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# 1 Atmospheric nitrogen deposition in the Yangtze River basin: Spatial

# 2 pattern and source attribution

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- 16 **Capsule:** The total dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN) exhibited a significant spatial variation in the
- 17 Yangtze River basin and fertilizer use is the largest contributor to total DIN deposition over the basin.

Abstract: The Yangtze River basin is one of the world's hotspots for nitrogen (N) deposition and 18 19 likely plays an important role in China's riverine N output. Here we constructed a basin-scale total dissolved inorganic N (DIN) deposition (wet plus dry) pattern based on published data at 100 20 21 observational sites between 2000 and 2014, and assessed the relative contribution of different reactive 22 N ( $N_r$ ) emission sectors to total DIN deposition using the GEOS-Chem model. Our results show a 23 significant spatial variation in total DIN deposition across the Yangtze River basin (33.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup> on average), with the highest fluxes occurring mainly in the central basin (e.g., Sichuan, Hubei and 24 Hunan provinces, and Chongqing municipality). This indicates that controlling N deposition should 25 build on mitigation strategies according to local conditions, namely, implementation of stricter control 26 of Nr emissions in N deposition hotspots but moderate control in the areas with low N deposition 27 levels. Total DIN deposition in approximately 82% of the basin area exceeded the critical load of N 28 deposition for semi-natural ecosystems along the basin. On the basin scale, the dominant source of 29 30 DIN deposition is fertilizer use (40%) relative to livestock (11%), industry (13%), power plant (9%), transportation (9%), and others (18%, which is the sum of contributions from human waste, 31 residential activities, soil, lighting and biomass burning), suggesting that reducing NH<sub>3</sub> emissions 32 from improper fertilizer application should be a priority in curbing N deposition. This, together with 33 distinct spatial variations in emission sector contributions to total DIN deposition also suggest that, 34

- in addition to fertilizer, major emission sectors in different regions of the basin should be considered
- 36 when developing synergistic control measures.
- Keywords: Nitrogen deposition, Source apportionment, Ecological risks, Mitigation strategy, the
  Yangtze River basin.
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- 41 Introduction

In the past few decades, human activities associated with agricultural and industrial production 42 emitted large amounts of nitrogen (N) oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>=NO+NO<sub>2</sub>) and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) to the atmosphere 43 44 (Galloway et al., 2008). They can be transported in downwind direction and transformed in the atmosphere to nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) and to particulate ammonium ( $NH_4^+$ ) and nitrate ( $NO_3^-$ ) via 45 46 chemical reactions, and eventually return to earth surface by wet and dry deposition processes. As a 47 consequence, atmospheric N deposition has dramatically increased globally, and this increase is expected to continue over China (Kanakidou et al., 2016). Meanwhile, a considerable portion of 48 deposited N in land can also be transported to coastal waters and the open ocean via river flow (Fowler 49 et al., 2013). Excessive N inputs into aquatic ecosystems can cause negative environmental and 50 ecological effects, e.g., eutrophication of water body (Bergstrom and Jansson, 2006), hypoxia (Diaz 51 52 and Rosenberg, 2008), breakout of red tide (Dai et al., 2010), and a loss of biodiversity(Clark and Tilman, 2008). 53

The Yangtze River basin is a region characterized by rapid economic development and 54 population growth, and generates as much as half of China's gross domestic product (GDP) (Lin et 55 al., 2005). This, in turn, makes the basin suffered from serious reactive nitrogen (Nr) pollution (Gu et 56 al., 2012). The Yangtze River is the largest river in the Euro-Asian continent and is the third longest 57 river in the word. It is responsible for significant N discharges into its estuary and the adjacent East 58 China Sea, leading to negative ecological effects (Dai et al., 2010). Dissolved inorganic nitrogen 59 (DIN), which includes oxidized (e.g.,  $NO_x$ ,  $HNO_3$ ,  $NO_3^-$ ) and reduced (e.g.,  $NH_3$ ,  $NH_4^+$ ) forms, is 60 often the most abundant and bioavailable form of N and thereby contributes significantly to coastal 61 eutrophication (Veuger et al., 2004; Dumont et al., 2005). Using a mass balance model, Wang et al. 62 (2014) estimated that the contributions of bulk DIN deposition (i.e. wet plus some dry deposition, 63 measured by open rain collectors) to total N input to the basin increased from 3% in 1980 to 5% in 64 2000. Furthermore, Chen et al. (2016) reported that atmospheric DIN deposition accounts for on 65 average approximately 13% of human-controlled N inputs into the basin during the period of 1980-66 2012. Using principal components analysis, Xu et al. (2013) estimated that DIN deposition 67

contributed 25-28% of total DIN loads in the river between 1972 and 2010. These estimated 68 contributions, however, are inherently uncertain mainly due to the scarcity of complete observational 69 data on dry N deposition, which accounted for 20%-63% of total N deposition in the Yangtze River 70 basin (Shen et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2015; Kuang et al., 2016), as well as for 60% in northern China 71 (Pan et al., 2012). Indeed, long-term measurement of dry N deposition at a regional scale remains a 72 major challenge because of the wide range of N-containing compounds in gaseous and aerosol phases, 73 and technical difficulties associated with measurement of their deposition, especially in remote areas 74 (Xu et al., 2015). An alternative and widely accepted approach uses a spatial interpolation technique 75 to yield continuous estimates of dry N deposition from discrete data points on a spatial scale (Nowlan 76 77 et al., 2014; Jia et al., 2016). However, to date no study, based on the interpolation method has 78 provided any information on the magnitude and spatial pattern of total (wet plus dry) DIN deposition over the Yangtze River basin, significantly limiting our knowledge of the N cycle in the basin. 79

80 Alternatively, chemical transport models (CTMs) are capable of simulating magnitude and spatial pattern of total DIN deposition and was employed at the national scale (Zhang et al., 2012), 81 and on a global scale (Vet et al., 2014; Kanakidou et al., 2016). Recent advances in N deposition 82 modeling include improved estimates of DIN deposition at a continental scale using a nested 83 modeling approach with the GEOS-Chem global chemical transport model to estimate DIN 84 deposition in China (Zhao et al., 2017). However, few studies modeled spatial distribution patterns 85 of total DIN deposition at a regional scale (Huang et al., 2015), mainly due to lack of models with 86 fine resolution. In addition, modeled total DIN deposition should be compared to surface observations 87 to validate and improve models, but few of these datasets are available (Pan et al., 2012; Xu et al., 88 2015). Thus, application of interpolation method along with modeling method is believe to provide 89 reliable information on the magnitude and spatial pattern of total DIN deposition at a regional scale. 90

To develop emission control strategies to conserve ecosystem health, the emission sources of N deposition needed to be determined. Using the moss  $\delta^{15}$ N method, a previous study determined that the main atmospheric N sources in the Yangtze River basin were excretory wastes for most of the cities and soil emission for forests (Xiao et al., 2010). However, large uncertainties may exist in the results from Xiao et al. (2010), since relevant analysis was built on the  $\delta^{15}$ N signatures of potential atmospheric N sources established for other countries (e.g. Germany); it is unsure whether there is spatial variability of  $\delta^{15}$ N signatures.

Fortunately, CTMs are the physical and chemical processes of atmospheric N pollution are useful
in providing insights into the relative contribution of emissions sources to N deposition. Existing
CTMs such as the Goddard Earth Observing System with chemistry (GEOS-Chem) model (Lee et al.,
2016; Zhao et al., 2017), the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model (Qiao et al., 2015)
and the European EMEP model (Simpson et al, 2014) have capability to link nitrogen sources with

deposition. For example, a current study by some of the present authors used the GEOS-Chem model 103 104 to show that in China total N deposition is predominantly contributed by domestic anthropogenic sources (86%), followed by trans-boundary import of anthropogenic sources (7%) and natural sources 105 (7%) (Zhao et al., 2017). However, in spite of their effects, the contribution from natural sources tend 106 to be underestimated in part due to the fact that the model used by Zhao et al. (2017) does not account 107 for land-atmosphere bi-directional NH<sub>3</sub> exchange. In addition, relative contributions from different 108 emission sectors (e.g., fertilizer, manure, industry, power plants, and other) to N deposition were not 109 quantified. Source attribution data calculated with CTMs may be used in an integrated assessment 110 modelling framework to calculate the cost-benefit of reduced nitrogen deposition from targeted 111 emission reduction policies (Oxley et al, 2013). 112

In the present study, we use the spatial interpolation technique and available published data to 113 map the spatial distribution of total DIN deposition in the Yangtze River basin. In addition to this, an 114 attempt was made to quantify contributions from different emission sectors (i.e. fertilizer use, 115 livestock, industry, power plant, transportation, and others) to total DIN deposition using the GEOS-116 Chem model. A comparison of spatial patterns of total DIN deposition obtained with interpolation 117 technique and the GEOS-Chem model was also made using provincial deposition totals. The 118 outcomes of this study are expected to provide the scientific basis for developing an effective policy 119 for N pollution abatement in the basin. 120

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# 122 **2.** Methodology and data collection

#### 123 **2. 1 Study area**

The Yangtze River basin is located between 24°-35°N and 90°-122°E, originating from the 124 125 Tibetan Plateau, cross the country from west to east, and finally flowing into the East China Sea (Fig. 1). The basin has a total drainage area of approximately  $1.8 \times 10^6$  km<sup>2</sup>, covering 20% of the total land 126 area of China. The area of the Hubei, Hunan, Jiangxi, and Sichuan provinces, which are totally located 127 within the basin, accounted for about 65% of the total basin area, while that of the other 13 provinces 128 (Qinghai, Gansu, Yunnan, Tibet, Shaanxi, Guizhou, Guangxi, Henan, Anhui, Jiangsu, Shanghai, 129 Guangdong, Fujian) accounted for 35% of the total basin area (Yan et al., 2003). The climate in large 130 parts of the basin is subtropical monsoon. The long-term mean annual precipitation in this region is 131 approximately 1070 mm, but the spatial and temporal distributions are highly uneven, ranging from 132 500 mm in the west to 2500 mm in the east, and more than 60% of the annual precipitation occurred 133 in summer (June, July and August) (Xu et al., 2008). 134

There are nearly 440 million inhabitants in the basin. Main land use types are forest, farmland and grassland (Fig. 1), of which the areas accounted for 40%, 30% and 24% respectively, of the total

basin area over the 1980-2012 period (Chen et al., 2016). Agricultural fields are well developed in 137 the Sichuan basin and corresponding regions in the middle and lower reaches of the Hunan, Hubei, 138 Anhui and Jiangsu provinces, where regional NH<sub>3</sub> emission is concentrated compared with low NH<sub>3</sub> 139 emissions in northwest remote area of the basin (e.g., Qinghai and Xizang) (Huang et al., 2012). In 140 these regions, a turning cultivation system of rice-wheat, rice-rape, rice-cotton and rice-sweet potato, 141 along with a rotation of rice-peanut, rice-green manure, or double cropping of rice are practiced at a 142 high cropping intensity between 200% and 250% (Liu et al., 2008). High emission density of NO<sub>x</sub> 143 144 occurs in Shanghai and Jiangsu (Zhao et al., 2013).

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# 146 2.2. Data collection and description

We collected data on from published literature on DIN deposition in the Yangtze River basin 147 during the 2000-2014 period (see Table S1 in Supplementary Information (SI) for a complete 148 reference list). This dataset was built by surveying the peer-reviewed literature with the Web of 149 Science (Thompson-ISI, Philadelphia, PA, USA) and CNKI website (http://www.cnki.net/). Briefly, 150 keyword searches used "nitrogen deposition", "chemical composition" or "precipitation", and 151 "China". After rigorous data screening and quality control for the Yangtze River basin, a total of 100 152 sites were included. These sites cover urban, rural and forested areas. The geographical distribution 153 154 of all selected sites is mapped in Fig. 1. Our compiled data set of DIN deposition can be divided into three categories according to the types of deposition and sampling method: dry and bulk deposition 155 156 data set, wet and bulk deposition data set, and total deposition (dry plus wet) data set. A brief description of those three sub-data sets is given below. The details of all the sites, including site name, 157 158 site coordinate, monitoring period, and land use type are presented in Table S1 in SI.

The dry and bulk deposition data set was collected from 14 monitoring sites (Fig.1, and numbers 159 160 highlighted in red in Table S1, SI) in a Nationwide Nitrogen Deposition Monitoring Network (NNDMN) in China (Xu et al., 2015), which investigated both dry and bulk N deposition 161 simultaneously since 2010. This network focused on five major DIN species (i.e., gaseous NH<sub>3</sub>, 162 HNO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) sampled using active and passive samplers, and on NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> 163 and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in precipitation collected using precipitation gauge. Dry deposition fluxes were estimated 164 by combining measured Nr concentrations with simulated deposition velocity; Bulk deposition fluxes 165 were calculated by multiplying the precipitation amount with the volume-weighted mean 166 concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the precipitation. 167

The wet and/or bulk deposition data set was collected from 70 monitoring sites (**Fig.1**, and numbers highlighted in blue in **Table S1**, **SI**), with the former mainly based on automatic precipitation sampling collectors and the latter mainly based on continuously-open collectors (e.g., rain gauge, bucket). In reality, the collected data at those sites were DIN concentrations in precipitation and precipitation amount (**Table S1, SI**). Further, we approximate wet and/or bulk deposition fluxes according to the aforementioned method. It should be noted that data on bulk deposition flux accounted for about 79% of the data set. Only 4 out of 70 sites had monitoring periods for wet and/or bulk deposition that shorter than 1 year, but covered local rainy season (i.e., summer). Therefore, the calculated fluxes to some extent can represent their respective annual deposition levels.

The total deposition (dry plus wet) data set was collected from 16 biomonitoring sites (**Fig. 1**, and numbers highlighted in black in **Table S1**) in the study of Xiao et al. (2010), who used moss tissue N contents to estimate total DIN deposition flux for the year 2006 based on a significant linear regression equation between the estimated atmospheric N deposition and moss N content.

In line with our previous study (Xu et al., 2015), the term 'total deposition' in this study is also defined as the sum of dry and bulk deposition unless specified otherwise, although it is in principle defined as the sum of dry and wet deposition. The main reasons for this were given in Text S1 in the Supplement.

185 2.3. Calculation and mapping of total DIN deposition

To calculate total DIN deposition at 70 sites with only wet and/or bulk DIN deposition 186 measurements (Table S1, SI), it is essential to estimate dry deposition fluxes. Here we calculated dry 187 188 DIN deposition fluxes by multiplying their measured wet and/or bulk deposition fluxes with a dry/bulk deposition ratio. In brief, the ratios were uniformly assumed to be 0.65, 0.94, and 0.60 for 189 190 rural, urban and forest sites, which were respectively averaged from the ratios for corresponding land use types at all selected NNDMN sites except for 3 sites in Yunnan province (which show relatively 191 192 higher dry/bulk ratios due to abnormal (extreme low) precipitation amounts. see details in Table S1, SI). The variability in the ratios was mainly due to the differences in  $N_r$  emission intensity, weather 193 conditions (e.g., wind speed, precipitation), underlying surface parameters (e.g., surface roughness 194 length and land type) (Xu et al., 2015). This method has been used elsewhere (Chen et al., 2016), 195 196 albeit with some uncertainties. To study the spatial pattern of total DIN deposition, we used average annual values of deposition fluxes when there were measurements more than one year in each data 197 set (Table S1, SI). 198

A Kriging interpolation technique was employed to construct a regional-scale map of total DIN deposition in the Yangtze River basin (**Fig. 2a**). One site situated near the boundary of the Yangtze River basin (about 65 km distant, Fig. 1) was included in the analysis to decrease the effect of boundary issues on the spatial interpolation technique. Prior to Kriging interpolation, SPSS 11.5 software was used to test whether the original data accorded with normal distribution and thereby determine if a data conversion is required. Then, the Explore Data tool of ArcGIS 10.0 was employed

to perform a data analysis including outlier identification and trend analysis; Geostatistics plus 205 206 (GS+) was applied to determine the optimal variogram model and parameters. The results of the Kriging interpolation were evaluated using a cross-validation analysis, i.e., compared predicted value 207 to the original measured value at all selected sites. For the area of the basin belonging to Qinghai 208 province, we assumed that total DIN deposition was in the range of 1-2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> due to lack of 209 corresponding reported data. This range was extracted from our modeled total DIN deposition to 210 China for the year 2010. Also, a recent modeling study reported that total inorganic N deposition in 211 that area is  $< 2 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  over 2008-2012 period (Zhao et al., 2017). Thus, the flux assumed here 212 can be assumed to be representative of the region. 213

All correlation analyses were performed using SPSS software (version 11.5; SPSS Inc., Chicago,
IL, USA), with a significance level of *p*<0.05.</li>

216 2.4. Source attribution of N deposition

In this study, the GEOS-Chem (http://geos-chem.org) was used to assess the relative contribution 217 of different emission sectors to the simulated total N deposition over the Yangtze River basin in 2010. 218 The total DIN deposition made up about 96% of the simulated total N deposition (Table 1). For 219 consistency when discussing modeled deposition fluxes along with the interpolated deposition fluxes, 220 we refer to the modeled total N deposition as total DIN deposition, although we recognized here that 221 the modeled total deposition included 4% dry organic nitrogen deposition. GEOS-Chem is a 3-D 222 global atmospheric CTM driven by GEOS-5 assimilated meteorological data from the NASA 223 224 Goddard Earth Observing System with a temporal resolution of 6 h (3 h for surface variables and mixing depths), a horizontal resolution of 1/2° latitude by 1/3° longitude. The model includes aerosol 225 226 and gas-phase chemistry with heterogeneous aerosol chemistry parameterized using uptake coefficients (Jacob, 2000), and photolysis rates which are dependent on aerosol concentrations 227 (Martin et al., 2003). Tropospheric gas-phase chemistry is represented by the O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub> hydrocarbon 228 system (Hudman et al., 2007). The ISORROPIA II thermodynamic equilibrium model of Fountoukis 229 230 and Nenes (2007) is employed to represent the partitioning of total NH<sub>3</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub> between the gas and aerosol phases. A standard resistance-in-series model is used to calculate dry deposition for gases 231 (Wesely, 1989) and aerosols (Zhang et al., 2001). Wet deposition includes both convective updraft 232 and large-scale precipitation scavenging as for aerosols (Liu et al., 2001) and gases (Mari et al., 2000). 233 The nested version of GEOS-Chem been applied to simulate nitrogen deposition in China and the 234 adjacent ocean (Zhao et al., 2015; 2017). For example, Zhao et al. (2017) conducted a 5-year (2008-235 2012) comparison of surface observations and model simulations of wet deposition fluxes for China, 236 and their results showed good agreement for wet deposition fluxes of  $NH_4^+$  (r=0.56, bias=-1%) and 237  $NO_3^-$  (r=0.70, bias=-15%), as well as for NH<sub>3</sub> concentration (r=0.65, bias=4%)". Here we conduct 238

the same GEOS-Chem simulation of nitrogen deposition as Zhao et al. (2017) for 2010 and access 239 the source attribution by model sensitivity tests. Anthropogenic emissions over China are from the 240 MultiResolution Emission Inventory of China (MEIC, http://meicmodel.org), except for NH3 241 emissions that are obtained from the Regional Emission in Asia (REAS-v2) inventory (Kurokawa et 242 al., 2013). An updated seasonality described by Zhao et al. (2015) was applied to NH<sub>3</sub> emissions to 243 improve the simulation. The detail of the emission settings can refer to Zhao et al. (2017). Table 2 244 lists the total NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from each source over China and the Yangtze River basin (Fig. 245 1). The NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over the Yangtze River basin are 4.0 Tg N  $a^{-1}$  and 2.2 Tg N  $a^{-1}$  in 246 2010, which respectively, account for 31% and 23% of their total emissions over China. Agriculture 247 sources including fertilizer use and livestock, comprise most of the NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (63% and 18%) 248 while fuel combustion activities, including industry, power plant, and transportation contribute most 249 of the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (40%, 25% and 24%) and small amounts of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (5%). Both NH<sub>3</sub> 250 251 and NO<sub>x</sub> have natural sources (including lighting, biomass burning and soil emissions), but are negligible (3-4%) compared to anthropogenic emissions over the Yangtze River basin. 252

To assess the contributions from main  $N_r$  sources (fertilizer use, livestock, industry, power plant, and transportation), we conduct a series of model sensitivity simulations for the year 2010 with the corresponding emission sources turned off. The difference with the standard simulation (with all emissions turned on) represents their individual contribution to N deposition.

# 257 3. Results and discussion

### 258 3.1. Atmospheric deposition of total DIN in the Yangtze River basin

- 259 As shown in Fig. 3, across the basin total DIN deposition generated from the Kriging interpolation on average was 33.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, roughly equivalent to the GEOS-Chem simulated deposition value 260 (32.9 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) for the year 2010. Evidence from a variety of studies confirms that the three 261 global hotspots for atmospheric N deposition are China, West Europe and North America (Dentener 262 et al., 2006; Vet et al., 2014; Kanakidou et al., 2016), although there is a clear downward trend in dry 263 N deposition for Europe and North America (Jia et al., 2016). The total DIN deposition estimated in 264 the present study(33.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) is approximately 1.4-4 times greater than the estimated values 265 for recent years in the well urbanized and industrialized eastern US (Li et al., 2016) and the N 266 deposition hotspots of western Europe (Vet et al., 2014), and is also approximately twice China's 267 average N deposition between 2008 and 2012 (Zhao et al., 2017) (Fig. 3). These results suggest that 268 the basin is subjected to a high level of atmospheric N deposition and associated ecological risks. 269
- 270

In the basin, the spatial pattern of total DIN deposition varied significantly according to province (**Fig. 2a**). To evaluate this interpolated spatial pattern, we made the cross-validation analysis and calculated the correlation coefficient (r) and the normalized mean bias (NMB =  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} (I_i - M_i) / \sum_{i=1}^{N} M_i$ ) between the measured (M) and interpolated (I) values over the N sites. As shown in **Fig. 2c**, the interpolation technique fairly reproduces the measured spatial distribution of total DIN deposition fluxes (r=0.52, *p*<0.001), with only small annual bias (1%). Nevertheless, the predicted values for some sites (e.g. forest sites) were not ideal because of relatively higher root-mean-square error (14.0) (Table S2 in the Supplement) and mediate r value.

As a comparison for the interpolation evaluation, simulated total DIN deposition fluxes at the 279 model  $1/2^{\circ} \times 1/3^{\circ}$  resolution for the year 2010 was mapped at the same resolution  $(1/2^{\circ} \times 1/2^{\circ})$  to the 280 mapping of interpolated total DIN deposition (Fig. 2b). The model also captures measured total DIN 281 282 deposition fluxes (r=0.38, p < 0.001) with a relatively high mean bias (10%). This is largely due to underestimates of deposition fluxes measured at the forest sites (Fig. 2d). Interestingly, interpolated 283 and modeled deposition fluxes were comparable in most of the areas in corresponding provinces 284 belonging to the basin (note however that the modeled values for Guangdong and Shanghai cannot 285 be extracted due to limitation of spatial resolution) (Fig. 4a). Furthermore, a high positive correlation 286 (r=0.90, p<0.001) was found between interpolated and modeled deposition fluxes across 287 corresponding provinces (n=17) (Fig. 4b). This interpolation-model comparison further supports the 288 interpolated spatial pattern of total DIN deposition and suggests that the modeled pattern can be used 289 290 to fill the measurement gaps at a large spatial scale.

Based on interpolated results (Fig. 2a), most regions of the basin generally received DIN 291 deposition > 30 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The highest fluxes of DIN deposition were concentrated in the central 292 regions, with maximum values of 54.6 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> observed in Chongqing, and the lowest 293 deposition was observed in the underdeveloped regions in the west of the basin (i.e., Qinghai), with 294 the lowest value of 1.0 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The spatial pattern observed in the present study is driven 295 mostly by differences in many factors, such as usage of N fertilizers, fossil fuel consumption, 296 297 livestock, and precipitation as well as interregional atmospheric transport (Jia et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2015). In addition, multiple years of measured DIN may also have a minor influence on the pattern 298 299 that is discussed later (see Section 3.4). The highest annual N deposition in Chongqing is explained, in part, by the fact that Chongqing is the largest metropolitan area in southeastern China, and is 300 featured by high emission densities of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> (Zhao et al., 2013; Kang et al., 2016). In this 301 study, the spatial patterns of total  $NH_x$  deposition and total  $NO_y$  deposition cannot be mapped using 302 the Kriging interpolation due to limitation of corresponding reported data (Table S1 in the 303 Supplement). Alternatively, the GEOS-Chem model was applied to characterize their spatial patterns. 304 We found that there was a sharp gradient from west to east (Fig. S1 in the Supplement), corresponding 305 well with reported emission patterns of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> (Zhao et al., 2013; Kang et al., 2016). 306

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The lack of long-term measurement of dry deposition fluxes makes it difficult to explore

temporal pattern of total DIN deposition. Dry deposition has recently been included in a national 308 nitrogen deposition monitoring network across China and showed that on average bulk and dry DIN 309 deposition rates based on measurements at 43 in situ sites were equally important (50% each) (Xu et 310 al., 2015). This implies that trends in bulk deposition fluxes can be useful to provide guide to trends 311 in total DIN deposition fluxes. As reported by Wang et al. (2014), bulk DIN deposition has increased 312 continuously from 0.24 Tg N in 1980 to 0.89 Tg N in 2010. In the causal relationship between 313 concentration and deposition, change in Nr concentration may provide insight into the trend of 314 deposition. The Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS)-measured NH3 concentrations showed a 315 significant increasing trend in period 2003-2015 over major agricultural regions in the Yangtze River 316 basin (Warner et al., 2017). Over Sichuan Basin and Yangtze River Delta (both belong to the Yangtze 317 River basin), the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI)-observed NO<sub>2</sub> columns during the period 318 2005-2015 reached its maximum in 2010 and then remained relatively stable (Krotkov et al., 2016). 319 320 In this context, we surmise that total DIN deposition over the basin likely exhibited an upward trend since 1980. 321

322 3.2. Contributions of different processes and emission sectors to total N deposition

In the present study, deposition amounts of individual Nr species (e.g., gaseous NH<sub>3</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and 323 NO<sub>2</sub>, particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and rainwater NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) cannot be separated from 324 interpolated total DIN deposition fluxes. Instead, we examine the different processes and sources 325 contributing to total DIN deposition over the Yangtze River basin by using the GEOS-Chem model 326 results for the year 2010. We evaluate the model simulations by comparing with observed wet (both 327  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ ) and total DIN deposition fluxes listed in **Table S1** in the Supplement. The model 328 biases were 22% for wet NH4<sup>+</sup> deposition, 23% for wet NO3<sup>-</sup> deposition and 9% for total DIN 329 deposition (Fig. S2 in the Supplement). These biases are reasonable and can be partially explained 330 by the differences in Nr emissions and meteorology conditions. Given that model evaluation is not 331 central to this work, we presented the details in **Text S2** in the Supplement. 332

 
 Table 1 presents the annual total deposition amounts from individual species and from each
 333 process over the basin. On a basin scale, NH<sub>x</sub> removal was dominated by wet deposition compared 334 with dry deposition (15.5 versus 6.6 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). Gaseous NH<sub>3</sub> accounted for 70% of NH<sub>x</sub> dry 335 deposition (4.5 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). Similar to  $NH_x$ , more NO<sub>y</sub> was removed by wet deposition than dry 336 deposition (7.1 versus 4 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). Annually HNO<sub>3</sub> (56%) was the biggest contributor to NO<sub>y</sub> 337 dry deposition, followed by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> aerosol (22%), NO<sub>2</sub> (12%) and others (10%). Our results show that 338 wet deposition accounted for 71% of  $NH_x$  deposition, 65% of  $NO_y$  deposition, and 69% of the total 339 N deposition to the basin, which is consistent with the findings of previous measurements in the basin 340 341 (Xu et al., 2015). This, in turn, indicates that the basin is likely small in the interpolated spatial pattern of the total DIN deposition, despite uncertainties in bulk measurements (e.g., amount of dry 342

343 deposition fraction).

Fig. 5 shows the spatial footprint of different  $N_r$  emission sectors contributing to total DIN deposition conducted from the GEOS-Chem simulation. Emissions from fertilizer use (40%), followed by industry (13%) and livestock (11%), contribute most to N deposition over the Yangtze River basin. Power plant and transportation contribute 9% each, and other sources, including human waste, residential activities and natural sources (soil, lighting and biomass burning), contribute the remaining 18%.

In addition, there were significant spatial variations in contributions of Nr emission sectors to 350 total DIN deposition. To the east of the Qionglai mountains (northwestern rim of the Sichuan basin), 351 the relative contributions from fertilizer use are highest (30-50%). Livestock, industry, power plant 352 and transportation show comparable contribution of 10-20%. To west of the Qionglai mountains, 353 where nitrogen deposition rate is relatively low, most of nitrogen deposition is from livestock (20-354 355 30%) and others sources such as human waste and residential activities (20-50%). Contributions from fertilizer use and transportation are generally less than 10% and from industry and power plant are 356 357 negligible.

Many studies have found that anthropogenic activities are main contributors to atmospheric N 358 deposition based on CTMs simulations (L. Zhang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017), 359 isotope techniques (Xiao et al., 2010), and/or the Postive Matrix Factorization (PMF) model (Liu et 360 al., 2016). For instance, using the PMF method, Liu et al. (2016) determined the main sources of bulk 361 N deposition across China during the period 2003-2014; they reported that agricultural activities were 362 the main contributor for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N (85.9%), and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N was mainly from fossil fuel combustion 363 (86.0%). Furthermore, Zhao et al. (2017) used the GEOS-Chem model to show that 93% of N 364 365 deposition in China was originated from anthropogenic sources.

In the present study, the source attribution results indicate that agricultural activities, either fertilizer use or livestock management, dominate total DIN deposition in the Yangtze River basin. The results also highlight that the intensive agriculture activities may lead to adverse environmental effects such as perturbation to the N cycle in the basin and further threaten the ecology health of the aquatic ecosystems. Recent field measurement also found that more reduced N was deposited than oxidized N in northern China (Pan et al., 2012) and even across China (Xu et al., 2015), although the ratio of  $NH_4^+$ -N/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N in precipitation decreased since the 1980s (Liu et al., 2013; 2016).

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# 374 3.3. Potential ecological risks of atmospheric N deposition

Critical load is a quantitative estimate of exposure to N deposition below which significant harmful ecological effects on an ecosystem do not occur over the long term (Liu et al., 2011) and have been widely used as a useful tool in evaluating the impact of N deposition on ecosystems (Duan

et al., 2002; Ellis et al., 2013). In this study, the basin was divided into five sensitive regions by the 378 critical load of N deposition for terrestrial ecosystems in China (Table 3). Regions corresponding to 379 70.3% of the basin were in insensitive areas (i.e., high insensitivity and insensitivity) zones, whereas 380 12.0% of the basin was in sensitive zones. These results indicate that total DIN deposition in 381 approximately 82% of the basin exceeded the critical loadsof N deposition in terrestrial ecosystems, 382 which mostly ranged from 10 to 20 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (Bobbink et al., 2010). By contrast, according to 383 the results from current modeling studies, N deposition rate in 11% of the world's land surface exceed 384 the critical load of 10 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> (Dentener et al., 2006), and the area which received this load 385 accounted for between 35% and 47% of the total area of the US (L. Zhang et al., 2012) and China 386 (Zhao et al., 2017), respectively. These results indicate that a more serious potential risk of N 387 388 saturation may exist in the Yangtze River basin compared with other regions in China and the world. A condition of N saturation has been detected in high N deposition areas of the basin, such as 389 390 Chongqing and the Tuojiang/Minjiang River (Duan et al., 2016).

If the growth rate of N deposition in the entire basin (excluding corresponding areas in Qinghai 391 province) coincides with the annual average growth rate of 0.36 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (unpublished data) 392 derived from 5-year (2011-2015) in situ measurements of total DIN deposition at 9 NNDMN 393 monitoring sites (which include NJ, WJ, WX, TJ, ZY, YT, JJ, HN and XS sites, Fig. 1) in the basin, 394 all regions will receive N deposition exceeding 10 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> after 25 years. The critical loads of 395 N in the basin can be derived from estimated N critical loads for N deposition in various ecosystems 396 in China (Liu et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2017). Based on field observations, for example, an empirical 397 N critical load map of N deposition drawn by Liu et al. (2011) shows that estimated values in the 398 basin were generally > 200 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for croplands, and < 100 and 50 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for forests 399 and grasslands, respectively. According to Zhao et al. (2017), the N critical load for soil 400 eutrophication estimated using the steady-state mass balance method varied from 8 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> to 401 100 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> in the basin. Nevertheless, the critical loads of N in ecosystems are still subjected 402 to some large uncertainties in the calculation methods (e.g., the SSMB), such as plant uptake rate, 403 weathering rate, and denitrification rate (Zhao et al., 2017). 404

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# 406 3.4. Uncertainty and recommendations

Total deposition includes wet deposition (in the form of rainfall and snowfall) and dry deposition (in the form of gases and particles). The present study reported the spatial pattern of total DIN deposition in the Yangtze River basin, the estimated flux here, however, is subject to some uncertainties in our estimation of dry deposition at the selected 70 sites, which were calculated based on dry/wet deposition ratios at their surrounding NNDMN sites. This is because the relative contribution of dry vs. wet deposition to the total deposition at a point scale largely depends on the

local environment, such as Nr emissions, weather conditions (e.g., precipitation, wind speed) and 413 underlying surface (Pan et al., 2012). It should be noted that the calculated wet deposition at those 414 sites in fact are mostly bulk deposition. The wet deposition refers strictly to wet-only deposition 415 which is sampled only during rainfall and snowfall events. Bulk deposition should be higher than 416 actual wet deposition. For example, annual difference between bulk and wet deposition was 1.3–9.6 417 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> in agroecosystems in northern China, accounting for 5–32% of bulk deposition (Liu et al., 418 2017). As mentioned earlier (see Section 2.2), the difference between bulk and wet N deposition is 419 likely small in the basin, but the use of bulk deposition may also result in uncertainties in our 420 421 estimation of total DIN deposition. Furthermore, our study pulled together DIN deposition results from a number of different field studies (Table S1 in the Supplement), which could introduce 422 potential biases in the spatial pattern of total DIN deposition, owing to differences in monitoring, 423 sampling handing and analysis methods. To test whether the use of data measured during 2000-2014 424 425 period could bias the spatial patterns of total DIN deposition, we summarize data on bulk DIN deposition during the period 2000-2014 from recent publications (Liu et al., 2013; Xu et al. 2015; 426 427 Song et al., 2017). A total of 126 records on annual bulk DIN deposition fluxes at 43 monitoring sites were obtained (Fig. S3a in the Supplement). A non-significant trend (p=0.315) can be seem for annual 428 bulk deposition fluxes at a regional scale (Fig. S3b in the Supplement). Further, annual trends of bulk 429 DIN deposition at five in situ monitoring sites (i.e., WJ, GG, JYS, GYQ, NJ) were not significant, 430 and the similar phenomenon was also observed at two in situ monitoring sites for wet deposition (Fig. 431 **S3a** in the Supplement). Based on these findings, we conclude that using DIN deposition measured 432 in different years may have a little influence on the spatial pattern of total DIN deposition. On the 433 other hand, the large-size particulate (e.g. dust or aerosols larger than 10  $\mu$ m) N was normally not 434 collected in the dry deposition collection. From this viewpoint, the overestimated "wet" deposition 435 could be partly compensated by the underestimated "dry" deposition. To obtain more accurate 436 information on the spatial pattern, it is crucial to establish a long-term regional N deposition 437 monitoring network covering both wet-only and complete dry deposition using uniform monitoring 438 methods, and to estimated deposition fluxes use a joint method of monitoring, modeling and/or spatial 439 440 interpolation. In addition, it is indispensable to set up more representative observation sites in corresponding regions in the western Sichuan basin and Qinghai province where observation sites are 441 442 currently absent.

Organic nitrogen (ON), which is an important component of the atmospheric N cycle, is not considered in the present study (Neff et al., 2002). Water-soluble ON contributes on average about 25% of the total dissolved N in wet deposition globally (Jickells et al., 2013), and approximately 25% of bulk N deposition in China (Y. Zhang et al., 2012). This soluble ON contains a wide range of  $N_r$ compounds (e.g., amino acids, amines, nitrophenols, alkyl amides, and organic nitrates) with different 448 properties and origin (Cape et al., 2011; Jickells et al., 2013). According to the results from the first 449 global model of atmospheric ON (Kanakidou et al., 2012), the major contributors of atmospheric ON 450 were combustion sources (40%), primary biogenic particles (32%), and ocean particulate emissions 451 (20%). However, a national emission inventory of ON species has not yet been developed for China. 452 Further research is required to fill knowledge gaps of organic N emissions, which will beneficial for 453 source analysis of atmospheric ON deposition, an issue which remains uncertain in China.

Uncertainties also exit in the source attribution calculated with the GEOS-Chem simulations, 454 since results largely depend on the emission inventories fed to the model. Zhao et al. (2017) have 455 pointed out that uncertainties in current ammonia emissions inventories (e.g. large range of the 456 emission value in current studies and absence of inclusion of bi-directional NH<sub>3</sub> exchange in land-457 atmosphere) may influence the nitrogen deposition simulation in China. We also point out here the 458 high contribution (40%) from fertilizer use includes both NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from chemical fertilizer and 459 460 manure, as they are merged into 'fertilizer use' sector in the REAS-V2 emission inventory. Future work to improve ammonia emission inventories is needed to better simulate the spatial distribution 461 462 and source attribution of N deposition in China.

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### 464 3.5. Conclusions and implications for controlling regional N deposition

. In summary, we have presented the spatial pattern of total DIN deposition in the Yangtze River 465 basin based on three date sets on DIN deposition for the period of 2000-2014 at the 100 sites, and 466 also have examined sources of total DIN deposition in the basin for the year 2010 using the GESO-467 Chem model at horizontal resolution of  $1/2^{\circ} \times 1/3^{\circ}$ . We found that there is a significant spatial 468 variation in total DIN deposition across the basin, with the highest fluxes mainly concentrated in the 469 central region. At a regional scale, the total DIN deposition flux was 33.2 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. . Meanwhile, 470 the deposition fluxes in nearly 82% of the basin exceeded the critical loads for generic terrestrial 471 ecosystems. Based on these findings, we propose that mitigation strategies are urgently needed in the 472 basin and should be developed through a regional strategy according to local economical, ecological 473 and environmental conditions. In other words, more stringent emission controls should be 474 475 implemented in N emission hotspots near sensitive areas (e.g. the central regions of the basin and the Yangtze Delta) whereas moderate controls in areas near low N deposition levels (e.g. corresponding 476 477 areas in Qinghai province). In this way, it could achieve a more ideal control effect without affecting the regional economic development. 478

The source attribution conducted by GEOS-Chem model can provide useful information for develop effective measures to reduce the excessive  $N_r$  input to the Yangtze River basin. In a regional scale, fertilizer use contributed 40% of total DIN deposition to the basin. This result provides direct evidence that reducing fertilizer NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization over the regional scale, by use of a urease inhibitor

(Li et al., 2017) and/or right fertilization pattern (e.g., fertilizing in right type, right amount, right time and right place) is a promising approach to decrease NH<sub>3</sub> emission and subsequent N deposition. Thus, in a sense, the implemented "Zero Increase Action Plan" by the Ministry of Agriculture for national fertilizer use to some extent can suppress the regional Nr pollution and N deposition (Liu et al., 2016). In addition, manure management in feedlots to treat and use it as fertilizer to cropland should be improved. However, the fact that significant variability in emission source contributions to N deposition were observed across the study area suggests that policy-makers should also consider emission reduction from other major emission sectors in addition to fertilizer when developing synergistic control measures.

Overall, our results show that the Yangtze River basin is a N deposition hotspot in China and globally, primarily due to high levels of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from improper fertilize use. Further research at a regional scale to consider both inorganic and organic N in wet and dry deposition is required to assess the spatial pattern of N deposition and optimize control strategy for protecting aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems.

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- 731 **Figure captions**
- Fig. 1. Geographic location of the Yangtze River basin and the 100 monitoring sites.
- Fig. 2. Spatial patterns of total DIN deposition in the Yangtze River basin derived from the Kriging
- interpolation during the period of 2000-2014 (a) and the GEOS-Chem model for the year 2010 (b).
- The Kriging interpolated results and GEOS-Chem model results are compared with measured total
- DIN deposition (as given in Table S1, SI) as scatter-plots (c and d, bottom panels). The full names of
- the provinces are successively Hebei, Shandong, Gansu, Shanxi, Shanxi, Henan, Guizhou, Jiangsu,
- 738 Hubei, Shanghai, Anhui, Ningxia, Jiangxi, Zhejiang, Chongqing, Sichuan, Fujian, Guangdong,
- 739 Guangxi, Hunan, Yunnan, Xinjiang, Xizang, Qinghai.
- Fig. 3. Comparison of total DIN deposition observed in the Yangtze River basin and other areas (redand green bars represent interpolated and modeled values in this study; total N deposition rates in
- eastern US, western Europe, and China were cited from Li et al. (2106), Vet et al. (2014), and Zhaoet al. (2017), respectively).
- Fig. 4. a comparison of total DIN deposition from the Kriging interpolation and the GEOS-Chem model for the areas in corresponding provinces belonging to the Yangtze River basin (a) and the correlation between them (b).
- Fig. 5. Fractional contributions to total N deposition from emission sectors (i.e. fertilizer use,
  livestock, industry, power plant, transportation, and others including emissions from human waste,
  residential activities, soil, lighting and biomass burning) in the Yangtze River basin.
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- 759 **Figure 1**
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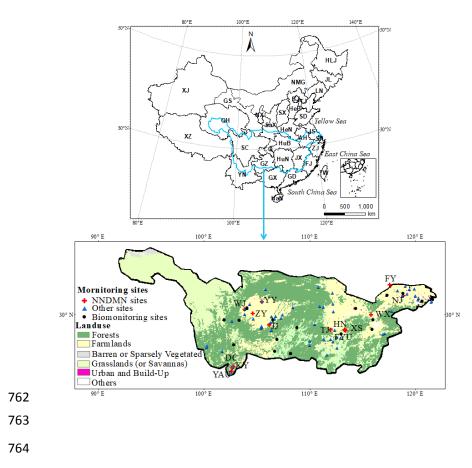
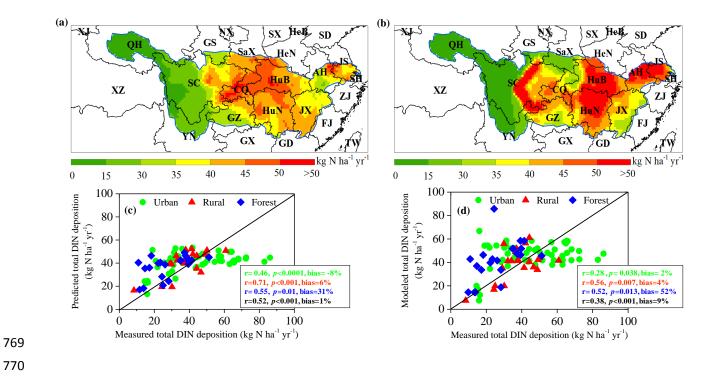
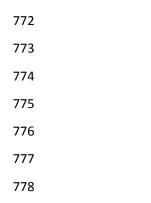


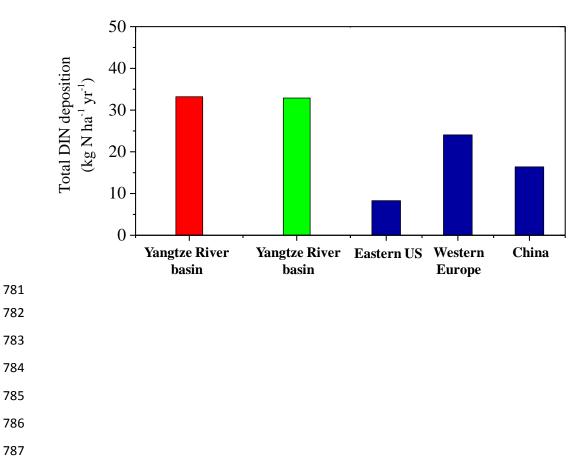
Figure 2 



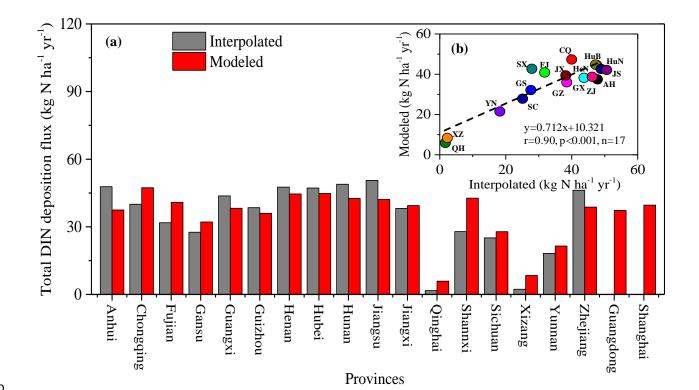




# 779 Figure3



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- 789 Figure 4



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**Table 1.** Nitrogen deposition over the Yangtze River basin<sup>a</sup>

	Deposition process	Deposition (kg N ha <sup>-1</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> )
NH <sub>x</sub>	Total	21.9
	Wet NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	15.5
	Dry NH <sub>3</sub>	4.5
	Dry NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> aerosol	1.9
NO <sub>v</sub>	Total	11.0
2	Wet NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	7.1
	Dry HNO <sub>3</sub>	2.2
	Dry NO <sub>2</sub>	0.47
	Dry isoprene nitrates <sup>b</sup>	0.19
	Dry N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.056
	Dry PANs <sup>c</sup>	0.11

	Dry $NO_3^-$ aerosol 0.88		
	Dry alkyl nitrates 0.036		
839	<sup>a</sup> Annual total N deposition for 2010 computed with GEOS-Chem model.		
840	<sup>b</sup> Isoprene nitrates are formed via the oxidation of biogenic isoprene and are removed by wet and		
841	dry deposition at the same deposition velocity of HNO <sub>3</sub> in the model following Zhang et al. (2012).		
842	<sup>c</sup> Peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) and higher peroxyacyl nitrates.		
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# 862 Table 2. Annual total NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over China and the Yangtze River basin (Tg N a<sup>-</sup>

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	Source Type	China	Yangtze river basin
	Fertilizer <sup>a</sup>	7.9	2.5
NH <sub>3</sub>	Livestock	2.4	0.7
	Human waste	1.5	0.5
	Fuel combustion <sup>b</sup>	0.7	0.2
	Natural	0.5	0.1
	Total	12.9	4.0
	Industry	3.4	0.9
	Power	2.9	0.5
NO <sub>x</sub>	Transportation	2.3	0.5
	Residential	0.4	0.1
	Natural <sup>c</sup>	0.8	0.1

	Total 9.6 2.2		
864	<sup>a</sup> Fertilizer NH <sub>3</sub> emissions include both chemical fertilizer and manure fertilizer.		
865	<sup>b</sup> NH <sub>3</sub> emissions from fuel combustion in power plant, industry, transportation and residential.		
866	<sup>c</sup> Natural NO <sub>x</sub> emissions from soil, lighting and biomass burning.		
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887	Table 3. Sensitivity of atmospheric N deposition in the Yangtze River basin and the percentage of		
888	the critical load area to the total river basin area		

Sensitivity classification	Critical loads $(\text{kg N ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1})^{a}$	Ratio of critical load area to total river basin area
High insensitivity	>40	43.1%
Insensitivity	30-40	27.2%
Slight sensitivity	20-30	12.0%
Sensitivity	10-20	8.8%
High sensitivity	<10	8.9%

<sup>a</sup> Critical loads of atmospheric N deposition for terrestrial ecosystem in China (Duan et al., 2002)