

A simplified sampling procedure for the estimation of methane emission in rice fields

Nadar Hussain Khokhar & Jae-Woo Park

Received: 3 May 2017 /Accepted: 14 August 2017 /Published online: 24 August 2017 \circledcirc Springer International Publishing AG 2017

Abstract Manual closed chamber methods are widely used for CH₄ measurement from rice paddies. Despite diurnal and seasonal variations in $CH₄$ emissions, fixed sampling times, usually during the day, are used. Here, we monitored CH₄ emission from rice paddies for one complete rice-growing season. Daytime $CH₄$ emission increased from 0800 h, and maximal emission was observed at 1200 h. Daily averaged CH₄ flux increased during plant growth or fertilizer application and decreased upon drainage of plants. $CH₄$ measurement results were linearly interpolated and matched with the daily averaged $CH₄$ emission calculated from the measured results. The time when daily averaged emission and the interpolated CH₄ curve coincided during the daytime was largely invariant within each of the five distinctive periods. One-hourly sampling during each of these five periods was utilized to estimate the emission during each period, and we found that five one-hourly samples during the season accurately reflected the CH₄ emission calculated based on all 136 hourly samples.

This new sampling scheme is simple and more efficient than current sampling practices. Previously reported sampling schemes yielded estimates 9 to 32% higher than the measured CH₄ emission, while our suggested scheme yielded an estimate that was only 5% different from that based on all 136-h samples. The sampling scheme proposed in this study can be used in rice paddy fields in Korea and extended worldwide to countries that use similar farming practices. This sampling scheme will help in producing more accurate global methane budget from rice paddy fields.

Keywords Methane emission · Rice paddies · Greenhouse gases · Agriculture and environment

Introduction

Global methane (CH₄) emission reached 556 ± 56 Tg year⁻¹ in 2011, of which 354 \pm 45 Tg year⁻¹ was contributed by anthropogenic sources (IPCC [2013\)](#page-8-0). Agriculture accounts for 47% of anthropogenic CH_4 emissions (IPCC [2007\)](#page-8-0). Rice cultivation generates 33 to 40 Tg year−¹ of methane (IPCC [2013\)](#page-8-0), which is 10 and 20% of the total anthropogenic and agricultural CH₄ emission, respectively (van Groenigen et al. [2013](#page-9-0)). Seasonal and yearly $CH₄$ emissions are based on the measurement of $CH₄$ level using some type of sampling scheme. The micrometeorological eddy covariance method has been used for continuous $CH₄$ flux measurements and is considered as an alternative technique to avoid chamber-related problems (Hendriks et al.

Highlights

[?]• Measured CH4 were interpolated and matched with the average daily CH₄ emission.

[•] The time when the two were the same was invariant within each of the five periods.

[•] One-hourly sampling in each period can be used to estimate the emission.

N. H. Khokhar \cdot J.-W. Park (\boxtimes)

Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Hanyang University, Haengdang-dong, Seongdong-gu, Seoul 04763, South Korea

e-mail: jaewoopark@hanyang.ac.kr

[2007](#page-8-0); Zona et al. [2009;](#page-9-0) Kroon et al. [2010\)](#page-8-0). The eddy covariance method measures net CH4 fluxes in the atmosphere; these fluxes represent the integrated net fluxes from the landscape upwind from the measurement point. The eddy covariance method does not disturb the soil surface microenvironment; it integrates over larger areas, and it can measure $CH₄$ fluxes continuously over long periods (Dugas [1993\)](#page-8-0). However, this method also has a wide range of limitations, such as how it is most applicable over flat terrains and in atmospherically stable conditions. Total CH₄ flux can be underestimated due to low turbulence conditions at nighttime (Long et al. [2010\)](#page-9-0).

The automated closed chamber can measure CH₄ fluxes continuously at a much higher frequency such as (once per hour). This system is useful for monitoring the short-term temporal variability of greenhouse gases and collecting the data over long periods of time (Minamikawa et al. [2012\)](#page-9-0). However, these automatic systems are expensive and require a power supply, which are major limitations (Weller et al. [2015\)](#page-9-0). Chamber methods are often criticized because it covers small patches of soil that may disturb soil temperature, moisture, and air under the chamber. In recent chamber arrangements, these effects have been eliminated or were negligible (Denmead [2008](#page-8-0)).

A manual closed chamber method is more widely used because of its easy portability, operational simplicity, low cost, and low energy consumption (Hoffmann et al. [2015](#page-8-0); Weishampel and Kolka [2008\)](#page-9-0). Fewer samples, however, are taken when manual measurement is used. Air samples are collected manually with a syringe from the headspace of closed chamber and then

468 Page 2 of 10 Environ Monit Assess (2017) 189: 468

	Table 1 Physiochemical properties of the soil in this research			
--	---	--	--	--

analyzed using gas chromatography. The $CH₄$ fluxes are then calculated by measuring the rates of change in the CH4 concentrations inside the chamber. Manual closed chambers usually provide periodic measurements to estimate the daily and even annual $CH₄$ fluxes using linear interpolations or regression models (Song et al. [2009](#page-9-0); Chen et al. [2011\)](#page-8-0). Manual closed chamber method is a labor-intensive and time-consuming process; therefore, CH4 cannot be sampled frequently. Several different sampling schemes for manual systems were proposed. Triplicate sampling at 0600, 1200, and 1800 hours was suggested to replace an automated system (Buendia et al. [1998\)](#page-7-0). Once per day $CH₄$ sampling at 1000 hours resulted in \pm 10% error from the results of automated systems (Minamikawa et al. [2012\)](#page-9-0). Yun et al. ([2013](#page-9-0)) reported that the best diurnal interpolation time for $CH₄$ emission was 1000–1100 hours.

CH4 sources and sinks are well defined, but there is great uncertainty regarding the magnitude of fluxes and the factors that regulate these fluxes (IPCC [2007;](#page-8-0) Kirschke et al. [2013;](#page-8-0) Yvon-Durocher et al. [2014](#page-9-0)). Methanogens play critical roles in $CH₄$ production, and

the magnitude of $CH₄$ emission is dependent on several factors, such as water management, temperature, fertilizer, soil pH, and so on (Conrad [2004](#page-8-0); Jain et al. [2004](#page-8-0); Oyewole [2012;](#page-9-0) Singh et al. [2003\)](#page-9-0). Continuous flooding of rice paddy fields makes the soil anaerobic. Midseason drainage supplies oxygen and reduces $CH₄$ emission (Jain et al. [2004;](#page-8-0) Anand et al. [2005](#page-7-0)). An increase in temperature from 15 to 30 °C resulted in a 2- to 2.2-fold increase in CH₄ emission from rice paddy fields (Dakua et al. [2013](#page-8-0)). Nitrogen fertilizer also strongly affects $CH₄$ emission. Type, quantity, and method of application changes the amount of $CH₄$ emitted (Minami [1995](#page-9-0); Dong et al. [2011](#page-8-0)). Variation in soil pH affects methanogenic $CH₄$ production, with maximal emission found at pH $6.9-7.1$ (Jain et al. [2004\)](#page-8-0). Therefore, CH₄ emission changes with the growth of rice plants (Jia et al. [2001](#page-8-0); Lee et al. [2010](#page-8-0); Dakua et al. [2013](#page-8-0)).

Fig. 2 a Measured CH₄ emission from the experimental rice field at different stages ((1) tillering, (2) jointing, (3) booting, (4) heading, (5) milky, (6) ripening) and **b** daily averaged $CH₄$ emission

Existing sampling schemes for measuring $CH₄$ emission from rice paddies use fixed sampling time throughout the season. However, there are several factors that can increase or decrease $CH₄$ emission from rice paddies. Under this complex environment, sampling with manual closed chamber at a fixed time throughout a season can lead to incorrect estimation of diurnal and ultimately seasonal CH_4 emission. Therefore, it is important to observe the most influencing factors that cause fluctuation in diurnal flux and find representative sampling time for daily average $CH₄$ flux. To address this issue, we monitored $CH₄$ emission from rice paddies for one complete rice-growing season. Our objectives were (1) to investigate the effect of $CH₄$ sampling time on diurnal/seasonal $CH₄$ emission estimation and (2) to propose a general sampling scheme for the manual closed chamber method, which provides

a more accurate estimate of $CH₄$ emission from rice paddy fields.

Material and methods

Experimental design

The experiment was conducted on Hanyang University campus, Seoul, Republic of Korea (37° 33′ 16″ N, 127° 02′ 38″ E). A monsoon climate prevailed in this area with mean annual air temperature and precipitation of 12.5 °C and 1450.5 mm, respectively. Average air temperature during the experimental period was 23.2 °C, and total precipitation was 543.4 mm (Fig. [1](#page-1-0)). Both pots and chambers in this research were custom-made using 10-mm-thick acryl sheets. The dimensions of each pot were $720 \times 720 \times 520$ mm. Styrofoam of 20 mm thickness was used to cover all sides of each pot to reduce heat exchange. Triplicated pots were filled with 260 kg of 4-mm sieved and air-dried soil. Above the soil surface, 100 mm high free space was left for irrigation. Each pot was thoroughly soaked initially, and the water level was maintained at 5–7 cm above the soil for the entire season except for mid-season drainage and harvest. The soil used in this research was obtained from a plow layer (150–200 mm depth) in a paddy field,

Fig. 3 $CH₄$ emission in a season estimated using different sampling schemes

located in Jeonsu-ri, Kyunggi-do, Republic of Korea (37° 28′ 55.37″ N, 127° 25′ 27.13″ E).

Soil physiochemical characterization

Soil organic matter was determined using the modified Walkey and Black method and the Tyurin titrimetric method with acid-wet oxidation and dichromate (Lee et al. [2014](#page-8-0)). Soil P_2O_5 content was determined by the Lancaster method (Heczko and Zaujec [2009\)](#page-8-0). Kjeldahl distillation was used to analyze the total N (RDA [1988\)](#page-9-0). Cation exchange capacity (CEC) was measured using the ammonium acetate extracting method at pH 7.0 (Sumner and Miller [1996\)](#page-9-0). Electrical conductivity (EC) was determined by using a conductivity meter (CM-25R). Soil texture was determined using the soil hydrometer method and was classified by USDA criteria. Soil texture was sandy loam with sand, silt, and clay proportions of 59.8, 38.6, and 1.6%, respectively. Other physicochemical properties of the soil were analyzed before crop sowing and after harvesting (Table [1\)](#page-1-0).

One chamber was used for each pot. A chamber consisted of three parts without a bottom panel: base, middle, and top with sides of 150, 500, and 500 mm, respectively. The inner dimensions of a chamber were 500×600 mm. Each chamber was equipped with a battery-operated fan inside for air mixing. A thermometer

Sampling on which daily emission was based

and gas sample collection tubes were also installed on the top of each chamber.

Mineral fertilizers were applied at rates of 110 kg N ha⁻¹, 31 kg P₂O₅ ha⁻¹, and 66 kg K₂O ha⁻¹, using urea, fused superphosphate, and potassium chloride. The basal mineral fertilizers applied 1 day before paddy transplanting were 55 kg N ha⁻¹, 31 kg P₂O₅ ha⁻¹, and 66 kg K2O ha^{-1} . Basal fertilizers were mixed manually within the top 100 mm of soil under flooding. Twenty-day-old nursery seedlings (three plants per hill) were transplanted by hand at a spacing of 300×150 mm, resulting in eight rice hills per pot. Mid-tillering fertilizer (27.5 kg N ha⁻¹) was broadcasted approximately 3 weeks after rice transplanting, and the

panicle fertilizer (27.5 kg N ha⁻¹) was broadcasted 9 weeks after transplanting.

$CH₄$ sampling, analysis, and flux calculations

 $CH₄$ samplings at 0800, 1200, and 1600 hours were reported for daily average $CH₄$ estimation from rice paddies in Korea (Gutierrez et al. [2013;](#page-8-0) Haque et al. [2016;](#page-8-0) Kim et al. [2016](#page-8-0)). Since all the three samplings were in daytime, samplings at nighttime should be included. CH4 sampling was performed four times a day on every fourth day in this research: at approximately 0800, 1200, 2000, and at 2400 hours. To determine the hourly flux at each sampling time, 60 ml samples were collected with an

Fig. 4 Average CH₄ emission time and daily averaged CH₄ flux for each of five distinctive period: a transplanting to mid-tillering, **b** midtillering to jointing, c jointing to heading, d heading to ripening, and e ripening to harvesting

Fig. 5 Comparison of average CH4 emission from actual measurements and $CH₄$ emission with the suggested sampling scheme at each of the five distinctive periods: (1) transplanting to mid-tillering, (2) mid-tillering to jointing, (3) jointing to heading, (4) heading to ripening, (5) ripening to harvesting

Distinctive periods from transplanting to harvest

airtight syringe at 0, 30, and 60 min, respectively, after chamber closure at the hour (Jia et al. [2001](#page-8-0); Frei et al. 2007). CH₄ samples were analyzed within 2 h after sampling using a gas chromatograph (YL 6100, Young Lin Instrument Co., Korea) equipped with a flame ionization detector and HP-PLOT Q Agilent column (length, 30 m; inner diameter, 0.5 mm; and film thickness, 40 μm). The temperatures of the column, injector, and detector were 80, 150, and 250 °C, respectively. Helium was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 30 ml min−¹ . Temperatures of ambient air, the air inside the chamber, and the soil were also recorded at the time of each $CH₄$ sampling.

Hourly CH4 flux was calculated from the change in gas concentration in the chamber over a 60-min period (Rolston [1986](#page-9-0); Cheng et al. [2007\)](#page-8-0):

$$
F = \frac{V}{A} \times \frac{dc}{dt} \times \left(\frac{273}{273 + T}\right) \tag{1}
$$

where F is the hourly CH₄ flux (mg m⁻² h⁻¹), V is the gas volume at standard condition (m^3) , A is the area of the chamber base (m²), $\frac{dc}{dt}$ is the rate of CH₄ concentration

change over a 60-min period in the chamber (mg m⁻³ h⁻¹), and T is the air temperature inside the chamber (\degree C). Daily CH4 flux was calculated from the measured hourly flux. Zadoks, Feekes, and Haun scales are widely used to define crop-growth stages (Ali [2010\)](#page-7-0). The Zadoks scale defines growth stages as germination, tillering, jointing, booting, heading, milky, drought, and ripening. $CH₄$ emission was investigated according to the Zadoks scale in this study. Because CH₄ sampling was carried out after transplanting, CH4 emission from germination to transplanting was not investigated. The drought was considered part of the ripening stage. $CH₄$ flux for a stage was calculated by taking the averages of the daily fluxes. Total $CH₄$ emission flux (g m−²) over the entire crop season was calculated as the sum of CH₄ fluxes at each stage.

Results and discussion

Measured and daily averaged $CH₄$ emission varied over the season (Fig. [2](#page-2-0)). Emission increased until the jointing

stage, and then decreased. Variation over the course of a day was quite noticeable from the mid-tillering to the milky stage, as shown in Fig. [2](#page-2-0)a. Relatively smaller daily variation was observed after the mid-season drainage than before. From mid-tillering to jointing stages before midseason drainage, lower emission was observed at 0800 h, while higher emission was observed at 1200 h. Higher and lower emissions were observed at 0800 hours and at 2000 hours, respectively, after mid-season drainage to the heading stage. Low emission at ripening was probably due to reduced permeability of the root epidermal layer associated with plant aging (Gogoi et al. [2005](#page-8-0)). CH4 emission varies with plant-growth stage due to an increase in the size of the plant aerenchyma and roots (Jia et al. [2001](#page-8-0); Dakua et al. [2013](#page-8-0)). Water management in rice paddies has a major effect on $CH₄$ emission (Zou et al. [2005](#page-9-0); Kumar et al. [2016](#page-8-0)). In response to continuous flooding, $CH₄$ emission gradually increases after transplanting and reaches a maximal level at the heading stage, and then decreases (Wang et al. [1999](#page-9-0); Lu et al. [2000\)](#page-9-0). Irrigation with mid-season drainage is a widely adopted water management practice to improve rice growth and yield (Cai et al. [1997;](#page-8-0) Lu et al. [2000\)](#page-9-0). Midseason drainage in our study resulted in a switch from anaerobic to aerobic conditions, which reduced $CH₄$ emission, as shown in Fig. [2](#page-2-0)b (Tyagi et al. [2010](#page-9-0); Li et al. [2011\)](#page-8-0).

Fig. 6 Change in average CH4 emission according to different sampling schemes based on actual 24-h interpolated $CH₄$ flux measurements: (1) 0800, 1200, and 1600 hOURS at 6-day intervals; (2) 0800, 1200, and 1600 hours at 3-day intervals; (3) 1100 and 1200 hours at 3-day intervals; and (4) 1100 and 1300 hours at 6-day intervals

Estimation of $CH₄$ emission from a field using a manual system is based on sampling time and frequency. Average daily emission was calculated based on the average of four samples in this research: 0800 h, 1200 h, 2000 h, and 2400 h. If sampling was performed differently and daily emissions were estimated based on those samples, the estimated emission could be quite different. Figure [3](#page-3-0) shows estimates of seasonal $CH₄$ emission based on different combinations of actual samplings. The highest estimation was produced with one-time sample at 1200 hours (38% higher than the average of the four time samples). The averages of 0800 and 1200 hours and the 0800, 1200, and 2000 hours samplings resulted in estimates 9.6 and 3.9% higher than the average of the four sampling times, respectively. Different CH4 sampling schemes can produce different estimates of seasonal CH₄ emission. CH₄ emission at 1200 hours was much higher than at the rest of a day; therefore, estimation based on a one-time sample near 1200 hours can be misleading. It should be noted that quite a few studies have reported $CH₄$ emission based on one or two time samples taken near 1200 hours.

When CH₄ measurement results were linearly interpolated and matched with the daily averaged $CH₄$ emission calculated from the measured results, the daily average and measured CH4 curve coincided twice in

one day: once during the daytime, and once during nighttime. The change in the time when the daily average and interpolated CH₄ curves coincided in the daytime (average emission time) is shown in Fig. [4.](#page-4-0) The whole season was divided into five periods. In each period, the variation in average emission time was negligible. Application of second and third doses of fertilizer at 17 and 61 days after transplanting increased CH4 emission and changed the average emission time. Midseason drainage reduced $CH₄$ emission significantly.

As average emission time within each of the five periods was rather invariant, we hypothesized that CH4 estimation based on several daily samplings during each period could be replaced with one-hourly sampling per period (Fig. [4](#page-4-0)). For instance, $CH₄$ measurement can be carried out 1 day after transplanting, 3 days after fertilizer application at mid-tillering growth stage, 3 days after mid-season drainage, when heading of rice paddies occurs, and at the ripening stage. In other words, only five hourly samples would have to be taken per season. Average CH4 emission on each of the 5 days can then be calculated based on hourly $CH₄$ flux measurement from 0900 to 1000 hours at the first (transplanting to midtillering), second (mid-tillering to jointing), and fourth (heading to ripening) stages. Hourly measurement from 1200 to 1300 hours and from 1000 to 1100 hours can be used at the third (jointing to heading) and fifth (ripening to harvesting) stages, respectively. Daily $CH₄$ estimation using the suggested scheme was compared with average daily CH4 flux from all actual measurements for each of the five periods. Overall, there was a 4.8% difference between the two schemes for the season (Fig. [5](#page-5-0)). This new sampling scheme is a simpler and less laborintensive alternative to continual sampling over a season.

Reported CH4 flux from Korean rice paddy fields using the same farming practices as used in this research varied from 5.78 to 14.98 mg m⁻² h⁻¹ when different sampling schemes were used, as shown in Table [2.](#page-5-0) Sampling was carried out two or three times a day once or twice a week. Four different sampling schemes are shown in Table [2](#page-5-0). Hourly $CH₄$ flux measurement at 0800, 1200, 2000, and 2400 hours in this research was linearly extrapolated to 24 h, and the four different sampling schemes were applied to this 24-h interpolated $CH₄$ flux to compare the effect of different sampling schemes on $CH₄$ flux estimation. The results were compared with average daily CH₄ flux from all actual measurements and the new sampling scheme proposed in this research (Fig. 6). Sampling schemes (1) to (4) showed 9.4, 11.7, 31.7, and 26.4% difference from the average CH4 based on actual measurements (Fig. [6\)](#page-6-0). This confirmed that our suggested sampling scheme, which only requires five one-hourly samplings a season, is an excellent alternative to existing sampling schemes.

Conclusions

We measured variation in daily averaged CH₄ flux and average sampling time to develop a simpler and more efficient sampling scheme. Average emission time was rather invariant within each of the five distinctive periods: (1) transplanting to mid-tillering, (2) mid-tillering to jointing, (3) jointing to heading, (4) heading to ripening, and (5) ripening to harvesting. Five hourly samples taken on the first day of each period allowed the average daily emission during each period to be estimated with the average calculated for the season. Existing sampling schemes require more frequent and numerous hourly samplings. The daily averaged $CH₄$ flux calculated using these sampling schemes was found to be much higher than the daily averaged CH₄ flux found in this research. This higher estimation was due to the use of fixed sampling times throughout the season and sampling at high CH4 emission hours. Our new sampling scheme requires only five 1-h samples for the entire season. This scheme can be adopted anywhere in Korea or the world that uses similar rice paddy farming practices. The limitation of the suggested scheme is that, in case of different farming practices, diurnal flux measurements should be performed for at least one season to identify distinctive periods and to calculate the average emission for these periods.

Acknowledgements This study was supported by the Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Science, ICT, & Future Planning (NRF-2015R1A2A1A09005838).

References

- Ali, M. H. (2010). Fundamentals of irrigation and on-farm water management. Spring, 1, 556.
- Anand, S., Dahiya, R. P., Talyan, V., & Vrat, P. (2005). Investigations of methane emissions from rice cultivation in Indian context. Environment International, 31, 469–482.
- Buendia, L. V., Neue, H. U., Wassmann, R., Lantin, R. S., Javellana, A. M., Arah, J., et al. (1998). An efficient sampling

strategy for estimating methane emission from rice field. Chemosphere, 36, 395–407.

- Cai, Z., Xing, G., Yan, X., Xu, H., Tsuruta, H., Yagi, K., et al. (1997). Methane and nitrous oxide emissions from rice paddy fields as affected by nitrogen fertilisers and water management. Plant and Soil, 196, 7–14.
- Chen, W., Wolf, B., Zheng, X., Yao, Z., Butterbach-Bahl, K., Brüggemann, N., et al. (2011). Annual methane uptake by temperate semiarid steppes as regulated by stocking rates, aboveground plant biomass and topsoil air permeability. Global Change Biology, 17, 2803–2816.
- Cheng, X., Peng, R., Chen, J., Luo, Y., Zhang, Q., An, S., et al. (2007). CH₄ and N_2O emissions from Spartina alterniflora and Phragmites australis in experimental mesocosms. Chemosphere, 68, 420–427.
- Conrad, R. (2004). Methanogenic microbial communities associated with aquatic plants. In A. Varma, L. Abbott, D. Werner, & R. Hampp (Eds.), Plant surface microbiology (pp. 35–50). Berlin: Springer.
- Dakua, T. B., Rangan, L., & Mitra, S. (2013). Greenhouse gases emission from rice paddy ecosystem and their management. In N. Tuteja & S. S. Gill (Eds.), Crop improvement under adverse conditions (pp. 65–89). New York: Springer.
- Denmead, O. (2008). Approaches to measuring fluxes of methane and nitrous oxide between landscapes and the atmosphere. Plant and Soil, 309, 5–24.
- Dong, H., Yao, Z., Zheng, X., Mei, B., Xie, B., Wang, R., et al. (2011). Effect of ammonium-based, non-sulfate fertilizers on $CH₄$ emissions from a paddy field with a typical Chinese water management regime. Atmospheric Environment, 45, 1095–1101.
- Dugas, W. A. (1993). Micrometeorological and chamber measurements of $CO₂$ flux from bare soil. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology, 67, 115–128.
- Frei, M., Razzak, M. A., Hossain, M. M., Oehme, M., Dewan, S., & Becker, K. (2007). Methane emissions and related physicochemical soil and water parameters in rice—fish systems in Bangladesh. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 120, 391–398.
- Gogoi, N., Baruah, K. K., Gogoi, B., & Gupta, P. K. (2005). Methane emission characteristics and its relations with plant and soil parameters under irrigated rice ecosystem of northeast India. Chemosphere, 59, 1677–1684.
- Gutierrez, J., Kim, S. Y., & Kim, P. J. (2013). Effect of rice cultivar on CH4 emissions and productivity in Korean paddy soil. Field Crops Research, 146, 16–24.
- Haque, M. M., Kim, G. W., Kim, P. J., & Kim, S. Y. (2016). Comparison of net global warming potential between continuous flooding and midseason drainage in monsoon region paddy during rice cropping. Field Crops Research, 193, 133– 142.
- Heczko, J., Zaujec, A. (2009). The influence of farming systems on area heterogeneity of total organic carbon contents, Humic Substances in Ecosystems 8, 8, Soporna (Slovak Republic). 13–17 Sept 2009.
- Hendriks, D., Van Huissteden, J., Dolman, A., & Van der Molen, M. (2007). The full greenhouse gas balance of an abandoned peat meadow. Biogeosciences Discussions, 4, 277–316.
- Hoffmann, M., Jurisch, N., Borraz, E. A., Hagemann, U., Drösler, M., Sommer, M., & Augustin, J. (2015). Automated modeling of ecosystem $CO₂$ fluxes based on periodic closed

chamber measurements: a standardized conceptual and practical approach. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology, 200, 30–45.

- IPCC. (2007). Climate change 2007: mitigation of climate change. In B. Metz, O. R. Davidson, P. R. Bosch, R. Dave, & L. A. Meyer (Eds.), Contribution of Working Group III to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- IPCC. (2013). Climate change 2013: The physical science basis. In T. F. Stocker, D. Qin, G. K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S. K. Allen, J. Boschung, A. Nauels, Y. Xia, V. Bex, & P. M. Midgley (Eds.), Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (p. 1535). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jain, N., Pathak, H., Mitra, S., & Bhatia, A. (2004). Emission of methane from rice fields—a review. Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research India, 63, 101–115.
- Jia, Z., Cai, Z., Xu, H., & Li, X. (2001). Effect of rice plants on CH4 production, transport, oxidation and emission in rice paddy soil. Plant and Soil, 230, 211–221.
- Kim, G. Y., Gutierrez, J., Jeong, H. C., Lee, J. S., Haque, M. D. M., & Kim, P. J. (2014a). Effect of intermittent drainage on methane and nitrous oxide emissions under different fertilization in a temperate paddy soil during rice cultivation. Journal of Korean Society for Applied Biological Chemistry, 57, 229–236.
- Kim, S. Y., Pramanik, P., Gutierrez, J., Hwang, H. Y., & Kim, P. J. (2014b). Comparison of methane emission characteristics in air-dried and composted cattle manure amended paddy soil during rice cultivation. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 197, 60–67.
- Kim, S. Y., Gutierrez, J., & Kim, P. J. (2016). Unexpected stimulation of CH₄ emissions under continuous no-tillage system in mono-rice paddy soils during cultivation. Geoderma, 267, 34–40.
- Kirschke, S., Bousquet, P., Ciais, P., Saunois, M., Canadell, J. G., Dlugokencky, E. J., et al. (2013). Three decades of global methane sources and sinks. Nature Geoscience, 6, 813–823.
- Kroon, P., Schrier-Uijl, A., Hensen, A., Veenendaal, E., & Jonker, H. (2010). Annual balances of CH₄ and N₂O from a managed fen meadow using eddy covariance flux measurements. European Journal of Soil Science, 61, 773–784.
- Kumar, A., Nayak, A. K., Mohanty, S., & Das, B. S. (2016). Greenhouse gas emission from direct seeded paddy fields under different soil water potentials in Eastern India. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 228, 111–123.
- Lee, C. H., Park, K. D., Jung, K. Y., Ali, M. A., Lee, D., Gutierrez, J., et al. (2010). Effect of Chinese milk vetch (Astragalus sinicus L.) as a green manure on rice productivity and methane emission in paddy soil. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 138, 343–347.
- Lee, J., Gu, J., Park, H., Yun, H., Kim, S., Lee, W., et al. (2014). Estimation of populations exposed to road traffic noise in districts of Seoul metropolitan area of Korea. International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 11, 2729–2740.
- Li, D., Liu, M., Cheng, Y., Wang, D., Qin, J., Jiao, J., Li, H., & Hu, F. (2011). Methane emissions from double-rice cropping

system under conventional and no tillage in southeast China. Soil and Tillage Research, 113, 77–81.

- Long, K. D., Flanagan, L. B., & Cai, T. (2010). Diurnal and seasonal variation in methane emissions in a northern Canadian peatland measured by eddy covariance. Global Change Biology, 16, 2420–2435.
- Lu, W. F., Chen, W., Duan, B. W., Guo, W. M., Lu, Y., Lantin, R. S., et al. (2000). Methane emissions and mitigation options in irrigated rice fields in Southeast China. Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems, 58, 65–73.
- Minami, K. (1995). The effect of nitrogen fertilizer use and other practices on methane emission from flooded rice. Fertilizer Research, 40, 71–84.
- Minamikawa, K., Yagi, K., Tokida, T., Sander, B. O., & Wassmann, R. (2012). Appropriate frequency and time of day to measure methane emissions from an irrigated rice paddy in Japan using the manual closed chamber method. Greenhouse Gas Measurement and Management, 2, 118– 128.
- Oyewole, O. A. (2012). Microbial communities and their activities in paddy fields: a review. Journal of Veterinary Advances, 2, 74–80.
- Rolston, D. E. (1986). Gas flux. In A. Klute (Ed.), Methods of soil analysis, part one. Physical and mineralogical methods. SSSA Book Ser. 5 (pp. 1103–1119). Madison: SSSA.
- Rural Development Administration, Korea (RDA). (1988). Methods of soil chemical analysis. National Institute of Agricultural Science and Technology, RDA: Suwon.
- Singh, S. N., Verma, A., & Tyagi, L. (2003). Investigating options for attenuating methane emission from Indian rice fields. Environment International, 29, 547–553.
- Song, C., Xu, X., Tian, H., & Wang, Y. (2009). Ecosystem– atmosphere exchange of CH4 and N2O and ecosystem respiration in wetlands in the Sanjiang Plain, Northeastern China. Global Change Biology, 15, 692–705.
- Sumner, M., Miller, W. (1996). Cation exchange capacity and exchange coefficients. Methods of soil analysis part 3 chemical methods. 1201–1229.
- Tyagi, L., Kumari, B., & Singh, S. N. (2010). Water management—a tool for methane mitigation from irrigated paddy fields. Science Total Environment, 408, 1085–1090.
- Van Groenigen, K. J., van Kessel, C., & Hungate, B. A. (2013). Increased greenhouse-gas intensity of rice production under future atmospheric conditions. Nature Climate Change, 3, 288–291.
- Wang, B., Neue, H. U., & Samonte, H. P. (1999). Factors controlling diel patterns of methane emission via rice. Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems, 53, 229–235.
- Weishampel, P., Kolka, R. (2008). Measurement of methane fluxes from terrestrial landscapes using static, non-steady state enclosures. In: C. M. Hoover (Ed.), Field measurements for forest carbon monitoring (pp. 163-170). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Weller, S., Kraus, D., Butterbach-Bahl, K., Wassmann, R., Tirol-Padre, A., & Kiese, R. (2015). Diurnal patterns of methane emissions from paddy rice fields in the Philippines. Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science, 178, 755–767.
- Yun, S. I., Choi, W. J., Choi, J. E., & Kim, H. Y. (2013). High-time resolution analysis of diel variation in methane emission from flooded rice fields. Communications in Soil Science and Plant, 44, 1620–1628.
- Yvon-Durocher, G., Allen, A. P., Bastviken, D., Conrad, R., Gudasz, C., St-Pierre, A., et al. (2014). Methane fluxes show consistent temperature dependence across microbial to ecosystem scales. Nature, 507, 488–491.
- Zona, D., Oechel, W., Kochendorfer, J., Paw, U., Salyuk, A., Olivas, P. et al. (2009). Methane fluxes during the initiation of a large-scale water table manipulation experiment in the Alaskan Arctic tundra. Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 23, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009GB003487>.
- Zou, J. W., Huang, Y., Jiang, J. Y., Zheng, X. H., & Sass, L. R. (2005). A 3-year field measurement of methane and nitrous oxide emissions from rice paddies in China: effects of water regime, crop residue, and fertilizer application. Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 19, GB2021. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1029/2004GB002401) [org/10.1029/2004GB002401.](https://doi.org/10.1029/2004GB002401)