



1 Mapping soil trace elements (Fe Mn Zn Ni) on the Tibetan Plateau

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7 **Abstract.** Soil Micronutrients supply sustain critical ecological functions but exhibit poorly quantified distribution patterns in
8 high-altitude ecosystems. This study bridges this knowledge gap through a large-scale investigation across the Tibetan Plateau,
9 a cold-arid region where cryogenic weathering, aridity, and suppressed pedogenesis interact to govern microelement cycling.
10 We selected 526 spatially representative sites spanning climatic and edaphic gradients, analyzing six microelements (Fe, Mn,
11 Zn, Ni, Cu, Mo) alongside multi-factorial drivers (climate, vegetation, soil, topography, human disturbances, weathering
12 proxies). Random Forest modeling was employed to quantify controls and generate high-resolution spatial maps. Key results
13 reveal that pronounced regional heterogeneity driven primarily by moisture-related climatic variables (mean annual
14 precipitation, aridity index), with secondary modulation from weathering intensity and vegetation factors. Element-specific
15 spatial patterns were observed, with Fe enrichment in southeastern/southern plateaus, Mn gradients increasing southwestward
16 and Zn hotspots in central-eastern and western marginal zones. The machine-learning derived maps with a 1-km resolution
17 serve for benchmarking process-based microelement cycling models and rooting for sustainable ecosystem management
18 under climate change.



19 1 Introduction

20 As essential yet trace-level components of living systems, micronutrients (e.g., Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, Mo) sustain fundamental
21 ecological processes, including photosynthesis (Fe, Mn; Fischer et al., 2015; Schmidt et al., 2020), respiration (Fe; Dallman,
22 1986), enzymatic/redox functions (Cu, Zn, Mn; Hänsch et al., 2009), and biological nitrogen fixation (Ni, Mo; O'Hara, 2001).
23 Crucially, micronutrient gradients in soils propagate through trophic chains, directly influencing human nutrition and health;
24 deficiencies exacerbate global malnutrition burdens (Fageria et al., 2002; White et al., 2005). Despite their pivotal role in
25 ecosystem stability and food security (Presteele et al., 2016; Stehfest et al., 2019), critical knowledge gaps persist regarding
26 the distribution patterns and drivers of soil micronutrients from regional to global scales.

27 Soil micronutrient supply originates from coupled physicochemical weathering and biological mediation, critically regulated
28 by local climate and topography (Ochoa-Hueso et al., 2020; Hartmann et al., 2023). In cold-arid high-altitude regions,
29 particularly the Tibetan Plateau, extreme environmental interactions uniquely govern micronutrient cycling. Cryogenic
30 processes such as glacial erosion and freeze-thaw cycles, accelerate physical bedrock weathering to mobilize lithogenic
31 micronutrient reservoirs, while aridity concurrently constrains chemical weathering and elemental release (Mu et al., 2020;
32 Mu et al., 2016). Low temperatures suppress biological turnover and synergize with aridity to compromise pedogenesis
33 through clay deficits and diminished mineral reactive sites, thereby reducing elemental retention capacity (Dijkstra et al.,
34 2004). These counteracting processes fundamentally shape microelements distribution patterns, yet remain severely
35 understudied. Current research is largely restricted to localized transects (e.g., Heihe River Basin, Tibetan Plateau Highway)
36 with limited spatial representation.

37 To address these knowledge gaps, we conducted a large-scale field investigation across the Tibetan Plateau, establishing 526
38 sampling sites distributed across representative temperature and moisture gradients (Fig. 1). The sampling design
39 encompassed the plateau's dominant vegetation types and lithological classes. Using this dataset, we analyzed distribution
40 patterns and key controlling factors for six essential trace elements (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, Mo). We then applied a Random
41 Forest algorithm to generate high-resolution spatial distribution maps of these microelements, representing the first
42 comprehensive quantification at this scale and resolution.

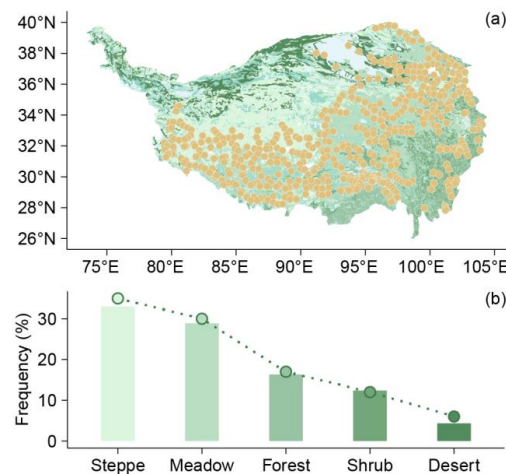


Figure 1. Sampling strategy and ecosystem representativeness. (a) Spatial distribution of sampling sites superimposed on China's 1:1,000,000 vegetation map. (b) Areal proportions of ecosystem types (bars) versus sampling point frequency distribution (dots) across corresponding ecosystems.

2 Methods

2.1 Field survey and soil microelements analysis

We analyzed 1,660 topsoil samples collected from 526 locations during a 2019-2021 growing season (July-August) field survey across the Tibetan Plateau (79-105°E, 27-40°N; Fig. 1a). Sampling sites represent major plateau ecosystems: forests, shrubs, steppes, meadows, and deserts (Table 1). Site was selected using standardized criteria: maintaining relative homogeneity in species composition, community structure, and habitat conditions, and avoiding proximity to roads or areas with frequent human activity. At each location, we established a 15-m transect collecting triplicate soil samples (0-10 cm depth) at 0 m, 7.5 m, and 15 m positions. Geographic coordinates, elevation, community type, and species composition (Cheng et al., 2022) were systematically documented.

The portable Niton X-ray fluorescence (XRF) spectrometer was deployed in the field to determine total soil concentrations of Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, and Mo, leveraging its portability and compact design. Reference background values (Lindsay 1979) include Fe: 3.8×10^4 mg kg⁻¹, Mn: 6.0×10^2 mg kg⁻¹, Cu: 30 mg kg⁻¹, Zn: 50 mg kg⁻¹, Ni: 40 mg kg⁻¹, and Mo: 1.7 mg kg⁻¹. The contents of trace elements, including arsenic (As), barium (Ba), cadmium (Cd), cobalt (Co), chromium (Cr), lead (Pb), strontium (Sr), and titanium (Ti), were determined using XRF spectroscopy. Powdered samples were pressed into pellets and analyzed with a wavelength-dispersive XRF spectrometer. The instrument was calibrated using certified reference materials to ensure analytical accuracy and comparability.



63 **Table 1.** Ecosystem classification with vegetation traits and sampling intensity.

Biome	Characteristics	No. of samples	No. of locations
Steppe	Alpine steppes, dominated by cold-adapted herbaceous species such as <i>Stipa purpurea</i> , features sparse vegetation adapted to cold-arid conditions.	578	183
Meadow	Alpine meadows feature dense, low-stature vegetation sustained by year-round low temperatures, high humidity, and water-retentive soils. These ecosystems thrive on gentle slopes and valley floors at higher elevations, hosting relatively diverse flora with characteristic dominance of sedges including <i>Kobresia pygmaea</i> and <i>K. humilis</i> .	505	156
Forest	Forests on the Tibetan Plateau concentrate primarily in the southeastern region, dominated by high-altitude cold-temperate coniferous forests. These humid-adapted ecosystems feature fir (<i>Abies</i>) and spruce (<i>Picea</i>) species as characteristic components.	280	92
Shrub	Tibetan shrublands primarily occur in arid and alpine zones, characterized by low-growing, drought-tolerant dwarf shrubs such as <i>Lonicera</i> (honeysuckle) and <i>Rhododendron</i> species adapted to nutrient-poor soils and extreme climatic conditions.	193	65
Desert	Alpine deserts occur in extremely arid, cold regions and exhibit extremely sparse vegetation dominated by arid-tolerant dwarf shrubs and herbs.	104	30

64 2.2 Soil Properties

65 Soil samples were sifted through 2 mm sieve, discarding visible stones and extracted roots. Soil pH was measured using the
66 potentiometric method, and soil texture analysis, quantifying clay, silt, and sand content fractions, was determined using a
67 laser diffraction particle size analyzer (Mastersizer 2000, Malvern, UK). The sieved samples were air-dried for elemental
68 analysis. Soil organic carbon (SOC) content was quantified via the potassium dichromate oxidation method (Walkley-Black)
69 with external heating. Total carbon (C) and total nitrogen (N) contents were measured using a Vario EL III elemental
70 analyzer (Elementar, Germany). Total phosphorus (P) was extracted with sodium bicarbonate (Olsen method) and
71 determined by molybdenum-antimony anti spectrophotometry. The concentrations of sulfur (S), potassium (K), calcium (Ca),
72 sodium (Na), magnesium (Mg), and aluminum (Al) were determined using XRF spectroscopy. The chemical index of
73 alteration (CIA) was calculated using the molar proportions of Al_2O_3 , CaO^* , Na_2O , and K_2O according to the formula: $CIA =$
74 $Al_2O_3 / (Al_2O_3 + CaO^* + Na_2O + K_2O)$. All oxide concentrations were determined by X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy and
75 converted to molar units. CaO^* represents CaO derived solely from silicate minerals, with carbonate contributions excluded
76 where applicable.



77 2.3 Environmental variables

78 We considered geographic, climatic, biological, and edaphic drivers. Field measurements provided location (longitude,
 79 latitude), while slope and aspect data came from the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center (<https://data.tpdac.ac.cn>). The
 80 digital elevation model (DEM) data were collected from the Resource and Environment Science and Data Center
 81 (<https://www.resdc.cn/>). Climate variables, mean annual temperature (MAT) and mean annual precipitation (MAP) were
 82 downloaded from the Climate Data Store (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu#!/home>). The Aridity Index (AI), calculated as
 83 mean annual precipitation/mean annual reference evapotranspiration, was obtained from the Global Aridity Index dataset
 84 (Trabucco et al., 2018), where higher values indicate greater humidity. Vegetation types (Forest, Shrub, Meadow, Steppe,
 85 Desert) followed the 1:1,000,000 China Vegetation Map classification (Hou, 2019). The normalized difference vegetation
 86 index (NDVI) data were obtained from an Earthdata Search (<https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search>). The net primary
 87 productivity (NPP) data were obtained from the study by Chen et al. (2023) and were calculated using the CASA model
 88 (Potter et al., 1993). The grazing activity data were obtained from statistical yearbooks. Based on the lithological data
 89 published by Dijkshoorn et al. in 2018, the rock types on the Tibetan Plateau were classified into acidic igneous rock (IA),
 90 acidic metamorphic rock (MA), clastic sedimentary rock (SC), carbonate rock (SO), aeolian facies rock (UE), and fluvial
 91 facies rock (UF).

92 2.4 Relative importance analysis and soil micronutrient mapping

93 Soil microelement measurements were preprocessed to detect and remove outliers exceeding the mean ± 3 standard
 94 deviations. To evaluate the relative importance of predictors in explaining soil micronutrient variability across the Tibetan
 95 Plateau, we applied the ‘betasq’ metric from the `calc.relimp` function in the R package *relaimpo* (Grömping, 2006), which is
 96 based on squared standardized regression coefficients and accounts for differences in variable scales and units. For spatial
 97 prediction, we developed six area-wide random forest models (each comprising 500 trees) targeting Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, and
 98 Mo contents. The models were trained using a suite of environmental predictors, including topographic features (DEM, slope,
 99 aspect), climate variables (MAT, MAP, AI), vegetation indices (NDVI, NPP), soil properties (texture, SOC, pH, CIA), and
 100 anthropogenic disturbance (grazing intensity). Random forest was selected for its ability to model complex, nonlinear
 101 relationships and interactions among diverse types of predictors. Model hyperparameters were optimized using grid search
 102 combined with tenfold cross-validation. To assess model generalizability, we examined the extent to which the predictor
 103 parameter space in the validation set overlapped with that of the original training data. Model performance was evaluated by
 104 comparing predicted versus observed values using scatterplots (predicted on the x-axis, observed on the y-axis) following the



method of Piñeiro et al. (2008), with models achieving strong predictive performance ($R^2 = 0.6\text{--}0.7$). All statistical analyses were conducted using R version 3.4.4.

3 Results

3.1 Soil elements ranking

As shown in Figure 2, Ca and C had the highest mean concentrations, reaching $30,462.47\text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $30,361.14\text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, respectively. Their relatively large standard deviations indicate substantial variability across sampling sites. K and Al also showed relatively high mean concentrations, at $16,788.79\text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ and $14,166.30\text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, respectively. A secondary tier included Mg, N, Na, S, and P. Soil Fe content approached those of macroelements like Ca and C. Mn shares a similar order of magnitude with Na and S, while Cu and Zn demonstrated comparable mean concentrations. Mo consistently registered the lowest content among all measured soil elements.

Frequency distribution analysis showed that soil Fe, Mn, Zn exhibited near-normal distributions, evidenced by closely aligned median and mean values (Fig. 2). In contrast, Cu, Ni, and Mo showed right-skewed distributions, with most samples clustering at lower contents. Fe spanned a broad concentration range ($3,339.62\text{--}54,877.54\text{ mg kg}^{-1}$), highlighting its abundance and widespread spatial distribution in soils. Mn also displayed substantial spatial variation (mean: $576.74 \pm 206.44\text{ mgkg}^{-1}$; CV: 35.8%), while Cu, Zn, Ni, and Mo exhibited notably lower mean contents (25.32 ± 9.28 , 27.24 ± 8.55 , 49.35 ± 14.03 , and $4.63 \pm 1.14\text{ mg kg}^{-1}$, respectively).

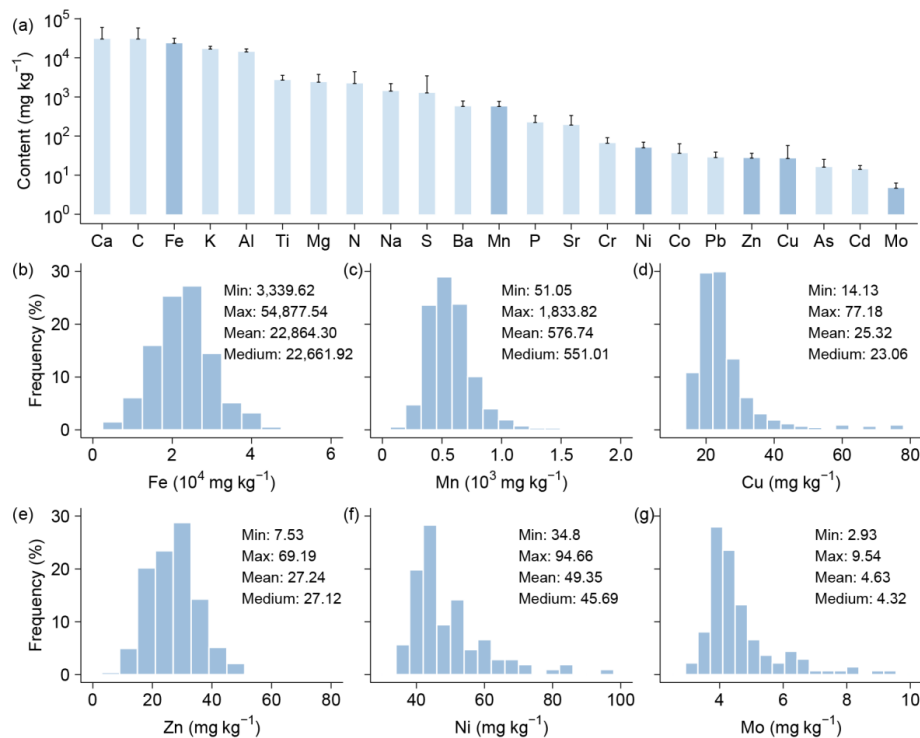


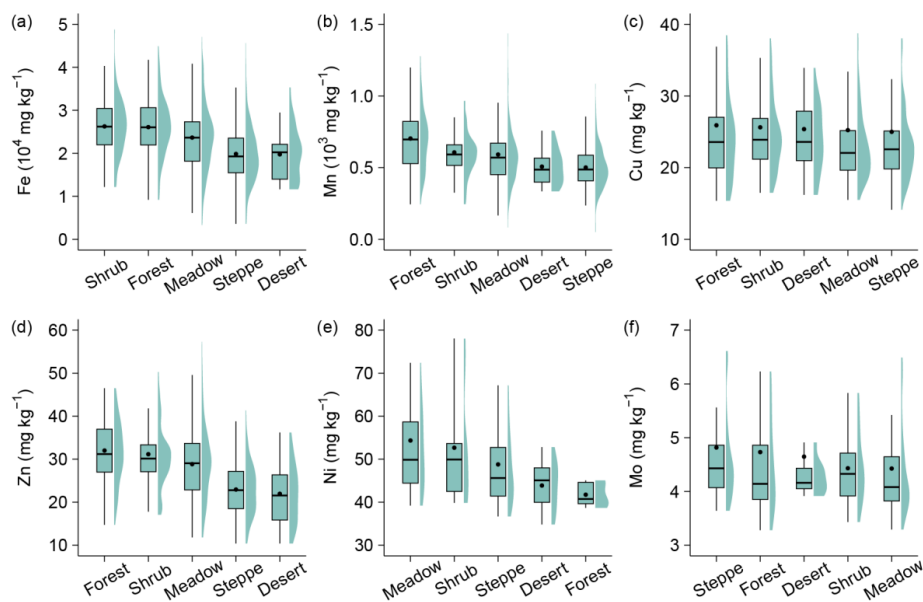
Figure 2. Content hierarchy and frequency distributions of soil microelements (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, Mo) across the Tibetan Plateau. (a) Elemental ranking by mean content, (b-g) Frequency distribution histograms for each microelement showing spatial heterogeneity patterns.

3.2 Soil microelements across Vegetation types

Soil microelements contents (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, and Mo) varied significantly among different vegetation types (Fig. 3). Fe contents were highest in shrub and forest ecosystems, with mean values of 26,264.11 mg·kg⁻¹ and 26,090.66 mg·kg⁻¹, respectively, exceeding values observed in desert (19,762.66 mg·kg⁻¹) and steppe ecosystems (19,852.37 mg·kg⁻¹) by 31-33%. Similarly, Mn contents were greatest in forest (703.22 mg·kg⁻¹), followed by shrub (606.33 mg·kg⁻¹) and meadow (591.59 mg·kg⁻¹), while the lowest Mn levels were recorded in desert and steppe ecosystems (both below 510 mg·kg⁻¹). Soil Cu showed minimal variation across vegetation types, with mean values ranging narrowly between 25.23 and 25.91 mg·kg⁻¹. Forest soils had slightly higher Cu levels, but the differences were not statistically significant, suggesting a relatively uniform spatial distribution of Cu across ecosystems. Zn, however, demonstrated a strong vegetation-dependent variability, with the highest mean contents found in forest (32.00 mg·kg⁻¹) and shrub (31.15 mg·kg⁻¹) ecosystems. In contrast, Zn levels were markedly lower in steppe (22.94 mg·kg⁻¹) and desert (21.95 mg·kg⁻¹) soils, with differences exceeding 10 mg·kg⁻¹, indicating pronounced biogeochemical variation.



137 In contrast to the previous elements, Ni and Mo exhibited distinct patterns across vegetation types, with notably lower
138 contents in forest and shrub ecosystems. Ni contents were highest in meadow soils ($54.34 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), followed by shrub
139 ($52.66 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), steppe ($48.78 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), desert ($43.87 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), and forest ecosystems ($41.73 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). Soil Mo contents
140 showed negligible differences among ecosystems, though steppe exhibited marginally higher levels. No statistically
141 significant differences were observed between vegetation types, indicating minimal vegetation control over Mo distribution.



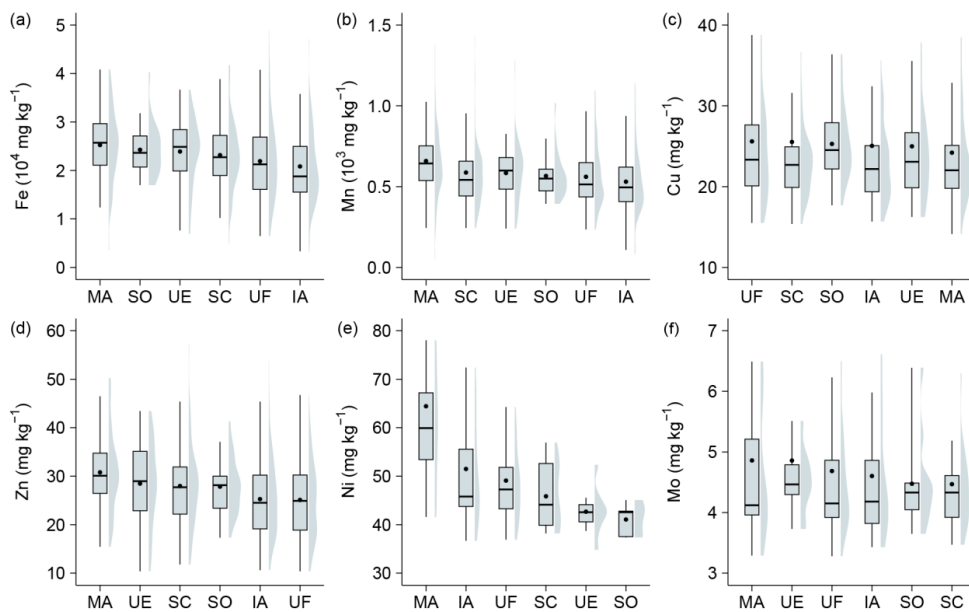
142
143 **Figure 3.** Variability in soil microelement contents (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, Mo) across Tibetan vegetation types. Boxplots show the data
144 distributions for each vegetation type. Within each plot, the boxes represent the interquartile range (IQR), the horizontal lines within boxes
145 indicate the median values, and black dots denote the mean values. The whiskers extend to 1.5 times the IQR. The surrounding shaded
146 violin shapes indicate the kernel density distribution of the data.

147 3.3 Soil microelements across lithological classes

148 Lithological class exerted a significant influence on the spatial distribution of certain soil microelements (Fig. 4). Fe contents
149 differed notably across lithological classes, with the highest values observed in soils derived from acidic metamorphic rocks
150 (mean value: $25,252.72 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), followed by those from carbonate rocks ($24,260.96 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) and eolian facies rocks
151 ($23,902.77 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). The lowest Fe contents were recorded in soils developed from acidic igneous rocks ($20,830.15$
152 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). A similar geochemical pattern pattern was observed for Mn, with the maximum contents in
153 acidic-metamorphic-driven soils ($658.37 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), and the lowest in acidic-igneous-driven soils ($530.45 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$).
154 Zn contents in soils also varied across lithologies, with the highest values associated with acidic metamorphic rocks (mean
155 value of $30.79 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), followed by eolian facies rocks and clastic sedimentary rocks, while relatively lower levels were



156 found under acidic igneous rocks ($25.27 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) and fluvial facies rocks ($25.10 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). In contrast, Cu and Mo showed
 157 no significant differences among lithological classes. Cu contents were slightly higher under fluvial facies rocks (25.60
 158 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), but overall differences were minimal. Similarly, Mo contents were relatively uniform, with slightly elevated levels
 159 under acidic metamorphic rocks and eolian facies rocks (both $\sim 4.86 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), and lower values under clastic sedimentary
 160 rocks and carbonate rocks (both $<4.48 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), though differences were not statistically significant.



161
 162 **Figure 4.** Variability in soil microelement contents (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, Mo) across Tibetan lithological classes. Boxplots show the data
 163 distributions for each lithological classes. Within each plot, the boxes represent the interquartile range (IQR), the horizontal lines within
 164 boxes indicate the median values, and black dots denote the mean values. The whiskers extend to 1.5 times the IQR. The surrounding
 165 shaded violin shapes indicate the kernel density distribution of the data. Abbreviations of lithological classes: IA = acidic igneous rock,
 166 MA = acidic metamorphic rock, SC = clastic sedimentary rock, SO = carbonate rock, UE = eolian facies rock, UF = fluvial facies rock.

167 Soil Ni contents showed the most pronounced variation among lithologies, with the highest level recorded under acidic
 168 metamorphic rocks ($64.43 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), followed by acidic igneous rocks ($51.49 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$). Soils developed from clastic
 169 sedimentary rocks and carbonate rocks had significantly lower Ni contents (45.85 and $41.06 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, respectively). In
 170 summary, Fe, Mn, and Zn were substantially enriched in soils derived from acidic metamorphic rocks. Cu and Mo showed
 171 relatively uniform distributions across lithologies Ni was notably elevated under acidic metamorphic rocks.

172
 173
 174



175 3.4 Drivers of soil micronutrient pattern

176 Relative importance analysis considered five variable groups, including climate, vegetation, soil properties, topography, and
 177 human disturbances. Among all investigated variables, climatic factors dominantly control soil micronutrient (Fe, Mn, Cu,
 178 Zn, Ni) distribution across the Tibetan Plateau (Figs. 5a-f). Regional moisture conditions, characterized by mean annual
 179 precipitation (MAP) and aridity index (AI), were the primary drivers. MAP consistently ranked as the top predictor for Fe,
 180 Mn, Zn, and Ni. Vegetation indicators (e.g., NDVI, NPP) also showed high importance for Mo and Zn. Soil properties (pH,
 181 SOC, texture) and topography (slope, aspect, elevation) contributed to distribution patterns but exhibited lower relative
 182 importance.

183 The distribution of Fe was primarily regulated by climatic conditions (especially precipitation) and parent material
 184 weathering intensity (represented by the chemical index of alteration, CIA), with secondary contributions from normalized
 185 difference vegetation index (NDVI), aridity index (AI), net primary productivity (NPP). For Mn distribution, Climate (MAP,
 186 AI) and soil properties (CIA, soil texture) were dominant. Soil Zn also show highly sensitive to climate (MAP, AI),
 187 weathering intensity (CIA), and vegetation cover (NDVI). Ni distribution was predominantly controlled by natural
 188 environmental conditions including MAP, AI, MAT and topography. For both Cu and Mo, climate variables (AI, MAP) and
 189 vegetation indicators (NPP or NDVI) consistently ranked among the top three factors governing their spatial distribution.

190 The partial dependence plots revealed distinct responses of soil microelement to key environmental drivers (Fig. 6). Five
 191 elements (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni) exhibited a typical U-shaped relationship with mean annual precipitation, showing higher
 192 contents in both low and high precipitation zones, and a clear trough in the intermediate range (approximately 300–500
 193 millimeters). This pattern aligned closely with responses to drought indices, confirming shared moisture sensitivity. Increases
 194 in the chemical index of alteration were generally associated with elevated levels of Mn, Ni, and Cu, particularly when the
 195 chemical index of alteration exceeded 0.5. In summary, the spatially heterogeneous distribution of Tibetan soil
 196 microelements is co-regulated by precipitation, vegetation, and chemical weathering intensity.

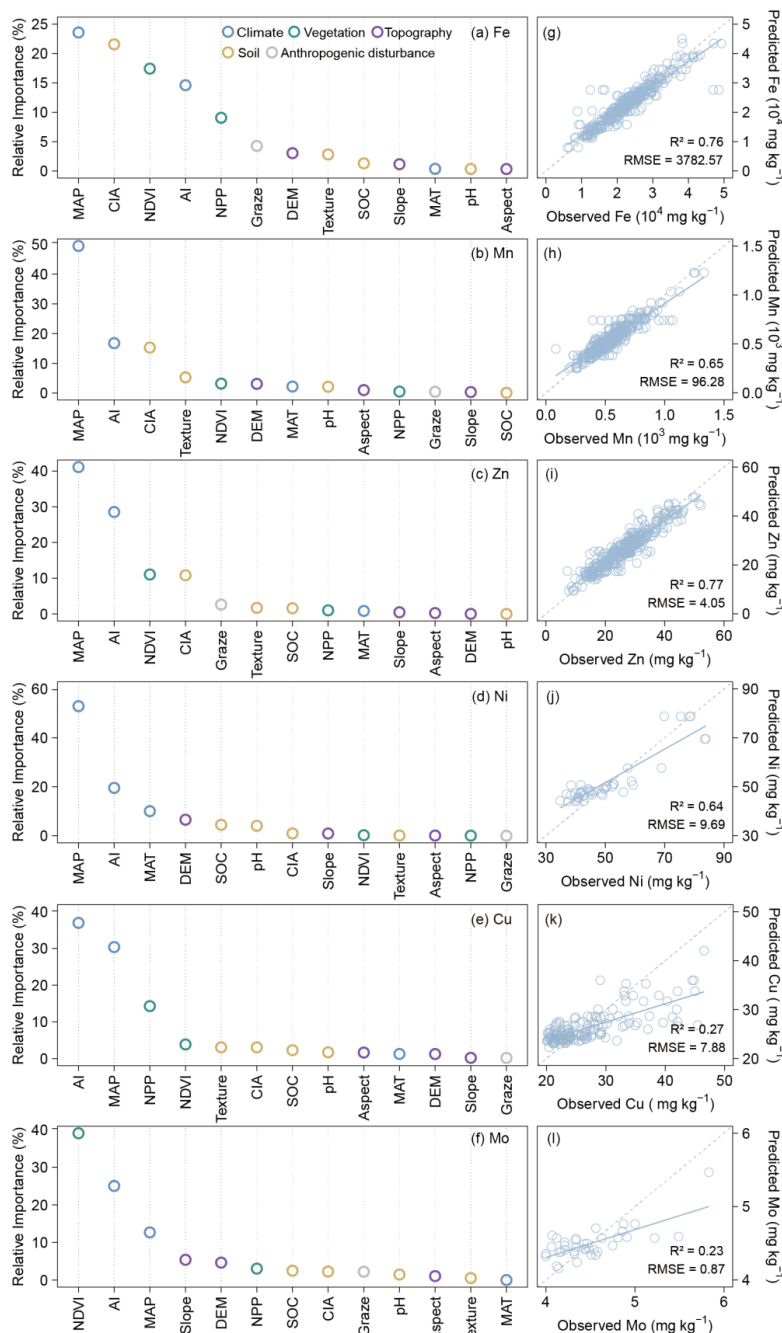
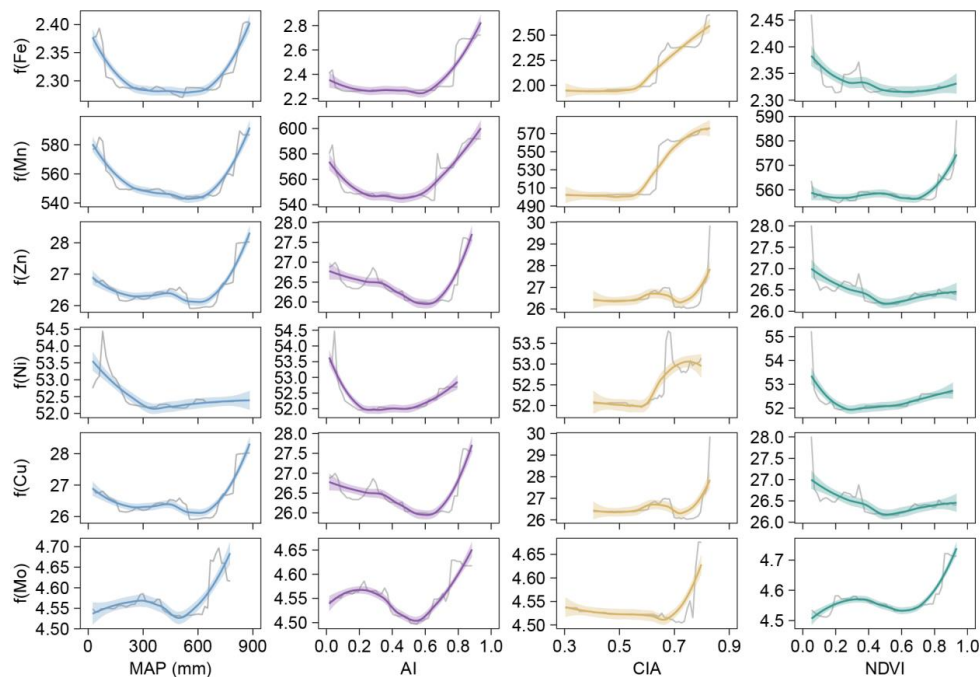


Figure 5. Relative importance of biotic and abiotic factors for soil microelements (Fe, Mn, Zn, Ni, Cu, Mo) on the Tibetan Plateau (a-f). Relationship between observed and predicted values of soil micronutrients (Fe, Mn, Zn, Ni, Cu, Mo) on the Tibetan Plateau based on the Random Forest model (g-l). The blue solid line represents the fitted relationship using ordinary least squares regression, while the gray dashed line indicates the 1:1 line between observed and predicted values.



202

203 **Figure 6.** Partial dependence of six soil microelements (Fe, Mn, Zn, Ni, Cu, Mo) on four predictive variables: mean annual
 204 precipitation (MAP), aridity index (AI), chemical index of alteration (CIA), and normalized difference vegetation index
 205 (NDVI). Gray lines represent the original partial dependence, while smoothed fits for each element are shown as colored lines. Shaded
 206 areas represent the 95% confidence intervals.

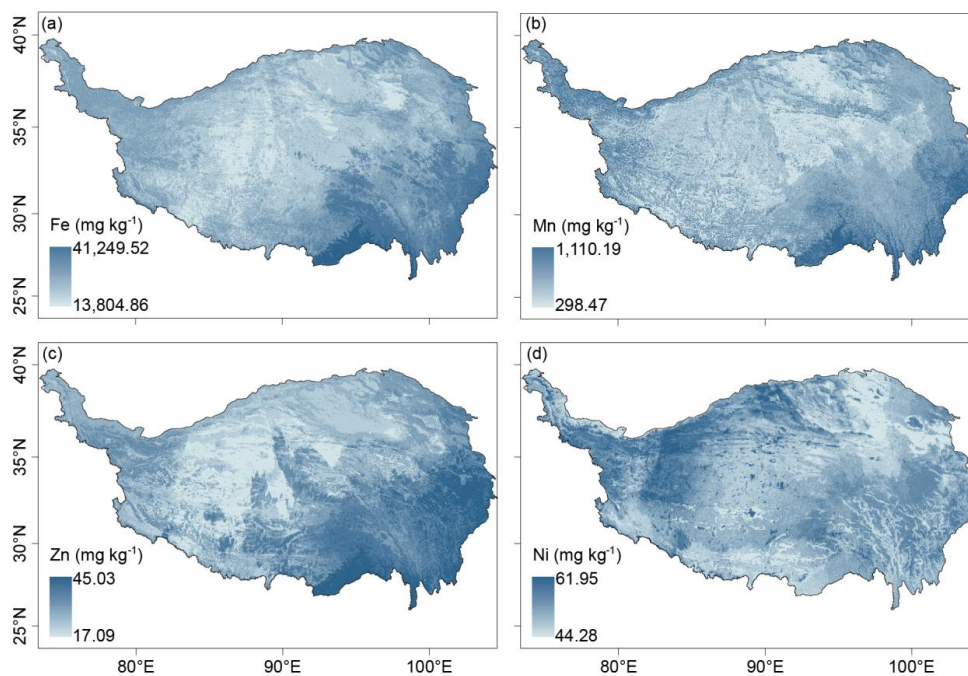
207 3.5 Soil micronutrients maps

208 We employed random forest modeling to predict the spatial distribution of six soil micronutrients across the Tibetan Plateau.
 209 Model performance varied among elements (Figs. 5g–l). The model achieved the highest predictive accuracy for Zn and Fe,
 210 with R^2 values of 0.77 and 0.76, respectively (Figs. 5g and 5i), indicating that the spatial variability of Zn and Fe is well
 211 captured by the selected environmental predictors. Mn and Ni models also showed moderate performance, with R^2 values of
 212 0.65 and 0.64 and corresponding RMSEs of 96.28 and 9.69 (Figs. 5h and 5j). In contrast, the models for Cu and Mo
 213 displayed poor predictability, with R^2 values of only 0.27 and 0.23 (Figs. 5k and 5l). Overall, the model evaluation results
 214 suggest that the random forest approach is effective in predicting the distributions of Fe and Zn, moderately reliable for Mn
 215 and Ni, and limited utility for Cu and Mo.

216 **Figure 7** illustrates the spatial patterns of soil microelements (Fe, Mn, Zn, Ni) across the Tibetan Plateau, as predicted by
 217 random forest models. The resulting maps reveal significant spatial heterogeneity of these elements. The highest contents of
 218 Fe are primarily located in the southeastern region, the southern margins, and parts of the western plateau. Mn shows a



219 distinct gradient, with contents increasing from northeast to southwest. Predicted Mn values range from 298.47 to 1,110.19
 220 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, and the areas with the highest Mn contents are mainly distributed in the humid southeastern and southern parts of
 221 the plateau. Zn displays relatively high contents in the central-eastern region and along certain western edges of the plateau,
 222 with predicted values ranging from 17.09 to 45.03 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$. Ni has a narrower predicted content range (44.28–61.95 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$)
 223 and shows a more spatially homogeneous distribution. However, localized hotspots of elevated Ni contents are observed in
 224 parts of the northeastern and southern plateau.



225
 226 **Figure 7.** Spatial distribution of soil microelements (Fe, Mn, Zn, Ni) on the Tibetan Plateau.

227 4 Discussion

228 Our results indicate generally low contents of soil micronutrients (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ni, Mo) across Tibetan Plateau
 229 ecosystems (Fig. 2), consistently falling below well-established global averages for reference soils (Lindsay 1979). These
 230 deficient levels carry profound long-term ecological implications, including the risk of irreversible depletion of lithogenic
 231 microelement pools (Jones et al. 2013), given their replenishment cycles operate on geological timescales (million years).
 232 Furthermore, accelerated warming may exacerbate microelement dilution effects, thereby increasing regional soil
 233 degradation vulnerability (Clair & Lynch, 2010; Myers et al., 2014; Pachauri et al., 2014).



234 The distribution of soil microelements across the Tibetan Plateau demonstrates significant spatial heterogeneity (Figs. 2 and
 235 7), aligning with patterns observed in Europe for elements such as Zn. This variability is predominantly governed by the
 236 interactions among climate, vegetation, and soil (Figs. 5a-f and 6). Notably, precipitation emerges as the primary predictor
 237 for elements such as Fe, Mn, Zn, and Ni, with all except Mo exhibiting characteristic U-shaped responses, with minima
 238 occurring at 300-500 mm. This pattern likely reflects distinct weathering regimes across precipitation gradients. In arid
 239 regions (<300 mm), physical weathering processes, including freeze-thaw fracturing and aeolian erosion, predominate,
 240 allowing trace elements (e.g., Ni, Mo) to accumulate near the surface due to evaporation effects (Pachauri et al., 2014;
 241 Moreno-Jimenez et al., 2023). In transitional precipitation regimes (300-500 mm), intensified chemical weathering occurs;
 242 however, leaching fluxes surpass the rates of parent material weathering, leading to soil elemental depletion (Anderson, 2019;
 243 Bluth et al., 1994; Hartmann et al., 2014). In humid regions (>500 mm), enhanced chemical weathering results in the
 244 formation of secondary clay minerals (e.g., montmorillonite, illite), whose negatively charged surfaces facilitate elemental
 245 retention through ionic adsorption and co-precipitation mechanisms (Alloway, 2009).

246 Our findings suggest that the aridity index is a significant determinant of soil microelement distribution. Specifically,
 247 elemental contents tend to decrease when the aridity index falls below a certain threshold. This trend likely reflects reduced
 248 input or retention of elements under arid conditions. Drought conditions may modify soil redox states, thereby influencing
 249 element speciation, adsorption capacity, mobility, and ultimately, leaching behavior (Brady et al., 2016; Loveland et al., 2003;
 250 Carter et al., 1995). Also, arid environments may indirectly impact trace elements through alterations in soil pH and soil
 251 organic matter content (Moreno-Jimenez et al., 2019). Previous research has shown that droughts induced by climate change
 252 can restrict the availability of essential microelements, such as iron and zinc. This limitation, along with other adverse effects
 253 like diminished water availability, poses substantial threats to vital ecological processes and services in drylands, including
 254 food production (Gupta et al., 2008; Graham, 1991).

255 Our random forest regression models demonstrated robust predictive capability (e.g. cross-validated R^2 range from 0.64 to
 256 0.77 for Fe Mn Zn Ni). Nevertheless, model accuracy could be further improved to more extensive field sampling and
 257 refinement of input data. Specifically, targeted collection of soil microelement data and associated covariates in
 258 underrepresented high-altitude regions of the Tibetan Plateau is necessary to address existing spatial gaps. Additionally,
 259 systematic reduction of uncertainties inherent in gridded environmental datasets is essential, as these uncertainties propagate
 260 errors into microelement predictions. Continued advancement in both field observations and foundational geospatial dataset
 261 is crucial for improving the reliability of regional-scale element mapping.

262



263 **5 Data availability**

264 The gridded soil trace element (Fe Mn Zn Ni) maps for Tibetan Plateau can be downloaded from [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.11888/Terre.tpd.302870)
 265 10.11888/Terre.tpd.302870 (Huo et al., 2025).

266 **6 Conclusions**

267 This study delivers a comprehensive assessment of spatial distribution patterns for six soil micronutrients (Fe, Mn, Cu, Zn,
 268 Ni, Mo) across the Tibetan Plateau, revealing pronounced regional-scale heterogeneity. Moisture-related variables (e.g.,
 269 mean annual precipitation, aridity index) are the primary drivers of microelement distributions, with significant secondary
 270 modulation by weathering intensity and vegetation factors. These findings highlight the coupled effects of climate,
 271 vegetation, and parent material on microelement biogeochemical cycling within the complex environmental context of the
 272 Tibetan Plateau. Using five predictor groups (climate, vegetation, soil properties, topography, and human disturbances), we
 273 generated high-resolution spatial maps for four well-predicted elements (Fe, Mn, Zn, Ni) via machine learning. These maps
 274 provide validated initial conditions for process-based models simulating microelement cycling, advances understanding of
 275 elemental distribution in alpine ecosystems.

276 **Author contributions.**

277 JZ conceived the study. HY conducted the field survey and was responsible for data collection and processing. HY prepared
 278 the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

279 **Competing interests.**

280 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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