional impact to the buried atom layers next to the binding site ³⁸ (**Fig. 6**). As a result, 347 adsorption of OM to mineral surfaces often modifies the characteristics of both OM and mineral 348 surfaces, and only in rare occasions are the chemical characteristics of each preserved at the 349 interface during bonding ^{38,85,130}. These considerations highlight the difficulty to distinguish 350 between two fundamental functions (catalysis and redox reactions) of mineral surfaces when 351 considering OM transformations at solid earth interfaces. At this time, it seems there is 352 considerable conceptual uncertainty regarding these functions, with the available evidence 353 favoring a role as reactant. 354

355 356

357 [H1] Redox reactions

Electron transfer reactions between OM and minerals, directly or mediated by microbes, are a primary pathway contributing to the oxidation, transformation, and mineralization of 359 carbon within soils and sediments (Fig. 7a). Minerals and OM can serve as either electron 360 donors or acceptors for a vast array of heterotrophic or mixotrophic [G] microbial metabolisms 361 spanning a broad ecologic and taxonomic diversity ¹³⁸. Various mechanisms are employed in the 362 microbial coupling of organic carbon oxidation to the reduction of Fe and Mn oxides, including 363 direct electron transfer via outer membrane enzymes ¹³⁹ or conductive nanowires **[G]** ^{140,141} and 364 indirect transfer via endogenously produced electron-shuttling molecules that are secreted by an 365 organism after which they adsorb to an oxide surface and transfer the bacterial-derived electron 366 to the mineral ¹⁴². The latter reaction pathway is a coupled biotic-abiotic pathway, whereby the 367 second step is a direct electron transfer reaction between the organic molecule and mineral 368 surface. 369

A variety of organic molecules can be transformed via direct electron transfer at the surface of minerals, including Fe and Mn oxides, sulfides, and phyllosilicates ¹²³. Within natural systems, metal oxides have garnered particular attention for their ability to serve as effective oxidants of a wide range of organic compounds ¹⁴³, including humic acids, phenols, anilines, low molecular weight organic acids (such as oxalate, pyruvate, citrate) ^{7,144,145}, and more recently proteins ^{128,146}. The overall reaction sequence involves adsorption of the organic reactant to the $_{376}$ (hydr)oxide surface, transfer of electron(s) to the mineral-hosted metal, and subsequent detachment of the reduced metal and oxidized organic molecule 123 .

The adsorption, fractionation, and oxidative transformation upon reaction of dissolved 378 organic matter with minerals are dependent on mineral surface chemistry, including the 379 composition and abundance of terminal bonds ^{123,147}. Despite typically lower adsorptive 380 capacities, Mn oxides are stronger oxidants than Fe oxides, in large part owing to differences in 381 redox potential ^{123,148,149}. Indeed, Mn oxides are considered the strongest naturally occurring 382 oxidants, and thus considerable attention has been placed in investigating the role of Mn oxides 383 in organic carbon transformations ¹⁴³. In general, organic compound oxidation rates increase with 384 average oxidation state, redox potential, and specific surface area of the Mn oxide and decrease 385 with apparent activation energy of the overall reaction and the pH_{pzc} of the oxide ¹⁴³. Furthermore, OM oxidation rates increase with decreasing pH, which has been primarily 387 attributed to the higher redox potential at lower pH. 388

As mineral-OM redox reactions rely on surface complex formation 150 , the efficacy of mineral-induced organic matter oxidation and mineralization is ultimately determined by factors 390 controlling initial adsorption. Thus, the extent and rates of organic carbon transformation and 391 mineralization at mineral surfaces decline if surfaces become passivated [G], for instance by 392 high organic matter loadings ¹²³ and/or reaction products blocking reactive sites on the surface¹⁴³. 393 Further, mineral ripening [G] and recrystallization to less reactive phases during reaction can 394 constrain mineral surface reactivity over time. Extrapolation of the rates and products of mineral-395 mediated OM transformations within natural systems from these reactions involving pure phases 396 is therefore limited and convoluted. 397

Nevertheless, correlations between oxidized Mn and oxidized OM point to a causal link
between Mn oxidation and carbon transformations ^{113,149,151}. In fact, the intimate and diverse
association of OM with Mn oxides ^{149,152} leads to a continuum of reactions, including
mineralization and polymerization within layers coating the oxide surface ¹²⁹. Yet beyond
correlations, there is limited data directly linking natural Mn oxides (or any mineral) to OM
oxidation and transformation, pointing to a clear need for future investigations targeting mineralmediated OM redox mechanisms.

405 406

407 [H1] Reactive Oxygen Species

Mineral-derived ROS¹⁵³, particularly hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), superoxide (O_2^{\bullet}/HO_2), 408 and hydroxyl radical (HO[•]), represent likely important but currently underappreciated players in 409 the transformation of soil and sediment organic matter ¹⁵⁴. Among various biological and 410 (photo)chemical processes ^{155,156}, common soil and sediment minerals have also demonstrated 411 the ability to produce ROS, including H_2O_2 and HO^{• 157-161}. These ROS-producing minerals 412 include primary silicates (such as plagioclase), oxides, sulfides, and clays, with the titanium 413 dioxide phases rutile and anatase (α - and β -TiO₂), iron oxide hematite (α -Fe₂O₃), and Fe(II)-414 bearing clays such as biotite and chlorite having the highest ROS yields observed to date ^{157,161}. 415

- 416 Minerals contribute to ROS production via water and O₂ reaction at defect sites or with mineral-
- ⁴¹⁷ hosted or adsorbed Fe(II), and via photochemical electron transfer ^{158,161,162} (**Fig. 7b-c**).
- 418 Alternatively, the reductive or oxidative dissolution of minerals leads to the release of metals
- (particularly iron) or ligands (particularly sulfide) that can create ROS upon reaction with
- ⁴²⁰ oxygen ¹⁵⁸ (**Fig. 7b**). Thus, albeit limited in number, these investigations of mineral-derived ROS
- indicate that the mechanisms and pathways of ROS formation vary as a function of the mineral,
- light, and aqueous environment.
- Mineral-derived ROS within natural soils and aquifers have been measured in a limited 423 number of investigations. In subsurface soils and groundwaters, fluctuating redox conditions and 424 oxygenation of Fe(II)-bearing minerals are the primary contributors to ROS production ^{161,163}. 425 Formation of ROS including O_2^{\bullet} and HO[•] has been linked to the oxidation of aqueous Fe(II) 426 emanating from subsurface marine ¹⁶⁴ and lake sediments ¹⁶⁵. Indeed, the oxygenation of reduced 427 soils, sediments, and waters results in a cascade of ROS pathways, including initial formation of 428 both O_2^{\bullet} and H_2O_2 , ensuing dismutation of O_2^{\bullet} to H_2O_2 , and ultimately formation of HO[•] via 429 reaction of aqueous Fe(II) and H₂O₂ (Fenton reaction)¹⁶⁶. In sunlit surface environments, 430 photochemical reactions at oxide surfaces have also been found to play an important role in ROS 431 (particularly O_2^{\bullet} and H_2O_2) formation, including in both desiccated and wet desert soils ¹⁵⁹. 432 Production of ROS in soils pre-washed to remove photosensitizers such as nitrate point to direct 433 mineral-induced ROS generation upon irradiation¹⁵⁹. Superoxide and peroxides can be stabilized 434 within desiccated soils via complexation to metal oxide surfaces ¹⁵⁹. These ROS are rapidly 435 released when soils are (re)saturated, leading to pulses of oxidants within pore waters. Thus, 436 several oxidants are formed upon oxygenation of soils and sediments, the species and flux 437 controlled by mineral composition and mechanism of ROS generation. 438
- ROS vary in their selectivity and reactivity toward carbon functional groups, and react 439 with a wide range of organic compounds, including carbohydrates, fatty acids, and biomolecules 440 (such as DNA and proteins ¹⁶⁷). The reaction progression upon interaction of DOM and ROS 441 ranges from partial oxidation of organic carbon compounds and formation of low molecular 442 weight organic acids to complete oxidation to CO₂, depending on the reactants and conditions 443 (such as pH). Aromatic moieties, such as guinones or humics, have been identified as primary 444 sinks for O_2^{-1} in marine DOM, the reaction of which could lead to a catalytic cycle regenerating 445 the original reactant and forming H_2O_2 ¹⁶⁸. Hydroxyl radical is a particularly unselective and 446 strong oxidant ¹⁶⁹, having high reaction rates with DOM $(10^8 \text{ M C}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})^{170}$ and the ability to 447 oxidize carbon compounds within the DOM pool that are otherwise difficult to photo- or 448 biodegrade ^{171,172}. 449
- Although indirect evidence points to probable contributions of mineral-derived ROS in carbon processing, few studies to date have directly interrogated the role of ROS in carbon transformation and degradation. Still, the potential for ROS to be quantitatively relevant in carbon cycling was exemplified by a previous investigation where rates of CO₂ produced from 'OH (109 μ mol CO₂ m⁻² d⁻¹) in Arctic soils were found to be on the same order of magnitude as bacterial mineralization of DOM in surface waters ¹⁶⁵. Similarly, DOM (including coloured

- 456 DOM) is a predominant sink of O_2^{\bullet} within several marine systems ^{173,174}, and
- ⁴⁵⁷ photodecomposition of DOM in lake waters has been linked to ROS formation ¹⁷⁵. One of the
- 458 first studies to directly link ROS to remineralization of carbon within soils showed that 'OH
- derived from Fe(II) oxidation was responsible for DOM oxidation to CO_2 in Arctic soils ¹⁵⁴.
- $_{460}$ Specifically, production of CO₂ in Arctic soil incubations scaled with 'OH production stimulated
- $_{461}$ via H_2O_2 addition. Similarly, stimulation of carbon mineralization within aerobic incubations of
- humid and tropical soils amended with Fe(II) pointed to contributions from Fenton based reactions and ROS 57,176 . In support of this, carbon mineralization decreased (8% less CO₂
- reactions and ROS 57,170 . In support of this, carbon mineralization decreased (8% less CO₂ compared to controls) within these incubations upon the addition of $^{\circ}$ OH scavengers, further
- ⁴⁶⁵ implicating 'OH as a terminal oxidant of OM ⁵⁷. Similarly, addition of superoxide alone or in
- ⁴⁶⁶ combination with Fe to soil incubations triggered 'OH formation and concomitant degradation of
- soil organic matter ¹⁷⁷. Oxidation of tetracycline to CO_2 was also recently linked to 'OH
- formation upon oxidation of sediments in lab incubations ¹⁶¹. Lastly, soil organic matter
- ⁴⁶⁹ oxidation and decomposition in the absence of enzymatic activity (inactivation via autoclaving)
- within soils implicated mineral-derived ROS 56,178 ; yet, the mechanism at play was not
- 471 elucidated.
- 472 473

[H1] Definition of microbial habitats

Mineral-organic matter associations play a critical role in structuring and 475 compartmentalizing the biological reaction space of soils and sediments into microsites [G], 476 and, in combination with the water potential, determine the extent to which the individual 477 microsites are connected ¹⁷⁹ (Fig. 8). Pore connectivity, morphology, and size distribution at the 478 microsite scale either enhance or restrict microbial access to OM¹⁸⁰. They also determine the 479 conditions that microbial decomposers are exposed to, impacting the range and magnitude of the 480 microbial activities that occur. For instance, the compartmentalisation of space results in the 481 juxtaposition of microsites with different environmental conditions that can be mutually 482 exclusive (for example, oxic and anoxic) at very fine scales such as within a single aggregate 483 ^{171,172}. This juxtaposition leads to the emergence of gradients, allowing a range of processes to 484 proceed. It also facilitates the development and persistence of extensive microbial diversity, 485 because interactions that tend to reduce diversity, such as competition for resources or 486 antagonism, are attenuated in compartmentalised space ^{173,174} (**Fig 8**). Understanding the link 487 between microbes and their environment is fundamental to understanding soil and sediment 488 microbial ecology, microbial activity and the involvement of microbial decomposers in OM 489 dynamics ^{16,199,200}. As many of the functional properties of soils and sediments (nutrient cycling 490 and pollution degradation, for example) emerge from the diversity of their microbial inhabitants 491 ¹⁷⁵, it is not unreasonable to suggest that this functioning is ultimately dependent on the minerals' 492 role in the structuring of space. 493

Indeed, we posit that the overriding function of mineral matrices (Tier 1 in **Fig. 1b**) should be seen in their role in compartmentalizing the system. Microbially driven decomposition

requires decomposers and organic substrates to encounter one another ²⁰¹. However, OM is 496 heterogeneously distributed at scales that are relevant for microbial decomposition²⁰², as are 497 microbial communities themselves ²⁰³. This distribution results in a patchwork of cold and 498 hotspots of microbial activity ²⁰⁴, which is a fundamental characteristic of soils. Furthermore, 499 there can be non-linear, concave relationships between the concentration of available organic 500 substrate and microbial activities. These can be particularly apparent in activity hotspots and are 501 possibly related to the saturation of cellular transport systems or local O₂ limitations ¹³². A major 502 consequence of non-linear, concave relationships between the concentration of available 503 substrate and decomposition result is the lowering of overall organic matter decomposition 504 relative to when substrate and decomposers are homogeneously distributed¹³².

The variable connectivity of the microsites (Fig. 8) means that microbial communities 506 function and evolve more or less independently of communities in other microsites and under 507 different environmental conditions ^{176,177}. Taxa that are better adapted to the prevalent microsite 508 conditions, such as through the capacity to use electron acceptors other than O₂ in anoxic 509 conditions ¹⁷⁸, can competitively exclude other, less adapted taxa, with the potential loss of 510 metabolic capacity from the community. Metabolic capacity can also be lost when mutations 511 cause the inactivation of genes that are not maintained by selective pressure (in essence, the gene 512 does not provide any benefit to the microbe in the microsite) or genetic drift ¹⁷⁹. Such losses of 513 capacity from microsites could have consequences for subsequent organic matter dynamics, as 514 they would allow organic molecules to persist over time, regardless of the intrinsic properties of 515 the molecules or the microsite conditions. 516

Just as plant roots affect and select microbial communities within their sphere of influence, 517 the rhizosphere, minerals also exert influence over the microbial communities within their 518 vicinity, and therefore the metabolic pathways and organic matter dynamics that are present in 519 microsites ¹⁸⁵. The sphere of influence of minerals has been termed the "mineralosphere" ¹⁸⁶. For 520 example, different types of minerals select different microbial communities ¹⁸⁷⁻¹⁸⁹, and the 521 selective pressures exerted by minerals can even be greater than those associated with different 522 environmental conditions or in the presence of different organic matter sources ^{188,190}. Minerals, therefore, should not be viewed simply as supporting surfaces onto which microbial communities 524 arrive from the surrounding environment in a random and passive fashion. The selective pressure 525 exerted by minerals is likely derived from differences in resource availability at the surface or in 526 the vicinity of the minerals induced by their function as a mobilisation filter, from the mineral 527 acting as an electron acceptor or donor¹⁹¹, from differences in surface charge, area, or 528 topography¹⁹². Microbial attachment to mineral surfaces can also trigger wholesale changes in 529 microbial functioning, with metabolic activity being either stimulated or inhibited, or growth and 530 biofilm formation being promoted or suppressed, depending on the mineral type ^{193,194} and 531 depending on the microorganism ^{195,196}. The types of microbial metabolic pathways present at mineral surfaces is likely to have a major impact on mineral-organic matter associations and, 533 indeed, a number of studies have suggested that a large part of mineral associated organic matter 534 has been processed by microbial communities ^{109,197},¹⁸¹ particularly in agroecosystems or in 535

⁵³⁶ contexts where microbial communities flourish ^{182,183}. Furthermore, the extent to which

- microbially processed organic matter associates with minerals could even depend upon the
- ⁵³⁸ composition of the microbial communities ¹⁹⁸. The mechanisms underlying the production of

⁵³⁹ mineral associated organic matter via microbial processing remain as yet un-elucidated however.

- Nevertheless, the overriding message that emerges from these studies is that microbial
- communities not only mineralise organic matter but are also agents in the generation of mineral organic matter associations.

Ultimately therefore, the properties, including the biotic composition, of the 543 compartmentalized space are intimately linked to microbial-mineral associations. These 544 properties affect the local environmental conditions, which, in turn, modulate subsequent 545 biogeochemical processes ¹⁸⁴. This kind of functioning, in which feedback controls are 546 prominent and in which the overall performance of the system is not reflected in the properties of 547 the individual components, but emerges from the component interdependencies, is typical of 548 complex systems ^{184,185}. The feedback controls impose a number of static and dynamic 549 constraints on the system (Tier 2 in Fig. 1b). These constraints then determine the intensities and 550 rates at which molecular scale biogeochemistry might be able to proceed (Tier 3 in Fig. 1b). 551 Depending on the extent to which higher level (Tier 1 and 2) constraints operate in different parts 552 of the system, different lower tier processes could occur simultaneously within the same system. 553 How the structuring of space into a network of more or less connected microsites affects the 554 assembly of microbial communities and determines local environmental conditions that modulate 555 the expression of microbial functions and, ultimately, ecosystem performance has not yet been 556 fully explored. 557

558 559

[H1] Summary and future perspectives

The mechanisms underlying mineral-organic interactions have a long tradition of being 560 explored through adsorption experiments conducted with defined phases in tightly controlled 561 laboratory environments. However, we strongly urge that this research take a more holistic, 562 multidimensional view (Fig. 1b). We advise the scientific community to resist the temptation to 563 attribute given manifestations of carbon dynamics to a single predictor value, such as the 564 abundance of a certain mineral species, phyllosilicate clay content, or operationally determined 565 specific surface area values, as has been frequent practice in the past. Rather, soils and sediments 566 should be investigated as multidimensional entities, whose overall functional performance 567 depends on the extent to which the structure of the matrix supports molecular scale reactions. 568 Translating this insight into novel modeling approaches will be key to improved predictions of 569 global biogeochemical cycles. Quantitative information about pore size, pore morphology and 570 pore connectivity can be obtained from modern multidimensional imaging techniques such as 571 computed tomography, rendering an explicit consideration of architectural features 572 fundamentally possible. In this final section, we examine some of the outstanding questions and 573 pressing research needs in organomineral interaction research. 574 575

576 [H2] Structure and prokaryotic performance

Interactions within the mineral-organic matter complex not only have immediate and direct 577 effects on organic matter dynamics as described above but might also have indirect and longer term consequences. Metabolic dependency [G], when microbial cells lose the ability to produce 579 essential metabolites and instead use those released into the environment by other cells, is 580 common in natural microbial communities ^{179,180}. Such metabolic dependency develops only if 581 communities remain spatially co-located long enough for coevolution to occur^{181,182}. Metabolic 582 dependency has been shown to evolve in experimental populations in 1000 to 2000 generations 583 ¹⁸⁶. In soils and sediments, the probability of such co-evolutionary interactions occurring is 584 greater if the physical structure of the microsite persists over time (Fig. 8). Microsite persistence 585 is related to the organic matter content ¹⁸³, but could also be related to the mineralogy. For 586 example, there is evidence to suggest that 1:1 clavs and oxides produce more persistent microsite 587 structures ¹⁸³, probably owing to electrostatic interactions between the variable charged minerals ¹⁸⁴. In view of the suggestion that the persistence of organic matter in soil is related to the 589 heterogeneous distributions of organic substrate and metabolic capacities ^{187,188}, it would be 590 interesting to test the hypothesis that the mineral compartmentalizing the environment affects the 591 distribution of metabolic capacity at the microsite scale. This could be achieved using shotgun 592 metagenomics ¹⁸⁹, at appropriate scales, in soils with different mineralogies. 593

594

[H2] Adsorption, desorption and protection

Decomposition of adsorbed OM is typically substantially slower than decomposition of the 596 same type of OM in a freely suspended or dissolved state ¹⁹⁰, leading to the notion of 'sorptive 597 protection' of OM. However, desorption can be facilitated by changes in pH, electron 598 availability, or by modifications to sorbent surfaces ¹⁰⁵. Indeed, evidence is mounting that plants 599 are equipped with tools to achieve this exact purpose, such as the exudation of organic 600 compounds designed to release bound organic matter from mineral surfaces ¹⁹¹ and to adjust 601 patterns of microbial community composition for optimal functionality ¹⁹². With these 602 developments in mind, we suggest that sorptive protection should be re-evaluated as an 603 explanation for organic matter persistence, especially in systems inhabited by plant roots. 604

More broadly, the idea that there is reduced bioavailability of adsorbed substrates must be 605 further scrutinized. Potentially, it is not that the adsorption process exerts overwhelming bonding 606 forces, preventing breakdown of sorbates. Instead, adsorption could temporarily fix the location 607 of an adsorbed substrate within a given pore network. Such localization would force the 608 decomposer community to overcome the resulting spatial complexity of substrate locations, 609 slowing the rate of decomposition^{187,193}. To understand the relationship between OM persistence, 610 bioavailability, and adsorption, enzyme activity experiments should be moved away from 611 traditional batch experiments conducted with phases dispersed in a slurry. Instead, investigations 612 must consider and preserve the three-dimensional microstructure of natural mineral-organic 613 interfaces 46,194. 614

⁶¹⁵ Although the importance of various physicochemical variables in determining the magnitude ⁶¹⁶ of OM adsorption to select phyllosilicates, metal oxides and carbonates are well understood, the influence of these variables on the rates of adsorption and desorption is not. In addition, most

OM sorption and desorption kinetic studies have been conducted on clean minerals exposed to

aqueous phase OM. The kinetics of sorption onto realistic soils and sediments, where the newly

offered adsorbate could compete with and actually induce the release of previously adsorbed

 621 organic compounds, have been studied on rare occasions 86 , presumably because of the difficulty

- ⁶²² in unequivocally attributing resulting observations to certain mechanisms when the sorbent is ⁶²³ complex ¹⁹⁵.
- 624

625 [H2] Adsorption as a framework-stabilizing process

In addition to localizing the adsorbed substrate within a pore network, adsorption has the 626 potential to significantly influence the stability of this network, thus influencing the microbial 627 dynamics outlined above ¹⁹⁶. For example, investigations of sediment dynamics demonstrate that 628 fine-grained minerals and mineral-OM assemblages have a controlling influence on the cohesive 629 nature of sediment. Detailed understanding of the relevant relationships, unfortunately, remains 630 elusive due to complexity of interparticle interactions in assemblages of fine-grained minerals. 631 Even in the absence of OM, colloidal interactions [G] involve a variety of interaction 632 mechanisms with different sensitivities to distance and particle shape and charge, such that 633 different interactions to predominate in different systems ¹⁹⁷⁻¹⁹⁹. In particular, for layered 634 minerals, the combination of a long-range osmotic repulsion and a long-ranged attraction due to 635 configurational entropy enables the formation of extensive aggregates with relatively dilute yet 636

cohesive gel-like structures ^{200,201} ^{202,203}.
In the presence of OM, the stability of the miner

In the presence of OM, the stability of the mineral framework is further stabilized ¹⁹⁶. One conceptual model that could shed light into this stabilization is that the interaction of OM with 639 mineral surfaces, at the OM abundances that exist in most soils and sediments, should be 640 somewhat analogous to a wetting phenomenon. This analogy to wetting, in particular, is 641 qualitatively consistent with the existence of either patchy or uniform distributions of OM in 642 different systems ^{16,204-206} (although patchy distributions can partly reflect microbial lifestyles 643 ^{207,208}, they are also observed in studies examining the uptake of dissolved organic matter on 644 pristine mineral surfaces in abiotic conditions as well as in soils ^{135,209}), with observations of 645 preferential uptake of OM on rough surfaces or in colloidal aggregates ^{79,207}, and with the 646 tendency of OM to induce lasting mineral aggregation ^{94,96,210}. It also is consistent with the 647 hydrophobic character of the siloxane surface of phyllosilicate minerals in the absence of surface 648 charge ^{211,212} or even, in the case of smectite, in uncharged surface patches resulting from the 649 non-uniform distribution of isomorphic substitutions ^{62,67}. In the case of oxides, studies 650 indicating OM fractionation during uptake by Fe oxides suggest that the uptake of an initial 651 'contact layer' plays an important role in enabling mineral wetting by OM ⁷⁶. A number of other 652 concepts developed in studies of wetting phenomena could prove useful in studies of mineral-653 OM interactions, including theoretical representations of contact angles and thin films ²¹³⁻²¹⁵ and 654 descriptions of the impacts of biosurfactants on microorganism distribution, carbon cycling, and 655 bioremediation 45,216,217. 656

17

658 [H2] Mineral-catalyzed polymerization

There is substantial interest in the ability of minerals to both induce molecular growth (such 659 as polymerization and large molecule formation) and contribute to molecular fragmentation, as it 660 has implications for the global carbon cycle ^{218,219} and in prebiotic chemistry ²²⁰. The 661 fundamental ability of minerals to modify organic compounds has been confirmed in laboratory 662 settings²²⁰⁻²²², but the catalytic synthesis of novel organic compounds has not yet been observed 663 in the environment. To investigate this phenomenon, observations need to occur simultaneously 664 on extremely small spatial scales but on very long time scales, invoking serious experimental 665 challenges. In the environment, mineral-catalyzed synthesis could occur but could be 666 counterbalanced by mineral catalysed disassembly as soon as the newly made product diffuses 667 away from its compartment of origin. Moreover, the same type of mineral can assume opposite 668 functions in the microbial conversion of adsorbed substrates²²³. Directing greater research effort 669 at the quantitative relevance of these phenomena in natural systems would be particularly useful 670 to settle the ongoing debate regarding the importance of mineral-induced catalysis in the 671 environment. 672

673

674 [H2] Redox and ROS

In direct opposition to the expectation that minerals act as stable repositories for OM, the 675 close association of mineral and organic compounds also enables electron transfer and coupled 676 redox reactions. It is now well established that a plethora of microbial taxa and biochemical 677 pathways couple the decomposition of organic matter to the oxidative or reductive 678 transformation of minerals. Yet, despite tremendous progress in understanding the 679 biogeochemical underpinnings of mineral-dependent life, the taxonomy of, enzymatic machinery 680 employed by, and ecological controls on mineral-transforming microbes remain active and 681 essential areas of inquiry. Importantly, the thermodynamic and kinetic constraints on operative 682 metabolisms within natural soils and sediments remain poorly constrained, and yet are essential 683 components for the efficacy of qualitative and quantitative biogeochemical models. 684

Further, despite some direct and indirect evidence of abiotic reactions mediating carbon 685 transformation and mineralization at mineral surfaces, investigations of these interactions are 686 sparse and, for those that have been conducted, conclusions are often based on correlations 687 and/or anecdotal evidence. Moving forward, systematic and targeted investigations specifically 688 linking OM cycling with direct and indirect reactions at mineral surfaces is needed. These 689 investigations will undoubtedly require new methods and approaches to specifically probe the 690 OM-mineral interface and track reaction products, such as incorporation of isotope labels and/or 691 utilization of sophisticated imaging and spectroscopic techniques. 692

Acquisition of a clearer understanding of ROS-mediated carbon decomposition in soils and sediments has been hindered by several obstacles, including the difficulty in measuring shortlived ROS and identifying the fate of ROS among the numerous potential decay pathways within complex matrices. In fact, OM competes with numerous other ROS sinks, such as metals,

- ⁶⁹⁷ chloride, bromide, or carbonates 165,170,224 , and thus the contribution of ROS to OM cycling will ⁶⁹⁸ undoubtedly vary with local geochemical conditions, and between freshwater and marine ⁶⁹⁹ systems. Further the promiscuity of ROS such as O_2^{-1} and H_2O_2 to act as both reductants and ⁷⁰⁰ oxidants depending on the reactants and aqueous conditions leads to complex reaction networks ⁷⁰¹ even within relatively simple systems. Investigations of dityrosine formation within marine
- waters recently highlighted the potential for ROS-induced polymerization as a means to generate
 less bioavailable "humic"-like fluorescent DOM in the ocean ²²⁵, indicating that ROS can
- mediate polymerization in addition to carbon mineralization. Thus, given the emerging
 recognition of minerals as sources of high ROS fluxes within the subsurface and the well-known
 role of ROS in organic carbon transformations, mineral-based ROS serve as a new frontier in
 understanding the carbon cycle.
- Disentangling the complex network of mineral-based redox reactions is a necessary next 708 step to understanding the controls on carbon processing and availability within soils and 709 sediments. These reactions will likely be most relevant at redox interfaces and in fluctuating 710 redox environments. Under these conditions, fresh precipitates free of significant surface 711 coatings and prior to ripening will have increased surface reactivity. Further, (re)generation of 712 mineral-bound and aqueous redox reactants will lead to new mineral reactive sites and 713 (re)generation of ROS and other reactive intermediates (such as reactive DOM). Teasing out the 714 relative contributions of light-dependent and -independent reactions on ROS formation and 715 DOM decomposition is also required within sunlit environments. Thus, an improved 716 understanding of OM cycling in soils and sediments also requires quantification of fluxes of 717 solid-phase and aqueous reactants across light and redox gradients, likely requiring the use of 718 spatially resolved techniques and thermodynamic and kinetic modeling to tease out the network 719
- ⁷²⁰ of reactions at play.
- 721 722

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| 1332 | |
| 1333 | Key points |
| 1334 | • Minerals enable the compartmentalisation of soils and sediments into small yet clearly delineated aneaga such that different chemical ecological and evolutionary processes con |
| 1335 | defineated spaces such that different chemical, ecological and evolutionary processes can |
| 1330 | Organia matter (OM) attachment to mineral surfaces is dynamia, sensitive to interfacial |
| 1337 | • Organic matter (OW) attachment to inneral surfaces is dynamic, sensitive to interfacial energies and topology, and exhibits features reminiscent of a partial wetting phenomenon |
| 1000 | Mineral derived reactive evygen species represent overlooked but underiably key reactants |
| 1339 | in the evidation and transformation of OM within soils and sodiments |
| 1340 | Correlations between OM and fine grained minerals, though generally interpreted as |
| 1341 | • Contractions between OW and time-grained initiality, model generally interpreted as reflecting the impacts of minorals on OM, could additionally reflect impacts of OM on |
| 1342 | mineral nucleation, growth, and transformation |
| 1343 | Depending on system logistics and environmental setting, the same type of minoral could set |
| 1344 | • Depending on system registres and environmental setting, the same type of milleral could act as a sorbent, chemical reactant and catalyst for associated OM, anabling a vast portfolio of |
| 1545 | as a solutin, chemical reactain and catalyst for associated Ow, chapting a vast pollibility of |
| 1540 | potentiary opposing outcomes. |

Assessments regarding the fate of OM in the environment should not be derived from
 correlations with single predictor values, such as abundance of a certain mineral phase or
 specific surface area.

Figure Captions

1354

1356 Figure 1 Organic-matter cycling in soils and sediments and mineral-organic matter

interactions a Historic representation of organic matter cycling in soils and sediments. Major
 organic matter (OM) pools and fluxes are represented as black boxes and arrows. Blue arrows
 represent processes and interactions discussed in this Review. b Multiscale representation of
 mineral organic interactions. At the largest scale (Tier 1), the main function of the mineral matrix
 is to delineate compartmentalized space. As a consequence of compartmentalization, a number of
 static and dynamic constraints are imposed on smaller scales (Tier 2 functions). These constraints
 then determine the intensities and rates at which molecular scale biogeochemistry could be able
 to proceed (Tier 3 functions).

- **Figure 2. Organic Multifunctionality.** Variation of functional group combinations on organic compounds allows for diverse modes of interaction with mineral surfaces.
- **Figure 3. Key properties of fine-grained minerals and related solids**. The material referred to as allophane is a short-range-ordered (SRO) phyllosilicate with imogolite-like local structure and highly variable stoichiometry; its distinguishing features are low crystallinity and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images suggestive of hollow spheres 3.5 to 5 nm in diameter, though multiple studies have noted that the interpretation of three-dimensional structure from twodimensional TEM image is ambiguous ⁹⁵. Data based on Refs^{34,66,94,96,226-229}.
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Figure 4. Size, shape, and global distributions of minerals. a| Size and shape of minerals discussed here. **b**| Global map showing the most abundant fine-grained mineral in the subsoil (0.3 to 2 m depth) as a function of location, and average relative abundance of different fine-grained minerals in the upper 2 m of soil averaged over the Earth's land surface with the exception of organic-rich soils (such as mollisols) and ice-covered regions³³. Part X is adapted from ref ³³, CC BY 4.0 (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

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Figure 5. Organic ligands at mineral interfaces. Mineral interfaces occur at a variety of spatial
 scales and topography in soils and sediments, where a diversity of primarily low-molecular
 weight, amphiphilic organic ligands may reach the solid-solution interface. Once proximal,

ligands can bind to mineral surfaces through one or multiple complexation mechanisms based onsurface charge distribution and structural reactivity.

- Figure 6. Molecular mechanisms of OM reactions at mineral-water interfaces. Cartoon at 1389 the top shows a mineral surface showing monolayer and multilayer (3-dimensional) sorption of 1390 small and large OM. Molecular structures of organic molecules at mineral-water interfaces are: i: 1391 cation bridging, ii: H-bonded or Lifshitz -Van der Waals interactions, and iii: direct covalent interactions. Expanded views of OM interactions and expected trends for different mineral 1393 structures in soils and sediments are shown at the bottom. The nature of chemical reactions are 1394 (as numbered in the figure): 1: e⁻-transfer and electrolytic breakdown of OM; 2: larger OM 1395 formation from nucleophilic addition and radical mediated polymerization; 3: hydrolytic 1396 breakdown of molecules from pH changes at the interface; 4: heterogeneous OM oxidation from 1397 adsorbed O₂; and 5: chemical changes to substrate showing electron transfer and reduction of 1398 substrate atoms and changes to the coordination environments of neighboring atoms of substrate 1399 surface. Based on their differences in chemical reactivity towards OM, we further classify 1400 minerals presented above into 3 classes (I-III). Expected trends for OM behavior are included. 1401
- 1402

Figure 7. Mineral-induced organic carbon redox pathways. a Mineral induced oxidation,
which represents direct coupling. b Mineral-derived aqueous Fe(II), which involved both direct
and reactive oxygen species (ROS) mediated reactions. c ROS mediated reactions.
In b and c, the fate of mineral-derived ROS includes reaction of ROS with organic carbon (OC)
or transformation of one ROS to another (dismutation of superoxide to hydrogen peroxide,
formation of hydroxyl radical from ferrous iron and hydrogen peroxide via the Fenton reaction) –
for simplicity, all these fates are not shown here. The illustrations are meant to show general

processes, not mechanistic details, and the list of reactions is not exhaustive.

1411

Figure 8. Compartmentalization and mineral-organic matter-microbe interactions. Top 1412 panel shows structure with high clay content that is compartmentalized and relatively constant 1413 over time and lower panel shows structure with low clay content that is relatively dynamic over 1414 time. The compartmentalization and constant micro-environmental conditions results in greater 1415 niche differentiation, which allows a greater microbial diversity to co-exist through reduced 1416 competitive interactions ^{230,231}. The magnified insets show potential evolutionary consequences 1417 in microsites that form constant habitats. The capacity to use organic substrate present is 1418 subjected to strong selective pressure and preserved but other pathways could be lost (insets i. 1419 and iii.). Less competitive species do not compete for organic substrate present, but exploits 1420 metabolic by-product of more competitive species, resulting in a better use of available resources 1421 by the microsite community 232 (insets ii. and iv.). 1422

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| 1427 | Adsorption - An increase in the concentration of a dissolved substance at the interface of a |
| 1428 | condensed and a liquid or gaseous phase due to the operation of surface forces. |
| 1429 | Catalyst - A substance that increases the rate of a reaction without modifying the overall |
| 1430 | standard Gibbs energy change in the reaction |
| 1431 | Chemotrophic – the ability to use electron donors other than photons for the synthesis of |
| 1432 | organic compounds containing reduced carbon |
| 1433 | Coagulation - the formation of aggregates from a fluid colloidal system |
| 1434 | Colloid - molecules or polymolecular particles dispersed in a medium that have at least in one |
| 1435 | direction a dimension roughly between 1 nm and 1 µm |
| 1436 | Colloidal interactions - interactions that are enabled when particles become so small (equivalent |
| 1437 | diameter < 1-2 micron) that surface borne electric forces between particles can effectively |
| 1438 | control their behavior in a suspension (for instance, prevent them from settling) |
| 1439 | Compartmentalization - the division of a system into multiple subsystems with well defined |
| 1440 | boundaries that provide a certain degree of process autonomy |
| 1441 | Coulombic interactions - interactions that result from the electric force between two charged |
| 1442 | entities |
| 1443 | Crystal facet - a flat plane on a crystal |
| 1444 | Crystal growth - the addition of new atoms into the characteristic arrangement of the crystalline |
| 1445 | lattice, releasing thermal energy (enthalpy of crystallization) |
| 1446 | Depolymerization - the disassembly of a polymer into its constituent monomers or into a |
| 1447 | mixture of products |
| 1448 | Dispersion - A system in which particles of colloidal size of any nature (solid, liquid or gas) are |
| 1449 | dispersed in a continuous phase of a different composition (or state). |
| 1450 | |
| 1451 | Fine-grained fraction - mineral grains with an average diameter smaller than 50/63 microns, |
| 1452 | depending on classification system used |
| 1453 | Heterotrophic - the ability to derive nutritional requirements from complex organic substances |
| 1454 | Intra-particle region - any part of a particle that is not participating in surface reactions |
| 1455 | Interfacial energy - excess free energy or work associated with the interface between two |
| 1456 | phases, per interfacial area |
| 1457 | Ligand - any atom or molecule attached to a central atom, usually a metallic element, in a |
| 1458 | coordination or complex compound; if regarding part of a polyatomic molecular entity as |
| 1459 | central, then the atoms, groups or molecules bound to that part are called ligands. |
| 1460 | Metabolic dependency - a form of adaptation that leads to the absence or loss of the ability to |
| 1461 | synthesize a certain metabolite essential for the organism, usually in response to an |
| 1462 | abundance of said compound in the environment |
| 1463 | Microsite - a clearly delineated space within an environment with unique conditions or features |
| 1464 | in which specific microbial processes can occur. |

| 1465 | Mixotrophic – deriving carbon and energy from a mix of different sources, typically a |
|------|--|
| 1466 | combination of inorganic and organic compounds |
| 1467 | Nanowire – proteinaceous appendage produced by microbes, particularly bacteria, that is |
| 1468 | electrically conductive |
| 1469 | Nucleation - the process by which nuclei are formed in solution |
| 1470 | Orientational freedom - the absence of any physical restrictions to the movement and |
| 1471 | arrangement of a compound |
| 1472 | Passivated - a surface that is unreactive owing to alteration or from the formation of a thin inert |
| 1473 | coating |
| 1474 | Photochemical lability - the tendency of a compound to undergo a chemical reaction when |
| 1475 | exposed to light |
| 1476 | Phototrophic - ability to capture photons as energy source for the synthesis of organic |
| 1477 | compounds containing reduced carbon |
| 1478 | Poorly crystalline - an operational term to distinguish crystalline structures with short range |
| 1479 | order from others that exhibit order over longer distances |
| 1480 | Reactive oxygen species - ROS are short-lived oxygen-bearing molecules with half-lives that |
| 1481 | range from fractions of seconds to days, including hydrogen peroxide (H ₂ O ₂), superoxide |
| 1482 | (O_2^{+}/HO_2) , hydroxyl radical (HO [•]), singlet oxygen (¹ O ₂), and carbonate radical (CO ₃ ⁺). |
| 1483 | Ripening – physical and/or structural alteration of a mineral to obtain a lower surface free |
| 1484 | energy and more energetically favorable state |
| 1485 | unsaturated soil - a (soil) pore system that is only partially filled with water is unsaturated; a |
| 1486 | pore system entirely filled with water is considered saturated. |
| 1487 | Short-range ordered - the regular and predictable arrangement of atoms over a very short |
| 1488 | distance; in crystals, order does not persist over distances of more than a few nanometers |
| 1489 | and often extends over the distance of just a few bond lengths; Short range ordered |
| 1490 | minerals are often also referred to as poorly crystalline minerals. |
| 1491 | Solution - a homogeneous phase that results from the mixing of two (or more) phases |
| 1492 | Steric constraints - factors or effects that either prevent the adoption of a certain spatial |
| 1493 | orientation that would be required for the reaction to proceed unhindered |
| 1494 | Steric enhancement - factors or effects that facilitate the adoption of a certain spatial orientation |
| 1495 | that would be required for the reaction to proceed unhindered |
| 1496 | Xenobiotic compound - a substance that is foreign to a given natural environment or ecosystem; |
| 1497 | usually means that organisms in the system lack adaptations for the metabolic processing |
| 1498 | of a xenobiotic compound |
| 1499 | |
| 1500 | Table of contents summary |
| 1501 | Minerals and organic matter interact in soils and sediments, impacting biogeochemical |
| 1502 | cycling and ecosystem functioning. This Review describes the major and emerging |
| 1503 | environmental mineral-organic interactions observed, and their implications for organic matter |
| 1504 | persistence. |