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Citation for published version:

Yue, Q, Ledo, A, Cheng, K, Albanito, F, Lebender, U, Sapkota, TB, Brentrup, F, Stirling, CM, Smith, P, Sun, J, Pan, G & Hillier, J 2018, 'Re-assessing Nitrous Oxide Emissions from Croplands Across Mainland China', *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, vol. 268, pp. 70-78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2018.09.003>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1016/j.agee.2018.09.003](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2018.09.003)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment

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1 **Re-assessing Nitrous Oxide Emissions from Croplands Across Mainland China**

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27 **Key words:** nitrous oxide, crop production, nitrogen fertilizers, greenhouse gas
28 emissions, linear model, data synthesis, China's agriculture

29 **Primary Research Article**

30 **Running head:** Nitrous Oxide Emissions from China's Croplands

31

32

33 **Abstract:** Reliable quantification of nitrous oxide emission is a key to assessing
34 efficiency of use and environmental impacts of N fertilizers in crop production. In this
35 study, N₂O emission and yield were quantified with a database of 853 field
36 measurements in 104 reported studies and a regression model was fitted to the
37 associated environmental attributes and management practices from China's croplands.
38 The fitted emission model explained 48% of the variance in N₂O emissions as a function
39 of fertilizer rate, crop type, temperature, soil clay content, and the interaction between
40 N rate and fertilizer type. With all other variables fixed, N₂O emissions were lower with
41 rice than with legumes and then other upland crops, lower with organic fertilizers than
42 with mineral fertilizers. We used the subset of the dataset for rice - covering a full range
43 of different typical water regimes, and estimated emissions from China's rice
44 cultivation to be 31.1 Gg N₂O-N per year. The fitted yield model explained 35% of the
45 variance in crop yield as a function of fertilizer rate, temperature, crop type, and soil
46 clay content. Finally, the empirical models for N₂O emission and crop yield were
47 coupled to explore the optimum N rates (N rate with minimum N₂O emission per unit
48 yield) for combinations of crop and fertilizer types. Consequently, the optimum N
49 application rate ranged between 100 kg N ha⁻¹ and 190 kg N ha⁻¹ respectively with
50 organic and mineral fertilizers, and different crop types. This study therefore improved
51 on existing empirical methods to estimate N₂O emissions from China's croplands and
52 suggests how N rate may be optimized for different crops, fertilizers and site conditions.

53 **Keywords:** nitrous oxide, croplands, nitrogen fertilizers, greenhouse gas emission,
54 regression model, data synthesis, China's agriculture.

55 **1 Introduction**

56 Nitrogen (N) plays a key role in enhancing food production to support the world's
57 growing population – being an essential nutrient supporting plant growth for food and
58 feed (Zhang et al., 2012; Sutton et al., 2013). Apart from the natural conversion from
59 nitrogen gas (N₂) by lightning fixation and bacterial fixation, reactive nitrogen (Nr) is
60 increasingly produced through the Haber-Bosch process in industry of nitrogen
61 fertilizers developed since early 20th century. Being a pivotal player in crop production,
62 the ever-increased application of N fertilizers had dramatically increased food
63 production albeit at significant environmental cost (Gruber & Galloway, 2008).
64 Fertilized N in cropping systems could find its way to the atmosphere and aquatic
65 systems via ammonia (NH₃) volatilization, leaching of nitrate/nitrite and emission of
66 nitrous oxide (Wrage et al., 2001; Ju et al., 2009). These end-products of lost N are
67 known to cause secondary inorganic aerosol formation and thus haze pollution (Liu et
68 al., 2017), and destruction of the stratospheric ozone layer (Ravishankara et al., 2009),
69 and again impact on human health (Galloway et al., 2008; Farnworth et al., 2017).

70 As a potent greenhouse gas, production and emission of nitrous oxide (N₂O) in global
71 nitrogen (N) cycle is particularly important for climate change (Mosier et al., 1998).
72 With a global warming potential (GWP) approximately 265 times as CO₂ over a 100-
73 year time horizon (IPCC, 2013), N₂O emissions were around 8.4 Tg N₂O yr⁻¹ globally,
74 with, for example, 58% estimated to be contributed by agriculture in 2005 (Smith et al.,
75 2007). Since global application of N fertilizer is projected to increase in world
76 agriculture to meet the food demand of the increasing world population, N₂O emissions

77 in global agriculture are also projected to increase in the coming decades (Reay et al.,
78 2012). The key challenge this presents to the agricultural sector is to maximize crop
79 productivity while minimizing N₂O emissions from fertilized field (Galloway et al.,
80 2008).

81 In recent decades, a large number of field studies have been carried out to characterize
82 N losses, including N₂O emissions, and exploring N use efficiency in various
83 agricultural systems. Bouwman et al. (2002) created a global database of field N₂O
84 emissions from a total of 388 studies, of which however only 3% of the data was from
85 China. The existing field data has facilitated development of ecosystem N models to
86 predict N₂O emissions from agricultural systems (Heinen 2006), including, for example,
87 the dynamic process-based models of DNDC (Li et al., 1992), SUNDIAL (Smith et al.,
88 1997) and DAYCENT (Ogle et al., 2010). The dataset had also been used directly by
89 Bouwman et al. (2002) to develop an empirical model of N₂O emissions as a function
90 of several field and management variables, which informed the choice of the emission
91 factor of 1% (meaning 1% of fertilizer N is emitted as N₂O-N) adopted in the IPCC Tier
92 I methodology (IPCC, 2006).

93 Accurate and precise prediction of N₂O emissions in croplands is difficult since the
94 biotic and abiotic factors influencing N₂O emission in field are temporally dynamic and
95 spatially heterogeneous, and influenced by a number of factors related to climate, soil
96 quality, fertilizer application, cropping systems and management practices (Ladha et al.,
97 2016; Tang et al., 2016; Lam et al., 2016; Yue et al., 2017). For instance, N₂O emission

98 rates were lower for flooded or paddy rice than upland crops as the anaerobic conditions
99 in wetland soils tend to encourage complete denitrification to N₂ (Gerber et al., 2016).
100 Also, many existing models predicting N₂O emission from croplands were developed
101 and parameterized in regions where agriculture was well-developed and fertilizer use
102 efficiency was relatively high. However, much of the projected increased in food
103 production, and thus N use, is expected to occur in the developing countries (Holland
104 et al., 1999; Tilman, et al., 2001), particularly in the populous regions of the Indo-
105 Gangetic Plain (IGP), southwest Asia and Yangtze and Yellow river plain of eastern
106 Asia. Thus, quantifying N₂O emissions and developing more robust models suitable in
107 these regions is critical to enable better prediction of global agricultural N₂O emission
108 and identify improved management practices in these regions.

109 China is a country representing 19 % of the world's population and 7 % of net GHG
110 emission from Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU) in 2014 (FAOSTAT,
111 2017). Total annual N₂O emissions from fertilized croplands in China had previously
112 been estimated (Zou et al., 2007; Gerber et al., 2016), using the aforementioned existing
113 models calibrated with global data in which China was under-represented. China's
114 agriculture covered 166 M ha croplands and 23.6 Mt N was used for food production
115 in 2015 ([NBSC](#), 2017). Between 2002 and 2014, China had achieved a crop yield
116 increase of 21% with an increase by 23.4% of N fertilizer application. The increase in
117 N fertilizer application resulted in decreased N use efficiency (NUE) in China's
118 croplands, resulting in negative environmental impacts such as soil acidification (Guo
119 et al., 2010), water eutrophication (Le et al., 2010), air pollution (Sapkota et al. 2014;

120 Liu et al., 2017), and severe human health risks (Farnworth et al., 2017; Gu et al., 2012;
121 Galloway et al., 2008). Better knowledge of the impacts of crop nitrogen use can be
122 used to identify more efficient and lower emitting N management practices in China's
123 agriculture which would in turn not only help the state to cut its GHG emissions as part
124 of its commitments to the Paris Agreement (UNFCCC, 2015), but also to reduce other
125 N losses while sustaining food production.

126 It is critical to identify ways to balance quantity of grain, NUE, and environmental
127 impacts in China, given the increasing human population and limited resources
128 (Galloway et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2016; Xia et al., 2017). Additional increase in N
129 fertilization over the existing high rates might result in marginal yield benefits
130 (Brentrup et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2016) but at the cost of proportionally higher N₂O
131 emissions (Bellarby et al., 2014). As suggested by Van Groenigen et al. (2010), since
132 yield response curves tended to flatten for higher N rates, above a certain point yield-
133 scaled N₂O emissions increased progressively with N application rate. Yet, it is still
134 unclear precisely how such yield based N₂O emissions change with N application for a
135 given crop system, and soil and climate characteristics in the context of Chinese
136 agriculture. Moreover, it was also questionable if the default global fertilizer-induced
137 emission factor of 1% in Tier I approach by IPCC (2006) applies to croplands of China
138 given that it the underpinning data contained few studies (only 3% of the total dataset)
139 from China.

140 We hypothesized here that N₂O emissions from croplands varied with crop type, N
141 fertilizer type and rate and climate, across various agricultural systems of China. We

142 also hypothesized that such variation could be modeled to predict N₂O emissions and
143 explore the main drivers for N₂O emissions from key Chinese croplands. In this study,
144 field data of N₂O emissions in reported studies were reviewed to create a country-level
145 database and a multi-variate empirical model fitted to predict N₂O emissions in China.
146 Using the model, N₂O emission rates were compared between different fertilizer and
147 crop types and the Emission Factors (EF) for China's croplands were derived for
148 comparison to the IPCC default factors. Furthermore, a cross-system variability was
149 elucidated with the model calculation of the cumulative N₂O emission for rice
150 cultivation in 2014. With an additional multi-variate empirical model of crop yield
151 derived from our database, yield-scaled N₂O emission were identified for different
152 crops and fertilizer types to explore approaches to optimize N use efficiency in China's
153 crop production.

154

155

156 **2 Materials and methods**

157 2.1 Database creation

158 A dataset with a total of 853 seasonal cumulative N₂O field emission measurements
159 from 104 studies in China's agricultural fields was compiled for this study. A primary
160 dataset was compiled from the scientific literature reporting field measurements of N₂O
161 emissions from cropping systems of China published over a time span of 2001-2016.
162 Firstly, papers were collected and archived via searching the databases of CNKI (China
163 National Knowledge Infrastructure), ISI-Web of Knowledge and Google Scholar with
164 keywords of "nitrous oxide" "emission" "chamber" "fertilizer" and "China". From the
165 collected literature, data pairs of N₂O emissions under a fertilizer treatment and a non-
166 fertilized control were retrieved and archived, retaining a total of 71 studies. In addition,
167 33 studies meeting our criteria in the dataset used by Albanito et al. (2017) were checked
168 and added to the primary dataset. Finally, a dataset comprising 853 data pairs from a
169 total of 104 studies were constructed and used in this study. The reported measurements
170 were located across the mainland China, between the longitude of 85.0° to 139.6° and
171 latitude of 21.9° to 47.4° (Fig. 1).

172 Information in the dataset included geographic location (latitude and longitude);
173 climate data - annual average temperature (ranging between -0.4°C and 21.3°C), annual
174 average precipitation (values from 193 mm to 1795 mm); soil characteristics - including
175 clay content, organic carbon and nitrogen content, bulk density, and pH; soil type -
176 classified into 8 soil texture classes (Clay loam, Loam, Sand, Sandy clay loam, Sandy
177 loam, Silt loam, Silty clay, Silty clay loam) following the United State Department of

178 Agriculture (USDA) classification; cropping system; crop types aggregated into 4
179 broad categories (Table 1); fertilizer types classified into 3 broad categories (Table 1);
180 fertilizer application rate; management practices - including water management, tillage,
181 straw return, and irrigation; length of experimental monitoring; seasonal cumulative
182 N₂O emission; and grain harvest (more detailed information is shown in Table S1). This
183 information was interpolated to every point in which data on N₂O emissions was
184 considered.

185 In order to conduct the spatial analysis of individual variables, a 0.5×0.5 degree grid
186 cell was created covering all the cultivated areas in China. Climate data were obtained
187 from the China Meteorological Data Web (<http://data.cma.cn>). Soil data, including land
188 use type, soil carbon content, pH and clay content were obtained from the Harmonized
189 World Soil Database (FAO/IIASA/ISRIC/ISS-CAS/JRC, 2012). The area ratio of rice
190 cultivation to non-rice cultivation in each grid cell was obtained from Monfreda et al.
191 (2008). Data for N fertilizer application rates across years and regions were obtained
192 from the China Agricultural Cost-benefit Data Assembly (DP-NDRC, 2015).

193 2.2 Modelling N₂O emissions

194 During the explanatory phase of the analysis, the data was tested for normality and it
195 was observed that values of the cumulative seasonal N₂O emissions (*Cum N₂O*, in kg
196 N ha⁻¹ crop-cycle⁻¹) including the single or rotation cropping systems were highly
197 skewed. Therefore, the original data of *Cum N₂O* was log-transformed to use natural
198 logarithm $\ln(Cum N_2O)$, as the response variable throughout the analysis. This was
199 required in order to meet the assumptions for performing a regression analysis (Zuur et

200 al 2007). Eleven measurements were identified as obvious outliers and excluded from
201 the analyses (Table S1). We suspected an accidental misreporting of these values and
202 therefore excluded them. Interactions and co-dependence among variables were also
203 examined to avoid co-linearity among explanatory variables in the model (Table S2).
204 The effect of different explanatory parameters on the log-transformed response variable,
205 $\ln(\text{Cum } N_2O)$, was then investigated by fitting a set of linear models. To have a
206 preliminary indication of the effect of the aforementioned variables on $\ln(\text{Cum } N_2O)$,
207 univariate models including each covariate were initially fitted separately (Figure S3,
208 Table S2). Subsequently, a stepwise approach to model selection was implemented as
209 follows: a set of linear regression models were fitted, including systematically different
210 combinations of the different potential explanatory parameters (Table S2). We firstly
211 discarded the variables with the p-value >0.05 , which was our significance threshold.
212 Then, we chose the model based on R-square values. The functional forms of the fitted
213 models were:

$$214 \quad \ln(y) = \alpha + \sum_i^N \beta_i x + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

215 Where y is the target variable, $\text{Cum } N_2O$, in kg N ha^{-1} ; x stands for the potential
216 explanatory variables; α and β_i represent the model coefficients; ε indicates the
217 model error.

218 For model diagnosis, the absence of pattern in the residuals, whether they were normal
219 and centered was checked. To evaluate the model's accuracy, the bias and root-mean-
220 squared error (RMSE) were calculated:

$$221 \quad \text{Bias}_{(i)} = \sum(\hat{V}_i - V_i)/n \quad (2)$$

222
$$RMSE_{(t)} = \sqrt{(\sum(\widehat{V}_i - V_i)^2)/(n - p)} \quad (3)$$

223 Where, \widehat{V}_i and V_i represent the estimated value of target variable from the fitted
224 equation and the measured value by the original studies, n is the number of target values;
225 and p is the number of parameters in the relevant model.

226 A variance analysis was carried out to calculate the variance explained by each of the
227 significant factors and assess the importance of each covariate over the others. This was
228 achieved by calculating the variance explained by each covariate divided by the total
229 residual variance.

230 2.3 Evaluating the effect of fertilizer type on N₂O emissions

231 We used the model developed in section 2.2 to compare the rate of the N₂O emission as
232 a function of fertilizer rate from different fertilizer types for particular crop types. Here
233 we were interested in the effect of different fertilizer types on N₂O emissions with the
234 changes in the amount of N fertilizer applied, thus in order to focus only on these
235 particular variables (including N rate, crop type, and fertilizer type), we eliminated the
236 variances due to soil type (clay content) and climate (temperature) by setting constant
237 values for these variables in this particular case we aimed to evaluate. The fixed value
238 we used was the average of these variables in the dataset. Considering cropland N₂O
239 emission responses to fertilizers varying with crop types, the croplands were classified
240 into groups “Legume”, “Rice”, “Rice with cover crop” and “Other”. Such classification
241 was based partly on expected differences and partly on the need to achieve a balanced
242 representation of data points in each class over the dataset.

243 2.4 Spatial distribution of N₂O emissions for rice in China

244 Rice paddy fields is of particular importance to China's agricultural development with
245 a long history. Additionally, given its special water regimes in China, like continuous
246 flooding, flooding-midseason drainage-reflooding, which make an effect on soil
247 nitrification and denitrification (Zou et al., 2007), it's very necessary to test the accuracy
248 of the model working on the N₂O emission calculating for rice paddy fields. Therefore,
249 we used this crop as a case example to carry out a more detailed evaluation of N₂O
250 emissions spatial distribution. For rice cultivation, the annual instead of the seasonal
251 N₂O emissions from mineral fertilizer use were studied. The emission of rice cultivation
252 was mapped for each 0.5° by 0.5° grid, using the model described in section 2.2 and the
253 spatial covariates defined in section 2.1. Covariates of soil clay content and temperature
254 were also used as described above. Firstly, the gridded N₂O emissions were calculated
255 using R (version 3.4.0) using the package "Matrix" (Bates & Maechler, 2015) with
256 gridded significant climate and the soil profile factors, and a map was generated using
257 ArcGIS 10.2.

258 2.5 Optimum N use

259 2.5.1 Modelling yield

260 To identify the optimum N fertilizer rate, the factors affecting yield variation under
261 different conditions were investigated. A similar modelling approach as for the N₂O
262 emissions model (section 2.2) was carried out: a multivariate linear model was fitted,
263 and its performance and accuracy (RMSE and bias) evaluated. Herein, the crop yield
264 data were not log-transformed.

265 2.5.2 Identification of N rate for optimum yield and emission

266 The N₂O and yield models fitted in previous sections 2.2 and 2.5.1, were combined to
267 identify the optimum N rates (*Opt N*). In other words, the N rate at which the lowest
268 emissions intensity (N₂O-N/ton production) is obtained, which can be estimated as the
269 minimum of the curve $N_2O/Yield$ in the unit of kg N₂O-N/ ton yield. We determined
270 this optimum for each combination of crop type and fertilizer type from the covariate
271 classes in the above models, with all other covariates set to the average of those in our
272 dataset.

273 All the analyses in this study were conducted in R version 3.4.0 (R Core Team, 2017),
274 using the R packages: “lattice” (Sarkar and Deepayan 2008), “car” (Fox and Weisberg,
275 2011), “mgcv” (Wood, 2003), “Matrix” (Bates & Maechler, 2015).

276

277

278 **3 Results**

279 3.1 N₂O emission model

280 Based on each variable with the p-value <0.05 (significance) and the best R-squared,
281 the out-coming of the best model selection process was:

$$\begin{aligned} 282 \quad \ln(\text{Cum}N_2O) = & -2.7094 + 0.0045 \times N \text{ rate} + 0.0742 \times Temp + 0.0134 \times \\ 283 \quad Clay + C_1 \text{ crop type} + C_2 N \text{ rate} \times \text{fert type} + \varepsilon \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

284 Where *Cum N₂O* is the cumulative N₂O emissions in kg N ha⁻¹; *N rate* represents the
285 application amount of nitrogen fertilizer in kg N ha⁻¹; *Temp* means the annual average
286 temperature (°C); *Clay* indicates the fraction of clay (%). The significant variables were
287 N rate, temperature, clay content, crop types, and the interaction between N rate and
288 fertilizer type.

289 The coefficient values in equation (4) expressed as “Value ± Standard Error” (the same
290 as below) were -2.7094 ± 0.1713, 0.0045 ± 0.0003, 0.0742 ± 0.0132, and 0.0134 ±
291 0.0030, respectively. Fitted values of *C₁* for the different crop type classes were:
292 background (0) for “Legume”, 0.7002 ± 0.2150 for “Other”, -0.1879 ± 0.2503 for
293 “Rice”, and -1.6339 ± 0.4893 for “Rice with cover crop”. Values of *C₂* for the different
294 base fertilizer types were: background (0) for “Mineral” fertilizer type and -0.0018 ±
295 0.0003 for “Organic”, Null for “Control” treatment (no fertilizer applied).

296 The R² of this model was 0.48, the RMSE was 5.5e-14 and the bias was -1.6e-15, with
297 no pattern in the residuals (Figure S1). N rate was the main factor explaining the
298 variation in emissions, accounting for 24 % (Fig. 2a). The variables Temperature, Crop
299 type, Clay content and the interaction between N rate and fertilizer type explained 13%,

300 7%, 2% and 3% variance respectively.

301 3.2 Comparison of the emissions from different fertilizer and crop types

302 Regardless of fertilizer types, “Other” crops, meaning maize, wheat etc., always
303 exhibited higher N₂O emissions than the other three crop types at the same N
304 application rate (Fig. 3); followed by “Legume”; while the emission from “Rice” only
305 was higher than rice in combination with cover crops (“Rice with cover crop”). In terms
306 of fertilizer types, increase in N₂O emissions with N application rate was greater from
307 “Mineral” (Fig. 3a) than from “Organic” (Fig. 3b), especially at rates over 100 kg N ha⁻¹
308 (due to the interaction with N rate).

309 3.3 Spatial heterogeneity of emissions from rice cultivation

310 The calculated annual N₂O emissions were seen to be highly variable spatially (Fig. 4).
311 Annual N₂O emissions per region were higher from the warm/humid climate regions of
312 South, Southwest, and Yangtze River than from other regions in China owing to double
313 rice cropping and a large rice cropping area; the high annual N₂O emission rate per
314 hectare was identified in the agro-region of Inner Mongolia and along the Great Wall,
315 Huang-Huai-Hai, and Gansu-Xingjiang as a result of high N application rates and/or
316 temperatures.

317 3.4 Optimum values

318 3.4.1 Yield Model

319 The model for yield as a function of N rate and other significant variables was (details
320 in Table S3):

$$321 \text{ Yield} = -2.3626 + 3.1888 \times \log(\text{N rate}) - 0.5271 \times \text{Temp} + 0.0426 \times \text{Clay} +$$

322 $C_3 \text{crop type} + \varepsilon$ (5)

323 Where *Yield* is the grain yield of crops in t ha⁻¹; *N rate*, *Temp*, *Clay* (see above). The
324 coefficient values in equation (5) expressed as “Value ± Standard Error” were -2.3626
325 ± 2.4254, 3.1888 ± 0.4000, -0.5271 ± 0.0793, and 0.0426 ± 0.0198, respectively. As for
326 *C₃*, the base crop was “Legume” (no need to add the *C₃* term), and *C₃* was equal to
327 1.8263 ± 0.5174 for “Rice”, and 1.1850 ± 1.5880 for “Rice with cover crop”. The
328 adjusted R² value was 0.35, the RMSE and bias were 0.35 and 8.3e-3, respectively. The
329 main drivers explaining yield values were N rate and temperature (Fig. 2b).

330 3.4.2 Optimum N rates

331 Fig. 5 showed the relationship of yield-scaled N₂O emissions and N application rate for
332 combinations of crop type and fertilizer type. In all cases a minimum in the yield-scaled
333 N₂O emissions curve occurred between 98 and 190 kg N per hectare, and this value was
334 achieved at a higher N rate for organic than mineral fertilizer. The slope was in general
335 lower for organic fertilizer types than mineral fertilizers, especially for higher N rates,
336 (Fig. 5) which might indicate a higher risk of oversupplying the highly mobile forms of
337 N in mineral fertilizers compared with the relatively slow release forms in organic
338 fertilizers (predominantly organically bound rather than in the form of NH₄⁺ or NO₃⁻
339 ions.)

340

341 **4 Discussion**

342 4.1 Seasonal N₂O emissions in relation to crop and fertilizer types

343 For the model, the key drivers which had significant effect on N₂O emissions, in the
344 order of their relative contributions, were: fertilizer application rate; temperature; clay
345 content (positive in the three cases); crop type and the interaction between N rate and
346 fertilizer type. Of course, these factors might have different loading depending on the
347 crop or fertilizer type as described in Section 3.1. As already shown by the studies of
348 Bouwman et al., (2002); Buckingham et al., (2014) and Zhou et al., (2017), N₂O
349 emissions for agricultural land use were not only affected by N fertilizer rate, but also
350 by climate, soil, crops and fertilizer types. Clay content was known to affect thus
351 moisture status, water filled pore space and gas diffusion associated to soil texture
352 (Dobbie & Smith, 2003). If clay soils were not completely water-saturated, fine soil
353 texture with restricted drainage was prone to high N₂O emission for their high water
354 holding capacity and capillary pores within aggregates (Bouwman et al., 2002). And
355 this explained the positive correlation of N₂O emissions to clay content in the dataset.
356 Meanwhile, clay content was also related to soil oxygen condition mediating the soil
357 redox (Eh range) for N₂O production in nitrification and denitrification processes
358 (Verstraete & Focht, 1977; Hou et al., 2000).

359 Emissions differed between fertilizer types in our model. With relatively high N input,
360 N₂O emissions were significantly lower under organic (Fig. 3b) than under mineral
361 fertilizers (Fig. 3a). This was in contrast to the finding of a meta-analysis of global data
362 (Zhou et al. 2017) that reported manure N application significantly increased N₂O

363 emissions over mineral N application. There had been controversial debates on whether
364 or not manure application led to increase in N₂O emissions compared to mineral
365 fertilizers (Petersen et al., 1996; Meijide et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2017). Rather,
366 application of organic fertilizers could bring potential benefits to soil health through
367 improved soil carbon storage and biodiversity (Tisdall & Oades, 1982; Karlen et al.,
368 1997), which could help crops to exert a more steady response to increasing rate of N
369 applied (Fig. 5). For this sake, China was encouraging the use of manure to save mineral
370 fertilizers in terms of crop-specific and region-specific recommended rates (Hou et al.,
371 2017).

372 However, the lower N₂O emission and higher optimum N rates with organic N sources
373 may partly be due to the delayed N release particularly from organic amendments such
374 as straw, compost or biochar. It is even possible that such materials release plant-
375 available N not only within but also after the N₂O measurement periods. This possible
376 long-term effect is not captured in the N₂O measurements and thus not considered in
377 the calculation of optimum N rates, which in turn may even be overestimated.

378 4.2 Emission of N₂O in response to N application rate

379 The fertilizer-induced emission (FIE) reported in this study was derived from data
380 covering one cropping season instead of one full year as in the determination of IPCC-
381 FIEs. Calculating with the emission from fertilized plots minus the emission from
382 unfertilized control plots on individual sites, the estimated FIE values was 0.52 ± 0.69 %
383 on average. Of course, this estimation may result in discrepancy to those in the IPCC

384 EF database estimated using full crop year. Nevertheless, N₂O emissions in our study
385 could be in exponential response to N application rate as the model derived this study
386 was linear function of log-transformed dependent variables (Fig. 3). Therefore,
387 cropland N₂O emissions from the studied Chinese crop systems could not be simply
388 quantified or predicted using linear model of EFs. Non-linear response of N₂O
389 emissions to N rates had been already challenged with the observations by Bouwman
390 et al. (2002), Shcherbak et al. (2014) and Gerber et al. (2016). It had been well known
391 that a greater portion of the applied N was subject to loss *via* leaching of nitrate and
392 emissions of NH₃ and N₂O at higher N rates (Ju et al., 2009). In addition, the log-
393 transformed N₂O emissions was observed in linear response to several factors other
394 than N rate as described in Section 3.1. This may demand a more reliable Tier 3 model
395 to estimate N₂O emissions in preference to emission factor based on approaches where
396 robust data available.

397 The above mentioned non-response could be used to explore the optimum N application
398 rate, which was indicated by a minimum yield-scaled emission among the existing N
399 application rates for a given system. A minimum yield scaled N₂O emission was around
400 100 kg N ha⁻¹ under mineral fertilizers (Fig. 5a-5d) but in a range of 160-190 kg N ha⁻¹
401 under organic fertilizers, for all crop types (Fig. 5e-5h). The minimum yield scaled
402 emissions were more or less variable but low with cover crops (Fig. 5d and 5h),
403 probably due to the additional N input through cover crops. Moreover, cover crop may
404 help to reduce soil nitrification (Cui et al., 2006; Xie, 2016), in line with increased soil
405 organic carbon content (Dabney et al., 2001; Tripathi et al., 2014). In paddy rice, in

406 particular, cover crop increased carbon substrate supply to promote the process of
407 dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonium and thus to inhibit the denitrification
408 process (Kelso et al., 1997).

409 4.3 N₂O emission from paddy rice

410 N₂O emissions from flooded rice were generally lower than for upland crops (Fig.3).
411 Furthermore, emissions under rice with a cover crop were lower than under normal rice
412 without cover crops at a given mineral N rate, likely due to biological nitrogen fixation
413 by the cover crop, often as nitrogen fixing alfalfa (Supplement information).

414 Using the emission data from our database (Fig. 4), a seasonal direct emission of N₂O
415 from paddy rice system in China was estimated to be 31.1Gg N₂O-N for 2014. Using
416 the default linear emission factor of 0.3 % for flooded rice (IPCC, 2006), however, the
417 direct emission would be estimated as 25.0 Gg N₂O-N for the same year. The estimation
418 using the model in this study was close to the value of 29.0 Gg N₂O-N estimated by
419 Zou et al. (2007) using an ordinary least square linear regression model. Using models
420 of linear and nonlinear regressions, Gerber et al. (2016) proposed slightly higher
421 emission factors for rice of 0.31% and 0.36% respectively. Clearly, our estimation using
422 database in this study could match these proposed EF values.

423 Water management was often concerned as a key factor affecting N₂O emissions from
424 paddy rice production. It should be noted that water management as a factor was not
425 retained in our model. Overall, we found no significant differences in seasonal N₂O
426 emission between continuous flooding and intermittent flooding, for the lack of
427 reported data. However, significant differences between water management treatments

428 were observed only in combination with regional factors. So, how rice water regime
429 management impacted on N₂O emissions deserves further study.

430 4.5 Limitations of the study

431 Some limitations existed in our analysis and modeling primarily of data scope. Our data
432 was from single crop cycle measurements and the analysis was largely based on crop
433 season instead of a full year though our estimated EF was not intended to represent
434 annual EFs. An issue of uncertainty may have arisen with annual average data of
435 temperature and precipitation of the study locations as crop seasonal temperature and
436 precipitation were not reported in most the studies. Moreover, for the absence of multi-
437 year information in our dataset though estimation of annual emissions may vary with
438 experiment length (Albanito et al., 2017). In addition, average data from large scale
439 observations were used in cases where local data were missing, rising the uncertainties
440 for our model.

441 It should be also noted that our optimum N fertilization rates were certainly functions
442 of several other agronomic and environmental factors not contained in our model. For
443 example, apart from N, supply of phosphorus and potassium also affect crop yield and
444 thus potentially affect emission response to N fertilizer (Velde et al., 2014). The low R²
445 value of 0.35 for our yield model implied that many other factors were not taken into
446 account.

447 **5 Conclusion**

448 In this study we observed that total seasonal N₂O emission from China's cropping
449 systems were controlled by both inherent attributes (soil and crop type, fertilizer rate)

450 and external attributes (climate, management practices). Using the fitted regression
451 model of N₂O emissions we derived an estimate of seasonal N₂O emission from rice
452 cropping systems in 2014 of 31 Gg N₂O-N, compared to 25.0 Gg N₂O-N using the
453 IPCC default emission factor. We also reported that optimal N rates may be in a range
454 of 100-190 kg N ha⁻¹ for the crop systems and fertilizer types explored in this study.
455 However, the model only explained 48% of the variance in the current study. This lack
456 of explanatory power might be improved by the addition of further studies which would
457 add statistical power and allow significant effects to be identified for more refined
458 classification of crop and fertilizer type.

459 **Acknowledgments**

460 This work was financially supported by China Natural Science Foundation under a
461 grant number 41501569 and Department of Science and Technology of Jiangsu
462 province under a grant number BK20150684. The work is also a part of global N₂O
463 project implemented by CIMMYT with the financial support of CGIAR Research
464 Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS), made possible
465 by the funding of CGIAR Fund donors (<https://ccafs.cgiar.org/donors>). This work also
466 contributes to the activities of N Circle, a BBSRC-Newton Funded project
467 (BB/N013484/1). The first author thanks the China Scholarship Council (CSC) for
468 funding to support study at the University of Aberdeen, UK.

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662 **Supporting Information**

663 Additional Supplementary Information may be found in the online version of this
664 article.

665

666 **Table captions**

667 Table 1 Reclassified parameters used in the fitted models.

668

669 **Figure captions**

670 Fig. 1 Geographical distribution of the studies in China used in the analysis simulating
671 *Cum N₂O* emissions.

672 Fig. 2 Mean proportions of factors showed in the relative *Cum N₂O* emission model (a)
673 and grain yield model (b).

674 Fig. 3 Examples of calculations using the model for seasonal cumulative N₂O
675 emissions emission for selected combinations of factor classes: (a) “Mineral” and (b)
676 “Organic” application, and varying N application rates for the categories of four crop
677 types for (“Legume”; “Other”; “Rice”; “Rice with cover crop”).

678 Fig. 4 Annual *Cum N₂O* emission rates (a) and emission intensity per hectare (b)
679 induced by mineral fertilizer application for rice growing in 2014.

680 Fig. 5 Optimum of N rates using the models for *Cum N₂O* emission and yield for crop
681 types and fertilizer types with all other conditions equal (temperature 13.07, soil clay
682 content 22.42%): (a) optimum N rate for “Mineral & Other”; (b) optimum N rate for
683 “Mineral & Legume”; (c) optimum N rate for “Mineral & Rice”; (d) optimum N rate
684 for “Mineral & Rice with cover crop”; (e) optimum N rate for “Organic & Other”; (f)
685 optimum N rate for “Organic & Legume”; (g) optimum N rate for “Organic & Rice”;
686 (h) optimum N rate for “Organic & Rice with cover crop”.

687