

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

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10
11 **Abstract.** To accurately assess how increased global nitrous oxide (N₂O) emission has affected the climate
12 system requires a robust estimation of the pre-industrial N₂O emissions since only the difference between
13 current and pre-industrial emissions represents net drivers of anthropogenic climate change. However, large
14 uncertainty exists in previous estimates of pre-industrial N₂O emissions from the land biosphere, while pre-
15 industrial N₂O emissions at the finer scales such as regional, biome, or sector have not yet well
16 quantified. In this study, we applied a process-based Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model (DLEM) to estimate
17 the magnitude and spatial patterns of pre-industrial N₂O fluxes at the biome-, continental-, and global-level
18 as driven by multiple environmental factors. Uncertainties associated with key parameters were also
19 evaluated. Our study indicates that the mean of the pre-industrial N₂O emission was approximately 6.20 Tg
20 N yr⁻¹, with an uncertainty range of 4.76 to 8.13 Tg N yr⁻¹. The estimated N₂O emission varied significantly
21 at spatial- and biome-levels. South America, Africa, and Southern Asia accounted for 34.12%, 23.85%,
22 18.93%, respectively, together contributing of 76.90% of global total emission. The tropics were identified
23 as the major source of N₂O released into the atmosphere, accounting for 64.66% of the total emission. Our
24 multi-scale estimates provide a robust reference for assessing the climate forcing of anthropogenic N₂O
25 emission from the land biosphere

26 **1 Introduction**

27 Nitrous oxide (N₂O) acts as the third-most important greenhouse gas (GHG) after carbon dioxide (CO₂) and
28 methane (CH₄), 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 N₂O 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 N₂O emissions
33 from the terrestrial biosphere have offset about half of terrestrial CO₂ sink and contributed a net warming
34 effect on the climate system (Tian et al., 2016). In the contemporary period, anthropogenic N₂O 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 N₂O emissions were calculated by
38 subtracting the pre-industrial emissions (Tian et al., 2016), even though a small amount of anthropogenic
39 N₂O emissions was present before 1860, which was estimated as 1.1 Tg N yr⁻¹ in 1850 by Syakila and
40 Kroeze (2011) and 0.7 (0.6–0.8) Tg N yr⁻¹ (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 N₂O emission for assessing the climate forcing of anthropogenic N₂O emission from the land
43 biosphere.

44 Numerous studies have reported the sources and estimates of N₂O 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 N₂O emission evaluated by Kroeze et al. (1999) is 11 (8–13) Tg N yr⁻¹ (Natural soils: 5.6–6.6 Tg
48 N yr⁻¹, Anthropogenic: 1.4 Tg N yr⁻¹), which is consistent with the estimation from global pre-agricultural

49 N₂O emissions in soils (6–7 Tg N yr⁻¹) (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 N₂O emission is 11.6 Tg N yr⁻¹ (Anthropogenic: 1.1 Tg N yr⁻¹, Natural soils: 7 Tg N yr⁻¹). 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⁻¹,
55 including natural emission from soils at 6.6 (3.3–9.0) Tg N yr⁻¹ (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⁻¹) 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 N₂O emission at global-level, information on pre-industrial N₂O
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 N₂O 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 N₂O 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 (NH₄⁺) and nitrate (NO₃⁻), 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 N₂O emissions from terrestrial ecosystems.

70 In this study, the DLEM was used to simulate global N₂O emission in the pre-industrial era at a
71 resolution of 0.5° × 0.5° latitude/longitude. Since there are no observational data of N₂O emission in the

72 pre-industrial period, the estimates of natural emission from Prather et al. (2012, 2015) were used to
73 validate the simulation results. In addition, site-level N₂O emissions from different natural vegetation were
74 used to test model performance in the contemporary period. The objectives in this study include: (1)
75 providing a global estimation of N₂O emission from terrestrial soils in 1860, (2) offering the continental-,
76 biome-, and country-scale N₂O emission amounts and flux rates, and (3) discussing uncertainties in
77 estimating N₂O budget in the pre-industrial era. Finally, our estimates at global- and biome-scales were
78 compared with previous estimates.

79 **2 Methodology**

80 **2.1 Model description**

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

95 **The N₂O 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 N₂O production and fluxes are determined by soil inorganic N content (NH₄⁺ and
100 NO₃⁻) and environmental factors, such as soil texture, temperature, and moisture:

101
$$F_{N_2O} = (R_{nit} + R_{den})F(T_{soil})(1 - F(Q_{wfp})) \quad (1)$$

102 where F_{N_2O} is the N₂O flux from soils to the atmosphere (g N m² d⁻¹), R_{nit} is the daily nitrification rate (g N
103 m² d⁻¹), R_{den} is the daily denitrification rate (g N m² d⁻¹), $F(T_{soil})$ is the function of daily soil temperature on
104 nitrification process (unitless), and $F(Q_{wfp})$ is the function of water-filled porosity (unitless).

105 Nitrification, a process converting NH₄⁺ into NO₃⁻, is simulated as a function of soil temperature,
106 moisture, and soil NH₄⁺ concentration:

107
$$R_{nit} = k_{nit}F(T_{soil})F(\psi)C_{NH_4} \quad (2)$$

108 where k_{nit} is the daily maximum fraction of NH₄⁺ that is converted into NO₃⁻ or gases (d⁻¹), $F(\psi)$ is the soil
109 moisture effect (unitless), and C_{NH_4} is the soil NH₄⁺ content (g N m⁻²). Unlike Chatskikh *et al* (2005), who
110 set k_{nit} to 0.10 d⁻¹, it varies with different plant function types (PFTs) in the DLEM with a range of 0.04 to
111 0.15 d⁻¹. The detailed calculations of $F(T_{soil})$ and $F(\psi)$ were described in Pan et al. (2015) and Yang et al.
112 (2015).

113 Denitrification is the process that converts NO₃⁻ into three types of gases, namely, nitric oxide, N₂O,
114 dinitrogen. The denitrification rate is simulated as a function of soil temperature, water-filled porosity, and
115 NO₃⁻ concentration C_{NO_3} (g N g⁻¹ soil):

116
$$R_{\text{den}} = \alpha F(T_{\text{soil}}) F(Q_{\text{wfp}}) F_{\text{N}}(C_{\text{NO}_3}) \quad (3)$$

117 where $F_{\text{N}}(C_{\text{NO}_3})$ is the dependency of the denitrification rate on NO_3^- concentration (unitless), and α is the
 118 maximum denitrification rate ($\text{g N m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). The detailed calculations of $F(Q_{\text{wfp}})$, $F_{\text{N}}(C_{\text{NO}_3})$ and α were
 119 described in Yang et al. (2015).

120 In each grid cell, there are four natural vegetation types and one crop type. The sum of N_2O emission in
 121 each grid/ d^{-1} is calculated by the following formula:

122
$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{62481} \sum_{j=1}^5 (N_{ij} \times f_{ij}) \times A_i \times 10^6 / 10^{12}, \quad i = 1, \dots, 62481, j = 1, \dots, 5 \quad (4)$$

123 where E is the daily sum of N_2O emission from all plant functional types (PFTs) in total grids ($\text{Tg N/yr}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$);
 124 N_{ij} (g N/m^2) is the N_2O emission in the grid cell i for PFT j ; f_{ij} is the fraction of cell used for PFT j in
 125 grid cell i ; and A_i (km^2) is the area of the i th grid cell. 10^6 is to convert km^2 to m^2 and 10^{12} is to convert g to
 126 Tg.

127 **2.2 Input datasets**

128 Input data to drive DLEM simulation include static and transient data (Tian et al., 2010). Several additional
 129 data sets were generated to better represent terrestrial environment in the pre-industrial period as described
 130 below. The natural vegetation map was developed based on LUH (Hurt et al., 2011) and SYNMAP (Jung
 131 et al., 2006), which rendered the fractions of 47 vegetation types in each 0.5° grid. These 47 vegetation
 132 types were converted to 15 PFTs used in the DLEM through a cross-walk table (Fig. 1). Cropland
 133 distribution in 1860 were developed by aggregating the 5-arc minute resolution HYDE v3.1 global
 134 cropland distribution data (Fig. 2). Half degree daily climate data (including average, maximum, minimum
 135 air temperature, precipitation, relative humidity, and shortwave radiation) were derived from CRU-NCEP
 136 climate forcing data (Wei et al., 2014). As global climate dataset was not available prior to the year 1900,
 137 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 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 g C/m^2 , 0.1 g N/m^2 and 0.1 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 CO_2 concentration, manure application, and N deposition inputs in
156 1860 to simulate pre-industrial N_2O 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 N₂O emission accumulations (g N m⁻² yr⁻¹) 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, CO₂ concentration, soil property, N deposition, LULC) in the exact year
163 were used as input datasets for N₂O 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 N₂O emissions have a good correlation with field observations ($R^2 = 0.79$). It indicates that the DLEM has
166 the capacity to simulate N₂O 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 N₂O 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 N₂O 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 NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ (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_{nit} as 0.10 d⁻¹; however, it was set in a range of 0.04 to 0.15 d⁻¹, 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⁻¹, ranging
178 from 50–100 Tg N yr⁻¹ (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⁻¹, 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

182 uncertainty analysis were assumed to follow a normal distribution. The Improved Latin Hypercube
183 Sampling (LHS) approach was used to randomly select an ensemble of 100 sets of parameters (R version
184 3.2.1) (Tian et al., 2011, 2015).

185 In the DLEM, after the model reached equilibrium state, a spin-up run was implemented using de-
186 trended climate data from 1901 to 1930 for each set of parameter values. Then, each set of the model was
187 run in transient mode in 1860 to produce the result of the pre-industrial N₂O emissions. All results from
188 100 groups of simulations are shown in the Table S2. The Shapiro–Wilk test was used on 100 sets of
189 results to check the normality of DLEM simulations. It turned out that the distribution is not normal (P
190 value < 0.05, R version 3.2.1), as shown in Fig. S1. Thus, the uncertainty range was represented as the
191 minimum and maximum value of 100 sets of DLEM simulations.

192 **3 Results & discussion**

193 **3.1 Magnitude and spatial distribution of the pre-industrial N₂O emission**

194 Our estimation indicates that the global mean soil N₂O emission in the pre-industrial period (1860) was
195 6.20 Tg N yr⁻¹. We define the parameter-induced uncertainty of our global estimates as a range between the
196 minimum (4.76 Tg N yr⁻¹) and the maximum (8.13 Tg N yr⁻¹) of 100 sets of DLEM simulations. The
197 terrestrial ecosystem in the pre-industrial period acted as a source of N₂O, and its spatial pattern mostly
198 depends on the biome distribution across the global land surface. The spatial distribution of annual N₂O
199 emission in a 0.5° × 0.5° grid (Fig. 4) shows that the strong sources were found near the equator, such as
200 Southeast Asia, Central Africa, and Central America, where N₂O emission reached as high as 0.45 g N m⁻²
201 yr⁻¹. The weak N₂O sources were observed in the northern areas of North America and Asia, where the
202 estimated N₂O emission was less than 0.001 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹. The microbial activity in soils determined the rate
203 of nitrification and denitrification processes, which accounts for approximately 70% of global N₂O

204 emissions (Smith and Arah, 1990; Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). The tropical regions near the equator could
205 provide microbes optimum temperatures and soil moistures to decompose soil organic matter and release
206 more NO_x and CO₂ into the atmosphere (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). Referring to the observational data
207 from field experiments and model simulations in the tropics, it has been supported that the tropics are the
208 main sources of N₂O emissions from natural vegetation (Bouwman et al., 1995; Werner et al., 2007;
209 Zhuang et al., 2012).

210 In this study, Asia is divided into two parts: Southern Asia and Northern Asia, where the PFTs and
211 climate conditions are significantly contrasting. As shown in Fig. 1, tropical forest and cropland were
212 dominant PFTs in Southern Asia. In contrast, temperate and boreal forests were main PFTs in Northern
213 Asia. The estimates of N₂O emissions from seven land regions are shown in Fig. 5. At continental scale, the
214 N₂O emission was 2.09 (1.63–2.73) Tg N yr⁻¹ in South America, 1.46 (1.13–1.91) Tg N yr⁻¹ in Africa, and
215 1.16 (0.90–1.52) Tg N yr⁻¹ in Southern Asia. South America, Africa, and Southern Asia accounted for
216 33.77%, 23.60%, 18.73%, respectively, together which was 76.10% of global total emission. Europe and
217 Northern Asia contributed to 0.45 (0.32–0.66) Tg N yr⁻¹, which was less than 10% of the total emission.

218 Nitrous oxide emissions varied remarkably among different ecosystems. Forest, grassland, shrub,
219 tundra and cropland contributed 76.90%, 3.11%, 13.14%, 0.18% and 6.67%, respectively, to the total
220 emission globally (Fig. 6). In different biomes, the tropics accounted for more than half of the total N₂O
221 emission, which is comparable to the conclusion made by Bouwman et al. (1993). In the pre-industrial era,
222 the major inputs of reactive N to terrestrial ecosystems were from BNF, which relies on the activity of a
223 phylogenetically diverse list of bacteria, archaea and symbioses (Cleveland et al., 1999; Vitousek et al.,
224 2013). Tropical savannas have been considered as ‘hot spots’ of BNF by legume nodules that provide the
225 major input of available N (Bate and Gunton, 1982). The substantial inputs of N into tropical forests could
226 contribute to higher amount of the gaseous N losses as N₂O 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 N₂O
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 N₂O emission from
236 croplands was estimated as 0.41 (0.32–0.55) Tg N yr⁻¹, 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 N₂O 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 N₂O emission from soybean without application of N fertilizer. Their work was in agreement with the
241 suggestion that legumes may increase N₂O 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⁻¹ in Canada
243 (Duxbury et al., 1982; Rochette et al., 2004).

244 Pre-industrial N₂O emission at country-level could serve as a reference for calculating human-induced
245 N₂O emission in today's nations. We estimated pre-industrial N₂O emissions from seventeen countries that
246 are “hot spots” of N₂O 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 N₂O 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.

250 Countries close to or located in the tropics, such as Mexico, Indonesia, and Brazil, accounted for negligible
251 emissions from croplands, but substantial amount from natural vegetation in the pre-industrial era. Previous
252 studies indicated that agriculture produces the majority of anthropogenic N₂O emissions (Ciais et al., 2014;
253 Davidson and Kanter, 2014). Our estimate at country-scales could be used as a reference to quantify the net
254 increase of N₂O emissions from agriculture activities in countries of “hot spots”.

255 There is a debate that the natural wetlands and peatlands act as sinks or sources of N₂O. Previous
256 studies showed that N₂O emissions from natural peatlands are usually negligible; however, the drained
257 peatlands with lower water tables might act as sources of N₂O (Augustin et al., 1998; Martikainen et al.,
258 1993). High water tables in wetlands might block the activity of nitrifiers and limit the denitrification
259 (Bouwman et al., 1993). The fluxes of N₂O were negligible in the pelagic regions of boreal ponds and lakes
260 due to the limitation of nitrification and/or nitrate inputs (Huttunen et al., 2003). Couwenberg et al. (2011)
261 mentioned that N₂O emissions always decreased after rewetting when conducting field experiments, which
262 had been excluded from their future analysis of GHG emissions in peatlands. Hadi et al. (2005) pointed out
263 that tropical peatlands ranged from sources to sinks of N₂O, highly affected by land-use and hydrological
264 zone. We were incapable to examine N₂O fluxes from wetlands and peatlands in 1860 as human-induced
265 land-use in those ecosystems was unknown. Thus, we excluded the N₂O emissions from wetlands and
266 peatlands in this study.

267 **3.2 Revisit preindustrial global N₂O emission by incorporating top-down estimates**

268 “Top-down” methodology used to estimate N₂O emissions is based on atmospheric measurements and an
269 inversion model (Thompson et al. 2014). Prather et al. (2012) provided an estimate of 9.1 ± 1.0 Tg N yr⁻¹ of
270 natural emission in the pre-industrial era using observed pre-industrial abundances of 270 ppb and model
271 estimates of lifetime decreased from 142 years in the pre-industrial era to 131 ± 10 years in the present-day.
272 Later, Prather et al. (2015) re-evaluated N₂O 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 ± 9 years, respectively. The current
275 lifetime increases the pre-industrial natural emission from 9.1 ± 1.0 to $10.5 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$.

276 Natural sources for N_2O 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 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 N_2O 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 N_2O 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 N_2O emission
291 was estimated as 6.8 Tg N yr^{-1} based on the regression relationship between measured N_2O fluxes and
292 modeled N_2O production indices (Bouwman et al., 1993). This estimate was adopted to retrieve the trends
293 of atmospheric N_2O concentration in Syakila and Kroeze (2011). In our study, the pre-industrial N_2O
294 emission from natural vegetation was estimated as $5.78 (4.4\text{--}7.72) \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$, which is about 1 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 Tg N yr^{-1} estimated in
298 Bouwman et al. (1993).

299 Although Bouwman et al. (1993) has studied the potential N_2O emission from natural soils, our study
300 provided a first estimate of spatially distributed N_2O emission in 1860 using the biogeochemical process-
301 based model. Bouwman et al. (1993) provided $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ monthly N_2O 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 N_2O
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 N_2O 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 N_2O 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 N_2O emissions in Hubbard Brook Forest (Tian et al., 2010) and Inner-Mongolia
311 (Tian et al., 2011).

312 As far as the N_2O emission from croplands, our estimate is comparable to the estimate of 0.3
313 ($0.29\text{--}0.35$) 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 N₂O 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 N₂O emissions in different terrestrial ecosystems or sectors in the
321 contemporary period.

322 **3.4 The N₂O budget in the pre-industrial era**

323 The observed N₂O concentration reflects the result of dynamic production and consumption processes in
324 soils as soils act as sources or sinks of N₂O through denitrification and nitrification (Chapuis-Lardy et al.,
325 2007). There was a slight increase of atmospheric N₂O 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 N₂O emissions have been discussed in section 3.2 & 3.3. Previous studies found that there were some
328 anthropogenic N₂O emissions along with the natural sources in the pre-industrial era (Davidson, 2009;
329 Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). Syakila and Kroeze (2011) found anthropogenic N₂O emission began since
330 1500 because of the biomass burning and agriculture. The total anthropogenic N₂O 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 N₂O since 1860. The pre-industrial anthropogenic N₂O 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⁻¹ (Davidson, 2009). Thus, anthropogenic N₂O
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 N₂O 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 N₂O 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 N₂O
341 emissions because the effects depended on disturbance intensity of human activities on soil conditions (van
342 Lent et al., 2015). For instance, N₂O 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 N₂O 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 N₂O
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 N₂O
356 emission is significant to narrow the confidence estimate of the pre-industrial terrestrial sources. The N₂O
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 N₂O 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 N₂O

362 emission is 6.20 Tg N yr⁻¹. The modeled results showed a large spatial variability due to variations in
363 climate conditions and PFTs. Tropical ecosystem was the dominant contributor of global N₂O emissions. In
364 contrast, boreal regions contributed less than 5% to the total emission. China, India and United States are
365 top countries accounted for emissions from croplands in 1860. While uncertainties still exist in the N₂O
366 emission estimation in the pre-industrial era, this study offered a relatively reasonable estimate of the pre-
367 industrial N₂O emission from land soils. Meanwhile, this study provided a spatial estimate for N₂O
368 emission from the global hot spots, which could be used as a reference to estimate net human-induced
369 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

378 **Acknowledgements**

379 *This work was supported by National Science Foundation (NSF) Grants (1243232, 121036), Chinese*
380 *Academy of Sciences STS Program (KFJ-STZ-ZDTP-010-05) and Auburn University IGP Program. We*
381 *wish to thank the previous members in the Ecosystem Dynamics and Global Ecology (EDGE) Laboratory*
382 *who made great contributions to the improvements and developments of the DLEM and associated geo-*
383 *referenced data set in the past decade.*

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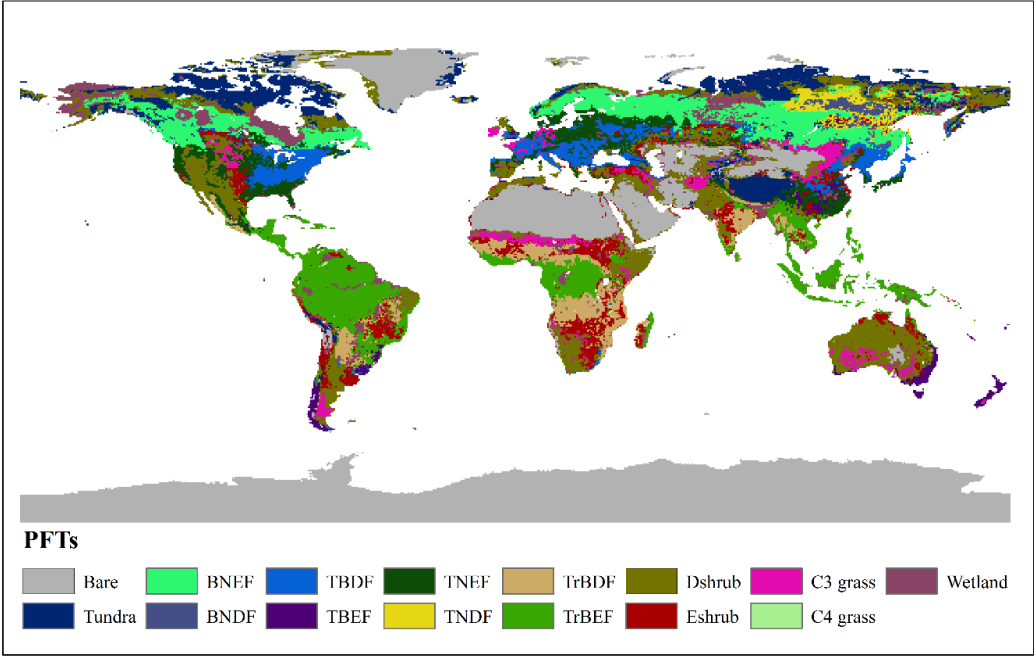
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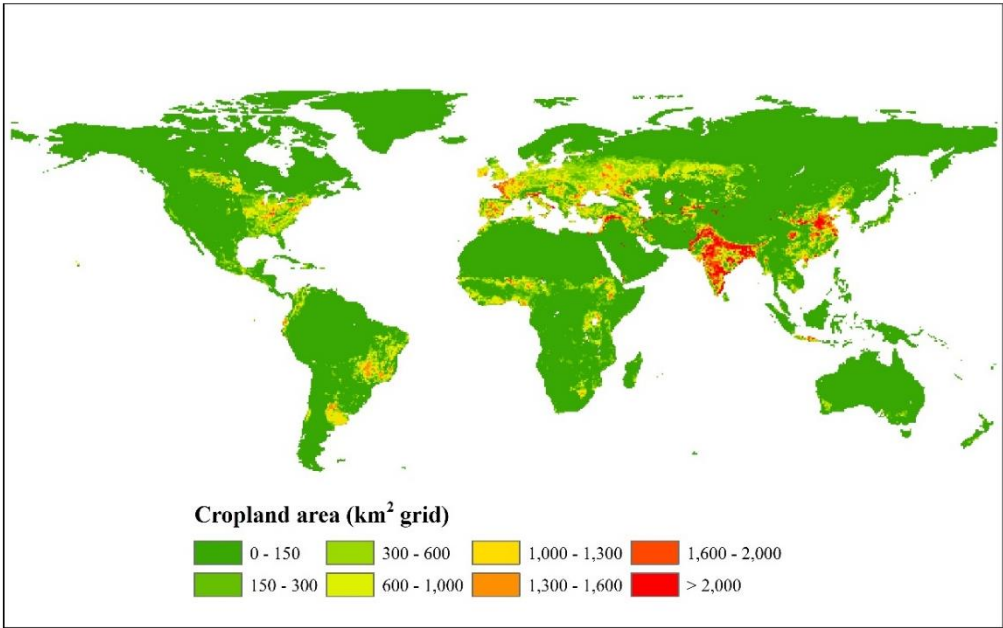
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613 **Fig. 1** Global potential natural vegetation map in the pre-industrial era used by DLEM. BNEF: Boreal Needleleaf Evergreen
 614 Forest, BNDF: Boreal Needleleaf Deciduous Forest, TBDF: Temperate Broadleaf Deciduous Forest, TBEF: Temperate
 615 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.

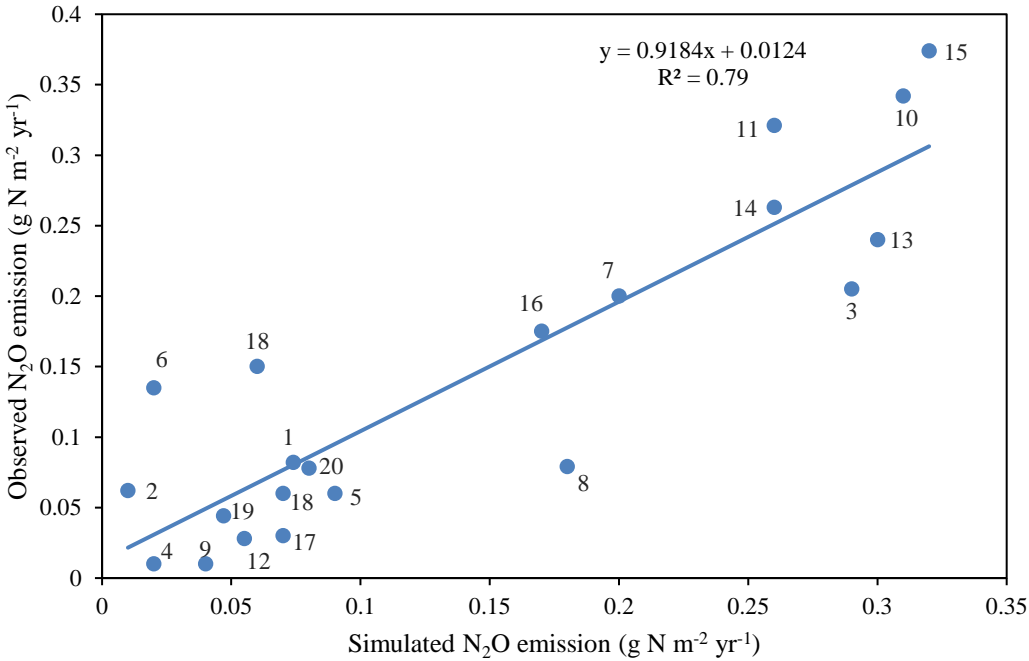
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620 **Fig. 2** The spatial distribution of cropland area in the year 1860.

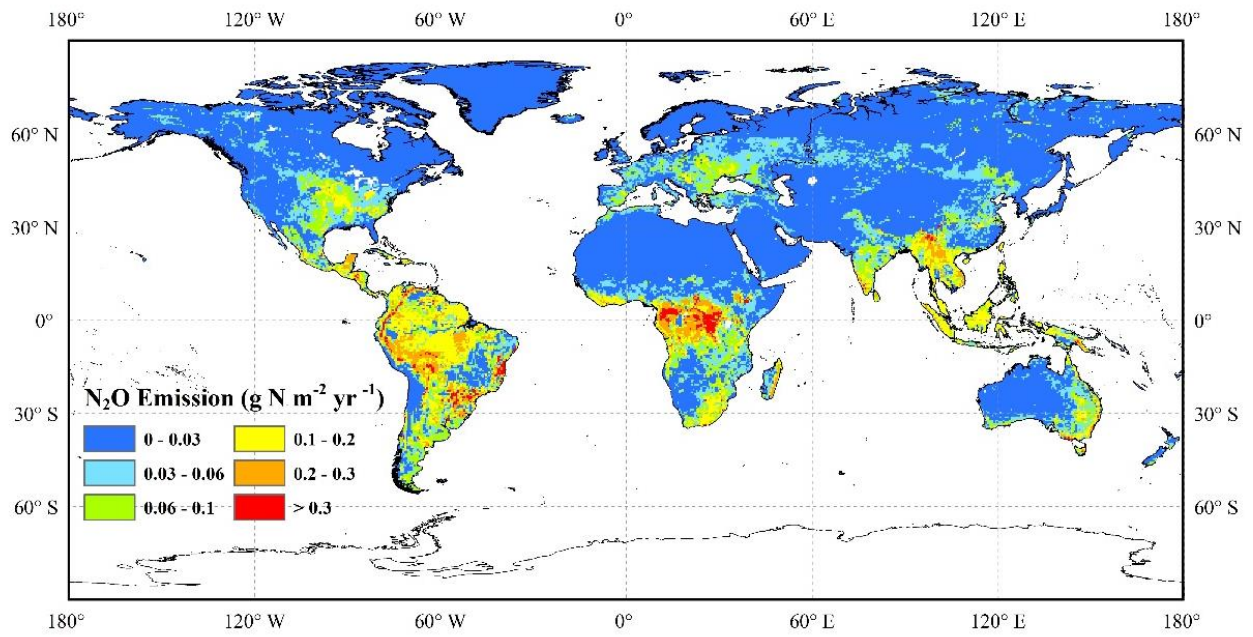
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623 **Fig. 3** The comparison of the DLEM-simulated N₂O emissions with field observations. All sites were described in the
624 supplementary material (Table S1).

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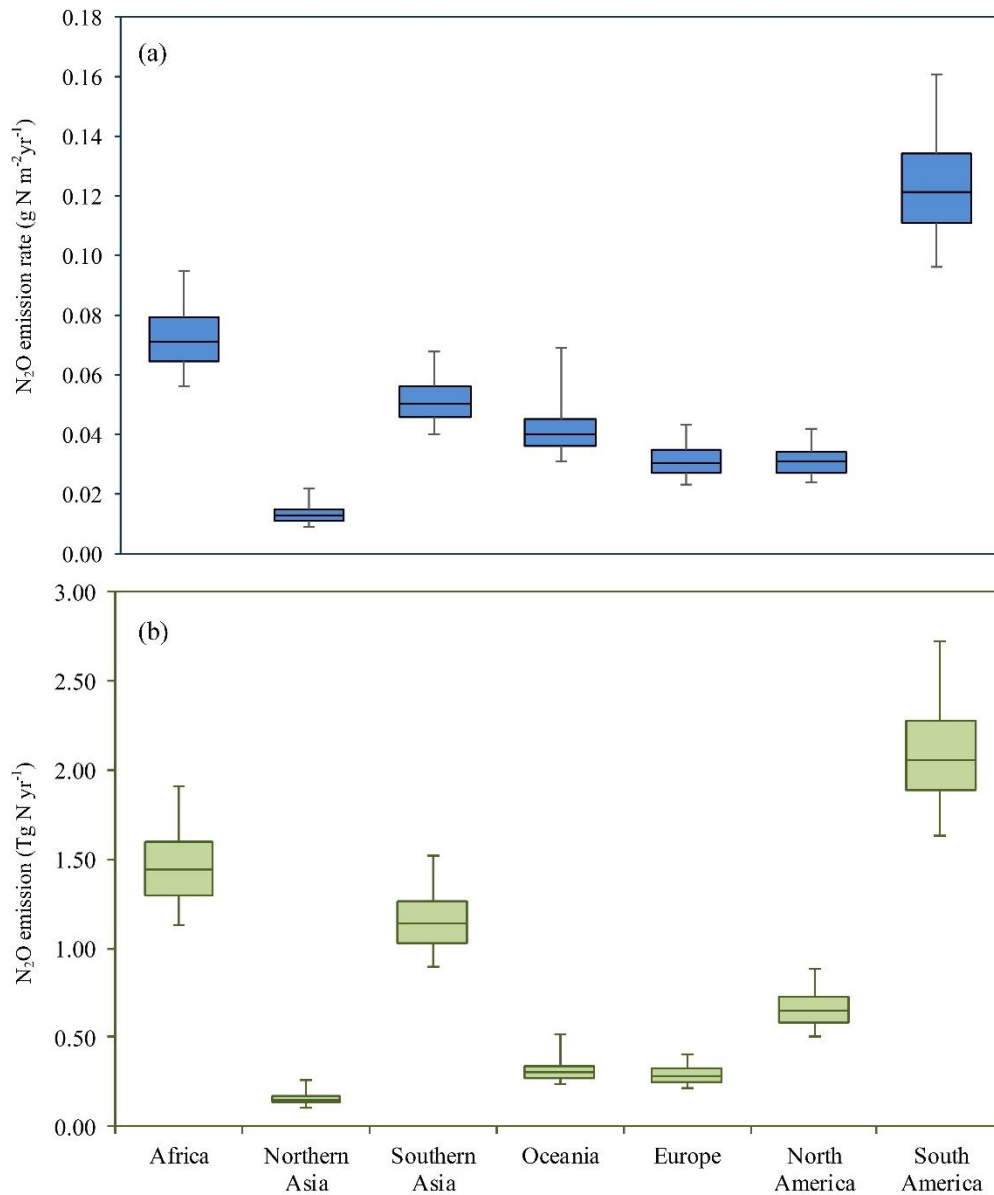


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627 **Fig. 4** The spatial distribution of N₂O emission in the pre-industrial era.

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631 **Fig. 5** Estimated N_2O emission rates (a) and emissions (b) with uncertainty ranges at continental-level in the year 1860. Solid
 632 line within each box refers to the median value of N_2O emission rate or amount.

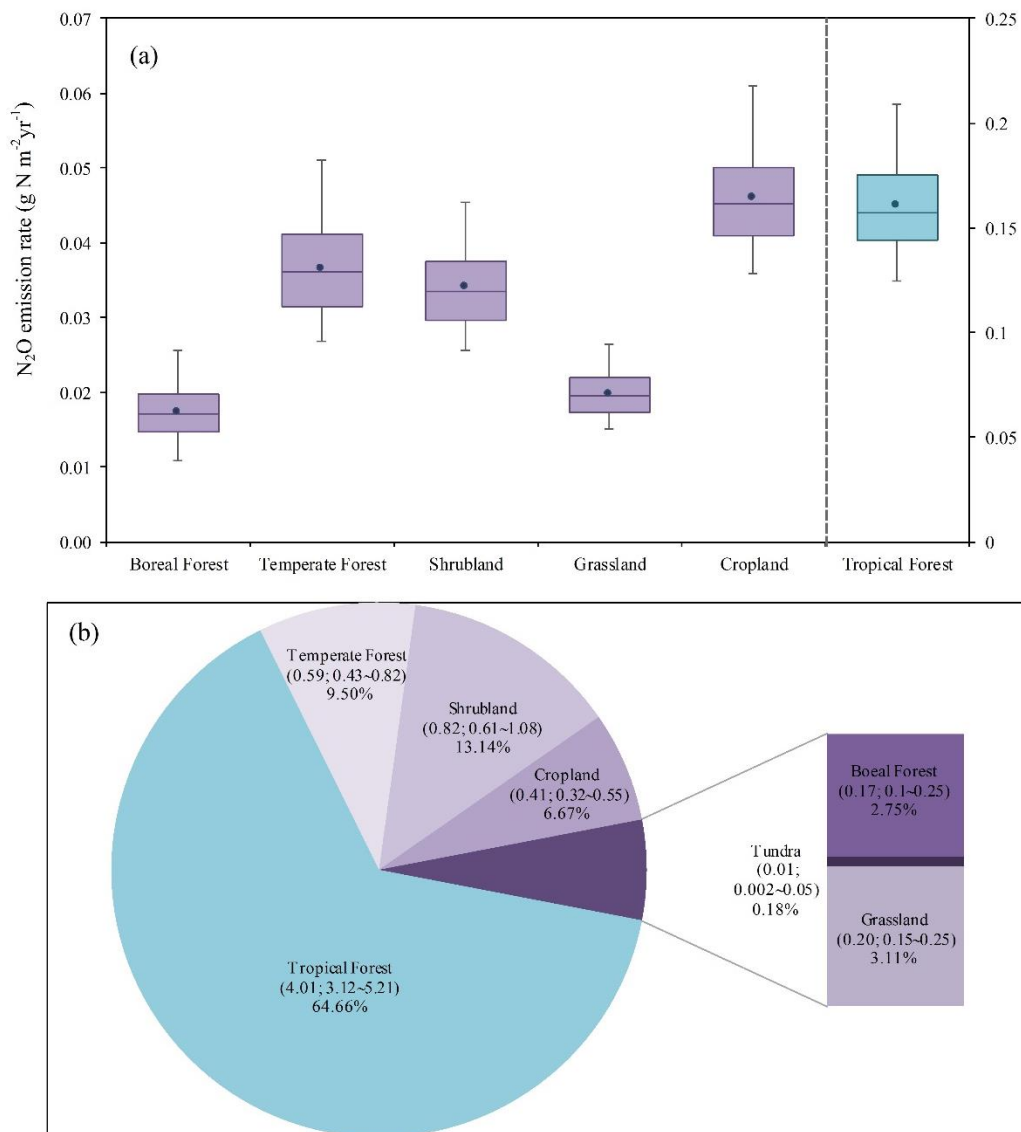
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639 **Fig. 6** (a) Estimated N₂O emission rate at biome-level in the year 1860 with the median value (solid line), the mean (solid dot),
 640 and the uncertainty range of emission rates from different biomes. The emission rate in the tundra was removed because of the
 641 extremely small value (less than 0.003g N m⁻²yr⁻¹); (b) Estimated N₂O emission (Tg N yr⁻¹) with uncertainty ranges and its
 642 percentage (%) at biome-level in the year 1860.

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648 **Table 1.** Pre-industrial N₂O emissions from natural vegetation and croplands in different countries. 1Mha = 10⁴ km²

Country	Vegetation area (Mha)	Natural soils (Gg N yr ⁻¹)	Cropland (Gg N yr ⁻¹)	Total (Gg N yr ⁻¹)
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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