- 1 Dear Prof. Richard Conant and Reviewers,
- 2 On behalf of my co-authors, thank you very much for your positive and constructive
- 3 comments on our manuscript. We have carefully studied the comments and have made
- 4 corrections which we hope to meet with approval. Please see the attached point-by-point
- 5 responses and the tracked change version of manuscript for your further evaluation. All
- 6 revised positions mentioned in the responses can be readily found in the attached clear
- 7 version of manuscript.
- **Response to Reviewer's comments:**
- 9 **Reviewer 1:**

- 10 1. The section on the details of the long-term experiment (lines 145-153) is not necessary.
- 11 Response: Thanks very much for your suggestion. According to your suggestion, we have
- deleted the details of the long-term experiment (**please see Line 383-392**).
- 14 2. It was a bit confusing because the rates of residue incorporation used in this study (Table 1)
- were different from those in the long-term experiment (line 146).
- 16 Response: Thanks for your comment and sorry for our unclear expression. Yes, the rates of
- 17 residue incorporation used in this study were different from those in the long-term experiment,
- but we think it is appropriate to use the equation to calculate the SOCSR in this study. We
- 19 have noticed the uncertainty induced by the SOCSR calculation method and discussed it in
- 20 the results and discussion part of 'CH₄, N₂O emissions and SOSCR'. Moreover, we also
- 21 presented the reasons why we hold the opinion that the SOCSR calculation method in this
- 22 study is appropriate, and the uncertainty incurred by this method unlikely affects the main
- conclusions of this study (please see Line 531-549).

- 25 3. The relationship between CH₄ emission and the amount of organic matter input was not the
- 26 major focus of the paper. The discussion should be simplified rather than being extended with
- 27 possible explanations, some of which are speculative.
- 28 Response: Thanks for your good suggestion. According to your suggestion, we have
- simplified the relevant discussion (please see Line 499-510).

- 4. At a few other places in the discussion section e.g. lines 278-285 the authors presented their
- 32 results, and compared the results with others', which was fine but the manuscript would be
- more informative if the implications of the findings could be explored.
- 34 **Response:** Thanks for your good suggestion. According to your suggestion, we have explored
- 35 the implications of the SOC sequestration of this study (please see Line 550-560). We also
- 36 revised somewhere else, such as Line 526-528 and Line 612-614, to illustrate the
- 37 implications of our findings.

- 39 5. Minor comments:
- 40 Line 76: delete "And"
- 41 **Response:** Agreed and revised (**please see Line 309**).
- 42 Line 112: The scientific name of rice was provided but not for winter wheat
- 43 **Response:** Sorry for our carelessness. We have added the scientific name of wheat in the text
- 44 (please see Line **346**).
- Lines 252-253: What does it mean by "the applied OM rates among different treatments
- 46 are statistically different"? A statistical test on the independent variables (OM

- 47 application rates)?
- 48 **Response:** Sorry for our unclear expression. We have deleted this sentence.
- 49 Line 311: "was not" instead of "wasn't"
- 50 **Response:** Agreed and revised (**please see Line 588**).
- 51 Lines 344-346: incomplete sentence
- 52 **Response:** Sorry for our unclear expression. We have revised this sentence (**please see Line**
- 53 **623-628**).

- Once again, thank you very much for your constructive comments and suggestions.
- 55 Reviewer 2: Specific comments
- 56 1. 1. Abstract: Authors employed the meta-analysis to calculate the various Nr losses. As an
- 57 important part of this study, the results of the meta-analysis should be simply presented in the
- 58 abstract. Moreover, it would be better if the abstract is concisely shortened, since some
- 59 findings in the current version were insignificant, e.g., L34 'while methane
- 60 emissionwheat rates increased'.
- 61 Response: Thanks very much for your comment and suggestion. According to your
- 62 suggestion, we have presented the main findings of the meta-analysis in the abstract. We have
- also concisely shortened the abstract (please see Line 249-279).
- 65 2. L71-72, specify the current water and straw application methods.
- 66 **Response:** Thanks for your comment and sorry for our unclear expression. We have specified
- the water and straw application methods (**please see Line 304-305**).
- 68 3. L140 Using the relationship of straw input rate and SOCSR of previous study to calculate
- 69 the SOC changes is fine, since both of the studies have similar climatic conditions, cropping
- 70 history and agricultural practices. But the uncertainty should be noticed and can be discussed
- 71 in the result and discussion part.

- 72 **Response:** Thanks for your good suggestion. According to your suggestion, we have noticed
- 73 the uncertainty induced by the SOCSR calculation method and discussed it in the results and
- 74 discussion part of 'CH₄, N₂O emissions and SOSCR'. Moreover, we also presented the
- 75 reasons why we hold the opinion that the SOCSR calculation method in this study is
- appropriate, and the uncertainty incurred by this method unlikely affects the main conclusions
- of this study (please see Line 531-549).

- 79 4. L193-205. The environmental cost evaluation is interesting. But, why treated N₂O as a
- 80 GHG when conduced this evaluation, since it is both a GHG and Nr species?
- 81 Response: Thanks for your comment. N₂O is both a GHG and Nr species, but its
- 82 environmental cost was calculated as a GHG here. This is because the cost of N₂O emission
- as Nr species is mainly to damage human health (Gu et al., 2012). But the effects of Nr losses
- 84 on the direct damage costs of human health were not included in this study, which are very
- 85 difficult to quantify. The environmental costs included in this study mainly refer to the global
- 86 warming incurred by GHG emissions, soil acidification incurred by NH₃ and NO_x emissions,
- 87 and aquatic eutrophication caused by NH₃ emissions, N leaching and runoff (Xia and Yan,
- 88 2012). We have added such reasons in the methodology to make it clearer (please see Line
- 89 **433-435**).
- 90 References:
- 91 Gu, B., Ge, Y., Ren, Y., Xu, B., Luo, W., Jiang, H., Gu, B., Chang, J.: Atmospheric reactive
- 92 nitrogen in China: Sources, recent trends, and damage costs, Environ. Sci. Technol.,
- 93 46, 9420-9427, 2012.

95 Lake region of China, Sustain. Sci., 7, 33-44, 2012. 96 97 5. L275-280. This discussion needs to be concise, since the effect of N fertilizer on CH₄ emission is beyond the focus of this study. 98 Response: Thanks for your suggestion. According to your suggestion, we have simplified the 99 100 relevant discussion (please see Line 517-519). 101 102 6. L289-290. The calculation of the N₂O emission factor needs to be specified in the 103 methodology. 104 Response: Thanks for your correction. According to your suggestion, we have specified the 105 calculation of the N₂O emission factor in the methodology (please see Line 443-448). 106 107 108 7. L345. Does the straw application affect the Nr losses (e.g., N₂O and NH₃ emission) 109 and the subsequent calculation of Nr intensity? 110 Response: Thanks for your comment. Previous studies have proven that direct incorporation 111 of crop straw had insignificant effects on various Nr releases (Xia et al., 2014). Because the 112 majority of N contented in the crop straw is not easily degraded by microorganisms in a 113 short-term period, and can be stabilized in soil in a long-term period, rather than being 114 released as various Nr (Huang et al., 2004; Xia et al., 2014). For instance, a meta-analysis, 115 integrating 112 scientific assessments of the crop residue incorporation on the N₂O emissions,

Xia, Y., Yan, X.: Ecologically optimal nitrogen application rates for rice cropping in the Taihu

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(Shan and Yan, 2013). Therefore, the effects of wheat straw incorporation on various Nr

has reported that the practice exerted no statistically significant effect on the N2O releases

- 118 losses were considered as negligible in this study. Moreover, previous studies have also
- 119 proven that straw incorporation exerted little impacts on grain yield. For instance, a
- meta-analysis conducted by Singh et al. (2005) have found that incorporation of crop straw
- 121 produced no significant trend in improving crop yield in rice-based cropping systems.
- 122 Moreover, based on a long-term straw incorporation experiment established since 1990 in the
- 123 TLR, Xia et al. (2014) have reported that long-term incorporation of wheat straw only
- increased the rice yield by 1%.
- Therefore, in the present study, the effects of straw incorporation on NrI were considered
- as inappreciable. We have presented such reasons in the results and discussion part to make it
- 127 clearer (**please see Line 481-488 and Line 622-630**).
- 128 References:
- Huang, Y., Zou, J., Zheng, X., Wang, Y., Xu, X.: Nitrous oxide emissions as influenced by
- amendment of plant residues with different C: N ratios, Soil Biol. Biochem., 36,
- 131 973-981, 2004.
- 132 Shan, J., Yan, X.Y.: Effects of crop residue returning on nitrous oxide emissions in
- agricultural soils, Atmos. Environ., 71, 170-175, 2013.
- 134 Singh, Y., Singh, B., Timsina, J.: Crop residue management for nutrient cycling and
- improving soil productivity in rice-based cropping systems in the tropics, Adv. Agron., 85,
- 136 269-407, 2005.
- 137 Xia, L., Wang, S., Yan, X.: Effects of long-term straw incorporation on the net global
- warming potential and the net economic benefit in a rice-wheat cropping system in
- 139 China, Agric. Ecosyst. Environ., 197, 118-127, 2014.

- 140
- 141 8. L377-378. I don't think the GHGI and Nr have to have some specific relationship,
- although the N production and fertilization can both affect them.
- 143 **Response:** Thanks for your comment and sorry for our unclear expression. We have deleted
- such sentence. What we wanted to present is that extra attention should be paid to the
- 145 interrelationship between the NrI and GHGI, which could provide hints for the mitigation
- 146 purpose. For instance, N fertilizer production and application is an intermediate link between
- the NrI and GHGI (Chen et al., 2014). For the NrI, N fertilization promotes various Nr
- 148 releases, exponentially or linearly (Fig.4), while N production and application made a
- secondary contribution to the GHGI (Table 4). Such interrelationships ought to be taken into
- 150 account fully for any mitigation options pursued, in order to reduce the GHG emissions and
- 151 Nr discharges from rice production simultaneously (Cui et al., 2013b; Cui et al., 2014) (please
- 152 **see Line 634-640**).
- 153 References:
- 154 Chen, X., Cui, Z., Fan, M., Vitousek, P., Zhao, M., Ma, W., Wang, Z., Zhang, W., Yan, X.,
- 155 Yang, J.: Producing more grain with lower environmental costs, Nature, 514,
- 156 486-489, 2014.
- 157 Cui, Z., Yue, S., Wang, G., Zhang, F., Chen, X.: In-season root-zone N management for
- mitigating greenhouse gas emission and reactive N losses in intensive wheat
- production, Environ. Sci. Technol., 47, 6015-6022, 2013b.
- 160 Cui, Z., Wang, G., Yue, S., Wu, L., Zhang, W., Zhang, F., Chen, X.: Closing the N-use
- efficiency gap to achieve food and environmental security, Environ. Sci. Technol., 48,
- 162 5780-5787, 2014.

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164	9. L428. The 'ecological compensation mechanism' is a good idea to encourage famers
165	to adopt knowledge-based agricultural managements. To make it clearer, authors need
166	to provide more details about that rather than just giving a mention.
167	Response: Thanks for your good suggestion. According to your suggestion, we have added
168	more details to make the 'ecological compensation mechanism' clearer (please see Line
169	684-693).
170	
171	Reviewer 2: Some further remarks
172	1. L 72, delete 'the'
173	Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
174	(please see Line 306).
175	2. L 98-101, long sentence, needs to be split.
176	Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
177	(please see Line 331-334).
178	3. L102, N_2O should be 'nitrous oxide (N_2O)
179	Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
180	(please see Line 336).
181	4. L116, delete 'an'
182	Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
183	(please see Line 350).
184	5. L196, 'was' should be 'were'
185	Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction

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(please see Line 427).

6. L230, replace 'to a reasonable rate' with 'reasonably'

- 188 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 189 (**please see Line 467**).

- 7. L233, delete 'without threatening food...study'
- 192 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 193 (**please see Line 470-471**).
- 8. L252, replace 'produced' with 'showed'
- 195 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 196 (**please see Line 490**).

- 198 9. L335, 'manufacture' should be 'production'
- 199 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 200 (please see Line 586).
- 201 10. L348, delete the sentence
- 202 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 203 (**please see Line 601**).
- 204 11. L427, 'has' should be 'have'
- 205 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 206 (please see Line **685**).
- 207 12. L443, delete 'as well'
- 208 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 209 (please see Line **704**).
- 210 13. Table 1-6, the abbreviations in the table titles should be self-explained.
- 211 Response: Thanks for your correction. We have revised it according to your correction
- 212 (please see the tables).
- 213 Once again, thank you very much for your constructive comments and suggestions.

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215	In addition, we also polished the English expressions in the whole manuscript and redrew	
216	Figure 5. All changes in the manuscript will not influence the main conclusions of the paper.	
217	And here we did not list the changes but marked in red in the attached tracked change version	
218	of manuscript. We appreciate Editor/Reviewers' warm work earnestly, and hope that the	
219	correction will meet with approval.	
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221	Yours sincerely,	
222	XiaoyuanYan on behalf of all authors	
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226	Greenhouse gas emissions and reactive nitrogen releases from rice production with	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
226 227	Greenhouse gas emissions and reactive nitrogen releases from rice production with simultaneous incorporation of wheat straw and nitrogen fertilizer	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
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227	simultaneous incorporation of wheat straw and nitrogen fertilizer	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
227 228	simultaneous incorporation of wheat straw and nitrogen fertilizer Longlong Xia ^{a,b} , Yongqiu Xia ^a , Shutan Ma ^{a,b} , Jinyang Wang ^a , Shuwei Wang ^{a,b} , Wei Zhou ^{a,b} ,	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
227228229	simultaneous incorporation of wheat straw and nitrogen fertilizer Longlong Xia ^{a,b} , Yongqiu Xia ^a , Shutan Ma ^{a,b} , Jinyang Wang ^a , Shuwei Wang ^{a,b} , Wei Zhou ^{a,b} , Xiaoyuan Yan ^{a*}	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
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227 228 229 230 231 232	simultaneous incorporation of wheat straw and nitrogen fertilizer Longlong Xia ^{a,b} , Yongqiu Xia ^a , Shutan Ma ^{a,b} , Jinyang Wang ^a , Shuwei Wang ^{a,b} , Wei Zhou ^{a,b} , Xiaoyuan Yan ^{a*} a. State Key Laboratory of Soil and Sustainable Agriculture, Institute of Soil Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Nanjing 210008, China.	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
227 228 229 230 231 232 233	simultaneous incorporation of wheat straw and nitrogen fertilizer Longlong Xia ^{a,b} , Yongqiu Xia ^a , Shutan Ma ^{a,b} , Jinyang Wang ^a , Shuwei Wang ^{a,b} , Wei Zhou ^{a,b} , Xiaoyuan Yan ^{a*} ^a State Key Laboratory of Soil and Sustainable Agriculture, Institute of Soil Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Nanjing 210008, China. ^b University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China.	Formatted: Font: 11 pt

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Email address: yanxy@issas.ac.cn

Abstract

The impacts Impacts of simultaneous inputs of crop straw and nitrogen (N) fertilizer on greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and reactive nitrogen (Nr) releases Impacts from rice production in intensive agricultural regions—are not well understood. A two-year field experiment was established in a rice—wheat cropping system in the Taihu Lake region (TLR) of China since 2013 to evaluate the GHG intensity (GHGI), Nereactive N intensity (NrI) and environmental costs—of concurrentrice production with inputs of wheat straw and N fertilizer—to rice production: 0 (RN0), 120 (RN120), 180 (RN180), 240 (RN240) and 300 kg N ha⁻¹ (RN300, traditional N applied rate in the TLR). Wheat straws were fully incorporated into soil before rice transplantation—in—all treatments. The results meta-analytic technique was employed to evaluate various Nr losses.

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model. Nitrous oxide (N2O) emissions were increased exponentially as, while N fertilization rates increased, while methane (CH₄) emissions increased slightly with wheat straw rates increased. The estimated soil organic carbon sequestration rate varied from 129.58 (RN0) to 196.87 kg C ha ¹(RN300). Seasonal averagepromoted Nr discharges exponentially (nitrous oxide emission, N leaching and runoff) or linearly (ammonia volatilization). The GHGI of rice production ranged from 1.20 (RN240) to 1.61 (RN0) kg CO₂- equivalent (CO₂- eq) kg⁻¹ (RN0), while NrI varied from 2.14 (RN0) to 10.92 (RN300) g N kg⁻¹ (RN300). Methane (CH₄ emissions) emission dominated the GHGI with proportion of 70.2-88.6%, due to direct straw incorporation, while ammonia (NH₃) volatilization dominated the NrI with proportion of 53.5-57.4% in all fertilization treatments. The damage %. Damage costs to environment incurred by GHG and Nr releases from current rice production (RN300) accounted for 8.8% and 4.9% of farmer's farmers' incomes, respectively. Cutting the traditional N application rate of N fertilizer from 300 (traditional N rate) to 240 kg N ha⁻¹ improved could improve rice yield and nitrogen use efficiency by 2.14% and 10.30%, respectively, whilst simultaneously reduced GHGI by 13%, NrI by 23% and total environmental costs by 16%. Moreover, the reduction of 60 kg N ha⁻¹ improved farmer's farmers' income by 639 \(\text{Y} \) ha⁻²¹, which would provide them with an incentive to change

Results showed that the response of rice yield to N application rate successfully fitted a quadratic

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fertilizer.

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Key words: Taihu Lake region, greenhouse gas intensity, Nr intensity, rice production, straw

their traditional the current N application rate. Our study suggests that GHG and Nr releases,

especially thefor CH4 emission and NH3 volatilization, from rice production in the TLR could be

further eurbedreduced, considering the current incorporation pattern of wheat straw and N

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299	_1 Introduction	Formatted: Font: 11 pt
300	Rice is the staple food for the majority of the world's population. However, while	
301	industriously feeding the world'sglobal population, rice production is an important source of	
302	greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and reactive nitrogen (Nr) releases (Yan et al., 2009; Chen et al.,	

incorporation

2014). Rice production in China involves heavy methane (CH₄) emissions due to eurrentthe water regime management managements (e.g., continuous flooding in some regions) and straw incorporation practices (e.g., direct incorporation without any pretreatments) (Yan et al., 2009). Besides, the lower nitrogen use efficiency for rice cultivation in China (approximately 31%) aggravates the release of various Nr species, thus threatening ecosystem functions (Galloway et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2012). Such a dilemma highlights the need for the simultaneous evaluation of GHG emissions and Nr losses for rice production in China. And riceRice cultivation in intensive agricultural regions, characterized by high inputs of N fertilizer and crop residues, should be prioritized for the implementation of such evaluation (Ju et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2014). Taihu Lake region (TLR) is one of the most productive areas for rice production in China, largely owing to the popularity of intensive cultivation (Zhao et al., 2012a; Zhao et al., 2012b). Currently, rice yield of this region in some fields can reach up to 8000 kg ha⁻¹ or even higher (Ma et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2015). However, these grain yields are achieved with a cost to environment (Ju et al., 2009). TLR generally receives 550-600 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, with the rice-growing season accounting for nearly 300 kg N ha⁻¹ (Zhao et al., 2012b). Asides from these excessive N inputs, TLR also experiences high amounts of crop residue incorporation, which is highly encouraged by local governments (Xia et al., 2014). However, direct straw incorporation before rice transplantation triggers substantial CH₄ emissions (Ma et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2013). Besides such substantial releases of Nr and GHGsGHG in a direct way, indirect releases during the production of various agricultural materials used for farming operations in the TLR, are also not ignorable, due to higher input rates of these materials caused by intensive cultivation (Zhang et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2014). This warrants the need for life-cycle assessment (LCA) of GHG

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emissions and Nr releases with respect to rice production in this region.

Considerable environmental costs can be caused by the direct and indirect releases of GHGsGHG and Nr from rice production in the TLR, for instance, in the form of global warming, water eutrophication, or soil acidification (Ju et al., 2009; Xia and Yan, 2011; Xia and Yan, 2012). Previous studies have proven that environmental costs assessment could provide guidance for emerging policy priorities in mitigating certain GHG or Nr species, after quantifying both their release amounts and damage costs to ecosystems (Gu et al., 2012). However, few studies have attempted to evaluate the life eyele assessment of total GHG and Nr releases; and the associated environmental costs they incur-from rice production in the TLR under the current conditions of with high inputs of N fertilizer and crop straw, are scarce.

In the present study, we conducted two years of simultaneous measurements of CH_4 and nitrous oxide (N_2O) emissions from a rice-wheat cropping system in the TLR to evaluate the impacts of simultaneous inputs of crop straw and N fertilizer on (1) net global warming potential (NGWP) and GHG intensity (GHGI), (2) total Nr losses and Nr intensity (NrI), (3) environmental costs incurred by these GHG and Nr releases of associated with rice production, from the perspective of life-cycle assessment LCA.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Experimental site

The field experiment was conducted in a paddy rice field at Changshu Agroecological Experimental Station (31°32′93″N, 120°41′88″E) in Jiangsu province, which is located in the TLR of China where the cropping system is primarily dominated by summer rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). and winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.), rotation. The climate of the study area is subtropical

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monsoon, with a mean air temperature of 16.1° C and mean annual precipitation of 990 mm, of which 60---70% occurs during the rice-growing season. The daily mean temperature and precipitation during two rice-growing seasons from 2013 to 2014 are shown in Fig.1. The paddy soil is classified as an Anthrosol, which develops from lacustrine sediments. The topsoil (0---20cm) has a pH of 7.68 (H₂O). The bulk density is 1.16 g cm⁻⁻³, the organic C content is 20.1 g C kg⁻¹, the total N is 1.98 g kg⁻¹, the available P is 11.83 mg kg⁻¹ and the available K is 126 mg kg⁻¹.

2.2 Experimental design and field management

The field experiment included five treatments of different N fertilization rates for rice production: 0 (RN0), 120 (RN120), 180 (RN180), 240 (RN240) and 300 kg N ha⁻¹ (RN300,

traditional N applied rate in the TLR). Consistent with local practices, wheat straws were

357 harvested, chopped and fully incorporated into soil before rice transplantation in all treatments

(Table 1). All of the treatments are laid out in a randomized block design with three replicates, and

each plot covered an area of 3 m \times 11 m (33 m²).

Rice is transplanted in the middle of June and harvested at the beginning of November. N fertilizer (in the form of urea) was split into three parts during the rice-growing season: 40% as basal fertilizer; 30% as tilleringtiller fertilizer; and 30% as panicle fertilizer. Phosphorus (in the form of calcium superphosphate) and potassium (in the form of potassium chloride) were applied as basal fertilizer at rates of 30 kg P₂O₅ ha⁻¹ and 60 kg K₂O ha⁻¹, respectively. All basal fertilizers were thoroughly incorporated into the soil through plowing, while topdressing fertilizers were applied evenly to the soil surface. According to local practices, the water regime of 'flooding-midseason drainage-flooding-moist but non-waterlogged by intermittent irrigation' was adopted. Details of the specific agricultural management practices for rice production are provided

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369 in Table 1.

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2.3 Gas fluxes and topsoil organic carbon sequestration rate

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The CH₄ and nitrous oxide (N₂O) fluxes during the rice-growing seasons of 2013 and 2014 were measured using a static chamber and gas chromatography technique. Details of the procedures used for sampling and analysis the gases were described in Xia et al. (2014).

Considering the fact that Generally, it takes long-term observations over years to decades before the soil organic carbon sequestration rate (SOCSR)(SOC) change is detectable (Yan et al., 2011). The SOC content changes of this short-term field experiment could not couldn't be correctly measured-directly, due to the high variability of SOC during the preliminary several years of the experiment. Therefore, we used the following relationship between the straw input rate (kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and SOC sequestration rate (SOCSR-(, kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), obtained viathrough an on-going long-term straw application experiment in the same region, to calculate the SOCSR in this study-

381 (Xia et al., 2014):

382 SOCSR = Straw input rate $\times 0.0603 + 31.39$ (R² = 0.92); (1)

This on-gonging long-term field experiment is also taking place at the Changshu

384 Agroecological Experimental Station (since 1990), which includes three straw application levels:

0, 4.5 t, and 9.0 t dry-weight ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and the N application rate for rice cultivation in these 385

treatments is 180 kg N ha⁻¹. The estimated SOCSR (from 1990 to 2012) for these three treatments

was 10.65, 194.96 and 254.83 kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Xia et al., 2014). ._The equation (1) was established 387

based on above straw input rates and the estimated SOCSR. We used the average straw input

389 ratesthe results of the two rice growing seasons to estimate the SOCSR. The on-going long term

iment and the experiment in this study received similar 22-year observation (Xia et al., 2014).

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391 Same agricultural managements. Details of management practices were applied to the on-going

long-term experiment are described in Xia et al. (2014), and the experiment of this study.

2.4 Net global warming potential and greenhouse gas intensity

The net global warming potential (NGWP, kg CO₂ eq ha⁻¹) and greenhouse gas intensity

(GHGI, kg CO₂ eq kg⁻¹) of rice production in the TLR was calculated using the following

equations:

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$$NGWP = \sum_{i=1}^{m} AI_{ico_2} + CH_4 \times 25 + N_2O \times 44/28 \times 298 - SOCSR \times 44/12;$$
 (2)

398 GHGI =
$$NGWP/rice$$
 yield; (3)

Here, AI_{ico_2} denotes the GHG emissions from the production and transportation of agricultural inputs, which are calculated by multiplying their application rates by their individual GHG emission factors, such as synthetic fertilizers, diesel oil, electricity and pesticides (Liang, 2009; Zhang et al., 2013). CH_4 (kg CH_4 ha⁻¹), N_2O (kg N ha⁻¹) and SOCSR (kg C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) represent the CH_4 emissions—and N_2O emissions from rice production, and the SOC sequestration rate, respectively.

2.5 Total Nr losses and Nr intensity

The total Nr losses (kg N ha⁻¹) and Nr intensity (NrI, g N kg⁻¹) were calculated using the following equations:

Total Nr losses =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} AI_{iN_r} + (NH_3 + N_2O + N_{Leaching} + N_{Runoff})_{rice};$$
 (4)

$$NH_{3} \quad volatilization \quad = \quad 0.17 \frac{N}{N} \quad \frac{N}{\text{fertilizer} \quad rate} \quad \times \quad N_{\underline{rate}} \quad + \quad 0.64;$$

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N runoff =
$$5.39 \times exp \times Exp = (0.0054 \times N \text{ fertilizer rate}); \times N_{rate}$$

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413 leaching $(0.0037 \times$ 414 (7) 415 $NrI = (1000 \times Total Nr losses) / rice yield;$ (8) 416 Here, Al_{iNr}denotes the Nr lost (mainly through N₂O and NO_X emissions) from the production and 417 transportation of agricultural inputs (Liang, 2009; Zhang et al., 2013), while '(NH₃+N₂O+N_{Leaching}+N_{Runoff})_{rice}' represents the NH₃ volatilization, N₂O emissions, N leaching 418 419 and runoff during the rice-growing season. We conducted Nrate represents the N fertilizer 420 application rate. Nr empirical models (Equation 5, 6, 7) derived from a meta-analysis of published 421 literature to establish Nr empirical models to stimulate the concerning Nr losses, such as NH₃ 422 volatilization (Equation 5), N leaching and runoff (Equation 6 and 7), from different treatments 423 from rice production in the TLR. Specific details regarding this literature survey are provided in 424 Appendix A. 425 2.6 Total environmental costs incurred by GHG and Nr releases and farmer's income 426 The total environmental costs (¥ ha⁻¹) incurred by GHG and Nr releases and farmer's income from rice production in the TLR waswere calculated based on the following equations: 427 $\label{eq:environmental} \text{Environmental costs} = \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\text{Nr}_{i} \text{A} \times \text{DC}_{i} \) + \text{CO}_{2} \text{A} \times \text{DC}_{\text{CO2}};$ 428 429 Farmer's income = rice yield \times rice price – input costs; (10)Nr_iA (kg N) represents the release amounts of certain Nr species (i), and DC_i (¥ kg⁻¹ N) denotes 430 the damage cost (DC) per kg of certain Nr (i). CO₂A (ton) and DC_{CO2} (¥ ton⁻¹) represent the CO₂ 431 432 emissions amount and global warming cost of CO₂, respectively. N₂O is both a GHG and ann-Nr 433 species, but its environmental cost was calculated as a GHG here. Because the cost of N2O

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emission as Nr species is to damage human health (Gu et al., 2012), but the effects of Nr losses on

the damage costs of human health were not included in this study. The environmental costs mainly 435 refer to the global warming incurred by GHG emissions, soil acidification incurred by NH3 and 436 437 NO_X emissions, and aquatic eutrophication caused by NH₃ emissions, N leaching and runoff (Xia 438 and Yan, 2012). Formatted: Font: 11 pt 439 2.7 Nitrogen use efficiency and N₂O emission factor, Formatted: Font: 11 pt 440 Nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) isand N2O emission factor (EFd%) were respectively 441 calculated by the following equation (equations (Ma et al., 2013; Yan et al., 2014): 442 NUE = $(U_N - U_0)/F_N$; (11)443 (12) $EF_d\% = (E_N - E_0)/F_N;$ Here, U_N is the plant N uptake (kg ha⁻¹) measured in aboveground biomassgrain at physiological 444 445 maturity in the N fertilization treatments, while U_0 is the N uptake measured in aboveground 446 biomass grain in the treatment without N fertilizer addition (RN0). E_N denotes the cumulative N₂O 447 emissions in the N fertilization treatments, while E_0 denotes the N_2O emissions in the RNO. F_N Formatted: Font color: Text 1, English 448 represents the application rate of N fertilizer. The N uptake in straw and grain was analysed via (U.K.) 449 concentrated sulfuric acid digestion and the Kjeldahl method (Zhao et al., 2015). Formatted: Font: 11 pt 450 2.8 Statistical analysis 451 Differences in seasonal CH₄, N₂O emissions and rice yield of the two rice-growing seasons 452 from 2013 to 2014 affected by fertilizer treatments, year and their interaction were examined by 453 using a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Table 2). The grain yield, seasonal CH₄ and N₂O 454 emissions, SOCSR and GHGI of the different treatments were tested by analysis of variance, and 455 mean values were compared by least significant difference (LSD) at the 5% level. All these

analyses were carried out using the SPSS (Version 19.0, USA).

3 Results and discussion

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3.1 Rice yield and NUE

The two-way ANOVA analyses indicated that the rice grain yields were significantly affected by the year and fertilizer treatment (Table 2). The farmer's practice plot (RN300) had an average rice grain yield of 8395 kg ha⁻¹, with an NUE of 31.35%, over the two growing seasons from 2013 to 2014. Compared with RN300, reducing the N fertilizer rate by 20% (RN240) slightly improved the grain yield and NUE to 8576 kg ha⁻¹ and 34.58%, respectively. Further N reduction, without additional agricultural managements, could decrease the rice yield by 8.15% (RN180) and 15.18% (RN120) (Table 3). The response of rice yield to the synthetic N application rate in our study successfully fitted a quadratic model (Fig.2), as has been reported in previous studies (Xia and Yan, 2012; Cui et al., 2013a). Reducing N application to a reasonable ratereasonably, therefore, is considered essential to reduce environmental costs, without sacrificing grain yield (Chen et al., 2014). LoweringOur study showed that lowering the N input adopted by local farmer (300 kg N ha⁻¹) by 20% could still enhance the grain yield and NUE, without threatening food security in this study. However, a further reduction of N 40% (RN180) would largely undermine the rice yield (Table 3). Further reduction in N fertilizer may be achieved with improvements of agricultural managements, Ju et al. (2009) reported that, based on knowledge-based N managements, such as optimizing the N fertilizer source, rate, timing and place (in accordance with crop demand), rice grain yield in the TLR was not significantly affected by a 30-60% N saving, while various Nr losses would endure a two-fold curbing. Similarly, Zhao et al. (2015) found that the NUE could be improved from 31% to 44%, even under a N reduction of 25% for rice production in the TLR,

through the implementation of integrated soil-crop system managements. In the present study, the NUE was improved by 10% via a 20% N reduction, but it still falls behind the NUE <u>values</u> in the studies which received knowledge-based <u>N</u> managements. Previous studies have proven that straw incorporation exerted little <u>positive</u>—impacts on grain yield. For instance, a meta-analysis conducted by Singh et al. (2005) have found that incorporation of crop straw produced no significant trend in improving crop yield in rice-based cropping systems. Moreover, based on a long-term straw incorporation experiment established since 1990 at Changshu Agroecological Experimental Stationin the TLR, Xia et al. (2014) have reported that long-term incorporation of wheat straw only increased the rice yield by 1%. Therefore, in the present study, the effects of straw incorporation on rice yield were considered as inappreciable.

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3.2 CH₄, N₂O emissions and SOSCR

Over the two rice-growing seasons from 2013 to 2014, all treatments producedshowed similar patterns of CH₄ fluxes, albeit with large inter-annual variation (Fig.3a). The seasonal average CH₄ emissions from all plots showed no significant difference, ranging from 289.53 kg CH₄ ha⁻¹ in the RN180 plot to 334.61 kg CH₄ ha⁻¹ in the RN120 plot (Table 4), much higher than observations conducted in the same region (Zou et al., 2005; Ma et al., 2013). This phenomenon can be attributed to the larger amounts of straw incorporation in this study (Table 1). Relative to the RN300 plot, CH₄ emissions from the RN240 plot decreased by 8% and 10%, during the rice-growing season of 2013 and 2014, respectively, although this effect was not statistically significant (Table 4).

Many studies have shown a clear linear relationship between CH₄ emissions and the amounts of applied organic matter (OM). Such an obvious linear relationship generally occurs under the

following conditions: first, the OM inputs are low (generally less than 3 Mg dry matter ha⁼¹) (Zou et al., 2005; Ma et al., 2013); second, the applied OM rates among different treatments are statistically different (Shang et al., 2011; Xia et al., 2014).) (Shang et al., 2011; Xia et al., 2014). It is possible that the linear response of CH₄ emissions to OM inputs can become flat or even unobvious (Fig.S1), when OM is applied at higher rates (in this study, the applied rates of straw in all N fertilization treatments were higher than 4.4 Mg dry matter ha⁼¹) and these rates among water conditions among different treatments may also have promoted the unclear response of CH₄ emissions to straw inputs in this study (Xia et al., 2014). the OM applied rates among different treatments were insignificant different (Table S1). It is unsurprising that no obvious relationship between CH₄ emissions and N fertilizer application rates was observed in this study (Fig.S1), because the effects of N fertilization on CH₄ production, transportation and oxidation are complex. For instance, N fertilization can provide methanogens with more carbon substrates in the rhizosphere of plants by stimulating the growth of rice biomass, thus promoting CH₄ production and transportation (Zou et al., 2005; Banger et al., 2012). On the other side. N enrichment could also enhance the activities of methanotrophs, therefore enhancing CH₄ oxidation (Xie et al., 2010; Yao et al., 2012). Moreover, ammonium based fertilizer could npete with CH₄ oxidation, due to the similar size and structure between NH₄⁺ and CH₄ (Linquist et al., 2012a). The N₂O fluxes were sporadic and pulse-like, and these fluxes showed large variations between different seasons, and the majority of the N2O peaks occurred after the application of N fertilizer (Fig.3b). The two-way ANOVA analyses indicated that the seasonal N2O emissions were

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rice-growing seasons (Table 2). The average N₂O emission, during the two rice-growing seasons, ranged from 0.05 kg N ha⁻¹ for the RN0 to 0.35 kg N ha⁻¹ for the RN300 (Table 4), which increased exponentially as the N fertilizer rate increased.; this highlights that the reduction of N fertilizer rate is an effective approach to reduce the N₂O emissions (Zou et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2012). The average N₂O emission factors varied between 0.03% and 0.1%, with an average of 0.07%, which is comparable with previous studies $(0.05\%_{--}0.1\%)$ conducted in the same region (Ma et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2015). The rice paddies have witnessed an increase in the SOC stock as a result of straw incorporation (Table 4). The estimated topsoil (0-20cm) SOCSR varied from 0.13013 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for the RN0 plot to 0.197 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for the RN300 plot (Table 4). The . The empirical model established through a long-term straw incorporation study in the same region was employed to evaluate the SOCSR in this study, which likely brought uncertainty into the results of this study. Under the same agricultural managements, soil and climatic conditions, cropping systems and straw types, it is reasonable to believe that the rates of straw C stabilizing into SOC (i.e. conversion efficiency of crop residue C into SOC) are similar between these two experiments (Mandal et al., 2008). It is reported that the conversion rates of crop straw to SOC in two main wheat/maize production regions in China, which have similar climatic conditions and agricultural practices, were very close, at 40.524 versus 40.607 kg SOC-C t⁻¹ dry-weight straw (Lu et al., 2009). Moreover, the current estimated SOCSR for rice production in the TLR (0.197 t C ha⁻¹), falling within the SOCSR range of 0.13-2.20 t Cha⁻¹-yr⁻¹-estimated by Pan et al. (2004) for paddy soils in China, is alsois comparable to the estimation of 0.17 t C ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ from Ma et al. (2013) in

significantly affected by the year, the fertilizer treatment, and their interactions during the

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a study based on a paddy field experiment with OM incorporation in the same region.

Moreover, Therefore, we hold the provincial average opinion that the above SOCSR of Jiangsu province has been estimated to be 0.16 0.21 t C ha from the period of 1980 to 2000 (calculation method is appropriate, and the uncertainty incurred by this method unlikely affects the main conclusions of this study.

The magnitude of the SOC increase is variable depending on the straw incorporation method, the degree of tillage, the cropping systems and etc. (Yan et al., 2011; Huang & Sun, 2006, Liao et

the degree of tillage, the cropping systems and etc. (Yan et al., 2011; Huang & Sun, 2006, Liao et al., 2009), which is also similar to our estimation. et al., 2013). Liu et al. (2014) suggested that straw incorporation in rice-based cropping systems requires an overall consideration, due to the direct incorporation promoting substantial CH₄ emissions. When converting to CO₂ eq, the SOCSR only offsets the CH₄ emissions by 6.2–9.2% in this study (Table 4). This proportion is expected to increase provided that appropriate straw incorporation method (e.g., compost straw before incorporation) and conservative-tillage are adopted. Moreover, previous studies have shown that the combined adoption of conservative-tillage system with straw return had large advantages in increasing SOC stocks while reducing CH₄ emissions (Zhao et al., 2015a; Zhao et al., 2015b).

3.3 NGWP and GHGI

The average NGWP for all treatments varied from 8656 to 11550 kg CO₂ eq ha⁻¹ (Table 4). CH₄ emissions dominated the NGWP in all treatments, with the proportion ranging from 70.23% to 88.56%, while synthetic N fertilizer production was the secondary contributor (Table 4). In addition, SOC sequestration offset the positive GWP by 5.18–6.18% in the fertilization treatments. Compared to conventional practice (RN300), the NGWP in the 20% reduction N

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practice (RN240) decreased by 10.64%. Therein, 6.28% came from CH₄ reduction and 4.31% from N production savings (Table 4). The GHGI of rice production ranged from 1.20 (RN240) to 1.61 (RN0) kg CO₂ eq kg⁻¹, which is higher than previous estimation of 0.24_0.74 kg CO₂ eq kg⁻¹ for rice production in other rice-upland crop rotation systems (Qin et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2013). Moreover, the GHGI of current rice production in the TLR (RW300) was estimated to be 1.45 times that of the national average value estimated by Wang et al. (2014a), at 1.38 versus 0.95 $kg CO_2 eq kg^{-1}$. Such phenomenon was attributed to the following reasons. First, compared to above studies, current higher amounts of direct straw incorporation (2.9-6.2 Mg dry matter ha⁻¹), before rice transplantation in the TLR, triggered substantial CH₄ emissions (290–335 kg CH₄ ha⁻¹). Crop residue incorporation is regarded as a win-win strategy to benefit food security and mitigate climate change, due to the fact that it possesses a large potential for carbon sequestration (Lu et al., 2009). However, the GWP of straw-induced CH₄ emissions was reported to be 3.2-2.3.9 times that of the straw-induced SOCSR, which indicates direct straw incorporation in paddy soils worsens rather than mitigates climate changes, in terms of GWP (Xia et al., 2014). The SOC sequestration induced by straw incorporation only offset the positive GWP by 5.2-6.2% in this study. Sensible methods of straw incorporation should therefore be developed to reduce the substantial CH₄ emissions without compromising the build-up of SOC stock in the TLR. Second, the high N application rate (300kg N ha⁻¹) in the TLR combined with the large emission factor of N fertilizer manufacture production, 8.3 kg CO₂-eq kg⁻¹ N (Zhang et al., 2013), promotedmarked the sector of N fertilizer production to beas the secondary contributor to the

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GHGI (Table 4), while such); this sector-wasn't, however, was not involved in above-mentioned

studies. Compared to local farmer's practices (RN300), reducing the N rate by 20% (RN240) lowered the GHGI by 13%, under the condition of straw incorporation, although this effect was not statistically significant (Table 4). Compared to RN240, however, further reduction of N rate (RN180 or RN120) increased the GHGI, largely due to the fact that rice yield was considerably undermined reduced under excessive N reduction. Therefore, the joint application of reasonable N reduction and judicious method of straw incorporation would be promising in reducing the GHGI for rice production in the TLR, in consideration of the current situation of simultaneous high inputs of N fertilizer and wheat straw.

3.4 Various Nr losses and NrI

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The results of the meta-analysis indicated that N_2O emissions, as well as N leaching and runoff, increase increased exponentially with an increase in N application rate (Fig.4b-d, P < 0.01), while the response of NH₃ volatilization to N rates fitted the linear model best (Fig.4a, P < 0.01). Established models can explain the variation in the estimation of various Nr losses by 50 57%. The estimated total Nr losses for all treatments varied from 39.3 to 91.7 kg N ha⁻¹ in the fertilization treatments (Table 5), accounting for 30.1–32.8% of N application rates. NH₃ volatilization dominated the NrI, with the proportion ranging from 53.5% to 57.4%, mainly because of the current fertilizer application method (soil surface broadcastingbroadcast) and high temperatures in the field (Zhao et al., 2012b; Li et al., 2014). N runoff was the second most important contributor, with the proportion ranging from 25.9% to 29.7% (Table 5). Using ¹⁵N micro-plots combined with three-year field measurements, Zhao et al. (2012b) reported that the total Nr losslosses from rice production in the TLR, under an N rate of 300 kg N ha⁻¹, waswere 98 kg N ha⁻¹, which is comparable with our estimation of 91.69 kg N ha⁻¹ in the RN300 plot.

	Similarly, Xia and Yan (2011) estimated the Nr losslosses for life-cycle rice production in this		
	region to be around 90 kg N ha ⁻¹ . The high proportion (30.1–32.8%) of the applied N fertilizer		
	released as Nr from rice production in the TLR, highlights the need to adopt reasonable N		
	managements to increase the plant N uptake and reduce Nr losses (Ju et al., 2009).		
	The NrI of rice production in different plots varied between 2.14 g N kg ⁻¹ (RN0) and 10.92 g	Formatted: Superscript	
	N kg ¹ (RN300), which increased significantly as the N fertilizer rate increased (Table 5). The NrI	Formatted: Superscript	
	for rice production in the TLR was estimated to be 10.92 g N kg ⁻¹ (RN300), which is 68% higher	Formatted: Superscript	
	than the national average value estimated by Chen et al. (2014), largely due to the as a result of		
	higher N fertilizer inputsinput in the TLR. Under the condition of straw incorporation, reducing		
	the N application rate by 20% pulled the NrI down to 8.42 g N kg ⁻¹ (RN240) (Table 5). Additional		
ļ	N reduction could further lower the NrI, but the rice yield would be compromised largely (Table		
ĺ	3). Previous studies have proven that direct incorporation of crop straw exert unobvioushad		
	insignificant effects on various Nr releases (Xia et al., 2014). Because erop straws usually possess		
	high values of C/N ratio and the majority of N contented in the residuecrop straw is not easily	Formatted: Font color: Text 1	
	degraded by microorganisms in a short-term period (Huang et al., 2004). Therefore the straw	Formatted: Font color: Text 1	
	incorporation could promote the N contained in the residues to, and can be stabilized in soil in a		
	long-term period, rather than directly releasing being released as various Nr (Huang et al., 2004;		
	Xia et al., 2014). For instance, a meta-analysis, integrating 112 scientific assessments of the crop		
	residue incorporation on the N_2O emissions, has reported that the practice exerted no statistically		
	significant effect on the N_2O releases (Shan and Yan, 2013). Therefore, the effects of wheat straw	Formatted: Font: Not Bold	
	incorporation on various Nr losses were considered as negligible in this study. Although no		
	specific relationship was found between the NrI and GHGI in all treatments in this study (Table 4		

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Extra attention should be paid to the interrelationship between them.the NrI and GHGI, which could provide hints for the mitigation purpose. For instance, N fertilizer production and application is an intermediate link between the NrI and GHGI-and NrI (Chen et al., 2014). For the NrI, N fertilization promotes various Nr releases, exponentially or linearly (Fig.4), while N production and application made a secondary contribution to the GHGI (Table 4). Such interrelationships ought to be taken into account fully for any mitigation options pursued, in order to reduce the GHG emissions and Nr discharges from rice production simultaneously (Cui et al.,

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2013b; Cui et al., 2014).

3.5 Economic evaluations of GHG emissions and Nr releases and their mitigation

643 potential

The total environmental costs associated with the GHG emissions and Nr releases varied from 1214 \(\frac{1}{2}\) ha⁻¹ for the RN0 to 2399 \(\frac{1}{2}\) ha⁻¹ for the RN300, which approximately accounted for 10.44-13.47% of the farmer's income and 27.05-32.47% of the input costs, respectively (Table 6). CH₄ emission and NH₃ volatilization were the dominant contributors to the total environmental costs, respectively (Table 4 and Fig.5). The total damage costs to environment accounted for 13.5% of farmer's income under the current rice production in the TLR (RN300). Cutting the N rate from 300 to 240 kg N ha⁻¹ slightly improved the farmer's income by 3.64%, while further N reduction would <u>underminereduce</u> the economic return of farmer's (Table 6). GHG and Nr releases from rice production in the TLR are expected to possess a large potential for mitigation, due to the current situation of direct straw incorporation and higher N

fertilizer inputs. Compared to traditional practice, a reduction of N application rate from 300 to

240 kg N ha⁻¹ could alleviate 12.52% for GHGI (Table 4), 22.94% for NrI (Table 5), and 15.76% for environmental costs (Table 6). Further reduction in GHG and Nr releases (especially for CH₄ emissions and NH₃ volatilization) is possible, with the implementation of knowledge-based managements (Chen et al., 2014; Nayak et al., 2015). For the mitigation of Nr releases, switching the N fertilizer application method from surface broadcastingbroadcast to deep incorporation could largely lower the NH₃ volatilization from paddy soils (Zhang et al., 2012; Li et al., 2014). Moreover, other optimum N managements, such as applying controlled-release fertilizers and nitrification or urease inhibitors, could also effectively increase the NUE and reducing the overall Nr losses (Chen et al., 2014). For the mitigation of GHG emissions, rather than being directly incorporated before rice transplantation, crop residues should be preferentially decomposed under aerobic conditions or used to produce biochar through pyrolysis, which could effectively reduce CH₄ emissions (Linquist et al., 2012b2012; Xie et al., 2013). Moreover, these pre-treatments are also beneficial for carbon sequestration and food-securityyield production (Woolf et al., 2010; Linquist et al., 2012b2012).

Most previous studies have merely focused on the quantification of GHG and Nr releases from food production from the perspective of environment assessments (Zhao et al., 2012b; Ma et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2015). The perspective of economic evaluation is seldom implemented, which goes against encouraging farmer to participate in the abatement of GHG and Nr releases on their own initiative (Xia et al., 2014). The current pattern of rice production in the TLR incurs great costs to the environment, which accounted for 13.47% of the net economic return that farmer ultimately acquire (Table 6). Such an evaluation facilitates the translation of highly specialized scientific conclusions into monetary-based information that is more familiar and accessible for

farmerfarmers, and therefore likely encouraging them to adopt eco-friendly agricultural managements (Wang et al., 2014b). Profitability is generally considered the main driver for farmer to change their management approach. Compared to traditional N application rate, a reduction of 20% would make environmental costs savings of 14%, whilst simultaneously improving the economic return of farmer's by 648 ¥ ha⁻¹ (Table 6). This represents an incentive for farmerfarmers to optimize their N fertilizer application rates, provided that such information is available to them.

Considering the fact that no specific carbon- and Nr-mitigation incentive programs, like the 'Carbon Farming Initiative' in Australia (Lam et al., 2013), hashave been launched in China, an ecological compensation incentive mechanism (national subsidy program) should be established by governments. This This should be a national subsidy program with a special compensation and award fund to cover the extra mitigation costs induced by the adoption of knowledge-based mitigation managements for farmers (Xia et al., 2016). Such a program would provide farmerfarmers with a tangible incentive, thus guiding them towards gradually adopting knowledge-basedthe mitigation managements, that which could effectively curb GHG emissions

and Nr losses, but likely exert little positive effects on improving farmer'stheir net economic return (Xia et al., 2014). Examples include the composing of crop straws aerobically, or their use to produce biochar before incorporation (Xie et al., 2013), and encouraging the application of deep placement of N fertilizer (Wang et al., 2014b), as well as the application of enhanced-efficiency N

fertilizers during the rice-growing season (Akiyama et al., 2010).

Conclusions

Our results demonstrated that producing per unit of rice yield in the TLR released

highersubstantial GHG and Nr-in the TLR, than that in other rice-upland cropping systems, which largely attributed to the current situation of direct straw incorporation and excessive nitrogenN fertilizer inputs. CH₄ emissions and NH₃ volatilization dominated the GHG and Nr releases, respectively. Reducing the N application rate by 20% from the tradition level (300 kg N ha⁻¹) could effectively decrease the GHG emissions, Nr releases and the damage costs to the environment, while increased the rice yield and improved farmer's income as well-simultaneously. Agricultural managements, such as making straw decompose aerobically before its incorporation and optimizing the application method of N fertilizer, eouldshowed large potentials to further reduce the GHG (e.g., CH₄ emission) and Nr releases (especially CH₄ emissions and e.g., NH₃ volatilization) from rice production in the TLRthis region. Further studies are needed to evaluate the comprehensive effects of these managements on GHG emissions, Nr releases and farmer's economic returns. Formatted: Font: 11 pt Acknowledgements This study was financially supported by the CAS Strategic Priority Research Program (Grant No. XDA05020200) and the National Science and Technology Pillar Program (2013BAD11B00). We gratefully acknowledge the technical assistance provided by the Changshu Agroecological Experimental Station of the Chinese Academy of Sciences. Formatted: Font: 11 pt Supplementary material Supplementary material (Appendix A) associated with this article can be found, in the online version.

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Akiyama, H., Yan, X., Yagi, K.: Evaluation of effectiveness of enhanced-efficiency fertilizers as

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rice-growing seasons of 2013 and 2014 in the TLR Taihu Lake region.

Treatment ^a	RN0	RN120	RN180	RN240	RN300
Chemical fertilizer					
application rate	0:30:60	120:30:60	180:30:60	240:30:60	300:30:60
(N:P ₂ O ₅ :K ₂ O, kg ha ⁻¹)					
Split N application ratio		4:3:3	4:3:3	4:3:3	4:3:3
Straw application rate	3.94/2.88 ^b	4.49/4.65	4.93/5.18	5.33/5.87	5.81/6.17
(Mg dry matter ha ⁻¹)	3.54/2.00	4.47/4.03	4.93/3.10	3.33/3.07	3.01/0.17
Water regime ^c	F-D-F-M	F-D-F-M	F-D-F-M	F-D-F-M	F-D-F-M
Density (10 ⁴ plants ha ⁻¹)	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5

Table 1. Field experimental treatments and agricultural management practices during the

^aRN0, RN120, RN180, RN240 and RN300 represent mitrogenN application rates of 0, 120, 180,

240, 300 kg N ha⁻¹, respectively.

b3.94/2.88 denote that straw application rates during the rice-growing seasons of 2013 and 2014

are 3.94 and 2.88 Mg dry matter ha⁻¹, respectively.

^cF, flooding; D, midseason drainage; M, moist but non-waterlogged by intermittent irrigation.

Table 2. Two-way ANOVA for the effects of fertilizer (F) application and year (Y) on CH₄ and

 N_2O emissions, and rice grain yields in rice paddies.

Factor	16	CH ₄ (kg ha ⁻¹)			N_2	O (kg N	ha ⁻¹)		Yield (kg ha ⁻¹)			
Factor	df	SS	F	P	SS	F	P	٠	SS	F	P	
F	4	8739	0.79	0.55	0.33	12.46	< 0.01		39297547	32.96	< 0.01	
Y	1	4492	1.62	0.22	0.11	16.41	< 0.01		2810414	9.43	< 0.01	
$F \times Y$	4	2532	0.23	0.92	0.18	7.1	< 0.01		750639	0.63	0.65	
Model	9	15763	0.63	0.77	0.62	10.52	< 0.01		42858600	15.97	< 0.01	
Error	16	20			0.13				5962260			

Table 3. Rice yield and nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) for the two rice-growing seasons from 2013

to 2014 in the TLR Taihu Lake region

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Year $Treatment^{a} \\$ Yield (kg ha⁻¹) NUE (%) 2013 4829 ± 207 RN0 RN120 7079 ± 645 23.40 RN180 7655 ± 601 28.12 RN240 8273 ± 569 33.61 RN300 8029 ± 101 30.63 2014 RN0 5919 ± 131 RN120 7598 ± 1077 23.86 RN180 7768 ± 570 21.19 RN240 8880 ± 435 35.54 RN300 8761 ± 369 32.07 $5374 \pm 617d^{b}$ Two-year average RN0

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RN120	$7339 \pm 843c$	23.63
RN180	7711 ± 527bc	24.66
RN240	$8576 \pm 562a$	34.58
RN300	8395 ± 468ab	31.35

^{912 &}lt;sup>a</sup>Definitions of the treatment codes are given in the footnotes of Table 1.

⁹¹³ bMean \pm SD; different letters within the same column indicate a significant difference at p<0.05.

Table 4. The net global warming potential (NGWP) and greenhouse gas intensity (GHGI) for the two rice-growing seasons from 2013 to 2014 in the TLR Taihu

Lake region

Year	Treatment ^a	CH ₄ emission	N ₂ O emission	SOCSR	Irrigation	N fertilizer production	Others	NGWP	GHGI
		kg CH ₄ ha ⁻¹	kg N ha ⁻¹	kg C ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹		kg CO ₂ eq ha ⁻¹			kg CO ₂ eq kg ⁻¹
2013	RN0	306.07 ± 41^{b}	0.08 ± 0.01	129.58	1170	0	217	8601	1.78
	RN120	317.26 ± 92	0.10 ± 0.01	154.07	1170	996	265	9845	1.39
	RN180	287.8 ± 12	0.13 ± 0.01	171.54	1170	1494	277	9568	1.25
	RN240	273.27 ± 36	0.14 ± 0.06	185.50	1170	1992	291	9670	1.17
	RN300	305.13 ± 90	0.16 ± 0.03	196.87	1170	2490	285	10927	1.36
2014	RN0	307.22 ± 47	0.02 ± 0.05	129.58	1256	0	240	8711	1.47
	RN120	351.96 ± 28	0.09 ± 0.02	154.07	1256	996	276	10805	1.42

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	RN180	291.25 ± 18	0.24 ± 0.04	171.54	1256	1494	280	9795	1.26
	RN240	317.65 ± 28	0.34 ± 0.12	185.50	1256	1992	303	10972	1.24
	RN300	343.8 ± 61	0.53 ± 0.21	196.87	1256	2490	301	12169	1.39
Two-year	RN0	$306.65 \pm 39a$	$0.05\pm0.05b$	129.58c	1213	0	229	8656	$1.61 \pm 0.25a$
average	RN120	334.61± 64a	$0.09\pm0.02b$	154.07bc	1213	996	271	10322	1.40 ± 0.16 b
	RN180	$289.53 \pm 14a$	$0.18 \pm 0.07 ab$	171.54ab	1213	1494	279	9679	1.25 ± 0.09 bc
	RN240	$295.46 \pm 38a$	$0.24 \pm 0.14 ab$	185.50ab	1213	1992	297	10321	$1.20 \pm 0.08 cd$
	RN300	$324.47 \pm 72a$	$0.35 \pm 0.25a$	196.87a	1213	2490	293	11550	1.38 ± 0.21 bc

^aDefinitions of treatment codes are given in the footnotes of Table 1.

^bMean±SD; different letters within same column indicate a significant difference at p<0.05.

Table 5. The seasonal average various reactive N (Nr) losses and reactive N intensity (NrI) for

the two rice-growing seasons from 2013 to 2014 in the TLR Taihu Lake region

	NH_3	N	N	N_2O	NO_X	Total Nr	NII
Treatment ^a	volatilization	runoff	leaching	emission	emission	losses	NrI
			kg N	ha ⁻¹			$g N kg^{-1}$
RN0	0.64	5.39	1.44	0.07	3.96	11.50	2.14
RN120	21.04	10.30	2.24	0.12	5.62	39.32	5.36
RN180	31.24	14.25	2.80	0.21	6.44	54.93	7.12
RN240	41.44	19.70	3.50	0.27	7.26	72.17	8.42
RN300	51.64	27.24	4.37	0.38	8.07	91.69	10.92

^aDefinitions of treatment codes are given in the footnotes of Table 1.

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Table 6	The casconal ave	erage economia	evaluation indicator	e (two-seeson ever	ge) for rice		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
Table 0.	The seasonal ave	stage economic	evaruation indicator	s (two-season avera	ge, for fice		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
productio	n of the two grou	ing seasons from	n 2013 to 2014 in the	a <u>TLP</u> Taihu Lake n	egion (unit:		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
productio	ii of the two grow	ing seasons nor	ii 2013 to 2014 iii tik	TENTAIIIU Lake I	egion (unit.		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
¥ ha=1)							Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
				Environmen	ntal costs ^e		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
reatment ^a	Yield income ^b	Input costs ^c	Farmer's income ^d			es	
RN0	16125	4493	11632	1143	71		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
RN120	22020	6104	15916	1363	376		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
RN180	23130	6542	16588	1278	535		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
RN240	25725	7277	18448	1362	700		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
RN300	25185	7385	17800	1525	874		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
KINSOO	23103	7363	17800	1323	074	_	F 10 5
^a Definitio	ns of treatment cod	les are given in the	ne footnotes of Table	1.			Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
^b Yield inc	come = rice yield ×	rice price.					
^c Input co	sts denote the eco	nomic input of	purchasing various a	gricultural materials	and hiring		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
labours							Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
^d Farmer's	income = Yield in	come – input Inpi	<u>ıt</u> costs.				Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
^e Environr	nental costs denote	ed the sum of the	e acidification costs,	eutrophication costs	and global		
warming	costs incurred by	GHG emissions	and Nr releases. Th	ne cost prices of Gl	HG and Nr		
releases a	re as followed: GI	HG emission, 13	2 ¥ t ⁼¹ CO ₂ eq (Xia e	et al., 2014); NH ₃ vo	olatilization,		Formatted: Font color: Text 1, Englis (U.K.)
13.12 ¥ k	g ⁻¹ N; N leaching,	6.12 ¥ kg ⁻¹ N;	N runoff, 3.64 ¥ kg ^{_1}	N; NO _X emission, 8	3.7 ¥ kg ¹ N		Formatted: Font color: Text 1, Englis (U.K.)
(Xia and	Yan, 2011).						Formatted: Font color: Text 1, Englis (U.K.)
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Figure captions		·
Fig. 1. Seasonal variations in the daily precipitation and the temperature during the two		
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rice—growing seasons of (a) 2013 and (b) 2014.		·
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Fig.2. Relationship between N fertilizer application rate and seasonal average rice grain		(communication of the particular of the particu
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yield over the two rice-growing seasons of 2013 and 2014 in the TLR. Taihu Lake region.		Tomatted. Font. 10.5 pt
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The vertical bars represent standard errors $\frac{(n=6)}{2}$		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
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Fig.3. Seasonal variations in (a) CH ₄ and (b) N ₂ O fluxes during the two rice-growing seasons		
rigio. Seasonal variations in (a) C114 and (b) 1120 haxes during the two rice growing seasons		
from 2012 to 2014 in the TLD Teibu Leke region. The arrow indicates N familiary application		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
from 2013 to 2014 in the TLR-Taihu Lake region. The arrow indicates N fertilizer application.		
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The vertical bars represent standard errors $\frac{(n=3)}{n}$		
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Fig.4. Relationship between N fertilizer application rate and (a) NH ₃ emissions volatilization.		
(b) N runoff, (c) N leaching and (d) N ₂ O emissions for rice production in the TLR Taihu		
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Lake region. These relationships were obtained through a meta-analysis.		Tornation. Total pt
		F
Fig.5. Seasonal average total environmental costs incurred by greenhouse gas (GHG)		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
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emissions and reactive N (Nr) losses for rice production in TLR Taihu Lake region.		Formatted: Font: 10.5 pt
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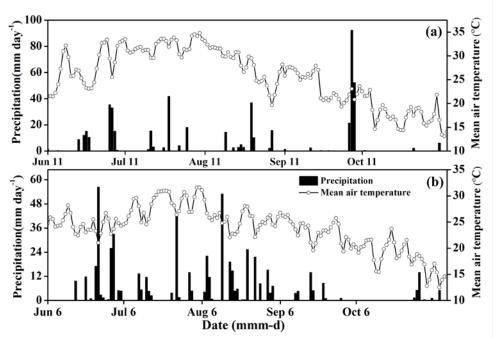


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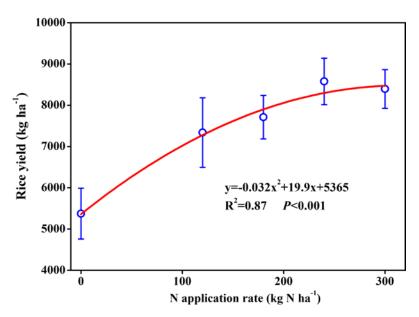


Fig.2

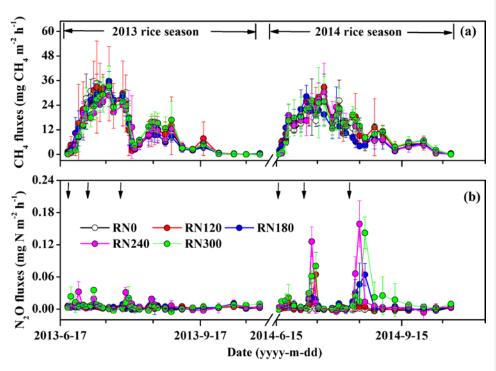


Fig.3

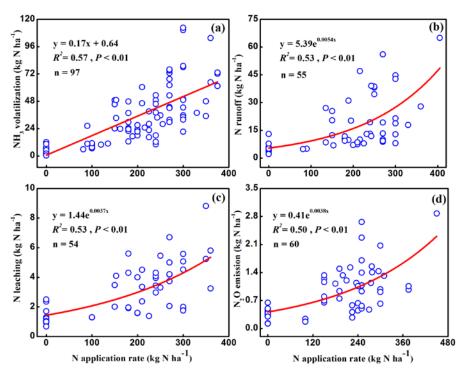
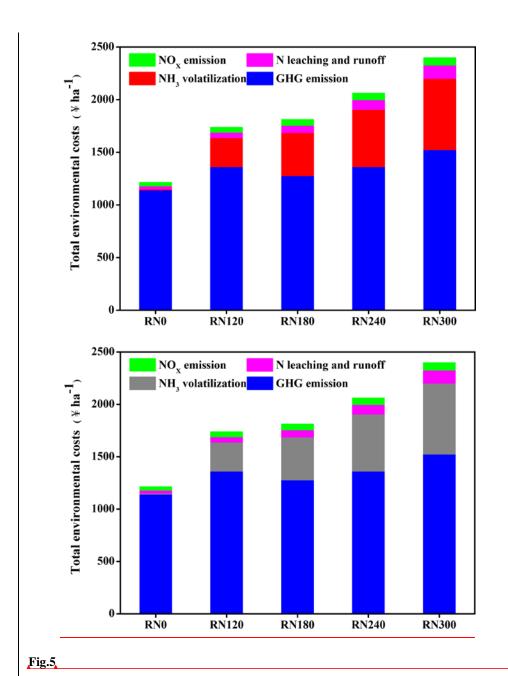


Fig.4



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