



23 13.5%–89.3% of the statistical mean. After spatial aggregation, the national total  
24 methane emissions were estimated 6.44–7.32 Tg, depending on the base scale of the  
25 modeling and the reliability of the input data. And with the given data availability, the  
26 overall aggregated standard deviation was 16.3% of the total emissions, ranging from  
27 18.3%–28.0% for early, late and middle rice ecosystems. The 95% confidence  
28 interval of the estimation was 4.5–8.7 Tg by assuming a Gamma distribution.  
29 Improving the data availability of the model input variables is expected to reduce the  
30 uncertainties significantly, especially of those factors with high model sensitivities.

31 **Keywords:** model, upscaling, uncertainty aggregation, data scarcity, methane  
32 emissions, rice paddy

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## 38 **1 Introduction**

39 Methane is not only an important greenhouse gas in the atmosphere, but also an  
40 active reactor in many atmospheric chemistry processes. Rice cultivation has been  
41 recognized the major anthropogenic activity that accounted for the rapid increase of  
42 the atmospheric methane concentration. But because of the high spatial heterogeneity  
43 in methane emissions from rice paddies, huge uncertainty has long been the big  
44 problem in making reliable estimations, even after complicated models were  
45 developed and applied (Li, et al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2011; Harvey, 2000). The models  
46 used in regional or global studies differ widely in terms of their spatial scales. Many  
47 of these models are site-specific, describing processes at local scales Extrapolating a  
48 site-specific model to a regional or global scale is usually referred to as “model  
49 upscaling” (King, 1991; van Bodegom et al., 2000). A common framework for this  
50 upscaling involves partitioning a large region into smaller, individual areas and  
51 running the model for each area (Matthews et al., 2000; Li et al., 2004; Yu et al.,  
52 2012).

53 In model upscaling, the first problem modelers face is how to make the spatial  
54 divisions (each division was call a cell, hereafter). It is preferable to partition the  
55 region so that the model inputs in the cells are as statistically independent of each  
56 other as possible (King, 1991; Ogle et al., 2003, 2010). When data are scarce,  
57 however, the criterion of inter-cell independence may result in the partition of large  
58 cells, leading to a reduced level of spatial details. An additional challenge is the great  
59 variability in the availability of data for the model inputs, which complicates the

60 selection of an appropriate cell size. A properly partitioned subject region should  
61 balance the differences in spatial data abundance among model inputs. If the cell size  
62 is too large, substantial spatial variation in the model input variables will be lost after  
63 within-cell averaging (van Bodegom et al., 2002; Verburg et al., 2006). Scientists  
64 tend to use the finest spatial resolution possible to express details in spatial variation  
65 in their modeling results. However, a finer spatial resolution requires sufficient model  
66 input data; otherwise, data must be shared among cells for at least some, if not all, the  
67 model inputs. This type of inter-cell non-independence among the cells (resulting  
68 from data scarcity and requiring data sharing) complicates the uncertainty analysis  
69 (Ogle et al., 2003) when finer spatial resolutions are adopted.

70 To estimate regional/national methane emissions from rice paddies, it is critical to  
71 obtain detailed information on organic matter amendments, soil properties, rice  
72 varieties and field irrigation in rice cultivation (Khalil et al., 2008; Peng et al., 2007;  
73 van Bodegom et al., 2000; Wassmann et al., 1996). Such data, however, are seldom  
74 available at a regional scale (Zhang et al., 2011).

75 To analyze the uncertainty due to errors in model inputs in each cell, the Monte  
76 Carlo simulation has been recognized as an effective method (IPCC, 2000), and it has  
77 been applied in many studies (Ogle et al., 2003, 2010; Yu et al., 2012). Based on the  
78 probability distribution functions (PDFs) derived from measurements and/or a priori  
79 knowledge of the model inputs, the Monte Carlo method involves randomly and  
80 repeatedly drawing values from the PDFs to drive the model and produce varying  
81 model estimates. After the Monte Carlo simulation is performed for a within-cell

82 uncertainty analysis in each division, we face the problem of uncertainty upscaling. In  
83 the case of “independent” partitioning of the entire subject region, an independent  
84 random variable is assigned to depict variations in the model estimate for each  
85 division (IPCC, 2000; Ogle et al., 2010), the uncertainty upscaling can be quite simple,  
86 as explained by the statistical “Law of Large Numbers”. As previously noted, however,  
87 a paucity of data for some of the model variables and a small cell size may result in  
88 data sharing among divisions, which is problematic for the model variables that lack  
89 sufficient data to support fine-resolution partitioning. Upscaling the uncertainties in  
90 the model outputs must deal appropriately with this type of “dependency”.

91 The objective of the present study is to evaluate the impacts of data scarcity on the  
92 uncertainty in regional estimations of rice paddy methane emissions, and discuss how  
93 different spatial resolutions affect the regional estimation uncertainties, given the  
94 same data availability for different spatial division schema.

## 95 **2 Methods**

### 96 2.1 Uncertainty assessment in model upscaling

97 Fig. 1 presents a flowchart of model upscaling in the case study. The solid arrows  
98 in Fig. 1 represent procedures for estimating national methane emissions, and the  
99 hollow arrows describe the uncertainty assessments accompanying the model  
100 upscaling. Although many studies have demonstrated how to upscale a model to make  
101 regional estimations from various baseline scenarios (Matthews et al., 2000; Li et al.,  
102 2004; Ogle et al., 2010), the primary focus of the present study is the aggregation of

103 the uncertainties in model estimations due to data scarcity.

#### 104 2.1.1 Within-cell variation in model estimates

105 When partitioning the large region under consideration into spatially adjacent  
106 divisions, the within-cell variation must be accounted for first (King 1991; van  
107 Bodegom et al., 2000; Ogle et al., 2003, 2010). The baseline model estimate is usually  
108 established by running the model once in a cell. Each model input variable will have  
109 one datum or one time series of data, e.g., daily weather observations. If there are  
110 multiple data available for a model input variable in a cell, they are averaged before  
111 modeling. The within-cell heterogeneity of the model estimate will therefore be lost  
112 after averaging, which will cause errors in the model's estimation. This type of error is  
113 referred to as the "fallacy of average" (Verburg et al., 2006). In contrast, the within-  
114 cell PDF of the variation in the model variable can also be established by statistical  
115 analysis of the data and/or expert estimation (Ogle et al., 2010; IPCC, 2000). Monte  
116 Carlo simulation is considered an effective approach to evaluate within-cell variation  
117 or uncertainty in model estimates due to errors in model input variables and their  
118 interactions, and it is thus used in the present study (Fig. 1).

#### 119 2.1.2 Spatial uncertainty aggregation in the case of data scarcity

120 In each cell, the model estimation via Monte Carlo iteration produces a numeric  
121 depiction of a random variable  $V_i(m_i, \sigma_i)$ , where  $m_i$  and  $\sigma_i$  are the statistical mean and  
122 standard deviation, respectively, of the random variable  $V_i$ . Thereafter, the model  
123 upscaling involves the summation of the random variables  $V_0=V_1+V_2+\dots+V_N$ . The  
124 aggregation of uncertainty, represented by the statistical variance or standard

125 deviation, is generalized as  $Var(\sum_{i=1}^N X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N Cov(X_i, X_j)$  (Ross, 2006), and it can

126 also be transformed into quadratic summation of the elementary variances via the  
127 standardized variance-covariance matrix:

$$128 \quad \sigma_0^2 = \sum_{i,j} \sigma_i \times C_{ij} \times \sigma_j, \quad (i=1\dots N, j=1\dots N) \quad (1)$$

129 where  $\sigma_0^2$  is the aggregated variance of the regional estimation and  $\sigma_i$  and  $\sigma_j$  are  
130 the standard deviations of the within-cell variations in cells  $i$  and  $j$ , respectively. The  
131 matrix  $\mathbf{C}$  is comprised of coefficients  $C_{ij}$ , which stand for “correlations” between  
132 individual cells. Here, the “correlation” is a measure of how the model outputs in two  
133 cells vary coincidentally because they **share common data and modeled processes** for  
134 the model inputs. If the estimation in cell  $i$  is over-/under-estimated, the estimation in  
135 cell  $j$  will most likely be over-/under-estimated as well because they share common  
136 data, and vice versa. The aggregation of the model outputs can be quite simple if the  
137 model estimate is made with independent data in each cell. In this case, the matrix  $\mathbf{C}$   
138 will be an identity matrix in which the diagonal elements will be 1 and all the off-  
139 diagonal elements will be 0. The aggregation in equation (1) will thereafter indicate  
140 the arithmetic sum of the within-cell variances, as addressed by the *Law of Large*  
141 *Numbers*. However, when there are not sufficient data to support independent  
142 calculation among cells, the off-diagonal elements,  $C_{ij}$ , of the matrix  $\mathbf{C}$  will no longer  
143 be zero.

144 In the present study,  $C_{ij}$  was empirically calculated via numerical experiments.  
145 For different levels of data sharing between two cells (Table 1), the model estimations

146 for the two cells were iteratively calculated with CH4MOD. The model inputs were  
 147 randomly selected from the ranges of the variables (Table B1). When there was data  
 148 sharing between the two cells for a variable in Table 1, the value of the variable was  
 149 selected once for both cells. And for variables with no data sharing, the value of the  
 150 variable was selected separately for the two cells. The correlation coefficients ( $C_{ij}$ ) of  
 151 the model estimations in the two cells was statistically calculated with a large number,  
 152 1000 iterations in the present study, of paired model estimations for the two cells.

### 153 2.1.3 Indicators of data scarcity in model estimation

154 A common problem in making a model estimation for a large region is that the  
 155 available data for the model input variables differ greatly. To evaluate the overall data  
 156 scarcity of the model input variables, two indicators are defined:

$$157 \quad I_{ds} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \neq j} C_{ij}, & n > 0 \\ 0, & n = 0 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

$$158 \quad I_R = \frac{N}{\sqrt[m]{\prod_{k=1}^m N_k}} \quad (3)$$

159 where  $C_{ij}$  is the element of the DS (data sharing) matrix defined in equation (1) and  
 160  $n$  is the total number of off-diagonal, non-zero elements of the DS matrix. In equation  
 161 (3),  $N$  is the total number of cells (divisions) that partition the entire region under  
 162 consideration and  $N_k$  is the number of data points for the model variable  $k$ . When the  
 163 off-diagonal elements of the sharing matrix are all 0, indicating abundant data (no  
 164 sharing) among the cells for all the model input variables,  $I_{ds}=0$  and  $I_R=1$ . The other  
 165 extreme, when the off-diagonal elements of the DS matrix are all 1, indicates a severe

166 data scarcity and complete data sharing among the cells for every model input  
167 variable,  $I_{ds}=1$  and  $I_R=N$ .

168 Data scarcity refers to the abundance of data relative to the spatial resolution, i.e.,  
169 spatial details we intend to depict via the model simulation. With all the model input  
170 data on hand, we may expect more data scarcity, and a larger  $I_{ds}$ , when we choose a  
171 smaller cell size and vice versa. An  $I_{ds}$  of 0 indicates a "perfect" data abundance for  
172 the chosen spatial resolution. However, this "perfection" may, conversely, imply that  
173 we have chosen too large of a cell size and that some spatially varying details in the  
174 model inputs were lost, a severe "fallacy of average." The regional partitioning should,  
175 in this case, adopt a finer spatial resolution to show more heterogeneous details in the  
176 model estimation.

## 177 2.2 Uncertainty assessment of estimated methane emissions from rice paddies in 178 China

### 179 2.2.1 CH4MOD and input variables

180 In this case study, we used the model CH4MOD to estimate methane emissions  
181 from rice paddies in China. CH4MOD is a semi-empirical model that simulates  
182 methane production and emissions from rice paddies under various environmental  
183 conditions and agricultural practices (Huang et al., 1998a, 2004; Xie et al., 2010).

184 The CH4MOD model runs with a daily step and is driven by air temperature. The  
185 main input variables include the soil sand percentage (*SAND*), organic matter  
186 amendments (*OM*), rice grain yield (*GY*), water management pattern ( $W_{pm}$ ) and rice  
187 cultivar index (*VI*). Appendix A describes CH4MOD and the compilation of the model

188 inputs. More detailed information regarding the model development, validation and  
189 application has been provided elsewhere by the authors (Huang et al., 2004, 2006;  
190 Zhang et al., 2011).

### 191 2.2.2 PDFs of the model input variables

192 Many studies (Khalil and Butenhoff, 2008; Li et al., 2004; Matthews et al, 2000;  
193 Van Bodegom et al, 2002) have suggested that a significant proportion of the  
194 uncertainty in regional rice paddy methane emissions arises from data scarcity,  
195 especially with regard to the soil sand content (*SAND*), organic matter amendments  
196 (*OM*), rice grain yield (*GY*), water management ( $W_{pm}$ ) and rice cultivar index (*VI*).  
197 The CH4MOD sensitivity analysis similarly indicates the importance of these five  
198 factors in methane emissions (Table B1 in Appendix B). Fig. 2 illustrates the data  
199 abundance of the five model variables. The data for soil sand content is a 10 km by 10  
200 km raster dataset constructed from soil profiles via spatial interpolation (Oberthur et  
201 al., 1999; Shi et al., 2004, 2006). Although a certain proportion of the immense spatial  
202 variation in soil properties may be lost after spatial interpolation (Goovaerts, 2001;  
203 van Bodegom et al., 2002), the gridded soil data are still the most detailed of the five  
204 model inputs. In descending order of data abundance, the other four factors are *GY*,  
205 *OM*,  $W_{pm}$  and *VI*. Assuming a normal distribution, the PDFs of four factors (all except  
206  $W_{pm}$ ) were parameterized by statistical analysis of their data.

207 With a specific spatial resolution, e.g., using administrative counties as divisions,  
208 the PDF of *SAND* in a division was calculated with the grid data within the division.  
209 Because every county has only one datum for *GY*, no PDF was assumed for *GY* when

210 counties were adopted as divisions. Although the yield of rice grain is not the same at  
211 every location throughout a county, we have no more detailed data on grain yield that  
212 would allow us to make PDFs of the *GY* variable.

213 The data on the other two variables, *OM* and  $W_{pm}$ , were collected and statistically  
214 analyzed to produce PDFs (Table 2 and Table 3) at provincial and grand region scales  
215 (Fig. 2b). Rice paddy methane emissions vary notably with rice variety (Singh et al.,  
216 1997). The variety index (*VI*), which accounts for the methane emission differences  
217 between rice varieties (Huang et al., 1998a, 2004), ranges from 0.5 to 1.5, and it  
218 typically has a value close to 1.0 for most rice varieties (Huang et al., 1997, 2004). We  
219 assumed that the 95% confidence interval (CI) for *VI* was 0.5 to 1.5 and that it  
220 exhibited a normal distribution. In the case of partitioning the entire nation into  
221 counties, the counties included within a province and/or grand region must share data  
222 and PDFs for the variables *OM*,  $W_{pm}$  and *VI*.

223 The PDFs in the case study of rice paddy methane emissions did not encompass all  
224 sources of uncertainties for the five variables. Careful planning in building PDFs of  
225 the model variables will improve the reliability of the uncertainty assessment. At  
226 present, we are focused on uncertainty aggregation in model upscaling when facing  
227 data scarcity.

### 228 2.2.3 Uncertainty calculation and aggregation

229 To evaluate how the adoption of cell sizes influences the uncertainty of regional  
230 estimations, we used three partitioning schema—S1, S2 and S3—to estimate the  
231 methane emissions in China with the same previously described datasets. The

232 counties, provinces and grand regions of China were used as the spatial divisions in  
233 the three scenarios, respectively. In S2 and S3, PDFs of the rice grain yield were  
234 calculated based on a statistical analysis of census data. The Monte Carlo iteration  
235 was performed 500 times in each cell to calculate the within-cell uncertainty.

236 For each of the three scenarios, the elements of the DS matrix were valued by  
237 referencing the correlation coefficients ( $C_{ij}$ ) in Table 1 based on the state of data  
238 sharing illustrated in Fig. 2b. With the within-cell variations in methane emissions  
239 calculated via the Monte Carlo approach, the aggregation of the model estimates was  
240 then performed via equation (1) for early, late and middle rice. When combining the  
241 estimation results for the three rice ecosystems, equation (1) was again utilized for the  
242 OM and VI data shared by the three rice ecosystems.

243 After aggregation, the confidence interval, e.g., 95% CI of the national methane  
244 emission, was derived via the parameterized PDF of the aggregated estimate.  
245 Assuming a Gamma distribution (Fig. B1 in Appendix B), the two parameters of the  
246 PDF, shape ( $\alpha$ ) and scale ( $\beta$ ), were calculated by the momentum method, where  
247  $\beta$ =variance/average and  $\alpha$ =average/ $\beta$  (Ross 2006).

### 248 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 249 3.1 Methane emissions from rice paddies in China and their uncertainties

250 In 2010, the total rice harvest area of China was 29.9 M ha. The national total  
251 methane emissions were 6.44–7.32 Tg depending on the spatial resolution used for  
252 modeling (Table 4). In each individual county, the within-cell standard deviation of

253 methane flux, seasonal methane emissions per unit area, as calculated via Monte  
254 Carlo methods, was 13.5%–89.3% of the statistical mean. Because no errors were  
255 considered in the area from which rice was harvested, the relative uncertainty for  
256 methane emissions was the same as in the methane flux estimation. In the case of  
257 errors being present in the rice harvest area, the uncertainty of methane emissions in  
258 each cell can be calculated with Rule B of IPCC (2000) before aggregation.

259 When data sharing between counties was not accounted for, the falsely aggregated  
260 standard deviation was approximately 1.7% – 2.2% of the national emissions  
261 according to the *Law of Large Numbers*. However, when the correlation of the model  
262 estimations for cells was considered (Table 1), the overall aggregated standard  
263 deviation was 16.3% of the total emissions, ranging from 18.3% – 28.0% for early,  
264 late and middle rice ecosystems (Table 4). This finding implies that intensifying data  
265 quantities significantly reduces uncertainties in regional estimations by reducing data  
266 sharing and the correlations in the DS matrix. Assuming a Gamma distribution (Fig.  
267 B1 in Appendix B), the 95% confidence interval (CI) of the national total methane  
268 emissions, calculated via the moment-matching approach with  $m_0$  and  $\sigma_0$ , was 4.5–8.7  
269 Tg at the S1 spatial resolution (Table 4).

270 The national methane emissions from rice paddies in China have been estimated in  
271 many previous studies. Table 5 lists those studies that included uncertainty  
272 assessments. With the exception of the results from Huang et al. (1998), in which  
273 higher emissions were produced because of the continuous flooding used for rice  
274 cultivation in the study, the uncertainties in all other studies largely overlapped with

275 those of the present study, although significance levels for the uncertainties were not  
276 explicitly provided. The results of other studies (not listed in Table 5), e.g., Ren et al.  
277 (2010), Li et al. (2002) and Yao et al. (1996), also fell within the ranges listed in Table  
278 4. Most of these previous studies focused on organic matter application and water  
279 regimes in their estimations of uncertainty (Table 5) because of data scarcity in these  
280 two factors. Taking into consideration the tremendous spatial heterogeneity of soil  
281 characteristics, Li et al. (2004) believed that these were the most sensitive factors  
282 accounting for uncertainties, and the uncertainty was between 2.3–10.5 Tg yr<sup>-1</sup>  
283 (1.7–7.9 Tg yr<sup>-1</sup> C) for mid-season drainage irrigation and 8.5–16.0 Tg yr<sup>-1</sup> (6.4–12.0  
284 Tg yr<sup>-1</sup> C) when continuous flooding was applied.

285 Uncertainties of regional estimations come from many sources, including the  
286 model imperfection due to inaccuracy of parameters and structural fallacy of the  
287 model (e.g., Kennedy and O'Hagan, 2001), as well as the data errors and poor  
288 availability of the model inputs. A comprehensive uncertainty analysis should  
289 synthetically include all major uncertainty sources (IPCC, 2000; van Bodegom et al.,  
290 2002). In the present study, the within-cell variances of the five most sensitive factors,  
291 i.e., *SAND*, *GR*, *OM*, *W<sub>ptm</sub>* and *VI*, were parameterized and included in the Monte  
292 Carlo simulations, but there are also other factors that may contribute to uncertainties  
293 (van Bodegom et al., 2002). Moreover, there may be covariance between the input  
294 parameters. For example, the rice variety (*VI*) and/or soil texture (*SAND*) may have  
295 impacts on the irrigation applied (*W<sub>ptm</sub>*). With sufficient data, we may quantify the  
296 correlations between the input parameters and then build a joint/Bayesian PDF of the

297 input parameters (Kennedy and O'Hagan, 2001). Incorporation of correlations  
298 between the input parameters will improve the estimation of the within-cell variances.  
299 However, facing the difficulty of data scarcity, it is necessary to parameterize the  
300 within-cell variance of each input parameter separately at present. Apart from data  
301 scarcity, model imperfections due to a poor understanding of the complexity of the  
302 ecosystem are also a primary source of estimation bias. A model comprises functions  
303 and equations that describe the physical processes of interest, but it cannot include  
304 every detail. Model inaccuracies may bias the estimation away from the true value,  
305 which is usually evaluated by model validation (Huang et al., 2004). In the present  
306 study, however, we did not incorporate the error of model inaccuracy in the  
307 uncertainty assessment.

### 308 3.2 Data scarcity, spatial resolution and the uncertainties in regional estimation

309 The uncertainty in regional methane emissions in Table 4 is primarily caused by  
310 errors and a scarcity of model input data (Fig. 2). Even if the data abundance of the  
311 model variables differ significantly (Fig. 2), modeling at a finer spatial resolution does  
312 help to reduce the estimation uncertainty (Table 4). We made the model estimations at  
313 three scales (S1, S2 and S3 in Table 4). At each scale, S1 for instance, the finer input  
314 (data of *SAND*, 10km×10km raster dataset) was aggregated to create input of *SAND* at  
315 the scale of S1. But to run the model at a specific scale, the data of the other model  
316 variables, i.e., *OM*, *Wptn* and *VI*, must be shared between neighboring grid cells  
317 because they are coarser than the specific grid size of S1. Table 4 shows the scale  
318 effects of the model estimations, the impacts of decreased variability of input on the

319 model output. At each of the specific scales (S1, S2 or S3), the direct model output is  
320 of the variation in each of the grid cells (in a county at S1, a province at S2 or a GR at  
321 S3). In Table 4, the 95% CI was 3.4–12.3 Tg when modeling was performed at a  
322 coarser resolution (S3). At the provincial scale (Scenario S2), however, the 95% CI  
323 narrowed to 4.8–10.4 Tg, and the aggregated standard deviation was 19.5% of the  
324 national total emissions. However, without sufficient data support (Fig. 2), upscaling a  
325 model at an over-fine resolution makes no substantial difference, as in Table 4 for S1.  
326 Although the uncertainty was reduced further when the spatial resolution was at the  
327 county level, this approach is not cost-effective, and the indicator  $I_R$  rises rapidly from  
328 up to 3 at the provincial scale to more than 27 at the county scale (Table 4). The  $I_R$   
329 indicates the redundant cost; a higher  $I_R$  indicates more redundant processing.

330 In Table 1, sharing data for the higher-sensitivity variable, e.g., *SAND* vs. *Yield* in  
331 Table B1, may result in a larger correlation coefficient  $C_{ij}$ . Although  $C_{ij}$  in Table 1 is  
332 computation intensive, needing a large number of modeling iterations, a rough  
333 estimation (Eqn. 4) of  $C_{ij}$  may be meaningful in finding the proper spatial resolution  
334 before the model upscaling is conducted:

$$335 \quad C_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m I_{ij,k} \times s_k}{\sum_{k=1}^m s_k} \quad (4)$$

336 where  $s_k$  is the sensitivity index of the model parameter  $k$  (e.g., Table B1 in the  
337 Appendix) and  $m$  is the number of model input variables under consideration.  $I_{ij,k}$  is a  
338 binary variable taking a value of 1 or 0. If cells  $i$  and  $j$  share data for the model input  
339 variable  $k$ ,  $I_{ij,k}$  is assigned a value of 1; otherwise, it is 0. The sensitivity index  $s_k$

340 reflects the difference in the importance of the model input variables to the model  
341 output. Fig. 3 presents the comparison of the correlation coefficients calculated in two  
342 ways. Though the rough estimation of  $C_{ij}$  via Eqn. 4 differs to some extent from those  
343 in Table 1, the values exhibit the same trend in reflecting the impacts of data sharing  
344 on correlations of the model outputs between cells.

#### 345 **4 Conclusions**

346 Data scarcity is a significant challenge in making regional estimates of greenhouse  
347 gas emissions. We developed a data sharing matrix to estimate the aggregated  
348 uncertainties in China's rice paddy methane emission introduced by data scarcity.  
349 Based on the data sharing matrix, we estimated that data scarcity in the five most  
350 sensitive factors introduced an aggregated uncertainty to the estimates ranging from  
351 4.5 to 8.7 Tg with a 95% confidence interval. Aggregated uncertainty may vary with  
352 the spatial resolution for a given dataset, and the indicator  $I_{ds}$  is useful for identifying  
353 an appropriate spatial resolution. An appropriate spatial resolution corresponds to a  
354 value between 0 and 1 for the  $I_{ds}$ , which represents a compromise between the data  
355 scarcity of different model variables. Improving the data abundance of model inputs is  
356 expected to reduce the uncertainties in estimating terrestrial greenhouse gas emission,  
357 in which the sensitivity of the model inputs also plays a key role.

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515

516

## 517 **Appendix A: Description of CH4MOD and the compilation of model inputs**

518 CH4MOD is a semi-empirical model that simulates methane production and  
519 emissions from rice paddies under various environmental conditions and agricultural  
520 practices (Huang et al., 1998a, 2004; Xie et al., 2010). This model calculates the  
521 production of methanogenic substrates from rice plant root exudates and added  
522 organic matter (OM) decomposition. Both OM decomposition and rice-plant-induced  
523 substrate production are significantly influenced by environmental factors, including  
524 soil texture and temperature. Soil moisture controls the fraction of the substrates  
525 transformed into methane. There are two major paths by which the methane produced  
526 in rice paddy soils is emitted into the atmosphere. One path is the aerenchyma system  
527 of the rice plants, and the other is methane bubbles. Both pathways of methane  
528 emissions are formulated in the model.

529 CH4MOD runs on a daily time step, and it is driven by daily air temperature. Its  
530 input parameters include soil sand percentage (SAND), organic matter amendment  
531 (OM), rice grain yield (GY), water management pattern ( $W_{ptn}$ ) and rice cultivar index  
532 (VI).

### 533 A1 Rice harvest area and grain production

534 Data on rice production and the harvest area of each province in 2010 were  
535 extracted for early, late and middle rice from the nation's statistical yearbook (EBCAY,  
536 2011). The county-level rice production census was obtained from the Chinese  
537 Academy of Agricultural Sciences. Although the county-level data do not record  
538 fractions of early, late or single rice cultivation, the rotation type in each county was  
539 represented using the approach of Frohking et al. (2002) by referring to the climatic  
540 zonification of the cropping system in China (Han et al., 1987).

541 Many studies have indicated that methane emissions differ notably among rice  
542 varieties (Singh et al., 1997; Wang et al., 1997). In CH4MOD, the impact of rice  
543 variety on methane emissions was parameterized as the variety index (VI) (Huang et  
544 al., 1998a, 2004). The VI ranges from 0.5 to 1.5 and typically has a value of  
545 approximately 1.0 for most rice varieties (Huang et al., 1997, 2004).

### 546 A2 Climate data and rice phenology

547 Daily mean air temperature is the only meteorological data required to drive the  
548 CH4MOD model. Observations of air temperature at 678 Chinese meteorological  
549 stations in 2010 were acquired from the National Meteorological Information Center  
550 (NMIC), China Meteorological Administration (CMA) (<http://cdc.cma.gov.cn/>). For  
551 counties without a meteorological station, the air temperatures at the nearest  
552 neighboring station was used.

553 The rice phenology, including transplanting and harvesting dates, controls the start  
554 and end of CH4MOD's run in simulating methane emissions. The available data  
555 regarding rice phenology were originally iso-line maps, edited by Zhang et al. (1987),  
556 in the Atlas of Agricultural Climate in China. The transplanting and harvesting dates  
557 for each grid were spatially interpolated from the iso-lines via the TIN (Triangular

558 Irregular Network) technique (Aumann et al., 1991) and assigned to each county.

### 559 A3 Soil properties

560 The spatial database of soil sand content (SAND) is one of the databases developed  
561 by the Institute of Soil Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, from the samples of  
562 soil profiles obtained during the Program of the Second Soil Survey of China and  
563 subsequent surveys. The database comprises 10 km×10 km raster datasets of soil  
564 properties at 10 cm depth intervals from the surface down. The spatial resolution of  
565 the soil data is the finest among the CH4MOD input parameters (Fig. 2).

### 566 A4 Organic matter amendment in rice paddies

567 The organic matter amended into rice fields includes various types of farm manure  
568 (green manure, animal manure etc.) and crop straw as well as dead roots and stubble  
569 from previous crops. Roots remaining in the soil can be accounted for using the  
570 root/shoot ratio (Huang et al., 2007). Stubble was assumed to represent one-tenth of  
571 the aboveground straw biomass. The fraction of straw incorporation and farm manure  
572 application, however, is not well known, and limited data are available. In the First  
573 National Census of Pollution Sources conducted by the Ministry of Environmental  
574 Protection of China (EPFNCPS, 2011), straw application in croplands was  
575 summarized at a provincial level with the census data (Table 2). The straw application  
576 in Table 2 is not rice-specific but, rather, incorporates all the crops in each province.  
577 The bias may not be significant in provinces where rice dominates crop cultivation. In  
578 addition to crop straw, the incorporated crop residues include dead crop roots and  
579 stubble. According to Zhao and Li (2001), stubble accounts for approximately 13% of  
580 the total straw in dry weight.

581 Until now, no regular statistical data or comprehensive census data have been  
582 available concerning the application of manure in rice cultivation. In this study, the  
583 investigation of how much OM amended into rice cultivation was made during the  
584 compilation of the national inventory of methane emission from rice cultivation of  
585 China. We delivered investigation papers to farmers in all the typical rice cultivation  
586 regions of China and summarized the returned data. The details of the data collection  
587 and the quality control can be found in the Supporting Information to a previously  
588 published paper (Zhang et al., 2011). The amount of farmyard manure application in  
589 each province (Table 2) was part of the investigation results.

590

## 591 **Appendix B: Sensitivity analysis of CH4MOD**

592 Data on an environmental factor are usually expressed as  $M \pm e$ , where M  
593 represents the measurement and e represents the error. When used as model inputs,  
594 imprecise data can result in uncertainties in the model outputs with diverse  
595 magnitudes depending not only on the data imprecision but also on the model  
596 sensitivity. Model sensitivity represents the variability of the model output in response  
597 to variations in model inputs. Usually, an individual variable sensitivity analysis is  
598 performed by "varying one variable at a time". In contrast to the individual variable  
599 sensitivity analysis, a regional sensitivity analysis is performed in the present study,  
600 and simultaneous variations of the model inputs account for interactions of the

601 variables in the model. The Monte Carlo method is commonly applied to  
 602 simultaneously produce variations of model inputs.

603 To scale the model input variation, the e/M is adopted for each of the variables to  
 604 make them comparable to each other, and all the CH4MOD input parameters have  
 605 positive values. In differential form, the expression e/M can be expressed generally as

606  $\frac{dx}{x}$  or  $d(\ln x)$ . The purpose of the model sensitivity analysis in the present study is to

607 explore the modeled methane flux variability to variations of the model input  
 608 parameters as in formula (b 1):

$$609 \quad \frac{dy}{y} \propto s_k \times \frac{dx_k}{x_k} \quad \text{or} \quad d(\ln y) \propto s_k \times d(\ln x_k) \quad (\text{b } 1)$$

610 where k is used to identify each model parameter and y represents the seasonal  
 611 methane emissions flux ( $\text{g CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2}$ ) calculated by CH4MOD with  $x_k$  as input.  $S_k$  is  
 612 the sensitivity index of the model variable k, and it is defined as the linear coefficient  
 613 for the relationship between methane flux and the model input variables in terms of  
 614 fractal variation.

615 The Monte Carlo approach was adopted as the first step to randomly select values  
 616 of the model input parameters from their value domains (Table B1), at which point the  
 617 methane flux was calculated with CH4MOD. This picking-and-calculating procedure  
 618 iterates for 20,000 cycles. After logarithmic transformation of the model inputs and  
 619 outputs, a simple variable linear regression was performed, and the sensitivity index  
 620 was defined as the slope coefficient of the regression equation.

621 Water management in rice cultivation is a key factor that impacts methane  
 622 emissions from rice paddies. In CH4MOD, the diverse water management strategies  
 623 in Chinese rice cultivation are grouped into five irrigation patterns and include  
 624 flooding, drainage and intermittent irrigation (Huang et al, 2004). In the case of this  
 625 nominal variable, the sensitivity index was calculated as follows:

$$626 \quad s_w = \frac{1}{N} \times \sum_{k \neq l} \frac{|\overline{y_l} - \overline{y_k}|}{y_0}, \quad k, l \in W \quad (\text{b } 2)$$

627 where  $W = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$  in the formula (b 2) is the code set of the irrigation water  
 628 patterns (Table B1). N is the total number of (j, k) pairs, and  $\overline{y_l}$ ,  $\overline{y_k}$  and  $y_0$   
 629 represent the mean methane flux for irrigation water pattern l, k and all water patterns,  
 630 respectively.

631 To run the CH4MOD simulation, daily air temperatures must be available for the  
 632 duration of rice growth from the dates of transplanting to the harvest. In the model  
 633 sensitivity analysis, the temperature data are virtually created by the following  
 634 equations:

$$635 \quad T_{air}^{(t)} = \overline{T}_{\max} - |t - S_{\max}| \times D_T + R(-0.5, 0.5) \quad (\text{b } 3)$$

636 
$$D_T = \begin{cases} (\bar{T}_{\max} - \bar{T}_{\min}) / (S_{\max} - S_s), & T \leq S_{\max} \\ (\bar{T}_{\max} - \bar{T}_{\min}) / (S_e - S_{\max}), & T > S_{\max} \end{cases} \quad (\text{b } 4)$$

637 
$$S_{\max} = R(S_s, S_e) \quad (\text{b } 5)$$

638 
$$\bar{T}_{\max} = R(25.0, 35.0) \quad (\text{b } 6)$$

639 
$$\bar{T}_{\min} = R(10.0, 20.0) \quad (\text{b } 7)$$

640 where the function  $R(v_1, v_2)$  returns a random number between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ .  $S_s$  and  $S_e$   
 641 represent the transplanting and harvesting dates, respectively, and  $S_{\max}$  is the day on  
 642 which the air temperature reaches its maximum for the rice season. The time variable  $t$   
 643 ( $S_s \leq t \leq S_e$ ) represents days after transplanting.

644 The results indicated that methane emissions are most sensitive to field irrigation,  
 645 with a sensitivity index of 0.67 (Table B1). The soil texture, rice variety and organic  
 646 matter application rank lower, with sensitivity indices of 0.63, 0.51 and 0.47,  
 647 respectively.

648