

1 1 km-resolution maps reveal increases in above- and belowground
2 forest biomass carbon pools in China over the past 20 years

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18 **Abstract**

19 To quantify the ecological consequences of recent nationwide restoration efforts in China,
20 spatially-explicit information on forest biomass carbon stock changes over the past 20 years is
21 critical. However, long-term biomass tracking at the national scale remains challenging as it
22 requires continuous and high-resolution monitoring. Here, we characterize the changes in
23 forests' above- and belowground biomass carbon (AGBC and BGBC) in China between 2002
24 and 2021 at 1 km spatial resolution by integrating multiple types of remote sensing observations
25 with intensive field measurements through regression and machine learning approaches. On
26 average, 8.6 ± 0.6 and 2.2 ± 0.1 PgC were stored in above- and belowground live forests in
27 China. Over the last 20 years, the total forest biomass carbon pool in China has increased at a
28 rate of 114.5 ± 16.3 TgC/yr (approximately 1.1%/yr). The most pronounced forest biomass
29 carbon stock gains occurred in central to southern China, including the southern Loess Plateau,
30 Qinling Mountains, southwest karsts and southeast forests. While the combined use of multi-
31 source remote sensing data provides a powerful tool to assess the forest biomass carbon changes,
32 future research is also needed to explore the drivers of the observed woody biomass trends, and
33 to evaluate the degree to which biomass gains will translate into biodiverse, healthy ecosystems
34 and thus are sustainable. Annual forest above- and belowground biomass maps for China are
35 now available at: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21931161.v1> (Chen, 2023).

36 **Key words:** Aboveground biomass carbon pool; Belowground biomass carbon; Long-term
37 continuous mapping; China

38 **1 Introduction**

39 Forest biomass carbon stock contributes to over 90% of the global vegetation biomass carbon
40 pool (Ma et al., 2021). As a net outcome of carbon gains from photosynthesis and carbon losses
41 from respiration, mortality and disturbances, forest biomass carbon stock (approximately 50%
42 of biomass) is a critical indicator of ecosystem function and ecosystem services, such as carbon
43 sequestration, wood production and resource allocation (Kumar and Mutanga, 2017). Accurate
44 forest biomass carbon stock monitoring over space and time is thus essential for assessing
45 ecosystem management strategies and mitigation policies (Kumar and Mutanga, 2017).

46 In recent decades, remote sensing tools have been integral in our efforts to map aboveground
47 biomass (AGB) or carbon stock (AGBC). By combining satellite imagery (e.g., MODIS) and
48 airborne LiDAR signals, forest cover and canopy height can be mapped across large spatial
49 scales (Hu et al., 2016; Saatchi et al., 2011; Su et al., 2016; Tong et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2021).

50 Apart from optical images and LiDAR signals, microwaves can provide more detailed insights
51 into subcanopy forest structure and AGBC due to their ability to penetrate the canopy. Active
52 microwave techniques, i.e., Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) backscatters, facilitate high-
53 resolution (e.g., 100 m) AGB mapping, but the temporal coverage is limited (Cartus et al., 2012;
54 Bouvet et al., 2018). Conversely, vegetation optical depth (VOD) retrieved from multiple
55 passive microwave sensors can be used to produce long-term continuous AGB maps (Frappart
56 et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2015), yet at a coarse spatial resolution (e.g., 0.25°).
57 Because different remote sensing techniques have their advantages and pitfalls, combining

58 these techniques and complementing them with direct ground measurements is integral to
59 maximizing the accuracy and precision of biomass carbon estimations across space and time.

60 Another source of uncertainty in vegetation biomass carbon stocks is the extent of biomass that
61 is stored belowground as roots. While AGBC mapping is facilitated by a suite of emerging
62 remote sensing techniques, investigating the spatiotemporal variation in belowground biomass
63 carbon pool (BGBC) remains challenging despite the large contribution of roots to total carbon
64 storage (Huang et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2021). To map BGBC, the commonly-used approach is
65 to combine aboveground biomass information with vegetation type-specific ratios of BGB to
66 AGB (i.e., root-shoot ratio, or RSR) (Xu et al., 2021; Saatchi et al., 2011). Because field studies
67 indicate a near-linear relationship between log-transformed BGB and AGB (Enquist Brian and
68 Niklas Karl, 2002), BGB variations at large scales have often been approximated using this
69 relationship (Spawn et al., 2020). To capture the complex relationship between BGB and biotic
70 or abiotic variables (e.g., stand age, heat and water availability), machine learning algorithms
71 have been applied to map BGB (Huang et al., 2021) and root-mass fractions (Ma et al., 2021)
72 globally. However, the reference plots were unevenly distributed across the world, limited in
73 developing countries, leading to some uncertainties in BGB and BGBC estimation within those
74 regions (Huang et al., 2021).

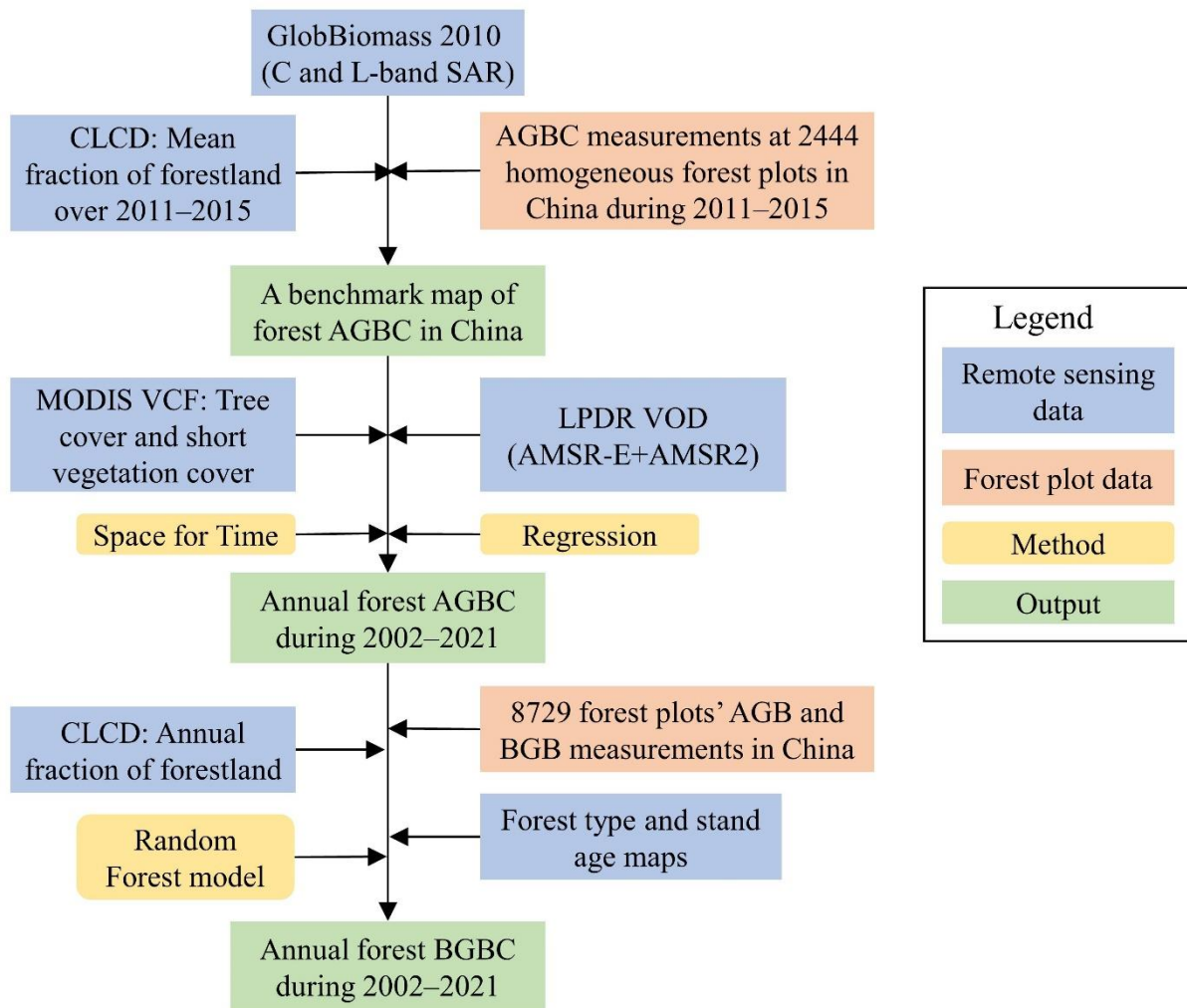
75 China has been implementing national-scale afforestation and reforestation programs since the
76 late 1990s (Lu et al., 2018), promoting vegetation cover and carbon storage in the Loess Plateau
77 and the southwest karst regions, etc. (Chen et al., 2019a; Niu et al., 2019; Tong et al., 2018). A

78 spatial understanding of forest biomass trends can help evaluate the efficiency of ecological
79 restoration programs. High quality, high resolution and long-term continuous woody biomass
80 monitoring in China has remained challenging (Zhang et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019).

81 In this study, by integrating multi-source remote sensing data with large quantities of plot
82 measurements, we produced 1 km resolution above- and belowground forest biomass carbon
83 pool maps for China during the past 20 years (2002–2021). This dataset, which is available at:
84 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21931161.v1> could provide new insights into forest carbon
85 stock changes in China over the past two decades.

86 **2 Materials and methods**

87 To map above- and belowground forest biomass carbon stock in China during 2002–2021, we
88 1) calibrated a SAR-based high-resolution forest aboveground biomass map in China based on
89 massive field measurements of AGBC during 2011–2015; 2) extended the AGBC time series to
90 2002–2021 by referring to the tree and short vegetation cover retrieved from optical remote
91 sensing; 3) calibrated the AGBC time series in some specific areas using a long-term integrated
92 microwave-based VOD dataset; and 4) mapped forestlands' BGBC through a random forest
93 model developed based on the in-situ records in published literature. The basic procedure is
94 shown in Figure 1 and described below.



95

96 **Figure 1.** Workflow of forest biomass carbon pool monitoring in China during 2002–2021.
 97 AGBC, BGBC: aboveground and belowground biomass carbon; VCF: vegetation continuous
 98 fields; LPDR VOD: global land parameter data record- vegetation optical depth; CLCD: China
 99 Land Cover Dataset

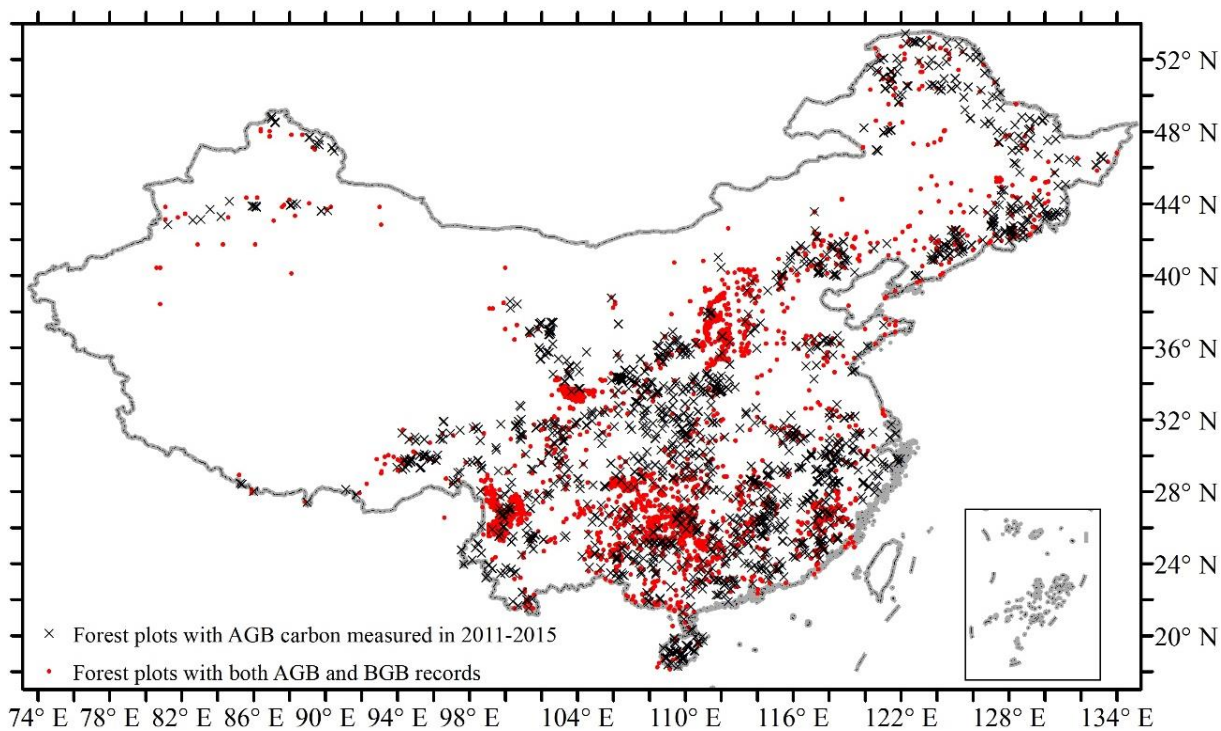
100 2.1 A benchmark map of forest aboveground biomass carbon (AGBC) in China

101 By combining multiple satellite observations of SAR backscatter, including the L-band ALOS
 102 PALSAR and C-band Envisat ASAR around the year 2010, the first global high-resolution (100
 103 m) forest AGB dataset, GlobBiomass 2010, was published through the European Space Agency
 104 (ESA)’s Data User Element project (Santoro et al., 2021), whose relative root mean square error

105 (RMSE) was below 30% (Mialon et al., 2020). Apart from GlobBiomass 2010, another high-
106 resolution (30 m) forest AGB for China was produced by relating the ICESat GLAS (LiDAR)-
107 derived footprint AGB to various variables derived from Landsat optical images (Huang et al.,
108 2019). Because the ICESat data in 2006 were applied as the training target of the random forest
109 model, Huang's dataset refers to the AGB status in 2006. According to a recent validation study,
110 GlobBiomass and Huang's AGB performed the best among all existing AGB datasets in China
111 (Chang et al., 2021). Mean forest canopy heights and tree coverage are also good indicators of
112 the spatial pattern of forest biomass. The high-resolution (30 m) forest canopy height map for
113 China was developed by interpolating the ICESat-2 and GEDI data in 2019 through a neural
114 network (Liu et al., 2022), while the tree cover map at the same resolution was derived from
115 cloud-free growing season composite Landsat 7 data in around 2010 (Hansen et al., 2013). We
116 resampled GlobBiomass from 100 m resolution ($1/1125^\circ$) to $1/1200^\circ$ (approximately 90 m),
117 and averaged Huang's AGB map, canopy height map and tree cover map to the same resolution.

118 A reviewable, consistent ecosystem carbon stock inventory was conducted in China between
119 2011 and 2015 (Tang et al., 2018). We requested the AGB carbon stock (AGBC) data at more
120 than 5,000 30×30 m sized forest plots from the authors. Due to the scale mismatch between the
121 maps of biomass, canopy height or tree cover and the field measurements, we dropped out the
122 data within the $1/1200^\circ$ resolution grids in which the standard deviation of tree cover was
123 greater than 15%, according to (Chang et al., 2021), leaving 2444 homogeneous forest plots
124 remaining (see Figure 2 for the spatial distribution of these forest plots and Figure S1a~b for

125 the cumulative frequency curve and histogram of the AGBC records). The AGBC records in
126 these forest plots were further multiplied by the mean fraction of forestland over 2011–2015 in
127 the corresponding grid, which was computed from the annual 30 m resolution China Land
128 Cover Dataset (CLCD) (Yang and Huang, 2021). By comparison, GlobBiomass 2010 AGB
129 matches the best with the grid-scale forest AGBC derived from plot measurements, with a
130 correlation coefficient (CC) of 0.50, followed by tree cover (CC=0.42), the product of canopy
131 height and tree cover (CC=0.38), and finally the canopy height (0.27) and Huang’s AGB (0.25).
132 Therefore, to obtain an improved benchmark map of forest AGBC in China for the period of
133 2011–2015, we chose the GlobBiomass 2010 dataset as our basis, and calibrated it against the
134 in-situ observation-based grid-scale forest AGBC. To build an equation for the calibration, we
135 divided the grid-scale AGBC values into 16 equidistant subranges (0~15, 15~30, ..., 225~240
136 tC/ha), calculated the median of grid-scale AGBC values that are within each subrange, and
137 then the median of GlobBiomass AGB values in the corresponding grids. According to previous
138 studies, an exponential function would be suitable for calibrating the GlobBiomass map in a
139 region such as China (Mialon et al., 2020). After the calibration, we averaged the benchmark
140 AGBC map from 1/1200° to 1/120° (approximately 1 km) to further reduce the uncertainties.



141 74° E 78° E 82° E 86° E 90° E 94° E 98° E 104° E 110° E 116° E 122° E 128° E 134° E

142 **Figure 2.** The spatial distribution of 1) 2444 homogeneous forest plots with aboveground
 143 ground biomass carbon stock measured between 2011 and 2015; and 2) 8182 forest plots with
 144 both above- and belowground biomass records collated in this study.

145 **2.2 Temporally continuous forest AGBC mapping during 2002–2021**

146 Because the benchmark AGBC was mapped based on SAR data, the spatial pattern accuracy is
 147 guaranteed, but the temporal coverage is limited to just a few years. Hence, to create a forest
 148 AGBC time series over the past 20 years, we integrated the benchmark AGBC with long-term
 149 continuous optical and passive microwave remote sensing data.

150 The spatial resolution of optical remote sensing is higher, and is thus preferred in this study. By
 151 adopting the MODIS vegetation continuous fields (VCF) data (MOD44B v061) which includes
 152 three ground cover components: percent tree cover, percent non-tree vegetation (i.e., short

153 vegetation) cover, and percent non-vegetated (Dimiceli et al., 2022), we first calculated the
154 mean tree cover (hereinafter, TC_{mean}) and short vegetation cover (hereinafter SVC_{mean}) during
155 2011–2015, and resampled them from 250 m to $1/120^\circ$, the same resolution as the benchmark
156 AGBC map for 2011–2015. Because the canopy heights of trees are usually similar within a
157 small area, the regional AGBC per TC_{mean} can be assumed as the same, which is referred to as
158 the ‘homogeneous assumption’ hereinafter. Accordingly, for each grid, we searched the TC_{mean} ,
159 SVC_{mean} and AGBC within a 3×3 window ($1/40^\circ \times 1/40^\circ$), and then regressed the AGBC values
160 in 9 grids against both TC_{mean} (the primary, or key predictor of AGBC) and SVC_{mean} (assumed
161 as a supplementary predictor) linearly. Specifically, when the regression coefficient of SVC_{mean}
162 was negative or the fitting efficiency was low ($R^2 < 0.5$; significance $p\text{-value} > 0.05$), we excluded
163 the supplementary predictor from the regression, only exploring the linear relationship between
164 TC_{mean} and AGBC. Afterwards, if the regression between TC_{mean} and AGBC was still invalid,
165 we enlarged the searching window size to 5×5 , then 7×7 , and finally 9×9 , until the regression
166 as well as the coefficients became valid. Then, the grid annual AGBC from 2002 to 2021 can
167 be estimated from the TC or both TC and SVC in each year, following the regression results. If
168 the regression failed even if the window size reached 9×9 , we stopped expanding the searching
169 window to avoid the ‘homogeneous assumption’ being invalid. In those grids, following a
170 previous study (Xu et al., 2021), we divided the estimated AGBC by the TC_{mean} during 2011–
171 2015 and then multiplied the TC in each year to obtain the AGBC time series. The above
172 method utilized spatial information to estimate the temporal variation, and can thus be referred
173 to as the ‘space for time’ method.

174 Long-term continuous microwave VOD can also reflect forest biomass changes, although the
175 relationship was nonlinear (Jackson and Schmugge, 1991; O'Neill et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2015;
176 Wigneron et al., 1995). We selected the global land parameter data record (LPDR) v3 0.25°
177 resolution VOD product, which was generated using similar calibrated, X-band brightness
178 temperature retrieved from the Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer (AMSR-E) and the
179 Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2 (AMSR2) (Du et al., 2017). As revealed by a
180 recent evaluation study, LPDR VOD is better correlated with AGB than other long-term VOD
181 products, especially in less-vegetated areas (Li et al., 2021). Because X-band VODs are still
182 more sensitive to canopy cover than stem biomass and there is a data gap between October 2010
183 and June 2011, while the plot investigations were all conducted in summers (Tang et al., 2018),
184 we averaged the VOD data from mid-July (the 206th day) until the end of September (the 274th
185 day) in each year to represent the annual AGB status. We also aggregated the benchmark AGBC
186 map as well as the VCF data (TC_{mean} and SVC_{mean}) to 0.25° resolution. After each round of
187 searching, we applied the shape language modelling algorithm (D'errico, 2022) to fit the
188 nonlinear but monotonous relationship between AGBC and VOD values within the searching
189 window, and then fitted the bivariate linear regression between AGBC and VCF. If the nonlinear
190 regression between AGBC and VOD is valid and the R^2 is superior to the regression between
191 AGBC and VCF data, LPDR VOD data is expected to outperform VCF in predicting the inter-
192 annual AGBC changes in the corresponding 0.25° grid. Therefore, in these areas, we calibrated
193 the VCF-derived high (1/120°) resolution annual AGBC by incorporating the ratio between the
194 VOD-derived 0.25° AGBC and the aggregated VCF-derived AGBC in that year.

195 **2.3 Forest belowground biomass carbon (BGBC) mapping during 2002–2021**

196 This study mapped belowground forest biomass carbon (BGBC) following the random forest
197 (RF) model approach (Huang et al., 2021). To reveal forests' above- and belowground biomass
198 allocation rules in China, this study collated both AGB and BGB records at 8729 forest plots
199 throughout China, which were obtained using allometric equations or clear-cutting methods
200 from published papers, including (Luo, 1996), (Luo et al., 2014), (Guo and Ren, 2014), (Wang
201 et al., 2014). Because forest stand age and tree species (forest type) information are also
202 available at 8182 plots, while the climatic backgrounds are available from the WorldClim v2.1
203 dataset (Fick and Hijmans, 2017), forest plots' AGB, forest type (hereinafter FOR_T), stand
204 age, mean annual temperature (MAT), temperature seasonality (standard deviation of monthly
205 temperature \times 100, abbreviated as Tsea), mean annual precipitation (MAP) and precipitation
206 seasonality (coefficient of variation of monthly precipitation, Psea) were applied as predictors
207 of forest plots' BGB. For simplicity, we distinguished all forests into 5 types: evergreen
208 broadleaf forest (EBF), deciduous broadleaf forest (DBF), evergreen needleleaf forest (ENF),
209 deciduous needleleaf forest (DNF), and mixed forest (MF). Using the data records at these 8182
210 plots (see Figure 2 for the locations of these forest plots and Figure S1c~f for the cumulative
211 frequency curves and histograms of the AGB and BGB data), we trained ten-fold RF models
212 using MATLAB R2021a[®]. The number of regression trees was set to 500.

213 Because the 1/120° resolution grids where forest AGBC data were available are often mixed
214 with forestland and some other land cover types, e.g., water bodies, bare ground, croplands, we

215 converted the annual grid-average AGBC into the AGBC per area forestland by incorporating
216 the annual fraction of forestland computed from the CLCD at 30 m resolution. Considering the
217 potential uncertainties in the forestland fraction as well as the inclusion of shrub or herbaceous
218 plant AGB in the SAR-derived AGB, we only calculated the annual AGBC per area forestland
219 in grids that were dominated by forestland (forestland fractions were consistently over 50%).
220 In these forestland grids, we simulated the forest BGBC per area forestland during 2002–2021
221 by inputting the estimated annual AGB (approximately 2 times of the AGBC) per forestland,
222 annual forest type map derived from ESA CCI’s land cover classification dataset (Li et al.,
223 2018), forest stand age (Besnard et al., 2021) and climatic background variables into the RF
224 model. Afterwards, we multiplied the simulation results in every forestland grid with the annual
225 forestland fractions to obtain the forests’ BGB and BGBC ($0.5 \times \text{BGB}$) time series. Finally, for
226 grids with forests but are not dominated by forestlands, we sequentially searched for at least
227 five valid RSR values (the ratio of forests’ BGBC to AGBC) nearby (Chen et al., 2019b), and
228 then multiplied the annual forest AGBC in the grid with the median of nearby RSR values in
229 each year to estimate the annual forest BGBC.

230 **2.4 Evaluation and assessment**

231 We compared the inter-annual trend of forest biomass carbon calculated in this study against
232 that of existing global/regional long-term woody biomass datasets, including the well-received
233 global long-term terrestrial biomass data between 1993–2012, which was developed mainly
234 based on a long-term integrated VOD dataset (Liu et al., 2015), as well as an updated woody

235 biomass dataset covering 2001–2019 whose long time series was derived from optical remote
236 sensing data (i.e., MODIS VCF dataset) (Xu et al., 2021).

237 To justify the random forest models for BGBC predictions, we drew partial dependence plots
238 (PDPs) in MATLAB R2021a[®] to show the marginal effect that one predictor has on the training
239 target (e.g., BGB at forest plots) (Hastie et al., 2009). Here, for each predictor, we excluded the
240 extreme values (the lowest 1% and the highest 1%) before calculating the corresponding PDP
241 to avoid roughly extending the PDP lines to data-scarce areas. Ten-fold RF trainings were also
242 performed to derive the mean PDP values as well as the standard deviations.

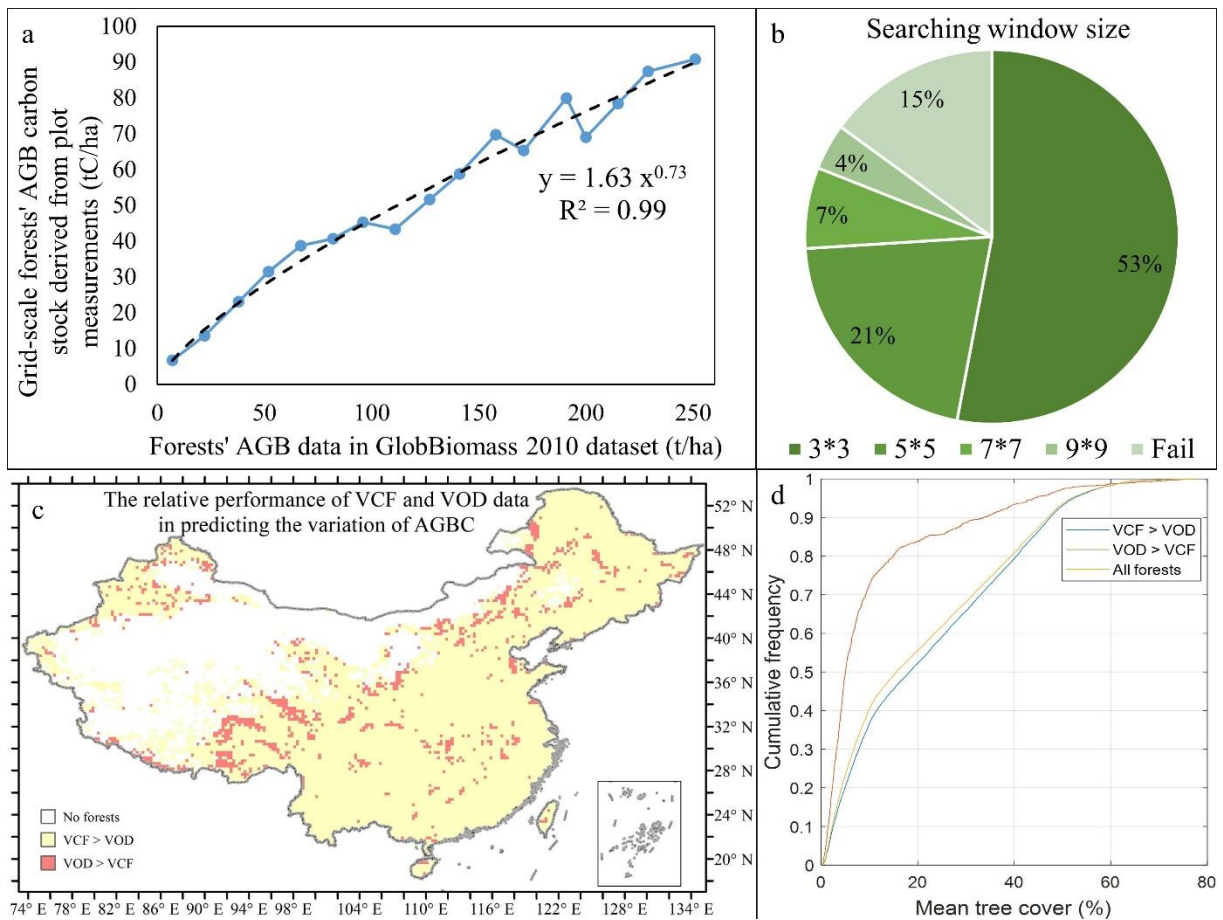
243 **3 Results and discussion**

244 **3.1 Evaluation of forests' AGBC and BGBC estimation**

245 First, according to Figure 3a, an exponential function: $y=1.63 \times x^{0.73}$ can fit the relationship
246 between the actual grid-scale forest AGBC over 2011–2015 (y) and the AGB values predicted
247 by GlobBiomass 2010 (x). Hence, this function was applied to derive the benchmark map of
248 forest AGBC across China.

249 Second, when using the spatial information of tree cover and short vegetation cover to estimate
250 the temporal variation of AGBC in each grid, the spatial searching window was at its minimum
251 of 3×3 in most (53%) grids with forests. Across China, the temporal extension of AGBC in only
252 15% of all grids with forest cannot be achieved even when the searching window was enlarged
253 to 9×9 (Figure 3b).

254 Next, as shown in Figure 3c and 3d, the grids where LPDR X-band VOD performed better than
 255 MODIS VCF in predicting the temporal change in forest AGBC are usually located in regions
 256 with low tree cover. These grids account for just 10.4% of all grids with forests, and may suffer
 257 from high uncertainty within the optical-based variation in tree cover. Therefore, microwave-
 258 based VOD is supposed to be more suitable for estimating the forests' AGBC changes in these
 259 regions.



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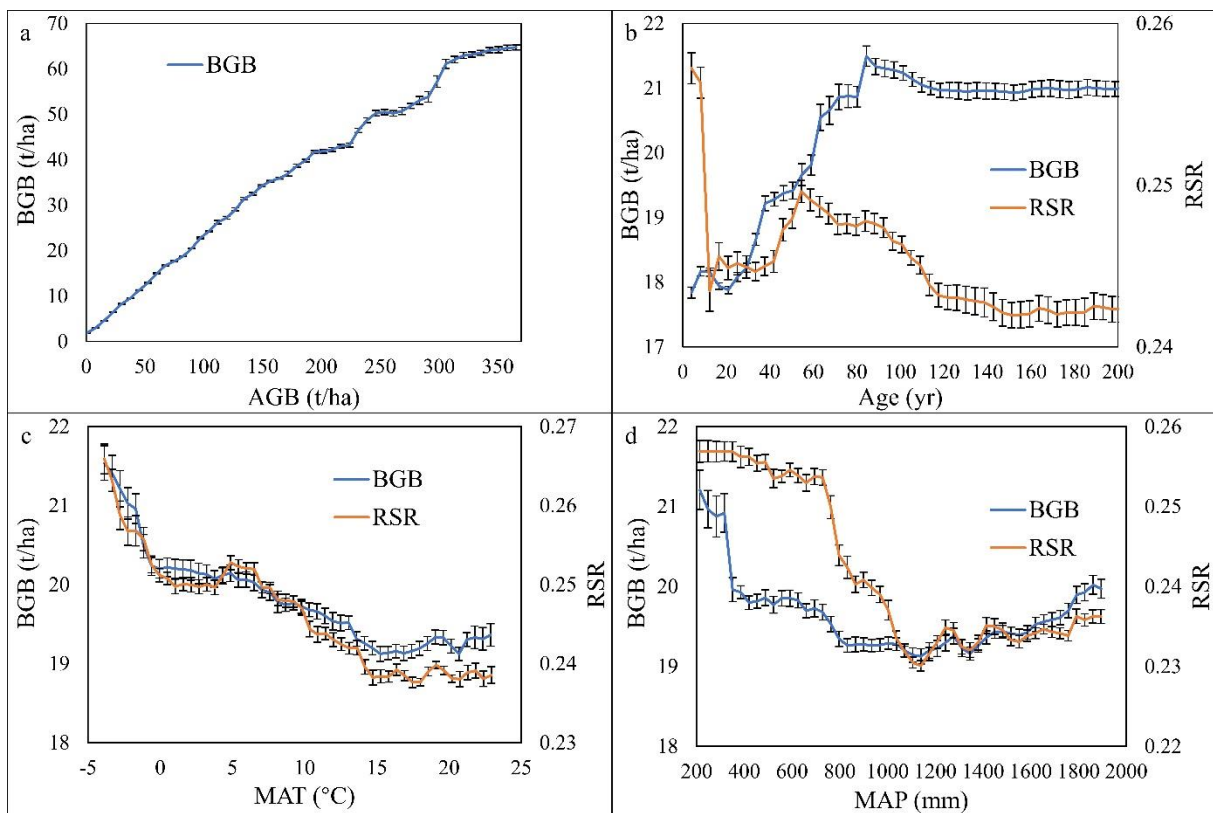
261 **Figure 3.** Evaluation of the forest AGBC and BGBC mapping in this study. (a) The regression
 262 relationship between the grid-scale forest AGB carbon stock derived from plot measurements
 263 during 2011–2015 and the GlobBiomass AGB dataset for 2010; (b) the minimum searching
 264 window sizes of every 1/120° grid when the spatial variation in MODIS VCF was applied as

265 the predictor of AGBC changes; (c) the spatial pattern of the relative performances of MODIS
266 VCF and LPDR VOD data in predicting the variation in AGBC; (d) comparison of the mean
267 tree cover between the grids where VOD data were more suitable for predicting the variation
268 of AGBC and the grids where VCF data were the better predictor.

269 The RF model designed for forest plot BGB estimation (see section 2.3) achieved a predictive
270 R^2 of 0.89 ± 0.02 , while the RMSE was 6.3 ± 0.5 t/ha. AGB explained 53% of the variation in
271 BGB among different plots. Long-term climate backgrounds, i.e., mean annual temperature,
272 temperature seasonality, annual precipitation and precipitation seasonality accounted for 8%,
273 6%, 8% and 7%, respectively. Forest type and stand age also contributed 12% and 8% to the
274 training efficiency, indicating that the effects of these factors are nonnegligible. The selection
275 of predictors of BGB basically followed the existing knowledge (Huang et al., 2021), and the
276 seasonality of temperature and precipitation made sense in the prediction (see Text S1). On the
277 other hand, although previous studies incorporated many edaphic factors as predictors of BGB
278 (Huang et al., 2021), by comparing the training efficiencies when whether these edaphic factors
279 are incorporated or not, we could justify the reasonability of our simplified set of predictors
280 (Text S1).

281 According to the collected woody plots' data, AGB is a key driver of BGB (Figure 4). Yet, RSR
282 changes among different forest growth stages, decreasing in general as reported (Mokany et al.,
283 2006). The overall negative impact of mean temperature on BGB or RSR agrees with the
284 mechanism that higher heat promotes nutrient accessibility (Luo et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2021),

285 and increases the turnover rates of roots at a higher magnitude than stems (Reich et al., 2014).
 286 The ‘U-shaped’ relationship between precipitation and belowground biomass allocation follows
 287 the ‘optimal biomass allocation’ theory, because arid climates promote root extension, yet too
 288 heavy rainfall reduces nutrient availability through leaching and dilution effects (Luo et al.,
 289 2012). Other factors, including temperature seasonality, precipitation seasonality and forest
 290 type, have supplementary effects on biomass allocation (Figure S2).



291 **Figure 4.** Influence of key factors on forest belowground biomass (BGB) and root-shoot ratio
 292 (RSR) in China. Subfigures (a~d) show partial influences of (a) AGB; (b) stand age; (c) MAT
 293 and (d) MAP on BGB and RSR values of all forest plots. The error bars represent the standard
 294 deviations of the ten-fold trainings. We did not draw the PDP for the impact of AGB on RSR,
 295 since the dividend of RSR calculation is AGB.
 296

297 **3.2 Forest biomass carbon pool, allocation and change in China**

298 Between 2002 to 2021, the forest above- and belowground biomass carbon (AGBC and BGBC)
299 pools in China were 8.6 ± 0.6 and 2.2 ± 0.1 PgC, respectively (Table 1). The mean RSR for all
300 forests was 0.25, basically equal to the global average (Huang et al., 2021). Separated by forest
301 type, evergreen conifer forests (ENF) occupy the highest biomass carbon pool per unit area,
302 mainly because ENF are mainly located in southwestern China and are more mature and natural
303 (Yu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2017). Deciduous forests (DBF & DNF) in northern China (see
304 Figure S3 for the distribution of different forest ecosystems) harbor less biomass carbon but
305 higher BGBC (Figure 5a), which can be attributed to the higher RSR values (Table 1).

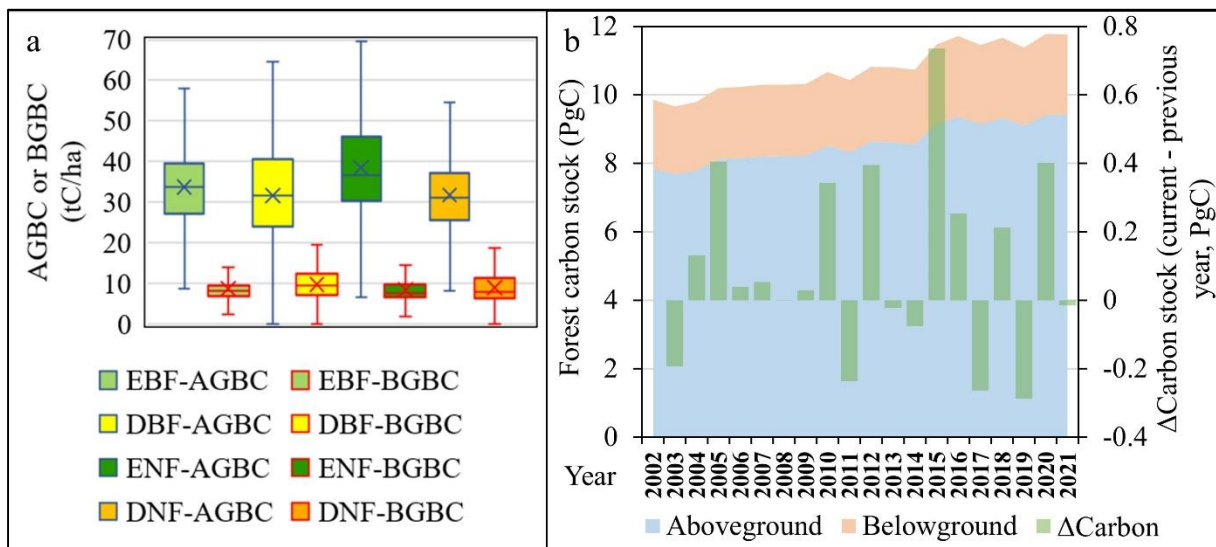
306 The forest biomass carbon stock in China increased at an average rate of 114.5 ± 16.3 TgC/yr
307 ($p < 0.01$) during 2002–2021, and the annual biomass carbon gains were the greatest from 2014
308 to 2015, reaching 736 TgC (Figure 5b). Changes in AGB and BGB accounted for 81.9% and
309 18.1%, respectively, of the forest carbon stock gains over the past 20 years.

310 Our estimates of the forest biomass carbon pool, forest RSR and the recent inter-annual trend
311 of forest biomass carbon are generally consistent with previous estimates based on massive
312 field investigations (Table 1).

313 **Table 1.** Agreement of the estimated various forest RSR and the trend of forest biomass carbon
314 in China with existing studies.

Variables	Our estimate	Previous estimates	Reference
Forests' AGBC	8.6 ± 0.6 (2002–2021) 8.7 ± 0.3 (2011–2015)	8.4 ± 1.6 (2011–2015)	(Tang et al., 2018)
Forests' BGBC	2.2 ± 0.1 (2002–2021)	2.1 ± 0.4 (2011–2015)	

	2.2 ± 0.1 (2011–2015)		
EBF's RSR	0.27 ± 0.07	0.22 ± 0.11	(Tang et al., 2018)
DBF's RSR	0.31 ± 0.05	0.28 ± 0.15	
ENF's RSR	0.22 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.11	
DNF's RSR	0.29 ± 0.10	0.31 ± 0.13	
Annual forest carbon stock increase	114.5 ± 16.3 TgC/yr (2002–2021)	116.7 TgC/yr (2000–2010)	(Fang et al., 2018)
	105.1 ± 42.2 TgC/yr (2002–2010)		



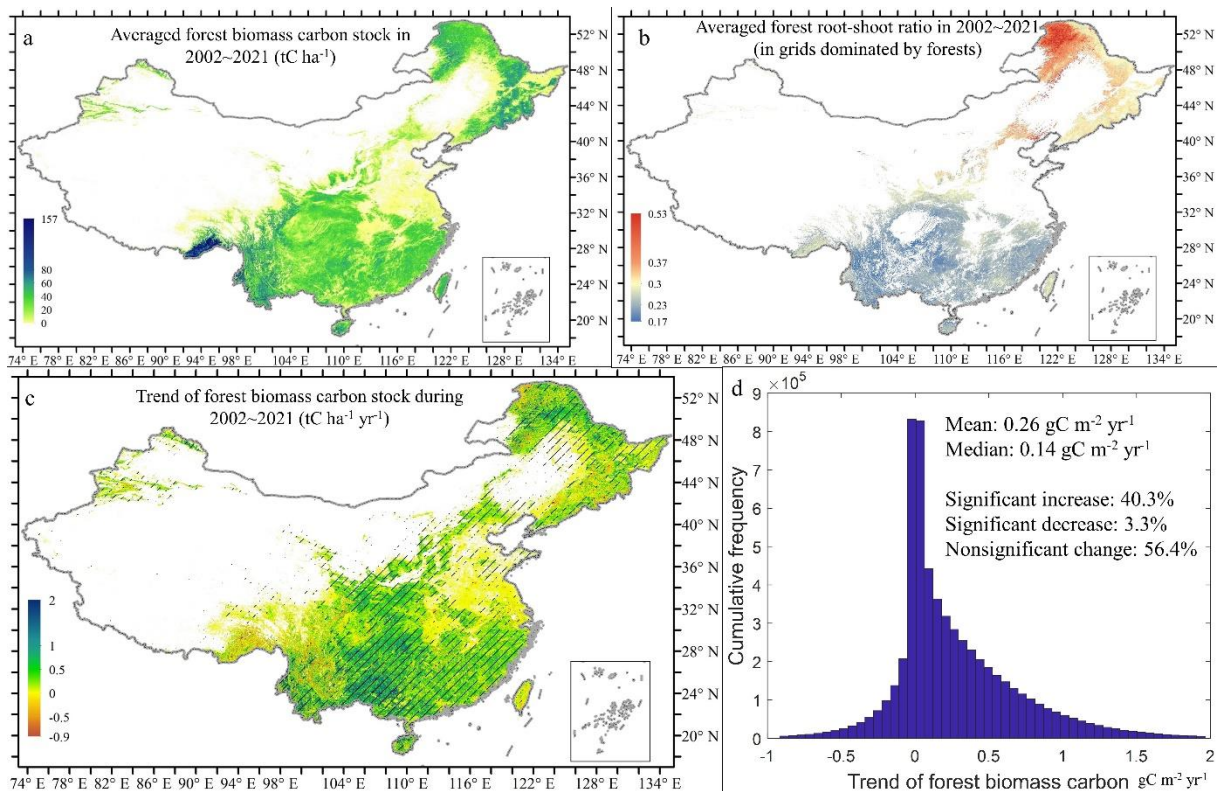
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316 **Figure 5.** Forest biomass allocation and biomass change in China during 2002–2021: (a)
 317 aboveground biomass carbon (AGBC) and belowground biomass carbon (BGBC) density of
 318 different forest ecosystems in China; (b) the inter-annual changes of forest AGBC and BGBC
 319 in China. Total forest biomass carbon stock changes from the previous to the current year are
 320 represented by green columns.

321 3.3 Spatial pattern of the forest biomass carbon stock trend in China

322 The highest forest biomass carbon pools during 2002–2021 were observed in northeastern and
 323 southwestern China, especially southern Tibet. Forest biomass carbon stocks were also high in
 324 the natural or semi-natural forests in the Qinling Mountains, Hengduan Mountains, Hainan and
 325 Taiwan (Figure 6a). Above- and belowground forest biomass allocation varies significantly

326 among regions. RSR is highest in northeastern deciduous conifer forests and northern China's
 327 deciduous broadleaf forests but low in southern China (Figure 6b). The strongest forest biomass
 328 carbon increases were found in central to southern China, including the Loess Plateau, Qinling
 329 Mountains, southwest karst region and southeastern forests. Slight declines in forest biomass
 330 carbon only occurred in some mature and natural forests, e.g., those in the Greater Khingan
 331 Mountain, Hengduan Mountains and South Tibet (Figure 6c). A total of 40.3% of all forests in
 332 China showed significant biomass carbon stock gains over the past 20 years, whereas only 3.3%
 333 of forests experienced significant biomass carbon losses (Figure 6d).



334
 335 **Figure 6.** Maps of forest biomass carbon pool, allocation and trend in China during 2002–2021.
 336 (a) Spatial pattern of the forest biomass carbon pool in China; (b) all forestland pixels' RSR;
 337 (c) map of the forest biomass carbon stock trend from 2002 to 2021, with shaded areas
 338 representing statistically significant trends at the 95% confidence level; (d) histogram and basic

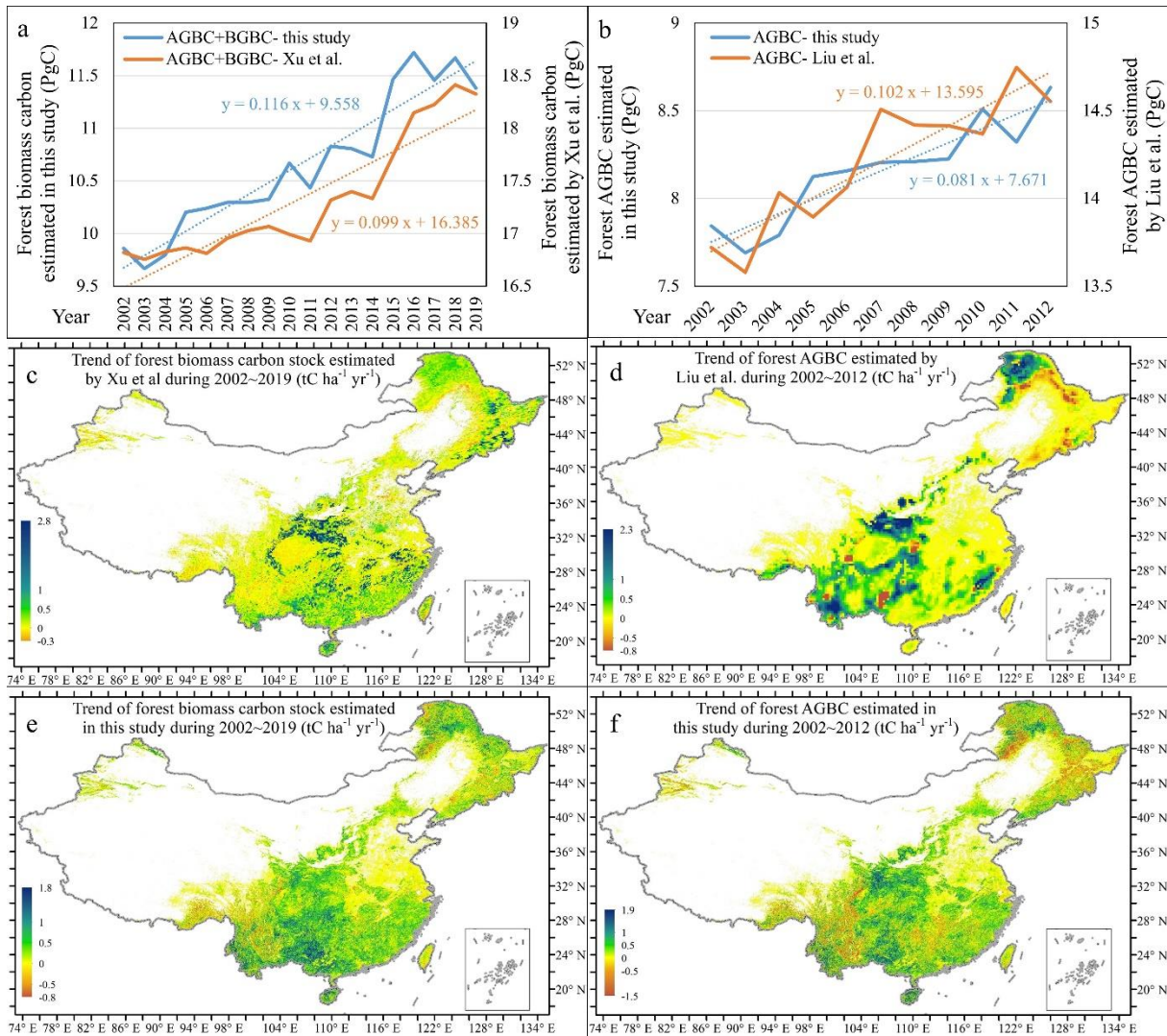
339 statistics of all forest biomass carbon stock trend.

340 **4 Discussion**

341 **4.1 Comparison of the estimated forest biomass carbon pool change in this study against** 342 **the existing datasets**

343 Although with potential overestimation, the inter-annual variation in forest AGBC in China
344 according to Liu et al. (2015) and that of total biomass carbon according to Xu et al. (2021) are
345 both highly correlated with our results ($R^2= 0.65$ and 0.88). Liu et al. predicted a forest AGBC
346 increase rate of 102.2 ± 35.8 Tg/yr ($p<0.01$), slightly higher than our estimate of 80.8 ± 25.1
347 Tg/yr during 2002–2012; while Xu et al. indicated a biomass carbon stock trend of 99.4 ± 23.2
348 Tg/yr ($p<0.01$) from 2002 to 2019, slightly lower than the rate of 115.6 ± 20.2 Tg/yr in this
349 study (Figure 7a~b). The spatial maps of the forest biomass carbon trends estimated by Xu et
350 al. and Liu et al. were slightly patchy (Figure 7c~d). Compared to this study, the two existing
351 datasets (i.e., Liu et al. (2015) and Xu et al. (2021)'s datasets) predicted higher biomass carbon
352 stock trends in the Qinling Mountains and the mature deciduous conifer forests in northeast
353 China. Meanwhile, they predicted lower carbon sinks in southern China (Figure 7c~f), where
354 reforestation and forest management-induced short term extensive carbon uptake (Tong et al.,
355 2020) have been confirmed by atmospheric inversions (Wang et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021).
356 Finally, by comparing Figure 7e and 7f, we could also notice that the hotspot of forest biomass
357 carbon gains has moved from the Loess Plateau over the first decade of our study period (2002–
358 2012) to southern China (e.g., Guangxi Province) later. This change was probably due to the

359 large-scale implementation of the ‘Grain for Green’ project on the Loess Plateau (Liu et al.,
 360 2020; Wu et al., 2019) before 2012, and the massive plantation of fast-growing trees in southern
 361 China after 2010 (Tong et al., 2020).



362
 363 **Figure 7.** Comparison of the estimated forest biomass carbon pool change in this study against
 364 two existing datasets. (a) Comparison of the inter-annual variation of forest biomass carbon in
 365 this study against the estimate by Xu et al. during 2002–2019; (b) comparison of the inter-
 366 annual variation of forest AGBC calculated in this study against the estimate by Liu et al. over
 367 2002–2012; (c) map of the inter-annual trend of forest biomass carbon stock in China during

368 2003–2019 according to Xu et al; (d) map of the forest AGBC trend in China during 2003–2012
369 according to Liu et al; (e) map of the estimated trend of forest biomass carbon stock over 2002–
370 2019 in this study; (f) map of the estimated forest AGBC trend over 2002–2012 in this study.

371 **4.2 Some uncertainties of the forest biomass carbon dataset and future prospects**

372 During benchmark AGBC mapping, we converted the in-situ AGBC data at forest plots into the
373 grid-scale average AGBC by multiplying by the fraction of forestland during the time period of
374 field investigation. Considering the overall high-quality of the China's land-use/cover datasets
375 developed via human–computer interactive interpretation of Landsat images (Liu et al., 2014;
376 Yang and Huang, 2021), and that the producer's accuracy (PA) and user's accuracy (UA) for
377 forestland classification in the CLCD dataset used in this study were 73% and 85% respectively,
378 the errors within the benchmark AGBC mapping induced by the scale conversion based on the
379 forestland area fraction were generally limited.

380 The variation in climatic conditions in the short term may have subtle influences on that in the
381 BGB, but explicit knowledge on this effect is lacking. Instead, woody vegetation BGB is much
382 more driven by AGB (vegetation density), as indicated by the very strong relationship between
383 BGB and AGB ($R^2 \geq 0.85$). Moreover, the long-term climatic background is expected to have a
384 stronger influence on the RSR of perennial woody plants than the meteorological conditions in
385 only a few years, since above- and belowground biomass allocation is the result of plants' long-
386 term adjustment to the environment (Qi et al., 2019). Therefore, it is reasonable not to consider
387 the influence of the specific climatic conditions in a year on the variation in BGB.

388 In the near future, P-band microwave sensors, which have higher penetrability into the canopy
389 than L-band microwaves, will further improve AGB mapping. For example, BIOMASS, a fully
390 polarimetric P-band SAR, is scheduled to be launched in 2022 (Le Toan et al., 2011). Therefore,
391 in the future the relationship between P-band microwave retrievals and biomass should be
392 addressed, as well as the calibration of historical AGB datasets (e.g., the long-term AGB dataset
393 in this study) against the P-band SAR-based AGB benchmark map to extend the time series. In
394 addition, an inter-calibration between the AMSR-E-based VOD and the AMSR2-based VOD
395 will further reduce the potential bias within the long-term integrated VOD datasets (Wang et al.,
396 2021a; Wang et al., 2021b). On the other hand, more in-situ AGB and BGB measurements in
397 larger plots are needed to further improve the estimation of belowground biomass allocation.

398 **Data availability**

399 Annual forest above- and belowground biomass maps in China between 2002 and 2021 are now
400 available at: <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21931161.v1>. This dataset will also be
401 available on the National Tibetan Plateau/Third Pole Environment Data Center and PANGAEA
402 soon (under checking now). Other open datasets that made this research possible and the related
403 references are attached in Supplementary Information- Text S2.

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409 aboveground biomass map.

410 **Competing interests**

411 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

412 **Author contribution**

413 Y.C designed and conducted the research. B.F and X.F funded the research. Y.Z wrote the draft
414 of the manuscript; X.F and all other authors read and revised the manuscript.

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