# RESEARCH ARTICLE



# Global depth distribution of belowground net primary productivity and its drivers

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#### Abstract

**Aim:** This study aimed to infer the allocation of belowground net primary productivity (BNPP) to sequential soil depths down to 2 m across the globe at a 1 km resolution and assess underlying environmental drivers.

Location: Global.

Time Period: Contemporary (1932–2017).

Major Taxa Studied: Terrestrial plants.

**Methods:** Global datasets including field net primary production (NPP, i.e., the difference between plant assimilated and respired carbon) from 725 soil profiles, root biomass and its depth distribution from 559 soil profiles were compiled and used to infer the depth distribution of BNPP across the globe and digitally map depth-resolved BNPP globally at 1km resolution. Drivers of the depth distribution of BNPP were evaluated using machine learning-based models.

**Results:** Global average BNPP allocated to the 0–20 cm soil layer is estimated to be  $1.1 \text{ Mg C} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , accounting for ~60% of total BNPP. Across the globe, the depth distribution of BNPP varies largely, and more BNPP is allocated to deeper layers in hotter and drier regions. Edaphic, climatic and topographic properties (in order of importance) explain >80% of such variability; and the direction and magnitude of the influence of individual properties are soil depth- and biome-dependent.

**Main Conclusions:** The findings suggest that mean annual temperature and precipitation are the two most important factors regulating BNPP across the globe. Soil A Jour Macroeo

properties such as soil actual evaporation and total nitrogen also play a vital role in regulating the depth distribution of BNPP. The maps of BNPP provide global benchmarks of depth-resolved BNPP for the prediction of whole-profile soil carbon dynamics across biomes.

#### KEYWORDS

carbon inputs, global mapping, net primary productivity, root biomass, root profile, vertical distribution

# 1 | INTRODUCTION

Plant net primary productivity (NPP), which is defined as the difference between plant gross primary productivity and autotrophic respiration, is a fundamental ecosystem property, providing food, energy and fibre for higher trophic organisms and mediating the globe carbon cycle by linking atmospheric and soil carbon reservoirs (Green et al., 2019; Imhoff et al., 2004; Krausmann et al., 2013). In mineral soils-the largest terrestrial carbon reservoir (Batjes, 2016), belowground NPP (BNPP) represents the key carbon input to soil, together with soil carbon outputs mainly via microbial decomposition, determining soil carbon balance. Along soil profile, the depth distribution of BNPP is critical for understanding whole-soil profile carbon dynamics and plant-soil interactions. First, the vertical distribution of BNPP couples with a series of belowground processes such as plant water uptake and nutrient acquisition which are important processes modulating plant growth (e.g., rooting depth) and its response to environmental changes (Greiner et al., 2017). Second, new carbon inputs represented by BNPP to different soil depths influence soil carbon turnover behaviours in different layer depths (Luo et al., 2019) by providing energy-rich substrates to soil microbes. For example, the new carbon may actively, but distinctly, interact with existing soil carbon in different soil depths via the priming effect (i.e., new carbon promotes or retards native carbon decomposition) (Cheng et al., 2014; Kuzyakov, 2010), regulating whole-soil carbon stability (Luo et al., 2020). It is vital to guantify the depth distribution of BNPP to elucidate belowground processes and making reliable depth-specific predictions of plant-soil interactions, soil carbon and relevant biogeochemical cycles (e.g., nutrients and greenhouse gas emissions) in the soil profile.

A number of approaches have been developed to measure BNPP in different ecosystems using root growth measurements (e.g., ingrowth cores) (Davidson et al., 2002; Garnier, 1991; Raich & Nadelhoffer, 1989) or state-of-the-art tracer (e.g., carbon isotopes) techniques (Balesdent et al., 2018). Although potential uncertainties in BNPP estimates using different approaches, data synthesis based on total BNPP measurements with uncertainty assessment would help us address critical questions relating to soil carbon dynamics such as carbon turnover times based on the ratio of soil carbon stocks to BNPP at large spatial scales (Fan et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2019). BNPP has also been indirectly estimated. For example, by synthesizing field measurements of aboveground NPP (ANPP),

combining with satellite-derived NPP, total BNPP has been quantified as the difference between satellite-derived NPP and ANPP (Gherardi & Sala, 2020). However, large-scale in situ application of these approaches for depth-specific quantification of BNPP is challenging due to technology and cost limitations (Le Quéré et al., 2018; Malhi et al., 2017). Indeed, few studies have un-destructively and directly measured BNPP depth by depth in situ (Malhi et al., 2017). Existing experimental and modelling studies requiring depthspecific BNPP as inputs usually used root biomass profiles to infer the depth allocation of BNPP by adopting certain assumptions on the relationship between vertical distribution of root biomass and BNPP (Camino-Serrano et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2014). Without depth-resolved quantification of BNPP, our confidence of sustainable land management (e.g., identifying management practices for soil carbon sequestration) and whole-soil biogeochemical process understanding (e.g., soil carbon balance and greenhouse gas emissions) would be undermined.

Moreover, factors controlling BNPP and particularly their depth distribution may be diverse and vary across space (McCormack et al., 2015; Zhang & Wang, 2015). In Earth system models, which are major tools predicting global carbon cycle, however, BNPP and its depth distribution are usually assumed to be a constant fraction of total carbon assimilated by plants depending on plant functional types and climate is generally considered to be the dominant determinant (Friedlingstein et al., 2006; Zhao & Running, 2010). This simplification of controls over depth distribution of BNPP would be the major source of the uncertainty in predictions of soil carbonclimate feedbacks as well as belowground processes such as soil carbon sequestration potential across space and over time (Cramer et al., 2001). Across global grasslands, for example, observational data synthesis focusing on total NPP and its aboveground and belowground fractions found that mean annual temperature is the most important factor influencing BNPP (Sun et al., 2021), but they also emphasized that non-climatic variables such as soil and topography might be also important but are less explored. Another global scale study indicated that BNPP increases with mean annual precipitation (MAP), but the increase rate decreases with MAP (Gherardi & Sala, 2020). In addition, they found that different biomes show distinct relationships between BNPP and MAP, and MAP can only explain 36% of the variance of BNPP across the globe. However, controls over the depth allocation of BNPP are rarely assessed and remain uncertain. Overall, we need an advanced understanding

of whether and how soil depth-specific carbon inputs vary among vegetation types and are modulated by other environmental factors such as edaphic and topographic attributes.

Building upon global datasets of field measurements of plant assimilated carbon (i.e., NPP) with its partitioning of aboveground and belowground fractions (i.e., ANPP and BNPP) and the vertical distribution of root biomass, this study aims to: (1) estimate the allocation of BNPP to seven sequential soil layers (i.e., 0–20, 20–40, 40–60, 60–80, 80–100, 100–150 and 150–200 cm); (2) assess underlying drivers regulating the depth distribution of BNPP across the globe and biome types; (3) map the depth distribution of BNPP and its uncertainty across the globe at the resolution of 0.0083° (which is equivalent to ~1 km at the equator). This information is essential to improve future accounting of whole-soil carbon balance and relevant greenhouse gas emissions across large scales.

# 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

A flowchart (Figure S1) was produced to show the method and procedure used for the estimation of the depth distribution of BNPP and its drivers. Detailed steps are described in the following Sections 2.1–2.7.

#### 2.1 | Net primary productivity (NPP)

We collected a global dataset of field measurements of NPP including 725 soil profiles across the globe (Figure 1a; NPP<sub>obs</sub> hereafter). NPP<sub>obs</sub> contains NPP, the fraction of NPP allocated belowground (BNPP), and/or aboveground NPP (ANPP), enabling us to directly calculate BNPP. The dataset was compiled by a thorough literature search and data synthesis from 54 published peer-reviewed papers (literature-derived dataset, Appendix A–Data Sources) and the ORNL DAAC NPP data collection (https://daac.ornl.gov/cgi-bin/ dataset\_lister.pl?p=13). Although field methods for estimating BNPP vary somewhat from site to site, it is common that BNPP in woody vegetation was estimated based on the amount and turnover of live and dead fine root biomass (which were measured in periodically sampled soil or ingrowth cores) and coarse root biomass (which was measured by excavated trenches). In grasslands, BNPP was generally estimated by extracting belowground biomass samples from soil or ingrowth cores to calculate total net root production. Here we note that soil and ingrowth cores are the two dominant approaches used for field BNPP measurements in the literature-derived dataset (48 of the 54 papers, Table S1). By grouping BNPP into soil and ingrowth core measurements, the results suggested that BNPP across the globe as well as for the same biome is comparable between the measurement approaches (Figure S2). So, in this study, we did not explicitly distinguish different measurement approaches in the following data assessment.

It should be noted that the ORNL DAAC dataset is qualitycontrolled (e.g., mapping the points in geographical space to confirm that they coincided with landforms, and checking data ranges for outliers and errors) in order to minimize the potential effects of different measurement techniques on the estimation of NPP and its allocation. However, the detailed quality-control procedure cannot be retrieved and applied to the literature-derived dataset. Rather, we conducted a comparison between the literature-derived dataset and the ORNL DAAC dataset (Figure S3). The two datasets predicted similar (p > 0.05) BNPP in most ecosystems except in forests and shrublands (Figure S3a,b). In addition, the two datasets presented a very similar latitudinal pattern of BNPP and were complementary in terms of both spatial (Figure S3a) and latitudinal coverage (Figure S3c). For these reasons, we pooled data together to increase spatial coverage.

# 2.2 | Root biomass

We obtained root biomass and its depth distribution from 559 soil profiles to infer the depth distribution of BNPP (see Section 2.5). This root biomass dataset (Root<sub>obs</sub> hereafter) was originally compiled by Schenk and Jackson (2002). In this study, we assumed that the vertical distribution of BNPP is comparable to that of root biomass because root productivity is the predominant contributor to BNPP (Gherardi & Sala, 2020; Yuan & Chen, 2010), an approach used in other studies (Luo et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2014).

#### 2.3 | Environmental covariates

A set of global layers of environmental covariates including soil properties, climate and topography (Table S2) were collected as potential predictor variables of BNPP and its depth distribution. A total of 20 soil physical and chemical properties (Table S3) were obtained from ISRIC-WISE soil profile database (Batjes, 2016) with a spatial resolution of 1 km. Nineteen climatic attributes with the same resolution as the WISE database were obtained from WorldClim (Fick & Hijmans, 2017) which quantifies biologically meaningful climatic variables using monthly temperature and precipitation. Actual soil evaporation (AE) calculated as liquid water supply plus soil water utilized was obtained from TerraClimate (Abatzoglou et al., 2018). We also calculated 13 topographic attributes (Table S3) from SRTM-DEM at 90m resolution (http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org) using "elevatr", "spatia-IEco" and "dynatopmodel" packages in R 4.1.2 (R Development Core Team, 2021) and a widely used module SAGA GIS with popular terrain analysis tools (Conrad et al., 2015). More details of estimating global topographic attributes can be found in Amatulli et al. (2018).

#### 2.4 | Biomes

We derived biome types from a biome classification map of the Terrestrial Ecoregions of the World (Olson et al., 2001) that is widely used in contemporary biogeographical research. This map considers



**FIGURE 1** Net primary productivity (NPP) and their depth distribution. (a) The location of soil profiles with in situ measurements of NPP with its above- and belowground fractions (NPP<sub>obs</sub>) and the depth distribution of root biomass (Root<sub>obs</sub>). (b) The distribution of BNPP among nine biomes. (c) The fraction of BNPP ( $f_{BNPP}$ ) relative to total NPP inferred from NPP<sub>obs</sub>. Boxplots show the median and interquartile range with whiskers extending to 1.5 times of the interquartile range, and red dots show averages. Different capital letters below the boxes indicate significant differences (p < 0.05) among biomes, and numbers in parentheses show sample size. Blue dashed lines show the average, and the upper and lower grey dashed lines show the 97.5% 2.5% quantiles.

species distribution, ecoregions and biogeographical realms as basic criteria for biome class assignment, generally aligning with the fact that BNPP is an ecosystem property influenced by a series of ecological processes and patterns. To take into account the effect of human land use (i.e., croplands), MODIS land cover map (Channan et al., 2014) was overlapped with the biome map. Finally, a map consisting of nine biome types was obtained: tropical/subtropical forests, tropical/subtropical grasslands/savannas, temperate forests, temperate grasslands, Mediterranean/montane shrublands, boreal forests, tundra, deserts and croplands (Figure 1a).

#### 2.5 | Estimation of the depth distribution of BNPP

Total BNPP has been recorded in the NPP<sub>obs</sub> dataset. We assumed that BNPP allocated to a specific layer depth is proportional to root biomass in that layer. Using the Root<sub>obs</sub> dataset, we calculated the depth distribution of root biomass in seven sequential layers in the 0-200 cm soil profile (i.e., 0-20, 20-40, 40-60, 60-80, 80-100, 100-150 and 150-200 cm), using the following equations (Jochen & Jackson, 2002; Luo et al., 2019):

$$r_{\rm D} = \frac{R_{\rm max}}{1 + \left(\frac{D}{D_{\rm S0}}\right)^c},\tag{1}$$

where  $r_D$  is the total root biomass above soil depth D (cm),  $R_{max}$  is the total root biomass of the whole soil profile,  $D_{50}$  is the depth (cm) at which  $r_D$  is 50% of  $R_{max}$  and c is the shape parameter optimized by the Root<sub>obs</sub> dataset (Jochen & Jackson, 2002):

$$c = \frac{-1.27875}{\log_{10}D_{95} - \log_{10}D_{50}},$$
 (2)

where  $D_{95}$  is the depth (cm) at which  $r_D$  is 95% of  $R_{max}$ . According to Equation (1), the fraction ( $f_{root}$ ) of roots in any soil layer depths such as the 20–40 cm soil layer depth can be estimated as:

$$f_{\text{root},20-40} = \frac{r_{40}}{r_{\text{max}}} - \frac{r_{20}}{r_{\text{max}}} = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{40}{D_{50}}\right)^c} - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{20}{D_{50}}\right)^c}$$
(3)

The Root<sub>obs</sub> had been used to interpolate  $D_{50}$  and  $D_{95}$  (Jochen & Jackson, 2002; Luo et al., 2019), which have been adopted here. Based on the Root<sub>obs</sub>-derived proportional depth distribution of roots, we trained a machine learning-based model (Figure S4) to predict the proportional depth distribution of BNPP at NPP<sub>obs</sub> sites. Then, BNPP in a typical layer such as 20–40 cm can be estimated as BNPP multiplied by the proportion of BNPP in that layer (Figures 2 and S5). Tukey's HSD test was used to determine if BNPP in different soil depths and among biomes are significantly different.

We acknowledge that an assumption of the vertical distribution of BNPP being equal to the vertical distribution of root biomass is adopted in this study to facilitate global scale quantification. To test this assumption, we used a depth-resolved two-pool root turnover model—ORCHIDEE-SOM (Camino-Serrano et al., 2018) to infer the depth distribution of BNPP. In the model (Camino-Serrano et al., 2018), roots have been divided into metabolic and structural roots with fast and slow turnover rates respectively. In each layer *z*, root turnover for each pool *i* (i.e., metabolic and structural) is described by first-order kinetics:

$$\frac{\partial \text{Root}C_{i,z}}{\partial t} = I(t)_{i,z} - k\text{Root}C_i \times \text{Root}C_{i,z}(t) \times \theta(t) \times \tau(t)$$
(4)

where  $l(t)_{i,z}$  is the carbon input to the *i*th root pool at soil depth of *z* at time *t*, *kRootC* is the root turnover rate constant with a default value

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of  $0.5 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for metabolic roots and  $3.0 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  for structural roots. In the model, the fraction of metabolic roots is equal to  $0.85-0.018 \times \text{LC}$  (root lignin:carbon ratio)×CN (root carbon:nitrogen ratio), and the remaining fraction is structural roots, and the default values of LC (0.22) and CN (40) in the model were used.  $\theta$  and  $\tau$  are two rate modifiers of soil moisture and temperature respectively. Soil moisture and temperature (BIO1) data used can be found in Table S3. Quantitatively,  $I(t)_{i,z}$  in the model is equal to BNPP (i.e., root-derived carbon inputs) in that layer, that is,  $I(t)_{i,z}$  = BNPP( $t)_{i,z}$ . At steady state, BNPP( $t)_{i,z}$  can be estimated as:

$$\mathsf{BNPP}(t)_{i,z} = \mathsf{I}(t)_{i,z} = \mathsf{kRootC}_i \times \mathsf{RootC}_{i,z}(t) \times \theta(t) \times \tau(t)$$
(5)

We run the model at a time step of 1 year at Root<sub>obs</sub> sites (N=559) using observed *RootC* (i.e., root biomass) to estimate BNPP. Then, the proportional allocations of *I*(*t*) (i.e., BNPP) and *RootC* to each soil layer were used to test whether the vertical distributions of BNPP and root biomass are comparable (Figures 2a and S6).

#### 2.6 | Drivers of the depth distribution of BNPP

We performed a machine learning-based statistical model-random forest (RF)-to explore environmental controls over the depth distribution of BNPP. Before fitting the RF model, variance inflation factor (VIF) (Zuur et al., 2010) was calculated and used to minimize multicollinearity of environmental covariates considered (Table S3). The environmental variables with a VIF value larger than 10 were eliminated in the modelling (Figure S7). To examine how the data spreads throughout the multivariate environmental covariate space and further reduces the dimension of the data, we performed a multiple factor analysis (MFA) using MFA and fviz\_mfa\_var functions in the R package "FactoMineR". MFA is an extension of principal component analysis (PCA) for summarizing and visualizing a multivariate data table in which individuals are described by several groups of variables (Figure S8). It takes into account the contribution of all active groups of variables to reveal the most important group of variables that contribute most to explaining the variations in the dataset (Abdi et al., 2013).

To determine the relative importance of selected environmental factors, we calculated the relative contribution of predictor variables to the explained variance (i.e., relative importance) by the model using importance scores for each predictor in the RF model (Figures 3 and S9). Because the RF algorithm inherently performs bagging and random selection of explanatory variables and calculates the out-of-bag error for feature ranking, 500 bootstrap draws from input data were applied to quantify uncertainties in the estimated relative contributions (Grömping, 2009). These assessments were conducted using packages "ranger" and "caret" in R 4.1.2 (R Development Core Team, 2021). We applied partial dependence plots (PDP) from RF modelling results to determine the relationships between predicted depth distribution of BNPP and the most important variables (Figure S9), which accounts for the average effect of one feature on the predicted outcome in the RF model by



**FIGURE 2** Depth distribution of root biomass and belowground net primary productivity (BNPP). (a) The observed proportional depth distribution of root biomass and estimated proportional depth distribution of root inputs from datasets of observed depth distribution of root biomass (Root<sub>obs</sub>). (b, c) Show the observed proportional depth distribution of BNPP and the observed depth distribution of absolute BNPP among biomes from datasets of observed aboveground and belowground NPP (NPP<sub>obs</sub>) respectively. Boxplots show the median and interquartile range, with whiskers extending to the most extreme data point which is  $1.5 \times (75\%-25\%)$  data range from the box. Significant differences are denoted by different capital letters (p < 0.05).

marginalizing other features and show whether the response curves between the target output and a feature is linear, monotonic or more complex (Greenwell, 2017).

# 2.7 | Global mapping and prediction uncertainties

We explored machine learning-based models (Figure S10), including random forest (RF), extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost), Cubist, support vector machines (SVM), Bayesian regularized artificial neural networks (BRANNs) and lasso regression (LASSO), and selected the best model for predicting BNPP (using NPP<sub>obs</sub>), the proportional depth distribution of BNPP (PDD, using Root<sub>obs</sub>) across the globe. For each model, the selected environmental covariates after minimizing multicollinearity via VIF selection and MFA dimensionality reduction were used (see Section 2.6), and 80% of soil profiles in different locations were randomly selected for training, and the remaining 20% for validation. Numeric covariates were standardized with z-scores, and biomes and soil order are categorical variables and were converted into binary variables. The best model tuning parameters (i.e., hyperparameters) were targeted by running the model under a series of parameter combinations using the function "train-Control" in R package "caret". Specifically, number of trees (num. trees) was set to 500, and the hyperparameters of mtry (number of variables randomly sampled as candidates at each split) and min. node.size (minimum size of terminal nodes) were selected to tune for RF model, eta (learning\_rate) and max\_depth (maximum depth of a tree) for XGBoost, committees (the number of trees with adjusted weights) and neighbours (the training set which nearest the testing samples) for Cubist, sigma (standard deviation for gaussian kernel) for SVM and neurons (the number of artificial neurons) for BRANNs. The "tuneGrid" method in R package "caret" with 5-fold random cross-validation was used to compute model performance metric (i.e., rooted mean squared error—RMSE) for each model, and the best model with its tuning hyperparameters was targeted with the smallest RMSE.

Using the best model, we predicted BNPP and PDD inferred from roots across the globe with gridded driver variables at a resolution of 0.0083°. BNPP allocated to each soil layer depth was finally calculated as BNPP × PDD. Prediction uncertainty in each 1 km pixel was quantified using a Monte Carlo approach by randomly drawing 500 individual trees with replacement from the random forest model to



FIGURE 3 Drivers of the depth distribution of belowground net primary productivity (BNPP). (a) The depth distribution of BNPP in nine biomes predicted as an exponential function of soil depth. Dots show biome-specific average BNPP in soil layer depths, and lines show regression lines. Parameters for the regression lines are shown in Table S4. Inset plot in (a) shows the relationship pooling all data together, with red dots show global averages. (b) The relative importance of environmental factors for predicting BNPP depth distribution using a random forest model. The outer ring shows results for the whole soil profile, and the seven inner rings show results for seven soil layer depths respectively. See Table S3 for the details of the environmental predictors.

predict BNPP and PDD. These 500 estimates were used to calculate the mean (*m*) and standard deviation (*sd*) of BNPP and PDD at each of the seven-layer depths. The prediction uncertainty (*U*) was expressed as the coefficient of variation (CV), that is, U = sd/m. The total uncertainty of depth-specific BNPP (BNPP × PDD, Figure S11) was estimated as  $U_{total} = \sqrt{U_{BNPP}^2 + U_{PDD}^2}$ .

To assess the quality of global maps, we further estimated BNPP using RF models with spatial cross-validation. Spatial cross-validation aimed at creating independence between crossvalidation folds to overcome potential uncertainties caused by spatial autocorrelation (which is very common for clustered dataset) (Meyer et al., 2018; Meyer & Pebesma, 2022). For model training, we used CreateSpacetimeFolds function in the R package "CAST" to create five independent folds for spatial cross-validation followed the approach of Meyer and Pebesma (2021). In addition, we also calculated dissimilarity index (DI, an index of standardize distance in predictor space for new location) and area of applicability (AOA, which is designed to analyse if the model can be applied to the entire study area or if there are locations that are very different in their predictor properties to what the model has been trained) to illustrate the area where our prediction model (both with random and spatial cross-validation) can be reliably applied. By applying the model to the data, we indeed found that the model performed better in AOA than outside AOA. Since DI can quantitatively express prediction uncertainty, we estimated DI using "aoa" function in the R package "CAST" in AOA and in the area outside AOA across the globe. Finally, we compared the global

mapping products using random cross-validation and spatial crossvalidation predictions.

#### 3 | RESULTS

## 3.1 | The total amount of BNPP

Averaging across the 725 NPP<sub>obs</sub> soil profiles (Figure 1a), BNPP allocated to the 0–200 cm soil profile was 3.28 (0.19, 12.0) Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (mean with 2.5% and 97.5% quantiles, Figure 1b) and significantly different among biomes (p<0.05; Figure 1b). Mediterranean/montane shrublands had the highest BNPP of 5.49 (2.68, 15.2) Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, followed by croplands of 4.42 (1.05, 17.0) Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and tropical/ subtropical forests of 4.29 (1.92, 13.3) Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, and tundra had the lowest of 0.9 (0.24, 3.41) Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 1b). The fraction of NPP allocated belowground (i.e.,  $f_{BNPP}$ ) was 38% (8%, 83%) with significant differences among biomes (Figure 1c). It was on average greater than 50% in arid and semi-arid environments such as temperate grasslands and deserts, but only ~30% in tropical/subtropical, temperate and boreal forests (Figure 1c).

# 3.2 | The depth distribution of BNPP

Using the two-pool root turnover model, no significant difference between the proportional depth distribution of root biomass ILEY- Global Ecology

and BNPP was found across the globe as well as among biomes (Figures 2a and S6). On average, ~60% of BNPP was allocated to the 0–20 cm soil layer (Figure 2b); and ~80% to the top 40 cm soil layer (Figure 2b). In other deeper soil layers, BNPP was relatively small and showed much less variance than in upper layers (Figure 2b). In the top 20 cm soil layer, for example, PDD ranged from 37% (2.5% quantile) to 78% (97.5% quantile). For PDD in a soil layer depth, it was significantly (p < 0.05) different among biomes (Figure 2c). Boreal forests and tundra allocated more BNPP (~70%) to upper layers (e.g., 0–20 cm) than other biome types (e.g., <50% in tropical/subtropical grasslands/savannas and deserts which allocate more BNPP to deeper layer depths, Figure S5).

Similar to PDD (Figure 2a), the absolute amount of BNPP was decreased exponentially with soil, with greater variances in upper soil layers than in deeper layers. Across the globe, the average BNPP was estimated to be  $1.60 \text{Mgha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$  in the top 20 cm soil (Figure 2c). In the 20-40 cm soil layer, the average was reduced to  $0.69 \text{ Mgha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ . In deeper layers, it was relatively small and comparable (<0.30 Mgha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) with smaller variances (Figure 2c). Among biomes, absolute BNPP showed significant disparities (Figure 2c). In upper layers (e.g., 0-20 cm), higher BNPP was observed in Mediterranean/montane shrublands (2.37 Mgha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) and temperate forests (2.11 Mgha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). In deeper soil layers, the variations in absolute BNPP among biomes were in general consistent with those in the top 0-20 cm soil (Figure S5).

#### 3.3 | Drivers of BNPP across soil layers

As expected, soil depth was the most important predictor for the depth distribution of BNPP (Figure 3a,b). An exponential model using depth as the only predictor explained 23%–56% of the variance in the depth distribution of BNPP across the globe ( $R^2$ =0.34) and in different biome types ( $R^2$  ranged from 0.23 to 0.56; Figure 3a, Table S4). The coefficients of the exponential model, which indicate the decreasing rate of BNPP with soil depth, were significantly different among biomes (Table S4), demonstrating that the depth distribution of BNPP is significantly different among biomes (Figure 2).

The random forest model taking into account soil depth, biome and 55 environmental covariates (Table S3), after controlling for multicollinearity among the covariates (Figures S7 and S8), explained 92% ( $R^2$ =0.92) of the variance in the depth distribution of BNPP in the whole 0-200 cm soil profile (Figure 3b). Following soil depth, mean annual temperature, mean actual daily soil evaporation, biome, soil bulk density and mean annual precipitation were the five most important predictors (Figure 3b). Grouping environmental predictors into climatic (temperature- and precipitation-related, a total of 7 variables), edaphic (12 variables) and topographic (7 variables) variables, the result indicated that the contributions of climate, soil and topography to explained variance were 26%, 28% and 13% respectively (Table S5). Focusing on BNPP in specific soil layer depths, the fitted random forest models explained over 80% of its variance in each of the seven soil layers (Figure S9). BIO1 (mean annual temperature) was consistently the most important factor, followed by AE (actual mean daily soil evaporation), BIO12 (mean annual precipitation) and TOTN (total soil nitrogen content) in deeper layers (Figures 3b and S9). In terms of the overall influence of climatic, edaphic and topographic variables, climatic variables contributed 33%-40%; and edaphic and topographic properties contributed 33%-40% and 18%-28% respectively (Figures 3b and S9; Table S5). For the five most important predictors for each layer, nonlinear relationships with BNPP were detected (Figure S9). In general, predictors exhibited positive effects on BNPP. For example, BIO1, which was the most important climate variable for all soil layers, positively influences BNPP until saturating at higher values of BIO1. At the lower range of TOTN, TOTN exhibited a positive and then a negative relationship with BNPP (Figure S9).

# 3.4 | Global patterns of the depth distribution of BNPP

The depth distribution of BNPP was mapped across the globe at 0.0083° resolution (Figure 4) using the best ML model with random cross-validation (random forest was consistently the best model: Figures S4 and S10). Across the globe, BNPP in the 0-200 cm soil profile was 2.00 (0.41, 3.95) Mg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Figures 4 and 5a). The largest BNPP on average occurred in ~20° N (Figure 5a). In all soil layers, BNPP was relatively low in deserts and high latitudinal regions of the northern Hemisphere (Figure 4) with an apparent decreasing trend from 40° N to 80° N (Figure 5a). The highest BNPP was in tropical/subtropical forests, temperate forests and croplands; and the lowest in tundra, boreal forests and deserts (Figure 4). For the proportional depth distribution, averaging across the globe, it was 57% and 77% in the top 20 and 40 cm soil layers respectively (Figure 5b). With increasing latitudes from 40° N to 80° N, more BNPP was allocated to upper soil layers (Figure 5b). Figure S11 shows the uncertainty (i.e., coefficient of variance in each 1km grid) in predicted depth-specific BNPP. The uncertainty was greater in deeper soil layers, particularly in the northern Hemisphere high latitudinal regions such as tundra and boreal forests. Indeed, the uncertainty was markedly higher in tundra and boreal forests than in other biomes in deeper soil

FIGURE 4 Global pattern of belowground net primary productivity (BNPP) to seven soil layers (left panel) with the corresponding aggregated BNPP in nine biomes (right panel). Boxplots show the median and interquartile range with whiskers extending to 1.5 times of the interquartile range. Red dots and blue dash lines show biome-specific and global averages respectively. Significant differences in BNPP among biomes in a typical soil layer are denoted by different capital letters (p < 0.05). Please note the different scales in different depths.



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layers. Across the globe, the average uncertainty in the top 20 cm layer was 0.48 (0.27, 0.72), and increased to 1.90 (0.89, 4.28) in the 150–200 cm layer (Figure S11).

By applying a RF model with spatial cross-validation to the data, we found that the model performed better in AOA areas than in areas outside AOA (Figure S12b,c). Figure 6 compares global DI

(dissimilarity index) distribution pattern estimated using random and spatial cross-validation. The area outside AOA derived from the model with random cross-validation (18%) was larger than that with spatial cross-validation (2%), mainly located in South America, Africa, Australia and Western China. However, in both AOA and outside AOA areas, the predictions of the two validation approaches



Longitude (°E)

FIGURE 5 Latitudinal pattern of belowground net primary productivity (BNPP). (a) Depth distribution of absolute BNPP; (b) proportional depth distribution of BNPP. Both absolute and proportional BNPP were calculated based on aggregated BNPP and its depth distribution in each 1 degree of latitude. Bars and the relevant numbers beside the left y-axes indicate the global cumulative average with increasing soil depths.

FIGURE 6 Global pattern of dissimilarity index (DI) and the area outside of applicability (Outside AOA) derived from random forest models with random cross-validation (a) and spatial cross-validation (b). DI is a standardized distance for new prediction locations used for quantitatively expressing prediction uncertainty. The area of applicability (AOA) is the area where the model is trained, and where the cross-validation performance holds. If DI is larger than a DI threshold (which is determined by the DI values from the cross-validated training data), the new data point falls outside the AOA.

were similar (the difference of RMSE was no more than 0.18 gm<sup>-2</sup>, Figure S13). Overall, these additional results validate the random cross-validation approach for estimating BNPP.

# 4 | DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Using root biomass profiles to infer the depth distribution of BNPP, we generated field observational data-derived global maps of BNPP down to 200 cm at a resolution of ~1 km. In the 0-200 cm soil profile, global average BNPP is estimated to be ~2 Mgha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> with a global total BNPP of ~21 Pg yr<sup>-1</sup>. This estimate is close to the value of 2.2 Mgha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (with a global total belowground carbon fixation of 24.7 Pg yr<sup>-1</sup>) estimated by Gherardi and Sala (2020) who estimated total BNPP as the difference between satellite-derived NPP and field measurements of aboveground NPP. Among biomes, BNPP in forests, grasslands and shrublands/savannas are estimated to be 2.7, 2.0 and 2.2 Mgha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which are also close to the values estimated by Gherardi and Sala (2020).

The majority of BNPP (~60%) is allocated to the top 20 cm soil layer, and an additional ~20% to the 20-40 cm soil layer. This is consistent with field observations of BNPP depth distribution at individual sites across the globe (Hertel et al., 2009; López-Mársico et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2014). Among biomes, however, the depth distribution of BNPP is significantly different. Generally, more BNPP is allocated to deeper layers in drier biomes (e.g., deserts and grasslands). This may be due to the close coupling of plant root growth with soil moisture profiles (Fan et al., 2017; Lambers & Oliveira, 2019). More assimilated carbon would be allocated to deeper layers in drier environments to acquire water (Ledo et al., 2018; Mokany et al., 2006). A synthesis of literature data has found that tropical grasslands/savannas and deserts have the deepest rooting depth compared with other biomes (Canadell et al., 1996). There is also a clear pattern of higher allocation of BNPP to upper layers in higher latitudes. Due to low temperature in high latitudinal regions, deep soil permafrost (e.g., in tundra) would persist during the growing season, inhibiting root growth in the subsoil (Blume-Werry et al., 2019; Canadell et al., 1996; Jackson et al., 1996). As a result, a large fraction of BNPP would allocate to surface layers. As biome is inherently determined by climate, it is reasonable to expect that climatic factors play a key role in regulating the depth distribution of BNPP. In addition, we note that BNPP in deeper soil layers is relatively small and shows much less variance than in upper layers. This result is consistent with carbon isotopebased estimates of carbon inputs to deeper soil depths (Balesdent et al., 2018). Except the increasing penetration resistance of root growth to deep layers, another reason may be that topsoil is subject to more frequent fluctuations in soil environmental properties (e.g., soil temperature, moisture and nutrient availability) than the subsoil, and a greater soil volume in deeper layers would buffer soil environmental conditions to a large extent, resulting in relatively large variability of BNPP in the topsoil.

As expected, climatic variables have significant effects on BNPP and its depth distribution. Mean annual temperature (BIO1) and

precipitation (BIO12) are identified to be the most important. BIO12 is the predominant source of soil moisture; while BIO1 determines the loss rate of soil moisture via evaporation and plant transpiration and the depth of active layer above the permafrost. Previous assessments at broad scales mainly focused on BIO1 and BIO12, and have demonstrated the importance of these two climatic variables (Gherardi & Sala, 2020; Gill et al., 2002; Girardin et al., 2010). Our result further confirms the dominant role of climatic drivers in BNPP depth allocation. However, previous studies have found that the degree and even the direction of the correlation of BNPP with BIO1 and BIO12 are biome-dependent (Reich et al., 2018; Walker et al., 2006). This may be attributed to the differential responses of biomes to temperature and precipitation shifts depending on plant functional types and carbon allocation strategies (Wang et al., 2012; Way & Oren, 2010). For example, the growth of tropical species is more vulnerable to high temperature or drought than temperate or boreal trees (Way & Oren, 2010). We found that there was little difference in the response curve of BNPP to BIO1 and BIO12 in different soil depth (Figure S9).

Except for BIO1 and BIO12, other climatic variables associated with climate seasonality and inter-annual variability also play a role in regulating the depth distribution of BNPP. Mean temperature diurnal range (i.e., BIO2) and mean temperature of the wettest guarter (i.e., BIO8) are the most important climatic variables after BIO1 and BIO12 (Figures 3b and S9). Overall, these results suggest that both the mean and variability of climatic conditions are important determinants of belowground plant carbon allocation; and, more importantly, the direction and magnitude of their effects are biomespecific probably depending on local plant functional types and their response to soil water regimes. Future climate (e.g., warming and precipitation change) and land cover changes (e.g., vegetation shift) may significantly alter the amount of BNPP allocated to different soil layer depths, thereby potentially modifying biogeochemical processes (e.g., soil carbon balance and greenhouse gas emissions) across soil depths that are regulated by fresh carbon inputs.

Despite the leading role of climate, soil physicochemical properties also play a vital role in soil BNPP variation across space. Indeed, mean actual daily soil evaporation (which is affected by both soil properties and climatic conditions) is as important as BIO1 and BIO12, positively influencing BNPP (Figure S9), in line with the findings for global grasslands (Sun et al., 2021). A major reason would be that high soil evaporation means a higher probability of water stress, given otherwise similar environmental conditions. Total soil nitrogen content as an indicator of soil nutrient availability also exerts a positive effect, particularly in deeper layers (Figure 3b,c). Together with the general positive relationship between BNPP and climatic variables, these results reflect the key role of energy (e.g., temperature) and soil resource profiles (e.g., water, nitrogen and other nutrients) in regulating the depth distribution of BNPP. More accurate depth-resolved information of soil resources that directly influence plant growth, particularly soil nutrient availability, would promote a more reliable prediction of BNPP and its depth allocation (Vicca et al., 2018). Soil physical properties also cannot be ignored.

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For example, both soil bulk density and sand show negative effects. They are key soil physical parameters determining the suitability of soil environment for root growth (Dexter, 2004). Another noteworthy phenomenon is that the effect of a specific soil property is soil layer-dependent, while the layer dependence of the effects of climatic and topographic variables is much weaker (Figure S9). These results demonstrate that the depth distribution of BNPP is driven by complex interplay among edaphic, climatic and topographic variables, which is further modulated by biome type as different biomes may adopt distinct carbon allocation strategies (Malhi et al., 2017; McCarthy et al., 2010; Wieder et al., 2015).

The data used in this study build upon quality-checked legacy datasets, and we further updated the data via literature synthesis to generate a more comprehensive one that improves spatial coverage and benefits robust assessment at the global scale. Although we show evidence that the two datasets are not statistically different in terms of BNPP estimates (derived from peer-reviewed publications vs. the ORNL DAAC legacy data; Figure S3), here we note several limitations in the estimation of root-derived BNPP due to the difficulty in field measurements and assumptions (Clark et al., 2001; Milchunas & Lauenroth, 2001). First, not all data include all BNPP components such as root exudates. BNPP allocated to root exudates and mycorrhizae may account for a considerable fraction of BNPP (particularly in forests) but is challenging to measure them in situ (Bertin et al., 2003; Clark et al., 2001). As such, BNPP would be underestimated and depend on the approach used to measure BNPP. Second, most data only include BNPP in a single year, but BNPP varies across years. Given that we focus on the spatial variability of BNPP across the globe, however, the consequences of temporal variability on our estimates would be small if we accept that interannual variability is smaller than spatial variability across the globe. Third, our approach implicitly assumes that roots in different soil depths have the same turnover times. For some plants, roots in different soil layers (e.g., coarse vs. fine roots) may have different functions, and roots with different functions may distribute unequally in soil layer depths (Freschet et al., 2017; Jackson et al., 1996). Thus, turnover times of different root functional types may be different, resulting in biases in the estimation of the proportional depth distribution of carbon inputs according to root biomass alone. However, our simulations using a two-pool root turnover model did not find differences between the vertical distributions of BNPP and root biomass (Figure 2a). Fourth, different approaches could be adopted to measure BNPP in different studies and can potentially cause uncertainties in the estimation. In the 54 literatures used for BNPP data collection in this study (Appendix A-Data sources), soil cores (22 papers) and ingrowth cores (26 papers) are the two most common approaches. We found that across most biomes, BNPP observed using different approaches (e.g., soil cores vs. ingrowth cores) are comparable (Figure S2), although discrepancies between datasets were found in several ecosystems, particularly in tundra ecosystems, possibly due to limited data availability. Thus, the uncertainties caused by different approaches to quantify BNPP would be small (Makkonen & Helmisaari, 1999). However, we acknowledge

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that BNPP measured using other approaches such as minirhizotron and isotope labelling may be significantly different from those using soil cores and ingrowth cores (Kuzyakov & Schneckenberger, 2004; Milchunas, 2009). In addition, for global BNPP mapping, it should be noted that soil depth would not reach to 2m. Thus, our estimation of 0–2m soil profile would be an overestimation of overall BNPP in some regions with shallow soils. Overall, we need a cost-efficient technique that can be easily applied across different biomes to accurately measure depth-resolved BNPP in situ.

To our knowledge, we are the first to spatially explicitly predict depth-specific BNPP across the globe using consistent approaches with the quantification of prediction uncertainties, and demonstrate the vital role of climatic and edaphic variables in controlling the distribution of BNPP across the globe as well as along the soil profile. The quantitative information is critical for explicit representation of soil layer-specific carbon inputs. By quantifying the spatial pattern of the depth distribution of carbon inputs, our maps provide information on belowground plant carbon allocation across the globe, which can be used to parameterize, scale or benchmark spatially explicit modelling of carbon cycle and facilitate more reliable predictions of whole-profile soil carbon dynamics across biomes as well as across the globe.

#### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Zhongkui Luo conceived the study. Guocheng Wang, Liujun Xiao, Zhongkui Luo, Jinfeng Chang, Yaoyao Chen and Lei Cheng compiled the data. Liujun Xiao, Guocheng Wang and Zhongkui Luo led the data assessment with the contributions of Xiali Mao and Xiaowei Guo Liujun Xiao conducted global mapping. Zhongkui Luo, Liujun Xiao, Guocheng Wang, Mingming Wang, Shuai Zhang, Zhou Shi, Yiqi Luo, Kailiang Yu and Fei Mo interpreted the results with the contribution of all authors. Zhongkui Luo, Liujun Xiao and Guocheng Wang led manuscript writing with substantial contributions of all authors.

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#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data, code and digital maps of BNPP generated in this study can be accessed from: https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/Datasets\_of\_ NPP\_soil\_radiocarbon\_and\_root\_biomass/12840050.

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# SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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#### APPENDIX A

#### Data sources

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