



## Short communication

# N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from N-fertilized rice paddy soil can be mitigated by wood vinegar application at an appropriate rate



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## ABSTRACT

To understand the impacts of wood vinegar (WV), a by-product of biochar production, on N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and their total global warming potential (GWP<sub>t</sub>) from N-fertilized rice paddy soil, a soil column experiment was conducted using three treatments: 240 kg urea-N ha<sup>-1</sup> accompanied with 0, 5, and 10 t WV ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Results showed that N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emission flux patterns were dominated by water regime of rice growth cycle, which was independent with WV application. The total N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub> emission loads and GWP<sub>t</sub> over rice season of three N received treatments were 6.41–8.85 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, 127.7–405.0 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, and 5.24–12.03 t CO<sub>2</sub>-e ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Rice seasonal N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were synchronously mitigated by 22.4% and 36.4%, respectively, when WV was applied at 5 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. Consequently, 5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> WV treatment reduced 31.5% of GWP<sub>t</sub> compared with the urea treatment. In addition, 10 t ha<sup>-1</sup> WV treatment exerted a more positive effect on suppressing N<sub>2</sub>O with 27.6% reduction. However, it increased GWP<sub>t</sub> by 57.2% because its CH<sub>4</sub> emission load was increased by 101.8%. In conclusion, WV amendment applied at an appropriate rate (5 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) or combination with other CH<sub>4</sub> control technologies were suggested to reduce both N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and thereby the GWP<sub>t</sub> in N-fertilized rice paddy soil.

## 1. Introduction

Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) are two powerful greenhouse gases (GHGs), being with a global warming potential (GWP) of 25 and 298 times greater than carbon dioxide on a 100-year mass basis (IPCC, 2013). Flooded rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) systems simultaneously emit CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O to atmosphere, due to the favorable production, consumption, and transport systems between the rice rhizospheric soil and the atmosphere, especially in the rice paddy soil which received high loads of nitrogen (N) fertilizer (Linguist et al., 2012; Ji et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2017). China, as the world's leading producer of rice, grows rice on approximately 30 million ha per year, with dramatically increased N consumption (FAO, 2012). It is estimated that 7.7–8.0 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> and 138–154 Gg N<sub>2</sub>O are emitted from Chinese rice fields (Liang et al., 2013). Therefore, it is of great importance to mitigate both CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from N-fertilized rice paddy soil.

Recently, biochar has been considered as a promising soil amendment, which can improve soil quality, enhance crop productivity and

mitigate GHGs emissions (Jeffery et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012; Pratiwi and Shinogi, 2016; Feng et al., 2017; Niu et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2017). Based on these positive impacts, biochar will likely have large-scale applications in the future. However, this will lead to the great generation of by-products. Wood vinegar (WV), which is also known as pyrolygneous acid, is one of the major by-products during biochar production and can be incorporated into farmland soil (Yatagai et al., 2002; Lin and Hwang, 2009; Hanger, 2013a). Therefore, it is interesting to know the impacts of WV on GHGs emissions after incorporation into farmland soils, which will expand the application scope of biochar and its by-products.

The main substances of WV include many organic chemical components (Yatagai et al., 2002; Baimark and Niamsa, 2009). Herein, 2, 6-dimethoxyphenol, 2-methoxyphenol, and 3, 5-dimethoxy-4-hydroxytoluene, were found as main three components in WV according to Yang et al. (2016). As reported in previous literature, WV soil addition has showed beneficial effects including crop productivity improvement (Kadota and Niimi, 2004; Lashari et al., 2013, 2015; Polthanee et al.,

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2015), glyphosate leaching reduction (Hagner et al., 2013b), as well as  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization mitigation (Win et al., 2009). However, whether WV application can mitigate  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions from rice paddy soil at the same time are not well documented (Ogawa and Okimori, 2010). If so, it is a theoretical and practical innovation on how to effectively mitigate the GHGs emissions from rice paddy systems. Therefore, related works should be conducted to expand the usage scopes of by-products of biochar, as well as to protect the atmospheric environment.

The organic compounds in WV will provide C source for microorganisms in soil. Previous works reported that microorganisms and microbial activity changes in agricultural soils as results of the organic contents in the added WV (Baimark and Niamsa, 2009; Hanger, 2013a; Lu et al., 2015). In addition, the acid property will change the soil environment. Overall, C source, pH change, microbial activity were the direct factors that related to the GHGs emissions from agricultural soil (Ji et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015; Niu et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2017). We therefore hypothesize that WV addition may influence the  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission from flooded rice paddy receiving N fertilizer. If so, to which direction and to what degree need accurate assessments.

Here, we conducted a soil column experiment with rice cultivation to evaluate the actual effects of WV amendment on GHGs emissions. In brief, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of WV at three application rates (0, 5 and  $10 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ , respectively) on  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission flux patterns, the cumulative  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission loads, as well as the total global warming potential ( $\text{GWP}_t$ ) over rice season in a paddy soil with N fertilization.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Background information and soil column installation

The soil used for repacking to soil column (25 cm in diameter and 70 cm in height, Supplementary Fig. 1) was collected from a paddy field used for more than 50 years in Zhoutie town, Yixing city, Jiangsu Province, China ( $31.4765^\circ \text{N}$  and  $119.9861^\circ \text{E}$ ). The test soil was classified as Hydragric Anthrosol and the top layer (0–20 cm) soil has following properties: pH 6.38 (soil: water, 1: 2.5), total N  $1.56 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , total P  $0.96 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , total K  $4.12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , and organic matter 2.28%. The detailed processes of soil sampling, pretreating and repacking to soil columns were performed according to our previous work (Sun et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2017). Tested WV was derived according the methods as described in Yan et al. (2011) and Feng et al. (2017). The WV was the liquid by-product when biochar is produced via pyrolysis of fruit wood waste in a continuous slow pyrolysis system at  $500\text{--}600^\circ \text{C}$ . The basal properties of WV were: pH 6.31, total N  $258 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , total P  $2.17 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , total K  $60 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , EC  $2.18 \text{ ms cm}^{-1}$ , TOC  $1.4 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ . The main organic compounds of WV included 4-hydroxy-4-methyl-2-pentanone, acetic acid, propionic acid, *n*-Hexadecanoic acid, etc.

### 2.2. Experimental treatments and managements

There were three treatments with three replicates including: 1) Urea: with  $240 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  but without WV; 2) Urea + WV5: with  $240 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  and  $5 \text{ t WV ha}^{-1}$ ; 3) Urea + WV10: with  $240 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$  and  $10 \text{ t WV ha}^{-1}$ .

The rice seedlings were transplanted with a density of 6 plants per soil column on July 7, 2016. Urea fertilizer supplied the N demanded and was split applied as basal fertilizer (BF) and two time supplementary fertilizers (SF1 and SF2, respectively) in ratio of 40%: 40%: 20% on July 7, July 18 and August 19, 2016, respectively. Meanwhile,  $90 \text{ kg P}_2\text{O}_5 \text{ ha}^{-1}$  (in the form of calcium superphosphate) and  $120 \text{ kg K}_2\text{O ha}^{-1}$  (in the form of KCl) were both applied as BF. All tested soil columns were continuous flooded with 3–5 cm water depth (expected for one mid-season drainage period from August 5 to 13, 2016). Local farmer' practice was adopted to control the disease and pest. The rice plants were harvested on November 30, 2016.

### 2.3. $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{CH}_4$ measurement

GHGs samples were collected using static chambers (29 cm in diameter and 100 cm in height) according to the modified method in Sun et al. (2013). Gas samples were taken on the 1st, 3rd, 5th, and 7th day after each split urea N fertilization applied and after surface floodwater drained. During other monitoring periods, gas samples were collected two or three times per month. Before gas samples were collected, the chambers were placed on the basal fixed frame in each soil column and sealed with water. For each observation, four gas samples were extracted from the chamber with a 50 mL syringe at the 1st, 16th, 31st, and 46th min after chamber sealed and were immediately transferred into evacuated vials. The  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  concentrations analysis, GHGs emission rates calculation and the rice seasonal cumulative  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  emission loads evaluation were performed according to Sun et al. (2013).

### 2.4. Total global warming potential ( $\text{GWP}_t$ ) of $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{CH}_4$

$\text{GWP}_t$  ( $\text{kg CO}_2\text{-e ha}^{-1}$ ) was used to compare the total GHGs emission in  $\text{CO}_2$ -equivalents per hectare under different treatments. Based on this method,  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission can be evaluated and help assessing the potential trade-off effects between soil  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions as affected by WV amendment in rice paddy soil. In the current study,  $\text{GWP}_t$  was calculated using the following equation (Zhang et al., 2012):

$$\text{GWP}_t = 298 \times \text{EM}(\text{N}_2\text{O}) + 25 \times \text{EM}(\text{CH}_4)$$

where  $\text{EM}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  and  $\text{EM}(\text{CH}_4)$  represent rice seasonal emissions of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ , respectively; 298 and 25 are coefficients for transforming  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ , respectively, into equivalent  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions within a 100-year time horizon.

### 2.5. Data statistical analysis

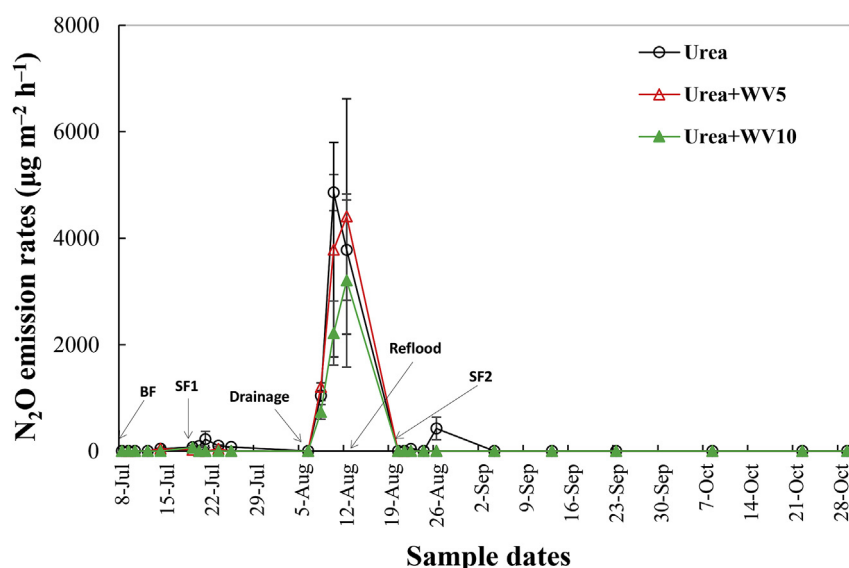
One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to assess the effects of WV application with different rates on the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions from N-fertilized rice paddy soil. Statistical differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) among tested individual treatments were determined using Duncan multiple comparison tests (SPSS Ver. 16.0 for Windows, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ emission flux pattern and cumulative emission load during rice season

In rice season, similar  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission flux pattern was observed in three treatments, which was mainly determined by water regime (Fig. 1). This was consistent with previous results evidenced from rice paddy soil (Zou et al., 2005; Liang et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2015). In the continuous flooded period until August 5, almost no  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission was observed, even after BF and SF1 were applied. During the mid-season drainage period, a large proportion of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions was detected immediately after disappearance of the floodwater. The  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission rates of N-fertilized treatments came to peaks with  $3205\text{--}4858 \mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$  (Fig. 1). Then the soils were re-flooded, and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission rates dropped off immediately and kept at a very low level. This could be mainly attributed to the anaerobic conditions in continuous flooded paddy soil (Sun et al., 2015).

Considerable amount of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions with  $6.41\text{--}8.85 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  was recorded in three treatments. In comparison with the urea treatment, WV incorporation significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) reduced the cumulative  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions by 22.4–27.6% (Fig. 2), though no obvious difference was found between Urea + WV5 and Urea + WV10 treatment groups. Mitigation of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission from rice paddy soils received WV is of great significance since  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  is a powerfully potent GHG. As result of the



**Fig. 1.** Seasonal variations in  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission fluxes from rice paddy soil. BF: basal fertilization; SF1: first supplementary fertilization; SF2: second supplementary fertilization. Data were presented with mean value  $\pm$  SD ( $n = 3$ ).

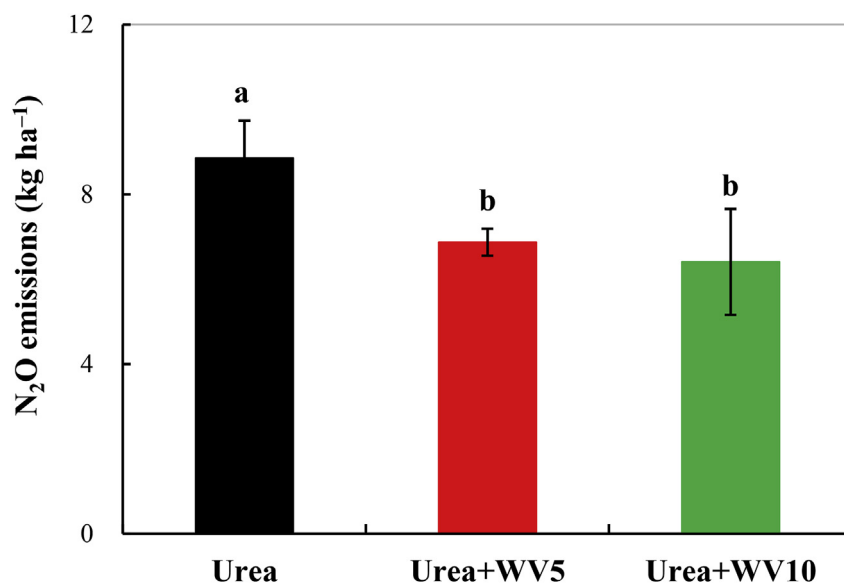
organic C input and soil pH change, WV amendment could potentially favor the activity of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  reductase from denitrifying microorganisms, while inhibited the activity of reductases involved in the conversion of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (Yanai et al., 2007; Ranatunga et al., 2018). Indeed, changes in soil microbial community structure and enzyme activity after WV addition have been reported (Lu et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2016). As a consequence, what is the main emission factor contributing to the reduction of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  from N fertilizer plus WV needs further investigations.

### 3.2. Methane ( $\text{CH}_4$ ) emission flux pattern and cumulative emission load during rice season

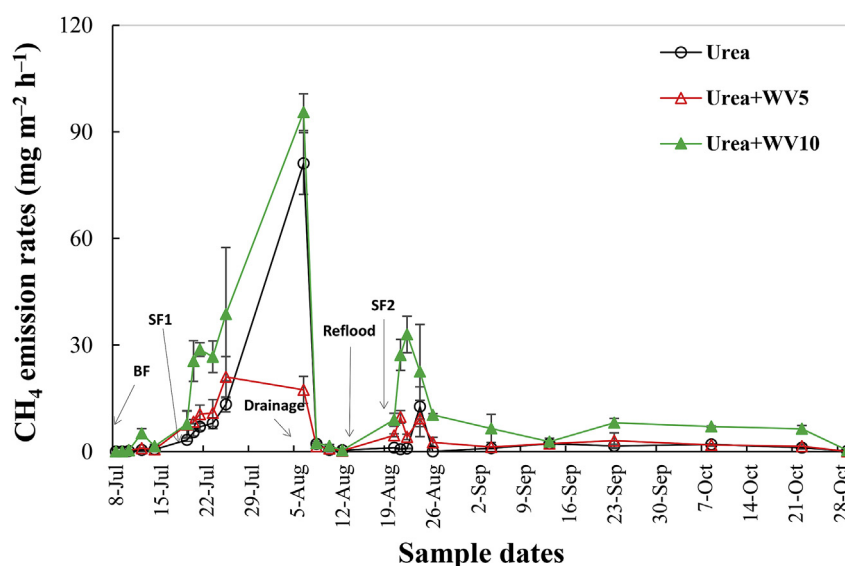
Fig. 3 shows the  $\text{CH}_4$  flux pattern from paddy soil throughout the rice growth period. There was no difference in the pattern of seasonal variations of  $\text{CH}_4$  flux among the treatments whether WV was added or not. Seasonal pattern of  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions varied with water regime (Zou et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2012), which was also confirmed in our

present study (Fig. 3). The  $\text{CH}_4$  flux generally increased and reached peaks at about 30 days after rice seedlings were transplanted and then dropped off. After soil re-flooded, the  $\text{CH}_4$  flux increased to another peaks and remained at low level afterwards, until the rice was harvested. The patterns of seasonal variations in  $\text{CH}_4$  flux from rice paddy plots were quite different from those of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  flux (Figs. 2 and 3):  $\text{CH}_4$  mainly emitted during water flooding stage, whereas  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emitted mainly during mid-season drainage period. Similarly, a trade-off emission pattern between  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  resulting from mid-season drainage has been well documented in rice paddy soils (Zou et al., 2005; Yao et al., 2017). Based on the observed data in the present work, WV amendment did not change either the  $\text{CH}_4$  or  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission flux pattern of rice growth cycle.

Total of  $\text{CH}_4$  emission loads of N-fertilized treatments were from  $127.7 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  to  $405.0 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  in the present study. Results in Fig. 4 shows that  $\text{CH}_4$  emission was reduced by 36.4% when WV applied at  $5 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ; however, it was increased dramatically by 101.8% when the WV application rate increased to  $10 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ .



**Fig. 2.** Cumulative  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions from paddy soil over a single rice cycle as impacted by wood vinegar (WV) addition. The bars represent the standard deviation of triplicates ( $n = 3$ ). Different Lowercase letters indicate significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) differences among treatment means.



**Fig. 3.** Seasonal variations in  $\text{CH}_4$  emission fluxes from rice paddy soil. BF: basal fertilization; SF1: first supplementary fertilization; SF2: second supplementary fertilization. Data were means of three triplicates ( $n = 3$ ).

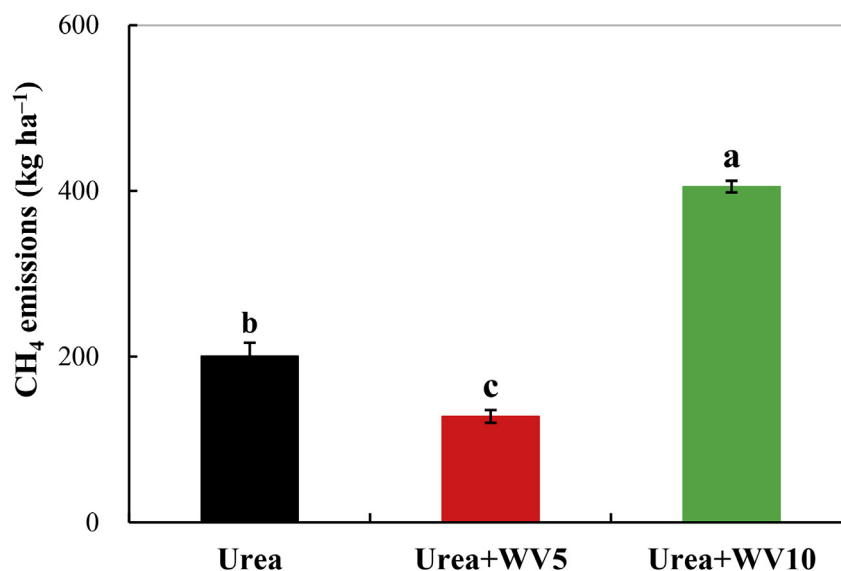
It is well known that multiple factors contribute to the intensity of  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions from rice paddy soil (Schimel, 2000; Bridgham et al., 2013). The  $\text{CH}_4$  emitted from rice paddy soil is primarily determined by three processes:  $\text{CH}_4$  production, oxidation, and transport from soil to atmosphere (Cai et al., 2007; Linquist et al., 2012). WV contains many organic components and the composition is very complicated (Mum and Ku, 2010; Yang et al., 2016), also reflected from our WV. It is possible, WV enhanced  $\text{CH}_4$  oxidation in the root rhizosphere which leads to a reduction in  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions under Urea + WV5 treatment.

However, WV applied at higher load ( $10 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$  in present study) stimulated  $\text{CH}_4$  emission from N-fertilized rice paddy soil. The largest fraction of the organic components in the WV is acids in present work and Choi et al. (2012), which might increase soil soluble C source for  $\text{CH}_4$  generation and emission (Cai et al., 2007). According to Win et al. (2009), WV addition suppressed  $\text{NH}_3$  volatilization from a paddy soil by preventing the transition of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  into liquid  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration (Sommer et al., 2003). In addition, in our study, Urea + WV10 treatment effectively suppressed  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emission indicating the probably

lower nitrification-denitrification rate and thereby higher  $\text{NH}_4^+$  existed in soil. Perhaps, competition of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  for the oxidation with  $\text{CH}_4$  by methanotrophs (Mosier et al., 1991), adversely stimulate  $\text{CH}_4$  emission from N-fertilized rice paddy fields receiving higher load of WV. Therefore, in flooded rice systems, the interactions between WV application and the  $\text{CH}_4$  cycle are complex with different processes when WV was applied at different levels, which needs further research in the future.

### 3.3. Total global warming potential ( $\text{GWP}_t$ ) of $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{CH}_4$

Data of  $\text{GWP}_t$  of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  from rice paddy soil were organized in Fig. 5.  $\text{GWP}_t$  of N-fertilized paddy soil under a single rice cycle ranged from  $5.24 \pm 0.53 \text{ t CO}_2\text{-e ha}^{-1}$  to  $12.0 \pm 0.71 \text{ t CO}_2\text{-e ha}^{-1}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  contributed 61.1–84.1% of  $\text{GWP}_t$ . Interestingly, application of WV at a lower rate ( $5 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ) mitigated  $\text{GWP}_t$  by 31.5%, as result of its positive effect on reducing both  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions (Figs. 2 and 4). However, if applied with larger amount ( $10 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ ), WV reduced  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$



**Fig. 4.** Cumulative  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions from paddy soil over a single rice cycle as impacted by wood vinegar (WV) addition. The bars represent the standard deviation of triplicates ( $n = 3$ ). Different Lowercase letters indicate significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) differences among treatment means.

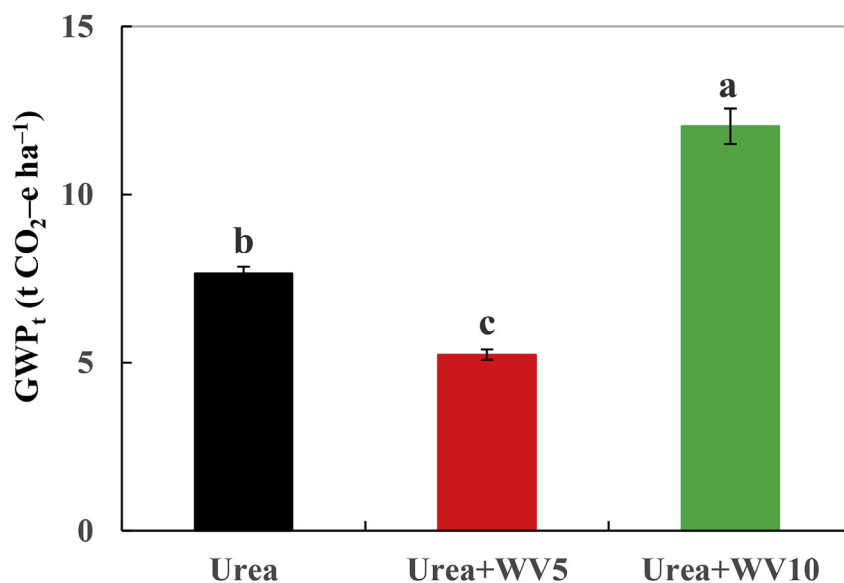


Fig. 5. Total global warming potential (GWP<sub>t</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalents) of N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> from paddy soil over a single rice cycle as impacted by wood vinegar (WV) addition. The bars represent the standard deviation of triplicates ( $n = 3$ ). Different Lowercase letters indicate significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) differences among treatment means.

but increased CH<sub>4</sub> emission at a much larger scale (Figs. 2 and 4). Simultaneously considering the fact that CH<sub>4</sub> contributed 61.1–84.1% of GWP<sub>t</sub> in N-fertilized rice paddy soil, WV adversely increased GWP<sub>t</sub> by 57.2% (Fig. 5). Therefore, 5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> WV is suggested for incorporating into rice paddy soil because it can suppress both N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and thereby the GWP<sub>t</sub>.

Present work evidenced that WV applications with different rates has contrast impacts on GWP<sub>t</sub> from rice paddy soil received N fertilizer, which was mainly as results of its contrary impact on CH<sub>4</sub> emission. In rice paddy soil, WV could change the C and N fates by influencing soil pH (Win et al., 2009), soil microbial community structure and enzyme activity (Lu et al., 2015) and the crop growth (Lashari et al., 2013; Polthane et al., 2015). It is easily understood that WV application at varied rates has diverse impacts on these aspects related to the eventual CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Therefore, the optimal rate of soil amendment (such as MV in the present study) should be firstly investigated before its large-scale application.

#### 4. Conclusion

Soil column experiment was conducted to evaluate the impact of WV application on N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and the GWP<sub>t</sub> from N-fertilized rice paddy soil. Both N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emission flux patterns were not changed after WV incorporation. However, WV application indeed influenced GHGs emission rates, as well as the cumulative emission loads. When applied at lower rate (5 t ha<sup>-1</sup>), WV simultaneously suppressed N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emission, and the corresponding GWP<sub>t</sub>. Reduced N<sub>2</sub>O, but dramatically increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were observed in rice paddy soil receiving 10 t ha<sup>-1</sup> WV, leading to a higher GWP<sub>t</sub>. Therefore, application of WV at an optimal rate was recommended for its function of both reducing N<sub>2</sub>O and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from N-fertilized rice paddy soil. However, its impact mechanisms and long-term effects need further investigations.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.05.015>.

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