Global land-atmosphere exchange of methane and nitrous oxide: Magnitude and spatiotemporal patterns Hanqin Tian¹, Guangsheng Chen^{1,2}, Chaoqun Lu¹, Xiaofeng Xu^{1,2}, Wei Ren¹, Bowen Zhang¹, Kamaljit Banger¹, Bo Tao¹, Shufen Pan¹, Mingliang Liu^{1,3} and Chi Zhang^{1,4} ¹ International Center for Climate and Global Change Research, School of Forestry and Wildlife Sciences, Auburn University, Auburn, AL, 36849, USA; ² Environmental Sciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37831, USA; ³ Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Washington State University, Pullman, WA, 99164, USA; ⁴Xinjiang Institute of Ecology and Geography, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Urumqi, 830011, China **Revised to Biogeosciences** March 12, 2014

22 Abstract

23 Methane (CH_4) and nitrous oxide (N_2O) are two most important greenhouse gases after carbon dioxide (CO₂), but their regional and global budgets are far from certain, which is largely owing 24 to uncertainties in scaling up field measurements as well as the poor model representation of 25 26 processes and factors governing CH_4 and N_2O exchange between the terrestrial biosphere and atmosphere. In this study, we applied a process-based, coupled biogeochemical model (DLEM -27 the Dynamic Land Ecosystem Model) to concurrently estimate the magnitudes, spatial and 28 29 temporal patterns of CH_4 and N_2O fluxes as driven by multiple environmental changes including climate variability, rising atmospheric CO_2 , increasing nitrogen deposition, tropospheric ozone 30 pollution, land use change and nitrogen fertilizer use. The estimated CH₄ and N₂O emissions 31 from global land ecosystems during 1981-2010 were 144.39 ± 25.54 Tg C/yr and 12.52 ± 1.52 32 Tg N/yr, respectively. Our simulations indicated a significant (p < 0.01) increasing trend for CH₄ 33 34 $(0.43 \pm 0.06 \text{ Tg C/yr per year})$ and N₂O $(0.14 \pm 0.02 \text{ Tg N/yr per year})$ in the study period. CH₄ and N₂O emissions increased significantly in most climatic zones and continents, especially in 35 tropical region and Asia. The most rapid increase in CH₄ emission was found in natural wetlands 36 37 and rice fields due to increased rice field area and climate warming. Nitrous oxide emission increased substantially in all the biome types and the largest increase occurred in upland 38 croplands due to increasing air temperature and nitrogen fertilizer use. Given large increase in 39 CH₄ and N₂O emission at global scale, we suggest that these two gases together with CO₂ should 40 be simultaneously considered when evaluating if a policy is effective or efficient to reduce global 41 42 warming in the future.

43 Keywords: global warming potential; methane; nitrous oxide; process-based ecosystem
44 model; terrestrial ecosystem

45 **1 Introduction**

As two important greenhouse gases (GHG) contributing to climate warming, methane 46 47 (CH_4) and nitrous oxide (N_2O) are receiving more and more attention (Prather and Hus, 2010; Montzka et al., 2011; Kirschke et al., 2013; Saikawa et al., 2013; Tian et al., 2012a). Methane 48 has a relative global warming potential 25 times that of CO_2 at a 100-yr time horizon, and 49 50 contributes approximately 20% to the global radiative forcing (Forster et al., 2007). Recent analyses indicated that the atmospheric CH_4 has increased by more than 100% since 1800 51 (Forster et al. 2007). Net CH₄ fluxes from terrestrial ecosystems are primarily determined by two 52 distinct microbial processes: methanogenesis (production) and methanotrophy (consumption) 53 (Walter and Heimann, 2000; Bloom et al., 2010). Methanogenesis occurs under anaerobic 54 conditions, while methanotrophy occurs in aerobic or anaerobic condition. Many factors, such as 55 56 water table depth, substrate quality and quantity, soil pH, soil moisture, presence of permafrost, oxygen concentration, and ratio of methanogenic to methanotrophic bacteria, directly influence 57 58 CH₄ production and consumption (Koven et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2010; Banger et al., 2012; Dijkstra et al., 2012). The dominant sources of CH_4 are natural wetlands, anthropogenic 59 60 activities, and biomass burning (Dlugokencky et al., 2009; Ito and Inatomi et al., 2012), while 61 upland soils are the major CH₄ sink. Recent CH₄ budget estimation showed a global source of 548-678 Tg CH₄/yr during 2000-2009, nearly 50–60% from anthropogenic origin (Kirschke et 62 63 al., 2013).

Nitrous oxide has a relative global warming potential 298 times that of CO₂ at a 100-yr
time horizon, and contributes approximately 7% to the radiative forcing (Forster et al., 2007).
Therefore, although its concentration is much less than that of CO₂ and CH₄ in the atmosphere, it
is drawing more attention in recent years. Atmospheric N₂O has increased by 18% compared to

the pre-industrial level, with a linear increasing rate of 0.26% per year during the recent few 68 decades (Forster et al., 2007). The observed increase in atmospheric N₂O concentration was 69 primarily attributed to reactive nitrogen inputs from synthetic nitrogen fertilizer and animal 70 manure applications, cropland expansion, and processes associated with fossil-fuel combustion 71 and biomass burning. The production and consumption of N_2O in soils involves both biotic and 72 73 abiotic processes. Many microbial groups contribute to the production and consumption of soil N₂O, but biological nitrification and denitrification are the dominant processes (Ussiri and Lal, 74 75 2012). Due to more variable and fewer estimates as compared to CH_4 , global N_2O emissions 76 were estimated ranging between 6.7 and 36.6 Tg N/yr (IPCC 2001), with a large uncertainty 77 range.

A number of studies using different modeling and statistical approaches were conducted 78 to estimate regional or global CH₄ (e.g., Bousquet et al., 2006; Potter et al., 1996; Bloom et al., 79 2010; Tian et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2012; Zhuang et al., 2004; Schulze et al., 2009; Ito and Inatomi 80 et al., 2012; Meng et al., 2012; Kirschke et al., 2013; Bruhwiler et al., 2014; Miller et al. 2014) 81 and N₂O fluxes (e.g., Xu et al., 2008; Liu, 1996; Hirsch et al. 2006; Davidson, 2009; US EPA 82 2010; Bouwman et al., 2002; Zhuang et al., 2012). However, the estimates are far from certain 83 84 due to the complexity of the terrestrial ecosystems and the shortage of field and laboratory 85 measurements to validate the modeled processes controlling gas emissions (Ito and Inatomi et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2012a; Melton et al., 2013). To simulate large-scale CH₄ and N₂O fluxes, 86 87 two approaches are generally used during past decades: bottom-up (e.g., inventory and processbased modeling. Cao et al., 1995; Walter et al., 2001; Zhuang et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2008; Tian 88 89 et al., 2010) and top-down (e.g., atmospheric inversion. Frankenberg et al., 2005; Bergamaschi et 90 al., 2007; Kort et al., 2008; Bergamaschi et al., 2009; Bousquet et al., 2011; Spahni et al., 2011).

Process-based modeling, as one of the bottom-up approaches, can simulate the spatial
heterogeneity of ecosystem properties at relatively high resolution and identify the underlying
mechanisms that control the magnitudes and variations of GHG fluxes (Spahni et al., 2011; Tian
et al., 2010; Xu et al. 2010; Bousquet et al., 2011).

Many global change factors have been reported to influence the production and 95 consumption of CH₄ and N₂O (Hutchin et al., 1995; Conrad, 1996; Huang et al., 2010; Toet et 96 97 al., 2011). As summarized by Dijkstra et al. (2012), global warming increases net CH_4 uptake in upland ecosystems due to stimulation of microbial CH₄ oxidation and higher CH₄ diffusivity 98 with lower soil moisture, while had variable effects in water-saturated ecosystems (e.g., natural 99 100 wetlands, rice fields, and peatlands). Global warming results in increased N₂O emissions in most 101 land ecosystems due to stimulations of nitrifiers and denitrifiers activity and nitrogen supply through mineralization; however, global warming may also reduce N_2O emission through soil 102 103 drying and stimulations of plant growth and nitrogen uptake (Dijkstra et al., 2012; Luo et al. 2013). Elevated atmospheric CO_2 may either increase or decrease CH_4 uptake in the upland 104 105 ecosystems but increase CH₄ emissions in water-saturated ecosystems through increased photosynthesis and carbon input to the soil, which stimulate the methanogenic bacteria growth 106 (Dacey et al., 1994; Dijkstra et al., 2012). Under ecosystems with high nitrogen supply, elevated 107 108 atmospheric CO₂ is reported to significantly increase N₂O emission due to the increase of soil moisture and soil labile carbon (Ineson et al., 1998; van Groenigen et al., 2011; Dijkstra et al., 109 2012), while the increasing effect is small or even negative in nitrogen-limited ecosystems since 110 elevated plant growth may result in less nitrogen availability for nitrifiers and denitrifiers 111 (Mosier et al., 2002). Ozone (O_3) pollution caused losses of photosynthesis, and thus reduce CH_4 112 113 emissions (Toet et al., 2011), while either stimulating or reducing N_2O emission by influencing 114 the litter mass and quality (Kanerva et al., 2008). Nitrogen fertilization may dramatically decrease CH₄ consumption in grassland and forest (Mosier et al., 1991; Steudler et al., 1989) and 115 either decrease or increase CH₄ emissions in rice fields depending on nitrogen fertilizer use 116 amount (Banger et al. 2012), while increase N₂O emissions (Del Grosso et al., 2006; Mosier et 117 al., 1998). In addition, interactions among multiple factors also played an important role. For 118 119 example, nitrogen deposition and elevated atmospheric CO₂ are reported to interactively reduce CH_4 emission from wetland and increase CH_4 uptake in upland soil (Pancotto et al., 2010); and 120 121 another study concluded that temperature and elevated atmospheric CO_2 may interactively 122 change seasonal variation of CH₄ emissions (Blankinship et al., 2010). Atmospheric CO₂ and nitrogen deposition can interactively increase soil available nitrogen and labile carbon, thus 123 greatly increase soil N₂O emissions (Dijkstra et al., 2012). 124

Most of previous experimental or modeling studies addressed the impacts of only one or 125 126 a subset of environmental factors on either CH_4 or N_2O fluxes. Few of them were conducted to fully estimate the effects of multiple environmental changes (such as climate, land use, land 127 management practices, atmospheric CO₂, nitrogen deposition and tropospheric O₃, etc.) on both 128 gases. In addition, given the tight linkage between these two gases in both terrestrial origin 129 (Raghoebarsing et al., 2006; Kort et al., 2008; Ettwig et al., 2010; Song et al., 2009; Dijkstra et 130 al., 2012) and atmospheric chemistry (Prather and Hus, 2010), it is important to simultaneously 131 estimate the CH_4 and N_2O fluxes at continental or global scale. The specific objectives of this 132 study include: 1) providing a new and simultaneous estimate of global CH₄ and N₂O budgets, 133 134 which may help narrow down the estimate ranges of both gases in the terrestrial ecosystems; 2) exploring interannual and decadal patterns of global CH₄ and N₂O as influenced by multiple 135 environmental factors including climate, atmospheric CO₂, tropospheric O₃ pollution, nitrogen 136

deposition, land use and land cover, and nitrogen fertilizer use; 3) evaluating the regional,
biome-level and latitudinal differences in the impacts of multiple environmental factors on longterm CH₄ and N₂O patterns; and 4) identifying uncertainties associated with major model
parameters, additional biogeochemical processes and data needed for future research.

141 **2 Methodology**

142 **2.1 Data description**

143 In this study, we developed a series of spatiotemporal data sets to represent environmental

144 changes at a spatial resolution of $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ latitude/longitude during 1901-2010. These data

include daily O₃ AOT40 index (an index of the accumulated hourly ozone concentrations above

146 a threshold of 40 ppb-hr), annual nitrogen deposition rate, daily climate conditions (minimum,

147 average and maximum temperature, precipitation, and solar radiation), annual land use and land

148 management practices (including nitrogen fertilizer use and irrigation). The climate data was

149 downloaded from CRUNCEP website

150 (https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ucar.cgd.ccsm4.CRUNCEP.v4.TPHWL6Hrly.html).

151 Monthly O₃ AOT40 data were derived from the monthly AOT40 data developed by Felzer et al.

152 (2005). We further interpolated this monthly data to daily data through simply dividing the

monthly data by the number of days in each month since we did not have other auxiliary daily

data for interpolation (Ren et al., 2007). EDGAR-HYDE 1.3 nitrogen emission data at 1×1

degree (Van Aardenne et al., 2001) were used to interpolate the three-time period nitrogen

deposition data (1860, 1993, 2050; Dentener, 2006) into annual nitrogen deposition data set

- during 1901-2010, through assuming that the interannual variability of nitrogen deposition is
- 158 consistent with that of NH_3 and NO_x emissions from 10 anthropogenic sources (Wei et al., 2013).
- 159 Land use data (Cropland and urban area distribution) were from History Database of the Global

160 Environment (HYDE 3.0) (Klein and van Drecht, 2006). Nitrogen fertilizer use rate for China and the United States were developed from county-level census data (Tian et al., 2010, 2011b), 161 162 while information in other regions were based on Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) country-level statistical data (www.fao.org). Soil property data, including soil texture, pH, and 163 164 bulk density, were from Global Soil Data Task (www.daac.ornl.gov). The annual atmospheric 165 CO₂ concentration data before 1959 were from the Vegetation/Ecosystem Modeling and Analysis Project (VEMAP), and the data thereafter were from the National Oceanic and 166 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) (www.esrl.noaa.gov). The potential vegetation (i.e., 167 natural vegetation) map was developed from different data sources, including global land-cover 168 169 data derived from Landsat imageries (De Fries et al., 1998), National Land Cover Dataset 2000 (www.usgs.gov), and global database of lakes, reservoirs, and wetland (Lehner and Döll, 2004). 170 The contemporary global vegetation map in 2000 was shown in Fig. 1. All the datasets were 171 transformed and re-projected to the same projection system. Due to the lack of data after 2005, 172 173 the land use and land cover pattern, O_3 AOT40, and nitrogen fertilizer use rate after 2005 were assumed the same as the level of 2005. 174

175

[Insert Fig 1 Here]

176 **2.1 Model description**

The DLEM model is designed to estimate carbon, nitrogen, and water fluxes and pool sizes in terrestrial ecosystems by coupling major physiological, biogeochemical and hydrological processes, and vegetation dynamics with spatial coverage ranging from site to region and globe, and time step from daily to monthly and yearly (Ren et al., 2007, 2011; Zhang et al., 2007, 2012; Tian et al., 2010, 2011a,b, 2012a,b; Xu et al., 2010, 2012a; Chen et al., 2012, 2013; Lu et

182 al., 2012, 2013). One of important DLEM's features is that it can simultaneously estimate the responses of land-atmosphere exchange of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O to multiple environmental 183 changes in climate, atmospheric CO_2 concentration, tropospheric O_3 pollution, nitrogen 184 deposition, land use and land management practices. Each plant functional type defined in 185 DLEM (i.e., types shown in Fig. 1) was calibrated against various field observations collected 186 187 from the Chinese Ecological Research Network (CERN), US Long-Term Ecological Research (LTER) network, AmeriFlux network, and other independent research sites. Here we briefly 188 described the CH_4 and N_2O module in the DLEM. The more detailed information could be 189 190 referred to Tian et al. (2010, 2011a, b, 2012b) and Xu et al. (2010, 2012).

191 In DLEM, CH_4 production, consumption, and transport processes are considered to estimate land-atmosphere gas exchange. Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) is the only CH₄ 192 production substrate considered in DLEM. The DOC comes from gross primary productivity 193 194 (GPP) allocation, and decomposition byproducts from soil organic matter and litterfall, which indirectly controlled by environmental factors including soil pH, temperature and soil moisture 195 content. CH₄ oxidation is determined by CH₄ concentrations in the air or pore space of soil, as 196 well as soil moisture, pH, and temperature. We consider three pathways for CH_4 transport from 197 soil to the atmosphere (i.e., ebullition, diffusion, and plant-mediated transport) (Tian et al. 2010). 198 It is assumed that methane-related biogeochemical processes only occur in the top 50 cm of soil 199 profile. Overall, the net CH_4 exchange between the atmosphere and soil is calculated by the 200 following equation: 201

$$F_{CH4} = F_P + F_D + F_E - F_{air,oxid} - F_{trans,oxid} - F_{soil,oxid}$$
(1)

203 where F_{CH4} is the flux of CH₄ between soil and the atmosphere (g C/m²/day); F_P is plant-204 mediated transport from soil pore water to the atmosphere (g C/m²/day); F_D is the diffusive flux of CH₄ from water surface to the atmosphere (g C/m²/d); F_E is the ebullitive CH₄ emission to the atmosphere; $F_{air, oxid}$ is atmospheric CH₄ oxidation rate (g C/m²/day); $F_{trans, oxid}$ is the CH₄ oxidation during plant-mediated transport (g C/m²/day); $F_{soil, oxid}$ is the CH₄ oxidation rate in soil pore water.

Terrestrial nitrogen cycling processes considered in the DLEM model include nitrogen input from the atmospheric deposition, agricultural fertilizer use, and biological fixation, plant nitrogen uptake, nitrogen transformation (e.g., mineralization and immobilization, nitrification and denitrification, adsorption/desorption), and nitrogen loss (e.g., nitrous gas emissions, nitrogen leaching, and other nitrogen loss pathways through fire, grazing, or other disturbances). The estimation of N₂O emissions (primarily from nitrification and denitrification) are closely interlinked with model representation of above processes.

In DLEM, all the products of nitrification and denitrification that leave the system are nitrogen-containing gases. We used the empirical equation reported by Davidson et al (2000) to separate N₂O from other gases (mainly NO and N₂). The equations for calculating nitrification, denitrification and N₂O fluxes are:

220
$$F_{N20} = (0.001 \times N_{nit} + N_{denit}) \times \frac{10^{(\frac{vwc}{\emptyset} \times \times 0.026 - 1.66)}}{(1 + 10^{(\frac{vwc}{\emptyset} \times \times 0.026 - 1.66)})}$$
(2)

221 Where F_{N20} is the N₂O flux from soil to the atmosphere (g N/m³/day), which can be 222 converted to the unit of g N/m²/day by multiplying the soil depth (default: 0.5 m); N_{nit} and 223 N_{denit} are the nitrification and denitrification rates (g N/m³/day), respectively; 0.001 is the 224 proportion of nitrification product released as gaseous nitrogen (Lin et al., 2000); \emptyset is the soil 225 porosity.

226 **2.2 Model implementation and experimental design**

The implementation of DLEM simulation includes three steps: 1) equilibrium run, 2) 227 spin-up run, and 3) transient run. In this study, we first used land use and land cover map in 228 1900, long-term mean climate during 1901-1930, the concentration levels of nitrogen deposition, 229 O₃ pollution, atmospheric CO₂ in 1900 to run the model to an equilibrium state (i.e., the inter-230 annual variations during 20 continuous years are less than 0.1 g C/m^2 , 0.1 g N/m^2 and 0.1 mm for 231 carbon, nitrogen and water pools, respectively). After model reached equilibrium state, a spin-up 232 run was implemented for 900 years using de-trended climate data during 1901-1930 (i.e., 30 233 234 spins with 30-year data each time). Finally, the model was run in transient mode with daily or annual environmental data from 1901 to 2010 to simulate CH₄ and N₂O fluxes. Model results 235 from 1981 to 2010 were used to analyze the spatial and temporal patterns of global CH₄ and N₂O 236 fluxes in this study. 237

238 Two simulation experiments were designed to achieve the study goals. 1) Baseline experiment: Transient input data during 1901-1980 for all environmental factors (i.e., climate, 239 land use, nitrogen deposition, ozone pollution, atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and nitrogen 240 fertilizer use) were fed into the DLEM model and then kept constant at the level of 1980 241 thereafter; 2) Combined experiment: All environmental factors changed with time during 1901-242 2010. The effects of multiple environmental changes on CH₄ and N₂O fluxes were the difference 243 between these two experiments. With this experiment design, the legacy effects of environmental 244 factors before 1981 were excluded. 245

246 2.3 Model evaluation and uncertainty analysis

247 In this study, we estimated the modeled uncertainty ranges for CH_4 and N_2O resulting 248 from variations in the most sensitive parameters. First, we conducted sensitivity analysis to

| 249 | identify the most sensitive parameters that affect terrestrial CH ₄ and N ₂ O fluxes. We selected |
|-----|---|
| 250 | about 10 parameters related to CH_4 and N_2O fluxes, respectively and assigned a variation range |
| 251 | of $\pm 20\%$ for each parameter. According to the simulation results driven by these individual |
| 252 | parameters, we selected the top 5 most sensitive parameters to conduct the uncertainty |
| 253 | simulation. Second, we assumed that each parameter follows normal distribution. Combined with |
| 254 | the prior knowledge of parameter range, we used improved Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) |
| 255 | approach to randomly select an ensemble of 100 sets of parameter values to do model |
| 256 | simulations. Finally, the outliers for the simulation results were excluded before analyzing the |
| 257 | uncertainty range. The 95% confidence intervals were calculated and reported. |
| 258 | The evaluations of DLEM simulation results against field observations, regional |
| 259 | inventory, and other modeling results for both CH_4 and N_2O fluxes were conducted in our |
| 260 | previous studies (Tian et al., 2010, 2011a, 2012b, c, 2014; Xu et al., 2010, 2012, Ren et al., 2011; |
| 261 | Wang et al., 2012; Melton et al., 2013). These evaluations indicated that DLEM is able to |
| 262 | capture the daily, annual, and spatial variations in the observed CH_4 and N_2O fluxes. In this |
| 263 | study, we evaluated the DLEM-estimated CH_4 and N_2O fluxes against over 50 selected field |
| 264 | observations worldwide with various land cover types including forest, grassland, wetland, and |
| 265 | cropland (some field observation data were used in our previous publications, Table 1). We |
| 266 | found that most of the DLEM-simulated CH_4 and N_2O fluxes fell in the observation range. The |
| 267 | observed CH_4 and N_2O fluxes showed large variability within and among research sites, |
| 268 | indicating the complex impacts of multiple environmental factors on CH_4 and N_2O fluxes. In |
| 269 | addition, we compare DLEM- simulated CH_4 and N_2O fluxes with inversion estimates at global |
| 270 | scale (Fig 2). Our estimates of CH ₄ fluxes in wetlands and natural soils are compared with |
| 271 | CarbonTracker results (Bruhwiler et al., 2014), while the simulated-N ₂ O emissions from |
| | |

agricultural and natural soils area are compared with Saikawa et al., (2013). It showed that the DLEM simulation results are quite close to top-down estimates in both magnitude and temporal variability, with a small RMSE (square root of the mean square error of predictions; *RMSE* = $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n}\sum(x_i - y_i)^2}$) of 10.61 Tg CH₄-C/yr and 2.08 Tg N₂O-N/yr, which is pretty small relative to the observed CH₄ and N₂O emissions. In *Discussion* section, we further addressed additional regional comparisons between DLEM simulation and other studies from multiple approaches including statistical extrapolation, inverse modeling and process-based modeling.

279

[Insert Table1 and Fig. 2 here]

280 2.4 Statistical analysis

The multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to explore the long-term changing trends of input data and CH_4 and N_2O fluxes. The Pearson correlation was conducted to evaluate the correlations between input data and CH_4 and N_2O fluxes. All the statistical analyses were conducted by using the software R-program (www.r-project.org); and the figures and maps were generated by Origin 8.0 and ArcGIS 9.2.

286 **3 Results**

287 **3.1 Global environmental change over past three decades**

From 1981 to 2010, air temperature and precipitation significantly increased by 0.02 $^{\circ}$ C/yr and 1.37 mm/yr, respectively (Table 2). Nitrogen fertilizer use, nitrogen deposition, atmospheric CO₂ concentration, cropland and urban land area continuously increased during the study period. The tropospheric O₃ concentration showed a slight increase before 1995 and a fast increase thereafter. Relative to a 30-year (1961-1990) average, precipitation increased in most 293 areas during the period 1981-2010. The largest increase occurred in South America, whereas annual precipitation decreased in the southern Africa, the northern India, and the southeastern 294 295 Australia (Fig. 3a). Air temperature increased in most areas, with the largest increase in the northern high-latitude region and a slight decrease in the South America and Oceania (Fig. 3b). 296 The highest nitrogen deposition rates were shown in the East and South Asia, while the highest 297 298 nitrogen fertilizer use rates were located in the eastern China. These regions experienced fast growth in population, urbanization, and industrialization during the past three decades. The 299 300 highest tropospheric ozone concentrations in 2005 were distributed along the northern mid-301 latitude region, such as the southeastern United States, the southern Europe, the central Asia, and the western China. 302

At continental scales, air temperature increased in all continents except for Oceania, with 303 the most rapid increase in Europe and Asia (Table 2). Precipitation significantly increased for 304 305 Africa and South America, while no significant trends were found for other continents. Nitrogen deposition and O₃ concentration (AOT40 index) increased significantly for all continents, with 306 the highest increasing rates in Asia over past three decades. Cropland area significantly changed 307 for all continents, with a decreasing trend in Europe and North America and an increasing trend 308 in Asia and Africa. Cropland fertilizer use significantly increased in the continents other than 309 310 Europe and the most rapid increase occurred in Asia. Air temperature increased for all climatic zones except the southern temperate zone, and the northern polar zone showed the most rapid 311 increase (Table 3). Precipitation increased significantly in the northern polar, northern tropical 312 313 and southern tropical zones. Nitrogen deposition increased significantly for all continents, with the fastest increase in the northern tropical zone. Cropland nitrogen fertilizer use amounts 314 increased significantly for most climatic zones except for the northern polar zone. Cropland area 315

decreased in the northern polar and northern temperate zones, while increased significantly in other climatic zones, with the most rapid growth in the northern tropical zone. Ozone concentration increased in the tropical and northern temperate zones, while no significant changes in other climatic zones.

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- 321

[Insert Tables. 2 and 3 Here]

[Insert Fig. 3 Here]

322

323 **3.2** Global budget of terrestrial CH₄ and N₂O fluxes

The estimated terrestrial CH₄ emission during 1981-2010 was averaged 144.39 ± 32.92 324 Tg C/yr (1 Tg = 10^{12} g), ranging from 136.45 ± 30.05 Tg C/yr in 1982 to 156.45 ± 36.19 Tg C/yr 325 in 2010. Among which, the upland soil uptake of CH₄ was -17.10±0.17 Tg C/yr. The terrestrial 326 N₂O emission was averaged 12.52 \pm 1.89 Tg N/yr, ranging from 10.53 \pm 1.52 Tg N/yr in 1982 327 to 16.65 \pm 2.80 Tg N/yr in 2010 (Fig. 4). Both CH₄ and N₂O showed a significant (p < 0.01) 328 increasing trend of 0.43 \pm 0.06 Tg C/yr for CH₄ and 0.14 \pm 0.02 Tg N/yr for N₂O over the study 329 period. The interannual variations in CH₄ and N₂O fluxes were roughly consistent ($R^2 = 0.87$; p 330 < 0.01), indicating a close relationship between CH₄ and N₂O fluxes. Significantly positive 331 correlations between air temperature and the model-estimated CH₄ ($R^2 = 0.73$, p<0.01) and N₂O 332 emissions ($R^2 = 0.71$, p<0.01) was observed, implying a strong positive feedback between 333 climate warming and CH₄/N₂O emissions. 334

In terms of global warming potential (100-yr horizon), the DLEM-estimated global CH₄ and N₂O emissions (i.e., 4.82 ± 1.10 Pg CO₂ eq/yr and 5.86 ± 0.89 Pg CO₂ eq/yr, respectively) could completely offset the terrestrial CO₂ sink (8.3 ± 4.3 Pg C/yr estimated by multiple process-

| 338 | based models, Le Quéré et al. 2012) over the recent three decades. It implies that global land |
|-----|--|
| 339 | ecosystem may act as a positive contributor to climate warming. |

340

[Insert Fig. 4 Here]

341 **3.3 Spatial distribution of terrestrial CH₄ and N₂O fluxes**

342 As expected from the distribution of wetlands and rice paddy fields, the South and Southeast Asia, tropical wetlands and river flood plains (e.g., Amazonia and the Pantanal) were 343 dominant hot-spots of CH₄ emission with values as high as 30 g C/m²/yr (Fig. 5). In these 344 regions, more CH₄ production precursor-DOC was produced due to the higher biomass, primary 345 production, and litter decomposition rate. In contrast, the northern high-latitude regions (e.g., 346 Alaska, the northern Canada, West Siberia and the northern Eurasia) that have large wetland 347 area, were less substantial CH₄ emission sources (~10 g C/m²/yr). Larger CH₄ sinks (i.e., > 0.15348 g $C/m^2/yr$) were found in the tropical and subtropical uplands due to more substrate and 349 favorable climate conditions for methanotrophy. Similar to CH₄, N₂O released at rates of larger 350 than 0.3 g $N/m^2/yr$ in most areas of the tropical region as well as intensively fertilized cropland, 351 while smaller emissions occurred in the high-latitude and sparse vegetated area. In general, N₂O 352 353 emissions decreased with air temperature from the low- to high-latitude region, indicating air temperature was one of the most important factors controlling N_2O emissions. To more clearly 354 identify the spatial distribution patterns of CH₄ and N₂O fluxes, we further divided the globe into 355 356 different latitudinal belts, biome types and continents.

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[Insert Fig. 5 Here]



360 Along the latitudinal gradient, CH_4 emissions peaked (8.06 Tg C/yr) at the latitudinal zones of $2-3^{\circ}$ S and $6-7^{\circ}$ S (Fig. 5), primarily due to large wetland area in Amazon river basin. 361 Another smaller peak for CH₄ emissions displayed at the northern high-latitude region (around 362 60° N). N₂O emissions peaked at the latitude zone of 6–7°N (0.43 Tg N/yr), which is primarily 363 due to large area of fertilized cropland. We further grouped the global terrestrial ecosystems into 364 365 five major climate zones: the northern polar zone (> 60° N), the northern temperate zone (30° N– 60°N), the northern tropical zone (0°-30°N), the southern tropical zone (0°-30°S), and the 366 southern temperate zone (30°S-60°S). All climatic zones were net atmospheric sources of CH₄ 367 368 and N₂O emissions (Table 4). The largest CH₄ emissions occurred in the southern tropical zone, followed by the northern tropical zone, and the least in the southern temperate zone. The tropical 369 zone (both southern and northern) totally accounted for about 80% of the total CH₄ emissions. 370 The largest N_2O emissions occurred in the northern tropical zone, followed by the southern 371 tropical zone, and the least was found in the southern temperate zone. The tropical zone also 372 373 accounted for about 75% of the total N₂O emissions.

Our simulation experiments indicated that trends in the CH₄ and N₂O fluxes varied 374 significantly among various climatic zones (Fig. 6). Over the study period, the most rapid 375 376 increase in CH_4 emission was observed in the northern and southern tropical zone (0.16Tg C/yr), followed by the northern temperate zone (0.07 Tg C/yr) and northern polar zone (0.046 Tg C/yr) 377 while no significant changing trend was found for the southern temperate zone. Similarly, faster 378 379 increase in the N_2O emissions occurred in northern tropical and southern tropical zones (0.039– 0.078 Tg N/yr) than other zones. No significant changing trend in N₂O emission was observed in 380 381 the southern temperate zone; however, larger interannual variations were found in this zone compared to other zones. The highest CH_4 and N_2O emissions occurred in 2010 for all the climate zones except for the northern polar and southern temperate zones.

384

[Insert Fig. 6 Here]

385

[Insert Table 4 Here]

386 3.5 Terrestrial CH₄ and N₂O fluxes and change trends for different biome types

We further compared the magnitude of CH_4 and N_2O fluxes and their change trends 387 during 1981-2010 for different biome types (Table 5; Fig. 7). The largest CH₄ emissions were 388 from natural wetland (130.74 Tg C/yr), followed by cropland (30.82 Tg C/yr). The highest CH₄ 389 uptake occurred in forest (-6.43 Tg C/yr) and shrubland (1.90-4.38 Tg C/yr). Multiple 390 391 environmental changes had caused wetland CH₄ emissions to increase from 129.01 Tg C/yr in 1981 to 137.67 Tg C/yr in 2010. From 1981 to 2010, forest and shrubland showed a significant 392 (p<0.05) increasing trend in CH₄ uptake, with a rate of 0.014Tg C/yr and 0.0061 Tg C/yr, 393 394 respectively (Fig. 7). Wetlands and rice field showed a more significant (p < 0.01) increasing trend in CH₄ emission, with a rate of 0.25 Tg C/yr and 0.54 Tg C/yr, respectively, while no 395 396 significant change trend was found for grassland. Rice field expansion (15% as shown in Table 397 2) contributed to 12% of the increased cropland CH_4 emissions and the remaining 88% increase 398 resulted from other environmental changes including climate, atmospheric composition, and land 399 management practices. It is notable that CH₄ uptake in upland ecosystems (i.e., forest, shrubland 400 and grassland) exhibited a faster increase from 2000 to 2010 compared to previous two decades.

401 The largest emissions of N_2O were from forest (4.28 Tg N/yr), followed by cropland 402 (3.36 Tg N/yr), and the least was from grassland (0.82 Tg N/yr). Most of the forest N_2O 403 emissions came from tropical region. Compared to forests in other climatic zones, tropical 404 forests had larger area and higher nitrogen transformation rate. The N₂O emissions significantly increased for all the biome types from 1981 to 2010 (Fig. 7). N₂O emissions kept a slight (p >405 0.1) increase from 1981 to 2000 for forest, shrubland and grassland, but a significantly faster 406 increase was found during 2000-2010. Cropland displayed the largest increase in N₂O emission 407 (0.08 Tg N/yr; $R^2 = 0.93$; p < 0.01), which was primarily due to rapid cropland expansion and 408 increasing nitrogen fertilizer uses (Table 2). Cropland area has expanded by 7.8% (~11 million 409 ha) since 1981, and nitrogen fertilizer uses have increased by 66% (~33 Tg N/yr). Increased 410 nitrogen deposition and air temperature were the major causes of increased N₂O emissions in the 411 412 non-managed biomes.

- 413
- 414

[Insert Table 5 Here]

[Insert Fig. 7 Here]

415 **3.6** Change trends in terrestrial CH₄ and N₂O fluxes for different continents

At continental scale, significant increasing trends (p < 0.01) in CH₄ emissions were found 416 for all continents except Africa and Europe (Fig. 8). Asia showed the highest CH₄ emission and 417 418 the most rapid increase (0.56 Tg C/yr, p < 0.01). CH₄ emissions from Europe showed a large decrease since the early 1990s. Significant increasing trends in N₂O emissions were found in all 419 continents except Europe and Oceania. N₂O emissions had no obvious change trend before 2000 420 421 in Europe, but a rapid increase occurred since then. The most rapid N₂O emission increases in Asia (0.056 Tg N/yr, p < 0.01) was caused by larger increases in nitrogen fertilizer amounts and 422 nitrogen deposition rates compared to other continents (Table 2). Asia and South America acted 423 as the largest CH_4 and N_2O sources with the highest increasing trends, suggesting that these two 424 continents will continue to play a major role in greenhouse gas budget in the future. It is also 425

426 notable that the interannual variations of CH₄ and N₂O emissions were very similar ($R^2 = 0.89$; p

427 < 0.01) in Asia, implying a close linkage between these two gases across this continent.

428

[Insert Fig. 8 Here]

429

430 4 Discussion

431 **4.1** Comparisons with other estimation of global CH₄ and N₂O budgets

432 The simultaneous estimation of global CH₄ and N₂O fluxes shown in this study were in-433 line with previous estimates (Table 6). The DLEM-estimated global CH₄ flux was 139.57-153.69 Tg C/yr for the 1990s, which fell in the range of 86-200 Tg C/yr estimated by other investigators 434 (Fung et al., 1991; Houweling et al., 1999; Ridgwell et al., 1999). This study estimated that the 435 436 global natural wetland emitted 130.98 Tg C/yr in the 1990s, which is higher than 92 Tg C/yr estimated by Cao et al. (1998), but similar to the estimate by Liu (1996) and slightly lower than 437 the average value from multiple process-based models (142.5 Tg C/yr; Melton et al. 2013). Our 438 study reported that 128.19 Tg C/yr was released from global natural wetland in the 1980s, 439 440 slightly higher than a previous estimate of 110 Tg C/yr (Matthews and Fung, 1987). Our estimated CH₄ emission from rice field (29.30-35.17 Tg C/yr) was similar with most previous 441 estimates. We considered model driving forces (e.g., nitrogen fertilizer amounts, ozone pollution, 442 443 and nitrogen deposition rate), which were not included in previous work (e.g., Cao et al., 1998; Chen and Prinn, 2005; Patra et al., 2009). DLEM-estimated upland CH₄ uptake during 1996-444 2005 (-15.01 ~ -13.45 Tg C/yr) was slightly lower than the previous estimates (-19.5 - -25.0 Tg 445 C/yr). 446

In addition to divergent model representation of biogeochemical processes and parameter 447 values, different input data might be a major cause of the large discrepancies among these 448 estimates for CH₄ (Meng et al., 2012; Ito and Inatomi et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2011; Melton et al., 449 2013). For example, knowledge of wetland distribution and area was highly uncertain. Through 450 multiple models comparisons, Melton et al. (2013) reported that the estimate of global wetland 451 area ranged from 7.1×10^6 to 26.9×10^6 km². Even the inventory data largely varied among 452 different data sources ranging from 4.3×10^6 to 12.9×10^6 km². In the future, there is a necessity 453 to integrate all data sources into a most accurate data set for model use. Furthermore, large 454 455 uncertainty might be also resulted from various climate data sources. Several series of climate data were previously used by the global models to simulated GHG fluxes. For example, CRU 456 (Mitchell and Jones 2005), CRUNCEP and NCEP reanalysis (Kalnay et al. 1996) data were used 457 by different model simulations (e.g., Bousquet et al., 2011; Ito and Inatomi et al., 2012; Melton 458 et al., 2013) in which large differences exist at both spatial and temporal scales. 459

460

[Insert Table 6 Here]

This study reported global N₂O emission in a range of 10.49-14.30 Tg N/yr during 1981-461 2000, which was close to an empirical estimate of 13.31 Tg N/yr (Xu et al., 2008). The estimated 462 N₂O flux during 1990-1994 (11.51-12.15 Tg N/yr) was slightly higher than a process-based 463 modeling result (11.33 Tg N/yr; Liu, 1996) and an inverse modeling result (9.5 Tg N/yr; Nevison 464 et al., 1996). In our study, we considered the manure application (no livestock management), 465 nitrogen fertilizer use, nitrogen deposition, nitrogen fixation and agricultural biomass burning, 466 467 making our estimated cropland N₂O flux slightly higher than the estimates from FAO/IFA (2001), Davison (2009) and Bouwman et al. (2002), which did not consider the impacts of 468 nitrogen deposition and fixation. DLEM-estimated N₂O emissions from cropland were close to 469

470 most of previous estimates (e.g., Davison, 2009; Bouwman et al., 2002; US EPA, 2010). Our estimates for natural land N₂O emissions were slightly higher than those from Bowden (1986), 471 Saikawa et al. (2013), and US EPA (2010), and significantly higher than the estimate from the 472 statistical extrapolation (Zhuang et al., 2012). DLEM estimated N₂O emission from global 473 grassland and forest were consistent with the empirical extrapolations by Xu et al. (2008) and 474 475 Zhang et al. (2010). The discrepancies in input datasets and estimation methods might be the major causes of these differences. DLEM used multiple environmental factors, including climate, 476 477 nitrogen deposition, atmospheric CO_2 , tropospheric ozone, nitrogen fertilization and land use 478 change, as model input, while most previous studies only considered one or a subset of these factors. 479

480

481 **4.2 Regional difference in CH₄ and N₂O fluxes**

482

Based on measurements and extrapolation, Bartlett and Harriss (1993) and US EPA 483 484 (1993) estimated that 60.55% of CH₄ emissions were from tropical wetland. Matthews and Fung (1987) estimated that only about 28.83% was from tropical region, instead, over 58.56% was 485 from the high-latitude region. However, with the same methods but more observations, Fung et 486 al. (1991) updated their early estimate and reported that about 69.57% of CH₄ emissions were 487 from tropical region. Based on eight process-based ecosystem models, Melton et al. (2013) 488 estimated that about 66.32% of CH₄ emissions were from tropical region. The inverse modeling 489 490 approach estimated an even higher emission from tropical region (81.01%, Hein et al., 1997; 83.52%, Wang et al., 2004; 70.75%; Bousquet et al., 2006). Combining all these estimates, US 491 492 EPA (2010) reached a consensus that about 75% of CH_4 emissions were from the tropical region. 493 Our estimate of 79.22% (upland CH_4 uptake is not separated) is close to this value. The

increasing CH₄ emission from the northern high latitude and tropical region is also consistent with the estimate from Dlugokencky et al. (2009). We estimated that about 80% of N₂O emissions were from the tropical region. Based on observations and inverse methods, Prinn et al. (1990) also reported that 52-68% of the N₂O emissions were from the tropical region during 1978-1988. In contrast, using an inversing modeling approach, Hirsch et al. (2006) showed a lower estimate of N₂O emissions from 30°S to 90°S (0 to 4%) and a higher N₂O emission from 0° to 30°N (50 to 64%) during 1998 to 2001.

501 Due to different spatial and temporal change patterns of multiple environmental factors, 502 the change trends of CH₄ and N₂O fluxes were greatly different among continents and climate zones. In Asia, land cover changed dramatically due to fast-growing population and 503 504 industrialization during the past three decades and was primarily characterized by conversions of 505 upland natural ecosystems to rice fields, which was the major contributor to the increasing CH_4 emission. In addition, nitrogen fertilizer use amount in Asia increased the most rapidly compared 506 507 to other continents (Table 2) and led to substantial increase in N_2O emission. Based on inventory data, Kurokawa et al. (2013) found that CH₄ and N₂O increased by 32% and 18%, respectively 508 from 2000 to 2008 in Asia. By using inversion modeling, Saikawa et al. (2013) also reported that 509 510 N_2O emissions from agricultural soil increased by 56% (0.055 Tg/yr) in Asia (i.e., Northern Asia + Southern Asia) from 1995 to 2008. In North America, land use kept relatively stable and 511 climate variability became the major contributing factors for CH₄ emissions, while both climate 512 513 and nitrogen fertilizer uses contributed the most to N_2O emissions as indicated by our previous studies (i.e., Tian et al., 2010, 2012b; Xu et al., 2010, 2012a). DLEM simulations in Europe 514 showed a slight decreasing trend in CH₄ emission, and a less significant increase in N₂O 515 516 compared to other continents. Over shorter period (1990-2011), Saikawa et al. (2013) and EEA

(2013) reported that both agricultural and natural soil N₂O emissions had no significant changing
trends in Europe.

519

520 4.3 Climate change and CH₄ and N₂O emissions

521 522

Previous studies indicated that climate variability and change determined inter-annual 523 variations in terrestrial CH₄ and N₂O fluxes (Frolking and Crill, 1994; King, 1997; Xu et al., 524 2008, 2010, 2012a; Tian et al., 2010; Dijkstra et al., 2012). A field experiment found the 525 526 hierarchical control on N_2O emission in forest, and concluded that precipitation controls the instant N₂O flux pattern while air temperature determines the relatively long-term regime 527 (Brumme et al., 1999). Based on field experiments of 74 plots, Gundersen et al. (2012) found 528 529 that increased air temperature and precipitation greatly increased CH_4 and N_2O emissions, with stronger impacts from increasing air temperature compared to increasing precipitation. A 530 significant correlation was also found between air temperature and atmospheric CH₄ 531 concentration during pre-industrial period (Wuebbles and Hayhoe, 2002; Chappellaz et al., 532 1993a, b). An even stronger positive feedback between N_2O emissions and air temperature 533 (about 1 Tg N/yr/°C) was found by Xu et al. (2012b). In this study, model simulation also 534 revealed a high correlation between CH₄/N₂O and air temperature ($R^2 = 0.73$ for CH₄ and 0.71 535 for N₂O; p<0.01), implying a strong positive feedback between climate warming and CH₄/N₂O 536 537 emissions. Global air temperature significantly increased (0.024 $^{\circ}$ C/yr; Tables 2, 3) from 1981 to 2010, with the highest increase in the northern polar region (0.039 °C/yr). Climate warming in 538 539 the northern high-latitude region was reported as the most important stimulating factor for 540 increases in atmospheric CH₄ and N₂O (e.g., Mosier et al., 1998; Cantarel et al., 2011; Koven et

541 al., 2011). In our study, we also found that the increases in both CH_4 and N_2O emissions were primarily (>50%) attributed to air temperature change in the > 60° N climatic zone. We found a 542 smaller positive correlation between CH₄/N₂O and precipitation ($R^2 = 0.37$ for CH₄ and 0.39 for 543 N₂O), implying that increasing precipitation (Table 2) contributed to the increasing CH₄ and N₂O 544 fluxes but the correlation was relatively weaker than that of temperature at global and continental 545 546 scales.

547

4.4 Change trends of CH₄ and N₂O fluxes for different biomes

In this study, we found that the increase in CH₄ emissions was primarily due to the 548 effects of multiple environmental changes on wetland and rice paddy land. Multiple 549 550 environmental changes had led to an increase in natural wetland CH₄ emission from 129.01 Tg C/vr in 1981 to 137.67 Tg C/vr in 2010. Through data synthesis, Kirschke et al. (2013) also 551 found a steady increase in wetland CH₄ emission based on the bottom-up estimation approach, 552 with the highest increase of about 15 Tg C/yr from 1985 to 2010. We found that rice field area 553 has increased by $0.28 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ from 1981 to 2010, and CH₄ emission from paddy land 554 increased by about 4 Tg C (Fig. 7C). Many previous studies attributed the increased atmospheric 555 CH₄ concentration to increasing natural wetland emissions (e.g., Chen and Prinn, 2006; Kirschke 556 et al., 2013; Saikawa et al., 2013), but our study suggested that cropland was among the most 557 558 important contributors. US EPA (2006) predicted rapid increases in CH_4 emissions from rice cultivation from 1990 (17.64 Tg C/yr) to 2010 (20.37 Tg C/yr), with a 15.5% increase. Kirschke 559 560 et al. (2013) found an even more rapid increase in natural wetland CH₄ emissions from 2005 to 561 2010, which was also found in our study (Figs. 5A and 8C). For all the upland biomes (i.e., forest, shrubland and grassland), our model estimation showed CH_4 uptake increase was larger 562 after 2000, indicating an acceleration of both CH₄ emission and uptake in the recent decade. 563

564 We found that cropland N_2O emissions constantly increased during 1981-2010, while natural biomes showed a more rapid increase during 2000-2010. By synthesizing most recent 565 studies on global agricultural N₂O emissions, Reay et al. (2012) and US EPA (2011) indicated 566 that N₂O emissions from agricultural soil increased by about 1 Tg N/yr from 1990 to 2010. We 567 had a similar finding with agricultural N₂O emission increasing by 1.4 Tg N/yr during the same 568 569 period (Fig. 7E). By using inversion modeling, Saikawa et al. (2013) also estimated an N_2O emission increase of 1.27 Tg N/yr (from 2.65 Tg N/yr in 1995 to 3.92 Tg N/yr in 2008) in global 570 agricultural land. The increases in global cropland area and nitrogen fertilizer amounts, as well as 571 572 climate change were the major causes for rapid N₂O emissions increase in cropland (Mosier et al., 1998). Davidson (2009) combined both top-down and bottom-up approaches and estimated 573 that about 2.5% fertilized nitrogen was released during 1860 to 2005. Considering nitrogen 574 fertilizer amount increasing from ~50 Tg N/yr in 1981 to ~84 Tg N/yr in 2005, we can conclude 575 that during 1981-2005, increase of about 0.85 Tg N₂O-N/yr was directly derived from the rising 576 nitrogen fertilizer use. The increases in N₂O emissions for natural biomes might be primarily due 577 to climate warming and nitrogen deposition. Based on manipulative field experiments, Dijkstra 578 et al. (2012) and Cantarel et al. (2011) found that climate warming significantly increase N_2O 579 emissions in grassland. Nitrogen deposition could greatly increase carbon storage in the 580 terrestrial ecosystems and in the meanwhile increasing N₂O emissions for natural biomes (Liu et 581 al., 2009; Lu et al., 2013). 582

583 **4.5 Uncertainties and implications**

584 Due to the complexity of the biogeochemical processes related to CH_4 and N_2O fluxes 585 (Conrad, 1996; Xu et al., 2008; Tian et al., 2012a), some uncertainties need to be considered 586 when interpreting the modeling results. First, uncertainties might be resulted from the 587 simplification of modeling mechanisms for CH_4 and N_2O production and consumption. DLEM runs at daily time step and might miss pulses in CH₄ and N₂O fluxes at sub-daily scale. These 588 high pulses may substantially contribute to the annual fluxes (Brumme et al., 1999). Studies have 589 found that the actual ebullition process may be different from the mechanisms applied in most 590 current process-based models (Baird et al., 2004; Kellner et al., 2005; Strack et al., 2005). 591 592 Although these studies pointed out the possible drawbacks of current modeling representations for this process, no more reliable method has been put forward yet. Additional field or 593 experimental investigations are needed to improve model representation of CH₄ ebullition. 594 595 Second, the parameters uncertainties might lead to estimation biases. For example, it is important to take into account differences of CH₄ production and oxidation in tropical and northern 596 597 wetlands, which have not been well documented yet (Blais et al., 2005). Third, the uncertainties in input data also need to be considered. For example, CH₄ and N₂O fluxes have been reported at 598 an order of magnitude difference among different wetland classes (Barlett and Harriss, 1993; 599 Song et al., 2009), thus the small discrepancy in wetland area and wetland classification could 600 lead to a substantial difference in regional estimation. Meanwhile, the varied wetland extent 601 along the study period is one of the major factor influencing inter-annual variation in CH₄ fluxes 602 603 (Ringeval et al., 2010; Melton et al., 2013). As pointed out in a recent model intercomparison project (Wania et al. 2013; Melton et al. 2013), to more accurately simulate CH₄ fluxes, current 604 process-based models need to be improved in several aspects including the wetland extent 605 606 dynamics, hydrological cycle, etc. N₂O emission from pasture management (i.e., irrigation, fertilization, grazing rotation, etc.) may contribute a great portion to the global N_2O flux (Ambus 607 608 and Robertson, 2006; Li et al., 1996); however, it is not considered in our study.

609 These findings have important implications for mitigation strategies, which include increasing efficiency of nitrogen use in crop production. In our previous studies (Tian et al. 610 611 2011a, 2012a; Lu et al., 2012), we found that some regions in the world are experiencing excessive nitrogen input. Less nitrogen input will maintain the same food productivity but reduce 612 the risks for higher N₂O emissions, as well as soil and water nitrogen pollutions. To slow down 613 614 future global warming, policy makers should pay special attention to reducing CH_4 and N_2O emissions in the meanwhile increasing carbon sequestration. Currently, many management 615 616 practices or governmental policies were implemented either for increasing carbon sequestrations 617 or for reducing carbon emissions, such as intensive management in cropland and planted forests, as well as expanding the area of energy crops to produce "clean" energy. These measures may 618 619 effectively increase carbon sequestration or reduce carbon emission; however, their impacts on CH₄ and N₂O fluxes are still uncertain (Melillo et al., 2009; Murdiyarso et al., 2010; Tian et al., 620 621 2012b). Comprehensive considerations for the three most potent gases are necessary before 622 putting forward any management practices or policies over large area. Future studies are also called for simultaneously investigating net fluxes of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O in both field experiments 623 and regional estimations. 624

625

626 5 Conclusions

As most of previous studies addressed only one of non-CO₂ GHGs (CH₄ and N₂O) and one or a subset of environmental factors controlling emissions of these gases, here we provided the first concurrent estimation of global CH₄ and N₂O budgets and spatiotemporal patterns in the past three decades (1981-2010) by using a process-based, coupled biogeochemical model driven by multiple environmental factors, which includes climate variability, rising atmospheric CO₂, 632 increasing nitrogen deposition, tropospheric ozone pollution, land use change and nitrogen fertilizer use. We found that both global CH₄ and N₂O emissions largely increased from 1981 to 633 634 2010 resulting from global environmental changes. Large proportion of the CH_4 and N_2O emissions and the most rapid increase were found in the tropical zone, suggesting this region 635 could be a hot spot for mitigating greenhouse gases. Although climate change also enhanced CH₄ 636 637 and N_2O emissions in the northern high-latitude region, its increasing rate was much lower than that of the tropical region. Methane uptakes slightly increased in the upland ecosystems (e.g., 638 639 forest, dry cropland, shrubland and grassland) while CH₄ emission largely increased in the 640 lowland ecosystems (e.g., natural wetland and rice field). N₂O emission increased in all the ecosystems with the highest increasing rate found in cropland, which is primarily resulted from 641 642 agronomic management practices (e.g., nitrogen fertilizer use, irrigation and manure application). High correlations between air temperature and CH_4/N_2O emissions indicate a 643 positive feedback between climate warming and terrestrial emissions of CH_4 and N_2O . Given 644 645 large increase in CH_4 and N_2O emission at global scale, we suggest that these two non- CO_2 GHGs together with CO_2 have to be simultaneously considered when evaluating if a policy is 646 effective or efficient to reduce global warming in the future. 647

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 2004.
- 1205 1206

| Location | Land cover type | DLEM | Observation | Reference |
|---|------------------|---|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| CH ₄ fluxes (g C/m ² /yr) | | | | |
| 19°E, 68°N | Mire | 6.1737 | 0.13-30.5 | Svensson et al., 1984 |
| 147.85W,64.8667N | Tundra | 7.2921 | 0.47 - 8.05 | Whalen et al., 1988 |
| 47°32'N, 93°28'W | Peatland | 19.15 | 3.5-65.7 | Dise et al., 1993 |
| 113°W, 55°N | Sedge meadow | 18.92 | 21.7 | Vitt et al., 1990 |
| 66°W, 54°N | Fen | 9.34 | 1.3-9.8 | Moore et al., 1990 |
| 4°W, 55°N | Bog | 9.29 | 1.3-9.3 | Clymo et al., 1971 |
| 21°W, 74.5°N | Bog | 7.44 | 0 - 66.96 | Christensen et al., 2000 |
| 2.90°S, 54.95°W | Forest | -0.17 | -0.120.37 | Davidson et al., 2008 |
| 105°W, 53°N | Forest | -0.041 | -0.063 | Hatson et al., 2009 |
| 5°E, 52°N | Peatland | 28.23 | 14.5-68.9 | Hendriks et al., 2007 |
| 133°31'E,47°35'N | Freshwater marsh | 14.5±3.0 * | 11.8±2.6 * | Lu et al., 2012 |
| 112°11'E,23°11'N | Tropical forest | -0.115* | -0.145±0.02* | Lu et al., 2012 |
| 90.11°W,29.8°'N | Woody wetland | 21.18 | -2.63 - 24.9 | Yu et al., 2008 |
| 84.67°W,45.57°N | Trembling aspen | -0.1±0.07 | 0.271 | Ambus et al., 1999 |
| 122.23°W,37.4°N | Grassland | -0.30±0.01 - -0.38±0.05 [#] | -0.13±0.01 0.45±0.14 [#] | Blankinship et al., 2010 |
| 95.167°W,47.25°N | Rice | 342.18±38.05 | 369.75 | Harriss et al., 1985 |
| 118°E,32°'N | Rice paddies | 22.99 | 18.14±21.17 | Xiong et al., 2007 |
| 91.55°W,29.87°N | Wetland | 52-57 | 4.3-160 | DeLaune et al., 1983 |
| 24.15°E,61.8°N | Boreal Fen | 26.67 | 0 - 65.54 | Haapanala et al., 2006 |
| 24.02°E,61.83°N | Boreal Fen | 29.5 | 6.55 - 22.93 | Rinne et al., 2007 |
| 88.42°E,21.53°N | Flood Forest | 35.85 | -0.50 - 65.84 | Mukhopadhyay et al., 2002 |

1208 Table 1 DLEM validation against site-level measurement of CH_4 and N_2O fluxes

| N_2O fluxes (g N/m ² /yr) | | | | | | | |
|--|-------------|-------|---------------|---|--|--|--|
| 63° W, 10° S | Forest | 0.1 | 0.05-0.322 | Garcia 2003 | | | |
| 94° W, 3° S | Forest | 0.13 | 0.08-0.22 | Matson 1987 | | | |
| 48 °E, 1° N | Agriculture | 0.17 | 0.08-0.21 | Dambreville 2008 | | | |
| 79° E, 9° N | Forest | 0.17 | 0.09-0.73 | Koehler 2009 | | | |
| 84° W, 10° N | Forest | 0.17 | 0.08-0.58 | Keller 1994; Kristell | | | |
| 76° W, 10° N | Forest | 0.16 | 0.15-0.54 | Matson 1987 | | | |
| 84° W, 10° N | Agriculture | 0.38 | 0.029-0.75 | Veldkamp 1997; Weitz 1998; Weitz 2001 | | | |
| 65° W, 17° N | Fallow | 0.22 | 0.007-1.92 | Ericson 2001 | | | |
| 65° W, 18° N | Forest | 0.22 | 0.002-0.077 | Erickson 2002 | | | |
| 98° W, 19° N | Agriculture | 0.262 | 0.14-0.29 | Luqueno 2009 | | | |
| 83° W, 19° N | Forest | 0.03 | 0-0.022 | Matson 1987 | | | |
| 105.03° W, 19.3° N | Forest | 0.06 | 0.009-0.048 | Davidson 1993 | | | |
| 100° W, 21° N | Agriculture | 0.1 | 0.08-0.19 | Perez 2004 | | | |
| 157° W, 21° N | Forest | 0.04 | 0.002-0.007 | Vitousek 1989 | | | |
| 91° W, 35° N | Agriculture | 0.07 | 0.01-0.05 | Cochran 1997 | | | |
| 104° W, 38.5° N | Agriculture | 0.24 | 0.082-0.25 | Bronson 1992; Delago 1996; Mosier 1986 | | | |
| 107° W, 39° N | Agriculture | 0.02 | 0.198 | Mosier and Hutchinson 1981 | | | |
| 104° W, 40° N | Agriculture | 0.03 | 0.026-0.27 | Mosier 1982 | | | |
| 102° W, 41° N | Agriculture | 0.022 | 0.009-0.011 | Kessavalou 1998 | | | |
| 72.5° W, 41.5° N | Forest | 0.02 | 0.001-0.002 | Bowden 1990 | | | |
| 72.5° W, 43.5° N | Forest | 0.05 | 0.003 - 0.006 | Castro 1993 | | | |

| Forest | 0.08 | 0.019-0.21 | Goodroad 1984 |
|-------------|---|---|---|
| Deciduous | 0.04 | 0.091 | Keller 1983 |
| Forest | 0.03 | 0.001 | Castro 1993 |
| Agriculture | 0.11 | 0.13-0.96 | Flessa 1995; Ruser |
| Agriculture | 0.02 | 0.025-0.157 | Chang 1998; Hao 2001 |
| Forest | 0.06 | 0.004-0.12 | Butterbach 1997 |
| Agriculture | 0.007 | 0.007 | Corre 1999 |
| Agriculture | 0.026 | 0.011-0.071 | Lemke 1998 |
| Agriculture | 0.03 | 0.03 | Parela 2006 |
| Agriculture | 0.06 | 0.62-0.73 | Regina 2004 |
| Agriculture | 0.26 | 0.033-0.051 | Towprayoon 2005 |
| Agriculture | 0.6 | 0-0.21 | Shang 2011 |
| Agriculture | 0.17 | -5.03 - 2.9 | Hadi 2010 |
| Agriculture | 0.03 | 0.003-0.18 | Liu 2010; Wang 2011; Zou 2005 |
| Agriculture | 0.43 | 0.18-2.53 | Hou 2012; Peng 2011 |
| Agriculture | 0.09 | 0.046-0.057 | Jiao 2005 |
| Agriculture | 0.229 | 0.34-1.2 | Hadi 2010 |
| Cropland | 0.041 | -0.88 - 5.07 | Desjardins et al., 2012 |
| Cropland | 0.074 | 0.079 | Molodovskaya et al., 2012 |
| Cropland (| 0.135±0.2 | -0.04 - 1.99 | Wagner-Riddle et al., 1997 |
| Cropland 0 | .01 - 0.03 | 0.04 - 0.18 | Kim et al., 2010 |
| | ForestDeciduousForestAgricultureAgricultureForestAgricultureAgricultureAgricultureAgricultureAgricultureAgricultureAgricultureAgricultureAgricultureCoroplandCroplandOropland <td< td=""><td>Forest 0.08 Deciduous 0.04 Forest 0.03 Agriculture 0.11 Agriculture 0.02 Forest 0.06 Agriculture 0.007 Agriculture 0.026 Agriculture 0.026 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.06 Agriculture 0.06 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.04 Agriculture 0.17 Agriculture 0.13 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.041 Cropland 0.074 Cropland 0.135±0.2 Cropland 0.01 - 0.03</td><td>Forest 0.08 0.019-0.21 Deciduous 0.04 0.091 Forest 0.03 0.001 Agriculture 0.11 0.13-0.96 Agriculture 0.02 0.025-0.157 Forest 0.06 0.004-0.12 Agriculture 0.007 0.007 Agriculture 0.026 0.011-0.071 Agriculture 0.03 0.03 Agriculture 0.06 0.62-0.73 Agriculture 0.26 0.033-0.051 Agriculture 0.66 0.021 Agriculture 0.61 0.03-0.18 Agriculture 0.17 -5.03 - 2.9 Agriculture 0.03 0.003-0.18 Agriculture 0.03 0.003-0.18 Agriculture 0.43 0.18-2.53 Agriculture 0.229 0.34-1.2 Cropland 0.074 0.079 Cropland 0.135±0.2 -0.04 - 1.99 Cropland 0.01 - 0.03 0.04 - 0.18</td></td<> | Forest 0.08 Deciduous 0.04 Forest 0.03 Agriculture 0.11 Agriculture 0.02 Forest 0.06 Agriculture 0.007 Agriculture 0.026 Agriculture 0.026 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.06 Agriculture 0.06 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.04 Agriculture 0.17 Agriculture 0.13 Agriculture 0.03 Agriculture 0.041 Cropland 0.074 Cropland 0.135±0.2 Cropland 0.01 - 0.03 | Forest 0.08 0.019-0.21 Deciduous 0.04 0.091 Forest 0.03 0.001 Agriculture 0.11 0.13-0.96 Agriculture 0.02 0.025-0.157 Forest 0.06 0.004-0.12 Agriculture 0.007 0.007 Agriculture 0.026 0.011-0.071 Agriculture 0.03 0.03 Agriculture 0.06 0.62-0.73 Agriculture 0.26 0.033-0.051 Agriculture 0.66 0.021 Agriculture 0.61 0.03-0.18 Agriculture 0.17 -5.03 - 2.9 Agriculture 0.03 0.003-0.18 Agriculture 0.03 0.003-0.18 Agriculture 0.43 0.18-2.53 Agriculture 0.229 0.34-1.2 Cropland 0.074 0.079 Cropland 0.135±0.2 -0.04 - 1.99 Cropland 0.01 - 0.03 0.04 - 0.18 |

^{1209 *} unit is $g C/m^2/growing season; # unit is mg C/m^2/day.$

- 1212Table 2 Annual change rates of multiple environmental factors for different continents from
- 1213 1981 to 2010

| Environmental factors | Asia | North America | Europe | Africa | South America | Oceania | Global |
|--|---------|------------------|---------|---------|------------------|---------|---------|
| Air temperature (°C/yr) | 0.035** | 0.030** | 0.039** | 0.032** | 0.016** | 0.0079 | 0.026** |
| Precipitation (mm/yr) | 0.78 | 0.51 | 0.56 | 2.26** | 3.50** | 2.01 | 0.97* |
| Shortwave radiation (W/m ² /yr) | 0.002 | -0.017 | 0.002 | 0.014 | 0.11** | 0.15* | 0.048** |
| N deposition (mg N/m ² /yr) | 8.70** | 2.20** | 4.70** | 5.20** | 7.20** | 0.50** | 5.60** |
| N fertilizer use (g N/m ² /yr) | 0.27** | 0.05* | -0.13* | 0.01* | 0.11** | 0.13** | 0.093** |
| Ozone (ppb-hr/month) | 58.6** | 40.71** | 28.86** | 47.11** | 7.97** | 0.05* | 32.87** |
| Cropland $(10^4 \text{ km}^2/\text{yr})$ | 2.52** | -0.091** | -1.45** | 1.96** | 0.72** | 0.17** | 4.01** |

1214 Note: * indicates significant change trend at P < 0.05 and ** indicates significant trend at P < 0.01.

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Table 3 Annual change rates of multiple environmental factors for different climate zones from1981 to 2010

| | Northern | Northern | Northern | Southern | Southern |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Environmental factors | polar | temperate | tropics | tropics | temperate |
| Air temperature (°C/yr) | 0.039** | 0.034** | 0.033** | 0.016** | 0.007 |
| Precipitation (mm/yr) | 0.42* | 0.066 | 2.68** | 3.42** | -0.68 |
| N deposition (mg N/m ² /yr) | 0.26** | 5.07** | 8.57** | 2.75** | 0.72** |
| N fertilizer use (g N/m ² /yr) | -0.082** | 0.068** | 0.10** | 0.040** | 0.02** |
| Ozone (ppb-hr/month) | -1.67 | 32.80* | 50.78** | 3.89* | 0.0008 |
| Cropland $(10^4 \text{ km}^2/\text{yr})$ | -0.01* | -0.42* | 2.72** | 0.83** | 0.70** |

1219 Note: * indicates significant change trend at P < 0.05 and ** indicates significant trend at P < 0.01.

| Variables | Time | Nouthour | Northern | Northorn | Southern | Southern |
|----------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|------------|---------------|------------|-----------------|
| | Time | Northern | temperate | Northern | tropical | temperate |
| | period* | polar zone | zone | tropical zone | zone | zone |
| CH ₄ fluxes | 1980s | 9.89±0.24 ^{&} | 18.44±0.36 | 39.08±0.81 | 72.55±0.80 | 0.16±0.08 |
| | 2000s | 10.80±0.26 | 19.76±0.57 | 41.65±0.95 | 75.27±0.49 | 0.23±0.12 |
| | Mean | 10.30±0.22 | 19.20±0.38 | 40.60±0.64 | 73.80±0.65 | 0.21±0.06 |
| | Change | 9.22 | 7.14 | 6.56 | 3.75 | 47.53 |
| | Tute (70) | | | | | |
| | 1980s | 0.34±0.01 | 2.47±0.05 | 4.43±0.19 | 3.93±0.15 | 0.14 ± 0.01 |
| N ₂ O fluxes | 2000s | 0.38±0.02 | 2.88±0.11 | 5.96±0.36 | 4.68±0.19 | 0.17±0.01 |
| | Mean | 0.35±0.01 | 2.63±0.08 | 5.11±0.28 | 4.27±0.15 | 0.15±0.01 |
| | Change | 14.37 | 16.54 | 34.67 | 19.03 | 23.96 |
| | rate (%) | | | | | |

Table 4 Average terrestrial CH₄ (Tg C/yr; 1 Tg = 10^{12} g) and N₂O (Tg N/yr) fluxes and their change rates (%) for different climate zones during 1981-2010 as simulated by the DLEM

* Mean annual fluxes in the period 1981-1990, 2001-2010 and 1981-2010. [&]The values are

1228 denoted as mean ± 2 SE (standard error).

Table 5 Average terrestrial CH₄ (Tg C/yr) and N₂O (Tg N/yr) fluxes for different biome types
during 1981-2010 as simulated by the DLEM model

| Variables | Forest | Shrubland | Wetland | Grassland | Cropland |
|-------------------------|------------------|------------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|
| CH ₄ fluxes | -6.43 ± 0.11 | -4.38 ± 0.04 | 130.74 ± 1.11 | -1.90 ± 0.01 | 30.82 ± 1.98 |
| N ₂ O fluxes | 4.28 ± 0.10 | 2.82 ± 0.11 | 0.97 ± 0.03 | 0.82 ± 0.03 | 3.36 ± 0.28 |

| CH4 flux (Tg C/yr) | Time period | This study | Others | Reference | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|---------------|---|--|--|
| Global | 1990s | 139.57-153.69 | 86-195 | Fung et al. 1991; Houweling et al. 1999 | |
| | 1993-2004 | 129.70-135.92 | 106-198 | Melton et al. 2012 | |
| Global natural | 1990s | 126.47-135.92 | 69.0-202.5 | Cao et al., 1998; Bousquet et al. 2011; Riley et al. 2011 | |
| wettand | 1990s | 126.47-135.92 | 127 | Liu, 1996 | |
| | 2000s | 130.90-137.67 | 78.75-208.50 | US EPA 2011 | |
| Global upland | 1996-2005 | -17.7616.13 | -19.525.0 | Ito and Inatomi 2012; Potter et al. 1996; Ridgwell et al. 1999; Del Grosso et al. 2000 | |
| Rice paddy land | 1990s | 29.30-35.17 | 19.2-84.0 | Cao et al. 1998; Chen and Prinn 2005; Patra et al. 2009; Ito and Inatomi 2012; Yan et al. 2009 | |
| High-latitude wetland (>60° N) | 1980s | 9.47-10.56 | 15 (3-27) | Christensen et al. 1996 | |
| High-latitude (>60° N) | 1990s | 8.89-10.89 | 15.75 | Zhuang et al. 2004 | |
| N ₂ O flux (Tg N/yr) | Time period | This study | Other | Reference | |
| | 1980-2000 | 10.49-14.30 | 13.31 (8.19-18.43) | Xu et al., 2008 | |
| | 1990-1994 | 11.51-12.15 | 11.33 | Liu, 1996 | |
| | 1990-1994 | 11.51-12.15 | 9.5 | Nevison et al., 1996 | |
| Global | 1997-2001 | 12.62-14.30 | 12.55 [©] | Huang et al. 2008 | |
| | 1998-2001 | 12.62-14.30 | 10.7-12.7 | Hirsch et al. 2006 | |
| | 1990s | 11.51-14.30 | 3-39 | Mosier et al., 1998; Banin 1986; Kroeze et al. 1999; Seiler and Conrad 1987 | |
| | 2000 | 8.67 | 1.96-4.56* | Zhuang et al. 2012 | |
| Global | 1990 | 8.76 | 6.6 (3.3-9.0) ^{\$} FAO/IFA 2001; U EPA 2010 | | |
| natural land | Early 1980s | 7.97-8.48 | 7-16 | 16 Bowden 1986 | |
| | 1995-2008 | 8.67-10.02 | 5.27-8.28 | Saikawa et al. 2013 | |
| Global | 1990 | 3.00 | $2.9^{\#}$ | FAO/IFA 2001 | |
| cropland | 1995 | 3.29 | 2.8 | Bouwman et al. 2002 | |

1233 Table 6 Comparison of global terrestrial CH_4 and N_2O fluxes estimated from multiple sources

| | 2000 | 3.50 | 4.4§ | US EPA 2011 |
|------------------|-----------|-----------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| | 2000 | 3.50 | 2.6-3.5 ^{&} | Davison 2009 |
| | 1995-2008 | 2.86-4.39 | 2.65-3.96 | Saikawa et al., 2013 |
| Global grassland | 2000-2007 | 0.85 | 0.92 | Zhang et al. 2010 |
| | 2000 | 0.78 | 1.31 | Zhuang et al. 2012 |
| | 2000-2008 | 0.85 | 1.52 | Xu et al. 2008 |
| Global forest | 2000-2008 | 4.44 | 6.99 | Xu et al. 2008 |
| | 2000 | 4.18 | 1.30 | Zhuang et al. 2012 |

[®] The emission from ocean (23%) is excluded; *Cropland is not included; ^{\$} Natural wetland
emission (~0.97 Tg N/yr as estimated by DLEM) is not included; [#] Including emissions from
fertilizer use, crops, decomposition of crops, and biomass burning; [§] Including both direct and
indirect emissions from fertilizer use; [&] Including fertilizer use, biomass burning and manure
application.

Fig. 1 Distribution of different land use and land cover types in the global terrestrial ecosystemsin 2000

- 1243 Fig. 2 Comparison between the DLEM -simulated CH₄ and N₂O emissions with inversion
- 1244 estimates. (a) CH₄ fluxes in wetlands and soil (inversion result is from CarbonTracker,
- 1245 <u>http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/carbontracker-ch4/</u>); (b), N₂O emission from agricultural
- and natural soils (inversion result is from Saikawa et al., 2013). Error bar denotes standard
- 1247 deviation.
- 1248 Fig. 3 Spatial distribution of environmental factors in the terrestrial ecosystems. A: precipitation
- anomaly (1981-2010mean 1961-1990mean); B: air temperature anomaly; C: nitrogen
- deposition rate in 2010; D: cropland distribution and nitrogen fertilizer amount in 2005; E:
- 1251 cumulative tropospheric ozone concentration above 40 ppb-hr (AOT40: ppm-hr) in July 2005
- 1252 Fig. 4 Interannual variations in CH₄ (A, Tg C/yr) and N₂O (B, Tg N/yr) fluxes in the global
- terrestrial ecosystems during 1981-2010. Note: the gray area is the estimated uncertainty range
- 1254 with a mean \pm 95% confidence interval.
- 1255 Fig. 5 DLEM-simulated mean global distributions of CH_4 (top, g C/m²/yr) and N₂O (bottom, g
- 1256 $N/m^2/yr$) fluxes during 1981-2010. Note: The latitudinal (per degree latitude) distribution (Tg
- 1257 C/yr and Tg N/yr for CH_4 and N_2O , respectively) patterns are shown at the right.
- Fig. 6 Interannual variations of CH₄ (Tg C/yr) and N₂O (Tg N/yr) anomalies (relative to the mean value for the period 1981-2010) along a latitudinal gradient during 1981-2010. A: the northern polar zone (60° N- 90° N); B: the northern temperate zone (30° N- 60° N); C: the northern tropical zone (0° N- 30° N); D: the southern tropical zone (0° S- 30° S); E: the southern temperate zone (30° S- 60° S)
- Fig. 7 Interannual variations of CH₄ (Tg C/yr) and N₂O (Tg N/yr) anomalies (relative to the
 mean value for the period 1981-2010) for different biome types during 1981-2010. A: Forest; B:
 Wetland; C: Shrubland; D: Grassland; E: Cropland
- 1266 Fig. 8 Interannual variations in CH_4 (Tg C/yr) and N₂O (Tg N/yr) anomalies (relative to the
- mean value for the period 1981-2010) for different continents during 1981-2010.
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- 1270