

# Higher yields and lower methane emissions with new rice cultivars

Running Head: Reducing methane emissions from rice agriculture

Yu Jiang<sup>1,2†</sup>, Kees Jan van Groenigen<sup>3,4†</sup>, Shan Huang<sup>5</sup>, Bruce A. Hungate<sup>6</sup>, Chris van Kessel<sup>4</sup>, Shuijin Hu<sup>1,7</sup>, Jun Zhang<sup>2</sup>, Lianhai Wu<sup>8</sup>, Xiaojun Yan<sup>1</sup>, Lili Wang<sup>1</sup>, Jin Chen<sup>9</sup>, Xiaoning Hang<sup>10</sup>, Yi Zhang<sup>1</sup>, William R. Horwath<sup>11</sup>, Rongzhong Ye<sup>12</sup>, Bruce A. Linquist<sup>4</sup>, Zhenwei Song<sup>2</sup>, Chengyan Zheng<sup>2</sup>, Aixing Deng<sup>2</sup>, Weijian Zhang<sup>1,2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute of Applied Ecology, Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing 210095, China

<sup>2</sup>Institute of Crop Sciences, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences / Key Laboratory of Crop Physiology and Ecology, Ministry of Agriculture, Beijing 100081, China

<sup>3</sup>Geography, College of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Exeter, Exeter EX4 4 RJ, UK

<sup>4</sup>Department of Plant Sciences, University of California, Davis, California 95616, USA

<sup>5</sup>Jiangxi Key Laboratory of Crop Physiology, Ecology and Genetic Breeding, Jiangxi Agricultural University, Nanchang 330045, China

<sup>6</sup>Center for Ecosystem Science and Society, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, Arizona 86011, USA

<sup>7</sup>Department of Plant Pathology, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27695, USA

<sup>8</sup>Sustainable Soils and Grassland Systems Department, Rothamsted Research, North Wyke, Okehampton EX20 2SB, UK

<sup>9</sup>Soil and Fertilizer & Resources and Environmental Institute, Jiangxi Academy of Agricultural Science, Nanchang 330200, China

<sup>10</sup>Institute of Agricultural Resources and Environment, Chongqing Academy of Agricultural Science, Chongqing, 401329, China

<sup>11</sup>Department of Land, Air and Water Resources, University of California, Davis, California 95616, USA

27 <sup>12</sup>Plant and Environmental Sciences, Clemson University, Clemson, South Carolina, 29634,  
28 USA

29 †The two authors contributed equally to this work

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31 Correspondence: Weijian Zhang, Institute of Applied Ecology, Nanjing Agricultural  
32 University, Nanjing 210095, China. Email: zwj@njau.edu.cn

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37

### 38 **Abstract**

39 Breeding high-yielding rice cultivars through increasing biomass is a key strategy to meet  
40 rising global food demands. Yet, increasing rice growth can stimulate methane (CH<sub>4</sub>)  
41 emissions, exacerbating global climate change, as rice cultivation is a major source of this  
42 powerful greenhouse gas. Here, we show in a series of experiments that high-yielding rice  
43 cultivars actually reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from typical paddy soils. Averaged across 33 rice  
44 cultivars, a biomass increase of 10% resulted in a 10.3% decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in a soil  
45 with a high carbon (C) content. Compared to a low-yielding cultivar, a high-yielding cultivar  
46 significantly increased root porosity and the abundance of methane-consuming  
47 microorganisms, suggesting that the larger and more porous root systems of high-yielding  
48 cultivars facilitated CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation by promoting O<sub>2</sub> transport to soils. Our results were further  
49 supported by a meta-analysis, showing that high-yielding rice cultivars strongly decrease CH<sub>4</sub>  
50 emissions from paddy soils with high organic C contents. Based on our results, increasing rice  
51 biomass by 10% could reduce annual CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from Chinese rice agriculture by 7.1%.  
52 Our findings suggest that modern rice breeding strategies for high-yielding cultivars can  
53 substantially mitigate paddy CH<sub>4</sub> emission in China and other rice growing regions.

54

### 55 **Introduction**

56 Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is a staple food for more than half of the people in the world, and  
57 global demand for rice is projected to increase from 644 million tons in 2007 to a projected  
58 827 million tons in 2050 (Alexandratos and Bruinsma, 2012). However, rice production is a  
59 major source of the potent greenhouse gas methane (CH<sub>4</sub>); about 11% of anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub>  
60 emissions come from rice paddies (IPCC, 2013), and among the major cereals, rice has the  
61 highest global warming potential (GWP) due to high CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Linguist *et al.*, 2012).

62 Therefore, sustainable intensification of rice cropping systems requires increasing yields while  
63 reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Chen *et al.*, 2014; Linqvist *et al.*, 2012; van Groenigen *et al.*, 2013).

64 Global rice production can be increased through improving yield potential of  
65 rice cultivars; the introduction of high-yielding rice cultivars accounts for almost 50% of the  
66 recent yield growth in developing countries (Evenson and Gollin, 2003; Peng *et al.*, 2008).  
67 Until the beginning of this century, breeding strategies to improve rice yield were mainly  
68 focused on increasing harvest index (Hay, 1995; Richards, 2000). This approach may lower  
69 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, as an increase in harvest index with constant plant biomass can decrease the  
70 production of root exudates that fuel CH<sub>4</sub> production (van der Gon *et al.*, 2002; Su *et al.*,  
71 2015). However, the current harvest index of high-yielding rice cultivars is about 0.55,  
72 approaching the theoretical upper limit of 0.65 (Hay *et al.*, 1995; Peng *et al.*, 2008).  
73 Therefore, more recent breeding strategies for increasing yields focus on enhancing biomass  
74 while maintaining the current harvest index (Richards, 2000; Peng *et al.*, 2008; Cheng *et al.*,  
75 2007; Yuan, 2015).

76 These latter breeding strategies could stimulate CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, because recent  
77 photosynthate of rice plants can be a major substrate for CH<sub>4</sub> production: with higher biomass  
78 production, more substrate could fuel higher CH<sub>4</sub> emission rates (Huang *et al.*, 1997;  
79 Watanabe *et al.*, 1999). The microorganisms that produce CH<sub>4</sub>, methanogenic archaea, also  
80 use substrates that are derived from native soil organic carbon (C) (Watanabe *et al.*, 1999;  
81 Conrad, 2007), suggesting that the effect of rice cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions depends on soil C  
82 content. Thus, to study the effects of high-yielding cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and their  
83 possible interaction with soil C availability, we conducted three independent but  
84 complementary experiments. 1) We used 33 rice cultivars to quantify the relationship between  
85 plant production and CH<sub>4</sub> emission in two otherwise similar paddy soils with different labile  
86 soil C contents, 2) We determined the effect of a high-yielding cultivar on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in a  
87 realistic field setting, and 3) Using the same soils and cultivars as in experiment 2, we grew

88 rice in microcosms and measured CH<sub>4</sub> emissions with and without wheat straw incorporation.  
89 Finally, to test the generality of our findings, we conducted a meta-analysis of studies that  
90 quantified the effect of high-yielding rice cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

91

## 92 **Methods**

### 93 *Experiment 1*

94 In this pot experiment, we quantified the relationship between plant production and CH<sub>4</sub>  
95 emission in two otherwise similar paddy soils with different labile soil C contents. The  
96 experiment was conducted under open field conditions at Pailou experimental station, Nanjing  
97 Agricultural University, Nanjing City (118.8° E, 32.1° N), China. Thirty-three rice cultivars  
98 approved and released since 2001 in China (Table 1) were tested. Both soils in this  
99 experiment were collected from the plow layer of the paddy fields at Jiangpu Farm of Nanjing  
100 Agricultural University, Nanjing City. The low C soil was stored outdoors for three years  
101 before being used; soil labile C content was low because most of the plant residues and other  
102 labile C in the soil had been oxidized or mineralized. The soil with a high soil labile C content  
103 was collected five days before the experiment. Soil labile C content was measured by the  
104 KMnO<sub>4</sub> oxidation method (Blair *et al.*, 1995). Soil properties are reported in Table 1.

105 Plastic pots (height, 25 cm; diameter, 24 cm) were filled with 7.0 kg of soil that was  
106 sieved (6 mm mesh size) to remove stones. Fifteen pots were prepared for each cultivar with  
107 each soil. Three pots were used for measuring CH<sub>4</sub> emission, and the other pots for measuring  
108 rice productivity traits. Three rice seedlings (28 days old) were transplanted into each pot.  
109 Nitrogen was applied as urea, P as calcium superphosphate, and K as potassium chloride in  
110 each pot as basal dressing at 165, 88 and 110 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Side-dressing N fertilizer  
111 was added at a rate equivalent at 99 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> at the tillering stage. During the rice growth  
112 period, 2–3 cm water layer overlying the soil surface was maintained.

113

114 *Experiment 2*

115 In this field experiment, we determined the effect of a high-yielding cultivar on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
116 in a realistic setting. We planted rice seedlings in two adjacent fields at the Jiangpu Farm: one  
117 previously fallow field (we will refer to this treatment as “fallow” from now on) with low C  
118 content, and one paddy field with high C content. Soil properties are reported in Table 1. We  
119 used two cultivars that were both commonly grown at the experimental site and differed  
120 strongly in biomass and yield: the high-yielding Yangdao 6 (HY), and the low-yielding  
121 Ningjing 1 (LY). The field experiment was conducted in two adjacent fields with six  
122 replicates (3 m × 4 m in plot size) for each of the soil × cultivar treatment combination. As a  
123 basis for comparison, we also included unplanted plots in our experimental design. The paddy  
124 field was in a continuous wheat-rice rotation with adequate plant residues and high labile C  
125 content, whereas the fallow field had been fallow for six years prior to the experiment. Few  
126 weeds grew in the fallow field and were removed before rice planting.

127         Rice seedlings were transplanted at a hill spacing of 0.25 m × 0.20 m on June 30, 2014.  
128 Nitrogen fertilizer (urea) was applied at 225 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, of which 30% was applied before  
129 planting, another 30% at tillering and the remaining 40% at panicle initiation. Phosphorus  
130 fertilizer (calcium superphosphate) and K (potassium chloride) were applied as the basal  
131 fertilizer at the same rate of 65 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. A water layer was kept 4-5 cm above the soil surface  
132 during the pre-anthesis period, while alternate wetting and drying irrigation was applied  
133 during the post-anthesis period.

134

135 *Experiment 3A*

136 In this pot experiment, we used the same soils and cultivars as in field experiment 2. Soils  
137 were collected from each field and sieved (6 mm mesh size) to remove stones. Plastic pots  
138 (height, 25 cm; diameter, 24 cm) were filled with 7 kg of soil. A nylon mesh bag (diameter, 8  
139 cm; height, 10 cm; mesh size, 37 μm) was placed in the center of each pot to create two soil

140 compartments, i.e. the central rooted compartment and the outside non-rooted compartment  
141 (Ma *et al.*, 2010). Twenty-five pots were prepared for each cultivar in each soil. Five pots  
142 were used for CH<sub>4</sub> emission measurements, and the remaining pots were used for measuring  
143 plant traits and soil properties. Two healthy rice seedlings were planted in the root bag. Other  
144 management practices were similar as described in experiment 1.

145

#### 146 *Experiment 3B*

147 Using the same experimental approach in Experiment 3A, we also measured CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
148 from fallow soil with and without wheat straw incorporation for both the HY and LY  
149 cultivars. Wheat straw incorporation is a widely applied management practice in rice  
150 agriculture (Singh *et al.*, 2008) that strongly increases the amount of soil labile C (Liu *et al.*,  
151 2014). Before the experiment began, fresh wheat straw was chopped and ground into 5-10  
152 mm segments that were incorporated into the soil in each pot at a rate equivalent to 6 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. A  
153 water layer of 4–5 cm was kept during the pre-anthesis period, while alternate wetting and  
154 drying irrigation was applied during the post-anthesis period.

155

#### 156 *Sampling and measurement methods*

157 Methane emissions in all experiments were measured using the static closed chamber method  
158 (Zou *et al.*, 2005) at 7-day intervals. Methane concentrations were measured by a gas  
159 chromatograph (7890A, Agilent Technologies Inc., USA) equipped with a flame ionization  
160 detector.

161 Dissolved organic C (DOC), root biomass and porosity, and soil methanogenic and  
162 methanotrophic gene abundances in experiment 3 were measured on the 55th (Part A) and  
163 45th day (Part B) after transplanting, when CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were relatively high and  
164 significantly different between the two cultivars. Soil pore water was collected from the root  
165 bag compartments using Rhizonsamplers (SMS, Eijkelkamp, Netherlands). About 2 mL soil

166 solution was extracted using a 40 mL vacuum vial to flush and purge the sampler before  
167 sampling, and about 20 mL of soil solution was drawn into another vial. All the sampling  
168 vials were equilibrated by filling them with pure N<sub>2</sub> gas and 5 mL gas of the headspace was  
169 analyzed for CH<sub>4</sub> (Krüger *et al.*, 2001). The solutions were passed through 0.45 µm  
170 membrane filter and analyzed for DOC by a TOC analyzer (multi N/C UV, Analytik Jena AG,  
171 Germany).

172 Fresh soil samples were collected from the rooted compartment. Soil DNA was  
173 extracted from 0.25 g soil using a Power Soil DNA Isolation Kit (MoBio, USA). The copy  
174 numbers of *mcrA* genes, which represent the abundances of methanogenic archaea in soil,  
175 were quantified using the primer pair *mcrAf/mcrAr* (Luton *et al.*, 2002). Two forward primers  
176 of MB10γ and MB9α and their common reverse primer 533r were used to quantify the 16S  
177 rRNA gene copy numbers of the type I and type II methanotrophs, respectively (Henckel *et*  
178 *al.*, 1999). The quantitative real-time PCR was performed using a Mastercycler ep realplex  
179 instrument (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). After sampling the soil, roots were washed with  
180 tap water. Rice root porosity (% gas volume/root volume) was measured by the pycnometer  
181 method (Jensen *et al.*, 1969). Aboveground biomass and grain yield were measured at harvest.  
182 Rice plants were oven-dried at 105 °C for 30 min followed by drying at 70 °C to achieve a  
183 constant weight.

184

### 185 *Statistical analysis*

186 Correlations between rice plant traits (e.g. root biomass, aboveground biomass, and grain  
187 yield) and total seasonal CH<sub>4</sub> emission were analyzed in experiment 1. We also analyzed the  
188 correlation between the relative aboveground biomass and relative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. The  
189 relative aboveground biomass and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were calculated (R):

$$190 R = xt / xc,$$

191 where *xt* and *xc* are the values of the variables (biomass and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions) for a cultivar and



192 the lowest values in each soil, respectively. Analysis of variance (two way ANOVA) and  
193 independent-sample t test for a given soil were performed in experiment 2 and 3. All analyses  
194 were performed with the statistical package SPSS 18.0. Differences between cultivars were  
195 considered significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

196

#### 197 *Meta-analysis*

198 We conducted a literature survey of peer-reviewed papers related to rice cultivars and CH<sub>4</sub>  
199 emission. Peer-reviewed papers published both in English and in Chinese before June 2016  
200 were collected from the Web of Science and the China National Knowledge Infrastructure.

201 We collated studies that met the following criteria:

- 202 (1) soil organic C, rice biomass at harvest and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were reported simultaneously,
- 203 (2) CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes had to be measured for an entire rice growth period,
- 204 (3) if only two cultivars were used in an experiment, the differences in biomass between the  
205 two cultivars had to be at least 5%, and
- 206 (4) rice was grown in paddy soils (i.e. studies on fallow soils were excluded).

207 In total, we found 18 published papers including 93 observations from 21 sites  
208 (Table 2, Data S1 and S2). For each experiment in our dataset, the rice cultivar with the  
209 lowest biomass was taken as the control. We tabulate yield data if they were available, but this  
210 was not a prerequisite for inclusion of the experiment in our dataset. We included separate  
211 observations of rice cultivar effects from a single study site under different experimental  
212 treatments (that is, in multi-factorial studies). Observations from different years within the  
213 same experiment were also included as separate observations. For each experiment in the  
214 dataset, the rice cultivar with the lowest biomass was taken as the control treatment. We  
215 quantified the effects of cultivars with high biomass by calculating the natural logarithm of  
216 the response ratio (R):  $\ln(R) = \ln(xt / xc)$ , where *xt* and *xc* are the values of the variables  
217 (biomass, yield, HI, or CH<sub>4</sub> emissions) for a cultivar with high biomass and for the control

218 cultivar, respectively (Hedges *et al.*, 1999). In addition to  $\ln(R)$ , we also used the absolute  
219 change in  $\text{CH}_4$  emission ( $\Delta\text{CH}_4$ ) as effect size to assess the effect of rice cultivars with high  
220 biomass on  $\text{CH}_4$  emission:

$$221 \quad \Delta\text{CH}_4 = T - C,$$

222 where T and C are the cumulative  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions during the growing season of rice cultivars  
223 with high biomass and of the control, respectively. Only data collected from field experiments  
224 was used in this  $\Delta\text{CH}_4$  analysis.

225         Three outliers of  $\ln(R_{\text{CH}_4})$  with the largest absolute values ( $-1.02$ ,  $-1.03$ , and  $0.90$ )  
226 were identified by the descriptive statistics-explore of the statistical package SPSS 18.0.  
227 These three observations and the corresponding observations for  $\ln(R_{\text{biomass}})$ ,  $\ln(R_{\text{yield}})$ ,  $\ln$   
228 ( $R_{\text{HI}}$ ), and  $\Delta\text{CH}_4$  were excluded from further analysis. Because some studies did not report  
229 yield, the number of observations for biomass, yield, and  $\text{CH}_4$  was not equal. In general, meta-  
230 analyses assume data independence. This assumption was violated by including more than one  
231 observation from a single study, when multiple cultivars within the same study shared the  
232 same control treatment. To examine the influence of non-independence, we averaged the  
233 effect sizes of different cultivars from the same study in order to make sure that only one  
234 comparison was used (Data S2).

235         We used MetaWin 2.1 (Rosenberg *et al.*, 2000) to generate mean effect sizes and 95%  
236 bootstrapped confidence intervals (95% CIs) (4,999 iterations). Because standard deviation  
237 values were not reported for most of the observations, we performed our analysis on  
238 unweighted effect sizes and on effect sizes that were weighted by replication (Hungate *et al.*,  
239 2009). To compare the differences in effect sizes among soil organic C, soil organic C content  
240 was divided into three categories:  $\leq 8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,  $8\text{-}12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , and  $>12.0 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ .

241         The mean effect sizes for experimental classes were considered to be significantly  
242 different from each other if their 95% CIs did not overlap, and were significantly different  
243 from zero if the 95% CI did not overlap with zero. We used randomization tests included in

244 MetaWin to test for significant differences between study categories. To ease interpretation,  
245 the results of this meta-analysis on  $\ln(R)$  were back-transformed and reported as percentage  
246 changes  $((R-1) \times 100)$ . Results using the different weighting functions were qualitatively  
247 similar (Table S1). In the main report, we provide results of the analyses on effect sizes that  
248 were weighted by replication.

249

### 250 *Extrapolation*

251 To scale up our results, we first determined which experimental conditions were most  
252 representative of realistic rice paddy systems. Since most rice cropping systems and paddy  
253 soil types in the world can be found in China, we took China as a case for assessing the  
254 impact of rice cultivar on paddy  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions. Based on China's second state soil survey  
255 completed in the early 1980s, the arithmetic mean organic C content in the top 15 cm paddy  
256 soils was  $16.5 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  (See Fig. S1), and the mean weighted by area was  $14.2 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  (Xie *et al.*,  
257 2007). The percentages of the observations with  $\leq 8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,  $8\text{-}12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , and  $>12.0 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$   
258 organic C content to the total observations are 2.7%, 16.1%, and 81.2%, respectively.

259 Based on the data from the second state soil survey in China (Fig. S1) and the meta-  
260 analysis, we estimated the effect of increasing biomass on paddy  $\text{CH}_4$  emission in China (E):

$$261 E = \sum (EC_i / EB_i \times W_i),$$

262 where  $EC_i$  is the mean effect size of high biomass rice cultivars on  $\text{CH}_4$  emissions (%) in  
263 the  $i$ th soil in the meta-analysis,  $EB_i$  is the mean effect size of high biomass rice cultivars on  
264 biomass (%) in the  $i$ th soil in the meta-analysis, and  $W_i$  is the fraction of the area for the  $i$ th  
265 soil to total paddy soil area. We estimated  $W_i$  as the ratio of the number of observations in  $i$ th  
266 soil from the soil survey to the number of total observations from the soil survey.

267

## 268 **Results**

### 269 *CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes*

270 As expected, we found in experiment 1 that CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were higher in the soil with high  
271 labile C content (Fig. 1). In the soil low in labile C, plant productivity was positively  
272 correlated with seasonal cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Fig. 1a). However, we found the opposite  
273 relationship for the soil high in labile C (Fig. 1b): as the productivity and yield of the cultivar  
274 increased, cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions declined. For every 10% increase in rice aboveground  
275 biomass, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions declined by 10.3% (Fig. S2).

276 In experiment 2, we found that in the fallow field, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were 0.5 mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>  
277 higher for the high-yielding cultivar compared to the low-yielding cultivar (Fig. 2a; Fig. S3).  
278 However, in the paddy field, the opposite pattern occurred, and the high-yielding cultivar  
279 reduced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by 4.6 mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> compared to the low-yielding cultivar (Fig. 2a; Fig.  
280 S3).

281 Experiment 3A confirmed that the cultivars similarly affected CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in the  
282 microcosms as they did under field conditions, with HY increasing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in the  
283 fallow soil, but reducing them in the paddy soil (Fig. 2b, Fig. S4). The results of experiment  
284 3B indicates that in the fallow soil without wheat straw incorporation, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for the  
285 high-yielding cultivar were 1.0 mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> higher compared to the low-yielding cultivar (Fig.  
286 2c; Fig. S5). With straw incorporation however, the pattern reversed: CH<sub>4</sub> emissions for the  
287 high-yielding cultivar were 9.2 mg m<sup>-2</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> lower than for the low-yielding cultivar (Fig. 2c;  
288 Fig. S5). These results strongly suggest that the difference in the effect of high-yielding  
289 cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions between fallow and paddy soils in experiments 2 and 3A are due  
290 to differences in labile soil C. Taken together, these three experiments provide conclusive  
291 evidence that high-yielding cultivars slightly increase CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in low C soils, but  
292 greatly reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in high C soils.

293

294 *Soil properties and plant traits*

295 In experiment 3A, we found that the high-yielding cultivar only stimulated methanogens in  
296 the fallow soil (Fig. 3a), not in the paddy soil. Similarly, in experiment 3B the high-yielding  
297 cultivar only stimulated methanogens in the fallow soil without straw incorporation (Fig. 3b).  
298 By contrast, soil methanotrophs were significantly more abundant in the presence of the high-  
299 yielding cultivar than for the low-yielding rice cultivar in the paddy soil and in the fallow soil  
300 with straw incorporation (Fig. 3c and Fig. 3d). In other words, in the high C soils, the high-  
301 yielding rice cultivar enhanced the abundance of microorganisms that consume CH<sub>4</sub>.

302 In experiment 3A, root biomass and DOC values were significantly higher for HY  
303 than for LY in both the fallow soil and the paddy soil (Table 3). Similar results were found in  
304 the experiment 3B, although straw addition reduced root biomass for both rice cultivars.  
305 These results suggest that the high-yielding cultivar enhanced C input to all soils. The root  
306 porosity of HY was significantly higher compared to LY in both soils in experiment 3A  
307 (Table 3). Similarly, in experiment 3B root porosity was significantly higher for HY than for  
308 LY in both the fallow soil and the fallow soil with straw. Straw addition significantly reduced  
309 root porosity ( $P < 0.01$ ). The yield of Yangdao 6 was between 37.2 and 91.8 % higher than for  
310 Ninjing 1 in experiment 3. In comparison, the yield of the highest yielding cultivar in  
311 experiment 1 was 62.7% and 51.9 % higher than that of Ninjing 1 for the low and high soil C  
312 soil, respectively (Fig.1). Thus, even though Yangdao 6 was not included in experiment 1, its  
313 yield increase relative to Ninjing 1 is comparable to that of other high-yielding cultivars  
314 included in our study.

315

### 316 *Meta-analysis and extrapolation*

317 Our meta-analysis confirmed that on average, rice cultivars with high biomass significantly  
318 increased CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from lower organic C soils ( $\leq 8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ), but significantly reduced  
319 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from higher organic C soils ( $>12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 4). High biomass rice cultivars  
320 increased yields in all soil organic C classes to a similar extent (Table S1). The average

321 increase in biomass for studies included in our meta-analysis were 29.8% and 25.6% in the  
322 low C soil and high C soil, respectively (table S1). The meta-analysis of independent data  
323 showed the same trends as the analysis on non-independent data (Table S1), suggesting the  
324 robustness of our results.

325         Based on the soil survey and our meta-analysis, we estimated the effect of high-  
326 yielding cultivar breeding strategy on Chinese paddy CH<sub>4</sub> emission by calculating an area  
327 weighted effect size. Accounting for the percentage of Chinese rice paddies with  $\leq 8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , 8-  
328  $12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  and  $>12.0 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  organic C contents, we estimated the effect per unit biomass  
329 enhancement on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions to be -0.71. In other words, increasing plant biomass by 10%  
330 can reduce annual CH<sub>4</sub> emission from Chinese rice agriculture by 7.1%.

331

## 332 **Discussion**

333 All our experiments and our meta-analysis show that high-yielding cultivars slightly increase  
334 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in low C soils, but greatly reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in high C soils. Why does the  
335 effect of high-yielding cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions depend on soil C availability? The  
336 production of CH<sub>4</sub> is primarily determined by substrate availability (Conrad, 2007), which  
337 was enhanced by the high-yielding cultivar, as indicated by both higher root biomass and  
338 higher dissolved organic C content in soil pore water of the high-yielding rice cultivar in all  
339 the soils used in our experiments. This reflects the higher root productivity of the high-  
340 yielding cultivar, providing increased substrate availability for CH<sub>4</sub> production through root  
341 exudates (Huang *et al.*, 1997). Still, net CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from rice paddies are determined by  
342 the balance between the activities of methanogenic archaea, the microorganisms that produce  
343 CH<sub>4</sub>, and methanotrophic bacteria, the microorganisms that consume CH<sub>4</sub> (Conrad, 2007).  
344 Changes in the activities of either microbial group could explain the decline in net emissions  
345 observed with the higher-yielding cultivars on high C soils.

346 Methane oxidation and methanotrophic growth are controlled by CH<sub>4</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>  
347 availability (Hanson and Hanson, 1996; Conrad, 2007). We propose that the higher root  
348 biomass and root porosity of the high-yielding cultivar (Table 3) facilitated O<sub>2</sub> transport into  
349 the rhizosphere, stimulating CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation (Ma *et al.*, 2010). This mechanism is particularly  
350 important in high C soils, where O<sub>2</sub> is more likely to be limiting (Ma *et al.*, 2010). By  
351 contrast, in the fallow soil without straw incorporation, methanotrophic growth was likely  
352 limited by low CH<sub>4</sub> availability, especially for the Type II methanotrophs (Hanson and  
353 Hanson, 1996; Conrad, 2007). Indeed, CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation in paddy soils only occurs at CH<sub>4</sub>  
354 concentrations  $\geq 500$  p.p.m.v. (Cai *et al.*, 2016), far higher than what was found in the fallow  
355 soil in experiment 3B. Thus, our results suggest that rice cultivars affect net CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by  
356 altering the availabilities of resources that affect microorganisms that both produce and  
357 consume CH<sub>4</sub>, and that the soil context determines the direction of the effect: high-yielding  
358 rice cultivars promote CH<sub>4</sub> production and emissions by increasing C substrate availability for  
359 methanogens when soil C content is low, but facilitate CH<sub>4</sub> oxidation by increasing O<sub>2</sub>  
360 transport and promoting methanotrophic organisms when soil C availability is high.

361 The generality of our findings were further confirmed by the results of our meta-  
362 analysis. We can only speculate about the mechanisms underlying the mitigation effect of  
363 high-yielding cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in our meta-analysis. Indeed, high yielding rice  
364 cultivars differ from low yielding cultivars in many different ways that could potentially affect  
365 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. For instance, compared to low yielding cultivars, high yielding cultivars have  
366 been shown to increase allocation to panicles (Richards, 2000; Jiang *et al.*, 2016), and to differ  
367 in plant growth parameters (Gogoi *et al.*, 2008), root exudation (Lu *et al.*, 2000), and root  
368 oxidation activities (Zhang *et al.*, 2009). However, our own data show that high-yielding  
369 cultivars increased root porosity, root biomass and methanotrophic activity across multiple  
370 independent experiments. These data suggest that the effect of high-yielding cultivars on  
371 O<sub>2</sub> transport may be general, occurring under a wide range of environmental

372 conditions and explaining the pattern found across the experiments synthesized in the meta-  
373 analysis.

374 In our extrapolation, we estimated the effects of a further 10% increase in plant  
375 biomass. This represents a realistic scenario: plant breeding efforts have increased the biomass  
376 of super rice cultivars in China by about 25% from 2000 to 2015 and are expected to increase  
377 a further 10% by 2020 (Peng *et al.*, 2008; Yuan, 2015). In absolute terms, the reduction in the  
378 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions caused by rice cultivars with high yield in high organic C soils was an order of  
379 magnitude larger than the emission increment in the low organic C soils (Table S1).

380 Moreover, organic C of China's paddy soils has increased by 7.5% from 1979-1982 to 2007-  
381 2008 (Yan *et al.*, 2011) and will likely continue to increase due to the increasingly common  
382 management practice of crop straw incorporation (Singh *et al.*, 2008; Liu *et al.*, 2014). Thus,  
383 our estimate of a 7.1% reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions due to high-yielding cultivars is  
384 conservative, and the real effect may be larger.

385 Our findings suggest that by switching to high-yielding cultivars, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from rice  
386 agriculture can be reduced substantially. Greenhouse gas emissions from rice  
387 paddies will likely be exacerbated because of rising levels of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and climate  
388 change (van Groenigen *et al.*, 2011; van Groenigen *et al.*, 2013), further underlining the  
389 importance of mitigation measures. However, it is still unclear whether rice cultivar  
390 improvement interacts with other agronomic practices (e.g. irrigation, tillage and fertilizer  
391 management) to influence CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. These interactions represent a knowledge gap that  
392 needs to be addressed to determine the effectiveness of adopting high-yielding cultivars to  
393 mitigate CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

394 Two limitations of our study must be noted. First, our experiments lasted for one  
395 growing season. However, some of the effects of high-yielding cultivars on soil C input will  
396 only become apparent in long-term experiments, when biomass produced in one season  
397 contributes to soil C input in the next season. Indeed, numerous studies (e.g. Feng *et al.*, 2013;



398 our study) show that rice straw incorporation strongly stimulate CH<sub>4</sub> emissions; increased  
399 biomass and straw production with high yielding cultivars would enhance these effects. On  
400 the other hand, increased straw input will increase soil C availability, and the mitigation effect  
401 of high-yielding cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions become more pronounced in high C soils.  
402 Clearly, long-term studies are needed to confirm whether the mitigation effects of high-  
403 yielding cultivars persist over time.

404         Second, the microbiological analyses in our study are all based on single  
405 measurements in time. Microbial communities are dynamic, so the microbiological data  
406 presented here should be viewed accordingly. The data support our hypothesis that high-  
407 yielding cultivars reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by stimulating oxygen transport into the soil, but  
408 future studies should include a time series component to confirm whether effects of high-  
409 yielding rice cultivars on methanotrophs and methanogens persist throughout the growing  
410 season.

411         Maintaining food security in the face of population growth and climate change is one  
412 of great challenges facing mankind today (Alexandratos and Bruinsma, 2012). Food security  
413 can be enhanced through agricultural intensification, but measures that increase crop yields  
414 often increase greenhouse gas emissions too (Tilman, 1999). Here, we show that agricultural  
415 intensification can go hand in hand with greenhouse gas mitigation. Other mitigation practices  
416 advocated to curb CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from rice paddies include mid-season drainage, intermittent  
417 irrigation, no-till, and the use of alternative fertilizers (Hussain *et al.*, 2015; Linqvist *et al.*,  
418 2015; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). However, these practices can result in yield losses (Pittelkow *et al.*,  
419 2015), are labor-intensive, and their applicability varies among rice cropping systems and  
420 countries (Bodelier, 2015). In contrast, rice cultivar improvement may be a win-win strategy,  
421 as it simultaneously decreases CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and increases grain yield. Although seeds of  
422 higher yielding cultivars will be more expensive, farmers benefit where an increase in grain  
423 yield exceeds extra cost and society benefits through the reduction in greenhouse gases.

424 Considering the dominance of small households in most rice production areas (Zhang *et al.*,  
425 2016), the use of high-yielding cultivars may therefore be accepted sooner and implemented  
426 more efficiently than other mitigation practices. Along with other mitigation efforts, future  
427 policy measures aimed at reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from rice cultivation should consider the  
428 use of high-yielding cultivars.

429

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436

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## 595 **Supporting Information**

596 Additional Supporting information may be found in the online version of this article:

597

598 **Data S1.** This data set lists all experimental non- independent observations from rice cultivar  
599 experiments that were used for the meta-analysis on CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes, yield, and harvest index. It  
600 briefly summarizes the experimental conditions under which the observations were made, and  
601 how the data were extracted from each publication.

602

603 **Data S2.** This data set lists all experimental independent observations from rice cultivar  
604 experiments that were used for the meta-analysis on CH<sub>4</sub> fluxes, yield, and harvest index. It  
605 briefly summarizes the experimental conditions under which the observations were made, and  
606 how the data were extracted from each publication.

607

608 **Table S1.** Results of a meta-analysis on the effects of high biomass cultivars on biomass,  
609 yield, harvest index, and CH<sub>4</sub> emission. Results are shown for categories based on the  
610 following organic soil C contents:  $\leq 8 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,  $8\text{-}12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ , and  $> 12 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ .

611

612 **Fig. S1.** Soil organic C content in the top layer of paddy soils in China.

613

614 **Fig. S2.** The relation between relative aboveground biomass and relative seasonal cumulative  
615 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in a soil with low labile C content (a) and a soil with high labile C content (b)  
616 across 33 rice cultivars.

617

618 **Fig. S3.** CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from unplanted soils, soils planted with a high-yielding rice cultivar  
619 and soils planted with low-yielding rice cultivar under field conditions.

620

621 **Fig. S4.** CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from unplanted soil, soils planted with a high-yielding rice cultivar  
622 and soils planted with low-yielding rice cultivar under pot conditions.

623

624 **Fig. S5.** CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from unplanted microcosms, microcosms planted with a high-yielding  
625 rice cultivar, and microcosms planted with a high-yielding rice cultivar.

626

627

628 **Table 1** Main properties of the tested soils and rice cultivars used in our study.

|  | Experiment 1   |            | Experiments 2 and 3   |             |
|--|--|------------|-----------------------|-------------|
|  | Paddy soil   | Dried soil | Paddy soil            | Fallow soil |
| Soil organic C (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )         | 17.8   | 17.5       | 23.2                  | 12          |
| Soil labile C (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )          | 3.6  | 1.4        | 6.5                   | 1.0         |
| Total N (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )                | 2.1  | 2.0        | 2.3                   | 1.5         |
| Total P (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )                | 0.6  | 0.6        | 0.9                   | 0.7         |
| Total K (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )                | 13.8   | 14.0       | 8.2                   | 11          |
| Alkaline hydrolysis N (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> ) | 96.8   | 94.1       | 85.5                  | 86.1        |
| Available P (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )           | 28.1   | 16.6       | 20.9                  | 22.5        |
| Available K (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )           | 244.5  | 165.0      | 206.1                 | 138.3       |
| Soil pH                                      | 6.8  | 6.7        | 6.5                   | 6.9         |
| Rice cultivars                               | Eryou 084, Fengliangyouxiang 1, Fengyuan 299, Guizhannong, Guodao 1, Hezhanmei, Huaidao 9, Huailiangyou 527, Huiliangyou 6, Jijing 88, Liaoxing 1, Liaoyou 1052, Liaoyou 5218, Longdao 5, Nei2you 6, Ningjing 1, Ningjing 3, Peizafengtai, Qianchonglang 2, Shengnong 016, Shengnong 265, Shengnong 9816, Wuyou 308, Wuyunjing 24, Yangjing 4038, Xindao 18, Xinliangyou 6, Xinliangyou 638, Yliangyou 1, Yliangyou 302, Yangliangyou 7, Yuxiangyouzhan, |            | Ningjing 1, Yangdao 6 |             |

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631

632 **Table 2** Overview of the rice cultivar studies included in our meta-analysis.

| Site      | Country    | SOC<br>(g kg <sup>-1</sup> ) | # rice<br>cultivars | n  | Experimental<br>condition | Mean CH <sub>4</sub><br>effect (%) | Mean yield<br>effect (%) | Reference                      |
|-----------|------------|------------------------------|---------------------|----|---------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Aichi     | Japan      | 9.8                          | 3                   | 2  | Pot                       | 12.1                               | NA                       | Watanabe <i>et al.</i> , 2001  |
| Assam     | India      | 8.0                          | 2                   | 10 | Field                     | 7.8                                | NA                       | Gogoi <i>et al.</i> , 2005     |
| Assam     | India      | 6.0                          | 2                   | 10 | Field                     | 16.1                               | NA                       | Gogoi <i>et al.</i> , 2005     |
| Beijing   | China      | 9.9                          | 4                   | 4  | Field                     | 19.8                               | 58.5                     | Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2000      |
| Beijing   | China      | 10.0                         | 3                   | 4  | Field                     | 123.9                              | -11.0                    | Xu <i>et al.</i> , 1999        |
| Cuttack   | India      | 6.6                          | 2                   | 3  | Field                     | -1.8                               | 32.6                     | Datta <i>et al.</i> , 2009     |
| Cuttack   | India      | 7.6                          | 10                  | 3  | Field                     | -2.0                               | 66.4                     | Satpathy <i>et al.</i> , 1998  |
| Danyang   | China      | 19.6                         | 10                  | 3  | Field                     | -22.0                              | 8.5                      | Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2015     |
| Hangzhou  | China      | 22.4                         | 6                   | 3  | Field                     | -10.4                              | 4.3                      | Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2000        |
| Java      | Indonesia  | 4.8                          | 2                   | 3  | Field                     | 11.6                               | 5.6                      | Setyanto <i>et al.</i> , 2000  |
| Jiangdu   | China      | 15.0                         | 2                   | 4  | Field                     | -11.8                              | -3.3                     | Tang <i>et al.</i> , 2015      |
| Jinxian   | China      | 25.0                         | 9                   | 3  | Field                     | -10.3                              | 11.4                     | Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2015     |
| Laguna    | Philippine | 12.0                         | 5                   | 4  | Field                     | -25.0                              | NA                       | Wassmann <i>et al.</i> , 2000  |
| Nanjing   | China      | 17.8                         | 2                   | 3  | Pot                       | -26.0                              | 35.0                     | Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2013      |
| New Delhi | India      | 4.5                          | 6                   | 3  | Field                     | 42.1                               | 6.3                      | Mitra <i>et al.</i> , 1999     |
| New Delhi | Indian     | 4.1                          | 3                   | NA | Field                     | 6.0                                | 14.5                     | Jain <i>et al.</i> , 2000      |
| Sacheon   | Korea      | 9.8                          | 8                   | 3  | Field                     | -5.8                               | -1.2                     | Gutierrez <i>et al.</i> , 2013 |
| Shenyang  | China      | 33.7                         | 12                  | 3  | Field                     | -32.7                              | 25.4                     | Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2015     |
| Tokyo     | Japan      | 36.3                         | 2                   | 3  | Field                     | -37.3                              | 47.6                     | Win <i>et al.</i> , 2016       |
| Tsukuba   | Japan      | 7.5                          | 4                   | 3  | GC                        | 36.6                               | 35.8                     | Lou <i>et al.</i> , 2008       |
| Varanasi  | India      | 7.2                          | 3                   | 3  | Field                     | -10.5                              | 5.8                      | Singh <i>et al.</i> , 1999     |

633 NA, not reported; GC, growth chamber

634

635 **Table 3.** Plant traits, dissolved organic C and CH<sub>4</sub> in soil pore water, and Type I and II  
 636 methanotrophs for a high-yielding (HY) and a low-yielding (LY) rice cultivar in experiment  
 637 3.

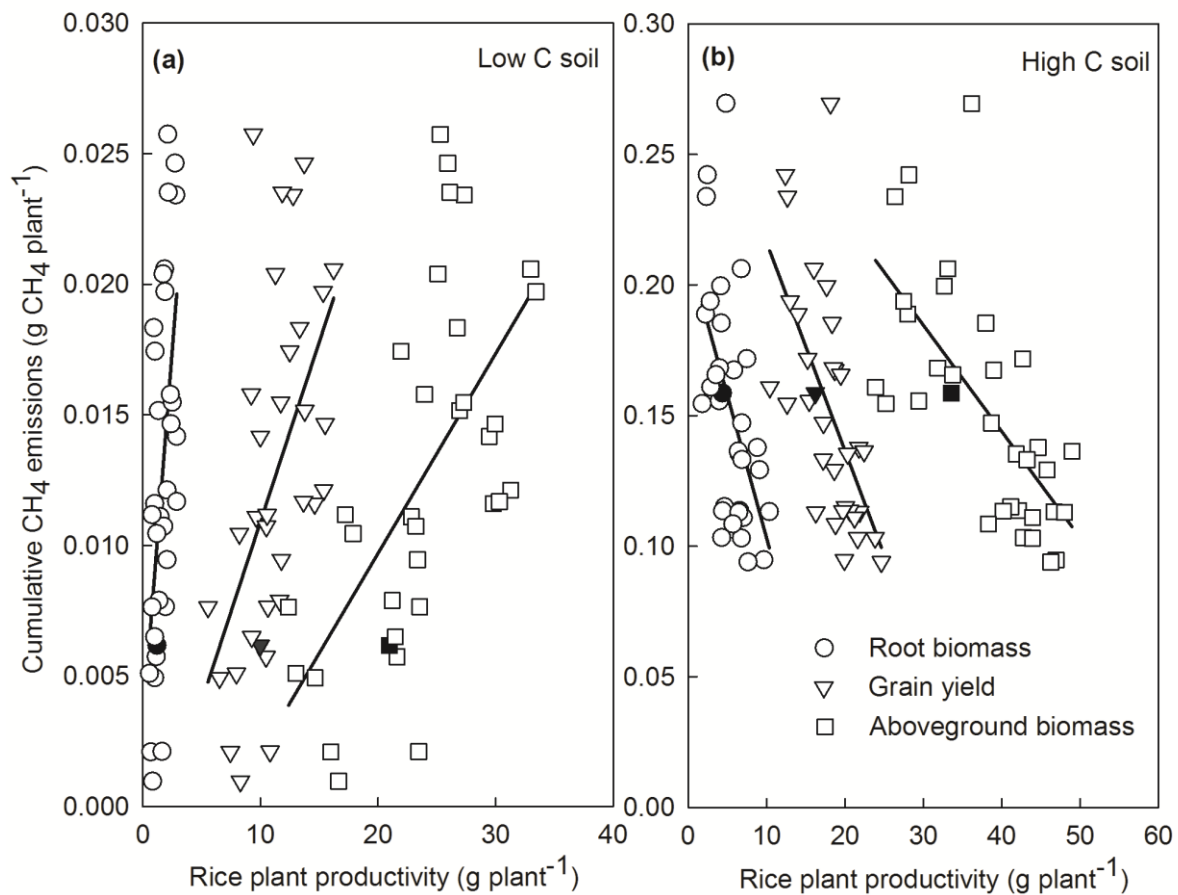
| Experiment 3A  | Fallow soil  |            | Paddy soil   |             |
|--|--------------|------------|--------------|-------------|
|  | HY           | LY         | HY           | LY          |
| Root biomass (g plant <sup>-1</sup> )  | 5.6 ± 0.2**  | 3.6 ± 0.1  | 7.1 ± 0.9*   | 4.2 ± 0.3   |
| Root porosity (%)  | 39.6 ± 2.7*  | 33.3 ± 1.1 | 43.4 ± 0.7*  | 37.7 ± 1.5  |
| Dissolved organic C (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )  | 82.0 ± 4.2** | 68.5 ± 1.7 | 132.3 ± 3.7* | 111.6 ± 3.4 |
| Type I methanotrophs copies<br>(10 <sup>7</sup> copies g <sup>-1</sup> dry soil) | 4.7 ± 0.4    | 5.1 ± 0.6  | 7.9 ± 0.3*   | 6.6 ± 0.2   |
| Type II methanotrophs<br>(10 <sup>7</sup> copies g <sup>-1</sup> dry soil)       | 6.9 ± 0.4    | 6.8 ± 0.6  | 10.2 ± 0.4*  | 7.0 ± 0.2   |
| Aboveground biomass (g plant <sup>-1</sup> )                                     | 40.2 ± 1.6** | 26.4 ± 1.6 | 55.8 ± 2.0** | 41.5 ± 1.8  |
| Grain yield (g plant <sup>-1</sup> )   | 21.1 ± 1.0** | 11.0 ± 0.8 | 27.2 ± 1.8** | 18.9 ± 0.7  |

| Experiment 3B  | Fallow soil without straw |             | Fallow soil with straw |                |
|--|---------------------------|-------------|------------------------|----------------|
|  | HY                        | LY          | HY                     | LY             |
| Root biomass (g plant <sup>-1</sup> )  | 4.0 ± 0.4*                | 2.5 ± 0.3   | 3.3 ± 0.2**            | 2.0 ± 0.1      |
| Root porosity (%)  | 36.7 ± 2.8*               | 28.5 ± 0.7  | 23.1 ± 0.1*            | 17.9 ± 0.5     |
| Dissolved organic C (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )  | 74.5 ± 1.5*               | 63.9 ± 0.6  | 123.1 ± 2.4**          | 101.0 ± 3.1    |
| CH <sub>4</sub> in soil pore water (p.p.m.v)                                     | 193.3 ± 15.4*             | 87.6 ± 10.5 | 1553.9 ± 31.6*         | 3397.2 ± 521.5 |
| Type I methanotrophs copies<br>(10 <sup>7</sup> copies g <sup>-1</sup> dry soil) | 4.1 ± 0.1                 | 4.2 ± 0.2   | 6.2 ± 0.8*             | 4.7 ± 0.2      |
| Type II methanotrophs<br>(10 <sup>7</sup> copies g <sup>-1</sup> dry soil)       | 6.8 ± 0.6                 | 6.7 ± 0.4   | 11.45 ± 0.9*           | 8.3 ± 0.4      |
| Aboveground biomass (g plant <sup>-1</sup> )                                     | 38.6 ± 0.7**              | 28.1 ± 0.7  | 35.1 ± 1.5**           | 25.1 ± 0.3     |
| Grain yield (g plant <sup>-1</sup> )   | 19.9 ± 0.4**              | 14.5 ± 0.8  | 17.9 ± 0.7**           | 13.0 ± 0.4     |

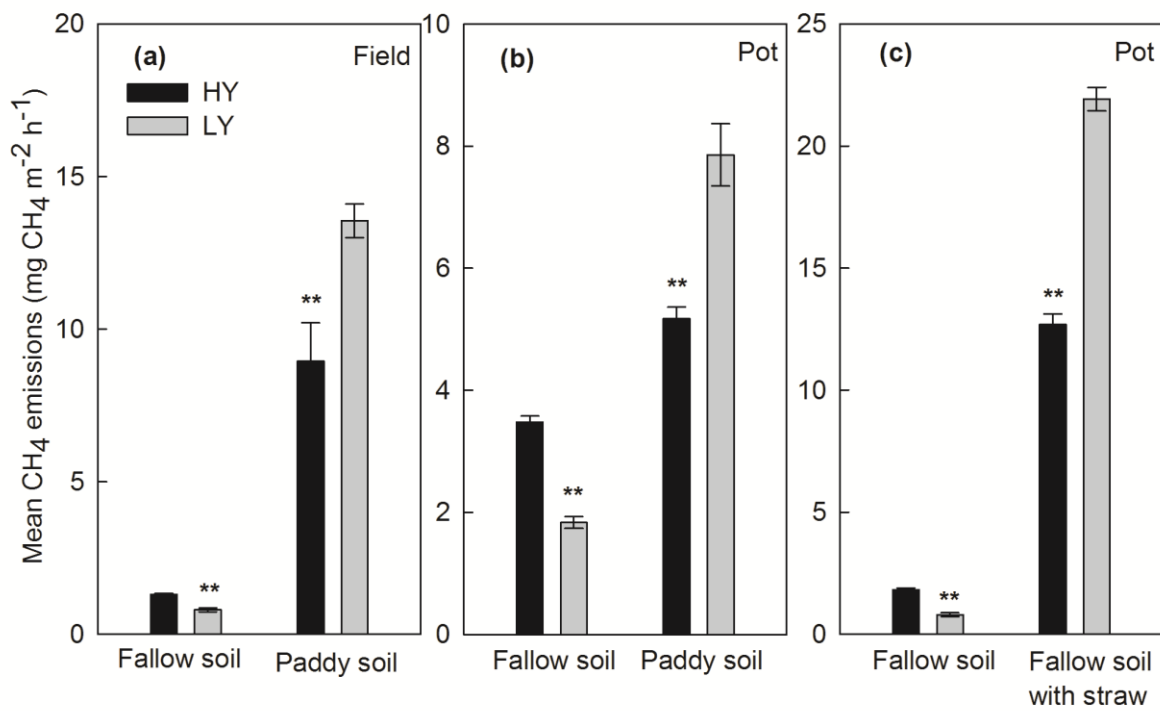
638 Mean ± standard error (n=5). \* and \*\* indicate significant differences between cultivars at  $p < 0.05$  and  $0.01$ ,  
 639 respectively.  
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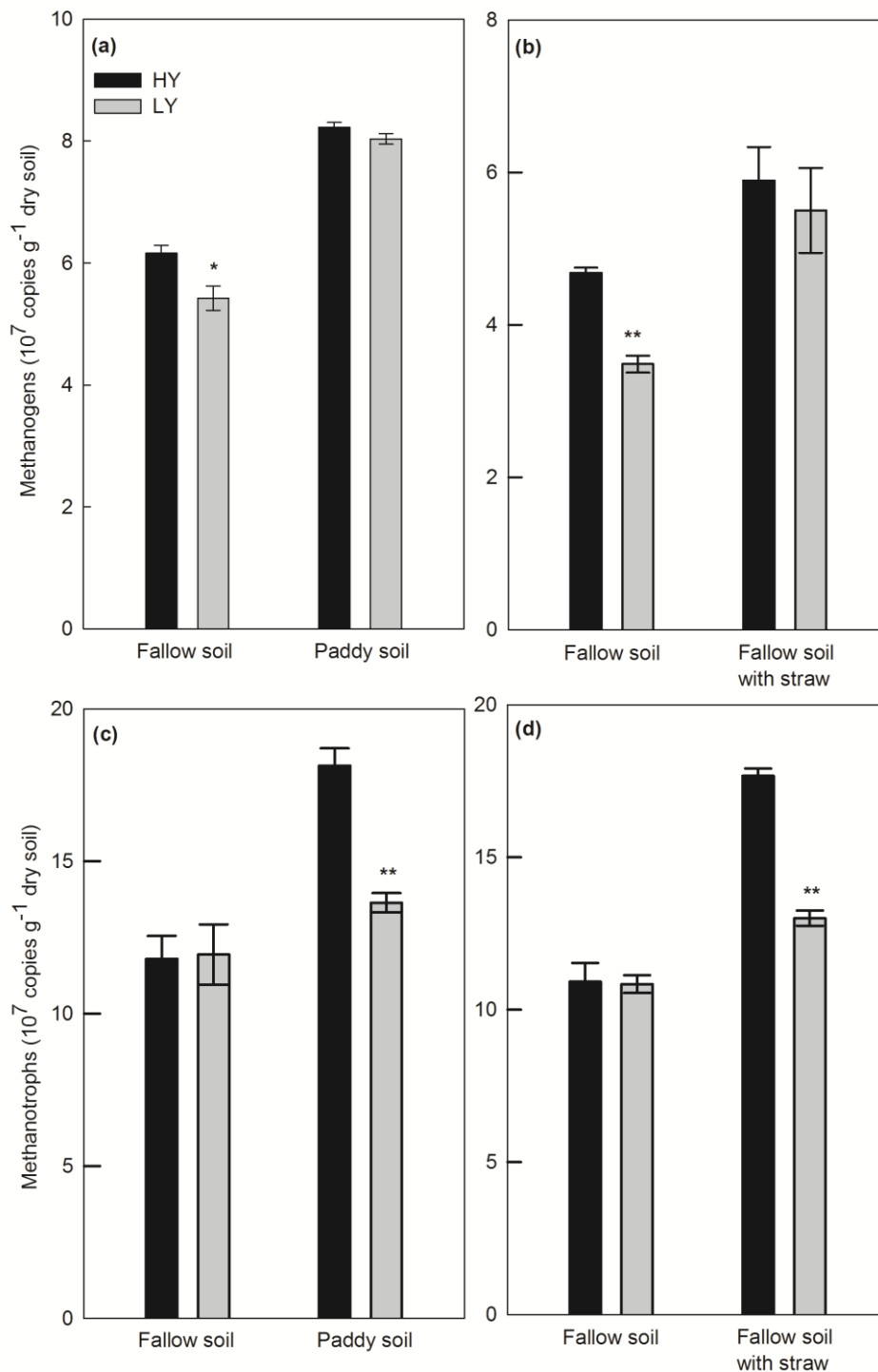
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660 **Fig. 1** Relationships between plant productivity traits (i.e. root biomass, aboveground  
 661 biomass, and yield) and seasonal cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions across 33 rice cultivars. (a) soil  
 662 CH<sub>4</sub> emissions vs. plant productivity in a soil with low labile C content. Cumulative CH<sub>4</sub>  
 663 emissions were positively correlated with root biomass ( $r^2 = 0.34$ ), grain yield ( $r^2 = 0.29$ ) and  
 664 aboveground biomass ( $r^2 = 0.38$ ); (b) soil CH<sub>4</sub> emissions vs. plant productivity in a soil with  
 665 high labile C content. Cumulative CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were negatively correlated with root  
 666 biomass ( $r^2 = 0.30$ ), grain yield ( $r^2 = 0.39$ ) and aboveground biomass ( $r^2 = 0.46$ ). All  
 667 correlations were significant at  $p < 0.01$ . The results for cultivar Ninjing 1 (LY in experiments  
 668 2 and 3) are indicated by black symbols.



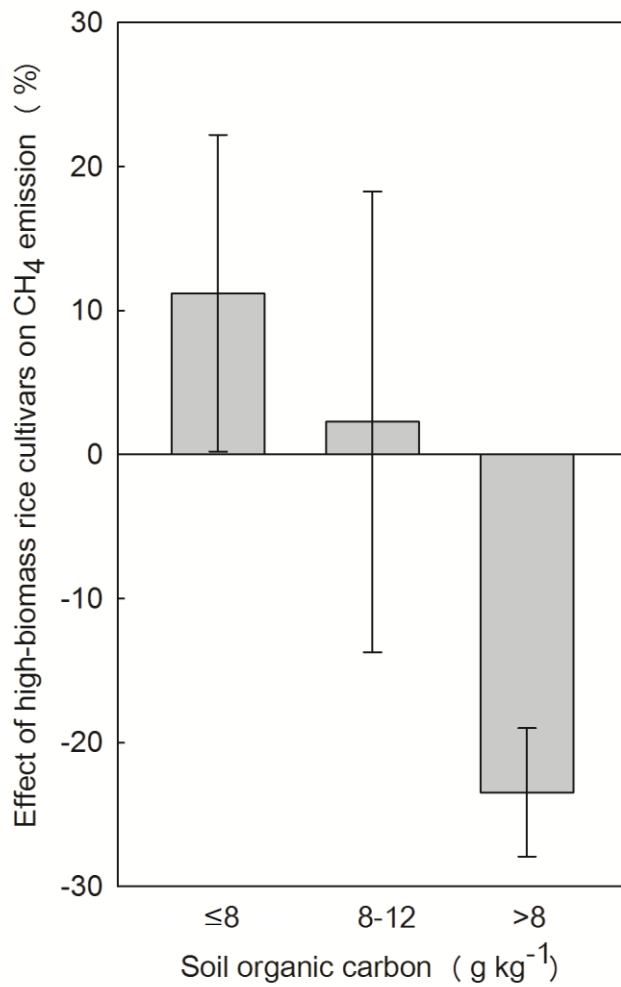
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670 **Fig. 2** CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from a high-yielding (HY) and a low-yielding (LY) rice cultivar, as  
 671 affected by soil C contents. (a) CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from a fallow soil (low soil C content) and a  
 672 paddy soil (high soil C content) under field conditions. (b) CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from a fallow soil  
 673 and a paddy soil under pot conditions. (c) CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from fallow soil with and without  
 674 straw incorporation under pot conditions. Error bars represent standard error ( $n = 6$  for the  
 675 field experiment,  $n = 5$  for the pot experiment). \*\* indicates significant difference between  
 676 cultivars at  $p < 0.01$ .



677

678 **Fig. 3** Quantification of methanogens and methanotrophs under a high-yielding (HY) and a  
 679 low-yielding (LY) rice cultivar, as affected by soil C contents. (a) Quantification of  
 680 methanogens in a fallow soil (low soil C content) and a paddy soil (high soil C content). (b)  
 681 Quantification of methanogens in a fallow soil with and without straw incorporation. (c)  
 682 Quantification of methanotrophs in a fallow soil and a paddy soil. (d) Quantification of  
 683 methanotrophs in a fallow soil with and without straw incorporation. Error bars represent  
 684 standard errors (n=5). \* and \*\* indicate significant differences between cultivars at  $p < 0.05$   
 685 and 0.01, respectively.



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687 **Fig. 4** Results of a meta-analysis on the effect of high-biomass rice cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub>  
 688 emissions under different soil organic C contents. Results are based on 33, 25, and 35  
 689 observations for the soil organic C ≤ 8 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, 8-12 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, and >12.0 g kg<sup>-1</sup> class, respectively.  
 690 Error bars indicate 95% confidence intervals. The effect of high-yielding cultivars on CH<sub>4</sub>  
 691 emissions differed significantly between experimental classes ( $p = 0.0002$ ).

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