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# Excessive synthetic fertilizers elevate greenhouse gas emissions of smallholder-scale staple grain production in China

Yan Xu <sup>a, c, #</sup>, Xiangbo Xu <sup>b, d, #</sup>, Jing Li <sup>a, b, \*</sup>, Xiaoxia Guo <sup>e, §</sup>, Huarui Gong <sup>a</sup>, Zhu OUYang <sup>a</sup>, Linxiu Zhang <sup>b, d</sup>, Erik Mathijs <sup>f</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Yellow River Delta Modern Agricultural Engineering Laboratory, Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China

<sup>b</sup> Key Laboratory of Ecosystem Network Observation and Modeling, Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China

<sup>c</sup> University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100049, China

<sup>d</sup> United Nations Environment Programme-International Ecosystem Management Partnership (UNEP-IEMP), Beijing 100101, China

<sup>e</sup> College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, China Agricultural University, Beijing, 100193, China

<sup>f</sup> Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences, KU Leuven, Leuven 3001, Belgium.

<sup>§</sup> Environmental Policy Group, Wageningen University, Hollandseweg 1, 6706 KN, Wageningen, the Netherlands

## \* Corresponding authors

Jing Li, Key Laboratory of Ecosystem Network Observation and Modeling, Institute of Geographical Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China. Phone: +86-10-64889300; E-mail address: jingli@igsrr.ac.cn

# These authors contributed equally to this work.

CO<sub>2</sub>

CH<sub>4</sub>

N<sub>2</sub>O

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### Staple grain production by smallholder farmers

• The GHG emissions:

12,989.80 kg CO<sub>2</sub> eq / hm<sup>2</sup> (Rice)

4,327.23 kg CO<sub>2</sub> eq / hm<sup>2</sup> (Wheat)

3,864.26 kg CO<sub>2</sub> eq / hm<sup>2</sup> (Maize)



Rice



Wheat



Maize

• The GHG emissions:

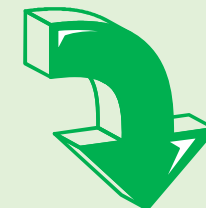
1.67 kg CO<sub>2</sub> eq / kg (Rice)

0.76 kg CO<sub>2</sub> eq / kg (Wheat)

0.71 kg CO<sub>2</sub> eq / kg (Maize)

After fertilizer reduction,

GHG emissions :



171.75–279.90 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq

Profits:

9.34–92.42

billion CNY



Synthetic fertilizers were main source of GHG emissions from all farm inputs



more than 48.58%

### Major raw material input



Synthetic fertilizer



Farmyard manure



Seed



Pesticide

### Other agricultural input



Irrigation



Machinery



Agricultural film

### Influencing factors



Climate



Farm



Household



Socioeconomic factors



1,015 surveyed smallholder farmers in China



## 1 **Abstract**

2           Smallholder farmers produce one-third of the world's food and over 80% of  
3 China's; therefore, they must be at the forefront of developing a sustainable food system.  
4 Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from these farms cannot be ignored. In this study, we  
5 created an agricultural environmental impact evaluation framework for China based on  
6 a localized database through an extensive survey. The survey was based on face-to-face  
7 interviews by 120 investigators with 1015 smallholders in 100 villages within Chinese  
8 major agricultural regions. The GHG emissions of each smallholder farmer's staple  
9 grain production was assessed on a case-by-case basis. Structural equation models were  
10 used to analyze the influence paths of production behavior. The results showed that  
11 GHG emissions from smallholder grain production exceeded average global levels.  
12 Despite some regional differences, synthetic fertilizers were the main source of GHG  
13 emissions from all farm inputs. Increased farm size can reduce nitrogen fertilizer use.  
14 The GHG emissions can be reduced by 203.59–279.90 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq, and profits would  
15 increase by 62.05–92.42 billion CNY in China, when all smallholders are managed in  
16 the same way as the top 25% or 10% of outstanding producers without applying higher  
17 nitrogen fertilizer application than the national recommendation. It is urgent and  
18 necessary for smallholders to change production practices to reduce their reliance on  
19 fertilizers to achieve climate goals.

20 **Keywords:** food system; greenhouse gas emissions; smallholder farmers; life cycle  
21 assessment; synthetic fertilizers

22

## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Reducing greenhouse gas emissions while ensuring food security is crucial for  
25 realizing the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In China, 1.4  
26 billion residents are fed by two hundred million farmers (Hou et al., 2021), who on  
27 average farm 0.5 hm<sup>2</sup> each (the global average is 2 hm<sup>2</sup>) (Eisenstein, 2020); as a result,  
28 food security in China mostly relies on the contribution of smallholder farmers.  
29 Currently, challenging global food markets and losses in yield and earnings due to  
30 climate change have caused increasing pressures on smallholder livelihoods (Ricciardi  
31 et al., 2021). Based on the Paris Agreement, the Chinese government has pledged to  
32 reach peak CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 2030 and achieve carbon neutrality by 2060 (Van Soest  
33 et al., 2021).

34 Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from the global food system account for  
35 approximately 30% of the total global GHG emissions, most of which come from  
36 agricultural input production, field applications, and livestock activities (Clark et al.,  
37 2020). Due to limited awareness and restricted access to technology, smallholder  
38 farmers heavily rely on chemical inputs, notably synthetic fertilizers and pesticides, to  
39 boost crop yields. Developed nations have recognized the environmental consequences  
40 of excessive fertilizer usage early on. Since the 1980s, the Water Framework Directive  
41 and Nitrates Directive had been introduced in Europe, limiting fertilizer use to 170  
42 kgN/hm<sup>2</sup> and providing economic incentives to encourage fertilizer reduction (Zhang  
43 et al., 2019). The United States relies on Best Management Practices to optimize  
44 fertilizer application in multiple ways. Conversely, China, with a nitrogen fertilizer

45 usage three times higher than the global average, faces a stark imbalance: its nitrogen  
46 fertilizer use efficiency is only half, exacerbating environmental issues and contributing  
47 to a higher global warming potential (GWP) (Cui et al., 2018). In the 2000s, China  
48 phased out incentive subsidies for fertilizer purchase and production. China has also  
49 begun to take a number of measures to promote the reduction of synthetic fertilizers,  
50 including the Zero Fertilizer Use Growth Plan, Soil Testing and Formulation, and  
51 Organic Fertilizer Substitution for Synthetic Fertilizer (Hou et al., 2023). Subsidy  
52 policies have shifted towards green production, emphasizing environmental protection  
53 (Ju et al., 2016). Achieving China's climate goals requires tight collaboration with  
54 smallholder farmers; understanding their production behavior and environmental  
55 performance helps to drive changes towards a more sustainable production mode by all  
56 stakeholders.

57 Conducting a comprehensive evaluation of food systems and their climatic  
58 impacts presents considerable challenges (Guo et al., 2022b). Although life cycle  
59 assessment (LCA) methods are widely embraced by scholars worldwide, the  
60 complexities involved in inventorying and parameterizing emissions have led to diverse  
61 approaches for quantifying GHG emissions across various sectors (Ou et al., 2021).  
62 Official statistical data have the advantage of authoritativeness and continuity; they are  
63 the primary data source for many studies focusing on GHG emissions from food  
64 systems (Cheng et al., 2011). National statistical yearbooks and published findings have  
65 been employed to analyze the spatial and temporal distribution patterns of GHGs in rice,  
66 wheat, and maize production (Xu and Lan, 2017) and to identify key influencing factors

67 (Chen et al., 2021). However, due to the challenges of obtaining emission parameters  
68 across diverse temporal and spatial dimensions, these results generally provide only  
69 large-level estimates. The assessment of direct emission intensity in field trials or  
70 monitoring endeavors has been utilized to gauge the environmental impact of  
71 agricultural production. GHG emissions from crop systems, exemplified by rice  
72 production in southern China (Lin et al., 2021) and wheat production in northwestern  
73 China (Kamran et al., 2023), have been assessed through static chamber and gas  
74 chromatography measurements in long-term experimental fields. This approach,  
75 constrained by economic costs and data collection difficulties, typically enables region-  
76 specific or technology-specific analyses. Recent research efforts have increasingly  
77 utilized rural farm surveys to assess GHG emissions, though the need for expanded  
78 sample sizes to achieve national representativeness remains evident (Yan et al., 2015).  
79 This study bridges the gap between the above three types of research, by integrating  
80 data from agricultural surveys of 1015 smallholders with a localized environmental  
81 impact parameter database derived from literature synthesis. Additionally, national  
82 statistics were employed to evaluate the potential for national GHG reduction. This  
83 comprehensive approach facilitates GHG assessments of the three main staple crops  
84 across China's major agricultural regions. This greatly reduced the uncertainty in GHG  
85 emission quantification.

86 To better analyze the impact factors other than agricultural inputs, more aspects  
87 such as climate factors, family characteristics, and socioeconomic characteristics were  
88 taken into consideration. A partial least squares structural equation model (PLS-SEM)

89 was used to construct and verify the paths of multiple influencing factors on farmers'  
90 fertilizer-use behavior and GHG emissions. Compared with the traditional covariance-  
91 based structural equation model (CB-SEM), it has higher statistical power (especially  
92 in dealing with multicollinearity) and intuitiveness (Wei et al., 2019), which can better  
93 explore and develop path models to verify causal relationships between variables  
94 (Huang et al., 2019).

95 In this study, LCA was carried out based on questionnaire data from smallholder  
96 farmer surveys in the main agricultural regions of China: (1) to precisely quantify the  
97 GHG emissions of each smallholder farming system, (2) to analyze the grain production  
98 behavior and GHG emissions of smallholder farmers among different staple crop types  
99 and regions, (3) comprehensively consider socioeconomic factors and use structural  
100 equations to explore the key factors and mechanisms that affect GHG emissions and  
101 production behavior, and (4) to explore the reduction potential of GHG emissions  
102 through optimized management based on scenario analysis.

103

## 104 **2. Materials and methods**

### 105 **2.1 Study area and data collection**

106 The smallholder survey data for this study are nationally representative and based  
107 on the China Rural Development Survey (CRDS). Trained investigators conducted  
108 face-to-face interviews with more than 1,015 farmers. Jilin, Hebei, Shaanxi, Sichuan  
109 and Jiangsu were randomly selected as representative provinces from the five major  
110 agricultural regions of China (northeast, southeast, southwest, northwest, and north



111 China) (Li et al., 2021). One hundred sampling villages were identified from fifty  
112 townships in twenty-five counties, and ten households were randomly selected from  
113 each village to generate sample households (Supplementary Information, Fig. A1). The  
114 survey included planting information for each crop on the farmland (i.e., synthetic  
115 fertilizers, farmyard manure, pesticides, irrigation water, agricultural mulch, etc. Finally,  
116 we collected information on 159 pesticides and 105 chemical fertilizers, and detailed  
117 information is provided as Supplementary Information (Table B1 and B2) (Xu et al.,  
118 2023).

## 119 **2.2 Greenhouse gas calculation based on LCA**

120 The Agri-LCA model was used to assess the GHG emissions from household-scale  
121 staple crop production in China. GHG refers to the three main GWP-100(IPCC, 2021)  
122 of CO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub>, the results expressed in CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents (CO<sub>2</sub>-eq), N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub>  
123 were calculated as the CO<sub>2</sub>-eq using a 100-year time horizon. It was established based  
124 on SimaPro 9.0 and included a localized database of environmental impact parameters  
125 based on peer-reviewed Chinese research. During the process of collecting  
126 environmental impact parameters, we not only considered the differences caused by  
127 crop types but also the differences in climate and environment between North and South  
128 China; more details are provided in the Supplementary Information (Table B3–B5).

129 The system boundary of this study started with agricultural input production and  
130 ended with crop harvest (Fig. A2). Therefore, GHG emissions derived from both  
131 upstream production and farming activities were included in the life cycle inventory.  
132 Downstream activities, including distribution, agro-processing, consumption, and

133 waste disposal, were excluded, and carbon sequestration in soil was also excluded  
 134 according to the PAS 2050 guidelines (Yan et al., 2015). Two functional units (FU) were  
 135 used: unit area (1 hm<sup>2</sup>) and unit yield (1 kg). The time unit is one year. The life cycle  
 136 inventory (LCI), a combination of all inputs and emissions from crop production, is  
 137 presented in Table B6. A brief description of the cultivation management of rice, maize  
 138 and wheat has been recorded as Table B7. Midpoint assessment results were performed  
 139 using the ReCiPe 2016 impact assessment methodology introduced in the SimaPro 9.0  
 140 database manual, and attribution LCA was used to identify GHG emissions. The GWP-  
 141 100 for N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> are 298 and 34 (He et al., 2023).

### 142 **2.3 Construction and Validation of PLS-SEM**

143 This study applies PLS-SEM for theoretical modelling. It consists of structural  
 144 equations that describe the relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent  
 145 variables, and measurement equations that describe the relationship between latent  
 146 variables and observed variables. The formulas of the measurement model and the  
 147 structural model are provided in equations (1) and (2), while more details (e.g., indicator  
 148 selection (Table B8), model quality assessment) are recorded in the Supplementary  
 149 Information.

$$150 \quad x_{ij} = \Lambda_{ij} \xi_i + \delta_{ij} \quad (1)$$

151 In Equation (1),  $x_{ij}$  represents the vector group composed of observed variables,  
 152  $\xi_i$  represents the vector group composed of latent variables,  $\Lambda_{ij}$  is the factor-loading  
 153 matrix of the observed variables on the latent variables representing the relationship

154 between the observed variables and the latent variables,  $\delta_{ij}$  represents the error term  
 155 for the observed variable  $x_{ij}$ .

$$156 \quad \xi_i = \sum_{i \neq j} \Gamma_{ij} \xi_j + \zeta_i \quad (2)$$

157 In Equation (2),  $\Gamma_{ij}$  represents the relationship between  $\xi_i$  and  $\xi_j$  and  $\zeta_i$  is the  
 158 residual term in the structural model and is not related to  $\xi_i (i \neq j)$ .

#### 159 **2.4 Analysis of total GHG emissions and total profits**

160 The economic benefit analysis of grain production is based on the output obtained  
 161 in the survey, with reference to the output value (Eq. A1) calculated by the Ministry of  
 162 Agriculture's guidelines (MOA, 2019) and the actual input (Eq. A2) in the survey. The  
 163 calculation method (Eq. 3) is as follows:

$$164 \quad \text{Profit} = \text{Product output value} - \text{Actual input} \quad (3)$$

165 This study used Equations (4) and (5) to estimate the annual total GHG emissions  
 166 and total profits of rice, wheat, and maize in China. The environmental and economic  
 167 indicators used in the calculations were area based.

$$168 \quad \text{Total GHG emissions} = EI_i \times A_i \quad (4)$$

$$169 \quad \text{Total profits} = P_i \times A_i \quad (5)$$

170 In Equations (4) and (5),  $EI_i$  (Eq. A3-A6) and  $P_i$  are the GHG emission and  
 171 profit factor per unit area ( $1 \text{ hm}^2$ ) of the  $i$ th crop,  $A_i$  is the planting area of the  $i$ th crop  
 172 in 2018 (Table B9), and the data comes from the National Bureau of Statistics (NBSC,  
 173 2022).

#### 174 **2.5 Scenario Analysis**

175 The pursuit of sustainable agriculture should consider both environmental

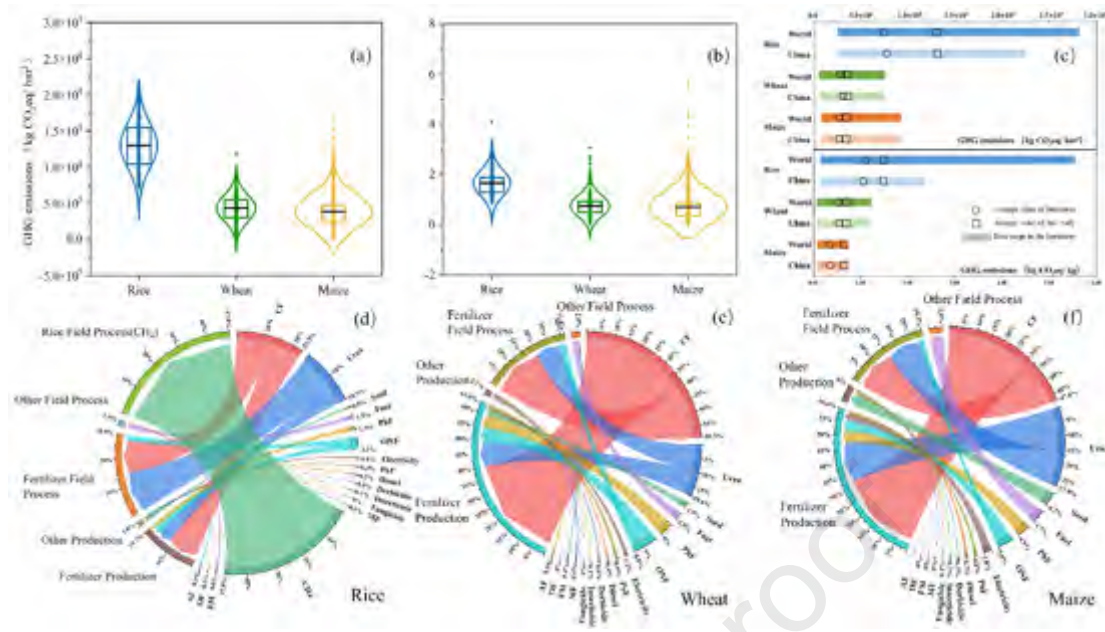
176 concerns and economic feasibility (Guo et al., 2022a). Changing farmer behaviour  
177 requires more than scientifically sound, evidence-based technologies (Cui et al., 2018).  
178 Knowledge diffusion hinges upon progressive farmers assuming leadership roles,  
179 guiding fellow villagers. Consequently, accomplished producers serve as exemplars,  
180 advocating optimal management practices in line with national fertilizer  
181 recommendations. In this study, we use greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and economic  
182 profits to represent environmental and economic performance. Surveyed producers  
183 achieving lower GHG emissions and superior economic profits were defined  
184 outstanding producers. In this study, we adopt GHG emissions and economic profits as  
185 representatives of environmental and economic performance, respectively and detailed  
186 information is provided as Supplementary Information. Accordingly, six scenarios (S)  
187 were proposed based on the situation in 2018. Specifically, S0 is the baseline scenario,  
188 representing the current average production level of smallholder farmers. S1 assumed  
189 that staple crop production achieved the management level of the top 25% of  
190 outstanding producers. S2 assumed that staple crop production achieved the  
191 management level of the top 10% of the outstanding producers. S3 assumed that staple  
192 crop production achieved the average recommended level of nitrogen fertilizer  
193 application proposed by the national agricultural sector (MOA, 2013). S4 and 5  
194 assumed integrated fertilizer reduction and optimized management (achieving both the  
195 management level of the top 25% or 10% of outstanding producers and the  
196 recommended fertilizer application level).

197

### 198 3. Results and Discussions

#### 199 3.1 Input, output and GHG emissions of the grain production

200 According to the survey, the grain production area cultivated by smallholder  
201 farmers was relatively small. The average planting areas of rice, wheat, and maize were  
202  $0.33\pm 0.56$ ,  $0.55\pm 0.82$ , and  $0.67\pm 1.08$   $\text{hm}^2$ , respectively (Table 1), which was far less  
203 than the global average ( $2 \text{ hm}^2$ ). Meanwhile, farmlands showed high fragmentation,  
204 exceeding  $9.67$  plots/ $\text{hm}^2$ . The yield was maintained at  $8033.66\pm 1678.98$   $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$ ,  
205  $6071.34\pm 1297.00$   $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$ , and  $6644.79\pm 2608.12$   $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$  for rice, wheat, and maize,  
206 respectively. The average input amount of synthetic fertilizers exceeded  $250.90\pm 195.35$   
207  $\text{kgN}/\text{hm}^2$ , which was 31.58% higher than the amount ( $190 \text{ kgN}/\text{hm}^2$ ) recommended by  
208 the Chinese Ministry of Agriculture, and the use of pesticides exceeded  $1.34\pm 1.51$   
209 scalar  $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$ . The average irrigation water consumption exceeded  $274.35\pm 689.91$   
210  $\text{m}^3/\text{hm}^2$  and the highest was for wheat ( $774.74\pm 1213.47$   $\text{m}^3/\text{hm}^2$ ). Mechanization was  
211 measured by oil use, with an average of more than  $27.82\pm 33.09$  fuel  $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$  and the  
212 highest used was for wheat:  $58.94\pm 26.28$   $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$ . The average input of agricultural  
213 films was exceeded for maize and rice at  $6.32$   $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$  and  $12.01$   $\text{kg}/\text{hm}^2$ , respectively.  
214 Whereas, almost no agricultural film was used in wheat production. The profit of rice  
215 was  $2017.69\pm 1100.89$   $\text{CNY}/\text{hm}^2$  and  $0.25\pm 0.16$   $\text{CNY}/\text{kg}$ , the profit of wheat was  
216  $987.99\pm 834.90$   $\text{CNY}/\text{hm}^2$  and  $0.15\pm 0.13$   $\text{CNY}/\text{kg}$ , and the profit of maize was  
217  $1126.94\pm 1081.78$   $\text{CNY}/\text{hm}^2$  and  $0.15\pm 0.20$   $\text{CNY}/\text{kg}$ .



218

219 **Fig.1. Basic overview of major staple grain production.** (a) GHG emissions per unit  
 220 area of different staple grains; (b) GHG emissions per unit yield of different staple  
 221 grains; (c) Comparison of GHG emissions between national and global level; (d)  
 222 Production process decomposition of rice GHG emissions; (e) Production process  
 223 decomposition of wheat GHG emissions; (f) Production process decomposition of  
 224 maize GHG emissions.

**Table 1 Production overview and agricultural inputs of major staple grain production**

	Rice (n=266)		Wheat (n=271)		Maize (n=539)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Planting area (hm <sup>2</sup> )	0.33	0.56	0.55	0.82	0.67	1.08
Yield (kg/hm <sup>2</sup> )	8033.66	1678.98	6071.35	1297	6644.79	2608.12
Fragmentation <sup>[1]</sup>	17.19	16.29	9.67	8.29	17.27	26.26
The usage of synthetic fertilizer (kg N/hm <sup>2</sup> )	324.56	199.1	292.54	150.83	250.9	195.35
The usage of farmyard manure (kg N/hm <sup>2</sup> )	28.32	97.27	3.61	11.38	63.32	203.81
Irrigation water (m <sup>3</sup> /hm <sup>2</sup> )	342.29	659.35	774.74	1213.47	274.35	689.91
Use of machinery (fuel kg/hm <sup>2</sup> )	47.14	47.67	58.94	26.28	27.82	33.09

Agricultural film (kg/hm <sup>2</sup> )	12.01	27.83	0	0	6.32	18.94
Pesticide (scalar kg/hm <sup>2</sup> )	1.63	1.88	1.34	1.51	1.92	2.94

<sup>[1]</sup> Fragmentation: Fragmentation =  $N_i/A_i$ ,  $N_i$  is the number of land plots, and  $A_i$  is the total planting area.

225

226 From the perspective of planting area (Fig. 1a), the GHG emissions of rice, wheat  
 227 and maize are  $12989.80 \pm 3131.56$  kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>,  $4327.23 \pm 1836.24$  kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>,  
 228  $3864.26 \pm 2335.71$  kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, and the yield based GHG emissions were  $1.67 \pm 0.51$   
 229 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg,  $0.76 \pm 0.42$  kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg, and  $0.71 \pm 0.64$  kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg, respectively (Fig.  
 230 1b). The GHG emissions after decomposition in the production process of rice were,  
 231 the farming process made up 78.66%, of which 47.82% was field methane emission,  
 232 followed by the N<sub>2</sub>O emission of urea (14.86%), and the farming process of other inputs  
 233 accounted for 0.05–11.92%. The proportion of agricultural input production (i.e.,  
 234 fertilizers, pesticides, agricultural film, etc.) ranged from 0.02% to 11.35% (Fig. 1d).  
 235 Emissions for rice according to agricultural inputs are as follows: the highest  
 236 contribution coming from synthetic fertilizers (48.58%), including compound fertilizers  
 237 (CF), urea, etc., followed by field methane emissions (47.82%). Other agricultural  
 238 materials account for 0.02–0.50%, and energy input accounted for 1.91%. The upstream  
 239 production process of agricultural inputs accounted for 62.36% and 65.60% of the GHG  
 240 emissions in wheat and maize production, respectively. The largest contributor to GHG  
 241 emissions in wheat production was CF (32.43%), followed by the field emission of urea  
 242 (15.21%) (Fig. 1e). The agricultural input was made up of CF (47.58%), followed by  
 243 urea (27.94%), other fertilizers (0.04–4.50%), other agricultural materials (0.48–  
 244 4.73%), and energy input (8.32%). The highest contribution to the GHG emissions of  
 245 maize production was CF (39.99%), followed by field emissions of CF (19.30%).

246 Production processes of other agricultural inputs accounted for 0.02–12.74% of GHG  
247 emissions, and other farming activities accounted for 0.01–15.15% of GHG emissions  
248 (Fig. 1f). The agricultural input accounted for CF (59.29%), followed by urea (18.35%),  
249 other fertilizers (0.83–8.54%), other agricultural materials (0.48–4.73%), and energy  
250 input (4.04%). Synthetic fertilizers, represented by CF and urea, are the most important  
251 contributors to crop GHG emissions, more than 54.06% of the total. The GHG emission  
252 contribution of each production process showed similar results when calculated per unit  
253 area and unit output.

254 The GHG emissions reported in the literature are shown in Fig. 1c, and the details  
255 are listed in Table B10. The average intensity of global GHG emissions from the three  
256 crops reported in other studies were 7862 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and 1.23 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg (rice),  
257 2611 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and 0.55 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg (wheat), 2402 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and 0.34  
258 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg (maize). The average intensity of national GHG emissions from the three  
259 crops were 7068 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and 1.05 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg (rice), 3006 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and  
260 0.51 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg (wheat), 2486 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and 0.37 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg (maize). It is  
261 noteworthy that GHG emissions at the smallholder farmer level in this study exceeded  
262 both global and China's average emission levels, with disparities of 35.81%-83.78%.  
263 The emission intensity for wheat closely resembled that reported by Yan et al. (2015)  
264 from a similar smallholder survey conducted in this study. However, both rice and  
265 maize exhibited significantly higher emission intensities, measuring 116.50% and  
266 68.01% higher, respectively. This divergence may also be attributed to the use of  
267 nitrogen fertilizer, as the fertilizer application reported in this study was close to theirs



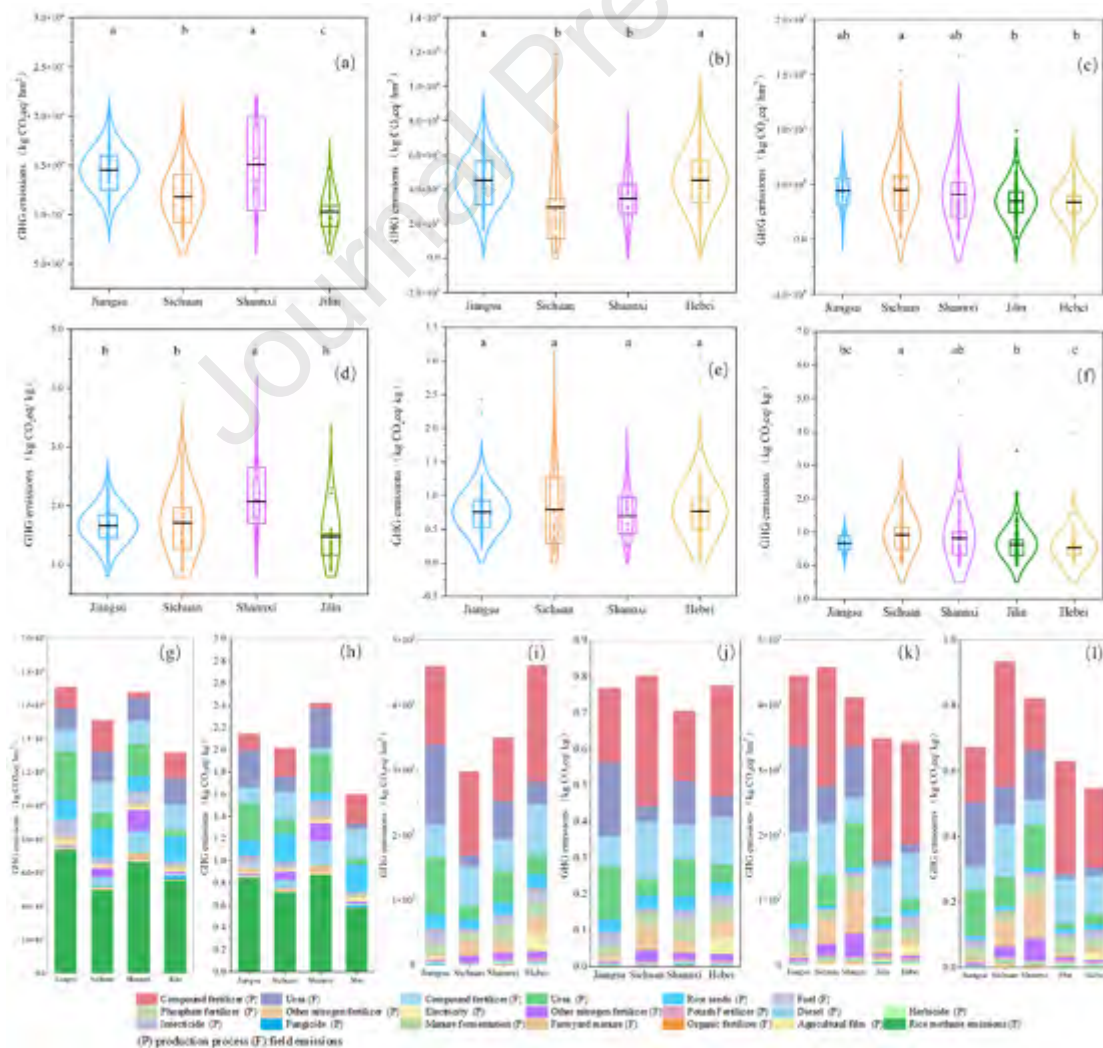
268 for wheat, but 20.65% and 50.46% higher for rice and maize. Given that nitrogen  
269 fertilizer accounts for more than 50% of GHG emissions, the excessive use of nitrogen  
270 fertilizer by smallholder farmers contributes to the elevated emission intensities  
271 observed. This underscores the importance of implementing measures to mitigate  
272 emissions.

### 273 **3.2 Staple grain production and GHG emissions vary among different regions**

274 More than 75.76% of China's smallholder farmers' rice planting area is less than  
275 0.3 hm<sup>2</sup>, and fragmentation exceeds 7.71 plots/hm<sup>2</sup>. Jiangsu and Jilin had the largest  
276 average smallholder rice planting area, both exceeding 0.42 hm<sup>2</sup>, while that in Sichuan  
277 and Shaanxi was less than 0.15 hm<sup>2</sup>; but the degree of fragmentation was the highest in  
278 Sichuan (25.88 plots/hm<sup>2</sup>). The yield varied from 700 to 16,000 kg/hm<sup>2</sup>, with an  
279 average of more than 8,848.73 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in Jiangsu, followed by Sichuan and Jilin. In  
280 terms of synthetic fertilizer input, the highest amount was used in Jiangsu (390.46 kg  
281 N/hm<sup>2</sup>), while the lowest amount used was in Jilin (187.95 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>), but the level of  
282 farmyard manure usage was the highest in Sichuan (49.06 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>) and Shaanxi  
283 (147.95 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>). Irrigation and agricultural machinery use are also the highest in  
284 Jiangsu (725.35 m<sup>3</sup> / hm<sup>2</sup> and 75.64 kg fuel /hm<sup>2</sup>), while agricultural film (5.47 kg /  
285 hm<sup>2</sup>) and pesticide (1.23 scalar kg / hm<sup>2</sup>) use are lower (Table A1).

286 The GHG emission of rice production in Shannxi Province was the highest, with  
287 an average of 15047.12±4792.37 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, followed by Jiangsu and Sichuan,  
288 whereas Jilin had the lowest GHG emission (10293.86±2301.87 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>), which  
289 accounts for only 68.41% of that in Shannxi (Fig. 2a). Comparing the GHG emissions

290 of the production process in Shannxi and Jilin, the urea (production and field process)  
 291 emissions were different almost by a factor of five (1904.54 and 527.7 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>),  
 292 other nitrogen fertilizer (field process) emissions were different almost by a factor of  
 293 fifteen (1265.63 and 82.96 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>), and the difference in their usage of synthetic  
 294 fertilizers almost determined their GHG emissions (Fig. 2d). In terms of unit yield,  
 295 Shannxi reached 2.07±0.67 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq /kg, while other provinces were 1.48–1.71  
 296 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq /kg (Fig. 2g). The emission of other nitrogen fertilizers except for CF and urea  
 297 in Shaanxi was almost double that of other provinces, up to 0.37 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq /kg, resulting  
 298 in its overall high GHG emission (Fig. 2h).



299

300 **Fig. 2. GHG emissions from staple grain production and the contribution of each**  
 301 **production process.** (a) GHG emissions per unit area of rice; (b) GHG emissions per  
 302 unit area of wheat; (c) GHG emissions per unit area of maize; (d) GHG emissions per  
 303 unit yield of rice; (e) GHG emissions per unit yield of wheat; (f) GHG emissions per  
 304 unit yield of maize; (g) Production process decomposition of GHG emissions per unit  
 305 area of rice; (h) Production process decomposition of GHG emissions per unit yield of  
 306 rice; (i) Production process decomposition of GHG emissions per unit area of wheat;  
 307 (j) Production process decomposition of GHG emissions per unit yield of wheat; (k)  
 308 Production process decomposition of GHG emissions per unit area of maize; (l)  
 309 Production process decomposition of GHG emissions per unit yield of maize.

310 The wheat planting area in different regions varies mostly between 0.1 and 0.5  
 311  $\text{hm}^2$ , with the largest average area in Hebei ( $0.63 \text{ hm}^2$ ), and only  $0.22 \text{ hm}^2$  in Sichuan,  
 312 but the degree of fragmentation was the highest ( $21.37 \text{ plots/hm}^2$ ) in Sichuan. The  
 313 yields ranged from 2,250 to  $12,000 \text{ kg/hm}^2$ , with the highest yields in Jiangsu and Hebei,  
 314 with an average of over  $6200 \text{ kg/hm}^2$ , followed by Sichuan and Shaanxi. Jiangsu also  
 315 had the highest input of synthetic fertilizers, exceeding  $361.51 \text{ kgN/hm}^2$ , followed by  
 316 Hebei ( $255.42 \text{ kgN/hm}^2$ ), and Sichuan was only  $176.12 \text{ kgN/hm}^2$ , but Sichuan had more  
 317 than  $2.99 \text{ scalar kg/hm}^2$  of pesticide application. A few growers in Sichuan and Shaanxi  
 318 chose additional irrigation, but the irrigation in Hebei exceeds  $1685.28 \text{ m}^3/\text{hm}^2$ . None  
 319 of the surveyed farmers had used agricultural films (Table A2).

320 Wheat production in Jiangsu and Hebei had the highest GHG emissions, with an  
 321 average of more than  $4,528.60 \text{ kgCO}_2\text{eq/hm}^2$ , while those in Shaanxi and Sichuan have

322 an average of less than 3,457.05 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> (Fig 2b). The emission caused by urea  
323 in Jiangsu Province was the highest, with an average of 2101.63 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, and that  
324 in Sichuan was only 360.88 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, while the compound fertilizer emission in  
325 Hebei exceeded 2,568.66 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, and the electricity emission is also much  
326 higher than other provinces (269.84 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>) (Fig 2i). In terms of unit yield, the  
327 differences in GHG emissions in different regions were also not significant, with an  
328 average of 0.70–0.77 kg CO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg (Fig 2e), but the emissions of various production  
329 processes were not consistent. Jiangsu, Shaanxi, and Hebei have the highest urea  
330 emissions, with an average of more than 0.29 kg CO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg, while Sichuan has the  
331 highest emissions from compound fertilizer production, with an average of 0.52 kg  
332 CO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg, which is related to the lower wheat yield in Sichuan (5589.29 kg/hm<sup>2</sup>) than  
333 in other provinces (average 6071.35 kg/hm<sup>2</sup>) (Fig 2j).

334 More than 50% of China's smallholder farmers' maize planting area is less than  
335 0.2 hm<sup>2</sup>, Jilin Province has the largest average area (1.61 hm<sup>2</sup>), while Sichuan has only  
336 0.14 hm<sup>2</sup>, but its fragmentation degree is the highest (38.50 plots/hm<sup>2</sup>). Yields range  
337 from 750 to 15,000 kg/hm<sup>2</sup>, with the highest yield in Hebei, with an average of over  
338 7,273.39 kg/hm<sup>2</sup>, followed by Jiangsu and Jilin. The input amount of synthetic  
339 fertilizers in Jiangsu was also the highest, exceeding 375.71 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>, and the lowest  
340 was Jilin (191.53 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>) and Hebei (184.53 kgN/hm<sup>2</sup>), but the pesticide's usage in  
341 Jilin exceeds 3.69 scalar kg/hm<sup>2</sup>. The degree of mechanization was highest in Jiangsu  
342 and Hebei, exceeding 50.29 fuel kg/hm<sup>2</sup>. Growers in Sichuan and Shaanxi rarely choose

343 to irrigate, but those in Hebei irrigate more than 974.00 m<sup>3</sup>/hm<sup>2</sup>. The maximum amounts  
344 of agricultural film used in Sichuan and Hebei exceeded 6.88 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> (Table A3).

345 The GHG emissions of maize production in Sichuan were the highest, with an  
346 average of more than 4,549.40 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, while the maize emissions in Jilin and  
347 Hebei were lower than 3467.98 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> on average (Fig 2c). Urea production in  
348 Jiangsu province has the highest emissions with an average of 2,253.84 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>,  
349 Sichuan is 1,028.23 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, and CF production in Sichuan emits more than  
350 2,636.03 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>. Although the CF in Jilin and Hebei exceed 2,667.32  
351 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, urea did not exceed 306.96 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>(Fig 2k). In terms of unit yield  
352 (Fig 2f), Sichuan also has the highest carbon emissions, with an average of 0.92  
353 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg, and the lowest in Hebei, with an average of 0.54 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg. The  
354 difference between the two in farming process emissions and the synthetic fertilizer  
355 production process was more than double (Fig. 2l).

### 356 **3.3 Difference in GHG emissions between farmers with different fertilization** 357 **habits**

358 Smallholder farmers were divided into those who use only synthetic fertilizers (OF)  
359 and those who use farmyard manure (M). The grain planting area of M farmers is  
360 generally smaller than that of OF farmers, which is reflected in the fact that the area  
361 planted with maize is significantly lower by 66.05% (0.27 hm<sup>2</sup> in M and 0.81 hm<sup>2</sup> in  
362 OF), while the degree of fragmentation of wheat and maize production is 34.36% and  
363 69.35% higher, respectively. The amount of synthetic fertilizer applied by M farmers  
364 was higher than that of OF farmers, among which the amount of wheat production was  
365 18.13% higher (330.91 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in M and 280.13 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in OF) and the amount of maize

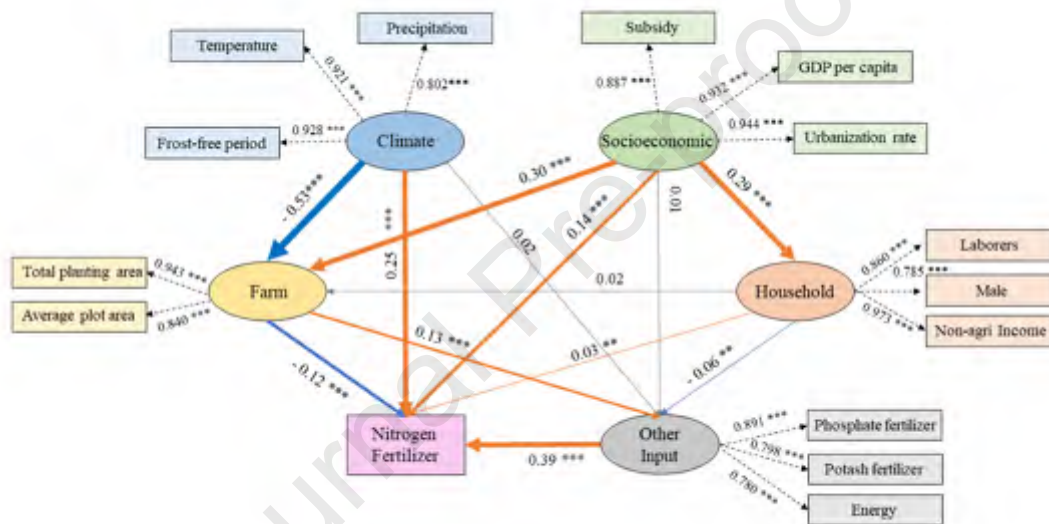
366 production was 30.78% higher (303.91 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in M and 232.38 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in OF). The use  
367 of wheat production machinery was 12.05% lower (53.41 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in M and 60.73  
368 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in OF) and maize production was 45.37% lower (17.23 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in M and 31.54  
369 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> in OF). The difference in agricultural inputs did not cause a difference in output,  
370 and the yield of the major staple grains of two types of farmers was almost the same  
371 (Table A4).

372 In rice production, the GHG emissions (14339.15 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and 1.79  
373 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg) of M farmers are more than 10% higher than those of OF farmers  
374 (12365.83 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> and 1.61 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg), and the difference in emissions was  
375 caused by the large increase in manure and straw emissions (487.17 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>)  
376 under the condition of rice flooding and anaerobic conditions, the urea emission is  
377 493.65 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> higher, and there is no significant difference in other processes.  
378 The GHG emissions per unit area of maize production were more than 23.06% higher  
379 for M farmers (4288.00 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>) than for OF farmers (3484.41 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>).  
380 Compound fertilizer and urea contributed to almost all the increase, and the difference  
381 in the application of synthetic fertilizers caused an increase in GHG emissions (Fig A3).

### 382 **3.4 The factors and pathways affecting the production behavior**

383 The results of the LCA assessment showed that the production and field  
384 application of synthetic fertilizers are the most important factors affecting GHG  
385 emissions from crops. The structural model was used to explore the effects of various  
386 factors on nitrogen fertilizer use in crop production (Fig. 3). The validation results of  
387 the model showed that all model evaluation indices, including Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , Composite

388 reliability (CR), and the extracted average variance (AVE), were within the standard  
 389 range, indicating that the measurement model was valid and reliable (Table A5).  $R^2$  and  
 390  $Q^2$  of nitrogen fertilizer use and farm variables were greater than 0.25, 0.22 and greater  
 391 than 0.24, and 0.16, respectively. The model had a GOF value of 0.42, indicating a  
 392 moderate explanatory and predictive ability of the model for nitrogen use and farm  
 393 variables.



394  
 395 **Fig. 3. The PLS-SEM pathway for the impact mechanism of smallholder**  
 396 **production behavior.** (Significance level \*0.01, \*\*0.005, \*\*\*0.001)

397  
 398 The effect of climate on farm size (both total acreage and area per plot) was  
 399 stronger (-0.53) than socioeconomic factors (0.30). This is because that flat land is  
 400 better for increasing farm size, and northern China (such as Jilin and Hebei provinces)  
 401 has more plains than southern China. (Liu et al., 2021). Influenced by the monsoon  
 402 climate, China's average temperature gradually decreases from south to north, and  
 403 precipitation gradually decreases from east to west, thus also affecting China's



404 agricultural zoning (Pan et al., 2023). The south is dominated by hills (such as Sichuan  
405 and Jiangsu provinces), where the population is dense and the cultivated land is highly  
406 fragmented. Socioeconomic factors (including subsidy factors, economic development  
407 level, etc.) have played a positive role in promoting farm scale. A developed economy  
408 can promote land transfer and improve the level of intensive farm management (such  
409 as Jiangsu province) (Han et al., 2021). The influence of farm household factors was  
410 not obvious.

411 Climatic factors, household, other inputs, and socioeconomic factors had positive  
412 effects on nitrogen fertilizer application, while farm size factors had negative effects.  
413 The direct effect of climate on nitrogen fertilizer use accounted for 76.85%. The climate  
414 in most parts of China is characterized by simultaneous heat and precipitation. Higher  
415 precipitation and temperature will intensify soil processes and leaching, resulting in  
416 lower fertilizer use efficiency, and farmers tend to rely on applying more fertilizer to  
417 maintain high soil fertility in the plow layer and high yield (Bai et al., 2019a), which is  
418 more obvious in the Jiangsu province. The frost-free period is affected by water, heat,  
419 and altitude; therefore, the higher the altitude, the more unfavorable farmland  
420 conditions are and require more fertilizer. However, the effect of natural factors on  
421 fertilizer-use behavior is complex, and it affects the yield more indirectly. The effect of  
422 climate on other inputs was not significant. Farm factors were negatively correlated  
423 with nitrogen application, and numerous studies have obtained similar conclusions  
424 (Ren et al., 2021). Households with larger land areas were more dependent on  
425 agricultural income, driving them to adopt advanced nutrient management techniques



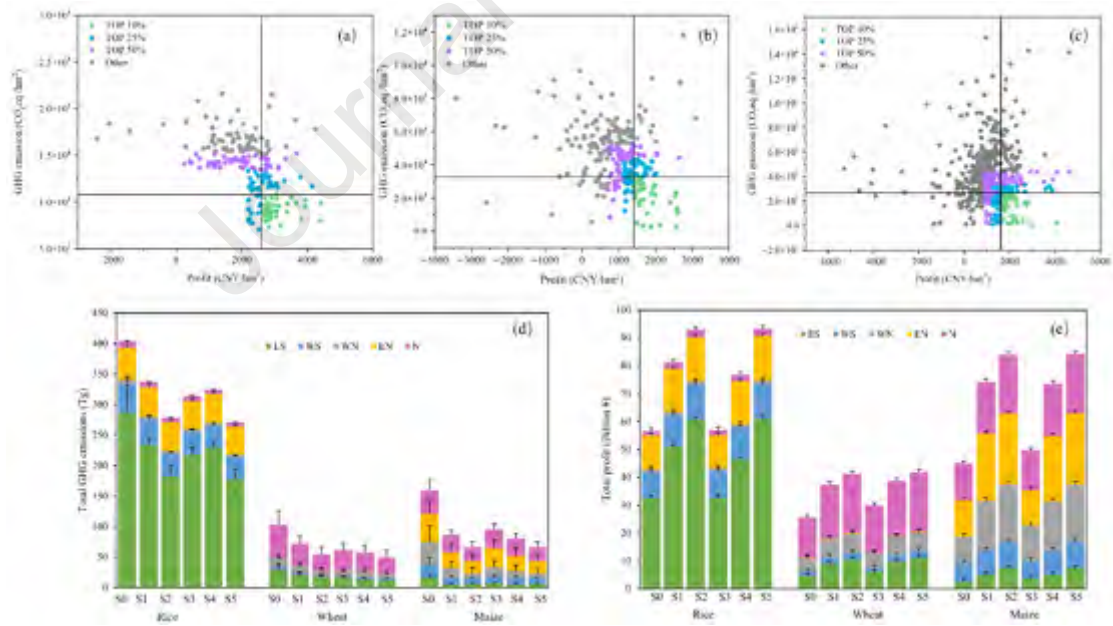
426 that are also conducive to a higher degree of mechanization (Hu et al., 2019). Therefore,  
427 the increase in the scale of farmland will correspondingly increase the input of  
428 phosphorus fertilizer, potash fertilizer and energy including diesel. On the contrary,  
429 farmers with fewer fields often need other sources of income; therefore, they only tend  
430 to consider simple agricultural inputs, especially nitrogen fertilizers.

431 Household characteristics also reflected farmers' consideration of fertilizer use,  
432 but the overall effect was weak (0.005), and the direct effect only accounted for 52.80%.  
433 The larger the farming labor force, the higher the proportion of males, indicating that  
434 farmers focus on agricultural output, and thus have a higher pursuit of yield. They often  
435 choose to increase nitrogen fertilizer input (Zhang et al., 2017). The higher the non-  
436 agricultural income, the lower its dependence on agriculture, the more reasonable  
437 agricultural material input will be considered to obtain the best profit. This has also  
438 been verified in other farmer household surveys (Ren et al., 2021), which proved that  
439 low ratios of fixed inputs (i.e., machinery and knowledge) to total inputs are a key factor  
440 leading to over-use of fertilizers by smallholder farmers. In terms of socioeconomic  
441 factors, a large part of China's current subsidies was used for agricultural inputs and  
442 other expenses of grain production, which means that subsidies increase scale rather  
443 than efficiency (Han et al., 2021). In most regions (such as Shaanxi, Hebei province),  
444 synthetic fertilizers and their GHG emissions have not been decoupled from economic  
445 development. However, studies also showed that decoupling has been achieved in the  
446 developed regions of eastern China (such as Jiangsu province); that is, economic

447 development will have a negative effect on agricultural inputs such as synthetic  
 448 fertilizers, and it will achieve efficiency improvements (Han et al., 2021).

### 449 3.5 Potential of agriculture GHG reductions in China

450 Among the surveyed smallholder farmers, we screened out the outstanding  
 451 farmers, who have reduced the input of synthetic fertilizers (especially nitrogen  
 452 fertilizers) and consider environmental and economic benefits as the future  
 453 development directions, as representatives. The classification of producers for different  
 454 crop production is shown in Fig. 4a–c, and detailed production information for different  
 455 scenarios is presented in Table A6. One thing these farmers have in common is that they  
 456 use less nitrogen fertilizer (38.87%–66.54% less than the average), which also means  
 457 lower nitrogen fertilizer use, and production still is sustainable.



458

459 **Fig. 4. Outstanding farmer's selection and scenario analysis of the three major**

460 **staple grains.** (a) Outstanding farmer's selection of rice; (b) Outstanding farmer's

461 selection of wheat; (c) Outstanding farmer's selection of maize; (d) Total GHG

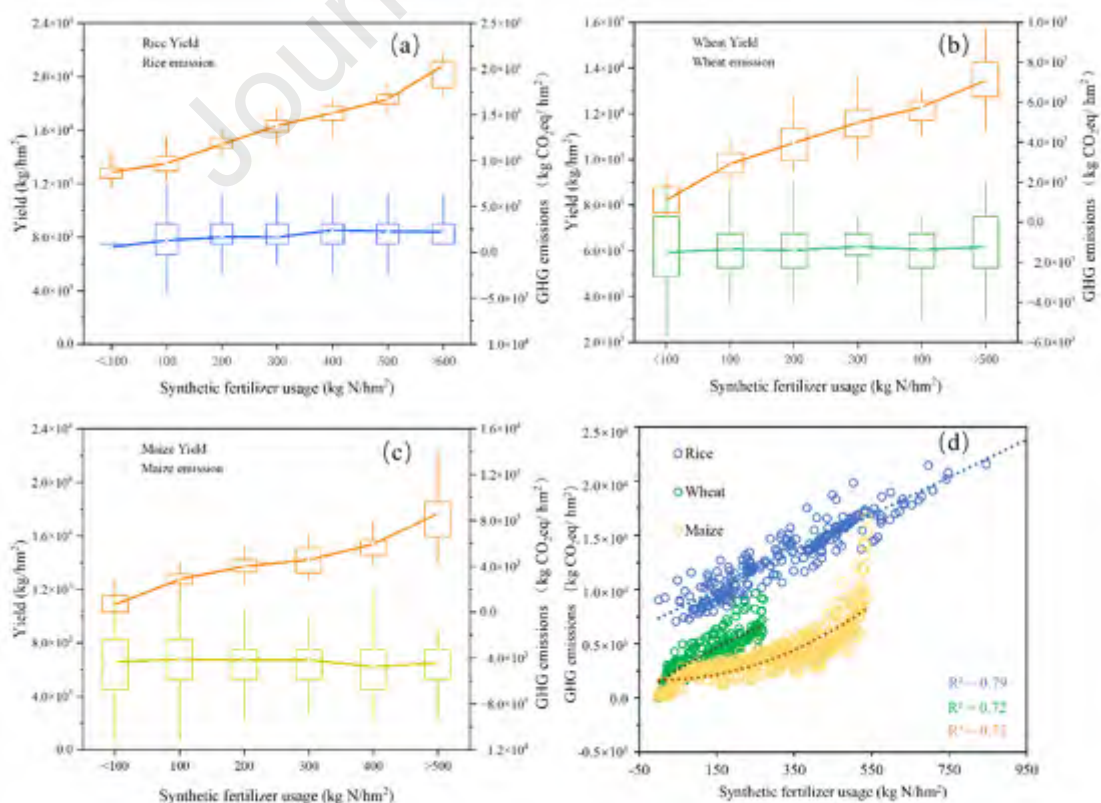
462 emissions under different scenarios; (e) Total profits under different scenarios. Note:  
463 ES (South East China), WS (South West China), WN (North West China), EN (North  
464 East China), N (North China)

465  
466 In 2018, China's agricultural GHG and crop production emissions were  
467 approximately 8,700 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq, and 1,538.20 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq, respectively (Chen et al., 2021).  
468 According to the estimation of the present study, the emission of the three major staple  
469 grains is 667.64 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq (S0), accounting for about 7.67% of the emission of the  
470 agricultural system, which cannot be ignored, and has a large space for emission  
471 reduction and profit improvement (Fig. 4 d, e). When farmland management reaches  
472 the level of outstanding farmers (S1, S2), the annual GHG emissions of staple grain  
473 production can be reduced by 171.75–266.84 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq, a reduction of 29.30–45.52%,  
474 and farmers' income can be increased by 65.89–91.06 billion CNY. After realizing the  
475 reduction of nitrogen fertilizer (S3), the GHG emissions can be reduced by 196.36 Tg  
476 CO<sub>2</sub>eq, and the profit will increase by 7.36%. After realizing comprehensive production  
477 optimization (S4, S5), GHG emissions can be reduced by 203.59–279.90 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq,  
478 with a maximum reduction ratio of 47.75%; profits can be increased by 62.05–92.42  
479 billion, with a maximum increase rate of 72.73%. In the optimal scenario, it can reduce  
480 GHG emissions by 279.90 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq and increase profits by 92.42 billion CNY. The  
481 potential for sustainable production is well established, and the agricultural practices of  
482 reducing nitrogen fertilizer should be widely promoted.

483 Hence, the recommendation for reducing fertilizer usage in this study aligns with  
484 the national guidelines, which advocate a reduction by 32.05% from the current levels,

485 aiming to attain a target of 190 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>. Ideally, a more substantial reduction of 67.45%  
 486 from the current levels, aiming for 94.19 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>, is desirable (S5). The national  
 487 recommendation serves as the authoritative benchmark and has been endorsed in  
 488 numerous analogous studies. For instance, Zhang et al. (2016a) proposed a reduction  
 489 of 37.4% in N fertilization in accordance with the national recommendation.  
 490 Furthermore, drawing from the nitrogen use efficiency (NUE) response equation,  
 491 Huang and Tang (2016) recommended that achieving an NUE of 50% (equivalent to  
 492 120-150 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>) would result in a significant reduction in GHG emissions from crop  
 493 production. Additionally, national-level relationships between yield, protein content,  
 494 and nutrient efficiency have been established to elucidate the specific nitrogen fertilizer  
 495 requirements for different crops, as demonstrated by Hou et al. (2023).

### 496 3.6 How can synthetic fertilizer reductions be achieved?



497

498 **Fig. 5. The comparison between synthetic fertilizer application and yield and GHG**  
499 **emissions of the three major staple grains. (a)** The comparison between synthetic  
500 fertilizer application and yield and GHG emissions of rice; (b) The comparison between  
501 synthetic fertilizer application and yield and GHG emissions of wheat; (c) The  
502 comparison between synthetic fertilizer application and yield and GHG emissions of  
503 maize; (d) The comparison between synthetic fertilizer application and GHG emissions  
504 of the three major staple grains.

505 We must be aware that factors that have a positive impact on the intensity of  
506 nitrogen fertilizer use will hinder the reduction of synthetic fertilizers, and measures  
507 must be taken to reduce the persistence of smallholder farmers in the use of synthetic  
508 fertilizers. The results of this study (Fig. 5) and other studies have revealed that once  
509 crop demand thresholds are reached, GHG emissions increase exponentially with little  
510 or no additional yield gain as fertilizer-use increases (Wu et al., 2021). Proper nutrient  
511 management of crops is a priority for reducing GHG emissions. Replacing synthetic  
512 nitrogen fertilizers with livestock manure offers several advantages, encompassing  
513 enhanced crop productivity, reduced GHG emissions (Xia et al., 2017), and amplified  
514 soil biodiversity (Du et al., 2020). It was observed that substituting a portion of  
515 synthetic fertilizers with manure led to a noteworthy 6.6% and 3.3% boost in yield for  
516 dryland crops and paddy rice, respectively (Zhang et al., 2020b). This substitution  
517 exhibited no discernible influence on N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from dryland crops.  
518 However, it was associated with heightened CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from rice, ranging from 48%  
519 to 82%. Considering a scenario where manure replaces 50% of synthetic fertilizers,

520 equivalent to 95-125 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>, a substantial 15 Tg of manure would be necessitated  
521 for the national cropland. This quantity is roughly equivalent to the present national  
522 livestock excretion (Zhang et al., 2019). It is noteworthy that livestock production  
523 currently occupies an extensive 84 million hectares (Mhm<sup>2</sup>) of cropland, inclusive of  
524 imported feed, constituting a substantial 51% of the total national cropland area (Fang  
525 et al., 2023). Consequently, the integration of crop and livestock production assumes  
526 particular significance.

527 The slow- and control-release N fertilizers need to be developed to enhance N use  
528 efficiency. The addition of controlled-release urea (mixed 1:1 with conventional urea)  
529 reduced GHG by 8-13% without affecting yields (Yao et al., 2021). Additionally, the  
530 use of biochar-fertilizer blends exhibits the potential to reduce greenhouse gas  
531 emissions by over 20% in wheat-maize systems (Bai et al., 2023). Precision  
532 management of crop practices, soil conditions, fertilizer application, and irrigation can  
533 curtail nitrogen fertilizer inputs and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. In paddy fields, deeper nitrogen  
534 fertilizer placement and no-tillage practices led to a 36-39% reduction in soil CH<sub>4</sub>  
535 emissions and a 29-31% decrease in N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (Liu et al., 2020). Optimizing  
536 irrigation and fertilization, such as mid-season flooding with 180 kgN/hm<sup>2</sup>, can lower  
537 greenhouse gas emissions by 12.3% (Liang et al., 2023). Mechanized farm management  
538 improvements (Ren et al., 2021) also enhance nitrogen fertilizer efficiency. These  
539 strategies collectively offer promise for enhancing nitrogen utilization efficiency while  
540 mitigating GHG emissions in agriculture.

541 The Chinese government has taken a series of actions to promote sustainable  
542 agriculture, such as the coupling of crop and livestock production, soil testing, and  
543 formulas for precise fertilization. Technological innovation requires strong policy and

544 economic incentives. Converting subsidies for agricultural materials into subsidies and  
545 cost-sharing programs that help farmers use advanced technologies and tools may  
546 increase their confidence (Stuart et al., 2014). Some surveys have argued that informal  
547 facilitators (i.e., farmers' relatives and acquaintances) are more influential than formal  
548 facilitators (i.e., governments and businesses) (Qi et al., 2021). In recent years, the  
549 government has partnered with universities to establish research bases in villages to  
550 facilitate on-site assistance, a unique form of support provided by the “Science and  
551 Technology Backyard” (Zhang et al., 2020a). Making smallholder farmers aware of the  
552 economic and environmental benefits brought about by technological progress and  
553 improving environmental awareness requires policy making and implementation and  
554 technical innovation and transfer by the government, scientific institutions, and  
555 enterprises (Zhang et al., 2016b). More important is the "bottom-up" transformation of  
556 farmers' groups into an agricultural system with high productivity and resource  
557 utilization efficiency (Shen et al., 2013). Although this requires constant adjustment and  
558 advancement, it is the only way to achieve sustainable food production.

559

### 560 **3.7 Uncertainty and limitation**

561 The results of the sensitivity analysis are shown in Table A7, which shows the  
562 impact of the coefficient changes of the input factors on the results. For 12 possible  
563 input parameters, such as methane in rice production, when it varies by  $\pm 10\%$ , the result  
564 does not vary by more than 5%, which means that the robustness is very good. Monte  
565 Carlo simulations are widely used to assess the uncertainty of LCA (Ewertowska et al.,



2017). The sample size of the Monte Carlo simulation in this study is 5000. The average value of the simulation results is 12989.80 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, 4327.23 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, 3864.26 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> (rice, wheat, maize), and the confidence interval is 95% (11933.63-14093.63 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, 4189.48-4459.07 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>, 3741.54-3993.78 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup>) (Fig. A4). The coefficient of variation (4.9%, 1.59%, 1.67%) is less than 5%, and the uncertainty of the calculated results is very low.

This study adopted the principle of stratified random sampling to reduce sampling errors and conduct professional training for investigators, and a four-round inspection of the results to reduce measurement errors. To reduce the uncertainty of the model and coefficient database for LCA analysis, we collected a coefficient database conforming to the current situation in China, based on paddy fields and upland fields, and performed separate accounting for each farmer. GHG emissions are often influenced by a combination of factors, such as climate, soil, and farming practices, and additional spatial data and emission factors are required to enhance the assessment of crop production. These factors must undergo refinement in light of extensive monitoring networks covering various agricultural areas and environmental conditions, especially when extending the perspective to provincial, regional, and national levels. Spatial heterogeneity in data variability may introduce uncertainty in the results in these broader contexts (Xu et al., 2022).

In addition, owing to the difficulty of data collection at the farmer level, we did not include the soil carbon sequestration of straw and manure disposal in the accounting process. Returning straw to the field can reduce straw burning and replace nitrogen



588 fertilizers, which can be used as a strategy to reduce GHG emissions (Liu et al., 2018).  
589 It is worth noting, however, that organic amendments, including straw and manure, are  
590 believed to increase methane emissions from rice paddies (Guo et al., 2017). When  
591 considering rice residues, they should be managed differently, such as for use as  
592 livestock feed. Farmers' fertilizer usage is influenced by various factors, and the  
593 structural equation model established in this study considered the primary aspects of  
594 these factors; therefore, the results are preliminary. Due to limitations in sample size,  
595 this study combined the behaviors of all producers to enhance the model's stability. In  
596 the future, different regions, crops, and other influencing factors merit further analysis.

#### 597 **4. Conclusion**

598 Grain production at the level of smallholder farmers in China was conducted in  
599 relatively small areas (less than 0.67 hm<sup>2</sup> on average) while the yields are considerable  
600 (6,071.34 kg/hm<sup>2</sup> on average). The application of synthetic fertilizers, particularly  
601 nitrogen fertilizers, greatly exceeds the recommended amounts in the agricultural sector,  
602 which also leads to excessive GHG emissions. The GHG emissions of rice, wheat, and  
603 maize production were 12,989.80±3,131.56, 4,327.23 ±1,836.24, and  
604 3,864.26±2,335.71 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/hm<sup>2</sup> on a unit area basis, respectively; and 1.67±0.51, 0.76  
605 ±0.42, and 0.71 ±0.64 kgCO<sub>2</sub>eq/kg on a unit yield basis, respectively, which all exceed  
606 the global and Chinese agricultural averages. There are certain differences in GHG  
607 emissions from different grain productions in different regions, but in general, synthetic  
608 fertilizers contributed the most to GHG emissions in grain production. Climatic,  
609 household, other inputs, and socioeconomic factors had positive effects on nitrogen

610 fertilizer application, while farm size factors had negative effects. Shifting policies and  
611 economic incentives toward improving smallholder farmers' knowledge and skills in  
612 advanced agricultural management may reduce their use of synthetic fertilizers and  
613 promote low-carbon sustainable food production. The total GHG emissions can be  
614 reduced by 47.75%, and the total profit can be increased by 72.73% in China, when all  
615 smallholders are managed in the same way as the top 10% of outstanding producers  
616 without applying higher nitrogen fertilizer application than the national  
617 recommendation.

618 The study's theoretical significance lies in the development of a comprehensive  
619 LCA framework, characterized by its robust integration of localized data and  
620 parameters. This framework was applied alongside a survey involving 1,015  
621 smallholders in key Chinese agricultural regions, aiming to elucidate GHG emissions  
622 in smallholder-scale staple grain production. The research fills some gaps: firstly,  
623 addressing the limitations of national GHG emission estimates (Cheng et al., 2011);  
624 secondly, overcoming challenges tied to scaling field measurements (Lin et al., 2021);  
625 and thirdly, expanding upon smallholder-focused studies (Yan et al., 2015). Regarding  
626 fertilizer use, the study recommends a 32.05% reduction from current levels to align  
627 with the national recommended rate of 190 kg N/hm<sup>2</sup>, in line with Zhang et al. (2016).  
628 It also suggests that achieving the level of outstanding farmers, a 67.45% fertilizer  
629 reduction, could lead to a significant reduction of 279.90 Tg CO<sub>2</sub>eq in GHG emissions  
630 and an increase of 92.42 billion CNY in profits within China. These findings extend  
631 beyond this research, empowering smallholder farmers and providing a scientific basis  
632 for policy and action in various developing nations, including China. Ultimately, this

633 work contributes substantially to emissions reduction and the sustainable development  
634 of food systems.

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635 **Data availability**

636 Data associated with the study are available upon request.

637

638 **Supplementary Information**

639 Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version.

640

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## Highlights

- A Life-cycle assessment based on a localized parameter database was developed to quantify greenhouse-gas emissions of smallholders' staple grain production.
- The current emissions were higher than the world's and China's average levels, more than 35.81%.
- The average input of synthetic fertilizers exceeded 250.90 kgN/hm<sup>2</sup>, which was 31.58% higher than the nationally recommendations.
- Synthetic fertilizer was the major contributor to greenhouse-gases, more than 48.58%.
- After fertilizer reduction, the greenhouse-gases can be reduced by 47.75%, and profit will increase by 72.73%.

## **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

Yan Xu: Methodology, Writing - original draft, Data curation. Xiangbo Xu: Conceptualization, review & editing, Supervision. Jing Li: Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing, Supervision. Xiaoxia Guo: Validation, Formal analysis. *Huarui Gong*: Validation, Formal analysis. Zhu OUYang: Validation, Formal analysis. *Linxiu Zhang*: Validation, Formal analysis. Erik Mathijs: Validation, Formal analysis.

**Declaration of interests**

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.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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