

28 **Keyword:** Direct seeded rice, Greenhouse gas intensity Nitrogen management, Zero tillage.

29 1. Introduction

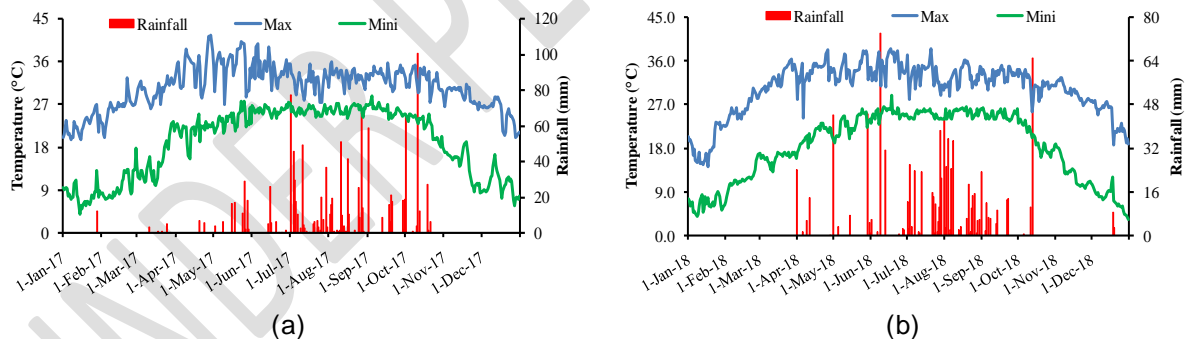
30 Traditional rice establishment technique i.e. massive puddling followed by transplanting is not only
31 exhaustive water user but also burdensome, energy consuming, and laborious process [1].
32 Conventionally, rice is established by repeated wet tillage (Puddling) followed by transplanting of the
33 seedlings in the puddled soil while wheat established (in rice residue burned fields) by
34 broadcasting/drilling seed after disking, tilling and planking operations [2]. Seed bed preparation
35 operations oxidises the hidden organic matter, break the macro-aggregates into the micro-aggregates
36 which adversely affect the soil properties [3,4]. Besides, soil perturbation by conventional tillage makes
37 the soil to serve as a source rather than a sink of atmospheric pollutants [5]. About 20-40% of entire water
38 required for growing crops is utilized in preparation of land for transplanting paddy. The situation could be
39 further aggravated with degradation of soil fertility, declining underground water level and lesser per
40 capita land availability and water productivity which ultimately are threat in front of sustainable rice
41 production system. In addition, contribution of agriculture in total N₂O, CH₄ and CO₂ emission are 60%,
42 39%, and 1% respectively with rice based cropping system playing a principle role in global warming.
43 Global CH₄ emission from rice paddies was estimated to be 20–40 Tg yr⁻¹ which accounted for
44 approximately 5–19% of annual CH₄ emission to the atmosphere [6]. Nitrous oxide (N₂O) emission from
45 cultivated area of low land rice was much lower ranging from 1.7–4.8 Tg N₂O N yr⁻¹ (Yao *et al.*, 2013).
46 Therefore, direct seeded rice (DSR) is the only probable alternative by offering certain advantages like
47 saving irrigation water, labour, energy time [7] for better growth of succeeding crops as well as by
48 reducing emission of greenhouse gases [8] and fruitless water flows. Zero tillage or reduce tillage
49 establishment which is extensively used for many crops around the world and this technology when used
50 in rice cultivation has potential to allow saving in time, energy, water and labour during rice establishment.
51 Moreover, Zero tilled or no tilled system of crop establishment not only reduce soil disturbance but also
52 increases soil organic matter accumulation and can also increase crop yield [9, 10, 11]. Consequently,
53 application of appropriate quantity of N at the right time to restrict rapid mineralization losses through
54 different pathways before it is utilized by the crop is, therefore, one of the most important factors to realize
55 high yield and N use efficiency in DSR. Thus, there is an urgent need to focus on input management

56 practices for improving use efficiency and sustaining the rice based production system under lower
 57 emission scenarios. To address the issues of sustainability of food production on account of changing
 58 climate, a combination of tillage and nutrient management practices were tested aimed at (1) to gain
 59 insight crop phenology mediated greenhouse gas emission under different crop establishment and
 60 nitrogen management practices and (2) to evaluate the effect of GHGs on productivity, profitability and
 61 subsequent impact on global warming.

62 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

63 2.1 Experimental details

64 The field study was carried out at experimental farm of at Bihar Agricultural College Farm, Sabour, India
 65 (25°23"N, 78°07"E, MSL-37.19 m) during kharif season (June-October) of 2017 and 2018. The climate of
 66 Sabour, Bhagalpur is sub-tropical having moderate annual rainfall, hot and dry summer and cold winter.
 67 Maximum and minimum temperature recorded for the same period varied in between 30.7 to 34.9 °C and
 68 20.0 to 26.8 °C, respectively. Wind speed was varied from 1.2 to 5.0 km hr⁻¹. The average annual rainfall
 69 of this place is about 1150 mm. Monthly average values of weather Parameters of 2017 and 2018
 70 were presented in fig. 1(a) and (b).



71 Figure 1: Monthly mean weather parameter of 2017 and 2018

72 The soil was arable clay-loam having pH- 7.4, Electrical Conductivity- 0.29 dSm⁻¹, organic
 73 carbon- 4.6 g kg⁻¹, available N – 228.5 Kg N ha⁻¹, available P- 19.22 Kg P₂O₅ ha⁻¹, available K-
 74 210.4 Kg K₂O ha⁻¹. The experiment was laid out in split plot design with 8 treatment combination and
 75 replicated thrice having two crop establishment method i.e. zero tilled DSR (M₁), and conventional
 76 DSR (M₂) and with four nitrogen Management Practices viz. S₁ as 100% nitrogen through neem
 77 coated urea where half was applied as basal and rest in two equal splits at active tillering and panicle

78 initiation stage, S₂ SPAD based nitrogen management where SPAD threshold was 36 for rice
79 whenever the SPAD reading was below critical value the N Fertilizer was applied (20 kg ha⁻¹) in form
80 of Urea, S₃ with 75% through urea +25% nitrogen through vermicompost applied 15 days before
81 sowing. And S₄ in which ¼ Nitrogen as basal and rest 3 in equal splits at 20, 40, 60 DAS. , Each plot
82 having dimension of 4.0X5.0 m².The plots were given uniform recommended dose of phosphorus and
83 potassium @ of 60 and 40 kg P₂O₅ and K₂O ha⁻¹ respectively, during the crop season.
84 Rice variety Rajendra Sweta was sown in mid June with seed rate of 50 kg ha⁻¹ at a row spacing of
85 20 cm. The recommended dose of fertilizer of rice was 120 kg N + 60kg P₂O₅ + 40 Kg K₂O ha⁻¹ in
86 which full P and K was applied in form of diammonium phosphate (DAP) and muriate of Potash (MoP)
87 respectively as basal and nitrogen (Urea and DAP) was applied as per the treatment. Source of
88 organic fertilization was vermicompost with 1.5%N. Rice crop was harvested and threshed manually.
89 Yield of rice was estimated by harvesting the entire plot and converted it to t ha⁻¹. The grain yield of
90 rice was recorded at 14% moisture.

91 **2.2 Greenhouse gas (GHG) collection and analysis**

92 The greenhouse gases i.e. CH₄, N₂O and CO₂ were collected from each plot through closed chamber
93 method with the help of 50 mL disposable injection syringe with three way leur lock. At each sampling
94 date, GHG samples were collected at 0, 30 and 60 minutes interval from each plot. The Gas samples
95 were analyzed by a gas chromatograph (Trace GC 1100, Thermo Fischer) equipped with electron
96 capture detector (ECD) and flame ionization detector (FID) for analysing N₂O and CH₄ respectively.
97 CO₂ was reduced to CH₄ with hydrogen in a nickel catalytic methanizer at 350°C and then detected
98 by the FID. The carrier gas was nitrogen at a flow rate of 35 mL min⁻¹. The temperatures for the
99 column and ECD detector were maintained at 60°C and 300°C, respectively. The oven and FID were
100 operated at 60°C and 300°C, respectively. The gas emission flux was calculated from the difference
101 in gas concentration according to the equation of Zheng [12]

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

102 where F is the gas emission flux (mg m⁻² hr⁻¹), ρ is the gas density at the standard state, h is the height of
103 chamber above the soil (m), C is the gas mixing ratio concentration (mg m⁻³), t is the time intervals of
104
105

106 each time (h), and T is the mean air temperature inside the chamber during sampling.

107 **2.3 Statistical analysis**

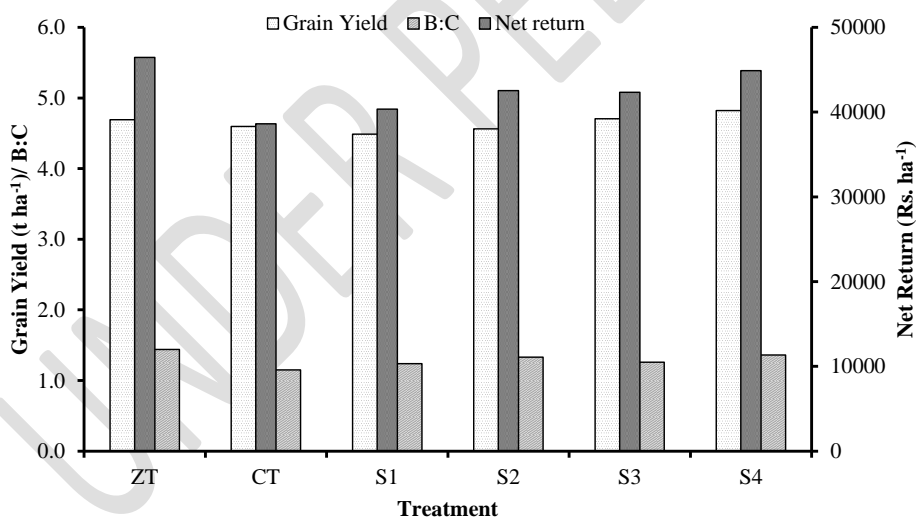
108 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was done to determine treatment effects [13]. Duncan's multiple range test
109 (DMRT) was used as a post hoc mean separation test ($P=0.05$) using SAS 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC)
110 [14]. The DMRT procedure was used where the ANOVA was significant.

111 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

112 **3.1 Grain yield and economics**

113 Different crop establishment and nitrogen management practices had significant impact on grain yield.
114 Maximum grain yield (4.69 t ha^{-1}) was obtained from plots sown under zero tilled condition. Rice sown
115 under zero tilled condition experienced reduced soil disturbance, resulting in increase in soil organic
116 matter accumulation in top soil [15] which enhanced tillering capacity, lodging tolerance, greater stress
117 resistance and wide ecological adaptability of rice crop [16]. Further, in zero tilled DSR there was more
118 root length density of the crop which produces greater xylem exudates and transport these towards shoot
119 at faster rates and thus helps in maintenance of higher chlorophyll level and photosynthetic rates of
120 leaves resulting in more yield. The same was also confirmed by Jat et al [17]. Besides, there was also low
121 sterility percentage resulting in more number of filled grains per panicle [18]. Significantly higher grain
122 yield (4.82 t ha^{-1}) was recorded under split application of nitrogenous fertilizer compared to other sub plot
123 treatments which gives adequate nutrient quickly as compared to organic substitute to the crop [19]. This
124 is because of the fact that split application promotes higher leaf area index and dry matter production as
125 well as effective tillers per meter square with more portioning of nutrients from source to sink and also due
126 to lower weed infestation and higher nutrient utilization by efficient nitrogen management. Similar results
127 were reported by [20]. Moreover, due to the fact that less nitrogen before anthesis and more nitrogen
128 application at or after anthesis increase the post anthesis dry matter accumulation and grain filling [21].
129 The yield ascribing character was the maximum under the three split nitrogen treatment resulting higher
130 grain yield [21]. This may be attributed to the adequate N availability, at required crop growth stage which
131 facilitates tillering, and develops more and heavier grains in rice crop. Additionally, cell elongation, cell
132 enlargement and cell division due to proper utilization of nitrogenous fertilizer application under split
133 nitrogenous fertilizer application, activates meristematic tissues which remain functional for longer periods

134 resulting in better expression of yield and yield attributes and resulting in more yield of the crop. This
 135 result is in close agreement with those reported earlier [22, 23].
 136 There was reduction in cost of cultivation in zero tilled DSR (M_1) as compared to conventional DSR (M_2),
 137 probably due to the fact that in zero tilled plot less labours were required in addition with less cost in land
 138 preparation due to no tillage operation which declined cost of cultivation [24] (Kumar et al. 2009).
 139 Similarly, highest gross returns of $78690 \text{ Rs. ha}^{-1}$, net return ($46440 \text{ Rs. ha}^{-1}$) and B: C ratio (1.44) was
 140 recorded from treatment zero tilled DSR mainly because in Zero tilled DSR both of grain and straw yield
 141 was high [25]. Among nitrogen management practices lowest cost of cultivation was incurred in SPAD
 142 based nitrogen management ($32125 \text{ Rs. ha}^{-1}$) compared to other treatments. It may be due to the fact that
 143 less amount of fertilizer was applied to the soil in SPAD based nitrogen Management. There was about
 144 24% reduction in applied nitrogen as compared to other nutrient management practices. The maximum
 145 gross return ($\text{Rs. } 78005 \text{ ha}^{-1}$), net return ($\text{Rs. } 44880 \text{ ha}^{-1}$) and benefit cost ratio (1.36) was recorded from
 146 the crop raised with three split application of nitrogen fertilizer. This is due to the fact that split fertilizer
 147 application increases the nutrient use efficiency resulting in increased nutrient uptake which influences
 148 various growth and yield attributing characters which attributes to higher gross return.



149
 150 Figure 2: Effect of tillage and nitrogen management on Grain yield, net return and B:C ratio

151 **3.2 Greenhouse gas emission**

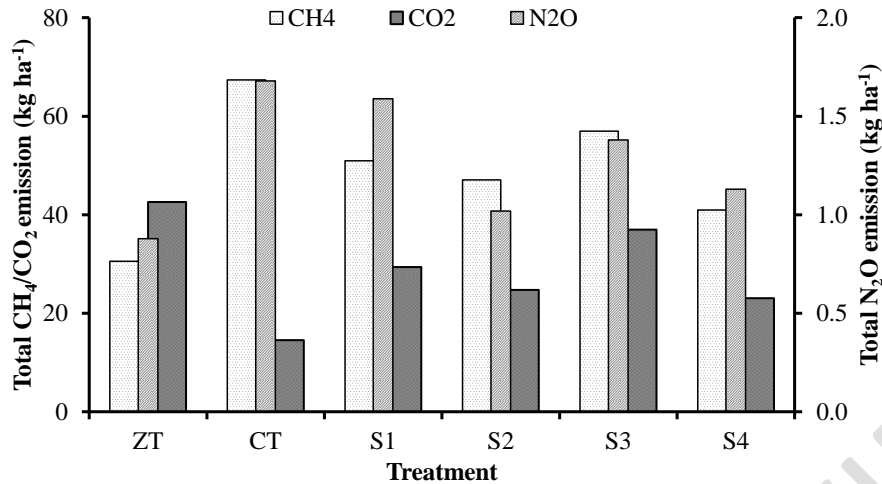
152 Rice cultivation is an important anthropogenic source of methane emission. The statistical analysis
 153 revealed that lowest greenhouse gas emission was found in zero tilled plots irrespective of nitrogen

154 management practices (Table 1). However, significant variation was found in methane emission at
 155 different stages of crop growth while there was no significant variation in nitrous oxide emission in
 156 different crop growth stages. Lowest methane emission was under Zero tilled DSR (1.47, 1.08 and 0.57
 157 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹ at maximum tillering, panicle initiation and harvesting stage, respectively) as compared to
 158 Conventional tilled DSR. Although, the emission followed a decreasing trend from maximum tillering to
 159 harvesting stage. Generally, methane emission from rice field mostly depends on input and soil
 160 management practices. Anaerobic conditions are prerequisite for activities of methanogenic bacteria
 161 that enhance methane production. Several studies proved that zero tilled DSR resulted in lower
 162 methane emission than conventional DSR (Ahmed et al., 2009) through preserving methane oxidation
 163 potential that would get disturbed by tillage operation [26]. Basically, under zero tillage there is no
 164 disturbance of soil cause less exposure of organic matter as caused by tillage operation [27]. Higher
 165 methane emission was recorded at maximum tillering stage is due to lower rhizospheric methane
 166 oxidation and more effective transport mediated by rice plants [28], which was successively decreased
 167 to panicle initiation and harvesting stage. The same trend of emission pattern was also observed for
 168 CO₂ and N₂O. Lower C₂O emission of 0.61, 0.57, 0.32 mg m⁻² hr⁻¹ from maximum tillering, panicle
 169 initiation and harvesting stage respectively under zero tilled condition. The emission of N₂O Table 1:
 170 Effect of tillage and nitrogen management on greenhouse gas emission

Treatment	CH ₄ Emission (mg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)			CO ₂ Emission (mg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)			N ₂ O Emission (µg m ⁻² hr ⁻¹)		
	Max. Till	PI	Harvest	Max. Till	PI	Harvest	Max. Till	PI	Harvest
ZT	1.47b	1.08b	0.57b	0.61b	0.57b	0.32b	38.79b	29.42b	19.58b
CT	2.24a	2.20a	2.09a	1.52a	1.39a	1.24a	63.46a	54.78a	46.54a
S ₁	1.92a	1.74b	1.37b	1.07b	1.01b	0.82b	62.37a	51.85a	41.71a
S ₂	1.84ab	1.54c	1.25c	0.84c	0.75c	0.71c	40.69d	32.41c	27.11c
S ₃	2.08a	1.89a	1.61a	1.49a	1.27a	0.92a	54.67b	47.44b	35.41b
S ₄	1.59b	1.39d	1.08d	0.86c	0.90b	0.66d	46.76c	36.72c	28.02c

171 Values with different letters in the same column are significantly different at P=0.05 in DMRT
 172

173 ZT-Zero tillage, CT- Conventional Tillage, S₁: 100% N through neem coated urea, S₂: SPAD based N
 174 management, S₃: 75% N through urea + 25% N through organic, S₄: ¼ of N as basal and rest in 3
 175 equal split at 20,40 and 60 DAS
 176



177

178

Figure 3: Total greenhouse gas emission from rice crop

179

ranged from 19.58 to 38.79 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ from zero till and from 46.54 to 63.46 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ from

180

conventional tillage. Plots with 100% nitrogen through neem coated urea emitted more nitrous oxide

181

that also lowers the methane and carbon dioxide emission, however, split of nitrogenous fertilizer

182

made lower emission irrespective of all three gases. Addition of organic matter to the soil increased

183

the decomposition rate of soil organic content which resulted in higher emission of methane [8].

184

Nitrous oxide emission from soil is mainly by microbial process of nitrification and denitrification also

185

[29]. Tillage may affect the biological, chemical and physical property of soil as well as influence the

186

greenhouse gas emission like nitrous oxide [30]. Although there is large uncertainty regarding higher

187

nitrous oxide emission under zero tilled DSR than conventional DSR [31] or nitrous oxide emission

188

diminishes after long term practices of zero tilled DSR. Under nitrogen management practices, split

189

doses of fertilizer application emitted lower ranged of all three greenhouse gases i.e. 1.59, 1.39, 1.08

190

$\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ for CH₄ and 0.86, 0.90, 0.66 $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ for CO₂ and 46.76, 36.72, 28.02 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ for

191

N₂O. It was also found that emission of nitrous oxide varied from 41.71 to 62.37 $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{hr}^{-1}$ from 100%

192

nitrogen through neem coated urea i.e. maximum nitrous oxide emission was formed from this

193

treatment as under such conditions there are chances of rapid mineralization and prone to loss

194

through different pathways before it is utilized by crop. Fundamentally, application of nitrogenous

195

fertilizers as basal to the soil would have further increased the substrate availability for soil nitrous

196

oxide emission. Likewise, use of nitrogenous fertilizer is directly linked quantum of with nitrous oxide

197 (Smith and Conen 2004). Split application of nitrogenous fertilizer had lowest nitrous oxide emission at
 198 each stage of crop growth, as application of adequate quantity of nitrogen at right time is one of the
 199 most important factors for highest nitrogen use efficiency and lower loss as denitrification. Exclusion of
 200 tillage (ZT) caused drastic reduction in total CH₄, CO₂ and N₂O emission, whereas split application of
 201 N fertilizer also attributed lowest emission (Fig. 3). Relative contribution in global warming potential
 202 (GWP) was highest in CH₄ (68-75%) followed by N₂O (23-30%) and least in CO₂ (1-4%) (Fig. 4). GWP
 203 was highest in CT-DSR (1931 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹) which was double than ZT-DSR (949 kg CO_{2eq} ha⁻¹).
 204 Among the nitrogen management strategies, splitting of N-fertilizer reduced the GWP by 22 and 26%
 205 as compared to the 100% N through neem coated urea and 75% N through Urea + 25% N through
 206 vermicompost, respectively.

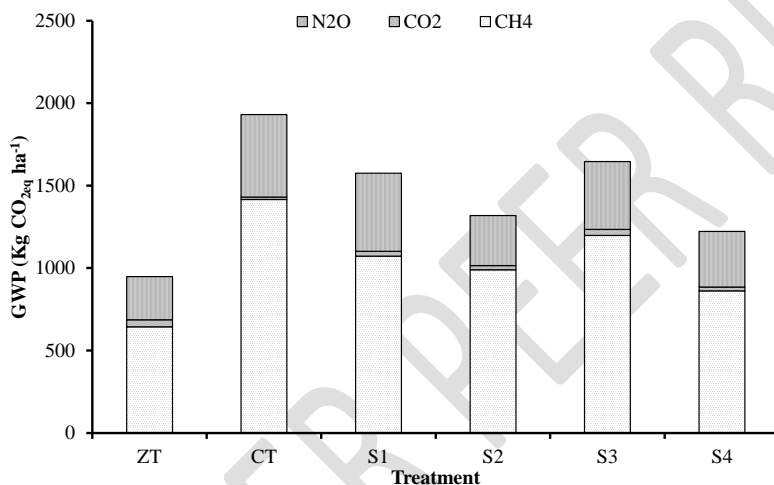


Figure 4: Relative contribution of greenhouse gases in GWP

CONCLUSIONS

Above study concluded that Zero tilled method of crop establishment along with split application of nitrogenous fertilizer would not only boost the yields but also decrease the greenhouse gas emission as well as global warming potential. Thus, the wider adoption of resource conservation approaches in direct seeded rice has long run benefits in terms of conserving natural resources, saving energy, higher production and cost effectiveness in the perspective of climate change.

216 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

217 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

218 **REFERENCE:**

- 219 1. Rao AN, Wani SP, Ramesha MS, Ladha JK. Rice production systems in Rice production worldwide
220 (Springer International Publishing, ISBN 978-3-319-47516-5, 2017).
- 221 2. Bhatt, R. Soil water dynamics and water productivity of rice–wheat system under different
222 establishment methods. Ph.D thesis submitted to Punjab Agricultural University: Ludhiana, 2015
- 223 3. Roper M, Ward P, Keulen A, Hill J. Under no-tillage and stubble retention, soil water content and crop
224 growth are poorly related to soil water repellency. Soil and Tillage Research. 2013; 126:143-
225 150.
- 226 4. Das A, Lal R, Patel D, Idapuganti R, Layek J, Ngachan S, Ghosh P, Bordoloi J, Kumar M. Effects of
227 tillage and biomass on soil quality and productivity of lowland rice cultivation by small scale
228 farmers in North Eastern India. Soil Tillage and Research. 2014; 143:50-58.
- 229 5. Busari MA, Kukal SS, Kaur A, Bhatt R, Dulazi AA. Conservation tillage impacts on soil, crop and the
230 environment. International Soil and Water Conservation Research,
231 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.iswcr.2015.05.002>, (2015).
- 232 6. IPCC. The physical science basis. In: Solomon S, Qin D, Manning M, Chen Z, Marquis M, Averyt KB,
233 Tignor M, Miller HL (eds) Climate change: contribution of working group to the fourth
234 assessment report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change. Cambridge University
235 Press, Cambridge, 2007.
- 236 7. Bhushan Lav, Ladha JK, Gupta RK, Singh S, Tirol-Padre, A, Saharawat YS, Gathala M, Pathak H.
237 Saving of water and labor in rice-wheat systems with no-tillage and direct seeding technologies.
238 Agronomy Journal, 2007; 99:1288-1296.
- 239 8. Wassmann R, Lantin RS, Neue HU, Buendia LV, Corton TM, Lu Y. (2000) Characterization of
240 methane emissions from rice fields in Asia Mitigation options and future research needs.
241 Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems, 2000; 58:23 -36.

- 242 9. Bayer C, Mielniczuk J, Amado TJC, Martin-Neto L, Fernandes SV. (2000). Organic matter storage in
243 a sandy clay loam Acrisol affected by tillage and cropping systems in southern Brazil. Soil and
244 Tillage Research, 2000; 54:101–109.
- 245 10. Santos NZ, Dieckow J, Bayer C, Molin R, Favaretto, N, Pauletti, V, Piva, JT. Forages, cover crops
246 and related shoot and root additions in no-till rotations to C sequestration in a subtropical
247 Ferralsol. Soil and Tillage Research, 2011; 111:208-218.
- 248 11. Crusciol CAC, Mateus GP, Nascente, A.S, Martins PO, Borghi E, Pariz CM. An innovative crop-
249 forage intercrop system: early cycle soybean cultivars and palisade grass. Agronomy Journal,
250 2012; 104:1085–1095.
- 251 12. Zheng XH, Wang MX, Wang YS, Shen RX, Li J. Comparison of manual and automatic methods for
252 measurement of methane emission from rice paddy fields. Advances in Atmospheric Sciences,
253 1998; 15 (4):569–579
- 254 13. Gomez AK, Gomez AA. Statistical Procedures for Agricultural Research, 2nd ed. John Wiley &
255 Sons, New York, 1984
- 256 14. SAS Institute Inc. SAS/STAT® 9.2 User's Guide. SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, 2009
- 257 15. Mabbayad BB and Buencosa IA. Tests on minimal tillage of transplanted rice. Philippine Agriculture
258 Scientist, 1967; 51:541-551.
- 259 16. Sharma SK, Tomar RK, Gangwar KS. Effect of crop-establishment and tillage practices on the yield
260 and economics of irrigated rice (*Oryza sativa*)-wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) system. Indian Journal
261 of Agricultural Sciences, 1995; 65:636-638.
- 262 17. Jat ML, Gathala MK, Ladha JK. Evaluation of precision land leveling and double zero- till systems in
263 the ricewheat rotation: water use, productivity, profitability and soil physical properties," Soil and
264 Tillage Research, 2009; 105:112–121.
- 265 18. Singh K, Tripathi HP. Growth, yield, N uptake and quality of direct seeded rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) as
266 influenced by nitrogen and weed control measures, Journal of Farming Systems Research &
267 Development, 2014; 13(2):214-219.
- 268 19. Bayan HC, Kandasamy OS. Effect of weed control methods and split application of nitrogen on
269 weeds and crop in direct seeded puddled rice. Crop Research, 2002; 24:266-72.

- 270 20. Zhang L, Shah L, Bouman BAM, Xue C, Wei F, Tao H. Response of aerobic rice growth and grain
271 yield to N fertilizer at two contrasting sites near Beijing, China. *Field Crops Research*, 2009;
272 114:45-53.
- 273 21. Bacon PE. Nitrogen application strategies for rice. *Proc AustAgron. ConfLawas, Australia. Field*
274 *Crop Abstracts*, 1980; 36:4404-4408.
- 275 22. Nageswari R, Balasubramaniyan P. Influence of delayed basal dressing and split application of
276 nitrogen in wet-seeded rice. *Indian Journal of Agronomy*, 2004; 49: 40-42.
- 277 23. Ali MA, Ladha JK, Rickman J, Lales JS. Comparison of different methods of rice establishment and
278 nitrogen management strategies for lowland rice. *Journal Crop Improvement*, 2006; 16:173-189.
- 279 24. Kumar V, Ladha JK, Gathala MK. Direct drill-seeded rice: A need of the day. In "Annual Meeting of
280 Agronomy Society of America, Pittsburgh, November 1–5, 2009.
- 281 25. Raju R, Thimmappa K, Tripathi RS. Economics of zero tillage and conventional methods of rice and
282 wheat production in Haryana. *Journal of Soil Salinity and Water Quality*, 2012, 4(1):34-38.
- 283 26. Ussiri D, Lal R. *Soil Emission of Nitrous Oxide and its Mitigation*. Springer, Dodrecht, 2013; 378.
- 284 27. Nadine J, Claus FS, Bernard L, Heiner F. Emission rates of N₂O and CO₂ from soils with different
285 organic matter content from three long-term fertilization experiments. A laboratory study. *Biology*
286 *and Fertility of Soils*, 2011; 47(5):483-494.
- 287 28. Jia J, Cai Z, C Xu H, Tsuruta H. Effects of rice cultivars on methane fluxes in a paddy soil. *Nutrient*
288 *Cycling in Agroecosystems*, 2002; 64:87-94.
- 289 29. Liu S, Zhao C, Zhang Y, Hu Z, Wang C, Zong Y. Annual net greenhouse gas balance in a halophyte
290 (*Helianthus tuberosus*) bioenergy cropping system under various soil practices in Southeast
291 China. *GCB Bioenergy*, 2015; 7:690-703.
- 292 30. Smith KA, Conen F. Impacts of land management on fluxes of trace greenhouse gases. *Soil Use*
293 *Mmanagement*, 2004, 20:255-263.
- 294 31. Ahmad S, Li C, Dai G, Zhan M, Wang J, Pan S. Greenhouse gas emission from direct seeding
295 paddy field under different rice tillage systems in central China. *Soil and Tillage Research*, 2009;
296 106:54-61.