RESEARCH ARTICLE

GREEN HOUSE GAS (GHG) EMISSIONS FROM CONVENTIONAL FLOODED RICE – RICE AND FUTURISTIC MAIZE – RICE CROPPING SYSTEMS IN CAUVERY DELTA ZONE, TAMIL NADU, SOUTH INDIA

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ABSTRACT

On a global basis, the combined agricultural emissions of Nitrous oxide (N_2O), carbon dioxide (CO_2), and methane (CH_4) account for about 20% of the annual increase in radiative forcing of climate change. Quantification of these gas emissions from soil is difficult because of their large spatial and temporal variability. Field experiments were carried out at Tamil Nadu, South India during 2010-2011 quantifies the green house gas (GHG) emissions from conventional flooded rice – rice and futuristic maize – rice cropping systems with minimum tillage. Futuristic system reduced seasonal methane emission in *rabi* rice by ten times (66.6 to 6.5 kg CH_4 ha^{-1}) as compared to conventional rice-rice system. Significant amounts of N_2O emission were also observed during the early stage of the *kharif* rice under conventional system (9.98 kg N_2O ha^{-1}) that might probably due to nitrate accumulation from previous black gram crop. Seasonal N_2O emission in maize increased from 2.47 to 8.07 kg N_2O ha^{-1} with increasing N levels from 0 to 300 Kg N ha^{-1}. The CO_2 emissions measured were only from dark respiration since opaque chambers were used. It was only in the maize plots that significant CO_2 emissions were detected. The CO_2 emission rates were higher at initial stage of crop growth with maximum rate of 10066 mg m^{-2} d^{-1}. System rice equivalent yield increased by around 58% under the futuristic as compared to the conventional system mainly due to better rice yields during *rabi* rice under the futuristic as compared with the conventional system.

Citation: Janarthanan, P., Vairavan, K., Ladha J. K., Agnesh Padre, Ravi, V. and Rajendran, R., 2018. "Green House Gas (GHG) emissions from conventional flooded rice – rice and futuristic maize – rice cropping systems in Cauvery Delta Zone, Tamil Nadu, South India", International Journal of Current Research, 10, (12), .76208-76214.

INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen (N) is the major nutrient that most frequently limits rice production. In rice, it takes about 1kg of N to produce 15-20 kg of grain, but efficiency of N use in India is very low. Nitrogen is the primary driver for modern agricultural production. However, Nitrous oxide emissions from nitrogen fertilizer application have become one of the outstanding environmental global concerns of our time. On a global basis, the combined agricultural emissions of Nitrous oxide (N_2O), carbon dioxide (CO_2), and methane (CH_4) account for about 20% of the annual increase in radiative forcing of climate change (Cole *et al.*, 1997). N_2O and methane CH_4 are the most potent greenhouse gases (GHG), with global warming potential of 298 and 25 times that of CO_2, respectively (IPCC 2007).

Methane

Methane (CH_4) is a radiatively active trace gas which is present in the atmosphere and is 30 times more efficient than CO_2 in trapping heat (Ramanathan *et al.,* 1985). Methane emission will have 25 times the impact on temperature of carbon dioxide emission of the same mass in the next 100 years (IPCC, 2001). US-Environmental Protection Agency, 1991 confirmed that current atmospheric concentration of CH_4 is around 1.72 ppm, but it is predicted that until the year 2100, CH_4 levels may raise to 3-4 ppm which may have a significant effect on global warming. The increase of CH_4 in the atmosphere contributes to global warming and affects chemical changes in the atmosphere (GEIA, 1993; Khalil and Shearer, 1993; IPCC, 1996; Cicerone and Oremland, 1988). It affects the chemistry and oxidation capacity of the atmosphere (Bolle *et al.,* 1986; Rasmussen and Khalil, 1986; Thompson and Cicerone, 1986). IPCC, 1992 declared that the CH_4 concentration in the atmosphere has doubled during the last 200 years. Methane (CH_4) production in flooded rice soils is a microbiological process affected by many biochemical and

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physical factors in the environment. Soil properties, water management, organic amendment, and temperature have been reported as the major factors controlling the amount of CH4 emitted from rice fields (Schuetz *et al.,* 1989; Sass *et al.,* 1991). It has also been reported that rice plants take an active part in CH4 production, oxidation, and transportation (Holzapfel-Pschorn *et al.,* 1985; Neue *et al.,* 1997; Schuetz *et al.,* 1989; Seiler *et al.,* 1984). Huke and Huke, 1997 notified that India is an important rice-producing country, comprising 28.6% of world rice area.

Nitrous Oxide

Nitrous oxide (N_2O) with its current concentration of 311 ppm in the atmosphere is an important greenhouse gas accounting for approximately 5% of the total greenhouse effect (Watson *et al.,* 1996). Among greenhouse gases, N_2O is about 310 times more capable to trap heat than carbon dioxide on a molecular basis (De Datta and Buresh, 1989). Agricultural soils contribute 65% of anthropogenic N_2O emission (6.3 Tg y^{-1}) (Mosier *et al.,* 1998). The concentration of N_2O in the atmosphere has been increasing during the last few decades at an accelerated rate. Natural and agricultural soils are considered as the most important sources of N_2O, with estimated global emissions of 6.0 and 4.2 Tg $N_2O–N$ $year^{-1}$, respectively (IPCC, 2001). Nitrous oxide is mainly produced from two key processes: (1) aerobic autotrophic nitrification, the stepwise oxidation of ammonia (NH_3) to nitrite (NO_2) and to nitrate (NO_3) (Kowalchuk and Stephen 2001); (2) anaerobic heterotrophic denitrification, the stepwise reduction of NO_3 to NO_2, nitric oxide (NO), N_2O and ultimately N_2, (Knowles 1982). Nitrous oxide is produced from soil processes as an intermediate product of microbial nitrification and denitrification (Granli and Bockman, 1994).

Carbon dioxide

Carbon dioxide is the most important anthropogenic greenhouse gas which leads to an increase in atmospheric temperature and continues to heat for decades to centuries. It represented 77% of total anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions in 2004. Although carbon dioxide is not a powerful greenhouse gas but it plays major role in greenhouse effect. Carbon dioxide is the sole source of carbon used by all plants during photosynthesis. Photosynthesis is a process by which plants use sunlight, water, and carbon dioxide to produce carbohydrates and other biological compounds, which reduces the amount of carbon dioxide in the air. This, in turn, helps reduce global warming. Thus plants behave as the" lungs of the Earth".

The efficiency of carbon dioxide assimilation in rice, a C_3 plant, would be diminished by photorespiration. If the efficiency of carbon dioxide assimilation is increased, the amount of fixed carbons in rice increases and hence lowers the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere (Hsu *et al.* 2009). There is a lack of uniformity over the selection of direct and embodied emissions. Direct emissions are those that are made directly during the progress of a process. As an example, CO_2 released during combustion in a gasoline fired industrial boiler is a direct emission. On the other hand in electrically heated boiler, no direct emissions will be observed. But if the electricity used in the boiler was generated in a thermal power plant, the amount of CO_2 released in generation and transmission of the units of electricity consumed in the boiler

is referred as the embodied or indirect emission. The atmospheric concentration of CO_2 has risen nearly 25% in the past century (Matthews *et al.* 2008b).

Green house gas emission

The experiments were carried out at 'E' Block of Tamil Nadu Rice Research Institute which is under the Cauvery delta zone of Tamil Nadu (11° N, 79.3° E) from 2009-2010. The soil of the experimental field was clayey in texture. The total nitrogen is low (0.075 %), while the available phosphorus (18.34 mg per Kg of soil) and available potassium (311.4 mg per Kg of soil) were medium. The experiment was laid out in split plot design with two main plots and four sub – plots replicated thrice: The main plot and sub plot were comprised of cropping systems (conventional and futuristic) and nitrogen levels (0, 75, 100 and 200 % of locally recommended N rate), respectively.

A plot size of 30 m^2 (6m x 5m) was followed for each treatment. The experimental field was initially ploughed 6 days before transplanting with a tractor drawn cultivator and then puddled with a tractor drawn cage wheel. The field was leveled with a wooden plank before layout formation for conventional and for futuristic (maize) the experimental field was not ploughed. The furrows were just scrapped after the seed germinated at around 6 DAS. Futuristic (rice) the experimental field was digged by a spade for reduced tillage.

Static chamber

Mosier (1989) reviewed the key issues related to chamber techniques for gas flux measurement. Gas flux was measured by static chambers deployed on the soil surface. There are two parts in static chamber: the anchor or base and the moveable chamber. Anchor is made up of thin-walled stainless steel to minimize physical disturbance upon insertion. The round base (for rice field) diameter and height is 44.6 cm and 24 cm respectively. The rectangular one (for maize field) is 26.7 cm length, 22.4 cm width and 17 cm height. There are two chambers namely round and rectangular. Area occupied by round chamber for measuring plant-mediated emissions is 1562 cm^2. The Area of rectangular chamber for measuring emissions from soil is 598 cm^2. The chambers were fabricated with non-reactive materials and it is painted with white paint. It has two ports one for air thermometer and another one for gas sampling. Polypropylene syringe of 50 ml capacity with 22 gauge needle were used for gas sampling. Glass vials of 30 ml capacity sealed with crimped grey butyl rubber stoppers were utilized for storing the gas samples. A vacuum pump was used to evacuate the vials.

Gas chromatograph (GC)

A Gas chromatograph (GC) Varian 450 equipped with three different detectors was used for analysis of CH_4, N_2O and CO_2. The thermal conductivity detector (TCD) was used for analysis of CO_2, electron capture detector (ECD) for N_2O and flame ionization detector (FID) for CH_4. The carrier gases used were Helium with a flow rate of 60 ml/min, for TCD and FID, and Argon + 5% methane with a flow rate of 60 ml/min for ECD. The columns used for CO_2 and CH_4 analyses were Hayesep N 80/100 and Porapak QS 80/100, while that for N_2O was Hayesep N 80/100 and Hayesep D 80/100. Detector temperature settings were 200ºC for TCD, 300ºC for FID and 350ºC for ECD.

Gas sampling

Anchors were installed at 10 cm into the ground at least 24 hours prior to first flux measurement and it was packed well around the sides. Chamber was kept upside down upon the base at time of gas sampling. Fluxes were measured by determining the rate of change of trace gas concentration in the chamber headspace. Fifty ml samples were removed and transferred to previously evacuated 30 ml glass vials. Excess gas was injected into the evacuated vial to produce an overpressure. This overpressure facilitates the subsequent removal of gas sample for analysis and ensures no dilution of the samples gas inside the vial. Samples were analyzed using the Varian 450 gas chromatograph (GC) as soon as possible after collection.

Estimation of GHG emission rates

The measured gas concentration in ppm, by GC, was converted to μmole GHG L^{-1} using the gas law constant (0.08206 L atm $mole^{-1}$ $^{\circ}K^{-1}$) and actual temperature during the time of gas sampling (T) as given below

$$\mu\text{mole GHG } L^{-1} = \text{ppm GHG} / [0.08206 * (273 + T)^{\circ}K]$$

The emission rate (μmole GHG L^{-1} min^{-1}) was then determined from the slope of the GHG concentration in μmole GHG L^{-1} plotted against time in minutes by regression analysis. The emission rate was considered as 0 if the slope given by regression analysis was not significantly different from 0. The GHG emission rate was converted into mg GHG m^{-2} d^{-1} as given below

$$\text{mg GHG } m^{-2} d^{-1} = \mu\text{mole GHG } L^{-1} min^{-1} * V * MW * 60 * 24 * 10 / A$$

where:

T is the temperature inside the chamber in $^{\circ}C$
V is the total headspace volume in liters (L)
MW is the molecular weight of the GHG
A is the surface area covered by the chamber

Seasonal GHG emissions were estimated from the sum of daily emission rates. Daily emissions in-between weekly measurements were extrapolated from the average of two consecutive weekly measurements. The statistical analysis system (SAS) mixed procedure version 9.1 (SAS Institute, 2002) was used to test for treatment effects and for obtaining the standard errors of means. Pairwise mean comparisons were done using the Tukey test. Linear regression analysis was done to determine the change in GHG concentration over time and to test if the measured change is significantly different from 0. The 95% confidence intervals of seasonal GHG emissions were calculated as the mean ± 2 x standard deviation.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Management systems and methane emissions from rice fields across crop growth stages

The CH_4 emission rates in puddled rice (conventional system) were similar during *kharif* and *rabi* seasons. In both seasons under conventional system (puddled rice) methane emissions were high at initial stage of the crop until about 35-44 DAT (Fig. 1). This is due to the decomposition of stubbles from the previous crop which were incorporated during puddling. The reduced condition in flooded field induced methane emissions. The seasonal methane emission showed ten times higher rate in puddled rice than in unpuddled rice. In the futuristic system i.e. unpuddled rice maize – rice cropping system the stubbles were present only on the soil surface which is above the anaerobic CH_4 production zone. Minimun tillage and shallow residue incorporation under the futuristic system might have reduced the CH_4 emissions (Wassmann and Dobermann, 2006). In both seasons methane emission rates were not significantly affected by N levels. Major substrates for the methanogenic bacteria are derived from root exudates, lysates, and dead organic material derived from senescent rice plants and incorporated vegetation. Thus, variations in the rate of production (and emission) of methane, which is the terminal product of this plant-microbe system, ultimately depend on variations in parameters that determine the physiological state of the rice plant, such as nutrient supply, temperature, sunlight, and water. The positive correlation of methane emission with biomass is very well documented (Sass *et al*. 1990; Huang *et al*. 1997; Cao *et al*. 1996). The negative correlation between methane emission and grain yield has also been reported by Denier *et al*. 2002. These authors observed that unfavorable conditions for spikelet formation may explain high methane emission. Therefore, an inverse relationship exists between a rice plant's capacity to store photosynthetically fixed carbon and seasonally emitted CH_4 (Sass and Cicerone, 2002). In this study, a higher grain yield but lower cumulative CH_4 emission was observed under the futuristic as compared to the conventional management. However, CH_4 emissions were not correlated with grain yield and with the above ground plant biomass across N levels. The CH_4 emissions were observed at the early stages indicating that the incorporated organic substrates (stubbles) from the previous crop may have largely influenced the emission rates rather than the physiological state of the rice plant. Linquist *et al*. 2012 made an assessment of the GHG emissions from major cereal crops and showed that there was generally no correlation between N fertilizer rates and CH_4 emissions.

Management systems and nitrous oxide emissions from rice fields across crop growth stages

Significantly higher N_2O emissions were observed during the *kharif* rice which was following black gram – a nitrogen fixing legume, as compared to *rabi* rice following a *kharif* maize crop (futuristic management). Although a higher seasonal N_2O emission was observed with 300 kg N as compared with 0-150 kg N fertilizer ha^{-1}, the N_2O emissions were not correlated with the N application rates. The same N_2O emissions were observed with 0N as with the 75 and 150 kg N fertilized plots. The N_2O emitted during the kharif rice must have come from NO_3 accumulation under black gram. Ladha *et al*. 1996 reported that 3 to 4 weeks after flooding, legume-treated plots had as much as 33 to 40 kg mineral N ha^{-1} in topsoil compared with 10 to 13 kg N ha^{-1} in weedy fallowed plots. Further, Ahmad *et al*. 2001 reported that soil N spared by legume crops ranged from 2 to 26 kg ha^{-1} in a legume (mungbean/blackgram) – rice rotation. Nitrate was formed during upland condition (aerobic condition) and that is reduced to form N_2O in flooded condition (anaerobic condition). After the black gram crop the rice was transplanted by means of puddling (anaerobic condition), so the nitrous oxide were formed.
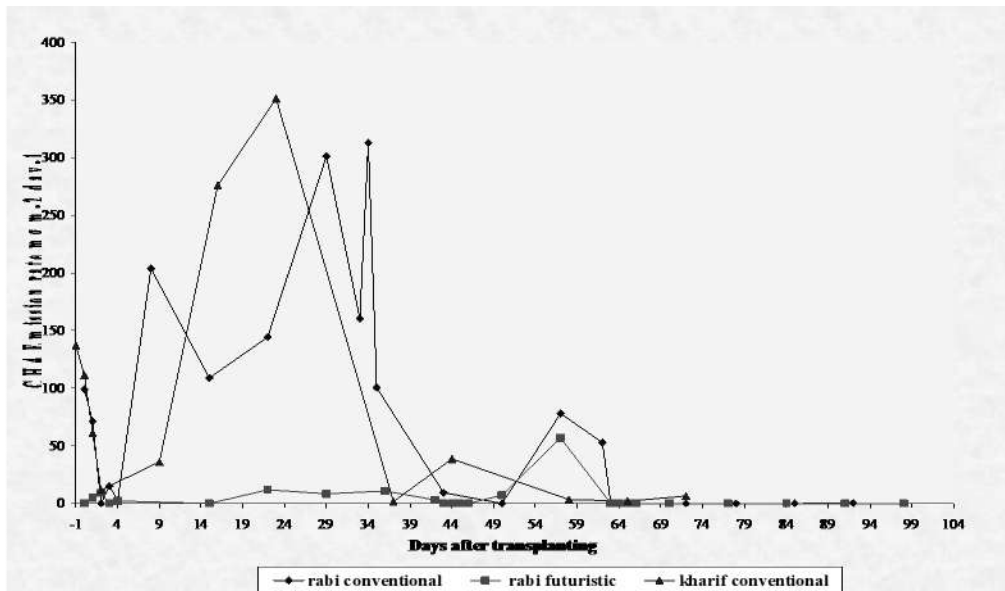
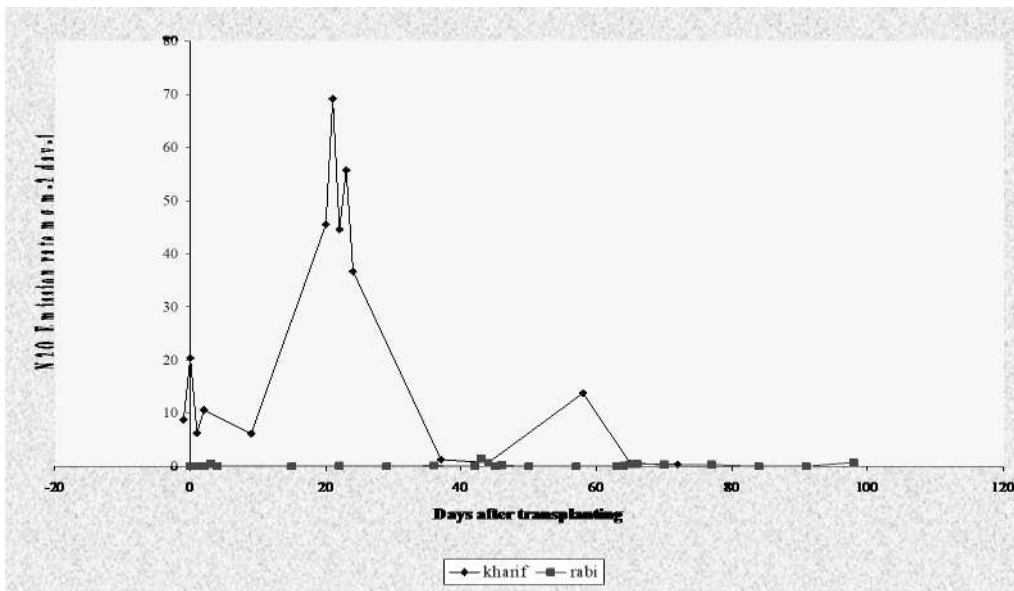**Fig. 1. Dynamics of methane emissions from rice fields across crop growth stages**

Fig.2. Dynamics of N2O emission rates from rice fields across different growth stages
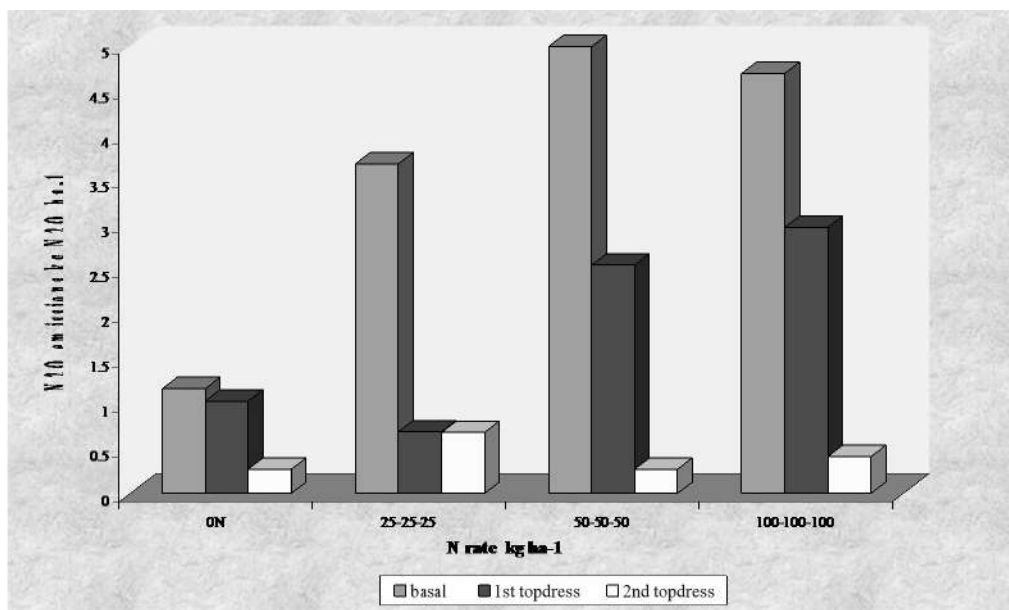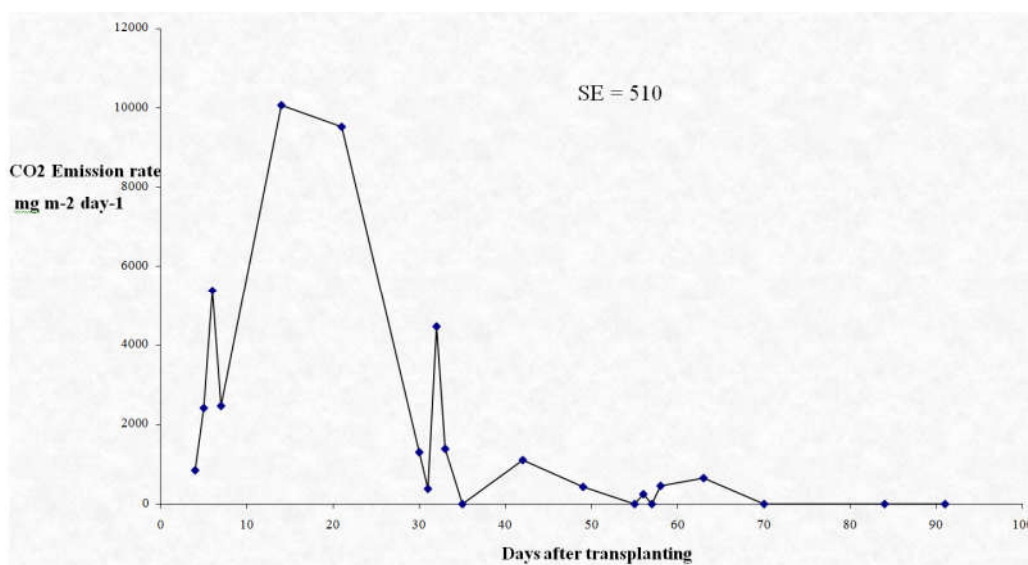

Fig. 3. Total N2O emissions from maize fields measured after each split application of fertilizer during kharif season

Table 1. Grain yields over three seasons at 4 N levels

	Grain yield in kg ha^{-1}						
	Conventional				Futuristic		
N rates	*kharif* Rice	*rabi* Rice	Total System rice yield	Maize	*kharif* Equivalent rice yield	*rabi* Rice	Total System rice equivalent yield*
0	2123	2044	4167	1903	1974	4016	5990
75	2716	2537	5253	2154	2235	6018	8253
150	2656	2634	5290	2182	2264	6404	8668
300	1921	3298	5219	1706	1770	6787	8557
SE	341	207	399	31	32	207	209

Fig. 4. CO2 emission rates from maize fields at different growth stages (DAT, days after transplanting) during *kharif* season

The N_2O emissions were observed only within the first month after ploughing during the *kharif* rice (Fig.2). In *rabi* season the N_2O emission under the conventional system was not detectable because it was preceeded by karif rice which was continuously flooded so nitrate was unlikely to be present.

Management systems and nitrous oxide emissions from maize fields across crop growth stages

Seasonal N_2O emissions increased with N fertilizer levels from 0 -150 kg N ha[-1](Fig 6). However, N_2O emissions were not significantly different with N levels of 150 and 300 kg N ha-1. The N_2O emissions were highest after the basal application at all N levels as compared with that after the 2nd and 3rd split N applications (Fig.3). This is because of the lesser N requirement of the plant during the early stage. Mc Swiney and Robertson (2005) suggested that N fertilizer in excess of plant needs is more likely to result in N_2O emissions. These results suggest that reducing the rate of basal N for maize may still reduce the N_2O emissions without affecting plant growth. Emission factors were calculated as the difference in N_2O-N in fertilized and unfertilized plots divided by the amount of N applied. Greenhouse gas accounting at national or regional scales is often done with the IPCC methodology, which utilizes empirical emission factors for CO_2, CH_4 and N_2O sources and sinks for different land uses and different organic and inorganic inputs (IPCC, 1996; IPCC, 2000). The overall N_2O emission factor calculated for maize in this study is 0.02 kg N_2O-N kg^{-1} N applied at 0-150 kg N ha^{-1} and 0.01 at 300 kg N ha^{-1} fertilizer N rates. The current IPCC emission factor used for maize is 0.01 (IPCC, 2006). The N_2O emission factors calculated separately for the basal, 1st and 2nd split N applications show very much higher emission factors for the

basal N application as compared with the 1st and 2nd split N applications. This indicates that the timing of N application is an important factor to consider in estimating emission factors.

Effect of management systems on carbon dioxide emissions from maize fields across crop growth stages

For flooded rice, most of the CO_2 values obtained were not significantly different from zero. It was only in the maize plots that significant CO_2 emissions were detected (Fig. 4). These emissions were from soil respiration since plants were not enclosed in the gas chambers. In flooded rice, soil respiration was less and was not detectable due to absence of oxygen.

Effect of management system on rice, maize and system yields

The futuristic management, maize followed by unpuddled-transplanted rice, not only decreased the GWP but also increased the system yield significantly as compared to the conventional rice-rice system. It was observed that more weeds were present under the conventional system than in the futuristic system with the glyphosate treatment after maize harvest. This may have resulted in a better crop establishment under the futuristic system than in the conventional system. The net income and B: C ratio was found to be higher in futuristic system than conventional system (Table 1). Therefore, this futuristic system shows potential in increasing farmers' income and also in reducing the GWP from the conventional farmers' practice. However, the time of sowing and water, needs to be well managed for the maize crop as it is very sensitive to water-logging. Except for rice during the *kharif* season, rice, maize and system yields increased from 0

to 150 kg N ha^{-1} fertilizer N rate. In *kharif* rice 300 kg N ha^{-1} has shown lowest yield than other N rates because of severe attack of pest and disease namely mites and brown spot respectively.

Conclusion

Methane emission was reduced 10 times under unpuddled transplanted rice (futuristic) as residues (stubbles) were not incorporated and remained on the soil surface above the anaerobic CH_4 emission zone. Incorporation of residues during puddling resulted in decomposition under anaerobic condition and the production of CH_4. Seasonal CH_4 emissions were not correlated with fertilizer N rates. A high N_2O emission (9.98 kg N_2O ha^{-1}) was observed from kharif rice which was preceded by black gram, under the conventional system most probably due to the accumulation of nitrate from black gram which was reduced to N_2O when the soil was flooded. Seasonal N_2O emissions in maize increased with increasing N fertilizer rates ranging from 2.47 to 8.07 kg N_2O ha^{-1} at fertilizer N levels of 0-300 kg N ha^{-1}. The N_2O emission factor for maize was calculated at 0.02 kg N_2O-N per kg N applied at 0-150 kg N ha^{-1}. Cumulative N_2O emissions in maize were highest after the basal application at all N levels as compared with that after the 2nd and 3rd split N applications. This is because of the lesser N requirement of the plant during the early stage. These results suggest that reducing the rate of basal N for maize may still reduce the N_2O emissions without affecting plant growth. System rice equivalent yield increased by around 58% under the futuristic as compared to the conventional system mainly due to better rice yields during rabi rice under the futuristic as compared with the conventional system.

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