

1 **Estimating NH₃ emissions from agricultural fertilizer**
2 **application in China using the bi-directional CMAQ**
3 **model coupled to an agro-ecosystem model**

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18

1 **Abstract**

2 Atmospheric ammonia (NH₃) plays an important role in atmospheric aerosol chemistry.
3 China is one of the largest NH₃ emitting countries with the majority of NH₃ emissions coming
4 from agricultural practices, such as fertilizer application and livestock production. The current
5 NH₃ emission estimates in China are mainly based on pre-defined emission factors that lack
6 temporal or spatial details, which are needed to accurately predict NH₃ emissions. This study
7 provides the first online estimate of NH₃ emissions from agricultural fertilizer application in
8 China, using an agricultural fertilizer modeling system which couples a regional air quality
9 model (the Community Multi-scale Air Quality model, or CMAQ) and an agro-ecosystem
10 model (the Environmental Policy Integrated Climate model, or EPIC). This method improves
11 the spatial and temporal resolution of NH₃ emissions from this sector.

12 We combined the cropland area data of 14 crops from 2710 counties with the Moderate
13 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) land use data to determine the crop
14 distribution. The fertilizer application rates and methods for different crops were collected at
15 provincial or agricultural region levels. The EPIC outputs of daily fertilizer application and
16 soil characteristics were input into the CMAQ model and the hourly NH₃ emissions were
17 calculated online with CMAQ running. The estimated agricultural fertilizer NH₃ emissions in
18 this study were approximately 3Tg in 2011. The regions with the highest modeled emission
19 rates are located in the North China Plain. Seasonally, peak ammonia emissions occur from
20 April to July. Compared with previous researches, this study considers an increased number
21 of influencing factors, such as meteorological fields, soil and fertilizer application, and
22 provides improved NH₃ emissions with higher spatial and temporal resolution.

1 1 Introduction

2 Ammonia (NH₃) is the most important and abundant alkaline constituent in the
3 atmosphere, with a wide range of impacts. It plays a key role in atmospheric chemistry and
4 ambient particle formation. NH₃ partitions to sulfate (SO₄²⁻) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) aerosol, adding
5 to the concentration of secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA), including sulfate, nitrate and
6 ammonium. Field measurements indicate that SIA is a major contributing factor during haze
7 days in China (He et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2012a). Ye et al. (2011)
8 observed a strong correlation between peak levels of fine particles and large increases
9 in NH₃ concentrations. High aerosol concentrations also have a significant effect on visibility
10 range, climate forcing, and human health (Cheng et al., 2013; Ding et al., 2013; Pope et al.,
11 2011). In addition, the deposition of ammonium particles (NH₄⁺) and gaseous ammonia can
12 cause soil acidification, water eutrophication, loss of biodiversity, and perturbation of
13 ecosystems (Lepori et al., 2012; Stevens et al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2013). As one of the largest
14 agricultural and meat producers in the world (FAO 2013), China is a significant source of
15 NH₃ emissions. Previous studies have indicated that China's ammonia emissions contribute
16 23% of the global NH₃ budget (EDGARv4.1 2015),¹ and present a continuously increasing
17 trend (Dong et al., 2010).

18 Nitrogen fertilizer use is one of the largest sources of NH₃ emissions in China,
19 accounting for 35-55% of the national total (Huang et al., 2012b; Zhao et al., 2013). There are
20 many studies focusing on NH₃ emissions from agricultural fertilizer in China, but they are
21 mostly based on traditional "emission factors" (EF) methods. Some of them (Klimont,
22 2001; Streets et al., 2003; Dong et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2013) use nationally averaged EF for
23 the whole of China. However, ammonia volatilization from nitrogen fertilizer application
24 depends strongly on localized environmental parameters, such as ambient temperature and
25 soil acidity (Roelle et al., 2002; Corstanje et al., 2008). In addition, fertilizer application dates
26 and application amounts vary by geographical regions and crop types. Therefore, these
27 estimates are subject to high uncertainties, especially in their temporal and spatial
28 distributions. Zhang et al. (2011) and Huang et al. (2012b) use some relative correction

¹http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/datasets_list.php?v=41

1 factors to introduce the impacts of temperature, soil properties and fertilization method, which
2 somewhat reduce temporal and spatial uncertainties. In recent years, some scientists from
3 outside China have begun to focus on estimating NH₃ emissions based on a bi-directional
4 surface flux model (Cooter et al., 2010; Kruit et al., 2012). For example, a group at the U.S.
5 Environmental Protection Agency (U.S.EPA) (Cooter et al., 2012; Bash et al., 2013; Pleim et
6 al., 2013) has modified the Community Multi-scale Air Quality (CMAQ) model to include a
7 bi-directional NH₃ exchange module. It is coupled to the Fertilizer Emission Scenario Tool for
8 CMAQ (FEST-C) system (Ran et al., 2010; CMAS, 2014), which contains the Environmental
9 Policy Integrated Climate (EPIC) model (William et al., 1984). This system includes the
10 influences of meteorology, air–surface exchange, and human agricultural activity. It has been
11 used to simulate the bi-directional exchange of NH₃ in the United States. Compared with a
12 traditional emission inventory, the model performances for NO₃⁻ concentration and N
13 deposition in the United States are improved (Bash et al., 2013). However, until now this
14 method has not yet been used to estimate the agricultural fertilizer NH₃ emission in China.

15 For the first time in this study, we estimate China's NH₃ emission from agricultural
16 fertilizer use in 2011, based on the CMAQ model with a bi-directional NH₃ exchange module
17 coupled to the FEST-C system with the EPIC agro-ecosystem model. The structure of this
18 modeling system and input data processing are described in detail in the next section. The
19 results of the fertilizer use and NH₃ emissions simulation, along with a comparison to other
20 studies, are discussed in Section 3. The results of CMAQ modeling are also discussed and
21 compared with field measurements. Finally, the uncertainties of this method are discussed in
22 detail at the end of the section.

23 **2 Methodology and inputs**

24 **2.1 General description of the modeling system**

25 **Figure 1** shows the structure of the modeling system, which contains three main
26 components: 1) the FEST-C system containing the EPIC model, 2) the meso-scale
27 meteorology Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model, and 3) the CMAQ air quality

1 model with bi-directional ammonia fluxes. A detailed description of the bi-directional module
2 can be found in [Bash et al. \(2013\)](#). Soil NH_4^+ content and agricultural activity data were
3 simulated by the EPIC model in the FEST-C system. In order to run the EPIC model for this
4 study, we collected and processed local Chinese agricultural information, such as crop
5 distribution, soil characteristics, climate patterns, and fertilizer use characteristics. The details
6 regarding these data sources and processing methods are described in Section 2.2. In addition
7 to agricultural activity and soil information, this system also considers the influence of
8 WRF-simulated weather on NH_3 emissions. The tools in the FEST-C system can be used to
9 process the EPIC input data and also extract the EPIC daily output data required for CMAQ
10 ([CMAS, 2014](#)).

11 The CMAQ simulation domain, as shown in **Figure 2**, is based on a Lambert projection
12 with two true latitudes of 25°N and 40°N and covers most of East Asia with a grid resolution
13 of $36\text{km} \times 36\text{km}$. EPIC data and micrometeorological parameters are estimated for each
14 modeled CMAQ grid cell.

15 **2.2 EPIC modeling in the FEST-C system**

16 The EPIC model is a semi-empirical agro-ecosystem model which is designed to
17 simulate agricultural fields that are characterized by soil, landscape, weather and crop
18 management ([William et al., 1984](#)). A wide range of vegetative systems, tillage systems, and
19 other crop management practices can be simulated in this model ([Gassman et al., 2005](#)).
20 Additionally, soil nitrogen (N), carbon (C) and phosphorus (P) biogeochemical process
21 models are incorporated into EPIC. Therefore, it is well-suited for simulation of fertilizer
22 management and soil nitrogen content in agricultural systems. The input information required
23 by EPIC includes crop site information, soil characteristics, weather and crop management,
24 which are described in detail in the next section. All data are processed to a $36\text{km} \times 36\text{km}$ grid
25 for integration with the air quality model, CMAQ.

26 **2.2.1 Crops**

27 Fourteen crop types are modeled in this study: early rice, middle rice, late rice, winter

1 wheat, spring wheat, corn, sorghum, barley, soybean, potato, peanuts, canola, cotton and other
2 crops. The “other crops” category represents all remaining crops. Data on the cropland area²
3 for each crop grown in the 2710 counties studied was collected and processed based on
4 province-level or city-level statistical yearbooks. The Moderate Resolution Imaging
5 Spectroradiometer (MODIS)³ was used to provide finer level land use information. The
6 MODIS land use product provides annual 500m pixel-scale information for 20 land use
7 categories. MODIS classes 12 (cropland) and 14 (cropland/natural vegetation mosaic) are of
8 particular interest in this study. In addition, irrigation is an important factor for crop growth
9 and soil characteristics. Here, we used the global irrigated area map (GIAM) at 1km
10 resolution (Thenkabail et al., 2008) to divide each crop into irrigated and non-irrigated classes.
11 The BELD4 tool in FEST-C system was used to process these data into 36km x 36km grid
12 cell (CMAS, 2014).

13 **2.2.2 Soil information**

14 The dominant soil type in each grid was taken from the Harmonized World Soil
15 Database (HWSD)⁴, which gives soil distribution with 30 arc-second resolution (about 1km x
16 1km maximally) in China. We matched the soil in each grid with a specific soil profile in a U.S.
17 database (Cooter et al., 2012) based on soil type, ecological region and latitude. Soil
18 characteristics of the matched soil were extracted as soil input for the corresponding grid,
19 including layer depth, soil texture, soil carbon content, carbonate content, bulk density, cation
20 exchange capacity and pH, etc. The assumption taken is that the characteristics of same soil
21 types in similar eco-regions and latitudes between China and the U.S. are similar. These soil
22 characteristics were used as initial input data for EPIC because they were for general soil, not
23 specially for agriculture soil. A spin-up run allowed the soil characteristics to adjust to
24 agriculture management. For example, the EPIC model applied lime to maintain the soil pH at
25 levels that reduce crop stress due to low pH. Besides, the soil characteristics are also updated
26 with CMAQ running.

²Please contact the corresponding author for the dataset

³https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/modis_products_table/mcd12q1

⁴<http://webarchive.iiasa.ac.at/Research/LUC/External-World-soil-database/HTML/>

1 **2.2.3 Weather**

2 The weather parameters required by EPIC for this simulation included maximum and
3 minimum temperature, radiation, precipitation, relative humidity and 10-m wind speed. For
4 the spin-up run, these variables were extracted from the NASA Modern Era Reanalysis for
5 Research and Applications (MERRA) data,⁵ which provides weather information from 1979
6 to the present with 0.5° x 0.667° grid resolution (approximately 55km x 75km maximally).
7 The climatological characteristics of the closest grid-cell in MERRA to each EPIC model
8 grid-cell were selected as the weather input for the EPIC spin-up simulation run in each grid.
9 For the year-specific EPIC run, the output of the Weather Research Forecast Model (WRF)
10 was processed to generate the gridded weather conditions on the CMAQ 36km x 36km grid
11 using the *WRF/CMAQ to EPIC* tool in the FEST-C system (CMAS, 2014).

12 **2.2.4 Crop management**

13 In the EPIC model, the timing of crop management can be prescribed or scheduled based
14 on a heat-unit (HU) method, as described in Cooter et al.(2012). In this study, a combination
15 of prescribed and HU scheduled timing was used. The HU scheduled timing allowed for
16 adaptation to inter-annual and interregional temperature variability and more realistically
17 represents a farmer's dynamic decision-making. At the same time, the timing was also limited
18 to a fixed range based on available information from the Chinese planting information
19 network⁶ and unpublished research about crop management from the Chinese Academy of
20 Agriculture Sciences.⁷ This allowed the timing to be adjusted to Chinese agriculture.

21 Nitrogen fertilizer application information is necessary to accurately estimate NH₃
22 emissions in this study. The application rates for specific fertilizer type, crop and province
23 were extracted from Chinese statistical material (National Bureau of Statistics of China or
24 NBSC, 2012b). The fertilizer types included urea, ammonium bicarbonate (ABC),
25 diammonium phosphate (DAP), N-P-K compound fertilizer (NPK) and others (e.g.

⁵<http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/mdisc/overview/index.shtml>

⁶<http://www.zzys.moa.gov.cn/>

⁷Please contact ylbai@caas.ac.cn for the data

1 ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate). **Table 1** shows the national average application
2 rates for some major crops. We can see that the nitrogen fertilizer application rates for
3 different crops are varied. The largest nitrogen amount is required for cotton and wheat,
4 which are 228.11 and 196.22 kg N/ha, respectively. However, nitrogen-fixing crops (e.g.
5 soybean and peanuts) require much less nitrogen input. Among all the fertilizer types, urea
6 and ammonium bicarbonate are dominant.

7 Besides application rates, the ratio of basal and topdressing fertilizer is also important for
8 ammonia volatilization. Basal fertilizer is used before crops are planted and topdressing
9 fertilizer is used during crop growth. **Figure 3** presents the Chinese agriculture regions used to
10 characterize these management practices. Each region is a geographic area where crop
11 management practices are assumed to be similar. Based on the results of previous field
12 investigations (Wang et al., 2008; Zhang, 2008), the ratios of basal and topdressing fertilizer
13 for different crops in each agriculture region are identified. **Table 2** shows the fertilizer ratios
14 used on three major crops in China and a clear geographical divergence can be observed. For
15 example, the ratio of fertilizer used on wheat in the middle and lower Yangtze River region is
16 1.39, but only 0.33 in the southwest region. In general, the ratio of fertilizer used on corn is
17 the highest of the three major crops. A greater amount of fertilizer is applied to corn just prior
18 to or at planting than is applied to the crop later in the growing season. The information in
19 **Tables 1 and 2** was combined for this study to determine the amount of fertilizer applied to
20 each crop in each grid cell during basal and topdressing activities.

21 **2.3 The bi-directional CMAQ model system**

22 Direct flux measurements have shown that the air–surface flux of NH_3 is bi-directional,
23 and vegetation and soil can be either a sink or a source of atmospheric NH_3 (Fowler et al., 2009;
24 Sutton et al., 1995). The direction and magnitude of the flux depend on the concentration
25 gradient between canopy or soil and the atmosphere. Bash et al. (2013) has implemented a
26 bi-directional ammonia flux module in CMAQv5.0.1 to represent this process. This module is
27 based on the two-layer (soil and vegetation canopy) resistance model described by Pleim et al.
28 (2013), which is similar to the model presented by Nemitz et al. (2001). The NH_3 air–surface

1 flux (F_t) is calculated by the following formula:

$$2 \quad F_t = \frac{1}{R_a + 0.5R_{inc}} (C_c - C_a)$$

3 where the aerodynamic resistance (R_a) and the in-canopy aerodynamic resistance (R_{inc}) are
 4 calculated following [Pleim et al. \(2013\)](#). C_a is the atmospheric NH_3 concentration. C_c is a
 5 function of C_a , the soil compensation point (C_g) and the stomatal compensation point (C_{st}).

$$6 \quad C_c = \frac{\frac{C_a}{R_a + 0.5R_{inc}} + \frac{C_{st}}{R_b + R_{st}} + \frac{C_g}{0.5R_{inc} + R_{bg} + R_{soil}}}{(R_a + 0.5R_{inc})^{-1} + (R_b + R_{st})^{-1} + (R_b + R_w)^{-1} + (0.5R_{inc} + R_{bg} + R_{soil})^{-1}}$$

7
 8 where the quasi laminar boundary layer resistance of leaf surface (R_b), the stomatal resistance
 9 (R_{st}) and the quasi laminar boundary layer resistance of ground surface (R_{bg}) are calculated
 10 following [Pleim et al. \(2013\)](#). The cuticular resistance (R_w) is a function of C_c similar to [Jones](#)
 11 [et al. \(2007\)](#). C_{st} and C_g are calculated as follows:

$$12 \quad C_{st} = M_n / V_m \frac{161500}{T_c} e^{\left(\frac{10380}{T_c}\right)} \Gamma_s$$

$$13 \quad C_g = M_n / V_m \frac{161500}{T_s} e^{\left(\frac{10380}{T_s}\right)} \Gamma_g$$

14 where M_n is the molar mass of NH_3 , V_m is the conversion factor of L to m^3 , and T_s and T_c are the
 15 soil and canopy temperature in K. The appoplast gamma (Γ_s) is modeled with a function similar
 16 to [Zhang et al. \(2010\)](#). The soil gamma (Γ_g) is defined as soil $[\text{NH}_4^+]/[\text{H}^+]$, and the soil NH_4^+
 17 budget in CMAQ is parameterized following the method in EPIC ([Williams et al., 1984](#)). The soil
 18 NH_4^+ would increase due to N deposition, and decrease due to NH_3 evasion and soil
 19 nitrification. When fertilizer is used, Γ_g is calculated by the following function:

$$20 \quad \Gamma_g = \frac{N_{app} / (\theta_s M_N d_s)}{10^{-\text{pH}}}$$

21 where N_{app} is the fertilizer application rate ($\text{g N}/\text{m}^2$), θ_s is the soil volumetric water content
 22 (m^3/m^3), M_N is the molar mass of nitrogen (14 g/mol), d_s is the depth of soil layer (m), and pH is
 23 soil pH. The initial soil NH_4^+ , θ_s and pH are taken from the EPIC output and then calculated in
 24 CMAQ hourly.

1 In addition to the inputs of soil condition and fertilizer use, other input data used were
2 the same as those in the traditional CMAQ model. WRF version 3.5.1 was used to generate
3 the meteorological input. The configuration options used in WRF and CMAQ were the same
4 as those described by [Fu et al. \(2014\)](#).

5 In order to evaluate the performance of this method, two simulations—a Base-case and a
6 bi-directional case (Bidi-case)—were conducted in this study using different methods to
7 estimate ammonia emissions from fertilizer use. For the Base-case, the emission inventory
8 from [Zhao et al. \(2013\)](#) was used, which is estimated by the traditional "emission factors"
9 method. This case did not include the bi-directional flux algorithm in CMAQ. For the Bidi-case,
10 NH₃ emissions were estimated online using the bi-directional module in CMAQ. The emissions
11 of ammonia from other sectors and the emissions of other pollutants were taken from [Zhao et al.](#)
12 [\(2013\)](#) for both cases.

13 3 Results and discussion

14 3.1 Nitrogen fertilizer application

15 Nitrogen fertilizer application was a key aspect in this study, explored through a
16 comparison of the EPIC results to existing statistical data. The N use in each grid cell per day
17 is calculated by the following formula:

$$18 \quad USE_i = \sum_{j=1}^{crop} (N_{ij} \times f_{ij}) \times 129600$$

19 where USE_i (kg) is the N application in grid cell i ; N_{ij} (kg/ha) is the N application rate in the
20 grid cell i for crop j ; f_{ij} is the fraction of cell used for crop j in grid cell i ; and 129600
21 ha/grid is a conversion factor accounting for the area of the grid cell.

22 **Figures 4a and 4b** show the patterns of annual fertilizer use at province-level between
23 the statistical data from [NBSC \(2012a\)](#) and the EPIC output. We can see that EPIC results
24 captured the general pattern, especially for the provinces with the largest fertilizer use (> 1750
25 million kg), such as Henan, Shandong, Jiangsu and Hebei provinces, where the biases were

1 -9.7%, -5.1%, -1% and -0.6%, respectively. At the same time, relatively large biases existed
2 for some provinces, such as Hunan province (-20.6%) and Heilongjiang province (19.2%).
3 This may be due to uncertainty in the statistical data. Additionally, the 36-km grid is relatively
4 coarse and uncertainty exists for the gridded crop areas calculated according to the
5 county-level statistical crop data and MODIS crop data. Because the provinces with a larger
6 bias applied relatively small amounts of fertilizer, these modeled biases are not expected to
7 lead to large biases in the simulations.

8 **Figure 5** shows a comparison of the fraction of N fertilizer use each month between
9 existing statistics and EPIC output. The statistical data is derived from the field investigation
10 from [Zhang et al. \(2008\)](#) for 2004 and the model results capture the temporal characteristics.
11 The fertilizer amounts used from March to July and in October dominated the model, which
12 closely relates to the timing of crop fertilization in China. For example, the North China Plain
13 is the most important agricultural production region in the country, where the major crop
14 planting system is the winter wheat-summer corn rotation. Winter wheat is usually planted in
15 October with an application of basal fertilizer, followed by the topdressing fertilizer in March
16 and April of the next year. Basal fertilizer for summer corn is usually applied in June and
17 topdressing fertilizer in July. The Northeast Plain, another major agricultural region, rice is
18 the dominant crop. Due to temperature limitations, rice is usually seeded in April and May
19 and the topdressing fertilizer is applied in June and July.

20 **3.2 NH₃ emissions**

21 **3.2.1 Spatial and Temporal Distribution**

22 The NH₃ emissions from N fertilizer application in 2011 estimated in this study were
23 approximately 3.0Tg. The spatial distribution of annual NH₃ emission in a 36km x 36km grid
24 is presented in **Figure 6** and shows that NH₃ volatilization was concentrated in Henan,
25 Shandong, Hebei, Jiangsu and Anhui provinces, accounting for 11.1%, 9.9%, 8.8%, 6.7% and
26 7.1% of total emissions, respectively. The highest NH₃ emissions in this region were above
27 386kg/ha. The crop production here is the most intense in China and the total crop area in
28 these five provinces accounts for about 31.4% of China's total. These five provinces

1 consumed approximately 37.3% of the nitrogen fertilizer for the whole country in
2 2011(NBSC, 2012b). Elevated emissions were also due to the high fertilizer application rate.
3 For example, the rate of N fertilizer use for rice in Jiangsu province was above 300kg/ha,
4 which is twice the national average. The smaller contributors to NH₃ emission were primarily
5 located in western China, in Tibet, Qinghai and Gansu province, where the amount of arable
6 land and N fertilizer use was small.

7 **Figure 7b** shows the monthly distribution of ammonia emissions, which were dominant
8 from March to July, and in October, accounting for 88.7% of the annual total. This agrees
9 with the pattern of N fertilizer usage described in Section 3.1. Besides N fertilizer use,
10 weather parameters, like temperature and precipitation, also affected the temporal and spatial
11 distribution of emissions. For example, the emissions in March were much smaller than April
12 and May due to lower temperatures (as shown in **Figure 7a**), even though the amount of
13 consumed fertilizer was nearly equivalent. Similarly, the emissions in June were slightly less
14 than in April and May. A possible reason is that precipitation in June is greater than that in the
15 earlier two months. Based on the statistical data of major Chinese cities (NBSC, 2012a), the
16 total precipitation in June 2011 was 165.1mm, while in April and May, it was 28.5mm and
17 67.4mm, respectively (as shown in **Figure 7a**). **Figure S1** presents the spatial distribution for
18 each month. Some differences for the months with larger emissions can be seen. For example,
19 in the North China Plain, like Hebei, Henan and Shandong provinces, NH₃ emissions were
20 relatively small in May due to lower amounts of fertilizer application. In Northeast China,
21 including Liaoning, Jilin and Heilongjiang provinces, the NH₃ emissions in May, June and
22 July were dominant. In November, major NH₃ emissions occurred in Jiangsu, Hubei and
23 Anhui provinces, when winter canola basal fertilizer was applied.

24 **3.2.2 Comparison with other studies**

25 The ammonia emissions from N fertilizer use in China were estimated for different base
26 years by different methods. The results of comparisons between this study and some previous
27 studies are listed in **Table 3**. In order to make the inventories comparable, we updated the
28 emissions from different years to 2011 based on changes in fertilizer use, temperature and

1 precipitation, as described in the supplementary materials. As presented, the results of this
2 study are generally equivalent and comparable to the research of Zhang et al. (2011) and Huang
3 et al. (2012b), which is 60-70% lower compared with other studies. The discrepancies are
4 mostly caused by the various estimating methods and EF employed. Streets et al. (2003), Dong
5 et al. (2010) and Zhao et al. (2013) used averaged emission factors for all agriculture in China
6 and did not consider the impacts of environmental parameters, e.g. soil pH, precipitation, etc.
7 For example, the EF for urea used by Streets et al. (2003), Dong et al. (2010) and Zhao et al.
8 (2013) are 15%-20% (temperate and tropical ozone). However, the basic emission factors for
9 urea used by Huang et al. (2012b) are 8.8% for acid soil and 30.1% for alkaline soil. The
10 agricultural regions in China are dominated by acidic soil,⁸ so this value is nearly 50% lower
11 compared with averaged EF. In addition to soil pH, precipitation can also decrease NH₃
12 emissions, because precipitation can increase the water content in soil and fertilizer N can be
13 leached to a deeper soil layer by water (Wang et al., 2004). Zhang et al. (2011) adjusted the EF
14 by 0.75, 0.80, 0.85, 0.90, 0.95 and 1.0 for significant rainfall events (>5mm in 24h) within 24h,
15 24-48h, 48-72h, 72-96h, 96-120h and >120h of fertilizer application. In this study, the impacts
16 of soil pH and precipitation on NH₃ emissions were considered by impacting soil gamma and
17 resistances, as shown in Section 2.3. In addition, our study and Zhang et al. (2011) included the
18 impacts of irrigation. The experiments of Wang et al. (2004) in Beijing for the winter
19 wheat-summer maize cycle show that NH₃ volatilization is reduced after irrigation and reveal a
20 low EF value of 2.1-9.5%.

21 **Figure S4 and S5** represent the comparisons of provincial distributions and seasonal
22 variations of these different NH₃ emission inventories. The provincial distributions are similar,
23 and the emissions from Henan, Shandong, Jiangsu, Hebei and Anhui provinces dominate the
24 country's annual total emissions. At the same time, some discrepancy also exists for the specific
25 provinces among the different studies, which may be caused by distinct fertilizer consumptions
26 and emission rates employed. For example, for Henan province, the estimation of Huang et al.
27 (2012b) is the highest among these studies. A possible reason for this difference is that alkaline
28 soil is dominant in Henan province and Huang et al. (2012b) set a uniform high emission factor

⁸<http://www.soil.csdb.cn/>

1 for alkaline soil, which is twice as high as that in [Dong et al. \(2010\)](#). Compared with provincial
2 distributions, the difference of seasonal variations among these studies is larger. The seasonal
3 profile in [Zhao et al. \(2013\)](#) is based on temperature variations. In addition to temperature,
4 others also considered the impacts of fertilizer application timing. It is indeed difficult to
5 capture the exact date of fertilization for all of China, which may have created this large
6 discrepancy amongst studies. For example, [Huang et al. \(2012\)](#) states that the basal fertilizer
7 and topdressing fertilizer of winter wheat are conducted in September and November. However,
8 basal fertilizer was applied in October in our study and in the [Zhang et al. \(2011\)](#), and the
9 topdressing fertilizer is mainly used in March of the next year. The diversity of seasonal
10 fertilization among different studies reflects that the large uncertainties still exist for the
11 temporal distribution of NH_3 emissions and shows that continuing local research is needed.

12 **3.3 Evaluation of the CMAQ results by ground observations**

13 NH_3 is the most important and abundant alkaline constituent in the atmosphere, and NH_3
14 emission estimates can affect the simulation of the inorganic gas-particle system ([Schiferl et
15 al., 2014](#)). As the dominant positive ion in the atmosphere, NH_4^+ preferentially partitions to
16 SO_4^{2-} and then partitions to NO_3^- . In NH_3 -rich regions, the NO_3^- concentration is sensitive to
17 NH_3 changes, but NH_3 changes do not lead to large differences in SO_4^{2-} concentration ([Wang
18 et al., 2011](#)). In order to evaluate the reliability of this NH_3 emissions estimate, we compared
19 the CMAQ-modeled NO_3^- concentrations using different NH_3 emissions against actual
20 observations. In China, observation data on chemical components of fine particulates is very
21 limited and not publicly available. For this study, we collected the observation data at three
22 monitoring sites: Shanghai station (121.5E, 31.2N), Suzhou station (120.6E, 31.3N) and
23 Nanjing station (118.7E, 32.1N). Ion chromatography (Dionex-3000, Dionex Corp, CA, USA)
24 was used to measure daily NO_3^- concentration in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ particles ([Cheng et al., 2014](#)). Some
25 statistical indices, including mean observation (Mean Obs.), mean prediction (Mean Pred.),
26 bias, normalized mean bias (NMB), normalized mean error (NME) and correlation coefficient
27 (R) were calculated for the Base-case and Bidi-case in June, August and November, as shown
28 in **Table 4**. For the Base-case, the emission inventory from [Zhao et al. \(2013\)](#) was used. For

1 the Bidi-case, the NH₃ emission from fertilizer use was calculated online using CMAQ, while
2 other emissions were also from [Zhao et al. \(2013\)](#). The model performance from the Bidi-case
3 is comparable to or better in general than the Base-case. For August and November, the
4 NMBs and NMEs were improved by 3.29%-66.85% and 0.22%-46.32%, respectively. The
5 correlation coefficients for the Bidi-case were also comparable or better than the Base-case.
6 Though the bias for the Bidi-case is a little larger in June, other statistical indices were
7 acceptable. For example, the NME decreased from 57.3% to 45.1% and the correlation
8 coefficient increased from 0.83% to 0.91% at Shanghai station. The correlation coefficient at
9 Suzhou station and the NME at Nanjing station were comparable for these two cases.

10 **3.4 Uncertainty analysis**

11 This is a pilot study to apply this model system to estimate NH₃ emissions in China and
12 therefore, large uncertainties still exist in some aspects of this method. The quality of input data,
13 mathematical algorithm, and parameters applied in EPIC and the bi-directional model may be
14 associated with uncertainties in the model output.

15 Fertilizer application rates for each crop are important input data for the estimation of NH₃
16 emissions from agricultural fertilizers and were obtained from agricultural statistics. These
17 statistical data have some level of uncertainty, because the number of samples in the census are
18 limited. [Beusen et al. \(2008\)](#) has employed an uncertainty of $\pm 10\%$ for the statistical data of
19 fertilizer use based on expert judgments when estimating the global NH₃ emission. A June 2006
20 sensitivity run of this bi-directional model in U.S. shows that a 50% increase of crop fertilizer
21 use would result in a 31% increase in NH₃ emissions ([Dennis et al., 2013](#)). In addition, the spatial
22 distribution of NH₃ emissions from agricultural fertilizer is strongly related to cropland area and
23 its distribution, which are achieved from the MODIS data. [Friedl et al. \(2010\)](#) mentions that the
24 producer's and user's accuracies are 83.3% and 92.8% for MODIS class 12 (cropland) and 60.5%
25 and 27.5% for class 14 (Cropland/Natural Vegetation Mosaic) in MODIS Collection 5 product.
26 This leads to the uncertainties in spatial distribution. Additionally, due to the limited data
27 available, the initial characteristics of the dominant soil in each grid were acquired from a U.S.
28 dataset. Although we have matched the soil based on soil type, eco-region, and latitude,

1 uncertainties still existed due to different long-term agriculture management.

2 Based on the algorithm described in Section 2.3, the EPIC outputs, including soil NH_4^+
3 concentration, soil volumetric water content (θ_s) and soil pH, are important inputs of the
4 bi-directional module. EPIC has been used and evaluated world-wide to simulate the nitrogen
5 cycle and soil water content. Some validation studies have found favorable results for soil
6 nitrogen and/or crop nitrogen uptake levels (Cavero et al., 1998 and 1999; Wang et al., 2014).
7 However, less accurate simulation results have also been reported (Chung et al., 2002). Li et al.
8 (2004) found that the EPIC model could catch the variation of soil volumetric water content in
9 different years accurately, with a relative bias of 11.7%. The research conducted by Huang et al.
10 (2006) also showed that the EPIC-simulated long-term average θ_s values were not significantly
11 different from the measured values in the Loess Plateau of China. For soil pH, the normal
12 growth pH range of three dominant crops (rice, corn and wheat) is 6.0-7.0.^{9,10} The 95%
13 confidence interval of EPIC-simulated values is 6.3-7.6, which is reasonable and acceptable
14 although uncertainties still exist.

15 The bi-directional ammonia flux module in CMAQ is the core of this model system. The
16 uncertainties of the bi-directional exchange parameterization would bring uncertainties to NH_3
17 emission estimates. Pleim et al. (2013) has compared the simulated NH_3 flux from the box
18 model of this ammonia bi-directional flux algorithm with observations in three periods. The
19 results showed that the model generally reproduced the observed series and significantly
20 correlated with the observations ($p < 0.001$). The mean normalized biases were 78.6%, -49% and
21 1% for soybeans (18 June-24 August 2002), corn (21-29 June 2007) and corn (11-19 July 2007),
22 respectively. The soil gamma (Γ_g) and appoplast gamma (Γ_s) are two important parameters in
23 this ammonia bi-directional flux algorithm (Bash et al., 2013) and their parameterization
24 remains uncertain (Massad et al., 2010). The field measurements of Γ_g and Γ_s are limited, and
25 measured values are scattered, owing to complex impact factors (Massad et al., 2010 and
26 reference therein). Dennis et al.(2013) assessed the effects of these uncertainties. A 50%
27 increase of Γ_g would result in a 42.3% increase in NH_3 emission. Two different
28 parameterization methods of Bash et al.(2013) and Massad et al. (2010) could lead to a 17%

⁹<http://njzx.mianxian.gov.cn/xxgk/ccpf/20804.htm>

¹⁰<http://nmsp.cals.cornell.edu/publications/factsheets/factsheet5.pdf>

1 change in NH₃ emissions.

2 In order to reduce the uncertainty in emission estimates, work is needed to improve the
3 quality of input data and record additional local measurements of soil and vegetation chemistry.
4 Ambient NH₃ concentration and flux data are also needed to enhance and evaluate the
5 parameterizations of EPIC model and bi-directional module.

6 **4 Conclusions**

7 This study provides the first estimates of 2011 NH₃ emissions from N fertilizer use in
8 China using the bi-directional CMAQ model rather than the traditional "emission factors"
9 method. Hourly NH₃ emissions can be calculated online with CMAQ. Compared with
10 previous researches, this method considers more influencing factors, such as meteorological
11 fields, soil and fertilizer application, and provides improved spatial and temporal resolution.
12 The higher resolution of NH₃ emissions is beneficial for modeling and exploring the impacts of
13 NH₃ emission on air quality. In addition, the results can be used for a better comparison of novel
14 and traditional methods of emission estimation. This is an important contribution to scientific
15 literature on this topic.

16 China's NH₃ emissions from N fertilizer application were approximately 3.0Tg in 2011.
17 The major contributors were Henan, Shandong, Hebei, Jiangsu and Anhui provinces,
18 accounting for 11.1%, 9.9%, 8.8%, 6.7% and 7.1% of total emissions, respectively. The
19 monthly distribution of these ammonia emissions is in line with the pattern of N fertilizer
20 consumption. The emissions are dominant from March to July and in October, accounting for
21 88.7% of the whole year. Compared to other NH₃ sources, nitrogen fertilizer application is the
22 second largest contributor to NH₃ emissions in China. It is important to reduce the use of N
23 fertilizer to control ammonia emissions.

24 This is a pilot study to apply this model system to estimate NH₃ emissions in China and
25 gaps still exist for this method due to the uncertainties of model parameterization and input data.
26 Much work is still needed to improve this model system when applied to China in the future.
27 For example, it is important to build the initial soil input file for EPIC based on Chinese soil
28 profile data instead of U.S. data. In addition, Chinese farmers' logic of agriculture management

1 must be explored and an automatic management algorithm in the EPIC model for China shall
2 be designed. This model system can be improved with additional local measurements of soil
3 and vegetation chemistry, ambient NH₃ concentration and flux data to enhance and evaluate the
4 parameterizations of the EPIC model and bi-directional module.

5 Although uncertainties still exist in the NH₃ emission estimation, the CMAQ-EPIC
6 modeling system allows for some interesting future research. This system is a combination of
7 air quality and agro-ecosystem models and couples the processes and impacts that human
8 activity has on air quality through food production. The model could be applied at finer grid
9 resolutions for China in order to more accurately capture spatial gradients in NH₃ emissions
10 and the resulting impacts on air quality. Secondly, this system reflects the impacts of weather
11 and climate on NH₃ emissions. Therefore, it can be coupled with climate models to explore
12 the interaction of climate change and NH₃ emission. If linking it to a water quality and
13 transport model, the impacts of atmospheric nitrogen deposition from CMAQ and nutrient run
14 off from EPIC on water eutrophication can be estimated. This study is the first attempt to
15 apply this model system to China, and it is also the foundation for future scientific research.

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Tables

Table 1. The 2011 national-average fertilizer application rate for major crops in China (kg N/ha).

| | Total | Urea | ABC ^a | DAP ^b | NPK ^c | Others |
|-------------|--------|--------|------------------|------------------|------------------|--------|
| Early rice | 183.48 | 125.03 | 20.03 | 4.00 | 21.87 | 12.55 |
| Middle rice | 185.62 | 117.38 | 33.15 | 4.04 | 18.69 | 12.36 |
| Late rice | 181.14 | 124.20 | 19.13 | 4.02 | 21.63 | 12.17 |
| Wheat | 196.22 | 123.90 | 19.05 | 16.14 | 29.98 | 7.16 |
| Corn | 186.75 | 123.45 | 19.05 | 12.63 | 18.85 | 12.77 |
| Soybean | 45.92 | 19.50 | 1.65 | 10.48 | 11.51 | 2.77 |
| Peanuts | 95.14 | 36.30 | 11.70 | 3.43 | 29.03 | 14.68 |
| Canola | 128.14 | 75.90 | 30.90 | 2.35 | 11.02 | 7.97 |
| Cotton | 228.11 | 152.40 | 9.45 | 24.34 | 27.45 | 14.46 |

^a ammonium bicarbonate(ABC); ^b diammonium phosphate (DAP); ^c N-P-K compound fertilizer (NPK)

Table 2. Ratio of basal and topdressing fertilizer for major crops in each agriculture region.

| Region | Wheat | | Corn | | Rice | |
|--|-------|-------------|-------|-------------|-------|-------------|
| | basal | topdressing | Basal | topdressing | basal | topdressing |
| The Northeast Region | 1.00 | 0.80 | 1.00 | 1.23 | 1.00 | 0.88 |
| The Gan-Xin Region | 1.00 | 0.44 | 1.00 | 3.50 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| The Southern China Region | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 2.98 | 1.00 | 2.91 |
| The Huang-Huai-Hai Region | 1.00 | 0.80 | 1.00 | 2.07 | 1.00 | 1.29 |
| The Loess Plateau Region | 1.00 | 0.44 | 1.00 | 3.50 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| The Inner Mongolia and along the Great Wall Region | 1.00 | 0.44 | 1.00 | 3.50 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| The Tibetan Plateau Region | 1.00 | 0.44 | 1.00 | 3.50 | 1.00 | 1.00 |
| The Southwest Region | 1.00 | 0.33 | 1.00 | 2.33 | 1.00 | 1.88 |
| The middle and lower Yangtze River Region | 1.00 | 1.39 | 1.00 | 1.66 | 1.00 | 1.29 |

Table 3. Comparison of NH₃ emissions from fertilizer use in our study with other published

results.

| Reference | Year | Original NH ₃ Emission (Tg/yr) | Revised to 2011(Tg/yr) |
|-----------------------|------|---|------------------------|
| Streets et al. (2003) | 2000 | 6.7 | 7.0 |
| Zhang et al. (2011) | 2005 | 3.6 | 3.8 |
| Huang et al.(2012b) | 2006 | 3.2 | 3.2 |
| Dong et al. (2010) | 2006 | 8.7 | 8.9 |
| Zhao et al.(2013) | 2010 | 9.8 | 9.8 |
| This study | 2011 | 3 | 3 |

Table 4. The performance statistics of CMAQ-modeled daily NO₃⁻ concentrations for Base-case and Bidi-case, compared to the observations at three monitoring stations.

| | | Shanghai station | Suzhou station | Nanjing station | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------|--------|
| June (2011.6.1-6.30) | | Mean Obs. (μg/m ³) | 7.27 | 13.43 | 12.81 |
| | Base-case | Mean Pred. (μg/m ³) | 8.41 | 9.32 | 13.44 |
| | | Bias(μg/m ³) | 1.14 | -4.10 | 0.63 |
| | | NMB(%) | 15.65 | -30.56 | 4.90 |
| | | NME(%) | 57.34 | 40.71 | 59.93 |
| | | R | 0.83 | 0.81 | 0.24 |
| | | Bidi-case | Mean Pred. (μg/m ³) | 8.60 | 7.16 |
| | Bias(μg/m ³) | | 1.32 | -6.26 | -5.23 |
| | NMB(%) | | 18.21 | -46.63 | -40.81 |
| | NME(%) | | 45.07 | 50.63 | 60.40 |
| R | 0.91 | | 0.83 | 0.14 | |
| August (2011.7.20-8.20) | | Mean Obs. (μg/m ³) | 2.99 | 7.04 | 6.24 |
| | Base-case | Mean Pred. (μg/m ³) | 6.42 | 14.51 | 12.02 |
| | | Bias(μg/m ³) | 3.43 | 7.46 | 5.78 |
| | | NMB(%) | 114.84 | 105.95 | 92.68 |
| | | NME(%) | 142.48 | 115.89 | 97.18 |
| | | R | 0.62 | 0.28 | 0.87 |
| | | Bidi-case | Mean Pred. (μg/m ³) | 4.42 | 10.36 |
| | Bias(μg/m ³) | | 1.43 | 3.31 | 2.62 |
| | NMB(%) | | 47.99 | 47.01 | 41.92 |
| | NME(%) | | 96.16 | 79.43 | 62.64 |
| R | 0.64 | | 0.24 | 0.90 | |
| November (2011.11.1-11.30) | | Mean Obs. (μg/m ³) | 9.42 | 11.59 | 14.57 |
| | Base-case | Mean Pred. (μg/m ³) | 12.59 | 16.72 | 22.62 |
| | | Bias(μg/m ³) | 3.17 | 5.14 | 8.05 |
| | | NMB(%) | 33.68 | 44.32 | 55.24 |
| | | NME(%) | 83.85 | 53.68 | 74.81 |
| | | R | 0.71 | 0.72 | 0.68 |
| | | Bidi-case | Mean Pred. (μg/m ³) | 12.28 | 12.41 |
| | Bias(μg/m ³) | | 2.86 | 0.82 | -1.68 |
| | NMB(%) | | 30.39 | 7.05 | -11.56 |
| | NME(%) | | 65.33 | 53.46 | 43.35 |
| R | 0.78 | | 0.72 | 0.79 | |

Figure Captions

Fig.1 The modeling system of agricultural fertilizer NH_3 emission for China.

Fig.2 The modeling domain. The black points represent the locations of the nitrate observations.

Fig.3 The nine agriculture regions in China. The thin black line represents the county boundary and the small insert represents the South China Sea and its islands.

Fig.4 Comparison of annual N fertilizer use at province level between existing statistical data (a) and EPIC output (b). The small insert represents the South China Sea and its islands.

Fig.5 Comparison of the fraction of N fertilizer use by each month between statistics and EPIC output.

Fig.6 Spatial distribution of NH_3 emissions from N fertilizer use in $36\text{km}\times 36\text{km}$ grid cell (kg/yr). The small insert represents the South China Sea and its islands.

Fig. 7(a) The variation of monthly precipitation (green) and temperature (blue) in 31 provinces. In the box-and-whisker plots, the boxes and whiskers indicate the 100th (max), 75th, 50th (median), 25th and 0th (min) percentiles, respectively. The point represents the average value. (b) Monthly NH_3 emissions from N fertilizer use.

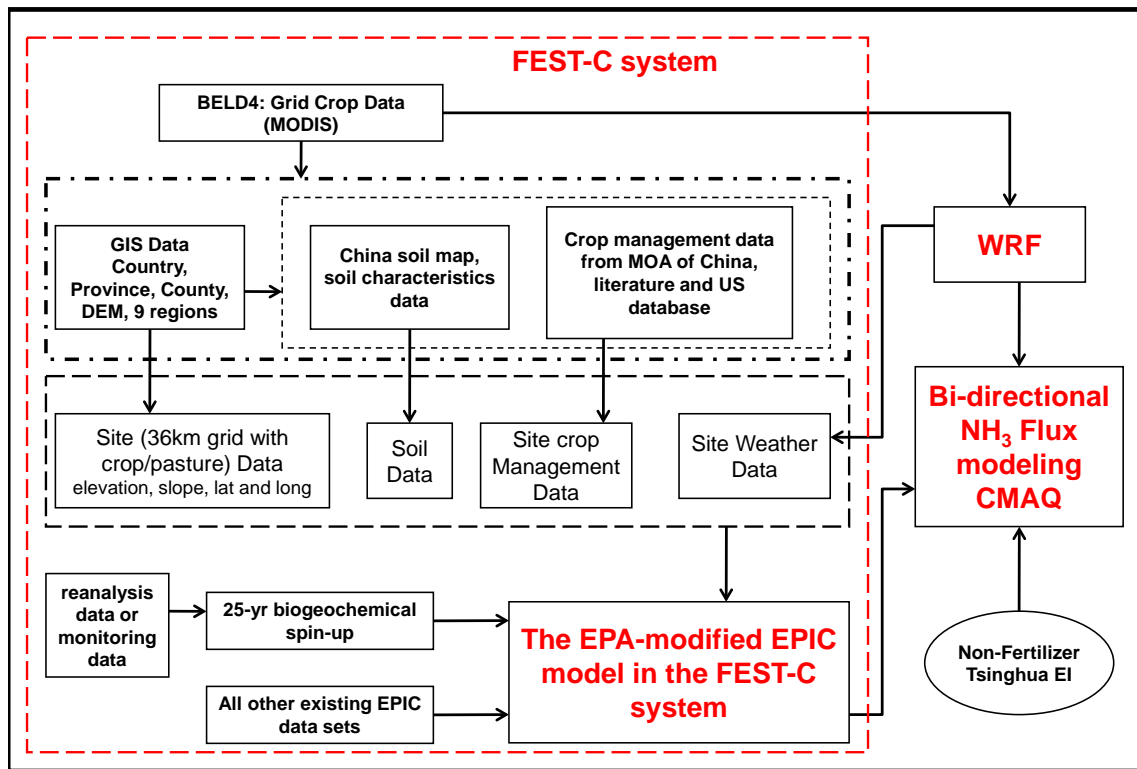


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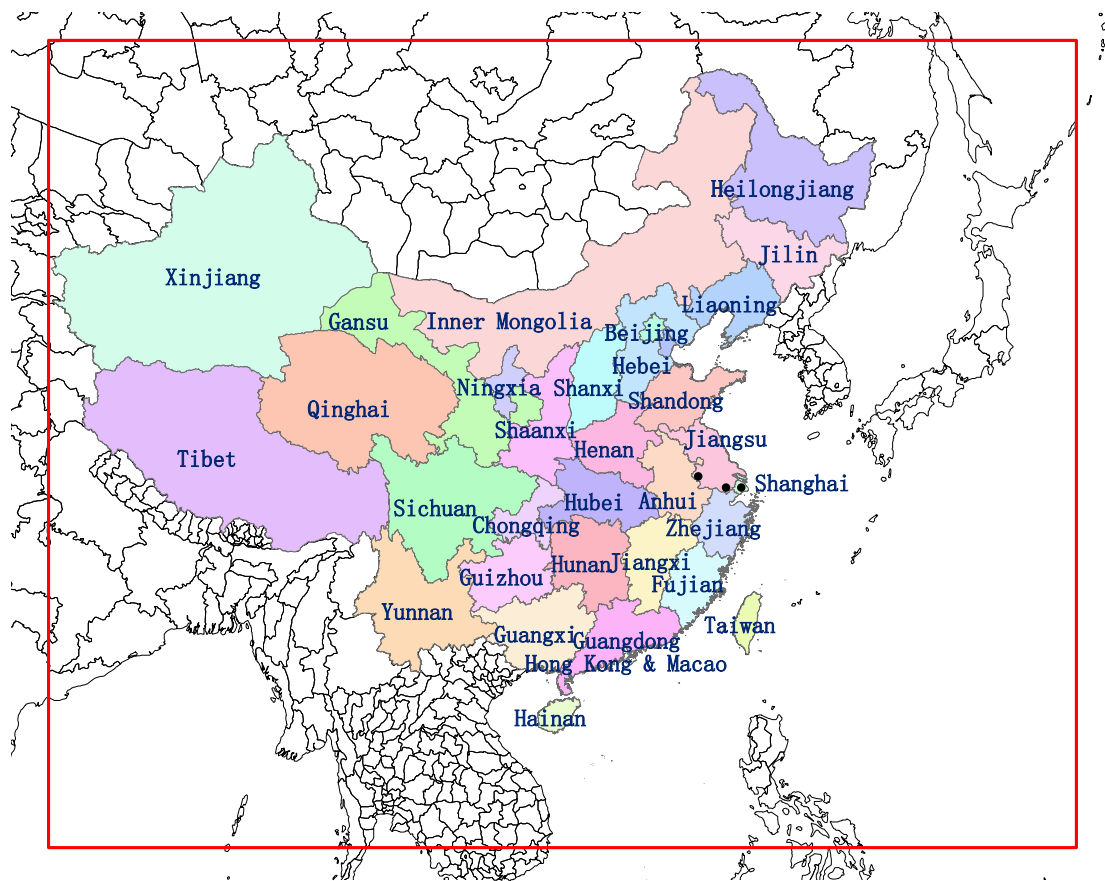


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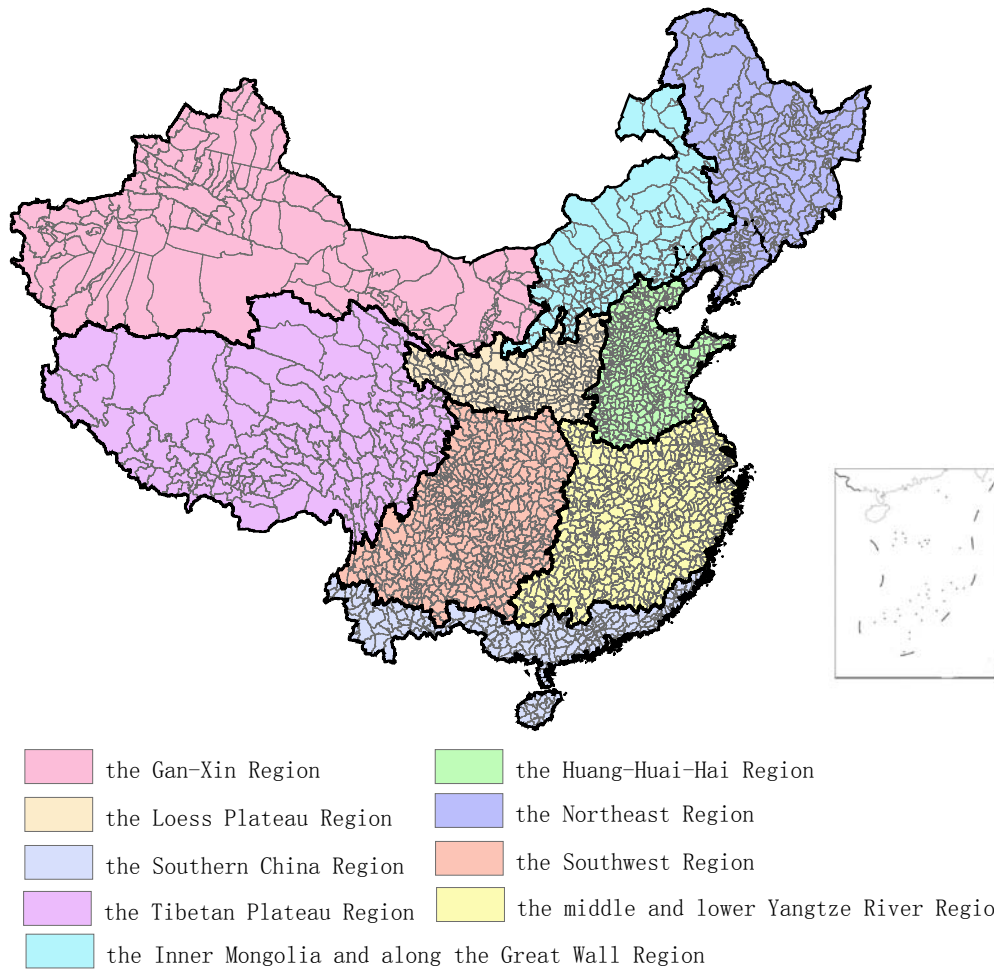


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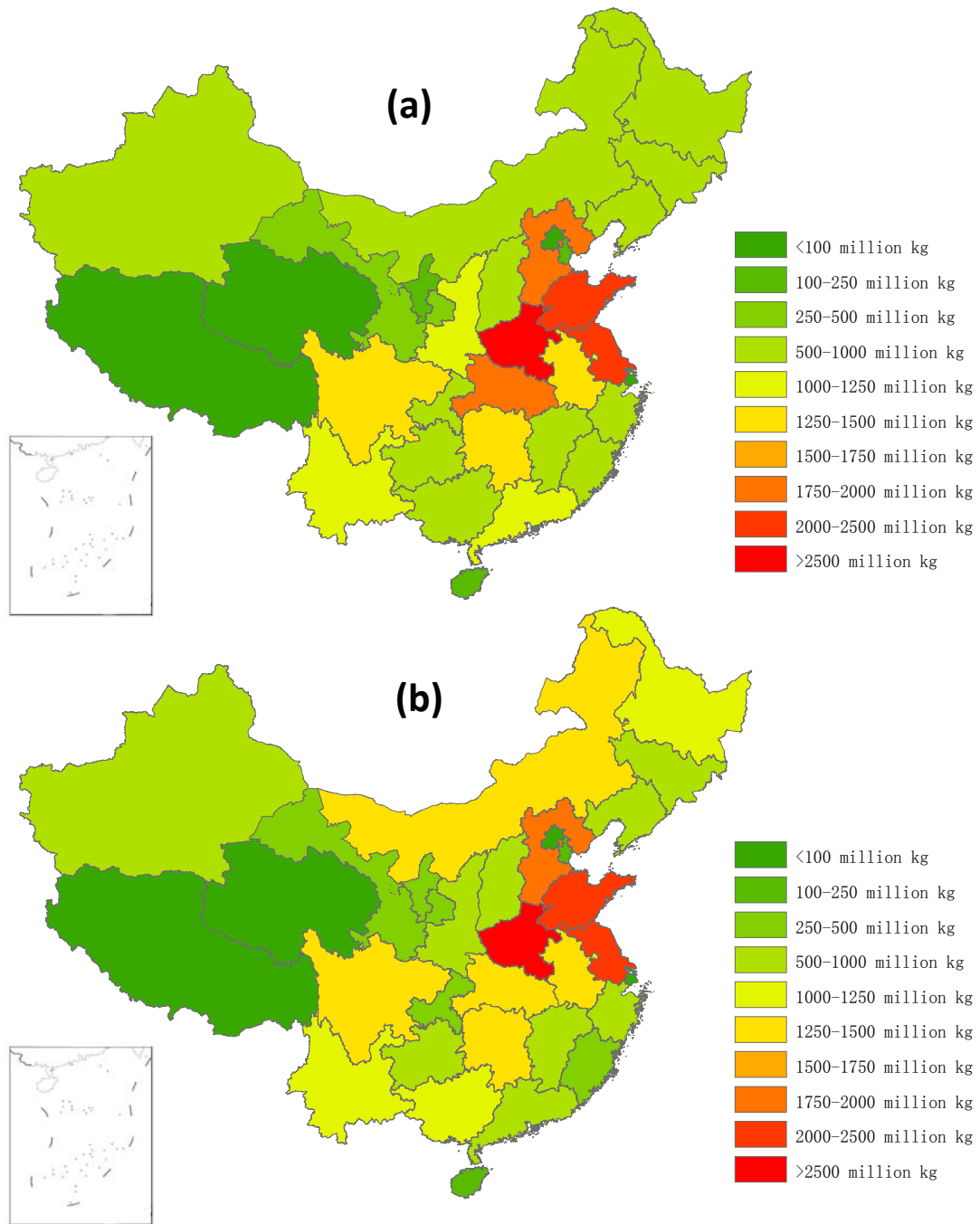


Fig.4 Comparison of annual N fertilizer use at province level between existing statistical data (a) and EPIC output (b). The small insert represents the South China Sea and its islands.

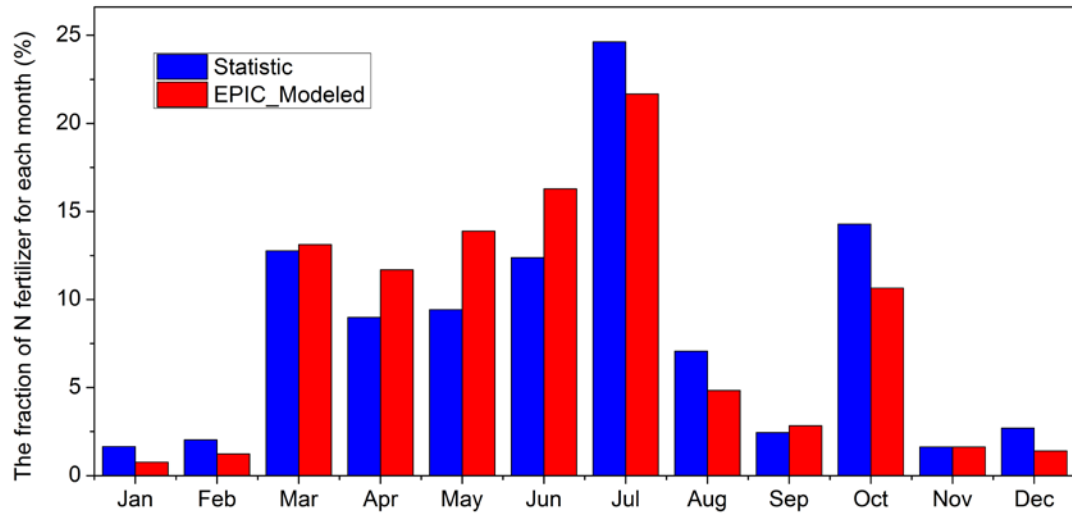


Fig.5 Comparison of the fraction of N fertilizer use by each month between statistics and EPIC output.

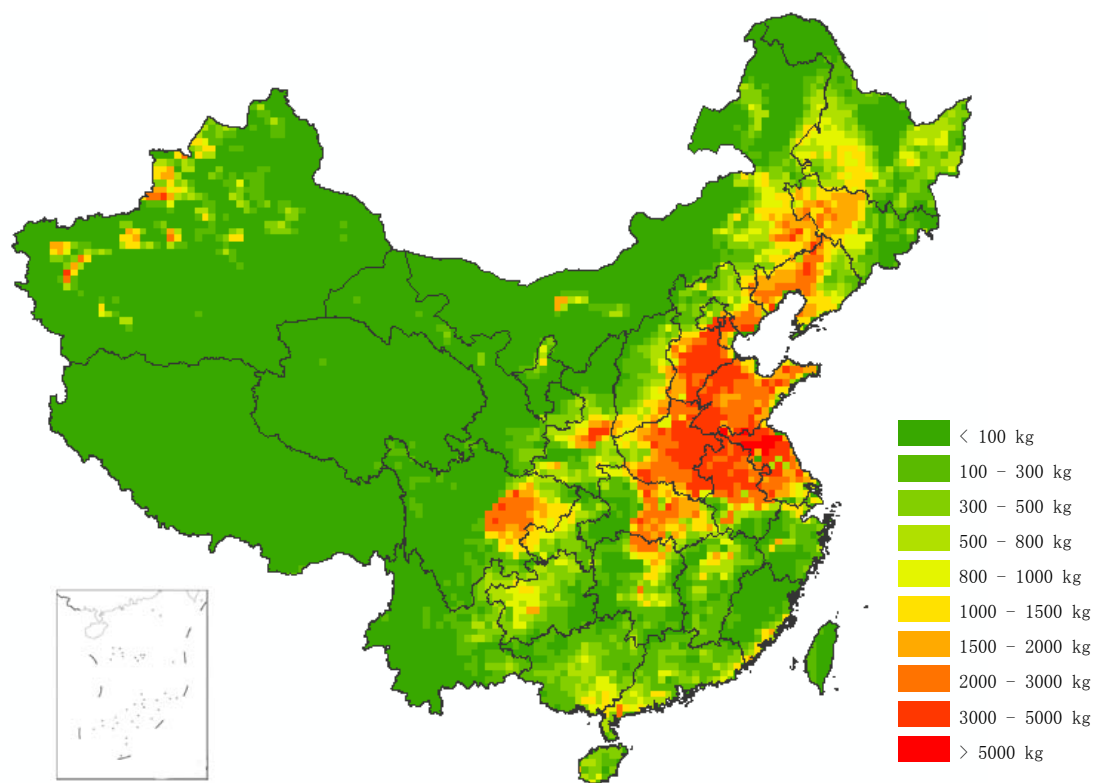


Fig.6 Spatial distribution of NH₃ emissions from N fertilizer use in 36km×36km grid cell (kg/yr). The small insert represents the South China Sea and its islands.

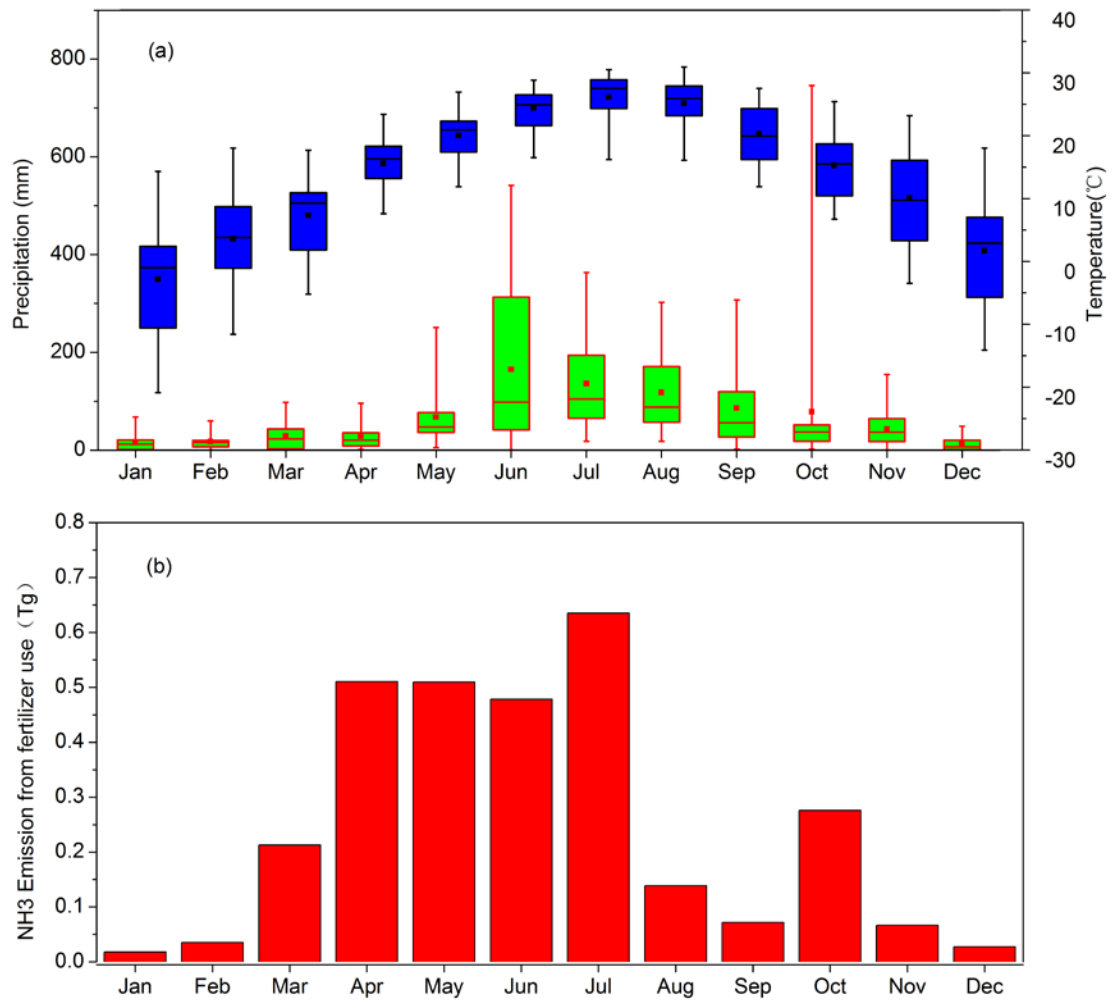


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