

Understanding Methane Emission from Rice Paddies in China

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Abstract

China is the largest rice-producing country in the world, accounting for about 30% of total rice production. Methane (CH₄), is produced and emitted in the rice fields under flooded conditions. There are very large temporal and spatial variations of CH₄ emissions from rice fields in China, with seasonal average fluxes in the range 0.14–58 mg CH₄ m⁻² h⁻¹, mainly dependent on water regime in both off-rice and rice seasons, and availability of labile organic carbon. Based on field measurements, recent estimates of CH₄ emission from Chinese paddy fields, either by modeling or by scaling up, were mostly in the range 3.3–9.6 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹, with a more realistic value of around 8 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹. There is a large potential for mitigating CH₄ from rice paddies by improving water regimes and appropriate management of crop residues.

1. Introduction

China is the largest rice producer in the world. Its rice harvested area increased steadily from 27 Mha in 1961 to 36.97 Mha in 1976, decreased continuously to 26.78 Mha in 2003, and then increased again slowly to around 29.93 Mha in 2009. As rice fields are an important source of atmospheric methane (CH₄). China has been of particular concern in the past two decades as a source of CH₄. The research on CH₄ emissions from Chinese rice paddies started in the late 1980s and the first paper was published in 1988 (Winchester et al. 1988). Since CH₄ fluxes measured in a rice field in Tuzu, Sichuan Province of China were, on average, 60 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ (i.e. 4–10 times higher than emission rates from rice fields in the United States and Europe (Khalil et al. 1991), great attention was drawn to measurement and under-

standing of CH₄ emissions from rice fields in China. Up to the present, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from rice paddies in China have been intensively measured, the factors affecting their emissions investigated, and the annual emissions at the national and regional scales have been estimated by various approaches.

2. Factors influencing CH₄ emissions from rice fields

CH₄ emission from rice fields is the net result of three processes: production, oxidation and transport. Any factors that affect one or more of these processes may affect CH₄ emission. By analyzing field measurement data of CH₄ emission from rice paddies in Asia, Yan et al. (2005) found that organic amendment, water regime during the rice-growing season, water status in pre-season and soil properties were the main influencing factors.

2.1 Organic amendments

CH₄ is converted from substrate by methanogenic bacteria in strictly reduced environments. Organic amendments directly supply substrate for methanogenic bacteria. The decomposition of organic materials also helps develop a reduced environment for CH₄ generation. CH₄ emission from rice paddies is affected by the type, amount and timing of organic amendment.

A variety of organic fertilizers are used in China, including crop residues, green manure, animal manure, and compost from biogas reactors. The stimulating effect of all these organic fertilizers on CH₄ emission from Chinese rice paddies has been widely studied (Tao et al. 1994, Wang et al. 1995, Zou et al. 2003, Qin et al. 2006, Ma et al. 2007). Yan et al.

(2003) compiled 15 pairs of flux data, comparing CH₄ emissions from Chinese rice fields with and without organic amendment, controlling for other conditions (i.e. site, rice season and water regime). The ratios of CH₄ flux with organic amendment to flux without organic amendment were within the range 0.7–4.2, with an average of 2.08 and standard deviation of 1.16. However, there is a large difference in the effects of different types of organic materials on CH₄ emission. Generally, fresh crop straw shows the largest stimulating effect on CH₄ emission. A seasonal average CH₄ flux of 51.4 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ was reported for rice straw incorporation of 2.63 t ha⁻¹, compared to 10.3 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ without organic input (Qin *et al.* 2006). Decomposed manure from biogas reactors showed little stimulating effect (Tao *et al.*, 1994). CH₄ emission induced from surface-applied organic materials was less than that from organic materials incorporated into soils, as the former had more chance to be decomposed aerobically than the latter (Xiao *et al.* 2007).

To prevent air pollution and increase soil fertility, the Chinese government banned field burning and encouraged field application of crop residues. This practice is likely to increase CH₄ emission from rice fields. To mitigate the straw-induced CH₄ emission, Ma *et al.* (2008) suggested that straw be piled in ridges between rice rows, high above the water layer and be covered with soil. CH₄ emission could be reduced by one third through this practice as compared with direct incorporation of straw into surface soil.

2.2 Water management during the rice-growing season

The water management practice during the rice-growing season is a critical factor influencing CH₄ emission. Mid-season drainage is widely practiced in Chinese rice cultivation. Yan *et al.* (2003) compiled 11 pairs of data that compared the effects of mid-season drainage and continuous flooding on CH₄ emission from Chinese rice fields, controlling for other conditions (i.e. organic input, rice season and site). On average, CH₄ flux from fields with mid-season drainage was 53% of that from continuously flooded fields. During mid-season drainage, the soil is exposed to air and the redox potential increases rapidly, which inhibits the activity of methanogenic bacteria and so lowers CH₄ production (Xu *et al.* 2000). The increase in soil redox potential also helps

the oxidation of CH₄ (Jia *et al.* 2001). CH₄ emission may gradually resume when mid-season drainage ends and the rice field is re-flooded. However, if the mid-season drainage was performed until the soils becomes very dry, CH₄ emission may not resume even after an extended period of re-flooding, resulting in a greatly reduced seasonal CH₄ emission (Xu *et al.* 2000). The earlier the mid-season drainage is started, the greater is the mitigation effect (Li *et al.* 2007). However, if the mid-season drainage is performed too early, it damages rice growth.

It is worth noting that when drainage begins, the CH₄ trapped in soil may erupt, resulting in a short-term emission peak, which may be overlooked by observers (Xu *et al.* 2000).

2.3 Water status in pre-season

In addition to water management, the water status of rice fields before the rice-growing season also has a strong influence on CH₄ emission in the rice-growing season. Extremely high CH₄ emission was found for rice fields flooded in the winter season (Cai *et al.* 2003). For four sites across south and southwest China, Kang *et al.* found that CH₄ fluxes in the rice-growing season from fields that had been flooded in the preceding winter season were 1.2–6.4 times those from fields that were drained in the preceding winter season (Kang *et al.* 2002).

If the soil is drained in the pre-season, ions such as ammonium (NH₄⁺), manganese (Mn²⁺) and iron (Fe²⁺) are oxidized. When the soil is flooded for rice-growing, the oxidized ions are gradually reduced, and it takes a long time for the methanogenic organisms to revive, therefore shortening the CH₄ emission period.

There are generally three rice crops in China: single, early and late rice. Single rice is planted on rice fields that are left fallow or planted with upland crops in the preceding season with the fields drained. Early rice is similar to single rice, but the preceding season is shorter. Late rice is usually planted immediately after early rice on the same field. Because the field is usually flooded or kept in moisture conditions suitable for CH₄ production before late rice transplanting, CH₄ fluxes increase sharply soon after transplanting; however, it takes a longer time for CH₄ emission to resume for early rice or single rice (Yan *et al.* 2003). Due to this difference in water status in pre-season, the average CH₄ emission in late rice is 1.5 and 2.3 times that in early rice and single rice, respectively

(Yan et al. 2003). CH_4 emission from rice fields can be dramatically reduced when rice is planted after two consecutive upland crops as compared to the cases where rice is alternated with upland crops or rice is continuously cropped (Cai et al. 1998).

2.4 Chemical fertilizer

Application of chemical fertilizer, especially synthetic N, is necessary in Chinese rice cultivation. The effect of N-fertilizer on CH_4 emission from rice paddies has been studied in many field experiments and the results are mixed. Chen et al. found that the application of urea increased CH_4 emission, as urea increased root growth and root exudates, providing more substrate for methanogenesis (Chen et al. 1995). Another effect of urea application is that NH_4^+ , the product of urea hydrolysis, inhibits CH_4 oxidation through competition for methanotrophs and thus increases CH_4 emission. Other studies, however, showed that the use of urea decreased CH_4 emission (Cai et al. 1997, Zou et al. 2005, Ma et al. 2007). It was argued that in an environment of high CH_4 concentration, NH_4^+ -based N-fertilizer may inhibit CH_4 oxidation at the beginning, but the coexistence of high CH_4 concentration and NH_4^+ stimulates the growth of methanotrophs and/or their activity for oxidizing CH_4 . With the gradual NH_4^+ uptake by rice plants, the increased methanotroph population and/or their activity may consume more CH_4 , leading to

lower CH_4 emission in later stages (Cai et al. 1997).

Compared to urea, the use of ammonium sulfate, $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, consistently decreased CH_4 emission from rice paddies in all studies that compared the effects of the two fertilizers (Tao et al. 1994, Cai et al. 1997, Lin et al. 2000). This was likely due to the inhibitory effect of SO_4^{2-} on methanogenesis.

3. Estimation of CH_4 emissions from rice fields

As the largest rice producer in the world, China's rice fields have been of particular concern in the past three decades as a source of CH_4 , and various estimations have been made (Fig. 1). One of the earliest calculations was made by extrapolating a flux of $58 \text{ mg CH}_4 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$, the average CH_4 emission flux for the rice-growing season of two consecutive years in Tuzu, Sichuan Province, to the whole of China. The resulting estimate was $30 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Khalil et al. 1991). Similarly, Wassmann et al. extrapolated the results of measurements in Hangzhou, Zhejiang Province to the entire country, and estimated an emission of $18\text{--}28 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Wassmann et al. 1993). As field measurements accumulated, more flux data were included in upscaling methods. Yao et al. used flux data from six sites to represent 10 agroecological zones, and estimated $15.3 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Yao et al. 1996). Evaluating results from 12 field sites, Cai concluded that emission was $8.05 \text{ Tg CH}_4 \text{ y}^{-1}$, and considered the effects of water regime and organic fertilizer

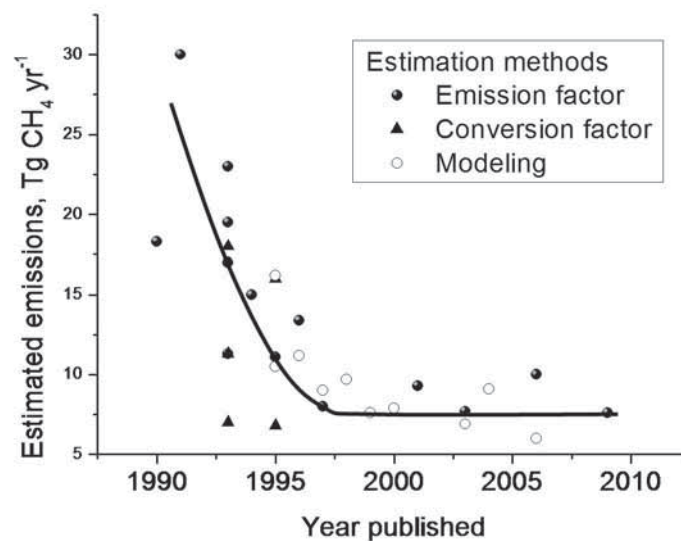


Fig. 1. Various estimations of CH_4 emission from Chinese rice fields, obtained by different methods, and published in different years. Figure was drawn with data from Cai et al. (Cai et al. 2009).

application (Cai 1997). With a total of 204 season-treatment measurements conducted on 23 sites, and considering the effect of water regime and organic amendment, Yan *et al.* estimated an emission of 7.67 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹ (Yan *et al.* 2003).

Several process-based models of various levels of complexity have been developed to estimate CH₄ emission from rice fields in China. Cao *et al.* developed a simplified process-based CH₄ emission model. Taking rice primary production and soil organic degradation as supplies of carbon (C) substrate for methanogens, and considering environmental controls of methanogenesis, they estimated a total emission of 16.2 Tg y⁻¹ for China (Cao *et al.* 1995). Huang *et al.* considered daily CH₄ emission flux as a function of photosynthetic activity, and incorporated the effects of organic matter, soil sand content, temperature and rice cultivar, and estimated the emission to be 9.66 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹ (Huang *et al.* 1998). Based on a rice crop simulation model and integrating the effects of climate, soil, agricultural management and the growing of rice on CH₄ flux, Matthews *et al.* calculated an emission of 3.35–8.64 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹ for China, and concluded that a more realistic estimate was 7.22–8.64 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹ (Matthews *et al.* 2000).

Recently, we applied the tier 1 method of the 2006 IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) guidelines to estimate CH₄ emission from global rice fields – giving global total emission of 25.6 Tg y⁻¹, of which 7.6 Tg was estimated to be emitted from Chinese rice fields (Yan *et al.* 2009). We have compiled the most up-to-date dataset of CH₄ emissions from Chinese rice fields, with a total of 336 season-treatment measurements; the average of these seasonal measurements was 25.6 g m⁻². Simply multiplying this average flux by the total rice cultivation area of about 30 Mha, gives an estimate of 7.68 Tg CH₄ y⁻¹. Considering all the recent estimations obtained with different methods (Fig. 1), we are confident that CH₄ emission from Chinese rice fields is around 8 Tg y⁻¹.

4. Mitigation options for CH₄ emission from rice paddies

CH₄ is the terminal product of soil reduction in the succession of oxidation–reduction. In principle, any factors or practices able to retard soil reduction or reduce organic substrates will mitigate CH₄ emissions from rice fields. Among all factors, water regimes and organic substrates and their combination are crucial

for controlling CH₄ emissions from rice fields.

Water regimes are important not only during the rice growing period, but also in the off-rice season, in determining CH₄ emissions from rice fields. Flooding, or at least water-saturation of soil, is a prerequisite but not sufficient condition for CH₄ production, since CH₄ is a terminal product of soil reduction. Only when active oxidants such as oxygen, NO₃⁻, Mn₄⁺, Fe₃⁺ and SO₄²⁻ are consumed and anaerobic conditions have developed in soil (at least at micro-sites) is detectable amounts of CH₄ produced, given available organic substrates. The history of soil moisture before flooding for growing rice determines the duration of the development of anaerobic conditions after flooding (Xu *et al.* 2003), thus affecting CH₄ emissions from rice fields during the rice growing period. Since year-round flooding is the extreme water regime most favorable for CH₄ production, the largest CH₄ emissions were observed in rice fields in China that experienced these conditions (Cai *et al.* 2000). CH₄ emission also occurs if a rice field is flooded in the off-rice season (Cai *et al.* 2000). Therefore, draining rice fields sufficiently in the off-rice season will mitigate CH₄ emission in the off-rice season and also significantly during the rice growing period. Shiratori *et al.* (2007) found that subsurface drainage of waterlogged rice fields in Japan in the off-rice season mitigated CH₄ emissions significantly during the rice growing period. They established a linear relationship between soil moisture before flooding for rice transplanting and CH₄ emissions in the following rice-growing period. For various reasons, such as poor drainage in topographic depressions, lack of well-developed irrigation systems to ensure flooding of the rice field for rice transplanting, and poor management in the off-rice season, there is about 2.7–4.0 Mha of rice fields flooded year-round in China, and this is estimated to contribute CH₄ emission of 2.44 Tg y⁻¹ (Cai *et al.* 2005). If flooding of some rice fields in the off-rice season is only due to poor management then lowering CH₄ emissions is relatively easy. For year-round flooded rice fields due to poor drainage and irrigation conditions, mainly distributed in hilly and mountainous areas in South and Southwest China, local farmers have developed a ridged cultivation system, in which ridges are built and maintained before rice transplanting every year. Rice is planted in both sides of the ridges, flooded water is kept in ditches, and the water level is raised to the top of ridges dur-

ing the rice growing period and lowered to a certain level in the off-rice season. This practice raises soil redox-potential in the ridges and reduces CH₄ emissions by about 33% (Cai et al. 2003). Xu and Hosen demonstrated that keeping the soil water content in the range of 38–59% water holding capacity in the fallow season is important to lower CH₄ emissions (Xu and Hosen 2010).

It has been well documented that drainage in mid-season during the rice growing period mitigates CH₄ emission. As mentioned previously, Yan et al. found that, on average, CH₄ emission from rice fields with mid-season drainage was 53% that from continuously flooded fields. The effectiveness of mid-season drainage depends on the number of drainage events, and the timing and duration of each drainage event (Yan et al. 2003). Mid-season drainage has been widely practiced in China for > 30 years. The original objective of mid-season drainage was to control the number of rice tillers and promote root growth, and thus increase rice yield, rather than to mitigate CH₄ emission. The potential of this practice to mitigate CH₄ emissions from rice fields in China is expected to be limited since only for a small area of rice fields is mid-season drainage not currently practiced. Furthermore, a great attention is needed on the trade-off relationship between CH₄ and N₂O emissions from rice fields. Very large N₂O emissions were observed from rice fields with soil moisture close to water-saturation (Xu et al. 2004, Zheng et al. 2000), although this water regime significantly inhibited CH₄ emissions (Xu et al. 2004).

Increases in supplies of organic substrate under flooded conditions stimulates CH₄ emission. Therefore, amendments of organic manure, and incorporation of crop straw and green manure usually increase CH₄ emissions from rice fields. However, these practices may be essential for maintaining soil fertility. It has been demonstrated that at the same amount of organic C input, the CH₄ emissions induced by compost and biogas residues were less than that by crop straw (Wassmann et al. 2000). Incorporation of crop straw in the off-rice season when fields are drained stimulates CH₄ emissions less than incorporation just before rice transplanting (Cai and Xu 2004, Wassmann et al. 2000). CH₄ emissions induced by straw incorporation varies also with the patterns of straw incorporation (Ma et al. 2009). So, selecting an appropriate incorporation pattern should reduce the

stimulation of CH₄ emissions. In the case of straw incorporation just before transplanting, practicing mid-season drainage earlier than usual can also reduce the stimulation of CH₄ emission (Cai et al. 2009).

CH₄ emissions from paddy fields are affected by planting density. Higher rice planting density leads to higher CH₄ emission fluxes because a high-density crop has more stems, leaves and roots, which speed up transmission and emission of CH₄. To ensure good crop yield, the rice planting density can be adjusted only within a very limited range, and hence there is limited potential of reducing planting density to reduce CH₄ emissions. The effect of rice variety on paddy CH₄ emissions varies. Ding et al. found that CH₄ emission was positively related to rice plant height, and the emission from paddy fields grown with tall-stalk rice (120-cm plant height) was 2.9 times that from fields sown with dwarf rice (90-cm height) (Ding et al. 1999). However, crop yield is the current priority for selection of rice varieties.

Application of electron acceptors such as NO₃⁻ and SO₄⁺-containing fertilizers, and Fe and Mn oxides mitigates CH₄ emissions from rice fields (Cai et al. 1997, Wassmann et al. 2000, Ali et al. 2009, Kara and Ozdilek 2010); however, they are less feasible. Chemicals that inhibit the activities of methanogenic bacteria depress CH₄ emissions during the rice growing period. Commonly used nitrification inhibitors can mitigate CH₄ emissions from rice fields (Li et al. 2009). It has also been reported that CH₄ emissions from rice–duck systems are less than from pure rice fields in south China (Zhan et al. 2011).

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