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Large-scale soil organic carbon mapping based on multivariate modelling: The case of grasslands on the Loess Plateau

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1 | INTRODUCTION

Abstract

The Loess Plateau is considered one of the world's regions with severe soil erosion. Grasslands are widely distributed on the Loess Plateau, accounting for approximately 40% of the total area. Soil organic carbon (SOC) plays an important role in the terrestrial carbon cycle in this region. We compiled more than 1,000 measurements of plant biomass and SOC content derived from 223 field studies of grasslands on the Loess Plateau. Combined with meteorological factors (precipitation and air temperature) and the photosynthetically active radiation factor, the topsoil SOC contents of grasslands were predicted using the random forest (RF) regression algorithm. Predicted grassland SOC content (1.70-40.34 g kg⁻¹) decreased from the southeast to the northwest of the Loess Plateau, with approximately 1/5 of the grassland exhibiting values lower than 4 g kg⁻¹. Observed SOC content was positively correlated with observed plant biomass, and for predicted values, this correlation was strong in the desert steppe and the steppe desert of rocky mountains. Air temperature was the most important factor affecting SOC contents in the RF model. Moreover, the residual error of observations and predictions increased as the grazing intensity varied from none to very severe in the temperate desert steppe, and this RF model may not perform well in plains. The use of the RF model for SOC prediction in Loess Plateau grasslands provides a reference for C storage studies in arid and semi-arid regions, and aboveground biomass and temperature should receive more attention due to increasing C sequestration.

KEYWORDS

aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, grassland, Loess Plateau, soil organic carbon

Terrestrial soil stores large amounts of carbon (C) and constitutes one of the primary atmospheric C pools (Eswaran et al., 2000; Q. Li, Yu, Li, Zhou, & Chen, 2014). Soil organic carbon (SOC) plays non-negligible roles in C cycling and mitigating global warming (Davidson & Janssens, 2006; Lal, 2004; Post & Kwon, 2000). Soil erosion is recognized as a key driver of SOC dynamics (Lal, 2005; Starr et al., 2000), and redistribution of SOC is one cause of decreased soil quality (Dominati, Mackay, & Patterson, 2010). Furthermore, soil erosion or SOC redistribution is closely related to land degradation and could be used as an indicator of land degradation (Vågen, Winowiecki, Abegaz, & Hadgu, 2013). Over the last 10 years, reliable measurement of SOC and related C pools at different spatial scales has remained a challenge (Lal, 2009). This challenge is not only due to the limitations of traditional observation methods but also due to the immaturity and uncertainty of new methods, such as the introduction of data mining techniques for estimation.

Applying data mining techniques in simulations of SOC content has become a popular methodology. Ancillary factors are indispensable in these simulations. Geomorphology affects SOC content, and Kuhn, Hoffmann, Schwanghart, and Dotterweich (2009) proposed an ecogeomorphologic approach to study the movement of organic C through landscapes. Specifically, elevation can be regarded as an ancillary factor in SOC content simulation (Cécillon et al., 2009). In addition to elevation, vegetation types and coverage also control SOC content (Ding, Yang, Song, & Zhang, 2012; Neufeldt, Resck, & Ayarza, 2002; S. W. Zhang et al., 2013). Other natural factors, such as rainfall (Beguería, Angulo-Martínez, Gaspar, & Navas, 2015; Chamizo, Rodríguez-Caballero, Román, & Cantón, 2017) and temperature (Ghosh et al., 2016; Qi et al., 2016), have varying effects on SOC content. Concerning human factors, land use has the greatest effect on the SOC pool (Gelaw, Singh, & Lal, 2014). In cropping systems, the cover cropping frequency (Brennan & Acosta-Martinez, 2017), long-term fertilization (J. Zhang, Hu, Li, Zheng, & Li, 2017), and winter tillage (G. S. Zhang & Ni, 2017) are the main drivers of SOC content dynamics. In grasslands, grazing is the main driver of the SOC pool (W. Li, Cao, et al., 2017; Stavi, Argaman, & Zaady, 2016). Beginning in 1999, the Chinese government implemented the "Grain for Green" project, aimed at improving the ecological environment in arid and semi-arid regions (L. Wang, Wei, Horton, & Shao, 2011). Under this programme, croplands have been converted to grasslands and forests as a systematic management measure, and grazing has been inhibited in closed areas. As of 2013, these vegetation restoration measures had primarily been successful, and the vegetation coverage on the Loess Plateau had doubled compared with the 1900s (Chen et al., 2015). As grassland afforestation is a main aim of the "Grain for Green" programme on the Loess Plateau (Q. Li et al., 2016; K. Zhang, Dang, Tan, Cheng, & Zhang, 2010; B. Zhang, He, Burnham, & Zhang, 2016), it is necessary to understand the present situation regarding soil quality, especially concerning the SOC contents of grasslands. However, it remains challenging to effectively estimate the SOC content of grasslands at this large scale. To solve this problem, attempts have been made to employ remote sensing (RS) images for such analyses.

RS has greatly contributed to SOC mapping (Grinand et al., 2017; Maynard & Levi, 2017). To integrate multivariate factors acquired using RS data, random forest (RF) models can be employed. RF models are a type of multidecision tree model whose advantages include the ability to model numerical and categorical factors without considering the multicollinearity among factors (Breiman, 2001; Crookston & Finley, 2008). Sreenivas et al. (2014) used an RF model to map SOC density in the states of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka (India) at a spatial resolution of 1 km, and the model performed well. Therefore, it is feasible to employ this model to predict the SOC contents of grasslands on the Loess Plateau, combined with the use of RS images and an RF model.

The soil C sequestration capability varies in different types of grassland (Fornara & Tilman, 2008; J. H. Li, Yang, et al., 2014). Ma, He, Yu, Wen, and Peng (2016) estimated that meadows stocked more SOC than the steppes in China. Steppes and deserts stock less SOC but are widely distributed, especially on the Loess Plateau. Researchers have studied SOC storage (W. Li, Cao, et al., 2017; Zhang & Shangguan, 2016) and distribution (W. Sun, Zhu, & Guo, 2015; J. Wang, Yang, & Bai, 2015; Xin, Qin, & Yu, 2016; Zhao et al., 2016) on the Loess Plateau, but the scale of this research was limited to nature reserves or watersheds.

To integrate auxiliary factors and solve the problem mentioned above in an efficient manner, we utilized an RF model to predict the SOC content of grasslands on the Loess Plateau. This method not only exploits the potential of the RS technique but also expands the scope of the application of data mining and machine learning. In addition to SOC contents, plant biomass was also predicted on the Loess Plateau, as a contrast. We addressed the following questions: (a) How can the SOC content and plant biomass of grasslands across the Loess Plateau be predicted; (b) what is the spatial distribution pattern of grassland SOC contents; (c) which factors are correlated with grassland SOC content; and (d) what is the relationship between grassland SOC content and plant biomass.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Study area and sampling sites

The Loess Plateau (100°52′-114°33′E, 33°41′-41°16′N) covers an area of 646,200 km² and is located in the middle of China. There are six types of topography on the Loess Plateau (Figure S1): plains, blown sandy hills, rocky mountains, rocky hills, plateaus and gullies, and hills and gullies. Rainfall on the Loess Plateau is affected by the Asian monsoon and decreases from southeast to northwest (X. P. Sun & Wang, 2005). Due to the loose texture of loess, extreme rainfall aggravates soil erosion in sparsely vegetated areas. Grasslands cover an area of approximately 250,000 km² on the Loess Plateau and play an important role in vegetation restoration. These grasslands can be partitioned into six types (Figure S2): typical temperate steppe, temperate desert steppe, temperate forest steppe, northern warm temperate tussock and shrub tussock, southern warm temperate tussock and shrub tussock, and temperate steppe desert.

We compiled more than 1,000 measurements of SOC content and plant biomass, acquired from 223 field studies (Figure 1) conducted on grasslands. Each field study was set in a plot with a width and length of 100 m, and along the diagonal of each plot, several quadrats $(1 \times 1 \text{ m})$ with intervals of 10 m were identified as representatives along a 100-m linear transect. The measured data in this study were the means for the quadrats in the corresponding plot. As topsoil is generally applied to establish the soil spectral library in RS techniques (Castaldi et al., 2016), we studied the SOC content at a soil depth of 10 cm. Both the aboveground biomass (AGB) and belowground biomass (BGB) were dried and weighed in the laboratory, and BGB was measured in the soil profiles to a depth of 1 m, as most grass roots are distributed no deeper than 1 m on the Loess Plateau.

2.2 | Factor selection and modelling approach

In this study, an RF regression model was applied to predict the SOC content, AGB, BGB, and total biomass (TB) of grasslands. Grassland TB was calculated as the sum of AGB, BGB, and litters. The RF model provides an evaluation of important variables that can be used to select essential variables among various factors.

Topography, geographical location, vegetation index, photosynthetically active radiation (FPAR), temperature, and rainfall were chosen as auxiliary factors in this study (Table 1). We downloaded RS images from the United States Geological Survey (https://www.usgs.gov/), acquired climate data from the China Meteorological Administration (http://data.cma.cn/), and interpolated the climate data from various stations into continuous raster images using the AUSPLINE method (Hutchinson, 2001). As shown in Table 1, images with three spatial resolutions (30, 100, and 500 m) were used. Considering the time



FIGURE 1 Study area and sampling sites. Digital elevation models (DEMs) represent the elevation on the Loess Plateau. DEM data were downloaded from the United States Geological Survey and are free for use by the public. Figure 1 was generated with ArcGIS 10.0 (http://www.esri.com/) [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

TABLE 1 F	actor	descriptions	and	data	sources	used	in	this	study	1
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Factors definitions	Abbreviation(s)	Source data set	Resolution (m)	
Topography				
Elevation Slope	Elev Slope	Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and Reflection Radiometer (ASTER)	30	
Geographic location				
Longitude Latitude	x y	Sample Data		
Vegetation indexes				
Normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) based TM data	TNDVI	Landsat 5 Thematic	30	
Summer average Leaf Area Index (LAI) of 2011/2012/2013 Average of L2011, L2012 and L2013	L2011/L2012/L2013 LM	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS):	500	
FPAR				
Summer average FPAR of 2011/2012/2013 Average of F2011, F2012 and F2013	F2011/F2012/F2013 FM	MODIS: MOD15A2H	500	
Temperature				
Daily maximum temperature of 2011/2012/ 2013	HT2011/HT2012/HT2013	ANUSPIN interpolation based on 64 recording stations	100	
Average of H12011, H12012 and H12013 Daily minimum temperature of 2011/2012/ 2013	HTM LT2011/LT2012/LT2013	(http://www.nmic.gov.cn)		
Average of LT2011, LT2012 and LT2013 Summer Monthly average temperature of 2011/2012/2013	LTM ST2011/ST2012/ST2013			
Average of ST2011, ST2012 and ST2013 Monthly average temperature of 2011/ 2012/2013	ST T2011/T2012/T2013			
Average of T2011, T2012 and T2013	ТМ			
Precipitation				
Monthly average precipitation of 2011/ 2012/2013	R2011/R2012/R2013	ANUSPIN interpolation based on 64 recording stations	100	
Average of R2011, R2012 and R2013 Summer monthly average precipitation of 2011/2012/2013	RM SR2011/SR2012/SR2013	(http://www.nmic.gov.cn)		
Average of SR2011, SR2012 and SR2013	SRM			

required for the computer processing of the RF model, we set the spatial resolution of the predicted data to 500 m.

The variables utilized to build the RF model can be ordered by their importance value. The degree of variance explained refers to the percentage of explained variance for SOC content or plant biomass in RF model processing. First, the most important variable was added to the RF model, followed by the second; the next-most important variables were then sequentially added until the 20th variable. In the stepwise addition of variables, the most recently added variable should be abandoned if the degree of variance explained decreases upon the variable's addition; otherwise, it should be retained, and the process should be continued. Using this goal-directed method, the combination of factors with the highest degree of explanation for grassland SOC content and plant biomass prediction was selected (Figure 2).

2.3 | Predicted accuracy assessment

To validate the accuracy of the predicted grassland SOC content and plant biomass, we calculated the root mean square error (RMSE) and the normalized mean square error (NMSE) for 10-fold cross-validation. The formulas for RMSE and NMSE are expressed as follows:

$$\mathsf{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (O_i - P_i)^2}, \tag{1}$$

NMSE =
$$\frac{\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{i-1} |O_i - P_i|^2}{\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sum_{i=0}^{i-1} |O_i|^2}$$
, (2)

where O_i represents the observed value and P_i represents the predicted value. In addition, Pearson correlation coefficients (*R*) were calculated to assess the consistency of the observed and predicted data. In this calculation, we randomly sampled 50% of observed data as the validation dataset. To ensure precision, we repeated the

sampling process 7 times and calculated the mean. The formula used to calculate R is expressed as follows:

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (O_i - \overline{O}) (P_i - \overline{P})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (O_i - \overline{O})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (P_i - \overline{P})^2}}.$$
(3)

In Formula 3, O_i and P_i have the same definitions as above. R was also calculated to determine the correlation between grassland SOC content and plant biomass under different geography and vegetation types.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Spatial distribution of SOC content and plant biomass in grasslands

The SOC contents predicted by the RF model in grasslands on the Loess Plateau are shown in Figure 3. Areas with SOC contents lower than 4.00 g kg⁻¹ accounted for 19.65% of the total grasslands (Appendix S1) and were mainly distributed in blown sandy hills (Figure S1). In general, except in the southwest, grassland SOC content decreased from the southeast to the northwest and was not evenly distributed in the east and west of the Loess Plateau.

The plant biomasses predicted by the RF model for grasslands on the Loess Plateau are shown in Figure 4. The output maps of plant biomass were expressed as grassland AGB (Figure 4a), BGB (Figure 4b), TB (Figure 4c), and root/shoot ratio maps (Figure 4d). The root/shoot ratio is negatively correlated with mean annual precipitation (Waring & Powers, 2017). Generally, grasses distributed in arid or semi-arid areas exhibit higher root/shoot ratios than those in humid areas. The spatial distribution of AGB decreased steadily from east to west (Figure 4a), and the root/shoot ratio increased from south to north (Figure 4d), which differed from what was observed for SOC content in the grasslands.



FIGURE 2 Factors applied in the prediction of grassland soil organic carbon (SOC) and biomass. For factor definitions, please refer to Table 1. The numbers on the bars refer to the sequence in which the variables were added to the random forest model. Smaller numbers correspond to higher variable importance values. The variable explanation refers to the combined degree of explanation of the added variables and not that of single variables. AGB = aboveground biomass; BGB = belowground biomass; TB = total biomass [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

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FIGURE 3 Spatial distribution of predicted grassland soil organic carbon (SOC) on the Loess Plateau [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]



FIGURE 4 Spatial distribution of plant biomass and root/shoot ratios in grasslands on the Loess Plateau. AGB = aboveground biomass; BGB = belowground biomass; TB = total biomass [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

3.2 | Regional SOC content under different topographies and grassland types

Predicted SOC contents for the grasslands (24,000 km²) were calculated for the six topography and vegetation types (Figure 5). As shown in Figure 5a,c-f, the median SOC content differed substantially among the different topographical types. The grasslands on the plains exhibited the lowest SOC in typical temperate steppe (Figure 5d), temperate desert steppe (Figure 5e), and temperate steppe desert areas (Figure 5c). For the temperate forest steppe ecosystem, the lowest SOC contents were observed on blown sandy hills (Figure 5f). In tussock and shrub tussock ecosystems (Figure 5a,b), the highest SOC content was found on rocky mountains, and the closer to the south, the lower the sensitivity of the SOC content to the topography (Figure 5b).

3.3 | SOC contents under different grazing intensities of sampling sites

Figure 6 showed the effect of grazing intensities (none, light, moderate, severe, and very severe) on grassland SOC contents. We divided the measured SOC contents of sampling sites into two equal parts, one for training and the other for validation in RF model. In general, the residual error of observations and predictions increased with the increasing of grazing intensities in the training set, but this trend was not obviously in the validation set (Figure 6c).

4 | DISCUSSION

4.1 | Natural factors affecting the prediction of SOC contents

As shown in Figure 3, the daily maximum temperature in 2011 (HT2011) was the most important factor influencing the SOC content. According to Figure 7a, temperature (including the daily maximum and minimum temperature) was negatively correlated with the observed SOC content, with the daily minimum temperature having a weaker effect than the maximum temperature. Increased temperatures promote soil warming, and warming significantly decreases SOC contents (Fang, Smith, Moncrieff, & Smith, 2005; Qi et al., 2016). Increased levels of soil respiration and mineralized C associated with increasing temperature may be responsible for SOC consumption (Allison, Wallenstein, & Bradford, 2010; Hou, Ouyang, Maxim, Wilson, & Kuzyakov, 2016; Lefèvre et al., 2014; Wu, Dijkstra, Koch, Peñuelas, & Hungate, 2011).

Rainfall was another factor that affected grassland SOC contents. In humid tropical climate zones, rainfall facilitates SOC sequestration (Velayutham, Pal, & Bhattacharyya, 2000). Qiu, Hao, and Wu (2017) reported that in a rain-fed agro-ecosystem, SOC accumulation is enhanced by precipitation but impaired by increased temperature. However, C. Wang et al. (2017) argued that on the Loess Plateau, the trade-off of SOC and soil moisture is determined by the precipitation gradient. Moreover, the effect of rainfall may differ among different topography units (Fissore et al., 2017).

Latitude (y) was the second important factor affecting SOC content, and longitude (x) was the least important (Figure 3). These findings indicate that the SOC content varied to a greater extent across latitude than across longitude. This difference may be due to differences in topography. Furthermore, the effect of topography on SOC may be attributed to the vegetation and soil conditions associated with land use (W. Sun et al., 2015). As shown in Figure 7a, FPAR was positively correlated with the observed SOC content, because high FPAR values reflect the high photosynthetic transformation efficiency of grass.

4.2 | Relationship between predicted SOC content and plant biomass



Vegetation biomass plays a non-negligible role in determining SOC stocks (L. F. Chen et al., 2016). Vegetation recovery on the Loess Plateau favours SOC sequestration (Deng, Liu, & Shangguan, 2014;

FIGURE 5 Variations in the predicted grassland soil organic carbon (SOC) for different topography and grassland types on the Loess Plateau [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]



FIGURE 6 Grassland soil organic carbon (SOC) contents and residual errors of predictions and observations under five grazing intensities on the Loess Plateau. Data of 50% of the sampling sites were randomly sampled as training set; accordingly, validation set was the other half. The residual error was the absolute value of the result of subtracting the prediction from the observation [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary. com]



FIGURE 7 Correlations between the observed grassland soil organic carbon (SOC) and factors/biomass on the Loess Plateau. For factor definitions, please refer to Table 1. AGB = aboveground biomass; BGB = belowground biomass; TB = total biomass [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

Deng & Shangguan, 2017; Deng, Shangguan, Wu, & Chang, 2017; Liu, Dang, Tian, Wang, & Wu, 2016). Pearson correlation coefficients and associated significance levels were utilized to identify the relationship between grassland SOC and biomass. These coefficients were calculated at two levels: the point level (observations) and the regional level (predictions). The correlation between the observed grassland SOC content and plant biomass was first calculated for the sampling points (Figure 7b) and then for different combinations of topography and grassland types (Figure 8).

The transfer of organic matter from plants to soil can increase SOC stocks (Cardinael et al., 2017). As shown in Figure 7b, the observed grassland SOC content was positively correlated with plant biomass (R < .500). J. Sun and Wang (2016) showed that the trade-off between AGB and BGB increased with an increasing SOC gradient across an alpine grassland; however, in this study, the observed grassland SOC

was not significantly correlated with the root/shoot ratio (R = -.038) on the Loess Plateau. As we studied SOC contents across six grassland ecosystems, this trade-off may manifest in a single ecosystem but may be blurred among multi-ecosystems.

When considering the correlation between the predicted SOC content and plant biomass in grasslands (24,000 km²), the situation differed among the different topography and grassland types (Figure 8). These changes were attributable to the significant differences between the sites and regions. The observed data reflected the true values at the sampling sites. In contrast, the predicted data were approximately fitted to the observed data and reflected the regional averages of SOC content and plant biomass.

In rocky mountains, grassland AGB exhibited a strong positive correlation with SOC content in both temperate desert steppe (.912^{**}) and temperate steppe desert (.839^{**}) ecosystems (Figure 8a). Xin et al. (2016) investigated 180 topsoil sites (0-20 cm) in the Luoyugou watershed of the Loess Plateau and found that the SOC content of the mountain ridge area (a high-elevation area) was higher than on the sides of the valley. This observation suggests that the high grassland SOC in rocky mountains is mainly transformed from AGB. Zhang and Shangguan (2016) studied the soil water content (SWC) in the Ziwuling forest region and found that grasslands exhibited a higher SWC than shrublands and forestlands. In addition, Liu et al. (2016) studied the Qiaozigou watershed and found that the SOC content in sediments was positively correlated with SWC (p < .05). A high grassland SWC might favour SOC accumulation in mountain areas. In the steppe of rocky mountains, grassland BGB (Figure 8c) and root/shoot ratios (Figure 8d) were negatively correlated with the SOC content. Lai et al. (2017) studied the contribution of fine root dynamics to SOC on a degraded steppe in China. They found that herbaceous fine roots in shrublands exhibited the fastest turnover and decomposition rates, followed by herbaceous plants in steppe areas. However, fine roots were scarce in the surface layer (Imada, Matsuo, Acharya, & Yamanaka, 2015), which may be the reason that we did not identify a contribution of fine roots to SOC accumulation, although this has been observed in other studies.



FIGURE 8 Correlation of predicted grassland soil organic carbon and biomass on the Loess Plateau (*significance is defined at .01). AGB = aboveground biomass; BGB = belowground biomass; TB = total biomass [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

On blown sandy hills, the effect of biomass on SOC was significant (AGB: .690^{**}; BGB: .826^{**}) in temperate steppe desert. This result suggests that revegetation could stop the process of desertification (Y. L. Chen et al., 2017). In Chen's study (2017), herbaceous cover mainly influenced fine root length in the 0- to 40-cm soil layer, whereas shrub cover affected fine root length at depths of 0-300 cm. These differences might explain why BGB was positively correlated with the SOC content in this area but negatively correlated with the SOC content in shrub tussocks on rocky mountains (Figure 8c). In other types of steppe, plant biomass had little effect on SOC content (Figure 8); because the soil was more sensitive to desertification than to plant biomass (Tang, An, & Shangguan, 2015), the variation of SOC was not in accordance with plant succession.

On rocky hills, litter was significantly negatively correlated with the grassland SOC content in temperate forest steppe areas (-.746^{**}; Figure 8e). In the southern warm temperate tussock and shrub tussock ecosystems, litter was positively correlated (.680^{**}; Figure 8e) with the

grassland SOC content, reflecting the effect of ecosystem deviation on grassland SOC contents. An increase in litter promoted SOC accumulation in the shrub tussock ecosystem but had the opposite effect in the steppe ecosystem. This finding might have occurred because the rate of C transfer is largely controlled by the quality of litter in different ecosystems (Walela et al., 2014).

4.3 | Assessment of accuracy

RMSE, NMSE, and *R* were utilized to assess the accuracy of the predicted grassland SOC and biomass (Table 2). The RMSE and NMSE values shown in Table 2 are the mean values obtained from 10-fold cross-validation. We randomly sampled 50% of the observed data 7 times to calculate the *R* values of the observed and predicted data. The *R* value for the predicted and observed grassland SOC content was highest (.72^{**}), and the RMSE of the predicted and observed SOC content was 3.99 g kg⁻¹. The predicted TB exhibited a relatively

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	<i>R</i> (training set = 50%, prediction set = 50%, 7-fold cross-validation)	RMSE (mean RMSE of 10-fold cross-validation)	NMSE (mean NMSE of 10-fold cross-validation)
AGB (g/m ²)	0.62**	89.37	0.64
BGB (g/m ²)	0.53**	279.72	0.23
TB (g/m ²)	0.54**	271.31	0.17
SOC (g kg ⁻¹)	0.72**	3.99	0.21

Note. RMSE referred to as root mean square error of observed and predicted SOC/biomass. NMSE referred to as normalized mean square error of observed and predicted SOC/biomass. AGB = aboveground biomass; BGB = belowground biomass; TB = total biomass; SOC = soil organic carbon. **Significance is defined at .01.

weak correlation with the observed TB (.54^{**}) but presented the lowest NMSE value. Gomez, Viscarra Rossel, and McBratney (2008) predicted pasture SOC contents using RS data in Australia and obtained R^2 values of .42–.43. Castaldi et al. (2016) estimated SOC contents based on multispectral and hyperspectral images, and the obtained R^2 values for the predicted and observed SOC content ranged from .49 to .67. Vaudour, Gilliot, Bel, Lefevre, and Chehdi (2016) predicted cropland SOC contents using visible near-infrared airborne hyperspectral images of the Versailles Plain and Alluets Plateau areas of France. These authors obtained R^2 values of 0.29–0.44 and RMSE values of 4.04–4.05 g kg⁻¹. Relative to other studies, the scale of the present study, and taking into account the complex geographies of the Loess Plateau, the accuracy of our predicted results was acceptable.

4.4 | Grazing intensities affecting prediction accuracy of grassland SOC contents

The residual error of the observed and predicted SOC contents varied under different grazing intensities (Figure 9). Residual error was high in the temperate forest steppe if there was no grazing, but when the



grazing intensity was light, the residual error was higher in the south warm temperate tussock and shrub tussock. Moreover, the highest residual error was located in the temperate desert steppe with moderate grazing, and typically, the residual error increased with the increasing of grazing intensity (Figure 9a). In Figure 9b, the residual error was high in plains with severe and very severe grazing, followed by the error located in blown sandy hills with severe grazing. It implies that this model may not perform well in plains or in desert steppe, and the bigger the grazing intensity, the higher the uncertainty of the prediction of grassland SOC contents. It also proved that grazing is the main driver of the SOC pool (Z. Li, Liu, et al., 2017), and the prediction accuracy may be improved if this factor is put into the RF model.

4.5 | Challenges in assessing land degradation at a large scale

At present, there is a lack of large-scale predictions (Maillard, McConkey, & Angers, 2017) Although the application of RS and multivariate methods for large-scale predictions has improved data utilization efficiency, large-scale predictions display a lower predictive

FIGURE 9 The distribution of residual errors in different geomorphic and grassland types under five grazing intensities. The residual error was the absolute value of the result of subtracting the prediction from the observation (referred to Figure 6) [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary. com] accuracy than small-scale predictions (Croft, Kuhn, & Anderson, 2012; de Araujo Barbosa, Atkinson, & Dearing, 2015; Grinand et al., 2017). It is not easy to map SOC contents at a very high resolution (<1 m) at a large scale for either data acquisition or model robustness. As SOC content can be regarded as an indicator of land degradation (Vågen et al., 2013), in combination with plant biomass and other soil physical or chemical properties, it could be feasible to assess the risk of land degradation at a large scale. Nevertheless, a great deal of work needs to be done to improve the prediction accuracy, especially in regions with severe land degradation.

5 | CONCLUSIONS

In this study, using the RF model and considering topography, geographic location, vegetation indexes (normalized difference vegetation index and leaf area index), precipitation, temperature, and FPAR, we predicted grassland SOC content and plant biomass on the Loess Plateau, providing a preliminary exploration of SOC content prediction at a large scale.

The trends in the spatial variation of grassland SOC content and plant biomass were not consistent across the Loess Plateau. The root/shoot ratio generally decreased from the south to the north. Overall, the SOC content was highest on rocky mountains. In most cases, increased grassland AGB promoted SOC sequestration. BGB slightly or negatively affected topsoil SOC content in shrub tussock ecosystems but positively affected SOC content in steppe desert areas on blown sandy hills. Litter increased the SOC content in shrub tussocks but reduced the SOC content in the steppe due to different C transfer rates. On rocky mountains, the relationship between grassland SOC content and plant biomass was stronger than it was in other topography types. Grazing increased the uncertainty of the prediction of SOC contents in grasslands.

In the future, we intend to decrease the error propagation in such predictions. In addition, we may explore C density and C stocks in grassland ecosystems. Based on the predicted SOC content and plant biomass maps, by standardizing the level of soil quality, it would be possible to identify the potential area and extent of SOC loss on the Loess Plateau and optimize grassland management strategies. Combined with multiple factors related to land degradation, the results of this study could be further used to assess land degradation risk at large scales.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

All the authors declare no conflicts of interest.

ORCID

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

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