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35 **Abbreviations**

GIS	Geographical Information Systems
RPR	Residue to product ratio
HI	Harvest index
NBSC	National Bureau of Statistics of China
FAOSTAT	Food and Agriculture Organization statistical database
SE	Soil erosion
SOM	Soil organic matter
RRA	Residue retraining amount

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38 1. Introduction

39 Energy security has been globally acknowledged as a crucial factor for a national development
40 strategy. The rapid growth in global energy consumption has already heightened concerns over
41 supply difficulties, depletion of resources and environmental impacts ^[1]. In recent years, the
42 renewable energy sector has developed rapidly, and bioenergy has been identified as one of the
43 major renewable energy sources ^[2]. The EU has established its renewable energy strategy with
44 the goal of reducing greenhouse gas emissions by 80-95% in 2050 compared with 1990 levels
45 with renewable energy accounting for at least 55% of the gross final energy consumption ^[3].
46 Biomass has been anticipated as a major source of renewable energy. Until 2020, China had
47 installed over 29.5 GW of biomass-based power plants and 13.3 GW of this are powered by
48 agricultural residues, which contribute 51 TWh of power supply a year ^[4]. Despite their
49 availability, agricultural residues cannot be collected from the land without a cost. According
50 to the studies by Monforti et al. ^[5] and Thorenz et al. ^[6], extensive collection of residues from
51 the land might have consequences for the depletion of soil organic matter and nutrients (i.e.,
52 carbon, phosphorus and nitrogen) and soil erosion, affecting soil fertility and environmental
53 sustainability. Therefore, an appropriate collection rate of agricultural residues, that accounts
54 for different geographical areas according to their characteristics, should be identified to meet
55 the essential prerequisites of economic viability and environment protection.

56 The availability of agricultural residues can be generally classified into three categories:
57 theoretical potential, technical potential and sustainable potential ^[6, 7]. The theoretical potential
58 is the maximum annual quantity of biomass that is produced within a certain geographical
59 boundary; this assumes no limitations related to harvesting, economic or environmental
60 constraints ^[8, 9]. The technical potential is a subset of the theoretical potential and represents
61 the amount of biomass that is technically and economically feasible to collect, depending on
62 the type of residue and the efficiency of the harvesting equipment ^[7, 10]. The sustainable

63 potential refers to the residues that can be removed from the field while complying with
64 environmental regulations and preventing any adverse impacts on the land such as soil erosion
65 or the depletion of soil organic matter ^[2]. Various methodological approaches have been
66 applied to estimate crop yield at the regional, national and global scales. The data on crop yield,
67 however, are often insufficient, resulting in large gaps in crop yield estimations ^[11]. The
68 estimation of residue potential relies on an assumption of the relationship between a crop and
69 its residues. One of the most common methods to estimate residues is the residue to product
70 ratio (RPR), which is the residue weight relative to crop weight ^[12]. Another residue estimator
71 is the harvest index (HI), which represents the proportion of crop yield relative to the total
72 aboveground crop production (including straw) ^[2, 13]. It has been widely suggested that the RPR
73 method has an advantage over the HI method ^[14-16] because actual agricultural production
74 might vary substantially between regions. The estimation of residue yield based on national
75 average crop production might result in substantial uncertainty if the scope of the studied area
76 is large, for example, at the national or continental scale. Therefore, an RPR at a local
77 geographical scale is needed to assign a reliable theoretical potential. Besides, the harvestable
78 quantity of residues can be substantially affected by the working capacity of the harvesting
79 equipment. Previous studies have shown that there could be a loss of 15-25% of the total
80 residue during the harvesting process due to limitations of the harvesting equipment ^[17, 18]. For
81 example, Weiser et al. ^[19] estimated the potential agricultural residue in Germany and found
82 that the technical potential is approximately 50% of the theoretical potential.

83 Extensive residue removal can result in both soil erosion (SE) and the loss of soil organic matter
84 (SOM). Returning residues to the field has various benefits such as reducing soil evaporation,
85 improving water infiltration, enhancing soil fertility, and developing rainfall capture capacity
86 and soil porosity ^[20-22]. If agricultural residues are to be collected and utilised in a sustainable
87 manner, the removal of residues must be economically viable without impairing soil health and

88 water quantity ^[23, 24]. SOM maintenance and SE control are two primary targets of residue
89 retention. The control of SE depends on soil properties, rainfall, topographic characteristics
90 and tillage methods ^[25]. To accurately determine the quantity of agricultural residues that
91 should be retained in the field to provide sufficient organic matter for subsequent crops, the
92 removal rate should consider the local soil quality (including both SE and SOM) well into the
93 future. Allmaras and Dowdy ^[26] claimed that 30% residue could prevent 80% of soil erosion.
94 Andrews ^[27] also suggested that to prevent soil erosion, the maximum removal rate should be
95 no more than 30% of the total theoretical potential. However, using such suggested constant
96 value to account for soil health concerns might result in significantly inaccurate estimations of
97 the sustainable potential of agricultural residues, as the quantity of retentive residues for
98 ensuring soil health highly depends on the specific regional soil conditions.

99 In European regions, residues are typically left in the field as the principal source of SOM
100 Scarlat et al. ^[2] estimated agricultural residues from main crops in 36 European countries,
101 which assessed different amount of residues potential by applying geographical information
102 system (GIS), that accounted for the effects of residue removal rates on SOM. However, in
103 regions with intense farming activities such as China, the residues are frequently not returned
104 but instead are burned in the field to rapidly clear the field for further land preparation and
105 planting ^[27, 28]. Liang et al. ^[29] investigated SOM concentrations in China and developed a SOM
106 model based on environmental factors such as soil forming factors, local climate and vegetation
107 and determined that the highest SOM values (over 6%) were found in southwestern and north-
108 eastern China, whereas the Northwest had the lowest SOM content. In that study, 2% SOM
109 was set as a baseline for the evaluation of sustainable potential. Due to the local differences,
110 an improved residue removal model is required, with the inclusion of additional parameters
111 such as soil erosion and soil condition, weather conditions, as well as residue losses and
112 moisture content ^[30]. Ultimately, a gap in the existing literature exists in approaches that

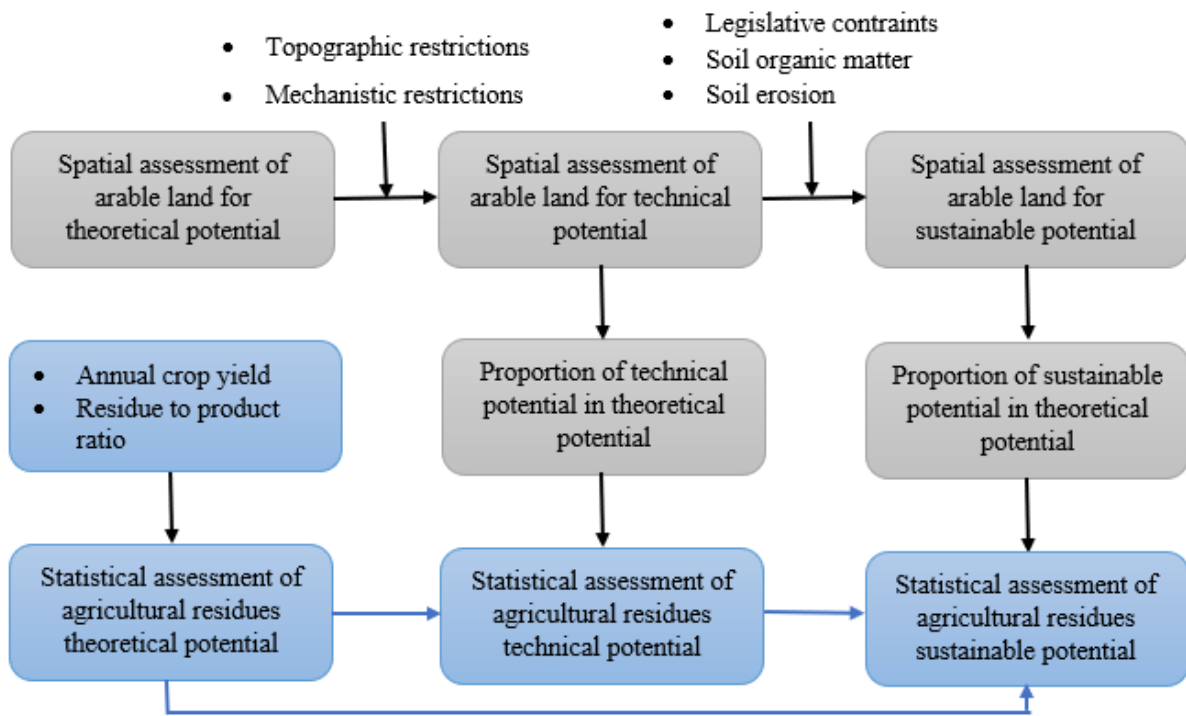
113 collectively consider both local SE and SOM in assessing the sustainable agricultural residue
114 potential, at a higher level of geographical granularity. Furthermore, the evaluation of
115 agricultural residues potential in China has been mostly focusing on the theoretical potential
116 up to now, without in-depth analyses of practical harvesting and environmental restrictions.
117 Aiming to address the identified gaps, this work proposes a novel GIS-based approach for
118 estimating the sustainable potential of agricultural residues at a high geographical granularity
119 level, considering simultaneously both SE and SOM environmental restrictions in the process.
120 The proposed approach is applied for the case of China, where there is a lack of sustainable
121 potential assessment, allowing a comprehensive assessment of the sustainable agricultural
122 residues potential against the theoretical and technical potential. A precise sustainable
123 harvesting rate has been adopted that reflects the regional crop growth differences (i.e., the
124 regional annual crop production and the regional residue-to-product ratios), considers local
125 topographic and legislative conditions, and accounts for integrated regional environmental
126 restrictions (i.e., SOM and SE) for the first time to evaluate the overall sustainable potential of
127 agricultural residues. In this work, GIS is employed as a decision support system for analysing
128 spatially referenced data, to distinguish the relationships among the disparate data layers, and
129 thus account for topographic and environmental restrictions for the determination of the
130 sustainable potential of agricultural residues in China.

131 **2. Methodology**

132 In this study, a stepwise approach was applied to evaluate agricultural residue potentials. The
133 theoretical potential of agricultural residues was estimated based on the regional annual crop
134 production (CP) and the RPR. To estimate the technical potential of agricultural residues, a
135 spatial technical potential layer was created by splitting the arable land layer from the land
136 cover layer based on GIS data (ArcMap 10.7, provided by Esri) integrated with restrictions on
137 residue collection (the topographic layer from the landform type layer) according to

138 mechanistic capability. This identified the technical potential area. By comparing the technical
139 potential area with the original arable land, the proportion of technical potential was
140 determined. The technical potential of agricultural residues is estimated by multiplying the
141 theoretical agricultural residue by the proportion of technical potential.

142 The sustainable potential was calculated based on the proportion of the theoretical potential
143 layer in the sustainable potential layer. Arable land from the technical potential spatial layer
144 that did not comply with legislative regulations was not included in the sustainable potential
145 spatial layer. The amount of agricultural residue in the sustainable potential spatial layer can
146 be calculated by multiplying the proportion of the sustainable potential layer by the theoretical
147 potential. The arable land distribution and area under various soil erosion and soil organic
148 matter classifications in the technical potential spatial layer were identified and calculated. The
149 retention rate of residues for individual soil erosion and soil organic matter classifications was
150 guided by a literature review. The total amount of retained residues within the sustainable
151 potential layer was then calculated using the various retention rates and their areas. The
152 sustainable potential was calculated based on the total residue in the sustainable potential
153 spatial layer and the amount of residue retained. Fig. 1 illustrates the methodological approach
154 adopted in this study and the relationships among theoretical, technical and sustainable
155 potentials.



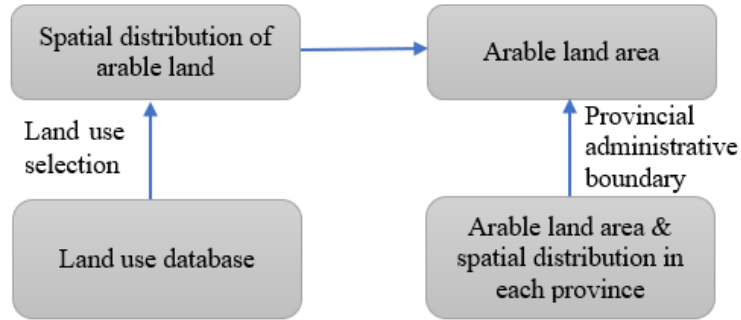
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Fig. 1. Process of agricultural residue assessment.

158 **2.1 Arable land area determination**

159 The framework of the integrated GIS-based modelling approach is presented in Fig. 2. The
 160 ArcMap 10.6 (an Esri software package) module builder and built-in tools were employed to
 161 perform the GIS analysis. The framework for the spatial assessment of arable land included
 162 three main approaches. The first step was land cover transformation, classification and
 163 mapping. A land use map layer was converted from a raster file to a polygon file to calculate
 164 the area of land use. The arable land spatial layer was created by splitting out the corresponding
 165 land class from the land use spatial layer. Next, the spatial tool in ArcGIS was used to analyse
 166 the resulting arable land layer area; this was compared with statistical data to evaluate its
 167 accuracy. Finally, the arable land distribution spatial layer and provincial administrative
 168 boundary spatial layer were overlain to generate the arable land distribution by region.



169

170

Fig. 2. The process of determining residue potential.

171 **2.2 Theoretical potential assessment method**

172 The theoretical potential of agricultural residues can be estimated from the regional annual crop
 173 production of each crop species i and the local residue-to-production ratio $RPR(i, j)$ using the
 174 following equation:

175
$$RP = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n CP(i, j) * RPR(i, j) \quad (1)$$

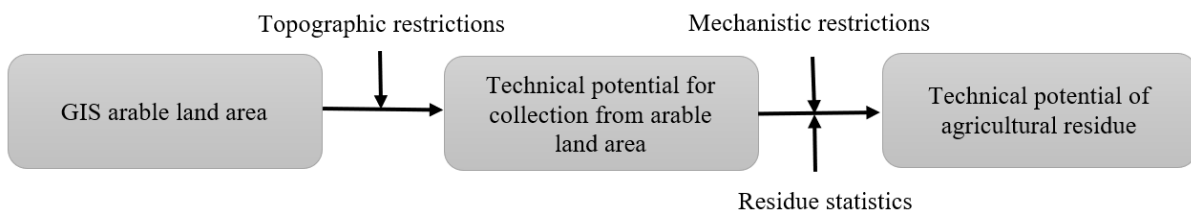
176 where $CP(i, j)$ is the annual production of crop species i in province j and $RPR(i, j)$ is the
 177 residue-to-production ratio of crop species i in province j .

178

179 **2.3 Technical potential assessment method**

180 The technical potential of agricultural biomass was estimated based on topographic restrictions,
 181 the working capability of the harvesting machinery and the statistics for theoretical potential.

182 A detailed flow chart is presented in Fig. 3.



183

184

Fig. 3. Process of residues technical potential for power generation

185 The assessment of technical potential can be divided into two stages: the establishment of the
186 technical potential arable land spatial layer and the area calculation. The arable land area in the
187 technical potential spatial layer was established based on an area-weighting method, which
188 combined arable land and topographic restrictions. First, the spatial topographic layer was
189 collected in a raster format and converted to a polygon format to calculate the area of arable
190 land. Second, the topographic layer was selected and created. Areas with a steep slope ($> 15^\circ$)
191 were split from the technical potential topographic layer because of severe soil erosion and the
192 difficulty of harvesting. The arable land spatial layer was then overlain with the topographic
193 layer. Once the arable land spatial layer was established, the arable land distribution and area
194 with gentle slopes ($\leq 15^\circ$ for mechanised harvesting), representing the technical potential,
195 were calculated.

196 Once the area of arable land meeting technical potential requirements was calculated, the
197 proportion of the theoretical potential that had technical potential was estimated. Due to limits
198 on the operation of the collection machinery, a collection rate of 80% was applied based on the
199 average values from the literature ^[2, 17]. The quantity of residue with technical potential can be
200 calculated from the proportion of technical potential arable area, the theoretical potential and
201 the collection rate.

202 **2.4 Sustainable potential assessment method**

203 The sustainable potential has been estimated as the amount of residue that can be collected
204 without soil erosion, loss of fertility and violation of legislative regulations. To obtain the
205 amount of residue with sustainable potential, it was first ensured that the arable land was not
206 subject to legislative restrictions. Legislative regulations require a protected area with a radius
207 of 500 m around a water body. Within this area, work activities in any type are prohibited ^[31].
208 Therefore, the arable land spatial layer with technical potential was overlain with a 500 m area
209 around water bodies to create an arable land spatial layer that included legislative regulations.

210 Second, to address soil erosion control, the soil erosion is classified as ‘weak’ ‘mild’
 211 ‘moderate’ ‘intense’ ‘strong’ and ‘severe’ in most Countries, regarding to its assessment
 212 system. Based on regulations regarding water and soil conservation^[32], areas under ‘intense’,
 213 ‘strong’ and ‘severe’ soil erosion are not recommended for farming activities. Thus, to obtain
 214 reliable data, the erosion classifications of ‘weak’, ‘mild’ and ‘moderate’ were included in this
 215 study, and the classifications of ‘intense’, ‘strong’ and ‘severe’ as restriction criteria were not
 216 included. To determine the arable land area under the individual erosion types (weak, mild and
 217 moderate SE) and its spatial distribution, the arable land area of each class of soil erosion was
 218 overlain with arable land from the technical potential layer with legislative restrictions. The
 219 amount of residue cover required for soil erosion control was dependent on the erosion grade.
 220 Researchers have agreed that 90% soil loss control can be considered adequate erosion control
 221 ^[21, 27, 33]. The amount of residue cover applied in the GIS model is displayed in Table 1.

222 Table 1. Residue retention standards for different soil erosion classes ^[27, 33, 34]

Soil erosion classification	Amount of mulch (t/km²/year)
Weak	200
Mild	200
Moderate	300

223
 224 Third, the area of SOM classifications and its retention rate were assessed. SOM plays a crucial
 225 role in maintaining soil fertility for sustainable agriculture. Various studies have suggested that
 226 the sustainable removal rate of residues ranges from 20% to 40%. Moreover, 2% SOM has
 227 been recommended by various researchers as a reasonable criterion for maintaining the SOM
 228 balance in agriculture ^[21, 35, 36]. There is no doubt that not all arable land can achieve a SOM
 229 content of 2%. Thus, the residue retention rate (RRR) was calculated using Equations (2) and
 230 (3) ^[20] to tailor this value to local conditions.

231 If the SOM content in the topsoil (20 cm) is lower than 2%,

232 $RRR_{SOM}=80\%$ of residue production (2)

233 and if the SOM content in the topsoil (20 cm) is higher than 2%,

234 $RRR_{SOM}=60\%$ of residue production (3)

235 To acquire reliable data, the regional distribution of SOM concentration was analysed and data
236 were introduced from Liu ^[37]. Thus, the amount of sustainable removal residue can be
237 calculated.

238 SE and SOM are two criteria for soil health and soil fertility. To estimate the sustainable
239 potential of agricultural residues, it is necessary for the retained residue to meet the maximum
240 requirements of amount of residue retained both for SE and SOM. The total residue retained
241 for SE and SOM were calculated and compared and the maximum retained amount was
242 selecting as the sustainable residue retention. The difference between technical potential,
243 legislative regulations and residue retention is the sustainable potential of the agricultural
244 residue.

245 The total amount of retained residue is dependent on the properties of the land (soil erosion
246 classification and SOM content) and the applied specific residue retention amount (RRA)
247 (using the larger value) was based on Equations (4) and (5).

248 If $RRA_{SOM} > RRA_{SE}$:

249 $RRA = RRA_{SOM}$ (4)

250 If $RRA_{SE} > RRA_{SOM}$:

251 $RRA = RRA_{SE}$ (5)

252 Thus, the amount of residue with sustainable potential was the difference between the total
253 amount of residue with technical potential under legislative regulations and the amount of
254 residue retained.

255 **3. Results and Discussions: A Case Study of China**

256 **3.1 Data collections and input**

257 *Statistical data.* As stated before in Section 3.2, the annual crop production and residue-to-
258 production ratio were two main factors for the estimation of the residues theoretical potential.
259 As China is a large agricultural country, the types of crops and their annual productions vary
260 in different regions. To access the latest data, annual crop productions were obtained from each
261 province or municipality subordinate statistics bureau, which are part of the National Bureau
262 of Statistics of China (NBSC). Due to the inaccessibility of the websites of subordinate
263 statistics bureaus (Hubei, Hebei, Yunnan, Tibet, Ningxia and Qinghai provinces), some of the
264 data were collected directly from the NBSC's Statistical Yearbook ^[38]; the data from 16
265 provinces or municipalities were acquired for the year 2016, and the remaining regions used
266 the most recent accessible online data (2015).

267 In this work, region-specific RPR is applied for each crop due to no overall RPR data available
268 to represent the major crops in China. The region-specific RPR data for the major crops are
269 summarised in Table 2, including the most common cereals (wheat, corn, rice, millet and
270 sorghum), root crops (tubers), oil crops (peanuts, sunflower, sesame and rape straw) and fibre
271 plants (cotton and other fibre crops). Table 2 shows the RPRs for 6 major regions in China:
272 Northeast (Liaoning, Jilin and Heilongjiang), North China (Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Shanxi,
273 Inner Mongolia, Shandong and Henan), the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River
274 (Shanghai, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Anhui, Jiangxi, Hubei and Hunan), Northwest (Shaanxi, Gansu,

275 Qinghai, Ningxia and Xinjiang), Southwest (Chongqing, Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan and Tibet)
 276 and South (Fujian, Guangdong, Guangxi, Hainan).

277 Table 2. RPRs for the major agricultural residues.

	Northeast	North	Middle and lower reaches of Yangtze River	Northwest	Southwest	South	Ref.
Wheat	0.93	1.34	1.38	1.23	1.31	1.38	[39]
Corn	1.86	1.73	2.05	1.52	1.29	1.32	[39, 40]
Sorghum	1.60	1.60	1.60	1.60	1.60	1.60	[41-43]
Rice	0.97	0.93	1.28	1.03	1	1.06	[39, 40]
Millet	1.42	1.45	1.66	1.35	1.72	1.66	[39, 40]
Peanuts	1.50	1.22	1.50	1.33	1.20	1.65	[39, 40]
Rapeseed	-	-	2.05	2.34	2.00	-	[39]
Sunflower	2.74	2.16	2.10	1.92	2.10	2.10	[39]
Tubers	0.71	1.00	1.16	1.07	1.05	1.41	[39]
Beans	1.70	1.57	1.68	1.07	1.05	1.08	[39]
Sesame	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	[42-44]
Cotton	-	3.99	3.32	3.67	-	-	[39, 40]

278 Note: The RPR of crop species was calculated on an air-dried basis with 15% moisture ^[39].

279 **GIS-related data.** A stepwise approach has been clearly illustrated in methodology, the spatial
 280 data for GIS modelling is classified as: land cover, administrative boundary, landform type,
 281 and soil erosion, as detailed in Table 3.

282 Table 3. Spatial data for GIS modelling.

Category	Description	File type	Ref.
Land cover	Remote sensing monitoring data on China's land use status	Raster 1 km × 1 km	[45]
Administrative boundary	China Provincial Administrative Boundary Data	Polygon 1 km × 1 km	[46]
Landform type	Spatial distribution data on landform types in China (1:1 million)	Raster 1 km × 1 km	[47]
Soil erosion	Spatial distribution data on soil erosion in China	Raster 1 km × 1 km	[48]

283 Due to spatial resolution issues related to layer accessibility, the creation of an arable land
 284 distribution spatial layer was based on the land use database and Chinese provincial
 285 administrative boundary data at a high spatial resolution (1 km × 1 km). These data came from
 286 the Resource and Environment Data Cloud Platform of the Institute of Geographic Sciences
 287 and Natural Resources Research ^[45, 46]. The soil erosion data were collected from the Resource
 288 and Environment Data Cloud Platform of China ^[48]. The classifications and GIS codes for soil
 289 erosion are presented in Table 4 and Table 5, respectively.

290 Table 4. Soil erosion classification.

Soil erosion classification	Average erosion (t/km ² /year)			Soil loss thickness (mm/year)
	Water erosion	Wind erosion	Freeze-thaw erosion	
Weak	<200	<500	<1000	<0.15, 0.37, 0.74
Mild	200	500	1000	0.15, 0.37, 0.74
Moderate		2500-5000		1.9-3.7
Intense		5000-8000		3.7-5.9
Strong		8000-15000		5.9-11.1
Severe		>15000		>11.1

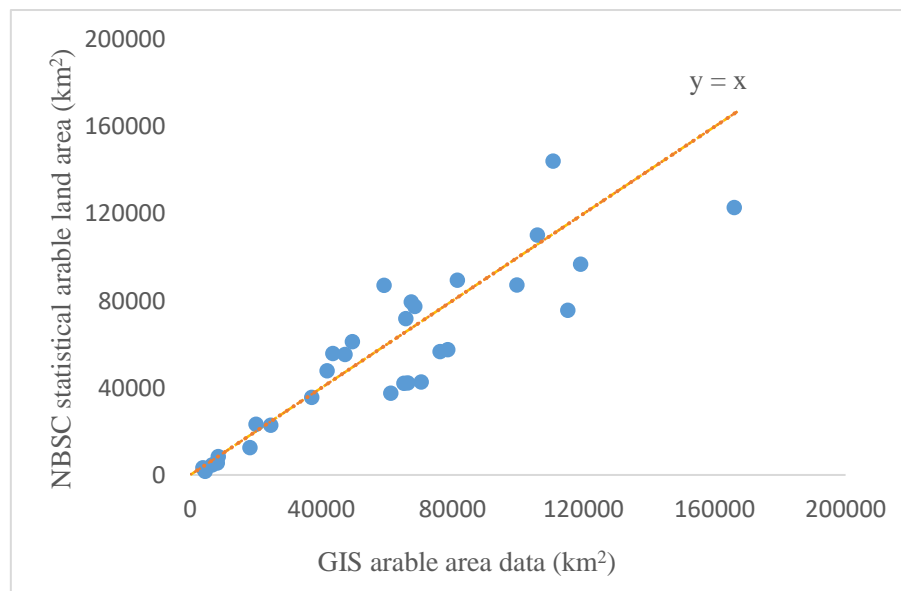
291 Table 5. GIS code for soil erosion.

	Soil erosion classification					
	Weak	Mild	Moderate	Intense	Strong	Severe
Water erosion	11	12	13	14	15	16
Wind erosion	21	22	23	24	25	26
Freeze-thaw erosion	31	32	33	34	-	-

294 3.2 Validation of the arable land spatial layer data source

295 The statistical data from the National Bureau of Statistics of China (NBSC) on annual crop
 296 production and the area of arable land were compared with the Food and Agriculture
 297 Organization statistical database (FAOSTAT) ^[49]. It was found that in China, 1658064 km²
 298 was defined as arable land in 2015, which closely matches the figure of 1663738 km² from the
 299 NBSC ^[50]. However, the statistics on crop production from FAOSTAT and NBSC differed:
 300 623.19 Mt was reported by FAOSTAT ^[51] versus 660.60 Mt reported by NBSC ^[38]; this

301 difference of 5.67% indicated that the data were reasonably reliable. This comparison was
 302 followed by an evaluation of the spatial data. There are two primary errors in GIS mapping:
 303 the classification of land cover and the area of a specific land use. Land cover misclassification
 304 typically has a high probability in GIS mapping ^[9]. For example, grassland is misclassified as
 305 arable land. Simultaneously, inadequate spatial resolution might overestimate or underestimate
 306 the specific land area. To assess the reliability of the GIS mapping data, a single indicator
 307 (arable land) analysis was conducted. The accuracy of the GIS mapping for the area of arable
 308 land was evaluated using statistical data from NBSC as a reference. The comparison between
 309 the NBSC statistical data and the GIS data are presented in Fig. 4.



310
 311 Fig. 4. The arable land difference of NBSC statistical and GIS data of 31 provinces in China.

312 Fig. 4 shows that the deviation of GIS data on arable land area in each province from the
 313 statistical data ranged from 1.74% and 72.73% (deviation= [statistical data-spatial
 314 data]/statistical data). To justify the quality of the overall land cover map, a confusion matrix
 315 and Cohen's Kappa index were introduced. The confusion matrix is the most common method
 316 used to evaluate the overall accuracy of GIS map classifications ^[52-54]. The principle of the
 317 confusion matrix is that cells selected based on the GIS mapping classification are compared

318 with reference data (the actual classification). The confusion matrix contains the predicted class
 319 (plot) and the actual class (reference plot). The predicted plot data were selected and covered
 320 the most common land use types (agriculture, forest, water and urban) in the GIS map to acquire
 321 an unbiased estimation. The reference plot data were visually assessed and divided into a
 322 corresponding classification. The confusion matrix was produced by comparing the predicted
 323 plot data from GIS layer and the reference plot data to determine the overall accuracy of the
 324 GIS maps.

325 Cohen's Kappa index can be used to measure the classification accuracy, which is derived from
 326 the confusion matrix ^[9, 55]. The Kappa index compensates for the effect of differences in class
 327 sizes in the sampled data and are more reliable than a single indicator analysis. The Kappa
 328 index is expressed in Equation 6:

$$329 \quad k = (P_o - P_e)/(1 - P_e) \quad (6)$$

330 where P_o is the total number of correct predictions of classification in the reference plot (total
 331 classification accuracy) and P_e is the proportion of the reference plot correctly predicted by
 332 chance under the assumption of independence. A higher Kappa index value indicates better
 333 spatial classification. The evaluation standard is presented in Table 6 ^[56].

334 Table 6 Cohen's Kappa index assessment ^[56].

Kappa index	Strength of agreement
<0.00	Poor
0.00-0.20	Slight
0.21-0.40	Fair
0.41-0.60	Moderate
0.61-0.80	Substantial
0.81-1.00	Almost perfect

335 In this study, 323 plots were selected to analyse the accuracy of the GIS assessment against
 336 visual observations, including 149 agricultural lands, 99 forest lands, 52 water areas and 23
 337 urban areas. The results are shown in Table 7. The overall accuracy of land use classification

338 for the 323 plots was over 81% and Cohen's Kappa index was 0.73, which indicates that the
 339 layer exhibits satisfactory classification and high quality. However, despite the high accuracy
 340 of land use classification, arable land cover is more difficult to classify, due to the low accuracy
 341 of arable land recognition algorithm. Beyond that, two main reasons which could affect arable
 342 land accuracy are the large object sample and the land cover GIS data updating manner. The
 343 main research object was arable land, which accounts 46% of total samples. From the aspect
 344 of statistics, larger sample means higher probability of failure. On the other hand, with the
 345 development of urbanization, arable land might occupy by other functions, which increased
 346 accuracy of arable land recognition on GIS.

347 Table 7. Assessment of the GIS land use layer

Land type	Total plots assessed by GIS	Actual plots checked by visual observation				Accuracy* (%)	Cohen's Kappa index
		Agriculture	Forest	Water	Urban		
Agriculture	149	98	28	2	21	65.77	0.73
Forest	99	3	93	3	0	93.94	
Water	52	2	0	49	1	94.23	
Urban	23	1	0	0	22	95.65	

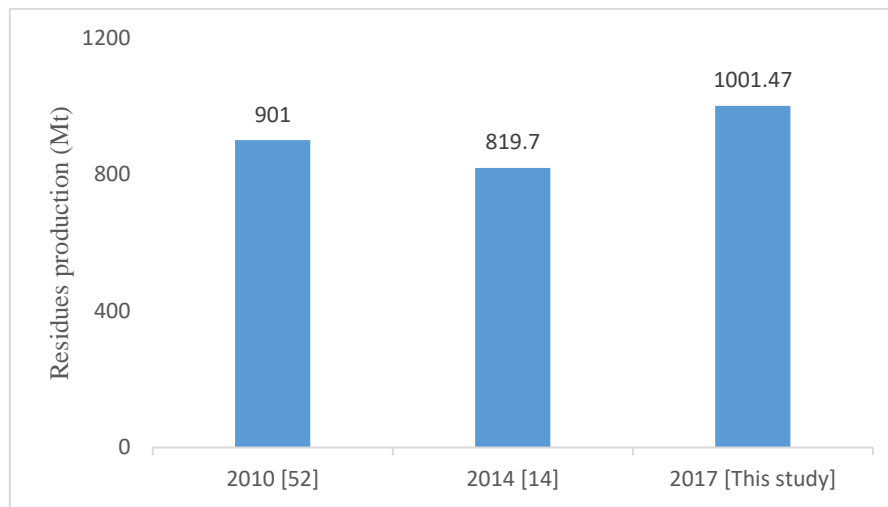
348 *Accuracy = the number of plots with agreement between GIS and visual inspection/total number of assessed
 349 plots.

350 3.3 Theoretical potential of agricultural residues in China

351 3.3.1 Agricultural residue production and characterization

352 It was estimated that 1001.47 Mt of residue (air-dried, 15% moisture) were produced in 2017,
 353 which is slightly higher than the value of 901 Mt determined by Liu and Li ^[40] in 2010 and
 354 819.7 Mt determined by Jia et al. ^[41] in 2014 (Fig. 5). From 2010 to 2017, crop production rose
 355 from 559.1 Mt/year to 661.6 Mt/year, which represents an increase of 18.3% ^[57]. The total
 356 amount of residue rose from 901 Mt in 2010 to 1001.47 Mt in 2017, which represents an
 357 increase of 11.2%. Thus, the residue result is in consistent with other sources. The agricultural
 358 residue decreased in 2014 because the researchers applied an outdated RPR value. In regards
 359 to the distribution of crop residue, cereal residues (corn, rice, wheat, sorghum and millet)
 360 showed the highest potential with approximately 864.13 Mt of residue (86.27% of the total).

361 The most promising crop residue was corn stalks, which contributed the majority of the
 362 agricultural residue with 440.64 Mt, representing 44% of the total (Table 8). The second and
 363 third largest residues were rice straw and wheat straw, which represented 24.11% and 17.62%
 364 of the total residue, respectively. Cereal residues were followed by oil crop residues, which
 365 accounted for 5.55% of the total agricultural residue in China. The detailed data and references
 366 are presented in Table A.1 in the Supplementary document.



367

368 Fig. 5. Theoretical potentials of agricultural residues in China

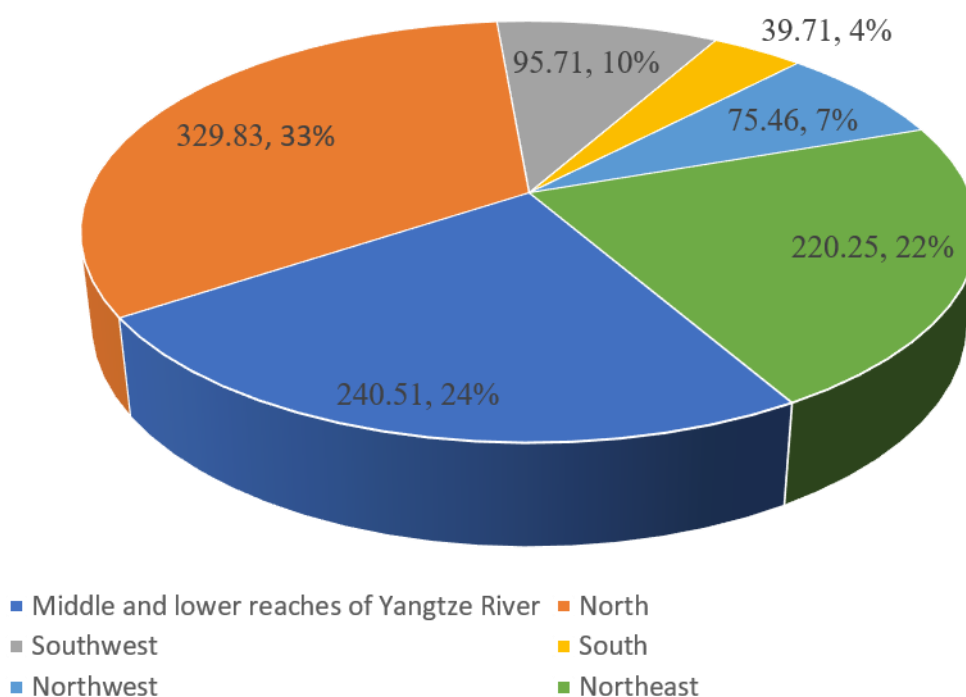
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Table 8. Distribution of theoretical potential of crop residues

	Residues (Mt/year)	(%)
Corn	440.64	44.00
Rice	241.45	24.11
Wheat	176.46	17.62
Tubers	30.47	3.04
Beans	28.13	2.81
Rapeseed	27.05	2.70
Cotton	23.15	2.31
Peanuts	21.71	2.17
Sunflower	4.62	0.46
Sorghum	3.22	0.32
Millet	2.36	0.24
Sesame	2.19	0.22
Total	1001.47	100

370 3.3.2 Spatial distribution of agricultural residue potential in China

371 There were significant regional differences in agricultural residue potential (Fig. 6). These
372 differences were influenced by local environment, economic development, topography and
373 agricultural production. The agricultural residue resources were primarily located in the North,
374 the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River and north-eastern China. Those three
375 districts accounted for over 79% of the residue resource. Among these, North China was the
376 most promising district, producing 329.83 Mt of agricultural residue per year (33% of total).
377 South China produced the smallest fraction of the residue.



378

379 Fig. 6. Spatial distribution of theoretical potential of agricultural residues.

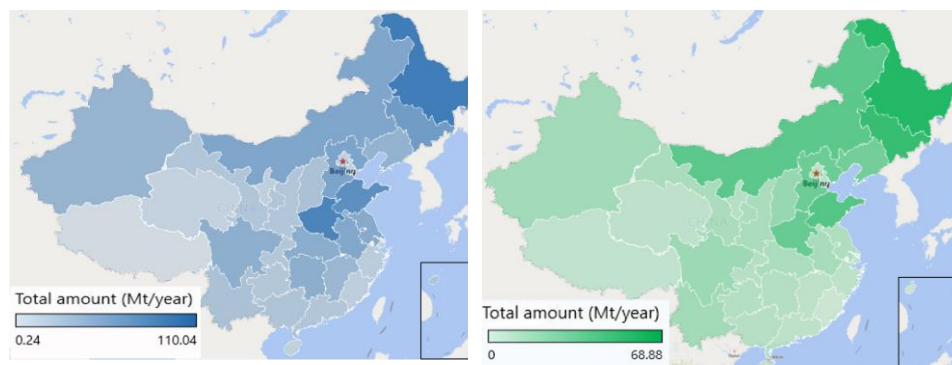
380 From Fig. 7 and Table 9, it can be seen that the agricultural residue is primarily found in the
381 North of China, particularly in Heilongjiang, Henan and Shandong Provinces, which accounted
382 for 110.04, 100.65 and 86.48 Mt, respectively. One of the main reasons for the high level of
383 residue in these areas is the widespread cultivation of corn. As a C4 photosynthetic species,
384 corn stalks have a higher residue yield^[17], which is almost twice the weight of the grain.

385 The production of corn stalks is concentrated in northern China, particularly in the Northeast,
 386 which includes Heilongjiang, Jilin and Shandong Provinces and accounts for 39.8% of the total
 387 amount of corn stalks (Fig. 7). Rice requires large amounts of water to supply its growth;
 388 southern China has abundant rain, which creates an appropriate growth environment for rice.
 389 Thus, rice straw is concentrated in southern China, particularly in the Southwest in areas such
 390 as Hunan, Jiangxi and Hubei (which accounted for 36.0% of the total rice straw residue). The
 391 climate contributes to abundant water resources and high-quality soil resources in
 392 Heilongjiang, which make it a satisfactory source of rice straw (27.35 Mt per year, 11.3%).
 393 Wheat is a traditional food source in northern China. Thus, the wheat straw residues are higher
 394 in northern China than in other regions. The wheat straw resources were high in Henan,
 395 Shandong and Hebei (28.1%, 18.9% and 11.4%, respectively).

396 Table 9. Theoretical potential of agricultural residues in the top 10 provinces.

Province	Theoretical potential (Mt/year)	(%)
Heilongjiang	110.04	10.99
Henan	100.65	10.05
Shandong	86.48	8.64
Jilin	70.25	7.01
Hebei	59.72	5.96
Inner Mongolia	56.58	5.65
Anhui	54.10	5.40
Jiangsu	50.13	5.01
Hubei	46.86	4.68
Hunan	45.71	4.56

397



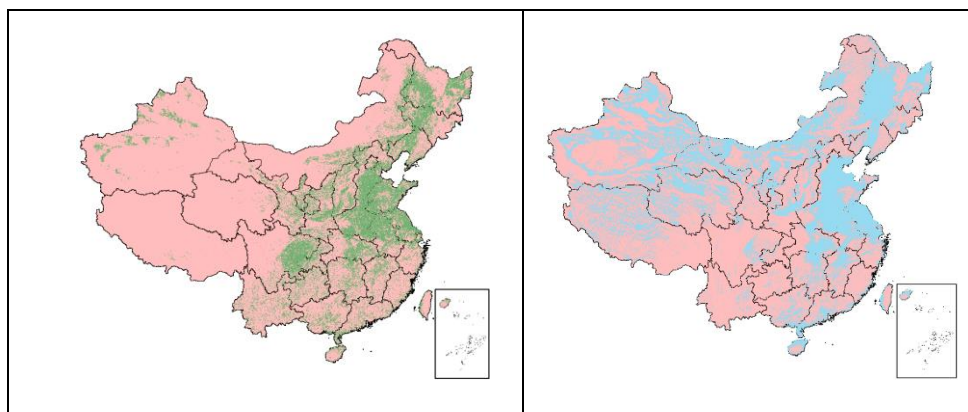


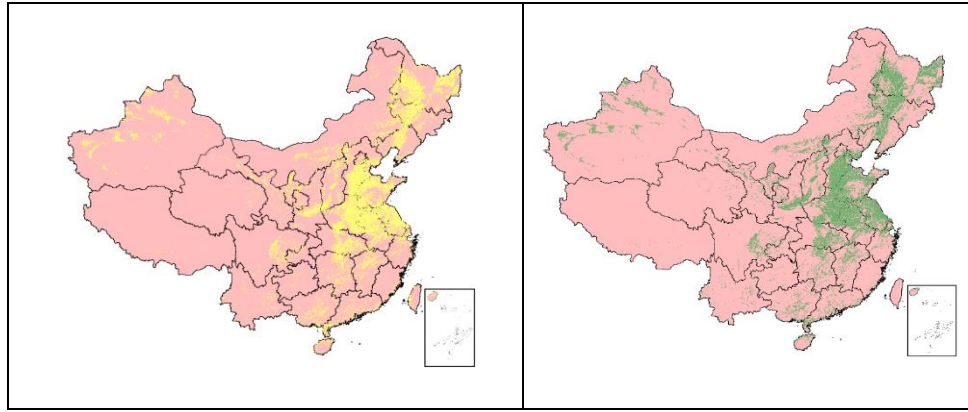
398 Fig. 7. Top left, (a) distribution of total agricultural residue potential; top right, (b) corn stalk
 399 distribution; bottom left, (c) rice straw distribution; bottom right, (d) wheat straw distribution.

400 3.4 Technical potential of agricultural residues in China

401 The assessment of the technical potential of agricultural residues was performed in 2 steps.
 402 First, the collectable technical potential in the arable land spatial layer was evaluated based on
 403 the slope of the land using GIS data. This was followed by the introduction of statistical data
 404 on economically available arable land to determine the technical potential of the residue.

405 The green area in Fig. 8 (a) shows the arable area in China. Due to the influence of local climate
 406 and precipitation centred in the east, the arable land was concentrated in eastern China.
 407 However, topography was another constraint on the distribution of arable land. Mechanised
 408 harvesting can occur on gentle slopes; in Fig 8 (b), the major of the gently sloping land is
 409 located in North and Northeast China, which results in a higher level of crop production and
 410 residue potential. The available collecting area was generated by considering both the
 411 distribution of arable land and the topographic distribution, which is illustrated in Fig. 8 (c).





412 Fig. 8. Top left, (a) distribution of arable land in China; top right, (b) distribution of gentle
 413 slopes; bottom left, (c) available arable land under topographic restrictions; bottom right, (d)
 414 distribution of arable land under legislative regulations.

415

416 Of the total arable land, 64% (1070020 km²) was identified as having technical potential (Table
 417 10). The remaining 36% of arable land was not considered in this study due to the steep slope
 418 and the resulting difficulty in collecting residues. Due to the heterogeneity in topography, the
 419 distribution of arable land in each province may differ. Thus, the amount of residue depends
 420 on the economically available arable land area. The technical potential of residues under
 421 available arable land was 707.28 Mt per year, which accounts for 70.62% of the total residue.
 422 The detailed arable land availability and its residue potential for each province is presented in
 423 Table A.2 of the Supplementary document. As previously mentioned, the collection capability
 424 was set at 80% of residue that can be collected from the field, which results in 565.82 Mt of
 425 residue that can be collected on an annual basis. The remaining 20% is left in the field as
 426 fertilizer.

427

Table 10. The technical potential of agricultural residue in China.

	Arable land size (km ²)	Residues potential (Mt/year)
Total arable land (theoretical potential)	1663738	1001.47
Arable land under technical potential restrictions	1070019	707.28
Residue technical potential (80%)	-	565.82

428

429 3.5 Sustainable potential of agricultural residues in China

430 In this section, the arable land that also meets the environmental restrictions is calculated.

431 Because soil erosion and SOM were introduced as restrictions via GIS, the sustainable potential
432 of the residue was lower than the technical potential.

433 3.5.1 Arable land with legislative regulations (water protection areas)

434 Fig. 8 (d) shows the distribution of available arable land under legislative regulations, which
435 require harvesting activity to be at least 500 m away from any water body. To satisfy this
436 regulation, the arable land was further reduced from 1070020 km² to 1060092 km², and the
437 amount of residue decreased by approximately 0.83% from 565.82 Mt to 561.15 Mt per year
438 (Table 11). The arable land in the individual provinces is presented in Table A.3 of the
439 Supplementary document.

440 Table 11. Residues with sustainable potential under legal regulations.

	Arable land size (km²)	Residues potential (Mt/year)
Technical potential	1070020	565.82
Under regulation	1060092	561.15

441 3.5.2 Arable land with soil erosion



442 Fig. 9. Left, (a) arable land under weak soil erosion conditions; middle, (b) arable land under
443 mild soil erosion conditions; right, (c) arable land under moderate soil erosion conditions.

444 The spatial distribution of soil erosion and the statistics on arable land soil erosion were
445 determined and are shown in Fig. 9 and Table 12. Over 97.7% of the arable land under
446 legislative regulation was considered environmentally friendly, which represents

447 approximately 1035844 km². Of this area, 887140 km² of arable land was located in areas with
 448 weak soil erosion and produced 465.51 Mt of residues annually, and 93566 km² was located in
 449 areas with mild soil erosion and produced 53.24 Mt of residues per year; 30.62 Mt of residue
 450 was produced annually on 55139 km² of arable land with moderate erosion.

451 Table 12. Soil erosion for arable land and corresponding residue potential.

	Arable land size (km ²)	Residues potential (Mt/year)
Weak soil erosion	887140	465.51
Mild soil erosion	93566	53.24
Moderate soil erosion	55139	30.62
Total	1035844	549.37
Under legislative regulation	1060092	561.15

452

453 To prevent soil erosion, mulch is applied to arable land. For land that is defined as having weak
 454 or mild soil erosion, 200 t of residue needs to be returned to the field per square kilometre. For
 455 moderate soil erosion, the quantity of residue is 300 t. A total of 20% of residue is returned to
 456 the field as a result of the operation of the harvesting machinery; the additional amount of
 457 residue that needs to be returned is presented in Table 13. To prevent soil erosion, 212.68 Mt
 458 of residue is required each year, of which 177.43 Mt is baseline mulching to prevent weak soil
 459 erosion. For mild and moderate soil erosion, the total amount of residue was less than that for
 460 weak soil erosion because of smaller area of arable land in these erosion classes (18.71 and
 461 16.54 Mt, respectively). Therefore, the total available residue potential under soil erosion
 462 conditions was 336.69 Mt annually.

463 Table 13. Residue potential and requirements under soil erosion.

	Arable land area (km ²)	Residues potential (Mt/year)	Residues left in field (Mt/year)	Total residues required for mulching (Mt/year)	Deficits (Mt/year)	Available residues (Mt/year)
Weak soil erosion	887140	465.51	116.38	177.43	61.05	288.08

Mild soil erosion	93566	53.24	13.31	18.71	5.40	34.53
Moderate soil erosion	55139	30.62	7.66	16.54	8.89	14.08
Total	1035844	549.37	137.35	212.68	75.34	336.69

464

465 3.5.3 Arable land with adequate soil organic matter (SOM)

466 To maintain soil fertility and SOM balance, residues must be returned to the soil. As mentioned
467 previously, an accepted value for SOM ranges between 1% and 3% as a sustainable standard,
468 and the 2% SOM selected in this study is within this range. Approximately 84.6% of the arable
469 land available for collection was assessed a SOM value of less than 2%, which represents
470 406.26 Mt of residue per year; therefore, 143.2 of the 561.15 Mt of residue is available for
471 another use, as shown in Table 14.

472

Table 14. Residues potential and requirements for SOM.

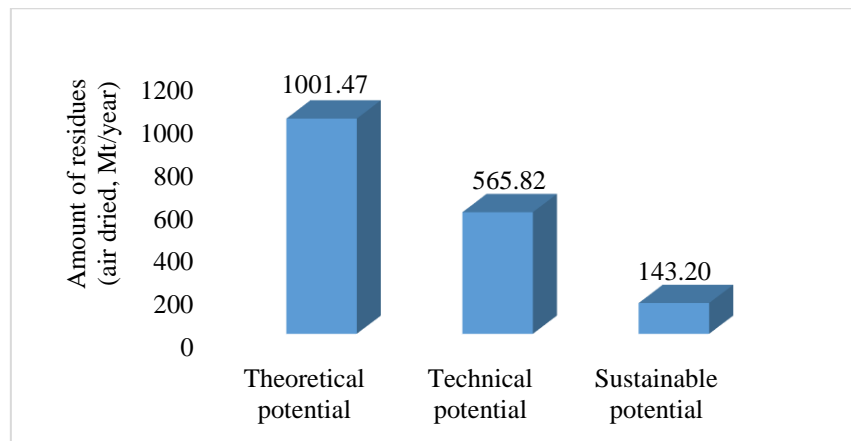
	Arable land area (km ²)	Residues returned to field (Mt/year)	Residue availability (Mt/year)
SOM ≥ 2%	162913	92.93	61.95
SOM < 2%	897179	325.01	81.25
Total	1060092	417.94	143.2

473 SOM and SE are two critical factors for soil fertility. Sustainable residue removal should meet
474 both SOM and SE requirements. Because the amount of residue retained for SOM is higher
475 than that for SE, the residue availability under SOM requirements can be considered the
476 sustainable potential of the agricultural residue. Thus, the agricultural residue with sustainable
477 potential in China was 143.2 Mt annually, which is 14.3% of the theoretical potential and
478 25.3% of the technical potential.

479 3.6 The sustainable potential of agricultural residue for green power

480 This study assessed the potential of agricultural residue in China, which includes the theoretical
481 potential, technical potential and sustainable potential. In 2017, the theoretical potential was

482 10001.47 Mt agricultural residue, and the technical potential was 565.82 Mt, which is
483 approximately 56.5% of the theoretical potential. To ensure environmental sustainability, the
484 sustainable potential was downsized to 143.20 Mt, as shown in Fig. 10.



485

486 Fig. 10. Theoretical, technical and sustainable agricultural residue potential in China.

487 The agricultural residue was estimated on the basis of air-dried RPR with a moisture content
488 of approximately 15%. The theoretical, technical and sustainable potential residues available
489 for green power generation were 851.25, 480.95 and 121.72 Mt/year, on dry basis, respectively.

490 The heating value is an important criterion for the evaluation of power generation. The heating
491 value is defined as the heat released during combustion ^[58]. The heating value can be classified
492 as a lower heating value (LHV) or a higher heating value (HHV). The difference between the
493 LHV and the HHV relates to whether the energy in the water vapour is considered as part of
494 the unit output during energy generation ^[59]. In power generation, the energy in water vapour
495 is not considered. Thus, the LHV is applied in power generation calculations. The average LHV
496 value of crop residues reported in the literature is shown in Table 15.

497 The theoretical, technical and sustainable potentials translate to 1.39×10^4 PJ, 7.81×10^3 PJ and
498 1.99×10^3 PJ of energy per year, respectively. In general, the efficiency of power generation
499 ranges from 20-25% ^[60-62]. Thus, the 7.81×10^3 PJ of residue (technical potential) that can be
500 collected represents between 1.56×10^3 PJ and 1.95×10^3 PJ of power annually, which can

501 produce at least 433.3TWh to 541.7 TWh per year (assuming 3.6 MJ = 1KWh). To ensure
 502 environmental sustainability, agricultural residues converted to power should remain within
 503 the range of 111.1 TWh and 138.9 TWh (0.40×10^3 PJ to 0.50×10^3 PJ) per year.

504 Table 15. The lower heating value of major crop residues in China.

	LHV (db, MJ/KG)	Reference
Corn	13.54	[63-66]
Rice	15.14	[67, 68]
Cotton	13.39	[64, 65]
Wheat	14.39	[64-66]
Sorghum	15.99	[69-71]
Peanut	13.72	[72, 73]
Sesame	14.55	[74]
Sunflower	14.41	[75]
Millet	16.09	[75]
Tubers	14.24	[76]
Beans	15.96	[77]
Rapeseed	15.59	[74]

505

506 Because agricultural residues are utilized not only for power generation but also have uses in
 507 other industries (such as for forage, industrial materials and bioenergy), unutilized residues are
 508 limited. According to the press office of the Ministry of Agriculture, 20% of collected residues
 509 are abandoned ^[78]. Thus, 20% of the technical potential calculated for power generation in the
 510 study is actually available. Between 86.67 and 108.34 TWh of power could be produced
 511 annually if the abandoned residues were recycled for power generation. This represents 1.58%
 512 of the national energy consumption in 2018 (6844.9 TWh) ^[79]. A conservative estimate is that
 513 the available sustainable agricultural residue potential could be converted to between 22.2 and
 514 27.8 TWh per annum.

515 4. Conclusions

516 A three-step GIS-based approach involving the evaluation of theoretical, technical and
517 sustainable potentials for agricultural residues has been proposed in this work, with the novel
518 characteristic of considering simultaneously regional annual crop yields, topographic and
519 legislative restrictions, as well as SE and SOM environmental restrictions at a regional level.
520 The proposed approach was applied to assess the sustainable potential of agricultural residues
521 available for potential power generation in China. This approach provides a detailed assessment
522 of residue potential and its provincial distribution using the latest crop production statistics and
523 high-resolution GIS digital spatial data. It was found that 1001.47 Mt of residue is produced
524 annually, including corn stalks (440.64 Mt), rice straw (241.45 Mt) and wheat straw (176.46
525 Mt). The retention of residues plays a crucial role in reducing soil erosion and increasing soil
526 organic matter and nutrient (such as carbon, nitrogen and phosphorous) sequestration to
527 maintain soil quality. Due to the long-term indiscriminate removal of residues, the density of
528 soil organic matter is far below the standard level in much of China, which leaves only 143.20
529 Mt of residue that can be considered as sustainable potential of agricultural residues, which
530 could produce from 22.2 to 27.8 TWh each year. This result demonstrates the benefits from
531 adopting the proposed approach for a more realistic sustainable potential assessment. This
532 study indicates that, among China's 31 provincial regions, Heilongjiang holds the greatest
533 potential for the establishment of an agricultural residue-based economy by virtue of its
534 resource availability.

535 This work contributes to academia by proposing the sustainable potential assessment approach
536 that can be applied to any geographical context. The work contributes also to practice and
537 policy making, since the application of the approach in the case of China highlights the large
538 difference between the theoretical, technical and sustainable potential, that fully accounts for
539 the regional differences in annual crop yields, the local topographic, legislative and

540 environmental restrictions. The outputs can be used by practitioners engaged in the bioenergy
541 value chain to identify areas where there is sufficient sustainable potential to exploit, and by
542 policy makers to ensure that any incentives are focusing on areas where exploitation of the
543 agricultural residues will not lead to environmental degradation, in terms of soil erosion and
544 soil organic matter loss. To maximise the value of these sustainably available agricultural
545 residues, further work will continue to assess its potential for the production of high value-
546 added chemicals or materials.

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