

1                   **Remapping Carbon Storage Change in Retired Farmlands on the Loess Plateau in**  
2                   **China from 2000 to 2021 in High Spatiotemporal Resolution**

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16     **Abstract:** The soil organic carbon pool is a crucial component of carbon storage in terrestrial  
17     ecosystems, playing a key role in regulating the carbon cycle and mitigating atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
18     concentration increases. To combat soil degradation and enhance soil organic carbon on the Loess  
19     Plateau, the Grain-for-Green Program (GFGP) has been implemented. Accurately quantifying change  
20     in soil organic carbon stock ( $\Delta$ SOC) resulting from farmland retirement is essential for informing land  
21     use management. In this study, the spatial and temporal distribution of retired farmlands on the Loess  
22     Plateau was analyzed using Landsat imagery from 1999 to 2021. To assess the effects of the years since  
23     retirement, climate, soil properties, elevation, and other factors on  $\Delta$ SOC, climate-zone-specific  
24     multivariable linear regression models were developed based on field-sampled soil data. These models  
25     were then used to map  $\Delta$ SOC across the retired farmlands. Results indicated that a total of 39,065 km<sup>2</sup>  
26     of farmland was retired over the past two decades, with 45.61% converted to grasslands, 29.75% to  
27     shrublands, and 24.64% to forestlands. The years since retirement showed a significant positive  
28     correlation with  $\Delta$ SOC, and distinct models were developed for different climatic zones to achieve  
29     high-resolution (30 m)  $\Delta$ SOC mapping. The total  $\Delta$ SOC from retired farmland on the Loess Plateau  
30     was estimated at 21.77 Tg in carbon equivalent, with grasslands contributing 81.10%, followed by  
31     forestlands (11.16%) and shrublands (7.74%).

32     **Keywords:** Years since retirement; soil organic carbon; ecological restoration; land use change; grain-  
33     for-green

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36 **1. Introduction**

37 Soil organic carbon (SOC), as the largest terrestrial ecosystem carbon pool, plays a crucial role in  
38 regulating climate change (Mir et al., 2023). Global SOC was estimated at approximately 1,400–1,500  
39 Pg C, about four times the organic carbon pool of terrestrial plants (Scharlemann et al., 2014). The high  
40 SOC is essential to support multiple ecological benefits, such as purifying water, increasing crop yields  
41 and maintaining primary productivity (Paustian et al., 2019). Currently, 1/3 soil in the world is  
42 degraded, causing many socioeconomic (e.g., unemployment, poverty, immigration) and environmental  
43 (e.g., desertification, ecosystem degradation, biodiversity loss) issues (Ferreira et al., 2022; Ouyang et  
44 al., 2016). The large area of degraded soil also released more than 50 Pg carbon annually into the  
45 atmosphere which conflicts with the decarbonization target for mitigating global warming (Práválie et  
46 al., 2021). Therefore, restoring degraded soil is urgently needed for sustainable development and  
47 environment security.

48 Ecological restoration by nature alone is a lengthy process. Under the urgent need for restoring  
49 degraded soils and mitigating climate change, scientific management measures are necessary to  
50 accelerate the ecosystem restoration process (Lengefeld et al., 2020; Pape, 2022; Wang et al., 2021a).  
51 Many large-scale ecological restoration strategies around the world have showed encouraging  
52 ecological benefits. Brazil's Atlantic Forest Restoration Pact (AFRP) was established in 2009, and  
53 Argentina and Paraguay joined the impressive project in 2018, forming the Atlantic Forest Restoration  
54 Tri-national Network (Calmon et al., 2011). Hundreds of organizations have been actively involved in  
55 this decade-long efforts to protect and restore the forests, which recovered about 7,000 km<sup>2</sup> forests and  
56 enhanced regional biodiversity (De Oliveira Faria and Magrini, 2016). Forests established by  
57 restoration in this project between 2010 and 2015 would have sequestered 1.75 Pg carbon if they were  
58 not re-cut (Piffer et al., 2022). The Development Project “Green Great Wall” in Africa was launched by  
59 the African Union in 2007, aiming at restoring savannahs, grasslands and farmlands across Africa to  
60 help biodiversity cope with climate change and desertification. The goals of the project are to restore 1  
61 million km<sup>2</sup> forests in 2030 and sequester 250 Tg C (Graham, 2022; Macia et al., 2023). China has  
62 started ecological restoration practices and researches since the 1970s, and has implemented six  
63 national key ecological restoration projects (Cui et al., 2021). Among the projects, the Grain-for-Green  
64 Program (GFGP) is one of the most ambitious projects in the world with the highest investment and the  
65 largest implemented area (Xu et al., 2022). From 1999 to 2019, the GFGP implemented in 25 provinces  
66 and exceeded 0.343 million km<sup>2</sup> land area with 49 Tg sequestered carbon, indicating a significant  
67 potential of SOC stock by ecological restoration (Lu et al., 2018). Based on Deng et al.’s (2017) study,  
68 the total carbon stock in the GFGP implemented area was 682 Tg C in 2010, and projected to  
69 1,697 Tg C in 2020.

70 One of the primary area of the GFGP is the Loess Plateau, because the long-term indiscriminate  
71 cultivation and logging on the Loess Plateau has caused over 40% of the total area (about 270,000 km<sup>2</sup>)  
72 in severe soil erosion and a significant loss of SOC (Shao et al., 2022). As the implementation of the  
73 GFGP, 96.1 Tg C was sequestered from 2000 to 2008 on the Loess Plateau (Feng et al., 2013; Xiao,  
74 2014). Nonetheless, current estimations of SOC stock still have large uncertainties due to the  
75 technology and data limits (Zhang et al., 2022). On the Loess Plateau, the accumulation of SOC can be  
76 affected by many untested factors, such as ecosystem types and years since retirement. Moreover, most  
77 of the studies fail to differentiate the carbon sequestration between retired and currently cultivated  
78 farmlands, and caused an overestimate of SOC stock. Therefore, a more reliable estimation should be  
79 reached to quantify the benefit in SOC stock of the retired farmlands with the consideration of those  
80 issues (Deng et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2016).

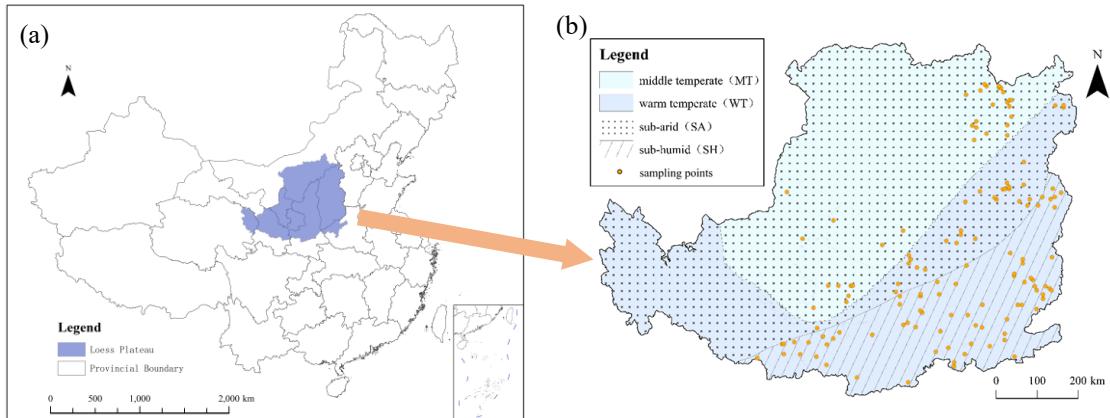
81 While previous studies have confirmed the overall increasing trend of SOC changes following  
82 farmland retirement, significant uncertainties persist due to limited spatial resolution and insufficient  
83 temporal coverage. Existing datasets fail to provide the continuous spatiotemporal dynamics of retired  
84 farmland distribution on the Loess Plateau (Xu et al., 2018; Yang and Huang, 2021; Bai et al., 2024).  
85 Furthermore, existing SOC assessments (Li et al., 2020; Yi et al., 2023) lack the capacity to quantify  
86 fine-scale differences in SOC stock between retired and cultivated farmlands ( $\Delta$ SOC). They also fail to  
87 capture the year-by-year dynamics of retired farmlands and SOC accumulation in high resolution by  
88 considering the heterogeneity of the Loess Plateau. To address these gaps, this study aims to: 1)  
89 reconstruct annual farmland retirement patterns (2000-2021) using multi-source remote sensing data; 2)  
90 develop a high-resolution  $\Delta$ SOC model integrating terrain, climate and vegetation covariates based on  
91 the difference in SOC stock between retired and adjacent cultivated farmlands; and 3) generate 30 m  
92 resolution  $\Delta$ SOC maps to quantify the impact of GFGP on carbon sequestration. Our spatially explicit  
93 approach provides unprecedented insights for optimizing ecological restoration strategies in  
94 heterogeneous landscapes.

## 95 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 96 2.1 Study Area

97 The Loess Plateau (100°52'–114°33' E, 33°41'–41°16' N) is located in the north central part of  
98 China (Fig. 1-a), in the middle reaches of the Yellow River, with a sensitive and fragile ecological  
99 environment, belonging to the warm temperate continental monsoon climate, characterized by dry and  
100 cold in spring and winter, warm and hot in summer and autumn (Ma et al., 2022). The average annual  
101 temperature is 3.6–14.3°C. The average annual precipitation is 400–600 mm, of which is concentrated  
102 between July and September, and decreases from east to west and south to north (Zhou et al., 2016).  
103 The annual evaporation is 1,400–2,100 mm, with a trend of low in the south and east, high in the north

104 and west. The elevation is 800–3,000 m, and the original surface vegetation mostly is grassland,  
 105 shrubland, deciduous broadleaf forest, and mixed broadleaf-conifer forest (Zhou et al., 2016). The total  
 106 area of the Loess Plateau is 635,000 km<sup>2</sup>, including Shanxi, Ningxia, Shaanxi, Gansu, Qinghai, Inner  
 107 Mongolia, Henan provinces. The main terrain is hilly and gully, with soft loessial soil texture.



108 **Figure 1. The map of the study area, (a) location, (b) soil sampling sites and climatic zones.**

109 **2.2 Identifying Retired Farmlands**

110 To identify and confirm the spatial range of the annual retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau,  
 111 Landsat remote sensing images (30 m resolution) from 1999 to 2021 were downloaded from the United  
 112 States Geological Survey (USGS, <https://EarthExplorer.usgs.gov>). The images with less cloud (lower  
 113 than 10%) in growing season (from May to September) were selected for further analysis. Those  
 114 images were processed by the standard steps recommended by ArcGIS Pro 2.8 (Environmental  
 115 Systems Research Institute, Inc., ESRI), including preprocessing, image classification and validation.  
 116 To improve image readability, remote sensing images were first preprocessed in ENVI 5.3, including  
 117 radiometric calibration, FLAASH (Fast Line-of-sight Atmospheric Analysis of Spectral Hyperspectral)  
 118 atmospheric correction, gram-schmidt pan sharpening, seamless mosaic and subset data from ROIs  
 119 (regions of interest). The image classification was then performed in ArcGIS Pro 2.8. In this study, we  
 120 used the support vector machine (SVM) supervised classification method to classify the land cover  
 121 types into the following seven categories: farmland, forestland, grassland, shrubland, water body,  
 122 building land, and bare land. Training samples were selected through visual interpretation of high-  
 123 resolution imageries and systematically managed using a training sample manager. A total of 23,100  
 124 ROI samples were used for model training, with an additional 6,930 independent ROIs reserved for  
 125 validation. During the accuracy assessment phase, the classification performance over the study period  
 126 consistently achieved kappa coefficients ranging from 0.76 to 0.90 and overall accuracy values  
 127 between 0.80 and 0.91. The average accuracies for different land cover types were as follows: farmland  
 128 (0.71), forestland (0.87), grassland (0.86), shrubland (0.92), water body (0.97), building land (0.92),  
 129 and bare land (0.87).

130 2.3 Field Sampling and SOC Measurements

131 To determine the  $\Delta$ SOC in ecosystems established on retired farmlands, we implemented a  
132 systematic sampling design based on spatial proximity principles. Initial sample sites were  
133 systematically generated at 5-km intervals across the retired farmland distribution map (Fig. 1-b),  
134 forming a comprehensive grid framework. For each retired farmland point, we identified the nearest  
135 long-term cultivated farmland counterpart to create a spatially paired sampling site. The sampling  
136 strategy incorporated stratification across different ecosystems, climatic zones, and years since  
137 retirement. To minimize human interference, we pre-screened all potential sites using ultra-high  
138 resolution imagery (0.5 m) to exclude areas near roads, villages, or irrigation ditches. Additional  
139 considerations included accessibility and sampling feasibility, leading to the exclusion of 133 site pairs  
140 from initial design to field implementation. Finally, 2,430 soil samples from 135 sample sites were  
141 collected from fields. Nine soil samples (three 10-cm layers from top 30 cm soil in 3 sample points)  
142 were collected for every sample site, and nine soil samples from the nearest farmlands were also  
143 collected similarly. Each soil sample was individually bagged, labeled, and stored in cold storage for  
144 lab measurement. After drying and grinding through a sieve at 0.25 mm, SOC of each soil sample was  
145 measured by potassium dichromate external heating method. The difference in total SOC stock of the  
146 top 30 cm soil layer between retired farmlands and the nearest cultivated farmlands was defined as  
147  $\Delta$ SOC that contributed by the GFGP.

148 2.4 Model Development and  $\Delta$ SOC Mapping on the Loess Plateau

149  $\Delta$ SOC is influenced by both natural environmental conditions and human activities, leading to  
150 variations across different climatic conditions of the Loess Plateau. Therefore, we developed different  
151 models based on the relationships between  $\Delta$ SOC and variables such as years since retirement,  
152 geographic location, elevation, soil bulk density (BD), and 19 bioclimatic factors. Years since  
153 retirement were obtained from the annual spatial distribution data in retired farmlands on the Loess  
154 Plateau (subsection 2.2). The data sources for climate information can be found in subsection 2.5. The  
155 19 bioclimatic factors were derived by following the formula in WorldClim  
156 (<https://worldclim.org/data/index.html>). For every grid cell of retired farmlands, the bioclimatic factors  
157 were calculated as the average of the years since retirement. All the variables were extracted to the  
158 sample sites by the Kriging interpolation and prepared for model development.

159 Based on the factors introduced above, we combined ANOVA, single-factor regression, all subset  
160 regression and stepwise regression to select variables for multivariate linear models of  $\Delta$ SOC. The  
161 steps included: data preprocessing, univariate analysis, multivariate analysis, model evaluation, and  
162 diagnostic checks. Finally, several key variables that co-occurred were selected. In consideration of  
163 wide climatic range on the Loess Plateau and different possible response of  $\Delta$ SOC to the factors among

164 climatic conditions (Zhang et al., 2018), we divided the Loess Plateau into different climatic zones for  
165 different ecosystem types (e.g., forestland, shrubland, grassland) based on climate regionalization in  
166 China–Climatic zones and climatic regions (GB/T 17297-1998) and climate data (subsection 2.5). As  
167 Fig. 1-c shows, we obtained middle temperature zone (MT,  $< 8^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and warm temperate zone (WT,  $>$   
168  $8^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) by the annual average temperature, and semi-arid zone (SA,  $< 400 \text{ mm}$ ) and sub-humid zone  
169 (SH,  $> 400 \text{ mm}$ ) by annual precipitation. In addition, five combined climatic zones were obtained: MT-  
170 SA (same as MT), WT-SA, WT-SH (same as SH), WT, and SA. A multivariate linear regression model  
171 was developed specifically for each ecosystem types in each climatic zone. Before regression analysis,  
172 diagnosis of multicollinearity is conducted, and the threshold is generally set at 10 to detecting  
173 correlations between the independent variables and identify those independent variables that were  
174 incorrectly included in the same regression model. The regression models were evaluated and validated  
175 by residual analysis, significance level ( $p$ -value), coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), root mean square  
176 error (RMSE) and mean absolute error (MAE), and the robustness of the models were validated by  
177 leave one out-cross-validation. Statistical power analysis indicates that the current stratified sampling  
178 design provides adequate power for detecting medium to large effects, though sensitivity for detecting  
179 small effects remains limited. Model robustness under this design is rated as “acceptable”.

180 Based on the results of model evaluation, the final selected models were used to estimate the  
181 overall  $\Delta\text{SOC}$  of retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau. With the final selected multivariate linear  
182 regression models, the  $\Delta\text{SOC}$  in the top 30 cm soil layer were mapped by raster calculation in different  
183 climatic zones and ecosystem types at 30 m resolution. And the total  $\Delta\text{SOC}$  on the Loess Plateau  
184 contributed by the GFGP was obtained by summing up the  $\Delta\text{SOC}$  in all the retired farmlands without  
185 recultivation within the study period.

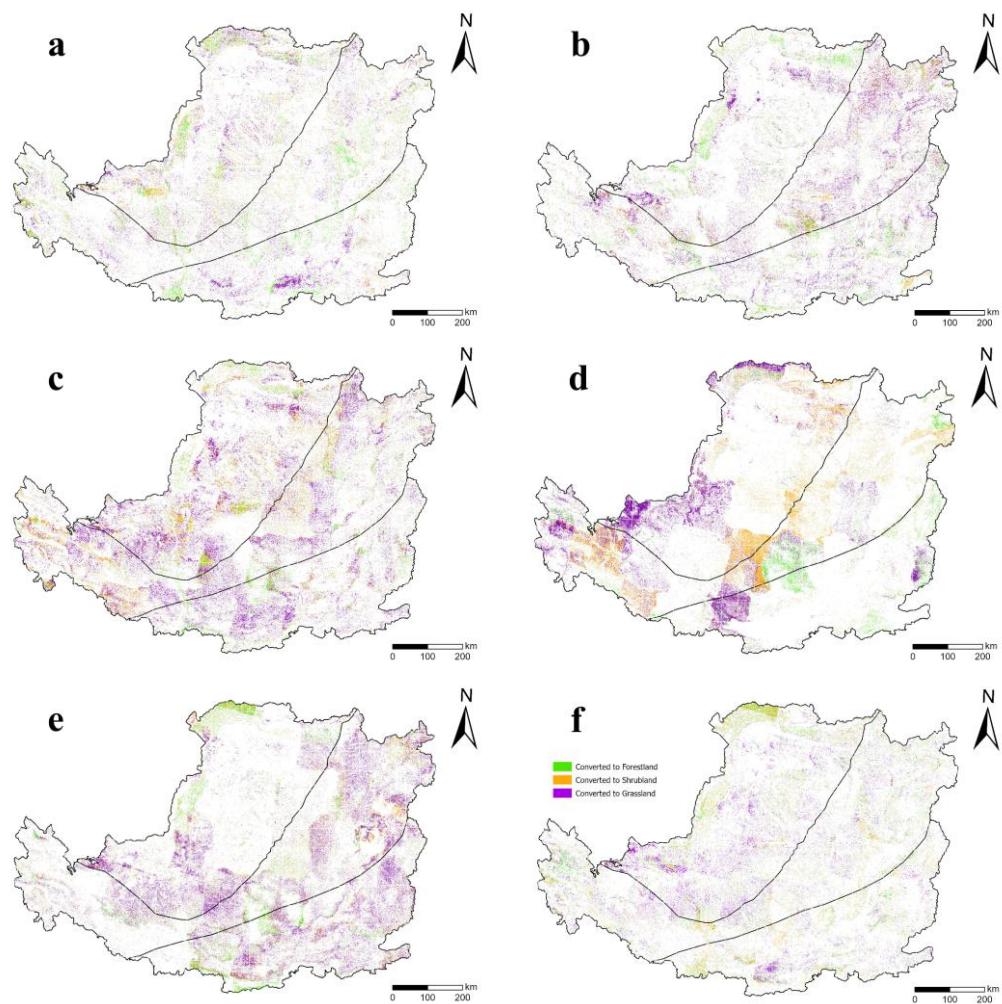
## 186 2.5 Data Sources

187 The air temperature and precipitation data to calculate the 19 bioclimatic factors were from the  
188 China Meteorological Data Service Center (CMDC, <http://www.geodata.cn>). Elevation data of every  
189 grid cell were from the Digital Elevation Model database (<https://e4ftl01.cr.usgs.gov/MEASURES/>).  
190 Soil properties were retrieved from Harmonized World Soil Database (HWSD,  
191 <https://www.fao.org/soils-portal/soil-survey/soil-maps-and-databases/harmonized-world-soil-database-v12/en/>), and the boundary of the Loess Plateau was downloaded from the Resource and Environment  
192 Science and Data Center (<https://www.resdc.cn/>). All the raster data were resampled to 30 m resolution.  
193

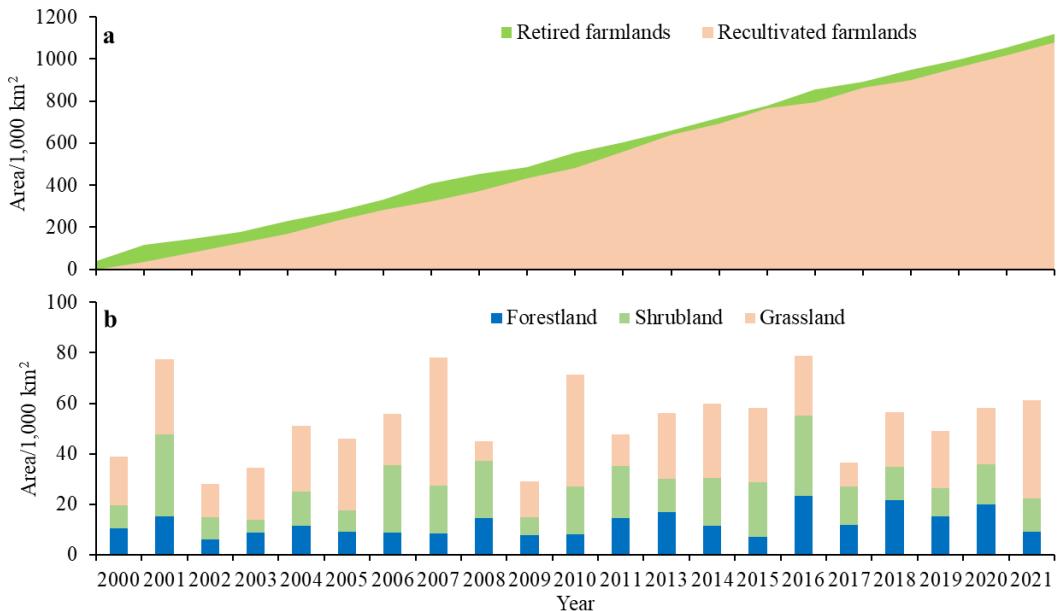
## 194 3. Results

### 195 3.1 Distribution of Retired Farmlands

196 From 1999 to 2021, the final retired farmlands without recultivation on the Loess Plateau was  
 197 39,065 km<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 2-a). The final retired farmlands were less than the area by summing up annually  
 198 retired farmlands because of frequent recultivation (Fig. 3-a). The annual area of retired farmlands has  
 199 been fluctuating throughout the study period with no significant trend (Fig 2-a-u, Fig. 3-b). The least  
 200 amount of retired farmlands occurred in 2002 (28,003 km<sup>2</sup>; 4.41% of the whole studied area), and the  
 201 most was 78,653 km<sup>2</sup> in 2016 (12.39% of the whole studied area). The retired farmlands were  
 202 converted to different vegetation types, including forestlands, shrublands and grasslands. The ratios of  
 203 different vegetation types in every year were in the ranges of 10.65%–38.60%, 14.63%–47.70% and  
 204 17.02%–64.98% for forestlands, shrublands and grasslands, respectively (Fig. 3-b). Within the studied  
 205 period in average, most of the retired farmlands were converted to grasslands (45.61 %) and shrublands  
 206 (29.75 %).



207 **Figure 2. Spatial distribution of annually retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau in (a) 2000, (b)**  
 208 **(c) 2005, (d) 2010, (e) 2015, (e) 2021, and (f) cumulative retired farmlands from 1999 to 2021.**



209 **Figure 3. a) Cumulative retired farmlands and recultivated farmlands and b) Annual area of**  
 210 **different vegetation types from retired farmlands from 2000 to 2021.**

211 The annual retired farmlands were unevenly distributed among different climatic zones (Fig. 2-a-  
 212 f). The annual retired farmlands in the other years can be found in the supplementary material (Fig. S1  
 213 a-p). For the final retired farmlands, the area in MT-SA, WT-SA and WT-SH were 20,299 km<sup>2</sup>, 10,572  
 214 km<sup>2</sup> and 8,194 km<sup>2</sup>, respectively. In the MT-SA zone, the dominant ecosystem type from retired  
 215 farmlands was grasslands which had 9,705 km<sup>2</sup> (47.81%), and followed by shrublands (5,887 km<sup>2</sup>,  
 216 29.00%) and forestlands (4,707 km<sup>2</sup>, 23.19%). In the WT-SA zone, grasslands were also the dominant  
 217 ecosystem type which accounted for 4,925 km<sup>2</sup> (46.59%), and forestlands accounted the least (2,384  
 218 km<sup>2</sup>, 22.55%). In the WT-SH zone, the percentages of different ecosystem types were 30.96 %,  
 219 30.16 % and 38.88 % for forestlands, shrublands and grasslands, respectively.

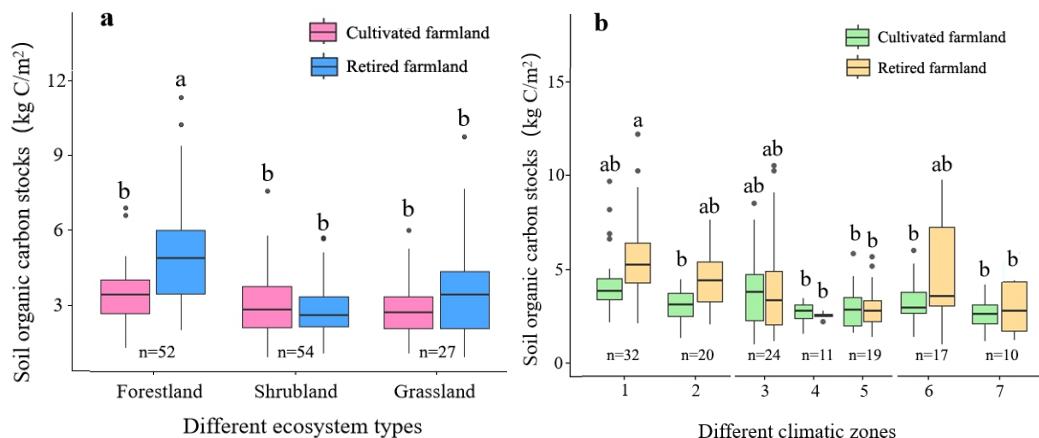
220 Among different years (Fig. 2-a-u, Fig. S1), the highest areas for each ecosystem type were  
 221 forestlands in the WT-SH zone in 2016 (12,846 km<sup>2</sup>), shrublands in the MT-SA zone in 2001 (15,441  
 222 km<sup>2</sup>), and grasslands in the MT-SA zone in 2007 (26,171 km<sup>2</sup>). The lowest areas were found in 2019  
 223 for forestlands in the WT-SA zone (813 km<sup>2</sup>), in 2013 for shrublands in the WT-SH zone (271 km<sup>2</sup>),  
 224 and in 2013 for grasslands in the WT-SH zone (806 km<sup>2</sup>).

225 Among provinces, the retired farmlands in different years had significant differences (Table S1),  
 226 where Shanxi Province had the most in 2016 (30,912 km<sup>2</sup>) and Qinghai Province had the least in 2017  
 227 (438 km<sup>2</sup>). The final retired farmlands from 1999-2021 was the most in Inner Mongolia Province  
 228 (8,626 km<sup>2</sup>) and the least in Henan Province (739 km<sup>2</sup>). More forestlands could be found in warmer  
 229 and wetter regions. The largest forestlands (15,073 km<sup>2</sup>) were found in Shanxi Province in 2016, while  
 230 the least were found in Qinghai Province in 2016 (34 km<sup>2</sup>).

231 **3.2 Analysis of Soil Samples**

232 The results of soil samples showed that the SOC stock were 2.19–62.70 g C/kg in retired  
 233 farmlands, and 2.25–63.83 g C/kg in adjacent cultivated farmlands. The average SOC were the highest  
 234 in forestlands (4.84–62.70 g C/kg), followed by shrublands (2.62–54.72 g C/kg) and grasslands (2.19–  
 235 21.83 g C/kg). The average  $\Delta$ SOC of the all sample points was 2.86 g C kg $^{-1}$ , with a standard error of  
 236 1.17 g C kg $^{-1}$ , and a 95% confidence interval of [0.56, 5.15] g C kg $^{-1}$ . The findings indicated that the  
 237 farmland retirement had significantly increased the SOC stock. To facilitate the  $\Delta$ SOC estimation by  
 238 area, we converted the SOC stock to area based content by soil bulk density. The highest value of  
 239  $\Delta$ SOC after retirement was from forestlands in the SH zone (26.52 kg C/m $^2$ ) and the lowest value was  
 240 from sample in grasslands in the WT zone (0.91 kg C/m $^2$ ). Forestlands and shrublands had significantly  
 241 increased the SOC stock by 48.53% and 20.34%, respectively ( $p<0.05$ , Fig. 4-a). Among different  
 242 climatic zones (Fig. 4-b), forestlands in the SA zone had the biggest increase (58.80%), and followed  
 243 by forestlands in the SH zone (44.53%) and shrublands in the MT-SA zone (26.74%).

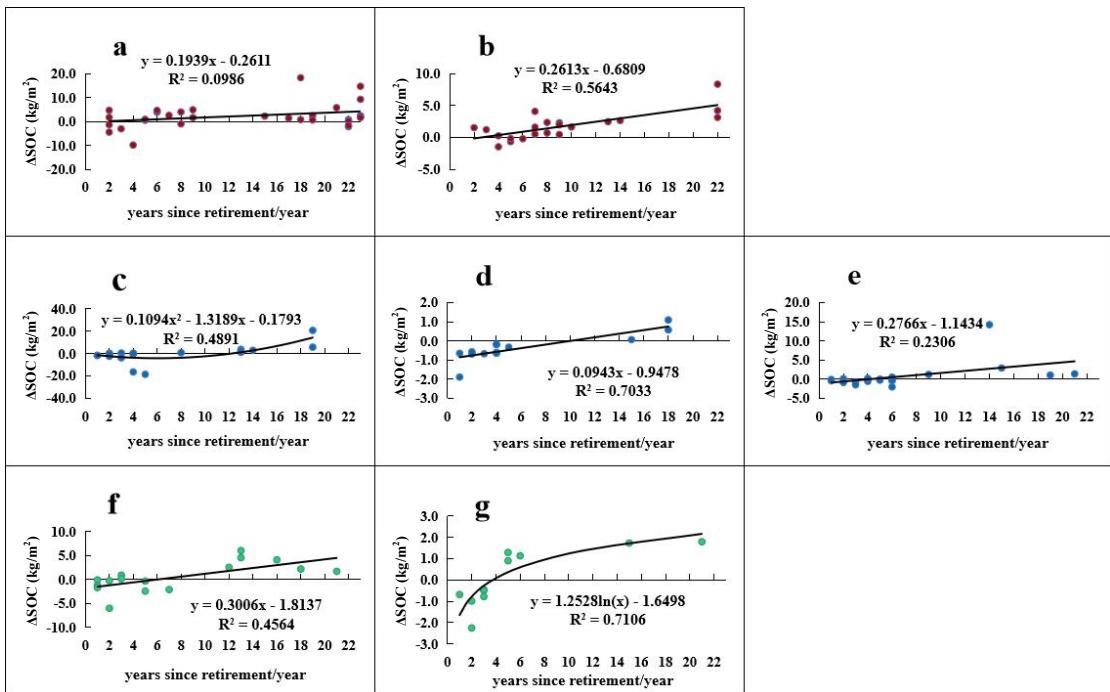
244 The  $\Delta$ SOC of different ecosystem types in different climatic zones had significant relationship to  
 245 the years since retirement (Fig. 5). The  $\Delta$ SOC was negative in the first few years and significantly  
 246 increased as the years since retirement increases, except forestlands in the SA zone and shrublands in  
 247 the MT-SA zone. Most of the relationships indicated constant increase in  $\Delta$ SOC except  $\Delta$ SOC in  
 248 grasslands in the MT zone which had a saturation point after 15 years of retirement.



249 **Figure 4. SOC stocks in farmlands and retired farmlands (kgC/m<sup>2</sup>), (a) Comparison of SOC  
 250 stocks on the Loess Plateau in farmlands retired to different ecosystem types (forestland,  
 251 shrubland, grassland) with those in adjacent cultivated farmlands, and letters a and b are labeled  
 252 to indicate significant differences in the ANOVA. (b) Comparison of different climatic zones are  
 253 emphasized.**

254 **Note: 1-forestlands in the SH zone, 2-forestlands in the SA zone, 3-shrublands in the WT-SH  
 255 zone, 4-shrublands in the WT-SA zone, 5-shrublands in MT-SA the zone, 6-grasslands in the WT  
 256 zone, and 7-grasslands in the MT zone;**

257 **Letters a, b and ab are labeled to indicate significant differences in the ANOVA, for same**



259 **Figure 5. Relationship between years since retirement and ΔSOC, (a) forestlands in the SH  
260 zone, (b) forestlands in the SA zone, (c) shrublands in the WT-SH zone, (d) shrublands in the  
261 WT-SA zone, (e) shrublands in the MT-SA zone, (f) grasslands in the WT zone, (g)  
262 grasslands in the MT zone.**

263 3.3 Models of ΔSOC

264 Samples for different ecosystem types were divided by different combinations of climatic zones to  
265 find the final selected models by Backward Stepwise Regression. All variance inflation factor (VIF)  
266 diagnostic results were below the threshold of 10, including years since retirement, latitude, longitude,  
267 elevation, soil bulk density, and bioclimatic variables BIO1 to BIO19. The final selected models of  
268 ΔSOC in different ecosystem types were shown in Table 1 and Fig. S2 based on the results of  
269 evaluation and validation. In this table,  $t$  is the years since retirement,  $lat$  is latitude,  $ele$  is elevation,  
270  $BD$  is soil bulk density, and  $BIO1-BIO19$  are 19 bioclimatic factors,  $n$  is sample sizes at each level.

271 The analysis showed that seven regression equations were the final acceptable representative for  
272 the ΔSOC on the Loess Plateau when the study area was divided into SH and SA zones for forestlands,  
273 WT-SH, WT-SA and MT-SA zones for shrublands, and WT and MT zones for grasslands. The  
274 coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ ) ranged from 0.476 to 0.830 with  $p < 0.05$ , The models with the highest  
275  $R^2$  were obtained for grasslands (0.830 in the WT zone and 0.790 in the MT zone), and the model with  
276 the lowest  $R^2$  was for shrublands in the MT zone (0.476).

**Table 1 Models of the ΔSOC in retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau.**

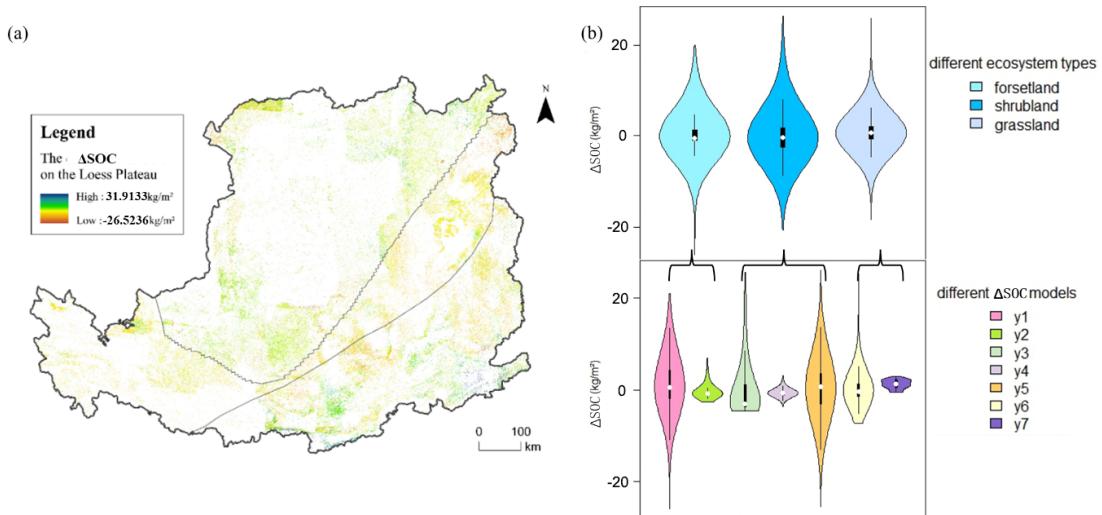
Ecosystem	Zone	Model	n	R <sup>2</sup>	p-value	RMSE	MAE
Forestland	SH	$y_1 = 0.3195 t + 14.95 \text{ lat} + 0.01356 \text{ ele} - 0.00755 \text{ BIO4} - 4.02 \text{ BIO5} + 11 \text{ BIO10} + 0.44 \text{ BIO13} + 1.791 \text{ BIO14} - 23.81 \text{ BIO15} - 1.686 \text{ BIO17} - 632$	32	0.605	<0.05	21.831	17.209
		$y_2 = 0.7384 t - 0.4148 \text{ BIO12} + 4.2594 \text{ BIO14} - 0.8341 \text{ BIO17} + 0.1456 \text{ BIO18} + 1.1633$	20	0.618	<0.01	9.039	7.001
	SA	$y_3 = 0.23 t^2 - 2.678 t - 1.221$	24	0.476	<0.01	34.814	22.858
		$y_4 = 0.1555 t - 1.4904 \text{ BIO1} - 0.1544 \text{ BIO17} + 15.3573$	11	0.773	<0.01	2.281	1.715
Shrubland	MT	$y_5 = 1.6059 t - 12.1498 \text{ BIO3} + 0.0071 \text{ BIO4} + 0.7615 \text{ BIO13} - 1.2096 \text{ BIO16} + 523.89$	19	0.551	<0.05	48.965	36.664
		$y_6 = 0.5457 t + 31.412 \text{ BD} + 4.463 \text{ BIO9} - 2.489 \text{ BIO11} - 2.238 \text{ BIO14} + 27.184 \text{ BIO15} - 72.97$	17	0.830	<0.01	8.659	7.112
		$y_7 = -0.0497 t^2 + 1.455 t - 4.84$	10	0.790	<0.01	4.114	2.898
Grassland	WT						
MT							

## 281 3.4 Mapping ΔSOC

282 According to the regression models for ΔSOC and the distribution of retired farmlands, the ΔSOC  
 283 in the retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau was quantified throughout the GFGP implementation  
 284 period, excluding recultivated farmlands (Fig. 6-a). The total benefit in ΔSOC on the Loess Plateau till  
 285 2021 was 21.77 Tg C with a range between -26.52 and 31.91 kg C/m<sup>2</sup> at 30 m raster level. Significant  
 286 variations in ΔSOC were observed across different ecosystem types (Fig. 6-b, Table 2). To provide  
 287 detailed and vegetation-specific insights, Table 2 presents ΔSOC values for three climatic zone  
 288 combinations associated with each vegetation type. Grasslands contributed the most ΔSOC increment  
 289 (17.657 Tg C). Among the different climatic zones for grasslands, MT zone contributed the most  
 290 (78.04%, -0.48–3.04 kg C/m<sup>2</sup>), followed by WT zone (21.96%, -8.20–31.91 kg C/m<sup>2</sup>). Forestlands  
 291 contributed the second largest ΔSOC (2.429 Tg C) with 151.96% from SH zone (-26.52–22.86 kg

292 C/m<sup>2</sup>), and -51.96% from SA zone (-2.96–8.67 kg C/m<sup>2</sup>). The shrublands only contributed 7.74% of the  
 293 total benefit in  $\Delta$ SOC (1.685 Tg C) with 78.04% from MT-SA zone (-26.49–30.57 kg C/m<sup>2</sup>), 45.07%  
 294 from WT-SA zone (-4.00–3.28 kg C/m<sup>2</sup>) and -23.11% from WT-SH zone (-4.60–26.10 kg C/m<sup>2</sup>).

295 The potential  $\Delta$ SOC by different provinces also changed significantly, but the potential  $\Delta$ SOC in  
 296 different ecosystem types by the same provinces were evenly changed (Table S3).  $\Delta$ SOC increased  
 297 more in Shanxi and Shaanxi provinces, followed by Henan, Gansu, Inner Mongolia and Ningxia, and  
 298 less in Qinghai province.



299 **Figure 6. Spatial distribution of the  $\Delta$ SOC, (a) the distribution in the whole study area, and (b)**  
 300 **raster level frequency of  $\Delta$ SOC.**

301 **Table 2 The  $\Delta$ SOC (positive and negative portion) in retired farmlands in different ecosystem**  
 302 **types in different climatic zones (Tg C).**

Ecosystem types	MT-SA		WT-SA		WT-SH		Total by ecosystems
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	
Forestland	1.318	-2.255	0.627	-0.952	6.461	-2.770	2.429
Shrubland	8.502	-6.223	0.369	-1.563	4.868	-4.269	1.685
Grassland	14.543	-0.765	13.196	-5.239	3.545	-7.625	17.657
Total by zones	24.363	-9.243	14.193	-7.753	14.874	-14.664	21.770

303

#### 304 **4. Discussion**

##### 305 **4.1 Distribution of Retired Farmlands**

306 In consideration of the topographic complexity and vegetational variation on the retired farmlands,  
 307 a large-scale retrieve of retired farmland information from remote sensing images is challenging (Wei  
 308 et al., 2021). For instance, farmlands and grasslands have similar spectrum characteristics in spring and  
 309 summer seasons and can be easily confounded (Estel et al., 2015), which lead to inaccuracy in remote  
 310 sensing image classification. The inaccuracy can be minimized by comparing with multi-source high-

311 resolution remote sensing images (Yan et al., 2023). In this study, although different vegetation types  
312 were involved on the retired farmlands (e.g., forestland, shrubland and grassland), the accuracy in  
313 identifying retired farmlands could high to 90% by combining visual interpretation of Landsat dataset,  
314 field observation, globeland30 database, and ultra-high resolution images from Google Earth.

315 Farmland retirement is the main land use change driver on the Loess Plateau. As classified in this  
316 study, retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau from 2000 to 2021 are unevenly distributed across  
317 different climatic zones, because of the significant hilly and gully terrain in the study area (Huang et  
318 al., 2007; Wen et al., 2015). We focused on forestlands, shrublands and grasslands from retired  
319 farmlands, and noticed that most forestlands were distributed in the SH zone due to higher precipitation  
320 than the SA zone. Grasslands were more distributed in the MT zone than in the WT zone, due to the  
321 temperature in the MT zone being more favorable for grasses than in the WT zone, and people may be  
322 more engaged in pastoral activities in the WT zone. Shrublands were more distributed in the MT-SA  
323 zone than in the WT-SH zone because the WT-SH zone is more suited to forest growth, thus having  
324 high percentage of tree cover and relatively low distribution of shrub. In this study, grasslands  
325 accounted for a large proportion in retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau, but the increase in  
326 forestlands were more significant.

327 The spatial-temporal patterns of farmland retirement varied significantly across years, primarily  
328 driven by policy orientation and farmers' participation willingness. During the study period, the  
329 Chinese central government implemented two phases of GFGP: the first from 1999 to 2013, and the  
330 second from 2014 onward. High rates of retirement were observed at the beginning of every phase due  
331 to promising subsidies. High retirement rates were observed at the launch of each phase, largely due to  
332 attractive subsidy schemes. However, participation willingness declined afterward, as falling grain  
333 prices reduced the relative value of subsidies, leading some farmers to recultivate retired land (Xie et  
334 al., 2023). Additionally, population growth between 2000 and 2020 escalated local food demand,  
335 further motivating recultivation. Some abandoned farmland-induced misclassification also could  
336 introduce bias into the spatial analysis of retired farmlands. These dynamics are consistent with the  
337 findings of Wang et al. (2013), who reported a rapid decline in farmland area from 1999 to 2003 during  
338 the first GFGP phase, followed by a rebound due to recultivation and subsequent stabilization.

### 339 4.2 Model development for $\Delta$ SOC

340 Land use change due to GFGP can strongly affect SOC, and SOC tend to be lower in farmlands  
341 (Deng et al., 2014), which was proved in this study by comparing retired and adjacent cultivated  
342 farmlands. The increase in  $\Delta$ SOC in retired farmlands shows a strong relationship with the years since  
343 retirement, although a slight decrease in SOC may occur during the early stages of land use change  
344 (Deng et al., 2017). During the study period, all vegetation types exhibited a consistent increasing trend

345 in SOC after the initial few years. However, the accumulation tends to approach an upper limit as the  
346 ecosystem matures and stabilizes, as observed in grasslands that follow a logarithmic growth pattern.  
347 Some retired farmlands with decreasing SOC were found, which could be explained by interchange of  
348 recultivation and retirement (Qiu et al., 2018), but the deeper mechanism is still need to be explored.  
349 Moreover, the high SOC in adjacent farmlands due to good agricultural practice could also offset the  
350 benefit of  $\Delta$ SOC from the GFGP (negative  $\Delta$ SOC was mostly found in farmland with high SOC).

351 Based on the statistical analysis (Fig. 4), the range of the  $\Delta$ SOC in grasslands was significantly  
352 smaller than that in forestlands and shrublands. This indicates the accumulation rate of SOC in  
353 grasslands was lower than that in forestlands and shrublands due to the low primary productive and the  
354 fine quality of grass litter for decomposition (Lukina et al., 2020), whereas woody litter contains more  
355 lignin and decomposes slowly (Xiao et al., 2022). Therefore, different models were developed  
356 according to vegetation types and climatic zones. Based on the models, the climatic factors had  
357 significant effect on  $\Delta$ SOC besides the years since retirement. Among the climatic factors, the models  
358 showed that  $\Delta$ SOC were more sensitive to precipitation-based bioclimatic factors (e.g., *BIO12-BIO19*).  
359 This is because most of the Loess Plateau is located in semi-arid and arid area with limited  
360 precipitation (Zhang et al., 2015). Moreover, increased precipitation and temperatures can enhance the  
361 decomposition of surface litter (Sharma and Sharma, 2022), and in turn reduce  $\Delta$ SOC.

#### 362 4.3 Benefits in $\Delta$ SOC on the Loess Plateau

363 Under climate change, ecological restoration is an urgent need to improve the healthiness of  
364 degraded ecosystems (Liu et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2023). As a major benefit from ecological  
365 restoration,  $\Delta$ SOC brings a lot of interests due to SOC is the major carbon pool in the ecosystems. To  
366 illustrate  $\Delta$ SOC from ecological restoration, only a comparison of restored and adjacent unrestored  
367 ecosystems should be persuasive (Francaviglia et al., 2019). Numbers of studies focusing on  $\Delta$ SOC in  
368 retired farmlands has been conducted on the Loess Plateau, and found an increasing  $\Delta$ SOC as a result  
369 of GFGP (Wang et al., 2021b), and the national SOC sequestration caused by retirement was estimated  
370 to be 14.46 Tg per year (Zhao et al., 2013). But they failed to make comparison with the adjacent  
371 farmlands. In this study, we analyzed the  $\Delta$ SOC of retired farmlands and adjacent cultivated farmlands,  
372 and confirmed that the GFGP can provide significant amount of  $\Delta$ SOC on the Loess Plateau, although  
373 negative  $\Delta$ SOC was found in some areas.

374 Recently, studies have shown that SOC stocks in the GFGP region on the Loess Plateau increased  
375 by 20.18 Tg C between 1982 and 2017 (Li et al., 2022). The total  $\Delta$ SOC (21.77 Tg C) of retired  
376 farmlands on the Loess Plateau estimated in this study was slightly higher than that value, which  
377 proved that the results of this study are reliable. The mechanisms driving  $\Delta$ SOC vary across vegetation  
378 restoration types and climatic zones. While warmer and more humid regions generally exhibit higher

379 carbon sequestration rates—owing to enhanced photosynthesis and plant growth under favorable  
380 temperature and precipitation regimes—these conditions also accelerate SOC turnover, potentially  
381 limiting long-term storage benefits compared to arid and semi-arid regions (Sierra et al., 2017).  
382 Therefore, selecting appropriate vegetation types is critical to prevent slow SOC accumulation and  
383 early saturation. Moreover, sustainable management practices—such as controlled grazing and  
384 systematic harvesting—are essential to maintain ecosystem health and maximize long-term soil carbon  
385 storage, thereby strengthening the role of retired farmlands in climate change mitigation.

386 **4.4 Limitations and Uncertainties**

387 Remote sensing images are widely used in studies of land use change because of their accuracy  
388 and timeliness. In this study, the use of Landsat dataset has practical feasibility to provide reliable  
389 distribution of retired farmlands. However, the Loess Plateau has a large spatial area, and has a  
390 fragmented and complex topography, which increases the difficulty of land use classification.  
391 Therefore, the 30 m resolution images can result in misclassification (e.g., abandoned farmlands vs  
392 retired farmlands), although we obtained acceptable accuracy (80%–91%). Recently, the availability of  
393 ultra-high resolution images (sub-meter resolution) allows a more accurate classification, but lacks of  
394 long period records.

395 In this study, the direct comparison of retired farmlands and adjacent cultivated farmlands  
396 reflected a more persuasive  $\Delta$ SOC. The multivariate linear regression models that developed for  
397 estimating  $\Delta$ SOC can effectively reduce estimation errors by accounting for the spatial heterogeneity of  
398 the Loess Plateau. Increasing the number of sample points would further enhance model flexibility,  
399 allowing the incorporation of additional factors—such as slope, elevation, and soil properties—to  
400 stratify the study area into more representative subzones. Furthermore, establishing permanent  
401 observation points to monitor both retired and adjacent cultivated farmlands would provide reliable  
402 pairwise comparisons essential for robust model calibration. To more accurately project the future soil  
403 carbon sequestration potential of retired farmlands, the integration of process-based ecosystem models  
404 could be a more reliable approach, such as DLEM (Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model, (Tian et al.,  
405 2003)), LPJ–GUESS (Lund Potsdam Jena General Ecosystem Simulator, (Smith et al., 2001)), and  
406 CENTURY (Parton et al., 1987).

407 **5. Conclusions**

408 Farmland retirement is an effective strategy to restore degraded ecosystems and increase carbon  
409 storage on the Loess Plateau. In this study, we found the total area of retired farmlands on the Loess  
410 Plateau during the study period was 39,065 km<sup>2</sup>. The dominant ecosystem type was grasslands,  
411 followed by shrublands and forestlands. The area of retired farmlands showed significant interannual  
412 changes without a specific trend, and the retired farmlands varied in different climatic zones. Area of

413 retired farmlands in the MT-SA zone were significantly higher than WT-SA zone and WT-SH zone.  
414 Based on soil samples, we found that  $\Delta$ SOC increased with the years since retirement, and developed  
415 seven regression models for  $\Delta$ SOC by years since retirement, temperature, precipitation, soil bulk  
416 density, latitude and longitude, and ecosystem types. According to the models, the total benefits in  
417  $\Delta$ SOC from retired farmlands on the Loess Plateau were estimated to be 21.77 Tg C, with the variation  
418 ranged from -26.52 to 31.91 kg C/m<sup>2</sup> at grid cell level. The most  $\Delta$ SOC were contributed by retired  
419 farmlands in the MT-SA zone (15.120 Tg C), followed by WT-SA zone (6.440 Tg C) and WT-SH zone  
420 (0.210 Tg C). Therefore, Long-term implementation of GFGP brought significant impacts on  
421 increasing soil carbon sinks on the Loess Plateau, which contributed significantly in mitigating climate  
422 changes and promoting sustainability in the studied area.

423 **Competing interests**

424 The authors declare no competing interests.

425 **Data availability**

426 The associated datasets are available at Figshare (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28785971>),  
427 including distribution of retired farmlands from 2000 to 2021, years since retirement, and high  
428 resolution  $\Delta$ SOC from the retired farmlands.

429 **Author contribution**

430 BG: data curation, investigation, methodology, formal analysis, validation and visualization; MF:  
431 investigation, formal analysis and validation; LY: data curation; TG, CM, XH, ZG, ZM: resources and  
432 visualization; QL: funding acquisition and conceptualization; ZW: resources; WL: Conceptualization,  
433 methodology, project administration and supervision. BG and WL: Writing – original draft preparation;  
434 All authors: Writing – review & editing.

435 **Acknowledgements**

436 This study was funded by the National Key Research and Development Program of China  
437 (2022YFF1302200). The authors would like to thank all the reviewers who participated in the review.

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