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Title: Evaluation of four modelling approaches to simulate nitrous oxide emissions in China's cropland

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Abstract: Process-based models are useful tools to integrate the effects of detailed agricultural practices, soil characteristics, mass balance, and climate change on soil N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in soil - plant ecosystems, whereas static, seasonal or annual models often exist to estimate cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under data-limited conditions. A study was carried out to compare the capability of four models to estimate seasonal cumulative fluxes from 425 field measurements of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions representing 67 studies across China's croplands. The models were 1) the DAYCENT model, 2) DeNitrification - DeComposition model (DNDC), 3) the linear regression model (LRM) of Yue et al. (2018), and 4) IPCC Tier 1 emission factors. The DAYCENT and DNDC models were estimated crop yields with R<sup>2</sup> values of 0.60 and 0.66 respectively; but DNDC showed significant underestimation according to bias analysis. For seasonal cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emission predictions, the correlation of modelled with measured N<sub>2</sub>O emissions had an R<sup>2</sup> of 0.14, 0.14, 0.23 and 0.15 for DAYCENT, DNDC, LRM of Yue et al. (2018), and IPCC, respectively. No significant bias was identified except for the significant underestimation of 0.52 kg N<sub>2</sub>O-N ha<sup>-1</sup> with the DNDC model. The modelled daily N<sub>2</sub>O emission against observations from the experimental fields indicated that the DAYCENT and DNDC models simulated temporal patterns effectively, although they did not capture the emission peaks perfectly. Based on RMSE and bias analysis, LRM performed well on N<sub>2</sub>O emission prediction for paddy rice fields, while DAYCENT performed well for wheat and IPCC for maize. All models simulated N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes well for soybeans, but not well for cotton or fallow. Moreover, DAYCENT and LRM performed well under different fertilizer management (no fertilizer, mineral fertilizer, and organic fertilizer), while DNDC significantly underestimated the emissions under no fertilizer and when organic fertilizer was applied, as did IPCC when organic fertilizer was applied.

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Dear editors,

Herewith we are submitting a manuscript entitled “Evaluation of four modelling approaches to simulate nitrous oxide emissions in China’s cropland”, for review and potential publication in Science of the Total Environment. This manuscript provides an evaluation of four modelling approaches to simulate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions with 425 field measurements from China. We conclude that neither of the models emerged as a clear “best” choice for estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions for Chinese cropping systems.

This work has not been submitted or published elsewhere. The manuscript deals with the true results based on a newly established dataset of data collected from published literatures.

Please contact me if you have questions about the manuscript. We appreciate any consideration given to this manuscript for publication in Science of the Total Environment.

Sincerely,

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1 **Evaluation of four modelling approaches to simulate nitrous oxide**  
2  
3 **emissions in China's cropland**  
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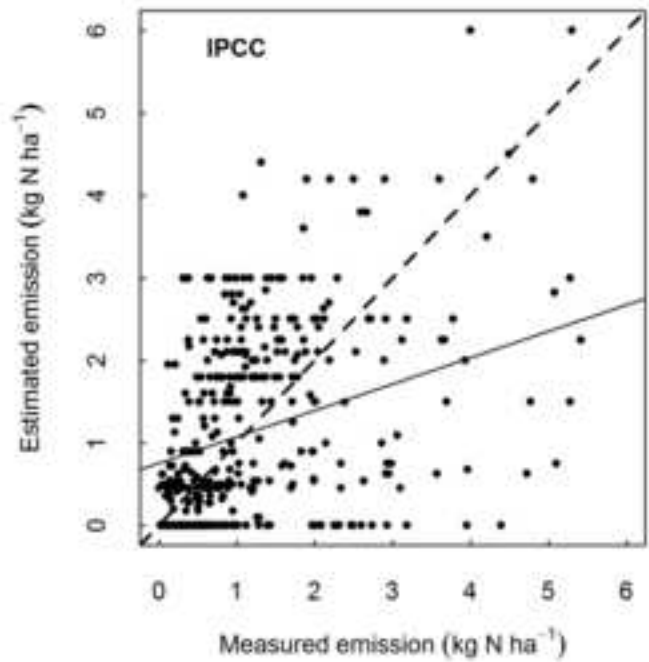
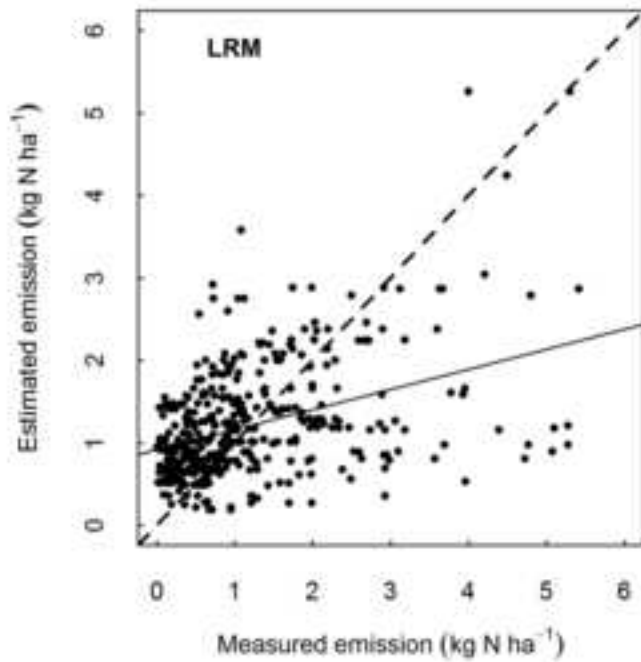
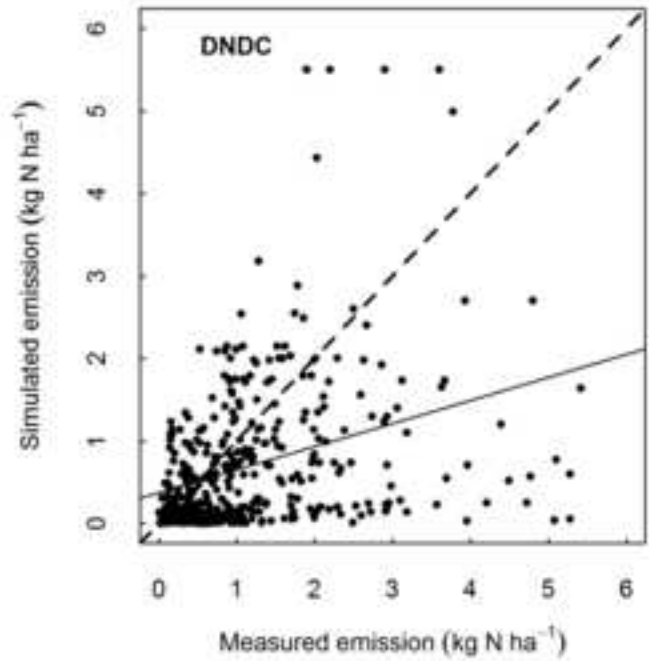
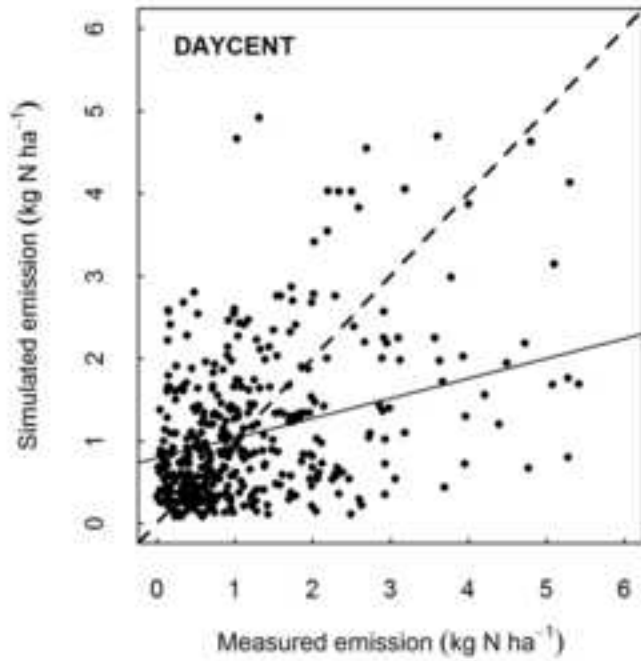
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59 Running head: Model comparisons for soil N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
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## Highlights

1, DAYCENT, DNDC, linear regression model and IPCC tier 1 approach were evaluated to simulate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in China's cropland.

2, Neither of the models emerged as a clear "best" choice for estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions for Chinese cropping systems.

3, Further development is needed to represent regional conditions in China.

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3 **Abstract:** Process-based models are useful tools to integrate the effects of detailed  
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25 emissions under no fertilizer and when organic fertilizer was applied, as did IPCC when  
26 organic fertilizer was applied.

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## 28 **1 Introduction**

29 Anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, a major contributor to climate change  
30 (IPCC, 2013), have increased rapidly across the world by 41% from 38.2 Pg CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent  
31 (CO<sub>2</sub>-eq) in 1990 to 53.9 Pg CO<sub>2</sub>-eq in 2012 (<http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/>). The trend is  
32 projected to continue in coming decades as a result of increasing food demand and limited  
33 resources (Reay et al., 2012). Meanwhile, the Paris Agreement aims to limit global warming  
34 to “well below” 2 degrees Celsius, with an ambition to pursue efforts to limit warming to  
35 below 1.5 degrees Celsius, and many countries have already made commitments to  
36 participate towards achieving these goals. As one of the world's most populous countries,  
37 with 29.3% of the world’s total emissions (Janssens-Maenhout, et al., 2017), China is of key  
38 importance for mitigating global emissions, and has recently pledged “no-increase” in  
39 chemical fertilizer and pesticide in order to achieve peak GHG emissions by the year 2030  
40 (UNFCCC, 2015).

41 Nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) has a global warming potential (GWP) of approximately 265-310 times  
42 that of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) over a 100-year timescale (Watson et al., 1996; IPCC, 2007;  
43 IPCC, 2013) with an atmospheric lifetime of approximately 120 years (Prather, 1998). Global  
44 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions increased to 9.2 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O in 2012 from 5.4 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O in 1970. N<sub>2</sub>O contributes to  
45 secondary inorganic aerosol formation and thus haze pollution in addition to climate change  
46 (Liu et al., 2017). For China, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions accounted for 16.4% of global emissions  
47 (Janssens-Maenhout, et al., 2017). The most significant source of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was  
48 agriculture, accounting for 51% of total national N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (FAO, 2015). Emissions  
49 from agriculture tripled from 0.36 to 1.21 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O in China between 1970 and 2014 (FAO,  
50 2015). Given the importance of this source of emissions, reducing uncertainty in its  
51 estimation is an important issue for China to effectively identify ways to mitigate.

52 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) provided in 1997 (IPCC, 1997) a  
53 default global N<sub>2</sub>O emission factor intended for use in national inventories of 1.25% with the  
54 confidence interval of 0.25-2.25% for fertilizer-induced emission (FIE) from all cropland  
55 (IPCC, 1997). That is, that 1.25% of nitrogen applied in crop systems is released as N<sub>2</sub>O-N.  
56 This factor was subsequently updated to 1% with the confidence interval of 0.3-3.0% and 0.3%  
57 with the confidence interval of 0.0-0.6% (Tier I approach) from upland crops and paddy rice  
58 cultivation, respectively (IPCC, 2006). Generally, the emission factor approach makes it easy  
59 to calculate the FIE using applied N rate, but also leads to large uncertainties. Therefore, as  
60 recommended by the IPCC (2006), higher Tier methods should be developed to obtain more  
61 representative, country specific emission rates or spatially disaggregated N<sub>2</sub>O-EFs that are  
62 region and crop-specific.

63 Linear or nonlinear regression models can be developed to estimate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from  
64 croplands as a function of field and management variables based on field measurements  
65 (Bouwman et al., 2002; Gerber et al., 2016; Albanito et al., 2017). For example, Yue et al.  
66 (2018) published a China-specific multi-variate empirical model for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions to  
67 identify the spatial variability caused by the major drivers. On the other hand, process-based  
68 models have been widely used to estimate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and potential effects of global  
69 climate change on the terrestrial ecosystems. Several dynamic process-based models have  
70 been developed to predict N<sub>2</sub>O emissions informed by an understanding of key soil processes  
71 and mechanisms (e.g. SUNDIAL by Smith et al., 1997; DNDC by Li et al., 1992;  
72 DAYCENT by Ogle et al., 2010). Compared to regression models, most process-based  
73 models simulate the emissions of several GHGs (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O) considering environmental  
74 and management related factors, such as crop growth, soil properties, fertilization and climate.  
75 DAYCENT and DNDC models are both widely-used ecosystem biogeochemistry models  
76 adopted to simulate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions all over the world (Abdalla et al., 2010). DAYCENT

77 simulates C, N, P, K and S dynamics in plant-soil systems (Parton et al., 1998; Del Grosso et  
78 al., 2001). DNDC mainly focuses on nitrification and denitrification for N dynamics from  
79 upland soils and rice paddy systems (Li et al., 1992, 1994).

80 There are limitations and uncertainties in estimating N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes from process-based model  
81 simulations, associated with the representation of the mechanistic processes. Frohling et al.  
82 (1998) found that DNDC simulated very low N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes for a dry site in Colorado. In  
83 contrast, Smith et al. (2007) produced accurate predictions of average seasonal N<sub>2</sub>O  
84 emissions from the DNDC model for two sites in Eastern Canada, while the DAYCENT  
85 model underestimated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. This variability in performance implies that model  
86 inter-comparisons are useful to determine the most appropriate application for a specific  
87 region or cropping system. For many countries, including China, model inter-comparisons are  
88 especially important since many process-based models, in spite of their intent to be generic,  
89 were originally calibrated on data from North-American or European cropping systems. The  
90 objective of this study is to compare the results of four models, namely DAYCENT, DNDC,  
91 LRM, IPCC, by calibrating and evaluating the N<sub>2</sub>O emission estimates under different  
92 cropping systems and N application rates across the major agricultural regions of China.

## 93 **2 Materials and methods**

### 94 2.1 Model descriptions

95 DAYCENT, the daily time-step version of CENTURY, is a process-based ecosystem model  
96 developed to simulate carbon (C), N, P, K and S dynamics in plant-soil systems (Parton et al.,  
97 1998; Del Grosso et al., 2001). The nitrogen fluxes through the plant, residue and soil organic  
98 matter pools are coupled with C and estimated based on the C transfer between conceptual  
99 soil C pools, and the C:N ratio of organic matter. The model considers symbiotic and  
100 asymbiotic N fixation, and fertilizer additions. Losses of N occur through removal of  
101 vegetation, nitrification, denitrification, NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization, leaching and run-off. Daily  
102 weather data, essential management events, and soil texture data are needed as model inputs  
103 (Table 1). For our study, historical runs were performed to initialize the model in accordance  
104 with China-specific conditions (details are described in Cheng et al. (2014)).

105 The DeNitrification - DeComposition model (DNDC), contains four main sub-models as  
106 follows: the soil climate sub-model calculating hourly and daily soil temperature and  
107 moisture fluxes in one dimension; the crop growth sub-model simulating crop biomass  
108 accumulation and partitioning; the decomposition sub-model calculates decomposition,  
109 nitrification, NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization and CO<sub>2</sub> production; and the denitrification sub-model  
110 tracking the sequential biochemical reduction from nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>) to NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO, N<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub>  
111 (Li et al., 1992; Li et al., 2000; Abdalla et al., 2010). Version 9.5 of the DNDC model was  
112 applied in the present study (<http://www.dndc.sr.unh.edu/>). The input data required were the  
113 same as for DAYCENT (Table 1).

114 A linear regression model approach has also been applied, named as LRM, fitting cumulative  
115 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (*Cum N<sub>2</sub>O*) in kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> season<sup>-1</sup> based on the following equation:

116  $Cum N_2O = Exp(-2.709 + 0.004 \times N\ rate + 0.074 \times Temp + 0.013 \times Clay + \beta_1 \times$   
 117  $crop\ type + \beta_2 \times N\ rate \otimes fert\ type + \varepsilon)$

118 where *N rate* represents the nitrogen fertilizer application in kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>; *Temp* is the annual  
 119 average temperature (°C); *Clay* indicates the fraction of clay (%); values of  $\beta_1$  for the  
 120 different crop type classes are 0 for legume, 0.700 for upland crops, -0.188 for rice; and  
 121 values of  $\beta_2$  for the different base fertilizer are 0 for mineral fertilizer and -0.002 for organic  
 122 fertilizer, and 0 for no fertilizer applied. The required data are N fertilizer application rates,  
 123 annual average temperature, soil clay content, crop type, and fertilizer type (Table 1).

124 Finally, using the IPCC default method (2006), annual cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (*Cum N<sub>2</sub>O*)  
 125 in kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> are calculated using the following equation:

126  $Cum N_2O = N\ rate * EF$

127 where *N rate* represents the nitrogen fertilizer application in kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>; and values of *EF* are  
 128 0.01 and 0.003 for upland crops and paddy rice cultivation, respectively. The only required  
 129 data are N fertilizer rates (Table 1).

## 130 2.2 Data sources

131 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions data were collected during the crop growing season at the experimental sites  
 132 (kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> season<sup>-1</sup>) - defined as the period from planting to harvest for a given crop. We  
 133 conducted a literature search in the databases: CNKI, ISI-Web of Knowledge and Google  
 134 Scholar, with the search words “nitrous oxide”, “emission”, “chamber”, and “China”. A total  
 135 of 134 papers were found and processed according to the publication date, journal category  
 136 and data integrity. For these papers, a dataset of 67 studies with a total of 425 field N<sub>2</sub>O  
 137 emission measurements were compiled. The dataset included the following information:  
 138 cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O-N emissions; grain yields; geographic information; soil characteristics  
 139 including clay content, C and N content, bulk density, and pH; cropping system; management

140 practices; crop types - maize (MA), wheat (WH), rice paddy (RP), soybean, cotton, rape, and  
141 fallow; and fertilizer types classified into 5 broad categories - Control, Mineral, Organic,  
142 Mineral & Organic (M\_O), Controlled-release fertilizer or Nitrification inhibitor (more  
143 detailed information is provided in Table S1). All data were used to test DAYCENT, DNDC,  
144 and the EF method of IPCC. It should be noted that 267 N<sub>2</sub>O field emission measurements of  
145 the whole database (425 measurements) were used to derive the linear regression model of  
146 Qian et al. (2018), with all the measurements used to test the LRM of Qian et al. (2018), so  
147 the LRM model is not entirely independent of the evaluation data.

148 Most of the soil, crop, and cultivation management data were obtained from the dataset.  
149 However, missing soils data that were not provided in the papers were extracted from China  
150 Soil Scientific Database (<http://www.soil.csdb.cn/>) based on the soil type documented for the  
151 experimental site. Similarly, missing daily weather data, including daily maximum/minimum  
152 temperature and precipitation, were obtained from the China Meteorological Data Sharing  
153 Service System (<http://new-cdc.cma.gov.cn:8081/home.do>) for the station nearest to the  
154 reported site. Regional nitrogen deposition data were based on Xu et al. (2015).

155 For the process-based models, most of the parameters were based on prior research  
156 (DAYCENT with information from Cheng et al., 2014; DNDC from Abdalla et al., 2010).  
157 Crop growth directly controls soil water and C and N regimes, and hence is crucial for a  
158 biogeochemical model to correctly simulate trace gas fluxes, such as N<sub>2</sub>O (Hu et al., 2017).  
159 PRDX (the maximum potential production parameter), a dimensionless constant, was  
160 optimized by simulating crop yields in the range of 1-3 for DAYCENT for each of the  
161 experimental sites. Similarly, the indices of maximum biomass production, biomass fraction,  
162 and biomass C/N ratio of grain, leaf, stem, and root distributions were optimized for yield  
163 simulations of field conditions for DNDC.

164 2.3 Model validation

165 2.3.1 Daily emission evaluation

166 DAYCENT and DNDC simulation results were evaluated against field measurements of N<sub>2</sub>O  
167 emissions by comparing the association between measured and modelled temporal patterns of  
168 N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, as well as comparing the coincidence between measured and modelled emission  
169 values. Five representative benchmark sites were selected from the major regions of China to  
170 conduct the model evaluation of daily N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under typical cropping systems (Table  
171 3). Daily measured emission values for model evaluation were extracted either directly from  
172 tables or text, or were extracted from the figures using Getdata Graph Digitizer software  
173 (<http://www.getdata-graph-digitizer.com/>).

174

175 2.3.2 Model accuracy

176 Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O-N fluxes were estimated as the sum of simulated daily fluxes for  
177 DAYCENT and DNDC models, and directly by LRM and IPCC. Model accuracy was  
178 evaluated by calculating the bias and root-mean-squared error (RMSE) between measured  
179 and modelled values using the following equations:

180 
$$Bias = \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{V}_i - V_i) / n$$

181 
$$RMSE = \sqrt{(\sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{V}_i - V_i)^2) / n}$$

182 where,  $\hat{V}_i$  and  $V_i$  represent the estimated value of the target variable from the fitted equation  
183 and the measured value from the original studies;  $\bar{V}$  is the mean of the observed data;  $n$  is the  
184 number of target values;  $p$  is the number of parameters in the relevant model; and  $i$  is a single  
185 observation.

186 With the estimated *Bias*, the t-statistic was used to test for significant differences between  
187 simulated values and measurements (Smith et al., 1997). Bias, RMSE, and a t-test statistic

188 were also calculated to evaluate model performance for each fertilizer and crop type  
189 individually. All the statistical analyses were conducted in R version 3.4.0 (2018) and  
190 Microsoft Excel 2013.

191



## 192 **3 Results**

### 193 3.1 Yield simulation

194 The measured yield data included 283 individual observations (Fig. 1), which ranged from  
195 400 to 15700 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. The modelled yields ranged from 537 to 16657 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for DAYCENT,  
196 and from 548 to 17230 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for DNDC. The regression of modelled versus measured yields  
197 had R<sup>2</sup> values of 0.60 and 0.66, bias estimates of -823 and -578 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, and RMSE values of  
198 2201 and 2088 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for DAYCENT and DNDC, respectively (Table 2). Both models had a  
199 significant relationship with observed values based on different crop types (Fig. 1), but there  
200 were significant differences from the measured values according to t-tests (Table 2).

### 201 3.2 Daily N<sub>2</sub>O emission validation

202 Seasonal patterns of daily N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were analysed for 5 sites with latitudes between  
203 28.6° to 47.4° and longitudes from 113.3° to 126.6° (Table 3), representing several different  
204 climate regions and most common cropping systems in China. Seasonal emission patterns  
205 simulated by the DNDC and DAYCENT models were generally similar to the observed  
206 values for most of the experimental period. Also, a significant increasing trend in N<sub>2</sub>O  
207 emissions was simulated with increasing N application rates, corresponding with  
208 experimental observations. Both DAYCENT and DNDC models failed to model the specific  
209 timing and magnitude of daily N<sub>2</sub>O emission peaks. Overall, the DNDC model overestimated  
210 emissions on days with high precipitation by a factor of around 2, particularly at the upland  
211 sites (Fig. 2c and 2d). The DAYCENT model overestimated the fluxes upon drainage of rice  
212 cultivation systems (Fig. 2a, 2b and 2e).

### 213 3.3 Cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emission validation

214 The observed emissions from 425 field N<sub>2</sub>O emission measurements across 67 studies (Fig. 1)  
215 ranged from 0 to 11.14 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> with N fertilizer applied in the range of 0-600 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>.

216 The regression of modelled versus observed emissions had an  $R^2$  of 0.14 for both DAYCENT  
217 and DNDC model, 0.23 for LRM, 0.15 for IPCC (Table 1, Fig. 3). Moreover, the LRM had  
218 the lowest RMSE and bias with the values of 1.22 and  $-0.02 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ , respectively; the  
219 DNDC model had the highest RMSE of  $1.48 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  and bias of  $-0.52 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  (Table 1).  
220 According to the t-test, the DNDC model results were significantly different from the  
221 observed values, but estimated values were not significantly different from observations for  
222 the other three models (Table 1).

### 223 3.4 Model accuracy

224 We also assessed the impacts of the simulated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions for different fertilizer and crop  
225 types, and observed that the accuracy of the four models differed (Table 4). The DAYCENT  
226 model estimated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions from mineral and organic fertilizer types with the lowest  
227 RMSE and bias, and did not differ significantly from the measured values. Conversely, the  
228 IPCC significantly overestimated the emissions with organic fertilization but estimated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
229 emissions with low RMSE and bias for mineral fertilizers. In fact, only the DNDC model  
230 significantly underestimated the emissions under the mineral fertilizer treatments. The  
231 estimated values from all models showed significant differences compared to measured  
232 values under the control treatment with no N inputs. For crop types (Table 5), the LRM  
233 performed well for rice and maize cultivated system, as did the IPCC method for maize, and  
234 the DAYCENT model for wheat. Moreover, all models simulated emissions for soybean well,  
235 but none performed particularly well for cotton and fallow.

236 N management, and particularly additions, are the most important drivers of soil  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
237 emissions (Del Grosso et al., 2009). Given this fact, we further compared the correlations of  
238 N addition rates with observed emission values for the models (Fig. 4; Table 6). Both the  
239 modelled and observed values had a similar response to fertilizer application rate. The  
240 modelled values were higher in the paddy rice system (Fig. 4a) and were lower in the upland

241 cropping system (Fig. 4b) compared to the measured values at low N application rates. The  
242 range of the slopes were 0.0018-0.0042 and 0.0039-0.0056 for paddy rice and upland  
243 cropping systems, respectively.

244

## 245 **4 Discussion**

246 Given the recognised difficulty in estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions precisely and the ongoing  
247 challenge of developing models which perform over a wide range of conditions, model inter-  
248 comparisons are an important way to determine a best candidate model for a given region and  
249 to identify potential ways to reduce the uncertainties. Model inter-comparisons have  
250 previously been carried out in several countries (Frolking et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2007;  
251 Abdalla et al., 2010).

252 Reasonable simulation of crop yield is of key importance to accurately predict N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
253 for process-based models of plant-soil systems. The two process-based models, DAYCENT  
254 and DNDC, performed well in simulating crop yield, explaining 64% of the variation in  
255 observed yields with DAYCENT and 71% with DNDC (Table 2, Fig. 1). However, both  
256 models significantly underestimated yields by 823 and 578 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for DAYCENT and  
257 DNDC, respectively, as indicated by the bias and t-test (Table 2). Previous studies have  
258 demonstrated reasonably accurate and precise predictions of crop yields in China for both  
259 DAYCENT and DNDC models (Cheng et al., 2013; Qiu & Wang, 2012). However, some  
260 studies suggested some bias in model simulations. For example, Cheng et al. (2014) found  
261 that the DAYCENT model underestimated corn yields by 521.59 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, and Cui et al. (2014)  
262 found that the DNDC model underestimated the plant biomass for cotton. The bias in DNDC  
263 may be associated with the fact that DNDC does not simulate phosphorus and potassium  
264 impacts on production. In addition, the climate data used for the two process-based models  
265 includes only the maximum/minimum temperature and precipitation, which also might result  
266 in uncertainties for model simulation, and may be improved if other climate variables were  
267 addressed, such as the influence of humidity on transpiration rates and water stress. We found  
268 that the simulated yield varies greatly between control and fertilized plots for DAYCENT,  
269 which resulted in large bias compared with measured values. Production algorithms in

270 DAYCENT may be too sensitive to N availability. Sansoulet et al. (2014) also found that  
271 DAYCENT was less effective at predicting biomass under limited N rates compared to  
272 DNDC.

273 In general, the models were able to simulate the daily flux over time; however, there were  
274 some abnormal peak periods of emissions simulated by both models, compared to the  
275 observed emissions. Specifically, N<sub>2</sub>O emission peaks often appeared in simulated upland  
276 crops of maize and wheat after heavy rainfall events for DNDC (Fig. 2c-2e), indicating N<sub>2</sub>O  
277 emissions are highly sensitive to soil moisture dynamics in the models (Lessard et al., 1996;  
278 Frohking et al. 1998; Smith et al., 2002). In addition, Smith et al., (2008) observed that  
279 DAYCENT and DNDC models both had difficulty in capturing soil water content accurately.  
280 Soil moisture dynamics are linked to soil texture. Groffman and Tiedje (1989) suggested that  
281 the smaller average pore size in finer textured soils leads to greater soil water retention and  
282 greater opportunity to create anaerobiosis, while denitrification occurs at lower rates in a  
283 well-drained coarse-textured soil (Bouwman et al., 2002a, 2002b). Thus, there may be an  
284 opportunity to further resolve the relationship between soil texture and water-filled pore  
285 space, and improve model predictions. Also, the accuracy of capturing N<sub>2</sub>O emission peaks  
286 may be associated with the frequency of sampling, with low frequency sampling (e.g., once a  
287 week or month) missing some of the peaks that are captured by the models.

288 In general, the four models explained 14%~23% of the variation in observed seasonal  
289 cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are inherently difficult to predict precisely for  
290 reasons stated above; however, this does suggest considerable opportunity for improvement.  
291 Nevertheless, no significant bias was identified except for the significant bias of -0.52 kg N  
292 ha<sup>-1</sup> for the DNDC model (Table 2). Beheydt et al. (2007) reported an overestimation of 7.4  
293 kg N<sub>2</sub>O-N ha<sup>-1</sup> for DNDC based on 22 long-term N<sub>2</sub>O field experiments. In addition, other  
294 research found that DAYCENT performed better than in this study, with an R-squared of 78%

295 which was much higher than the value found in this study (Cheng et al., 2014). In this study  
296 we used more field measurements than Cheng et al. (2014), which may have added  
297 heterogeneity and uncertainty in model simulation. Conversely, Abdalla et al. (2010)  
298 indicated that DAYCENT performed poorly when simulating control plots, with N<sub>2</sub>O flux of  
299 -57% below the measured values. Additionally, several studies have indicated that model  
300 accuracy varied for different fertilizer and cropping types (Smith et al., 2002; Cheng et al.,  
301 2014; Albanito et al., 2017). As shown, the DAYCENT model performs well with mineral  
302 and organic fertilizer types. The IPCC default method could only accurately predict  
303 emissions associated with mineral N fertilization, similar to results from Li et al. (2001).

304 DNDC did not accurately simulate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions associated with mineral fertilizer and  
305 paddy rice (Table 4, 5). In contrast, Smith et al. (2002) found the DNDC model prediction of  
306 N<sub>2</sub>O flux from control, manure, and mineral fertilization corresponded well with observed  
307 measurements from maize in Canada. Regardless, Li et al. (2017) reported that DNDC was  
308 not suitable for China as it lacks a number of features which are crucial for representing  
309 Chinese agro-ecosystems, especially paddy rice cultivation, complex and multiple cropping  
310 systems, and intensive management practices.

311 There are different target functions for the four models. The predictions of LRM and IPCC  
312 methods were more accurate and precise than the process-based models. While the LRM  
313 model was only used to calculate fertilizer-induced N<sub>2</sub>O emissions based on the underlying  
314 datasets that were used to derive these functions (and therefore not independent data), this  
315 does indicate that if a reasonably comprehensive dataset of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions exists for a given  
316 region, then better predictions will be obtained from a linear regression model than by  
317 calibrating and deploying a process-based model. The two process-based models, in theory,  
318 should be able to capture more heterogeneity and be applied across a broader range of  
319 croplands in China. One of the key strengths of DAYCENT is the initialization of SOM pools

320 to accurately represent the carbon stocks, and the linkage between C and N flows through the  
321 plant-soil system. The N associated with carbon lost in respiration (30% to 80% of the carbon  
322 flow is respired) is mineralized and becomes substrate of nitrification and denitrification  
323 (DAYCENT user manual). DNDC also has strengths related to fertilizer applications at  
324 varying depth, and a more mechanistic representation of N dynamics with Michaelis-Menten  
325 dynamics (Li et al., 2006).

326 Process-based models, such as DAYCENT and DNDC, can also represent more management  
327 impacts than empirical functions, particularly if data are limited for fitting a statistical model.  
328 For example, Xu et al. (2000) showed a significant effect of splitting fertilizer into three or  
329 more applications in DNDC, reducing N<sub>2</sub>O emissions by 25%. Field practices of irrigation  
330 and tillage also influence N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, and their impacts can be represented in these  
331 simulation models.

332 Our results indicated that the accuracy of model simulations may differ across a range of N  
333 rates. Cheng et al. (2014) showed DAYCENT tended to underestimate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions at  
334 higher measured emission rates, which were also seen for paddy rice in Fig. 4a. Albanito et al.  
335 (2017) studied N<sub>2</sub>O-EFs and found that they tended to decrease with the N application rates  
336 approaching 1% in crops fertilized above 300 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, and the IPCC-EF would tend to  
337 underestimate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions by approximately 21% below a fertilization of 200 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>.  
338 Similarly, Shcherbak et al. (2014) indicated that the IPCC-EF would underestimate and  
339 overestimate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in croplands fertilized above and below the threshold of  
340 approximately 150 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>. Sansoulet et al. (2014) also showed the different sensitivity  
341 under limited and high N rates. The negative intercept for DNDC might indicate that  
342 emissions are under-estimated with no fertilizer applied.

343 Environmental factors (especially climate) and human-induced activities (e.g. fertilizer,  
344 tillage, straw return, irrigation) influence N<sub>2</sub>O producing processes over both temporal and

345 spatial scales, resulting in heterogeneous N<sub>2</sub>O emissions at field level (Flessa et al., 2002).  
346 Cumulative seasonal N<sub>2</sub>O emissions based on the closed static chamber method were used in  
347 most of the experiments at monthly or weekly intervals, which may lead to high inherent  
348 variability of N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes. Ju et al. (2011) showed that a sampling frequency of 3 or 6 days led  
349 to 112-236% overestimation of total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Process-based models may predict a flux  
350 peak during times, such as after a rainfall event, which is not represented in observational  
351 datasets with a low sampling frequency. Hence, an overestimation or underestimation of  
352 N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes from upland soils may occur with static chambers, and more continuous  
353 measurements will likely reduce uncertainties in evaluating models (Yao et al. 2009; Ju et al.  
354 2011).



355 **5 Conclusion**

356 The performance of the four models varied for the cropping systems and fertilization  
357 management practices. Consequently, we conclude that neither of the models emerged as a  
358 clear “best” choice for estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions for Chinese cropping systems. In the short  
359 term, it may be best to adopt the methods based on linear regression models to calculate the  
360 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions for rice, maize, wheat and soybeans, although even this approach has  
361 limitations, leading to significant differences between observed and modelled emissions for  
362 cotton, fallow or rape. Further development is needed to represent regional conditions in  
363 China associated with dominant soil properties, agricultural practices, cropping systems, and  
364 climate conditions, in order to refine empirical models and improve the suitability of process-  
365 based models in Chinese conditions.

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374

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468

469 **Table captions**

470 Table 1 Models inputs for models simulation.

471 Table 2 Statistics describing the performance of DAYCENT and DNDC model in grain yield  
472 simulations.

473 Table 3 Information of sites selected for simulating daily fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

474 Table 4 The performance of four models in estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under different  
475 fertilizer management

476 Table 5 The performance of four models for estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions associated with crop  
477 types

478 Table 6 Statistics describing the correlations of observed or simulated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions with  
479 nitrogen fertilizer application rates in Fig. 4.

480

481 **Figure captions**

482 Fig.1 Comparison of measured and simulated crop yields for experimental sites across China

483 Fig. 2 Comparison of observed and modeled daily patterns of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from rice paddy  
484 sites. (The representation of letters “a” to “e” were explained in Table 3)

485 Fig. 3 Comparison of observed and simulated cumulative N<sub>2</sub>O emissions for four models

486 Fig. 4 Comparison of observed and modelled growing season N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from a range of  
487 nitrogen fertilizer application rates (a, rice paddy; b, upland)



Table 1 Models input data for models simulation.

Data items	DAYCENT	DNDC	LRM	IPCC
Geographical location	Longitude; Latitude;	Latitude	/	/
Climate factors	Daily maximum temperature; daily minimum temperature; daily precipitation; N decomposition;	The same as for DAYCENT	Annual average temperature	/
Soil properties	SOC; C/N ratio; soil clay, silt, sand content; soil bulk density; pH;	The same as for DAYCENT	Soil clay content	/
Growing time	Crop type; sowing date; harvested date;	The same as for DAYCENT	Crop type	/
Management practices	N applied rate, date and type; irrigating amount and date; tillage intensity and date; straw returning amount	The same as for DAYCENT	N rate; N fertilizer type	N rate

“/”: The parameters were not required to be entered.

Table 2 Statistics describing the performance of DAYCENT and DNDC model in grain yield simulations.

Items	Models	R-square	RMSE	Bias	t-test
Yield	DAYCENT	0.64	2201	-823	s
	DNDC	0.71	2088	-578	s
N <sub>2</sub> O-N	DAYCENT	0.14	1.35	-0.15	ns
	DNDC	0.14	1.48	-0.52	s
	LRM	0.23	1.22	-0.02	ns
	IPCC	0.15	1.42	-0.09	ns

Table 3 Information of sites selected for simulating daily fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.

Site	Latitude, Longitude	Region	Cropping system	Typical N fertilizer rate (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	References
Heilongjiang (a)	47.4°,126.6°	Northeast China	RP	95.4	Yue et al., 2005
Hunan (b)	28.6°,113.3°	South-Central China	RP-RP	135(RP), 135(RP)	Wang et al., 2014
Liaoning (c)	41.8°,123.6°	Northeast China	MA	160	Cheng et al., 2016
Hebei (d)	40.0°,118.1°	North China	MA	180	Lu et al., 2015
Jiangsu (e)	32.0°,118.8°	East China	RP-WH	250(RP), 250(WH)	Zhou et al., 2016

Table 4 The performance of four models in estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under different fertilizer management

Fertilizer type	Model	RMSE	Bias	t-test
No fertilizer	DAYCENT	0.81	-0.21	s
	DNDC	0.87	-0.51	s
	LRM	0.73	0.16	s
Mineral fertilizer	DAYCENT	1.52	-0.06	ns
	DNDC	1.71	-0.66	s
	LRM	1.37	-0.16	ns
	IPCC	1.50	-0.07	ns
Organic fertilizer	DAYCENT	0.53	0.01	ns
	DNDC	0.54	-0.15	ns
	LRM	0.77	0.41	s
	IPCC	1.65	1.40	s

Table 5 The performance of four models for estimating N<sub>2</sub>O emissions associated with crop types

Crop type	Model	RMSE	Bias	t-test	Crop type	Model	RMSE	Bias	t-test
Rice	DAYCENT	1.02	0.11	ns	Cotton	DAYCENT	3.14	-3.10	s
	DNDC	1.00	-0.41	s		DNDC	4.43	-4.25	s
	LRM	0.93	-0.04	ns		LRM	3.54	-3.39	s
	IPCC	0.94	-0.34	s		IPCC	2.34	-2.34	ns
Maize	DAYCENT	1.68	-0.32	ns	Fallow	DAYCENT	1.46	-1.09	s
	DNDC	1.72	-0.51	s		DNDC	1.51	-1.26	s
	LRM	1.38	-0.16	ns		LRM	1.21	-0.73	s
	IPCC	1.64	0.05	ns		IPCC	2.04	-1.72	s
Wheat	DAYCENT	1.19	-0.06	ns	Rape	DAYCENT	0.69	0.35	ns
	DNDC	1.33	-0.55	s		DNDC	1.54	-1.33	s
	LRM	1.29	0.48	s		LRM	0.86	0.73	s
	IPCC	1.56	0.52	s		IPCC	0.46	-0.09	ns
Soybean	DAYCENT	0.89	-0.44	ns					
	DNDC	0.59	-0.13	ns					
	LRM	0.99	-0.58	ns					
	IPCC	0.85	-0.59	ns					

Table 6 Statistics describing the correlations of observed or simulated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions with nitrogen fertilizer application rates in Figure 4.

	Paddy rice			Upland crop		
	Slope	intercept	R-square	Slope	intercept	R-square
Observed	0.0034	0.3180	0.1250	0.0042	0.8404	0.1174
DAYCENT	0.0042	0.3270	0.2383	0.0046	0.4888	0.3872
DNDC	0.0027	-0.0243	0.3418	0.0056	0.0561	0.3316
LRM	0.0018	0.4722	0.4522	0.0039	0.8809	0.4463

Fig.1  
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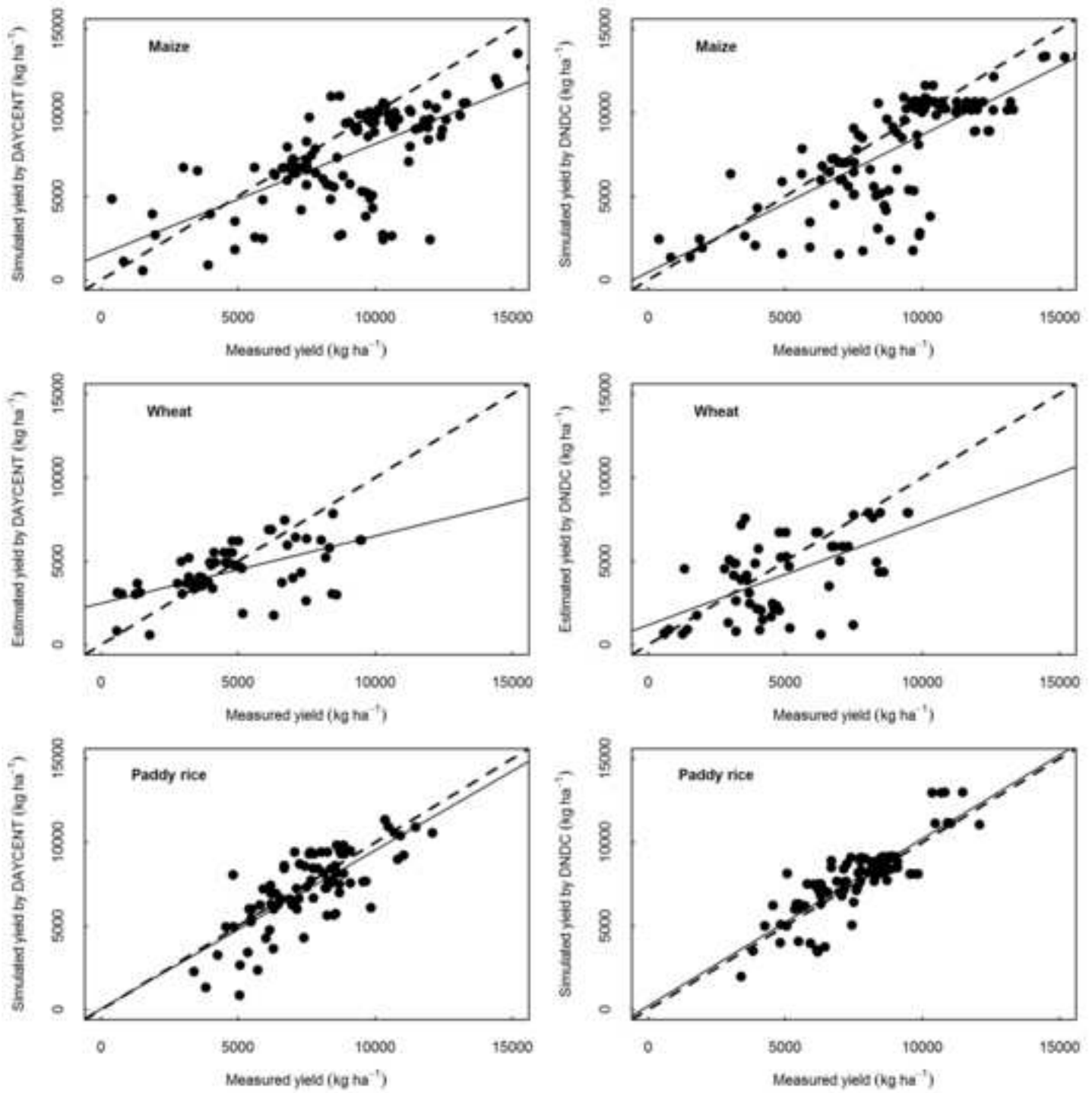


Fig.2

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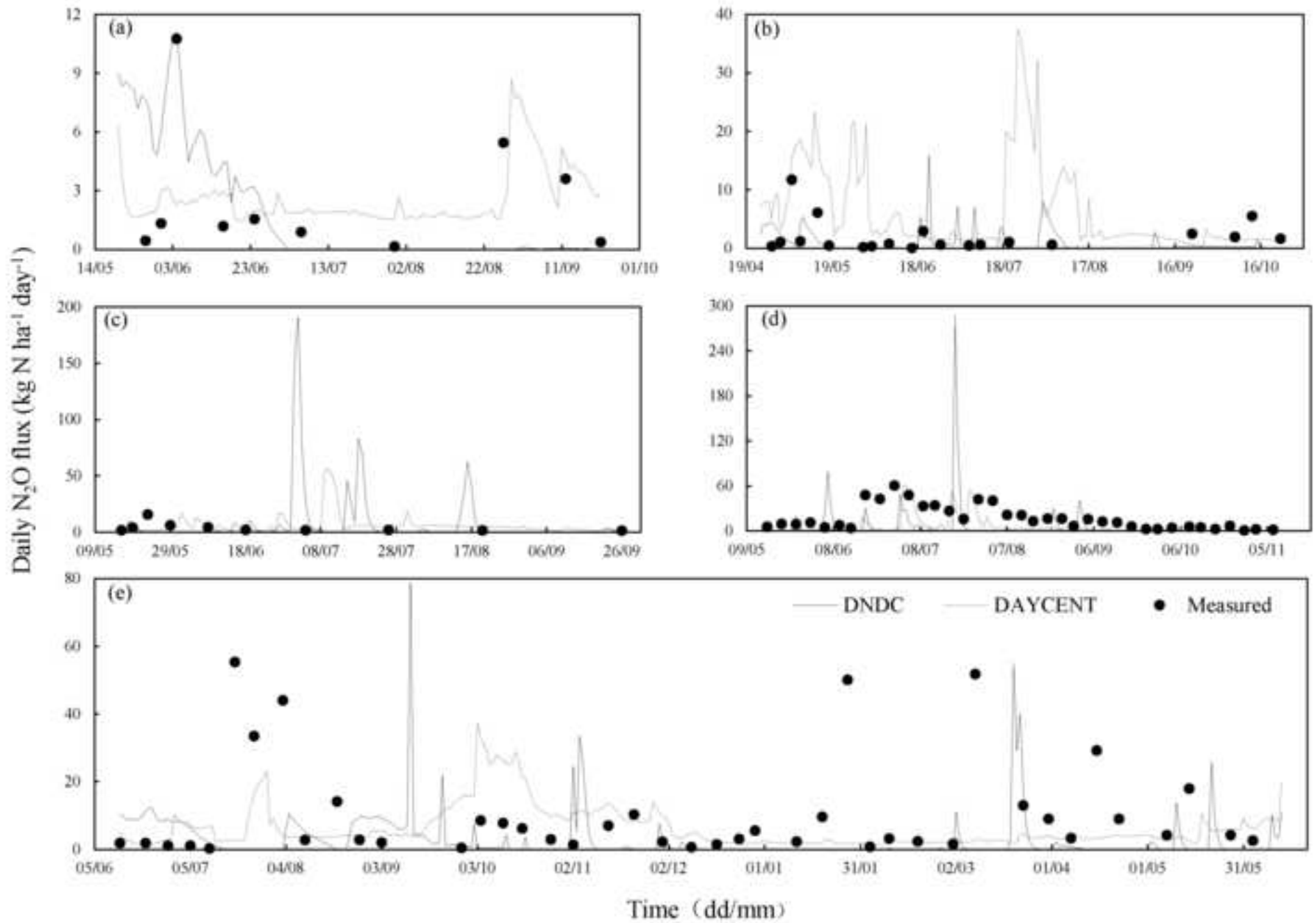
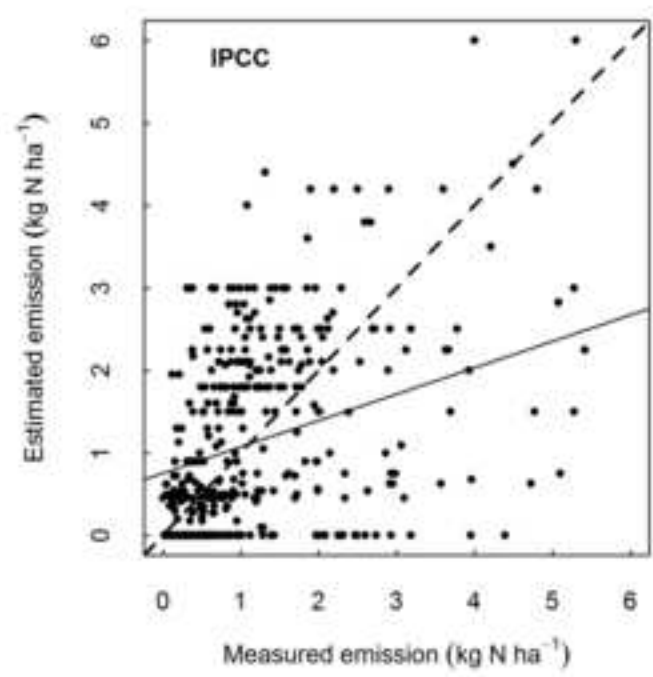
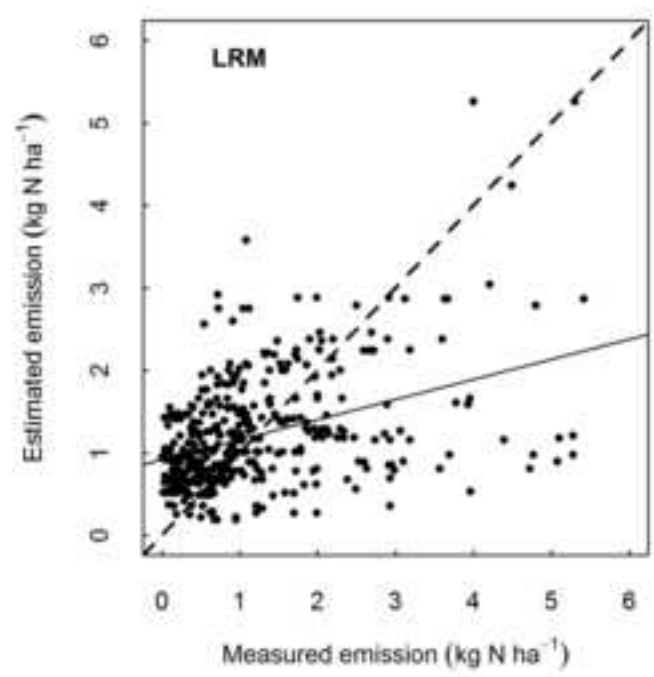
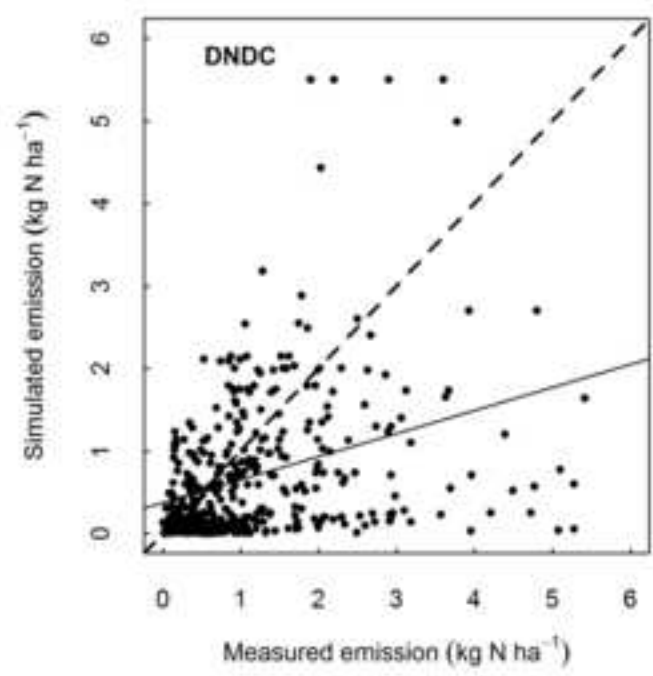
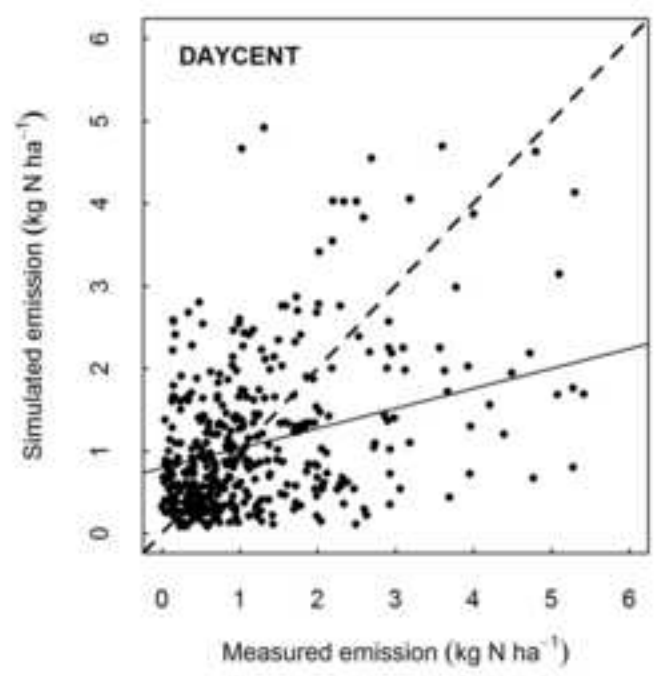
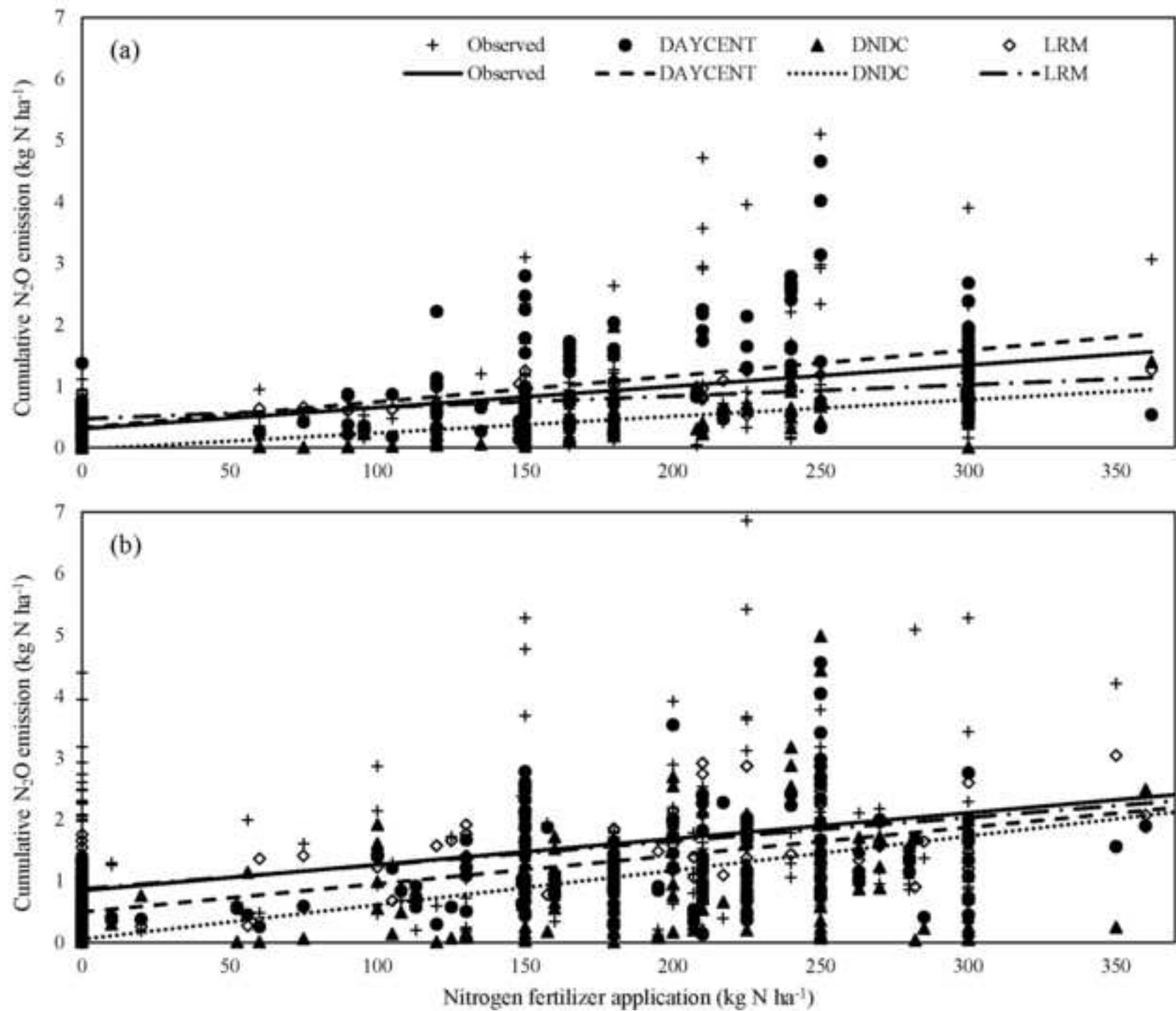




Fig.3

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**Fig.4**[Click here to download high resolution image](#)

**Table S1**

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