



1 **Estimation of pre-industrial nitrous oxide emissions from the land** 2 **biosphere**

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



24 a robust reference for assessing the climate forcing of anthropogenic N₂O emission from the land
25 biosphere.

26

27 **1 Introduction**

28 Nitrous oxide (N₂O) acts as the third-most important greenhouse gas (GHG) after carbon dioxide (CO₂)
29 and methane, contributing to the current radiative forcing (Myhre et al., 2013). Nitrous oxide is also the
30 most long-lived reactant, resulting in the destruction of stratospheric ozone (Prather et al., 2015;
31 Ravishankara et al., 2009). The atmospheric concentration of N₂O increased from 275 to 329 parts per
32 billion (ppb) since the pre-industrial era until 2015 at a rate of approximately 0.26% per year, as a result
33 of human activities (Davidson, 2009; Forster et al., 2007; NOAA2006A). The human-induced N₂O
34 emissions together with methane emissions from the terrestrial biosphere have offset terrestrial CO₂ sink
35 and contributed a net warming effect on the climate system (Tian et al., 2016). In the contemporary period,
36 anthropogenic N₂O emissions are mainly caused by the expansion in agricultural land area and increase
37 in fertilizer application, as well as industrial activities, biomass burning and indirect emissions from
38 reactive nitrogen (N) (Galloway et al., 2004; Reay et al., 2012). Natural terrestrial ecosystems contribute
39 more than half of N₂O released into the atmosphere when removing oceanic contribution (Denman et al.,
40 2007). As some N₂O emissions were present during pre-industrial times, only the difference between
41 current and pre-industrial emissions represents net drivers of anthropogenic climate change (Tian et al.,
42 2016). Therefore, it is necessary to provide a robust reference of pre-industrial N₂O emission for assessing
43 the climate forcing of anthropogenic N₂O emission from the land biosphere.



44 Numerous studies have reported the sources and estimates of N₂O emission since the pre-industrial
45 era (Davidson and Kanter, 2014; Galloway et al., 2004; Kroeze et al., 1999; Syakila and Kroeze, 2011).
46 According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Guidelines (IPCC, 1997), the global N₂O
47 emission evaluated by Kroeze et al. (1999) is 11 (8–13) Tg N yr⁻¹ (Natural soils: 5.6–6.6 Tg N yr⁻¹,
48 Anthropogenic: 1.4 Tg N yr⁻¹), which is consistent with the estimation from global pre-agricultural N₂O
49 emissions in soils (6–7 Tg N yr⁻¹) (Bouwman et al., 1993). While taking into account the new emission
50 factor from the IPCC 2006 Guidelines (Denman et al., 2007), Syakila and Kroeze (2011) conducted an
51 updated estimate based on the study of Kroeze et al. (1999) and reported that the global pre-industrial
52 N₂O emission is 11.6 Tg N yr⁻¹ (Anthropogenic: 1.1 Tg N yr⁻¹, Natural soils: 7 Tg N yr⁻¹). Based on the
53 IPCC AR5, Davidson and Kanter (2014) indicated that the central estimates of both top-down and bottom-
54 up approaches for pre-industrial natural emissions were in agreement at 11 (10–12) Tg N yr⁻¹, including
55 natural emission from soils at 6.6 (3.3–9.0) Tg N yr⁻¹ (Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). Although these previous
56 estimates intent to provide a baseline of pre-industrial N₂O emission at global-level, information on pre-
57 industrial N₂O emissions on fine resolutions such as biome-, sector- or country-, and regional-levels
58 remains unknown but needed for climate change mitigation.

59 Large uncertainties in the estimates of pre-industrial N₂O emission could derive from different
60 approaches (i.e. top-down and bottom-up), as mentioned above. Nitrous oxide, as an important component
61 of the N cycle, is produced by biological processes such as denitrification and nitrification in terrestrial
62 and aquatic systems (Schmidt et al., 2004; Smith and Arah, 1990; Wrage et al., 2001). In order to
63 accurately estimate pre-industrial N₂O emissions using the process-based Dynamic Land Ecosystem
64 Model (DLEM, Tian et al., 2010), uncertainties associated with key parameters, such as maximum



65 nitrification and denitrification rates, biological N fixation (BNF) rates, and the adsorption coefficient for
66 soil ammonium (NH_4^+) and nitrate (NO_3^-), were required to be considered in model simulation. Upper
67 and lower limits of these parameters were used to derive a range of pre-industrial N_2O emissions from
68 terrestrial ecosystems.

69 In this study, the DLEM was used to simulate global N_2O emission in the pre-industrial era at a
70 resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ latitude/longitude. Since there is no observational data of N_2O emission in the
71 pre-industrial period, a simple atmospheric box model (one-box) was applied to validate the estimated
72 N_2O emissions from DLEM simulations. We calculated trends of N_2O concentrations during 1860–2006
73 through accounting for all possible N_2O sources from land biosphere and marine ecosystems based on the
74 previous publications. Then, the observational atmospheric N_2O concentrations from monitoring stations
75 during 1977–2006 were used to compare with the calculated concentrations from the one-box model.
76 Finally, our estimates at global- and biome-scales were compared with previous estimates.

77 **2 Methodology**

78 **2.1 Model description**

79 The DLEM is a highly integrated process-based ecosystem model, which combines biophysical
80 characteristics, plant physiological processes, biogeochemical cycles, vegetation dynamics and land use
81 to make daily, spatially-explicit estimates of carbon, nitrogen and water fluxes and pool sizes in terrestrial
82 ecosystems from site- and regional- to global-scales (Lu and Tian, 2013; Tian et al., 2012). The DLEM
83 is characterized of cohort structure, multiple soil layer processes, coupled carbon, water and nitrogen
84 cycles, multiple GHG emissions simulation, enhanced land surface processes, and dynamic linkages



85 between terrestrial and riverine ecosystems (Liu et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2015; Tian et al., 2010). The
 86 previous results of GHG emissions from DLEM simulations have been validated against field
 87 observations and measurements at various sites (Lu and Tian, 2013; Ren et al., 2011; Tian et al., 2010;
 88 Tian et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2016). The estimates of water, carbon, and nutrients fluxes and storages
 89 were also compared with the estimates from different approaches at regional-, continental-, and global-
 90 scales (Pan et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). Different soil organic pools and calculations
 91 of decomposition rates were described in Tian et al. (2015). The decomposition and nitrogen
 92 mineralization processes in the DLEM were described in other publications (Lu and Tian, 2013; Yang et
 93 al., 2015).

94 **The N₂O module**

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

98 In the DLEM, the N₂O production and fluxes are determined by soil inorganic N content (NH₄⁺ and
 99 NO₃⁻) and environmental factors, such as soil texture, temperature, and moisture:

$$100 \quad F_{N_2O} = (R_{nit} + R_{den})F(T_{soil})(1 - F(Q_{wfp})) \quad (1)$$

101 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
 102 N 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
 103 on nitrification process (unitless), and $F(Q_{wfp})$ is the function of water-filled porosity (unitless).



104 Nitrification, a process converting NH_4^+ into NO_3^- , is simulated as a function of soil temperature,
105 moisture, and soil NH_4^+ concentration:

$$106 \quad R_{\text{nit}} = k_{\text{nit}} F(T_{\text{soil}}) F(\psi) C_{\text{NH}_4} \quad (2)$$

107 where k_{nit} is the daily maximum fraction of NH_4^+ that is converted into NO_3^- or gases (d^{-1}), $F(\psi)$ is the
108 soil moisture effect (unitless), and C_{NH_4} is the soil NH_4^+ content (g N m^{-2}). Unlike Chatskikh *et al* 2005,
109 who set k_{nit} to 0.10 d^{-1} , it varies with different plant function types (PFTs) in the DLEM with a range of
110 0.04 to 0.15 d^{-1} . The detailed calculations of $F(T_{\text{soil}})$ and $F(\psi)$ were described in Pan *et al.* (2015) and
111 Yang *et al.* (2015).

112 Denitrification is the process that converts NO_3^- into three types of gases, namely, nitric oxide, N_2O ,
113 dinitrogen. The denitrification rate is simulated as a function of soil temperature, water-filled porosity,
114 and NO_3^- concentration C_{NO_3} (g N g^{-1} soil):

$$115 \quad R_{\text{den}} = \alpha F(T_{\text{soil}}) F(Q_{\text{wfp}}) F_{\text{N}}(C_{\text{NO}_3}) \quad (3)$$

116 where $F_{\text{N}}(C_{\text{NO}_3})$ is the dependency of the denitrification rate on NO_3^- concentration (unitless), and α is
117 the 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
118 described in Yang *et al.* (2015).

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

$$121 \quad E = \sum_{i=1}^{62481} \sum_{j=1}^5 (N_{ij} \times f_{ij}) \times A_i \times 10^6 / 10^{12}, \quad i = 1, \dots, 62481, j = 1, \dots, 5 \quad (4)$$



122 where E is the daily sum of N_2O emission from all plant functional types (PFTs) in total grids ($Tg\ N/yr^{-1}$
123 d^{-1}); 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
124 in 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
125 g to Tg .

126 2.2 Input datasets

127 Input data to drive DLEM simulation include static and transient data (Tian et al., 2010). Several
128 additional data sets were generated to better represent terrestrial environment in the pre-industrial period
129 as described below. The natural vegetation map was developed based on LUH (Hurtt et al., 2011) and
130 SYNMAP (Jung et al., 2006), which rendered the fractions of 47 vegetation types in each 0.5° grid. These
131 47 vegetation types were converted to 15 PFTs used in the DLEM through a cross-walk table (Figure 1).
132 Cropland distribution in 1860 were developed by aggregating the 5-arc minute resolution HYDE v3.1
133 global cropland distribution data (Figure 2). Half degree daily climate data (including average, maximum,
134 minimum air temperature, precipitation, relative humidity, and shortwave radiation) were derived from
135 CRU-NCEP climate forcing data (Wei et al., 2014). As global climate dataset was not available prior to
136 the year 1900, long-term average climate datasets from 1901 to 1930 were used to represent the initial
137 climate state in 1860. The nitrogen deposition dataset was developed based on the atmospheric chemistry
138 transport model (Dentener, 2006) constrained by the EDGAR-HYDE nitrogen emission data (Aardenne
139 et al., 2001). The nitrogen deposition dataset provided inter-annual variations of NH_x-N and NO_y-N
140 deposition rates. The manure production dataset (1961–2013) was derived from Food and Agriculture
141 organization of the United Nations statistic website ((FAO), <http://faostat.fao.org>) and defaulted for N



142 excretion rate referred to IPCC Guidelines (Zhang et al., in preparation). Estimates of manure production
143 from 1860 to 1960 were retrieved from the global estimates in (Holland et al., 2005).

144 **2.3 Model simulation**

145 The implementation of the DLEM simulation includes three steps: (1) equilibrium run, (2) spinning-up
146 run, and (3) transient run. In this study, we first used land use and land cover (LULC) map in 1860, long-
147 term mean climate during 1901–1930, N input datasets in 1860 (the concentration levels of N deposition
148 and manure application rate), and atmospheric CO₂ in 1860 to run the model to an equilibrium state. In
149 each grid, the equilibrium state was assumed to be reached when the inner-annual variations of carbon,
150 nitrogen, and water storage are less than 0.1 g C/m², 0.1 g N/m² and 0.1 mm, respectively, during two
151 consecutive 50 years. After the model reached equilibrium state, the model was spun up by the detrended
152 climate data from 1901 to 1930 to eliminate system fluctuation caused by the model mode shift from the
153 equilibrium to transient run (i.e., 3 spins with 10-year climate data each time). Finally, the model was run
154 in the transient mode with daily climate data, annual CO₂ concentration, manure application, and N
155 deposition inputs in 1860 to simulate pre-industrial N₂O emissions. Additional description of model
156 initialization and simulation procedure can be found in previous publications (Tian et al., 2010).

157 **2.4 Model validation**

158 **2.4.1 Comparison with field measurements**

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
163 year were used as input datasets for N₂O simulations. The selected sites include temperate forest, tropical
164 forest, boreal forest, savanna, and grassland globally. As shown in Figure 3, the simulated N₂O emissions
165 have a good correlation with field observations ($R^2 = 0.79$). It indicates that the DLEM has capacity to
166 simulate N₂O emissions in the pre-industrial era driven by environmental factors back then. The detailed
167 information at each site can be found in Table 1S.

168 **2.4.2 One-box model validation**

169 A one-box model was used to estimate the accuracy of N₂O fluxes from DLEM simulations (Kroeze et
170 al., 1999). The model equation is as follows:

$$171 \quad dC/dt = S/F - C/T \quad (5)$$

172 where C is concentration (ppb), S is emissions (Tg N), T is atmospheric lifetime (years), t is time (years),
173 and F conversion factor (Tg N ppb⁻¹).

174 Atmospheric N₂O concentration in 1860 derived from the records of Antarctic ice core was about 275
175 (263–280) ppb (Machida et al., 1995; Prather et al., 2012; Rahn and Wahlen, 2000; Spahni et al., 2005).
176 The atmospheric N₂O concentration in 2006 was measured as about 320 ppb, which is approximately
177 18–20% higher than its pre-industrial value (Ciais et al., 2014). The atmospheric lifetime of N₂O was 114
178 years, with a range of 106 to 141 years (Ciais et al., 2014; Prather et al., 2012; Prather and Hsu, 2010;
179 Volk et al., 1997).

180 The initial N₂O concentration in the one-box atmospheric model was set as 275 ppb. F conversion
181 factor is 4.8 Tg N ppb⁻¹ adopted from Kroeze et al. (1999). The atmospheric lifetime of N₂O was set as



182 114 years. The mean with 95% confidence intervals, the maximum, and minimum values of estimates
183 from DLEM simulations were applied as initial emissions to calculate the atmospheric N₂O concentration
184 in 2006 as shown in Table 1 (Scenarios 1–4 and baseline), as well as concentration changes from 1860 to
185 2006, as shown in Figure 7. According to the NOAA2006A, the monthly records of atmospheric N₂O
186 concentrations from different monitoring stations globally were from 1977 to 2015. Thus, the observed
187 trends from three stations: Pt. Barrow, Alaska, USA (71.3N, 156.6W), Mauna Loa, Hawaii, USA (19.5N,
188 155.6W), and South Pole (90S), were used to compare the calculated trends from all the above scenarios
189 during 1977 to 2006 (Figure 7). As uncertainties exist in the N₂O concentration from ice core records and
190 the determination of its lifetime, the minimum and maximum estimates of them were used to calculate
191 the ranges of N₂O concentrations in 2006, as shown in Table 1 (Scenarios 5–6).

192 **2.5 Estimate of uncertainty**

193 In this study, uncertainties in the simulated N₂O emission were evaluated through a global sensitivity and
194 uncertainty analysis (Tian et al., 2011). Based on sensitivity analyses of key parameters that affect
195 terrestrial N₂O fluxes, the most sensitive parameters were identified to conduct uncertainty simulations
196 in the DLEM, such as potential denitrification and nitrification rates, BNF rates, and the adsorption
197 coefficient for soil NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻ (Gerber et al., 2010; Tian et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). The ranges
198 of five parameters were obtained from previous studies. Chatskikh et al. (2005) set k_{nit} as 0.10 d⁻¹; however,
199 it was set in a range of 0.04 to 0.15 d⁻¹, and varied with different PFTs in the DLEM simulations. The
200 uncertainty ranges of potential nitrification rates were based on previous studies (Hansen, 2002; Heinen,
201 2006); the global pre-industrial N fixation was estimated as 58 Tg N yr⁻¹, ranging from 50–100 Tg N yr⁻¹
202 ¹ (Vitousek et al., 2013). The spatial distribution of BNF referred to estimates done by Cleveland et al.



203 (1999). Potential denitrification rate was set in an uncertainty range of $0.025\text{--}0.74\text{ d}^{-1}$, and varied with
204 different PFTs in the DLEM. The uncertainty ranges of the adsorption coefficient were referred to the
205 sensitivity analysis conducted in Yang et al. (2015). Parameters used in the DLEM simulations for
206 uncertainty analysis were assumed to follow a normal distribution. The Improved Latin Hypercube
207 Sampling (LHS) approach was used to randomly select an ensemble of 100 sets of parameters (R version
208 3.2.1) (Tian et al., 2015; Tian et al., 2011).

209 In the DLEM, after the model reached equilibrium state, a spinning-up run was implemented using
210 de-trended climate data from 1901 to 1930 for each set of parameter values. Then, each set of the model
211 was run in transient mode in 1860 to produce the result of the pre-industrial N_2O emissions. All results
212 from 100 groups of simulations are shown in the Table 2S. The Shapiro–Wilk test was used on 100 sets
213 of results to check the normality of DLEM simulations. It turned out that the distribution is not normal (P
214 value < 0.05 , R version 3.2.1), as shown in Figure 1S. Thus, the uncertainty range was represented as the
215 minimum and maximum value of 100 sets of DLEM simulations. In order to speculate the distribution of
216 the global mean N_2O emission, we conduct the replicated Bootstrap resampling method (Efron and
217 Tibshirani, 1994) using 100 sets of DLEM simulation results. The 95% confidence intervals were
218 constructed with 10,000 replicates for defining the uncertainty bounds of the estimates of the global mean
219 N_2O emission (Figure 2S).

220 **3 Results & discussion**

221 **3.1 Magnitude and spatial distribution of N_2O emission**



222 We define the parameter-induced uncertainty of our global estimates as a range between the minimum
223 (4.76 Tg N yr⁻¹) and the maximum (8.13 Tg N yr⁻¹) of 100 sets of DLEM simulations. The global mean
224 N₂O emission was 6.20 Tg N yr⁻¹, with 95% confidence intervals of 6.03 to 6.36 Tg N yr⁻¹. The terrestrial
225 ecosystem in the pre-industrial period acted as a source of N₂O, and its spatial pattern mostly depends on
226 the biome distribution across the global land surface. The spatial distribution of annual N₂O emission in
227 a 0.5° × 0.5° grid (Figure 4) shows that the strong sources were found near the equator, such as Southeast
228 Asia, Central Africa, and Central America, where N₂O emission reached as high as 0.45 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹. The
229 weak N₂O sources were observed in the northern areas of North America and Asia, where the estimated
230 N₂O emission was less than 0.001 g N m⁻² yr⁻¹. The microbial activity in soils determined the rate of
231 nitrification and denitrification processes, which accounts for approximately 70% of global N₂O
232 emissions (Smith and Arah, 1990; Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). The tropical regions near the equator could
233 provide microbes optimum temperatures and soil moistures to decompose soil organic matter and release
234 more NO_x and CO₂ into the atmosphere (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). Referring to the observational data
235 from field experiments and model simulations in the tropics, it has been supported that the tropics are the
236 main sources within the total N₂O emissions from natural vegetation (Bouwman et al., 1995; Werner et
237 al., 2007; Zhuang et al., 2012).

238 In this study, Asia is divided into two parts: Southern Asia and Northern Asia, where the PFTs and
239 climate conditions are significantly contrasting. As shown in Figure 1, tropical forest and cropland were
240 dominant PFTs in Southern Asia. In contrast, temperate and boreal forests were main PFTs in Northern
241 Asia. The estimates of N₂O emissions from seven land regions are shown in Figure 5. At continental
242 scales, the 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



243 in Africa, and 1.16 (0.90–1.52) Tg N yr⁻¹ in Southern Asia. South America, Africa, and Southern Asia
244 accounted for 33.77%, 23.60%, 18.73%, respectively, together which was 76.10% of global total emission.
245 Europe and Northern Asia contributed to 0.45 (0.32–0.66) Tg N yr⁻¹, which was less than 10% of the total
246 emission.

247 Nitrous oxide emissions varied remarkably among different ecosystems. Forest, grassland, shrub,
248 tundra and cropland contributed 76.90%, 3.11%, 13.14%, 0.18% and 6.67%, respectively, to the total
249 emission globally (Figure 6). In different biomes, the tropics accounted for more than half of the total
250 N₂O emission, which is comparable to the conclusion made by Bouwman et al. (1993). In the pre-
251 industrial era, the major inputs of reactive N to terrestrial ecosystems were from BNF, which relies on the
252 activity of a phylogenetically diverse list of bacteria, archaea and symbioses (Cleveland et al., 1999;
253 Vitousek et al., 2013). Tropical savannas have been considered as ‘hot spots’ of BNF by legume nodules
254 that provide the major input of available N (Bate and Gunton, 1982). The substantial inputs of N into
255 tropical forests could contribute to higher amount of the gaseous N losses as N₂O or nitrogen gas
256 (Cleveland et al., 2010; Hall and Matson, 1999). In contrast, as the largest terrestrial biome, boreal forests
257 lack of available N because the rate of BNF is constricted by cold temperatures and low precipitation
258 during growing season (Alexander and Billington, 1986). Morse et al. (2015) conducted field experiments
259 in Northeastern North American forests. They found that denitrification does vary coherently with
260 patterns of N availability in forests, and no significant correlations between atmospheric N deposition,
261 potential net N mineralization and nitrification rates. Thus, it is reasonable that boreal forests contributed
262 to the least amount of N₂O emission among different forests.



263 As shown in Figure 2, cropland areas varied spatially. The regions with high cropland area were the
264 entire Europe, India, eastern China, and central-eastern United States. The global N₂O emission from
265 croplands was estimated as 0.41 (0.32–0.55) Tg N yr⁻¹, which is about ten times less than the estimate
266 reported in the IPCC AR5 (Ciais et al., 2014). As no synthetic N fertilizer was applied to the cropland in
267 1860, leguminous crops were the major source of N₂O emission from croplands, most of which were
268 planted in central-eastern United States (Figure 4). Rochette et al. (2004) conducted the experiments on
269 the N₂O emission from soybean without application of N fertilizer. Their work was in agreement with the
270 suggestion that legumes may increase N₂O emissions compared with non-BNF crops (Duxbury et al.,
271 1982) The background emission from ground-based experiments was as high as 0.31–0.42 kg N ha⁻¹ in
272 Canada (Duxbury et al., 1982; Rochette et al., 2004).

273 We estimated pre-industrial N₂O emissions from seventeen countries that are “hotspots” of N₂O
274 sources in the contemporary period (Table 2). The order of countries was referred to Gerber et al. (2016)
275 that indicated the top seventeen countries in terms of total N application in 2000. Pre-industrial N₂O
276 emissions from natural soils and croplands varied significantly at country-scales. The United States, China,
277 and India were top countries accounted for emissions from pre-industrial croplands. Countries close to or
278 located in the tropics, such as Mexico, Indonesia, and Brazil, accounted for negligible emissions from
279 croplands, but substantial amount from natural vegetation in the pre-industrial era. Previous studies
280 indicated that agriculture produces the majority of anthropogenic N₂O emissions (Ciais et al., 2014;
281 Davidson and Kanter, 2014). Our estimate at country-scales could be used as a reference to quantify the
282 net increase of N₂O emissions from agriculture activities in countries of “hotspots”.



283 There is a debate that the natural wetlands and peatlands act as sinks or sources of N₂O. Previous
284 studies showed that N₂O emissions from natural peatlands are usually negligible; however, the drained
285 peatlands with lower water tables might act as sources of N₂O (Augustin et al., 1998; Martikainen et al.,
286 1993). High water tables in wetlands might block the activity of nitrifiers and limit the denitrification
287 (Bouwman et al., 1993). The fluxes of N₂O were negligible in the pelagic regions of boreal ponds and
288 lakes due to the limitation of nitrification and/or nitrate inputs (Huttunen et al., 2003). Couwenberg et al.
289 (2011) mentioned that N₂O emissions always decreased after rewetting when conducting field
290 experiments, which had been excluded from their future analysis of GHG emissions in peatlands. Hadi et
291 al. (2005) pointed out that tropical peatlands ranged from sources to sinks of N₂O, highly affected by
292 land-use and hydrological zone. In 1860, we were incapable to examine N₂O fluxes from wetlands and
293 peatlands as human-induced land-use in those ecosystems was unknown. Thus, we excluded the N₂O
294 emissions from wetlands and peatlands in this study.

295 **3.2 Validation of DLEM results using the one-box model**

296 The sources of N₂O include direct and indirect emissions. All anthropogenic emissions of N₂O in 1860,
297 although in a low rate, were discussed in Davidson (2009), which included all direct emission from
298 biomass burning, fossil fuel combustion, etc. The net anthropogenic source in their work was estimated
299 as 0.42 Tg N yr⁻¹ in the pre-industrial period. However, the indirect emissions from the riverine induced
300 by the leaching and runoff of manure applications in agro-ecosystems, legume crop N fixation, and human
301 sewage discharging have not been addressed in Davidson (2009). According to the IPCC 1997, indirect
302 N₂O emission was estimated as the total N leaching or runoff multiplied the emission factors. Through



303 combining the estimates from Davidson (2009) and emission factors from the IPCC 1997, the pre-
304 industrial indirect emission (Tg N yr^{-1}) was calculated as follows:

305
$$\text{Indirect N}_2\text{O emission} = 0.3 \times (15 + 26.3 + 4.7) \times (0.015 + 0.0075 + 0.0025) = 0.35$$

306 where 0.3 is the percentage of N through leaching or runoff (Sawamoto et al., 2005); 15, 26.3, and 4.7 Tg
307 N are the amount of crop fixed N, manure N, and human sewage N in the preindustrial era, respectively
308 (Davidson, 2009); 0.015, 0.0075, and 0.0025 are emission factors for degassing after discharge to surface
309 waters, in rivers, and in estuaries, respectively (IPCC 1997). Thus, the total emission from anthropogenic
310 activities in 1860 was estimated as $0.77 \text{ Tg N yr}^{-1}$, which was shown in Table 1. Syakila and Kroeze (2011)
311 assumed that N_2O emission from oceans was 3.5 Tg N yr^{-1} , which had increased 1 Tg N yr^{-1} since 1950
312 and was static at 4.5 Tg N yr^{-1} from 2000–2006. In this study, N_2O emission atmospheric sources were
313 assumed to be steady over time (Ciais et al., 2014). The net anthropogenic N_2O emission in 2006 was
314 estimated as 7.2 Tg N yr^{-1} (Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). Annual increase of net human-induced N_2O
315 emission was listed in Table 3S. All above possible sources of N_2O emission in 1860 were used to
316 calculate the total emission, as listed in Table 1. The detailed calculation of the total emission in 1860 and
317 2006 can be found in the supplementary material.

318 As indicated by the calculated N_2O concentration in 2006 for different scenarios (Table 1), the
319 estimated mean global N_2O emission of 320.16 ppb was close to the observed concentrations in three
320 monitoring stations (MLO: 320.87; BRW: 320.73; SPO: 319.52 ppb) (NOAA2006A). However, the
321 increasing trends from monitoring stations and the one-box model calculations differed from each other.
322 The calculated increase rates of N_2O concentrations from model calculation were higher than the observed



323 increase rates during 1977–1995. After the year 1995, the yearly increase rates from model calculations
324 and observations were similar, as shown in Figure 7. The calculated concentration in 2006 from the upper
325 and lower bound of the global mean is 318.02 and 322.30 ppb. The maximum concentration from the
326 range of global mean emission was slightly lower than the calculation in Syakila and Kroeze (2011). It is
327 because the initial and total emission (11.6; 19.8 Tg N yr⁻¹) from their study were higher than the estimates
328 (11.23; 19.43 Tg N yr⁻¹) in this study. The calculated N₂O concentrations in 2006 from scenario 3 is
329 304.61 ppb, which is much lower than the current concentration. Similarly, the result from scenario 4 is
330 much higher than the observed N₂O concentrations. Thus, we can conclude that the best estimate of N₂O
331 emission from pre-industrial global soils was around 6.20 (6.03–6.36) Tg N yr⁻¹. The extremely lower or
332 higher estimates could not reflect the real N₂O emission from terrestrial ecosystems under little human
333 perturbation.

334 The uncertainty ranges in atmospheric lifetime and initial concentration could influence the
335 calculation of atmospheric N₂O concentration in 2006, as well as the trend of concentration changes since
336 1860. As shown in Table 1, lower lifetime resulted in the lower value of atmospheric N₂O concentration,
337 and vice versa. Similarly, lower initial atmospheric concentration resulted in lower estimate of
338 atmospheric N₂O concentration in 2006, and vice versa, while the effect is less significant than lifetime.
339 Overall, we provide a reasonable estimation of N₂O emission from the pre-industrial global soils in the
340 context that the N₂O concentration was 275 ppb and lifetime was set as 114 years.

341 3.3 Comparison with other studies



342 The global pre-agricultural N₂O emission was estimated as 6.8 Tg N yr⁻¹ based on the regression
343 relationship between measured N₂O fluxes and modeled N₂O production indices (Bouwman et al., 1993).
344 This estimate was adopted to retrieve the trends of atmospheric N₂O concentration in Syakila and Kroeze
345 (2011). In our study, the pre-industrial N₂O emission from natural vegetation was estimated as 5.78
346 (4.4–7.72) Tg N yr⁻¹, which is about 1 Tg N yr⁻¹ lower than the estimate from Bouwman et al. (1993).
347 Estimate from the tropics ($\pm 30^\circ$ of the equator) was about 4.57 Tg N yr⁻¹, which is 0.83 Tg N yr⁻¹ lower
348 than the estimate from Bouwman et al. (1993). For the rest of natural vegetation, our estimate was 1.21
349 Tg N yr⁻¹, which is close to 1.4 Tg N yr⁻¹ estimated in Bouwman et al. (1993).

350 Although Bouwman et al. (1993) has studied the potential N₂O emission from natural soils, our
351 study provided a first estimate of spatially distributed N₂O emission in 1860 using the biogeochemical
352 process-based model. Bouwman et al. (1993) provided 1° × 1° monthly N₂O emission using the monthly
353 controlling factors without considering the impact of N deposition. In their study, the soil fertility and
354 carbon content were constant for every month, which could not reflect the monthly dynamic changes of
355 carbon and N pools in natural soils. Moreover, although their study has represented a spatial distribution
356 of potential N₂O emission from natural soils, they had not provided the estimate at biome-, continent-,
357 and country-scales. Thus, their result was hardly to be used as a regional reference for the net human-
358 induced N₂O emissions from some “hotspots”, such as Southern Asia. In contrast, in our study, using
359 daily climate and N deposition dataset could better reflect the real variation of N₂O emission through the
360 growing season in natural ecosystems. The comparison with field observations during 1997–2001
361 indicated that the DLEM can catch the daily peak N₂O emissions in Hubbard Brook Forest (Tian et al.,
362 2010) and Inner-Mongolia (Tian et al., 2011).



363 As far as the N₂O emission from croplands, our estimate is comparable to the estimate of 0.3
364 (0.29–0.35) Tg N yr⁻¹ extracted from Syakila and Kroeze (2011) by digitizing graphs using the Getdata
365 Graph Digitizer (version 2.6.2, Russian Federation). In their study, the estimation was based on the
366 relationship between the crop production and human population during 1500–1970. In contrast, the result
367 in our study was estimated based on the cropland area of specific crop type, mainly soybean, rice, corn,
368 and wheat in 1860.

369 Thus, the DLEM is capable to provide the estimate of N₂O emission at regional- and biome-scales
370 with a higher spatial resolution, which could be a useful reference for studying how the LULC change,
371 such as tropical forest deforestation (Davidson, 2009), N fertilizer and manure application, and
372 increasingly atmospheric N deposition affect N₂O emissions in different terrestrial ecosystems or sectors
373 in the contemporary period.

374 **3.4 Future research needs**

375 Large uncertainty still exists in the DLEM simulation associated with the quality of input datasets and
376 parameters applied in simulations. Although input datasets could play a significant role in the variety of
377 the model output, it is difficult to obtain accurate datasets back to the year 1860. Average climate data
378 from 1901 to 1930 was used to run model simulation, which could raise the uncertainty in estimating N₂O
379 emission in 1860. The datasets of LULC, N deposition, and manure application in 1860 could introduce
380 uncertainties to this estimate. The estimates of human-induced N₂O emission could introduce the
381 uncertainty into the calculation of the N₂O concentrations in 2006. Nitrous oxide emission from inland
382 water system was calculated according to the empirical emission factor in the IPCC 1997. However, other



383 studies have indicated that the IPCC 1997 overestimated the indirect N₂O emission (Hu et al., 2016;
384 Sawamoto et al., 2005). Thus, the estimate of indirect emission remains a large uncertainty. The N₂O
385 fluxes from wetlands and peats needed to be included in the future study.

386 **4 Conclusions**

387 Using the process-based land ecosystem model DLEM, this study provides a spatially-explicit estimate
388 of pre-industrial N₂O emissions for major PFTs across global land surface. The one-box model was used
389 to calculate the atmospheric N₂O concentration in 2006 to validate the results from DLEM simulations.
390 Improved LHS and Bootstrapping were performed to analyze uncertainty ranges of the estimates. We
391 estimated that pre-industrial N₂O emission is 6.20 Tg N yr⁻¹. Calculated N₂O concentration in 2006 using
392 the global mean N₂O emission was 320.16 ppb, which was similar to the observed values from three
393 monitoring stations. The modeled results showed a large spatial variability due to variations in climate
394 conditions and PFTs. Tropical ecosystems were the dominant contributors of global N₂O emissions. In
395 contrast, boreal regions contributed less than 5% to the total emission. China, India and United States are
396 top countries accounted for emissions from croplands in 1860. While uncertainties still exist in the N₂O
397 emission estimation in the pre-industrial era, this study offered a relatively reasonable estimate of the pre-
398 industrial N₂O emission from land soils. Meanwhile, this study provided a spatial estimate for N₂O
399 emission from the global hotspots, which could be used as a reference to estimate net human-induced
400 emissions in the contemporary period.



401 **Author Contributions**

402 *Xu R. performed DLEM simulations, analyses, calculations, and drafted the manuscript. Tian H. and Pan*
403 *S. initiated this research and provided the comments for the whole work. Lu C. provided the idea of one-*
404 *box model validation and contributed to the model calibration and data analysis. Chen J. contributed to*
405 *the data processing and statistical analysis. Yang J. took charge of input datasets preparation*
406 *(environmental factors), data description, and model verification. Zhang B. provided manure N input*
407 *data and the comments on the manuscript.*

408

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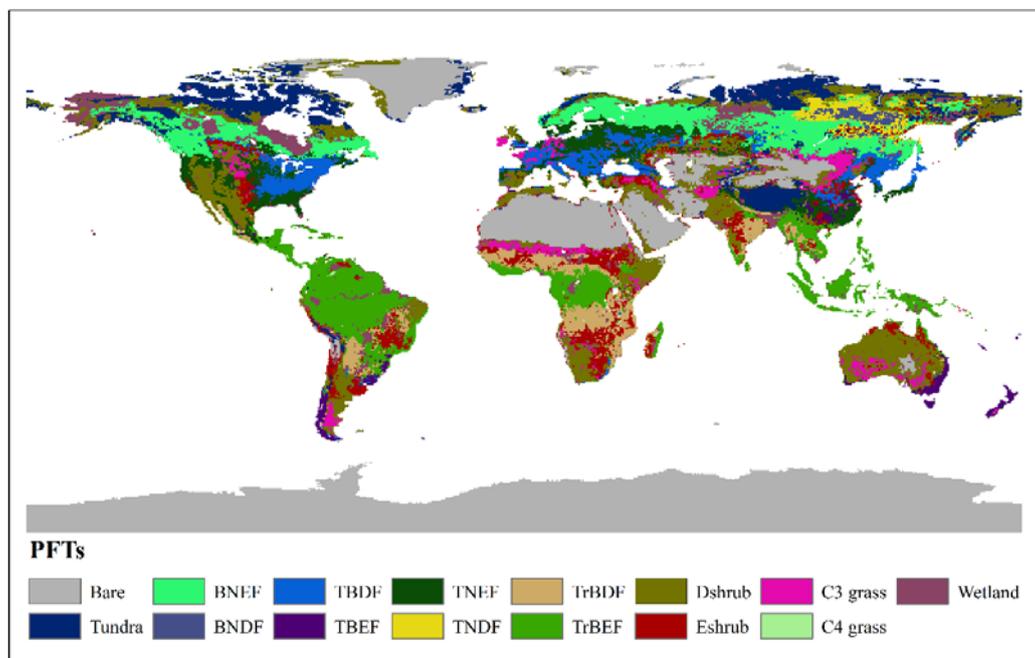
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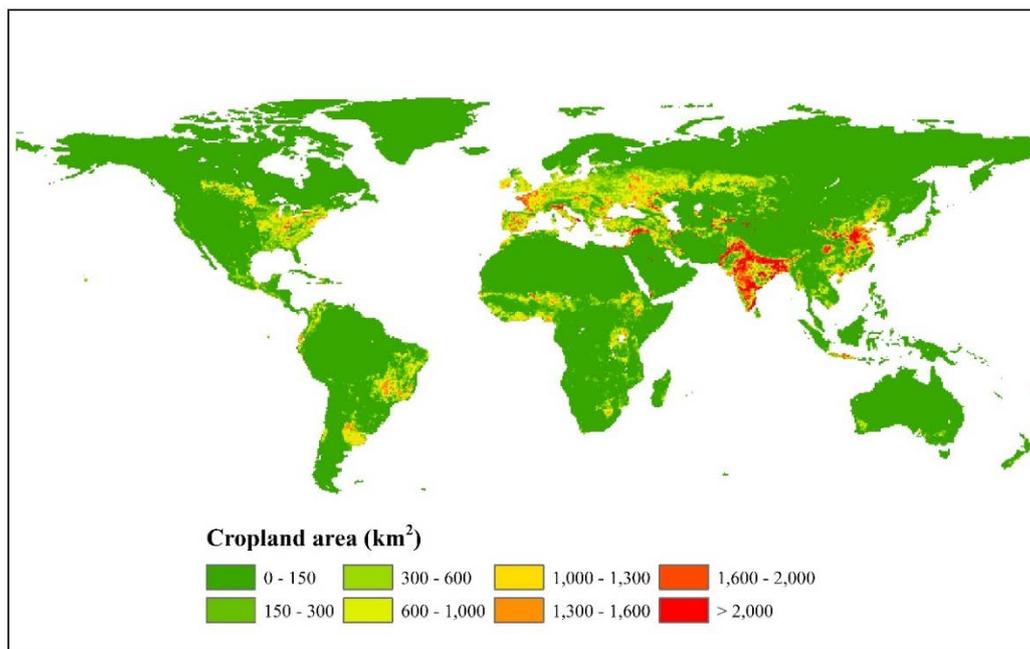


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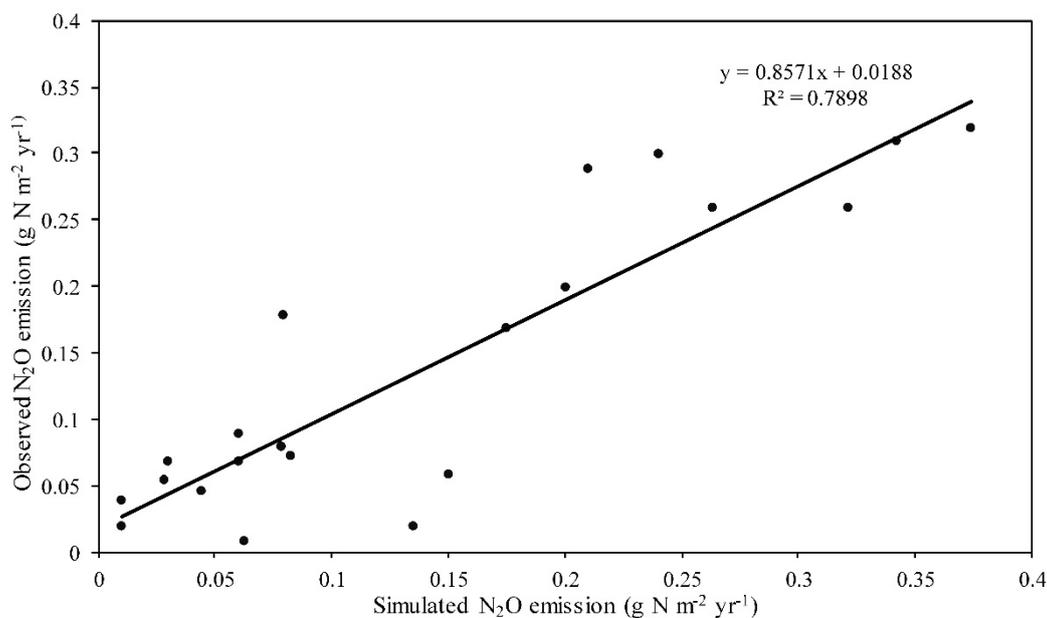
585

586 **Figure 1.** Global potential natural vegetation map used by DLEM in the pre-industrial era. BNEF: Boreal Needleleaf Evergreen
587 Forest, BNDF: Boreal Needleleaf Deciduous Forest, TBDF: Temperate Broadleaf Deciduous Forest, TBEF: Temperate
588 Broadleaf Evergreen Forest, TNEF: Temperate Needleleaf Evergreen Forest, TNDF: Temperate Needleleaf Deciduous Forest,
589 TrBDF: Tropical Broadleaf Deciduous Forest, TrBEF: Tropical Broadleaf Evergreen Forest, Dshrub: Deciduous Shrubland,
590 Eshrub: Evergreen Shrubland.



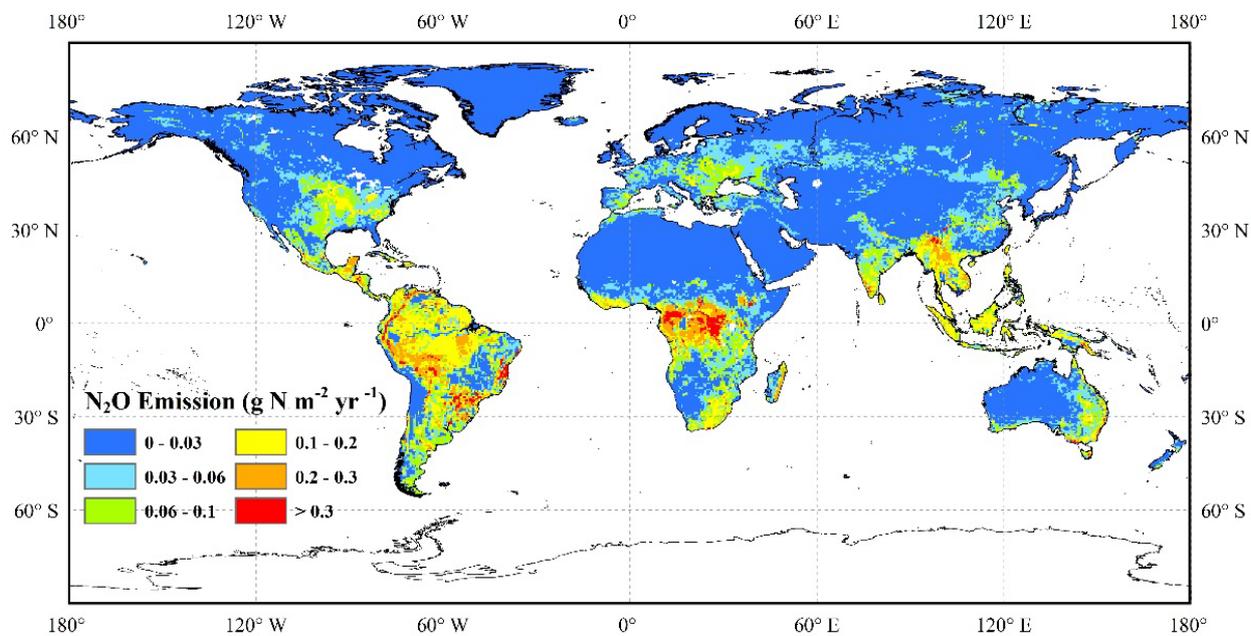
591

592 **Figure 2.** The spatial distribution of cropland area in 1860.



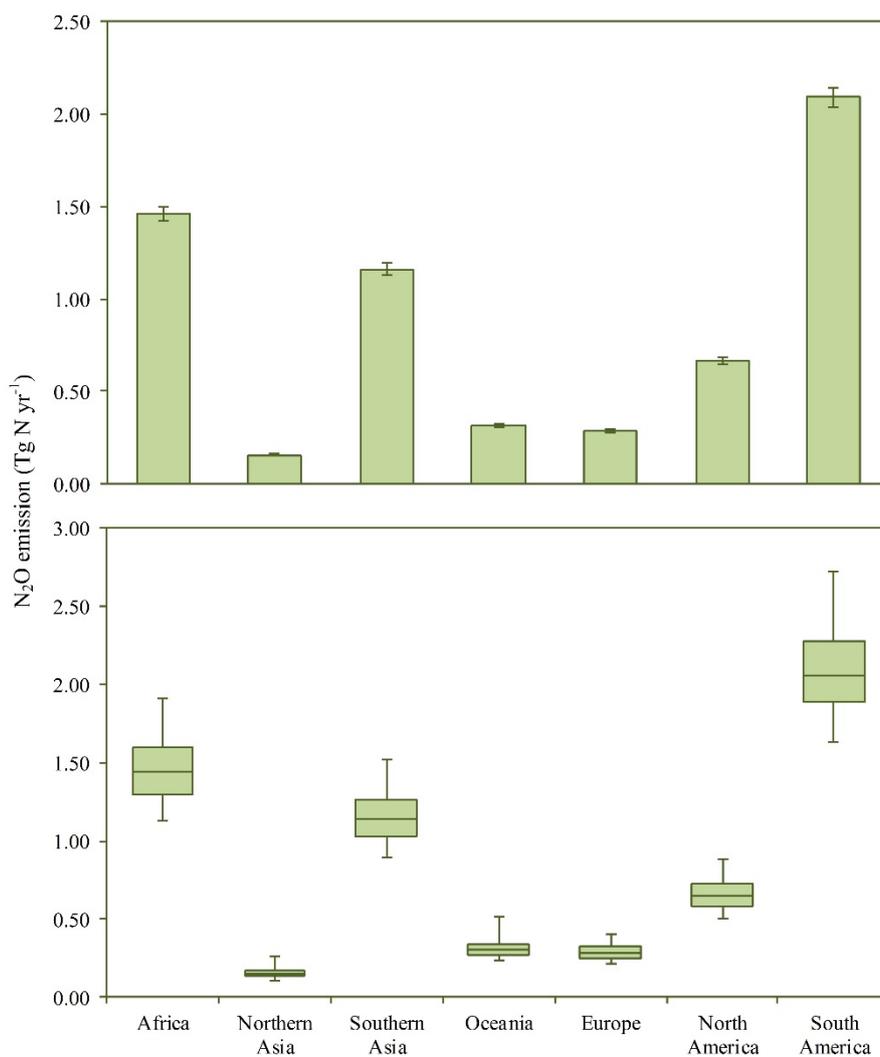
593

594 **Figure 3.** The comparison of the DLEM-simulated N₂O emissions with field observations.



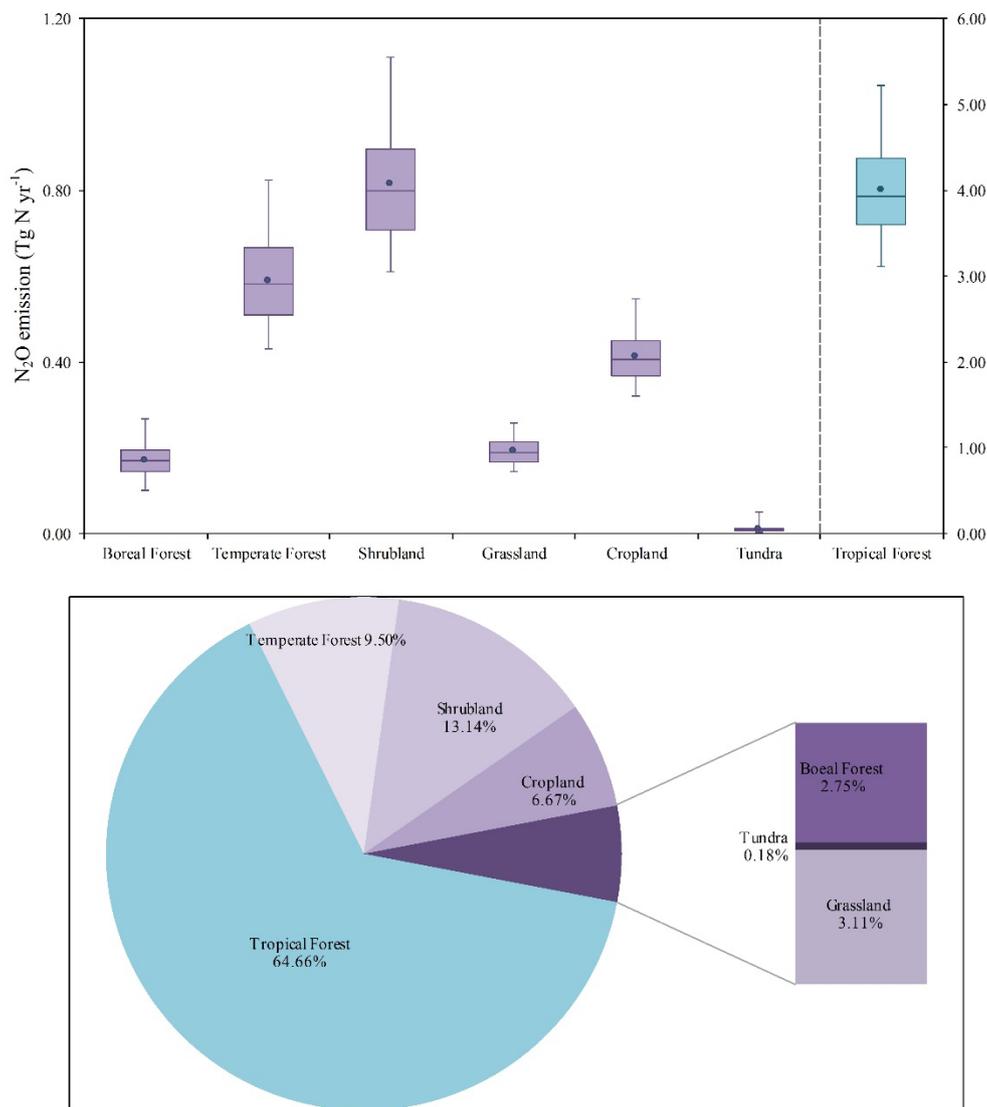
595

596 **Figure 4.** The spatial distribution of N_2O emission in the pre-industrial era.



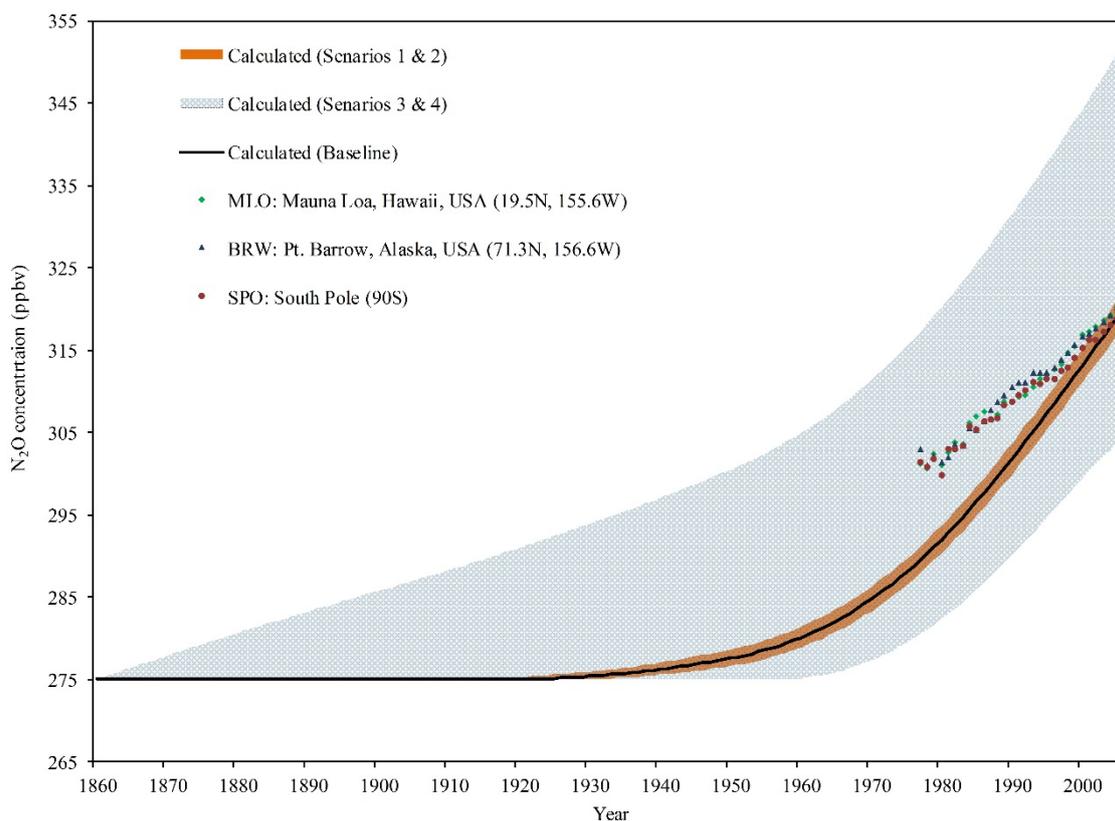
597

598 **Figure 5.** Estimated N₂O emissions at continental-level in 1860: the above graph is the mean emission from different continents
599 with 95% confidence intervals; the below one is the median value and the uncertainty range of emissions.



600

601 **Figure 6.** Estimated N_2O emissions at biome-level in 1860: the above graph is the median value (solid line), the mean (solid
 602 dot), and the uncertainty range of emissions from different biomes; the below one is the mean percentage of N_2O emissions.



603

604 **Figure 7.** The trends of atmospheric concentration changes in different scenarios as described in Table 1. The method used to
605 retrieve the trends of atmospheric N_2O emission was directly adopted from Syakila and Kroeze (2011) and Kroeze et al. (1999).
606 Similarly, annual emission was linearly interpolated between the years from 1860 to 2006 (net additions of anthropogenic N_2O
607 emission amount in different years were listed in Syakila and Kroeze, 2011). In this study, we focused on confirming the
608 accuracy of pre-industrial estimates, as initial value, from our simulation instead of the accuracy of atmospheric trend itself as
609 discussed in Syakila and Kroeze (2011).



610 **Table 1.** The estimate ranges of pre-industrial soil emissions, lifetime, and N₂O concentration were used to calculate the
 611 concentrations of N₂O in the atmosphere. Baseline was the mean estimate of N₂O emissions from pre-industrial soils through
 612 DLEM simulation; Scenarios 1 & 2 were the lower bound and upper bound of the mean estimate, respectively; Scenarios 3 &
 613 4 were the minimum and maximum estimates in this study, respectively; Scenarios 5.1 & 5.2 were the minimum and maximum
 614 estimates of N₂O lifetime in the atmosphere, respectively; Scenarios 6.1 & 6.2 were the minimum and maximum estimates of
 615 atmospheric N₂O concentration in 1860, respectively.

Scenario	Terrestrial direct N ₂ O emission (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	Marine N ₂ O emission (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	Other sources (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	Atmospheric chemistry (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	Total emission (Tg N yr ⁻¹)	N ₂ O life time (years)	Atmospheric N ₂ O concentration in 1860 (ppb)	Calculated atmospheric 2006 concentration (ppb)
Baseline	6.20	3.5 (before 1950), 4.5 (after 1950)	0.77	0.6	19.27	114	275	320.16
Scenario1	6.03				19.1			318.02
Scenario2	6.36				19.43			322.30
Scenario3	4.76				17.83			304.61
Scenario4	8.13				21.2			352.53
Scenario5.1	6.20				19.27	106	275	309.84
Scenario5.2					141	362.15		
Scenario6.1					114	263	314.21	
Scenario6.2					280	321.56		

616

617 **Table 2.** Pre-industrial N₂O emissions from natural vegetation and croplands in different countries.

Country	Vegetation area (Mha)	Natural soils (Gg N yr ⁻¹)	Cropland (Gg N yr ⁻¹)	Total (Gg N yr ⁻¹)
China	756.29	187.60 (Min: 143.13; Max:247.21)	61.74 (Min: 46.65; Max: 83.43)	249.34 (Min: 189.78; Max: 330.64)
India	306.8	120.97 (Min:96.46; Max:153.91)	64.29 (Min: 48.04; Max:86.86)	185.26 (Min: 144.50; Max: 240.77)
United States	913.93	296.45 (Min: 221.19; Max:409.61)	80.95 (Min: 62.38; Max:106.29)	377.40 (Min: 283.57; Max: 515.90)
Pakistan	65.13	5.40 (Min: 4.05; Max:7.30)	6.22 (Min: 4.90; Max:8.16)	11.62 (Min: 8.95; Max: 15.46)
Indonesia	174.07	181.35 (Min: 138.83; Max:237.96)	1.98 (Min: 1.41; Max:2.97)	183.33 (Min: 140.24; Max: 240.93)
France	52.29	6.67 (Min: 4.77; Max:9.49)	8.77 (Min: 6.60; Max:11.84)	15.44 (Min: 11.37; Max: 21.33)
Brazil	835.13	1016.53 (Min: 791.25; Max:1321.97)	10.50 (Min: 8.00; Max:14.20)	1027.03 (Min: 799.25; Max: 1336.17)
Canada	914.61	93.96 (Min: 60.85; Max:137.00)	2.47 (Min: 1.75; Max:3.49)	96.43 (Min: 62.60; Max: 140.49)
Germany	35.99	8.56 (Min: 6.22; Max:12.22)	4.27 (Min: 3.18; Max:5.88)	12.83 (Min: 9.40; Max: 18.10)
Turkey	74.26	17.02 (Min: 12.37; Max:24.07)	10.89 (Min: 8.42; Max:14.32)	27.91 (Min: 20.79; Max: 38.39)
Mexico	190.98	118.13 (Min: 90.56; Max:155.64)	2.93 (Min: 2.43; Max:3.58)	121.06 (Min: 92.99; Max: 159.22)
Vietnam	31.71	41.38 (Min: 33.00; Max:53.27)	2.15 (Min: 1.60; Max:2.84)	43.53 (Min: 34.60; Max: 56.11)
Spain	48.24	14.30 (Min: 10.70; Max:19.46)	5.64 (Min: 4.23; Max:7.68)	19.94 (Min: 14.93; Max: 27.14)
Russian Federation	1575.27	233.98 (Min: 164.71; Max:333.24)	19.28 (Min: 14.39; Max:26.20)	253.26 (Min: 179.10; Max: 359.44)
Bangladesh	12.41	1.61 (Min: 1.31; Max:2.02)	5.38 (Min: 3.87; Max:7.59)	6.99 (Min: 5.18; Max: 9.61)
Thailand	49.26	55.87 (Min: 44.57; Max:71.77)	2.62 (Min: 1.96; Max:3.56)	58.49 (Min: 46.53; Max: 75.33)

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