1 SI Appendix

2

8

3 1. Lateral and vertical carbon fluxes induced by erosion

4 1.1 Lateral carbon fluxes (F1 and F2)

5 1.1.1 Soil Organic Carbon (SOC) erosion (F1)

6 The erosional component of soil organic carbon (SOC) was derived using the 7 following equation:

$$E_C = C_{SOC-Surf} v_{ero} A_{ero} \tag{1}$$

9 where E_C (kg/yr) is the amount of organic carbon loss due to soil erosion, $C_{SOC-surf}$ (kg/m³) is the organic carbon content in the surficial soil layer of 4.5 cm (see Section 10 2.2 for soil data format), v_{ero} (m/yr) is the water erosion rate, and A_{ero} (m²) is the 11 12 erosional area. This approach assumes that the enrichment ratio $E_r = 1$. In other words 13 it is assumed that the proportion of SOC in the soil is the same as that which is eroded and therefore transported away from the eroded site. We recognize that there are 14 15 situations in which Er > 1 and that the amount of SOC eroded is larger than the SOC content because SOC is removed preferentially. However, there is little data presently 16 17 available with which to parameterize our model.

18

19 1.1.2 SOC deposition (F2)

The SOC depositional component was similarly assessed from:

20

21
$$D_C = C_{SOC-Surf} v_{dep} A_{dep}$$
(2)

where D_C (kg/yr) is the amount of organic carbon loss due to soil erosion, v_{dep} (m/yr) is the deposition rate, and A_{dep} (m²) is the depositional area. We assume that there is no preferential sorting of material and that all of the eroded SOC is deposited at the same location.

Sediment Delivery Ratio (SDR) is defined as the ratio of sediment transport (T_s,
kg/yr) to the total amount of soil erosion (E_s, kg/yr):

$$SDR = \frac{T_s}{E_s}$$
(3)

Since deposition is the difference between soil erosion and sediment transport, and the
enrichment ratio is assumed to be 1, equation (2) can be converted into:

$$D_C = E_C \cdot (1 - SDR) \tag{4}$$

Based on observations of *SDR* in nine major river basins in China, Jing et al. (1) established a positive relationship between the five grades of soil erosion severity and *SDR* in the range 0.1–1 throughout China at the scale of small watersheds (~1 km²) (Table S3). This positive relationship is mainly due to the feedback of sediment delivery on soil erosion: with smaller *SDR*, more sediment accumulates within its source watershed, which would prohibit further erosion as the depositional area approaches full capacity. The observed *SDR* values and erosion grades in other

39	representative areas have also been collected from various sources in the literature to
40	support the relationship obtained by Jing et al. (1) (Table S4). Thus, the magnitude of
41	SOC deposition in all cells (polygons) can be calculated using equation (4).
42	
43	1.1.3 Validation of lateral carbon fluxes
44	Data concerning SOC removal and deposition in small watersheds have been

45 collected to validate the modeled F1 and F2 in this paper. Table S5 shows that the
46 values of F1 and F2 agree well with those from previous studies carried out in
47 different regions of China.

48

49 *1.2 Carbon recovery at the eroded area (F3)*

50 1.2.1 Identifying the erosion-induced CO₂ fluxes in small watersheds

Van Oost et al. (2) designed a novel method to separate the component of CO₂ 51 flux that is solely induced by soil erosion in small watersheds. According to Schmidt 52 et al. (3), the molecular structure of Soil Organic Matter (SOM) plays a secondary 53 54 role in determining the carbon decomposition and persistence, and the ecosystem properties (i.e. biotic and abiotic environments) determine the carbon stability. 55 Furthermore, the biochemical decomposition and persistence are far from equilibrium, 56 especially in the eroding area (4). To quantify the CO₂ exchange induced by soil 57 58 erosion in the eroding area, Van Oost et al. (2) first assume an equivalent situation

between biochemical composition and decomposition, and simulate the change of SOC (ΔC_{sim} , g C/m²); then by subtraction from the observed SOC content (ΔC_{obs} , g C/m²), Van Oost et al. (2) estimate the carbon exchange induced by other environmental variables (primarily soil erosion) as the dynamic recovery:

$$F3 = (\Delta C_{obs} - \Delta C_{sim})/T$$
(5)

64 in which ΔC_{obs} is regarded as the difference between the initial carbon stock C_0 (g 65 C/m²) and that after *T* years, C_{T-E} (g C/m²):

$$\Delta C_{obs} = C_{T-E} - C_0 \tag{6}$$

Note that ΔC_{sim} is determined through mathematical simulation of the evolution 67 68 of stock during the process of soil erosion without extra CO₂ exchange induced by erosion. ΔC_{sim} is divided into two parts: (1) F_{con-de} (g C/m²; con stands for composition, 69 and de stands for decomposition), the carbon changes 70 due to 71 composition/decomposition of SOC under stable conditions (i.e. without erosion), and (2) F_{ero-l} (g C/m²; l stands for lateral), lateral carbon loss due to erosion, excluding a 72 73 component reflecting the interaction between soil erosion and CO_2 emission/sequestration: 74

$$\Delta C_{sim} = F_{con - de} + F_{ero - l} \tag{7}$$

75

By subtracting ΔC_{sim} from ΔC_{obs} , the erosion-induced CO₂ exchange is quantified. In non-eroded areas, changes to soil carbon storage are caused by biochemical composition and decomposition of organic carbon. Therefore, F_{con-de} can be calculated as the difference between initial carbon storage and carbon stock during the *T*-th year within the stable area of a watershed C_{T-NE} (g C/m²):

81
$$F_{con - de} = C_{T - NE} - C_0$$
(8)

Lateral carbon movement due to soil erosion F_{ero-l} can be calculated in terms of erosion rate v_{ero} (m/yr), duration of erosion period T (yr), and carbon content in the top layer directly affected by soil erosion (~20 cm) in the *t*-th year, $c_{top(t)}$ (g C/m³), i.e.,

86
$$F_{ero-l} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} v_{ero} c_{top(t)}$$
(9)

Combining equations (1) to (9), the total erosion-induced CO₂ flux during T years, F_{ero-v} (g C/m²; v stands for vertical), can be calculated according to:

89
$$F_{ero-v} = C_{T-E} - C_{T-NE} - \sum_{t=1}^{T} v_{ero} c_{top(t)}$$
(10)

90 Note that $c_{top(t)}$ changes with time:

91
$$c_{top(t)} = \frac{c_{top(t-1)}D_{top} + (c_{bel(t-1)} - c_{top(t-1)})v_{ero}}{D_{top}}$$
(11)

The parameters C_{T-E} , C_{T-NE} , $c_{top(t)}$, $c_{top(t-1)}$, $c_{bel(t-1)}$ and D_{top} are determined from the vertical profiles of organic carbon in both stable and erosional areas of the watershed. v_{ero} is derived from the ¹³⁷Cs content in soil profiles. Therefore, the annual erosion-induced CO₂ source/sink across the whole watershed during erosion period *T* (yr), *F3* (g C/yr), is:

97
$$F3 = (\sum_{i=1}^{N} F_{ero-v(i)} A_{(i)}) / T$$
(12)

98 where *N* is the number of soil samples in the watershed, and $A_{(i)}$ is the controlling area 99 of the *i*-th sample.

100 Using the above method, Van Oost et al. (2) successfully determined 101 erosion-induced CO₂ fluxes in small basins. Since discrimination is needed between 102 stable and erosional areas in a given watershed over the years of erosion history, it is difficult to upscale the method to other, larger regions lacking such information. 103 Moreover, the use of ¹³⁷Cs to determine erosion velocities is too expensive to 104 implement in larger regions. Although the mapping of ¹³⁷Cs data and the estimation of 105 net soil redistribution is possible over large areas (5, 6), we took a modelling approach 106 107 to tackle this problem across China.

108

109 1.2.2 Improved Method

110 A key problem in the assessment of erosion-induced CO₂ fluxes in large-scale 111 basins arises from data availability. A modified approach is thus needed to avoid the 112 necessity for discrimination between stable and erosional areas. Moreover, 113 alternatives are needed for determination of erosion rates.

Instead of choosing the first year since erosion as the beginning of the simulation period, the *N*-th year after erosion is selected as the start point (Fig. S1). Similarly we assume that erosion does not exert any impact on the original CO_2 exchange process, soil carbon composition/decomposition and lateral movement of organic carbon are simulated as two independent processes, with the modeled carbon storage being C_{unc} (g C/m²). Then, the coupled carbon storage (C_{coup} , g C/m²) is modeled including the impact of erosion on CO₂ emission/sequestration (Fig. S1). The difference in carbon storage under the two circumstances is regarded as the erosion-induced CO₂ flux in the erosional area, *F*3 (g C/yr). The parameters C_{unc} , C_{coup} and F3 are obtained respectively from:

124
$$\frac{dC_{unc}}{dt} = I_B - k_O C_{unc} \tag{13}$$

125
$$\frac{dC_{coup}}{dt} = I_B - (k_O + k_E)C_{coup} + c_{bel}v_{ero}$$
(14)

126 and

127
$$F3 = \frac{C_{coup} - C_{unc}}{T} A_{ero}.$$
 (15)

It should be noted that C_{coup} and C_{unc} are the carbon contents within corresponding 128 layers in the original soil profile. In Equations (13)~(15), I_B (g C/m²/yr) is the 129 carbon input to the soil, and k_0 (1/yr) is the turnover rate of soil carbon with respect to 130 decomposition in absence of erosion. k_E (1/yr) is the erosion rate of soil carbon, 131 obtained by calculating the ratio of soil erosion rate (m/yr) to the depth of carbon in 132 the top soil layer which dominates erosion. Both C_{coup} and C_{unc} are effectively carbon 133 storages in the top layers, considering that there is no difference in the coupled and 134 uncoupled carbon storages in the deeper layers. These levels are seldom affected by 135

soil erosion, and provide no contribution to the erosion-induced CO₂ sink from the deeper layers. c_{bel} (g C/m³) is the carbon concentration at the bottom of the top layer. Since the vertical distribution of organic carbon usually obeys an exponential law, c_{bel} , is expressed:

140
$$c_{bel} = (c_0 - c_{\min})e^{-kv_{erd}} + c_{\min}$$
(16)

where c_0 (g C/m³), c_{min} (g C/m³), and k (1/m) can be determined by measurements of carbon concentration in different layers of vertical soil profiles. c_0 is averaged over the whole top layer (therefore uniform within the top layer, and is equal to C_{bel} when t= 0). Dividing all terms in equation (16) by c_0 , then:

145
$$\frac{c_{bel}}{c_0} = \frac{c_{\min}}{c_0} + (1 - \frac{c_{\min}}{c_0})e^{-kv_{ero}t}$$
(17)

146 We then divide $\frac{c_{\min}}{c_0}$ in the range of 0.01–0.5 using an incremental step of 0.01. 147 Then, for each $\left(\frac{c_{\min}}{c_0}\right)_i$ (*i* = 1 ... 50), the measured carbon concentration is fitted to

148 the *l* layers of samples: $\left(\frac{cz_j}{c_0}, z_j\right)_{ref}$ $(j = 1 \dots l)$, and the best-fit k_i parameterized using

149 the least squares method. From all 50 pairs of $\left(\frac{c_{\min}}{c_0}, k\right)_i$, the case is selected that

leads to the minimum root-mean-square-error (RMSE), which is usually less than 40%. For the thin soil layer, $\frac{c_{\min}}{c_0}$ is set to 0.01. Fig. S2 illustrates the entire parameterization process. A_{ero} and T in equation (15) represent the erosional area of the studied watershed and the length of the simulation period, respectively.

Berhe et al. (7) used a humification coefficient to evaluate the fraction of net

primary production (NPP) entering into the soil, with the remainder of NPP assumed 155 to be rapidly decomposed and released to the atmosphere without participating in the 156 157 processes of soil erosion and terrestrial deposition. To apply this method, an estimate of humification coefficient is required. However, little information about the 158 humification coefficient is available for different ecosystem types in China. The 159 approach taken herein assumes that all NPP enters the soil carbon pool (i.e. $I_B = NPP$), 160 and considers the uncertainty by using a k_0 already including the initial rapid carbon 161 loss, which is different to that of Berhe et al. (7). In Section 3, different values for the 162 humification coefficient (< 10% in grasslands and forests, and < 30% in agricultural 163 systems) have been assumed to analyze the uncertainty. Moreover, the "initial rapid C 164 loss" hypothesis should be viewed with caution because newly produced 165 166 photosynthate may become invulnerable to rapid decomposition under certain circumstances including physical protection (e.g. soil burial, waterlogging). 167 In such cases, the photosynthate may become a C substrate for soil erosion, i.e. NPP. It should 168 be noted that as SOC declines due to continuous erosion, and k_0 from these models 169 could be over-estimated (8). The sensitivity of k_0 is tested in Section 3. We also 170 assume that erosion has no effect on the rate of SOC decomposition, and the related 171 uncertainty is discussed in Section 3. 172

173 Since NPP is linearly dependent on crop yield, such that

174
$$NPP = \frac{CropYield}{HI} DF CF, \qquad (18)$$

175 where *HI* is the Harvest Index, *DF* is the Dry matter Fraction, and *CF* is the Carbon

176	Fraction. The increase in crop yield per unit area recorded in all provinces (Table S6)
177	implies that NPP was maintained even under severe soil erosion. Therefore, it is
178	reasonable to assume that NPP is slightly affected by soil erosion, even in severely
179	eroded areas like the Loess Plateau (9) and Southwest China (10).
180	Using equations (13) to (17), the erosion-induced CO ₂ fluxes are determined
181	from the storage and vertical profile of soil organic carbon, erosion rate, carbon pool
182	turnover rate, and net primary production (NPP).
183	The modified method simplifies the discrimination of stable and erosional areas,
184	and avoids having to estimate the year in which erosion commenced. Moreover, the
185	majority of model inputs such as erosion rate, soil carbon storage, carbon pool
186	turnover rate and NPP can be extracted from either national survey databases or
187	global carbon cycle models. Comparison of data requirements for the two methods
188	(Table S7) shows closer data accessibility by the modified method for assessment at
189	regional scale. It should also be noted that the modified method does not take into
190	account the DOC leaching term, which could contribute another source of vertical
191	carbon loss. This uncertainly will also be discussed in Section 3.

192

193 1.2.3 Scale-up approach based on minimum polygons

Although estimation of dynamic replacement can be undertaken at the scale of small watersheds using the modified method, estimation over larger regions remains a problem. Scale-up from local to regional scales is a key issue in extrapolation to large areas. Here we propose an efficient approach based on minimum polygons identified as continuous small areas with uniformly distributed geographical factors (11, 12), such as soil organic carbon content, erosion grade, carbon pool turnover rate, and NPP. By overlaying these factors at different layers (Table S8) in GIS software (Fig. S3), tens of thousands of polygons are generated, the majority of which have areas less than 1 km². Thus, the total erosion-induced CO₂ sequestration can be obtained by summing up the CO₂ fluxes in each of the polygons.

204

1.2.4 Comparison between Van Oost et al.'s (2) and modified methods

Since it is difficult to observe the CO₂ flux induced by erosion in small 206 watersheds, we test the modified method by comparing its outputs with those from 207 208 Van Oost et al.'s (2) method for 8 watersheds in Europe, 2 watersheds in the US, and 5 watersheds in China. The ¹³⁷Cs and SOC data for watersheds in Europe and the 209 US are taken from the Supplementary Material of Van Oost et al. (2). The 5 210 representative small watersheds in China are located in the black soil region, the red 211 soil region, and the purple soil region. The spatial distribution of soils in China is 212 213 shown in Fig. S4. Watershed No.1, with an area of 13 ha, is located in the black soil area of Jilin Province (125°52'E, 44°43'N) which has a cold (average temperature: 214 4.4°C), humid (annual precipitation: 534 mm) climate. Under the influence of the 215 216 continental monsoon, 70% of the precipitation occurs between June and August. Watershed No.1 is severely eroded because of the long cultivation history of corn 217

dating back to 1903, noting that the cultivation depth is about 20 cm (13). 218 Watershed No.2 is located in the black soil area of Heilongjiang Province with 219 average temperature of 0.5–4.0 °C and humid climate (mean annual precipitation of 220 Under the influence of the continental monsoon, 80% of the 221 500–600 mm). precipitation is concentrated from June to September. Bean is the main crop in this 222 region (14). However, Watersheds No.3 and No.4 are all within Jianyang County 223 (104°28'E, 30°26'N) in the eastern part of Sichuan Basin and comprise purple soil 224 which is cultivated by rotating wheat, corn and potato crops (15, 16). These two 225 watersheds are characterized by very hilly topography (average slope of 16%) and 226 relatively low altitude (400–587 m), and their climate is hot and humid with average 227 temperature of 17.4°C and annual precipitation of 872 mm. Watershed No.5 is 228 229 covered by red soil containing relatively little organic matter, located in the Liujiashan Farm (109°20'E, 33°44'N) in Yujiang County, Jiangxi Province. This watershed is 230 characterized by low (altitude: 45-60 m), hilly (slope: 5-18%) topography. The 231 average temperature is 17.8°C. The annual precipitation is 1795 mm, 50% of which 232 occurs in the monsoon season from April to June. The main crops are tea, peanuts, 233 and carrots, which have been cultivated since the 1950s (17). 234

Table S9 lists the collected SOC and ¹³⁷Cs data together with the relevant parameters reported in the literature for the 15 test watersheds. Comparison of outputs from both Van Oost et al.'s (2) and the present modified model are given in Table S9 and Fig. S1. The RMSE for the Chinese watersheds in China is 19.3%, and that for other watersheds is 39.7%. The average RMSE for the total is 31.7 %. Although the tested watersheds are widely distributed in Europe, the US, and China, the total
number of basins considered is small in terms of statistical significance, and more *in situ* data are needed in future. To further test the modified method, a sensitivity
analysis is reported in Section 3.

244

245 1.3 Erosion-induced CO₂ source in the depositional area (F4)

It is commonly accepted that erosion induces a CO_2 source in the depositional area (18, 19). As the eroded soil is deposited, part of the top soil layer enters into the 1st layer of sub-soil (19). Therefore, the depth of the layer next to the top layer becomes thick. Decomposition of the newly buried C-rich soil brings about an extra CO_2 source. Thus, F4 can be calculated based on the total eroded soil of the polygon:

$$F4 = C_{SOC-surf} v_{ero} k_{O-subsoil} (1 - SDR)$$
(19)

where v_{ero} is the mean erosion rate of the polygon (i.e. $v_{ero}A_{ero}/A_{polygon}$; and $A_{polygon}$ is the area of the polygon); $k_{O-subsoil}$ is the turnover rate of the subsoil layer; *SDR* is a conceptual parameter defined as the ratio of the total sediment exported out of the polygon to the total eroded soil within the polygon. Since the turnover rate decreases exponentially with depth (19):

258
$$k_{o-z} = k_{o-0} \exp(-u_r z)$$
 (20)

where u_r is set to 2.6, the decomposition rate of the newly buried SOC is 40–60 % of the top layer, noting that *z* is usually within the range of 0.2–0.3 m.

Although the assumption of exponential decay is more acceptable close to steady 261 262 state conditions, the rate of decay of the soil C reservoir is no longer exponential in a depositional landform associated with grassland that is naturally eroding (7). 263 Nevertheless, buried SOC remains conserved over the decadal time period considered 264 265 herein, as found by Van Oost et al. (2, 20) and Wang et al. (21). This is because the decay rates diminish substantially in burial zones, with the primary control factor 266 provided by the physical environment, not the SOC chemistry. Hence, it is 267 268 reasonable to use an exponential decay law.

269

270 *1.4 Enhanced decomposition of SOC during sediment transport (F5)*

Soil aggregates detach during erosion, and break down further when delivered to 271 depositional land, making it easier to decompose organic carbon in sediments. 272 Meanwhile, the presence of autochthonous carbon in the aquatic environment 273 enhances SOC mineralization. Unlike Jacinthe et al. (22) who reported that up to 274 50% SOC degraded into CO₂ in an incubation experiment lasting 100 days, Wang et 275 al. (21) found that hardly any additional CO_2 was released owing to erosion. 276 Following Guenet et al. (23) we assume that the difference between decomposition in 277 situ and during transport could be as much as 63%. Here, we evaluate the 278 erosion-induced CO₂ flux during sediment transport by assuming that 63% more SOC 279

280	is degraded into CO_2 in water than in the soil layers. Other studies have also reported
281	that the additional emission is very small (e.g. Van Hemelryck et al., 24). Hence, the
282	approach taken herein is consistent with the understanding of erosional effects on
283	decomposition rates on land.
284	
285	1.5 VLC Ratio
286	The Vertical to Lateral Carbon (VLC) ratio is defined as the ratio of the recovery

CO₂ sink (F3) to SOC removal (F1) in eroding areas. VLC reflects the potential of a
certain area to recover from the loss of SOC.

289

290 **2. Data**

291 2.1 National Survey on Soil Erosion

Two detailed national soil erosion surveys were accomplished in 1995-1996 and 292 2010-2012, and the data be downloaded from 293 can (http://cese.pku.edu.cn/chinaerosion/). The first national survey combined remote 294 295 sensing (TM) images and field survey data to provide spatial distribution information on primary geographical and environmental factors such as erosive force, topography 296 and vegetation. As a result, six soil erosion grades were classified over the entire 297 country (25) (Fig. S5). Furthermore, the second national survey utilized Chinese Soil 298 299 Loss equation (26) (CSLE), with inputs of topographical, land use and remote-sensing

information as well as field survey data on conservation measures, vegetation cover
and meteorology (32,364 small watersheds covering 1% of the water erosion area in
China). Erosion rates were calculated from:

$$A = R \cdot K \cdot L \cdot S \cdot B \cdot E \cdot T .$$
(21)

where *A* is the erosion rate (t/hm²/yr), *R* is the rainfall erosivity (MJ mm/hm²ha), *K*, the soil erodibility index, refers to the soil loss of a unit plot that is 22.1 m long and 9 % steep (unit: t hm² h/hm² JM mm), *L* is the slope length factor (-), *S* is the slope factor (-), *B* is the biological conservation measures factor, *E* is the engineering conservation measures factor, and *T* is the tillage conservation measures factor. *R* appears in terms of the average rainfall-erosivity over 24 half-months, i.e. R_{hm} (MJ mm/hm²ha):

$$R_{hm} = 0.184 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (P_d I_{10d})_i$$
(22)

where P_d is the daily rainfall amount (mm) and I_{10d} is the daily maximum 10min rainfall intensivity (mm/h). *K* is estimated according to its definition above (Fig. S6(a)).

$$L = (\lambda / 22.13)^m$$
 (23)

317 where λ is the slope-length (m) and *m* is the slope length exponent identified as:

318
$$m = 0.6(1 - e^{-35.835 \tan \theta})$$
 (24)

319 *S* is determined from:

320
$$S = \begin{cases} 10.8\sin\theta + 0.03 & \theta \le 5^{\circ} \\ 16.8\sin\theta - 0.5 & \theta > 5^{\circ} \end{cases}$$
(25)

321 where θ is the slope gradient.

E is expressed as:

323
$$E = (1 - \frac{s_t}{s_0}a)(1 - \frac{s_d}{s_0}b)$$
(26)

where s_t is the area of terraces (km²); s_d is the control area of check dams (km²); s_0 is the area of sub-basins (km²); and *a* and *b* are sediment-reduction coefficients associated with terraces and check dams.

327 *B* and *T* are obtained from:

328
$$B = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i} / M_{0i}, \quad T = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i} / M_{0i}$$
(27)

where M_i (t/hm²) is the soil loss under certain conservation measures in the *i*-th year, and M_{0i} (t/hm²) is the soil loss of a bare field in the *i*-th year. For easier application, the factor *B* is often determined according to land-use type and vegetation cover (27). Table S10 lists references to the validation of CSLE for watersheds in different regions of China.

334 Precipitation is a key parameter affecting soil erosion. Two different series of335 climate data are chosen for corresponding calculations based on national surveys

undertaken in 1995–1996 and 2010–2012. According to equations (1–2, 19), F1, F2,
F4, and F5 are linearly dependent on erosion rate, and F3 also has a positive
correlation with erosion rate (see sensitivity analysis in Section 3). Therefore, the
weighting of climate on the five carbon fluxes can be reflected by its impact on
erosion rate. Miao et al. (28) suggest that climate change contributes 17% and 48% of
the decrease of sediment yield in the upper and middle reaches of Yellow River Basin,
respectively.

Considering that uncertainties exist in both the sources of data (DEM, survey on 343 B, E, and T factors) and the model employed, the national surveys reported soil 344 erosion grades (Slight, Light, Moderate, Intense, Extremely Intense, and Severe 345 Erosion) instead of actual erosion rates. Table S11 summarizes areas corresponding to 346 different erosion grades in the 31 provinces in China, derived from reports released by 347 348 the Ministry of Water Resources, PR China (29). Table S3 lists the conversion rules from erosion grades to erosion rates. Note that each specific erosion grade 349 corresponds to a range of erosion rates, vero is determined as the medium value within 350 the range. The uncertainty induced by such simplification has been included by 351 presenting the error bars of the relevant estimates (see Table S1). Section 3 also 352 examines the sensitivity of vero. 353

354

355 2.2 Vertical distribution of soil organic carbon

The soil organic carbon content of 8 vertical layers (i.e. 0–0.045, 0.045–0.091,

357 0.091-0.166, 0.166-0.289, 0.289-0.493, 0.493-0.829, 0.829-1.383 and 1.383-2.296 m) for each of 8980 soil profiles was obtained from a Global Soil Dataset based on 358 the Soil Map of the World and various regional and national soil databases 359 (http://globalchange.bnu.edu.cn/research/soil2). The soil-type-and-polygon-linkage 360 method was used to derive the spatial distribution of soil properties (30), in which 361 data describing soil properties were interpolated from natural soil horizons to standard 362 layers using equal-area quadratic smoothing spline functions. This has previously 363 been proved to be of advantage in predicting the depth function of soil properties (30). 364 The smoothing parameter of the spline was set as 0.1. The spline was used to estimate 365 parameters for various soil properties in the standard layers, while negative values 366 were set to zero. The resolution was 30 arc-seconds (about 1 km at the equator). The 367 368 dataset was then used to derive parameters describing the vertical profile of SOC, namely $C_{SOC-top}$, C_{min}/C_0 and k, following the process presented in Fig. S2. 369

370

371 2.3 Carbon pool turnover rates and net primary production

The turnover rate of the carbon pool refers to the ratio of soil respiration to total carbon storage (k_0 in equations (13) and (14)). Net primary production (NPP) is regarded as the total input of carbon from vegetation to the soil carbon pool (I_B in equations (13) and (14)). These two parameters are extracted from the outputs of ten state-of-the-art global carbon cycle models, namely CLM4C (31, 32), CLM4CN (31, 32), HYLAND-v4 (33), LPJ (34), LPJ GUESS (35), ORCHIDEE (36), SDGVM (37,

378	38), TRIFFID (41)	, VEGAS-2.1 (42), OCN (43), and averaged over the period from
379	1980s to present.	Mean values and variances of NPP and k_0 derived from the ten
380	models are presente	ed in Table S12.

381

382 2.4 Precipitation

Precipitation data (Fig. S6(b)) were collected from the website of China Meteorological Administration (<u>http://www.cma.gov.cn/2011qxfw/2011qsjgx/</u>). 675 stations were included and the data series covered from 1995 to 2012 (Fig. S7).

386

387 2.5 Vegetation cover

Data on vegetation cover were extracted from the 1:1,000,000 map of China's Vegetation Cover published in 2007. This dataset is regarded as an integrated outcome based on long-term observations, which could reflect the general condition of vegetation cover distribution from 1980s to 1990s (Fig. S6(c)). Herein, vegetation type was not directly used for calculation of carbon fluxes; instead its influence has been implicitly accounted in the final C budget estimation via soil erosion rate.

394

395 2.6 Parameters derived from the national-scale datasets

Table S13 summarizes the parameters used to calculate the five fluxes in the

398

399 **3. Uncertainty and sensitivity analysis**

400 *3.1 Dynamic replacement in the erosional area*

This approach assumes that all NPP enters into the soil carbon pool, and adopts a 401 k_0 coefficient that includes the effect of initial rapid carbon decomposition. 402 In the 403 present uncertainty analysis, this assumption is tested by assuming a humification coefficient of 30% (as in an agricultural ecosystem) and 10% (as in grassland and 404 forest ecosystems). Correspondingly, 30% and 10% of the k_0 dataset is adopted, 405 406 because the lower carbon input requires a lower carbon turnover rate to reach equilibrium (see Section 2.1 in the Supporting Material in Van Oost et al. (2) which 407 showed that k_0 changes proportionally with I_B when the carbon pool is in a balanced 408 409 state). The results show that F3 reduced by 7.5% and 13.7% when I_B decreased by 70% and 90%. The variation in the estimate of NPP also reflects the uncertainty 410 induced by different levels of carbon input. Here, values for NPP were extracted 411 from the CLM4C, CLM4CN, HYLAND-v4, LPJ, LPJ GUESS, ORCHIDEE, 412 SDGVM, TRIFFID, VEGAS-2.1 and OCN models, and the erosion-induced CO2 413 fluxes in China calculated accordingly. Table S12 shows that inputs from the 414 ORVHIDEE model with the largest mean NPP (0.42 kg/m²/yr) produced the largest 415 total carbon sequestration of 64.6 Mt C/yr based on the erosion data from the 2nd 416 National Survey in 1995–1996 and 53.2 Mt C/yr based on the erosion data from the 417

4th National Survey in 2010–2012. However, parameters derived from the CLM4C 418 model with the lowest mean NPP (0.30 kg/m²/yr) generated the lowest CO₂ 419 420 absorption of 28.1 Mt C/yr and 29.2 Mt C/yr based on the two national surveys in 1995–1996 and 2010–2012, respectively. The SDGVM, HYLAND-v4 and 421 LPJ GUESS models with NPP close to the average level of the ten models gave 422 results that most closely fitted the average values of CO₂ absorption, with errors less 423 than 5%. Parameters from SDGVM and HYLAND-v4 models led to best fits, whereas 424 those from CLM4C, ORCHIDEE, VEGAS-2.1 and OCN models produced results 425 426 with errors > 20%. It should be noted that as SOC declines due to continuous erosion, k_0 from these models could be over-estimated (8). However, since the mean 427 k_0 of each model changes within a narrow range (0.02–0.04 yr⁻¹), k_0 should contribute 428 429 little to the variation of the outputs of the ten models.

430 A sensitivity analysis has been carried out to examine the uncertainty induced by NPP. The results indicate that NPP is positively correlated to CO₂ flux; when NPP is 431 altered by 20%, the relative change in CO₂ sink intensity is about 29%. Similarly, 432 the erosion rate is also positively related to CO₂ flux, and a 20% change in erosion 433 rate would lead to a 23% change in CO₂ sink intensity. 434 However, the carbon turnover rate and carbon content in the surface layers are negatively correlated, and 435 436 less sensitive. A 20% change in carbon turnover rate and surface soil carbon content leads to 13% and 9% changes in CO₂ sink intensity, respectively. 437

Another source of uncertainty is introduced by the assumption that erosion doesnot influence the rate of SOC decomposition, which is problematic at the timescale of

440 decades; instead, a conceptual model should link k_O and k_E . However, little 441 quantitative information is yet available to develop such a model. Furthermore, 442 studies have shown that accurate predictions of both SOC density profiles and SOC 443 quality can be obtained from simulations where k_O is assumed to be independent of k_E 444 (see Wang et al., (42), Nadeu et al., (43), Lugato et al., (44)). We therefore suggest 445 that the assumption of independence is reasonable, particularly for a large-scale 446 modelling assessment.

As another source of vertical loss, DOC leaching from topsoil has been ignored in 447 the present approach. As suggested by Li et al. (45), Long et al. (46), and Gou et al. 448 (47), the DOC leaching potential ranges from 3.8-8.7 kg/ha (in other words, 449 0.55-0.96 Mt C/yr). Based an empirical formula previously developed for hillslope 450 croplands in China, which assumed that DOC leaching depends directly on 451 452 precipitation, the DOC leaching potential throughout China has also been estimated to be 0.94 Mt C/yr, using the yearly averaged precipitation data from 1995 to 2012. 453 The foregoing results indicate that the potential DOC leaching flux in China is 454 negligible compared with F3. 455

- 456

457 *3.2 Carbon content in the surficial layer*

The carbon content in the surficial layer is regarded as constant (obtained from the surficial 4.5 cm layer of soil obtained from the national survey) to calculate F1, F2, and F4. In areas of the Erosion Grade 2 or 3 (erosion rate = 0.74-1.90 mm/yr,

1.90–3.70 mm/yr, respectively) which cover the majority of the surface area of China, 461 the 4.5 cm surficial layer has not been eroded during the period of interest, and it is 462 463 reasonable to assume that the top layer carbon content remains constant. However. in areas where erosion rate larger than 0.37 mm/a, F1, F2, and F4 could possibly be 464 overestimated, consequently leading to a relatively lower VLC ratio. 465 This implies that the lateral carbon fluxes could be lower, and the ability of recovering lost carbon 466 could be even higher in North China (inclusive of the Loess Plateau) and Southwest 467 China (in the Upper Yangtze) (48). 468

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694	



Year T_1

Target Year T_2



Fig. S1. Comparison between Van Oost et al.'s (2) and modified methods based on data from small watersheds in China and Europe.



Fig. S2. Flow chart showing how the initial SOC profile is determined.



Fig. S3. Generation of the minimum polygon.



Fig. S4. Spatial distribution of different soil types in China, produced using ArcGIS 10.0 software.



Fig. S5. (a) Nine sub-regions in China and (b) Zonation map for water erosion grades in China based on data from National Survey of Soil Erosion in 1995–1996 (CC: Central China; IM: Inner Mongolia; NC: North China; NE: Northeast China; NW: Northwest China; SC: South China; SE: Southeast China; SW: Southwest China; TP: Tibet Plateau)



Fig. S6. Distribution of (a) K-value as an indicator of soil erodibility; (b) percentage of precipitation in wet season in China (from April to September); and (c) agricultural land.



Fig. S7. Locations of the 675 Meteorology Stations in China.

	Total Area	Erosio	nal Area	F	1	F	52	F	3	F	4	F	5	F1	-F2	F3 – (F	⁷ 4+F5)
Region	Iotal Alea	106	km ²	Mt C	C/yr	Mt	C/yr	Mt C	C/yr	Mt C	C/yr	Mt C/yr		Mt C/yr		Mt (C/yr
	M km ²	1 ^a	2 ^b	1ª	2 ^b	1 ^a	2 ^b										
	0.50	0.09	0.07	9.70	6.00	5.80	4.20	3.84	2.85	0.12	0.08	0.14	0.07	3.90	1.90	3.59	2.70
tt	9.50	0.08	0.07	±4.30	±2.70	±3.40	±2.50	±1.26	±1.38	± 0.07	± 0.04	± 0.08	± 0.04	±2.30	±1.10	± 1.40	±1.46
IN A	1 1 4	0.15	0.10	12.80	5.40	7.70	4.20	1.90	1.03	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03	5.10	1.20	1.83	0.96
IIVI	1.14	0.15	0.10	±5.70	±2.40	±4.60	±2.50	±1.28	±0.61	± 0.02	± 0.02	± 0.02	± 0.02	±30	±0.70	±1.32	±0.65
NC	0.00	0.20	0.21	25.50	12.50	8.70	7.40	12.80	6.10	0.07	0.05	0.11	0.05	16.80	5.10	12.62	6.00
NC	0.90	0.30	0.21	± 11.30	± 5.60	±5.20	± 4.40	±9.03	±4.25	± 0.04	±0.03	±0.07	±0.03	±9.90	±3.00	±9.14	±4.31
NE	0.70	0.15	0.15	19.90	21.50	14.00	13.40	3.59	6.10	0.12	0.11	0.11	0.12	5.90	8.10	3.37	5.87
INE	0.79	0.15	0.15 0.15	± 8.80	± 9.60	± 8.30	± 7.90	± 1.89	± 2.94	± 0.07	± 0.06	± 0.06	± 0.07	± 3.50	± 4.80	± 2.02	±3.07
2.10	2 10	0.28 0.17	0.17	26.70	13.80	12.80	9.10	3.91	1.39	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.01	13.90	4.70	3.86	1.36
IN W	w 2.10		0.17	± 11.90	± 6.20	± 7.60	± 5.40	± 3.58	±1.36	± 0.01	± 0.01	± 0.02	± 0.01	± 8.20	± 2.80	±3.61	±1.38
SC.	0.45	0.01	0.00	0.70	6.00	0.60	4.70	1.20	2.20	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.11	0.20	1.30	1.02	1.98
SC	0.43	0.01	0.08	±0.30	±2.70	±0.30	±2.80	±1.14	±1.73	±0.05	±0.06	±0.05	±0.07	±0.10	±0.80	±1.25	±1.86
SE	0.00	0.07	6.40	4.40	4.60	4.10	4.69	3.41	0.17	0.10	0.25	0.09	1.80	0.40	4.27	3.22	
SE	0.08	0.07	0.07	±2.90	± 2.00	± 2.80	± 2.40	±2.53	± 1.85	± 0.09	± 0.06	±0.15	± 0.05	± 1.10	±0.20	± 2.78	±1.95
SW	1 1 2	0.46	0.21	67.00	40.50	33.70	18.40	17.91	17.30	0.28	0.23	0.32	0.26	33.30	22.10	17.31	16.81
5 W	1.15	0.40	0.51	± 29.80	± 18.00	± 20.00	± 10.90	± 5.02	± 5.54	±0.15	±0.13	±0.19	±0.16	± 19.70	±13.10	±5.37	±5.82
тр	1.02	0.11	0.10	57.50	23.00	24.60	17.50	2.21	1.56	0.10	0.06	0.12	0.06	32.90	5.50	2.00	1.44
IP	1.92	0.11	0.11 0.10	±25.60	± 10.20	± 14.60	± 10.40	±2.10	±1.52	±0.05	±0.04	±0.07	±0.03	± 19.50	±3.20	±2.23	±1.59
SUM	0.50	1.61	1 26	226.30	133.20	112.50	82.90	52.05	41.94	1.00	0.80	1.20	0.80	113.80	50.30	49.85	40.34
SUW	9.30	1.01	1.20	± 100.70	± 59.30	± 66.80	±49.20	±27.84	±21.17	±0.56	±0.44	±0.72	±0.48	± 67.30	± 29.80	±29.11	±22.09
Average		1.	.44	179.80	±80.00	97.70=	±58.00	47.00±	=24.50	0.90±	=0.50	1.00±	=0.60	82.00	±48.60	45.10±	=25.60

Table S1. Regional distribution of the five flux components for each sub-region

a: based on the erosion data from the 2nd National Survey in 1995–1996

b: based on the erosion data from the 4th National Survey in 2010–2012.

Basin	Drainage Area (km ²)	Sediment Delivery Mt/yr	POC Flux (Tg/yr)	DOC Flux (Tg/yr)	Observation Year(s)	Reference
Yangtze River	1,705,383	407.9	1.520	1.580	2009	(49)
Yellow River	752,032	766.6	0.389	0.032	2009	(49)
Helongjiang	-	-	-	1.570	2009–2010	(50)
Songhua Jiang	528,300	407.9	0.266	-	2003–2009	(51)
Pearl Delta	-	-	0.500	0.400	2005–2006	(52)
Pearl River	415,200	766.6	2.500	1.130	2012	(53)
Liao River	120,764	11.1	0.048	0.022	2005	(54)
Hai River	95,971	8.0	0.038	0.038	2005	(54)
Huai River	131,600	10.5	0.150	-	2003–2009	(51)

Table S2. POC and DOC fluxes of seven major rivers in China

Erosion Grade	Erosion Modulus (t·km ⁻² ·a ⁻¹)	Erosion Rate (mm·a ⁻¹)	SDR Grade
1 (Slight)	< 200, 500, 1000	< 0.15, 0.37, 0.74	-
2 (Light)	200, 500, 1000–2500	0.15, 0.37, 0.74–1.90	0.1–0.3
3 (Moderate)	2500-5000	1.90-3.70	0.3–0.5
4 (Intense)	5000-8000	3.70-5.90	0.5–0.7
5 (Extremely Intense)	8000-15000	5.90-11.10	0.7–0.9
6 (Severe)	> 15000	> 11.10	0.9–1.0

Table S3. Conversion from erosion grade to erosion rate, with corresponding SDR range (1, 25).

Site	Region	Erosion Grade	SDR	Reference
Wuding Basin	North China	VI	1.00	(55)
Loess Plateau	North China	VI	1.00	(56)
Yangdaogou	North China	VI	1.00	(57)
Liujia Basin	North China	VI	0.91	(58)
Dali Basin	North China	V	0.80-1.31	(59)
Middle Yellow River	North China	IV	0.70-1.00	(60)
West Han Basin	South China	IV	0.66	(61)
Pearl Basin	South China	III	0.36-0.41	(62)
Han Basin	South China	II	0.27-0.55	(62)
Yongding Basin	North China	II	0.26	(63)
Hainan Province	South China	II	0.26-0.62	(62)
Shannxi Province	Northwest	II	0.24-0.59	(64)
Lanxi Basin	South China	II	0.20-0.35	(65)
Jiangling Basin	Southwest	II	0.14-0.61	(66)
Songhuajiang Basin	Northeast	II	0.12	(67)
Lizi Basin	Southwest	II	0.11-0.27	(68)
Chaobai Basin	North China	II	0.10-0.26	(69)
Yan Mountain	North China	II	0.15-0.69	(70)

Table S4. Summary of values of available *SDR* in representative areas throughout China

Reference	Region	Location	Published SOC removal	F1 in this paper	Published SOC deposition	F2 in this paper	
			kg/k	am²/yr	kg/k	.m²/yr	
(71)	SW	102°34'E,	21 220	11,112–45,2			
(71)	5 W	25°6' N	21,330	21	-	-	
(72)	CC	27°05'N,	22 150	20,244-46,0			
(72)	CC	112°18'E	33,150	58	-	-	
	NC	109°27'E,	16.220	10,271–24,0			
(73)		36°26′N	16,320	80	-	-	
	NC	36°58′N,	8,942	6,629–14,51	-		
(74)		109°11′E		3		-	
(12)	NE	125°16′E,	42,600	12,811-67,5	-		
(13)		48°42′N		33		-	
		109°13′E,			14 (00	9,690-22,71	
(75)	NC	36°42′N	-	-	14,690	7	
(12)		125°16′E,			22 500	8,585-58,76	
(13)	NE	48°42′N	-	-	32,500	2	
		44.7°N,			10.004	13,505-52,0	
(76)	NE	125.9°E	-	-	18,994	14	

Table S5. Comparison of F1 and F2 components with data on SOC removal and deposition collected from small watersheds in different regions throughout China.

	1990s			2010s		
Drowings	Cropland	Crop	Crop	Cropland	Crop	Crop
Province	Area	Yield	Yield/Area	Area	Yield	Yield/Area
	$(10^3 ha)$	$(10^3 t)$	(kg/ha)	(10 ³ ha)	$(10^3 t)$	(kg/ha)
Beijing	427	2,374	5,560	194	1,138	5,871
Tianjin	451	2,070	4,585	323	1,618	5,009
Hebei	7,137	27,895	3,909	6,302	32,466	5,151
Shanxi	3,243	10,771	3,322	3,292	12,741	3,871
Inner Mong.	4,424	15,353	3,470	5,589	25,285	4,524
Liaoning	3,073	16,601	5,403	3,217	20,705	6,436
Jilin	3,624	23,266	6,420	4,610	33,430	7,251
Heilongjiang	7,778	30,466	3,917	11,520	57,615	5,002
Shanghai	357	2,263	6,332	188	1,213	6,465
Jiangsu	5,877	34,764	5,915	5,337	33,725	6,320
Zhejiang	2,877	15,168	5,272	1,252	7,698	6,151
Anhui	6,028	26,741	4,436	6,622	32,891	4,967
Fujian	2,032	9,522	4,687	1,223	6,593	5,390
Jiangxi	3,570	17,663	4,947	3,676	20,848	5,672
Shandong	8,237	43,327	5,260	7,202	45,114	6,264
Henan	8,964	38,399	4,283	9,985	56,386	5,647
Hubei	4,880	24,844	5,091	4,180	24,418	5,842
Hunan	5,133	27,015	5,263	4,908	30,065	6,126
Guangdong	3,524	18,392	5,219	2,540	13,963	5,497
Guangxi	3,708	15,093	4,071	3,069	14,849	4,838
Hainan	572	1,977	3,459	439	1,995	4,549
Chongqing	-	-	-	2,260	11,385	5,039
Sichuan	10,027	44,957	4,484	6,468	33,150	5,125
Guizhou	2,890	10,126	3,504	3,054	10,795	3,534
Yunnan	3,698	12,462	3,370	4,439	17,491	3,940
Tibet	192	777	4,049	171	950	5,543
Shannxi	4,053	12,173	3,004	3,128	12,451	3,981
Gansu	2,925	8,206	2,805	2,839	11,097	3,908
Qinghai	395	1,238	3,136	280	1,015	3,623
Ningxia	782	2,579	3,299	828	3,750	4,528
Xinjiang	1,661	8,053	4,849	2,131	12,730	5,973
Summary	112,537	504,535	4,483	111,267	589,571	5,299

Table S6. Crop yields of 31 provinces in the 1990s and 2010s (i.e.: 2010–2015)*

*: Source from Thematic Database for Human-earth System: <u>http://www.data.ac.cn/index.asp</u> and National Bureau of Statistics, PR China: <u>http://www.stats.gov.cn/english/</u>

Table S7. Data inputs for Van Oost et al.'s (2) and modified methods for calculating F3.

Data Tura	Van Oost et	al.'s Method	Modified Method			
Data Type	Data	Inputs derived	Data	Inputs derived		
	Vertical distribution of SOC	C_{T-NE} , c_{top-t} in equation (10)	Vartical distribution of SOC concentration in	, in equation (14)		
SOC	concentration in stable area.	$D_{top}, c_{bel-(t-1)}$ in equation (11)	ventear distribution of SOC concentration in	All parameters in equation (14)		
	SOC storage in eroded area	C_{T-E} in equation (10)	- eroded area.			
Erosion	Erosion rate	v_{ero} in equation (10)	Erosion rate	k_E , v_{ero} in equation (14)		
Area	Eroded area	A_i in equation (12)	Eroded area	A in equation (15)		
Timo	Longth of orogion pariod	T in equation (12)	From when soil profiles are sampled to any	T in equation (15)		
Time	Length of crosson period	T in equation (12)	year interested			
Others			NPP and carbon pool turnover rate	I_B and k_O in equations (13) and (14)		

 Table S8. Input layers for minimum polygon generation.

Input layers	Data description	Source	
National survey of soil erosion in 1005, 1006	370,507 polygons covering the ~9,600,000 $\rm km^2$ land were divided into six	Ministry of Water Descurees	
National survey of son crosion in 1993–1990.	grades of Slight, Light, Moderate, Intense, Extremely Intense, and Severe.	withstry of water Resources	
National survey of soil erosion in 2010, 2012	Areas of the six grades (Slight, Light, Moderate, Intense, Extremely Intense,	Ministry of Water Resources	
National survey of son erosion in 2010–2012.	and Severe) are given for each of the 2,275 counties in China.		
National survey of soil organic matter	7,251 soil profiles were sampled at 2–9 layers.	Institute of Soil Sciences, CAS	
NPP	Extracted from 10 models (see Table S12) with 1°×1° resolution.	-	
Turnover rate of soil carbon pool	Extracted from 10 models (see Table S12) with 1°×1° resolution.		

Country	т	D_{samp}	¹³⁷ Cs _{ref}	C_{θ}	k	c_{min}/c_0	ko	NPP	¹³⁷ Cs	SOC	Vero	E2 w	E2 m	Pof
Country	1	m	Bq m ⁻²	g/m ³	m ⁻¹	-	yr-1	kg/m²/a	Bq m ⁻²	g m ⁻²	mm/a	Г З- V	r3-m	Kei
Spain	66	0.44	1,870	8,255	5.00	0.004	0.040	0.10	2,316-6,008	2,997/±1,144	3.77	2.5	3.5	
Portugal	66	0.21	1,800	12,399	7.10	0.085	0.040	0.10	2,163-5,351	2,570/±1,058	2.33	5.7	2.8	
UK	55	0.49	2,500	16,562	4.30	0.040	0.020	0.10	2,752-6,200	6,630/±1,098	2.17	5.2	1.9	
Spain	66	0.50	1,870	9,056	5.00	0.050	0.030	0.10	2,264-4,532	3,617/±1,312	3.46	3.2	1.5	
Belgium	80	0.50	3,400	9,161	4.50	0.060	0.040	0.10	4,212-7,403	3,540/±938	2.47	2.4	2.2	(2)
Denmark	68	0.45	2,430	21,808	3.90	0.020	0.010	0.10	2,746-4,321	8,461/±938	2.25	5.2	3.1	(2)
Belgium	100	0.50	3,228	12,225	5.10	0.110	0.030	0.10	3,561-4,430	4,633/±734	1.22	1.6	1.0	
Greece	74	0.20	6,367	8,465	5.40	0.004	0.070	0.10	7,650–12,853	1,728/±428	1.94	0.7	0.6	
USA	143	0.30	2,470	32,040	4.20	0.059	0.010	0.10	332-2,684	9,329/±1,951	2.43	5.7	7.7	
USA	143	0.30	2,470	32,555	4.20	0.059	0.010	0.10	675-2,709	9,480/±1,856	2.20	5.7	6.4	
China	99	0.50	2,377	22,431	0.83	0.001	0.032	0.44	1,052-1,772	9,284–14,251	1.20-3.40	4.4	4.1	(13)
China	70	0.80	-	3,189	5.41	0.420	0.032	0.54	-	1,984	1.75	2.0	1.7	(14)
China	54	0.30	1,769	11,236	4.20	0.001	0.067	0.74	353-1,539	1,400–4,600	0.45-4.35	17.2	17.8	(15)
China	57	0.30	1,259	10,947	4.20	0.001	0.067	0.74	539-1,075	2,200-4,290	0.45-2.25	6.0	4.3	(16)
China	50	0.30	1,113	19,822	3.11	0.001	0.083	0.85	158–938	3,047-6,683	0.45-8.20	16.5	11.9	(17)

Table S9. ¹³⁷Cs, carbon inventory of soil profiles, and outputs from Van Oost et al.'s (2) method and present modified method.

D_{samp}: Depth of each sample profile.

¹³⁷Cs_{ref}. ¹³⁷Cs content in the reference profile of each watershed.

*v*_{ero}: Erosion velocity.

 c_0 : SOC content in the surface layer.

k: parameter of vertical distribution of SOC profile, see equation (17).

 c_{min}/c_0 : parameter of vertical distribution of SOC profile, see equation (17).

*k*₀: turnover rate of soil carbon.

NPP: Net Primary Product.

F3-v and F3-m: F3 calculated from Van Oost et al.'s and the modified methods. Unit: g C/m²/yr

D		Observed Erosion Rate	Error	References	
Region	Modeled Erosion Rate (t/hm²/yr)	(t/hm²/yr)	(%)		
	10.80	8.00	-25.7		
	13.30	9.90	-25.1		
	48.10	22.00	-54.2		
	24.50	8.80	-64.0		
	42.70	39.80	-6.7		
North China	21.80	16.40	-24.7		
	5.60	7.10	26.6	(77)	
	189.50	240.40	26.8		
	33.00	37.70	14.1		
	49.60	48.70	-1.7		
	73.60	84.30	14.5		
	72.50	64.70	-10.8		
	69.00	80.60	16.8		
	53.42	51.95	-2.8		
	0.12	0.12	0.0		
	0.20	0.18	-10.0		
	0.16	0.17	6.3		
	0.06	0.06	0.0		
Sauth China	0.10	0.09	-10.0	(79)	
South China	25.68	22.59	-12.0	(78)	
	0.08	0.09	12.5		
	0.23	0.24	4.3		
	7.32	7.44	1.6		
	0.21	0.22	4.8		
	0.66	0.67	1.5		
	40.10				
	53.70				
	49.40				
	12.10				
	33.60				
Northeast	21.70		-14.7-7.6	(79)	
	21.60				
	12.60				
	12.00				
	23.90				
	31.90				
Southwest	2.69	2.56	-4.8	(80)	
East China	32.39	16.47-27.45	-15.349.2	(81)	

Table S10. Validation of CSLE using data from different regions in China

Drovings	Erosion Area (km ²)								
Province -	Light	Moderate	Intense	Extremely Intense	Severe				
Beijing	1,746	1,031	341	70	14				
Tianjin	108	60	59	6	3				
Hebei	22,397	13,087	4,565	1,464	622				
Shanxi	26,707	24,172	14,069	4,277	1,058				
Inner Mongolia	68,480	20,300	10,118	2,923	577				
Liaoning	21,975	12,005	6,456	2,769	783				
Jilin	17,297	9,044	4,342	2,777	1,284				
Heilongjiang	36,161	18,343	11,657	5,459	1,631				
Shanghai	2	2	0	0	0				
Jiangsu	2,068	595	367	133	14				
Zhejiang	6,929	2,060	582	177	159				
Anhui	6,925	4,207	1,953	660	154				
Fujian	6,655	3,215	1,615	428	268				
Jiangxi	14,896	7,558	3,158	776	109				
Shandong	14,926	6,634	3,542	1,727	424				
Henan	10,180	7,444	4,028	1,444	368				
Hubei	20,732	10,272	3,637	1,573	689				
Hunan	19,615	8,687	2,515	1,019	452				
Guangdong	8,886	6,925	3,535	1,629	330				
Guangxi	22,633	14,395	7,371	4,804	1,334				
Hainan	1,171	666	190	45	44				
Chongqing	10,644	9,520	5,189	4,356	1,654				
Sichuan	48,480	35,854	15,573	9,748	4,765				
Guizhou	27,700	16,356	6,012	2,960	2,241				
Yuannan	44,876	34,764	15,860	8,963	5,125				
Xizang	28,650	23,637	5,929	2,084	1,302				
Shaanxi	48,221	2,124	14,679	4,569	1,214				
Gansu	30,263	25,455	12,866	5,407	2,121				
Qinghai	26,563	10,003	3,858	2,179	202				
Ningxia	6,816	4,281	2,065	526	203				
Xinjiang	64,895	18,752	2,556	1,320	98				
Sum	667,597	351,448	168,687	76,272	29,242				

 Table S11. Summary of graded areas from National Survey of Soil Erosion in 2010–2012 (29)

Parameter	Average	Average	Std.	Std.	$F3^{b}$		
Source	N()		deviation of ko	deviation of NPP	5 0/111 / 51		
	1/yr	kg C/m²/yr			1	2	
CLM4C	0.04	0.30	0.03	0.32	28.1	29.2	
CLM4CN	0.04	0.35	0.03	0.36	40.9	38.0	
HYLAND-v4	0.03	0.34	0.03	0.36	55.4	42.5	
LPJ	0.03	0.30	0.03	0.25	43.2	34.2	
LPJ_GUESS	0.03	0.39	0.03	0.21	55.5	38.6	
ORCHIDEE	0.04	0.42	0.02	0.35	64.6	53.2	
SDGVM	0.03	0.36	0.03	0.28	50.1	39.2	
TRIFFID	-0.03	0.36	0.13	0.46	56.5	52.8	
VEGAS-2.1	0.03	0.41	0.02	0.27	62.0	51.4	
OCN	0.03	0.34	0.02	0.34	54.7	50.7	
Average ^a					51.1	43.0	

Table S12. Statistics of k_0 , NPP and erosion-induced CO₂ fluxes based on parameters derived from ten land carbon models (see References 31–41).

a: Averaged fluxes calculated from 10 land carbon models.

b: F3(1) is based on the erosion data from the 2^{nd} National Survey in 1995–1996; F3(3) is based on the erosion data from the 4^{th} National Survey in 2010–2012.

Parameter	Carbon Flux	Unit	Description	Equation	Data source	
	F1, F3	1 / 2	Organic carbon content in the top 4.5 cm soil	(1), (16)	Organic carbon content in the 1 st layer of each soil	
CSOC-top F4, F5		kg/m³	layer	(17), (19)	sample in the Global Soil Dataset.	
	<i>V_{ero}</i> F1, F3 F4, F5		Erosion rate	(1), (13), (14),	Middle point of the range of erosion rate for each grade	
Vero			LIUSION Tate	(17), (19)	when point of the range of crosion rate for each grade.	
I_B	F3	gC/m²/yr	Carbon input to the soil	(13), (14)	Mean values of NPP from ten global carbon models.	
ko	F3, F4,	1/vr	Turnover rate of soil carbon (13) (14) (2	(13) (14) (20)	Mean values of k_0 from ten global carbon models	
	F5	1/ y1	rumover rate of son carbon	(15), (14), (20)		
k_E	F3	1/yr	Frosion rate of soil carbon	(14)	Erosion rate, vero, divided by the depth of soil layer	
		1/ 91			which dominates erosion.	
Cmin/CSOC-top	Ε2		Ratio of organic carbon content in the top	(16) (17)	Fit based on SOC profiles from the Global Soil Dataset	
	15	-	layer to that in the bottom layer	(10), (17)	following the process in Fig. S2.	
k —	E2	1/200		(16) (17)	Fit based on SOC profiles from the Global Soil Dataset	
	F3) I/m	Attenuation coefficient of SOC profile	(10), (17)	following the process in Fig. S2.	

Table S13. Summary of parameters used in equations for calculating the five flux components.