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Nitrous oxide emissions in nonflooding period from fallow paddy fields

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Abstract

The study was conducted to investigate the N₂O emissions and dissolved N₂O in the leachate during the nonflooding period in nongrowing paddy fields. Three kinds of paddy soils were repacked to soil columns and were supersaturated with water initially and dried gradually in a greenhouse to attain the N₂O emissions flux during the incubation. Soils with the texture of silty clay-loam (Q and H) produced cracks during the drying of soil, but soil with the texture of silty loam (X) did not form the cracks. Cracked soils had similar amount of N₂O emissions, and the mean N₂O flux was 1,280.9 and 1,133.3 $\mu g/(m^2 \cdot h)$ from Q and H soil, respectively, during the incubation; whereas the mean N₂O flux from noncracked X soil was 426.3 $\mu g/(m^2 \cdot h)$, i.e., significantly different from cracked soils. From cracked soils, the diurnal N₂O emissions reached two peaks at 14:00 and 2:00, but such emissions peaked only at 2:00 from noncracked soil. The dissolved N₂O concentrations in leachates from noncracked soil columns were greater than those from the cracked soil columns, and it indicated that the preferential flow might not affect the amounts of dissolved N₂O in leachates during soil cracking. Supersaturated dissolved N₂O in the leachate was potential source of N₂O emissions. Fallow paddy fields have big risks of N₂O emissions during nonflooding periods.

Key words: nitrous oxide emission; cracks; soil drying; paddy soil

Introduction

The estimated range of N₂O emissions from agricultural soils varies widely (Junta et al., 2003) because of its strong dependency on soil conditions, irrigation methods, plant types, and climate. The N₂O emissions from paddy fields are considered as the important anthropogenic source because of the widespread plant area. Generally, upland soils have much higher N2O emissions than that of wetlands/paddy fields. The emissions rate of N2O from flooded paddy field into the atmosphere is very low (De Datta et al., 1991). Flooded paddy fields are not a potential source because N₂O was further reduced to N₂. Mosier et al. (1989) reported that less than 0.1% of the applied nitrogen is emitted as N₂O from temperate and tropical paddy fields when the soils are flooded for a number of days before the application of fertilizer. Recent studies showed that N₂O was mainly emitted during nonflooding period (Cai et al., 2001; Xing et al., 2002) indicating that rice field could serve as a source of N2O into the atmosphere during wetting and drying cycles, which represents about 22% of N₂O emitted from rice-based cropping systems in China (Xing et al., 2002). Moreover, Towprayoon et al. (2005) indicated that N2O emission was related to the number of drain days rather than the frequency of drainage.

Water-saving irrigation (WSI) practices have been one of the basic national policies in China (Li, 2001). Watersaving irrigation regimes for rice has been explored since 1980s, which causes the traditional flooded fields to turn into irrigated fields, and paddy fields have different nonflooding periods. The longer nonflooding period produces soil drying. Consequently, the alternation of soil drying and wetting go through the whole rice growth in irrigated paddy fields. The alternating soil drying and wetting often result in changes of field water levels. Moreover, soil would produce cracks during the nonflooding periods, and such drying further results in some important changes in soil physical and chemical properties such as increasing temperature and perturbation of soil chemical reactions (Magid et al., 1999). It is obvious that the development of soil cracks can enhance the transport of water, nutrients, and gases in the soil profile that can affect crop growth in the field (Bandyopadhyay et al., 2003; Lu et al., 2000).

Macropores and cracks enable the rapid movement of water through semiimpermeable soils under both saturated and unsaturated conditions and can account for high rates of transport of surface-applied fertilizers and other solute through the soil profile. Such flows have been referred to as bypass flow or preferential flow. Preferential water flow formed easily when soil surface was cracked. Nutrient solute was leached fast by preferential flow. Previous

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1336

researches reported that large amounts of nitrate were leached and transformed to the groundwater by preferential flow from agricultural fields (Swensen and Bakken, 1998). We were curious about whether dissolved N_2O was leached during soil cracking as well. Before harvesting of rice, irrigation is often stopped two weeks before the crop reaches maturity by WSI. After harvesting of rice, fields often are left fallow and allowed to dry before the next crop.

Although the presence and significance of soil cracks has long been inferred from field observation, typically many studies have followed a numerical approach to derive models of water and solute flux. However, the N₂O emissions from fallow paddy soils undergoing soil drying in the nonflooding and the effects of soil cracking on the N₂O emissions have rarely been studied. Moreover, the change of dissolved N₂O in the leachate needs more attention because the transfer of preferential flow may cause big accumulation of potential N₂O emissions.

Accordingly, the goals of the study were conducted to investigate soil cracking and quantify the N₂O emissions from the paddy soils with different cracking intensity during the nonflooding period with no rice growth. Specifically, this study was focused on the transport of dissolved N₂O by preferential water flow to gain the potential N₂O emission after soil surface cracking. In contrast to the traditional flooded irrigation, we tried to find another method, while at the same time not impacting on N₂O emissions, which may be detrimentally affected by practicing WSI.

1 Materials and methods

1.1 Soil samples

Three different paddy soils were collected from fallow paddy fields, two (Q and H) from Shuangqiao Farm, $120^{\circ}17'E$ and $30^{\circ}19'N$; and the other (X) from Zhejiang University, $120^{\circ}15'E$ and $30^{\circ}25'N$. The basic characteristics of these collected soils are shown in Table 1. The soils Q and H have the same texture, silty clay loam, but have great differences in organic matter content and total nitrogen content. However, the soil X was with silt loam texture and had especially low organic matter.

1.2 Soil column experiments

Soil column experiments, including three kinds of paddy soils, were conducted by soil drying that is generally practiced after rice harvesting in the paddy fields in southeastern China. Soil samples were air dried, pass through a 2-mm sieve, and repacked in a polyvinyl chloride column with 0.30 m in diameter and 1.0 m in depth. This series of pretreatment for soil samples is to simulate the typical tillage of paddy fields. Three replicates were performed for each soil. There was a 10-cm layer of sand at the bottom in each soil column to simulate the *in situ* fields. The soil surface was leveled at 10 cm below the top of the columns. After the soil columns were flooded continuously for approximately two weeks, they were drained completely. Soils in columns were reirrigated to oversaturation with 2 cm standing water layer above the soil surface without commercial nitrogen fertilizer application, and then they were dried gradually by evaporation in the greenhouse.

1.3 Measurements

Nitrous oxide gas was collected every day at 8:00-9:00 A.M., and N₂O emissions were determined using static chambers as described by Hutchinson and Mosier (1981) by covering a surface area of 0.09 m² with a volume of 0.027 m³. Gas samples from the chambers were collected using a two-way needle through a vacuum vial with a volume of 18.5 ml. The gas samples were collected at 0, 10, 20, and 30 min after placing the chambers on the soil surface. The analysis of the collected gas samples was performed using a Gas Chromatograph (14 B, Shimadzu, Japan) with electron capture detector (ECD) from Institute of Soil Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences. Nitrous oxide concentration in the gas sample was also estimated using the ECD. N_2 was used as the carrier gas, and the flow rate was maintained at 30 ml/min, and no ascarite was used. Column, injector, and detector temperatures were set at 65, 120, and 350°C, respectively. The N₂O gas emissions were calculated by linear regression.

In addition, leachates at the outfall at the bottom of soil columns were collected to measure pH and the concentration of dissolved N₂O. The concentration of dissolved N₂O in the leachates was determined by a headspace equilibration technique as described by Liikanen *et al.* (2002) and was calculated according to the Henry's law as described by Terry *et al.* (1981). Volume of each soil crack was calculated using the total length, average width, and depth of the crack as described by Bandyopadhyay *et al.* (2003). At the same time, the topsoil samples were also collected to determine soil water content by oven-dry method in soil columns. Otherwise stated, all results are means of three replicate analysis with standard errors less than 5% of the mean value.

2 Results

2.1 Soil moisture

On day 3, the standing water on the soil surface was still about 1 cm in Q and H soil columns, but not in the X soil columns. Table 2 shows the changes of soil gravimetric

 Table 1
 Physical and chemical properties of the paddy soils used in the experiment

Soil	Texture	pH (water:soil = 2.5:1)	Organic matter (%)	Total nitrogen (g/kg)	Clay (%)	Silt (%)	Sand (%)
Q	Silty clay loam	6.89	2.71	2.75	32.25	67.59	0.16
Н	Silty clay loam	6.30	4.59	3.82	31.76	68.43	0.81
Х	Silt loam	5.64	0.60	0.92	10.42	88.10	1.48

Q and H soils are from Shuangqiao Farm; X soil is from Zhejiang University.

Incubation time (d)	Soil g	ravimetric content	:(%)
	Soil Q	Soil H	Soil X
4	47.4 ± 0.5	52.9 ± 0.5	34.1 ± 0.4
5	43.8 ± 0.4	44.8 ± 0.5	31.2 ± 0.3
6	37.8 ± 0.4	41.0 ± 0.5	28.8 ± 0.3
7	33.5 ± 0.4	37.0 ± 0.4	25.8 ± 0.3
8	29.8 ± 0.3	34.0 ± 0.4	23.4 ± 0.2
9	29.0 ± 0.3	29.5 ± 0.4	22.9 ± 0.2
10	27.4 ± 0.3	27.8 ± 0.3	22.2 ± 0.2
11	26.1 ± 0.3	28.4 ± 0.3	21.1 ± 0.2
12	25.1 ± 0.3	28.8 ± 0.3	21.1 ± 0.2

 Table 2
 Soil gravimetric content in three kinds of topsoil

Data are expressed as mean ± SD.

water content from three kinds of top-soils during the later incubation. The mean soil gravimetric water content was 47.4%, 52.9%, and 34.15% in Q, H, and X soil columns, respectively, during the incubation. In general, the changes in soil moisture decrease as the incubation time increase. Soil moisture decreased sharply from day 4 to day 8 in Q soil columns; there was no significant changes after day 8. Soil moisture decreased rapidly from the day 4 to day 9 in H soil columns, and no obvious changes occurred after the 9th day during the incubation as well. For X soil, the soil gravimetric water content was lower than Q and H soil at the same incubation time, its daily change was not stronger than Q and H soil.

2.2 Generation of cracks and its development

The soil cracks occurred on day 4 for Q soil columns and on day 5 for H, but the surface of the X soil columns did not crack during the whole incubation period. The cracks of the Q and H soil columns attained the maximum levels for the following 4 days as typical progression of the cracks from their generation to maximum plateau can be seen in Fig.1. As shown in Table 3, the variations of the volumes of cracks in Q and H soils were similar. The mean volume of the cracks in the Q and H soils increased linearly from their generation to maximum attainment, and their length, width, and depth did not change when the development of cracks were stable (the volume of the crack was calculated based on the length, width, and depth).

2.3 Nitrous oxide emissions from paddy soils

The mean N₂O emissions from Q, H, and X soils were 1,280.9, 1,133.3, and 426.3 μ g/(m²·h), respectively, during the incubation. The N₂O emissions patterns were significantly different among cracked Q and H soils and



Fig. 1 Changes in cracks from generation to stabilization. (a) day 1; (b) day 2; (c) day 3; (d) day 4.

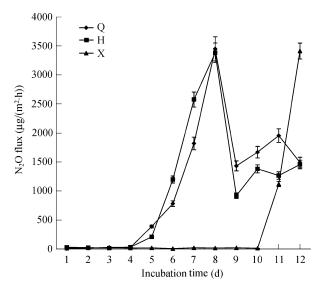


Fig. 2 N₂O emissions flux from three kinds of paddy soils during the incubation (bars indicated mean \pm SD, n = 3).

noncracked X soil (Fig.2). Nitrous oxide emissions flux was much lower before the occurrence of cracks in all the experiments. Daily N_2O emission flux increased with exponential functions after incubation to attain maximum as the cracks were developing closely to maximum (from

Table 3 Characteristics of cracks developed in Q and H soil during the incubation

Time (d)	Total length (cm)		Width (mm)		Depth (cm)		Volume (cm ³)	
	Soil Q	Soil H	Soil Q	Soil H	Soil Q	Soil H	Soil Q	Soil H
4	47.3	0	5	0	2.3	0	54.39	0
5	56.75	87.3	5.5	4	4.5	3.6	140.46	125.71
6	65.45	98.7	6	4.5	5.4	4.2	212.06	186.54
7	65.6	99.4	6.9	6	5.9	4.8	267.06	286.27
8	69.1	86.5	6.5	6	8.3	5.2	372.79	269.88
9	69.2	87	6.5	6	8.3	5.2	373.33	271.44
10	69.2	87	6.5	6	8.3	5.2	373.33	271.44
11	69.2	87	6.5	6	8.3	5.2	373.33	271.44
12	69.2	87	6.5	6	8.3	5.2	373.33	271.44

day 1 to day 8). Different exponential functions for Q and H soils are as follows:

$$F_{\rm Q} = 1.6973 e^{0.762t} \ R^2 = 0.964 \ (p < 0.01; 1 \le t \le 8)$$
(1)

 $F_{\rm H} = 3.8439 {\rm e}^{0.848t} R^2 = 0.857 \ (p < 0.05; 1 \le t \le 8) \ (2)$

where, $F_{\rm O}$ and $F_{\rm H}$ is mean daily N₂O flux from Q and H soil column respectively; and t (d) is time of incubation. The emissions of N_2O in cracked soils peaked on day 8, and the highest emissions from Q and H soil were 3,449.1 and 3,381.2 $\mu g/(m^2 \cdot h)$, respectively. The N₂O emissions decreased after day 9, and the values fluctuated at around 1,500 $\mu g/(m^2 \cdot h)$ from day 9 to the day 12 in the cracked Q and H soils (Fig.2). However, from noncracked X soil, N₂O emissions were about 10–20 μ g/(m²·h) until day 10 of the incubation, but the emissions increased quickly on day 11 and peaked at 3,411.8 $\mu g/(m^2 \cdot h)$.

2.4 Diurnal N₂O emission flux

Diurnal N₂O emissions were measured every 4 h in Q, H, and X soil columns from the day 10 to day 12 in which cracks had developed steadily for cracked Q and H soils. Fig.3 indicates that N₂O emissions reached peaks at 14:00 (in afternoon) and 2:00 (at midnight) from cracked Q and H soils. But N₂O emissions from noncracked X soil had only one peak period that appeared at 2:00 at midnight.

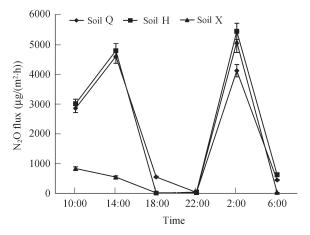


Fig. 3 Diurnal N₂O emissions from three kinds of paddy soils (bars indicated mean \pm SD, n = 3).

2.5 Dissolved N₂O and pH of leachates

As shown in Fig.4a, the mean dissolved N₂O concentration of leachates were 3.37, 3.88, and 17.69 µg/L from Q, H, and X soil columns, respectively. The value of dissolved N₂O from the leachate ranged between 0.30 and 21.94 µg/L in Q columns, and 0.30 and 16.13 µg/L in H columns, and 0.75 and 40.90 µg/L in Q columns. The dissolved N₂O was below 5 µg/L in Q and H soils from day 2 to day 11 except that from H soil on day 3, which (the dissolved N_2O) was 11.03 µg/L. The highest concentrations of N_2O in leachate were 21.94 and 16.13 µg/L, respectively, from Q and H soil columns.

As shown in Fig.4b, pH from leachate of X soil was lower than that of Q and H soils. pH increased gradually from 5.8 on day 2 to 7.7 on day 11 in X soil. The maximum pH was attained on day 4 in Q and H soils, but the values fluctuated in both soils and were higher than 7 since day 3.

3 Discussion

3.1 Interactions of soil moisture, cracks, and N₂O emissions

Drying of a paddy soil usually results in soil shrinkage and cracking. Cracks are especially prominent if expanding clay minerals are present and can reach depths of $20 \pm$ 65 cm (Cabangon and Tuong, 2000). Crack development is largely a function of moisture conditions, with progressive drying leading to shrinkage and cracking during dry periods. Significant negative linear correlations were obtained between N2O flux and soil water content in both cracked Q ($R^2 = 0.721$, p < 0.05) and H ($R^2 = 0.656$, p < 0.05) soils. Furthermore, the cracks accelerated the evaporation of topsoil water, which resulted in the reduction of soil moisture and affected the production of N₂O in soils. At the same time, cracks increased the transfer rate of N₂O into the atmosphere. This might explain the high N₂O emission during the soil cracking.

Some differences in volumes of cracks were observed between Q and H soils because of their clay and differences in organic matter contents. In contrast to noncracked soil, the diurnal N₂O emissions showed that cracks stimulated N₂O peak emissions in earlier stage from cracked soils

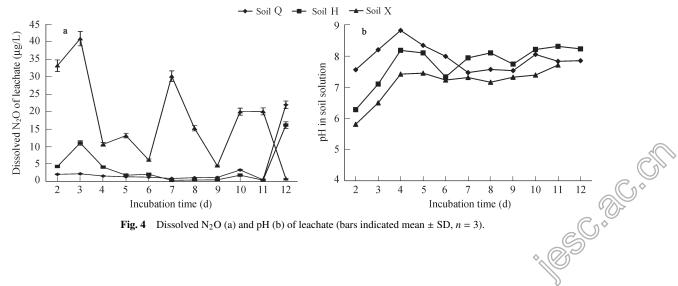


Fig. 4 Dissolved N₂O (a) and pH (b) of leachate (bars indicated mean \pm SD, n = 3).

during incubation.

The exchange of O₂ increases in the soil due to crack development and affects the rate of nitrification and denitrification. Oxygen content in cracked soils is much more than in the flooded or noncracked soil. Since nitrification accelerates in cracked soils as well, more NO₃⁻ is available to be transformed to N₂O by denitrification. In the gradual soil drying, Q and H soils had the same silty-clay loam texture; thus, they had the similar diurnal N2O emission patterns. The peaks and minima of diurnal N₂O emissions from cracked soils may have been closely related to the respiration and metabolism of microbes since the walls of the crack channels can support a higher microbial biomass, consequently greater microbial processes such as denitrification (Vinther et al., 1999). In addition, the appearance of cracks greatly increases the soil porosity, improves the status of aeration, and increases the transfer of N₂O gas from soil into the atmosphere.

As cracks developed, the power functions correlation were attained between the mean volume and N2O flux in cracked Q ($R^2 = 0.998$, p < 0.01) and H ($R^2 = 0.974$, p < 0.01) soils, and so were the mean surface area and mean depth (Huang et al., 2005). However, we also found that crack formation could primarily result from some boundary effects of the soil columns. This could lead to a possibility of overestimation of N₂O emissions in the cracked Q and H soils compared with noncracked X soil at the early stages of the incubation. Usually, cracks become steady after developing 78 d, and that is the reason why we just observed the changes of N₂O emissions.

However, in noncracked soils, the emissions reached a peak on day 11 because of the decrease in soil moisture. As shown in Table 1, the topsoil water tended to remain unchanged after the later stage of the incubation in these experiments; it might be that the topsoil water movement appeared to be balanced. The soil porosity reached the maximum because of the lowest soil moisture on day 11, which resulted in the occurrence of emissions peak. This indicated that each soil would produce a N₂O emissions peak during drying whether soil would crack. The interaction of soil moisture and cracks with N2O emissions was complex. Thus, we could not determine which factors influenced the N₂O emissions the most, before we understand the mechanism of the cracks formation, and the variance on activity and types of microorganism accompanying the cracks. In this article, it has been shown that obvious difference of N₂O emissions accompanied the formation of soil cracks in the fallow paddy soils. It is crucial to continue investigating the correlation between N₂O emissions and soil cracks and further research on the mechanism of crack formation, types of microorganisms, and their role in N₂O emissions.

3.2 Effects of soil leachate on N₂O emissions

The concentration of dissolved N₂O in the equilibrium with the ambient atmosphere is about 0.3 μ g/L; obviously, the leachates were supersaturated with N₂O in the three types of soils. As shown in Fig.4a, it was higher from

noncracked X soil than cracked Q and H soils. Any N₂O in excess of the atmospheric equilibrium concentration is assumed to be released into the atmosphere sooner or later, so the dissolved N₂O in the leachate is a potential source of N₂O emissions. Since N₂O is quite soluble in water, much of the N₂O was dissolved at the soil solution, diffused through the liquid-filled pore space, and finally diffused into the leachate by preferential flow. Because preferential flow phenomena are common in many soils (Swensen and Bakken, 1998), these processes lead to increased flow velocities and to a smaller reactive-adsorptive capacity of the soil. Solute may be transported by such flow process (Jardine et al., 1989). Therefore, dissolved N₂O may be transported to the subsoil. Here, it seemed that preferential flow did not affect the dissolved N₂O in the leachate because the dissolved N₂O was higher in noncracked X soil than in cracked Q and H soils. As described previously, cracked soils (Q and H) emitted much more N₂O gas than noncracked X soil; that is why the residue N₂O in cracked soils was less than in the X soil, indicating that the more soil emitted N₂O, the less dissolved N₂O in leachate. Although the dissolved N₂O caused more diffusion of N₂O into the atmosphere from cracks, there was no significant correlation between N2O emissions and the dissolved N2O in leachate because the preferential water flow changed the solute move in the pore-water. In addition, the thick soil columns with 80-cm depth could lag and block N2O emissions from the leachate.

Nitrous oxide emissions from paddy field during rice growing period are correlated with soil redox potential (Xing et al., 2002), and redox potential affects pH, in turn, N₂O emissions. The optimum pH range for denitrification is 7.0–8.0. The pH levels lower or higher than this range (7.0-8.0) cause inhibition of N₂O reductase and influence the N₂O accumulation. Most of the pH levels in the leachates were in the range of 7.0-8.0. However, there was no significant correlation between pH in leachates and N2O emissions because the pH of leachates is different from the pH of soils.

4 Conclusions

Nitrous oxide emission peaks were attained during nonflooding period in fallow irrigated paddy soils. There are positive correlation between soil cracking and N2O emissions. The diurnal N₂O emission dynamic from cracked soils had two peaks that appeared at 14:00 and 2:00, but there was only one peak that appeared at 2:00 from noncracked soil. Dissolved N₂O in the leachate was a big potential to emit N₂O. Since fallow paddy fields are key contribution to N₂O emissions during nonflooding period, it is necessary to control irrigation methods to reduce N₂O emission in fallow paddy fields.

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HUANG Shuhui et al.

1340

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