

## Changes in soil organic carbon of terrestrial ecosystems in China: A mini-review

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Received February 9, 2010; accepted March 10, 2010

The present study provides an overview of existing literature on changes in soil organic carbon (SOC) of various terrestrial ecosystems in China. Datasets from the literature suggest that SOC stocks in forest, grassland, shrubland and cropland increased between the early 1980s and the early 2000s, amounting to  $(71\pm 19)$  Tg·a<sup>-1</sup>. Conversion of marshland to cropland in the Sanjiang Plain of northeast China resulted in SOC loss of  $(6\pm 2)$  Tg·a<sup>-1</sup> during the same period. Nevertheless, large uncertainties exist in these estimates, especially for the SOC changes in the forest, shrubland and grassland. To reduce uncertainty, we suggest that future research should focus on: (i) identifying land use changes throughout China with high spatiotemporal resolution, and measuring the SOC loss and sequestration due to land use change; (ii) estimating the changes in SOC of shrubland and non-forest trees (i.e., cash, shelter and landscape trees); (iii) quantifying the impacts of grassland management on the SOC pool; (iv) evaluating carbon changes in deep soil layers; (v) projecting SOC sequestration potential; and (vi) developing carbon budget models for better estimating the changes in SOC of terrestrial ecosystems in China.

**change, China, soil organic carbon, terrestrial ecosystem, uncertainty**

**Citation:** Huang Y, Sun W J, Zhang W, *et al.* Changes in soil organic carbon of terrestrial ecosystems in China: A mini-review. *Sci China Life Sci*, 2010, 53: 766–775, doi: 10.1007/s11427-010-4022-4

As a consequence of human activity, the atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) concentration has increased from a pre-industrial value of 280 to 385 ppmv in 2008 [1]. The fourth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) pointed out that most of the observed increase in global average temperatures since the mid-20th century is very likely due to the observed increase in anthropogenic greenhouse gas concentrations [2]. Moreover, model projections based on various SRES (Special Report on Emissions Scenarios) suggest that the global average temperature would likely increase by 1.1°C to 6.4°C by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century [2]. The rise in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is mainly attributed to an increase in global consumption of fossil fuels, although terrestrial eco-

systems do play an important role in mitigating atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> via plant photosynthesis. Over the period 2000–2005, global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from fossil fuel consumption and cement production averaged 7.2 Pg C·a<sup>-1</sup> (1 Pg=10<sup>12</sup> kg), and the global terrestrial carbon sink averaged 0.9 Pg C·a<sup>-1</sup> [2], offsetting 12.5% of the CO<sub>2</sub> emission.

World soils hold 1500 Pg [3] of organic carbon in the terrestrial systems; twice that in the atmosphere, and 2–4 times that in the terrestrial biomass [4,5]. The soil organic carbon (SOC) stocks in China were estimated to be 70–90 Pg in the early 1980s [6–9]. Changes in SOC stocks affect the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration [10,11]. Any practices that increase the photosynthetic input of carbon (C) into the soils or slow the release of soil C, will increase the amount of stored carbon, thereby sequestering C from the atmosphere. Since the industrial revolution, global land use

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change and agricultural cultivation have induced C losses of  $(136\pm 55)$  Pg [12]. According to Lal [13], the global potential for soil carbon sequestration could reach 0.4–1.2 Pg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$ , offsetting 5%–15% of fossil fuel  $CO_2$  emissions.

Climate change, induced by increasing atmospheric  $CO_2$  and other greenhouse gases, has affected human well-being, and sustainable social and economic development. To mitigate the increase of atmospheric  $CO_2$ , the improvement of SOC sequestration has been gaining international interest [14]. Over the last decade, Chinese scientists have made great efforts to evaluate SOC changes in various terrestrial ecosystems. This paper provides an overview of existing literature on SOC changes in forest, grassland, shrubland, cropland and wetland in China. We attempt to clarify the changes in SOC over the last three decades, evaluate uncertainties in the estimated SOC change, and address future research needs.

## 1 Changes in SOC

### 1.1 Forest

China has a large area of plantation forests, and the forest area ranks fifth in the world. According to the 6<sup>th</sup> national forest inventory (completed during 1999–2003) [15], the forest area was 174.9 Mha and the forest coverage was 18.2% of China, which was 59.6 Mha and 6.2% higher, respectively, than those in the 2<sup>nd</sup> national forest inventory (completed during 1977–1981).

Changes in forest SOC estimated by various researchers, are widely divergent (Table 1). Based on a multiple regression equation of SOC that depends on a normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) and climatic factors (temperature and precipitation), Piao *et al.* [16] estimated an increased rate of  $(4.0\pm 4.1)$  Tg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$  (1 Tg=10<sup>9</sup> kg) between 1982 and 1999. By adopting the rate of SOC sequestration in European forests, Xie *et al.* [9] estimated that forest soils in China have sequestered carbon over the last two decades by an annual amount of 11.7 Tg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$ . Simulations using a biogeochemical model (InTEC) suggest that forest SOC increased at a rate of 7.84 Tg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$  during 1950–1987, but declined sharply at a rate of 61.54 Tg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$  during 1988–

2001 [17]. Chen *et al.* [18] estimated that Chinese forest soils lost 6.0 Tg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$  based on a model simulation. As for SOC density, the estimated SOC change by Xie *et al.* [9] agrees with that by Piao *et al.* [16] over a similar period (Table 1).

Forest types in China show great diversity and are distributed across a vast area spanning wide ranges of temperate, subtropical and tropical climates. The major types of forest from the north to the south of China are coniferous, conifer-broadleaf mixed, evergreen-broadleaf, monsoon and rain forests. Although Shao *et al.* [19] calibrated the InTEC model using the measurements of forest SOC at two sites (Liping County, Guizhou Province in southwest China and Changbai Mountain in northeast China), such a limited calibration could not allow for upscaling the model to all the forests across China. Estimates using the InTEC model (Table 1) may remain uncertain due to insufficient calibration and validation. The model simulations by Chen *et al.* [18] did not take into account reforestation and afforestation in China, also resulting in an improper estimate. However, disregarding the model's limitations, the changes in SOC density of Chinese forest was calculated to be  $(36\pm 33)$  kg  $a^{-1}$  when taking both estimates by Xie *et al.* [9] and Piao *et al.* [16] into account. Using the forest area of 130 Mha (mean of 1980–2000) [16], the SOC sequestration rate in China was estimated to be  $(4.7\pm 4.3)$  Tg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$ , which is mainly attributed to reforestation and afforestation [20,21].

### 1.2 Grassland

Natural grassland in China is approximately 400 Mha, accounting for 41.7% of the nation [15]. The majority of grassland is distributed in the western and northern regions, with northern grassland accounting for approximately 78% of the total grassland in China [22]. Although grassland in China plays an important role in carbon cycling, few studies have been dedicated to estimating the changes in grassland SOC on a national scale. Based on a multiple regression equation of SOC that is driven by NDVI and climatic factors, Piao *et al.* [16] estimated that the rate of increase of SOC in Chinese grassland (331 Mha) was  $(6.0\pm 1.0)$  Tg  $C\cdot a^{-1}$  between 1982 and 1999. However, no significant

**Table 1** Estimated changes in SOC of Chinese forests

| Period      | Acreage /Mha | Soil depth /cm | Changes in SOC         |                                | Method                                  | Reference |
|-------------|--------------|----------------|------------------------|--------------------------------|---|-----------|
|             |              |                | C storage /Tg $a^{-1}$ | C density /kg $ha^{-1} a^{-1}$ |   |           |
| 1980s–2000s | 249          | NA*            | 11.72                  | 47                             | Rate of SOC change $\times$ Forest area | [9]       |
| 1982–1999   | 130          | NA             | 4.0 $\pm$ 4.1          | 31 $\pm$ 32                    | Statistic model                         | [16]      |
| 1950–1987   | 167          | 0–30           | 7.84                   | 47                             | Biogeochemical model (InTEC)            | [17]      |
| 1988–2001   | 167          | 0–30           | –61.54                 | –368                           | Biogeochemical model (InTEC)            | [17]      |
| 1982–2002   | 130          | NA             | –6.00                  | –46                            | Biogeochemical model (FORCCHN)          | [18]      |

\* Not available.

changes in SOC of northern grassland and Qinghai-Tibetan alpine grassland (total 196 Mha) were found over the same period by Yang *et al.* [23,24] who analyzed a large number of field measurements. This is inconsistent with Piao *et al.* [16]. Using carbon sink ratios for Europe where the soil carbon sink accounts for 30% of the total carbon sink [25] and for the United States where the soil carbon sink is about two-thirds of the vegetation carbon sink [26], we estimated the soil carbon sink to range from 3 to 4.7 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> in Chinese grasslands when a vegetation carbon sink of 7 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> (mean of 1981–2000) [21] was adopted. Merging these two values and the estimate by Piao *et al.* [16], the rate of increase in SOC stocks in Chinese grasslands was estimated to be (4.9±1.6) Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup>, but uncertainties still exist in this estimate.

### 1.3 Cropland

China is a typical agricultural country, with arable land of 130 Mha and an annual harvest area of 150 Mha. Compared with natural ecosystems, SOC in cropland shows great sensitivity to human activities such as tillage, fertilization and irrigation. With the adoption of recommended management practices, the global potential of C sequestration was estimated to be 0.4–0.9 Pg C·a<sup>-1</sup> in agricultural soils [13,27].

By a synthetical analysis of datasets extracted from 132 publications, Huang and Sun [28] reported that the concentration of SOC increased in 53%–59%, decreased in 30%–31% and stabilized in 4%–6% of the national croplands. As a whole, the cultivated layer (0–20 cm) of cropland soils in China sequestered 15–20 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> between 1980 and 2000 [28]. A further investigation showed that the average rate of SOC sequestration in the topsoil to ~30 cm depth ranged from 16.6–27.8 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> over the same period [29]. Recent estimates of SOC sequestration in Chinese cropland made by Xie *et al.* [9], Lu *et al.* [30], Yu *et al.* [31] and Pan *et al.* [32] are similar to estimates by Huang and Sun [28]. By running a biogeophysical model Agro-C [34] that has been widely validated in China, Huang *et al.* [33]

estimated that the annual rate of increase of SOC in Chinese croplands was 14.5–20.3 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> from 1980 to 2000.

Combining the estimates from various studies (Table 2), the increase in SOC density was estimated to be (167±33) kg·ha<sup>-1</sup>·a<sup>-1</sup> over the last two decades. Accordingly, the average rate of SOC sequestration in Chinese cropland that covers an area of over 130 Mha was (21.7±4.3) Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> during this period. This is substantially attributed to the improvements in crop production [35], residue incorporation, manure amendment and extension of zero and reduced tillage practices [28,30].

### 1.4 Shrubland and wetland

Shrubland is a widely distributed biome type in China, covering about 200 Mha [16,21]. However, few studies have dealt with the changes in vegetation and soil carbon. By employing a multiple regression equation of SOC that is driven by NDVI, temperature and precipitation, Piao *et al.* [16] reported that the increase in SOC of shrubland (215 Mha) in China averaged (39.4±9.0) Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> during 1982–1999, which is higher than that of forest (Table 1), grassland and cropland (Table 2). By examining the regression equation [16], it appears that NDVI contributes greatly to the increased SOC. However, this statistical equation is only able to interpret 33% of the observed SOC variation. Estimates using this type of regression equation do not provide a high level of confidence.

Wetland in China is about 65.9 Mha excluding rivers and ponds, of which natural wetland is ~25.9 Mha. Marshland is the largest natural wetland in China, covering an area of ~12 Mha [36]. The Sanjiang Plain, located in northeast China, was formerly the largest marshland complex with a total area of 5.35 Mha in the early 1950s. An estimated ~3 million ha of marshland in this region was converted to cropland over the period 1950–2000 [36–38]. According to Huang *et al.* [38] and Liu *et al.* [39], marshland conversion resulted in a loss of 218–240 Tg SOC during this period. The annual carbon loss was estimated to be (6.2±1.8) Tg·a<sup>-1</sup>

**Table 2** Changes in SOC of Chinese croplands

| Period      | Area /Mha | Soil depth /cm | Changes in SOC                |   | Method                        | Reference |
|-------------|-----------|----------------|-------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|-----------|
|             |           |                | C storage /Tg·a <sup>-1</sup> | C density /kg·ha <sup>-1</sup> ·a <sup>-1</sup> |                               |           |
| 1980–2000   | 118       | 20             | 15.6–20.1                     | 132–170   | Meta-analysis                 | [28]      |
| 1980s–2000s | 156       | ~20            | 23.6                          | 151   | Meta-analysis                 | [9]       |
| 1980–2000   | 130       | 30             | 16.6–27.8                     | 128–214   | Meta-analysis                 | [29]      |
| 2000s       | 118       | NA*            | 16.5                          | 140   | Statistical model             | [30]      |
| 1985–2006   | 130       | 20             | 22.2–27.6                     | 171–212   | Meta-analysis                 | [32]      |
| 1980–2000   | 98        | 30             | 14.5–20.3                     | 148–207   | Biogeophysical model (Agro-C) | [33]      |

\* Not available.

between 1980 and 2000 [38].

## 2 Uncertainties

### 2.1 Land use change

Land use/cover change is one of the key driving forces of carbon cycling in terrestrial ecosystems. Conversion of one land use to another might lead to a change in SOC storage. As far as the impact of land use change on the terrestrial carbon budget is concerned, conversions among forest, grassland and cropland have been given special attention [51–53].

Using forest inventory data for the periods of 1989–1993 and 1999–2003, Fang *et al.* [21] estimated that the forest (20% canopy coverage) area in China increased by 11 Mha between the two periods. By contrast, Liu *et al.* [53] who used Landsat™ images in 1990 and 2000 reported that the forest and grassland areas decreased by 1.0 Mha and 3.35 Mha, respectively, and the cropland area increased by 4.05 Mha between 1990 and 2000. The conversion of forest and grassland to cropland resulted in a SOC loss of 74.9 Tg and 87.4 Tg, respectively, during this period [53]. The average loss of SOC is thus  $7.5 \text{ Tg}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$  and  $8.7 \text{ Tg}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$ , respectively, which is even higher than the estimated SOC sequestration in forests by Piao *et al.* [16] (Table 1).

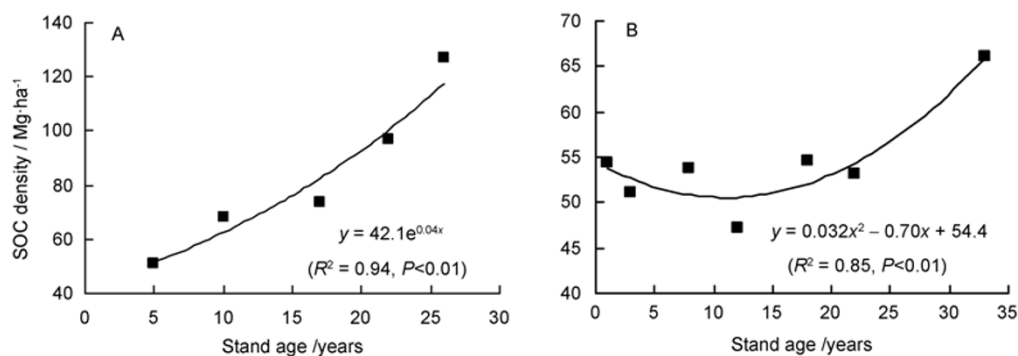
A large number of studies have indicated an improvement in vegetation and soil C accumulation when conversion of cropland to forest, afforestation and reforestation are implemented [54–59]. Zhou *et al.* [60] reported that old-growth forests (stand age greater than 400 years) in southern China can still accumulate carbon in soils at  $610 \text{ kg C}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$ . A meta-analysis of large datasets by Post and Kwon suggested that conversion of cropland to woodland could accumulate C at an average rate of  $33.8 \text{ g C}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$ , lasting 50–100 years [61], while conversion of grassland to pine forest led to SOC loss [62]. Duan *et al.* [63] reported that SOC in a *Cryptomeria fortunei* plantation in Sichuan Province increased with stand age (Figure 1A), but Wang *et al.* [64] found that conversion of cropland to woodland in

Jilin Province reduced SOC during the initial years of the plantation (Figure 1B). Similar results have been reported by Paul *et al.* [65], Huang *et al.* [66] and Bai *et al.* [67].

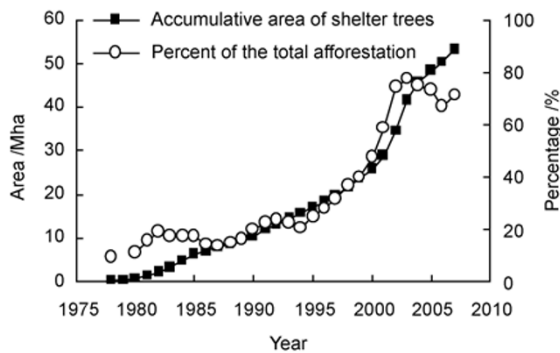
The afforestation area of cash, shelter and landscape trees in China increased significantly in the last three decades. Taking the shelter trees as an example, the area of plantation increased by 53 Mha from 1978 to 2007 [68]. During the period of 2003–2007, the plantations of shelter trees accounted for 73% of the national afforestation (Figure 2). Although the afforestation of cash, shelter and landscape trees in China may have increased C accumulation in soils [69–71], the rates of SOC accumulation are far from understood.

### 2.2 Grassland management

Over the last three decades, overgrazing and irrational reclamation of grassland have become increasingly serious issues in China. Overgrazing has been recognized as a principal factor in the degradation of Chinese grassland [22]. According to the 2006 Report on the State Environment in China, 204 counties in 266 semi-pastoral and semi-agricultural regions were overgrazed. On average, the livestock density in natural grassland was ~34% higher than that for normal grazing [15]. The degradation rate of grassland was estimated to be  $1.3 \text{ Mha}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$  in the late 1980s and  $2.0 \text{ Mha}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$  in the early 2000s. As a result, about 90% of the natural grassland in China has degraded to some degree [20]. In the major pastoral region of north China, degraded grassland accounted for 39.7% of the total available grassland in the mid-1980s. This value increased to 50.2% in the mid-1990s when the pastures with light, moderate and heavy grazing accounted for 57.3%, 30.5% and 12.2% of the total degraded grassland [72], respectively. To prevent grassland from further degradation, the Chinese government has implemented a comprehensive program. For example, the enclosed area of grassland was 52.5 Mha, and the areas where grazing was forbidden and rest-rotation grazing management was performed amounted to 86.6 Mha until 2006 [20].



**Figure 1** Changes in woodland SOC with different stand age. (A) *Cryptomeria fortunei* at Pengzhou County, Sichuan Province. Data source: Duan *et al.* [63]; (B) *Larix olgensis* at Dunhua, Jilin Province. Data source: Wang *et al.* [64].



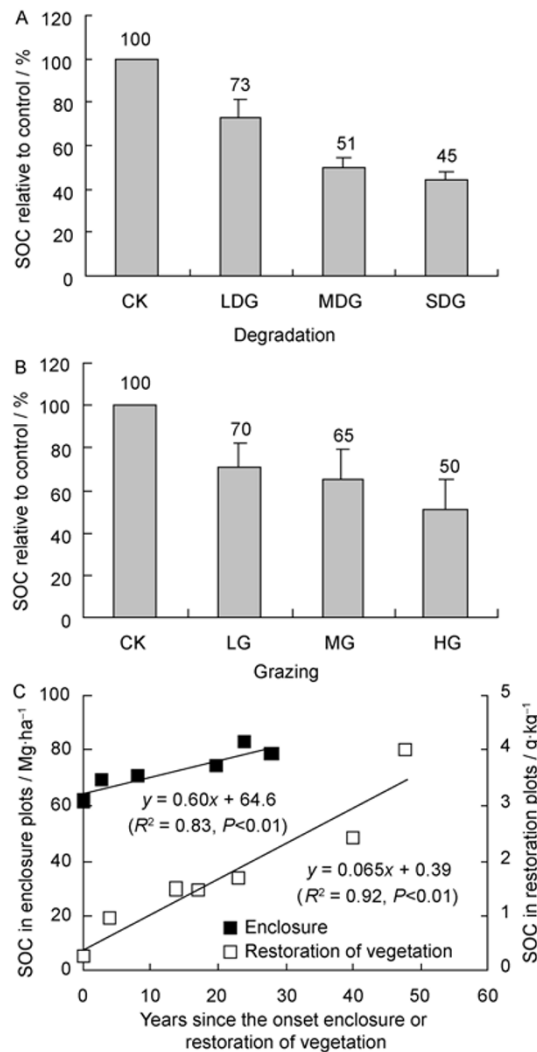
**Figure 2** Plantation area of shelter trees and its percentage of the total afforestation area in China, 1978–2007. Data source: National Bureau of Statistics of China [68].

Grassland degradation induces a loss of SOC [73,74]. Analysis of paired datasets extracted from the literature [75–78], showed that SOC stocks in the lightly, moderately and severely degraded pastures were  $(27\pm 8)\%$ ,  $(49\pm 4)\%$  and  $(55\pm 3)\%$ , respectively, lower than that in non-degraded pasture (Figure 3A). The SOC also declined significantly with increasing grazing intensity [79–82]. SOC stocks in the lightly, moderately and heavily grazed pastures were  $(30\pm 12)\%$ ,  $(35\pm 14)\%$  and  $(50\pm 15)\%$ , respectively, lower than that in non-grazing pasture (Figure 3B). In degraded grasslands, enclosures not only promoted plant growth but also improved SOC accumulation [83–89]. The SOC was found to increase by 28% after 20 years of enclosure, and by 1.6 and 4.5 times after 14–23 and 40–50 years of vegetation restoration, respectively, when compared with that in the initial 0–4 years (Figure 3C).

A meta-analysis by Shi *et al.* [92] indicated that SOC in the light-, moderate-, heavy- and over-grazed grasslands changed at the rates of  $-0.54$  (range of  $0.04 - -1.94$ ),  $-0.49$  (range of  $-0.42 - -3$ ),  $-1.52$  (range of  $-0.52 - -3.75$ ) and  $-2.34$  (range of  $-0.85 - -5.62$ )  $\text{Mg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$ , respectively. Enclosure and grazing forbidden areas were found to promote SOC accumulation at the rates of  $0.48$  ( $0.28-2.23$ ) and  $0.19$  ( $0.04-0.68$ )  $\text{Mg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$ , respectively [92]. Shi *et al.* [92] reported that the losses of SOC in the grassland with various grazing intensities exceeded the SOC increase in enclosure and grazing forbidden grassland. Although there is substantive evidence that human activities have significantly affected SOC stocks in China's grasslands over the last three decades, the quantities of human-induced SOC changes have not been determined on a national scale.

### 2.3 Organic carbon change in deep soil layers

The estimates of SOC change have generally focused on surface soil layers (Tables 1 and 2), but changes in organic carbon may occur in deep soil layers. Boddey *et al.* [93] analyzed the paired datasets of long-term field experiments conducted in different regions of Brazil, and found that there were significant accumulations of SOC in zero-till soils, when studying the soil profile down to 100 cm depth.

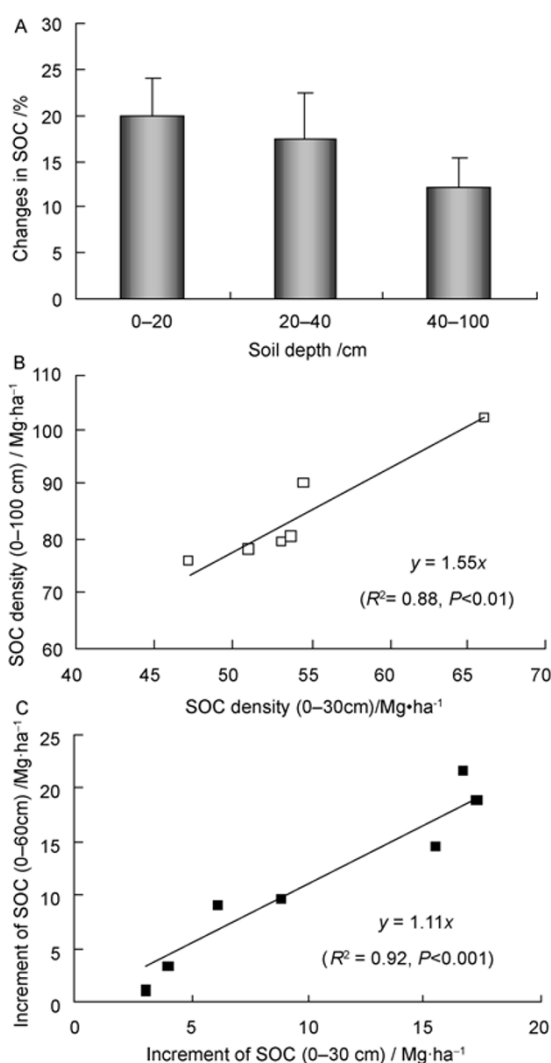


**Figure 3** Impact of degradation, grazing and grassland management on SOC. (A) SOC in grassland with different degrees of degradation. LDG, MDG and SDG represent the lightly, moderately and severely degraded grassland, respectively. CK is the non-degraded grassland. Data sources: Qiu *et al.* [75], Liu *et al.* [76], Zhou *et al.* [77] and Wang *et al.* [78]. (B) Impact of grazing intensity on SOC. LG, MG and HG refer to the light, moderate and heavy grazing grassland, respectively. CK is the non-grazing grassland. Data sources: Pei *et al.* [79], Dong *et al.* [81] and Qiu *et al.* [82]. (C) Impact of grassland enclosure and vegetation restoration on SOC. Data sources: Wu *et al.* [90] and Jia *et al.* [91].

On average SOC accumulation to 100 cm depth was 59% greater than that to a depth of 30 cm [93]. However, other studies suggested that an increase in SOC occurred only in the upper soil layers when no-tillage was practiced [94,95].

Due to limitations in human and financial resources, less attention has been directed to the accumulation and decomposition of carbon in deep soil layers. Analysis of limited data from the literature [64,96–100] suggests that the accumulation of organic carbon may occur in deep soil layers when agricultural management is optimized and cropland is converted to woodland or grassland (Figure 4). Optimizing fertilization (i.e. optimal combination of NPK, synthetic

fertilizer plus manure) increased SOC by ~12% (Figure 4A) in the soil layers as deep as 40–100 cm. The SOC accumulation to 100 cm depth was 55% greater than that to a depth of 30 cm when cropland was reverted back into woodland (Figure 4B). Similarly, the increase in SOC to 60 cm depth was 11% higher than that to a depth of 30 cm when measured 12 years after cropland was reverted back into grassland (Figure 4C). Thus, there is reason to presume that the SOC accumulation in China may have been underestimated.



**Figure 4** Influence of managements on the SOC change in different soil layers. (A) Fertilization impact on changes in SOC (5 experimental sites with 17 treatments). To make comparisons, changes in SOC were expressed as a percentage. For instance, the SOC change in the plots received chemical fertilizer and organic manure was calculated relative to the plots receiving chemical fertilizer only by  $(SOC_{CF+OM} - SOC_{CF})/SOC_{CF} \times 100\%$ , where  $SOC_{CF+OM}$  and  $SOC_{CF}$  represent SOC content or density in the plots receiving chemical fertilizer and organic manure, and chemical fertilizer only, respectively. Data sources: Gu *et al.* [96], Fan *et al.* [97] and Shi *et al.* [98]. (B) Relationship of SOC density to 100 cm with that to 30 cm after 3–33 years of reverting cropland to woodland (*Larix olgensis*). Data source: Wang *et al.* [64]. (C) Relationship of SOC increment to 60 cm with that to 30 cm after 12 years of reverting cropland to grassland with different management practices. The SOC increment is calculated by SOC relative to mowing treatment. Data source: Franzluebbers and Stuedemann [99].

## 2.4 Approaches to the estimation of SOC change

Changes in SOC are usually estimated by using the measurements of SOC over a significant period [101]. The measurement-based approach needs a much higher density of monitoring sites to ensure that they are representative of the actual range of environmental and management conditions. Theoretically speaking, more sites in a given area lead to better representation, but this is difficult to put into practice. In general, the precision of measurement could be improved with an increased number of monitoring sites. The monitoring sites would exponentially increase for an improvement in the precision [102]. To reduce uncertainties in the estimates of SOC change, measurements should be made at a sufficient number of sites, allowing for upscaling of these site-specific measurements to a finite area [24,103]. Unfortunately, the measurements of SOC in woodland and shrubland in the 2000s are rather deficient in China, which inevitably introduces errors into measurement-based estimates.

There is an effective approach to evaluating the impact of land-use conversion or management measures on terrestrial carbon balance, which is based on the analysis of a large number of literature datasets [28–32,59,92]. Laganière *et al.* [59] extracted 189 paired datasets from publications. These datasets included the SOC accumulation in 120 monitoring sites distributed globally where the cropland and grassland were converted to woodland. A meta-analysis of these datasets suggested that key factors controlling SOC restoration were the land use before conversion, tree species, climate, and soil clay fraction [59].

Model estimation of terrestrial carbon budgets is becoming increasingly popular on regional and global scales, but the validity of the models, utility of model input parameters, and upscaling processes may restrict the accuracy of the estimates [33,104,105]. Piao *et al.* [16] developed regression models to estimate the changes in SOC. These models took temperature, precipitation and biomass production into account, but explained only 23%–53% of the variation in the observed values for SOC storage. Upscaling of these models to a national scale will no doubt yield low reliability of the estimates.

Using a biogeochemical model DNDC and 1990 conditions, Li *et al.* [106] estimated that China's croplands lost 95 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup>, being equivalent to 1.6% of their SOC (0–30 cm), and that U.S. cropland lost 7 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup>. By contrast, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency estimated that agricultural soils in U.S. sequestered 15.7 Tg C·a<sup>-1</sup> in 1990 [107]. Examining the estimates of DNDC, we concluded that the amount of carbon input in China's croplands may have been underestimated. Based on 2112 measurements at 300 agrometeorological stations across China, Zhang and Zhu [108] reported that the ratio of aboveground residue to crop yield, ranged from 1.30 to 2.99 for the majority of crops, while the ratio derived from the DNDC simulation was 0.94–0.97.

The low ratio of aboveground residue to crop yield could have resulted in an underestimation of the residue production, which consequently led to a reduction of residue carbon input in the DNDC simulation. Moreover, the ratio of root to shoot ranged from 0.07 to 0.11 for the majority of crops in China [109], while the derived ratio from DNDC simulation was 0.057–0.060. The estimated loss of SOC using DNDC [107] may be largely attributed to an underestimation of organic carbon input in the model simulation.

### 3 Conclusions and perspectives

There have been significant changes in SOC stocks in terrestrial ecosystems in China over the last three decades. The average rate of SOC sequestration from the early 1980s to early 2000s was  $4.7 \pm 4.3 \text{ Tg} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$  in woodland (124–143 Mha),  $4.9 \pm 1.6 \text{ Tg} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$  in grassland (331 Mha),  $(39.4 \pm 9.0) \text{ Tg} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$  in shrubland (200 Mha) and  $(21.7 \pm 4.3) \text{ Tg} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$  in cropland (130 Mha), giving a total of  $(71 \pm 19) \text{ Tg} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$ . Conversion of marshland to cropland in the Sanjiang Plain of northeast China resulted in SOC losses of  $(6 \pm 2) \text{ Tg} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$  during the same period. Nevertheless, large uncertainties exist in these estimates. These uncertainties come primarily from the identification of land use change, the impacts of cropland and grassland management on SOC, and the estimation of organic carbon change in deep soil layers. When terrestrial carbon models were used to estimate the changes in SOC, validity of the models, utility of the model input parameters, and upscaling processes restricted the accuracy of the estimates.

To objectively estimate the changes in SOC stocks of Chinese terrestrial ecosystems and reduce uncertainties in the estimates, future research should focus on the following aspects:

(i) Land use change and its impact on SOC. Conversions among woodland, grassland and cropland lead to changes in SOC with temporal continuity [53,59,61–65]. Landsat data have been used to identify land use change with high temporal resolution, which makes it possible to estimate SOC change with temporal continuity [53].

(ii) Impact of grassland management on the SOC pool. Overgrazing has been recognized as a principal factor in the degradation of Chinese grassland. To prevent grassland from further degradation, the Chinese government has taken a series of measures, including enclosure of grassland, rest-rotation and forbidding grazing management [15]. The impacts of grassland degradation and restoration on the SOC pool should be quantitatively evaluated on a national scale.

(iii) Estimation of SOC changes in shrubland and non-forest woodland. Shrubbyland in China is widely distributed and restores quickly, suggesting an important potential carbon sink [21]. However, such a carbon sink is far from being understood [21]. The planted area of cash trees, shelter trees and landscape trees has increased significantly over

the last three decades [68], which may have promoted carbon accumulation not only in vegetation, but also in the soil. Taking into account SOC accumulation in these areas, the SOC sequestration in Chinese woodland should be higher than the current estimates, but this needs to be clarified.

(iv) Measurement and evaluation of changes in SOC in deep soil layers. There is evidence that the conversion of one land-use type to another, and changing field management, alters the carbon balance in deep soil layers. Insufficient measurements of SOC down to significant soil depths make it extremely difficult, or even impossible, to fully take into account SOC changes on a national scale. Hence, more effort should be made in the measurement, and the evaluation, of changes in SOC in deep soil layers.

(v) Evaluation of soil C sequestration potential. According to the National Plan for Ecological and Environmental Protection, the Forestry Action Plan on Climate Change, and the National Plan for Food Production and Development (2006–2020), the Chinese government has been implementing the Grain-to-Green program (i.e. reversion of cropland to woodland or grassland), making considerable efforts in controlling soil erosion and desertification, constructing man-made pastures, improving grassland, increasing crop residue retention, and extending conservation tillage in agriculture. All of these will no doubt promote SOC sequestration. Evaluation of SOC sequestration potential is of great importance for a mitigation policy developed from the best available knowledge on the terrestrial carbon balance in China.

(vi) Model development and application. Model estimations of terrestrial carbon budgets are becoming increasingly significant on regional and global scales [52]. Models not only help to quantify the spatiotemporal changes in terrestrial carbon balance in the past and at the present, but are able to evaluate carbon sequestration potential and project future changes. In recent years, several terrestrial ecosystem models have been developed in China. The validity and utility of these models need to be further improved, especially when extrapolating them to a wider domain [33]. Moreover, the uncertainties of existing model estimates should be quantified.

*This work was jointly supported by the A3 Foresight Program (Grant No. 30721140306), National Science Foundation of China, the Knowledge Innovation Program (Grant No. KZCX2-YW-Q1-15), Chinese Academy of Sciences, and the National High-Tech Research and Development Program of China (Grant No. 2009AA12Z1462).*

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