

Increasing tillage intensity and greenhouse gas emissions under the growing weed pressure in the U.S. corn-soybean cropping system

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13 Short Title: Emerging weed resistance alters tillage and GHGs

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23 **Abstract**

24 Tillage is a common agricultural practice for soil preparation and weed controls in crop
25 production. However, it remains unknown how tillage intensity evolved and affected the net
26 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Using multi-source data and modeling approaches, we
27 examined the change of tillage intensity across the U.S. corn-soybean cropping systems over the
28 past two decades and its impacts on soil GHG emissions. We found that the trend of tillage
29 intensity had shifted from decreasing to increasing since 2008, which is strongly correlated with
30 the adoption of herbicide-tolerant crops and emerging weed resistance. The GHG mitigation
31 benefit (-5.5 ± 4.8 Tg CO₂ eq/yr) of decreasing tillage intensity before 2008 has been more than
32 offset by tillage re-intensification under growing pressure of weed resistance, which increased
33 GHG emissions by 13.8 ± 5.6 Tg CO₂ eq/yr. As weed resistance persists or grows, tillage
34 intensity is anticipated to continue increasing, likely enhancing GHG emissions.

35

36 **Introduction**

37 Greenhouse gas (GHG, such as CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O) emissions from agriculture
38 (cultivation of crops and livestock) and deforestation accounted for about a quarter of global total
39 GHG emissions (1). In the U.S., agriculture contributed ~10% of total GHG emissions in 2018,
40 and it has increased by 10% since 1990, a substantial increase compared with the national total
41 GHG emission increase of 3.7% in the same period (2). The agriculture sector provides
42 significant GHG mitigation potential, but doing so requires a deep understanding of the sector's
43 GHG flux dynamics and their key environmental drivers including human management practices
44 (3).

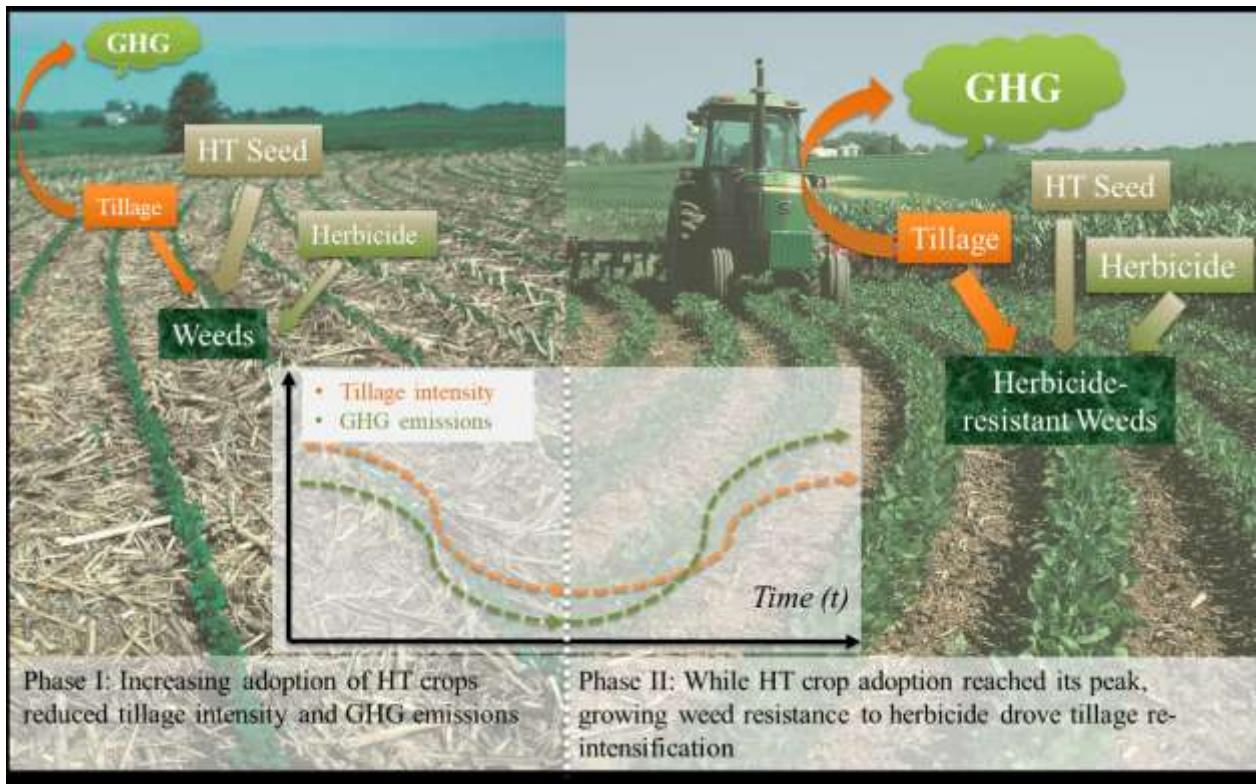
45 Tillage is an important cropping practice that helps prepare the soil and remove weeds.
46 Although various definitions of tillage types exist in literature, for our purposes tillage practices
47 can be grouped into three types, namely conventional tillage, conservation tillage, and no-till,
48 which differ by degrees of soil disturbance and residue retention. Conventional tillage leaves less
49 than 15% residual on the soil surface, while conservation tillage has at least 30% residue left and
50 no-till keeps the soil covered 100% of the time (4, 5). Various tillage practices have different
51 impacts on the physical, hydrological and biogeochemical processes in the soil. For example,
52 conventional tillage practices (such as disk plowing), not only promote soil organic carbon
53 oxidation and decomposition but also accelerate soil erosion by increasing soil exposure to wind
54 and rain (6). On the other hand, no-till and conservation tillage (, such as strip till and mulch till)
55 have been widely adopted by farmers to conserve soil and water (7). However, the no-till system
56 has contributed less than what is often assumed to agricultural sustainability as it may retard
57 springtime soil warming, increase weed, pest, and disease pressures, and lead to crop yield loss
58 (8-11).

59 There are many reasons why tillage intensity has mostly declined on the U.S. cropped
60 acres in the past century. Reduced tillage has been widely adopted to suppress soil erosion,
61 preserve moisture, and reduce crop production cost in the use of fuel, labor and machinery (7,
62 12). The advent of herbicide-tolerant (HT) crops, commencing in the late 1990s, has made it
63 possible to spray herbicide over the growing crops and further reduced reliance on tillage (13).
64 But the benefit of HT crop adoption in reducing tillage might not be sustainable in the long run
65 as weed resistance has emerged to the main chemical used, glyphosate (14). Evidence to date
66 suggests that partial reversion to conventional tillage has resulted (15, 16). For example, a recent
67 study (16) reveals that the shares of conservation tillage and no-till in soybean fields declined by
68 3.9% and 7.6%, respectively, when eight glyphosate-resistant weed species are identified, despite
69 little initial effect of first emergence of weed resistance on tillage practices. However, the
70 consequences of the changing tillage intensity in soil GHG fluxes during this period remain
71 unclear.

72 In the U.S., a wide variety of studies have been conducted to quantify the GHG
73 mitigation potential in the agriculture sector (17–19). More recent efforts have involved seeking
74 policy and market solutions that promote additional mitigation practices (20–23). Nonetheless,
75 most existing tillage-related assessment and prediction activities either lack data to characterize
76 the spatiotemporal patterns of tillage practices and their intensity changes or focus on the
77 resultant fluxes of single GHG. This limits the explicit characterization of system responses and
78 hinders us from identifying and adopting sustainable management practices. Although USGS has
79 developed tillage intensity maps during 1989–2004 by aggregating county-level survey into the
80 8-digit hydrologic unit (HU) watersheds (24), little is known about how tillage practices in the

81 U.S. changed in more recent years, especially given increasing concerns about herbicide-resistant
82 weeds (12, 15, 25).

83 In addition, there is still limited understanding as to how tillage decisions are driven by
84 environmental stressors such as herbicide and herbicide-resistant weeds, and how they together
85 have affected GHG mitigation outcomes during recent decades. There is substantial evidence
86 that using more intensive tillage is a coping strategy for many farmers faced with herbicide
87 resistant weeds and this raises concerns about negative environmental impacts (15, 16). Here, we
88 use a process-based land ecosystem model, a long-term farmers survey, and time-series gridded
89 data of environmental changes to test the hypothesis that genetically engineered HT crop
90 adoption and the emergence of weed resistance to herbicide have influenced farmers' decisions
91 in tillage practices, which altered net GHG fluxes in the agricultural lands (Figure 1). Our study
92 in the U.S. could provide insightful information for other agricultural regions in the world that
93 are impacted by growing weed pressure, herbicide resistance, intensifying tillage, and the
94 diminished GHG mitigation potential.



95

96 Figure 1 Conceptual depiction of the hypothetical GHG fluxes in response to tillage intensity
 97 changes affected by herbicide-tolerant (HT) crop adoption and emergence of herbicide-resistant
 98 weeds. Arrow thickness and box sizes indicate the intensity of tillage practice, herbicide use, and
 99 seed varieties in controlling weeds. The conditions in phase I and II represent the tillage intensity
 100 shift before and after 2008 in the US, respectively, and the tillage-affected GHG fluxes that are
 101 examined in this study. (The background photo is credit to the USDA photo gallery,
 102 <https://photogallery.sc.egov.usda.gov/photogallery/#/>)

103 A key data source of our study is a commercial survey of farmer choices regarding corn
 104 and soybean seed varieties, pesticide choices (including herbicide, insecticide, and fungicide),
 105 and intensity of tillage practices (16). These data allowed us to develop time-series gridded maps
 106 to characterize the location and intensity of tillage practices in the U.S. corn-soybean cropping
 107 systems during 1998-2016. We explored the reasons that were likely to shape the changes in

108 tillage intensity across the country by examining the relationships between the state-level
109 adoption rate of genetically engineered, herbicide-tolerant crops, the number of herbicide-
110 resistant weed species, and corn-soybean acreage under different tillage practices. Furthermore,
111 we used the annual tillage intensity maps to drive a land ecosystem model, Dynamic Land
112 Ecosystem Model (DLEM), to distinguish and quantify how tillage practice changes in the U.S.
113 corn-soybean cropping system have affected net fluxes of CO₂ and N₂O during 1998-2016. We
114 examined the GHG fluxes under tillage practices in the pre- and post-2008 time intervals because
115 tillage intensity in both corn and soybean-planted lands was found to be the lowest in 2008. In
116 these experiments, except for tillage practices, all the rest of the environmental drivers including
117 climate variability, atmospheric composition, land use and cover change, crop rotation, fertilizer
118 use, and tile drainage are prescribed by time-series gridded data at a resolution of 5-arc min by 5-
119 arc min. More details can be found in the Methods section and Supplementary Material.

120 **Results**

121 ***Tillage intensity change, HT crop adoption, and weed resistance***

122 We adopted a unit-less index to represent the national and state-level tillage intensity by
123 standardizing the acreage ratio of intensive to less-intensive tillage practices (e.g., acreage ratio
124 of conventional to conservation tillage, conservation to no-till, and conventional to no-till) into a
125 value between 0 and 100% (see Methods). Our analysis indicates that tillage intensity in the U.S.
126 corn-soybean cropping systems declined substantially during 1998-2008, but shifted to an
127 increasing pattern after 2008 (blue line in Fig 2c-2d). The farmers' survey data indicate that corn
128 and soybean acreage under no-till practice increased by 5.2 Mha and 6.8 Mha during 1998-2008,
129 respectively. However, this increase was followed by a no-till cropland acreage decline,
130 composing of 0.2 Mha from corn and 2.4Mha from soybean, in the period 2009-2016 (Fig 2a-

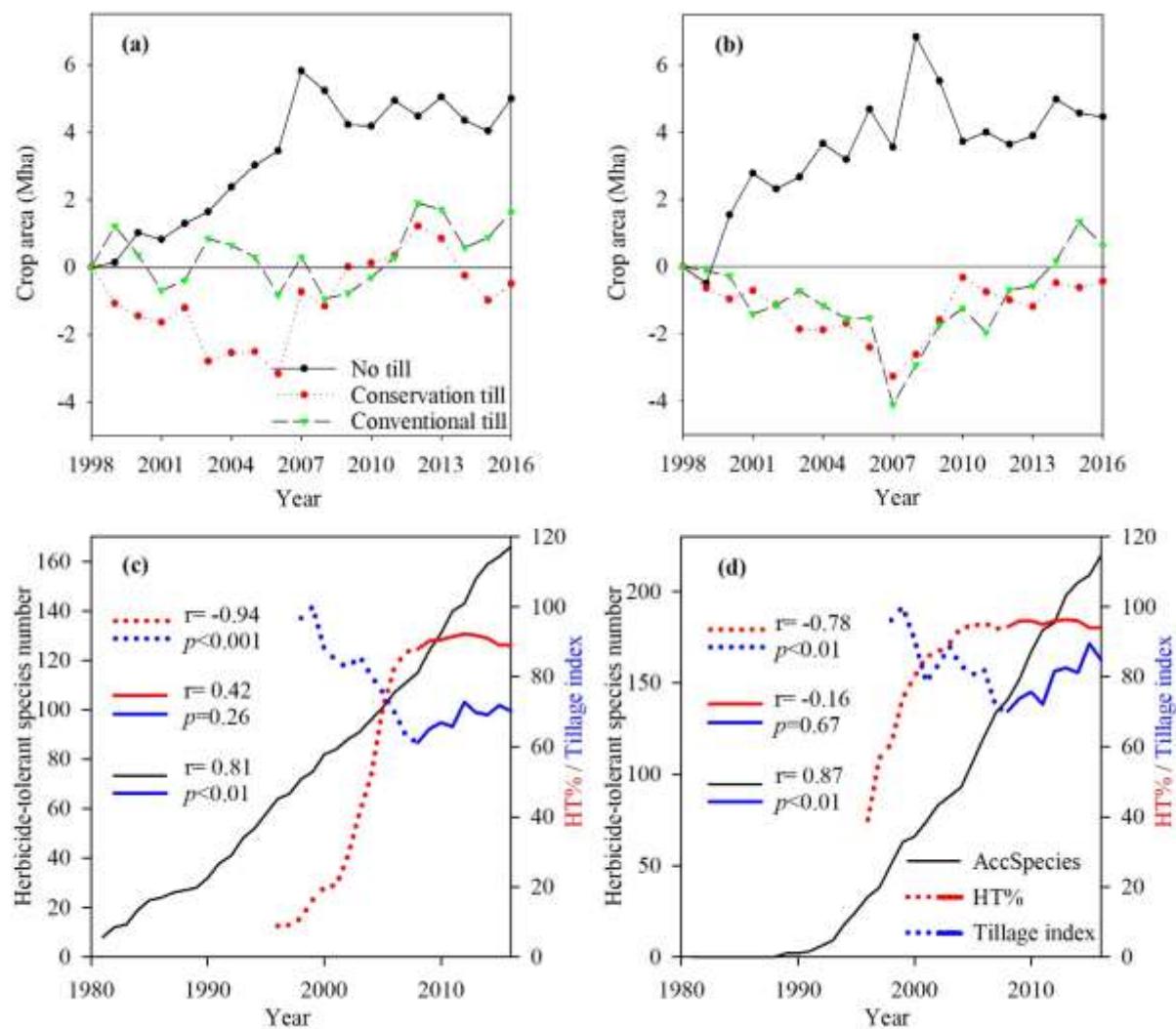
131 2b). No-till was used on 20%-33% (range of min to max) of national corn acreage, but it had a
132 much larger share (34%-55%) on soybean-planted lands over the study period (Figure S1 in
133 Supplementary Material). This supports the statement in Livingston (26) that soybean production
134 is more reliant on herbicide and less on tillage than is corn production. However, the no-till
135 shares estimated in our study only reflect the annual percentage of corn- and soybean-planted
136 areas under no-till according to the surveyed farm operators, without separating continuous or
137 intermittent no-till. By using the same definition of no-till (defined as the absence of any tillage
138 operation from harvest of the previous crop to harvest of the current crop), we found that the
139 acreage shares of no-till reported by our data were close to the three most recent field-level crop-
140 specific production practice surveys conducted by USDA Agricultural Resource Management
141 Survey (ARMS, i.e., 23%-27% of total corn acreage was under no-till in 2005, 2010, 2016, and
142 35-45% of total soybean acreage in 2002, 2006, 2012) (5).

143 Corn acreage under conventional tillage showed annual fluctuations around the zero line
144 (no change), while areas receiving conservation tillage first declined and then increased from
145 1998-2016. Soybean acreage under conservation and conventional tillage changed with a similar
146 pattern first declining until 2007 and then increasing with the 2016 level close to or above the
147 initial level of 1998. Increases in no-till crop acreage before 2008 predominantly occurred in the
148 Mississippi River Basin, the Corn Belt and Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley in particular, and
149 small areas along the U.S. east coast (Figure S2 in the Supplementary Material). Accordingly,
150 the acreage of conservation and conventional tillage decreased in these areas. However, the no-
151 till area declines after 2008 were mainly found in the Southern US and the southern part of the
152 Midwest, while intensifying tillage centered in the central and northern part of the Midwest
153 where a large amount of fertilizer has been applied to boost crop growth (27). The spatial

154 heterogeneity of tillage practice changes explained the faster GHG responses in Phase II shown
155 by conceptual diagram (Figure 1) and in our model estimations. Among states, the central (e.g.,
156 Illinois, Indiana, and Iowa) and western Corn Belt states (e.g., Nebraska, North Dakota, and
157 Minnesota) had large variations of different tillage practices over the years in corn and soybean
158 acreage (Figure S3-S4 in the Supplementary Material).

159 We examined the relationships among tillage intensity, crop seed varieties, and weed
160 resistance since 1998. Our analysis demonstrates that the early-stage (1998-2008) reduction in
161 tillage intensity was strongly correlated with the increases in national adoption rate of genetically
162 engineered HT corn and soybean varieties. The latter included seeds that had herbicide-tolerant
163 gene only, as well as stacked genes (i.e., with both herbicide-tolerant and insect-tolerant traits).
164 Nationally, the adoption rate of HT crops has substantially increased since the beginning of the
165 study period, and then reached a level above 90%, or close to 100% in some states during the
166 2000s (Figure S5-S6 in the Supplementary Material). The same survey data reveal that the
167 national average share of HT varieties in all the planted corn grew from 11% in 1998 to ~90%
168 after 2008, while HT soybean varieties increased from 61% in 1998 to ~95% since 2004. The
169 percentage of HT crops in soybean production started increasing earlier than that in corn
170 production, and reached the peak a few years earlier as well. The share of HT varieties in both
171 crops leveled off in the early- to mid-2000s, and thus had no significant relationship ($p > 0.1$)
172 with the post-2008 increases in tillage intensity. Nonetheless, we find that the increasing number
173 of herbicide-resistant weed species was closely correlated to the rising tillage intensity after 2008
174 (with a correlation coefficient of 0.81 in corn and 0.87 in soybean, $p < 0.01$, Fig 1c-1d).
175 Likewise, weed resistance to herbicide was more prevalent in the U.S. soybean production than
176 in corn production, with accumulative number of species up to 220 and 166, respectively, in the

177 year of 2016. It may be caused by more herbicide usage and less reliance on tillage in soybean
 178 production than in corn production. Similar results were reported by Livingston (26), in which
 179 5.6% of corn acres in 2010 and 40% of soybean acres in 2012 were identified as being infested
 180 by glyphosate-resistant weeds or declines in glyphosate effectiveness. Our results demonstrate
 181 the historical role of HT crop adoption and growing weed pressure in shifting of tillage intensity
 182 across the U.S. It also implies that, in the future, farmers are likely to adopt tillage practices on
 183 more cropped acres to control weeds given that tillage won't promote herbicide resistance.



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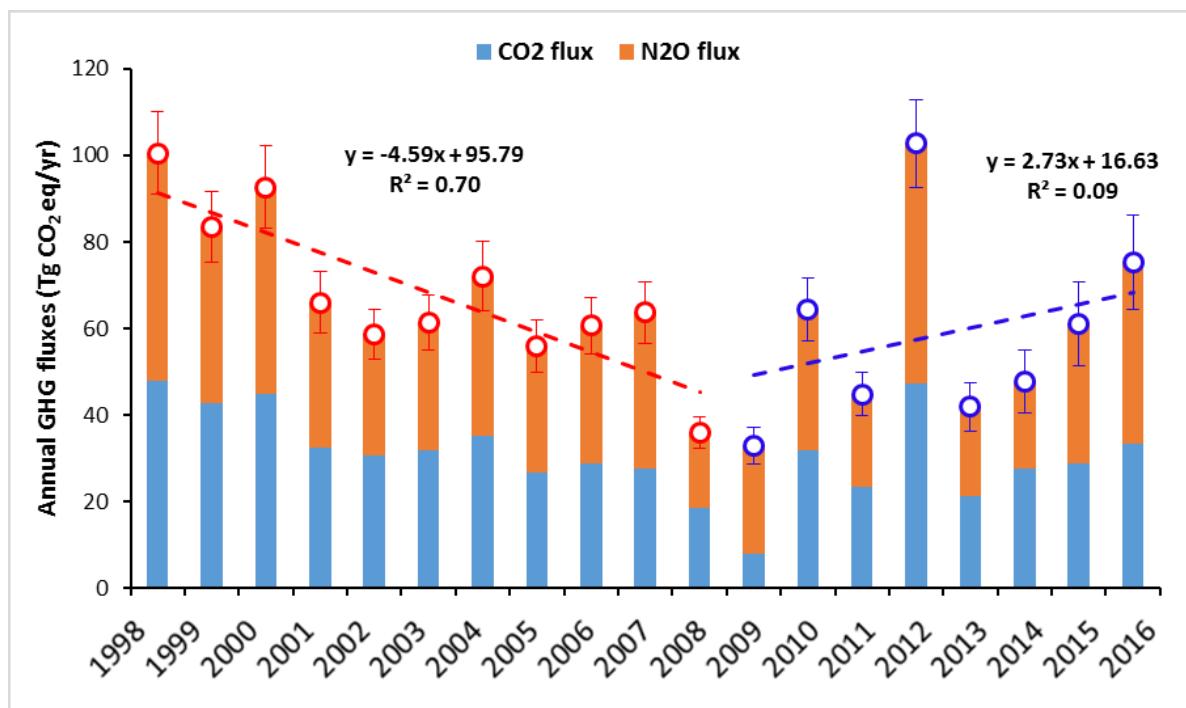
185 Figure 2. Annual changes of crop acreage under each tillage practice since 1998 for corn (a) and
186 soybean (b) in the lower 48 states of the U.S., and relationships between tillage intensity index
187 (*Tillage index*), accumulated species number (*AccSpecies*) of weeds that are resistant to
188 herbicides, and herbicide-tolerant crop planted percentage (*HT%*) for corn (c) and soybean (d).
189 Dotted and solid lines in figure c & d indicate the period before and after 2008, respectively.
190 Correlation coefficients indicate the relationship between the two lines specified.

191 ***Tillage impacts on GHG fluxes***

192 We set up a series of simulation experiments using DLEM to distinguish between and
193 quantify the impacts of historical tillage practices and tillage intensity change (TIC) on soil GHG
194 emissions. The former is estimated as the difference between the experiment driven by historical
195 tillage practices vs no-till scenario, while the latter reflects the differences between experiments
196 under varied vs fixed tillage practices (see Methods). Model simulation results show that
197 historical tillage practices during 1998-2016 resulted in net GHG emissions at a rate of $64.3 \pm$
198 $20.0 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$ (mean \pm SD, SD indicating inter-annual variability of GHG estimates). This is
199 **close to direct N₂O emission from national synthetic fertilizer uses** (i.e., $63.6 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$ in
200 2016 reported by EPA (28)), but with larger inter-annual variations (SD is 31% of mean). Nearly
201 half of the tillage impact was attributed to tillage-induced CO₂ emission from soils, and the rest
202 from direct soil N₂O emissions. In the context of multi-factor environmental changes, tillage
203 impacts were estimated to range from $32.9 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$ in 2009 to $102.8 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$ in 2012
204 (Fig 3). The highest tillage-induced GHG emissions we found in 2012 was likely caused by crop
205 mortality in the summer drought which limited crop N demand and provided more substrate for
206 decomposition and denitrification (29). The max-min GHG difference resulting from tillage
207 practices on the U.S. corn-soybean system was equivalent to 5-23% of the global GHG

208 mitigation potential of crop management (0.3-1.5 Pg CO₂ eq/yr (30)). This difference suggests a
209 sizeable GHG mitigation potential in tillage management, if the tillage decision can be made
210 with consideration of crop N demand/supply balance and impacts of climate extremes.

211 Our estimation shows that tillage-induced GHG emissions declined at an annual rate of
212 4.6 Tg CO₂/yr during 1998-2008, and then increased by 2.7 Tg CO₂ eq/yr during 2009-2016
213 (Figure 3). Regardless of change direction, the changing trends were at a similar level or higher
214 than the reported trend of annual GHG emissions from the U.S. Agriculture sector during 1990-
215 2016 (including CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O emissions from agricultural soil management, rice
216 cultivation, livestock and manure management, liming, and field burning of agricultural residues,
217 2.3 Tg CO₂ eq/yr (28)).



218
219 Figure 3. Model estimated impacts of tillage practices on GHG emissions in the U.S. corn-
220 soybean cropping system during 1998-2016. Error bar denotes modeled uncertainty, which is the
221 standard deviation calculated from multiple model runs with various values of key parameter sets

222 (details of uncertainty estimation and simulation experiments can be found in the Supplementary
223 Material). Note: The lowest tillage-induced GHG emission is not found in 2008 when national
224 tillage intensity was the lowest, because the complex interactions between tillage practices and
225 other environmental changes within managed croplands, as well as legacy effects of residual
226 removal, are also included in model estimations.

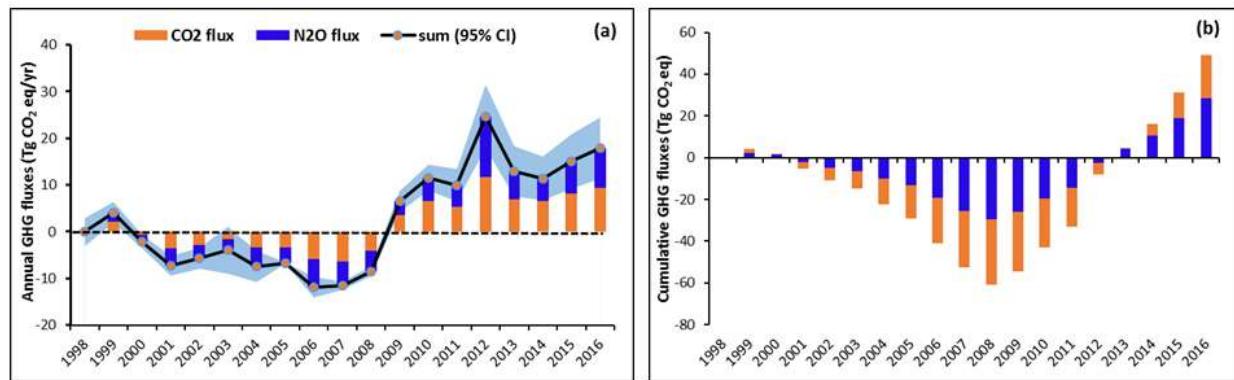
227 ***Impacts of tillage intensity change on net GHG fluxes***

228 Tillage impact on GHG emissions first declined during 1998-2008, and then increased
229 afterward, which was predominantly determined by tillage intensity change across the nation.
230 The GHG mitigation rate from tillage reduction alone in the period 1998-2008 (-5.5 ± 4.8 Tg
231 CO₂ eq/yr, 1998-2008, Fig 4a) could offset the annual GHG emission increase from the entire
232 US agriculture sector (28) over the same period, but this mitigation benefit disappeared after
233 2008, and the tillage impact shifted to accelerating GHG emissions. We estimated that the tillage
234 intensity increase during 2009-2016 resulted in a net GHG source of 13.8 ± 5.6 Tg CO₂ eq/yr,
235 more than doubled the GHG mitigation rate due to reduced tillage intensity in the preceding
236 decade.

237 We find that the declining tillage intensity cumulatively reduced GHG emissions by 61.0
238 Tg CO₂ eq during 1998-2008, while increased GHG emissions of 110.0 Tg CO₂ eq were caused
239 by intensifying tillage in the post-2008 period (Fig 4b). The cumulative impacts of tillage
240 practice change shifted from a net GHG sink to a net source in 2013. During the past ~two
241 decades (1998-2016), cumulative GHG emissions due to tillage intensity change in the U.S.
242 corn-soybean cropping system was estimated as 49.1 Tg CO₂ eq. This change was equivalent to
243 1.2 fold of the net GHG emission increase from the whole U.S. agriculture sector during the
244 same period (annual increase rate of 2.18 Tg CO₂ eq/yr for 19 years, 41.4 Tg CO₂ eq in total

245 (28)). The model estimates in the U.S. corn-soybean system reveal that the tillage intensity
246 changes over the past two decades are large enough to shape the dynamics of national
247 agricultural soil GHG fluxes.

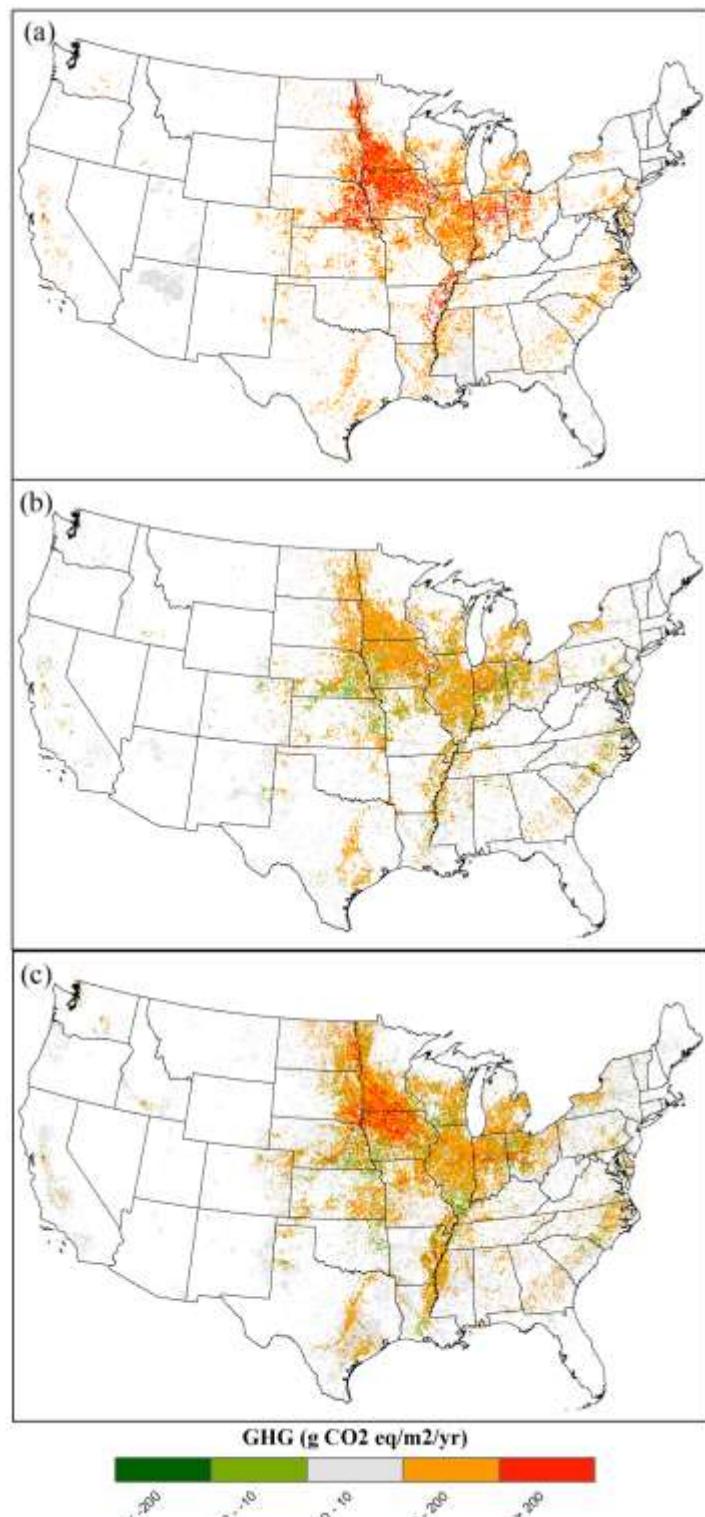
248 Our work implies that the benefit of HT crop adoption in reducing tillage has reached its
249 peak, while the emerging weed resistance is found to contribute to intensifying tillage practices.
250 As weed resistance persists and grows, tillage intensity is anticipated to continue to rise, which
251 would further increase GHG emissions and contribute to global warming.



252
253 Figure 4 Annual average (a) and accumulated (b) CO₂ and N₂O fluxes (both in the unit of CO₂
254 equivalent) resulted from tillage intensity change relative to the year 1998 (for the period 1998-
255 2008) and the year 2008 (for the period 2009-2016). We selected 2008 as a benchmark year for
256 the post-2008 assessment because national tillage intensity started to increase from this year. The
257 cumulative GHG fluxes in Figure b reflects how soon the GHG mitigation during 1998-2008 has
258 been offset by the increased GHG emissions after 2008. The shaded area in panel (a) stands for a
259 95% confidence interval as calculated from multiple simulation experiments with prescribed
260 parameter values.

261 ***Spatial patterns of tillage and tillage practice change impacts***

262 Our model estimations indicate a substantial impact of historical tillage adoption on GHG fluxes,
263 equivalent to the role of agricultural fertilizer input. Still, there exist large inter-annual variations
264 due to tillage intensity changes and their interaction with other factors such as climate variability
265 and crop resource use efficiencies. Spatially, the highest tillage-induced GHG emissions are
266 found to center in the Corn Belt area in 1998, the prairie pothole region in particular, including
267 northern Iowa and southwestern Minnesota (Fig 5). Due to the decline in tillage intensity, GHG
268 emissions in 2008 were reduced, which was consistent with the spatial shift of tillage intensity
269 across the region (Figure S2 and S9 in the Supplementary Material). However, GHG emissions
270 due to tillage rebounded in 2016, with a pattern similar to the year of 1998 but wider source
271 areas (Fig 5). The reduced GHG emissions under tillage practices (shown by greenish colors in
272 Fig 5) reflect more weight on the mechanisms that tillage can reduce denitrification rate and
273 residue retention in these areas.

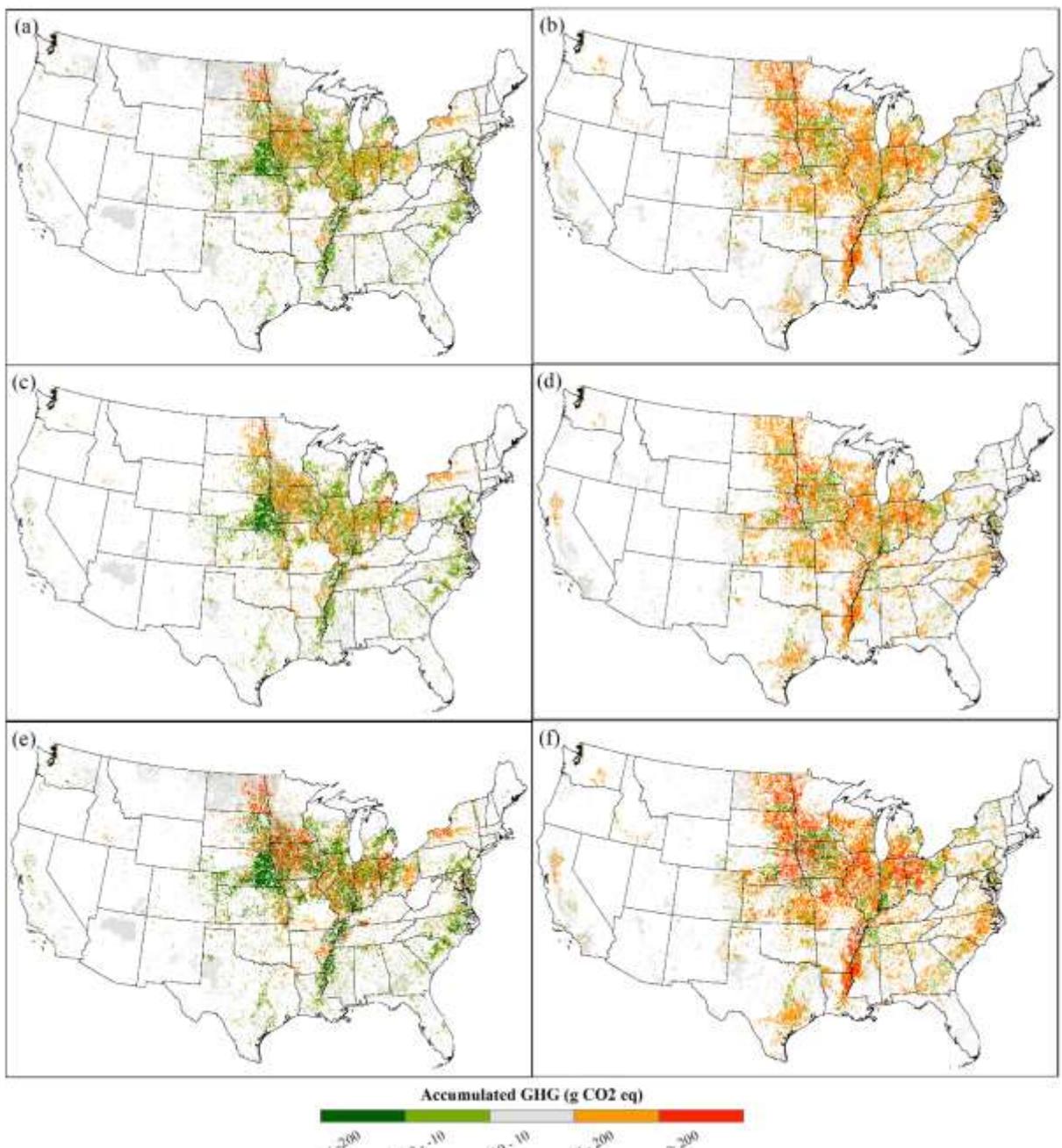


274

275 Figure 5. Model estimated GHG fluxes due to the historical use of tillage in the year of 1998 (a),
276 2008 (b), and 2016 (c) across the US corn-soybean cropping system

277 In terms of the impacts of tillage intensity changes, we find the spatial distribution and
278 magnitude for the accumulated CO₂ are similar to those of N₂O fluxes before and after 2008 (Fig
279 6). However, the spatial coverages of tillage affected areas differ between these two periods. The
280 considerable spatial heterogeneity in the GHG flux responses (i.e., a mixture of negative and
281 positive of values) are primarily caused by the variations in local climate, soil properties, and
282 cropping system mixed with tillage intensity changes across the country (Fig 6, Fig S2 in the
283 Supplementary Material). The areas with increased GHG emissions due to intensifying tillage
284 after 2008 covered the entire Corn Belt, Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley. In particular, the
285 western Corn Belt including the Dakotas and part of Minnesota stood out with high emission
286 rate, in which corn and soybean cropping systems expanded in the most recent decade (31–33).
287 They are found to be larger than the pre-2008 GHG mitigation areas that resulted from reducing
288 tillage, which are concentrated in the central Corn Belt, Lower Mississippi Alluvial Valley, and
289 the U.S. east coast.

290



291

292 Figure 6. Accumulated GHG fluxes (g CO₂ eq/m²) due to tillage intensity changes across the
 293 U.S. corn-soybean cropping system during 1998-2008 (accumulated in 11 years, left panel) and
 294 2009-2016 (accumulated in 8 years, right panel): fluxes of CO₂ (a, b), N₂O (c, d), and their sum
 295 (e, f).

296 ***Uncertainties with fall tillage practice considered***

297 Most tillage is implemented in spring. It should be noted that fall tillage may be adopted before
298 and in addition to spring tillage on some farmlands, but we do not exactly know where and when
299 the double tillage was implemented across the country. Considering both spring and fall tillage,
300 our model predicted that historical tillage practices could lead to a net GHG emission of $92.4 \pm$
301 $22.0 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$ (mean \pm SD) during the study period. This prediction shows an upper bound
302 of estimated tillage impacts, approximately 44% higher than the estimation considering spring
303 tillage only. Assuming that all corn and soybean fields under tillage were tilled twice a year (in
304 both spring and fall), we estimate that the increased tillage intensity in the period 2009-2016
305 increased GHG emissions by $20.5 \pm 7.2 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$, while the reduced tillage intensity before
306 2008 caused a reduction in GHG emissions by $7.0 \pm 6.6 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq/yr}$. As a result, the
307 corresponding tillage intensity change-induced accumulated GHG flux changes during 1998-
308 2016 were found to be approximately 78% higher than the estimates driven by spring tillage only
309 (i.e., $87.5 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq}$ under tillage twice a year versus $49.1 \text{ Tg CO}_2 \text{ eq}$ under spring tillage only).
310 Despite the uncertainty caused by the lack of detailed tillage frequency data, our estimates
311 provide a lower and an upper bound on tillage practice impacts, which strengthened our
312 conclusion that there is substantial GHG mitigation potential through managing tillage practices.

313 The spatially explicit annual tillage maps used to drive the model simulation in this study
314 was developed by combining time-series crop type and distribution maps, soil erodibility ranking
315 maps, and the Crop Reporting District (CRD)-level farmers survey during 1998-2016. Due to
316 limited information, we assume that the no-till practice has the highest likelihood of being
317 adopted on the highly erodible lands in each CRD. Our data show that the continuous no-till
318 areas account for 10% of total corn and soybean acreage during 1998-2016, with an additional

319 5% of corn and soybean acreage under tillage only once since 1998. These numbers are lower
320 than but comparable to the values reported in a four-year survey conducted by USDA ARMS,
321 which shows 18% of corn-planted area under continuous no-till/strip-till in 2016 and the three
322 years preceding the survey year, and 21% for soybean in 2012 and three years before that (5).
323 The reasons for lower proportion of continuous no-till in our spatial tillage maps include: 1)
324 these data cover longer time period; 2) no-till in our data are defined as the absence of tillage
325 practice and where strip-till is excluded. The long-term survey data we rely on to develop tillage
326 maps in this study have multi-year survey records for some farms (e.g., area percentage under
327 no-till, conservation and conventional tillage in each year), but plot-level arrangement may
328 change over time and remain difficult to track. Even though our data have a lower share of
329 continuous no-till than those reported by the four-year survey, we may still overestimate the no-
330 till share over a ~two-decade time frame considering the spatial tillage arrangement within a
331 farm. The assumption that we made to always assign no-till to highly erodible lands first may
332 have slightly underestimated the historical tillage-induced GHG emissions across the US corn-
333 soybean cropping system, while overestimating GHG mitigation due to tillage intensity change
334 during 1998-2008 and underestimating TIC-induced GHG emissions during 2009-2016. The
335 uncertainty in the estimated GHG consequences of tillage practices indicates the importance of
336 implementing a long-term survey and identifying the places and duration of continuous no-till
337 practices across the U.S.

338 Tillage intensity changes can affect GHG emission beyond field, among which CO₂
339 emission from agricultural machinery is an GHG source to be considered. Due to the lack of
340 data, we used two extreme-case scenarios to estimate the amount of machinery CO₂ emissions
341 associated with tillage practice changes. We assume that 1) machinery change from decreasing

342 tillage intensity was all attributed to the shift from conventional tillage to no-till, and vice versa
343 for increasing tillage intensity, and 2) increasing no-till areas were all converted from
344 conventional tillage and reducing no-till areas were all converted to conventional tillage. The
345 tillage conversion area was counted repetitively every year after the conversion occurred to
346 estimate the fuel-derive CO₂ emissions. Based on our data, the no-till practice implemented on
347 additional corn and soybean acreage were found to be 55.6 Mha, cumulatively, during 1998-
348 2008; while the reduced no-till acreage summed to 29 Mha during 2009-2016. Using machinery
349 emission data obtained from Adler et al (34) (i.e., 17.01 Kg C/ha from plow vs 0 from no till),
350 such assumption will result in a reduced GHG emission at 0.315 Tg CO₂ eq/yr for the period of
351 1998 to 2008, and an additional GHG source of 0.226 Tg CO₂ eq/yr for the period of 2009 to
352 2016. Both scenarios show a minor contribution from the changed machinery emissions,
353 compared with soil GHG emissions driven by tillage intensity changes.

354 **Outlook**

355 This study demonstrated a shift in national tillage intensity for the corn-soybean system
356 during 1998-2016, and examined the role of tillage practices and their intensity changes in
357 affecting GHG emissions from the U.S. corn-soybean planted soils. The findings suggest that the
358 GHG mitigation benefit gained from the tillage intensity reduction during 1998- 2008 have been
359 offset by tillage practice re-intensification since 2008. Without an effective strategy to control
360 weeds, tillage intensity is expected to continue growing and undermine the GHG mitigation
361 achievements from other activities or other sectors. On the other hand, this study implies that the
362 farmers' choices in managing glyphosate resistance, such as not applying glyphosate during
363 consecutive growing seasons, using glyphosate during fewer years, and combining it with other
364 herbicides (13), may help mitigate agricultural GHG emissions.

365 While we assessed our estimation uncertainties caused by model assumptions, limited data
366 about tillage practices, and key parameter values, there remain knowledge gaps that hinder us from
367 accurately predicting the consequences of tillage intensity changes. For example, it remains
368 uncertain how sensitive crop growth, terrestrial carbon and nitrogen cycling, as well as GHG fluxes
369 are to different tillage practices with a combination of environmental stressors including climate
370 and emergence of herbicide-resistant weeds (29, 35). In addition, the environmental impacts differ
371 between simplified and diversified cropping systems (36, 37). Research has also been very limited
372 on how land conversion, crop rotation, and tillage practices interact in affecting agricultural GHG
373 balance and climate mitigation. This increases uncertainty in accounting for both carbon debt (38,
374 39), soil carbon storage change (40, 41), and GHG balance as indicated in this work. We therefore
375 suggest future research to examine the previously overlooked patterns and drivers responsible for
376 rotation and crop-specific tillage intensity change through data analysis and modeling, and to
377 improve our understanding of responses and feedback between agroecosystem management and
378 climate system.

379

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386 **Author contributions**

387 C.L., D.A.H., and H.F. conceived and designed the research. C.L. and Y.Z. developed tillage data
388 sets, carried out model simulations, analyzed the model results, and wrote the manuscript. D.A.H.
389 and H.F. synthesized and interpreted the farmers survey data and contributed to the tillage data
390 development. H.T., and D.H. helped with model validation, result interpretation and discussion.
391 All co-authors reviewed and contributed to the manuscript.

392

393 **Competing interests**

394 The authors declare no competing interests.

395 **Methods**

396 ***Data Information***

397 The database we used to characterize corn and soybean tillage practice intensity and HT
398 crop adoption rate was mainly from a nationwide survey of farmer choices at the field (i.e., plot)
399 level of analysis. The data were purchased from Kynetec, the most prominent commercial
400 surveying company in U.S. agriculture. Coverage purchased was for the 1998-2016 crop years.
401 Farmers were queried about cultivation practice intensity, including no-till, conservation tillage
402 (e.g., ridge till, mulch till), and conventional tillage (e.g., moldboard plow, chisel plow, disk
403 harrow) in each USDA Crop Reporting District (CRD). Although location is available at the
404 county level, data collection procedures are intended to establish representativeness at USDA Crop
405 Reporting District (CRD) level of disaggregation. A CRD is comprised of about nine contiguous
406 counties that are also similar in cropping conditions. For each of the corn and soybean crops and
407 for each year over the period, about 4,000-4,500 independent farm operators were paid to complete
408 the survey. Respondents were identified by various means, including through federal information

409 regarding participation in government programs. Data used in this manuscript were collected
410 primarily through telephone calls where multiple attempts will be made in order to ensure high
411 participation rates and so representativeness. The company implements rigorous protocols to
412 ensure that interviewers and interview supervisors are trained to implement consistent,
413 standardized procedures for data collection, quality screening and subsequent data
414 transcription/processing.

415 The 1998-2011 section of these data have been used elsewhere to inquire into how
416 glyphosate tolerant soybean seed has influenced tillage practices (13), genetically engineered crops
417 have affected pesticide use (42) and confusion in herbicide choices (43). The soybean part of these
418 data have been recently used to examine the relationship of between the widespread of glyphosate-
419 resistant weeds and reduction in the conservation tillage in soybean production (16). As far as we
420 know, no alternative data source on actual annual tillage choices exists in the United States that
421 covers the period 2005-2016, a critical time in light of seed technology innovations.

422 From this database we obtained the annual information of seed varieties, including state-
423 level adoption of HT crops, and annual percentage of tillage types at the CRD level. Weed species
424 data were obtained from <http://www.weedscience.org/>. To demonstrate the comprehensive
425 dynamics of acreage changes under different tillage practices, we use a unit-less indicator to
426 represent national and state-level tillage intensity (TI) by considering the area share of no-till,
427 conservation and conventional tillage. First, we identified the max tillage intensity from sum of
428 the three ratio during the period of 1998 to 2016 for each state or entire country. Second, we
429 normalized the weight of acres under intensive tillage practice to those under less intensive tillage
430 groups. Note that the index was normalized by the max tillage intensity in a given area (i.e. state

431 or entire US), which depicts the temporal changes of tillage intensity in each specific region and
432 it was not comparable between regions.

433 $TI_{max} = \max (A_Till_{CV,i,j}/A_Till_{CS,i,j} + A_Till_{CV,i,j}/A_Till_{NT,i,j} + A_Till_{CS,i,j}/A_Till_{NT,i,j})$

434 $TI_{i,j} = \frac{(A_Till_{CV,i,j}/A_Till_{CS,i,j} + A_Till_{CV,i,j}/A_Till_{NT,i,j} + A_Till_{CS,i,j}/A_Till_{NT,i,j})}{TI_{max}} \times 100\%$

435 where A_Till_{CV} , A_Till_{CS} , and A_Till_{NT} stand for corn or soybean acreage under conventional
436 tillage, conservation tillage, and no till, respectively. Subscript i denotes corn or soybean, and
437 subscript j denotes year.

438 We harmonized 1-km time-series gridded cropland distribution and type maps for the
439 contiguous U.S. (44, 45) with the CRD-level percentage data of corn/soybean acreage that adopted
440 the three tillage types to spatialize the annual tillage-specific area data (46). The annual maps of
441 various tillage practices have been used to force the model to assess their impacts on GHG fluxes.
442 More details on tillage intensity change can be found in Figure S1-6 in the Supplementary Material.

443 ***Modeling Approach***

444 We adopted a process-based land ecosystem model, DLEM (Dynamic Land Ecosystem
445 Model), to assess the impacts of tillage practices on net fluxes of CO₂ and N₂O from the
446 agricultural soils in the U.S. Corn-soybean cropping system. The DLEM is unique in incorporating
447 multiple environmental drivers, grid-to-grid connectivity through river systems, and simultaneous
448 estimation of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O fluxes (47–49). Its agricultural module has been intensively
449 calibrated and validated in upland and lowland croplands across countries and the entire world,
450 and has been widely used to quantify the contributions of multi-factor environmental changes to
451 ecosystem functions (32, 49–54). We have validated the DLEM’s performance in simulating soil

452 organic carbon content and tillage impacts on SOC dynamics across the U.S. in our previous work
453 (31, 45, 46). In this study, we implemented additional model validation by comparing model
454 estimates with measured N₂O fluxes under no-till and conventional tillage practice in a corn-
455 planting site in Tennessee (Fig S7 in the Supplementary Material).

456 To distinguish the impacts of tillage practice change from other environmental drivers and
457 human activities, we set up a series of simulation experiments by turning on and off tillage practice
458 changes at a few time points (more details in section 3.4 in the Supplementary Material). To
459 characterize other natural environmental changes and human practices and to force the model, a
460 number of time-series gridded data sets have been developed at the same resolution spanning from
461 1850-2016. In addition to tillage practice, the model input data include daily climate condition
462 (max, min and mean temperature, precipitation, shortwave solar radiation, and relative humidity),
463 monthly atmospheric N deposition, air CO₂ concentration, annual land use and cover change, and
464 major agricultural management practices (such as crop-specific N fertilizer use, manure N
465 application, tile drainage, crop rotation). More details regarding the input data can be found in
466 section 3.3 in the Supplementary Material.

467 Our analysis focused on the period of 1998-2016, during which consistently collected
468 annual tillage practice data for the corn-soybean cropping system were available. In Experiment I,
469 the model was driven by historically varying tillage intensity and other historical input drivers
470 including daily climate, atmospheric composition (e.g., CO₂ concentration, N deposition), land use
471 and cover changes, and agricultural management practices (such as nitrogen fertilizer uses, crop
472 rotation, tile drainage etc.) for the contiguous U.S. at the resolution of 5 arc-min × 5 arc-min. This
473 experiment provided our “best estimates” of biogenic greenhouse gas fluxes in the U.S. corn-
474 soybean cropping systems which were comparable to observations.

475 Experiments II and III fixed the location and cropland area under conservation and
476 conventional till at the level of 1998 and 2008, respectively. The difference between these two
477 experiments and Experiment I can be used to quantify the impacts of tillage intensity change (TIC)
478 on GHG fluxes during the period 1998-2008 and 2009-2016, respectively. We set up Experiment
479 IV to represent a hypothetical case in which the no-till practice was adopted in all the cropland
480 area since 1998. The difference between Experiment I and IV represented the impact of the
481 historical tillage practice pattern in the corn-soybean system (Table S1 and Figure S8 in the
482 Supplementary Material).

483 We calculated CO₂ fluxes as the year-by-year SOC changes excluding DOC leaching and
484 CH₄ fluxes. Because the CO₂ assimilation into crop biomass will be eventually consumed
485 somewhere else, we only counted CO₂ emission from soils in this study. Likewise, only soil direct
486 N₂O emissions were included for estimating the net GHG emissions here. Methane (CH₄) fluxes
487 were not included in the calculation of net GHG balance because its total amount was negligible
488 in the corn/soybean-planted areas. We used 100-year global warming potential to convert the
489 fluxes of CO₂ and N₂O from gram C and gram N into gram CO₂ eq (1, 49).

$$490 F_{CO_2^i} = (SOC_{i-1} - SOC_i) - F_{DOC_{leaching}^i} - F_{CH_4^i}; \quad eq. (1)$$

$$491 E_{CO_2^i} = F_{CO_2^i} / 12 \times 44; \quad eq. (2)$$

$$492 E_{N_2O^i} = (F_{N_2O^i} / 28) \times 44 \times 265; \quad eq. (3)$$

$$493 E_{net^i} = E_{CO_2^i} + E_{N_2O^i}; \quad eq. (4)$$

494 in which $F_{CO_2^i}$ and $F_{N_2O^i}$ are fluxes of CO₂ and N₂O in the unit of Tg C/yr and Tg N/yr,
495 respectively, and $E_{CO_2^i}$ and $E_{N_2O^i}$ are emissions of CO₂ and N₂O in the unit of Tg CO₂ eq.

496 Negative values represent GHG uptake from the atmosphere, while positive values stand for GHG
497 emissions from soils. In eq. (1), we approximated CO₂ flux as the between-year SOC storage
498 change minus DOC leaching and CH₄ emissions. We estimated the annual net fluxes of CO₂ and
499 N₂O in each simulation experiment, and the impacts of historical tillage practices and tillage
500 intensity change were quantified as the differences between experiments as described above.

501 For our “best-estimate” simulations, tillage was implemented in spring when corn or
502 soybean was planted. Generally, previous-year fall tillage may also be adopted before spring tillage
503 in part of the study areas, but it remains uncertain where they are and how often farmers have
504 undertaken more than one tillage practices a year (55). Therefore, we designed two types of
505 experiments to quantify the impacts of with- and without-fall tillage practice following the protocol
506 described in our previous study (46). More specifically, fall tillage was assumed to have been
507 implemented two weeks after harvest. In this study, we used simulations driven by spring-tillage
508 as our ‘best-estimate’, while the experiments with corn-soybean land tilled twice annually (i.e.
509 both fall and spring tillage) represented more intensive soil disturbance scenarios and provided the
510 upper bound on tillage impact estimations.

511

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