

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 σ_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 σ_0^2 is the aggregated variance of the regional estimation and σ_i and σ_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 (α) and scale (β), were calculated by the momentum method, where
247 β =variance/average and α =average/ β (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 σ_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⁻¹
283 (1.7–7.9 Tg yr⁻¹ C) for mid-season drainage irrigation and 8.5–16.0 Tg yr⁻¹ (6.4–12.0
284 Tg yr⁻¹ 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_{ptm}* 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_{ptm}*). 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 an 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:

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

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

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

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

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

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