



Agronomic Management Strategies for Yield-Scaled Global Warming Potential under Rice-Wheat Cropping System

**Suborna Roy Choudhury^{1*}, Anupam Das², S. K. Gupta¹, Seema¹, R. P. Sharma¹
and S. K. Pathak¹**

¹Department of Agronomy, Bihar Agricultural University, Sabour, Bhagalpur, India.

²Department of Soil Science and Agricultural Chemistry, Bihar Agricultural University, Sabour,
Bhagalpur, India.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author SRC conceptualized the work, analysis of Greenhouse gases and prepared the final draft. Author AD performed the statistical analysis and manuscript writing and authors SKG, SEEMA, RPS, SKP conducted field experiment and helped in literature searches. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/CJAST/2019/v37i630310

Reviewers and Editors: This manuscript was reviewed and approved by ICCRM-2019* Organising committee.

Received 21 September 2019

Accepted 01 October 2019

Published 15 October 2019

Original Research Article

ABSTRACT

Greenhouse gas emissions have an indirect impact on crop production and are primary sources of the global warming. A field experiment was carried out to examine the effect of management practice (i.e. culmination of tillage and nutrient management) on GHGs emission and its subsequent effect on agronomic productivity and subsequent impact on global warming. There were three different crop establishment methods as main plot treatments: M₁ (Rice: SRI, Wheat: Conventional tillage), M₂ (Rice: Transplanted Puddle rice, Wheat: Conventional tillage + 30% residue incorporation), M₃ (Rice: DSR, Wheat: Zero tillage + 30% residue retention) and four nutrient management as sub plot treatments viz. S₁ (100% of Recommended dose of fertilizer (RDF) through inorganic sources), S₂ (75% of RDF through inorganic sources + 25% N of RDF through organic sources), S₃ (50% of RDF through inorganic sources + 50% N of RDF through organic sources), S₄ (S₁ + mung bean as green-manure). After conducting three year of experiment (2013-2016), it has been found that the DSR emitted lower CH₄ (1.39 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹), CO₂ (0.57 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) and N₂O (0.36 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) at the maximum tillering stage of rice. The same trend was followed under zero tillage with 30% residue retention in wheat with lower emission range of all three gases i.e. 0.95, 1.29 and

*Corresponding author: E-mail: subornabau@gmail.com;

* Note: This paper was presented in International Conference on Crop Residue Management (ICCRM-2019), October 14-15, 2019, Patna, Organised by Bihar Agricultural University, Sabour, Bhagalpur - 813210 (Bihar), India. Conference organising committee completed peer-review of this manuscript.

0.58 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹ respectively. Lowest emission of CH₄ and CO₂ with the values of 1.87 and 1.24 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹ respectively from rice and 1.57 and 3.23 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹ from wheat was observed under 100% RDF through inorganic fertilization, whereas, N₂O emission was just reverse to emission pattern of CH₄ and CO₂. Crop establishment through minimum soil disturbance with residue retention under rice- wheat cropping sequence along with 100% RDF through mineral fertiliser along with green manure could be one of the stable agronomic strategies under lower GHGs emission scenarios.

Keywords: Greenhouse gases; Global warming; Climate change; DSR; Zero tillage.

1. INTRODUCTION

Long-term changes in average temperatures, precipitation, and climate variability threaten agricultural production, food security, and the livelihoods of farming communities globally [1]. Due to greenhouse effect the global mean annual temperature was increased by 0.40-0.76°C at the end of 20th century over end of 19th century and also projected a rise of 1.1 to 6.4 °C at the end of 21st century [2]. India is the fourth largest GHG emitter in the world where agriculture is responsible for 18% of total national emissions [1]. The net GHGs emission were 1727.7 million tons of CO_{2eq} from India in 2007 [3]. Anthropogenic GHGs emission, including rice residue burning has become major contributors to global climate change [4,5] which have made food security complicated, fragile and vulnerable in South Asia [6] where, rice-wheat rotation is one of the largest agricultural production systems. Green Revolution technologies achieved a hike in growth rates of food grain production through indiscriminate use of fertilisers' especially nitrogenous fertilisers, which not only caused a decline in rice and wheat yield by 1% in recent year [7] and but also created serious environmental problem i.e. burning of crop residue instead adopted the concept of no-till farming which enhanced greenhouse gas concentration especially CO₂. Agricultural soil is the major emitter of nitrous oxide (N₂O) contributing 20% of the total global N₂O emission [8] i.e. 60% of anthropogenic N₂O emissions followed by CO₂ paying 20% to the total emission through soil and root respiration and methane emitting 12% of total CH₄ emission [2]. Although carbon dioxide (CO₂) is considered as most important GHG but CO₂ fluxes are counter balanced by atmospheric CO₂ fixation in crop plants as net primary productivity and thus contribute less than 1% to the global warming potential (GWP) of agriculture [9]. Methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O) is primarily responsible for global warming because their global warming potential (GWP) are 25 and 298 times greater respectively, than that of CO₂ over a time span of

100 years [2]. Global warming may distorted global carbon cycle, thereby structures and functions of ecosystem [10]. Therefore, GHG emission from agricultural soil depends on soil and environmental factors that includes precipitation amount and timing, soil texture, soil organic carbon and pH, soil water regime, which get influenced by the management practices like tillage management, residue management, water management, fertilizer management etc. [11,12,13,14,15]. The anoxic soil environment (i.e. flood irrigated rice production) is one of the main sources of CH₄ emission [11], whereas aerobic crops intensify N₂O production [16]. This trade off relationship between CH₄ and N₂O need to be considered when developing GHGs mitigation strategies.

Tillage systems with residue retention/ residue incorporation have significant influence on CH₄ and N₂O emission. Several field studies proved that zero-tillage (ZT)/ no-tillage (NT) results in lower CH₄ emission than conventional tillage (CT) [17,18] through preserving a CH₄ oxidation potential that would get disturbed by tillage [19]. Impact of tillage on N₂O emission is quite uncertain. Several studies have revealed that N₂O emissions from ZT can be less than [20,21], equal to [22,23] or higher than [24,25,26] conventional tillage systems. But, Six et al. [27] concluded that the higher soil N₂O emissions under NT will be decreased with time.

It has been also well documented that applications of fertilizers and organic manures increase the emissions of N₂O, CO₂ and CH₄ from soils [28,29]. But impact of combined application of fertiliser and organic manure on GHGs emission together with tillage management with residue retention/ residue incorporation during the wheat-growing season subsequent to rice-growing season in rice-wheat cropping system is scanty. Keeping these in view, the objectives of our study are (1) to examine the effect of management practice (i.e. culmination of tillage and nutrient management) on GHGs emission and (2) to evaluate the effect

of GHGs on agronomic productivity and subsequent impact on global warming.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Site Description

A field experiment was conducted during 2013-16 at the Research Farm of Bihar Agricultural University (BAU), Sabour, Bihar. Before 2013, the field was under Rice-Wheat cropping system with recommended dose of mineral fertiliser. A uniformity trial on wheat was undertaken during Rabi 2012–2013 to ensure uniform soil fertility in the entire field. The research farm is under subtropical climatic condition with hot desiccating summer, cold winter and moderate rainfall. The average maximum temperature is 35-39°C whereas, minimum temperature 5-10°C. The mean annual rainfall is around 1250 mm and precipitated during mid June to mid October. The meteorological parameters were recorded at Meteorological Observatory of BAU. Monthly mean values of meteorological parameters during crop growth period from 2013–2014 to 2015-16 were presented in Fig. 1.

The soil (0–15 cm layer), taken after the uniformity trial, of the experimental site was silty clay loam in texture, with pH 7.3, Walkley-Black C (oxidizable SOC) 4.9 g kg⁻¹, EC 0.25 dS m⁻¹, KMnO₄ oxidizable N 168.5 kg ha⁻¹, 0.5 M NaHCO₃ extractable P 35.2 kg P₂O₅ ha⁻¹ and 1 N NH₄OAc extractable K 135.4 kg K₂O ha⁻¹.

2.2 Experimental Details

The field experiment was conducted with three treatment combinations [conventional tillage (M₁); conventional tillage with (wheat)/without (rice) residue incorporation (M₂) and zero tillage with (wheat)/without (rice) residue retention (M₃) as main plot treatment and four treatment combinations 100% Recommended dose of fertilizer (RDF) through mineral fertiliser (S₁), 25% N of RDF substituted through organic sources +75% RDF through mineral fertiliser (S₂), 50% N of RDF substituted through organic sources + 50% RDF through mineral fertiliser (S₃) and 100% RDF as mineral fertiliser + Mung bean (*Vigna radiata*) as green-manure crop (S₄) arranged in split plot design with three replication. The treatment details are given in Table 1. Individual plot size was 8m x 4m. It was observed that 30% rice residue (straw yield) was applied to wheat crop only. Residues of the rice crop were retained on the soil surface at harvest under all residue retention plots.

2.3 Crop Management

Rice variety 'Rajendra Suwashini' was sown in mid of June and transplanted in mid of July using seed rate 50kg ha⁻¹, although, directed seeding was done in mid of June with the seed rate of 30 kg ha⁻¹. Rice was planted in three different methods describe in Table 1. Rice under SRI system was planted in 25x25 cm spacing, whereas 20x15 cm spacing was given in

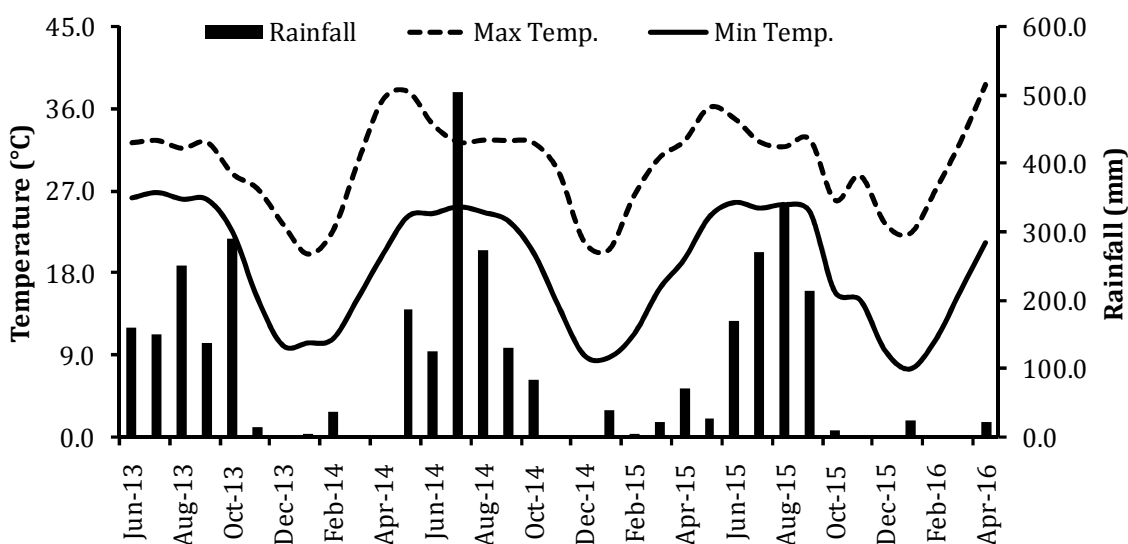


Fig. 1. Monthly mean values of meteorological parameters

Table 1. Treatment details

Treatment notation	Rice	Wheat
Crop establishment method/Tillage		
M ₁	System of rice intensification (SRI)	Conventional tillage
M ₂	Transplanted puddled rice (TPR)	Conventional tillage + 30% rice residue incorporation
M ₃	Direct seeded rice (DSR)	Zero tillage + 30% rice residue retention
Nutrient management practices		
S ₁	100% of Recommended dose of fertilizer (RDF) through inorganic sources	100% of Recommended dose of fertilizer (RDF) through inorganic sources
S ₂	75% of RDF through inorganic sources + 25% of RDF through organic sources	75% of RDF through inorganic sources + 25% of RDF through organic sources
S ₃	50% of RDF through inorganic sources + 50% of RDF through organic sources	50% of RDF through inorganic sources + 50% of RDF through organic sources
S ₄	100% of RDF through inorganic sources + mungbean as green manuring	100% of RDF through inorganic sources

transplanted rice. Manual sowing of DSR was carried out in the plot. A recommended dose of fertilizers 120 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ + 40 kg K₂O ha⁻¹ was applied in rice in which full P and K was applied in form of di ammonium phosphate and muriate of potash respectively as basal and along with 1/3 of the N while, the remaining N was top-dressed in two equal splits (after first and second irrigation). Vermicompost (1.5% N) was used as an organic source. During top dressing, fertilizers were broadcasted and care was taken so that the fertilizers were mainly targeted on the crop rows. Similarly for wheat, 'HD-2967' variety was sown manually in the mid of November through hand plough with row to row distance 22 cm using seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹. A common recommended dose of 150 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ + 40kg K₂O ha⁻¹ were applied as in the case of wheat.

2.4 Greenhouse gas (GHG) Collection and analysis

Various green-house gases were collected from both rice and wheat field through gas chamber with the help of 50 mL disposable injection syringe with three (3) way leur lock. At each sampling date GHG samples were collected at 0, 30, 60 and 120 minutes interval from each gas chamber. The GHGs were estimated through Gas chromatography (Tracer 1100 GC; Make-Thermo Fisher). The fluxes of the gases were calculated at three key stages like maximum tillering stage, panicle initiation or ear head emergence stage and maturity stage of crops. The gas emission flux was calculated from the

difference in gas concentration according to the equation of Zheng et al. [30] :

$$F = \rho h \left(\frac{dC}{dt} \right) 273(273 + T)^{-1}$$

where F is the gas emission flux (mg m⁻² h⁻¹), ρ is the gas density at the standard state, h is the height of chamber above the soil (m), C is the gas mixing ratio concentration (mg m⁻³), t is the time intervals of each time (h), and T is the mean air temperature inside the chamber during sampling.

2.5 Global Warming potential (GWP) and GHGs intensity (GHGI)

GWP is a measure of how much a given mass of greenhouse gas (GHG) is estimated to contribute to global warming. Gaseous emissions were converted to CO₂ equivalents using GWP. The GWP of different treatments were calculated using the following equation [31]:

$$\text{GWP (CO}_2\text{-equivalents, kg ha}^{-1}\text{)} = (\text{CO}_2) + (\text{CH}_4 \times 25) + (\text{N}_2\text{O} \times 298)$$

Based on a 100-year time frame, the GWP coefficients for CH₄ and N₂O are 25 and 298, respectively, when the GWP value for CO₂ is taken as 1 [2].

Grain yield were recorded using 1 m² quadrat from three places in each plot and converted it to t ha⁻¹ and GHGI was estimated on the basis of grain yield produced [32,33]:

$$\text{GHGI (kg CO}_2\text{eq kg}^{-1} \text{ grain yield)} = \text{GWP/Grain yield.}$$

2.6 Statistical Analysis

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done to determine treatment effects [34]. Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT) was used as a post hoc mean separation test ($P=0.05$) using SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) [35]. The DMRT procedure was used where the ANOVA was significant.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Grain Yield and Economics

Yield of rice and wheat ranged from 4.11-4.87 t ha⁻¹ and 3.49-4.70 t ha⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 2). Highest rice grain yield was obtained under SRI (4.87 t ha⁻¹) which was ~5% higher than the transplanted rice. Yield under DSR (4.11 t ha⁻¹) reduced by ~11% as compared to TPR. But, there was ~35% increase in grain yield under Zero tilled wheat (4.70 t ha⁻¹) than conventional wheat (3.49 t ha⁻¹) that eventually increased the rice equivalent yield (REY) by 6.16% over conventional tillage practices both in rice and wheat crop. Residue incorporation had significant influence on wheat grain yield that enhanced 18% yield over conventional wheat. Application of sole mineral fertiliser resulted higher yield (4.63 t ha⁻¹) than combined application of mineral fertiliser and organic manure (4.26-4.44 t ha⁻¹). However, inclusion of green manure had significantly increased the rice yield by 4.32%

over sole mineral fertiliser application that ultimately increased system productivity (REY). Exclusion of tillage drastically reduced cost for tillage operation and also saved water, labour and other inputs, altogether total cost of cultivation was lowered down. In addition to that there was a yield advantage under zero tillage as compared to the conventional tillage practices. Highest B: C ratio was found under the treatment DSR followed by zero tilled wheat. Inclusion of green manure along with 100% mineral fertiliser had increased the rice yield, hence higher B: C ratio was obtained in this treatment over 100% mineral fertiliser application.

3.2 Carbon Dioxide Emission

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) flux was significantly influenced by the management practices (Table 2). Conventional tillage management practices were imparted highest CO₂ flux (2.01-2.40 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) irrespective of all the crop growth stages followed by SRI and DSR emitted lowest CO₂ which was ~12 and 71% lower than the SRI and puddle rice respectively. Maximum tillering stage contributed highest CO₂ flux among the other phenological stages of rice i.e. panicle initiation, maturity (1.56-1.80 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) irrespective of management practices. Nitrogen management also significantly influenced the CO₂ flux. Substitution of half of the inorganic nitrogen (50% N of RDF) through organic manure (i.e. vermicompost) emitted highest

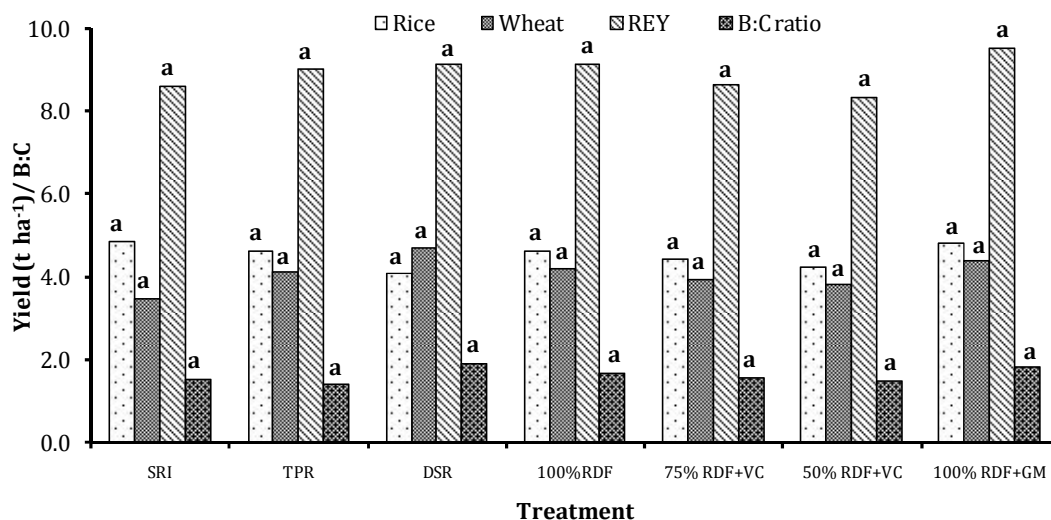


Fig. 2. Effect of management practices on grain yield and economics in rice-wheat cropping system (Bar with the different letters are significantly different at $p=0.05$)

Table 2. Effect of tillage and nutrient management on GHGs emission in various crop growth stages of rice

Treatment	CH ₄ (mg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)			CO ₂ (mg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)			N ₂ O (µg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)		
	Maximum Tillering	Panicle Initiation	Maturity	Maximum Tillering	Panicle Initiation	Maturity	Maximum Tillering	Panicle Initiation	Maturity
Crop Establishment method/ Tillage									
M ₁	21.6b	21.0b	19.7b	15.8b	15.1b	13.0b	59.8b	51.5b	43.8b
M ₂	27.0a	26.2a	25.7a	14.3b	13.1b	11.7b	36.5c	27.9c	18.5c
M ₃	13.9c	10.2c	5.4c	24.0a	22.9a	20.1a	82.7a	79.5a	77.3a
Nutrient Management									
S ₁	18.8c	17.3d	15.1d	12.5c	11.2d	10.1a	69.6a	60.9a	53.7a
S ₂	21.3b	20.0b	17.3b	14.8b	14.2b	12.0b	55.1c	48.4c	43.5c
S ₃	22.7a	20.9a	18.8a	18.8a	16.6a	13.4a	51.6d	44.1d	40.7d
S ₄	20.6b	18.3c	16.4c	12.6c	12.8c	11.0c	62.2b	58.4b	48.2b
p Value									
M*S	0.0064	0.0003	0.0001	0.1040	0.0298	0.1314	0.0001	0.0090	0.0001

Table 3. Effect of tillage and nutrient management on GHGs emission in various crop growth stages of wheat

Treatment	CH ₄ (mg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)			CO ₂ (mg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)			N ₂ O (mg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)		
	Maximum Tillering	Ear head Emergence	Maturity	Maximum Tillering	Ear head Emergence	Maturity	Maximum Tillering	Ear head Emergence	Maturity
Crop Establishment method/ Tillage									
M ₁	0.19b	0.16b	0.14b	44.8b	40.0b	33.6b	1.16a	0.91a	0.64a
M ₂	0.28a	0.24a	0.23a	65.3a	62.6a	60.6a	0.91b	0.64b	0.33b
M ₃	0.10c	0.07c	0.04c	12.9c	11.3c	9.8c	0.58c	0.48c	0.19c
Nutrient Management									
S ₁	0.16d	0.12d	0.11d	32.4d	30.7c	26.4d	1.10a	0.84a	0.52a
S ₂	0.20b	0.17b	0.14b	43.5b	39.6b	36.5b	0.78c	0.58c	0.35c
S ₃	0.22a	0.19a	0.17a	53.0a	48.8a	45.6a	0.75c	0.55d	0.29d
S ₄	0.18c	0.14c	0.12c	35.2c	32.8c	30.1c	0.91b	0.74b	0.40b
p Value									
M*S	<0.0001	0.0784	0.0819	0.4775	0.2601	0.0003	0.0006	<0.0001	0.0224

Values within a column, followed by different letters are significantly different at p=0.05 by Duncan's multiple range test.

M₁- System of Rice Intensification (SRI) and Conventional tillage in Wheat; M₂- Transplanted Rice and Conventional tillage with residue incorporation in Wheat; M₃- Direct seeded rice (DSR) and zero tillage with residue retention in wheat; S₁-100% Recommended dose of fertilizer (RDF) through mineral fertilizer; S₂- 25% N of RDF substituted through organic sources + 75% RDF through mineral fertilizer; S₃- 50% N of RDF substituted through organic sources + 50% RDF through mineral fertilizer; S₄- 100% RDF as mineral fertiliser + Mung bean (*Vignaradiata*) as green-manure crop in rice and 100% RDF as mineral fertilizer in wheat.

CO₂ flux (~1.63 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) than the full inorganic nitrogen application (1.13 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹). Wheat crop emitted ~2.5 times more CO₂ than rice irrespective of tillage and fertilization (Fig. 3). Zero tillage with residue retention emitted lowest CO₂ flux (1.13 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) as compared to the conventional tillage in wheat (3.95 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹). Conventional tillage with 30% residue incorporation contributed highest (6.28 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) CO₂ emission flux among all the tillage and/or residue management practices. Tillage increases the surface roughness and void spaces that aggravated the CO₂ evolution and subsequent emission to the atmosphere [36]. Besides this, higher carbon dioxide release was found in response to tillage that means the ploughing operation breaks down of soil aggregate and exposure of soil organic matter for microbial decomposition under conventional tillage system. Furthermore, soil pore character i.e. total porosity and pore size of the soil are stronger envisages of carbon dioxide flux than soil organic matter and presence of microbial biomass carbon [1]. Conventional tillage increases the porosity of the soil which favours the respiration of aerobic microorganism by recovering movement of water and air within the soil that augment carbon dioxide emission [37].

3.3 Methane Emission

Methane (CH₄) emission fluxes in all treatments were increased gradually, and then peaks at

maximum tillering stage. Thereafter, CH₄ emission fluxes declined gradually and kept relatively low levels at harvesting. Conventional tillage (puddle rice) recorded highest CH₄ emission (2.63 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) followed by SRI (2.07 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) and DSR (0.98 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) (Table 2). CH₄ emission had significantly (p=0.05) influenced by the fertilizer management practices. CH₄ emission flux increased with increasing amount of organic manure added to the soil. Highest CH₄ emission flux (2.08 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) was recorded in the treatment where 50% N was supplemented with organic manure and that emitted ~22% more CH₄ than the sole mineral fertiliser treatment (1.71 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹). Tillage and fertilization both had significant (p=0.05) effect on CH₄ emission. Across the three years, the averaged CH₄ fluxes were negligible (2.49–9.84 kg C ha⁻¹) during the wheat growing season (Fig. 4). Hence, zero tillage emitted lower CH₄ as compared to the conventional tillage whereas residue incorporation was further enhanced the CH₄ emission (Fig. 3). Generally rice cultivation responsible for anthropogenic methane emission anaerobic conditions are prerequisite for activities of methanogenic bacteria that enhance methane production. Adding to this methane oxidation potential would get disturbed by tillage operation. Thus under zero tillage no disturbance of the soil causes less exposure of soil organic matter resulted in lower chance of methane emission.

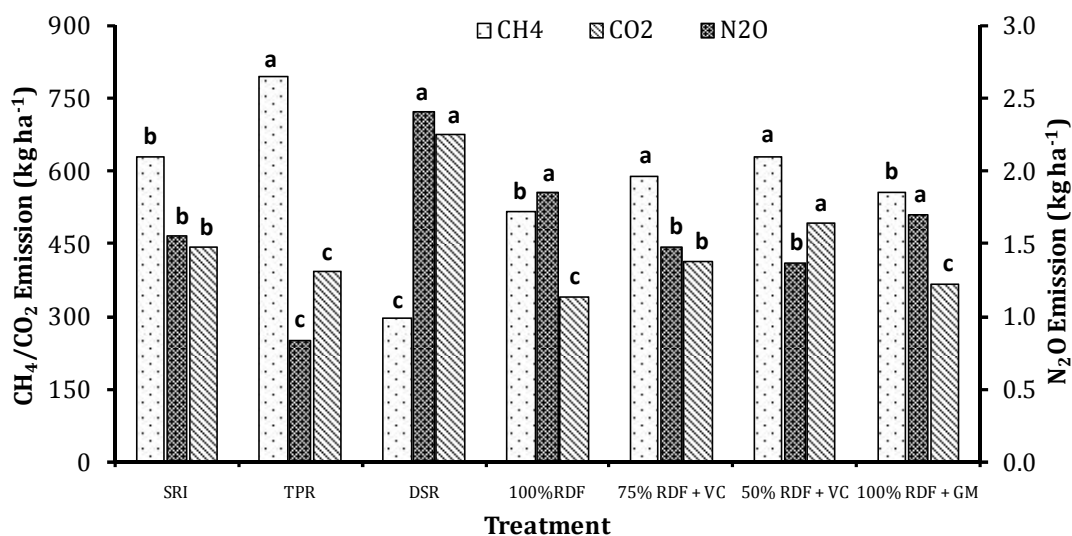


Fig. 3. Effect of crop establishment method and nutrient management practices on total greenhouse gas emission in rice (Bar with the different letters are significantly different at p=0.05)

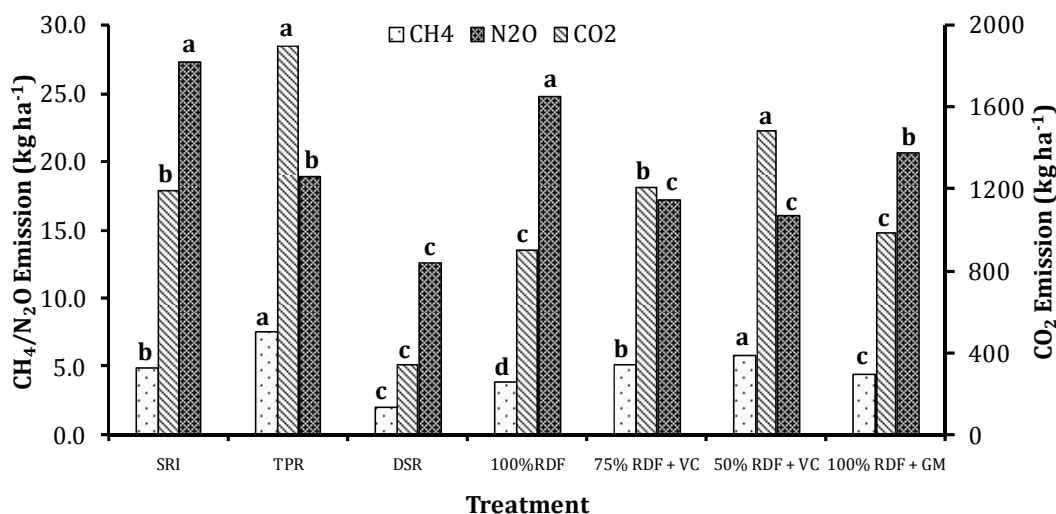


Fig. 4. Effect of crop establishment method and nutrient management practices on total greenhouse gas emission in wheat (Bar with the different letters are significantly different at $p=0.05$)

Moreover, under zero tillage system soil has high bulk density as because of reduced porosity (total porosity and pore size) that enhances retention of methane in soil and prevents the flow of methane in soil. It may improve oxidation of methane by methanotrophs resulting in lower methane emission. Under aerobic condition, non-microbial methane emission is common from wheat crop. Three factors are responsible for non-microbial methane emission, those are temperature fluctuation during *rabi* season, application of irrigation water through alternate wetting and drying and UV radiation. Application of organics was further aggravated the CH₄ emission flux by providing predominant carbon sources [38, 39].

3.4 Nitrous Oxide Emission

During the three cropping cycle of rice-wheat annual rotation, highest nitrous oxide (N₂O) emission took place during wheat season as compared to the rice crop season (Table 2 and 3). Unlike CO₂ and CH₄, maximum N₂O emission flux was observed in maximum tillering stage (rice-0.06 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹, wheat-0.89mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) followed by panicle (0.053 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹)/ ear head emergence (0.68 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) and maturity (rice-0.047 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹, wheat-0.39 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹) irrespective of management practices (Table/Fig). DSR followed by zero till wheat with 30% residue retention augmented N₂O emission flux by ~54.5% over transplanted rice followed by conventional wheat system (Fig. 4). Mineral fertilization significantly ($p=0.05$) increased N₂O

flux by 29-34% as compared to combined application of organics and mineral fertilization in both the crops. A synergistic effect of green manuring was found to combat N₂O flux (Fig. 4). There was 13.4% reduction in N₂O emission flux found in 100% RDF with green manuring as compared to 100% RDF throughout the cropping season. Tillage and fertilization had significant interaction effect on N₂O flux in both the crops. Although, there is a large ambiguity regarding the higher nitrous oxide emission from zero tillage system than conventional tillage system but after long term practice of zero tillage may reduce the nitrous oxide emission [17](Ahmed et al. 2009). The nitrification and denitrification process both are responsible for nitrous oxide emission [40]. Actually nitrous oxide is produced under reducing condition or poorly aerated soil. Under zero tillage condition the soil is wetter and denser and having more soil microbial biomass. 30% residue retention is a practice in zero tillage system that supplies adequate labile substrate to denitrifying bacteria for nitrous oxide emission. The rate of oxygen diffusion into soil might be lower in soils with high water content under NT, thereby creating anaerobic conditions that are conducive to denitrification and N₂O emissions [41, 42]. Mineral fertilisation further augmented the N₂O emission because the application of the nitrogen fertilizer to the soils would have further increased the substrate availability for the processes driving the soil N₂O emissions [26, 43], resulted in enormous pulse emissions of N₂O, accounting for 73% of the annual emissions [44](Cui et al., 2012).

Under maximum tillering stage lower rhizospheric methane oxidation is occurred which most effectively transport reconciled by crop produce higher methane emission which is successively decreased to panicle initiation (rice) or ear head emergence (wheat) followed by harvesting stage. The reason behind such event may be due the fact that crop can utilize more nutrient in a better at prime vegetative phase for manufacturing more biomass exclusively for generating healthy reproductive parts in later crop growth stage. Maximum tillering stage attributed to highest root biomass enhanced microbial and root respiration; hence, increased CO₂ emission was found. This may be either decomposition of in-situ organic matter or root exudates by heterotrophic microorganism [36] (Robertson et al.,2000). Moreover, shallow submergence comparatively no ponding is found during later stage of growth.

3.4 GWP and GHGI

There were significant differences of the total global warming potential (GWP) of emitted CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O across all treatments, ranging from 4150 to 20526 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹ in whole cropping seasons (Fig. 5). Total global warming potential (GWP) of rice crop was 1.64-2.65 times higher than the GWP of wheat. Highest GWP was recorded in transplanted rice (20526 Kg CO_{2 eq} ha⁻¹) followed by SRI (16608 Kg CO_{2 eq} ha⁻¹) and lowest in DSR (8829 Kg CO_{2 eq} ha⁻¹) in rice season, whereas conventional wheat recorded highest GWP (9457 Kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹) followed by conventional wheat with residue incorporation (7736 Kg CO_{2 eq} ha⁻¹) and lowest in zero till

wheat with residue retention (4150 Kg CO_{2 eq} ha⁻¹). Significant variation in GWP was found under nutrient management practices. S₃ recorded highest GWP in rice which is at par with S₂ followed by S₁ and S₄, whereas S₁ recorded highest GWP in wheat. Extent of substitution of mineral fertiliser through organic manure did not show any significant variation in GWP in both the crops. N₂O emission is the key regulating factor for GWP in wheat growing season, because absence of anaerobiosis retards CH₄ emission. GWP under wheat growing season was 46-56% lower under zero till system as compared to conventional tillage system. This may be due to more nitrogen mineralisation rate increased the substrate availability for soil nitrification and denitrification. This observation is consistent with other studies carried out by [21,42]. Conventional tillage in well aerated soil possesses higher gas diffusion rates than zero tillage made impossible for further reduction of N₂O to N₂ by denitrifying organism [45].

Assessment of global warming potential as a function of crop yield (i.e. GHGs produced per unit of grain yield) is designated as greenhouse gas intensity (GHGI). Tillage showed more prominent impact on GHGI as compared to the nutrient management practices. Conventional tillage with continuous submergence (transplanted rice) (4.42 Kg CO_{2 eq} kg⁻¹ grain yield) showed highest GHGI followed by SRI (3.41 Kg CO_{2 eq} kg⁻¹ grain yield) and lowest in DSR (2.15 Kg CO_{2 eq} kg⁻¹ grain yield). Whereas, conventional wheat (2.71 Kg CO_{2eq} kg⁻¹ grain yield) recorded highest GHGI followed by

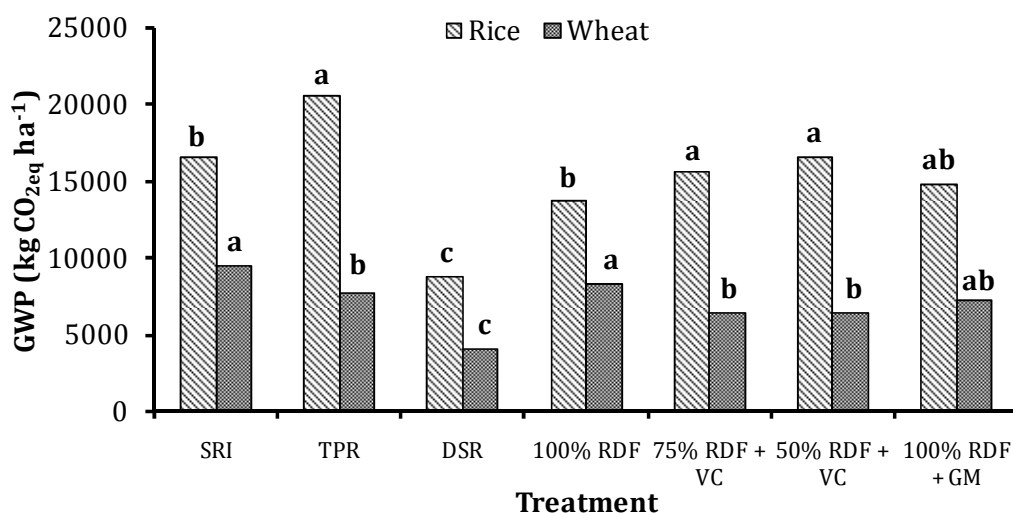


Fig. 5. Effect of tillage and nutrient management on global warming potential (GWP) in rice-wheat cropping season (Bar with the different letters are significantly different at $p=0.05$)

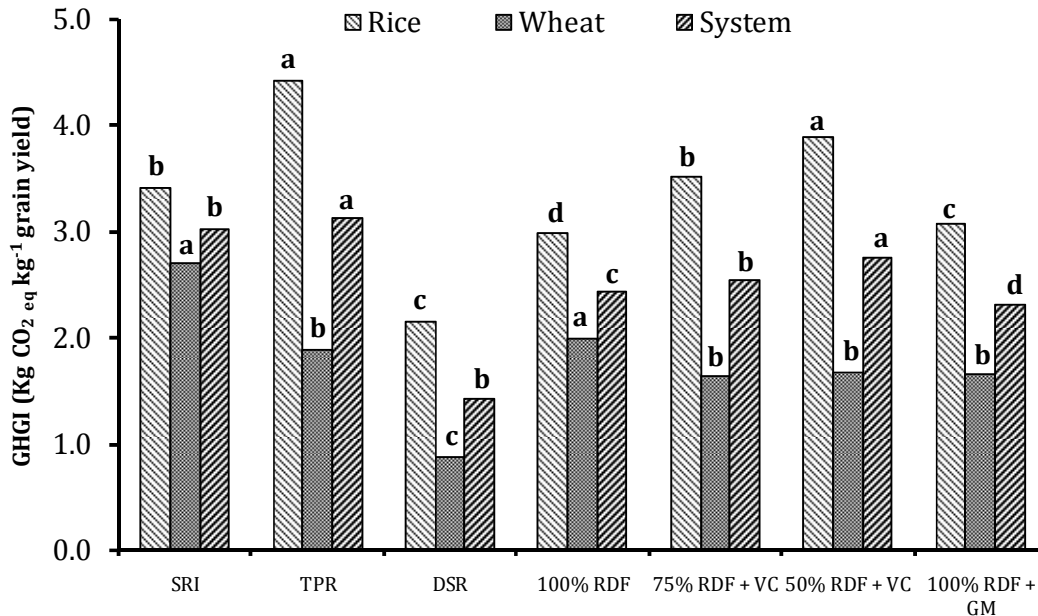


Fig. 6. Effect of tillage and nutrient management practices on GHGI in rice wheat cropping system (Bar with the different letters are significantly different at $p=0.05$)

conventional wheat with residue incorporation ($1.88 \text{ Kg CO}_{2\text{eq}} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ grain yield) and lowest in zero till wheat with residue retention ($0.88 \text{ Kg CO}_{2\text{eq}} \text{ kg}^{-1}$ grain yield). Nutrient management showed significant variation on GHGI. Direct seeded rice followed by zero till wheat with residue retention reduced the GHGI by a factor of 2.13-2.20 than conventional rice and wheat (Fig. 6). Although DSR obtained lower yield, but in long run DSR performed better than TPR [46] (Jat et al., 2014). This may be due to favourable soil environment enhanced system productivity and augment annual GWP by reducing CH_4 emission through moist irrigation or alternate wetting and drying in rice [47,48] and N_2O during wheat season to a lesser extent (Fig. 3 and 4). Consistent with our hypothesis, these results suggested that modification of management practices produced maximum yields while reducing GWP and maximised profitability in intensive rice-wheat production system [49,50] (Grassini and Cassman, 2012, Pittelkow et al., 2013).

4. CONCLUSIONS

Three year studies showed the positive effect of management options on GHGs emissions and agronomic productivity. The cost for all of these options had to be taken into account when assessing the economic viability of a system. SRI

system had increased rice grain yield by 18.5% over DSR, whereas zero till wheat with residue retention had recorded 34.7% higher yield over conventional wheat. But highest system productivity was obtained under direct seeded rice followed by zero till wheat with 30% residue retention treatment. This system had reduced the CH_4 and N_2O emission by 62.7 and 48% respectively over conventional rice and wheat system, hence the GWP and GHGI was reduced by a factor 2.0-2.18 and 2.13-2.20, respectively. Although addition of green manure did not influenced the GWP but significant impact was found in GHGI. Because 100% RDF through mineral fertiliser along with green manure increased the system productivity by 4.27%, therefore GHGI was reduced by 4.56% over 100% RDF through mineral fertiliser. Direct seeded rice followed by zero till wheat with 30% residue retention along with 100% RDF through mineral fertiliser along with green manure could be an economically viable yield-scaled agronomic management strategy for future food supply under lower emission scenarios.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Authors are thankful to the Vice Chancellor, Bihar Agricultural University (BAU), Bhagalpur, Bihar, India for providing necessary facilities, Director Research, BAU for his support and criti-

cal suggestions. Finally, the financial support from Government of Bihar is gratefully acknowledged.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCE

- Sapkota TB, Vetter SH, Jat ML, Sirohi S, Paresh B Shirsath, Singh R, Jat HS, Smith P, Hillier J, Stirling CM. Cost-effective opportunities for climate change mitigation in Indian agriculture. *Science of the Total Environment* 655. 2019;1342-1354.
- IPCC. Climate change: The physical science basis. In: Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA; 2007.
- INCCA (Indian Network for Climate Change Assessment). Assessment of the Greenhouse Gas Emission: 2007, The Ministry of Environment and Forest, Govt. of India, New Delhi; 2010.
- Jassal RS, Black TA, Roy R, Ethier G. Effect of nitrogen fertilization on soil CH₄ and N₂O fluxes, and soil and bole respiration. *Geoderma*. 2011;162:182-186
- Lavoie M, Kellman L, Risk D. The effects of clear-cutting on soil CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O flux, storage and concentration in two Atlantic temperate forests in Nova Scotia, Canada. *Forest Ecol Manage*. 2013;304: 355-369.
- Fischer TR, Byerlee D, Edmeades GO. Can technology deliver on the yield challenge to 2050? In: Piero Conforti (Ed.), *Looking Ahead in World Food and Agriculture*. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, OECD Publishing, 2, rue André-Pascal, 75775 PARIS CEDEX 16. 2011;389-447.
- Laik Ranjan, Sharma Sheetal, Idris M, Singh AK, Singh SS, Bhatt BP, Saharawat Yashpal, Humphreys E, Ladha JK. Integration of conservation agriculture with best management practices for improving system performance of the rice–wheat rotation in the Eastern Indo-Gangetic Plains of India. *Agric Ecosyst Environ*. 2014;195:68–82.
- Mosier AR, Kroeze C, Nevison C, Oenema O, Seitzinger S, van Cleemput O. Closing the global N₂O budget: nitrous oxide emissions through the agricultural nitrogen cycle. *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosyst*. 1998;52: 225-248.
- Smith P, Martino D, Cai Z, Gwary D, Janzen H, Kumar P, McCarl B, Ogle S, O'Mara F, Rice C, Scholes B, Sirotenko O. Agriculture. In: Metz, B., Davidson, O.R., Bosch, P.R. (Eds.), *Climate Change 2007: Mitigation Contribution of Working Group III to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK/New York. 2007;497-540.
- Bhattacharyya P, Roy KS, Neogi S, Adhya TK, Rao KS, Manna MC. Effects of rice straw and nitrogen fertilization on greenhouse gas emissions and carbon storage in tropical flooded soil planted with rice. *Soil Till Res*. 2012;124:119-130.
- Le Mer J, Roger P. Production oxidation, emission and consumption of methane by soils: a review. *Eur J Soil Biol*. 2001;37: 25-50.
- Luo J, de Klein CAM, Ledgard SF, Saggart S. Management options to reduce nitrous oxide emissions from intensively grazed pastures: a review. *Agric Ecosyst Environ*. 2010;136:282-291.
- Smith P, Martino D, Cai Z, Gwary D, Janzen H, Kumar P, McCarl B, Ogle S, O'Mara F, Rice C, Scholes B, Sirotenko O, Howden M, McAllister T, Pan G, Romanenkov V, Schneider U, Towprayoon S, Wattenbach M, Smith J. Greenhouse gas mitigation in agriculture. *Philos Trans R Soc B*. 2008;363:789-813.
- Soane BD, Ball BC, Arvidsson J, Basch G, Moreno F, Roger-Estrade J. No-till in northern: western and south-western Europe: a review of problems and opportunities for crop production and the environment. *Soil Till Res*. 2012;118:66-87.
- Venterea RT, Halvorson AD, Kitchen N, Liebig MA, Cavigelli MA, Del Grosso SJ, Motavalli PP, Nelson KA, Spokas KA, Singh BP, Stewart CE, Ranaivoson A, Strock J, Collins H. Challenges and opportunities for mitigating nitrous oxide emissions from fertilized cropping systems. *Front Ecol Environ*. 2012;10:562-570.
- Linguist B, Van Groenigen KJ, Adviento-Borbe MA, Pittelkow C, Van Kessel C. An agronomic assessment of greenhouse gas

- emissions from major cereal crops. *Global Change Biol.* 2012;18:194-209.
17. Ahmad S, Li C, Dai G, Zhan M, Wang J, Pan S. Greenhouse gas emission from direct seeding paddy field under different rice tillage systems in central China. *Soil Till Res.* 2009;106:54-61.
 18. Li D, Liu M, Cheng Y, Wang D, Qin J, Jiao J, Li H, Hu F. Methane emissions from double-rice cropping system under conventional and no tillage in southeast China. *Soil Till Res.* 2011;113:77-81.
 19. Ussiri DAN, Lal R, Jarecki MK. Nitrous oxide and methane emissions from long-term tillage under a continuous corn cropping system in Ohio. *Soil Till Res.* 2009;104:247-255.
 20. Chatskikh D, Olesen JE. Soil tillage enhanced CO₂ and N₂O emissions from loamy sand soil under spring barley. *Soil Till Res.* 2007;97:5-18.
 21. Mutegei JK, Munkholm LJ, Petersen BM, Hansen EM, Petersen SO. Nitrous oxide emissions and controls as influenced by tillage and crop residue management strategy. *Soil Biol Biochem.* 2010;42:1701-1711.
 22. Metay A, Oliver R, Scopel E, Douzet JM, Alves Moreira JA, Maraux F, Feigl BJ, Feller C. N₂O and CH₄ emissions from soils under conventional and no till management practices in Goiânia (Cerrados, Brazil). *Geoderma*, 2007;141:78-88.
 23. Ventere RT, Burger M, Spokas KA. Nitrogen oxide and methane emissions under varying tillage and fertilizer management. *J Environ Qual.* 2005;34:1467-1477.
 24. Bhatia A, Sasmal S, Jain N, Pathak H, Kumar R, Singh A. Mitigating nitrous oxide emission from soil under conventional and no-tillage in wheat using nitrification inhibitors. *Agric Ecosyst Environ.* 2010;105:181-193.
 25. Rochette P, Angers M, Chantigny H, Bertrand N. N₂O emissions respond differently to no-till in a loam and a heavy clay soil. *Soil Sci Soc Am J.* 2008;72:1363-1369.
 26. Yao Z, Zhou Z, Zheng X, Xie B, Mei B, Wang R, Butterbach-Bahl K, Zhu J. Effects of organic matter incorporation on nitrous oxide emissions from rice-wheat rotation ecosystems in China. *Plant Soil.* 2010;327:315-330.
 27. Six J, Ogle ST, Breidt FJ, Contant RT, Mosier AR, Paustian K. The potential to mitigate global warming with no-tillage management is only realized when practised in the long term. *Global Change Biol.* 2004;10:155-160.
 28. Matson PA, Naylor R, Ortiz-Monasterio I. Integration of environmental, agronomic, and economic aspects of fertilizer management. *Science.* 1998;280:112-115.
 29. Scheer C, Wassmann R, Klenzler K, Lbragimov N, Eschanov R. Nitrous oxide emissions from fertilized irrigated cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) in the Aral Sea Basin, Uzbekistan: influence of nitrogen applications and irrigation practices. *Soil Biol Biochem.* 2008;40:290-301.
 30. Zheng XH, Wang MX, Wang YS, Shen RX, Li J. Comparison of manual and automatic methods for measurement of methane emission from rice paddy fields. *Advances in Atmospheric Sciences*, 1998;15(4):569-579.
 31. Watson RT, Zinyowera MC, Moss RH, Dokken DJ. Climate change (1995), impacts, adaptations and mitigation of climate change. Scientific Technical Report Analyses. In: Watson RT, Zinyowera MC, Ross RH. (Eds.), Contribution of Working Group II to the Second Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge, New York. 1996;880.
 32. Mosier AR, Halvorson AD, Reule CA, Liu XJ. Net global warming potential and greenhouse gas intensity in irrigated cropping systems in North-eastern Colorado. *J Environ Qual.* 2006;35:1584-1598.
 33. Shang Q, Yang X, Gao C, Wu P, Liu J, Xu Y, Shen Q, Zou J, Guo S. Net annual global warming potential and greenhouse gas intensity in Chinese double rice-cropping systems: A 3-year field measurement in long-term fertilizer experiments. *Global Change Biol.* 2010;17:2196-2210.
 34. Gomez AK, Gomez AA. Statistical Procedures for Agricultural Research, 2nd ed. John Wiley & Sons, New York; 1984.
 35. SAS Institute Inc. SAS/STAT® 9.2 User's Guide. SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC; 2009.
 36. Robertson GP, Paul EA, Harwood RR. Greenhouse gases in intensive agriculture: contribution of individual gases to the radiative forcing of the atmosphere. *Science.* 2000;289:1922-1925.

37. Wassmann R, Lantin RS, Neue HU, Buendia LV, Corton TM, Lu Y. Characterization of methane emissions from rice fields in Asia Mitigation options and Future research needs. *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems*. 2000;58:23 - 36.
38. Zou J, Huang Y, Jiang J, Zheng X, Sass RL. A 3-year field measurement of methane and nitrous oxide emissions from rice paddies in China: effects of water regime, crop residue, and fertilizer application, *Global Biogeochem. Cyc.* 2005;19:GB2021.
39. Khosa MK, Sidhu BS, Benbi DK. Effect of organic materials and rice cultivars on methane emission from rice field. *J Environ Biol*. 2010;31:281.
40. Liu S, Zhao C, Zhang Y, Hu Z, Wang C, Zong Y. Annual net greenhouse gas balance in a halophyte (*Helianthus tuberosus*) bioenergy cropping system under various soil practices in Southeast China. *GCB Bioenergy*. 2015;7:690-703.
41. Elmi AA, Madramootoo C, Hamel C, Liu A. Denitrification and nitrous oxide to nitrous oxide plus dinitrogen ratios in the soil profile under three tillage systems. *Biol Fertil Soils*. 2003;38:340-348.
42. Zhang Yuefang, Sheng Jing, Wang Zichen, Chen Liugen, Zheng Jianchu. Nitrous oxide and methane emissions from a Chinese wheat-rice cropping system under different tillage practices during the wheat-growing season. *Soil Till Res*. 2015; 146:261-269.
43. Xia Longlong, Wang Shuwei, Yan Xiaoyuan. Effects of long-term straw incorporation on the net global warming potential and the net economic benefit in a rice-wheat cropping system in China. *Agric Ecosyst Environ*. 2014;197:118-127.
44. Cui F, Yan GX, Zhou ZX, Zheng XH, Deng J. Annual emissions of nitrous oxide and nitric oxide from a wheat-maize cropping system on a silt loam calcareous soil in the North China Plain. *Soil Biol Biochem*. 2012;48:10-19.
45. Webster FA, Hopkins DW. Contributions from different microbial processes to N₂O emission from soil under different moisture regimes. *Biol Fertil Soils*. 1996;22:331-335.
46. Jat Raj Kumar, Sapkota Tek B, Singh Ravi G, Jat ML, Kumar Mukesh, Gupta Raj K. Seven years of conservation agriculture in a rice-wheat rotation of Eastern Gangetic Plains of South Asia: Yield trends and economic profitability. *Field Crops Res*. 2014;164:199-210.
47. Ceesay M, Reid WS, Fernandes E, Uphoff N. The effect of repeated soil wetting and drying on lowland rice yield with System of Rice Intensification (SRI) methods. *International Journal of Agricultural Sustainability*. 2006; 4:5-14.
48. Zhang XH, Xie BH, Liu CY. Quantifying net ecosystem carbon dioxide exchange of a short-plant cropland with intermittent chamber measurements. *Global Biogeochem Cyc.* 2008;22:GB3031.
49. Grassini P, Cassman KG. High-yield maize with large net energy yield and small global warming intensity. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 2012;109:1074-1079.
50. Pittelkow Cameron M, Adviento-Borbe Maria A, Hill James E, Six Johan, Van Kessel Chris, Linquist Bruce A. Yield-scaled global warming potential of annual nitrous oxide and methane emissions from continuously flooded rice in response to nitrogen input. *Agric Ecosyst Environ*. 2013;177:10-20.