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5 **The underestimated global importance of plant belowground coarse organs in**
6 **open biomes for ecosystem functioning and conservation**

7
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24 **Highlights**

- 25 • Open biomes, where plants typically allocate most of their biomass belowground, cover
26 ~60% of land worldwide, and are associated with many biodiversity hotspots
- 27 • Yet, the role played by belowground coarse organs in ecosystem functioning (e.g., carbon
28 cycling) and their importance for biodiversity conservation remain overlooked
- 29 • Perenniality and decomposability of belowground coarse organs differ greatly from that
30 of fine roots
- 31 • We call for the inclusion of belowground coarse organs and their functions into carbon
32 cycling research in open biomes
- 33 • Such comprehensive approach can refine climate change mitigation policies and our view
34 on the functioning and conservation of open biomes

35

36 **Abstract**

37 Open biomes such as grasslands, savannas, shrublands are associated with many global
38 biodiversity hotspots, and cover ~60% of land globally. Yet, extensive and increasing
39 anthropogenic activities threaten [their](#) functioning and biodiversity. Here, we argue that, in open
40 biomes, researchers and stakeholders (e.g., policy-makers, practitioners) should more
41 comprehensively [acknowledge](#) that more than half of [a plant's biomass is typically](#) located
42 belowground. Not only fine roots but different belowground coarse organs of plants (e.g., thick
43 roots, rhizomes) play key ecosystem functions that have been largely neglected in basic and
44 applied ecology. By more accurately accounting for the distribution of these organs along
45 [ecological](#) gradients, their biomass turnover and decomposition rate, we would improve
46 estimates of carbon cycling (core in climate change mitigation policies) as well as ameliorating
47 conservation efforts focused on open biomes worldwide.

48

49 **Setting the scene: The global importance of open biomes for ecosystem functioning and**
50 **conservation**

51 Grassy and shrubby open biomes – including grasslands, savannas, and shrublands –
52 shaped by recurrent disturbance regimes (e.g., fire, grazing; Durigan and Ratter, 2016), cover
53 ~60% of land globally (Dinerstein et al., 2017; Ottaviani et al., 2020). Open biomes are also rich
54 [in endemic species and](#) thus have [a](#) particularly high conservation value (Murphy et al., 2016),
55 and are associated with almost half of the global biodiversity hotspots (Myers et al., 2000;
56 Hopper et al., 2021). Yet, open biomes are experiencing severe threats (Bardgett et al. 2021; Parr
57 et al., 2014; Strömberg and Staver, 2022), which are also linked to the prevailing, and still
58 persisting paradigm that considers them degraded early stages of forest succession, suitable for

59 conversion to intensive agriculture or afforestation (for an overview, see Veldman et al., 2015;
60 Veldman, 2016). The critical importance for ecosystem functioning, climate change mitigation,
61 and biodiversity conservation of open biomes has been historically ignored despite repeated calls
62 by the scientific community (e.g., Bond, 2019; Buisson et al., 2022; Veldman et al., 2015).

63 Plants in open biomes are adapted to fire, grazing, and/or drought, which can operate as
64 eco-evolutionary forces shaping plant functional strategies (Maurin et al., 2014; Simon et al.,
65 2009). The extent to which these adaptations give plant species in open biomes sufficient
66 capacity to cope with exacerbating environmental conditions and changing regimes – such as
67 more severe fires and heat waves, and rising temperatures – is currently unknown. These
68 adaptations include resource-conservative strategies, characterized by considerable allocation of
69 biomass belowground in specialized coarse organs that can store large pools of carbohydrates (of
70 different types) and shelter buds that can [regenerate](#) aboveground biomass after disturbance (e.g.,
71 Pausas et al., 2018; Simon et al. 2009; Ottaviani et al., 2020). These plant organs and related
72 strategies promote key ecosystem functions, including biomass production, soil stabilization, and
73 carbon sequestration in the soil (Klimešová et al., 2018, 2021, 2023; Ottaviani et al., 2021;
74 Teixeira et al., 2022). Nevertheless, belowground coarse organs (BCOs) have been largely
75 overlooked in basic and applied ecology as well as in climate change mitigation research.

76 In this piece, BCOs refer to any plant organ located belowground, other than fine roots,
77 (e.g., thick roots, rhizomes, lignotubers, xylopodia, bulbs; Klimešová et al., 2018). We use BCOs
78 inclusively, because our aim is to call for a broader assessment of the [importance](#) of BCOs in
79 [open biomes' dynamics, functioning, and biodiversity conservation](#), rather than to redefine well-
80 established terms and notions in the literature – such as belowground bud bank and clonal organs
81 (Klimešová et al., 2019; Pausas et al., 2018) or underground storage organs (Wigley et al., 2020).

82 We address the relevance of open biomes for ecosystem functioning, with a particular
83 reference to the core function of soil carbon cycling and the role played by plant BCOs. We
84 discuss how underestimating the belowground dimension (e.g., by focusing on fine roots only)
85 can undermine our capacity to assess and value ecosystem functioning as well as to support
86 conservation actions in open biomes. **Finally**, we provide our perspective on the need to gather
87 more realistic and accurate estimates of the contribution of all belowground organs to ecosystem
88 functioning in globally distributed open biomes.

89

90 **Digging deeper (and coarser) into the soil carbon cycling of open biomes**

91 There is growing recognition that open biomes play major roles in carbon cycling
92 globally (Bengtsson et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020). Particular attention has been devoted to
93 belowground carbon storage and sequestration to explore the potential of grasslands, savannas,
94 and shrublands in mitigating climate change. For example, a recent study estimated that
95 grasslands account for nearly a third of global terrestrial carbon stocks (Bai and Cotrufo, 2022).
96 It is now widely acknowledged that carbon storage in open biomes is chiefly happening
97 belowground (Fidelis et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2022), therefore carbon cycling could only be
98 poorly assessed by remote sensing (Cavender-Bares et al., 2022). **For example**, grassland soils
99 contain 80 to 94% of the total carbon pool as soil organic carbon and in plant organs located
100 belowground (Liu et al., 2023).

101 Nevertheless, studies examining plant-soil interactions and their effects in the carbon
102 cycle are often directed towards fine roots only, overlooking the contribution of BCOs in carbon
103 storage and cycling (see e.g., Bai and Cotrufo, 2022). BCOs perform multiple key functions for
104 the plant, such as 1) storage of carbohydrates and buds for sprouting after seasonal rest and

105 regeneration after major disturbances (e.g., drought, fire, herbivory), 2) space exploration and
106 occupancy, 3) resource absorption by determining the location of fine roots, and 4) anchorage in
107 the soil (Bell and Tomlinson, 1980; Klimešová et al., 2018). BCOs can account for a substantial
108 component of plant community biomass in open biomes (Mokany et al., 2006; see **Table 1**),
109 which is often higher than that of fine roots (Blume-Werry et al., 2018) and aboveground
110 biomass (Ottaviani et al., 2020; **Table 1**), and are integral to belowground litter and carbon
111 cycle. Despite their relevance, BCOs are understudied in plant ecology at large (compared to
112 stems, leaves, seeds, or fine roots; Laliberté, 2017; Klimešová et al., 2020), and their role in
113 carbon cycle is rarely examined even though the mechanisms and decomposition rate can differ
114 greatly between belowground plant organs (e.g., Amougou et al., 2011). This constitutes, in our
115 opinion, a significant gap that needs to be better addressed in future studies and policies.

116 We highlight here three main reasons why BCOs should be taken into account to better
117 understand their contribution and potential effects on the overall carbon cycle in open biomes.
118 We use rhizomes as an example because these organs are very common across species forming
119 grassy and shrubby biomes, and therefore tend to be more studied than tubers, lignotubers,
120 xylopodia, or bulbs (but see Pausas et al., 2018; Meller et al., 2022; Tsakalos et al., 2022).
121 However, the same reasoning applies to the other BCOs. First, rhizomes may account for a
122 conspicuous amount of plant biomass at the community level in open biomes that may equal or
123 exceed aboveground biomass (**Table 1**). Rhizome biomass of an individual plant increases
124 during establishment until it reaches maturity (Bell and Tomlinson, 1980). Ancient open
125 ecosystems may host old, developed, large individual plants with rhizomes of remarkable
126 biomass that has been accumulated over several growing seasons (Buisson et al., 2022). Rhizome
127 biomass may scale linearly with aboveground biomass (slope of the scaling relationship ~ 1 ;

128 Ottaviani et al., 2021), possibly due to accumulation over seasons being balanced by changes in
129 decomposition rate with age (for herbs, see Harris et al., 2023), and the rhizome:aboveground
130 biomass ratio can be highly species-specific. Second, the perenniality of BCOs may vary across
131 environmental gradients. For example, rhizomes tend to be more persistent with a slower
132 biomass turnover under drier and more nutrient-limited conditions, which may lead to a higher
133 standing rhizome biomass in arid and low-productive temperate grasslands (Klimešová et al.,
134 2018, 2023). Additionally, rhizomes contribute to soil organic carbon fraction and litter
135 decomposability differently than roots because of different tissue composition between these
136 belowground organs (hence recalcitrance to decomposition; Amougou et al., 2011). Third,
137 rhizome biomass can be markedly reduced by even slight increases in grassland management
138 intensity (Ottaviani et al., 2021) – with implications for other plant and ecosystem functions
139 specifically provided by rhizomes, such as storage of carbohydrates and buds for vegetative
140 regeneration or protection against erosion (Klimešová et al., 2023), and for species diversity
141 (Lisner et al., 2021). In tropical savannas, where shrub abundance is higher, the relationship
142 between biomass allocation strategies, management, and ecosystem functioning may differ
143 (Fidelis et al., 2013; Teixeira et al., 2022).

144

145 **Improving assessments of belowground functioning and conservation actions in open** 146 **biomes**

147 Standardized protocols to identify BCOs and collect data on these organs are becoming
148 increasingly available (e.g., measuring traits; Klimešová et al., 2019; Pausas et al., 2018; Wigley
149 et al., 2020). These approaches can be readily implemented to improve the accuracy of carbon
150 flux estimates, such as using traits to estimate biomass allocation strategies in different plant

151 organs (e.g., Klimešová et al., 2021). Multiple lines of evidence indicate that incorporation of
152 BCOs contributes to a broader understanding of carbon cycle in open biomes. However, accurate
153 estimates of biomass allocated to BCOs are often missing from the literature (e.g., Bai and
154 Cotrufo, 2022), and particularly in tropical grasslands and savannas, where they play key
155 functional roles (Teixeira et al. 2022). The process of providing benchmarks, against which the
156 outcomes of climate-change mitigation or conservation actions can be compared, may benefit
157 from including summaries of the belowground biomass allocation to different organs in healthy
158 ecosystems – considering that relative abundance and biomass of different BCOs and fine roots
159 can change along environmental gradients (Blume-Werry et al., 2018; Klimešová et al., 2023).

160

161 **Conclusions**

162 Ecosystem functions and biodiversity of open biomes have been historically undervalued
163 by scientists, policy-makers, and the general public. Here, we call for greater consideration of the
164 importance of BCOs in playing key, yet overlooked roles to support nature and people in open
165 biomes worldwide. BCOs take a long time to become fully developed, considerably longer than
166 the time needed for establishment of fine roots (which have a quicker biomass turnover than
167 BCOs), stressing the relevance of protecting ancient open biomes (Buisson et al., 2022; Nerlekar
168 and Veldman, 2020). We argue that these differences in the rate of biomass accumulation and
169 decay should be better considered to design more accurate and effective climate mitigation
170 policies and conservation actions. This calls for rethinking the timing at which the ecosystem
171 health and the management practices are monitored and assessed in open biomes. Otherwise,
172 these will likely fail to deliver the expected outcomes for soil carbon stock and sequestration as
173 well as for biodiversity at the local and global scale.

174

175 **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTION**

176 GO and FAOS conceived the research idea and led the writing of the manuscript. All coauthors
177 contributed to developing the idea and to revisions.

178

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189

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331 **TABLE 1.** Examples of mean values and ratios of community-level rhizome (Rhiz) and aboveground (Above) biomass data in four
332 vegetation types (in italics) from open biomes worldwide. Vegetation types are ordered alphabetically, and within them each study is
333 sorted by an ascending order of Rhiz/Above biomass ratio (in bold).

| Vegetation type | Country | Rhiz biomass [g m⁻²] | Above biomass [g m⁻²] | Rhiz/Above biomass | Reference |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|--|---|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Temperate grassland</i> | | | | | |
| | Czechia | 199 | 372 | 0.54 | Klimešová et al., 2021 |
| | USA (Kansas) | 280 | 430 | 0.65 | Benning and Seastedt, 1997 |
| | The Netherlands | 681 | 810 | 0.84 | Olf et al., 1994 |
| | UK | 204 | 195 | 1.05 | Dickinson and Polwart, 1982 |
| <i>Temperate wetland</i> | | | | | |
| | USA (New York) | 833 | 1091 | 0.76 | Bernard and Fiala, 1986 |
| | Czech Republic | 2430 | 1401 | 1.73 | Fiala, 1976 |
| | Sweden [§] | 1129 | 216 | 5.23 | Sjörs, 1991 |
| <i>Tropical savanna</i> | | | | | |
| | Brazil [†] | 25 | 534 | 0.05 | Fidelis et al., 2013 |
| | Brazil [*] | 882 | 603 | 1.46 | Teixeira et al., 2022 |
| <i>Tundra</i> | | | | | |
| | USA (Alaska) | 55 | 67 | 0.81 | Dennis, 1977 |
| | Sweden [#] | 1034 | 673 | 1.54 | Blume-Werry et al., 2018 |
| | USA (Alaska) | 1055 | 477 | 2.21 | Miller et al., 1982 |

334 [§]This study deals with an [open](#) fen, which we consider here to belong to wetlands, in a broader sense.

335 [†]This study separates roots (including fine and thick ones) vs other belowground organs (e.g., rhizomes, bulbs).

336 ^{*}This study includes different types of belowground coarse organs (i.e., rhizomes, thick roots, xylopodia, bulbs).

337 [#]This study separates fine (≤1 mm diameter) vs coarse (>1 mm diameter) roots, and biomass values were extrapolated from Figure 1 in that paper.