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## Mitigation of non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases from Indian agriculture sector

Omkar Patange<sup>1\*</sup>, Pallav Purohit<sup>2</sup>, Vidhee Avashia<sup>3</sup>, Zbigniew Klimont<sup>2</sup>, Amit Garg<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Economic Frontiers (EF) Program, International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA), Schlossplatz 1, A-2361, Laxenburg, Austria.

<sup>2</sup>Pollution Management Research Group, Energy, Climate, and Environment Program, International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA), Schlossplatz 1, A-2361, Laxenburg, Austria.

<sup>3</sup>Public Systems Group, Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad (IIMA), Vastrapur, Ahmedabad 380015, Gujarat, India

\*Author to whom any correspondence should be addressed.

E-mail: [patange@iiasa.ac.at](mailto:patange@iiasa.ac.at)

### Abstract

The Indian agriculture sector is driven by small and marginal farmers and employs two-thirds of the Indian work force. Agriculture also accounts for around a quarter of the total greenhouse gas emissions, mainly in the form of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O). Hence, agriculture is an important sector for India's transition to net-zero emissions and for the achievement of the sustainable development goals. So far, very few studies have assessed the future trajectories for CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from the agriculture sector. Moreover, assessment of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O mitigation potential at a subnational (state) level is missing but is important owing to the regional diversity in India. To fill this gap, we focus on methane and nitrous oxide emissions from the agricultural activities using 23 sub-regions in India. We use the GAINS modelling framework which has been widely applied for assessing the mitigation strategies for non-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and multiple air pollutants at regional and global scales. We analyze a current policy and a sustainable agriculture scenario using different combinations of structural interventions and technological control measures to inform the Indian and global climate policy debates. Our results suggest that a combination of sustainable agricultural practices and maximum feasible control measures could reduce the CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions by about 6% and 18% by 2030 and 27% and 40% by 2050 when compared to the current policies scenario with limited technological interventions. At a sub-national level, highest mitigation potential is observed in Uttar Pradesh, followed by, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, and Telangana. The mitigation of agricultural CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O also has co-benefits in terms of reduced local pollution, improved health, and livelihood opportunities for the local communities.

**Keywords:** India, agriculture, Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O), climate strategies, co-benefits.

## 1. Introduction

India is the fourth largest emitter of greenhouse gases (GHG) in the world. As a fast-growing major economy, India's future emissions trajectory is important for the global climate goals. Since the Paris Climate Change agreement, many national (Durga et al., 2022; Vishwanathan & Garg, 2020) and international (Grubler et al., 2018; IEA, 2022; Kikstra et al., 2021) modelling assessments have focused on scenarios to mitigate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the energy sector which contributes around 70% of the total GHG emissions globally and in India (MoEFCC, 2021; Olivier & Peters, 2020). However, the policy emission targets are generally formulated with reference to total GHG emissions (as CO<sub>2eq</sub>) that include agriculture, waste, industrial processes, and product use, and include non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases (NCGG) like methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) and fluorinated gases. Although CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O have a smaller share in the overall GHG emissions, they have a significantly higher global warming potential (GWP) compared to CO<sub>2</sub> and are currently estimated to cause a cumulative warming of 0.65 °C (Ravishankara et al., 2021; U. Singh et al., 2022). The climate impact of NCGG is often expressed in terms of their relative mass of CO<sub>2</sub>. GWP<sub>100</sub> is one such common metric to measure the long-term GWP of NCGG with respect to CO<sub>2</sub> over a period of 100 years. For CH<sub>4</sub>, the latest assessment of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) have used a source-specific GWP<sub>100</sub> of 27 (non-fossil) and 29.8 (fossil), whereas, for N<sub>2</sub>O, the overall GWP<sub>100</sub> value is 273 (Forster et al., 2021). With these GWP<sub>100</sub> values, the NCGG emissions in national and international inventories are often reported in terms of CO<sub>2eq</sub> to compare them with CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. In 2016, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O accounted for 16% and 6% of the total GHG emissions in India (MoEFCC, 2021) and were primarily associated with activities from the agriculture sector (enteric fermentation, rice cultivation, application of nitrogen fertilizers) with enteric fermentation being second largest GHG source in India after electricity generation. Agriculture also employs two-thirds of Indian work force and contributes to 16% of gross value added (GVA) (MoEFCC, 2021).

Typically, the Indian modelers assess the NCGG emissions exogenously; they are not part of the larger optimization framework of most models. Limited research is devoted to discussing policies to reduce NCGG. The extant literature on NCGG could be divided into three categories. First, the assessment of emissions using historical data which includes the official reporting of national inventory to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) (ex. MoEFCC, 2021, 2023). In addition, there are sectoral or activity specific emission factors and inventory assessments of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O from agriculture and other

sectors (Bhatia et al., 2013; Datta et al., 2009; Fagodiya et al., 2020; Gupta et al., 2009; Hemingway et al., 2023; Pathak, 2015; Patra, 2017; Sharma et al., 2011). According to the recent reports, the agriculture sector has contributed to 74% of CH<sub>4</sub> and 72% of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 2016 (Figure 1). Although the share of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O in total GHG emissions has reduced from 24% in 2016 to around 18% in 2019, the overall agricultural emissions have steadily risen at an annual rate of 0.3% in the past decade (MoEFCC, 2021, 2023).

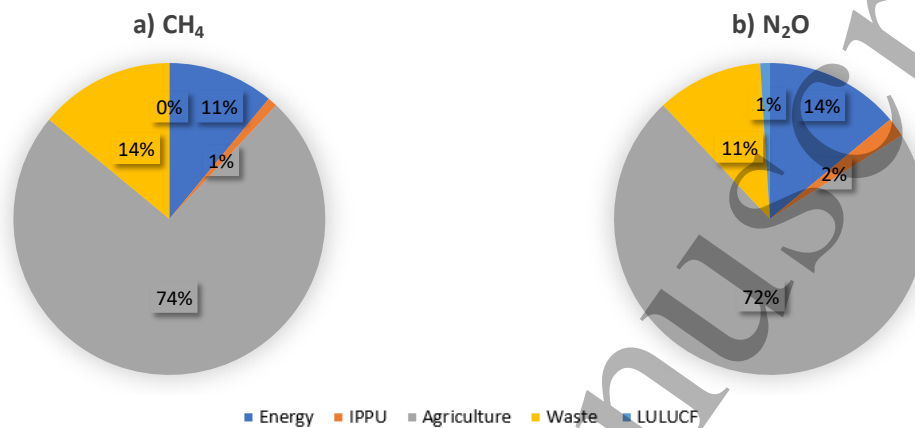


Figure 1: Sectoral contributions to CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 2016 (Source: MoEFCC, 2021)

The second type of studies have focused on emissions from specific activities like rice cultivation or livestock rearing and their mitigation strategies (Chhabra et al., 2013; Garg et al., 2011; Mishra et al., 2012; Powlson et al., 2014; Reddy et al., 2019; B. Singh & Singh, 2008; Sirohi & Michaelowa, 2007). The third type of studies focus on scenario modelling and are conducted at national and international levels. In case of India, few studies have developed scenarios to assess the NCGG from the agriculture sector (Ashok et al., 2021; Garg, 2004; Jha et al., 2022). In the past, Garg et al (2004) have explored a reference and two mitigation scenarios for CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from India using a spatially explicit AIM/Enduse model (Kainuma et al., 1999). Their findings suggest that including CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O could provide additional mitigation potential and flexibility when formulating decarbonization policies. In recent studies, Ashok et al (2021) have used national and regional simulation models to study supply interventions like micro-irrigation, limiting water intensive crops like sugarcane along with demand interventions like behavioral shift from rice to millets to achieve food security in a changing climate scenario. The focus is on overall agricultural sustainability with the aim to achieve zero-hunger (SDG 2). Jha et al (2022) have used a partial-equilibrium integrated assessment model, MAgPIE (Dietrich et al., 2019; Lotze-Campen et al., 2008), to explore sustainable pathways for the agriculture, forestry, and land use (AFOLU) sectors. Their

findings suggest that productivity improvements in crop and animal-based products and dietary shift could reduce the total AFOLU sector GHG emissions by up to 80% by 2050.

There are limited studies exploring the non-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions mitigation pathways. Further, recent research, particularly after the Paris agreement, has focused on national level analysis. However, assessment of NCGG mitigation potential considering subnational level is important owing to the regional diversity in India. We attempt to fill this gap by focusing on methane and nitrous oxide from key agricultural activities in India. We analyze two scenarios using different combinations of activities and control measures. In the next section we describe the methods, data sources and scenarios used for this study. Section 3 presents the results and section 4 discusses their implications for policy and future research. Section 5 concludes the discussion with key policy recommendations.

## 2. Methods, Data, Scenario description

### *The GAINS Model*

We model the future emission trajectories from the Indian agriculture sector using the GAINS modelling framework (Amann et al., 2011) which has been widely applied for the analysis of NCGG (Harmsen et al., 2023; Höglund-Isaksson et al., 2020; Purohit et al., 2020; Winiwarter et al., 2018) emissions and air pollution (Klimont et al., 2017; Purohit et al., 2019; Purohit & Höglund-Isaksson, 2017; World Bank, 2022). Past and future emissions are estimated in GAINS for all key anthropogenic activities, explicitly considering the emission reduction technologies, where applied (equation 1):

$$EMM_{i,p} = \sum_k \sum_m A_{i,k} EF_{i,k,m,p} X_{i,k,m,p} \quad (1)$$

Where  $i$ ,  $k$ ,  $m$ ,  $p$  represents region, activity type, abatement measure, and pollutant, respectively;  $EMM_{i,p}$  represent the emissions of pollutant  $p$  (i.e., CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O) in region  $i$ ;  $A_{i,k}$  is the activity level of type  $k$  (e.g., fertilizer consumption) in region  $i$ ;  $EF_{i,k,m,p}$  the emission factor of pollutant  $p$  for activity  $k$  in region  $i$  after application of control measure  $m$ ; and  $X_{i,k,m,p}$  is the share of total activity of type  $k$  in region  $i$  to which a control measure  $m$  for pollutant  $p$  is applied.

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3 The EF could vary based on the control measure (m) whose implementation depends on  
4 alternate policies scenarios and technology penetration rates (Amann et al., 2020; Höglund-  
5 Isaksson et al., 2020; Winiwarter et al., 2018). For our analysis, the key activities for  
6 agricultural CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions included rice cultivation, livestock rearing and fertilizer  
7 application in agricultural soils. We use India-specific EF, along with their uncertainty ranges,  
8 for these activities, obtained from India's national communication to the UNFCCC and related  
9 literature (Bhatia et al., 2013; Chhabra et al., 2013; MoEFCC, 2023). For control strategies, we  
10 have considered irrigation management in rice fields, feed management and anaerobic digestors  
11 for livestock and nitrogen inhibitors for judicious use of fertilizers, among other measures. For  
12 this work, we have considered 23 sub-national regions within India (see SI for details).

### 21 *Activity data*

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24 Historical data between 1990 and 2020 was obtained from various government and  
25 international reports. The state wise area, production, and yield statistics for rice and other  
26 crops were obtained from the Agricultural Statistics of India (MoAFW GoI, 2023a). Data on  
27 milk and non-milk animals, state wise milk yields, per capita milk availability, meat and eggs  
28 consumption from non-dairy cattle, pigs and poultry were obtained from the latest Livestock  
29 Census and the Basic Animal Husbandry Statistics (DAHD GoI, 2022a, 2022b). The state wise  
30 synthetic nitrogen fertilizer production and consumption was obtained from the Ministry of  
31 Fertilizers and Fertilizer Association of India (FAI, 2022).

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34 The future demand for agricultural products was projected using macroeconomic drivers like  
35 population and income. Primary drivers for selected agricultural activities included population,  
36 national gross domestic product (GDP) and gross value added (GVA) from the agriculture  
37 sector. The UN median population projections for India till 2050 (United Nations, 2019) were  
38 proportionately distributed at state level in the GAINS model. For the Current Policies Scenario  
39 (CPS), the population projections, combined with income growth and state-wise consumption  
40 trends, were used to estimate the future demand for different plant and animal-based products.  
41 However, in the case of commodities like rice, which is already in surplus supply, the  
42 production was driven by supply side policies like minimum support prices (MSP) and the  
43 Food Security Act (GoI, 2013). The current policies were used to adjust future projections for  
44 commodities like rice. In case of the Sustainable Agriculture Scenario (SAS), the per capita  
45 demand for agricultural crops and animal produce were projected based on the recommended  
46 dietary requirements by the EAT-Lancet report (Willett et al., 2019) and other socio-political,  
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cultural, and geographic factors in the states. In terms of production, the yields of various crops, milk, and other animal produce for the past two decades, along with current policies, were used to project the yields of these commodities till 2050. Methods used for projecting future agricultural activity data from key sub-sectors are described in the supplementary information (SI).

### *Scenarios and control strategies*

Table 1: Scenarios used for assessing the CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from the agriculture sector.

	Technological intervention	
	(1) CPS_CLE (current policies scenario using current legislations)	(2) CPS_MFR (current policies scenario using maximum feasible reduction)
Structural intervention	(3) SAS_CLE (sustainable agriculture scenario using current legislations)	(4) SAS_MFR (sustainable agriculture scenario using maximum feasible reduction)

In Table 1, CPS\_CLE represents the baseline scenario, wherein it assumes the continuation of existing agricultural policies relevant to CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, without any extra efforts to implement technology interventions. SAS\_CLE, on the other hand, assumes an integrated transition of agriculture sector to meet the social and environmental goals. For example, reducing land under rice cultivation to meet the dual goals for sustainable diets and mitigation of methane emissions from rice fields. With the maximum feasible reduction (MFR) in both CPS and SAS, we project the mitigation of NCGG from agriculture if activity-specific technological interventions were implemented to their full technical potential. In the Indian context, the guiding policy framework for agricultural mitigation policies is the National Mission for Sustainable Agriculture (NMSA), one of the missions within the National Action Plan on Climate Change (NAPCC) from 2008 (GoI, 2008; MoEFCC, 2021). The NMSA has led to policies like National Livestock Mission and the National Innovations in Climate Resilient Agriculture (NICRA) which are driving the mitigation efforts in the agriculture sector (See Table S2a and S2b for details of scenario-specific policies, technologies and application rates).

### 3. Results

Our results discuss the methane and nitrous oxide emissions estimates for the reference year 2015, followed by the projections for the CPS and SAS, showcasing the mitigation potential with maximum feasible technological interventions in the major agricultural activities. We also report the uncertainty in total CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions due to uncertainty in activity-specific emission factors. Further, we present the sub-national heterogeneities in CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions due to variation in agricultural activities and their corresponding mitigation potential for the period 2020-2050.

#### 3.1 Current and future CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in baseline and alternative scenarios

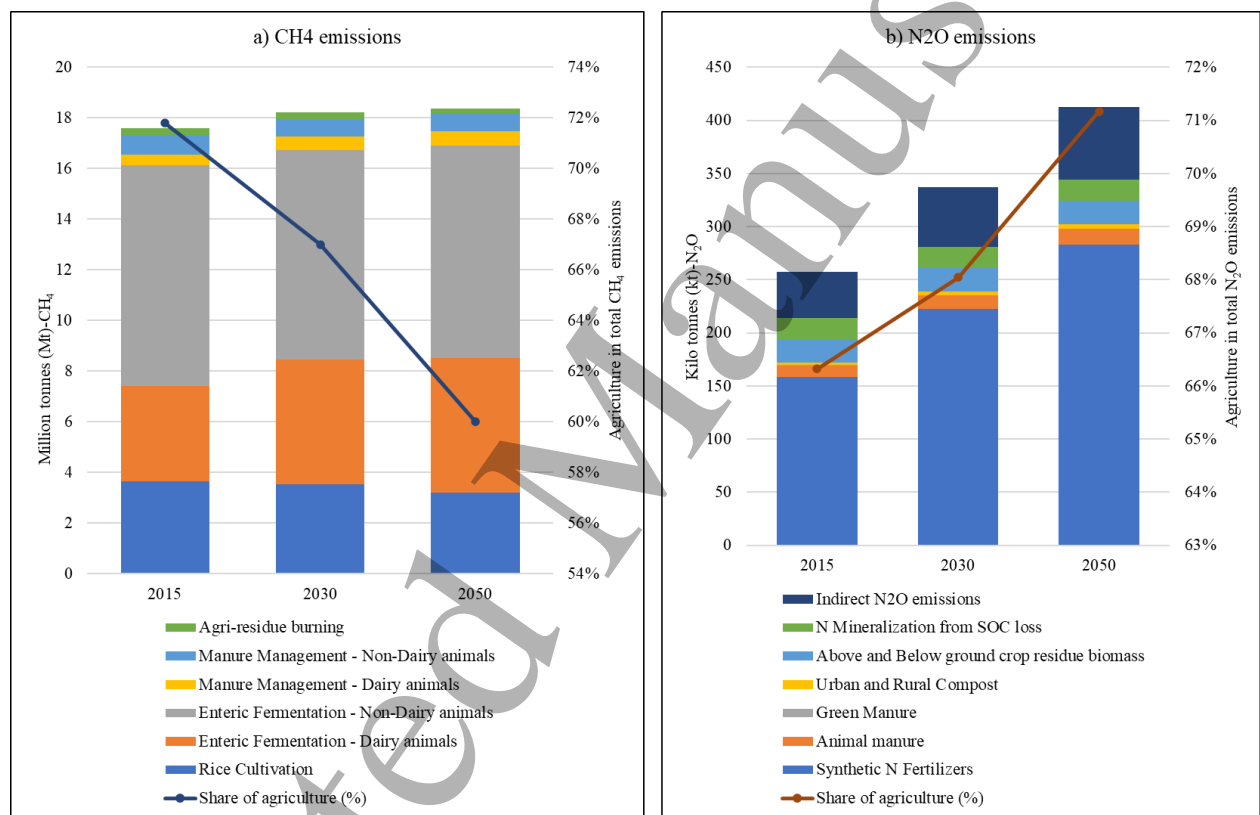


Figure 2: Activity wise CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions under the current policies scenario (2015-2050). Note: In figure (b), N Mineralization from soil organic carbon (SOC) loss is due to change in land use agricultural management practices as reported in the Indian National Inventory (Bhatia et al., 2013).

In 2015, the agricultural activities contributed to an estimated 17.60 ( $\pm 4.00$ ) million tonnes of CH<sub>4</sub> (Mt-CH<sub>4</sub>) as shown in Figure 2(a). Our results suggest a 72% contribution of agricultural activities to methane emissions followed by the waste sector (13%). Fuel production and combustion, industrial processes and non-energy fuel usage made up the remaining 15% of the



emissions. The major activities contributing to methane emissions from agriculture sector were enteric fermentation from dairy and non-dairy animals (71%) and rice cultivation (21%). The remaining emissions came from activities like manure management and agricultural residue burning.

Under the current policies scenario (CPS\_CLE), the projected CH<sub>4</sub> emissions increase to 18.21 ( $\pm 4.15$ ) Mt-CH<sub>4</sub> by 2030 and to 18.37 ( $\pm 4.25$ ) Mt-CH<sub>4</sub> by 2050. In the CPS\_CLE, the share of agricultural activities in methane emissions is estimated to reduce to 67% (2030) and 60% (2050) due to rise in emissions from the waste sector (21% in 2050). The future CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from agriculture sector are again driven by enteric fermentation (75%) and rice cultivation (17%) followed by manure management (7%) and biomass residue burning in agricultural fields (1%). The area under rice has remained around 44 million hectares in the past two decades. Although the rice production has increased due to yield improvements (by over 40%) during this period, the methane emissions are primarily associated with area under cultivation and the type of rice ecosystems. As a result, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions have remained around 3.5 Mt-CH<sub>4</sub>/year in recent years and are expected to reduce moderately to 3.21 Mt-CH<sub>4</sub>/year by 2050 due to ongoing technological interventions. In the CPS, we assume further increase in rice yields between 2020 and 2050 and the continuation of minimum support price (MSP) for rice which lead to surplus production of rice.

According to the latest livestock census (2019), the population of cattle and buffaloes has remained almost the same, compared to the 2012 figures. However, there has been a decrease of 6% in indigenous cattle over 2012. On the other hand, there is a rising trend in the case of exotic and crossbred cattle as their population increased by 35% between 2007 and 2012 and by 27% between 2012 and 2019 (DAHD GoI, 2022a). The milk production, mainly from cows and buffaloes, also doubled in the past two decades. Since the crossbred dairy cattle emit more CH<sub>4</sub> per head as compared to the indigenous breed (Garg, 2004), we observe a rising trend in livestock emissions despite a marginal rise in overall cattle population.

The N<sub>2</sub>O emissions in 2015 were estimated at 257.16 ( $\pm 82.29$ ) kilo tonnes of N<sub>2</sub>O (kt-N<sub>2</sub>O) as shown in Figure 2(b). Agricultural activities contributed to around 66% of the total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions followed by energy (17%) and the waste sector (13%). In agriculture, direct N<sub>2</sub>O accounted for around 80% while the indirect emissions from nitrogen volatilization, runoff and leaching contributed the remaining share. For direct N<sub>2</sub>O, use of synthetic nitrogen fertilizers

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resulted in about 75% of the emissions followed by above and below ground biomass crop residues (10%), N mineralization from soil organic carbon (SOC) loss (9%), organic manure from livestock (5%), compost and green manure (~1%).

In the CPS\_CLE, the projected N<sub>2</sub>O emissions increase to 337.40 (±107.97) kt-N<sub>2</sub>O by 2030 and to 412.82 (±132.10) kt-N<sub>2</sub>O by 2050. The share of direct and indirect N<sub>2</sub>O from agriculture was projected to increase to 68% (2030) and 71% (2050). By 2050, energy and industrial processes contributed to around 19% of the total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions with waste sector accounting for the remaining 10% share. In the past few years, consumption of nitrogen fertilizers has gone up due to policy changes that have driven an increased share of Nitrogen in NPK fertilizers applied by farmers (Some et al., 2019). However, excluding a few states like Punjab and Haryana, the per hectare consumption of synthetic N fertilizers is still low in many parts of India. Assuming the policies of agri-intensification, driven using subsidized urea and non-urea N fertilizers, the CPS\_CLE projects the fertilizer emissions to increase by 41% in 2030 and 79% in 2050, when compared to 2015. In addition, the rising share of dairy animals contribute to an increase of N<sub>2</sub>O from animal manure by 14% (2030) and 32% (2050).

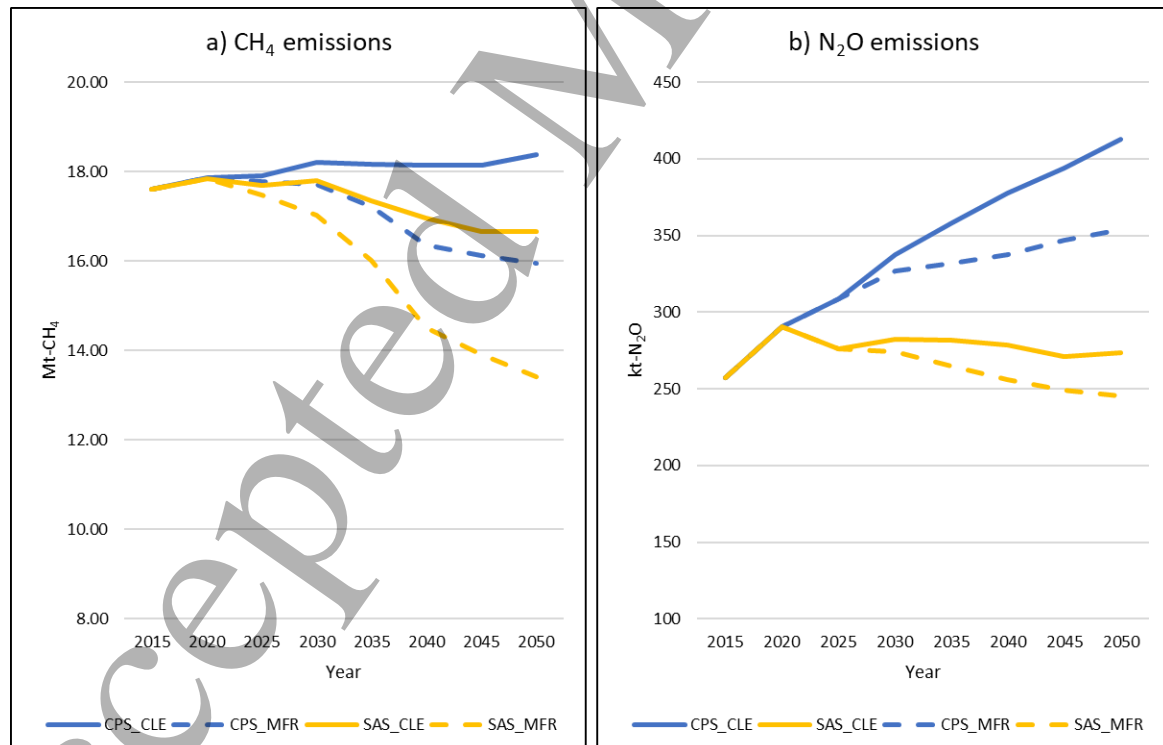


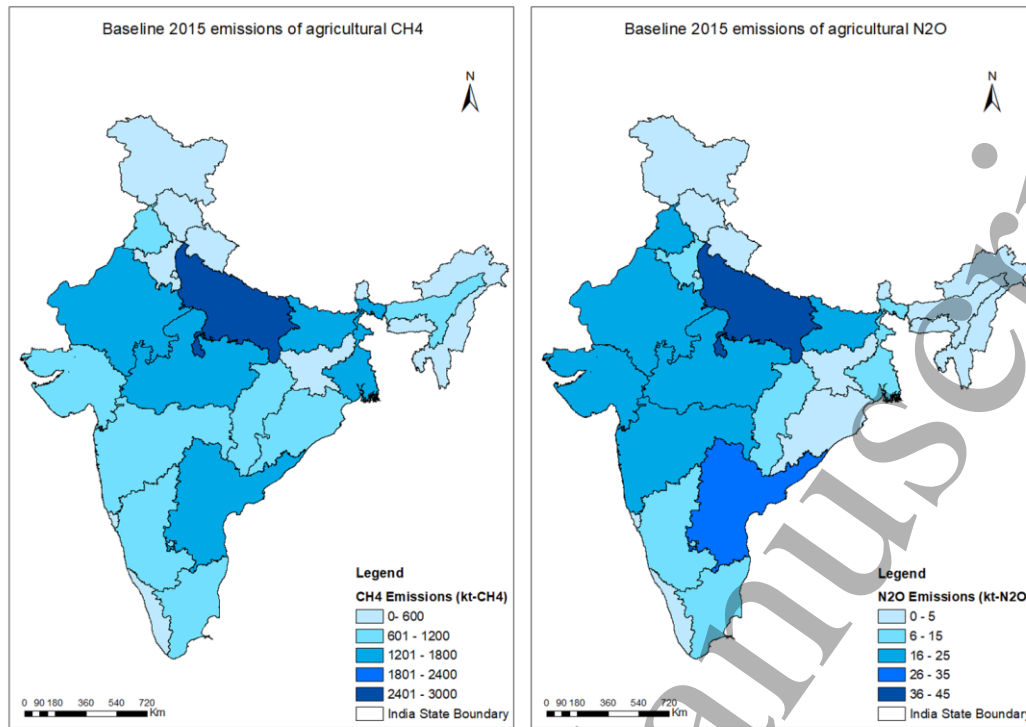
Figure 3: CH<sub>4</sub> (left) and N<sub>2</sub>O (right) emission projections from agriculture sector under the CPS and SAS scenarios.

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3 As illustrated in Figure 3, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions from agriculture sector are projected to  
4 increase in the CPS\_CLE due to the anticipated economic and population growth in future  
5 years. However, the effect of the structural interventions (SAS) and the maximum feasible  
6 technology interventions (MFR) is seen in later years. The 9% decline in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in  
7 2050 from structural interventions alone (SAS\_CLE), compared to CPS\_CLE, are observed  
8 from two sub-sectors – dairy animals (54%) and rice cultivation (45%). The structural  
9 interventions in dairy sector are primarily targeted at improving the milk yields which lead to  
10 reducing the number of dairy animals when compared to the CPS scenario. In case of rice  
11 cultivation, the area under crop is gradually decreased with increase in yields to meet the  
12 recommended per capita rice consumption of a nutritional diet. Further, area under rice  
13 cultivation is shifted to eastern states of India from northern states of Punjab and Haryana  
14 where groundwater levels are going down (Bhattarai et al., 2021). For N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, the  
15 driving factor is the consumption of N-fertilizers. The use of synthetic fertilizers per hectare of  
16 agricultural land is already very low in many states of India. Hence the structural interventions,  
17 in terms of reducing the per hectare N-use and timing of application are limited to a few regions  
18 with high per hectare fertilizer use. The effective reduction of N<sub>2</sub>O in 2050 between SAS\_CLE  
19 and CPS\_CLE is around 40% with limited technological interventions. Further, emissions from  
20 manure nitrogen reduce by 5% in 2050 between SAS\_CLE and CPS\_CLE.  
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36 The additional mitigation potential is explored through the MFR scenarios. Interventions like  
37 the system of rice intensification, shorter duration variety of rice, and intermittent drying of  
38 rice fields are implemented to reduce the CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. These result in additional 0.36 Mt-  
39 CH<sub>4</sub> of reduction from rice between the SAS\_CLE and SAS\_MFR scenarios by 2050. For  
40 livestock, dietary management with concentrated fodder, breed improvement, pasture  
41 management along with anaerobic fermentation of animal waste was implemented as a control  
42 measure. These interventions contribute to around 2.7 Mt-CH<sub>4</sub> reduction in 2050 between the  
43 SAS\_CLE and SAS\_MFR. Total reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions between SAS\_CLE and  
44 SAS\_MFR by 2050 is around 20%. In case of N<sub>2</sub>O, stringent technology control measures with  
45 nitrogen inhibitors and nano-urea (Upadhyay et al., 2023) further reduce the N-fertilizer  
46 emissions by 25% in 2050 between SAS\_CLE and SAS\_MFR. The total mitigation potential  
47 between CPS\_CLE and SAS\_MFR for the period 2020-2050 was around 70 Mt-CH<sub>4</sub> and 2.7  
48 Mt-N<sub>2</sub>O.  
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### 3.2 Sub-national heterogeneities in $\text{CH}_4$ and $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ emissions from agriculture sector of India

#### Panel A



#### Panel B

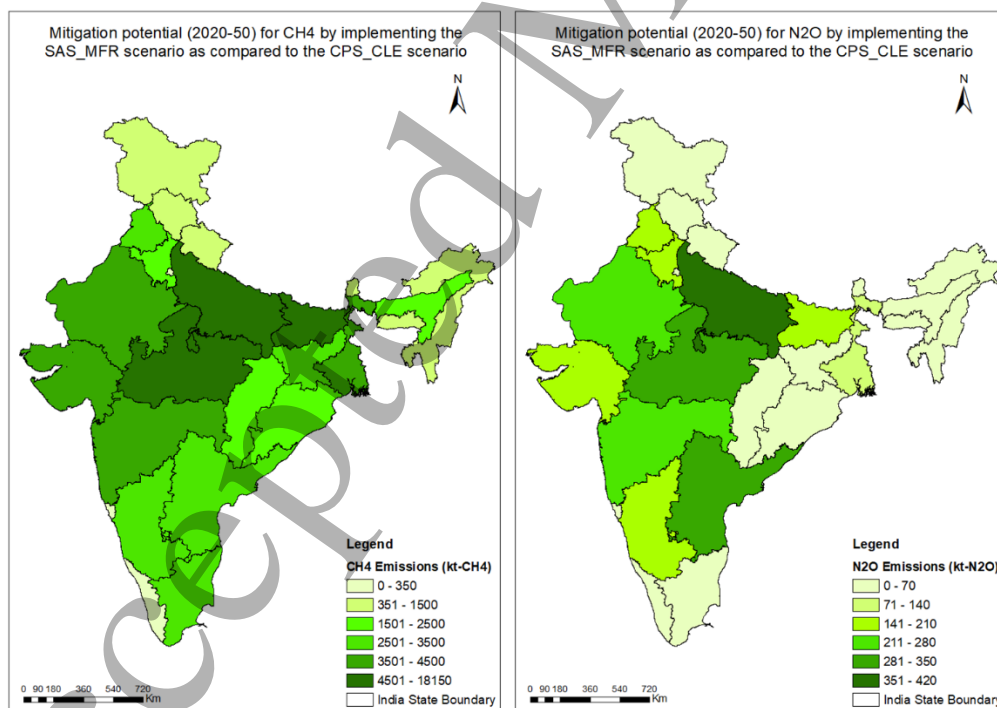


Figure 4:  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  emissions in the reference year 2015 (Panel A) and mitigation potential between 2020-50 in SAS\_MFE as compared to the CPS\_CLE scenario (Panel B)

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3 At the sub-national level, methane and nitrous oxide emissions show a large variation as  
4 illustrated in Figure 4 (Panel A). In 2015, Uttar Pradesh, owing to its large size and agrarian  
5 economy, was a major contributor with about 17% of the CH<sub>4</sub> and 18% of the N<sub>2</sub>O emissions.  
6 Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, West Bengal, and Madhya Pradesh were the other leading states  
7 in terms of methane emissions. For N<sub>2</sub>O, Andhra Pradesh and Telangana, Maharashtra, and  
8 Punjab were the next big emitters. At sectoral level, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Punjab,  
9 Odisha, and Andhra Pradesh were the leading states in rice cultivation and contributed to over  
10 50% of the methane emissions from area under rice. In case of livestock rearing, Uttar Pradesh,  
11 Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Jharkhand, Andhra Pradesh, and West Bengal accounted for the  
12 major share of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions resulting from enteric fermentation, manure  
13 management and animal manure applied to agricultural fields. The use of synthetic N fertilizers  
14 also varied in terms of per hectare consumption. For instance, even though Punjab and Haryana  
15 do not have a large share of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, their per hectare consumption is one of the highest  
16 (175-200 kg/hectare) (MoAFW GoI, 2023a). We also studied the subnational mitigation  
17 potential for CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. The maximum potential, when comparing CPS\_CLE  
18 and SAS\_MFR is observed in Uttar Pradesh (26% for CH<sub>4</sub>, 15% for N<sub>2</sub>O), followed by,  
19 Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, and Telangana (Figure 4,  
20 Panel B).  
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#### 36 **4. Discussion**

37 Our scenario results suggest that mitigation of non-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the agriculture sector  
38 require a systemic approach to integrate social, environmental and climate goals. In India,  
39 around 42% of the total geographic area is under agriculture (net sown area) and around 55%  
40 of the population is dependent on agriculture-based livelihood (MoAFW GoI, 2023b). The  
41 major activities contributing to CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are also driven by small and marginal  
42 farmers. On the other hand, emissions from agriculture sector are rising and are expected to  
43 grow in the future due to rising consumption driven by economic growth. Considering the  
44 limitations due to subsistence farming, the mitigation technologies implemented at the farm-  
45 end (such as agri-mechanization) would be particularly challenging due to their high cost for  
46 small and marginal farmers. Alternatively, technologies implemented centrally or at the  
47 industry end (such as neem-coating of urea for nitrogen inhibition) could have wide application  
48 rates. However, the industrial-scale mitigation technologies will require wider policy support  
49 and government interventions at the beginning to increase their application rates as envisaged  
50 in our MFR scenarios. It is also important to highlight here that the technical mitigation  
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3 potential considered in the MFR scenarios may further reduce due to economic and socio-  
4 cultural constraints in the given states. The MFR scenarios thus present a technically feasible  
5 reduction based on the application rates and mitigation potential without diving into the costs  
6 and political economy of these interventions.  
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11 We do not study the NCGG mitigation potential for other sectors like waste and fossil fuels.  
12 However, based on earlier assessments, waste and fossil fuel activities show a higher  
13 cumulative mitigation potential of around 50% (2020-2050) for CH<sub>4</sub> emissions when  
14 comparing the baseline (CLE) and the MFR scenario (Höglund-Isaksson et al., 2020).  
15 Similarly, for N<sub>2</sub>O, industrial production sectors have a mitigation potential between 80-99%  
16 whereas wastewater treatment could further mitigation 40% emissions between 2020-2050  
17 when comparing the baseline and the MFR scenarios (Winiwarter et al., 2018). However, in  
18 2050, both these sectors have limited share in the total N<sub>2</sub>O emissions when compared to the  
19 agriculture sector.  
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29 The mitigation of NCGG from agriculture sectors also have co-benefits in terms of reduced  
30 local pollution, improved health, and livelihood opportunities for the local communities.  
31 Recent studies from Europe (Klimont et al., 2017; Klimont & Winiwarter, 2015) and China  
32 (Bai et al., 2019) indicate that agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions have emerged as a major contributor  
33 to the formation of fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) resulting in air pollution and health hazards  
34 for the local population. A modelling assessment of ambient air quality in India also suggests  
35 that one-third of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions are contributed by secondary sources that involve NH<sub>3</sub>  
36 from agriculture (Purohit et al., 2019). The mitigation measures for reducing the use of  
37 synthetic N-fertilizers could benefit in reducing the agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. Similarly,  
38 burning of crop residue in the fields has emerged as a major source of air pollution in north  
39 India (Shyamsundar et al., 2019). Apart from raising awareness among farmers to stop burning  
40 the residue, waste-to-energy production by converting surplus residue to bio-pellets or second-  
41 generation biofuels could also help in generating local employment (Purohit & Chaturvedi,  
42 2018; Purohit & Dhar, 2018). Further, co-benefits for waste-to-energy production also exist in  
43 the livestock sector. The number of unproductive female cattle has gone up over the past few  
44 decades due to a lack of policies for such animals (DAHD GoI, 2022a). One way to deal with  
45 this is by setting up dry-cattle farms where adult unproductive cattle are housed and the manure,  
46 along with other biomass waste in the area, is used for biogas production. These community  
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3 scale biogas plants, while reducing the methane emissions, could be used for electricity  
4 production or supply of compressed biogas to other industries.  
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8 Finally, there are three types of uncertainties associated with the CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions  
9 reported in this study. First, the uncertainty due to emission factors that is reported in the results  
10 section. The activity specific EF uncertainty is reported in Tables S1a and S1b (SI). The second  
11 type of uncertainty arises from the application rates and mitigation potential of different  
12 technological interventions. Using the upper and lower bounds of activity-specific mitigation  
13 potential and application rates (Tables S2a and S2b), we found that the overall mitigation  
14 potential for CH<sub>4</sub> varies between 59 to 91 Mt-CH<sub>4</sub> between 2020-50 whereas the corresponding  
15 variation on mitigation potential of N<sub>2</sub>O was between 2.66 to 2.69 Mt-N<sub>2</sub>O (See Section S2 for  
16 details). The third type of uncertainty is associated with the activity data which was not  
17 analyzed here. Based on previous studies (Bhatia et al., 2013), the activity data uncertainty for  
18 CH<sub>4</sub> may vary between 3-22% and for N<sub>2</sub>O between 11-17%.  
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## 29 **5. Conclusions**

30 In a post-Paris agreement scenario, this study is one of the first to explicitly model India's  
31 agricultural non-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at a subnational level. It underscores the need for effective  
32 strategies and addresses the gap in India's modeling landscape, which typically treats these  
33 emissions separately, with limited policy exploration. Our results suggest that the methane and  
34 nitrous oxide emissions could be brought down by 27% and 40% by 2050 in the sustainable  
35 agriculture scenario using best available technologies when compared to the same year in the  
36 current policies scenario. This, of course, is the technical mitigation potential which may  
37 further reduce based on socio-cultural and political economy constraints. Nevertheless, the  
38 results highlight the importance of combining structural transformations with technological  
39 interventions to achieve the climate targets while also meeting the relevant sustainable  
40 development goals. Further, the measures to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O emissions have co-benefits  
41 in terms reduced PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions, improved air quality and health benefits for the people.  
42 Going forward, the NCGG scenarios could be implemented in conjunction with mitigation  
43 scenarios for CO<sub>2</sub> to understand the additional mitigation potential for total GHG emissions.  
44 Modelling of NCGG with CO<sub>2</sub> would also improve our understanding of marginal abatement  
45 costs of GHG mitigation to meet the policy commitments.  
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