

26 **Abstract**

27 Open straw burning has been widely recognized as a significant source of greenhouse
28 gases (GHGs), posing critical risks to atmospheric integrity and potentially
29 exacerbating global warming. In this study, we proposed a novel method that integrates
30 crop cycle information into extraction and classification of fire spots from open straw
31 burning in Northeast China from 2001 to 2020. By synergizing the extracted fire spots
32 with the modified Fire Radiative Power (FRP) algorithm, we developed high spatial
33 resolution emission inventories of GHGs, including carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane
34 (CH₄), and nitrous oxide (N₂O). Results showed that the northern Sanjiang Plain,
35 eastern Songnen Plain, and eastern Liao River Plain were areas with high intensity of
36 open straw burning. The number of fire spots was evaluated during 2013-2017,
37 accounting for 58.2% of the total fire spots observed during 2001-2020. The prevalent
38 season for open straw burning shifted from autumn (pre-2016) to spring (post-2016),
39 accompanied by a more dispersed pattern in burning dates. The two-decade cumulative
40 emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O were quantified at 198 Tg, 557 Gg, and 15.7 Gg,
41 respectively, amounting to 218 Tg of CO₂-eq. Significant correlations were identified
42 between GHGs emissions and both straw yields and straw utilization ($p < 0.01$). The
43 enforcement of straw burning bans since 2018 has played a pivotal role in curbing open
44 straw burning, and reduced fire spots by 51.7% on annual basis compared to 2013-2017.
45 The novel method proposed in this study considerably enhanced the accuracy in
46 characterizing spatiotemporal distributions of fire spots from open straw burning and

47 quantifying associated pollutants emissions.

48 **Keywords:** Open straw burning; Fire spot; Crop cycle; Greenhouse gas; Emission

49 inventory

50 **Keywords Plus:** Open straw burning; MODIS; Fire spot; Accurate extraction; Crop

51 cycle; Crop type; Phenology; Greenhouse gas; Emission inventory; Driving factor;

52 Policy

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59

60 1 Introduction

61 Open straw burning, a customary practice in agricultural areas, serves multiple purposes,
62 including rapid straw disposal, weed control, nutrient release, and pest management
63 (Korontzi et al., 2006; Wen et al., 2020). This practice results in short-term yet intense
64 emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs), such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄),
65 and nitrous oxide (N₂O). The accumulation of these gases in the atmosphere adversely
66 impacts climate and atmospheric chemistry (Weldemichael and Assefa, 2016; Tang et
67 al., 2020; Hong et al., 2023). To date, open straw burning remains prevalent in grain-
68 producing areas globally, despite the many drawbacks of such a practice (Gadde et al.,
69 2009; Huang et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2015; Ahmed et al., 2019; Mehmood et al., 2020;
70 Fu et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2023a). Thus, accurate and high spatial
71 resolution emission inventories for GHGs from this source sector are needed from
72 regional to global scales to assess potential climate and air quality impacts and
73 formulate carbon mitigation policies.

74

75 The “bottom-up” approach, which is based on the amount of straw burned and
76 corresponding emission factors, has been widely employed to establish emission
77 inventories for various pollutants emitted from open straw burning (van der Werf et al.,
78 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2023). Emission factors for
79 diverse pollutants released from different types of straw burning have been extensively
80 investigated in laboratory studies (Li et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2011; Stockwell et al., 2014;

81 Pan et al., 2017; Peng et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2016). However, estimation of the amount
82 of straw burned is subject to large uncertainties since it involves many parameters, such
83 as grain yield, ratio of straw and grain, open burning proportion, burning efficiency,
84 and dry matter fraction (Guan et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2017). Consequently, existing
85 regional-scale emission inventories based on the “bottom-up” approach generally have
86 large uncertainties and low spatiotemporal resolutions (Tian et al., 2011; Jin et al., 2017).
87
88 The advent of satellite technologies, such as Moderate Resolution Imaging
89 Spectroradiometer (MODIS, remote sensing instrument), Visible Infrared Imaging
90 Radiometer Suite (VIIRS, remote sensing instrument), and Himawari-8 (geostationary
91 satellite), has markedly revolutionized the monitoring of open straw burning, enabling
92 real-time and high spatiotemporal resolution fire spot products to be accessible to the
93 general public (Schroeder et al., 2014; Giglio et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2017; Wu et al.,
94 2018; Zhuang et al., 2018; Lv et al., 2024). Many studies have effectively utilized
95 satellite fire spot products for constructing emission inventories, based on either the
96 burned area (BA) or fire spot counts (FC) (Ke et al., 2019; Cui et al., 2021). Several
97 studies have also developed a hybrid inventory strategy using the “bottom-up”
98 approach to allocate GHGs emissions spatially and temporally based on BA or FC (Jin
99 et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019; Kumar et al., 2021). These approaches have
100 significantly improved the spatiotemporal resolutions of the emission inventories for
101 open straw burning (Wu et al., 2023).

102

103 MODIS and VIIRS, both operating in polar orbits, provide only two observations per
104 day. MODIS has provided 1 km resolution fire data since 2000, which is suitable for
105 long-term trend analyses (Chen et al., 2012); while VIIRS has provided fire data at a
106 375 m resolution since 2012, which is more suitable for detecting small fires (Chen et
107 al., 2022). Himawari-8 (Geostationary orbit) has provided 10-minute temporal
108 resolution and 2 km spatial resolution fire data since 2015, ideal for real-time
109 monitoring across the Asia-Pacific region (Zhang et al., 2020). However, the
110 aforementioned datasets remain inadequate for accurately capturing small-area, short-
111 duration open straw burning, particularly in scattered farmlands (Wiedinmyer et al.,
112 2014). It should also be noted that meteorological disturbances, such as cloud cover and
113 rainfall, can reduce the accuracy of these products (Schroeder et al., 2014; Ying et al.,
114 2019). Furthermore, straw burning during non-satellite transit periods, on cloudy days,
115 at night, and under heavy haze may not be captured in these datasets (Liu et al., 2020).
116 For example, Liu et al. (2019) found that same-day omission error of MODIS burned
117 area product could be as high as 95% for agricultural fire detection during the post-
118 monsoon season in northwestern India.

119

120 With continuous enrichment of satellite data, a strong relationship was observed
121 between fire radiative power (FRP) and emission amounts from open straw burning
122 (Wu et al., 2023). Consequently, the FRP algorithm has been widely accepted for

123 estimating emissions (Wooster et al., 2005; Freeborn et al., 2008; Vermote et al., 2009;
124 Yang et al., 2019). The FRP algorithm has been optimized by integrating multi-source
125 satellite fire spot data, field survey data, and ground observation data, and combined
126 with advanced modeling techniques to improve the accuracy of emission inventory for
127 open straw burning. For example, Liu et al. (2020) revised FRP by combining
128 household survey results with satellite observations in northern India to capture small
129 fires, fill cloud/haze gaps in satellite observations, and adjust partial-field burns and
130 diurnal cycle of fire activity disturbances. Yang et al. (2020) improved the FRP
131 algorithm by calibrating the contributions of open straw burning to ground observation
132 data in Northeast China based on model simulation results using the coupled Weather
133 Research and Forecasting model and Community Multiscale Air Quality (WRF-CMAQ)
134 model.

135

136 At present, the identification of straw types in open straw burning typically relies on
137 crop data, such as the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP)-Modified
138 MODIS Land Use and MapSPAM datasets (Ke et al. 2019; Yang et al. 2020). These
139 low spatiotemporal resolution crop data contribute to errors in both the extraction of
140 fire spots and the identification of straw types (Ke et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2022).
141 Additional errors come from planting structure adjustment and frequent variations in
142 crop phenology. For instance, fire spots occurred during crop growth might be
143 incorrectly classified as open straw burning, while those occurred prior to crop growth

144 could be inaccurately attributed to burning of straws from subsequent harvests (Zhou
145 et al., 2022). Therefore, high spatiotemporal resolution data on crop types and
146 phenology are critical, and such data should be integrated into the extraction and
147 classification of fire spots from open straw burning to accurately estimate emissions of
148 various pollutants from this source sector.

149

150 To control emissions from open straw burning, the “Air Pollution Prevention and
151 Control Action Plan” (APPCAP) took into effect in 2013 in China (Huang et al., 2021).
152 In addition, China committed to achieve carbon peak by 2030 and carbon neutrality by
153 2060, which draws unprecedented challenges in reducing carbon emissions from open
154 straw burning (Wu et al., 2023). As a significant grain-producing region in China,
155 Northeast China produced 135 million tons of major grains (corn, rice, beans, and wheat)
156 in 2020, accounting for 21.4% of total production in China (National Bureau of
157 Statistics of China, 2021). During 2013-2018, open straw burning in Northeast China
158 exhibited an increasing trend, while decreasing in all other regions of China (Huang et
159 al., 2021). The constant increase reflects the expansion of the agricultural sector and
160 economic development in Northeast China yet relatively unconstrained open burning
161 activities (Huang et al., 2021). Liu et al. (2022) estimated CO₂ emissions from open
162 straw burning in Northeast China to be as high as 344 Tg from 2012 to 2020.

163

164 In this study, high spatial resolution fire spot products were used to develop annual

165 emission inventories of GHGs, including CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O, from open straw burning
166 in Northeast China for the period of 2001-2020. To improve the accuracy of the
167 developed emission inventory, a novel concept that integrates the crop cycle
168 information into fire spot extraction and classification was adopted. Furthermore, this
169 study conducted a thorough analysis to assess the driving factors influencing GHGs
170 emissions during the two decades. This study comprehensively examined GHGs
171 emissions from open straw burning in Northeast China and offered valuable insights to
172 policy makers for mitigating carbon emissions and air pollution in agricultural areas.

173 **2 Methodology**

174 **2.1 Extraction and classification of fire spots**

175 The MODIS fire product (MCD14ML, Collection 6.1) was selected from 1 January
176 2001 to 31 December 2020 for the whole region of Northeast China (Giglio et al., 2016,
177 [sftp://fuoco.geog.umd.edu](https://fuoco.geog.umd.edu)). The dataset, with a spatial resolution of about 1 km²,
178 includes essential variables, such as latitude, longitude, acquisition date and time (in
179 UTC), satellite (Aqua or Terra), FRP, and fire type (presumably vegetation fire, active
180 volcano, other static land source, and offshore), among others ([https://modis-
181 fire.umd.edu/files/MODIS_C6_C6.1_Fire_User_Guide_1.0.pdf](https://modis-fire.umd.edu/files/MODIS_C6_C6.1_Fire_User_Guide_1.0.pdf)). Non-vegetation fire
182 activities (active volcano, other static land source, and offshore) were then filtered out
183 from the selected dataset for subsequent analysis.

184

185 To clarify, the MCD14ML underestimated fire spots in 2001 and 2002 because only the
186 Terra satellite was operational before 3 July 2002. Therefore, data for the years of 2003
187 to 2020 were used for developing annual emission inventories, with relevant results for
188 2001 and 2002 as reference only. Also, a failure of the Aqua satellite on 16 August 2020
189 led to the loss of fire spot data for about two weeks ([https://modis-
190 fire.umd.edu/files/MODIS_C61_BA_User_Guide_1.1.pdf](https://modis-fire.umd.edu/files/MODIS_C61_BA_User_Guide_1.1.pdf)). However, as August is a
191 crop-growing period in Northeast China, this failure would not lead to an
192 underestimation of fire spots from open straw burning.

193

194 The ChinaCropArea1 km and ChinaCropPhen1 km datasets were used to extract and
195 classify fire spots from open straw burning (Luo et al., 2020a; Luo et al., 2020b). These
196 datasets present annual data on the type and phenology (Day of Year (Doy) of
197 emergence and maturity) of grain crops (corn, rice, and wheat). Considering that
198 Northeast China is a major bean-producing area, we also compiled bean distribution
199 datasets (Li et al., 2021; Xuan et al., 2023). However, bean distribution in Jilin and
200 Liaoning provinces was not recorded during 2001-2012 in this dataset. The dataset was
201 extended to the whole region of Northeast China (Heilongjiang, Jilin, and Liaoning
202 provinces) after 2013. Thus, some gaps still exist in these datasets compared to the
203 comprehensive information required for this study, as detailed in **Table S1**.

204

205 **Fig. 1** describes the meticulous process to accurately extract and classify fire spots from

206 open straw burning in areas experiencing one-harvest season every year. The process
207 involves several key steps:

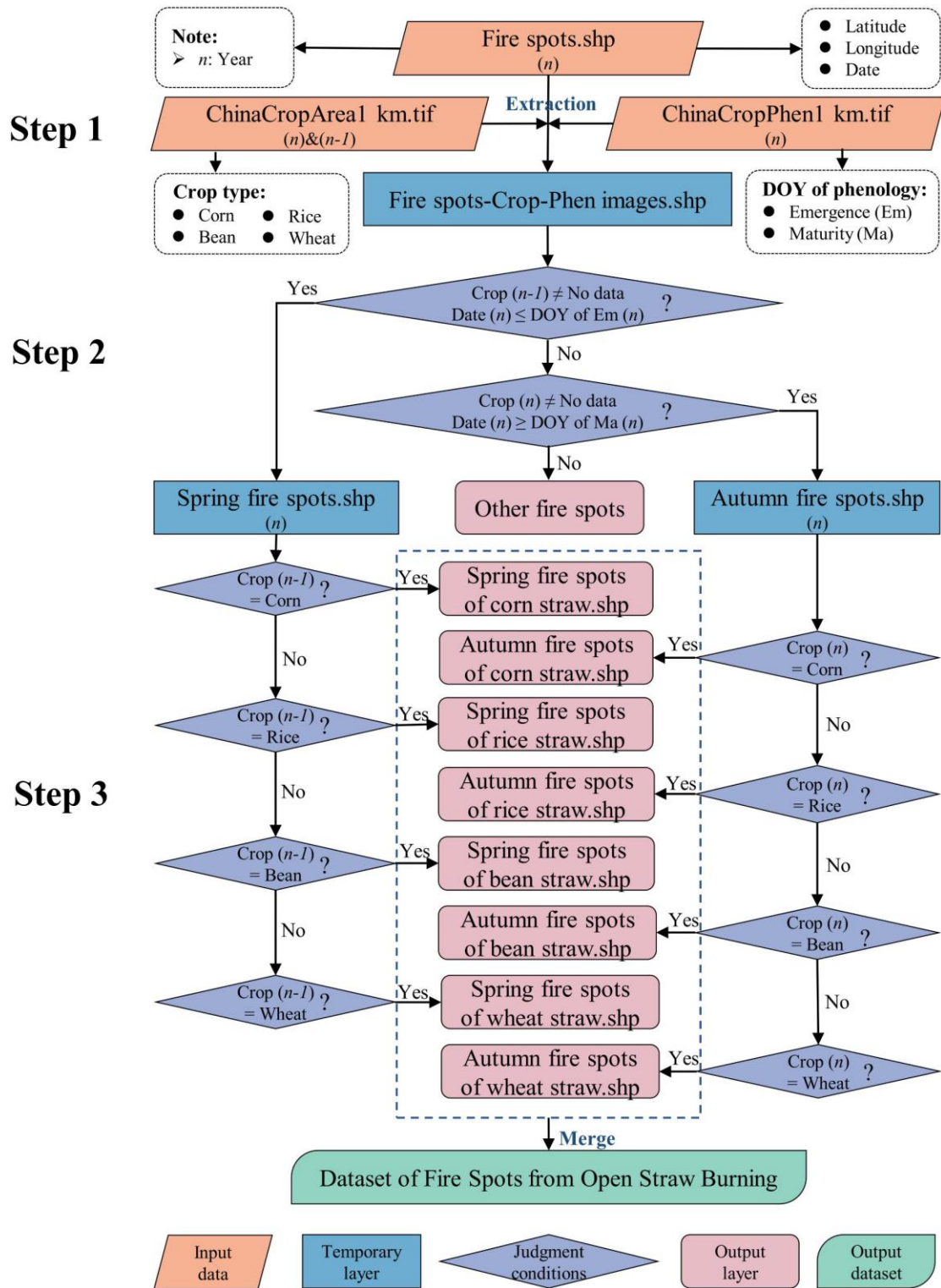
208 **Step 1)** The current year's ChinaCropPhen1 km and ChinaCropArea1 km, along with
209 the previous year's ChinaCropArea1 km data, were extracted to Fire spots (MCD14ML)
210 by ArcGIS 10.2 software to obtain the Fire spots-Crop-Phen dataset.

211 **Step 2)** Considering the crop cycle, the extraction of fire spots was divided into two
212 stages. The first stage is before crop growth (spring) and requires the fire spot to satisfy
213 two conditions: a) there was a crop planted in the previous year, and b) the burning date
214 is before emergence. The second stage is after crop growth (autumn) and also involves
215 two conditions: a) there was a crop planted in the current year, and b) the burning date
216 is after maturity.

217 **Step 3)** For fire spots in spring, the type of straw burned is identified based on the
218 previous year's crop type. For autumn fire spots, the straw type is determined according
219 to the crop type of the current year.

220

221 Furthermore, fire spots from open straw burning were extracted using the traditional
222 method that does not integrate crop cycle information. Only the current year's
223 ChinaCropArea1 km data was extracted to Fire spots (MCD14ML). Then, fire spots
224 occurring on agricultural land with growing crops were identified as open straw burning.



225

226 **Fig. 1** Extraction and classification method for fire spots from open straw burning

227 **2.2 Development of high spatial resolution annual emission inventories for**
228 **GHGs and exploration of driving factors**

229 Annual emission inventories for GHGs were developed for the region of Northeast
230 China at a grid resolution of 5 km × 5 km for the years of 2001 to 2020. The domain
231 grids were created using Fishnet of ArcGIS 10.2 software.

232

233 The modified FRP algorithm (Yang et al., 2020) is used to estimate the emissions of
234 GHGs from open straw burning in this study:

235
$$E = \alpha \times \int_{t_1}^{t_2} FRP^* dt \times \beta \times F = \alpha \times FRP \times f_{FRP} \times (t_2 - t_1) \times \beta \times F \quad (1)$$

236 where E (in g) is the emissions of GHGs; α is a correction factor used to adjust for FRP
237 detection errors between MODIS and VIIRS, which is given a value of 2.5 following
238 Vadrevu and Lasko (2018), indicating that the FRP VIIRS sum is 2.5 times of the FRP
239 MODIS sum; t_1 and t_2 are the beginning and ending time of fire spots, respectively, and
240 the average burning time (3 hours) of a fire spot in Northeast China was obtained by
241 delivering questionnaires to local farmers (Yang et al., 2020); FRP^* (in MW) is adjusted
242 satellite detected FRP ; FRP (in MW) is the instantaneous FRP observed by satellite;
243 f_{FRP} is a correction factor that is used to adjust the underestimated emissions by fire
244 spots, and Yang et al. (2020) determined an optimal value of 5 for f_{FRP} by calibrating
245 the contributions of open straw burning to ground observation data in Northeast China
246 using WRF-CMAQ; β (in kg·MJ⁻¹) is biomass combustion rate and the average value
247 of 0.411 kg·MJ⁻¹ from previous studies is used here (Wooster et al., 2005; Freeborn et

248 al., 2008); and F (in $\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) is the emission factor for individual straw type (**Table 1**)
249 (Li et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2011; Peng et al., 2016).

250

251 **Table 1.** Emission factors of open straw burning for different crop types

Crop	Emission factors ($\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$)		
	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O
Corn	1350	4.4	0.12
Rice	1460	3.2	0.11
Bean	1445	3.9	0.09
Wheat	1460	3.4	0.05

252

253 Driving factors such as the output of major grains and rural residential coal
254 consumption for temporal variations of annual GHGs emissions were explored through
255 Pearson correlation analysis using SPSS 20.0. Information on the above data is also
256 detailed in **Table S1**.

257 **3 Results and discussion**

258 **3.1 Spatial and temporal distributions of fire spots**

259 Cultivated lands in Northeast China primarily distribute in Sanjiang Plain (Northeast
260 Heilongjiang Province), Songnen Plain (West Heilongjiang Province and Midwest Jilin
261 Province), and Liao River Plain (Central Liaoning Province) (**Fig. 2(a)**). Fire spots were
262 widely spread, covering most cultivated lands, including both dry and paddy fields
263 across Northeast China (**Fig. 2(a)** and **2(b)**). A total of 156,044 fire spots from open
264 straw burning were recorded during 2001-2020. Note that the traditional method

265 overestimated the total number of fire spots by 7190 over the 20-year period, with the
266 largest in 2017 (an overestimation of 4060) (**Fig. 2(c)**). This highlights the importance
267 of integrating crop cycle information into fire spot extraction for open straw burning to
268 enhance data accuracy and reliability. Considering the 20-year together (2001-2020),
269 high occurrence frequencies of open straw burning (also referred to as intensity of fire
270 spots below) appeared in the northern Sanjiang Plain, eastern Songnen Plain, and
271 eastern Liao River Plain, as well as scattered areas close to Inner Mongolia (**Fig. 2(a)**
272 and **2(b)**).

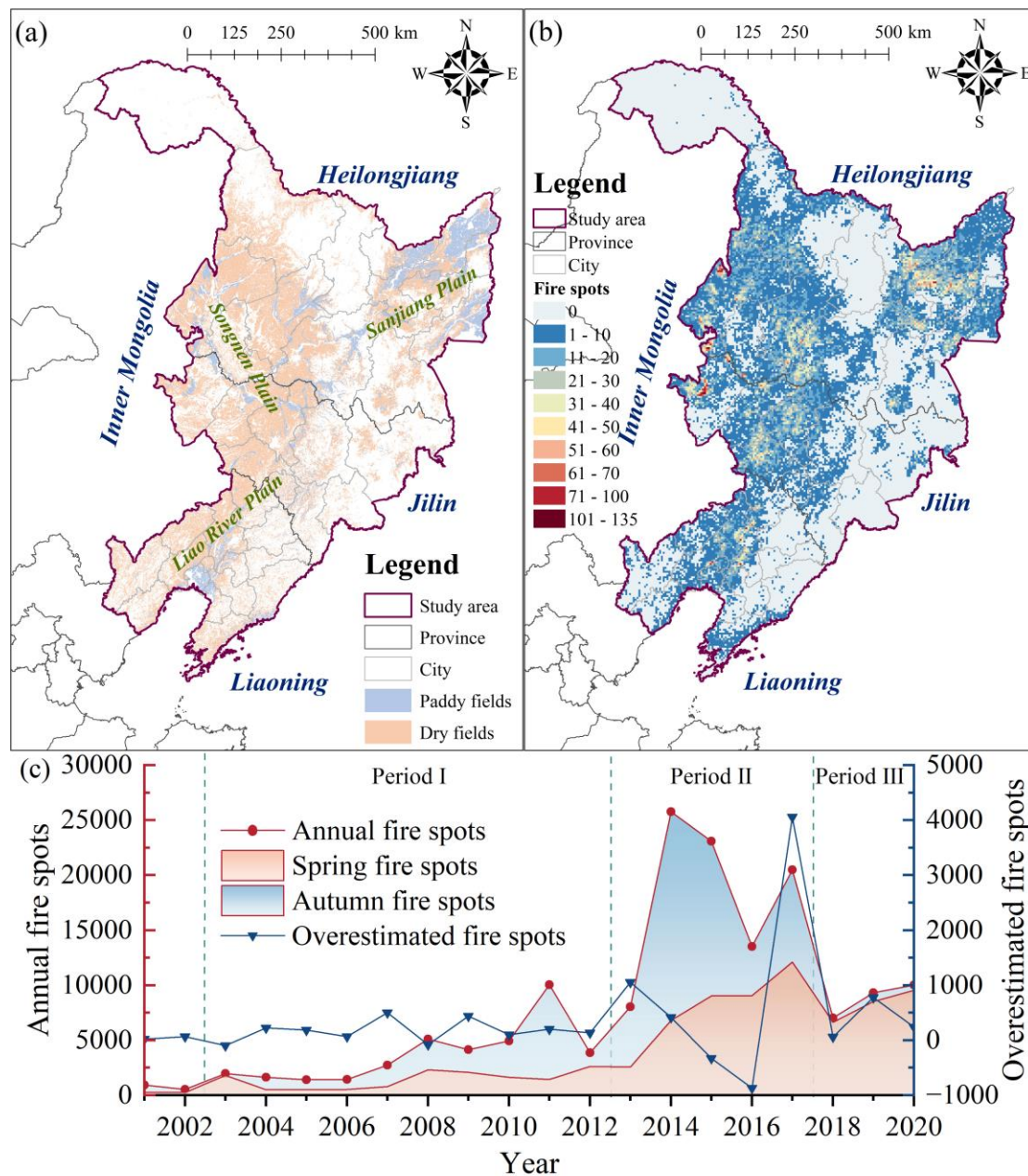
273

274 Interannual variations of fire spots distributions are shown in **Fig. S1**. In the Sanjiang
275 Plain, low occurrence frequencies of fire spots were observed in a few cultivated lands
276 during 2003-2006 (**Fig. S1(c)** to **Fig. S1(f)**) and in most cultivated lands in the northern
277 part of the Plain during 2007-2013 (**Fig. S1(g)** to **Fig. S1(m)**). Note that in 2014 and
278 later years, fire spots were extended to the entire Sanjiang Plain, and the northern part
279 of the Plain became an area with high intensity of fire spots (**Fig. S1(n)** to **Fig. S1(q)**),
280 although a few cultivated lands in this Plain recorded low intensity of fire spots after
281 2018 (**Fig. S1(r)** to **Fig. S1(t)**). In the Songnen Plain, most cultivated lands recorded
282 fire spots during 2014 to 2017, with highest intensity in the northern and eastern parts
283 of the Plain (**Fig. S1(n)** to **Fig. S1(q)**). The occurrence frequencies of fire spots
284 decreased across the plain since 2018, particularly in the northern part of the Plain (**Fig.**
285 **S1(r)** to **Fig. S1(t)**). In the Liao River Plain, although fire spots were observed in most

286 cultivated lands in the eastern part of the Plain during 2014-2017, high occurrence
287 frequency was only recorded in 2014 (**Fig. S1(n)** to **Fig. S1(q)**).

288

289 Apparently, open straw burning events decreased in all of the three Plains since 2018
290 (**Fig. S1(r)** to **Fig. S1(t)**), which was likely due to the intensified effort from the Chinese
291 government banning open straw burning (Hong et al., 2023). The reduction in the
292 number of fire spots was more significant in the Sanjiang Plain and northern Songnen
293 Plain than Liao River Plain (**Fig. S1**), indicating more compliance with straw burning
294 bans from State Farms in the former two regions.



295

296 **Fig. 2** (a) Spatial distributions of cultivated land in 2020 in Northeast China

297 (<https://www.resdc.cn>), (b) spatial distributions of the total number of fire spots during 2001-

298 2020 in Northeast China, and (c) seasonal distributions of the annual fire spots, and annual

299 overestimated fire spots by the traditional method from 2001 to 2020. The overestimated fire

300 spots are calculated as the number of fire spots identified by the traditional method minus those

301 extracted by the novel method.

302

303 Fire spots from open straw burning concentrated in spring and autumn, with few
304 burning events in the other two seasons in Northeast China. Open straw burning events
305 in this region during 2003-2020 can be roughly divided into three distinctive periods
306 (**Fig. 2(c)**). During **Period I** (2003-2012), the annual average number of fire spots in
307 this region was 3732. There were more fire spots in autumn than spring in most of
308 these years. During **Period II** (2013-2017), there was a substantial surge in fire spots,
309 with an annual average of 18,177 spots, accounting for 58.2% of the 20-year total.
310 Notably, the number of fire spots peaked at 25,759 in 2014. Spring fire spots
311 consistently increased annually, reaching the highest in 2017 at 12,094 spots. The
312 variations for autumn fire spots were fluctuating, with a peak of 18,951 spots in 2014.
313 During 2013-2015, autumn fire spots were higher than spring; however, this trend
314 reversed in 2016 and 2017, with spring fire spots becoming more dominant. During
315 **Period III** (2018-2020), the number of fire spots experienced a significant decrease,
316 averaging 8,788 spots annually, which was a 51.7% decrease from **Period II**. Spring
317 emerged as the primary season of fire spots, accounting for approximately 93.8% of the
318 annual total. Zhao et al. (2021) have reported a similar phenomenon, in which the
319 primary season of open straw burning in Northeast China gradually shifts to spring
320 (April to June). The apparent seasonal variations of open straw burning primarily stems
321 from strict government bans imposed after the autumn harvest (Yang et al., 2020). In
322 addition, farmers' increasing awareness regarding how open straw burning contributes

323 to the thawing of spring soil may also be a factor (Saxton et al., 1993; Song et al., 2024).

324

325 However, the “sudden drop” in fire spots should also be partially attributed to strategies

326 employed by farmers to avoid detection by satellite and government regulations, such

327 as burning straw on smaller scales and in more dispersed areas, or during non-transit

328 times of the satellites (Liu et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2020). Chen et al. (2022) also found

329 that farmers in East China frequently burned straw in 2019 during non-transit times of

330 MODIS/VIIRS satellites, as indicated by Himawari satellite data. To further verify the

331 reliability of the “sudden drop” in fire spots in Northeast China, we analyzed the trend

332 of particulate matter concentrations (PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$) during the periods of open straw

333 burning from 2014 to 2020 in Northeast China (**Fig. S2**). Atmospheric particulate

334 matter concentrations during autumn open straw burning in Northeast China decreased

335 with a “sudden drop” in fire spots (**Fig. S2(c)**). However, a similar trend was not

336 observed in spring (**Fig. S2(b)**), possibly due to limitations in fire spot detection by

337 current satellite techniques and avoidance strategies. Kumar et al. (2021) suggested that

338 a hybrid inventory, which accurately allocates emissions estimated using the “bottom-

339 up” approach based on satellite data, may be more advantageous in this scenario.

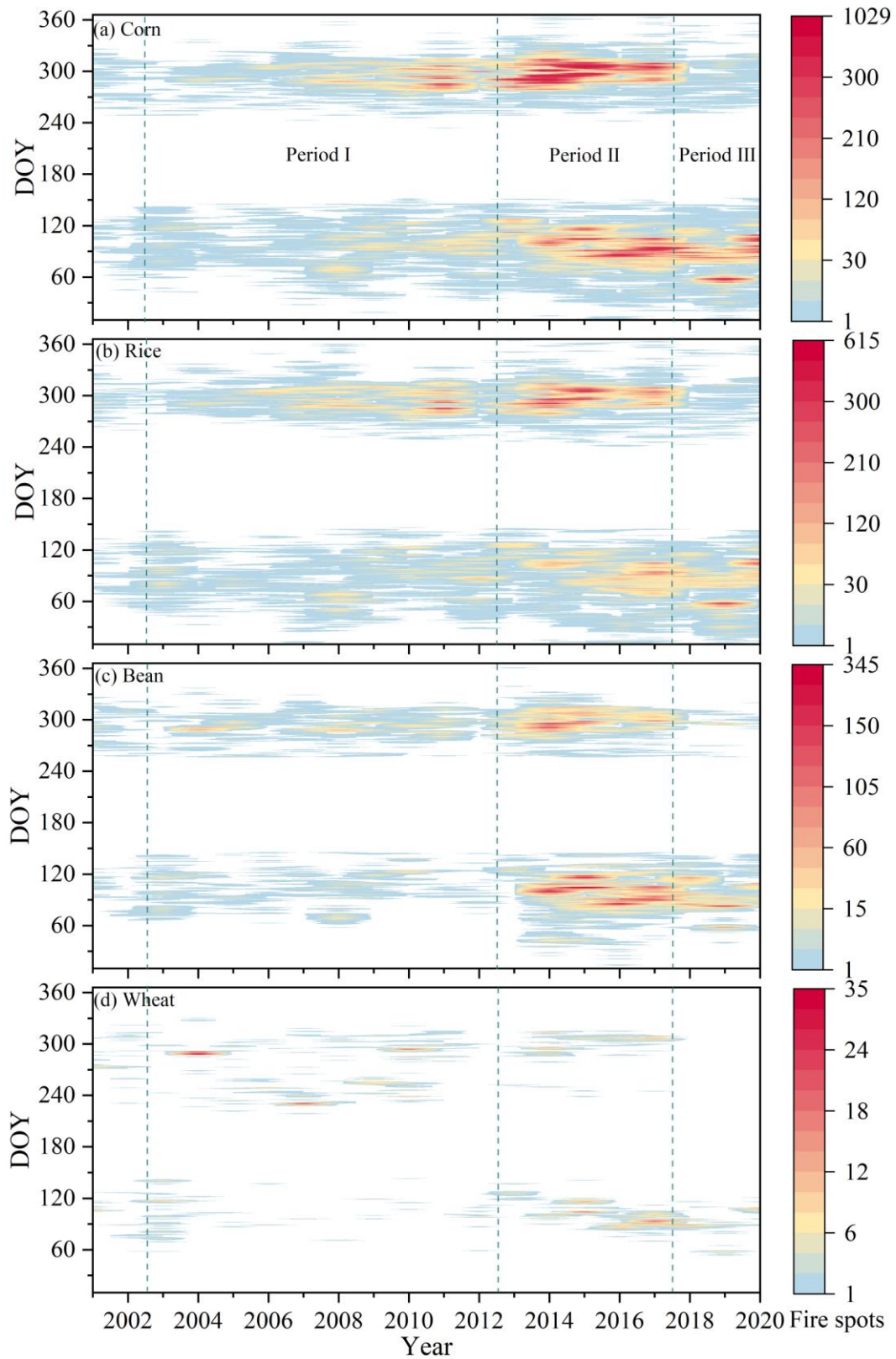
340

341 The straw burning dates in Northeast China also changed during the three periods,

342 besides varying with crop type. During **Period I** (2003-2012), the autumn burning dates

343 of corn and rice straws were concentrated from early October to mid-November (DOY

344 range of 270 to 320). Spring burning dates of corn and rice straw were concentrated
345 between mid-March and late April (DOY range of 70 to 120) in 2003, while dispersed
346 to early March to mid-May (DOY range of 60 to 140) in 2012 (**Fig. 3(a)** and **Fig. 3(b)**).
347 During **Period II** (2013-2017), the dispersion of spring burning dates for corn and rice
348 straws became more pronounced, extending from early February to mid-May (DOY
349 range of 30 to 140) (**Fig. 3(a)** and **Fig. 3(b)**). During **Period III** (2018-2020), the
350 dispersion of spring burning dates for corn and rice straws persisted (**Fig. 3(a)** and **Fig.**
351 **3(b)**). During **Period I** (2003-2012), the spring and autumn burning dates of bean straw
352 in Heilongjiang Province were concentrated from mid-March to late April (DOY range
353 of 70 to 120) and from early October to mid-November (DOY range of 270 to 320),
354 respectively (**Fig. 3(c)**). During 2013-2020, the spring burning dates of bean straw in
355 Northeast China were concentrated between early February and late April (DOY range
356 of 30 to 120), while the autumn burning dates remained consistent with those during
357 **Period I** in Heilongjiang Province (**Fig. 3(c)**). Unlike other crops, the burning dates for
358 wheat straw did not conform to the aforementioned pattern of variation, likely due to a
359 limited number of fire spots (**Fig. 3(d)**). The changing dispersion of burning dates for
360 each crop type indicates shifts in agricultural practices that may be influenced by
361 regional straw burning ban policies, environmental conditions, and farming practices
362 (Yang et al., 2020).



363

364 **Fig. 3** The daily frequency distribution of fire spots from various straws burning: (a), (b), (c),

365 and (d) represent corn, rice, bean, and wheat straw, respectively. Note: The x-axis is Year; the

366 y-axis is DOY; and the range of colorbars (indicating fire spots) is different for each crop, with
367 values ranging from 1 to 1,029 for corn, 1 to 615 for rice, 1 to 345 for beans, and 1 to 35 for
368 wheat.

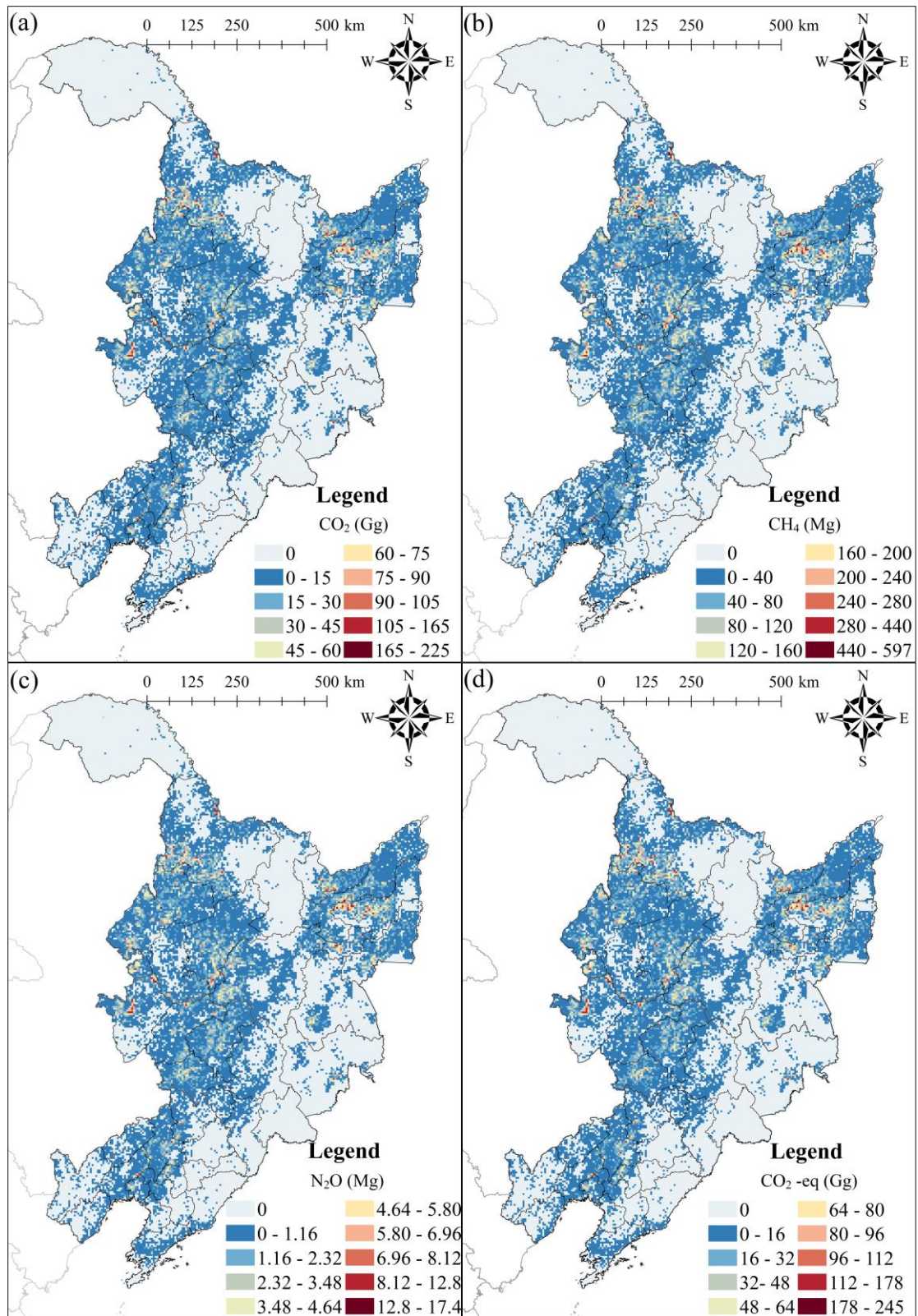
369 **3.2 High spatial resolution annual emission inventory of GHGs**

370 The cumulative emissions of CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O from open straw burning in Northeast
371 China from 2001 to 2020 amounted to 198 Tg, 557 Gg, and 15.7 Gg, respectively (or
372 218 Tg CO₂-eq in total). The spatial distributions of GHGs emissions correspond well
373 with those of fire spots, particularly in high emission areas (**Fig. 2** and **Fig. 4**). However,
374 the amounts of GHGs emissions in the northern Songnen Plain unexpectedly exceeded
375 those in the eastern Songnen Plain and eastern Liao River Plain, suggesting that even
376 low intensity fire spots can generate considerable emissions of GHGs due to higher
377 FRP detected via remote sensing. Therefore, the FRP algorithm proves to be more
378 effective than burned areas-based algorithms in identifying emission intensity resulted
379 from open straw burning while reducing the uncertainty associated with high
380 spatiotemporal resolution emission inventory (Wu et al., 2023).

381

382 The annual emissions of CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, and CO₂-eq from 2001 to 2020 are presented
383 in **Figs. S3, S4, S5, and S6**, respectively. The spatiotemporal patterns of GHGs
384 emissions correspond well to the observed trends in fire spots during **Period I** (2003-
385 2012). However, during **Period II** (2013-2017) and **Period III** (2018-2020), the
386 emissions of GHGs in the eastern Songnen Plain and eastern Liao River Plain did not

387 exhibit a proportional increase with the rise in fire spots. This discrepancy can be
388 attributed to the dispersed burning dates among individual farmers in these regions,
389 resulting in high intensity fire spots with relatively low emissions. In contrast, several
390 State Farms located in the northern Sanjiang Plain and northern Songnen Plain
391 demonstrated a higher level of synchronization in open straw burning activities,
392 resulting in parallel trends between fire spots and emissions (Cui et al., 2021).



393

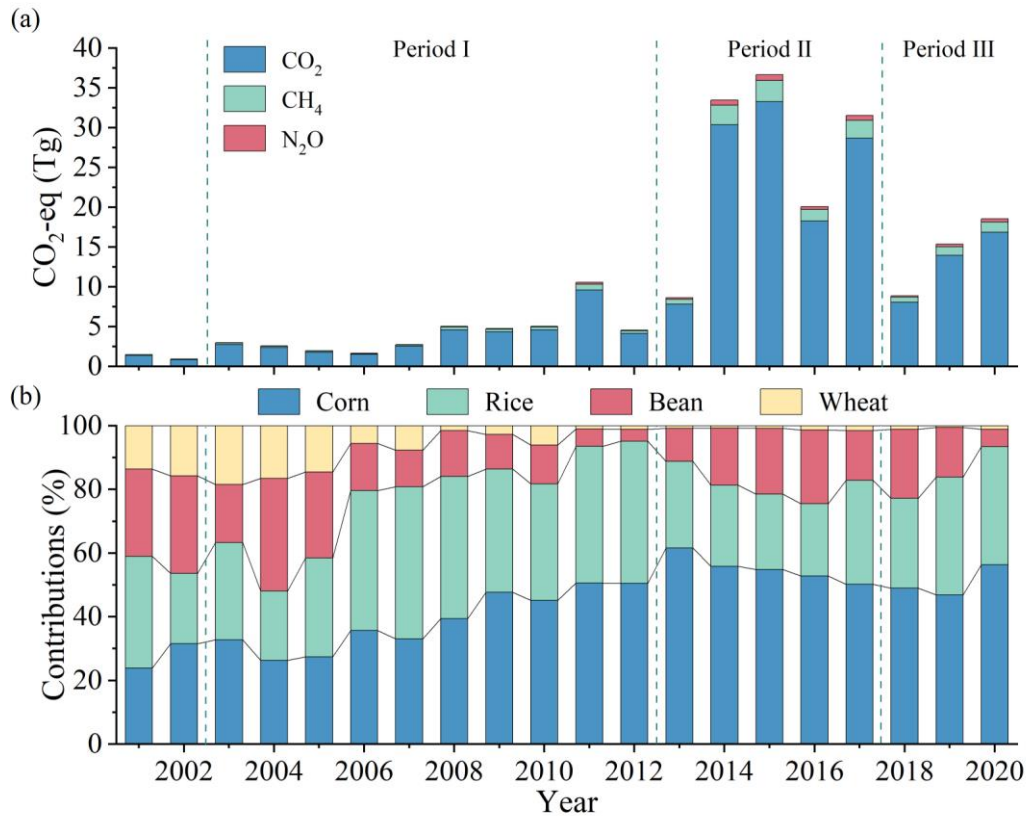
394 **Fig. 4** The cumulative GHGs emissions from open straw burning in Northeast China from 2001

395 to 2020 for CO₂ (a), CH₄ (b), N₂O (c), and CO₂-eq (d) emissions, respectively. Note: The range

396 of colorbars (indicating emissions) is different for each GHG, with values ranging from 0 to

397 225 Gg for CO₂, 0 to 597 Mg for CH₄, 0 to 17.4 Mg for N₂O, and 0 to 245 Gg for CO₂-eq.
398
399 During **Period I** (2003 - 2012), average annual CO₂-eq emission was at 4.20 Tg, and
400 the cumulative CO₂-eq emission amounted to 42.0 Tg. During **Period II** (2013 - 2017),
401 average annual CO₂-eq emission increased substantially to 26.1 Tg, and the cumulative
402 emission during this period amounted to 130 Tg, which accounted for 59.9% of the total
403 emissions over the two decades. During **Period III** (2018 - 2020), average annual CO₂-
404 eq emissions decreased significantly to 14.3 Tg, and the cumulative emission during
405 this period amounted to 42.8 Tg (**Fig. 5(a)**). The trend of CO₂-eq emission from 2003
406 to 2020 generally corresponds with the occurrence of fire spots, except for 2015 when
407 higher emissions were obtained despite having fewer fire spots than the case in 2014
408 (**Fig. 5(a)**). Such a trend is consistent with those of carbonaceous gases and aerosols
409 (CGA) emissions estimated by Liu et al., (2022). This discrepancy between fire spots
410 and pollutant emissions in 2015 highlights the limitations of estimating pollutant
411 emissions based solely on burned areas (Ke et al., 2019; Wu et al. 2023). The
412 combustion of corn and rice straw was identified as the primary contributors to CO₂-eq
413 emissions, accounting for 51.1% and 30.8%, respectively, of the total emissions (**Fig.**
414 **5(b)**). Specifically, corn straw burning released 99.6, 9.06, and 2.42 Tg, while rice straw
415 burning released 61.8, 3.78, and 1.27 Tg of CO₂, CO₂-eq for CH₄, and CO₂-eq for N₂O,
416 respectively.

417



418

419 **Fig. 5** (a) Regional total annual CO₂-eq emissions and (b) percentage contributions from open

420 burning of individual crop straw type.

421 3.3 Validation and limitations

422 Our estimated total CO₂ emissions from 2012 to 2020 with MODIS (161 Tg) or with

423 VIIRS (165 Tg) were much lower than that (~ 523 Tg) estimated by Liu et al. (2022),

424 the latter was based on a modified FRP algorithm and fire spot products by VIIRS,

425 which has limitations in its traditional straw extraction methods in accurately

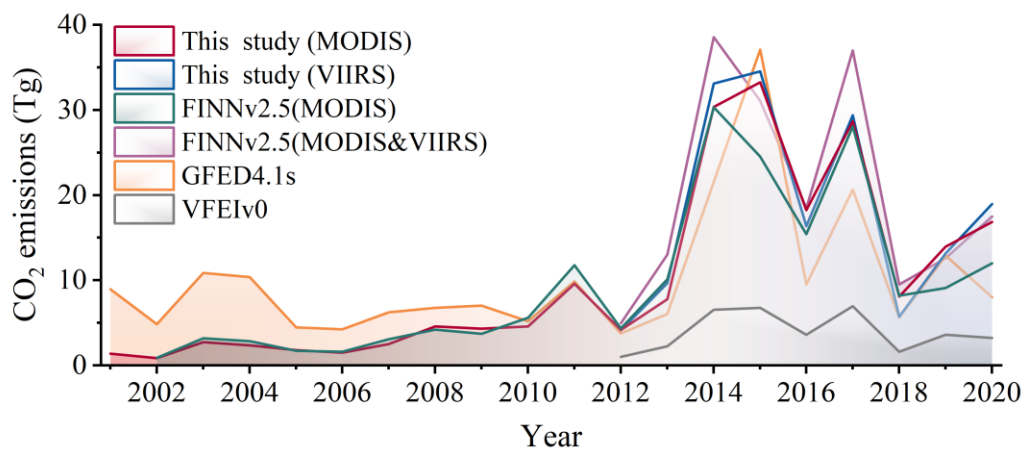
426 identifying fire spots during certain times of the year. Our estimated CO₂ emission from

427 2002 to 2020 in Northeast China (196 Tg) was slightly lower than that (195 Tg)

428 estimated by Global Fire Emissions Database Version 4.1 (GFED4.1s) by van der Werf et al.

429 (2017), and slightly higher than that (181 Tg) estimated from the Fire Inventory from

430 NCAR version 2.5 (FINNv2.5) by Wiedinmyer et al. (2023), which addresses the
 431 underestimation of open biomass burning in China by the older version FINNv1.5
 432 (Stavrakou et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2020) (**Fig. 6**). However, our estimated total CO₂
 433 emission from 2012 to 2020 was significantly higher than that (35.6 Tg) estimated by
 434 VIIRS-based Fire Emission Inventory version 0 (VFEIv0) by Ferrada et al. (2022),
 435 which relies on the traditional FRP algorithm (**Fig. 6**). Furthermore, Northeast China
 436 surpassed East China (27.1 Tg) as the highest emitter from open straw burning in China
 437 since 2014, with CO₂ emissions reaching 30.4 Tg (Zhang et al. 2020).



438
 439 **Fig. 6** Annual total emissions of CO₂ from open straw burning (agricultural waste burning) in
 440 Northeast China from this study with MODIS (red, 2001-2020) and VIIRS (blue, 2012-2020),
 441 the Fire Inventory from NCAR version 2.5 (FINNv2.5) with MODIS-only (green, 2002-2020),
 442 FINNv2.5 with MODIS and VIIRS (purple, 2012-2020), Global Fire Emissions Database
 443 Version 4.1 (GFED4.1s) (orange, 2001-2020), and VIIRS-based Fire Emission Inventory
 444 version 0 (VFEIv0) (grey, 2012-2020).

445

446 Although this study effectively improved the accuracy of emission inventory for open

447 straw burning through the novel method that integrates crop cycle information into
448 extraction and classification of fire spots and the modified FRP algorithm, certain
449 limitations still exist. The uncertainty in this study stems mainly from the inherent
450 limitations of satellite fire detection systems. The MODIS fire spot product, although
451 widely used, is limited by its temporal resolution and tends to miss transient or small-
452 scale fires. In addition, straw burning during non-satellite transit periods, on cloudy
453 days, at night, and under heavy haze further exacerbates the underestimation of fire
454 incidence, leading to potential gaps in emission inventories.

455

456 Additionally, the novel method that integrates crop cycle information into extraction
457 and classification of fire spots presents a promising advancement. However, its
458 applicability is constrained to regions where comprehensive and detailed crop data are
459 available. In countries or regions lacking such agricultural information, this method
460 may face challenges, thereby limiting its broader applicability. These factors underscore
461 the need for continued refinement of satellite detection technologies and the expansion
462 of agricultural data collection efforts to reduce uncertainties and enhance the robustness
463 of emission inventories on regional to global scales.

464 **3.4 Driving factors of open straw burning**

465 Open straw burning is more prominently influenced by anthropogenic activities
466 compared to other types of open biomass burning, such as forest, shrubland, and
467 grassland fires (Syphard et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2020). Open straw burning is influenced

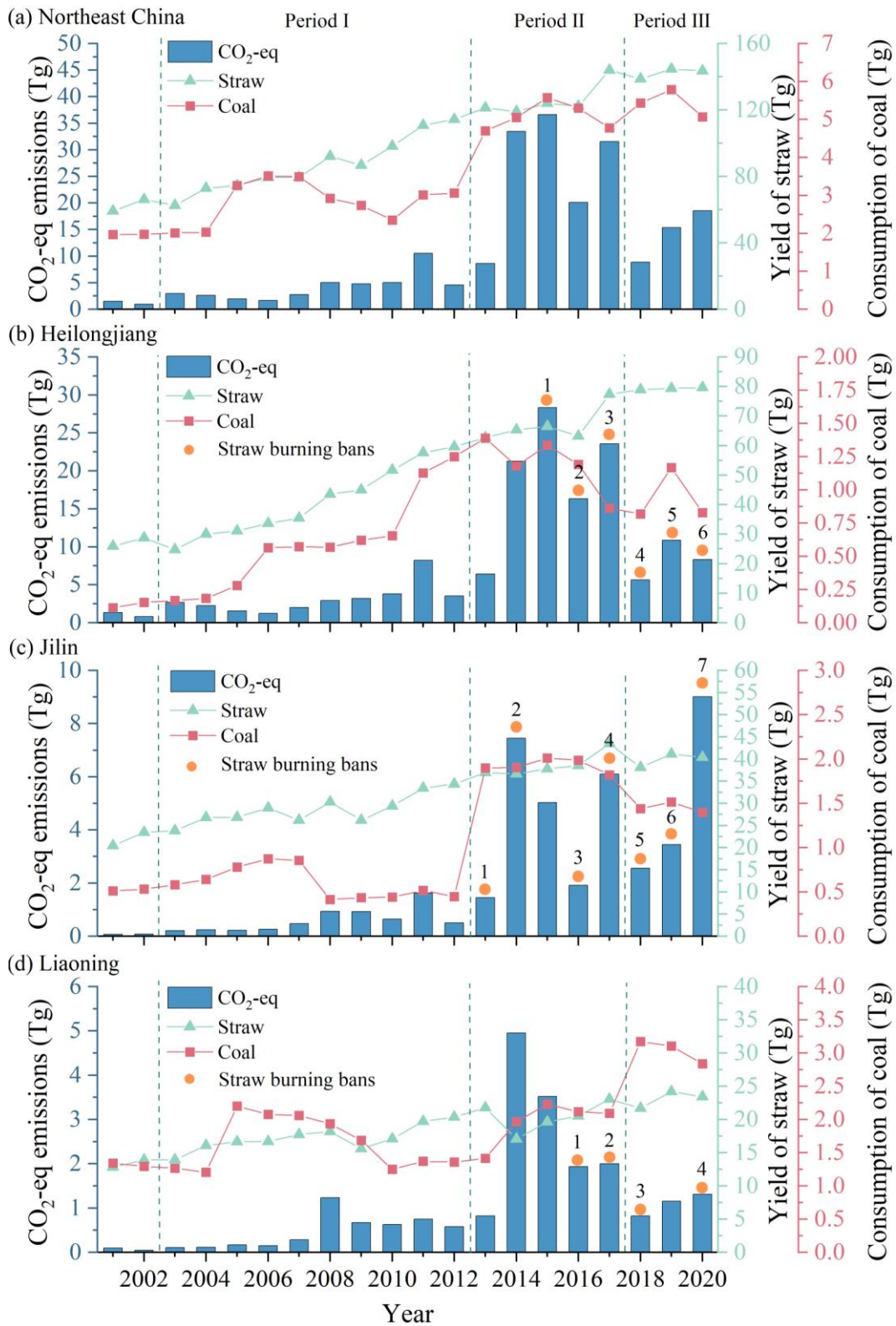
468 by changes in straw yield and utilization rate, straw burning ban policy, and farmers'
469 awareness of straw burning consequences (Chen et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017; Tao et al.,
470 2018; Fang et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2023b).

471

472 Northeast China has experienced a remarkable expansion in its sown area for major
473 grain crops over the past two decades. By 2020, the sown area reached 231,937 km²,
474 61.4% more than that in 2001 (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2002-2021). In
475 the meantime, annual straw yield reached 143 Tg in 2020, 142% higher than that (59.2
476 Tg) in 2001 (**Fig.7**) (numbers are calculated based on the major grain yields in
477 Northeast China presented in National Bureau of Statistics of China (2002-2021) and
478 the ratio of straw and grain (Wang et al.,2012)). Note that the annual straw yields have
479 stabilized around 140 Tg since 2017, and this trend is expected to persist for many years
480 to come (**Fig. 7**). From 2003 to 2020, a strong positive correlation was observed
481 between the straw yields and the emissions of CO₂-eq from open straw burning across
482 Northeast China, as well as in Heilongjiang and Jilin provinces ($p < 0.01$, **Table S2**). If
483 looking at individual periods, significant correlations were only observed during
484 **Period I** (2003-2012) for the whole of Northeast China ($p < 0.01$) and Heilongjiang (p
485 < 0.01) (**Table S2**). This highlights that increased straw yields exacerbated the
486 challenges of straw disposal in Northeast China and have been a major contributor to
487 the increase in the emissions of GHGs from open straw burning in the aforementioned
488 region and period.

489

490 Besides open burning, crop straw is also used for cooking and heating in rural
491 households in Northeast China (Ke et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023). Crop straw can also
492 be converted to bioenergy, used as animal feed, and returned to the fields (Alengebawy
493 et al., 2022; Fang et al., 2022). However, exact quantification of straw utilization in
494 different sectors in Northeast China is still lacking (Shi et al., 2023). Knowing that coal
495 combustion and straw burning are major energy sources for rural households in
496 Northeast China, we tried to explore potential changes in straw utilization on open straw
497 burning through coal consumption changes (Fang et al. 2019). The abrupt increase in
498 rural residential coal consumption in 2013 in Northeast China coincided with a spike in
499 CO₂-eq emissions from open straw burning (**Fig. 7(a)**). Furthermore, a significant
500 positive correlation between rural residential coal consumption and CO₂-eq emissions
501 in Northeast China was revealed, especially in Heilongjiang and Jilin provinces (**Table**
502 **S3**). We thus speculate that the increase in rural commercial energy consumption may
503 have reduced the demand for straw as an energy source for agricultural households,
504 thus facilitating the increased open straw burning. This needs to be confirmed in future
505 studies once various straw utilization pathways are quantified.



506

507 **Fig. 7** Annual CO₂-eq emissions, yield of straw, rural residential coal consumption, and straw

508 burning bans in (a) Northeast China, (b) Heilongjiang, (c) Jilin, and (d) Liaoning from 2001 to

509 2020. Note: The range of y-axis is different for each region. The blue y-axis indicates CO₂-eq

510 emissions, with values ranging from 0 to 50 Tg for Northeast China, 0 to 35 Tg for Heilongjiang,
511 0 to 10 Tg for Jilin, and 0 to 6 Tg for Liaoning; the green y-axis indicates yield of straw, with
512 values ranging from 0 to 160 Tg for Northeast China, 0 to 90 Tg for Heilongjiang, 0 to 60 Tg
513 for Jilin, and 0 to 40 Tg for Liaoning; and the red y-axis indicates rural residential coal
514 consumption, with values ranging from 0 to 7 Tg for Northeast China, 0 to 2 Tg for
515 Heilongjiang, 0 to 3 Tg for Jilin, and 0 to 4 Tg for Liaoning.

516

517 We also evaluated the efficacy of straw burning ban policy in Heilongjiang, Jilin, and
518 Liaoning (**Table S4**). Despite the implementation of the policy since 2013 in this region,
519 a significant reduction in CO₂-eq emissions from open straw burning was only observed
520 after 2018 (**Fig. 7**). Compared to the other regions of China, the effective control of
521 open straw burning was delayed by several years in Northeast China (Huang et al.,
522 2021). An important phenomenon was observed regarding the geographical and
523 temporal expansion of the ban policy, e.g., initially focused on key areas and specific
524 seasons (autumn and winter) and progressively extended to the entire region and
525 throughout the whole year (see Heilongjiang Province as an example, **Table S4**).
526 Therefore, enhanced enforcement of the ban policy likely reduced CO₂-eq emissions
527 during **Period III** and shifted the burning season to spring.

528

529 In conclusion, the enforcement of region-specific straw burning bans tailored to
530 spatiotemporal variations is crucial to control GHGs emissions, given the anticipated

531 sustained high straw yields in the future. Additionally, promoting diverse methods for
532 utilizing straw is highlighted as an effective strategy for mitigating carbon emissions
533 resulted from open straw burning in Northeast China. A combined effort on policy
534 enforcement and alternative straw usage would play a pivotal role in addressing the
535 environmental challenges posed by agricultural practices in the region.

536

537 **4 Conclusions**

538 This study provides a comprehensive analysis of the spatiotemporal variations of open
539 straw burning across Northeast China from 2001 to 2020 and develops regional scale
540 high spatial resolution annual emission inventories of GHGs. Open straw burning in
541 Northeast China emitted a total of 218 Tg of CO₂-eq during 2001-2020, of which 19.3%
542 was from **Period I** (2003-2012), 59.9% from **Period II** (2013-2017), and 19.7% from
543 **Period III** (2018-2020). Analysis results demonstrate the necessity of integrating the
544 crop cycle information into the extraction and classification of fire spots from open
545 straw burning to enhance the accuracy of emission inventories of various pollutants.
546 This study also highlights the inconsistencies between the number of fire spots and
547 pollutant emissions caused by remote sensing detection techniques. In Northeast China,
548 regions such as the northern Sanjiang Plain, eastern and northern Songnen Plain, and
549 eastern Liao River Plain are identified as high-emission areas of GHGs from open straw
550 burning, which emitted 38.1, 45.5, 31.9, and 10.8 Tg of CO₂-eq, respectively, during

551 2001-2020. Additionally, it is observed that the season for open straw burning has
552 shifted from autumn to spring, with dispersed burning dates. This spatiotemporal
553 analysis provides crucial insights into policy effectiveness as well as geographical
554 variations regarding compliance with regulations banning open straw burning.
555 Consequently, government policies prohibiting open straw burning should be adjusted
556 according to the observed spatiotemporal variations in different regions.
557 Simultaneously promoting diversified applications of straw, such as bioenergy
558 conversion, animal feeding, and soil amendment, is recommended — a strategy that is
559 aligned with China’s dual-carbon objectives aiming at achieving carbon peak and
560 carbon neutrality.

561

562 **Competing interests**

563 At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Atmospheric
564 Chemistry and Physics.

565

566 **Acknowledgments**

567 This work was supported by the Distinguished Youth Science Foundation of
568 Heilongjiang Province (JQ2023E001) and Young Leading Talents of Northeast
569 Agricultural University (NEAU2023QNLJ-013).

570

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