www.iiste.org

# A Review on: Effect of Tillage and Crop Residue on Soil Carbon and Carbon Dioxide Emission

Gidena Tasew Reda

Tigray Agricultural Research Institute, Mekelle Agricultural Research Center P.O.Box, 258; Mekelle, Ethiopia

#### Abstract

Agricultural soils can act as sources and sinks for CO<sub>2</sub> and other greenhouse gases. Whether soils act as a sink or source depends upon the management of the soil. The fluxes of  $CO_2$  between the atmosphere and the soil are an important link in the C cycle, and the processes affect the atmospheric concentration of CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, objective of this paper is to review the effect of tillage and crop residue on soil carbon and carbon dioxide emission. Tillage induces the loss of C as CO<sub>2</sub> by breaking up soil aggregates and exposing the protected organic matter to microbes, minimizing soil disturbance decreases SOC decomposition rate, then this change in management practice would cause decreased transfer of C from soil to the atmosphere. Conservation tillage combined with crop residues on the soil surface has been identified as an important for sequestering carbon from the atmosphere. Crop residue management is another important method of sequestering C in soil and increasing the soil OM content and giving protection against erosion. Surface applied crop residues decompose more slowly than those that are incorporated by tillage, because they have less contact with soil microorganisms and soil water. Clay particles tend to remain in a flocculated state reducing the exposure and mineralization of organic carbon adsorbed on clay particle surfaces. Carbon inventories are higher in the soils, which have higher clay content and higher fractions of clay associated with high organic matter, changes in organic matter properties that correlate with soil texture. The greatest reductions in CO<sub>2</sub> emission are associated with those tillage systems having less soil disturbance. Climatic conditions, natural vegetation, soil texture, and drainage all affect the amount and length of time carbon is stored.

#### 1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide is constantly being exchanged among the atmosphere, ocean, and land surface as it is both produced and absorbed by many microorganisms, plants, and animals. However, emissions and removal of  $CO_2$  by these natural processes tend to balance (NRC, 2010). Since the Industrial Revolution began around 1750, human activities have contributed substantially to climate change by adding  $CO_2$  and other heat-trapping gases to the atmosphere, Soil carbon-dioxide emissions comprise an important component of the global carbon cycle and represent the largest terrestrial source of  $CO_2$  to the atmosphere and now it reaches the 370 ppm (Schlesinger *et al.*, 2000). The increase of the atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentration contributes to global climate change because of the growth of greenhouse gas effect. Nowadays Agricultural lead to the emission of several greenhouse gases ( $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$ ), that differ with regards on their ability to absorb the long wave radiation, and depending on their specific radiation forcing and residence time in the atmosphere.

Hence, agriculture contributes about 1% of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, about 40% of CH<sub>4</sub> and 60% of N<sub>2</sub>O for the increment of GHG annually (Watson *et al.*, 1996; Tóth, 2011). Although CO<sub>2</sub> emission of agriculture originates primarily from deforestation and fossil fuel consumption of agricultural machinery, the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> getting into the air from agricultural practices is not neglected, it was estimated that 20% of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere come from agricultural production (Bouwman, 1990; Lokupitiya *et al.*, 2006; Stafford, 2007). Soils can function either as a source or a sink for atmospheric greenhouse gas effect depending on land use and soil management. Appropriate management can enable agricultural soils to be a net sink for sequestering atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and other greenhouse gas effect (GHG) (West *et al.*, 2002). The CO<sub>2</sub> emission from soil to the atmosphere, a primary mechanism of C loss from soils, is attributed to the metabolism of plant roots, micro flora and fauna (Rastogi *et al.*, 2002). Rates of soil respiration are controlled by several factors including soil temperature, quantity and quality of soil organic matter (SOM), soil moisture, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration gradient between the soil and the atmosphere, pore size distribution and wind speed (Raich et al., 2000; Jarecki *et al.*, 2006). In addition, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are influenced by practices such as tillage and residue management (Osozawa *et al.*, 1995).

The fluxes of  $CO_2$  between the atmosphere and the soil are an important link in the C cycle, and the processes that mediate these fluxes affect the atmospheric concentration of carbon-dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>). Application of good agricultural practices and adequate soil tillage methods has not only favorable effect on soil physical properties but it could also reduce soil respiration. So soil organic matter content can be preserved and amount of  $CO_2$  getting into the air can be reduced. The emission of greenhouse gases from the soils is not understandable for all scholars and farmers. But agricultural practice playing an important role in the emission of green house gases, these gases may diffuse directly from the soil or indirectly in the atmosphere through subsurface drainage after leaching (Sawamoto *et al.*, 2003; Le Mer *et al.*, 2001). Different ideologies are promoting concerning the effect of tillage, crop residue and soil texture on the soil carbon and carbon dioxide emission regardless of soil

and weather condition. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to review soil carbon and  $CO_2$  emission influenced by tillage, crop residue and soil texture.

## 2. Literature review

# 2.1. Dynamics of organic carbon in soils

The stock of organic carbon present in natural soils represents a dynamic balance between the input of dead plant material and loss from decomposition (mineralization). Soil organic matter (SOM) has a very complex and heterogeneous composition and it is generally mixed or associated with the mineral soil constituents (William, 1999). The different C pools existing in the soil have different mean residence times, ranging from one year to a few years depending on the biochemical composition (Puget *et al.*, 1995; Balesdent *et al.*, 2000). Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is much more abundant in soil gas (the air in soil) than in the atmosphere. That is because plant roots respire and produce  $CO_2$ , and because oxidative decay of organic matter produces  $CO_2$ . As a result, concentrations of  $CO_2$  in soil gas are greater than the atmospheric concentration. It is therefore important to understand the dynamics of soil carbon as well as its role in terrestrial ecosystem carbon balance and the global carbon cycle. The loss of soil organic carbon by conversion of natural vegetation to cultivated use is well known. Various land-uses result in very rapid declines in soil organic matter (FAO, 2001). Much of this loss in soil organic carbon can be attributed to reduced inputs of organic matter, increased decomposability of crop residues, and tillage effects that decrease the amount of physical protection to decomposition.

Soil organic carbon includes plant, animal and microbial residues in all stages of decomposition (Balesdent *et al.*, 2000). Many organic compounds in the soil are intimately associated with inorganic soil particles. The turnover rate of the different soil organic carbon compounds varies due to the complex interactions between biological, chemical, and physical processes in soil. Carbon can remain stored in soils for millennia, or be quickly released back into the atmosphere. Climatic conditions, natural vegetation, soil texture, and drainage all affect the amount and length of time carbon is stored. The main factors acting on organic matter evolution concern the vegetation (residue input, plant composition), then climatic factors (temperature/moisture conditions) and soil properties (texture, clay content and mineralogy, acidity). The rate of SOM mineralization depends mainly on temperature and oxygen availability (drainage), land use, cropping system, soil and crop management (Lal *et al.*, 2000).

# 2.2. Role of organic matter in soils

Soil organic matter represents a key indicator for soil quality, both for agricultural functions (i.e. production and economy) and for environmental functions (C sequestration and air quality). Soil organic matter is the main determinant of biological activity. The amount, diversity and activity of soil fauna and microorganisms are directly related to the organic matter. Organic matter, and the biological activity that it generates, have a major influence on the physical and chemical properties of soils (Robert, 1996b). Aggregation and stability of soil structure increase with organic matter content. These in turn increase infiltration rate and available water capacity of the soil, as well as resistance against erosion by water and wind. Soil organic matter also improves the dynamics and bioavailability of main plant nutrient elements.

# 2.3. Effect of tillage on soil organic carbon

Tillage has a long history dating back millennia, and aimed to give soil aeration and to control weeds. Tillage operations also stimulate N release from SOM, the increase in aeration of the soil and the intense disturbance is the main factors stimulating the mineralization of organic matter by the soil micro-organisms (mahdi et al., 2005). Losses of soil organic carbon (SOC) due to soil management in agricultural areas have been identified as a factor that accelerates the greenhouse effect, especially by emitting CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere (La Scala et al., 2008). Smith et al. (2010) noted that the impact of tillage on the loss of SOC and associated emission factors under different management systems can be affected by the depth of tillage. Agricultural activities contribute with approximately 20 % to the global greenhouse gas emissions (Lokupitiya et al., 2006). No-till farming combined with the maintenance of crop residues on the soil surface has been identified as an important strategy for sequestering carbon from the atmosphere (Lal, 2007). Tillage induces the loss of C as  $CO_2$  by breaking up soil aggregates and exposing the protected organic matter to microbes (Balesdent et al., 2000). Tillage also incorporates and mixes residues, improving aeration, which can lead to additional C losses by maximizing soilresidue contact, compared with no-residue incorporation (Jacinthe and Lal, 2005). Soil organic matter decay activate by tillage is related to soil temperature, soil moisture, and the amount and quality of soil organic carbon (Zhang et al., 2011; Schomberg et al., 1997). If minimizing soil disturbance decreases SOC decomposition rate, then this change in management practice would cause decreased transfer of C from soil to the atmosphere and can be a way of climate change mitigation (Baker et al., 2007). Under zero tillage SOC tends to be concentrated near the soil surface, because there is an absence of mixing or disturbance of the soil (Machado et al., 2003). As zero till maintain for long time Thus, accumulation of SOC occurs and decomposition of organic matter decreased, at the same time it decrease in the movement of C from soil to the atmosphere (Boddey et al., 2009).

#### 2.4. Effects of crop residue on soil organic carbon

Increase in biomass both above ground biomass and root biomass induce the C input and considerable progress could be made in this connection, especially by selection of deep-rooting species and varieties. Crop residue management is another important method of sequestering C in soil and increasing the soil OM content (Lal, 1997). Generally, there is a linear relationship between the organic matter in the first 15cm of soil and the quantity of crop residues applied (FAO, 2001). Surface applied crop residues decompose more slowly than those that are incorporated by tillage, because they have less contact with soil microorganisms and soil water (mahdi *et al.*, 2005). According to Angers *et al.* (1995) report, the conversion of maize residue C into soil organic matter in the 0 to 24cm layer was about 30 percent of the total input, even though there are qualitative differences between the residues type, which is the lignin content of the residue has a highly positive effect on the accumulation of SOM. Roots are very easily transformed into stable OM. Mulch farming and plant cover are specific land management practices allowing both coverage of the soil by specific plants, giving protection against erosion, and providing biomass residues to increase soil OM (FAO, 2001). To be completely effective, plant cover or mulch management should be carried out on site and in combination with conservation tillage (agro-biological management). A great variety of plant species can be used to cover the soil and it depends on the quality and quantity of the plant residues to induce the C storage in the soil (Andrews *et al.*, 2001)

#### 2.5. Soil organic carbon and soil texture

As Feiziene *et al.* (2010) revealed that soil texture and type of crop residue have a strong effect on soil respiration. Fine-textured soils have high water-holding capacity, potentially prolonging the availability of water in surface layers. Conversely, high in filtration rates on coarse-textured soils shift available water to deeper soil layers. Thus, the interaction of soil texture, SOM and plant cover may result in significant spatial and temporal variation in Soil respiration responses to precipitation pulse variability (Cableetal *et al.*, 2008). Long-term conservation tillage management resulted in more uniform across-season soil  $CO_2$  flux rates that were less affected by precipitation events (Bauer *et al.*, 2006). Stabilization of clay surfaces has been recognized as a mechanism for storing organic matter in soils (Torn *et al.*, 1997; Percival *et al.*, 2000).

Clay particles saturated with multivalent cations tend to remain in a flocculated state reducing the exposure and mineralization of Organic Carbon adsorbed on clay particle surfaces or existing as globules between packets of clays within a clay matrix and changes in organic matter properties that correlate with soil texture (Percival *et al.*, 2000). Carbon inventories are higher in the soils, which have higher clay content and higher fractions of clay associated with high organic matter. SOC is transformed by bacterial action and stabilized in clay or silt sized organomineral complexes (HF-OC) where the majority of SOC is found. The highest concentrations of SOC are associated  $<5\mu$ m mineral particles. Following the addition of simple substrates, new SOC is found to be associated with a range of mineral particle sizes. However, clay sized organomineral complexes often show greater accumulations and subsequently more rapid loss rates than in silt sized particles, indicating a higher stability of silt-SOC (Christensen, 1996).

# 2.6. Tillage and Crop Residue Effects on Soil Carbon Dioxide Emission

Carbon dioxide ( $CO_2$ ) is the primary greenhouse gas emitted through human activities. Carbon dioxide is naturally present in the atmosphere as part of the Earth's carbon cycle (the natural circulation of carbon among the atmosphere, oceans, soil, plants, and animals). Human activities are altering the carbon cycle both by adding more  $CO_2$  to the atmosphere and by influencing the ability of natural sinks, like forests, to remove  $CO_2$  from the atmosphere (NRC, 2010).

An experiment was conducted by Mahdi *et al.* (2005) in relation to effect of tillage and crop residue on  $CO_2$  emission, and treatment (no-tillage with and without residue, strip-tillage, deep rip, chisel plow and moldboard plow) effects on soil  $CO_2$  emission were observed at almost all measuring times although  $CO_2$  emission varied tremendously with time regardless of treatment. At Hour 0 measurement time, no-tillage with and without residue, strip-tillage, deep rip, and chisel plow treatments reduced  $CO_2$  emission by 79, 79, 60, 50, and 14%, respectively, compared with moldboard plow immediately after tillage operations. The greatest reductions in  $CO_2$  emission are associated with those tillage systems having less soil disturbance, such as the two no tillage treatments (Feiziene *et al.*, 2010). Removal of crop residue from the soil surface under no-tillage did not alter  $CO_2$  emission compared with no-tillage with residue at the measurement time of Hour 0. At the 2<sup>nd</sup> hr measurement time,  $CO_2$  emission from no-tillage with and without residue and strip-tillage are 43 to 58% less than from moldboard plow, while chisel plow and deep rip treatments have similar  $CO_2$  emission as moldboard plow at all the measurement times. No-tillage without residue results in greater  $CO_2$  emission than no-tillage with residue at the measurement  $CO_2$  emission than moldboard plow at all the measurement times of Hour 4, 48, and 288.

The results generally confirm the potential of reducing tillage intensity and increasing crop residue on the soil surface in reducing soil CO<sub>2</sub> emission to the atmosphere. The maximum CO<sub>2</sub> emission from all tilled treatments (strip-tillage, deep rip, chisel plow, and moldboard plow) is observed immediately after tillage operations (i.e., at Hour 0 measurement time). Other experiments conducted similar to Mahdi by Jackson *et al.*, (2003) and Roberts *et al.*, (1990) concluded that the increase in soil CO<sub>2</sub> emission immediately after tillage operation was not due to the increase in microbial activities, but it was rather due to the increase in soil aeration that was induced by tillage disturbance. Cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emission for the entire 20 days of tillage are 41, 26, 21, and 19% lower for no-tillage with residue, strip-tillage, deep rip, and chisel plow than with moldboard plow, respectively. Cumulative CO<sub>2</sub> emission from no-tillage with residue is 23% lower than that with moldboard plow, but 24% greater than the CO<sub>2</sub> emission from no-tillage with residue over the 20 days. Tillage operations may physically facilitate gas emission from the soil pores due to soil disturbance (Ellert *et al.*, 1999; Mahdi *et al.*, 2005). Crop residue on the soil surface with no-tillage contributes to the reduction of soil CO<sub>2</sub> emission by serving as a barrier for CO<sub>2</sub> emission from soil to the atmosphere, having a lower crop residue decomposition rate due to minimum residue-soil contact, and lowering soil temperature (Reicosky *et al.*, 1999).

### 2.7. Relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and soil temperature and Soil moisture

Soil temperature and soil moisture are considered the most influential environmental factors controlling soil surface carbon dioxide exchange rate. These factors interact to affect the productivity of terrestrial ecosystems and the decomposition rate of soil organic matter, thereby driving the temporal variation of soil respiration (Wiseman, 2004). Root and microbial sources of  $CO_2$  emission increased activity as a function of temperature (Boone *et al.*, 1998) As a result, subsurface concentrations, and surface fluxes of  $CO_2$  are a function of root and microbial production as well as a suite of other processes. Temperature is the best predictor of the annual and seasonal dynamics of the soil respiration rate and has positive relationship between  $CO_2$  emissions and soil temperatures (Kudeyarov, 1998).

The temperature sensitivity coefficient for ecosystem respiration declined in association with reductions in soil moisture. Soil moisture was the dominant environmental factor that controlled seasonal and inter annual variation in total ecosystem respiration (Flanagan, 2005). The amount and distribution of precipitation is an important controlling factor of soil respiration (Lee *et al.*, 2002). In dry conditions, root and micro-organism activity is typically low, resulting in low soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux. Increasing the soil moisture normally increases the bioactivity in the soil. But if there is very high soil moisture, total soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux is reduced, because of limited diffusion of oxygen and subsequent inhibition of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Furthermore, it was evidenced that the effect of precipitation on soil respiration stretched beyond its direct effect via soil moisture (Raich *et al.*, 2002). Thus, it is important to understand which climatic factors control soil respiration and how these factors affect CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from soils (Reichstein, 2008).

# 3. Conclusion

Losses of soil organic carbon due to soil management in agricultural areas have been identified as a factor that accelerates the greenhouse effect, especially by emitting  $CO_2$  in the atmosphere. The presence of crop residues on the soil surface influenced the magnitude of soil C and  $CO_2$  emission in farming systems, especially after tillage operation, due to this and other factors are responsible to accumulate green house gas. Strategies aimed at reducing  $CO_2$  in the atmosphere are mandatory. Therefore No tillage with and without crop residue is increase the soil carbon and decrease the emission of  $CO_2$ , tillage frequency should be at the minimum condition which is conservation agriculture has spread where farmers have convinced by understanding of its benefits. These are including soil carbon sequestration in soils, tree planting, and ocean sequestration of carbon. Other technological strategies to reduce carbon inputs include developing energy efficient fuels, and efforts to develop and implement non-carbon energy sources. All of these efforts combined can reduce  $CO_2$  concentrations in the atmosphere and help to alleviate global warming.

#### Reference

- Andrews, J. A., and W. H. Schlesinger. 2001. Soil CO2 dynamics, acidification, and chemical weathering in a temperature forest with experimental CO2 enrichment, Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 15, 149–162,
- Angers, D.A., Carter, M.R., Gregorich, E.G., Bolinder, M.A., onald, R.G., Voroney, R.P., Drury, C.F., Liang, B.C., Simard, R.R, Beyaert, R.P. 1995. Agriculture management effects on soil carbon sequestration in Eastern Canada. pp. 253-264. In Beran, M.A. ed. Carbon Sequestration in the Biosphere, NATO ASI Series. Vol 1 33 Springer-Verlag, Berlin and Heidelberg.
- Baker, J.M., Ochsner, T.E., Venterea, R.T., and Griffis, T.J. 2007. Tillage and soil carbon sequestration what do we really know? Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 118, 1–5.
- Balesdent, J., Arrouays, D., Gaillard J. 2000. MORGANE: unmodèle de simulation des reserves organiques des sols et de la dynamique du carbone des sols. Submitted to Agronomie.

Bauer, P.J., Frederick, J.R., Novak, J.M., Hunt, P.G. 2006. Soil CO<sub>2</sub> flux from a Norfolk loamy sand after 25 years of conventional and conservation tillage. Soil and Tillage Research, vol. 90, p. 205–211

Boddey, R.M., Jantalia, C.P., Alves, B.J.R. and Urquiaga, S. 2009. Comments on 'no-tillage and soil-profile carbon sequestration: an on-farm assessment'. Soil Science Society of America Journal, 73, 688–689.

Boone, R. D., K. J. Nadelhoffer, J. D. Canary, and J. P. Kaye. 1998. Roots exert a strong influence on the temperature sensitivity of soil respiration, Nature, 396, 570–572

Bouwman, A. F. 1990. Exchange of greenhouse gases between terrestrial ecosystems and the atmosphere, soils and the Greenhouse Effect. John Wiley and Sons, Chichester, England, 61-127.

Christensen, B. 1996. Matching measurable soil organic matter fractions with conceptual pools in simulation models of carbon turnover: Revision of model structure. In: Evaluation of Soil Organic Matter Models (eds Powlson DS, Smith P, Smith JU), NATO ASI Series 1, Vol. 38. Springer-Verlag, Berlin.

Cable, J.M., Ogle K., Williams, D.G. 2008. Soil texture drives responses of soil respiration to precipitation pulses in the sonoran desert. Implications for climate change Ecosystems vol. 11, p.961–979

Ellert, B.H., and H.H. Janzen. 1999. Short-term influence of tillage on CO<sub>2</sub>fluxes from a semi-arid soil on the Canadian Prairies. Soil Tillage Res. 50:21–32.

Food and Agriculture Organization. 2001. Soil carbon sequestration for improved land management. World Soil Resources Reports 96, Rome

Flanagan, L. B., Johnson, B. G. 2005. Interacting effects of temperature, soil moisture and plant biomass Production on ecosystem respiration in a northern temperate grassland. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology. vol.130, p.237–253

Feizienė, D., Feiza, V., Vaidelienė, A., Povilaitis, V., Antanaitis, Š. 2010. Soil surface carbon dioxide exchange rate as affected by soil texture, different long- term tillage application and weather. zemdirbyste agriculture vol. 97, No. 3 p. 25 -42

Jacinthe, P. and Lal, R. 2005. Labile carbon and methane uptake as affected by tillage intensity in a Mollisol. Soil & Tillage Research 80: 35-45

Jackson, L.E., F.J. Calderon, K.L. Steenwerth, K.M. Scow, and D.E. Rolston. 2003. Responses of soil microbial processes and community structure to tillage events and implications for soil quality. Geoderma 114:305–317.

Jarecki, M.K. and Lal, R. 2006. Compost andmulch effects on gaseous flux from an alfisol in Ohio. Soil Sci. 171, 249–260.

Kudeyarov, V. N., Kurganova, I. N. 1998. Carbon dioxide emission and net primary production of Russian terrestrial ecosystems. Biology and Fertility of Soils, vol. 27, p.246–250

Lal, R. 1997. Residue management, conservation tillage and soil restoration for mitigating greenhouse effect by CO2- enrichment. Soil & Tillage Research 43: 81-107.

Lal, L., Kimble, J.M., Stewart, B.A. 2000. Global climate change and tropical ecosystems. CRC press & Lewis publishers, Boca Raton, FL.

Lal, R. 2007. Soil science and the carbon civilization. Soil Science Society of America Journal 71: 1425-1437.

La Scala, N., Lopes, A., Spokas, K., Bolonhezi, D., Archer, D., Reicosky, D.C. 2008. Short-term temporal changes of soil carbon losses after tillage described by a first-order decay model. Soil & Tillage Research 99: 108-118.

Lee M. S., Nakane K., Nakatsubo T. 2002. Effects of rainfall events on soil CO<sub>2</sub> flux in a cool temperate deciduous broad-leaved forest. Ecology Research, vol. 17, p.401–409

Le Mer J. Roger P. 2001. Production, oxidation, emission and consumption of methane by soils: A review. Eur. J. Soil. Biol, 37, 25-50.

Lokupitiya, E., Paustian, K. 2006. Agricultural soil greenhouse gas emissions: a review of national inventory methods. Journal of Environmental Quality 35: 1413-1427.

National Research Council. 2010. Advancing the Science of Climate Change .The National Academies Press, Washington, DC, USA. (http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/ghgemissions/gases/co2.html). Accessed on May 8, 2014

Machado, P.L.O.A., Sohi, S.P. and Gaunt, J.L. 2003. Effect of no-tillage on turnover of organic matter in a Rhodic Ferralsol. Soil Use & Management, 19, 250–256.

Mahdi, M., Al-Kaisi and Xinhua, Yin. 2005. Tillage and Crop Residue Effects on Soil Carbon and Carbon Dioxide Emission in Corn–Soybean Rotations J. environ. qual., vol. 34

Osozawa, S., Hasegawa, S. 1995. Daily and seasonal changes in soil carbon dioxide concentration and flux in Andisol. Soil Sci. 160, 117–124.

Percival, H. J., R. L. Parfitt, N. A. Scott. 2000. Factors controlling soil carbon levels in New Zealand grasslands: Is clay content important? Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J., 64, 1623 – 1630

Puget, P., Chenu, C., Balesdent, J. 1995. Total and young organic matter distributions in aggregates of silty cultivated soils. European Journal of Soil Science 46: 449-459.

- Raich, J.W., Tufekcioglu, A. 2000. Vegetation and soil respiration: correlations and controls. Biogeochemistry 48, 71–90.
- Raich, J. W., Potter, C. S., Bhagawati, D. 2002. Interannual variability in global soil respiration. Global Change Biology, vol. 8, p.800–812
- Rastogi, M., Singh, S., Pathak, H. 2002. Emission of carbon dioxide from soil. Curr. Sci. 82, 510–517.
- Reichstein, M. and Beer, C. 2008. Soil respiration across scales: the importance of a model-data integration framework for data interpretation, Journal of Plant Nutrition and Soil Science. vol.171, p. 344–354
- Reicosky, D.C., D.W. Reeves, S.A. Prior, G.B. Runion, H.H. Rogers, and R.L. Raper. 1999. Effects of residue management and controlled traffic on carbon dioxide and water loss. Soil Tillage Res. 52:153–165.
- Roberts, W.P., and K.Y. Chan. 1990. Tillage-induced increases in carbon dioxide loss from soil. Soil Tillage Res. 17:143–151.
- Robert, M. 1996b. Le sol: interface dans l'environnement, ressource pour le développement. Dunod/ Masson, Paris 240 pp.
- Sawamoto, T., Kusa, K., Hatano, R. O. 2003. CH4 and CO2 emissions from subsurface drainage in a structured clay soil cultivated with onion in Central Hokkaido, Japan. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr., 49, 31-38.
- Schomberg, H.H., Steiner, J.L. 1997. Estimating crop residue decomposition coeffi cients using substrateinduced respiration. Soil Biology and Biochemistry 29: 1089-1097.
- Schlesinger, W. H., and J. A. Andrews. 2000. Soil respiration and the global carbon cycle, Biogeochemistry, 48, 7-20
- Smith, W.N., Grant, B.B., Desjardins, R.L., Worth, D., Li, C., Boles, S.H., Huffman E, C. 2010. A tool to link agricultural activity data with the DNDC model to estimate GHG emission factors in Canada. Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment 136: 301-309.
- Stafford, Ned. 2007. Future crops: The other greenhouse effect. Nature 448 (7153): 526-8.
- Torn, M. S., S. E. Trumbore, O. A. Chadwick, P. M. Vitousek, and D. Hendricks. 1997. Mineral control of soil organic carbon storage, Nature, 389, 170 173,
- Tóth E. 2011. Soil carbon-dioxide emission measurements in different soil use systems. Thesis of PhD dissertation corvinus university of Budapest
- Watson, R. T., Zinyowera, M. C., Moss, R. H. 1996. Impacts adaptations and mitigation of climate change: Scientific- technical analyses. Intergovernmental panel on climate change, climate change 1995.Cambridge University press, USA, 879.
- West, T.O., Post, W.M. 2002. Soil organic carbon sequestration rates by tillage and crop rotation: a global data analysis. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 66, 1930–1946.
- William, H. Schlesinger. 1999. Carbon Sequestration in Soils. June 25, 2000 vol. 284
- Wiseman, P.E., Seiler, J.R. 2004. Soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux across four age classes of plantation loblolly pine (Pinus taeda L.) on the Virginia Piedmont: Forest Ecology and Management, vol. 192, p. 297–311
- Zhang, H., Wang, X., Feng, Z., Pang, J., Lu, F., Ouyang, Z., Zheng, H., Liu, W., Hui, D. 2011. Soil temperature and moisture sensitivities of soil CO2 efflux before and after tillage in a wheat field of Loess Plateau, China. Journal of Environmental Sciences 23: 79-86.