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# Aquaculture farm largely increase indirect nitrous oxide emission factors of lake

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# ABSTRACT

Freshwater aquaculture system is one of the main sources of nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) and must be accounted for when reporting indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agricultural industries. The IPCC based approach recommend the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors (EF<sub>5</sub>) to estimate the emissions from freshwater. Unfortunately, the EF<sub>5</sub> for lake aquaculture, one of the most common freshwater aquacultures, has never been reported due to the scarcity of field data. To better understand the magnitude of EF<sub>5</sub> at lake aquaculture and identify the control factors, the EF<sub>5</sub> at aquaculture farm and open water (non-aquaculture region) of Lake Taihu were investigated based on long-term (2012–2017) in-situ field measurements. Our results showed the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission at the aquaculture farm  $(1.52 \pm 0.49 \text{ µmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$  was over one order of magnitude higher than at the open water ( $0.12 \pm 0.49 \text{ µmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ). Furthermore, we also found large variability in the EF<sub>5</sub>, which varied by one order of magnitude across time. The EF<sub>5</sub> at base predicted by nitrogen and the mass ratio of carbon to nitrogen. The significantly higher mass ratio of DOC to DIN resulting from feed application contributed to substantial increase in the N<sub>2</sub>O production efficiency and EF<sub>5</sub> at the aquaculture farm and open water were 0.0021  $\pm$  0.0013  $\pm$  0.0010, respectively. However, the measured EF<sub>5</sub> was lower than that IPCC's default value of 0.0025, implying IPCC method yielded the overestimated indirect emission, and large bias will occur when only use constant value considering the dramatic variability of observed EF<sub>5</sub>.

#### 1. Introduction

Increasing atmospheric nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) concentration has contributed to climate warming and stratospheric ozone depletion (Ravishankara et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2020). Agriculture is considered as the largest source of anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emission and contributed to the rapid growth of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O concentration (Davidson, 2009; Tian et al., 2020). It is estimated that N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agriculture are 3.5-6.2 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>, accounting for 60 % to approximately 80 % of gross anthropogenic emissions (Kroeze et al., 1999; Davidson and Kanter, 2014; Tian et al., 2020). Additionally, anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agriculture are divided into direct emissions and indirect emissions. The direct N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from fertilized soils have been extensively documented with lots of measurements and models (Shcherbak et al., 2014; Shang et al., 2019; Cui et al., 2021). However, the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from aquatic ecosystems due to reactive N leaching and runoff of agricultural fields are rarely studied (Turner et al., 2015; Audet et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2022).

The indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are essential to agricultural N<sub>2</sub>O inventories due to substantial agricultural N inputs into aquatic ecosystems (Xiao et al., 2019a; Webb et al., 2021). Although relatively few measurements are conducted for indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions of agricultural

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aquatic ecosystems (Audet et al., 2017; Hama-Aziz et al., 2017), it is estimated that the indirect emissions contribute to over 25 % of total agricultural N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Reay et al., 2012), indicating indirect emissions largely contributed to inter-annual variability of the total N<sub>2</sub>O emission (Griffis et al., 2017). Thus, more field measurements of indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are required to improve the reliability of the emission from agriculture.

Freshwater aquaculture has become a primary global agricultural industry and is critical in ensuring food security. Unfortunately, as an essential component of agriculture indirect N2O emission, the N2O emissions from freshwater aquaculture systems are less understood due to the scarcity of field data (Hu et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2021). This knowledge gap in indirect N2O emission of aquaculture has caused considerable uncertainty in the global N<sub>2</sub>O budget estimates (Williams and Crutzen, 2010; Hu et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2019). Aquaculture systems are maintained through daily supply of feeds including N loadings for improving production, but the majority of the external N are retained in the water and thereby can stimulate indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission (Hu et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2021). Global aquaculture production will increase significantly in the following decades with the increasing demand for protein due to the rapid population growth. Increasing aquaculture development will significantly release pollutants (Zhou et al., 2021), likely driving aquaculture systems to become primary anthropogenic sources of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Xiao et al., 2019b). Considering the importance of N2O emission, more field measurements in typical freshwater aquaculture systems are needed to provide accurate N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from aquaculture.

IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) provides emission factors (EF<sub>5</sub>) to estimate indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from freshwaters (Hama-Aziz et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2018). The EF5 was dimensionless and defined as the ratio of N<sub>2</sub>O-N to the N loading input of water subject to leaching and runoff. This approach estimates the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from freshwaters by multiplying a fraction of anthropogenic N loading with the default EF5. The current EF5 value for freshwaters such as rivers, groundwater, and estuaries are all set to 0.0025 (De Klein et al., 2006). However, nearly all studies demonstrate that the default  $EF_5$ proposed by IPCC is highly uncertain because of large variability in environmental conditions (Maavara et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021). Specifically, EF5 not only varies by three orders of magnitude across different waterbodies (Webb et al., 2021), but also varies seasonally and spatially within a single waterbody (Qin et al., 2019; Xiao et al., 2019a). Thus, it is important and necessary to observe the temporal and spatial patterns of EF<sub>5</sub> for different waterbodies to accurately predict global indirect N2O emissions. In fact, previous field measurements of EF5 were mainly implemented in rivers/streams (Yu et al., 2013; Turner et al., 2015), reservoirs (Xiao et al., 2019a; Yang et al., 2022), and drainage ditches (Hama-Aziz et al., 2017). The measurements of EF5 in freshwater aquaculture systems, especially for lake aquaculture, was less reported yet.

Lakes have been widely used for aquaculture in the past four decades in China due to the increasing demand for animal protein (Jia et al., 2013). It has become one of the most common agricultural industries in China with the peak area reaching 1 million ha as shown in a previous study, although the area of lake aquaculture decreased by 25 % in recent years (Pu et al., 2022). In fact, China's aquaculture sector ranks as the first and accounts for over 60 % of aquaculture production in the world (Pauly and Zeller, 2017). However, aquaculture lakes are likely to result in large N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Zhou et al., 2021), due to their semi-artificial system with large amount of feed rich in carbon and nitrogen for high fish yield purpose (Yang et al., 2021; Pu et al., 2022). The degradation of these organic-rich feed could increase N2O production and stimulate indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Yang et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2021). It is proposed that lake aquaculture accounted for 89 % of the increase in N2O emissions from Chinese aquaculture sectors (Zhou et al., 2021). However, our understanding of the magnitude of indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from lake aquaculture is limited due to the unknown EF5 in this

ecosystem.

In this study, the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors  $EF_5$  at an aquaculture farm (Dongtaihu Bay) and open water without aquaculture of Lake Taihu, the third largest freshwater lake in China, were investigated based on long-term (2012–2017) field measurements. Aquaculture activities had contributed to increases in nutrient loading at the aquaculture farm (Dongtaihu Bay; Qin et al., 2007) and may stimulate the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. The main aims of our study are: (1) to quantify the magnitude of  $EF_5$  values in the lake aquaculture, (2) to determine the spatial-temporal variability in  $EF_5$  values and their relationships with environmental variables, and (3) to elucidate the impact of aquaculture on  $EF_5$  using observations at the aquaculture farm and open water. To our best knowledge, our research appears to be the first study that reports the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions factors  $EF_5$  at lake aquaculture, which would advance our understanding for indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission from agricultural industries.

# 2. Materials and methods

# 2.1. Study sites and field measurements

Lake Taihu, with a size of 2338  $\text{km}^2$  and a mean water depth of 1.9 m, is the third largest freshwater lake in China. It features a subtropical monsoon climate, with annual precipitation of 1122 mm and mean air temperature of 16.2 °C (Lee et al., 2014). The main study region of Dongtaihu Bay, which is located in southeast part of Lake Taihu, has a size of 130 km<sup>2</sup> and a mean water depth less than 1.5 m. The Dongtaihu Bay is characterized by good water quality and abundant submerged macrophytes (Xiao et al., 2017; Pu et al., 2022). Since 1984, the aquaculture farm in Dongtaihu Bay was constructed and then expanded rapidly, with a peak area of 107 km<sup>2</sup> (Qin et al., 2007; Pu et al., 2022). The main form of initial aquaculture is pen-fish-culture, and now the aquaculture has been replaced by a polyculture mode dominated by the Chinese mitten crab (Eriocheir sinensis), supplemented by black shrimp (Macrobrachium nipponense), and giant river prawn (Macrobrachium rosenbergii) due to the adjustment of aquaculture structure (Qin et al., 2007; Pu et al., 2022). The young carb fry (about 10 g ind<sup>-1</sup>), black shrimp fry (about 0.5 g ind<sup>-1</sup>), and giant river prawn (about 12 g ind<sup>-1</sup>) were stocked at the density of 15, 000 ind ha<sup>-1</sup>, 225, 000 ind ha<sup>-1</sup>, and 12, 000 ind ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, as reported in previous study (Pu et al., 2022). Additionally, pellet feed, fish meat, and corn seed were applied once per day from January to October with annual application rates of 640 kg C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>, 1580 kg C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, and 4180 kg C ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

The aquaculture farm of Dongtaihu Bay is a fine place to investigate the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors EF<sub>5</sub> at lake aquaculture mostly due to the following two reasons. First, Dongtaihu Bay is the most mature waterbody for aquaculture in China; Second, intense aquaculture had changed the environment variables of Dongtaihu Bay such as providing more autochthonous organic substrate as shown in previous studies (Qin et al., 2007; Pu et al., 2022). Our field measurements were carried out on the aquaculture farm from 2012 to 2017. There were three sampling sites (Site A, Site B, and Site C; Fig. 1) at the aquaculture farm. We collected water samples seasonally at the three sits in spring (May), summer (August), autumn (November), and winter (February). The central zone with open water was non-aquaculture regions. For comparison, sample at three sampling sites (Site D, Site E, and Site F) of the open water (Fig. 1) were also carried out seasonally (February, May, August, and November) from 2012 to 2017. The open water without aquaculture can be treated as a reference region to discuss the potential effects of aquaculture activity on the EF5. Additionally, indirect N2O emissions from the open water of the lake occurred likely due to relatively high nutrient loading from different sources. For example, the nitrate nitrogen concentration of the open water was comparable to that aquaculture systems with high N input (Xiao et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021).



Fig. 1. Geographic location of Lake Taihu and the sampling sites at aquaculture farm and open water of the lake. Black square, black circle, and black cross indicate the sampling sites at the aquaculture farm (Site A, Site B, and Site C) and open water (Site D, Site E, and Site F), and meteorological station (PTS and DS), respectively.

#### 2.2. Sample analysis and environmental variable acquisitions

Over the six-year period (2012-2017), water samples at the aquaculture farm and open water were collected for dissolved N2O concentration analysis. The dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration was determined with head-space equilibration method (Davidson et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2019b). Briefly, bubble-free surface water at the 20 cm depth was sampled in the field with a 300 mL glass bottle, and the glass bottle had been cleaned with local lake surface water prior to sampling. Then the bottle was sealed immediately and transported to laboratory for analysis. Ultrahigh purity N2 gas (99.999 %) was injected into the glass bottle to create headspace for N2O gas extraction to confirm the N2O concentration. Then the glass bottle was shaken vigorously for five mins, which aims to allow the dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O gas to reach equilibrium within the headspace. The N<sub>2</sub>O gas sample in the headspace was then drawn and injected into a gas chromatograph. More details about the sampling and analysis have previously been reported (Xiao et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2019a).

Environmental variables were included to confirm the magnitude, spatial-temporal variability, and main control factors of the EF<sub>5</sub>. Surface water temperature (Tw), pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), total nitrogen (TN), total phosphorus (TP), dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and chlorophyll a (Chl-a) were considered in this study. The DIN included ammonium nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N), nitrate nitrogen (NO<sub>3</sub>-N), and nitrite nitrogen (NO<sub>2</sub>-N). In the field, T<sub>w</sub>, pH, and DO were measured with a multi-parameter probe, and the probe was calibrated prior to measurements. The probe for pH measurement had a precision of  $\pm$  0.01 pH units, and DO measurement had a precision of 0.1 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (  $\pm$  1 %) in the range of 0–20 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Water samples were collected for nutrient (TN, NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub>-N, NO<sub>3</sub>-N, NO<sub>2</sub>-N, and TP), DOC, and Chl-a analysis. The nutrient and DOC were measured with a spectrophotometer and TOC analyzer, respectively, and the Chl-a was determined spectrophotometrically. The sampling/measurement for these variables was conducted by TLLER (the Taihu Laboratory for Lake Ecosystem Research) and more details were reported in our previous studies (Xu et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Xiao et al., 2020b).

#### 2.3. Flux calculations and indirect emission factors

The indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission ( $F_n$ ) from surface water to the atmosphere was obtained with water-air gas exchange model (Cole and Caraco, 1998), which assumes that the dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O at concentrations ( $C_w$ ) above that of air saturation ( $C_{eq}$ ) was subsequently emitted to the atmosphere. The calculation equation was:

$$F_{\rm n} = k \times (C_{\rm w} - C_{\rm eq}) \tag{1}$$

where *k* is the gas transfer coefficient between the water-air interface. The wind speed measurements at 10 m height of PTS and DS (Fig. 1), two micrometeorological sites (Lee et al., 2014), were used for *k* calculation in this study. The detailed calculations of the gas transfer coefficient *k* were presented in our previous published papers (Xiao et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2020b).

The indirect emission factors  $EF_5$  from the lake aquaculture farm and open water in this study were calculated using the common IPCC (2006) methodology (De Klein et al., 2006), which has been broadly used for rivers (Turner et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2019), ditches (Hama-Aziz et al., 2017; Webb et al., 2021), lakes and reservoirs (Outram and Hiscock, 2012; Yang et al., 2022), and aquaculture ponds (Yang et al., 2021). The  $EF_5$  was calculated as follows:

$$EF_5 = N_2 O - N / NO_3^- - N$$
<sup>(2)</sup>

where the N<sub>2</sub>O-N (mg  $L^{-1}$ ) and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>N (mg  $L^{-1}$ ) were concentrations in the surface water of aquaculture farm and open water.

#### 2.4. Data processing and statistical analysis

The in-situ field data were separated into the aquaculture farm and open water (Fig. 1) to explore the potential effects of aquaculture on indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors. For temporal variability analysis, using all measurements within the corresponding zone from 2012 to 2017 to calculate a seasonal zonal mean. The total numbers of N<sub>2</sub>O emission or  $EF_5$  data for each zone was 24, where each data corresponded to one

field survey throughout the 6-years sampling period. Additionally, field measurements in each sampling site were averaged over the 6-year survey period, and then the time-averaged quantities were used to perform spatial variability analysis.

Simple/multi-linear regression was conducted to determine the relationships between EF<sub>5</sub> and environmental variables. When multi-linear regression was carried out, the EF<sub>5</sub> and environmental variables were normalized in the range of 0–1, with 1 corresponding to the maximum value and 0 to the minimum value. Additionally, the variance inflation factor (VIF) in multi-linear regression was applied to determine if multi-collinearity was significant. If the value of VIF is greater than the threshold of 5, variables in the equation were removed to reduce multi-collinearity. A least significant difference post-hoc test was used to confirm the differences among measured/calculated variables, differences at the p < 0.05 level were determined as statistically significant.

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Environmental conditions

The water temperature was  $18.6 \pm 9.1$  °C on the annual basis, showing minor spatial variability (Table 1). Specially, the water temperature differences among the six sampling sites were less than 0.8 °C annually. In contrast to water temperature, the bio-chemical variables varied largely (Table 1 and Fig. 2). The nutrients (e.g., TN, TP, and DIN) and Chl-a at the aquaculture farm were significantly (p < 0.05) lower than at open water, but significantly (p < 0.05) higher mass ratio DOC to DIN (DOC: DIN) occurred at the aquaculture farm (6.89 versus 9.52).

The two zones' bio-chemical variables varied seasonally (Fig. 2). The highest water temperature with mean value of 29.4  $\pm$  2.8 °C occurred in summer and the lowest in winter (6.6  $\pm$  2.0 °C). On the contrary, peak DO occurred in the winter and the lowest in the summer. Generally, the temporal variation of Chl-a was similar to water temperature, with a peak value in summer (aquaculture farm: 22.10  $\pm$  10.94  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>; open water: 26.24  $\pm$  8.15  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>) and trough in winter (aquaculture farm: 8.06  $\pm$  2.05  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>; open water: 10.99  $\pm$  3.50  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>). We need to note DIN did not show such seasonality with high DIN occurred in spring and winter.

#### 3.2. Indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions estimation

The indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions across the water-air interface were calculated with Eq. (2). Based on the long-term field measurements, the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission fluxes at the aquaculture farm and open water were  $1.52 \pm 0.49 \ \mu\text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{d}^{-1}$  and  $0.12 \pm 0.13 \ \mu\text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{d}^{-1}$ , respectively. Significantly (p < 0.01) higher indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions occurred at the aquaculture farm. Additionally, the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were highly positively correlated with the EF<sub>5</sub> across the six sampling sites ( $R^2 = 0.87, p < 0.01$ ).

# 3.3. Spatial-temporal variations in EF<sub>5</sub>

Our long-term (2012–2017) field measurements revealed that the EF<sub>5</sub> emission factors varied temporally (Fig. 3), which can vary by one order of magnitude across different sampling dates. Specially, the seasonal EF<sub>5</sub> ranged from 0.0005 to 0.0058 at the aquaculture farm, with a peak occurring in November 2014 and trough in May 2012, while the EF<sub>5</sub> ranged from 0.0002 in May 20130.0036 in November 2013 at open water. On average for the 6-years study period, the peak EF<sub>5</sub> occurred in autumn (aquaculture farm: 0.0033  $\pm$  0.0015; open water: 0.0025  $\pm$  0.0009), the trough occurred in spring (aquaculture farm: 0.0006  $\pm$  0.0001; open water: 0.0025  $\pm$  0.0002).

Substantial spatial variability in EF<sub>5</sub> between different zones was found over the 6-year field measurements (Fig. 4). The EF<sub>5</sub> at the aquaculture farm with an annual mean value of  $0.0021 \pm 0.0013$  was significantly (p < 0.05) higher than that at open water ( $0.0013 \pm 0.0010$ ). Interestingly, the differences of EF<sub>5</sub> between sampling sites within each zone (the aquaculture farm and open water) were insignificant (p > 0.05; Fig. 4). Meanwhile, the temporal EF<sub>5</sub> of each sampling site within aquaculture farm (Site A versus Site B:  $R^2 = 0.56$ , p < 0.01; Site A versus Site C:  $R^2 = 0.50$ , p < 0.01; Site B versus Site C:  $R^2 = 0.44$ , p < 0.01) and open water (Site D versus Site E:  $R^2 = 0.31$ , p < 0.01; Site D versus Site F:  $R^2 = 0.46$ , p < 0.01; Site E versus Site F:  $R^2 = 0.52$ , p < 0.01) were highly correlated with each other.

# 3.4. Correlations between the EF<sub>5</sub> and environmental variables

The spatial-temporal variations in the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors  $EF_5$  could be predicted by some environmental variables. Temporally, it is worth noting that DOC and Chl-a were highly correlated with the  $EF_5$  variability at the open water which indicates they can be used as predictors, but the patterns were not profound at the aquaculture farm (Figs. 5a and 6). In contrast to the DOC and Chl-a, the  $EF_5$  were highly negatively correlated with DIN and the DOC:DIN at aquaculture farm and open water (Fig. 5). Spatially, the  $EF_5$  was negatively correlated with DIN but positively correlated with the DOC:DIN (Fig. 7). Considering the significant role of DIN and DOC:DIN in the temporal variability in  $EF_5$ , nitrogen and carbon loadings regulate the  $EF_5$  variability.

Although the variables used in Fig. 5 were correlated with each other, such as DIN was correlated with DOC:DIN at aquaculture farm ( $R^2 = 0.62$ , p < 0.01), multi-linear regression revealed that only normalized DOC:DIN and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N together explained 54 % of observed temporal variability in the normalized EF<sub>5</sub> at the aquaculture farm ( $R^2 = 0.54$ , p < 0.01). The multi-linear stepwise regression function was:

$$EF_5 = 0.77DOC: DIN + 0.45NH_4^+ - N + 0.10$$
(3)

However, normalized DOC:DIN and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>4</sup>-N together explained 80 % of the variability of normalized EF<sub>5</sub> at the open water ( $R^2 = 0.80$ , p < 0.01):

$$EF_5 = 0.88DOC : DIN + 0.28NH_4^+ - N - 1.40$$
(4)

Table 1

Critical aquatic environment variables at aquaculture farm and open water of the lake during the field measurement period<sup>a</sup>. The data were presented as mean value  $\pm$  one standard deviation.

Zone/Site		Tw	TN	TP	DIN	DOC	DOC:DIN	Chl-a
Aquaculture farm	Site A	$18.6\pm9.2$	$1.34\pm0.54$	$0.06\pm0.02$	$0.50\pm0.24$	$3.50\pm0.78$	$9.50\pm 6.58$	$11.77\pm6.64$
	Site B	$18.5\pm9.2$	$1.53\pm0.64$	$0.06\pm0.03$	$0.54\pm0.35$	$3.39\pm0.76$	$\textbf{9.04} \pm \textbf{5.60}$	$10.65\pm9.23$
	Site C	$18.6\pm9.1$	$1.19\pm0.31$	$0.05\pm0.02$	$0.42\pm0.17$	$3.84 \pm 1.13$	$10.38 \pm 4.23$	$15.24\pm11.98$
	All	$\textbf{18.6} \pm \textbf{9.1}$	$1.35\pm0.42$	$\textbf{0.06} \pm \textbf{0.02}$	$\textbf{0.49} \pm \textbf{0.24}$	$3.54 \pm 0.85$	$\textbf{9.52} \pm \textbf{4.97}$	$12.55\pm8.06$
Open water	Site D	$\textbf{17.9} \pm \textbf{8.9}$	$\textbf{2.13} \pm \textbf{0.78}$	$0.10\pm0.03$	$0.80\pm0.52$	$3.77 \pm 1.03$	$\textbf{6.92} \pm \textbf{4.54}$	$26.09\pm27.81$
	Site E	$17.8 \pm 9.0$	$\textbf{2.07} \pm \textbf{0.80}$	$\textbf{0.09} \pm \textbf{0.03}$	$\textbf{0.79} \pm \textbf{0.45}$	$3.62\pm0.78$	$\textbf{6.79} \pm \textbf{4.66}$	$16.52\pm10.33$
	Site F	$\textbf{18.2} \pm \textbf{9.2}$	$1.96\pm0.64$	$0.10\pm0.03$	$\textbf{0.68} \pm \textbf{0.49}$	$\textbf{3.48} \pm \textbf{0.77}$	$\textbf{7.43} \pm \textbf{4.07}$	$16.73\pm12.95$
	All	$\textbf{18.0} \pm \textbf{9.0}$	$\textbf{2.05} \pm \textbf{0.69}$	$\textbf{0.10} \pm \textbf{0.03}$	$\textbf{0.75} \pm \textbf{0.44}$	$\textbf{3.58} \pm \textbf{0.84}$	$\textbf{6.89} \pm \textbf{3.92}$	$19.78\pm12.95$

<sup>a</sup> T<sub>w</sub>, surface water temperature (°C); TN, total nitrogen concentration (mg L<sup>-1</sup>); TP, total phosphorus concentration (mg L<sup>-1</sup>); DOC, dissolved organic carbon (mg L<sup>-1</sup>); DOC: DIN, mass ration of DOC (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) to DIN (mg L<sup>-1</sup>); Chl-a, chlorophyll a concentration (μg L<sup>-1</sup>).



Fig. 2. Seasonal variations of water temperature ( $T_w$ , a), dissolved oxygen (DO, b), chlorophyll a (Chl-a, c), and dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN, d) at the aquaculture farm and open water of Lake Taihu from 2012 to 2017. Error bars indicate standard deviation.



Fig. 3. Temporal variations in the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors at the aquaculture farm and open water of Lake Taihu from 2012 to 2017. Error bars indicate standard deviation.

It was worth noting that the normalized DOC:DIN was unrelated with  $NH_4^+$ -N at both aquaculture farm and open water (p > 0.05), and the VIF between DOC:DIN and  $NH_4^+$ -N in Eq. (3) and Eq. (4) were 1.08 and 1.03, respectively, suggesting that multi-collinearity was negligible.

It is more informative to explore the factors influencing the dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration variability. Therefore, multi-linear stepwise regression was conducted to investigate relationships between dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O concentration and environmental variables. Results showed that only DOC:DIN was the best predictor explaining the variability of the N<sub>2</sub>O concentration at the aquaculture farm ( $R^2 = 0.33$ , p < 0.01), and only water temperature was the best predictor explaining the variability of the N<sub>2</sub>O concentration at open water ( $R^2 = 0.58$ , p < 0.01).

#### 4. Discussion

#### 4.1. Factors influencing the EF<sub>5</sub> variability

The indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors  $EF_5$  varied greatly across time and sites (Figs. 3 and 4). Consistent with previous studies in rivers and streams (Beaulieu et al., 2011; Hinshaw and Dahlgren, 2012; Xiao et al., 2019a),  $EF_5$  in our study was negative with DIN (Figs. 5 and 7). Due to biological saturation, the inverse relationship between  $EF_5$  and nitrogen loading may be attributed to decreased microbial activity with increased nitrogen loadings inputs (Mulholland et al., 2008; Xiao et al., 2019a; Yang et al., 2021). Additionally, the higher nitrogen loading in spring (Fig. 2) may result in the lowest  $EF_5$  at that time (Fig. 3). Lower  $EF_5$ occurred with higher nitrogen loadings implied less N<sub>2</sub>O may be produced relative to DIN concentration, and we also supported the



**Fig. 4.** Spatial variations of the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors among different sites at the aquaculture farm and open water from 2012 to 2017. Different letters above the bars indicate significant (p < 0.05) differences between sampling sites.

assumption that  $N_2O$  production will non-linearly increase with rising DIN (e.g.,  $NO_3$ -N; Webb et al., 2021).

Carbon substrate was another critical factor influencing the EF<sub>5</sub> variability. Significant positive correlations between EF<sub>5</sub> and DOC or DOC:DIN were found (Figs. 5 and 7), suggesting N<sub>2</sub>O production efficiency increased with augmented DOC concentration (Hu et al., 2016). Meanwhile, the dominated role of DOC:DIN in EF<sub>5</sub> also indicated that the available carbon relative to nitrogen was essential in regulating N<sub>2</sub>O production efficiency. Generally, a high DOC:DIN ratio could improve the availability of labile carbon, increasing denitrification rates and N<sub>2</sub>O production (Cooper et al., 2017; Capodici et al., 2018; Xiao et al., 2019b). A positive correlation between EF<sub>5</sub> and the mass ratio of carbon to nitrogen has been found in previous studies (Hu et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021). Both of these implied the significant role of carbon substrate in regulating N<sub>2</sub>O production processes and EF<sub>5</sub> variability.

As noted above, our 6-years observations revealed the seasonal variations of  $EF_5$ , which has not been examined before due to the lack of a dataset including seasonal measurements, especially those with long-term observations in previous studies (Qin et al., 2019; Webb et al., 2021). Apart from DOC and DIN, our seasonal field measurement from 2012 to 2017 found water temperature and Chl-a also regulated the  $EF_5$  variability, which was less reported in previous studies (Hu et al., 2012; Outram and Hiscock, 2012). Besides, water temperature can affect the denitrification rate and stimulate N<sub>2</sub>O production (Xiao et al., 2019b). The significant role of Chl-a in the  $EF_5$  (Fig. 6) was a notable feature in our study. Considering algal blooms can increase labile DOC levels (Pacheco et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2020a). The Chl-a, an indicator of algal abundance, can directly affect N<sub>2</sub>O production and increase lake  $EF_5$  by increasing carbon inputs.

#### 4.2. Effects of aquaculture on lake EF<sub>5</sub>

The aquaculture farm was a hot spot of atmospheric N<sub>2</sub>O. Previous studies have demonstrated that lakes acted as N2O sources, which should be considered in atmospheric N2O budget estimation (McCrackin and Elser, 2011; Soued et al., 2016; Kortelainen et al., 2020). The estimated N<sub>2</sub>O flux ranged from - 5.24  $\mu$  mol m  $^{-2}$  d  $^{-1}$  to 14.99  $\mu$  mol m  $^{-2}$  d  $^{-1}$ across time and sites. The annual mean N<sub>2</sub>O flux was 0.82  $\mu$  mol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, showing the lake emitted N<sub>2</sub>O to the atmosphere on average. Our results were also consistent with these previous studies above, which showed lakes were source of atmospheric N2O. However, the indirect N2O emission fluxes at the aquaculture farm  $(1.52 \text{ umol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$  were over one order of magnitude higher than that at the open water (0.12 umol  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) without aquaculture. Thus, aquaculture activities could significantly stimulate the lake N2O production and emission, which should be paied more attention to better estimate indirect N2O emissions from inland agricultural waters (Hu et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2019). Additionally, the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions were highly positively correlated with the EF<sub>5</sub> ( $R^2 = 0.87$ , p < 0.01).

The annual mean  $EF_5$  was 0.0021 at the aquaculture farm of the lake



Fig. 5. Relationships between indirect  $N_2O$  emission factors and DOC, DIN, and the ratio of DOC (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) to DIC (mg L<sup>-1</sup>; DOC:DIN) at the aquaculture farm (a-c) and open water (d-f) based on the seasonal field measurements from 2012 to 2017. Parameter bounds on the regression coefficients indicate 95 % confidence limits.



Fig. 6. Relationships between indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors and Chl-a at the aquaculture farm (a) and open water (b) of the lake based on the seasonal field measurements from 2012 to 2017. Parameter bounds on the regression coefficients indicate 95 % confidence limits.



Fig. 7. Relationships between spatial mean indirect  $N_2O$  emission factors against DIN (a) and the ratio of DOC (mg L<sup>-1</sup>) to DIC (mg L<sup>-1</sup>; b) of the lake. Parameter bounds on the regression coefficients indicate 95 % confidence limits, and error bars indicate standard deviation. The yellow and green circles represented each spatial sampling site's annual mean value (2012–2017) at the aquaculture farm and open water, respectively.

based on the long-term field data from 2012 to 2017. The value was significantly (p < 0.01) higher than the annual mean values of 0.0013 at the open water without aquaculture (Fig. 3), 0.0007 reported for an open-water eutrophic zone (Xiao et al., 2019b), and 0.0008 for a low-land arable lake (Outram and Hiscock, 2012). These differences implied that lake aquaculture enormously affected the EF<sub>5</sub> of the water environment. Different EF<sub>5</sub> for different water types within the same watershed or the same water types between regions have been reported (Outram and Hiscock, 2012; Yang et al., 2021). This study found that the EF<sub>5</sub> varied considerably within a single lake due to the aquaculture activities.

The high mass ratio of carbon to nitrogen contributed to the large EF<sub>5</sub> at the aquaculture farm. The N<sub>2</sub>O indirect emission factors EF<sub>5</sub> highly depended on the DOC:DIN (Figs. 5 and 7). The effect of DOC:DIN on the N<sub>2</sub>O production has been explained above. The DOC:DIN at the aquaculture farm with an annual mean value of  $9.52 \pm 4.97$  was significantly (p < 0.01) higher that at the open water ( $6.89 \pm 3.92$ ), which could stimulate the N<sub>2</sub>O production substantially and increase the EF<sub>5</sub> (Outram and Hiscock, 2012; Hu et al., 2016). It is reported that about 6400 kg C ha<sup>-1</sup> year<sup>-1</sup> as feed is added at the aquaculture farm (Pu et al., 2022), these feed with abundant starch and protein cannot be fully used by aquatic fish and is easy to decompose into carbon substrates (Yang et al., 2021), improving the labile carbon level relative to nitrogen. The study's findings implied that improving the efficiency of feed use efficiency could help to mitigate aquaculture N<sub>2</sub>O production and emission.

#### 4.3. Implication of the measured $EF_5$

The average  $EF_5$  at the aquaculture farm of the lake (0.0021) was lower than the IPCC default value of 0.0025 by 16 %. This is consistent with the field measurement in many previous studies, as the agricultural river networks of China (Qin et al., 2019; Xiao et al., 2019a), rivers of the UK with different land use (Outram and Hiscock, 2012; Cooper et al., 2017), and ditches/drains in China and Sweden (Audet et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2018). The above studies also concluded the IPCC default value of 0.0025 may overestimate the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission from water environment. Meanwhile, a recent study with mechanistic modeling also found IPCC default  $EF_5$  likely overestimates the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission (Maavara et al., 2019). Thus, the magnitude of  $EF_5$  for different waterbody should be quantified to accurately estimate the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O budget from aquatic ecosystem.

However, many studies have shown the IPCC default value is underestimated. The  $EF_5$  value in maricultural ponds (Yang et al., 2021), the lakes receiving atmospheric nitrogen deposition (McCrackin and Elser, 2011), hydroelectric reservoirs in the northern boreal zone (Huttunen et al., 2002), and streams/rivers in the US Corn Belt (Turner et al., 2015) is about one order of magnitude higher than IPCC default value. These significantly higher  $EF_5$ , together with those significantly lower values, further demonstrated that the  $EF_5$  varied greatly across regions (Hu et al., 2016; Webb et al., 2021). It is worth noting that the  $EF_5$  could be predicted by the ratio of carbon to nitrogen in our study (Figs. 5 and 7), which likely provided a potential methodology to optimize the magnitude of  $EF_5$  in specific waterbody. Some efforts have already revised the IPCC default  $EF_5$  to estimate the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission accurately (Yu et al., 2013; Turner et al., 2015; Maavara et al., 2019). Unfortunately, most of the published studies are of limited usefulness for the revision of  $EF_5$  due to relatively short-term investigations, as summarized by Qin et al. (2019). Substantial inter-annual and monthly/seasonal variability in the  $EF_5$  has been found in our study (Fig. 4) and others (Qin et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021). Clearly, the revision of  $EF_5$  magnitude requires long-term observations with a high temporal resolution to develop accurate national indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission inventories, especially for the agriculture-impacted inland water.

### 4.4. Study limitations and future outlook

We should note there are several limitations in the presented research. Our study was consistent with previous studies showing aquaculture was a hot spot for atmospheric N2O emission (Hu et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2019). A recent study found an enormous contribution of the non-aquaculture period to the total N2O emissions from aquaculture (Yang et al., 2020). However, the EF<sub>5</sub> differences between different periods (aquaculture versus non-aquaculture) at the aquaculture farm were hard to study due to the lacking information of detailed polyculture aquaculture practice mode as suggested above. Meanwhile, the EF<sub>5</sub> differences between the aquaculture farm and the open water varied greatly across seasons (Fig. 3), which were associated with water temperature ( $R^2 = 0.17$ , p < 0.05) and DO ( $R^2 = 0.25$ , p < 0.05). However, the potential mechanistic processes were less studied due to the lack of nitration and denitrification rates measurements. Further work should be carried out to help reduce aquaculture N2O emissions for developing climate-resilient sustainable aquaculture.

#### 5. Conclusions

To better understand the magnitude of indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission factors EF<sub>5</sub> at lake aquaculture and identify its control factors, the EF<sub>5</sub> at the aquaculture farm and open water without aquaculture of Lake Taihu were investigated based on long-term (2012–2017) field measurements. Our results showed the indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emission at the aquaculture farm (1.52 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) was over one order of magnitude higher than at the open water (0.12 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) without aquaculture. Thus, aquaculture activities could significantly stimulate lake N<sub>2</sub>O production and emission.

Our field measurements showed the average EF<sub>5</sub> was close but slightly lower than the IPCC default value of 0.0025. Long-term data showed the measured EF<sub>5</sub> varied greatly across zones and seasons. The large annual and seasonal variations of observed EF<sub>5</sub> indicate considerably bias can be leaded when only use constant default EF<sub>5</sub> to estimate indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from aquaculture waters. Spatially, the EF<sub>5</sub> with an annual mean value of 0.0021 was significantly (p < 0.01) higher than at the lake open water without aquaculture (0.0013). Seasonally, the EF<sub>5</sub> can vary by one order of magnitude across different sampling dates. Specially, the seasonal EF<sub>5</sub> ranged from 0.0005 to 0.0058 at the aquaculture farm and ranged from 0.0002 to 0.0036 at open water.

The  $EF_5$  was negatively correlated with DIN but positively correlated with DOC: DIN, implying available carbon relative to nitrogen played a crucial role in regulating the N<sub>2</sub>O production efficiency. Significantly higher DOC:DIN mass ratio due to feed conversion rate at the aquaculture farm contributed to the large  $EF_5$ . Our study appears to be the first one to investigate the  $EF_5$  at lake aquaculture, which would advance our understanding of indirect N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agricultural industries.

# **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

# Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

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