

# Dissolution does not affect grass phytolith assemblages

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1	<b>D</b> issolution does not affect grass phytolith assemblages
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13	
14	Abstract
15	Dissolution is one among several taphonomical processes that may bias paleoenvironmental,
16	paleoclimatic or taxonomic interpretation of phytolith assemblages. To improve our understanding
17	of dissolution on grass phytoliths, we studied systematic changes of surface features, morphotype
18	assemblages, and dissolution rates of phytoliths extracted from two grass species Hyparrhenia
19	involucrata (Panicoideae), Nastus borbonicus (Bambusoideae), one soil from La Réunion Island
20	(approximate mean age $\leq$ 800 yr), and three paleosols from Ethiopia (approximate age of 4.4 million
21	years). We used heavy-liquid to extract phytoliths, and 1% Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> to perform partial dissolution
22	experiments. Physicochemical surface properties, morphotypes, and assemblages were analyzed
23	using optical and scanning electron microscopy, laser diffraction, and X-ray diffractometry. Our
24	results show that 1) phytoliths from different grass species may have different dissolution rates:
25	phytoliths from the leaves of Hyparrhenia involucrata (Panicoideae) are more prone to dissolution
26	than those from Nastus borbonicus (Bambusoideae). 2) Silicon (Si) released by phytolith
27	assemblages (i.e., phytolith dissolution rate) decreases as follows: plant > soil > paleosol. 3)
28	Dissolution leads to <u>cavity</u> formation on_phytolith_ <u>surfaces</u> and disappearance of fragile silica
29	particles. 4) Partial dissolution does not significantly change percentages of common grass phytolith

30 morphotypes in a given assemblage. These results provide a benchmark for assessing the reliability

31 of paleoenvironmental reconstructions using grass phytolith assemblages from buried soils and 32 sediments.

33

34 Keywords: weathered phytolith, dissolution, stability, pH, paleoenvironment

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#### 36 1. Introduction

37 Phytoliths are extensively used in paleobotany (e.g., Piperno and Pearsall, 1998; Prasad et al., 38 2011), archaeobotany (e.g., Ball et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2009, 2016), paleoenvironmental and 39 paleoclimatic studies (e.g., Arráiz et al., 2017; Issaharou-Matchi et al., 2016; Nogué et al., 2017; 40 Yost et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020). They are produced in stems and leaves of many plants (Hodson 41 et al., 2005), and are particularly abundant, taxonomically diagnostic, and precisely classified within 42 grasses (Poaceae) (Piperno, 2006). Grass phytolith assemblages can provide detailed information about the composition of past grass flora (e.g., Bremond et al., 2008; Cordova et al., 2011; Fredlund 43 44 and Tieszen, 1994). Phytolith ratios, particularly those including grass silica short cells (GSSCs), 45 have been used as climatic proxies to track paleoclimate changes (e.g., Aleman et al., 2014; Nogué 46 et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020).

47 Using buried soil or sedimentary phytolith assemblages to reconstruct past environments assumes 48 that they reflect some of their source vegetation characteristics (e.g., tree cover density, grass 49 subfamily dominance, grass drought stress), despite dissolution and concentration mechanisms 50 known to affect phytoliths in litters, soils, surface waters and sediments (Alexandre et al., 2011; 51 Hyland et al., 2013; McCune et al., 2013). In terrestrial ecosystems, phytoliths can be highly soluble 52 and recycled (e.g., Meunier et al., 2022), with concentations in soils decreasing with increasing 53 depth: highest at the surface, decreasing below about 30-80 cm, and stabilizing in deeper horizons 54 (Alexandre et al., 1997; White et al., 2012), implying the occurrence of phytolith dissolution and/or 55 translocation during pedogenesis (Alexandre et al., 2011).

56 Phytoliths are among the fastest dissolving silicate constituents in soil at pH > 4; pH > 8-957 amplifies their solubility (Fraysse et al., 2009), making the phytolith preservation problematic in 58 alkaline soil and sediments (e.g., Arráiz et al. 2017; Liu et al., 2019; Yost et al., 2021). Conversely, 59 phytoliths may accumulate in acidic environments (Meunier et al., 1999; Nguyen et al., 2019), and 60 preserve well in sedimentary contexts oversaturated with silica (e.g., Novello et al., 2015). Several 61 experimental tests demonstrated that phytoliths from fresh plants are more soluble than those from 62 fossil plants (Cabanes et al., 2011; Cabanes and Shahack-Gross, 2015), supporting the hypothesis 63 that only a portion of phytoliths incorporated into soil are preserved for long periods. These tests 64 also indicated that thin and flat phytoliths with large surface area relative to volume (e.g., Double-65 peaked husk phytoliths from rice, Papillate phytoliths from sedges) are more likely to dissolve than 66 thick, densely silicified particles such as grass silica short cell phytoliths (e.g., Bartoli and Wilding, 67 1980; Cabanes et al., 2011), suggesting that preferential dissolution may be problematic because 68 paleovegetation inferences rely on the relative abundance of phytolith morphotypes.

In soils and sediments, phytoliths do not always <u>have</u> a smooth, pristine surface. <u>They often</u> exhibit cavities that are round, deep and large, <u>suggesting</u> dissolution pits. Phytoliths with numerous cavities are particularly abundant at lower soil profile <u>depths</u>, even <u>under</u> soil with acidic to neutral conditions (Borrelli et al., 2010; Riotte et al., 2018). Dissolution processes may affect the surface of phytoliths to <u>the point</u> that taxonomic identification is impossible (e.g., Arráiz et al., 2017; Cabanes et al., 2011; Yost et al., 2021).

Given that grass phytoliths are exceptional tools used in paleoecology and archaeobotany to document past grass communities, changes in herbivore diets (e.g., Ciochon et al., 1990), early domestication of cereals (e.g., Iriarte, 2003; Zhao and Piperno, 2000), changes in agricultural practices (e.g., irrigation; Rosen and Weiner, 1994), as well as understanding the contribution of plants to the global silicon cycle (Alexandre et al., 1997, 2011; Blecker et al., 2006; Borrelli et al., 2010), improved understanding of effects of dissolution and other taphonomic processes on grass phytolith assemblages is crucial.

To improve our understanding of the impact of dissolution processes on grass phytolith morphotypes and assemblages, we <u>performed</u> laboratory experiments simulating alkaline dissolution. <u>Phytolith sensitivity to dissolution was evaluated by measuring Si release from</u> phytoliths <u>extracted</u> from two tropical grass species, one sub-modern soil sample with abundant bamboo phytoliths (Meunier et al., 1999), and Pliocene paleosol samples containing high grass and palm (Arecaceae) phytoliths (WoldeGabriel et al., 2009). For the first time, effects of partial dissolution on phytolith surfaces <u>are</u> described and quantified for different morphotypes <u>originating</u>
from different silicification processes (Hodson, 2019). <u>Impacts</u> on phytolith assemblages were also
assessed through morphotype counts and quantification of altered surfaces.

91

#### 92 2. Materials and methods

### 93 2.1 Plant, soil and paleosol samples

Plant phytoliths were extracted from two grass species: a specimen of *Hyparrhenia involucrata*(Panicoideae) collected in 2018 <u>as part</u> of the HUMI-17 project at the Nalohou grassland site <u>at</u> the
AMMA-CATCH observatory (www.amma-catch.org) in Benin (9°44'N, 1°36'E) (Outrequin,
2022), and a specimen of *Nastus borbonicus* (Bambusoideae) collected <u>from</u> La Réunion Island
(21°07'S, 55°32'E) (Meunier et al., 1999).

The soil sample was collected at 20 cm <u>depth</u> in the M horizon of an <u>A</u>ndosol developed on the west side of La Réunion Island, <u>which is mostly</u> covered by bamboo forests; <u>estimated sample age</u> is 745 years (charcoal <sup>14</sup>C age, <u>Meunier et al.</u>, 1999). <u>Paleosol samples (SA18, SA28, and SA52)</u> with relatively abundant phytolith<u>s</u> were obtained from the Sagantole Formation in the Middle Awash Valley of Ethiopia and are dated ca. 4.4 Ma (10.5°N, 40.5°E, WoldeGabriel et al., 2009).

104

### 105 2.2 Phytolith extraction

106 Plant phytoliths were extracted using a wet oxidation method (Alexandre et al., 1997). Leaves 107 were separated from stems, washed, dried at 50°C, and cut into small pieces. Milli-Q ultrapure water 108 was used for rinsing. Dried pieces of leaves were soaked in 1N HCl and heated at 80°C for 2 h, 109 rinsed, soaked in  $H_2SO_4$  (95%) and heated at 80°C for > 8h. To improve oxidation of organic matter, 110 samples were soaked again in  $H_2O_2$  (30%, at 80°C) until the supernatant became clear. Samples 111 were then rinsed, centrifuged (10 min at 4000 rpm), and dried before storage. Plant phytolith content, 112 expressed as a percentage relative to plant leaf dry biomass (% DW), was 4.4% in Hyparrhenia 113 involucrata and 12.8% in Nastus borbonicus (Table S1).

114 <u>Chemical extraction may cause some</u> dissolution (Crespin et al., 2008), so, we used the same 115 protocol for all our samples to avoid <u>the</u> bias shown by Cabanes et al. (2011), who used <u>dry ashing</u> 116 and acid digestion. Soil and paleosol phytoliths were extracted using the protocol of Alexandre et al. (1997). No treatment was needed for the La Réunion soil sample because it is almost exclusively composed of phytoliths (Meunier et al., 1999). Phytoliths were extracted from paleosol samples using 1N HCl heated at 80°C for 2 h to remove carbonates and 30% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> under constant heat (80°C) to remove organic matter. Clays were removed by decantation, and minerals by densimetric separation using ZnBr<sub>2</sub> heavy liquid with density\_2.3 g/cm<sup>3</sup>.

prepared with Canada Balsam for microscopic observation. The remaining <u>extract</u> was used for
 dissolution experiments and scanning electron microscope (SEM) observations.

126

#### 127 2.3 Phytolith dissolution experiments and Si measurement

Phytoliths were <u>subjected</u> to partial dissolution using 1% Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution. Sixty mg dried phytolith powder were added to 100 ml 1% Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution (pH = 11.2) in a polypropylene tube with caps slightly loosened to vent gases, and placed in a shaker bath at 85 °C for digestion. To stop the reaction, the tube was cooled in a water bath at room temperature. To measure dissolved Si, 1ml liquid aliquot was added to 9 ml 0.021 N HCl in 10 ml polypropylene tubes<u>washed in</u> 0.1mol/l HCl (twice) and Milli-Q ultrapure water (twice), centrifuged for 10 min at 4000 rpm, and dried at 70°C for weighing and phytolith observation.

135 Dissolution times had to be adjusted for each sample (Table S1). At  $\frac{1}{2}$  hour, phytoliths were 136 partially dissolved in Hyparrhenia and Nastus, while they were barely affected in the soil and 137 paleosol samples. Dissolution times were increased for the soil (up to 4h) and paleosol samples (up 138 to 10 days) to obtain noticeable dissolution. We duplicated the plant and La Réunion soil samples 139 to test the reproducibility of the dissolution experiment and error values were calculated as the 140 standard deviation between duplicates. For the paleosol samples, instead of duplicating the experiments, which was not possible due to the small amount of material available, we chose three 141 142 different samples (SA18, SA28, SA52) of similar age (WoldeGabriel et al., 2009) and treated them 143 separately. Because they originated from the same geological Formation but from different localities 144 within the same paleontological area where paleovegetation was likely different.

145	Concentration of dissolved Si (DSi, mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) in solution was measured using molybdenum blue
146	colorimetry with Spectroquant reactants (Merck), which allows monitoring the phytolith dissolution
147	process with coefficient of variation $\pm$ 1.4%. Absorption was detected at 820 nm with a Jasco V-
148	650 Spectrometer. Calibration lines ( $R^2 \ge 0.999$ ) were calculated using dilute solutions from a
149	standard Si solution at 1g L <sup>-1</sup> (Plasma CAL).
150	Percent phytolith dissolution was estimated using two methods: 1) calculating Si loss in solution
151	according to the following equation:
152	
153	Phy $_{loss-DSi}$ (%) = DSi (mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) ×0.1 (L) ×10 / initial phytolith weight (mg) / 0.42×100
154	
155	where 10 is the dilution of 1 ml liquid aliquot in 9 ml 0.021 M HCl, 0.1 (liter) is the volume of
156	Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> solution, in which the sample was digested, and 0.42 corresponds to 42% mass of Si in
157	phytoliths; 2) estimating the percentage of phytoliths dissolved based on phytolith mass remaining
158	after dissolution:
159	
160	Phy loss-phy (%) = (initial phytolith mass (mg) - final phytolith mass (mg)) / initial phytolith mass
161	$(mg) \times 100$
162	
163	Data are presented in Table S1 for all experiments. However, after 10 days, solution volume was
164	different from the initial volume, so Phy $_{loss-DSi}$ could not be calculated accurately.
165	
166	2.4 Counting, observation and properties of phytolith assemblages
167 168	Identification, observation, and counting of phytoliths was performed at ×400 and ×600
169	magnification with an optical microscope. Phytolith names follow the International Code for
170	Phytolith Nomenclature 2.0 (Neumann et al, 2019). We identified and counted the most common
170	and stable morphotypes present in soil and paleosol phytolith assemblages. SADDLE (SAD),
171	BILOBATE (BIL) and RONDEL (RON) are GSSCs diagnostic of Poaceae. BULLIFORM FLABELLATE
172	(BUL-FLA) is diagnostic of Poaceae and Cyperaceae. SPHEROID ECHINATE and SPHEROID
110	
	6

174 DECORATED (SPH) are diagnostic of Arecaceae and woody taxa, respectively. Other common 175 morphotypes such as ELONGATE (ELO), ACUTE BULBOSUS (ACU-BUL) and BLOCKY (BLO) have 176 no taxonomical value. We did not count rare morphotypes and fragile particles such as small and 177 thin (< 5 μm) silica pieces with ill-defined shapes, and silicified stomata. More than 500 phytoliths

178 were counted over several slides and phytolith morphotype percentages were calculated.

Exact Clopper-Pearson confidence intervals (95% CIs) were calculated for each phytolith morphotype percentage (Suchéras-Marx et al., 2019). Contingency table analysis, with p values from the chi-squared distribution and from a permutation test with 9999 replicates, was used to test whether the dissolution <u>significantly</u> altered phytolith assemblages (Davis, 1986). The null hypothesis H0 is that assemblages are similar at p > 0.05 (i.e. dissolution is not significant). When  $p \le 0.05$ , changes in <u>assemblages</u> can be confirmed. Both 95% CIs <u>on proportions</u> and Chi-square tests <u>on counts</u> were calculated using PAST (Hammer et al., 2001).

Several terminologies have been used to describe weathered phytoliths. Here we used 'cavity' (Lisztes-Szabó et al., 2020), which is equivalent to 'pits' or 'pitted surface' (Cabanes et al., 2011) and 'cratered phytoliths' (Kaczorek et al., 2019). To evaluate weathering intensity, we classified unweathered phytoliths as 'smooth' when the surface was smooth and devoid of cavities, 'irregular' when the surface looked dark and rough without evident cavities under the microscope, 'moderately weathered' when cavities occupied less than 50% of the phytolith surface, and 'highly weathered' when cavities could be observed on more than 50% of the phytolith surface.

In addition to <u>light</u> microscopy, we carried out a grain size analysis of each pure phytolith sample obtained from the plants before and after dissolution experiments using laser diffraction (Mastersizer 3000, Malvern Panalytical) to <u>test</u> the hypothesis that fragile silica particles <u>and/or</u> smaller phytoliths <u>were</u> preferentially dissolved. <u>Phytolith samples were dispersed in pure water</u> without additional physical (crushing) treatment to avoid breaking silica particles and magnetically agitated to keep them in suspension during measurement. Analyses were made in triplicate and averaged.

200 We also performed X-ray diffraction (PANanalytical X'Pert Pro X-ray diffractometer; Co anti-

201 cathode, 40KV; 40mA) on ground phytolith powders to analyze mineral composition of plant

202 Nastus borbonicus, La Réunion soil, and the paleosol SA18. Phytoliths were mounted on stubs

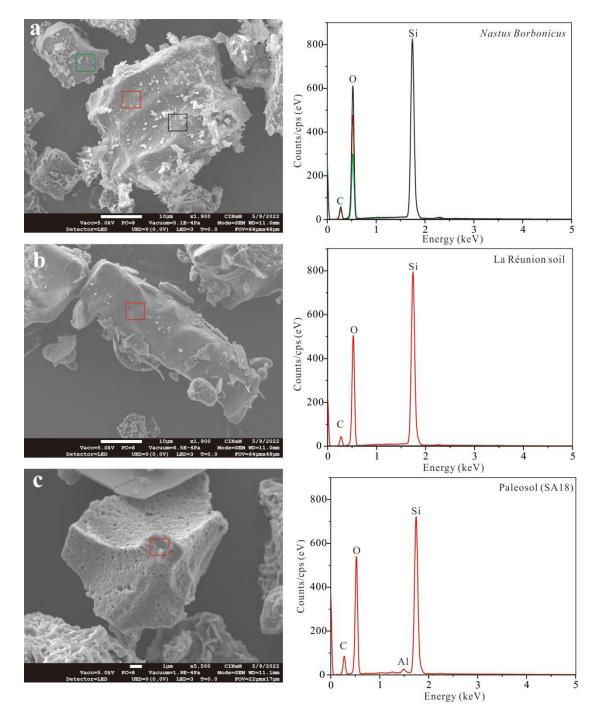
using double-sided carbon tape for further surface analysis using scanning electron microscopy equipped with energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) for localized element analysis (SEM, JEOL JSM- $7900 \text{ F} \times \text{Flash 60-Brüker}$ ).

206

#### 207 **3. Results**

#### 208 3.1 Physical, mineralogical and chemical characteristics resulting from partial dissolution

209 Before dissolution tests we observed that phytoliths from plants, soil, and paleosol samples 210 exhibit important differences at different levels. First, XRD analysis showed mineral composition 211 of phytolith assemblages extracted from Nastus borbonicus leaves and La Réunion soil peak at 2-212 theta value 25°, indicating only opal-A with no well-defined crystalline structure (Figs. S1a-b). 213 Pliocene paleosols, on the other hand, include small amounts of crystalline mineral residues such as 214 quartz, smectite, cristobalite and tridymite despite the careful extraction protocol (Fig. S1c). Second, 215 Si and O were detected in all phytolith samples, but Al only on paleosol phytoliths (Fig. 1). C 216 detected in all samples likely originated from the C coating used prior to SEM observations. Third, 217 differences were found in grain-size distributions of pure phytoliths extracted from plants. Phytolith 218 size distributions in undissolved assemblages of Hyparrhenia involucrata ranged from 1 to 200 µm, 219 showing two overlapping populations centered at 2 µm and 10 µm, while Nastus borbonicus 220 phytoliths ranged from 2 to 2,000 µm, showing two populations centered at 10-20 µm and 500 µm 221 (Fig. 2). We assume that particles >  $300 \,\mu\text{m}$  in the latter sample probably correspond to aggregates 222 because phytoliths of this size were not observed in microscopy.



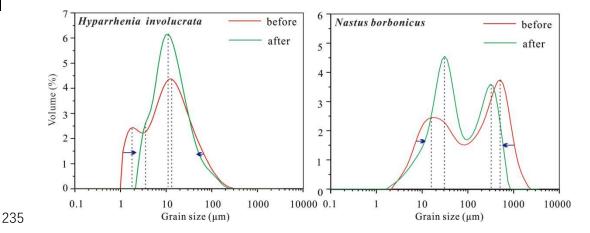
224 Fig. 1. SEM images and Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy of phytoliths before dissolution from a) Nastus 225 borbonicus leaves, b) La Réunion soil, and c) paleosol SA18.

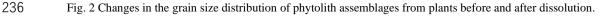
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226

227 After partial dissolution treatment, grain-size distributions were less widespread (Fig. 2) mostly 228 due to disappearance of particles < 2-5 µm originally seen in the assemblage from Hyparrhenia 229 involucrate (Fig. S2), leaving only a narrow, monomodal distribution centered at 10 µm. The Nastus phytolith assemblage distribution remained bimodal but the low size peak was slightly shifted 230 231 toward larger sizes, showing a new mode at 30 µm, likely due to dissolution of thin and small silica 9

particles that were present before the dissolution step (Fig. S2). <u>Large phytolith aggregates</u>
 <u>comprising the upper end of the *Nastus borbonicus* size distribution showed lower maximum size
 after dissolution, likely because of aggregate separation.
</u>

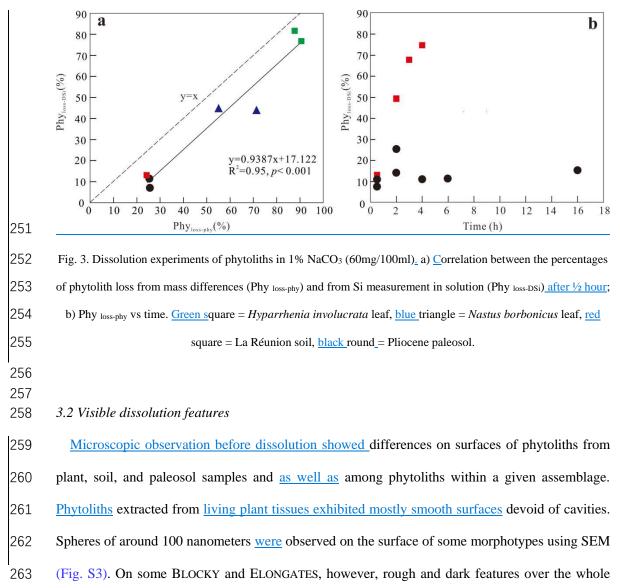




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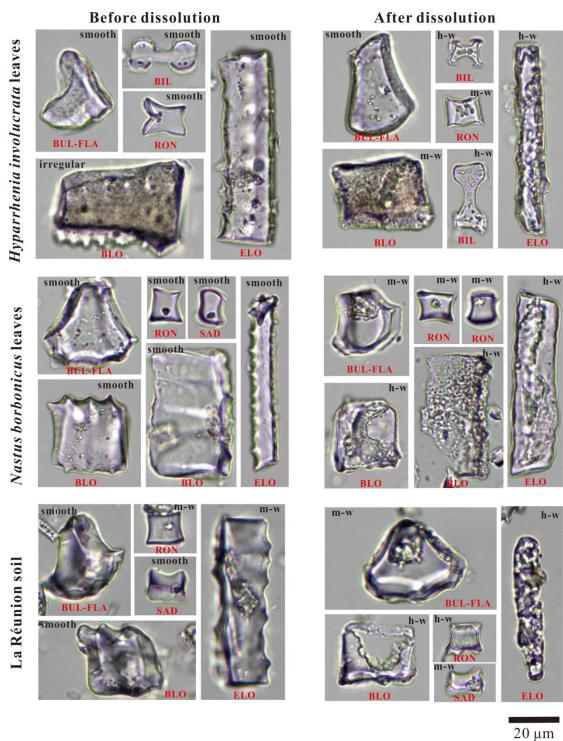
Loss of phytoliths resulting from the dissolution experiments was also shown by values of Phy 238 loss-phy and Phy loss-DSi (Fig. 3a), which showed a strong positive correlation ( $R^2 = 0.95$ , p < 0.001). 239 240 Systematically lower values of Phy loss-DSi compared to Phy loss-phy indicate larger loss when 241 considering phytolith mass for the calculation, possibly due to phytolith losses occurring during 242 processing, particularly when the solution is removed after alkaline extraction. After 1/2 hour of 243 dissolution, Phy loss-DSi was 44% to 80% for plants (phytoliths from leaves of Hyparrhenia 244 involucrata dissolved more than those from Nastus borbonicus), and about 10% for soil and 245 paleosols samples (Fig. 3b). The difference between Phy loss-DSi to Phy loss-phy was least for 246 Hyparrhenia involucrata (+13%), followed by Nastus borbonicus (+44%), La Réunion soil (+90%), 247 and paleosols (+170%). By extending dissolution times, we observed different behaviors between 248 La Réunion soil and Pliocene paleosols. After 4 h, Phy loss-DSi was around 75% for La Réunion soil, 249 close to results at 1/2 h for Hyparrhenia involucrata leaves. However, paleosol phytoliths remained 250 little dissolved even after 16 h (Phy loss-DSi around 10%).

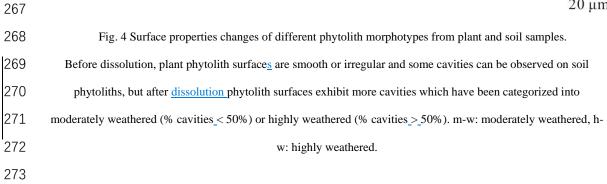
10



264 phytolith surface were observed (Fig. 4). <u>Some morphotypes in the La Réunion soil sample</u> 265 exhibited cavities (Fig. 4). In paleosol samples SA18 and SA28, coalescent cavities were seen on

266 most morphotypes (Fig. 5).

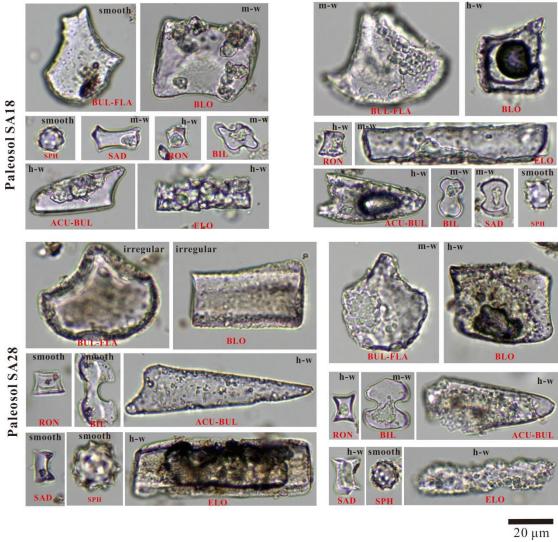


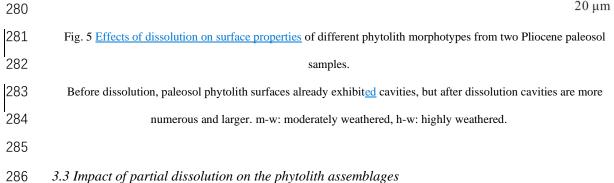


After partial dissolution <u>in 1% Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub></u>, we observe that thinly silicified cell walls, cuticles, shapeless and indefinite pieces of silica, as well as the silicified stomata present in plant phytolith samples have mostly disappeared (Fig. S2), while larger and more numerous cavities up to 20-30 µm diameter have appeared on surfaces of all plant, soil and paleosol phytoliths (Figs. 4-5). Dissolution altered surface of <u>most</u> grass morphotypes <u>in paleosols</u> but <u>had</u> little impact on SPHEROIDs produced by Arecaceae (palms) (Fig. 5).

#### **Before dissolution**

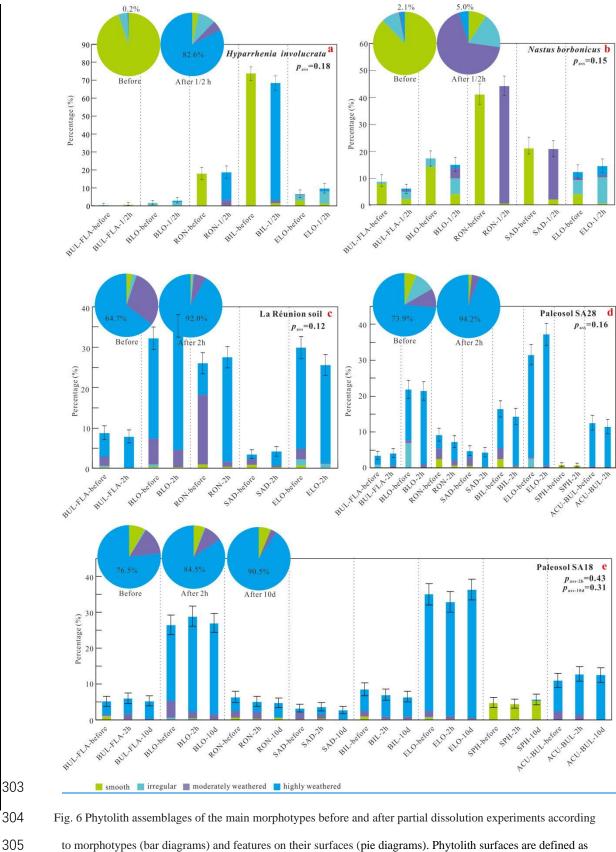
#### After dissolution





After the partial dissolution experiments, well-defined phytolith morphotypes BUL-FLA, BLO, RON, SAD, BIL, ELO, ACU-BUL and SPH were still <u>numerous and</u> recognizable <u>enough to</u> identify and count despite sometimes highly weathered <u>surfaces</u>. Percentages of irregular, moderately and highly weathered morphotypes increased in all plant, soil and paleosol <u>samples</u>. In plant <u>samples</u>, moderately and highly weathered morphotypes represented 0-3% before dissolution, and up to 87% in *Hyparrhenia* and 72% in *Nastus* after partial dissolution, with almost no RON, BIL, SAD and ELO left intact (Figs. 6a-b).

294 Soil and paleosol phytoliths exhibited some cavities before dissolution; after dissolution relative 295 proportions of highly weathered morphotypes increased >27% in La Réunion soil and >20% in 296 paleosol sample SA28 (Figs. 6c-d). Increasing dissolution time increased the proportion of highly 297 weathered morphotypes in paleosol sample SA18 from 76% to 84% and then to 90% (Fig. 6e). 298 However, most SPH phytoliths were remained intact (Figs. 6d-e). As shown by overlapping 299 percentage values and error bars, there were no significant differences between relative abundance 300 of morphotypes in any assemblage, dissolution also did not alter assemblages according to a chi-301 squared test (p > 0.05) before and after partial dissolution (Fig. 6), but phytolith surfaces changed, 302 becoming more deeply perforated (Figs. 4-5).



to morphotypes (bar diagrams) and features on their surfaces (pie diagrams). Phytolith surfaces are defined as
 smooth, irregular, moderately weathered, and highly weathered. In each graph, the pie diagram at the far left
 shows proportions before <u>dissolution times</u> of ½ h for plants, 2 h for soil, and 2h and 10 days for paleosol samples.

308 309 p > 0.05 means no significant changes in phytolith assemblages ( $p_{ass}$ ) before and after partial dissolution.

- 310 Discussion
- 311
- 312 *4.1 Effects of dissolution on phytoliths*

313 Our analysis showed that phytolith dissolution in 1% alkaline solution produces cavities on 314 phytolith surfaces similar to features occurring naturally, as well as to features observed during 315 dissolution experiments using different solutions (Cabanes et al., 2011; Kaczorek et al., 2019; 316 Lisztes-Szabó et al., 2020), suggesting that our experiments mimic natural dissolution processes 317 occurring in various sedimentary and pedological contexts. Dissolution of amorphous silica also occurs in acidic conditions, though acidic conditions compared to alkaline conditions are more 318 319 favorable to phytolith preservation. Moreover, many soil phytoliths are likely to be preserved in 320 organo-mineral aggregates, which we did not address in this study.

321 We observed that thin and small silica particles, very abundant in leaves of Hyparrhenia 322 involucrata and Nastus borbonicus, disappeared after experimental dissolution (Fig S2), more so in 323 the phytolith assemblage of Hyparrhenia compared to Nastus (Figs. 2-3). Comparing grain size 324 evolution of the two plant phytolith assemblages showed that dissolution of the smallest particles 325 (< 2mm) and disaggregation of the largest aggregates (> 1000 mm) favors dominance of 10 mm 326 particles in the Hyparrhenia assemblage and 30 mm and 300 mm particles in the Nastus assemblage. 327 Dissolution creates cavities whose size increases with increasing time of exposure to the alkaline 328 solution. ELONGATE, BLOCKY and BULLIFORM morphotypes exhibited more highly pitted surfaces 329 in soils and sediments than SADDLES and RONDELS, a phenomenon observed elsewhere (e.g., 330 Alexandre et al., 1999; Meunier et al. 1999, Osterrieth et al., 2009), perhaps because pits and cavities 331 may be a feature of weathering that reflects a particular silica structure or density of various 332 phytolith morphotypes. SAD, RON and BIL originate in silica cells, accumulating silica in the cell 333 lumen, while ELO, BUL-FLA and BLO originate from cell walls and include a greater number of 334 various organic molecules, likely weakening the silica structure (Kumar et al., 2016, 2017a, b).

335

Our finding that plant phytoliths dissolve more easily than soil and paleosol phytoliths (Fig. 3) is 337 consistent with previous findings (Cabanes et al., 2011; Fraysse et al. 2009; Meunier et al. 2014), 338 339 also observed for other biogenic silica particles such as diatoms that dissolve faster when compared 340 to those extracted from sediments (Van Cappellen et al., 2002). Fraysse et al. (2006) showed that the specific surface area of phytoliths extracted from *Nastus* is 159.5 m<sup>2</sup>g<sup>-1</sup>, much higher than 5.18 341 342  $m^2g^{-1}$  measured for La Réunion soil phytoliths (Fraysse et al., 2006). This difference likely results 343 from transformation of the siliceous structure of phytoliths during pedogenesis, sedimentation or 344 burial, leading to more resistance to dissolution. Unfortunately, we could not observe transformation 345 of biogenic opal-A into more stable forms of amorphous silica (Kastner and Gieskes, 1983) in 346 paleosol samples due to the dominance of quartz peaks in the XRD spectra. Al, commonly observed 347 on soil phytolith surfaces (Bartoli and Wilding, 1980; Cornelis et al., 2011; Van Cappellen et al., 348 2002), detected on phytolith surfaces of paleosol samples (Fig. 1) may also decrease phytolith 349 sensitivity to dissolution. Al deposition may occur during pedogenesis or sedimentation as 350 suggested by Bartoli (1985), although Al has been detected in phytoliths extracted from plants 351 (Carnelli et al., 2002). Finally, the low dissolution rate of paleosol phytoliths compared to plant and 352 soil phytoliths may be accentuated by the presence of low solubility crystalline aluminosilicate and 353 quartz particles remaining in the sample (Fraysse et al., 2009).

354

#### 355 *4.3 Assessment of phytolith-based paleo-environment reconstruction*

356 We found that while the fragile silica particles almost totally disappeared (Fig. S2), relative 357 abundances of the main phytolith types in an assemblage are not affected by dissolution (Fig. 6). 358 This finding matches Cabanes and Shahack-Gross (2015), who showed that only double peaked 359 husk, long cell wavy, parallelepipedal elongate rugulate phytoliths from rice inflorescences and 360 papillates from sedges (fragile morphotypes not commonly preserved in soils) showed significant proportional change after partial dissolution, while relative abundances of morphotypes such as 361 362 BULLIFORM and GSSCs remained constant. These results strongly indicate that past vegetation 363 reconstructions from phytolith assemblages and phytolith indices are robust (Diester-Haass et al. 364 1973; Twiss, 1992).

365 La Reunion soils <u>probably</u> developed under long-<u>term</u> bamboo vegetation with *Nastus* 

366 borbonicus as dominant species. Meunier et al. (1999) showed that RONDELS and SADDLES (named 367 square and round in Meunier et al. (1999)) occurred in higher proportions in the leaves of Nastus 368 compared to the surface soil, suggesting selective dissolution of these morphotypes. Yost et al. 369 (2021) showed that GSSC phytoliths disappeared prior to ELONGATE and BULLIFORM phytoliths in 370 a continuous sediment core from Lake Baringo, Kenya. They proposed a conceptual model for 371 biogenic silica dissolution succession, suggesting that phytoliths, diatoms, and sponge spicules 372 exhibit more cavities and even disappear when pH increases and also shows that short cells 373 disappear at lower pH than BUL-FLA, BLO and ELO.

374 In our experiments, where we maintained pH at 11.2 (at 85 °C), all morphotypes including short 375 cells, ELO, BLO and BUL-FLA are still present and some do not even show cavities (e.g., SPH). 376 Proportions within the GSSCs and between GSSCs, ELO, BLO, and BUL-FLA are also maintained. 377 Our study does not confirm selective dissolution of common phytolith morphotypes or the model 378 of silica dissolution succession proposed by Yost et al (2021). However, if dissolution experiments 379 had continued considerably longer, we cannot reject they may in fact have been able to confirm the 380 model of Yost et al. (2021). Apart from dissolution, soil and sediment phytolith assemblages can be 381 affected by physical erosion and selective translocation inside the soil column (Alexandre et al., 382 1997; Alexandre et al., 2011; Kaczorek et al., 2019). GSSCs with smaller volume are more easily 383 translocated to deeper layers (Liu et al., 2019) and exported by erosion, likely explaining the over-384 representation of long and/or large particles in some sedimentary levels and soil layers.

<u>Our results indicate</u> that although dissolution <u>kinetics differ between</u> phytolith assemblages, relative proportions of phytolith <u>morpho</u>types <u>typically</u> used for paleoenvironmental reconstruction stay stable. <u>Phytolith assemblages showing dissolution features <u>can</u> still provide significant qualitative information. Other taphonomic processes such as translocation and erosion <u>that may</u> <u>modify</u> phytolith assemblages extracted from soils and sediments should be addressed in future studies.</u>

391

#### 392 Conclusion

393 Our systematic analysis, <u>examining effects</u> of partial alkaline dissolution on plant, soil and 394 paleosol phytolith assemblages by considering phytolith surface features, assemblage changes and Si release, shows that dissolution leads to formation of pits and cavities, an increase in number and size of cavities on phytolith <u>surfaces</u>, as well as rapid loss of thin silica particles such as silicified stomata cells and cell walls. The order of <u>the dissolution rate of phytoliths</u> is plant > soil > paleosol.
Pedogenic and burial processes lead to stable phytolith assemblages. Dissolution does not significantly change relative proportions of stable phytolith morphotypes within an assemblage, <u>supporting</u> the robustness of past vegetation interpretations inferred from phytolith assemblages.

401

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