

Dear reviewer #1,

Thanks very much for the precious comments and suggestions. All the comments and suggestions are addressed in the revised manuscript.

1. With respect to constraints on the overall PI global emissions of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , I have more confidence in the top-down approach using atmospheric concentrations and lifetimes of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , than the bottom up simulations of a highly parameterized process model. The most recent top-down estimate (Prather et al., 2015) is cited in passing by the authors, but the estimates are not included in the present manuscript. The estimates from the IPCC AR4 and from Davidson & Kanter (2014), mentioned in lines 53-54, were based largely on the 2012 paper by Prather et al., but their 2015 paper provides an important update on lifetime estimates and resulting PI emission estimates. They now recommend using lifetimes of 123 years for PI and 116 years for the present ( $\pm 9$  years), and from those lifetime estimates, they derive a new PI emission estimate of 10.5 Tg/yr. Fortunately, this is very close to other estimates, including the one from this study. Nevertheless, it should be specifically cited.

Response:

We have cited the recent study by Prather et al. (2015) in the introduction and discussion sections of the revised manuscript.

Line 55-57: Prather et al. (2015) provided an estimate of the pre-industrial emissions (total natural emission: 10.5 Tg  $\text{N yr}^{-1}$ ) based on the most recent study with a corrected lifetime of 116 years.

Line 267-275: “Top-down” methodology used to estimate  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions is based on atmospheric measurements and an inversion model (Thompson et al. 2014). Prather et al. (2012) provided an estimate of  $9.1 \pm 1.0$  Tg  $\text{N yr}^{-1}$  of natural emission in the pre-industrial era using observed pre-industrial abundances of 270 ppb and model estimates of lifetime decreased from 142 years in the pre-industrial era to  $131 \pm 10$  years in the present-day. Later, Prather et al. (2015) re-evaluated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  lifetime based on Microwave Limb Sounder satellite measurements of stratospheric, which was consistent with modeled values in the present-day. The lifetime in the pre-industrial era and present-day was estimated to be 123 and  $116 \pm 9$  years, respectively. The current lifetime increases the pre-industrial natural emission from  $9.1 \pm 1.0$  to 10.5 Tg  $\text{N yr}^{-1}$ .

2. The point that the lifetime has probably decreased since PI times should be discussed. As far as I can tell, a varying lifetime cannot be incorporated into the one-box model (line 171) used by the authors. Perhaps the resulting global estimate is not terribly sensitive to this change, but that should be evaluated and discussed.

Response:

In the revised version, we have removed the one-box model validation. In addition, we added the discussion of the decreased lifetime since PI times, which was also mentioned in the response to question #1 (Line 267-275).

3. I fail to see how the analysis presented in Figure 7 and Table 1 provides additional confidence in the summed global estimate from this study. I can see the value of a sensitivity analysis of initial PI atmospheric concentrations and lifetimes, which Prather's papers have already done and for which they could be cited. In contrast, the analysis in Fig. 7 and Table 1 is clouded by the unclear source of annual emissions over the simulated time period and the validity of those assumptions. The text (lines 182- 185) suggests that model output was used for annual emission estimates: "The mean with 95% confidence intervals, the maximum, and minimum values of estimates from DLEM simulations were applied as initial emissions to calculate the atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in 2006 as shown in Table 1 (Scenarios 1–4 and baseline), as well as concentration changes from 1860 to 2006, as shown in Figure 7." However, the Fig. 7 captions indicates that the "net additions of anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission amount in different years were listed in Syakila and Kroeze, 2011." I don't understand which was used to estimate annual increments of N<sub>2</sub>O concentration in Fig 7 – was it model output, as indicated on lines 182-185, or was it the net additions estimated by S&K as indicated in the figure caption? Both have problems. S&K estimated fairly substantial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agriculture during the late 19th and early 20th centuries, but they also estimated a rather large decrease in natural emissions compared to 1500 (which are very difficult to estimate, see my further comments below), so their estimate of the net change relative to 1500 was small for this time period. However, the starting point for the present study is 1860. Therefore, it is incorrect to subtract this decline in natural emissions that preceded 1860 from the growth in anthropogenic emissions since 1860. S&K did this to show changes since their starting point of 1500, but using their "net additions" column

without accounting for a different starting point in the present study introduces a significant bias. It is the net change relative to 1860 that is important for the present study, so the “net additions” estimated by S&K should be recalculated relative to 1860 if they are to be used in the analysis for Table 1 and Fig. 7.

I showed in my 2009 paper, and Smith et al. (2012) have affirmed, that atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O began rising significantly many decades before fertilizer use became common in the 1950s, and so the “net additions” to the atmosphere must have been larger than those estimated by S&K relative to 1500, although they may be similar if they were corrected to be relative to 1860. We speculate that this increase in emissions between 1860 and 1950 was due to mineralization of soil N as agriculture expanded into regions of previously untilled soils, thus mobilizing N for rapid cycling, including a fraction lost at N<sub>2</sub>O. I also suspect that the current DLEM may not include effects of soil mining when virgin soil is first tilled, so if Table 1 is based on DLEM simulations, as indicated in the text on lines 182-185, then I suspect emissions from 1860 to 1950 were underestimated, which would affect the slope of the trend line later in the analysis as well.

I realize that the point of Figure 7 is not the accuracy of the simulated trend line, but rather the end point, but if the trend line agrees so poorly with the observations, then one has to question the validity of the model and the input data, which calls into question the reliability of the end point analysis. I believe that Fig. 7 and Table 1 could be replaced with citations of the sensitivity analyses done by Prather et al. (2012, 2015), but if the authors persist in wanting to include their own analysis, I would suggest that they utilize another source of “net addition” emissions than those of S&K relative to 1500.

Response:

According to your suggestions, we have removed the one-box model validation. Instead, we cited the work done by Prather et al. (2012, 2015) and compared our results with theirs in the section 3.2.

Line 276–287: Natural sources for N<sub>2</sub>O include soil under natural vegetation, oceans, and atmospheric chemistry (Ciais et al., 2014). The emission from atmospheric chemistry was estimated as 0.6 with an uncertainty range of 0.3–1.2 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. Syakila and Kroeze (2011) estimated global natural emissions from oceans as 3.5 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. Oceanic emission was estimated as 3.8 with an uncertainty range of 1.8–5.8 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in the IPCC AR4. However, the uncertainty range became larger (1.8–9.4 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the IPCC AR5. In our study, the simulated N<sub>2</sub>O

emission was from agricultural and natural soils. The natural emission was estimated as 5.78 (4.4–7.72) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. Combining the atmospheric chemistry and the ocean emissions in the IPCC AR5 with the natural emissions from our study, the global total natural N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were 10.18 (6.5–18.32) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. The large uncertainty range was attributed to the uncertainty from oceanic emission, atmospheric chemistry emission, and our estimation. The estimated global total amount (10.18 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) in this study was comparable to the estimate (10.5 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) by Prather et al. (2015) using the top-down approach.

4. The change in “natural” emissions before and after 1860 should be discussed. As I noted above, S&K deduce a substantial decline in natural emissions from 1500 to 1850. Similarly, I included a significant change in non-agricultural soil emissions due to tropical deforestation, which began growing rapidly in the late 20th century (Davidson 2009). Whether pre-1850 or post-1950, these changes in natural soil emissions are difficult to estimate, but the uncertainties that they represent should be considered, and biases resulting from how they are or are not included should be considered.

Response:

We agree that different factors caused different variation patterns in N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes before and after 1860. We did not consider the pre-1850 natural emission change because we assumed emission in 1860 can represent the pre-industrial level although it has declined from 1500 to 1850. Our estimation from the process-based model can capture the N<sub>2</sub>O emission due to land use change in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, but it is beyond the scope of this paper. Since pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission is not always stable and remains a large uncertainty, our estimation can only go back to 1860 and represent N<sub>2</sub>O level before intensive human disturbance.

5. While the top-down approach of Prather et al. (2012, 2015) and the one box model used in the present study help constrain total PI emissions, the soil emission estimate must still be made by difference between total emissions and oceanic emissions. While the AR5 estimate of 3.8 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/yr (range: 1.8 - 9.4; Ciais et al., 2013) is widely cited for emissions from the oceans, it is highly uncertain, so simply subtracting 3.8 (or 3.5 – 4.5 as in Table 1 of the present manuscript) from a total PI source estimate of about 11 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/yr (+/-1) doesn't really narrow the confidence estimate of the PI terrestrial source a great deal. Indeed, I just discovered a curious inconsistency

between the AR5 best estimate of 3.8 with a review paper by Voss et al. (2013), which cites that same 3.8 value for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from the open ocean, but then adds another 1.7 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/yr for emissions from the continental shelf regions. I don't know if the AR5 review of the literature failed to adequately represent continental shelf regions or if Voss et al. might be double accounting. If Voss et al. are correct, the AR5 estimate of oceanic emissions may be biased toward the low end, which would mean that the terrestrial PI source may more likely be in the range of 5 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/yr or less. In any case, this highlights how uncertain the oceanic estimate is, which means we have to have similar uncertainty in the estimate of the PI terrestrial source. The narrow range of uncertainty in the present study's PI terrestrial source (6.03–6.36 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/yr) reported on line 331 is unrealistically small.

Response:

Yes, the soil emission estimation must still be made by difference between total emissions and oceanic emissions regardless of methodology (top-down or bottom-up). In the IPCC AR5, the average oceanic emission is 3.8 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, with a larger uncertainty range compared with the estimate in the AR4. The estimate from Voss et al. (2013) indicated that oceanic emission was 1.7 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> more than the average in the AR5. It is because they considered the emissions (1.7 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) from “rivers, estuaries, and coastal zones” as the marine emissions, as written in Table 7.7 of the IPCC AR4 Chapter 7. Thus, the average estimation in AR5 is still trustable. In this study, to compare with the results (10.5 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) in Prather et al. (2015), we need to sum our estimate and other natural emissions. The global total natural N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were 10.18 (6.5-18.32) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in the preindustrial era.

The small uncertainty range shown in the upper panel of Fig. 5 was the 95% confidence interval of the mean estimate, as explained in the manuscript. The uncertainty range of pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was present using the minimum and maximum estimate (4.76–8.13 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) in this study, which was consistent with other studies, such as the reported estimates in the IPCC AR5. Here, the Bootstrap resampling method was used to define the uncertainty bounds of global mean N<sub>2</sub>O emission (6.20 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) (shown in line 216-219 of previous manuscript). It was used to verify the stability of the LHS approach. The 95% confidence intervals (6.03-6.36 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) of the mean did not represent the uncertainty range for pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission in this study. Thus, we will not report this narrow range in the revised manuscript to avoid the confusion.

6. The authors have misunderstood the emission estimates from my 2009 paper, which they incorrectly describe on lines 299-301: “However, the indirect emissions from the riverine induced by the leaching and runoff of manure applications in agro-ecosystems, legume crop N fixation, and human sewage discharging have not been addressed in Davidson (2009).” On the contrary, I derived emissions factors from a statistical model that was constrained by the historical record of atmospheric concentrations and fertilizer and manure use, so the emission factors derived from that analysis necessarily included all of the emissions, direct and indirect, that could be statistically correlated with historical fertilizer and manure use (“The sources attributed to fertilizers and manures include indirect emissions from downwind and downstream ecosystems, including human sewage.” Davidson, 2009). Therefore, it is incorrect for the authors to calculate an additional indirect source (line 305) using IPCC default factors to add onto the estimate that they took from my paper that they misunderstood to be only direct emissions. They could either use an unmodified estimate from my paper or they could derive a new one, based on IPCC default values for both direct and indirect emissions based on estimates of BNF, fertilizer-N, and manure-N for 1860. Furthermore, note that the 0.42 Tg N<sub>2</sub>O-N/yr that they extracted from my paper for 1860 was for anthropogenic biological emissions (i.e., soils) only, and that there were also some other anthropogenic emissions at that time, such as biomass burning (see SI for Davidson 2009).

**Response:**

We are sorry for the misunderstanding of this paper. We deleted this sentence and recalculated the overall N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from this paper. In Davidson (2009), two approaches (top-down and bottom-up) had been applied to estimate the anthropogenic biogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 1860. The estimates from top-down and bottom-up were 0.42 and 0.54 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Thus, the final number we used in this study was 0.5 with an uncertainty range of 0.4–0.6 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. In addition, N<sub>2</sub>O from the biomass burning was assumed to be 0.2 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1860 in Davidson (2009). In sum, the total anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission in 1860 was estimated as 0.7 (0.6–0.8) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in Davidson (2009). We added below content in the revised version:

Line 332-334: The pre-industrial anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O sources in his study included biomass burning, agriculture activities (e.g., manure application, and the cultivation of legume) and human sewage, the sum of which was 0.7(0.6–0.8) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Davidson, 2009).

7. The authors should also acknowledge that there were anthropogenic effects on the N<sub>2</sub>O budget before 1860, so the 1860 fluxes don't necessarily represent only "natural" emissions. This includes some N<sub>2</sub>O from agricultural expansion that mined soil N and also added BNF, some biomass burning, a tiny amount of industrial and transportation sector emissions, and possibly a loss of emissions from degraded natural soils that had been plowed for centuries or millennia, some of which were highly eroded.

Response:

Yes, the 1860 fluxes don't necessarily represent only "natural" emissions. In our study, when we mentioned "natural" emissions, we excluded the emissions from cropland soils. Our study has only addressed the anthropogenic emissions from cropland expansion and manure application, but we are unable to simulate the anthropogenic emissions from biomass burning and other sectors. As described in the response 6, we have added the discussion on the pre-industrial anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission in this manuscript (Section 3.4 Line 332-334).

See the section 3.4, Line 322-346:

### **3.4 The N<sub>2</sub>O budget in the pre-industrial era**

The observed N<sub>2</sub>O concentration reflects the result of dynamic production and consumption processes in soils as soils act as sources or sinks of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions through denitrification and nitrification (Chapuis-Lardy et al., 2007). There was a slight increase of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O concentration during 1750–1860 according to the ice core records, but showed a rapid increase from 1860 to present (Ciais et al., 2014). Nature sources of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions have been discussed in section 3.2 & 3.3. Previous studies found that there were some anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions along with the natural sources in the pre-industrial era (Davidson, 2009; Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). Syakila and Kroeze (2011) found anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission began since 1500 because of the biomass burning and agriculture. The total anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission in their study was estimated as 1.1 Tg N in 1850. In addition, Davidson (2009) derived a time-course analysis of sources and sinks of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O since 1860. The pre-industrial anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O sources in his study included biomass burning, agriculture (e.g. manure application, and the cultivation of legume) and human sewage, the sum of which was 0.7 (0.6–0.8) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Davidson, 2009). Thus, anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission has already existed in 1860, but in a small magnitude as compared with the contemporary amount.



Davidson (2009) mentioned that there was possibly a certain amount of N<sub>2</sub>O loss in the pre-industrial period through atmospheric sink and the reduced emission from tropical deforestation. He estimated the anthropogenic sink as 0.26 Tg N in 1860. In addition, the deforestation of tropical forest might have caused a loss of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 1860, which was estimated as 0.03 Tg N (Davidson, 2009). However, studies have shown that the conversion of forest to pasture and cropland could increase or have no effect on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions because the effects depended on disturbance intensity of human activities on soil conditions (van Lent et al., 2015). For instance, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions tended to increase during the first 5–10 years after conversion and thereafter might decrease to average upland forest or low canopy forest levels in the non-fertilized croplands and pastures. In contrast, emissions were at a high level during and after fertilization in fertilized croplands (van Lent et al., 2015). Thus, more work is needed to study how forest degradation affects N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes (Mertz et al., 2012).

8. Although my comments above all focus on the PI global total estimate, perhaps the more important contribution of this manuscript is the simulated spatial distribution of those PI soil emissions. It is not surprising that the model simulates the majority of the soil emissions coming from tropical forest soils. That is also true today for nonagricultural soils. There are a few curious details that jump out at me from the map (Fig. 4). Why are emissions from the Amazon Basin and SE Asia so much lower than from the Congo Basin? Other models that I am aware of don't show that difference (e.g., Zhuang et al., 2012; Stehfest & Bouwman, 2006; Potter et al., 1996). Which of the datapoints in Fig. 3 are from tropical forests and which continents are they from? Is there validation support for the Congo having much higher emissions than the Amazon or SE Asia? More discussion would be helpful to interpret the variation shown in this map, such as where agriculture was or had been, where wetlands are, and where there are hot spots other than tropical forests. For example, I see a bunch of small red spots that appear to be near the Andes range, which puzzles me, but perhaps there is a good explanation. Ditto for why Northeastern Brazil, which is generally rather xeric, shows up as a hot spot. Also curious are the hot spots in southwestern China and the southeast coast of Australia.

(1) Why are emissions from the Amazon Basin and SE Asia so much lower than from the Congo Basin? Other models that I am aware of don't show that difference (e.g., Zhuang et al., 2012; Stehfest & Bouwman, 2006; Potter et al., 1996).



Response:

There are three major explanations for the spatial pattern differences among various studies. Firstly, the vegetation map in our study includes at most five biome types (at most four natural vegetation types and one crop type) within each grid cell. For example, in the Congo and Amazon Basin, the major natural vegetation type is Tropical Broadleaf Evergreen Forest (TrBEF). Many other models only include one vegetation type within each grid cell. This difference can cause large difference in spatial distribution of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions between our results and other model simulations.

Secondly, DLEM simulates both soil nitrogen transformation and nitrogen export or leaching into riverine ecosystems (see section 2.1). Many other models don't simulate nitrogen leaching or export. In our simulation, we found that high rainfall (especially heavy rainfall events) can cause a large amount of available nitrogen exports to riverine ecosystems and thus reduce soil available N and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in these grid cells.

The third cause may be the difference in model driving data. Stehfest & Bouwman (2006) used the mean annual precipitation and annual temperature developed by New et al. (1999) during 1961–1990. In Zhuang et al., (2012), they used the monthly data from the original literature and a historical climate database from the Climate Research Unit during 1961–2002 (Mitchell and Jones, 2005). While, DLEM used the long-term mean climate datasets (daily CRUNCEP climate data) from 1901–1930 to represent the initial climate state in 1860.

In the two studies mentioned above, they stated that soil and climate characteristics are major factors that affect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Unfortunately, neither of them showed the spatial distribution of precipitation or temperature, and the correlation between the climate and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Moreover, through comparing the spatial N<sub>2</sub>O emission map from those studies, we found that the distributions and magnitudes of emissions in the Congo, Amazon Basin, and Southeast Asia also differed significantly.

The spatial patterns of annual precipitation and temperature in this study are shown in Fig. S3. The Congo, Amazon Basin, and Southeast Asia are located in the tropics. The three regions have similar annual temperature (Fig. S2a), but have significantly different annual precipitation (Fig. S2b). In some areas in Amazon Basin and Southeast Asia, the annual precipitation was even higher than 3000 mm. In contrast, the annual precipitation in the Congo varied from 1300 to 2000 mm. In the DLEM, we explicitly considered the daily N leaching and runoff. Because of the heavy

rainfall in the Amazon Basin and Southeast Asia, more N might be leached from the soil during the wet season, which could cause the lower annual N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In addition, both denitrification and nitrification are highly affected by the soil water content. As field experiments revealed N<sub>2</sub>O or NO could be reduced into N<sub>2</sub> when soils are in saturation (Davidson et al., 2000), DLEM also represent the formation and proportion of N<sub>2</sub>O in total nitrogen oxides, considering the effect of soil moisture change. Thus, excessive soil water content during the wet season in Amazon Basin and Southeast Asia might reduce the activities of microbes, thus causing smaller amount of N<sub>2</sub>O emission.

(2) Which of the datapoints in Fig. 3 are from tropical forests and which continents are they from?

Response:

Firstly, we are sorry for the mistake in this Figure. The x-axis should be “observed N<sub>2</sub>O emission” rather than “simulated N<sub>2</sub>O emission”. In the new version, we redraw this figure. In addition, we used different symbols to mark all sites in Fig. 3 to make it clearly show the locations of all 20 sites. The information of each site can be found in the supplementary material (Table S1).

(3) Is there validation support for the Congo having much higher emissions than the Amazon or SE Asia?

Response:

There were only two sites in the validation from southeast Asia (site 14) and the east coast of Africa (site 10). Unfortunately, there was no available validation to support the arguments that the Congo has much higher emissions than the Amazon Basin or Southeast Asia. However, we did find some measurements in Kim et al. (2016), which could support our estimates in the central Africa. In their study, they calculated the average N<sub>2</sub>O emission from ten observations in the Congo Basin, which was  $4.2 \pm 1.5 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and close to our estimates in this region.

(4) More discussion would be helpful to interpret the variation shown in this map, such as where agriculture was or had been, where wetlands are, and where there are hot spots other than tropical forests.

Response:

The spatial distributions of cropland and wetlands have been provided in the manuscript. Meanwhile, the emission from pre-industrial cropland was discussed in line 234–243. It is hardly to make sure the certain crop types 150 years ago. Thus, N<sub>2</sub>O emission from cropland remained quite uncertain. For the N<sub>2</sub>O emission from wetlands and peatlands, we have discussed in line 255–266. We did not include the estimate of pre-industrial wetlands or peatlands because of the uncertainty of wetland area and distribution, but it will be included in the future study. The results in the DLEM simulation indicated that where natural vegetation was, specifically the tropical forest, were hot spots for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the pre-industrial period. Some scattered hot spots the reviewer mentioned were also from the tropics as described below.

(5) I see a bunch of small red spots that appear to be near the Andes range, which puzzles me, but perhaps there is a good explanation. Ditto for why Northeastern Brazil, which is generally rather xeric, shows up as a hot spot. Also curious are the hot spots in southwestern China and the southeast coast of Australia.

Response:

We have noticed those “hot spots”. Near the Andes range and in southwestern China, those mountains have higher altitudes and smaller amount of annual precipitation compared with the adjacent basins. Less N leaching happened in those regions. Meanwhile, both regions in the tropics that are dominant with TrBEF. Thus, it is possible that N<sub>2</sub>O emission was higher in this circumstance. In the Northeastern Brazil and the Southeast coast of Australia, both regions are along the coast. Both regions were not xeric according to the annual precipitation data used in this study. In the Northeastern Brazil, the dominant vegetation type is still TrBEF. Similarly, less N leaching and proper soil water content might cause higher amount of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In the east coast of Australia, anthropogenic activities contributed a large amount of N deposition in 1860 compared to other regions of Australia. Several grids with higher emissions were dominant with Temperate Broadleaf Evergreen Forest (TBEF). Meanwhile, the precipitation was generally higher along the Australian coast. Thus, higher N deposition with proper precipitation might cause this high N<sub>2</sub>O emission.

Technical Points

1. Line 41: This statement ignores that some anthropogenic emissions were already present prior to or at the beginning of the industrial revolution.

Response:

It is true that there existed anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission before 1860; however, the total amount is substantially lower than the contemporary human-induced N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. The description of anthropogenic emissions in the pre-industrial era was added, shown as “Human-induced biogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are calculated by subtracting the pre-industrial emissions (Tian et al., 2016), even though a small amount of anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was present before 1860, which was estimated as 1.1 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1850 by Syakila and Kroeze (2011) and 0.7 (0.6–0.8) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1860 by Davidson (2009).”

2. Line 55: Add recent results from Prather et al. 2015.

Response:

The latest study done by Prather et al. (2015) has been added into line 56, shown as “Prather et al. (2015) provided an estimate of the pre-industrial emissions (total natural emission: 10.5 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) based on the then-most-recent model study with a corrected lifetime of 116±9 years.”

3. Line 70: Change “is” to “are” because the word “data” is plural: “the data are”.

Response:

It has been revised.

4. Line 178: Use estimate from Prather et al. 2015.

Response:

We have removed the section 2.4.2 and section 3.2, which described the one-box model validation of simulation results. Thus, there is no need to replace the N<sub>2</sub>O lifetime in this section. In addition, we added the comparison of the estimate in this study with the estimation by Prather et al. (2012, 2015) in the section 3.2.

5. Line 312: Consider other estimates, such as those of Voss et al. 2013.

Response:

We carefully read the paper from Voss et al. (2013) and found that their estimates were directly from the IPCC AR4 (Table 7.7 in Chapter 7). In their paper, the N<sub>2</sub>O emission from ocean was 5.5 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> because they considered the emissions (1.7 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) from “rivers, estuaries, and coastal zones” as the marine emissions. Thus, the average marine emissions are 3.8 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, as shown in Table 6.9 of Chapter 6 in the IPCC AR5.

6. Figure 2. I don't understand the units. How can these units of crop area apply to each individual pixel?

Response:

To avoid the confusion of the unit, it has been changed from “km<sup>2</sup>” to “km<sup>2</sup>/grid”. The size of individual pixel is 0.5 degree, equivalent to around 2500 km<sup>2</sup> at the equator. Meanwhile, we have crop area fraction in each pixel (mentioned in the section 2.1 & 2.2). Then, in each grid, crop area fraction multiplying the pixel size represents the crop area. The numbers in the legend mean the cropland area in each 0.5-degree pixel.

7. Figure 3. The data used for this graph should be referenced.

Response:

All papers that used for the graph cited in the new version.

8. Figure 5. The bottom panel is all that is needed. The top panel is redundant. However, you could also add a panel of mean flux per hectare, which would be useful, because it is difficult to compare fluxes across continents when the contents have such different total areas.

Response:

We agree with the reviewer. We have removed the top panel. Instead, we added a panel of N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates per unit area (g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) with uncertainty ranges at continental-level in 1860, as shown in Fig. 5 (a).

9. Figure 6. The two panels are largely redundant. The pie chart could include both the percentage of the total and the estimate of Tg/yr, which would obviate the need for the upper panel. However, again, the mean flux per hectare by biome would be an interesting panel to add.

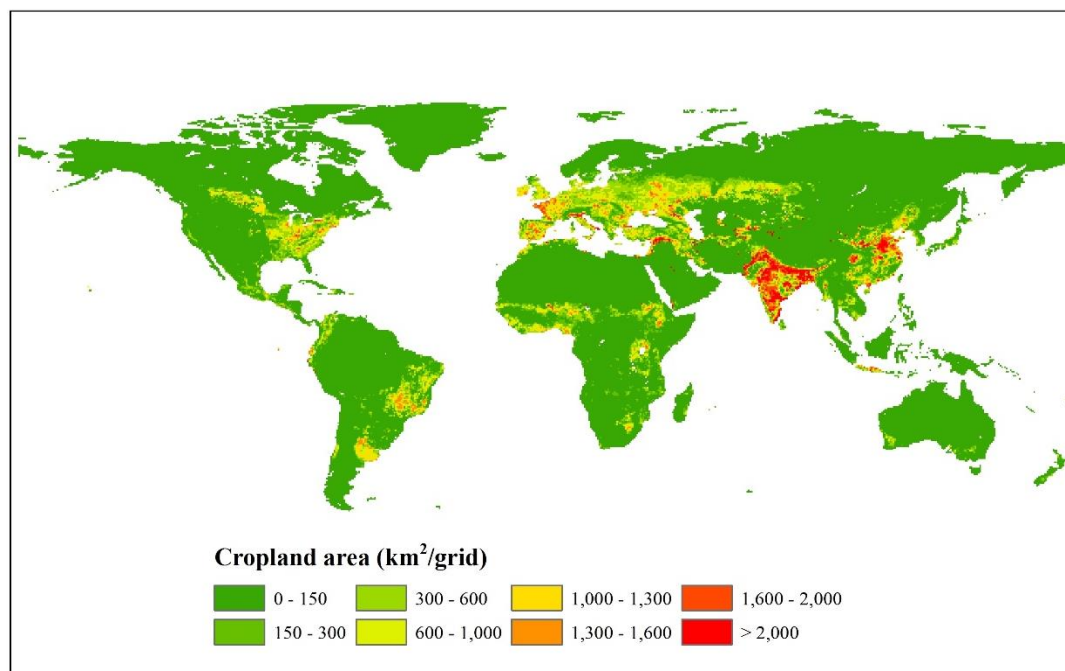
Response:

We agree with the reviewer. We have removed the top panel. Instead, we added a panel of N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates per unit area ( $\text{g N m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) with uncertainty ranges at biome-scale in 1860, as shown in Fig. 6 (a). In addition, we added the biome-scale emission amounts and their uncertainty ranges into the pie chart, as shown in Fig. 6 (b).

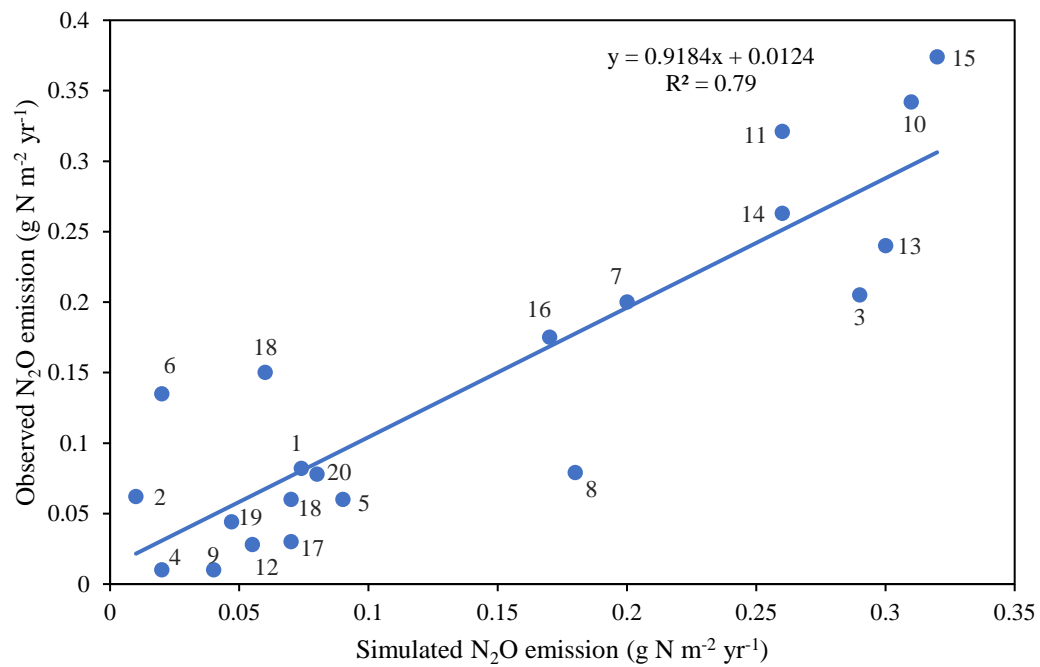
10. Table 2. The number of significant figures shown is excessive. I suggest rounding to the nearest Gg. The uncertainties are such that any fraction of a Gg is meaningless.

Response:

Since the one-box model section has been removed, Table 1 was deleted, and “Table 2” was changed to “Table 1”. The uncertainties have been removed. We added the biome- and continental-scale N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the supplementary material (Table S2). For the mean annual N<sub>2</sub>O emissions ( $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$ ) and emission rate per unit area ( $\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$ ), we have listed all numbers in the Table S3. We included the revised figures as below:

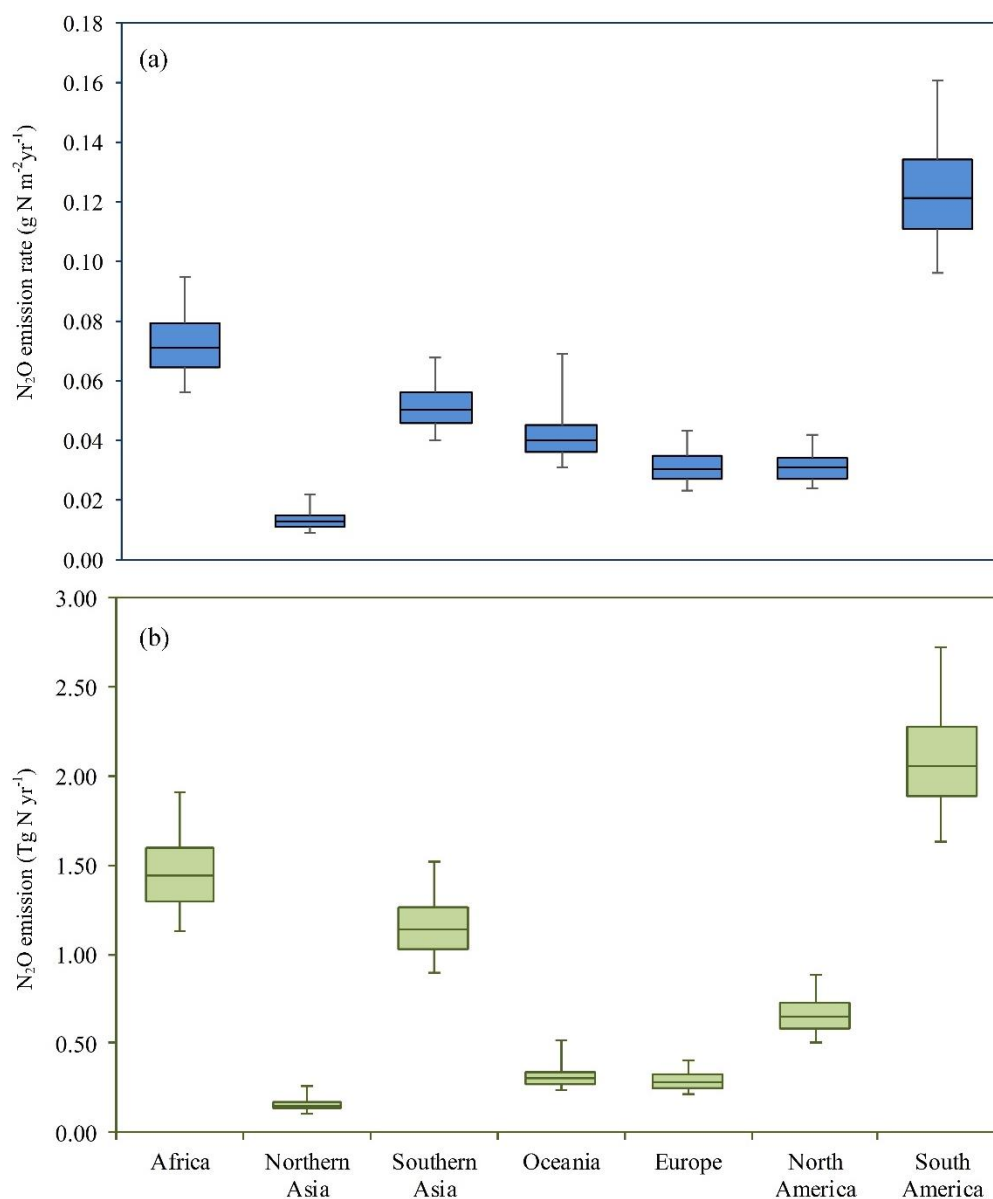


**Fig. 2** The spatial distribution of cropland area in 1860.

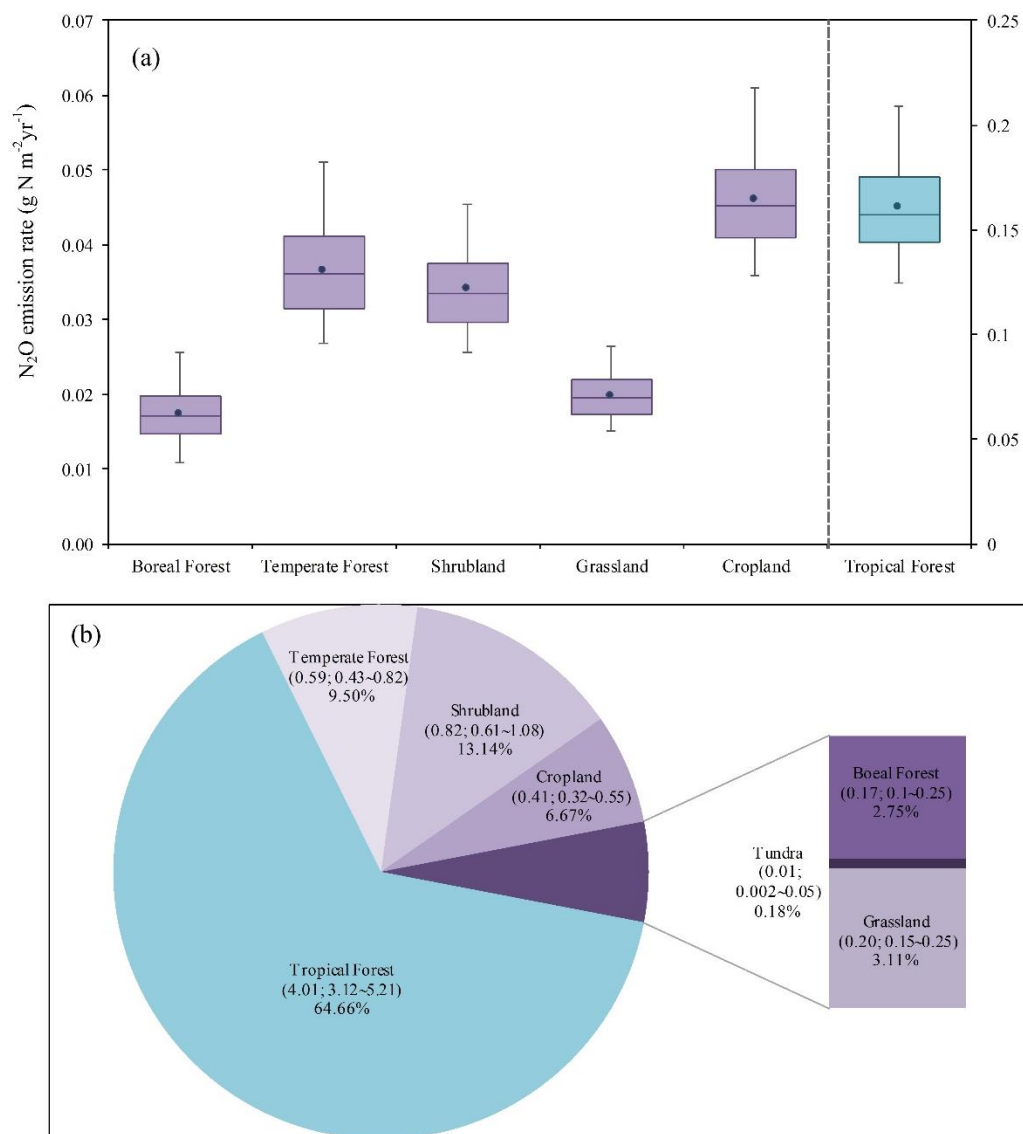


**Fig. 3** The comparison of the DLEM-simulated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions with field observations. All sites were described in the supplementary material (Table S1).

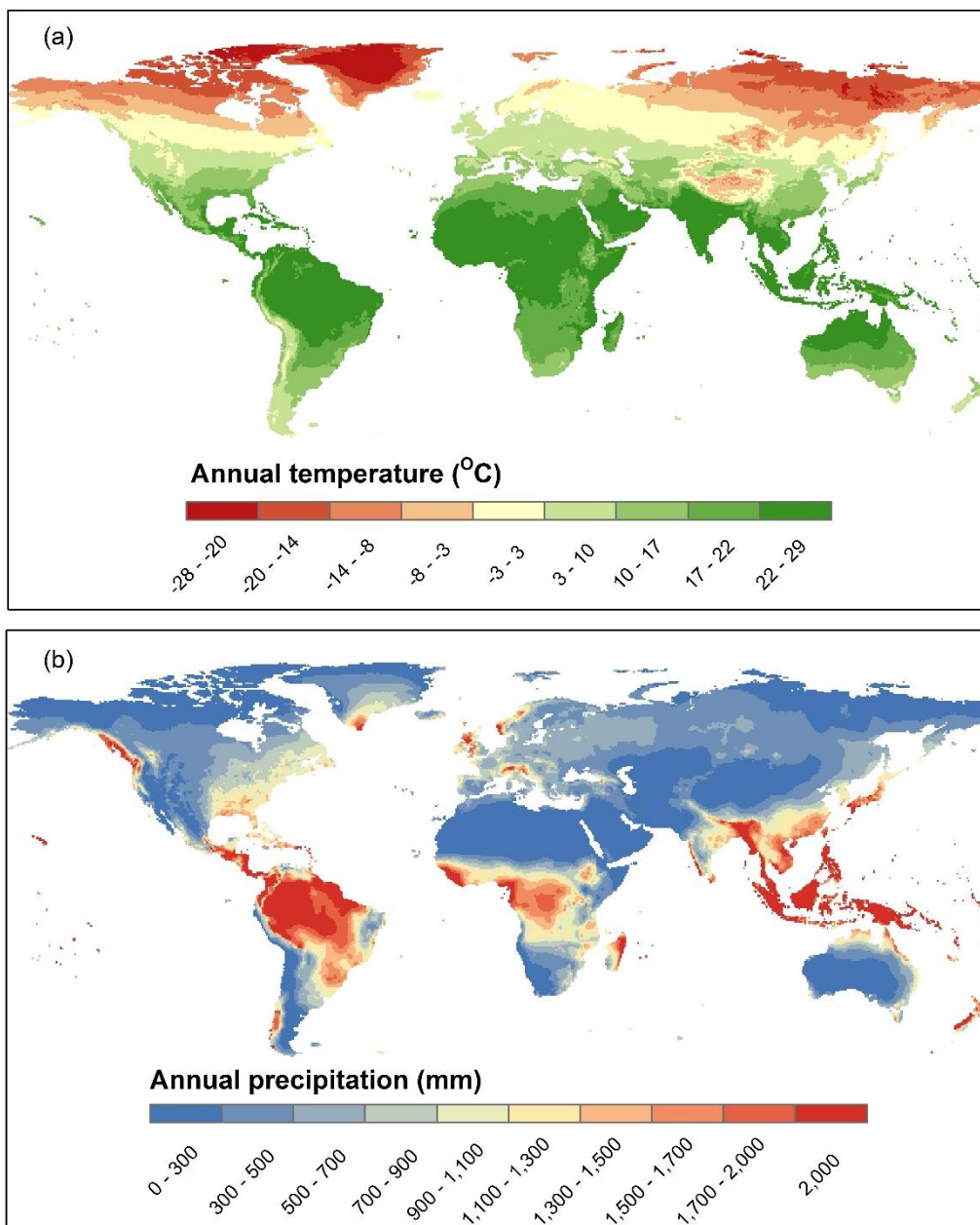




**Fig. 5** Estimated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission rates (a) and emissions (b) with uncertainty ranges at continental-level in 1860. Solid line within each box refers to the median value of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission rate or amount.



**Fig. 6** (a) Estimated N<sub>2</sub>O emission rate at biome-level in 1860 with the median value (solid line), the mean (solid dot), and the uncertainty range of emission rates from different biomes. The emission rate in the tundra was removed because of the extremely small value (less than 0.003g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>); (b) Estimated N<sub>2</sub>O emission (Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) with uncertainty ranges and its percentage (%) at biome-level in 1860.



**Figure S2.** (a) The average annual temperature during 1901–1930; (b) The average annual precipitation during 1901–1930.

Table S1. The description of field measurements from natural vegetation in different sites.

Number	PFT	location		Year	References
		Longitude	Latitude		
1	Forest: Spruce	11°25'E	48°46'N	1993-1995	Butterbach-Bahl et al., 1998
2	Forest: Spruce	09°34'E	51°46'N	2007-2008	Eickenscheidt and Brumme, 2012
3	Forest: Liana canopy	55°31'W	3°59'S	1998-2000	Davidson et al., 2004
4	Forest: Douglas-fir	124°30'W	44°00'N	2007-2008	Erickson and Perakis, 2014
5	Grassland	09°42'E	51°46'N	2008-2009	Hoefl et al., 2012
6	Forest	156°14'W	20°48'N	2000-2001	Holtgrieve et al., 2006
7	Forest: Spruce & Oak	19°57'–58'E	47°53'N	2002-2003	Horváth et al., 2006
8	Forest: Beech	16°15'E	48°14'N	2002-2004	Kitzler et al., 2006
9	Grassland	104°42'W	40°50'N	1997-2000	Mosier et al., 2002
10	Tropical rain forest	145°30'E	17°30'S	1997-1999	Breuer et al., 2000
11	Tropical rain forest	63°00'W	10°00'S	–	Stehfest and Bouwman, 2006
12	Savanna	28°30'E	24°30'S	1994	Scholes et al., 1997
13	Tropical forest	47°30'W	3°00'S	1987	Luizão et al., 1989
14	Tropical forest	115°30'E	2°00'S	1998-1999	Hadi et al., 2000
15	Tropical forest	84°00'W	10°26'N	1990-1991	Keller and Reiners, 1994
16	Subtropical forest	66°00'W	18°00'N	1995-1996	Erickson et al. 2001
17	Temperate forest	116°30'E	39°30'N	1997-1998	Sun and Xu, 2001
18	Temperate forest	89°00'W	43°00'N	1979-1981	Goodroad and Keeney, 1984
19	Grassland	116°04'E	43°26'N	1995	Chen et al., 2000
20	Temperate forest	126°55'E	41°23'N	1994-1995	

Table S3 The estimated mean N<sub>2</sub>O emissions and emission rates per unit area at continental- and biome-scale with the uncertainty ranges. kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> = 0.1 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>

Continental-scale	Europe	North America	South America	Southern Asia	Northern Asia	Oceania	Africa
N <sub>2</sub> O emissions (Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> )	0.29 (0.21~0.40)	0.66 (0.51~0.89)	2.09 (1.63~2.73)	1.16 (0.90~1.52)	0.16 (0.11~0.26)	0.31 (0.23~0.52)	1.46 (1.13~1.91)
N <sub>2</sub> O emission rate (kg N ha <sup>-1</sup> )	0.31 (0.23~0.43)	0.31 (0.24~0.42)	1.23 (0.96~1.61)	0.52 (0.40~0.68)	0.13 (0.09~0.22)	0.41 (0.31~0.69)	0.73 (0.56~0.95)
Biome-scale	Boreal Forest	Tropical Forest	Temperate Forest	Shrubland	Grassland	Cropland	Tundra
N <sub>2</sub> O emissions (Tg N yr <sup>-1</sup> )	0.17 (0.10~0.25)	4.01 (3.12~5.21)	0.59 (0.43~0.82)	0.82 (0.61~1.08)	0.20 (0.15~0.25)	0.41 (0.32~0.55)	0.01 (0.002~0.05)
N <sub>2</sub> O emission rate (kg N ha <sup>-1</sup> )	0.17 (0.11~0.26)	1.60 (1.25~2.09)	0.37 (0.27~0.51)	0.34 (0.26~0.45)	0.2 (0.15~0.26)	0.46 (0.36~0.61)	—

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Dear reviewer #2,

Many thanks for your highly valuable comments! All your questions have been answered as follows:

1. The country-level analysis does not make much sense as a large amount of countries had different boundaries compared to present. In line 396, those country-level emissions might need to be removed.

Response:

Yes, the current country boundaries are different from that in the preindustrial era. Here we just want to look at the regional differences in N<sub>2</sub>O emission for current country-level from geographical perspective. The region division based on country scale could be more interesting, so we still hope to keep this country-level analysis here.

2. I am little curious to see the small uncertainties in continent-level N<sub>2</sub>O show in Figure 5 as the LHS was used and the large uncertainties were shown in below panel in Figure 5.

Response:

The small uncertainty range shown in the upper panel of Fig. 5 was the 95% confidence interval of the mean estimate, as explained in the manuscript. The uncertainty range of pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was present using the minimum and maximum estimate (4.76–8.13 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) in this study, which was consistent with other studies, such as the reported estimates in the IPCC AR5. Here, the Bootstrap resampling method was used to define the uncertainty bounds of global mean N<sub>2</sub>O emission (6.20 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) (shown in line 216-219 of previous manuscript). It was used to verify the stability of the LHS approach. The 95% confidence intervals (6.03-6.36 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) of the mean did not represent the uncertainty range for pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission in this study. In order to avoid the confusion, we will not report this narrow range in the revised manuscript.

Meanwhile, the first reviewer also suggested to remove it because the upper and below panel deliver the same information. Instead, we replaced the Fig. 5(a) with a panel of N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates per unit area (g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) with uncertainties.

3. The model implementation is not clear. I assume this study is based on a steady state or semi-steady state simulation. The equilibrium run was for 1860, followed by a spinup. The transient run

was driven with climate data in 1860 (line 153). What is the data source? If the equilibrium run was based on 1860 data (most). Then, there are small discrepancies among spinup and transient runs. A comparison between equilibrium and transient run might be needed. If there are no big differences, using equilibrium run might be more convincing, as most driving forces were 1860 except climate data of 1901-1930. If the authors really want to have a transient run, the model simulations should start even further to capture the legacy impacts of natural and anthropogenic impacts, particularly the land use change.

Response:

Yes, this study was based on steady state simulation. The data sources for equilibrium run were all based on the data in 1860. Our transient run for 1860 was actually an extension of the equilibrium run. We don't have transient data before 1860 to realistically include the legacy effects from land use change, climate, etc. before 1860. The reason we ran this transient run was to avoid the abnormal fluctuations after equilibrium run, rather than capturing the legacy impacts. Fig. 4 in the manuscript is the result from equilibrium run. We made a comparison between the equilibrium and transient results for 1860 (Fig. S3). Although there were small differences for some grid cells between the two simulation results, the simulation results for the equilibrium run were similar to the transient run as a whole.

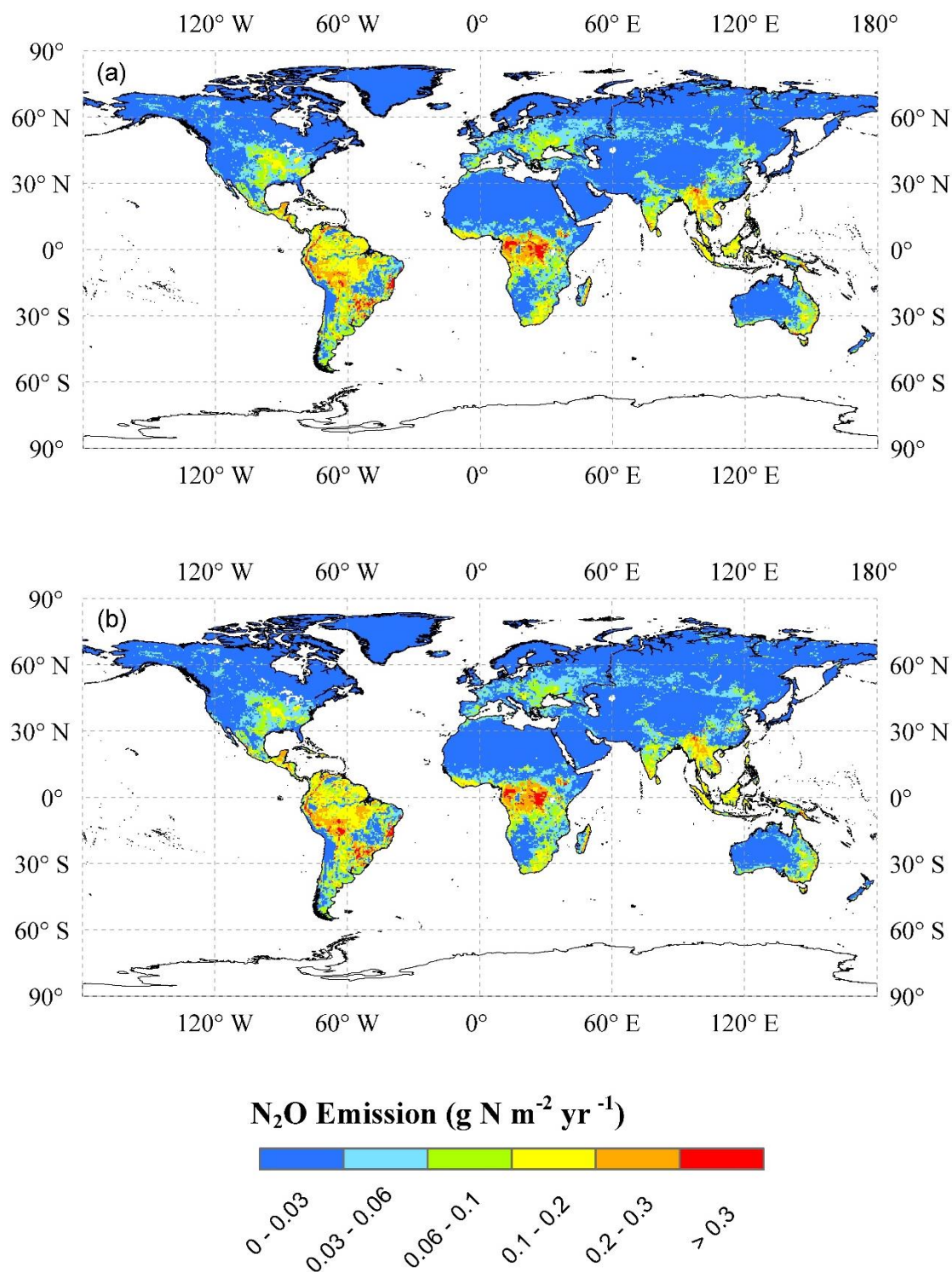


Fig. S3 (a) The spatial distribution of global N<sub>2</sub>O emission from the equilibrium run; (b) The spatial pattern distribution of global N<sub>2</sub>O emission from the transient run.

All changes were marked as blue in the revised manuscript.

A list of relevant changes:

1. In the **introduction** section, we added the recent results by Prather et al. (2015) (Line 55-57). Meanwhile, we included the estimation of human-induced N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 1860 from previous studies (Line 37-41). In addition, we addressed the objectives of this study at the end of the introduction section (Line 72-77).
2. In the **methodology** section, as suggested by the reviewer, we have removed the one-box model approach.
3. In the **result and discussion** section, as suggested by the reviewer, we removed the results from the one-box approach, while we added the comparison of our study with the previous estimations based on the top-down methodology (Section 3.2). Moreover, we added one section to discuss the N<sub>2</sub>O budget in the pre-industrial era (Section 3.4).
4. In the **future research needs** section, we also made some changes, which were marked as blue (Line 353-356).
5. In the **references**, we added all missing references and marked as blue.

For tables and figure:

1. As suggested by the reviewer, we have added the site number in Table S1 and Fig. 3.
2. As suggested by the reviewers, we have revised the top panels of Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, respectively.
3. In Table 1, we have removed the uncertainty ranges for N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in each country.
4. We added Table S3 in the supplementary material, which shows the pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission amounts and rates at the continental- and biome-scale with the uncertainty ranges.

# Estimation of pre-industrial nitrous oxide emissions from the land biosphere

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**Abstract.** To accurately assess how increased global nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) emission has affected the climate system requires a robust estimation of the pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions since only the difference between current and pre-industrial emissions represents net drivers of anthropogenic climate change. However, large uncertainty exists in previous estimates of pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from the land biosphere, while pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions at the finer scales such as regional, biome, or sector have not yet well quantified. In this study, we applied a process-based Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (DLEM) to estimate the magnitude and spatial patterns of pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes at the biome-, continental-, and global-level as driven by multiple environmental factors. Uncertainties associated with key parameters were also evaluated. Our study indicates that the mean of the pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission was approximately 6.20 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, with an uncertainty range of 4.76 to 8.13 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. The estimated N<sub>2</sub>O emission varied significantly at spatial- and biome-levels. South America, Africa, and Southern Asia accounted for 34.12%, 23.85%, 18.93%, respectively, together contributing of 76.90% of global total emission. The tropics were identified as the major source of N<sub>2</sub>O released into the atmosphere, accounting for 64.66% of the total emission. Our multi-scale estimates provide a robust reference for assessing the climate forcing of anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission from the land biosphere

## 26    **1 Introduction**

27    Nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) acts as the third-most important greenhouse gas (GHG) after carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and  
28    methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), largely contributing to the current radiative forcing (Myhre et al., 2013). Nitrous oxide is  
29    also the most long-lived reactant, resulting in the destruction of stratospheric ozone (Prather et al., 2015;  
30    Ravishankara et al., 2009). The atmospheric concentration of N<sub>2</sub>O increased from 275 to 329 parts per  
31    billion (ppb) since the pre-industrial era until 2015 at a rate of approximately 0.26% per year, as a result of  
32    human activities (Davidson, 2009; Forster et al., 2007; NOAA2006A). The human-induced N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
33    from the terrestrial biosphere have offset about half of terrestrial CO<sub>2</sub> sink and contributed a net warming  
34    effect on the climate system (Tian et al., 2016). In the contemporary period, anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
35    are mainly caused by the expansion in agricultural land area and increase in nitrogen (N) fertilizer  
36    application, as well as industrial activities, biomass burning and indirect emissions from reactive N  
37    (Galloway et al., 2004; Reay et al., 2012). Human-induced biogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were calculated by  
38    subtracting the pre-industrial emissions (Tian et al., 2016), even though a small amount of anthropogenic  
39    N<sub>2</sub>O emissions was present before 1860, which was estimated as 1.1 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1850 by Syakila and  
40    Kroeze (2011) and 0.7 (0.6–0.8) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (including anthropogenic biogenic emissions from soils and  
41    biomass burning) in 1860 by Davidson (2009). Therefore, it is necessary to provide a robust reference of  
42    pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission for assessing the climate forcing of anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission from the land  
43    biosphere.

44        Numerous studies have reported the sources and estimates of N<sub>2</sub>O emission since the pre-industrial era  
45    (Davidson and Kanter, 2014; Galloway et al., 2004; Kroeze et al., 1999; Prather et al., 2012, 2015; Syakila  
46    and Kroeze, 2011). According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Guidelines (IPCC, 1997),  
47    the global N<sub>2</sub>O emission evaluated by Kroeze et al. (1999) is 11 (8–13) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Natural soils: 5.6–6.6 Tg  
48    N yr<sup>-1</sup>, Anthropogenic: 1.4 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>), which is consistent with the estimation from global pre-agricultural

49 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in soils (6–7 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Bouwman et al., 1993). While taking into account the new  
50 emission factor from the IPCC 2006 Guidelines (Denman et al., 2007), Syakila and Kroeze (2011)  
51 conducted an updated estimate based on the study of Kroeze et al. (1999) and reported that the global pre-  
52 industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission is 11.6 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Anthropogenic: 1.1 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, Natural soils: 7 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>). Based  
53 on the IPCC AR5, Davidson and Kanter (2014) indicated that the central estimates of both top-down and  
54 bottom-up approaches for pre-industrial natural emissions were in agreement at 11 (10–12) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>,  
55 including natural emission from soils at 6.6 (3.3–9.0) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). Prather et al.  
56 (2015) provided an estimate of the pre-industrial emissions (total natural emission: 10.5 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) based on  
57 the most recent study with a corrected lifetime of 116±9 years. Although these previous estimates intent to  
58 provide a baseline of pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission at global-level, information on pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O  
59 emissions on fine resolutions such as biome-, sector- or country-, and regional-levels remains unknown but  
60 needed for effective greenhouse gas accounting and climate policy-making.

61 Large uncertainties in the estimates of pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission could derive from different  
62 approaches (i.e. top-down and bottom-up), as mentioned above. Nitrous oxide, as an important component  
63 of the N cycle, is produced by biological processes such as denitrification and nitrification in terrestrial and  
64 aquatic systems (Schmidt et al., 2004; Smith and Arah, 1990; Wrage et al., 2001). In order to accurately  
65 estimate pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions using the process-based Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (DLEM,  
66 Tian et al., 2010), uncertainties associated with key parameters, such as maximum nitrification and  
67 denitrification rates, biological N fixation (BNF) rates, and the adsorption coefficient for soil ammonium  
68 (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), were required to be considered in model simulation. Upper and lower limits of  
69 these parameters were used to derive a range of pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from terrestrial ecosystems.

70 In this study, the DLEM was used to simulate global N<sub>2</sub>O emission in the pre-industrial era at a  
71 resolution of 0.5° × 0.5° latitude/longitude. Since there are no observational data of N<sub>2</sub>O emission in the



pre-industrial period, the estimates of natural emission from Prather et al. (2012, 2015) were used to validate the simulation results. In addition, site-level N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from different natural vegetation were used to test model performance in the contemporary period. The objectives in this study include: (1) providing a global estimation of N<sub>2</sub>O emission from terrestrial soils in 1860, (2) offering the continental-, biome-, and country-scale N<sub>2</sub>O emission amounts and flux rates, and (3) discussing uncertainties in estimating N<sub>2</sub>O budget in the pre-industrial era. Finally, our estimates at global- and biome-scales were compared with previous estimates.

## 2 Methodology

### 2.1 Model description

The DLEM is a highly integrated process-based ecosystem model, which combines biophysical characteristics, plant physiological processes, biogeochemical cycles, vegetation dynamics and land use to make daily, spatially-explicit estimates of carbon, nitrogen and water fluxes and pool sizes in terrestrial ecosystems from site- and regional- to global-scales (Lu and Tian, 2013; Tian et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2015). The DLEM is characterized of cohort structure, multiple soil layer processes, coupled carbon, water and nitrogen cycles, multiple GHG emissions simulation, enhanced land surface processes, and dynamic linkages between terrestrial and riverine ecosystems (Liu et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2010, 2015). The previous results of GHG emissions from DLEM simulations have been validated against field observations and measurements at various sites (Lu and Tian, 2013; Ren et al., 2011; Tian et al., 2010, 2011; Xu et al. 2012; Zhang et al., 2016). The estimates of water, carbon, and nutrients fluxes and storages were also compared with the estimates from different approaches at regional-, continental-, and global-scales (Pan et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). Different soil organic pools and calculations of decomposition rates were described in Tian et al. (2015). The decomposition and nitrogen mineralization processes in the DLEM were described in other publications (Lu and Tian, 2013; Yang et al., 2015).

## 95    **The N<sub>2</sub>O module**

96    Previous work provided a detailed description of trace gas modules in the DLEM (Tian et al., 2010).  
97    However, both denitrification and nitrification processes have been modified based on the first-order  
98    kinetics (Chatskikh et al., 2005; Heinen, 2006).

99        In the DLEM, the N<sub>2</sub>O production and fluxes are determined by soil inorganic N content (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and  
100    NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and environmental factors, such as soil texture, temperature, and moisture:

$$101 \qquad F_{\text{N}_2\text{O}} = (R_{\text{nit}} + R_{\text{den}})F(T_{\text{soil}})(1 - F(Q_{\text{wfp}})) \qquad (1)$$

102    where  $F_{\text{N}_2\text{O}}$  is the N<sub>2</sub>O flux from soils to the atmosphere (g N m<sup>2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>),  $R_{\text{nit}}$  is the daily nitrification rate (g N  
103    m<sup>2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>),  $R_{\text{den}}$  is the daily denitrification rate (g N m<sup>2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>),  $F(T_{\text{soil}})$  is the function of daily soil temperature on  
104    nitrification process (unitless), and  $F(Q_{\text{wfp}})$  is the function of water-filled porosity (unitless).

105        Nitrification, a process converting NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> into NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, is simulated as a function of soil temperature,  
106    moisture, and soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentration:

$$107 \qquad R_{\text{nit}} = k_{\text{nit}}F(T_{\text{soil}})F(\psi)C_{\text{NH}_4} \qquad (2)$$

108    where  $k_{\text{nit}}$  is the daily maximum fraction of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> that is converted into NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> or gases (d<sup>-1</sup>),  $F(\psi)$  is the soil  
109    moisture effect (unitless), and  $C_{\text{NH}_4}$  is the soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> content (g N m<sup>-2</sup>). Unlike Chatskikh *et al* (2005), who  
110    set  $k_{\text{nit}}$  to 0.10 d<sup>-1</sup>, it varies with different plant function types (PFTs) in the DLEM with a range of 0.04 to  
111    0.15 d<sup>-1</sup>. The detailed calculations of  $F(T_{\text{soil}})$  and  $F(\psi)$  were described in Pan et al. (2015) and Yang et al.  
112    (2015).

113        Denitrification is the process that converts NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> into three types of gases, namely, nitric oxide, N<sub>2</sub>O,  
114    dinitrogen. The denitrification rate is simulated as a function of soil temperature, water-filled porosity, and  
115    NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration  $C_{\text{NO}_3}$  (g N g<sup>-1</sup> soil):

$$R_{\text{den}} = \alpha F(T_{\text{soil}}) F(Q_{\text{wfp}}) F_N(C_{\text{NO}_3}) \quad (3)$$

where  $F_N(C_{\text{NO}_3})$  is the dependency of the denitrification rate on  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration (unitless), and  $\alpha$  is the maximum denitrification rate ( $\text{g N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ). The detailed calculations of  $F(Q_{\text{wfp}})$ ,  $F_N(C_{\text{NO}_3})$  and  $\alpha$  were described in Yang et al. (2015).

In each grid cell, there are four natural vegetation types and one crop type. The sum of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission in each grid/ $\text{d}^{-1}$  is calculated by the following formula:

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{62481} \sum_{j=1}^5 (N_{ij} \times f_{ij}) \times A_i \times 10^6 / 10^{12}, \quad i = 1, \dots, 62481, j = 1, \dots, 5 \quad (4)$$

where  $E$  is the daily sum of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission from all plant functional types (PFTs) in total grids ( $\text{Tg N/yr}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ );  $N_{ij}$  ( $\text{g N/m}^2$ ) is the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission in the grid cell  $i$  for PFT  $j$ ;  $f_{ij}$  is the fraction of cell used for PFT  $j$  in grid cell  $i$ ; and  $A_i$  ( $\text{km}^2$ ) is the area of the  $i$ th grid cell.  $10^6$  is to convert  $\text{km}^2$  to  $\text{m}^2$  and  $10^{12}$  is to convert  $\text{g}$  to  $\text{Tg}$ .

## 2.2 Input datasets

Input data to drive DLEM simulation include static and transient data (Tian et al., 2010). Several additional data sets were generated to better represent terrestrial environment in the pre-industrial period as described below. The natural vegetation map was developed based on LUH (Hurt et al., 2011) and SYNMAP (Jung et al., 2006), which rendered the fractions of 47 vegetation types in each  $0.5^\circ$  grid. These 47 vegetation types were converted to 15 PFTs used in the DLEM through a cross-walk table (Fig. 1). Cropland distribution in 1860 were developed by aggregating the 5-arc minute resolution HYDE v3.1 global cropland distribution data (Fig. 2). Half degree daily climate data (including average, maximum, minimum air temperature, precipitation, relative humidity, and shortwave radiation) were derived from CRU-NCEP climate forcing data (Wei et al., 2014). As global climate dataset was not available prior to the year 1900, long-term average climate datasets from 1901 to 1930 were used to represent the initial climate state in

138 1860. The nitrogen deposition dataset was developed based on the atmospheric chemistry transport model  
139 (Dentener, 2006) constrained by the EDGAR-HYDE nitrogen emission data (Aardenne et al., 2001). The  
140 nitrogen deposition dataset provided inter-annual variations of  $\text{NH}_x\text{-N}$  and  $\text{NO}_y\text{-N}$  deposition rates. The  
141 manure production dataset (1961–2013) was derived from Food and Agriculture organization of the United  
142 Nations statistic website ((FAO), <http://faostat.fao.org>) and defaulted for N excretion rate referred to IPCC  
143 Guidelines (Zhang et al., 2017). Estimates of manure production from 1860 to 1960 were retrieved from the  
144 global estimates in (Holland et al., 2005).

### 145 **2.3 Model simulation**

146 The implementation of the DLEM simulation includes three steps: (1) equilibrium run, (2) spin-up run, and  
147 (3) transient run. In this study, we first used land use and land cover (LULC) map in 1860, long-term mean  
148 climate during 1901–1930, N input datasets in 1860 (the concentration levels of N deposition and manure  
149 application rate), and atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  in 1860 to run the model to an equilibrium state. In each grid, the  
150 equilibrium state was assumed to be reached when the inter-annual variations of carbon, nitrogen, and  
151 water storage are less than  $0.1 \text{ g C/m}^2$ ,  $0.1 \text{ g N/m}^2$  and  $0.1 \text{ mm}$ , respectively, during two consecutive 50  
152 years. After the model reached equilibrium state, the model was spun up by the detrended climate data from  
153 1901 to 1930 to eliminate system fluctuation caused by the model mode shift from the equilibrium to  
154 transient run (i.e., 3 spins with 10-year climate data each time). Finally, the model was run in the transient  
155 mode with daily climate data, annual  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration, manure application, and N deposition inputs in  
156 1860 to simulate pre-industrial  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions. Additional description of model initialization and  
157 simulation procedure can be found in previous publications (Tian et al., 2010; [Tian et al., 2011](#)).

### 158 **2.4 Model validation**

159 Observations of annual N<sub>2</sub>O emission accumulations (g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) were selected to compare with the  
160 simulated emissions in different sites. As there were no field measurements in the pre-industrial era,  
161 observations during 1970–2009 were collected to test the model performance in the contemporary period.  
162 All environmental factors (climate, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, soil property, N deposition, LULC) in the exact year  
163 were used as input datasets for N<sub>2</sub>O simulations. The selected 20 sites over different continents include  
164 temperate forest, tropical forest, boreal forest, savanna, and grassland. As shown in Fig. 3, the simulated  
165 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions have a good correlation with field observations ( $R^2 = 0.79$ ). It indicates that the DLEM has  
166 the capacity to simulate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in the pre-industrial era driven by environmental factors back then.  
167 The detailed information at each site can be found in Table S1.

## 168 2.5 Estimate of uncertainty

169 In this study, uncertainties in the simulated N<sub>2</sub>O emission were evaluated through a global sensitivity and  
170 uncertainty analysis as described in Tian et al. (2011). Based on sensitivity analyses of key parameters that  
171 affect terrestrial N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes, the most sensitive parameters were identified to conduct uncertainty  
172 simulations with the DLEM. These parameters include potential denitrification and nitrification rates, BNF  
173 rates, and the adsorption coefficient for soil NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Gerber et al., 2010; Tian et al., 2015; Yang et  
174 al., 2015). The ranges of five parameters were obtained from previous studies. Chatskikh et al. (2005) set  
175  $k_{\text{nit}}$  as 0.10 d<sup>-1</sup>; however, it was set in a range of 0.04 to 0.15 d<sup>-1</sup>, and varied with different PFTs in the  
176 DLEM simulations. The uncertainty ranges of potential nitrification rates were based on previous studies  
177 (Hansen, 2002; Heinen, 2006); the global pre-industrial N fixation was estimated as 58 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, ranging  
178 from 50–100 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Vitousek et al., 2013). The spatial distribution of BNF referred to the estimates by  
179 Cleveland et al. (1999). Potential denitrification rate was set in an uncertainty range of 0.025–0.74 d<sup>-1</sup>, and  
180 varied with different PFTs in the DLEM. The uncertainty ranges of the adsorption coefficient were referred  
181 to the sensitivity analysis conducted in Yang et al. (2015). Parameters used in the DLEM simulations for

uncertainty analysis were assumed to follow a normal distribution. The Improved Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) approach was used to randomly select an ensemble of 100 sets of parameters (R version 3.2.1) (Tian et al., 2011, 2015).

In the DLEM, after the model reached equilibrium state, a spin-up run was implemented using detrended climate data from 1901 to 1930 for each set of parameter values. Then, each set of the model was run in transient mode in 1860 to produce the result of the pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. All results from 100 groups of simulations are shown in the Table S2. The Shapiro–Wilk test was used on 100 sets of results to check the normality of DLEM simulations. It turned out that the distribution is not normal (P value < 0.05, R version 3.2.1), as shown in Fig. S1. Thus, the uncertainty range was represented as the minimum and maximum value of 100 sets of DLEM simulations.

## **3 Results & discussion**

### **3.1 Magnitude and spatial distribution of the pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission**

Our estimation indicates that the global mean soil N<sub>2</sub>O emission in the pre-industrial period (1860) was 6.20 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. We define the parameter-induced uncertainty of our global estimates as a range between the minimum (4.76 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) and the maximum (8.13 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) of 100 sets of DLEM simulations. The terrestrial ecosystem in the pre-industrial period acted as a source of N<sub>2</sub>O, and its spatial pattern mostly depends on the biome distribution across the global land surface. The spatial distribution of annual N<sub>2</sub>O emission in a 0.5° × 0.5° grid (Fig. 4) shows that the strong sources were found near the equator, such as Southeast Asia, Central Africa, and Central America, where N<sub>2</sub>O emission reached as high as 0.45 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The weak N<sub>2</sub>O sources were observed in the northern areas of North America and Asia, where the estimated N<sub>2</sub>O emission was less than 0.001 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The microbial activity in soils determined the rate of nitrification and denitrification processes, which accounts for approximately 70% of global N<sub>2</sub>O

emissions (Smith and Arah, 1990; Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). The tropical regions near the equator could provide microbes optimum temperatures and soil moistures to decompose soil organic matter and release more  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{CO}_2$  into the atmosphere (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). Referring to the observational data from field experiments and model simulations in the tropics, it has been supported that the tropics are the main sources of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions from natural vegetation (Bouwman et al., 1995; Werner et al., 2007; Zhuang et al., 2012).

In this study, Asia is divided into two parts: Southern Asia and Northern Asia, where the PFTs and climate conditions are significantly contrasting. As shown in Fig. 1, tropical forest and cropland were dominant PFTs in Southern Asia. In contrast, temperate and boreal forests were main PFTs in Northern Asia. The estimates of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions from seven land regions are shown in Fig. 5. At continental scale, the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission was 2.09 (1.63–2.73)  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$  in South America, 1.46 (1.13–1.91)  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$  in Africa, and 1.16 (0.90–1.52)  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$  in Southern Asia. South America, Africa, and Southern Asia accounted for 33.77%, 23.60%, 18.73%, respectively, together which was 76.10% of global total emission. Europe and Northern Asia contributed to 0.45 (0.32–0.66)  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$ , which was less than 10% of the total emission.

Nitrous oxide emissions varied remarkably among different ecosystems. Forest, grassland, shrub, tundra and cropland contributed 76.90%, 3.11%, 13.14%, 0.18% and 6.67%, respectively, to the total emission globally (Fig. 6). In different biomes, the tropics accounted for more than half of the total  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission, which is comparable to the conclusion made by Bouwman et al. (1993). In the pre-industrial era, the major inputs of reactive N to terrestrial ecosystems were from BNF, which relies on the activity of a phylogenetically diverse list of bacteria, archaea and symbioses (Cleveland et al., 1999; Vitousek et al., 2013). Tropical savannas have been considered as ‘hot spots’ of BNF by legume nodules that provide the major input of available N (Bate and Gunton, 1982). The substantial inputs of N into tropical forests could contribute to higher amount of the gaseous N losses as  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  or nitrogen gas (Cleveland et al., 2010; Hall



227 and Matson, 1999). In contrast, as the largest terrestrial biome, boreal forests lack of available N because  
228 the rate of BNF is constricted by cold temperatures and low precipitation during growing season  
229 (Alexander and Billington, 1986). Morse et al. (2015) conducted field experiments in Northeastern North  
230 American forests. They found that denitrification does vary coherently with patterns of N availability in  
231 forests, and no significant correlations between atmospheric N deposition, potential net N mineralization  
232 and nitrification rates. Thus, it is reasonable that boreal forests contributed to the least amount of N<sub>2</sub>O  
233 emission among different forests.

234 As shown in Fig. 2, cropland areas varied spatially. The regions with high cropland area include the  
235 entire Europe, India, eastern China, and central-eastern United States. The global N<sub>2</sub>O emission from  
236 croplands was estimated as 0.41 (0.32–0.55) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, which is about ten times less than the estimate  
237 reported in the IPCC AR5 (Ciais et al., 2014). As no synthetic N fertilizer was applied to the cropland in  
238 1860, leguminous crops were the major source of N<sub>2</sub>O emission from croplands, most of which were  
239 planted in central-eastern United States (Fig. 4). Rochette et al. (2004) conducted the experiments on the  
240 N<sub>2</sub>O emission from soybean without application of N fertilizer. Their work was in agreement with the  
241 suggestion that legumes may increase N<sub>2</sub>O emissions compared with non-BNF crops (Duxbury et al., 1982)  
242 The background emission from ground-based experiments was as high as 0.31–0.42 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> in Canada  
243 (Duxbury et al., 1982; Rochette et al., 2004).

244 Pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission at country-level could serve as a reference for calculating human-induced  
245 N<sub>2</sub>O emission in today's nations. We estimated pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from seventeen countries that  
246 are “hot spots” of N<sub>2</sub>O sources in the contemporary period (Table 1). The order of countries was referred to  
247 Gerber et al. (2016) that indicated the top seventeen countries in terms of total N application in 2000. Pre-  
248 industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from natural soils and croplands varied significantly at country-scales. The United  
249 States, China, and India were top countries accounted for emissions from pre-industrial croplands.

Countries close to or located in the tropics, such as Mexico, Indonesia, and Brazil, accounted for negligible emissions from croplands, but substantial amount from natural vegetation in the pre-industrial era. Previous studies indicated that agriculture produces the majority of anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Ciais et al., 2014; Davidson and Kanter, 2014). Our estimate at country-scales could be used as a reference to quantify the net increase of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agriculture activities in countries of “hot spots”.

There is a debate that the natural wetlands and peatlands act as sinks or sources of N<sub>2</sub>O. Previous studies showed that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from natural peatlands are usually negligible; however, the drained peatlands with lower water tables might act as sources of N<sub>2</sub>O (Augustin et al., 1998; Martikainen et al., 1993). High water tables in wetlands might block the activity of nitrifiers and limit the denitrification (Bouwman et al., 1993). The fluxes of N<sub>2</sub>O were negligible in the pelagic regions of boreal ponds and lakes due to the limitation of nitrification and/or nitrate inputs (Huttunen et al., 2003). Couwenberg et al. (2011) mentioned that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions always decreased after rewetting when conducting field experiments, which had been excluded from their future analysis of GHG emissions in peatlands. Hadi et al. (2005) pointed out that tropical peatlands ranged from sources to sinks of N<sub>2</sub>O, highly affected by land-use and hydrological zone. We were incapable to examine N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes from wetlands and peatlands in 1860 as human-induced land-use in those ecosystems was unknown. Thus, we excluded the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from wetlands and peatlands in this study.

### 3.2 Revisit preindustrial global N<sub>2</sub>O emission by incorporating top-down estimates

“Top-down” methodology used to estimate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is based on atmospheric measurements and an inversion model (Thompson et al. 2014). Prather et al. (2012) provided an estimate of  $9.1 \pm 1.0$  Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> of natural emission in the pre-industrial era using observed pre-industrial abundances of 270 ppb and model estimates of lifetime decreased from 142 years in the pre-industrial era to  $131 \pm 10$  years in the present-day. Later, Prather et al. (2015) re-evaluated N<sub>2</sub>O lifetime based on Microwave Limb Sounder satellite

273 measurements of stratospheric, which was consistent with modeled values in the present-day. The lifetime  
274 in the pre-industrial era and present-day was estimated to be 123 and  $116 \pm 9$  years, respectively. The current  
275 lifetime increases the pre-industrial natural emission from  $9.1 \pm 1.0$  to  $10.5 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ .

276 Natural sources for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  include soil under natural vegetation, oceans, and atmospheric chemistry  
277 (Ciais et al., 2014). The emission from atmospheric chemistry was estimated as 0.6 with an uncertainty  
278 range of  $0.3\text{--}1.2 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ . Syakila and Kroeze (2011) estimated global natural emissions from oceans as  
279  $3.5 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ . Oceanic emission was estimated as 3.8 with an uncertainty range of  $1.8\text{--}5.8 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$  in the  
280 IPCC AR4. However, the uncertainty range became larger ( $1.8\text{--}9.4 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ ) in the IPCC AR5. In our  
281 study, the simulated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission was from agricultural and natural soils. The natural emission was  
282 estimated as 5.78 ( $4.4\text{--}7.72$ )  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$ . Combining the atmospheric chemistry and the ocean emissions in  
283 the IPCC AR5 with the natural emissions from our study, the global total natural  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions were 10.18  
284 ( $6.5\text{--}18.32$ )  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$ . The large uncertainty range was attributed to the uncertainty from oceanic emission,  
285 atmospheric chemistry emission, and our estimation. The estimated global total amount ( $10.18 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ ) in  
286 this study was comparable to the estimate ( $10.5 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ ) by Prather et al. (2015) using the top-down  
287 approach.

### 288 **3.3 Comparison with estimates by bottom-up methodology**

289 “Bottom-up” approach includes the estimations based on inventory, statistical extrapolation of local flux  
290 measurements, and process-based modeling (Tian et al., 2016). The global pre-agricultural  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission  
291 was estimated as  $6.8 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$  based on the regression relationship between measured  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  fluxes and  
292 modeled  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  production indices (Bouwman et al., 1993). This estimate was adopted to retrieve the trends  
293 of atmospheric  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentration in Syakila and Kroeze (2011). In our study, the pre-industrial  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
294 emission from natural vegetation was estimated as 5.78 ( $4.4\text{--}7.72$ )  $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$ , which is about  $1 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$

295 lower than the estimate from Bouwman et al. (1993). Estimate from the tropics ( $\pm 30^\circ$  of the equator) was  
296 about  $4.57 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ , which is  $0.83 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$  lower than the estimate from Bouwman et al. (1993). For the  
297 rest of natural vegetation, our estimate was  $1.21 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$ , which is close to  $1.4 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$  estimated in  
298 Bouwman et al. (1993).

299 Although Bouwman et al. (1993) has studied the potential  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission from natural soils, our study  
300 provided a first estimate of spatially distributed  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission in 1860 using the biogeochemical process-  
301 based model. Bouwman et al. (1993) provided  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  monthly  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission using the monthly controlling  
302 factors without considering the impact of N deposition. In their study, the soil fertility and carbon content  
303 were constant for every month, which could not reflect the monthly dynamic changes of carbon and N  
304 pools in natural soils. Moreover, although their study has represented a spatial distribution of potential  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$   
305 emission from natural soils, they had not provided the estimate at biome-, continent-, and country-scales.  
306 Thus, their result was hardly to be used as a regional reference for the net human-induced  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions  
307 from some “hot spots”, such as Southern Asia. In contrast, in our study, using daily climate and N  
308 deposition dataset could better reflect the real variation of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission through the growing season in  
309 natural ecosystems. The comparison with field observations during 1997–2001 indicated that the DLEM  
310 can catch the daily peak  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in Hubbard Brook Forest (Tian et al., 2010) and Inner-Mongolia  
311 (Tian et al., 2011).

312 As far as the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission from croplands, our estimate is comparable to the estimate of 0.3  
313  $(0.29\text{--}0.35) \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$  extracted from Syakila and Kroeze (2011) by digitizing graphs using the Getdata  
314 Graph Digitizer. In their study, the estimation was based on the relationship between the crop production  
315 and human population during 1500–1970. In contrast, the result in our study was estimated based on the  
316 cropland area of specific crop type, mainly soybean, rice, corn, and wheat in 1860.

317 Thus, the DLEM is capable to provide the estimate of N<sub>2</sub>O emission from natural ecosystems at  
318 regional- and biome-scales with a higher spatial resolution. This could be a useful reference for quantifying  
319 effects of human activities such as the LULC change, N fertilizer and manure application, and increasingly  
320 atmospheric N deposition on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in different terrestrial ecosystems or sectors in the  
321 contemporary period.

### 322 3.4 The N<sub>2</sub>O budget in the pre-industrial era

323 The observed N<sub>2</sub>O concentration reflects the result of dynamic production and consumption processes in  
324 soils as soils act as sources or sinks of N<sub>2</sub>O through denitrification and nitrification (Chapuis-Lardy et al.,  
325 2007). There was a slight increase of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O concentration during 1750–1860 according to the  
326 ice core records, but showed a rapid increase from 1860 to present (Ciais et al., 2014). Nature sources of  
327 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions have been discussed in section 3.2 & 3.3. Previous studies found that there were some  
328 anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions along with the natural sources in the pre-industrial era (Davidson, 2009;  
329 Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). Syakila and Kroeze (2011) found anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission began since  
330 1500 because of the biomass burning and agriculture. The total anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission in their study  
331 was estimated as 1.1 Tg N in 1850. In addition, Davidson (2009) derived a time-course analysis of sources  
332 and sinks of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O since 1860. The pre-industrial anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O sources in his study  
333 included biomass burning, agriculture (e.g. manure application, and the cultivation of legume) and human  
334 sewage, the sum of which was 0.7 (0.6–0.8) Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> (Davidson, 2009). Thus, anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O  
335 emission has already existed in 1860, but in a small magnitude as compared with the contemporary amount.

336 Davidson (2009) mentioned that there was possibly a certain amount of N<sub>2</sub>O loss in the pre-industrial  
337 period through atmospheric sink and the reduced emission from tropical deforestation. He estimated the  
338 anthropogenic sink as 0.26 Tg N in 1860. In addition, the deforestation of tropical forest might have caused  
339 a loss of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 1860, which was estimated as 0.03 Tg N (Davidson, 2009). However, studies

340 have shown that the conversion of forest to pasture and cropland could increase or have no effect on N<sub>2</sub>O  
341 emissions because the effects depended on disturbance intensity of human activities on soil conditions (van  
342 Lent et al., 2015). For instance, N<sub>2</sub>O emissions tended to increase during the first 5–10 years after  
343 conversion and thereafter might decrease to average upland forest or low canopy forest levels in the non-  
344 fertilized croplands and pastures. In contrast, emissions were at a high level during and after fertilization in  
345 fertilized croplands (van Lent et al., 2015). Thus, more work is needed to study how forest degradation  
346 affects N<sub>2</sub>O fluxes (Mertz et al., 2012).

### 347 **3.5 Future research needs**

348 Large uncertainty still exists in the DLEM simulation associated with the quality of input datasets and  
349 parameters applied in simulations. Although input datasets could play a significant role in the variety of the  
350 model output, it is difficult to obtain accurate datasets back to the year 1860. Average climate data from  
351 1901 to 1930 was used to run model simulation, which could raise the uncertainty in estimating N<sub>2</sub>O  
352 emission in 1860. The datasets of LULC, N deposition, and manure application in 1860 could introduce  
353 uncertainties to this estimate. The average oceanic and atmospheric chemistry emissions cited from the  
354 IPCC AR5 could introduce the uncertainty into calculation of the total natural emissions in 1860 when  
355 comparing with the estimate done by Prather et al. (2015). Thus, more accurate estimate of oceanic N<sub>2</sub>O  
356 emission is significant to narrow the confidence estimate of the pre-industrial terrestrial sources. The N<sub>2</sub>O  
357 fluxes from wetlands and peats needed to be included in the future study.

## 358 **4 Conclusions**

359 Using the process-based land ecosystem model DLEM, this study provides a spatially-explicit estimate of  
360 pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions for major PFTs and critical regions across global land surface. Improved LHS  
361 was performed to analyze uncertainty ranges of the estimates. We estimated that pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O

emission is 6.20 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>. The modeled results showed a large spatial variability due to variations in climate conditions and PFTs. Tropical ecosystem was the dominant contributor of global N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In contrast, boreal regions contributed less than 5% to the total emission. China, India and United States are top countries accounted for emissions from croplands in 1860. While uncertainties still exist in the N<sub>2</sub>O emission estimation in the pre-industrial era, this study offered a relatively reasonable estimate of the pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emission from land soils. Meanwhile, this study provided a spatial estimate for N<sub>2</sub>O emission from the global hot spots, which could be used as a reference to estimate net human-induced emissions in the contemporary period.

370

#### 371 **Author Contributions**

372 *Tian H., Pan, S., and Xu, R. initiated this research and designed model simulations. Xu R. performed*  
373 *DLEM simulations, analyses and calculations. Lu C. contributed to the model calibration and data analysis.*  
374 *Chen J. contributed to the data processing and statistical analysis. Yang J. took charge of input datasets*  
375 *preparation (environmental factors), data description, and model verification. Zhang B. provided manure*  
376 *N input data. All coauthors contribute manuscript development.*

377

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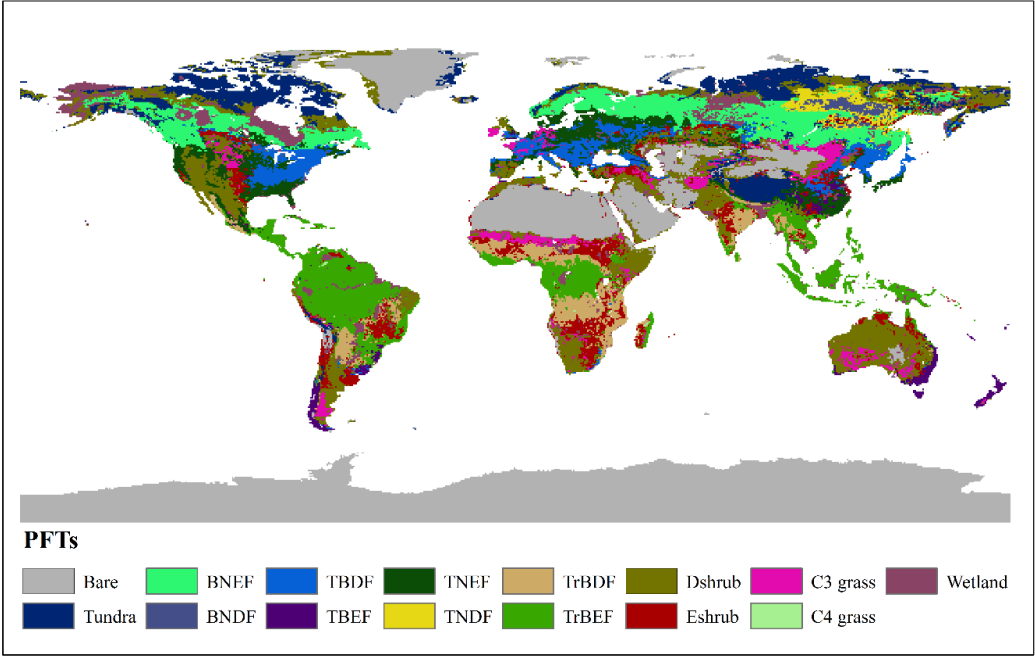
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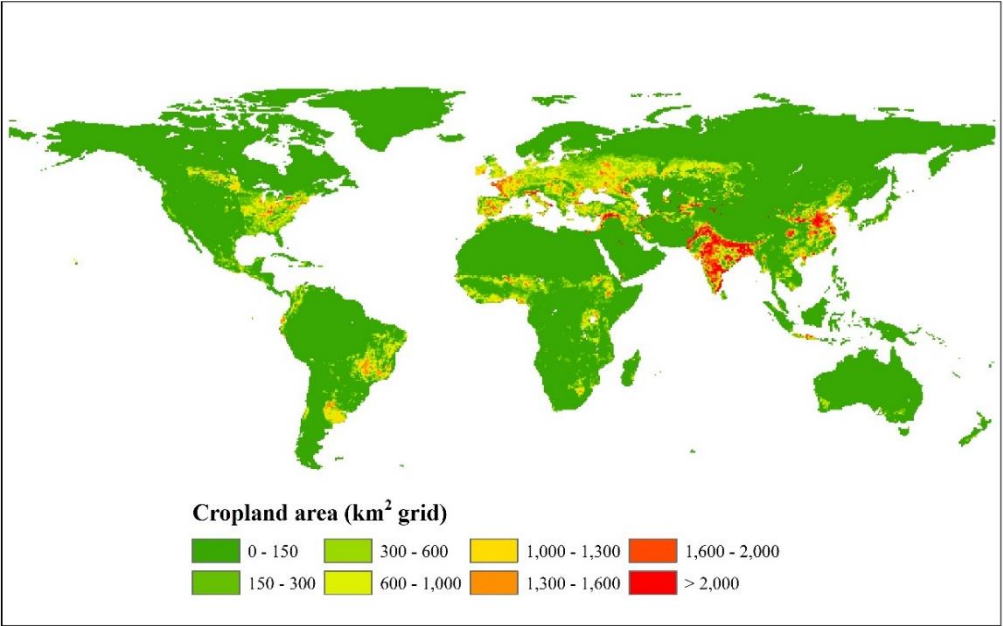
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612

613 **Fig. 1** Global potential natural vegetation map in the pre-industrial era used by DLEM. BNEF: Boreal Needleleaf Evergreen  
614 Forest, BNDF: Boreal Needleleaf Deciduous Forest, TBDF: Temperate Broadleaf Deciduous Forest, TBEF: Temperate  
615 Broadleaf Evergreen Forest, TNEF: Temperate Needleleaf Evergreen Forest, TNDF: Temperate Needleleaf Deciduous Forest,  
616 TrBDF: Tropical Broadleaf Deciduous Forest, TrBEF: Tropical Broadleaf Evergreen Forest, Dshrub: Deciduous Shrubland,  
617 Eshrub: Evergreen Shrubland.

618

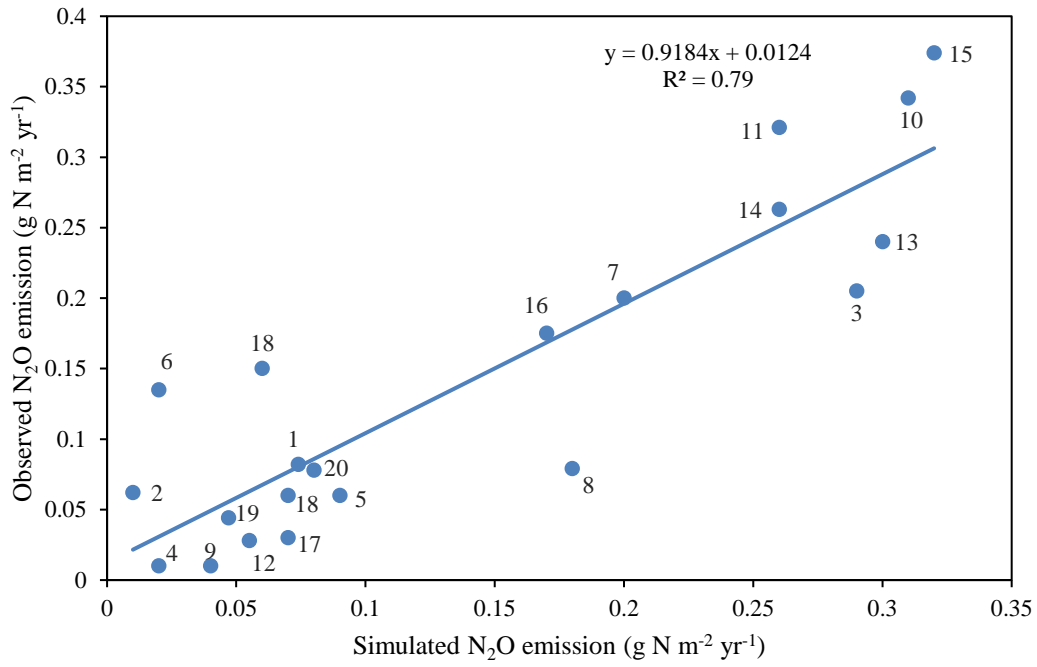


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620 **Fig. 2** The spatial distribution of cropland area in the year 1860.



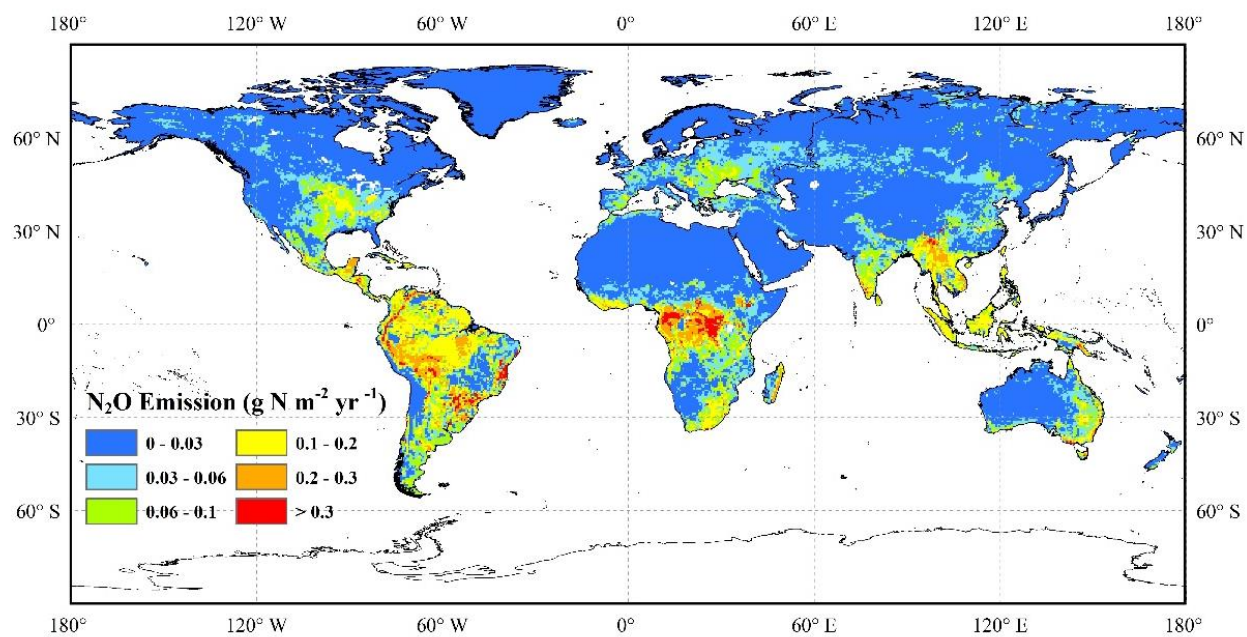
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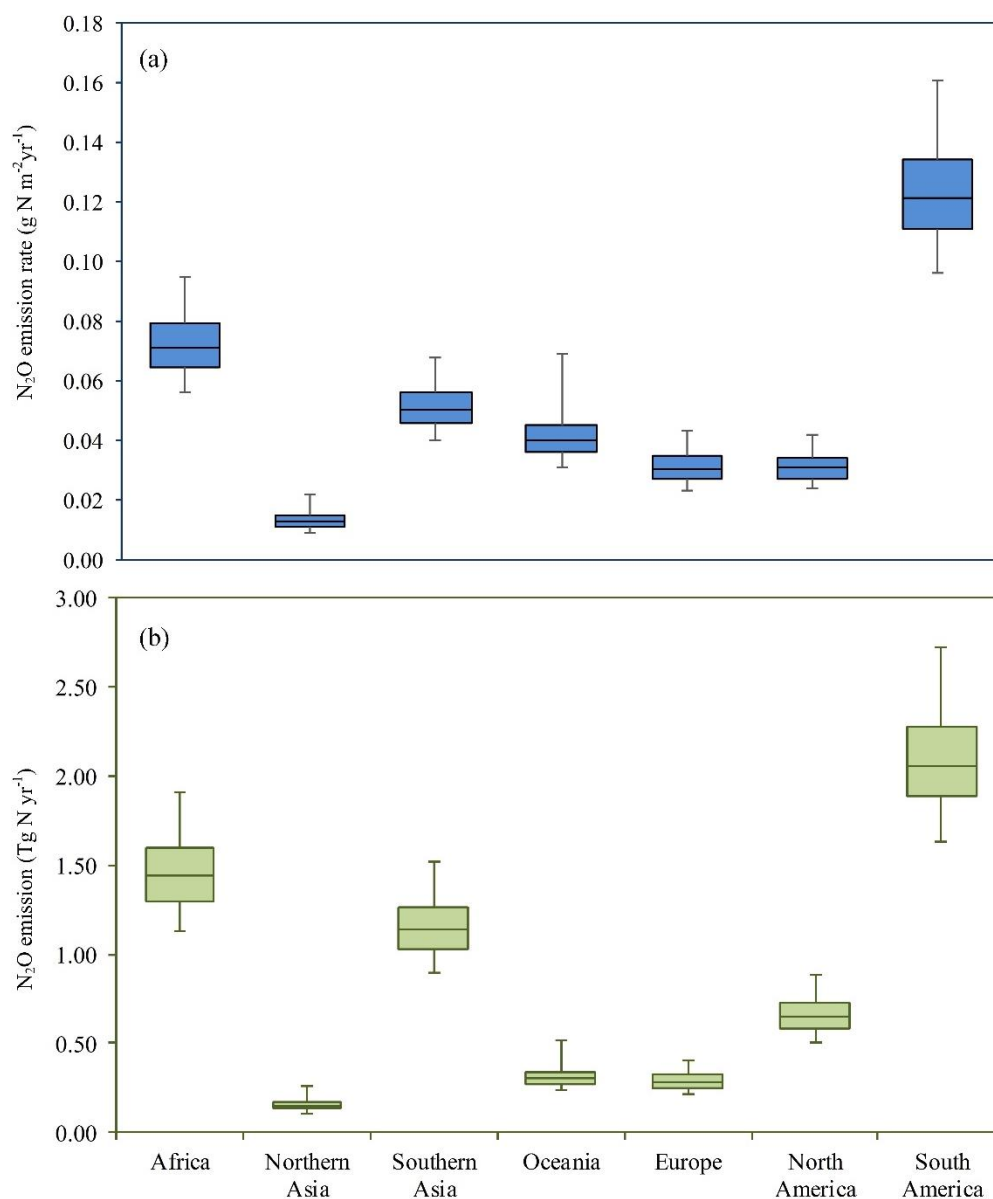
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623 **Fig. 3** The comparison of the DLEM-simulated N<sub>2</sub>O emissions with field observations. All sites were described in the  
624 supplementary material (Table S1).

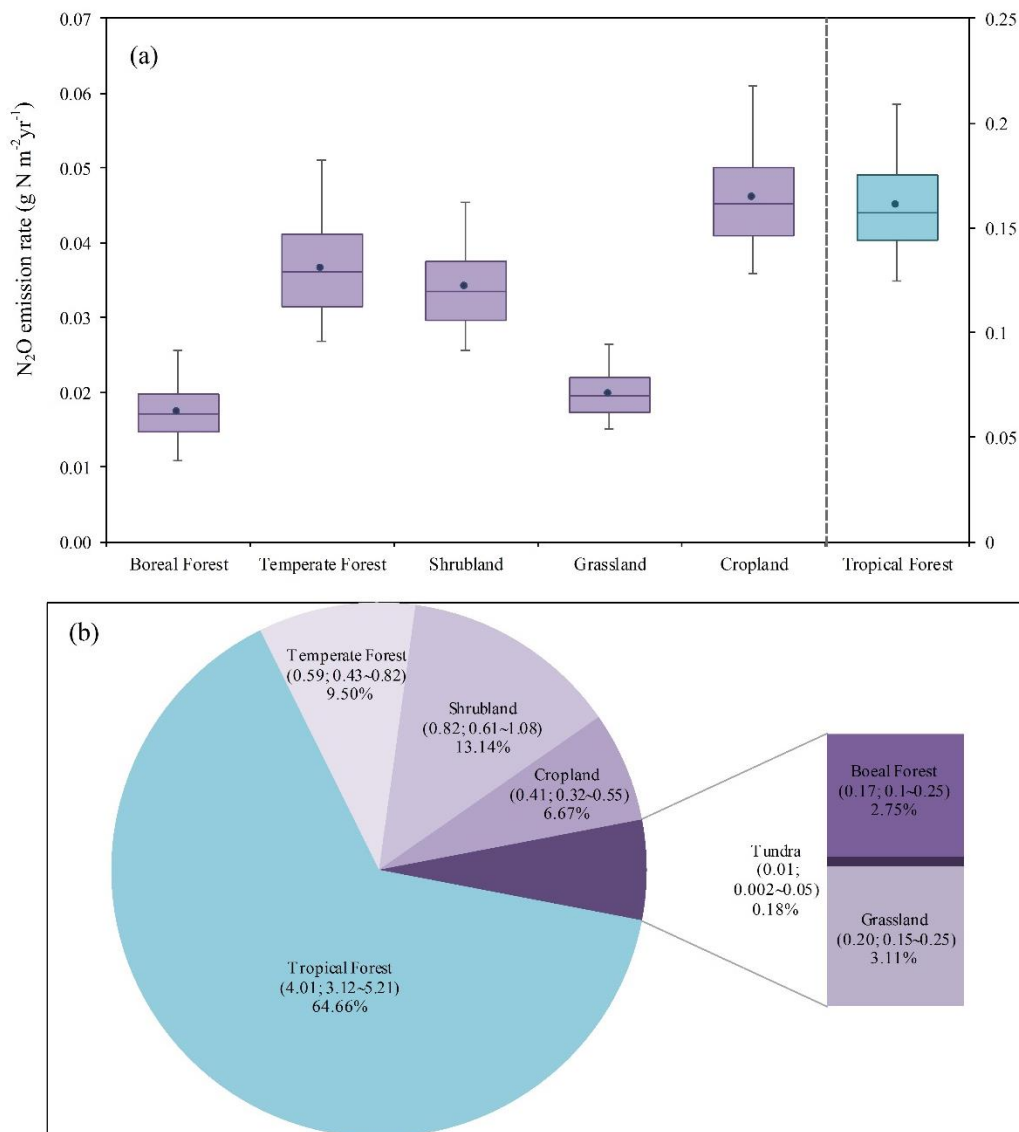




**Fig. 4** The spatial distribution of N<sub>2</sub>O emission in the pre-industrial era.



**Fig. 5** Estimated N<sub>2</sub>O emission rates (a) and emissions (b) with uncertainty ranges at continental-level in the year 1860. Solid line within each box refers to the median value of N<sub>2</sub>O emission rate or amount.



**Fig. 6** (a) Estimated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission rate at biome-level in the year 1860 with the median value (solid line), the mean (solid dot), and the uncertainty range of emission rates from different biomes. The emission rate in the tundra was removed because of the extremely small value (less than  $0.003\text{g N m}^{-2}\text{yr}^{-1}$ ); (b) Estimated  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission ( $\text{Tg N yr}^{-1}$ ) with uncertainty ranges and its percentage (%) at biome-level in the year 1860.

648 **Table 1.** Pre-industrial N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from natural vegetation and croplands in different countries. 1Mha = 10<sup>4</sup> km<sup>2</sup>

Country	Vegetation area (Mha)	Natural soils (Gg N yr <sup>-1</sup> )	Cropland (Gg N yr <sup>-1</sup> )	Total (Gg N yr <sup>-1</sup> )
China	756.3	188	62	250
India	306.8	121	64	185
United States	913.9	296	81	377
Pakistan	65.1	5	6	11
Indonesia	174.1	181	2	183
France	52.3	7	9	16
Brazil	835.1	1017	11	1028
Canada	914.6	94	2	96
Germany	36.0	9	4	13
Turkey	74.3	17	11	28
Mexico	191.0	118	3	121
Vietnam	31.7	41	2	43
Spain	48.2	14	6	20
Russian Federation	1575.3	234	19	253
Bangladesh	12.4	2	5	7
Thailand	49.3	56	3	59

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