# Original Paper

## Greenhouse Gas Emissions: Historical and Projected Methane

## Emissions from Rice Cultivation in Malaysia (1990-2030)

Shaidatul Azdawiyah A. Talib<sup>1\*</sup>, Mohd Fairuz M. Suptian<sup>1</sup>, Mohammad Hariz A. Rahman<sup>1</sup>, Nurul Ain A. Bakar<sup>1</sup>, Fauzi J.<sup>1</sup>, Azizi A. Azmin<sup>2</sup>, Mardhati M.<sup>2</sup> & Mohamad Zabawi A. Ghani<sup>1</sup>

Received: February 22, 2018 Accepted: March 1, 2018 Online Published: April 16, 2018

### Abstract

Global warming and climate change has reached the alarming levels due to increase of greenhouse gas emissions into the atmosphere which includes carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O). Flooded rice (Oryza sativa L.) cultivation has been identified as one of the prominent global agricultural sources of anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Moreover, it has been estimated that global rice production is responsible for 11% of total anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. The inventory of CH<sub>4</sub> emission from rice cultivation in Malaysia was estimated from 1990 to 2014 and was also used as basis for computing the projected emissions up to 2030 by using Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA) model. Results showed that CH<sub>4</sub> emissions is higher from granary area (continuously flooded) than non-granary area (rain-fed) due to different water management practices. Continuously flooded irrigation system which lead to anaerobic conditions emit almost (75%) higher CH<sub>4</sub> than rain-fed irrigation system. Emissions forecasted will be continuously increase from 2015 to 2030 within the confidence limits. Emissions were forecasted to increase up to 88 Gg by 2030 due to increase of country population which will lead to expansion of cultivation area in order to fulfil country needs.

## Keywords

methane, greenhouse gas emissions, rice cultivation

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Agrobiodiversity and Environment Research Centre, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Animal Science Research Centre, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

<sup>\*</sup> Shaidatul Azdawiyah A. Talib, Agrobiodiversity and Environment Research Centre, Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia

#### 1. Introduction

Global warming has a significant impact towards the world's climate. Global warming is actually the abnormally rapid rise in Earth's average surface temperature over the earlier century mainly due to the emissions greenhouse gases (GHG) into the atmosphere. The world is experiencing an unprecedented rise in surface temperature (Adhya et al., 2000). There is increase in global surface temperature by 0.74 ±0.18 °C between the beginning and the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and it is projected to increase by 1.1 to 6.4 °C in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Baicich, 2013). This rise is attributed to the increased rate of GHG emissions into the atmosphere caused by the activities of human beings together with the anthropogenic nature of the problem. Over for the past 20 years, climate change which caused by human activities has emerged as a global concern (Shaidatul et al., 2015; Sarker, 2012).

Human population has grown up from 3.5 billion to more than 7 billion since 1970 up to 2010 and projected to increase up to 9.2 billion in 2040 (Franklin et al., 2014; Max & Esteban, 2017). Thus, it means that agricultural production will be more than doubled due to higher consumption together with the shift towards more animal-based products in the diet (FAOSTAT, 2014). At present, agricultural production and Land-Use Change (LUC) are responsible for almost 1/4 of total GHG emissions from human activities (Smith et al., 2014). This sector releases significant amounts of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) to the atmosphere (Smith et al., 2007). Compared to other sectors, agriculture contributes 10.3% out of world total GHG emissions in 2011 (FAOSTAT, 2014). Concentration of CH<sub>4</sub> had been increasing since last 20 years at average rate of 0.8% in a year causing it to be one of the major concern in GHG emissions (Smith et al., 2007). Atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> is a potent GHG with high absorption potential for infrared radiation. Methane is present at about 1.8 ppmV in the atmosphere (IPCC, 1996). It was estimated that 50% of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from global anthropogenic contribution were from agricultural activities (Smith et al., 2007).

Agriculture is one of the important sector in Malaysia. Throughout for many years, this sector has been the backbone of country's economy by the production of agricultural products for domestic consumption, as the earner of foreign exchange. Moreover, agriculture sector also contributes to the national Gross Domestic Products (GDP). Agriculture sector continued to expand in 2015 with a contribution of 8.9% to Malaysia's GDP. Oil palm was a major contributor to the GDP of agriculture sector at 46.9% followed by other agriculture (17.7%), livestock (10.7%), fishing (10.7%), and rubber (7.2%) as well as forestry & logging (6.9%) in 2015 (Department of Statistics of Malaysia, 2017). According to Malaysia's Second National Communication (NC2), agriculture sector contributed 3% of the total GHG emissions for the year 2000 compared to industrial processes sector (IP) with 6%, waste sector with 12%, land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF) with 13% and energy sector with 66% (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment of Malaysia, 2011). Contribution of agriculture sector (Figure 1) as reported in the Malaysia's First Biennial Update Report (BUR1) increased up to 5% of the total GHG emissions for the year 2011 (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment of Malaysia, 2015).

Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is the major food crop for people living in Asia, where about 80% of rice is grown under irrigated wetland conditions (Watanabe & Roger, 1984). Furthermore, the world's annual rice production must increase from 518 million tons in 1990 to 760 million tons by 2020 for the purpose of food security (Guerra et al., 1998). Rice fields have been one of the major concern by scientists worldwide as a part of the three most persuasive and long-lived GHG in the atmosphere, due to CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>O are emitted from rice fields (Noppol & Nathsuda, 2017). Rice fields are one of the major atmospheric sources of CH<sub>4</sub> as most of the world's rice is grown on flooded fields (Karthik, 2011; USEPA, 2006; Wassman et al., 2009; Winiwarter et al., 2009). Flooded rice fields emit CH<sub>4</sub> due to a methanogenesis process which occurs in anaerobic conditions, during the decomposition of organic matter (Noppol & Nathsuda, 2017; Jain et al., 2004). Rice cultivation has been specifically identified as one of the leading global agricultural sources of anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, accounting for approximately 22% of the total global agriculturally related CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Smith et al., 2007). Moreover, it has been estimated that global rice production is responsible for 11% of total anthropogenic CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Max & Esteban, 2017; USEPA, 2006).

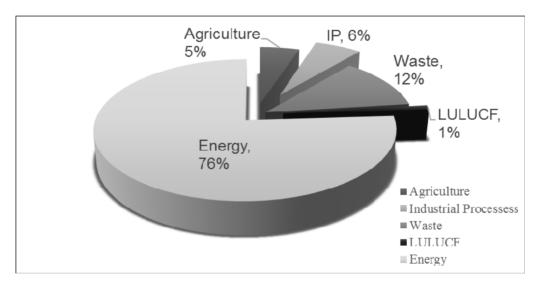


Figure 1. Percentages of Greenhouse Gas Emissions by Sector in 2011

Rice is the third most widely planted crop in Malaysia after oil palm and rubber. In 2014, approximately 679,239 ha were planted with rice (wetland and dryland paddy) including those that are planted twice a year (Department of Agriculture of Malaysia, 2015). There are 2 planting seasons in Malaysia, main season where rice is grown without depending wholly on any irrigation system and off-season (dry period) where normally rice cultivation depends on an irrigation system. Total area of rice cultivation in Malaysia can be classified into three categories which are granary areas (irrigated), non-granary areas (rain-fed) and upland (Table 1). Granary areas refer to major irrigation schemes (areas greater than 4,000 ha) and recognized by the government in the National Agricultural Policy (NAP) as the main rice producing areas. Previously, there are 8 granary areas in Malaysia, namely

MADA, KADA, IADA KERIAN, IADA Barat Laut Selangor, IADA Pulau Pinang, IADA Seberang Perak, IADA KETARA and IADA Kemasin Semerak. Other rice cultivation areas which are less than 4,000 ha are classified as non-granary area or rain-fed area (Department of Agriculture of Malaysia, 2015).

Table 1. Rice Area Planted (Hectares)

Area Classification	1990	2005	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Granary	373,588	383,201	387,160	389,544	381,553	369,273	400,733
Non-Granary	217,171	208,654	221,777	227,484	232,248	234,631	214,974
Upland	89,888	80,932	68,947	70,912	70,744	67,775	63,532
Total	680,647	672,787	677,884	687,940	684,545	671,679	679,239

Water management system under which rice is grown is one of the most important factors affecting CH<sub>4</sub> emissions besides fertilization practices, soil temperature, soil type, rice variety, and cultivation practices. The main water management practice applied in Malaysia is continuous flooding with 2 planting seasons in a year (double cropping). When the fields are flooded, aerobic decomposition of organic matter gradually depletes most of the oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) present in the soil, causing anaerobic soil conditions. Once the environment becomes anaerobic, CH<sub>4</sub> is produced through anaerobic decomposition of soil organic matter by methanogenic bacteria (Wassman et al., 2009). Upland rice fields are not flooded, thus are believed not emitting CH<sub>4</sub>.

Approximately 60-90% of the CH<sub>4</sub> produced is oxidized by aerobic methanotrophic bacteria in the soil (some O<sub>2</sub> remains at the interfaces of soil and water, and soil and root system) (IPCC, 1996). Some of the CH<sub>4</sub> is also leached away as dissolved CH<sub>4</sub> in floodwater that percolates from the field. The remaining un-oxidized CH<sub>4</sub> is transported from the submerged soil to the atmosphere primarily by diffusive transport through the rice plants. Minor amounts of CH<sub>4</sub> also escape from the soil via diffusion and bubbling through floodwaters (Environmental Protection Agency of United State, 2014). The pathways of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from a flooded rice field are shown schematically in Figure 2. As the CH<sub>4</sub> approaches the soil-water interface or the plant roots, it enters a region of oxidizing conditions where aerobic micro-organisms convert some of the CH<sub>4</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub>. This is either released via the water to the atmosphere or is used by the plant.

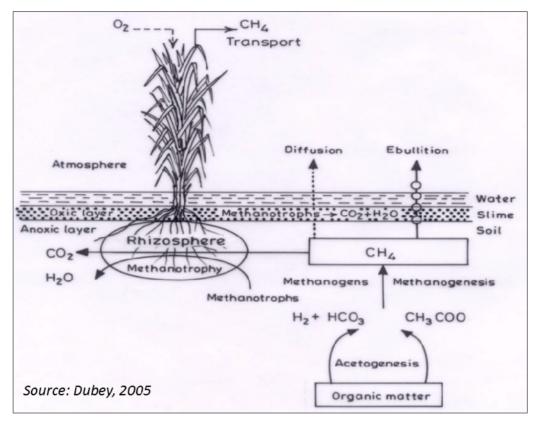


Figure 2. Schematic Diagram of Methane Production, Oxidation and Emission from Rice Field

Inventories in Malaysia from 1990-2014 were prepared to determine the contribution of  $CH_4$  emissions from rice cultivation. An emission inventory is used to assess the impact of specific human activities and the main sources responsible for such emissions besides to develop and assess the results of specific mitigation strategies (Winiwarter et al., 2009).

## 2. Method

## 2.1 Activity Data Collection

Activity data (1990-2014) were primarily based on planted area statistics, which are available from a national statistics agency as well as complementary information on cultivation period and agronomic practices. Those activity data were broken down by regional differences in rice cropping practices or water regime. Planted area estimates corresponding to different conditions obtained on a countrywide basis through accepted methods of reporting. Only planted area data were used to estimate the emission. Activity data were obtained from Paddy Statistics of Malaysia by Department of Agriculture.

## 2.2 Emission Calculations from Inventory

The emission calculations were based on the guidelines given by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) on how to conduct national GHGs inventories. Methane emissions were estimated by multiplying daily Emission Factor (EF) by cultivation period of rice and annual harvested areas. In its most simple form, this equation, Eq. (1) was implemented using national activity data such

as national average cultivation period of rice and area harvested and a single EF (IPCC, 2008).

$$CH_{4 \text{ Rice}} = \sum_{i,j,k} (EF_{i,j,k} * t_{i,j,k} * A_{i,j,k} * 10^{-6})$$
 (1)

Where;

 $CH_{4 \text{ Rice}} = \text{annual methane emissions from rice cultivations (Gg CH}_{4} \text{ yr}^{-1})$ 

 $EF_{i,j,k} = a$  daily emission factor for i, j, k and k conditions (kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>)

t<sub>iik</sub> = cultivation period of rice for i, j and k conditions (day)

 $A_{iik}$  = annual harvested area of rice i, j and k conditions (ha yr<sup>-1</sup>)

i, j and k = represent different ecosystem, water regimes, type and other conditions under which  $CH_4$  emissions from rice may vary

Table 2. Emission Factor and Other Factors for Emissions Estimation

	Value
Emission Factor (kg CH <sub>4</sub> ha <sup>-1</sup> day <sup>-1</sup> )	1.6
Scaling Factor for Water regime (SF <sub>W</sub> ): Upland	0.0
Scaling Factor for Water regime (SF <sub>W</sub> ): Irrigated-Continuously flooded	1.0
Scaling Factor for Water regime (SF <sub>W</sub> ): Rain-fed	0.27
Water regime prior to rice cultivation (SF <sub>p</sub> ): Non flooded pre-season <180 day	1.0
Organic amendment (CFOA): Straw incorporated shortly (<30 days) before cultivation	1.0

Due to close proximity, Thailand rice CH<sub>4</sub> EF of 1.6 kg CH<sub>4</sub> ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> was used as Malaysia not yet developed country specific EF at present (IPCC, 1996). Scaling factors water regimes during the cultivation period relative to continuously flooded field and the default CH<sub>4</sub> emissions scaling factor for water regimes before the cultivation period (non-flooded pre-season < 180 days) were based on IPCC default values as in Table 2.

### 2.3 Emission Forecasting

The forecasting of methane emission from 2015 to 2030 was carried out using the Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average (ARIMA), which is one of the general classes of models used for forecasting time series. Differencing and lagging are the transformations used to fix the model. In the forecasting equation "auto-regressive" terms are used to describe lags of the differenced series that appear in the equation, the "moving average" terms describe lags of the forecast errors, and an "integrated" version of a stationary series is used for a time series requiring differencing to become stationary. The model classification of a non-seasonal ARIMA model is as an "ARIMA (p, d, q)", where p represents the autoregressive terms, d represents the non-seasonal differences, and q represents the lagged forecast errors that appear in the prediction equation (moving average). This time interval was chosen because the models give accurate forecast over short time periods (Rafiu et al., 2012; Winiwarter et al., 2009).

## 3. Result

Results of the calculated  $CH_4$  emissions estimation from 1990-2014 are presented in Figure 3. Based on Figure 3, we can conclude that  $CH_4$  emissions is higher from granary area (continuously flooded) than non-granary area (rain-fed) due to different water management practices. Moreover, statistical analysis using Statistical Analysis System (SAS) Version 9.3 showed that there is a positive correlation between annual rice planted in granary area (irrigated) and  $CH_4$  emissions (Table 3) with r = 0.9380, p < 0.01. Therefore, bigger granary area will lead to higher emissions of  $CH_4$ . Figure 4 showed the observed and forecasted methane emission from 1980-2014 and 2015-2030.

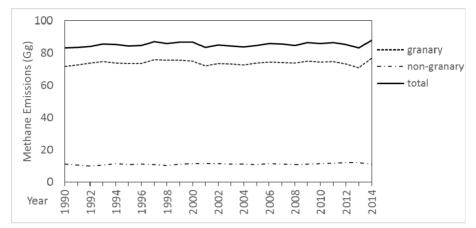


Figure 3. Methane Emissions Estimation from Rice Cultivation since 1990-2014 (Gg)

Forecasted CH<sub>4</sub> emissions had been done using ARIMA Model (0, 2, 2). Table 4 shows the model fit statistics where the value of the coefficient of determination (R2) was 0.8888 which indicated that less than 11% of the total variations were not explained by the model. These R2 values are indications of good model fits. Generally, it was noted that there were no seasonal patterns in the trends, hence there was no need to transform the data to stabilize the variance. The model was then used to fit the emission of methane from these sources.

**Table 3. Correlations Table** 

		Granary area	Non-granary area	Methane
		(irrigated)	(rain-fed)	emissions
Granary area (irrigated)	Pearson Correlation	1	329	.938**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.108	.000
	N	25	25	25
Non-granary	Pearson Correlation	329	1	.019
area	Sig. (2-tailed)	.108		.928
(rain-fed)	N	25	25	25

-				
Methane emissions	Pearson Correlation	.938**	.019	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.928	
	N	25	25	25

<sup>\*\*</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**Table 4. Model Fit Statistics** 

Model	$\mathbb{R}^2$	RMSE MAPE MAE MaxAPE MaxAI	MonAE	Normalized	No. of			
Model R	KWSE WAFE	MAE	MaxAPE	MaxAE	BIC	Outliers		
Rice	0.8888	0.8975	0.7478	0.6392	2.0805	1.7557	0.4653	0

*Note.* BIC: Bayesian information criterion; RMSE: Root mean square error; MAPE: Mean absolute percentage error; MaxAPE: Maximum absolute percentage error; MAE: Mean absolute error; MaxAE: Maximum absolute error.

Table 5. Ljung-Box Q Statistics for Model Validation

Source	Statistics	DF	Sig. (p)
Rice	25.472	16	.062

Table 5 also shows the Ljung-Box Q statistics for model validation. It indicated that the models were correctly specified because the p values above 0.05 which implied that all structures in the observed series had been accounted for. It has been used to validate the correctness of the fitted models. Based on the correctness of the fitted model, it was used to predict methane emissions from 2015 to 2030. Figure 4 showed that emissions forecasted will continuously increase from 2015 to 2030 within the confidence limits. Emissions were forecasted to increase up to 88 Gg by 2030.

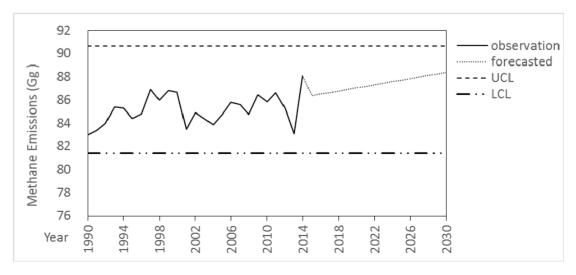


Figure 4. The Observed and Forecasted Methane Emissions Estimation from 1990-2030 (Gg)

#### 4. Discussion

There was a rapid increase of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from 83.06 Gg in 2013 to 88.08 Gg in 2014. This may due to new granary area gazette by the government of Malaysia in 2014 which is IADA Pekan with 4,940 ha and IADA Rompin with 2,920 ha as there is a positive correlation between annual rice planted in granary area (irrigated) and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Department of Agriculture of Malaysia, 2015). Emissions were forecasted to increase up to 88 Gg by 2030. Department of Statistics of Malaysia in 2015 reported that Malaysia's population are projected to increase from 28.6 million in 2010 up to 41.5 million by 2040. As it is known, rice is one of the most important crops in Malaysia as rice is the staple food for the country (Shaidatul Adawiyah et al., 2016). Hence, with the growth of population numbers, demand for rice will also increase. In order to fulfil those demand, rice production should be boosted to ensure food security. This can be done mostly through expansion of rice cultivation area besides producing high yield rice variety or five seasons of cultivation in two years' time interval.

Both expansion of rice cultivation area and five seasons of cultivation in two years' time interval will increase CH<sub>4</sub> emissions as there is a positive correlations between planted area and CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. In 2014, two new granary area, IADA Pekan and IADA Rompin had been gazette by the government causing addition of emissions by 6% in 2014. Moreover, under Barrio Rice Industry Development project, two new granary areas which is 5,000 ha in Kota Belud, Sabah and 5,100 ha in Batang Lupar, Sarawak will be established by the year 2020 (National Key Economic Area, 2011). This is in line with the forecasted emissions which will continuously increase up to 2030.

Water management has been recognized as one of the most important practices that affect CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from rice fields (Hadi et al., 2010). Irrigated rice field area release higher amount of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions than rain-fed rice field area, due to longer period of flooding (Noppol & Nathsuda, 2017). Development of efficient irrigation water management practices such as alternate cycles of wetting and drying could reduce more CH<sub>4</sub> emissions than continuously flooded fields besides saving more water (Noppol & Nathsuda, 2017; Adhya et al., 2000). Moreover, due to the scarcity of freshwater resources available for irrigated agriculture and escalating food demand around the world in the future, it will be necessary to produce more food with minimum water usage (Oliver et al., 2008).

The investigation has provided an historical analysis of methane emission from 1990 to 2014 and made projections from 2015-2030. Methane emissions projected to increase up to 2030 due to the expansion of rice cultivation area in order to fulfil the demands as the country population also projected to increase by 41.5 million in 2040 (Department of Statistics of Malaysia, 2017). Methane has a shorter atmospheric life span of 12-17 years and its reduction will have a much more immediate impact on climate (Smith et al., 2007). Results showed that CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from granary area (irrigated field) was 74% higher than non-granary area (rain-fed field). Earlier study in China indicated that there was no significant difference on the rice yield between flooded rice field and water saving irrigation rice field which proven that non-flooded fields can also promise good harvest besides reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and water wastage (Lo et al., 2016; Oyewole, 2012). Moreover, previous study done in Kedah,

Malaysia showed that CH<sub>4</sub> emission rate from non-flooded area with the water saving irrigation method was found relatively low compared to the flooded area (Lo et al., 2016). This calls for further investigation on the effects of water management practices towards rice yield as climate condition in Malaysia may differ due to geographical location.

## References

- Adhya, T. K., Bharati, K., Mohanty, S. R., Ramakrishnan, B., Rao, V. R., Sethunathan, N., & Wassmann, R. (2000). Methane Emission from Rice Fields at Cuttack, India. *Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosyst*, 58(27), 95-105. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1009886317629
- Baicich, P. (2013). The Birds and Rice Connection. Bird Watcher's Digest, 13(33), 54-59.
- Dannenberg, S., & Conrad, R. (1999). Effect of rice plant on methane production and rhizospheric metabolism in paddy soil. *Biogeochemistry*, 45(37), 53-71. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00992873
- Department of Agriculture of Malaysia. (2015). *Paddy Statistics of Malaysia for the Year 2014* (pp. 18-22).
- Department of Statistics of Malaysia. (2017). Population Projection (Revised), Malaysia, 2010-2040, 9.
- Dubey, S. K. (2001). Methane emission and rice agriculture. Current Science, 81(36), 345-346.
- Eggleston, H. S., Miwa, K., Srivastava, N., & Tanabe, K. (2008). Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. 2006 IPCC Guidelines for national greenhouse gas inventories—A primer (p. 20). Prepared by the National Greenhouse Gas Inventories Programme, IGES, Japan.
- Environmental Protection Agency Inventory of U.S. (2014). *Greenhouse Gas Emissions and Sinks:* 1990-2012 Report (p. 32).
- Food and Agriculture Organization Corporate Statistical Database. (2014). Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (p. 6).
- Franklin, A., Jere, R. B., Nancy, B., Shahrokh, F., Dani, R., Andrew, S., & Arvind, S. (2014). Towards a Better Global Economy: Policy Implications for Citizens Worldwide in the 21st Century. In *OUP Oxford* (p. 5).
- Guerra, L. C., Bhuiyan, S. I., Tuong, T. P., & Barker, R. (1998). Producing more rice with less water from irrigated systems. *IRRI Discussion Paper Series*, 29(13), 1-19.
- Hadi, A., Inubushi, K., & Yagi, K. (2010). Effect of water management on greenhouse gas emissions and microbial properties of paddy soils in Japan and Indonesia. *Paddy and Water Environment*, 8(4), 319-324. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10333-010-0210-x
- Jain, N., Pathak, H., Mitra, S., & Bhatia, A. (2004). Emission of methane from rice fields—A review. *J. Sci. Ind. Res.*, 63(17), 101-115.
- Karthik, M. (2011). Impact of methane emissions from wastewater sector in India through a case study of an effluent treatment plant. In *National Research Conference on Climate Change* (p. 2). Delhi, India.

- Khashei, M., Bijari, M., & Ardali, G. A. R. (2009). Improvement of auto-regressive integrated moving average models using fuzzy logic and artificial neural networks (ANNs). *Neurocomputing*, 72(4-6), 956-967. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neucom.2008.04.017
- Lo, P. K., Lim, W. Z., Ng, C. A., Tan, S. P., Chew, T. L., & Chong, C. Y. (2016). Methane Emission and Quantification from Flooded and Non-Flooded Paddy Field at Kedah Malaysia. *International Journal of Environmental Science and Development*, 7(6), 453-457. https://doi.org/10.7763/IJESD.2016.V7.819
- Max, R., & Esteban, O. (2017). *World Population Growth*. Retrieved November 30, 2017, from https://ourworldindata.org/world-population-growth/
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment of Malaysia. (2011). *Malaysia Second National Communication to the UNFCCC Report (NC2)*.
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment of Malaysia. (2015). *Malaysia First Biennial Update to the UNFCCC Report (BUR1)*.
- Mitra, S., Jain, M. C., Kumar, S., Bandyopadhyay, S. K., & Kalra, N. (1999). Effect of rice cultivars on methane emission. *Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment*, 73(3), 177-183. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8809(99)00015-8
- National Key Economic Area (NKEA) for Agriculture. (2011). Scaling Up and Strengthening of Paddy Farming in Other Irrigated Areas—EPP 11 (Economic Transformation Program) (pp. 24-25).
- Noppol, A., & Nathsuda, P. (2017). Practices for Reducing Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Rice Production in Northeast Thailand. *Agriculture MDPI Journal*, *14*, 1-20.
- Oliver, M. M. H., Talukder, M. S. U., & Ahmed, M. (2008). Alternate wetting and drying irrigation for rice cultivation. *Journal of the Bangladesh Agricultural University*, 6(2), 409-414.
- Oyewole, O. A. (2012). Microbial communities and their activities in paddy fields: A review. *Journal of Veterinary Advances*, 2(2), 74-80.
- Prepared by the IPCC Expert Groups and the Greenhouse Gas Liaison Group (GILG). (1996). Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. In *Revised 1996 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories (Revised Guidelines)* (p. 35). Mexico City.
- Rafiu, O. Y., Zainura, Z. N., Ahmad, H. A., Mohd Ariffin, A. H., & Mohd, F. M. D. (2012). Greenhouse Gas Emissions: Quantifying Methane Emissions from Livestock. *American J. of Engineering and Applied Sciences*, *5*(1), 1-8. https://doi.org/10.3844/ajeassp.2012.1.8
- Sarker, M. A. R. (2012). *Impacts of climate change on rice production and farmers' adaptation in Bangladesh*. University of Southern Queensland.
- Sass, R. L., Fisher, F. M., Harcombe, P. A., & Turner, F. T. (1990). Methane production and emission in a Texas rice field. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, *4*(35), 47-68. https://doi.org/10.1029/GB004i001p00047
- Shaidatul, A. A. T., Mohamad, Z. A. G., Mohammad, H. A. R., Mohd, F. M. S., Fauzi, J., & Mohd Syazwan, F. M. (2016). Simulating Climate Change Impact on Rice Yield in Malaysia Using

- DSSAT 4.5: Shifting Planting Date as an Adaptation Strategy. In *The Challenges of Agro-Environment Research in Monsoon Asia* (pp. 115-125). NIAES, Tsukuba, Japan.
- Shaidatul, A. A. T., Mohammad, H. A. R., Mohd, F. M. S., & Mohamad, Z. A. G. (2015). Simulating the effects of changing planting date towards rice production in MADA area, Malaysia. *J. Trop. Agric. and Fd. Sc.*, 43(1), 73-82.
- Smith, P., Bustamante, M., & Ahammad, H. (2014). Climate Change 2014: Mitigation of Climate Change. Contribution of Working Group III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. In *Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use (AFOLU)* (pp. 811-922). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- 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. (2007). Agriculture Climate Change 2007: Mitigation. In Contribution of Working Group III to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- 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. (2007). Agriculture Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. In Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (pp. 498-540). Cambridge University Press.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency. (n.d.). *Global Anthropogenic Non-CO<sub>2</sub> Greenhouse Gas Emissions:* 1990-2020. Retrieved October 6, 2017, from http://nepis.epa.gov/Adobe/PDF/2000ZL5G.PDF
- Wassmann, R., Jagadish, S. V. K., Sumfleth, K., Pathak, H., Howell, G., Ismail, A. Serraj, R., Redona, E., Singh, R. K., & Heuer, S. (1984). Regional Vulnerability of Climate Change Impacts on Asian Rice Production and Scope for Adaptation. *Advances in Agronomy*, 102, 91-133. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0065-2113(09)01003-7
- Watanabe, I., & Roger, P. A. (1984). Nitrogen fixation in wetland rice fields. In *Current Development in Biological Nitrogen Fixation* (pp. 237-276). Oxford and IBH Pub Co., New Delhi.
- Winiwarter, W., Bauer, H., Caseiro, A., & Puxbaum, H. (2009). Quantifying emissions of primary biological aerosol particle mass in Europe. *Atmospheric Environment*, *43*, 1403-1409. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2008.01.037