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13 ABSTRACT

14 The quantification of ammonia (NH₃) emissions is essential to the more accurate 15 quantification of atmospheric nitrogen deposition, improved air quality and the 16 assessment of ammonia-related agricultural policy and climate mitigation strategies. 17 The quantity, geographic distribution and historical trends of these emissions remain largely uncertain. In this paper, a new Chinese agricultural fertilizer NH₃ (CAF_NH₃) 18 19 emissions inventory has been compiled that exhibits the following improvements: (1) 20 a 1×1 km gridded map on the county level was developed for 2008; (2) a combined 21 bottom-up and top-down method was used for the local correction of emission factors 22 (EFs) and parameters; (3) the temporal patterns of historical time trends for 23 1978-2008 were estimated and the uncertainties were quantified for the inventories; 24 and (4) a sensitivity test was performed in which a province-level disaggregated map 25 was compared with CAF_NH₃ emissions for 2008. The total CAF_NH₃ emissions for 2008 were 8.4 TgNH₃ yr⁻¹ (a 6.6-9.8 Tg interquartile range). From 1978 to 2008, 26 annual NH₃ emissions fluctuated with three peaks (1987, 1996 and 2005), and total 27 28 emissions increased from 3.2 to 8.4 Tg at an annual rate of 3.0%. During the study

29 period, the contribution of livestock manure spreading increased from 37.0% to 45.5% 30 because of changing fertilization practices and the rapid increase in egg, milk and 31 meat consumption. The average contribution of synthetic fertilizer, which has a 32 positive effect on crop yields, was approximately 38.3% (minimum: 33.4%; 33 maximum: 42.7%). With rapid urbanization causing a decline in the rural population, 34 the contribution of the rural excrement sector varied widely between 20.3% and 8.5%. 35 The average contributions of cake fertilizer and straw returning were approximately 36 3.8% and 4.5%, respectively, thus small and stable. Collectively, the CAF_NH₃ 37 emissions reflect the nation's agricultural policy to a certain extent. An effective 38 approach to decreasing PM_{2.5} concentrations in China would be to simultaneously 39 decrease NOx, SO₂ and NH₃ emissions.

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41 **1. Introduction**

42 NH₃ is a colorless alkaline gas with high reactive ability and solubility in the 43 atmosphere, where its presence has undesirable consequences. The gas reacts with 44 HNO_3 and H_2SO_4 in the air to form ammonium salts (NH_4NO_3 , (NH_4)₂SO₄ and 45 (NH₄)HSO₄) (Pinder et al., 2007), which further contribute to visibility degradation 46 and regional haze and have adverse health effects (Kim et al., 2006;Ye et al., 47 2011;Langridge et al., 2012). Such salts could account for 7.1-57% of the total quantity of atmospheric fine particulate matter (PM2.5: aerodynamic diameter of 48 49 particle size $\leq 2.5 \mu m$) (Yang et al., 2011;Huang et al., 2014;Zhang et al., 2014a). NH₃ 50 comprises nearly half of all reactive nitrogen released into the atmosphere and plays a 51 key role in soil acidification, eutrophication and the disruption of ecosystems by dry 52 deposition (Vanbreemen et al., 1984;Hellsten et al., 2008;Bouwman et al., 1997). In 53 addition, although NH₃ exerts a cooling effect on the planet as a result of radiation 54 forcing by aerosol particles (Martin et al., 2004), it is an indirect source of the major 55 greenhouse gas nitrous oxide from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change 56 (IPCC, 2006). Therefore, efforts to decrease NH₃ emissions could have the triple

benefit of slowing global climate change, decreasing regional air pollution and
protecting human health (Zheng et al., 2012;Erisman et al., 2013).

59 Agriculture in China utilizes approximately 7% of the world's cultivated land area to 60 support 22% of the global human population. To meet the demand for food of China's 61 large and increasing population (30-50% more food will be required over the next two 62 decades) (Zhang et al., 2013;Cui et al., 2014;Ma et al., 2013), the government has 63 initiated a series of agricultural policies that aim to increase the will of farmers, 64 including farmers who overuse agricultural fertilizers (including synthetic and organic 65 fertilizers), to increase yields. Policy-driven measures to increase the use of fertilizer 66 and low nitrogen-use efficiency have resulted in continually increasing NH₃ emissions 67 (Vitousek et al., 2009;Gu et al., 2012;Zhang et al., 2014b). Therefore, to achieve the 68 balance of food demand and environment effects, NH₃ emissions must be accurately 69 estimated in a manner that reflects the spatial and temporal pattern of their sources.

70 Previous studies mainly estimated NH₃ emissions in China based on EFs and activity. 71 In the 1990s, China's NH₃ emissions were estimated based on uniform or overseas 72 EFs for the entire country (Sun and Wang, 1997; Wang et al., 1997; Olivier et al., 73 1998; Xing and Zhu, 2000; Streets et al., 2003; Yan et al., 2003), which decreased the 74 accuracy of these estimates because of the differences in regional environmental 75 conditions. Subsequent studies, in which national or provincial statistical data on the 76 rural population, fertilizers and agricultural production were used to estimate NH₃ 77 emissions, generally downscaled to realize higher spatial resolution (e.g., Yamaji et al., 78 2004; Huang et al., 2012, and EDGAR v.4.2, 2013). Thus, biases could occur. Paulot 79 et al. (2014) improved the bottom-up emission inventory to incorporate 80 sector-resolved information on global agricultural activities known as MASAGE_NH₃, 81 which is still limited to specific sectors, such as precipitation and the monitoring 82 networks provide high-density data (Paulot et al., 2014). Additionally, the previous 83 emission inventories provide no or only coarse temporal distributions in the year, 84 which could result in underestimation during summer and overestimation during

85 winter (Wang et al., 1997; Yan et al., 2003).

86 In addition, studies have attempted to focus on implementing the bidirectional exchange of NH₃ in many air quality models, e.g., the Community Multi-scale Air 87 88 Quality (CMAQ) model (Cooter et al., 2012; Bash et al., 2013; Pleim et al., 2013; Fu 89 et al., 2015), and the GEOS-Chem global chemical transport model (Zhu et al., 2015). 90 NH_3 deposition, emission, reemission, and atmospheric lifetime can be affected by 91 rigorous treatment of the bidirectional flux of NH₃, and vegetation and soil can be 92 either a sink or a source of atmospheric NH_3 (Sutton et al., 2007). Fu et al. (2015) 93 provides the first online estimate of NH₃ emissions from agricultural fertilizer use 94 China, based on coupling the CMAQ model with a bi-directional NH₃ exchange 95 module and the Environmental Policy Integrated Climate (EPIC) model, this method 96 considers an increased number of influencing factors, such as meteorological fields, 97 soil and fertilizer application, and provides improved NH₃ emissions with higher 98 spatial and temporal resolution, whereas, gaps still exist for this method owing to the 99 uncertainties of more model parameterization and input data. Zhu et al. (2015) 100 developed the adjoint of bidirectional exchange in GEOS-Chem model which 101 suggests that although the implementing bidirectional exchange greatly extends the 102 lifetime of NH₃ in the atmosphere via deposition and reemission processes and 103 conducts a better fundamental description of NH₃ emissions from fertilizers, whereas, it does not uniformly ameliorate estimation of NH₃ concentrations, NH₄⁺ wet 104 105 deposition and nitrate aerosol concentrations due to the NH₃ re-emissions from the 106 ammonium soil pool that accumulates ammonium from previous months or the 107 ammonium soil pool preserves ammonia/ammonium in the soil rather than emitting it 108 directly after fertilizer application during the growing seasons (e.g., bidirectional 109 exchange significant decreases NH₃ gross emissions in southeastern China and NH₃ concentrations in China in April of 2008, but changes in NH_4^+ wet deposition are not 110 111 very large in April).

112 In this study, a 1 ×1 km gridded new CAF NH₃ emission inventory based on

113 county-level activity data was developed for 2008 and historical time series of NH₃ 114 emissions based on province-level activity data from 1978 to 2007. An effort was 115 made to improve accuracy and decrease uncertainty by considering more 116 comprehensive emission sources. In addition, a combined bottom-up and top-down 117 method was used for the local correction of EFs and parameters. We analyzed the 118 emission totals, source apportionment, spatial and temporal patterns and uncertainty, 119 and compared our results with previous studies. Then, we compared the 2008 120 emission map with a province-level disaggregated map. We also provided a clear 121 description of the change in NH₃ emissions in CAF historical emissions between 1978 122 and 2008. Finally, the implications of the higher spatial and temporal resolution NH₃ 123 emission inventory are discussed, with a focus on the control of N deposition, the 124 improvement of air quality, NH₃ emission-related agricultural policy and climate mitigation strategies. 125

126

127 **2. Methodology and data sources**

128 **2.1 NH₃ Emission Sources**

129 Five NH₃ emission sources, including synthetic fertilizers (i.e., chemical and 130 compound fertilizers) and organic fertilizers (i.e., rural excrement, livestock manure 131 spreading, cake fertilizer and straw returning. In this study, straw returning represents 132 crop residue compost which adds soil nutrients in the rural China, and NH₃ is released 133 during composting through aerobic and anaerobic microbial processes. Sludge is not 134 considered to be an agricultural fertilizer, and the quantity of green manure that is 135 applied is limited) (Gao et al., 2011), are included in our emissions model. China's NH₃ emissions from agricultural fertilizer (E_{NH3} , TgNH₃ yr⁻¹) are calculated with the 136 137 following equation:

$$E_{NH_3} = \sum_{i} A_{nij} \cdot EF_{ij} \cdot f(RP_{nijm}, C_m)$$
⁽¹⁾

139 where subscripts n, i, j and m is the year, the emission source, the region (county in 140 2008 and province in 1978-2007) and the parameter, respectively; A is the activity 141 data; *EF* is the region-specific emission factor (EF); RP_{nijm} represents a 142 region-specific emission controlling parameter *m* for activity data or EF; *f()* 143 represents a function whose shape depends on the source type, which responds to 144 RP_{nijm} and *C*; and *C* stands for a coefficient. More detailed descriptions of the 145 equations used for each source (Section S1), the activity data, the RPs, and the EFs 146 (Section S2) can be found in Supporting Information (SI) and are briefly summarized 147 below.

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149 **2.2 Data Sources**

150 In this paper, county-level data for the annual quantities of synthetic fertilizer (5 151 types), livestock (8 types), crop (17 types), and rural population in 2008 were derived 152 for 2 376 counties from 329 municipal statistical registers in Mainland China, Hong 153 Kong, Macau and Taiwan (Hong Kong and Macau primarily have no agriculture, and 154 thus all activity data of them equal zero). Annual above-province-level data for 155 Mainland China from 1978 to 2008 were obtained from the China Agriculture 156 Yearbook (NBSC, 2009a) and the China Compendium of Statistics (NBSC, 2009b). 157 Taiwanese data for 1991 to 2008 were collected from the Yearly Report of Taiwan's 158 Agriculture (COA, 1992-2009). We obtained the 2008 unavailable fertilizer, crop, and 159 livestock data for 332 counties in Mainland China and Taiwanese annual 160 above-province-level data for 1978-1990 based on temporal interpolation (Zhou et al., 161 2014). We disaggregated these activity data into 1×1 km maps based on China's land 162 use pattern to determine their spatial distribution. In addition, regarding activity data 163 collected in international statistics databases for 2008, the synthetic fertilizers data 164 were obtained from the IFA (http://www.fertilizer.org/), the rural population data were 165 obtained from the World Bank (http://data.worldbank.org/) and the crop and livestock 166 data were obtained from the FAO (http://faostat.fao.org/). The meteorological data for 167 Mainland China were provided by the China Meteorological Data Sharing Service 168 System (http://cdc.nmic.cn/home.do), and the Taiwanese meteorological data were

169provided by the Central Weather Bureau (http://www.cwb.gov.tw). Complementary170gridded activity data include soil pH (1 × 1 km) (the Harmonized World Soil171Databasev1.2,

172 http://webarchive.iiasa.ac.at/Research/LUC/External-World-soildatabase/HTML/) and

- 173 the secondary classification of land-use data $(1 \times 1 \text{ km})$ (Liu et al., 2010b).
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175 **2.3 EFs for NH**₃

176 The EFs reported in the literature are associated with large uncertainty because of 177 differences in ambient temperatures, planting practices, soil properties, and other 178 crucial influential factors. In this paper, for synthetic fertilizer sources, a previously 179 developed EF correction model was used. Because direct measurements of EFs are 180 limited in number, the EFs were adjusted for soil pH, fertilization method, application 181 rate, precipitation and local temperature conditions to establish their spatial and 182 temporal variations (i.e., the county or provincial level; monthly emissions) according 183 to the top-down NASRSES model (Webb et al., 2006) (for detailed information, see 184 Xu et al. (Xu et al., 2015)). For livestock manure spreading sources, the original NH₃ 185 EFs compiled to develop the bottom-up RAINS model were found in the EEA's 186 inventory guidebook (EEA, 2009). However, the values for region-specific N 187 excretion in livestock manure management and the feeding days for livestock 188 species/categories are based on published measurements for China and the results for 189 the Livestock Manure Sector in the National Pollution Source Survey Database (NPSS) (Huang et al., 2012; MEP, 2008; SCC, 2013). Although the age and growth 190 191 stage of livestock are likely to cause a certain degree of variation in the quantity of 192 fecal excretion, this effect is only reflected by specific parameters (i.e., some form of 193 dietary manipulation) on the farm scale (Ross et al., 2002). The activity levels and the 194 EFs of the national- or regional-scale emission inventories do not distinguish 195 according to the factors included in this study because EFs are restricted by activity level, i.e., animal industry statistical data. In addition, although Chinese statistics can 196

197 be approximate, theoretically, they can be refined, as a number of inventories that 198 have previously considered these factors have attempted (Huang et al., 2012). 199 However, Chinese statistics currently contribute little to emissions inventories because 200 of a lack of functionality and practical significance. It was assumed that the number of 201 livestock is the same during each month of the year. The proportion of livestock EFs 202 for different seasons, which were used to establish the annual livestock EFs, was 203 derived from Huang et al. (2012), and Hutchings et al. (2001) reported that the EFs 204 for the same season of different months are equivalent and the different seasons are 205 different (Huang et al., 2012;Hutchings et al., 2001). These principles were applied in 206 this study. Regarding the remaining sources, a literature review was aimed at 207 collecting relevant EFs, whereby the arithmetic mean of different experiments was 208 used. Additionally, we performed only regional correction for activity data when 209 calculating the NH₃ emission of cake fertilizers and straw returning. The emissions 210 from these sources were equally divided into 12 months because of their smaller 211 application and EFs. All of the EFs and parameters used in this inventory are listed in 212 Table S1 and Table S2.

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214 **2.4 Uncertainty Analysis**

215 A Monte Carlo simulation that consisted of 10 000 calculations of the NH₃ emission 216 inventory was run to characterize the uncertainty caused by the variations in the activity data, the EFs and related parameters. The coefficient of variation (CV) of 217 each activity data is assumed to be equal to the absolute value of the average 218 219 difference between a given dataset for China used in to determining CAF_NH₃ and a 220 default global dataset (e.g., IFA, FAO, World Bank) for 2008. In addition, the CV of 221 each activity data in 1978-2007 is assumed to be equal to the CVs of the 2008 data 222 based on expert judgments. The CV values for sugarcane, highland barley, alfalfa, 223 peanuts, other oil crops, other beans and other tubers were set at 0.2 because they are 224 absent from the global datasets (Zhou et al., 2014). The CV values for the EFs and

related parameters were based on values found in the literature (Wang et al., 2012;Huang et al., 2012;Zhou et al., 2014;Xu et al., 2015). For activity data, uniform distributions were assumed. Normal distributions were adopted for the EFs and other parameters. The precise CV values are summarized in Table S3. Medians and the R_{50} (difference between the 75th and 25th quartiles) were aimed at estimating the emissions and representing the uncertainties.

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3. Results

233 **3.1 NH₃ Emissions in China in 2008**

The total NH₃ emissions (E_{total}) from CAF for 2008 were estimated as 8.4 TgNH₃ yr⁻¹ 234 235 (median, 6.6-9.8 Tg as R_{50}), and the contribution of synthetic fertilizer application, 236 livestock manure spreading, rural excrement, cake fertilizers and straw returning were 237 3.3, 3.8, 0.7, 0.3, and 0.3 Tg, respectively. Detailed information on the contribution of 238 each source to E_{total} from CAF for 2008 is presented in Fig. 1. Regarding the synthetic 239 fertilizer contribution, 1.9, 1.3, 0.02, 0.003, and 0.05 Tg could be attributed to ammonium bicarbonate (ABC), urea, ammonium nitrate (AN), ammonium sulfate 240 241 (AS) and others, respectively. Among the various sources of livestock manure (Fig. 242 S1), cattle were the largest emitter (30.2%), followed by pigs (28.9%), poultry (26.2%) 243 and dairy cattle (7.9%). Rural excrement (8.5%), cake fertilizer (3.2%) and straw 244 returning (3.9%) were of less importance but non-negligible.

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3.2 Spatial and Temporal Distribution

Fig. 2 shows the 1 km ×1 km and county-level geographic distributions of NH_3 emissions in 2378 counties for 2008. The mean per-unit cultivated area NH_3 emission was 5.9 t NH_3 km⁻² yr⁻¹. Using county-level data to create this NH_3 emissions map reveals the strong spatial association of the emissions with the distribution of arable land. The average emission density (per-unit cultivated area NH_3 emission) over western, central and eastern China is 4.7, 6.4 and 6.5 t NH_3 km⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively. The three regions are defined in Fig. S2. Eastern China (36.7% of China's cultivated area) 254 was the largest contributor of NH₃ emissions and responsible for approximately 255 41.6% of the total. In central China, synthetic fertilizer was the largest contributor 256 (44.4%). This contribution was substantially higher than that of western (34.0%) and 257 eastern (36.3%) China. However, the contribution of livestock manure spreading 258 (37.6%) in central China was substantially less than in western (50.3%) and eastern 259 (50.2%) China. In addition, high emission densities were presented in the North China 260 Plain, the Northeast Plain, the Huaihe River Basin, the Lianghu Plain, the Sichuan 261 Basin, the Tarim Basin and the Weihe Plain. Most of China's grain and livestock 262 production is concentrated in these areas. High NH₃ emission densities were also 263 found in western China, such as Tibet, Sichuan and Qinghai, where livestock is raised 264 on a large scale and less cropland exists. We compared our results with the global NH_3 265 column distribution using satellite monitoring from the Infrared Atmospheric 266 Sounding Interferometer (IASI) (Clarisse et al., 2009; Van Damme et al., 2014). 267 Several emissions hotspots are observed in the Tarim basin, the North China Plain and western Heilongjiang province and Jilin province by the IASI sensor, emission density 268 is 4.2, 7.4, 5.2 and 9.6 tNH₃ km⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively. This result demonstrated excellent 269 270 qualitative consistent with our estimated emissions. However, the higher emission 271 areas were not observed by satellite monitoring because of clouds, water vapor, the 272 surface temperature, high SO₂ emissions (Kharol et al., 2013;Wang et al., 2013;Garcia 273 et al., 2008), land surface variation and the retrieval methods of NH₃ total columns 274 (Xu et al., 2015). Higher plenty of cloud cover and precipitation could generate some 275 uncertainties in the Sichuan Basin and Lianghu Plain. Additionally, NH₃ concentration 276 distribution might not be always in agreement with emission pattern due to its high 277 reactive ability, solubility and short-lived in the atmosphere (Huang et al., 2012); 278 Higher surface temperature and humidity could speed up NH₃ consumption 279 simultaneously. And Sichuan Basin is high SO₂ pollution district where NH₃ gas could easily react with SO₂ (Zhang et al., 2009). Therefore, these factors lead the 280 281 inconsistent between satellite monitoring and our inventory.

To test the sensitivity of the NH₃ emissions spatial patterns to input activity data, an emissions inventory (PRO-NH₃(China)) was developed using the same methods that were employed to create CAF_NH₃ except county-level activity data for provincial disaggregation using regression models (Zhang et al., 2007;Zhou et al., 2014). The E_{total} of PRO-NH₃ is 7.3 TgNH₃ yr⁻¹, which is 12.5% less than the CAF_NH₃ value. 287 For a more detailed comparison, the relative difference was defined as $RD = (E_1 - E_2)$ / ((E₁ + E₂)/2) (Wang et al., 2012), where E₁ and E₂ are the E_{total} for agricultural 288 289 fertilizer of the counties for CAF_NH₃ and for PRO-NH₃ for each county, respectively. 290 Fig. 3 shows all counties' frequency and spatial distributions of the RDs. The spatial 291 bias of the provincial disaggregation increases as the absolute RDs. A negative 292 (positive) RD suggests an overestimation (underestimation) of a county's emissions 293 by utilizing the provincial disaggregation approach (PRO-NH₃). The mean absolute 294 RD was 48.7% for all counties. In 37% of the countries, the absolute RDs were found 295 higher than 50%. In addition, the PRO-NH₃ emission pattern is lowly correlated with 296 the CAF-NH₃ pattern (R = 0.49, p<0.01). These results indicate that spatial bias can 297 be substantially reduced using the county-level activity data and that provincial 298 disaggregation using regression models cannot determine the county-scale structure of 299 the spatial distribution of activity data within provinces. Large RDs were often 300 observed in provinces and regions in which the development status significantly 301 varies, such as Sichuan, Qinghai, Inner Mongolia and Tibet.

302 By comparing nitrogen fertilizer, compound fertilizer, rural population, rice, wheat, 303 maize, cattle, sheep and pigs activity data (1978-2007) which are the major NH₃ 304 emission sources in this study from NBSC provincial statistics (sums of the provincial 305 data), IFA and FAO (national data), it was found that 64.8% IFA and FAO statistics 306 underestimated the above activity data from 1978 to 2007 because of the difference 307 statistical criteria, especially rural population and sheep attained 100% and 80.0% 308 respectively (Fig. S3). The possible underestimation of national emission statistics has 309 been demonstrated by NH₃ emission trends based on the per capita livestock that can 310 cover all the NH₃ emission during the whole lifespan of livestock in Gu et al. (2012), 311 and this fact may support our conclusion. Considering the information presented here 312 and the limit of county-level activity data availability in 1978-2007, province-level 313 activity data from 1978 to 2007 was used in our study in order to develop high 314 resolution inventory.

315 Fig. 4 shows the monthly NH_3 emissions in 2008 from various sources, which are 316 generally in agreement with the local climate, planting time and cultivation practices. 317 Higher emissions occurred during the summer (June to August) and accounted for 318 39.7% of the annual total emissions. These higher emissions are virtually identical 319 with several in situ data sets (Ianniello et al., 2010; Meng et al., 2011). In addition, the 320 seasonality of emissions from IASI and Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) 321 satellite observations demonstrated excellent consistent with the temporal distribution 322 of our inventory which is a summer maximum of NH₃ emissions in China (Shephard 323 et al., 2011; Van Damme et al., 2015). The peak value was found for July (1.2 TgNH₃ yr⁻¹). This value was approximately 3.1 times larger than the smallest value 324 325 (January). Regarding synthetic fertilizer sources, NH₃ emissions significantly 326 increased in April, peaked in July, and then decreased. This pattern could be partly attributed to an increased application of synthetic fertilizer and higher temperatures. 327 328 In China, winter wheat and oilseed rape are typically seeded in late September and 329 early October with the base fertilizer application. The basal dressing and topdressing 330 of summer maize occur in June and August. In addition, early rice sowing, late rice 331 sowing and transplanting typically occur in April and July and are accompanied by 332 base fertilization. For these crops, topdressing is performed in late June and late 333 September, respectively. A total of 50~80% of the synthetic fertilizer is applied at or 334 around planting (Zhang et al., 2011). The largest livestock manure spreading 335 emissions also occurred in summer and accounted for nearly 28.8% of livestock 336 manure spreading emissions. This result might be explained by larger EFs related to 337 the substantial increase in ambient temperature and little variation in the livestock 338 population among the different months (Huang et al., 2012). The NH₃ emissions in 339 winter (December to February) were lower due to the relatively lower temperature 340 and infrequent agricultural activities. The spatial distributions of CAF NH₃ for January, April, July and October are shown in Fig. S4. In western China, rural 341 342 excrement's monthly contribution proportions were higher than in eastern China,

particularly during winter (1.6 times); In central China, synthetic fertilizer's monthly
contribution proportions began to exceed livestock manure in April (Fig. S5),
however, this condition occurred in May in eastern and western China because of
temperature rebounded significantly. In addition, NH₃ emissions in central China (i.e.,
in Guangdong, Guangxi and Hainan) were typically more stable than in eastern China
(i.e., in Jilin, Liaoning and Heilongjiang) because of less dramatic temperature
fluctuations and less intensive agricultural activities.

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351 **3.3 Historical Time Trend for NH₃ Emissions in China**

352 Annual CAF NH₃ emissions were estimated based on the activity data, the EFs and 353 related parameters as described in the Methodology section for 1978 to 2008. Fig. 5 354 shows the annual variations in E_{total} and the distributions of each sector during the 355 study years. The emissions increased from 3.2 to 8.4 Tg (2.6 times) during the period 356 1978-2008. Fertilizer has been promoted as an important means to improve crop 357 yields because the overall grain response to fertilizer and to technological and 358 institutional changes is viewed as crucial to Chinese agricultural production (Wang et 359 al., 1996). In addition, because of the initiation of reform and opening-up in 1978, the 360 government has implemented a subsidy policy with respect to fertilizer and urged 361 farmers to apply additional fertilizer to increase grain yields. From 1978 to 2008, E_{total} 362 fluctuated, with peaks in 1987, 1996 and 2005. The NH₃ emissions growth rates in 363 1978-1987 and 1988-1996 were 41.7% and 51.3%, respectively, primarily as a result of the improvement of the unified food price in 1979 to increase the enthusiasm of 364 365 farmers after the establishment of the Householder's Responsibility System. The 366 system enhanced China's agricultural intensification degree and continuously 367 increased the intensity of fertilizer use. In 1988, NH₃ emissions appeared to decrease. 368 The primary reason for this decrease was the shortage and/or inflated price of supplies 369 and equipment required for agricultural production, particularly the substantially 370 higher prices of synthetic fertilizer and fodder, which increased agricultural

371 production costs and thus affected production output. In addition, a severe drought 372 occurred during the entire year, which seriously affected agricultural production (Ma 373 and Zhao, 1989). In 1997-2005, the NH₃ emission growth rate was 17.4%. This rate 374 reflects a steady growth trend although one that was slower than that of the first two 375 periods because following the grain yield peak in 1998 (512.3 Tg, NBSC, 2009a) 376 grain prices decreased as a result of oversupply. These events sharply reduced the 377 enthusiasm of farmers engaged in agricultural production. In addition, with China's 378 accession to the World Trade Organization in 2001, lower overseas grain prices 379 restrained the increase of domestic grain prices, which encouraged the rural 380 population transfer to non-agricultural production. The national government did not 381 recognize the problem's severity until the end of 2003 and then issued a series of 382 favorable and preferential agricultural policies, including the repeal of the agriculture 383 tax. This policy approach reversed the damaging decline of crop yields. However, 384 influenced by the Asian financial crisis and El Nino, in 1997, emissions decreased. 385 Since 2005, grain yields have continuously increased, and the quantity of synthetic 386 fertilizer applied has decreased overall as a result of the dissemination of new 387 technologies for soil testing and fertilizer formulation. E_{total} decreased in 2007 and 388 then increased. Natural disasters and livestock and poultry disease caused a marked 389 decline in livestock breeding stock, which is the primary reason for the sudden 390 decrease in NH₃ emissions in 2007. That is, livestock manure emissions decreased 18.8% compared with 2006. 391

Regarding the contribution by each sector in China, the contribution of livestock manure spreading increased from 37.0% in 1978 to 45.5% in 2008 because fertilization practices changed from organic to inorganic fertilizer and then to a combination of these types. To encourage farmers to use more organic fertilizer and to spur the development of organic fertilizer resources across the country, in 1988, the Chinese State Council published "With respect to instruction of valuing and reinforcing organic fertilizer." Subsequently, farmers realized that organic fertilizer

399 could play a significant role in water conservation, soil fertilization and soil 400 improvement. In addition, livestock and poultry breeding techniques were improved 401 as a result of the rapid increase in egg, milk and meat consumption. The contribution 402 of livestock manure spreading (from pigs, poultry and dairy cattle) has been 403 increasing during the past 31 years, others (from cattle, sheep, horses, donkeys and 404 mules) have observed the opposite trend. However, the largest contributors are cattle 405 and pigs (46.6% and 23.3%, respectively, on average) (Table S4). The average 406 contribution of synthetic fertilizer to E_{total} is approximately 38.3% during the past 31 407 years, and the minimum and maximum is 33.4% and 42.7% respectively. Generally, 408 synthetic fertilizer application exhibits a strong positive correlation with crop yields $(R^2=0.89)$ (Fig. S6). In addition, because of the growth effect of synthetic fertilizer in 409 410 agriculture, the high demand for synthetic fertilizer will not change. Synthetic 411 fertilizer application will continue to increase as the optimization of the domestic 412 agricultural planting structure and the cash crop planting area increase. The 413 contribution of the rural excrement sector substantially decreased from 20.3% in 1978 414 to 8.5% in 2008 as a result of the decline in China's rural population that accompanied 415 rapid urbanization. The contributions of cake fertilizer and straw returning were small 416 and remained stable during the study period. Their average contributions were 417 approximately 3.8% and 4.5%, respectively. Collectively, these findings support the 418 hypothesis that in addition to the limitation of climate conditions, agricultural 419 production suffered as a consequence of the co-ordination and control of the country's 420 agricultural policy, which directly affected the NH₃ emissions of fertilizers used in 421 agricultural production. That is, to a certain extent, the NH_3 emissions attributable to 422 agricultural fertilizer reflect the country's agricultural policy. Overall, our findings are 423 in substantial qualitative agreement with the analysis of China's fertilizer policies by 424 Li et al (Li et al., 2013).

425

426 **4. Discussion**

427 **4.1 Differences with Previous NH₃ Emissions Inventories**

Table 1 presents a comparison of the 2004-2008 NH₃ emission inventories for China 428 429 of this study with other inventories that investigated the same emission sources. Our 430 estimate is 22.8% less than that of EDGAR v.4.2 (2013), 20.4% less than that of Cao 431 et al. (2010), and 43.1% less than that of Dong et al. (2010). These differences 432 primarily result from differences in synthetic fertilizer emissions. The previous 433 estimates employed uniform EFs for the entire country, which were derived from 434 foreign expert evaluations or European rather than local data. However, despite using 435 corrected EFs (Zhang et al., 2011), our estimate is 23.3% lower than that of Zhang et 436 al. (2011). This difference can be partly attributed to the choice of parameters used in 437 the EF corrections. Our estimate is completely based on local measurements, whereas 438 the results of Zhang et al. (2011) were primarily based on measurements performed in 439 Europe. Our estimate is 23.8% higher than that of Huang et al. (2012), 14.5% higher 440 than that of Paulot et al. (2014), 19.2% higher than that of Wang et al. (2009), and 7.7% 441 higher than that of Li et al. (2012). These differences are explained by the differences 442 in base year and by the use of regional EFs as well as local and high-resolution 443 activity data. The annual NH₃ emissions calculated in this study were compared with 444 previous estimates (Wang et al., 2009;Dong et al., 2010), and the results are shown in 445 Fig. 5 (a). A year-by-year comparison of the findings of EDGAR v.4.2 (2013) or 446 Wang et al. (2009) with the findings of this study indicates that the growth trends 447 compare well for 1980-2005. Our estimates for 1994 to 2006 are approximately 1.8 448 times lower than those of Dong et al. (2010) for each year. We compared our monthly 449 variation of synthetic fertilizer application to the findings of Paulot et al. (2014), 450 Huang et al. (2012) and Zhang et al. (2011). Our estimates agree well with the above 451 three inventories for the monthly variation tendency. However, in our study and that 452 of Zhang et al. (2011), emissions peaked in July, whereas in Huang et al. (2012), the 453 emissions peaked in August, and the maximum emission occurred during summer, 454 this phenomenon could be primarily attributed to the local climate conditions, which

455 affected the EFs for the base year, but in Paulot et al. (2014), the emissions peaked in 456 April because erroneous planting dates were used in the crop model such as the winter 457 wheat-summer corn rotation, corn sown in June instead of April in China (Huang et al. 458 2012). This study assumes that 60% of the synthetic fertilizer is used in planting, 20% 459 in growth and 20% in harvest. Regarding livestock manure, our estimates are 460 approximately 1.6 times larger than the monthly results of Huang et al. because of 461 different base years, EF selection and differences in livestock population. In our study, 462 emissions for livestock manure spreading peaked in June-August, which was similar 463 to the corresponding findings of Paulot et al. (2014), whereas the monthly emission in 464 winter in our study was nearly 2.2-fold higher than in Paulot et al. (2014). The reason 465 is that in Paulot et al. (2014) the timing of livestock manure spreading is presumed to 466 be identical with synthetic fertilizer application and the crops hardly need synthetic 467 fertilizer application in winter, however, in this study the number of livestock is same 468 during each month of the year and the EFs for the same season of different months are 469 equivalent.

470

471 **4.2 Impacts of NH₃ Emissions on Urban Air pollution**

472 A key research and policy question is how NH₃ emissions affect China's urban air pollution (in terms of PM_{2.5} and its precursors, e.g., NOx, SO₂ and NH₃). Because 473 474 China is a large agricultural country, CAF is the nation's largest emitter of NH₃. 475 However, China is in the midst of an urban expansion necessary to becoming an 476 economic superpower. The nation's urbanization rate (the urbanization rate equals the 477 proportion of the urban population and the total population, http://www.stats.gov.cn/) 478 rapidly increased from 17.9% in 1978 to 47.0% in 2008 (NBSC, 2009a). In addition 479 to urbanization, the difference between CAF NH₃ emissions and NOx and SO₂ 480 emissions from fossil-fuel combustion is being effaced by the development of 481 intensive agricultural and livestock production in marginal zones between rural and 482 urban areas, which results in PM2.5 that exacerbates urban air quality because the

483 pollutants react more easily (Gu et al., 2014). Additionally, the high PM_{2.5} levels of 484 2014 in China occurred in areas that overlap with agricultural areas (Fig. S7). 485 Apparently, the CAF NH₃ emissions cause urban air pollution by aerial transformation. 486 Using a response surface modeling technique, Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2011) revealed that approximately 50-60% of the increases in NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} aerosol concentrations 487 were caused by the 90% increase in NH₃ emissions from 1990-2005 in East China. 488 489 Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2013) utilized GEOS-Chem to examine the impact of 490 precursors of changes in anthropogenic emissions on the change in 491 sulfate-nitrate-ammonium aerosols over China during 2000-2015, and found that the 492 advantage of SO₂ reduction would be totally neutralized if NH₃ emissions increased 493 by 16% from 2006 to 2015, as anticipated based on China's recent growth rate. 494 Therefore, to decrease PM_{2.5} concentrations and improve urban air quality in China, a 495 more effective approach would be to simultaneously decrease NOx, SO₂ and NH₃ 496 emissions. However, the determination of the degree to which CAF NH₃ contributes 497 to the urban PM_{2.5} concentration is a topic for future research. Our high resolution 498 inventory can be applied to simulate atmospheric aerosol formation in air quality 499 models with a bidirectional NH₃ exchange module, and then explore the effects of 500 NH₃ emissions on China's urban air pollution.

- 501
- 502 **5. Implications for NH₃ Emissions**

503 With the local high-resolution data, spatially and temporally precise EF_{NH3} and related 504 parameters, times series of CAF NH₃ emissions were developed, which provide the 505 high-resolution maps of NH_3 emission densities, the source apportionment, and the 506 spatial and temporal pattern for 2008 as well as a historical time trend analysis of total 507 NH₃ emissions from 1978 to 2008. Additionally, we could distinguish NH₃ emissions 508 hotspots and their spatial and temporal variations as well as identify the influence of 509 national agricultural policy changes on NH₃ emissions because the initiation of reform 510 and opening-up. Fortunately, the rate of NH₃ emissions during the last decade has 511 increased slowly compared with 1978-1996. Because of their high volatility, urea and 512 ABC have been gradually replaced by compound nitrogen-phosphorous-potassium 513 and organic fertilizers in the wake of the country attaching greater importance to the 514 food security problem. Although an increasing portion of the rural population has 515 moved to cities in the current period of rapid urbanization, a large rural population 516 will continue to exist in the next decades (Wang et al., 2012). Agricultural fertilizer 517 will continue to be required to meet the increasing demand for food, and fertilizer 518 application technology will slowly improve (Sutton et al., 2011). To decrease the NH₃ 519 emissions from agricultural fertilizers, it is necessary to enhance the efficient use of 520 agricultural fertilizer, reduce the intensity of agricultural fertilizer use, improve 521 environmental factors and accelerate abatement strategy development. Liu et al. (2013, 522 2010a) noted that the accuracy as well as the temporal and spatial resolution of 523 CAF NH_3 inventories is essential to better quantify atmospheric N deposition and 524 more accurately assess nitrogen flows in cropland (Liu et al., 2013;Liu et al., 2010a). 525 Nevertheless, our inventory still exist several uncertainties especially in the emissions 526 from synthetic fertilizer application and livestock manure spreading due to the 527 exceedingly high values and large amount of parameters related to the emission 528 factors adjustment. It has been demonstrated that a dependable data-driven approach 529 and local experiments or process-based models can substantially help increase the 530 spatial and temporal resolution and decrease the uncertainties of emissions inventories. 531 Therefore, they should be implemented in the future research.

532

533 Supporting Information

534 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

- 535 Appendix S1: Methodology
- 536 Appendix S2: Data on activity data, EFs, and RPs
- 537 Appendix S3: Supplement results
- 538 Appendix S4: Supporting references

- 539 Number of figures: 7
- 540 Number of tables: 4
- 541

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- 545

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Table 1 Total NH₃ Emissions (TgNH₃ yr⁻¹); source profile by sector after 2004 and
their comparisons with previous studies; Note: SF = Synthetic fertilizer application;
LS = Livestock manure spreading; RE = Rural excrement; CF = Cake fertilizer; SR =
Straw returning. The gray shaded segments represent the sum of LS and RE.

References	Base year	EFs	SF	LS	RE	CF	SR	total
This study	2008	Correction EFs	3.3	3.8	0.7	0.3	0.3	8.4
Paulot et al., 2014	2005-2008	Region-specific EFs	3.6	2.6				6.2
EDGAR, 2013	2008	IPCC	8.1	1.1				9.2

Cao et al., 2010	2007	EEA	3.6	6.2				9.8
Huang et al., 2012	2006	Correction EFs	3.2	2.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	6.4
Dong et al., 2010	2006	EEA	8.7	4.3	0.7			13.7
Wang et al., 2009	2005	Region-specific EFs	3.5	2.8				6.3
Zhang et al., 2011	2005	Correction EFs	4.3					4.3
Li and Li, 2012	2004	Region-specific EFs	1.8	3.7	1.7			7.2



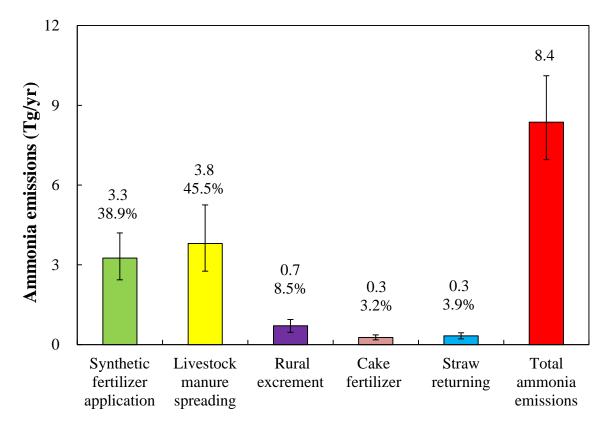


Figure.1 NH₃ emissions from CAF for 2008 by source, and the associated

791 uncertainties.

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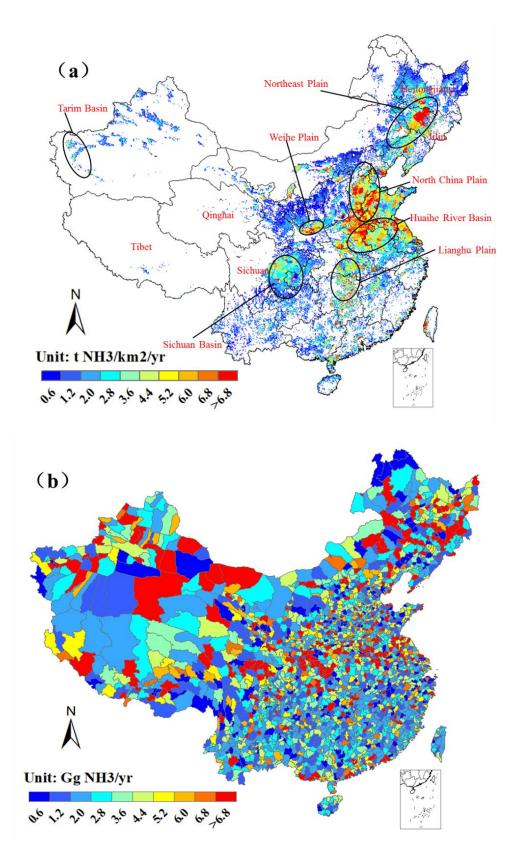


Figure.2 NH₃ emission map of China's agricultural fertilizer at $1 \text{ km} \times 1 \text{ km}$ (a) and the county level (b) for 2008. Major emission areas are circled.

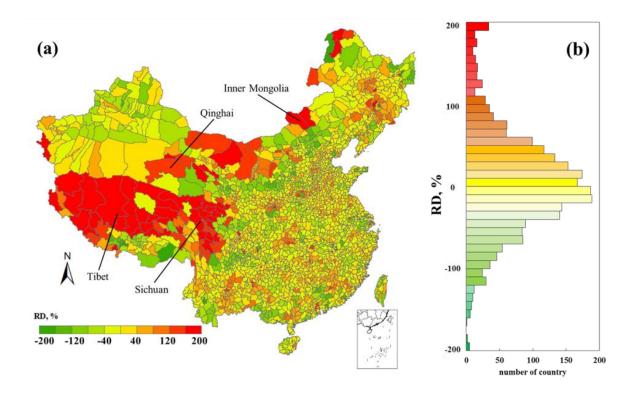
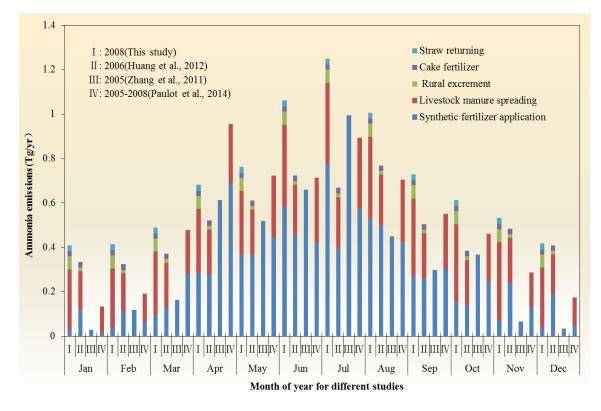
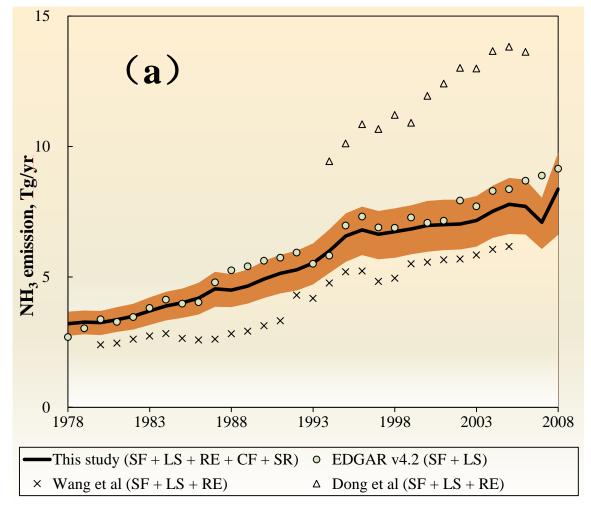


Figure.3 Geographic (a) and frequency (b) distributions of RDs of total NH₃ emissions in 2008 between CAF_NH₃ and PRO-NH₃. RD = $(E_1 - E_2) / ((E_1 + E_2)/2)$, where E_1 and E_2 are the E_{total} for agricultural fertilizer of the counties for CAF_NH₃ and for PRO-NH₃ for each county, respectively. A negative (positive) RD suggests an overestimation (underestimation) of a county's emissions by utilizing the provincial disaggregation approach (PRO-NH₃).





807 Figure.4 Monthly NH₃ emissions in 2008 and compared with earlier studies.



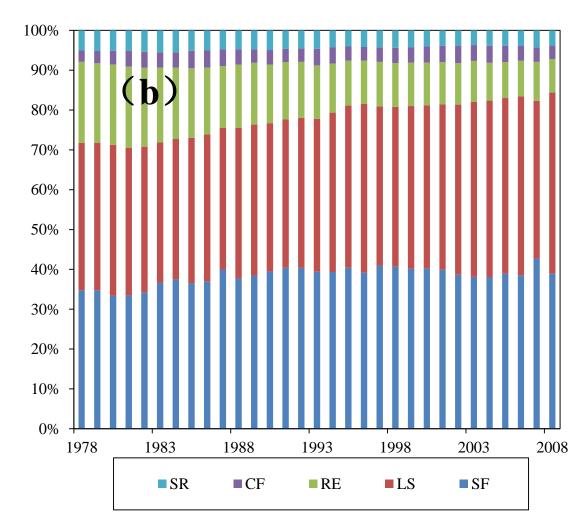


Figure.5 Temporal trend for agricultural fertilizer NH_3 emissions for China (a) and sector contributions between 1978 and 2008 (b). The emission estimate and the uncertainty are provided as a median value (black curve) and the R_{50} (shaded area, for total emissions) derived from a Monte Carlo simulation. Note: SF = Syntheticfertilizer application; LS = Livestock manure spreading; RE = Rural excrement; CF =Cake fertilizer; SR = Straw returning.