

1 **Mitigating ammonia emission from agriculture reduces PM_{2.5} pollution in the Hai**
2 **River Basin in China**

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14 Accepted for publication in The Science of the Total Environment

15 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.07.240>

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17

19 **Abstract:**

20 The Hai River Basin (HRB), one of the most populated areas in China, is experiencing
21 high NH₃ emissions, mostly from agricultural sources, and suffering from strongly
22 enhanced PM_{2.5} concentrations in all urban areas. Further increase of population and
23 urbanization projected until 2030 may exacerbate this situation. Here, the NUFER
24 (NUtrient flows in Food chains, Environment and Resources use) and GAINS
25 (Greenhouse gas – Air pollution Interactions and Synergies) models have been coupled
26 for the first time to understand possible changes of agricultural NH₃ emission between
27 2012 and 2030 and their impacts on ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations, and to explore
28 options to improve this situation. Results show that agricultural ammonia emissions in
29 the HRB were 1179 kt NH₃ in 2012, 45% of which was from the hotspots at or near
30 conurbation areas, including Beijing-Tianjin, Tangshan-Qinhuangdao, Shijiazhuang-
31 Baoding, Dezhou, Handan-Liaocheng, and Xinxiang. Without intervention, agricultural
32 ammonia emissions will further increase by 33% by 2030. The impacts of several
33 scenarios were tested with respect to air pollution. Compared to the business-as-usual
34 scenario, a scenario of improved technology and management combined with human
35 diet optimization could greatly reduce emission (by 60%), and lead to 22-43% and 9-
36 24% decrease of the secondary inorganic aerosols and PM_{2.5} concentrations,

37 respectively, in the hotspots of NH₃ emissions. Our results further confirmed that
38 ammonia control is needed for air pollution abatement strategies (SO₂, NO_x and primary
39 PM reduction) to be effective in terms of PM_{2.5}.

40

41 **Key words:** Air pollution, atmospheric model, Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, Nitrogen,
42 PM_{2.5} concentration.

43

44 **1 Introduction**

45 Ammonia (NH₃) emissions, mainly from agricultural production, are increasingly
46 contributing to PM_{2.5} pollution in China (Wu et al., 2016). Long-term exposure to high
47 levels of PM_{2.5} has been linked to premature death from cardiovascular and
48 cardiopulmonary diseases (Pope et al., 2002; Beelen et al., 2014). NH₃ emissions and
49 PM_{2.5} ambient concentration were all high in the Hai River Basin (HRB) (Sun et al.,
50 2015; Kang et al., 2016), one of the most important agricultural regions and also most
51 densely populated regions in China. Intensive agricultural production, along with
52 excess nitrogen use, has led to high NH₃ emissions in this region. However, there is
53 little research to comprehensively evaluate the potential of agricultural NH₃ emission
54 reductions and their impacts on ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations in the HRB region.

55

56 An accurate and detailed NH₃ emissions inventory is the basis for such an evaluation.
57 Considerable efforts have been made to develop such inventories (Kang et al., 2016;
58 Huang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016). Most of the
59 emission inventories were based on the low-resolution (provincial or prefecture level)
60 activity data, limiting their reliability in gridded results. Although some studies used
61 county-level activity data, the emission factors were unavailable at that level. Therefore,
62 large uncertainties remain with the current understanding of NH₃ emissions (Wang et
63 al., 2013).

64

65 There are a number of pathways available to mitigate agricultural NH₃ emissions. These
66 start out from improving technology and management of agricultural production (Ma
67 et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Chadwick et al., 2015), but also include reducing food
68 waste (Garnett et al., 2013), and preventing future increase of production by limiting
69 the consumption of resource-intensive diets (Ma et al., 2013; Gu et al., 2015; Tilman
70 and Clark, 2014). Increased food imports can also reduce the pressure of production on
71 Chinese agriculture. Possible changes in food production and consumption in China
72 have been explored for the period 2010 to 2030 by the NUFER (NUtrient flows in Food
73 chains, Environment and Resources use) model (Ma et al., 2016), considering pathways

74 mentioned above and assuming that China's population is expected to peak around 2030
75 (United Nations, 2015). Abatement technologies have been developed to reduce
76 agricultural emissions (Bittman et al., 2014). With given or assumed knowledge on the
77 stringency of current legislation and future ambition to reduce emissions, future
78 pathways can be translated into emission scenarios (Rao et al., 2017).

79

80 Linking emissions of air pollutants to air quality requires the use of atmospheric models,
81 specifically chemical transport models. More generalized information can be drawn
82 from integrated models, which incorporate the results of such atmospheric models and
83 produce source-receptor (or even emission-impact) relationships directly. Integrated
84 assessment models have been applied on the national (Oxley et al., 2013) as well as
85 regional (Kieseewetter et al., 2015) scales. For the latter case, the GAINS (Greenhouse
86 gas – Air pollution Interactions and Synergies) model brings together bottom-up
87 emission calculations from all economic sectors, emission control technologies and
88 their emission factors for various pollutants, and further assesses the impacts of PM_{2.5}
89 concentration on human health (Kieseewetter et al., 2015). The GAINS model has been
90 applied for several world regions, including China (Chen et al., 2015).

91

92 The objectives of this study are: (1) to develop a detailed and reliable agricultural NH₃

93 emission inventory for the HRB region for the year 2012; (2) to explore how the
94 agricultural NH₃ emissions in the HRB region will change between 2012 and 2030
95 under a range of scenarios; and (3) to evaluate the impacts of the changes of agricultural
96 NH₃ emissions on air pollution (PM_{2.5} concentration).

97

98 **2 Materials and methods**

99 The study domain covers some of the most intensively used agricultural area in China,
100 the Hai River Basin, encompassing the two municipalities Beijing and Tianjin, most of
101 Hebei province, the eastern part of Shanxi province and the northern parts of Henan
102 and Shandong provinces (Fig. S1 in the Supplementary Information). . We used county-
103 level statistical data, local parameters, and coupled the NUFER with the GAINS model
104 for the first time to develop and apply future emission scenarios used in this analysis.
105 All details are described in the supplementary Information to this work, including data
106 tables and figures. The following section presents a summary.

107

108 **2.1 Ammonia emission estimation**

109 Agricultural ammonia emissions were calculated from activity data on crop and
110 livestock production and corresponding emission factors (EFs) specific for local
111 conditions according to the following Eq. (1):

$$112 \quad E_{NH_3} = \frac{17}{14} \sum (A_i \times EF_i) , \quad (1)$$

113 Where E_{NH_3} is the estimated total agricultural NH_3 emissions; 17/14 is the conversion
114 coefficient of NH_3 -N emissions to NH_3 emissions; i represents the source type; A_i is
115 the source specific activity data; EF_i is the corresponding NH_3 emission factor (often
116 presented as the share of N used/applied, hence expressed in NH_3 -N).

117

118 **2.1.1 Activity data sources**

119 Here county-level agricultural activity data, derived from a variety of local statistical
120 yearbooks, for 2012 were used to generate an inventory of agricultural NH_3 emissions.

121 County-level activity data provided more detail on spatial variation of mineral fertilizer
122 application and livestock production than provincial and prefectural level data.

123

124 Arable land emissions depend on crop-specific fertilizer application, fertilizer type, and
125 soil properties (as pH). In this study we considered five main crop types (wheat, maize,
126 soybean, vegetable, and fruit), seven mineral fertilizer types (urea,
127 ammonium bicarbonate – ABC, ammonium nitrate – AN, ammonium sulfate – AS,
128 diammonium phosphate – DAP, compound fertilizer – NPK, and other), and two
129 fertilization methods (basal and top dressing). The National Development and Reform
130 Commission (NDRC) (NDRC, 2013) provided the application rate of each crop-
131 specific synthetic N fertilizer for each province (Table S3). Furthermore, the
132 information on fertilization methods of each synthetic fertilizer type for each crop type
133 (Table S4) was derived from a comprehensive farm survey covering 400 individual
134 farms in 11 typical counties in the Hai River Basin (Fig. S1). These farms represented
135 the typical topography of the region that varies from piedmont plains, low plains to
136 peri-urban, and also covered the representative crop-based farm types, including cereal
137 farms that only grew wheat in winter and maize in summer in rotation, vegetable farms
138 that grew vegetables only or vegetables as well as cereals, and fruit farms that grew
139 fruits only or fruits as well as cereal crops.

140

141 For the NH₃ emissions related to livestock production, we considered six main animal
142 classes: pigs, beef cattle, dairy cattle, laying poultry, meat poultry, and sheep & goats.

143 Pigs, beef cattle and dairy cattle manure management systems were further divided into
144 liquid and solid sub-systems, respectively. Grazing excreta were also considered in the
145 calculation for dairy cattle, beef cattle, and sheep & goat systems. We used the
146 provincial-level N excretion rates in different livestock systems (Table S6) estimated
147 by Bai et al. (2016) using the NUFER model. A mass-flow approach, livestock stage-
148 specific feeding structures based on farm interviews, and nitrogen retention in milk,
149 egg, and body weight gain from statistical data were used by the NUFER model to
150 estimate the average nitrogen excretion at provincial scale, so the N excretion rates were
151 more reasonable and detailed than the averages from literature.

152

153 **2.1.2 Emission factors**

154 The emission factors described above specifically consider the Chinese situation. For
155 the mineral fertilizer application, the crop- and fertilizer-specified emission factors
156 (Table S7) were developed from published literature taking advantage of local
157 conditions, specific shares of fertilizers, and fertilization methods as described above.

158

159 NH_3 emissions related to livestock production were assessed from a mass-consistent N-
160 flow model on manure. Here the NUFER model provided information required to

161 describe the losses to the respective environmental media in each of the stages (housing,
162 storage & treatment, and application), including NH₃, N₂O, N₂, leaching, and direct
163 discharge (Bai et al., 2016). The assessment specifically accounts for N lost in discharge
164 to surface water, which led to the decrease of NH₃ emissions from manure management
165 chain. We further updated the manure direct discharge factors in manure management
166 chain for different livestock systems based on the results of farm interview (Table S8)
167 on landless and mixed crop-livestock farms. Other emission factors could be found in
168 the study by Bai et al. (2016). These emission factors were used as inputs to the GAINS
169 model and, together with activity numbers specifically developed from Chinese
170 statistical information (see activity data sources above) used for further calculation.

171

172 **2.1.3 Spatial allocation**

173 Land use data on 1 km ×1 km grid, provided by the Data Center for Resources and
174 Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences (RESDC)
175 (<http://www.resdc.cn>), were used to explore the spatial distribution of agricultural NH₃
176 emissions. The NH₃ emissions from arable lands were then evenly allocated to the
177 arable areas in each county, assuming that all the available animal manure in each
178 county was applied to the arable lands within this county. NH₃ emissions from animal
179 housing, manure storage, and treatment stages were evenly allocated to the rural

180 settlement areas in each county. To reduce the uncertainties, the resulting 1-km maps
181 were aggregated to 5-km resolution.

182

183 **2.2 Evaluation of impacts of ammonia emissions on PM_{2.5}**

184 GAINS uses a source-receptor matrix to assign PM_{2.5} concentrations (annual mean
185 values) and concentration changes to the emissions derived according to the respective
186 scenarios. The underlying methodology has been described in detail (Kiesewetter et al.,
187 2015). The source-receptor matrix used here is the result of multiple sensitivity
188 simulations of the European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP) Chemical
189 Transport Model (CTM), a hemispheric model that also covers the area of China
190 (Simpson et al., 2012) and describes the impact of changes in emissions of primary PM
191 and PM precursors SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, and VOC, on ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations on a
192 0.5 degree grid. Emissions of other compounds (SO₂, NO_x, and VOC) than NH₃ were
193 obtained from the scenarios developed for the International Energy Agency (IEA,
194 2016). We evaluated the impact of NH₃ emission changes on secondary inorganic
195 aerosols (SIA) and in consequence also PM_{2.5} concentrations for 2030 under several
196 scenarios previously developed to reflect future pathways of the Chinese agricultural
197 system.

198

199 Responses of PM_{2.5} concentrations to NH₃ emission changes are calculated via linear
200 transfer coefficients which have been generated by reducing NH₃ emissions by 15%
201 under present day (2015) atmospheric conditions in the CTM. Under strong reductions
202 of NH₃ emissions as envisaged in some of the scenarios discussed below, we may
203 assume that SIA formation becomes so strongly NH₃-limited that no ammonium nitrate
204 is formed any more. Hence a lower boundary of SIA concentrations was calculated by
205 setting the contribution of NO_x emissions to zero. We note that this lower range still
206 does not consider that also ammonium sulphate formation may become NH₃-limited,
207 i.e. that the contribution of SO₂ emissions to SIA formation may decrease more strongly
208 than suggested by the present-day SO₂ transfer coefficient (Kiesewetter et al., 2015).

209

210 **2.3 Scenarios**

211 For sectors other than agriculture, anthropogenic activities and emissions used in this
212 study were kept identical to those in the New Policies Scenario of the International
213 Energy Agency (IEA) (IEA, 2016) assessment, assuming economic development as
214 projected by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)
215 and application of currently agreed emission control legislation. Projected population
216 growth rate for the whole of China taken from United Nations (2015) was used in the
217 Hai River Basin.

218

219 Six scenarios developed previously (Ma et al., 2016) were used to estimate the demand
220 changes for domestic agricultural production between 2012 and 2030 in the HRB
221 region, such as the area of each crop type, the amount of synthetic fertilizer application,
222 and animal numbers. Also the impacts of these changes on agricultural NH₃ emissions
223 and air quality were quantified. The key information of these scenarios is explained
224 below.

225

226 **Scenario 0: Business As Usual (BAU).** This scenario assumes that (1) with a rapid
227 increase of income in rural areas, the diet (specifically, the meat consumption) of
228 Chinese rural people in 2030 will be the same as that of the urban population in 2010,
229 while the diet for the urban population will not change; (2) there is no change in food
230 import rates between 2010 and 2030; (3) the agricultural practice in 2030 will also be
231 the same as that in 2010.

232

233 **Scenario 1: Consume and Waste Less (CWL).** This scenario assumes that (1) the
234 recommendations of the Chinese Dietary Guidelines (2007) will be fully adopted by
235 rural and urban populations in 2030; (2) at the same time, food waste during food

236 production and supply chain will be reduced by 20% relative to 2010; (3) the food
237 import rates and the practice of agricultural production in 2030 will be the same as that
238 in 2010.

239

240 **Scenario 2: Import More Food (IMF).** With the same demand for agricultural
241 products in 2030 as that in the BAU scenario, the IMF scenario assumes that in 2030,
242 (1) the soybean import rate will be expected to be stable at 84%; (2) the share of milk
243 imported will increase to 20%; (3) self-sufficiency in all other plant-based and animal-
244 based foods and feeds will reach 90%.

245

246 **Scenario 3: Producing More and Better (PMB).** Under the same demand for
247 domestic agricultural products and food import rate in 2030 as in the BAU scenario, the
248 PMB scenario assumes for the management of livestock production that, compared to
249 2010, (1) the shares of liquid and solid systems for dairy, beef cattle and pig systems
250 will not change in 2030; (2) livestock productivity will increase by 20% for pig and
251 meat poultry, and 40% for other animal types via improved feeding in 2030; (3) manure
252 discharge into rivers will completely disappear in 2030, manure will be applied on fields
253 instead; (4) the NH₃ emission rates in animal housing, manure storage, treatment, and
254 application stages will all reduce by 50%, due to the extensive application of several

255 technologies, such as covered storage of manure, low ammonia application (deep
256 application, etc.), bio-filtration, animal housing adaption, and their combination. For
257 crop production management, it is assumed that relative to 2010, (1) the productivity
258 of rice, wheat, maize, vegetable and fruit production will increase by 17%, 45%, 70%,
259 25% and 25% in 2030, assuming that the Integrated Soil-Crop System Management
260 (ISSM) technology (Chen et al., 2014) is fully adopted; (2) the fertilizer N application
261 rates for rice, wheat and maize will not change, and the fertilizer N application rates for
262 vegetable, soybean and fruit will decrease by 30% in 2030. The increased animal
263 manure availability by reducing animal manure losses is expected to reduce the
264 application of synthetic fertilizer.

265

266 **Scenario 4: PMB+CWL.** Scenario 4 combines the assumptions developed for PMB
267 and CWL.

268

269 **Scenario 5: PMB+CWL+IMF.** This scenario is a combination of PMB, CWL and
270 IMF scenarios.

271

272 **3 Results**

273 **3.1 The agricultural ammonia emission inventories in HRB**

274 The total agricultural NH₃ emissions in the HRB region were estimated as 1179 kt NH₃
275 yr⁻¹ in 2012. Animal manure and synthetic fertilizer application accounted for almost
276 equal shares of total agricultural emissions, 51% and 49%, respectively. Pigs, laying
277 poultry, beef cattle, dairy cattle, sheep & goat, and other poultry contributed 32%, 19%,
278 18%, 14%, 10%, and 7% to livestock emissions, respectively. Urea and ABC accounted
279 for 89% of total NH₃ emissions from synthetic fertilizer (Fig. 1).

280

281 Under the BAU scenario, total agricultural NH₃ emissions would increase by 33%
282 relative to 2012, reaching 1571 kt NH₃ yr⁻¹ in 2030. NH₃ emissions from livestock
283 manure and synthetic fertilizer application would increase by 59% and 7%, respectively
284 (Fig. 1); livestock manure would thus contribute 60% of total agricultural NH₃
285 emissions. This mainly resulted from the demand increase for the domestic animal-
286 derived food (meat, milk, eggs) by 33-93%, and therefore for feed products by 27-34%
287 (Table S8).

288

289 Human diet optimization in parallel with reduction of food waste (CWL scenario)
290 would significantly reduce total agricultural NH₃ emissions in 2030 by 27% compared
291 to BAU scenario, synthetic fertilizer and livestock manure responsible for 12% and
292 15%, respectively. Relative to 2012, the reduction of synthetic fertilizer emissions in
293 2030 (24%) would be offset by the increase of livestock emissions (18%), and
294 consequently the agricultural emissions in 2030 would be similar to that in 2012 (Fig.
295 1). The dairy cattle system, approximately five times the 2012 level, is the only
296 contributor to the elevated livestock NH₃, due to the huge increase
297 in recommended intakes of milk.

298 The increase of food imports (IMF scenario) could also reduce agricultural NH₃
299 emissions by 31% and 8%, relative to the BAU scenario in 2030 and 2012, respectively.

300 The emissions from synthetic fertilizer application and livestock manure would be 25%
301 and 34% lower than those under BAU scenario, respectively. Compared to 2012,
302 emissions from synthetic fertilizer application would decrease by 20%, while livestock
303 emissions would increase by 4% (Fig. 1).

304

305 Improvements of technology and management (PMB scenario) could greatly reduce
306 NH₃ emissions by 45% and 26% relative to the BAU scenario in 2030 and 2012,
307 respectively, being more successful in emission reductions than the CWL and IMF

308 scenarios. Urea and ABC were the main contributors to the emission reductions,
309 accounting for 35% and 70% of the total reductions relative to 2030 of the BAU
310 scenario and 2012, respectively (Fig. 1).

311

312 The combination of different strategies could further reduce the agricultural NH_3
313 emissions. The combination of the improvements of technology and management with
314 change in human diet (PMB+CWL scenario) could decrease total NH_3 emissions by 60%
315 and 47% relative to 2030 of the BAU scenario and 2012. Urea and ABC were also the
316 main contributors to the emission reductions, accounting for 34% and 53% of the total
317 reductions relative to 2030 of the BAU scenario and 2012, respectively. Among all
318 agricultural sources, only dairy cattle emissions would increase, due to the human diet
319 change. Considering improvement of food import in addition could lead to a further
320 decrease of NH_3 emissions of 6 - 8% (Fig. 1).

321

322 **3.2 The spatial distribution of ammonia emissions**

323 Fig. 2 shows the spatial patterns of agricultural NH_3 emissions in 2012 and, for
324 comparison, in 2030 under strong emission reductions (PMB+CWL scenario). Several
325 NH_3 emissions hotspots appeared in 2012, which cover 17% of the basin area but

326 contributed approximately 45% of the total agricultural NH₃ emissions. The NH₃
327 emission densities from arable land and animal manure in hotspots were consistently
328 higher than in other regions. This was mainly due to the higher nitrogen fertilizer
329 application rates and livestock density than other regions (Fig. S2). These emissions
330 hotspots are situated close to the big cities, such as Beijing, Tangshan, Shijiazhuang,
331 Baoding, Dezhou, Handan, Liaocheng, and Xinxiang. The NH₃ hotspot emissions in
332 2030 under the PMB+CWL scenario would be clearly lower than those in 2012.

333

334 Fig. 3 reveals that the NH₃ emissions densities and sector contributions vary among the
335 hotspots, as well as between 2012 and 2030. The lowest average emission density in
336 2012 occurred in Tangshan-Qinhuangdao with 7 t km⁻², and the highest value in
337 Shijiazhuang-Baoding with 12 t km⁻² (km² represents the land area). Synthetic
338 fertilizers and animal manure accounted for almost equal shares of emissions for all
339 hotspots other than Tangshan-Qinhuangdao and Dezhou regions, where animal manure
340 was the dominant emission source. Urea and ABC contributed more than 80% of
341 synthetic fertilizer emissions for all hotspots. Dairy cattle, beef cattle, laying poultry,
342 and pigs were the largest livestock emission sources for Tangshan-Qinhuangdao,
343 Dezhou, Handan-Liaocheng, and other hotspots, respectively. Under the PMB+CWL
344 scenario, Shijiazhuang-Baoding would still have the highest average emission density

345 with 7 t km⁻² in 2030, while the lowest value with 4 t km⁻² would occur in Beijing-
346 Tianjin, Handan-Liaocheng, and Xinxiang regions. All hotspots other than Handan-
347 Liaocheng region, would be dominated by livestock emissions, especially dairy cattle
348 emissions.

349

350 **3.3 Impact of NH₃ emissions on PM_{2.5} concentration**

351 We estimated the population-weighted concentrations of PM_{2.5} (annual mean values,
352 results obtained by model grid cell were averaged over HRB weighted by population)
353 and SIA for 2012 and 2030 under each scenario. Fig. S3 shows the distributions of PM_{2.5}
354 and SIA concentrations for 2012 and 2030 under the BAU and PMB+CWL scenarios.
355 We further evaluated the impacts of NH₃ emissions reductions on PM_{2.5} and SIA
356 concentrations in the hotspots of NH₃ emissions (Fig. 4). Although the PM_{2.5}
357 concentrations in 2030 under all scenarios would be lower than those in 2012, the future
358 NH₃ emissions reductions can further decrease the PM_{2.5} concentrations via reduction
359 of SIA. Taking the comparison between the BAU and PMB+CWL scenarios as an
360 example, 60% agricultural NH₃ emissions reduction would lead to a decrease in mean
361 PM_{2.5} concentrations by 9-14% in the standard calculation, or by 12-24% in the “lower
362 boundary” case (see methods section) in the hot spots – which corresponds to 22-27%
363 (or 29-43% for the “lower boundary” case) reduction of SIA. The greatest reductions

364 of PM_{2.5} concentrations occur in the Xinxiang region with 12 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (18 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).
365 Shijiazhuang-Baoding would still have the highest PM_{2.5} concentration among all the
366 hotspots at 77 (75) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (calculated at the 0.5° resolution, which ignores smaller-scale
367 urban concentration increments that are mostly related to low-level primary PM sources
368 in cities).

369

370 **4 Discussion**

371 **4.1 Comparison with previous studies**

372 In order to indicate the levels of the emission inventory uncertainty, we compared in
373 detail our results with a number of available studies. Fig. 5 presents a comparison of
374 the NH₃ emissions from synthetic fertilizer application in this study in 2012 with
375 literature data on the province level. We chose two existing inventories originating from
376 Chinese institutions (Huang et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2015), and a previous
377 implementation of NH₃ emissions in the GAINS model deriving from the ECLIPSE V5
378 scenario (Klimont et al., 2016). Our estimates were 9%-28% lower than 2010 emissions
379 reported for Beijing, Tianjin, and Hebei province (Zhou et al., 2015). The disparity was
380 mainly caused by the consideration of basal dressing, especially for N compounds
381 application in our study, which resulted in the lower emission factors and thus ammonia
382 volatilization (Cai et al., 2002; Li and Ma, 1993; Zhang et al., 1992). Compared to the

383 2010 emissions of the GAINS/ECLIPSE V5 scenario, our results were lower for all the
384 provinces other than Tianjin. The differences of data sources and emission factors could
385 explain the lower emissions in this study compared to the 2010 estimate in that
386 GAINS/ECLIPSE V5 scenario, which used the data of mineral fertilizer from FAO
387 (FAO, 2016). Compared to this study, total mineral N fertilizer applications were higher
388 in the GAINS/ECLIPSE V5 scenario for all provinces other than Tianjin and Henan
389 province, but the shares of urea and ABC were lower for all provinces. The ammonia
390 emission factors were specified for urea (including ABC) and other mineral N fertilizer
391 in GAINS, while in this study we collected information on seven mineral fertilizer
392 categories with two fertilization methods. Compared to the published estimates for
393 2006 (Huang et al., 2012), our results were lower for Henan province, but higher for
394 other provinces. The disparities might be mainly attributed to the changes of fertilizer
395 composition, fertilization method between 2006 and 2012, and the differences in
396 emission factors. Compound fertilizer consumptions in each province were all higher
397 in 2012 than 2006. According to the farm interview, most of compound fertilizer were
398 deep applied to the fields. In our study, the emission factors were mainly based on
399 reported local measurement results (Table S7), while Huang et al. used the emission
400 factors parameterized by fertilizer–N application rate, temperature, and fertilization
401 method. The changes of fertilizer composition between 2006 and 2012, and the different

402 sources of fertilizer application rates and fertilization method all contributed to the
403 disparities of emission factors.

404

405 We also compared the NH₃ emissions from the animal manure management chain to
406 the previous estimates to analyze the role of the consideration of manure discharge,
407 activity data and parameters. According to the farm interview, about 19-57% of manure
408 N were directly discharged to surface water from animal housing, which caused
409 considerable water pollution while reducing NH₃ emissions. Selected parameters,
410 including N excretion rates and emission factors, were determined by NUFER model
411 based on national statistical data and local farm interview. Our results for 2012 were
412 45-58% smaller than 2010 estimations for Beijing, Tianjin and Hebei province reported
413 by Zhou et al. (Zhou et al., 2015). The consideration of only main livestock types,
414 including dairy cattle, beef cattle, pig, sheep & goat, meat poultry and laying poultry,
415 in our calculation is to some extent offset by the increase of animal numbers in 2012
416 compared to 2010, so the disparities are explained by these authors ignoring losses from
417 animal manure management chain and applying different parameters. All these were
418 also responsible for the higher contributions of domestic animals (77-78%) and lower
419 contributions of poultry (22-23%) to the total livestock NH₃ emissions in Beijing,
420 Tianjin and Hebei province in this study than those estimated by Zhou et al. (2015).

421 Our emission estimates were 10% and 58% lower for Beijing and Shanxi, and 26-50%
422 higher for Shandong, Henan and Tianjin than the 2010 estimates by the GAINS -
423 ECLIPSE V5 scenario. These disparities could be attributed to the different data sources
424 and emission factors, as well as the consideration of N losses via animal manure
425 discharge, which was ignored by that previous GAINS scenario. Our results on
426 livestock emissions were higher than those estimated by Huang et al. (Huang et al.,
427 2012) for Beijing, Tianjin, while lower for other provinces. The consideration of animal
428 manure direct discharge to surface water and the different parameters, including annual
429 total ammonia nitrogen (TAN) excretion per animal for each livestock class and NH₃
430 emission factors from each stage of livestock manure management, contributed to the
431 disparities. The N losses via animal manure discharge were not included in their
432 estimation. The parameters applied by Huang et al. were mainly derived from literature
433 or foreign studies, such as EEA's guidelines (EEA, 2013) and the same among all the
434 Chinese provinces.

435

436 In order to verify our estimation for the PM_{2.5} concentration, we compared our results
437 with the monitoring data in 2014 provided by China Air Quality Online Monitoring and
438 Analysis Platform (<https://www.aqistudy.cn/>) (Table S10), considering the monitoring

439 data available. For the main cities, the annual mean concentrations of PM_{2.5} were
440 similar between 2012 and 2014.

441

442 **4.2 The effect of the changes in NH₃ emissions**

443 Considering the increase of NH₃ emissions in 2030 under the BAU scenario relative to
444 2012, projected possible emission reductions of particulate matter, SO₂ and NO_x (IEA,
445 2016) would lead to 14-21% decrease of PM_{2.5} concentrations in the hot spots. The
446 decrease of PM_{2.5} concentrations confirms that NH₃ emission reduction should be paid
447 more attention in the future for the control of PM_{2.5}, especially of SIA (Wang et al.,
448 2013). Besides the effect of NH₃ emissions on air quality, the nitrogen use efficiency
449 of agricultural production will be greatly improved by such reduction measures.
450 However, the population-weighted PM_{2.5} concentrations in the hotspots would be still
451 higher than the global population-weighted mean (20 µg m⁻³) (Van Donkelaar et al.,
452 2010) and the Chinese annual average standard (35µg m⁻³) (GB 3095-2012, 2012).
453 Therefore the further control of emissions of particulate matter, SO₂ and NO_x cannot be
454 ignored in the future.

455

456 **4.3 Pathways of NH₃ emission reduction**

457 It is clear that structural changes in food production and consumption, as well as the
458 improvements in nutrient management have an impact on NH₃ emissions. The increase
459 of NH₃ emissions in 2030 under the BAU scenario can be almost offset by increasing
460 food import (IMF scenario) or optimizing the human diet (CWL scenario). Compared
461 to the increasing food import, the dietary change and reduced food losses scenario is
462 more advisable, because it is beneficial to human health and the environment
463 simultaneously. Our analysis was based on the dietary recommendations of 2007. As
464 the updated dietary guidelines (Chinese Nutrition Society, 2016) recommend reduced
465 intakes of meat and fruit, the ammonia emissions under those circumstances would
466 decrease even further. However, the challenge lies in how the optimized diet can be
467 adopted by all the people. Although human health awareness continues to grow with
468 the ageing of populations and increase in diet-related diseases (Popkin et al., 2001), the
469 behavioral patterns are not always consistent with these attitudes, due to the lack of
470 knowledge on nutrition. Therefore, nutrition education has been demonstrated to be one
471 effective way to healthy diet and physical activity (Wang et al., 2015; Aikman et al.,
472 2006) and offers benefits also in terms of reducing ammonia emissions.

473

474 The improvement of nitrogen management is the key for NH₃ emission reductions,
475 according to the results under the PMB scenario. The ISSM technology in the crop
476 production sector has illustrated the possibility to increase crop yields, therefore reduce
477 NH₃ emissions under the policy of “Zero Growth in Synthetic Fertilizer Use from 2020”
478 (MOA, 2015). However, smallholder farming with small parcels of land (around 0.1 ha)
479 (Chen et al., 2011) dominates the agricultural production, as a result of the household
480 contract responsibility system in China. Low agricultural incomes and the rapid
481 economic development drive the farmers to make a living from off-farm work rather
482 than manage crop or soil. Meanwhile, most of the farmers lack knowledge. As a result,
483 non-optimal N management is common in China, and implementation of these new
484 techniques and measures by farmers faces a big challenge. Some pathways have been
485 explored to disseminate new knowledge and technologies. For instance, the Science
486 and Technology Backyard (STB) platform (Zhang et al., 2016), enabling the farmers,
487 university, industry, and government to work together, is an illustrated pathway. In
488 order to popularize the new knowledge and technologies, the agro-technical team
489 should be further scaled up, stabilized, and perfected, however, this will to a large extent
490 enhance the running cost under the current circumstances. The combination of STB
491 platform with enlarging farm size and decreasing fertilizer subsidies might be more
492 cost-efficient for the reduction of nitrogen fertilizer application (Ju et al., 2016). For

493 animal manure management, we used the information on the ammonia emission
494 abatement technology in the GAINS model, including low nitrogen feed, low ammonia
495 application, animal house adaption, bio-filtration, covered outdoor storage of manure,
496 and their combination. Although they may not fully reflect the Chinese situation, clear
497 potentials exist to further reduce NH₃ emissions. Animal manure management options
498 that allow low emissions thus need to be further studied for situations typically
499 encountered in China.

500

501 **5 Conclusions**

502 Overall, agricultural ammonia emissions were 1179 kt NH₃ in 2012 in HRB, with
503 approximately 45% of the total agricultural NH₃ emissions coming from the six
504 hotspots regions which covered only 17% of the basin area. This also means much
505 higher ammonia emission densities occurred in these regions – from 7 to 12 t NH₃ km⁻².
506 NH₃ emissions will further increase by 33% by 2030 and still with large regional
507 uneven distribution, if there is no intervention. However, considerable emission
508 reductions are possible and also benefit for air pollution abatement in terms of PM_{2.5}.
509 The most effective strategy is the combination of improved technology and
510 management with human diet optimization, which can reduce ammonia emissions by
511 60% and therefore 22-27% to 29-43% and 9-14% to 12-24% of the secondary inorganic

512 aerosols and PM_{2.5} concentration, respectively, relative to 2030 under the BAU scenario.

513 This is a considerable potential to be achieved by ammonia emission controls.

514

515 **Acknowledgements**

516 This work was financially supported by the National Science Foundation of China

517 (NSFC) (31572210, C150704), the Key Research Program of the Chinese Academy of

518 Sciences, Grant No DRW-ZS-2016-5. This work was initiated during Zhanqing Zhao's

519 stay at IIASA with the Young Scientists Summer Program. The authors would like to

520 acknowledge the underlying multiple runs of the EMEP model performed by Ágnes

521 Nyíri and Hilde Fagerli from EMEP/MET.NO, which were used to derive the source

522 receptor relationships for all GAINS Asia regions.

523

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