An open source database for the synthesis of soil radiocarbon data: ISRaD version 1.0

Corey R. Lawrence^{1*#}, Jeffrey Beem-Miller^{2#}, Alison M. Hoyt^{2,3#}, Grey Monroe^{4#}, Carlos A. Sierra^{2#}, Shane Stoner², Katherine Heckman^{5#}, Joseph C. Blankinship^{6#}, Susan E. Crow^{7#}, Gavin McNicol⁸, Susan Trumbore^{2#}, Paul A. Levine⁹, Olga Vindušková⁸, Katherine Todd-Brown¹⁰, Craig Rasmussen^{6#}, Caitlin E. Hicks Pries^{11#}, Christina Schädel^{12#}, Karis McFarlane¹³, Sebastian Doetterl¹⁴, Christine Hatté¹⁵, Yujie He⁹, Claire Treat¹⁶, Jennifer W. Harden^{7,17}, Margaret S. Torn³, Cristian Estop-Aragonés¹⁸, Asmeret Asefaw Berhe^{19#}, Marco Keiluweit^{20#}, Ágatha Della Rosa Kuhnen², Erika Marin-Spiotta^{21#}, Alain F. Plante^{22#}, Aaron Thompson^{23#}, Joshua P. Schimel^{24#}, Lydia J. S. Vaughn^{3,25}, Sophie F. von Fromm², Rota Wagai^{26#}

¹US Geological Survey, Geoscience & Environmental Change Science Center, Denver, CO, USA ²Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry, Jena, Germany ³Climate and Ecosystem Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA ⁴Graudate Degree Program in Ecology, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO, USA ⁵US Forest Service Northern Research Station, Houghton, MI, USA ⁶Department of Soil, Water, and Environmental Science, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA ⁷University of Hawaii Manoa, Honolulu, HI, USA ⁸Department of Earth System Science, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA ⁹Department of Earth System Science, University of California, Irvine, CA, USA ¹⁰Wilfred Laurier University, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada ¹¹Department of Biological Sciences, Dartmouth College, Hanover, NH, USA ¹²Center for Ecosystem Science and Society, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, AZ, USA ¹³Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore, CA, USA ¹⁴Department of Environmental Systems Science, ETH, Zurich, Switzerland ¹⁵LSCE, UMR 8212 CEA-CNRS-UVSQ, Université Paris Saclay, F-91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, France ¹⁶University of Eastern Finland, Joensuu, Finland ¹⁷US Geological Survey, Menlo Park, CA, USA ¹⁸Department of Renewable Resources, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada ¹⁹ Department of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of California, Merced, CA, USA ²⁰Stockbridge School of Agriculture, University of Massachusetts-Amherst, Amherst, MA, USA ²¹Department of Geography, University of Wisconsin - Madison, Madison, WI, USA ²²Department of Earth and Environmental Science, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA

²⁴Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Marine Biology, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA, USA
²⁵Department of Integrative Biology, University of California, Berkeley, CA, USA
²⁶National Agriculture and Food Research Organization, Institute for Agro-Environmental Sciences, Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan
*Corresponding Author (clawrence@usgs.gov), *USGS Powell Center working group participant

²³Department of Crop and Soil Science & Odum School of Ecology, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA

Abstract. Radiocarbon is a critical constraint on our estimates of the timescales of soil carbon cycling that can aid in identifying mechanisms of carbon stabilization and destabilization, and improve forecast of soil carbon response to management or environmental change. Despite the wealth of soil radiocarbon data that has been reported over the past 75 years, the ability to apply these data to global scale questions is limited by our capacity to synthesize and compare measurements generated using a variety of methods. Here, we present the International Soil Radiocarbon Database (ISRaD, soilradiocarbon.org), an open-source archive of soils data that include reported measurements from bulk soils; distinct soil carbon pools isolated in the laboratory by a variety of soil fractionation methods; samples of soil gas or water collected interstitially from within an intact soil profile; CO₂ gas isolated from laboratory soil incubations; and fluxes collected in situ from a soil profile. The core of ISRaD is a relational database structured around individual datasets (entries) and organized hierarchically to report soil radiocarbon data, measured at different physical and temporal scales, as well as other soil or environmental properties that may also be measured and may assist with interpretation and context. Anyone may contribute their own data to the database by entering it into the ISRaD template and subjecting it to quality assurance protocols. ISRaD can be accessed through: (1) a web-based interface, (2) an R package (ISRaD), or (3) direct access to code and data through the GitHub repository, which hosts both code and data. The design of ISRaD allows for participants to become directly involved in the management, design, and application of ISRaD data. The synthesized dataset is available in two forms: the original data as reported by the authors of the datasets; and an enhanced dataset that includes ancillary geospatial data calculated within the ISRaD framework. ISRaD also provides data management tools in the ISRaD-R package that provide a starting point for data analysis; and as an open-source project, the broader soils community is invited and encouraged to add data, tools, and ideas for improvement. As a whole, ISRaD provides resources to aid our evaluation of soil dynamics across a range of spatial and temporal scales. The ISRaD v1.0 dataset (Lawrence et al., 2019) is archived and freely available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2613911.

1. Introduction

The study of soil organic matter (SOM) dynamics is essential to an improved understanding of the terrestrial ecosystem dynamics and the Earth's carbon cycle (Oades, 1988; Heimann and Reichstein, 2008). Current evaluations suggest that SOM accounts for up to 2770 Pg of organic carbon in the top 3 m of soil (Jackson et al., 2017; Le Quéré et al., 2018), which makes it one of the largest actively cycling terrestrial carbon reservoir and an important modulator of climate change (Sulman et al., 2018). However, the lack of clarity about which fraction of that reservoir will respond to ongoing environmental changes (i.e. timescales of years to centuries) and which will respond only on millennial timescales (He et al. 2016) makes it imperative to improve our understanding of the controls on soil carbon cycling. Additionally, many studies and models focus on only the top 0.5 m of soil or less, despite deeper soils contributing a significant proportion of SOM storage by way of low carbon concentrations but large deep soil mass (Rumpel and Kögel-Knabner, 2010). There is an urgent need to synthesize a wide variety of soils data to model the role of soil in the climate system (Bradford et al., 2016), to develop more data-driven estimates of soil health (Harden et al., 2017), to inform policy and land management plans that preserve and enhance soil carbon storage (Minasny et al. 2017; Poulton et al. 2018), and to extend our detailed understanding of soil developed from observations made at the profile scale to both regional and global extents. Here we describe a new open-source database for the synthesis of soils data with a particular focus on soil radiocarbon data.

Radiocarbon (i.e., ¹⁴C) content of SOM is a useful tool to estimate the timescales of SOM cycling including the turnover time, residence time, or mean age of carbon in soil - defined as the time it has been isolated in soil from the atmosphere (Sierra et al., 2017; Manzoni et al., 2009; Trumbore, 2006). Although it was recognized very early on that radiocarbon measurements could provide a useful measure of the stability of soil carbon (Broecker and Olson 1960; Tam and Ostlund, 1960), the need for several grams of carbon for decay-counting methods meant that there were relatively few publications before the mid-1980's (e.g., Scharpenseel 1971; O'Brien & Stout, 1978). Many of these papers only published bulk soil radiocarbon for the same reason (with some exceptions, e.g., Martel and Paul, 1974; Goh et al. 1977). These early papers indicated that carbon in soils is heterogeneous and made up of a range of different aged materials that could be separated

chemically (Martel and Paul, 1974). Several of these studies use models of the uptake of bomb carbon (Goh et al. 1977, Cherinski 1981, O'Brien, 1984; Balesdent, 1987). In the 1980's the advent of accelerator mass spectrometry, a method that measures ¹⁴C atoms in sample by accelerating them to high energy, allowed for radiocarbon analysis using milligrams of carbon instead of grams, while simultaneously increasing sample throughput (Trumbore, 2009). This development enabled analysis of small amounts of archived soils to track the incorporation of ¹⁴C derived from atmospheric testing of nuclear weapons over time, as well as making it far easier to analyze physically and chemically isolated soil fractions (e.g., Trumbore 1993). These applications have led to an explosion in the number of publications with radiocarbon measurements from soil, increasing from a few dozen papers annually during the 1980's to more than 150 per year in the last decade (based on papers with "soil" and "radiocarbon" as keywords). The database presented here is an attempt to provide an archive for all the previously published data but also a repository for organizing new data as it is published.

Two recent soil radiocarbon synthesis efforts demonstrate the utility of these data for improving predictions of SOM dynamics (He et al., 2016; Mathieu et al., 2015). Bulk soil radiocarbon measurements, if not part of repeated time series, provide only an approximation of the time elapsed since carbon in the soil was fixed from the atmosphere. However, this mean value is not representative of how fast soil C will respond to a change in inputs, as it has been repeatedly demonstrated that SOM is not homogeneous, and that C stabilized by different physical, chemical or biological mechanisms cycles at different rates. Models used to explain time series of bulk radiocarbon (e.g. Baisden et al (2001; 2013a, 2013b) or physically and chemically separated soil organic matter fractions (Gaudinski et al. 2000; Sierra et al. 2012, Schrumpf et al. 2013) require model structures with multiple pools cycling on different timescales to simultaneously explain the rate of bomb ¹⁴C uptake and the mean ¹⁴C signature of SOM. The pool partitioning approach is easily implemented in SOM models, but in reality, measuring these pools is both challenging and dependent on the techniques used to fractionate the bulk soil (Moni et al., 2012) or to track throughput of bomb-derived carbon through repeat measurements (Baisden et al., 2013; Basiden and Keller, 2013). Critically, approaches using radiocarbon to estimate the timescales of carbon cycling in soils require multiple measurements of carbon in distinct soil reservoirs (Trumbore, 2000) or through time (Baisden et al., 2013; Basiden and Keller, 2013). A second measure of carbon cycling rates in soils is the transit time, or the mean age of carbon leaving the soil as respired CO₂ or in dissolved forms (Sierra et al., 2017). The modeled transit time can be constrained by measurements of the radiocarbon signature of carbon in these fluxes. Critically, approaches using radiocarbon to estimate the timescales of carbon cycling in soils require multiple measurements of carbon in distinct soil reservoirs (Trumbore, 2000) or a time series of measurements made over the course of several years (Baisden et al., 2013; Basiden and Keller, 2013).

Ongoing study of soils has led to shifting conceptual views of the controls on SOM dynamics (Blankinship et al., 2018; Golchin et al., 1996; Lehmann and Kleber, 2015; Oades, 1989; Schmidt and Torn et al., 2011). Current conceptual views that emphasize the protection of SOM from microbial decomposition via physical isolation or sorption to soil mineral surfaces (Lehmann and Kleber, 2015) and within anaerobic microsites (Keiluweit et al., 2016) have largely replaced earlier paradigms of humification, selective preservation, and progressive decomposition. Three of the fundamental questions currently driving SOM research are: (1) What are the controls on the partitioning of organic inputs between soil reservoirs cycling over different timescales; (2) what factors determine the fraction of organic inputs to soil that are lost, retained, or transferred each reservoir; and (3) which mechanisms contribute to the stabilization or protection of SOM? To address these questions, researchers typically measure the concentration or mass content of organic carbon along with other properties, including molecular composition, isotopic ratios, and the distribution of SOM between conceptually or operationally defined pools (e.g., Basile-Doelsch et al., 2009) or a time series of samples collected over the course of decades (e.g., Baisden et al, 2002a).

Soil fractionation is the operationally defined separation of soils into distinct pools or "fractions" through a variety of physical, chemical, and biological approaches. Soil fractionation is generally intended to isolate soil fractions that reflect SOM in different physico-chemical states or mechanisms of SOM protection (Trumbore and Zheng, 1996); these mechanisms may operate on distinct temporal scales (e.g., Khomo et al., 2017). For example, density fractionation of SOM is a commonly applied technique (Golchin et al., 1994; 1995; Crow et al., 2007; Sollins et al., 2006; 2009; Swanston et al. 2005). The "light" fraction of soil material that floats in a dense solution (e.g., sodium polytungstate) or gets picked up by electrostatic attraction (Kaiser et al., 2009) is

sometimes used as a proxy for rapidly-cycling SOM, as this material is generally observed to have a shorter mean residence time compared with the bulk soil average, while the "heavy" or dense material is used as a proxy for mineral-associated SOM, which is assumed to cycle more slowly (e.g., Sollins et al., 2009). In some cases, sonication of the suspension may be used to further isolate occluded SOM, i.e., organic material in soil aggregates (Kasier and Berhe, 2014). Other methods for isolating SOM with different cycling rates in the soil include, but are not limited to, physical separation of aggregates by size and water-stability (Jastrow et al., 2006; Plante et al., 2006; Six and Paustian, 2014) or of different-sized soil particles (Desjardins et al., 1994), biological incubation of soils (Torn et al., 2005; Trumbore, 2000; Paul, et al., 2001), and chemical extractions (Heckman et al., 2018; Masiello et al., 2004).

Comparing the mass and radiocarbon signature of the carbon leaving or entering the soil system (fluxes) with those of specific soil fractions provides insight into the rates of transfers between pools, as well as differentiating between the mean age and the transit time for the whole soil, a given depth increment or a given SOM pool (Gaudinski et al., 2000; Baisden et al., 2002a; 2002b; 2003; Sierra et al., 2014; Ohno et al., 2017; Ziegler et al., 2017; Szymanski et al., 2019). Similarly, measurements of interstitial soil carbon (i.e., in soil water or gases collected from within an intact soil profile) and its isotopic signature provide key information about the dynamics of the carbon present in the soil solution (Sanderman et al., 2008). Soluble carbon is believed to be the dominant pathway for vertical transport of organic carbon (Kaiser and Kalbitz, 2012; Angst et al., 2016), and also an intermediate stage through which carbon exchanges from being vulnerable to microbial decomposition to being stabilized on mineral surfaces (Jackson et al., 2017; Leinemann et al., 2018).

Measurements of bulk soils as well as soil fractions are evaluated in the context of other soil properties to better understand the controls on SOM preservation. However, the diversity of soil fractionation methods makes it difficult to compare measurements across soils or to evaluate best practices (e.g., Trumbore and Zheng, 1996). Combining radiocarbon measurements of soil carbon fractions, time series, incubations, interstitial observations, and fluxes has proven useful in resolving the contribution of different soil carbon persistence mechanisms in a site-specific

modeling context (Braakhekke et al., 2015), but the application of this approach beyond the site-scale has thus far been limited due to the lack of globally synthesized data.

With a changing paradigm for SOM dynamics and ever-evolving SOM models, it is more important now than ever that we synthesize existing soil radiocarbon measurements *and* provide a central repository for new data. There have been previous efforts to develop a soil radiocarbon database (Becker-Heidmann, 1996; 2010; Trumbore et al. 2011), separately or integrated with a general-purpose soil carbon database (Harden et al., 2017). However, a challenge remains: to compile and organize soil radiocarbon data that has been collected in many different and complex ways (e.g., using various fractionation methods or including fluxes as well as organic matter pools). Addressing this challenge will provide new opportunities to leverage existing soil radiocarbon data for critical research such as developing practical and theoretical insights into the information contained in various fractionation methods and how they relate to one another. This will expand our understanding of controls on soil carbon dynamics, and facilitate broader integration of radiocarbon constraints on soil carbon turnover in Earth system models. For example, He et al. (2016) leveraged a synthesis of bulk-soil radiocarbon data to better constrain the age of carbon in five Earth system models, demonstrating that without this added constraint, these models overestimate soil carbon sequestration potential by an average of 40%.

Here, we present a flexible database spanning broad spatial scales and capturing a range of data types including diverse soil fractionation methods, incubations, fluxes, interstitial measurements and spanning a range of spatial scales. Our goal is to provide an open-access data resource that will encourage the scientific community to apply the database for a variety of synthesis studies or metaanalyses, and also contribute data to the repository.

2. The International Soil Radiocarbon Database (ISRaD)

The International Soil Radiocarbon Database (ISRaD) is designed to be an open-source platform that (1) provides a repository for soil radiocarbon and associated measurements, (2) is able to accommodate data collected from a large variety of soil radiocarbon studies, including the diversity of fractionation techniques applied to soils as well as repeated bulk measurements made

over spatial or temporal gradients, and (3) is flexible and adaptable enough to accommodate new variables and data types. Although ISRaD was specifically developed with soil radiocarbon measurements in mind, it is well suited for synthesizing other soil measurements, including stable C and N isotopes. Importantly, we currently focus only on natural abundance isotopic measurements and therefore exclude data from isotopic tracer studies. The ISRaD v1.x data is archived and freely available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2613911 (Lawrence et al., 2019). Access to additional information as well as the various ISRaD resources described below is provided through the ISRaD website (soilradiocarbon.org).

2.1 Database and Dataset Structure

In its most general form, ISRaD is an implicitly relational database. It consists of a linked hierarchical list of tables that contain soil measurements, i.e. variables (Fig. 1). The fundamental unit of organization in ISRaD is the *entry*, which corresponds to a unique dataset i.e., a dataset with a digital object identifier (DOI), while each subordinate table corresponds to data from that entry with a particular spatial or temporal dimension.

Transparency and traceability are fundamental tenants of ISRaD. Accordingly, each entry, whether ingested individually or as a compilation, must have a DOI. For data from published studies, the DOI of the publication is acceptable. Data from unpublished studies must be registered for a DOI through a DOI registration agency (e.g., zenodo.org, www.pangaea.de, etc.) prior to ingestion into ISRaD. As it is equally important to be able to reconstruct prior data compilations e.g., synthesis studies, the specific references for individual datasets making up a synthesis are ingested as part of the synthesis entry and the entry is flagged within the database with an additional reference to the synthesis study itself. For example, several of the major data sources added to ISRaD were synthesis studies (e.g., He et al., 2016; Mathieu et al., 2015), and users can generate reports of data from these prior syntheses by constructing a query that utilizes this synthesis flag.

Each ISRaD release will be available in two forms: (1) a raw version of data (ISRaD_data), containing only values that were reported in the original source of each data entry and (2) an expanded version of the database (ISRaD_extra). The ISRaD_extra version of the dataset includes additional parameters that have either been calculated or imported based on site coordinates, such

as geospatially referenced climate information. Table 2 includes examples of some of the new variables included in *ISRaD_extra*; a more detailed list of this growing list of variables can be found on the ISRaD website in the ISRaD_extra Information File. Both versions of the database follow the general data hierarchy outlined below.

2.2 Data Hierarchy

The ISRaD data hierarchy consists of eight levels of information (Fig. 2). The top level of the data hierarchy is the metadata table (1), which includes information describing the source of data for a particular entry. The remainder of the hierarchical levels can be defined by the spatial extent of the information included in each table. The site (2), profile (3), layer (4), and fraction (5) tables represent information captured from decreasing spatial extents: from the scale of the study area to individual mass fractions isolated from a single soil sample. Special cases of the last three spatial extents further accommodate the temporal context of repeated measurements: (6) fluxes, (7) interstitial, and (8) incubations. In the sub-sections below, we provide overviews and examples of the types of information reported at each level, and for each of the tables that occupy these levels (Fig. 2).

The data hierarchy is maintained across tables through the use of unique keys, or linking variables (noted with a "*" in the following descriptions) that are required in each record (row) of data in each table. In addition to the table-specific key, each subordinate table in the hierarchy must also contain the key variables of the above tables. For example, in addition to a unique <code>layer_name*</code>, each record in the layer table must also be associated with an <code>entry_name*</code>, <code>site_name*</code>, and <code>pro_name*</code> (profile name) i.e., the key variables for the metadata, site, and profile tables.

ISRaD provides basic quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) protocols (described below) expert review that are applied prior to ingesting entries. These protocols are used to ensure required variables are complete, that the key variables match across levels of the hierarchy (more detail below), and data entered match the specified data type and range for a given variable. Variables that are not designated as required need only be completed if those data are available. The ISRaD template and a detailed description containing the full list of variables along with instructions for

populating the template can be downloaded or viewed from the "Contribute" page of the webinterface (soilradiocarbon.org).

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

214

215

For all variables across all hierarchical levels, it is important to observe the acceptable data types (character, numeric) and units. Variable names, descriptions, and reporting conventions are given in the heading columns of the ISRaD template file (ISRaD_Template.xlsx) and more detailed information is provided in the data dictionary (ISRaD_Template_Info.xlsx). Allowed values include unrestricted text, controlled text, or numeric variables with or without defined ranges. Unrestricted text is generally limited to naming and note data fields, while controlled text fields are implemented for certain variables in an attempt to standardize the data and simplify data analysis. In the event that desired variables are not included in the current version of ISRaD, users may submit a request to add new variables. This process is initiated by posting an issue at the ISRaD GitHub repository and is described in more detail in section 3.4.

226227

- 228 2.2.1 Metadata Table
- The metadata table provides information for the characterization of the entry itself. Required
- 230 metadata includes the entry name (i.e., entry_name*), the DOI, the data curator (the person who
- oversees template entry), and their contact information. The entry name is the key variable used to
- match the entry with measurements reported at the other data levels.

233

- 234 2.2.2 Site Data Table
- 235 Site-level data are limited to the geospatial details defining the coarsest scale of the study area(s)
- included in each entry. We define a site as a spatially defined location that includes one or more
- soil profiles. By convention, we define a site as having ≥ 5 km radius, i.e., samples collected within
- 5 km of each other should be grouped under the same "site" designation. However, the 5 km radius
- is a convention only, as the distinction between site and profile may be study-specific, and
- 240 geospatial data at this resolution is not always available for legacy datasets. Spatial coordinates are
- required to designate a site, and thus the required fields at the site level are limited to the site name
- 242 (site name*), latitude, and longitude. Every entry must specify a minimum of one site location,
- but can include multiple sites that do not need to be located in close proximity. For entries that do
- 244 not report spatial coordinates, the data curator may estimate latitude and longitude based on the

description of the study area using any of the widely acceptable mapping software (e.g., Google Earth, Google Maps, etc.). The site table does not include fields for reporting site properties. Such directly measured variables are reported at the profile level. The intended purpose of the site level data is to provide at least coarse-scale geospatial coordinates for extracting consistently sourced parameters from geospatial datasets, which can then be compared against the range of measurements reported at the profile level.

251

252 2.2.3 Profile Data Table

253 Profile-level data includes details pertaining to specific sampling locations. If available, profile-254 scale spatial coordinates should be provided in addition to site-scale coordinates.

255256

257

258

259

260

Many variables that may initially appear to belong at the site level are instead included at the profile level to facilitate accurate representation of spatial heterogeneity at a finer scale than the site level (e.g., for multiple profiles observed at the same site). Examples include local mean annual temperature and precipitation, soil taxonomic classification, vegetation type, land cover, depth to bedrock, and parent material composition. Other than the entry name and site name, the only additional required variable at the profile-level is the profile name (*pro_name**).

261262

263 2.2.4 Flux Data Table

Soil flux data present a special case of observations that correspond to the profile level of the database hierarchy. Flux-level data allows for reporting of temporally explicit measurements of mass or energy transfer occurring at the profile scale. Both gas and liquid analytes (e.g. CO₂, CH₄, dissolved OC, particulate OC, etc.) may be reported in flux data. In addition to the profile name, records with flux data must also include the observation date (*flx_obs_date*). Data measured at multiple time points in a single location will have identical profile names but unique temporal data.

270

271

2.2.5 Layer Data Table

Layer-level data corresponds to measurements made for a specific depth increment collected from a soil profile. The required variables at the layer level include layer name (*lyr_name*), depth of layer top, and depth of layer bottom. The latter two variables describe the upper and lower range of the sampling depth, respectively, in units of centimeters. We use a depth reporting system where the top of the mineral soil is denoted as zero and subsequent depths below that point are reported with incrementally increasing positive values. Organic horizons are thus reported as negative depth intervals. Special indicator fields (e.g., $lyr_all_org_neg$) are used when the depth to the mineral soil is unknown, e.g. for deep organic horizons or peats. The layer level is where most common measurements of soil physical, chemical, and/or biological properties are reported. As such, there is an ever-increasing list of variables that may be reported in the layer table. Users should consult the up-to-date template instruction file for the complete list of accepted variables.

2.2.6 Interstitial Data Table

The interstitial level is a special case of layer-level data. Specifically, interstitial data refers to measurements made on material occupying the interstices of the soil structure. In most cases, this material can be thought of as being mobile relative to the rest of the soil matter. Some common examples include gases, liquids, and colloids. Like flux data, the interstitial data table accommodates repeated measurements of these properties through time and as such, the observation date must be recorded for each record in the interstitial table. Because interstitial records may not correspond to the same depth increments defined for solid phase analyses, separate depth reporting is used in the interstitial table distinct from what is reported in the layer table. Both sampling methodology as well as the properties of interstitial samples are reported in the interstitial table.

2.2.7 Fraction Data Table

Compared with most other soil databases, the fraction data table of ISRaD is unique. The fraction data fields are designed to accommodate and allow for fair comparison of the wide-ranging methodologies utilized to partition soils into discrete fractions. As such, there are more required fields for the fraction level compared with the other hierarchical levels. These required fields include fraction name (frc_name*); the input source (frc_input), which can be the name of another fraction or bulk (unfractionated) soil layer fraction scheme (frc_scheme), which is a controlled set of terms describing the general class of fractionation procedure used; the fractionation agent (frc_agent), which provides additional detail for methods that have multiple options; the upper and lower boundaries (frc_lower and frc_upper), which allow for description of the fractionation

thresholds used in the fractionation procedure; and finally the fraction scheme units (*frc scheme units*), which describes the units of reference for the cut-off thresholds.

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

306

307

For example (see figure 3), most soil density fraction (*frc_scheme* = density) procedures starts with bulk soil from the layer in question (*frc_input* = bulk). The first distinct fraction, "free light", is isolated by floating the soil in a heavy solution, e.g. sodium polytungstate (frc_agent = SPT). If the density of the sodium polytungstate used in density separation step was 1.6 g cm⁻³, *frc_lower* for the "free light" fraction = 0, and *frc_upper* = 1.6 (indicating that anything with a density less than 1.6 was included), and *frc_scheme_units* = g cm³. In addition to these required fields, the fraction-level data may include many of the same data fields that are reported for the layer-level data. Ideally the fraction data also includes the mass percentage of the total sample represented by the fraction as well as the specific carbon concentration and carbon isotopic composition of the fraction, which are critical for relating bulk and fraction level observations.

318319

- 320 2.2.8 Incubation Data Table
- 321 Flux rates and isotopic signatures of laboratory-incubated samples are reported in the incubation
- 322 table. Sample processing data (e.g., whether or not roots have been removed from samples prior
- 323 to incubation) are recorded, as well as incubation conditions (e.g. temperature, moisture, duration).
- Repeat measurements, such as incubation time series, can also be recorded. Incubation records
- must be linked either to a layer or both a fraction and a layer, e.g. roots isolated from a specific
- bulk layer sample.

327

- 328 2.3 Radiocarbon Data Reporting Conventions
- Radiocarbon measurements of environmental samples have a long history, much of which is
- reviewed in Trumbore (2009) including common units. Radiocarbon data ingested to ISRaD are
- required to adhere to some basic reporting conventions. First, measurements of radiocarbon may
- be reported in units of either fraction modern (FM) or Δ^{14} C. Within the *ISRaD_extra* version of
- 333 the database, values reported in one or the other accepted units are internally converted and filled
- across all entries, so that either unit may be used for analyses of the full dataset. Other units are
- not supported at this time for example, calibrated radiocarbon dates are not accepted, as the
- 336 calibration curves are evolving over time. Such calibrated ages make sense only for certain

fractions (e.g. macrofossils found in soils), and do not make sense in the context of most soil organic matter, which is an open system for carbon, with inputs that vary in Δ^{14} C over time. For datasets where radiocarbon is reported in units other that FM or Δ^{14} C (e.g. percent modern carbon or conventional radiocarbon age), it is up to the data curator or original author of the dataset to convert the reported values to one or both of the permitted units. Second, the year of measurement for each radiocarbon value must also be reported so that values may be internally converted between the two accepted units. In addition to these basic requirements, there are several other optional fields pertaining to radiocarbon data. These include the radiocarbon laboratory; the laboratory number, a unique identifier issued by each AMS facility; the analytical error reported for each measurement reported by most laboratories; and the environmental standard deviation of replicate samples (if analyzed). These variables are not required for data submission but should be included if they are available.

2.4 Data Ingestion

New data entries are added, or ingested, into ISRaD through a user-initiated process. The most common means of ingesting entries is via the template provided on the ISRaD website (ISRaD_Master_Template.xlsx). The template is intended to be used in combination with the data dictionary (ISRaD_Template_Info.xlsx). These files and other supporting documentation (user guide and FAQ) are also available at the website (soilradiocarbon.org). Completed entries that have been formatted for ingestion must also pass the automated QA/QC test before the ingestion process can proceed. Users can initiate QA/QC using the ISRaD-R package (described below), or directly from the ISRaD website. If the entry fails QA/QC, the report from the test can be used as a guide to make corrections. Once an entry passes QA/QC, it can be submitted for the final two steps of the ingestion process: expert review and final ingestion.

Data templates that have passed QA/QC should be submitted via email to ISRaD at info.israd@gmail.com. These templates are then distributed to ISRaD expert reviewers who inspect template files to ensure proper completion of the more complex aspects of the template, such as classification of soil fractionation methods. If problems are identified with a submitted dataset during the expert review process, reviewers will work with the data curator to ensure these

problems are corrected. Once the expert reviewer signs off on a submitted template, it will be ingested into the database.

3. Database Infrastructure

- 370 3.1 ISRaD v1.x
- The current version, v1.4, of ISRaD includes a total of 212 individual data entries and 550 sites
- spanning the globe (Fig. 3). The current distribution of data across the various levels of the
- database hierarchy are shown in Table 1, and a full list of data entry references is provided in
- 374 Supplemental Table 1.

375

369

- Users may access ISRaD and its supporting information three ways: (1) the website, (2) the ISRaD-
- R package, and (3) the GitHub repository. Each of these access points is described in more detail
- 378 below.

379

- 380 3.2 The ISRaD Website
- 381 Most simply, users can access ISRaD data and associated resources by way of the website
- 382 (http://soilradiocarbon.org). From the website users can download pre-compiled versions of the
- database in a simple file format ((.xlsx or .csv), which can be easily ingested into graphical or
- database software. The website also provides access to the most recent versions of the ISRaD entry
- template, the template information file, an up-to-date list of the datasets included in the latest
- version of ISRaD, the QA/QC tool, and a variety of other resources for assisting with filling out
- data templates and interacting with ISRaD data.

388

- 3.3 Accessing ISRaD within the R computing environment and the ISRaD-R package
- 390 ISRaD has been designed for ease of use in the R computing environment (R Foundation for
- 391 Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) in order for users to be able to take advantage of the full
- 392 suite of R capabilities and functionality to manipulate and analyze ISRaD data. Many of the basic
- functionalities such as loading current versions of the ISRaD data objects can be performed in the
- R environment without installation of the ISRaD-R package. A number of vignettes including R
- scripts for some commonly used data manipulations or plotting are given on the website.

396

Users who need to locally compile a version of ISRaD (e.g. using their own templates) or who want access to the full suite of reporting functions can access these features by installing the ISRaD-R package (also called *ISRaD*, which is available at the CRAN repository, http://cran.r-project.org/). The ISRaD-R package primarily consists of the code that is used to assemble the database and perform the QA/QC checks for the ISRaD datasets. Users may ingest their own data within a local version of the ISRaD dataset by running the function ISRaD::compile(). This functionality is intended to allow researchers to interpret their own new or unpublished data in the context of ISRaD data. Additionally, the ISRaD-R package provides simple tools to download and quickly import the most recent ISRaD data into the R environment, and produce basic data summaries and visualizations for the full dataset or user-defined subsets using report functions.

407

408

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

3.4 The ISRaD GitHub Repository

- The source code for the ISRaD-R package is hosted under version control on the GitHub repository
- 410 ISRaD (https://github.com/International-Soil-Radiocarbon-Database/ISRaD) (GitHub Inc., San
- 411 Francisco, CA). This platform is used to facilitate the open-source collaborative development of
- 412 ISRaD data and additional database tools. Through the GitHub interface, users may (1) access data
- entries included in the compiled database; (2) evaluate and suggest modifications of the underlying
- 414 code used for compilation, QA/QC, and calculation of the additional variables included in either
- 415 the compiled ISRaD data object (ISRaD data) or in the augmented data product (ISRaD extra);
- and (3) report problems, questions, or other issues.

417

418

3.5 The Soil Carbon Information Hub

- For students or non-experts interested in learning more about the science behind the data, we have
- developed the Soil Organic Carbon Information Hub (SOC-Hub). SOC-Hub (https://international-
- 421 soil-radiocarbon-database.github.io/SOC-Hub/) is a set of articles in the form of blog posts
- 422 providing background information on soils, radiocarbon, the terrestrial carbon cycle, and soil
- 423 models. A large portion of the content for this site was created by students, and whenever possible
- 424 uses non-technical language to describe topics pertinent to ISRaD. Technical editing of the SOC-
- Hub is facilitated through the ISRaD GitHub repository. Users are welcome and encouraged to
- 426 contribute to or improve the content in SOC-Hub. We will update the SOC-Hub annually.

4. Database Operations

428 4.1 Accessing data entries

429 Individual data entries (i.e., completed templates, or templates output from ingested compilations) 430 that have passed QA/QC and the expert review process are hosted in the "ISRaD" data files" folder 431 of the GitHub repository. Users may download these entries in order to add new data or to make 432 corrections to existing data if problems are discovered. Corrected files can be resubmitted to 433 ISRaD once they pass QA/QC by emailing the updated template and a text file of the QA/QC 434 report to the ISRaD editor (info.israd@gmail.com), and will be reingested after passing the expert 435 review process. This process of user-initiated revision of existing data entries is particularly useful 436 when large data compilations are ingested into ISRaD from previously published syntheses (e.g., 437 He et al., 2016; Mathieu et al., 2015) or when publications report treatment means. Depending on 438 the scope of the synthesis efforts, entries ingested into ISRaD this way may omit data available

440441

439

427

442 4.2 Accessing code

corrected as needed.

Access to the source code underlying the ISRaD database compilation and calculations allows for

from the original studies, and the entry modification process allows those data to be added or

- 444 users to check for errors and contribute to the functionality of ISRaD. Users with a registered
- GitHub account are invited to write code that adds to or improves upon the existing database tools.
- 446 Using standard GitHub tools, users will submit a "pull request", and following code testing and
- evaluation of utility to the ISRaD community, user-submitted code will be incorporated into the
- 448 ISRaD-R package.

449

- 450 4.3 Reporting Issues, making suggestions, and asking questions.
- One of the most important tools available to ISRaD users is the ability to post questions, report
- issues, or make suggestions, including requests to incorporate new variables. We use issue tracking
- 453 tools provided by GitHub to track and categorize user input including: suggestions for
- improvements; problems or errors with website, the R-package, code, or any other aspects of
- 455 ISRaD; requests for new variables or issues related to existing variables (e.g., incorrect acceptable
- ranges used in QA/QC); or asking questions related to template entry or any other aspect of ISRaD.

While the GitHub issue-reporting functionality is the preferred means for reporting questions or issues with the database or process, it does require that users register a GitHub account. Users who do not wish to or are not able to register with GitHub, can also submit issues or questions via an email to the ISRaD editor (info.israd@gmail.com), however, the response time may be slower.

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

457

458

459

460

4.4 Database Versioning and Archiving

Versioning of ISRaD datasets will be tracked on two levels: official releases and regular updates. Official releases of the ISRaD datasets (e.g., ISRaD v1.0) will be issued periodically, following major changes to the codebase or after the ingestion substantial new data. For each official release, a DOI number will be issued and the data will be archived at Zenodo (https://zenodo.org/) and at the USGS Science Base repository. These archives will be maintained into perpetuity to facilitate reproduction of any analyses conducted using a past version of the database. Regular updates correspond to minor changes in development version of ISRaD. These regular updates occur anytime the codebase is rebuilt or when new data is ingested. Regular updates will be archived and available through the GitHub repository, but they will not be issued DOI numbers. The most current version of the ISRaD datasets are always available from the ISRaD website and the GitHub repository. To ensure repeatability of analyses and accurate citations, users accessing the ISRaD dataset should always record version number of the data. The names of ISRaD data files reflect the dataset versioning using the following standardized structure: (data name)(vX)(date).(format), where data name reflects the file type and structure (e.g., ISRaD extra flat layer), vX refers to the most recent official release version number (X), date corresponds to date of the most recent regular update of the database in the GitHub repository, and *format* is the file type.

481 482

483

484

485

Versioning of the ISRaD codebase and the ISRaD-R package are tracked separately from ISRaD data. The codebase versioning is tracked via Git but can be linked back to the data version using the *date* identifier from the data file names. The ISRaD-R package versioning is tracked via the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) and is independent of the ISRaD data versioning.

Thus, when using the ISRaD-R package it is useful to record the version installed from CRAN

but users must also remember to record which version of the data they have accessed.

488

489

- 4.5 Citing ISRaD
- 490 Users citing ISRaD should cite this publication as well as the most recent official data release at
- 491 the time that they accessed the data. In their citation of the official release, users should also
- reference the version of the data they used (e.g., v1-2019-09-09).

493

494

- 4.6 Data Sharing Between Soil Databases
- 495 ISRaD is not the only soils database available to the international research community. The
- 496 primary niche of ISRaD is the ability to synthesize soil radiocarbon data and provide a framework
- for comparing soil carbon fraction data. For other purposes, there may be other soil databases that
- are more applicable. However, as a benefit of adding data to ISRaD, we facilitate sharing of data
- 499 ingested into ISRaD with other databases developed by the soil science community. At present,
- 500 ISRaD has a reciprocal agreement with the International Soil Carbon Network (ISCN), which is
- focused on soil carbon content and related variables from bulk soils (i.e., no isotope or soil fraction
- information). As per this agreement, the ISCN retrieves bulk soil data from ISRaD, and is
- responsible for filtering duplicate entries and incorporating any new data into the ISCN database.

5. Database Governance

- ISRaD is a community effort with multiple contributors operating at different levels. Governance
- of ISRaD is required in order to ensure continuity of services and to plan for the future evolution
- of this data repository. The governance structure of the ISRaD is pyramid shaped (Fig. 5). The
- 508 ISRaD scientific steering committee (SSC) consists of a rotating group of 7 scientists and data
- managers. The committee members are nominated and voted into service by a majority vote of the
- existing steering committee. The role of the steering committee is to determine the feasibility of
- major changes to ISRaD proposed by the community; to oversee data management, archiving, and
- 512 establishment of cooperative agreements; and to coordinate activities and funding of affiliated
- 513 institutions.

514

504

Database *maintainers* oversee the development and maintenance of the technical resources underlying ISRaD. For example, these individuals are responsible for overseeing GitHub pull requests and managing major changes in the ISRaD data template and/or data structure. The ISRaD associate editor is a special case of maintainer, whose role also includes assigning submitted templates to expert reviewers (described below) and periodically rebuilding the database with new entries that have passed the expert review process.

Data *contributors* are users who contribute data to ISRaD. Anyone can be a data contributor provided they agree to the terms of use and follow the proper steps for contributing data to ISRaD. Within the pool of data contributors, individuals with significant experience working within the ISRaD structure may be designated, either by the steering committee or database maintainers, as *expert reviewers*. These individuals are tasked to assist maintainers and oversee peer review of contributed entries. Although the automated QA/QC tools are designed to catch many common errors in the data ingestion process, review by these expert contributors ensures the integrity of the data within ISRaD.

Finally, ISRaD *data users* are individuals who are accessing ISRaD or ISRaD-supported resources to utilize data and other resources rather than to contribute data. Anyone can be a data user provided they agree to the basic user guidelines and terms of use described in the next section.

Although the structure of the ISRaD governance pyramid is oriented around individual users, the nature of scientific research is often more group-focused. For example, teams of researchers generally work together to seek out funding and to conduct research. Thus, in some cases a group or team of individuals may seek to utilize or modify ISRaD for their purposes. Such groups can petition the scientific steering committee to be formally designated as an ISRaD organization. This process should be followed when groups seek to leverage the ISRaD resources beyond the scope of a basic user or contributor. The steering committee will consider the scope of the work proposed by the group and, when appropriate, provide a letter of support for funding proposals. Approved organizations should nominate a member to serve on the steering committee and, in the case of organizations making large changes or additions to ISRaD, a data maintainer to coordinate the technical aspects of that work.

6. Database Availability and User Guidelines

- As detailed above, ISRaD is an open source project that provides several ways for participation.
- 548 ISRaD v1.0 data (Lawrence et al., 2019) is archived and freely available at
- 549 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2613911 Anyone may share or adapt the ISRaD dataset provided
- they do so in accordance with the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International Public License
- (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/legalcode), also referred to as CC-By. In addition,
- we strongly encourage ISRaD users to follow two simple guidelines for use:

- (1) When utilizing the resources provided by ISRaD, including the complete dataset, individually curated entries, or value-added calculations included in the R-package, users should cite this publication and reference the version of ISRaD that was used for their work (see section 3.6 above). Additionally, if users leverage individual data entries from the
- (2) When users interpret their own data in the context of data accessed from ISRaD, they should submit those new data for inclusion in ISRaD after they have published their results and/or obtained a DOI for their dataset.

database, they should also cite the original source dataset and/or paper.

7. Conclusions and Outlook

ISRaD is an interactive open source data repository specializing in radiocarbon data associated with measurements of soils spanning a broad range of spatial scales. The ISRaD dataset is unique in that it includes not only measurements of bulk soils but also measurements of soil water, gases, and the wide diversity of soil pools isolated through different fractionation methodologies. Most of the studies summarized in ISRaD were conducted with a goal of understanding the factors controlling timescales of carbon cycling in specific sites, regions or biomes. ISRaD is an attempt to gather the data from these individual studies in one place and in the same format to facilitate comparisons and synthesis activities. There are three ways through which potential users can access ISRaD: (1) the web-interface enables users to download of the most recently compiled report formatted as a .csv file, (2) the ISRaD-R package provides access to the compiled reports as well as visualization tools and R-based querying tools, or (3) the GitHub repository provides direct access to the source code for the ISRaD-R package, as well as data from individual entries and the compiled database. Currently, the ISRaD dataset contains ~8500 radiocarbon analyses,

- which, at a typical cost ~\$500 each, represent over US \$4,250,000 dollars of research investment.
- 577 By providing a useful platform for existing data, we hope to encourage the community to increase
- 578 the effectiveness of that investment, and to use the ISRaD platform as a repository to increase the
- 579 impact of new results. Many opportunities exist for applying ISRaD data for improving our
- understanding of controls on soil carbon dynamics, for comparing different methodologies of
- characterizing soils, or for constraining soil processes in models ranging from profile to global
- scales.

583 8. Author Contribution

- The creation of ISRaD was a community effort. The initial concept to build ISRaD started with
- 585 the USGS Powell Center working group on Soil Carbon Storage and Stability but benefited greatly
- from early efforts of the International Soil Carbon Network and other individual efforts to compile
- soil fraction or radiocarbon data. Scientists from the Max Planck Institute for Biogeochemistry
- joined forces with the Powell Center group to greatly expand the scope and technical complexity
- of ISRaD. CL, JBM, AH, GM, CS, SS, KH, JB, SC, GMc, and ST designed and built ISRaD as
- well as led the preparation of the manuscript. PL, OV, KTB, CR, CHP, CS, KM, and SD provided
- technical contributions, including coding, to the creation of the database as well as assisted with
- the ingestion of data. CH, YH, CT, JH, MT, and CEA provided large datasets or data compilations.
- 593 AAB, MK, AK, EMS, AP, AT, JS, LV, SFvF and RW contributed to the conceptual framing of
- ISRaD and assisted with data ingestion. All authors read and commented on the manuscript.

595 9. Acknowledgments

- We gratefully acknowledge funding support for this work from the US Geological Survey Powell
- 597 Center for the working group on Soil Carbon Storage, the Max Planck Institute for
- 598 Biogeochemistry, the European Research Council (Horizon 2020 research and innovation
- 599 programme grant agreement No. 695101), the USGS Land Change Science mission area, and the
- 600 US Department of Agriculture (Soil Carbon Working Group award #2018-67003-27935). Any use
- of trade, firm, or product names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement
- by the U.S. Government.

10. Citations

Anderson, D.W. and Paul, E.A. Organo-mineral complexes and their study by radiocarbon dating. Soil Science Society of America Journal, 48(2), 298-301, 1984.

Angst, G., Kögel-Knabner, I., Kirfel, K., Hertel, D. and Mueller, C.W.: Spatial distribution and chemical composition of soil organic matter fractions in rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soil under European beech (Fagus sylvatica L.), Geoderma, 264, 179–187, doi:10.1016/j.geoderma.2015.10.016, 2016.

Balesdent, J. The turnover of soil organic fractions estimated by radiocarbon dating. Science of the Total Environment, 62, 405-408, 1987.

Baisden, W.T., Amundson, R., Brenner, D.L., Cook, A.C., Kendall, C., Harden, J. A Multi-Isotope C and N Modeling Analysis of Soil Organic Matter Turnover and Transport as a Function of Soil Depth in a California Annual Grassland Soil Chronosequence. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 16((4)): 1135, doi: 1029/2001GB001823. 2002a.

Baisden, W.T., Amundson, R., Cook, A.C., Brenner, D.L. The turnover and storage of C and N in five density fractions from California annual grassland surface soil. Global Biogeochemical Cycles 16: doi: 1029/2001GB001822. 2002b.

Baisden, W.T., Amundson, R. An analytical approach to ecosystem biogeochemistry modeling. Ecological Applications 13(3): 649-663. 2003.

Baisden, W.T., Parfitt, R.L., Ross, C., Schipper, L. A. and Canessa, S.: Evaluating 50 years of time-series soil radiocarbon data: towards routine calculation of robust C residence times, Biogeochemistry, 112(1-3), 129–137, doi:10.1007/s10533-011-9675-y, 2013.

Baisden, W.T. & Keller, E.D. Synthetic Constraint of Soil C dynamics Using 50 Years of Radiocarbon and Net Primary Production (NPP) in a New Zealand Grassland Site. Radiocarbon 55(2-3): 1071-1076. 2013.

Basile-Doelsch, I., Brun, T., Borschneck, D., Masion, A., Marol, C. and Balesdent, J.: Effect of landuse on organic matter stabilized in organomineral complexes: A study combining density fractionation, mineralogy and delta C-13, Geoderma, 151(3-4), 77–86, doi:10.1016/j.geoderma.2009.03.008, 2009.

Becker-Heidmann, P. Requirements for An International Radiocarbon Soils Database, Radiocarbon, 38(02), 177–180, doi:10.1017/S0033822200017549, 1996.

Becker-Heidmann, P. A new attempt to establish the international radiocarbon soils database (IRSDB), Radiocarbon, 52, 1405–1410, 2010.

Blankinship, J.C., Berhe, A.A., Crow, S. E., Druhan, J.L., Heckman, K.A., Keiluweit, M., Lawrence, C.R., Marin-Spiotta, E., Plante, A.F., Rasmussen, C., Schädel, C., Schimel, J. P., Sierra, C.A., Wagai, R. and Wieder, W.R.: Improving understanding of soil organic matter dynamics by triangulating theories, measurements, and models, Biogeochemistry, 140(1), 1–13, doi:10.1007/s10533-018-0478-2, 2018.

Braakhekke, M.C., Guggenberger, G., Schrumpf, M. and Reichstein, M.: Contribution of sorption, DOC transport and microbial interactions to the 14C age of a soil organic carbon profile: Insights from a calibrated process model, Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 88(C), 390–402, doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2015.06.008, 2015.

Bradford, M.A., Wieder, W.R., Bonan, G.B., Fierer, N., Raymond, P.A. and Crowther, T.W.: Managing uncertainty in soil carbon feedbacks to climate change, Nature Climate Change, 6(8), 751–758, doi:10.1038/nclimate3071, 2016.

Broecker, W.S. and Olson, E.A.: Roadiocaronb from Nuclear Tests, II, Science, 132(3429), 712-721, doi:10.1126/science.132.3429.712. 1960.

Chen, J., Zhu, Q., Riley, W. J., He, Y., Randerson, J. T. and Trumbore, S. E.: Comparison With Global Soil Radiocarbon Observations Indicates Needed Carbon Cycle Improvements in the E3SM Land Model, J Geophys Res-Biogeo, 88(5), 390–17, doi:10.1029/2018JG004795, 2019.

Cherkinskii, A.E. Contemporary hypotheses of humification and radiocarbon analyses of some types of soils. Doklady Akademii nauk SSSR, 258(4), 993-996, 1981.

Crow, S.E., Swanston, C.W., Lajtha, K., Brooks, J.R. and Keirstead, H.: Density fractionation of forest soils: methodological questions and interpretation of incubation results and turnover time in an ecosystem context, Biogeochemistry, 85(1), 69–90, doi:10.1007/s10533-007-9100-8, 2007.

Desjardins, T., Andreux, F., Volkoff, B. and Cerri, C.C.: Organic carbon and 13C contents in soils and soil size-fractions, and their changes due to deforestation and pasture installation in eastern Amazonia, Geoderma, 61(1-2), 103–118, doi:10.1016/0016-7061(94)90013-2, 1994.

Goh, KM., Stout, JD., Rafter, TA. Radiocarbon enrichment of soil organic-matter fractions in New Zealand soils. Soil Science, 123(6), 385-391, 1977.

Golchin, A., Oades, J.M., Skjemstad, J.O., Clarke, P. Soil-Structure and Carbon Cycling. Australian Journal of Soil Research 32(5): 1043-1068. 1994.

Golchin, A., Oades, J.M., Skjemstad, J.O., Clarke, P. Structural and Dynamic Properties of Soil Organic-Matter as Reflected by C-13 Natural-Abundance, Pyrolysis MassSpectrometry and Solid-State C-13 Nmr-Spectroscopy in Density Fractions of an Oxisol under Forest and Pasture. Australian Journal of Soil Research 33(1): 59-76. 1995.

Harden, J.W., Hugelius, G., Blankinship, J.C., Bond-Lamberty, B., Lawrence, C.R., Loisel, J., Malhotra, A., Jackson, R.B., Ogle, S., Phillips, C., Ryals, R., Todd-Brown, K., Vargas, R., Vergara, S.E., Cotrufo, M.F., Keiluweit, M., Heckman, K.A., Crow, S.E., Silver, W.L., DeLonge, M. and Nave, L.E.: Networking our science to characterize the state, vulnerabilities, and management opportunities of soil organic matter, Global Change Biology, 348(2), 895–14, doi:10.1111/gcb.13896, 2017.

He, Y., Trumbore, S.E., Torn, M.S., Harden, J.W., Vaughn, L. J. S., Allison, S.D. and Randerson, J. T.: Radiocarbon constraints imply reduced carbon uptake by soils during the 21st century, Science, 355(6306), 1419–1424, doi:10.1126/science.aag0262, 2016.

Heckman, K., Lawrence, C.R. and Harden, J.W.: A sequential selective dissolution method to quantify storage and stability of organic carbon associated with Al and Fe hydroxide phases, Geoderma, 312, 24–35, doi:10.1016/j.geoderma.2017.09.043, 2018.

Heimann M. and Reichstein M. Terrestrial ecosystem carbon dynamics and climate feedbacks. Nature **451**, 289–292. 2018.

Jackson, R.B., Lajtha, K., Crow, S.E., Hugelius, G., Kramer, M.G. and Piñeiro, G.: The Ecology of Soil Carbon: Pools, Vulnerabilities, and Biotic and Abiotic Controls, Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, & Systematics, 48(1), 419–445, doi:10.1146/annurev-ecolsys-112414-054234, 2017.

Jastrow, J.D., Amonette, J.E. and Bailey, V.L.: Mechanisms controlling soil carbon turnover and their potential application for enhancing carbon sequestration, Climatic Change, 80(1-2), 5–23, doi:10.1007/s10584-006-9178-3, 2006.

Kaiser, M., Ellerbrock, R.H., & Sommer, M. Separation of coarse organic particles from bulk surface soil samples by electrostatic attraction. Soil Science Society of America Journal, 73(6), 2118-2130, 2009.

Kaiser, M., and Berhe, A.A.. "How does sonication affect the mineral and organic constituents of soil aggregates?—A review." Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science 177, no. 4: 479-495, 2014

Kaiser, K. and Kalbitz, K.: Cycling downwards - dissolved organic matter in soils, Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 52(C), 29–32, doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2012.04.002, 2012.

Keiluweit, M., Nico, P. S., Kleber, M. and Fendorf, S.: Are oxygen limitations under recognized regulators of organic carbon turnover in upland soils? Biogeochemistry, 127(2-3), 157–171, doi:10.1007/s10533-015-0180-6, 2016.

Khomo, L., Trumbore, S.E., Bern, C.R. and Chadwick, O.A.: Timescales of carbon turnover in soils with mixed crystalline mineralogies, SOIL, 3(1), 17–30, doi:10.5194/soil-3-17-2017, 2017.

Koven, C. D., Riley, W. J., Subin, Z. M., Tang, J. Y., Torn, M. S., Collins, W. D., Bonan, G. B., Lawrence, D. M. and Swenson, S. C.: The effect of vertically resolved soil biogeochemistry and alternate soil C and N models on C dynamics of CLM4, Biogeosciences, 10(11), 7109–7131, doi:10.5194/bg-10-7109-2013, 2013.

Lawrence, Corey R., Beem-Miller, Jeffery, Hoyt, Alison M., Monroe, Grey, Sierra, Carlos A., Stoner, Shane, Heckman, Katherine, Blankinship, Joseph C., Crow, Susan E., McNicol, Gavin, Trumbore, Susan, Levine, Paul A., Vindušková, Olga, Todd-Brown, Katherine, Rasmussen, Craig, Hick Pries, Caitlin E., Schädel, Christina, McFarlane, Karis, Doetterl, Sebastian, Hatté, Christine, He, Yujie, Treat, Claire, Harden, Jennifer W., Torn, Margaret S., Estop-Aragonés, Cristian, Berhe, Asmeret Asefaw, Keiluweit, Marco, Marin-Spiotta, Erika, Plante, Alain F., Thomson, Aaron, Schimel, Joshua P., Vaughn, Lydia J. S. and Wagai, Rota: International Soil Radiocarbon Database v1.0, Zendo, doi:10.5281/zenodo.2613911, 2019.

Le Quéré, C., Andrew, R.M., Friedlingstein, P., Sitch, S., Hauck, J., Pongratz, J., Pickers, P. A., Korsbakken, J.I., Peters, G.P., Canadell, J.G., Arneth, A., Arora, V. K., Barbero, L., Bastos, A., Bopp, L., Chevallier, F., Chini, L.P., Ciais, P., Doney, S.C., Gkritzalis, T., Goll, D. S., Harris, I., Haverd, V., Hoffman, F.M., Hoppema, M., Houghton, R.A., Hurtt, G., Ilyina, T., Jain, A.K., Johannessen, T., Jones, C.D., Kato, E., Keeling, R.F., Goldewijk, K.K., Landschützer, P., Lefèvre, N., Lienert, S., Liu, Z., Lombardozzi, D., Metzl, N., Munro, D.R., Nabel, J.E., Nakaoka, M.S., S.-I., Neill, C., Olsen, A., Ono, T., Patra, P., Peregon, A., Peters, W., Peylin, P., Pfeil, B., Pierrot, D., Poulter, B., Rehder, G., Resplandy, L., Robertson, E., Rocher, M., Rödenbeck, C., Schuster, U., Schwinger, J., Séférian, R., Skjelvan, I., Steinhoff, T., Sutton, A., Tans, P.P., Tian, H., Tilbrook, B., Tubiello, F.N., van der Laan-Luijkx, I.T., van der Werf, G.R., Viovy, N., Walker, A.P., Wiltshire, A.J., Wright, R., Zaehle, S. and Zheng, B.: Global Carbon Budget 2018, Earth Systems Science Data, 10(4), 2141–2194, doi:10.5194/essd-10-2141-2018, 2018.

Lehmann, J. and Kleber, M.: The contentious nature of soil organic matter, Nature, 1–9, doi:10.1038/nature16069, 2015.

Leinemann, T., Preusser, S., Mikutta, R., Kalbitz, K., Cerli, C., Höschen, C., Mueller, C.W., Kandeler, E., and Guggenberger G.: Multiple exchange processes on mineral surfaces control the

transport of dissolved organic matter through soil profiles, Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 118, 79-90, 2018.

Manzoni, S., Katul, G.G. & Porporato, A. Analysis of soil carbon transit times and age distributions using network theories. Journal of Geophysical Research 114, G04025, 2009.

Martel, YA., Paul, EA. Effects of cultivation on organic-matter of grassland soils as determined by fractionation and radiocarbon dating. Canadian Journal of Soil Science, 54(4), 419-426, 1974.

Masiello, C., Chadwick, O.A., Southon, J., Torn, M. and Harden, J.W.: Weathering controls on mechanisms of carbon storage in grassland soils. Global Biogeochem Cycles, 18(4), GB4023, doi:10.1029/2004GB002219, 2004.

Mathieu, J.A., Hatté, C., Balesdent, J. and Parent, É.: Deep soil carbon dynamics are driven more by soil type than by climate: a worldwide meta-analysis of radiocarbon profiles, Global Change Biology, 21(11), 4278–4292, doi:10.1111/gcb.13012, 2015.

Minasny, B., B.P. Malone, A.B. McBratney, D.A. Angers, D. Arrouays, A. Chambers, V. Chaplot, Z. Chen, K. Cheng, B.S. Das, D.J. Field, A. Gimona, C.B. Hedley, S. Young Hong, B. Mandal, B.P. Marchant, M. Martin, B.G. McConkey, V. L. Mulder, S. O'Rourke, A.C. Richer-de-Forges, I. Odeh, J. Padarian, K. Paustian, G. Pan, L. Poggio, I. Savin, V. Stolbovoy, U. Stockmann, Y. Sulaeman, C-C. Tsui, T-G. Vågen, B. van Wesemael, L. Winowiecki. Soil carbon 4 per mille. Geoderma, 292:59-86. 2017.

Moni, Christophe, D. Derrien, P-J. Hatton, Bernd Zeller, and M. Kleber. Density fractions versus size separates: does physical fractionation isolate functional soil compartments?. Biogeosciences 9, 12:5181-5197, 2012.

Oades, J. M. The Retention of Organic-Matter in Soils, Biogeochemistry, 5(1), 35–70, 1988.

O'Brien, B.J. and Stout, J.D. Movement and turnover of soil organic matter as indicated by carbon isotope measurements. Soil Biology and Biochemistry, 10:309–317. 1978.

Obrien, BJ. Soil organic-carbon fluxes and turnover rates estimated from radiocarbon enrichments. Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 16(2), 115-120, 1984.

Ohno, T., Heckman, K.A., Plante, A.F., Fernandez, I.J. and Parr, T.B.: ¹⁴C mean residence time and its relationship with thermal stability and molecular composition of soil organic matter: A case study of deciduous and coniferous forest types. Geoderma, 308, 1–8, doi:10.1016/j.geoderma.2017.08.023, 2017.

Paul, E.A., Morris, S.J., and Böhm, S., The determination of soil C pool sizes and turnover rates: biophysical fractionation and tracers. In: Lal, R. (Ed.), Assessment Methods for Soil Carbon. Lewis Publishers, New York, pp. 193–206, 2001.

Plante, A. F., Conant, R. T., Stewart, C. E., Paustian, K. and Six, J.: Impact of soil texture on the distribution of soil organic matter in physical and chemical fractions, Soil Science Society of America Journal, 70(1), 287–296, 2006.

Poulton, P., J. Johnston, A. Macdonald, R. White, D. Powlson. Major limitations to achieving "4 per 1000" increases in soil organic carbon stock in temperate regions: Evidence from long-term experiments at Rothamsted Research, United Kingdom. Global Change Biology, 24:2563–2584. 2018.

Rumpel, C., and I. Kögel-Knabner, Deep soil organic matter—a key but poorly understood component of terrestrial C cycle, Plant Soil, *338*(1-2), 143–158, doi:10.1007/s11104-010-0391-5. 2010.

Sanderman, J., Baldock, J., Amundson, R. Dissolved organic carbon chemistry and dynamics in contrasting forest and grassland soils. Biogeochemistry 89(2): 181-198. 2008.

Scharpenseel, H.W. Radiocarbon dating of soils - problems, troubles, hopes. In: D.H. Yaalon (Ed) Paleopedology (pp. 77-96). ISSS and Israel Univ Press: Jerusalem. 1971

Schmidt, M.W.I., Torn, M.S., Abiven, S., Dittmar, T., Guggenberger, G., Janssens, I.A., Kleber, M., Kögel-Knabner, I., Manning, D.A.C., Nannipieri, P., Rasse, D.P., Weiner, S. and Trumbore, S.E.: Persistence of soil organic matter as an ecosystem property, Nature, 478(7367), 49–56, doi:10.1038/nature10386, 2011.

Schrumpf, M., Kaiser, K., Guggenberger, G., Persson, T., Kögel-Knabner, I., Schulze, E.-D. Storage and stability of organic carbon in soils as related to depth, occlusion within aggregates, and attachment to minerals. Biogeosciences 10, 1675-1691. 2013

Sierra, C., Müller, M. and Trumbore, S.E.: Models of soil organic matter decomposition: the SoilR package, version 1.0, 5(4), 1045–1060, doi:10.5194/gmd-5-1045-2012, 2012.

Sierra, C.A., Müller, M., and Trumbore, S.E.: Modeling radiocarbon dynamics in soils: SoilR version 1.1, Geosci. Model Dev., 7, 1919–1931, doi:10.5194/gmd-7-1919-2014, 2014.

Sierra, C.A., Müller, M., Metzler, H., Manzoni, S. and Trumbore, S.E.: The muddle of ages, turnover, transit, and residence times in the carbon cycle, Global Change Biology, 23(5), 1763–1773, doi:10.1111/gcb.13556, 2017.

Six, J. and Paustian, K.: Soil Biology & Biochemistry, Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 68(C), A4–A9, doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.06.014, 2014.

Sollins, P., Kramer, M.G., Swanston, C., Lajtha, K., Filley, T., Aufdenkampe, A.K., Wagai, R. and Bowden, R. D.: Sequential density fractionation across soils of contrasting mineralogy: evidence for both microbial- and mineral-controlled soil organic matter stabilization, Biogeochemistry, 96(1-3), 209–231, doi:10.1007/s10533-009-9359-z, 2009.

Sollins, P., Swanston, C., Kleber, M., Filley, T., Kramer, M., Crow, S., Caldwell, B.A., Lajtha, K. and Bowden, R.: Organic C and N stabilization in a forest soil: Evidence from sequential density fractionation, Soil Biology & Biochemistry, 38(11), 3313–3324, doi:10.1016/j.soilbio.2006.04.014, 2006.

Sulman, B.N., Moore, J.A.M., Abramoff, R., Averill, C., Kivlin, S., Georgiou, K., Sridhar, B., Hartman, M.D., Wang, G., Wieder, W.R., Bradford, M.A., Mayes, M.A., Morrison, E., Riley, W. J., Salazar, A., Schimel, J.P., Tang, J. and Classen, A.T.: Multiple models and experiments underscore large uncertainty in soil carbon dynamics, Biogeochemistry, 141(2), 1–15, doi:10.1007/s10533-018-0509-z, 2018.

Swanston, C.W., M.S. Torn, P.J. Hanson, J.R. Southon, C.T. Garten, E.M. Hanlon, L. Ganio. Characterizing processes of soil carbon stabilization using forest stand-level radiocarbon enrichment. Geoderma 128:52–62, 2005.

Szymanski, L.M., G.R. Sanford, K. Heckman, R.D. Jackson and E. Marín-Spiotta. Conversion to bioenergy crops alters the amount and age of microbially-respired soil carbon. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 128: 35-44, 2019.

Tifafi, M., Camino-Serrano, M., Hatté, C., Morras, H., Moretti, L., Barbaro, S., Cornu, S. and Guenet, B.: The use of radiocarbon <sup>14</sup>C to constrain carbon dynamics in the soil module of the land surface model ORCHIDEE (SVN r5165), Geosci. Model Dev., 11(12), 4711–4726, doi:10.5194/gmd-11-4711-2018, 2018.

Torn, M.S., Vitousek, P.M. and Trumbore, S.E.: The influence of nutrient availability on soil organic matter turnover estimated by incubations and radiocarbon modeling, Ecosystems, 8(4), 352–372, doi:10.1007/s10021-004-0259-5, 2005.

Trumbore, S.E. & Zheng, S. Comparison of Fractionation Methods for Soil Organic Matter 14C Analysis, Radiocarbon, 1996.

Trumbore, S.E.: Age of soil organic matter and soil respiration: Radiocarbon constraints on belowground C dynamics, Ecological Applications, 10(2), 399–411, 2000.

Trumbore, S.E.: Carbon respired by terrestrial ecosystems - recent progress and challenges, Global Change Biology, 12(2), 141–153, doi:10.1111/j.1365-2486.2005.01067.x, 2006.

Trumbore, S., M. Torn, and L. Smith. Constructing a database of terrestrial radiocarbon measurements, *Eos Trans. AGU*, 92(43), 376, doi:10.1029/2011EO430006. 2011.

Ziegler, S.E., Benner, R., Billings, S. A., Edwards, K.A., Philben, M., Zhu, X. and Laganière, J.: Climate Warming Can Accelerate Carbon Fluxes without Changing Soil Carbon Stocks, Frontiers in Earth Science, 5, 535–12, doi:10.3389/feart.2017.00002, 2017.

Tables

Table 1. The number of data points currently included at each hierarchical level in ISRaD v1.0.

E	Entries	Sites	Profiles	Layers	Fractions	Incubations	Interstitial	Fluxes
	212	550	1854	7734	3910	1978	353	2119

Table 2. Details of some core calculations included with ISRaD_extra. Additional variables will be regularly added to ISRaD_extra, an up-to-date list can be found at soilradiocarbon.org.

Operation	Purpose	Output	
fill_dates	Radiocarbon calculations and unit	If no date is reported for fraction and/or incubation	
	conversions often require the year of	observation dates, this function replaces those empty	
	measurement.	cells with the mandatory layer observation date.	
fill_14c	In some studies, only fraction	If no $\Delta^{14}C$ values are reported, they are calculated from	
	modern (FM) units are reported	FM and the measurement date.	
fill_coords	Spatial coordinates are required to	If no spatial coordinates are specified for a profile, this	
	plot soil profiles and to extract	function fills those cells with the site coordinates,	
	geospatial data. Profile level	which are required for template ingestion.	
	coordinates are often not reported in		
	publications.		
delta_delta	Delta-delta ($\Delta\Delta$) is the offset	This function calculates the $\Delta\Delta$ values for all	
	between the Δ^{14} C ratio of the	radiocarbon measurements in the database, using the	
	atmosphere and that of a sample	profile coordinates and the year of observation to	
	during the year of collection and is a	extract an atmospheric radiocarbon value for the region	
	useful way to compare radiocarbon	of sample collection. The output is appended as a new	
	data across a range of collection	variable, e.g. lyr_dd14c.	
	years.		
fill_FM	In some studies, only Δ^{14} C values are	If no FM values reported, they are calculated from	
	reported.	Δ^{14} C values.	
CStocks	Measurements of carbon	If not measured directly, organic carbon concentration	
	concentration are not, on their own,	is filled with total carbon concentration (carbonates are	
	good estimates of the mass of carbon	accounted for only if reported). Then, with user-	
	in soils. Bulk density and soil layer	supplied bulk density, these values are used to calculate	
	depth information is also needed.	the mass of carbon in each soil layer (i.e., C stocks).	
fill_expert	In some cases, data measured at one	Original reported data can be merged with expert	
	extent may be reasonably substituted	suggested data to provide unreported bulk layer values.	
	at another extent for the purposes of	These estimates are not from original studies, and may	
	conducting comparisons across	be approximations, but they are useful for large-scale	
	incomplete datasets	global analyses.	

geospatial.climate	Across a wide range of datasets,	This function uses the site coordinates to pull climate,
	basic climate variables are	meteorological, soil and other parameters from known
	inconsistently measured and	global scale source datasets. At present, we use climate
	reported. The purpose of this	data from WorldClim v1.4
	function is to fill separate,	(http://www.worldclim.org/bioclim) and soil
	geospatially-estimated, climate	classification and characteristics from ISRIC
	parameters with a consistent source	(https://www.isric.org/explore/soilgrids)
	and scale.	

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Conceptual diagram of an entry in the database. Each box represents a table in an entry; the horizontal bars distinguish the hierarchical levels of the database. Arrows show the hierarchical relationship between and among levels of the database. Time is considered at the profile level, as this is the coarsest spatial scale for which observational data are reported. Every time a profile is sampled a unique profile identifier must be generated, consisting of the profile name combined with the profile observation date, which is then linked to all measurements made at or below the profile level of the hierarchy.

Figure 2. An entity relationship diagram for the International Soil Radiocarbon Database (ISRaD). A short description of the required variables for each entity are shown along with the field name used in the database and the variable data type. Crow's foot connections with a straight line indicate mandatory daughter entities (one or more), whereas a crow's foot with an open circle indicates indicate optional (zero or more) daughter entities. The "*" indicates entries indicate keys, or linking variables, which are repeated at each successive level of the ISRaD hierarchy. The "^"indicates conditionally required values. A full list of non-required variables is available in the Template Information File.

Figure 3. One key feature of the ISRaD structure is the ability to classify and categorize data generated from diverse methods for fractionating soils. The ISRaD approach requires specification of the fractionation scheme applied, which may include but is not limited to: density (A), aggregate (B), and/or particle size (C) separations. In each of these examples, the fraction data is linked to a specific soil layer. Classification of the fractionation scheme along with several other fields that specify the nature of the fractionation method allow for an accurate partitioning of mass between the individual fractions, such that the total mass of the soil layer can be reconstructed. A proper accounting of mass attributable to each soil fraction, which in some cases may be derived from more complicated multistep or sequential fractionations (D), is essential in order to compare measurements across these diverse methods.

Figure 4. Geographic location of sites currently included in ISRaD v1.0. Circles that appear darker in color indicate multiple overlapping sites at the resolution of the map.

Figure 5. A simplified depiction of the ISRaD governance pyramid, where the scientific steering committee is responsible for approving major management decisions and data maintainers are responsible for implementing broad changes, but data contributors and users are the primary drivers of the evolution of the data product.

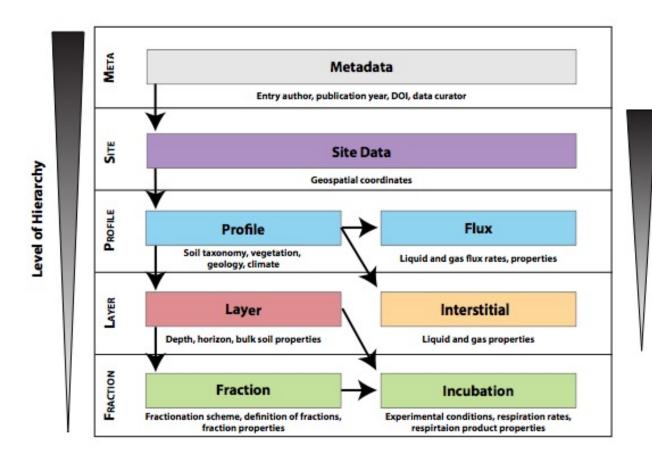


Figure 1.

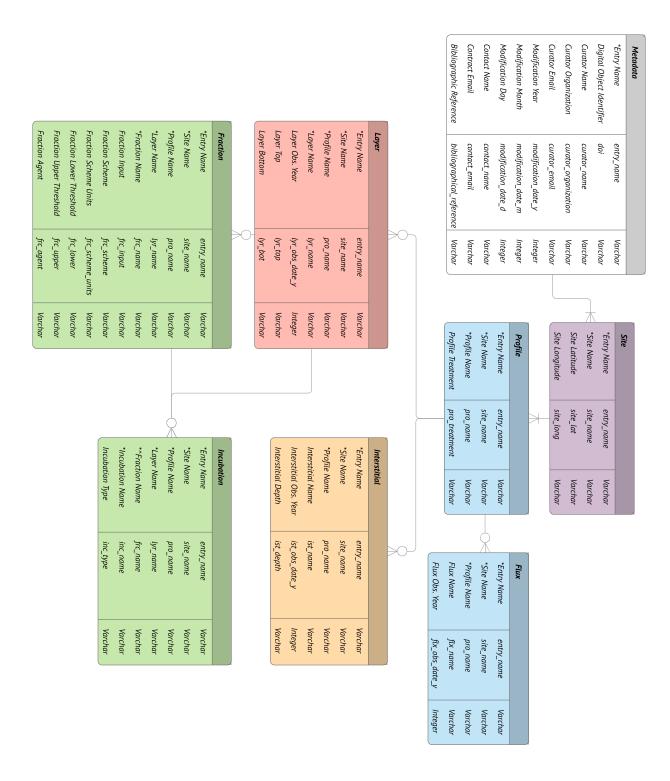


Figure 2.

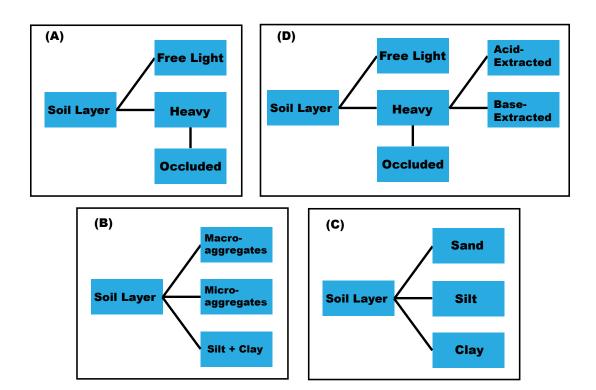


Figure 3.

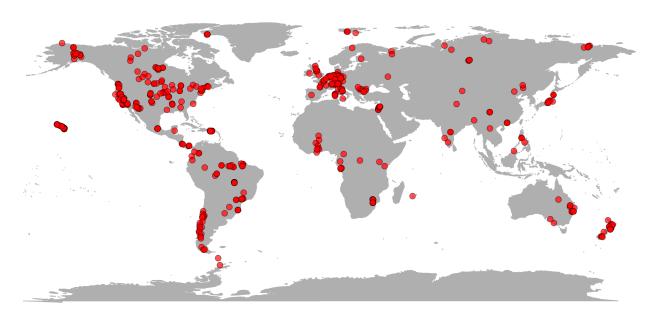


Figure 4.

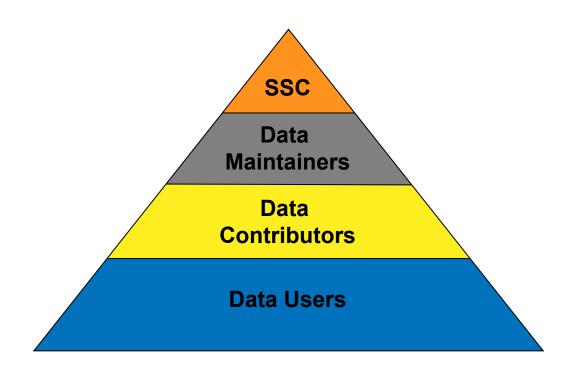


Figure 5.